

1    **Recent speciation and adaptation to aridity in the ecologically diverse Pilbara region of**  
2    **Australia enabled the native tobaccos (*Nicotiana*; Solanaceae) to colonize all Australian**  
3    **deserts**

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5                   **Running title: Evolutionary history of native Australian tobacco**

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20

21   **Abstract**

22   For the last six million years, the arid Australian Eremaean Zone (EZ) has been as dry as  
23   today. An accepted hypothesis, applied to arid regions worldwide, suggests that flora and  
24   fauna were more broadly distributed before aridification began. In Australia, this aridification  
25   process started around 20 million years ago (Mya), leading to gradual speciation processes

26 via vicariance as the climate became increasingly arid. Here, we use genomic data to  
27 investigate the biogeography and timing of divergence of native allotetraploid tobaccos,  
28 *Nicotiana* section *Suaveolentes* (Solanaceae), which putatively entered the EZ 5 Mya. The  
29 original allotetraploid migrants from South America were adapted to mesic areas of Australia  
30 and putatively radiated recently in the EZ, including sandy dune fields (only 1.2 My old),  
31 after developing drought adaptations. Based on coalescent and maximum likelihood analyses  
32 designed to corroborate timing of the Australian radiation independently, arrival of *Nicotiana*  
33 section *Suaveolentes* on the continent occurred approximately 6 Mya, and ancestors of the  
34 Pilbara (Western Australian) lineages radiated there at the onset of extreme aridity 5 Mya by  
35 locally adapting to these various ancient, highly stable habitats. The Pilbara thus served as  
36 both a mesic refugium and cradle for adaptations to harsher conditions. This dual role is due  
37 to its high topographical diversity, providing microhabitats with varying moisture levels, and  
38 its proximity to the ocean, which buffers against extreme aridity. Consequently, species like  
39 *Nicotiana* have been able to survive in mesic refugia during arid periods and subsequently  
40 adapt to more arid conditions. These results demonstrate that initially poorly adapted plant  
41 groups can develop novel adaptations *in situ*, permitting extensive and rapid wide dispersal  
42 despite the highly variable and unpredictable extremes of heat and drought in the EZ.

43

44 **Key words:** *Nicotiana* section *Suaveolentes*; phylogenomics; biogeography; drought  
45 adaptation; dispersal; diversification.

46

## 47 **Introduction**

48 The evolution of plant groups in the Eremaean Zone of Australia has been explained through  
49 three primary models: vicariance, pre-adapted immigration, and *in situ* adaptation. However,  
50 these models are not mutually exclusive and may operate concurrently or sequentially within

51 different taxa. Vicariance, for instance, involves the gradual isolation and divergence of  
52 widespread taxa due to increasing aridity, as seen in *Eucalyptus* (Myrtaceae) and *Acacia*  
53 (Fabaceae) (Martin, 2006; Byrne et al., 2008). In contrast, pre-adapted immigration,  
54 potentially (African or Asian) immigrant clades, supported by studies on *Triodia*, *Ptilotus*  
55 and other Amaranthaceae (Toon et al., 2015; Shepherd et al., 2004; Kadereit & Freitag, 2011;  
56 Hammer et al., 2021), suggests that some species arrived already equipped for arid  
57 conditions. Lastly, in situ adaptation, although less documented, involves the evolution of  
58 arid specialization within the Eremaean Zone itself. Australia has several of the oldest known  
59 pieces of the Earth's crust (e.g., the Pilbara Craton, 3.8–2.7 Ga), but thanks to extensive  
60 erosion over such long timescales, these have a generally low-relief topography and few  
61 major physical barriers to dispersal, so it is possible that there is a third model: a group of  
62 organisms lacking xeric specializations could adapt in one region and then disperse over  
63 much of the Australian continent. These processes collectively contribute to the region's  
64 complex biogeography and high levels of endemism.

65 Dispersal events, such as those facilitated by dry tornadoes (in Australia called  
66 willy-willies), have potentially played a crucial role in the diversification of *Nicotiana* in  
67 Australia. These events could enable the initial migration and subsequent wide distribution of  
68 *Nicotiana* species across the continent, contributing to the genetic isolation and  
69 diversification observed in the genus today. Unlike vicariance, which primarily isolates  
70 populations gradually, these dispersal events can rapidly introduce species to novel  
71 environments, creating new opportunities for speciation. However, the evolutionary history  
72 of *Nicotiana* section *Suaveolentes* has been the subject of different hypotheses. One  
73 hypothesis suggests that the origin of *N. section Suaveolentes* dates back to the early Miocene  
74 (ca. 20 Mya), with speciation occurring through a vicariant model of arid-adapted biota. This  
75 model, as described by Cracraft (1991) and Ladiges et al. (2011), proposes that species were

76 progressively isolated as aridification moved from north to south, forming organized "tracks"  
77 of species distributions. Following these primary vicariance-driven distributions, dispersal  
78 events produced a few widespread species. The alternative hypothesis points that *Nicotiana*  
79 only reached Australia around 4–6 Mya, as suggested by Mummenhoff and Franzke (2007)  
80 and Schiavinato et al. (2020), with a more recent radiation occurring in the Eremaean Zone  
81 (Clarkson et al., 2017; Dodsworth et al., 2021). In this scenario, dispersal to the arid interior  
82 would have been the predominant mechanism of diversification, with vicariance playing a  
83 more secondary localized role.

84 The Australian distribution of *Nicotiana* section *Suaveolentes* spans the continent,  
85 except for Tasmania, which putatively makes them ideal for revealing general factors  
86 contributing to arid zone speciation. Furthermore, elucidation of the phylogeographic history  
87 for such widespread groups can be instrumental to understand the major drivers of individual  
88 species distributions. The Australian species are primarily found in the tropics, subtropics and  
89 warm temperate regions and largely absent from cool temperate regions (Ladiges et al.,  
90 2011). There was putatively rapid initial speciation producing a few species in more mesic  
91 areas in northern and eastern Australia, followed by multiple radiations in the EZ (Ladiges et  
92 al., 2011, Chase et al., 2018, 2022a). The current understanding of the biogeography,  
93 phylogenetics and chromosome numbers/genome sizes of *N. section Suaveolentes* (Table 1;  
94 Chase et al., 2002b) are consistent with the ancestral distribution of the genus in Australia  
95 being confined to these northern and eastern parts, where all species with higher chromosome  
96 numbers ( $n = 22\text{--}24$ ) and mostly larger genomes now occur (Fig. 1). As new species  
97 appeared and chromosome numbers and generally genome sizes decreased (Chase et al.,  
98 2002b), they expanded to the dry interior of central and southern Australia, where they are  
99 now highly diverse. Although several EZ species are specialists of more mesic niches,  
100 growing in the shade of trees or rock outcrops, many others inhabit exposed, extremely arid

101 sites (Fig. 1), unexpected for such thin-leaved plants with no obvious adaptations for these  
102 extreme habitats. However, their rapid lifecycle completion following rainfall could  
103 sometimes allow them to avoid the harshest conditions.

104 Here, we have used multispecies coalescent methods on genome-wide single nuclear  
105 polymorphisms (SNPs) combined with biogeographical and novel molecular clock analyses  
106 to evaluate these two competing hypotheses that the radiation of *N. sect Suaveolentes* in the  
107 EZ started either as early as 20 Mya or as late as 6 Mya. The former would coincide with the  
108 early stages of aridification in Australia, supporting the vicariance model where species  
109 gradually became isolated and diversified as the climate changed (Ladiges *et al.*, 2011),  
110 whereas if the latter is true then dispersal was the preponderant mechanism and  
111 diversification took place long after the EZ became dry. Inadequate, fine-scale sampling in  
112 such remote areas across the whole continent has limited previous phylogeographic studies,  
113 and existing phylogenetic analyses typically have not sampled species thoroughly either  
114 through lack of sufficient collections or due to the existence of many undescribed “cryptic”  
115 species. After ten years of fieldwork, we have assembled an unprecedented collection of  
116 accessions and nearly trebled the number of species known in this group (Chase *et al.*, 2021,  
117 2022, 2023). We have also extended our taxonomic coverage by recovering additional  
118 taxa/accessions from viable seeds on herbarium specimens up to 25 years old. We first  
119 constructed a species tree for *N. sect Suaveolentes* and implemented dating of the speciation  
120 events to corroborate previous molecule-based age estimates (Clarkson *et al.*, 2017;  
121 Schiavinato *et al.*, 2020; Dodsworth *et al.*, 2021). We then carried out biogeographical  
122 inference to test the relative contribution of dispersal and vicariance to the overall distribution  
123 of the species. Our primary goal is to identify where and when the initial lineages confined to  
124 the wetter parts of the Australian continent became adapted to xeric conditions, providing

125 insights to how they diversified into the myriad, relatively unoccupied niches hypothesized to  
126 be typical of arid zones.

127

128 **Material and Methods**

129 **Plant material**

130 Sampling of 273 accessions from 58 species of *N. section Suaveolentes* (Table S1), extended  
131 the recent studies of Cauz *et al.* (2022), which focused on *N. benthamiana*, and Chase *et al.*  
132 (2022), which examined genome size and chromosome number evolution in this section of  
133 the genus. Most samples were collected by Chase and Christenhusz in the wild and are  
134 vouchered in major Australian Herbaria (AD, BRIS, CANB, CNS, DNA, NSW, NT and  
135 PERTH, the standard acronyms for these collections). Other accessions were added by  
136 germinating viable seeds removed from herbarium specimens. From more than 600  
137 accessions, including roughly 100 from herbarium-stored seeds, we selected the above subset  
138 of 278 samples that it comprised all putative species, including several that are undescribed  
139 and designated here as sp. nov. with a location where we collected these taxa (e.g., *N. sp. nov.*  
140 Coondiner). The maps were generated in QGIS v. 3.20.3 (QGIS Development Team, 2021);  
141 the map layer with the vectors from the drainage and rivers divisions were obtained from the  
142 Australian Government Bureau of Meteorology (<http://www.bom.gov.au/water/geofabric/>).  
143 The provenance data (latitude, longitude) of the accessions were obtained from the  
144 Australasian virtual herbarium (<https://avh.chah.org.au>) and our personal data gathered  
145 during the field collections in Australia.

146

147 **Collecting and import permits**

148 The following collecting permits, which cover these accessions, were issued to MWC and  
149 MJMC: Western Australia SW017148, CE006044, Northern Territory 58658, and

150 Queensland PTU-18001061. Removal of seeds from herbarium specimens was approved by  
151 the curators/collections managers of the following herbaria: AD, BRI, CANB, NSW, NT and  
152 PERTH. All seeds imported into the UK followed published guidelines; plants were grown at  
153 the Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew, under DEFRA PHL2149/194627/5NIRU CERT:106-2019;  
154 HMRC TARIFF CODE: 0601209090. No material collected by us or in our possession will  
155 be exploited for commercial purposes without involvement of the Australian and Aboriginal  
156 authorities, as required by the collecting/export permits.

157

158 **DNA isolation, library preparation and sequencing**

159 From ca. 20 mg of silica-dried leaf tissue, we extracted DNA with the  
160 cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB) procedure (Doyle, 1990), following a 20 min ice-  
161 cold sorbitol buffer treatment (100 mM tris-HCl, 5mM EDTA, 0.35 M sorbitol, pH 8.0).  
162 Then, we used 2.5 µl of RNase A (Thermo Fischer, USA) for 30 min at 37 °C and purified  
163 the extracted DNA using the NucleoSpin gDNA clean-up Kit (Machery-Nagel, Germany),  
164 according to the manufacturer's instructions.

165 DNA samples were first single digested with the PstI restriction enzyme in advance of  
166 library preparations. Although PstI activity is not affected by CG methylation, it is sensitive  
167 to that at CHG sites (H stands for any nucleotide apart from G), a type of methylation  
168 frequently found around plant transposable elements (e.g., Domb *et al.*, 2020), which are  
169 known to have paralogy issues and low phylogenetic signal. The effects of any methylation  
170 variation have been mitigated by filtering for missing data. Libraries were prepared following  
171 Paun *et al.* (2016), as modified by Cauz *et al.* (2022) and Chase *et al.* (2022). Processing in  
172 batches was carried out using index barcodes distinct from one another by at least three bases.  
173 Sequencing was performed at the VBCF NGS Unit ([www.vbcf.ac.at/ngs](http://www.vbcf.ac.at/ngs)) on an Illumina  
174 HiSeq 2500 with 125 bp paired-end reads.

175

176 **SNP calling and phylogenomic analysis**

177 The BamIndexDecoder v.1.03 (included in Picard Illumina2Bam package, available from  
178 <http://gq1.github.io/illumina2bam/>) was used first to process the RADseq data and  
179 demultiplex via the index barcodes in sublibraries. Subsequently, demultiplexing of  
180 individuals via their inline barcodes was conducted in process\_radtags from Stacks v.1.47  
181 (Catchen *et al.*, 2013), together with removal of reads containing uncalled bases or with low  
182 quality-scores.

183 The reference genome of *N. benthamiana* v.2.6.1 (Bombarely *et al.*, 2012, available  
184 from [https://solgenomics.net/organism/Nicotiana\\_benthamiana/genome](https://solgenomics.net/organism/Nicotiana_benthamiana/genome)), a member of *N.*  
185 section *Suaveolentes*, was used on individual read mappings in BWA MEM v. 0.7.17 (Li and  
186 Durbin, 2009) using and applying the -M option to flag shorter splits hit as secondary. We  
187 also checked for biases potentially driven by phylogenetic relatedness to the reference  
188 individual. After alignment, the sam file was sorted by reference coordinates, and read groups  
189 were added using Picard Toolkit v.2.27 (available from <http://broadinstitute.github.io/picard/>).  
190 We used the Genome Analysis Toolkit (GATK) v.3.8 (McKenna *et al.*, 2010) to improve  
191 alignment quality around indels, thinning the data to a maximum of 100,000 reads per  
192 interval.

193 GATK was used to call variants following the best-practice DNaseq  
194 recommendations. First, we inferred genotypes via HaplotypeCaller and GVCF mode for  
195 individual samples and subsequently processed all individual intermediate GVCF in a joint  
196 genotyping analysis in the GenotypeGVCFs module. The raw vcf file was first processed in  
197 VCFtools v.0.1.15 (Danecek *et al.*, 2011) and retained only variants presents in at least 50%  
198 of individuals. We then used the VariantFiltration GATK module with the following criteria:  
199 (1) depth of coverage (DP) < 500; (2) variant confidence (QUAL) < 30.00; (3) variant

200 confidence divided by the unfiltered depth (QD) < 2; (4) Phred-scaled P-value for the  
201 Fisher's exact test to detect strand bias (FS) > 60; (5) a root mean square of mapping quality  
202 across all samples (MQ) < 40; (6) u-based z-approximation from the rank sum test for  
203 mapping qualities (ReadPosRankSum) < -8.0; and (7) u-based z-approximation from the rank  
204 sum test for the distance from the end of the reads with the alternate allele (MQRankSum) < -  
205 12.5.

206 The variant calling and initial filtering steps in GATK produced 7,606,626 variable  
207 sites, but we retained only SNPs with a minor allele frequency  $\geq 0.008$  (i.e., present in at least  
208 four haplotypes), an average depth above 20 and 20% maximum missing data. We also  
209 filtered the data using the populations pipeline in Stacks to retain only variable positions with  
210 a maximum observed heterozygosity of 0.65, thus avoiding the use of pooled paralogs in  
211 further analyses.

212 To investigate phylogenetic relationships among the species of *N.* section  
213 *Suaveolentes*, we first converted the final filtered vcf to a PHYLIP file using PGDspider  
214 v.2.1.1.0 (Lischer & Excoffier, 2012). We removed invariant sites with the script ascbias.py  
215 ([https://github.com/btmartin721/raxml\\_ascbias](https://github.com/btmartin721/raxml_ascbias)). A RAxML v.8.2.12 (Stamatakis, 2014) used  
216 the remaining 170,552 SNPs with the recommended ascertainment bias correction (Lewis,  
217 2001). The phylogenetic tree was inferred under the GTRCAT model of nucleotide  
218 substitution with a search for the best-scoring ML tree and 1,000 rapid bootstrap replicates.  
219 We assigned *N. africana* as the outgroup because it was well-supported sister to the rest of *N.*  
220 section *Suaveolentes* in all previous studies (Chase *et al.*, 2003; Clarkson *et al.*, 2004, 2010,  
221 2017; Marks *et al.*, 2011; Kelly *et al.*, 2013). All species of *N.* section *Suaveolentes* are  
222 allotetraploids, including *N. africana* and *N. benthamiana*, so our analyses do not mix diploid  
223 and polyploid taxa. Finally, we visualized and annotated the best tree in R, using ape v.5.3

224 (Paradis & Schliep, 2018), biostrings (Pagès *et al.*, 2020), ggplot2 (Wickham, 2016), ggtree  
225 (Yu *et al.*, 2017) and treeio (Wang *et al.*, 2020).

226

227 **Coalescent-based species tree and divergence time estimation**

228 To construct a species tree for a reduced and representative matrix of *N. section Suaveolentes*,  
229 we first inferred the relatedness between accessions looking for evidence of introgression,  
230 which would interfere with species-tree inference. This exercise was conducted on a reduced  
231 matrix of 22 species representing the major clades in *N. section Suaveolentes*. After  
232 calculating genotype likelihoods in ANGSD v.0.930 (Korneliussen *et al.*, 2014) and retaining  
233 only variants with a minor allele shared by at least two individuals, we applied a minimum  
234 base mapping quality of 20, SNP calling confidence of  $p < 1e^{-6}$ , and presence in at least 70%  
235 of individuals. The major and minor allele frequencies were estimated using the GATK-based  
236 genotype likelihood model, and our final dataset resulted in 3,201,820 variable positions. For  
237 the inference of coancestry, we used our estimated genotype likelihoods to obtain a  
238 covariance matrix using PCangsd (Meisner & Albrechtsen, 2018), and plotted our data using  
239 the heatmaps.2 function from GPLOTS v.3.0.1.1 (Warnes *et al.*, 2020).

240 To construct the coalescent species tree, we first used the filtered vcf file to prepare a  
241 smaller dataset in VCFtools v.0.1.15 selecting only unlinked biallelic SNPs ( $> 10,000$  bp  
242 apart on a contig) and removing missing data at each locus. This procedure produced a matrix  
243 of 2,400 unlinked single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) for 36 accessions, representing 18  
244 species (two per species) that broadly cover the phylogenetic diversity of *N. section*  
245 *Suaveolentes*. We converted the vcf file containing unlinked SNPs to PHYLIP and then  
246 NEXUS format using PGDSpider v.2.1.1.0, and finally we created the input XML files in  
247 BEAUTi v.2.4.8 (Bouckaert *et al.*, 2014).

248 We constructed the coalescent species tree using SNAPP v.1.2.5 with a chain length  
249 of 10 million and saving a tree every 1,000th generation. We monitored the convergence of  
250 the run based on the ESS values from the log-file with Tracer v.1.6 (Rambaut *et al.*, 2018).  
251 We removed the initial 10% of trees as burn in, visualized the SNAPP trees as a clouddogram  
252 using Densitree v.2.2.6 (Bouckaert & Heled, 2018) and produced the posterior probabilities  
253 for each clade with Treeannotator v.1.8.3 (Drummond *et al.*, 2012). To calibrate the species  
254 tree, we used  $5e^{-09}$  as the rate of substitution per site per generation (Schiavinato *et al.*, 2020)  
255 and one year as generation time (i.e., these plants only rarely live more than one season in  
256 nature). We estimated divergence times by rescaling the results using the total length of  
257 investigated sites for the loci included and total number of polymorphic sites across their  
258 length.

259

## 260 **Ancestral range estimation**

261 For biogeographic inference, we calibrated a RAxML tree using TreePL (Smith & O'Meara,  
262 2012), which produces a dated tree using a penalized likelihood approach, and minimum and  
263 maximum ages to constrain the tree. The minimum and maximum ages used for TreePL  
264 dating were based on the divergence times estimated in our SNAPP species tree. The dated  
265 tree with node ages was visualized using FigTree v1.3.1 (<http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk>). We  
266 obtained the confidence intervals for the node ages and the maximum clade credibility  
267 (MCC) tree summarizing the RAxML bootstrap replicates with Treeannotator v.1.8.3  
268 (Drummond *et al.*, 2012) (Fig. S1).

269 We explored the biogeographic history of *N.* section *Suaveolentes* first by comparing  
270 models in BioGeoBEARS, including DEC, BAYAREALIKE and DIVA plus using the  
271 additional free parameter “j” in each model, which accounts for jump dispersal/founder-event

272 speciation. According to the Akaike information criterion (AIC), the best-fit model was  
273 DIVA+J (Table S2). We then performed the ancestral range estimation using BioGeoBEARS  
274 testing two models of distribution. The first one considered drainage divisions of Australia as  
275 operational areas: A, Africa; B, Pacific, C, Carpentaria Coast; D, Tanami-Timor Sea Coast;  
276 E, north-western Plateau; F, Pilbara-Gascoyne; G, Southwest Coast; H, Southwest Plateau; I,  
277 Lake Eyre Basin; J, Murray-Darling Basin; K, Northeast Coast (Queensland); L, Southeast  
278 Coast (NSW); M, Southeast Coast (Victoria; N, South Australian Gulf. We chose this model  
279 because we had noticed in a previous study (Cauz-Santos *et al.*, 2022) that species  
280 distributions seemed to conform to river drainage basins. Rather than acting as barriers to  
281 gene flow, it is more likely that the drainages serve as conduits, facilitating gene flow through  
282 the dry tornadoes that typically travel across relatively flat landscapes and dissipate upon  
283 encountering uneven terrain. Consequently, dispersal mostly occurring within a drainage  
284 system might make sense in this setting, an aspect that we are planning to investigate further.

285 The second model split *N. section Suaveolentes* into the operational areas from  
286 Ladiges *et al.* (2011): A, Africa, Namibia; B, Pacific; C, eastern Australia; D, south-eastern  
287 Australia; E, south-eastern Interzone; F, north-eastern Interzone 3; G, Adelaide/Eyre; H,  
288 south-western Interzone; I, Pilbara; J, north-western Australia; K, western Desert; L, northern  
289 Desert; M, eastern Desert; N, Nullarbor; O, central Australia. These geographical areas were  
290 defined by Ladiges *et al.* (2011) based on the distribution of narrow-range endemic species,  
291 Australian bioregions recognized by other authors (Burbidge, 1960; Cracraft, 1991; Crisp *et*  
292 *al.*, 1995) and the Interim Biogeographic Regionalisation of Australia (IBRA) v.6.1  
293 (<http://www.environment.gov.au>). The BioGeoBEARS model testing for this distribution also  
294 resulted in the DIVA+J as best fit AIC model (Table S3). In both models, the species  
295 distributions (presence/absence) included a maximum of three areas per species except for  
296 one widespread species, *N. velutina*, although we now believe that this species is much more

297 restricted than previously thought due to discovery that this species concept as previously  
298 defined includes two previously unrecognized species, considerably reducing its distribution.  
299 However, all three form an exclusively related species complex, so in terms of these analyses,  
300 this is an acceptable assumption. The accessions included in our analyses are from only one  
301 of the revised concepts in the *N. velutina* complex (Cauz-Santos, Metschina & Chase,  
302 unpubl.).

303

304 **Results**

305 **Phylogenetic analysis of *Nicotiana* section *Suaveolentes***

306 We obtained an average of 3,053,843 paired-end reads for the 273 accessions used in this  
307 study. The filtered reads mapped onto the *N. benthamiana* reference genome at a high rate (an  
308 average of 95.75%), with a final average coverage across samples of 9.4. The mapped reads  
309 were then used for variant calling, which after filtering resulted in a total of 240,871 SNPs for  
310 a minimum of 80% of individuals. The results shown here expanded the matrix published in  
311 Chase *et al.* (2022) to include many more of the new species. These results were also used to  
312 illustrate the positions of species being described as new (Chase *et al.*, 2023, in press), but the  
313 methods and results of this analysis are here published for the first time. Phylogenetic trees of  
314 *N. section Suaveolentes* (Fig. 2) provide a framework for the other studies conducted for this  
315 paper, but they are not a primary focus here and have not been used previously for these  
316 purposes.

317 The RAxML maximum likelihood (ML) tree was in general highly supported (most  
318 nodes with bootstrap percentage, BP, >90; Fig. 2). For several species, we included multiple  
319 accessions that formed unique and well-supported groups. In total, the tree comprised 18  
320 major clades (numbered as Roman numerals I–XVIII), with *N. africana* (I) outgroup to the  
321 rest of *N. section Suaveolentes* (Clarkson *et al.*, 2011). The basal node comprises *N.*

322 *fatuhivensis* (II) sister to *N. gibbosa*+*N. forsteri* (III), but with low support (BP 76; the only  
323 BP less than 90 along the spine of the ML tree) relative to the position of *N.*  
324 *monoschizocarpa* (IV). *Nicotiana heterantha* (V) and *N. umbratica* (VI) are then successively  
325 sister to the rest, which split into six geographically widespread clades (VII, VIII–XI, X/XI,  
326 XII/XIII, XIV, XV–XVIII).

327

### 328 **Species tree and divergence times**

329 The coancestry heatmap (Fig. 3) shows the clear relatedness among accessions of *N.*  
330 *monoschizocarpa*, which is one of the species at the basal node of the *N.* section  
331 *Suaveolentes*, but this pattern is not evident in the other two species near the basal nodes, *N.*  
332 *africana* and *N. forsteri*. *Nicotiana africana* grouped within the *N. forsteri* accessions with  
333 high coancestry, and additionally, one of the *N. africana* accessions exhibited high coancestry  
334 with the species of the *N. benthamiana* complex. Considering these patterns of introgression  
335 and as only two accessions of *N. africana* have been available to us (a minimum of two  
336 accessions per species is required to produce the species tree), we decided to remove *N.*  
337 *forsteri* and species of the *N. benthamiana* complex from the species tree inference. The  
338 highest coancestry is exhibited by the most recent species groups, *N. gossei*/*N. velutina*, *N.*  
339 *truncata*/*N. excelsior* and *N. maritima*/*N. suaveolens*. Introgression is not a general  
340 phenomenon in *N.* section *Suaveolentes*, but it does seem to be a factor for a few species  
341 pairs.

342 The coalescent species tree for a reduced dataset comprised representative species  
343 from all major clades in *N.* section *Suaveolentes*. We obtained one topology in the SNAPP  
344 analysis with strong support representing 99% of the posterior density distribution (Fig. 4).  
345 The ESS values were used to monitor the convergence of the analysis, from which we  
346 obtained values higher than 200 in each parameter. The species tree places *N. africana* as

347 sister to the rest, consistent with its outgroup position in the ML results (above) followed by  
348 *N. monoschizocarpa*. Subsequently we observed three clades, one comprising (*N.*  
349 *occidentalis*+*N. murchisonica*)+*N. hesperis* (clade XII/XIII in the ML tree), a second with (*N.*  
350 *gascoynica*+*N. simulans*)+*N. stenocarpa* (clade VII–XI in the ML tree) and a major clade (*N.*  
351 *rotundifolia* to *N. gossei*) comprising species from the two remaining major clades in the ML  
352 tree (XIV, XIV–XVIII).

353 In the divergence time estimation, *N. africana* diverged from the remainder of the  
354 section around 6.5 Mya, in the late Miocene. Among the Australian species, the first split, *N.*  
355 *monoschizocarpa* from the rest, was estimated at 6 Mya, followed by clades XI/XII and VI–  
356 XI clades, at 5 and 4 Mya, respectively. Finally, the largest clade, XIV–XVIII, diversified in  
357 the last 1 My.

358

### 359 **Biogeographic history of *Nicotiana* section *Suaveolentes***

360 For the biogeographic analysis, we first evaluated the best model for our dataset including the  
361 possibility of founder-event speciation or jump dispersal (adding the j parameter in  
362 BioGeoBEARS). According to AIC values, the DIVALIKE+J model was best, accounting for  
363 79% of the predictive power found in all tested models. This model allows for the possibility  
364 of anagenetic (dispersal and extinction) and cladogenetic events (vicariance), and the J  
365 parameter added to the model the possibility of founder events. Considering our favored  
366 distribution model (Australian river drainages) and the fact that most species do not occur in  
367 more than one drainage basin, selection of DIVALIKE+J has biogeographical support.

368 The ancestral area reconstruction (DIVALIKE+J and Australian river drainages as  
369 divisions for the distribution species in *N. section Suaveolentes*) resulted in a total of 63  
370 biogeographic events (Table 1, Fig. 5). The results show a combination of anagenetic and  
371 cladogenetic events playing a role in the distribution of this group, with founder events

372 (60.6%) being the main source of speciation, followed by within-area speciation events  
373 (36.4%) and a small proportion of vicariance (3.6%). In the biogeographic tree, the arrival of  
374 the ancestor of the *N. section Suaveolentes* in Australia occurred around 5.2 Mya. Even if the  
375 ancestral range of the species at the basal nodes is unclear (*N. monoschizocarpa*, *N. gibbosa*  
376 and *N. forsteri*), the common ancestor of the rest expanded its distribution around 5 Mya to  
377 the Pilbara region (F), in which several within-area speciation events occurred, resulting in  
378 this region becoming a *Nicotiana* biodiversity hotspot. The Pilbara region (F) as referred in  
379 this study encompasses the Pilbara Craton and adjacent basins of the Gascoyne, Wooramel,  
380 and Murchison Rivers in north-western Western Australia (north of latitude 25°00' S and  
381 west of longitude 121°30' E; Pepper *et al.*, 2013) (Fig. 5). This area is larger than the Pilbara  
382 Bioregion of the IBRA classification, which only covers a portion of region (F), and is  
383 characterized by its unique geological formations, including the ancient Pilbara Craton, and  
384 features a variety of landscapes such as mountain ranges, coastal plains, and arid desert areas.  
385 From the Pilbara, a series of dispersals to the other parts of the EZ occurred, the last of which  
386 was to central and southern Australia. The second model using the areas as defined in  
387 Ladiges *et al.* (2011) also resulted in the Pilbara (region I) being colonized by the species of  
388 *N. section Suaveolentes* around 5 Mya, with a series of dispersal events from there, leading to  
389 the current distribution of this section in central and southern Australia (Table S4, Fig. S2).  
390

## 391 **Discussion**

### 392 **Timing of diversification in the Pilbara region and dispersal to the rest of the Eremaean**

#### 393 **Zone**

394 The evolutionary processes shaping arid-adapted biota are complex and multifactorial, in-  
395 volving in many cases processes as vicariance, isolating populations due to climatic or geo-  
396 logical changes, long-distance dispersal, enabling colonization of new habitats, and in situ

397 speciation, driven by microhabitat differentiation and local environmental pressures. These  
398 mechanisms interact dynamically, creating genetic diversity and endemism. This complexity,  
399 influenced by the harsh and fluctuating conditions of arid environments, results in unique  
400 evolutionary trajectories. Other studies on arid-adapted biota have already demonstrated the  
401 complexity of evolutionary models in these environments (Cracraft, 1991; Byrne et al., 2008;  
402 Ladiges et al., 2011).

403 Our study contributes to this understanding by showing that *N. section Suaveolentes*  
404 first occupied mesic regions of Australia around 6 Mya. Subsequently, these species adapted  
405 to the arid conditions of the Pilbara region around 5 Mya, leading to their widespread  
406 distribution across the Eremaean Zone. This pattern of adaptation and dispersal is significant  
407 within the context of the Australian flora, and while highlights a specific example within *N.*  
408 *section Suaveolentes*, it is important to recognize that similar processes may have occurred in  
409 other plant groups, and further studies may reveal additional examples of such evolutionary  
410 dynamics. Molecular clock methods using multiple calibrations based on species pairs on  
411 oceanic islands/mainland (Clarkson et al., 2005), secondary ages from other analyses  
412 (Clarkson et al., 2017), and various methods of estimating rates of molecular divergence  
413 (Mummenhoff & Frankze 2007; Schiavinato et al., 2021; this paper) produce relatively  
414 consistent age estimates for formation of *N. section Suaveolentes*, ca. 5–7 Mya. Ladiges et al.  
415 (2011) disparaged the estimate of Mummenhoff & Frankze (2007) by citing other molecular  
416 clock studies (more generally on Australian angiosperms) that have provided highly  
417 divergent timings, but those for *Nicotiana* using these several approaches thus far have been  
418 relatively consistent for *N. section Suaveolentes*.

419 We found dispersal to be the predominant mode of evolution for *N. section*  
420 *Suaveolentes* throughout the EZ with some local examples of *in situ* speciation and vicariance  
421 being secondary features. Diversification in each major clade appears to be recent and

422 ongoing, including adaptation to sandy dune fields (e. g., *N. pila*, *N. inglba*, *N. latzii*, *N.*  
423 *velutina*), which only appeared c. 1.2 Mya (Fujioka *et al.*, 2009), concurrent with lower  
424 frequency/higher amplitude glacial cycles worldwide c. 0.8–1.2 Mya (Clark *et al.*, 1999). The  
425 recentness of speciation accounts for the cryptic nature of many recently described *Nicotiana*  
426 species (Chase *et al.*, 2023).

427 However, diversification has not been limited to recent times, and our phylogeny  
428 (Figure 5) reveals significant speciation events that occurred over a prolonged period and  
429 across multiple regions (for example in areas D and H). This pattern highlights a complex  
430 evolutionary history where both recent diversification (approximately 1 Mya) and older  
431 events have played crucial roles in shaping the current diversity of *N. section Suaveolentes*.  
432 The presence of these older diversification events reinforces the importance of considering  
433 the entire temporal framework of evolution within this group, as it reveals the contributions  
434 of different historical processes to their adaptation and speciation in the Eremaean Zone.  
435

### 436 **The Pilbara as a biodiversity hotspot and cradle of novel adaptations**

437 Our results clearly demonstrate that *N. section Suaveolentes* first occupied the more mesic  
438 portions of the Australian continent 6–5 Mya and then diversified (Fig. 5) in the Pilbara re-  
439 gion. Aridity increases from the forested areas of the south-western and eastern coasts (mean  
440 annual rainfall of 1000–2500+ mm) to the hummock grasslands in the desert inland regions  
441 of the continent (< 200 mm; Groves, 1999). Mountains in the Pilbara are located near the  
442 ocean, providing a thermal buffer that maintains relatively stable temperatures. This proximi-  
443 ty to the ocean and varied topography contributes to the region's unique biodiversity and eco-  
444 logical stability. The plants and animals there are exceptionally diverse for an arid region  
445 (Booth *et al.*, 2022), undoubtedly due to the complexity of the landscape with diverse soil  
446 types and topography, long-term geological stability, and presence of abundant refugia (e.g.,

447 multiple gorges with permanent water) providing mesic havens during even the most arid  
448 years (e.g., El Niño years). The high mountains of the Archaean Pilbara Craton (Hammersley  
449 Ranges at 1,500 m) differ from those of the Proterozoic Gascoyne Complex to the south,  
450 which are lower and the product of the collision of the Pilbara and Proterozoic Yilgarn  
451 Cratons (Myers, 1993), and the overall effect of this geological history on the Pilbara region  
452 has been the production of a mosaic of arid and mesic habitats in close proximity, making  
453 them unique on a planetary scale and a laboratory for diversification and evolutionary novel-  
454 ty.

455 The once tropical, forested center of Australia was long ago replaced by extensive arid  
456 lands beginning in the Miocene (23.03–5.33 Mya) reaching into the Pliocene (5.33 to 2.58  
457 Mya) and Pleistocene (2.58 mya to 11,700 kya; Flower & Kennett, 1994). The arid center of  
458 the Australian continent has received much less attention (Byrne *et al.*, 2008) than other  
459 regions, and most detailed studies of evolutionary diversity in Australia have focused  
460 primarily on the tropical rainforests (Bell *et al.*, 2010) and temperate forests (Chapple *et al.*,  
461 2011; Kay & Keogh, 2012).

462 Some plant phylogeographic studies have focused on genetic diversity in the Pilbara  
463 bioregion, but most have examined single or pairs of species endemic to the Pilbara (Levy *et*  
464 *al.*, 2016; Nistelberger *et al.*, 2020; Millar *et al.*, 2022), in which they found high levels of  
465 variation that was not geographically structured due to gene flow across the region. The  
466 Pilbara bioregion has often been found to harbor high levels of diversity also at the species  
467 level, making it a biodiversity hotspot for both plants (Anderson *et al.*, 2016) and animals  
468 (see below), but how much this species diversity has influenced broader biotic patterns in the  
469 EZ has been understudied. Comprehensive environmental surveys in advance of mining  
470 projects, 2002–2007 (McKenzie *et al.*, 2009), resulted in the discovery of hundreds of new  
471 plant and animal species. For beetles and scorpions, 68% and 83%, respectively, could not be

472 assigned to described species (Guthrie *et al.*, 2010; Volschenk *et al.*, 2010). Fine-scale genetic  
473 studies have suggested substantial cryptic diversity and complex genetic patterns across the  
474 Pilbara (Pepper *et al.*, 2008, 2011a; Shoo *et al.*, 2008; Doughty *et al.*, 2010, 2011b; Catullo *et*  
475 *al.*, 2011; Anderson *et al.*, 2016). In contrast to our results, Ladiges *et al.* (2011) found  
476 species diversity in *N.* section *Suaveolentes* to be greatest in central Australia, where several  
477 of their “tracks” overlap, but our findings with highly revised species circumscriptions  
478 identify the Pilbara region as the most diverse in both species numbers and lineages.

479 The only other studies comparable in terms of nearly complete species-level sampling  
480 to ours are those of *Ptilotus* (Amaranthaceae; Hammer *et al.*, 2021) and *Triodia* (Toon *et al.*,  
481 2015; Anderson *et al.* 2016), which both found that the detected high levels of species  
482 diversity in the Pilbara could act as a source of pre-adapted xeric diversity for the rest of the  
483 EZ. However, it is important to note that the species-level sampling in *Triodia* was under-  
484 estimated and included many incorrect identifications, making some interpretations  
485 problematic. Unlike *Ptilotus* and *Triodia*, which both arrived from Africa and Asia pre-  
486 adapted to aridity, the species of *N.* section *Suaveolentes* developed novel adaptation(s) to  
487 aridity *de novo* in the Pilbara before dispersing throughout the EZ. We suspect that a “key”  
488 adaptation for *N.* section *Suaveolentes* is strict inhibition of germination until the precise  
489 conditions for growth and seed production occur. They exhibit no succulence or other  
490 obvious physical attributes typically associated with aridity, and they disappear into the soil  
491 seed bank before the annual onset of summer drought and extreme heat, a key adaptation to  
492 surviving aridity. The species of *N.* section *Suaveolentes* thus experience the arid zone when  
493 it is neither too dry nor too hot, indicating that their distinct ancestral habitats (like those of  
494 tomato and potato), while different from current arid conditions, did not hinder their ability to  
495 find suitable environments for survival and subsequent conquest of the EZ.

496 Because of our improved species circumscriptions (not the different geographical  
497 areas underpinning their analysis), the main distinction between our conclusions and those of  
498 Ladiges *et al.* (2011) is that dispersal rather than vicariance is more explanatory in the  
499 evolution of *N. section Suaveolentes*. In Ladiges *et al.* (2011), dispersal only came into the  
500 picture as the explanation for species with broad distributions, which occurred after  
501 vicariance laid down the general patterns, whereas we envisage lineage diversification to  
502 have taken place in the Pilbara region, after which dispersal took place twice to other parts of  
503 the tropical/subtropical zones (i.e., the *N. benthamiana* and *N. occidentalis* clades; the former  
504 inhabiting only mesic sites), followed by the central and southern districts (the *N. simulans*  
505 clade) and finally the southern central and far southern areas (the *N. suaveolens* clade). In  
506 each of these clades, further diversification outside the Pilbara Region produced species  
507 inhabiting both mesic and xeric habitats, and to adequately address in which direction  
508 preferences changed more study of species limits/phylogenetics is needed. Most widespread  
509 species, e. g., the *N. benthamiana* complex (Cauz-Santos *et al.*, 2022; Chase *et al.*, 2022),  
510 appear to be species complexes, and we are adding more accessions to our analyses to try to  
511 address this issue. Dispersal-mediated founder events and genetic drift could have limited  
512 their evolutionary potential as the individual clades left the Pilbara, reducing their  
513 evolutionary potential and constraining further change, much as these new species were  
514 perhaps spatially constrained by their specializations. The data produced for this study cannot  
515 address these issues, but we have collected additional data for more accessions that will  
516 permit these topics to be investigated in future studies.

### 517 **The importance of evaluating species delimitation**

518 For robust understanding of evolutionary history, species limits must be well understood. If  
519 species limits have not been assessed properly, then the distributions of such taxa are  
520 meaningless biologically. The previous phylogeographic analysis of *N. section Suaveolentes*

521 (Ladiges *et al.*, 2011) relied on the species as delimited by Horton (1981), which was the  
522 basis for the treatment in the *Flora of Australia* (Purdie *et al.*, 1982), plus four others  
523 described after the *Flora* treatment. Here, we updated the analyses using a set of species with  
524 highly modified circumscriptions, including many newly recognized species (Chase *et al.*,  
525 2018, 2021, 2023). For example, in the wider Pilbara region (north-western Western  
526 Australia), only three of 15 species were recognized by Horton (1981); the remaining ten  
527 species have been described in the last five years, mostly discovered during recent fieldwork  
528 (Chase *et al.*, 2021, 2023).

529

### 530 **Implications for conservation planning**

531 Our results highlight the evolutionary significance of the Pilbara region, providing a  
532 foundation for prioritizing areas for conservation and developing management plans. The  
533 phylogenetic and biogeographical results presented in this study can inform conservation  
534 strategies by pointing areas with high species diversity and endemism, suggesting these as  
535 high-priority zones for conservation efforts. Protecting these areas can help preserve the  
536 evolutionary potential and ecological functions of the Pilbara's unique flora.

537 Here, we show that the Pilbara region represents a major cradle of diversification in

538 *Nicotiana*, which is echoed in other plant (Anderson *et al.*, 2016) and animal groups (Ashman  
539 *et al.*, 2018). It is an extensive, geologically complex, culturally important region for which  
540 only 6% sits in formally protected reserves (Government of Western Australia, 2017).

541 However, the explosion of mining activity throughout the region in the past 40 years, with  
542 major mine expansions underway and planned, combined with an emerging knowledge of the  
543 biodiversity of the region highlight the risks of continued development in the absence of  
544 robust, detailed biological surveys by specialists in each group.

545 An alarming discovery from our study concerns the number of evolutionarily distinct  
546 *Nicotiana* species that appear to have extremely restricted distributions, particularly in the  
547 Hamersley Basin, the region comprising the unique iron-rich rocks at the core of the  
548 Australian mining industry. Extensive biotic surveys prior to mining notwithstanding  
549 (McKenzie *et al.*, 2009), none of the new species of *Nicotiana* section *Suaveolentes* in the  
550 Pilbara region was identified, highlighting the need for detailed genetic and taxonomic  
551 studies as part of specialist treatments. This parallels the findings in Anderson *et al.* (2016) in  
552 *Triodia*, in which multiple new species were identified in the Pilbara (Barrett & Trudgeon,  
553 2018; Barrett, 2019; Barrett *et al.*, 2023). One of our new, narrowly distributed, cryptic-  
554 species discoveries from the Pilbara Craton is *Nicotiana karijini* (Chase & Christenhusz,  
555 2018; previously identified as the more widespread *N. umbractica*), for which six of seven  
556 known collections were made during mine-site surveys. The possible fate of such species is  
557 obvious and leads us to speculate that many new species have gone extinct before they were  
558 described.

559

## 560 **Conclusions**

561 Our results here have demonstrated that the large arid portions of Australia can act as a  
562 catalyst for rapid adaptation and diversification. While this phenomenon has been  
563 documented in some reptile groups, particularly arid-zone geckos (Pepper *et al.*, 2011ab;  
564 Pepper *et al.*, 2013; Ashman *et al.*, 2018), our study contributes providing detailed insights  
565 into plant diversification. Without first examining species limits, our biogeographic  
566 conclusions could never have been reached, and thus the first period of our studies focused on  
567 their taxonomy. The Australian arid zone is a relatively geologically stable and still largely  
568 undisturbed set of environments (despite numerous mines in areas like the Pilbara), making it  
569 an ideal setting for studies of speciation and diversification. Topographical heterogeneity

570 combined with nearby marine influences have created localized regions within the Pilbara  
571 region with more buffered environments compared to the much larger and more  
572 homogeneous surrounding arid zone (Macphail & Stone, 2004; Byrne et al., 2008),  
573 permitting ancestrally mesic-adapted taxa like *Nicotiana* to experiment repeatedly with  
574 adaptations that have then allowed them to exploit available niches in the rest of the arid  
575 zone. Detailed molecular studies across the EZ are at present highly limited, and the high  
576 species diversity of the Pilbara Region, especially of cryptic, undescribed species attributable  
577 to its status as a mesic refuge, means that it should be an important focus of attention in the  
578 future.

579 Plants and perhaps also terrestrial invertebrates typically have more direct ties to the  
580 physical environment than vertebrates because they are inherently less vagile and thus more  
581 likely to provide important models to investigate genetic patterns/barriers across the EZ. The  
582 Pilbara is an ancient, topographically complex landscape of plateaus, gorges, valleys, and  
583 ranges with meteorological extremes and seasonal monsoons/cyclones. We hypothesize that  
584 the ancestors of the Pilbara lineages in *N. section Suaveolentes* entered the mesic refuges of  
585 the Pilbara Craton from the more coastally focused monsoonal region roughly 5 Mya. They  
586 became locally adapted to these various ancient and highly stable terrain types and  
587 subsequently were exposed repeatedly and became adapted to the interdigitated arid micro-  
588 habitats, which then permitted dispersals in several waves to other parts of the arid zone,  
589 including most recently (in the last million years) to sandy dune fields and the most  
590 homogenous, flat and extremely arid, southern parts of continent (e.g., the Nullarbor). The  
591 biotic history of this most ancient landscape, the Pilbara Craton, remains largely unknown  
592 and speculative. Our results should provide impetus to develop further an understanding of it  
593 and its contribution to the EZ flora and fauna.

594

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604 reference genome.

605

606 **Data availability statement**

607 The data have been deposited in the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (BioProject ID  
608 PRJNA681916), and the files are available under the SRA Study SRP295424.

609

610 **Benefit sharing statement**

611 Benefits from this research accrue from sharing our datasets on public databases as described  
612 above. Research collaborations were developed with scientists from the countries providing  
613 genetic samples, and all collaborators are included as co-authors.

614

615 **Author contributions**

616 MWC and RS conceived this study. The fieldwork and collected/grew of accessions were  
617 conducted by MWC and MJMC. LACS, DM and OP analyzed the data. LACS and MWC  
618 wrote the manuscript with input from RS, KWD, JGC and OP.

619

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885 Table 1. Biogeographic stochastic mapping (BSM) counts for *N. section Suaveolentes* using  
886 the Australian drainage regions as operational areas and the DIVALIKE+J model selected in  
887 BioGeoBEARS. Mean values (mean) and standard deviations (stdev) are event counts of 100  
888 BSMs.

Mode	Type	mean	stdev	%
Within area speciation	Sympatry - narrow	22.98	1.59	36.47
Dispersal	Jump-dispersal	38.23	1.69	60.68
Vicariance		1.79	0.46	2.84
Total events		63		

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903 **Figure captions**

904 Fig. 1. Habitat diversity, mesic and arid, among species of *Nicotiana* section *Suaveolentes* in  
905 the Australian Eremaean Zone. (a) Mesic site for *N. cavigola* near the entrance to a cave near  
906 Meekathara (Western Australia). (b) Mesic site for *N. maritima* on the sea cliffs near St.  
907 Vincent, York Peninsula (South Australia). (c) Arid site for *N. simulans* on the gibber plains  
908 south of Oodnadatta (South Australia). (d) Mesic site for *N. insecticida* in a mulga woodland  
909 (*Acacia aneura* species complex) near Carbla (Western Australia). (e) Arid site for *N.*  
910 *velutina* in a fossilised sand dune near Coober Pedy (South Australia). (f) Mesic site for *N.*  
911 *insecticida* in the Anthwerke Gap, East MacDonnell Ranges (Northern Territory).

912

913 Fig. 2. RAxML phylogenetic tree from *N. section Suaveolentes*, subtrees (a) and (b), based on  
914 240,871 SNPs. The numbers are bootstrap percentages; branches without numbers received  
915 100.

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917 Fig. 3. Coancestry heatmap from the pairwise relatedness between accessions from *N. section*  
918 *Suaveolentes*. The darker colours indicate higher relatedness; the estimates of relationship of  
919 individuals to themselves are not shown. The blue lines specify the accessions of *N. africana*.  
920 High levels of coancestry among recently diverged species (e.g., *N. goodspeedii*/*N.*  
921 *maritima*/*N. suaveolens*) are to be expected.

922

923 Fig. 4. Cladogram from species trees generated for *Nicotiana section Suaveolentes*, scaled  
924 to divergence times. The species tree reveals three of the main radiations in the section, the *N.*  
925 *occidentalis*, *N. gascoynica* and *N. suaveolens* clades, the last being the most recent radiation  
926 (ca. 1 Mya) comprising the species occurring in central and southern Australia.

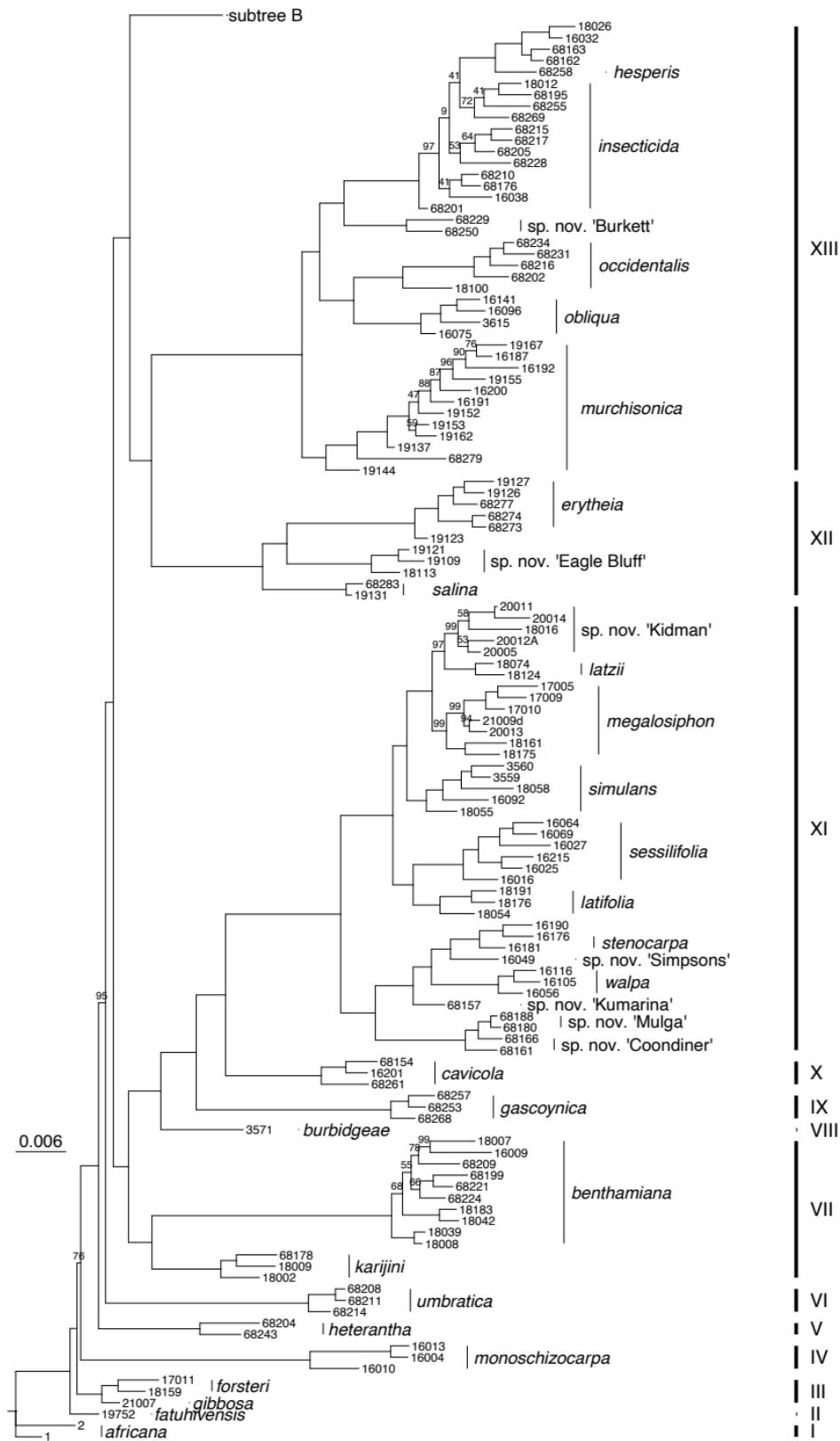
927

928 Fig. 5. Biogeographic history of *N. section Suaveolentes*. Ancestral area reconstruction using  
929 the drainage areas as a model and showing greater Pilbara region (region F/light green) as the  
930 ancestral range for the species adapted to the Eremaean Zone (ca. 5 Mya). The map in the  
931 upper part of the figure represents the biogeography model used for distributions of the  
932 species in *N. section Suaveolentes*. The map shows the Australian drainages employed here to  
933 evaluate dispersal versus vicariance during diversification of *N. section Suaveolentes*.



a

...subtree B



**b**