Working title: Variation in response to water availability across *Phlox* species

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ABSTRACT

Plants adapt to environmental variation both by evolving divergent trait means and by plastically adjusting trait expression in response to local conditions. While these dual strategies are essential for persistence in diverse environments, how they interact and vary across closely related species is understudied. For plants, water availability is a particularly important selective force that shapes species distributions, selects for growth habit and life history strategy, and can dictate individuals' plastic expressions of trait values and reproductive success. Here, we use ecological niche modeling, field soil collections, and a controlled drought experiment to test how biogeography and evolutionary history influence responses to limited water availability in three closely related Texas annual *Phlox* species and their F1 hybrids. We infer that the species occupy distinct niches that diverge along a primary axis of water availably and soil moisture. Each species has a distinct vegetative growth habit that does not match broad predictions of divergence in response to water availability. Nevertheless, we find that all the species show a significant morphological response to controlled soil dry down with reduced biomass, smaller leaves, and fewer flowers, as would be predicted in a response to drought. We find that *Phlox drummondii*, which occupies intermediate habitats, exhibits the strongest plastic response to water limitation, despite it not having the broadest environmental niche. Additionally, most hybrids involving *P. drummondii* display intermediate phenotypes in both wet and dry treatments, while hybrids between *P. cuspidata* and *P. roemeriana* show phenotypes consistent with hybrid vigor. These results challenge the hypothesis that species from broader environments evolve greater plasticity. Instead, the most plastic species did not have the broadest niche, suggesting plasticity and niche breadth may evolve independently.

Keywords: Phenotypic plasticity, *Phlox*, niche modeling, ecological differentiation, life history

INTRODUCTION

As sessile organisms, plants must adapt to and grow in the environment in which they germinate. This can be done by both evolving divergent traits that optimize performance in a particular environment, and through responding to the environment by adjusting traits for higher performance (Bohnert et al., 1995; Kawecki and Ebert, 2004; van Kleunen and Fischer, 2005; Anderson et al., 2011; Stotz et al., 2021; Vinton et al., 2022). These two mechanisms of divergence and phenotypic plasticity are widely understood to be important for organisms (particularly sessile plants) to survive and thrive in extreme and changing environments (Anderson et al., 2011; Stotz et al., 2021). Despite extensive work on each of these strategies, how they interact and contribute to environmental responses across clades of closely related species is still poorly understood, particularly in empirical systems (but see Ghalambor et al., 2007; Pfennig et al., 2010; Husemann et al., 2017).

Phenotypic plasticity broadly refers to any environmentally induced trait variation including physiological, developmental, morphological, or behavioral traits (West-Eberhard, 1989; DeWitt and Scheiner, 2004). Whereas divergence is heritable trait variation that differentiates organisms adapted to different environments, plasticity refers to the ability of an organism or genotype to produce multiple phenotypes depending on environmental conditions encountered (Bradshaw, 1965; Via et al., 1995; Roff, 1999; Agrawal 2001). In this way, plasticity can be a "first responder" that enables organisms to rapidly change and survive in new or fluctuating environments. Although widely studied in plants, plasticity is universal across living organisms and manifests at

all levels of biological organization from gene expression to physiology, morphology,

and even life history strategy.

The magnitude of a plastic response can vary in intensity or extent across

individuals, populations, and species, even those that are closely related. In much the

same way that trait means evolve and respond to selection from the environment to

optimize fitness, the degree of plasticity can also evolve and therefore vary across

organisms (Wund et al., 2008; Nielson and Papaj, 2022; Vinton et al., 2022). Given the

ubiquity of phenotypic plasticity, it is important to understand how it varies. From an

ecological perspective, it has been hypothesized that species which inhabit broad

abiotic or biotic environmental conditions that show high levels of stochasticity will have

greater plasticity then species that are restricted to specific environmental niches

(Pfenning et al., 2010; Leung et al., 2020; Stotz et al., 2021).

The patterns of variation in trait plasticity and trait means across populations and

species can reflect the potential for selective response to the environment (Fox et al.,

2019; Lie et al., 2022). Plasticity is an initial response to environmental stimuli and,

when selective conditions persist, initially plastic traits may become genetically

assimilated and canalized (Agrawal et al., 1999; Chun et al., 2007; Wund et al., 2008).

This model of evolution predicts patterns of how variation in trait means and trait

plasticity are distributed across closely related species. Specifically, the dominant axis

of genetic divergence in response to environmental variation is predicted to be parallel

to the plastic response to environmental variation (Lind et al., 2015). In other words, the

plastic response of a species to an environmental stimulus is hypothesized to be in the

same direction as trait divergence in closely related species that are adapted across the

gradient of that same environment (de Jong, 2005; Radersma et al., 2020). For

instance, trait divergence is closely associated with distinct elevational changes in

closely related species of *Senecio* (Walter et al., 2022). In general, ecology (Kulkarni et

al., 2011), evolutionary history (Pigliucci et al., 1999; Kellermann et al., 2018), and

environmental stochasticity (Leung et al., 2020) determine the extent of plastic

responses in nature.

Much can be inferred about the evolution of plasticity and adaptive divergence by

comparing closely related species; and even more can be learned by also examining

hybrids. Hybridization between lineages that differ in adaptive trait means or in plastic

responses to environmental conditions could result in hybrid individuals with either

intermediate or extreme (transgressive) trait means or plasticity (Rieseberg et al., 1999;

Stelkens and Seehausen, 2009; Dittrich-Reed and Fitzpatrick, 2012; Husemann et al.,

2017). These two alternative outcomes could suggest different evolutionary paths.

Intermediate trait means in hybrids suggest species differences are due to additive

genetic variation, consistent with evolution from shared ancestral variation that does not

interact with strong negative or positive epistasis (Stelkens and Seehausen, 2009).

Similar inferences could be made about additive genetic variation underlying

intermediate plasticity in hybrids. In hybrids, transgressive traits are hypothesized to

emerge when parental species evolve novel genetic variation across multiple loci or

pathways in isolation that either complement each other's phenotypic effects or interact

with epistasis in hybrids (Rieseberg et al., 1999; Rieseberg et al., 2003; Stelkens and

Seehausen, 2009; Kagawa and Takimoto, 2017). In this way, investigations into the

environmental responses of hybrid lineages can be a tractable way to gain insight into

the evolution of environmental response.

Water availability is one of the most important abiotic environmental determinants

of plant success. Variation in water availability across time and space significantly

contributes to regulating species presence and absence and range limits (e.g., in

Eckstein, 2005, van Kleunen and Fischer, 2005, and Liu et al., 2017). Furthermore,

there are countless studies documenting the plastic response to drought across all

scales of biological organization from gene expression to developmental timing, to

morphology (Des Marais et al., 2013). There is extensive literature on the response of

model and agricultural species to drought (El Hafid et al., 1998; Bartlett et al., 2016;

Hoover et al., 2017), but we know much less about how drought response evolves in

both non-model species and across closely related species. Plants have likely evolved

numerous unique responses to mitigate drought stress, including genetic, physiological,

and morphological adaptations. Typically, drought response manifests as alterations in

overall growth, membrane integrity, photosynthetic activity, and water-use efficiency

(Hoover et al., 2017; Gupta et al., 2020). Experimental comparative studies of species

across moisture gradients thus have the potential to further tease apart how species

adapt to drought stress and the underlying genetics of these drought response traits.

Phlox drummondii, *Phlox cuspidata*, and *Phlox roemeriana* comprise a small

clade of three annual herbaceous flowering plant species native to Texas, USA. These

three species are recently diverged (~2 mya), with *P. cuspidata* being an outgroup to

sibling taxa *P. drummondii* and *P. roemeriana* (Roda et al., 2017, Garner et al., 2024;

Figure 1A). Among these, *P. drummondii* occupies a central range, overlapping with *P.*

cuspidata in the east and *P. roemeriana* in the west, while *P. cuspidata* and *P.*

roemeriana do not currently share overlapping distributions (Roda et al., 2017). These

species are butterfly- and moth-pollinated (Burgin et al., 2023), and can be found

growing in prairie remnants, pastures, and roadside ditches. Little is known about the

specific abiotic factors distinguishing the habitats of these species; however, *P.*

roemeriana has been described as specialized to more xeric and calcareous soils

relative to both *P. cuspidata* and *P. drummondii*, which are both found in similarly loamy

habitats (Erbe and Turner, 1962; Levin 1978a). Furthermore, unlike *P. roemeriana* and

P. drummondii, *P. cuspidata* is self-compatible and produces abundant selfed-seed in

the field (Levin 1978a; Levin 1978b; Roda and Hopkins, 2018; Shahid et al., 2024). The

drastic differences in evolutionary histories of these species are also reflected in their

genomic data, with *P. drummondii* having the highest heterozygosity, effective

population size, and overall genetic variation (Levin, 1978b; Wu et al., in prep). Despite

genomic evidence of gene flow across species (Roda et al., 2017; Garner et al., 2024;

Wu et al., in prep) and interspecific compatibility in greenhouse settings (Suni and

Hopkins, 2018), F1s among species pairs are only documented in low frequency

(Hopkins and Rausher, 2012; Hopkins et al., 2014; Wu et al., in prep). Given the

overlapping ranges, close relatedness, differing evolutionary histories, and ongoing

geneflow of these species, Texas annual *Phlox* provide an excellent system for

analyzing the causes and consequences of trait divergence and plasticity to

environmental stimuli.

Here, we use niche modeling and empirical soil testing to examine the abiotic

environments of *P. cuspidata*, *P. drummondii*, and *P. roemeriana* and find that water

availability is a major factor distinguishing the ranges of these species. This motivated

our controlled water-availability experiment, documenting intra- and inter-species

differences in plastic response to drought. We specifically interrogate whether and how

differences in evolutionary history, relatedness, and biogeography influence the

direction and magnitude of phenotypic response to drought.

METHODS

Niche modeling

We characterized the environmental niches of each of the three annual Texas

Phlox species using species distribution modeling. All analyses were conducted in R

version 4.3.3 (R Core Team, 2024). We acquired population location data from across

the ranges of the focal species based on records from our recent field collections and

supplemented with distribution records from the Global Biodiversity Information Facility

(GBIF; downloaded 10 Dec 2023, www.Gbif.org). We filtered GBIF occurrences to

include only locations with verified images. This provided 324, 180, and 296 total

locations for *P. drummondii*, *P. cuspidata*, and *P. roemeriana*, respectively (N = 800).

We thinned these occurrence points to one location for every five-kilometer grid cell to

reduce sampling bias using the *thin* function from the 'sp' package version 2.1-1 (Bivand

et al., 2008). We further reduced our dataset to 180 populations per species (N = 540)

for consistent modeling across species. To characterize potentially uninhabitable sites,

we created 1000 pseudoabsences of each species by using the *randomPoints* function

from the 'dismo' package version 1.3-14 (Hijmans and Elith, 2013).

We extracted environmental variables from the WorldClim database (downloaded

10 Dec 2023; www.WorldClim.com/version2) using the *getData* function from the 'raster'

package version 3.6-26 (Hijmans and van Etten, 2012). Layers were trimmed and

aligned to only include the state of Texas (latitude 25.5° to 35°; longitude -104° to -94°),

representing an area of intermediate size that the focal taxa likely have had the

opportunity to disperse into (Sobel, 2014). We selected seven layers based on their

weak correlations with other layers (|r| < 0.7) and high importance to distribution models

using the function *select07* from the 'mecofun' package version 0.5.1 (Dormann et al.,

2013; Table S1). Variables were consistent among species and included three

temperature and four precipitation layers at 2.5-minute resolution.

We used the *maxent* function from the 'Maxent' package version 3.4.0 (Phillips et

al., 2006; Elith et al., 2011) to generate individual distribution models for each species.

Maxent compares the distributions of environmental variables at sites occupied by a

focal species to the distributions of pseudoabsences (Phillips et al., 2006; Elith et al.,

2011). We used the *kfold* function from the 'dismo' package to cross-validate the

distribution model of each species, as well as the *evaluate* function from the 'dismo'

package to calculate the area under the receiver operator curve (AUC). The AUC is a

threshold-independent indicator of species distribution model performance that ranges

from 0.5 to 1, where a value of 0.5 indicates that a model is equivalent to a random

draw and a value of 1 indicates that a model perfectly predicts the suitable habitat of a

species (Phillips et al., 2006; Sobel, 2014).

To assess differences in habitat among species we used three separate

approaches. First, we filtered the distributions of each species to include only

pixels/locations of populations that had a probability of occurrence greater than 0.5. We

extracted from the environmental layers from these predicted distributions of each

species and used a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) to visualize the difference in

habitat, niche breadth (the width of the environmental range tolerated by a species), and

niche optima (the mean environmental variable value at the location with the highest

predicted suitability) of each species. We then analyzed this pixel data using a one-way

Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) to construct 95% confidence intervals, as

described in Sobel and Streisfeld (2015). We performed post hoc analyses on each of

the seven environmental variables using the *emmeans* function from the 'emmeans'

package version 1.10.0 (Lenth et al., 2024) to determine pairwise differences in species

distributions. Finally, we used the *nicheOverlap* function from the 'dismo' package on

pairs of species to determine Schoener's D, quantifying the extent to which a pair of

species may interact in the same space. Schoener's D ranges from 0 to 1, with a value

of 0 indicating no overlap in predicted species distributions and a value of 1 indicating

complete overlap in predicted species distributions (Schoener, 1968).

Soil testing

176   We characterized properties of the soil in which the three *Phlox* species grow

using samples collected over a single week in May 2023 from across the range of each

taxon. To sample soil at each location, we first cleared surface litter from the site and

estimated soil moisture in parts per million with a moisture probe (Atree Soil Tester,

Model no. B0DRFYCTYG). We then used a spade to dig a 6-inch-deep V-shaped hole

and collected a 1-inch x 1-inch core from the spade. We collected cores from 10-15

sites within each location to create a population composite sample in a 1-pint plastic

bag. We collected composite samples at five locations of each species (N = 15

composite samples) and left each bag open for at least 24 hours to air dry. We sent

samples to the Soil, Water, and Forage Testing Laboratory at Texas A&M AgriLife

(College Station, TX) to estimate a suite of chemical and physical traits including micro

and macro nutrients, proportion of organic matter, and particle composition. For each

variable measured, we ran an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) test comparing the three

species, using base R's *oneway.test* function. We also used the *cor* function to

determine the Pearson correlation coefficient between each variable. Finally, we

performed a PCA to examine patterns of overall differentiation among species in soil

properties.

Drydown experiment

We performed a controlled dry-down experiment to characterize growth habit of the

three Texas *Phlox* species and their hybrids in well-watered and dry conditions, and the

differences in plasticity – response to drying – across the clade.

Experimental seeds

Seeds of each species were collected across their native ranges in Texas in May

2019. We used seeds from 10 *P. drummondii*, 8 *P. cuspidata*, and 4 *P. roemeriana*

populations (Table S2). The wild-collected seeds were grown under controlled

conditions in the greenhouses at the Arnold Arboretum of Harvard University (Boston,

MA, USA) and used to generate experimental seeds from half-sib families using

controlled crosses. Crosses were performed within species to generate pure species

plants and between species to generate hybrid seeds. To induce germination, all seeds

were soaked in 500ppm Gibberellic Acid for 48 hours and cold stratified for 7 days.

Germination occurred in seedling trays filled with LM-GPS Germination Mix (Lambert,

Quebec, Canada) seedling potting media in controlled growth chamber conditions with

16 hours of supplemental light at 23°C and nighttime temperature of 18°C.

Wet and dry treatments

We transplanted 361 germinated seedlings (1-16 individuals from each seed

family from each species) two weeks after germination into 4-inch square pots

containing 200-300g of Promix High Porosity Mycorrhizae soil. Due to low germination

success our samples sizes were limited such that *P. drummondii* had 23 seed families

with 133 individuals; *P. cuspidata* had 22 seed families with 92 individuals; *P.*

roemeriana had 14 seed families with 71 individuals; *P. cuspidata-P. roemeriana* hybrid

had 8 seed families with 24 individuals; *P. drummondii-P. cuspidata* hybrid had 6 seed

families with 35 individuals*,* and *P. drummondii-P. roemeriana* hybrid had 1 seed family

with 6 individuals. Plants were fully randomized and distributed across 38 trays in the

greenhouse. Individuals were allowed to acclimate for one week with a standard

watering regime before being assigned to a treatment. Within each seed family, siblings

were split into the dry and wet treatment groups to ensure genetic representation across

the two treatments (N = 177 in dry, 183 in wet).

Wet and dry soil treatments were enforced by controlling the percent soil

saturation of each pot. Wet treatment pots were maintained at 70% soil moisture

whereas dry treatment pots were maintained at 12% soil moisture (percentages

modified from Suni et al., 2022 due to humidity conditions in the greenhouse). Previous

trials with *Phlox* plants indicates that 70% soil saturation corresponds to well-watered

pots and healthy flourishing plants, whereas 12% soil moisture results in plants that can

survive but appear water stressed. Both treatments consisted of weighing and watering

individual pots three times each week to reach target soil saturation levels. Soil

saturation for each pot was calculated as

*target weight = (wet weight – dry weight) * target saturation percentage + dry*

weight

where dry and wet weight of each pot was measured at the start of the

experiment prior to transplanting plants into pots. Dry weight was defined as the weight

in grams of a pot filled with dry potting media, and wet weight was defined as the weight

of the pot with potting media that is saturated with water. Individuals and their pots were

weighed and watered according to their assigned treatment for five weeks.

For each individual, we counted the days from treatment to the opening of the

first flower and collected four flowers within 10 days of first flowering. We scanned

(EPSON V600) each flower to measure mean flower tube length and mean flower area

in ImageJ (Schneider et al., 2012; www.ImageJ.net). At nine weeks after germination,

individuals were harvested. Upon harvesting, height, the longest leaf length, leaf count,

and flower count were measured. We estimated above ground wet biomass in grams by

harvesting all stem, leaf, floral and fruit tissue growing above the surface of the potting

media and weighing them on a balance. We estimated dry biomass in grams by placing

the tissue in a drying oven for three days before weighing it again.

Analyses

We summarized the phenotypic variation across all the traits using a PCA on the

pure species in Scikit-learn. We used the PCA loadings to determine which traits

explained the variation along the dominant axes.

We performed a dimensionality reduction on the nine phenotypic traits for the

three focal species in Python version 3.11.6 (Van Rossum and Drake, 2009), using the

package umap-learn version 0.5.5 (McInnes et al., 2018). To do this, a standard scaler

was used on the data from the package scikit-learn version 1.3.0 (Pedregosa et al.,

2011).

263   To quantify the response for each trait of the species to water limitation we

performed a mixed-effect linear model with the function *lmer* from the package 'lme4'

version 1.1.34 (Bates et al., 2015). We tested for an effect of species (excluding hybrids

due to small sample sizes), wet/dry treatment, and the interaction across the nine

phenotypic traits. Treatment, species, and their interaction were treated as fixed effects,

while block effects and maternal family ID were included in the models as random

effects. Paternal effects were excluded as a random effect, as it was found to be

redundant with maternal family ID and led to overfitting. The fixed effects of each model

were analyzed using an ANOVA test from the package 'car' version 3.1.2 (Fox and

Weisberg, 2019) with Bonferroni correction, followed by a post-hoc Tukey HSD test.

273   For all species and hybrids, we calculated normalized mean values for each trait

by converting raw values to z-scores to facilitate comparison across traits and groups.

RESULTS

Niche modeling

Our species distribution models predict the suitable habitats of the three species, as

indicated by high AUC values (>0.95; Table S3). These models reveal that the three

taxa occupy geographically overlapping but distinct habitats (Figure 1B-G) across an

east to west gradient, with *P. cuspidata* predicted to occur in the wettest and warmest

habitats, *P. drummondii* occupying a moderate habitat, and *P. roemeriana* predicted to

grow in the driest and coolest habitats (Table 1; Table S4). Overall, the species have

significant differences in both niche optima and niche breadth along PC1 and PC2

(Figure 1B; Figure 1C; Table 1). In fact, each species pair inhabits significantly different

conditions across each environmental variable used in our species distribution modeling

(Figure S1; Table S5; Table S6). The values of pairwise Schoener's D reflected the

same trend, with the distributions of *P. drummondii* and *P. cuspidata* overlapping the

most (0.77) and *P. roemeriana* and *P. cuspidata* overlapping the least (0.56). When we

identified the most likely habitat of each species and isolated the WorldClim

environmental variables associated with each of the species' occupied space pixels, we

found that environmental variables related to precipitation (precipitation of the driest

quarter, precipitation of the coldest quarter, and precipitation of the wettest quarter)

explained 88.1% of the variation in PC1. Thus, soil moisture distinguishes the species'

distributions (Figure 1C; Table S7).

Soil testing

298   We found substantial variation across the soil properties across species (Figure

2A-C). Each sampled metric showed significant differences across species ($p <$

Bonferroni-corrected p-value < 0.05; Table S8). Soil moisture was also significantly

different between the three species (Figure 2B; Table S8) with *P. cuspidata*'s

environment containing higher moisture than that of *P. roemeriana* ($p < 0.001$) and *P.*

roemeriana's environment containing higher moisture than that of *P. drummondii* ($p <$

0.001). Many of the soil parameters were highly correlated with one another (Table S9),

and strongly species specific, as evidenced by tight species clustering in the PCA

(Figure 2C; Table S10).

Drydown experiment

To assess response to water availability and soil moisture in Texas *Phlox*, we

performed a controlled drydown experiment where each species was grown in both dry

and wet conditions. We evaluated constitutive differences between species as well as

responses of each species to variation in conditions using both multivariate and

univariate analyses of phenotypic measurements.

Multivariate response to water availability across species

The three Texas annual *Phlox* species have distinct phenotypes, as evidenced

by both the UMAP dimensionality reduction (Figure 3A) and the results from the

principal component analysis (Figure 3B). The PCA loadings indicate that the primary

contributors to PC1 are mean corolla length, height, mean leaf length, fresh and dry

biomass (Figure 3C; Table S11). These traits tend to reflect size and vegetative mass of

a plant. *P. cuspidata* is the smallest of the three species with narrow leaves, small

flowers, and short stature, while *P. drummondii* is the tallest with wide leaves, and a

robust growth form. PC2 is explained by variation in flower area and days to flower and

is negatively associated with flower count (Figure 3C; Table S11). These traits tend to

reflect floral investment associated with sexual reproduction. *P. roemeriana* has

characteristically larger flowers and a distinct inflorescence structure with fewer flowers

per inflorescence and therefore it is unsurprising that this species separates from the

other two species along PC2.

Although all the species respond to water treatment, *P. drummondii* individuals

respond with the greatest plasticity. This is observed in the UMAP dimensionality

reduction on phenotypic traits which shows that *P. drummondii* has separate wet and

dry clusters. In the PCA, the wet environment plants tend to have higher PC1 values

compared to the dry environment plants for each species and this pattern is particularly

robust for *P. drummondii* (Figure 3B).

Univariate response to water availability across species

Univariate analyses of phenotypic traits reveal broad differences between

species, between treatments, and significant differences in the strength of reaction to

the treatments between the three species (treatment by species interaction) (Figure 4A).

Nearly all traits varied either between species, treatment, or both with only leaf count

showing no significant differences. Across treatments, the rank order of species for

each trait does not change (Figure 4A-B). In general, *P. drummondii* is taller, has longer

leaves, more biomass, and longer corollas than the other two species. The three

species differ significantly in flower area with *P. roemeriana* having the largest flowers

and *P. cuspidata* having the smallest flowers.

While the species are generally bigger with more flowers under wet conditions,

the magnitude of this response is different across species as indicated by significant

species by treatment interactions ($p < 0.05$; ANOVA on linear mixed models with

Bonferroni correction) for height, mean leaf length, fresh biomass, dry biomass, and

flower count (Figure 4A; Figure 4B; Table 2; Table 3; Figure S2; Table S12). For all

traits where the species responded differently to wet and dry conditions, *P. drummondii*

has a steeper reaction norm slope than *P. cuspidata* or *P. roemeriana* (Figure 4B; Table

3; Table S12). This indicates that, while the trait measurements for *P. cuspidata* and *P.*

roemeriana do vary between the wet and dry conditions, plastic response is greater in

P. drummondii. In general, the three species tend to have more similar trait values

under dry conditions with *P. drummondii* showing the greatest growth response to

abundant water availability.

Given the differential responses of the three species to water limitation, we next

looked at the responses of hybrids between the species. Interestingly, the two species

that tended to be the most similar and have the weakest response to the treatment, *P.*

cuspidata and *P. roemeriana*, had transgressive phenotypes in their hybrids. *P.*

cuspidata-*P. roemeriana* hybrids were larger than their parents in most traits (Figure 5A;

Table 2; Table 3; Table S12), particularly for the aforementioned vegetative growth traits

(Hoover et al., 2017; Gupta et al., 2020). Trait values are particularly transgressive in

the wet condition. In contrast, *P. drummondii*-*P. roemeriana* and *P. cuspidata*-*P.*

drummondii hybrids are consistently intermediate between that of their parents (Figure

5B & 5C), a trend that persisted in both wet and dry conditions. When a principal

component analysis was performed and the traits were not taken in isolation, the F1

hybrids of each of the species similarly fell in between their parents along the first two

PCs (Figure S3), especially in the wet condition. In sum, the hybrids with *P. drummondii*

parentage have consistent intermediate phenotype in contrast to the transgressive

phenotypes seen in *P. cuspidata-P. roemeriana* hybrids.

Discussion

We find that this three species clade of annual *Phlox* species native to the hot and dry

environments of Texas occupies distinct ecological niches and expresses divergent

phenotypes, particularly in response to water availability. Despite their close

evolutionary relationship, these species differ in both their environmental associations

and their patterns of phenotypic plasticity.

The different suitable niches inferred for each of the species align with described

ecoregions in Texas along a similar east-west gradient from the Gulf Coast Prairies and

Marshes to the East Central Texas Prairies, to the Edwards Plateau (Griffith et al.,

2004). Ecological differentiation among the three species is primarily driven by variation

in precipitation patterns and soil moisture. The major axis of environmental variation

(PC1; Figure 1B; Figure 1C; Table 1) distinguishes species based on water availability,

with *P. roemeriana* occupying the coolest, driest habitats, *P. cuspidata* restricted to

warmer, wetter sites, and *P. drummondii* occurring in intermediate habitats. Notably, soil

properties likely interact with precipitation to influence soil moisture availability, with *P.*

drummondii habitats exhibiting the lowest soil moisture despite intermediate

precipitation levels (Figure 2A-C; Table S10). The breadth of environmental niche also

varies, with the highly selfing *P. cuspidata* maintaining the broadest niche and the

limestone specialist *P. roemeriana* occupying the narrowest niche along PC1 (Figure

1B; Figure 1C; Table 1).

In the case of these three *Phlox*, species trait differences do not align neatly with

expectations based on soil water availability. It has been noted that plants adapted to

low water availability can have small leaf area, less biomass, and earlier flowering as

part of a drought escape strategy (Chaves et al., 2003; Exposito-Alonso et al., 2018)

The species with the lowest biomass, narrowest leaves, and smallest flowers, earliest

flowering time is *P. cuspidata* (Figure 4A), which also occurs in the wettest soil with the

highest precipitation (Table 1; Figure 2B). Contrastingly, *P. drummondii* has the most

substantial biomass, biggest leaves, and tall stature, despite occupying drier habitats

with the driest soils (Table 3; Table S12). Though *P. roemeriana* occurs in the hottest

sites with the lowest levels of precipitation (Table 1), it produces large flowers with a

distinctive inflorescence structure but intermediate vegetative size (Figure 4A). These

findings suggest that vegetative traits may be shaped by selective pressures other than

water availability alone, including nutrient availability linked to soil properties, or

differences in life-history strategies such as selfing versus outcrossing. In this way, early

flowering, and reduced size of *P. cuspidata* may reflect selection for rapid life cycle

completion in ephemeral wet environments or genetic constraints imposed by its selfing

mating system.

All three species exhibited substantial phenotypic plasticity in response to

environmental variation in water availability. Consistently, all three species have

reduced vegetative size, biomass, and leaf production under drought (Figure 4A).

However, floral traits showed limited plasticity: neither flowering time nor corolla tube

length change significantly across treatments. This decoupling of vegetative and floral

trait plasticity mirrors patterns reported in other systems (e.g., see Moyers et al., 2021),

where reproductive traits often show evolutionary or developmental canalization relative

to vegetative growth in stressful environments.

This response of *Phlox* to limited water availability is consistent with expectations

for plants to reduce biomass and leaf size due to stress. Across the three species we

find plasticity corresponds to a major shift in morphological space from wet to dry along

the growth axis PC1 and UMAP1 (Figure 3A-B). This axis also corresponds to

significant differentiation between the three species but does not correspond to the

associated niche differentiation inferred between the species. Specifically, *P. cuspidata*

occupies the wettest habitat and yet has the most negative values along PC1 in

morphological space which is associated with a plastic response to dry conditions, while

P. drummondii occupies the driest soils in its native range but morphologically occupies

the most positive PC1 values corresponding to well-watered phenotypes (Figure 3A-B).

This pattern suggests that the direction of phenotypic plasticity does not match the

direction of phenotypic divergence. Instead, this pattern could further indicate that broad

patterns of vegetative and morphological divergence between the species are not

predominantly driven by adaptation to water availability. In the case of *Phlox,* this plastic

response did not correspond to a path of least resistance in ecological divergence (Fox

and et al., 2019, Lei et al., 2022). Similarly, patterns of morphological divergence do not

appear to be the result of canalization of a plastic response after persistent selection (as

in (Agrawal et al., 1999; Chun et al., 2007; Wund et al., 2008)

Among the three species, *P. drummondii* displayed the strongest plastic

response to water availability (Figure 3A-B; Figure 4A-B). Under dry conditions, species

converged on similar reduced vegetative display, while *P. drummondii* displayed a

disproportionate release from drought and subsequent shift in phenotype when under

wet conditions relative to either *P. cuspidata* or *P. roemeriana* (Figure 3A; Figure 4A;

Figure 4B). Previous work hypothesizes that plasticity may be positively correlated with

environmental niche breadth (Pfenning et al., 2010; Leung et al., 2020; Stotz et al.,

2021) In the case of these *Phlox*, we find that *P. drummondii* occupies an intermediate

habitat, but does not inhabit the broadest environmental niche. Nevertheless, its ability

to capitalize on high moisture environments suggests a flexible growth strategy

constrained primarily by external water availability.

Finally, we found no evidence of hybrid dysfunction among the three species, as

all F1 hybrids exhibited vegetative and floral trait values intermediate to or exceeding

those of their parental species (Figure 5A-C). Notably, hybrids between *P. cuspidata*

and *P. roemeriana* displayed transgressive traits, becoming larger than either parent,

while hybrids with *P. drummondii* as a parent were typically intermediate (Figure 5A-C).

These results show that ecological divergence among these species has not generated

intrinsic barriers severe enough to limit hybrid performance, at least in terms of growth,

viability, and floral morphology. This observation suggests that hybridization in this

clade may not incur immediate ecological fitness costs and could contribute to

ecological or phenotypic novelty in natural populations.

Our findings underscore the complex interplay between ecology, life history, and

phenotypic plasticity in shaping patterns of divergence in annual *Phlox*. Future work

integrating nutrient gradients, reproductive output, and fitness under natural field

conditions will be crucial to fully understand the selective forces maintaining species

differences and plasticity in this system.

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Table 1. Niche optima of each species, where values represent the means of WorldClim variables in locations with the highest predicted suitability.

		Niche optima value		
Variable	Environmental Description	*P. roemeriana*	*P. drummondii*	*P. cuspidata*
Bio7	Temperature annual range (°C)	30.0	32.5	32.0
Bio8	Mean temperature of warmest quarter (°C)	23.1	23.6	23.9
Bio11	Mean temperature of coldest quarter (°C)	10.5	10.6	11.1
Bio13	Precipitation of wettest month (mm)	106.0	117.0	127.0
Bio15	Precipitation seasonality	30.0	34.0	30.0
Bio17	Precipitation of driest quarter (mm)	140.0	60.0	196.0
Bio19	Precipitation of coldest quarter (mm)	149.0	165.0	204.0

Table 2. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) results from linear mixed models testing fixed effects of species, treatment, and their interaction on morphological and phenological traits. For each response variable, the degrees of freedom (df), chi-squared test value (χ^2) and associated *P*-values are shown for the fixed effects of species, treatment, and species-by-treatment interaction. Bolded *P*-values indicate significance.

Trait	Species			Treatment			Species-Treatment		
	df	χ^2	Adj. P	df	χ^2	Adj. P	df	χ^2	Adj. P
Height	2	25.014	**< 0.001**	1	79.275	**< 0.001**	2	17.772	**0.001**
Leaf length	2	35.305	**< 0.001**	1	63.998	**< 0.001**	2	13.756	**0.009**
Leaf count	2	0.204	1	1	61.9	**< 0.001**	2	3.9544	1
Fresh biomass	2	92.108	**< 0.001**	1	339.046	**< 0.001**	2	50.569	**< 0.001**
Dry biomass	2	58.199	**< 0.001**	1	245.256	**< 0.001**	2	29.914	**< 0.001**
Flower count	2	93.739	**< 0.001**	1	115.087	**< 0.001**	2	26.349	**< 0.001**
Days to flower	2	59.2564	**< 0.001**	1	0.0787	1	2	4.4087	0.992
Corolla length	2	113.6758	**< 0.001**	1	5.3112	0.1907	2	1.5072	1
Flower area	2	171.4074	**< 0.001**	1	32.6098	**< 0.001**	2	6.9286	0.281

Table 3. Results of Tukey's HSD test comparing pairwise species differences under dry and wet treatments. Estimates and *P*-values are shown for each trait comparison between species pairs: *Phlox cuspidata* vs *Phlox drummondii* (C-D), *Phlox cuspidata* vs *Phlox roemeriana* (C-R), and *Phlox drummondii* vs *Phlox roemeriana* (D-R). Bolded *P*-values indicate significance (*P* < 0.05). For the full table including standard errors, degrees of freedom, and *t*-statistics, see Table S12.

Trait	Contrast	Dry		Wet		Contrast	Within Species	
		Estimate	*P*-value	Estimate	*P*-value		Estimate	*P*-value
Height	C-D	-8.536	0.3479	-16.174	0.17	**Dry C-Wet C**	**-5.967**	**0.0098**
	C-R	4.681	0.9594	5.120	0.9154	**Dry D-Wet D**	**-13.605**	**<.0001**
	D-R	**13.216**	**0.045**	**21.294**	**0.0001**	Dry R-Wet R	-5.527	0.1224
Leaf length	C-D	-2.147	0.0315	-3.588	0.1	Dry C-Wet C	-0.975	0.119
	C-R	-0.066	1	-0.228	1	**Dry D-Wet D**	**-2.417**	**<.0001**
	D-R	2.081	0.848	3.360	0.5	Dry R-Wet R	-1.138	0.1258
Leaf count	C-D	-5.226	0.9991	-0.596	1	**Dry C-Wet C**	**-21.788**	**<.0001**
	C-R	-1.190	1	9.120	0.9529	**Dry D-Wet D**	**-17.158**	**<.0001**
	D-R	4.036	1	9.716	0.9435	Dry R-Wet R	-11.479	0.2449
Fresh biomass	**C-D**	**-2.275**	**0.0409**	**-6.115**	**< 0.0001**	**Dry C-Wet C**	**-3.607**	**<.0001**
	C-R	-0.911	0.9737	-1.079	0.9019	**Dry D-Wet D**	**-7.446**	**<.0001**
	D-R	1.364	0.6913	**5.036**	**< 0.0001**	**Dry R-Wet R**	**-3.775**	**<.0001**
Dry biomass	C-D	-0.423	0.0532	**-0.963**	**< 0.0001**	**Dry C-Wet C**	**-0.638**	**<.0001**
	C-R	-0.094	0.9999	-0.055	1	**Dry D-Wet D**	**-1.178**	**<.0001**
	D-R	0.329	0.3813	**0.908**	**< 0.0001**	**Dry R-Wet R**	**-0.599**	**<.0001**
Flower count	C-D	-5.381	0.9989	**-22.959**	**0.0315**	**Dry C-Wet C**	**-35.019**	**<.0001**
	C-R	**25.541**	**0.0304**	**47.414**	**< 0.0001**	**Dry D-Wet D**	**-52.598**	**<.0001**
	D-R	**30.922**	**0.0031**	**70.373**	**< 0.0001**	Dry R-Wet R	-13.146	0.62
Days to flower	**C-D**	**-6.405**	**0.0093**	-3.605	0.443	Dry C-Wet C	-2.392	0.6891
	C-R	**-12.846**	**< 0.0001**	**-9.065**	**0.0002**	Dry D-Wet D	0.409	1
	D-R	**-6.440**	**0.0222**	-5.461	0.0836	Dry R-Wet R	1.389	0.9985
Corolla length	**C-D**	**-0.413**	**< 0.0001**	**-0.460**	**< 0.0001**	Dry C-Wet C	-0.044	0.9843
	C-R	-0.008	1	0.004	1	Dry D-Wet D	-0.091	0.1232
	D-R	**0.405**	**< 0.0001**	**0.464**	**< 0.0001**	Dry R-Wet R	-0.032	1
Flower area	**C-D**	**-1.824**	**0.0141**	**-2.643**	**0.0001**	Dry C-Wet C	-0.309	0.9911
	C-R	**-4.882**	**< 0.0001**	**-5.786**	**< 0.0001**	**Dry D-Wet D**	**-1.128**	**0.0001**
	D-R	**-3.058**	**0.0001**	**-3.143**	**< 0.0001**	**Dry R-Wet R**	**-1.213**	**0.0141**

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Characterization of niche for *Phlox cuspidata* (light pink), *Phlox drummondii* (purple), and *Phlox roemeriana* (dark pink). A) Schematic of the phylogenetic relationship between Texas annual *Phlox*, adapted from Garner et al., 2024. B) First two principal components of a PCA with projected distributions and WorldClim environmental variables, where each point represents a single pixel in our distribution model. C) Optimum and breadth of principle components from PCA of projected distributions. Comparisons are made across taxa, where niche optimum and breadth correspond to the median and length of the 95% inter-percentile interval along the two PCA axes respectively. Unique lettering refers to a significant difference between species in niche optimum and/or breadth, *P* < 0.05, D) Overlapping projected distributions of Texas annual *Phlox*, where probability of occurrence > 0.5, E) Projected distribution of *Phlox roemeriana*, F) Projected distribution of *Phlox drummondii*, G) Projected distribution of *Phlox cuspidata.*

Figure 2. Differences in soil characteristics of *Phlox cuspidata* (light pink), *Phlox drummondii* (purple), and *Phlox roemeriana* (dark pink). A) Photographs depicting typical habitats of *P. roemeriana* (left), *P. drummondii* (center), and *P. cuspidata* (right). Photos by Patrick Alexander (https://www.inaturalist.org/observations/265914863), Victor L. Manuel (https://www.inaturalist.org/observations/281151460), and luisesc (https://www.inaturalist.org/observations/270333215) via iNaturalist. Licensed under CC BY-NC 4.0. B) Differences in moisture (ppm) of soil samples from natural habitats. Comparisons were done using an ANOVA test with Bonferroni correction (unique lettering indicates p < 0.05). C) Plot of the first two principal components for *P. cuspidata*, *P. drummondii*, and *P. roemeriana* based on soil samples, colored by species. See supplemental Table 10 for PCA loadings.

Figure 3. Multivariate responses to drydown experiment of annual *Phlox* species. A) UMAP plot of *Phlox cuspidata*, *Phlox drummondii*, and *Phlox roemeriana* individuals based on

measurements taken during the drydown experiment, colored by species, and marked by treatment. Dimensionality reduction was performed on mean corolla length, mean flower area, height, mean leaf length, leaf count, biomass (fresh and dry), days to flower, and flower count. B) Plot of the first two principal components for *P. drummondii*, *P. cuspidata*, and *P. roemeriana* individuals based on measurements taken during the drydown experiment, colored by species, and marked by treatment. C) PCA loading arrows for all drydown variables with a loading >|0.5| for PC1 and PC2. PC1 tends to reflect overall size and vegetative investment and PC2 tends to reflect floral investment (Table S10).

Figure 4. Univariate responses to drydown experiment of annual *Phlox* species. A) Reaction norms for the drydown experiment, separated by treatment and species. Lines are from a simple linear regression and only present for visualization, not analysis. B) Slopes of the linear mixed models for each species and measured variable. Data was normalized by z-score prior to plotting, in order to ensure comparable slopes. Stars indicate the significance of the species by treatment interaction, calculated with an ANOVA test on the linear mixed models with Bonferroni correction (*: $p < 0.05$, **: $p < 0.01$, ***: $p < 0.001$).

Figure 5. Differences in trait means of parental species and pairwise hybrids in response to drought. A) Mean trait values for *P. drummondii*, *P. roemeriana*, and their F1 hybrids in wet and dry conditions. B) Mean trait values for *P. cuspidata*, *P. roemeriana*, and their F1 hybrids. C) Mean trait values for *P. cuspidata*, *P. drummondii*, and their F1 hybrids. All data z-score adjusted.