

least three independent runs per plant, and the mean was used. Measurements differing by more than 2% were discarded, and the sample was re-analysed.

Mean genome size of each population (=locality) was used in data analysis. Differences in mean monoploid genome size ($1Cx$) were tested by Tukey HSD test (1) between all populations comprising at least three individuals, and (2) between four different regions (Alps, Western Carpathians, Southern Carpathians and Vranica planina). Two-sample t test with Welch approximation (due to unequal variances) was used to test the differences in mean monoploid genome size ($1Cx$) between diploid and triploid plants. Correlations between the genome size and the geographical position of populations (altitude, latitude and longitude) in the Alps were tested by Spearman rank tests.

All tests were done using the basic packages of R software (R Development Core Team 2006).

Pollen production

Pollen measurements were carried out on herbarium samples collected as vouchers for a phylogeographic study of *H. alpinum* (Appendix 2). Five flowers per plant (both inner and outer flowers) in the stage before anthesis were broken up with tweezers to release the pollen from the anthers. Pollen was stained by Alexander's stain (Alexander 1969). The staining pattern proved unsuitable to assess pollen viability because some clearly deformed pollen grains were stained as "viable" (red cytoplasm and green cell wall) while many pollen grains of regular shape and

Fig. 1 Distribution of karyologically and/or flow cytometrically analysed populations of *Hieracium alpinum* L. Total range of the species is marked by grey shading (a Europe, b Ural and Northern Russia, c Greenland). Symbols used: filled circle/open circle diploid populations (published/new data), filled triangle/open triangle triploid populations (published/new data)

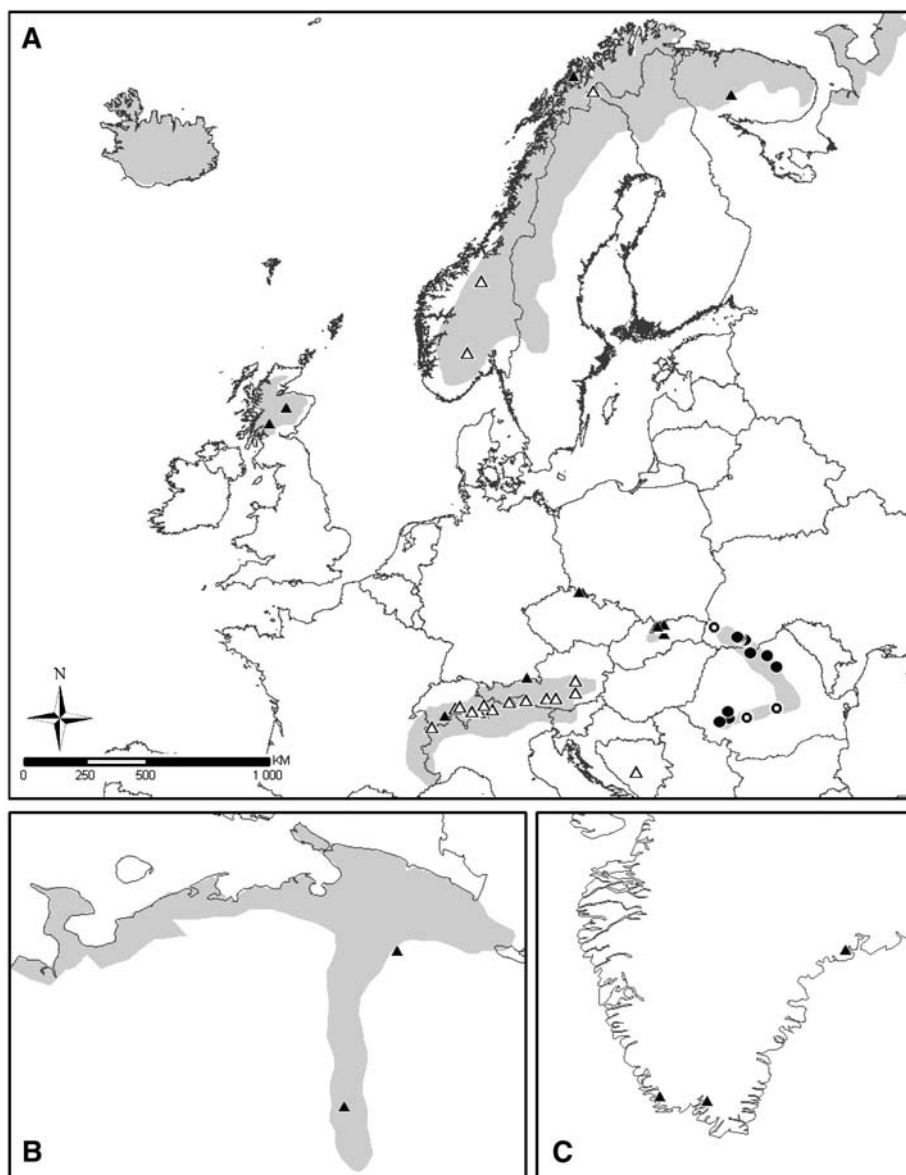


Table 3 Comparison of the absolute genome size of *Hieracium alpinum* L. belonging to different cytotypes and geographical origins

Region (ploidy level)	<i>N</i> ^a	Mean 2C value (pg DNA)	2C value range (pg DNA)	% min-max	Mean 1Cx value (pg DNA) ^b
S Carpathians (2x)	7	7.56	7.45–7.61	2.1	3.78a
Alps (3x)	23	11.02	10.77–11.23	4.3	3.67b
W Carpathians (3x)	6	10.93	10.85–11.06	1.9	3.64b
Vranica, Balkan (3x)	3	10.28	10.22–10.33	1.1	3.43c

^a Number of analysed plants per region

^b Mean monoploid values (1Cx) sharing the same letter are not significantly different (Tukey HSD test, $P < 0.05$)

populations is 7.2%. The maximal inter-individual divergence within one mountain range was recorded among the plants from the Alps (4.3%).

Mean monoploid genome size (1Cx) differed significantly between the Vranica and all other tested populations, as well as between diploid populations and all tested triploid populations (Tukey HSD tests, $P < 0.05$). No significant differences were recorded between triploid populations from the Alps and the Western Carpathians, with exception of the Baranec population in the Western Carpathians (Table 2). When data obtained from individual plants were grouped by geographical origin, statistically significant differences were found between: (1) the triploids from the Alps/Western Carpathians and the Vranica planina, (2) the triploids from the Alps/Western Carpathians and the diploids from the Southern Carpathians, and (3) the triploid plants from the Vranica planina and the diploids from the Southern Carpathians (Table 3). A significant monoploid genome downsizing was recorded in diploid plants when compared to all triploids with mean divergence of 3.7% (Welch two sample t test, $t = 7.93$, $df = 27.5$, $P < 0.001$). When plants from the Vranica planina were excluded from the analysis the divergence was smaller (3.1%), but still highly significant (two sample t test, $t = 9.23$, $df = 35$, $P < 0.001$).

Significant negative correlations between genome size and latitude and longitude were revealed for accessions from the Alps ($r_s = -0.629$, $P = 0.0214$, and $r_s = -0.576$, $P = 0.0395$, respectively). No significant correlation was found between genome size and altitude ($r_s = 0.517$, $P = 0.0719$).

Variation in pollen production

The only plants included in our observations that originated from the range occupied solely by diploids are those from the Horhany ridge (Ukrainian Eastern Carpathians). In this population, we found a high amount of pollen of homogeneous size (Fig. 2a, b). Most of the triploid plants did not produce pollen at all (85% of all triploids studied, cf. Table 4; Fig. 2c). However, some pollen production was

observed in 10 plants from the Alps (27% of plants studied from this range), in both plants analysed from the Vranica planina and in one plant from the Western Carpathians (2.6%) and Scandinavia (6.2%) (Table 4). These male-fertile triploids produced only a small amount of pollen in comparison with diploids and this pollen was always of heterogeneous size (Fig. 2d). Moreover, the pollen of triploid plants frequently showed poorly developed exine structure.

Discussion

Cytogeographic pattern and geographical parthenogenesis

Hieracium alpinum can be considered a clear-cut example of geographical parthenogenesis: diploids occupy only a restricted area at the low latitude range margin, whereas apomictic triploids cover a much larger area, including polar latitudes and previously extensively glaciated areas like the Alps and northern Europe (Fig. 1). A surprising pattern is the completely non-overlapping distribution of sexual and asexual plants. The recent closest localities of diploid (Mount Pikuš in the Eastern Carpathians, Ukraine) and triploid (the Belianske Tatry mountains in the Western Carpathians, Slovakia) cytotypes are separated by c. 200 km. In other species showing geographical parthenogenesis, both reproduction modes co-occur, at least in some areas (Asker and Jerling 1992; Hörandl 2006). Assuming a high colonisation potential of triploid *H. alpinum* (based on its present range), it is interesting that no triploid plant (either of in situ origin or as immigrant from triploid range) have been detected in the diploid range so far. This might suggest that (1) recent diploids are not able to produce stable triploid progeny, or (2) effective dispersal of triploids into the diploid range is prevented, or (3) there is some selection mechanism precluding their successful establishment. The first two hypotheses seem plausible. Indeed, the production of unreduced gametes, considered the most important pathway to polyploidy (Ramsey and

Fig. 2 Pollen in *Hieracium alpinum* L. **a** anthers with a lot of pollen in diploid plant, **b** homogeneous sized pollen in diploid plant (both plants from the population Alp-56, Ukraine Mount Mala Syvulya), **c** anthers without pollen in triploid plant (population Alp-26, Austria, Sölkpass), some remnants of degenerated tapetum layer are visible, **d** few pollen grains of heterogenous size in the anther of triploid plant (population Alp-23, Austria, Mount Seekareck). Scale bar = 100 μm (**a** and **c**), 50 μm (**b** and **d**)

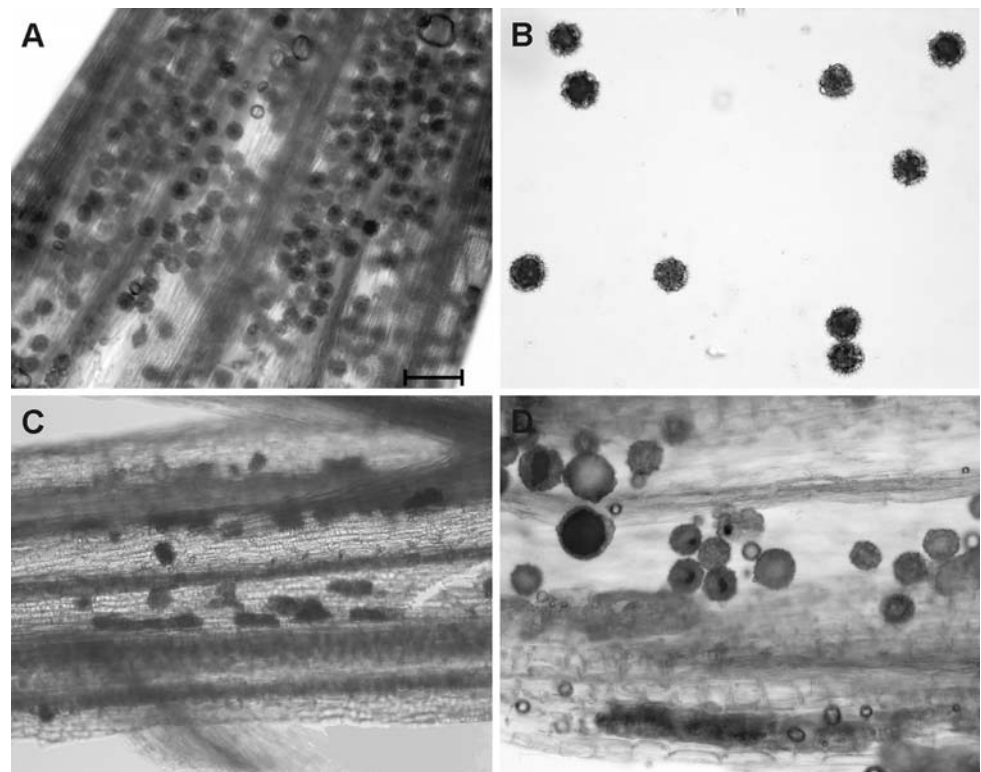


Table 4 Semi-quantitative estimation of pollen production in *Hieracium alpinum* L.

Region/population code (Appendix 2)	N^a	Pollen quantity ^b
Alps (3x)		
Alp-2, 4, 11, 12, 15, 18, 20, 22, 24, 25	18	– (all plants)
Alp-5	2	–, ++
Alp-14	2	–, +
Alp-16	1	+++++
Alp-17	3	–, +, ++++
Alp-21	2	–, +
Alp-23	4	–, ++, ++++, ++++
Alp-26	3	–, –, ++++
Eastern Carpathians (2x)		
Alp-56	2	+++++ (both plants)
Scandinavia (3x)		
Alp-93, 94, 95, 96, 97, 98, 101, 103	13	– (all plants)
Alp-102	4	–, –, –, ++
Yamal Peninsula (3x)		
Alp-Yam	2	– (both plants)
Vranica (3x)		
Alp-87	2	++, ++++
Western Carpathians (3x)		
Alp-32, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 45, 46, 47, 48	37	– (all plants)
Alp-44	3	–, –, ++++

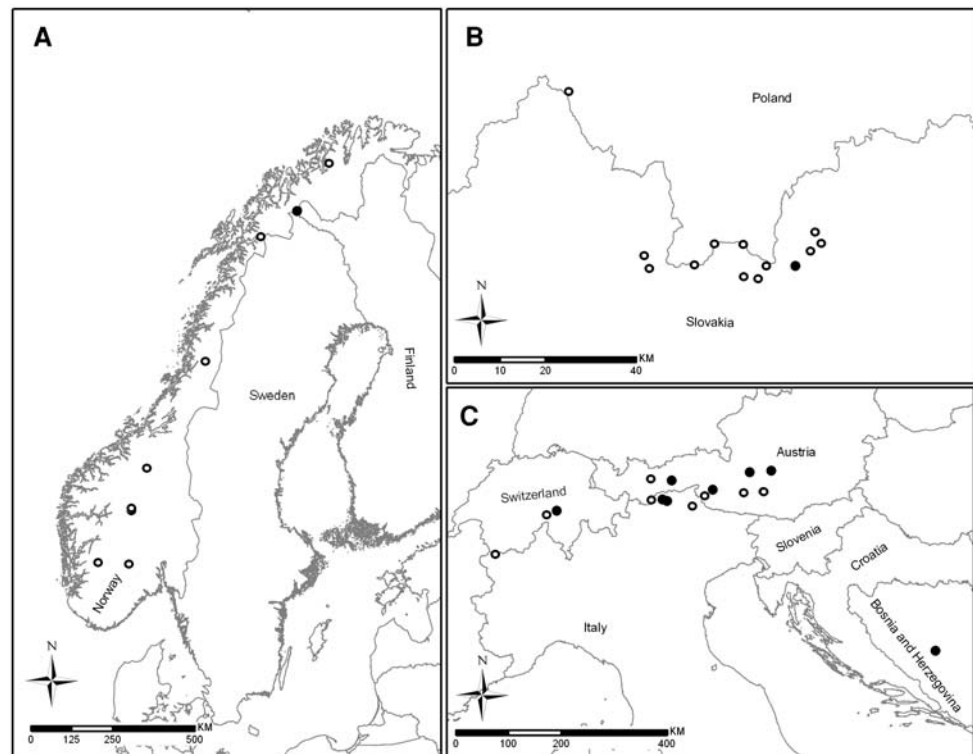
^a Total number of plants analysed

^b Relative pollen abundance from “–” (no pollen) to “+++++” (pollen very abundant as in diploid cytotype) for each of the plants analysed

Schemske 1998), seems to be rare in diploid *Hieracium* taxa including *H. alpinum*. No larger pollen grains indicating larger genome content were observed during a

detailed study of pollen production and size in diploid hawkweeds (Kovalčíková 2004). Furthermore, long-distance dispersal is stochastic and usually involves singular

Fig. 3 Distribution of triploid apomictic populations of *Hieracium alpinum* L. where pollen production was examined (**a** Scandinavia, **b** the Western Carpathians, **c** the Alps and Vranica planina). Symbol used: “filled circle” at least one plant from analysed population produced some pollen; “open circle” none of analysed plants from population produced pollen (for details see “Material and methods”, supplementary material Appendix 2 and Table 4). The remnant locality from the Yamal Peninsula (NE Russia) was not included in the map



events only (Nathan 2006, but see Alsos et al. 2007), maybe restricting the invasion of the diploid range by triploids. Nevertheless, the strict allopatry of *H. alpinum* cytotypes would probably be better explained by restricted effective dispersal involving adaptive mechanisms that further prevent recruitment. It has been hypothesised that sexual lineages are better competitors than asexual ones because sexual recombination can sustain selection, while apomicts might be more successful on disturbed places or extreme types of habitats with fewer biotic interactions (Asker and Jerling 1992, but see de Kovel and de Jong 2001). In *H. alpinum*, however, there are no striking differences between the habitats occupied by both cytotypes in their respective ranges. Diploids and triploids both grow in open as well as in more dense vegetation communities, suggesting that selection does not play a key role in maintaining cytotype separation in *H. alpinum*.

Results from a large-scale molecular screening of *H. alpinum* populations (Mráz et al., unpublished data) indicate a polytopic origin of triploid apomicts and only a loose genetic relatedness with the recent diploids. Together with the disjunct ranges of diploids and triploids, and the occurrence of many closely related microspecies within the triploid range, this suggests that triploid plants of *H. alpinum* are probably remnants of extinct diploid lineages rather than descendants of contemporary diploid populations.

Genome size variation and its geographical pattern

In our study, we confirmed a general trend of genome downsizing in polyploids with respect to their diploid progenitors (Leitch and Bennett 2004). This contrasts with the closely related genus *Pilosella*, where downsizing was not apparent in triploids, but only at higher ploidy levels (Suda et al. 2007). Several mechanisms may lead to genome size reduction in polyploids: (1) unequal homologous recombination, (2) elimination of specific DNA sequences (including sequences in low- and high copy number from both coding and non-coding regions), and (3) change in transposons activity (Leitch and Bennett 2004).

In *H. alpinum*, a significant genome size reduction (in average ca 7%) was detected in the isolated population of the Vranica planina. Because the exact chromosome numbers of plants from the Vranica population were not determined, we could not exclude the possibility that this intraspecific variation in DNA content is due to aneuploidy. In fact, aneuploidy ($2n = 26$) was previously reported in individuals of *H. alpinum* from the Murmansk region (Sokolovskaya and Strelkova 1960), but aneuploidy is extremely rare in the genus *Hieracium* (Schuhwerk 1996). The loss of DNA observed in *H. alpinum* from the isolated population of Vranica planina could be attributed to other phenomena like a selection for smaller genome size. Indeed, Knight and Beaulieu

(2008) showed a correlation between plant genome size and some traits involved in evapotranspiration, such as length of the guard cells, epidermal cell area and stomatal density. Taking into account the particular climatic conditions at Vranica planina (the southernmost known population of *H. alpinum*), we cannot exclude an adaptive scenario in this case. An alternative explanation for genome size reduction in Balkan plants might be the different evolutionary origin, because the Vranica population is genetically distinct from the other triploid populations (Mráz et al., unpublished data).

With the exception of the Vranica plants, between-individual or inter-population (or interregional) variation in genome size of *H. alpinum* was moderate. The maximal divergence between two triploid plants (excluding the Vranica population) was 4.3%. The plants from the Alps were more variable (expressed as min and max range of 1Cx) than the plants from the Western Carpathians, in concordance with higher genetic variation found in triploid plants from the former region (Mráz et al. unpublished data). However, we analysed more plants from the larger area of the Alps than from the Carpathians, and possible sampling bias should be taken into consideration. Significant negative correlations between genome size of triploid *H. alpinum* and latitude and longitude were recorded in the Alps. Clinal variation in genome size remains a contentious issue. It has been tentatively proposed to be an adaptation to local climatic conditions (e.g. Tensch and Greilhuber 2001; Schmutz et al. 2004; Bancheva and Greilhuber 2006). Therefore we also examined whether some relationship could be found between the genome size and mean annual precipitation and temperature as derived from the WorldClim model (Hijmans et al. 2005). We found no correlation (data not shown), but the results should be interpreted with caution because the WorldClim model is spatially very coarse.

Variation in pollen production

A large quantity of pollen of homogeneous size is characteristic for diploid *H. alpinum* (Chrtek 1997; Mráz et al. 2002; Kovalčíková 2004; Chrtek et al. 2006; Slade and Rich 2007). In contrast, most plants from the triploid range did not produce pollen at all (Table 4). This finding concurs with those of Chrtek (1997), Kovalčíková (2004) and Slade and Rich (2007) who observed no pollen in triploid cytotype in the Western Carpathians and Scotland. However, in the present study, we detected some level of pollen production in triploids from the Alps, the Vranica planina, and very rarely from the Western Carpathians and Scandinavia (Table 4, Fig. 3). The most noteworthy is the high proportion (27%) of partially male fertile plants from the Alps, and mainly from the eastern

part. From present and published data (see above), it is obvious that triploids in northern latitudes (Scandinavia, Scotland, Sudetes, Yamal Peninsula, the Western Carpathians) are mostly male sterile, while triploids from southerly situated Alps or the Vranica planina can more frequently produce some pollen. This indicates that triploid *H. alpinum* is not completely male sterile, as previously suggested. Intraspecific polymorphism in pollen production has also been reported in other polyploid *Hieracium* taxa (Mráz 2002; Kovalčíková 2004; Slade and Rich 2007; Rich et al. 2008). Interestingly, in some cases we recorded variation in pollen production within one flower head, or even within one flower (some anthers with pollen, some anthers completely empty). Similarly, variation in pollen production within the same head or the same flower was observed in triploid *H. villosum* (Urbanska 1991). Slade and Rich (2007) reported that cultivated plants of some polyploid taxa produced pollen more often than wild plants, suggesting that environmental factors might have an influence on pollen production in apomictic *Hieracium* species.

Pollen production is considered as a significant reproductive cost in plants. For instance, Meirmans et al. (2006) found that male-sterile apomictic dandelions (*Taraxacum* sect. *Ruderalia*) produce more flower heads *per* plant, and thus more seeds, than pollen-producing apomicts. Pollen production thus seems implausible in apomictic *H. alpinum*, because successful production of seeds is completely independent of pollination and fertilisation. Maynard Smith (1978) proposed a non-adaptive hypothesis for the retention of male function, suggesting that apomicts producing pollen are phylogenetically too recent to have accumulated enough mutations for male sterility. Alternatively, male apomicts could be advantageous if they are able to mate with diploids, thus creating new clones or reducing the fitness of co-occurring sexual competitors (Mogie 1992). Although we have no indication of present-day sympatric occurrence of diploids and triploids, such a situation might have been possible in the past, when new triploid clones arose within diploid populations.

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Appendix

Appendix 1. New chromosome counts and estimations of DNA-ploidy level in *Hieracium alpinum* s.str.

Appendix 2. Geographic origin of the plants of *Hieracium alpinum* L. used for pollen observations.

This Appendix can be downloaded freely from <http://www.birkhauser.ch/BH>.

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