The evolution of thermal performance in native and invasive populations of *Mimulus*

guttatus

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Abstract

1. The rise of globalization has spread organisms beyond their natural range, allowing further opportunity for introduced species to adapt to novel environments and potentially become aggressive invaders. Yet, the role of niche evolution in promoting the success of invasive species remains poorly understood. Here, we use thermal performance curves (TPCs) to test the following hypotheses about thermal adaptation during the invasion process. First, in response to strong selection from novel temperature regimes, populations in the invasive range should evolve distinct TPCs relative to native populations. Second, by exhibiting a broad TPC with high maximum performance, invasive species may overcome specialist-generalist tradeoffs, whereby tolerance across a wide range of temperatures comes at the cost of lower peak performance. Third, with sufficient time, standing genetic variation, and temperature-mediated selection, native and invasive populations may exhibit parallel adaptation to thermal gradients.

2. To test these hypotheses, we built TPCs for 18 native (United States) and 13 invasive (United Kingdom) populations of the yellow monkeyflower, *Mimulus guttatus*. We grew clones of multiple genotypes per population across a range of temperatures in growth chambers.

3. We found that invasive populations have not evolved different thermal optima or thermal performance breadths, and there were similar specialist-generalist tradeoffs in both native and invasive populations. Consistent with the hypothesis that they are thermal generalists, native and invasive populations did not exhibit adaptive clines in thermal performance breadth with latitude or temperature seasonality. Thermal optimum increased with mean annual temperature in the native and invasive ranges. However, this relationship was primarily driven by populations in the native range, with weak adaptive differentiation of thermal optimum across mean annual temperature in the invasive range. Because thermal breadth of native and invasive populations

did not differ and the invasive range exhibits a narrow range of thermal conditions compared to

the native range, there may not have been strong selection for thermal specialization in the

invasive range.

4. *Synthesis:* These findings suggest that broad thermal tolerance, rather than rapid adaptation in

the novel range, may promote invasion.

Key-words: adaptive divergence, evolutionary ecology, invasion ecology, latitudinal gradient,

phenotypic cline, specialist-generalist tradeoff, thermal performance curve, thermal tolerance

Introduction

Invasive species are one of the greatest threats to biodiversity in the 21st century, and

while the importance of managing their spread is widely recognized, the factors that contribute to

a species becoming invasive are still debated (Sala et al., 2000; Lee, 2002; van Kleunen,

Dawson, & Maurel, 2015). Baker's classic description of "ideal weeds" suggested that invasive

species originate from "general-purpose" genotypes with broad climatic tolerances and high

phenotypic plasticity, allowing them to proliferate in novel environments within their introduced

range (Baker, 1965). However, specialist-generalist tradeoffs suggest that broad climatic

tolerance may come with energetic costs (Richards, Bossdorf, Muth, Gurevitch, & Pigliucci,

2006; Le Vinh Thuy, VandenBrooks, & Angilletta, 2016). Invasive species may also undergo

rapid climatic niche evolution in response to novel selective pressures in the introduced range,

which can result in niche shifts, or even the re-establishment of latitudinal clines in phenotypic

traits following environmental gradients (Harper, 1965; Lee, 2002; Davidson, Jennions, &

Nicotra, 2011; Li, Du, Guan, Yu, & van Kleunen, 2016; Hernández, Poverene, Garayalde, &

Presotto, 2019; van Boheemen, Atwater, & Hodgins, 2019). Although both general-purpose

genotypes and rapid evolution upon introduction likely contribute to invasion, studies rarely

consider both in tandem (Whitney & Gabler, 2008; Davidson et al., 2011). We seek to

simultaneously explore climatic niche evolution, specialist-generalist tradeoffs, and local

adaptation to provide a more comprehensive view of species invasions. Examination of the

ecological and evolutionary processes that facilitate invasion can answer long-standing questions

surrounding range expansion and niche shifts, as well as provide insight toward creating optimal

land management practices to predict and control biological invasions.

One dimension of a species climatic niche that influences its ability to invade new areas

is temperature. Thermal performance curves (TPCs, Fig. 1A) describe the performance of a

genotype, individual, population, or species across a temperature gradient (Huey & Stevenson,

1979). Some TPC parameters that have been hypothesized to influence adaptation to temperature

gradients include maximum performance, thermal optimum, thermal performance breadth, and

area under the curve (Huey & Stevenson, 1979; Sheth & Angert, 2014; Wooliver, Tittes, &

Sheth, 2020; Fig. 1A). Maximum performance is the highest level of performance achievable,

corresponding to the peak of the TPC. Thermal optimum details the temperature at which

maximum performance is achieved (Huey & Stevenson, 1979). Thermal performance breadth

describes the span of temperatures across which a specified percentage of the maximum

performance is achieved (Huey & Stevenson, 1979). This value is related to thermal niche width,

with specialists having narrow breadth, and generalists having wide breadth (Huey & Stevenson,

1979). Finally, the area under the curve refers to the total amount of area between a TPC and the

temperature axis, analogous to total thermal niche space. Evolutionary divergence of TPC

parameters between invasive and native populations of the same species may explain the success

of invasive species in their introduced range. However, the realization of these changes depends

on standing genetic variation for TPC parameters, which provides the evolutionary fuel for

selection (Prentis, Wilson, Dormontt, Richardson, & Lowe, 2008). Further, if invasive

populations either are generalists that can tolerate a wide range of temperatures, or experience

little to no temperature-mediated selection in the novel range, evolutionary change may be

slowed or prevented altogether (Prentis et al., 2008; van Boheemen et al., 2019).

Evolutionary change in thermal performance breadth may contribute towards the success

of invasive species. On one hand, invasive populations could evolve a broader TPC upon

introduction in response to novel conditions, which could increase the probability of a species

becoming established in new thermal regimes (Zerebecki & Sorte, 2011; Bates et al., 2013; van

Kleunen, Röckle, & Stift, 2015). Populations can achieve broad TPCs through a combination of

phenotypic plasticity and standing genetic variation (Sheth & Angert, 2014). Selection for

greater phenotypic plasticity, which can permit high performance across a broad range of

temperatures, may occur due to rapid changes in thermal regimes upon introduction to a novel

range and can promote subsequent evolutionary adaptation (Richards et al., 2006; Lande, 2009;

Donohue, 2013; Valladares et al., 2014; Lande, 2015). Further, increases in thermal performance

breadth are also achievable in instances of introduction from multiple differentiated source

populations to the novel range, where admixture may produce invasive populations with higher

genetic variation than native populations (Kolbe, Glor, Rodriguez, Ada, & Lara, 2004; Lavergne

& Molofsky, 2007). However, genetic bottlenecks that occurred during founding events may

constrain the ability of invasive populations to occupy conditions beyond those which they are

already adapted to survive, or even cause reductions in breadth due to genetic drift (Kitayama &

Mueller☐Dombois, 1995; Daehler, 2003). Invasive species, which initially experience

significant reductions of population size upon introduction, may therefore experience niche

unfilling, which can reduce the range of temperatures that they occupy (González-Moreno, Diez,

Richardson, & Vila, 2015). Given these differing processes, invasive populations of a species

may exhibit a broader thermal tolerance (due to selection for increased plasticity and/or

admixture) or narrower tolerance (due to bottlenecks and/or niche unfilling) than their native

counterparts (Fig. 1B). Alternatively, if source populations represent general-purpose genotypes,

they may be predisposed toward having broad TPCs which can be maintained in the invasive

range. Further studies on the role of thermal tolerance in invasion will improve our

understanding of the evolutionary mechanisms governing range expansions, as well as predict

how invasive species may fare under changing climates.

The ability to persist over a wider range of temperatures can come at the cost of lower

maximum performance in both native and invasive populations. This hypothesis is commonly

referred to as the "jack-of-all-temperatures is a master of none" scenario or a specialist-generalist

tradeoff (Huey & Hertz, 1984; Richards et al., 2006; Le Vinh Thuy et al., 2016). Populations

exhibiting such a tradeoff will maintain high performance across a broad range of temperatures,

but will not perform as well at the thermal optimum as populations specialized to a narrower

range of temperatures due to additional energetic costs (Dewitt, Sih, & Wilson, 1998; Richards et

al., 2006; Fig. 1C). In contrast, populations that have a narrower TPC may avoid these costs and

perform higher at their thermal optima. This tradeoff operates under the assumption that the area

under the TPC remains constant (Palaima & Spitze, 2004; Angert, Sheth, & Paul, 2011), but

some species do not meet this assumption due to physiological or biochemical alterations among

genotypes or populations that allow higher performance across a broad range of temperatures

(Angilletta, Wilson, Navas, & James, 2003; Richards et al., 2006). This phenomenon, which has

been referred to as "jack-and-master", or "master of all" (Richards et al., 2006; Matesanz &

Sultan, 2013; Sheth & Angert, 2014), may be one mechanism that stimulates the invasive

capabilities of a species.

Another TPC parameter that may track local thermal regimes is thermal optimum.

Transplant experiments indicate that local adaptation is ubiquitous across many plant taxa

(Savolainen, Pyhäjärvi, & Knürr, 2007; Hereford, 2009; Galliart et al., 2019). Adaptation to local

climatic conditions in the introduced range may result in niche shifts in invasive populations

relative to native populations (Chapman, Scalone, Štefanić, & Bullock, 2017; Konowalik &

Kolanowska, 2018). Thus, shifts in thermal optima may accompany changes in local thermal

regimes between the native and invasive range (Fig. 1D. Nonetheless, if invasive populations

have broad TPCs, selection for other TPC parameters may be relaxed, preventing evolutionary

shifts in optima in the invasive range (Murren et al., 2015). To date, there are few empirical

studies which compare TPCs of native and invasive populations of a single species (but see

Comeault et al., 2020), particularly in plants.

Given a temperature or latitudinal gradient, populations with sufficient time and genetic

variation may exhibit adaptative clines in TPC parameters in response to temperature-mediated

selection, and rapid local adaptation may facilitate invasion success (Prentis et al., 2008; Oduor,

Leimu, & van Kleunen, 2016). Failure to account for the presence of latitudinal or environmental

clines can mask inferences of trait evolution between native and invasive ranges (Colautti,

Maron, & Barrett, 2009). Adaptive phenotypic clines across geographic, latitudinal, or climatic

gradients are commonly detected in both native and invasive ranges (Li et al., 2016; Thawley,

Goldy-Brown, McCormick, Graham, & Langkilde, 2018; Hernández et al., 2019; van Boheemen

et al., 2019; Fig. 1E-G). For example, thermal optimum decreased with increasing latitude in

populations of the scarlet monkeyflower, *Mimulus cardinalis* (Angert et al., 2011). Consistent

with an adaptive phenotypic cline, tracking local temperatures should result in higher thermal

optima at lower latitudes (Fig. 1E) and/or at higher mean annual temperatures (Angert et al.,

2011; Fig. 1F). Further, as temperature seasonality typically increases with latitude, populations

across a species range should show clines of increasing thermal performance breadth across both

latitude and seasonality (often referred to as the climate variability hypothesis, CVH;

Dobzhansky, 1950; Janzen, 1967; Stevens, 1989; Gutiérrez-Pesquera et al., 2016; Fig. 1G). Thus,

with sufficient time since introduction, ample standing genetic variation, and strong temperature-

mediated selection, clines in these TPC parameters should be repeated and parallel across the

native and invasive ranges (Hernández et al., 2019; Fig. 1E-G). However, if invasive populations

have not had sufficient time or standing genetic variation for adaptation to novel temperature

gradients, or if temperature-mediated selection in the introduced range is weak, then phenotypic

clines may be shallower in the invasive range than in the native range, or even absent altogether

(Bhattarai et al., 2017; Fig. 1E-G). In addition, if invasive populations have broad TPCs,

selection for clines of thermal optimum may be relaxed due to the ability to tolerate a wide range

of temperatures. The timescale and circumstances which facilitate rapid local adaptation remain

unclear. Understanding the ability and rate at which invasive species adapt to local conditions

may further our ability to predict niche and range expansion in invasive species.

In this study, we compare TPCs of invasive and native populations of the yellow

monkeyflower, *Mimulus guttatus*, to improve our understanding of the processes underlying

species abilities to colonize and invade new environments. This species spans a broad climatic

and latitudinal gradient in its native range in western North America and has become invasive in

Europe and New Zealand. Examination of thermal performance across geographic and climatic

gradients provides valuable information about adaptive evolution in response to the environment,

and to our knowledge, this is the first study to compare clinal variation in TPC parameters

between a species native and invasive range. Here, we assess three hypotheses about whether

thermal niche evolution and the ability to overcome specialist-generalist tradeoffs contribute to

the invasive success of *M. guttatus*. First, we hypothesized that if the species experiences

different thermal regimes in its invasive range, there would be shifts in TPC parameters between

the native and invasive ranges (Fig. 1B,D). Second, we evaluated the hypothesis that the ability

to overcome specialist-generalist tradeoffs (consistent with a "master-of-all") has fostered the

invasive capabilities of *M. guttatus* (Fig. 1C). This hypothesis predicts that native populations

possess "master-of-all" characteristics (i.e., broad TPCs with high maximum performance)

which have increased their potential success as an invader and are maintained in invasive

populations. Third, given sufficient time, standing genetic variation, and temperature-mediated

selection, we hypothesized parallel adaptation to thermal gradients in the invasive range (Fig.

1E-G).

Materials and Methods

Study Species

We used *Mimulus guttatus* (Phrymaceae)*,* also known as *Erythranthe guttata* (Fraga,

2018; Lowry et al., 2019), as a model system to test the hypotheses outlined above about the role

of thermal adaptation and phenotypic plasticity in facilitating biological invasions. Due to ease of

clonal propagation, short generation times, and previous documentation of effects of temperature

on growth within a short time frame (Sheth & Angert, 2014), this species is a superior candidate

for use in growth studies quantifying TPCs. *Mimulus guttatus* is an herbaceous wildflower native

to western North America, occupying wet habitats at sea level up to ~2500 m from Alaska to

Northern Mexico (Fraga, 2018). In 1812, *M. guttatus* was brought to the United Kingdom for

horticultural use and has subsequently become widespread across the British Isles and Europe

(Preston, Pearman, & Dines, 2002; Newman, 2015). In recent years, *M. guttatus* has expanded its

invasive range due to climate change and altered flooding regimes (Truscott, Soulsby, Palmer,

Newell, & Hulme, 2006; Newman, 2015). As a result, *M. guttatus* is now considered invasive in

many countries, including New Zealand and eastern North America (Vallejo-Marín & Lye, 2013;

van Kleunen, Röckle, et al., 2015; Fraga, 2018). Genomic data suggest that invasive genotypes

of *M. guttatus* in the UK originated from perennial populations in Alaska (Puzey & Vallejo-

Marín, 2014; Pantoja, Simón-Porcar, Puzey, & Vallejo-Marín, 2017). *Mimulus guttatus* exhibits

remarkable diversity in terms of genetics, life history, and habitat occupancy within its native

range, and has thus become a model system in evolution, ecology, and genetics (Wu et al., 2008).

Although there are both annual and perennial populations within the native range of *M. guttatus*

(Hall & Willis, 2006), we focused exclusively on perennial populations in the native range, as

they likely gave rise to invasive populations in the UK (Puzey & Vallejo-Marín, 2014; Pantoja et

al., 2017).

Population Selection

To compare TPCs of native and invasive populations of *M. guttatus*, we propagated field-

collected seeds from perennial populations of the native North American range and of the

invasive United Kingdom range, totaling 346 seed families from 52 populations (see

"Propagation of Mother Plants" below; Table S1). For this study, we conducted a principal

component analysis of climatic variables to select focal populations that spanned the greatest

amount of temperature variability within the native and invasive ranges (Supplementary

Methods, Table S1, Fig. S1). From this analysis, we identified 18 populations that represented a

wide breadth of temperatures within the native range (Fig. 2A). Due to lower germination

success of genotypes from the invasive range in the UK, we used all 13 available populations

(Fig. 2B). Within each population, we randomly selected 1-5 seed families to represent in our

experiment. On average, mean annual temperature (MAT) and temperature seasonality were

higher in the native than the invasive range (Fig. 2C,D). Further, MAT increased with latitude in

the native and invasive ranges (Fig. 2C), and seasonality increased with latitude in the native

range but gradually decreased with latitude in the invasive range (Fig. 2D). In the native range,

there was also considerably higher variation in both mean annual temperature (Fig. 2C) and

temperature seasonality (Fig. 2D) relative to the invasive range.

Propagation of Mother Plants

In June 2019, we grew seed families from each population (32 native and 20 invasive

populations) in the North Carolina State University Phytotron. 3-5 seeds of each seed family

were sewn in 72-cell plug trays filled with Fafard 4P soil and topped with Sunshine germination

mix, placed in a Percival LT-105X chamber, and subjected to a 4°C cold treatment for one week.

During this time, seeds received no light and were misted daily. After one week, as seeds began

to germinate, we transferred them to a growth room, with a 16-hour day and 8-hour night

photoperiod and a 20/15°C day/night temperature regime. We bottom-watered trays daily with a

nutrient solution (NPK + micronutrients), and their location within the growth room was

randomized on a bi-weekly basis. Additionally, we dumped the stagnant water from all trays on a

bi-weekly basis. The cold treatment method was repeated for seed families with poor initial

germination, which were primarily from the invasive range. After cold treatments, these

replanted families remained in the Percival chamber with 20°C days and colder (5°C) nights for

two weeks before being moved to the growth room. Three weeks after planting, seedlings were

thinned to one, central-most individual per cell.

Six weeks after planting, individuals were repotted into 8-inch pots with Fafard 4P.

Within each population of both ranges, we randomly selected 1-5 plants for inclusion in the full

experiment, representing a total of 95 unique genotypes from 31 populations (Table S1). During

this process, plants exhibiting annual characteristics (diminutive size, lack of side branches,

small flowers; Hall & Willis, 2006) were excluded in favor of perennial plants. These large

"mother" plants served as the source of replicate cuttings for thermal performance experiments

and remained in the growth room for the remainder of the experiment. We randomized the pots

into new trays, each of which held 2 plants. Then, we allowed plants to continue growing on a

schedule of daily watering with nutrient solution with bi-weekly dumping of stagnant water and

tray randomization to reduce location effects. Eight weeks after planting, we cut the primary

stem of each plant to its base to encourage branching, which is ideal for taking replicate cuttings.

Thermal Performance Experiment

Ten weeks after planting, mother plants possessed sufficient vegetative growth to support

many cuttings. To generate thermal performance data for each genotype within each population,

we took cuttings from these mother plants and grew them in 2.5-inch pots within 32-pot trays.

Prior to temperature treatments, we allowed each set of cuttings 2 weeks to establish roots.

During this period, cuttings were kept within chambers set to 20°C day/15°C night and watered

with a nutrient solution. We randomized cuttings both within and among chambers on a bi-

weekly basis to reduce location effects. After the two-week establishment period, clones were

moved into an alternate chamber programmed to one of the six temperature regimes. Over the

course of the experiment, we randomly assigned six temperature treatments to one of three

identical Percival LT-105X chambers (Percival Scientific, Inc.; Perry, Iowa, USA), resulting in

two full rounds of chamber use. For each temperature regime, we took two replicates (clones) of

each of the 95 genotypes and randomized them among six trays to reduce tray effects. We

subjected replicate clones to 16-hour days and 8-hour nights, according to procedures which

have been previously implemented by Paul et al. (2011), Sheth & Angert (2014), and Wooliver

et al. (2020), with one of the following day/night temperature regimes (°C): 10/0, 20/10, 25/15,

30/20, 40/30, and 45/35. Temperature regimes were replicated once, along with an additional

replicate of the 45°C/35°C regime. In total, we took 1,338 cuttings. However, 86 of these

cuttings were eliminated due to failed establishment, resulting in a final dataset of 1,252

individual clones from 18 native and 13 invasive populations, each comprising 54 and 41

genotypes, respectively. Within each chamber, we exposed these clones to a given temperature

regime for one week. During this period, trays were sub-irrigated daily with water (rather than

nutrient solution) to prevent confounding effects of different rates of nutrient uptake at different

temperatures.

We collected data on relative change in stem length over the course of the 7-day

temperature treatment. We opted for this short treatment period due to time and space

constraints. Although longer treatment times are ideal for gauging plant growth, previous work

with *Mimulus spp.* has documented significant growth in one week across a range of

temperatures (Sheth & Angert, 2014). We took measurements of the length of the primary stem

and the total length of branches (including stolons and side branches) before and after each

temperature treatment ($stem_{in}$ and $stem_{out}$, respectively). Total length of branches was estimated

as the number of branches multiplied by the length of an average branch located at the midpoint

of each clone. We then calculated relative growth rate (RGR), as a proxy for fitness as the

change in total stem length per initial stem length per day (Eq. 1). Negative RGR values in cases

where clones lost stem length or branches due to vegetation dieback at temperature extremes

were set to zero, and negative RGR values in cases where clones lost stem length due to

accidental damage were excluded. Although RGR is not a measure of total reproductive output,

we used this metric as a proxy for fitness because size has been related to reproductive output in

other *Mimulus* species (Sheth & Angert, 2018).

$$RGR = \frac{(stem_{out} - stem_{in})}{(stem_{in} * number\ of\ days)}$$ (Eq. 1)

Bayesian TPC Models

We performed all models and analyses in R v. 3.6.2 (R Core Team, 2019). To generate

TPCs for native and invasive populations of *M. guttatus*, we used a hierarchical Bayesian model

(R package performr v0.2; Tittes, Walker, Torres-Martínez, & Emery, 2019) to simultaneously

fit curves predicting RGR across temperature for all populations while estimating uncertainty. As

this model does not allow inclusion of random effects, we first averaged total RGR across clones

of each genotype at each temperature. This model also required that we scale values of RGR

using the overall mean RGR across all data points and center daytime temperature around zero.

Thus, we rescaled model outputs to reflect actual RGR values and temperatures. To improve the

effectiveness of posterior sampling, we altered the default settings of the model to include a total

of 4,000 iterations per chain and a maximum tree depth of 15 (Gelman et al., 2014). This model

utilizes a derivation of Kumaraswamy's probability density function to fit performance curves

across a continuous environmental gradient. We assessed the fit of Bayesian models using a

posterior predictive *P*-value, which uses a test variable to give the probability that values drawn

from the simulated posterior predictive distribution will exceed the observed values. *P*-values

closest to 0.5 are indicative of adequate fit between the modeled and observed data (Gelman et

al., 2014). The Bayesian *P*-value for the overall model was 0.53, and *P*-values for each

population ranged from 0.2-0.82 (Table S2).

From these Bayesian models, we obtained estimates of thermal optimum (T_{opt}), thermal

performance breadth (T$_{breadth}$), maximum performance (P_{max}), and area under the curve (*AUC*)

for each population (Table S3). We selected critical values for $T_{breadth}$ from 100 equally spaced

points along the temperature axis closest to the temperature values corresponding to 50% of a

TPC's P_{max}. These models also generated estimates of critical upper and critical lower thermal

limits (temperatures at which RGR decreases to zero). However, these estimates extended

beyond our temperature treatments. To avoid overextrapolation of temperatures which were not

measured in our experiments, we excluded critical thermal limits from our analyses.

Statistical Analyses for Hypothesis Testing

We tested for divergence in TPC parameters between native and invasive populations of

M. guttatus independent of latitude by conducting post-hoc comparisons of TPC model

iterations. For all model iterations, we calculated mean TPC parameter estimates for the native

and invasive ranges. We used these range-level means to determine the mean pairwise difference

in each parameter between the native and invasive range, and for each comparison we included a

95% credible interval. For all pairwise differences, we interpreted a difference to be statistically

significant if its 95% credible interval did not include zero. Positive mean differences would

indicate higher parameter estimates within the native range, whereas negative mean differences

would indicate higher parameter estimates within the invasive range.

We examined the potential for specialist-generalist tradeoffs between P_{max} and $T_{breadth}$

within either range using a general linear model with $T_{breadth}$, range (native or invasive), and their

interaction as predictors and P_{max} as the response. Although this relationship is typically

determined through correlation, we used a regression with P_{max} arbitrarily chosen as the response

variable to test whether the tradeoff is stronger in either range. We also ran a reduced linear

model which removed the interaction term to account for the possibility of tradeoffs which are

similar in magnitude and direction in both ranges. We obtained the Akaike information criterion

(AIC) of both models to determine which provided the better fit. For all linear models, we

evaluated statistical significance using α=0.05. A significant negative effect of $T_{breadth}$ on P_{max}

would indicate a specialist-generalist tradeoff wherein increased breadth comes at the cost of

lower maximum performance. Given a final model with a significant interaction term, we ran

separate general linear models for each range with $T_{breadth}$ as the predictor and P_{max} as the

response variable to understand the differing relationships within each range. To determine if the

modeled TPCs fulfilled the expectation that the area under TPCs remained constant, we used

Bayesian model iterations to conduct pairwise comparisons of population-level mean values of

AUC. Using a 95% credible interval, we determined if significant differences existed both

between populations within each range and between populations of different ranges.

To determine whether invasive populations have undergone rapid adaptation to

temperature and latitudinal gradients in the novel range, we compared latitudinal and thermal

clines of TPC parameters in the native and invasive range using general linear models. Full linear

models of T_{opt} included predictors of either latitude or mean annual temperature, range, and their

interaction. We used AIC to compare these full models to reduced models without the interaction

term to account for the possibility of clines of similar magnitude and direction in both ranges. If

the final model included a significant interaction term, we conducted additional range-specific

models with only latitude or mean annual temperature as predictors. Shallower or nonsignificant

slopes within the invasive range in comparison to the native range would suggest a lack of

repeated, rapid local adaptation in invasive range. In contrast, a significant effect of latitude or

mean annual temperature, in conjunction with a nonsignificant or absent interaction term would

indicate parallel evolution of clines across ranges. Similarly, to test whether $T_{breadth}$ increases

with temperature seasonality, we modeled $T_{breadth}$ as a function of latitude or temperature

seasonality, range, and their interaction, and used AIC to compare these full models to reduced

models without the interaction term. Given a significant interaction term in the final model, we

also conducted range-specific models with latitude or temperature seasonality as predictors.

Results

Shifts in TPC Parameters

We found no support for the hypothesis that *M. guttatus* has adapted to novel thermal

regimes within its invasive range via TPC shifts. Pairwise comparisons revealed that T_{opt} and

$T_{breadth}$ exhibited 95% credible intervals that included zero, indicating that neither differed

significantly between ranges (Table 1, Fig. 3, Fig. S3).

Specialist-Generalist Tradeoffs

Consistent with specialist-generalist tradeoffs, P_{max} decreased with $T_{breadth}$ (Table 2, Fig.

4). The final model included an interaction between $T_{breadth}$ and range (Table 2). However, this

interaction was not statistically significant, suggesting that the direction and strength of the

relationship between $T_{breadth}$ and P_{max} did not differ between the native and invasive ranges

(Table 2). The main effect of range was also non-significant (Table 2). Failing to meet the

assumption that area is constant when there are specialist-generalist tradeoffs, pairwise

comparisons indicate that *AUC* significantly differed both within and between ranges (Angert et

al., 2011; Fig. S2).

Clines of TPC Parameters

Overall, latitudinal and thermal clines varied in strength depending on the TPC parameter

and/or the geographic range, and there was little support for the hypothesis of adaptive clines in

either range. The final respective models for T_{opt} as a function of latitude or MAT did not include

an interaction between latitude or MAT and range (Table 2). Failing to support our hypothesis,

T_{opt} did not decrease with latitude (Table 2, Fig. 5A). Further, there was no main effect of range

when assessing clines of T_{opt} across latitude (Table 2). T_{opt} increased with MAT, but there was

also no main effect of range on T_{opt} when assessing clines across MAT (Table 2, Fig. 5B). To

further dissect the relatively low variance explained by this model (Adj. R^2=0.155), we

conducted range-level models. We found that the cline of T_{opt} across MAT in our full model was

primarily driven by adaptive differentiation within the native range (β=0.153, P=0.036, Adj.

R^2=0.199), whereas there was no relationship between MAT and T_{opt} in the invasive range

(β=0.038, P=0.899, Adj. R^2=-0.089).

A model with an interaction between latitude and range best explained the relationship

between $T_{breadth}$ and latitude (Table 2). Contrary to the prediction that $T_{breadth}$ would increase with

latitude, $T_{breadth}$ showed no relationship with latitude (Table 2, Fig. 5C). There was not a

significant main effect of range on $T_{breadth}$, and the relationship between latitude and $T_{breadth}$ did

not differ between ranges (Table 2). The model that best explained the relationship between

$T_{breadth}$ and temperature seasonality did not include an interaction term (Table 2). We found no

cline of $T_{breadth}$ with temperature seasonality (Table 2; Fig. 5D), failing to support the climate

variability hypothesis. Further, there was no main effect of range on $T_{breadth}$ when assessing

clines of $T_{breadth}$ across temperature seasonality (Table 2).

Discussion

In this study, we compared thermal performance curves (TPCs) and latitudinal and

thermal clines of 18 native and 13 invasive populations of *Mimulus guttatus* to test key

hypotheses about the role of climatic niche evolution in facilitating biological invasions. First,

our results provided no support for the hypothesis that thermal optimum and breadth vary

between the native and invasive ranges (Table 1, Fig. S3). Second, our findings did not support

the hypothesis that *M. guttatus* has overcome specialist-generalist tradeoffs. Instead, TPCs in

both ranges were constrained by specialist-generalist tradeoffs, such that broad TPCs came at the

cost of lower maximum performance (Table 2, Fig. 4). Finally, contrary to the hypothesis that

native and invasive ranges show parallel phenotypic clines, there was limited evidence for

parallel clines in TPC parameters between ranges (Table 2, Fig. 5). Although the cline of thermal

optimum across mean annual temperature was similar in both ranges, which could suggest

repeated evolution of thermal optimum in the invasive range, the effect was driven primarily by

native populations. Together, these results suggest that the invasive capabilities of *M. guttatus*

are an outcome of general-purpose genotypes (as evidenced by a lack of clines in thermal

breadth across latitude). Yet, specialist-generalist tradeoffs still constrained the evolution of

thermal performance in both ranges of *M. guttatus*. Further, despite a lower range of

temperatures in the introduced range, TPCs of invasive populations were just as broad as those of

native populations spanning a greater range of temperatures (Fig. 2B). As a result, it is unlikely

that invasive populations experienced strong temperature-mediated selection on thermal

optimum across latitudinal and temperature gradients in the UK. Below, we discuss the

implications of these findings in light of the evolutionary processes that could contribute to

biological invasion.

Evolution of Thermal Performance Curves

We found no support for the hypothesis that invasive populations have undergone

changes in mean TPC parameters relative to native populations (Table 1, Fig. 3, Fig. S3).

Instead, T_{opt} and $T_{breadth}$ were similar between native and invasive ranges. Recent work to model

the climatic niches of native and invasive *M. guttatus* documented niche conservatism, or

substantial overlap in occupied climate conditions, within invasive European populations relative

to native North American populations (Da Re, Olivares, Smith, & Vallejo-Marín, 2020).

However, while a portion of the climatic niche was conserved, the invasive range of *M. guttatus*

had undergone substantial niche unfilling (Da Re et al., 2020), where invasive populations were

found in a comparatively small subset of the climatic conditions occupied in the native range.

Our findings that invasive populations inhabited a small subset of temperature conditions

occupied by the native populations (Fig. S1), and that T_{opt} and $T_{breadth}$ did not differ between

ranges (Table 1, Fig. S3), are consistent with the study modeling climatic niches. These results

are consistent with a recent meta-analysis showing niche conservatism between the native and

introduced ranges of many invasive species (Liu, Wolter, Xian, & Jeschke, 2020). Although the

climatic niche in the introduced range is not currently as wide as that of the native range,

invasive *M. guttatus* populations seem poised to occupy a greater climatic niche space should it

become available. As a result, maintenance of a broad thermal tolerance in the invasive range

may allow *M. guttatus* populations to withstand rapid changes in temperatures, posing greater

risk that invasive populations may prosper under climate change. Collectively, a lack of

divergence in thermal niches may explain why evolutionary shifts in thermal performance have

not differentiated invasive European *M. guttatus* populations from their native North American

counterparts.

Another factor that could contribute to the evolutionary stasis of TPC parameters in the

invasive range is insufficient standing genetic variation (Prentis et al., 2008; Dlugosch,

Anderson, Braasch, Cang, & Gillette, 2015; Colautti, Alexander, Dlugosch, Keller, & Sultan,

2017). On one hand, invasive populations experiencing the introduction and recombination of

multiple genotypes are more likely to adapt to novel temperature regimes (Colautti et al., 2017).

On the other hand, genetic bottlenecks that occurred during founding events may cause

reductions in tolerance due to genetic drift (Kitayama & Mueller☐Dombois, 1995; Daehler,

2003). Consistent with this latter idea, invasive UK populations of *M. guttatus* have lower

neutral genetic variation than native populations and are closely related to northern native

populations (Puzey & Vallejo-Marín, 2014; Pantoja et al., 2017). Low genetic variation in the

introduced range could have constrained the rapid evolution of T_{opt} and $T_{breadth}$ in this species.

However, the initial invasion of *M. guttatus* in the UK originating from Alaskan native

populations was followed by multiple introductions from across the native range (Vallejo-Marín

et al., 2020). As a result, the invasive range consists of a highly admixed melting pot of native

populations and is unlikely to be constrained by low genetic diversity. Thus, invasive

populations may arise from admixed thermal genotypes that contributed toward population-level

TPCs remaining as wide as those in the native range, allowing invasive *M. guttatus* to tolerate

the narrower breadth of thermal conditions in the UK. Collectively, these results suggest that the

invasive populations have yet to undergo significant divergence in TPCs from native populations

due to overlap in thermal niche space, rather than lacking the fodder which evolution may act

upon. Invasive populations may present a high risk for thermal niche expansion and evolution in

the face of climate change.

Specialist-Generalist Tradeoffs

Our results provide evidence for specialist-generalist tradeoffs, independent of native or

invasive status, wherein greater $T_{breadth}$ came at the cost of reduced P_{max} (Fig. 5A). However, our

finding of differing *AUC* among populations within each range (Fig. S2) suggests that the

assumption that area remains constant does not hold for *M. guttatus* (Palaima & Spitze, 2004;

Angert et al., 2011). As such, there may be an additional axis of variation that explains

differences in TPCs among populations. We found a strong positive correlation between *AUC*

and P_{max}, (ρ=0.9767, *P*<0.001), which suggests that variation in TPCs among populations is

partly explained by vertical shifts across a fast-slow spectrum of performance (Izem &

Kingsolver, 2005). As a result, higher performing populations achieve a larger thermal niche

than populations with lower peak performance. These results are consistent with the idea of

"winner" genotypes and populations, which may achieve a greater AUC by having both a high

maximum performance and broad thermal breadth (Palaima & Spitze, 2004). However, *AUC* and

$T_{breadth}$ were not correlated (ρ=-0.2692, *P*= 0.1431), meaning that although having a broad TPC

may constrain maximum performance, thermal breadth is not a key predictor of thermal niche

space as approximated by *AUC*. In other words, thermal generalist qualities may reduce

performance, but do not always result in functionally inferior individuals. Rather, higher

performers are more likely to have larger niche spaces. Thus, variation in TPCs in native and

invasive populations of *M. guttatus* seems to be controlled by both vertical shifts where high-

performing populations are 'masters-of-all' and specialist-generalist tradeoffs where generalist

populations are 'masters-of-none'.

Evolution of Clines

We hypothesized that phenotypic clines exhibited in the native range would be repeated

in the invasive range. Although temperature varies predictably with latitude in the invasive range

(Fig. 2C,D), and there is ample evidence that rapid adaptation can facilitate invasion success

(Oduor et al., 2016), our results did not support the hypothesis of parallel clines. Rather, T_{opt}

increased with MAT across both ranges, though the amount of variance explained was relatively

modest (*Adj. R^2*=0.155). To further understand this pattern, we conducted separate range-level

models of T_{opt} as a function of MAT. There was a weak cline in the native range, although the

amount of variation explained was modest. However, there was no effect of MAT on T_{opt} in the

invasive range. Thus, native populations were the primary driver of the weak cline detected in

the full model (Table 2). Albeit weak, adaptive differentiation of T_{opt} to mean annual temperature

may contribute toward the success of this species in its native range. The absence of this cline in

the invasive range implies weaker selection on T_{opt} or insufficient time for adaptation in the

invasive range. Given that invasive populations of *M. guttatus* have maintained similar $T_{breadth}$ as

native populations, it is unlikely that selection in the invasive range with a relatively narrow

range of mean annual temperatures would favor specialization in T_{opt} (Fig. 2C).

Although T_{opt} increased with mean annual temperature in the native range, $T_{breadth}$ was not

related to latitude or temperature seasonality in either range. These results do not support the

climate variability hypothesis (Dobzhansky, 1950; Janzen, 1967; Stevens, 1989; Gutiérrez-

Pesquera et al., 2016), which predicts a positive relationship between $T_{breadth}$ and temperature

seasonality and latitude. There are many possible explanations for a lack of clines in $T_{breadth}$ in

native populations. First, since six native populations were not coastal, there may also be

divergent relationships between TPC parameters and environmental gradients caused by

adaptation to differing regimes of temperature seasonality in coastal and inland environments.

Multiple studies have documented instances of adaptive differentiation between *M. guttatus* in

coastal and inland habitats (Hall & Willis, 2006; Lowry, Hall, Salt, & Willis, 2009) resulting

from contrasting environmental conditions. Second, *M. guttatus* populations may not display

strong clines in $T_{breadth}$ if they occupy microhabitats with similar temperature seasonality across

their range (Franco & Nobel, 2003). Third, populations in close latitudinal proximity may

experience drastically different regimes of temperature seasonality due to microclimatic

variation, resulting in fine-scale local adaptation that prevented us from detecting clines at

broader macroclimatic scales (Rashkovetsky et al., 2006; De Frenne et al., 2013). Finally, high

gene flow among native populations could swamp adaptation of TPCs to local thermal regimes

(Paul et al., 2011). Rather than evolving TPCs in response to latitudinal and thermal gradients,

native populations may be generalists with wide TPCs which predisposed them to become

invasive (van Kleunen, Schlaepfer, Glaettli, & Fischer, 2011). This conclusion is consistent with

genomic data which reveal high rates of gene flow among coastal populations occupying similar

latitudes in the native range relative to our study populations (Twyford & Friedman, 2015).

Nonetheless, our findings are particularly surprising given the numerous studies documenting

local adaptation to edaphic and hydrological conditions within the *M. guttatus* species complex

(Hall & Willis, 2006; Wu et al., 2008; Lowry et al., 2009; Hall, Lowry, & Willis, 2010; Kooyers,

Greenlee, Colicchio, Oh, & Blackman, 2015; Selby & Willis, 2018; Popovic & Lowry, 2020),

and the evolution of parallel phenotypic clines in the introduced ranges of several species (van

Boheemen et al., 2019; Hernández et al., 2019; McGoey, Hodgins, & Stinchcombe, 2020).

Overall, our results suggest that while specializing in hydrological and edaphic aspects of niche

space, native *M. guttatus* populations may be thermal generalists despite spanning a broad

temperature gradient in western North America.

Caveats

536   There are many caveats which may have impacted the results of our study. First, our final

dataset included only two replicates of each genotype per temperature treatment. Some replicates

failed to establish roots, leading to multiple genotypes containing only one replicate for a given

treatment, which could exacerbate chamber- and tray-effects on RGR of a given genotype.

However, given that we used 2-4 genotypes to construct our population-level TPC curves (with

the exception of one invasive population; Table S1), these effects should be less prevalent at the

population level. Second, our temperature regimes maintained constant respective day and night

temperatures, but it is widely recognized that in natural settings plants experience daily

fluctuations of temperature conditions which may influence evolutionary trends. Third, although

we incorporated multiple measurements of stem and branch growth (primary stem length, branch

number, and average branch length), populations may vary in their investment in stem and

branch growth versus other growth parameters (such as leaf number or belowground growth) at

different temperatures. Thus, some populations in this study may allocate more resources toward

unmeasured parameters, providing an inadequate measure of total performance. Fourth, we

focused on one performance metric, RGR, but to fully understand how performance varies across

temperature gradients, as well as how varying thermal tolerance may result in performance

tradeoffs, multiple performance parameters (e.g., survival and fecundity) across multiple life

stages should be included in future work. Finally, we focused only on temperature, one axis of

the species' climatic niche, but evolution along other niche axes such as precipitation and

edaphic properties could also contribute to invasion success (Hall & Willis, 2006; van Kleunen

& Fischer, 2008). Further, the biotic environment, including competitors, enemies, and

pollinators may also differ in the introduced range (Holeski, Keefover-Ring, Deane Bowers,

Harnenz, & Lindroth, 2013; Thawley et al., 2018), implying that many factors beyond abiotic

conditions can play a part in adaptation to novel conditions during invasions.

Conclusions

Plant invasion is a field that has been widely studied for land management purposes, but

little consensus exists on the ecological and evolutionary processes that facilitate invasion

success. Our finding that populations did not exhibit clines in thermal breadth across the native

range, and that invasive populations have not undergone changes in thermal breadth relative to

native populations, indicates that general-purpose genotypes may have contributed toward

successful establishment in the invasive range. Because of these thermal generalist qualities

combined with a comparatively small thermal niche space in the invasive range, invasive

populations likely exhibit weaker selection on thermal optimum across latitudinal and

temperature gradients. Additionally, there were similar specialist-generalist tradeoffs across both

ranges, implying that the "master-of-all" scenario has not promoted the invasion of *M. guttatus*

in the United Kingdom. Our results have important implications toward discovering what traits

are favored for invasive organisms. For example, although having a broad thermal performance

curve and general-purpose genotypes may aid in initial establishment of populations in a new

environment, specialist-generalist tradeoffs may constrain the further evolution of broader TPCs.

By comparing thermal niche evolution across broad environmental gradients in a species native

and invasive range, we can predict which species hold the potential to become aggressive

invaders and forecast how they may fare under rapid climate change. These predictions will be

invaluable in preparing for future species invasions, strengthening our efforts to manage invasive

species in the face of rapid climate change and globalization.

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589   Author Contributions

590   A.Q. and S.S. conceived of and designed the study. A.Q. collected the data. A.Q. and

591   R.W. analyzed the data. A.Q. led the writing of this manuscript. R.W., M.V.M., and S.S.

592   provided feedback on this manuscript. All authors contributed critically to the drafts and gave

593   final approval for publication.

594   Data Availability

595   All data and scripts associated with this study are available at

596   https://github.com/akquerns/Guttatus_EvolTPCClines.

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Tables

Table 1. Pairwise comparisons of TPC parameters between ranges. For each Bayesian model

iteration, we calculated range-level mean parameter estimates and found their pairwise

differences by subtracting the parameter estimate of the invasive range from the native range,

such that a positive difference indicates that the mean parameter estimate was greater in the

native range. We used these comparisons to generate mean pairwise differences and 95%

credible intervals.

Parameter	Pairwise Difference	95% CI
T_{opt} (°C)	-0.654	[-1.405, 0.108]
$T_{breadth}$ (°C)	0.018	[-1.191, 1.239]
AUC	-3.043	[-7.485, 1.344]

855 **Table 2.** Regression coefficients and *P*-values from full general linear models relating response variables to predictors. β1 indicates

856 the main effect of either latitude, mean annual temperature (MAT), $T_{breadth}$, temperature seasonality (TS), or P_{max}. β2 indicates the

857 main effect of range (invasive vs. native). β3 indicates the interaction between range and the predictor corresponding to β1. Based on

858 AIC, we chose bolded models as the final model for each respective cline.

Response	Predictor (β1, β2, β3)	Full Model				
		β1, *P*	β2, *P*	β3, *P*	AIC	*Adj. R²*
P_{max}	$T_{breadth}$, **R,** $T_{breadth}$***Range**	**-0.140, *P*=0.008****	**-1.963, *P*=0.146**	**0.088, *P*=0.159**	**-10.448**	**0.219**
	$T_{breadth}$, R	-0.083, *P*=0.009**	-0.070, *P*=0.323	---	-10.131	0.188
T_{opt}	Lat, R, Lat*R	0.045, *P*=0.712	3.812, *P*=0.590	-0.087, *P*=0.504	111.848	-0.002
	Lat, R	**-0.033, *P*=0.409**	**-0.908, *P*= 0.123**	---	**110.372**	**0.018**
	MAT, R, MAT*R	0.038, *P*=0.899	-1.738, *P*=0.521	0.115, *P*=0.710	107.545	0.128
	MAT, R	**0.148, *P*=0.028***	**-0.748, *P*=0.108**	---	**105.708**	**0.155**
$T_{breadth}$	**Lat, R, Lat*R**	**-0.201, *P*=0.069**	**-11.209, *P*=0.077**	**0.204, *P*=0.079**	**103.385**	**0.020**
	Lat, R	-0.018, *P*=0.623	-0.120, *P*=0.820	---	104.993	-0.062
	TS, R, TS*R	0.058, *P*=0.407	1.265, *P*=0.689	-0.034, *P*=0.640	104.236	-0.008
	TS, R	**0.026, *P*=0.117**	**-0.197, *P*=0.662**	---	**102.492**	**0.020**

859 **=P<0.05, **=P<0.01, ***=P<0.001*

     Figures

861
Figure 1. Hypotheses describing the evolution of thermal performance curves (TPCs) and clines

in a species' native and invasive range, where grey, orange, and purple describe the TPC of a

native or invasive population in panels B-D, and red corresponds to invasive populations and

blue corresponds to native populations in panels E-G. (A) TPC parameters of interest include

maximum performance (P_{max}), thermal optimum (T_{opt}), and thermal performance breadth

($T_{breadth}$). (B) Invasive populations may have wider (grey) or narrower (orange) $T_{breadth}$ relative to

native populations. Alternatively, if general-purpose genotypes from native populations facilitate

invasion, $T_{breadth}$ may be equally wide in both ranges. (C) Within native and invasive populations,

there may be specialist-generalist tradeoffs such that populations with greater $T_{breadth}$ have a

lower P_{max} (grey) and populations with narrower $T_{breadth}$ have a higher P_{max} (orange). However,

some invasive species may be able to overcome these tradeoffs and achieve a wide $T_{breadth}$ and a

high P_{max} (purple). (D) Invasive populations exhibit a different T_{opt} relative to native populations.

(E-G) Solid lines represent steep clines, indicating sufficient time, genetic variation, and

selective pressure for local adaptation in TPC parameters across latitudinal and temperature

gradients, whereas dashed lines indicate weaker/no clines. (E-G) The native range (solid blue

line) exhibits clines such that T_{opt} decreases with latitude (E) and increases with mean annual

temperature (F), and $T_{breadth}$ increases with latitude and temperature seasonality (G). In these

panels, the invasive range (red lines) may exhibit repeated/parallel clines (solid lines), or

weaker/no clines (dashed lines).

Figure 2. Map of focal populations of *M. guttatus* in (A) native range in North America and (B)

invasive range in the United Kingdom. Relationships between (C) mean annual temperature and

(D) temperature seasonality with latitude for native (blue triangles) and invasive (red circles)

populations. Fitted lines indicate predicted mean annual temperature or seasonality as a function

of latitude based on linear models. The gray shaded area represents a 95% confidence interval for

these predictions. Climate data were obtained from WorldClim v.2 (~1-km resolution, 1970-

2000, Fick & Hijmans, 2017).

Figure 3. TPCs of 18 native (blue) and 13 invasive (red) populations of *M. guttatus*. Vertical

lines represent T_{opt}, and horizontal lines denote $T_{breadth}$. Points represent genotype-level mean

RGR at a given daytime temperature.

Figure 4. Specialist-generalist tradeoffs as shown by a relationship between P_{max} and $T_{breadth}$

across populations of *M. guttatus*. Black line indicates the main effect of $T_{breadth}$ (α=0.05; Table

2) from the full model with the interaction term removed, and grey shading shows 95%

confidence interval.

Figure 5. Relationships between population-level TPC parameters and latitude, mean annual

temperature (MAT), and temperature seasonality. A main effect regression line (black) is shown

if there was a significant effect of latitude, MAT, or temperature seasonality ($\alpha=0.05$; Table 2).