

Elevational variation in morphology and biomass allocation in carpathian snowbell *Soldanella carpatica* (Primulaceae)

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Plants growing along wide elevation gradients in mountains experience considerable variations in environmental factors that vary across elevations. The most pronounced elevational changes are in climate conditions with characteristic decrease in air temperature with an increase in elevation. Studying intraspecific elevational variations in plant morphological traits and biomass allocation gives opportunity to understand how plants adapted to steep environmental gradients that change with elevation and how they may respond to climate changes related to global warming. In this study, phenotypic variation of an alpine plant *Soldanella carpatica* Vierh. (Primulaceae) was investigated on 40 sites distributed continuously across a 1,480-m elevation gradient in the Tatra Mountains, Central Europe. Mixed-effects models, by which plant traits were fitted to elevation, revealed that on most part of the gradient total leaf mass, leaf size and scape height decreased gradually with an increase in elevation, whereas dry mass investment in roots and flowers as well as individual flower mass did not vary with elevation. Unexpectedly, in the uppermost part of the elevation gradient overall plant size, including both below- and aboveground plant parts, decreased rapidly causing abrupt plant miniaturization. Despite the plant miniaturization at the highest elevations, biomass partitioning traits changed gradually across the entire species elevation range, namely, the leaf mass fraction decreased continuously, whereas the flower mass fraction and the root:shoot ratio increased steadily from the lowest to the highest elevations. Observed variations in *S. carpatica* phenotypes are seen as structural adjustments to environmental changes across elevations that increase chances of plant survival and reproduction at different elevations. Moreover, results of the present study agreed with the observations that populations of species from the 'Soldanella' intrageneric group adapted to alpine and subnival zones still maintain typical 'Soldanella'-like appearance, despite considerable reduction in overall plant size.

1 **Elevational variation in morphology and biomass**
2 **allocation in carpathian snowbell *Soldanella carpatica***
3 **(Primulaceae)**

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31 **Abstract**

32 Plants growing along wide elevation gradients in mountains experience considerable variations
33 in environmental factors that vary across elevations. The most pronounced elevational changes
34 are in climate conditions with characteristic decrease in air temperature with an increase in
35 elevation. Studying intraspecific elevational variations in plant morphological traits and biomass
36 allocation gives opportunity to understand how plants adapted to steep environmental gradients
37 that change with elevation and how they may respond to climate changes related to global
38 warming. In this study, phenotypic variation of an alpine plant *Soldanella carpatica* Vierh.
39 (Primulaceae) was investigated on 40 sites distributed continuously across a 1,480-m elevation
40 gradient in the Tatra Mountains, Central Europe. Mixed-effects models, by which plant traits
41 were fitted to elevation, revealed that on most part of the gradient total leaf mass, leaf size and
42 scape height decreased gradually with an increase in elevation, whereas dry mass investment in
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45 aboveground plant parts, decreased rapidly causing abrupt plant miniaturization. Despite the
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49 the highest elevations. Observed variations in *S. carpatica* phenotypes are seen as structural
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51 and reproduction at different elevations. Moreover, results of the present study agreed with the
52 observations that populations of species from the ‘Soldanella’ intrageneric group adapted to
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54 considerable reduction in overall plant size.

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58 **Introduction**

59 Elevation gradients in mountains are characterised by rapid environmental changes over very
60 short distances and increasing elevation in temperate seasonal zones is associated with changes
61 in many factors crucial for plant growth, survival and reproduction (Körner, 2021). As elevation

62 increases there is a decrease in temperature, atmospheric pressure, CO₂ content and length of the
63 growing season, whereas precipitation, solar radiation, as well as number of weather-related
64 extreme events, for example, frequencies of strong winds and frost during growing season,
65 increase with an increase in elevation (Billings, 1974; Nagy & Grabherr, 2009; Takahashi, 2014;
66 Körner, 2021). Moreover, at high elevations soil depth, microbial activity, nutrients availability,
67 soil resource competition and herbivory pressure are generally lower (Rasmann et al., 2014;
68 Körner, 2021), whereas competition for pollinator services increases with elevation because the
69 number and activity of pollinators declines in low temperature environment of high elevations
70 (Maad, Armbruster & Fenster, 2013; Zhao & Wang, 2015; Arroyo, Pacheco & Dudley, 2017).
71 Therefore, elevation is an important indicator of abiotic and biotic variations which influence
72 plant performance and survival and may significantly alter functional characteristics of a plant
73 species (Hautier et al., 2009; Scheepens & Stöcklin, 2013; He et al., 2017; Trunschke &
74 Stöcklin, 2017; Kiełtyk, 2018; Miljković et al., 2019; Paudel et al., 2019; Kiełtyk, 2021a, 2021b;
75 Rathee et al., 2021; Ahmad et al., 2023).

76 The intraspecific elevational variation observed in many plants can result from their
77 adaptive plasticity (Dai et al., 2017; Hamann et al., 2017; Henn et al., 2018) and/or their genetic
78 adaptation to local conditions (Byars, Papst & Hoffmann, 2007; Gonzalo-Turpin & Hazard,
79 2009; Hirano, Sakaguchi & Takahashi, 2017; Morente-López et al., 2020) because the
80 environment selects for the optimal phenotype adapted to local resource availability and habitat
81 conditions (Midolo et al., 2019). To alleviate stress levels and increase the uptake of the limiting
82 resources or reduce the need for these limiting resources, plants can respond to variation in the
83 environment by adjusting their physiology, morphology and biomass allocation (Nicotra et al.,
84 2010; Freschet et al., 2018). Hence, different elevational stresses across elevation gradients may
85 select for different ecological strategies among individuals of the same species that are reflected
86 in distinct patterns of morphological variation and biomass allocation along elevational gradients
87 (Seguí et al., 2018).

88 Allocation of dry matter to different plant structures implies existence of investment trade-
89 offs, because resources allocated to one organ or function are unavailable for other organs or
90 functions (Weiner et al., 2009). For example, in herbaceous perennials much allocation to stem
91 and leaves is advantageous for competition for photosynthetic light capture but less allocation to
92 belowground parts is disadvantageous for water and nutrients acquisition as well as for

93 assimilates storage (Takahashi & Matsuki, 2017). According to the optimality theory the
94 relationship between dry mass allocation in below- and above-ground organs (the root:shoot
95 ratio) varies with range of resource supply and plants allocate more of their dry mass to organs
96 that capture the most limiting resource (Reich et al., 2014; Blume-Werry et al., 2018). There is a
97 prediction that plants growing in cold and low nitrogen availability environments, should invest
98 more of their biomass to below ground organs, as compared to plants growing at low elevations,
99 where temperatures are higher and soil richer in nutrients (Bloom, Chapin & Mooney, 1985;
100 McConnaughay & Coleman, 1999). The resource-retentive or the stress-tolerant life strategy
101 demonstrated by increased below ground allocation, particularly in storage organs (Grime,
102 2001), can increase the chance of plants survival and population persistence in abiotically
103 stressful and unpredictable environments of high elevations, by provisioning plants with stored
104 reserves in particularly severe years when the amount of assimilated carbohydrates is not
105 sufficient for year-to-year survival (Chapin, Schulze & Mooney, 1990; von Arx, Edwards &
106 Dietz, 2006; Guo et al., 2012). Conversely, the opposite pattern of allocation is expected for
107 plants growing in denser and taller vegetation at low elevations, where climatic conditions are
108 milder but competition for resources, particularly for light, is stronger (Callaway et al., 2002;
109 Read et al., 2014). In such environment selection should promote more the resource-acquisitive
110 strategy manifested in increased plant growth that results from higher allocation in aboveground
111 parts, namely, stem and leaves (Grime, 2001). Other important life-history adjustment in plants
112 growing along elevation gradients is associated with variations in flower size and floral
113 allocation (Arroyo, Pacheco & Aguilera, 2013; Dai et al., 2017; Basnett, Ganesan & Devy,
114 2019). In entomophilous species, increasing flower size can be correlated with higher
115 reproductive success. It is expected, that at high elevations where pollinators are scarce and
116 competition for pollinator services increase (Malo & Baonza, 2002; Maad, Armbruster &
117 Fenster, 2013; Zhao & Wang, 2015; Arroyo, Pacheco & Dudley, 2017) plants produce larger
118 flowers because they are preferred by insect pollinators (Malo & Baonza, 2002; Maad,
119 Armbruster & Fenster, 2013; Totland, 2001, 2004). And this, in turn, increases the chances of
120 pollen deposition and producing viable seeds, and finally, achieving reproductive success
121 (Arroyo, Primack & Armesto, 1982; Ohara & Higashi, 1994; Bingham & Orthner, 1998).
122 However, other selective pressures can promote opposite adjustment in flower size across
123 elevations. In fact, it has been suggested that producing smaller flowers as found in some species

124 can be advantageous in resource limited and climatically severe environment of high elevations
125 because smaller flowers have lower cost of their structural development and physiological
126 maintenance (Herrera, 2005). Consequently, different selective pressures, abiotic and biotic, can
127 influence plant phenotypes along elevation gradients and studying variations in plant
128 morphology and dry mass allocation is important to understand environmental adaptations of
129 plants (Takahashi & Matsuki, 2017). Accordingly, common trends in plant intraspecific
130 variations with increasing elevation include, among others, reduced overall size, height and
131 biomass (Alexander et al., 2009; Zhu et al., 2010; Maad, Armbruster & Fenster, 2013; He et al.,
132 2017; Paudel et al., 2019; Kiełtyk, 2021a, 2021b), reduced leaf size (Byars, Papst & Hoffmann,
133 2007; Kiełtyk, 2018; Miliković et al., 2019; Paudel et al., 2019) and leaf mass (Kiełtyk, 2021a,
134 2021b), lower number of flowers (Kelly, 1998; Baret et al., 2004; Št'astná, Klimešová &
135 Doležal, 2012; Maad, Armbruster & Fenster, 2013; Gabel, Sattler & Reisch, 2017), increased
136 flower size and mass (Kudo & Molau, 1999; Malo & Baonza, 2002; Herrera, 2005; Maad,
137 Armbruster & Fenster, 2013; Kiełtyk, 2021b), and increased seed mass (Kudo & Molau, 1999;
138 Alexander et al., 2009; Wu et al., 2011; Qi et al., 2015). However, the opposite patterns with
139 decreases in flower size (Totland, 2001; Zhao & Wang, 2015; Hattori et al., 2016) and seed mass
140 (Totland, 2004; Wirth et al., 2010; Gabel, Sattler & Reisch, 2017) with an increase in elevation
141 have also been reported for some species. Furthermore, in the Asteraceae family a shift in floral
142 allocation patterns was observed in some species despite steady gross dry mass investment in
143 flowers across elevation gradients. Namely, plants growing at high elevations had smaller
144 numbers of larger flower heads with larger numbers of flowers as compared to low-elevation
145 plants that had larger numbers but smaller flower heads with smaller numbers of flowers
146 (Takahashi & Matsuki, 2017; Kiełtyk, 2021b). Overall, the variety of elevational adjustments
147 reported for different plant species suggests, that there are no general patterns of plant
148 intraspecific elevational variations, but plant phenotypic responses to elevation may be species
149 specific and context dependent (e.g. Olejniczak et al., 2018).

150 Patterns of intraspecific phenotypic variation in plants growing along elevation gradients in
151 mountains are drawing increased research interest (e.g. Halbritter et al., 2018; Olejniczak et al.,
152 2018; Basnett, Ganesan & Devy, 2019; Rixen et al., 2022; Khatri et al., 2023; Spitzer et al.,
153 2023; García-Rodríguez et al., 2024). Studying variations in morphology and biomass allocation
154 among plant organs across elevations provides relevant insights for understanding plant adaptive

155 responses to biotic and abiotic variations along steep environmental gradients. Moreover,
156 knowledge on life-history adjustments in steep climatic gradients as found along mountain slopes
157 contributes to our understanding of how plants may cope with present and predicted future
158 climate changes (e.g. Frei et al., 2014; Pfennigwerth, Bailey & Schweitzer, 2017; Blume-Werry
159 et al., 2018; Midolo et al., 2018; Rixen et al., 2022). However, knowledge on intraspecific
160 elevational variation in plant morphology most often is obtained from limited number of
161 elevational sites. Accordingly, there are many studies in which plant morphological variation
162 was analysed on two elevational sites, i.e. on low and high elevation sites (e.g. Kudo & Molau,
163 1999; Totland, 2001; Arroyo, Pacheco & Aguilera, 2013; Trunschke & Stöcklin, 2017), three
164 sites, i.e. low, medium and high (e.g. Blionis & Vokou, 2002; Dai et al., 2017; Ahmad et al.,
165 2018; Seguí et al., 2018; Vélez-Mora, Trigueros-Alatorre & Quintana-Ascencio, 2021) or four
166 elevational sites (e.g. Milla et al., 2009; Sakurai & Takahashi, 2017; He et al., 2017; Rathee et
167 al., 2021). Furthermore, some number of studies examined trait variations on several to dozen (5-
168 13) elevational sites (e.g. Malo & Baonza, 2002; Herrera, 2005; Alexander et al., 2009; Št'astná,
169 Klimešová & Doležal, 2012; Zhang & Wang, 2015; Hattori et al., 2016; Takahashi & Matsuki,
170 2017; Milikovič et al., 2019; Paudel et al., 2019; Cruz-Maldonado et al., 2021; García-Rodríguez
171 et al., 2024). But studies of plant within-species phenotypic variation performed for greater
172 number of elevational sites are scarce (e.g. Kelly, 1998 - 15 sites; Maad, Armbruster & Fenster,
173 2013 - 17 sites; Kiełtyk, 2021b – 20 sites; Khatri et al., 2023 – 26 sites; Kiełtyk, 2021a – 34 sites;
174 Kiełtyk, 2018 – 47 sites). However, while analyses based on low number of elevational points
175 can demonstrate and statistically test existence of trait variations across elevations, analyses
176 performed for greater number of elevational sites, in which plant traits are modelled by
177 continuous elevation variable, have an advantages of revealing shape and trajectory of
178 elevational traits variations across plants vertical ranges. Accordingly, it has been recently
179 postulated that researches on intraspecific trait variation of mountain plants representing
180 different evolutionary lineages and growth forms, possibly based on large number of elevational
181 sites, are of high priority to enhance our knowledge on plant adaptive responses across elevation
182 gradients (Rixen et al., 2022).

183 In this study variation in a mountain herb *Soldanella carpatica* Vierh. (Primulaceae) was
184 investigated on 40 sites distributed approximately evenly across a 1,480 m elevation gradient in
185 the Tatra Mts., Central Europe. Phylogenetic relationships, phenotype evolution and ecology of

186 species of the mountain genus *Soldanella* has been recently extensively studied (Zhang, Comes
187 & Kadereit, 2001; Zhang & Kadereit, 2002; Steffen & Kadereit, 2014; Bellino et al., 2015;
188 Štubňová et al., 2017; Slovák et al., 2023; Rurik et al., 2024), and the significance of elevation as
189 a key environmental gradient that has driven differentiation between montane and alpine species
190 of the genus has been acknowledged. However, the selective pressure that have led to evolution
191 of high elevation congeners within the *Soldanella* genus, i.e. *S. minima*, *S. pusilla* and *S. alpina*
192 (Zhang, Comes & Kadereit, 2001), should also operate at species level, resulting in emergence of
193 phenotypic variations across elevations analogous to these observed between low and high
194 elevation taxa of the genus. Indeed, it has been recently found that elevation has driven parallel
195 adaptation to elevation and niche differentiation within populations of *Arabidopsis arenosa*
196 (Kolář et al., 2016; Knotek et al., 2020; Bohutínská et al., 2021; Wos et al., 2022) and
197 *Heliosperma pusillum* (Szukala et al., 2023a, 2023b). Accordingly, low and high elevation
198 populations of these species investigated in different mountain regions exhibited converged
199 genetic and morphological responses to elevation, what indicates that elevation gradients can
200 exert strong directional selection on plant adaptive traits leading to emergence of local ecotypes
201 (Wos et al., 2022; Szukala et al., 2023a). Although morphological and genetic differentiation of
202 the taxa within *Soldanella* genus has been studied, including their elevational diversification, up
203 to date there are not any studies focused on elevational variation at intraspecific level within the
204 genus. *S. carpatica* is a particularly good model species for analysing plant phenotypic responses
205 to elevation due to its large elevational range in the region spanning from lower montane forests
206 at the Tatra Mts. foothills to subnival zone on mountain ridges. Moreover, this species is
207 widespread in the study region what allows for sampling plants on large number of elevational
208 sites and model its phenotypic variations across continuous elevation gradient. The aim of this
209 study was to reveal the overall effects of elevation on variations in set of fitness-related
210 vegetative and reproductive traits of *S. carpatica*. In particular, the following questions were
211 addressed: (1) does plant size expressed by plant dry mass and leaf size decrease with increasing
212 elevation?, (2) do total flower mass as well as individual flower mass change with elevation?, (3)
213 does increasing elevation is positively correlated with the root : shoot ratio?

214

215 **Material & Methods**

216 **Study species**

217 The genus *Soldanella* (snowbells, Primulaceae) includes up to 24 mountain-dwelling taxa (18
218 species and 6 subspecies) occurring in the European Alpine System (Zhang, Comes & Kadereit,
219 2001; Štubňová et al., 2017; Slovák et al., 2023). Snowbells are small, caespitose or
220 stoloniferous growth evergreen perennials, with entire coriaceous leaves and scapose, not leafy
221 inflorescence bearing funnel-shaped or campanulate flowers. Showy, mostly blue-violet or pink-
222 violet flowers appear immediately after snow melts (Pawłowska, 1972; Štubňová et al., 2017).
223 Within the genus *Soldanella* two sections were previously distinguished based on floral and fruit
224 morphology, namely, section *Soldanella* Pawłowska and section *Tubiflores* Borbás (Pawłowska,
225 1963, 1972; Zhang & Kadereit, 2002), however, recent molecular investigations indicate that
226 these phenotypic sections do not reflect true phylogenetic relationships within the genus (Zhang,
227 Comes & Kadereit, 2001; Steffen & Kadereit, 2014; Slovák et al., 2023; Rurik et al., 2024).
228 Evolutionary history of this genus has been extensively affected by hybridization and
229 introgression detected in almost all snowbell species (Slovák et al., 2023; Rurik et al., 2024). The
230 ‘*Soldanella*’ group includes taxa 13-35 cm tall with several violet to violet-blue funnel-shaped
231 flowers per scape, and capsules that open with ten teeth. This group comprises the majority of
232 *Soldanella* species that inhabit predominately habitats from deciduous, mixed, or coniferous
233 forests of the montane to the shrubs of subalpine belt but also able to occupy open habitats in the
234 alpine zone (Zhang, Comes & Kadereit, 2001). In contrast, the ‘*Tubiflores*’ group comprises
235 high alpine taxa up to 10 cm tall, characterized by overall dwarfism, single white to pink bell-
236 shaped flowers, and capsules opening with five teeth. Taxa of this group occupy open habitats in
237 the alpine and subnival zones (Zhang, Comes & Kadereit, 2001).

238 The study species, *S. carpatica*, member of the ‘*Soldanella*’ group, is a species endemic to
239 the Western Carpathians and widespread in the Tatra Mts. The scape of *S. carpatica* is erect,
240 (3)5–15(20) cm tall, not leafy, with (1)2–5- violet insect-pollinated flowers gathered at the top
241 inflorescence (Pawłowska, 1972). Suborbicular leaves are gathered in a basal rosette (Fig. 1).
242 Leaf blade is 8-50 mm wide, dark green, usually violet beneath with basal sinus narrow and
243 shallow (Pawłowska, 1963). The species blooms from April to September and fruits from May to
244 October (Zhang & Kadereit, 2002). *S. carpatica* has a broad edaphic tolerance and grows on both
245 base-rich and base-poor soils developed from variety of bedrock (Zhang, Comes & Kadereit,
246 2001). In the Tatra Mts. this species occurs from lower montane forest (in Polish Tatra Mts. up to
247 1,200 m a.s.l.), upper montane forest (1,200–1,550 m a.s.l.), dwarf pine (=subalpine) belt (1,550–

248 1,800 m a.s.l.), alpine belt (1,800–2,250 m a.s.l.) to subnival belt (above 2,250 m a.s.l.)
249 (Pawłowska, 1963; Mirek, 1996) reaching elevation of 2,400 m a.s.l. (Valachovič et al., 2019).

250 Besides of *S. carpatica* there are also two other taxa of the ‘Soldanella’ group reported
251 from the Tatra Mts., namely, *S. marmarossiensis* agg. and *S. montana*. Both of these species,
252 however, are not as frequent as *S. carpatica* and they grow in the Tatra Mts. at lower mountain
253 elevations. *S. marmarossiensis* agg. and *S. montana* are montane elements with preference for
254 spruce forest, albeit *S. marmarossiensis* can also penetrate the alpine belt (Valachovič et al.,
255 2019). It is noteworthy that due to the lack of species from ‘Tubiflores’ group in the Western
256 Carpathians, only *S. carpatica* filled all the ecological niches above timberline, in the alpine and
257 subnival belts (Valachovič et al., 2019). Indeed, in recent revision of *Soldanella* species
258 occurrence in different vegetation types in Carpathians and the adjacent mountains Valachovič et
259 al. (2019) found *S. carpatica* presence in 99% of the relevés from alpine grasslands in the
260 Western Carpathians.

261

262 **Study area**

263 The investigated elevational gradient was located in the Polish part of the Tatra Mountains,
264 Western Carpathians (Fig. 2), within the protected area of the Tatra National Park (study
265 permission of the Tatra National Park: Bot/380 DBN.503/28/18). Being the highest mountain
266 range of the Carpathians (2,655 m a.s.l., Gerlach peak in the Slovak part of the mountains), the
267 Tatra Mts. are the only alpine mountain system with a well-developed subnival zone between the
268 Alps and the Caucasus (Mirek, 1996). The main ridge of the Tatra Mts. forms a natural border
269 between Poland and Slovakia. The Polish side of the mountains is dominated by valleys and
270 north-facing slopes and ranges from ca. 900 m to 2,499 m a.s.l. (Rysy peak). The mean annual
271 temperature decreases from ca. +6 °C at the foothills to –4 °C at the highest peaks, whereas snow
272 cover lasts for about 100 days at the foothills up to 290 days on mountain tops (Hess, 1996).
273 Precipitation increases with elevation and the mean annual sum of precipitation averages 1,138
274 mm at an elevation of 844 m a.s.l. (the weather station in Zakopane town) and 1,876 mm at an
275 elevation of 1,991 m a.s.l. (the weather station on Kasprowy Wierch peak) (Hess, 1996).

276

277 **Field sampling and traits measurements**

278 A total of 383 flowering plants of *S. carpatica* were collected in 2018, from the end of April to
279 the beginning of July, from 40 sites distributed from 890 m a.s.l. to 2,370 m a.s.l. (Table 1). The
280 elevation at each site was determined in the field using a GPS receiver with built-in barometric
281 altimeter (Garmin GPS MAP 76s, Olathe, USA). An attempt was made to sample entire
282 elevational range of the species in the area and ensure that the sampled sites were distributed
283 approximately evenly along the species elevational range. At each site, 9-10 plants in blossom
284 peak with single stalk were sampled and carefully excavated with roots. To ensure that the
285 sampled plants were separate genets, the minimal distance between the sampled plants was 2 m.
286 Sampled individuals were well-developed and did not show restriction in growth and
287 reproductive function as well as symptoms of fungal infection nor herbivory damages. Roots
288 were roughly cleaned of soil and plants were preserved as dry material for laboratory analyses.
289 Eight traits were measured on dry plant material and further three traits were calculated as mass
290 ratio traits; details on their measurements are presented in Table 2. Scape height was assessed as
291 a distance between the plant base just below rosette leaves and the top of inflorescence; during
292 the measurement the scape was straightened. Leaf blade diameter, the trait that assess size of
293 photosynthetically active leaf part, was averaged for two largest plant leaves; on each leaf blade
294 width was measured in two perpendicular directions and averaged per plant. In the next step
295 plants were separated into four fractions, namely roots, scape, leaves and flowers, and final
296 cleaning of roots was performed over a 0.6 mm mesh sieve under running water. Next, all the
297 fractions were dried for 48 h at 80 °C in a laboratory drying oven with natural air circulation
298 (Pol-Eko-Aparatura SLN 240, Wodzisław Śląski, Poland) to obtain the dry matter content
299 (Pérez-Harguindeguy et al., 2013) by weighing on an analytical balance (Radwag AS 60/220.X2
300 PLUS, Radom, Poland). All weight measurements were carried out immediately after the
301 samples were removed from the oven.

302

303 **Statistical analyses**

304 All analyses were conducted in the statistical programming environment R version R-4.1.1 (R
305 Development Core Team, 2021). Elevational variations in eleven traits of *S. carpatica* (Table 2)
306 were analysed for all 383 plants from 40 elevational sites with the linear mixed-effect models
307 (Field, Miles & Field, 2013) using the *lmer()* function in the *lme4* package (Bates et al., 2015). In
308 these analyses, elevation was used as a continuous fixed effect and sample site was set as a

309 random model component. Because preliminary data analysis revealed that above 2,000 m a.s.l.
310 there were considerable rapid changes in values of some traits that could heavily influence the
311 overall elevational variations, analyses were run for two elevation ranges independently; the first
312 model for each trait was constructed for the full investigated elevation gradient 890–2,370 m
313 a.s.l. (mod₂₃₇₀), whereas the second model, constructed for elevation gradient 890–1,980 m a.s.l.
314 (mod₁₉₈₀), did not contain plants from the highest sites above 2,000 m a.s.l. To account for non-
315 straight-line responses of traits to elevation two mixed-effect models were constructed and
316 evaluated for the both examined elevation ranges. The first model included elevation as a linear
317 fixed effects ($Y = a + b_1 \times (\text{elevation})$, where a denotes an intercept and b_1 regression coefficient)
318 while the second model included elevation and elevation with quadratic term ($Y =$
319 $a + b_1 \times (\text{elevation}) + b_2 \times (\text{elevation})^2$, where a denotes an intercept and b_1 and b_2 denote regression
320 coefficients). Comparison of these models allowed to determine whether plant traits had a linear
321 or nonlinear relationship with elevation. Fits of these two models to the data were evaluated
322 based on a likelihood ratio test and *Chi-Squared* statistic where a significant $P_{\text{model selection}}$ value at
323 0.05 significance level (Table 3) indicated significant improvement in the straight-line model
324 upon addition of the quadratic term for elevation (Dalgaard, 2008). Comparisons of model fit
325 were carried out using the *anova()* function from the base R installation.

326

327 **Results**

328 **Elevational variation in morphological traits**

329 Models of traits elevational variations fitted to the 890–1,980 m a.s.l. and the 890–2,370 m a.s.l.
330 ranges (Table 3) differed considerably between these both ranges for many morphological traits
331 indicating significant change in *S. carpatica* morphology occurring at the highest sites located at
332 elevations 2,085–2,370 m a.s.l (Fig. 3). In the 890–1,980 m a.s.l. range aboveground plant mass
333 ($P_{1980} = 0.0436$, Fig. 3A), total leaf mass ($P_{1980} = 0.0201$, Fig. 3C), scape height ($P_{1980} = 0.0144$,
334 Fig. 3G) and leaf blade diameter ($P_{1980} = 0.0001$, Fig. 3H) decreased with an increase in
335 elevation, whereas root mass ($P_{1980} = 0.8583$, Fig. 3B), scape mass ($P_{1980} = 0.8536$, Fig. 3D),
336 total flower mass ($P_{1980} = 0.9112$, Fig. 3E) and individual flower mass ($P_{1980} = 0.4336$, Fig. 3F)
337 did not vary across elevations. However, in the 890–2,370 m a.s.l. range all the traits had
338 significant relationship with elevation (Table 3). Aboveground plant mass ($P_{2370} = 0.0067$, Fig.
339 3A), root mass ($P_{2370} = 0.0270$, Fig. 3B), total leaf mass ($P_{2370} = 0.0275$, Fig. 3C), scape mass

340 ($P_{2370} = 0.0009$, Fig. 3D), total flower mass ($P_{2370} < 0.0001$, Fig. 3E) and individual flower mass
341 ($P_{2370} = 0.0001$, Fig. 3F) did not have elevational trend or slightly decreased from 890 m to ca.
342 2,000 m a.s.l., whereas above 2,000 m a.s.l. values of these traits decreased very considerably.
343 Scape height ($P_{2370} < 0.0001$, Fig. 3G) decreased in a straight-line manner with an increase in
344 elevation in the 890–2,370 m range, whereas leaf blade diameter ($P_{2370} = 0.0059$, Fig. 3H)
345 decreased slightly from 890 m to ca. 2,000 m a.s.l., and above 2,000 m a.s.l. values of this trait
346 were reduced more considerably.

347 Generally, all traits reduced considerably their values with an increase in elevation from
348 890 m a.s.l. to 2,370 m a.s.l. (Table 4). In this range aboveground plant mass decreased with an
349 increase in elevation by 77.5%, total leaf mass decreased by 78.9%, scape mass decreased by
350 73.6%, total flower mass decreased by 68.5%, individual flower mass decreased by 46.3%, scape
351 height decreased by 37.2% and leaf blade diameter decreased by 56.4% (Table 4).

352 The reductions in size of plant organs occurred almost merely at the highest elevations
353 above 2,000 m a.s.l., at sites located at elevations 2,085–2370 m a.s.l., which constitutes ca. 20
354 % uppermost portion of the investigated elevation gradient. From 890 m to 1,980 m a.s.l. total
355 leaf mass decreased by 2.7%, leaf blade diameter decreased by 2.3%, aboveground plant mass
356 decreased by 2.1% and plant height decreased by 1.8% per every 100 m increase in elevation.
357 Percent changes in other traits in this elevation range were small and models used to their
358 calculations were statistically not significant (Table 4). Contrary, from 1,980 m to 2,370 m a.s.l.
359 rates of changes in all traits were very considerable; aboveground plant mass decreased by
360 12.1%, root mass decreased by 11.3%, total leaf mass decreased by 11.2%, scape mass decreased
361 by 16.2%, total flower mass decreased by 15.0%, individual flower mass decreased by 9.1%,
362 scape height decreased by 3.6% and leaf blade diameter decreased by 7.2% per every 100 m
363 increase in elevation (Table 4).

364

365 **Elevational variation in dry mass allocation traits**

366 Overall, *S. carpatica* plants allocated on average 39.8% of their total dry mass to root, 45.2% to
367 leaves, 10.4% to scape, and 4.7% to flowers. Of the aboveground plant mass, 74.7% was
368 allocated to leaves, 17.3% to scape and 8.0% to flowers.

369 All the dry mass partitioning traits were significantly fitted to elevation by straight-line
370 models (Table 3, Fig. 4). Models constructed for both elevation ranges, the 890–1,980 m and the

371 890–2,370 m a.s.l. were almost identical for these traits. The root:shoot ratio increased with
372 increasing elevation ($P_{1980} = 0.0022$, $P_{2370} < 0.0001$, Fig. 4A), whereas leaf mass fraction
373 decreased with an increase in elevation ($P_{1980} = 0.0001$, $P_{2370} < 0.0001$, Fig. 4B). Moreover,
374 flower aboveground mass fraction increased with an increase in elevation ($P_{1980} = 0.0029$, $P_{2370} =$
375 0.0009 , Fig. 4C).

376 Within the entire elevation range from 890 m to 2,370 m a.s.l. the root:shoot ratio
377 increased by 61.0%, leaf mass fraction decreased by 24.3%, and flower aboveground mass
378 fraction increased by 42.8% (Table 4). The rates of these traits changes per 100 m increase in
379 elevation had similar values in the 890–1,980 m a.s.l. and 1,980–2,370 m a.s.l. elevational
380 ranges. In the 890–1,980 m a.s.l. range the root:shoot ratio increased by 3.4%, leaf mass fraction
381 decreased by 1.7% and flower aboveground mass fraction increased by 3.3% per 100 m increase
382 in elevation. Concurrently, in the 1,980–2,370 m a.s.l. range the root:shoot ratio increased by
383 5.3%, leaf mass fraction decreased by 1.5% and flower aboveground mass fraction increased by
384 2.2% per 100 m increase in elevation (Table 4).

385

386 Discussion

387 *Soldanella carpatica* varied across the elevation gradient adjusting its morphological and dry
388 mass traits to environmental factors correlated with elevation. Along most part of the studied
389 elevation gradient, from the base at ca. 900 m a.s.l. to ca. 2,000 m a.s.l., total dry mass of
390 photosynthetic tissue, leaf size and scape height decreased steadily in a clinal manner with an
391 increase in elevation, whereas dry mass investment in roots and flowers as well as individual
392 flower mass did not vary with elevation. However, at the highest elevations considerable changes
393 occurred in most of the traits leading to abrupt plant miniaturization. Accordingly, plants
394 growing at elevations above 2,000 m a.s.l. were distinctly smaller in size, had lower
395 aboveground dry mass, reduced leaf size and mass, reduced root, scape, total as well as
396 individual flower mass, as compared to plants from sites at elevations below 2,000 m a.s.l.

397

398 Elevational variation in aboveground vegetative organs

399 Maintaining relatively unchanged phenotype by *S. carpatica* across a wide 1,100-m elevation
400 range from ca. 900 m to 2,000 m a.s.l. that corresponds approximately to ca. 6 K decrease in
401 mean annual temperature with an increase in elevation suggests that this species is particularly

402 well adapted to live across wide elevation gradients. Such specialised adaptations were found
403 recently in the alpine species *Soldanella pusilla* that grows in mountains of the European Alpine
404 System. *S. pusilla* is a species extremely adapted to tissue formation and growth under conditions
405 of very low temperatures (Körner et al., 2019). That species resumes growth in mid-winter being
406 at the time covered by a 2-3 m thick snowpack and develops its entire flowering shoot under
407 snow at 0 °C. Moreover, *S. pusilla* has an enormous carbohydrate reserves, mainly stored in
408 below ground tissue, that would support basic metabolism for at least two entire years under
409 snow (Körner et al., 2019). Although no similar studies are available for *S. carpatica*, the growth
410 of this species may also not be significantly limited by low temperatures across the studied
411 elevation gradient. Consequently, reductions in leaf size and total leaf mass in *S. carpatica* as
412 observed from low to high elevations can represent rather adaptation to environmental conditions
413 that change across elevations rather than restriction in growth caused by harsh environment of
414 high elevations. Accordingly, reduction of mountain herbs size with an increase in elevation is a
415 well-known elevational trend reported for plants representing different families, for example,
416 Asteraceae (Takahashi & Matsuki, 2017; Kiełtyk, 2018, 2021a, 2021b, Rathe et al., 2021),
417 Campanulaceae (Maad, Armbruster & Fenster, 2013), Fabaceae (Cruz-Maldonado et al., 2021),
418 Gentianaceae (He et al., 2017), Poaceae (Cruz-Maldonado et al., 2021), Zingiberaceae (Paudel et
419 al., 2019). The general trend of plant size reduction toward high elevations contrasts, however,
420 with the high metabolic capacity of plant tissues, especially leaves, at high elevations (Körner,
421 2021). Therefore, the fact that root, stem and flowers of *S. carpatica* were unresponsive to the
422 1,100-m elevation gradient from ca. 900 m to 2,000 m a.s.l. despite continuous reduction in dry
423 mass of photosynthetically active tissue could be explained by increased photosynthetic leaf
424 tissue efficiency that guarantees adequate assimilates supply for producing and maintaining
425 unchanged rest of plant organs in harsher climatic conditions associated with increasing
426 elevation. It could be therefore assumed, that because reduced photosynthetic organ size and
427 mass at higher elevations fully satisfy plant demand for products of photosynthesis and plant
428 produces and stores enough assimilates for growth, reproduction and year-to-year survival due to
429 high metabolic efficiency of leaf tissue, there is no advantage in allocation in high elevations as
430 much of dry mass to leaves as in low elevations, where inter-specific competition for light is
431 stronger (Weppler & Stöcklin, 2005; Callaway et al., 2002; Read et al., 2014) and where
432 increased investment in photosynthetically active tissue may be essential for capture and

433 utilization of sufficient light quantity. Moreover, the reduction in plant aboveground size with an
434 increase in elevation, that in *S. carpatica* is caused by reduction in leaf size and mass, can be
435 advantageous adaptation to decreased nutrients availability in soils (Sveinbjörnsson et al., 1995)
436 and climatic constraints at high elevations because smaller plants have lower resource
437 requirements, as proposed by the ‘resource-cost compromise’ hypothesis (Herrera, 2005; Zhao &
438 Wang, 2015). Additionally, the smaller are plants with smaller leaf rosettes growing close to the
439 ground the more they decouple their climate from the ambient due to reduction in surface area
440 that is exposed to cold air (Körner, 2021). Being closely attached to the ground also increases
441 plant resistance to environmental factors such as strong winds as well as to freezing events due to
442 heat accumulation by the leaf canopy close the ground (Fabbro & Körner, 2004; Cruz-
443 Maldonado et al., 2021). Therefore, decreasing plant aboveground size with an increase in
444 elevation can represent adaptive adjustment allowing local populations to efficiently use limited
445 resources under increasingly less favourable climatic conditions associated with increasing
446 elevation.

447

448 **Elevational variation in reproductive organs**

449 Dry mass investment in flowers as well as flower size expressed by mean flower mass were not
450 affected by elevation along a 1,100-m elevation gradient ranging from ca 900 m a.s.l. to 2,000 m
451 a.s.l. Despite increasingly more growth limiting conditions due to reduced temperature and
452 resource limitation with an increase in elevation, *S. carpatica* retained steady dry mass
453 investment in flowers across the wide elevation range. Similar pattern of elevational variation in
454 flower mass was found in *Bellidiastum michelii*, where flower head mass, total flower mass as
455 well as individual flower mass did not change considerably along ca. 900-m elevation gradient
456 and decreases in these traits were visible only at the highest elevations of the species range
457 (Kieltyk, 2021a). Furthermore, unchanged floral mass investment across the wide 950-m
458 elevation gradient was found in total mass of *Senecio subalpinus* flower heads, however, at the
459 level of an individual flower head both total tubular flower mass as well as total ligulate flower
460 mass increased toward high elevations (Kieltyk, 2021b). Maintaining unchanged total mass of *S.*
461 *carpatica* flowers along with reduction in total leaf mass with an increase in elevation across ca.
462 1,100-m elevation gradient resulted in the increase in flower aboveground mass fraction.
463 Meanwhile, the increased portion of dry mass allocated to flowers may suggest that reproductive

464 investment is increasingly important strategy for local *S. carpatica* populations persistence with
465 an increase in elevation.

466 The plant height, a trait being related with species competitiveness for light in species with
467 leafy stems, that is often used as a proxy for plant size, was commonly found to decrease with an
468 increase in elevation in studies on intraspecific plant variations (e.g. He et al., 2017; Paudel et al.,
469 2019; Kiełtyk, 2021b). However, in case of *S. carpatica* plant height as expressed by the scape
470 height is not related to plant size nor competitive ability for light because the species has all its
471 leaves gathered in basal rosette and the only function of scape is to give support for flowers and
472 eventually fruits clustered at the top of scape. Thus, height of scape in *S. carpatica* defines
473 elevation on which flowers are positioned above the ground, and functionally this trait is related
474 to reproductive process by exposing flowers above the ground to attract pollinators and support
475 fruits when dispersing seeds. With an increase in elevation from ca. 900 m to 2,000 m a.s.l.
476 height of *S. carpatica* scape decreased steadily, whereas amount of dry mass allocated to scape
477 remained unchanged, what resulted in producing thicker and tougher scapes with flowers
478 elevated lower above the ground toward higher elevations. Because height of leaf canopy of
479 surrounding vegetation generally also decrease with an increase in elevation (Leuschner &
480 Ellenberg, 2017) reduced scape height prevents flowers to protrude too high into well-stirred
481 cold air above the calm aerodynamic boundary layer created by leaf canopy (Dietrich & Körner,
482 2014). It has been shown in the alpine environment that the closer the ground the higher air
483 temperatures are whereas wind speed rises logarithmically with distance from the ground
484 (Körner, 2021). Therefore, reducing the scape height toward higher elevations follows the
485 general vegetation trend of reduced foliage layer height and can enhance decoupling flowers
486 from the colder free atmosphere. Meanwhile, it has been shown that warmer flowers can more
487 efficiently attract pollinators as pollinators besides flower colour are also sensitive on flower
488 temperature (Creux et al., 2021), in colder climates preferring warmer flowers (Norgate et al.,
489 2010). Additionally, warmer flowers have thermal benefits during maturation of sexual organs,
490 pollen germination and pollen tube growth (Dietrich & Körner, 2014) and it has been found that
491 experimentally increased temperature and sheltering from wind of alpine plant *Ranunculus acris*
492 resulted in increased seed production (Totland & Eide, 1999). Thus, decreasing scape height in *S.*
493 *carpatica* with an increase in elevation can be a selective advantage of developing flowers in
494 milder micro-climate closer to the ground as maintaining higher floral temperatures in cool

495 alpine environment is often critical for the successful reproduction of high-mountain plants
496 (Dietrich & Körner, 2014).

497

498 **Elevational variation in root mass**

499 Elevational variation in root mass of *S. carpatica* was analogous to that in flower mass as there
500 was no significant change in root mass in a wide range of elevations from ca. 900 m to 2,000 m
501 a.s.l. whereas above 2,000 m a.s.l. this trait decreased significantly. Steady root mass investment
502 across ca. 1,100-m elevation range accompanied by decrease in total leaf mass with increasing
503 elevation resulted in increasing the root:shoot ratio from low to high elevations. Because plants
504 can adjust their morphological traits such as root length, density, branching as well as proportion
505 of fine to coarse roots (Weemstra et al., 2021) to micro-mosaics of belowground conditions such
506 as water and nutrient availability or soil rockiness, the increased *S. carpatica* belowground mass
507 fraction toward high elevations may indicate an increased importance of resource acquisition
508 and/or assimilates storage in resource limited and climatically more growth restricting and
509 unpredictable environmental conditions of high elevations. Moreover, the decreased availability
510 of nutrients may result not only from decreasing soil nutrients content toward high elevations
511 (Körner, 2021) but also from increased belowground competition between plants for limited
512 resources. It has been suggested that in abiotically severe environments of high elevations
513 competition strength decreases as a result of reduced number of species that withstand
514 unfavourable conditions as well as due to restrictions in resource acquisition by plants caused by
515 severe physical conditions (Callaway, 1998). This relation may characterize aboveground plant
516 competition for space and light as height of leaf canopy decrease and vegetation becomes less
517 dense with increasing elevation (Nagy & Grabherr, 2009). However, because soil nutrients
518 content and soil depth generally decrease with an increase in elevation (Sveinbjörnsson et al.,
519 1995; Körner, 2021) nutrients availability for plants also decreases what can result in increasing
520 belowground resource competition. Thus, dry mass investment in roots can be increasingly
521 important for resource foraging with an increase in elevation as evidenced by unreduced *S.*
522 *carpatica* root mass from ca. 900 m to 2,000 m a.s.l. despite accompanying continuous reduction
523 in aboveground plant mass. Furthermore, increasing the root:shoot ratio with an increase in
524 elevation supports the hypothesis that in colder and harsher environments plants tend to allocate
525 greater portion of their mass in belowground organs (Bloom, Chapin & Mooney, 1985;

526 McConnaughay & Coleman, 1999). Increased root mass fraction may be advantageous
527 adjustment in *S. carpatica* to acquire and/or store enough resources for growth, survival and
528 completing its life history cycle in high elevation environments.

529

530

531

532 **Plant miniaturization at the highest elevations**

533 The most pronounced pattern of elevational variation in *S. carpatica* is abrupt plant
534 miniaturization on sites located in the 20% uppermost part of the studied elevation gradient.
535 Rapid reduction in overall plant size may suggest that this species encounters considerably more
536 growth limiting conditions above 2,000 m a.s.l. as compared to lower elevations. The reduction
537 in *S. carpatica* size cannot be explained merely by plant response, by means of phenotypic
538 plasticity and/or genetic adaptation, to limiting climatic conditions of high elevations because
539 climate factors change gradually with an increase in altitude (Nagy & Grabherr, 2009), as
540 exemplified by mean annual temperature decrease by 0.55 K per every 100 m increase in
541 elevation in mountains of temperate regions (Körner, 2021). Therefore, it could be other than
542 climatic factors alone that trigger off morphological changes in *S. carpatica* at the highest
543 elevations of the studied gradient. It is likely that the plant miniaturization above 2,000 m a.s.l.
544 was related to changes in orographic conditions, i.e. increased steepness and rockiness of
545 mountain slopes toward high mountain tops. The five highest sites on which size of *S. carpatica*
546 was considerably reduced were located at elevations 2,085–2,370 m a.s.l. on steep rocks of
547 Czarny Mięguszwiecki Wierch peak (2,405 m a.s.l.). This environment is characterized by
548 harsh climatic conditions and lack of accumulated snow cover in winter due to frequent strong
549 winds and high slopes inclination. *S. carpatica* growing on rocky initial soils at the highest
550 elevations of the studied gradient was exposed to particularly unfavourable conditions caused by
551 strong winds and lack of protective snowpack in winter, that was found to be important for
552 development and growth of other species from *Soldanella* genus in the European Alps, namely *S.*
553 *pusilla* (Körner et al., 2019). Dwarfism of *S. carpatica* at the highest elevations could be,
554 therefore, an adaptive response to abrupt deterioration in growing conditions caused by
555 simultaneous interactions of climate, soil and orographic conditions. Similar pattern of rapid
556 change in plant size across elevations was found in high elevation taxon of the *Solidago*

557 *virgaurea* L. complex, where plants growing at the highest elevations had distinctly reduced
558 plant height and rosette diameter (Takahashi & Matsuki, 2017) as well as lower number of
559 flower heads (Sakurai & Takahashi, 2017) as compared to plants from lower elevations.
560 Furthermore, reduced size of *S. carpatica* at high elevations is in line with studies on local
561 adaptation to high elevation environment in *Arabidopsis arenosa* (Knotek et al., 2020; Wos et
562 al., 2022) that revealed that elevation, a sharp environmental gradient, impose consistent
563 selective pressures on plant growth and reproduction, leading to emergence of striking
564 differences in life-history strategies and growth forms (Wos et al., 2022). Furthermore, in *A.*
565 *arenosa* parallel local adaptation to alpine environment occurred independently in several
566 mountains from different low elevation lineages and resulted in emergence of genetically distinct
567 alpine populations characterized by smaller plants (Knotek et al., 2020).

568 It is important to note that alpine zone of the European Alpine System was historically
569 colonized by species of the *Soldanella* genus, namely *S. minima* and *S. pusilla*, species of the
570 ‘Tubiflores’ group characterized by overall dwarfism and reduced biomass production (Rurik et
571 al., 2024). Moreover, adaptation to alpine environment occurred also at intraspecific level in
572 montane taxa of the ‘Soldanella’ group to which *S. carpatica* belongs (Rurik et al., 2024).
573 Results of the present study on *S. carpatica* elevational variation generally support statement that
574 alpine adaptation in populations of species from the ‘Soldanella’ group is characterized by
575 overall dwarfism trend with plant size reductions, but with no significant reduction in flower size
576 and morphology, and maintaining the typical ‘Soldanella’-like appearance, as opposed to the
577 snowbed specialists from the ‘Tubiflores’ group that have significantly reduced flower structures
578 (Rurik et al., 2024). However, it should be noted that contrary to the predictions that overall
579 dwarfism evolves when a niche shifts from a forest to an alpine zone (cf. Rurik et al., 2024) there
580 were no abrupt changes in morphology between forest and alpine populations of *S. carpatica*.
581 Instead, analysis of the species variation along the wide continuous elevation gradient enabled to
582 reveal that reductions in *S. carpatica* size and biomass were gradual from 900 m to 2,000 m
583 a.s.l., what may suggest that populations at given elevations are locally adapted to elevational
584 gradient of environmental conditions and that the transition in environmental conditions between
585 forest and alpine zones is not sharp for low stature species growing close to the ground. Only at
586 the highest elevations above 2,000 m a.s.l., in the upper part of the alpine zone and in the
587 subnival zone where plants are not sheltered by dense vegetation layer, changes in *S. carpatica*

588 morphology were very considerable, resulting in abrupt plant miniaturization, including also
589 flower size and mass. This points that at these elevations important changes in the *S. carpatica*
590 life conditions occur. Furthermore, recent analyses of traits evolution within the *Soldanella*
591 genus showed that in Carpathian species of the ‘Soldanella’ group (i.e. *S. carpatica*, *S.*
592 *hungarica*, *S. major* and the *S. marmarossiensis* group) for survival in alpine zone niches,
593 dwarfism alone, without reduction in the flower number and structure has proven to be sufficient
594 (Rurik et al., 2024). The results of the present study on *S. carpatica* elevational variation support
595 this statement, with the reservation that the observed reduction in floral investment at the highest
596 elevations may be crucial for plant survival and persistence in hostile environment at the high
597 end of the species vertical range.

598 It is noteworthy that environmental conditions that triggered off abrupt changes in
599 morphology of alpine plants may also hinder predictions on plants upward migrations in
600 mountains (Frei, Bodin & Walther, 2010; Wipf et al., 2013; Steinbauer et al., 2018) as well as
601 plant phenotypic responses to climate warming if local orographic conditions or topographic
602 microhabitat diversity are not considered (Kulonen et al., 2018). It is likely that increased
603 rockiness and steepness of slopes and walls at high elevations of young mountains with glacial
604 landforms shaped by geomorphic processes of physical weathering and denudation (Kotarba,
605 1996) coupled with lack of snowpack during dormant season, that causes freezing stress (Körner,
606 2021), increased frequency of strong winds, shallow initial soils and increased patchiness of
607 fragmented vegetation (Leuschner & Ellenberg, 2017) may not constitute suitable habitats for
608 plant species from lower elevations migrating upward mountain slopes despite the increase in
609 mean annual temperature as predicted by future climate warming scenarios (Engler et al., 2011;
610 Mountain Research Initiative EDW Working Group, 2015). Moreover, diversity of microhabitats
611 in alpine landscapes creates mosaic of micro-environmental and life conditions, with range of
612 thermal niches that can differ in mean temperature by as much as 8 K at the same elevation, and
613 this exceeds around twice the worst climate warming scenario for the same region, as recently
614 shown in the European Alps by Körner and Hiltbrunner (2021). Furthermore, the difference in
615 temperature by 8 K corresponds to ca. 1,450 m difference in elevation, what equals
616 approximately to the differences in mean air temperature across the elevation range investigated
617 in the present study. Such diversity of thermal conditions at given elevation may ensure
618 availability of suitable conditions for cold adapted plants under warmed climate conditions.

619 Therefore, when predicting plants phenotypic responses across elevations in mountains or
620 possibility of upward plant species migrations caused by climate warming it is important to
621 consider local dominant orographic as well as topographic conditions, e.g. slope inclination,
622 exposition, rockiness, terrain relief, because they can substantially modify the climate conditions
623 experienced by plants at given elevation (e.g. Graae et al., 2018).

624 This study revealed the pattern of elevational variation in *S. carpatica* caused by changes
625 in environmental conditions correlated with elevation. It is plausible that observed changes in
626 morphology of *S. carpatica* across elevations represent genomic based adaptation of the species
627 to inhabited niches, as was recently found, for example, in parallel adaptation to different
628 mountain niches in model species *Arabidopsis arenosa* (Knotek et al., 2020; Bohutínská et al.,
629 2021; Wos et al., 2022) and *Heliosperma pusillum* (Szukala et al., 2021a, 2021b). In the context
630 of the emergence of dwarf form of *S. carpatica* above elevation 2,000 m a.s.l. it is worth to note,
631 that due to historically oscillating conditions radiated lineages from high mountain environments
632 are capable of rapidly adopting to a wide range of environments, resulting in adaptive phenotypic
633 evolution (Pouchon et al., 2018; Rurik et al., 2024). The emergence of such adaptations to high
634 elevation environment in *Soldanella* genus could be additionally facilitated by frequent
635 hybridization events and pervasive introgression among ancestral lineages of snowbells, that
636 persisted throughout the entire evolutionary history of the genus (Slovák et al., 2023).
637 Furthermore, these processes have the highest extent in the Carpathian species of the genus
638 where they could greatly facilitate lineages diversification as well as enrichment of genetic pools
639 of species (Slovák et al., 2023) enabling rapid adaptation to local environments. However, taking
640 into account that in the Tatra Mts. two other *Soldanella* species also occur, namely *S.*
641 *marmorossiensis* and *S. montana* (Valachovič et al., 2019), it cannot be precluded that some of
642 the studied *S. carpatica* plants had hybrid origin as a result of gene flow from these species.
643 However, it should be stressed that based on morphological characters all the studied individuals
644 were determined as *S. carpatica*. Moreover, it cannot be completely ruled out that distinctly
645 smaller phenotype of *S. carpatica* at the highest elevations may resulted from plastic,
646 environmentally induced growth responses to limiting abiotic conditions, rather than represent
647 genuine genetically based adaptation (ecotype). Furthermore, along with changes in climate
648 factors across elevations, many other environmental factors, for example, geological substrate,
649 moisture, soil properties and nutrient availability, slope exposure and inclination, and length of

650 snow free period, could influence *S. carpatica* life conditions and the observed pattern of the
651 species elevational variation. Therefore, to disentangle the contributions of plastic,
652 environmentally induced responses, and of genetic differences among locally adapted
653 populations, to morphological variation across elevation gradients studies involving common
654 garden cultivation experiments and reciprocal plant transplantations to different elevations are
655 required (eg. Scheepens, Frei & Stöcklin, 2010; Hamann et al., 2016; Knotek et al., 2020; Wos et
656 al., 2022).

657

658 **Conclusions**

659 Despite availability of numerous studies on elevational variations in plants relatively few of them
660 are based on large number of elevational sites that enable modelling traits variation by
661 continuous elevation variable and explore shape and trajectory of morphological changes across
662 plants vertical ranges. Contrary to what may be expected, that dwarfism in alpine populations of
663 mountain plants emerge when a niche shifts from a forest to an alpine zone, *S. carpatica*
664 morphotype did not change significantly between these two contrasting zones. Instead, there
665 were steady, gradual reductions in overall plant size and biomass from the mountain foothills at
666 900 m a.s.l. to the alpine zone at elevation 2,000 m a.s.l. that suggest adaptation of local
667 populations to the gradient of climatic conditions across elevations. However, a miniaturization
668 of *S. carpatica* phenotype emerged on rocky slopes at the highest elevations in the upper part of
669 alpine zone and in subnival zone. This rapid plant dwarfism may reflect adaptation to abrupt
670 changes in orographic conditions i.e. increased rockiness and steepness of mountain slopes that
671 cause increase of harshness of abiotic conditions. Despite the plant miniaturization at the highest
672 elevations, biomass partitioning traits changed gradually across the entire species elevation
673 range. Thus, the abrupt changes in *S. carpatica* morphology on the highest elevation sites
674 suggest that overall plant size and dry mass are strongly influenced by local environmental
675 conditions to which they respond considerably by means of adaptation and/or phenotypic
676 plasticity, whereas steady trajectories of dry mass partitioning changes across entire elevation
677 gradient suggest that mass partitioning and adjustive changes in organs mass fractions in
678 response to environmental conditions represent a stable evolutionary solution of the species.
679 Moreover, morphological variations in *S. carpatica* conform to the observations that populations
680 of species from the ‘Soldanella’ intrageneric group that are adapted to high elevation

681 environments still maintain typical ‘Soldanella’-like appearance, despite considerable reduction
682 in overall size.

683

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687

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- 1050

Table 1 (on next page)

Study sites of *Soldanella carpatica* in the Polish Tatra Mountains.

Geographic coordinates were determined with a WGS84 geodetic system.

1

Site	Elevation (m a.s.l.)	Latitude (N)	Longitude (E)	Date
1	890	49°16'54.8"	19°57'27.2"	2018-05-02
2	920	49°16'44.8"	19°57'43.6"	2018-05-02
3	948	49°15'47.7"	19°52'14.2"	2018-04-28
4	1025	49°16'18.2"	19°52'49.6"	2018-04-29
5	1075	49°15'52.4"	19°58'55.8"	2018-05-03
6	1080	49°15'40.0"	19°53'07.7"	2018-04-28
7	1083	49°16'10.1"	19°52'48.6"	2018-04-29
8	1099	49°16'10.7"	19°52'52.3"	2018-04-29
9	1120	49°15'21.0"	19°51'25.4"	2018-04-29
10	1170	49°16'03.6"	19°52'55.2"	2018-04-28
11	1175	49°15'27.8"	19°59'31.8"	2018-05-29
12	1240	49°15'16.6"	19°52'51.9"	2018-05-01
13	1242	49°15'24.9"	19°59'37.2"	2018-05-03
14	1255	49°15'56.5"	19°53'08.3"	2018-04-28
15	1280	49°15'17.8"	19°59'38.9"	2018-05-03
16	1315	49°15'07.7"	19°59'41.4"	2018-05-29
17	1340	49°15'01.3"	19°58'29.3"	2018-04-30
18	1359	49°15'05.0"	19°58'29.8"	2018-04-30
19	1390	49°15'02.6"	19°53'04.8"	2018-05-01
20	1448	49°15'00.2"	19°53'12.6"	2018-05-01
21	1450	49°15'05.8"	20°00'03.2"	2018-05-29
22	1483	49°14'51.8"	19°53'13.8"	2018-05-01
23	1520	49°14'49.3"	19°53'11.3"	2018-05-01
24	1580	49°14'19.2"	19°56'34.6"	2018-05-28
25	1618	49°14'40.2"	19°53'17.4"	2018-05-26
26	1635	49°14'16.4"	19°56'30.3"	2018-05-28
27	1650	49°14'15.5"	19°56'32.5"	2018-06-14
28	1700	49°14'31.4"	19°53'25.9"	2018-05-26
29	1746	49°14'25.9"	19°53'28.5"	2018-05-26
30	1750	49°14'09.5"	19°56'23.7"	2018-06-14
31	1800	49°14'13.9"	19°58'41.0"	2018-05-25
32	1860	49°14'07.8"	19°58'43.4"	2018-05-25
33	1863	49°14'03.5"	19°56'18.6"	2018-06-14
34	1925	49°13'59.3"	19°58'49.9"	2018-05-28
35	1980	49°13'55.1"	19°58'53.5"	2018-05-25
36	2085	49°13'38.7"	20°01'51.8"	2018-07-10
37	2175	49°11'04.1"	20°04'10.1"	2018-07-07
38	2214	49°11'02.4"	20°04'08.0"	2018-07-07
39	2280	49°11'02.7"	20°04'01.2"	2018-07-07
40	2370	49°10'58.1"	20°04'01.0"	2018-07-07

2

Table 2 (on next page)

Soldanella carpatica traits used in the study.

1

Trait	Measurement details	Accuracy / significant digits
Aboveground plant mass – total dry mass of the aboveground plant parts. Calculated as sum of leaves, stalk and flowers masses weighed separately.	Plant parts weighed on an analytical balance after drying for 48 h at 80 °C.	0.0001 g
Root mass – dry mass of all plant roots.	Roots washed on the 0.6 mm sieve under running water and weighed on an analytical balance after drying for 48 h at 80 °C.	0.0001 g
Total leaf mass – total dry mass of all plant leaves.	Weighed on an analytical balance after drying for 48 h at 80 °C.	0.0001 g
Scape mass - dry mass of plant scape.	Weighed on an analytical balance after drying for 48 h at 80 °C.	0.0001 g
Total flower mass – total dry mass of all plant flowers.	Weighed on an analytical balance after drying for 48 h at 80 °C.	0.00001 g
Individual flower mass – total flower mass divided by number of flowers in the inflorescence.	–	0.00001 g
Scape height – measured from the plant base to the top of the inflorescence.	Straightened scape was measured with a ruler on herbarium specimens.	1 mm
Leaf blade diameter – mean value of the two perpendicular blade width measurements. This trait was measured and averaged for two largest plant leaf blades.	Measured with a digital calliper on herbarium specimens.	0.1 mm
Root : Shoot ratio – root mass divided by plant aboveground mass.	–	–
Leaf mass fraction – total leaf mass divided by total plant mass.	–	–
Flower aboveground mass fraction – total flower mass divided by plant aboveground mass.	–	–

2

Table 3 (on next page)

Summaries of linear mixed-effects models for fitting *Soldanella carpatica* traits to elevation.

Elevational model range - mod₂₃₇₀: 890–2370 m a.s.l., mod₁₉₈₀: 890–1980 m a.s.l.; P_{model selection} – test between straight line and curvilinear line models; t, P – test of model significance at the significance level of 0.05.

1

	Elevational model range	P_{model selection}	Intercept a	Slope b₁	Slope b₂	t	P
Aboveground plant mass (g)	mod ₂₃₇₀	0.0048	7.340×10^{-2}	3.389×10^{-4}	-1.447×10^{-7}	-2.858	0.0067
	mod ₁₉₈₀	0.4402	3.368×10^{-1}	-6.000×10^{-5}	-	-2.099	0.0436
Root mass (g)	mod ₂₃₇₀	0.0212	3.236×10^{-3}	2.435×10^{-4}	-8.918×10^{-8}	-2.299	0.0270
	mod ₁₉₈₀	0.9100	1.579×10^{-1}	3.729×10^{-6}	-	0.180	0.8583
Total leaf mass (g)	mod ₂₃₇₀	0.0217	9.614×10^{-2}	2.156×10^{-4}	-9.961×10^{-8}	-2.288	0.0275
	mod ₁₉₈₀	0.4140	2.800×10^{-1}	-6.098×10^{-5}	-	-2.444	0.0201
Scape mass (mg)	mod ₂₃₇₀	0.0005	$-1.684 \times 10^{+1}$	8.759×10^{-2}	-3.207×10^{-5}	-3.587	0.0009
	mod ₁₉₈₀	0.9431	$3.934 \times 10^{+1}$	8.811×10^{-4}	-	0.1860	0.8536
Total flower mass (mg)	mod ₂₃₇₀	<0.0000	-6.663×10^0	3.683×10^{-2}	-1.337×10^{-5}	-5.656	<0.0001
	mod ₁₉₈₀	0.2335	$1.747 \times 10^{+1}$	1.322×10^{-4}	-	0.112	0.9112
Individual flower mass (mg)	mod ₂₃₇₀	<0.0000	1.323×10^0	6.539×10^{-3}	-2.462×10^{-6}	-4.353	0.0001
	mod ₁₉₈₀	0.2902	5.780×10^0	-2.286×10^{-4}	-	-0.793	0.4336
Scape height (mm)	mod ₂₃₇₀	0.0833	$2.012 \times 10^{+2}$	-4.333×10^{-2}	-	-5.472	<0.0001
	mod ₁₉₈₀	0.8607	$1.820 \times 10^{+2}$	-2.842×10^{-2}	-	-2.583	0.0144
Leaf blade diameter (mm)	mod ₂₃₇₀	0.0041	$1.821 \times 10^{+1}$	1.262×10^{-2}	-6.600×10^{-6}	-2.912	0.0059
	mod ₁₉₈₀	0.2017	$3.061 \times 10^{+1}$	-5.873×10^{-3}	-	-4.435	0.0001
Root : Shoot ratio	mod ₂₃₇₀	0.1649	3.407×10^{-1}	2.643×10^{-4}	-	5.000	<0.0001
	mod ₁₉₈₀	0.7610	4.210×10^{-1}	2.020×10^{-4}	-	3.088	0.0022
Leaf mass fraction	mod ₂₃₇₀	0.8786	5.733×10^{-1}	-8.149×10^{-5}	-	-5.878	<0.0000
	mod ₁₉₈₀	0.4429	5.791×10^{-1}	-8.600×10^{-5}	-	-4.463	0.0001
Flower aboveground mass fraction	mod ₂₃₇₀	0.6018	5.234×10^{-2}	1.832×10^{-5}	-	3.590	0.0009
	mod ₁₉₈₀	0.5847	4.715×10^{-2}	2.234×10^{-5}	-	3.216	0.0029

2

Table 4(on next page)

Fitted values of *Soldanella carpatica* traits and percentage traits changes across elevations.

All percentage changes in trait values are referred to fitted values at the base of elevational gradient at 890 m a.s.l. Trait values at 890 m a.s.l. were fitted by linear mixed-effects models constructed for the 890–1,980 m a.s.l. elevational ranges, values at 2370 m a.s.l. were fitted by models constructed for the 890–2370 m a.s.l. elevational ranges, and values at 1,980 m a.s.l. were averaged based on the fitted values from the both models; *ns* - not significant model used for fitted values estimation.

1

	Fitted value at 890 m a.s.l.	Fitted value at 1,980 m a.s.l.	Fitted value at 2,370 m a.s.l.	Change per 100 m increase in elevation in the 890– 1,980 m a.s.l. range (%)	Change per 100 m increase in elevation in the 1,980– 2,370 m a.s.l. range (%)	Total change with an increase in elevation from 890 m to 2,370 m a.s.l. (%)
Aboveground plant mass (g)	0.2834	0.1976	0.0639	– 2.1	– 12.1	– 77.5
Root mass (g)	0.1612	0.1505	0.0794	+ 0.2 <i>ns</i>	– 11.3	– 50.7
Total leaf mass (g)	0.2257	0.1459	0.0476	– 2.7	– 11.2	– 78.9
Scape mass (mg)	40.12	35.97	10.60	+ 0.2 <i>ns</i>	– 16.2	– 73.6
Total flower mass (mg)	17.58	15.79	5.54	+ 0.1 <i>ns</i>	– 15.0	– 68.5
Individual flower mass (mg)	5.58	4.97	2.99	– 0.4 <i>ns</i>	– 9.1	– 46.3
Scape height (mm)	156.7	120.6	98.5	– 1.8	– 3.6	– 37.2
Leaf blade diameter (mm)	25.4	18.2	11.1	– 2.3	– 7.2	– 56.4
Root : Shoot ratio	0.6008	0.8425	0.9671	+ 3.4	+ 5.3	+ 61.0
Leaf mass fraction	0.5025	0.4104	0.3802	– 1.7	– 1.5	– 24.3
Flower aboveground mass fraction	0.0670	0.0900	0.0958	+ 3.3	+ 2.2	+ 42.8

2

Figure 1

Soldanella carpatica habit.

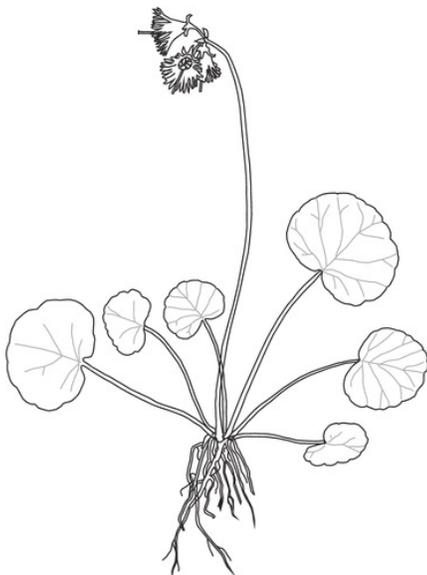


Figure 2

Location of the 40 elevational sites sampled for *Soldanella carpatica* in the Polish Tatra Mts., Western Carpathians.

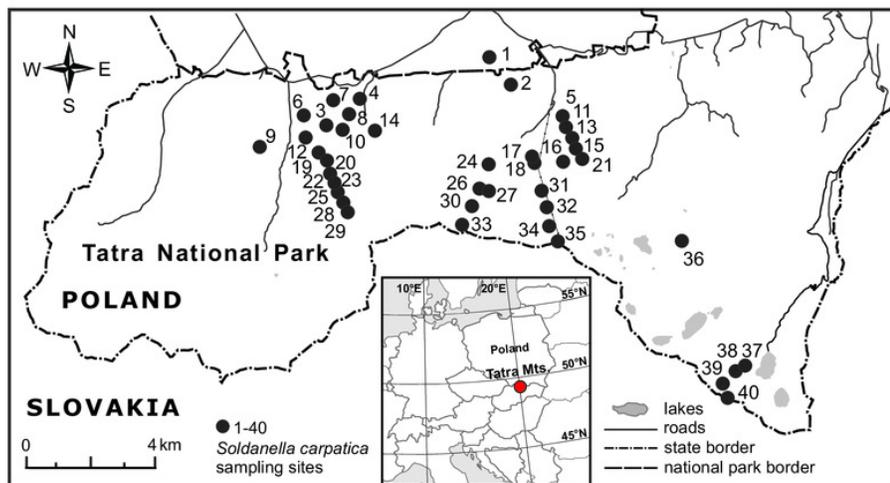


Figure 3

Elevational variation in morphological traits of *Soldanella carpatica*.

Solid lines represent the result of the mixed-effect models fitted to the 890–1,980 m a.s.l. range, interrupted lines represent models fitted to the entire 890–2,370 m a.s.l. range, the surrounding bands represent the 95% confidence intervals; P_{1980} , P_{2370} – p-value of model significance fitted for 890–1,980 m a.s.l. and 890–2,370 m a.s.l. elevation ranges, respectively; ns – non significant model at 0.05 significance level.

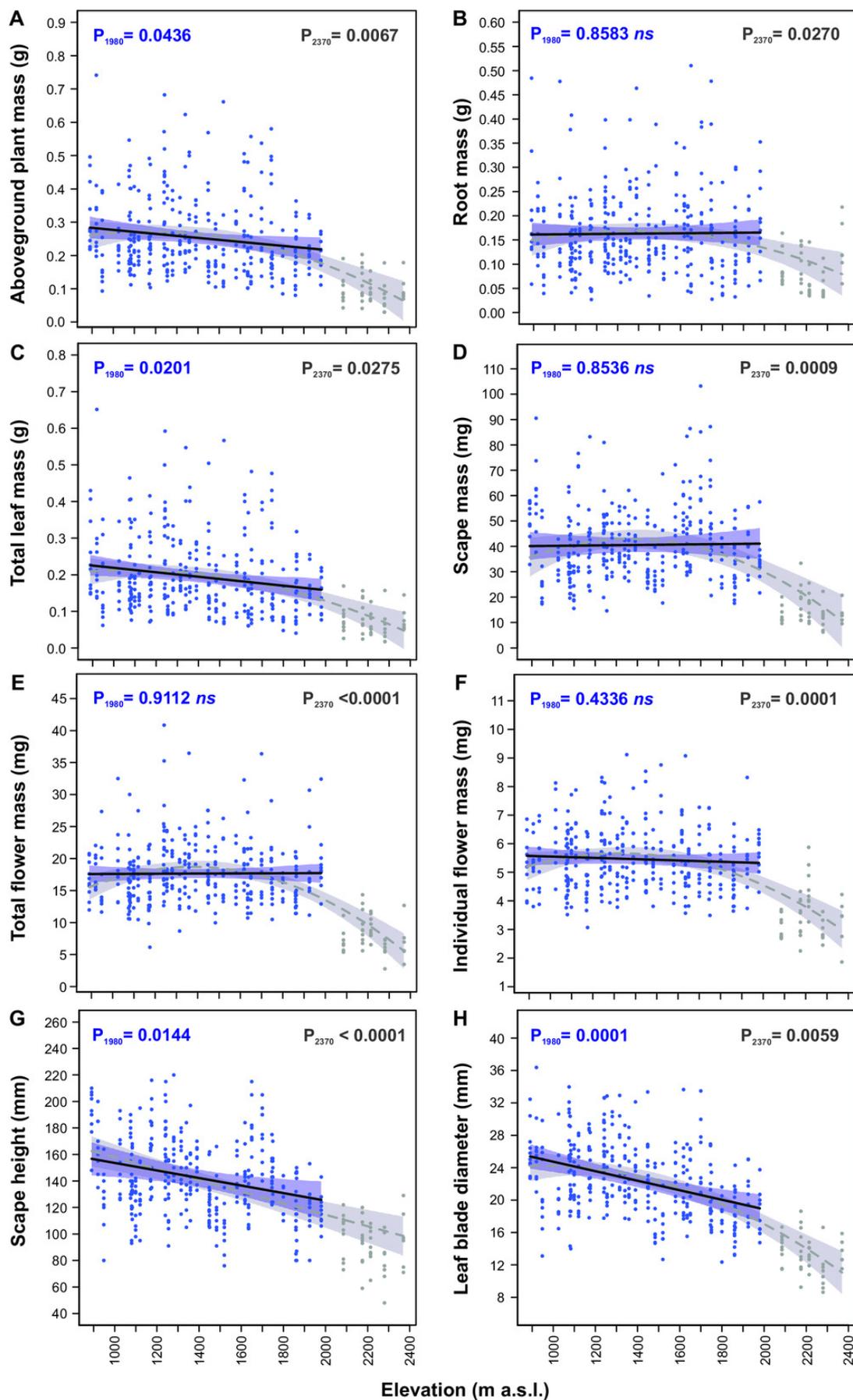


Figure 4

Elevational variation in *Soldanella carpatica* dry mass allocation traits.

Solid lines represent the result of the mixed-effect models fitted to the 890–1,980 m a.s.l. range, interrupted lines represent models fitted to the entire 890–2,370 m a.s.l. range, the surrounding bands represent the 95% confidence intervals; P_{1980} , P_{2370} – p-value of model significance fitted for 890–1,980 m a.s.l. and 890–2,370 m a.s.l. elevation ranges, respectively.

