

DIVERSIFICATION OF THE TROPICAL PACIFIC AVIFAUNA

By

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Abstract

I investigated the origins and diversification of Pacific avifaunas. Chapters 1, 2, and 4 elucidate the evolutionary history of three classically polytypic species complexes of Pacific island birds using multilocus phylogeographic approaches. The focal taxa were: *Ceyx lepidus* (Aves: Alcedinidae), *Pachycephala pectoralis* (Aves: Pachycephalidae), and *Todiramphus chloris* (Aves: Alcedinidae). In chapter 3, I examined the systematic relationships of 14 species of Pacific honeyeaters (Aves: Meliphagidae) relative to continental lineages. Each of these studies revealed novel biogeographical patterns heretofore underappreciated in Pacific birds. All three species complexes underwent rapid diversification with extensive genetic and phenotypic differentiation across widespread island archipelagos spanning thousands of kilometers from southeast Asia to Polynesia. This pattern was evidenced by phylogenies with short basal internodes, long stem lineages, and shallow divergences within each taxon. *Todiramphus* was noteworthy because it has attained extensive reproductive isolation, despite the recency of the radiation, as evidenced by multiple sympatric taxa throughout the Pacific. The work on meliphagid honeyeaters found extensive paraphyly of Pacific lineages with respect to their presumed continental congeners. I found evidence for a Central Polynesian radiation that included taxa from the eastern Solomon Islands, Fiji, Samoa, and Tonga. Throughout this dissertation I draw inferences on the processes of origination, diversification, and extinction in Pacific avifaunas using a comparative framework across multiple lineages at different scales of differentiation.

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Introduction

I am inspired by evolutionary diversity in nature and how it is partitioned across the globe. From intra-specific populations and their constituent genealogies to higher-level biological classification at or above the level of species, I am fascinated by the evolutionary history in the tree of life. This fascination—combined with a life-long passion for birds—guides my over-arching research goal, which is to study the patterns and processes that generated the exquisite diversity of the world's birds. Specifically, my dissertation research investigated the origins and diversification of birds in the tropical southwest Pacific.

I incorporate specimen-based fieldwork and DNA sequence data to study evolutionary processes behind geographic partitioning of biological diversity on islands. To study these processes, I explore patterns of genetic and phenotypic diversification in widespread Pacific radiations as well as those that are endemic to particular archipelagos. This geographically nested approach enables comparative studies of avian lineages at multiple spatial scales and relative diversification times. In short, I aim to study the tempo and mode of evolution in birds on Pacific islands.

Island archipelagos are ideal theaters for the study of biogeography and diversification. Their isolation, discrete geographic boundaries, and relatively well-known geologic histories have influenced a wealth of evolutionary theory (Darwin 1859; Wallace 1881; Lack 1940; Wilson 1959, 1961; MacArthur and Wilson 1963, 1967; Diamond 1975; Diamond et al. 1976; Boag and Grant 1981; Grant 1991; Wagner and Funk 1995; Lomolino 2000; Heaney 2007; Rosindell and Phillimore 2011; Gillespie et al. 2012). Adaptive radiation is a common theme throughout this literature; it is an especially common research program of biologists working in the remote Hawaiian and Galápagos Archipelagos (Boag and Grant 1981; Grant 1981; Price et al.

1984; Fleischer et al. 1998; Lovette et al. 2002; Lerner et al. 2011), and also the Greater Antilles (Williams 1972; Irschick et al. 1996; Jackman et al. 1997; Jackman et al. 1999). Adaptive radiations such as the Hawaiian honeycreepers and silverswords, Galápagos Finches, and Caribbean *Anolis* have provided a wealth of important information on the evolutionary processes behind adaptation (Givnish and Sytsma 1997; Schluter 2000). While these radiations are remarkable, they are far from the biological norm. In fact, evolutionary radiations have evolved equally rapidly on islands without producing overt adaptive consequences or morphological novelty (Arbogast et al. 2006; Moyle et al. 2009). For example, the geologically complex region of the southwest Pacific is home to numerous geographic radiations of birds—widespread, polytypic species complexes that comprise phenotypically differentiated forms from island to island. It was these geographic radiations, not their adaptive cousins, that inspired insular speciation theory in Melanesia for the better part of the 20th Century (summarized by Mayr and Diamond 2001).

Geographic radiations are a conspicuous component of the avifauna in the tropical southwest Pacific. Examples include the *Monarcha* and *Symposiachrus* radiations of monarch-flycatchers (Coates et al. 2006). In particular, the *Monarcha castaneiventris* species complex—perhaps more so than any other—is a poster child of geographic radiations, and it continues to provide a fruitful study system for evolutionary biologists (Uy et al. 2009a; Uy et al. 2009b). Zosteropid white-eyes are another example of a geographic radiation (van Balen 2008), albeit a much more widespread and speciose group than *Monarcha*. *Zosterops* is the quintessential explosive avian radiation that has produced dozens of species throughout the Old World tropics (Moyle et al. 2009). The *Z. griseotinctus* species complex was a central component behind ideas such as the paradox of the great speciators (Diamond et al. 1976; Diamond and Mayr 1976), in

which Diamond et al. pitted dispersal ability (gene flow) against differentiation and asked the question: *why are the species most capable of long-distance dispersal also the most geographically well-differentiated from island-to-island in an archipelago?*

Several of the most diverse geographic radiations in the Pacific transcend biogeographical boundaries of single archipelagos. To date, few widespread Pacific radiations have been studied in a molecular phylogenetic context with comprehensive geographic sampling (Moyle et al. 2009; Irestedt et al. 2013; Cibois et al. In press). This dearth of research is due in large part to the inherent difficulties of sampling fresh genetic source material across expansive insular distributions that often comprise numerous archipelagos and political governments. In this dissertation I investigated several of the most widespread, and by extension, diverse geographic radiations in the Pacific. I generated multilocus DNA sequence datasets with robust geographic and population-level sampling for three classically polytypic species complexes: *Ceyx lepidus* and *Todiramphus chloris* (Aves: Alcedinidae) and *Pachycephala pectoralis* (Aves: Pachycephalidae). These three studies comprise three chapters of my dissertation. The fourth chapter examines 14 lineages of Pacific meliphagids (honeyeaters) in a phylogenetic context to investigate their monophyly and taxonomic affinities relative to continental congeners from Australia and New Guinea.

A common theme I discovered in my investigation of the three species complexes was one of explosive and widespread diversification. My data show phylogenetic signatures suggesting that these lineages underwent massive range expansions from their ancestral origin in a rapid burst of colonization followed by cessation of gene flow and subsequent diversification in allopatry. As a result of this rapid diversification, phylogenetic relationships among constituent lineages are often equivocal, and it remains an open question whether more data (i.e., high-

throughput sequencing) will resolve these polytomies or if they truly are hard polytomies. An unfortunate consequence of basal polytomies is they preclude accurate estimates of biogeographic origins of ancestral lineages. Overall, these results are concordant with those found in the few Pacific bird lineages that have been examined recently, including white-eyes, *Alopecoenas* ground-doves, *Erythropitta erythrogaster*, and some *Myiagra* species (Moyle et al. 2009; Jönsson et al. 2011; Irestedt et al. 2013; Moyle et al. 2013; Fabre et al. In press). All of these studies faced similar plights of biogeographic interpretation, at least at critical nodes of the phylogenies. Throughout this dissertation, I refrain from over-interpretation of historical biogeography. Instead, I believe the phylogenetic signal (i.e., rapid diversification rooting to a polytomy) is a real biological phenomenon worthy of discussion, regardless of our ability to accurately pinpoint biogeographic origins of any one clade. Biogeographic origin(s) of Pacific avifaunas are worth considering, despite my admittedly conservative approach to the topic in this dissertation.

The prevailing biogeographic origin hypothesis is one of a unidirectional stepping-stone model of colonization with insular lineages derived from continental origins (Mayr 1940a, b, 1942; MacArthur and Wilson 1963, 1967). This hypothesis makes intuitive sense because the continents are relatively speciose compared to islands; however, the paradigm was challenged by Filardi and Moyle (2005), who found phylogenetic evidence that archipelagos can generate diversity, as well. Furthermore, they noted “upstream” colonization of monarch flycatchers from islands to continents, against the grain of paradigm. This was an important paper, in part for the biogeographical findings, but perhaps more so because it highlighted how rudimentary knowledge of the phylogeny implicated a reinterpretation of long-held ideas on the unidirectional colonization of archipelagos.

The Filardi and Moyle (2005) paper was by no means the first study (nor the last) to illustrate paraphyly of traditional taxonomic groupings using modern phylogenetics. However, they did draw attention to the geographic region (southwest Pacific) and group of birds (monarch-flycatchers) that were featured so prominently in seminal works on speciation theory and biogeography (Mayr 1942; Diamond 1974, 1975; Diamond et al. 1976). Many who work in the field of avian systematics criticize Ernst Mayr and Jared Diamond for their persistent interpretations of ecological and evolutionary phenomena through the lens of the Biological Species Concept; myself included. Indeed, it is easy to use their interpretations as strawman arguments in modern systematics studies, but I suggest that if one looks past the species debate and focuses on phenotypically and genetically diagnosable lineages as units of study, one will find that many of their ideas were not without merit. In fact, over the course of my dissertation, I have come to appreciate the nuances of their ideas and I find their voluminous writing to be among the first literature I turn to throughout the scientific process.

This dissertation comprises four data-rich chapters on the systematics of Pacific birds. It lays fundamental ground work for continued research in the Pacific, especially as the field moves from elucidating phylogenetic patterns to understanding evolutionary processes that govern origination, diversification, assembly, and extinction of biological diversity on islands. Some of the groups of birds I studied had not seen rigorous systematic work in more than 60 years since Mayr last curated the collection from the Whitney South Sea Expedition. It is my hope that I did these groups the justice they deserve. Some of my conclusions and interpretations, especially those of species limits, naturally are the product of the time period in which this work was conducted. Biological species are falling from favor in avian systematics; most are being “split” by way of phylogenetic/lineage-based species. If in 50 or 100 years science finds reason for this

pendulum to swing back, I would not be upset to see my interpretations in this dissertation amended. Regarding the more evolutionary interpretations herein (e.g., those pertaining to biogeography and diversification), this dissertation surely does not answer all the relevant questions, which is OK. Instead, I think of it as a living document that will continue to fine-tune my focus for future research endeavors, both in the field and the lab. If nothing else, I believe the nature of field-based systematics is such that scholarship can and should always be improved with increased sampling and more efficient and robust means of collecting and analyzing data. Ultimately, understanding the diversity of life is a never-ending endeavor—one that builds upon theoretical and empirical achievements of our predecessors—and that makes it all worthwhile and fun.

Chapter 1*

Phylogeography of the Variable Dwarf-Kingfisher *Ceyx lepidus* (Aves: Alcedinidae) inferred from mitochondrial and nuclear DNA sequences

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Abstract

We reconstructed the phylogeographic relationships of the Variable Dwarf-Kingfisher (*Ceyx lepidus*) using DNA sequence data. Maximum Likelihood and Bayesian analysis methods were used to reconstruct trees from a multilocus dataset of all 15 named subspecies of the *Ceyx lepidus* species complex. The concatenated dataset length was 2,471 bp and included two mitochondrial genes and two non-coding nuclear introns. Support for the monophyly of *Ceyx lepidus* was equivocal; instead, we found support for a clade including all *C. lepidus* subspecies plus two endemic Philippine taxa: *C. argentatus* and *C. cyanopectus*. Relationships among subspecific taxa were not well resolved, and many nodes were collapsed into polytomies suggesting a rapid and widespread colonization. *In situ* diversification likely played a role in generating current diversity within four archipelagos: the Philippines, Malukus, Bismarcks, and Solomons. Some biogeographic patterns recovered for the Solomon Islands taxa match those seen in other bird species, such as the close relationship of taxa on Bougainville, Choiseul, and Isabel; whereas the sister relationship between populations on Guadalcanal and the New Georgia Group is novel. We discuss species limits and make taxonomic recommendations to treat all 15 subspecies of *Ceyx lepidus* as species.

Introduction

The islands of Southeast Asia and the western Pacific are home to some of the most phenotypically diverse avian species complexes in the world. Birds such as the Island Thrush (*Turdus poliocephalus*), Golden Whistler (*Pachycephala pectoralis*), and Collared Kingfisher (*Todiramphus chloris*) are well known for their widespread geographic distributions and diverse phenotypes, each having more than 50 subspecies (Galbraith 1956; Woodall 2001; Peterson 2007). These hyperdiverse species have served as exemplars by ornithologists and biogeographers to study evolutionary processes that lead to geographic partitioning of biological diversity on islands (Mayr and Diamond 2001).

The Variable Dwarf-Kingfisher (*Ceyx lepidus*) is another widespread, phenotypically diverse species that has long puzzled ornithologists. *Ceyx lepidus* is a highly variable species with 15 recognized subspecies (Fry et al. 1992; Woodall 2001; Clements et al. 2011). Indeed, within its more limited distribution, *C. lepidus* is nearly as diverse as the more widespread species complexes cited above (Clements et al. 2011). Each subspecies is defined by distinctive phenotype based on variation in breast, mantle, and rump coloration, and bill color and shape. Subspecies are distributed allopatrically on islands from the Philippines to the Solomon Islands, including the Maluku Archipelago, New Guinea, and the Bismarck Archipelago (Fig. 1.1). *Ceyx lepidus* is a biogeographic enigma; no other bird species shares its distribution. Indeed, no biogeographic term exists to circumscribe this region (Lomolino et al. 2010). Interestingly, among terrestrial vertebrates, this distribution is mirrored closely by *Platymantis* frogs (Allison 1996; Duellman 1999); however, *Platymantis* extends east to Fiji, whereas the Solomon Islands mark the eastern boundary of *C. lepidus*.

The general plumage pattern of *Ceyx lepidus* is blue or black above and rufous below. The breast and belly generally are rufous with a paler throat; the crown, back, wings, rump, and tail are blue or black, and a rufous loreal spot and pale post-auricular stripe are present. Mayr and Diamond (2001) considered close relationships among some subspecies based on these generalized plumage patterns; however, they considered *Ceyx lepidus dispar*, *C. l. meeki*, and *C. l. gentianus* to be phenotypically disparate enough to warrant status as so-called "megasubspecies." *Ceyx l. gentianus*, for example, is the only taxon with a fully white breast and *C. l. dispar* is the only one with sexually dichromatic plumage (Fry et al. 1992). Notable plumage patterns also occur in the polymorphic Philippine endemic subspecies, *C. l. margarethae*, which has sympatric pale- and dark-backed morphs similar to the polymorphism described in *C. erithacus* of mainland Southeast Asia and the Sunda Shelf (Lim et al. 2010). In addition to plumage variation, bill structure and coloration vary dramatically within *Ceyx lepidus*. Bills are either red or black; red bills tend to be dorso-ventrally compressed and black bills tend to be laterally compressed. Two taxa, *C. l. nigromaxilla* and *C. l. sacerdotis*, have intermediate bill colors with black or dusky maxillae and orange mandibles (Fry et al. 1992; Woodall 2001). Indeed, the amount of variation expressed in *C. lepidus* bill morphology matches that seen across the entire clade to which it belongs: the pygmy-kingfishers (subfamily Alcedininae).

Few attempts have been made to elucidate the phylogenetic relationships of *C. lepidus* with other pygmy-kingfishers. Fry (1980) hypothesized a closer relationship with the Philippine endemic *C. argentatus* than with the sympatric *C. melanurus* based on plumage characters. More recently, studies using molecular data recovered *C. lepidus* in a well-supported clade of 3-toed pygmy-kingfishers in the genus *Ceyx* (Moyle 2006; Moyle et al. 2007) that included *C. cyanopectus*, *C. argentatus*, *C. melanurus*, and *C. erithacus*. Furthermore, Moyle et al. (2007)

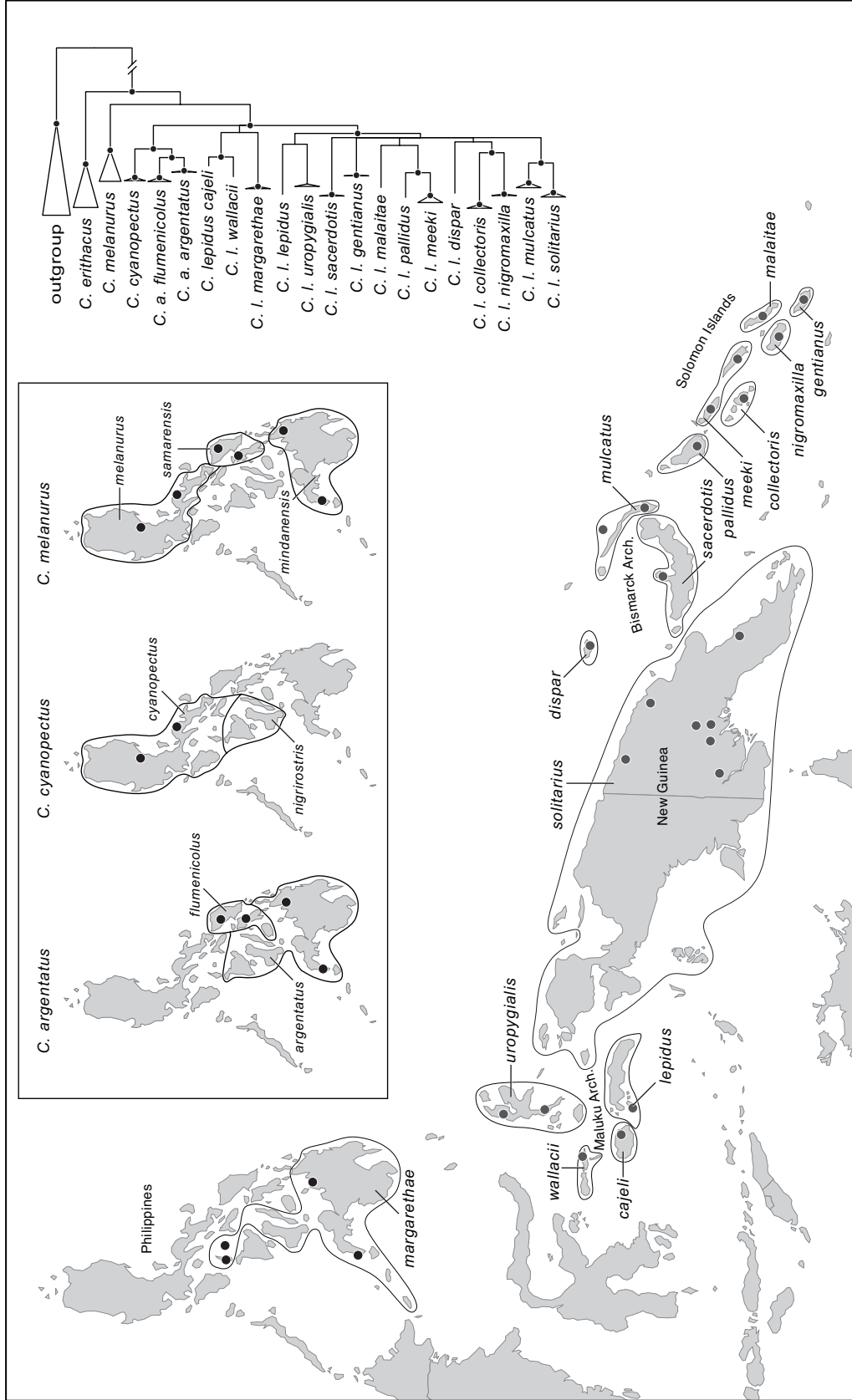


Figure 1.1. Map showing the distribution of the fifteen subspecies of *Ceyx lepidus* in the Philippines, Wallacea, New Guinea, and Melanesia. Inset panel depicts the distribution of closely-related Philippine endemic species *C. argenteus*, *C. cyanopterus*, and *C. melanurus*. Black dots represent sampling localities used in this study; some dots represent more than one individual per locality. The reader is referred to Table 1 for the complete sampling list. The phylogeny is a cartoon of Figure 2 for topological reference. Black circles on nodes denote Bayesian posterior probability = 0.95 and Maximum Likelihood bootstrap support ≥ 70 .

found evidence of a paraphyletic *C. lepidus*, but the extent of paraphyly was not known owing to sampling deficiencies. Traditional taxonomy, based largely on plumage characters and operating within the confines of the biological species concept, has for a long time treated *C. lepidus* as one species with 15 diagnosable subspecies (Cottrell et al. 1945; Clements et al. 2011); however, historically, nine of the 15 taxa were described as species (all except *C. l. uropygialis*, *C. l. mulcatus*, *C. l. pallidus*, *C. l. collectoris*, *C. l. malaitae*, and *C. l. nigromaxilla*). In this paper, we reconstruct a molecular phylogeny of the *C. lepidus* species group and its closely-related taxa in order to elucidate the evolutionary history and assess species limits of this group.

Methods

Taxon sampling

Ingroup sampling included all 15 named taxa of *Ceyx lepidus* (Clements et al. 2011) as well as representative subspecies of *C. erithacus*, *C. melanurus*, *C. cyanopectus*, and *C. argentatus* (2/5, 3/3, 1/2, and 2/2, respectively; Table 1.1). Outgroup sampling included all remaining taxa in the 3-toed pygmy-kingfisher clade as circumscribed by Moyle et al. (2007) and *Alcedo websteri*, which was used to root trees. We sequenced 1–11 individuals per taxon, but, whenever possible, more than one sample per taxon was used to guard against errors of misidentification, mislabeling, or sample contamination.

DNA sequencing

Total genomic DNA was extracted from frozen or alcohol-preserved muscle tissue using a Qiagen tissue extraction protocol (Qiagen, Valencia, CA). All tissue samples have associated

Table 1.1. Samples used to reconstruct the phylogeny of *Ceyx lepidus* including voucher institution and locality.

Taxon	Voucher ^a	Sample	Locality
<i>Alcedo hercules</i> ^d	KUNHM	10160	China: Guangxi Province
<i>Ceyx azureus</i>	KUNHM	96095	Papua New Guinea: Gulf Province
<i>Ceyx fallax</i> ^{b, d, e}	AMNH	299259	Indonesia: Sulawesi
<i>Ceyx pusillus</i>	UWBM	Bu67896	Solomon Islands: Western Province, New Georgia Island
<i>Ceyx websteri</i>	USNM	608680 ^f	Papua New Guinea: Bismarck Archipelago
<i>Ceyx argentatus argentatus</i>	KUNHM	18103	Philippines: Mindanao Island
<i>Ceyx argentatus argentatus</i>	KUNHM	19071	Philippines: Mindanao Island
<i>Ceyx argentatus argentatus</i>	KUNHM	19252	Philippines: Mindanao Island
<i>Ceyx argentatus argentatus</i>	KUNHM	19268	Philippines: Mindanao Island
<i>Ceyx argentatus argentatus</i>	KUNHM	19269	Philippines: Mindanao Island
<i>Ceyx argentatus</i>	KUNHM	14284	Philippines: Leyte Island
<i>Ceyx argentatus</i>	KUNHM	14289	Philippines: Leyte Island
<i>Ceyx argentatus</i>	KUNHM	14241	Philippines: Samar Island
<i>Ceyx cyanopectus</i>	KUNHM	17990	Philippines: Luzon Island
<i>Ceyx cyanopectus</i>	KUNHM	18068	Philippines: Luzon Island
<i>Ceyx cyanopectus</i>	KUNHM	20334	Philippines: Luzon Island
<i>Ceyx erithacus erithacus</i>	KUNHM	10417	China: Guangxi Province
<i>Ceyx erithacus motleyi</i>	LSUMNS	B38586	Malaysia: Borneo, Sabah
<i>Ceyx erithacus motleyi</i>	KUNHM	12359	Malaysia: Borneo, Sarawak
<i>Ceyx erithacus motleyi</i> ^{c, d}	KUNHM	12650	Philippines: Palawan Island
<i>Ceyx erithacus motleyi</i> ^{c, d}	KUNHM	12808	Philippines: Palawan Island
<i>Ceyx lepidus cajeli</i> ^{b, c, d, e}	AMNH	637134	Indonesia: Maluku Province, Buru Island
<i>Ceyx lepidus collectoris</i> ^d	UWBM	Bu66054	Solomon Islands: Western Province, New Georgia Island
<i>Ceyx lepidus collectoris</i> ^d	UWBM	Bu68064	Solomon Islands: Western Province, New Georgia Island
<i>Ceyx lepidus collectoris</i>	UWBM	Bu68077	Solomon Islands: Western Province, New Georgia Island
<i>Ceyx lepidus dispar</i>	KUNHM	5611	Papua New Guinea: Manus Province, Manus Island
<i>Ceyx lepidus gentianus</i>	KUNHM	12801	Solomon Islands: Makira-Ulawa Province: Makira Island
<i>Ceyx lepidus gentianus</i>	KUNHM	13530	Solomon Islands: Makira-Ulawa Province: Makira Island
<i>Ceyx lepidus gentianus</i>	KUNHM	13540	Solomon Islands: Makira-Ulawa Province: Makira Island
<i>Ceyx lepidus lepidus</i> ^{b, c, d, e}	AMNH	637099	Indonesia: Maluku Province, Ambon Island
<i>Ceyx lepidus malaitae</i>	UWBM	Bu66025	Solomon Islands: Malaita Province: Malaita Island
<i>Ceyx lepidus margarethae</i>	KUNHM	14022	Philippines: Camiguin Sur Island
<i>Ceyx lepidus margarethae</i>	KUNHM	14031	Philippines: Camiguin Sur Island
<i>Ceyx lepidus margarethae</i>	KUNHM	14355	Philippines: Camiguin Sur Island
<i>Ceyx lepidus margarethae</i>	KUNHM	14384	Philippines: Camiguin Sur Island
<i>Ceyx lepidus margarethae</i>	KUNHM	14397	Philippines: Camiguin Sur Island
<i>Ceyx lepidus margarethae</i>	KUNHM	19259	Philippines: Mindanao Island
<i>Ceyx lepidus margarethae</i>	FMNH	344953	Philippines: Sibuyan Island
<i>Ceyx lepidus margarethae</i>	FMNH	358316	Philippines: Sibuyan Island
<i>Ceyx lepidus margarethae</i>	FMNH	358317	Philippines: Sibuyan Island
<i>Ceyx lepidus margarethae</i>	KUNHM	14484	Philippines: Tablas Island

Taxon	Voucher ^a	Sample	Locality
<i>Ceyx lepidus margarethae</i>	KUNHM	14485	Philippines: Tablas Island
<i>Ceyx lepidus meeki</i>	UWBM	Bu63203	Solomon Islands: Choiseul Province, Choiseul Island
<i>Ceyx lepidus meeki</i> ^{c, d}	UWBM	Bu60194	Solomon Islands: Isabel Province, Isabel Island
<i>Ceyx lepidus meeki</i>	AMNH	DOT6641	Solomon Islands: Isabel Province, Isabel Island
<i>Ceyx lepidus mulcatus</i> ^e	LACM	91032	Papua New Guinea: New Ireland Province, New Ireland Island
<i>Ceyx lepidus mulcatus</i> ^{d, e}	LACM	91033	Papua New Guinea: New Ireland Province, New Ireland Island
<i>Ceyx lepidus mulcatus</i> ^{b, c, d, e}	AMNH	335499	Papua New Guinea: New Ireland Province, Tabar Island
<i>Ceyx lepidus nigromaxilla</i>	KUNHM	15880	Solomon Islands: Guadalcanal Province, Guadalcanal Island
<i>Ceyx lepidus nigromaxilla</i>	KUNHM	15892	Solomon Islands: Guadalcanal Province, Guadalcanal Island
<i>Ceyx lepidus nigromaxilla</i>	UWBM	Bu60341	Solomon Islands: Guadalcanal Province, Guadalcanal Island
<i>Ceyx lepidus pallidus</i>	KUNHM	5633	Papua New Guinea: Bougainville Province, Bougainville
<i>Ceyx lepidus sacerdotis</i>	UWBM	Bu67945	Papua New Guinea: West New Britain Province, ~12 km SE
<i>Ceyx lepidus sacerdotis</i>	UWBM	Bu68050	Papua New Guinea: West New Britain Province, ~12 km SE
<i>Ceyx lepidus solitarius</i>	KUNHM	5157	Papua New Guinea: Chimbu Province
<i>Ceyx lepidus solitarius</i>	UWBM	Bu68037	Papua New Guinea: Chimbu Province
<i>Ceyx lepidus solitarius</i>	KUNHM	9539	Papua New Guinea: East Sepik Province
<i>Ceyx lepidus solitarius</i>	KUNHM	5192	Papua New Guinea: Gulf Province, Ivimka Camp
<i>Ceyx lepidus solitarius</i>	UWBM	Bu67992	Papua New Guinea: Gulf Province, Ivimka Camp
<i>Ceyx lepidus solitarius</i>	UWBM	Bu68021	Papua New Guinea: Gulf Province, Ivimka Camp
<i>Ceyx lepidus solitarius</i> ^d	KUNHM	7229	Papua New Guinea: Madang Province
<i>Ceyx lepidus solitarius</i>	KUNHM	7295	Papua New Guinea: Madang Province
<i>Ceyx lepidus solitarius</i>	KUNHM	6977	Papua New Guinea: Oro Province
<i>Ceyx lepidus solitarius</i>	KUNHM	6982	Papua New Guinea: Oro Province
<i>Ceyx lepidus solitarius</i>	KUNHM	7526	Papua New Guinea: Western Province
<i>Ceyx lepidus uropygialis</i> ^e	YPM	74993	Indonesia: North Maluku Province, Bacan Island
<i>Ceyx lepidus uropygialis</i> ^{d, e}	YPM	74989	Indonesia: North Maluku Province, Halmahera Island
<i>Ceyx lepidus uropygialis</i> ^{b, c}	AMNH	637110	Indonesia: North Maluku Province, Halmahera Island
<i>Ceyx lepidus wallacii</i> ^{b, c, d, e}	AMNH	637152	Indonesia: North Maluku Province, Mangole Island
<i>Ceyx melanurus melanurus</i>	KUNHM	18046	Philippines: Luzon Island
<i>Ceyx melanurus melanurus</i>	KUNHM	20203	Philippines: Luzon Island
<i>Ceyx melanurus</i>	KUNHM	18184	Philippines: Mindanao Island
<i>Ceyx melanurus</i>	KUNHM	19006	Philippines: Mindanao Island
<i>Ceyx melanurus samarensis</i>	KUNHM	14304	Philippines: Leyte Island
<i>Ceyx melanurus samarensis</i>	KUNHM	14226	Philippines: Samar Island

^a Institutional abbreviations for voucher sources are as follows: American Museum of Natural History (AMNH), Field Museum of Natural History (FMNH), University of Kansas Natural History Museum (KUNHM), Los Angeles County Museum (LACM), Louisiana State University Museum of Natural Science (LSUMNS), Burke Museum University of Washington (UWBM), National Museum of Natural History Smithsonian Institution (USNM), Yale Peabody Museum (YPM).

^{b, c, d} Denotes samples for which data are lacking from ND3, Myo2, and/or GAPDH, respectively.

^e Denotes samples for which DNA was extracted from museum study skins.

^f This sample is the same as “B04021” from Moyle et al. (2007).

museum study-skin vouchers. For taxa with no available tissue samples, DNA was extracted from toepads of museum study skins (Table 1.1) in lab space separate from other *Ceyx* tissue extractions to minimize contamination risk (Mundy et al. 1997).

We sequenced the entire second and third subunits of mitochondrial nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide dehydrogenase (hereafter ND2 and ND3, respectively), the second intron of the nuclear Myoglobin gene (hereafter Myo2), and the 11th intron of the nuclear glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase gene (hereafter GAPDH). Target DNA fragments were amplified using polymerase chain reaction (PCR) with external and internal primers. ND2 and Myo2 primers are described by Moyle (2006) and Moyle et al. (2007). Additionally, we used internal primers 503L (Oliveros and Moyle 2010) and 562H1 (designed for this project; 5'-GATRATAATRGCYATTCAKCC-3') to amplify ND2 and the internal primer KingMyo620R (5'-AGGTTGCAGAGCCTGGAAATATCTC-3') to amplify Myo2 on some samples. The primer combinations L10755 and H11151 (Chesser 1999) and G3P13b and G3P14b (Fjeldså et al. 2003) were used to amplify ND3 and GAPDH, respectively.

PCR amplifications were performed in 25 µl reactions using 5-PRIME HotMaster *Taq* DNA polymerase with a touchdown protocol for mtDNA and GAPDH (annealing temperature: 58, 54, and 50 °C). We used an annealing temperature of 52 °C for Myo2 following Kimball et al. (2009). Amplified PCR products were screened on high-melt, 2% agarose gels stained with ethidium bromide, and purified with 10% Exo-SAP-IT™ (GE Healthcare Bio-Sciences Corp.). We cycle-sequenced purified PCR products in both directions with the same primers used in PCR for 25 cycles using the ABI Big Dye Terminator Cycle-Sequencing Kit version 3.1 (Applied Biosystems Inc., Foster City, CA). Sequencing was performed on an ABI Prism 3730 high-throughput capillary electrophoresis DNA analyzer and aligned sequences by hand using

Sequencher 4.9 (GeneCodes Corp.). Nuclear intron alignments were done by hand and checked against an automated alignment in MUSCLE (Edgar 2004).

Phylogenetic analysis and topology tests

Phylogenetic reconstruction was performed both on the concatenated data and on each individual locus. Maximum Likelihood (ML) tree searches were performed using GARLI 1.0 (Zwickl 2006) following the recommended default settings. We conducted 1,000 non-parametric bootstrap replicates (Felsenstein 1985) to assess clade credibility and SumTrees 1.1.1, part of the DendroPy 2.3.0 package (Sukumaran and Holder 2010), was used to create bootstrap consensus trees and calculate bootstrap values. Models of DNA sequence evolution for all phylogenetic analyses were tested using Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC) employed in jModelTest 2.1.1 (Guindon and Gascuel 2003; Darriba et al. 2012).

Bayesian Analysis (BA) was conducted using MrBayes 3.2.1 (Ronquist and Huelsenbeck 2003; Altekar et al. 2004; Ronquist et al. 2012) implemented with BEAGLE (Ayres et al. 2012). The data were partitioned by codon position for mtDNA and by gene for the nuclear introns. Two independent MCMC runs of 20 million generations were conducted using default number of chains (n=4) and heating conditions, sampling every 1,000 generations. TRACER 1.5 (Rambaut and Drummond 2007) and Are We There Yet? (AWTY; Wilgenbusch et al. 2004; Nylander et al. 2008) were used to assess convergence of parameter estimates and tree splits, respectively. The average standard deviation of split frequencies (ASDSF) was used to determine topology convergence between runs. The appropriate burn-in generations (25% for all analyses) were discarded based on convergence assessments of the ASDSF passing below 0.01. The remaining trees were summarized in a 50% majority-rule consensus tree.

Finally, the monophyly of *Ceyx lepidus* was evaluated using the approximately unbiased (AU) test (Shimodaira 2002). Using the same settings as the GARLI analyses described above, 200 ML searches were performed; 100 unconstrained and 100 with a topological constraint of *C. lepidus* monophyly. Per-site likelihoods were estimated for each tree under a partitioned model and an AU test was performed on these values using CONSEL v0.1i (Shimodaira and Hasegawa 2001). The *P*-value reported is the largest *P*-value of all trees inferred under the constraint.

Results

Sequence attributes

The aligned dataset was 2,471 bp and included 75 samples from 27 named taxa. All sequences are deposited in GenBank (Accession Nos. KC112595–KC112848). We obtained DNA sequences for all genes for all samples with the exception of those taken from museum skins, for which we were only able to sequence mitochondrial genes (Table 1.1). Alignment lengths were 1,041 bp (ND2), 352 bp (ND3), 709 bp (Myo2), and 370 bp (GAPDH). The aligned dataset contained 629 variable characters (25.5%) and 481 (19.5%) parsimony-informative characters. Pairwise distances in ND2 (uncorrected *p*; Table 1.2) ranged 8.0–11.6% between outgroup taxa and *C. lepidus* and 2.6–6.8% (mean = 4.7%) among *C. lepidus* taxa.

The ND3 gene sequence contained a single cytosine insertion at position 174 in all samples, an insertion reported in several other bird groups and turtles (Mindell et al. 1998). This insertion does not disrupt the reading frame because it is not translated. Apart from this insertion in ND3, the mitochondrial data showed no other insertions, deletions, or anomalous stop-codons; thus there was no evidence that mtDNA sequences were of nuclear origin (i.e., pseudogenes; Sorenson and Quinn 1998). The relative divergence among codon positions was typical for

Table 1.2. Uncorrected ND2 pair-wise *p*-distances. Mean pair-wise distances are reported for taxa with more than one sample. Column headers are abbreviated with the first three letters of the subspecific epithet.

	<i>eri.</i>	<i>mot.</i>	<i>mel.</i>	<i>min.</i>	<i>sam.</i>	<i>arg.</i>	<i>flu.</i>	<i>cya.</i>	<i>caj.</i>	<i>col.</i>	<i>dis.</i>	<i>gen.</i>
<i>Ceyx erithacus erithacus</i>	—											
<i>C. erithacus motleyi</i>	0.048	—										
<i>C. melanurus melanurus</i>	0.088	0.085	—									
<i>C. m. mindanensis</i>	0.085	0.076	0.026	—								
<i>C. m. samarensis</i>	0.084	0.084	0.019	0.025	—							
<i>C. argentatus argentatus</i>	0.085	0.080	0.070	0.065	0.070	—						
<i>C. argentatus flumenicolus</i>	0.092	0.083	0.074	0.070	0.077	0.025	—					
<i>C. cyanopectus cyanopectus</i>	0.092	0.080	0.072	0.068	0.073	0.034	0.041	—				
<i>C. lepidus cajeli</i>	0.080	0.075	0.059	0.056	0.060	0.045	0.046	0.054	—			
<i>C. l. collectoris</i>	0.098	0.088	0.084	0.079	0.084	0.062	0.064	0.069	0.057	—		
<i>C. l. dispar</i>	0.089	0.083	0.073	0.068	0.077	0.057	0.058	0.059	0.045	0.065	—	
<i>C. l. gentianus</i>	0.092	0.088	0.073	0.066	0.080	0.054	0.057	0.063	0.041	0.067	0.053	—
<i>C. l. lepidus</i>	0.086	0.082	0.069	0.064	0.065	0.045	0.050	0.057	0.047	0.063	0.055	0.057
<i>C. l. malaitae</i>	0.093	0.088	0.075	0.070	0.081	0.059	0.061	0.059	0.053	0.061	0.057	0.054
<i>C. l. margarethae</i>	0.086	0.080	0.073	0.066	0.073	0.055	0.064	0.063	0.046	0.061	0.062	0.062
<i>C. l. meeki</i>	0.085	0.085	0.074	0.067	0.077	0.056	0.060	0.061	0.047	0.068	0.056	0.063
<i>C. l. mulcatus</i>	0.099	0.086	0.077	0.067	0.078	0.062	0.062	0.063	0.052	0.067	0.062	0.052
<i>C. l. nigromaxilla</i>	0.094	0.089	0.078	0.071	0.081	0.061	0.064	0.065	0.048	0.053	0.059	0.059
<i>C. l. pallidus</i>	0.083	0.083	0.076	0.068	0.080	0.052	0.062	0.062	0.049	0.070	0.060	0.061
<i>C. l. sacerdotis</i>	0.100	0.092	0.076	0.073	0.082	0.060	0.061	0.069	0.047	0.073	0.061	0.051
<i>C. l. solitarius</i>	0.093	0.085	0.078	0.073	0.082	0.066	0.067	0.070	0.044	0.066	0.065	0.054
<i>C. l. uropygialis</i>	0.089	0.082	0.071	0.067	0.077	0.051	0.052	0.061	0.051	0.065	0.058	0.054
<i>C. l. wallacii</i>	0.083	0.076	0.062	0.058	0.061	0.050	0.048	0.058	0.016	0.061	0.054	0.048

	<i>lep.</i>	<i>mal.</i>	<i>mar.</i>	<i>mee.</i>	<i>mul.</i>	<i>nig.</i>	<i>pal.</i>	<i>sac.</i>	<i>sol.</i>	<i>uro.</i>	<i>wal.</i>
<i>C. l. lepidus</i>	—										
<i>C. l. malaitae</i>	0.056	—									
<i>C. l. margarethae</i>	0.060	0.064	—								
<i>C. l. meeki</i>	0.045	0.053	0.062	—							
<i>C. l. mulcatus</i>	0.060	0.058	0.060	0.060	—						
<i>C. l. nigromaxilla</i>	0.058	0.056	0.064	0.057	0.058	—					
<i>C. l. pallidus</i>	0.051	0.050	0.062	0.032	0.060	0.068	—				
<i>C. l. sacerdotis</i>	0.061	0.060	0.067	0.063	0.060	0.063	0.066	—			
<i>C. l. solitarius</i>	0.060	0.061	0.066	0.064	0.033	0.065	0.068	0.063	—		
<i>C. l. uropygialis</i>	0.048	0.056	0.060	0.057	0.055	0.063	0.053	0.062	0.061	—	
<i>C. l. wallacii</i>	0.052	0.056	0.050	0.052	0.056	0.060	0.053	0.048	0.054	0.055	—

mtDNA (3 > 1 > 2). Four deletions were noted in Myo2, but all were autapomorphic in the following samples: *Ceyx pusillus* (2 bp), *C. erithacus* (1 bp in each: B38586 and 12359), and *C. l. margarethae* (2 bp; 14384). A synapomorphic 1-bp deletion was shared by all *C. erithacus* and *C. melanurus* samples in GAPDH. Based on the results of model testing, we used the GTR+I+G model of sequence evolution for all three mtDNA codon positions, HKY+I for Myo2, and

HKY+G for GAPDH. All ML analyses with GARLI were done with the GTR+I+G model across the entire dataset.

Phylogenetic relationships

Individual gene trees were highly concordant (Fig. 1.2). The topologies recovered from analyses of mtDNA showed greater resolution than those derived from nuclear introns, which was expected given the higher rates of sequence evolution in animal mtDNA compared to nuclear DNA (Brown et al. 1979). No well-supported clades recovered from the analysis of individual genes conflicted with those from other gene trees or those from the concatenated dataset so we focused our discussion on phylogenetic relationships inferred from the concatenated dataset (Fig. 1.3). The inferred topologies from multiple independent ML and BA runs were highly concordant. The best ML topology had a $-\ln$ likelihood score of 9605.1289, as reported in GARLI.

We recovered a well-supported clade (i.e., Bayesian posterior probability > 95% and ML bootstrap > 70%) that included two outgroup taxa (*C. erithacus* and *C. melanurus*) and the ingroup clade (Fig. 1.3, Clade A), which comprised *C. lepidus*, *C. cyanopectus*, and *C. argentatus*. However, relationships among *C. erithacus*, *C. melanurus*, and Clade A were unresolved, a result similar to those obtained by Moyle et al. (2007) and Lim et al. (2010). The synapomorphic indel observed in the GAPDH intron supports a sister relationship between *C. melanurus* and *C. erithacus*, but this hypothesis requires further investigation.

Support for Clade A was unequivocal, but monophyly of *C. lepidus* received no support. Instead, basal relationships within Clade A consisted of a polytomy among four well-supported clades: (1) the Philippine endemics *C. cyanopectus* and *C. argentatus* (Fig. 1.3, Clade B); (2)

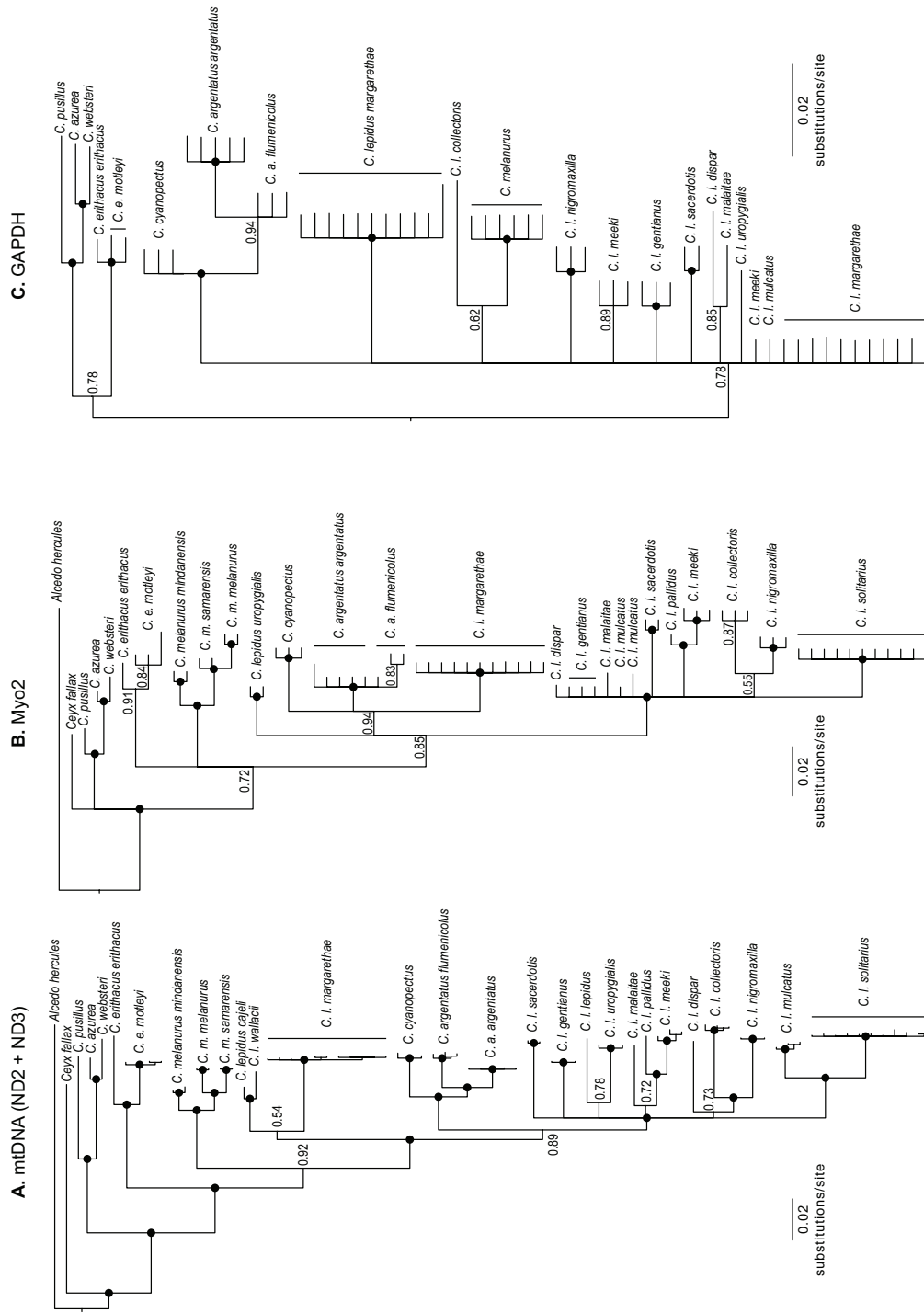


Figure 1.2. Bayesian phylogenies of the *Ceyx lepidus* complex for each of the three independently-segregating loci. (A) mtDNA: ND2+ND3, (B) Myo2, (C) GAPDH. Black circles on nodes denote Bayesian posterior probability = 0.95 and Maximum Likelihood bootstrap support ≥ 70 . Numbers by nodes indicate Bayesian PP. Some taxa are missing from trees B and C because data are lacking for Myo2 and GAPDH, respectively.

Wallacean *C. l. cajeli* and *C. l. wallacii* (Fig 1.3, Clade C); (3) Philippine endemic *C. l. margarethae* (Fig. 1.3, Clade D); and (4) a clade including the remaining 12 subspecies of *C. lepidus* (Fig. 1.3, Clade E). Although the polytomy raised the possibility that *C. lepidus* is paraphyletic, this relationship is best considered unresolved. Indeed, an AU test failed to reject *C. lepidus* monophyly ($P = 0.230$). Despite the lack of resolution at the bases of Clades A and E, each of the 15 *C. lepidus* subspecies was monophyletic, and several sister pairs were well supported: *Ceyx l. mulcatus* + *C. l. solitarius*, *C. l. collectoris* + *C. l. nigromaxilla*, and *C. l. pallidus* + *C. l. meeki*.

Within *C. argentatus* phylogeographic structure was concordant with named subspecies (see Discussion section below). Conversely, we found no discernable genetic structure within two widespread *C. lepidus* subspecies: *C. l. margarethae* and *C. l. solitarius*, despite broad sampling within their ranges. This result was somewhat expected for *C. l. solitarius* and likely suggests a high amount of gene flow across the island of New Guinea. However, the lack of genetic differentiation in *C. l. margarethae* across multiple Philippine oceanic islands—and representing two color morphs—is noteworthy.

Finally, removal of the five taxa represented by only one gene sequence in our dataset (*Ceyx l. dispar*, *C. l. malaitae*, *C. l. cajeli*, *C. l. wallacii*, and *C. l. lepidus*) had little effect on results of Bayesian analysis of the concatenated dataset. Bayesian posterior probabilities and the backbone topology were extremely similar between analyses with and without the five taxa (results not shown).

Figure 1.3. Bayesian phylogeny of the *Ceyx lepidus* complex based on a concatenated dataset of two mitochondrial coding genes and two nuclear introns. Black circles on nodes denote Bayesian posterior probability (PP) = 0.95 and Maximum Likelihood (ML) bootstrap support \geq 70. Numbers by nodes detail unresolved nodes, with numbers above branches indicating Bayesian PP and those below branches ML bootstrap.

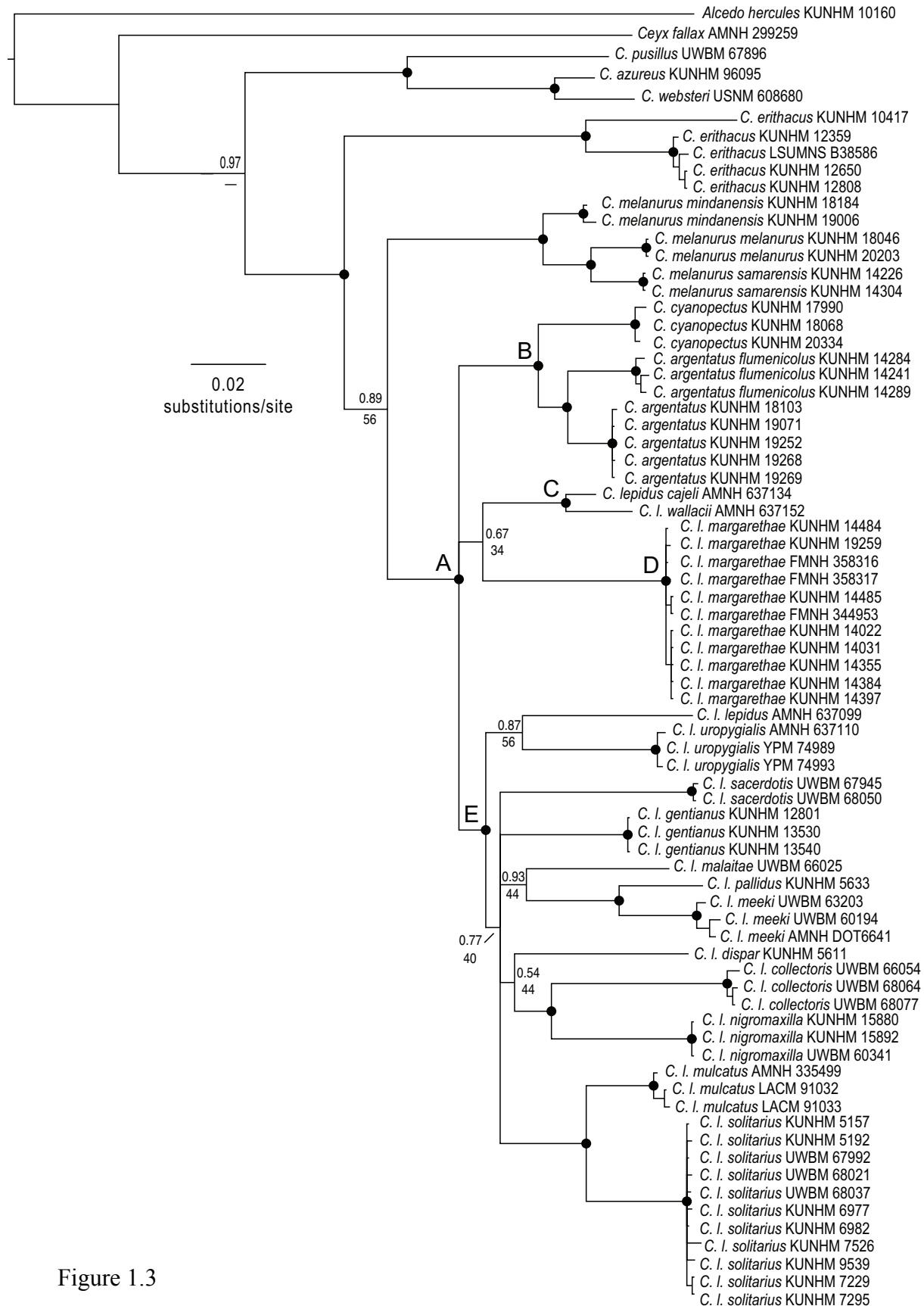


Figure 1.3

Discussion

Biogeography

This paper presents the first fully-sampled molecular phylogeny of *Ceyx lepidus*. Although the abundance of unresolved relationships precluded quantitative biogeographic analysis, some biogeographic insights are evident from our results.

Overall, the most striking aspect of the phylogeny is that each taxon in the *C. lepidus* complex is monophyletic and substantially diverged from all other taxa (2.6–6.8% divergent in uncorrected ND2 *p*-distance). We interpret this pattern of shallow internodes at the base, long stem lineages, and shallow divergences within each taxon as support for a scenario in which *C. lepidus* achieved its full geographic distribution rapidly followed by little or no subsequent gene flow among most island populations. This biogeographic pattern of rapid and widespread colonization across Southeast Asia and the Pacific islands is thought to have occurred in other widespread polytypic species complexes such as *Todiramphus chloris*, *Pachycephala pectoralis*, and *Turdus poliocephalus* (Mayr and Diamond 2001). However, densely sampled phylogenetic hypotheses are not available to test this hypothesis in these groups (but see Jones and Kennedy 2008b; Jonsson et al. 2008a).

The highest diversity in this group of dwarf-kingfishers (under present taxonomy) occurs in the Philippine archipelago, where one to three species are present on each major island. It appears that *in situ* diversification of *C. argentatus* and *C. cyanopectus* (Clade B) in the Philippines played a role in generating this diversity. Our results also indicate that multiple colonization events contributed to the diversity of dwarf-kingfishers in the Philippines: the ancestors of *C. erithacus* appear to have invaded the western Philippines from the Sunda Shelf and at least two other colonization events were responsible for the presence of *C. melanurus*, *C. cyanopectus*, *C. argentatus*, and *C. l. margarethae* in the archipelago. These four taxa occur in

sympatry on some islands; however, it is uncertain whether they occur syntopically. For instance, *C. argentatus*, *C. melanurus*, and *C. l. margarethae* all occur on Mindanao, and although natural history data are sparse for these taxa, preliminary observations suggest that *C. argentatus* is a stream-associated species, whereas *C. melanurus* and *C. l. margarethae* are forest species with no affinity to water (P. Hosner pers. comm.). This pattern suggests that at least some level of ecological partitioning helps separate these otherwise broadly sympatric taxa.

Some geographic insight can be gleaned from sister relationships in the *C. lepidus* species group. For instance, dwarf kingfishers of the Malukus are derived from two well-supported but unrelated pairs of sister taxa (*C. l. cajeli* and *C. l. wallacii*; *C. l. lepidus* and *C. l. uropygialis*), indicating the combined role of colonization and local diversification in generating diversity. *In situ* diversification is also evident in the Solomon Islands with the recovery of two pairs of sister taxa within the island group. The first pair, *C. l. pallidus* and *C. l. meeki*, reflects the close affinities of Bougainville, Choiseul, and Isabel, which form part of the Pleistocene island of Greater Bukida (Mayr and Diamond 2001). The close affinity of fauna within Greater Bukida, especially between Choiseul and Isabel, is documented in multiple avian lineages (Smith and Filardi 2007; Uy et al. 2009a) and also has been observed in bats (Pulvers and Colgan 2007). Bougainville tends to have taxa more divergent from the rest of the Greater Bukida islands (Mayr and Diamond 2001), and this pattern is also seen in *Ceyx*. The second sister pair within the Solomon Islands, *C. l. collectoris* and *C. l. nigromaxilla*, reveals a close relationship between the New Georgia Group and Guadalcanal, a biogeographic pattern not recovered in other avian studies (Filardi and Smith 2005; Smith and Filardi 2007; Uy et al. 2009a). The mostly unresolved relationships among the lineages in Clade E obscures the number of colonization events of the Solomon Islands. Lastly, the sister relationship of *C. l. solitarius* and *C. l. mulcatus*

unites New Guinea with the northern Bismarck Archipelago islands of New Ireland, New Hanover, Tabar, and Lihir. This result suggests that at least two independent colonization events were involved in assembling the dwarf-kingfishers of the Bismarcks. This sister pairing is cohesive with respect to plumage because they are nearly identical—both are rufous below with whitish throats, pale rufous loreal spots, dark blue backs, and black bills. This pattern of similarly-plumaged sister taxa was not upheld throughout the rest of the tree, which highlights the need for revisionary taxonomy not based solely on plumage patterns in polytypic, insular species complexes (Peterson 2007).

Plumage polymorphism

Examples of plumage polymorphism in birds are numerous and have received much attention (Roulin 2004). *Ceyx l. margarethae*, an endemic of central and southern Philippines, is the only *C. lepidus* subspecies for which polymorphism within single-island populations occurs. Only one other *Ceyx* species is polymorphic within a population: *C. erithacus* (Fry et al. 1992). Lim et al. (2010) found evidence for polymorphism in *C. erithacus* as a result of admixture of historically separate and genetically well-differentiated populations across southeast Asia and the Sunda Shelf. We sampled widely throughout the range of *C. l. margarethae*, including pale- and dark-backed individuals from the Philippine islands of Camiguin Sur, Tablas, Mindanao, and Sibuyan; however, we failed to recover genetic structure in *C. l. margarethae* with respect to geography or plumage polymorphism. Recent studies have found that single point mutations in the melanocortin-1-receptor gene are associated with plumage polymorphisms in bananaquits and monarchs (Theron et al. 2001; Uy et al. 2009b). It is possible that a single point mutation is

driving plumage polymorphism in *C. l. margarethae*, and investigations on the role of this gene in polymorphism in *Ceyx* species is recommended.

The subspecies *Ceyx l. dispar*, from the Admiralty Islands of Papua New Guinea, is sexually dichromatic—the male has the typical blue head, while the female is orange-headed. This pattern is reminiscent of the *Ispidina* pygmy-kingfishers of Africa (Fry et al. 1992). Only one other ingroup taxon, *C. cyanopectus*, is sexually dichromatic; males have a double breast band, while females have only one breast band (Kennedy et al. 2000); thus, sexual dichromatism appears to have evolved twice in the ingroup. Indeed, other instances of differential patterns of sexual dichromatism in polytypic insular bird species are known. For example, *Turdus poliocephalus niveiceps* and *T. p. carbonarius* are sexually dichromatic on Taiwan and New Guinea, respectively, but not elsewhere (Peterson 2007). Interestingly, *Pachycephala pectoralis feminina* on Rennell Island in the Solomon Islands is sexually monochromatic; in this instance the male reverts to female plumage (Galbraith 1956).

Taxonomy

Our discussion of taxonomy is based largely on an evolutionary species concept (Simpson 1961; Wiley 1978) and its extension, the general lineage-based species concept (de Queiroz 1999). We draw upon details of genetic divergence, biogeography, and plumage pattern as the most prescient evidence. Application of lineage-based species concepts to island systems is preferable to the biological species concept (Mayr 1963) because reproductive isolation between allopatric insular taxa cannot be assessed. Instead, we employ a lineage-based species concept to recognize ancestor-descendant populations with unique evolutionary histories.

Two Philippine species warrant discussion on species limits: *C. argentatus* and *C. melanurus*. *Ceyx argentatus* is distributed throughout the central and southern Philippines (Fig. 1.1, inset). Two subspecies of *C. argentatus* are described: *C. a. argentatus* and *C. a. flumenicolus*, though both were originally described as species (Cottrell et al. 1945). We recovered these two subspecies as sister clades diverged by 2.3% ND2 uncorrected *p*-distances. Our results support the suggestion of Collar (2011), which was based on morphological data, to treat *C. argentatus* and *C. flumenicolus* as full species, but we acknowledge that this pair of taxa requires further investigation to determine whether there is gene flow between them. On the other hand, *C. melanurus* consists of three subspecies, which are distributed along the eastern arc of the Philippines (Fig. 1.1, inset): *C. m. melanurus*, *C. m. samarensis*, and *C. m. mindanensis*. We sampled all three subspecies and found strong support for the sister relationship of *C. m. mindanensis* and a clade comprising *C. m. melanurus* and *C. m. samarensis*. Morphologically, these forms differ in the extent of black on the wings and the presence or absence of a blue streak on the side of the head (Fry et al. 1992). A comprehensive study of the genetic structure and morphological variation in this species is ongoing (P. Hosner, unpublished data), thus, we refrain from recommending taxonomic changes in this group. In both *C. argentatus* and *C. melanurus*, our data demonstrate the genetic distinctiveness of species on the eastern Philippine islands of Samar, Leyte, and Bohol, despite their land connection to Mindanao during the last glacial maximum. This result provides another example showing the distinctiveness of avian populations in this group of islands (Sánchez-González and Moyle 2011; Sheldon et al. 2012) and supports a nascent, but growing, body of studies recognizing that the paradigm of late Pleistocene aggregate islands explaining the distribution of diversity in the Philippines proposed by Heaney (1986) is overly simplistic for mammals, reptiles, amphibians, and birds (Evans et al.

2003; Jones and Kennedy 2008a; Esselstyn and Brown 2009; Linkem et al. 2010; Oliveros and Moyle 2010; Siler et al. 2010).

Plumage differences between the 15 *C. lepidus* subspecies are described in (Fry et al. 1992; Woodall 2001) and summarized in Appendix I. We discuss in detail an example of highly divergent plumage and an example in which the plumage differentiation is minimal, and the reader is referred to the appendix for details of plumage differences that are not discussed in the text. *Ceyx l. gentianus* from Makira Island in the Solomon Islands is one of the most morphologically disparate taxa. It is entirely white below, lacking the rufous tones found in most other forms of *C. lepidus* (Fry et al. 1992; Dutson et al. 2011). Other described taxa have more subtle plumage differences, and the two most similar taxa occur in the Solomon Islands. The Bougainville taxon, *C. l. pallidus*, one of the few taxa originally described as a subspecies of *C. lepidus*, is slightly paler than *C. l. meeki* from Choiseul and Isabel Islands. In his description Mayr (1935a) noted that *C. l. pallidus* is “similar to *Ceyx lepidus meeki*, but [its] under parts [are] pale yellowish buff, instead of golden-yellowish ochre.” *C. l. pallidus* appears to be only weakly differentiated from *C. l. meeki* in plumage, but our data support a well-differentiated genetic split (3.3% ND2 uncorrected *p*-distance) between these sister taxa. This divergence is substantially higher than the 2.3% divergence between *C. a. argentatus* and *C. a. flumenicolus*, two morphologically divergent sister taxa. It appears that in the case of *C. l. pallidus* and *C. l. meeki*, morphology was conserved while their populations diverged.

Although our phylogeny does not resolve the apparent rapid and widespread geographic diversification of *Ceyx lepidus* in a bifurcating fashion, it does provide a basis for a reevaluation of species limits in this group. We propose recognizing all 15 *C. lepidus* subspecies as species for the following reasons: (1) each subspecies is morphologically distinct; (2) these taxa exhibit a

relatively uniform and high degree of genetic differentiation among lineages (2.6–6.8% in ND2 uncorrected *p*-distance, Table 1.2), which is higher than in two sister taxa (*C. argentatus* and *C. flumenicolus*) that are closely related to *C. lepidus*; and (3) the 15 subspecies have allopatric distributions and therefore are experiencing their own evolutionary fate.

These results support an improved understanding of the high degree of morphologic and cryptic genetic diversity not only in Philippine birds (Lohman et al. 2010) but more broadly in the archipelagos of Southeast Asia and the Pacific. Recognizing subspecies of *C. lepidus* as full species will have important conservation implications, especially because most taxa are endemic to small islands or island groups.

Chapter 2*

Molecular systematics of the world's most polytypic bird: the *Pachycephala pectoralis/melanura*

(Aves: Pachycephalidae) species complex

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Abstract

With more than 70 described subspecies distributed from Java to Fiji, the Golden Whistler species complex (Aves: *Pachycephala pectoralis/melanura*) is the world's most geographically variable bird species. We sequenced 10 genes totaling 5743 bp from 202 individuals and 32 nominal subspecies, mostly from the Australasian and Polynesian lineages. We used concatenated maximum likelihood and Bayesian inference, as well as coalescent species tree analysis, to reconstruct a phylogeny. The resulting phylogeny is the most densely sampled and robust estimate of this group's evolutionary history to date and many novel relationships are revealed. The ingroup comprised three well-supported clades. An Australasian clade inclusive of Vanuatu was sister to a clade including the Bismarck Archipelago, the Solomon Islands, and the Polynesian taxa minus Vanuatu, and sister to these two clades was *Pachycephala citreogaster collaris* of the Louisiade Archipelago. Some species-level taxa endemic to the Pacific were found to be embedded in the ingroup (e.g., *P. feminina*, *P. flavifrons*, and *P. jacquinoti*), whereas others were found to be outside of the species complex (e.g., *P. implicata*). Generally, most nodes in the tree had strong support with the exception of several Polynesian lineages whose relationships remain equivocal. Relationships within each clade are discussed in detail, and current taxonomic treatments are critiqued in light of our results.

Introduction

Islands are ideal laboratories to study evolution and geographic partitioning of biological diversity, because of their isolation, discrete geographic boundaries, and relatively well-known geologic histories. Indeed, islands have long been recognized as special geographic entities populated with evolutionary novelties (Darwin 1859; Wallace 1881). The importance of islands spawned a quarter-century of intensive research on the ecology and evolution of insular species' distributions (MacArthur and Wilson 1963, 1967; MacArthur 1972; Wagner and Funk 1995). The utility of islands as 'natural laboratories' of evolution is exemplified in patterns of differentiation in widespread, phenotypically variable avian lineages (Mayr and Diamond 2001; Grant and Grant 2002; Lovette et al. 2002; Filardi and Moyle 2005; Smith and Filardi 2007; Ricklefs and Bermingham 2008).

A conspicuous element of island bird faunas, especially in the southwest Pacific, is the profusion of widespread 'polytypic' species that contain many nominal subspecies (Mayr and Diamond 2001). These species occur on many islands—often across multiple archipelagos (e.g., Collared Kingfisher *Todiramphus chloris* (Boddaert, 1783), Variable Dwarf-kingfisher *Ceyx lepidus* Temminck, 1836, Island Thrush *Turdus poliocephalus* Latham 1802, and *Monarcha* Vigors & Horsfield, 1827 flycatchers; Woodall 2001; Collar 2005; Coates et al. 2006). Although the various subspecies or island populations of these species are apparently closely related, many differ markedly in plumage pattern or coloration. Classification of these distinct allopatric populations has challenged taxonomists working under the Biological Species Concept (Mayr 1942, 1963) because reproductive isolation among allopatric populations was impossible to assess. As a result, up to several dozen distinctive populations were recognized as subspecies within single 'species complexes'. Although a frustration for taxonomists, these broadly

distributed but well-differentiated populations have proved excellent study systems for the development of classic concepts in evolutionary biology (Mayr 1942; Diamond 1974, 1975; Diamond et al. 1976) and, more recently, hypothesis testing using modern data sources and analytical methods (Moyle et al. 2009; Uy et al. 2009a; Uy et al. 2009b).

One of the most striking examples of a polytypic species is the Golden Whistler *Pachycephala pectoralis* (Latham, 1802), which comprises ca. 60–70 nominal subspecies spanning the Indo-Pacific (Galbraith 1956; Boles 2007). Most of the subspecies correspond to phenotypically distinct, single-island populations. Often, subspecies on adjacent islands are more disparate in plumage than are subspecies on islands separated by greater distances. Overall, plumage distinctiveness in Golden Whistlers comprises variation in a limited number of traits. Most subspecies are dorsally olive-green to black and ventrally yellow. Subspecies differ in combinations of throat color (white or yellow), presence or absence of a black nuchal collar, yellow loreal spots and nape, intensity of ventral yellow, and other minor plumage details on the wings and tail (Boles 2007). The population on Rennell Island of the Solomon Islands, *P. feminina*, is an extreme in plumage variation, its males being female-plumaged (i.e., sexually monochromatic). In addition to plumage differences, bill morphology and overall size also vary between subspecies. For instance, a greater than two-fold difference in mass occurs across all subspecies (e.g., *P. p. kandavensis* is 25 g and *P. p. orioloides* is 58 g; Boles 2007).

These patterns of diversity have led to an array of alternative taxonomic treatments (summarized in Table 2.1). Mayr focused on Pacific lineages and treated most of the complex as one polytypic species (Mayr 1932a, b, 1945; Mayr and Diamond 2001) apart from a few exceptions that he recognized as aberrant species-level taxa (*P. feminina* and *P. sanfordi*; Mayr 1931b, c). Galbraith (1956) proposed splitting the entire complex into eight ‘subspecies groups’

spanning Indonesia to Polynesia. Galbraith's groups were largely consistent with discrete geographic entities such as archipelagos. He retained one widespread group, however, suggesting a degree of difficulty in circumscribing species limits that link plumage patterns to geography in the complex.

Later, Galbraith (1967) and Diamond (1976) recognized that closely related taxa in this group in Australia and the Bismarck Archipelago maintain reproductive isolation by habitat choice despite instances of parapatry. Thus, *P. melanura* Gould, 1843, and its associated subspecies have since been recognized as a distinct species having affinities for mangrove habitats in Australia and small islets in the Bismarcks. Dickinson (2003) recognized Galbraith (1956) eight groups as species and subsequent authors have adopted this taxonomic framework (Dickinson 2003; Dutson et al. 2011; Gill and Donsker 2012; Clements et al. 2013). Some authors, however, still adhere to the 'Mayrian' view of 60–70 subspecies of *P. pectoralis* and five of *P. melanura* (Boles 2007). Here for consistency, we adopt the taxonomy of (Dickinson 2003), including prevalent use of subspecies names.

Two previous studies addressed the molecular systematics of this group (Smith and Filardi 2007; Jonsson et al. 2008a). Smith and Filardi (2007) sequenced mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) for 13 individuals from the Solomon Islands and Australia. Jonsson et al. (2008a) added 16 samples from the Bismarcks, Australia, and the Solomon Islands to the former dataset, and this still only amounted to less than 20% of nominal subspecies of *P. pectoralis*. Both studies provided valuable preliminary windows into the phylogenetic relationships within this species complex but their taxon sampling was inevitably limited. In this paper, we reconstruct the most densely sampled to date, multi-locus phylogeny of the *P. pectoralis/melanura* species complex

Table 2.1. Summary of four taxonomic treatments of the *Pachycephala pectoralis/melanura* species complex. Species names are in bold followed by the subspecies ascribed to each species. Note that Galbraith (1956) split the complex into “groups,” but he did not assign names to them.

Galbraith (1956)	Dickinson (2003)	Gill and Donsker (2012)	Clements et al. (2013)*
<i>P. pectoralis</i> (Lesser Sundan group A): <i>fulviventr</i> <i>is</i> , <i>javana</i> , <i>fulvotincta</i> , <i>everetti</i> , <i>teysmanni</i>	<i>P. fulvotincta</i>: <i>teysmanni</i> , <i>everetti</i> , <i>javana</i> , <i>fulvotincta</i> , <i>fulviventr</i> <i>is</i>	<i>P. fulvotincta</i>: <i>teysmanni</i> , <i>everetti</i> , <i>javana</i> , <i>fulvotincta</i> , <i>fulviventr</i> <i>is</i>	<i>P. caledonica</i> (New Caledonia group): <i>caledonica</i> , <i>littayei</i>
<i>P. pectoralis</i> (Moluccan group B): <i>mentalis</i> , <i>tidorensis</i> , <i>obiensis</i>	<i>P. macrorhyncha</i>: <i>calloiope</i> , <i>sharpie</i> , <i>dammeriana</i> , <i>par</i> , <i>compar</i> , <i>fuscoflava</i> , <i>macrorhyncha</i> , <i>buruensis</i> , <i>clio</i> , <i>pelengensis</i>	<i>P. macrorhyncha</i>: <i>calloiope</i> , <i>sharpie</i> , <i>dammeriana</i> , <i>par</i> , <i>compar</i> , <i>fuscoflava</i> , <i>macrorhyncha</i> , <i>buruensis</i> , <i>clio</i> , <i>pelengensis</i>	<i>P. caledonica</i> (Vanuatu group): <i>cucullata</i> , <i>chlorura</i> , <i>intacta</i> , <i>vanikorensis</i>
<i>P. pectoralis</i> (Solomons group C): <i>bougainvillei</i> , <i>orioloides</i> , <i>cinnamomea</i> , <i>sanfordi</i> , <i>melanonota</i> , <i>melanoptera</i> , <i>centralis</i> , <i>feminina</i> , <i>christophori</i>	<i>P. mentalis</i>: <i>tidorensis</i> , <i>mentalis</i> , <i>obiensis</i>	<i>P. mentalis</i>: <i>tidorensis</i> , <i>mentalis</i> , <i>obiensis</i>	<i>P. vitiensis</i>: <i>utupuae</i> , <i>ornata</i> , <i>kandavensis</i> , <i>lauana</i> , <i>vitiensis</i>
<i>P. pectoralis</i> (Fijian group D): <i>graeffii</i> , <i>aurantiiventr</i> <i>is</i> , <i>torquata</i> , <i>bella</i>	<i>P. pectoralis</i>: <i>balim</i> , <i>pectoralis</i> , <i>xanthoprocta</i> , <i>contempta</i> , <i>youngi</i> , <i>glaucura</i> , <i>fuliginosa</i>	<i>P. pectoralis</i>: <i>balim</i> , <i>pectoralis</i> , <i>xanthoprocta</i> , <i>contempta</i> , <i>youngi</i> , <i>glaucura</i> , <i>fuliginosa</i>	<i>P. graeffii</i>: <i>koroana</i> , <i>torquata</i> , <i>ambigua</i> , <i>optata</i> , <i>graeffii</i> , <i>aurantiiventr</i> <i>is</i> , <i>bella</i>
<i>P. pectoralis</i> (Northern Australian group E): <i>melanura</i> , <i>violetae</i> , <i>spinicauda</i> , <i>dahli</i> , <i>whitneyi</i> , <i>balim</i>	<i>P. citreogaster</i>: <i>collaris</i> , <i>rosseliana</i> , <i>citreogaster</i> , <i>sexuaria</i> , <i>goodsoni</i> , <i>tabarensis</i> , <i>ottomeyeri</i>	<i>P. citreogaster</i>: <i>collaris</i> , <i>rosseliana</i> , <i>citreogaster</i> , <i>sexuaria</i> , <i>goodsoni</i> , <i>tabarensis</i> , <i>ottomeyeri</i>	<i>P. flavifrons</i>
<i>P. pectoralis</i> (Southern Australian group F): <i>fuliginosa</i> , <i>glaucura</i> , <i>pectoralis</i> , <i>queenslandica</i> , <i>contempta</i> , <i>xanthoprocta</i>	<i>P. orioloides</i>: <i>bougainvillei</i> , <i>orioloides</i> , <i>centralis</i> , <i>melanoptera</i> , <i>melanonota</i> , <i>pavuvu</i> , <i>sanfordi</i> , <i>cinnamomea</i> , <i>christophori</i> , <i>feminina</i>	<i>P. orioloides</i>: <i>bougainvillei</i> , <i>orioloides</i> , <i>centralis</i> , <i>melanoptera</i> , <i>melanonota</i> , <i>pavuvu</i> , <i>sanfordi</i> , <i>cinnamomea</i> , <i>christophori</i> , <i>feminina</i>	<i>P. jacquinoti</i>
<i>P. pectoralis</i> (Southern Melanesian group G): <i>caledonica</i> , <i>littayei</i> , <i>cucullata</i> , <i>chlorura</i> , <i>vanikorensis</i>	<i>P. caledonica</i>: <i>vanikorensis</i> , <i>intacta</i> , <i>cucullata</i> , <i>chlorura</i> , <i>littayei</i> , <i>caledonica</i>	<i>P. caledonica</i>: <i>vanikorensis</i> , <i>intacta</i> , <i>cucullata</i> , <i>chlorura</i> , <i>littayei</i> , <i>caledonica</i>	<i>P. implicata</i>: <i>implicata</i> , <i>richardsi</i>
<i>P. pectoralis</i> (Widespread group H): <i>calloiope</i> , <i>sharpie</i> , <i>dammeriana</i> , <i>fuscoflava</i> , <i>macrorhyncha</i> , <i>buruensis</i> , <i>clio</i> , <i>pelengensis</i> , <i>collaris</i> , <i>citreogaster</i> , <i>ottomeyeri</i> , <i>tabarensis</i> , <i>goodsoni</i> , <i>ornata</i> , <i>utupuae</i> , <i>kandavensis</i> , <i>vitiensis</i> , <i>lauana</i> , <i>melanops</i> (= <i>jacquinoti</i>)	<i>P. vitiensis</i>: <i>utupuae</i> , <i>ornata</i> , <i>kandavensis</i> , <i>lauana</i> , <i>vitiensis</i> , <i>bella</i> , <i>koroana</i> , <i>torquata</i> , <i>aurantiiventr</i> <i>is</i> , <i>ambigua</i> , <i>optata</i> , <i>graeffii</i>	<i>P. vitiensis</i>: <i>utupuae</i> , <i>ornata</i> , <i>kandavensis</i> , <i>lauana</i> , <i>vitiensis</i>	<i>P. citreogaster</i>: <i>tabarensis</i> , <i>ottomeyeri</i> , <i>goodsoni</i> , <i>citreogaster</i> , <i>sexuaria</i> , <i>collaris</i> , <i>misimae</i> , <i>rosseliana</i>
<i>P. flavifrons</i>	<i>P. jacquinoti</i>	<i>P. graeffii</i>: <i>bella</i> , <i>koroana</i> , <i>torquata</i> , <i>aurantiiventr</i> <i>is</i> , <i>ambigua</i> , <i>optata</i> , <i>graeffii</i>	<i>P. orioloides</i>: <i>whitneyi</i> , <i>bougainvillei</i> , <i>orioloides</i> , <i>cinnamomea</i> , <i>sanfordi</i> , <i>pavuvu</i> , <i>centralis</i> , <i>melanoptera</i> , <i>christophori</i>
	<i>P. melanura</i>: <i>dahli</i> , <i>spinicaudus</i> , <i>melanura</i> , <i>robusta</i> , <i>whitneyi</i>	<i>P. jacquinoti</i>	<i>P. feminina</i>
	<i>P. flavifrons</i>	<i>P. melanura</i>: <i>dahli</i> , <i>spinicaudus</i> , <i>melanura</i> , <i>robusta</i> , <i>whitneyi</i>	<i>P. fulvotincta</i>: <i>javana</i> , <i>teysmanni</i> , <i>everetti</i> , <i>fulvotincta</i> , <i>fulviventr</i> <i>is</i>

Galbraith (1956)	Dickinson (2003)	Gill and Donsker (2012)	Clements et al. (2013)*
	<i>P. implicata:</i> <i>richardsi, implicata</i>	<i>P. flavifrons</i>	<i>P. macrorhyncha:</i> <i>pelengensis, clio,</i> <i>buruensis, macrorhyncha,</i> <i>caliope, compar, par,</i> <i>dammeriana, sharpie,</i> <i>fuscoflava</i>
		<i>P. implicata:</i> <i>richardsi, implicata</i>	<i>P. mentalis:</i> <i>mentalis, tidorensis,</i> <i>obiensis</i>
			<i>P. pectoralis:</i> <i>balim, pectoralis, youngi,</i> <i>glauca, contempt,</i> <i>xanthoprocta, fuliginosa</i>
			<i>P. melanura:</i> <i>dahli, melanura, robusta,</i> <i>spinicaudus</i>

* Earlier versions of the sixth edition of Clements et al. (2013) treated most subspecies within *P. pectoralis*.

and focus on the Australasian and Polynesian lineages in order to elucidate the evolutionary history of this classically polytypic species.

Methods

Taxon sampling

Sampling comprised 175 ingroup individuals from 32 nominal taxa within *Pachycephala pectoralis/melanura* and 27 outgroup samples, of which nine were taken from the literature (Smith and Filardi 2007; Jonsson et al. 2008a; Jonsson et al. 2008b; Jonsson et al. 2010) and 16 were newly sequenced (Table 2.2, Fig. 2.1). Broad outgroup sampling was included to ensure correct phylogenetic placement of taxa for which there was no *a priori* molecular phylogenetic hypothesis (e.g., *P. implicata* and *P. leucogastra*). The clade comprising *Pachycephala inornata*, *P. olivacea*, and *P. nudigula* was used to root trees because Jonsson et al. (2010) found it sister to the rest of the *Pachycephala* lineage. Whenever possible we sequenced multiple individuals per population (i.e., per island) to guard against errors of misidentification, mislabeling, or sample contamination.

Figure 2.1. Sampling sites for ingroup *Pachycephala* used in this study. Color-coded circles, stars, and squares represent sampling points. The symbols and colors simply reflect clades on the tree; like symbols and colors do not reflect phylogenetic relationships between clades. Sampling points are not scaled to the number of individuals (the reader is referred to Table 2.2 for sampling numbers). The Bayesian phylogeny from Fig. 2.2 is reproduced here with node support denoted by black (PP=1.0, $70 \leq BS \leq 100$) and gray circles ($0.95 \leq PP \leq 0.99$, $50 \leq BS \leq 69$). Three inset panels offer greater geographic resolution of sampling localities in (A) the Bismarck Archipelago and southeast Papua New Guinea, (B) the Solomon Islands, and (C) Fiji.

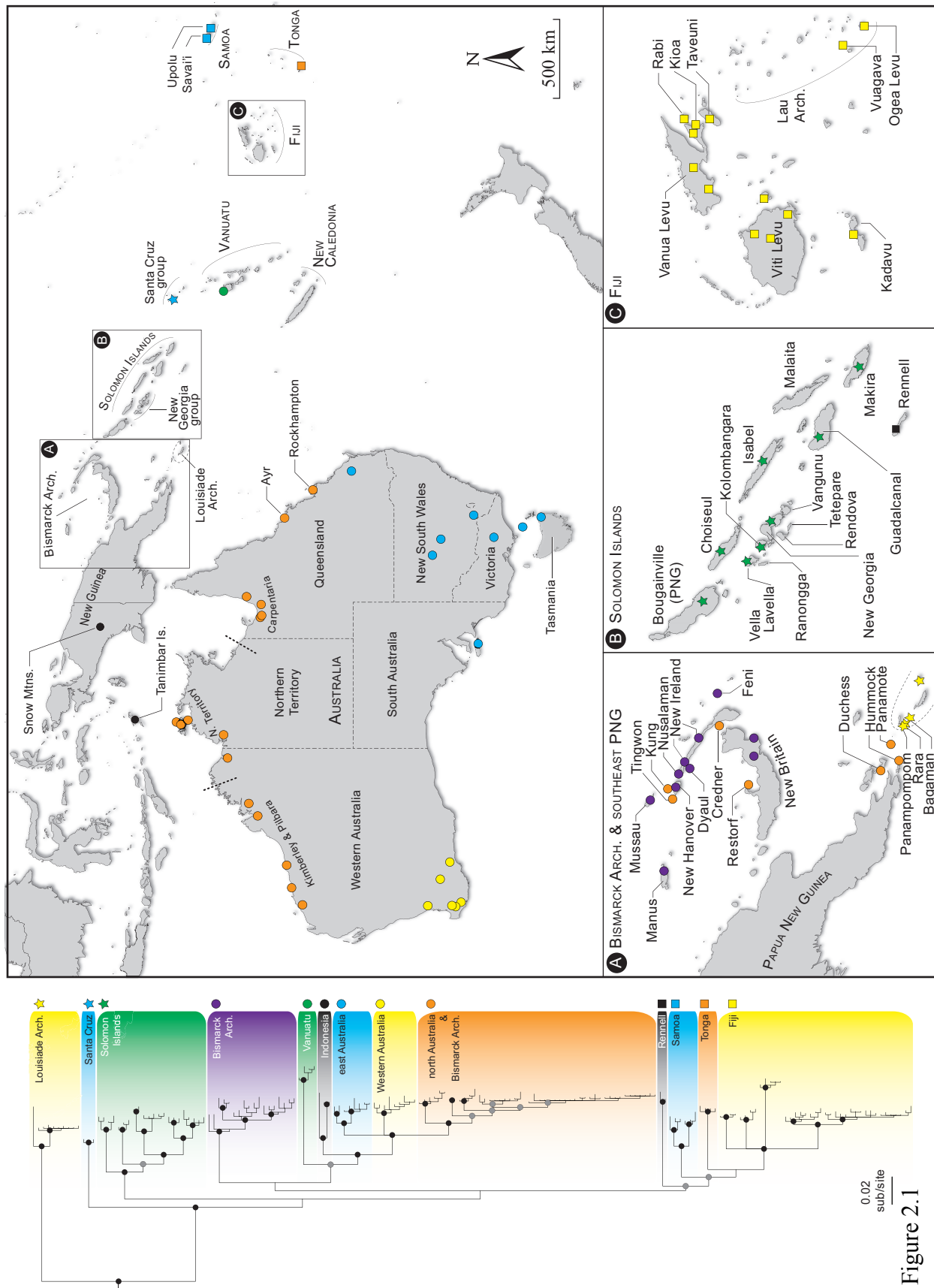


Figure 2.1

DNA sequencing

Total genomic DNA was extracted from frozen or alcohol-preserved muscle tissue using a noncommercial guanidine thiocyanate method (Esselstyn et al. 2008). All muscle tissue samples have associated museum study-skin vouchers. For taxa with no available tissue samples, DNA was extracted from toepads of museum study skins (Table 2.2) with dedicated equipment in lab space separate from other *Pachycephala* pre-PCR products to minimize contamination risk (Mundy et al. 1997). Thirteen unvouchered blood samples were used from remote islands in Milne Bay Province, Papua New Guinea, but most of these individuals were supplemental to vouchered tissue samples from the same islands (Table 2.2).

We sequenced the entire second and third subunits of mitochondrial nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide dehydrogenase (hereafter ND2 and ND3, respectively). Eight nuclear gene regions were sequenced: the coiled-coil domain containing protein 132 (CCDC132), the fifth intron of the Beta-fibrinogen gene (Fib5), the 11th intron of the nuclear glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase gene (GAPDH), the high mobility group protein B2 (HMGB2), the third intron of the Z-linked muscle-specific kinase gene (MUSK), the second intron of the nuclear myoglobin gene (Myo2), introns 6–7 and exon 7 of the ornithine decarboxylase gene (ODC), and the fifth intron of the transforming growth factor β 2 (TGF). Target DNA fragments were amplified using polymerase chain reaction (PCR) with external and internal primers. External primers are described as follows: L5215 (ND2; Hackett 1996) and H6313 (ND2 Johnson and Sorenson 1998), L10755 and H11151 (ND3 Chesser 1999), CDC132L and CDC132H (Backström et al. 2008), Fib5 and Fib6 (Marini and Hackett 2002), G3P13b and G3P14b (GAPDH; Fjeldså et al. 2003), HMG2L and HMG2H (Backström et al. 2008), MUSK-

I3F and MUSK-I3R (Kimball et al. 2009), Myo2 (Slade et al. 1993) and Myo3F (Heslewood et al. 1998), OD6 and OD8R (Friesen et al. 1999; Primmer et al. 2002) and TGF5 and TGF6 (Primmer et al. 2002). Additionally, we used internal primers to amplify 200–250 bp fragments of toepad samples (Table 2.3). PCR amplifications were performed in 13 µl reactions using Promega GoTaq DNA polymerase. A touchdown protocol was used in PCR for ND2, ND3, CCDC132, GAPDH, HMGB2, and ODC with annealing temperatures of 58, 54, and 50 °C. Annealing temperatures were held constant for Fib5 (54 °C), MUSK (50 °C), Myo2 (52 °C), and TGF (58 °C) following recommendations by Kimball et al. (2009). Amplified PCR products were screened on high-melt, 2% agarose gels stained with GelRed, and purified with 10% Exo-SAP-IT™ (GE Healthcare Bio-Sciences Corp.). We cycle-sequenced purified PCR products in both directions with the same primers used in PCR for 25 cycles using the ABI Big Dye Terminator Cycle-Sequencing Kit version 3.1 (Applied Biosystems Inc., Foster City, CA). Sequencing was performed on an ABI Prism 3730 high-throughput capillary electrophoresis DNA analyzer.

Model selection and phylogenetic analysis

Sequence contigs were assembled in Geneious 5.6 and individual nuclear intron alignments were constructed by hand and checked against an automated alignment in MUSCLE (Edgar 2004). Appropriate models of sequence evolution for each of the 10 partitions were identified (Table 2.4) using Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC), as implemented in MrModelTest 2.3 (Nylander 2004).

Phylogenetic reconstruction was performed on the total concatenated data, on separate concatenated mtDNA and nDNA, and separately on each individual locus. Maximum

Table 2.2. List of samples used in the study following taxonomy of Clements et al. (2013). Ancient DNA samples derived from museum specimens (i.e., toepads) and unvouchered blood samples are noted. Institutional abbreviations: AMNH, American Museum of Natural History; ANWC, Australian National Wildlife Collection; CAS, California Academy of Sciences; DMNH, Delaware Museum of Natural History; FMNH, Field Museum of Natural History; KUNHM, University of Kansas Natural History Museum; LSUMNS, Louisiana State University Museum of Natural Science; MV, Museum Victoria; SNZP, Smithsonian National Zoological Park; USNM, United States National Museum; UWBM, University of Washington Burke Museum; WAM, Western Australia Museum; ZMUC, Zoological Museum University of Copenhagen. Papua New Guinea is abbreviated as “PNG.” Samples included in the *BEAST species-tree analysis and their respective species assignments are denoted in column, “#”: (1) *P. citreogaster*, (2) *P. feminina*, (3) *P. orioloides*, (4) *P. intacta*, (5) *P. ornata*, (6) *P. vitiensis*, (7) *P. fuliginosa*, (8) *P. pectoralis*, (9) *P. melanura*, (10) *P. macrorhyncha*, (11) *P. collaris*.

Genus	Species	Subspecies	#	Institution	Sample	Locality
Ingroup						
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>caledonica</i>	<i>intacta</i>	4	LSUMNS	B45385	VANUATU: Espiritu Santo
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>caledonica</i>	<i>intacta</i>	4	LSUMNS	B45398	VANUATU: Espiritu Santo
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>caledonica</i>	<i>intacta</i>	4	LSUMNS	B45759	VANUATU: Espiritu Santo
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>caledonica</i>	<i>intacta</i>	4	LSUMNS	B45791	VANUATU: Espiritu Santo
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	1	KUNHM	5306	PNG: Bismarck Arch.; New Britain Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	<i>goodsoni</i> †	1	KUNHM	5615	PNG: Admiralty Islands; Manus Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	1	KUNHM	27694	PNG: Bismarck Arch.; New Ireland Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	1	KUNHM	27721	PNG: Bismarck Arch.; New Ireland Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	1	KUNHM	27730	PNG: Bismarck Arch.; New Ireland Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	1	KUNHM	27742	PNG: Bismarck Arch.; New Ireland Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	1	KUNHM	27853	PNG: Bismarck Arch.; Dyaul Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	1	KUNHM	27859	PNG: Bismarck Arch.; Dyaul Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	1	ANWC	52360	PNG: Bismarck Arch.; New Britain Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	1	ANWC	52361	PNG: Bismarck Arch.; New Britain Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	1	ANWC	52364	PNG: Bismarck Arch.; New Britain Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	1	ANWC	52373	PNG: Bismarck Arch.; New Britain Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	<i>citreogaster</i> † ^{GB}	1	ZMUC	95287	PNG: Bismarck Arch.; Dyaul Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	<i>citreogaster</i> † ^{GB}	1	ZMUC	95288	PNG: Bismarck Arch.; Feni Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	<i>citreogaster</i> † ^{GB}	1	ZMUC	95289	PNG: Bismarck Arch.; New Ireland Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	<i>citreogaster</i> † ^{GB}	1	ZMUC	95290	PNG: Bismarck Arch.; New Britain Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	<i>citreogaster</i> † ^{GB}	1	ZMUC	95291	PNG: Bismarck Arch.; New Hanover Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	<i>sexuaria</i> † ^{GB}	1	ZMUC	95286	PNG: Bismarck Arch.; Mussau Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	<i>collaris</i>	11	CAS	96792	PNG: Louisiade Arch.; Rara Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	<i>collaris</i>	11	CAS	96796	PNG: Louisiade Arch.; Panapompom Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	<i>collaris</i>	11	CAS	96831	PNG: Louisiade Arch.; Panapompom Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	<i>collaris</i>	11	CAS	96832	PNG: Louisiade Arch.; Panapompom Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	<i>collaris</i> *	11	CAS	96841	PNG: Louisiade Arch.; Bagaman Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	<i>collaris</i> *	11	CAS	96842	PNG: Louisiade Arch.; Rara Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	<i>collaris</i> *	11	CAS	96852	PNG: Bonvouloir Islands; Panamote Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	<i>collaris</i> *	11	CAS	96853	PNG: Bonvouloir Islands; Panamote Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	<i>collaris</i> *	11	CAS	96854	PNG: Bonvouloir Islands; Panamote Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>citreogaster</i>	<i>rosseliana</i>	11	SNZP	TKP2004057	PNG: Louisiade Arch.; Rossel Island
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>feminina</i>		2	AMNH	DOT6601	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Rennell Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>feminina</i> † ^{GB}		2	ZMUC	95292	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Rennell Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>flavifrons</i> †		6	KUNHM	104114	SAMOA: Upolu Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>flavifrons</i> †		6	KUNHM	104115	SAMOA: Upolu Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>flavifrons</i> †		6	KUNHM	104123	SAMOA: Upolu Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>flavifrons</i> †		6	KUNHM	104126	SAMOA: Savai'i Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>flavifrons</i> †		6	KUNHM	104129	SAMOA: Savai'i Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>flavifrons</i> †		6	KUNHM	107654	SAMOA: Savai'i Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>graeffii</i>	<i>graeffii</i>	6	KUNHM	22502	FIJI: Central Division; Viti Levu Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>graeffii</i>	<i>graeffii</i>	6	KUNHM	22537	FIJI: Central Division; Viti Levu Is.

Genus	Species	Subspecies	#	Institution	Sample	Locality
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>graeffii</i>	<i>graeffii</i>	6	KUNHM	22555	FIJI: Central Division; Viti Levu Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>graeffii</i>	<i>graeffii</i>	6	KUNHM	22567	FIJI: Western Division; Viti Levu Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>graeffii</i>	<i>aurantiiventris</i>	6	KUNHM	24229	FIJI: Northern Division; Vanua Levu Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>graeffii</i>	<i>aurantiiventris</i>	6	KUNHM	24245	FIJI: Northern Division; Vanua Levu Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>graeffii</i>	<i>aurantiiventris</i>	6	KUNHM	24257	FIJI: Northern Division; Vanua Levu Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>graeffii</i>	<i>aurantiiventris</i>	6	KUNHM	24265	FIJI: Northern Division; Vanua Levu Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>graeffii</i>	<i>aurantiiventris</i>	6	KUNHM	24277	FIJI: Northern Division; Vanua Levu Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>graeffii</i>	<i>aurantiiventris</i>	6	KUNHM	24281	FIJI: Northern Division; Vanua Levu Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>graeffii</i>	<i>aurantiiventris</i>	6	KUNHM	24288	FIJI: Northern Division; Vanua Levu Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>graeffii</i>	<i>torquata</i>	6	KUNHM	24297	FIJI: Northern Division; Taveuni Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>graeffii</i>	<i>torquata</i>	6	KUNHM	24299	FIJI: Northern Division; Taveuni Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>graeffii</i>	<i>torquata</i>	6	KUNHM	24323	FIJI: Northern Division; Taveuni Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>graeffii</i>	<i>torquata</i>	6	KUNHM	24349	FIJI: Northern Division; Taveuni Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>graeffii</i>	<i>graeffii</i>	6	KUNHM	24366	FIJI: Western Division; Viti Levu Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>graeffii</i>	<i>ambigua</i>	6	KUNHM	26449	FIJI: Northern Division; Rabi Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>graeffii</i>	<i>ambigua</i>	6	KUNHM	26458	FIJI: Northern Division; Rabi Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>graeffii</i>	<i>ambigua</i>	6	KUNHM	26462	FIJI: Northern Division; Rabi Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>graeffii</i>	<i>ambigua</i>	6	KUNHM	26469	FIJI: Northern Division; Rabi Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>graeffii</i>	<i>ambigua</i>	6	KUNHM	26479	FIJI: Northern Division; Kioa Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>graeffii</i>	<i>ambigua</i>	6	KUNHM	26487	FIJI: Northern Division; Kioa Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>graeffii</i>	<i>ambigua</i>	6	KUNHM	26493	FIJI: Northern Division; Kioa Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>graeffii</i>	<i>aurantiiventris</i>	6	KUNHM	26510	FIJI: Northern Division; Vanua Levu Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>graeffii</i>	<i>aurantiiventris</i>	6	KUNHM	26513	FIJI: Northern Division; Vanua Levu Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>graeffii</i>	<i>aurantiiventris</i>	6	KUNHM	26520	FIJI: Northern Division; Vanua Levu Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>graeffii</i>	<i>aurantiiventris</i>	6	KUNHM	26523	FIJI: Northern Division; Vanua Levu Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>graeffii</i>	<i>optata</i>	6	KUNHM	30491	FIJI: Eastern Division, Ovalau Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>graeffii</i>	<i>optata</i>	6	KUNHM	30505	FIJI: Eastern Division, Ovalau Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>graeffii</i>	<i>optata</i>	6	KUNHM	30506	FIJI: Eastern Division, Ovalau Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>jacquinoti</i> †		6	DMNH	11331	TONGA: Vava'u Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>jacquinoti</i> †		6	DMNH	11332	TONGA: Vava'u Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>jacquinoti</i> †		6	AMNH	250556	TONGA: 'Euakafa Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>jacquinoti</i> †		6	AMNH	250567	TONGA: 'Euakafa Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>macrorhyncha</i>	<i>fuscoflava</i>	10	WAM	25185	INDONESIA: Tanimbar Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>dahli</i>	9	KUNHM	27666	PNG: Bismarck Arch.; Restorf Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>dahli</i>	9	KUNHM	27795	PNG: Bismarck Arch.; Nusalaman Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>dahli</i>	9	KUNHM	27797	PNG: Bismarck Arch.; Nusalaman Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>dahli</i>	9	KUNHM	27798	PNG: Bismarck Arch.; Nusalaman Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>dahli</i>	9	KUNHM	27799	PNG: Bismarck Arch.; Nusalaman Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>dahli</i>	9	KUNHM	27800	PNG: Bismarck Arch.; Nusalaman Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>robusta</i>	9	ANWC	29385	AUSTRALIA: Queensland
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>robusta</i>	9	ANWC	29432	AUSTRALIA: Queensland
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>robusta</i>	9	ANWC	29433	AUSTRALIA: Queensland
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>melanura</i>	9	ANWC	33097	AUSTRALIA: Western Australia
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>melanura</i>	9	ANWC	33207	AUSTRALIA: Western Australia
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>melanura</i>	9	ANWC	33262	AUSTRALIA: Western Australia
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>robusta</i>	9	ANWC	33754	AUSTRALIA: Northern Territory
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>melanura</i>	9	ANWC	34428	AUSTRALIA: Western Australia
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>melanura</i>	9	ANWC	34474	AUSTRALIA: Western Australia
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>robusta</i>	9	ANWC	43800	AUSTRALIA: Queensland
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>robusta</i>	9	ANWC	48664	AUSTRALIA: Northern Territory
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>melanura</i>	9	ANWC	50720	AUSTRALIA: Western Australia
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>melanura</i>	9	ANWC	50901	AUSTRALIA: Western Australia
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>robusta</i>	9	ANWC	51358	AUSTRALIA: Queensland
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>robusta</i>	9	ANWC	51359	AUSTRALIA: Queensland
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>robusta</i>	9	ANWC	52425	AUSTRALIA: Northern Territory
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>robusta</i>	9	ANWC	54440	AUSTRALIA: Northern Territory
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>robusta</i>	9	ANWC	54441	AUSTRALIA: Northern Territory
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>robusta</i>	9	ANWC	54449	AUSTRALIA: Northern Territory
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>robusta</i>	9	ANWC	54450	AUSTRALIA: Northern Territory
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>robusta</i>	9	ANWC	54522	AUSTRALIA: Northern Territory
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>dahli</i>	9	UWBM	Bu67949	PNG: Bismarck Arch.; Restorf Is.

Genus	Species	Subspecies	#	Institution	Sample	Locality
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>dahli</i>	9	UWBM	Bu68054	PNG: Bismarck Arch.; Restorf Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>dahli</i>	9	CAS	96787	PNG: Engineer Group; Hummock Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>dahli</i>	9	CAS	96793	PNG: Engineer Group; Hummock Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>dahli</i>	9	CAS	96794	PNG: Engineer Group; Hummock Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>dahli</i>	9	CAS	96795	PNG: Engineer Group; Hummock Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>dahli</i> *	9	CAS	96838	PNG: Engineer Group; Hummock Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>dahli</i> *	9	CAS	96839	PNG: Engineer Group; Hummock Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>dahli</i> *	9	CAS	96840	PNG: Engineer Group; Hummock Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>dahli</i> *	9	CAS	96844	PNG: D'Entrecasteaux Arch.; Duchess Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>dahli</i> *	9	CAS	96845	PNG: D'Entrecasteaux Arch.; Duchess Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>dahli</i> *	9	CAS	96846	PNG: D'Entrecasteaux Arch.; Duchess Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>dahli</i> *	9	CAS	96850	PNG: D'Entrecasteaux Arch.; Duchess Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>dahli</i> *	9	CAS	96851	PNG: D'Entrecasteaux Arch.; Duchess Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>robusta</i> ^{GB}	9	MV	1248	AUSTRALIA: Northern Territory
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>dahli</i>	9	SNZP	TKP2003069	PNG: D'Entrecasteaux Arch.; Duchess Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>dahli</i>	9	SNZP	TKP2003070	PNG: D'Entrecasteaux Arch.; Duchess Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>dahli</i> † ^{GB}	9	ZMUC	95283	PNG: Bismarck Arch.; Kung Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>dahli</i> † ^{GB}	9	ZMUC	95284	PNG: Bismarck Arch.; Tingwon Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>melanura</i>	<i>dahli</i> † ^{GB}	9	ZMUC	95285	PNG: Bismarck Arch.; Credner Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>orioloides</i>	<i>bougainvillei</i>	3	KUNHM	5283	PNG: Bougainville Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>orioloides</i>	<i>christophori</i>	3	KUNHM	13527	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Makira Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>orioloides</i>	<i>christophori</i>	3	KUNHM	13536	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Makira Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>orioloides</i>	<i>cinnamomea</i>	3	KUNHM	15879	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Guadalcanal Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>orioloides</i>	<i>cinnamomea</i>	3	KUNHM	15900	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Guadalcanal Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>orioloides</i>	<i>orioloides</i>	3	UWBM	Bu60214	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Isabel Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>orioloides</i>	<i>orioloides</i>	3	UWBM	Bu60289	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Isabel Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>orioloides</i>	<i>orioloides</i>	3	UWBM	Bu60314	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Isabel Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>orioloides</i>	<i>cinnamomea</i>	3	UWBM	Bu60347	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Guadalcanal Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>orioloides</i>	<i>centralis</i>	3	UWBM	Bu63131	SOLOMON ISLANDS: New Georgia Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>orioloides</i>	<i>orioloides</i>	3	UWBM	Bu63227	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Choiseul Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>orioloides</i>	<i>orioloides</i>	3	UWBM	Bu63262	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Choiseul Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>orioloides</i>	<i>centralis</i>	3	UWBM	Bu66074	SOLOMON ISLANDS: New Georgia Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>orioloides</i>	<i>centralis</i>	3	UWBM	Bu66075	SOLOMON ISLANDS: New Georgia Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>orioloides</i>	<i>melanonota</i>	3	AMNH	DOT153	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Vella Lavella Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>orioloides</i>	<i>melanonota</i>	3	AMNH	DOT155	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Vella Lavella Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>orioloides</i>	<i>centralis</i>	3	AMNH	DOT190	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Kolombangara Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>orioloides</i>	<i>centralis</i>	3	AMNH	DOT257	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Kolombangara Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>orioloides</i>	<i>bougainvillei</i>	3	AMNH	DOT14982	PNG: Bougainville Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>orioloides</i>	<i>bougainvillei</i>	3	AMNH	DOT14984	PNG: Bougainville Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>orioloides</i>	<i>christophori</i> ^{GB}	3	ZMUC	139460	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Makira Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>orioloides</i>	<i>christophori</i> ^{GB}	3	ZMUC	139478	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Makira Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>pectoralis</i>	<i>fuliginosa</i>	7	KUNHM	6093	AUSTRALIA: Western Australia
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>pectoralis</i>	<i>fuliginosa</i>	7	KUNHM	6118	AUSTRALIA: Western Australia
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>pectoralis</i>	<i>fuliginosa</i>	7	KUNHM	6132	AUSTRALIA: Western Australia
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>pectoralis</i>	<i>fuliginosa</i>	7	KUNHM	6175	AUSTRALIA: Western Australia
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>pectoralis</i>	<i>youngi</i>	8	ANWC	29282	AUSTRALIA: New South Wales
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>pectoralis</i>	<i>youngi</i>	8	ANWC	31665	AUSTRALIA: New South Wales
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>pectoralis</i>	<i>fuliginosa</i>	7	ANWC	31704	AUSTRALIA: Western Australia
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>pectoralis</i>	<i>fuliginosa</i>	7	ANWC	31781	AUSTRALIA: Western Australia
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>pectoralis</i>	<i>youngi</i>	8	ANWC	42504	AUSTRALIA: South Australia
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>pectoralis</i>	<i>pectoralis</i>	8	ANWC	43411	AUSTRALIA: Queensland
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>pectoralis</i>	<i>glaucura</i>	8	ANWC	45375	AUSTRALIA: Tasmania
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>pectoralis</i>	<i>glaucura</i>	8	ANWC	45665	AUSTRALIA: Tasmania; Deal Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>pectoralis</i>	<i>fuliginosa</i>	7	ANWC	50360	AUSTRALIA: Western Australia
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>pectoralis</i>	<i>balim</i> †	10	AMNH	341498	INDONESIA: Papua; Bele River
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>pectoralis</i>	<i>balim</i> †	10	AMNH	341500	INDONESIA: Papua; Bele River
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>pectoralis</i>	<i>youngi</i>	8	UWBM	Bu57458	AUSTRALIA: New South Wales
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>pectoralis</i>	<i>fuliginosa</i>	7	UWBM	Bu60858	AUSTRALIA: Western Australia
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>pectoralis</i>	<i>fuliginosa</i> ^{GB}	7	MV	2658	AUSTRALIA: Western Australia
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>pectoralis</i>	<i>youngi</i> ^{GB}	8	MV	3477	AUSTRALIA: Victoria

Genus	Species	Subspecies	#	Institution	Sample	Locality
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>vitiensis</i>	<i>ornata</i>	5	KUNHM	19400	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Santa Cruz Group; Nendo Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>vitiensis</i>	<i>ornata</i>	5	KUNHM	19410	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Santa Cruz Group; Nendo Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>vitiensis</i>	<i>ornata</i>	5	KUNHM	19418	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Santa Cruz Group; Nendo Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>vitiensis</i>	<i>kandavensis</i>	6	KUNHM	24405	FIJI: Eastern Division; Kadavu Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>vitiensis</i>	<i>kandavensis</i>	6	KUNHM	24411	FIJI: Eastern Division; Kadavu Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>vitiensis</i>	<i>kandavensis</i>	6	KUNHM	24412	FIJI: Eastern Division; Kadavu Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>vitiensis</i>	<i>kandavensis</i>	6	KUNHM	25220	FIJI: Eastern Division; Kadavu Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>vitiensis</i>	<i>lauana</i>	6	KUNHM	26324	FIJI: Eastern Division; Lau Arch., Ogea Levu Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>vitiensis</i>	<i>lauana</i>	6	KUNHM	26326	FIJI: Eastern Division; Lau Arch., Ogea Levu Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>vitiensis</i>	<i>lauana</i>	6	KUNHM	26330	FIJI: Eastern Division; Lau Arch., Ogea Levu Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>vitiensis</i>	<i>lauana</i>	6	KUNHM	26337	FIJI: Eastern Division; Lau Arch., Ogea Levu Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>vitiensis</i>	<i>lauana</i>	6	KUNHM	26412	FIJI: Eastern Division; Lau Arch., Vuagava Is.
Outgroup						
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>caledonica</i>	<i>caledonica</i> † ^{GB}		FMNH	268487	NEW CALEDONIA
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>cinerea</i>			KUNHM	12751	PHILIPPINES: Palawan Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>cinerea</i> ^{GB}			ZMUC	118870	PHILIPPINES
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>homeyeri</i>			KUNHM	15340	PHILIPPINES: Panay Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>hyperythra</i>			KUNHM	7889	PNG: West Sepik Prov.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>hyperythra</i> † ^{GB}			FMNH	280631	INDONESIA: Papua
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>implicata</i>	<i>implicata</i> †		DMNH	11918	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Guadalcanal Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>implicata</i>	<i>implicata</i> †		DMNH	11921	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Guadalcanal Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>implicata</i>	<i>richardsi</i> †		AMNH	222855	PNG: Bougainville Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>implicata</i>	<i>richardsi</i> †		AMNH	226336	PNG: Bougainville Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>inornata</i> ^{GB}			ANWC	38742	AUSTRALIA: New South Wales
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>lanioides</i>			KUNHM	6195	AUSTRALIA: Western Australia
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>leucogastra</i>	<i>meeki</i>		SNZP		PNG: Milne Bay Prov.: Louisiade Arch.: Rossel Island
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>leucogastra</i>	<i>meeki</i>		SNZP	TKP2004065	Island
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>leucogastra</i>	<i>meeki</i>		SNZP	TKP2004067	Island
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>lorentzi</i> ^{GB}			FMNH	280615	INDONESIA: Papua; Snow Mountains
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>modesta</i>			KUNHM	4736	PNG: Morobe Prov.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>nudigula</i>			WAM	22678	INDONESIA: Flores Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>olivacea</i> ^{GB}			MV	1826	AUSTRALIA
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>philippinensis</i>			KUNHM	17983	PHILIPPINES: Luzon Is.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>rufiventris</i>			KUNHM	6174	AUSTRALIA: Western Australia
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>rufiventris</i>			UWBM	Bu57510	AUSTRALIA: Queensland
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>schlegelii</i>			KUNHM	5079	PNG: Chimbu Prov.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>schlegelii</i> ^{GB}			ANWC	24574	PNG: Oro Prov.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>simplex</i>			KUNHM	7250	PNG: Madang Prov.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>simplex</i> ^{GB}			MV	1183	AUSTRALIA
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>soror</i>			KUNHM	7888	PNG: West Sepik Prov.
<i>Pachycephala</i>	<i>soror</i> ^{GB}			ANWC	26736	PNG: Oro Prov.

*, denotes samples for which DNA was extracted from blood.

†, denotes samples for which DNA was extracted from toepads.

^{GB}, denotes samples for which sequence data were downloaded from GenBank.

Table 2.3. Newly-designed primers to sequence samples derived from museum specimen toepads.

Locus	Primer name	5' to 3' sequence
CCDC132	CDC132.PachyH	CTGCCACAAAATTCTTCTC
	CDC132.PachyL	GTCTAACTTCAAATACGACG
	CDC132.Pachy173L	GCATTTTGATGCCAGTTTC
	CDC132.Pachy230H	CTACCTCTCCCAAATACATC
	CDC132.Pachy395L	GAGCAGAAAAATACTGTGG
	CDC132.Pachy450H	CTGTCAGTTCACAGTCTC
	CDC132.Pachy534L	GGCTCTTKTCTCTCTGTG
	CDC132.Pachy605H	CAGAGCACCAATGTTACATTG
Fib5	Fib5.Pachy.ext	GCCATACAGAGTATACTGTGACAT
	Fib5.Pachy258	GCTGATGCAGAATAGGACACTTC
	Fib6.Pachy383	AGAACTTGAAGGACGGCCTG
	Fib6.Pachy.ext	ATTCTGAATCAAAGTCCAGCC
GAPDH	G3P13.Pachy160L	GATCCAGGTGGATACACAG
	G3P14.Pachy218H	GGAGGCAGCTACAATAATTTTC
HMG2	HMG2.Pachy155L	GTGTCTTACACCCAAACCG
	HMG2.Pachy239H	GAATCCTCACAGGGAACCTG
	HMG2.Pachy362L	CAGTCAGACTCCAAAGCAC
	HMG2.Pachy387H	GGCAAAAGAACATAYAGTGCAGAC
Myo2	Myo2.Pachy166	GCTCTCCCTCAAGTTCAAGG
	Myo2.Pachy370	GACTGGACACAAGGGACATAC
	Myo2.Pachy537	GATCAGCGTCAGAGCTAGG
	Myo3.Pachy240	CTGTGGTGTTTGGAATGGGAAATC
	Myo3.Pachy427	CATGCCCTGTGTTTGTATAAC
	Myo3.Pachy583	CTGGAGAGACAGTGAGGTC
ND2	Pachy170L	ACGAGCYATTGAAGCTGCAAC
	Pachy183H	GYTGAAGCAGTGGCTTGAC
	Pachy247H	TTAATTGAGTAATRTCTCATTG
	Pachy320L	AGCCATTCAATAAAAYTAGG
	Pachy381L	GGCTCTYCNCTRATCACAGG
	Pachy399H	AATGTRATTGGTGGGAATTTTAT
	Pachy507L	AGCYCTAGGRGGATGAATAGG
	Pachy555H	ATAATRGTYATTCATCCTAGGTG
	Pachy641L	TATATGYTYTAATAACTACAGC
	Pachy697H	TGAAGGTRTTTTTGTTCATGC
	Pachy719L	CTGCATGAACAAAAAYACCTTCAC
	Pachy766L	TATCTTTAGCCGGCCTGCCC
	Pachy794H	CATTATTCAAGAAYTAATAAACA
	Pachy885L	GGRCRTTCTTYTAYCTYCG
	Pachy909H	GATTTGTRGTRTGAGGRGGYAG
ND3	ND3.PachyH.ext	CTAATTAAGACAGTTGATTTCG
	ND3.PachyL.ext	GGTTTAAACCCAGAGAAGAG
	ND3.Pachy142L	GGYTTCGACCCACTAGGATCAG
	ND3.Pachy218H	GGCTCATGGTAGTGGTAGT
ODC	OD6.Pachy106	GACCTTGCCATTGTTGGAG
	OD6.Pachy288	GTAGTTTCCATGTTGGAAGTGG
	OD6.Pachy459	GCTAGCTAAGGCACTGACTTC
	OD8R.Pachy172	GCAAAGGCATCTCTATTGTC
	OD8R.Pachy306	CAGAAATGGCTTGAACAAAGG
	OD8R.Pachy498	GGAGTTTTGCCAAGCTGGTC

likelihood (ML) heuristic tree searches were performed using GARLI 2.0 (Zwickl 2006). To avoid local optima, 250 independent searches were performed, each starting from a random tree. GARLI's default parameters were adjusted to terminate searches when no topological improvements were found after 100,000 generations (genthreshfortopoterm = 100000); otherwise, default settings were used. We selected the topology with the best likelihood as our maximum-likelihood estimate. Statistical support for this topology was obtained by running 1,000 non-parametric bootstrap replicates (Felsenstein 1985) in GARLI to assess clade credibility and SumTrees 3.3.1, part of the DendroPy 3.12.0 package (Sukumaran and Holder 2010), was used to create a 50% majority-rule consensus tree. Nodes with >70% bootstrap support were considered well-supported (Hillis and Bull 1993; Wilcox et al. 2002).

Bayesian analysis (BA) was conducted using MrBayes 3.2.1 (Ronquist and Huelsenbeck 2003; Altekar et al. 2004; Ronquist et al. 2012) implemented with BEAGLE (Ayres et al. 2012). The data were partitioned by codon position for mtDNA and by gene for the nuclear introns. Four independent MCMC runs of 50 million generations were conducted using four chains per run (nchains=4) and incremental heating of chains (temp=0.1), sampling every 5,000 generations. A species tree analysis was conducted in *BEAST 1.7.5 (Heled and Drummond 2010) on the full ingroup dataset. First, sequences were phased in DnaSP (Librado and Rozas 2009) with output threshold of 0.7 using algorithms provided by PHASE (Stephens et al. 2001; Stephens and Donnelly 2003). Branch tips were defined by assigning species based on well-supported clades from the concatenated MrBayes analysis (see Table 2.2 for assignments).

All samples from Fiji, Samoa, and Tonga were treated as one species due to deficient data at some loci for Samoan and Tongan samples. We ran 10 independent MCMC runs of 250 million generations sampled every 12,500 generations. The first 40% of trees were discarded as

Table 2.4. Summary statistics for the ten loci used in this study.

Locus	Aligned length	Category, chromosome #	Substitution model	A, C, G, T frequency	Variable sites	Parsimony informative sites	Source
CCDC132	586	intron, 2	HKY+I+G	0.286, 0.137, 0.232, 0.345	67	46	(Backström et al. 2008)
Fib5	534	intron, 4	HKY+I	0.300, 0.194, 0.191, 0.315	26	11	(Marini and Hackett 2002)
GAPDH	299	intron, 1	HKY+G	0.224, 0.213, 0.326, 0.237	40	20	(Fjeldså et al. 2003)
HMG2	495	intron, 4	HKY+I	0.309, 0.183, 0.217, 0.291	43	33	(Backström et al. 2008)
MUSK	489	intron, Z	GTR	0.292, 0.186, 0.205, 0.318	43	22	(Kimball et al. 2009)
Myo2	697	intron, 1	GTR+I	0.274, 0.224, 0.243, 0.259	38	19	(Slade et al. 1993; Heslewood et al. 1998)
ODC	686	intron, 3	HKY+G	0.273, 0.174, 0.209, 0.345	54	26	(Friesen et al. 1999; Primmer et al. 2002)
TGFβ2	565	intron, 3	GTR	0.238, 0.243, 0.210, 0.309	33	20	(Primmer et al. 2002)
ND2+ND3	1392	mitochondrial					(Sorenson et al. 1999)
		codon pos. 1:	GTR+I+G	0.358, 0.305, 0.138, 0.199	160	134	
		codon pos. 2:	GTR+I+G	0.180, 0.309, 0.090, 0.421	67	43	
		codon pos. 3:	GTR+I+G	0.465, 0.252, 0.044, 0.239	373	327	

burn-in and we combined tree sets from the seven runs to produce a maximum-credibility consensus tree. The posterior distribution of species trees was visualized in DensiTree 2.1.7 (Bouckaert 2010).

For all Bayesian analyses, TRACER 1.5 (Rambaut and Drummond 2007) and Are We There Yet? (AWTY; Wilgenbusch et al. 2004; Nylander et al. 2008) were used to assess convergence of parameter estimates and tree splits, respectively. For MrBayes analyses, the average standard deviation of split frequencies (ASDSF) and the potential scale reduction factor (PSRF) were used to determine topology convergence between runs. For *BEAST analyses, TRACER was used to assess convergence of independent runs as well as parameter estimates and effective sample sizes (ESS) to ensure they reached >200. The appropriate burn-in generations (25% for all analyses) were discarded based on convergence assessments of the

ASDSF passing below 0.01. The remaining trees were summarized in a 50% majority-rule consensus tree.

Results

Sequence attributes

The aligned dataset was 5,743 bp and included 202 samples (summary statistics presented in Table 2.4). All new sequences are deposited in GenBank. We obtained complete DNA sequences for all genes for all fresh samples. For samples from museum skins, or for those downloaded from GenBank, it was not possible to obtain complete sequences for certain genes. Alignment lengths were 1041 bp (ND2), 351 bp (ND3), 586 bp (CCDC132), 534 bp (Fib 5), 299 bp (GAPDH), 495 bp (HMGB2), 489 bp (MUSK), 697 bp (Myo2), 686 bp (ODC), and 565 bp (TGF). The aligned dataset contained 944 variable sites (16.4 %) and 701 (12.2 %) parsimony-informative sites. Uncorrected pairwise distances in ND2 (*p*-distance) between subspecies ranged from 0.008 (*P. vitiensis graeffii* and *P. v. aurantiiventris*) to 0.052 (*P. v. graeffii* and *P. pectoralis fuliginosa*). The *p*-distance across the basal split between *P. citreogaster collaris* and the rest of the ingroup was 0.087.

The mitochondrial data showed no insertions, deletions, or anomalous stop-codons; thus, there was no evidence that mtDNA sequences were of nuclear origin (i.e., pseudogenes; Sorenson & Quinn, 1998). The relative divergence levels among codon positions was typical for mtDNA (3 > 1 > 2). A 2bp indel in ODC was observed in all *P. vitiensis ornata* and three of four *P. caledonica intacta* samples. Several unique substitutions and heterozygous bases surrounding this indel suggested either gene flow or incomplete lineage sorting between *P. vitiensis ornata* and *P. caledonica intacta* (see Table 2.5 for details of this indel).

Phylogenetic relationships

The topologies recovered from analyses of mtDNA (Appendix II.A) showed greater resolution than those derived from nuclear introns (Appendix II.B–J); this was expected given the higher rates of sequence evolution in animal mtDNA compared to nuclear DNA (Brown et al. 1979). The topologies inferred from multiple independent ML and BA runs were highly concordant and the *BEAST species tree resolved some equivocal nodes from the concatenated ML and BA runs (see below). Stationarity was achieved in MrBayes (i.e., the ASDSF remained < 0.01) after 16.58 million generations. The PSRF values for all parameters were 1.0. We report well-supported nodes as defined by Bayesian posterior probability (PP) > 0.95 and ML bootstrap (BS) > 70 .

The ingroup was defined by a well-supported clade that included all taxa presumed *a priori* to be part of the species complex based on taxonomy and geography (Fig. 2.2, clade A: PP=0.98, BS=70). Within clade A, samples from the Louisiade Archipelago (*P. citreogaster collaris*) of southeast Papua New Guinea formed a well-supported clade (clade B: PP=1.0, BS=100), which was sister to the rest of the ingroup (clade C: PP=1.0, BS=100). Within clade C, we found support for five clades (clades D–H), whose relationships to each other were equivocal.

Clade D (PP=1.0, BS=100) comprised samples from the Santa Cruz group, Solomon Islands (*P. vitiensis ornata*), whereas clade E (PP=1.0, BS=96) comprised samples from the main Solomon Islands archipelago, exclusive of *P. feminina* from Rennell Island. *Pachycephala citreogaster* from the Bismarck Archipelago formed a well-supported clade (clade F: PP=1.0, BS=100). Modest geographic structure was found within *P. citreogaster*, including a well-supported clade composed of samples from New Britain, New Ireland, New Hanover, and nearby islands all referable to nominate *P. c. citreogaster*. This clade was distinct from single samples

Table 2.5. Summary of an indel in the ODC locus.

Taxon	Indel Sequence
	ODC (position 201–227)
Remainder of alignment	TTTGCCAAATA--GCAACTGATAGTTT
<i>Pachycephala caledonica intacta</i> B45791	TTTGCCAAATA--GCAACTGATAGTTT
<i>Pachycephala caledonica intacta</i> B45759	TTTGCCAAMTAATACAAATGAKAGTTT
<i>Pachycephala caledonica intacta</i> B45385	TTTGCCAAMTMATACAAATGAGAGTTT
<i>Pachycephala caledonica intacta</i> B45398	TTTGCCAACCTCATACAAATGAGAGTTT
<i>Pachycephala vitiensis ornata</i> KUNHM 19400	TTTGCCAACCTCATACAAATGAGAGTTT
<i>Pachycephala vitiensis ornata</i> KUNHM 19410	TTTGCCAACCTCATACAAATGAGAGTTT
<i>Pachycephala vitiensis ornata</i> KUNHM 19418	TTTGCCAACCTCATACAAATGAGAGTTT

from Manus (*P. c. goodsoni*) and Mussau Islands (*P. c. sexuvaria*), but relationships among these three subspecies were unresolved.

Pachycephala caledonica intacta of Vanuatu was the basal lineage of clade G, followed by divergence of a lineage that contained three Indonesian samples representing two sister taxa (*P. macrorhyncha* and *P. pectoralis balim*). This Indonesian lineage was sister to a large clade (clade H: PP=1.0, BS=91) that in turn comprised three clades among which relationships were unresolved. These three clades were clade I (PP=1.0, BS=88), which included three of the four Australian subspecies (nominotypical *P. p. pectoralis*, *P. p. youngi* and *P. p. glaucura*); J (PP=1.0, BS=100), which comprised only *P. p. fuliginosa* of western and southern Australia; and clade K (PP=1.0, BS=98), which comprised all *P. melanura* samples. Interestingly, the species tree analysis found strong support for the sister relationship of clades I and J, which was sister to clade K (Fig. 2.4).

Clade K (*P. melanura*) contained five well-supported subclades. Several samples representing *P. m. melanura* from Kimberley and Pilbara in Western Australia formed a clade sister to the rest of clade L. *P. m. robusta* was not monophyletic because it consisted of three

well-supported clades from (1) Queensland, (2) Northern Territory west of Darwin, and (3) the Gulf of Carpentaria, but the Gulf of Carpentaria clade was sister to *P. m. dahl*, a well-supported clade from Papua New Guinea.

Samples from the Solomon Islands formed a well-supported clade (clade K: PP=1.0, BS=97) including all *P. orioloides* samples; however, the relationship of *P. feminina*, a species-level taxon from Rennell Island, was equivocal. These lineages were strongly supported as sister in the species tree (Fig. 2.4), but this relationship was not supported in the concatenated BA and ML analyses (Fig. 2.2). Instead, the concatenated analyses found *P. feminina* to be the basal lineage of a largely Polynesian clade (clade L). Strong geographic structure was found within the Solomon Islands, including several well-supported clades corresponding to nominal subspecies. Nominotypical *P. o. orioloides* of Choiseul and Isabel Islands was sister to *P. o. bougainvillei* from Bougainville Island. This clade was sister to the samples from the New Georgia group, of which there were two well-supported clades: *P. o. melanonota* of Vella Lavella and *P. o. centralis* of New Georgia and Kolombangara Islands. Finally, *P. o. christophori* of Makira Island and *P. o. cinnamomea* of Guadalcanal Island branched sequentially from the base of the clade.

Clade L comprised a group of Polynesian taxa including samples from Samoa, Tonga, and Fiji. Samples from each archipelago received high support as clades (PP \geq 0.98), despite the topology being equivocal with respect to *P. jacquinoti* of Tonga and *P. feminina* of Rennell Island. We found a well-supported Fijian clade (clade M: PP=0.98, BS=77) with evidence of geographic structure within the archipelago. Four Fijian clades were well-supported, of which three correspond to single subspecies distributed in discrete geographic areas (i.e., *P. vitiensis lauana*, Lau Archipelago; *P. v. kandavensis*, Kadavu Island; and *P. graeffii torquata*, Taveuni Island). The fourth clade comprised three nominal subspecies distributed on four islands.

Figure 2.2. Molecular phylogeny of the ingroup *Pachycephala pectoralis/melanura* species complex. The tree is the Bayesian maximum consensus tree from the concatenated, partitioned analysis. Node support is denoted as Bayesian posterior probabilities and maximum likelihood bootstrap support (PP/BS). Sequences of taxa labeled with “(GB)” were downloaded from GenBank. Clades A–M are discussed in the text. Photos illustrate representative phenotypes in the complex and corresponding clades are numbered accordingly: 1. *P. citreogaster collaris* Rara Island, Louisiade Archipelago, Papua New Guinea; 2. *P. vitiensis ornata* Ndende Island, Santa Cruz Group, Solomon Islands; 3. *P. orioloides christophori* Makira, Solomon Islands (KUNHM 98857); 4. *P. orioloides cinnamomea* Guadalcanal, Solomon Islands; 5. *P. citreogaster citreogaster* New Ireland, Bismarck Archipelago, Papua New Guinea; 6. *P. pectoralis glaucura* Tasmania, Australia; 7. *P. pectoralis youngi* Canberra, Australia; 8. *P. melanura dahli* Milne Bay Province, Papua New Guinea; 9. *P. flavifrons* Upolu, Samoa (KUNHM 104114); 10. *P. graeffii torquata* Taveuni, Fiji; 11. *P. vitiensis kandavensis* Kadavu, Fiji; 12. *P. vitiensis lauana* Ogea Levu, Lau Archipelago, Fiji; 13. *P. graeffii optata* Ovalau, Fiji; 14. *P. graeffii aurantiiventris* Vanua Levu, Fiji; 15. *P. graeffii ambigua* Rabi, Fiji.

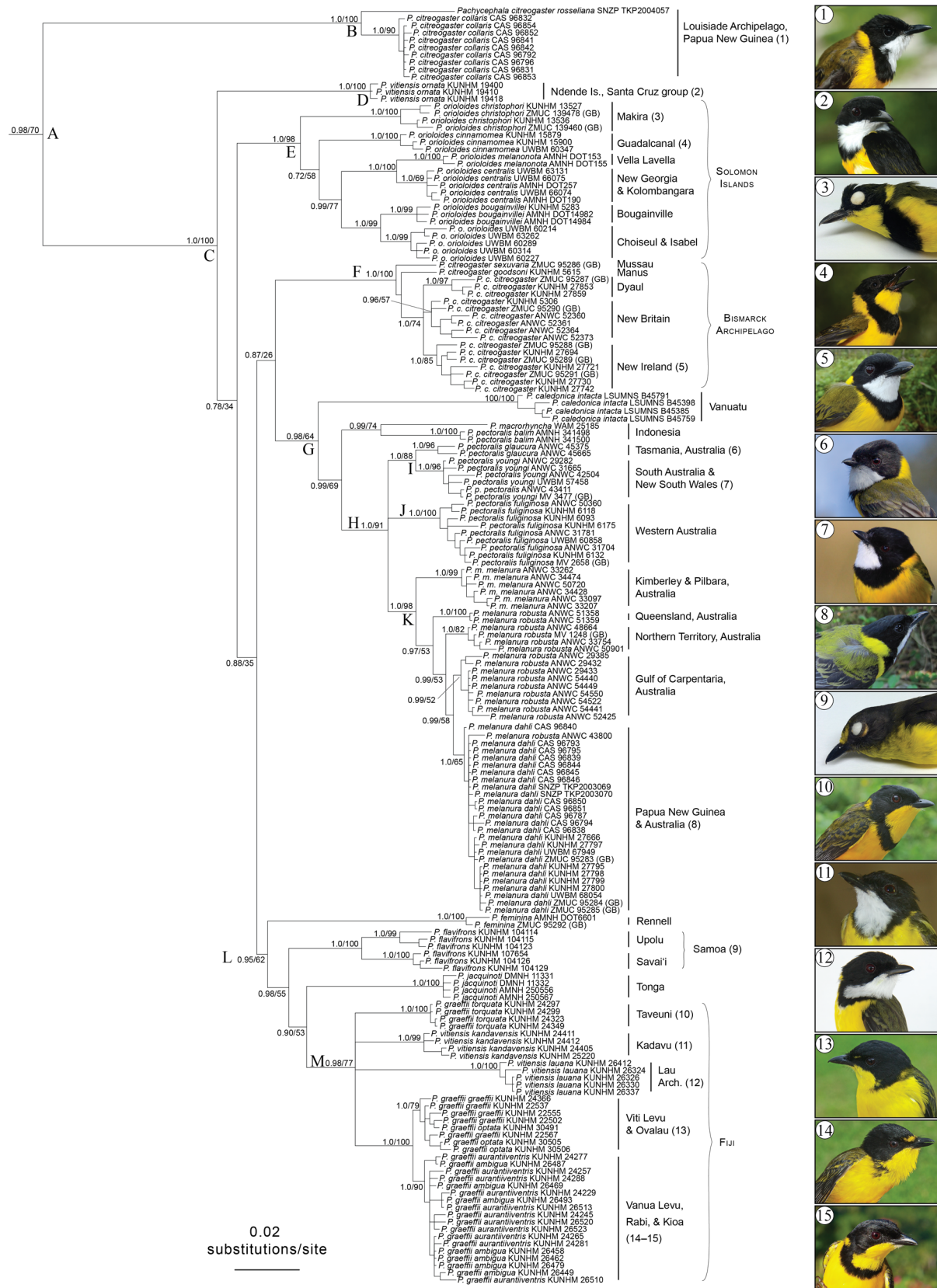


Figure 2.2

Pachycephala graeffii graeffii and *P. g. optata* of Viti Levu and Ovalau, respectively, were strongly-supported as sister to a clade comprising *P. g. aurantiiventris* from Vanua Levu and *P. g. ambigua* of Rabi and Kioa Islands. Finally, *P. flavifrons* comprised two well-supported clades from Savai'i and Upolu Islands, Samoa.

Overall, the species tree topology differed from the concatenated analyses in several important ways. First, the species tree found strong support for the placement of *P. feminina* as sister to *P. orioloides* (PP=1.0). This clade was sister to *P. citreogaster*, albeit with lower support (PP=0.94) in the species tree. Second, the species tree found strong support for the sister relationship of *P. p. pectoralis* + *P. p. fuliginosa* (PP=0.95), which was equivocal with respect to *P. melanura* in the concatenated analyses. Finally, the posterior distribution of trees as viewed in DensiTree suggests several alternative topologies for Polynesian lineages (Fiji, Vanuatu, Santa Cruz group), with resulting low posterior probabilities for these clades.

Discussion

This study represents the most robust and densely sampled molecular phylogeny of arguably the world's most polytypic bird species complex, *Pachycephala pectoralis*, to date. Emphasizing the Australasian and Polynesian lineages, we present a detailed view of the evolutionary history in this classically polytypic group of Pacific island birds. The dense and widespread sampling scheme dramatically improves upon existing phylogenetic hypotheses (Smith and Filardi 2007; Jonsson et al. 2008a) and provides much greater phylogeographic resolution for populations in Australia and the Solomon Islands, including highland Bougainville and Guadalcanal, and the New Georgia and Santa Cruz groups. Additionally, this study includes

the first molecular data on *Pachycephala* lineages from the Louisiade Archipelago of Papua New Guinea, the Santa Cruz group of Solomon Islands, Vanuatu, Fiji, Samoa, and Tonga.

Australia, New Guinea, and Bismarck Archipelago

Australian populations are divided into three well-supported clades, two of *P. pectoralis* (clades I and J) and one of *P. melanura* (clade K). The clade from south-western Australia corresponds to *P. p. fuliginosa*, a subspecies that Schodde and Mason (1999) considered to have a disjunct range in south-eastern and south-western Australia. Our samples of *P. pectoralis* from eastern Australia including Tasmania correspond to *P. p. glaucura* (Tasmania and Deal Island) and *P. p. youngi* and *P. p. pectoralis* (mainland southeast Australia). Further sampling is necessary in south-eastern Australia including its putative populations of *P. p. fuliginosa*, which we have not sampled, to disentangle the genetic signatures of migratory and non-migratory populations of *P. p. youngi* and *P. p. fuliginosa*, respectively (Schodde and Mason 1999; Higgins and Peter 2003), and any patterns of present or past gene flow among subspecies. The third Australian clade corresponds to *P. melanura*, which contains substantial geographic structure. Samples from Kimberley and Pilbara in Western Australia form a clade corresponding to nominotypical *P. m. melanura*. The subspecies *P. m. robusta* is paraphyletic and divided into three well-supported phylogroups: one in the Northern Territory west of the Gulf of Carpentaria, one from the southeast of the Gulf of Carpentaria in Queensland and the Northern Territory, and one from near Ayr, Queensland. The Gulf of Carpentaria clade was sister to *P. m. dahli*, which is broadly distributed throughout coastal eastern New Guinea. Notably, one *P. m. robusta* sample (ANWC 43800) from near Rockhampton, Queensland possessed a *P. m. dahli* mitochondrial

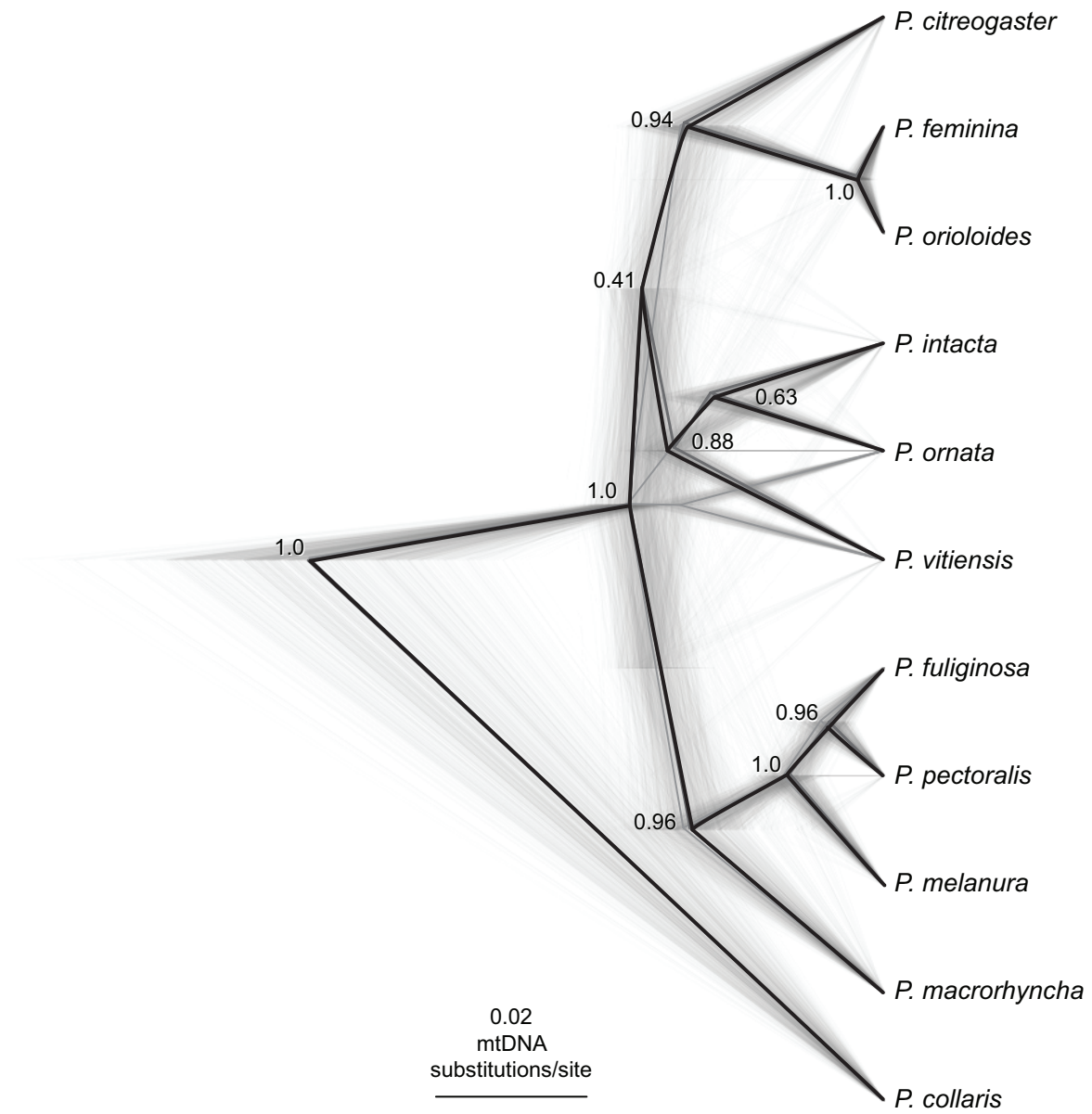


Figure 2.4. Coalescent species tree from *BEAST analysis of nuclear and mitochondrial DNA. The maximum clade credibility tree is superimposed on the cloudogram of the posterior tree distribution, visualized with DensiTree. Node support is denoted as Bayesian posterior probabilities.

haplotype, suggesting either the presence of gene flow between New Guinea and Queensland or incomplete lineage sorting between these clades. Further investigation of this issue should include samples from *P. m. spinicaudus*, which is distributed on islands in the Torres Strait and along the south coast of New Guinea from Merauke to Hall Sound, to determine the extent—if any—of gene flow between Australia and New Guinea.

The Bismarck Archipelago clearly has experienced multiple independent colonizations of *Pachycephala* populations from within the species complex. *Pachycephala melanura dahli* occurs on small islets that surround many of the major islands throughout the archipelago, whereas *P. citreogaster* is confined to the large islands of New Britain, New Ireland, and New Hanover, plus smaller islands such as Dyaul, Feni, Mussau, and Manus. Superficially, male plumage of *P. melanura dahli* and *P. citreogaster* is quite similar; both are white-throated, but small differences in tail color exist. Female plumage differs in head color and overall brightness of the yellow belly. Despite their similar appearance and similar distribution throughout the Bismarck Archipelago, they occupy different habitats: *P. melanura* inhabits coastal scrub forest on small islands and *P. citreogaster* occurs in mature forest, mostly on larger islands. We found little geographic structure within each of these clades, but our results suggest that samples from Manus (*P. c. goodsoni*) and Mussau Islands (*P. c. sexuaria*) are genetically distinct from the rest of *P. citreogaster* (0.018 ND2 *p*-distance), and their classification as distinct subspecies is warranted. Interestingly, a coincident pattern of peripheral isolates in the Bismarck Archipelago is found also in *Todiramphus* kingfishers (*T. saurophagus* with respect to *T. chloris*) and *Monarcha* flycatchers (*M. cinerascens* with respect to *M. castaneiventris*). This pattern suggests that islets play an important role in the diversification of avian lineages in archipelagos such as the Bismarcks.

Three *Pachycephala* subspecies in the Louisiade Archipelago sometimes are lumped with *P. citreogaster* (*P. citreogaster collaris*, *P. c. rosseliana*, and *P. c. misimae*; Dickinson 2003; Dutson et al. 2011; Clements et al. 2013), based on morphological (white-throated) and geographic similarities. We sampled two of these subspecies (*P. citreogaster collaris* and *P. c. rosseliana*) and found them to form a highly divergent clade that was sister to the rest of the ingroup. The average sequence divergence between these clades was 0.087 in ND2 *p*-distance. The Louisiade Archipelago has many endemic avian subspecies (Clements et al. 2013), suggesting that birds in this archipelago may not share a close evolutionary history with those from the Bismarcks and mainland New Guinea. To our knowledge, this high degree of genetic distinctiveness for a Louisiades population is rare in avian lineages; see Kearns et al. (2013) for an example of a distinct Louisiade lineage of butcherbirds (Aves: Cracticidae). Additional sampling in the region is necessary, especially of *P. citreogaster misimae*, but our results suggest the presence of an overlooked species-level taxon in the region, *P. collaris*.

Indonesian sampling was not a focus of this study, and it remains a major obstacle to a full understanding of the evolutionary history of the *P. pectoralis/melanura* species complex; however, we did sequence toepads from museum study skins of two individuals of *P. pectoralis balim*, an enigmatic taxon restricted to the Balim and Bele Valleys on the north slopes of Mount Wilhelm in the Snow Mountains of New Guinea. We found a well-supported sister relationship (PP=0.99, BS=75) between *P. macrorhyncha* of Tanimbar Island, Indonesia and *P. p. balim*. Although these represent the only two Indonesian taxa sampled in this study, this result does suggest an affinity of *P. p. balim* to other Indonesian taxa as opposed to species distributed throughout New Guinea (e.g., *P. soror*, *P. schlegelii*, *P. citreogaster*) or Australian *P. pectoralis* lineages (i.e., clades I–K). Additionally, the placement of this clade as sister to clade H hints at

the possibility that Indonesian members of the *P. pectoralis/melanura* species complex are more closely related to Australian taxa than they are to the more diverged Melanesian and Polynesian lineages.

Solomon Islands

The topology of the Solomon Islands clade (*P. orioloides*; clade E) is characterized by well-diverged lineages. Relationships within *P. orioloides* are coincident with other Solomon Islands lineages. For example, a sister relationship between populations on Bougainville Island (*P. o. bougainvillei*) and Choiseul + Isabel Islands (*P. o. orioloides*) has been found in other species complexes, including *Monarcha castaneiventris* and *Ceyx lepidus* (Uy et al. 2009a; Andersen et al. 2013). Indeed, this is an expected relationship because Bougainville, Choiseul, and Isabel were connected as a single island, Greater Bukida, during the last glacial maximum (Mayr and Diamond 2001). We suspect this pattern is more pervasive than the literature suggests owing to poor sampling of Bougainville taxa in other studies (e.g., Smith and Filardi 2007). Our results placed the “Greater Bukida” clade sister to samples from the New Georgia group, which is an unusual pattern in the Solomon Islands. Most studies suggest a closer relationship of Guadalcanal to the “Greater Bukida” clade (Smith and Filardi 2007; Uy et al. 2009a). Within the New Georgia group, we sampled two of the three described subspecies from three islands and found a well-supported split between *P. o. melanonota* from Vella Lavella Island and *P. o. centralis* from New Georgia and Kolombangara Islands. Additional sampling is necessary from islands such as Ranongga (*P. o. melanonota*), Rendova and Tetepare (*P. o. melanoptera*), and Vangunu and Nggatokae (*P. o. centralis*) to better understand the phylogeographic history of whistlers in the New Georgia group. The two basal branches of the *P. orioloides* group are *P. o.*

cinnamomea (Guadalcanal) and *P. o. christophori* (Makira), but we lacked samples of *P. o. sanfordi* from Malaita. Taken as a whole, we found a well-resolved topology in the Solomon Islands that suggests an east to west biogeographic history, starting with *P. feminina* and *P. o. christophori* on Rennell and Makira Islands, respectively and working west to Bougainville. Uy et al. (2009a) reported the best-resolved topology of Solomon Islands birds to date (the polytypic *Monarcha castaneiventris* Verreaux, J, 1858). Their results showed that basal divergences divided populations from eastern islands such as Malaita and Makira from all others. We lacked samples from Malaita and the aforementioned New Georgia group islands, thus, a complete biogeographic reconstruction of the Solomon Islands taxa is not yet possible.

Pachycephala implicata is an enigmatic taxon distributed in the highlands of Bougainville and Guadalcanal. Two subspecies are described with distinctive male plumages: (1) *P. i. richardsi* on Bougainville is yellow below with an olive back and black hood, and (2) nominate *P. i. implicata* on Guadalcanal is overall greenish-olive with a gray hood. These taxa are sexually dimorphic, but female plumages are similar to each other. Our results represent the first molecular phylogenetic hypothesis for this taxon (Fig. 2.3), which was well-supported as sister to *P. c. caledonica* from New Caledonia. Furthermore, *P. i. richardsi* and *P. i. implicata* were 7.9% diverged in ND2 sequences. This high degree of genetic differentiation combined with plumage differences and substantial allopatry suggest they are best treated as separate species, *P. richardsi* and *P. implicata*, a decision that was adopted recently by Dutson et al. (2011).

Polynesia

Phylogenetic relationships of Polynesian taxa were equivocal. Overall, the most striking aspect of these lineages is that each *Pachycephala* taxon from Rennell Island in the Solomon

Islands to Tonga is monophyletic and substantially diverged from all other taxa (e.g., mean divergence between Fijian *Pachycephala* and *P. feminina* from Rennell Island = 6.1%; *P. flavifrons* and *P. jacquinoti* are 4.5% and 4.0% diverged from Fijian *P. graeffii*, respectively. We interpret this pattern of shallow internodes at the base, long stem lineages, and shallow divergences within each taxon as support for a scenario in which *Pachycephala* achieved its full geographic distribution in Polynesia rapidly followed by little or no subsequent gene flow among most island populations. This biogeographic pattern of rapid and widespread colonization across Southeast Asia and the Pacific islands is thought to have occurred in other widespread polytypic species complexes such as *Todiramphus chloris* and *Turdus poliocephalus* (Mayr and Diamond 2001). Densely-sampled phylogenetic hypotheses are not available to test this hypothesis in these species complexes; however, this pattern has been documented at multiple taxonomic scales, including the *Ceyx lepidus* radiation (Andersen et al. 2013), a genus of Pacific ground doves (*Alopecoenas*; Moyle et al. 2013); and a family-level lineage with dozens of species (e.g., Zosteropidae; Moyle et al. 2009). It seems likely that the *Pachycephala pectoralis* species complex fits into this broader pattern of geographic expansion and speciation in Pacific island birds.

We achieved dense sampling from Fiji, including six of the 10 described subspecies from eight islands across the archipelago, and found them to form a well-supported clade (PP=0.98, BS=77). Several interesting patterns emerged in Fiji including the presence of two white-throated lineages (*P. vitiensis lauana* from the Lau Archipelago and *P. v. kandavensis* from Kadavu Island). Mayr (1932b) hypothesized that Fiji was colonized by a single white-throated lineage, but our results suggest two independent colonizations of white-throated forms into Fiji. Additional sampling of the third white-throated subspecies from Gau, Fiji (*P. v. vitiensis*) plus

samples from additional populations of *P. v. kandavensis* (e.g., Beqa Island) are necessary to disentangle the apparent complex biogeographic history of white-throated *P. vitiensis* in Fiji. Secondly, *P. graeffii torquata* was found to be a distinct lineage, but its phylogenetic position within Fiji is equivocal. Individuals of this taxon are substantially larger than other Fijian populations and they have prominent yellow nape patches and lack yellow lores, features unique in Fiji. Finally, *P. g. graeffii* of Viti Levu received strong support as being sister to a clade comprised of *P. g. aurantiiventris* of Vanua Levu and *P. g. ambigua* from Kioa and Rabi Islands. Mayr (1932b) hypothesized a scenario in which *P. g. torquata* and *P. g. aurantiiventris* + *P. g. ambigua* were closely related and distant from *P. g. graeffii*. Indeed, we found the opposite to be true, and we did not detect geographic structure between *P. g. aurantiiventris* and *P. g. ambigua*, despite noticeable morphological variation between these two subspecies. We recommend synonymizing these subspecies as one until a fine-scale study of gene flow is undertaken.

Samoa and Tonga represent the easternmost islands inhabited by *Pachycephala*, thus, the genus does not extend east of the Andesite Line. Each archipelago has a distinct species-level taxon: *P. jacquinoti* of Tonga is uniquely black-throated, whereas *P. flavifrons* of Samoa is entirely gray-backed with a variably mottled gray throat and thin yellow lores. Clearly, both have disparate plumage patterns from the ‘standard’ *P. pectoralis* complex; *P. flavifrons* has never been included in the complex, whereas *P. jacquinoti* was placed within the complex by Galbraith (1956), who synonymized it with *P. p. melanops*. Our results show that these species are nested within the *P. pectoralis/melanura* complex, but their exact relationships are unresolved. The phylogenetic placement of these two species, nested well within the ingroup, supports Galbraith (1956) overall treatment of dividing the complex into numerous species, a treatment that we recommend, as well. This pattern of species or genera embedded phylogenetically within a

radiation is not novel in Pacific bird lineages, and it adds to a growing body of literature suggesting there is still much to be learned about the phylogenetic relationships of Pacific island birds. For example, Filardi and Moyle (2005) found several aberrant genera of monarch flycatchers to be nested within the *Monarcha* radiation (e.g., *Metabolus*, *Clytorhynchus*, *Mayrornis*, and *Neolalage*) and Moyle et al. (2009) found several genera of white-eyes to be nested within *Zosterops* (e.g., *Chlorocharis*, *Speirops*, *Woodfordia*, and *Rukia*).

Taxonomy

A full taxonomic revision is beyond the scope of this study due to incomplete sampling of nominal taxa. Based on our phylogeny, we offer a review and critique of three widely-used avian taxonomic classifications (Dickinson 2003; Gill and Donsker 2012; Clements et al. 2013; summarized in Table 2.1), and where possible, we make suggestions for more phylogenetically appropriate circumscription of species limits.

As noted above, Tonga and Samoa represent examples of archipelago-specific lineages that are each recognized as species, but the scenario appears far more complex in the rest of Polynesia. Phylogenetic relationships of taxa from New Caledonia, the Santa Cruz group, and Vanuatu remain uncertain owing in part to poor sampling and muddled taxonomy. This region, including Fiji, has been the most difficult for taxonomists to circumscribe geographically- and morphologically-cohesive species in this complex. Clements et al. (2013) and Gill and Donsker (2012) divided the region into three polytypic species, each with 5–7 subspecies: (1) *P. caledonica* (New Caledonia, Loyalty Islands, Vanuatu, and Vanikoro Island in the Santa Cruz group), (2) *P. vitiensis* (Nendo and Utupua Islands, Santa Cruz group, and southern and eastern Fiji), and (3) *P. graeffii* (northern and western Fiji); Dickinson (2003) subsumed *P. graeffii* into

an expanded *P. vitiensis* with 12 total subspecies (Table 2.1). We outline a more phylogenetically consistent taxonomic treatment below.

Although our results do not complete the picture in Polynesia, they do support several instances where current taxonomy does not reflect phylogeny. First, our single sample of *P. c. caledonica* (downloaded from GenBank) is not part of the ingroup species complex, a result first reported by Jonsson et al. (2008a). We found it to be well-supported as sister to *P. implicata* (Fig. 2.3; PP=99, BS=76), whereas Jonsson et al. (2008a) did not place it with certainty. We sampled only one other taxon from the *P. caledonica* group, *P. c. intacta* from Espiritu Santo, Vanuatu. This subspecies was found to be the basal lineage of clade G (Fig. 2.2), thus rendering *P. caledonica* paraphyletic. Clements et al. (2013) split *P. caledonica* into two geographically cohesive groups (i.e., New Caledonia and Vanuatu), but maintained their single-species status. Whether these groups pertain to phylogenetic lineages remains to be seen when better sampling is achieved, but these groups are not each other's closest relatives and their placement in linear classifications such as Clements et al. (2013) should be changed. Second, we sampled three of five subspecies in the *P. vitiensis* species group: *P. v. ornata* (Nendo Island, Santa Cruz group), *P. v. kandavensis* (Kadavu, Fiji), and *P. v. lauana* (Lau Archipelago, Fiji). The English name of this species, White-throated Whistler, reflects their unifying morphological character. We found support for these three subspecies as independent lineages (Fig. 2.2), but their relationships to other Polynesian taxa were equivocal. The two Fijian subspecies were closely related (clade M), but relationships within this clade also were unresolved. Finally, the remaining Fijian taxa and one from Vanua Lava, Vanuatu have been ascribed to *P. graeffii*, which lacks a white throat (Clements et al. 2013). We sampled four of seven subspecies in this group (all from Fiji), and found them to be part of clade M, which also includes *P. v. kandavensis* and *P. v. lauana*. Given

that white-throated birds in Polynesia do not form a monophyletic group, we advise not recognizing *P. vitiensis*, the so-called white-throated whistler (*sensu* Gill and Donsker 2012; Clements et al. 2013) as different from *P. graeffii*. At this time, we advocate the conservative taxonomic treatment of Dickinson (2003) who lumped *P. graeffii* and *P. vitiensis*.

Despite relatively dense sampling in this study, the treatment of Australian lineages is still equivocal. Our concatenated analysis did not resolve the basal polytomy (clade H) of Australian populations, however, the species tree did. Jonsson et al. (2008a) found greater resolution of this node, with *P. pectoralis youngi* sister to *P. melanura*, and *P. pectoralis fuliginosa* sister to them, thus, our species tree is in conflict with the tree presented in Jonsson et al. (2008a). Additionally, questions are left unanswered with regards to gene flow between *P. p. pectoralis*, *P. p. youngi*, and *P. p. fuliginosa* across southern Australia. Our sampling was not adequate to address the apparent high-degree of gene flow between these population boundaries suggested by Higgins and Peter (2003). Further work is also needed in the *P. melanura* clade, in which there is complex geographic structure, including paraphyly of at least two subspecies (*P. m. robusta* and *P. m. dahli*). The population from Ayr, Queensland is geographically associated with *P. m. robusta*, but it groups genetically with *P. m. dahli* from the Bismarck Archipelago, a result highlighted by Nyári and Joseph (2013). We believe fine-scale studies of gene flow including all populations of Australasian *P. pectoralis* and *P. melanura* are necessary before a comprehensive reworking of taxonomy can be undertaken.

Our results emphasize the disconnect between traditional, morphology-based taxonomy and molecular phylogeny-based evolutionary histories in Pacific bird lineages, a topic recently reviewed by (Pratt 2010). Although this study represents the most densely-sampled phylogeny of the *Pachycephala pectoralis/melanura* species complex to date many questions remain

unanswered. A thorough taxonomic overhaul is needed, along with detailed analyses of biogeography and character evolution. Significant additional geographic sampling is needed from Polynesia and throughout Indonesia, and additional genomic sampling is warranted before such analyses can achieve statistical rigor.

Chapter 3*

A molecular phylogeny of Pacific honeyeaters (Aves: Meliphagidae) reveals extensive paraphyly
and an isolated Polynesian radiation

* Andersen, M. J., Naikatini, A., and R. G. Moyle. In press. A molecular phylogeny of Pacific honeyeaters (Aves: Meliphagidae) reveals extensive paraphyly and an isolated Polynesian radiation. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution*.

Abstract

We investigated the molecular phylogenetic placement of 14 species of Pacific island honeyeaters (Aves: Meliphagidae) in the broader context of an existing family-level phylogeny. We examined the evolutionary history of Pacific honeyeater lineages to assess the accuracy of current taxonomies and to evaluate their biogeographic history. We compare these biogeographic patterns to other Pacific birds to identify emergent patterns across lineages. We found strong support for a previously unknown endemic radiation in central Polynesia, which comprises five genera: *Meliarchus*, *Guadalcanaria*, *Gymnomyza*, *Xanthotis*, and *Foulehaio*. Conversely, other Pacific lineages were found to be strongly allied with continental radiations (e.g., *Philemon eichhorni*, *P. cockerelli*, and *Lichmera incana*). Our results necessitated taxonomic changes, both at the generic level (e.g., *Xanthotis*, *Melidectes/Vosea*, and *Glycifohia/Gliciphila*) and regarding species limits within polytypic species. Here, we discuss species limits in *Foulehaio* and *Gymnomyza* and recommend elevating three nominal subspecies of *Foulehaio* to species status, each of which forms well-differentiated clades.

Introduction

The avian family Meliphagidae, or honeyeaters, is a diverse lineage whose center of diversity is Australasia. The 184 species in the family are distributed from Polynesia, through New Guinea and Australia, across Wallacea, and one species extends west of Wallace's Line to Bali (Higgins et al. 2008). The diversity in this family is multifaceted and includes not only large numbers of species, but also great disparity in eco-morphology (e.g., bill size and shape), body size, habitat, behavior, and plumage. Despite its species richness and diversity, the Meliphagidae has received surprisingly little attention from molecular systematists. In the most comprehensive work to date, Driskell and Christidis (2004) published a higher-level phylogeny that established a framework for the family. Generally, their sampling within genera was sparse, but they did uncover several paraphyletic genera (e.g., *Phylidonyris* and *Certhionyx*). Other efforts have focused on denser sampling of some larger genera within the family; some genera were found to be massively paraphyletic (e.g., *Lichenostomus*; Nyári and Joseph 2011), whereas others were monophyletic (e.g., *Meliphaga*; Norman et al. 2007).

Pacific island species represent an almost entirely unsampled geographic component of the Meliphagidae. The Pacific meliphagids comprise two groups: the genus *Myzomela* contains ~30 species that are small, morphologically similar, and almost continuously distributed on most islands from Fiji through Indonesia. In contrast, all other Pacific meliphagids (i.e., non-*Myzomela*) are larger-bodied, morphologically diverse, and more sparsely distributed, with species often restricted to single islands within archipelagos. Taxonomically, these species are placed in several genera, some of which are endemic to the Pacific, although others also include Australopapuan representatives. Some of these Australopapuan genera, such as *Philemon*, occur on oceanic archipelagos near continents (i.e., the Bismarcks, Admiralties, and Lesser Sundas).

However, other genera, such as *Xanthotis*, have more anomalous Pacific representatives. *Xanthotis provocator* is endemic to Kadavu, Fiji, whereas the rest of the genus occurs in Australia and New Guinea. *Meliarchus sclateri*, endemic to the island of Makira in the southeast Solomon Islands, has been placed in *Melidectes* (Sibley and Monroe 1990; Schodde and Mason 1999) or with *Acanthagenys* (Parkes 1980), genera endemic to New Guinea and Australia, respectively. The possibility of such geographically disjunct relationships is afforded some support from published molecular phylogenies. Driskell and Christidis (2004) and Nyári and Joseph (2011) included a single Pacific representative in their analyses: *Foulehaio carunculatus*, endemic to central Polynesia. Possibly because of taxon sampling differences, the exact placement of this species differed between the two studies, but each placed it sister to Australian genera.

Recent work on molecular systematics of endemic Pacific bird groups (Filardi and Moyle 2005; Filardi and Smith 2005; Moyle et al. 2009; Gibb and Penny 2010; Cibois et al. In press) has revealed that many morphologically aberrant, island-endemic genera are embedded within more morphologically homogeneous, widespread genera. Other unexpected patterns, such as upstream colonization of Australasia from Pacific archipelagos have also been supported (Filardi and Moyle 2005). It is unknown if the large-bodied honeyeaters represent one or more colonizations of the Pacific, and thus, it is of taxonomic and biogeographic interest to decipher the evolutionary relationships among Pacific meliphagids.

Here we present a molecular phylogenetic hypothesis of the Meliphagidae that focuses on relationships of non-*Myzomela* Pacific species. Using the framework produced by Driskell and Christidis (2004) and specimens from recent field work in the Pacific, we examine evolutionary history of the group to 1) assess the accuracy of current taxonomies, 2) evaluate the

biogeographic history of the group, and 3) compare these patterns to other published phylogenetic work of other avian lineages to look for emergent biogeographic patterns in the Pacific.

Methods

Taxon sampling

The framework for phylogenetic placement of the Pacific meliphagids relied on data produced by Driskell and Christidis (2004) and Nyári and Joseph (2011). Both studies used a mitochondrial gene (NADH dehydrogenase subunit 2; ND2) and a nuclear intron (Beta-Fibrinogen intron 5; Fib5) and sampled broadly from the Australian and Papuan members of the family. To this matrix we added sequences of 46 individuals from 16 additional species (Table 3.1). Fourteen of these species are endemic to Pacific islands, from New Britain to Samoa; the other two occur in Australia and New Guinea (*Xanthotis flaviventer* and *X. polygrammus*). Dense geographic sampling of all three subspecies was included for *Foulehaio carunculatus*, which is broadly distributed across Fiji, Samoa, and Tonga. Both subspecies of *Gymnomyza viridis* were included. We lacked material from only one Pacific meliphagid species: *Gymnomyza aubryana* of New Caledonia, of which we know of only one museum study skin in North America, from which we could not obtain viable DNA sequence data. Of 46 newly sequenced samples, 34 were derived from fresh muscle tissue; the remaining twelve samples were obtained from toepads clipped from museum study skins. Outgroup sampling (Appendix III) was the same as Driskell and Christidis (2004), but these results are not presented here. We follow the taxonomy of Gill and Donsker (2013) until taxonomic changes are proposed. For the spelling of *Sugomel niger*, we follow Schodde and Mason (1999).

Table 3.1. List of newly sequenced samples used in this study. Ancient DNA samples derived from museum specimens (i.e., toepads) are noted with *. Genus and species names in brackets indicates where taxonomy from (Gill and Donsker 2013) differs from our proposed changes. Institutional abbreviations: AMNH, American Museum of Natural History; DMNH, Delaware Museum of Natural History; KUNHM, University of Kansas Natural History Museum; LSUMNS, Louisiana State University Museum of Natural Science; UMMZ, University of Michigan Museum of Zoology; NMNH, Smithsonian Institution, National Museum of Natural History; UWBM, University of Washington Burke Museum; YPM, Yale Peabody Museum.

Genus	Species	Subspecies	Institution	Sample	Locality
<i>Foulehaio</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	KUNHM	104023*	SAMOA: Upolu Is.
<i>Foulehaio</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	KUNHM	104025*	SAMOA: Upolu Is.
<i>Foulehaio</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	KUNHM	104041*	SAMOA: Savai'i Is.
<i>Foulehaio</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	KUNHM	104050*	AMERICAN SAMOA: Tutuila Is.
<i>Foulehaio</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	KUNHM	107639*	AMERICAN SAMOA: Tau Is.
<i>Foulehaio</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	UWBM	Bu42872	TONGA: 'Eua
<i>Foulehaio</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	UWBM	Bu42885	TONGA: 'Eua
<i>Foulehaio</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	KUNHM	26303	FIJI: Lau Archipelago; Ono-I-Lau Is.
<i>Foulehaio</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	KUNHM	26344	FIJI: Lau Archipelago; Ogea Levu Is.
<i>Foulehaio</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	KUNHM	26386	FIJI: Lau Archipelago; Fulaga Is.
<i>Foulehaio</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	KUNHM	26425	FIJI: Matuku Is.
<i>Foulehaio</i>	[<i>carunculatus</i>]	<i>procerior</i>	KUNHM	24378	FIJI: Viti Levu Is.
<i>Foulehaio</i>	[<i>carunculatus</i>]	<i>procerior</i>	KUNHM	24382	FIJI: Viti Levu Is.
<i>Foulehaio</i>	[<i>carunculatus</i>]	<i>procerior</i>	KUNHM	30509	FIJI: Ovalau Is.
<i>Foulehaio</i>	[<i>carunculatus</i>]	<i>procerior</i>	KUNHM	30524	FIJI: Ovalau Is.
<i>Foulehaio</i>	[<i>carunculatus</i>]	<i>taviuensis</i>	KUNHM	24220	FIJI: Vanua Levu Is.
<i>Foulehaio</i>	[<i>carunculatus</i>]	<i>taviuensis</i>	KUNHM	26536	FIJI: Vanua Levu Is.
<i>Foulehaio</i>	[<i>carunculatus</i>]	<i>taviuensis</i>	KUNHM	24307	FIJI: Taveuni Is.
<i>Foulehaio</i>	[<i>carunculatus</i>]	<i>taviuensis</i>	KUNHM	24351	FIJI: Taveuni Is.
<i>Foulehaio</i>	[<i>carunculatus</i>]	<i>taviuensis</i>	KUNHM	26495	FIJI: Kioa Is.
<i>Glycifohia</i>	<i>notabilis</i>		LSUMNS	B45775	VANUATU: Espiritu Santo
<i>Glycifohia</i>	<i>notabilis</i>		LSUMNS	B45807	VANUATU: Espiritu Santo
<i>Glycifohia</i>	<i>undulata</i>		YPM	71297*	NEW CALEDONIA
<i>Guadalcanaria</i>	<i>inexpectata</i>		DMNH	11854*	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Guadalcanal Is.
<i>Gymnomyza</i>	<i>samoensis</i>		KUNHM	104021*	SAMOA: Upolu Is.
<i>Gymnomyza</i>	<i>samoensis</i>		KUNHM	107665*	SAMOA: Upolu Is.
<i>Gymnomyza</i>	<i>viridis</i>	<i>brunneirostris</i>	KUNHM	30461	FIJI: Viti Levu Is.
<i>Gymnomyza</i>	<i>viridis</i>	<i>viridis</i>	KUNHM	24318	FIJI: Taveuni Is.
<i>Lichmera</i>	<i>incana</i>		UMMZ	221981*	NEW CALEDONIA: Balabio Is.
<i>Meliarchus</i>	<i>sclateri</i>		KUNHM	13544	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Makira Is.
<i>Meliarchus</i>	<i>sclateri</i>		KUNHM	13546	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Makira Is.
<i>Myzomela</i>	<i>jugularis</i>		KUNHM	22536	FIJI: Viti Levu Is.
<i>Philemon</i>	<i>cockerelli</i>		KUNHM	27644	PAPUA NEW GUINEA: New Britain Is.
<i>Philemon</i>	<i>eichhorni</i>		KUNHM	27770	PAPUA NEW GUINEA: New Ireland Is.

Genus	Species	Subspecies	Institution	Sample	Locality
<i>Philemon</i>	<i>eichhorni</i>		NMNH	B4027	PAPUA NEW GUINEA: New Ireland Is.
<i>Stresemannia</i>	<i>bougainvillei</i>		KUNHM	5280	PAPUA NEW GUINEA: Bougainville Is.
<i>Stresemannia</i>	<i>bougainvillei</i>		KUNHM	5281	PAPUA NEW GUINEA: Bougainville Is.
<i>Vosea</i> [<i>Melidectes</i>]	<i>whitemanensis</i>		AMNH	778167*	PAPUA NEW GUINEA: New Britain Is.
<i>Vosea</i> [<i>Melidectes</i>]	<i>whitemanensis</i>		AMNH	778172*	PAPUA NEW GUINEA: New Britain Is.
<i>Xanthotis</i>	<i>flaviventer</i>		KUNHM	5588	PAPUA NEW GUINEA: Gulf Prov.
<i>Xanthotis</i>	<i>flaviventer</i>		KUNHM	7571	PAPUA NEW GUINEA: East Sepik Prov.
<i>Xanthotis</i>	<i>flaviventer</i>		KUNHM	9557	PAPUA NEW GUINEA: Western Prov.
<i>Xanthotis</i>	<i>polygrammus</i>		KUNHM	5133	PAPUA NEW GUINEA: Simbu Prov.
<i>Xanthotis</i>	<i>polygrammus</i>		KUNHM	9640	PAPUA NEW GUINEA
<i>Xanthotis</i>	<i>provocator</i>		KUNHM	24416	FIJI: Kadavu Is.
<i>Xanthotis</i>	<i>provocator</i>		KUNHM	25211	FIJI: Kadavu Is.

DNA sequencing

Total genomic DNA was extracted from frozen or alcohol-preserved muscle tissue using a Qiagen tissue extraction protocol (Qiagen, Valencia, California). All muscle tissue samples have associated museum study-skin vouchers. For taxa with no available tissue samples, DNA was extracted from toepads of museum study skins (Table 3.1). We sequenced the entire second subunit of mitochondrial nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide dehydrogenase (hereafter ND2) and the fifth intron of the Beta-fibrinogen gene (Fib5). Target DNA fragments were amplified using polymerase chain reaction (PCR) with the following external primers for ND2 (L5215; Hackett 1996) and (H6313; Johnson and Sorenson 1998) and Fib5 (Fib5 and Fib6; Marini and Hackett 2002). Additionally, we used internal primers designed for this study to amplify 200–250 bp fragments of toepad samples (Table 3.2).

PCR amplifications were performed in 13 µl reactions using Promega GoTaq DNA polymerase. A touchdown protocol was used in PCR for ND2 with annealing temperatures of 58, 54, and 50 °C. Annealing temperatures were held at 54 °C for Fib5 following recommendations by (Kimball et al. 2009). Amplified PCR products were screened on high-melt, 1% agarose gels

Table 3.2. Newly designed primers to sequence ND2 and Fib5 from samples derived from museum specimen toepads.

Primer name	5' to 3' sequence	Primer name	5' to 3' sequence
ND2		ND2 (cont.)	
FoulH190	AGGACTAGTGTGAGGCAGCTG	GymL170	GTGCCATTGAAGCAGCAAC
FoulH411	AGGWAGAGCAAGGTGATGGG	GymL347	CCATTYCACTTCTGATTCCC
FoulH551	GGCTATTCAACCTAAGTGTGAG	GymL367	GAAGTCCTCCAAGGCACCT
FoulH709	ATAGAGTTTAGGGGTGGGG	GymL506	GCCTTAGGAGGATGAATAGG
FoulH864	CGGAGATAGAAGAATAGGCTG	GymL513	GGAGGGTGARTAGGCCTTAA
FoulL142	GCCCTTAATCTCAAAATCCC	GymL644	GCCTAATAACYGCARCYG
FoulL644	GCCTAATAACCGCAGCCG	GymL829	GARCTACYAAACAAGACATAGCC
FoulL829	GAAGTCACTAAACAAGACATAGCC	LichmeraH242	GTAATGTCCCACTGTCCGG
GlycH202	GCTGGAGAATAGAACTAAGGC	LichmeraH380	CTGTTGATAGGAGGAGGC
GlycH341	GGAGGACTTCTGGGAATC	LichmeraL20	GAACCCCCAGGCAAACT
GlycH500	GTCTGGTTAAGTCCCATTC	LichmeraHL196	CTTTCTAGTACAAGCAGCCG
GlycH671	CAGCGTTGGGAGACTCAGCA	Vosea660F	GCCGTATTTCTCACCTAAAC
GlycL174	GCCATCGAAGCAGCAACCAAG	Vosea841F	CATGGCCCCTACAGCAATCG
GlycL319	GCGGCTATTGCAATAAACTAG	Vosea866R	CGGAGGTAGAAGAACAGGC
GlycL478	GCTAATCACTATAGCCATCC		
Gym.extH	GGCCTTCGTTTAAGGTAATCC	Fib5	
Gym.extL	GATGGTTTAACTCCTTCCCCTAT	GymFib5-ext	GCCATACAGAGTATACTGTGAC
GymH190	AGGACTAGTGYKGAGGCAGCTG	GymFib5-227F	CAGGAAAGTCTTGTGAGGTC
GymH362	CCGGTAGTTAGAGAGGTGC	GymFib5-383F	GTGCCAGACAAAAGACCAGG
GymH406	CAAGGTAATGGGTGGGAA	GymFib6-246R	CCAGTTTCACATTAGAAGTATCC
GymH411	AGGAAGAGYARGGTRATGGG	GymFib6-408R	CCTTGCTTCATAAGGAAAGGTGC
GymH538	CGAGATGGAAGAAAAGGC	GymFib6-ext	CTGCAGGAGCAAGAGTATC
GymH551	CTATTCAGCCCCAAATGCGAG	MyzFib5-ext	CAGATAATGGAGGTAGTGTG
GymH709	ATGGTGTGAGAGATGGGG	MyzFib5-270F	GACCAGCATGGACAATGAATAGG
GymH723	CAGTGTGAGAAGGAATATGGAG	MyzFib6-262R	CCTATTCATTGTCCATGCTGGTC
GymH861	CGGAGRTARAAGAAAYAGGCTGAG	MyzFib6-328R	CTTGAAGGAYGGCCCTGGTCT
GymL142	GCCCTAATCTCAAAATCCC	MyzFib6-ext	CAAAGTCCAGCCTGCAGGA

stained with GelRed, and purified with 10% Exo-SAP-IT™ (GE Healthcare Bio-Sciences Corp.).

We cycle-sequenced purified PCR products in both directions with the same primers used in

PCR for 25 cycles using the ABI Big Dye Terminator Cycle-Sequencing Kit version 3.1

(Applied Biosystems Inc., Foster City, CA). Sequencing was performed on an ABI Prism 3730

high-throughput capillary electrophoresis DNA analyzer.

Model selection and phylogenetic analysis

Sequence contigs were assembled in Geneious 6.1 and individual nuclear intron

alignments were constructed by hand and checked against an automated alignment in MUSCLE

(Edgar 2004). Additionally, we aligned by hand a particularly difficult indel in Fib5 according to

(Driskell and Christidis 2004)Driskell and Christidis (2004). Appropriate models of sequence evolution for each of the four partitions were identified using Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC), as implemented in MrModelTest 2.3 (Nylander 2004)(Nylander, 2004). A GTR+I+G model was implemented in all phylogenetic analyses for each of three codon positions in ND2, whereas, GTR+G was used for Fib5.

Phylogenetic reconstruction was performed on the partitioned, concatenated data and separately on each individual locus. Maximum likelihood (ML) heuristic tree searches were performed using GARLI 2.0 (Zwickl 2006). To avoid local optima, 1000 independent searches were performed, each starting from a random tree. GARLI's default parameters were adjusted to terminate searches when no topological improvements were found after 50,000 generations (genthreshfortopoterm = 50000); otherwise, default settings were used. We selected the topology with the best likelihood as our ML estimate. Statistical support for this topology was obtained by running 1,000 non-parametric bootstrap replicates (Felsenstein 1985) in GARLI to assess clade credibility and SumTrees 3.3.1, part of the DendroPy 3.12.0 package (Sukumaran and Holder 2010), was used to create a 50% majority-rule consensus tree. Nodes with >70% bootstrap support were considered well-supported (Hillis and Bull 1993; Wilcox et al. 2002). Bayesian analysis (BA) was conducted using MrBayes 3.2.1 (Ronquist and Huelsenbeck 2003; Altekari et al. 2004; Ronquist et al. 2012) implemented with BEAGLE (Ayres et al. 2012). Two independent MCMC runs of 50 million generations were conducted using four chains per run (nchains=4) and incremental heating of chains (temp=0.1), sampling every 2,000 generations.

For all Bayesian analyses, TRACER 1.5 (Drummond and Rambaut 2007) and Are We There Yet? (AWTY; Wilgenbusch et al. 2004; Nylander et al. 2008) were used to assess convergence of parameter estimates and tree splits, respectively. For MrBayes analyses, the

average standard deviation of split frequencies (ASDSF) and the potential scale reduction factor (PSRF) were used to determine topology convergence between runs. The appropriate burn-in generations (25% for all analyses) were discarded based on convergence assessments of the ASDSF passing below 0.01. The remaining trees were summarized in a 50% majority-rule consensus tree.

Results

The combination of newly sequenced samples and those downloaded from GenBank (Appendix III) produced a final data alignment of 131 individuals and 1714 bp. New sequences are deposited in GenBank. Monophyly of the Meliphagidae received unequivocal support, but major sub-clades within the family were separated by short internodes and many received low support. In general, Bayesian analysis produced significant posterior probabilities (> 0.95) for many basal nodes that had low ($< 70\%$) bootstrap support. When analyzed separately, we found discordance between the mitochondrial ND2 gene tree (Fig. 3.1) and the nuclear Fib5 gene tree (Fig. 3.2), similar to that found by Driskell and Christidis (2004). We noted that each tree supported a different placement of *Myzomela* and *Philemon*, with strong, but conflicting support in both cases: the ND2 tree supported a closer relationship of these two genera than did the Fib5 tree. The concatenated phylogeny (Fig. 3.3) reflects the more distant relationship between *Myzomela* and *Philemon* supported by Fib5 (i.e., these two genera as members of clades A and E). Other studies with more loci, but not Fib5, have shown a closer relationship between *Myzomela* and *Philemon* (Gardner et al. 2010). Furthermore, Fib5 has been shown to support alternative topologies in birds (Hackett et al. 2008); therefore, we view the Fib5 results with caution, particularly in light of the many unresolved nodes in the base of our tree.

Figure 3.1. Molecular phylogeny of the Meliphagidae; Bayesian maximum consensus tree from analysis of the mitochondrial gene NADH dehydrogenase subunit 2 (ND2). Node support is denoted as Bayesian posterior probabilities.

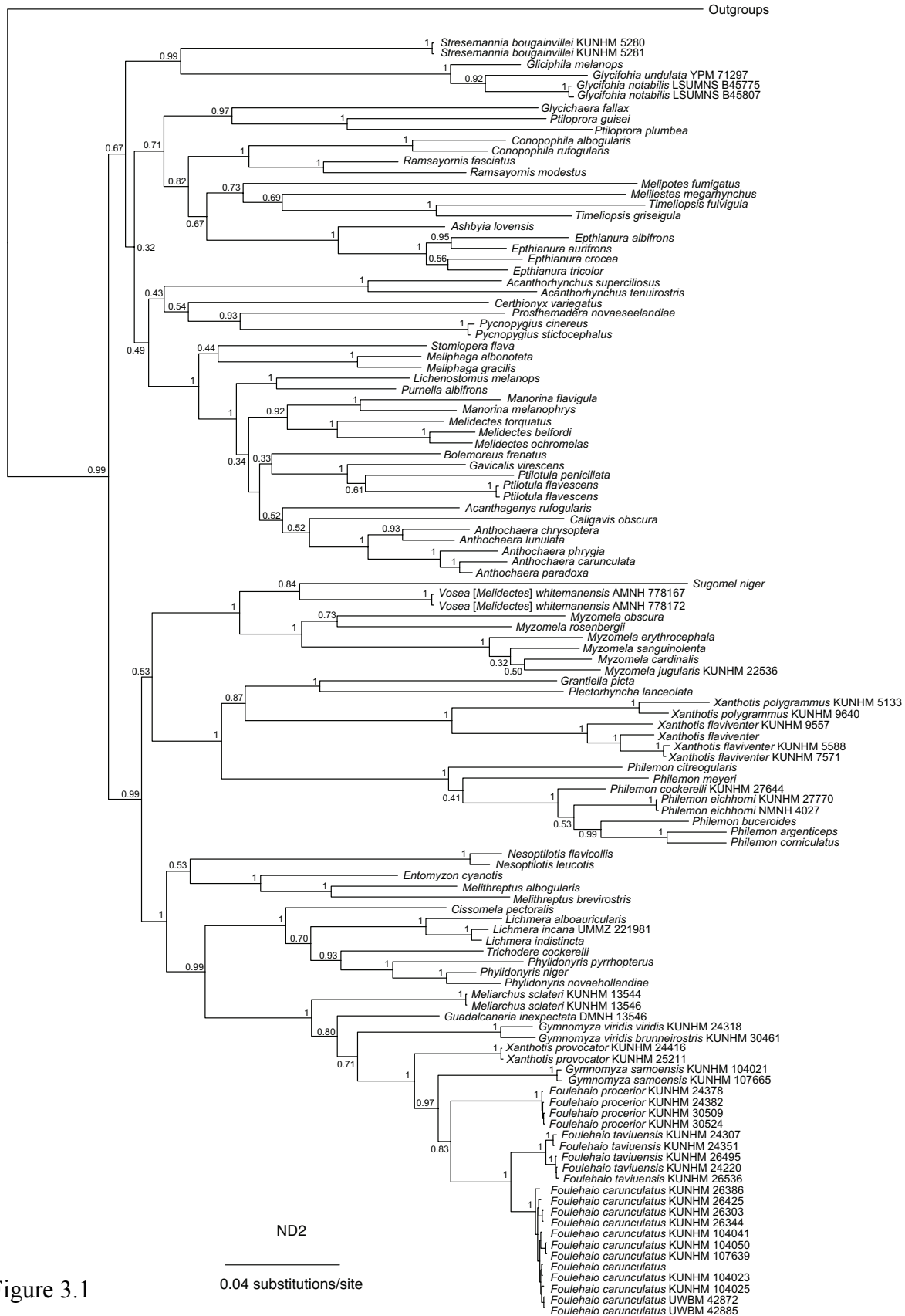


Figure 3.1

Figure 3.2. Molecular phylogeny of the Meliphagidae; Bayesian maximum consensus tree from analysis of the fifth intron of the nuclear Beta-Fibrinogen gene (Fib5). Node support is denoted as Bayesian posterior probabilities.

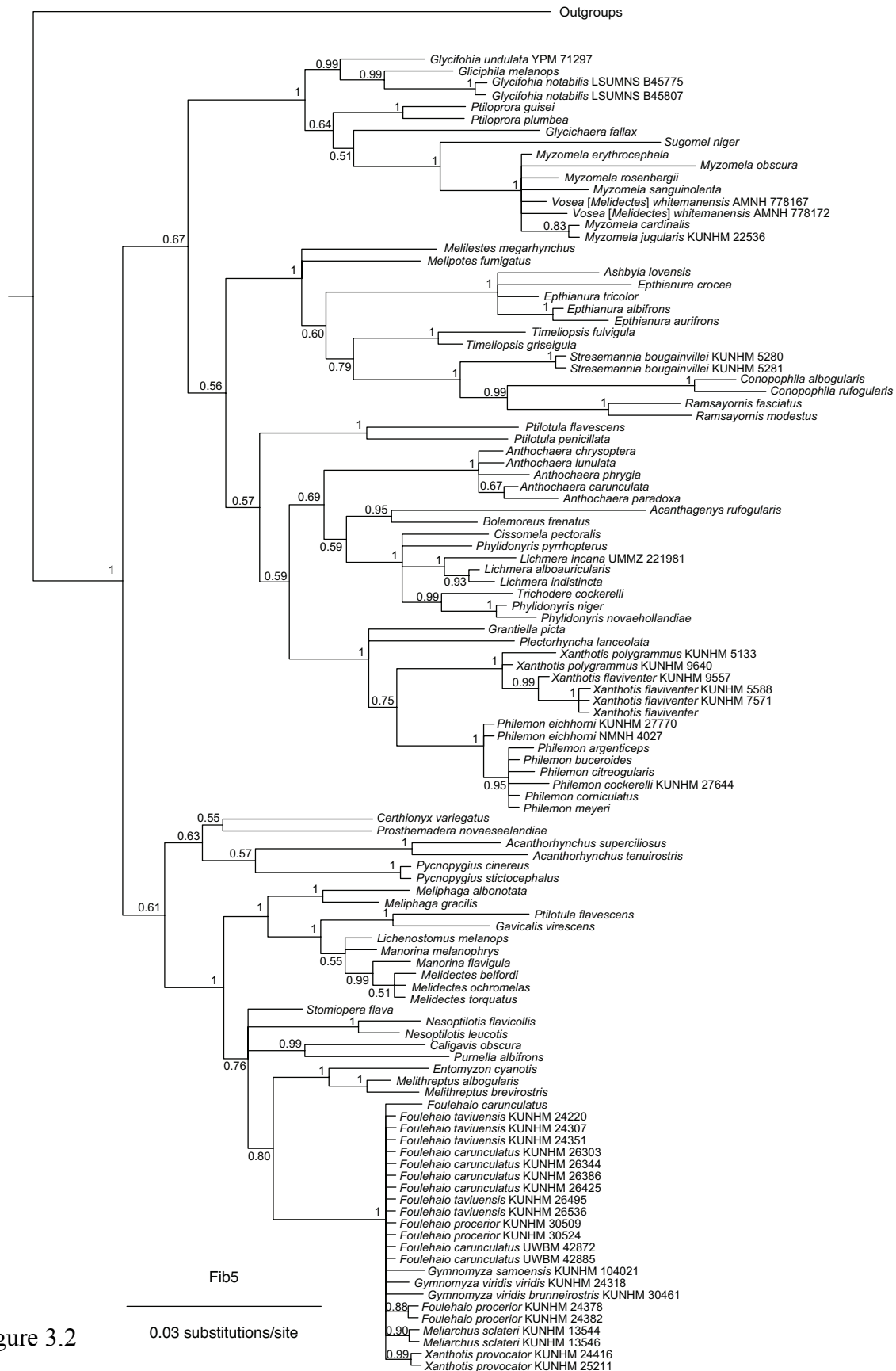


Figure 3.2

Figure 3.3. Molecular phylogeny of the Meliphagidae; Bayesian maximum consensus tree from the concatenated, partitioned analysis. Node support is denoted as Bayesian posterior probabilities and maximum likelihood bootstrap support (PP/BS). Newly sequenced taxa are labeled with corresponding sample numbers; all others were downloaded from GenBank (see Supplementary Table S1). Clades A–H are discussed in the text. Gray boxes highlight Pacific lineages in the phylogeny. Outgroup sequences (not shown) were the same as Driskell and Christidis (2004) and included representatives from four families: Dasyornithidae, Pardalotidae, Acanthizidae, and Maluridae.

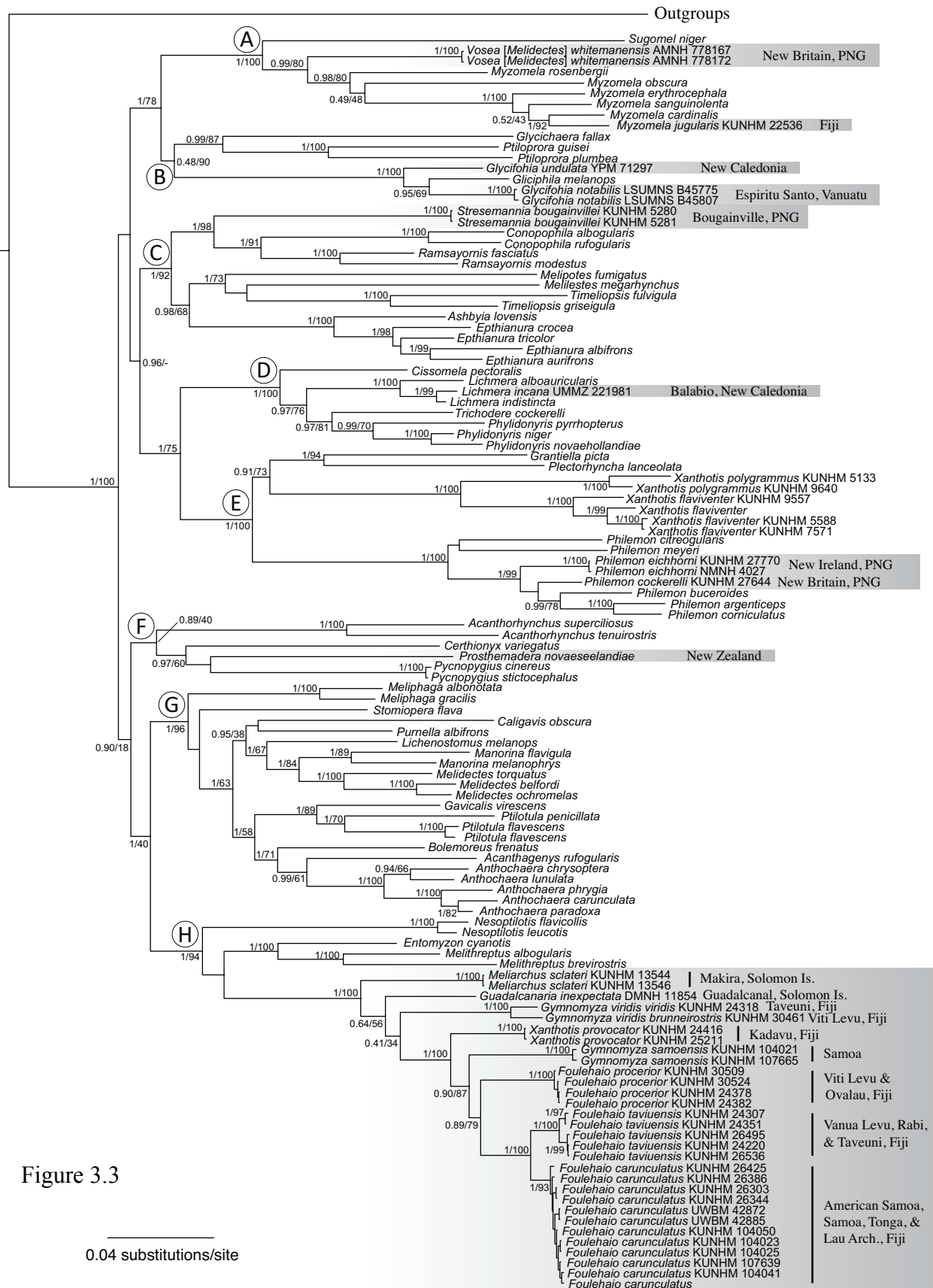


Figure 3.3

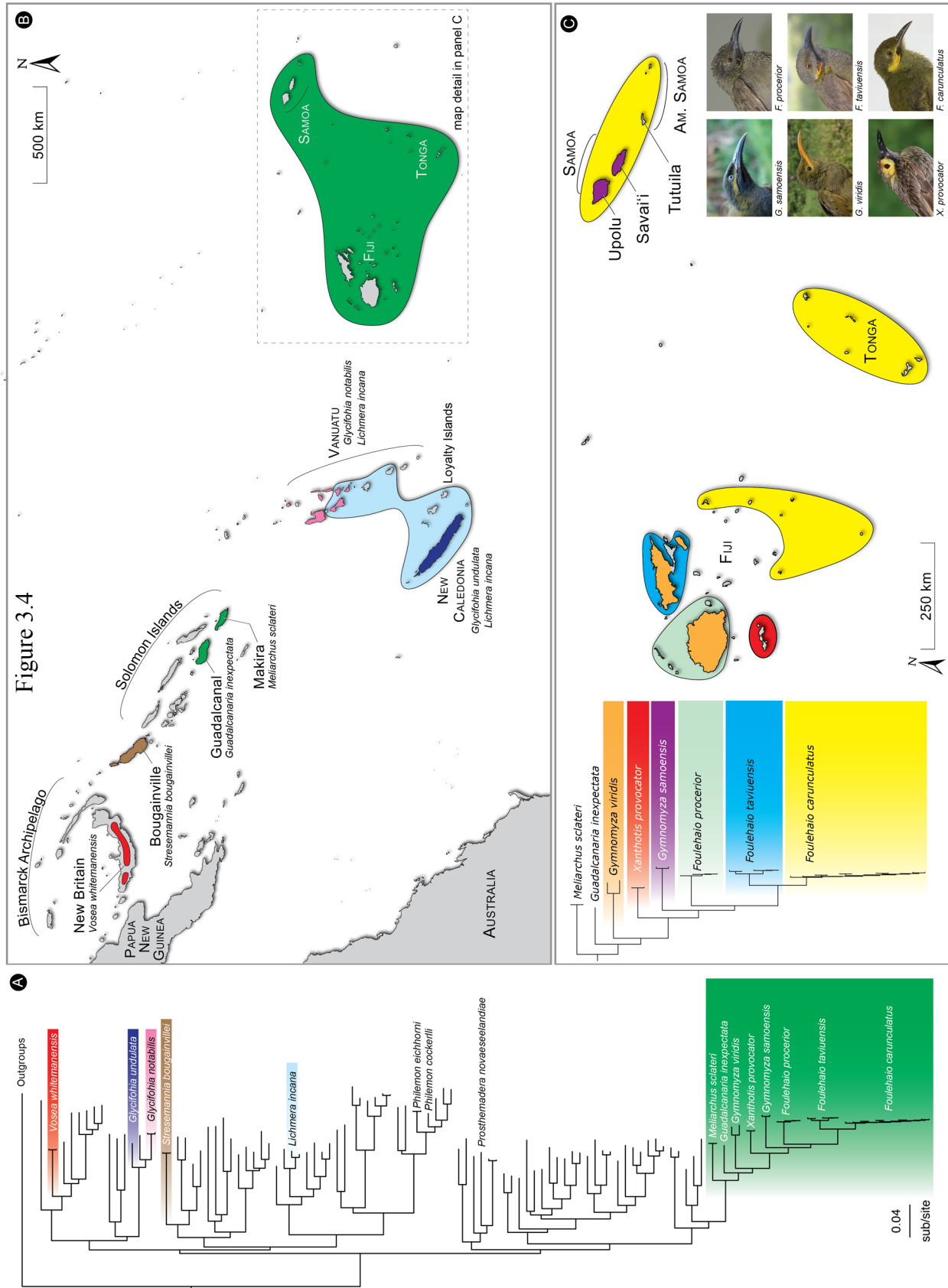
Overall, eight large clades (clades A–H, Fig. 3.3) diverged from near the base of the tree, two of which (B, F) lacked any node support and should be considered unresolved but are useful for discussion. Pacific island species were found in seven of the eight major clades. Because much of our matrix was comprised of sequences from Driskell and Christidis (2004), we restrict our reporting of results to the newly added taxa. The gene tree discordance mentioned above does not affect the overall interpretation of Pacific island lineages.

Clade A contained the monotypic genus *Sugomel* and the large and widespread genus *Myzomela*. Substantially better taxon sampling will be required to decipher relationships among the ~30 species in this genus, which includes many Pacific island taxa. A surprising result was the placement of *Melidectes whitemanensis*—a montane New Britain endemic—between *Sugomel* and *Myzomela*. Sister to clade A was a collection of genera comprising clade B (Fig. 3.3). Two Pacific island species, *Glycifohia undulata* from New Caledonia and *Glycifohia notabilis* from Vanuatu were part of this clade, but were rendered paraphyletic by *Gliciphila melanops* of Australia. The Bougainville Island endemic genus *Stresemannia* was part of clade C (Fig. 3.3), but separate from other species and on a long branch from near the base of the clade.

Lichmera incana was placed among other *Lichmera* species in clade D (Fig. 3.3), separated from *Lichmera indistincta* by only 1.6% ND2 divergence. Within clade E, all *Philemon* species included in the study formed a clade, with the two Pacific species, *P. eichhorni* of New Ireland and *P. cockerelli* of New Britain, embedded in the genus. Although not sister to one another in the phylogeny, this relationship received low support. Also included in clade E were two of the three species of *Xanthotis* in the study. The two species distributed in Australia and New Guinea, *X. polygrammus* and *X. flaviventer*, formed a clade but the Fiji endemic *X. provocator* was strongly supported as a member of clade H (see below).

Clade F was poorly supported and likely comprises multiple independent lineages, but it did contain one Pacific lineage: *Prosthemadera novaeseelandiae* of New Zealand. The large and diverse clade G contained no Pacific island species. Six of the fourteen sampled Pacific species outside of *Myzomela* were contained in clade H. Branching basally from the clade was the sister pair of *Nesoptilotis leucotis* and *N. flavicollis*, endemic to Australia and Tasmania, respectively. The rest of the clade comprised two Australian genera (*Entomyzon* and *Melithreptus*) sister to a large and well-supported Pacific assemblage (Fig. 3.3). Branching sequentially from the base of the Pacific clade were *Meliarchus sclateri* of Makira Island, *Guadalcanaria inexpectata* of Guadalcanal Island, and *Gymnomyza viridis* of Fiji, but support for the specific branching order was equivocal. Above these three species, *Xanthotis provocator* of Kadavu Island, Fiji; *Gymnomyza samoensis* of Samoa; and the widespread *Foulehaio carunculatus* of Fiji, Tonga, and Samoa formed a well-supported clade. Posterior probability supporting *X. provocator* as sister to the other two species fell short of significant (0.90), but ML bootstrap support was more persuasive (87%). Samples from throughout the range of *F. carunculatus* were grouped into three strongly supported clades corresponding to nominal subspecies. Samples from Viti Levu and Ovalau Islands, Fiji, comprising *F. c. procerior*, formed a clade that was ~10% diverged in ND2 (uncorrected P) from *F. c. taviuensis* (Vanua Levu, Taveuni, and Rabi Islands, Fiji) and *F. c. carunculatus*. Within *F. c. carunculatus*, samples from Samoa, Tonga, and the Lau Archipelago of Fiji— separated from one another by hundreds of kilometers of open ocean (Fig. 3.4)—showed no geographic structure and less than 1% mitochondrial divergence.

Figure 3.4. Map of the southwest Pacific illustrating distributions of most of the non-*Myzomela* honeyeater lineages sampled in this study. (A) Bayesian phylogeny reproduced from Fig. 1 with Pacific lineages labeled. Colored boxes pertain to distribution colors in map panel B. (B) Map of the southwest Pacific with distributions of *Vosea whitemanensis* (red; New Britain), *Stresemannia bougainvillei* (brown; Bougainville), *Glycifohia undulata* (dark blue; New Caledonia), *Glycifohia notabilis* (pink; northern Vanuatu), and *Lichmera incana* (light blue; New Caledonia, Loyalty Islands, and central Vanuatu). The Polynesian radiation is labeled green and includes: *Meliarchus sclateri*, *Guadalcanaria inexpectata*, *Gymnomyza viridis*, *G. samoensis*, *Xanthotis provocator*, and three species of *Foulehaio*. The dotted line around central Polynesia marks the area depicted in panel C. (C) Map of central Polynesia including Fiji, Samoa, and Tonga. The Polynesian clade is reproduced from the phylogeny in panel A, with each lineage colored to match its corresponding distribution on map panel C as follows: *Gymnomyza viridis* (orange; Viti Levu, Vanua Levu [to the exclusion of the Natewa Peninsula], and Taveuni, Fiji), *Xanthotis provocator* (red; Kadavu, Fiji), *Gymnomyza samoensis* (purple; Samoa), *Foulehaio procerior* (light green; Viti Levu, Fiji), *Foulehaio taviuensis* (blue; Vanua Levu, Kioa, and Taveuni, Fiji), *Foulehaio carunculatus* (yellow; Lau Archipelago, Fiji; Samoa; and Tonga). Note: colors correspond between panels A and B, but are unique in panel C. Photographs of six lineages in this radiation are depicted at right. Names throughout this figure follow the taxonomy proposed in the text.



Discussion

Overview

Our phylogenetic results continue the recent trend of DNA sequences producing major discrepancies compared to traditional honeyeater taxonomy (e.g., Driskell and Christidis 2004; Nyári and Joseph 2011). The Pacific island taxa added to the meliphagid phylogenetic framework were reconstructed in several clades within the family, some corresponding to expected relationships but others were far from congeners. Below we discuss how our results impact taxonomy in the family and our understanding of evolution in the Pacific.

In addition to taxonomic discrepancies, our phylogeny supported topological differences from those reported by Driskell and Christidis (2004) and Gardner et al. (2010). For example, both studies found *Myzomela* to be more closely related to the clade containing *Philemon* than we did in this study (Fig. 3.3; clades A and E). We found this curious given that the backbone of our phylogeny was based on data from Driskell and Christidis (2004). One explanation could be the relative ease of conducting rigorous Bayesian analyses today than in 2004. Driskell and Christidis (2004) reported sampling their MrBayes MCMC chain for 1 million generations, whereas we accomplished 50 times as many generations in two days using modern computers. An alternative explanation is the discordance we noted in the mitochondrial ND2 gene tree versus the nuclear Fib5 gene tree. The former supported a closer relationship of *Myzomela* and *Philemon*, than did Fib5. Gardner et al. (2010) had sparse sampling because they focused more on higher-level relationships in the Meliphagoidea, an Australian clade containing Meliphagidae and related families. This could be one reason why their phylogeny is not in agreement with ours. Regardless, it is clear that much greater taxonomic sampling and genomic coverage would help to achieve the most robust estimate of meliphagid phylogeny.

Taxonomy

Our results suggest some taxonomic changes are needed. For example, *Melidectes whitemanensis* was found to be sister to *Myzomela*—an entirely unexpected placement in the tree—and completely unrelated to other *Melidectes* (clade G, Fig. 3.3). *Melidectes whitemanensis* is restricted to montane regions of New Britain; it is the only *Melidectes* out of ten species in the genus to be found outside of mainland New Guinea. We recommend resurrecting *Vosea* Gilliard, 1960, to which it was originally described. This monotypic genus reflects its unique placement within the phylogeny and the species' substantial morphological and ecological differentiation from *Myzomela* (a speciose genus of small, eco-morphologically conserved, sunbird-like honeyeaters). Despite the strong node support for *Vosea whitemanensis*, we are cautious with this recommendation because our results are based on incomplete data (602 bp of ND2 and 165 bp of Fib5).

Another taxon in need of nomenclatural revision is *Glycifohia*, which was found to be paraphyletic with respect to *Gliciphila melanops* of Australia. *Glycifohia* comprises two taxa endemic to Vanuatu and New Caledonia: *G. notabilis* and *G. undulata*, respectively. *Gliciphila* Swainson, 1837 has priority over *Glycifohia* Matthews, 1929, thus, we recommend treating all three species in *Gliciphila*. Alternatively, these taxa could be split into three monotypic genera. This option would maintain *Glycifohia undulata*, but necessitate a new genus for *notabilis*, which was originally described as *Glyciphila notabilis* Sharpe, 1899 (note the emended genus name with 'y' instead of 'i'). Clearly, treating all three species in one genus—*Gliciphila*—would help avoid such nomenclatural confusion and still correspond to the phylogeny.

Foulehaio carunculatus was found to contain three genetically well-differentiated clades, each pertaining to nominal subspecies (*carunculatus*, *procerior*, and *taviuensis*). These clades are allopatrically distributed across central Polynesia, and each clade is morphologically distinct and easily diagnosable. We suggest that *Foulehaio* is best treated as three species: *F. carunculatus*, *F. procerior*, and *F. taviuensis*. Further, *Xanthotis provocator* is only distantly related to the other *Xanthotis* species and should be removed from the genus. However, placing it in another genus is not without complication. It might be returned to *Foulehaio*, where it was occasionally placed (Salomonsen 1967), but the phylogeny (Fig. 3.3) indicates that *Gymnomyza samoensis* would render an expanded *Foulehaio* paraphyletic. Of the three *Gymnomyza* species, *G. samoensis* was described first, thus it holds priority; however, it was not the first to be placed in the genus. *Gymnomyza aubryana* was the first to be ascribed to the genus, whereas *G. samoensis* and *G. viridis* were in *Amoromyza* (Mayr 1944). Because we lack samples of *G. aubryana*, the type species of the genus, any changes to expand *Gymnomyza* to incorporate *X. provocator* and three species of *Foulehaio* are premature. An argument could be made to include the entire clade including *Meliarchus*, *Guadalcanaria*, *Gymnomyza*, *Xanthotis provocator*, and *Foulehaio* in *Amoromyza*, but for now, we recommend maintaining current taxonomy (e.g., Gill and Donsker 2013) until complete taxon sampling of this clade is achieved (e.g., *Gymnomyza aubryana*).

The Fijian endemic, *Gymnomyza viridis*, shows marked geographic variation between two nominal subspecies distributed across Fiji's largest three islands. *Gymnomyza v. viridis* is distributed on Vanua Levu and Taveuni Islands, whereas, *G. v. brunneirostris* occurs on Viti Levu. These subspecies are 4.2% diverged in ND2 (uncorrected P) and are phenotypically and behaviorally distinct, as well. For example, bill and leg color differs between them, and there are stark differences in vocalizations. Male-female pairs of *G. v. brunneirostris* sing loud duets that

are characteristic sounds of Viti Levu forests (see Macaulay Library 166522, <http://macaulaylibrary.org/audio/166522>), whereas the vocal repertoire of *G. v. viridis* is generally more reserved (ML 181332, <http://macaulaylibrary.org/audio/181332>), including soft chattering notes quite unlike individuals on Viti Levu (Watling 2004). It is worth noting that the level of genetic differentiation between *Gymnomyza viridis* subspecies matches closely that observed between *Foulehaio procerior* and *F. taviuensis* across the same distribution (4%). Clearly, *Gymnomyza viridis* deserves more attention in order to better delimit species in this group. At the very least, a genetic sample from Vanua Levu is necessary, and ideally, a detailed analysis of vocal differences across all populations in Fiji would help characterize differences. We suspect *G. viridis* represents two species, but refrain from making a formal recommendation at this time.

Biogeography and evolution

Explanations for the large geographic disjunctions between some Pacific meliphagid clades and their continental sister taxa necessarily require overwater dispersal because these land areas have never been in contact. However, long distance dispersal directly between the regions is not required, and is unlikely. A series of stepping-stone dispersal events along the archipelagoes of Melanesia could produce the current distributions if intervening populations subsequently became extinct. The long stem lineages that connect *Vosea*, *Stresemannia*, *Guadalcanaria*, and *Meliarchus* to their respective sister taxa indicate relatively ancient separations from their respective common ancestors and are congruent with the hypothesis that these Pacific meliphagid lineages represent relictual distributions. All four lineages are single-island, montane endemics that are the result of at least three independent colonizations of the

Pacific. Bougainville and Guadalcanal share several montane conspecifics, including *Actenoides bougainvillei bougainvillei* and *A. b. excelsus*; *Pachycephala implicata richardsi* and *P. i implicata*; and *Rhipidura drownei drownei* and *R. d. ocularis*. To date, only the *Pachycephala* have been sequenced (Andersen et al., in press), which showed them to be sister, albeit old (7.9% diverged in ND2 uncorrected P). It is uncertain whether the *Actenoides* and *Rhipidura* from the highlands of Bougainville and Guadalcanal are sisters and to what level of divergence they have achieved, but our result—that *Stresemannia* and *Guadalcanaria* are not sister taxa—differs from the deeply diverged, but sister *Pachycephala* lineages.

In contrast, other meliphagid lineages colonized the Pacific relatively recently. Sequences from our sample of *Lichmera incana* from Vanuatu were only slightly diverged from those of *Lichmera indistincta* from Australia (1.6% ND2 divergence). Five described subspecies of *L. incana* are distributed throughout New Caledonia, the Loyalty Islands, and Vanuatu, of which we sampled only one, *L. i. incana*. Additional geographic sampling is needed to be certain, but the colonization of *L. incana* in the Pacific and subsequent differentiation appears to be quite recent. Furthermore, *Lichmera incana* forms a superspecies with *L. indistincta* of Australia and *L. limbata* of the Lesser Sunda Islands (Higgins et al. 2008). Together, these three species have 10 described subspecies, and although *L. limbata* was unsampled in this study, we suspect it to be minimally divergent, as well. A detailed phylogeographic study of *Lichmera* is warranted to better understand the colonization history of this clade in and out of Australia.

A striking contrast between old, restricted range species and young, dispersive species exists in the Polynesian endemic clade. Three forest-dwelling species branching sequentially from the base of the clade are restricted to one (*Meliarchus sclateri* and *Guadalcanaria inexpectata*) and three (*Gymnomyza viridis*) large islands in the Solomon Islands and Fiji,

respectively. Also in clade H, *Foulehaio* inhabits numerous islands of all sizes across three widely separated archipelagos (Fig. 3.4). This genus is divided into three clades separated by substantial genetic distance (ND2; 10%, 4%), and we argue these clades represent three distinct species. Two clades (*F. procerior* and *F. taviuensis*) are restricted to large islands in Fiji, whereas the third (*F. carunculatus*) spans the small remote islands of eastern Fiji and Tonga to the large islands of Samoa. Almost no genetic divergence separates individuals from Samoa, Tonga, and the remote Lau Archipelago of Fiji, indicating very recent colonization of these areas and/or ongoing gene flow. *Gymnomyza viridis* co-occurs with *Foulehaio procerior* on Viti Levu, Fiji and with *F. taviuensis* on Vanua Levu and Taveuni, Fiji. On these islands, *Foulehaio* can be found in all forested habitats, from mature primary forest to coastal mangroves, villages, and even city parks; whereas *Gymnomyza viridis* is restricted to large, mature forest blocks, which are generally found in the islands' montane interior. The occurrence of species with strikingly different ecology and apparent dispersal ability in the same clade is thought to require rapid shifts in these attributes over evolutionary time. Similar rapid shifts in other Pacific bird groups have been implicated in allowing rapid diversification in spite of apparent dispersal ability (Moyle et al. 2009). If viewed through the lens of taxon cycle-mediated shifts in dispersal and specialization (Wilson 1959, 1961; Ricklefs and Cox 1978), it is interesting to note that the Polynesian clade comprises multiple distinct phases.

Our results add to a growing list of studies demonstrating that avian diversity in the Pacific is poorly understood. A common theme among these studies is that divergent morphology has obscured true evolutionary relationships (Filardi and Moyle 2005; Moyle et al. 2009; Andersen et al. In press-b). In some groups, morphological divergence of island taxa obscured their close relationships to widespread and continental relatives (e.g., *Clytorhynchus*

and *Mayrornis*; Filardi and Moyle 2005). In contrast, the central Polynesian meliphagid radiation was not recognized because morphologically divergent island endemics were linked to similar genera in Australia and New Guinea (e.g., *Xanthotis* and *Glycifohia* [formerly *Phylidonyris*]), rather than to one another. Finally, many insular species are polytypic across their range and under-sampling in these lineages will often lead to under-representation of their true diversity (e.g., *Foulehaio* [this study] and *Ceyx*; Andersen et al. 2013). These conflicting diversification patterns highlight the need to sample insular species as broadly as possible across their distributions, rather than relying solely on single exemplars—a far too common practice in systematics today. Additionally, we caution against sampling biases towards continental radiations to the exclusion of Pacific island relatives. Doing so is likely to confound, not rectify, our understanding of phylogeny across both continental and insular lineages.

In the context of meliphagid systematics, our results demonstrate the dire state of our understanding of this group. The current phylogenetic framework, based on two molecular markers, is not sufficient to decipher many evolutionary relationships in the family; thus, a more comprehensive suite of markers, especially those offered by high-throughput sequencing (Faircloth et al. 2012) will be necessary to resolve many of these relationships. Because of remote island locales and permitting difficulties across numerous governments, many meliphagid species and distinct populations lack modern, vouchered tissue samples. However, these species will be necessary to produce a complete phylogenetic hypothesis of this enigmatic Australo-Pacific radiation. We advocate for renewed interest in field-based ornithology on Pacific islands to obtain these specimens and associated natural history data, which is vital for understanding honeyeater evolution, biogeography, and systematics.

Chapter 4

Rapid diversification of an insular kingfisher spans 13,000 km of the Pacific

Abstract

Todiramphus chloris (Aves: Alcedinidae) is the most widely distributed of the “great speciators” in the Pacific. Nearly 50 described subspecies of this kingfisher are distributed from the Red Sea to Polynesia, a distance of > 19,000 km. We reconstructed a molecular phylogeny of this enigmatic avian radiation from six genes and 157 individuals that spanned the entire Pacific distribution from the Marquesas to Singapore. The resulting phylogeny offers strong support that *T. chloris* radiated rapidly over an immense region of the Pacific. Genetic distances across the phylogeny were remarkably low, and molecular dating suggests that this radiation underwent extensive range expansion and diversification less than 1 Ma. Incredibly, several instances of sympatry have accumulated in this group on Australia, as well as far-flung oceanic islands, including Palau, Vanuatu, and the Solomon Islands. In each case of sympatry, significant eco-morphological and behavioral differences exist, suggesting that pre-mating isolating mechanisms were achieved rapidly during diversification. Our analyses found good node support cross the entire phylogeny, despite shallow internode distances. We revealed several complex radiations within the ingroup, as well as numerous novel relationships, which require major taxonomic revision throughout the entire species complex. Of the 22 species in the genus *Todiramphus*, ten were embedded within or closely related to *T. chloris*, including five species that radiated in the remote islands of Eastern Polynesian. Complex biogeographic patterns were inferred from the topology. A major phylogeographic break in the eastern Solomon Islands separates a Northern Melanesian clade from Polynesian taxa. Otherwise, the biogeographic origin of the *T. chloris* complex was equivocal, likely owing to the radiation’s rapid origin. Systematic relationships within each clade are discussed in detail, and an updated taxonomy is proposed for *Todiramphus chloris* and its allies. This study makes a significant contribution to the study of diversification

on island systems and to the systematics of a classically polytypic avian species complex in the Pacific.

Introduction

Islands have long been recognized as ideal natural laboratories for the study of evolution (Darwin 1859; Wallace 1881). Their isolation, discrete geographic boundaries, and relatively well-known geologic histories make them especially well-suited for studies on the tempo and mode of biological diversification. Indeed, islands spawned more than a quarter-century of intensive research on the ecology and evolution of insular species' distributions following seminal works by MacArthur and Wilson (1963, 1967). The islands of the southwest Pacific, in particular those of Melanesia, inspired major ideas on the processes of insular diversification such as taxon cycles (Wilson 1959, 1961), community assembly rules (MacArthur and Wilson 1967; Diamond 1975), the supertramp strategy hypothesis (Diamond 1974), and the paradox of the great speciators (Diamond et al. 1976; Diamond and Mayr 1976).

A conspicuous element of island bird faunas in the southwest Pacific is the profusion of widespread 'polytypic' species complexes (Mayr and Diamond 2001). These taxa occur on many islands—often across multiple archipelagos—and although apparently closely related, each island population may differ markedly in plumage pattern or coloration. Examples of these geographic radiations include the Variable Dwarf-Kingfisher complex (*Ceyx lepidus* sensu lato; Woodall 2001), the Golden Whistler complex (*Pachycephala pectoralis* sensu lato; Boles 2007), Island Thrush (*Turdus poliocephalus* sensu lato; Collar 2005), and *Monarcha* and *Symposiachrus* monarch-flycatchers (Coates et al. 2006). Classification of these distinct allopatric populations has hindered taxonomists, and under the Biological Species Concept (Mayr 1963) distinctive populations were merged into single 'species complexes' that include upwards of several dozen subspecies. Although a frustration for taxonomists, these broadly-distributed but well-differentiated populations have proved excellent study systems for the development of classic

concepts in evolutionary biology (Mayr 1942; Diamond 1974, 1975; Diamond et al. 1976), and more recently, using modern phylogenetic methods (Moyle et al. 2009; Uy et al. 2009a; Uy et al. 2009b; Andersen et al. 2013; Irestedt et al. 2013; Andersen et al. In press-b).

The most widespread example of a polytypic species complex is the Collared Kingfisher (*Todiramphus chloris*), which comprises 50 subspecies spanning a distance > 15,000 km from the Red Sea to Samoa, including India, mainland southeast Asia, the Sunda Shelf, and Australasia (Fry et al. 1992; Woodall 2001; Gill and Donsker 2013). The full geographic extent of the genus extends a further 3,000 km east to the Marquesas Islands in French Polynesia. Most subspecies correspond to single-island populations that are distinct in appearance, but some islands, including Palau, Vanuatu, several islands in the Solomon Islands, and Australia have multiple sympatric *Todiramphus* species. Most sympatric scenarios involve one *T. chloris* taxon and one non-*chloris* species, with even more in Australia. In situations of co-occurring congeners, the *T. chloris* subspecies is generally more disparate in plumage than its allopatric conspecifics. Additionally, these sympatric taxa exhibit ecological, morphological, and behavioral differences suggesting a high degree of reproductive isolation between each pair. Generally, Collared Kingfishers have turquoise blue-green backs with varying amounts of white or rufous below. Their eponymous white collar extends across the upper back and divides the blue back from the crown, which is variably blue or white. Also, a supercilium is variable both in extent and color, ranging from white to cinnamon. Subspecies differ not only in complex combinations of plumage, but in size, as well; there is nearly a two-fold difference in mass across all subspecies (Fry et al. 1992; Woodall 2001).

Traditionally, taxonomy of this group has been relegated to one polytypic ‘superspecies’ (Mayr 1931a). Little progress has been made on circumscribing geographically or phenotypically

cohesive groups, unlike similar species complexes that have received more attention recently: *Monarcha castaneiventris* (Uy et al. 2009a), *Ceyx lepidus* (Andersen et al. 2013), *Pachycephala pectoralis* (Jonsson et al. 2008a; Andersen et al. In press-b), *Erythropitta erythrogaster* (Irestedt et al. 2013), and *Turdus poliocephalus* (Peterson 2007; Jones and Kennedy 2008b). One previous study examined the higher-level phylogenetic relationships of kingfishers using molecular sequence data (Moyle 2006) and found *Todiramphus* to be a distinct clade separate from *Halcyon*. This first molecular result substantiated the long-held view that *Todiramphus* was unique and warranted its own genus (Mayr 1931a), however, nothing further could be said of the *T. chloris* species complex because only one such sample was included (Moyle 2006).

Here, we present the first phylogenetic analysis of the *Todiramphus chloris* species complex. We sampled both widely and densely across the distribution with a focus on Pacific lineages, and we included 15 additional *Todiramphus* species to investigate the monophyly of *T. chloris*. Additionally, we investigated species limits to propose an updated taxonomy of this widespread radiation.

Methods

Taxon sampling

Sampling included 157 individuals (Table 4.1, Fig. 4.1), including two *Syma* and 155 *Todiramphus* samples. Of the 155 *Todiramphus* samples, 93 were *T. chloris* and 62 were composed of 15 additional *Todiramphus* species: *T. cinnamominus*, *T. farquhari*, *T. gambieri*, *T. godeffroyi*, *T. leucopygius*, *T. macleayii*, *T. nigrocyaneus*, *T. pyrrhopygius*, *T. recurvirostris*, *T.*

Table 4.1. List of samples used in the study following the taxonomy of (Gill and Donsker 2013). Ancient DNA samples derived from museum specimens (i.e., toepads) and unvouchered blood samples are noted. Institutional abbreviations: AMNH, American Museum of Natural History; ANWC, Australian National Wildlife Collection; FMNH, Field Museum of Natural History; KUNHM, University of Kansas Natural History Museum; LSUMNS, Louisiana State University Museum of Natural Science; MHNG, Muséum d'histoire naturelle de la Ville de Genève; MNHN, Le Muséum National d'Histoire Naturelle; SNZP, Smithsonian National Zoological Park; UWBM, University of Washington Burke Museum.

Genus	Species	Subspecies	Institution	Sample	Locality
Ingroup					
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>alberti</i>	UWBM	Bu60188	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Isabel Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>alberti</i>	UWBM	Bu60266	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Guadalcanal Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>alberti</i>	UWBM	Bu60296	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Kiaba Is. (north coast Isabel Is.)
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>alberti</i>	UWBM	Bu60320	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Fera Is. (north coast Isabel Is.)
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>alberti</i>	UWBM	Bu60362	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Guadalcanal Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>alberti</i>	UWBM	Bu63065	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Choiseul Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>alberti</i>	UWBM	Bu63233	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Choiseul Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>alberti</i>	UWBM	Bu66007	SOLOMON ISLANDS: New Georgia Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>alberti</i>	UWBM	Bu66038	SOLOMON ISLANDS: New Georgia Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>alberti</i>	AMNH	DOT6704	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Guadalcanal Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>albicilla</i>	KUNHM	22581	NORTHERN MARIANA ISLANDS: Saipan Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>albicilla</i>	KUNHM	22591	NORTHERN MARIANA ISLANDS: Saipan Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>albicilla</i>	KUNHM	22592	NORTHERN MARIANA ISLANDS: Saipan Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>albicilla</i>	KUNHM	22603	NORTHERN MARIANA ISLANDS: Saipan Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>albicilla</i>	KUNHM	22611	NORTHERN MARIANA ISLANDS: Saipan Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>amoenus</i>	UWBM	Bu58741	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Rennell Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>amoenus</i>	UWBM	Bu58743	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Rennell Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>amoenus</i>	AMNH	DOT6588	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Rennell Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>chloris</i>	AMNH	DOT12606	INDONESIA: Sulawesi Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>collaris</i>	KUNHM	13960	PHILIPPINES: Camiguin Sur Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>collaris</i>	KUNHM	13971	PHILIPPINES: Camiguin Sur Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>collaris</i>	KUNHM	14010	PHILIPPINES: Camiguin Sur Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>collaris</i>	KUNHM	14446	PHILIPPINES: Tablas Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>collaris</i>	KUNHM	14447	PHILIPPINES: Tablas Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>collaris</i>	KUNHM	17938	PHILIPPINES: Batan Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>collaris</i>	KUNHM	18130	PHILIPPINES: Mindanao Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>collaris</i>	KUNHM	18134	PHILIPPINES: Mindanao Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>collaris</i>	KUNHM	28455	PHILIPPINES: Mindanao Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>collaris</i>	KUNHM	28674	PHILIPPINES: Mindanao Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>collaris</i>	KUNHM	20983	PHILIPPINES: Bohol Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>collaris</i>	UWBM	F358326	PHILIPPINES: Sibuyan Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>colonus</i>	SNZP	TKP2003070	PNG: Louisiade Archipelago; Rossel Is.

Genus	Species	Subspecies	Institution	Sample	Locality
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>colonus</i>	SNZP	TKP2003071	PNG: D'Entrecasteaux Archipelago; Duchess Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>colonus</i>	SNZP	TKP2003089	PNG: D'Entrecasteaux Archipelago; Tobwoiama Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>colonus</i>	SNZP	TKP2003092	PNG: D'Entrecasteaux Archipelago; Tobwoiama Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>colonus</i>	SNZP	TKP2003097	PNG: D'Entrecasteaux Archipelago; Tobwoiama Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>eximius</i>	KUNHM	25219	FIJI: Kadavu Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>eximius</i>	KUNHM	25227	FIJI: Kadavu Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>humii</i>	UWBM	Bu67535	SINGAPORE
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>humii</i>	UWBM	Bu76183	SINGAPORE
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>humii</i>	UWBM	Bu76211	SINGAPORE
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>laubmannianus</i>	UWBM	Bu81948	MALAYSIA: Borneo; Sarawak
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>manuae</i> [†]	KUNHM	104154	AMERICAN SAMOA: Ta'ū Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>manuae</i> [†]	KUNHM	104156	AMERICAN SAMOA: Ofu Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>manuae</i> [†]	KUNHM	104157	AMERICAN SAMOA: Ta'ū Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>manuae</i> [†]	KUNHM	107630	AMERICAN SAMOA: Ofu Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>marinus</i>	KUNHM	26338	FIJI: Lau Archipelago; Ogea Levu Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>marinus</i>	KUNHM	26342	FIJI: Lau Archipelago; Ogea Driki Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>marinus</i>	KUNHM	26348	FIJI: Lau Archipelago; Ogea Levu Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>marinus</i>	KUNHM	26369	FIJI: Lau Archipelago; Namuka-i-Lau Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>marinus</i>	KUNHM	26383	FIJI: Lau Archipelago; Fulaga Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>marinus</i>	KUNHM	26393	FIJI: Lau Archipelago; Fulaga Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>marinus</i>	KUNHM	26408	FIJI: Lau Archipelago; Kabara Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>marinus</i>	KUNHM	26410	FIJI: Lau Archipelago; Kabara Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>marinus</i>	KUNHM	26411	FIJI: Lau Archipelago; Vuagava Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>marinus</i>	KUNHM	26439	FIJI: Lau Archipelago; Vanua Vatu Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>nusae</i>	KUNHM	27723	PNG: Bismarck Archipelago; New Ireland Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>nusae</i>	KUNHM	27753	PNG: Bismarck Archipelago; New Ireland Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>nusae</i>	KUNHM	27792	PNG: Bismarck Archipelago; Nusalaman Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>nusae</i>	KUNHM	27793	PNG: Bismarck Archipelago; Nusalaman Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>nusae</i>	KUNHM	27812	PNG: Bismarck Archipelago; Nusalaman Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>nusae</i>	KUNHM	27857	PNG: Bismarck Archipelago; Dyaul Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>orii</i>	UWBM	Bu85102	NORTHERN MARIANA ISLANDS: Rota Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>orii</i>	UWBM	Bu85104	NORTHERN MARIANA ISLANDS: Rota Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>orii</i>	UWBM	Bu85105	NORTHERN MARIANA ISLANDS: Rota Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>ornatus</i>	KUNHM	19404	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Santa Cruz Group; Nendo Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>pealei</i> [†]	KUNHM	104160	AMERICAN SAMOA: Tutuila Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>pealei</i> [†]	KUNHM	104164	AMERICAN SAMOA: Tutuila Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>pealei</i>	UWBM	Bu89771	AMERICAN SAMOA: Tutuila Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>sacer</i>	UWBM	Bu42835	TONGA: 'Eua Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>sacer</i>	UWBM	Bu42841	TONGA: 'Eua Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>sacer</i>	UWBM	Bu42904	TONGA: 'Eua Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>santoensis</i>	LSUMNS	B45831	VANUATU: Espiritu Santo Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>solomonis</i>	KUNHM	12834	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Makira Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>solomonis</i>	KUNHM	15921	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Ugi Is. (north coast Makira Is.)

Genus	Species	Subspecies	Institution	Sample	Locality
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>solomonis</i>	KUNHM	15922	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Ugi Is. (north coast Makira Is.)
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>solomonis</i>	KUNHM	15926	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Ugi Is. (north coast Makira Is.)
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>sordidus</i>	ANWC	33719	AUSTRALIA: Northern Territory, NE Darwin
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>sordidus</i>	ANWC	33720	AUSTRALIA: Northern Territory, NE Darwin
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>colcloughi</i>	ANWC	44296	AUSTRALIA: Queensland; N Rockhampton
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>sordidus</i>	ANWC	51462	AUSTRALIA: Queensland; Cape York Peninsula
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>sordidus</i> [†]	KUNHM	8589	AUSTRALIA: Northern Territory, NE Darwin
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>teraokai</i>	KUNHM	23630	PALAU: Babeldaob Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>teraokai</i>	KUNHM	23631	PALAU: Babeldaob Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>teraokai</i>	KUNHM	23690	PALAU: Peleliu Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>vitiensis</i>	KUNHM	24247	FIJI: Vanua Levu Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>vitiensis</i>	KUNHM	24248	FIJI: Vanua Levu Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>vitiensis</i>	KUNHM	26496	FIJI: Kioa Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>vitiensis</i>	KUNHM	26529	FIJI: Vanua Levu Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>vitiensis</i>	KUNHM	30462	FIJI: Viti Levu Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>vitiensis</i>	KUNHM	30469	FIJI: Lomaiviti Group; Koro Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>vitiensis</i>	KUNHM	30489	FIJI: Lomaiviti Group; Ovalau Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>chloris</i>	<i>vitiensis</i>	KUNHM	30504	FIJI: Lomaiviti Group; Ovalau Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>cinnamominus</i>	<i>cinnamominus</i> [†]	KUNHM	47548	MARIANA ISLANDS: Guam Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>cinnamominus</i>	<i>pelewensis</i>	KUNHM	23651	PALAU: Babeldaob Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>cinnamominus</i>	<i>pelewensis</i>	KUNHM	23662	PALAU: Babeldaob Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>cinnamominus</i>	<i>pelewensis</i>	KUNHM	23674	PALAU: Peleliu Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>cinnamominus</i>	<i>reichenbachii</i> [†]	KUNHM	40147	MICRONESIA: Pohnpei Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>farquhari</i>		LSUMNS	B45388	VANUATU: Espiritu Santo Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>farquhari</i>		LSUMNS	B45401	VANUATU: Espiritu Santo Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>gambieri</i>	<i>gertrudae</i> [*]	MHNG	PO3-43	FRENCH POLYNESIA: Tuamotu Archipelago; Niau Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>godeffroyi</i> [†]		MNHN	1822	FRENCH POLYNESIA: Marquesas Archipelago; Tahuata Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>godeffroyi</i> [†]		MNHN	1823	FRENCH POLYNESIA: Marquesas Archipelago; Tahuata Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>recurvirostris</i> [†]		KUNHM	104171	SAMOA: Upolu Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>recurvirostris</i> [†]		KUNHM	104172	SAMOA: Upolu Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>recurvirostris</i> [†]		KUNHM	104178	SAMOA: Savai'i Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>recurvirostris</i> [†]		KUNHM	104181	SAMOA: Savai'i Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>ruficollaris</i>		UWBM	Bu42791	COOK ISLANDS: Mangaia Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>ruficollaris</i>		UWBM	Bu42806	COOK ISLANDS: Mangaia Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>sanctus</i>	<i>canacorum</i> [*]	MNHN	NC10	NEW CALEDONIA: xxxxx
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>sanctus</i>	<i>canacorum</i> [*]	MNHN	NC83	NEW CALEDONIA: xxxxx
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>sanctus</i>	<i>sanctus</i>	ANWC	34636	AUSTRALIA: Northern Territory; SE Darwin
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>sanctus</i>	<i>sanctus</i>	ANWC	34659	AUSTRALIA: Western Australia; N Albany
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>sanctus</i>	<i>sanctus</i>	ANWC	50292	AUSTRALIA: Western Australia; NW Mt. Barker
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>sanctus</i>	<i>sanctus</i>	ANWC	54622	AUSTRALIA: Northern Territory; Roper River
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>sanctus</i>	<i>sanctus</i>	KUNHM	7557	PNG: Western Province

Genus	Species	Subspecies	Institution	Sample	Locality
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>sanctus</i>	<i>sanctus</i>	KUNHM	7567	PNG: xxxxx
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>sanctus</i>	<i>sanctus</i>	KUNHM	19403	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Santa Cruz Group; Nendo Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>sanctus</i>	<i>sanctus</i>	LSUMNS	B45812	VANUATU: Espiritu Santo Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>sanctus</i>	<i>sanctus</i>	UWBM	Bu57468	AUSTRALIA: New South Wales
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>sanctus</i>	<i>sanctus</i>	UWBM	Bu58750	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Santa Isabel Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>sanctus</i>	<i>sanctus</i>	UWBM	Bu62818	AUSTRALIA: New South Wales
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>sanctus</i>	<i>sanctus</i>	UWBM	Bu63200	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Choiseul Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>sanctus</i>	<i>sanctus</i>	UWBM	Bu68059	PNG: Bismarck Archipelago; Schumann Is. (north coast New Britain Is.)
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>sanctus</i>	<i>sanctus</i>	UWBM	Bu68062	PNG: Bismarck Archipelago; Schumann Is. (north coast New Britain Is.)
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>sanctus</i>	<i>sanctus</i>	UWBM	Bu72545	AUSTRALIA: Queensland
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>sanctus</i>	<i>sanctus</i>	UWBM	Bu76296	SOLOMON ISLANDS: New Georgia Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>sanctus</i>	<i>sanctus</i>	AMNH	DOT12594	INDONESIA: Sulawesi Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>sanctus</i>	<i>vagans</i>	KUNHM	14877	NEW ZEALAND: Auckland; Warkworth
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>sanctus</i>	<i>vagans</i>	KUNHM	14879	NEW ZEALAND: Auckland; Waiheke Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>saurophagus</i>	<i>saurophagus</i>	KUNHM	27804	PNG: Bismarck Archipelago; Nusalaman Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>saurophagus</i>	<i>saurophagus</i>	UWBM	Bu60204	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Kiaba Is. (north coast Isabel Is.)
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>saurophagus</i>	<i>saurophagus</i>	UWBM	Bu60326	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Hekelake Is. (north coast Isabel Is.)
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>saurophagus</i>	<i>saurophagus</i>	UWBM	Bu69666	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Hekelake Is. (north coast Isabel Is.)
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>tutus</i>	<i>atiu</i>	UWBM	Bu42503	COOK ISLANDS: Atiu Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>tutus</i>	<i>atiu</i>	UWBM	Bu42504	COOK ISLANDS: Atiu Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>tutus</i>	<i>mauke</i>	UWBM	Bu42603	COOK ISLANDS: Mauke Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>tutus</i>	<i>mauke</i>	UWBM	Bu42604	COOK ISLANDS: Mauke Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>tutus</i>	<i>tutus</i> *	MHNG	HH7-60	FRENCH POLYNESIA: Society Islands; Ra'iatea Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>tutus</i>	<i>tutus</i> *	MHNG	HH7-62	FRENCH POLYNESIA: Society Islands; Ra'iatea Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>veneratus</i>	<i>veneratus</i> *	MHNG	PO2-88	FRENCH POLYNESIA: Society Islands; Tahiti Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>veneratus</i>	<i>youngi</i> *	MHNG	HH7-75	FRENCH POLYNESIA: Society Islands; Mo'orea Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>veneratus</i>	<i>youngi</i> *	MHNG	HH7-77	FRENCH POLYNESIA: Society Islands; Mo'orea Is.
Outgroup					
<i>Syma</i>	<i>megarhyncha</i>		KUNHM	7143	PNG: Morobe Province
<i>Syma</i>	<i>torotoro</i>		KUNHM	5215	PNG
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>leucopygius</i>		KUNHM	15882	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Guadalcanal Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>leucopygius</i>		KUNHM	15901	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Guadalcanal Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>leucopygius</i>		KUNHM	15902	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Guadalcanal Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>leucopygius</i>		AMNH	DOT6654	SOLOMON ISLANDS: Isabel Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>macleayii</i>		ANWC	Au33585	AUSTRALIA
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>nigrocyanus</i>		KUNHM	5294	PNG: Gulf Province
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>pyrrhopygius</i>		ANWC	Au32904	AUSTRALIA
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>winchelli</i>	<i>nesydrionetes</i>	KUNHM	14453	PHILIPPINES: Tablas Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>winchelli</i>	<i>nesydrionetes</i>	KUNHM	14490	PHILIPPINES: Tablas Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>winchelli</i>	<i>nesydrionetes</i>	FMNH	F358323	PHILIPPINES: Sibuyan Is.
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>winchelli</i>	<i>nigrorum</i>	KUNHM	14302	PHILIPPINES: Leyte Is.

Genus	Species	Subspecies	Institution	Sample	Locality
<i>Todiramphus</i>	<i>winchelli</i>	<i>nigroroum</i>	KUNHM	28186	PHILIPPINES: Bohol Is.

† Samples from museum toepads.

* Samples from unvouchered blood.

ruficollis, *T. sanctus*, *T. saurophagus*, *T. tutus*, *T. veneratus*, and *T. winchelli*. Only six *Todiramphus* species were lacking (*T. diops*, *T. lazuli*, *T. albonotatus*, *T. funebris*, *T. enigma*), owing to their distribution in areas where collecting fresh genetic source material is difficult. Our *T. chloris* sampling included 22 of 50 described subspecies (Gill and Donsker 2013). The phylogenetic placement of *Todiramphus* was shown to be a clade distinct from *Halcyon* and sister to *Syma* (Moyle 2006), therefore, we used *S. megarhyncha* and *S. torotoro* as outgroups to root trees. Whenever possible we sequenced multiple individuals per population (i.e., per island) to guard against errors of misidentification, mislabeling, or sample contamination.

DNA sequencing

Total genomic DNA was extracted from frozen or alcohol-preserved muscle tissue using a noncommercial guanidine thiocyanate method (Esselstyn et al. 2008). All muscle tissue samples have associated museum study-skin vouchers. For taxa with no available tissue samples, DNA was extracted from toepads of museum study skins (Table 4.1) using a QIAamp DNA mini extraction kit (Qiagen) in lab space separate from other *Todiramphus* pre-PCR products to minimize contamination risk (Mundy et al. 1997). Several unvouchered blood samples were used from remote islands in French Polynesia where collection of vouchered specimen material was not possible owing to small population sizes of endangered taxa (e.g., *T. gambieri*; Table 4.1).

We sequenced the entire second and third subunits of mitochondrial nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide dehydrogenase (hereafter ND2 and ND3, respectively) and four nuclear gene regions: the coiled-coil domain containing protein 132 (CCDC132), the high mobility group protein B2 (HMGB2), the second intron of the nuclear myoglobin gene (Myo2), and the fifth intron of the transforming growth factor β 2 (TGF β 2). Target DNA fragments were

amplified using polymerase chain reaction (PCR) with external and internal primers. External primers were as follows: L5215 (ND2, Hackett 1996) and H6313 (ND2, Johnson and Sorenson 1998), L10755 and H11151 (ND3, Chesser 1999), CDC132L and CDC132H (Backström et al. 2008), HMG2L and HMG2H (Backström et al. 2008), MUSK-I3F and MUSK-I3R (Kimball et al. 2009), and TGF5 and TGF6 (Primmer et al. 2002). We modified external primers for CCDC and HMGB2 to better suit *Todiramphus* and designed internal primers to amplify 200–250 bp fragments of toepad samples (Table 4.2).

PCR amplifications were performed in 13 µl reactions using Promega GoTaq DNA polymerase. A touchdown protocol was used in PCR for ND2, ND3, CCDC132, and HMGB2 with annealing temperatures of 58, 54, and 50° C. Annealing temperatures were held constant for MUSK (50° C) and TGF (58° C). Amplified PCR products were screened on high-melt, 1% agarose gels stained with GelRed, and purified with 10% Exo-SAP-IT™ (GE Healthcare Bio-Sciences Corp.). We cycle-sequenced purified PCR products in both directions with the same primers used in PCR for 25 cycles using the ABI Big Dye Terminator Cycle-Sequencing Kit version 3.1 (Applied Biosystems Inc., Foster City, CA). Sequencing was performed on an ABI Prism 3730 high-throughput capillary electrophoresis DNA analyzer.

Model selection and phylogenetic analysis

Sequence contigs were assembled in Geneious 6.1 and individual nuclear intron alignments were constructed by hand and checked against an automated alignment in MUSCLE (Edgar 2004). Intron alignments were trimmed using the external sequencing primers (CDC132L.Todi, CDC132H.Todi; HMG2L.Todi, HMG2H.Todi; MUSK-I3F, MUSK-I3R; TGF5, TGF6, respectively). Appropriate models of sequence evolution for each of the seven

Table 4.2. Newly-designed primers to sequence samples derived from museum specimen toe pads.

Locus	Primer name	5' to 3' sequence
CDC132	CDC132H.Todi	CTCCAACCTTGCATCAGCCTG
	CDC132L.Todi	CTGTCTAACTTCAAATACGACGAC
	CDC132H.Todi.int	GAGACCTCATTAGGCAGG
	CDC132L.Todi.int	AGTGCCGGTCTCTCTTTCTT
HMG2	HMG2H.Todi	GCTCTTGGCACGATATGCCG
	HMG2L.Todi	GGTCTGAACAGTCGGCAAAAG
	HMG2H.Todi.int	GGGATTTCCATGCTTACAGC
	HMG2L.Todi.int	AGTGTTTGTGTCAGCCTTTTCCA
MUSK	MUSK.Todi.IntF	GTCCAGATGCTGCTGAATG
	MUSK.Todi.IntR	TGACACACTCACTCATCCCTGT
ND2	Todi190L	AATTAAATACTTCCTGGTCCAAG
	Todi410L	ATCAACAATAATAAAATTTCC
	Todi452L	AACATCTCACTCCCTAAACCC
	Todi625L	ACCTATTAACTTTCTACCTGTAC
	Todi822L	CAAGAACTAACTAAACAAGA
	Todi897L	ACCTACGTCTCGCATACTAC
	Todi230H	GTCCTGTCTGYCAGGCAT
	Todi232H	CTCATTGTCCTGTCTGTCAGGC
	Todi465H	TGCTGATATTAAGGCTATTAGG
	Todi618H	CGGTTATTAGGGAGTACAGG
	Todi648H	ATTTTGTGTGTTAAGTGAGAGG
	Todi890H	GGTGATTGTTGAGTAGTATG
ND3	160L.ND3.Todi	AATCCGATTCTTCCTCAGTAG
	218L.ND3.Todi	GACCTAGAAATCGCCCTCC
	227H.ND3.Todi	TAGTTGGATGGCTCAGGGGAG
TGF5	TGF5.Todi.int	CTCTGGGATGATTACCAGACCC
	TGF6.Todi.int	CTCTCTGAGTAGGTGAGCACAT

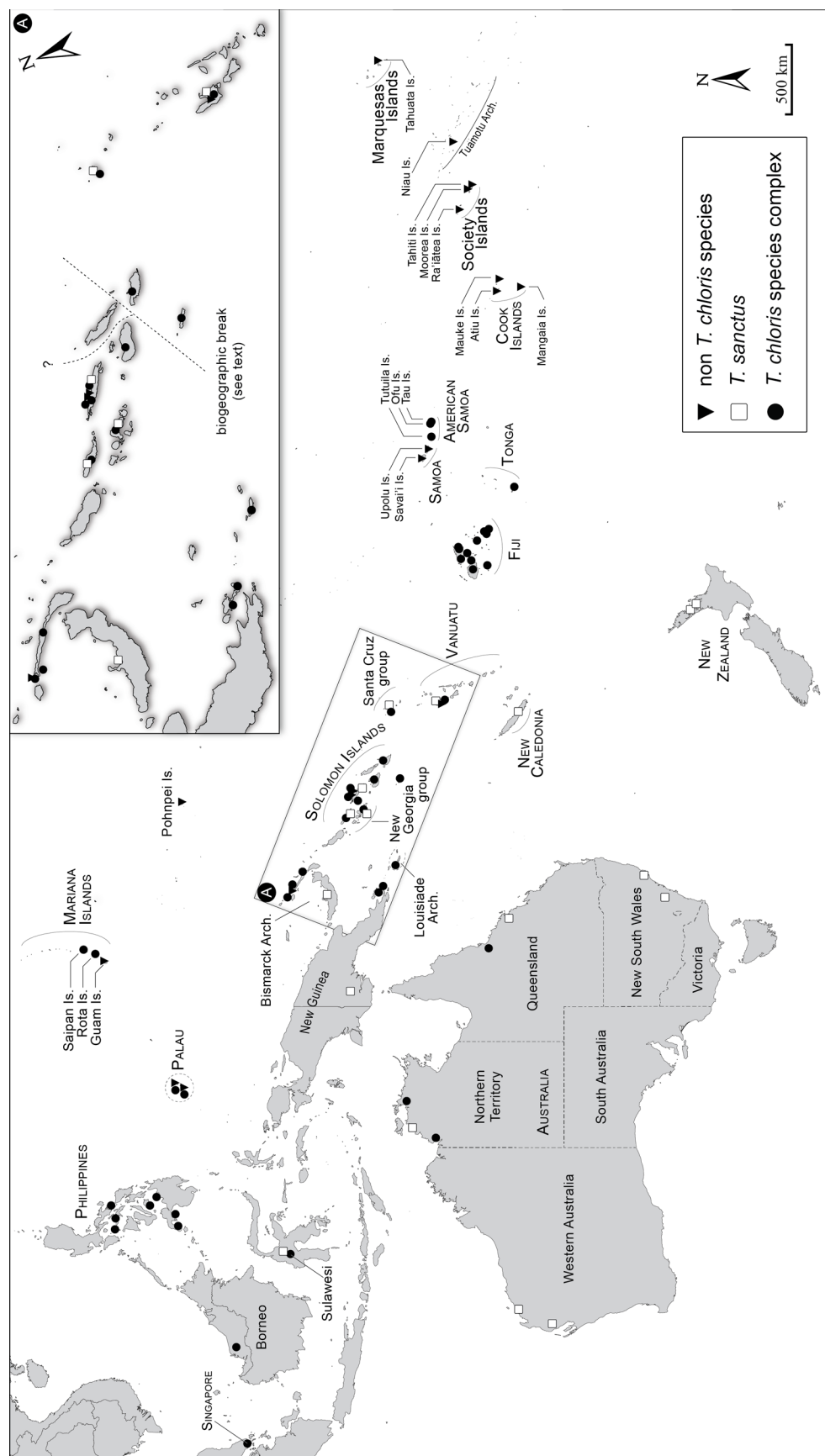


Figure 4.1. Sampling sites for ingroup *Todiramphus* used in this study. Color-coded circles, squares, and triangles represent sampling points for *T. chloris*, *T. sanctus*, and other ingroup taxa, respectively, with colors to match the clades in Figure 2. Points are not scaled to the number of sampled individuals per locality (the reader is referred to Table 4.1 for sampling numbers). Inset A shows greater detail in Melanesia, from the Bismarck Archipelago to New Caledonia.

Table 4.3. Summary statistics of the six gene regions sequenced in this study.

Locus	Aligned length	Category, chromosome #	Substitution model	A, C, G, T frequency	Variable sites	Informative sites	Source
CCDC132	730	intron, 2	HKY+I+G	0.260, 0.159, 0.237, 0.344	66	39	(Backström et al. 2008)
HMGB2	533	intron, 4	HKY+I+G	0.25, 0.25, 0.25, 0.25	64	56	(Backström et al. 2008)
MUSK	600	intron, Z	HKY+G	0.284, 0.198, 0.210, 0.309	55	37	(Kimball et al. 2009)
TGFβ2	552	intron, 3	HKY+I	0.25, 0.25, 0.25, 0.25	43	28	(Primmer et al. 2002)
ND2+ND3	1041+351	mitochondrial					
		codon pos. 1:	HKY+G	0.351, 0.315, 0.152, 0.182	108	89	(Sorenson et al. 1999)
		codon pos. 2:	HKY+I	0.181, 0.332, 0.115, 0.372	48	31	
		codon pos. 3:	GTR+I+G	0.467, 0.360, 0.069, 0.104	271	219	

partitions were identified (Table 4.3) using Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC), as implemented in MrModelTest 2.3 (Nylander 2004).

Phylogenetic reconstruction was performed on the total concatenated data, on separate concatenated mtDNA and nDNA, and separately on each individual locus. Maximum Likelihood (ML) heuristic tree searches were performed using GARLI 2.0 (Zwickl 2006). To avoid local optima, 250 independent searches were performed, each starting from a random tree. GARLI's default parameters were adjusted to terminate searches when no topological improvements were found after 100,000 generations (genthreshfortopoterm = 100000); otherwise, default settings were used. We selected the topology with the best likelihood as our maximum-likelihood estimate. Statistical support for this topology was obtained by running 1000 non-parametric bootstrap replicates (Felsenstein 1985) in GARLI to assess clade credibility and SumTrees 3.3.1, part of the DendroPy 3.12.0 package (Sukumaran and Holder 2010), was used to create a 50% majority-rule consensus tree. Nodes with >70% bootstrap support were considered well-supported (Hillis and Bull 1993; Wilcox et al. 2002).

Bayesian analysis (BA) was conducted using MrBayes 3.2.1 (Ronquist and Huelsenbeck 2003; Altekar et al. 2004; Ronquist et al. 2012) implemented with BEAGLE (Ayres et al. 2012). The data were partitioned by codon position for mtDNA and by gene for the nuclear introns. Four independent Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) runs of 25 million generations were conducted using four chains per run (nchains=4) and incremental heating of chains (temp=0.1), sampling every 2,500 generations. TRACER 1.5 (Rambaut and Drummond 2007) and Are We There Yet? (AWTY?; Wilgenbusch et al. 2004; Nylander et al. 2008) were used to assess convergence of parameter estimates and tree splits, respectively. The average standard deviation of split frequencies (ASDSF) and the potential scale reduction factor (PSRF) were used to determine topology convergence between runs. The appropriate burn-in generations (25% for all analyses) were discarded based on convergence assessments of the ASDSF passing below 0.01. The remaining trees were summarized in a 50% majority-rule consensus tree.

Molecular dating and species delimitation

Divergence time estimation of *Todiramphus* was conducted in BEAST v1.7.5 (Drummond et al. 2002; Drummond et al. 2012) implemented with BEAGLE (Ayres et al. 2012). We pruned the dataset (n=81) to include two individuals per nominal subspecies for all *Todiramphus* taxa except *T. sanctus*, which we pruned samples from non-breeding localities (e.g., New Guinea, southeast Asia; Table 1). Partitioning schemes were identical to the MrBayes run described above with the addition of a birth-death speciation process for the tree prior. We tested for clock-like evolution by comparing likelihoods of runs with a strict clock to those with a relaxed lognormal clock, and failed to reject a strict molecular clock using likelihood ratio test (p=1.0). Ten independent MCMC chains were run for 100 million generations and sampled

every 20,000th generation. Burn-in and convergence diagnostics of each run were examined in TRACER 1.5 (Rambaut and Drummond 2007). Burn-in values were set specific to each run; at least 25% of samples were discarded, with some runs requiring up to 40% burn-in. Lacking fossil calibration data for this group, we relied on published rates of mitochondrial DNA sequence evolution to date our phylogeny. Specifically, we used the range of ND2 sequence divergence published for Hawaiian honeycreepers (2.4–3.3% per lineage Myr⁻¹; Lerner et al. 2011).

We delimited species based on mtDNA sequences of all *Todiramphus* samples using a Bayesian implementation of the general mixed Yule-coalescent model as implemented in the R package bGMYC (Reid and Carstens 2012). This extension of the original GMYC species delimitation model (Pons et al. 2006) uses a distribution of trees instead of a single point estimate, thereby accounting for phylogenetic uncertainty. The GMYC model is beneficial for single-locus datasets such as those generated by DNA barcodes. We employed the model to *Todiramphus* because the majority of the phylogenetic signal in our dataset exists in the mtDNA. Other species delimitation models that use the coalescent rely on far greater numbers of independent loci than we sequenced, thus, these methods were not viable here (Carstens et al. 2013).

Results

Sequence attributes

The aligned dataset was 3,807 bp and included 157 samples (summary statistics presented in Table 4.3). All new sequences are deposited in GenBank. We obtained complete DNA sequences for all genes for all fresh samples. For samples from museum skins, or for those

downloaded from GenBank, it was not possible to obtain complete sequences for certain genes. Alignment lengths were 1,041 bp (ND2), 352 bp (ND3), 730 bp (CCDC132), 533 bp (HMGB2), 600 bp (MUSK), and 552 bp (TGF). The ND3 gene sequence contained a single cytosine insertion at position 174 in all samples, an insertion reported in several other bird groups and turtles (Mindell et al. 1998). This insertion does not disrupt the reading frame because it is not translated. Apart from this insertion in ND3, the mitochondrial data showed no other insertions, deletions, or anomalous stop-codons; thus, there was no evidence that mtDNA sequences were of nuclear origin (i.e., pseudogenes; Sorenson and Quinn 1998). The relative divergence among codon positions was typical for mtDNA ($3 > 1 > 2$). Numerous short indels were noted throughout the nuclear dataset (Table 4.4). The aligned dataset contained 655 variable sites (17.2%) and 499 (13.1%) parsimony-informative sites. Pairwise distances in ND2 (uncorrected P) between different nominal subspecies ranged from 0.01 % (*T. c. orii* and *T. c. albicilla*) to 2.3 % (*T. c. humii* and *T. c. vitiensis*). The basal split between *Syma* + *T. nigrocyaneus* and the rest of *Todiramphus* was 12.6 % diverged in ND2 (uncorrected P).

Phylogenetic relationships

The topologies inferred from multiple independent ML and BA runs were highly concordant. Stationarity was achieved in MrBayes (i.e., the ASDSF remained < 0.01) after 8.15 million generations. The PSRF values for all parameters were 1.0. We report well-supported nodes as defined by Bayesian posterior probability (PP) > 0.95 and ML bootstrap (BS) > 70 . Individual gene trees were largely uninformative, except for mtDNA. No conflicting topologies were strongly supported between individual gene tree analyses (results not shown).

The ingroup was defined by a well-supported clade that included all *T. chloris* samples

Figure 4.2. Molecular phylogeny of the *Todiramphus chloris* species complex. The tree is the Bayesian maximum consensus tree from the concatenated, partitioned analysis. Node support is denoted as Bayesian posterior probabilities and maximum likelihood bootstrap support, above and below the nodes, respectively. Lettered clades (A–I) are discussed in the text.

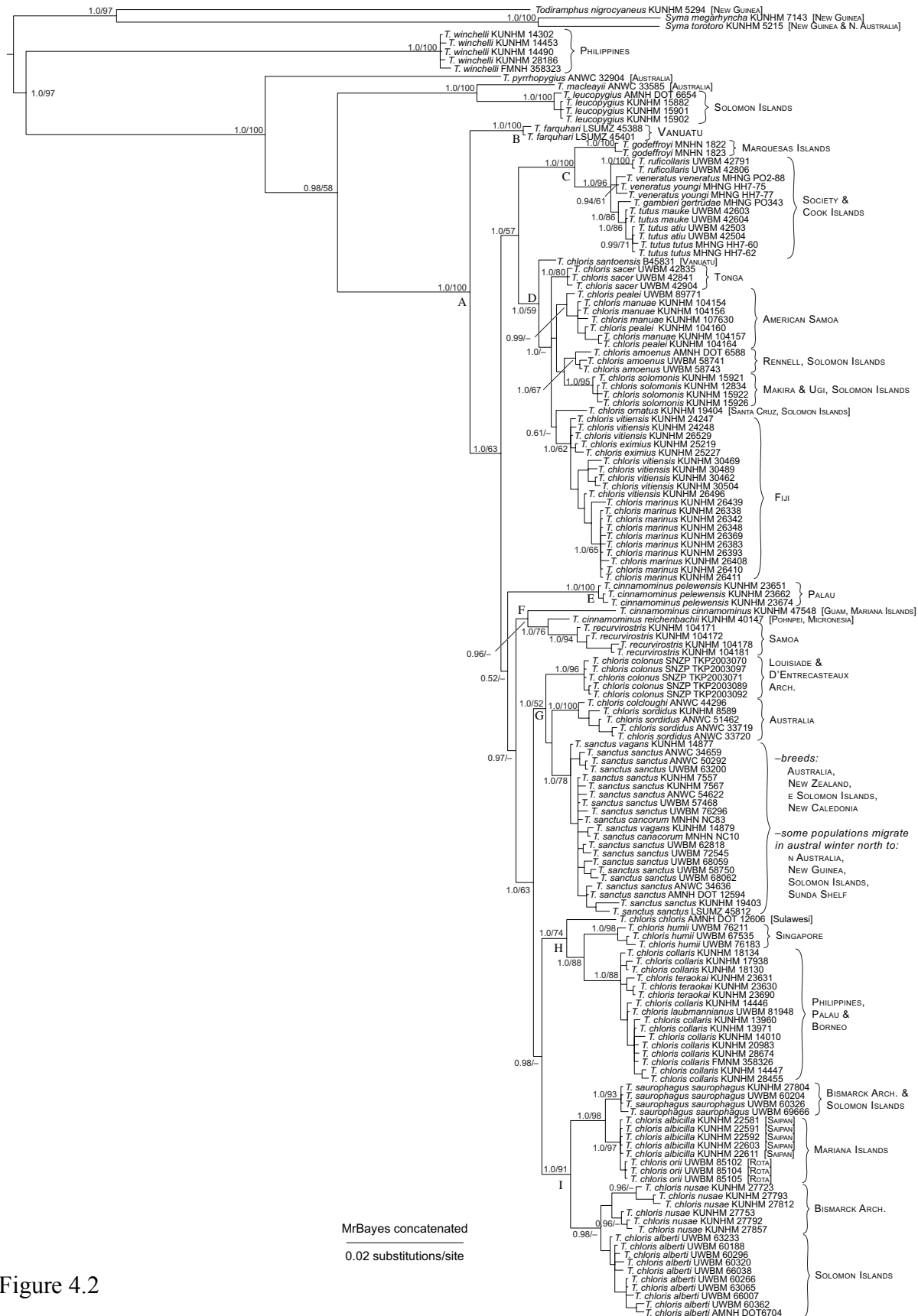


Table 4.4. Description of indels in nuclear sequence data. Sample numbers are listed if an indel was not shared by all members of a taxon, otherwise only taxon names are given. The sequence position is numbered from the 5' end of the alignment. The relative type depends on whether the insertion or deletion is most common in the alignment (e.g., deletion is the relative type if fewer taxa possess it).

Locus	Position	# bp	Relative type	Taxa
CCDC132	160	1	deletion	<i>Syma megarhyncha</i> , <i>S. torotoro</i> , <i>T. leucopygius</i> , <i>T. macleayii</i> , <i>T. nigrocyaneus</i> , <i>T. pyrrhopygius</i> , <i>Todiramphus chloris albicilla</i> (KUNHM 22581, 22591, 22592, 22603, 22611*), <i>T. chloris nusae</i> (KUNHM 27792, 27857), <i>T. chloris alberti</i> (UWBM 60266, 60296, 60320, 60362, 63233, 66007, AMNH DOT6704), <i>T. chloris orii</i> , <i>T. chloris colonus</i> (SNZP TKP2003070), <i>T. saurophagus</i> , <i>T. winchelli</i>
HMGB2	79–83	5	deletion	<i>Syma megarhyncha</i> , <i>S. torotoro</i> , <i>T. nigrocyaneus</i>
HMGB2	144	1	insertion	<i>T. nigrocyaneus</i>
HMGB2	314–315	2	deletion	<i>Syma megarhyncha</i> , <i>S. torotoro</i>
HMGB2	398	1	insertion	<i>T. nigrocyaneus</i>
HMGB2	446	1	insertion	<i>Syma megarhyncha</i> , <i>S. torotoro</i>
HMGB2	457	1	deletion	<i>Syma megarhyncha</i> , <i>S. torotoro</i>
HMGB2	507	1	deletion	<i>Syma megarhyncha</i> , <i>S. torotoro</i> , <i>T. nigrocyaneus</i> , <i>T. winchelli</i>
MUSK	148–151	4	insertion	<i>Syma megarhyncha</i> , <i>S. torotoro</i>
MUSK	554	1	deletion	<i>T. nigrocyaneus</i>
TGF5	539	1	deletion	<i>Syma megarhyncha</i> , <i>S. torotoro</i>

* Data were missing from the CCDC132 intron for this sample.

plus ten additional *Todiramphus* species (Fig. 4.2, clade A: PP=1.0, BS=100). We defined the ingroup inclusive of *Todiramphus farquhari* because this circumscribed a suite of eleven closely related species that were significantly differentiated from all other *Todiramphus* taxa (i.e., outgroups). Clade A contained seven subclades (Fig. 4.2, clades B–I), each with PP=1.0, except clade F (PP=0.96). Of the ten non-*T. chloris* species in the ingroup, clade C comprised five species endemic to French Polynesia and the Cook Islands: *T. godeffroyi*, *T. ruficollaris*, *T. veneratus*, *T. gambieri*, *T. tutus*. Clade D was sister to clade C and comprised *T. chloris* lineages from Central Polynesia, inclusive of American Samoa, Tonga, Fiji, Vanuatu, and the eastern Solomon Islands including Makira and Ugi Islands, Rennell Island, and the Santa Cruz group.

The placement of clades E and F was equivocal. The three subspecies of *T.*

cinnamominus were split between these clades. The Palau endemic, *T. c. pelewensis*, was the sole member of clade E, whereas *T. c. cinnamominus* and *T. c. reichenbachii*, island endemics of Guam and Pohnpei, respectively, were sequentially sister to *T. recurvirostris*, itself an endemic of American Samoa.

Clade G comprised *T. chloris* lineages from Australia and Papua New Guinea plus *T. sanctus*, which was embedded inside this clade. Clade H comprised three genetically distinct lineages: nominotypical *T. c. chloris* from Sulawesi, Indonesia; *T. c. humii* from Singapore; and a clade that comprised multiple subspecies from Borneo to the Philippines and Palau. Finally, clade I included lineages from such geographically disparate regions as Melanesia and the Mariana Islands. *Todiramphus saurophagus* was sister to *T. chloris albicilla* + *T. c. orii* from Saipan and Rota, Mariana Islands. The other half of clade I included *T. c. nusae* and *T. c. alberti* of the Bismarck Archipelago and Solomon Islands, respectively, to the exclusion of the eastern Solomon Islands (Makira, Ugi, and Rennell; clade D).

Divergence time estimation and species limits

The explosive diversification of *Todiramphus* appears to have occurred recently. We used two rates of sequence divergence for ND2 derived from Hawaiian honeycreeper mitogenomes (3.3% or 2.4% per lineage Myr⁻¹; Lerner et al. 2011), which places the start of diversification of clade A between 0.6–0.3 Ma (Fig. 4.3). This time frame in the early- to mid-Pleistocene is coincident with the diversification of the pitta *Erythropitta erythrogaster* throughout the Philippines, Wallacea, and New Guinea (Irestedt et al. 2013).

Threshold species delimitation with bGMYC suggested that current species diversity is vastly underestimated in *Todiramphus*. Currently, the most liberal taxonomies treat 11 biological

Figure 4.3. Maximum clade credibility tree with 95% highest posterior density bars from BEAST analysis. Node support is given as Bayesian posterior probability (PP): black circles at nodes denote PP=1.0, gray circles denote $0.95 \leq PP \leq 0.99$. Unlabeled nodes denote PP<0.95. Divergence time estimated based on two calibrations for the rate of mtDNA sequence evolution in ND2 (2.4% and 3.3%; Lerner et al. 2011). Colored lineages denote taxa with sympatric distributions as denoted in the legend. The red Solomon Islands refer to the four large islands of Bougainville, Choiseul, Isabel, and Guadalcanal.

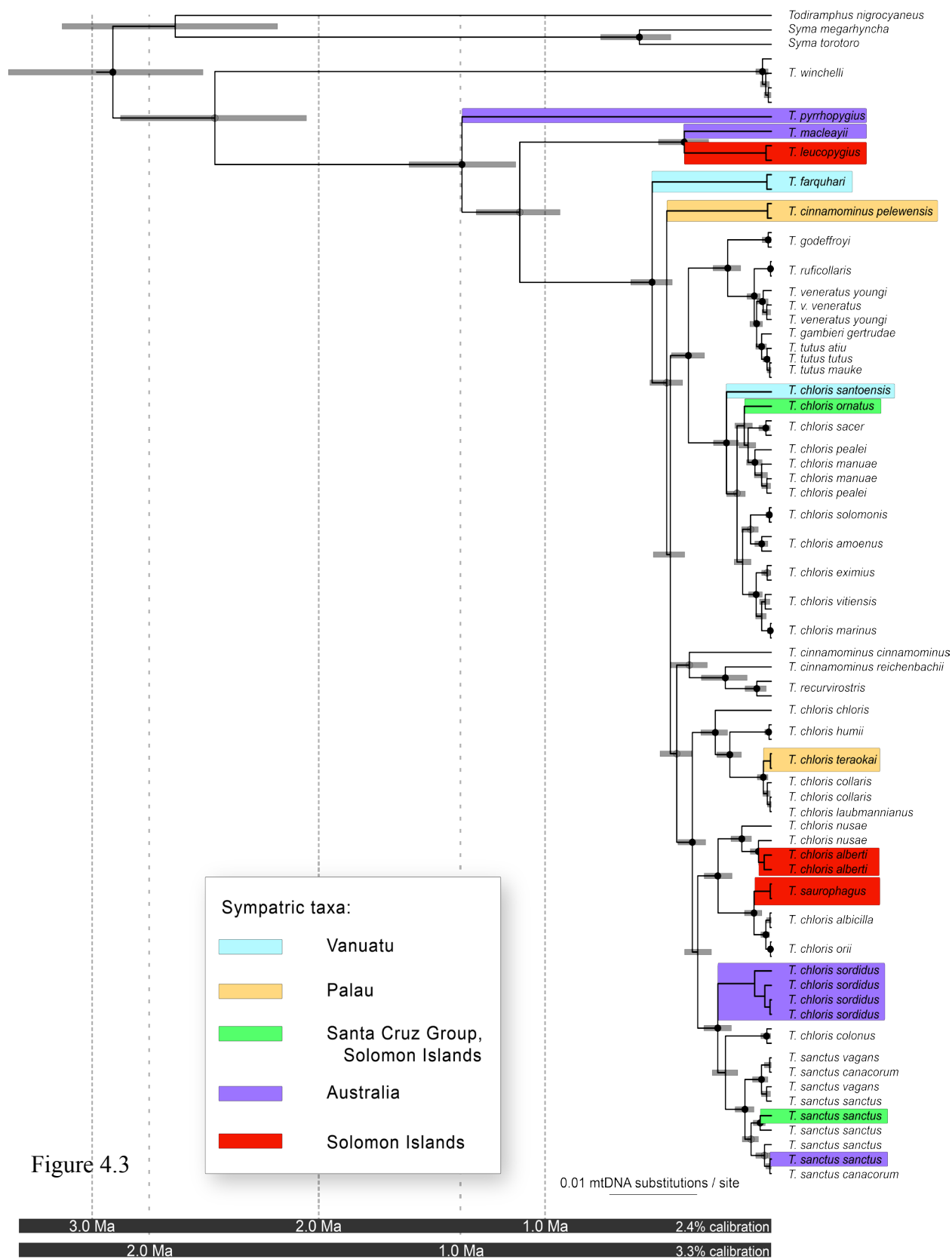


Figure 4.3

species in clade A. The bGMYC estimate found strong support for 26 species in this clade, plus the seven species outside clade A (Fig. 4.4). This estimate of 26 ingroup species is conservative given we lacked 28/50 nominal subspecies of *T. chloris*, plus 6 additional Wallacean and Bismarck *Todiramphus* species.

Discussion

Overview

This study represents a robust and densely sampled molecular phylogeny of the *Todiramphus chloris* complex—the first phylogenetic hypothesis of this group to date. Emphasizing the Pacific lineages, with representative sampling spanning the 13,000 km from Singapore to the Marquesas Islands, we present a detailed view of the evolutionary and biogeographic history in this widespread and rapid radiation of Pacific island birds.

Three noteworthy patterns were revealed from this study. First, the timing of diversification in *T. chloris* was apparently rapid and recent. Internode distances within the ingroup were found to be incredibly shallow. The maximum divergence across the entire ingroup was only 2.3% (ND2 uncorrected P). We found the timing of diversification to have occurred relatively recently (0.65–0.3 Ma), using two calibrations for the rates of molecular evolution of ND2 (Lerner et al. 2011). We caution against drawing firm conclusions based on this estimate owing to the myriad shortcomings of molecular clock calibrations for divergence time estimation (Arbogast et al. 2002; Lovette 2004; Lanfear et al. 2010). Overall, we interpret the striking pattern of shallow internodes at the base and relatively shallow divergences between ingroup taxa as support for a scenario in which *Todiramphus* achieved its full geographic distribution—from the Sunda Shelf to French Polynesia—rapidly and recently. Similar patterns have been

noted in other Pacific bird lineages, including *Zosterops* white-eyes (Moyle et al. 2009), *Ceyx* kingfishers (Andersen et al. 2013), *Alopecoenas* doves (Jönsson et al. 2011; Moyle et al. 2013), *Erythropitta* pittas (Irestedt et al. 2013), and *Pachycephala* whistlers (Andersen et al. In press-b), which suggests there is an emerging paradigm for the tempo and mode of avian diversification in the Pacific.

Second, the incidence of sympatry across the Pacific distribution of the *Todiramphus* ingroup is remarkably high given the recency of the radiation. Sympatry occurs on Australia, as well as remote oceanic islands like Palau (see below). This finding has important implications on the ability of a rapid insular radiation to attain reproductive isolation. From the perspective of species limits, the level of sympatry of the ingroup suggests the BSC-influenced taxonomy that was prevalent in the 20th Century (Mayr 1942),—and still maintains a strong grip on *Todiramphus*—likely is misguided. Based on divergence time estimates, the speed at which reproductive isolation was achieved is notable, as is the remote nature of the islands upon which it is evident.

Third, despite shallow divergences, *Todiramphus chloris* showed extensive geographic structure across the Pacific with numerous instances of paraphyly. Ten species were found to be embedded within or minimally divergent from the ingroup, rendering *T. chloris* massively paraphyletic. From the perspective of lineage-based or phylogenetic-based species concepts (Simpson 1961; Wiley 1978; Cracraft 1983; de Queiroz 1998), this level of paraphyly, including long-recognized species-level taxa, necessitates massive taxonomic revision of species limits in *Todiramphus*. Our results from bGMYC species delimitation suggest a liberal reinterpretation of species limits, including 26 ingroup species (Fig. 4.4). Of these 26 mitochondrial lineages, 16 were formerly treated as part of the *T. chloris* species complex. With improved taxon sampling

Figure 4.4. Summary of bGMYC species delimitation. The tree is the maximum clade credibility tree from BEAST with ingroup clade A labeled. The red vertical line represents the Maximum Likelihood threshold of species limits as determined by bGMYC. The heatmap is a sequence-by-sequence matrix in which cells are colored by the posterior probability that the corresponding sequences are conspecific, with increasing probability represented by light yellow colors. Thirty-three species are delimited across the entire tree, with 26 species inside the ingroup (clade A). Species names are those assigned by bGMYC. The reader is referred to the text for discussion of our more conservative proposed taxonomy of 17 ingroup species.



Figure. 4.4

from Wallacea, the Indian Ocean, and the Bismarck Archipelago, this number likely will increase.

Assembly of sympatric kingfishers across the Pacific

and the paradox of the “great speciators”

Multiple instances of sympatric *Todiramphus* occur throughout the Pacific. In every case, the sympatric lineages diverged substantially in terms of phenotype, morphology, ecology, and behavior. For example, Palau holds two *Todiramphus* species: *T. cinnamominus pelewensis* and *T. chloris teraokai*. These taxa have diverged morphologically and in habitat preference, such that *T. c. pelewensis* is ca. 50% smaller in body mass and inhabits forest interior, whereas *T. chloris teraokai* is large and prefers coconut groves and beaches (Fry 1980). They differ in phenotype as well: *T. c. pelewensis* has an orange crown, whereas *T. chloris teraokai* has a blue-green crown typical of many *T. chloris* forms. The remote Santa Cruz Group in the eastern Solomon Islands, as well as the Vanuatu archipelago host multiple sympatric taxa, including *T. farquhari*, *T. chloris ornatus*, *T. chloris santoensis*, and *T. sanctus*. The latter taxon is discussed in detail below.

The pattern of eco-morphological differentiation between sympatric lineages continues with the beach kingfisher *Todiramphus saurophagus*, which is broadly sympatric with the *T. chloris* clade from the Bismarck Archipelago and Solomon Islands. *Todiramphus saurophagus* is the largest species in the genus; it is twice the size of the sympatric *T. chloris* forms, and it differs phenotypically from most other *Todiramphus* in having a completely white head (save a blue post-ocular stripe). It strictly inhabits beaches, coastal forest, reefs, islets, and occasionally

mangroves. Throughout its distribution from the northern Moluccas to the Solomon Islands, it is sympatric with 1–2 species of *Todiramphus*, including representative *T. chloris* forms. For example, *T. chloris alberti* and *T. chloris nusae* occur in the Solomon Islands and Bismarck Archipelago, respectively, where they inhabit secondary forest and open areas away from the coast. They are smaller than *T. saurophagus* and have plumage typical of the majority of *T. chloris* forms—blue crown, not white. On Halmahera, New Britain, and the main Solomon Island chain, *T. saurophagus* is also sympatric with three additional congeners, albeit ones not thought to be closely related (*T. funebris*, *T. albonotatus*, and *T. leucopygius*, respectively). These kingfishers occupy the interior of primary lowland forest, thus, they represent another instance of sympatry with eco-morphological differentiation between more divergent congeners.

Perhaps the most complex example of sympatric *Todiramphus* is centered in Australia with clade G (Fig. 4.2). This clade comprises all *T. chloris* from Australia and New Guinea, which are split in two lineages: (1) an endemic to the Milne Bay Province islands of southeast Papua New Guinea, *T. c. colonus*, and (2) the Australian taxon, *T. c. sordidus* (Australian *T. c. colcloughi* and *T. c. pilbara* were not sampled, but are presumed to be allied with *sordidus*). The distribution of *T. chloris* in this clade is coastal Australia (mangroves and coastal estuaries) and on small islands such as those of the D’Entrecasteaux and Louisiade Archipelagos, PNG. Interestingly, *Todiramphus sanctus* is the third lineage in clade G. This species is widespread and highly migratory. Its breeding range occurs throughout Australia, New Zealand, New Caledonia, and some islands in the eastern Solomon Islands (e.g., Santa Cruz Group), and possibly Vanuatu. Many populations migrate north in the austral winter to the Sunda Shelf, New Guinea, and Northern Melanesia. We sampled three of the five nominal subspecies (Gill and Donsker 2013) and despite the geographic complexity of this species’ distribution, there was no genetic

differentiation of *T. sanctus*. Together, the two *T. chloris* clades and *T. sanctus* root to a polytomy at the base of clade G. In this scenario, the sympatric forms differ eco-morphologically and behaviorally. *Todiramphus sanctus* is smaller and contains more rufous plumage than any sympatric *T. chloris* throughout its range, including those in the Santa Cruz Group and Vanuatu, which are outside clade G. Behaviorally, the migratory nature of *T. sanctus* is novel in *Todiramphus* kingfishers. Only *T. chloris* in southern Australia are thought to be nomadic (Pizzey and Knight 2012). This discussion is relevant in light of the “great speciators” paradox (Diamond et al. 1976). The paradox poses the question: why are the species most capable of long-distance dispersal also the most geographically well-differentiated from island-to-island in an archipelago? Diamond et al. (1976) suggest that some of the “great speciators” underwent colonization cycles in which they had past phases of higher immigration rates and dispersal abilities followed by a loss of dispersal ability with subsequent differentiation on newfound islands. They count *Todiramphus* [*Halcyon*] *chloris* among the several lineages as evidence for this idea. If this idea of colonization cycles is true, the migratory nature of *T. sanctus*—especially given its placement deeply embedded in the phylogeny—is intriguing, indeed. Birds can acquire migratory ability quickly in response to selective pressure (Berthold et al. 1992; Helbig 1994), and this trait is thought to be evolutionarily labile (Pulido 2007). A prevailing paradigm is that extant migratory species evolved from sedentary tropical ancestors, however, recent evidence in parulid wood-warblers suggests otherwise. Winger et al. (2012) showed that losses of migration are as common as gains, and that extant sedentary tropical radiations (e.g., some *Geothlypis*, and a clade containing *Myiothlypis*, *Basileuterus*, and *Myioborus*) represent at least two losses of latitudinal migration with possible colonization of the tropics from temperate region. Is it possible that *T. sanctus* is the vestigial *Todiramphus* lineage still experiencing the

colonization phase of Diamond et al. (1976), whereas all others have since lost their propensity for long-distance dispersal? If so, this is perhaps the most intriguing evidence to date in support of this component of the paradox. Following this logic, it's possible that the *T. chloris* radiation originated in temperate/subtropical Australia, expanded far and wide into the tropical Pacific, southeast Asia, and parts of the Indian Ocean, then became sedentary with subsequent diversification in allopatry.

Colonization of the eastern Pacific

The rapid and widespread nature of *Todiramphus* diversification across the Pacific precludes a simple stepping-stone model of colonization. There is a major biogeographic break in the Solomon Islands that separates clades C and D from the rest of the ingroup (see below for further discussion). This biogeographic break implies a single, long-distance colonization event from the ancestral *T. chloris* lineage, with subsequent diversification in two broadly distributed radiations from the eastern Solomon Islands to French Polynesia. Clade C comprised a radiation of five species endemic to some of the most remote islands in the world. Interestingly, *T. godeffroyi*, an endemic of the Marquesas Islands—the most remote archipelago within the distribution of *Todiramphus*—was sister to the other four species in the clade: *T. ruficollaris*, *T. veneratus*, *T. gambieri*, and *T. tutus*. Each species was monophyletic, but relationships among them were equivocal. The taxonomic history of this group is confused, likely owing to the great reluctance of BSC-influenced taxonomists to delimit allopatric insular taxa—despite the existence of fixed morphological and behavioral differences—as species. (To their credit, such an endeavor is seemingly easier today with evidence from molecular phylogenetics.) For example, *T. ruficollaris* has been treated by various authors as a nominal subspecies of *T. sanctus*

or *T. tutus*, or as a full species-level taxon (Fry 1980; Pratt 1987; Woodall 2001). Our results show it is phylogenetically unrelated to *T. sanctus* (Fig. 4.2). Instead, it is part of a geographically cohesive radiation in the Cook and Society Islands that comprises *T. tutus* and *T. veneratus*, plus the critically endangered *T. gambieri* of Niau Atoll, Tuamotu. Each of these lineages are minimally divergent (0.8% ND2 uncorrected P), but are allopatric with fixed plumage differences. Sister to this clade is the critically endangered *T. godeffroyi* from the Marquesas Islands, the easternmost *Todiramphus* in the world.

Sister to the eastern Polynesian clade C, is a large radiation from central Polynesia (clade D). This radiation is geographically centered on Fiji, but extends west to Makira and Rennell Islands in the Solomon Islands and east to Tonga and American Samoa, to the exclusion of “Western” Samoa. Numerous island- or archipelago-specific lineages were monophyletic, but many basal relationships were equivocal in clade D. Geographic differentiation was noted with clades from Vanuatu, Tonga, American Samoa, the eastern Solomon Islands, and Fiji. Perhaps the most novel finding in this clade involved a biogeographic break in the eastern Solomon Islands between Guadalcanal and Makira Islands. Thus, clade D was defined as lineages occurring east of this line (e.g., *T. c. solomonis*, Makira and Ugi; *T. c. amoenus*, Rennell; and *T. c. ornatus*, Santa Cruz group). Lineages to the west (i.e., the main Solomon Islands chain plus the New Georgia group) formed a completely unrelated monophyletic group in clade I (Fig. 4.2). The placement of this break relative to Malaita is uncertain because we did not sample *T. c. mala* from that island. Malaita has a unique geologic history different from the Pleistocene aggregate island, Greater Bukida (Mayr and Diamond 2001); therefore, we suspect *T. c. mala* will be found to be part of clade D when this taxon is sampled. This biogeographic break in the eastern Solomon Islands is not novel—several other taxa exhibit breaks there including the *Monarcha*

castaneiventris complex and *Pachycephala orioloides* (Uy et al. 2009a; Andersen et al. In press-b); however, this break generally splits taxa into sister groups. We are not aware of examples where this break is so profound such that taxa on either side are as divergent as possible in the phylogeny. Several additional taxa in clade D are incorrectly treated as members of an expanded *T. sanctus* (*T. c. vitiensis* and *T. c. eximius*; Pratt 1987; Clements et al. 2013). Pratt (1987) also considered the possibility that *T. chloris* forms from Fiji (*T. c. vitiensis*, *T. c. eximius*, and *T. c. marinus*), Tonga (*T. c. sacer*), and American Samoa (*T. c. pealei* and *T. c. manuae*) were closely allied to *T. tutus*, which our results show not to be true.

Three long-distance biogeographical connections are noteworthy and provide additional support for the lack of a stepping-stone colonization model in this group. First, clade F unites the Samoan taxon *T. recurvirostris* with two sequentially sister lineages of *T. cinnamominus* (*reichenbachii* of Pohnpei and *cinnamominus* of Guam). A similar pattern linking Micronesia with Polynesia was found in *Acrocephalus* reed-warblers (Cibois et al. 2011), though eastern Polynesia was integral to this example, not Samoa. Second, *T. saurophagus* of coastal Solomon Islands, New Guinea, and Halmahera was sister to Northern Mariana forms of *T. chloris* (*albicilla* on Saipan and Tinian and *orii* on Rota). To our knowledge, this biogeographic link has not been noted in birds, but it makes sense in light of the phenotype of these taxa. All are exceptionally large *Todiramphus* with extensive white heads and large bills. Finally, *T. c. teraokai* of Palau is embedded within the Philippines + Borneo clade (clade F, Fig. 4.2). This implicates an intriguing biogeographic link between the Sunda Shelf (Borneo), a near oceanic archipelago (Philippines) and a distant oceanic island (Palau).

Species limits and a proposed updated taxonomy

Species limits in polytypic species complexes such as *Todiramphus chloris* are debated by systematic ornithologists. Much of the debate centers on criteria for delimiting species, and inevitably, discussions of the merits and utility of subspecies as a meaningful taxonomic rank persist (Fitzpatrick 2010; Pratt 2010; Remsen 2010). Here, we follow a lineage-based species concept to evaluate species limits in the *Todiramphus chloris* species complex. We draw upon multiple lines of evidence including 1. the molecular phylogeny of this study, 2. the results of bGMYC species delimitation of the mtDNA data, 3. patterns of sympatry between multiple pairs of ingroup taxa (discussed above), and 4. knowledge of fixed plumage and/or ecological differences. It is worth recalling that despite our robust sampling, we still lacked 6 *Todiramphus* species and 28 of 50 nominal subspecies of *T. chloris*. Most species we lacked are Wallacean endemics, plus *T. albonotatus* from New Britain, and most subspecific diversity we lacked was from Indonesia, the Indian Ocean, and Vanuatu. Thus, we suggest that this taxonomic treatment be considered with caution. We suspect that with complete sampling our estimates of species limits would include even more species than those listed below.

Todiramphus nigrocyaneus and two *Syma* species were found to be sister lineages and deeply diverged from each other (11–11.9% ND2 uncorrected P). Together, they comprised the first branch in the phylogeny. Three phenotypically distinct populations of *T. nigrocyaneus* are distributed across New Guinea: *T. n. nigrocyaneus*, *T. n. quadricolor*, and *T. n. stictolaemus*, of which we sampled the latter from southern Papua New Guinea. This group warrants further phylogeographic study to include all three nominal subspecies of *T. nigrocyaneus* plus the myriad forms of *Syma* from New Guinea and Australia, and outgroup taxa in *Actenoides*. Until this study is undertaken, we refrain from recommending taxonomic change to the generic

placement of *T. nigrocyaneus*.

Todiramphus winchelli, *T. pyrrhopygius*, *T. macleayii*, and *T. leucopygius* are unequivocally considered valid species by taxonomists, and our study supports this treatment. All but *T. pyrrhopygius* are thought to form a group of morphologically cohesive species defined by deep blue colors, different from the blue-green typical of other *Todiramphus* species. Some authors have included *T. diops*, *T. lazuli*, *T. funebris*, *T. albonotatus* and *T. farquhari* in this morpho-group (Woodall 2001), but our results suggest there is no phylogenetic basis for such a grouping. Indeed, *T. farquhari* of Vanuatu appears to be closely allied with the *T. chloris* ingroup, whereas the other species' affinities and genetic distinctiveness remain uncertain. Two additional species, *T. australasia* and *T. enigma* are thought to be closely allied with *T. sanctus* and *T. chloris*, respectively, based on phenotypic similarities; however, these were unsampled in this study, so little can be said of their relationships. Continued efforts to collect specimens with associated genetic material will be necessary to include these six species in an expanded *Todiramphus* phylogeny. Until then, any speculation as to their placement should be treated cautiously.

Species limits of ingroup clade A (Figs. 4.2–4.4) are complex and in need of major revision. Our phylogenetic results highlight numerous clades that warrant species status. Results of a bGMYC species delimitation analysis suggested the presence of 26 species in clade A (Fig. 4.4). This liberal interpretation is based on population-level sampling of mtDNA sequences only. The method has limitations, but it provides one metric for comparison. Below we provide an annotated list of a slightly more conservative approach to species delimitation with comments on their relative divergence, fixed phenotypic and ecological characters, and patterns of sympatry between congeners.

- ***Todiramphus farquhari* Sharpe, 1899 (Vanuatu Kingfisher).** Unequivocally considered a valid biological species by all authors. It is as morphologically distinct as any ingroup lineage. Thought by some to be part of the dark blue-and-white morpho-group (see above; Woodall 2001), but our results support a close affinity with the ingroup.

The Micronesian endemic *T. cinnamominus* has three extant nominal subspecies that are distributed on Palau, Guam, and Pohnpei. A fourth hypothetical taxon on the Ryukyu Islands, Japan, *T. cinnamominus miyakoensis*, is thought to be extinct. All three extant *T. cinnamominus* taxa differ substantially in plumage and size, and are highly allopatric from each other. Our molecular data show that *T. cinnamominus pelewensis* of Palau is well differentiated from the other *T. cinnamominus*, but its phylogenetic placement is equivocal. The MrBayes analysis placed it inside the ingroup, whereas the BEAST analysis placed it just outside. Neither case was well supported, and both analyses recovered short internode distances, suggesting an uncertain evolutionary history of this taxon. The remaining two taxa, *T. cinnamominus cinnamominus* of Guam and *T. cinnamominus reichenbachii* of Pohnpei appear to be closely related, albeit paraphyletic with respect to *T. recurvirostris*, a Samoan endemic species. This clade represents a biogeographic enigma with three geographically disparate island distributions spanning Micronesia and Central Polynesia.

- ***Todiramphus pelewensis* Wigglesworth, 1891 (Palau Kingfisher).** This taxon is sympatric with *T. chloris teraokai* and differs substantially from it and other *T. cinnamominus* forms in size, plumage, and habitat preference.
- ***Todiramphus cinnamominus* Swainson, 1821 (Guam Kingfisher).** The nominotypical *T. cinnamominus* from Guam is extirpated in the wild and survives only in captive breeding programs. It differs morphologically from *T. pelewensis* and *T. reichenbachii* in being

entirely rufous below, whereas rufous is confined to the crown of the other two species. Genetically, it is 2% diverged (ND2 uncorrected P) from *P. pelewensis*, but only 0.01% diverged from *T. reichenbachii*. We recommend species status for the three *T. cinnamominus* taxa because they are not each others' closest relatives and there are fixed phenotypic differences, as well as vast distances of open ocean between their respective Micronesian ranges.

- ***Todiramphus reichenbachii* Hartlaub, 1852 (Pohnpei Kingfisher).** Endemic to Pohnpei, Caroline Islands.
- ***Todiramphus recurvirostris* Lafresnaye, 1842 (Flat-billed Kingfisher).** This species is sister to *T. reichenbachii*. Authors have variously treated *T. recurvirostris* as its own species or as part of *T. sanctus* (Fry 1980; Woodall 2001). Our results warrant species status based on its phylogenetic differentiation from *T. sanctus*, and morphological differences including small size and bill morphology. It is endemic to Samoa; the only *Todiramphus* found there.

The following two species form a clade centered on Australia and New Guinea. Three clades were recovered in our analysis, and bGMYC supported all three as species; however, we recommend a more conservative approach because of insufficiently dense sampling in New Guinea and lack of topological resolution amongst the three clades.

- ***Todiramphus sordidus* Gould, 1842 (Mangrove Collared Kingfisher).** Breeds in coastal Australia and New Guinea. This species likely includes nominal subspecies *sordidus*, *pilbara*, *colcloughi*, and *colonus*. Further sampling is recommended to better understand the phylogeographic history of these forms in Australo-Papua.
- ***Todiramphus sanctus* Vigors & Horsfield, 1827 (Sacred Kingfisher).** Breeds throughout Australia, plus New Zealand and some islands in the eastern Solomons and possibly

Vanuatu. Extent of breeding range not full understood in the east. Some authors expanded the taxonomic scope of *T. sanctus* with respect to *T. chloris* and *T. recurvirostris* to include as many as nine nominal subspecies (Fry 1980; Pratt 1987; Woodall 2001; Clements et al. 2013). Pratt (1987) attributed the Fijian populations, *T. c. vitiensis* and *T. c. eximius*, as part of *T. sanctus* based on plumage and voice. *Todiramphus recurvirostris* from Upolu and Savai'i, Samoa is sometimes lumped as part of *T. sanctus* because differences in bill morphology are minimal (Fry 1980; Woodall 2001). Our results support a more restricted circumscription of *T. sanctus*. Furthermore, we found no evidence for geographic differentiation between the three nominal subspecies sampled, suggesting ongoing gene flow—possibly aided by their migratory nature.

A large radiation across southeast Asia is represented by Clade H. The basal lineage is the nominotypical subspecies *T. c. chloris*, which is widespread throughout Wallacea (sampled here from Sulawesi). Samples from Singapore comprise another lineage (*T. c. humii*), which is, in turn, sister to a large clade from the Philippines, Borneo, and Palau. Interestingly, despite the geographic complexity of the Philippines, no genetic structure was found across the entire archipelago. This is a rare biogeographic pattern in Philippine birds, in part because systematists tend to study the most differentiated taxa first. However, lack of biogeographic structure in Philippines birds has been found in *Rhipidura javanica* (Sánchez-González and Moyle 2011) and *Copsychus saularis* (Sheldon et al. 2009). Both examples, however, were distinct from Bornean taxa. The Palau result is completely novel in birds and further investigation should be taken to determine the origins of Palau's avifauna. Despite the relative proximity between Palau and the Mariana Islands, this results highlights their different geologic histories in belonging to different island arc systems.

- ***Todiramphus chloris* Boddaert, 1783 (Collared Kingfisher).** We support a conservative approach by treating the large Asian clade H as one species. We recognize that there is genetic structure in this clade worthy of further species delimitation (i.e., Sulawesi; mainland southeast Asia; and Borneo, Philippines, and Palau), but there are too many gaps in our sampling to say definitively.

In clade I, we recommend recognizing three species. Further sampling is necessary in the Bismarck Archipelago (*T. albonotatus* of New Britain, and several nominal subspecies of the *T. chloris* complex from Musau (*matthiae*) to Nissan (*bennetti*).

- ***Todiramphus saurophagus* Gould, 1843 (Beach Kingfisher).** The largest *Todiramphus* species. This coastal specialist is distinctive morphologically with a massive bill and white head.
- ***Todiramphus albicilla*, Dumont, 1823 (Mariana Kingfisher).** The sister species to *T. saurophagus*. Our sampling is incomplete, so we treat this recommendation with caution. We sampled birds from Saipan (*albicilla*) and Rota (*orii*), but lacked samples from Asuncion, Agrihan, Pagan, and Almagán in the northern part of the archipelago (*owstoni*). All forms are large, like *T. saurophagus*, but only *albicilla* from Saipan is white-headed. The other forms are variably white or blue-crowned suggesting this trait is phenotypically plastic in this clade. Interestingly, birds from Mussau Island in the St. Matthias Islands, the northernmost island in the greater Bismarck Archipelago is similarly plumaged to *orii* and *owstoni*. Furthermore, about 40% of individuals of *T. saurophagus admiralitatis* from the Admiralty Islands show blue-green crowns (Dutson et al. 2011). It is highly speculative, but this pattern is suggestive of ancestral polymorphisms of crown plumage within the broader clade of *T. saurophagus* + *T. albicilla*.

- ***Todiramphus tristrami* E. L. Layard, 1880 (Melanesian Kingfisher).** This species corresponds to a geographically cohesive clade from the Bismarck Archipelago and the main Solomon Islands chain (Bougainville to Guadalcanal). We sampled only two nominal subspecies (*nusae* and *alberti*), but *tristrami* (New Britain) has priority. Much denser sampling is needed including the following taxa: *mathiae*, *stresemanni*, *novaehiberniae*, *bennetti*, *tristrami*, and *pavuvu*.

Clade D contains numerous lineages endemic to relatively small geographic areas. The bGMYC species delimitation results supports seven species (Fig. 4.4). We caution against this interpretation given the large number of sampling gaps from this region. Mayr examined the kingfishers of central Polynesia, which resulted in his naming 15 nominal subspecies of *T. chloris* (Mayr 1931a, 1935b, 1938, 1941).

- ***Todiramphus sacer* J. F. Gmelin, 1788 (Pacific Kingfisher).**

Clade C comprises a radiation of eastern Polynesian kingfishers that have long-been treated as 5–6 species (Fry 1980; Fry et al. 1992; Woodall 2001). Our phylogenetic and species delimitation results support this with surprisingly strong support at most nodes. We recommend maintaining current taxonomy of the following five species (Gill and Donsker 2013).

- ***Todiramphus godeffroyi* Finsch, 1877 (Marquesan Kingfisher).**
- ***Todiramphus ruficollaris* Holyoak, 1974 (Mewing Kingfisher).**
- ***Todiramphus veneratus* J. F. Gmelin, 1788 (Society Kingfisher).**
- ***Todiramphus gambieri* Oustalet, 1895 (Tuamotu Kingfisher).**
- ***Todiramphus tutus* J. F. Gmelin, 1788 (Chattering Kingfisher).**

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Appendix I

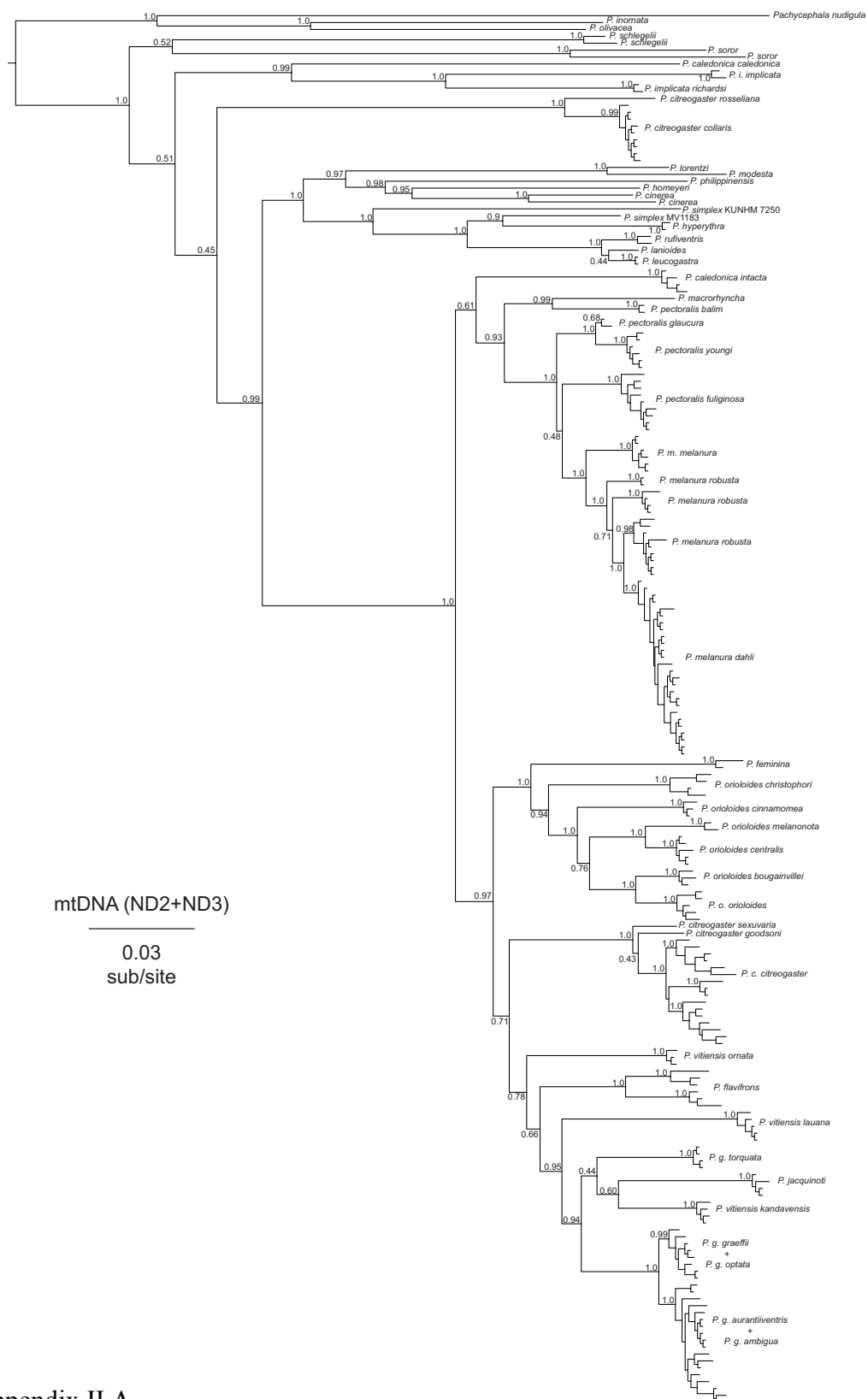
Phenotypic characters of the 15 subspecies of *Ceyx lepidus*, based on examination of specimens at the University of Kansas Biodiversity Institute and from Fry et al. (1992). Reprinted from (Andersen et al. 2013).

Subspecies	Bill	Head	Wings	Frontal spot	Malar stripe	Neck blaze	Back	Rump	Uppertail coverts	Chin and throat	Breast and belly	Legs and feet
<i>C. I. cajeli</i>	Red but stouter	Blackish, almost without dark blue	Blackish, almost without dark blue	Yellow-orange			Brilliant silvery-blue	Brilliant silvery-blue	Brilliant silvery-blue	White	Yellow-orange	Orange
<i>C. I. collectoris</i>	Red but stouter	Black, washed and spotted with very dark blue	Black, washed and spotted with very dark blue	Orange			Brilliant purple-blue	Brilliant purple-blue	Brilliant purple-blue	Yellowish-white	Rich orange	Orange
<i>C. I. dispar</i>	Red	Male: black, washed and spotted with dark blue; Female: orange, with blue-black restricted to a stripe on the hindcrown and an area in front of neck blaze	Black, spotted and washed with ultramarine	Male: orange; female: lore and small area in front of eye black		White	Brilliant pale silvery-blue	Brilliant pale silvery-blue	Brilliant dark ultramarine-blue	Male: yellowish-white; female: white	Breast dark rufous, belly rich orange	Red
<i>C. I. gentianus</i>	Black	Black, washed and spotted with dark blue	Black, washed and spotted with dark blue	White		White	Brilliant ultramarine-blue	Silvery-blue	Brilliant ultramarine-blue	White	White	Orange
<i>C. I. lepidus</i>	Red	Black, washed and spotted with dark blue	Black, washed and spotted with dark blue	Orange	Blue-black		Brilliant ultramarine-blue	Silvery-blue	Brilliant ultramarine-blue	Yellowish-white	Rich orange	Orange
<i>C. I. malaitae</i>	Upper mandible mainly black, lower mandible yellow	Black, washed and spotted with very dark blue	Black, washed and spotted with very dark blue	Orange			Brilliant purple-blue	Brilliant purple-blue	Brilliant purple-blue	Yellowish-white	Rich orange	Orange
<i>C. I. margaritae</i>	Red	Pale morph: pale cobalt blue; dark morph: ultramarine blue	Pale morph: pale cobalt blue; dark morph: ultramarine blue	Dark chestnut	Orange		Pale morph: pale cobalt blue; dark morph: ultramarine blue	Pale morph: pale silvery cobalt blue; dark morph: dark ultramarine blue	Pale morph: pale cobalt blue; dark morph: ultramarine blue	Yellowish-white	Breast rich orange, belly pale yellow	Orange

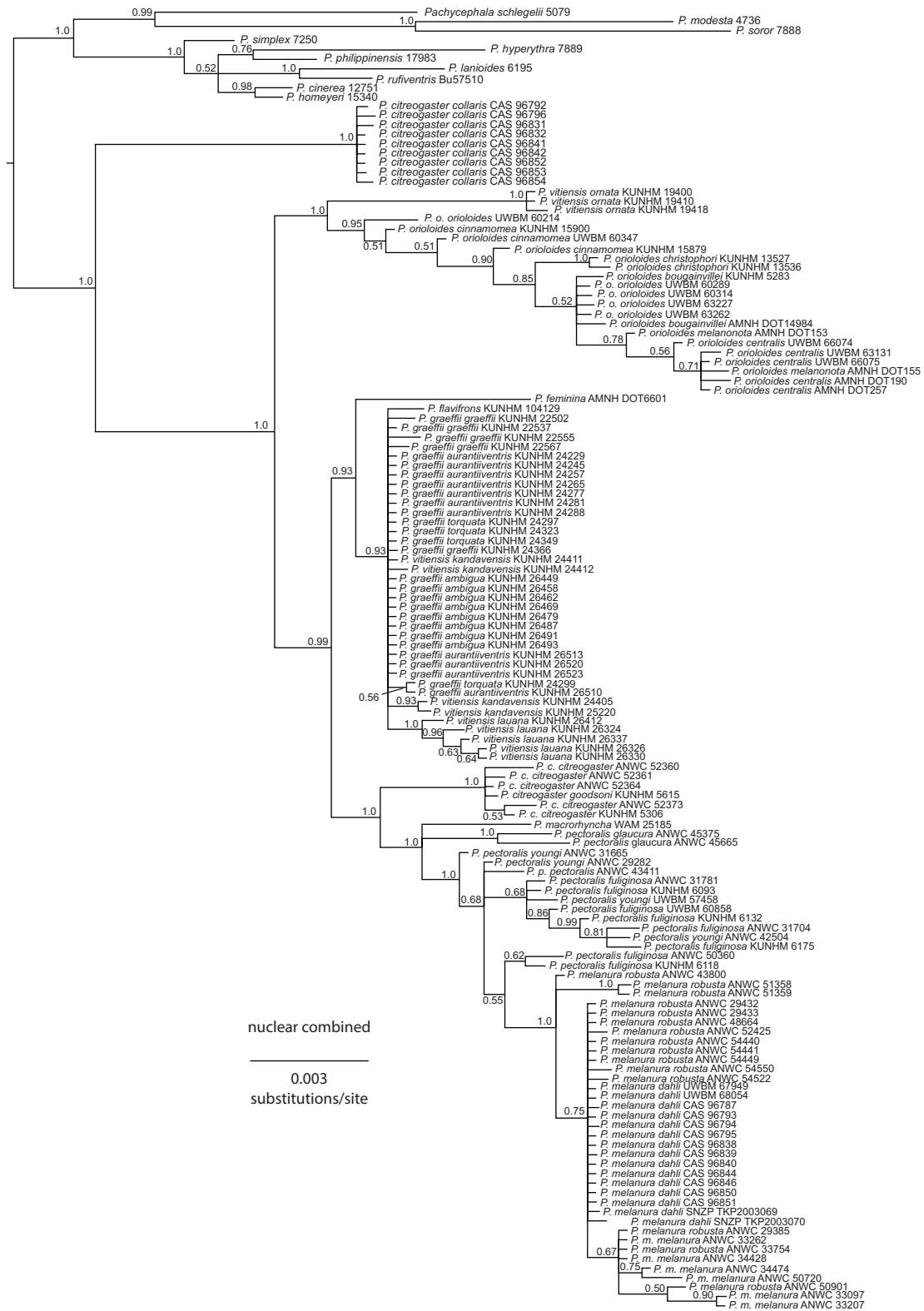
Subspecies	Bill	Head	Wings	Frontal spot	Malar stripe	Neck blaze	Back	Rump	Uppertail coverts	Chin and throat	Breast and belly	Legs and feet
<i>C. l. meeki</i>	Black	Blue-black, spangled with pale blue	Blue-black, spangled with pale blue	Pale yellowish-buff on male, more orange-yellow on female		Male: pale yellowish-buff; Female: pale orange-yellow	Lower mantle pale blue	Silvery	Pale blue	Pale yellowish-buff on male, more orange-yellow on female	Pale yellowish-buff on male, more orange-yellow on female	Flesh-pink
<i>C. l. mulcatus</i>	Black	Black, washed and spotted with dark blue	Black, washed and spotted with dark blue	Orange			Brilliant ultramarine-blue	Silvery-blue	Brilliant ultramarine-blue	Yellowish-white	Rich orange	Orange
<i>C. l. nigromaxilla</i>	Upper mandible mainly black, lower mandible mainly orange-red	Black, washed and spotted with very dark blue	Black, washed and spotted with very dark blue	Orange			Brilliant purple-blue	Brilliant purple-blue	Brilliant purple-blue	Yellowish-white	Rich orange	Orange
<i>C. l. pallidus</i>	Black	Blue-black, spangled with pale ultramarine blue	Blue-black, spangled with pale ultramarine blue	Pale yellowish-buff		Pale yellowish-buff	Brilliant ultramarine-blue	Brilliant ultramarine-blue	Cobalt blue	Pale yellow	Pale orange-yellow	Yellow
<i>C. l. sacerdotis</i>	Upper mandible dusky red, lower mandible red	Black, washed and spotted with dark blue	Black, washed and spotted with dark blue	Orange			Brilliant ultramarine-blue	Brilliant ultramarine-blue	Brilliant ultramarine-blue	Yellowish-white	Breast rich orange, belly and undertail coverts very pale orange-yellow	Orange
<i>C. l. solitarius</i>	Black	Black, washed and spotted with dark blue	Black, washed and spotted with dark blue	Yellowish-white			Brilliant ultramarine-blue	Brilliant ultramarine-blue	Brilliant ultramarine-blue	Yellowish-white	Rich orange	Orange
<i>C. l. uropygialis</i>	Red, more slender	Black, softly washed and spotted with dark blue	Black, softly washed and spotted with dark blue	Orange			Brilliant ultramarine-blue	Silvery-blue	Brilliant ultramarine-blue	Rich yellowish-white	Dark rich orange	Orange
<i>C. l. wallacii</i>	Red	Black, washed and spotted with blue (paler)	Black, washed and spotted with blue (paler)	Orange			Brilliant pale cobalt-blue	Brilliant pale cobalt-blue	Ultramarine-blue	Yellowish-white	Rich orange	Orange

Appendix II

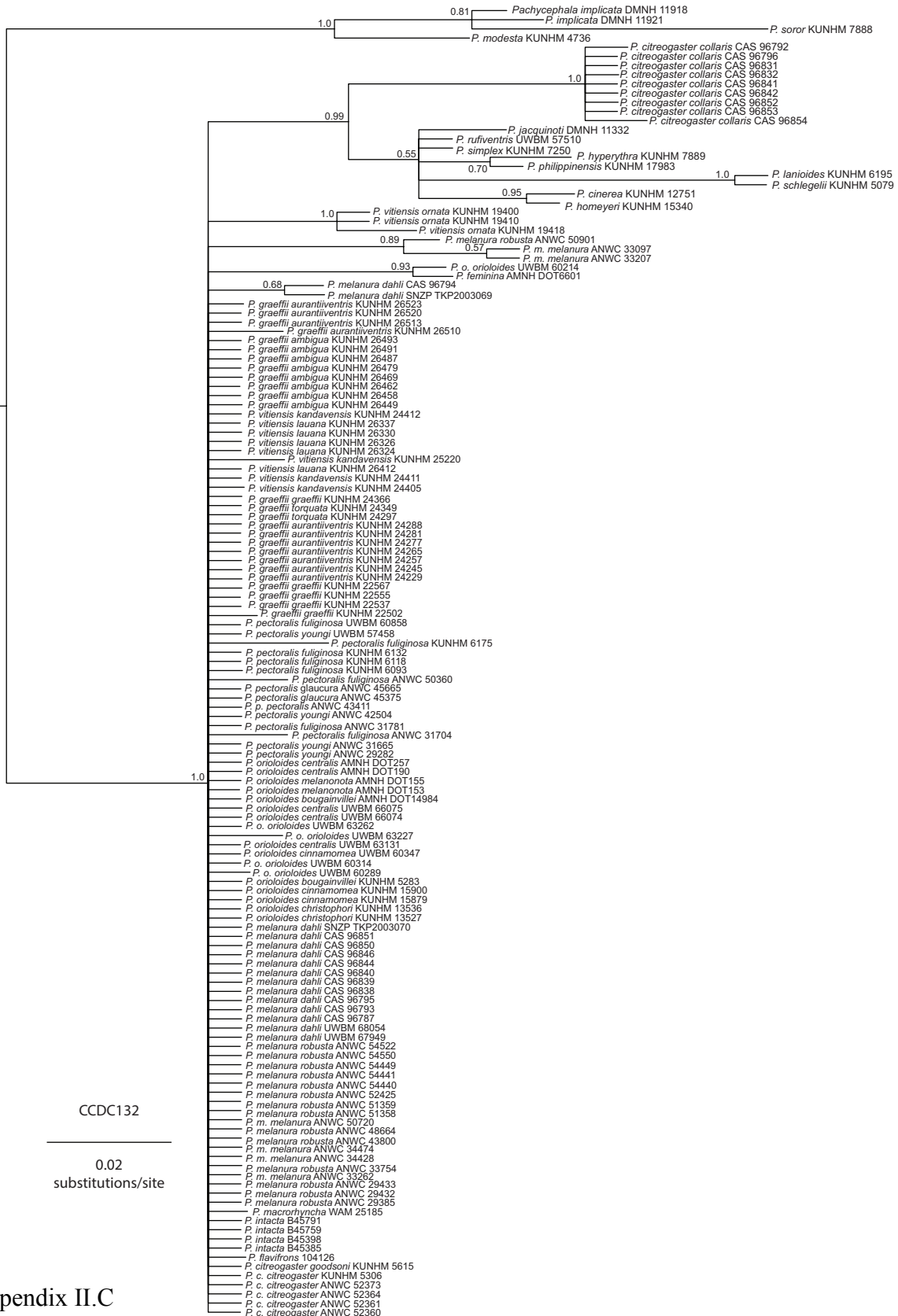
Supplementary tree figures from (Chapter 2; Andersen et al. In press-b). All trees are Bayesian maximum consensus trees of reduced datasets from MrBayes. Node support is denoted as Bayesian posterior probabilities. Each figure is labeled with the corresponding data partition (e.g., gene) in the following order: A) combined, partitioned mitochondrial DNA (ND2 and ND3; concatenated and partitioned by codon position); B) combined, partitioned analysis of the nuclear sequence data (n=8 introns); C) CCDC132 intron; D) Fib5 intron; E) GAPDH intron; F) HMGB2 intron; G) MUSK intron; H) Myo2 intron; I) ODC intron; and J) TGF intron.



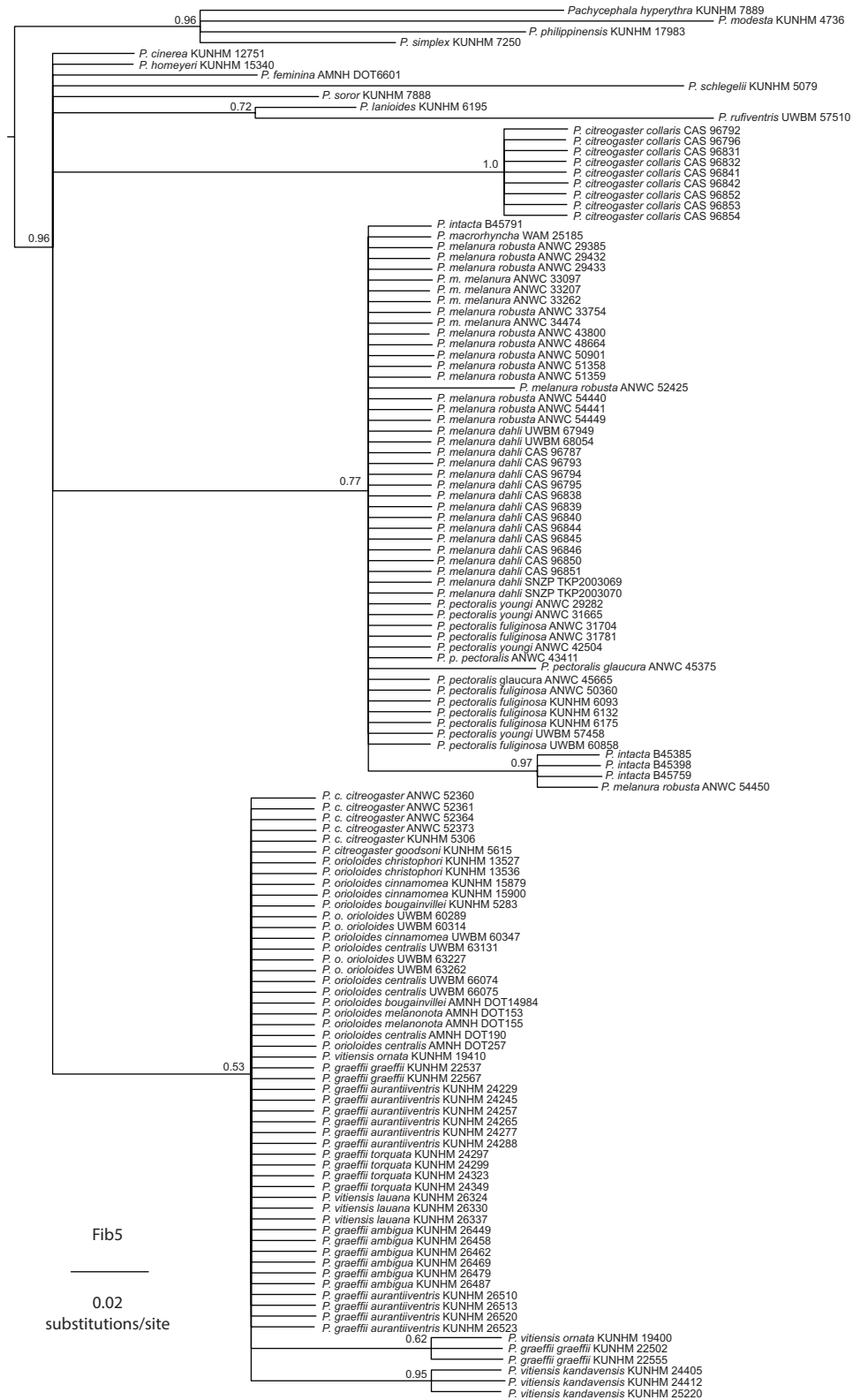
Appendix II.A



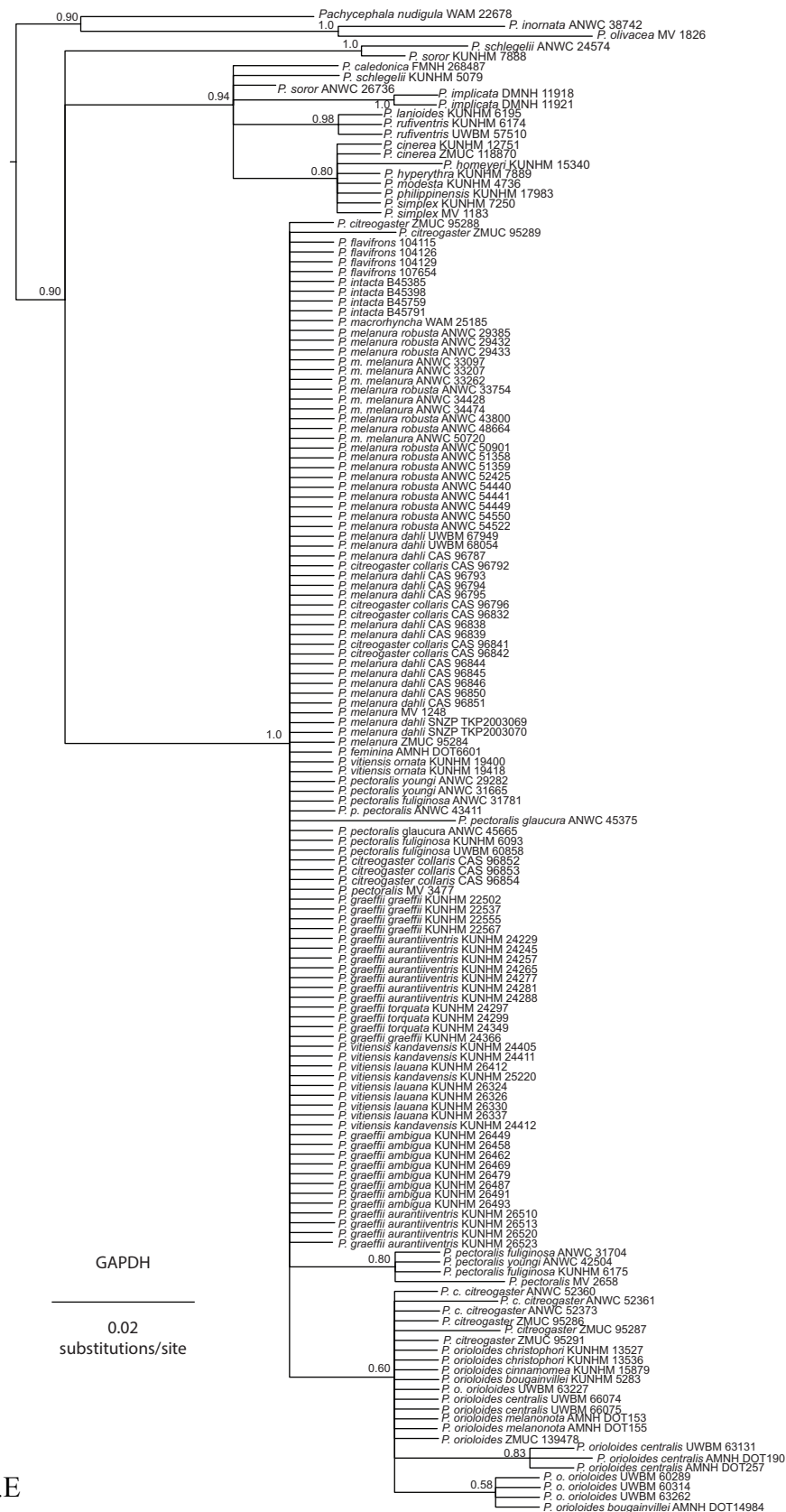
Appendix II.B



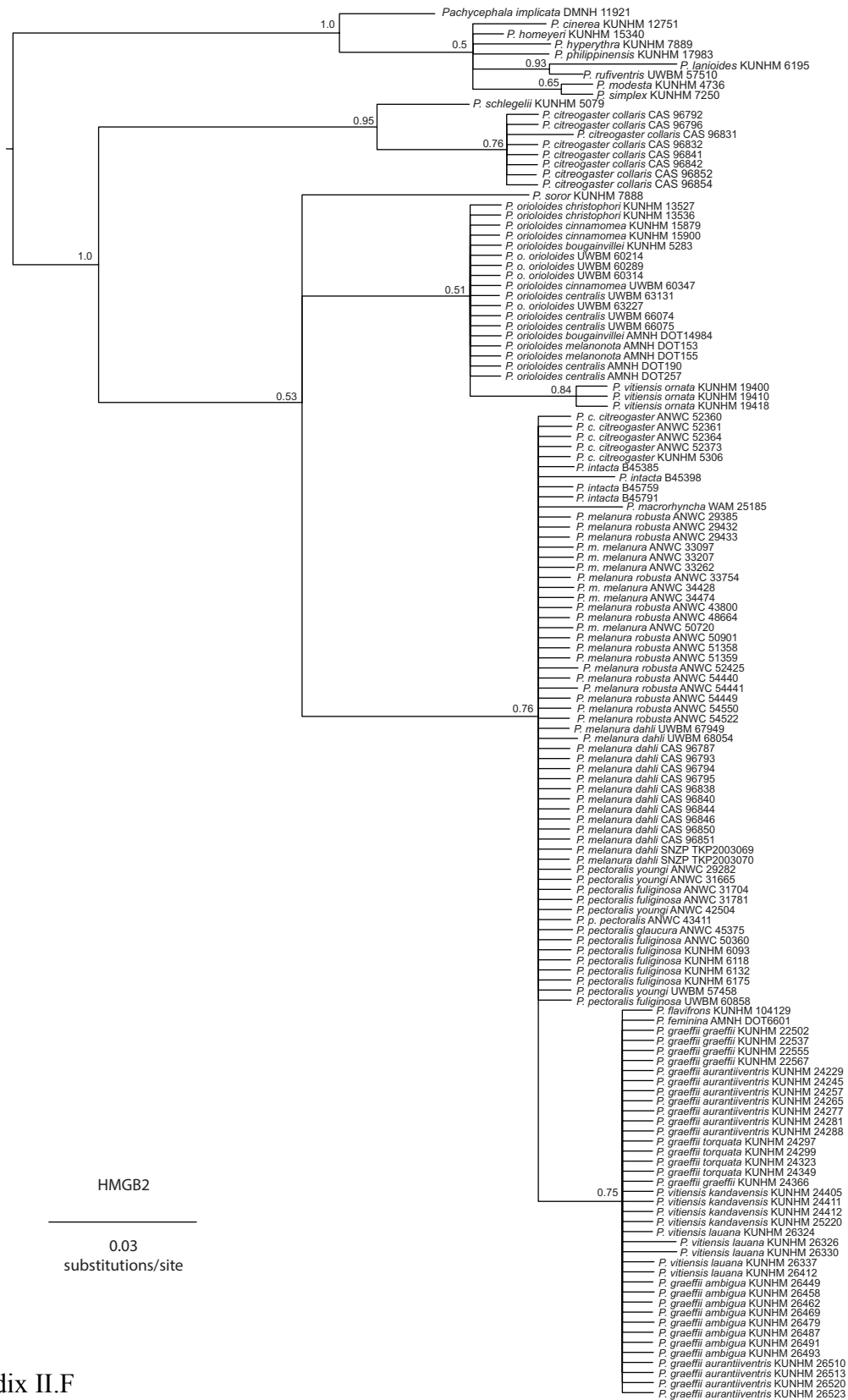
Appendix II.C



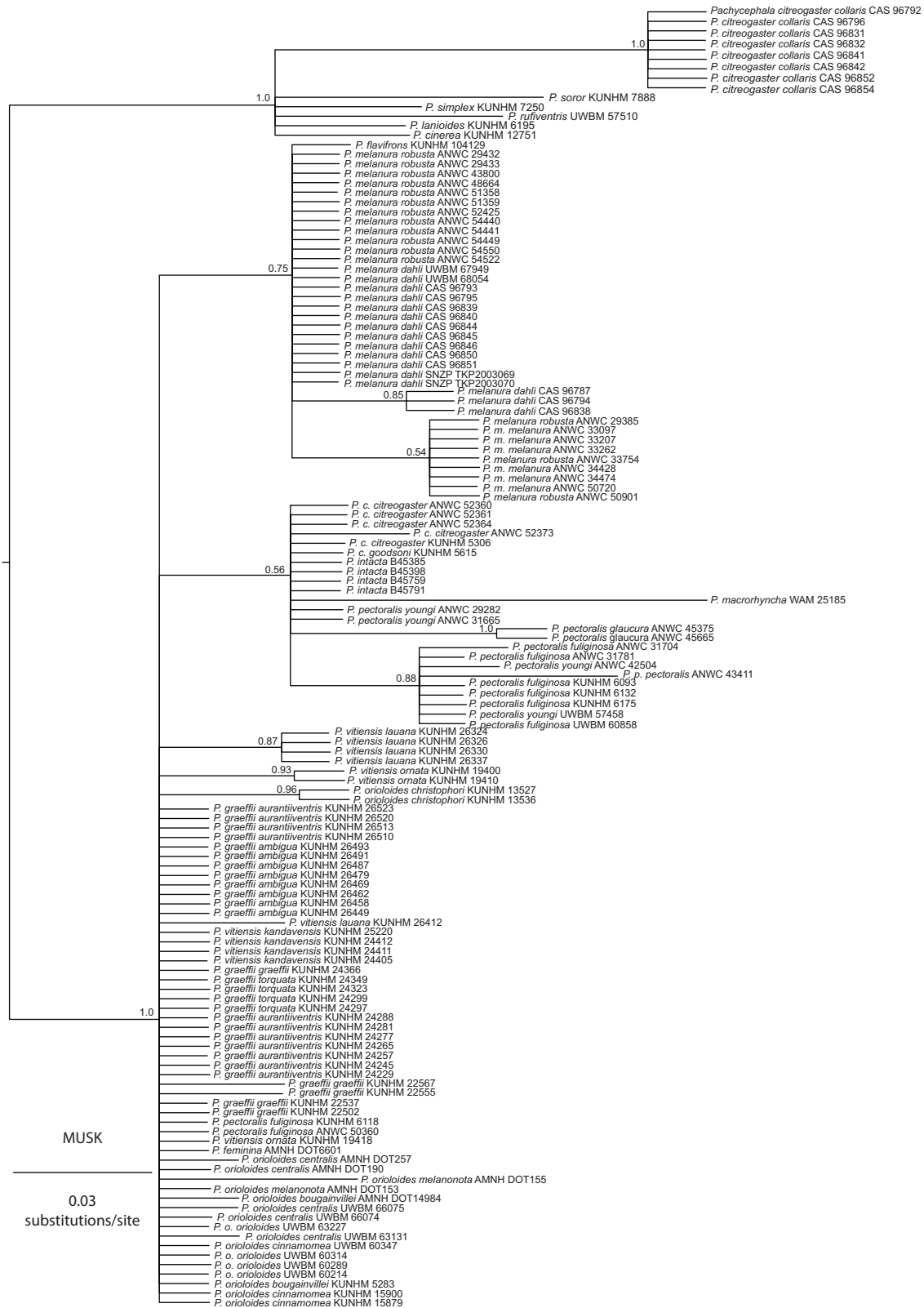
Appendix II.D



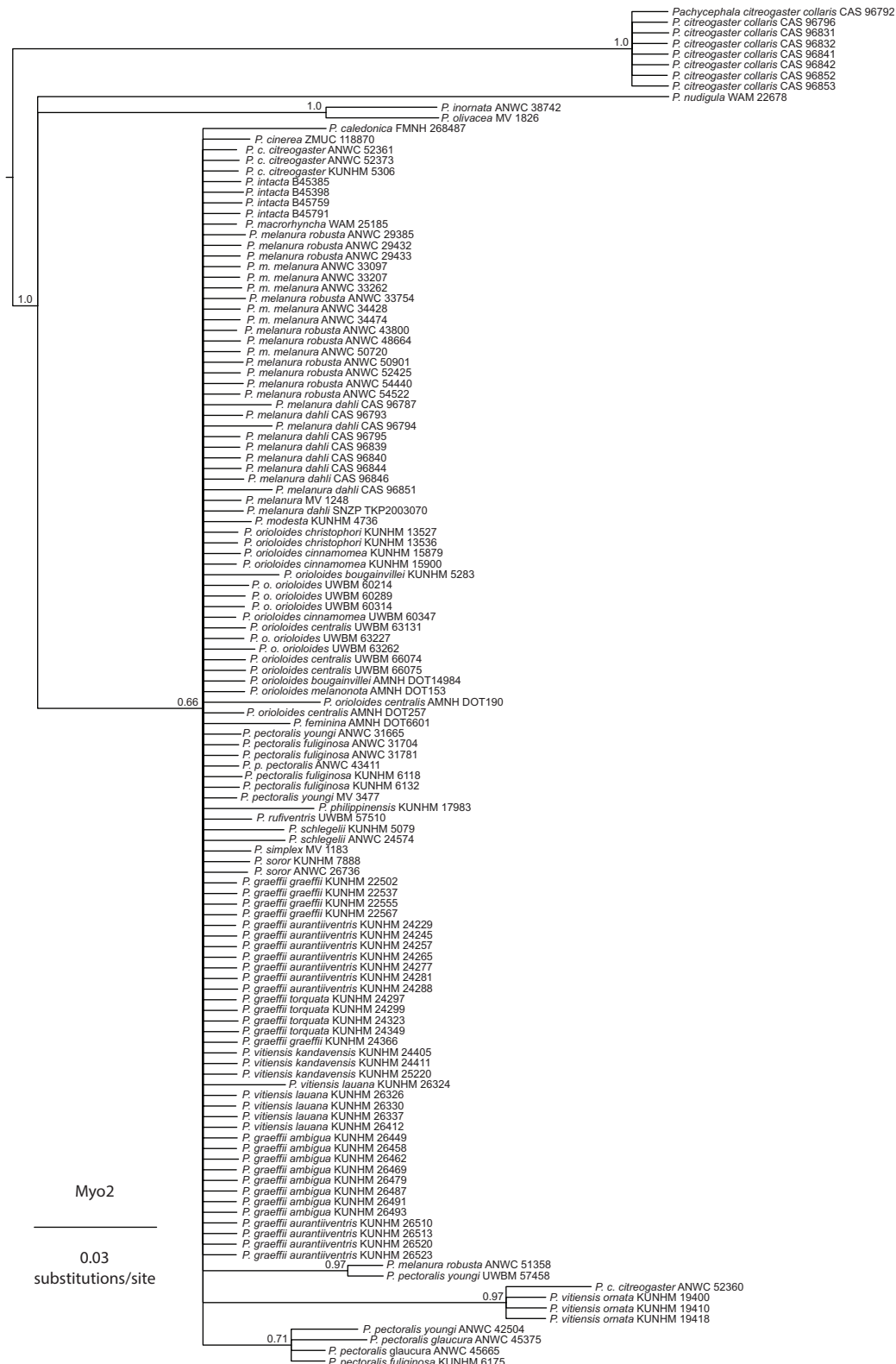
Appendix II.E



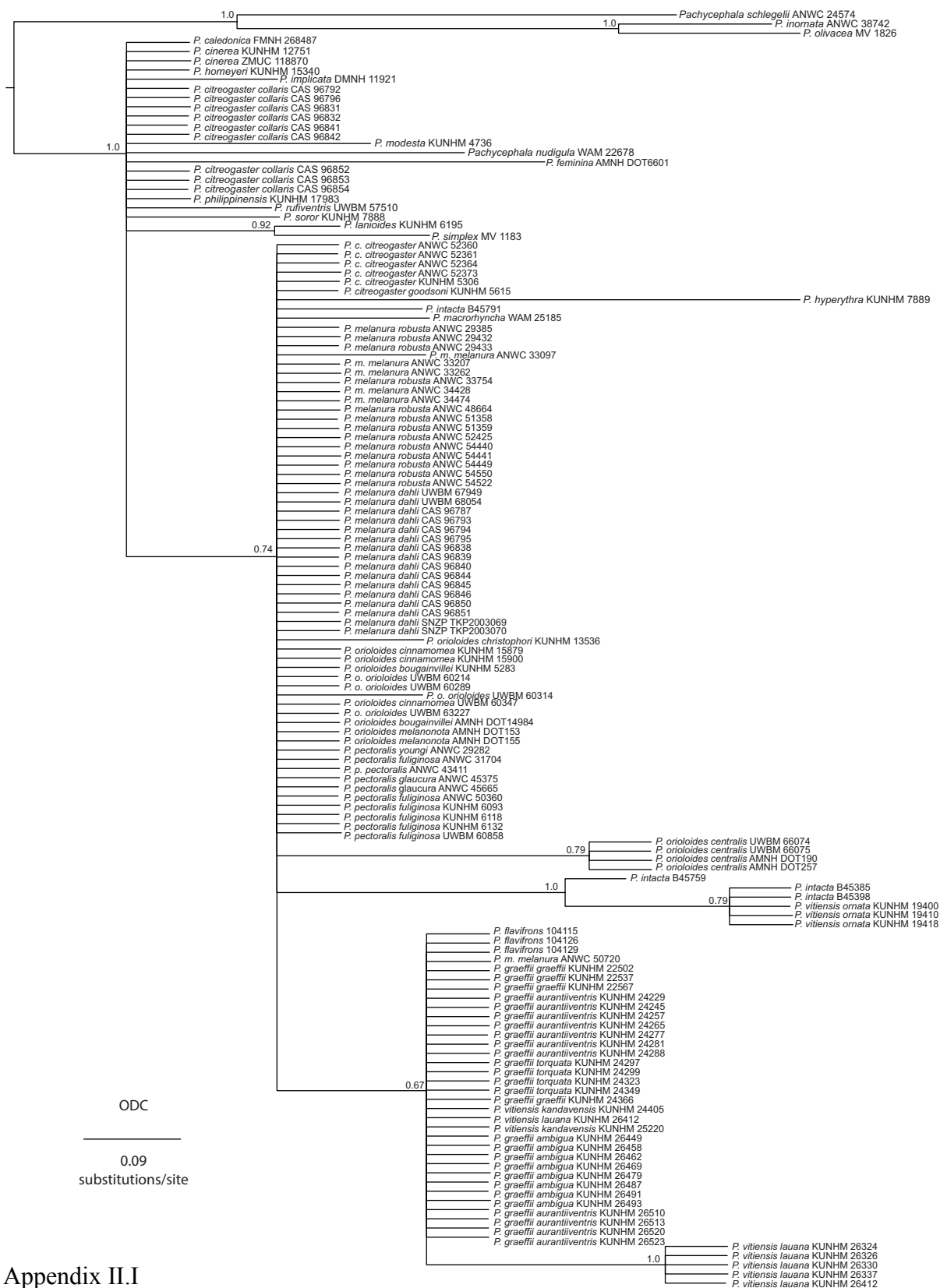
Appendix II.F



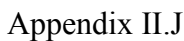
Appendix II.G



Appendix II.H



Appendix II.I



Appendix III

Complete list of samples used in (Chapter 3; Andersen et al. In press-a). Samples in bold are newly sequenced for this study. Institutional abbreviations: AMNH, American Museum of Natural History; DMNH, Delaware Museum of Natural History; KUNHM, University of Kansas Natural History Museum; LSUMNS, Louisiana State University Museum of Natural Science; UMMZ, University of Michigan Museum of Zoology; NMNH, Smithsonian Institution National Museum of Natural History; UWBM, University of Washington Burke Museum; YPM, Yale Peabody Museum.

Genus	Species	Voucher	Genus (Driskell and Christidis 2004)	GenBank Accession (ND2) (Fib5)	
Ingroup					
<i>Acanthagenys</i>	<i>rufogularis</i>	MV1122		AY488259	AY488410
<i>Acanthorhynchus</i>	<i>superciliosus</i>	MV248		AY488260	AY488411
<i>Acanthorhynchus</i>	<i>tenuirostris</i>	B873		AY488261	AY488412
<i>Anthochaera</i>	<i>carunculata</i>	C257		AY488262	AY488413
<i>Anthochaera</i>	<i>chrysoptera</i>	B792		AY488263	AY488414
<i>Anthochaera</i>	<i>lunulata</i>	MV175		AY488264	AY488415
<i>Anthochaera</i>	<i>paradoxa</i>	B736		AY488265	AY488416
<i>Ashbyia</i>	<i>lovensis</i>	D173		AY488266	AY488417
<i>Bolemoreus</i>	<i>frenatus</i>	ANWC 41565	<i>Lichenostomus</i>	HQ267669	HQ267689
<i>Caligavis</i>	<i>obscurus</i>	KUNHM 7379	<i>Lichenostomus</i>	HQ267675	HQ267695
<i>Certhionyx</i>	<i>variegatus</i>	W036		AY488269	AY488420
<i>Cissomela</i>	<i>pectoralis</i>	C912	<i>Certhionyx</i>	AY488268	AY488419
<i>Conopophila</i>	<i>albogularis</i>	MV1216		AY488270	AY488421
<i>Conopophila</i>	<i>rufogularis</i>	MV1300		AY488271	AY488422
<i>Entomyzon</i>	<i>cyanotis</i>	F274		AY488272	AY488423
<i>Epthianura</i>	<i>albifrons</i>	D328		AY488273	AY488424
<i>Epthianura</i>	<i>aurifrons</i>	D156		AY488274	AY488425
<i>Epthianura</i>	<i>crocea</i>	D175		AY488329	AY488426
<i>Epthianura</i>	<i>tricolor</i>	D229		AY488405	AY488427
<i>Foulehaio</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	2077		AY488275	AY488428
<i>Foulehaio</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	KUNHM 24220			
<i>Foulehaio</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	KUNHM 24307			
<i>Foulehaio</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	KUNHM 24351			
<i>Foulehaio</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	KUNHM 24378			
<i>Foulehaio</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	KUNHM 24382			
<i>Foulehaio</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	KUNHM 26303			
<i>Foulehaio</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	KUNHM 26306			
<i>Foulehaio</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	KUNHM 26321			
<i>Foulehaio</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	KUNHM 26332			
<i>Foulehaio</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	KUNHM 26344			
<i>Foulehaio</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	KUNHM 26386			
<i>Foulehaio</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	KUNHM 26387			
<i>Foulehaio</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	KUNHM 26425			
<i>Foulehaio</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	KUNHM 26495			
<i>Foulehaio</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	KUNHM 26536			
<i>Foulehaio</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	KUNHM 30509			
<i>Foulehaio</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	KUNHM 30524			
<i>Foulehaio</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	KUNHM			
		104023			
<i>Foulehaio</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	KUNHM			
		104025			

Genus	Species	Voucher	Genus (Driskell and Christidis 2004)	GenBank Accession	
				(ND2)	(Fib5)
<i>Foulehaio</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	KUNHM 104041			
<i>Foulehaio</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	KUNHM 104050			
<i>Foulehaio</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	KUNHM 107639			
<i>Foulehaio</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	UWBM 42872			
<i>Foulehaio</i>	<i>carunculatus</i>	UWBM 42885			
<i>Gavicalis</i>	<i>virescens</i>	KUNHM 6160	<i>Lichenostomus</i>	HQ267682	HQ267702
<i>Gliciphila</i>	<i>melanops</i>	D451	<i>Phylidonyris</i>	AY488407	AY488456
<i>Glycichaera</i>	<i>fallax</i>	E663		AY488276	AY488429
<i>Glycifohia</i>	<i>notabilis</i>	LSUMNS B45775			
<i>Glycifohia</i>	<i>notabilis</i>	LSUMNS B45807			
<i>Glycifohia</i>	<i>undulata</i>	YPM 71297			
<i>Grantiella</i>	<i>picta</i>	MV2673		AY488277	AY488430
<i>Guadalcanaria</i>	<i>inexpectata</i>	DMNH 11854			
<i>Gymnomyza</i>	<i>samoensis</i>	KUNHM 104021			
<i>Gymnomyza</i>	<i>samoensis</i>	KUNHM 107665			
<i>Gymnomyza</i>	<i>viridis</i>	KUNHM 24318			
<i>Gymnomyza</i>	<i>viridis</i>	KUNHM 30461			
<i>Lichenostomus</i>	<i>melanops</i>	ANSP 22940		HQ267674	HQ267694
<i>Lichmera</i>	<i>alboauricularis</i>	E629		AY488279	AY488432
<i>Lichmera</i>	<i>incana</i>	UMMZ 221981			
<i>Lichmera</i>	<i>indistincta</i>	C271		AY488280	AY488433
<i>Manorina</i>	<i>flavigula</i>	42856		AY488281	AY488434
<i>Manorina</i>	<i>melanophrys</i>	42737		AY488282	AY488435
<i>Meliarchus</i>	<i>sclateri</i>	KUNHM 13544			
<i>Meliarchus</i>	<i>sclateri</i>	KUNHM 13546			
<i>Melidectes</i>	<i>belfordi</i>	E168		AY488283	AY488436
<i>Melidectes</i>	<i>ochromelas</i>	E360		AY488284	AY488437
<i>Melidectes</i>	<i>torquatus</i>	E389		AY488285	AY488438
<i>Melilestes</i>	<i>megarhynchus</i>	E557		AY488286	AY488439
<i>Meliphaga</i>	<i>albonotata</i>	E471		AY488287	AY488440
<i>Meliphaga</i>	<i>gracilis</i>	C753		AY488288	AY488441
<i>Melipotes</i>	<i>fumigatus</i>	E332		AY488289	AY488442
<i>Melithreptus</i>	<i>albogularis</i>	JC100		AY488290	AY488443
<i>Melithreptus</i>	<i>brevirostris</i>	MV371		AY488291	AY488444
<i>Myzomela</i>	<i>cardinalis</i>	2494		AY488292	AY488445
<i>Myzomela</i>	<i>erythrocephala</i>	MV1198		AY488406	AY488446
<i>Myzomela</i>	<i>obscura</i>	C531		AY488293	AY488447
<i>Myzomela</i>	<i>rosenbergii</i>	E240		AY488294	AY488448

Genus	Species	Voucher	Genus (Driskell and Christidis 2004)	GenBank Accession	
				(ND2)	(Fib5)
<i>Myzomela</i>	<i>sanguinolenta</i>	C402		AY488295	AY488449
<i>Nesoptilotis</i>	<i>flavicollis</i>	ANWC 45751	<i>Lichenostomus</i>	HQ267667	HQ267687
<i>Nesoptilotis</i>	<i>leucotis</i>	KUNHM 8763	<i>Lichenostomus</i>	HQ267673	HQ267693
<i>Philemon</i>	<i>argenteiceps</i>	JCW095n		AY488296	AY488450
<i>Philemon</i>	<i>buceroideus</i>	C863n		AY488297	AY488451
<i>Philemon</i>	<i>citreogularis</i>	D008n		AY488298	AY488452
<i>Philemon</i>	<i>cockerelli</i>	KUNHM 27644			
<i>Philemon</i>	<i>corniculatus</i>	C720		AY488299	AY488453
<i>Philemon</i>	<i>eichhorni</i>	KUNHM 27770			
<i>Philemon</i>	<i>eichhorni</i>	NMNH B4027			
<i>Philemon</i>	<i>meyeri</i>	E683		AY488300	AY488454
<i>Phylidonyris</i>	<i>niger</i>	MV198		AY488302	AY488457
<i>Phylidonyris</i>	<i>novaehollandiae</i>	B685		AY488303	AY488458
<i>Phylidonyris</i>	<i>pyrrhopterus</i>	B615		AY488408	AY488459
<i>Plectorhyncha</i>	<i>lanceolata</i>	C379		AY488304	AY488460
<i>Prothemadera</i>	<i>novaeseelandiae</i>	111996		AY488305	AY488461
<i>Ptiloprora</i>	<i>guisei</i>	E173		AY488306	AY488462
<i>Ptiloprora</i>	<i>plumbea</i>	C173		AY488409	AY488463
<i>Ptilotula</i>	<i>flavescens</i>	ANSP 25785	<i>Lichenostomus</i>	HQ267666	HQ267686
<i>Ptilotula</i>	<i>flavescens</i>	D029	<i>Lichenostomus</i>	AY488278	AY488431
<i>Ptilotula</i>	<i>penicillata</i>	KUNHM 6179	<i>Lichenostomus</i>	HQ267677	HQ267697
<i>Purnella</i>	<i>albifrons</i>	D361	<i>Phylidonyris</i>	AY488301	AY488455
<i>Pycnopygius</i>	<i>cinereus</i>	C057		AY488307	AY488464
<i>Pycnopygius</i>	<i>stictocephalus</i>	C035		AY488308	AY488465
<i>Ramsayornis</i>	<i>fasciatus</i>	MV1230		AY488309	AY488466
<i>Ramsayornis</i>	<i>modestus</i>	C900		AY488310	AY488467
<i>Sugomel</i>	<i>niger</i>	C954	<i>Certhionyx</i>	AY488267	AY488418
<i>Stomiopera</i>	<i>flava</i>	ANSP 25088	<i>Lichenostomus</i>	HQ267668	HQ267688
<i>Stresemannia</i>	<i>bougainvillei</i>	KUNHM 5280			
<i>Stresemannia</i>	<i>bougainvillei</i>	KUNHM 5281			
<i>Timeliopsis</i>	<i>fulvigula</i>	E233		AY488311	AY488468
<i>Timeliopsis</i>	<i>griseigula</i>	E714		AY488312	AY488469
<i>Trichodere</i>	<i>cockerelli</i>	42941		AY488313	AY488470
<i>Vosea</i> [<i>Melidectes</i>]	<i>whitemanensis</i>	AMNH 778167			
<i>Vosea</i> [<i>Melidectes</i>]	<i>whitemanensis</i>	AMNH 778172			
<i>Xanthomyza</i>	<i>phrygia</i>	F724		AY488314	AY488471
<i>Xanthotis</i>	<i>flaviventer</i>	KUNHM 5588			
<i>Xanthotis</i>	<i>flaviventer</i>	KUNHM 7571			
<i>Xanthotis</i>	<i>flaviventer</i>	KUNHM 9557			
<i>Xanthotis</i>	<i>flaviventer</i>	E594		AY488315	AY488472
<i>Xanthotis</i>	<i>polygrammus</i>	KUNHM 5133			
<i>Xanthotis</i>	<i>polygrammus</i>	KUNHM 9640			

Genus	Species	Voucher	Genus (Driskell and Christidis 2004)	GenBank Accession	
				(ND2)	(Fib5)
<i>Xanthotis</i>	<i>provocator</i>	KUNHM 24416			
<i>Xanthotis</i>	<i>provocator</i>	KUNHM 25211			
Outgroup			Family		
<i>Acanthiza</i>	<i>apicalis</i>	MV158	Acanthizidae	AY488316	AY488473
<i>Acanthiza</i>	<i>chrysorrhoa</i>	MV116	Acanthizidae	AY488317	AY488474
<i>Dasyornis</i>	<i>broadbenti</i>	MV2172	Dasyornithidae	AY488318	AY488475
<i>Gerygone</i>	<i>chloronotus</i>	E122	Acanthizidae	AY488319	AY488476
<i>Gerygone</i>	<i>chrysogaster</i>	E670	Acanthizidae	AY488320	AY488477
<i>Pardalotus</i>	<i>punctatus</i>	B479	Pardalotidae	AY488321	AY488478
<i>Pardalotus</i>	<i>striatus</i>	B471	Pardalotidae	AY488322	AY488479
<i>Sericornis</i>	<i>frontalis</i>	MV228	Acanthizidae	AY488323	AY488480
<i>Sericornis</i>	<i>perspicillatus</i>	E313	Acanthizidae	AY488324	AY488481
<i>Amytornis</i>	<i>striatus</i>	SGW1	Maluridae	AY488325	AY488482
<i>Malurus</i>	<i>lamberti</i>	VW104	Maluridae	AY488326	AY488483
<i>Malurus</i>	<i>splendens</i>	SW683	Maluridae	AY488327	AY488484
<i>Stipiturus</i>	<i>mallee</i>	MEW1	Maluridae	AY488328	AY488485