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# Clades within the 'higher land birds', evaluated by nuclear DNA sequences 

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#### Abstract

In this study we investigated the phylogenetic relationships within the 'higher land birds' by parsimony analysis of nucleotide DNA sequences obtained from the two nuclear, protein-coding genes, c-myc and RAG-1. Nuclear genes have not previously been used to address this phylogenetic question. The results include high jackknife support for a monophyletic Apodiformes (including the Trochilidae). This arrangement was further supported by the observation of an insertion of four amino acids in the c-myc gene in all apodiform taxa. Monophyly was also inferred for each of the two piciform groups Galbulae and Pici. Within Pici, the Capitonidae was found to be paraphyletic, with the New World barbets more closely related to the Ramphastidae than to the Old World barbets. Another clade with high jackknife support consists of the Upupidae, Phoeniculidae and Bucerotidae. The families Momotidae and Todidae, and Coraciidae and Brachypteraciidae, respectively, also form well supported monophyletic clades. The results are inconclusive regarding the monophyly of the orders Coraciiformes and Piciformes, respectively.


Key words: Aves - 'higher land birds' - Apodiformes - Caprimulgiformes - Coliiformes - Coraciiformes - Trogoniformes - Piciformes Passeriformes - phylogeny - parsimony - DNA sequences - nuclear genes - c-myc - RAG-1

## Introduction

The traditional basal division of the class Aves into a paleognathous and a neognathous clade has recently received additional support by analyses of DNA sequence data (Groth and Barrowclough 1999; van Tuinen et al. 2000). These analyses also suggest that the orders Galliformes and Anseriformes (Galloanserae) is the sister-group to all other neognathous birds. This latter group, containing all neognaths except the Galloanserae, has been named Neoaves by Sibley et al. (1988) or Plethornithae by Groth and Barrowclough (1999). The name Neoaves has also been used as the name for the clade containing all neognathous birds (Sibley and Ahlquist 1990; Sibley and Monroe 1990).
Although the monophyly of Neoaves seems well supported, the interrelationships within the group are less well understood. Herein, we study the phylogenetic relationships within a group of neognath taxa referred to by Olson (1985) as the 'higher land bird assemblage'. This group corresponds to the Anomalogonatae of Beddard (1898) which includes the orders Strigiformes, Caprimulgiformes, Apodiformes, Coliiformes, Trogoniformes, Coraciiformes, Piciformes and Passeriformes (taxonomy follows Wetmore (1960)). The Anomalogonatae thus consists of more than two-thirds of all living bird species. Although rarely demonstrated within a phylogenetic systematic framework, it is commonly assumed that most families included in the Anomalogonatae are monophyletic while several of the orders possibly are not (Burton 1984; Olson 1985). Moreover, the monophyly for the entire group Anomalogonatae is inferred solely from the shared lack of the ambiens muscle. However, this muscle has been lost in certain other birds, e.g. pelicans, herons, some pigeons and doves, and most parrots (George and Berger 1966). Furthermore, monophyly of the Anomalogonatae was not corroborated by DNADNA hybridization data (Sibley and Ahlquist 1990). The questionable monophyly of the Anomalogonatae, and the fact that the group has been poorly sampled in previous phylogenetic studies based on DNA sequence data, makes the
taxonomic delimitation of the ingroup difficult (see Material and methods).

Several phylogenetic hypotheses have been presented for the 'higher land bird assemblage' (e.g. Olson 1985), but consensus about their inter-relationships has not yet been reached. Some of the traditionally recognized orders, e.g. Passeriformes and Trogoniformes, are well supported monophyletic clades, whereas the monophyly of others, e.g. the Coraciiformes and Piciformes, are much less certain (Burton 1984; Olson 1985; Sibley and Ahlquist 1990).

Because of stochastic factors, an estimate based on a single gene tree may not accurately reflect the species tree (Pamilo and Nei 1988; Avise 1989). Congruence between different gene trees, supposedly belonging to different linkage groups, increases the probability that the trees actually represent the true phylogeny. Furthermore, although often used in avian phylogenetic studies, mitochondrial genes evolve too fast to provide resolution for more ancient groups of birds (Graybeal 1994; Avise et al. 1994a, b).

The use of slower evolving, nuclear genes may possible overcome these problems. The present study investigates the phylogenetic relationships within the Anomalogonatae based on nucleotide sequence data obtained from two single-copy, nuclear genes, c-myc and RAG-1. These relationships have previously not been investigated using nuclear genes. Both genes used in this study have only recently received attention in avian phylogenetics, but have shown promising results in resolving basal divergences in birds (Groth and Barrowclough 1999; Ericson et al. 2000; Irestedt et al. in press).

## Material and methods

## Taxa examined and choice of outgroup

The taxonomic delimitation of the ingroup is problematic because of the uncertainty regarding the monophyly of the Anomalogonatae and the overall limited understanding of major relationships among neognathous birds. Apart from the loss of the ambiens muscle, very
little has been provided to support the monophyly of the group, although the taxa included in the Anomalogonatae by Beddard (1898) are often regarded as closely related. Despite uncertainties regarding their overall relationships, all ingroup taxa are monophyletic relative to the orders Galliformes and Anseriformes of which representatives are used as outgroups.

This study includes 46 terminal taxa, with five species representing the passerine lineage and 35 species representing 24 out of 28 families of nonpasserine families included in the 'higher land bird assemblage'. In addition, three representatives of the Cuculiformes (Cuculidae and Musophagidae) have been included. The trees were rooted using the outgroup rooting method (of Farris 1972; cf. Nixon and Carpenter 1993) with three species representing the orders Galliformes and Anseriformes. Sample information and GenBank accession numbers are given in Table 1. In three taxa, the c-myc and RAG-1 sequences have been obtained from different individuals. The sequences of Anas and Coracias are thus composites of c-myc data obtained by us, and previously published RAG-1 sequences (Groth and Barrowclough 1999). The Gallus sequence is a composite of the c-myc sequence published by Watson et al. (1983), and the RAG-1 sequence published by Groth and Barrowclough (1999).

## DNA extraction, PCR and sequencing

Genomic DNA was extracted from tissue or blood using standard techniques of proteinase K/SDS digestion followed by phenol chloroform precipitation, or by QIAamp ${ }^{\circledR}$ DNA extraction kits (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) following the manufacturer's recommendations.
An approximately 500 bp long fragment of exon 3 of the c-myc gene was amplified with the primers mycEX3D and RmycEX3D (for information on primers see Fig. 1, Table 2). The amplifications were carried out with Ready-To-Go ${ }^{\circledR}$ PCR Beads (Amersham Pharmacia Biotech, Uppsala, Sweden) as $25 \mu 1$ reactions following the manufacturer's recommendations with a final concentration of each primer of $0.4 \mu \mathrm{M}$. The following thermocycling conditions were used for the amplification: the samples were initially heated to $94^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 5 min , followed by 40 cycles of $94^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for $40 \mathrm{~s}, 49^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 40 s , and $72^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 60 s , and ended with a final extension period of 5 min at $72^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. From this first amplification, $1 \mu \mathrm{l}$ was used as template for a second amplification using primers mycEX3A and RmycEX3A. The same thermal conditions as in the first round of amplification were used, except that the number of cycles was reduced to 30 .
The amplification of the protein-coding RAG-1 gene was performed with combinations of primers R17, R22, R 50 and R51, which yielded a fragment of approximately 1000 bp (Fig. 1, Table 2). The reactions were carried out with Ready-To-Go ${ }^{\circledR}$ PCR Beads (Amersham Pharmacia Biotech) as described above, with the following thermocycling conditions: the samples were preheated to $94^{\circ}$ for 5 min , followed by four cycles of $94^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for $40 \mathrm{~s}, 63^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for $1 \mathrm{~min}, 72^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 1 min . After this followed another four cycles identical to the preceding cycles, with the exception of a reduction of the annealing temperature to $60^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. In a final round of 32 cycles the annealing temperature was further reduced to $55^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. The procedure was completed by a final extension of 5 min at $72^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$.
Before sequencing, the polymerase chain reaction (PCR) products were cleaned with QIAquick PCR Purification Kit (Qiagen). Sequencing of both genes was performed using Perkin Elmer Applied BioSystems (CA, USA) 373 or 377 automated florescent sequencing instrument, and Perkin Elmer Applied BioSystems PRISM terminator cycle sequencing kits with AmpliTaq FS polymerase with either dRhodamine or BigDye terminators. The amplified c-myc fragment was sequenced in both directions with the primers mycEX3A, $\mathrm{R} m y c \mathrm{EX} 3 \mathrm{~A}, m y c \mathrm{EX} 3 \mathrm{C}-1$ and R $m y c \mathrm{EX} 3 \mathrm{~B}$, and the RAG-1 gene with the primers R17, R22, R50, R51, R52 and R53. Sequence assembly was performed using the Perkin Elmer Applied BioSystems Sequence Navigator program, or SeqMan ${ }^{\circledR} 4.00$ DNASTAR Inc (WI, USA). All positions have been read in both directions except in a few species where only one strand was possible to read near the end of the sequences. In the c-myc gene the nucleotide base could not be determined with certainty in nine cases $(0.04 \%)$. The corresponding figure for RAG-1 is $47(0.11 \%)$. Some of these ambiguities might reflect actual heterozygosity of the genes, whereas others may be attributed to PCR or sequencing artifacts. All ambiguous positions were treated as uncertainties in the phylogenetic analyses.

## Alignment and sequence properties

The sequences were aligned by eye. Due to sequence length differences, gaps were required at two positions to obtain a correct alignment of the c-myc sequences. First, one insertion of 12 basepairs (four amino acids) was needed in Apus apus (Apodidae), Hemiprocne longipennis (Hemiprocnidae), and in Heliomaster furcifer, Hylocharis chrysura and Phaethornis pretrei (Trochilidae). The placement of this insertion is not obvious, and it can be inserted at three different positions (at positions 772,784 , or 796 , relative to the published chicken sequence (Watson et al. 1983)). However, irrespective of the placement of this insertion the same topology is obtained in the phylogenetic analyses. In addition, a 6 bp deletion was needed at position 889 in Dendrocopos major and Picumnus cirratus (Picidae).
The analysed part of c-myc exon 3 is 489 bp long, corresponding to the region between position 759 and 1235 of the published chicken c-myc sequence (Watson et al. 1983). Of the 489 nucleotides, 328 $(67 \%)$ were found to be invariant between taxa, $52(11 \%)$ variable but uninformative, and 109 ( $22 \%$ ) phylogenetically informative.

The sequence obtained from the RAG-1 gene corresponds to the 930 bp between position 1054 and 1983 of the chicken sequence (Carlson et al. 1991). Of these, 499 ( $54 \%$ ) positions were invariant, 88 ( $9 \%$ ) uninformative, and 343 ( $37 \%$ ) phylogenetically informative. The combined, aligned data set consists of 1419 basepairs corresponding to 473 amino acids. In no cases were nonsense or stop codons observed.

The pairwise sequence divergence between taxa was expressed as the uncorrected ('p') distances. To test the level of saturation due to multiple substitutions, the observed pairwise number of transitions (ti) and transversion (tv), respectively, were plotted against the uncorrected sequence distances.

## Phylogenetic analysis

The phylogenetic analyses of the aligned sequences were performed with PAUP* 4.0 b 3 (Swofford 1998) under the parsimony criterion. The genes were analysed both separately and combined. The search for minimum length tree(s) was conducted with heuristic search using 500 random taxon additions and TBR branch swapping. The gaps in the $\mathrm{c}-m y c$ and the combined data sets were coded as missing data, but one extra character was added to the c-myc sequence to code for the extra event of the insertion in Apodidae, Hemiprocnidae, and Trochilidae, and one for the deletion in the Picidae. Support for individual clades was estimated by parsimony jackknifing (Farris et al. 1996) with Xac: Parsimony Jackknifer (Farris 1997) with 1000 replicates, 10 random additions, and branch swapping. Clades receiving less support than $50 \%$ are regarded as unsupported. In addition, Bremer support values (Bremer 1998, 1994) were calculated using TreeRoot, v2 (Sorenson 1999).

## Results

## Pairwise sequence divergences and saturation analysis

In the c-myc gene the smallest sequence divergence, $0.6 \%$, was observed between the motmots, Momotus and Baryphthengus (Table 3). The largest, $12.3 \%$, was observed between Gallus and Picumnus. Among the ingroup taxa, the largest divergence, $8.9 \%$, was observed between Picumnus and Tockus. Also in the RAG-1 gene the least divergence, $1.0 \%$, was found between the two motmot species (Table 4). The largest divergence observed, $15.3 \%$, was found between Hylocharis and Trachyphonus. This distance is almost identical to that between Hylocharis and Gallus, 15.2\%.

The number of transitions and transversions observed between pairs of taxa are shown in Tables 3 and 4. The transition : transversion ratios calculated from these figures vary between 0 and $30 \mathrm{inc} \mathrm{c} m \mathrm{c}$ c, and between 1.4 and 8.5 in RAG-1. The large variation in the c-myc ratios is caused by the low number (often zero) of pairwise transversions observed.

In the saturation plots for both genes (Fig. 2a,b) transitions and transversions are roughly linearly correlated against the
Table 1. Samples used in the study

| Species | Family | Order | Sample no. | Owner | GenBank Accession No. (c-myc) | GenBank <br> Accession No. <br> (RAG-1) | References |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Corythaixoides leucogaster | Musophagidae | Cuculiformes | P509 | ZMCU | AF295126 | AF294654 |  |
| Cuculus canorus | Cuculidae | Cuculiformes | 996341 | NRM | AF295127 | AF294655 |  |
| Piaya cayana | Cuculidae | Cuculiformes | 937230 | NRM | AF295128 | AF294656 |  |
| Asio flammeus | Strigidae | Strigiformes |  | S. Dunham | AF295129 | AF294657 |  |
| Glaucidium brasilianum | Strigidae | Strigiformes | 937343 | NRM | AF295130 | AF294658 |  |
| Nyctibius aethereus | Nyctibiidae | Caprimulgiformes | B11236 | LSUMZ | AF295131 | AF294659 |  |
| Podager nacunda | Caprimulgidae | Caprimulgiformes | 947016 | NRM | AF295132 | AF294660 |  |
| Eurostopodus macrotis | Caprimulgidae | Caprimulgiformes | P393 | ZMCU | AF295133 | AF294661 |  |
| Podargus strigoides | Podargidae | Caprimulgiformes |  | S. Dunham | AF295134 | AF294662 |  |
| Steatornis caripensis | Steatornithidae | Caprimulgiformes | B7474 | LSUMZ | AF295135 | AF294663 |  |
| Apus apus | Apodidae | Apodiformes | P3 | ZMCU | AF295136 | AF294664 |  |
| Hemiprocne longipennis | Hemiprocnidae | Apodiformes | 1273 | ANSP | AF295137 | AF294665 |  |
| Heliomaster furcifer | Trochilidae | Apodiformes | 966911 | NRM | AF295138 | AF294666 |  |
| Hylocharis chrysura | Trochilidae | Apodiformes | 937161 | NRM | AF295139 | AF294667 |  |
| Phaethornis pretrei | Trochilidae | Apodiformes | 967134 | NRM | AF295140 | AF294668 |  |
| Colius striatus | Coliidae | Coliiformes | P398 | ZMCU | AF295141 | AF294669 |  |
| Trogon melanurus | Trogonidae | Trogoniformes | P494 | ZMCU | AF295142 | AF294670 |  |
| Harpactes diardii | Trogonidae | Trogoniformes |  |  | AF295167 | AF295167 | Irestedt et al. (in press) |
| Alcedo atthis | Alcedinidae | Coraciiformes | 968171 | NRM | AF295143 | AF294671 |  |
| Chloroceryle americana | Alcedinidae | Coraciiformes | 937351 | NRM | AF295144 | AF294672 |  |
| Todus mexicanus | Todidae | Coraciiformes | B11311 | LSUMZ | AF295145 | AF294673 |  |
| Momotus momota | Momotidae | Coraciiformes |  |  | AF295170 | AF295170 | Irestedt et al. (in press) |
| Baryphthengus ruficapillus | Momotidae | Coraciiformes | 937325 | NRM | AF295146 | AF294674 |  |
| Merops viridis | Meropidae | Coraciiformes | P935 | ZMCU | AF295147 | AF294675 |  |
| Coracias caudata (c-myc) | Coraciidae | Coraciiformes | 750 | NMWM | AF295148 |  |  |
| Coracias caudata (RAG-1) | Coraciidae | Coraciiformes |  |  |  | AF143737 | Groth and Barrowclough (1999) |
| Brachypteracias leptosomus | Brachypteraciidae | Coraciiformes | 345686 | FMNH | AF295149 | AF294676 |  |
| Rhinopomastus cyanomelas | Phoeniculidae | Coraciiformes | P916 | ZMCU | AF295150 | AF294677 |  |
| Upupa epops | Upupidae | Coraciiformes | P502 | ZMCU | AF295151 | AF294678 |  |
| Tockus erythrorhynchus | Bucerotidae | Coraciiformes | P487 | ZMCU | AF295152 | AF294679 |  |
| Nystalus maculatus | Bucconidae | Piciformes | 947240 | NRM | AF295153 | AF294680 |  |
| Bucco capensis | Bucconidae | Piciformes |  | T.J. Parsons | AF295154 | AF294681 |  |
| Galbula cyanescens | Galbulidae | Piciformes |  | T.J. Parsons | AF295155 | AF294682 |  |
| Trachyphonus usambiro | Capitonidae | Piciformes | P603 | ZMCU | AF295156 | AF294683 |  |
| Stactolaema olivacea | Capitonidae | Piciformes | P593 | ZMCU | AF295157 | AF294684 |  |
| Eubucco bourcierii | Capitonidae | Piciformes | P587 | ZMCU | AF295158 | AF294685 |  |
| Pteroglossus castanotis | Ramphastidae | Piciformes | 937285 | NRM | AF295159 | AF294686 |  |
| Picumnus cirratus | Picidae | Piciformes |  |  | AF295174 | AF295195 | Irestedt et al. (in press) |
| Dendrocopos major | Picidae | Piciformes |  |  | AF295164 | AF295186 | Irestedt et al. (in press) |
| Pitta angolensis | Pittidae | Passeriformes |  |  | AF295176 | AF295197 | Irestedt et al. (in press) |
| Rhinocrypta lanceolata | Rhinocryptidae | Passeriformes |  |  | AF295178 | AF295199 | Irestedt et al. (in press) |
| Tyrannus savana | Tyrannidae | Passeriformes |  |  | AF295182 | AF295203 | Irestedt et al. (in press) |
| Menura novaehollandiae | Menuridae | Passeriformes |  |  | AF295169 | AF295191 | Irestedt et al. (in press) |
| Campephaga flava | Campephagidae | Passeriformes |  |  | AF295162 | AF295162 | Irestedt et al. (in press) |
| Alectura lathami | Megapodidae | Galliformes | B20851 | LSUMZ | AF296417 | AF294687 |  |
| Gallus gallus (c-myc) | Phasianidae | Galliformes |  | J00889 |  |  | Watson et al. (1983) |
| Gallus gallus (RAG-1) | Phasianidae | Galliformes |  |  |  | AF143730 | Groth and Barrowclough (1999) |
| Anas platyrhynchos (c-myc) | Anatidae | Anseriformes |  | T.J. Parsons | AF295160 |  |  |
| Anas strepera (RAG-1) | Anatidae | Anseriformes |  |  |  | AF143729 | Groth and Barrowclough (1999) |

ANSP, Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia; FMNH, Field Museum of Natural History, Chicago; NRM, Swedish Museum of Natural History, Department of Vertebrate Zoology; ZMCU, University of
Copenhagen, Zoological Institute, Department of Population Biology; LSUMZ, Louisiana State University, Museum of Natural Science; NMWM, National Museum of Namibia.


Fig. 1. Positions of the PCR and sequencing primers relative the amplified fragment of each gene. Nucleotide numbers refer to the homologous position in the published chicken sequence (Watson et al. 1983, Carlson et al. 1991)
uncorrected pairwise sequence distances, with no obvious tendency to level off. Similar patterns have been found among passerine birds for both genes (Irestedt et al. 2000), and in RAG-1 between even more distantly related groups, such as birds and crocodilians (Groth and Barrowclough 1999). A faster rate of mutations in RAG-1 is indicated when plotting the pairwise sequence divergence observed for the two genes against each other (Fig. 3). Most data points fall well above the dashed line that indicates a $1: 1$ ratio between the mutational rates of the two genes.

## Phylogenetic analysis

The analysis of c-myc yielded five trees with a length of 508 steps (Consistency Index (CI) 0.31, Retention Index (RI) 0.54). In the strict consensus of these five trees (Fig. 4) monophyly is not supported for any of the traditionally recognized orders, except the Passeriformes. The passeriform clade is recovered in less than $50 \%$ of the jackknife replicates, however. A $100 \%$ jackknife support was obtained for a clade consisting of the representatives of the families Picidae (Picumnus and Den-
drocopos), Capitonidae (Trachyphonus, Stactolaema, Eubucco), and Ramphastidae (Pteroglossus) (Fig. 4). Within this clade, the Picidae is the sister-group of the Ramphastidae and Capitonidae, although the Capitonidae was not recovered as monophyletic. The South American capitonid, Eubucco, is the sister-group to Ramphastidae, and these in turn form the sister-group to the two African capitonids Trachyphonus and Stactolaema. Other clades receiving jackknife support are the Cuculidae (Cuculus and Piaya, 91\%), Strigidae (Glaucidium and Asio, 91\%), Trogonidae (Harpactes and Trogon, 63\%), Momotidae (Baryphthengus and Momotus, 100\%), and Bucconidae (Bucco and Nystalus, 86\%). The Trochilidae (Phaethornis, Heliomaster and Hylocharis) has a $97 \%$ jackknife support. Within the Trochilidae Phaethornis is the sister to Heliomaster and Hylocharis. High support values are also found for sister-group relationships between Apodidae (Apus) and Hemiprocnidae (Hemiprocne) (94\%), and Phoeniculidae (Rhinopomastus) and Upupidae (Upupa) (99\%), respectively.

A clade recognized in the strict consensus tree, but not receiving jackknife support consists of the Bucerotidae (Tock$u s)$, the swifts and treeswifts (Apodidae and Hemiprocnidae), and all caprimulgiforms (except the Nyctibiidae, Nyctibius). The c-myc data also indicates the existence of a larger clade consisting of the Passeriformes (Pitta, Rhinocrypta, Tyrannus, Menura and Campephaga), Bucconidae (Bucco and Nystalus), Galbulidae (Galbula), Coraciidae (Coracias), Brachypteraciidae (Brachypteracias), Coliidae (Colius), Cuculidae, Trochilidae and Nyctibiidae. No jackknife support was obtained for this clade, however.

In the analysis of the RAG-1 gene, 87 trees with a length of 1520 steps (CI 0.36, RI 0.52) was obtained. In the strict consensus tree calculated from these trees (Fig. 5), all clades that are well supported in the c-myc gene tree are found. Some clades with no support in the c-myc gene tree, as the Caprimulgidae (Podager and Eurostopodus) and the Passeriformes, are supported in the RAG-1 gene tree with values of 89 and $69 \%$, respectively. Other clades in the c-myc gene tree with low jackknife support are not found in the RAG-1 gene tree. Although the RAG-1 strict consensus tree is far less resolved than that for $\mathrm{c}-m y c$, more clades with jackknife support are found in the RAG-1 gene tree. The monophyly of the Alcedinidae (Alcedo and Chloroceryle) is supported with a $98 \%$ jackknife support. Other taxonomic arrangements receiving jackknife supports are the Momotidae and Todidae (Todus) $(86 \%)$, Coraciidae and Brachypteraciidae ( $94 \%$ ), and the Phoeniculidae and Upupidae plus the Bucerotidae ( $75 \%$ ).

| Primer | Sequence ( $5^{\prime}$ to $3^{\prime}$ ) | Reference | Table 2. PCR and sequencing primers |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| c-myc |  |  |  |
| $m y c \mathrm{EX} 3 \mathrm{D}$ | GAAGAAGAACAAGAAGAAGATG | Ericson et al. (2000) |  |
| RmycEX3D | ACGAGAGTTCCTTAGCTGCT | Ericson et al. (2000) |  |
| $m y c \mathrm{EX} 3 \mathrm{~A}$ | CAAGAAGAAGATGAGGAAAT | Ericson et al. (2000) |  |
| RmycEX3A | TTAGCTGCTCAAGTTTGTG | Ericson et al. (2000) |  |
| $m y c \mathrm{EX} 3 \mathrm{C}-1$ | CAAAAAGGCTAAAGTTGG | This study |  |
| RmycEX3B | CGGTTGTTGCTGATCTG | Irestedt et al. (in press) |  |
| RAG-1 |  |  |  |
| R17 | CCCTCCTGCTGGTATCCTTGCTT | Groth and Barrowclough (1999) |  |
| R22 | GAATGTTCTCAGGATGCCTCCCAT | Groth and Barrowclough (1999) |  |
| R50 | CTGATCTGGTAACCCCAGTGAAATCC | Irestedt et al. (in press) |  |
| R51 | GACCCTCTTTCTGCTATGAGGGGGC | Irestedt et al. (in press) |  |
| R52 | CAAGCAGATGAAYTGGAGGC | Irestedt et al. (in press) |  |
| R53 | TCCATGTCCTTTAAGGCACA | Irestedt et al. (in press) |  |

Table 3. c-myc. Pairwise sequence divergence (uncorrected distances, below diagonal), and observed numbers of transistions and transversions (ti -tv , above diagonal)


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Table 4. RAG-1. Pairwise sequence divergence (uncorrected distances, below diagonal), and observed numbers of transistions and transversions (ti - tv, above diagonal)

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Fig. 2. Saturation plots for the c-myc (a) and RAG-1 (b) genes. The number of transitions (open circles) and transversions (closed circles) of each pairwise comparison of taxa plotted against the pairwise uncorrected sequence divergence

The only additional clade recovered in the strict consensus, is the sister-group relationship between the Trochilidae and the Apodidae/Hemiprocnidae-clade indicating monophyly of the Apodiformes.

The analysis of the combined data set yielded eight trees 2061 steps long (CI 0.34 , RI 0.51 ). The strict consensus tree (Fig. 6) contains all the clades that received jackknife support in the analyses of the individual genes. In addition, the


Fig. 3. Percentage sequence divergence of pairwise comparisions for RAG-1 plotted against uncorrected c-myc distances. Most data points fall above the dashed line that indicates a $1: 1$ ratio between the two genes, suggesting a faster mutation rate of RAG-1

Apodiformes now gains some jackknife support (59\%) as does a sister-group relationship between the Galbulidae and Bucconidae ( $72 \%$ ). The jackknife support values calculated from the combined data set are in most cases higher than those for the individual genes (cf. Figures 4, 5 and 6).

## Discussion

## Apodiformes

The sister-group relationship between the Apodidae and Hemiprocnidae is highly supported ( $100 \%$ ) by the present analysis (Fig. 6). This relationship has long been recognized and the group is often referred to as the Apodi. The strict consensus of the combined analysis furthermore supports the monophyly of Apodiformes (59\% jackknife support). Although a monophyletic Apodiformes was not obtained in the analysis of the c-myc gene (Fig. 4), all representatives of the Apodidae, Hemiprocnidae and Trochilidae share an insertion of four amino acids in this gene. Indels are very rare in this portion of the c-myc gene: only three additional occurrences of indels (nonhomologous to the one reported on herein) have been observed among the 175 species (representing 110 avian families) studied to date (Ericson et al. 2000). We believe the rarity of indels adds considerable strength to the hypothesis of monophyly of the Apodiformes suggested by the combined data set.
The Trochilidae and Apodi have been associated in many classifications, primarily based on myological and osteological similarities of the wing. Cohn (1968) have argued that these similarities are convergent due to a highly developed upstroke of the wing, and this has raised some doubts about the relationship between the two groups (Cohn 1968; Zusi and Bentz 1984). However, despite this, the monophyly of the group has been suggested by, for example, Burton (1971),

Cracraft (1981, 1988). Biochemical support for a monophyletic Apodiformes has also been suggested by the shared, unique electrophoretic pattern of the malate dehydrogenase (Kitto and Wilson 1966), by two independent studies of DNA-DNA hybridization data (Sibley and Ahlquist 1990; Bleiweiss et al. 1994), and is also supported by the present analysis (Fig. 6).

## Caprimulgiformes

The Caprimulgiformes are generally considered to be monophyletic, 'although very little evidence has been offered in support' (Cracraft 1988). The present study includes representatives of four families traditionally referred to this order. Their monophyly was not corroborated in the analyses of the nuclear DNA data. On the other hand, as evident from the strict consensus tree (Fig. 6) the data are rather inconclusive and it remains to be determined whether the Caprimulgiformes actually is paraphyletic. In the c-myc gene tree all caprimulgiform taxa except Nyctibius are associated with Apodidae and Hemiprocnidae, in a clade which also includes the Bucerotidae (Fig. 6). This clade is not very robust, however, receiving no jackknife support, except the branch leading to Apodi. Furthermore, this clade is not present in the strict consensus tree based on the analysis of the combined data set (Fig. 6).

An association between the Caprimulgiformes and Apodiformes has been inferred from morphological studies (Cracraft 1981, 1988; Olson 1985). DNA-DNA hybridization data, however, suggest the Caprimulgiformes to be closer related to the Strigiformes, and that these in turn are the sister-group to the Apodiformes (Sibley and Ahlquist 1990). Although the data from the c-myc gene points at a possible relationship between Caprimulgiformes and Apodi, the result from the combined analysis is inconclusive.


Fig. 4. The strict consensus of five most parsimonious trees obtained from the analysis of the c-myc gene (508 steps, $\mathrm{CI}=0.3110$, $\mathrm{RI}=0.5368, \mathrm{RC}=0.2114$ ). Parsimony jackknife support for the clades are indicated above the node, and Bremer support values below

## Piciformes

The Piciformes sensu Wetmore (1960) consists of the families Galbulidae, Bucconidae, Indicatoridae, Ramphastidae Capitonidae and Picidae. Although the monophyly of the Piciformes has been disputed (Sibley and Ahlquist 1972, 1990; Olson 1983, 1985; Burton 1984), it is commonly agreed the families fall into two natural groups; the Galbulae (Galbulidae and Bucconidae) and Pici (the remaining families). Both these groups are


Fig. 5. The strict consensus of 87 most parsimonious trees obtained from the analysis of the RAG-1 gene ( 1520 steps, $\mathrm{CI}=0.3641$, $\mathrm{RI}=0.5240, \mathrm{RC}=0.2127$ ). Parsimony jackknife support for the clades are indicated above the node, and Bremer support values below
supported by several morphological synapomorphies (Swierczewski and Raikow 1981; Simpson and Cracraft 1981; Burton 1984). Also DNA-DNA hybridization data recognize these groupings (Sibley and Ahlquist 1990). Members of both Galbulae and Pici are characterized by a zygodactyl foot with a Type VI arrangement of the deep flexor tendons, i.e. the hallux (digit I), and the digits II and IV, are supplied by M. flexor hallucis longus, whereas M. flexor digitorum only supplies the


Fig. 6. The strict consensus of eight most parsimonious trees obtained from the analysis of the combined data set (2061 steps, $\mathrm{CI}=0.3453, \mathrm{RI}=0.5144, \mathrm{RC}=$ 0.2039 ). Parsimony jackknife support for the clades are indicated above the node, and Bremer support values below. Traditionally used taxonomic names for higherlevel groups mentioned in the text are indicated. Asterisk for indicate the nonmonophyly of the Coraciiformes in the current analysis
digit III. In the other zygodactyl birds (Psittaciformes and Cuculidae), M. flexor hallucis longus supplies only digit I, and the M. flexor digitorum supplies digits II, III and IV. The zygodactyl foot with the Type VI arrangement is unique among birds and has been proposed as a synapomorphy for the

Piciformes (Swierczewski and Raikow 1981; Simpson and Cracraft 1981; Raikow and Cracraft 1983). Furthermore, in the Galbulae and Pici the M. flexor hallucis originates by three heads on the femur and fibula, whereas in most other birds it has one or two heads only (Raikow and Cracraft 1983).

Several studies, however, suggest the Piciformes (sensu Wetmore 1960) to be paraphyletic. On the basis of studies on the feeding apparatus, Burton (1984) suggested that the Galbulae should be placed in the Coraciiformes as the sistergroup to a clade including the Coraciidae, Brachypteraciidae and Leptosomatidae. Sibley and Ahlquist $(1972,1990)$ also suggested a coraciiform affinity of the Galbulae based on similarities in the electrophoretic pattern of the egg-white proteins and DNA-DNA hybridization studies. In the latter study, the Pici was placed as the sister-group to most other neognathous birds besides Anseriformes and Galliformes. In other studies Pici has been associated with the Passeriformes (Olson 1983; Brom 1990; Mayr 1998).
Our study supports monophyly of the Pici within which a clade with the two woodpeckers (Dendrocopos and Picumnus) forms the sister-group to a clade consisting of the Ramphastidae and Capitonidae. Within the latter clade the Ramphastidae and the South American representatives of the Capitonidae group together, with the African capitonids as their sister-group. Paraphyly of the Capitonidae has previously been suggested both from morphological (Burton 1984; Prum 1988) and molecular studies (Sibley and Ahlquist 1990; Lanyon and Hall 1994). Galbulae, the second major clade of piciform birds, is also corroborated by the present analysis (Fig. 6). However, our data are unable to resolve the relationship between Galbulae and Pici.

## Coraciiformes

Wetmore (1960) included in the order Coraciiformes the families Alcedinidae, Todidae, Momotidae, Meropidae, Coraciidae, Brachypteraciidae, Leptosomatidae, Upupidae, Phoeniculidae and Bucerotidae. The taxonomic delimitation of this order is, however, disputed. For example, Feduccia (1975a) and Maurer and Raikow (1981) included Trogoniformes in the group, whereas Burton (1984) suggested the Galbulae to be nested within the Coraciiformes. Furthermore, Burton (1984) and Olson (1985) have suggested the Upupidae, Phoeniculidae and Bucerotidae is a monophyletic assemblage closer to Pici than to the Coraciiformes.
Although the monophyly of the Coraciiformes is questioned some subclades may be recognized. A clade consisting of the Upupidae, Phoeniculidae and Bucerotidae have been suggested from both morphology (e.g. Burton 1984; Mayr 1998) and biochemical data (Sibley and Ahlquist 1990). Within this group evidence for monophyly of the Upupidae and Phoeniculidae comes from their possession of a uniquely derived stape (Feduccia 1975a, b) as well as several myological (Maurer and Raikow 1981) and osteological (Mayr 1998) characters. Although supporting such a sister-group relationship between the Upupidae \& Phoeniculidae, Maurer and Raikow (1981) did not find them to be closely related to the Bucerotidae.
The present study supports the sister-group relationship between the Upupidae and Phoeniculidae, and that these in turn form the sister-group of the Bucerotidae (Fig. 6). Furthermore, the data indicates that this group is the sistergroup to the representatives of the Capitonidae, Ramphastidae and Picidae, i.e. the Pici. This latter association does not receive any jackknife support. However, Burton (1984) and Olson (1985) have tentatively suggested a possible relationship between these groups.
Support is found for a sister-group relationship between the Momotidae and Todidae (Fig. 6), a clade also supported by
myology (Maurer and Raikow 1981), paleontology (Olson 1976) osteology (Mayr 1998), and mitochondrial sequence data (Espinosa de los Monteros 2000). Analyses of stapal morphology (Feduccia 1975a) and myology (Maurer and Raikow 1981) suggest the Momotidae and Todidae to be part of a monophyletic clade consisting also of the Alcedinidae, Meropidae and Trogonidae. A similar association was suggested by Mayr (1998) but with the possible exclusion of Trogonidae. The present analysis of nuclear DNA data does not support this arrangement. Although the Alcedinidae is the sister-group of Momotidae and Todidae in the strict consensus tree, the Meropidae and Trogonidae were not found to be closely related to this clade but in the strict consensus tree they were placed near the Bucerotidae, Upupidae, Phoeniculidae and representatives of the Pici (Fig. 6).

Among the other taxa traditionally considered to be part of Coraciiformes, data support the sister-group relationship between Coraciidae and Brachypteraciidae, but the affinity of this group to other birds is not resolved. None of the other relationships involving coraciiform taxa suggested by the analyses of the individual genes (Figs 5 and 6), received any jackknife support.

## Coliidae

The phylogenetic position of the Coliidae is very uncertain (see review in Sibley and Ahlquist 1990). The nuclear data in this study (Fig. 6) indicates a possible connection with Galbulae, although this association is not supported by the jackknife analysis.

## Passeriformes

Based on both morphological and biochemical data (Raikow 1982; Sibley and Ahlquist 1990) the Passeriformes is regarded to be a monophyletic taxon that has evolved rather late compared to many other lineages of extant birds. Analyses of mitochondrial sequence data have arrived at the different conclusion that the Passeriformes is paraphyletic and that its phylogenetic position is basal to, e.g. the paleognathous birds and Galloanserae (Mindell et al. 1997, 1999; Härlid 1999). These hypotheses are not corroborated by the present analysis, and the nuclear data support the monophyly of the Passeriformes (Fig. 6). The relationships among the passerine birds included here furthermore agree with those found in a taxonomically more inclusive study by Irestedt et al. (in press).

## Cuculiformes

The Cuculidae and the Musophagidae both posses an ambiens muscle and are not included in Anomalogonatae sensu Beddard (1898). They have often been regarded closely related and placed in an order of their own, the Cuculiformes. Support for this arrangement comes from the observation that electrophoretic patterns of egg-white proteins of the Musophagidae are more similar to some cuculids than to any other birds (Sibley and Ahlquist 1972). However, results from analyses of DNA-DNA hybridization data contradict this association (Sibley and Ahlquist 1990). Instead, the Cuculidae was thought to be the sister-group to a large assemblage of birds consisting of 'more than half of the groups of living birds' (op. cit. p.370), including the Musophagidae. Mitochondrial DNA sequence data suggested the Cuculidae to be nested within the Anomalogonatae (Espinosa de los Monteros 2000).

The two cuckoos Cuculus (Cuculinae) and Piaya (Coccyzinae) grouped together in all analyses of the present study, indicating monophyly of the Cuculidae, but monophyly of the Cuculiformes (Cuculidae and Musophagidae) was not corroborated by the analysis. In the strict consensus of the c-myc gene tree Corythaixoides (Musophagidae) is positioned basal relative to all ingroup taxa (Fig. 6). The Cuculidae, however, is placed more apical in the tree. Neither the RAG-1 gene tree nor the combined tree are conclusive regarding the relationships of the Cuculidae and Musophagidae.

## Concluding remarks

The phylogenies obtained from the $c-m y c$ and RAG-1 genes are generally similar, although partly unresolved. Branches receiving high jackknife and Bremer supports in one gene tree are not contradicted by supported clades in the other gene tree. Conflicts have only been observed among clades with no support in the trees derived from the different data sets.
To a large extent, the basal relationship within the 'higher land birds' are unresolved in the present analysis. Phylogenetic relationships at higher taxonomic levels in birds have proven difficult to determine regardless of what kind of data is analyzed. The problem might be attributed to the combination of the great antiquity of many lineages, some having evolved in the early Tertiary or even earlier, together with the occurrence of periods in the avian evolution with rapid cladogenesis. As a result, phylogenetic trees with long-terminal branches and relatively short internodes are commonly found in analyses of higher-level relationships in birds (e.g. Espinosa de los Monteros 2000; van Tuinen et al. 2000) which in turn may lead to poorly resolved trees. Sequencing of multiple genes with different mutational rates together with a denser taxon sampling may improve resolution in the tree, but with a rapid, ancient diversification of the taxa the true phylogenetic pattern may also be difficult to detect regardless of the amount of data.

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## Zusammenfassung

Die von nuklearen DNA-Sequenzen abgeleiten Kladen bei den 'Höheren and vögeln'

Es wurde eine Studie über die phylogenetischen Beziehungen bei den 'höheren Landvögeln' mit Hilfe einer Parsimonie-Analyse von DNAKernsequenzen zweier proteincodierender Genen, $c-m y c$ und RAG-1, durchgeführt. Kerngene wurden bisher noch nicht für die Untersuchung dieser phylogentischen Frage eingesetzt. Die Ergebnisse
unterstützen mit hohen Jackknife-Werten eine Monophylie der Apodiformes (einschließlich der Trochilidae). Eine solche Einordnung wird auch durch die Beobachtung einer Einfüngung von vier Aminosäuren im $c$-myc-Gen bei allen apodiformen Taxa unterstützt. Eine Monophylie konnte ebenso für die beiden picidiformen Gruppen, Glabulae und Pici, bestätigt werden. Bei den Pici erweisen sich die Capitonidae als paraphyletisch, wobei die Bartvögel der NeuenWelt näher mit den Ramphistidae verwandt sind als mit den Bartvögeln der Alten Welt. Eine weitere Klade, die durch hohe Jackknife-Werte unterstützt wird, besteht aus den Upupidae, Phoeniculidae und Bucerotidae. Die Familien Momotidae und Todidae bzw. Coraciidae und Brachypteraciidae bilden ebenfalls gut unterstützte Kladen. Über die Monophylie der Ordnungen Coraciiformes und Piciformes können die Ergebnisse jedoch keine Entscheidung herbeiführen.

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