

Research paper

Genetic diversity and population structure of *Camellia huana* (Theaceae), a limestone species with narrow geographic range, based on chloroplast DNA sequence and microsatellite markers

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ABSTRACT

Camellia huana is an endangered species with a narrow distribution in limestone hills of northern Guangxi and southern Guizhou provinces, China. We used one chloroplast DNA (cpDNA) fragment and 12 pairs of microsatellite (simple sequence repeat; SSR) markers to assess the genetic diversity and structure of 12 *C. huana* populations. A total of 99 alleles were detected for 12 polymorphic loci, and eight haplotypes and nine polymorphic sites were detected within 5200 bp of cpDNA. *C. huana* populations showed a low level of genetic diversity ($n = 8$, $Hd = 0.759$, $Pi = 0.00042$ for cpDNA, $N_A = 3.931$, $H_E = 0.466$ for SSRs), but high genetic differentiation between populations ($F_{ST} = 0.2159$ for SSRs, $F_{ST} = 0.9318$ for cpDNA). This can be attributed to the narrow distribution and limestone habitat of *C. huana*. STRUCTURE analysis divided natural *C. huana* populations into two groups, consistent with their geographical distribution. Thus, we suggest that five natural *C. huana* populations should be split into two units to be managed effectively.

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1. Introduction

Conservation of rare and endangered species and their sustainable utilization relies on research into their genetic diversity, population differentiation, and gene flow (Yang et al., 2010; Zaya et al., 2017). Genetic diversity is an important part of conservation biodiversity (Ramanatha Rao and Hodgkin, 2002) and essential for maintaining both the ability to cope with environmental

changes and the evolutionary potential of species (Bhattacharyya and Kumaria, 2015; Ellstrand and Elam, 1993). Genetic variation may be correlated with the geographical distribution range of species (Solórzano et al., 2016). Species with a wide geographical range might maintain higher levels of genetic diversity than species with limited range (Chung et al., 2018; Levy et al., 2016). In particular, rare or endemic species with restricted distribution range and small population size are characterized by poor genetics (Solórzano et al., 2016; Zaya et al., 2017).

Camellia huana T. L. Ming et W. J. Zhang is a small shrub with yellow flowers belonging to *Camellia* sect. *Archecamellia* Sealy (Theaceae) (Fig. 1). The distribution of *C. huana* is very narrow, being restricted to evergreen, broad-leaved forests in the limestone hills of Tian'e County in northern Guangxi and Luodian County, Ceheng County and Xingren County in southern Guizhou, China. *C. huana* is the most northerly species of sect. *Archecamellia* and shows a discontinuous distribution with other sect. *Archecamellia* species. It may be better adapted to northern climates (Logan et al., 2019) and is of great significance in the introduction of yellow-flowered *Camellia* to the north. Although the total number of *C. huana* plants was once more than 310,000, by 2013, only about

Abbreviations: AMOVA, analysis of molecular variance; cpDNA, chloroplast DNA; CTAB, cetyl trimethylammonium bromide; PCoA, principal coordinate analysis; PCR, polymerase chain reaction; SMM, stepwise mutation model; SSC, small single-copy; SSR, simple sequence repeat; TPM, two-phased model.

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Fig. 1. *Camellia huana*. Wild plant (a), flower (b), fruit (c).

30,000 individuals existed in natural populations (An, 2005; Xie et al., 2014). A great number of *C. huana* plants have been transplanted because *C. huana* is an ornamental plant and its flowers and leaves can be used as tea. *C. huana* is listed as an Endangered (EN) species on the Threatened Species List of China's Higher Plants (Qin et al., 2017).

In the present study, we combined biparentally inherited microsatellites (simple sequence repeats; SSRs) with uniparentally inherited chloroplast DNA (cpDNA) to investigate the genetic diversity and structure of *C. huana*. Microsatellites are effective molecular tools for assessing genetic variation, characterized by their high variability, low cost of detection, large distribution and co-dominant inheritance (Abbasov et al., 2018; Spooner et al., 2007). cpDNA displays conserved gene order, low mutation rate and a lower effective population size than nuclear genes, and is thus suitable for providing supplementary and more accurate information on population variation and differentiation (Huang et al., 2011). In *C. huana*, cpDNA is maternally inherited and dispersed by seeds (Birky, 2008). This study aimed to (1) estimate the level of genetic diversity within and between *C. huana* populations, (2) infer the genetic structure and differentiation of *C. huana*, and (3) develop effective conservation strategies and management measures.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Plant materials

The entire distribution area of *C. huana* was surveyed in 2018 and 2019, and only five natural populations were found, in Tian'e County, Guangxi. Four populations were from the Longtan Nature Reserve (populations DLT, NRT, HLT and JSP). A total of 358 individual *C. huana* samples were collected from these five natural

populations and seven other populations directly transplanted from wild habitats: three in the south of Guizhou province, and the remaining four in the north of Guangxi. Twenty-nine to thirty individuals were collected randomly from each population. One plant was sampled approximately every 10–50 m in the natural populations, depending on the size of each population. The location and number of sampled individuals for each population are provided in Table 1 and Fig. 2a.

2.2. Molecular procedures

Healthy, fresh leaves were harvested and stored with silica gel in zip-lock plastic bags until DNA isolation. Genomic DNA was extracted according to a modified CTAB method (Doyle and Doyle, 1990). Extracted DNA was dissolved in 50 μ L 1 \times TE buffer for use as PCR templates. Primer pairs described by Wei et al. (2017) and Xi et al. (2012) were adopted for amplifying a cpDNA fragment from the small single-copy (SSC) region comprising the following three fragments: SSC1, CP30 and SSC3. PCR products were sequenced using the same primers plus four internal sequencing primers: SSC1-1, CP30-1, CP30-2 and SSC3-1 (Supplemental file 1: Table S1).

PCR amplification of cpDNA was carried out in 50 μ L reactions containing 5 μ L 10 \times PCR buffer (Mg^{2+} plus), 4 μ L dNTP mix (2.5 mM), 0.5 μ L each primer (50 μ M), 0.5 μ L rTaq DNA Polymerase (all reagents from TaKaRa, China), 2.0 μ L DNA (20 ng) and 37.5 μ L double-distilled water. PCR amplification was performed in a thermocycler under the following conditions: initial 5 min denaturation at 94 $^{\circ}$ C; followed by 35 cycles of 1 min at 94 $^{\circ}$ C, 30 s annealing at specific annealing temperatures, 1 min elongation at 72 $^{\circ}$ C; and final extension for 10 min at 72 $^{\circ}$ C. All PCR products were directly purified and sequenced. All chloroplast haplotype

Table 1
Details of *Camellia huana* sample locations, sample size, haplotype diversity (H_d) and nucleotide diversity (P_i) of cpDNA sequences, and genetic parameters for SSR markers.

Population code	Population location	Longitude (E)/latitude (N)	Elevation (m)	Estimated census size	Sample size SSR (cpDNA)	cpDNA		SSR						
						Haplotypes (number)	Haplotype diversity (<i>H_d</i>)	Nucleotide diversity (<i>P_i</i>)	<i>N_A</i>	<i>N_E</i>	<i>H_O</i>	<i>H_E</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>PPB</i> (%)
Maoguishan (MGS) population	Xiaogan village, Luokun town	106°40′/25°17′	861	–	30 (10)	C5 (9) C6 (1)	0.200	0.00004	5.417	2.908	0.506	0.605	0.161	100.00
Ecuncun (ECC) population	E village, Hongshuihe town	106°40′/25°11′	394	–	30 (10)	C3 (3) C5 (7)	0.467	0.00009	4.833	2.629	0.478	0.531	0.177	100.00
Tianbacun (TBC) population	Tianba village, Maojin town	106°57′/25°16′	1048	–	30 (10)	C7 (6) C8 (4)	0.533	0.00021	4.333	2.601	0.589	0.566	−0.054	91.67
Laojiangpingtun (LJPT) population	Naming village, Xialao town	106°50′/25°10′	734	–	30 (10)	C5 (10)	0	0	3.917	2.279	0.378	0.446	0.196	100.00
Weiguantun (WGT) population	Niuchang village, Xiangyang town	106°55′/25°07′	854	–	29 (10)	C6 (10)	0	0	4.250	2.351	0.440	0.464	0.042	91.67
Najietun (NJT ^a) population	Hekou village, Pojie town	107°00′/25°11′	840	–	30 (10)	C4 (10)	0	0	4.333	2.230	0.433	0.455	0.009	91.67
Daliangtun (DLT ^a) population	Pojie village, Pojie town	106°59′/25°09′	525	210	30 (10)	C5 (10)	0	0	3.750	2.002	0.458	0.420	−0.095	83.33
Narangtun (NRT ^a) population	Pojie village, Pojie town	107°00′/25°09′	680	1601	30 (10)	C5 (10)	0	0	3.417	2.410	0.542	0.515	−0.065	100.00
Henglitun (HLT ^a) population	Quangping village, Xiangyang town	106°58′/25°07′	508	600	30 (10)	C1 (9) C2 (1)	0.200	0.00004	4.167	2.458	0.528	0.505	−0.050	91.67
Xiaodongzi (XDZ) population	Long'e village, Bala town	107°06′/24°58′	900	–	30 (10)	C3 (10)	0	0	2.833	1.722	0.411	0.356	−0.130	83.33
Jianshipo (JSP ^a) population	Tangying village, Liupai town	107°09′/24°58′	732	200	30 (10)	C3 (10)	0	0	3.083	1.729	0.353	0.339	0.038	91.67
Longbutun (LBT) population	Tangying village, Liupai town	107°09′/24°57′	804	–	29 (10)	C3 (10)	0	0	2.833	1.946	0.374	0.388	0.014	83.33
Total				17021	358 (120)		0.759	0.00042						
Mean									3.931	2.272	0.457	0.466	0.025	92.36

N_A , number of mean alleles; N_E , number of effective alleles; H_o , observed heterozygosity; H_E , expected heterozygosity; F , fixation index; PPB , percentage of polymorphic loci.
^a Natural population; the remaining populations were transplanted directly from wild habitats.

sequences generated in this study were deposited in GenBank under accession numbers MN380425–MN380432.

Microsatellite markers were selected from previously developed microsatellites in *Camellia pingguoensis* D. Fang (Lu et al., 2014) and *Camellia flavida* H. T. Chang (Liufu et al., 2014). PCR amplification was carried out in 20 μ L reactions containing 2 μ L 10 \times PCR buffer (Mg^{2+} plus), 0.4 μ L dNTP mix (10 mM), 0.2 μ L each primer (50 μ M), 0.2 μ L rTaq DNA Polymerase (all reagents from TaKaRa, China), 1.0 μ L DNA (20 ng) and 16 μ L double-distilled water. PCR amplifications were performed in a thermocycler under the same conditions as cpDNA fragment amplification. Preliminary screening identified 12 microsatellite loci (Supplemental file 1: Table S2) for further use in this study. The selected primer pairs were labeled with a fluorescent dye at the 5' end, and their PCR products were separated and visualized using an ABI3730 automated sequencer (Applied Biosystems, USA). Microsatellite marker profiles were read using the Genemarker software (Softgenetics, USA).

2.3. cpDNA sequence analysis

All sequences were aligned using MUSCLE (Edgar, 2004). Population genetic parameters, including the number of haplotypes (n), haplotype diversity (H_d), nucleotide diversity (P_i) and number of polymorphic sites (S), were calculated for aligned cpDNA sequences using DNAsp version 5.0 (Librado and Rozas, 2009).

The software PermutCpSSR (Pons and Petit, 1996) was employed for evaluating differentiation for unordered alleles (G_{ST}) and ordered alleles (N_{ST}) under 1000 stochastic permutations, to test for the presence of phylogeographic structures with significant differences between G_{ST} and N_{ST} . Analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA) (Excoffier et al., 1992) was implemented using Arlequin 3.0 (<https://www.fousoft.com/arlequin.html>), to study the genetic variation partitioned within and among populations. Meanwhile, pairwise fixation indices (F_{ST}) were also calculated using this method. Any correlation between the matrices of F_{ST} genetic differentiation and geographical distance were studied by performing a Mantel test (Mantel, 1967) using GenAlEx6.5 (<http://biology-assets.anu.edu.au/GenAlEx/Welcome.html>).

Network analysis (<http://www.fluxus-engineering.com/sharenet.htm>) was performed to construct a haplotype network using the median-joining method (Bandelt et al., 1999), analyzing the genealogical relationships among all the haplotypes. ArcMap GIS (<http://desktop.arcgis.com>) was then used to map the geographical distribution of populations and haplotypes.

2.4. SSR analysis

GenAlEx6.5 (<http://biology-assets.anu.edu.au/GenAlEx/Welcome.html>) was used for dataset editing and formatting. Genepop version 4.2.2 (<http://genepop.curtin.edu.au/>) was used for testing departure from Hardy–Weinberg equilibrium and estimating linkage disequilibrium, and the sequential Bonferroni method (Rice, 1989) was used to correct significance levels for each population and each locus. Differentiation between pairwise populations based on F_{ST} was calculated using Arlequin 3.0 (<https://www.fousoft.com/arlequin.html>), and gene flow between population pairs was estimated using Wright's method, $N_m = (1 - F_{ST})/4F_{ST}$ (Wright, 1931). Genetic parameters, consisting of mean number of alleles (N_A), observed heterozygosity (H_o), expected heterozygosity (H_E), percentage of polymorphic loci (PPB), fixation index (F) and inbreeding coefficient (F_{is}) for each microsatellite locus, were calculated using GenAlEx6.5.

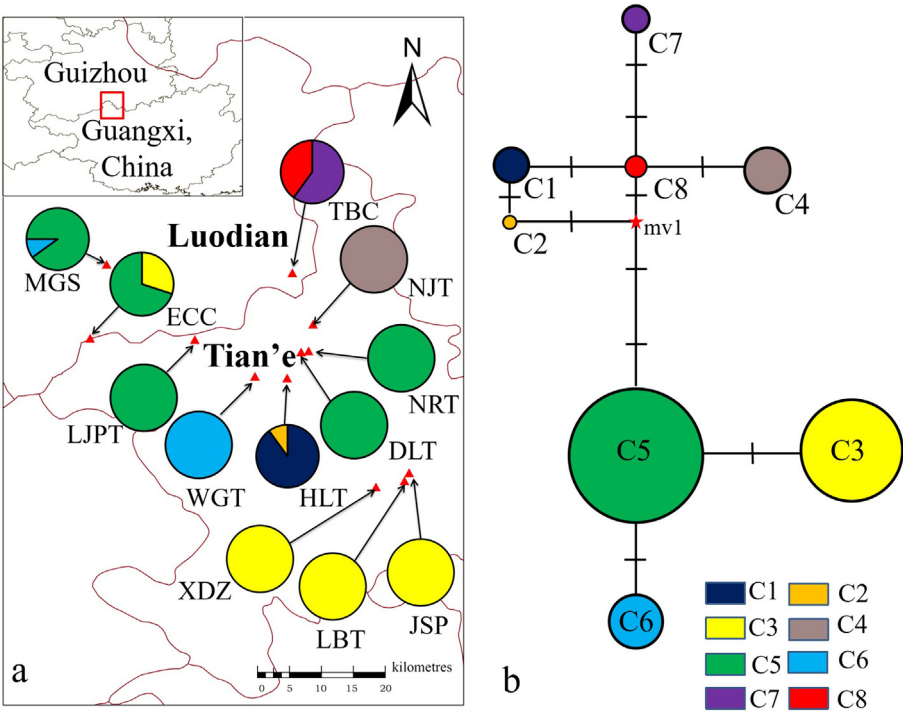


Fig. 2. Distribution of 12 *Camellia huana* populations (see Table 1 for population codes). Distribution (a) and network (b) of cpDNA haplotypes detected among 12 populations of *C. huana*. In (b), the size of the circle is proportional to the frequency of each sampled haplotype and the lines on the branches indicate the number of steps separating adjacent haplotypes.

An admixture model based on the Bayesian clustering method was performed with SSR data in STRUCTURE 2.3 (<http://web.stanford.edu/group/pritchardlab/structure.html>) to determine whether species were genetically distinct. A total of 20 independent simulations were run for a K-value of 1–13 with 100,000 burn-in steps followed by 500,000 steps. Structure harvester (<http://taylor0.biology.ucla.edu/structureHarvester/>) was then utilized to estimate the most likely number (K) (Rosenberg et al., 2001) of genetic clusters based on both log-likelihood L (K) and delta K (ΔK) (Evanno et al., 2005) methods. Principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) was carried out using GenAlEx6.5. Mantel tests in GenAlEx6.5 were performed to estimate isolation by distance for SSR data, using a correlation of $F_{ST}/(1-F_{ST})$ (Mantel, 1967) with geographic distance for all pairs of populations.

Bottleneck 1.2.02 (Cornuet and Luikart, 1996) was used to test for recent bottleneck events in the species. The demographic history of populations was explored under the stepwise mutation model (SMM) and two-phased model (TPM), and by a heterozygosity excess test. Computation was performed using two methods (Sign and Wilcoxon tests) appropriate for a population number < 20.

3. Results

3.1. cpDNA sequences

cpDNA consensus sequences from 120 individuals (10 per population) were 5200 bp in length containing nine polymorphic sites with no indels (Table 2). We identified eight chloroplast haplotypes (Table 1). Haplotypes C1 and C2, and haplotypes C7 and C8 were unique to populations HLT and TBC, respectively; haplotype C4 was fixed for population NJT. Haplotype C5 was the most abundant haplotype with wide distribution in five populations (MGS, ECC, LJT, DLT and NRT); haplotypes C3 and C6 were shared by four

populations (ECC, XDZ, JSP and LBT) and two populations (MGS and WGT), respectively. Genetic diversity indices of total nucleotide (P_i) and haplotype (H_d) diversity in all populations were 0.00042 (individually ranging from 0 to 0.00021) and 0.759 (individually ranging from 0 to 0.533), respectively, as inferred from cpDNA (Table 1). We detected cpDNA sequence variation only within four populations (MGS, ECC, TBC and HLT).

To further study population genetic structures of *C. huana*, we examined genetic differentiation by detecting sequence variation in cpDNA sequences across the 12 natural and transplanted populations. Analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA) revealed that the majority of genetic variation (93.18%) existed between populations, while only 6.82% was partitioned within populations at the cpDNA level (Table 3). The F_{ST} value of 0.9318 also indicated relatively large differentiation between the sampled populations. In addition, no significant correlation was detected between genetic and geographic distance at the cpDNA level ($R^2 = 0.0189$, $P = 0.180$) (Supplemental file 1: Fig. S1a).

To further investigate the relationship between haplotypes, we constructed a network using the median-joining method for cpDNA

Table 2
Summary of polymorphisms in cpDNA sequences.

Haplotype	Polymorphic sites								
	60	178	658	1425	1572	2610	2757	3285	5153
C1	T	C	T	C	G	T	T	T	C
C2	.	.	G
C3	.	.	G	A	.	G	C	G	.
C4	G	.	.	T
C5	.	.	G	.	.	G	C	G	.
C6	.	.	G	.	A	G	C	G	.
C7	C	T	.	.	.	G	.	.	.
C8	G	.	.	.

(Fig. 2b). Haplotypes C5 and C8 took central positions while the other haplotypes were distributed on outside nodes in the network. This distribution pattern suggested that haplotypes C5 and C8 likely represent the ancient haplotypes for this distribution area. We found a significantly larger N_{ST} of 0.932 than G_{ST} of 0.856 ($P < 0.05$) for cpDNA data, suggesting pairs of different cpDNA haplotypes from the same populations have more similar sequences than pairs from different populations.

3.2. SSR data

Hardy–Weinberg equilibrium test results showed that four of the 144 locus–population combinations deviated from expectation after Bonferroni correction, and no significant linkage disequilibrium was found, suggesting that the 12 microsatellite loci represented independent information across all samples.

Diversity estimates were summarized for each locus (Supplemental file 1: Table S3). A total of 99 alleles at 12 SSR loci were revealed across 358 individuals (approximately 30 per population) from 12 *C. huana* populations. The total number of alleles (N_T) per locus ranged from three (at locus FLA14) to 12 (at loci FLA11 and TER14), with a mean of 8.25 alleles per locus. The number of effective alleles (N_E) per locus varied from 1.135 (at locus FLA14) to 3.430 (at locus TER2), with a mean of 2.272. The observed (H_o) and expected (H_E) heterozygosity ranged from 0.053 (at locus FLA14) to 0.857 (at locus FLA21) and from 0.078 (at locus FLA14) to 0.656 (at locus FLA11), respectively.

Intra-population microsatellite variation parameters are listed in Table 1. The number of mean alleles (N_A) per population varied from 2.833 (populations XDZ and LBT) to 5.417 (population MGS), with an average number of 3.931 across all populations. The average number of effective alleles (N_E) for all populations was 2.272, varying from 1.722 (population XDZ) to 2.908 (population MGS). The average values of H_o and H_E for all populations were 0.457 and 0.466, respectively; H_o values varied from 0.353 (population JSP) to 0.589 (population TBC) and H_E values from 0.339 (population JSP) to 0.605 (population MGS). The fixation index (F) varied from -0.130 (population XDZ) to 0.196 (population LJPT), with a mean value of 0.025. The above parameters show that population MGS possesses the highest genetic diversity.

By STRUCTURE analysis of SSR data, we estimated the optimum number of groups (K) according to the procedure described by Evanno et al. (2005). The highest delta K (ΔK) for 358 individuals was $K = 2$ (Fig. 3a), suggesting that the 12 populations can be split into two groups. Populations XDZ, JSP and LBT were assigned to Group I; the remaining populations (MGS, ECC, TBC, LJPT, WGT, NJT, DLT, NRT and HLT) composed Group II (Fig. 3b). The existence of two groups was also supported by principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) (Fig. 4). cpDNA-based haplotype geographical distribution revealed that there was only one haplotype (C3) in Group I (populations XDZ, JSP and LBT; Fig. 2). Although haplotype C3 also existed in a cultivated population (ECC) of Group II, it may have been introduced from Group I; therefore, haplotype C3 may be a unique haplotype of group I.

AMOVA analysis of SSR data showed that 21.59% genetic variation resided between populations, and 78.41% within populations. Estimates of gene flow for each pair between the 12 populations are presented in Table 4. The maximum gene flow was observed between populations DLT and ECC (0.184), whereas the minimum gene flow was observed between populations LJPT and JSP (0.347). No significant effect of isolation by distance was discovered (Supplemental file 1: Fig. S1b) as the correlation between genetic and geographic distance was insignificant ($R^2 = 0.0234$, $P = 0.360$), which was supported by the results of the Mantel test.

Mutation–drift equilibrium estimated under different models and methods was calculated using Bottleneck analysis (Supplemental file 1: Table S4). This revealed that *C. huana* did not experience a population contraction. Under the TPM, populations TBC and NRT showed a significant excess of heterozygosity using the Wilcoxon test ($P < 0.05$); under the SMM, four populations (TBC, NJT, DLT and JSP) had a significant excess of heterozygosity using the Sign test. This indicates five populations (TBC, NJT, DLT, NRT and JSP) deviated from mutation–drift equilibrium. However, all populations had normal L-shaped distributions under the Mode shift model, suggesting that *C. huana* has not undergone a recent severe bottleneck.

4. Discussion

4.1. Chloroplast and microsatellite diversity in *Camellia huana*

cpDNA and microsatellite markers in *C. huana* revealed a low level of genetic diversity ($n = 8$, $H_d = 0.759$, $P_i = 0.00042$ for cpDNA, $N_A = 3.931$, $H_E = 0.466$ for SSRs). Relationships between geographic range and level of genetic diversity, at both the population and species levels, tend to be strong (Solórzano et al., 2016). Theoretically, plant species with geographically restricted distribution often possess reduced genetic diversity compared with more widespread species (Coates et al., 2003; Yoichi and Tomaru, 2014; Levy et al., 2016; Chung et al., 2018). As expected, *C. huana*, with limited distribution, possessed relatively lower genetic diversity than many of its relatives with more widespread distribution based on similar markers, e.g., *Camellia taliensis* (W. W. Smith) Melchior (Liu et al., 2012; Zhao et al., 2014), *C. flavida* (Wei et al., 2017), *C. sinensis* (L.) O. Kuntze (Yao et al., 2012) and *C. japonica* L. (Ueno et al., 2000) (Table 5). Furthermore, the expected heterozygosity in *C. huana* measured by SSR markers ($H_E = 0.466$) was slightly higher than the average value based on SSRs in endemic species ($H_E = 0.420$) but considerably lower than that in regional or widespread species ($H_E = 0.650$ and $H_E = 0.620$) (Nyblom, 2004). *C. huana* shows a discontinuous distribution with other yellow-flowered *Camellia* species, resulting in limited hybridization and introgression between *C. huana* and its relatives. This discontinuous distribution may also contribute to the low genetic diversity.

Similar to *C. huana*, many other yellow-flowered *Camellia* species, such as *Camellia chrysanthoides* H. T. Chang (Chen et al., 2019), *Camellia micrantha* S. Y. Liang et Y. C. Zhong (Chen et al., 2019), *Camellia parvipetala* J. Y. Liang et Su (Chen et al., 2019), *Camellia nitidissima* Chi (Li et al., 2019; Lu et al., 2020) and *C. nitidissima* Chi var. *microcarpa* Chang et Ye (Lu et al., 2019), exhibit a small distribution range and low level of genetic diversity (Table 5). Many natural populations have disappeared owing to excessive land use and transplantation. The number of individuals in the surviving natural populations has declined sharply (Chen et al., 2019; Li et al., 2019; Lu et al., 2019). The influence of human factors is not reflected in the results of the present study. In the future, the genetic diversity of these *Camellia* species may be further eroded by these adverse disturbances. It is therefore urgent to strengthen the protection of existing populations of these yellow-flowered *Camellia* species.

4.2. Genetic structure and differentiation of *Camellia huana*

Genetic differentiation between *C. huana* populations in this study was high ($F_{ST} = 0.2159$ for SSRs, $F_{ST} = 0.9318$ for cpDNA). The dispersal mechanism of a species can influence the level of gene flow and patterns of genetic structure among populations (Miao et al., 2017); in *C. huana*, this includes the migration and movement of both seeds and pollen. A previous study suggested that

Table 3
Analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA) based on cpDNA haplotype frequencies and SSRs for populations of *Camellia huana*.

Marker	Source of variation	d.f.	Sum of squares	Variance components	Percentage of variation (%)
cpDNA	Among populations	11	121.942	1.10051	93.18
	Within populations	108	8.700	0.08056	6.82
SSR	Among populations	11	545.180	0.78229	21.59
	Within populations	704	2002.351	2.84425	78.41

d.f., Degrees of freedom.

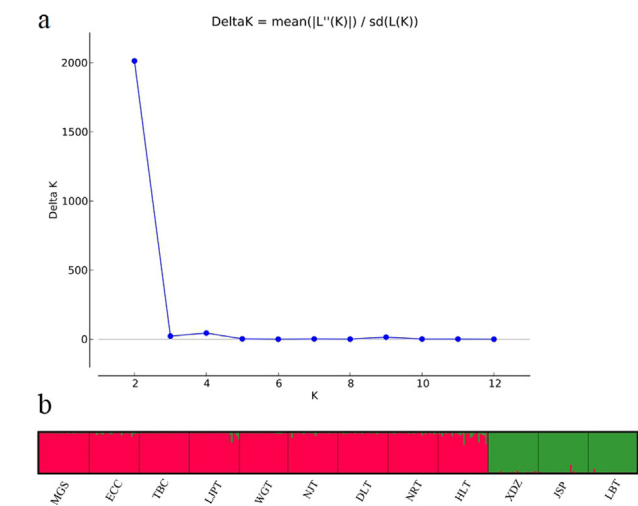


Fig. 3. Relationships between the number of genetic groups (K) and the estimated value delta K (ΔK) based on the SSR dataset (a). Estimated genetic clustering (K = 2) obtained with the STRUCTURE program for 12 populations of *Camellia huana*; each color represents a different cluster (b).

seeds of the congener *C. japonica* were mainly transmitted by gravity with limited movement (Ueno et al., 2000). Parentage analysis of seedlings of *C. flavida* in a 15 hm² plot revealed a seed dispersal distance of 0.65–51.05 m (mean 12.47 m), with 81.0% of dispersed seeds found within 20 m (Peng and Tang, 2017). Our fieldwork found that *C. huana* seeds are also large and heavy, so we speculate that they disperse by gravity without long-distance movement, contributing to the limited cytoplasmic seed-

mediated gene flow. Low gene flow ($Nm = 0.073$ for cpDNA) between populations also confirmed this inference. Although the pollen transmission mechanism of *C. huana* is still unclear, the related species *Camellia petelotii* (Merrill) Sealy receives frequent sunbird and honeybee visitors (Sun et al., 2017). *C. flavida* has a pollen dispersal distance of 3.06–194.73 m (mean 29.03 m), with 72.2% of dispersed pollen found within 20 m (Peng and Tang, 2017). The natural populations of *C. huana* grow in evergreen, broad-leaved forests on limestone. Limestone landforms are natural “terrestrial islands” exhibiting spatial isolation on restricted land masses (Gao et al., 2015). Therefore, the limestone habitat may have led to the discontinuous distribution of *C. huana* and prevented the transmission of seeds and pollen, resulting in restricted gene flow among populations and increased genetic differentiation. Although we identified two genetic groups consistent with geographical distribution using SSR markers, there was only one mutational step between the chloroplast haplotype (C3) of group I and the chloroplast haplotype (C5) of group II. Whether there is a morphological differentiation between members of these groups remains to be determined.

4.3. Conservation implications

Genetic diversity is the driving force for adaptation to various changeable environments, and one of the main purposes of conservation genetics is to maintain the genetic diversity of threatened species (Lowe et al., 2005; Bhattacharyya and Kumaria, 2015). According to the results of our STRUCTURE analysis, the five natural *C. huana* populations should be split into two management units, and we should place more emphasis on in situ conservation. Since one management unit contains only the JSP population with about 200 individuals, we should give this population highest priority for

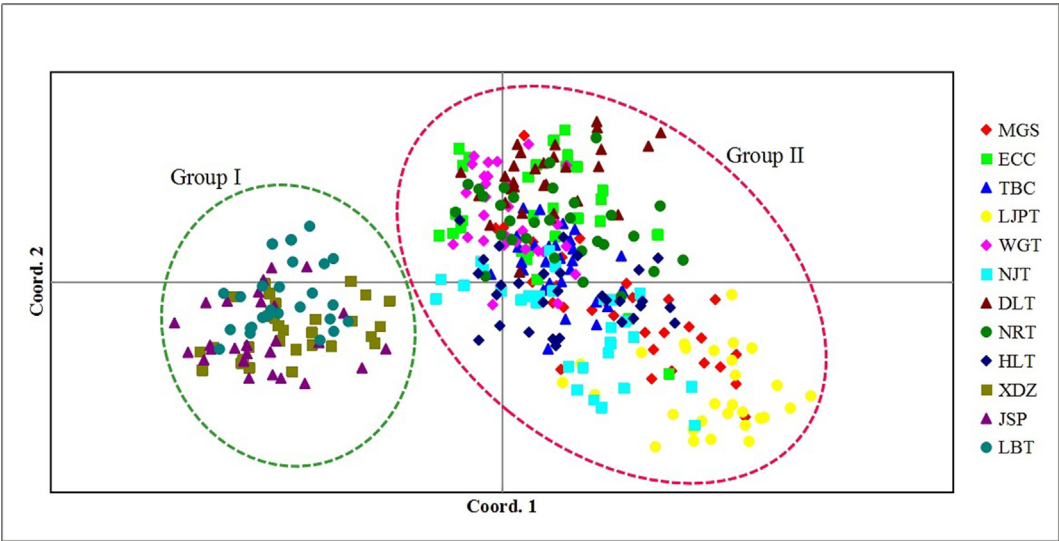


Fig. 4. Principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) of SSR phenotypes from 12 populations and 358 individuals of *Camellia huana*.

Table 4Pairwise comparisons of F_{ST} (below the diagonal) and Nm (above the diagonal) for 12 populations of *Camellia huana* based on the SSR dataset.

	MGS	ECC	TBC	LJPT	WGT	NJT	DLT	NRT	HLT	XDZ	JSP	LBT
MGS	—	3.208	3.138	1.852	1.636	3.324	1.419	1.591	2.336	0.707	0.658	0.744
ECC	0.072	—	2.518	0.807	3.084	1.590	9.184	2.290	1.527	0.800	0.694	0.920
TBC	0.074	0.090	—	0.830	1.796	1.857	1.159	1.290	1.562	0.665	0.617	0.843
LJPT	0.119	0.236	0.232	—	0.579	1.048	0.537	0.650	0.737	0.375	0.347	0.364
WGT	0.133	0.075	0.122	0.301	—	1.647	1.315	1.416	1.230	0.685	0.624	0.729
NJT	0.070	0.136	0.119	0.193	0.132	—	0.836	1.242	1.464	0.670	0.629	0.640
DLT	0.150	0.027	0.177	0.318	0.160	0.230	—	1.263	0.808	0.519	0.449	0.579
NRT	0.136	0.098	0.162	0.278	0.150	0.168	0.165	—	1.338	0.586	0.559	0.630
HLT	0.097	0.141	0.138	0.253	0.169	0.146	0.236	0.157	—	0.633	0.582	0.660
XDZ	0.261	0.238	0.273	0.400	0.268	0.272	0.325	0.299	0.283	—	1.489	1.040
JSP	0.275	0.265	0.288	0.419	0.286	0.284	0.357	0.309	0.300	0.144	—	1.897
LBT	0.251	0.265	0.229	0.407	0.255	0.281	0.302	0.284	0.275	0.194	0.116	—

Table 5Genetic diversity comparison of several *Camellia* species.

	SSR		cpDNA			References
	Number of mean alleles	Expected heterozygosity	Number of haplotypes	Haplotype diversity	Nucleotide diversity	
<i>Camellia huana</i>	3.931	0.466	8	0.759	0.00042	This study
<i>Camellia taliensis</i>	6.776	0.597	12	0.84129	0.00314	Liu et al. (2012); Zhao et al. (2014)
<i>Camellia flavida</i>	—	—	17	0.94101	0.00157	Wei et al. (2017)
<i>Camellia sinensis</i>	4.3	0.640	—	—	—	Yao et al. (2012)
<i>Camellia japonica</i>	16.5	0.840	—	—	—	Ueno et al. (2000)
<i>Camellia chrysanthoides</i>	3.7	0.431	—	—	—	Chen et al. (2019)
<i>Camellia micrantha</i>	3.8	0.476	—	—	—	Chen et al. (2019)
<i>Camellia parvipetala</i>	3.9	0.501	—	—	—	Chen et al. (2019)
<i>Camellia nitidissima</i>	3.881	0.546	7	0.837	0.00082	Li et al. (2019); Lu et al. (2020)
<i>Camellia nitidissima</i> var. <i>microcarpa</i>	4.4	0.533	—	—	—	Lu et al. (2019)

conservation; the other management unit contains four populations (NJT, DLT, NRT and HLT). High levels of genetic differentiation among populations suggest that the transplanted populations originated from the neighboring limestone mountains, respectively. Therefore, some ex situ conservation measures are necessary for transplanted populations, with as many sample individuals as possible covering all populations.

Author contributions

Shuang Li, Shang-Li Liu, Si-Yu Pei and Man-Man Ning collected plant samples. Shuang Li, Shang-Li Liu and Si-Yu Pei performed the experiments. Shuang Li analyzed the data and wrote the manuscript. Shao-Qing Tang designed and supervised the study, and also wrote and revised the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pld.2020.06.003>.

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