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1 Multilocus phylogeny of the avian family Alaudidae (larks)

2 reveals complex morphological evolution, non-

3 monophyletic genera and hidden species diversity

Per Alström^{a,b,c*}, Keith N. Barnes^c, Urban Olsson^d, F. Keith Barker^e, Paulette Bloomer^f,

- 6 Aleem Ahmed Khan^g, Masood Ahmed Qureshi^g, Alban Guillaumet^h, Pierre-André Crochetⁱ,
- 7 Peter G. Ryan^c

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- 9 ^a Key Laboratory of Zoological Systematics and Evolution, Institute of Zoology, Chinese
- 10 Academy of Sciences, Chaoyang District, Beijing, 100101, P. R. China
- 11 b Swedish Species Information Centre, Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences, Box 7007,
- 12 SE-750 07 Uppsala, Sweden
- 14 University of Cape Town, Rondebosch 7700, South Africa
- 15 d Systematics and Biodiversity, Gothenburg University, Department of Zoology, Box 463, SE-
- 16 405 30 Göteborg, Sweden
- 17 ^e Bell Museum of Natural History and Department of Ecology, Evolution and Behavior,
- 18 University of Minnesota, 1987 Upper Buford Circle, St. Paul, MN 55108, USA
- 19 f Percy FitzPatrick Institute Centre of Excellence, Department of Genetics, University of
- 20 Pretoria, Hatfield, 0083, South Africa
- 21 g Institute of Pure & Applied Biology, Bahauddin Zakariya University, 60800, Multan,
- 22 Pakistan
- 23 h Department of Biology, Trent University, DNA Building, Peterborough, ON K9J 7B8,
- 24 Canada
- 25 ⁱ CEFE/CNRS Campus du CNRS 1919, route de Mende, 34293 Montpellier, France

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- * Corresponding author: Key Laboratory of Zoological Systematics and Evolution, Institute of
- 28 Zoology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Chaoyang District, Beijing, 100101, P. R. China; E-
- 29 mail: per.alstrom@slu.se

ABSTRACT

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32 The Alaudidae (larks) is a large family of songbirds in the superfamily Sylvioidea. Larks are 33 cosmopolitan, although species-level diversity is by far largest in Africa, followed by Eurasia, 34 whereas Australasia and the New World have only one species each. The present study is the 35 first comprehensive phylogeny of the Alaudidae. It includes 83.5% of all species and 36 representatives from all recognised genera, and was based on two mitochondrial and three 37 nuclear loci (in total 6.4 kbp, although not all loci were available for all species). In addition, 38 a larger sample, comprising several subspecies of some polytypic species was analysed for 39 one of the mitochondrial loci. There was generally good agreement in trees inferred from 40 different loci, although some strongly supported incongruences were noted. The tree based on 41 the concatenated multilocus data was overall well resolved and well supported by the data. 42 We stress the importance of performing single gene as well as combined data analyses, as the 43 latter may obscure significant incongruence behind strong nodal support values. The 44 multilocus tree revealed many unpredicted relationships, including some non-monophyletic 45 genera (Calandrella, Mirafra, Melanocorypha, Spizocorys). The tree based on the extended 46 mitochondrial data set revealed several unexpected deep divergences between taxa presently 47 treated as conspecific (e.g. within Ammomanes cinctura, Ammomanes deserti, Calandrella 48 brachydactyla, Eremophila alpestris), as well as some shallow splits between currently 49 recognised species (e.g. Certhilauda brevirostris—C. semitorquata—C. curvirostris; 50 Calendulauda barlowi—C. erythrochlamys; Mirafra cantillans—M. javanica). Based on our 51 results, we propose a revised generic classification, and comment on some species limits. We 52 also comment on the extraordinary morphological adaptability in larks, which has resulted in 53 numerous examples of parallel evolution (e.g. in *Melanocorypha mongolica* and *M*. 54 leucoptera [latter here proposed to be moved to Alauda]; Ammomanopsis grayi and 55 Ammomanes cinctura/deserti; Chersophilus duponti and Certhilauda spp.; Mirafra hova [here 56 proposed to be moved to *Eremopterix*] vs. several other *Mirafra* spp.), as well as both highly 57 conserved plumages (e.g. within Mirafra) and strongly divergent lineages (e.g. Mirafra hova 58 vs. Eremopterix spp.; Calandrella cinerea complex vs. Eremophila spp.; Eremalauda dunni 59 vs. Chersophilus duponti; Melanocorypha mongolica and male M. yeltoniensis vs. other 60 Melanocorypha spp. and female M. yeltoniensis). Sexual plumage dimorphism has evolved 61 multiple times. Few groups of birds show the same level of disagreement between taxonomy 62 based on morphology and phylogenetic relationships as inferred from DNA sequences.

Keywords: phylogeny; taxonomy; morphological evolution; nodal support

1. Introduction

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Spottiswoode et al., in press), including the Eurasian Skylark *Alauda arvensis* ("the lark"), which is familiar to many Europeans because of its widespread occurrence in agricultural land, local abundance, and beautiful song. Many other species of larks are well known for similar reasons. Larks are found on six continents, but the family's distribution and diversity is highly skewed. In terms of current distribution and diversity, the Alaudidae is primarily an African and secondarily a Eurasian family. Seventy-eight species occur in Africa, with 60 endemic to sub-Saharan Africa. Eurasia has 37 species, with one, *Mirafra javanica*, extending its range to Australia, as the only representative of this family on that continent (de Juana et al., 2004; Gill and Donsker, 2012). A single widespread species, the Horned Lark Eremophila alpestris, is native to the New World as well as much of the Palearctic. All 21 genera are represented in Africa, with 13 in Eurasia and one each in Australasia and the New World (de Juana et al., 2004; Gill and Donsker, 2012). In Africa, lark species richness is greatest in semi-arid and arid regions (Dean and Hockey, 1989). There are two primary centres of endemism, one in the north-east arid zone (Kenya, Ethiopia and Somalia), where 23 of the 34 species are endemic or near-endemic, and another one in the south-west arid zone (South Africa, Namibia and Botswana), where 26 of the 31 species are endemic or near-endemic (de Juana et al., 2004). Most lark species share a similar plumage pattern: brownish or grevish above and paler below, with variously distinct darker streaking on the upperparts and breast. This pattern provides camouflage in the open, grassy or arid habitats where larks occur, and several authors have noted a positive correlation between the coloration of the upperparts of a species and the colour of the soil on which it lives (Bannerman, 1927; Guillaumet et al., 2008; Kleinschmidt, 1907, 1912; Meinertzhagen, 1951; Niethammer, 1940; Vaurie, 1951). In most species, there is no sexual dimorphism in plumage, although males average larger than females. However, in Melanocorypha yeltoniensis and the Eremopterix species, male and female plumages are strongly different (and in the former, males average 13–14% heavier than females; Cramp, 1988; de Juana et al., 2004). In contrast to their cryptic plumages, most species have well developed songs, and some species, e.g. Alauda arvensis, are renowned songsters. Most species also have elaborate song flights. Presumably in association with diet (e.g., many species consume seeds in addition to arthropod prey), bill morphology varies considerably among species, and in some species, also between the sexes (e.g. Alauda razae

The family Alaudidae, larks, comprises 97 species in 21 genera (Gill and Donsker, 2012;

98 Bloomer, 1999). 99 Morphologically, the family Alaudidae constitutes a well defined group, whose members 100 share unique features of the syrinx (Ames, 1971) and tarsus (Rand, 1959). As a result, the 101 limits of the family are not disputed, but the relationships between the larks and other taxa 102 have long been uncertain. Linear classifications have generally placed them at the beginning 103 of the oscine passerines (e.g. del Hoyo et al., 2004; Peters, 1960), whereas based on DNA-104 DNA hybridization they were placed in the superfamily Passeroidea (Sibley and Ahlquist, 105 1990; Sibley and Monroe, 1990). However, recent studies based on sequence data have 106 unanimously shown them to be part of the superfamily Sylvioidea, and together with the 107 morphologically and ecologically radically different monotypic genus *Panurus* (Panuridae) 108 forming a sister clade to the rest of the Sylvioidea (Alström et al., 2006; Ericson and 109 Johansson, 2003; Fregin et al., 2012). 110 Traditionally, the designation of lark genera has been based on morphology. However, 111 bill structure and plumage vary considerably with diet and habitat (e.g. Cramp, 1988; del 112 Hovo et al., 2004) and therefore are likely to be unreliable for phylogenetic assessment. 113 Consequently, the number of genera and their composition have fluctuated dramatically over 114 the years (e.g. Clancey, 1966, 1980; Dean et al., 1992; de Juana et al., 2004; Dickinson, 2003; 115 Harrison, 1966; Macdonald, 1952a, b, 1953; Maclean, 1969; Meinertzhagen, 1951; Pätzold, 116 2003; Peters, 1960; Roberts, 1940; Vaurie, 1951; Verheyen, 1958; Wolters, 1979). Certain 117 genera, notably *Mirafra*, have acted as "dumping grounds", while several monotypic genera 118 (e.g. Pseudalaemon, Lullula, Ramphocoris), and enigmatic species (e.g. Eremalauda dunni, 119 Alauda razae) and genera (e.g. Alaemon, Chersomanes) have defied consistent placement. 120 Lark taxonomy has received much attention in Africa (Clancey, 1989; Lawson, 1961; 121 Meinertzhagen, 1951; Winterbottom, 1957), and Eurasia (Dickinson and Dekker, 2001; 122 Meinertzhagen, 1951; Vaurie, 1951, 1954). Recent studies based on molecular and/or vocal 123 data have revealed considerable hidden diversity and taxonomic confusion in some taxa 124 (Alström, 1998; Ryan et al., 1998; Ryan and Bloomer, 1999; Guillaumet et al., 2005, 2006, 125 2008), and it seems likely that the total number of recognised lark species is underestimated. 126 Previously, only one molecular phylogeny has been published, based on mitochondrial 127 sequences from a small number of mostly African species (Tieleman et al., 2001). The present 128 study is the first comprehensive phylogeny of the Alaudidae (although part of the data for the 129 African and some of the Western Palearctic species have been analysed in an unpublished 130 PhD thesis; Barnes, 2007). It is based on two mitochondrial and three nuclear loci (in total 6.4

and the long-billed lark complex; Burton, 1971; Cramp, 1988; Donald et al., 2007; Ryan and

131 kbp, although not all loci are available for all species), and includes representatives from all 132 recognised genera and 86% of all species. We also analyse one mitochondrial locus for a 133 larger sample, comprising multiple individuals and several subspecies of some polytypic 134 species. These data provide the basis for a major reassessment of lark relationships and 135 taxonomy, as well as the foundation for comments on the morphological evolution in this bird 136 family. 137 138 2. Material and methods 139 140 2. 1. Study group and sampling 141 Taxonomy follows Gill and Donsker (2012), except with respect to *Heteromirafra* 142 sidamoensis, which we treat as conspecific with H. archeri based on Spottiswoode et al. 143 (2013). We included 81 of the 97 species, representing all 21 genera. Eight African Mirafra 144 spp., three African Calandrella spp. and the African Alaemon hamertoni, Eremopterix 145 leucotis and Spizocorys obbiensis, as well as the Asian Ammomanes phoenicura and Galerida 146 deva were missing. 147 Fresh tissue and blood samples, as well as a few feather samples, were collected by 148 people with extensive field experience with these larks (mainly the authors of this study). 149 Liver, heart and pectoral muscle were dissected for tissue samples, and stored in 20% 150 dimethylsulphoxide (DMSO) and saturated salt (NaCl) (Amos and Hoezel, 1991) or ethanol. 151 Blood samples were mixed immediately in a blood storage buffer (0.1M Tris-HCL, 0.04M 152 EDTA.Na2, or 1.0M NaCl, 0.5% SDS). Samples were refrigerated as soon as possible. Feathers were kept at -20°C. Voucher specimens were deposited in various institutions 153 154 (Appendix 1). For blood and feather samples, photographs were taken of some birds 155 (Appendix 1 and 2). Unfortunately, a hard drive with photos of a large proportion of the 156 species collected in Africa by KB, for which no specimens are available, has been lost. 157 158 2.2. DNA extraction and sequencing 159 Lab work was done mainly at the University of Pretoria (UP), University of Gothenburg 160 (GU) and University of Minnesota (UMN). At UP DNA extractions followed standard 161 procedures of chemical digestion, phenol/chloroform clean-up and ethanol precipitation 162 (Sambrook et al., 1989). DNA was eluted in Sabax® (Adcock Ingram) water and stored at -163 20°C. At GU and UMN, DNA was extracted using QIA Quick DNEasy Kit (Qiagen, Inc)

according to the manufacturer's instruction, but with 30 μ l 0.1% DTT added to the initial incubation step of the extraction of feathers.

We sequenced five loci: the main part of the mitochondrial cytochrome *b* gene and part of the flanking tRNA-Thr (together referred to as cyt*b*); the mitochondrial 16S rRNA; the nuclear ornithine decarboxylase (ODC) exon 6 (partial), intron 6, exon 7, intron 7 and exon 8 (partial); the entire nuclear myoglobin (myo) intron 2, and the nuclear recombination activating gene, parts 1 and 2 (RAG). At GU, amplification and sequencing of cyt*b* followed the protocols described in Olsson et al. (2005). At UP, cyt*b* was amplified and sequenced using primers L14841 and H15696 and L15408 and H15915 (Edwards et al., 1991; Kocher et al., 1989; Pääbo et al., 1988) with primer annealing at 50–52°C. Amplification and sequencing of cyt*b* at UMN, differing from the above primarily in the exact primers used, followed protocols described in Barker et al. (2008).

At UP, a 1702 base pairs (bp) segment of the 16S rRNA gene was amplified using the primers L2313 and H4015 (Lee et al., 1997); an internal primer L2925 (Tieleman et al., 2003) was used for sequencing. For 16S the PCR protocol was identical to that for cytb, except for the modification of the primer annealing temperature (58°C, 30s). Amplification and sequencing followed the protocols described in Olsson et al. (2005) for myo, Allen & Omland (2003) for ODC, and Barker et al. (2004) for RAG.

DNA was also extracted from toepad samples of two *Pinarocorys* species, for which no fresh DNA was available. For extraction, PCR-amplification, and sequencing procedures for these, the procedures described in Irestedt et al. (2006) were followed, with specially designed primers (Supplementary Table 1).

2.3. Phylogenetic analyses

We followed a hierarchical sampling scheme prioritizing mtDNA sampling for all species, and nuclear loci for a subset of samples, representing major lineages of larks (e.g., Wiens et al. 2005). The following sequence data were included in the analyses: cytb for all species; 16S for nearly all African species and a few Eurasian species; and between one to three nuclear loci for most species. In addition, we analysed 142 cytb haplotypes, including some sequences from GenBank, comprising several subspecies of polytypic species. For one species, only cytb was available, and for 20 species, only cytb and 16S were available. See Appendix 1 and Fig. 1 for details regarding coverage of loci across the taxa. All new sequences have been deposited in GenBank (Appendix 1).

197 Sequences were aligned using Muscle (Edgar, 2004) in Seaview 4.3.4 (Gouy, 2012; 198 Gouy et al., 2010); some manual adjustment was done for the non-coding sequences. For the 199 nuclear loci, heterozygous sites were coded as ambiguous. Trees were estimated by Bayesian 200 inference (BI) using MrBayes 3.2 (Huelsenbeck and Ronquist, 2001; Ronquist and 201 Huelsenbeck, 2003) as follows: (1) All loci were analysed separately (single-locus analyses, 202 SLAs). (2) Sequences were also concatenated, partitioned by locus (in total 5 partitions), 203 using rate multipliers to allow different rates for different partitions (Nylander et al., 2004; 204 Ronquist and Huelsenbeck, 2003). We also ran analyses where, in addition to the five locus-205 specific partitions, the coding sequences were partitioned by codon (in total 9 partitions). (3) 206 All analyses were run under the best-fit models according to the Bayesian Information 207 Criterion (BIC), calculated in iModeltest 0.1.1 (Posada, 2008a, b), as well as (4) using the 208 "mixed" command to sample across the GTR model space in the Bayesian MCMC 209 (Huelsenbeck et al. 2004), and assuming rate variation across sites according to a discrete 210 gamma distribution with four rate categories (Γ; Yang, 1994) and an estimated proportion of 211 invariant sites (I; Gu et al., 1995). For cytb, 16S and RAG, the model selected by the BIC was 212 the general time-reversible (GTR) model (Lanave et al., 1984; Rodríguez et al., 1990; Tavaré, 213 1986) + Γ + I. For myo and ODC, the HKY model (Hasegawa et al., 1985) + Γ was chosen by 214 the BIC. Ambiguous base pairs and indels were treated as missing data, but indels were 215 plotted on the trees a posteriori. Panurus biarmicus and Prinia bairdii were chosen as 216 outgroups based on the results of Alström et al. (2006), Johansson et al. (2008) and Fregin et 217 al. (2012), except in the SLA of 16S, for which Cisticola brachyptera, Prinia bairdii, 218 Acrocephalus arundinaceus and Aegithalos concinnus were used as outgroups (three latter 219 downloaded from GenBank), as no 16S sequences were available for P. biarmicus. Default 220 priors in MrBayes were used. Four Metropolis-coupled MCMC chains with incremental heating temperature 0.1 or 0.05 were run for 5–40×10⁶ generations and sampled every 1000 221 222 generations. Convergence to the stationary distribution of the single chains was inspected in 223 Tracer 1.5.0 (Rambaut and Drummond, 2009) using a minimum threshold for the effective 224 sample size. The joint likelihood and other parameter values reported large effective sample 225 sizes (>1000). Good mixing of the MCMC and reproducibility was established by multiple 226 runs from independent starting points. Topological convergence was examined by eye and by 227 the average standard deviation of split frequencies (<0.005). The first 25% of generations 228 were discarded as "burn-in", well after stationarity of chain likelihood values had been 229 established, and the posterior probabilities were calculated from the remaining samples 230 (pooled from the two simultaneous runs).

231	The cytb data set with multiple subspecies was analysed in BEAST version 1.7.4
232	(Drummond and Rambaut, 2007, 2012). XML files for the BEAST analyses were generated
233	in BEAUti version 1.7.4 (Rambaut and Drummond, 2012). Analyses were run under the GTR
234	$+\Gamma$ model (cf. Weir and Schluter, 2008), using a "birth-death incomplete sampling" prior, and
235	(a) a fixed clock rate of 2.1%/MY (Weir and Schluter, 2008) or (b) an uncorrelated lognormal
236	relaxed clock (Drummond et al., 2006) with the same mean rate. Other priors were used with
237	default values. For these analyses, 30×10^6 generations were run, sampled every 1000
238	generations. Every analysis was run twice. The MCMC output was analysed in Tracer version
239	1.5.0 (Rambaut and Drummond, 2009) to evaluate whether valid estimates of the posterior
240	distribution of the parameters had been obtained. The first 25% of the generations were
241	discarded as "burn-in", well after stationarity of chain likelihood values had been established.
242	Trees were summarized using TreeAnnotator version 1.7.4 (Rambaut and Drummond, 2012),
243	choosing "Maximum clade credibility tree" and "Mean heights", and displayed in FigTree
244	version 1.3.1 Rambaut (2009).
245	The concatenated data were analysed by maximum likelihood bootstrapping (MLBS) and
246	parsimony bootstrapping (PBS). MLBS (1000 replicates) was conducted with RAxML-HPC2
247	version 7.3.2 (Stamatakis, 2006; Stamatakis et al., 2008) on the Cipres portal (Miller et al.,
248	2010). The data were partitioned by locus, and as per default GTRCAT was used for the
249	bootstrapping phase, and GTRGAMMA for the final tree inference. PBS was performed in
250	PAUP* version 4.0b10 (Swofford, 2001) on the complete dataset, using a heuristic search
251	strategy, 1000 replicates, starting trees obtained by stepwise addition (random addition
252	sequence, 10 replicates), TBR branch swapping, and MulTrees option not in effect (only one
253	tree saved per replicate).
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255	2.4. Summary of abbreviations
256	$BI-Bayesian$ inference; $cytb-cytochrome\ b$ gene and part of the flanking tRNA-Thr;
257	MLBS – maximum likelihood bootstrapping; myo – myoglobin intron 2; ODC – ornithine
258	decarboxylase (mainly) introns 6–7; PBS – parsimony bootstrapping; PP – posterior
259	probability; RAG – recombination activating gene, parts 1 and 2; SLA – single-locus analysis
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262	3. Results
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3.1. Sequence characteristics

265 We obtained a contiguous ≤ 1002 bp of cytb, ≤ 1016 bp of 16S, ≤ 729 bp of myo, ≤ 712 bp 266 of ODC and \(\le 2878\) bp of RAG. No unexpected stop codons or indels that would indicate the 267 presence of nuclear pseudogenes were found in the coding sequences, although two three-bp 268 and one six-bp indels were found in the aligned RAG sequences. The aligned cvtb sequences 269 comprised 1002 characters, of which 439 (43.8%) were parsimony informative; 16S 1016 270 characters, 146 (14.4 %) parsimony informative; myo 761 characters, 115 (15.1 %) parsimony 271 informative; ODC 746 characters, 148 (19.8 %) parsimony informative; and RAG 2878 272 characters, 218 (7.6 %) parsimony informative. The total dataset comprised 6403 characters, 273 of which 1066 (16.6 %) were parsimony informative. The cytb dataset comprising multiple 274 samples for many species included 450 parsimony-informative characters (44.9%). 275 276 3.2. Concatenated multilocus analyses 277 The tree based on the concatenated multilocus data (Fig. 1) was overall well resolved and 278 well supported by the data. There were three strongly supported primary clades (A–C), of 279 which A and B were inferred to be sisters with high support. Clade A contained the mainly or 280 entirely Palearctic genera Calandrella ("short-toed larks"), Melanocorypha, Eremophila 281 ("horned larks"), Galerida ("crested larks"), Alauda ("skylarks"), Lullula (Woodlark), 282 Chersophilus (Dupont's Lark) and Eremalauda (Dunn's Lark; Sahara/Arabia), as well as the 283 Afrotropical Spizocorys and Pseudalaemon (Short-tailed Lark). Clade B included the 284 Afrotropical-Oriental *Mirafra* (bushlarks) and Afrotropical *Calendulauda* and *Heteromirafra*. 285 Clade C comprised the Afotropical Certhilauda ("long-billed larks"), Chersomanes (Spike-286 heeled Lark), *Pinarocorys* ("thrush-like larks") and *Ammomanopsis* (Gray's Lark), the single 287 Malagasy *Mirafra* (Madagascar Lark), the Palearctic-Afrotropical-Oriental *Eremopterix* 288 ("sparrow-larks"), Ammomanes ("desert larks") and Alaemon ("hoopoe-larks"), and the 289 Palearctic *Ramphocoris* (Thick-billed Lark). 290 Clade A could be subdivided into the strongly supported A1 and A2 (although A1 was 291 contradicted by ODC; see 3.2). Clade A1 contained Calandrella, Melanocorypha, Eremophila 292 and the two monotypic genera *Eremalauda* and *Chersophilus*. The genus *Calandrella* was 293 non-monophyletic, as some of its members (A1a) formed the sister clade to 294 Eremalauda/Chersophilus (A1b), whereas the other members of this genus (A1d) were most 295 closely related to *Eremophila* (A1e). Also the genus *Melanocorypha* was non-monophyletic, 296 as five of its species were in clade A1c, whereas the sixth species (M. leucoptera) was in A2b. 297 Clade A2 comprised, in addition to the single *Melanocorypha* species, the genera *Galerida*

(A2a), Alauda (A2b) and Spizocorys, as well as the two monotypic genera Pseudalaemon and

Lullula (A2c); Pseudalaemon was nested among the Spizocorys species, whereas Lullula was sister to the others in clade A2c. The Palearctic A2a and A2b were sisters, separated from the Afrotropical (except Lullula) A2c.

Clade B could be separated into B1 and B2, both of which were strongly supported by the data. B1 included all *Mirafra* species (Africa and Asia) except the Malagasy *M. hova* and, as sister to these, the genus *Heteromirafra*. The *Mirafra* species formed four well supported clades (B1a–B1d). The rather poorly resolved clade B2 only contained the genus *Calendulauda*. Within this clade, clades B2a and B2b were well supported.

Clade C could be subdivided into the well supported clades C1 and C2. Clade C1 contained *Eremopterix* and *Mirafra hova* (C1a); the genus *Eremopterix* was non-monophyletic, although this was poorly supported, with conflicting reconstructions in different SLAs (see 3.3). Clade C1b comprised *Ammomanes*, *Pinarocorys* and the monotypic *Ramphocoris*. In clade C2, *Certhilauda* (C2a), *Chersomanes* (C2b) and the monotypic genus *Ammomanopsis* formed a clade that was in effect trichotomous, with *Alaemon alaudipes* strongly supported as sister to these taxa.

3.3. Single-locus analyses

The trees based on single-locus analyses (SLAs) of single sequences per species varied in resolution: 77.8% of the nodes in the ingroup were bifurcating in the cytb tree, 78% in the 16S tree, 72.6% in the ODC tree, 56.8% in the myo tree and 94.6% in the RAG tree (Supplementary Fig. 1; see also Fig. 1, where SLAs are shown in pie charts). Only the cytb tree contained the complete set of species. There were a number of topological conflicts, which received ≥0.95 posterior probability (PP) in different SLAs (indicated by red pie wedges in Fig. 1): (1) Calandrella raytal and C. rufescens were sisters in the cytb (PP 0.97) and myo (PP 1.00) trees, whereas C. raytal and C. cheleensis were sisters according to ODC (PP 1.00) (data incomplete for other loci); (2) RAG supported clade A1 (PP 1.00), whereas ODC supported a clade comprising A1d, A1e and A2 (PP 0.97) (other loci unresolved; however, the extended cytb dataset inferred a clade with A1a–A1c + A2 with PP 0.99; cf. Fig. 2); (3) cytb, myo and RAG supported a sister relationship between clades A and B (PP 0.79, 0.93 and 0.97, respectively; cytb was raised to 1.00 in the extended dataset, cf. Fig. 2), and myo and RAG supported clade C (PP 0.91 and 1.00, respectively), whereas clade C1 was part of the A+B clade according to ODC (PP 0.98); (4) Mirafra passerina formed a clade with M. cheniana, M. cantillans and M. javanica in the 16S tree (PP 0.95), whereas it was sister to M.

williamsi in the ODC tree (PP 1.00) (cytb unresolved, myo and RAG incomplete); (5) clades

B1a-B1c formed a clade according to 16S, myo and ODC (PP 0.96, 1.00 and 0.98, respectively; cvtb unresolved), whereas RAG supported M. apiata from clade B1d as sister to clade B1c (PP 1.00); (6) Calendulauda barlowi, C. erythrochlamys and C. burra formed a clade according to cvtb (PP 0.97), whereas 16 S supported C. barlowi, C. ervthrochlamvs and C. albescens as a clade (PP 0.99) (data incomplete for other loci); (7) Mirafra hova was part of a clade containing all *Eremopterix* species except E. australis in the cvtb tree (PP 0.99), whereas E. australis, not M. hova, was sister to the other Eremopterix species in the 16S (PP 0.99) and RAG trees (PP 0.97; only E. leucopareia included of "other" Eremopterix), and according to ODC, M. hova and E. australis were more closely related to clade C1b (PP 0.96) than to the two other *Eremopterix* species included (*E. leucopareia*, *E. nigriceps*).

3.4. Indels

Several clades were supported by apparently synapomorphic indels in the alignments of 16S, myo and ODC (Fig. 1). All of these indels supported clades that received high PPs. In addition, the sister relationship between *Mirafra hova* and *Eremopterix australis* inferred by ODC but not by any other SLA or analysis of concatenated sequences (see 3.2), was supported by three unique indels: a 4 bp deletion in the myo alignment and two 2 bp insertions in the ODC alignment.

3.5. Extended cytochrome b dataset

The dated tree containing multiple cyt*b* sequences for many species, including several subspecies (Fig. 2), basically agreed with the cyt*b* tree with single individuals of each species. Some nodes with PP ≤0.95 in the latter tree received PPs ≥0.95 in the extended dataset (indicated by footnote numbers in Fig. 1). The youngest split between widely sympatric, reproductively isolated sister species (the Asian *Melanocorypha maxima* and *M. mongolica*; de Juana et al., 2004) was dated to 3.0 million years ago (MYA) (95% HPD 2.0–4.1 MYA) (indicated by red line in Fig. 2). The most recent split between marginally sympatric, reproductively isolated species (*Galerida cristata* and *G. macrorhyncha*; Guillaumet et al., 2005, 2006, 2008) was estimated to 1.9 MYA (95% HPD 1.3–2.7 MYA; indicated by orange line in Fig. 2). A few allo-/parapatric taxa treated as separate species were inferred to be considerably younger than this (youngest pair, *Certhilauda brevirostris–C. semitorquata*, dated to 0.8 MYA, 95% HPD 0.4–1.3 MYA; indicated by purple line in Fig. 2). In contrast, several allo-/parapatric taxa treated as conspecific (in one case even consubspecific) were inferred to have diverged much longer ago. The deepest split, between *Calandrella b*.

brachydactyla/C. b. rubiginosa and C. b. dukhunensis, which were not even inferred to be sisters, was dated to 6.0 MYA (95% HPD 4.6–7.5 MYA; indicated by blue line in Fig. 2).

4. Discussion

4.1. Phylogeny

4.1.1. Large-scale topology

This is the first comprehensive molecular study of relationships in the family Alaudidae. The only previously published study (Tieleman et al., 2003) was based on cytb and 16S for 22 species. However, nearly all of the cytb and all of the 16S sequences of the African and some of the Western Palearctic species presented in this study, as well as some RAG sequences for exemplars from major lineages, were analysed in an unpublished PhD thesis (Barnes, 2007). The findings of this thesis formed the basis of several novel generic allocations presented in handbooks over the last decade (de Juana et al., 2004; Hockey et al. 2005). The phylogenetic hypothesis in Fig. 1 is mostly well resolved and well supported by the data, although some clades (notably A2c, B1a, B2 and C1a) include several polytomies or poorly supported nodes. The primary clades A–C, as well as the sister relationship between A and B, are strongly supported.

4.1.2. Clade A

Although clade A1 is strongly supported by the concatenated data (PP 1.00, MLBS 93%, PBS 89%), it is only recovered in one SLA (RAG) and is strongly contradicted by the SLA of ODC and by the analysis of the extended cytb dataset. Moreover, the topologies of the ODC and cytb trees differ from each other, resulting in three strongly supported incongruent topologies. Accordingly, clade A1 should be considered highly uncertain despite the high statistical support. This underscores the importance of critical evaluation of results, rather than just accepting high support at face value. It is possible that a species tree approach could have reconciled the incongruence among the gene trees, if it was caused by hemiplasy (reviewed by Avise and Robinson, 2008; Degnan and Rosenberg, 2009; Edwards, 2009; Liu et al., 2009). However, our data are not suitable for species tree analysis, as most species are just represented by single samples, and not all loci are available for all species. In contrast to clade A1, clade A2 is recovered with high confidence.

Within clade A1, the unexpected sister relationships between the two monotypic genera Chersophilus and Eremalauda (A1b) and between this clade and the Calandrella rufescenscheleensis-raytal-athensis complex (A1a) are well supported by the data. The strongly supported sister relationship between the Calandrella cinerea-brachvdactvla-acutirostris complex (A1d) and *Eremophila* (A1e) is equally surprising. All of these relationships are recovered in SLAs of two unlinked loci and are not contradicted by any other SLAs, and the A1d+A1e clade also receives support from an indel in the ODC alignment. Accordingly, these relationships all seem robust. Eremalauda dunni often has been placed in Ammomanes (Meinertzhagen, 1951; Pätzold, 2003; Peters, 1960; Wolters, 1979 [subgenus *Eremalauda*]), but a close relationship with the type species of this genus (A. cinctura; clade C1b) is strongly refuted by the present study. Meinertzhagen's (1951) placement of *Chersophilus* in Certhilauda (together with e.g. Alaemon and Chersomanes), based on especially bill structure and behaviour, is strongly rejected by our data. A close relationship between Galerida, Alauda and Melanocorypha leucoptera (clade A2a+b) is supported by all loci. *Melanocorypha leucoptera* is firmly nested in this clade, and hence far removed from the other *Melanocorvpha* (A1c). The sister relationship with *Alauda* receives high PP and moderate bootstrap support, although this is only supported by ODC in the SLAs. This is further supported by a closer resemblance to *Alauda* than to *Melanocorypha* or *Galerida* in morphology, vocalizations, behaviour and ecology (de Juana et al., 2004; P.A. and Krister Mild, unpublished), although – as has repeatedly been revealed by the present study –morphological similarity can be an extremely poor indicator of relationship among larks (see also 4.4, below). Galerida magnirostris and G. modesta have been placed in the monotypic genera Calendula (Pätzold, 2003; Wolters, 1979) and Heliocorys (Wolters, 1979), respectively. The generic affinity of the Raso Island (Cape Verde) endemic *Alauda razae* has long been unsettled. This species has been placed in *Spizocorys* (Boyd Alexander, 1898), Calandrella (Meinertzhagen, 1951; Pätzold, 2003; Peters, 1960; Vaurie, 1959), Alaudala (Wolters, 1979), Alauda (Dean et al., 1992; Dickinson, 2003; de Juana et al., 2004; Gill and Donsker, 2012; Hall, 1963), and Voous (1977) argued that its affinities are with African larks (e.g. Pseudalaemon). Hazevoet (1989, 1995) supported the placement in Alauda based on similarities with that genus in song, calls and displays (including song-flight). The molecular data corroborate this. However, our data are inconclusive with respect to the relationships among the three species of Alauda, although MLBS (72%) and PBS (67%) suggest that A. arvensis and A. gulgula are sisters.

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434 The clade containing the five *Spizocorys* species (A2c) and the Short-tailed Lark 435 Pseudalaemon fremantlii is strongly supported, although for half of these only cytb and 16S 436 are available. The latter is usually placed in a monotypic genus (Dean et al., 1992; de Juana et al., 2004; Dickinson, 2003; Gill and Donsker, 2012; Pätzold, 2003; Peters, 1960; Wolters, 437 438 1979), whereas S. starki has variously been placed in Calandrella (Meinertzhagen, 1951; 439 Peters, 1960; Wolters, 1979) or *Eremalauda* (Dean, 1989; Dean et al., 1992; Dickinson, 440 2003). The placement of S. starki in Spizocorvs by de Juana et al. (2004) and Hockey et al. 441 (2005) was based on unpublished mitochondrial DNA data from Barnes (2007). Also S. 442 fringillaris has been placed in a monotypic genus, Botha (Wolters, 1979; Pätzold, 2003). 443 Meinertzhagen (1951) placed S. fringillaris, S. conirostris, S. sclateri and S. personata in 444 Calandrella. Our data refute a close relationship between any of the Spizocorys species and 445 Calandrella or Eremalauda. 446 The sister relationship between the sub-Saharan Spizocorys/Pseudalaemon and Western 447 Palearctic monotypic genus *Lullula* is well supported. Previous authors have debated whether 448 Lullula should be recognised or synonymised with Alauda (de Juana et al., 2004; Harrison, 449 1966; Meinertzhagen, 1951), and Tieleman et al. (2003) inferred a sister relationship between 450 Lullula and Alauda arvensis based on cytb and 16S. However, the present study refutes a 451 close relationship between *Lullula* and *Alauda*. 452 453 4.1.3. Clade B 454 The sister relationship between the Mirafra/Heteromirafra clade (B1) and the 455 Calendulauda clade (B2) is strongly supported (albeit only inferred by two SLAs, one with 456 PP <0.95, one with PP \ge 0.95), as is the sister relationship between *Mirafra* and 457 Heteromirafra. The close relationship between the two major clades was partly unexpected. 458 although three of the *Calendulauda* species have previously been placed in *Mirafra* (see 459 below). A close affinity between Mirafra and Heteromirafra has formerly been assumed 460 (Dean et al., 1992), and the latter genus has been synonymized with the former (Pätzold, 461 2003). 462 Within *Mirafra*, the four clades B1a–B1d are recovered with a high degree of confidence. 463 The close relationship between the five Asian species in clade B1a is unsurprising, as they are 464 all morphologically very similar, and four of them have been treated as conspecific (see 4.3). 465 However, the relationships among these are mostly unsupported, and only cytb provides slight 466 resolution in the SLAs. Clade B1b comprises a mix of African and Asian/Australasian taxa, 467 including the extremely widespread M. cantillans and M. javanica (see 4.3). The close

468 relationship between these two, which have previously been considered conspecific (see 4.3), 469 and M. cheniana, M. passerina and M. williamsi has been suggested based on morphological 470 similarity (de Juana et al., 2004; Wolters, 1979). Clades B1c and B1d contain exclusively 471 African species, and the sister species M. africana and M. hypermetra, as well as M. apiata 472 and M. fasciolata, have been considered to be conspecific or form superspecies (see 4.3), so 473 their close associations were expected. In contrast, the predicted close relationship between 474 M. rufocinnamomea/M. angolensis and the M. apiata complex (Dean et al., 1992; de Juana et 475 al., 2004; Pätzold, 2003) is unsupported, and the close association (subgenus *Corypha*) 476 between these and M. africana and M. hypermetra (and M. somalica and M. sharpii, which 477 were not included here) is only partly supported (M. africana, M. hypermetra, M. apiata and 478 *M. fasciolata*; clade B1d). 479 Clades B2a and B2b are both strongly supported (though only cytb and 16S are available 480 for all but one of these species), although all of the relationships within clade B2a except the 481 sister relationship between C. barlowi and C. erythrochlamys are effectively unresolved. The 482 taxonomic history of the taxa in clade B2a is checkered. Two or three of the species C. 483 albescens, C. barlowi and C. erythrochlamys have been treated as conspecific (see 4.3), and 484 they have variously been placed in Certhilauda (Dean et al., 1992; Dickinson, 2003; 485 Meinertzhagen, 1951; Pätzold, 2003; Peters, 1960) or Calendulauda (de Juana et al., 2004; 486 Wolters, 1979). C. burra has been placed in Ammomanes (Meinertzhagen, 1951; Pätzold, 2003; Peters, 1960), Certhilauda (Dean et al., 1992; Dickinson, 2003) or Calendulauda (de 487 488 Juana et al., 2004; Wolters, 1979). The four remaining species in clade B2 (C. africanoides, 489 C. alopex, C. poecilosterna, C. sabota) have all been placed in the genus Mirafra (Dean et al., 490 1992; Dickinson, 2003; Pätzold, 2003; Peters, 1960), or, the two latter, in Sabota (Wolters, 491 1979), but they were moved to *Calendulauda* by de Juana et al. (2004) based on unpublished 492 genetic data from Barnes (2007). 493

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4.1.4. Clade C

Clades C1 and C2 are both strongly supported by the data. Their sister relationship seems fairly robust (SLAs: 16S PP 0.94, myo PP 0.92, RAG PP 1.00), although it is strongly contradicted by ODC, according to which clade C1 was part of clade A+B (PP 0.99). Clade Cla is also strongly supported (PP 1.00; four SLAs PP 1.00 for all included species). Within Cla, a clade comprising five species of *Eremopterix* is well supported, although the relationships among these are effectively unresolved. The proposed close (superspecies) relationships between E. signatus and E. verticalis and between E. leucopareia and E. griseus, respectively (Dean et al., 1992), are neither supported nor rejected. The positions of *E. australis* and *Mirafra hova* in relation to each other and to the other five *Eremopterix* species is highly uncertain: the inclusion of *M. hova* in this clade is most unexpected (see 4.4).

The surprising mix of three morphologically divergent genera (see 4.4) in clade C1b is well supported by the data, as are the sister relationships of the two *Ammomanes* species and of the two *Pinarocorys* species. In contrast, the sister relationship between *Ramphocoris* and *Ammomanes* receives varying support in different analyses of the concatenated data: PP 0.86, MLBS 99% and PBS 67%. At any rate, the suggested close affinity between *Ramphocoris* and *Melanocorypha* (Dean et al., 1992; Meinertzhagen, 1951; Voous, 1977; Pätzold, 2003) is strongly rejected. The same applies to the suggestion that *Pinarocorys* be synonymized with *Mirafra* (Meinertzhagen, 1951; Peters, 1960).

Clade C2 contains a heterogeneous collection of species, which separate into three main lineages that in effect form a trichotomy. One of these (C2a) contains the *Certhilauda* species, of which five (all except *C. chuana*) have previously been treated as conspecific (see *4.3*). The suggestion that *C. chuana* be placed in *Mirafra* (Pätzold, 2003; Peters, 1960) is strongly rejected. One (Peters, 1960) or both (Pätzold, 2003) of the two species of *Chersomanes* (C2b), which have frequently been treated as conspecific (see *4.3*), have also been placed in the genus *Certhilauda*. *Ammomanopsis grayi* has usually been placed in *Ammomanes* (Dean et al., 1992; Dickinson, 2003; Pätzold, 2003; Meinertzhagen, 1951; Peters, 1960; Wolters, 1979), but was moved to the monotypic genus *Ammomanopsis* by de Juana et al. (2004) and Hockey et al. (2005), based on unpublished genetic data from Barnes (2007). The present study corroborates the more distant relationship with *Ammomanes*. *Alaemon alaudipes* is strongly supported as sister to the rest of clade C1; it would be interesting to confirm whether the Lesser Hoopoe Lark *Alaemon hamertoni* (not sampled in this study) is part of this clade.

4.2 Taxonomic implications at the generic level

Our findings highlight the large number of relationships suggested by molecular data that conflict with previous morphology-based classifications (e.g. Dickinson, 2003;

- 530 Meinertzhagen, 1951; Pätzold, 2003; Peters, 1960; Sibley & Monroe, 1990; Wolters, 1979; cf.
- Fig. 3). The treatments by de Juana et al. (2004), Hockey et al. (2005) and Gill and Donsker
- 532 (2012) are more closely aligned with our findings because they were partly based on
- mitochondrial data from Barnes (2007) that is only now being published here.
 - Harrison (1966) suggested, based on a detailed study of morphological characters, that *Galerida*, *Lullula* and *Pseudalaemon* be synonymized with *Alauda*. At the time, three of the

species presently placed in Galerida, i.e. G. deva (not included in the present study), G. magnirostris and G. modesta, were placed in monotypic genera (Spizalauda, Calendula and Heliocorys, respectively), and A. razae was placed in a monotypic Spizocorys. The present study supports Harrison's (1966) proposal only if *Spizocorys* also is included in *Alauda*, i.e. the entire clade A2 is referred to as *Alauda*. However, we prefer to retain *Galerida*, *Alauda*, Lullula and Spizocorys. There is no support for upholding the monotypic genus Pseudalaemon, so we synonymize this with Spizocorys. Melanocorypha leucoptera has been considered to form a superspecies with M. mongolica based on plumage similarity and parapatric distributions (Cramp, 1988; Glutz von Blotzheim and Bauer, 1985). However, as the molecular data suggest that M. leucoptera is not closely related to the other Melanocorypha species (including the type species of the genus, M. veltoniensis), it should be removed from this genus. Its affinity with Alauda is strongly supported in the concatenated analysis, although, as has been pointed out above, this might rest entirely on ODC. As a close relationship with Alauda is indicated also by morphological, vocal, behavioural and ecological data (de Juana et al., 2004; P.A. and Krister Mild, unpublished), we propose that it be treated as *Alauda leucoptera*.

The non-monophyly of *Calandrella* is strongly supported by our data. The type species of this genus, *C. brachydactyla*, is in clade A1d. Accordingly, the species in this clade should retain the generic name *Calandrella*. For clade A1a, the generic name *Alaudala* Horsfield and Moore, 1856 is available (type species: *Calandrella raytal*), and we propose that this name be used for the species in this clade, i.e. *A. rufescens*, *A. cheleensis*, *A. raytal* and *A. athensis* (as was already done by Wolters, 1979, except for the last one, which was placed in the genus *Calandrella*).

Mirafra hova is firmly anchored in clade C1a, together with *Eremopterix*. Although it is uncertain whether it is sister to all *Eremopterix*, to all *Eremopterix* except *E. australis*, or to *E. australis*, we propose that it be recognised as *Eremopterix hova*.

4.3. Taxonomic implications at the species level

Although the main focus of this paper is not on species level taxonomy, some of the results provide important contributions to ongoing debates about species limits, and some reveal previously unknown deep divergences. We do not advocate the use of cut-of values in genetic divergence as taxonomic yardsticks, but instead support an integrative approach based on independent data, whatever species concept is adopted. As dating based on the molecular clock is uncertain (e.g. García-Moreno, 2004; Lovette, 2004; Penny, 2005; but see Weir and

Schluter, 2008, whose average rate we have adopted), we emphasize the relative ages of different clades more than the actual ages inferred.

Guillaumet et al. (2005, 2006, 2008) discovered two primary clades within *Galerida cristata*, which had reached reciprocal monophyly in mtDNA and showed evidence of strong reproductive isolation in their narrow contact zone in Morocco. These were later recognised as separate species, *Galerida cristata sensu stricto* and *G. macrorhyncha* (Gill and Donsker, 2012). The split between these clades is here estimated to be approximately two thirds of that between the youngest widely sympatric reproductively isolated sister species. As all available *G. macrorhyncha* sequences are from Morocco, at the western edge of the purported range of the taxon *randoni* (Cramp, 1988; de Juana, 2004), and as there are no samples from or close to the Algerian type localities of *randoni* and *macrorhyncha*, more research is needed on the circumscription and nomenclature of these taxa.

Guillaumet et al. (2008) showed using cytb sequences that the subspecies *Galerida* theklae praetermissa (Ethiopia) and G. t. ellioti (Somalia) are deeply diverged from the northwest African subspecies, and also fairly distinct from each other. Using mainly the same data, the present study infers the split between the populations from northwest Africa and the Horn of Africa to be approximately the same as that between the youngest widely sympatric reproductively isolated species pair. The separation between the two Horn of Africa taxa is inferred to be similar to that between the reproductively isolated, marginally sympatric G. cristata and G. macrorhyncha. A taxonomic revision is evidently called for, including sequence data for the taxa in the Horn of Africa for which no molecular data are available (G. t. harrarensis, G. t. mallablensis, G. t. huriensis), and additional data on the Horn of Africa G. t. huei, for which a short cytb fragment indicated substantial divergence from praetermissa (Guillaumet et al., 2008).

The taxonomy of the *Calandrella rufescens-C. cheleensis-C. athensis-C. raytal* complex has been much debated (e.g. Dickinson, 2003; Dickinson and Dekker, 2001; de Juana et al., 2004; Gill and Donsker, 2012; Hall & Moreau, 1970; Meinertzhagen, 1951; Peters, 1960; Sibley and Monroe, 1990; Stepanyan, 1967; Wolters, 1979), although there is no consensus among authors regarding the taxonomy of these species. The present study supports the idea that *cheleensis* and *athensis* are specifically different from *C. rufescens minor*, although the limited taxonomic sampling does not permit a proper taxonomic revision. That *C. raytal* is nested within this complex was an unexpected new finding, although Meinertzhagen (1951) treated it as conspecific with *C. rufescens* (including *C. cheleensis*). Although the sister relationship between *C. raytal* and *C. rufescens* was strongly supported in the concatenated

analysis, this was only inferred in SLAs of cytb and myo, whereas ODC strongly supported a sister relationship between *C. raytal* and *C. cheleensis*, so additional data would be required to elucidate the precise position of *C. raytal*.

Calandrella brachydactyla has been treated as a subspecies of *C. cinerea* (e.g. Meinertzhagen, 1951; Pätzold, 2003; Peters, 1960; Stepanyan, 1990; Vaurie, 1959), but is nowadays usually considered a separate species (e.g. Cramp, 1988; Dean et al., 1992; de Juana et al., 2004; Dickinson, 2003; Gill and Donsker, 2012; Glutz von Blotzheim and Bauer, 1985; Hall and Moreau, 1970; Sibley and Monroe, 1990; Wolters, 1979). Meinertzhagen (1951) included also *C. acutirostris* in *C. cinerea sensu lato*. The results from the present study confirm deep splits between *C. cinerea*, *C. brachydactyla* and *C. acutirostris*, adding further support to the treatment of these as different species. However, completely unexpectedly, they also suggest a deep separation between *C. brachydactyla rubiginosa/C. b. longipennis* from Morocco and Kazakhstan, respectively, and *C. b. dukhunensis* from Mongolia, and strongly support a sister relationship between the latter and *C. acutirostris*. As these results are only based on mitochondrial DNA, a more comprehensive study is needed before any taxonomic revision can be undertaken.

The genus *Eremophila* comprises only two species. *Eremophila bilopha* is restricted to North Africa and the Middle East, whereas *E. alpestris* is the most widely distributed of all lark species, breeding on five continents, and is the only lark native to the New World (de Juana et al., 2004). Morphological variation is pronounced in *E. alpestris*, with 40–42 subspecies recognised (de Juana et al., 2004; Peters, 1960). The present study includes just a small portion of this variation, but nevertheless indicates that *E. alpestris* is probably better treated as multiple species. That our sample of the Central Asian *E. a. brandti* is inferred to be more closely related to the two North American samples than to the other Eurasian taxa is totally unexpected, and requires confirmation. If corroborated by independent data, this implies a complex biogeographical history for this species group.

The widespread *M. cantillans*, which ranges from west Africa to India, and the similarly widely distributed *M. javanica*, from Myanmar to Australia (de Juana et al., 2004) have previously been considered conspecific (Dickinson and Dekker, 2001; Pätzold, 2003; Peters, 1960; Vaurie, 1951; reviewed in first reference). The close relationship between these two is confirmed by the present study. Both species are monophyletic in the cyt*b* tree, although their separation is comparatively recent (1.2 MYA; 0.7–1.7 MYA, 95% HPD), only slightly more than one third of the age of the youngest widely sympatric species pair. These taxa have apparently spread over a vast area in a very short time, and are in the early stages of the

speciation process. Although the extended cytb tree suggests that they are independently evolving lineages, additional sampling might reveal incomplete sorting of haplotypes, and the ODC sequences do not sort according to species. Independent data are needed to corroborate our results.

Mirafra affinis, M. erythrocephala and M. microptera were previously treated as subspecies of Mirafra assamica (reviews in Alström, 1998; Dickinson and Dekker, 2001). Alström (1998) proposed that these four (using the name M. marionae for M. erythrocephala) were better treated as separate species, based on pronounced differences in especially vocalizations and display-flights. This is corroborated by the evidence presented here (and has been accepted by most recent authors, e.g. de Juana et al., 2004; Dickinson, 2003; Gill and Donsker, 2012). Although the relationships among these species are largely unsupported, our data suggest that M. erythroptera is nested within the M. assamica complex, and that M. microptera is sister to the others. The splits among these species are inferred to be at least twice as old as the oldest widely sympatric sister pair in the entire study.

Mirafra apiata and *M. fasciolata* were traditionally treated as conspecific (e.g. Dean et al., 1992; Pätzold, 2003; Peters, 1960; Wolters, 1979), but have recently been suggested to be separate species (de Juana et al., 2004; Hockey et al., 2005) based on limited unpublished genetic data. The present study confirms that these two taxa have been separated for a long time.

Calendulauda albescens, C. barlowi and C. erythrochlamys have been treated as conspecific (under the first name; Peters, 1960; Wolters, 1979), or C. erythrochlamys has been split off as a separate species (Dean et al., 1992; Sibley and Monroe, 1990). Ryan et al. (1998) suggested, based on a study of cytb, morphology and song, that three species should be recognized, and this has been followed by most subsequent authors (Dickinson, 2003; de Juana et al., 2004; Gill and Donsker, 2012; Hockey et al., 2005). The relationships among these are uncertain, as cytb and 16S support different topologies in relation to C. burra. The extended cytb dataset suggests deep splits among C. albescens, C. burra and C. barlowi/C. erythrochlamys, considerably older than the split between the widely sympatric Melanocorypha maxima and M. mongolica, adding further support to the treatment of these as separate species. However, the divergence between C. barlowi and C. erythrochlamys is the second most recent of all pairs treated as different species. Accordingly, in the absence of other data, whether C. barlowi should be given species status or treated as a subspecies of C. erythrochlamys (by priority) is an open question. The same applies to C. alopex, which is often considered a subspecies of C. africanoides (e.g. Dean et al., 1992; Pätzold, 2003; Peters,

1960), although the divergence between these two is slightly deeper than between *C. barlowi* and *C. erythrochlamys*.

Ammomanes deserti is widely distributed across North Africa to western India, with 23–24 subspecies recognised (de Juana et al., 2004; Peters, 1960). Although the present study only covers a tiny fraction of the geographical variation, it nevertheless infers four deeply-diverging cytb lineages, suggesting that A. deserti is in need of further study and taxonomic revision. Additionally, A. cinctura, which occurs from the Cape Verde islands through North Africa to southwest Pakistan, with three subspecies recognised (de Juana et al., 2004; Peters, 1960) shows an unexpected deep cytb divergence between samples of the same subspecies (arenicolor) from Morocco and Saudi Arabia. More extensive sampling of this species also is warranted.

Five *Certhilauda* species (all except *C. chuana*) previously have been treated as conspecific under the name *C. curvirostris* (Meinertzhagen, 1951; Pätzold, 2003; Peters, 1960; Wolters, 1979), although they have recently been split based on differences in mitochondrial DNA (Ryan and Bloomer, 1999; followed by Dickinson, 2003; de Juana et al., 2004; Gill and Donsker, 2012; Hockey et al., 2005). The divergence between *C. subcoronata* and *C. benguelensis* is substantial (despite limited morphological differentiation), as is the difference between these two and the three other species in this complex. In contrast, the separation between *C. brevirostris*, *C. semitorquata* and *C. curvirostris* is much more recent. Divergence between the two former taxa is the shallowest of all taxa currently treated as different species, yet they have divergent ranges, separated by a population of *C. subcoronata*. These three taxa are in the early stages of the speciation process, and their taxonomic ranking is therefore open to different interpretations.

The two *Chersomanes* species (C2b) were previously often considered conspecific (Dean et al., 1992; Pätzold, 2003), but were separated by de Juana et al. (2004) based on unpublished genetic differences, widely disjunct distributions and differences in sexual plumage dimorphism (slight in *beesleyi*, absent in *albofasciata*). This separation has since been questioned (Donald and Collar 2011), but the present study confirms their long separation, adding further support to their treatment as separate species (although better coverage of northern populations of *albofasciata* is desirable).

4.4. Strongly heterogeneous morphological evolution

Larks provide extraordinary examples of the effects of natural selection on phenotypes, and few groups of birds show the same level of disagreement between taxonomy, based on morphology, and phylogenetic relationships as inferred by DNA. Although the present study does not examine morphological divergence quantitatively, it nevertheless indicates multiple examples of highly conserved phenotypes as well as dramatic morphological divergence in certain lineages and instances of parallel evolution (Fig. 3). Traits related to feeding, such as size and shape of bill, appear to be particularly labile, with striking differences between some sister species as well as, conversely, close similarities among distantly related species. For larks, which inhabit mostly open habitats, cryptic plumages are evidently important. Consequently, the strength of streaking and colour shades above appear to be particularly adaptable, reflecting the amount of vegetation cover (aridity) and substrate colour more than phylogeny.

The similarities in size, structure and plumage between the two distantly related clades of traditional *Calandrella* (here recognized as *Calandrella* and *Alaudala*; cf. de Juana et al., 2004; Fig. 3) are likely the result of either retained plesiomorphies or parallel evolution. The similarity between the north African/west Asian *Eremalauda dunni* and Afrotropical *Spizocorys starki*, between the Western Palearctic *Chersophilus* and Afrotropical *Certhilauda*, and between the north African/west Asian *Ammomanes* and Afrotropical *Ammomanopsis* (cf. de Juana et al., 2004; Fig. 3) provide examples of close morphological similarity evolving independently in similar environments. In contrast, the dissimilarity between *Ammomanopsis* and its closest relatives, *Chersomanes* and *Certhilauda*, suggests strong divergence in the former.

The sister relationship between the genera *Calandrella* (as redefined here) and *Eremophila* suggests remarkable plumage divergence in the latter lineage (which is one of the most aberrant of all larks; cf. de Juana et al., 2004 and Fig. 3). Similarly, the close relationship between *Alaudala* (as redefined here; clade A1a) and the two monotypic genera *Eremalauda* and *Chersophilus* reveal extraordinary changes in both structure (especially bill) and plumage among sister taxa (cf. de Juana et al., 2004; Fig. 3). Meinertzhagen's (1951) inappropriate placement of *Chersophilus*, *Pseudalaemon*, *Calendulauda*, *Alaemon*, *Chersomanes* and *Certhilauda* in one genus based on bill structure and behaviour (notably strong digging with the bill when feeding, and fast running) is a striking example of a misclassification caused by the strong lability and adaptability of bill morphology in larks.

Within the true *Melanocorypha* clade (A1c), there is much variation, especially with respect to plumage (cf. de Juana et al., 2004; Fig. 3). *M. yeltoniensis* is one of the few larks with pronounced sexual dimorphism in plumage: females have cryptic, plesiomorphic, plumages reminiscent of *M. bimaculata* and *M. calandra*, whereas males are practically all

black in the breeding season (somewhat more cryptic in the non-breeding season); also the size differences between females and males are pronounced. The plumage similarity between *M. mongolica* and *Alauda leucoptera* (previously *M. mongolica*), which has been assumed to be due to close relationship (e.g. Pätzold, 2008; Wolters, 1979) is apparently due to parallel evolution.

Apart from *Melanocorypha yeltoniensis*, the sparrow-larks *Eremopterix* spp. are the only larks with strong sexual plumage dimorphism, and the male plumages are contrastingly patterned in black and white on the head and underparts, except in *E. australis*, which lacks white (cf. de Juana et al., 2004; Fig. 3). However, the strongly supported inclusion of the Madagascar endemic *Mirafra hova* in this clade, and hence its suggested transfer to *Eremopterix*, is most remarkable in view of its strikingly different plumage from all plumages of other *Eremopterix* species and close similarity to some *Mirafra* species (cf. de Juana et al., 2004; Fig. 3). The uncertainty regarding its position in the tree in relation to *E. australis* (and hence also the other *Eremopterix* species) precludes reconstruction of the evolution of sexual dimorphism and typical male *Eremopterix* plumage.

Apart from the species with strong sexual dimorphism in plumage, *Melanocorypha yeltoniensis* and the sparrow-larks *Eremopterix* spp. (except *E. hova*), slight plumage differences between the sexes is present in *Eremophila* spp., *Alauda leucoptera*, *Ramphocoris clotbey* and *Pinarocorys erythropygia* (de Juana et al., 2004), showing that sexual plumage dimorphism has evolved multiple times.

The molecular data suggest that the similarities between *Galerida theklae* and *G. malabarica*, which have often been treated as conspecific (e.g. Dean et al., 1992; Hall and Moreau, 1970; Howard and Moore, 1994), are due to parallel evolution, although retention of plesiomorphies cannot be eliminated based on the available data. In contrast, the divergent morphology of the Cape Verde endemic *Alauda razae* (not shown) compared to the other species of *Alauda* (cf. de Juana et al., 2004) has misled earlier workers regarding its generic affinities (Boyd Alexander, 1898; Meinertzhagen, 1951; Pätzold, 2003; Peters, 1960; Vaurie, 1959; Voous, 1977; Wolters, 1979). This disparity agrees with the rapid morphological evolution typical of many small island populations (Grant, 1998).

Within the *Spizocorys* clade there is considerable variation (cf. de Juana et al., 2004; Fig. 3), especially with respect to pigmentation, head pattern (notably *S. personata*) and bill size/shape (especially *S. fremantlii*), which has confused earlier taxonomists. The morphological similarity between *Spizocorys* and *Calandrella* (which led Meinertzhagen, 1951, to unite these genera) is apparently the result of parallel evolution. Conversely, based

on morphology (cf. de Juana et al., 2004; Fig. 3), the close relationship between *Spizocorys* and the monotypic *Lullula* is totally unexpected. Similarly, the close relationship between *Ramphocoris*, *Pinarocorys* and *Ammomanes* is highly surprising when viewed from a purely morphological perspective; in particular the bill morphology of *Ramphocoris* is unique among the larks (cf. de Juana et al., 2004; Fig. 3).

In the *Mirafra/Heteromirafra* clade (B1), plumage variation mainly concerns colour tones and strength of streaking, whereas the variation in bill morphology is more pronounced (cf. de Juana et al., 2004; Fig. 3). Morphological divergence has apparently been extremely slow over substantial time periods in some clades, e.g. in the five species in the *M. assamica-M. erythroptera* compex (clade B1a), which until recently was usually treated as two species, but which was here inferred to have been separated for millions of years. Conversely, in the closely related *Calendulauda* clade (B2), the variation in plumage and structure is so pronounced (cf. de Juana et al., 2004; Fig. 3) that the species placed in this genus have previously been placed in five different genera. Even within clade B2a, the variation in plumage and bill size is marked.

5. Conclusions

Our analyses support the contention that incomplete data sets, especially those where one or a few loci have been consistently sampled from all taxa, can provide robust, well-resolved hypotheses of relationship (Wiens et al., 2005; Wiens and Morrill, 2011; but see Lemmon et al., 2009). Overall, our concatenated tree shows little conflict with individual gene trees, but a few specific relationships do show evidence of conflict, possibly due to differential lineage sorting. This highlights the continued importance of performing single gene as well as combined data analyses, since the latter may obscure significant incongruence behind strong nodal support values. The multilocus tree inferred here revealed many unpredicted relationships, including some non-monophyletic genera. The dated cytb tree indicated some unexpectedly deep divergences between taxa currently regarded as subspecies and one nonmonophyletic species, as well as some comparatively shallow splits between currently recognised species. The phylogeny indicates multiple examples of parallel morphological evolution, probably resulting from variation in selective forces (both natural and sexual) associated with the broad array of open habitats where larks occur. In contrast to the overall rather conserved plumage evolution in larks, some close relatives show dramatic differences in plumage and bill structure, with the latter appearing to be particularly labile. Future work should focus on quantifying rates of evolution in these traits in the context of our robust

808 phylogenetic framework. Few groups of birds show the same level of disagreement between 809 morphologically-based taxonomy and phylogenetic relationships as inferred using DNA data. 810 811 6. Acknowledgements 812 We are most grateful to the following colleagues and institutions for providing samples and/or 813 for assistance in the field: Raul Aymí, Neil and Liz Baker, John Bates, Oleg Belyalov, Geoff 814 Carey, Callan Cohen, Nigel Collar, Miles Coverdale, Edward Gavrilov, Andrew Grieve, 815 Cornelis Hazevoet, Daniel Hooper, Nick Horrocks, Björn Johansson, Joris Komen, Andrew 816 Lassey, Paul Leader, Dave Moyer, H. Nikolaus, Trevor Price, Hadoram Shirihai, Claire 817 Spottiswoode, Martin Stervander, Lars Svensson, Irene Tieleman, Per Undeland, Jo Williams, 818 Bill Zetterström; Leon Bennun and George Amutete and the Kenyan National Museum; Leo 819 Joseph and the Australian National Wildlife Collection; Michel Louette and the Royal 820 Museum for Central Africa, Tervuren; Göran Frisk, Ulf Johansson and Peter Nilsson and the 821 Swedish Museum of Natural History; Silke Fregin and Martin Haase and the Vogelwarte 822 Hiddensee, Ernst Moritz Arndt University of Greifswald; Jan Lifjeld and the National 823 Centre for Biosystematics, Natural History Museum, Oslo; John Bates and the Field 824 Museum of Natural History, Chicago; Jean-Marc Pons and the Muséum National 825 d'Histoire Naturelle, Paris; and Sharon Birks and the University of Washington Burke 826 Museum. Our sincerest thanks also to Wayne Delport, Lisel Solms and Isa-Rita Russo for 827 assistance in the lab, and to Shimiao Shao for submitting the sequences to GenBank. We also 828 thank Josep del Hoyo, Andrew Elliott and Lynx Edicions for permitting the use of paintings 829 of larks from the Handbook of the Birds of the World, and to Anders Rådén for assistance in 830 their scanning. We are indebted to Jornvall Foundation, Riksmusei Vänners Linnaeus award 831 and the Chinese Academy of Sciences Visiting Professorship for Senior International 832 Scientists (No. 2011T2S04) (all to P.A.); to the Pakistan Science Foundation (research project 833 No. PSF/Res. / P-BZU/Bio(340); to A.A.K and M.A.Q.); and to University of Cape Town and 834 South African National Research Foundation (to P.B. and P.G.R.). Collections in Morocco 835 were facilitated and funded in part by the International Foundation for the Development and 836 Conservation of Wildlife (IFCDW). We are most grateful to Margaret Koopman at the Niven 837 Library, Percy FitzPatrick Institute of African Ornithology, for locating important references; 838 to Krister Mild and Jan Sundler for various assistance; to Normand David for his expert 839 advice on the ending of the name Eremopterix hova; and to two anonymous reviewers for

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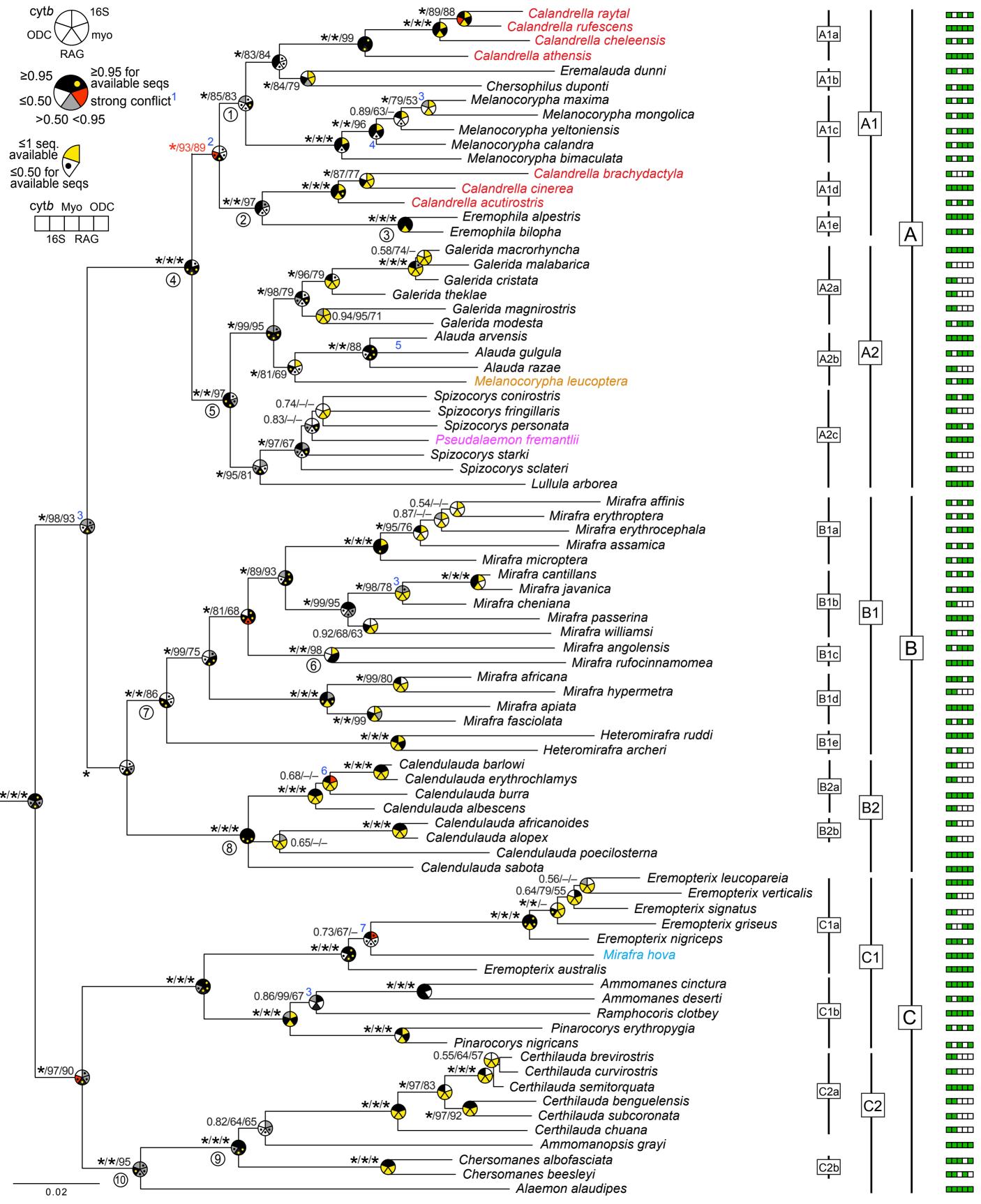
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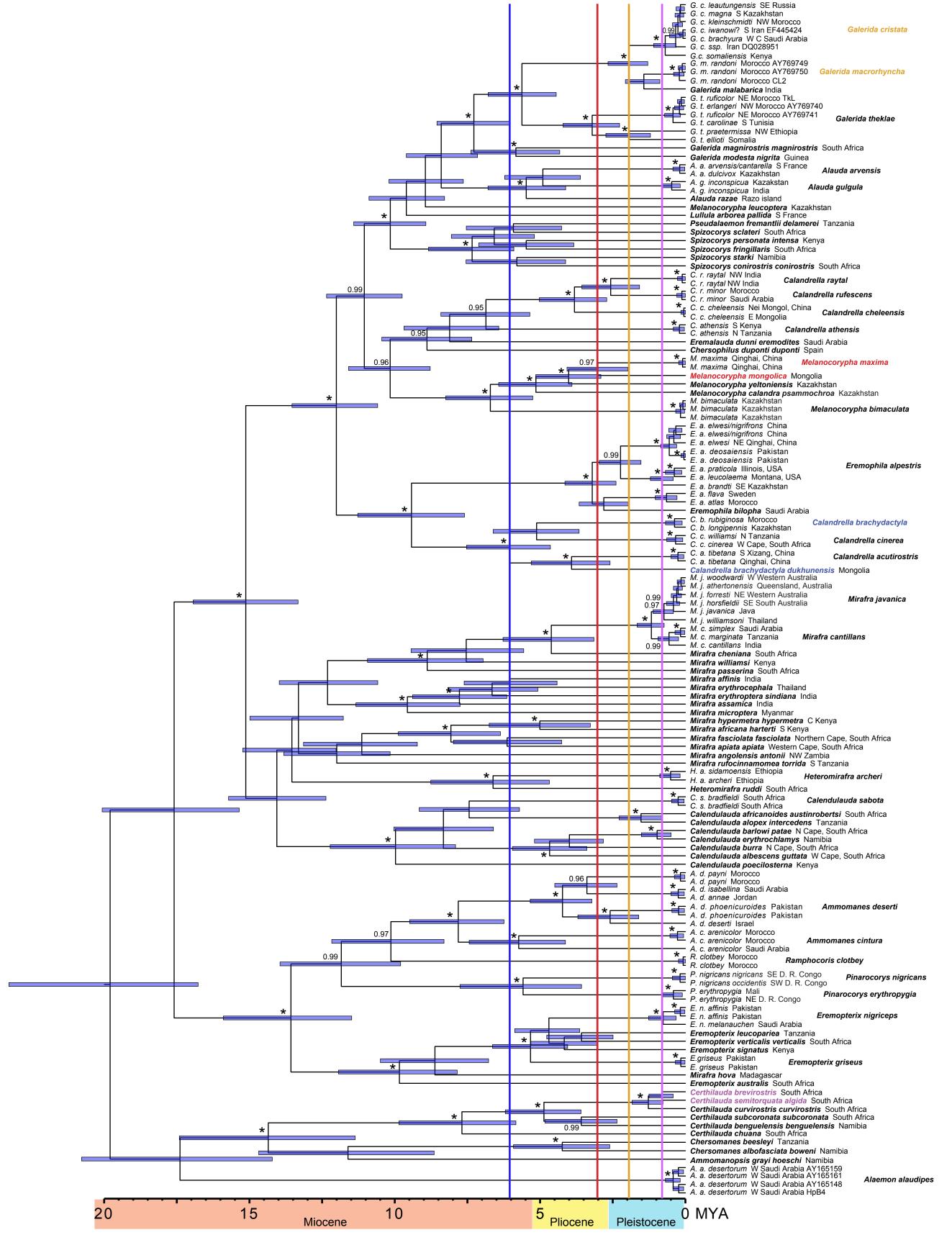
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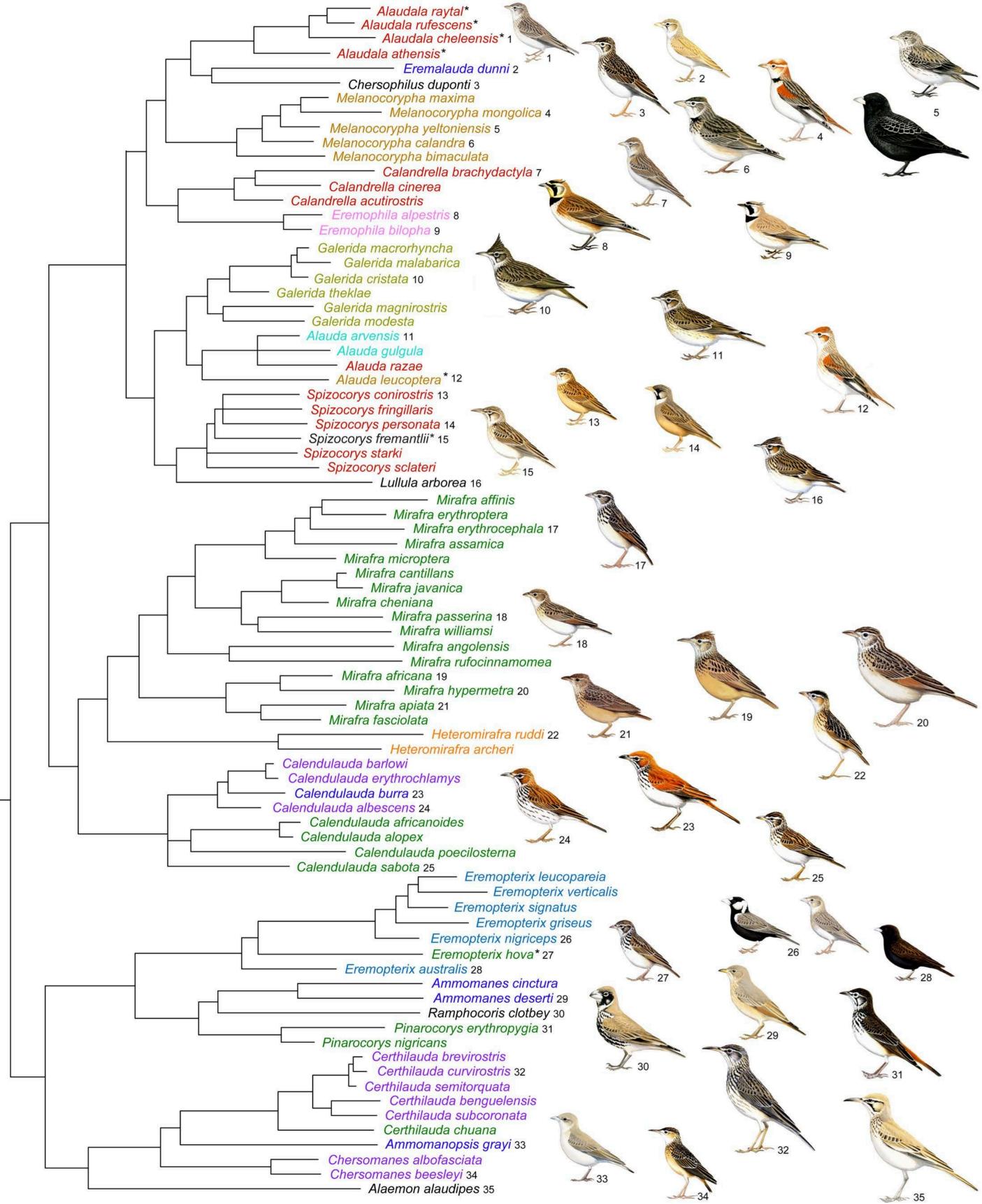
Fig. 1. Majority rule (50%) consensus tree of Alaudidae based on concatenated nuclear ODC, myoglobin and RAG1+2 and mitochondrial cytochrome b (cytb) and 16S sequences, inferred by Bayesian inference, analysed in five partitions (one per locus; all mixed+ Γ +I). Colours of names indicate position incongruent with current taxonomy (Gill and Donsker, 2012). Labelled bars denote clades discussed in text. Pie charts indicate posterior probabilities (PP) in single-locus analyses (see explanation in upper left corner). Support values are indicated at the nodes, in the order PP / maximum likelihood bootstrap (MLBS) / parsimony bootstrap (PBS); an asterisk represents support 1.0 / 100%. Red values indicate strongly supported clades that are considered uncertain despite high statistical support (see text). Coloured boxes to the right indicate sequences available for each species (see explanation in upper left corner). 1 "Strong conflict" means PP > 0.95 for alternative relationship than the one in this figure. ² Strongly contradicted in analysis of extended cytb dataset (cytbE; Fig. 2). 3 PP \geq 0.95 in cytbE. 4 M. yeltoniensis + M. calandra are supported as sisters with PP 1.00 in SLA of RAG, whereas M. mongolica is outside Melanocorypha clade (not strongly supported). ⁵ MLBS and PBS infers A. arvensis + A. gulgula with 72% and 67%, respectively. ⁶ PP 0.66 in cvtbE. ⁷ PP 0.81 in cytbE. Encircled numbers at nodes represent indels: (1) + 1 bp myo; (2) - 1 bp ODC; (3)-1 bp, -5 bp ODC; (4) + 1 bp 16S, myo; (5) + 1 bp ODC (and *H. ruddi*); (6) + 11 bp 16S; (7) + 2 bp ODC; (8) + 1 bp ODC; (9) – 4 bp myo; (10) – 1 bp myo, ODC, + 4 bp myo.

Fig. 2. Chronogram for Alaudidae based on cytochrome b sequences and a relaxed molecular clock (2.1%/MY), inferred by Bayesian inference. Blue bars at nodes represent 95% highest posterior density intervals for the node ages. Posterior probabilities are indicated at the nodes; an asterisk represents posterior probability 1.00; only values \geq 0.95 are indicated. Species for which no subspecific names are given are regarded as monotypic. Coloured lines indicate age of youngest widely sympatric, reproductively isolated sister pair (red); youngest marginally sympatric, reproductively isolated sister pair (orange); youngest allo-/parapatric sister pair treated as separate species according to Gill and Donsker (2012) (purple); and oldest divergence between taxa treated as conspecific according to Gill and Donsker (2012) (blue). The names of the species concerned are the same colours as the lines.

1109 Fig. 3. Morphological variation in some larks. Same tree as in Figure 1. Different colours of 1110 names indicate genera as defined by Peters (1960) based on morphology; monotypic genera 1111 are shown in black. Revised names compared to Gill and Donsker (2012) are indicated by *. 1112 1113 Supplementary Fig. 1. Cytochrome b gene tree inferred by Bayesian inference under the 1114 mixed+ Γ +I model, partitioned by codon. Values at nodes are posterior probabilities. Only 1115 taxa for which more than one sample are available have sample identifiers. 1116 1117 Supplementary Fig. 2. 16S gene tree inferred by Bayesian inference under the mixed+ Γ +I 1118 model. Values at nodes are posterior probabilities. Only taxa with more than one sequence in 1119 the present analysis have identifiers; for others, see Appendix 1. 1120 1121 Supplementary Fig. 3. ODC gene tree inferred by Bayesian inference under the mixed+ Γ +I 1122 model. Values at nodes are posterior probabilities. Only taxa with more than one sequence in 1123 the present analysis have identifiers; for others, see Appendix 1. 1124 1125 Supplementary Fig. 4. Myoglobin gene tree inferred by Bayesian inference under the 1126 mixed+ Γ +I model. Values at nodes are posterior probabilities. Only taxa with more than one 1127 sequence in the present analysis have identifiers; for others, see Appendix 1. 1128 1129 Supplementary Fig. 5. RAG gene tree inferred by Bayesian inference under the mixed+ Γ +I 1130 model. Values at nodes are posterior probabilities. Only taxa with more than one sequence in 1131 the present analysis have identifiers; for others, see Appendix 1. 1132 1133 Supplementary Table 1. Primers used for amplification and sequencing of *Pinarocorys* 1134 samples.







Appendix 1. List of samples (in alphabetical order), with GenBank accession numbers. New sequences are in bold. Taxonomy follows Gill & Donsker (2012). ANWC – Australian National Wildlife Collection, Australia; BZU – Institute of Pure & Applied Biology, Bahauddin Zakariya University, Multan, Pakistan; CEFE – CEFE, Montpellier, France; DZUG – Department of Zoology, University of Gothenburg, Göteborg, Sweden; FMNH – Field Museum of Natural History, Chicago, USA; MNHN – Muséum National d'Histoire Naturelle, Paris; NMK – National Museums of Kenya, Kenya; NHMO – National Centre for Biosystematics, Natural History Museum, Oslo, Norway; NRM – Swedish Museum of Natural History, Stockholm, Sweden; PFP – Percy FitzPatrick Institute of African Ornithology, University of Cape Town, South Africa; RMCA – Royal Museum for Central Africa, Tervuren, Belgium; UWBM – University of Washington Burke Museum, Seattle, USA; VH – Vogelwarte Hiddensee, Zoological Institute and Museum, Ernst Moritz Arndt University of Greifswald, Greifswald, Germany. Sequences used in the multilocus analyses are in italics. Samples without voucher specimens or photos have an * after the specimen number; samples with only photo documentation have *P* after the specimen number (in Appendix 2).

¹Incorrectly labelled *Ammomanes phoenicurus* in GenBank. ² Incorrectly stated to refer to sample from Saudi Arabia in Fregin et al. (2012). ³See comments on subspecies in Shirihai (1996). ³Described in Khan (1999).

Taxon	Locality	Sample No. / Specimen No. / Reference	Locus						
			Cytochrome b	16S	ODC	Myoglobin	RAG		
Alaemon alaudipes desertorum	W Saudi Arabia	Tieleman et al. (2003)	AY165148	_	_	_	-		
Alaemon alaudipes desertorum	W Saudi Arabia	Tieleman et al. (2003)	AY165159	_	_	-	-		
Alaemon alaudipes desertorum	W Saudi Arabia	Tieleman et al. (2003)	AY165161	_	_	-	_		
Alaemon alaudipes desertorum	W Saudi Arabia	PFP HpB4 *	KF060400	KF060343	-	-	_		
Alaemon alaudipes alaudipes	S Morocco	MNHN 2003-2729	-	_	KF060550	KF060498	KF060609		

Alauda arvensis arvensis	Sweden	Johansson et al. (2007) (ODC); Ericson and Johansson (2003) (myo)	-	-	EF625336	AY228284	_
Alauda arvensis arvensis	Netherlands	PFP SkyL2 *	-	-	-	-	KF060610
Alauda arvensis arvensis/cantarella	Nimes, France	Tieleman et al. (2003) / PFP SkyL1 *	AY165156	KF060362	-	-	_
Alauda arvensis dulcivox	SE Kazakhstan	DZUG U581 (P)	KF060401	-	-	-	_
Alauda gulgula inconspicua	SE Kazakhstan	NRM 20066712	KF060402	_	KF060551	KF060499	KF060611
Alauda gulgula inconspicua	Haryana, India	DZUG U3267 (P)	KF060403	_	_	_	-
Alauda razae	Raso Island, Cape Verde Islands	PFP Raz *	KF060404	KF060361	_	_	_
Ammomanes cinctura arenicolor	Morocco	PFP BrTdLk1 (P)	KF060405	KF060353	-	-	-
Ammomanes cinctura arenicolor	S Morocco	MNHN 2003-2735	KF060406	_	KF060552	KF060500	KF060612
Ammomanes cinctura arenicolor	W Saudi Arabia	Tieleman et al. (2003) / PFP BTL *	AY165150	KF060352	-	-	-
Ammomanes deserti annae	Azraq, Jordan	Fregin et al. (2012) / VH A1592 (B0703)	JX236373	-	JX236460 ²	JX236343	JX236414
Ammomanes deserti isabellina	W Saudi Arabia	Tieleman et al. (2003)	AY165152 ¹	_	_	_	-
Ammomanes deserti deserti ³	Arava valley, Israel	DZUG U770 *	KF060411	_	_	_	_

Ammomanes deserti	Morocco	PFP DLS6 (P)	KF060410	KF060351	_	_	-
Ammomanes deserti payni	S Morocco	MNHN 2013-66	KF060409	_	KF060553	KF060501	KF060613
Ammomanes deserti phoenicuroides	Dera Ghazi Khan district, Punjab, Pakistan	BZU 200A/11	KF060407	-	KF060554	KF060502	KF060615
Ammomanes deserti phoenicuroides	Mari Indus, Mianwali, Pakistan	BZU 15/11	KF060408	_			KF060614
Ammomanopsis grayi hoeschi	Van Zyl's Pass, NW Namibia	Tieleman et al. (2003) / PFP P94 *	AY165168	KF060374	KF060556	KF060503	KF060617
Calandrella acutirostris tibetana	NE Qinghai, China	DZUG U577 *	KF060412	-	KF060557	KF060504	_
Calandrella acutirostris tibetana	S Xizang, China	NHMO 17039 *	KF060413	-	-	-	-
Calandrella athensis	S Kenya	PFP AST1 *	KF060414	-	KF060558	KF060505	KF060618
Calandrella athensis	N Tanzania	Tieleman et al. (2003) / PFP AST2 *	AY165166	KF152963	_	_	-
Calandrella brachydactyla dukhunensis	E Mongolia	UWBM 59838 / CSW5805	KF060417	_	_	_	_
Calandrella brachydactyla longipennis	SE Kazakhstan	DZUG U582 (P)	KF060416	_	_	_	-
Calandrella brachydactyla rubiginosa	C Morocco	CEFE Cbra1 *	KF060415	_	KF060559	_	-
Calandrella cheleensis cheleensis	NE Nei Mongol, China	DZUG U2202 *	KF060418	_	KF060560	KF060506	_
Calandrella cheleensis cheleensis	E Mongolia	UWBM 59820 / CSW5787	KF060419	_	-	_	_

Calandrella cinerea cinerea	St Helena Bay, Western Cape, South Africa	PFP CcinP119 *	KF060421	KF060358	-	-	-
Calandrella cinerea williamsi	near Nairobi, Kenya	PFP RC2 *	_	_	KF060561	KF060507	KF060619
Calandrella cinerea williamsi	Oldonyo sambu, Tanzania	PFP RCL13 *	KF060420	KF060357	_	_	_
Calandrella raytal raytal	Haryana, India	DZUG 2200 (P)	KF060422	-	-	KF060508	_
Calandrella raytal raytal	Haryana, India	DZUG 2201 (P)	KF060423	_	KF060562	_	_
Calandrella rufescens minor	Mahazat, Saudi Arabia	Tieleman et al. (2003) / PFP LST1 *	AY165154	KF060355	KF060563	KF060509	KF060620
Calandrella rufescens minor	Morocco	PFP LST ad *	KF060424	KF060354		_	_
Calendulauda africanoides austinrobertsi	Groblershoop, Northern Cape, South Africa	PFP P175 *	KF060425	KF060370	-	-	-
Calendulauda albescens guttata	Prince Albert, Western Cape, South Africa	PFP Pi3 *	KF060426	KF060365	-	-	-
Calendulauda alopex intercedens	Oldonyo sambu, Tanzania	PFP FCL15 *	KF060427	KF060369	_	_	_
Calendulauda barlowi patae	Alexander Bay, Northern Cape, South Africa	PFP Pi4 *	KF060428	KF060367	-	_	-
Calendulauda burra	Kleinputz, Northern Cape, South Africa	PFP P119 *	KF060429	KF060364	KF060564	KF060510	KF060621
Calendulauda erythrochlamys	Walvis Bay, Namibia	Tieleman et al. (2003) / PFP P-	AY165167	KF060366	-	-	_

		Dune					
Calendulauda poecilosterna	Chyulu Hills, S Kenya	NMK PBR4 *	KF060430	KF060368	KF060598	KF060541	KF060643
Calendulauda sabota bradfieldi	Prieska, Northern Cape, South Africa	Tieleman et al. (2003) / PFP P181	AY165172	KF060363	KF060600	KF060543	KF060645
Calendulauda sabota bradfieldi	Dwaalhoek Farm, Northern Cape, South Africa	DZUG U2344 (<i>P</i>)	KF060432	_	KF060601	KF060544	_
Certhilauda benguelensis benguelensis	Uniab River, Namibia	PFP P204/L *	KF060433	KF060376	-	-	-
Certhilauda brevirostris	Bredasdorp, Western Cape, South Africa	PFP P215/L2 *	KF060434	KF060377	_	-	-
Certhilauda chuana	Pietersburg, KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa	PFP P96 *	KF060435	KF060375	-	-	-
Certhilauda curvirostris curvirostris	Pater Noster, Western Cape, South Africa	PFP P220/L7 *	KF060436	KF060379	-	-	-
Certhilauda semitorquata algida	Stutterheim, Eastern Cape, South Africa	PFP P214/L1 *	KF060437	KF060378	KF060565	KF060511	KF060622
Certhilauda subcoronata subcoronata	near Brandvlei, Northern Cape, South Africa	PFP P219/L6 *	KF060438	KF060380	-	-	-
Chersomanes albofasciata boweni	Van Zyl's Pass, Namibia	Tieleman et al. (2003) / PFP P203	AY165165	KF060373	_	_	_
Chersomanes albofasciata ssp.	?	Johansson et al.	_	-	EU680716	EU680604	_

		(2007)					
Chersomanes beesleyi	Oldonyo sambu, Tanzania	PFP ShTz *	KF060440	KF060372	_	_	KF060623
Chersophilus duponti duponti	Spain	DZUG U2255 *	KF060441	_	KF060566	KF060512	KF060624
Eremalauda dunni eremodites	Saudi Arabia	Tieleman et al. (2003) / PFP DNL1 *	AY165153	AY165128	KF060555	-	KF060616
Eremophila alpestris atlas	Morocco	MNHN 2003-2730	KF060443	_	-	-	_
Eremophila alpestris brandti	SE Kazakhstan	DZUG U2491 (P)	KF060444	-	_	_	-
Eremophila alpestris deosaiensis ⁴	Deosai, Baltistan, Pakistan	BZU 20120608- D32	KF060447	-	_	_	-
Eremophila alpestris deosaiensis ⁴	Deosai, Baltistan, Pakistan	BZU 20120608- D35	KF060448	-	_	_	-
Eremophila alpestris elwesi	NE Qinghai, China	DZUG U576 (P)	KF060445	-	KF060567	-	-
Eremophila alpestris elwesi	NE Qinghai, China	DZUG U154 *	_	-	_	KF060513	_
Eremophila alpestris elwesi	Qinghai or Xizang, China	Qu et al. (2000)	FJ952456				
Eremophila alpestris elwesi	Qinghai or Xizang, China	Qu et al. (2000)	FJ952457	-	_	_	-
Eremophila alpestris flava	Sweden	NRM 20046759	KF060442	-	-	-	_
Eremophila alpestris leucolaema	Montana, USA	Klicka et al. (2000)	AF290137	-	-	_	-
Eremophila alpestris praticola	Illinois, USA	FMNH 351146	KF060446	KF060359	KF060568	-	KF060625

Eremophila bilopha	Saudi Arabia	Tieleman et al. (2003) / PFP THL *	AY165157	KF060360	KF060569	-	-
Eremophila bilopha	Morocco	MNHN 2003-2732	_	_		KF060514	_
Eremopterix australis	Droëgrond, Northern Cape, South Africa	PFP P176 *	KF060449	KF060348	KF060570	KF060515	_
Eremopterix australis	South Africa	Barker et al. (unpublished)	_	-	_	_	AY319982
Eremopterix griseus	Sind, Pakistan	DZUG 2257 *	KF060450	_	KF060571	_	KF060627
Eremopterix griseus	Sind, Pakistan	DZUG 2258 *	KF060451	_	_		
Eremopterix leucopareia	Arusha, Tanzania	PFP FFL6*	KF060452	KF060346	KF060572	KF060516	KF060628
Eremopterix nigriceps affinis	Saudi Arabia	Tieleman et al. (2003) / PFP BCL *	AY165149	KF060344	-	-	_
Eremopterix nigriceps melanauchen	Sind, Pakistan	DZUG U2259 *	KF060453	_	KF060573	KF060517	_
Eremopterix nigriceps melanauchen	Sind, Pakistan	DZUG U2260 *	KF060454	-	-	-	-
Eremopterix signatus	Shaba Game Reserve, C Kenya	NMK CHSL *	KF060455	KF060347	_	_	-
Eremopterix verticalis verticalis	Western Cape, South Africa	Tieleman et al. (2003) / PFP P99	AY165164	KF060345	_	_	_
Galerida cristata brachyura	Taif, Saudi Arabia	Tieleman et al. (2003) / PFP CL	AY165151	KF060399			
Galerida cristata (iwanowi?)	S Iran	Guillaumet et al. (2008)	EF445424	_	_	_	-
Galerida cristata ssp.	Iran	Guillaumet et al.	DQ028951	_	_	_	-

		(2006)					
Galerida cristata kleinschmidti	NW Morocco	Guillaumet et al. (2005)	AY769746	_	_	-	_
Galerida cristata leautungensis	SE Russia	Guillaumet et al. (2008)	EF445427	-	-	-	-
Galerida cristata magna	S Kazakhstan	Guillaumet et al. (2008)	EF445425	-	_	-	_
Galerida cristata somaliensis	Kenya	Guillaumet et al. (2008)	EF445429	_	_	-	_
Galerida macrorhyncha randoni	Errachidia, Morocco	PFP CL2a (P)	KF060456	KF060398	KF060574	KF060518	KF060629
Galerida macrorhyncha randoni	E C Morocco	Guillaumet et al. (2005)	AY769749	_	_	-	-
Galerida macrorhyncha randoni	E C Morocco	Guillaumet et al. (2005)	AY769750	-	_	-	-
Galerida magnirostris	St Helena Bay, Western Cape, South Africa	Tieleman et al. (2003) / PFP TL *	AY165169	KF060396	-	-	-
Galerida malabarica	India	Guillaumet et al. (2008)	EF445430	_	_	_	_
Galerida modesta nigrita	Guinea	VH A1428 *	KF060457	_	KF060575	KF060519	KF060630
Galerida theklae carolinae	S Tunisia	Guillaumet et al. (2008)	EF445418	_	-	-	-
Galerida theklae ellioti	Somalia	Guillaumet et al. (2008)	EF445423	-	-	-	-
Galerida theklae erlangeri	NW Morocco	Guillaumet et al. (2005)	AY769740	-	-	-	_

Galerida theklae praetermissa	NW Ethiopia	Guillaumet et al. (2008)	EF445421	_	_	_	_
Galerida theklae ruficolor	NE Morocco	Guillaumet et al. (2005)	AY769741				
Galerida theklae ruficolor	Errachidia, Morocco	PFP TkL (P)	KF060458	KF060397	-	-	-
Heteromirafra archeri sidamoensis	Liben Plain, SE Ethiopia	Spottiswoode et al. (2013) / DZUG U2810 (P)	KC512763	-	-	KF060521	-
Heteromirafra archeri archeri	Jijiga, SE Ethiopia	Spottiswoode et al. (2013) / DZUG 2805 (P)	KC512760	-	-	-	-
Heteromirafra ruddi	Wakkerstroom, South Africa	PFP L8 *	KC869742	KF060371	KF060576	KF060520	KF060631
Lullula arborea pallida	Nimes, France	Tieleman et al. (2003) / PFP WL *	AY165158	KF060356	KF060577	KF060522	KF060632
Melanocorypha bimaculata	SE Kazakhstan	DZUG U2281 (P)	KF060459	_	-	_	-
Melanocorypha bimaculata	SE Kazakhstan	DZUG U2282 (P)	KF060460	_	-	KF060523	-
Melanocorypha bimaculata	SE Kazakhstan	DZUG U2283 (P)	KF060461	-	KF060578	-	-
Melanocorypha calandra calandra	NE Morocco	MNHN 2003-2733	_	-	KF060579	KF060524	KF060633
Melanocorypha calandra psammochroa	SE Kazakhstan	DZUG U583 (P)	KF060462	_	_	_	-
Melanocorypha leucoptera	SE Kazakhstan	DZUG U579 (P)	KF060463	-	KF060580	KF060525	KF060634
Melanocorypha maxima	Qinghai, China	DZUG U578 (P)	KF060464	-	KF060581	-	-
Melanocorypha maxima	Qinghai, China	DZUG U588 (P)	KF060465	-	KF060582	KF060526	-

Melanocorypha mongolica	Mongolia	UWBM 59839 / CSW5806	KF060466	-	KF060583	KF060527	KF060635
Melanocorypha yeltoniensis	SE Kazakhstan	DZUG U575 (<i>P</i>)	KF060467	_	KF060584	KF060528	KF060636
Mirafra affinis	Andhra Pradesh, India	DZUG U3268 (P)	KF060468	-	KF060585	KF060529	_
Mirafra africana harterti	Chyulu Hills, S Kenya	NMK RN1 *	KF060469	KF060389	_	_	-
Mirafra africana harterti	S Kenya	NMK RN2 *	_	_	KF060586	KF060530	_
Mirafra angolensis antonii	Hillwood Farm, NW Zambia	PFP MA1 *	KF060470	-	KF060587	KF060531	KF060637
Mirafra apiata apiata	Silwerstroomstrand, Western Cape, South Africa	PFP P174 *	KC869741	KF060388	KF060588	KF060532	KF060638
Mirafra assamica	Punjab, India	DZUG U3269 (P)	KF060471	_	KF060589	KF060533	_
Mirafra cantillans cantillans	Punjab, India	DZUG U3273 (P)	KF060472	-	KF060590	KF060534	-
Mirafra cantillans marginata	Sanya Juu, Tanzania	PFP SBL *	KF060473	KF060386	-	_	-
Mirafra cantillans simplex	Mahazat, Saudi Arabia	Tieleman et al. (2003) / PFP SBL1	AY165155	KF060385	-	-	-
Mirafra cheniana	Boskop, Free State, South Africa	PFP P192 *	KF060474	KF060384	_	_	-
Mirafra erythrocephala	Thailand	DZUG U3270 *	KF060475	_	KF060591	KF060535	_
Mirafra erythroptera sindiana	Haryana, India	DZUG U3271 (P)	KF060476	_	KF060592	KF060536	KF060639
Mirafra fasciolata fasciolata	Northern Cape, South Africa	DZUG U2345 (P)	KF060477	-	KF060593	KF060537	-

Mirafra hova	Madagascar	FMNH 352844	KF060478	KF060349	KF060594	KF060538	KF060640
Mirafra hypermetra hypermetra	Shaba Game Reserve, C Kenya	NMK RWBL *	KF060479	KF060387	_	_	_
Mirafra javanica athertonensis	Queensland, Australia	ANWC B31226	KF060484	-	_	_	-
Mirafra javanica forresti	NE Western Australia	ANWC B55078	KF060482	_	_	_	-
Mirafra javanica javanica	Java, indonesia	DZUG U3272 *	KF060480	_	KF060595	-	_
Mirafra javanica woodwardi	W Western Australia	ANWC B33326	KF060481	_	_	-	_
Mirafra javanica horsfieldii	SE South Australia	ANWC B45130	KF060483	-	_	_	_
Mirafra javanica williamsoni	Thailand	Alström et al. (2006) (cytb, myo); Alström et al. (2011) (ODC); Fregin et al. (2012) (RAG)	DQ008520	-	HQ333089	DQ008571	JX236441
Mirafra microptera	Myanmar	DZUG U3275 (P)	KF060485	_	KF060596	_	KF060641
Mirafra microptera	Myanmar	DZUG U3276 (P)	_	_	_	KF060539	_
Mirafra passerina	Rooipoort, Northern Cape, South Africa	Tieleman et al. (2003) / PFP P186 *	AY165163	KF060383	KF060597	KF060540	KF060642
Mirafra rufocinnamomea torrida	Iringa, S Tanzania	PFP FLTz*	KF060486	KF060381	KF060599	KF060542	KF060644
Mirafra williamsi	C Kenya	NMK WL1 *	KF060487	KF060382	-	-	-
Mirafra williamsi	C Kenya	PFP WillLk4 *	_	_	KF060602		_

Pinarocorys erythropygia	Mali	RMCA 105748	KF060488	_	_	KF060545	_
Pinarocorys erythropygia	NE D. R. Congo	RMCA 101081	KF060489	-	KF060603	_	_
Pinarocorys nigricans nigricans	SE D. R. Congo	RMCA 106597	KF060490	-	_	_	-
Pinarocorys nigricans occidentis	SW D. R. Congo	RMCA 101105	KF060491	_	KF060604	KF060546	_
Pseudalaemon fremantlii delamerei	Oldonyo Sambo, N Tazania	PFP STL9 *	KF060492	KF060390	KF060605	KF060547	KF060646
Ramphocoris clotbey	Morocco	PFP CLOT1 *	KF060493	KF060350	_	_	_
Ramphocoris clotbey	Morocco	CEFE Rhcl1 *	KF060494	_	KF060606	KF060548	KF060647
Spizocorys conirostris conirostris	Volksrust, KwaZulu- Natal, South Africa	PFP P177 *	KF060495	KF060395	KF060607	_	KF060648
Spizocorys fringillaris	Vaalpoort, Mpumalanga, South Africa	PFP P179 *	KF060496	KF060394	-	-	-
Spizocorys personata intensa	Shaba Game Reserve, C Kenya	NMK ML1 *	KF060497	KF060393	_	_	-
Spizocorys personata intensa	C Kenya	PFP MSKLk6 *	_	_	KF060608	KF060549	
Spizocorys sclateri	near Brandvlei, Northern Cape, South Africa	Tieleman et al. (2003) / PFP P191 *	AY165170	KF060391	-	-	-
Spizocorys starki	Grunau, S Namibia	Tieleman et al. (2003) / PFP P178 *	AY165162	KF060392	-	-	-
Outgroup			1		I		
Acrocephalus arundinaceus		A.J. Vastermark (unpublished)	_	AB492871	_	_	-

Aegithalos concinnus	Päckert et al. (2010)	_	GU433980	_	_	_
Panurus biarmicus	Barker et al. (unpublished) (RAG); Ericson and Johansson (2003) (myo); Fregin et al. (2012) (cytb); Johansson et al. (2008) (ODC)	JX236397	_	EU680747	AY228308	AY319993
Prinia bairdii	Barker (2004) (cytb); Barker et al. (unpublished) (RAG); Cibois et al. (1999) (16S); Fregin et al. (2012) (ODC, myo)	AY352536	AF094647	JX236470	JX236364	AY319998
Cisticola brachyptera	Cibois et al. (1999)	-	AF094670	_	_	_

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