The biogeographic history of Phoenicurus redstarts reveals an allopatric mode of speciation and an out-of-Himalayas colonization pattern

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The biogeographic history of Phoenicurus redstarts reveals an allopatric mode of speciation and an out-of-Himalayas colonization pattern

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Montane areas host high levels of diversity and endemism, and these features are tied to habitat stratification along an elevational gradient. As such, montane areas are often thought of as model systems in which sympatric speciation can occur. To test this idea, we selected Phoenicurus redstarts, an avian genus with an extensive distribution across Eurasia, as well as Northwest Africa; nine of the 14 species in the genus have distributions which include the Himalayas. We used sequences of the mtDNA ND2 and cytochrome-b genes and intron 9 of the Z chromosome specific ACO1 gene to reconstruct a phylogeny of the genus. The resulting trees were used to reconstruct a biogeographic history of Phoenicurus, and to date diversification events. We also analysed the relationship between node age and sympatry to determine the geographic mode of speciation in the genus. Our data suggest a very late Miocene, Himalayan origin for Phoenicurus. Diversification and colonization of other parts of Eurasia, as well as Northwest Africa, continued through the Pleistocene, with a rapid pulse of speciation in the late Pliocene. Allopatric speciation was the dominant mode of speciation in Phoenicurus, despite extensive distributional overlaps in the Himalayas where ecological conditions are amenable to speciation in sympatry. Our results, along with several other studies, suggest an emerging pattern where the Himalayas served as a source area for montane specialist avian lineages that subsequently colonized other Palaearctic regions.

Key words: allopatric speciation, biogeography, Himalayas, Palaearctic, Phoenicurus, phylogeny

Introduction

Montane regions are often characterized by sharp elevational habitat gradients and as a function of this, many mountain systems are known hotspots of avian diversity and endemism (Myers, Mittermeier, Mittermeier, da Fonseca, & Kent, 2000; Orme et al., 2005). This link between elevational gradients and high diversity is thought to provide an opportunity for sympatric speciation (speciation across ecotones; Fjeldså & Bowie, 2008). However, systematic and biogeographic studies of birds distributed in montane regions of Central and South America as well as Africa, have shown that closely related lineages, to include sister taxa, are not found in adjacent habitats along elevational gradients. Instead, sister taxa are found in generally similar environments on different mountain ranges, or when found in the same mountain range, they tend to be on different mountains (Barrera-Guzmán, Milá, Sánchez-González, & Navarro-Sigüenza, 2012; Chaves & Smith, 2011; Gutiérrez-Pinto et al., 2012). Such patterns suggest an allopatric mode of speciation and indeed allopatric speciation appears to be the dominant mode of speciation in birds (Barrachlough & Vogler, 2000; Chesser & Zink, 1994; Coyne & Price, 2000; Drovetski, 2003; Drovetski, Raković, Semenov, Fadeev, & Red’kin, 2014; Drovetski et al., 2004a., 2013; Fitzpatrick & Turelli, 2006; Friesen & Anderson, 1997; Mayr, 1942; Phillimore et al., 2008; Price, 2008).

Although evidence for sympatric speciation in birds remains elusive (Phillimore et al., 2008), avian lineages with species distributed in different montane habitats may still provide the most realistic opportunity for detecting ecologically driven lineage divergence that would be consistent with speciation in sympatry. The (almost entirely) Palaearctic genus Phoenicurus (redstarts) is one such lineage. The 14 species in the genus Phoenicurus, which includes species formerly placed in Rhyacornis and Chaimarrornis (Voelker, 2010), are distributed in the Atlas Mountains in northwest Africa and broadly across the...
Palaearctic, with limited distributions in Southeast Asia and the Philippines. Importantly, nine of these 14 species have ranges that include the Himalayas (Fig. 1; Collar, 2005).

The underlying question then is whether the high level of sympatry amongst Phoenicurus species in the Himalayas can be attributed to sympatric speciation. Such a result would be, as suggested above, novel for birds particularly given that previous studies of Palaearctic birds have generally shown that co-distributed Palaearctic species tend to result from multiple colonizations of a given region, or from range expansion after divergence in allopatry (Drovetski, 2003; Johansson et al., 2007; Voelker, 1999, 2002, 2010) An additional but related question is whether the Himalayas have served as the

Fig. 1. Breeding species ranges of Phoenicurus redstarts; wintering ranges are generally adjacent to breeding ranges and in the same biogeographic regions. The top panel delineates the biogeographic regions used in ancestral area reconstructions.
 ancestral source area for Phoenicurus; this pattern is evident in two other montane specialist genera (Leucosticte finches; Drovetzki, Zink, & Mode, 2009 and Prunella accentors; Drovetzki et al., 2013). Subsequent diversification in these genera is related to the colonization of other Palearctic areas, and at least in the case of Prunella is related to glacial retreat near the Plio-Pleistocene boundary (Drovetzki et al., 2013). Furthermore, although there is a high number of sympatric species in the Himalayas, results clearly show that Prunella species diverged in allopatry.

In this study we seek to address questions regarding the geographic mode of speciation and biogeographic history in the genus Phoenicurus, which has a high number of montane specialist species. To accomplish this we used sequences of the mitochondrial ND2 and cytochrome-b genes and intron 9 of the Z chromosome specific Aconitase 1 gene (ACO1I9) to reconstruct a phylogeny of all but one currently recognized species in the genus. Using this phylogeny, we reconstructed a biogeographic history of Phoenicurus both spatially and temporally, and tested whether this mountain specialist genus diverged in allopatry or sympatry.

Materials and methods

Taxon sampling

We included tissue samples from 12 of 14 currently recognized species of Phoenicurus (Clements et al., 2014), and acquired cytochrome b data for Ph. schisticeps from GenBank. Where possible we included multiple individuals for each species, particularly for those with comparatively broad distributions (Ph. phoenicurus, aurorum, ochruros). We were unable to acquire samples of or data from Ph. [erythronotus] alaschanicus. We used Tarsiger indicus, T. cyanurus, Ficedula mugimaki, Luscinia luscinia and Monticola rupestris as outgroups, based on their relatively close relationship to Phoenicurus (Zucccon & Ericson, 2010).

Molecular methods

For tissue samples, genomic DNA was extracted using either the JETQUICK Tissue DNA Spin Kit (Genomed, Löhne, Germany) or the DNeasy tissue extraction kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA), both according to the manufacturer’s protocol. We used the polymerase chain reaction (PCR) to amplify the mtDNA cytochrome-b (cyt-b; 1000 bp) and ND2 (1041 bp) genes, as well as intron 9 of the Z chromosome specific Aconitase 1 gene (ACO1I9; 1014 bp). Primers and PCR conditions for amplification and sequencing of cyt-b are described in Voelker (2010) and of ND2 and ACO1I9 in Drovetzki et al. (2004b), Drovetzki, Zink, Ericson, and Fadeev (2010). Sequence data are available on GenBank (see Table 1).

Automated sequencing was performed either on an ABI 377 sequencer or on an ABI 3730 Genetic Analyser (Applied Biosystems Inc., Foster City, CA, USA) at the University of Florida ICBR facility or the Macrogen Europe (the Netherlands) facility, respectively. The sequences were aligned in Sequencher 5.0.1 (Gene Codes Corporation, Ann Arbour, MI, USA). This process was straightforward for the mitochondrial genes. With respect to ACO1I9, females are hemigametic in their Z-specific (sex-linked) loci and thus have only one allele. In heterogametic males whose ACO1I9 alleles differed in length, the alleles were identified by subtracting the complementary sequence of the allele without the indel from the double peaks in their chromatogram. Although tedious, this procedure allowed us to identify indels and to resolve nucleotide polymorphisms without ambiguity (Drovetzki et al., 2013; Hung, Drovetzki, & Zink, 2012; Sousa-Santos, Robalo, Collares-Pereira, & Almada, 2005). ACO1I9 alleles of heterogametic males that had the same length but contained multiple nucleotide differences were resolved using PHASE 2.1.1 (Stephens, Smith, & Donnelly, 2001). We conducted two independent PHASE runs. The first 500 interactions were discarded as burn-in. The following 5000 iterations used a thinning interval of 10. Known haplotypes from females, homozygous males and males with a single polymorphic site or indel were set as known alleles.

We used MrModelTest (Nylander, 2004) to determine the appropriate model of nucleotide substitution and best-fit model of sequence evolution for each gene region. The Akaike information criterion (Akaike, 1974) identified the GTR + G + I as the best-fit model for both mtDNA genes, and the GTR + G model for ACO1I9. We also used jModeltest 2.1.5 (Posada, 2008) and the Bayesian Information Criterion for the species tree analysis, with the following models identified: ND2, TrN+I+G; cyt-b, TPM2uf+I+G; ACO1I9, TrN+G.

We incorporated best-fit models for each gene in BEAST2 (Drummond, Suchard, Xie, & Rambaut, 2012) to reconstruct a species tree using all loci. We incorporated a Yule process speciation prior for all three loci. We also made use of the mean of rates of divergence and associated standard deviations reported by Lerner, Meyer, James, Hofreiter, and Fleischer (2011) for the two mtDNA genes analysed (cyt-b 1.4×10⁻² [95% CI: 1.2–1.6×10⁻²] per Ma; ND2 2.9×10⁻² [95% CI: 2.3–3.3×10⁻²] per Ma). These rates are derived from the sequence of lineage splits in a passerine clade (Hawaiian Honeycreepers: Fringillidae), and calibrated using the well-established dates of sequential uplift of the Hawaiian Archipelago. For ACO1I9 we assigned the rate of 3.2×10⁻³ (95% CI: 2.4–4.0×10⁻³) per Ma, based on a previous estimate (Drovetzki et al., 2013). This rate was slightly higher than
the evolutionary rates reported for 13 autosomal loci (Lerner et al., 2011). The higher evolutionary rates for Z-specific as compared with autosomal loci are expected due to the former having $\frac{3}{4}$ of the effective population size of the latter. We utilized a Relaxed LogNormal clock, as there were no significant differences between that clock and a strict clock for the mitochondrial genes (via maximum likelihood ratio tests; $P$ values ranged from 0.6 to 1.0). Gene regions were unlinked to allow independence of assigned clock parameters.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Species</th>
<th>ID$^1$</th>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>cytb 997 bp</th>
<th>nd2 1041 bp</th>
<th>ACO19$^2$ 1014 bp</th>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Museum or collector acronyms, followed by museum number: A, S.V. Drovetski; AMNH, American Museum of Natural History; BMUM, Bell Museum, University of Minnesota; FMNH, Field Museum of Natural History; MSUZM, Moscow State University Museum; USNM, U.S. National Museum; UWBM, University of Washington Burke Museum. Collector initials and number, if known, follow the “/.”

2 Multiple GenBank accession numbers reflect multiple alleles from males, e.g., for UWBM 66692/SVD 2290, KP172467/8 refers to both KP172467 and KP172468.

Two independent Markov-chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) analyses were run for $1 \times 10^7$ generations, with parameters sampled every $5 \times 10^3$ steps and a pre-burn-in of $1 \times 10^3$. Independent runs were combined using LogCombiner v.1.7.4 (Drummond et al., 2012). Tracer v1.5 (http://beast.bio.ed.ac.uk/Tracer) was used to determine the effective sample size of each parameter and calculate the mean and 95% highest posterior density interval (95% HPD) for divergence times. Tree topologies were assessed using TreeAnnotator v.1.7.4 (Drummond et al., 2012) and
visualized in FigTree v.1.3.1 (http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree/).

We also analysed a concatenated dataset in MrBayes (v. 3.1.2; Huelsenbeck & Ronquist, 2001) which included individuals for which we had all three genes, plus Phoenicurus schisticeps (cyt-b only). Where the ACOI19 alleles were different in an individual (males) we appended the different alleles to the same mtDNA genes for that same individual. The combined mitochondrial (mtDNA) sequence data were analysed using two alternate mixed-model strategies under a Bayesian framework. In our first partitioning strategy (three partitions) the ND2, cyt-b and ACOI19 were unlinked and allowed estimation of gene appropriate GTR + 1 + I parameters. In the second strategy (seven partitions), each codon position for the two mtDNA genes were unlinked from one another, while ACOI19 remained a single partition.

For each analysis, we initiated two runs of four MCMC chains of 5000000 generations each from a random starting tree, sampling every 100 generations. Each run resulted in 50000 trees and converged on the same topology. The first 5000 trees from each analysis were removed as our ‘burn-in’ and the remaining 40000 trees were used to generate a majority rule consensus tree. Bayes factors were computed using the harmonic means of the likelihoods calculated from the sump command within MRBAYES. A difference of $2 \ln$ Bayes factor $> 10$ was used as the minimum value to discriminate between partitioning strategies (Brandley, Schmitz, & Reeder, 2005; Brown & Lemmon, 2007), and the seven partition analysis was identified as the best fit to the data ($-\ln 11621.47$ versus $-\ln 12487.67$ for the three partition strategy).

**Historical biogeography and geographic mode of speciation**

For historical biogeography reconstruction we used maximum likelihood analysis of geographic range evolution based on the dispersal-extinction cladogenesis model implemented in LaGrange v. 2.0.1 (Ree & Smith, 2008). LaGrange identifies the geographic areas that are included in the most probable ancestral range and which areas were ‘inherited’ by its descendants, for each node along the phylogenetic tree. Using distribution maps (Collar, 2005), each species (breeding range only) was coded in a first analysis as being present or absent in each of six areas: Western, Central and Eastern Eurasia, the Himalayan region (inclusive of mountains of central China), the Philippines and Northwest Africa (Fig. 1). Due to the somewhat surprising reconstruction of Northwest Africa as an ancestral area for the ochruros/moussieri/phoenicurus clade (Fig. 2), we conducted a second analysis in which we eliminated Northwest Africa (merging it with Western Eurasia). Although eliminating Northwest Africa required

![Fig. 2.](Image) Species tree with molecular clock dating for Phoenicurus. Numbers at nodes indicate posterior probabilities for the species tree; all nodes were supported at $\geq 0.95$ PP in the concatenated Bayesian analysis. Scale bar is time in millions of years before present (Ma), with bars at nodes indicating 95% highest posterior density intervals (HPD) around the mean divergence times at each node. Ancestral area reconstructions are based on LaGrange analysis, therefore two reconstructions are shown at each node. The upper reconstruction is the most likely area reconstruction derived from all node reconstructions from lineages ‘above’ the node, and the lower is the most likely reconstruction derived from all node reconstructions from lineages ‘below’ the node. We report the highest relative probability reconstruction at each node, which were at least twice (or in one case very nearly twice) the relative probability of the next most likely reconstruction. The exception is at the basal node of the phylogeny, where nearly equiprobable reconstructions are separated by a comma.
us to code the endemic *moussieri* as Western Eurasian, we primarily eliminated it because the breeding range of both *ochruros* and *phoenicurus* in Northwest Africa (portions of the Atlas Mountains) constitutes a very small fraction of their overall breeding ranges (Fig. 1). As such, including Northwest Africa in the distribution of each may be overweighting its importance as a possible ancestral area. We also eliminated the Philippines in this second analysis (merging it with Eastern Eurasia), leaving four distributional areas. Ancestral areas were reconstructed by performing likelihood optimizations on our species tree. For both of these analyses, default software assumptions were used, i.e. we did not penalize movements between geographically non-adjacent areas.

Geographic range data were obtained from Collar (2005). Species range maps were digitized in MapInfo Professional v. 9.5.1 (Pitney Bowes Inc., Stamford, CT, USA). The digitized species ranges (Fig. 1) were used to calculate their area, the area of clade ranges, and measure range overlap amongst clades and species.

To analyse geographic modes of speciation in *Phoenicurus* we used a node-based approach that compares the ranges of two clades connected by a node on the phylogenetic tree (Barracough & Vogler, 2000). Clade ranges were calculated as joint ranges of clade-member species. Sympathy index (sympathy) for sister clades was calculated as their range overlap area divided by the area of the smaller of the two ranges. Sympathy values for all nodes were then regressed onto the node age. If speciation was predominantly allopatric, the most recent divergence events in the phylogeny are expected to have no sympathy (0 sympathy value), with sympathy values increasing with range changes through time (i.e. towards the base of the phylogeny). Clustering of 0 sympathy values at younger nodes, and the presence of non-zero sympathy values at older nodes, results in a positive correlation between the node age and sympathy. The opposite relationship is expected for predominantly sympatric speciation (Barracough & Vogler, 2000; Drovettski, 2003; Drovettski et al., 2013).

When allopatric speciation appears to be the geographic mode of speciation, the range symmetry index (the smaller clade range area divided by the sum of both clade range areas) can be regressed onto the node age to determine whether the speciation was predominantly peripatric (Barracough & Vogler, 2000). Peripatric speciation is expected to result in low range symmetry for the recent nodes of the phylogenetic tree but should increase through time because range expansion of a small peripherally isolated clade is more likely to increase with time than decrease. Both sympathy and symmetry indexes are proportions with values bounded by 1 and 0.5 respectively. In order to use them in regression analyses, they were arcsine transformed. The symmetry index values were doubled prior to arcsine transformation.

**Results**

**Phylogeny of Phoenicurus**

Both our species tree and concatenated (seven partition) Bayesian analyses strongly supported the monophyly of *Phoenicurus* relative to outgroup taxa (1.0 posterior probability (PP)), and both analyses resulted in the same topology of species relationships (Fig. 2). Overall the species tree analysis strongly supported 8 of 12 nodes while the seven partition concatenated analysis supported all 12 nodes at $\geq 0.95$ PP (Fig. 2). As has been shown previously (Sangster, Alström, Porsmark, & Olsson, 2010; Voelker, 2010), species previously in the genera *Chaimorrornis* (*leucocephalus*) and *Rhyacornis* (*fuliginosus* and *bicolor*) clearly fall within *Phoenicurus*. Individual gene trees (not shown) are largely concordant with the species tree.

A recent paper by Hogner et al. (2012) found deep mtDNA divergences within *Ph. phoenicurus* samples collected primarily from the western Palaearctic. Although our analyses are focused at the inter-specific level, we note that we also find deep mtDNA divergences between our samples of *Ph. phoenicurus* collected from the western and eastern Palaearctic (Table 1). This suggests further phylogeographic analysis of *Ph. phoenicurus* is warranted to determine the extent of haplotype distributions (see Hogner et al., 2012, where few eastern Palaearctic samples were included), as is phylogeographic analysis of variation within *aurorus* and *ochruros*, both of which show similarly deep divergences across our sampling points (Fig. 2).

**Historical biogeography and geographic mode of speciation**

The genus *Phoenicurus* appears to split from *Tarsiger/Luscinia* clade c. 7.3 Ma (95% HPD interval 6.3–8.4 Ma), in the late Miocene. Lineage divergences within *Phoenicurus* began during the Miocene/Pliocene transition (5.9 Ma; 5.0–6.8) which resulted in two primary clades: one comprised of four species restricted to the Himalayas and mountains of the Central Eurasia (the *erythronotus* clade) and a more speciose clade distributed across the Eurasia and Northwest Africa. Diversification within the genus continued through the Middle Pleistocene (c. 0.7 Ma, 0.2–1.3 Ma; Fig. 2), with one clade (*aurorus-phoenicurus*) showing a pulse of speciation in the late Pliocene–early Pleistocene between 3.5 Ma (2.9–4.1 Ma) and 2.2 Ma (1.1–3.0 Ma; Fig. 2) resulting in six species.

Ancestral area reconstructions using six distributional areas indicate a primarily Himalayan origin for the genus (Fig. 2), with the phylogenetic position and distribution of *erythronotus* in central Eurasia suggesting a Himalayan + Central Eurasia area for the small clade that *erythronotus* is a member of (Fig. 2). Overall, the ancestral area
reconstructions at the majority of nodes indicate a Himalayan ancestral area, with later movements of species to other generally adjacent areas (Fig. 2). The exception to this is the Northwest African ancestral area inferred for ochruros, moussieri and phoenicurus (Fig. 2), where the colonization of both the Philippines and Northwest Africa are inferred as having been directly from the Himalayas (i.e. not from an adjacent area).

Reducing the number of distributional areas from six to four (see Methods) did little to change ancestral reconstructions. The fuliginosus + bicolar node became HE/E, the moussieri + phoenicurus node became W/W, and the ochruros/moussieri/phoenicurus node became HW/W. While this reconstruction did eliminate Northwest Africa as an ancestral area for the latter two nodes, it did not eliminate the need to ultimately explain the distribution of these three taxa in Northwest Africa.

Sympatry index values (Barralough & Vogler, 2000) were positively correlated with node age (sympathy = 0.019 + 0.195 × Age; r² = 0.603, d.f. = 10, P = 0.008). However, the logarithmic curve provided a more appropriate fit to the data (sympathy = 1.088 + 5.143 ln(Age); r² = 0.637, d.f. = 10, P = 0.006; Fig. 3). This relationship suggests that speciation in redstarts was predominantly allopatric. The power curve provided the best fit model for the relationship between clade range symmetry and age, however, even this best fit relationship was not statistically significant (symmetry = 0.689 × Age^{0.260}, r² = 0.115, d.f. = 10, P = 0.337). The lack of the relationship between the range symmetry and age is inconsistent with peripatric speciation.

Discussion
Phylogeny of Phoenicurus
A previous study on Phoenicurus systematics (Ertan, 2006) included nine species, relied solely on partial sequence of the cytochrome-b gene, and used outgroups from distantly related avian families. Virtually all interspecific nodes and all more basal nodes in this study collapse to polytomies (Ertan, 2006) thereby providing little insight into Phoenicurus systematics.

By comparison, our results are strongly supported (Fig. 2). Our phylogenetic results for Phoenicurus differ somewhat from the reasonably well-supported Phoenicurus phylogeny of Voelker (2010). This is not surprising given our inclusion here of two additional taxa (schisticeps and moussieri), and additional data (the sex-linked ACO19 gene). Perhaps the most important difference between Voelker (2010) and this study is that the addition of species and data has provided strong posterior probability support for all nodes in the genus (Fig. 2).

Former Chaimarrornis and Rhaycornis fuliginosa were originally described as members of Phoenicurus (Collar, 2005), and our results indicate that the three species in these genera are indeed members of Phoenicurus as was previously suggested by Sangster et al. (2010) and Voelker (2010). It is clear from our results that a possible close relationship between frontalis and ‘Rhaycornis’, based on tail-flicking behaviour, is not supported (Collar, 2005). Also not supported is the sister relationship between ochruros and phoenicurus despite these two taxa having hybridized in the past (Collar, 2005).

Biogeography
Voelker (2010) had suggested that Phoenicurus originated roughly 6 Ma, and further suggested that many geographic diversification patterns in Phoenicurus were consistent with sister lineages having undergone allopatric isolation in Western, Eastern or Southern Palaeartic refugia. Isolation in these refugia was driven either by increased aridity peaks or glacial periods (An, Kukla, Porter, & Xiao, 1991; Donghui, Zhisheng, Shaw, Bloemendal, & Youbin, 1998; Guo et al., 2002; Kukla & An, 1989; Zhiseng, Kutzbach, Prell, & Porter, 2001) that would have rendered Central Asia inhospitable to songbirds (Voelker, 2010). For Phoenicurus, aridity peaks at 4.5 and 3.5 Mya and a glacial peak at 2.4 Mya were implicated as driving factors of broad-scale diversification patterns in the genus (Voelker, 2010).

Our results, which are based on the inclusion of two additional Phoenicurus species, an additional independent locus and more robust calibrations of gene evolution through time (Lerner et al., 2011) instead suggest that Phoenicurus originated c. 7.5 Mya, with lineage diversification within the genus beginning c. 6 Ma (Fig. 2). Subsequent divergences are generally consistent with those inferred by Voelker (2010), with the exception of the fuliginosus–bicolar split which appears to be more recent here (Fig. 2). Overall, most Phoenicurus diverged within the Pliocene (Fig. 2). As a consequence, it appears that
both aridity and glacial peaks during that period (Voelker, 2010) played an important role in the broad-scale diversification patterns in the genus.

Our study, which included a larger number of distributional areas than did Voelker (2010) is the first to show that Phoenicurus originated in the Himalayas (Fig. 2). A Himalayan ancestral area reconstruction is consistent with the results from a study of another montane specialist avian genus (Prunella) that is widely distributed across the Palaearctic (Drovetski et al., 2013). Further, lineage dating of the Prunella radiation shows a period of rapid radiation near the Plio-Pleistocene boundary that somewhat post-dates the pulse of lineage divergences within Phoenicurus. For Prunella, diversification was possibly related to glacial retreats (e.g. after the glacial peak at 2.4 MYA) and the opening of additional habitats/areas during that time (Drovetski et al., 2013). For Phoenicurus, the earlier divergences could be related to the opening of additional habitats/areas following aridity peaks, or the fragmentation/isolation of habitats leading up to the late Pliocene glacial peak inferred as driving divergence in Prunella (Voelker, 2010).

After initial lineage diversifications in the Himalayas, Phoenicurus lineages dispersed from there to colonize other Palaearctic areas, the Philippines, and Northwest Africa (Fig. 3). The colonization of the Philippines (occupied by bicolour) is clearly the result of overwater dispersal, as the relevant islands (Luzon and Mindoro) are of oceanic origin (Yumul, Dimalanta, Maglambayan, & Marquez, 2008). Less easy to explain is the colonization of Africa, where colonization scenarios are dependent on whether Africa is or is not included as a possible ancestral area. If Africa is included as a possible area, ancestral area reconstructions suggest a direct Himalayan to Africa dispersal (Fig. 2). Land-based movement between the Himalayas and Northwest Africa (specifically to the Atlas Mountains in Morocco and Algeria) via colonization of intervening mountain ranges in the Middle East and Africa seems unlikely, given that no range in these regions is high enough to suitably accommodate Phoenicurus habitats.

Further, the Himalayan to Northwest African colonization is dated to c. 3.5 Mya (Fig. 2). This date is far too recent for the distributions of the Northwest African endemic moussieri and the partial ranges in Northwest Africa of ochrurus and Ph. phoenicurus to be explained by colonization during the Messianian Salinity Crisis (MSC). During this period (5.96–5.33 Mya; Krijgsman, Hilgen, Raffi, Sierrro, & Wilson, 1999) the Mediterranean became desiccated which would facilitate land-based interchange between Europe, the Middle East and Africa. By greatly post-dating the MSC, overwater dispersal seems necessary to explain the colonization of Africa by the ancestor of these taxa. Under the six distributional area model where Africa is allowed to be ancestral, this explanation assumes colonization from the closest possible suitable montane habitats (European), and would also require extinction(s) of ancestral lineages in Europe.

Such an explanation would further require subsequent colonization of the Western and Central Palaearctic by both ochrurus and Ph. phoenicurus. In other words, both ochrurus and Ph. phoenicurus would have originated in Northwest Africa (Atlas Mountains) from which they later colonized the Palaearctic, again most likely by over-water dispersal. This scenario is plausible, as North Africa (the Maghreb) has been shown to be (1) an important speciation centre for organisms during the Pliocene and Pleistocene, and (2) a source area for colonizations of Europe (Husemann, Schmitt, Zachos, Ulrich, & Habel, 2013). Alternatively, if Africa is not considered a unique area and is instead coded as part of the Western Palaearctic, then the distributions of Ph. phoenicurus and ochrurus in Northwest Africa must be related to over-water dispersal from Europe, with a subsequent speciation event to account for the Northwest African endemic moussieri. This scenario would eliminate the need to invoke ancestral extinctions in Europe (see above). A reasonable scenario for explaining Ph. phoenicurus and ochrurus distributions in Northwest Africa could be migratory drop-offs into suitable breeding habitats. Both of these species have wintering areas that include portions of Africa (Collar, 2005), and an increasing number of avian studies have provided support for southern sedentary populations/species being established from otherwise migratory species (e.g., Voelker, Bowie, & Klicka, 2013 and references therein). Because this scenario would not require multiple extinctions in Europe (see above) it may be a more reasonable explanation of Phoenicurus distributions in Northwest Africa.

Testing between these scenarios can potentially be accomplished by conducting population genetic and phylogeographic analyses of ochrurus and phoenicurus. Depending on gene flow and phylogeographic patterns (if any), results could elucidate whether Africa was colonized from Europe, or vice versa. In the case of phoenicurus for example, Hogner et al. (2012) conducted population genetic and phylogeographic analyses which revealed two deep lineages. While these lineages occur in sympathy over much of the sampled range, the study detected the possibility of a distinct southern lineage.

**Geographic mode of speciation**

Despite a reasonable amount of overlapping distributions across species (Fig. 1) and their inferred ancestral areas, speciation in Phoenicurus was allopatric. Irrespective of a linear or logarithmic relationship, the positive correlation between sympathy and node age is significant and strong (Fig. 3). In other words, ranges overlap more for old divergences and less for taxa that diverged recently. With respect to range symmetry, there is a trend between clade ranges and age that would suggest the possibility of
peripatric speciation, but the relationship is not significant. This result mirrors that found for another montane specialist avian genus (Prunella; Drovetksi et al., 2013), and can likely be explained by the same reason: a combination of mountain specialists whose range size is determined by the size of mountain ranges, and lowland taxa that are widespread. Therefore, while peripatric speciation may be considered the most common mode of speciation in animals (Barracough & Vogler, 2000), montane regions where habitats are not continuous but are instead island-like in distribution, may preclude peripatric speciation as a driver of divergences.

Although allopatric speciation is inferred as the primary means of speciation in Phoenicurus, there are three species pairs that share a restricted portion of their distributional range, as we have defined those ranges. In each case however, ecological or elevational differences serve to separate them in these areas of overlap. In the case of erythrogastus and hodgsoni, the former occupies the alpine zone (3900–4500 m), while the latter is restricted to habitats between 2400–3600 m (Collar, 2005). Habitat also serves to separate moussieri and phoenicurus in Northwest Africa, where moussieri occupies xerophytic, open habitat, while phoenicurus occupies old oak and conifer forests (Collar, 2005). Finally, caeruleocephala tends to be restricted to lower stories of coniferous forests where it geographically overlaps with schisticeps (Collar, 2005). Therefore, ecological differences facilitate secondary range overlap of sister taxa rather than ecological speciation.

To conclude, the ancestral area reconstructions presented here for Phoenicurus, along with reconstructions for Leucosticte finches and Prunella accentors (Drovetski et al., 2009, 2013), suggest an emerging pattern where the Himalayas are a source area for montane specialist lineages, which subsequently colonize other Palearctic regions.

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