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Major Divisions in Oscines Revealed by Insertions in the Nuclear Gene *c-myc*: A Novel Gene in Avian Phylogenetics

PER G. P. ERICSON,^{1,4} ULF S. JOHANSSON,^{1,2} AND THOMAS J. PARSONS³

¹*Department of Vertebrate Zoology, Swedish Museum of Natural History, Box 50007, SE-104 05 Stockholm, Sweden;*

²*Department of Zoology, University of Stockholm, SE-106 91 Stockholm, Sweden; and*

³*U.S. Armed Forces DNA Identification Laboratory, Armed Forces Institute for Pathology, 1413 Research Boulevard, Rockville, Maryland 20850, USA*

The order Passeriformes is a monophyletic group consisting of more than half of all living birds species (Raikow 1982). The major split of the passerines into the suboscines and oscines is well supported by morphological characters, although a few taxa (e.g. *Acanthisittidae*, New Zealand wrens) defy allocation to either suborder (see Sibley and Ahlquist 1990). Molecular analyses corroborate this dichotomy in passerines (Sibley and Ahlquist 1990, Edwards et al. 1991).

Some oscine families are distinct, but convergent evolution apparently is common and has obscured phylogenetic relationships, making the subdivision of this group based on morphology difficult (Beecher 1953, Tordoff 1954, Ames 1971, Raikow 1978, Bledsoe 1988). In fact, even the delimitations of most families are uncertain, and only two families, the *Alaudidae* (larks) and the *Hirundinidae* (swallows and martins), are unambiguously defined (Mayr 1958). Consequently, oscine relationships at the family level and above are insufficiently known, and all taxonomic arrangements are controversial.

Besides the larks and swallows, three main groups of oscines have been recognized based on morphology: (1) Old World insect-eaters and their relatives; (2) New World insect-eaters and finches; and (3) crows, birds-of-paradise, and associated families (Mayr and Greenway 1956, Voous 1985). Before the advent of quantitative biochemical methods, most systematists recognized these groups, and the major debate concerned how they were related (Voous 1985). Although all combinations of the three groups have been advocated at one time or another, a major issue is whether the crows and their allies constitute the sister group to all other oscines, or are nested within them. The fully developed double pneumatic fossae in the proximal end of the humerus present in many oscines, but not in crows and allies or in the suboscines (Bock 1962), suggests the existence of a clade including all oscines except crows and their allies. This dichotomy has been supported by DNA-DNA hybridization studies (Sibley and Ahlquist 1990, Harshman 1994, Sheldon and Gill 1996). In the

classification of Sibley and Monroe (1990), the dichotomy is reflected by the division of the oscines into the parvorders *Corvida* and *Passerida*. The *Passerida* is further divided into the superfamilies *Muscicapoidae*, *Sylvioidea*, and *Passeroidea*.

The DNA-DNA hybridization method as applied by Sibley and Ahlquist has been criticized on several grounds, and doubts concerning the validity of some of their results have been raised (Cracraft 1987, Houde 1987, Sarich et al. 1989, Sheldon and Bledsoe 1993). However, the currently favored method in molecular systematics, the comparison of nucleotide sequences, so far has generated few phylogenetic hypotheses at this high taxonomic level in oscines (but see Edwards et al. 1991, Groth 1998).

Here, we present a hypothesis of phylogenetic relationships among oscines based on two previously undescribed insertions in exon 3 of *c-myc*. This hypothesis defines major groups of songbirds. *C-myc* is a nuclear proto-oncogene that encodes a protein transcription factor that plays a crucial role in the regulation of cell proliferation and apoptosis (Bouchard et al. 1998). The sequence of *c-myc* is highly conserved throughout the vertebrates, especially compared with the more rapidly evolving mitochondrial genes. Although no dates are known for splits between the evolutionary lineages studied herein, some of them might be very old, perhaps even of early Tertiary age (Feduccia 1995). Mutational saturation can reduce the resolving power of gene sequences and might be a problem when using mitochondrial genes to study ancient branching events in birds. In contrast, dissimilarities between *c-myc* sequences increase nearly linearly for evolutionary divergences well beyond 100 million years ago (Graybeal 1994). To investigate early avian divergences, we have sequenced about 500 base pairs of exon 3 of this gene for more than 150 species representing 65 nonpasserine and 36 passerine families. Our results confirm the slow rate of evolution of *c-myc* in birds. The maximum sequence divergence observed was about 11%, and only three indels occurred. Only one indel, an insertion of four amino acids relative to the published chicken sequence, has been observed outside the passerines.

⁴ E-mail: per.ericson@nrm.se

TABLE 1. Distribution of taxa used in this study. Family names and lower taxonomic categories follow Morony et al. (1975), and higher categories follow Sibley and Monroe (1990). AM = Australian Museum, NRM = Swedish Museum of Natural History, ZMCU = Zoological Museum of the University of Copenhagen, and NCBI = National Center for Biotechnology Information (GenBank).

| Parvorder or superfamily | Family or subfamily | Species | Sample no. | Locality | |
|--------------------------|---------------------|--|--------------------------------|------------|-----------|
| Pittoidea | Pittidae | <i>Pitta angolensis</i> | ZMCU S1027 | Tanzania | |
| | Eurylaimoidea | | | | |
| Tyrannida | Eurylaimidae | <i>Smithornis capensis</i> | ZMCU S967 | Tanzania | |
| | Philepittidae | <i>Philepitta castanea</i> | ZMCU S458 | Madagascar | |
| | | Suborder Tyranni, infraorder Tyrannides | | | |
| | Tyrannidae | <i>Muscivora tyrannus</i> | NRM 976722 | Paraguay | |
| | | <i>Gubernetes yetapa</i> | NRM 976700 | Paraguay | |
| | | <i>Idioptilon margaritaceiventris</i> | NRM 966959 | Paraguay | |
| | | <i>Xolmis irupero</i> | NRM 937154 | Paraguay | |
| | Phytotomidae | <i>Phytotoma rutila</i> | ZMCU S466 | Bolivia | |
| | Cotingidae | <i>Tityra cayana</i> | NRM 956584 | Paraguay | |
| | Pipridae | <i>Pipra fasciata</i> | NRM 947271 | Paraguay | |
| Thamnophilida | Formicariidae | <i>Thamnophilus caeruleus</i> | NRM 967007 | Paraguay | |
| Furnariida | Furnariidae | <i>Furnarius cristatus</i> | NRM 966772 | Paraguay | |
| | Dendrocolaptidae | <i>Lepidocolaptes angustirostris</i> | NRM 937184 | Paraguay | |
| Corvida | Conopophagidae | <i>Conopophaga lineata</i> | NRM 956653 | Paraguay | |
| | Rhinocryptidae | <i>Rhinocrypta lanceolata</i> | NRM 966793 | Paraguay | |
| | | Suborder Passeri | | | |
| | Menuriidae | <i>Menura novaeollandiae</i> | AM LAB1112 | Australia | |
| | Corvoidea | Laniidae | <i>Lanius collurio</i> | NRM 986403 | Sweden |
| | | Vireonidae | <i>Vireo olivaceus</i> | NRM 976766 | Paraguay |
| | | Vireonidae | <i>Cychlaris gujanensis</i> | NRM 966964 | Paraguay |
| | | Grallinidae | <i>Corcorax melanorhamphos</i> | AM LAB1059 | Australia |
| | | Paradisaeidae | <i>Phylorhis magnificus</i> | AM O64926 | Australia |
| | | Cracticidae | <i>Cracticus torquatus</i> | AM LAB1110 | Australia |
| Ortoidae | | <i>Oriolus oriolus</i> | ZMCU O1376 | Denmark | |
| Campephagidae | | <i>Campephaga phoenicea</i> | ZMCU O11 | Kenya | |

TABLE 1. Continued.

| Parvorder or superfamily | Family or subfamily | Species | Sample no. | Locality | | | |
|-----------------------------|--------------------------------------|---|----------------------------------|-------------|-------------------------|------------|-------------|
| Passerida | Dicruridae Platysteirinae | <i>Dicrurus baliacassius</i> | ZMCU O352 | Philippines | | | |
| | | <i>Batis mixta</i> | ZMCU O2953 | Tanzania | | | |
| | Muscicapoidae | Bombycillidae Turdinae Muscicapinae Sturnidae Mimidae | <i>Bombycilla garrulus</i> | NRM 986044 | Sweden | | |
| | | | <i>Erethacus rubecula</i> | NRM 976377 | Sweden | | |
| | | | <i>Ficedula hypoleuca</i> | NRM 976132 | Sweden | | |
| | | | <i>Sturnus vulgaris</i> | NRM 966615 | Sweden | | |
| | | | <i>Mimus saturninus</i> | NRM 966912 | Paraguay | | |
| | Sylvioidea | Sittidae Panurinae Sylviinae Certhiidae Troglodytidae Paridae Aegithalidae Remizidae Hirundinidae Pycnonotidae Zosteropidae | <i>Sitta europea</i> | NRM 976163 | Sweden | | |
| | | | <i>Panurus biarmicus</i> | NRM 966576 | Sweden | | |
| | | | <i>Sylvia atricapilla</i> | NRM 976380 | Sweden | | |
| | | | <i>Certhia familiaris</i> | NRM 976184 | Sweden | | |
| | | | <i>Troglodytes troglodytes</i> | NRM 986416 | Sweden | | |
| | | | <i>Parus major</i> | NRM 956363 | Sweden | | |
| | | | <i>Aegithalos caudatus</i> | NRM 976089 | Sweden | | |
| | | | <i>Remiz pendulinus</i> | NRM 966576 | Sweden | | |
| | | | <i>Hirundo rustica</i> | NRM 976238 | Sweden | | |
| | | | <i>Chlorocichla flaviventris</i> | ZMCU O1789 | Kenya | | |
| | | | <i>Zosterops nigrorum</i> | ZMCU O2663 | Philippines | | |
| | | | Passeroidea | Alaudidae | <i>Alauda arvensis</i> | NRM 966614 | Sweden |
| | | | | | <i>Dicaeum australe</i> | ZMCU O3737 | Philippines |
| Nectariniidae | <i>Aethopyga flagrans</i> | ZMCU O1346 | | Philippines | | | |
| | <i>Passer montanus</i> | NRM 976359 | | Sweden | | | |
| Ploceinae | <i>Ploceus velatus</i> | — | | Kenya | | | |
| | <i>Quelea quelea</i> | — | | Kenya | | | |
| Motacillidae | <i>Anthus trivialis</i> | NRM 976393 | | Sweden | | | |
| | <i>Motacilla alba</i> | NRM 976193 | | Sweden | | | |
| Prunellidae | <i>Prunella modularis</i> | NRM 976138 | | Sweden | | | |
| | <i>Lonchura malacca</i> | ZMCU O1716 | | Philippines | | | |
| Estrildidae Fringillidae | <i>Carduelis chloris</i> | — | | Sweden | | | |
| | <i>Carpodacus erythrinus</i> | NRM 976373 | | Sweden | | | |
| | <i>Coccothraustes coccothraustes</i> | NRM 976374 | | Sweden | | | |
| | <i>Loxia curvirostra</i> | NRM 976546 | | Sweden | | | |
| | <i>Pipilo nuclearis</i> | NRM 996030 | | Sweden | | | |
| | <i>Pyrrhula pyrrhula</i> | NRM 986379 | | Sweden | | | |
| | <i>Serinus canaria</i> | NCBI 64252 | | — | | | |

TABLE 1. Continued.

| Parvorder or superfamily | Family or subfamily | Species | Sample no. | Locality |
|--------------------------|---------------------|----------------------------------|------------|----------|
| | Emberizinae | <i>Ammodramus humeralis</i> | NRM 966958 | Paraguay |
| | | <i>Calcarius lapponicus</i> | NRM 976550 | Sweden |
| | | <i>Emberizoides herbicola</i> | NRM 976735 | Paraguay |
| | | <i>Oryzoborus angolensis</i> | NRM 947261 | Paraguay |
| | | <i>Paroaria coronata</i> | NRM 976781 | Paraguay |
| | | <i>Plectrophenax nivalis</i> | NRM 986392 | Sweden |
| | | <i>Volatinia jacarina</i> | NRM 966961 | Paraguay |
| | | <i>Saltator atricollis</i> | NRM 966978 | Paraguay |
| Cardinalinae | | <i>Tersina viridis</i> | NRM 976669 | Paraguay |
| Tersininae | | <i>Eucometis penicillata</i> | NRM 966968 | Paraguay |
| Thraupinae | | <i>Euphonia chlorotica</i> | NRM 956750 | Paraguay |
| | | <i>Tangara seledon</i> | NRM 956580 | Paraguay |
| Parulidae | | <i>Conirostrum speciosum</i> | NRM 976671 | Paraguay |
| | | <i>Geothlypis aequinoctialis</i> | NRM 956574 | Paraguay |
| | | <i>Parula pitagumi</i> | NRM 947170 | Paraguay |
| Icteridae | | <i>Agelaius cyanopus</i> | NRM 966916 | Paraguay |
| | | <i>Amblyramphus holosericeus</i> | NRM 966856 | Paraguay |
| | | <i>Icterus cayanensis</i> | NRM 967139 | Paraguay |
| | | <i>Molothrus badius</i> | NRM 976783 | Paraguay |
| | | <i>Pseudoleistes guirahuro</i> | NRM 976736 | Paraguay |

Methods.—Representatives of 46 passerine families were selected for study (Table 1). Special emphasis was placed on sampling the superfamily Passeroidea sensu Sibley and Ahlquist (1990). If not stated otherwise, the usage of family and subfamily names follows Morony et al. (1975). However, at higher levels, i.e. superfamilies and parvorders, we use the terminology of Sibley and Ahlquist (1990) to facilitate comparisons between our results and their phylogenetic hypotheses.

We extracted genomic DNA from tissue or blood using standard techniques of Proteinase K/SDS digestion followed by phenol chloroform extraction and ethanol precipitation, or by QIAamp DNA extraction kits following manufacturer's recommendations. Amplification was performed with primer pairs *mycEX3A* (CAAGAAGAAGATGAGGAAAT) and *RmycEX3A* (TTAGCTGCTCAAGTTTGTG), or *mycEX3D* (GAAGAAGAACAAGAAGAAGATG) and *RmycEX3D* (ACGAGAGTTCCTTAGCTGCT), developed by Thomas J. Parsons. Sequencing was performed with primers *mycEX3A* and *RmycEX3A* using Perkin Elmer Applied BioSystems 373 or 377 automated fluorescent sequencing instruments, and Perkin Elmer Applied BioSystems PRISM terminator cycle sequencing kits with AmpliTaq FS polymerase (either standard rhodamine and BigDye chemistries were employed). Sequence assembly was performed using the Perkin Elmer Applied BioSystems Sequence Navigator or the DNASTAR SeqMan II programs. Alignments of completed sequences were performed by eye. Indications of sequence positions throughout this report are relative to the numbering of the full-length protein-coding sequence of the chicken (Watson et al. 1983).

Results.—Nucleotide sequences of exon 3 of *c-myc* have been studied in 80 species of suboscine and oscine passerines, representing 46 traditional families (Table 1). The sequences vary from 498 to 510 bases (corresponding to 166 to 170 amino acids) in length as a consequence of the presence or absence of two insertions consisting of one and three amino acids, respectively. These two insertions have not been observed among 65 nonpasseriform families, but they appear to exhibit consistent taxonomic distributions within the Passeriformes (with no reversals inferred on the portions of the tree where relationships are well established). Thus, they presumably represent unique and significant evolutionary events in passerine evolution.

The ancestral state in passerines of no insertions was observed in all nonpasseriforms investigated and also was found in all suboscine and Corvida families (Table 2). All oscine families representing the parvorder Passerida that we examined possessed an insertion of a single amino acid at nucleotide position 793 relative to the chicken *c-myc* sequence (Watson et al. 1983). The occurrence of this insertion in all oscine passerines except the Corvida supports

the hypothesis based on DNA-DNA hybridization of a sister-group relationship between the Corvida and all other oscines. In most families, this extra amino acid is a threonine. However, it is a proline in *Hirundo* and *Sylvia* and a serine in *Certhia*, *Carduelis*, and *Icterus*.

At position 991, the Motacillidae, Fringillidae, Emberizidae, Parulidae, and Icteridae share an additional insertion of three amino acids relative to the chicken (Table 2). The first two of these are always a serine and a glycine. The third amino acid varies more among the families. Most taxa have a serine, but motacillids (*Motacilla* and *Anthus*) have threonine; *Geothlypis*, *Parula*, *Carpodacus*, and *Icterus* have leucine; *Conirostrum* has phenylalanine; and *Carduelis* has tryptophan. Some silent third-position variation in codon coding also occurs for this third inserted amino acid.

Discussion.—We consider the passerine *c-myc* insertions described here to represent two unique evolutionary events, with no reversals evident in the taxa studied. This pattern is strongly suggested by the extreme rarity of indels in *c-myc* exon 3 throughout avian taxa. For example, among 102 nonpasserine species studied, representing 65 families, only one indel has been observed. This insertion of four amino acids relative to the chicken sequence occurs at position 796, i.e. at a different position than the passerine insertions reported here. The conservation in sequence length of *c-myc* may be due to the fact the *myc* protein has a helix-loop-helix structure that must form a heterodimeric complex with the regulatory Max protein. The central regulatory role of *myc* in cell division and development likely would tolerate little functional variation (Bouchard et al. 1998, Eilers 1999). Length changes may be rare owing to a requirement for radical compensatory changes in other genes, with reversals encountering an evolutionary hurdle of equivalent magnitude. Table 2 indicates that multiple amino-acid substitutions have occurred within the single amino-acid insertion, with possibly three substitutions of proline for threonine and two substitutions of serine for threonine. This further supports the low rate of indel mutations compared with the already slow rate of amino-acid sequence substitution. Likewise, the third amino acid of the three that are inserted displays substantial variation within related groups, whereas the length of insertion remains constant.

The insertion involving a single amino acid observed in the *c-myc* sequence is a synapomorphy for all oscines that we studied, except species in the parvorder Corvida (Fig. 1). This observation supports the sister-group relationship of the corvids and their allies relative to other oscines, as suggested by DNA-DNA hybridization (Sibley and Ahlquist 1990, Harshman 1994, Sheldon and Gill 1996). Unfortunately, only one representative of the superfamily Menuroidea was available to us.

TABLE 2. Taxonomic distribution of the two insertions of amino acids in exon 3 of the nuclear *c-myc* gene in a survey of passerines. The insertions occur at positions 793 and 991 in the published *c-myc* sequence of the chicken (Watson et al. 1983). Genera, families, and superfamilies are based on the "traditional" classification of Morony et al. (1975), and superfamilies for oscines are from Sibley and Monroe (1990) based on DNA-DNA analysis.

| Genus | Family/subfamily | Superfamily | Position in chicken sequence | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------|------------------|---------------|------------------------------|-----|-----|-----|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | 792 | 793 | 991 | 992 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| <i>Gallus</i> | Phasianidae | | T | G | A | G | A | G | A | T | C | A | C | C | A | C | T | C | A |
| <i>Smithornis</i> | Eurylaimidae | | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| <i>Philepitta</i> | Philepittidae | | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| <i>Pitta</i> | Pittidae | | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| <i>Muscivora</i> | Tyrannidae | | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| <i>Gubernetes</i> | Tyrannidae | | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| <i>Idiopitton</i> | Tyrannidae | | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| <i>Xolmis</i> | Tyrannidae | | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| <i>Phytotoma</i> | Phytotomidae | | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| <i>Tityra</i> | Cotingidae | | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| <i>Pipra</i> | Pipridae | | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| <i>Thamophilus</i> | Formicariidae | | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| <i>Furnarius</i> | Furnariidae | | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| <i>Lepidocolaptes</i> | Dendrocolaptidae | | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| <i>Conopophaga</i> | Conopophagidae | | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| <i>Rhinocrypta</i> | Rhinocryptidae | | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| <i>Menura</i> | Menuridae | Menuroidea | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| <i>Lanius</i> | Laniidae | Corvoidea | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| <i>Vireo</i> | Vireonidae | Corvoidea | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| <i>Cyclaris</i> | Vireonidae | Corvoidea | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| <i>Corcorax</i> | Grallinidae | Corvoidea | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| <i>Phloris</i> | Paradisaeidae | Corvoidea | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| <i>Cracticus</i> | Cracticidae | Corvoidea | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| <i>Oriolus</i> | Oriolidae | Corvoidea | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| <i>Campephaga</i> | Campephagidae | Corvoidea | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| <i>Dicrurus</i> | Dicruridae | Corvoidea | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| <i>Batis</i> | Platyterinae | Corvoidea | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| <i>Bombycilla</i> | Bombycillidae | Muscicapoidae | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | A | C | A | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| <i>Erithacus</i> | Turdinae | Muscicapoidae | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | A | C | A | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| <i>Ficedula</i> | Muscicapinae | Muscicapoidae | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | A | C | G | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| <i>Sturnus</i> | Sturnidae | Muscicapoidae | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | A | C | A | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| <i>Mimus</i> | Mimidae | Muscicapoidae | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | A | C | A | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| <i>Sitta</i> | Sittidae | Sylvioidae | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | A | C | A | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| <i>Panurus</i> | Panurinae | Sylvioidae | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | A | C | A | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| <i>Sylvia</i> | Sylviinae | Sylvioidae | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | A | C | A | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| <i>Certhia</i> | Certhiidae | Sylvioidae | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | T | C | A | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |

TABLE 2. Continued.

| Genus | Family/subfamily | Superfamily | Position in chicken sequence | | |
|-----------------------|------------------|-------------|------------------------------|-----|-------------------|
| | | | 792 | 793 | 991 / 992 |
| <i>Geothlypis</i> | Parulidae | Passeroidea | A C A | | T C A G G C T T G |
| <i>Parula</i> | Parulidae | Passeroidea | A C A | | T C A G G C T T G |
| <i>Agelaius</i> | Icteridae | Passeroidea | A C A | | T C A G G C T C G |
| <i>Amblyramphus</i> | Icteridae | Passeroidea | A C A | | T C A G G C T C G |
| <i>Icterus</i> | Icteridae | Passeroidea | T C A | | T C A G G C T T G |
| <i>Molothrus</i> | Icteridae | Passeroidea | A C A | | T C A G G C T C G |
| <i>Pseudolocistis</i> | Icteridae | Passeroidea | A C A | | T C A G G C T C A |

Passerines typically have 10 primaries, which is generally agreed to be the ancestral condition. In several oscine families, the outermost primary is secondarily reduced or lost, and species in these groups are effectively nine-primaried. Which families are nine-primaried has been a matter of considerable confusion, however. Some families that are regarded as "nine-primaried" include species in which the tenth primary is in fact present, although vestigial. A long-recognized group of truly nine-primaried families is the so-called "New World nine-primaried oscines" that consist of the Parulidae, Emberizidae (Emberizinae, Thraupinae, Cardinalinae), and Icteridae (Raikow 1978, Feduccia 1996). Although not all of these families are confined to the New World, they are concentrated there.

All representatives of the New World nine-primaried oscines that we analyzed (Parulidae, Emberizinae, Thraupinae, Cardinalinae, and Icteridae) possess the insertion of three amino acids at position 991 in the chicken sequence. This is a strong indication of the shared common ancestry of this group. Moreover, the Fringillidae and Motacillidae also share this insertion. The fringillids and motacillids are included in the Passeroidea by Sibley and Ahlquist (1990), along with the New World nine-primaried oscines. However, in other families in Passeroidea and studied herein (Alaudidae, Nectariniidae, Dicaeidae, Estrildidae, Passeridae, and Prunellidae), this insertion is absent. The *c-myc* data thus support a clade consisting of the New World nine-primaried oscines, the primarily Old World finches, and the wagtails and pipits. The Motacillidae have a vestigial tenth primary and traditionally have not been thought to be closely related to the New World nine-primaried oscines, although cytochrome-*b* sequence data suggest them to be closer to the Emberizidae than are the Fringillidae (Groth 1998). Cytochrome-*b* sequence data also suggest that the ten-primaried Passeridae are nested within this clade of emberizids, fringillids, and motacillids (Groth 1998). This arrangement is not supported by *c-myc* data, because the three species of Passeridae (=Ploceidae sensu Morony et al. 1975) we studied do not share the insertion of three amino acids with the rest of the group.

It could be argued that the insertions reported herein, as single characters, should not be afforded more weight than other molecular characters. However, we believe that these insertions represent unique evolutionary events of unequivocal homology, with no reversal. As such, they present powerful evidence regarding relationships within passerines that have been difficult to resolve based on other potentially quite homoplastic characters. The greatly increased significance of unique molecular rearrangements has been recognized elsewhere (Batzer et al. 1996), and shared indels in protein-coding genes previously have been interpreted as strong markers for monophyly as long as the observations

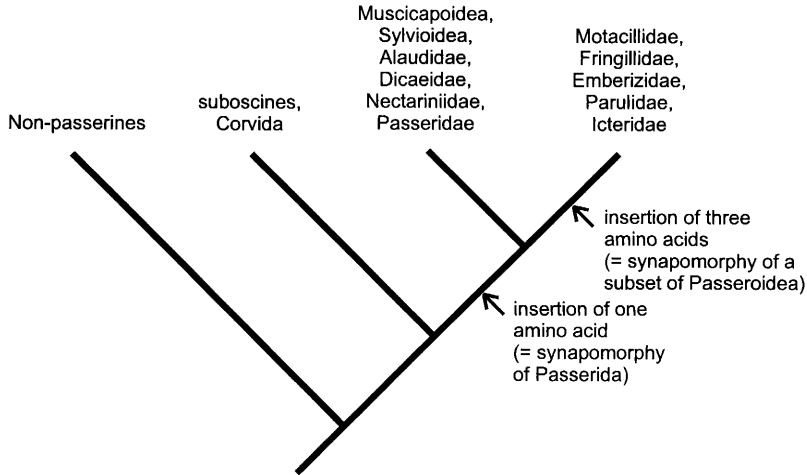


FIG. 1. Major divisions of passerines as indicated by insertions of amino acids in the nuclear gene *c-myc*. The first insertion is synapomorphic for the parvorder Passerida (sensu Sibley and Ahlquist 1990), whereas all representatives of the New World nine-primaried oscines, the primarily Old World finches, and the Motacillidae share a second insertion of amino acids.

are based on wide taxonomic sampling (van Dijk et al. 1999). We studied sequences from more than 110 families of passerines and nonpasserines. The extreme low frequency of indels in *c-myc*, and the taxonomic distribution of insertions that we report, indicate that these should be considered highly significant characters for elucidating the evolution of passerines.

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Specialized Extrapair Mating Display in Western Bluebirds

JANIS L. DICKINSON,¹ KEN KRAAIJEVELD, AND FEMMIE SMIT-KRAAIJEVELD

Hastings Natural History Reservation and Museum of Vertebrate Zoology, University of California, 38601 East Carmel Valley Road, Carmel Valley, California 93924, USA

Western Bluebirds (*Sialia mexicana*) are socially monogamous, maintain long-term pair bonds, and share equally in biparental care (Dickinson et al. 1996). Females often have extrapair young in their nests even though males exhibit kin-based winter sociality and sometimes help at the nests of relatives

(Dickinson and Akre 1998). DNA fingerprinting has revealed that more than 45% of females have at least one offspring sired by a male outside the family group and that 19% of offspring are sired by extrapair males (Dickinson and Akre 1998). Paired males follow their mates closely during the receptive period, a behavior that dramatically reduces the frequency of extrapair copulation (EPC) attempts (Dickinson and Leonard 1996, Dickinson 1997). As a con-

¹ E-mail: sialia@uclink4.berkeley.edu