

1 **Precipitation predictability drives evolution of drought tolerance in *Papaver rhoeas***

2 Katja Springer<sup>1+</sup>, Thibault Coquery<sup>1+</sup>, Vera Holland<sup>1</sup>, Patrick S. Fitze<sup>2</sup>, J.F. Scheepens<sup>1</sup>, Martí  
3 March-Salas<sup>1\*</sup>

4

5 <sup>1</sup> Plant Evolutionary Ecology, Faculty of Biological Sciences, Goethe University Frankfurt,  
6 Max-von-Laue-Str. 13, 60438 Frankfurt am Main, Germany

7 <sup>2</sup> Department of Biodiversity and Evolutionary Biology, Museo Nacional de Ciencias  
8 Naturales (MNCN-CSIC), José Gutiérrez Abascal 2, 28006 Madrid, Spain

9

10 \* Corresponding author: Martí March-Salas (martimarchsalas@gmail.com)

11 + Contributed equally

12 **Abstract**

13 Current climate change leads to an increase in the frequency and intensity of droughts and to a  
14 decreased precipitation predictability. The few studies investigating plant evolutionary  
15 responses to contrasting predictability regimes showed that intrinsic precipitation predictability  
16 shapes plant phenotypic variation, drives evolution of phenotypic plasticity, and can vary in  
17 strength and direction of selection. This suggests that the selection pressure induced by  
18 decreased precipitation predictability may lead to plants coping better with severe drought  
19 events. To investigate this unsolved question, we performed a common-garden experiment  
20 applying control, short-term and long-term drought treatments on seedlings of *Papaver rhoeas*  
21 (Papaveraceae) whose progenitors experienced less *versus* more precipitation predictability  
22 treatments for three consecutive generations. In addition, to assess whether competition  
23 modulates plant responses, half of the plants were grown together with the widespread  
24 herbaceous plant *Galium album* (Rubiaceae). In the presence of long drought episodes, plants  
25 whose progenitors experienced less predictable precipitation survived longer than those whose  
26 progenitors experienced more predictable precipitation. Furthermore, plants whose progenitors  
27 experienced less predictable precipitation had lower biomass, which is likely to reduce water  
28 loss via transpiration, and, across all drought treatments, they showed lower root investment.  
29 Altogether our results indicate that lower precipitation predictability promotes drought  
30 tolerance rather than a drought-avoidance strategy to their offspring. Overall, our experiment  
31 highlights that precipitation predictability is an important driver of plant evolution, potentially  
32 shifting evolutionary trajectories of plants under increasing intensity of drought events.

33 **Keywords:** Climate change, common-garden experiment, competition, drought strategy,  
34 experimental evolution, natural selection, phenotypic plasticity, transgenerational responses.

35

## 36 **Introduction**

37 Current climate change leads to increased global temperatures, higher frequency and intensity  
38 of drought events, as well as to decreased precipitation predictability (Pörtner et al., 2022;  
39 Swain et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2020). Drought events are caused by changes in mean precipitation  
40 and lead to water scarcity (Dai, 2013), while changes in precipitation predictability are defined  
41 as the changes in the degree of temporal correlation between precipitation events (Ashander et  
42 al., 2016) and affect the temporal availability of water (Karl et al., 1995). Although both  
43 climatic factors are independent, drought and changes in precipitation predictability can occur  
44 simultaneously (Singh et al., 2018), with exacerbated effects for plant populations.  
45 Consequently, plants should continuously and rapidly adapt to these changing environmental  
46 conditions.

47 Drought hinders plant performance and usually increases mortality rates, reducing the  
48 persistence of plant populations (Maggio et al., 2018). Plants can successfully overcome  
49 unfavourable drought conditions by increased plasticity (Hoffmann & Sgrò, 2011; Lambrecht  
50 et al., 2020). They can also use a drought-escape, a drought-avoidance or a drought-tolerance  
51 strategy in order to deal with reduced precipitation (Bowles et al., 2021; Levitt, 1980;  
52 Rauschkolb et al., 2022). This would require rapid phenological, morphological or  
53 physiological adjustments. For instance, they can flower earlier to escape from drought (Franks  
54 et al., 2007; Metz et al., 2020), generate longer roots to take up water from deeper soil layers  
55 and thus avoid water deficit (Padilla & Pugnaire, 2007), or reduce water loss by lowering their  
56 leaf size or changing leaf water potential in order to tolerate drought (Bartlett et al., 2014;  
57 Bowles et al., 2021; Májeková et al., 2019), respectively. However, how environmental  
58 conditions during previous generations shape plant strategies to current drought conditions has  
59 been little studied.

60 Environmental predictability can alter life-history traits and phenotypic variation, and  
61 can affect the persistence of plant populations (Reed et al., 2010; Ashander et al., 2016; March-  
62 Salas et al., 2019; March-Salas & Fitze, 2019a). Experimental studies showed advanced  
63 reproduction under less predictable conditions, which increased plant fitness (March-Salas et  
64 al., 2019, 2021). Decreased predictability may favour rapid transgenerational responses,  
65 increase selection pressure (March-Salas et al. 2019), and it will likely cause evolution of  
66 reduced phenotypic plasticity (Leung et al., 2020; Tufto, 2015; Franch-Gras et al., 2017; March-  
67 Salas et al., 2022; Yin et al. 2022). Reduced transgenerational plasticity under decreased  
68 predictability could favour rapid evolution in adaptive traits as well as adjustments to severe  
69 droughts, which may shield a population from selection (Merilä & Hendry, 2014; Metz et al.,  
70 2020). This is supported by previous studies that showed that less predictable precipitation can  
71 rapidly vary the root functional investment, favouring fitness changes in the next generation if  
72 these offspring were subjected to the parental conditions (March-Salas et al., 2022; March-  
73 Salas, van Kleunen & Fitze, 2021; Yamauchi et al., 2021; Zhou et al., 2019). Therefore, the  
74 degree of precipitation predictability in progenitors can evolve the functional strategy used by  
75 plants to deal with climatic stressors such as increasing frequency and intensity of drought  
76 conditions. It is then important to investigate whether plants are predisposed by progenitors  
77 (either through maternal effects or through selection) and whether they show adaptive changes  
78 that allow them to cope with drought events.

79 In our study, we selected maternal lines of the widespread annual herb *Papaver rhoeas*  
80 L. (Papaveraceae) that were experimentally exposed to more and to less predictable  
81 precipitation during three consecutive generations. To investigate if plants show changes due  
82 to these past precipitation predictability treatments, we sowed seeds of the maternal lines in a  
83 common-garden experiment. To assess whether past precipitation predictability led to a specific

84 plant strategy, and whether this strategy benefited them to withstand drought, the offspring of  
85 these selected maternal lines were exposed to control, short-term and long-term drought, and  
86 wilting time, plant size and root traits were measured. We expect: (i) that different past  
87 precipitation predictability treatments led to different phenotypes and to different plasticity,  
88 expressed under common-garden conditions; (ii) that evolutionary change was stronger under  
89 lower past precipitation predictability, given that progenitors under this treatment showed lower  
90 transgenerational trait plasticity in a previous study; and (iii) that lower past precipitation  
91 predictability favoured drought stress tolerance rather than drought-avoidance.

92

## 93 **Materials and methods**

### 94 **Study species**

95 The annual herb *Papaver rhoeas* L. (common poppy, Papaveraceae) is a cosmopolitan and fast-  
96 growing species. It is widespread throughout Europe, over central and northern Asia, North  
97 Africa, and the Canary Islands (McNaughton & Harper, 1964). This species is an erect herb,  
98 which is usually between 10 and 50 cm high. The leaves are hairy and particularly variable in  
99 their shape and size. The basal leaves form a rosette of pinnatifid and alternate leaves (Tutin  
100 et al., 1993). This species has a slender primary tap root with multiple lateral secondary roots  
101 (McNaughton & Harper, 1964). *Papaver rhoeas* can withstand dry conditions (Torra et al.,  
102 2011), being commonly associated to disturbed habitats, arable lands, and cereal crops, where  
103 it occurs frequently with few or no competitors, and it also grows in communities with other  
104 herbaceous species (McNaughton & Harper, 1964).

### 105 **Past precipitation predictability treatments**

106 In 2012, seeds of *P. rhoeas* were sown at the experimental field station ‘El Boalar’ (42°33’N,  
107 0°37’W, 705 m a.s.l.; Jaca, Spain), where the natural intrinsic precipitation predictability was  
108 manipulated by means of an automated watering system (March-Salas et al., 2019; March-Salas  
109 & Fitze, 2019a). Plants were either exposed to more (M) or to less (L) predictable precipitation  
110 (March-Salas et al., 2019; March-Salas et al., 2021). To this end, supplemental watering events  
111 at regular time-intervals for the M treatment, and at random time-intervals for the L treatment,  
112 were added to the natural precipitation, resulting in a weighted permutation entropy (i.e., a  
113 measure that is inversely related to intrinsic predictability; Pennekamp et al., 2019) of 0.77 in  
114 M and 0.86 in L. Intrinsic precipitation predictability in M was equal to the one of natural  
115 precipitation, and the intrinsic precipitation predictability of L was 11.69% lower than that of  
116 M and of the natural precipitation (March-Salas et al., 2019). Each treatment was applied to  
117 four plots and both treatments consisted of the same total amount of precipitation (natural +  
118 supplemental) and of 14 supplemental watering events per week (each of 1.3 mm). The same  
119 watering treatment was applied to each generation from April to the end of September.

120 These treatments were applied over three consecutive generations in such a way that  
121 offspring seeds were always sown under the same precipitation predictability treatment, but  
122 never in the plot of the maternal plant. Seeds generated in 2012 (G1) were sown in 2013 and  
123 raised under the same treatment as their ancestor (G0). The seeds generated in 2013 (G2) were  
124 sown in 2014 and raised under the same treatment as their ancestors (G0 and G1). Finally, the  
125 seeds generated in 2014 (G3) were collected, separated by maternal plant, and stored in dry and  
126 dark conditions.

## 127 **Experimental setup**

128 In winter 2022-2023, a common-garden experiment with the G3 seeds was conducted in a  
129 greenhouse at Goethe University Frankfurt (50°10’N, 8°38’E, Frankfurt am Main, Germany).

130 Six seed families were randomly selected from each predictability treatment and sown in  
131 November 2022 in separate trays. This random selection included either one or two seed  
132 families from each plot. In December 2022, seedlings from each seed family and predictability  
133 treatment were randomly selected and transplanted into 0.75 L pots. To increase the chances of  
134 having one alive seedling per pot, we initially transplanted two seedlings from the same seed  
135 family and predictability treatment in the middle of each pot and separated by approx. 3 cm.  
136 Pots were submitted to three levels of drought treatments and two levels of competition (*see*  
137 details below). To have four replicates/pots per seed family and treatment level, a total number  
138 of 576 seedlings were transplanted into 288 pots (i.e., six seed families  $\times$  two predictability  
139 treatments  $\times$  three drought treatments  $\times$  two competition treatments  $\times$  four replicates/pots  $\times$  two  
140 seedlings per pot). Of each plant, the largest diameter (in cm) and the number of leaves were  
141 measured the day after the transplantation, and used in the analysis to account for potential  
142 effects of the initial size of the selected seedlings. The pots were positioned in 12 trays (each  
143 tray with 24 pots), and the position of the trays in the greenhouse as well as the position of the  
144 24 pots within each tray was randomized once per week. Pots were watered with sufficient  
145 water for two weeks, so that the plants could acclimate after the transplantation. After this  
146 establishment period, pots with two alive seedlings were randomly thinned to one seedling  
147 (hereafter referred to as day 1).

148 From day 1 and for four weeks, seedlings were exposed to long-term drought, short-  
149 term drought or to a control treatment (hereafter referred as ‘drought treatments’). Pots under  
150 the long-term drought treatment did not receive any water for the four weeks. Pots under the  
151 short-term drought treatment received sufficient water during the first week and were not  
152 watered during the next three weeks. The control pots received sufficient water during the four  
153 weeks. Each drought treatment was applied to one third of the pots (i.e., 96 pots within four

154 trays per drought treatment). The average soil humidity of each treatment was measured in three  
155 pots per tray (i.e., 12 pots per drought treatment) using soil moisture sensors (ML3 ThetaProbe,  
156 Delta-T Devices Ltd, Cambridge, UK), once in each of the last three weeks of the experiment.  
157 In the first of the last three experimental weeks (12 days and 3 days after the long- and short-  
158 term drought treatments started, respectively), the driest pots were those of the long-term  
159 drought treatment, while the pots of the short-term drought treatment showed an intermediate  
160 soil humidity, and the pots of the control treatment showed the greatest humidity (Fig. S1). The  
161 soil of the control treatment showed constant humidity during the last three experimental weeks,  
162 whereas the pots of both drought treatments showed significant and progressively decreasing  
163 humidity across measuring times (Fig. S1).

164 In addition, since *P. rhoeas* grows in presence of no, few or many competitors (e.g.,  
165 together with other forbs and grasses; McNaughton & Harper, 1964), we assessed whether the  
166 response of plants to the drought treatments differed when they grew or did not grow under  
167 competition. In half of the pots of each treatment, we used *Galium album* (Rubiaceae) as  
168 competitive species, since *Galium* species are commonly co-occurring with *P. rhoeas*  
169 (McNaughton & Harper, 1964). To do so, four seedlings of *G. album* were planted in each  
170 corner of the competition pots on the same day as the seedlings of *P. rhoeas* (Fig. 1).

### 171 **Plant measurements**

172 The wilting time, defined as the day when the leaves of *P. rhoeas* hung over the edge of the  
173 pots, was checked daily from the start of the drought treatment. When the plants started to wilt,  
174 we harvested them, and the non-wilted plants were harvested at the end of the experiment. After  
175 harvesting, the total number of leaves (i.e., the wilted and non-wilted ones in the wilted plants)  
176 was counted and the length of the longest leaf was measured to the nearest 0.5 cm. Additionally,  
177 roots were carefully dug out and washed to remove the substrate. The length of the longest root

178 was measured to the nearest 1 mm as an estimate of maximum rooting depth. Plants were then  
179 dried in an oven for 72 hours at 60°C and both dry aboveground and belowground biomass (g)  
180 were determined. Lastly, the root:shoot ratio was calculated (dry aboveground biomass/dry  
181 belowground biomass).

## 182 **Statistical analysis**

183 All statistical analyses were conducted with R *version 4.1.1* (R Development Core Team, 2021).  
184 Linear Mixed-effect Models (LMM) were applied for each of the seven response variables,  
185 using the “lme4” package and the “lmer” function (Bates et al., 2015). Past precipitation  
186 predictability treatment (more *versus* less), drought treatment (control, short-term and long-  
187 term drought), and competition treatment (without *versus* with competition) as well as their  
188 two- and three-way interactions were included as fixed factors. Seed family nested in plot was  
189 included as random factor and initial number of leaves as covariate. In all models, we tested the  
190 assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance of the residuals using the Shapiro-Wilk  
191 test and the Bartlett test, respectively. If the residuals were not normally distributed, we  
192 transformed the response variable (*see* transformations in Table 1). When we found significant  
193 interactions, we applied Tukey’s post-hoc contrasts using the “lsmeans” package (Lenth, 2016)  
194 to understand which levels were significantly different.

195

## 196 **Results**

### 197 **Treatment effects on wilting time**

198 Past precipitation predictability led to differences in wilting time in plants exposed to the long-  
199 term drought treatment without competition, but neither in the plants with competition, nor in  
200 plants exposed to the short-term drought treatment. This result is shown by a significant past

201 predictability  $\times$  drought  $\times$  competition three-way interaction (Table 1, Figs. 2, 3) and the post-  
202 hoc contrasts shown in Figure 3. Plants whose progenitors experienced less (past L) predictable  
203 precipitation wilted significantly later than those whose progenitors experienced more (past M)  
204 predictable precipitation (post-hoc contrast:  $p = 0.005$ ) (Fig. 3). This effect was evident from  
205 day 20 to the end of the experiment, when the proportion of wilted plants was higher (i.e., the  
206 proportion of non-wilted plants was lower, Fig. 2) if past predictability was M compared to L.  
207 Past predictability did not promote significant differences in wilting time under short-term  
208 drought or control treatments (Fig. 3). Overall, in presences of droughts, plants without  
209 competition wilted significantly later than plants under competition (Figs. 2, 3). None of the  
210 plants of the control treatment wilted during the experiment (Figs. 2, 3).

#### 211 **Treatment effects on aboveground traits**

212 Past precipitation predictability led to differences in all three aboveground morphological traits,  
213 either in two-way interactions with the drought treatment for aboveground biomass and number  
214 of leaves, or in three-way interactions with the drought treatment and competition for maximum  
215 leaf length and number of leaves (Table 1). Under long-term drought and without competition,  
216 plants from past L showed significantly lower aboveground biomass ( $p = 0.015$ ), shorter leaves  
217 ( $p = 0.025$ ) and fewer leaves ( $p = 0.047$ ) than plants from past M (Fig. 4A–C). However, past  
218 predictability did not promote significant trait differences under long-term drought with  
219 competition. Nor did past predictability significantly affect aboveground trait responses in the  
220 control or short-term drought treatments, irrespective of the competition treatment. In addition,  
221 plants from past L showed overall significantly shorter leaves compared to the plants from past  
222 M, as indicated by the past predictability main effect (Table 1). Furthermore, under long-term  
223 drought, significant differences between competition treatments existed for all aboveground  
224 traits in plants from past M but in plants from past L only for aboveground biomass (Fig. 4A–

225 C), indicating that the past predictability treatments led to differences in plasticity to  
226 competition.

### 227 **Treatment effects on belowground traits**

228 Past precipitation predictability led to differences in all three belowground traits either in two-  
229 way interactions with the drought treatment for belowground biomass (marginally significant,  
230 Table 1) and with competition for root length as well as in three-way interactions with drought  
231 and competition for belowground biomass and root:shoot ratio (Table 1). Under long-term  
232 drought and without competition, plants from past L showed a significantly lower belowground  
233 biomass ( $p = 0.028$ ) and a lower root:shoot ratio ( $p = 0.036$ ) than plants from past M (Fig. 4D,  
234 F). This effect was also found under control conditions with competition in the root:shoot ratio  
235 ( $p = 0.043$ ) but no significant differences were found in the short-term drought treatment (Fig.  
236 4F). Under long-term drought, significant differences between competition treatments existed  
237 for root:shoot ratio in plants from past L but not in plants from past M, and the opposite was  
238 true in the control treatment (Fig. 4F). The effect of past predictability on the root length varied  
239 with the competition treatment (Table 1). Across the three drought treatments, plants from past  
240 L growing under competition showed significantly shorter roots compared to the plants from  
241 past M growing under competition ( $p = 0.008$ ) but no significant differences between the past  
242 predictability treatments were found within drought-treatments, independent of whether plants  
243 grew with or without competition (Fig. 4E).

244

### 245 **Discussion**

246 Our study shows that lower precipitation predictability experimentally applied over multiple  
247 generations caused drought tolerance in *Papaver rhoeas*. Lower past precipitation predictability

248 caused trait differences of the offspring plants growing in common-garden conditions,  
249 suggesting that precipitation predictability triggered differences in selection. The results on  
250 plant wilting show that, under severe drought, plants whose progenitors experienced lower  
251 precipitation predictability survived longer than those whose progenitors experienced more  
252 predictable precipitation. However, plants from past L had lower biomass and less leaves,  
253 suggesting that lower predictability can cause evolution towards a drought-tolerance strategy,  
254 helping to reduce water loss. In addition, in line with findings in the previous generations  
255 exposed to differences in precipitation predictability (e.g., March-Salas, van Kleunen & Fitze,  
256 2021.; March-Salas et al., 2022), under long-term drought and the control treatment the  
257 investment into roots was lower in plants from past L compared to M when they were growing  
258 without or with competition, respectively. This also indicates that the root trait expression was  
259 shaped by differences in precipitation predictability, and it suggests that lower precipitation  
260 predictability led to improved drought stress tolerance rather than to a drought-escape or a  
261 drought-avoidance strategy.

262 **Is past precipitation predictability promoting different plant phenotypes under**  
263 **common-garden conditions?**

264 In line with our first hypothesis, simulated precipitation predictability during three consecutive  
265 generations caused different plant phenotypes under common-garden conditions. All above-  
266 and below-ground traits were significantly affected either by past precipitation predictability as  
267 main effect or by interactions of past predictability with drought and/or competition (Table 1).  
268 This suggests that differences in past precipitation predictability induced differences in the  
269 strength of selection, which would be in line with previous results showing that different  
270 precipitation predictability induces differences in the selective regime (March-Salas, Fandos &  
271 Fitze, 2021; March-Salas, van Kleunen & Fitze, 2021; Yin et al., 2022). Phenotypic differences

272 shown in our common-garden could also be mediated by maternal effects. However, potential  
273 maternal effects were controlled in the models by including early size as a covariate, as maternal  
274 effects are mainly expressed in plant early stages (Donohue, 2009). Moreover, early size was  
275 not significantly different between past predictability treatments (initial number of leaves: Chi-  
276 sq. = 1.223;  $p = 0.269$ ; initial largest diameter: Chi-sq. = 0.858;  $p = 0.354$ ). Thus, it is unlikely  
277 that phenotypic differences found in our common-garden are the result of maternal effects. The  
278 observed results are rather the effect of differences in selection, and ultimately, in line with an  
279 evolutionary change driven by precipitation predictability.

280 Past precipitation predictability also played a role in the plasticity expressed by the  
281 offspring grown under different treatments in the common-garden experiment. Reduced  
282 plasticity to competition was found in plants from past L compared to plants from past M in  
283 above- and below-ground biomass, leaf length, and number of leaves if they were exposed to  
284 the long-term drought treatment (Fig.4). This result is consistent with other studies suggesting  
285 that the precipitation predictability in the environment of origin can shape the evolution of  
286 phenotypic plasticity (Yin et al., 2022) or that the precipitation predictability of the maternal  
287 environment determines the variation in the descendants' responses (March-Salas et al., 2022;  
288 Leung et al., 2022). Since environments that fluctuate less predictably induce mismatches  
289 between plastic responses and selective pressures, organisms may evolve lower plasticity under  
290 decreased predictability (Leung et al., 2020). However, the degree and direction of plasticity to  
291 competition differed between past predictability treatments and drought treatments in  
292 root:shoot ratio (Fig. 4F). These findings thus indicate that the effect of precipitation  
293 predictability on the direction of plastic responses depended on the measured trait, and that

294 differences in plasticity to competition were mainly expressed under the long-drought  
295 treatment.

296 Strong plasticity in adaptive traits can hinder rapid evolution (Metz et al. 2020). In our  
297 previous experiments on *P. rhoeas*, progenitor plants exhibited reduced transgenerational  
298 plasticity in root functional traits and investment strategies under less predictable conditions  
299 compared to those under more predictable conditions (March-Salas et al., 2022). In our  
300 common-garden experiment, plants from lower past precipitation predictability showed smaller  
301 plant size and lower root investment in the presence of long-term drought. Our results thus  
302 suggest that reduced plasticity caused by lower predictability goes hand-in-hand with rapid  
303 evolution of traits while evolutionary shifts are less likely if progenitors showed high trait  
304 plasticity, in line with our second hypothesis and other studies (Merilä & Hendry, 2014; Metz  
305 et al. 2022).

306

307 **Is past precipitation predictability affecting the strategy expressed by offspring**  
308 **plants under drought stress?**

309 In line with our third hypothesis, our results indicate that the degree of precipitation  
310 predictability experienced during three consecutive generations caused differences in the  
311 plants' responses to severe drought events. Overall, in the long-term drought treatment, plants  
312 from past L started wilting significantly later than those from past M, which shows longer plant  
313 survival if progenitor plants were exposed to lower precipitation predictability. Higher survival  
314 rates under less predictable conditions were also found in the experiments with the progenitors  
315 (March-Salas & Fitze, 2019a), showing the relevant role of precipitation predictability in

316 natural selection processes. Lower predictability entails less-regular water availability, what  
317 may pre-adapt plants to certain drought events and to environmental variation.

318         The presumed longer survival of plants from past L may be explained by their reduced  
319 size. Plants from past L showed lower biomass, smaller leaves and a lower number of leaves.  
320 These phenotypic responses may help to better withstand water-deficit conditions (Lei et al.,  
321 2006), since smaller size prevents plants from water loss through transpiration (Aroca, 2012;  
322 Chaves, 2002). This can be understood as a physiological adjustment induced by the  
323 progenitor's precipitation predictability (March-Salas & Fitze, 2019b) and allows plants to  
324 tolerate drought stress (Májeková et al., 2019) and increase their leaf water content (Blum,  
325 2005; Bartlett et al., 2014). This indicates a drought-tolerance strategy promoted by reduced  
326 growth and likely driven by rapid evolution of plants in response to lower precipitation  
327 predictability preparing them as well against drought events (Koziol et al., 2012; Rauschkolb  
328 et al., 2022). Past precipitation predictability thus resulted in changes in the morphological and  
329 physiological trait expression that may help plants to avoid future extinction of populations  
330 under climate change (Maggio et al., 2018).

331         Developing a deeper root system or greater root biomass can help plants to avoid  
332 drought, since obtaining water from deeper soil layers prevents water deficit and increases  
333 survival rates (Aroca, 2012; Gowda et al., 2011; Kavar et al., 2008; Padilla & Pugnaire, 2007).  
334 Across all past predictability and competition treatments, our experiment shows a lower root  
335 biomass and shorter roots but a greater relative investment into roots (i.e., the root:shoot ratio)  
336 in plants under longer drought (compared to the control and short-term drought treatment).  
337 However, the root response to drought depended on the past predictability precipitation. Under  
338 long drought conditions and no competition, plants from past L produced lower root biomass  
339 and lower root:shoot ratio than plants from past M. This shows that the progenitor's

340 precipitation predictability regime leads to a different root response under severe drought of its  
341 offspring, suggesting an adaptive response to lower predictability in water availability (March-  
342 Salas et al., 2022; Yamauchi et al., 2021; Zhou et al., 2019). Plants of the control and  
343 competition treatment also showed a greater root response in plants from past M compared to  
344 those from past L, which could be related to a water deficit mediated by the competitor plants.  
345 In the progenitor generations, plants under L exhibited reduced root investment, which  
346 increased their fitness (March-Salas et al., 2022). Lower predictability more likely reduces the  
347 length of the primary root while it can promote lateral root branching in order to help plants to  
348 withstand stressful conditions such as water deficits (Gallego-Tévar et al., 2022; March-Salas  
349 et al., 2022). This strategy is expected in annual species, which aim to absorb available  
350 resources close to the soil surface, but not necessarily in perennial plants, which generally root  
351 deeper (March-Salas, van Kleunen & Fitze, 2021). Overall, the root trait responses show that  
352 lower precipitation predictability is unlikely to induce a drought-avoidance strategy and rather  
353 induce a functional stress tolerance mechanism. Nevertheless, a drought-escape strategy cannot  
354 be discarded as possible outcome in this study, because experimental plants did not flower  
355 before wilting and thus it was not possible to test this hypothesis.

356 In addition, for all traits except root:shoot ratio, no effects of past precipitation  
357 predictability existed under competition. In the short and long drought treatments, competition  
358 for limiting resources led to no morphological changes between plants with different past  
359 precipitation predictability, as would be expected (Craine & Dybzinski, 2013; Johansson,  
360 2008). Given that no significant differences in seedling size existed between past precipitation  
361 predictability treatment, the observed differences without competition occurred thereafter  
362 through differential growth and strategy, i.e., when the drought treatments already started to  
363 show effects. Competition thus accelerated death and reduced plant size, but it also hindered

364 the development of phenotypic differences between plants with different past precipitation  
365 predictability. This result is most likely because water availability was even lower in pots with  
366 competition, as more plants competed for the limiting resources in the drought treatments,  
367 preventing differential functional strategies. Our results are in line with previous theoretical  
368 studies indicating that interspecific competition may influence the evolutionary trajectories of  
369 plant populations (Craine & Dybzinski, 2013; Johansson, 2008). This then indicates that  
370 potential evolutionary changes driven by precipitation predictability may not manifest if plants  
371 are exposed to competition.

372

### 373 **Conclusion**

374 An organism's evolutionary response to differences in environmental predictability is of great  
375 interest given the current and projected reduction in climatic predictability. Here, we assessed  
376 whether past precipitation predictability promoted a specific functional strategy to their  
377 offspring to deal with longer drought episodes. The results of this study show, to our knowledge  
378 for the first time, that ancestors exposed to lower precipitation predictability produced offspring  
379 with increased drought tolerance, as they took longer to wilt when exposed to a long drought  
380 episodes. This supports earlier results on the progenitor generations (i.e., March-Salas et al.,  
381 2019, 2022; March-Salas & Fitze, 2019a), which showed that less predictable precipitation may  
382 not be detrimental for plants and may rather favour rapid evolutionary responses. Lower  
383 predictability may cause more prolonged droughts, which is likely to be a key factor driving  
384 the observed evolutionary changes. However, phenotypic differences disappeared if plants were  
385 grown under competition, indicating that interspecific competition may slow down  
386 evolutionary trajectories driven by precipitation predictability. In conclusion, our study

387 provides new insights into the evolution of plants in a changing climate, highlighting that  
388 precipitation predictability is an important evolutionary driver of plant drought strategies.

389 **Acknowledgements**

390 We thank Instituto Pirenaico de Ecología (IPE-CSIC) and Museo Nacional de Ciencias  
391 Naturales (MNCN-CSIC) as host institutions of the project that provided the original seed  
392 material, as well as the Spanish Ministry of Economy and Competitiveness (CGL2012-32459,  
393 CGL2016-76918) for the financial support of the project. We thank the Wissenschaftsgarten of  
394 Goethe University Frankfurt and their staff for providing space, materials and support for the  
395 common-garden experiment. We also thank Lutz Stübing and Tobias Müller for their help in  
396 the common-garden experiment.

397

398 **Conflict of interest**

399 All authors declare there are no conflicts of interest.

400

401 **Author contributions**

402 MMS with PSF conducted the evolutionary experiments that gave rise to the original seed  
403 material. KS, TC, JFS and MMS designed the common-garden experiment. KS and TC  
404 conducted the experiment, measured the plants and analysed the data with inputs from JFS, VH  
405 and MMS. KS, TC and MMS wrote the first draft of the manuscript, and all authors contributed  
406 to revisions.

407

408 **Data availability statement**

409 Data will be made available in a public repository upon acceptance for publication.

410 **References**

- 411 Aroca, R. (Ed.). (2012). *Plant Responses to Drought Stress: From Morphological to Molecular*  
412 *Features*. Springer Berlin Heidelberg. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-32653-0>
- 413 Ashander, J., Chevin, L.-M., & Baskett, M. L. (2016). Predicting evolutionary rescue via  
414 evolving plasticity in stochastic environments. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B:*  
415 *Biological Sciences*, 283(1839), 20161690. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rspb.2016.1690>
- 416 Bartlett, M. K., Zhang, Y., Kreidler, N., Sun, S., Ardy, R., Cao, K., & Sack, L. (2014). Global  
417 analysis of plasticity in turgor loss point, a key drought tolerance trait. *Ecology Letters*,  
418 17(12), 1580–1590. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ele.12374>
- 419 Blum, A. (2005). Drought resistance, water-use efficiency, and yield potential—Are they  
420 compatible, dissonant, or mutually exclusive? *Australian Journal of Agricultural*  
421 *Research*, 56(11), 1159. <https://doi.org/10.1071/AR05069>
- 422 Bowles, A. M. C., Paps, J., & Bechtold, U. (2021). Evolutionary Origins of Drought Tolerance  
423 in Spermatophytes. *Frontiers in Plant Science*, 12, 655924.  
424 <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpls.2021.655924>
- 425 Chaves, M. M. (2002). How plants cope with water stress in the field? Photosynthesis and  
426 growth. *Annals of Botany*, 89(7), 907–916. <https://doi.org/10.1093/aob/mcf105>
- 427 Craine, J. M., & Dybzinski, R. (2013). Mechanisms of plant competition for nutrients, water  
428 and light. *Functional Ecology*, 27(4), 833–840. [https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-](https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2435.12081)  
429 2435.12081
- 430 Dai, A. (2013). Increasing drought under global warming in observations and models. *Nature*  
431 *Climate Change*, 3(1), 52–58. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nclimate1633>
- 432 Dewar, R. E., & Richard, A. F. (2007). Evolution in the hypervariable environment of  
433 Madagascar. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 104(34), 13723–13727.  
434 <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0704346104>

435 Donohue, K. (2009). Completing the cycle: Maternal effects as the missing link in plant life  
436 histories. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*,  
437 364(1520), 1059–1074. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2008.0291>

438 Franks, S. J., Sim, S., & Weis, A. E. (2007). Rapid evolution of flowering time by an annual  
439 plant in response to a climate fluctuation. *Proceedings of the National Academy of*  
440 *Sciences*, 104(4), 1278–1282. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0608379104>

441 Gallego-Tévar, B., Hidalgo-Galvez, M. D., Cambrollé, J., Martínez-Muñoz, M., Villar-Godoy,  
442 A., & Pérez-Ramos, I. M. (2022). Transgenerational responses to climate change in  
443 Mediterranean annual species with contrasting functional strategies. *Environmental and*  
444 *Experimental Botany*, 196, 104817. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envexpbot.2022.104817>

445 Gowda, V. R. P., Henry, A., Yamauchi, A., Shashidhar, H. E., & Serraj, R. (2011). Root biology  
446 and genetic improvement for drought avoidance in rice. *Field Crops Research*, 122(1),  
447 1–13. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fcr.2011.03.001>

448 Hoffmann, A. A., & Sgrò, C. M. (2011). Climate change and evolutionary adaptation. *Nature*,  
449 470(7335), 479–485. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature09670>

450 Johansson, J. (2008). Evolutionary responses to environmental changes: How does competition  
451 affect adaptation? *Evolution*, 62(2), 421–435. [https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1558-](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1558-5646.2007.00301.x)  
452 [5646.2007.00301.x](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1558-5646.2007.00301.x)

453 Karl, T. R., Knight, R. W., & Plummer, N. (1995). Trends in high-frequency climate variability  
454 in the twentieth century. *Nature*, 377(6546), 217–220.  
455 <https://doi.org/10.1038/377217a0>

456 Kavar, T., Maras, M., Kidrič, M., Šuštar-Vozlič, J., & Meglič, V. (2008). Identification of genes  
457 involved in the response of leaves of *Phaseolus vulgaris* to drought stress. *Molecular*  
458 *Breeding*, 21(2), 159–172. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11032-007-9116-8>

459 Koziol, L., Rieseberg, L. H., Kane, N., & Bever, J. D. (2012). Reduced drought tolerance during  
460 domestication and the evolution of weediness results from tolerance-growth trade-offs:  
461 Sunflower growth and drought tolerance trade-offs. *Evolution*, *66*(12), 3803–3814.  
462 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1558-5646.2012.01718.x>

463 Lambrecht, S. C., Gujral, A. K., Renshaw, L. J., & Rosengreen, L. T. (2020). Evolutionary and  
464 plastic changes in a native annual plant after a historic drought. *Ecology and Evolution*,  
465 *10*(11), 4570–4582. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ece3.6156>

466 Lei, Y., Yin, C., & Li, C. (2006). Differences in some morphological, physiological, and  
467 biochemical responses to drought stress in two contrasting populations of *Populus*  
468 *przewalskii*. *Physiologia Plantarum*, *127*(2), 182–191. [https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1399-](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1399-3054.2006.00638.x)  
469 [3054.2006.00638.x](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1399-3054.2006.00638.x)

470 Lenth, R. V. (2016). Least-Squares Means: The R Package lsmeans. *Journal of Statistical*  
471 *Software*, *69*(1). <https://doi.org/10.18637/jss.v069.i01>

472 Leung, C., Rescan, M., Grulois, D., & Chevin, L. (2020). Reduced phenotypic plasticity evolves  
473 in less predictable environments. *Ecology Letters*, *23*(11), 1664–1672.  
474 <https://doi.org/10.1111/ele.13598>

475 Levitt, J. (1980). *Responses of plants to environmental stresses* (2d ed). Academic Press.

476 Maggio, A., Bressan, R., Zhao, Y., Park, J., & Yun, D.-J. (2018). It’s hard to avoid avoidance:  
477 Uncoupling the evolutionary connection between plant growth, productivity and stress  
478 “tolerance.” *International Journal of Molecular Sciences*, *19*(11), 3671.  
479 <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms19113671>

480 Májejková, M., Martínková, J., & Hájek, T. (2019). Grassland plants show no relationship  
481 between leaf drought tolerance and soil moisture affinity, but rapidly adjust to changes  
482 in soil moisture. *Functional Ecology*, *33*(5), 774–785. [https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-](https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2435.13312)  
483 [2435.13312](https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2435.13312)

484 March-Salas, M., Fandos, G., & Fitze, P. S. (2021). Effects of intrinsic environmental  
485 predictability on intra-individual and intra-population variability of plant reproductive  
486 traits and eco-evolutionary consequences. *Annals of Botany*, 127(4), 413–423.  
487 <https://doi.org/10.1093/aob/mcaa096>

488 March-Salas, M., & Fitze, P. S. (2019a). A multi-year experiment shows that lower  
489 precipitation predictability encourages plants' early life stages and enhances population  
490 viability. *PeerJ*, 7, e6443. <https://doi.org/10.7717/peerj.6443>

491 March-Salas, M., & Fitze, P. S. (2019b). Changes in environmental predictability alter a plant's  
492 chemical composition and associated ecosystem services. *Environmental and*  
493 *Experimental Botany*, 168, 103865. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envexpbot.2019.103865>

494 March-Salas, M., Scheepens, J. F., van Kleunen, M., & Fitze, P. S. (2022). Precipitation  
495 predictability affects intra- and trans-generational plasticity and causes differential  
496 selection on root traits of *Papaver rhoeas*. *Frontiers in Plant Science*, 13, 998169.  
497 <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpls.2022.998169>

498 March-Salas, M., van Kleunen, M., & Fitze, P. S. (2019). Rapid and positive responses of plants  
499 to lower precipitation predictability. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological*  
500 *Sciences*, 286(1913), 20191486. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rspb.2019.1486>

501 March-Salas, M., van Kleunen, M., & Fitze, P. S. (2021). Effects of intrinsic precipitation-  
502 predictability on root traits, allocation strategies and the selective regimes acting on  
503 them. *Oikos*, 2022(1), oik.07970. <https://doi.org/10.1111/oik.07970>

504 McNaughton, I. H., & Harper, J. L. (1964). *Papaver L.* *The Journal of Ecology*, 52(3), 767.  
505 <https://doi.org/10.2307/2257860>

506 Merilä, J., & Hendry, A. P. (2014). Climate change, adaptation, and phenotypic plasticity: The  
507 problem and the evidence. *Evolutionary Applications*, 7(1), 1–14.  
508 <https://doi.org/10.1111/eva.12137>

509 Metz, J., Lampei, C., Bäumler, L., Bocherens, H., Dittberner, H., Henneberg, L., Meaux, J., &  
510 Tielbörger, K. (2020). Rapid adaptive evolution to drought in a subset of plant traits in  
511 a large-scale climate change experiment. *Ecology Letters*, 23(11), 1643–1653.  
512 <https://doi.org/10.1111/ele.13596>

513 Padilla, F. M., & Pugnaire, F. I. (2007). Rooting depth and soil moisture control Mediterranean  
514 woody seedling survival during drought. *Functional Ecology*, 21(3), 489–495.  
515 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2435.2007.01267.x>

516 Pennekamp, F., Iles, A. C., Garland, J., Brennan, G., Brose, U., Gaedke, U., Jacob, U., Kratina,  
517 P., Matthews, B., Munch, S., Novak, M., Palamara, G. M., Rall, B. C., Rosenbaum, B.,  
518 Tabi, A., Ward, C., Williams, R., Ye, H., & Petchey, O. L. (2019). The intrinsic  
519 predictability of ecological time series and its potential to guide forecasting. *Ecological*  
520 *Monographs*, 89(2). <https://doi.org/10.1002/ecm.1359>

521 Pörtner, H. O., Roberts, D. C., Tignor, M. M. B., Poloczanska, E., Mintenbeck, K., Alegría, A.,  
522 Craig, M., Langsdorf, S., Löschke, S., Möller, V., Okem, A., & Rama, B. (2022).  
523 *Impacts, Adaptation and Vulnerability*. 3068. <https://doi.org/10.1017/9781009325844>

524 Rauschkolb, R., Li, Z., Godefroid, S., Dixon, L., Durka, W., Májeková, M., Bossdorf, O.,  
525 Ensslin, A., & Scheepens, J. F. (2022). Evolution of plant drought strategies and  
526 herbivore tolerance after two decades of climate change. *New Phytologist*, 235(2), 773–  
527 785. <https://doi.org/10.1111/nph.18125>

528 Singh, D., Ting, M., Scaife, A. A., & Martin, N. (2018). California winter precipitation  
529 predictability: Insights from the anomalous 2015–2016 and 2016–2017 seasons.  
530 *Geophysical Research Letters*, 45(18), 9972–9980.  
531 <https://doi.org/10.1029/2018GL078844>

532 Swain, D. L., Langenbrunner, B., Neelin, J. D., & Hall, A. (2018). Increasing precipitation  
533 volatility in twenty-first-century California. *Nature Climate Change*, 8(5), 427–433.  
534 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41558-018-0140-y>

535 Torra, J., Royo Esnal, A., & Recasens Guinjuan, J. (2011). Management of herbicide-resistant  
536 *Papaver rhoeas* in dry land cereal fields. *Agronomy for Sustainable Development*, 31(3),  
537 483–490. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13593-011-0010-8>

538 Tufto, J. (2015). Genetic evolution, plasticity, and bet-hedging as adaptive responses to  
539 temporally autocorrelated fluctuating selection: A quantitative genetic model:  
540 Evolutionary responses to fluctuating selection. *Evolution*, 69(8), 2034–2049.  
541 <https://doi.org/10.1111/evo.12716>

542 Tutin, T. G., Halliday, G., & Beadle, M. (1993). *Flora Europaea*. Cambridge University Press.

543 Xu, L., Zhang, C., Chen, N., Moradkhani, H., Chu, P., & Zhang, X. (2020). Potential  
544 precipitation predictability decreases under future warming. *Geophysical Research*  
545 *Letters*, 47(22). <https://doi.org/10.1029/2020GL090798>

546 Yamauchi, T., Pedersen, O., Nakazono, M., & Tsutsumi, N. (2021). Key root traits of Poaceae  
547 for adaptation to soil water gradients. *New Phytologist*, 229(6), 3133–3140.  
548 <https://doi.org/10.1111/nph.17093>

549 Yin, J., Lin, X., Yao, J., Li, Q. Q., & Zhang, Y. (2022). Genotypic variation of transgenerational  
550 plasticity can be explained by environmental predictability at origins. *Oikos*, 2022(5).  
551 <https://doi.org/10.1111/oik.09006>

552 Zhou, M., Wang, J., Bai, W., Zhang, Y., & Zhang, W. (2019). The response of root traits to  
553 precipitation change of herbaceous species in temperate steppes. *Functional Ecology*,  
554 33(10), 2030–2041. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2435.13420>

555

556 **Figure legends**

557 **Figure 1:** Design of the common-garden experiment. Each square represents one pot for each  
558 treatment level. Drought treatments are indicated by different background colours (grey: control  
559 treatment, yellow: short-term drought treatment, orange: long-term drought treatment). Blue  
560 and red dots represent *Papaver rhoeas* individuals whose progenitors experienced more (M) or  
561 less (L) predictable precipitation, respectively. In pots with competition, four individuals of  
562 *Galium album* (green dots) were planted in each corner. For each treatment level, we used six  
563 seed families with four replicates, resulting in 288 pots.

564 **Figure 2:** Proportion of non-wilted *Papaver rhoeas* plants during the experiment per treatment  
565 level. The grey lines represent the control treatment, yellow the short-term drought treatment,  
566 and orange the long-term drought treatment. Within each drought treatment level, thin lines  
567 represent plants whose progenitors experienced more (M) predictable precipitation while thick  
568 lines represent those that experienced less (L) predictable precipitation. Solid lines show *P.*  
569 *rhoeas* plants without competition while the dashed lines show plants growing with  
570 competition. The x-axis shows the number of days since the start of the long-term drought  
571 treatment.

572 **Figure 3:** Number of days until *Papaver rhoeas* plants started to wilt per treatment  
573 combination. The panels show the different drought treatments, while the past precipitation  
574 predictability and competition treatments are represented on the x-axis. Blue and red colours  
575 indicate the plants whose progenitors were exposed to more or to less predictable precipitation,  
576 respectively. Note that no plants of the control group wilted during the experiment. Mean  $\pm$   
577 standard error (SE) are shown in the bar plots. Post-hoc contrasts among all treatment  
578 combinations are indicated with letters. Sample size per treatment combination is indicated at  
579 the bottom of each bar.

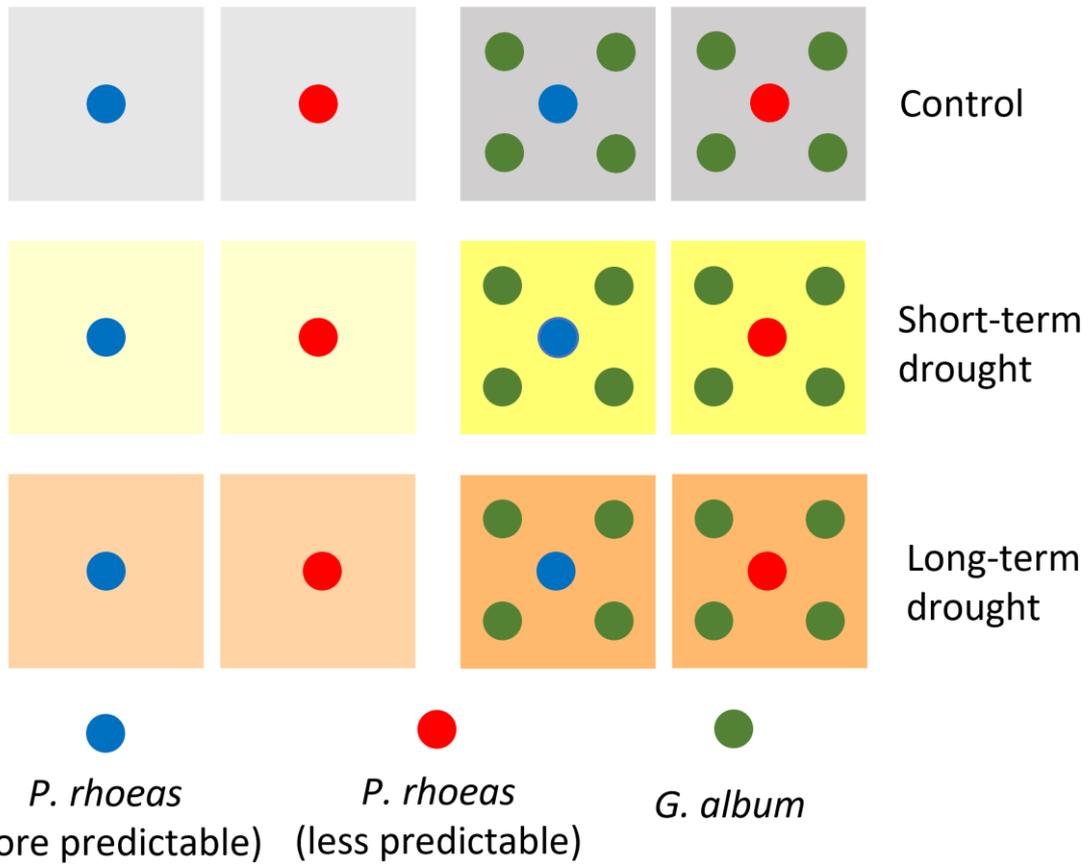
580 **Figure 4:** Treatment effects on morphological traits of *Papaver rhoeas*: (A) Dry aboveground  
581 biomass; (B) Length of the longest leaf; (C) Number of leaves; (D) Dry belowground biomass;  
582 (E) Root length; and (F) Root:shoot ratio. The panels show the different drought treatments,  
583 while the past predictability and competition treatments are represented on the x-axis. Blue and  
584 red colours indicate the plants whose progenitors were exposed to more or to less predictable  
585 precipitation, respectively. Mean  $\pm$  standard error (SE) are shown. Post-hoc contrasts among all  
586 treatment combinations are indicated with letters.

587 **Table and Figures:**

588 **Table 1:** Results of the linear mixed-effects model including the effect of past precipitation predictability [P], competition [C], drought [D] and their  
 589 two- and three-way interactions on trait responses of *Papaver rhoeas*. Initial number of leaves was also included as covariate. Shown are Chi-square  
 590 values followed by significance stars: \*  $0.05 > p \geq 0.01$ ; \*\*  $0.01 > p \geq 0.001$ ; \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ , and • reflects marginal effects ( $0.1 > p \geq 0.05$ ). Sample  
 591 size was 284. *df*, degrees of freedom. Response variables are wilting time (defined as number of days until wilting), aboveground biomass (g),  
 592 belowground biomass (mg), root:shoot ratio, root length (cm), number of leaves, and length of the longest leaf (cm).

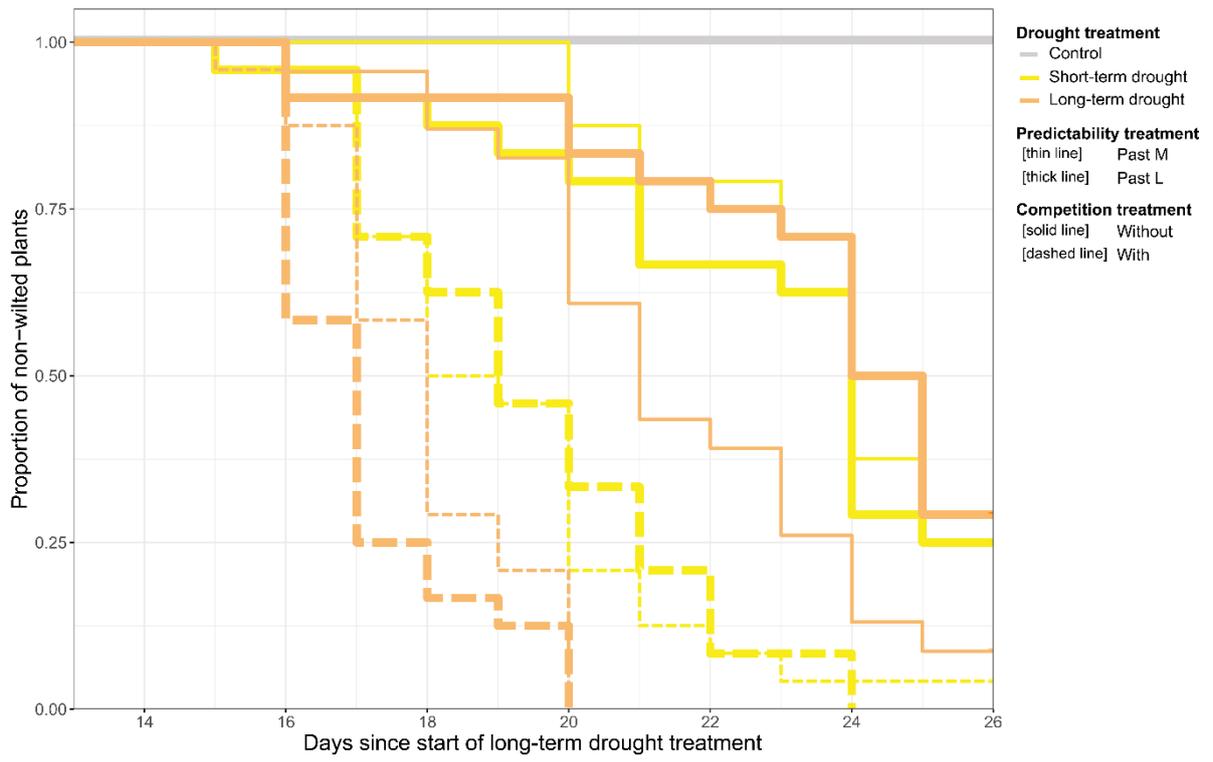
Effect	<i>df</i>	Wilting time <sup>1</sup>	Aboveground biomass <sup>2</sup>	Length of longest leaf <sup>3</sup>	Number of leaves <sup>4</sup>	Belowground biomass <sup>5</sup>	Root length <sup>5</sup>	Root:shoot ratio <sup>6</sup>
Initial number of leaves	1	<b>21.281 ***</b>	<b>25.730 ***</b>	<b>9.489 **</b>	<b>44.120 ***</b>	<b>24.198 ***</b>	0.807	0.712
Precipitation predictability [P]	1	0.012	1.881	<b>4.276 *</b>	0.074	0.581	1.186	0.030
Competition [C]	1	<b>186.271 ***</b>	<b>381.041 ***</b>	<b>79.409 ***</b>	<b>182.009 ***</b>	<b>339.743 ***</b>	<b>153.125 ***</b>	0.465
Drought treatment [D]	2	<b>672.698 ***</b>	<b>156.845 ***</b>	<b>153.852 ***</b>	<b>66.624 ***</b>	<b>69.765 ***</b>	<b>23.125 ***</b>	<b>31.891 ***</b>
P x C	1	1.382	0.269	0.871	3.800 •	0.007	<b>7.872 **</b>	0.088
P x D	2	<b>7.201 *</b>	<b>6.162 *</b>	3.533	<b>7.037 *</b>	4.729 •	0.769	2.875
C x D	2	<b>91.665 ***</b>	<b>17.215 ***</b>	<b>51.595 ***</b>	<b>13.261 **</b>	<b>7.620 *</b>	1.981	<b>11.293 **</b>
P x C x D	2	<b>18.269 ***</b>	3.500	<b>8.176 *</b>	<b>7.954 *</b>	<b>12.683 **</b>	4.726 •	<b>24.701 ***</b>

Transformations: <sup>1</sup>  $\sqrt{3.5}$ ; <sup>2</sup>  $\sqrt{0.55}$ ; <sup>3</sup>  $\sqrt{0.8}$ ; <sup>4</sup>  $\sqrt{0.12}$ ; <sup>5</sup>  $\sqrt{0.42}$ ; <sup>6</sup>  $\sqrt{0.7}$



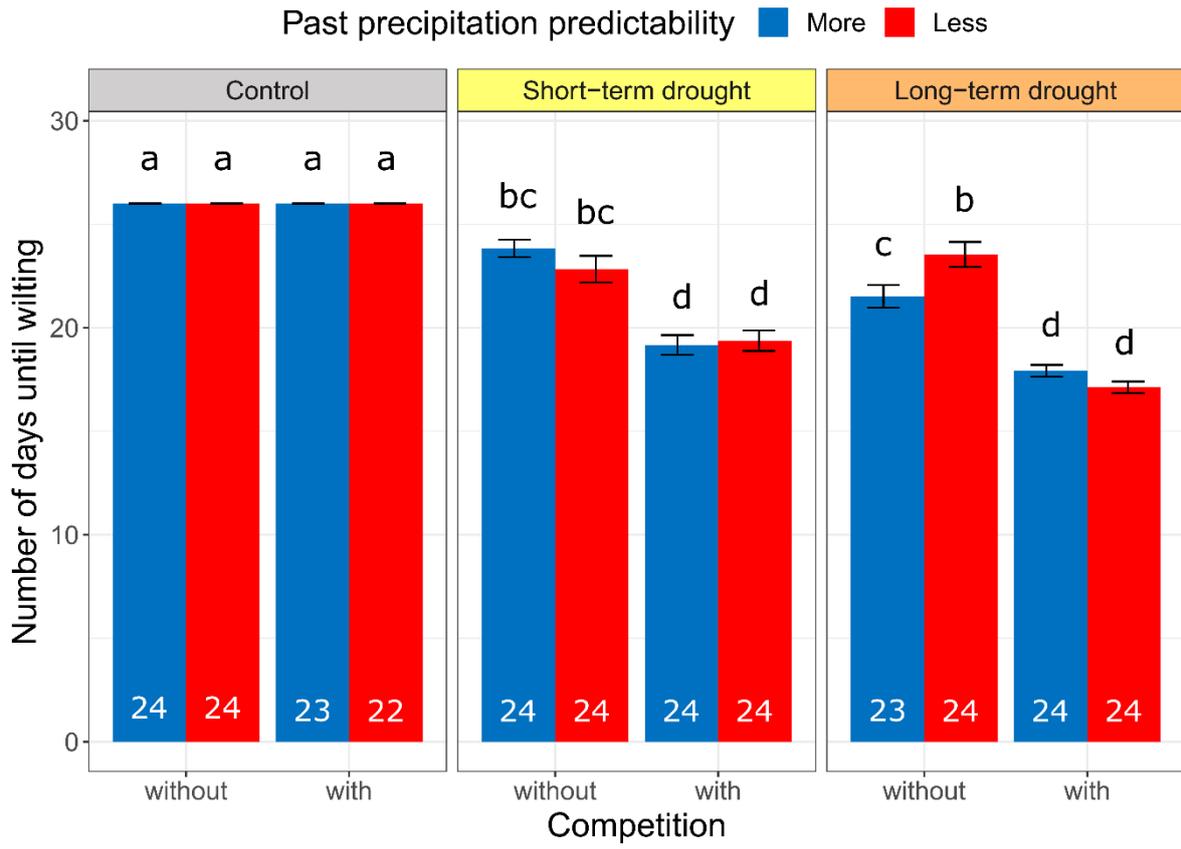
594

595 **Figure 1**



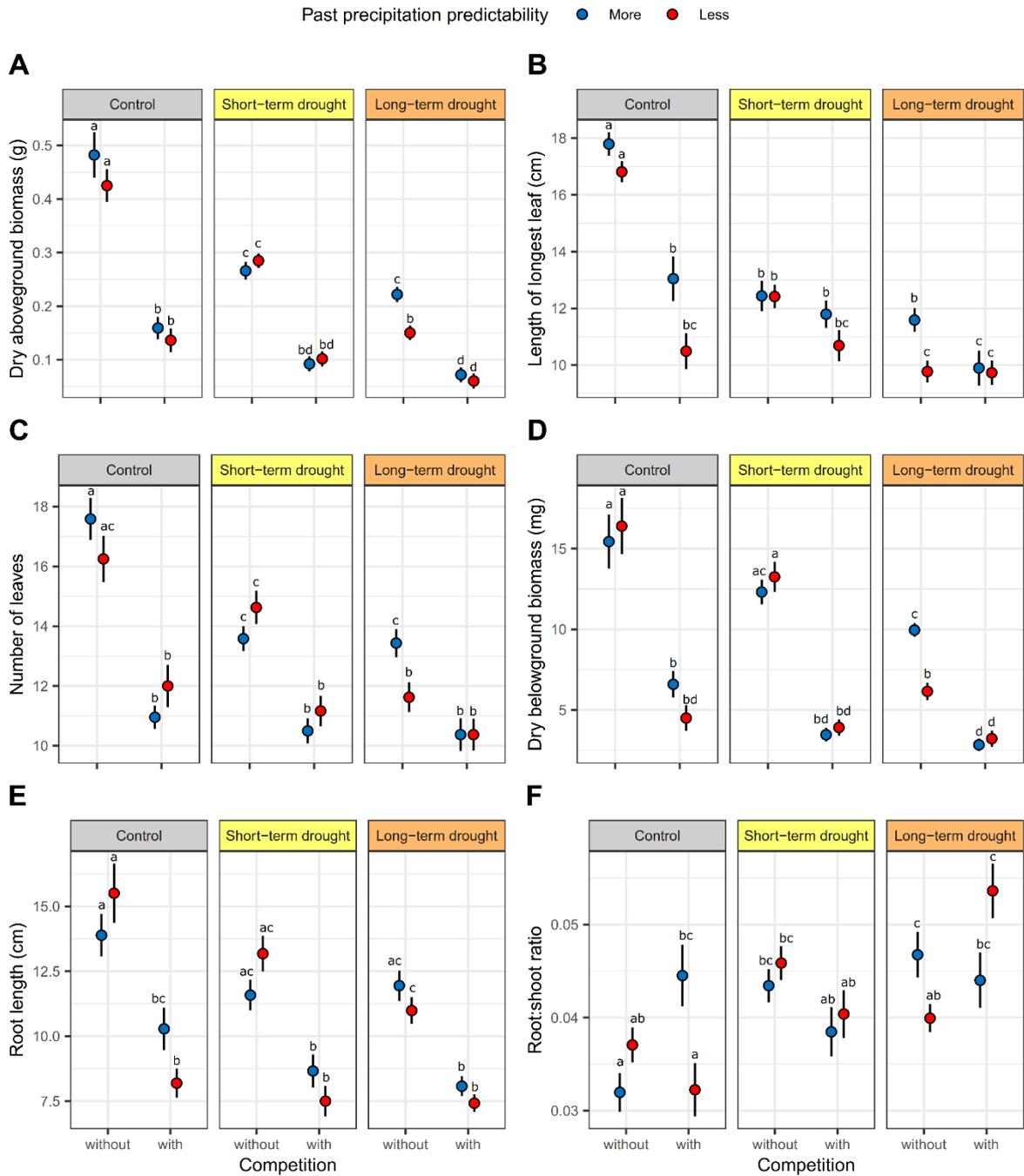
597

598 **Figure 2**



599

600 **Figure 3**



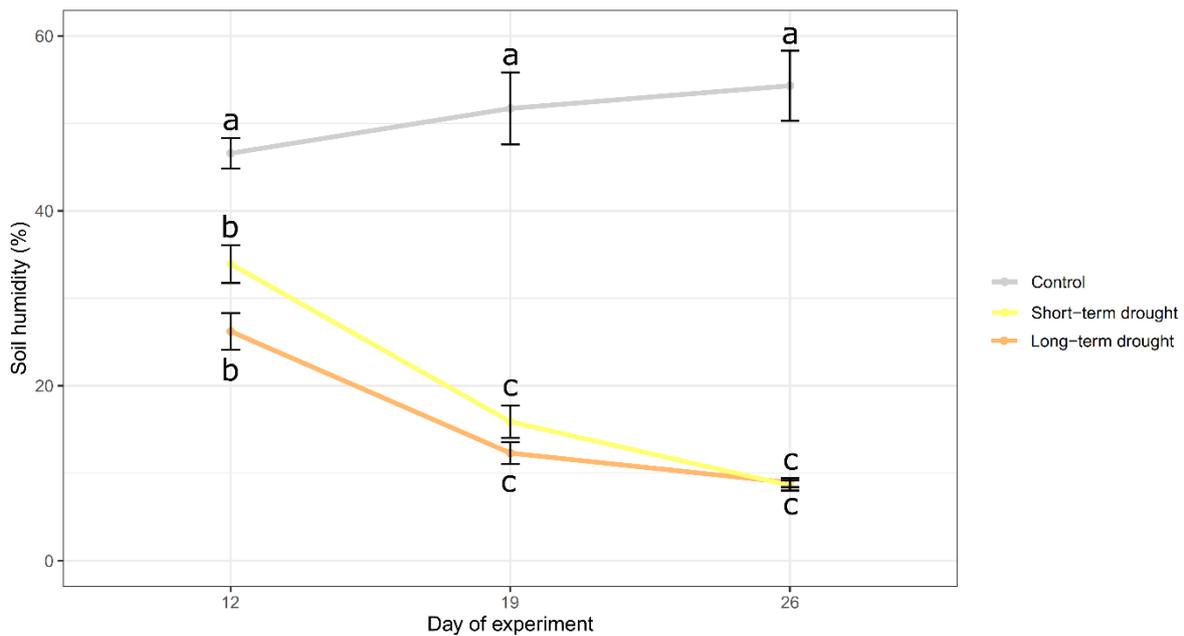
601

602 **Figure 4**

603 **Supplementary Material:**

604 **Supplementary data legends**

605 **Figure S1:** Relative soil humidity (%) measured in the pots per drought treatment and time.  
606 Relative soil humidity was measured in each of the last three weeks of the experiment (i.e., 12,  
607 19 and 26 days after the long drought treatment started). The relative soil humidity in the control  
608 treatment is coloured in grey, the short-term drought treatment in yellow, and the long-term  
609 drought treatment in orange. Significant post-hoc contrasts among time-measures within each  
610 drought treatment level are indicated with letters. The mean temperature in the greenhouse was  
611 20.1 °C and the mean light intensity was 2,300 lux.



612