# Islands in the desert: Environmental distribution modelling of endemic flora reveals the extent of Pleistocene tropical relict vegetation in southern Arabia

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## 22 ABSTRACT

Background and Aims: Southern Arabia is a global biodiversity hotspot with a high
proportion of endemic desert-adapted plants. Here we examine evidence for a Pleistocene
climate refugium in the southern Central Desert of Oman, and its role in driving
biogeographical patterns of endemism.

Methods: Distribution data for seven narrow-range endemic plants were collected systematically across 195 quadrats, together with incidental and historic records. Important environmental variables relevant to arid coastal areas, including night time fog and cloud cover were developed for the study area. Environmental niche models were built and tuned for each species and spatial overlap examined.

Key Results: A region of the Jiddat Al Arkad reported independent high model suitability for all species. Examination of environmental data across southern Oman indicates that the Jiddat Al Arkad displays a regionally unique climate with higher intra-annual stability, due in part to the influence of the southern monsoon. Despite this, relative importance of environmental variables was highly differentiated among species, suggesting characteristic variables such as coastal fog are not major cross-species predictors at this scale.

Conclusions: The co-occurrence of a high number of endemic study species within a narrow monsoon-influenced region is indicative of a refugium with low climate change velocity. Combined with climate analysis, our findings provide strong evidence for a southern Arabian Pleistocene refugium in the Oman's Central Desert. We suggest this refugium has acted as an isolated temperate and mesic island in the desert, resulting in the evolution of these narrow-range endemic flora. Based on the composition of species, this system may represent the northernmost remnant of a continuous belt of mesic vegetation formerly ranging from Africa

to Asia, with close links to the flora of East Africa. This has significant implications for future
conservation of endemic plants in an arid biodiversity hotspot.

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# 48 **KEYWORDS**

Arabian Peninsula, Central Desert, Coastal fog desert, Desert endemic, Ecological niche
modelling, Important Plant Areas, Oman, Pleistocene, Refugia.

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# 52 **INTRODUCTION**

Southern Arabia is part of the Horn of Africa global biodiversity hotspot, and is one of only 53 two hotspots that are entirely arid (Mittermeier et al. 2005; Mallon 2013). The flora of southern 54 55 Arabia arises from the relatively late separation of Arabia from Africa and Asia around 25 million years before present (Raven and Axelrod 1974; Delany 1989). During the Miocene 56 Arabia supported palaeo-tropical vegetation with swamps and open savannah grassland 57 58 (Whybrow and Mcclure 1981). This was progressively replaced by more drought-adapted vegetation through the Pliocene, with mesic elements of the flora persisting only in climatically 59 favourable refugia (Kürschner 1998; Jolly et al. 2009). The environment of southern Arabia 60 subsequently oscillated between climatic extremes throughout the Quaternary period 61 (Fleitmann and Matter 2009; Parker 2010; Jennings et al. 2015). These oscillations, combined 62 with the relative stability of localized climatic refugia may have contributed to the high degree 63 64 of species endemism (Patzelt, 2015; Sandel et al., 2011).

The biogeographic consequences of contraction and expansion from glacial refugia have been
well described in the temperate zones of Europe and North America (Bennett *et al.* 1991;
Comes and Kadereit 1998; Birks and Willis 2008; Keppel *et al.* 2012; Wang *et al.* 2014). By
comparison, these processes are poorly known in the arid environments of the Arabian
Peninsula (Ghazanfar, 1998; Meister, Hubaishan, Kilian, & Oberprieler, 2006; Patzelt, 2015).

Therefore establishing the spatiotemporal distribution of past climate refugia in southern
Arabia is likely to have important implications for future conservation planning (Al-Abbasi *et al.* 2010), building evolutionary resilience under climate change (Sgrò *et al.* 2011; Keppel *et al.* 2012) and even interpreting the history of hominid dispersal out of Africa (Jennings *et al.* 2015; Gandini *et al.* 2016).

75 A key center for plant endemism in southern Arabia is Oman's Central Desert (Ghazanfar, 2004; Miller & Nyberg, 1990; Patzelt, 2014; White & Léonard, 1990). The Central Desert is a 76 77 hyper-arid region, characterized by scarce precipitation often less than 100 mm/pa with high inter-annual variability and temperatures ranging from 6°C to more than 50°C (Stanley Price 78 et al. 1988; Fisher and Membery 1998; Almazroui et al. 2013). Provisionally divided into 79 'northern' and 'southern' systems, the Central Desert has relatively low species diversity, but 80 the highest proportion of range restricted endemic and regionally endemic plants in Oman 81 (Patzelt, 2015). This represents an ideal study system in which to test for evidence of climatic 82 83 refugia and their influence on the floral biogeography of southern Arabia.

Despite significant progress in documenting the flora of Oman (Brinkmann et al., 2011; 84 Ghazanfar, 1998, 2004; Ghazanfar & Fisher, 2013; Miller & Cope, 1996; Patzelt, 2009, 2014) 85 high resolution plant diversity and distribution data are limited or lacking for many areas, 86 87 hindering our ability to test these biogeographic hypotheses and identify putative refugia. To 88 address this knowledge gap, here we report results of a systematic botanic survey of the southern Central Desert. We focus on seven high priority narrow range endemic desert plants 89 90 (Table 1; Figure 1), restricted to the coastal belt and the adjacent escarpment and identified 91 through development of the Oman Red Data Book (Patzelt, 2014).

To enable a transition from survey data to predictive distribution maps we use an environmental
niche modelling (ENM) approach. ENMs are a suite of methods used to establish the

relationship between a species and a set of environmental variables (Elith and Leathwick, 2009; 94 Peterson, Papes and Soberón, 2015). In principle, ENMs evaluate the environmental conditions 95 in grid cells known to be occupied by a species and identify additional cells that represent 96 similar environmental conditions (Merow, Smith and Silander, 2013). The species' niche can 97 then be projected across the study area to predict its spatial distribution and identify 98 environmental variables that contribute significantly to model performance (Searcy and Shaffer 99 100 2016). In this study we benefit from both presence and absence survey data and a stratified survey design, which negates many of the biases common in environmental niche models 101 102 (Jiménez-Valverde et al. 2008; Warren and Seifert 2011).

To distinguish amongst alternative environmental drivers for local endemism, selection of 103 appropriate environmental modelling variables in arid environments is important (Dilts et al. 104 105 2015; Title and Bemmels 2018). In other coastal desert systems, endemic plant distributions are strongly influenced by the presence of cloud shade and fog, which causes condensation on 106 leaves and stems that trickles down to root systems (Cereceda et al. 2008; Fischer et al. 2009). 107 Given the extreme temperatures and low precipitation, the presence of coastal fog and the 108 cooling effect of the prevailing wind have been hypothesised to be a key driver of Central 109 110 Desert flora distributions (Miller, 1994; Patzelt, 2015; Price et al., 1988). The presence of coastal fog is supported by data from the northern Central Desert in 1984, where water collected 111 from fog collectors at Jiddat al Harasisi ranged from 0.08 L/m<sup>2</sup> in January to 3.6 L/m<sup>2</sup>. A total 112 of 93 nights with fog moisture were recorded across the year, with fog moisture at ground level 113 coinciding with reduced night-time temperatures, increased humidity and a wind speed less 114 than 15 Km/h (Price et al., 1988). In a subsequent study (Fisher and Membery 1998) a monthly 115 maximum of 4.0 L/m<sup>2</sup> during March and a minimum 2.5 L/m<sup>2</sup> during January, May, June and 116 December was recorded. To our knowledge, no empirical data is available on coastal fog from 117 the southern central desert. 118

Validation of environmental variables across a large, arid and sparsely populated study area 119 such as the Central Desert is also exacerbated by the paucity of weather stations (meaning that 120 global climate models are highly interpolated) and the fact that where weather stations do exist, 121 cloud cover and coastal fog are rarely recorded. To address these shortfalls, we make use of 122 the newly available WorldClim2 dataset that incorporates high accuracy remotely sensed 123 maximum and minimum land surface temperature (Fick and Hijmans 2017), together with 124 125 remotely sensed cloud cover data (Wilson and Jetz 2016). We also incorporate remotely sensed fog and putative fog covariates, to explore whether these variables contribute significantly to 126 127 Central Desert species distributions. Specifically, we derive night time fog intensity from MODIS data (MODIS Characterization Support Team (MCST) 2018) using the approach of 128 Chaurasia et al. (2011), as well as topography (including elevation, slope, aspect and terrain 129 roughness, as locally higher areas may catch more moisture (Schemenauer et al. 1987)), wind 130 speed and night time land surface temperature (LST) (Wan, Hook, & Hulley, 2018). As an 131 additional line of evidence in assessing the importance of coastal fog, we also survey 132 physiological fog capture adaptations across our study species using the approach of Larraín-133 Barrios et al. (2018). 134

Here, building on novel systematic survey data from the Central Desert, we aim to address 135 three main questions. First, we use newly available climate data to examine the influence of 136 137 the southern monsoon and coastal fog influx on the Central Desert climate. Second, we model the distributions of seven high priority narrow-range endemics, and test the hypothesis that the 138 same environmental variables are consistently important across taxa. Third, we consider 139 evidence for past climatic refugia and their influence on the current floral biogeography of the 140 Central Desert. We consider these data in the context of conserving rare desert endemics across 141 southern Arabia, a global biodiversity hotspot. 142

# 143 MATERIALS AND METHODS

## 144 Study area

The southern Central Desert is dominated by the Jiddat Al Arkad, a meandering escarpment of 145 50 to 100 m dissected by extensive wadi systems, depressions and runnels which discharge 146 into the Sahil Al Jazir coastal plain. Surface flows are only present following heavy rains. 147 Geologically, the study area is dominated by Oligocene – Miocene white bioclastic limestone 148 with coral debris flow deposits and laminated dolomitic limestone (Patel 1992). Soil is 149 predominantly Calciorthids – gravelly sandy loam on alluvial fans and stream terraces and 150 torriorthents (rock outcrops) weakly or undeveloped, low in organic matter and moderately 151 calcareous (Dregne 1976). 152

The vegetation is classified into three units as per Patzelt, (2015): i) Acacia tortilis – Prosopis 153 154 cineraria open woodland. Common grass and shrub species include the endemic shrubs, Convolvulus oppositifolius and Ochradenus harsusiticus and endemic grass Stipagrostis 155 sokotrana. ii) Xeromorphic dwarf shrubland intermixed with grasses and annual species. The 156 dwarf palm Nannorrhops ritchieana and A. ehrenbergiana are common in sandy depressions 157 close to the coastal escarpments. iii) Xeromorphic dwarf shrubland with Searsia gallagheri and 158 O. harsusiticus. In addition to flowering plants, several species of corticolous and saxicolous 159 lichens and epilithic cyanobacteria occur here, of which most are restricted to the putatively 160 161 fog-affected zones (Ghazanfar & Gallagher, 1998). The seven study species (Figure 1) are considered a part of, though not restricted to, the xeromorphic dwarf shrubland community. A 162 description of their known habitat and conservation status is provided in Table 1. 163

164 Field surveys and plant morphology

Fieldwork was conducted during the period 13<sup>th</sup> – 24<sup>rd</sup> January 2017, from Ras Madrakah,
across the Sahil Al Jazer (coastal plain) to the southern extent of the Jiddat Al Arkad, as part
of the Central Desert Botanic Expedition 2017. A stratified survey strategy was designed
orientating ten 20 km transects at 315 degrees (NW) along a 270 km portion of coastline, at 30

km intervals. This approach was designed to cross multiple environmental gradients that 169 frequently run perpendicular to the coastline. Stratified quadrat locations at 1 km intervals were 170 171 plotted prior to field work and their coordinates uploaded to handheld GPS units (Garmin, Oregon). Due to the remote nature of the study area, with several deep wadis bisecting these 172 transects and inhibiting access, some portions of these transects were not surveyed. When 173 174 moving between transects we opportunistically sampled additional quadrats at 5 km intervals 175 and recorded incidental observations of target species to maximise data collection. These additional quadrats were positioned via random number generation to determine distance and 176 177 bearing from the vehicle. A significant portion of travel was away from roads, but where roads (mostly gravel tracks) were present, quadrat positioning began > 100 m from the road to 178 mitigate disturbance bias in the vegetation recorded. 179

The following data were recorded for each quadrat: location, soil texture, soil pH, soil electrical 180 181 conductivity (EC) (following the method of Zhang et al. 2005), total vegetation cover, 182 maximum vegetation height, elevation, topography description and the presence, absence and count of the seven study species. Voucher specimens were collected for subsequent analysis, 183 and are deposited in the Oman Botanic Garden herbarium (OBG) (Table 1). Summary statistics 184 of quadrats were calculated in in R software V3.1.2, implemented in RStudio (R Development 185 Core Team, 2014; RStudio Team, 2015). A checklist of fog moisture capture and water use 186 187 efficiency functional traits commonly observed in xerophytic plants was also collated, following the approach of (Larraín-Barrios et al. 2018). Each study species was examined and 188 scored for their presence/absence and degree of development (see Tables S1 and S2, 189 Supporting Information). In addition to observations recorded during this field study, historical 190 records were included from relevant national and international collections, specifically; Oman 191 Botanic Garden Herbarium (OBG), Sultan Qaboos University (SQUH), the Oman Natural 192

History Museum National Herbarium (ON) and the Royal Botanic Garden Edinburgh (E)(Summarised in Table 2; Figure S1, Supporting Information).

#### 195 Preparation of environmental variables

To ensure we captured important environmental variation, we collated 54 bioclimatic variables 196 covering the study area at 1 km resolution (Table S3, Supporting Information). In addition to 197 WorldClim2 and Bioclim variables (Fick and Hijmans 2017), we generated a complementary 198 set of bioclimatic layers that may better characterise arid environments using the 'ENVIREM' 199 package (Title and Bemmels 2018). We also sought to include night time fog, an important 200 candidate variable in determining plant distributions in this region (Price et al. 1988). 201 202 Specifically we followed the approach of Chaurasia et al. (2011) and classified fog based on 203 the brightness temperature difference ( $\Delta BT$ ) of the 3.9 and 10.75 µm bands (channels 22 and 31) of the MODIS satellite. The emissive properties of these two bands differ for fog water 204 droplets which are typically small, and do not excite the 3.9 µm band, whereas emissivity for 205 both cloud and fog droplets is approximately the same for the 10.75 µm band (Hunt 1973). 206 Twice nightly images at 1 km resolution were collated for the period 2001-17 (MODIS product: 207 208 MOD021KM) from the LAADS database (MCST, 2018). Raw radiance values were converted to brightness temperature using Planck's function implemented in ENVI software (Harris 209 210 Geospatial) and the difference calculated. In contrast to Chaurasia *et al.* (2011), high quality real-time ground truth data is not available for our region, therefore we did not apply a fog 211 212 classification threshold, instead we retained the data as a continuous variable with higher (less negative) values considered more likely to represent smaller fog water droplets. 213

At a fine spatial scale, other variables may also interact with fog moisture and influence the local ecology (Rastogi *et al.* 2016; Chung *et al.* 2017), thus we also incorporated several relevant fog proxies or co-variates. Cloud cover data (period 2001-15) was extracted from the global high-resolution cloud cover dataset generated by Wilson & Jetz (2016). Roughness,

Terrain Ruggedness Index (TRI), slope and aspect were generated from a digital elevation model (GTOPO30) using the R package 'Raster' (Hijmans, 2017). Night time Land Surface Temperature (LST) was obtained from the MODIS satellite mission at 1 km resolution (Wan et al., 2018). Important climate variables are plotted, together with the study, area using the package 'RasterVis' (Lamigueiro, 2018).

223 To compare and characterize the range of environmental conditions across the Central Desert and other regional centres of endemism we randomly sampled all environmental variables for 224 *n* cells in each region (with *n* being proportional to the area of the sampled polygon) and 225 performed principal components analysis (PCA). We report variable loadings of the first and 226 second principal components in Figure S2 (Supporting Information). To provide an additional 227 line of evidence for local climatic stability, we compared interpolated Worldclim data (mean 228 for 1970-2000) to more recent independent meteorological records from four contemporary 229 weather stations (data period 1999-2017) in the central desert. Additional mapping and data 230 231 visualization was performed using 'ggplot2' (Wickham 2009) and 'rgeos' (Bivand et al. 2018).

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# Environmental niche modelling

The suite of environmental layers retained for modelling was refined in three stages. First, 233 layers that had low variability at the spatial scale of our study area were removed (e.g. soil). 234 Second, correlated environmental variables across the study area (r > |0.7|) were grouped, with 235 a single variable from each group considered to be most relevant to arid environment plant 236 237 ecology retained. Third, we performed an iterative selection procedure by removing variables 238 with the highest Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) using the package 'usdm' (Naimi et al. 2014), with an upper threshold of VIF  $\leq$  2.5. Retained environmental variables are reported in Table 239 240 S3 (Supporting Information).

Environmental niche modelling was performed with MAXENT v3.3.3 (Phillips et al., 2006), 241 implemented in the packages 'Dismo' (Hijmans et al., 2011) and 'ENMeval' (Muscarella et al. 242 2014). To minimise model over-fitting, species data (including historic and incidental 243 observations) were geographically rarefied to a 3 km bin size and examined across 244 environmental space. Models were individually run and tuned for each study species over a 245 study area encompassing the southern system, with quadrat surveys providing both presence 246 247 and true absence data. Due to low sample sizes, data were partitioned using a jackknife approach where the number of model runs is equal to the number of occurrence localities, with 248 249 a single data point excluded from each run for testing. Runs were performed iteratively across the full range of feature classes, with regularization multiplier values increasing from 1 to 4 in 250 0.5 increments. 251

Models were evaluated based on Akaike's Information Criterion corrected for small sample 252 sizes (i.e. ( $\Delta AICc = 0$ ), which penalises models that employ a greater number of parameters to 253 254 describe the data (Warren and Seifert 2011; Muscarella et al. 2014). We report AUCTEST averaged over all iterations, with higher values reflecting better model discrimination of 255 presence locations from background absences. To quantify model overfitting we use two 256 metrics. First, we report the mean difference in AUC between training and test data (AUC<sub>DIFF</sub>); 257 this is expected to be higher where models are overfit to training data (Muscarella et al. 2014). 258 Second, we report the proportion of testing localities with predicted habitat suitability values 259 lower than the training locality with the lowest reported value ( $OR_{MTP}$ ). For each species, the 260 best performing model was projected across the study area and a Maximum Training 261 Sensitivity Plus Specificity (MaSS) logistic threshold, which balances the trade-off between 262 omission and commission errors (Lobo et al. 2008; Liu et al. 2016), was employed to estimate 263 habitat area. For two species (OH, SG) where model evaluation indicated evidence of weak 264

overfitting, we used a Minimum Training Presence (MTP) threshold to ensure that all training
observations are included within the predicted suitable habitat area.

267 In an effort to understand the abiotic drivers of the resulting distributions, several studies have shown that ranking variable contributions successfully captures biologically important factors 268 (Kearney and Porter 2009; Searcy and Shaffer 2016). To assess relative variable importance 269 270 across species we compare ranked permutation importance using Kendall's W, corrected for ties, implemented in the package 'irr' (Gamer et al. 2012). Secondly, we use linear regression 271 to assess the relationship between the contribution of mean annual fog to model performance, 272 and the species' trait score (see Tables S1-2, Supporting Information). Finally we calculated 273 niche overlap across study species using the method of Warren, Glor and Turelli, (2008) and 274 then combined thresholded species distribution classifications to identify areas of spatial 275 overlap and co-occurrence of multiple species. RBG images were obtained from Sentinel 2 276 (Copernicus Sentinel data 2015, processed by ESA, accessed from https://remotepixel.ca/ on 277 278 20/12/2018) and plotted with increased contrast. Surface wind direction data, averaged for the months June to August (2015-17), was obtained from the Global Forecasting System, via the 279 package 'rWind' (Fernández-López 2018). 280

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# 282 **RESULTS**

Evaluation of regional climate identifies a weak influence of the southern monsoon system on the Jiddat Al Arkad of the southern system (Figure 2). Concurrently, increased summer fog incidence in the southern Central Desert coincides with the warmest temperatures of the summer months, which appears to result in cooler coastal night time temperatures. Principal component analysis of abiotic variables clearly differentiated the major regions of endemism (Figure 3). Overall temperature related variables were the major contributors to PC1, with precipitation differentiating PC2 (Figure S2, Supporting Information). The two Central Desert systems are found to be differentiated, but partially overlapping with 88.5% and 62% of points representing a unique climate variables for the northern and southern systems respectively.

Fieldwork surveys assessed 195 quadrats throughout the Southern System and successfully 292 located all seven regional endemics. Study species were recorded in 41% of quadrats. In 293 294 addition, 288 incidental and 68 historical observations were collated. After spatial filtering, 177 records were retained (Table 2; Figure S1, Supporting Information). Mean pH and EC 295 across all quadrats was 7.73 (SD = 0.44) and 14.99 (SD = 27.13) respectively. No significant 296 difference in pH or EC values was identified across species (ANOVA p > 0.05). In our 297 assessment of fog and drought functional trait adaptation, P. pulvinata scored highest, and S. 298 gallagheri scored lowest, with low stature, low leaf area and hairs the most frequent 299 300 adaptations.

#### 301 Environmental niche modelling and variable importance

After filtering, we retained nine environmental variables for modelling (Table S3, Supporting 302 Information). Ecological niche model evaluation statistics are reported in Table 2. Modelling 303 was not performed for *P. jazirensis* due to insufficient data. AUC<sub>TEST</sub> ranged from 0.76 (PP) 304 305 to 0.93 (SG). AUC values are often lower for more widespread species, which may be the case for P. pulvinata and O. Harsusiticus (Jiménez-Valverde et al. 2008). Model logistic habitat 306 suitability projections are plotted in Figure 4, with the percentage contribution of variables 307 308 reported in Table 3. Binary threshold maps are provided in Figure S3 (Supporting Information). 309 The most important variables varied substantially, with no evidence of consistent rank importance across species (Wt = 0.079, p = 0.87). Annual mean fog did not appear to rank 310 311 highly for any species, and was not significantly associated with fog adaptation trait scores ( $F_{1,4}$ = 0.76, p = 0.4). Niche overlap was high in all pairwise comparisons (median = 0.87; Table S4, 312 Supplementary Information). 313

## 314 Identification of climate refugia

Combined binary species distributions identified a key area where all study species are 315 predicted to co-occur (Figure 5A). High predicted habitat suitability across all models was 316 localized to the southern Jiddat al Arkad. Satellite imagery shows the region, seasonal cloud 317 cover and the prevailing summer wind direction in Figure 5B. Independent contemporary 318 weather station records provide an additional line of evidence. Whilst the three northern 319 stations show elevated maximum daily temperatures (period 2002-17) compared to the 320 Worldclim 2 reference (1970-2000), Shalim station – close to our putative coastal fog and cloud 321 affected area - shows summer maximum temperatures below the Worldclim 2 reference 322 323 (Figure 6).

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#### 325 **DISCUSSION**

326 In this study we present evidence for a Southern Arabian Pleistocene refugium in Oman's Central Desert (Figures 2, 5). As shown by Sandel et al. (2011), the negative relationship 327 between endemism and the increasing velocity of changing climate is strongest in poorly 328 dispersing species such as plants. Therefore co-occurrence of a high number of endemic study 329 species within a narrow monsoon-influenced region is indicative of a refugium with low 330 climate change velocity (Sandel et al. 2011; Abellán and Svenning 2014; Harrison and Noss 331 2017). Climate analysis identified cooler mean annual temperatures in the study area and the 332 influence of coastal cloud and fog (Figure 2), which combined with novel survey data and 333 334 environmental distribution modelling suggests that the vegetation of the southern Central Desert is a relict of an earlier, more mesic period. This is further supported by the biogeography 335 of genera such as Aerva, Searsia and Ochradenus which have global distributions from Africa 336 337 to South-East Asia, yet with endemic species restricted to Arabia (POWO 2018), indicating support for a refugium further back into the Neogene. Thus, this system may represent the 338

northernmost remnant of a continuous belt of mesic vegetation formerly ranging from Africa
to Asia, with close links to the flora of East Africa (Kürschner, 1998; Patzelt, 2011).

341 The relictual distributions that we observe appear to be driven by the interaction of climate and topographic factors, in particular the influence of the southern monsoon. It had been speculated 342 that parts of the Central Desert may be at the fringe of the monsoon-affected area (Patzelt, 343 344 2015), thus benefiting from occasional low clouds, cool winds and coastal fog during the southern monsoon, but previously this could not be tested because of the lack of climate 345 stations. Here, using evidence from remote sensing, we demonstrate that the southern monsoon 346 does indeed influence the southern system of the Central Desert, with patterns of night time 347 fog detected via the MODIS satellite also consistent with the limited reports available. This 348 putatively places the southern Arabian coastal fog-influenced Central Desert together with 349 other coastal fog deserts such as the Namib and Peruvian lomas (Cereceda et al. 2008; Henschel 350 and Seely 2008), though based on limited fog adaptation traits in the flora, fog intensity may 351 352 be lower.

By applying these climate data to systematic field records of endemic plants, we develop a 353 suite of models characterizing each species' environmental niche. We show that despite small 354 sample sizes it is possible to generate robust niche models, incorporating true absence data, 355 which identify important areas of plant diversity. Surprisingly, the relative importance of 356 357 retained climatic and topographic variables differed substantially across study species. Therefore, we conclude that it is not a single set of environmental variables contributing to the 358 distribution of this unique flora. For example, whilst overall, aridity and mean annual 359 360 temperature are unsurprisingly important predictors in an arid environment, almost all retained variables are important across specific taxa. Therefore our analysis does not support the 361 hypothesis that it is predominantly fog that influences the distribution of this endemic flora, 362 rather a range of factors appear to be important, consistent with the diverse traits and 363

phylogenetic provenance of the species. We note however that on a finer spatial scale, factors
such as microrefugia and fog hydrology may have greater importance (Mclaughlin *et al.* 2017).

366 Despite being recognised for its global importance, the arid Horn of Africa biodiversity hotspot is one of the most severely degraded, with less than 5% of habitat considered to be in pristine 367 condition (Mittermeier et al. 2005; Mallon 2013). Key threats to the Central Desert include 368 369 overgrazing (Ghazanfar, 2004), and climate change (Almazroui et al. 2013), with mean annual temperature for the Arabian Peninsula increasing at 0.6°C per decade and a significant 370 decreasing trend in annual rainfall (Almazroui et al. 2013). It is also concerning that climate 371 change has been associated with a historic shifts in intensity and northward extent of the 372 monsoon (Fleitmann and Matter 2009) and elsewhere a contemporary decline in coastal fog 373 374 frequency (Johnstone and Dawson 2010), with strong implications for persistence of endemic flora. In our study area, a relatively minor shift in the northward extent of the monsoon could 375 have significant implications for regional climate. 376

377 Refugia have been suggested as priority sites to conserve global biodiversity under climate change precisely because of their demonstrated ability to facilitate species survival under 378 379 adverse conditions (Keppel et al. 2012). Based on previous studies, it is also likely that refugial populations harbour the highest genetic diversity across the species' distribution (Meister, 380 Hubaishan, Kilian, & Oberprieler, 2005), helping building future evolutionary resilience (Sgrò 381 382 et al. 2011). This may be particularly important in the Central Desert, where many endemic species have been restricted to only a single refugial location, reducing potential for subsequent 383 population admixture (Petit et al. 2003). The southern coast of the Arabian peninsula has also 384 385 been predicted to contain a significant proportion of unassessed at-risk vascular plant species (Pelletier et al. 2018). In recent years, an Important Plant Area (IPA) programme has been 386 initiated for the Middle East, which highlights the value of an ecological and evolutionary 387 process-based view in identifying candidate conservation sites (Al-Abbasi et al. 2010). 388

Therefore, the site outlined here (Figure 5), covering approximately 880 km<sup>2</sup>, may be candidate
for further evaluation and consideration as an IPA.

In conclusion, this study makes an important contribution to our understanding of southern Arabian climate refugia, and the biogeographical origins of the endemic flora of Oman's Central Desert. In the future we highlight the value of a network of detectors to characterise coastal fog across the landscape, particularly in the southern Central Desert. These would better enable an assessment of how coastal fog co-varies with other readily available datasets such as topography, cloud cover and land surface temperature to enable higher resolution predictions of the influence of coastal fog on species distributions. More generally, we emphasise the value of predictive modelling in the region to advance beyond initial presence-absence grids, both to identify the drivers of biogeographic patterns and to prioritise sites for the conservation. In the future, further identification and characterisation of southern Arabian climate refugia may be a useful strategy to support conservation in a global biodiversity hotspot. 

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# 633 **TABLES**

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# **Table 1.** Summary of the seven study taxa, including Red List status from Patzelt (2014).

	ID	Species <sup>1</sup>	Family	Habitat description	Status <sup>2</sup>
	AA	Aerva artemisoides Vierh. & O. Schwartz subsp. Batharitica A.G. Mill	Amaranthaceae	Coastal areas including dry cliffs, rocky slopes and wadi banks on limestone, 20-300 m.	VU
	HG	Hyoscyamus gallagheri A.G. Mill. & Biagi.	Solanaceae	Low sand dunes and gravel desert, 0-250 m.	VU
	OH	<i>Ochradenus harsusiticus</i> A.G. Mill.	Resedaceae	Open Acacia tortilis - Prosopis cineraria woodland, in sandy and gravelly depressions of the central desert, 100-210 m.	VU
	PJ	<i>Polycarpaea jazirensis</i> R. A. Clement.	Caryophyllaceae	Coastal areas of Sahil al Jazir in sandy depressions and on limestone cliffs, 100-210 m.	CR
	PP	<i>Pulicaria pulvinate</i> E. Gamal-Eldin	Asteraceae	Limestone cliffs and central limestone plateau on sand and gravel, 0-300 m.	NT
	SG	Searsia gallagheri Ghaz.	Anacardiaceae	Stony wadis and depressions, 130-205 m.	VU
	SH	<i>Salvia</i> aff. <i>Hillcoatiae</i> R.A. Clement	Lamiaceae	Dry limestone plateau of the central desert, 0- 300 m.	VU
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655	<b>Table 2.</b> Environmental niche model input and evaluation statistics.
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SpeciesPre-filtering observationsPost-filteringFeatureAA161201241LHG3441923LOH1631313LPJ8014-PP19451854LQHPSG357017L	2.5 1.5 0.5 -	AUC <sub>TEST</sub> 0.84 0.82 0.79	AUC <sub>DIFF</sub> 0.11 0.08	ОR <sub>МТР</sub> 0.05 0.04	Parameters 6 5
HG         34         4         19         23         L           OH         16         3         13         13         L           PJ         8         0         1         4         -           PP         19         45         18         54         LQHP           SG         35         7         0         17         L	1.5 0.5 -	0.82	0.08		
OH         16         3         13         13         L           PJ         8         0         1         4         -           PP         19         45         18         54         LQHP           SG         35         7         0         17         L	0.5 -			0.04	5
PJ         8         0         1         4         -           PP         19         45         18         54         LQHP           SG         35         7         0         17         L	-	0.79	0 1 5		
PP         19         45         18         54         LQHP           SG         35         7         0         17         L			0.15	0.23	6
SG 35 7 0 17 L	2.5	- 0.76	- 0.11	- 0.04	- 10
	2.5	0.93	0.03	0.04	4
SH 15 15 0 25 LQ	- 1.5	0.89	0.05	0.04	8
Feature classes: Linear L, Quadratic Q, Hinge H, Product P and Th		RM = regu			er.

# **Table 3.** Percentage contribution of environmental variables to environmental niche models

681 across study species.

Environmental variable	AA	HG	ОН	PP	RG	SH	Mean (SD)
Night LST	22.7	0.0	0.0	1.3	4.1	2.6	5.1 (8.8)
Mean annual cloud cover	0.0	2.2	0.0	2.4	0.0	1.6	1.0 (1.2)
Cloud cover seasonality	0.5	31.2	0.0	2.9	0.4	9.4	7.4 (12.2)
Thornthwaite aridity index	44.5	0.0	4.2	0.0	82.3	0.8	22.0 (34.3)
Aspect	0.0	0.0	10.2	1.6	0.0	33.7	7.6 (13.4)
Elevation	0.0	40.6	33.1	37.7	0.0	26.7	23.0 18.4)
Mean annual fog	8.0	3.4	13.7	2.5	0.9	9.0	6.2 (4.8)
Terrain roughness index	24.0	0.0	7.6	21.1	12.4	5.0	11.7 (9.4)
Annual mean temperature	0.5	22.6	31.3	30.4	0.0	11.1	16.0 (14.2)

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#### 705 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

Figure 1. Images of the endemic Central Desert plant species included in this study. a) Aerva *artemisoides subsp. batharitica*; b) Hyoscyamus gallagheri; c) Ochradenus harsusiticus; d)
Polycarpaea jazirensis; e) Pulicaria pulvinata; f) Salvia aff. hillcoatiae; g) Searsia gallagheri;
h) A typical Central Desert landscape.

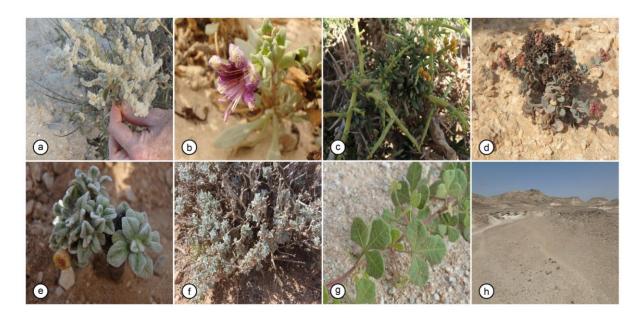
Figure 2. a) Elevation map of Oman, with annual offshore cloud cover percentage identifying the major southern and Indian monsoon climate patterns. Cloud cover over land is not shown, but is negligible for the Central Desert. Northern and southern study systems are denoted by shaded polygons. b) Quarterly mean temperature across the Central Desert. c) Quarterly night time fog intensity (change in brightness temperature) across the Central Desert. Higher values (less negative) are indicative of greater fog intensity.

716 Figure 3. Principal component analysis of abiotic variables across principal ecoregions of Oman. Grey points denote a random background sample from across Oman. The five major 717 centres of plant endemism comprise i) the Hajar Mountains; ii-iii) the Dhofar Mountains 718 719 comprising the Jabal Samhan and Jabal Al Qamar/Qara centres of endemism, combined for the purposes of this figure; iv) the Northern Central Desert consisting of the Jiddat Al Harasis/Huqf 720 721 and v) the Southern Central Desert comprising the Sahil Al Jazir/Jiddat Al Arkad. The Empty Quarter is plotted (yellow) for reference as it comprises a significant proportion of Oman's 722 land area, but is not considered a centre of endemism. The candidate refugium (red) is a subset 723 724 of the southern system of the Central Desert.

Figure 4. Environmental niche models for each of six study species across the southern Central
Desert. Higher values indicative of greater modelled habitat suitability. Dashed line denotes
the southern Central Desert system.

728	Figure 5. Identification of endemic species co-occurrence in the southern Central Desert. a)
729	Composite map of the binary distributions of six study species. Dashed line identifies a region
730	of high diversity with potential as a candidate Important Plant Area. b) False colour Sentinel 2
731	image of the high diversity area. Red line shows a primary road crossing the study area. Inset
732	rose diagram shows the prevailing wind direction during the Khareef (Southern Monsoon).
733	Cloud cover mean is shown in blue.
734	Figure 6. Locations of Omani weather stations contributing to interpolated climate variables
735	used in this study (1970-2000), as well as four independent validation weather stations from
736	the Central Desert (1999-2017). Maximum daily temperature recorded at these stations is
737	reported (coloured by year), with the black line denoting the historic Worldclim 2 average for
738	this period. Northern and southern systems are depicted in blue and orange, respectively.
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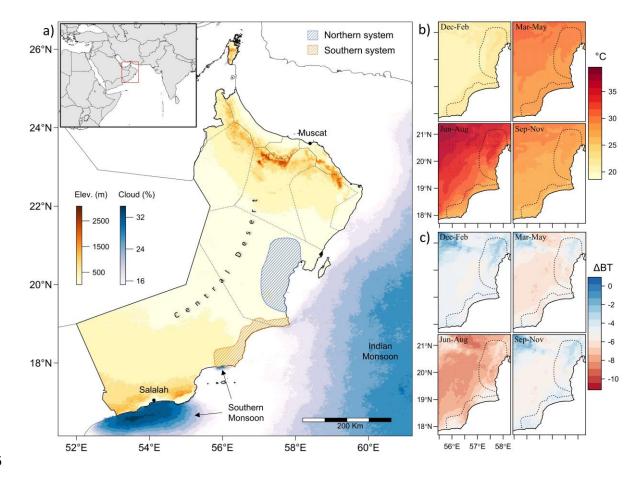
# **FIGURES**



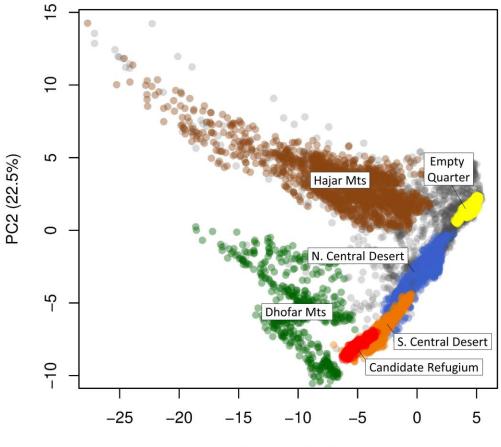
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# **Figure 1.**

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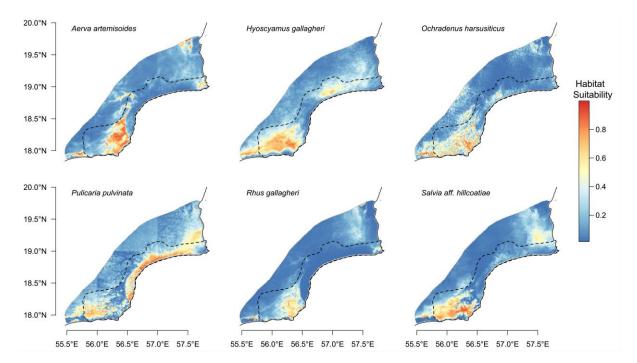


# **Figure 2.**



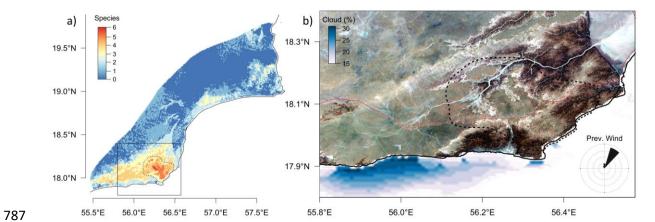
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# **Figure 3.**



**Figure 4.** 

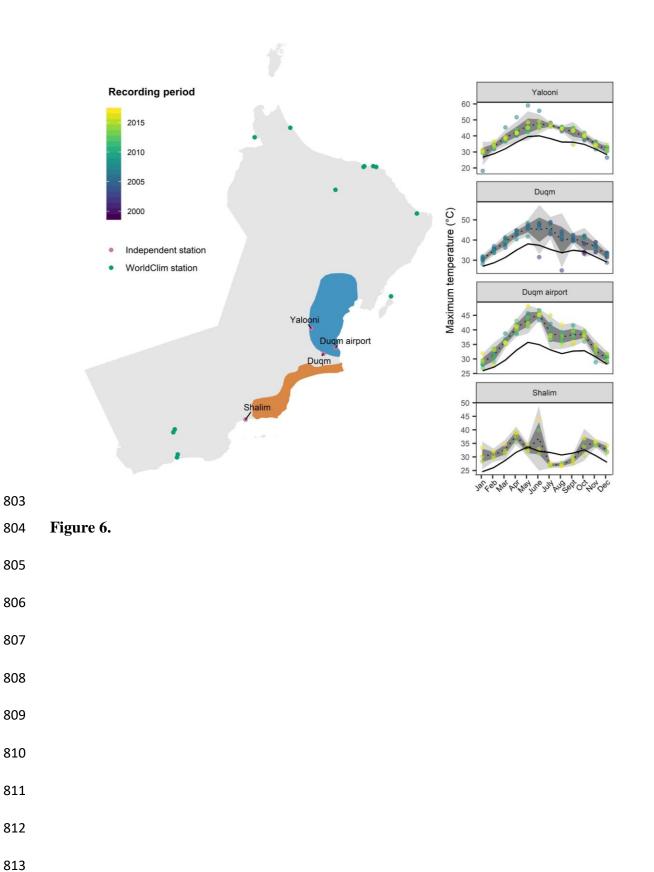
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- 788 Figure 5.

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## 816 **DATA ACCESSIBILITY**

All topographic and environmental GIS layers used in this study are freely available from the
sources outlined in Table S3, Supporting Information. Raw meteorological data for Central
Desert climate stations are available on request from the Meteorological Society of Oman.
Novel species observation records from the Central Desert will be provided on the Global
Biodiversity Information Facility.

## 822 BIOSKETCH

823 The research reported here emerged from the Central Desert Botanic Expedition 2017 and is the result of an ongoing collaboration between British scientists, volunteer participants and the 824 Oman Botanic Garden. Initiated in collaboration with the British Exploring Society in 2012, 825 collaborative teams have conducted research across several locations in Dhofar with further 826 research planned in the Musandam peninsula. Fieldwork has been generously supported by the 827 Anglo-Omani Society which seeks to promote understanding and friendship between Britain 828 and Oman, particularly through scientific and cultural exchange. J.B., G.I., D.L., A.S.R. and 829 830 A.P. conceived the idea, all authors (bar T.W. and A.P.) participated in fieldwork. J.B., T.S., 831 R.S. and T.W. performed analysis and J.B., D.L. and A.P. led the writing. All authors approved the final version of this manuscript. 832