Research Article

Phylogeography of crossbills, bullfinches, grosbeaks, and rosefinches

A. Arnaiz-Villena a, *, J. Guillén a, V. Ruiz-del-Valle a, E. Lowy, J. Zamora a, P. Varela a, D. Stefani b and L.M. Allende a

^a Department of Immunology and Molecular Biology, Hospital 12 de Octubre, Universidad Complutense,
 28041 Madrid (Spain), Fax +34 91 390 83 99, e-mail: aarnaiz@eucmax.sim.ucm.es

Received 26 March 2001; received after revision 7 May 2001; accepted 6 June 2001

Abstract. Mitochondrial cytochrome b (cyt b) from 24 Carduelini species including crossbills, bullfinches, grosbeaks, rosefinches, and other related, but not conclusively classified species, was sequenced. These sequences were also compared with all the available sequences from the genera *Carduelis*, *Serinus*, and *Passer*. Phylogenetic analyses consistently gave the same groups of finches and the calculated divergence times suggest that speciation of the studied species occurred between 14 and 3 million years ago (Miocene-Pliocene), appearing before the *Passer*, *Carduelis*, and *Serinus* genera. Pleistocene glaciations may have been important in subspeciation. Crossbills are integrated within the genus *Carduelis*, together with redpolls; the common crossbill

shows subspeciation with Loxia japonica in the Pleistocene epoch. Pinicola enucleator groups together with bullfinches and is probably the ancestor of the group. Hawfinch is only distantly related to the studied groups, and might either represent an isolated genus or be related to the New World genus Hesperiphona. The grosbeak genera Eophona and Mycerobas are clearly sister groups, and species belonging to the former might have given rise to Mycerobas species. The isolated (in classification) Uragus sibericus and Haematospiza sipahi are included within the genus Carpodacus (rosefinches); Carpodacus nipalensis is outside the genus Carpodacus in the molecular analyses and might be an isolated species or related to the genus Montifringilla.

Key words. Crossbill; bullfinch; grosbeaks, rosefinch; goldfinch; redpoll; Carduelini; canary; sparrow; greenfinch; siskin; linnet.

The Order Passeriformes includes the Passerine birds, and contains several families and subfamilies representing about one-half of extant birds [1]. The classification, phylogeny, and relationships of the so-called Carduelini finches remain unresolved. The tribe Carduelini includes goldfinches (genus *Carduelis*), crossbills (*Loxia*), canaries (*Serinus*), rosefinches (*Carpodacus*), bullfinches (*Pyrrhula*) and grosbeaks (*Eophona, Mycerobas*) and

some other related genera comprising one or two species [1]. DNA hybridization techniques have placed Carduelini finches closely to Hawaiian honeycreepers [1]. However, this technique presents many difficulties in interpretation and the Carduelini have also been related to ploceids and estrilids by osteological parameters [2] and to chaffinches, bramblings, and honeycreepers using myological data [3].

In the present work, we aimed to study the phylogenetic relationships among Carduelini (particularly crossbills, bullfinches, grosbeaks, and rosefinches) at the microevolutionary level by using mitochondrial cy-

^b viale Colombo, 67, Cagliari (Sardinia)

^{*} Corresponding author.

A. Arnaiz-Villena and J. Guillén contributed equally to this work.

tochrome b (mt cyt b) DNA sequences. Comparison of these species together is important to obtain a detailed overview of these still not clearly classified groups of genera and species. The results are compared with the previously studied relationships among goldfinches [4] and canaries [5].

The present study examined the cyt b gene from the following genera: Carduelis, Serinus, Loxia, Pyrrhula, Carpodacus, Mycerobas, Eophona, Haematospiza, Uragus, and Coccothraustes, and used it as a source of systematic characters to test hypotheses of relationships among these genera. Particular attention was paid to terminal dendrogram branching in order to accumulate details necessary for a microevolutionary study.

Material and methods

Names of species and place of origin are given in table 1, which also includes GenBank accession numbers. Blood from living birds was drawn after their claws had been locally anesthetized with a lidocaine ointment and then cut. Blood was collected in ice-cold EDTA and frozen until use. 924 base pairs of the mt cyt b gene were amplified with primers L14841 5'-AAAAAGCTTCCAT CCAA-CATCTCAGCATGATGAAA-3' and H15767 5'-AT-GAAGGGATGTTCTACTGGTTG-3' as detailed by Edwards et al. [6]. Polymerase chain reaction (PCR), cloning, and automatic DNA sequencing were performed as previously described [6, 7]. Two individuals per species were studied in order to identify variation among individuals. At least four clones from two different PCRs were sequenced from each species. Eigth cyt b clones from each specimen were sequenced and an average of five of these were used to obtain a consensus sequence. Four different phylogenetic tree-constructing methodologies were used [8]: unweighted parsimony, neighbor joining (NJ) with a maximum-likelihood genetic distance matrix, linearized NJ trees with a Kimura biparametric genetic distance, and unweighted pair group with arithmetic mean (UPGMA) with Kimura biparametric genetic distance matrix. The statistical significance of a particular sequence cluster was also evaluated by the confidence probability (CP) (CP = 1 - type 1 error) [9]. This com-

Table 1. List of species, origin and mt cytochrome b sequence identification.

Species		Mt cyt b sequenc	Sample region
1	Siskin (Carduelis spinus)	L76391	Madrid, Spain
2	Pine siskin (Carduelis pinus pinus)	U79020	Jackson, Wyoming, USA
3	Linnet siskin (Carduelis notata notata)	U79019	Chiapas, Mexico
4	Lawrence's goldfinch (Carduelis lawrencei)	L76392	San Diego, California, USA
5	Citril finch (Serinus citrinella citrinella)	L77872	Madrid Sierra, Spain
6	Goldfinch (Carduelis carduelis parva)	L76387	Madrid, Spain
7	Goldfinch (Carduelis carduelis caniceps)	L76388	Kathmandu, Nepal
8	Common redpoll (Carduelis flammea flammea)	L76386	Brussels, Belgium
9	Artic redpoll (Carduelis hornemanni hornemanni)	U83201	Cage bird, Antwerp, Belgium
10	Two-barred crossbill (Loxia leucoptera bifasciata)	AF342878	Siberia, Russia
11	Common crossbill (Loxia curvirostra curvirostra	AF342876	Alcalá de Henares, Spain
12	Common crossbill (Loxia curvirostra japonica)	AF342877	Beijing, China
13	Common rosefinch (Carpodacus erythrinus roseatus)	AF342883	Islamabad, Pakistan
14	Scarlet finch (Haematospiza sipahi)	AF342875	Kathmandu, Nepal
15	Eastern great rosefinch (Carpodacus rubicilloides lucifer)	AF342868	Kathmandu, Nepal
16	Long-tailed rosefinch (Uragus sibiricus lepidus)	AF365877	Beijing, China
17	Beautiful rosefinch (Carpodacus pulcherrimus pulcherrimus)	AF365878	Kathmandu, Nepal
18	White-browed rosefinch (Carpodacus thura thura)	AF342869	Kathmandu, Nepal
19		AF342867	Beijing, China
20	Three-banded rosefinch (Carpodacus trifasciatus)	AF342870	Szechwan, China
21	House rosefinch (Carpodacus mexicanus frontalis)	AF342865	Los Angeles, California, USA
22	Dark rosefinch (Carpodacus nipalensis nipalensis)	AF342866	Katmandu, Nepal
23	Brown bullfinch (Pyrrhula nipalensis nipalensis)	AF342884	Katmandu, Nepal
24		AF342882	Novorsibirsk, Russia
25	Beavan's bullfinch (Pyrrhula erythaca wilderi)	AF342862	Beijing, China
26		AF342886	Novosibirsk, Russia
27	Common bullfinch (Pyrrhula pyrrhula iberiae)	AF342885	Santander, Spain
28	Common bullfinch (Pyrrhula pyrrhula griseiventris)	AF342881	Beijing, China
29	Japanese grosbeak (Eophona personata magnirostris)	AF342872	Beijing, China
30	Chinese grosbeak (Eophona migratoria migratoria)	AF342871	Beijing, China
31		AF342880	Kathmandu, Nepal
32		AF342879	Kathmandu, Nepal
33		L76609	Madrid, Spain

plements the bootstrap values. The BLAST program was used for sequence alignment (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/BLAST).

The linearized NJ tree was also obtained for estimating divergence times using the divergence between the chicken and pheasant as a molecular calibration point [10]. Times of species divergence are only rough estimates. Thus, the time scale for the linearized NJ tree was obtained by comparing cyt b of chicken [11] and pheasant [12], two species that diverged about 20 million years ago (MYA) [13] according to combined fossil and molecular comparison calculations. The trees shown in this paper were rooted with *Fringilla coelebs*.

Maximum parsimony (MP), NJ with maximun-likelihood distances, linearized NJ with Kimura biparametric distances and UPGMA with biparametric distance matrices were obtained with the PAUP*4.0b2 program, kindly provided by Swofford [14] and with the MEGA package program in the case of the linearized tree [15]. The following calculations were carried out: number of substitutions (synonymous and nonsynonymous), number of variable and phylogenetically informative sites, and the base composition according to codon position. Bootstrap values were calculated to test the topology robustness of trees [16]. Low bootstrap values have been included in cases when the same topology was supported by at least two different tree construction methodologies [17]. To further assess node robustness, the statistical CP of a particular sequence cluster was calculated using the MEGA program [15]. Subsequent analyses were designed to take into account levels of saturation (multiple substitutions at single sites) in different partitions of the data sets. Scatter plots were drawn to compare pairwise percent sequence divergence to pairwise transversion and pairwise transition divergence at first, second, and third codon positions; both Gallus gallus and Fringilla coelebs chaffinch were used in the saturation plots (fig. 1). Two different estimates of percent divergence were used; these serve as approximations of time since divergence: Kimura's two-parameter [18] genetic distance, and uncorrected pairwise divergence $(p = N_d/n, \text{ where } p \text{ is the }$ percent sequence divergence, $N_{\rm d}$ is the number of nucleotides that differ between two sequences, and n is the total number of nucleotides compared [19, 20]).

Domestic chicken (*G. gallus* [11]) was used as a distant outgroup in both UPGMA and NJ linearized trees. Similar tree topologies were obtained with either *Gallus* or the more closely related *F. coelebs* (not shown).

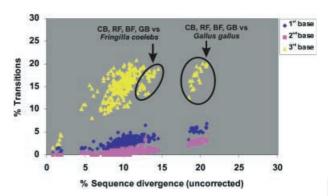
A LINTRE test was also performed to test whether a molecular clock exists among all lineages used in our analyses [9]; linearized trees were obtained using this test, reestimating the branch lengths under the assumption of a constant rate of evolution (i.e., a molecular clock), and examining whether these showed significant differences from the trees illustrated in figure 3 (see below). The

computer software used for these calculations can be obtained from the web sites: ftp://ftp.bio.indiana.edu/molbio/evolve/lintr/ or http://cib.nig.ac.jp/dda/ntakezak.html.

Results and discussion

Patterns of DNA base substitution

Saturation plots for cyt b (fig. 1) indicated that only thirdposition transitions showed a clear leveling-off associated with saturation; this occurred at 13% uncorrected total sequence divergence (crossbills, rosefinches, bullfinches, and grosbeaks/Fringilla) and at sequence divergences of more than 20% in the comparisons of crossbills, rosefinches, bullfinches and grosbeaks/Gallus (see fig. 1). Assessment of saturation gave similar results using Kimura's two parameter distances. We concluded that five out six data partitions (first, second, third codon position bases and transitions/transversions) were not saturated and were thus available to calculate correct phylogenies. Variable and phylogenetically informative sites were also calculated; there are 328 and 250 respectively, when crossbills, rosefinches, bullfinches, and grosbeaks are analyzed using F. coelebs as an outgroup, and 369 and



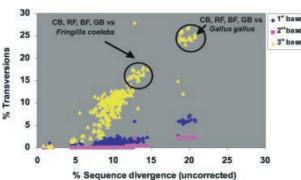


Figure 1. Saturation plots for the cytochrome b gene that relate uncorrected sequence divergence to changes due to transitions (top) and transversions (bottom) at first, second, and third codon positions. CB, crossbills; RF, rosefinches; BF, bullfinches; GB, grosbeaks. *Pinicola enucleator* is included among bullfinches and *Haematospiza sipahi* and *Uragus sibiricus* is included among rosefinches.

F

250, respectively, when *G. gallus* is used as an outgroup. These numbers are appropriate to establish sound phylogenetic comparisons [21]. Data related to *Gallus* are included throughout the text when discussing the species time of divergence hypotheses.

The nucleotide distribution pattern of the cyt b gene of the birds under study was similar to that found in a previous analysis of this gene in other birds and mammals [13]. At the first codon positions, the four bases had similar frequencies; at the second position, fewer G residues and more T residues were seen. At the third codon position, the bias against G and T was strong, as demonstrated in previous studies [6, 13]. This bias in base composition was similar in all species studied (results not shown). Thus, the parsimony methodology seems to be adequate for all species studied [22]. The variability within the cyt b gene was theoretically sufficient to establish phylogenetic relationships according to the number of observed phylogenetically informative sites [21]; most of the differences were silent substitutions, as expected for a pro-

tein-coding gene, particularly for close relatives, such as species within a single genus [23].

As expected for a gene evolving relatively rapidly under strong functional constraints, 84.1% of the third codon positions were variable among species. The corresponding figures for the first and second positions were 18.5% and 3.9%, respectively. The base composition according to codon position was similar in all species; thus, a correct phylogeny may be inferred from the parsimony analysis.

The relative tempo of crossbill, rosefinch, bullfinch and grosbeak evolution was calculated. To estimate the rate of evolution, we used the type of calculations previously employed by ourselves and others [4, 5, 10]. After calibration of evolutionary rates, the times of origin of Darwin's finches, canaries, and goldfinches were estimated. An UPGMA dendrogram (not shown) and a linearized NJ dendrogram with Kimura biparametric distances (fig. 2) were constructed because these types of phylogenetic tree are more suitable for estimating divergence times than

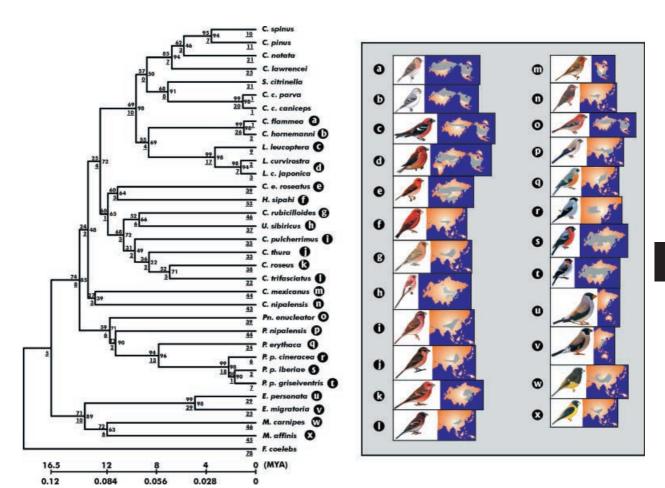


Figure 2. Linearized NJ tree calculated with Kimura biparametric distances. Divergence times are estimated for mt cyt b genes under a mixed molecular and fossil hypothesis [10]. The confidence probability (CP) is shown in the interior part of the node. Bootstrap values are shown above branches; branch lenghts (\times 1000) are shown underlined below branches. Bird species used are detailed in table 1. Tree length (\times 1000) = 1082. Genetic distances are depicted under the time scale. [Birds are modified from ref. 30. Maps were drawn in our laboratory using refs 30 and 34.

other methods, in particular when a molecular clock exists (shown in this case by the LINTRE test, see below) [9]. Both the UPGMA and the linearized NJ trees were obtained using F. coelebs as an outgroup. Analysis of the genera Loxia, Carpodacus, Uragus, Haematospiza, Pyrrhula, Eophona, and Mycerobas suggested an evolutionary rate of 0.44×10^{-9} nonsynonymous substitutions per nonsynonymous site per year and 1.43×10^{-8} synonymous substitutions per synonymous site per year, so that the overall rate is $3.6 \pm 0.14 \times 10^{-9}$ [10]. This results in a substitution rate of 0.4% per million years, which leads to a rough approximation of 8% nucleotide substitutions per 10 million years. Taking into account the mtDNA differences found between the most distant species in the scaled constructed linearized tree shown in figure 2, which also approximates to 8%, the radiation seems to have started about 13 MYA, before that of the Serinus and Carduelis genera (fig. 2) [refs 4, 5 and unpublished data]. F. coelebs was found to have diverged 16.5 MYA; this value was used in figure 2. The topology of the UPGMA and linearized NJ trees (fig. 2) was very similar when using chicken and pheasant as additional outgroups (not shown). This is important for discussing the divergence times hypotheses put forward in the present work. However, the substitution rate found by us (0.4% per million years) differs from the standard 2% per million years. Furthermore, cranes show a slower rate of nucleotide substitution (about 1% [24]), closer to our results for Carduelis, Serinus and Passer.

Estimates using chicken/pheasant as an outgroup were similar to those obtained when Fringilla was the outgroup. Nevertheless, the calculation of times of species divergence needs to be confirmed by other methodologies and with additional species. Passerines [8] are found to be older than paleognathous birds, and the Carduelini species (Carduelis and Serinus) which are relatively close to Old World sparrows (genus *Passer*) are considered nearly as old as Passer [4, 5, 25, 26]. The use of either chaffinch or chicken and pheasant as outgroups for inferring phylogenies in our sample would seem to be correct, because only third position transitions appear to be saturated (fig. 1), but we chose the more closely related Fringilla to root the trees; the LINTRE computer program [9] also showed that there the evolutionary rates are constant among the bird lineages used. Thus, for cyt b, a molecular clock exists among the studied species (table 1). Finally, a caveat should be added because an early timing for passerine divergence [4, 5, 8, 27] is not accepted by others who propose speciation during the Pleistocene [28].

Phylogeography of crossbills, bullfinches, grosbeaks, and rosefinches

In the present work, the complete geographical range of crossbills, bullfinches, grosbeaks, and rosefinches was covered with the studied species.

In preliminary analyses (data not shown), canaries (genus *Serinus*) were shown not to be related to either gold-finches (genus *Carduelis*) or any of the genera newly studied in the present paper.

1) Crossbills (genus Loxia, 4 species)

Crossbills are closely related to redpolls (Carduelis flammea and C. hornemanni) in all analyses and all dendrograms (figs. 2, 3). Phylogenetic trees which included all Carduelis [4] and Serinus [5] species showed the same strong close redpoll/crossbill relatedness (data not shown). Like redpolls, crossbills have a northern hemisphere distribution, and a characteristic crossed mandible for specialized extraction of conifer seeds. They seem to have a more ancient origin than redpolls (see NJ linearized tree, fig. 2). They probably originated from a Carduelis-like ancestor when conifers were very common on Earth. Pine cones undergo irregular cycles of appearance and redpolls may have evolved at a time when pine cones were scarce and the hypothetical ancestor of the redpoll was forced to emerge from the conifer woods to find food in neighboring small mesothermal plants. The time when this occurred is uncertain; if we take the time scale hypothesized in figure 2, it would be about 9 MYA. There was clearly a decline in the number of conifers after the cold periods of Pleistocene glaciations, when redpolls could have appeared (fig. 2). However, the time scale is still debated [4, 5, 8, 27, 28]. Beak shape may change very rapidly according to feeding needs (i.e., lack of conifers [29]).

The Arctic redpoll (*C. hornemanni*, size 14 cm) is very similar to *Loxia curvirostra japonica*, a very small *Loxia* subspecies (14–15 cm). Red color varying in distribution placements and intensity according to subspecies, is conserved in both crossbill and redpoll males [30]. Typical seasonal north-south migrating patterns occur in both crossbills and redpolls, but the characteristic southern irruptive behavior of the former is unique, since the availability of pine cones is unpredictable in the pine woods [30, 31].

Consideration should also be given to the possibility of classifying redpolls apart from the genus *Carduelis* and together with *Loxia*, since redpolls are genetically distant from the twite/linnet couple [4]. Previously, twite, linnet, and redpolls were considered as a subgroup (or even another genus, *Acanthis*) [30, 31] within the genus *Carduelis*.

2) Bullfinches (genus Pyrrhula, 6 species)

These finches have a palearctic distribution, including the Azores Islands and Japan. In the present work, we collected species and subspecies representing the entire geographic range. Their beak has evolved to eat buds [30]. They cluster together with pine grosbeak, *Pinicola enucleator* (presently placed in the genus *Pinicola*, 2 species)

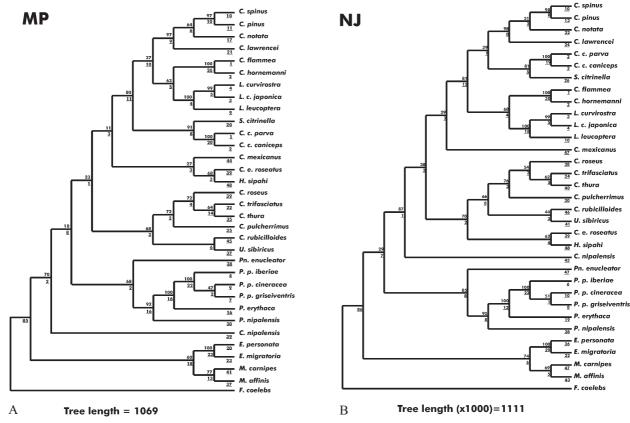


Figure 3. (a). Maximum unweighted parsimony tree. A Heuristic search was used (PAUP). Consistency and retention indexes were 0.42 and 0.53, respectively. The majority-rule bootstrap consensus tree based on 924 bases of mt cyt b genes is shown. The transition/transversion ratio was 2:1; the observed 5:1 ratio made no differences. Parsimony bootstrap analysis was done with 1000 replications, and values (in percent) are shown above branches. Parsimony was used unweighted (first, second, and third nucleotide) because weighting is only recommended for greater amounts of evolutionary divergence, which are not expected among the relatively closely related species analyzed [21]. The number of events is shown underlined below branches. Bird species used are detailed in table 1. (b) Neighbor-joining bootstrap tree (1000 replications) based on 924 bases of cyt b genes. Bootstrap values are shown above branches; branch lengths (x 1000) are shown underlined below branches. The evolutionary model used was 'the minimum evolution.' The transition /transversion ratio was 2:1. Distance matrices were calculated based on maximum-likelihood analysis [14]. Bird species used are detailed in table 1.

and monophyly of the group seems to be evident, since both the bootstrap and the CP of the node are significantly high (figs 2, 3). Therefore, *Pinicola* is not related to *Loxia* or *Carpodacus* as previously thought [30] and probably shares a common antecessor with bullfinches (fig. 2). Pine grosbeak would be the one *Pyrrhula* finch, found in North America, and showing a holoarctic distribution.

Pine grosbeak has been grouped with the red-headed rosefinch (*Pinicola subhimachala*) based on phenotypic characters in the genus *Pinicola* (only these 2 species). Both are larger (length ca 22 cm) than *Pyrrhula* and *Carpodacus* finches. However, the genus *Pinicola* might be split between *Pyrrhula* (pine grosbeak) and *Carpodacus* (red-headed rosefinch), the latter sharing many phenotypic characteristics with *Carpodacus* (rosefinches) except for the much bigger size (length 20 cm). Size should not be a criterion for including the red-headed rosefinch within the genus *Carpodacus*, since *Haematospiza sipahi*

(19 cm in length) is a sister species of *Carpodacus erythrinus roseatus* (figs 2, 3). The phenotypically defined subspecies *Pyrrhula pyr. cinerea* and *griseiventris* are concordant with the molecular subspecies status suggested in this work (see fig. 2). The time of divergence of the *Pyrrhula* species (11 MYA) seems to be more recent than that of grosbeaks and rosefinches but earlier than the crossbill-redpoll divergence time.

3) Grosbeaks (genus Coccothraustes, 1 species; genus Eophona, 2 species; genus Mycerobas, 4 species)
Coccothraustes coccothraustes (hawfinch) was phylogenetically unrelated to any of the tested Carduelini groups [30]. To test hawfinch relatedness to the other groups newly studied in the present work, a 306-nucleotide-long cyt b sequence was retrieved from GenBank [26], aligned with the BLAST program, and NJ, UPGMA, and maximum-parsimony trees were constructed. Hawfinch remained as an isolated branch between the Pyrrhula and

Mycerobas genera and all other species represented in figure 2 and 3. It showed the same placement in all trees (data not shown). The genetic distances (maximum likelihood) from hawfinch to Loxia, Pyrrhula, Carpodacus, Mycerobas, and Eophona were relatively high and very similar (between 0.09–0.12). Mean distances between Carduelis, Pyrrhula, Carpodacus, Mycerobas and Eophona were placed between 0.001 and 0.03. Therefore, hawfinch molecular phylogeny supports the classification as a single and separate species from other Carduelini finches. However, the entire mt cyt b DNA gene should be tested for further assessment of hawfinch phylogeny, particularly with possible relatives, such as the New World Hesperiphona finches [30].

The genera *Eophona* and *Mycerobas* are closely related in all trees with high bootstrap and CP values (figs 2, 3). Whether they should be considered a single or two different genera is unclear, and the two missing *Mycerobas* species (*M. icteroides* and *M. melanozanthos*) should be tested in the future. The phenotypical relationship between *Mycerobas* and *Eophona* genera had been established previously [30].

Grosbeaks seem to have appeared on Earth earlier than the genera *Carduelis*, *Loxia*, *Carpodacus* and *Pyrrhula* in accordance with the hypothesized timing in figure 2 (14 MYA).

4) Rosefinches (genus Carpodacus, 21 species)

Most rosefinches are closer to the genus Carduelis than the others birds studied here. Carpodacus nipalensis (dark rosefinch) is an outlier from the group. The head, beak, and body characteristics are more like those of a chaffinch (Montifringilla sp.) than a rosefinch (unpublished results). It clusters in figure 2 (but not in fig. 3) with the house finch (Carpodacus mexicanus) because they are both outliers and long branches may attract each other in this type of analysis [32]. Furthermore, it is remarkable that the only American species studied in this work (house finch) is an outlier; it is separate from Asian rosefinches and it seems more closely related to genus Carduelis. When more rosefinch species are added to the dendrograms (figs 2, 3), the house finch may possibly become more integrated in the Carpodacus group. It shows no relationship with Old or New World sparrows [33]. This is more doubtful for *C. nipalensis*, which has such different phenotypic characters, and its relationships with geographically closer Montifringilla species should be studied in the future. Uragus sibiricus, which was classified as the only species belonging to the genus Uragus because it has a rosefinch body and a Pyrrhula beak, is definitely a sister species of Carpodacus rubicilloides. It may have changed its beak from that of C. rubicilloides (or its ancestor) as an adaptation to eat mainly buds, like *Pyrrhula*. This is another example of beak change in a relatively short time (figs 2, 3) [29].

The relationship of *U. sibiricus* with *Urocynchramus pylzowi* (pink-tailed rosefinch) should be studied in the future because of their phenotypic similarities and close geographical range (more limited for the latter, in central China).

Conclusions

- 1) The time of appearance of the species of crossbills, bullfinches, grosbeaks, and rosefinches studied is suggested in figure 2; the species may have arisen between the Miocene and Pliocene. However, although concordant times have been found for *Serinus* and *Carduelis* [4, 5], these early timings for passerine emergence are accepted by some [8, 10, 27] but not by all [28] authors.
- 2) Crossbills (genus *Loxia*) are integrated within the genus *Carduelis*, together with redpolls. The common crossbill shows subspeciation with *L. japonica* in the Pleistocene epoch.
- 3) Pine grosbeak (*P. enucleator*) groups with bullfinches and is probably one of the most ancient finches of the genus *Pyrrhula*, together with *Pyrrhula nipalensis* (figs 2, 3).
- 4) Hawfinch (*C. coccothraustes*) is not related to any of the bird groups studied in the present work (in particular not with *Eophona* or *Mycerobas*, which were considered by some investigators to be grosbeaks together with the hawfinch [30]). The phenotypic separation of the genus *Coccothraustes* is supported and its probably close relationship with the New World *Hesperiphona* species should be studied. *Mycerobas* and *Eophona* birds are closely related, the latter being more ancient and possible the common ancestor to both genera.
- 5) The long-tailed rosefinch (*U. sibiricus*) is a sister species of *Carpodacus* and is not related to *Pyrrhula* species. Its probable relationship with *U. pylzowi* should be studied in the future.
- 6) The large *Haematospiza sipahi* is included within the genus *Carpodacus*.
- 7) *C. nipalensis*, a *Fringilla* or *Montifringilla*-like finch, is not included within genus *Carpodacus*.

Acknowledgements. We are indebted to the following Spanish ornithologists: Bernardino Yebes, Gloria Gardó, Francisco Mira Chinchilla, Arturo Fernández Cagiao, and Alvaro Guillén. Alberto García helped in designing the figures. This work was supported in part by grants from the Spanish Ministry of Education (PM95-57, PM96-21, and PM99-23) and the Madrid Regional Government (06/70/97 and 8.3/14/98).

- 1 Sibley C. G. and Ahlquist J. E. (1990) Phylogeny and classification of birds. Yale University Press, New Haven, Conn.
- 2 Tordoff H. B. (1954) A systematic study of the avian family Fringillidae based on the structure of the skull. Misc. Publ. Mus. Zool. Univ. Mich. 81: 7–41

- 3 Raikow R. J. (1978) Appendicular myology and relationships of the New World nine-primaried oscines (Aves: Passeriformes). Bull. Carnegie Mus. Nat. Hist. 7: 1–43
- 4 Arnaiz-Villena A., Alvarez-Tejado M., Ruiz-del-Valle V., García-de-la-Torre C, Varela P., Recio M. J., Ferre S. et al. (1998) Phylogeny and rapid northern and southern hemisphere speciation of goldfinches during the miocene and pliocene epochs. Cell. Mol. Life Sci. **54:** 1031–1041
- 5 Arnaiz-Villena A., Alvarez-Tejado M., Ruiz-del-Valle V., García-de-la-Torre C., Varela P., Recio M. J., Ferre S. et al. (1999) Rapid radiation of canaries (genus *serinus*). Mol. Biol. Evol. 16: 2–11
- 6 Edwards S. V., Arctander P. and Wilson A. C. (1991) Mitochondrial resolution of a deep branch in the genealogical tree for perching birds. Proc. R. Soc. Lond. B 243: 99–107
- 7 Arnaiz-Villena A., Timón M., Corell A., Pérez-Aciego P., Martín-Villa J. M. and Regueiro J. R. (1992) Primary immunodeficiency caused by mutations in the gene encoding the CD3 subunit of the T-lymphocyte receptor. N Engl. J. Med. 327: 529-533
- 8 Härlid A., Janke A. and Arnason U. (1997) The mtDNA sequence of the ostrich and the divergence between paleognathous and neognathous birds. Mol. Biol. Evol. 14: 754–761
- 9 Takezaki N., Rzhetsky A. and Nei M. (1995) Phylogenetic test of molecular clock and linearized trees. Mol. Biol. Evol. 12: 823–833
- 10 Vincek V., O'Huigin C., Satta Y., Takahata N., Boag P. T., Grant P. R. et al. (1997) How large was the founding population of Darwin's finches? Proc. R. Soc. Lond. B 264: 111–118
- 11 Desjardins P. and Morais R. (1990) Sequence and gene organization of the ckichen mitochondrial genome: a novel gene order in higher vertebrates. J. Mol. Biol. 212: 599–634
- 12 Kornegay J. R., Kocher T. D., Williams L. A. and Wilson A. C. (1993) Pathways of lysozyme evolution inferred from the sequences of cytochrome b in birds. J. Mol. Evol. 37: 367–379
- 13 Helm-Bychowski K. M. and Wilson A. C. (1986) Rates of nuclear DNA evolution in pheasant-like birds: evidence from restriction maps. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 83: 688–692
- 14 Swofford D. L. (1996) PAUP (phylogenetic analysis using parsimony), Version 4.0b2, Illinois Natural History Survey, Champaign
- 15 Kumar S., Tamura K., and Nei M. (1993) MEGA: molecular evolutionary genetics analysis, version 2.0, Pennsylvania State University, University Park
- 16 Felsenstein J. (1985) Confidence limits of phylogenies: an approach using the bootstrap. Evolution 39: 783–795
- 17 Edwards A. W. F. (1995) Assessing molecular phylogenies. Science 26: 253

- 18 Kimura M. (1980) A simple method for estimating evolutionary rates of base substitutions through comparative studies of nucleotides sequences. J. Mol. Evol. 16: 111-120
- 19 Nei M. (1987) Molecular Evolutionary Genetics, Columbia University Press, New York
- 20 Hackett S. J. (1996) Molecular phylogenetics and biogeography of tanagers in the genus *Ramphocelus* (Aves). Mol. Phylogenet Evol. 5: 368–382
- 21 Hillis D. M., Huelsenbech J. P. and Cunningham C. W. (1994) Application and accuracy of molecular phylogenies. Science 264: 671–677
- 22 Lockhart P. J., Steel M. A., Hendy M. D. and Penny D. (1994) Recovering evolutionary trees under a more realistic model of sequence evolution. Mol. Biol. Evol. 11: 605–612
- 23 Kocher T. D., Thomas W. K., Meyer A., Edwards S. V., Pääbo S., Villablanca F. X. et al. (1989) Dynamics of mitochondrial DNA evolution in animals: amplification and sequencing with conserved primers. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 86: 6196–6200
- 24 Krajewski C. and King D. G. (1996) Molecular divergence and phylogeny: rates and patterns of cytochrome b evolution in cranes. Mol. Biol. Evol. 13: 21–30
- 25 Marten J. A. and Johnson N. K. (1986) Genetic relationships of North American cardueline finches. Condor 88: 409–420
- 26 Fehrer J. (1996) Conflicting character distribution within different data sets on cardueline finches: artifact or history? Mol. Biol. Evol. 13: 7–20
- 27 Klicka J. and Zink R. (1997) The importance of recent ice ages in speciation: a failed paradigm. Science 277: 1666–1669
- 28 Avise J. C. and Walker D. (1998) Pleistocene phylogeographic effects on avian populations and the speciation process. Proc. R. Soc. Lond. B 265: 457–463
- 29 Gill F. B. (1995) Ornithology, Freeman, New York
- 30 Clement P., Harris A. and Davies J. (1993) Finches and Sparrows, croom Helm, London
- 31 Armani G. C. (ed.) (1983) Guide des Passereaux Granivores, Delchaux and Niestlé, Paris
- 32 Lake J. A. and Moore J. E. (1998) Phylogenetic analysis and comparative genomics. Trends Guide to Bioinformatics Trends Supp.1998, pp. 22–23
- 33 Allende L. M., Rubio I., Ruíz-del-Valle V., Guillén J., Martínez-Laso J., Lowy E. et al. (in press). The Old World sparrows (genus *Passer*): phylogeny and their relative abundance of nuclear mtDNA pseudogenes. J. Mol. Evol.
- 34 Cramp S. and Perrins CM (eds) (1994) Handbook of the Birds of Europe, the Middle East and North Africa, vol VIII, Crows to Finches, Oxford University Press, Oxford