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1	Plio-Pleistocene history and phylogeography of Acacia senegal in dry
2	woodlands and savannahs of sub-Saharan tropical Africa: evidence of early
3	colonisation and recent range expansion
4	
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22 Abstract

The gum arabic tree (Acacia senegal) is an arid-adapted, morphologically diverse species 23 (varieties senegal, kerensis, rostrata and leiorhachis) widespread in the extensive but 24 25 relatively little-studied dry woodland and savannah biomes of sub-Saharan tropical Africa. We used variation in nuclear ribosomal DNA (nrDNA) internal transcribed spacer (ITS) 26 sequences and chloroplast DNA markers (polymerase chain reaction-restriction fragment 27 length polymorphism [PCR-RFLP] and chloroplast microsatellites [cpSSR]) to study the 28 phylogeography of the species with 293 individuals from 66 populations sampled across its 29 natural range. The predominant pattern was a phylogeographic distinction between West and 30 31 Central African, and East and Southern African haplotypes. Phylogenetic analysis of ITS data indicated a more recent origin for the clade including West and Central African haplotypes, 32 suggesting range expansion in the Sudano-Sahelian region, probably as recently as the 33 Holocene humid period. Variety *leiorhachis* formed a single clade while the other three were 34 mixed and some evidence for hybridization between A. senegal and other Acacia species was 35 present. Chloroplast DNA data showed high regional and rangewide haplotypic diversity 36 $(h_{T(cpSSR)} = 0.903 - 0.948)$ and population differentiation $(G_{ST(RFLP)} = 0.700 - 0.782)$ with a 37 phylogeographic pattern that indicated extensive historical gene flow via seed dispersal. 38 39 Haplotypes were not restricted to any of the four varieties, but showed a significant geographic structuring of genetic variation ($G_{ST(cpSSR)} = 0.392$; $R_{ST} = 0.673$; $R_{ST} > R_{ST}$ 40 (permuted)), with the major division separating East and Southern Africa populations from 41 those in West and Central Africa. In conjunction with paleobotanical evidence, our data 42 suggests dispersal to West Africa, and across to the Arabian Peninsula and Indian 43 subcontinent from source populations located in the East African region during climate 44 oscillations of the Plio-Pleistocene. 45

47	Keywords: Aridity, gum arabic, hybridization, long-distance dispersal, phylogeny, refugia
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49	

50 Introduction

Modern dry woodland and savannah biomes, dominated by grasses and woody species, are 51 key ecosystems in sub-Saharan tropical Africa (Plana, 2004). With a species composition and 52 diversity that is driven by low rainfall and pronounced dry seasons (Jacobs, 2004), they 53 evolved during the Miocene (23-5 Mya), a period associated with drastic lowering of global 54 temperatures and increasing aridity that saw the replacement of once expansive extensive 55 lowland rainforests with savannah woodland (Plana, 2004). From the Plio-Pleistocene 56 onwards (from ~ 5 Mya), the species that occupy these biomes have experienced cyclical 57 range expansions and contractions due to climatic oscillations (Maley, 2001; Plana, 2004), 58 59 restricted by aridification on one hand and moist forest expansion on the other. Thus the genetic structure of widely distributed dryland tree species is likely to reflect the influence of 60 these processes. 61

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The interplay of major geomorphological features with climate oscillations has also played a key role in shaping the genetic patterns and phylogeography of flora and fauna since the end of the Pliocene (~ 3.5 Mya, deMenocal, 1995). For example, contraction and expansion of the Sahara desert in Central and West Africa, and interaction of climate with the Great Rift Valley and the elevated topographies of East and Southern Africa produced wide altitudinal ranges forming a complex mosaic of landscapes and localised climate regimes that functioned as refugia during extreme climate conditions (Plana, 2004; Lorenzen *et al.*, 2010).

Previous phylogeographic studies of tropical African tree species have largely
focussed on moist forests (montane, lowland or rainforests) and have typically interpreted
results with respect to Pleistocene refugia (e.g. *Hagenia abyssinica*, Ayele *et al.*, 2009;

Milicia excelsa, Daïnou et al., 2010; Irvingia gabonensis, Lowe et al., 2010). It has been 74 suggested that previously continuous rainforests fragmented into refugia within mountainous 75 areas and became separated by the expansion of savannah vegetation during glacial maxima 76 associated with cooler and drier conditions (Plana, 2004). Dry woodlands and savannahs are 77 likely to have experienced the same processes in reverse, and fragmented dryland habitats 78 may have acted as refugia for arid-adapted species during warmer and wetter periods (Plana, 79 2004). Relics of xeric vegetation or savannah enclaves persisting today in the Central and 80 West African rain forest since the last glacial maximum (LGM) may represent such refuges 81 (Maley, 2001). 82

83

84 A few savannah-type or dry woodland tree species have been studied, mainly in the Brazilian cerrado (e.g. Caryocar brasilensis, Collevatti et al., 2003; Hymenaea stigonocarpa, 85 Ramos et al., 2007; Astronium urundeuva, Caetano et al., 2008) and others in the seasonally 86 dry tropical forests (SDTFs, Pennington et al., 2004; Pennington et al., 2009). Species in the 87 latter show patterns of diversity, endemism and phylogeny that indicate historically stable and 88 89 dispersal-limited systems, caused partly by the widespread patchy distribution of this biome 90 and its persistence over evolutionary timescales regarded as Pleistocene refugia (Pennington et al., 2004; Collevatti et al., 2003; Caetano et al., 2008;). Although SDTFs share some of the 91 92 ecological characteristics of dry woodlands and savannahs of sub-Saharan Africa (Pennington et al., 2009; Lock, 2006), direct comparisons are limited by phytogeographical differences. In 93 Africa, there have been three major phylogeographic studies of African tree species found in 94 95 these biomes. A study of *Acacia nilotica* populations showed genetic differences that broadly matched subspecific designations and a phylogeographic separation of North and West Africa 96 from East and Southern Africa (Wardill et al., 2005). The other two studies, of the baobab 97

98 tree (Adansonia digitata L., Malvaceae; Pock Tsy et al., 2009) and the shea tree (Vitellaria paradoxa C.F.Gaertn, Sapotaceae; Allal et al., 2011) showed strong phylogeographic 99 100 structure, distinguishing Eastern and Western populations within the Sudano-Sahelian region. However, the ecological distribution of the baobab tree only partially matches that of the dry 101 woodlands and savannahs, and the shea tree has a limited distribution in the Sudano-Sahelian 102 103 zone. In contrast to plants, there are numerous studies of vertebrates that show development of intraspecific differentiation that coincides with formation of the woodland and savannah 104 biomes in Africa (Jacobs, 2004), e.g. plains zebra, Equus quagga (Lorenzen et al., 2008) and 105 common eland antelope, Taurotragus oryx (Lorenzen et al., 2010). 106

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108 Here, we study the phylogenetics and phylogeography of Acacia senegal (L.) Willd. (Leguminosae, Mimosoideae) commonly known as the 'gum arabic' tree. Although renowned 109 for its commercial gum, which has been traded for centuries (Fagg and Allison 2004), Acacia 110 senegal also provides other key ecosystem services such as sand stabilization, shade, fodder 111 and forage for livestock and wildlife as well as N2-fixation, which enhances soil fertility and 112 113 sustains food crop production in the gum arabic agroforestry systems. Acacia senegal is drought tolerant and can occur in extremely dry habitats, but also has a wide climatic 114 (temperature and rainfall) and altitudinal range (Supplementary Table S1). It has an inter-115 116 continental distribution extending from Africa eastwards to the Arabian Peninsula, Pakistan and India (Figure 2; Fagg and Allison, 2004). Reports from common garden experiments have 117 shown wide variations in survival, physiology, growth and gum production traits among 118 119 provenances, reflecting the adaptive variation that exists across its natural distribution range 120 (Sprent et al., 2010).

121 According to a recent phylogeny of African acacias, the genus Acacia (Syn. Senegalia) is estimated to have inhabited the open habitats (woodlands and savannahs) of 122 Africa since the Miocene epoch (~ 21 Mya, Bouchenak-Khelladi et al., 2010). This also 123 marks the period of rapid diversification within the Leguminosae family (e.g see Richardson 124 125 et al., 2001; Lavin et al., 2005). As important drivers of the evolutionary processes of diversification, hybridization and introgression were likely to have contributed to the 126 adaptation of the African acacias to the new, sometimes extreme environments experienced in 127 the sub-Saharan regions during the Plio-Pleistocene (Maley, 2001; Jacobs, 2004; Plana, 2004; 128 Bouchenak-Khelladi et al., 2010). Acacia senegal belongs to a group of more than 20 closely 129 related species referred to as the Acacia senegal complex characterised by spicate 130 131 inflorescences and prickles that are mostly in threes, the central one hooked downwards and the laterals hooked upwards (Ross 1979; Fagg and Allison, 2004). It forms a natural hybrid 132 (A. laeta R.Br. ex Benth.) with A. mellifera (Vahl) Benth. (El Amin, 1976). We focus on 133 Acacia senegal documented to have four putative varieties (A. senegal var. senegal, A. 134 senegal var. kerensis Schweinf, A. senegal var. rostrata Brenan and A. senegal var. 135 *leiorhachis* Brenan) whose delimitations rely largely on growth and morphological characters 136 (Ross 1979; Fagg and Allison, 2004). In Eastern Africa, regarded as the centre of diversity for 137 the species, the intraspecific delimitation can be less resolved, especially among varieties 138 139 senegal, kerensis and rostrata due to variation and overlaps in morphological characters (Ross 1979; Ross 1981; Fagg and Allison, 2004, Table 1). However, var. leiorhachis has 140 some unique growth, pod and phenological features that separate it from the other varieties. 141 142 The key growth and morphological characters often used to distinguish the varieties include 143 growth form, type of stem or trunk texture, inflorescence axis pubescence and shape of pods (Table 1). 144

146	Acacia senegal is mainly insect pollinated, and predominantly outcrossing. Flowering					
147	occurs annually (or biannually in some regions) followed by a good seed crop, which is					
148	dispersed by wind and to some extent animals, especially ungulates (Fagg and Allison, 2004)					
149	Cytological studies on A. senegal var. senegal indicated that it is a diploid, $2n = 26$ (Bukhari,					
150	1997). The species is reproductively active within 2-4 years of establishment. Previous					
151	genetic studies of Kenyan populations using both chloroplast and nuclear microsatellites					
152	found high genetic diversity within populations and low genetic differentiation among					
153	populations, indicating extensive gene flow (Omondi et al., 2010). These attributes					
154	demonstrate effective pollen and seed dispersal mechanisms with potential for long-distance					
155	dispersal.					
156						
157	Given the historical range changes that A. senegal has probably experienced, the complex					
158	landscape it occupies and its effective dispersal ecology, we predict the following:					
159	1. The divergence events in A. senegal will reflect those of major climatic shifts because					
160	sub-Saharan woodlands and savannahs are ancient and have been subject to					
161	fluctuations in size and distribution out of phase with those of the moist forests durin					
162	climate oscillations of the Plio-Pleistocene.					
163	2. As regional differentiation has been seen in previous studies of dryland species (e.g.					
164	baobab, shea) we predict similar differentiation for A. senegal. Within regions we					
165	expect low genetic structure due to life history characteristics that predispose the					
166	species to effective dispersal.					
167	3. There will be high genetic diversity and presence of basal groups in the regions of					
168	Eastern and Southern Africa due to extant taxonomic diversity and a complex mosaic					

of landscapes (lowlands to highlands covered by forests, woodlands and savannahs) and climate regimes predating the Pleistocene.

171

170

To address these hypotheses, we use variation in the internal transcribed spacer (ITS) of the nuclear ribosomal DNA (nrDNA) and the cpDNA (*trnH-psbA* and cpSSR) to (i) assess phylogenetic relationships among the *A. senegal* varieties (ii) test for phylogeographic structuring within *A. senegal* (iii) examine evolutionary history of *Acacia. senegal* in terms of colonisation of the dryland habitats from its origins and hypothesised refugia in the light of environmental and habitat distributional changes since the original diversification that produced the species in the Plio-Pleistocene.

179

Materials and Methods

181 Collection and DNA extraction

Samples were collected from a total of 293 Acacia senegal individuals from wild populations, 182 experimental trials and herbarium specimens representing 66 sites across its natural range in 183 sub-Saharan Africa, the Arabian Peninsula, Pakistan and India (Table 2). Field samples were 184 collected from well known and documented sources; samples of doubtful or unverified 185 intraspecific affiliations are indicated (Table 2). Fresh leaf or stem tissue samples were dried 186 on silica gel in ziplock bags. For each sample, roughly 1 cm² of dried tissue was ground to a 187 188 fine powder using a Retsch Tissuelyser. DNA extraction was carried out using QIAGEN DNeasy 96 Plant kits following the manufacturer's protocol. Extracted DNA was assessed for 189 quality and concentration on a 1 % agarose gel before storage at -20 °C. 190

191

192 PCR and sequencing

193 We used data from both nuclear and organelle genomes to test for phylogeographic patterns. The internal transcribed spacer (ITS) of the nuclear ribosomal DNA (nrDNA) was used for 194 195 phylogenetic reconstruction. Besides its utility in phylogenetic studies in angiosperms, the high sequence variation found among conspecifics and allopatric populations also makes it 196 suitable for studying intraspecific relationships (Baldwin et al., 1995). The ITS region, alone 197 or concatenated with other spacer regions, has been successfully used in previous studies to 198 resolve phylogenetic and taxonomic issues among other Acacia taxa (e.g. Ariati et al., 2006; 199 Brown et al., 2008). Chloroplast (cp) DNA was also used to analyse geographical patterns of 200 201 diversity and population genetic structure across the distribution range of the species. The cpDNA is maternally inherited in angiosperms and has a slow rate of evolution (compared to 202 203 nrDNA), making it ideal for studying historical patterns of gene flow, colonisation and migration events (Cavers et al., 2003). 204

205

For ITS sequence analysis, a subsample of 65 individuals representing the four different
recognised varieties and the full extent of the geographic range were selected (Table 1). The
5.8S subunit and flanking spacers ITS 1 and ITS 2 were amplified together with part of the
18S and 26S gene regions as a single fragment using primers 17SE and 26SE and PCR
conditions as detailed by Sun *et al.* (1994). Direct sequencing was carried out at the NERC
Biomolecular analysis facility at the University of Edinburgh, United Kingdom.

212

Three chloroplast regions were selected for screening of the whole collection after preliminary screening in a subset of 24 geographically and taxonomically representative samples. These were: the *trn*H-*psb*A spacer (Shaw *et al.*, 2005), restricted with *Dra*I (selected after testing *Apa*I, *Alu*I, *BamH*I, *Dra*I, *Mse*I and *Rsa*I) and universal microsatellite primer

217	pairs ccmp5 and 10 (Weising and Gardner, 1999, after screening primer pairs ccmp 1-10).
218	The fragment <i>trn</i> H- <i>psb</i> A was amplified in 25 μ L reactions containing: 2 μ L DNA [~ 20 ng of
219	genomic template DNA], 2.5 μ L of 10X buffer (New England Biolabs), 0.5 μ L dNTPs
220	(Promega), 0.5 µL each primer (MWG Biotech), 0.2 µL (0.5 U) Taq (New England Biolabs),
221	$0.4~\mu L$ BSA (Sigma) and 13.4 μL water. PCR was carried out on a Thermo MBS thermal
222	cycler with the following protocol: 94 °C for 3 min, 35 cycles of 94 °C for 30 s, 45 °C for 30
223	s, 72 °C for 1 min and finally 72 °C for 10 min. Amplicons were digested with DraI and
224	restriction fragment patterns were visualised as described by Cavers et al. (2003).
225	
226	The two cpSSR loci were amplified in 25 μL reactions containing: 0.5 μL DNA [~ 20
227	ng of genomic template DNA], 2 μ L of 10X PCR buffer (Promega), 1.6 μ L dNTPs
228	(Promega), 0.4 µL each primer (MWG Biotech), 0.2 µL (0.5 U) Taq (New England Biolabs),
229	$0.4~\mu L$ BSA and 19.5 μL water. The PCR products were electrophoresed, band sizes
230	determined and characterised for cpDNA haplotype following the procedure described by
231	Omondi et al. (2010).
232	
233	Statistical analysis
234	ITS sequences were edited and assembled in CodonCode Aligner 3.5.7 (CodonCode
235	Corporation, Dedham, MA, USA). Sequences were lodged with GenBank under the accession
236	numbers HQ605042-HQ605077 (Supplementary Table S2, Supporting information).
237	Insertions/deletions (indels) were coded as presence or absence. At ITS loci, multiple copies,
238	paralogues or pseudogenes can confound phylogenetic inference (Álvarez and Wendel, 2003).
239	Therefore, consistency index (CI), retention index (RI) and GC content were assessed and

240 sequences checked for large indels which can indicate the presence of these variant sequences; none of these parameters suggested the occurrence of paralogues or pseudogenes. 241 Phylogenetic analysis of ITS sequence data was conducted using parsimony 242 approaches in the computer package PAUP* v4.0b10 (Swofford, 2003). The heuristic search 243 244 option was employed, using tree bisection-reconnection (TBR), with 1000 random stepwise addition replicates and two trees held at each cycle. Branch support values were calculated 245 using a faststep heuristic search with 10,000 bootstrap replicates. A bootstrap majority rule 246 consensus tree was calculated in PAUP. We included an ITS sequence from GenBank; 247 EF638213.1 (Acacia [Senegalia] senegal) from Zimbabwe. Sequences of Vachellia [Syn. 248 Acacia] farnesiana (EF638219.1) from Australia and Vachellia [Syn. Acacia] collinsii 249 250 (EF638216.1) from Mexico were included as outgroups. Bayesian inference was performed in MrBayes version 3.1.2 (Huelsenbeck & Ronquist, 2001; Ronquist & Huelsenbeck, 2003). 251 Four Markov Chain Monte Carlo simulations (three heated, one cold) were run with sampling 252 every 100 generations for 5,000,000 generations with the first 10% discarded as burn in. 253 Trees remaining after burn in were used to calculate posterior probabilities for nodes in the 254 255 majority-rule consensus tree.

256

The geographical structure of genetic variation at the cpSSR was explored using the program SAMOVA (spatial analysis of molecular variation, Dupanloup *et al.*, 2002). The method uses a simulated annealing procedure to define *K* groups of populations that are geographically homogenous and maximally differentiated from each other. The method requires the *a priori* definition of the number of groups (*K*) and generates *F* statistics (F_{SC} , F_{ST} and F_{CT}) based on AMOVA. One hundred simulated annealing processes were used for values of *K* from 2 to 10. Herbarium specimens were also included in SAMOVA analysis

where we had at least three geographically proximate individuals to constitute a quasi 264 population. The most likely number K of groups was identified from F_{CT} , the proportion of 265 total genetic variance due to differences among groups of populations. Population structure 266 was further investigated by a Bayesian-based assignment algorithm using the STRUCTURE 267 268 program version 2.3.3 (Pritchard et al., 2000). We used the admixture model with correlated allele frequencies and run analysis with and without prior sample location information. We 269 performed 10 independent repetitions for each K (ranging from 1 to 20), with 100 000 MCMC 270 repetitions and a 100 000 burn-in period. The minimum number of K was evaluated using the 271 ΔK procedure (Evanno *et al.*, 2005). The geographical distribution of ITS, *trn*H-*psb*A 272 haplotypes and SAMOVA (cpSSR) delineated groups were mapped using the ESRI software 273 274 ArcMap 10.

275

Although the cpDNA molecule is non-recombining and therefore functions as a single locus, data derived from RFLP and SSR loci were treated separately due to their different modes of evolution. The program PERMUT (Pons and Petit, 1996)

279 (www.pierroton.inra.fr/genetics/labo/Software) was used to calculate the mean within-

population genetic diversity (h_s), the total gene diversity (h_T), and the proportion of diversity

resulting from genetic differentiation among populations (G_{ST}), as well as the corresponding

ordered parameters (taking into account similarities between haplotypes, $N_{\rm ST}$ and $R_{\rm ST}$ for

283 RFLP and SSR, respectively), to test for phylogeographic structure at rangewide and regional

284 geographic scales. Differentiation parameters were tested and compared with means from

1000 permutations. For all population-based analysis, samples were pooled where possible to

form populations of $n \ge 3$; highly isolated individual samples were excluded. Since ITS

287 phylogeny, SAMOVA and STRUCTURE analyses indicated an East and West African

phylogeographic pattern, PERMUT analysis was also carried out at the African geographic scale. In addition to the PERMUT analysis (Pons and Petit, 1996), a hierarchical analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA) and pairwise F_{ST} between geographic groups was computed for both RFLP and cpSSR data using ARLEQUIN version 3.5 (Excoffier *et al.*, 2005).

292

293 **Results**

²⁹⁴ ITS sequences and phylogeny

A total of 65 sequences were obtained averaging 570 bp aligned length in all individuals. The 295 ITS region provided 109 parsimony informative characters (with outgroup), including four 296 indels ranging from 2-4 bp. Parsimony analysis of these data found 1,111,625 trees of length 297 251-576; CI = 0.831, RI = 0.843. The strict consensus tree (Figure 1) of 141,604 trees 298 299 resolved 17 nodes, of which 10 were supported by bootstrap values > 50 %. The A. senegal specimens formed a monophyletic group with respect to the outgroup taxa, V. collinsii and V. 300 farnesiana. The basal group comprised two geographically disparate individuals (one from 301 302 Karofane in Niger, West Africa and the other a herbarium specimen from Botswana, Southern Africa), which was highly divergent from the main branch (72 and 87 % bootstrap and 303 posterior probability support, respectively). The main branch exhibited high genetic variation 304 across the geographic range of the species with a topology displaying sequential East and 305 Southern Africa-West Africa organisation for the African sampled populations (Figures 1). 306 307 The basal clades comprise mainly East and Southern Africa populations. They consist of two groups affiliated to var. leiorhachis (including Genbank sequence EF638213.1 from 308 Zimbabwe), strongly separated from the third group (98 % posterior probability) which 309 contains samples affiliated to vars. senegal, kerensis and rostrata. The terminal clades 310 comprise mainly West African samples affiliated to var. senegal, majority of which are in the 311

least resolved clade (see Figure 1); it is notable that the few samples of East African origin are
also mostly affiliated to var. *senegal*.

314

315 Geographic distribution of *trn*H-*psb*A haplotypes

The *trn*H-*psb*A amplicons were ~ 490 bp in size. Six RFLP *trn*H-*psb*A haplotypes were 316 detected (Figure 2b, Supplementary Table S3, Supporting information). Most populations 317 were fixed for a single haplotype. Haplotype 1 was the most frequent, highly dominant in 318 East Africa (mainly Kenya, Tanzania and Sudan), and present in Oman and Pakistan. 319 Haplotypes 2 and 3 were the most widespread, occurring throughout Africa and the Indian 320 321 subcontinent. Haplotypes 4, 5 and 6 were rare: haplotype 4 was restricted to Southern Africa; haplotype 5 was present in Southern Africa and Oman and haplotype 6 occurred in two 322 geographically distant populations - in Maroua (Cameroon) and Jodhpur (ICRAF general 323 collection, India). The Maroua population was fixed for haplotype 6 while in Jodhpur it was 324 mixed with another haplotype, constituting only a small proportion (13%). All of the 325 haplotypes found in India, Pakistan and Oman were shared with continental African 326 populations. 327

328

329 Geographic distribution of chloroplast microsatellite haplotypes

330 Thirty six haplotypes were identified (Supplementary Table S5, Supporting information).

331 Unlike the *trn*H-*psb*A haplotypes, most populations with at least two analysed

individuals/population were polymorphic (mixed). The distribution of haplotypes across the

range showed a pattern similar to that seen for *trn*H-*psb*A haplotypes, in that the majority

334 were regionally fixed in either East or West Africa. Haplotypes 1-21 (21 haplotypes) occurred

in East Africa, of which haplotypes 3, 4, 6, 7 were shared with Southern Africa. Haplotypes

336 19-36 (18 haplotypes) mainly occurred in West Africa. Populations in Sudan were the most diverse. Populations from Oman, Pakistan and India predominantly shared haplotypes with 337 West and East Africa. Haplotypes 10 and 14 were the most prevalent, occurring mainly in the 338 East African region and accounting for 11.4 and 11.1 % of samples, respectively. Haplotypes 339 24 and 26 were the most prevalent in the West African region, accounting for 7.6 and 8.7 % 340 samples, respectively. Several private haplotypes were found, most notably in the Fallatu 341 population from Sudan (5), but also in the quasi population from Oman (3) and one each in 342 Koriema (Kenya), Kigwe (Tanzania), Maroua (Cameroon), Somo (Mauritania) and Jodhpur 343 (India, World Agroforestry Centre general collection). Populations Di (Burkina Faso), Daaba 344 and Rimoi (Kenya), Jodhpur Inde50 and Inde60 (India) were all fixed for a single haplotype. 345 346

347 Population genetic structure and phylogeographic patterns

The SAMOVA analysis showed little change in differentiation among groups from the lowest 348 to the highest F_{CT} values of 0.77 and 0.81 for K=2 and 7, respectively. The biggest change 349 occurred between K = 2 and 3. We retained K = 3 (F_{CT} 0.79, P < 0.001) because single 350 population group membership appeared from K = 4. It also detected a key substructure that 351 distinguished the Southern Africa, some East African and Arabian Peninsula populations from 352 the core members of the East African group 1(also supported by strong pairwise F_{ST} values, 353 Supplementary Table S7). The three SAMOVA groups primarily separated into East (group 1) 354 and Southern (group 3) from West (group 2) African regions (Table 3 and Figure S1, 355 Supporting information). There were a few exceptions: two West African populations 356 (Diamenar, Senegal; and Tourba, Chad) were assigned to the East African group while 357 populations from Oman and India were grouped with either East or West African groups; two 358 Kenyan populations (Kulamawe and Ntumburi) were grouped with the quasi population from 359

360	South Africa. The STRUCTURE and the ΔK analysis identified $K = 2$ as the most likely
361	minimum number of clusters but only with prior sample location information (Supplementary
362	Figures S2a and b). As with SAMOVA groups, populations mainly grouped into East and
363	West African clusters, with Southern Africa populations assigned to the East African cluster,
364	while those from Arabian Peninsula and Indian subcontinent assigned either to East or West
365	African clusters. Most populations had >74 % ancestry, but with evidence of strong
366	admixture, particularly Ngane, Tourba and some Sudanese populations. Cluster 1 (=
367	SAMOVA groups 1 and 3) had lower differentiation ($F_{ST} = 0.188$) than Cluster 2 (=
368	SAMOVA group 2, $F_{ST} = 0.283$, Figure S1, Supporting information).
369	
370	Structuring of the two cpDNA markers was fairly similar: populations in SAMOVA
371	group 1 predominantly had <i>trn</i> H- <i>psb</i> A haplotypes 1 and 2 and were located in East Africa;
372	populations in SAMOVA group 2 predominantly had <i>trn</i> H- <i>psb</i> A haplotypes 2 and 3 and were
373	located in West Africa (Table S4, Figures 2a and 2b). Overall, cpDNA variation did not
374	segregate with variety, particularly in the East and Southern Africa species range, where the
375	four varieties co-occur; regional location was more important than taxonomy in determining
376	haplotype. Hierarchical AMOVA showed contrasting marker resolution at the rangewide
377	scale (F_{CT} , $trnH-psbA = 0.156$, cpSSR = 0.789, Supplementary Table S7, Supporting
378	information). Differentiation was greatest between groups 2 vs 3 (F_{ST} , trnH-psbA = 0.850,
379	cpSSR = 0.964) compared to groups 1 vs 2 or 1 vs 3.
380	
381	Levels and structure of genetic diversity
382	At the <i>trn</i> H- <i>psb</i> A locus, most diversity indices had generally similar levels of magnitude

among regions, except East and Southern Africa due to small sample size. Differentiation

384 among populations was greater in West than East Africa (G_{ST} , 0.764 vs 0.703, Table 3). The contribution of phylogenetic relationships between haplotypes to among population 385 differentiation was not significant at the various geographic scales ($N_{\rm ST} > N_{\rm ST}$ (permuted), P >386 0.05). Similar trends were also observed when only Africa populations were analysed (Table 387 388 S4, Supporting information). At the rangewide scale, the cpSSR data showed high withinpopulation diversity $(h_{\rm S}, 0.576 - 0.641)$ and high total diversity $(h_{\rm T}, 0.903 - 0.948)$. 389 Population differentiation neglecting haplotype order was $G_{ST} = 0.392$, but taking 390 microsatellite evolution into account was $R_{ST} = 0.673$ ($R_{ST} > R_{ST}$ (permuted), P < 0.01; Table 391 3), indicating clear phylogeographic structuring (Pons and Petit, 1996). However, this varied 392 considerably among the regions – with strong phylogeographic structure present West Africa 393 394 (SAMOVA group 2: $R_{ST} = 0.694$, $R_{ST} > R_{ST}$ (permuted), P < 0.05), and no significant structure in East Africa (SAMOVA group 2: $R_{ST} = 136$, $R_{ST} < R_{ST}$ (permuted), P > 0.05) and 395 East and Southern Africa (SAMOVA group 3: $R_{ST} = 0.471$, $R_{ST} < R_{ST}$ (permuted), P > 0.05). 396 In contrast, strong phylogeographic structure was obtained in both East and West African 397 populations when only African dataset was analysed (Table S4, Supporting information). 398

399

400 **Discussion**

Taking *A. senegal* as a whole, our data show a significant geographic structuring of genetic variation, with the major division separating East and Southern African populations from those in West and Central Africa. Patterns in the nuclear ITS and chloroplast data were largely concordant. Genetic data poorly reflected the taxonomic subdivision of *A. senegal* vars. *kerensis* and *senegal*, suggesting few barriers to hybridization among these varieties where they co-occur. The occurrence of highly divergent ITS haplotypes suggests hybridization among *Acacia* species may be more frequent than has been observed to date. The early and multiple evolutionary divergence events within the species support the hypothesis that East Africa was the centre of diversification, and that the current wide distribution has arisen largely following past colonisation, migration and range expansion events from Eastern Africa since the late Pleistocene.

412

Phylogenetic relationships: intraspecific taxonomy, migration and hybridization 413 In our analysis of ITS data, var. leiorhachis was distinct and contained a significant amount of 414 variation, suggesting its divergence from the other varieties (*senegal*, *kerensis* and *rostrata*) 415 was ancient. Throughout its recorded distribution var. *leiorhachis* is found in association with 416 417 or in close proximity to other varieties, therefore genetic distinctiveness at the nuclear ITS locus appears to be maintained even in the face of potential gene flow. The lack of 418 differentiation among the varieties at chloroplast loci may therefore be due to retained 419 ancestral variation or to chloroplast capture if hybridization among varieties occurs. However, 420 it is reported that var. *leiorhachis* is phenologically asynchronous with other varieties, even 421 where they co-occur as proximate populations (Fagg and Allison, 2004). Given the 422 geographically close proximity of the varieties in East Africa, it seems likely that the 423 divergence is ecologically-driven and further detailed studies on the distribution should be 424 425 undertaken. In contrast, variety rostrata is largely confined to Southern Africa. Rather than being ecologically-driven, as seems to be the case for var. *leiorhachis*, it seems more likely 426 that the origins of var. rostrata lie in dispersal to Southern Africa and subsequent independent 427 evolution due to drift. 428

429

430 Of the other varieties, var. *kerensis* is restricted to East Africa, whilst var. *senegal* has
431 the widest geographic distribution, occurring throughout the range from East to West Africa

and to India. The terminal clade mainly comprised West African var. senegal, suggesting a 432 relatively recent expansion of the range, probably from an origin in Eastern Africa via Sudan 433 and Central Africa to the West and via the Horn of Africa and the Arabian Peninsula to the 434 East. According to the recent phylogenetic chronogram of African acacias by Bouchenak-435 436 Khelladi et al. (2010), var. leiorhachis diverged from var. rostrata approximately 1 Mya. Although such estimates are often associated with wide range margins, it suggests that the A. 437 senegal species complex predates the Pleistocene and that the early splits within var. 438 *leiorhachis* and diversifications within *A. senegal* coincide with a period marked by 439 prolonged glacial cycles (100 ky periodicity) and extreme aridity (Maley, 2001; Plana, 2004). 440 On the other hand, the unresolved terminal clade (Figure 1) depicts a rapid expansion in the 441 442 Late Pleistocene by var. *senegal*, which could be as recent as the last glacial maximum. This period encompasses major glacial maxima with prolonged aridity phases (deMenocal, 1995; 443 Plana, 2004), which offers the necessary driver of restriction and expansion of vegetation that 444 could explain the relatively close relationships among populations across such a wide 445 geographic range. 446

447

In a number of cases, hybridization appears to have been important. In the basal group 448 that comprised an individual from Karofane in Niger (West Africa) and one from Botswana 449 450 (Southern Africa), similar, highly divergent, sequences were found despite wide geographic separation. It seems at least possible that this is the outcome of interspecific hybridization – of 451 the 20 other related species that form the A. senegal species complex, most co-occur or share 452 453 its ecological range (Ross, 1981). Alternatively, the phylogenetic association between the West African and Southern African individuals could also suggest chance retention of 454 ancestral variation. In addition, trnH-psbA haplotypes were variably distributed among ITS 455

clades, which could indicate introgressive hybridization (Figures 1; Supplementary Table S6). 456 Byrne et al. (2002) also reported haplotype sharing among clades/sub-specific taxa within A. 457 acuminata in the mesic and arid zones of Western Australia, which they largely attributed to 458 retention of ancestral polymorphism or incomplete lineage sorting. Both introgression or 459 hybridizations and incomplete lineage sorting may account for the observations in A. senegal. 460 Besides the reported natural hybrid (A. laeta) with A. mellifera, allotetraploids have recently 461 been found in some members of the A. senegal complex indicating that hybridization may not 462 be uncommon (Assoumane A et al., unpublished). Whilst sharing of haplotypes between the 463 regions may also suggest homoplasy, the unexpected shared ITS and chloroplast haplotypes 464 between individuals from East Africa's var. leiorhachis populations and one of the Jodhpur 465 466 Indian accessions (see H4, Figures 1 and Table 2,) is likely to be due to human-mediated dispersal. These regions have had a long history of human migrations and trade links, which 467 may have included gum arabic as a commodity and possible germplasm exchanges or 468 introductions such as was the case for the widely domesticated drumstick tree (Moringa 469 oleifera, Moringaceae; Muluvi et al., 1999). 470

471

Genetic diversity, population structure and phylogeography of *Acacia senegal*(refugia and gene flow barriers)

Recognising the utility and limitations of different markers on interpretations of diversity and
differentiation indices within and among species (e.g. see Petit *et al.*, 2005; Meirmans and
Hedrick, 2010), the two chloroplast markers used in this study showed considerable
complementarity. Most populations were fixed for single chloroplast RFLP *trn*H-*psb*A
haplotypes but contained multiple cpSSR haplotypes. Although RFLP *trn*H-*psb*A haplotypes
had less resolution than cpSSR haplotypes at the rangewide scale, both showed similar

480	regional genetic structuring and phylogeographic patterns (Table 3, Figures 2, Figure S1). The
481	levels of within-population and total diversity estimated from cpSSR data ($h_{\rm S} = 0.576$, $h_{\rm T} =$
482	0.948) were comparable to those reported by Byrne et al. (2002) within A. acuminata
483	populations (<i>cf.</i> $h_{\rm S} = 0.442$; $h_{\rm T} = 0.920$) in Western Australia. Of particular interest is
484	comparisons with the boabab tree which also showed a similar East-West African
485	phylogeographic pattern; they had contrasting within-population, total diversity and
486	population differentiation with RFLP data (e.g. A. senegal: $h_{\rm S}$, 0.155; $h_{\rm T}$, 0.711; $G_{\rm ST}$, 793 vs
487	boabab: $h_{\rm S}$, 0.017; $h_{\rm T}$, 0.58; $G_{\rm ST}$, 0.970; Pock Tsy <i>et al.</i> , 2009). These differences are likely to
488	be due to the contrasting life histories and modes of seed or fruit dispersal between the two
489	species. A. senegal is pollinated mainly by bees and seeds dispersed by wind (Fagg and
490	Allison, 2004). Baobab is pollinated by bats and seed dispersed by large mammals and
491	humans (Pock Tsy et al., 2009). Baobab's long domestication history, significant human-
492	mediated dispersal and reported longevity of ~1300 years are particularly important
493	distinguishing factors.

The distribution patterns of cpDNA haplotypes suggest that colonisation, migration or 495 expansion events may have happened more than once originating from an East African source 496 population. The Horn of Africa is an important centre of speciation in the A. senegal complex 497 498 and also has the highest concentration of African Acacia species (Ross, 1981; Fagg and Allison, 2004). In A. senegal, this is the only region where all the four varieties are reportedly 499 distributed, in some cases as co-occurring populations (Fagg and Allison, 2004). 500 501 Diversification of the species may have been driven by an interaction between the climate changes of the late Pleistocene and the complex topography of Eastern Africa, which provides 502 potential refugia in areas that have historically been sheltered against the impacts of extreme 503

504 climate oscillations. During enhanced and prolonged aridity phases the Acacia range may have shifted or migrated to higher altitudes, tracking moist forest (Hamilton, 1982), and 505 causing fragmentation. These sites could have acted as source populations for (re-) 506 colonisations or migrations into other regions during favourable climatic conditions. The 507 508 genetic and morphological diversity of A. senegal in this region, as well as fossil pollen data, supports this hypothesis. Acacia-type pollen, predating the Pleistocene, has been recorded 509 from the Rift Valley floor - at the Lokichar Basin (near one of our sampling sites, see Table 1) 510 in the southwestern part of Lake Turkana Basin, Kenya (Vincens et al., 2006). The Lake 511 Turkana Basin still harbours several Acacia spp., including the predominant A. senegal. There 512 is also pollen evidence of montane Acacia woodlands (up to 4040 masl) in the East African 513 514 highlands predating the arid period at ~10 000 years BP (Hamilton, 1982). These pollen records suggest that East Africa may have harboured refugia for Acacia taxa predating the 515 Pleistocene. The haplotype-rich populations of Sudan are found in this region. Of these 516 populations, Fallatu forest had an exceptionally high number of private cpSSR haplotypes (5), 517 possibly suggesting an ancient refugium. The Sudanese populations occur in the so-called 518 519 gum belt from which the bulk of the internationally traded gum is produced in the traditional 'gum orchard' agroforestry systems. Although it is possible that domestication has resulted in 520 incorporation of extra diversity, importation of seed would be uncharacteristic because the 521 522 traditional gum production systems are normally established with local collections or through natural regenerations (Fagg and Allison, 2004). Alternatively, if the region has long acted as a 523 refugium, the potential for hybridization and chloroplast capture from congeners is higher and 524 525 may offer an explanation. In Southern Africa, the presence of a private *trn*H-*psb*A haplotype suggests long term persistence and isolation of the population in this region. The expansion 526 and contraction of moist rainforest across East Africa is likely to have been the driving force 527

behind isolation of Southern African populations (Cowling *et al.*, 2008). Similar patterns have
been found in phylogeographic studies of other savannah-adapted species, such as the plains
zebra (Lorenzen *et al.*, 2008). Further sampling of *A. senegal* in Southern Tanzania and
Mozambique would help to test this hypothesis.

532

In West Africa, population differentiation was higher and had a stronger 533 phylogeographic structure than that of East Africa (cpSSR data, $G_{ST} = 0.458$ vs 0.290; RFLP, 534 0.764 vs 0.703, Table 3; also see Supplementary Figure S2, STRUCTURE analysis, F_{ST} = 535 0.283 vs 0.188), which also indicates high admixture of A. senegal organelle lineages. This 536 suggests that dispersal from refugia occurred over relatively short distances, probably due to 537 the influence of geographic barriers, as invoked to explain the genetic structuring of other dry 538 woodland and savannah species in the Sudano-Sahelian region (e.g. shea tree, Allal et al., 539 2011). For example, in the Chad basin, an inundation during the Quaternary pluvial, followed 540 by the formation of a Mega-Lake was suggested to have isolated baobab populations of West 541 Africa from those of East Africa (Pock Tsy et al., 2009). The historical Mega-Lake zone also 542 543 coincides with the haplotype disjunctions observed in this study between Central -West and 544 West African A. senegal populations. The two populations that mark this contact zone are Tourba, Chad (east of Lake Chad) and Maroua, Cameroon (south of Lake Chad). However, 545 546 the Maroua population (fixed *trn*H-*psb*A haplotype 6) would have also been isolated or restricted either on the fringes of tropical rainforest or riparian conditions. Further West, dry 547 riverine woodlands and gallery forests along the West African extensive river systems 548 549 (Senegal, Niger, Volta and Gambia) may have also acted as refugia during periods of extreme aridity that also promoted southward expansion of the Sahara and regression of tropical. The 550 possible refugial zones for A. senegal in this region would therefore include the westernmost 551

552 part of West Africa (Western Senegal) and Central Africa (north of Cameroon). Although poorly represented in pollen cores, Acacia-type pollen records have also been reported for the 553 Sudano-Sahelian region during the Holocene humid period (e.g. Jikariye Lake, Nigeria, ~11 554 000 years BP, Waller et al., 2007; Lake Yoa, Chad, ~ 6 000 years BP, Lézine et al., 2009). 555 556 However, lack of pollen data predating the Holocene and LGM may not preclude the likely occurrence of ancient Acacia refugia in West Africa. In other parts of the range beyond 557 Africa, Acacia-type pollen have also been recorded from the semi-desert around Kwar al 558 Jaramah (Oman, Arabian Peninsula) and Makran on the Pakistani coast and the Indian 559 subcontinent (~ 6 000 years BP, Lézine, 2009). 560

561

562 Conclusions

The combined nrDNA and cpDNA analysis of A. senegal have shown high haplotypic 563 variation with both regional and rangewide phylogeographic patterns suggesting a long 564 history of colonisation and expansion events characterised by extensive, recurrent gene flow 565 among populations and regions. The phylogenetic analysis revealed multiple evolutionary 566 divergence events that also separated var. *leiorhachis* from the other three (*senegal*, *kerensis*) 567 and *rostrata*). The phylogeographic structure separating East and Southern Africa from West 568 African populations reflects a pattern reported for other drylands species straddling the 569 Sudano-Sahelian region (e.g. baobab, Pock Tsy et al., 2009; shea, Allal et al., 2011). 570 However, contrary to our prediction and in contrast to the other species, within-region 571 differentiation of A. senegal was greater in West Africa than East and Southern Africa, clearly 572 showing species differences at the regional scale. Spatial studies at the population and 573 landscape scales will be necessary to elucidate factors that have influenced the observed 574 regional differences. Cytological studies within the species complex would provide evidence 575

for introgression or hybridization events and show whether certain morphological variants (intraspecies) have been more successful than others in colonisation and range expansion in the more arid conditions. Further studies that take a comparative approach, such as a combined analysis of key species within the wider *A. senegal* complex will be required to understand how arid-adapted plant species have dispersed and occupied various dryland habitats and vegetation since diversification.

582

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591

Author contributions: DWO led the draft of the manuscript. DWO, SC, AT and JW
designed the work, acquired and analysed data; AG led field design, sample and data
collection in Senegal. All authors contributed ideas, comments and revised the manuscript.

596 **Conflict of interest**

597 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

598

599 Supplementary information is available at Heredity's website

601 Data archiving

- 602 Sequence data have been submitted to the GenBank: accession numbers HQ605042-
- 603 HQ605077.

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Titles and legends to figures

Figure 1

750	Bayesian 50 % majority-rule consensus phylogram of internal transcribed spacer (ITS)
751	sequences from Acacia senegal individuals sampled across its distribution range. Branches
752	are labelled with \geq 70 % bootstrap support (below) and posterior probability (above) values.
753	Arrow indicates presence of a single clade in the maximum parsimony strict consensus tree.
754	The tree was rooted with Acacia [Vachellia] farnesiana and Acacia [Vachellia] collinsii (see
755	inset tree, double line denotes the point at which the break is in the main tree) obtained via
756	GenBank (accession numbers EF638219 and EF638216, respectively). Acacia [Senegalia]
757	senegal sequence is accession number EF638213 from Zimbabwe. Each haplotype is code-
758	labelled HX where X refers to a number 1-36 as described in Table S2, Supporting
759	information. Hypothesised colonisation or range expansion events are indicated. Clades are
760	identified by the different colours on the vertical bar (black, basal group; red, var. leiorhachis;
761	dark blue, var. rostrata; blue - light blue, vars. kerensis-senegal; dark green-light green, var.
762	senegal); clades that are phylogenetically related are shown with different shades of one
763	colour. The same colour coding is used for Figure 2a. Scale bar signifies 0.1 substitutions per
764	nucleotide site.

Figure 2

Rangewide distribution of nuclear (a) and chloroplast (b) haplotypes in *Acacia senegal*. Data
are: (a) haplotypes from internal transcribed spacer (ITS) of the nuclear ribosomal DNA and

769	(b) PCR-RFLP haplotypes of chloroplast <i>trn</i> H- <i>psb</i> A intergenic spacer of <i>Acacia senegal</i> ;
770	each circle represents a single population with colour denoting haplotype variation. The
771	number of samples per population is presented in Supplementary Tables S2 and S3,
772	respectively. Inset: approximate distribution of A. senegal in Africa (hatch-shaded area).
773	
774	
775	Supplementary Information
776	Table S2 Details of sequenced samples.
777	Table S3 Description of <i>trn</i> H- <i>psb</i> A haplotypes and their distribution within populations of
778	Acacia senegal. Polymorphic fragments are presented as presence (1) or absence (2). RBGE
779	represents sources from Royal Botanic Garden, Edinburgh, UK.
780	Table S4 Haplotype diversity (within-population diversity $h_{\rm S}$, $v_{\rm S}$ and total diversity $h_{\rm T}$, $v_{\rm T}$)
781	and differentiation (G_{ST} , N_{ST} and R_{ST}) for Acacia senegal populations geographic divisions
782	within Africa (East, including Southern Africa, and West, including Central Africa). Number
783	of populations, n; standard errors (SE) in parentheses.
784	Table S5 Distribution of cpSSR haplotypes within populations of Acacia senegal.
785	Table S6 cpSSR SAMOVA delineated groups and affiliations to geographic region, putative
786	variety and <i>trn</i> H- <i>psb</i> A haplotypes from 40 populations of <i>Acacia senegal</i> .
787	Table S7 Hierarchical analysis of genetic differentiation for rangewide and pairwise
788	comparisons between groups using RFLP and cpSSR markers. SAMOVA delineated Groups

1, 2 and 3, namely; East Africa, mainly West Africa, and East and Southern Africa,
respectively. Number of populations, *n*.

791 **Figure S1**

Geographic distribution of groups of *Acacia senegal* populations delineated by chloroplast
 microsatellite (cpDNA) SAMOVA; circle sizes are proportional to the number of individuals
 (*cf.* STRUCTURE clusters, Figures S2 a and b; see also Table S5).

795

796 **Figure S2**

797 Genetic structure of cpSSR of 290 individuals from 39 populations. (a) Bar plot showing

clustering of individuals by STRUCTURE with K = 2 (Pritchard *et al.*, 2000). Colour

represents proportion of ancestry derived from each cluster; red = cluster 1 ($F_{ST} = 0.188$,

mainly East Africa), green = cluster 2 (F_{ST} = 0.283, mainly West Africa). Gray lines represent

populations listed as follows: 1, Ngane; 2, Diamenar; 3, Daiba; 4, Kidira; 5, Aite; 6, Kirane;

7, Djiguéni; 8, Somo; 9, Karofane; 10, Burkina Di; 11, Burkina Bissiga Fc; 12, Maroua; 13,

Tourba; 14, Sudan RBGE specimens; 15, Fallatu; 16, Kordofan; 17, Sodera; 18, Kaleing'; 19,

Kakuma; 20, Lokichar; 21, Ngurunit; 22, Merille; 23, Serolipi; 24, Rimoi; 35, Kulamawe; 26

Ngarendare; 27, Marigat; 28, Koriema; 29, Ntumburi; 30, Magadi; 31, Kajiado; 32, Kibwezi;

33, Kigwe; 34, Wangingombe; 35, South Africa RBGE specimens; 36, Oman (Dhofar) RBGE

specimens; 37, India (Jodhpur World Agroforestry Centre collection); 38, India Jodhpur

Inde50; 39, India Jodhpur Inde60. (b) Bar plot showing clustering in regions and subregions:

1, West Africa; 2, Central Africa (Cameroon and Chad); 3, Sudan; 4, East Africa; 5, South

810 Africa; 6, Arabian Peninsula (Dhofar, Oman); 7, India.

Table 1 Growth and morphological characters for distinguishing Acacia senegal varieties(Source: Ross, 1979; Fagg and Allison, 2004)

Key characters	senegal	kerensis	rostrata	leiorhachis
Inflorescence axis	Sparsely to densely pubescent	Sparsely to densely pubescent	Sparsely to densely pubescent	Glabrous or subglabrous, except sometimes for some basal hairs
Tree, shrub or bush	Tree with a distinct trunk	Shrub or bush without a distinct trunk	Tree with a distinct trunk	Slender spindly tree, whippy
Shape of pod	Rounded to acute (sharply pointed) at apex	Rounded to acute, seldom acuminate	Markedly acuminate or rostrate (beaked) at apex	Rounded to acute
Phenology	Flowers usually produced after the leaves	Not known	Not known	Flowers often produced before or with the young leaves

Region	Country	Population	Variety	п	Latitude	Longitude
East Africa	Ethiopia	Sodera	senegal	3	08°24'N	39°23'E
	Kenya	Archer's Post	kerensis	2	00°39'N	37°39'E
	-	Daaba	kerensis	2	00°32'N	37°46'E
		Kajiado	senegal	7	01°54'S	36°45'E
		Kakuma	kerensis	5	03°45'N	34°40'E
		Kaleing'	kerensis	6	04°24'N	35°31'E
		Kargi	kerensis	1	02°39′N	37°28'E
		Kibwezi	kerensis	5	02°13'S	38°04'E
		Kulamawe	leiorhachis	6	00°32'N	37°60'E
		Koriema	senegal	7	00°27'N	35°52'E
		Lokichar	kerensis	3	02°22'N	35°38'E
		^a Machakos	^c kerensis	1	01°31'S	37°16'E
		Magadi	leiorhachis	7	01°32'S	36°35'E
		Marigat	kerensis	6	00°28'N	35°54'E
		Merille	kerensis	3	01°32'N	37°73'E
		Ngarendare	kerensis	8	00°28'N	37°25'E
		Ngurunit	leiorhachis	6	01°43'N	37°17'E
		Ntumburi	senegal	6	00°12'N	37°31'E
		Rimoi	senegal	7	00°40'N	35°34'E
		Serolipi	kerensis	5	01°15'N	37°59'E
		Taita- Taveta	senegal	2	03°27'S	38°29'E
	Somalia	^a Hargesia	kerensis	1	09°30'N	44°03'E
		^a Afgoi	^c kerensis	1	02°06'N	45°08'E
	Tanzania	Kigwe	leiorhachis	15	06°06'S	35°29'E
		Wangingombe	senegal	8	08°51'S	34°38'E
	Sudan	Fallatu Forest	senegal	12	13°06'N	30°08'E
		Kordofan	senegal	6	12°44'N	29°35'E
		^a Khartoum	senegal	1	15°38'N	32°32'E
		^a Kundoura, Nyala	senegal	1	12°52'N	30°13'E
		^a Bora	senegal	1	08°49'N	26°11'E
		^a Wad Medani,	senegal	1	14°24'N	33°31'E
		^a El Haraza	senegal	1	11°18'N	24°11'E
		^a Sobar	senegal	1	08°48'N	32°54'E
		^a Rodom,	senegal	1	12°05'N	23°03'E
		^a Kassala	senegal	1	15°27'N	36°24'E
		^a El Felaya	senegal	1	09°36'N	28°26'E
Central Africa	Cameroon	Maroua	senegal	10	10°15'N	14°14'E
	Chad	Tourba	senegal	2	12°49'N	15°18'E
West Africa	Burkina Faso	Bissiga Fc	senegal	6	12°26'N	00°32'W
		Di (Sousou)	senegal	7	13°10'N	03°25'W
	Mali	Aïte	senegal	4	15°05'N	11°39'W
		Kirane	senegal	50	15°23'N	10°15'W
		Somo	senegal	5	13°17'N	04°54'W
	Mauritania	Djiguéni	senegal	6	15°44'N	08°40'W
		Kankossa	senegal	1	15°56'N	11°27'W
	Niger	Karofane	senegal	2	14°18'N	06°11'E

Table 2 Locations of all sampled populations of *Acacia senegal*

	Senegal	Daïba Diaménar Kidira Ngane	senegal senegal senegal senegal	6 6 4 3	15°22'N 16°00'N 14°28'N 14°08'N	13°08'W 15°54'W 12°13'W 16°12'W
Southern Africa	Botswana	^a Tsau	rostrata	1	21°47'S	24°04'E
		^a Mbeleapudi	rostrata	1	20°09'S	22°19'E
	South Africa	^a Jozinidam	rostrata	3	27°32'S	31°58'E
		^a Kamlushwa	rostrata	1	25°42'S	31°45'E
		^a Sokwe,	rostrata	1	26°52'S	32°13'E
		^a Zululand	rostrata	1	27°08'S	31°59'E
		^a Pongolo	rostrata	1	27°25'S	32°04'E
		^a Hlabisa	rostrata	1	28°08'S	31°52'E
Arabian Peninsula, Pakistan and India	India	^b Jodhpur	° senegal	15	26°43'N	73°09'E
	India	Jodhpur (Inde50)	senegal	4	26°19'N	79°31'E
		Jodhpur (Inde60)	senegal	3	26°19'N	79°31'E
		^a Old Delhi Ridge	senegal	1	28°42'N	77°13'E
	Oman	^a Dhofar	senegal	3	16°52'N	53°47'E
	Pakistan	^a Sind	senegal	2	25°19'N	68°04'E

^aHerbarium specimens held by Royal Botanic Garden, Edinburgh (RBGE); further details are presented in Supplementary Table S1. ^bCollections from World Agroforestry Centre, formerly ICRAF. ^cSamples with uncertain intraspecific affiliations.

n, number of samples.

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Table 3 Haplotype diversity (within-population diversity $h_{\rm S}$, $v_{\rm S}$ and total diversity $h_{\rm T}$, $v_{\rm T}$) and differentiation ($G_{\rm ST}$, $N_{\rm ST}$ and $R_{\rm ST}$) for *Acacia senegal* populations across its range and within SAMOVA delineated groups 1 (mainly East Africa), 2 (mainly West Africa) and 3 (East and

Marker	Region	n	h_S	h_T	G_{ST}	v_S	<i>v_T</i>	N _{ST}
a) <i>trn</i> H- <i>psb</i> A	Mainly East Africa	21	0.162 (0.0487)	0.545 (0.0838)	0.703 (0.0924)	0.159 (0.0530)	0.545 (0.0904)	0.709 (0.0987) < 0.736 (permuted)
I I	Mainly West Africa	16	0.138 (0.0610)	0.584 (0.0534)	0.764 (0.1100)	0.146 (0.0646)	0.584 (0.0534)	0.750 (0.1121) < 0.806 (permuted)
	East and Southern Africa	3	0.200 (0.2000)	0.667 (0.3289)	0.700 (NC) ^a	0.200 (0.2000)	0.667 (0.3289)	$0.850 (NC)^{a}, < 0.850 (permuted)$
	Rangewide	40	0.155 (0.0370)	0.711 (0.0263)	0.782 (0.0514)	0.162 (0.0413)	0.711 (0.0421)	0.772 (0.0555), < 0.799 (permuted)
	East Africa	22	0.138 (0.0467)	0.523 (0.0972)	0.737 (0.0835)	0.120 (0.0433)	0.524 (0.1077)	0.771 (0.0782), = 0.771 (permuted)
	West Africa	11	0.155 (0.0787)	0.613 (0.0782)	0.747 (0.1358)	0.169 (0.0860)	0.612 (0.0608)	0.723 (0.1393), < 0.805 (permuted)
	Africa-wide	33	0.143 (0.0400)	0.693 (0.0406)	0.793 (0.0562)	0.150 (0.0443)	0.693 (0.0606)	0.784 (0.0589), < 0.807 (permuted)
								$R_{ m ST}$
b) cpSSR	Mainly East Africa	21	0.641 (0.0646)	0.903 (0.0255)	0.290 (0.0726)	0.779 (0.5359)	0.901 (0.3768)	0.136 (0.2649), < 0.437 (permuted)
	Mainly West Africa	15	0.501 (0.0869)	0.925 (0.0203)	0.458 (0.0927)	0.287 (0.1039)	0.937 (0.2443)	0.694 (0.0383), > 0.641 (permuted) P = 0.05
	East and Southern Africa	3	0.500 (0.2646)	0.833 (0.0912)	0.400 (0.4243)	0.452 (0.2609)	0.853 (0.0639)	0.471 (0.4404), < 0.759 (permuted)
	Rangewide	39	0.576 (0.0516)	0.948 (0.0092)	0.392 (0.0537)	0.312 (0.1842)	0.954 (0.1773)	0.673 (0.1555), > 0.576 (permuted) P = 0.01

831 Southern Africa). Number of populations, *n*; standard errors (SE) in parentheses.

^aNC, not computed due to small sample size.

842 Supplementary Information Tables S1 – S7

Table S1 Geographical origin, variety, sample size and climatic conditions of *Acacia senegal* samples used in this study

Region and	^a Population	Variety	n	Latitude	Longitude	Alt	Precipitation	Mean	^b Monthly
Country						(masl)	mm/year	Temp	rainfall
								(• <i>C</i>)	pattern
East Africa									
Ethiopia	Sodera	senegal	3	08°24'00.0"N	39°23'00.0" Е	1393	778	20.7	6/10/2
Kenya	Archer's Post	kerensis	2	00°38'48.6"N	37°39'01.2"E	876	364	23.7	10/11/0
Kenya	Daaba	kerensis	2	00°32'00.2"N	37°45'39.9"Е	940	332	23.7	10/11/0
Kenya	Kajiado	senegal	7	01°52'53.5"S	36°45'29.0"E	1741	693	19.1	7/9/2
Kenya	Kakuma	kerensis	5	03°45'26.1"N	34°39'59.5"E	670	535	24.0	7/11/0
Kenya	Kaleing'	kerensis	6	04°24'28.0"N	35°31'03.1"E	614	361	26.9	11/12/0
Kenya	Kargi	kerensis	1	02°38′35.8"N	37°27'34.7"Е	454	859	20.0	6/9/2
Kenya	Kibwezi	kerensis	5	02°12'49.1"S	38°04'22.4"E	713	674	24.0	8/9/3
Kenya	Kulamawe	leiorhachis	6	00°32'21.5"N	37°59'41.5"E	1021	373	23.7	10/11/0
Kenya	Koriema	senegal	7	00°26'55.8"N	35°52'11.9"E	1348	1112	19.3	2/8/3
Kenya	Lokichar	kerensis	3	02°22'13.3"N	35°38'21.0"E	794	198	26.9	11/12/0
Kenya	Machakos, Yatta plains, P	^c kerensis	1	01°30'51.1"S	37°15'45.7"E	1820	856	19.2	5/8/2
	Evans, RBGE #1081								
Kenya	Magadi	leiorhachis	7	01°31'52.8"S	36°34'31.5"E	1460	588	22.2	7/10/2
Kenya	Marigat	kerensis	6	00°27'49.6"N	35°53'30.1"E	1348	641	23.8	5/12/0
Kenya	Merille	kerensis	3	01°31'40.8"N	37°73'29.6"E	655	859	20.0	6/9/2
Kenya	Ngarendare	kerensis	8	00°28'04.3"N	37°25'02.4"E	1005	580	23.3	6/9/1
Kenya	Ngurunit	leiorhachis	6	01°43'17.0"N	37°17'24.3"E	723	693	19.1	7/9/2
Kenya	Ntumburi	senegal	6	00°11'54.7"N	37°31'00.2"E	1694	1414	18.5	4/6/2
Kenya	Rimoi	senegal	7	00°40'08.8"'N	35°33'47.0"Е	1190	1355	15.8	1/6/5
Kenya	Serolipi	kerensis	5	01°15'16.1"N	37° 59'63.9"E	750	832	20.6	6/8/2

Kenya	Taita- Taveta	senegal	2	03°27'05.5"S	38°28'42.0"E	654	570	24.9	8/10/0
Somalia	Hargesia, JB Allen and AA Elmi, RBGE #264,	kerensis	1	09°30'00.0"N	44°03'00.0"E	1371	418	21.8	8/12/0
Somalia	Afgoi, JB Allen, RBGE #233	^c kerensis	1	02°06'00.0"N	45°08'00.0"E	80	526	27.3	8/10/0
Tanzania	Kigwe	leiorhachis	15	06°06'00.0"S	35°29'00.0"E	980	566*	23.6	7/8/0
Tanzania	Wangingombe	senegal	8	08°51'00.0"S	34°38'00.0"E	1450	873*	22.2	8/8/3
Sudan	Fallatu Forest	senegal	12	13°06'00.0"N	30°08'24.0"E	570	365*	27.3	9/11/0
Sudan	Kordofan	senegal	6	12°44'00.0"N	29°35'00.0"E	510	365*	26.0	9/11/0
Sudan	Khartoum nursery, H Elamin, RBGE #1407	senegal	1	15°37'59.2"N	32°31'58.8"E	386	127	28.9	11/12/0
Sudan	Kundoura Forest Nyala, Southern Darfur, H Elamin, RBGE #1608	senegal	1	12°51'46.1"N	30°13'03.5"E	520	317	27.7	9/11/0
Sudan	Bora, H Elamin, RBGE #1605	senegal	1	08°49'01.0"N	26°10'48.0"E	540	1140	25.9	6/7/4
Sudan	Wad Medani, H Elamin, RBGE #30	senegal	1	14°23'58.8"N	33°31'12.9"E	400	343	28.6	9/10/0
Sudan	El Haraza, H Elamin, RBGE #1604	senegal	1	11°18'00.0"N	24°11'00.0"E	564	610	27.1	8/9/1
Sudan	Sobar, H Elamin, RBGE #1614	senegal	1	08°47'38.6"N	32°53'55.3"E	400	811	27.6	6/7/1
Sudan	Rodom, West Darfur, H Elamin, RBGE #1503	senegal	1	12°05'17.1"N	23°03'19.2"E	801	657	25.7	8/8/2
Sudan	Kassala nursery, H Elamin, RBGE #31	senegal	1	15°26'53.9"N	36°24'00.7"E	552	251	29.6	10/12/0
Sudan	El Felaya, South West Kordofan, H Elamin, RBGE #1553	senegal	1	09°35'41.6"N	28°26'20.4"E	403	841	27.3	7/8/3

Central Africa									
Cameroon	Villages of Mouda, Laf and Mousourtouk, near Maroua	senegal	10	10°15'00.0"N	14°14'00.0"E	448	790	27.9	7/8/3
Chad	Tourba	senegal	2	12°49'00.0"N	15°18'00.0"E	288	351	29.9	9/10/1
West									
Burkina Faso	Bissiga Fc	senegal	6	12°26'00.0"'N	00°32'00.0"W	308	748	28.5	7/9/2
Burkina Faso	Di (Sousou)	senegal	7	13°10'00.0"N	03°25'00.0"W	255	697	28.3	8/9/2
Mali	Aïte	senegal	4	15°05'00.0"N	11°39'00.0"W	71	547	30.3	8/9/1
Mali	Kirane	senegal	50	15°23'00.0"N	10°15'00.0"W	206	550*	28.9	9/11/0
Mali	Somo	senegal	5	13°17'00.0"N	04°54'00.0"W	284	700*	28.1	8/9/3
Mauritania	Djiguéni	senegal	6	15°44'00.0"N	08°40'00.0"W	200	200*	28.3	9/12/0
Mauritania	Kankossa	senegal	1	15°56'00.0"N	11°27'00.0"W	150	250*	29.5	9/11/0
Niger	Karofane	senegal	2	14°18'00.0"N	06°11'00.0"E	330	485	28.9	8/10/1
Senegal	Daïba	senegal	6	15°22'00. 0"N	13°08'00.0"W	48	458*	29.6	9/11/0
Senegal	Diaménar	senegal	6	16°00'00.0"N	15°54'00.0"W	12	284*	25.4	9/10/0
Senegal	Kidira	senegal	4	14°28'00.0"N	12°13'00.0"W	33	505*	28.9	8/9/2
Senegal	Ngane	senegal	3	14°08'00.0"N	16°12'00.0"W	8	712*	28.0	9/9/2
Southern Africa									
Botswana	Tsau, Ngamiland district, DG Long and DAH Rae, RBGE #246	rostrata	1	21°46'48.0"S	24°03'35.0"E	940	345	22.6	9/12/0

Botswana	Mbeleapudi Hills, Ngamiland district, DG Long and DAH Rae, RBGE #154	rostrata	1	20°08'42.0"S	22°19'19.0"E	940	445	22.6	8/11/0
South Africa	Turnoff to Jozinidam on Mkuze-Candover Rd, JH Ross, RBGE #1643	rostrata	1	27°31'34.0"S	31°58'26.2"E	165	500	22.6	6/12/0
South Africa	Jozinidam on Mkuze- Candover Rd, JH Ross, RBGE #1646	rostrata	1	27°31'16.9"S	31°58'40.6"E	171	500	22.6	6/12/0
South Africa	Kamlushwa district, near Mzinti, M Stalmans, RBGE #2175	rostrata	1	25°41'39.0"S	31°45'03.2"E	244	571	23.5	5/11/0
South Africa	Jozinidam, JH Ross, RBGE #1645	rostrata	1	27°31'16.9"S	31°58'40.6"E	131	500	22.6	6/12/0
South Africa	Sokwe, Ndumu Game Reserve, Ingwavuma district, ES Pooley RBGE #1297	rostrata	1	26°52'27.4"S	32°12'30.7"E	44	608	22.9	6/11/0
South Africa	Zululand, Ingwavuma district, ES Pooley, RBGE #1158	rostrata	1	27°07'55.9"S	31°59'39.2"E	44	608	22.9	6/11/0
South Africa	Pongolo, JH Ross, RBGE #1702	rostrata	1	27°25'05.5"S	32°04'17.6"E	340	500	22.6	7/12/0
South Africa	Hlabisa, CJ Ward, RBGE #5614	rostrata	1	28°08'22.3"S	31°51'57.6"E	300	1073	19.9	4/6/5
Arabian Peninsula, Pakistan									

and India									
India	Jodhpur ICRAF general collection	^c senegal	15	26°42'54.4"N	73° 08'31.4"E	357	402	26.5	9/10/0
India	Jodhpur Inde50	senegal	4	26°19'00.0"N	79°31'00.0"E	210	300*	25.8	7/8/3
India	Jodhpur Inde60	senegal	3	26°19'00.0"N	79°31'00.0"'E	210	300*	25.8	7/8/3
India	Old Delhi Ridge, S. Jalan and U Singh, RBGE, date of collection 5 October 1959	senegal	1	28°42'00.0"N	77°13'00.0"E	216	792	25.0	8/9/2
Oman	Dhofar, Mughsayl, AG Miller, RBGE #7674	senegal	1	16°52'22.9"N	53°47'13.2"E	128	130	25.9	12/12/0
Oman	Dhofar, Lejer Waterhole, AG Miller, RBGE #6232	senegal	1	17°10'59.9"N	54°55'59.9"E	598	109	25.6	12/12/0
Oman	Dhofar, Lejer Waterhole, RBGE, AG Miller, RBGE #7236	senegal	1	17°06'00.0"N	55°04'59.9"E	41	109	25.6	12/12/0
Pakistan	Sind, Off Thano-Bula-Kotri Highway, J Lamond, RBGE #811	senegal	1	25°19'28.9"N	68°03'58.9"E	68	175	27.8	10/12/0
Pakistan	Sind, Off Budhapur- Menjhand Rd, J Lamond, RBGE #826	senegal	1	25°41'23.4"N	68°19'01.5"E	31	175	27.8	10/10/0
							1	1	1

^aPopulations collected during this study and/or herbarium specimens held by Royal Botanic Garden, Edinburgh (RBGE), UK with collectors' names and voucher numbers where available.

^bMonthly rainfall patterns: first number = no. of months with < 50 mm, second number = no. of months with < 100 mm, last number: no. of months

precipitation > potential evapo-transpiration; e.g. 9/10/0 indicates 9 months < 50mm, 10 months < 100mm and 0 = precipitation deficit throughout the year.

850 Precipitation and temperature: *Data obtained from actual site; the rest are obtained with Local climate estimator (New-LocClim, FAO 2005).

^cSamples with uncertain intraspecific affiliations.

Table S2 Details of ITS sequenced samples.

No.	Country of	Variety	Provenance	Haplotype	GenBank
	origin			number	number
1	Tanzania	leiorhachis	Kigwe	1	HQ605042
2	Kenya	kerensis	Kaleing	2	HQ605043
3	Tanzania	leiorhachis	Kigwe	3	HQ605044
4	India	^a senegal	India (ICRAF)	4	HQ605045
5	Pakistan	senegal	Sind, RBGE #811	5	HQ605046
6	Pakistan	senegal	Sind, RBGE #826	5	HQ605046
7	Kenya	kerensis	Kakuma	6	HQ605047
8	Kenya	kerensis	Merille	7	HQ605048
9	Kenya	senegal	Taita Taveta	8	HQ605049
10	Mali	senegal	Kirane	9	HQ605050
11	Kenya	senegal	Kajiado	10	HQ605051
12	Mali	senegal	Kirane	11	HQ605052
13	Mauritania	senegal	Kankoussa	12	HQ605053
14	Mali	senegal	Kirane	13	HQ605054
15	Burkina Faso	senegal	Di (Sousou)	13	HQ605054
16	Burkina Faso	senegal	Di (Sousou)	13	HQ605054
17	Burkina Faso	senegal	Bissiga Fc	13	HQ605054
18	India	senegal	Jodhpur Inde50	13	HQ605054
19	Mali	senegal	Somo	13	HQ605054
20	Mauritania	senegal	Djiguéni	13	HQ605054
21	Mauritania	senegal	Djiguéni	13	HQ605054
22	Niger	senegal	Karofane	13	HQ605054
23	Senegal	senegal	Daiba	13	HQ605054
24	Senegal	senegal	Kidira	13	HQ605054
25	Senegal	senegal	Ngane	13	HQ605054
26	Chad	senegal	Tourba	13	HQ605054
27	Chad	senegal	Tourba	13	HQ605054
28	Sudan	senegal	RBGE #30	13	HQ605054
29	Kenya	kerensis	Kaleing	14	HQ605055
30	Sudan	senegal	RBGE #1407	15	HQ605056
31	Sudan	senegal	Kordofan	16	HQ605057
32	Sudan	senegal	RBGE #31	16	HQ605057
33	India	senegal	Jodhpur Inde50	17	HQ605058
34	Sudan	senegal	Kordofan	17	HQ605058
35	Sudan	senegal	RBGE #1553	17	HQ605058
36	Sudan	senegal	Fallatu Forest	17	HQ605058
37	Mali	senegal	Kirane	18	HQ605059
38	Cameroon	senegal	Maroua	19	HQ605060
39	Cameroon	senegal	Maroua	19	HQ605060
40	Senegal	senegal	Diamenar	20	HQ605061
41	Kenya	senegal	Kibwezi	21	HQ605062
42	Mali	senegal	Aite	22	HQ605063
43	Malı	senegal	Aite	22	HQ605063
44	Senegal	senegal	Daiba	22	HQ605063
45	Senegal	senegal	Diamenar	22	HQ605063
46	Senegal	senegal	Kidira	22	HQ605063
47	Senegal	senegal	Ngane	22	HQ605063

48	India	senegal	Jodhpur Inde60	23	HQ605064
49	India	senegal	Jodhpur Inde60	23	HQ605064
50	Mauritania	senegal	Kankoussa	24	HQ605065
51	Kenya	kerensis	Kakuma	25	HQ605066
52	Kenya	kerensis	Serolipi	25	HQ605066
53	Kenya	kerensis	Serolipi	26	HQ605067
54	Kenya	senegal	Kibwezi	26	HQ605067
55	South Africa	rostrata	RBGE #1158	27	HQ605068
56	South Africa	rostrata	RBGE #1643	28	HQ605069
57	South Africa	rostrata	RBGE #2175	29	HQ605070
58	Kenya	kerensis	Ngurunit	30	HQ605071
59	Kenya	kerensis	Ngurunit	31	HQ605072
60	Kenya	senegal	Ntumburi	32	HQ605073
61	Kenya	senegal	Ntumburi	32	HQ605073
62	Tanzania	senegal	Wangingombe	33	HQ605074
63	Niger	senegal	Karofane	34	HQ605075
64	Kenya	leiorhachis	Magadi	35	HQ605076
65	Botswana	rostrata	RBGE #246	36	HQ605077

856

^aSamples with unverified intraspecific affiliations.

Table S3 Description of trnH-psbA haplotypes and their distribution within populations of Acacia senegal. Polymorphic fragments are presented 858

as presence (1) or absence (2). trnH-psbA was digested restriction enzyme DraI. RBGE represents sources from Royal Botanic Garden, 859 Edinburgh, UK.

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861

Haplotype description

Haplotype	Poly	norph	ic frag	ments					
1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
2	2	2	1	1	2	2	2	2	2
3	2	1	2	2	1	2	2	2	2
4	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	2	2
5	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	2
6	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	1

Haplotype distribution

Region and Country		Hapl	otypes					
East Africa	^a Population	1	2	3	4	5	6	Total
Ethiopia	Sodera			3				3
Kenya	Archer's Post	2						2
Kenya	Daaba	2						2
Kenya	Kajiado	7						7
Kenya	Kakuma	4	1					5
Kenya	Kaleing	6						6
Kenya	Kargi	1						1
Kenya	Kibwezi	1		4				5
Kenya	Koriema	6		1				7
Kenya	Kulamawe	6						6
Kenya	Lokichar	3						3
Kenya	Magadi	7						7

Kenya	Marigat	5		1		6
Kenya	Merille	3				3
Kenya	Ngarendare	8				8
Kenya	Ngurunit	6				6
Kenya	Ntumburi	6				6
Kenya	Machakos, RBGE #1801	1				1
Kenya	Rimoi	7				7
Kenya	Serolipi	5				5
Kenya	Taita Taveta	2				2
Somalia	Hargesia, RBGE #264		1			1
Somalia	Afgoi, RBGE #233			1		1
Tanzania	Kigwe	11	4			15
Tanzania	Wangingombe		8			8
Sudan	Fallatu Forest		12			12
Sudan	Kordofan		6			6
Sudan	Bora, RBGE #1605	1				1
Sudan	Kundoura Forest, RBGE #1608		1			1
Sudan	El Haraza, RBGE #1604	1				1
Sudan	Sobar, RBGE #1614		1			1
Sudan	Wad Medani, RBGE #30		1			1
Sudan	Kassala nursery, RBGE #31		1			1
Sudan	Rodom, West Darfur RBGE #1503		1			1
Cameroon	Maroua				10	10
Chad	Tourba		2			2
Burkina Faso	Bissiga Fc			6		6
Burkina Faso	Di (Sousou)			7		7
Mauritania	Aite		3	1		4

Mauritania	Djiguéni		6				6
Mauritania	Kankossa		1				1
Mauritania	Kirane	1	49				50
Mauritania	Somo		5				5
Niger	Karofane		2				2
Senegal	Daiba	6					6
Senegal	Diamenar	6					6
Senegal	Kidira	3	1				4
Senegal	Ngane	2	1				3
Botswana	Tsau, Ngamiland district, RBGE		1				1
Dotawana	#240 Mhalaanudi Hilla Naamiland	1					1
Dotswalla	district DDCE #154	1					1
South A frica	Jozidam on Mkuze-Candover Rd			1			1
South A thea	RBGF #1646			1			1
South Africa	Kamlushwa district near Mzinti				1		1
South Fillion	RBGE #2175				1		1
South Africa	Jozinidam, RBGE #1645			1			1
South Africa	Ndumu Game Reserve, Ingwavuma				1		1
	district, RBGE #1297						
South Africa	Zululand, Ingwavuma district,				1		1
	RBGE #1158						
South Africa	Pongolo, RBGE #1702			1			1
South Africa	Hlabisa, RBGE #5614	1					1
India	India Jodhpur ICRAF general	12	1			2	15
	collection						
India	Jodhpur Inde50	3	1				4
India	Jodhpur Inde60	3					3

India	Old Dehli Ridge, RBGE, date of	1						1
	collection 5 October 1959							
Oman	Dhofar, Mughsayl, RBGE #/6/4					1		1
Oman	Dhofar, Lejer Waterhole, RBGE #6232	1						1
Oman	Dhofar, Lejer Waterhole, RBGE #7236	1						1
Pakistan	Sind, Off Thano-Bula-Kotri Highway, RBGE #811	1						1
Pakistan	Sind, Off Budhapur-Menjhand Rd, RBGE #826	1						1
		106	80	92	3	4	12	297

^aPopulation: RBGE (Royal Botanic Garden, Edinburgh, UK); represents individual herbarium specimens.

- **Table S4** Haplotype diversity (within-population diversity $h_{\rm S}$, $v_{\rm S}$ and total diversity $h_{\rm T}$, $v_{\rm T}$) and differentiation ($G_{\rm ST}$, $N_{\rm ST}$ and $R_{\rm ST}$) for Acacia
- *senegal* populations in Africa (East, including Southern Africa, and West, including Central Africa). Number of populations, *n*; standard
- 866 errors (SE) in parentheses.

Marker	Region	n	h_S	h_T	G_{ST}	v _s	<i>v_T</i>	N_{ST}
a) <i>trn</i> H- <i>psb</i> A	East Africa, including Southern Africa	22	0.138 (0.0467)	0.523 (0.0972)	0.737 (0.0835)	0.120 (0.0433)	0.524 (0.1077)	0.771 (0.0782), = 0.771 (permuted)
	West Africa, including Central Africa	11	0.155 (0.0787)	0.613 (0.0782)	0.747 (0.1358)	0.169 (0.0860)	0.612 (0.0608)	0.723 (0.1393), < 0.805 (permuted)
	Africa-wide	33	0.143 (0.0400)	0.693 (0.0406)	0.793 (0.0562)	0.150 (0.0443)	0.693 (0.0606)	0.784 (0.0589), < 0.807 (permuted)
								$R_{ m ST}$
b) cpSSR	East Africa, including Southern Africa	22	0.657 (0.0583)	0.914 (0.0245)	0.281 (0.0607)	0.216 (0.0530)	0.931 (0.3165)	0.768 (0.0836), > 0.486 (permuted) (p=0.01)
	West Africa, including Central Africa	11	0.509 (0.0937)	0.918 (0.0264)	0.445 (0.1046)	0.306 (0.1365)	0.935 (0.3111)	0.673 (0.0317), > 0.656 (permuted)t (p=0.05)
	Africa-wide	33	0.607 (0.0505)	0.945 (0.0109)	0.357 (0.0532)	0.153 (0.0328)	0.957 (0.1637)	0.840 (0.0370), > 0.531 (permuted) (p=0.01)

867 ^aNC, not computed due to small sample size.

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Table S5 Distribution of cpSSR haplotypes within populations of Acacia senegal. 873

^a Region and Population	H	aplot	types	5																																	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	Total
East Africa																																					
Sodera														2					1																		3
Archer's Post														1					1																		2
Daaba										2																											2
Kajiado														1				3	3																		7
Kakuma														3					1					1													5
Kaleing										2				2	1				1																		6
Kargi														1																							1
Kibwezi															4					1																	5
Koriema					1	2			<u>1</u>	2				1																							7
Kulamawe						6																															6
Lokichar						1													2																		3
Magadi													3	1				2	1																		7
Marigat						3				3																											6
Merille							1			1	1																										3
Ngarendare										6	1			1																							8
Ngurunit										2				3							1																6
Ntumburi			3	3																																	6
Machakos, ^b RBGE #1081					1																																1
Rimoi										7																											7
Serolipi										4				1																							5
Taita Taveta															1				1																		2
Hargesia RBGE #264														1																							1
Kigwe										3		<u>1</u>	2	5	4																						15
Wangingombe										1				2	3		2																				8
Fallatu Forest																												2	2	1	2	2	1	2			12
Kordofan																									2		4										6
Bora, RBGE #1605																					1																1
Kundoura Forest Nyala, RBGE #1608						1																															1
El Haraza, RBGE #1604							1																														1
Sobar, RBGE #1614																				1																	1
Kassala nusery, RBGE #31																						1															1
Rodom, West Darfur RBGE #1503																						1															1
					1		1																									1		1			

Central Africa																														
Maroua																		<u>1</u>	9											10
Tourba															1	1														2
West Africa																														
Bissiga Fc																	3		1	2										6
Di (Sousou)																						7								7
Aite																3	1													4
Somo																			1					2	1				<u>1</u>	5
Kirane																1	1		4	1	21	6		7	9					50
Djigueni																6														6
Kankossa																1														1
Karofane																2														2
Daiba																	3			3										6
Diamenar														2	3		1													6
Kidira																			1	3										4
Ngane														1					2											3
Southern Africa																									1					
Jozinidam on Mkuze-Candover					1																									1
Rd, RBGE #1646					1																									1
Kamlushwa district, near			1																											1
Mzinti, RBGE #2175			-		 _								-												—	—	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	\mid	-
Jozinidam, RBGE #1645			1		 _								-												—	—	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	\mid	1
Ndumu Game Reserve,				1																										1
#1297				1																										1
Zululand Ingwayuma district													-												<u> </u>					
RBGE #1158						1																								1
1000000000																									+	1				
Arabian Peninsula, Pakistan																														
and India																														
India ICRAF general collection										2	7	1	1	3	1															15
Jodhpur Inde50																					4									4
Jodhpur Inde60																			3											3
Mughsayl, RBGE #7674	1				1		1				1	1						1												1
Lejer Waterhole, RBGE #2462		1			1		1				1	1						1												1
Lejer Waterhole, RBGE #6232					1		1				1	1						1										1		1
Sind, Off Thano-Bula-Kotri							1						1																	1
Highway, RBGE #811							1																							1
Budhapur-Menjhand Rd, RBGE							1																							1
#826							1																							1

	<u>1</u>	1	5	4	2	14	3	2	1	33	2	1	7	32	13	1	3	5	17	7	16	11	<u>1</u>	22	11	25	17	2	2	1	11	12	1	2	1	<u>1</u>	290

^aRegions and Countries; East Africa (Ethiopia, Kenya Somalia, Tanzania and Sudan); Central Africa (Chad and Cameroon); West Africa (Burkina Faso, Mauritania, Niger and Senegal); Southern Africa; Arabian Peninsula (Oman), Pakistan and India. Country population affiliations are as shown in Table 1. ^bRBGE, Royal Botanic Garden, Edinburgh, UK. Private haplotypes are underlined.

Table S6 cpSSR SAMOVA delineated groups and affiliations to geographic region, putative variety and *trn*H-*psb*A haplotypes from 40
 populations of *Acacia senegal*.

SAMOVA group and	Population	Variety	Country	trnH-psbA	ITS lineages
geographic region				haplotypes	
1. Mainly East Africa	Sodera	senegal	Ethiopia	3	nd ⁴
	^a Sudan	senegal	Sudan	1, 2	IV-3
	Kajiado	senegal	Kenya	1	IV-3
	Kakuma	kerensis	Kenya	1, 2	IV-3
	Kaleing'	kerensis	Kenya	1	IV-3
	Kibwezi	kerensis	Kenya	1, 3	IV-3
	Koriema	senegal	Kenya	1, 3	nd ⁴
	Lokichar	kerensis	Kenya	1	nd ⁴
	Magadi	leiorhachis	Kenya	1	III
	Marigat	kerensis	Kenya	1, 3	nd ³
	Merille	kerensis	Kenya	1	IV-3
	Ngarendare	kerensis	Kenya	1	nd ³
	Ngurunit	leiorhachis	Kenya	1	II
	Rimoi	senegal	Kenya	1	
	Serolipi	kerensis	Kenya	1	IV-3
	Kigwe	leiorhachis	Tanzania	1, 2	III
	Wangingombe	senegal	Tanzania	2	IV-3
	Diamenar	senegal	Senegal	2	IV-3
	Tourba	senegal	Chad	2	IV-3
	Jodhpur (ICRAF)	^b senegal	India	2, 3, 6	III
	aOman	senegal	Oman	1, 5	nd ⁴
	^a Sudan	senegal	Sudan	1, 2	
		-			

2. Mainly West Africa	Bissiga	senegal	Burkina Faso	3	IV-3
	Di (Sousou)	senegal	Burkina Faso	3	IV-3
	Aite	senegal	Mauritania	2, 3	IV-3
	Djigueni	senegal	Mauritania	3	IV-3
	Kirane	senegal	Mauritania	2, 3	IV-3
	Somo	senegal	Mauritania	3	IV-3
	Karofane	senegal	Niger ³	3	IV-3
	Daiba	senegal	Senegal	2	IV-3
	Kidira	senegal	Senegal	2, 3	IV-3
	Ngane	senegal	Senegal	2, 3	IV-3
	Maroua	senegal	Cameroon	6	IV-3
	Kordofan	senegal	Sudan	2	IV-3
	Fallatu	senegal	Sudan	2	IV-3
	Jodhpur50	senegal	India	2, 3	IV-3
	Jodhpur60	senegal	India	2	IV-3
3. East and Southern	Kulamawe	leoirhachis			
Africa			Kenya	1	^d ND
	Ntumburi	senegal	Kenya	1	IV-3
	^a Southern Africa	rostrata	^c Botswana	2, 4, 5	IV-2

^aQuasi-populations from country or regionally located herbarium specimens as listed in Table 1; ^bSamples with unverified intraspecific affiliations; ^cContains individuals forming the basal group (see Figure 1); ^dND, not determined/not sequenced.

Table S7 Hierarchical analysis of genetic differentiation for rangewide and pairwise comparisons between groups using RFLP and cpSSR markers. SAMOVA delineated Groups 1, 2 and 3, namely; East Africa, mainly West Africa, and East and Southern Africa, respectively.

- 891 Number of populations, *n*.
- 892

Region/group	п		RFLP (trnH-	-psbA)	cpSSR						
		F _{ST}	$F_{\rm SC}$	$F_{ m CT}$	F _{ST}	F _{SC}	$F_{ m CT}$				
Rangewide	39	0.792	0.754	0.156	0.871	0.389	0.789				
Group 1 vs 2	21 vs 15	0.815	0.772	0.187	0.855	0.385	0.765				
Group 1 vs 3	21 vs 3	0.603	0.620	-0.044	0.662	0.218	0.568				
Group 2 vs 3	15 vs 3	0.850	0.828	0.127	0.964	0.603	0.909				

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894

895 Figure legend

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Figure 1 (a) Bayesian 50 % majority-rule consensus phylogram of ITS sequences from *Acacia senegal* individuals sampled across its distribution range. Branches are labelled with \geq 70 % bootstrap support (above) and posterior probability (below) values. Arrow indicates presence of a single clade in the maximum parsimony strict consensus tree. The tree was rooted with *Vachellia farnesiana* and *Vachellia collinsii* (see inset tree, double line denotes the point at which the break is in the main tree) obtained via GenBank (accession numbers EF638219 and EF638216, respectively). *Acacia [Senegalia] senegal* sequence is accession number EF638213 from Zimbabwe. Each haplotype is code-labelled HX where X refers to a number 1-36 as described in Table S1. Hypothesised colonisation or range expansion events are indicated. Scale bar signifies 0.1 substitutions per nucleotide site.

Figure 2 Rangewide distribution of nuclear (**a**) and chloroplast (**b**) haplotypes in *Acacia senegal*. Data are: (**a**) haplotypes from internal

transcribed spacer (ITS) of the nuclear ribosomal DNA and (b) PCR-RFLP haplotypes of chloroplast *trn*H-*psb*A intergenic spacer of

907 Acacia senegal; each circle represents a single population with colour denoting haplotype variation. The number of samples per population

908 is presented in Supplementary Tables S2 and S3, respectively. Inset: approximate distribution of A. senegal in Africa (hatch-shaded area).



Figure 2

(a)



