

# How much do we know and how much do we care about genetic diversity of threatened plants? A case study from the French flora

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# ► To cite this version:

Juliette Ducrettet, Sandrine Maurice, Eric Imbert. How much do we know and how much do we care about genetic diversity of threatened plants? A case study from the French flora. Botany Letters, In press, 170 (1), pp.110-118. 10.1080/23818107.2022.2125902 . hal-03786687

# HAL Id: hal-03786687 https://hal.umontpellier.fr/hal-03786687v1

Submitted on 23 Sep 2022

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- 1 How much do we know and how much do we care about genetic
- 2 diversity of threatened plants? A case study from the French flora.
- 3
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- 7
- 8
- 9 Author contributions : SM and EI conceived the ideas. JD, JD, SM and EI designed the methodology; JD
- 10 collected and analysed thedata and led the writing of the manuscript. All authors contributed critically to
- 11 the drafts and gave final approval for publication.

## 12 Abstract

13 Small demographic size and reduced genetic diversity increase the extinction probability of a population. Genetic diversity within populations for neutral markers is 14 15 an heuristic parameter, as it reflects past and ongoing processes acting on populations, and informs on possible futures. This study presents a synthesis of the knowledge on 16 neutral genetic diversity for threatened plants in metropolitan France and the use of such 17 18 data in management actions. Pairing threatened species with the closest non-threatened 19 species for which we could find appropriate genetic data, we collected information on 20 genetic diversity for 25 threatened species and non-threatened controls. We found that 21 threatened species in France have on average a lower within-population genetic 22 diversity than non-threatened controls and thus are exposed to risks linked to genetic erosion. Combining an analysis of recovery plans and a survey addressed to 23 24 practitioners, we concluded that genetic diversity is rarely integrated in management 25 actions. The integration of such information into applied conservation remains a challenge. We provide some guidelines to collect biological traits impacting within-26 27 population genetic diversity and some specific recommendations for a better 28 incorporation of population genetics concepts into conservations actions.

29 Keywords: Genetic diversity, conservation, threatened plants, management,30 metropolitan France

### 31 Introduction

32 Anthropogenic activities such as intensive agricultural practices and urbanization lead to 33 habitat destruction and fragmentation. For plant species, these environmental changes affect population dynamics by altering population size, population number and 34 population isolation (Lande 1988; Camill 2010; Ralls et al. 2018). In particular, small 35 36 populations are vulnerable to density-dependent effects (Allee effect) and demographic 37 stochasticity (Lande 1988; Oostermeijer et al. 2003). The reduction in demographic size 38 of a population is also accompanied by a reduction in effective population size, i.e an 39 increase of genetic drift and thus a decrease in within-population genetic diversity (Ellstrand and Elam 1993). A positive correlation between neutral genetic diversity and 40 population size is a common observation in natural populations (for a meta-analysis see 41 42 Leimu et al. 2006). Furthermore, population fragmentation reduces gene flow among populations, which also contributes to decrease genetic diversity within populations 43 (Ellstrand and Elam 1993). The level of both neutral genetic variation and guantitative 44 45 genetic variation are expected to be reduced by drift and isolation (Allendorf and 46 Luikart 2006) and neutral diversity is expected to covary with selected diversity (Kardos 47 et al. 2021). In addition, in small populations, drift can lead to the fixation of deleterious alleles, thus increasing genetic load and inbreeding depression (Keller and Waller 48 49 2002), and a positive correlation between neutral genetic diversity and fitness is often 50 observed (Reed and Frankham 2004; Leimu et al 2006). The general framework of evolutionary rescue has emphasized that population persistence relies partly on 51 evolutionary potential (Gomulkiewicz and Holt 1995; Gonzalez et al. 2013; Carlson et 52 53 al. 2014; Olivieri et al. 2016; Ralls et al. 2018; Thompson 2020), depending both on 54 population size and standing genetic variation (Frankham et al. 2017).

55 Hence, risks linked to changes in population genetic diversity should also be included in threat detection (Allendorf and Luikart 2006; Olivieri et al. 2016) and the 56 decision-making process that leads to management actions should integrate the concept 57 58 of evolutionary potential, particularly in the context of global change (Ashley et al. 59 2003; Smith et al. 2014; Olivieri et al. 2016; Ralls et al. 2018; Thompson 2020). 60 Evaluations of the integration of genetic issues into management have been carried out 61 in several countries (Pierson et al. 2016; Taylor et al. 2017; Cook and Sgrò 2018). Using surveys addressed to people professionally involved in conservation actions, 62 Taylor et al. (2017) and Cook and Sgrò (2018) showed a low level of integration of key 63 evolutionary concepts in biodiversity management, in New Zealand and Australia, 64 respectively. Pierson et al. (2016) used another approach by evaluating how genetic 65 issues are incorporated into recovery plans. France was included in their analysis but 66 67 only through the national action plans (PNA) which are clearly not representative of conservation actions in France. 68

Our study aims to assess within-population genetic diversity of threatened
Angiosperm species in France and the use of such information in conservation actions.
First, we evaluated the data available for neutral genetic diversity of plants species
considered as threatened in France using the IUCN list and the legal protection status in

France. Although it would be best to make congeneric comparisons to control for 73 74 confounding effects of phylogeny and life-history traits on genetic diversity 75 (Gitzendanner and Soltis 2000; Spielman et al. 2004; Hamabata et al. 2019; Hamrick 76 and Godt 1996; Leimu et al. 2006; Duminil et al. 2007), sometimes genetic data were 77 not available for a non-threatened congener, in which case we instead compared the threatened species with its closest relative for which appropriate genetic data were 78 79 available. Next, in order to assess the degree of consideration of genetic diversity in 80 conservation actions in metropolitan France, we analysed available recovery plans and performed a survey addressed to managers. 81

#### 82 Materials and Methods

#### 83 Genetic diversity of threatened plant species in France

84 The IUCN Red List threatened categorization system (CR, EN, VU) was used to identify 452 threatened plant species and subspecies occurring in metropolitan France 85 (https://uicn.fr/liste-rouge-flore/, November 2019). In addition, the list of the 387 86 87 legally protected Angiosperms species in France was extracted from the institutional 88 website collecting data on biodiversity in France (https://inpn.mnhn.fr/, November 89 2019). The two lists were merged to define threatened Angiosperm species and subspecies in metropolitan France. We also added three species (Arenaria grandiflora, 90 Convolvulus lanuginosus, Pinguicula grandiflora) with a local status of protection that 91 92 are known to have been studied for genetic diversity in the area were there are 93 protected. The final list included 749 plant taxa. We did not check for synonymy at this 94 stage. It is important to note that genetic diversity is not considered neither in the IUCN 95 criteria, nor for a legal protection status in France.

96 Using this list, automatic data mining was carried out on NCBI 97 (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/), on Google Scholar and on the French registry of Ph-D theses (http://theses.fr/) to find any study on these species. A search on the Web of 98 Science database was also performed using the list of species (eg TITLE = "SPECIES1" 99 OR "SPECIES2"...). We obtained 6779 results (20 April 2022), and we refined the 100 101 results using the keyword "genetic". Among the 625 results, we retained publication 102 with at least one author from France (Countries/Regions = "France"). For two species (Agropyron cristatum and Vitis vinifera) related to largely cultivated plants, a dedicated 103 104 search was done.

105 Among all the studies collected, only those with data on within-population genetic diversity were retained. We used genetic diversity at population scale since it is 106 the pertinent scale to detect effects of drift, absence of migration and because selection 107 needs within-population diversity to act. For each species, parameters estimating genetic 108 109 diversity within populations were extracted from the studies. We also documented 110 population size and sampling size, and several life-history traits known to influence 111 genetic diversity such as mating system, longevity, vegetative reproduction, dispersion 112 vector and pollination vector (see Appendix 1).

As our goal was to compare genetic diversity of threatened species to genetic 113 114 diversity of non-threatened species, we searched for studies performed on related non-115 threatened species. The collection of data for non-threatened species was performed in several phases. Ideally, each pair of species should include a threatened and non-116 117 threatened congeneric species (see Lavergne et al. 2004) occurring in the same habitat and sharing common life-history traits. As we aimed to compare genetic diversity, we 118 119 must also have genetic parameters estimated on the same type of genetic markers although the best comparison would use the same loci for those same markers. We 120 121 made a first search on Web of Science using the name of the genus and the types of genetic markers (e.g. TOPIC= Anchusa AND TOPIC= AFLP). In absence of results, we 122

relaxed the congeneric criteria and searched using the family name (e.g. TOPIC= 123 124 Caryophyllaceae AND TOPIC= SSR). Species were not considered as a valid control if they were said to be "rare" or "threatened" by the authors of a study, if they were 125 cultivated species, or if they were invasive species. When several non-threatened 126 species were available, we selected the species the most similar to the threatened species 127 128 within the pair for life-history traits. For 3 species (Pinguicula rosea, Pinguicula 129 grandiflora and Orobanche bartlingii), we could not find any non-threatened species in the same family studied with the same markers (AFLP), so we used estimations of 130 diversity in AFLP from the review on plants by Nybom (2004). For Eryngium 131 132 viviparum, the comparison was made using the only French population and Iberic 133 populations, since the species is not threatened in Spain (Rascle et al. 2019). One recent 134 study on the threatened Delphinium montanum documents diversity using SNPs (Salvado et al. 2022), but we could not find any pertinent study for the non-threatened 135 control. This species was not included in our comparison. 136

## 137 Data analyses

The raw data were the expected heterozygosity within populations, also named Nei's 138 gene diversity, extracted from published and unpublished papers (see Appendix 1). We 139 computed the mean expected heterozygosity per population for each species. Expected 140 141 heterozygosity was chosen to estimate genetic diversity because this measure is only 142 slightly affected by sample size, in contrast to the number of alleles per locus. To test for the difference in expected heterozygosity between threatened and non-threatened 143 144 controls, a non-parametric pairwise comparison test was performed. Because of the 145 small sample size (see results), we adapted the classical Wilcoxon test for pairwise comparisons following Manly (1991). First, the V-value was computed using the 146 Wilcox.test function in R (version 4.0.3). Next, the same statistic was computed for 147 permuted dataset. Species status (threatened vs non threatened) was permuted 1,000 148 times within pairs, and the original V-value was compared to the distribution of the 149 150 permuted values. Finally, the percentage difference in heterozygosity within pairs was 151 estimated as the signed difference in expected heterozygosity between the threatened 152 and the non-threatened members of the pair divided by the largest value of expected 153 heterozygosity in the pair.

# 154 Considerations of genetic diversity in management actions

First, recovery plans (defined as in Pierson et al. 2016) implemented in France were 155 156 downloaded from the website of each of the 10 National Botanic Conservatories acting in the metropolitan France (Alpin, Bailleul, Bassin Parisien, Brest, Corse, Franche-157 158 Comté, Massif Central, Midi-Pyrénées, Porquerolles, Sud-Atlantique) and from the 159 website of the French Ministry in charge of biodiversitv 160 (https://www.ecologie.gouv.fr/). In each document, we searched for any mention of the term genetic (in French "génétique"), which led us to population genetics and genetic 161 162 data. We also documented if any task was assigned to collect data on genetic diversity.

We searched for any mention of effective population size (in French "taille efficace"). We also searched for any reference to habitat and life-history traits such as mating system, longevity, vegetative reproduction, dispersion vector and pollination vector (Appendix 2). Finally, management actions directly impacting genetic diversity such as introduction, reintroduction, reinforcement (sensu Silcok et al. 2019) were also recorded (Appendix 2). Hereafter, the terms "manipulation of population size" will refer to these actions.

Additionally, as many management actions are not published or are reported in 170 171 documents with a very narrow public access, a survey was also conducted using 172 numerous professional mailing lists (Conservatoires *d'Espaces* Naturels, 173 Conservatoires Botaniques Nationaux, Parc Nationaux, Réseau d'acteurs pour la conservation de la flore méditerraneenne) and using social networking (Tela Botanica, 174 Ecodiff) to reach practitioners. The survey was developed using the *Limesurvey* 175 176 interface and designed with the purpose of collecting the same types of information as 177 we gathered from recovery plans (Appendix 3).

We thus used two sources of information to study the consideration of genetic
diversity in management actions: the synthesis of management plans available on-line,
hereafter "recovery plans", and the answer of managers to the survey, hereafter
"surveys".

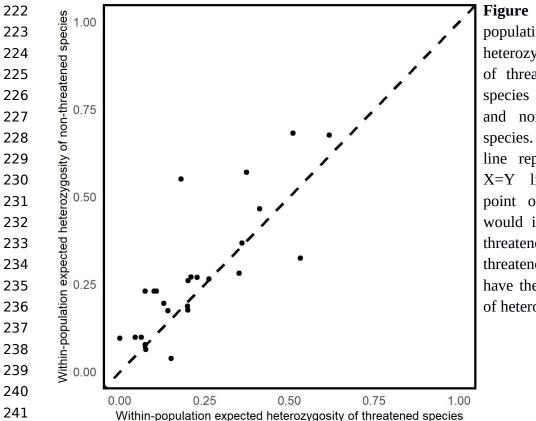
### 182 Results

### 183 Genetic diversity of threatened plant species in France

184 From the initial list containing more than 700 plant threatened species, withinpopulation expected heterozygosity at neutral nuclear loci was gathered only for 25 185 threatened species (Appendix 1). Only 12 species are considered as threatened species 186 187 under IUCN criteria on the French redlist, and two species (Aster pyrenaeus and 188 Biscutella neustriaca) are considered as threatened at a global scale. All the 25 189 threatened species have a French legal protection status either at the national scale (17 species) or at the local scale (8 species). Twenty-two non-threatened species filled the 190 require conditions to build the pairs, 13 in same genus and 9 in the same family than a 191 192 threatened species. For the 3 other pairs, we used data from Nybom (2004, see Materials 193 and Methods section, Appendix 1). AFLPs (N=20, He=0.20 SD 0.08) and 194 microsatellites (N=16, He=0.43 SD 0.21) were the most frequently used marker types. 195 ISSR (N=10, He= 0.14 SD 0.07) and allozymes (N=4, He=0.08 SD 0.05) are the least 196 frequent and the least diverse markers.

197 All the threatened species in the dataset are perennials except Ranunculus *nodiflorus* and *R. lateriflorus* which are annuals (Appendix 1, Table S1). 198 Threatened species are mainly polycarpic (76%) and their pollination is mostly entomophilous 199 200 (76%). Agents of seed dispersal varied: anemochory (24%), barochory (28%), 201 hydrochory (8%), and zoochory (8%) (missing data for 8 species). Mating system is 202 generally considered as allogamous (36%) or mixed (20%). There are 44% of 203 threatened species able to reproduce asexually. For most pairs, threatened species share 204 the same life-history traits as their non threatened relatives (Appendix 1, Table S1). In 205 contrast to life history-traits, demographic parameters of threatened species were highly 206 variable. For threatened species, mean population sizes ranged from 56 (Arenaria grandiflora) to 50150 (Narcissus triandrus ssp. capax). Some species occur in a single 207 208 locality (Eryngium viviparum) or few nearby localities (3 islets for N. triandrus ssp. 209 *capax*, 6 populations for *Centaurea corymbosa*) while other species have a widespread 210 distribution beyond the French territory (e.g. Brassica insularis, Cyprepedium 211 calceolus).

Over all pairs, the average of the signed differences on within-population 212 expected heterozygosity between threatened and non-threatened plants is -18.5%. For 6 213 pairs, the threatened species (Anchusa crispa, Convolvulus lanuginosus, Cypripedium 214 calceolus, Eryngium alpinum, Liparis loselii, Ranunculus lateriflorus) showed a greater 215 216 heterozygosity that the non-threatened species. Over the 19 pairs out of 25 showing a reduction of heterozygosity in the threatened species, the average difference is -33.2%. 217 218 On the whole, threatened species had a lower expected heterozygosity than their non-219 threatened controls (Figure 1, P-value= 0.0065). When removing the three threatened 220 species for which the within-population heterozygosity was compared to the average 221 value from Nybom (2004), the result remains significant (p=0.0337 for N=22 pairs).



**Figure 1:** Within-population

heterozygosity (He) of threatened plant species in France and non-threatened species. The dashed line represents the *X*=*Y* line, *i.e.* a point on this line would indicate that threatened and nonthreatened species have the same level of heterozygosity.

242 Considerations of genetic diversity in management actions

243 Sixty-two recovery plans concerning 59 protected species were found on-line. Two species (*Centranthus trinervis* and *Liparis loeselii*) were studied in more than one plan. 244 245 From the on-line survey, we collected data for 21 species, six species were mentioned both in recovery plans and in the survey. Overall, we collected information for 74 246 species. Among them, 20 are considered as threatened on the IUCN national list, 26 247 species are protected at the national level and the others are locally protected either at 248 249 the department or regional level which justifies management actions. Habitat 250 management, with 46 citations out of 74, is the most frequent action recommended for 251 in situ management. Legal protection for habitat was recommended for 45 species. 252 Manipulation of population size was recommended for 21 species with introduction for 253 11 species, reinforcement for 15 species, and reintroduction for 5 species. Among 254 species in this dataset, six species (Anchusa crispa, Aster pyrenaeus, Biscutella 255 neustriaca, Ervngium viviparum, Liparis loeselii, Ranunculus nodiflorus) were in the 256 previous analysis on genetic diversity.

Life-history traits are unequally represented in recovery plans. While habitat and species longevity are well characterized (100%, 96.8% respectively Table 1), the ecology of dispersal and pollination are often not considered (29%, 22.6% respectively Table 1). Important information such as the mating system is even more rarely given in recovery plans (13 occurrences, Table 1), and tests for self-compatibility have also seldom been carried out (Table 1). When manipulations of population size are implemented, information on mating system and self-incompatibility are more often

considered (Table 1). Population size is often known (92%) but no reference to effective 264 population size could be found in any conservation plan. Mention of "genetic" occurred 265 in more than 79% of plans (Table 1). Mention of "genetic" is often associated with the 266 preservation of diversified *ex situ* material (80%) and rarely with threats such as genetic 267 erosion (32%) or population persistence (14%). Only 10 recovery plans used already 268 269 existing genetic data (Table 1) and 8 of these 10, plus 4 others called for the collections 270 of genetic data (Table 1). Overall only 14 documents out of 62 refered in some way to the use of genetic data. 271

272 The 21 surveys collected also confirm that reproductive system is less reported 273 than other life-history traits (Table 2). Habitats, longevity, seed dispersal and pollination 274 vectors are known for all species addressed in the survey (Table 2). In contrast, mating 275 system and self-incompatibility tests were reported by only 57% and 19% of respondents respectively (Table 2). In particular, self-incompatibility tests were carried 276 277 out for only four species. Seven respondents (out of 21) indicated the use of genetic 278 data. Twelve management actions including manipulation of population size were 279 documented (Table 2) and nine of them used only a single population source. For two 280 manipulations of population size, Saxifraga hirculus and Acis nicaeensis, two populations were used as seed source. For one of the manipulation of population size 281 282 (Orchis purpurea), the number of populations source was not documented. Genetic data 283 were available for five of the twelve species concerned by manipulation of population 284 size (Table 2).

**Table 1 :** Information available in recovery plans about life-history traits of the species concerned and other topics related to genetics. In the second column, are given the number (percentage) of recovery plans in which the topics is fill in for the species considered. In the last column, are given the same informations for recovery plans including manipulation of population size. « Mention of genetic » means that the topic is discussed but not that genetic data is provided.

Topics	Overall (%)	Recovery plans including manipulation of population size (%)
Habitat	62 (100)	12 (100)
Longevity	60 (96.8)	11 (91.7)
Vegetative reproduction	14 (22.6)	6 (50.0)
Dispersion vector	18 (29.0)	10 (83.3)
Pollination vector	14 (22.6)	5 (41.7)
Mating system	13 (20.9)	5 (41.7)
Self-incompatibility test	7 (11.3)	3 (25.0)
Mention of genetic	49 (79.0)	10 (83.3)
Genetic data	10 (16.1)	4 (33.3)
Task to collect genetic data	12 (19.3)	4 (33.3)

Table 2: Information available in surveys about life-history traits of the species
concerned and other topics related to genetics. In the second column, are given the
number (percentage) of surveys in which the topics is fill in for the species considered.
In the last column, are given the same informations for actions including manipulation
of population size.

Topics	Overall (%)	Actions including manipulation of population size (%)
Species habitat	21 (100)	12 (100)
Species longevity	20 (95.2)	12 (100)
Vegetative reproduction	20 (95.2)	12 (100)
Dispersion vector	21 (100)	12 (100)
Pollination vector	21 (100)	12 (100)
Mating system	12 (57.1)	8 (66.7)
Self-incompatibility test	4 (19.0)	4 (33.3)
Genetic data	7 (33.3)	5 (41.7)

#### 294 Discussion

295 Our review of the studies performed on the French flora showed that genetic diversity is known for a low number of threatened species. When documented, within-population 296 297 expected heterozygosity is usually lower in threatened species than in non-threatened controls. Threatened plants having lower genetic diversity is consistent with other 298 299 studies of plants such as the one performed on 21 species considered to be threatened on 300 the world IUCN redlist (Spielman et al. 2004). As the threatened species included in our study share common life-history traits (Table S1) with their widespread relatives, this 301 302 low genetic diversity is likely to result from a reduced population size or geographic isolation. The relative contribution of these two factors need information on genetic 303 structure to be quantified (Ellstrand and Elam 1993). For instance, the French 304 population of *Eryngium viviparum* is highly isolated from the Iberian populations of the 305 306 same species and showed much lower diversity than the Iberian populations indicating that the low genetic diversity is probably linked to geographical isolation (Rascle et al. 307 308 2019). Gitzendanner and Soltis (2000) have also found that overall rare species have 309 lower genetic diversity than their common congeners, with some exceptions as we observed for 6 species. Some studies have reported that a narrow distribution or a 310 threatened status does not necessarily result in low neutral genetic diversity (Jiménez-311 312 Mejías et al. 2015; Médail and Baumel 2018; Teixeira and Huber 2021), in particular 313 because a lag is expected between population reduction and loss of genetic variation (Kardos et al. 2021). 314

315 A second major conclusion from our study is that population genetics was not considered in most recovery plans or by practitioners. Although some references to 316 317 genetics can be found in recovery plans, collection of genetic data is only included or recommended in 14 plans out of 62 (23%). While Pierson et al. (2016) also found a low 318 proportion of plans that included genetics, they noted that in France recovery plans 319 propose the collection of genetic data at a relatively high rate (80%) in comparison to 320 321 other European countries (e.g. Netherlands 35 %, UK 30 %). However, their study only 322 included five Plan National d'Actions (PNA), which are the most complete but not the 323 most common kind of conservation plans in France. In our study, we included other 324 kinds of recovery plans and found 19.3% of them recommended the collection of 325 genetic data. In Australia, the positive perception of genetics by practitioners is not always translated in an actual use of genetics (Cook and Sgrò 2018). In New Zealand, 326 327 the actual use of genetic techniques varies according to conservation issues (Taylor et al. 2017). International and national policies usually insist on the importance of genetic 328 329 diversity (Cook and Sgrò 2017; Hoban et al. 2021), in particular for long-term 330 persistence. However practical recommendation fail to incorporate genetic factors into conservation plans (Cook and Sgrò 2017; Hoban et al. 2021), as we found here for 331 332 France. Furthermore, specific concepts linked to genetic diversity, such as inbreeding 333 depression, gene flow or mating system, are rarely mentioned in conservation plans, in 334 contrast to the conservation scientific literature (Cook and Sgrò 2017). Hence, 335 insufficient integration of genetic diversity and related concepts into conservation plans seems to be the rule in several countries including France. An international standard for
species recovery plans explicitly including genetic aspects should be developed (Pierson
et al. 2016).

339 Several recommendations can be made to improve the integration of population 340 genetic diversity in conservation actions. A better spread of the concept of effective 341 population size (Ne) would be one of the recommendations since it is directly related to 342 genetic threats and population extinction (Allendorf and Luikart 2006; Hoban et al. 343 2022). Effective population size is often smaller than the demographic population size 344 (eg. Allendorf and Luikart 2006; Hoban et al. 2020 but see Vitalis et al. 2004). So far, 345 methods to estimate Ne are clearly too difficult to be applied in most natural populations 346 because of the quality and quantity of genetic or demographic data necessary and 347 because of the complexity of the statistical tools involved. However, collection of data on life-history traits particularly affecting genetic diversity and Ne can be recommended 348 349 (Hoban et al. 2020), yet we have found that most conservation plans are conducted with 350 only moderate knowledge on such ecological and biological traits. Acquisition of data 351 about the mating system of the species is a minimum requirement since it directly 352 affects Ne and the structure of genetic diversity (Duminil et al. 2007; Hoban et al. 2020). Nevertheless, there is much less information about mating systems than others 353 354 traits in conservation plans in Australia (Cook and Sgrò 2018) and in France (this 355 study). Life-history traits are also important for other aspects of management, for 356 example, the longevity of a species decreases the probability to reach reproduction stage 357 per seed, therefore, increases the number of seeds to use in an introduction (Machinsky and Haskin 2012). The absence of information about basic biological characteristics of 358 359 plant species probably helps to explain some of the failures of reintroduction actions 360 (Godefroid et al. 2011).

We also reported that the majority (nine out twelve) of manipulations of 361 population size are performed with one source population and two others used only two 362 363 populations as sources. Increasing population size reduces the demographic risk and 364 future genetic erosion whatever the origin of the introduced individuals. However to address genetic issues linked to past genetic erosion, genetic mixing is required, thus 365 individuals should originate from a different population, provided outbreeding and local 366 367 adaptation issues are addressed before mixing populations (Hoffmann et al. 2021; 368 Teixeira and Huber 2021). This would make conservation actions more effective, as 369 would supplementing information on neutral genetic diversity with information on 370 functional genetic diversity (Teixeira and Huber 2021). This highlights the importance 371 of improving knowledge on evolutionary theory in the training of conservation 372 management staff.

Several factors, including social, political and economic considerations, explain the absence of integration of evolutionary theory into conservation plans, but the training of practitioners is likely to be one of the most important causes (Taylor et al. 2017; Cook and Sgrò 2018; Sandstrom et al. 2019). Furthermore, despite the recommendation to use open-access research, results from research in conservation biology do not percolate to practitioners (Taylor et al. 2017). While scientific publications is an important source for general interpretations, several constraints were

pointed out by practitioners, essentially the lack of time and language constraints for 380 381 some non-native English speakers (Fabian et al. 2019). Another possible explanation to 382 the conservation-genetic gap is that genetic is not directly considered in IUCN criteria to evaluate species status (Willi et al. 2022). Finally, because population genetic studies 383 are costly and time-consuming, the lack of financial resources is also a problem (Taylor 384 385 et al. 2017; Cook and Sgrò 2019). However, as we pointed out above, some biological traits, such as the mating system, can be collected in natural populations without 386 technical requirements or costly technology. Another element to consider is that 387 management strategies tend to focus on short-term responses and perceptible threats 388 389 rather than imperceptible and dynamic processes (Mace and Purvis 2008). As a result, 390 habitat management and the census of population size (i.e. number of flowering plants) 391 are the most frequent actions.

392 A general recommendation concerns the importance of communication between 393 researchers and practitioner (Taylor et al. 2017; Fabian et al 2019; Holderegger et al. 394 2019; Taft et al. 2020; Hohenlohe et al. 2021). Regular networking events between 395 practitioners and conservation geneticists, such as Annual Meetings in Conservation 396 Genetics (Holderegger et al. 2019), or conservation geneticist hub bringing together 397 genetic researchers to provide one platform of expertise visible to managers (Taylor et 398 al. 2017) should be more widespread. It also would beneficial to increase the number of 399 collaborative partnerships between genetic researchers and conservation managers to support management strategies of specific wild populations (Taft et al. 2020; Hohenlohe 400 401 et al. 2021).

402 Acknowledgements

403 We thank the practioners that participated in the on-line surveys, and the RESEDA-404 FLORE consortium. Khalid Belkihr contributed significantly to the scripts used for the 405 data mining. We are also indebted to John Thompson for comment on a previous 406 version of this paper. JD is funded by the OFB and Labex Cemeb RENPOP project.

407 Data availability statement

The data that support the findings of this study are available from supplementarymaterials.

Table S1: Description of 6 life-history traits within pairs of species according to the
status of the species, Appendix 1: Dataset on genetic diversity of threatened plant
species in France, Appendix 2: Information that has been searched in recovery plans,

413 Appendix 3: Survey addressed to practitioners, Appendix 4: Dataset on considerations

414 of genetic diversity in management actions

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Table S1. Description of 6 life-history traits within pairs of species according to the
status of the species (threatened and not threathened NT, see text for details). Lifehistory traits are considered only for the 47 species in the dataset. Details are given in
Appendix 1.

Longevity	Long	evity of thre	atened species			
of NT species	Peren	Perennial		al		Total
Perennial	20	20				22
Missing data	3		0			3
Total	23	}	2			
Reproduction event	Reproduc	tion event of	f threatened spe	cies		
of NT species	Monoc	arpic	Polycar	pic		
Monocarpic	2		0			2
Polycarpic	3		17			20
Missing data	1		2			3
Total	6		19			
Vegetative reproduction	Vege	etative repro	duction of threa	tened speci	es	
of NT species	Abse	ent	Preser	nt N	lissing data	Total
Absent	2		1		0	3
Present	2		6	6		11
Missing data	3		4		4	11
Total	7		11		7	
Pollination vector		Pollination	vector of threa	tened specie	25	
of NT species	Anemoj	ohily	Entomophily	Hydrophi	ly Missing data	Total
Anemophily	1		1	0	0	2
Entomophily	0		17	1	0	18
Hydrophily	0		0	0	0	0
Missing data	0		1	0	4	5
Total	1		19	1	4	
Dispersion vector		Dispersion	vector of threa	tened specie	25	
of NT species	Anemochory	Barochory	Hydrochory	Zoochor	y Missing data	Total
Anemochory	3	2	0	0	0	5
Barochory	2	2	0	1	0	5

Hydrochory	0	1	2	0	1	4
Zoochory	0	1	0	1	0	2
Missing data	1	1	0	0	7	9
Total	6	7	2	2	8	-

# 430 Table 1 (follow)

Mating system	ing system Mating system of threatened species						
of NT species	Autogamy Mixed Allogamy Missing data		Total				
Autogamy	2	1	0	0	3		
Mixed	0	2	1	1	4		
Allogamy	1	1	7	1	10		
Missing data	3	1	1	3	8		
Total	6	5	9	5			