

1 **Little hope for the polyploid endemic Pyrenean Larkspur (*Delphinium***
2 ***montanum*): evidences from population genomics and Ecological Niche**
3 **Modelling**

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19

20 **Abstract**

21 Species endemic to restricted geographical ranges represent a particular conservation issue,
22 be it for their heritage interest. In a context of global change, this is particularly the case for
23 plants which belong to high-mountain ecosystems and, because of their ecological

24 requirements, are doomed to survive or disappear on their 'sky islands'. The Pyrenean
25 Larkspur (*Delphinium montanum*, Ranunculaceae) is endemic to the Eastern part of the
26 Pyrenees (France and Spain). It is now only observable at a dozen of localities and some
27 populations show signs of decline, such as a recurrent lack of flowering. Implementing
28 population genomic approach (e.g. RAD-seq like) is particularly useful to understand
29 genomic patterns of diversity and differentiation in order to provide recommendations in
30 term of conservation. However, it remains challenging for species such as *D. montanum* that
31 are autotetraploid with a large genome size (1C-value > 10 pg) as most methods currently
32 available were developed for diploid species. A Bayesian framework able to call genotypes
33 with uncertainty allowed us to assess genetic diversity and population structure in this
34 system. Our results show evidence for inbreeding (mean $G_{IS} = 0.361$) within all the
35 populations and substantial population structure (mean $G_{ST} = 0.403$) at the metapopulation
36 level. In addition to a lack of connectivity between populations, spatial projections of
37 Ecological Niche Modelling analyses under different climatic scenarios predict a dramatic
38 decrease of suitable habitat for *D. montanum* in the future. Based on these results, we
39 discuss the relevance and feasibility of different conservation measures.

40

41 **Keywords** Sky islands, Inbreeding, Tetraploid, Restriction Site Associated DNA Sequencing
42 (RAD-seq), Species Distribution Modelling, Genotyping By Sequencing (GBS)

43 **Introduction**

44 Extinction risk associated to climate change is expected not only to increase but to
45 accelerate for every degree rise in global temperatures (Urban, 2015). In this context, the
46 number of threatened species by reduced population sizes, habitat degradation and habitat
47 fragmentation is increasing. Small and fragmented populations are particularly prone to be
48 affected by drift and inbreeding depression and generally display decreased levels of genetic
49 diversity (e.g. Bergl et al. 2008; Dixo et al. 2009). The increase of anthropogenic and
50 environmental pressures, both being intimately bound, represents an unprecedented threat
51 for vulnerable species. In particular, populations from species of high-mountain ecosystems
52 might not be able to move upward rapidly enough to keep within their thermal tolerances
53 and might be doomed on their 'sky islands' (see McCormack et al. 2009, e.g. Kidane et al.
54 2019, De Gabriel Hernando et al. 2021). Thus, species endemic to specific mountain ranges
55 represent a major conservation issue, if only for their heritage interest. It is critical to
56 characterize the distribution of genetic diversity within- and between- their populations to
57 evaluate the inbreeding risk and study population structure to better understand how
58 isolated they really are, in order to undertake effective conservation actions (Calevo et al.
59 2021).

60 The threatened Pyrenean larkspur *Delphinium montanum* DC., 1815 perfectly
61 illustrates this situation. This plant (Family Ranunculaceae), endemic to the Eastern part of
62 the Pyrenees (France and Spain), is now only observable at a dozen of localities (two already
63 got extinct over the 20th century) and its global population size was estimated to range
64 between 7 800 to 10 300 individuals in total (Aymerich et al. 2020). It occurs between alpine
65 and subalpine levels, between 1 600 and 2 400 m (López-Pujol et al. 2007). *D. montanum* is
66 vulnerable as a result of increasing levels of multiple threats. Some of its populations are

67 located nearby touristic sites (*i.e.* mountain resorts or hiking trails) and are negatively
68 impacted by trampling (Simon et al., 2001). Flowers and fruits predation by herbivores,
69 particularly Pyrenean chamois/isards (*Rupicapra pyrenaica pyrenaica*) was also shown to be
70 responsible for the seed bank's decrease in some populations (Simon et al. 2001, Aymerich
71 2003). Importantly, differences in population dynamics are observable from one population
72 to another. Some populations are stable, whereas others show decrease in population size
73 (4-Pedraforca) and/or absence of flowering individuals since 2011 (2-Nohèdes). Pioneering
74 work of Simon et al. (2001) and Lopéz-Pujol et al. (2007) also suggested relatively low
75 effective size as well as, evidence of inbreeding within-populations and significant
76 population structure. However, these two studies were based on a limited number of
77 genetic markers (*i.e.* 7 and 14 allozyme *loci*, respectively) and populations studied (*i.e.* 2 and
78 7, respectively).

79 Implementing a population genomic approach on *D. montanum* could be particularly
80 fruitful to inform conservation strategies by providing a substantial increase in the resolution
81 of the genetic marker dataset and genome complexity reduction protocols such as Reduction
82 site-associated DNA sequencing (or RAD-seq, Baird 2008) allow to get such information on
83 tens to hundreds of individuals. However, the features of the genome of the species make
84 *Delphinium montanum* particularly challenging from a technical and methodological point of
85 view. *D. montanum* is an autotetraploid species (Simon et al. 2001; Lopéz-Pujol et al. 2007).
86 Our recent flow cytometry estimates of 10.32 pg/1C for this species (*i.e.* about twice the 1C-
87 value reported for several other diploid *Delphinium* species) corroborates previous
88 knowledge and confirms the large genome size of *D. montanum* (Bertrand et al. unpublished
89 data). A large genome size can be considered has a limitation as itself, be it because in
90 requires higher sequencing efforts and costs to carry out conservation studies. The difficulty

91 to infer genotype and allele frequencies on polyploid species with RAD-seq techniques as
92 well as the restricted set of methods available to analyze such data (see Meirmans and van
93 Tienderen 2013; Dufresne et al. 2014; Meirmans et al. 2018) is also likely to explain the
94 relatively low number of population genomics studies dealing with RAD-seq like techniques
95 on non-model polyploid organisms (Clevenger et al. 2015; van de Peer et al. 2017, Ahmad
96 2021).

97 Out the handful of studies that have addressed population genomic questions on
98 polyploid organisms without reference genome, some have considered the genotypes as
99 diploid-like data, an assumption that allows to use classical variant calling tools with default
100 settings (e.g. Brandrud et al. 2017, see also Brandrud et al. 2019; 2020 and Závěská et al.
101 2019). Consensus allelic information may also be coded in the form of ambiguous sites at
102 heterozygous positions (e.g. Wagner et al. 2020). At last, a couple of methods are able to
103 incorporate ploidy-aware calling algorithms and use genotype likelihoods to infer tetraploid
104 genotypes (e.g. Závěská et al. 2019; Brandrud et al. 2020; Karbstein et al. 2020; Ahmad et al.
105 2021). In studies for which both kind of methods were used, the latter one generally
106 outputted a higher number of variable sites but signals were found to be overall congruent
107 (Závěská et al. 2019; Brandrud et al. 2020).

108 The recent studies of Závěská et al. (2019), Brandrud et al. (2020) and Ahmad et al.
109 (2021) used the RAD-seq loci from the catalog generated in the popular pipeline Stacks
110 (Catchen et al. 2011; Catchen et al. 2013) to generate a synthetic reference onto which the
111 raw reads are mapped back before to infer tetraploid genotypes with the approach
112 implemented in EBG (Empirical Bayes Genotyping in Polyploids, Blischak et al. 2018, see also
113 Blischak et al. 2016). As a putative alternative, Clark et al. (2019) proposed a package called
114 PolyRAD to call genotypes with uncertainty from polyploid data in an R environment.

115 PolyRAD can deal with multiple levels of ploidy and is able to use for example population
116 structure, linkage disequilibrium and/or self-fertilization as priors to estimate genotype
117 probabilities. To our best knowledge, this promising and convenient method has been rarely
118 used to implement a population genomic approach on natural populations of polyploid non-
119 model organisms.

120 In this study, we first aimed at reevaluating the conservation status of *Delphinium*
121 *montanum* following such population genomics approach. We used a protocol called
122 normalized Genotyping By Sequencing (nGBS) that provided us with thousands of genetic
123 markers (SNPs) from which we inferred patterns of diversity and differentiation with an
124 unprecedented resolution in order to quantify inbreeding and level of connectivity between
125 populations. We then used an Ecological Niche Modelling (ENM) approach to better
126 understand the bioclimatic features that constraint the current geographic distribution of *D.*
127 *montanum*. Based on several Global Climate Models (CGM), we also predicted the putative
128 evolution of the geographic distribution of the species in the future, at different time periods
129 (2011-2040, 2041-2070 and 2071-2100) and under different, more or less pessimistic but still
130 realistic scenarios of evolution of global warming (or RCPs for Representative Concentration
131 Pathways).

132

133 **Materials and Methods**

134 **Geographic distribution and population sampling**

135 The Pyrenean Larskpur (*Delphinium montanum*) geographic distribution ranges from Serra
136 del Cadí-Pedraforca (Fig. 1, localities 4, 5, 8, and 9) up to the Puigmal massif (localities 1, 3
137 and 6) via Tosa d'Alp massif (locality 7). There, the distance between the most distant sites is
138 about 60 km, and only one locality is located outside this area: Nohèdes (locality 2), in the

139 Madres massif. This latter locality is separated from the Puigmal massif populations by the
140 pit of Cerdagne-Conflent, which could have formed a historical barrier to gene flow. In terms
141 of population size, Cadí-Pedraforca is the most important with up to 70% of the global
142 population size (5 450-6 700 individuals). The sites of the Puigmal massif represent 25 to
143 30% of the global population (2 200-2 700 individuals). Localities of Madres massif (2) and
144 Tosa d'Alp (7) are numerically low (less than 300, from which none are actually flowering
145 and 35 individuals, respectively).

146 We sampled a total of 106 individuals from 9 localities representative of the
147 geographic distribution of *Delphinium montanum* (in the Eastern Pyrenees: 3 sites in France
148 and 6 in Spain) between July and October 2020 (Table 1, Fig. 1, see also Supplementary
149 Appendix S1). At each locality, we collected one individual distant from at least 1 meter from
150 each other, about 1-2 cm² of leaf tissues that were stored in 90% ethanol at 4°C until DNA
151 extraction. *Delphinium montanum* is not legally protected in France but is considered as
152 vulnerable (VU) on the Red List of threatened species of IUCN France (IUCN France, FCBN,
153 AFB, MNHN, 2018). It is legally protected in Catalonia (Decret 172/2008. Catàleg de flora
154 amenaçada de Catalunya) and Spain (Orden AAA/1771/2015. Modificaci3n del cat3logo de
155 especies amenazadas). In France, for all sampling done in natural reserves, special
156 authorizations were granted by the 'Direction D3partementale des Territoires et de la Mer
157 66' (DDTM 66). In Spain, we asked for and obtained special permits from the Servei de Fauna
158 i Flora de la Generalitat de Catalunya and Natural Parks (Cad3-Moixer3 and Ter-Freser).

159

160 **Molecular procedures**

161 Genomic DNA extraction and genotyping were subcontracted to LGC Genomics GmbH
162 (Berlin, Germany). Genotyping-By-Sequencing (GBS) was performed following a specific

163 protocol called nGBS for ‘normalised GBS’. This double digest Restriction site-Associated
164 DNA seq (or RAD-seq) like protocol relies on two restriction enzymes (PstI and ApeKI, in our
165 case) to reduce *D. montanum* genome complexity and includes a normalization step that
166 aims at avoiding repetitive regions. The resulting 106 individually barcoded libraries were
167 sequenced in paired-end mode (2 x 250 bp) on an Illumina NovaSeq 6000 with an
168 expectation of a minimum number of 1.5 million read pairs per sample.

169

170 **Genomic data processing**

171 We used Stacks v.2.41 (Catchen et al. 2011; 2013) to build loci from Illumina reads, *de novo*
172 (*i.e.* without aligning reads to a reference genome). Stacks consists of a wrapper of several
173 scripts that are usually run sequentially including: *process_radtags* to demultiplex and clean
174 reads, *denovo_map.pl* to build loci within individuals, create a catalog and match all samples
175 against it and *populations* to further filter the SNPs obtained at the population level and
176 compute basic population genetic statistics. We first optimised several key parameters of
177 the pipeline: *-m* (the minimum number of identical raw reads required to form a putative
178 allele), *-M* (the number of mismatches allowed between alleles to form a locus) and *-n* (the
179 number of mismatches allowed between loci during construction of the catalog) on a subset
180 of 12 individuals representative of the whole data set (*i.e.* geographic origin and coverage).
181 As recommended by several authors, we varied *M* and *n* (fixing $M = n$) while keeping $m = 3$
182 (see Paris et al. 2017; Rochette & Catchen 2017). The combination *-m 3*, *-M 3* and *-n 3* was
183 found to be the most suitable to maximize the number of SNPs, assembled and polymorphic
184 loci in our case and was used to run Stacks on the whole data set (see Supplementary
185 Appendix S2). As *D. montanum* is a tetraploid species, we also specified the option ‘*-X*
186 *ustacks:--max_locus_stacks 5*’ (in the *ustacks* script’s) to allow the number of alleles per site

187 to reach the number of 5 instead of 3 by default. However, as the *populations* script is
188 unable to deal with polyploid genotypes, we followed a different approach to call variants
189 and complete genomic data processing.

190 We then used polyRAD (Clark et al. 2019), a method implemented in an R-package to
191 call genotypes with uncertainty from sequencing data in polyploids. The Bayesian genotype
192 caller implemented in polyRAD is able to import read depth from the catalog and matches
193 files from Stacks through a specific function called `polyRAD::read_stacks()` to further
194 estimate the probability of each possible genotype for each individual and each locus, taking
195 into account features such as possible levels of ploidy and population structure as priors. In
196 order to get similar filtering parameters than with Stacks and following the polyRAD author's
197 guidelines, we used the following arguments `-min.ind.with.minor.alleles= 5`, `-`
198 `min.ind.with.reads= 84` and a ploidy of 4. We then plotted the distribution of the ratio of the
199 individual over expected heterozygosity H_{ind}/H_E . The peak of the distribution of H_{ind}/H_E by
200 locus (0.2) was considered to represent well-behaved markers from which inbreeding (F)
201 was estimated at 0.73. From this estimate of F , we then simulated the expected distribution
202 of H_{ind}/H_E if all markers were behaving in a Mendelian fashion. Based on the distribution, we
203 defined minimum and maximum thresholds of 0 and 0.406 comprising 95% of the
204 observations and filtered out markers for which H_{ind}/H_E were outside this interval. We then
205 tested overdispersion (*i.e.* in our case, how much does read depth distribution deviate from
206 what would be expected under binomial distribution) and adjusted its parameter to 6 (from
207 a range of 2 to 14). This information was used to call genotypes while taking into account
208 population genetic structure. The most likely genotypes of the remaining 5 095 loci were
209 then exported in several formats such as genind objects or Structure (.str).

210

211 **Population genomic analyses**

212 To get an overview of the overall genetic diversity and differentiation among individuals and
213 populations, we first performed a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) based on a matrix of
214 106 individuals (as rows) and 5 095 SNPs (as columns) coded as a genind object with the R-
215 package 'adegenet' (Jombart 2008). We then used Genodive v.3.04 (Meirmans 2020) to
216 compute expected and observed heterozygosity (H_E and H_O , respectively) as well as the
217 number of alleles (A) and the number of private alleles was computed with the R-package
218 'poppr' (Kamvar et al. 2014). The deviation from panmixia was evaluated by computing G_{IS}
219 and the statistical significance of the obtained values was estimated based on 10 000
220 permutations, also in Genodive. Overall and pairwise genetic differentiation was also
221 assessed based on G -statistics (G_{ST} , Nei 1987) as implemented in Genodive in a similar
222 manner. Pattern of Isolation By Distance (IBD) was assessed by examining the relationship
223 between linearized G_{ST} s values (*i.e.* $\ln(G_{ST}/(1- G_{ST}))$) and \ln -geographical distances (after
224 Rousset 1997) and its statistical significance was tested with a Mantel test between matrices
225 of pairwise G_{ST} and geographical distance.

226 To further investigate population structure and characterize putative
227 migration/admixture event, we used sNMF (Frichot et al. 2014) as implemented in the R-
228 package LEA (Frichot & François 2015) to estimate individual ancestry coefficients based on
229 sparse non-negative matrix factorization algorithms. sNMF is particularly suitable for our
230 genotype dataset as it can deal with polyploid data and is fast enough to be applied on
231 hundreds of individuals and thousands of markers with reasonable computation time. The
232 number of genetic clusters was varied from $K = 1$ to 10, and analyses were run with 10
233 replicates at each value of K .

234

235 **Ecological Niche Modelling**

236 In order to assess the future trends of spatial dynamics of *D. montanum* distribution in a
237 context of global change, we conducted Ecological Niche Modelling (ENM) analyses based on
238 known occurrences of the species. Based on 19 bioclimatic layers we downloaded from
239 CHELSA v.2.1 (Karger et al. 2017), we aimed to i) model current environmental niche and ii)
240 predict the spatial evolution of the niche in the future. The bioclimatic layers available in
241 CHELSA are similar to those available in WORLDCLIM (Fick et al. 2017) in a way that they
242 consist of downscaled Global Climate Models (GCM) output temperature and precipitation
243 estimates at a maximal resolution of 30 arc seconds (approximately 1 km). In the current
244 study, we used the most recent version of CHELSA as the methodology and bias correction it
245 implements have been shown to outperforms WORLDCLIM in mountainous environments
246 (Karger et al. 2017; Bobrowski et al. 2021). Current climate data correspond to time
247 averaged variables over the period 1981-2010.

248 Future climates correspond to estimates from phase 3b of the Inter-Sectoral Impact
249 Model Intercomparison Project (ISIMIP3b) based on output of phase 6 of the Coupled Model
250 Intercomparison Project (CMIP6). They consist of the output of five GCMs (GFDL-ESM4,
251 UKESM1-0-LL, MPI-ESM1-2-HR, IPSL-CM6A-LR and MRI-ESM2-0) and three climate scenario
252 specifiers (ssp126, ssp370, ssp585). Climate scenarios specifiers reflect different
253 Representative Concentration Pathways (RCPs) associated with different radiative forcing
254 values: 2.6, 7.0 and 8.5 W/m² that can be considered as a plausible range of greenhouse gas
255 concentrations that appear to be optimistic, very likely and pessimistic in term of climate
256 change, respectively. Annually averaged data were downloaded for three future time
257 periods: 2011-2040 (“2035”), 2041-2070 (“2055”) and 2071-2100 (“2085”).

258 The ENM analyses were conducted thanks to the R-package ENMwizard v.0.3.7
259 (Heming et al. 2018, see also Gutiérrez et al. 2019; Bagley et al. 2020). We first spatially
260 filtered occurrences to keep only those that were at least 1 km away from each other using
261 the R-package ‘spThin’ (Aiello-Lammens et al. 2015). Due to the relatively small spatial scale
262 of the area under study, this resulted in considering a total of 9 out the 106 occurrences
263 initially available. We then examined raw values for the 19 bioclimatic variables extracted at
264 each occurrence point and noticed that the variable bio19 (“precipitation of coldest
265 quarter”) displayed obviously aberrant (*i.e.* negative) values. This variable bio19 was thus
266 discarded from subsequent analyses. From the 18 remaining variables (bio1 to bio18), we
267 selected the less correlated ones (Person correlation coefficient < 0.75) thanks to the R-
268 package ‘caret’ (Kuhn 2019) and kept five variables: bio5 (“mean daily maximum air
269 temperature of the warmest month”), bio7 (“annual range of air temperature”), bio14
270 (“precipitation amount of the driest month”) and bio15 (“precipitation seasonality”) for
271 further analyses.

272 The calibration area for the models was created as a buffer of 1.5° around the
273 minimum convex polygon encompassing all occurrences. We used the maximum entropy
274 method (implemented in MaxEnt ver. 3.4.1, Phillips et al. 2006, 2017) to calibrate model and
275 evaluated model performance thanks to the package ENMeval (Muscarella et al. 2014) as
276 implemented in ENMwizard. We evaluated models using a geographic partition scheme of
277 type “block” and optimized two parameters of MaxEnt: the Regularization Multipliers (RM)
278 and the Feature Classes (FC). RM was varied from 0.5 to 4.5, incremented by 0.5 whereas a
279 suite of 15 FCs (L, for Linear, P, for Product, Q, for Quadratic and H for Hinge) or combination
280 of them were evaluated: L, P, Q, H, LP, LQ, LH, PQ, PH, QH, LPQ, LPH, LQH, PQH, LPQH,
281 resulting in a total of 135 models. Model selection was done by computing the corrected

282 Akaike Information Criterion (“LowAIC”) and the Area Under the receiver operating
283 characteristic Curve (“AUC”) in the function ENMWizard::calib_md1_b(). The relative
284 importance of the different variables was evaluated with the function
285 ENMWizard::get_cont_permimport() . The best selected model was then spatially projected
286 as current niche. For future predictions, a spatial projection of the consensus of the five
287 CGMs was performed for each time period and each RCPs. Area calculations were carried
288 out after applying a 10-percentile (x10ptp) and a Maximum training sensitivity plus
289 specificity (mtss) threshold rules.

290

291 **Results**

292 **Genetic diversity and differentiation**

293 We obtained a total of 159 million read pairs across the 106 individuals (2 283 178 to 6 266
294 452 of raw reads per ind., mean 3 761 722, s.d. = 873 055). We assembled a total of 210 756
295 loci including 22 911 SNPs with Stacks. Average read depth ranged from 27X to 53X based on
296 the combination of parameters we used. After filtering the data with polyRAD, we finally
297 obtained 32 728 loci including 5 095 SNPs.

298 The two first PCA axes (PC1 and PC2) represented 14.85% and 9.21% of the total
299 genetic variance, respectively (Fig. 2A). This analysis is consistent with limited amount of
300 within-population differentiation and a clear pattern of between-population differentiation.
301 Overall, populations are arranged according to geography, especially along PC1. In term of
302 genetic diversity, all populations display a significant deviation from panmixia: mean G_{IS} =
303 0.361, $p < 0.05$ and population G_{IS} values ranging from 0.315 to 0.426 (all $p < 0.05$). However,
304 G_{IS} values appear as similar from one population to another (this holds true for the number

305 of total alleles A , too, see Table 1). The number of private alleles A_p is consistent with the
306 relative level of geographic isolation of the populations.

307 The degree of genetic differentiation was found to be relatively high overall (mean
308 G_{ST} value = 0.403, $p < 0.05$) and pairwise (with values ranging from 0.156 to 0.527,
309 Supplementary Appendix S3). There is a clear and significant pattern of Isolation By Distance
310 across the dataset ($r = 0.601$, $p = 0.001$, Fig. 3) indicating that gene flow is limited in space at
311 the scale of the *D. montanum* geographic range. The sNMF analysis is also consistent with a
312 strong population structure arranged with geography. Cross-entropy was the lowest for $K=6$
313 (Fig. 2B and 2C). Each cluster corresponds to a sampling site with two exceptions. The
314 individuals from the locality of 1-Orrí de Baix were grouped together with the close locality
315 of 6-Cambre d'Aze, and the Western localities of the Serra del Cadí (8-Bastanist), 5-Serra
316 Pedregosa and to a lesser extent 4-Pedraforca) formed another group. Only the individuals
317 of 4-Pedraforca showed mixed ancestry coefficients.

318 **Suitable habitats for *D. montanum* and prediction of its spatial dynamics**

319 ENMeval analyses identified $RM = 2$ and a combination of Quadratic and Hinge feature (QH)
320 classes as the best-performing parameters for calibrating the final ENM following the
321 "LowAIC" and $M=2$ and a combination of Product and Hinge feature (PH) classes following
322 the "AUC" optimality criteria. The first model had the best corrected Akaike Information
323 Criterion (AICc) score (152.25) and an AICc weight of 0.33 whereas the second one had an
324 AICc score of 174.63 and an AICc weight of $4.53 \cdot 10^{-6}$. These two models had mean omission
325 rates of 0.375 and 0.25 for the 10th percentile and the lowest presence training thresholds,
326 respectively, as well as a mean test AUC of 0.988. Values of these diagnostic metrics are
327 provided for all candidate models in Supplementary Appendix S4. Both models ($RM=2/PH$
328 and $RM=2/QH$) considered bio15 ("precipitation seasonality") as being the most important

329 explanatory variable with a contribution of 88.6% and 90.0%, respectively, followed by bio7
330 (“Temperature annual range (bio5-bio6)”) with 6.2% and 7.1% and bio5 “Maximum
331 temperature of the warmest month” with 5.2 and 3.0%; the contribution of bio14
332 “Precipitation of the driest month”, being 0% with both models. Current suitable area for *D.*
333 *montanum* was found to be 2 670 and 2 365 km² following “LowAIC” and “AUC” selection
334 model criteria, respectively (the values were identical whatever the threshold method used).
335 All future consensus spatial projections predict a dramatic decrease of the suitable area
336 (Table 2 and Fig. 4). For RCPs 7.0 and 8.5, the suitable area would have completely
337 disappeared for the time period 2071-2100 (but not for RCP 2.6). We also notice some
338 slightly different outcomes depending on the selection model criteria with RCP 8.5 scenarios
339 giving sometimes higher values than RCP 7.0, and even RCP 2.6 (e.g. time period 2011-2040,
340 “Low AIC” criterion).

341

342 **Discussion**

343 **Conservation genomics on a polyploid species with large genome size**

344 The use of RAD-seq like (nGBS) data with the method implemented in PolyRAD allowed us to
345 successfully address the challenge of conducting a population genomic approach on a plant
346 species that is both polyploid (autotetraploid) and has a large genome size (> 10 Gbp). It
347 confirms the convenience of the workflow we used, specifically calling genotypes in an R-
348 environment, as an alternative to the ones followed in the handful of studies recently
349 published on similar systems (e.g. Závěská et al. 2019; Brandrud et al. 2020; Karbstein et al.
350 2020; Ahmad et al. 2021). From the > 5 000 SNPs we could rely on, we were able to get an
351 unprecedented genomic picture of the diversity and the differentiation of the species in
352 order to propose appropriate conservation recommendations. The results we obtained at

353 the genome scale are overall consistent with previous knowledge on population genetics of
354 *D. montanum* (see Simon et al. 2001; López-Pujol 2007).

355

356 **A set of populations isolated on sky islands**

357 Our results confirm that populations of *D. montanum* can be seen as a set of island-like
358 dwelling systems separated from each other by a matrix of unsuitable habitats and that gene
359 flow has little to no chance to be efficiently maintained within this metapopulation. All
360 populations considered in this study were found to display deficit in heterozygotes ($G_{IS} >$
361 0.315 , $p < 0.05$). These results confirm previous findings of Simon et al. (2001) and López-
362 Pujol et al. (2007) and show that the autotetraploid status of the species does not impede
363 relatively low levels of heterozygosity ($H_0 < 0.17$). Polyploidy is expected to be associated
364 with increased genetic variation, a characteristic that provides more diversity to adapt
365 (especially to extreme environments such as mountainous ones) and allows buffering effect
366 against deleterious mutations (see van de Peer et al. 2021 and references therein). From a
367 conservation point of view, polyploidy does not seem to be associated with increased risk of
368 extinction even though plant with big genome size may be more prone to be under threat
369 (Vinogradov 2003; Pandit et al. 2011). As two other closely related congeneric species of
370 *Delphinium montanum*: *D. dubium* and *D. oxysepalum*, that are endemic to the Alps and the
371 Carpathians, respectively, are also tetraploid (López-Pujol et al. 2007), we speculate that
372 polyploidy may have allowed to these species to adapt and survive into these mountainous
373 environments. The open question is whether current levels of genetic diversity may be
374 sufficient or not to allow *D. montanum* populations to overcome inbreeding depression and
375 provide sufficient variation for adaptation in a context of global change. It should be noted
376 that levels of genetic diversity are overall similar among the populations investigated and we

377 could not associate obvious signs of decline of some of them (e.g. Nohèdes, Pedraforca) to
378 decreased levels in genetic diversity or evidence for deviation from panmixia. This suggests
379 that the evidences of possible decrease in effective size may be too recent to be detectable
380 at the genetic level (see Peery et al. 2012). Unfortunately, the limited number of available
381 methods for polyploids makes effective size estimation and test for bottleneck events
382 cumbersome to perform in such systems.

383 The PCA, the clustering analyses, the F_{ST} values as well as the pattern of Isolation By
384 Distance, further confirm limited gene flow between populations and the existence of a
385 population structure that is consistent with geography. The most likely number of clusters
386 found in the sNMF analysis ($K=6$) globally distinguishes populations from the Serra del Cadí
387 (8-Bastanist, 5-Serra Pedregosa and 4-Pedraforca) from those of the Puigmal range (1-Orrí
388 de Baix and 6-Cambre d’Aze) plus the satellite populations of 3-Vallter, 2-Nohèdes, 7-Tosa
389 d’Alp and 9-Torreta de Cadí (which is the westernmost locality, a bit distant from the others
390 in the Serra del Cadí). Only the locality of 4-Pedraforca shows some ambiguity in population
391 assignment that could indicate a mixed origin. At $K=2$, the intermediate status of 7-Tosa
392 d’Alp (and to a lesser extent of 4-Pedraforca) are also in agreement with its intermediate
393 geographic position and may reflect an ancestral split between Northern and Southern
394 populations. Altogether, these results support that the insect pollinators (mainly
395 bumblebees) and the natural dispersal of seeds produced (barochoric) are not able to
396 maintain gene flow over the geographic distances involved.

397

398 **Climate change as the main threat for *Delphinium montanum***

399 The two previous studies of Simon et al. (2001) and López-Pujol et al. (2007) have listed
400 several threats to explain the decline of *D. montanum*, at least in some particular

401 populations. According to Simon et al. (2001), natural disturbance of habitats due to rock
402 falls and avalanches, trampling because of an overall increase in human visits and animal
403 predation (e.g. caterpillar, Pyrenean chamois/isards and perhaps red and roe deers) as well
404 as competition for insect pollinators with simultaneously blooming species (e.g. *Aconitum*
405 spp.) have thus been considered as more or less serious problems for *D. montanum*. The
406 most recent study of López-Pujol et al. (2007) also emphasized on the consequences of the
407 erosion of genetic diversity, especially the loss of rare alleles associated with weak possibility
408 of gene flow between localities that could be however compensated by relatively high
409 effective size in several populations. Without ruling out all these threats on *D. montanum*
410 populations, our results rather support climate change as the main threat for this species.
411 The future predictions of the area of habitat suitability all agree that the spatial extent of the
412 ecological niche of *D. montanum* is very likely to dramatically decrease, and even disappear
413 by the end of the 21th century, with some differences based on the various scenarios we
414 considered. The current suitable habitat for *D. montanum* has an area that was estimated at
415 about 2500 km², an area that would decrease to about 500 km² (i.e. -75 %), by 2040
416 whatever the scenario envisaged. By 2070, this area would again have decreased to about
417 150 km² based on RCP 2.6 and up to less than 50 km² based on the two other scenarios (RCP
418 7 and RCP 8.5). A Representative Concentration Pathway of 2.6 W/m² has to be considered
419 as a rather optimistic pathway (that would keep global temperature rise below 2°C by 2100).
420 It would require that CO₂ emissions start declining by 2020 and go to zero by 2100 (as well as
421 declines in emission of other greenhouses gases, such as CH₄, SO₂). RCP 7 is usually
422 considered as a baseline rather than a mitigation target. According to RCP 8.5, emissions
423 would continue to rise throughout the 21st century and can be considered as a pessimistic
424 scenario (with an increase in average temperature in the order of 4°C by 2100). The various

425 output of these scenarios likely explains why the bioclimatic niche of *D. montanum* would
426 have completely disappeared by 2100 for RCP 7 and 8.5 but could have persisted and even
427 started to increase again to about 10% of its current suitable area following the RCP 2.6
428 scenario.

429 Environmental changes as the main threat for *D. montanum* populations is also
430 supported from field observations. The population of Nohèdes (2) have not flowered since
431 2011. The individuals there are very small (*i.e.* a few centimetres high) and remain at a
432 vegetative stage. On this site, we could not notice any evidence of avalanche or landslide
433 that could have altered the habitat. In addition, other plants species present in the vicinity
434 (*e.g.* *Orchis spitzelii*, *Maianthemum bifolium* and *Convallaria majalis*) seem to suffer from
435 flowering default, further supporting that this phenomenon could be non-specific to *D.*
436 *montanum* and perhaps caused by bioclimatic or at least environmental modifications.
437 There, output from Regional Climate Models (RCMs) predict an increase in mean annual
438 temperature that could reach 3.1 to 4.5°C (+1.5°C already observed since the mean of the
439 period 1961-1990) associated with a decrease in precipitation of up to 25% and perhaps
440 more compared to present-day conditions (Lespinas et al. 2014). According to the same
441 study, precipitations would mostly decrease in summer (-40%) and in spring (-20%) but
442 would remain similar the rest of the year. This in accordance with our ENM predictions
443 suggesting that bio15 “Precipitation seasonality”, the annual coefficient of variation of
444 rainfall may be by far, the most important variable in explaining the bioclimatic niche of *D.*
445 *montanum*.

446

447 **Recommendations for conservation**

448 *Ex-situ* conservation would be a way to preserve the genetic diversity of *D. montanum*, but
449 also a bridge for future *in-situ* conservation efforts. A seed collection of different populations
450 of *D. montanum* could be stored in a bank. However, this measure would be of limited
451 interest if the decline's cause of *D. montanum* is actually climate change as keeping dormant
452 seeds will probably not allow this species to adapt to future global changes. Alternatively,
453 conserving genetic diversity in a botanical garden may be a good option to test whether and
454 if so, leave time to plants to adapt to rising temperatures and rainfall modifications.
455 Nevertheless, this approach has potential drawbacks like artificial selection and habitat
456 conversion if *D. montanum* adapts to *ex-situ* environment, which may differ from their initial
457 natural environment (Ren et al. 2014). Moreover, if, growing individuals from the all 9
458 localities studied in an appropriate botanical garden could be a way to set-up *in-situ*
459 conservation, preliminary experiments have showed that *cultivating D. montanum* under
460 experimental conditions in a greenhouse is very difficult because of its environmental
461 requirements (Aymerich, pers. comm.). This confirms that if any, botanical garden would
462 have to be set up at a relatively high elevation (*i.e.* > 1500 m), where environmental
463 conditions are similar to the ecological optimum of the species.

464 We can identify three main methods of *in-situ* conservation that could be envisaged
465 for *D. montanum* (see Godefroid et al. 2011; Ren et al. 2014; Mashinski & Albrecht 2017):
466 reinforcement, translocation and managed relocation (or assisted migration). The first one is
467 reinforcement, which consists in adding *ex-situ* grown individuals in their natural population
468 of origin to increase the total number of individuals, increase the spatial occupancy of the
469 species and thereby reduce extinction risk. On the one hand, the increase in population size
470 provided by reinforcement could contribute to counteract the effect of genetic drift. On the
471 other hand, it would have a limited impact to impede inbreeding as all the individuals would

472 originate from the same genetic pool. The second method consists in translocating
473 individuals (seeds, seedlings or adult plants) from a population to another one with the same
474 ecogeography, to increase genetic diversity (the so-called “genetic rescue”) and thus
475 increase the likelihood of population persistence in a changing climate (Mashinski and
476 Albrecht 2017). Our results show that *D. montanum* populations harbor substantial levels of
477 pairwise genetic differentiation which suggest that they have exchanged few or no genetic
478 migrants for many generations and have possibly evolved distinct adaptative differences. As
479 a consequence, gene pool mixing may not be appropriate, since the risk of outbreeding
480 depression could be non-negligible between individuals from the different part of the
481 geographic distribution of *D. montanum*. It could be thus careful to first experiment *ex-situ*
482 crossings to check if hybrids are viable, and do not suffer from outbreeding depression.
483 However, the genetic benefits of mixing source populations during genetic rescue have been
484 shown to generally outweigh the risks of outbreeding depression and loss of local adaptation
485 (see Whiteley et al. 2015; Frankham 2015; Ralls et al. 2018, see also Liddell 2021). For
486 example, translocations with mixed source populations of *Arnica montana* showed that
487 genetic variation remained similar or increased across successive environments and some
488 authors documented a 10-fold increase in population size following gene flow between wild
489 Trinidadian guppy populations (Albrecht and Edwards 2020; Fitzpatrick et al. 2020).

490 Finally, the third method consists in introducing a new population in a suitable new
491 ecosystem, where *D. montanum* has not been observed yet. This method is called managed
492 relocation or assisted migration (Mashinski and Albrecht 2017). However, it may represent a
493 risk of modifying the ecosystem, by creating competition for space and pollinators with
494 other plants naturally present, or by introducing new pathogens. Thus, these three methods
495 of reinforcement, translocation, and managed relocation can present risks of outbreeding

496 depression and ecosystem destabilization, and their benefits may not outweigh those risks.
497 Moreover, since the main threat for *D. montanum* is climate change, on a longer-scale, all
498 those efforts could be unsuccessful. Keeping individuals in a botanical garden seems to be
499 the least harmful and risky method for natural populations today and it could be a good start
500 for crossing experiments between populations.

501 For the very peculiar situation of 2-Nohèdes's locality, which seems to be the
502 population the most at risk of extinction at the moment, there is still the question of the lack
503 of flowering. To test whether this problem may be associated with the absence of a specific
504 environmental stimulus, we may propose to either i) experimentally modify
505 temperature/water supply, *in situ*, ii) translocate some individuals to localities where *D.*
506 *montanum* seem healthy (e.g. Cadí range) and see if flowering can be restored and/or iii)
507 experimentally modify temperature/water supply in the lab to better understand the
508 conditions required for flowering and figure out the limiting factor in the wild. Alternatively,
509 it may be due to the fact that that this locality is formed by immature individuals and that
510 the local population itself may be recovering from an important mortality event. At the
511 moment, we have no further arguments to support this scenario.

512

513 **Conclusion**

514 Overall, our results confirm that the remaining populations of *D. montanum* show evidence
515 of decreased genetic diversity and evidence of inbreeding at a genomic scale. The degree of
516 genetic structure observable is consistent with a set of strongly isolated populations no
517 longer able to maintain gene flow between their sky islands. In this context, *in-situ*
518 conservation methods are likely to have an effect on the status of the species.
519 Reinforcement would help counteracting decrease in local population sizes, and

520 translocation would help increasing genetic diversity, buffering inbreeding depression and
521 perhaps, bring the variation required for *D. montanum* to adapt. This being said, *ex-situ*
522 crossings are first recommended to verify the absence of outbreeding depression as local
523 genetic pools were found to differ substantially. As our results support that environmental
524 change may represent the main risk of extinction for *D. montanum* all these measures may
525 be however considered as of limited interest on the long term, if the ecological niche of the
526 species disappears.

527

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537

538 **Authors’ Contributions and Conflict of Interest**

539 PS, VH, JAMB analysed the data and wrote the manuscript. PAB, JP, AVB, MM, CC, JML and
540 JAMB contributed to fieldwork. MM, CC and VH coordinated the FLORALAB network and/or
541 project aspects related to this work and JAMB contributed to the conception of the study. All
542 authors have read and approved the manuscript. The authors declare no conflict of interest.

543

544 **Data Accessibility Statement**

545 Sequencing data have been submitted to the European Nucleotide Archive (ENA;
546 <https://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/>) under Study with accession n°PRJEB46773 and samples
547 accession n°ERS7180281 (SAMEA9457265) and n°ERS7643565 (SAMEA9965271) to
548 n°ERS7643669 (SAMEA9965375).

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721

722 **Tables**

723

724 **Table 1** Geographic coordinates (in °) and elevation (in m above sea level) of the sampling
725 localities, sample size (N), observed (H_O) and expected (H_E) levels of heterozygosity,
726 deviation from panmixia (G_S), total number of alleles (A) and number of private alleles (A_p)
727 per locality.

Locality	Latitude	Longitude	Elevation	N	H_O	H_E^*	G_S	A	A_p
1 Orri de Baix	42.444	2.119	2115	12	0.117	0.171	0.343	17 549	275
2 Nohèdes	42.615	2.263	1758	12	0.101	0.146	0.336	19 570	3,704
3 Vallter	42.426	2.264	2141	12	0.095	0.147	0.378	16 862	3,483

4	Pedraforca	42.237	1.704	2366	10	0.144	0.244	0.426	22 090	1,069
5	Serra	42.277	1.688	2586	12	0.159	0.237	0.346	22 456	524
	Pedregosa									
6	Cambre d'Aze	42.451	2.129	2637	12	0.134	0.209	0.380	27 075	668
7	Tosa	42.315	1.886	2153	12	0.125	0.177	0.315	21 782	3,857
8	Bastanist	42.289	1.688	1979	12	0.165	0.242	0.332	26 822	310
9	Torreta de	42.283	1,574	2358	12	0.122	0.191	0.376	17 876	4,537
	Cadí									
					106	0.129	0.196	0.361		

728 Geographic coordinates are in WGS84.

729 Population genetic statistics were computed based on 5 095 SNPs. Statistically significant values are indicated

730 in bold ($p < 0.05$).

731 * H_E : unbiased expected heterozygosity measured following Nei (1987) in Genodive.

732

733 **Table 2** Current and future *Delphinium montanum* suitable area (in km²) as modelled and

734 predicted from Ecological Niche Modelling under different model selection criteria (LowAIC

735 and AUC) and thresholding methods (10th percentile of training presence, x10ptp and

736 Maximum training sensitivity plus specificity, mtss. Future predictions are reported for

737 several time periods (2011-2040, 2041-2070 and 2071-2100) and various Representative

738 Concentration Pathways (RCP 2.6, 7.0 and 8.5).

Model selection criterion	Thresholds methods	Current	2011-2040			2041-2070			2071-2100		
			RCP 2.6	RCP 7.0	RCP 8.5	RCP 2.6	RCP 7.0	RCP 8.5	RCP 2.6	RCP 7.0	RCP 8.5
			LowAIC	x10ptp	2670	523	492	526	137	17	24
AUC	x10ptp	2365	459	455	446	161	25	43	287	0	0
	mtss										

739

740 **Figures**

741

742 **Figure 1** Map representing the sampling localities (pink dots) within the extant geographic
743 distribution of *Delphinium montanum*.

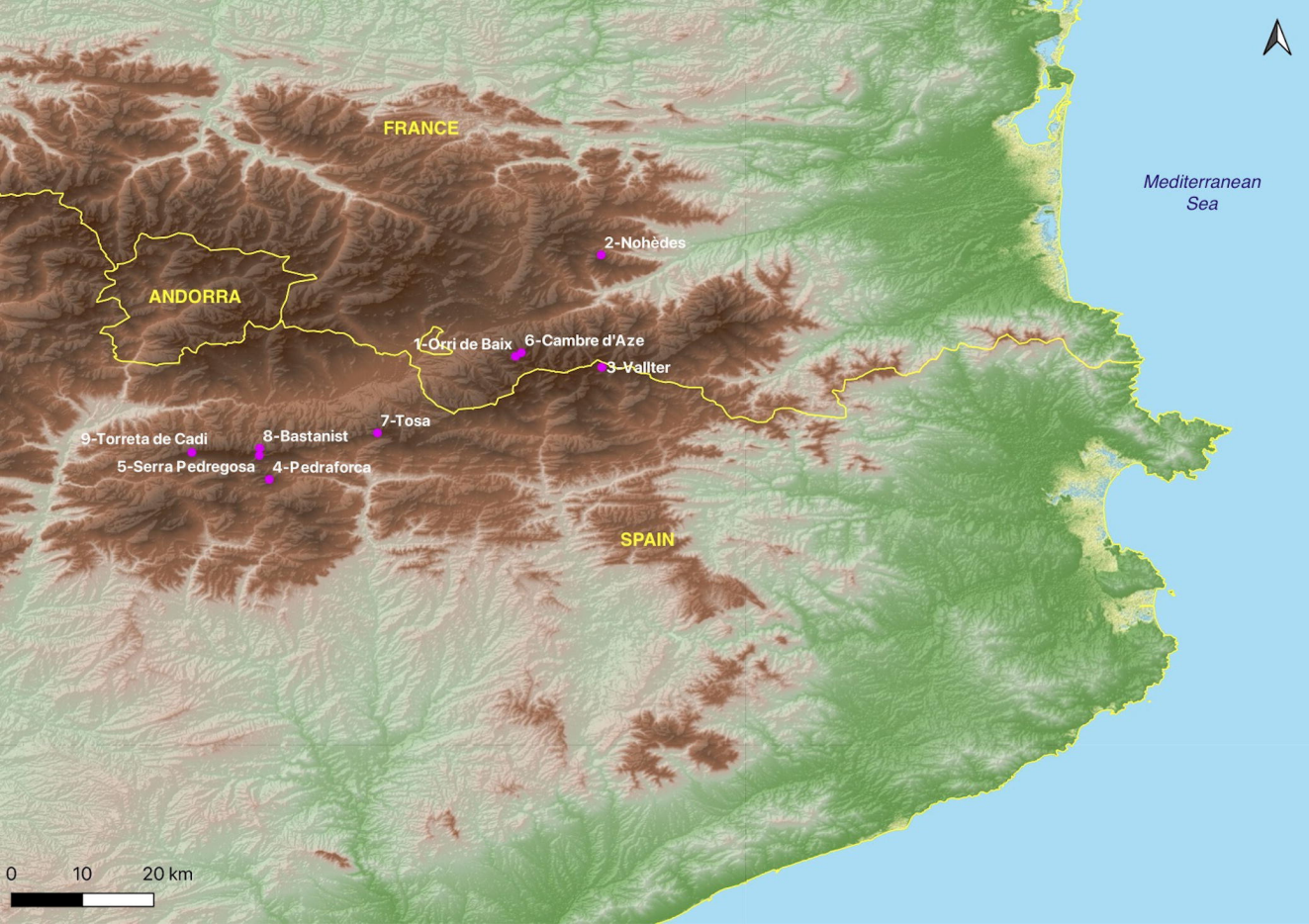
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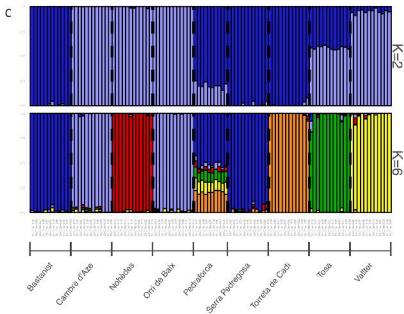
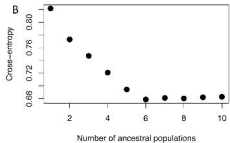
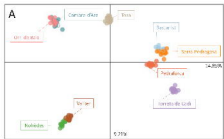
745 **Figure 2 A)** Principal Component Analysis (PCA) displaying the two first axes (PC1 and PC2)
746 representing 14.85% and 9.21% of the total genetic variance. PCA was computed based on
747 the 106 individuals of *D. montanum* genotyped at 5 095 SNPs whose colours represent
748 sampling localities. **B)** Values of the cross-entropy criterion for a number of clusters ranging
749 from $K = 1$ to 10 (10 sNMF runs each). The optimal number of K was found to be 6. **C)** Barplot
750 of ancestry coefficients obtained from sNMF for 106 individuals for $K = 2$ and $K = 6$, based on
751 5 095 SNPs.

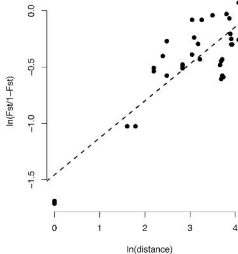
752

753 **Figure 3** Pattern of Isolation By Distance (IBD) across the data set. Linearized G_{ST} s values (*i.e.*
754 $\ln(G_{ST}/(1 - G_{ST}))$) are plotted against \ln -geographical distances.

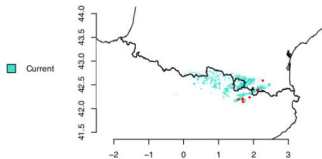
755 **Figure 4** Geographic areas holding suitable climatic conditions for *Delphinium montanum*
756 with projection under present climatic conditions (average for 1981-2010) and consensus
757 projection (from 5 Global Climate Models (CGMs): GFDL-ESM4, UKESM1-0-LL, MPI-ESM1-2-
758 HR, IPSL-CM6A-LR and MRI-ESM2-0), for various plausible climatic scenarios for years 2035
759 (average for 2011-2040), 2055 (average for 2041-2070) and three Representative
760 Concentration Pathways (RCPs): RCP 26, RCP 70 and RCP 8.5. The time period 2071-2100 is
761 not represented since the suitable area would have completely disappeared for RCPs 7.0 and
762 8.5. The Barplot displays current and future area values under various plausible climatic
763 scenarios. These values correspond to “LowAIC” model (“AUC” model being very similar).



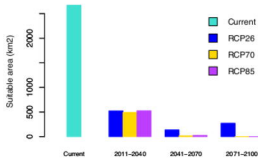




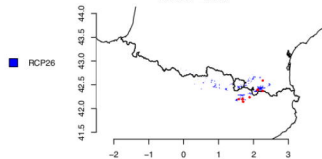
Current



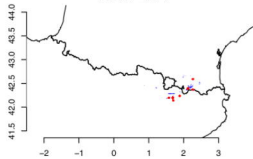
Species total suitable area



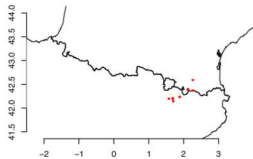
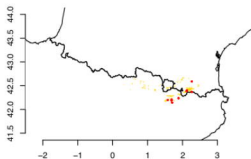
2011-2040



2041-2070



RCP70



RCP85

