



## Resolving deep lineage divergences in core corvoid passerine birds supports a proto-Papuan island origin



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### ABSTRACT

It is well established that the global expansion of songbirds (Oscines) originated in East Gondwana (present day Australo-Papua), and it has been postulated that one of the main constituent groups, the “core Corvoidea”, with more than 750 species, originated in the first islands that emerged where New Guinea is now located. However, several polytomous relationships remained within the clade, obstructing detailed biogeographical interpretations. This study presents a well-resolved family-level phylogeny, based on a dataset of 22 nuclear loci and using a suite of partitioning schemes and Maximum Likelihood and Bayesian inference methods. Resolving the relationships within the core Corvoidea provides evidence for three well-supported main clades, which are in turn sister to the New Zealand genus *Mohoua*. Some monotypic lineages, which have previously been considered *Incertae sedis*, are also placed in a phylogenetic context. The well-resolved phylogeny provides a robust framework for biogeographical analyses, and provides further support for the hypothesis that core corvoids originated in the proto-Papuan island region that emerged north of Australia in the late Oligocene/early Miocene. Thus, the core Corvoidea appear to represent a true island radiation, which successfully colonized all continents except Antarctica.

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### 1. Introduction

Passerine birds (Passeriformes) comprise more than half of all extant bird species (>3500 sp., Gill and Donsker, 2012). They are divided into two major groups, Suboscines (Tyranni) and Oscines (Passeri), based on morphology (Raikow, 1982), anatomy (Ames, 1971) and molecular data (Sibley and Ahlquist, 1990; Barker et al., 2004; Hackett et al., 2008). The most basal oscine lineages occur in Australia (Christidis and Schodde, 1991; Ericson et al., 2002; Barker et al., 2004), with some sub-radiations in adjacent island regions, whereas the more terminal oscine lineages underwent extensive diversification and geographical expansions leading to their contemporary global distribution (Ericson et al., 2002; Barker et al., 2004). The two largest clades within the oscines are the Passerida (>3500 species) and an assemblage referred to as the “core Corvoidea” in recent publications. The present study focuses on the core Corvoidea that includes more than 750 species divided in 24 families (Gill and Donsker, 2012).

Core corvoids occur worldwide, and include species-rich families with almost cosmopolitan distributions as well as species poor or even monotypic lineages, most of which are endemic to the rainforests of New Guinea. The large Passerida radiation is nested within a small assemblage of “transitional oscines”, which appear to be rooted in New Guinea. The strong contemporary signature of New Guinean taxa at the base of both the Passerida and the core Corvoidea recently led to the proposal of an origin of these radiations in a proto-Papuan archipelago, which later rose to become present-day New Guinea (Jønsson et al., 2011).

Two dispersal scenarios have been proposed: (i) Basal oscines colonised New Guinea from Australia during the Eocene–Oligocene, 25–45 million years ago (Mya), and gave rise to an early insular core corvoid radiation, which subsequently dispersed to Asia and onwards to other continents (Jønsson et al., 2011), or (ii) the core corvoids originally evolved in Australia and spread all other the world, by using the Malesian archipelagos as stepping stones to reach Eurasia (Ericson et al., 2002). The latter however, would imply a greater diversity of core corvoid taxa in Australia than can be seen today, although we may envisage a significant diversity loss due to extinction (Hawkins et al., 2005; Byrne et al., 2011) as most of Australia changed from mesic to arid

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climatic conditions in the course of the upper Tertiary (Fujioka and Chappell, 2010).

Both dispersal scenarios are plausible in view of the plate tectonic models for the region. Australia was once part of the supercontinent Gondwana. This broke up around 80 Mya, and the Australian landmass started moving northwards ca 40 Mya and collided with the Eurasian plate some 10–20 Mya (Hall, 2002, 2009). These movements caused an uplift of the proto-Papuan islands in the epicontinental seas over the northern part of the Australasian plate, and the appearance of a volcanic arc (the Sunda Arc) along the plate subduction zone, with a string of islands emerging west of New Guinea towards Eurasia (Hall, 2009). These new islands provided new habitats and may have acted both as a driver for speciation and as stepping-stones for dispersal between Australo-Papua and Asia. In this process, numerous new evolutionary lineages emerged within a relatively short time frame (Jönsson et al., 2011; Kennedy et al., 2012), causing substantial difficulty in defining clades and relationships among them. Some phylogenetic structure has been determined, but a polytomy, or multifurcating phylogenetic node of several core corvoidea families has remained (Norman et al., 2009; Jönsson et al., 2011), and some species have still not been assigned to any family.

Polytomies significantly impede reliable assessments of ancestral areas of origin (Ree et al., 2005), and a better resolution of the basal branching pattern of the core Corvoidea was therefore needed to understand historical biogeographical patterns and processes. Polytomies may reflect insufficient data (“soft polytomy”), but they may also be real (“hard polytomy”) and reflect conflicting signals in the data as a result of differences among gene trees due to incomplete lineage sorting (Maddison, 1997). A hard polytomy could arise if ancestral populations diversified simultaneously and were non-dichotomously broken up into several daughter species, which could well be the case during a colonization sweep across an archipelago. It is interesting to understand whether the core corvoidea families did in fact radiate so fast as to produce a star-like polytomy, or whether a more robust bifurcating phylogeny can be generated, allowing us to determine a specific sequence of vicariance and dispersal events.

In this study we used 22 nuclear markers for 45 passerine bird (32 core corvoidea) taxa representing all deep lineages of the core Corvoidea in an attempt to robustly resolve systematic relationships. Analysed within an explicit spatio-temporal framework we use the phylogeny to elucidate biogeographical patterns of dispersal and diversification within core corvoidea passerine birds.

## 2. Methods

### 2.1. Taxonomic sampling and laboratory procedures

Taxon sampling included 45 taxa of passerine birds (43 oscines) (Table 1), which were chosen to represent all core corvoidea family branches identified by previous, more densely sampled studies. 32 taxa represent the 24 families within the core Corvoidea and all *Incertae sedis* taxa, and 11 other taxa represent the Passerida (6 taxa) and the basal oscines (5 taxa). *Acanthisitta chloris* is well established as the sister group to all other passerine birds (Ericson et al., 2002) and was used to root the tree.

22 nuclear loci were chosen as markers (*ALDOB*, *BDNF*, *BRAM*, *CHZ*, *CLTC*, *CRYAA*, *c-MOS*, *c-MYC*, *EEF2*, *EGR1*, *Fib-5*, *GAPDH*, *IRF2*, *Myo2*, *NTF3*, *ODC*, *PCBD1*, *RAG1*, *RAG2*, *RHO*, *TGFb2*, *TPM1*), relying largely on the markers used by Hackett et al. (2008) and some other markers that have proven useful for resolving avian phylogenies. As such, molecular data (19–22 loci) for 8 taxa included in the study by Hackett et al. (2008) were readily available from GenBank. Two nuclear protein-coding loci, *RAG1* and *RAG2*, were

sourced from Barker et al. (2004). Additionally, molecular data (6–8 loci) for 3 taxa (*Melampitta*, *Rhagologus* and *Pityriasis*) available on Genbank were included. All other sequences (2–20 loci for 35 species) were generated *de novo* for this study.

Fresh tissue samples were obtained for 35 taxa, and the DNA extracted using a standard Qiagen® kit and sequenced by capillary electrophoresis. Primers were selected based on previous studies (Table 2). A standard protocol of 10 µl dNTPs (10 µM), 6.5 µl ddH<sub>2</sub>O, 2.5 µl buffer, 2 µl forward primer (10 µM), 2 µl reverse primer (10 µM) and 0.1–0.2 µl enzyme (AmpliTaq® DNA Polymerase) was employed, using standard kit reagents and buffers from Invitrogen®. All DNA sequences were deposited on GenBank (Table 3).

### 2.2. Sequence alignment

PCR products were sequenced in both directions by Macrogen Inc., using an ABI 3730xl sequencing machine. The raw sequences obtained were assembled into contigs using Sequencher 5.0 (GeneCodes Corp.) and along with additional sequences downloaded from GenBank aligned in SeaView (Gouy et al., 2010), using the MUSCLE alignment algorithm. (Edgar, 2004). We repeated the alignment process using MAFFT v6 (Katoh et al., 2002 and Katoh and Toh, 2008, <http://www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/msa/mafft/>). All analyses were run using both alignments. Inspecting each individual alignment did not reveal any unusual misalignments and we therefore did not modify any of the alignments further. All sequences were examined using the BLAST tool in GenBank (Altschul et al., 1990), and coding regions were checked for the presence of indels or stop codons that may have disrupted the reading frame.

### 2.3. Data partitioning

We used Modeltest 3.7 (Posada and Crandall, 1998) to determine the most appropriate model of nucleotide evolution for each locus following the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC). A supermatrix was then constructed for the entire dataset, which resulted in a concatenated alignment of 22 loci for 45 taxa with a total length of 19,782 base pairs (bp) (Table 4). A preliminary analysis of 20 million generations in MrBayes (Huelsenbeck and Ronquist, 2001; Ronquist and Huelsenbeck, 2003) was run for each gene partition to provide an initial notion of the resolution of the phylogenies, as well as identifying any misidentified taxa or spurious sequences.

We separated exons from introns and trimmed these to GenBank annotations, as well as codon-aligning separate exons, to produce a concatenated exon alignment and a concatenated intron alignment, which were analysed separately. Modeltest was used to determine the most appropriate model for each partition in the two datasets. Because exons code for amino acids, we translated the bases of the exon alignment into an amino acid alignment, by way of the align-by-codons direct translation option in MEGA 5.0 (Tamura et al., 2011). This allows for a direct detection of stop-codons, which suggests that the gene is non-functional and therefore should not be used in the phylogenetic analysis. It also allows for analysing the exon data both by base pairs and by amino acids.

### 2.4. Testing for selection

The individual and the concatenated exon alignments were tested for traces of positive or negative selection using MEGA 5.0 (Tamura et al., 2011) and the implemented HyPhy application (Pond and Muse, 2005), set up with codon-aligned alignments, using all sites, and a neighbour-joining starting tree. We tested this to avoid using any exons under positive or purifying selection (Seabury et al., 2004), as such exons might cause a biased phylogenetic signal (Swanson et al., 2001).

**Table 1**

Taxa included in this study. Each taxon represents a number of species in one or more families following Gill and Donsker (2012). Voucher and tissue numbers (AIM = Auckland Institute and Museum; AMNH = American Museum of Natural History, New York; ANWC = Australian National Wildlife Collection, Canberra; CMC = Canterbury Museum, Christchurch; MV = Museum Victoria, Melbourne; ZMUC = Natural History Museum of Denmark, University of Copenhagen.) are indicated for taxa that were sequenced for this study. Additional vouchers in parentheses indicate field vouchers. Asterisks indicate taxa for which all sequences were sourced from GenBank. All family relationships are based on the IOC master list, 2012 – exceptions (in italics) are referenced in comments.

Taxa included in this study	Families represented in this study	Number of species represented	Voucher/tissue numbers	Taxonomic comments
<b>Core Corvoidea</b>				
<i>Aegithina tiphia</i>	Aegithinidae	4	ZMUC 139604	
<i>Artamus cinereus</i>	Artamidae	11	MV Z1288	
<i>Batis crypta</i>	Platysteridae	30	ZMUC 145955	
<i>Cinclosoma punctatum</i>	<i>Incertae Sedis</i>	9	ANWC B34989	<i>Cinclosoma</i> removed from Psophodidae, along with <i>Ptilorrhoa</i>
<i>Coracina salomonis</i>	Campephagidae	92	ZMUC 139341	
<i>Corcorax melanorhamphos</i>	Corcoracidae	2	ANWCB31070	
<i>Corvus corone</i>	Corvidae	129	*	
<i>Daphoenositta chrysoptera</i>	Neositidae	3	ANWC B29699	
<i>Dicrurus ludwigii</i>	Dicruridae	25	ZMUC 143102	Excluding <i>Chaetorhynchus</i>
<i>Dryoscopus cubla</i>	Malaconotidae	50	ZMUC 142936	
<i>Eulacestoma nigropectus</i>	<i>Incertae sedis</i>	1	ANWC B24552 (MV E192)	
<i>Falcunculus frontatus</i>	Pachycephalidae	1	ANWC B49341	
<i>Gymnorhina tibicen</i>	Cracticidae	10	MV Z2776	
<i>Ifrita kowaldi</i>	<i>Incertae Sedis</i>	1	ANWC B24226 (MV E297)	
<i>Lanius collaris</i>	Laniidae	33	ZMUC 128600	
<i>Machaerirhynchus flaviventer</i>	Machaerirhynchidae	2	ANWC B31507	
<i>Melampitta gigantea</i>	<i>Incertae sedis</i>	2	*	
<i>Mohoua albicilla</i>	<i>Incertae sedis</i>	2	AIM 04-011	
<i>Monarcha castaneiventris</i>	Monarchidae	94	ZMUC 139475	
<i>Oreocharis arfaki</i>	Paramythiidae	2	ANWC B26914 (MV E373)	
<i>Oreoica gutturalis</i>	Oreocidae	3	ANWC B32777	Including <i>Aleadryas rufinucha</i> and <i>Ornorectes cristatus</i>
<i>Oriolus oriolus</i>	Oriolidae	35	ZMUC 138401	
<i>Pachycephala pectoralis</i>	Pachycephalidae	50	ZMUC 139478	
<i>Peltops blainvillii</i>	Cracticidae	2	ANWC B26510 (MV C204)	
<i>Pityriasis gymnocephala</i>	Pityriaseidae	1	*	
<i>Platylophus galericulatus</i>	Corvidae	1	ZMUC 139719	
<i>Prionops retzii</i>	Prionopidae, Tephrodornithidae, Vangidae	39	ZMUC 117527	
<i>Psophodes olivaceus</i>	Psophodidae	5	ANWC B31492	
<i>Ptiloris magnificus</i>	Paradisaeadae	41	ANWC B29761	
<i>Rhagologus leucostigma</i>	<i>Incertae sedis</i>	1	*	
<i>Rhipidura cockerellii</i>	Rhipiduridae	46	ZMUC 138568	Including <i>Chaetorhynchus</i>
<i>Vireolanius leucotis</i>	Vireonidae	63	ZMUC 120284	
<b>Other Oscines</b>				
<i>Bombycilla garrulus</i>	All Passerida	~3500	*	
<i>Climacteris</i> sp.	Climacteridae, Ptilonorhynchidae	27	*	
<i>Cnemophilus lorae</i>	Cnemophilidae	3	ANWC B26861 (MV E283)	
<i>Malurus</i> sp.	Acanthizidae, Dasyornithidae, Maluridae, Meliphagidae, Pardalotidae,	283	*	
<i>Melanocharis nigra</i>	Melanocharitidae	10	ANWC B15334 (MV E610)	
<i>Menura novaehollandiae</i>	Atrichornithidae, Menuridae	4	*	
<i>Orthonyx teminckii</i>	Orthonycidae	3	ANWC B46353	
<i>Petroica multicolor</i>	Petroicidae	46	ZMUC 139505	
<i>Philesturnus carunculatus</i>	Callaeidae, Notiomystidae	5	AMNH DOT11059	
<i>Picathartes gymnocephalus</i>	Chaetopidae, Eupetidae, Picathartidae	5	*	
<i>Pomatostomus halli</i>	Pomatostomidae	2	ANWC B28760	
<b>Suboscines and Acanthisittidae</b>				
<i>Acanthisitta chloris</i>	Acanthisittidae	2	CMC 41302	
<i>Pitta</i> sp.	All suboscines	~1300	*	

**Table 2**

Primer information. All Polymerase chain reactions (PCRs) were run for 40 cycles. Touchdown (TD) PCRs were run by running five cycles using the highest annealing temperature indicated, followed by five cycles with an annealing temperature one degree below and so on. The lowest indicated annealing temperature was used for the remaining PCR cycles. Bold characters indicate the avian chromosome on which the gene is positioned.

	Primer name	Primer sequence	Annealing T (°C)	Chromosome	Reference
1	AIDOB (ca 2000 bp)			<b>Z</b>	
	AldB.3F	GCCATTTCCAGCTCTCATCAAAG	58		Hackett et al. (2008)
	AldB.7R	AGCAGTGTCCCTTCCAGGTASAC			Hackett et al. (2008)
	AldB.6F	GAGCCAGAAGTCTTACCTGAYGG	50		Cox et al. (2007)
2	AldB.8R	GCTCKCCCGTATGAGAAGGTACGYTT			Hackett et al. (2008)
	BDNF (602 bp)		55	<b>5</b>	
	ChickBDNF5	ATGACCATCCTTTTCTTACTATG			Sehgal and Lovette. (2003)
	ChickBDNF3	TCTTCCCTTTTAATGGTTAATGTAC			Sehgal and Lovette (2003)
BRAM (500–600 bp)		47–49	<b>3</b>		
BRM15F	AGCACCTTTGAACAGTGGTT	TD		Goodwin (1997)	
4	BRM15R	TACTTTATGGAGACGACGGA			Goodwin (1997)
	CHZ (500–600 bp)		39–45	<b>2</b>	
CHDZ-E16	GACATCCTGGCAGAGTATCT	TD			Griffiths and Korn (1997)
5	CHDZ-E15	TAGAGAGATTGAGAACTACAGT			Griffiths and Korn (1997)
	CLTC (1392 bp)		63–55	<b>19</b>	
	CLTC.e6Fnew	CTACATGAACAGAATCAGTGGAGAGAC	TD		Chojnowski et al. (2008)
	CLTC.e7Rnew	GCTGCCACTTTTGCTGCCTCTGAATA			Chojnowski et al. (2008)
CRYAA (ca 1200)		63	<b>1</b>		
CRY.1F	TACTATYCACGCCCTGGTTCAA			Hackett et al. (2008)	
CRY.2R	CTGTCTTCACTGTGCTTGCCRTGRAT			Hackett et al. (2008)	
7	c-mos (607 bp)		44	<b>4</b>	
	944	GCCTGGTGCTCCATCGACTGG			Cooper and Penny. (1997)
	1550	GCAAATGAGTAGATGTCTGCT			Cooper and Penny (1997)
8	c-MYC (ca 1100 bp)		53	<b>2</b>	
	MYC-F-01	TAATTAAGGGCAGCTTGAGTC			Harshman et al. (2003)
	MYC-R-01	CCAAAGTATCAATTATGAGGCA			Harshman et al. (2003)
9	EEF2 (1743)			<b>28</b>	
	EEF2.5F	GAAACAGTTTGTGAGATGTATGTTGC	60		Hackett et al. (2008)
	EEF2.7R	GGTTTGCCTCCTTGTCTTATC			Hackett et al. (2008)
	EEF2.6F	CCTTGAYCCCATCTTYAAGT	58		Hackett et al. (2008)
	EEF2.9R	CCATGATYCTGACTTTCARGCCACT			Hackett et al. (2008)
10	EGR1(ZENK) (1200 bp) exon		48	<b>13</b>	
	Z1F	AGAAACCAGCTATCCCAAYCAA			Chubb (2004)
	Z9R	CTCAATTGTCCTGGAGAAAAGG			Chubb (2004)
	Z7R (ONLY FOR SEQUENCING)	CGTAAAACCTCCGGTCACAG			Chubb (2004)
	Z3F (ONLY FOR SEQUENCING)	CCCTATGCCTGCCAGTGGAGTCC			Chubb (2004)
11	Fib5 (500–600 bp)		52–56	<b>4</b>	
	Fib5	CGCCATACAGAGTATACTGTGACAT	TD		Fuchs et al. (2004)
	Fib6	GCCATCCTGGCGAATTCGAA			Fuchs et al. (2004)
12	GAPDH (ca 300 bp)		63	<b>1</b>	
	G3PL890	ACCTTTAATGCGGGTGCTGGCATTGC			Friesen et al. (1997)
	G3PH950	CATCAAGTCCACAACACGGTTGCTGTA			Friesen et al. (1997)
13	IRF2 (632)		55–56	<b>4</b>	
	IRF2.2F	ATGTCTTGGGTGCGGTTTA	TD		Hackett et al. (2008)
	IRF2.3R	GAAACTGGGCAATTCACACA			Hackett et al. (2008)
14	Myo2 (ca 800 bp) introns		54	<b>1</b>	
	Myo2	GCCACCAAGCACAAGATCCC			Slade et al. (1993)
	Myo3	CGGAAGAGCTCCAGGCCTT			Slade et al. (1993)
	Myo3F	TTCAGCAAGGACCTTGATAATGACTT			Heslewood et al. (2005)
15	NTF3 (695 bp)		55	<b>1</b>	
	ChickNT3F and ChickNT3R	ATGTCCATCTGTTTTATGTG GTTCTTCTATTTTCTTGAC			Sehgal and Lovette (2003) Sehgal and Lovette (2003)
16	ODC (ca 600 bp) introns		59	<b>2</b>	
	OD6	GACTCCAAAGCAGTTTGTCTGCTCAGTGT			Allen et al. (2003)
17	OD8R	TCITCAGAGCCAGGGAAGCCACCAAT			Allen et al. (2003)
	PCBD1 (936 bp)		64	<b>6</b>	
PCBD.2F	AGAGCTGTGGGTGGAACGAGGTGGA		Hackett et al. (2008)		
PCBD.4R	TCRTGGGTGCTCAAGGTGATGTGAAC		Hackett et al. (2008)		
18	RHO (1057)		57–55	<b>12</b>	
	Rhod1F	GAACGGGTACTTTGTCTTTGGAGTAAC	TD		Cox et al. (2007)
	Rhod1R	CCCATGATGGCGTGTCTCCCC			Cox et al. (2007)
19	TGFb2 (500–600 bp)		54–55	<b>3</b>	
	TGFb2-5F	TTGTTACCCTCCTACAGACTTGAGTC	TD		Sorenson et al. (2004)
	TGFb2-6R	GACGCAGGCAATATCC			Sorenson et al. (2004)
20	TPM1 (489 bp)		60	<b>10</b>	
	F	AATGGCTGCAGAGATAA			Primmer et al. (2002)
	R	TCCTCTCAAGCTCAGCACA			Primmer et al. (2002)

## 2.5. Taxon partitioning

For a number of species, only some of the 22 loci amplified. Although, it has been suggested that missing data has little impact

on Bayesian phylogenetic tree estimation and corresponding support values (Wiens and Moen, 2008), we ran additional Bayesian and Maximum likelihood analyses on a concatenated alignment that only included taxa for which we had more than 11 loci



**Table 4**

Alignment details. Length of alignments, the best models of nucleotide substitution as estimated by Modeltest following the Akaike Information Criterion Details, invariant sites and indels. Synapomorphic indels are highlighted in bold and are mapped onto Fig. 1 in the main text. Homoplastic indels are in italics, while autamorphic indels are in plain text.

Single gene alignmen	Base pairs	Taxa	Model (AIC)	Base pairs	Model (AIC)	Base pairs	Model (AIC)	Invariant sites	Convergence (Million generations)	Indels larger than 2 Base pairs
				Introns		Exons				
AIDOB	1328	23	TVM + G	904	TVM + G	423	K81 + I + G	792	2	172–176, 330–333, 437–459, 699–701, 756–765, 786–791, <b>1165–1178</b>
BDNF	690	38	GTR + I + G	–	–	692	TIM + I + G	549	2	–
BRAM	442	37	TVM + G	377	TVM + G	64	TIM + I + G	130	2	118–131, 181–236, 288–294
c-MOS	615	38	TrN + I + G	–	–	614	TrN + I + G	388	2	306–317
c-MYC	501	41	HKY + I + G	–	–	501	HKY + I + G	374	2	51–53
CHZ	542	29	GTR + G	542	TVM + G	–	–	157	2	33–35, 52–69, <b>91–94</b> , 172–181, 176–185, 192–195, <b>204–207</b> , <b>223–262</b> , 272–281, 423–426, 474–504
CLTC	845	37	GTR + G	697	GTR + G	141	K80 + G	272	2	351–358, 441–448, 485–488, 490–493, 550–558, 563–566, <b>585–594</b> , <b>598–601</b> , 707–711
CRYAA	1244	35	TrN + G	1130	HKY + G	116	–	387	2	123–132, <b>207–218</b> , <b>235–243</b> , 256–259, 410–413, 445–450, 462–464, 492–497, 527–530, <b>574–581</b> , 608–616, 782–794, 947–1006, <b>1122–1129</b> , 1176–1212
EEF2	1467	33	F81uf + I + G	1292	HKY + G	181	GTR + I + G	592	2	48–111, 117–136, <b>232–234</b> , 266–271, 479–500, 733–735, 914–925, 961–963, 1055–1059, 1105–1107, 1149–1153, 1274–1279, 1282–1289, <b>1317–1319</b> , 1355–1370, 1386–1390, 1414–1417
EGR1	1215	34	GTR + I + G	–	–	1215	GTR + I + G	837	2	163–168, 607–611
Fib5	630	41	TVM + G	601	GTR + G	28	–	153	2	37–46, <b>59–63</b> , 164–167, 217–219, 254–268, 412–429, 474–479
GAPDH	443	45	GTR + G	392	GTR + G	51	–	132	2	47–56, 80–84, <b>118–120</b> , <b>143–163</b> , 156–158, 173–180, 214–216, 242–246, 267–311, 358–362
IRF2	657	29	GTR + G	657	GTR + G	–	–	295	2	<b>119–121</b> , 130–134, 292–297, 409–414, <b>523–547</b>
Myo2	616	44	K80 + G	609	K80 + G	–	–	266	2	20–22, 192–195, 203–205, 359–365
NTF3	673	34	GTR + I + G	–	–	672	GTR + I + G	530	2	–
ODC	799	43	F81uf + G	679	TVM + G	120	K80 + G	221	2	<b>51–59</b> , 162–172, 392–405, 430–432, <b>443–446</b> , 455–537, <b>592–597</b> , 624–632, 683–724, 753–767
PCBD1	887	33	GTR + I + G	808	GTR + G	81	F81 + G	271	2	<b>187–196</b> , 222–226, 282–284, <b>292–305</b> , 439–441, 474–476, <b>589–592</b> , 702–704, 784–790, 797–814
RAG1	2935	42	GTR + I + G	–	–	2934	GTR + I + G	1937	2	51–110
RAG2	1152	35	TVM + I + G	–	–	1152	TVM + I + G	727	2	–
RHO	980	28	K80 + G	965	K80 + G	18	–	370	2	10–16, 23–27, 136–138, <b>400–413</b> , 646–651, 777–785, 951–953
TGFb2	643	38	GTR + G	626	GTR + G	15	–	189	2	149–151, <b>211–216</b> , 282–284, <b>333–336</b> , 440–449, 566–587, <b>621–624</b>
TPM1	478	25	TrN + G	474	TrN + G	3	–	347	2	127–131
<i>Concatenated datasets</i>										
Full dataset	19782	45	–	–	–	–	–	–	20	–
Taxa with min 12 loci	19782	37	–	–	–	–	–	–	12	–
Introns	10761	45	–	–	–	–	–	–	2	–
Exons (aminos)	9021	45	–	–	–	–	–	–	40	–
11 <i>Mohoua</i> loci	9410	45	–	–	–	–	–	–	2	–

(50%). This concatenated alignment included 37 (21 out of 32 core corvids) taxa, thereby excluding *Cinclosoma*, *Melampitta*, *Mohoua*, *Vireolanius*, *Philesturnus*, *Pityriasis*, *Platylophus*, and *Rhagologus*. Of the eight taxa for which we only had sequence data of 11 loci or fewer, one taxon is not a core corvid (*Philesturnus*) and six other taxa did not present any major systematic surprises. However, our finding that the New Zealand *Mohoua* represents the sister taxon of all other core corvids led us to further investigate the data underlying the determination of its systematic position. We therefore, ran additional analyses in MrBayes, BEAST and RAxML on a concatenated dataset of the 11 genes, we had successfully sequenced for *Mohoua*, to investigate if missing data had any impact on its systematic placement.

## 2.6. Phylogenetic analyses and dating

Maximum Likelihood and Bayesian inference were used to generate phylogenetic hypotheses. Maximum Likelihood analyses in RAxML 7.3.0 (Stamatakis et al., 2008) were run on all gene partitions as well as on the concatenated alignment. The GTRGAMMA model was used for both tree inference and bootstrapping, with 1000 nonparametric bootstrap pseudoreplicates.

For Bayesian inference we used MrBayes v 3.1.2 (Ronquist and Huelsenbeck, 2003) and BEAST 1.6 (Drummond and Rambaut, 2007). The individual gene partition analyses were run for 20 million generations, the concatenated alignment, the exon alignment, and the intron alignment were run for 100 million generations, using the models specified by Modeltest. In all analyses, gene partitions were unlinked and a posterior distribution of trees was approximated by Bayesian MC<sup>3</sup> (Metropolis-Coupled Markov Chain Monte Carlo), with two runs each with four chains (three cold and one heated). Convergence of the Monte Carlo runs was graphically checked by monitoring cumulative posterior split probabilities and among-run variability using AWTY (Wilgenbusch et al., 2004). The generations before the chains reached apparent stationarity were discarded as burnin. We used a standard burnin of 10% of the run for all analyses, and altered in concordance with convergence diagnostics. As such, burnins for various analyses varied between 2 and 12 million generations for most analyses, but 20 million generations for the full dataset analysis, and 40 million generations for the amino acid partition (Table 4). For each data partition (single genes, exons, introns) as well as for the concatenated dataset, phylogenetic analyses were summarised as 50% majority-rule consensus trees.

Analyses in BEAST were run for 50 million generations for the complete concatenated alignment, the exon alignment, and the intron alignment, unlinking models, and using a relaxed uncorrelated lognormal distribution for the molecular clock model and assuming a Yule speciation process for the tree prior. We also used BEAST to estimate divergence times. Taxon sets were defined following the results of analyses in MrBayes and RAxML, and to establish an absolute chronology of diversification events we used one geological and one secondary calibration point. We used normal distributed priors and set the Time of the Most Recent Common Ancestor (TMRCA) at 76 Mya ± 8 standard deviations (SD) (95% confidence interval = 62.8–89.2 Mya) for the split between *Acanthisitta* and all other passerines, and TMRCA at 63 Mya, ± 2 SD (95% confidence interval = 59.7–66.3 Mya) for the split between *Menura* and all other oscine passerine birds (Barker et al., 2004). Using these secondary calibration points may not be ideal. In particular, the assumption that the origin of the New Zealand endemic taxon *Acanthisitta* dates back to the origin of New Zealand some 80 Mya may be an overestimate leading to inflated age estimates of node ages (Worthy et al., 2010). However, because early passerine fossils cannot be placed confidently within the passerine crown group (Mayr, 2009), these calibrations appear to be among the few

existing options for obtaining absolute date estimates. Ultimately, comparing the dated phylogeny with tectonic events and other studies using different means of dating may provide some assessment of the validity of the age estimates. All analyses in BEAST were repeated multiple times and convergence diagnostics were checked in Tracer (Rambaut and Drummond, 2007), determining convergence success by ESS and mean distribution values. An output tree was summarized in TreeAnnotator (Drummond and Rambaut, 2007) and burnin was set to five million generations.

The MrBayes and RAxML analyses were run on the internet portal, The CIPRES Gateway (Miller et al., 2011), and RAxML was also run directly on the Exelixis lab tool, RAxML BlackBox (Stamatakis et al., 2008).

## 2.7. Indel mapping

All individual alignments were checked for indels larger than 2 basepairs, and present in more than two species (Table 4) and the phylogenetic information compared to the phylogenetic structure obtained from the model based phylogenetic analyses.

## 2.8. Ancestral area reconstruction

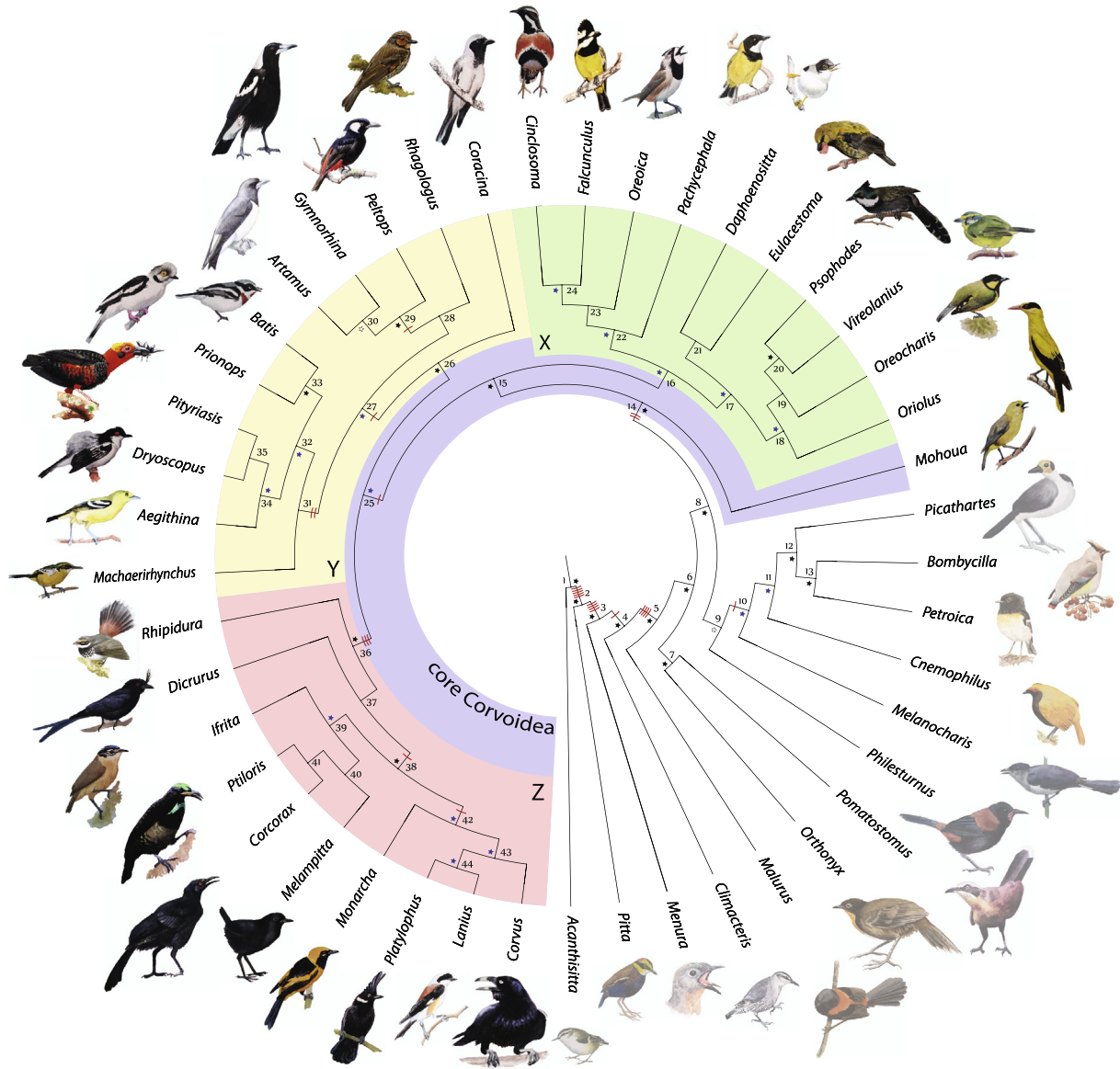
LAGRANGE was used to compute ancestral areas (Ree et al., 2005; Ree and Smith, 2008; Smith, 2009). We randomly selected 1000 trees from the posterior distribution of the BEAST analysis of the concatenated dataset and ran LAGRANGE on each of these trees. The frequency of the most likely ancestral areas for clades was plotted as marginal distributions on the tree derived from the BEAST MCMC, recording the area (maxareas = 2) with the highest relative probability for each node. We repeated the analysis with maxareas = 3 to accommodate for the fact that some taxa have contemporary distributions that span more than two regions. This however, did not have any significant impact on the results of the ancestral state reconstruction and the strong “New Guinea origin” signal remained unaffected. In our ancestral area reconstruction analysis, the distribution of each taxon in the phylogeny represents the distribution of all members belonging to the particular clade (Table 1). Additionally, we performed an ancestral area analysis using only a constrained core distribution of the members of a clade, disregarding recent secondary colonization events. For example, if a group of eight species has seven species in Australia and one in New Guinea, the constrained distribution was considered Australian. We also relied on published papers, which have explicitly assessed the area of origin for a family. Based on contemporary species distributions obtained from the IOC world bird species list (Gill and Donsker, 2012) we assigned nine areas: AF: Africa, AM: Americas, AS: Eurasia, AU: Australia, NG: New Guinea, NZ: New Zealand, PH: Philippines, WA: Wallacea, and PO: Pacific Ocean islands.

## 3. Results

### 3.1. Analyses of the concatenated dataset

A total of 541 gene sequences were sequenced *de novo* (Table 3) and an additional 246 sequences were obtained from GenBank, providing an overall dataset of 787 gene sequences for 45 taxa. For locus details, see Table 4. Analyses of the molecular data aligned using MUSCLE and MAFFT did not reveal any significant topological differences.

Analysing the concatenated dataset in MrBayes and BEAST produced identical trees (Figs. 1–3). Both analyses converged after preliminary runs of 20 million generation but were run for 100 million generations to reduce the risk of any additional chain swaps. ESS values were all higher than 100 suggesting little



**Fig. 1.** 50% Majority rule consensus tree of the concatenated dataset (19,782 base pairs) of the core Corvoidea based on 100 million generations in MrBayes (branch lengths not representative) with illustrations representing the taxa included in the study. Core corvoid lineages are highlighted in colours. The coloured areas frame the individual clades; blue denoting the entire core Corvoidea, and green, yellow and pink denoting the clades X, Y and Z, respectively. Stars indicate supported nodes. Black stars indicate well-supported relationships across all analyses. Blue stars indicate Bayesian support (MrBayes and/or BEAST) and white stars indicate maximum likelihood support (RAxML).

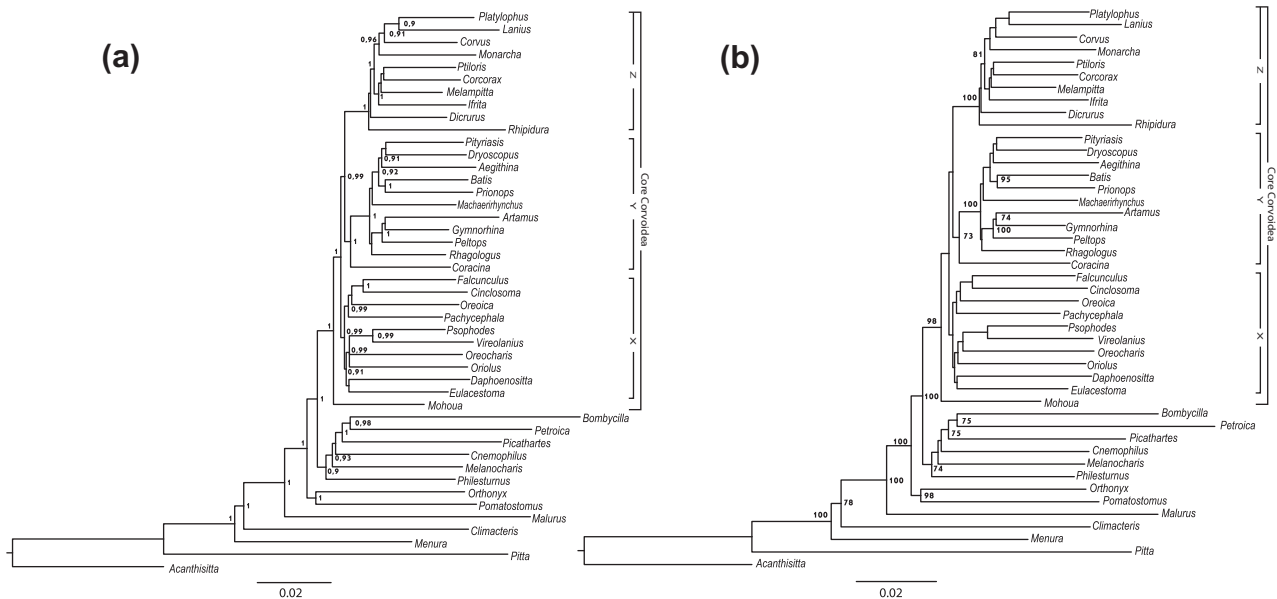
auto-correlation between the samples. 20 million generations were discarded as burnin from the MrBayes run, and 10 million generations were discarded as burnin from the BEAST run. We consider nodes well supported when posterior probabilities are  $\geq 0.95$  and when bootstrap support values are  $\geq 70$ . All other nodes are considered unsupported. The maximum likelihood topology resulting from analysis using RAxML was identical to the two other topologies, but with fewer well-supported nodes (Fig. 2b).

Our analyses in MrBayes, BEAST and RAxML (Figs. 2 and 3) corroborate previous findings of a monophyletic core Corvoidea (PP = 1 and bootstrap = 98). The most basal lineage within the core corvoid clade is *Mohoua*. After this divergence, the core corvoids split into three well-supported clades, which we refer to as clades X (PP = 0.99), Y (PP = 1, bootstrap = 73) and Z (PP = 1, bootstrap = 100). Relationships among these clades are well supported in the Bayesian analysis (but not in the Maximum Likelihood analysis) such that clades Y and Z are sister (PP = 0.99), and these two clades together are sister to clade X (PP = 1).

Clade X (PP = 0.99) comprises *Falcunculus*, *Cinclosoma*, *Oreoica*, *Pachycephala*, *Psophodes*, *Vireolanius*, *Oreocharis*, *Oriolus*, *Daphoenositta* and *Eulacestoma*. This clade is further split in two subclades. One subclade (PP = 0.99) with *Cinclosoma* as sister to *Falcunculus* (PP = 1) is sequentially sister to *Oreoica* and *Pachycephala*. The other subclade (not supported) consists of the sister groups of *Daphoenositta* and *Eulacestoma* (not supported), diverging from a group with *Oriolus*, *Oreocharis* and sister taxa *Psophodes* and *Vireolanius* (PP = 0.99).

The next major clade (clade Y; PP = 1, bootstrap = 73) within the core Corvoidea consists of *Coracina*, *Rhagologus*, *Peltops*, *Gymnorhina*, *Artamus*, *Machaerirhynchus*, *Batis*, *Prionops*, *Aegithina*, *Dryoscopus* and *Pityriasis*. *Coracina* is sister to all other members of the clade, which splits into another two subclades. One consists of *Peltops*, *Gymnorhina* and *Artamus* (PP = 1, bootstrap = 100), which is in turn sister to *Rhagologus* (not supported). The other subclade (not supported) has *Machaerirhynchus* sister to two smaller groups – a relationship between *Batis* and *Prionops* (PP = 1, bootstrap = 95),





**Fig. 2.** Phylogenies based on analyses of the full concatenated dataset in (a) MrBayes, and (b) RAXML, with posterior probabilities above 0.90 (MrBayes) or bootstrap values above 70 (RAXML) shown. Core corvoid clades X, Y and Z are discussed in the main text.

and a clade including *Aegithina*, *Dryoscopus* and *Pityriasis* (not supported).

The last major clade (clade Z; PP = 1, bootstrap = 100) comprises *Rhipidura* and *Dicrurus* as the most basal lineages. These are sister to two subclades, one consisting of *Ifrita*, *Melampitta*, *Corcorax* and *Ptiloris* (PP = 1), and the other subclade consisting of *Monarcha*, *Corvus*, *Lanius* and *Platylophus* (PP = 0.96).

Excluding taxa for which less than 12 genes were available, did not change any well-supported relationships, suggesting that missing data does not adversely impact phylogenetic estimates.

### 3.2. Partitioned analyses

All analyses of the individual gene partitions produced trees (not shown) with low resolution and support values.

The Bayesian intron analysis (not shown) converged after 1 million generations. The analysis provided a robust basal part of the phylogeny, supporting all outgroup taxon relationships, and three monophyletic groups to some extent corresponding to the core corvoid clades X, Y and Z. The first clade Y has *Coracina* as the sister (PP = 1) to a polytomy of three lineages, one consisting of *Rhagologus*, a second clade comprising *Peltops*, which is sister (PP = 1) to *Gymnorhina* and *Artamus*, and a third subclade of *Machaerirhynchus* as the sister (not supported) to two smaller groups – *Prionops* and *Batis* (PP = 1), and *Aegithina* sister to *Dryoscopus* and *Pityriasis* (not supported). The second large clade X consists of *Falcunculus* and *Oreoica* (PP = 1) as the sister group of a large polytomy of *Daphoenositta*, *Oriolus*, *Vireolanius*, *Eulacestoma* and a sister group of *Psophodes* and *Oreocharis* (PP = 1). The last clade Z consists of mostly unsupported bifurcations, with *Pachycephala* as the most basal taxon. *Rhipidura* is the sister of *Melampitta* and *Dicrurus* (PP = 1), and an unsupported clade of *Monarcha* sister to two subclades, a clade of *Corvus*, *Lanius* and *Platylophus* (no support) and a clade of *Ifrita* sister (PP = 1) to *Corcorax* and *Ptiloris*.

The selection tests did not reveal selection on any loci. Consequently, we included all exons in the phylogenetic analyses. However, the nuclear DNA exon MCMC-chains failed to converge after 100 million generations, despite several attempts with various parameter settings, codon partitioning and gene partitioning. A translated amino acid alignment converged after 40 million

generations and produced a polytomy of the core Corvoidea, but without a single well-supported node. The Maximum Likelihood analyses provided a slightly more resolved phylogeny, confirming *Psophodes* and *Vireolanius* as sister groups, and this group as sister group to the Vangidae and Platysteridae (*Prionops* and *Batis*). *Cin-closoma* was supported as sister group to *Falcunculus*.

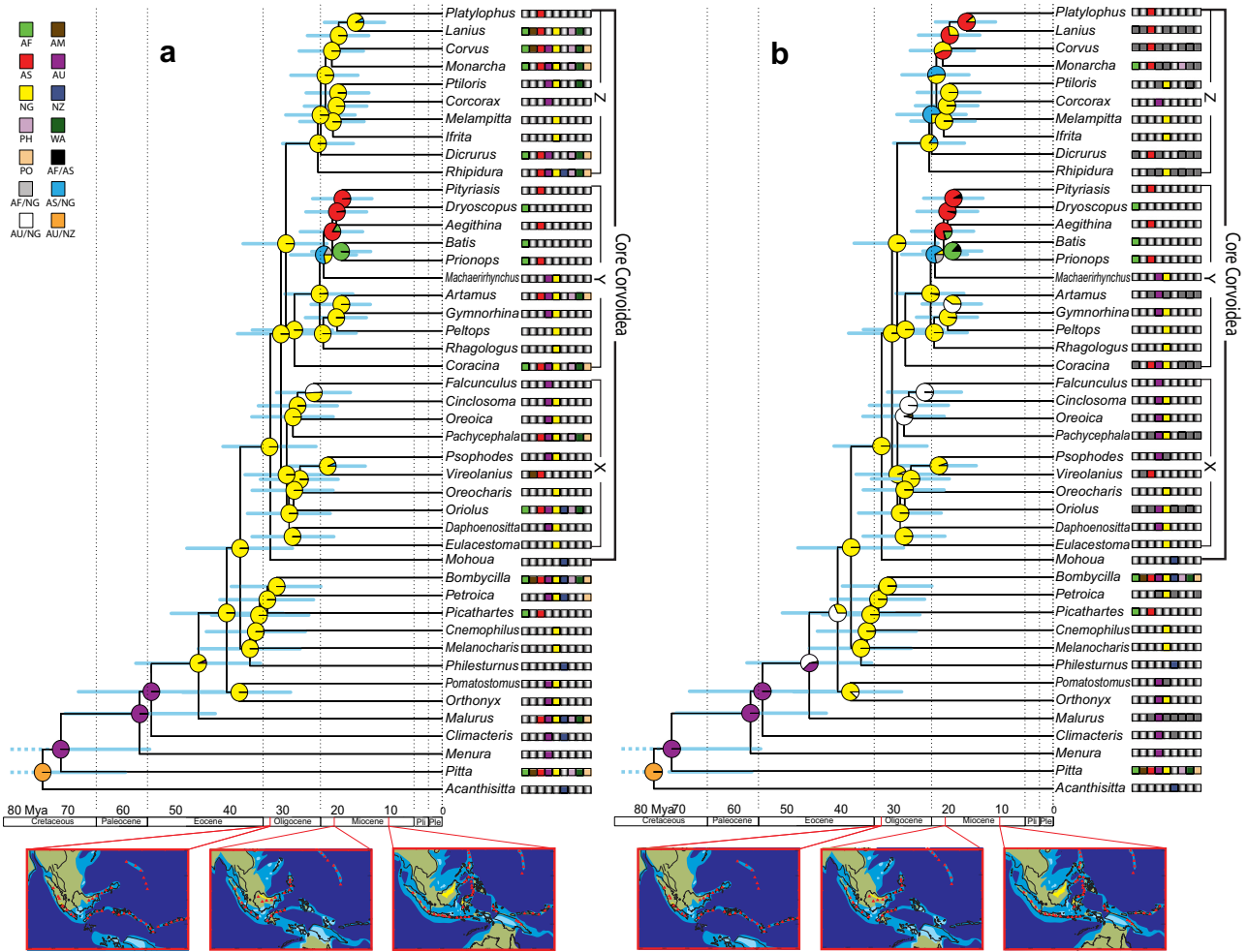
### 3.3. Indel mapping

A total of 128 indels (excluding single nucleotide gaps) were uncovered. Comparing these to the phylogenetic results obtained by the model-based phylogenetic analyses, 28 indels were synapomorphic (Fig. 1), 10 indels were homoplastic, and 90 indels were autapomorphic. All indel sites are indicated in Table 4.

### 3.4. Dating

Dating the phylogeny using secondary calibration points provided rough time estimates of branching events throughout the evolution of the core Corvoidea (Fig. 3). The most basal node of the core Corvoidea, the split between *Mohoua* and the three major clades, was estimated at ~32 Mya and divergences of core corvoid clades X, Y and Z were estimated to take place shortly after within a relatively narrow time span of a few million years.

Because of the poor fossil record for the early Tertiary in the southern hemisphere, divergence time estimates have mainly been based on calibration points relating to plate tectonic events during the early avian history (e. g. Barker et al., 2004; Jönsson et al., 2011). This remains controversial, but the estimated time of early divergence among core corvoid groups, in the late Oligocene, has been remarkably robust to changes in calibration points (e.g., whether the isolation of *Acanthisitta* in New Zealand is assumed to have taken place in the late Cretaceous or early Tertiary). Moreover, a recent study using both fossils and biogeographical events to date eight nodes distributed throughout the passerine tree agrees with this Oligocene origin of the core Corvoidea (Kennedy et al., 2012). The estimated time of origin of the core corvoids corresponds to the time when the Australian plate moved towards Asia, and the proto-Papuan front of the Australian plate, which



**Fig. 3.** Estimated ancestral areas using LAGRANGE, mapped onto the total evidence tree dated in BEAST. (a) Ancestral areas as estimated using the complete distributions (Table 5). (b) Ancestral areas as estimated using the constrained distributions (Table 5). Pie charts at internodes indicate the probability of the area of origin coloured according to the inset legend (AF = Africa, AM = Americas, AS = Asia, AU = Australia, NG = New Guinea, NZ = New Zealand, PH = Phillipines, WA = Wallacea, PO = Pacific Ocean Islands. AF/AS = Africa/Asia, AF/NG = Africa/New Guinea, AS/NG = Asia/New Guinea, AU/NG = Australia/New Guinea, AU/NZ = Australia/New Zealand). Distributions of the clades are indicated to the right of the taxon names. Empty squares indicate no presence in that area, coloured squares indicate presence in areas according to the inset legend, and dark grey squares (only in B) indicate areas omitted from the constrained distribution analysis. Inset maps from Hall (2009) at the bottom show the historical distribution of land in the Indo-Pacific (dark blue = deep sea, intermediate blue = carbonate platforms, light blue = shallow sea, green = land, yellow = highlands, red triangles = volcanoes).

had been submerged in the shallow epicontinental seas, emerged as an archipelago north of Australia (Hall, 2009).

3.5. Ancestral area reconstruction

Ancestral area reconstruction analysis using LAGRANGE (Fig. 3a and b) suggests that Basal oscine lineages (*Menura*, *Climacteris*) originated in Australia. More distal nodes branching off to *Malurus* and *Orthonyx/Pomatostomus* are equivocally determined to be of either Australian or Papuan origin. The Australian origin of basal oscine nodes (*Malurus* and *Orthonyx/Pomatostomus*) is stronger for the constrained analysis that disregards recent secondary dispersal events (Fig. 3b). The origin of the node that includes transitional oscine groups (*Philesturnus* to *Cnemophilus*), The Picathartidae, the Petroicidae, the Passerida (represented here only by *Bombycilla*) and the core Corvoidea appears to have originated in New Guinea. Most certainly the origin of the core Corvoidea and the origin of the three main core corvid clades (X, Y and Z) is Papuan. Members of clade X occur mostly in New Guinea, with some back colonisation into Australia (e.g. *Falcunculus*). Clade Y,

represents some of the exclusively African clades represented by *Dryoscopus*, *Batis* and *Prionops* and the ancestral area reconstruction suggests colonisation via Asia to Africa. Clade Z represents dispersal into Asia, at least if considering the ancestral area analysis of the constrained distributions (Fig. 3b).

4. Discussion

4.1. Towards a robust phylogeny of the core Corvoidea

The robustly resolved phylogeny of the core Corvoidea obtained in this study, based on several methodological approaches, subdivide the core Corvoidea into four major lineages, with *Mohoua* representing a deep branch, as sister to the remaining three clades (Fig. 2). Furthermore, many taxa that have traditionally been difficult to place are now placed in a phylogenetic context with high support. This provides an improved opportunity to more confidently assess the sequence of diversification and thus biogeographical events within the group.

The individual gene trees provided little well-supported resolution across the core Corvoidea. The intron (10,753 base pairs) and exon (9021 base pairs) trees produced some structure, although still with limited support. Analyses of the complete concatenated dataset (19,782 base pairs), however, produced congruent phylogenies across methodological phylogeny estimation approaches (Fig. 2), with the Bayesian approaches generating particularly high support values for most relationships (Fig. 2a and b). This leads us to believe that the systematic relationships within the core Corvoidea is largely resolved as presented in Figs. 1 and 2. The mapping of indels onto the phylogeny (Fig. 1), demonstrates that only some of them (22%) are synapomorphic, while 8% are homoplastic. The majority, 70%, are autapomorphic (restricted to single taxa), thus being phylogenetically uninformative. Most of the informative indels figure in the basal divergences, where genetic diversity is much greater between lineages than in the distal parts of the phylogeny. However, several indels support some of the corvoid clades, and because the proportion of synapomorphic indels are three times higher than that of the homoplastic indels, they appear to have some phylogenetic value, further confirming the position of these divergences.

#### 4.2. Systematics of the core Corvoidea

While neither Norman et al. (2009) nor Jönsson et al. (2011) could resolve the position of *Mohoua*, this study places it as sister to all other core corvids. This adds to a growing number of examples of highly divergent songbird lineages restricted to New Zealand (Driskell et al., 2007). The remaining core corvoid taxa separated into three well supported clades referred to as X, Y and Z, as discussed below.

Clade X consists of the morphologically distinctive *Eulacestoma*, the Neosittidae, Paramythyidae, Oriolidae, Vireonidae and *Psophodes* as one subclade and a second subclade comprising *Falcunculus*, *Oreoica* and *Pachycephala* (previously all in the family Pachycephalidae) along with *Cinclosoma*. The present study confirms the earlier molecular findings of Norman et al. (2009) that *Psophodes* and *Cinclosoma* do not form a monophyletic clade. In the study by Norman et al. (2009), *Cinclosoma* was sister to *Ptilorrhoa* while *Psophodes* was not strongly aligned to other taxa. Following our analysis, *Cinclosoma* (*Ptilorrhoa* was not examined) is best considered a member of the pachycephalid complex, as a sister to *Falcunculus*. For *Cinclosoma*, only 11 loci amplified. Nonetheless, this relationship received high support in almost all analyses encompassing the taxon. The relationship between *Psophodes* and the Vireonidae needs further confirmation, but potentially holds a very interesting biogeographical scenario with an early dispersal to Asia (*Erpornis*, *Pteruthius*) and then onwards to the New World (Reddy and Cracraft, 2007; Jönsson et al., 2011).

Clade Y, consisting of the Campephagidae, Cracticidae, Artamidae, Machaerirhynchidae, Vangidae, Platysteiridae, Aegithinidae, Malaconotidae and Pityriaseidae is consistent with the findings of Jönsson et al. (2011) and Fuchs et al. (2012). Norman et al. (2009) was the first to demonstrate that *Rhagologus* and *Machaerirhynchus* were part of the Artamid–Malaconotid assemblage and that this cluster was sister to the Campephagidae. Our study and that of Fuchs et al. (2012) further corroborate this. However, our placement of *Rhagologus* as sister to the Cracticidae and Artamidae differs from Norman et al. (2009) and Fuchs et al. (2012). In Norman et al. (2009) there was no support for resolving the relationships within the Artamid–Malaconotid assemblage. Although also without support in Fuchs et al. (2012), *Rhagologus* is part of a polytomy, with *Machaerirhynchus* and *Aegithina* being more closely related to Artamidae and Cracticidae than to the Vangidae, Platysteiridae, Pityriaseidae and Malaconotidae as shown in this study.

Clade Z, which comprises the Rhipiduridae, Dicruridae, Paradisaeidae, Corcoracidae, Monarchidae, Corvidae, Laniidae and two *Incertae sedis* taxa, *Melampitta* and *Ifrita*, was also recovered by Norman et al. (2009) with high support. Whereas Norman et al. (2009) found strong support for *Ifrita* with the Monarchidae (see also Jönsson et al., 2011), our study places *Ifrita* with high support (PP = 1) in a clade with the Corcoracidae, Paradisaeidae and *Melampitta*. This is in concordance with Dumbacher et al. (2008), who demonstrated a well-supported relationship between *Ifrita* and *Melampitta*.

Comparing the molecular results with the basic morphology of the group, a significant divergence is apparent during the early core corvoid radiation, with clade X standing out as the most heterogeneous. This may suggest an adaptive radiation within Australasia, and apparently also in the African and Madagascan radiation (Jönsson et al., 2012). However, most of the species-rich families (such as Pachycephalidae, Rhipiduridae, Dicruridae, Monarchidae and Laniidae) just underwent great phylogenetic expansion with little morphological divergence.

#### 4.3. New Guinea as a species pump

Ancestral area analyses in LAGRANGE (Fig. 3) based on contemporary distributions (Table 5) support an origin of the basal oscines in Australia. It is worth noting that within the large Meliphagoidea group (represented here by *Malurus*), the basal taxa are mainly found in Australia (Gardner et al., 2010). The ancestral area analysis supports an entirely New Guinean origin for the core corvids, with three ancient dispersal events out of New Guinea resulting in colonization of Africa (*Batis*, *Prionops*, *Dryoscopus* in clade Y) and Asia (several members of clade Z as well as deep branches of the Vireonidae (Clade X, represented here only by the New World *Vireolanius*). Dispersal to Africa appears to represent dispersal via Asia. The sister taxa (*Pityriasis* and *Aegithina*) of the African families in clade Y both occur in Asia, and given that the Middle Eastern and Southern Asian regions between New Guinea and Africa were wooded throughout most of the Tertiary, as opposed to arid deserts nowadays (Janis, 1993), dispersal of core corvids to Africa via Asia is plausible. Ancient dispersal events to Asia is represented by (1) *Platylophus*, *Lanius*, *Corvus*, *Monarcha*, *Dicrurus*, *Rhipidura* of which some groups have successfully colonised several other continents and (2) *Vireolanius*, which represents a subsequent colonization to the Americas. These ancient colonization patterns are particularly clear from the ancestral area analysis of the constrained distributions (Fig. 3b).

Contemporary distributions of all members of the core corvoid groups represented in the present study (present distributions in Fig. 3 and Jönsson et al., 2011) further suggest that numerous independent recent expansions have taken place. Our results confirm the hypothesis proposed by Jönsson et al. (2011), that Australian basal oscines colonized the Papuan area, adapted to island life, and diversified and ultimately dispersed through the adjacent archipelagos and onwards to new continents.

#### 4.4. Time of origin, dispersal and diversification of the core Corvoidea

The timing of dispersal events is clearly surrounded by extensive error margins and should be regarded as a crude attempt to date the core corvoid phylogeny. We relied on secondary calibration points from Barker et al. (2004) as no relevant early corvoid fossils are known. Relying on secondary calibration points for the analysis may not be ideal but until more reliable calibration points are available this may be used as a very rough time estimate, and our estimates tie in with other studies that have attempted to date biogeographical events for the core Corvoidea (Kennedy et al., 2012). However, relative differences between clade ages can be

**Table 5**

Distributions used for the ancestral area analyses in LAGRANGE. Each taxon in the phylogeny represents a number of species belonging to one or more families. These families are indicated to the right and follow the taxonomy of the International Ornithological Committee (IOC) as referred to in the main text. Distributions represent the complete distribution of all members of the clade. AF = Africa, AM = Americas, AS = Eurasia, AU = Australia, NG = New Guinea, NZ = New Zealand, PH = Philippines, WA = Wallacea, PO = Pacific Ocean islands.

Taxa	Complete distribution										Constrained distribution								Taxonomic groups
	AF	AM	AS	AU	NG	NZ	PH	WA	PO	AF	AM	AS	AU	NG	NZ	PH	WA	PO	
<i>Acanthisitta</i>	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	Acanthisittidae
<i>Aegithina</i>	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	Aegithinidae
<i>Artamus</i>	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	Artamidae
<i>Batis</i>	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	Platysteiridae
<i>Bombycilla</i>	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	ALL PASSERIDA
<i>Cinclosoma</i>	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	<i>Incertae Sedis</i>
<i>Climacteris</i>	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	Climacteridae, Ptilonorhynchidae
<i>Cnemophilus</i>	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	Cnemophilidae
<i>Coracina</i>	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	Campephagidae
<i>Corcorax</i>	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	Corcoracidae
<i>Corvus</i>	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	Corvidae
<i>Daphoenositta</i>	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	Neosittidae
<i>Dicrurus</i>	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	Dicruridae
<i>Dryoscopus</i>	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	Malaconotidae
<i>Eulacestoma</i>	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	<i>Incertae sedis</i>
<i>Falcunculus</i>	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	Pachycephalidae
<i>Gymnorhina</i>	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	Cracticidae
<i>Ifrita</i>	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	<i>Incertae sedis</i>
<i>Lanius</i>	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	Laniidae
<i>Machaerirhynchus</i>	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	Machaerirhynchidae
<i>Malurus</i>	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	Acanthizidae, Dasyornithidae, Maluridae, Meliphagidae, Pardalotidae
<i>Melampitta</i>	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	<i>Incertae sedis</i>
<i>Melanocharis</i>	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	Melanocharitidae
<i>Menura</i>	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	Atrichornithidae, Menuridae
<i>Mohoua</i>	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	<i>Incertae sedis</i>
<i>Monarcha</i>	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	Monarchidae
<i>Oreocharis</i>	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	Paramythiidae
<i>Oreoica</i>	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	Oreoicidae
<i>Oriolus</i>	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	Oriolidae
<i>Orthonyx</i>	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	Orthonychidae
<i>Pachycephala</i>	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	Pachycephalidae
<i>Peltops</i>	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	Cracticidae
<i>Petroica</i>	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	Petroicidae
<i>Philesturnus</i>	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	Callaeidae, Notiomystidae
<i>Picathartes</i>	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	Chaetopidae, Eupetidae, Picathartidae
<i>Pitta</i>	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	ALL SUBOSCINES
<i>Pityriasis</i>	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	Pityriaseidae
<i>Platylophus</i>	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	Corvidae
<i>Pomatostomus</i>	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	Pomatostomidae
<i>Prionops</i>	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	Prionopidae, Tephrodornithidae, Vangidae
<i>Psophodes</i>	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	Psophodidae
<i>Ptiloris</i>	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	Paradisaeidae
<i>Rhagologus</i>	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	<i>Incertae sedis</i>
<i>Rhipidura</i>	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	Rhipiduridae
<i>Vireolanius</i>	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	Vireonidae

discussed without need for specific dates. What is most noteworthy in the dated phylogeny is the short time span of the origin of the main core corvid clades. With *Mohoua* included as the most basal member of the core Corvoidea, this radiation dates back to the early Oligocene, at 32 Mya, which coincides with the geological evidence for the emergence of subaerial island habitats in the New Guinea area around 30–40 Mya (Hall, 2002, 2009). Although total submergence of New Zealand during the upper Tertiary has been suggested (Campbell and Landis, 2001; Waters and Craw, 2006; Campbell and Hutching, 2007), there are several lines of evidence suggesting that the inundation was never complete (Gibbs, 2006). The island-dwelling core Corvoidea took from around 32 Mya to 20 Mya to attain this rapid radiation, culminating in the events of the three major dispersals to Africa and Asia (and onwards to the Americas) within a relatively narrow time frame. These dispersal events coincide with the rise of the islands of the Sunda arc (Hall, 2009), thus providing a stepping stone island

pathway to the Eurasian mainland. At the same time, the tectonic events leading to the creation of the Sunda arc will not have hindered core corvids in back-colonising Australia, which is evident from the analyses (e.g. *Gymnorhina*, *Falcunculus*, *Cinclosoma*, *Oreoica*).

## 5. Conclusion

This paper presents a well-resolved phylogeny of the 24 families of the core Corvoidea. The study also succeeds in systematically placing four taxa (*Eulacestoma*, *Ifrita*, *Melampitta*, *Mohoua*), which have so far had *Incertae sedis* status. However, it remains to be decided whether they should be included in existing families or be classified as families in their own right. With a well-resolved phylogeny, we confirm that the core Corvoidea originated in the area where New Guinea is now located. Consequently, the core

Corvoidea with more than 750 extant species originated in an island environment and underwent further radiation in archipelagos of true oceanic origin, leading to successful colonisation of other continents.

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## Appendix A. Supplementary material

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ympev.2013.09.027>.

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