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Tree Genetics & Genomes

Guidelines for the restoration of the tropical timber tree *Anacardium excelsum*: first input from genetic data --Manuscript Draft--

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Abstract:	<p>Translocation of trees has been used as a common method to mediate genetic conservation and restoration of forests. However, very few programs include strategies developed to recover or maintain the genetic diversity of the translocated species. <i>Anacardium excelsum</i> is a tree native to the tropics of America that is extensively used in forestry. In Colombia, restoration of forests through the translocation of native species has regained importance, and <i>A. excelsum</i> has been recently included in the National Strategy for Plant Conservation. Thus, in order to define the level of genetic structure and the level of genetic diversity within certain regions where remnants of the seasonally dry tropical forests (SDTF) of Colombia have been retained, we genotyped 106 trees using nuclear Inter-Simple Sequence Repeats (ISSR) and sequenced two non-coding chloroplast loci for these specimens. Our ISSR dataset revealed, the existence of a gradient in genetic diversity within <i>A. excelsum</i> with the most diverse remnants encountered in the south of the country, while the localities sampled in the Caribbean coast and in the Chicamocha canyon were less diverse. Chloroplast loci also pointed out the very low genetic diversity of <i>A. excelsum</i> from the Chicamocha canyon and we propose to prioritize this area within future conservation programs. Both chloroplast and nuclear markers supported the existence of genetic divergence between distinct regions of Colombia, uncovering genetic differences between inter-Andean, Caribbean and Chicamocha canyon <i>A. excelsum</i> remnants. Hence, we advise to choose the provenance of seeds or plants carefully before translocation, and to consider minimal mixing of material from different regions when initializing restoration programs for <i>A. excelsum</i>, in Colombia.</p>	
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Guidelines for the restoration of the tropical timber tree *Anacardium excelsum*: first input from genetic data

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6 29 Abstract

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8 30 Translocation of trees has been used as a common method to mediate genetic conservation and restoration of
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10 31 forests. However, very few programs include strategies developed to recover or maintain the genetic diversity
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12 32 of the translocated species. *Anacardium excelsum* is a tree native to the tropics of America that is extensively
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14 33 used in forestry. In Colombia, restoration of forests through the translocation of native species has regained
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16 34 importance, and *A. excelsum* has been recently included in the National Strategy for Plant Conservation. Thus,
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18 35 in order to define the level of genetic structure and the level of genetic diversity within certain regions where
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20 36 remnants of the seasonally dry tropical forests (SDTF) of Colombia have been retained, we genotyped 106
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22 37 trees using nuclear Inter-Simple Sequence Repeats (ISSR) and sequenced two non-coding chloroplast loci for
23
24 38 these specimens. Our ISSR dataset revealed, the existence of a gradient in genetic diversity within *A.*
25
26 39 *excelsum* with the most diverse remnants encountered in the south of the country, while the localities sampled
27
28 40 in the Caribbean coast and in the Chicamocha canyon were less diverse. Chloroplast loci also pointed out the
29
30 41 very low genetic diversity of *A. excelsum* from the Chicamocha canyon and we propose to prioritize this area
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32 42 within future conservation programs. Both chloroplast and nuclear markers supported the existence of genetic
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34 43 divergence between distinct regions of Colombia, uncovering genetic differences between inter-Andean,
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36 44 Caribbean and Chicamocha canyon *A. excelsum* remnants. Hence, we advise to choose the provenance of
37
38 45 seeds or plants carefully before translocation, and to consider minimal mixing of material from different
39
40 46 regions when initializing restoration programs for *A. excelsum*, in Colombia.

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44 48 Key words: National Strategy for Plant Conservation of Colombia, translocations, seasonally dry tropical
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46 49 forest, molecular markers, ISSR, cpDNA

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51 51 Introduction

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53 52 During the last decades, increased efforts to restore habitats degraded by human activities throughout the
54
55 53 world have been made (Meli et al. 2017). In the case of tropical forests, most of these efforts have focused on
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57 54 restoring species diversity and forest structure post-logging, while only a limited number have focused on
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59 55 controlling the erosion of genetic diversity or help restore this diversity among species of ecological and

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4 56 economical importance (Ang et al. 2017). It is clear that, from a holistic point of view, the focus of ecological
5
6 57 restoration should consider different levels of organization from genes to ecosystems (Hughes et al. 2008;
7
8 58 Aerts and Honnay 2011) and that ecosystem restoration should begin with or at least include a strategy
9
10 59 developed to recover or maintain genetic diversity of key stone species (Lesica and Allendorf 1999).
11
12 60 According to McKay (2005), a better understanding of how genetic variation is distributed within and among
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14 61 populations (connected by varying degrees of gene flow) is essential for professionals in charge of restoration
15
16 62 programs to maintain historic gene flow and local adaptation. Such reforestation programs that take into
17
18 63 account the existence of regional genetic differentiation and possible local adaptations are, then, more likely
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20 64 granted to restore ecosystem services in the long term (Menges 2008).
21
22 65 Knowledge about the distribution of genetic variation is key when strategical decisions have to be taken in
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24 66 reforestation programs and should be used to assess, for example, the provenance of seeds or plants and the
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26 67 degree to which material of different populations is mixed before restoration (Hughes et al. 2008; Aerts and
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28 68 Honnay 2011). To mediate genetic conservation and restoration, the practice commonly referred as
29
30 69 “translocation” is frequently used. Translocation consists in the transport of individuals, usually from
31
32 70 healthier and bigger populations, to other areas of the species’ distribution where populations are extinct or
33
34 71 struggling. Translocation has been key in establishing new populations or re-establishing extirpated
35
36 72 populations and to increase numbers of individuals in critically small populations (Menges 2008; Weeks et al.
37
38 73 2011). On the one hand, as in the case of the palm tree *Pseudophoenix sargentii* in Florida (Maschinski and
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40 74 Duquesnel 2007), this technique has proven to be a very successful mean to counteract genetic erosion,
41
42 75 allowing to preserve the evolutionary potential of this endangered species. On the other hand, the
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44 76 unsuccessful restoration experiments through translocations of seeds from *Pinus pinaster* in Western Europe
45
46 77 highlight the importance of acquisition of previous knowledge about the genetic structure of the species of
47
48 78 interest (Benito-Garzón et al. 2013). Indeed, transplanted populations of *P. pinaster* have been unable to settle
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50 79 in sites characterized by climatic conditions different from the ones encountered in the seedlings’ area of
51
52 80 origin; a result that has been related to the existence of local adaptation across the species’ natural range
53
54 81 (Benito-Garzón et al. 2013). Unfortunately, it seems that the case of *P. pinaster* is not unique and that more
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56 82 negative than positive experiences are reported in the process of restoration through translocations (Keller et
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58 83 al. 2000; Menges et al. 2016). It is possible that a failure at integrating knowledge not only on the species

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84 taxonomy, reproductive biology, demography, and ecology but also on the distribution of genetic diversity
85 and functional adaptive traits between populations before choosing “whom to translocate where”, account for
86 the majority of unsuccessful restoration programs (Lesica and Allendorf 1999; Menges 2008; Aerts and
87 Honnay 2011).
88 Moreover, restoring ecosystem functions and biological diversity often requires the use of species specific to
89 that habitat (Lesica and Allendorf 1999; McKay 2005; Benito-Garzón et al. 2013), and the need to use native
90 species in ecological restoration processes has been much emphasized lately. Although most processes of
91 reclamation of degraded land have been accomplished using exotic species (Lamb 1998; D’Antonio &
92 Meyerson 2002), in recent years, projects that include species native to the ecosystems to be recovered have
93 increased. For example, in Colombia, there have been recent initiatives to restore the seasonally dry tropical
94 forests (SDTF) using native species (Thomas et al. 2017; Galindo-Rodríguez and Roa-Fuentes 2017).
95 *Anacardium excelsum* is a native tree of the tropics of America, and can be found in riparian forests of the dry
96 tropical and premontane areas from Guatemala to the northern part of South America, including the Guianas
97 (Bernal et al. 2015). This species is used extensively in forestry and, although it has been described as having
98 medium to slow growth rates, a recent study showed that it can reach the desired dimensions and
99 characteristics for logging in approximately 20 years (Lozano et al. 2012). This feature, together with its
100 capacity to grow in a wide range of soils and climatic conditions, makes *A. excelsum* an ideal native candidate
101 for ecological restoration programs of riparian and lowland forests of Central and South America (Lamb
102 1998; Garen et al. 2011). In spite of these interesting features, habitat loss and overexploitation are now
103 threatening *A. excelsum* populations, especially in Panamá and Colombia (Condit et al. 1995; Cárdenas and
104 Salinas 2007). Recent interest in the restoration of *A. excelsum* populations through translocation has emerged,
105 and the species has been included in the National Strategy for Plant Conservation of Colombia (NSPC)
106 (Pizano and García 2014). Indeed, *A. excelsum* is part of the red list of threatened Colombian timber trees
107 (Cárdenas and Salinas 2007) and is moreover characteristic to the SDTF, a habitat prioritized in the NSPC
108 (Pizano and García 2014). The high fragmentation of SDTFs and the isolation of *A. excelsum* populations
109 located in these remnants suggest that genetic differentiation could exist within the country. However, no
110 information about the genetic structure and diversity of *A. excelsum* is currently available, and no specific
111 molecular tools have been developed to work on these trees.

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4 112 In the American tropics, floristic differences (Banda-R et al. 2016) and the genetic structure of species of trees
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6 113 commonly encountered in SDTF remnants (Caetano et al. 2008; Thomas et al. 2017) have been shown to be
7
8 114 determined by historical (i.e. Pleistocene and Holocene) as well as more current changes affecting the
9
10 115 ecosystem. Indeed, the Pleistocene Arc theory proposes that species characteristic to SDTF ecosystems had
11
12 116 largely contiguous distributions during the late Pleistocene's cool and dry glacial period, and that contractions
13
14 117 in present-day SDTF remnants correspond to a more recent change due to climate warming during the
15
16 118 Holocene (Prado and Gibbs 1993; Pennington et al. 2000). *Anacardium excelsum* populations could thus have
17
18 119 been much larger and highly connected in the past. Moreover, from the 1500's onwards, anthropogenic
19
20 120 disturbance linked to human settlement after European colonization have severely degraded SDTF remnants
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22 121 (Valencia-Duarte et al. 2012; Pizano and García 2014). This could have led to further restriction in gene flow
23
24 122 and loss of genetic diversity through bottlenecks in *A. excelsum*.
25
26 123 In order to define the level of genetic structure between regions, and the level of genetic diversity within
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28 124 regions and within remnants of *A. excelsum* in Colombia, we genotyped 106 trees collected from the
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30 125 department of Bolívar in the north, down to the department of the Valle del Cauca in the south using nuclear
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32 126 Inter-Simple Sequence Repeats (ISSRs), and also sequenced two non-coding chloroplast (cpDNA) loci. ISSR
33
34 127 and cpDNA loci represent molecular markers with highly distinct evolutionary rates. ISSRs are highly
35
36 128 polymorphic since their primers anneal directly on the SSR repeats distributed in the genome, which exhibit a
37
38 129 high rate of mutation classically linked to additions and losses of repeat units due to DNA slippage (Tuisima
39
40 130 et al. 2016). Conversely, the low rate of nucleotide substitutions, characteristic to the chloroplast genome in
41
42 131 plants, has been used to develop molecular markers well suited for phylogenetic and phylogeographic studies
43
44 132 (Hamilton 1999). Thus, we hypothesize that cpDNA loci will provide information about ancient gene flow (as
45
46 133 their sequences are rather conserved over time), while our ISSR results will reflect more recent patterns of
47
48 134 connectivity between *A. excelsum* remnants in Colombia. We further investigate population genetic footprints
49
50 135 of past climatic changes and current anthropogenic disturbances in a tree species characteristic to the
51
52 136 Colombian SDTFs. Ultimately, the aim of our study is to directly contribute to an effective and sustainable
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54 137 restoration of *A. excelsum* by providing the first genetic information available for this native species in
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56 138 Colombia.
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140 Materials and methods

141 1. Field sampling

142 Young and healthy leaves of 106 reproductive individuals of *Anacardium excelsum* were sampled between
143 September 2016 and March 2017, at 13 sites located in different fragments of Colombia's SDTF (see Table 1
144 and Results section for more details on region of origin and position of the sampling sites). Individuals
145 separated by distances of at least 50 meters were sampled in order to reduce the sampling of genetically
146 closely related individuals. *A. excelsum* is generally characterized by an outcrossing breeding system but the
147 species also partially displays flower that are self-compatible (Ghazoul and McLeish 2001). Flowers are
148 mainly pollinated by small bees (i.e. *Trigona* bees) and seed dispersal is mediated by bats. Sampling localities
149 were selected based on occurrence data of *A. excelsum* obtained from botanical collection records. The
150 locality of BOL, situated in the Caribbean coast (Table 1), was sampled from a botanical garden. Even if the
151 botanical garden Guillemos Piñeres (BOL) includes a four-hectare patch of SDTF forest, which has been
152 mostly dedicated to the study and protection of plants native to the Caribbean region of Colombia, no
153 information about the origin of its *A. excelsum* trees is available (e.g., the possibility of seedlings or
154 transplants originating from other regions). All dried tissue samples were stored in silica gel for posterior
155 DNA extraction.

156

157 2. DNA extraction, PCR amplification and sequencing

158 Total genomic DNA was extracted using the protocol described by Doyle (1987).
159 Ten ISSRs primers were used for genotyping (Table S1). Amplification cycles consisted of a 5 minutes
160 initiation step at 94°C, followed by 40 amplification cycles consisting of a denaturation step at 94°C for 1
161 minute, annealing at 46°C- 57°C for 45 seconds (Table S1) and a 72°C extension step for 2 minutes. Each
162 PCR was set up in a volume of 20µl using a PCR mix of: 3µl of DNA (corresponding to more or less 10ng);
163 2µl of PCR 10X buffer; 2µl of 2.5mM dNTP; 1.8µl of 25mM MgCl₂; 0.9µl of 2.5mg/mL BSA; 0.4µl of 5U/µl
164 Taq DNA polymerase (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, USA), 0.8µl of 2µM primer, and the remaining volume being
165 completed by pure water. The amplification products were visualized on a 2% agarose gel (w/v) including 2µl
166 of GelRed™ (Biotium, Fremont, USA) and separated by horizontal electrophoresis for 1h20. To ensure
167 consistent scoring of the bands, all 106 individuals were scored on the same gel for each ISSR.

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4 168 GeneRuler 100 bp (Thermo Scientific, Massachusetts, USA) was used as molecular weight marker. After
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6 169 electrophoresis, agarose gels were photographed by Gel Doc NEQ-11 (Neon Creative Labware, Santiago,
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8 170 Chile) under ultraviolet light.
9
10 171 Two chloroplast intergenic spacers, *trnL-trnF* (Taberlet et al. 1991) and *rpl20-rps12* (Hamilton, 1999) were
11
12 172 sequenced. For *trnL-trnF* we used the primers B49317 5'-CGAAATCGGTAGACGCTACG-3' and A50272
13
14 173 5'-ATTTGAACTGGTGACACGAG-3' described in Taberlet et al. (1991). For *rpl20-rps12*, the primers
15
16 174 *rpl20* 5'-TTTGTCTACGTCTCCGAGC-3' and *rps12* 5'-GTCGAGGAACATGTACTAGG-3' were used
17
18 175 (Hamilton 1999). Fragments were amplified by PCR in a 30µl volume using a mix similar to the one
19
20 176 described above for the ISSRs but with a final concentration of 0.2mM MgCl₂, 0.4mM of each primer, and
21
22 177 0.2mM of each dNTP. A volume of 0.2µl of 5U/µl Taq DNA polymerase (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, USA) was
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24 178 used for each PCR. For both cpDNA loci, the amplification was done following the PCR cycling parameters
25
26 179 proposed by Taberlet et al. (1991). Products were purified using MoBio UltraClean® DNA (Solana Beach,
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28 180 USA) and sequenced using both PCR primers, at Macrogen (<https://dna.macrogen.com>). The distinct
29
30 181 haplotypes detected were deposited in GENBANK under accession numbers MG309720-MG309723 and
31
32 182 MG309724-MG309726 for *rpl20-rps12* and *trnL-trnF*, respectively.
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36 184 3. Statistical analysis

37
38 185 ISSR amplified fragments were scored manually as absent (0) or present (1) to build a binary matrix, and
39
40 186 amplification failure of a sample was treated as missing data (-1). All ISSRs were amplified and scored twice
41
42 187 in order to limit the number of missing data. Each band was assumed to represent the phenotype at a single
43
44 188 biallelic locus (Crema et al. 2009). Classical parameters of genetic diversity suitable for
45
46 189 dominant molecular markers, calculated using GenAlEx 6.5 (Peakall & Smouse 2012), were: average number
47
48 190 of effective alleles (Ne), number of private bands (Pa), Shannon index (I), and expected heterozygosity (He).
49
50 191 GenAlEx 6.5 was further used to calculate Nei's genetic distance (Nei 1978) in order to conduct a Principal
51
52 192 Coordinates Analysis (PCoA), and to construct a dendrogram using Sequential Agglomerative, Hierarchical,
53
54 193 and Nested Clustering (SAHN, in NTSYS-pc; Rohlf 1992). A population genetic structure analysis was
55
56 194 carried out based on the model of Bayesian grouping implemented in STRUCTURE (Pritchard et al. 2000).
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58 195 The LOCPRIOR option was implemented to detect weak signals of population structure (i.e. includes a priori
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4 196 sampling locations as prior information in the clustering algorithm; Hubisz et al. 2009). The admixture model
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6 197 was run, assuming correlated allele frequencies (Falush et al. 2003), using an initial burn-in of 500,000
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8 198 followed by 1,000,000 Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) iterations. Seven independent runs were
9
10 199 performed with the tested number of clusters (K) varying from 1 to 13 (i.e., the number of sites with ISSR
11
12 200 data + 1). Values obtained for the mean posterior probability of the data ($\ln \Pr(X|K)$) and calculated for each
13
14 201 value of K (Janes et al. 2017) were plotted in STRUCTURE HARVESTER
15
16 202 (<http://taylor0.biology.ucla.edu/structureHarvester/>). The clear maximum of the $\ln \Pr(X|K)$ values was used
17
18 203 to define the optimal K. CLUMPP (Jakobsson and Rosenberg, 2007) was used to combine the results of the
19
20 204 seven independent runs, applying the greedy algorithm with 100,000 random input orders. To estimate the
21
22 205 partitioning of genetic variability among regions and among individuals within regions (Excoffier et al. 1992),
23
24 206 an analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA) was performed with GenAlEx 6.5 by resampling 9,999 times.
25
26 207 Pairwise values of Φ_{ST} among regions were calculated with GenAlEx 6.5 and their significance was tested
27
28 208 using 9,999 permutations. For both the AMOVA and Φ_{ST} calculations, regions were defined as in Table 1 (i.e.
29
30 209 Magdalena river valley, Cauca river valley, Caribbean coast and Chicamocha canyon) and all individuals
31
32 210 from distinct sampling sites within each region were pooled. A Mantel test was performed with GENETIX
33
34 211 4.05 (Belkhir et al. 1996-2004) to examine the relationship between Nei's genetic distance and geographic
35
36 212 distance (estimated as \ln of the geographical distance; Rousset 1997), and its significance was tested using
37
38 213 10,000 permutations. ISSR data from BOL (i.e., the botanical garden) were not included when performing the
39
40 214 AMOVA among regions, the calculation of Φ_{ST} among regions, and the test for isolation by distance.
41
42 215 Chloroplast sequences were edited in CHROMAS (Conor McCarthy, Griffith University, Australia,
43
44 216 <http://www.technelysium.com.au/chromas.html>) and aligned in MEGA7 (Kumar et al. 2016). The number of
45
46 217 haplotypes (nH), the number of polymorphic sites (S), gene diversity (H_d , Nei 1978) and nucleotide diversity
47
48 218 (π , Nei and Li 1979) were computed using DnaSP (Rozas et al. 2003). Haplotypic richness (R_e) was
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50 219 estimated for each region using CONTRIB and the rarefaction procedure of Petit et al. (1998). Haplotypic
51
52 220 richness estimates reduce the effect of variation in sample size of *A. excelsum* among regions, with rarefaction
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54 221 standardizing it to the smallest sample size. A rarefaction size of $N = 6$ was used, which corresponded to the
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56 222 number of samples of the region with the lowest number of cpDNA sequences obtained (the Chicamocha
57
58 223 canyon; Table 1). For both chloroplast loci, a median-joining network was constructed using NETWORK v

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4 224 4.5 (Bandelt et al. 1999). A rooted UPGMA tree was constructed in MEGA7 (Kumar et al. 2016) using the
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6 225 concatenated *trnL-trnF* and *rpl20-rps12* sequences with 1,000 bootstrap replicates. Only one of each distinct
7
8 226 sequences was used and gaps were coded by hand as a 5th character. *Anacardium occidentale* (Genbank
9
10 227 accession number: KY635877) was used as an outgroup. To estimate the partitioning of genetic variability
11
12 228 among regions and among individuals within region (Excoffier et al. 1992), analyses of molecular variance
13
14 229 (AMOVA) were performed with ARLEQUIN v. 3.5 (Excoffier et al. 2005) by resampling 10,000 times.
15
16 230 Pairwise values of Φ_{ST} among regions were calculated with ARLEQUIN v. 3.5 and their significance was
17
18 231 tested using 10,000 permutations. For both, the AMOVA and Φ_{ST} calculations, regions were defined as in
19
20 232 Table 1 and sequences from BOL were not included. As for ISSRs, all individuals from distinct sampling sites
21
22 233 within each region were pooled.

24 234

26 235 Results

27
28 236 Of the ten ISSR primers used for genotyping, three showed a high level of missing data (>5%) and were
29
30 237 removed before analyses. Three individuals of the SUC population (Caribbean coast region; Table 1) also
31
32 238 showed a high level of missing data (i.e. more than half the ISSR primers did not amplify), and these
33
34 239 individuals were removed before analyses. For six individuals showing extremely poor DNA quality, no PCR
35
36 240 amplifications were possible. Thus, our ISSR analyses were performed on a total of 97 individuals, using
37
38 241 seven primers. Additionally, 89 sequences of *trnL-trnF* of 725-729bp and 92 sequences of *rpl20-rps12* of
39
40 242 769bp were obtained.

42 243

44 244 1. Genetic diversity

45
46 245 The seven ISSR primers selected generated 57 fragments. Total number of fragments scored per primer
47
48 246 ranged from 6 to 10 (Table S1) with an average of 69.9% polymorphic loci within locality (Table 1). Shannon
49
50 247 index (I) and Nei's gene diversity (He) values ranged between 0.23-0.52 and 0.16-0.35, respectively, and the
51
52 248 two estimators showed the same pattern within Colombia. The highest values of I and He were observed in
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54 249 the localities of the Magdalena river valley (i.e. ARM, MAR, IBG, VEN and CHA; Table 1). I and He
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56 250 decreased then from the Magdalena river valley to the Cauca river valley, to the Caribbean coast and, at last,
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58 251 to the Chicamocha canyon (Table 1). The lowest values were encountered in SAN (I = 0.23, He = 0.16; Table

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4 252 1). Among the ISSR markers, only one private fragment was observed for the primer UBC-809 (Table S1) in
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6 253 VEN. When estimated by region, H_e was 0.35 in the Magdalena river valley, 0.32 in the Cauca river valley,
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8 254 0.25 in the Caribbean coast and 0.18 in the Chicamocha canyon.

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10 255 Three haplotypes were observed for *trnL-trnF* with five polymorphic sites that included a gap of 4bp (Table
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12 256 2). For *rpl20-rps12*, four haplotypes and three polymorphic sites were encountered (Table 2). Haplotypic
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14 257 diversity within locality was generally very low and only one haplotype was observed for both loci in most
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16 258 localities (i.e. ARM, IBG, CHA, CLI, QUI and SAN; Table 2). The highest values of diversity were observed
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18 259 in the Caribbean coast (BOL: $H_d = 1.00$ and 0.67 , $\pi = 4.57 \cdot 10^{-3}$ and $2.60 \cdot 10^{-3}$ for *trnL-trnF* and *rpl20-rps12*,
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20 260 respectively; CES: $H_d = 1.00$, $\pi = 2.60 \cdot 10^{-3}$ for *rpl20-rps12*; Table 2). Intermediate values were observed in
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22 261 MED and MAR for both loci and in VEN for *rpl20-rps12* (Table 2). When estimated by region, haplotypic
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24 262 richness (R_e) was 2.0 and 2.0 in the Caribbean coast, 0.9 and 0.8 in the Cauca river valley, 0.1 and 0.4 in the
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26 263 Magdalena river valley, and 0.0 and 0.0 in Chicamocha canyon (values given for *trnL-trnF* and *rpl20-rps12*,
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28 264 respectively).

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31 266 2. Genetic structure

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33 267 The first two axes of the PCoA explained 42.97% and 23.62% of the genetic variability observed with the
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35 268 ISSR data set for *A. excelsum* in Colombia (Fig.1). All localities from the Magdalena and Cauca river valleys
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37 269 and the botanical garden sampled within the region of the Caribbean coast (BOL), clustered together. COR
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39 270 and CES (Caribbean coast), and SAN (Chicamocha canyon) were isolated from the cluster of Magdalena,
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41 271 Cauca and BOL (i.e. along axis 1 for the first two localities and along axis 2 for SAN). The closest localities
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43 272 to SAN in the PCoA were CES and MED. The dendrogram based on Nei's genetic distance grouped the
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45 273 localities from the south/center of the country (ARM, MAR, IBG, VEN, CLI, QUI, CHA) and BOL (Fig. 2C).
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47 274 High genetic distances were observed between this group and COR and CES from the Caribbean coast, SAN
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49 275 from the Chicamocha canyon and MED located at the far north of the Cauca river valley (Fig. 2). Of all these
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51 276 four last localities, only SAN and MED clustered together. The Bayesian analysis carried out in
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53 277 STRUCTURE for all localities shows the existence of three predominant genetic clusters (Fig. 3A). Most
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55 278 individuals displayed varying degrees of mixed ancestry, and two of the three clusters present a rather
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57 279 restricted geographic distribution (Fig. 3B and C). Individuals assigned, with a membership of 0.60 or higher,
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4 280 to the red genetic cluster were only observed in the Magdalena river valley (Fig. 3C) while individuals
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6 281 assigned to the yellow genetic cluster were observed in the Magdalena river valley, the northern part of the
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8 282 Cauca river valley and Chicamocha canyon (Fig. 3C). Interestingly, all trees sampled in SAN were assigned
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10 283 to the yellow genetic cluster and presented a very low level of admixture (Fig. 3B). Individuals assigned to
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12 284 the blue genetic cluster with a membership of 0.60 or higher were observed in all the sampled localities
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14 285 excepting SAN (Fig. 3C). Geographic isolation strongly influenced genetic differentiation among localities, as
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16 286 demonstrated by the significant correlation observed between genetic distance and ln of geographic distance
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18 287 ($r = 0.749$, $p < 0.01$) based on the Mantel test (Fig. S1). Significant genetic differences among regions were
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20 288 detected by AMOVA, however, only 6% of the total of genetic variation was attributed to differences among
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22 289 regions (Table 3). Significant genetic differentiation (Φ_{ST}) was observed between all pairs of regions, except
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24 290 between the Cauca river valley and the Caribbean coast (Table S2).
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26 291 Due to the low level of haplotypic diversity, the structuration pattern observed with the two chloroplastic loci
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28 292 was not clear-cut (Table 2, Fig. 2B). For *trnL-trnF*, haplotype H2 was observed in all regions and H1 in all
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30 293 regions except in the Chicamocha canyon. Haplotype H3 was less frequent and encountered only in the
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32 294 Caribbean coast. For *rpl20-rps12*, H1 was encountered in all regions except the Chicamocha canyon and H2
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34 295 in all regions except in the Caribbean coast. Haplotypes H3 and H4 were less frequent and only observed in
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36 296 the Magdalena river valley and the Caribbean coast. The UPGMA tree based on the concatenated sequences
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38 297 of *trnL-trnF* and *rpl20-rps12* revealed two branches supported by bootstrap values $>75\%$ (Fig. 4). With the
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40 298 exception of two individuals (one from BOL and one from MAR), the tree retrieved a geographical pattern
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42 299 with the first group corresponding to the Caribbean coast and the Chicamocha canyon and the second group to
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44 300 the Magdalena and the Cauca river valleys (Fig. 4). For both loci, AMOVAs attributed a majority of the
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46 301 variance to partition among geographic regions (75% and 57% for *trnL-trnF* and *rpl20-rps12*, respectively;
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48 302 Table 3). As for ISSR data, significant genetic differentiation (Φ_{ST}) was also observed between all pairs of
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50 303 regions, except between the Cauca river valley and the Caribbean coast, for the two chloroplastic loci (Table
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52 304 S2).
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57 306 Discussion

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4 307 For ISSR markers, our study revealed the existence of a gradient of genetic diversity within *Anacardium*
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6 308 *excelsum* in Colombia, with the most diverse remnants encountered in the south (i.e. the region of the
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8 309 Magdalena river valley and of the Cauca river valley), while the localities sampled in the Caribbean coast and
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10 310 in the Chicamocha canyon were less diverse. Except for the Chicamocha canyon where the lowest haplotypic
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12 311 richness was also observed for both *trnL-trnF* and *rpl20-rps12*, this pattern was not retrieved for the two
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14 312 chloroplastic loci. Both chloroplast and nuclear markers supported the existence of genetic divergence
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16 313 between distinct regions of Colombia. Caribbean coast exhibited unique haplotype diversity for *trnL-trnF*
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18 314 chloroplastic locus while two ISSR genetic clusters seem mostly restricted to the southeast of the country.
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20 315 Some of our results pointed to the existence of a pattern of spatial genetic structure in *A. excelsum*. Indeed, the
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22 316 dendrogram obtained using the ISSR data grouped most of the localities of the inter-Andean valleys (except
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24 317 MED; Fig. 2). In the same way, the concatenated sequences of the two chloroplastic loci characterizing
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26 318 samples from the Magdalena and the Cauca river valleys form a well-supported branch in the UPGMA tree
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28 319 (Fig. 4). Moreover, PCoA based on the ISSR dataset isolated SAN (i.e. Chicamocha canyon) and CES and
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30 320 COR (i.e. Caribbean coast) from the rest of the populations sampled (Fig. 1). Taken together, our results
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32 321 uncovered a slight genetic divergence between inter-Andean, Caribbean and Chicamocha canyon *A. excelsum*
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34 322 remnants. Interestingly, for the two chloroplastic loci and the ISSR data, significant genetic differentiation
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36 323 was observed between all region pairs except between the Cauca river valley and the Caribbean coast. We
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38 324 propose that the existence of a past and/or current corridor of dispersal between these two regions may
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40 325 explain our results. Higher genetic differences among regions were detected by AMOVAs based on the two
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42 326 chloroplastic loci than when calculated with the ISSR data. The different evolutionary dynamics (i.e.
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44 327 differences in strength of the genetic drift and migration and mutation rates) of nuclear and chloroplastic loci
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46 328 could explain these contrasting results. Indeed, chloroplast
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48 329 DNA (cpDNA) is uniparentally inherited and haploid and effective population size of chloroplast loci is four
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50 330 times lower than the one of nuclear loci. Difference in type of inheritance could also lead to contrasting
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52 331 migration rates between loci since cpDNA is only dispersed via seeds while nuclear loci are transmitted and
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54 332 dispersed by both pollen and seeds. Moreover, chloroplastic loci are characterized by a low rate of
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56 333 nucleotide substitution (Hamilton 1999), while ISSR data present a high mutation rate (Tuisima et al. 2016).
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58 334 Because of these differences among marker types, chloroplastic loci have been suggested to better reveal
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4 335 historical changes, especially the population's response to Pleistocene glacial climatic variations, than nuclear
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6 336 loci (Ennos et al. 1999). Contrasting with values of Φ_{ST} between regions reaching up to 0.969 for the
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8 337 chloroplastic loci, our ISSR data showed a high level of admixture between the three genetic groups detected
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10 338 by Bayesian clustering (except in SAN, COR and CES; Fig. 3) and an increasing genetic differentiation
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12 339 among populations with increasing geographic distance (i.e., a pattern of isolation by distance; Fig. S1). We
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14 340 propose that these slight differences in patterns of genetic divergence detected by our two types of molecular
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16 341 markers could be related, in part, to the complex scenario of a combination of historical isolation followed by
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18 342 more substantial gene flow after secondary contact.
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20 343 Historical separation between inter-Andean and Caribbean SDTF remnants has been previously supported by
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22 344 the existence of floristic differences (Pizano and García 2014) and by a strong genetic structure within species
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24 345 distributed in the Caribbean coast and the Cauca river valley (e.g. the tree *Enterolobium cyclocarpum*;
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26 346 Thomas et al. 2017). The range and distribution of SDTF fragments, and concomitantly of the *A. excelsum*
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28 347 populations, has been molded by the history of the region. Recent studies suggest that genetic isolation
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30 348 between SDTF tree populations predate the late Pleistocene (Caetano et al., 2008; Thomas et al., 2017), with
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32 349 genetic differentiation building up in SDTF remnants isolated during the Neogene (Burnham and Carranco
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34 350 2004; Côrtes et al., 2015). Secondary contact between differentiated genetic groups could have occurred
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36 351 during the Pleistocene, a period during which the SDTF range is proposed to have been much larger
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38 352 (Pennington 2009). Indeed, the Pleistocene Arc theory suggests that the present-day SDTF patches represent
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40 353 only relics of a much more contiguous formation extending all around the Amazon basin from the northeast of
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42 354 Brazil to Paraguay, including the inter-Andean valleys of Bolivia, Peru, Ecuador and Colombia, up to the
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44 355 Caribbean coast of Colombia and Venezuela (Prado and Gibbs 1993; Pennington et al. 2000). Even if the
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46 356 Pleistocene Arc theory has been questioned (Werneck et al. 2011), SDTFs are still considered to have
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48 357 occupied a much larger area in the past especially in the north of South America, the Andean region from
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50 358 Bolivia to Peru and along a northern Amazonian block including areas of Colombia, Venezuela and the
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52 359 Guiana highlands. In Colombia, the historically larger areas of SDTF were likely connecting our four regions
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54 360 under study (Pennington 2009; Thomas et al. 2017). The maximum extension of the SDTFs is suggested to
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56 361 concur with the last Glacial–Holocene transition (Werneck et al. 2011). Additionally, a recent palynological
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58 362 and geochemical study of a site close to Mount Paramillo has estimated that vegetation change linked to
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363 wetter and cooler climate, and then a possible recess of the SDTFs, in the northern termination of the
364 Colombian Western Cordillera could be as recent as 4,000 yr before present (Munoz-Uribe 2012). In general,
365 patterns of isolation by distance equilibrate relatively quickly and rely mostly on recent demographic events
366 (Barton et al. 2013). However, for species with long generation times such as some woody trees (trees are
367 generally considered long-lived perennials with lengthy juvenile period; e.g. in Anacardiaceae in Hormaza
368 and Wünsch 2007 and Dinesh et al. 2011), it is possible that the fragmentation of SDTFs is, in our case, yet
369 too recent (< 4,000 yr) to detect its genetic footprint and explains why a pattern of isolation by distance can
370 still be retrieved in *A. excelsum*. Human activities during the last century, as for example the usage of tree
371 seedlings or transplantation from different localities (e.g. one tree from the botanical garden of BOL located
372 in the Caribbean coast had chloroplastic haplotypes typically encountered in the southern part of the country;
373 Fig. 4) or forestry activity could also have artificially increased gene flow between some isolated *A. excelsum*
374 remnants and led to a recent admixture between differentiated genetic groups.
375 For both kinds of markers (ISSRs and chloroplast sequences), the locality of SAN, within the Chicamocha
376 canyon, presented the lowest level of genetic diversity for *A. excelsum* when compared to the other remnants
377 of Colombian SDTFs. Our analyses also provide evidence for possible genetic divergence of SAN from the
378 rest of the Colombian SDTF remnants of *A. excelsum*. During the last decades, this area has been shown to
379 suffer from high and persistent anthropogenic disturbance (Valencia-Duarte et al. 2012), a phenomenon
380 classically related to the existence of recurrent bottlenecks and low genetic diversity in plants (Young et al.
381 1996). We propose that anthropogenic disturbance could have increased the geographic isolations of relics
382 present in the Chicamocha canyon and that this may have ultimately limited gene flow between the natural
383 population of SAN and the rest of the Colombian SDTF remnants. The fragmentation of SDTFs has also led
384 to genetic isolation and inbreeding depression in other tree species in Brazil, such as *Tabebuia ochracea*
385 (Moreira et al. 2009), *T. rosealba*, *Handroanthus chrysotrichus*, *H. impetiginosus* and *H. serratifolius*
386 (Collevatti et al. 2014). Inbreeding depression in plants could lead to a decrease in fecundity, in the number of
387 viable seeds as well as lower survival or lower resistance to stress. Identifying populations potentially affected
388 by inbreeding can be essential for the development of long-term conservation strategies (Keller and Waller
389 2002). An effect of forest fragmentation on pollination success and seed production was documented in *A.*
390 *excelsum* remnants in Costa Rica, a result possibly related to inbreeding depression in this partially self-

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4 391 incompatible tree (Ghazoul and McLeish 2001). Unfortunately, the markers used in our study are dominant
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6 392 (i.e. ISSRs) or haploid (i.e. chloroplastic loci) and do not allow to test for possible traces of inbreeding in *A.*
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8 393 *excelsum* populations. Thus, to facilitate the establishment of strategies that could mitigate risks of local
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10 394 extinction in small isolated remnants of *A. excelsum*, complementary studies focusing on co-dominant
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12 395 molecular markers such as microsatellites or SNPs (Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms) will have to be
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14 396 undertaken.

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16 397 Our study is the first attempt to provide genetic information at the country level for *A. excelsum*, a native
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18 398 species representing a good candidate for local and national restoration programs of SDTFs. *A. excelsum* is
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20 399 generally propagated by seeds since other methods, such as in vitro propagation or cuttings, have been proven
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22 400 remarkably difficult (Barreto et al. 2007). No specific biological knowledge is required to grow *A. excelsum*
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24 401 from seeds since the percentage of germination without any further treatment lies around 50% or higher
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26 402 (Barreto et al. 2007). Restoration of SDTF is included in the National Strategy for Plant Conservation of
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28 403 Colombia (NSPC), a recent environmental legislation aiming at the rehabilitation, recovery and conservation
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30 404 of disturbed areas in Colombia (Pizano and García 2014; MiniAmbiente 2015). Herein, Regional
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32 405 Autonomous Corporations (hereafter noted RAC) are in charge of the restoration and reforestation programs,
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34 406 and have begun with the implementation of such plans for *A. excelsum*, as for example the RAC of
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36 407 Cundinamarca (CAR) and the RAC of Tolima (CORTOLIMA) in the Magdalena river valley, and the RAC of
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38 408 the Cauca Valley (CVC) and the RAC of Quindío (CRQ) in the Cauca river valley (Morales 2016, KT
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40 409 Bocanegra-González pers. obs.). To meet the goals proposed in the NSPC, *A. excelsum* seedlings from
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42 410 various nurseries and from different bioclimatic life zones (as defined by the Holdridge life zones system;
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44 411 Holdridge 1947) are generally mixed up when reestablishing SDTFs, without considering the potential
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46 412 introduction of new genetic variants and genetic pollution in the newly restored region, or the usage of seeds
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48 413 that are poorly adapted to the new local conditions (MiniAmbiente 2015). Seedlings from mixed origins could
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50 414 generate highly genetically diverse *A. excelsum* populations and potentially increase short-term resilience of
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52 415 the reforested patches (Jump et al. 2009). However, this artificial gene flow can contribute to long-term
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54 416 population decline via outbreeding depression and genetic swamping (see Hufford & Mazer 2003 for a
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56 417 review). Because we do not yet know enough to predict which crossing scenarios have a risk for outbreeding
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58 418 depression in *A. excelsum*, we advise against mixing seeds or plants from regions showing genetic divergence,
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419 or using trees from off-regional sources in transplantation programs using *A. excelsum*. Finally, because of the
420 apparent genetic isolation and very low genetic diversity of *A. excelsum* in the Chicamocha canyon in the
421 state of Santander, we propose to prioritize this area within future conservation programs.

422

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431

432 Data Archiving Statement

433 The distinct haplotypes detected were deposited in GENBANK under numbers MG309720-MG309723 and
434 MG309724- MG309726 for *rpl20-rps12* and *trnL-trnF*, respectively. This information is also available in the
435 materials and methods’ section.

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585 Table 1. Sampling localities of *Anacardium excelsum* and associated genetic diversity for seven inter-simple sequence repeat (ISSR) primers. For each locality,
586 the abbreviation (code), geographic coordinates, number of samples/number of samples genotyped with the seven ISSRs (Ns/Nsp), number of effective alleles
587 (Ne), percentage of polymorphic loci (%P), Shannon's index (I), expected heterozygosity (He) are displayed.

Region	Locality	Code	Geographic coordinates	Ns/Nsp	Ne	%P	I	He
Magdalena river valley	Armero	ARM	5°00'42.59"N 74°54'39.35"W	15/14	1.50	89.9	0.43	0.28
	Mariquita	MAR	5°14'49.05"N 74°53'20.60"W	15/13	1.53	80.7	0.43	0.29
	Ibagué	IBG	4°25'35.47"N 75°12'46.66"W	16/16	1.52	91.2	0.46	0.30
	Venadillo	VEN	4°40'31.14"N 74°49'20.06"W	15/15	1.62	94.7	0.52	0.35
	Chaparral	CHA	3°45'10.53"N 75°32'26.29"W	6/4	1.45	71.9	0.39	0.26
Cauca river valley	Medellín	MED	6°19'35.09"N 75°30'44.34"W	5/5	1.36	56.1	0.31	0.20
	Cali	CLI	3°26'52.31"N 76°33'30.44"W	10/10	1.50	85.9	0.45	0.30
	Armenia	QUI	4°30'43.23"N 75°39'03.07"W	5/5	1.43	75.4	0.39	0.25
Caribbean coast	Pueblo nuevo	COR	8°28'22.14"N 75°30'36.71"W	3/3	1.42	57.8	0.34	0.23
	Turbaco	BOL	10°33'44.54"N 75°22'30.71"W	3/3	1.39	59.6	0.33	0.22
	Manaure	CES	10°13'56.89"N 73°02'03.08"W	3/3	1.30	40.3	0.24	0.16
	Corozal	SUC	9°17'16.62"N 75°13'44.68"W	4/0	-	-	-	-
Chicamocha canyon	Bucaramanga	SAN	7°07'14.40"N 73°08'39.89"W	6/6	1.30	40.3	0.23	0.16
Mean						69.9	0.38	0.23

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589 Table 2. Genetic diversity of *Anacardium excelsum* for two chloroplastic loci (*trnL-trnF* and *rpl20-rps12*). For each locality, the abbreviation (code, as in Table 1),
590 number of sequences (N); number of haplotypes (nH); gene diversity (Hd); nucleotide diversity (π); number of polymorphic sites (S) and a list of haplotypes
591 (Hap) are given. In the haplotype list, the haplotype's name is directly followed by the number of sampled individuals carrying that haplotype, in parentheses.

Region	Code	<i>trnL-trnF</i>						<i>rpl20-rps12</i>					
		N	nH	Hd	π (.10 ⁻³)	S	Hap.	N	nH	Hd	π (.10 ⁻³)	S	Hap.
Magdalena river valley	ARM	15	1	0	0	0	H1(15)	14	1	0	0	0	H1(14)
	MAR	14	2	0.14	0.98	5	H1(13), H2(1)	14	2	0.14	0.37	2	H1(13), H2(1)
	IBG	16	1	0	0	0	H1(16)	14	1	0	0	0	H1(14)
	VEN	12	1	0	0	0	H1(12)	14	4	0.40	1.00	3	H1(11), H2(1), H3(1), H4(1)
	CHA	4	1	0	0	0	H1(4)	5	1	0	0	0	H1(5)
Cauca river valley	MED	5	2	0.40	2.74	5	H1(1), H2(4)	5	2	0.40	1.04	2	H1(1), H2(4)
	CLI	7	1	0	0	0	H1(7)	8	1	0	0	0	H1(8)
	QUI	3	1	0	0	0	H1(3)	5	1	0	0	0	H1(5)
Caribbean coast	COR	1	1	–	–	–	H2(1)	0	–	–	–	–	–
	BOL	3	3	1.00	4.57	5	H1(1), H2(1),	3	2	0.67	2.60	3	H1(2), H4(1)

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							H3(1)						
	CES	2	1	0	0	0	H1(1), H3(2)	3	3	1.00	2.60	3	H1(1), H3(1), H4(1)
	SUC	1	1	-	-	-	H3(1)	1	1	-	-	-	H3(1)
Chicamocha canyon	SAN	6	1	0	0	0	H2(6)	6	1	0	0	0	H2(6)
Total A.		89	3	0.33	1.36	5		92	4	0.34	0.86	3	
		<i>excelsum</i>											

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596 Table 3. Analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA) for *Anacardium excelsum* distributed across four Colombian regions for: A) seven nuclear inter-simple
 597 sequence repeat (ISSR) primers, B) *trnL-trnF* chloroplastic sequences and C) *rpl20-rps12* chloroplastic sequences. Regions were defined as in Table 1:
 598 Magdalena river valley, Cauca river valley, Caribbean coast, and Chicamocha canyon.

Source of variation	d.f.	Sum of squares	Variance components	% total variance
ISSR				
Among regions	3	62.417	0.633	6%
Within regions	90	959.370	10.660	94%
Φ_{ST}	0.056 ($p = 0.012$)			
<i>trnL-trnF</i>				
Among regions	3	36.415	0.868	75%
Within regions	83	23.585	0.284	25%
Φ_{ST}	0.753 ($p < 0.0001$)			
<i>rpl20-rps12</i>				
Among regions	3	11.460	0.254	57%
Within regions	85	16.046	0.189	43%
Φ_{ST}	0.573 ($p < 0.0001$)			

599 Levels of significance are based on 10,000 permutations
 600 Note that the locality of BOL, corresponding to a botanical garden, was not included in the analysis.

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601 Figure legends

602 Figure 1. Principal co-ordinates analysis (PCoA) of *Anacardium excelsum* populations based on seven nuclear inter-simple sequence repeat (ISSR) primers.

603 Shades of grey correspond to the four sampled regions (Magdalena river valley: white, Cauca river valley: black, Caribbean coast: dark grey and Chicamocha
604 canyon: light grey; see Table 1 for more information on the localities and the abbreviation codes).

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606 Figure 2. Genetic differentiation among populations of *Anacardium excelsum*. A map including all the sampled localities is given on the left panel (A) and shades
607 of grey correspond to the four sampled regions (Magdalena river valley: white, Cauca river valley: black, Caribbean coast: dark grey and Chicamocha canyon:
608 light grey). The codes of each locality correspond to those noted in Table 1. B) Median-joining networks for the *trnL-trnF* and *rpl20-rps12* chloroplastic loci. In
609 the networks, the size of each circle represents the occurrence rate of each haplotype and the shades of grey the corresponding sampling regions. Substitutions are
610 indicated by a short line and the gap by a black square. C) Dendrogram computed according to the genetic similarity (Nei, 1978) through the SAHN (Sequential
611 Agglomerative, Hierarchical and Nested Clustering) method using the NTSYS software. Data from seven nuclear inter-simple sequence repeat (ISSR) primers
612 was used for tree reconstruction.

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614 Figure 3. Bayesian assignment of individuals of *Anacardium excelsum* into genetic clusters using the program STRUCTURE based on seven nuclear inter-simple
615 sequence repeat (ISSR) primers. A) Values obtained for the mean posterior probability of the data ($\ln \Pr(X|K)$) and plotted against various values of K tested,
616 suggesting K= 3 as the most likely number of clusters. B) Bayesian assignment of individuals into K = 3 genetic clusters. Each individual is represented by a
617 vertical line, and each color represents a single cluster. The height of each color denotes the probability of an individual being assigned to the respective cluster.
618 Individuals are arranged into populations from which they were sampled. C) Distribution of individuals with distinct level of admixture between genetic groups
619 across sampled localities of *A. excelsum*. The pie charts' color-code is: red = individuals assigned to the red genetic group with cluster membership of 0.60 or

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620 higher, yellow = individuals assigned to the yellow genetic group with cluster membership of 0.60 or higher, blue = individuals assigned to the blue genetic group
621 with cluster membership of 0.60 or higher and white with black stripes = admixed individuals. Circles sizes are proportional to number of individuals. The code
622 of each locality corresponds to those noted in Table 1.

623
624 Figure 4. UPGMA tree obtained for the concatenated chloroplastic data set (i.e., joining *trnL-trnF* and *rpl20-rps12*) of *Anacardium excelsum*. *Anacardium*
625 *occidentale* (KY635877) was used as an outgroup. Bootstrap values (1,000 replicates) are given when superior to 75. For each unique concatenated sequence,
626 localities where encountered - directly followed by the number of sampled individuals presenting this sequence between parentheses - are given. Correspondence
627 with haplotypes presented in Table 2 for the *trnL-trnF* and *rpl20-rps12* is given on the right for each unique concatenated sequence. Abbreviations of locality
628 names are noted in Table 1.

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631 Supporting Information

632 Table S1. ISSR's primers used in Colombian *A. excelsum* populations, with their respective sequences, annealing temperatures and number of bands.

Primer	Sequence (5'-3')	Anneling temperature (°C)	Bands	References
UBC-809	AGA GAG AGA GAG AGA GG	48	9	Soares et al 2016; Tuisima et al, 2016
UBC-810	GAG AGA GAG AGA GAG AT	49	6	Soares et al 2016; Tuisima et al, 2016
UBC-811	GAG AGA GAG AGA GAG AT	53	10	Zhou et al, 2014; Duarte et al, 2015; Soares et al 2016
UBC-823	TCT CTC TCT CTC TCT CC	57	6	Hu et al 2014; Soares et al 2016
UBC-825	ACA CAC ACA CAC ACA CT	52.2	9	Hu et al 2014; Zhou et al, 2014; Duarte et al, 2015; Soares et al 2016
UBC-835	AGA GAG AGA GAG AGA GYC	48	9	Zhou et al, 2014; Duarte et al, 2015
UBC-841*	GAG AGA GAG AGA GAG AYC	55	-	Hu et al 2014; Zhou et al, 2014; Duarte et al, 2015; Tuisima et al, 2016
UBC-844*	CTC TCT CTC TCT CTC TRC	46	-	Hu et al 2014; Duarte et al, 2015
Chris*	CACACACACACACAYG	50	-	Guler, 2012
Jhon	AGA GAG AGA GAG AGYC	53	8	Duarte et al, 2015
Mean			8.14	

* Not kept for genetic analyses due to high numbers of missing data, see Results section for details.

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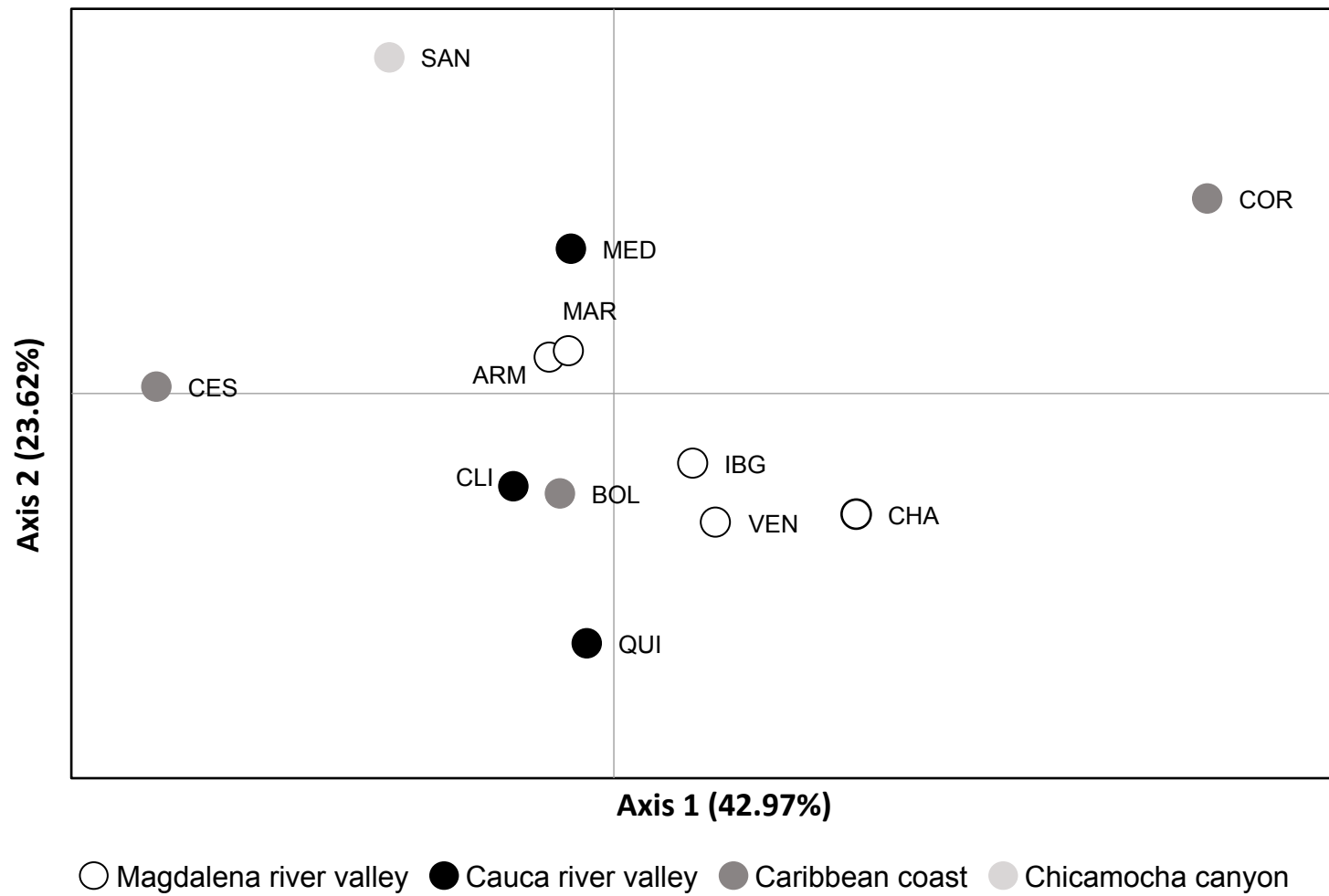
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641 distributed and endemic species in China, detected by inter-simple sequence repeat (ISSR). *Biochem Sys Ecol* 56:104-110
642 Soares ANR, Vitória MF, Nascimento ALS et al (2016) Genetic diversity in natural populations of mangaba in Sergipe, the largest producer State in Brazil. *Genet*
643 *Mol Res* 15:1503-8624
644 Tuisima-Coral LL, Hlásná-Čepková P, Lojka B et al (2016) Genetic diversity in *Guazuma crinita* from eleven provenances in the Peruvian Amazon revealed by
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646 Zhou TH, Wu KX, Qian ZQ et al (2014) Genetic diversity of the threatened Chinese endemic plant, *Sinowilsonia henryi* Hems. (Hamamelidaceae), revealed by
647 inter-simple sequence repeat (ISSR) markers. *Biochem Sys Ecol* 56:171-177

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649 Table S2: Matrices based on pairwise Φ_{ST} distance between sampling regions of *Anacardium excelsum* using molecular markers (values below the diagonal and
650 significance, $p < 0.05$, in bold). Levels of significance are based on 10,000 permutations (values above diagonal). Results are given for seven nuclear inter-simple
651 sequence repeat (ISSR) primers, and two chloroplastic loci: *trnL-trnF* and *rpl20-rps12*. Regions were defined as in Table 1. Note that the locality of BOL,
652 corresponding to a botanical garden, was not included in the analysis.

ISSR				
Region	Magdalena river valley	Cauca river valley	Caribbean coast	Chicamocha canyon
Magdalena river valley	–	0.006	0.005	0.001
Cauca river valley	0.025	–	0.374	0.003
Caribbean coast	0.072	0.005	–	0.002
Chicamocha canyon	0.121	0.101	0.263	–
<i>trnL-trnF</i>				
Region	Magdalena river valley	Cauca river valley	Caribbean coast	Chicamocha canyon
Magdalena river valley	–	0.005	0.000	0.000
Cauca river valley	0.355	–	0.111	0.003
Caribbean coast	0.898	0.295	–	0.016
Chicamocha canyon	0.969	0.619	0.417	–
<i>rpl20-rps12</i>				
Region	Magdalena river valley	Cauca river valley	Caribbean coast	Chicamocha canyon
Magdalena river valley	–	0.043	0.005	0.000
Cauca river valley	0.105	–	0.069	0.002
Caribbean coast	0.626	0.200	–	0.004
Chicamocha canyon	0.882	0.669	0.503	–

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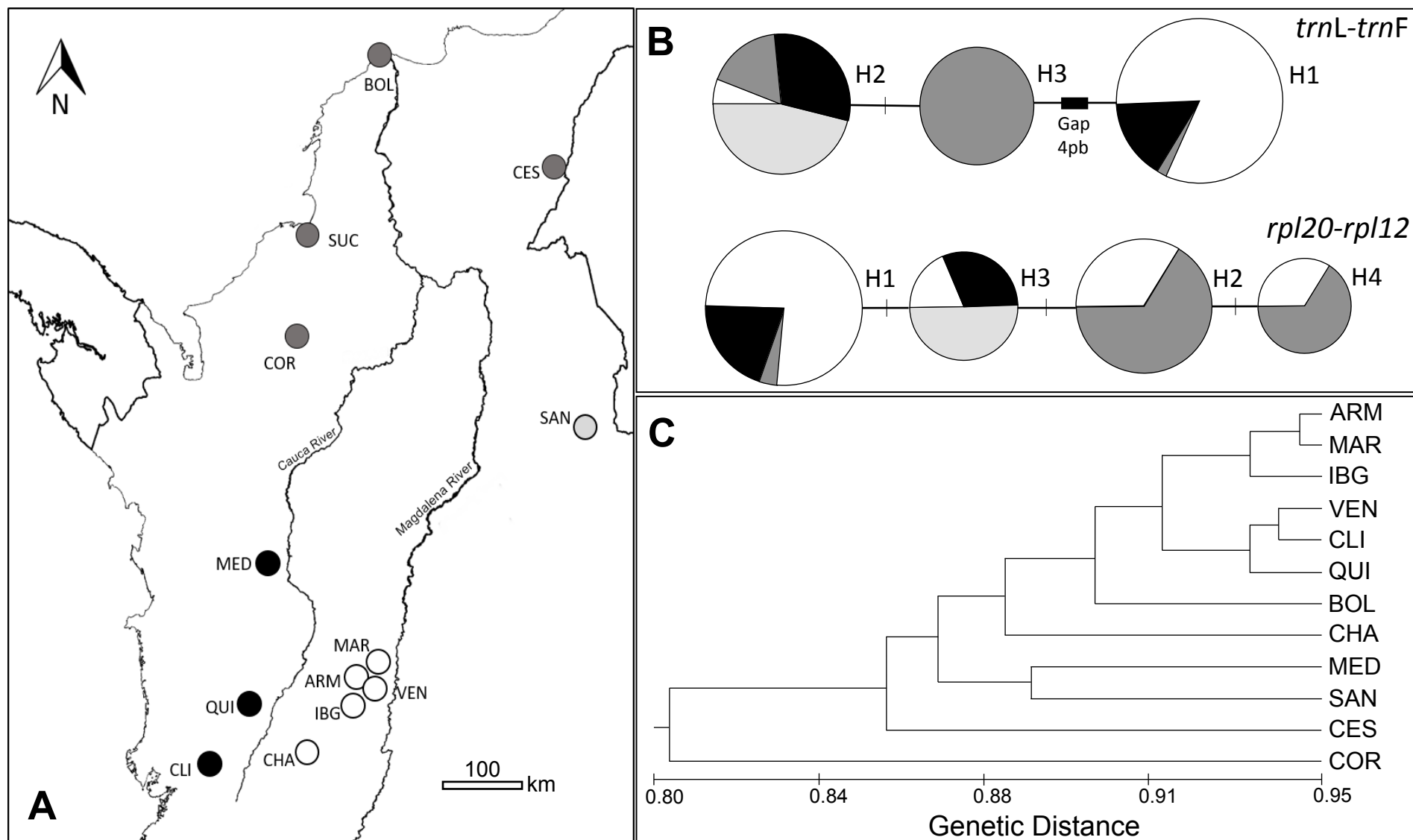


Figure 3

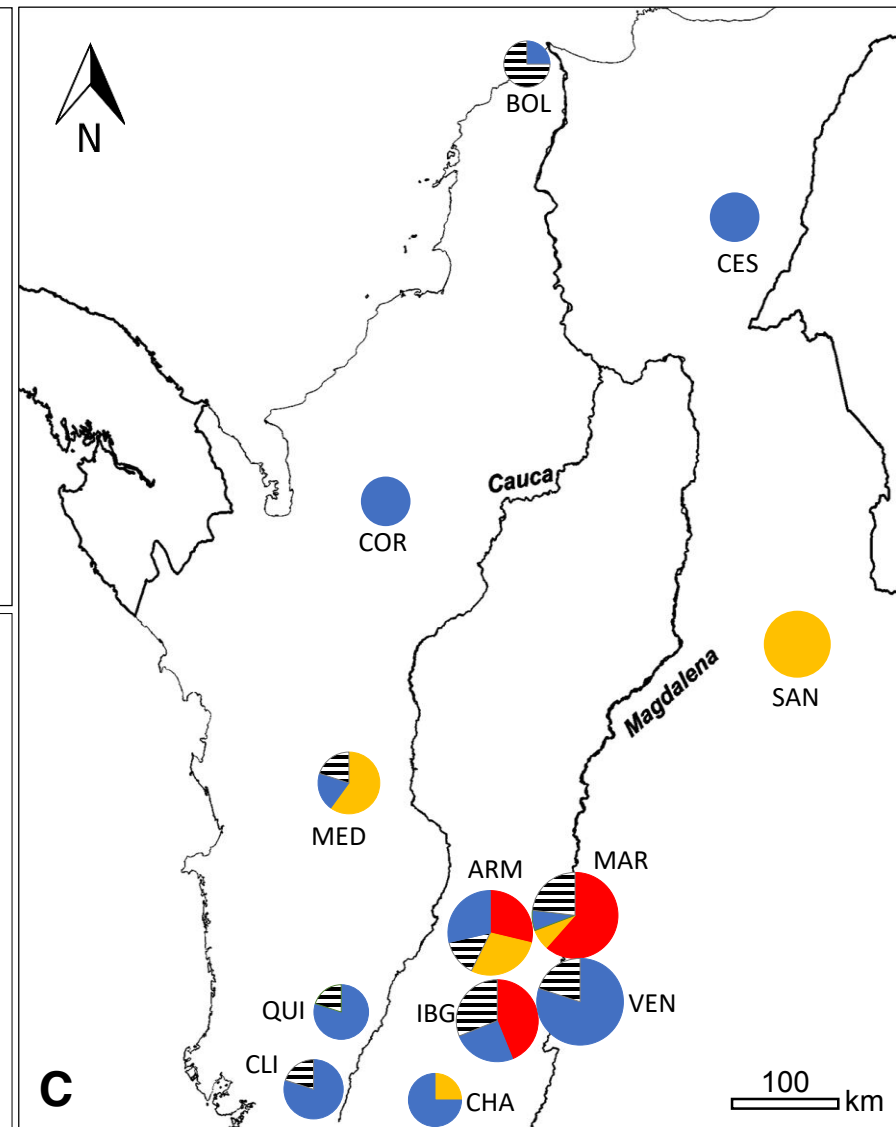
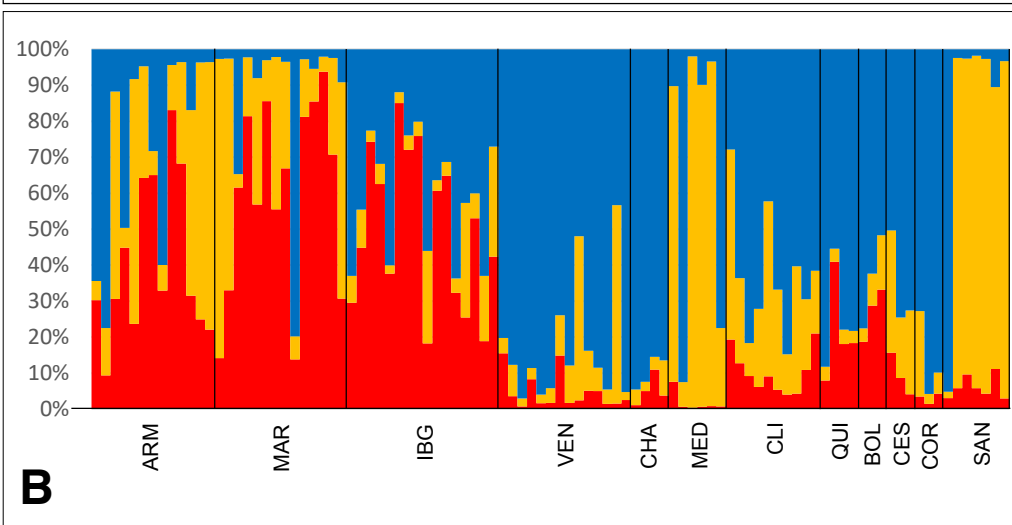
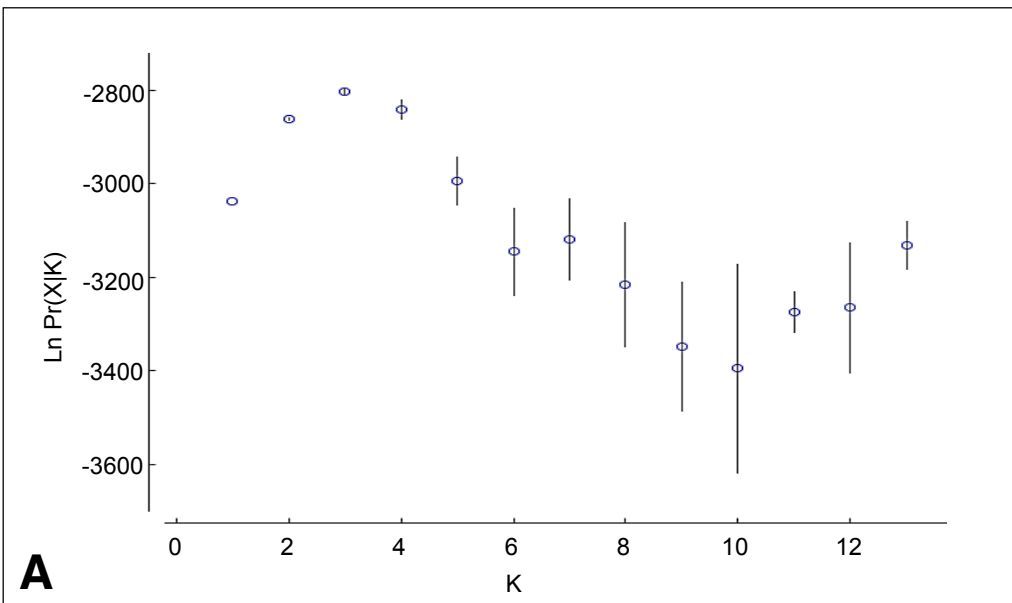


Figure 4

