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Original Article

9 **Phylogeography of a “great speciator” (Aves: *Edolisoma tenuirostre*) reveals**
10 **complex dispersal and diversification dynamics across the Indo-Pacific**

11 **Running title:** Phylogeography of a “great speciator”

12

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29

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50 **ABSTRACT**

51 **Aim** We derive a new phylogenetic framework of the Indo-Pacific avian genus *Edolisoma* based
52 on a dense taxon sampling and use it in an explicit spatiotemporal framework to understand the
53 history of intraspecific diversification dynamics in a “great speciator”, the Cicadabird *Edolisoma*
54 *tenuirostre/remotum* complex.

55 **Location** The Indo-Pacific island region, Australia and New Guinea.

56 **Taxon** Passerine birds (Passeriformes).

57 **Methods** We used Bayesian phylogenetic methods (BEAST) to construct a time-calibrated
58 molecular phylogeny of all 19 species in the genus *Edolisoma* and 27 out of 29 subspecies of the
59 *E. tenuirostre/remotum* complex (previously *Coracina tenuirostris*) primarily based on one
60 mitochondrial DNA marker. Ancestral area reconstruction methods (‘BioGeoBEARS’) were used
61 to infer the historical biogeography of the genus. We used population-level analyses to assess
62 intraspecific phylogeography and a molecular species delimitation test to evaluate the current
63 taxonomy. A morphometric dataset was used to discuss differential dispersal ability among taxa.

64 **Results** *Edolisoma* originated in the late Miocene and diversification within the *E.*
65 *tenuirostre/remotum* complex began in the Pleistocene. Within the North Melanesian and North
66 Wallacean archipelagos, which have experienced several waves of diversification, we find
67 significant patterns of genetic isolation by distance, but not within the Australo-Papuan
68 “mainland”, which was recently back-colonized from these archipelagos. Based on the phylogeny
69 we suggest several taxonomic changes. We also discuss evidence of taxon cycles within *Edolisoma*
70 based on correlations of species age, elevational ranges and dispersal ability.

71 **Main conclusions** The biogeographical history and patterns of differentiation between
72 phylogroups within *E. tenuirostre* support the importance of barriers to gene flow in island
73 systems. Examples of both recent genetic exchange across significant sea barriers and
74 differentiation across much smaller water gaps suggest complex dispersal and diversification
75 dynamics. The capacity for dispersal away from islands, and gradual shifts in dispersal ability in
76 relation to the geographical setting, are supported as important factors in generating a “great
77 speciator”.

78 **Keywords:** dispersal, great speciators, Indo-Pacific, intraspecific diversification, islands,
79 isolation by distance, phylogeography, Pleistocene diversification, taxon cycles

80

81 INTRODUCTION

82 Distribution of biota across island systems have contributed significantly to the development of
83 biogeographical and evolutionary theories (Wallace, 1869; Wilson, 1961; MacArthur & Wilson,
84 1967) and have been important for the understanding of processes underlying the evolution of
85 avian diversity (Losos & Ricklefs, 2010). The Indo-Pacific island region, with its multitude of
86 islands of different size, topography and connectivity (Hall, 2002), provides numerous island
87 colonization events of various complexity (e.g. Moyle *et al.*, 2009; Jønsson *et al.*, 2014, 2017).
88 Furthermore, the Australo-Papuan landmass (known as Sahul when connected at times of lowered
89 sea levels) separates the two geographically extensive archipelagos of Melanesia and
90 Indonesia/Philippines offering two independent replicates of archipelagic radiations. Combined
91 this region provides a unique geographical setting for testing the interaction between continental
92 and island diversifications (Filardi & Moyle, 2005; Schweizer *et al.*, 2015; Jønsson & Holt, 2015)
93 and the build-up of diversity in a dynamic geographical context.

94 The Australo-Papuan region is thought to be the source of several (downstream) colonisations into
95 the Indo-Pacific archipelagos (Kearns *et al.* 2016; Garcia-Ramirez *et al.*, 2017). The
96 Campephagidae (cuckoo-shrikes and allies), which is one of the most species rich families of the
97 Corvides (*sensu* Cracraft, 2014) originated in this region (Jønsson *et al.*, 2011). The focal species
98 herein; *Edolisoma tenuirostre* (Slender-billed or Common Cicadabird) is the most widespread and
99 diversified (in numbers of subspecies) within the Campephagidae and was described by Mayr &
100 Diamond (2001) as one of the “great avian speciators”. Mayr & Diamond (2001) developed the
101 “great speciator” concept for Northern Melanesian birds showing a high degree of inter-island
102 geographic variation, defined by their number of subspecies or allospecies per occupied island.
103 The *E. tenuirostre* complex ranges east of Wallace’s line into the Near-Pacific, with migratory and
104 sedentary populations of *E. t. tenuirostre* occurring almost along the entire Australian north and
105 east coast (Taylor, 2005; Fig. 1). Few molecular studies have explored intraspecific patterns of
106 diversification with a dense sampling across the range of a great speciator (but see Moyle *et al.*,
107 2009; Irestedt *et al.*, 2013; Jønsson *et al.*, 2014; Garcia-Ramirez & Trewick, 2015; Garcia-Ramirez

108 *et al.*, 2017). In this study, we initially reconstruct phylogenetic relationships and colonization
109 history of the genus *Edolisoma* and in particular the hyperdiverse *E. tenuirostre* subspecies
110 complex.

111 Great speciators have been characterized as abundant, lowland species of intermediate dispersal
112 ability and as good short-distance colonizers (Diamond *et al.*, 1976). However, other widely
113 distributed species show little or no geographic variation, creating an apparent paradox: How do
114 great speciators readily colonize and diversify across island systems, when at the same time,
115 homogenizing gene flow should work counter to this? Rapid evolutionary shifts in dispersal ability
116 have been invoked to explain this paradox, but no single explanation for the diversification patterns
117 of great speciators has emerged (Diamond *et al.*, 1976). Here, we use wing morphology as a proxy
118 of dispersal ability to test if the *E. tenuirostre* complex has undergone shifts in dispersal ability,
119 potentially in relation to landscape connectivity (water barriers), that could have generated the high
120 geographic variation. In particular, we predict that selection against dispersal on small, remote
121 islands would result in birds with shorter and stubbier wings compared to populations, which
122 remain in a dispersive phase.

123 Evolutionary shifts in dispersal ability have been suggested to correlate with several geographical
124 and ecological traits throughout the speciation process in island settings. The concept of taxon
125 cycles (Wilson, 1961) thus predicts that species pass through stages of range expansions and range
126 contractions, with young expanding taxa widely and continuously distributed in lowland habitats
127 (stage I and II) and old relictual taxa with disjunct distributions inhabiting the higher elevational
128 interior of larger islands (stage III and IV, Ricklefs & Birmingham, 2002). Such evolutionary
129 cycles of shifting range and dispersal ability have been inferred in various island taxa (e.g. Wilson,
130 1961; Ricklefs & Cox, 1972; Jønsson *et al.*, 2014, 2017). Here, we draw on patterns of elevational
131 distribution, dispersal ability and species age of *Edolisoma* taxa to discuss the diversification
132 dynamics of this radiation in the context of taxon cycles. Finally, we re-evaluate the complex
133 taxonomy and “great speciator” status of *E. tenuirostre* in light of the new molecular data presented
134 here.

135

136 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

137 **Taxon sampling and laboratory procedures**

138 The genus *Edolisoma* was recently reinstated as a genus separate from Cuckoo-shrikes (*Coracina*;
139 see Dickinson & Christidis, 2014) based on molecular studies indicating paraphyly of this group
140 with respect to Trillers (*Lalage*, see Fuchs *et al.*, 2007; Jønsson *et al.*, 2008; 2010). These studies
141 also resulted in a preliminary circumscription of the Slender-billed Cicadabird (*Coracina*
142 *tenuirostris*) into a Melanesian species *E. remotum* (8 subspecies) and its remaining 21 subspecies
143 into *E. tenuirostre*, while elevating the Manus Island endemic *E. admiralitatis* to species rank
144 (Dickinson & Christidis, 2014). Here we include all 19 species of *Edolisoma* and 27 of the 29
145 currently recognized subspecies in the *E. tenuirostre/remotum* complex, except *E. t. kalaotuae* and
146 the endangered *E. t. nesiotis* from the small islands of Kalaotoa (Lesser Sundas) and Yap
147 (Micronesia), respectively. For simplicity, we refer hereafter to the *E. tenuirostre/remotum*
148 complex as “the *E. tenuirostre* complex” due to the polyphyly of *E. tenuirostre* and *E. remotum*
149 shown in this study.

150 We included 119 samples from 19 *Edolisoma* species: 71 samples were derived from museum
151 specimens (toepads) and for these one fast-evolving mitochondrial marker, NADH dehydrogenase
152 subunit 2 (ND2, 1041 bp) was sequenced in seven fragments of 154-190 bp. 12 samples were
153 freshly collected tissue samples and from these ND2 and three nuclear gene regions; ornithine
154 decarboxylase introns 6 to 7 (ODC, 601 bp), glyceraldehyde-3-phosphodehydrogenase intron 11
155 (GAPDH, 291 bp) and myoglobin gene intron 2 (Myo, 708 bp) were sequenced. Full laboratory
156 procedures, primer pairs, list of locations, accession numbers and specimens including 31 samples
157 downloaded from GenBank are detailed in Table S1.1 and S1.2 in Appendix S1. Two closely
158 related monotypic genera *Celebesica* and *Campochaera* were included as outgroups.

159 **Alignment and phylogenetic analyses**

160 Contigs were assembled and primers trimmed with SEQMAN PRO 12.3.1.4 (DNASTAR Inc.,
161 Madison, WI, USA). Previously published sequences from GenBank (28 individuals from 16
162 *Edolisoma* species and 11 *Lalage* species) were added to the alignment. Alignment procedures are
163 specified in Appendix S1. We used jMODELTEST2 (Darriba *et al.*, 2012) to identify appropriate
164 nucleotide substitution models for each gene using the Akaike information criterion (AIC).
165 Bayesian inference as implemented in BEAST 1.8.2 (Drummond *et al.*, 2012) was used to estimate
166 phylogenetic relationships. Assuming a birth-death process of speciation (constant speciation rate

167 and a constant, nonzero extinction rate) for the tree prior and all other parameters at default (clock
168 model specified below), the Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) algorithm was run twice for 100
169 million iterations with trees sampled every 1000th generation. Convergence of individual runs was
170 assessed using TRACER 1.6 (Rambaut, *et al.*, 2014) ensuring all ESS > 200 and graphically
171 estimating an appropriate burn-in. TREEANNOTATOR 1.8.2 (Rambaut & Drummond, 2015) was
172 used to summarize a single maximum clade credibility (MCC) tree, which was pruned to remove
173 outgroups and *Lalage* taxa included for calibration (below).

174 **Time-calibration**

175 There are no fossils close to *Edolisoma* to calibrate the phylogeny. Following Jønsson *et al.* (2010),
176 we therefore estimated the age of the split between *Lalage typica* on the isolated island of Mauritius
177 and *L. newtoni* on nearby Réunion by assuming the colonization of the younger Réunion (*c.* 2 Myr
178 old) took place from the older Mauritius. We therefore included previously published ND2
179 sequences of the closely related *Lalage* clade containing these two species (Table S1.2 in Appendix
180 S1) and specified a normally distributed prior for the timing of this split at 1.5 Ma \pm 0.25 SD (age
181 within 95% confidence interval: 1.089-1.911 Ma). We assumed an uncorrelated lognormal relaxed
182 molecular clock model (unlinked for mitochondrial and nuclear genes, Drummond *et al.*, 2006).
183 For comparison, we also constructed a phylogeny applying an overall rate of ND2 evolution
184 (Appendix S1).

185 **Ancestral range estimation**

186 Ancestral ranges were estimated using the maximum likelihood framework implemented in the
187 library ‘BioGeoBEARS’ (Matzke, 2013) in R (R Core Team, 2015). This framework compares
188 several alternative models of geographic ancestral range estimation each of which are included in
189 a version simulating founder-event speciation (“+J”, Matzke, 2014), defined as a rare long-distance
190 colonization event, which is likely to be an important process in an oceanic island setting like the
191 Indo-Pacific. All taxa were assigned to four pre-defined geographical regions (Fig. 2): Wallacea
192 (W, defined by Wallace’s line to the west and Lydekker’s line to east and including Sangihe,
193 Talaud and Palau), Australo-Papua (A, defined as the landmass of Sahul exposed by low
194 Pleistocene sea levels), Melanesia and Micronesia (M) and the Philippines (P). Maximum number
195 of areas was set to 3 to reflect the maximum extent of the *E. tenuirostre* complex. AIC weights
196 and likelihood ratio tests were used to select the model that fits the data best and the probability of

197 each ancestral region was calculated for all nodes. To account for topological uncertainty we also
198 estimated ancestral ranges using RASP 3.2 (Yu *et al.*, 2015) by summarizing over the posterior
199 distribution of 10,000 trees.

200 **Molecular species delimitation and diversification rate analyses**

201 We applied the generalized mixed Yule-coalescent (GMYC) model to estimate molecular
202 operational taxonomic units (MOTUs) from sequence divergences (Fujisawa and Barraclough,
203 2013). GMYC uses the time-calibrated (ultrametric) single-locus (ND2) MCC tree to find a
204 threshold in time between inter- and intraspecific branching rates, by maximizing the model
205 likelihood. Splits in tree older than this threshold are assumed to represent speciation events and
206 younger splits reflect intraspecific neutral coalescence events. All branching events older than the
207 threshold are therefore designated as species. For comparison, we also ran the Poisson tree
208 processes (PTP) model (Appendix S1).

209 We constructed a lineage-through-time (LTT) plot using the R package ‘ape’ (Paradis *et al.*, 2004)
210 after pruning the MCC tree to match the number of species ($n = 18$) according to the species
211 delimitation test. We used the R package ‘laser’ (Rabosky and Schliep, 2013) and AIC to compare
212 diversification rate models.

213 **Molecular population structure analyses**

214 We used POPART (Leigh & Bryant, 2015) to construct a TCS haplotype network of ND2 sequences
215 of the *E. tenuirostre* complex (623 bp excluding gaps). Based on well-supported phylogenetic
216 relationships from the BEAST analyses, the geographic affinities of these relationships and the
217 structure of the haplotype network, we defined nine major putative phylogeographic populations
218 within the complex (Figs. 1). Uncorrected pairwise p-distances based on the ND2 gene were
219 calculated using MEGA 6 (Tamura *et al.*, 2013) and we used a Mantel test to test for a correlation
220 between genetic distance and geographic distance between sample locations (using IBDWS 3.23,
221 Jensen *et al.*, 2005) within the *E. tenuirostre* complex. We removed eight samples found within
222 the species’ non-sedentary range (Eastern Australia, Taylor, 2005) to remove confounding effects
223 of seasonally migrating individuals. We also performed three subset analyses of the Australo-
224 Papuan, the Indonesian, and the Melanesian archipelago samples, respectively, to test for differing
225 colonization patterns in different geographical settings (archipelagos and mainland).

226 **Dispersal ability and elevational range**

227 We used the length of the longest primary (wing length, WL) and of the first secondary (secondary
 228 length, SL) of the wing measured on 119 adult male and 9 female individuals representing all
 229 *Edolisoma* species with at least two specimens and including 35 individuals (representing 7
 230 subspecies) of the revised *E. tenuirostre* complex. To assess variation in dispersal ability across
 231 *Edolisoma*, we calculated a wing shape aspect ratio (hand-wing index) $HWI = 100 * \frac{WL-SL}{WL}$,
 232 which is believed to be a good proxy for dispersal capacity (Claramunt *et al.*, 2012).

233 We categorized all species into one of three elevational range classes (inhabiting mainly coastal,
 234 lowland, and montane habitats, respectively, see Appendix S3) based on information in Taylor
 235 (2005). We then investigated correlations of average taxon HWI, its node age (estimated from the
 236 time-calibrated MCC tree) and elevational range class.

237

238 **RESULTS**

239 **Phylogenetic analyses and ancestral range estimation**

240 *Edolisoma parvulum* is clearly not a member of *Edolisoma*, but was found to be nested within
 241 *Coracina* (M.P. Pedersen, in preparation) and therefore excluded from subsequent analyses. The
 242 phylogeny (Figs 2 and 3) reveals extensive para- and polyphyly of nominal taxa at both inter- and
 243 intraspecific levels within *Edolisoma* (see Taxonomy), however, several relationships remain
 244 poorly resolved. The split between *Edolisoma* and *Lalage* is estimated to be at 9.7 Ma (age within
 245 95% highest posterior density (HPD): 4.9-16.1 Ma, not shown). Within the *E. tenuirostre* complex
 246 nine distinct phylogeographic groups are recognized (coloured in Figs. 1 and 3). The nominal
 247 subspecies *E. t. monacha*, *E. morio salvadorii* and *E. m. talautense* together represent a
 248 Micronesian clade, which is sister to the rest of the *E. tenuirostre* complex (Fig. 3). The subspecies
 249 *E. t. timoriense* and *E. t. emancipatum* represent an older Lesser Sunda Islands clade together with
 250 *E. dispar* and *E. dohertyi* (Fig. 1).

251 The most likely ancestral area reconstruction model estimated by ‘BioGeoBEARS’ was the
 252 dispersal-extinction cladogenesis (DEC) model (Ree *et al.*, 2005) including founder event
 253 speciation (“+J”, Fig. 2 and Table S2.1 in Appendix S2). The genus originated in the late Miocene

254 and although the area of origin is unresolved, it appears to be based around Australo-Papua. The
255 RASP analysis (Fig. S2.1 in Appendix S2) generally confirmed the most likely areas in
256 ‘BioGeoBEARS’, but with more ambiguity (shared ancestral states).

257 The Wallacean archipelago was colonized earlier than Melanesia by *Edolisoma* species continuing
258 to the Philippines in at least two separate colonization events (*E. ostentum* / *E. coeruleus* and
259 *E. mindanense*). One *Edolisoma* clade diversified 3 Ma (HPD: 1.4-5.0 Ma) in the Lesser Sundas.
260 These islands were not colonized by the more recent (< 1 Ma) *E. tenuirostre* (including *E. sula*
261 and *E. m. morio*) westward expansion across the North Moluccas to Sulawesi. Several waves of
262 colonization of North Melanesia (the Bismarck and Solomon archipelagos) probably occurred via
263 New Guinea and can be recognized as starting at less than 2 Ma with *E. holopolium*, *E. salomonis*,
264 and *E. admiralitatis*. The latter two taxa differentiated on the most peripheral islands to the east
265 (Makira in the Solomons) and to the west (Manus in the Bismarcks), respectively. Two subsequent
266 colonizations of the Solomons (*E. r. saturatus/erythropygium* and *E. r. saturatus/nisorium*)
267 resulted in sympatry with *E. holopolium*, while the Bismarcks were colonized by subspecies of *E.*
268 *remotum*. After dispersal into Wallacea and Melanesia, the Australo-Papuan mainland was back-
269 colonized most likely from the North Melanesian archipelago (Fig. 2). The New Georgian *E. r.*
270 *saturatus* and *E. r. nisorium* on the nearby Russell Island are placed consistently but with low
271 support close to *E. incertum*, which is distributed across New Guinea. Dispersal directly from the
272 Southeast Papuan Islands to New Georgia has been inferred in another widespread great speciator,
273 *Zosterops griseotinctus* (Moyle *et al.*, 2009) and cannot be excluded in this case either.

274 **Molecular species delimitation and diversification rate analyses**

275 The GMYC model identified a coalescence time threshold at 0.7 Ma and 18 MOTUs (Table S3.1
276 in Appendix 3) within *Edolisoma*, where PTP and bPTP identified 20 MOTUs. In contrast to
277 GMYC, the PTP and bPTP models designated 1) *E. t. timoriense* as a species separate from *E.*
278 *dispar* and *E. t. emancipatum*, and 2) *E. t. monacha* as separate from *E. m. talautense* and *E. m.*
279 *salvadorii*.

280 In Fig. 4a, the number of lineages were log₁₀-transformed and plotted against branching times.
281 The best fitting diversification rate model for this LTT plot was a pure birth Yule speciation rate
282 model (constant speciation rate with no extinction, see Table S2.2 in Appendix S2).

283 **Molecular population structure analyses**

284 The Mantel test showed a significant positive correlation between genetic and geographic distance
285 within the North Wallacean ($r = 0.3197$, $p < 0.005$, Fig. S2.2a in Appendix S2) and North
286 Melanesian archipelagos ($r = 0.4755$, $p < 0.0001$, Fig. S2.2b), respectively, but not within the
287 Australo-Papuan clade ($r = 0.1623$, not significant, Fig. S2.2c). The correlation for the entire *E.*
288 *tenuirostre* complex remains significant ($r = 0.3172$, $p < 0.0001$, Fig. S2.2d). Uncorrected pairwise
289 p-distances ranged from 0-7.5% between subspecies within the currently recognized *E. tenuirostre*
290 complex (0-2.9% after GMYC model revision) and from 0.1-15.5% between *Edolisoma* species
291 (0.9-15.5% after revision).

292 **Dispersal ability, elevational range and evolutionary age**

293 Species in different elevational range classes differ significantly in mean node age (ANOVA, $p <$
294 0.001 , Fig. 4b, see Appendix S3 for examples) with species inhabiting the highest elevations (class
295 3) being oldest ($n = 2$, mean age = 7.2 Myr), species at sea-level (class 1) being youngest ($n = 13$,
296 mean age = 1.6 Myr), and species in elevational class 2 being of intermediate ages ($n = 3$, mean
297 age = 2.9 Myr). Within the *E. tenuirostre* subspecies complex average subspecies HWI is
298 negatively correlated with the age of subspecies ($n = 12$, $R^2 = 0.5291$, $p < 0.01$, Fig. 4c).

299

300 **DISCUSSION**

301 While *Edolisoma* originated in the late Miocene, diversification within the *E. tenuirostre* complex
302 mostly occurred more recently during the late Pleistocene. Thus, their current distribution appears
303 to mainly be the result of dispersal or range expansion facilitated by Pleistocene sea-level changes
304 (Voris, 2000; Hall, 2002; Bintanja *et al.*, 2005). The constant rate of lineage accumulation (Fig.
305 4a) suggests that the genus has maintained high net diversification rates perhaps as a result of
306 continued expansion and high colonization success (e.g. Fritz *et al.*, 2012). Furthermore, the
307 ancestral range estimation and the shallow phylogeographic diversity of the *E. tenuirostre* complex
308 (including *E. m. morio*, *E. sula* and *E. incertum*) suggest that these birds are good dispersers that
309 recently colonized the entire Indo-Pacific island region east of Wallace's Line except the Lesser
310 Sundas, which were colonized by an older, closely related clade. The colonization of the North

311 Melanesian and the North Wallacean archipelagos followed stepping-stone pathways (Fig. S2.2a-
312 b in Appendix S2). A similar genetic pattern was found for another “great speciator”, the
313 *Erythropitta erythrogaster* complex, which colonized the Indo-Pacific in the middle Pleistocene
314 (Irestedt *et al.*, 2013). However, the biogeographic analyses indicate at least one case of “upstream
315 colonization” by *E. tenuirostre* of the Australo-Papuan mainland, probably from the Melanesian
316 Archipelago. Recent studies have emphasized the potential of island systems in generating
317 diversity and back-dispersal to continental landmasses (Filardi & Moyle, 2005; Schweizer *et al.*,
318 2015). This might be more common than previously anticipated (Jønsson & Holt, 2015), especially
319 among highly dispersive “tramp” species such as members of *Edolisoma* (see also Jønsson *et al.*,
320 2008). All areas inhabited by the Australo-Papuan *E. tenuirostre* clade were connected by land
321 during low Pleistocene sea levels (Voris, 2000) forming a single extensive Australo-Papuan
322 mainland (Sahul). Recent mixing of individuals within the entire range may thus have inhibited
323 further differentiation (Weeks & Claramunt, 2014) within the Australo-Papuan clade as indicated
324 by the uncorrelated relationship between genetic and geographical distance (Fig. S2.2c).

325 **Complex Pleistocene diversification**

326 In the North Melanesian archipelago a well-supported relationship between the Solomon
327 populations and an individual from Boang (*E. r. ultimum* E114, Figs. 1 and 3) north-east of New
328 Ireland, confirms recent exchange between the Bismarcks and the Solomons. Also in the North
329 Moluccas, the phenotypically and genetically similar *E. t. pelingi* (Banggai) and *E. t. obiense* (Obi)
330 form a group separated by 500 km of deep ocean on either side of the Sula Islands, which are
331 occupied by the closely related but distinctive *E. sula*. However, in light of the high dispersal
332 ability of *E. tenuirostre*, populations might sustain exchange of individuals across large distances.
333 Ecological (competitive) interactions between inhabitants on intervening islands, might then
334 explain why sister populations are separated by islands with apparently suitable habitat.
335 Alternatively, recent local (and possibly anthropogenic) extinctions could have produced a similar
336 pattern.

337 Despite examples of recent dispersal across long distances, subspecies differentiated across much
338 smaller water barriers is a more common pattern, e.g. the sister taxa *E. t. rostratum* on Rossel
339 Island and *E. t. tagulanum* on Sudest (35 km) and the populations of *E. remotum* on New Georgia
340 and Choiseul to Guadalcanal (55 km), respectively. The latter was noted by Smith and Filardi

341 (2007) and conforms to a separation described in several species across the Solomon Islands (Uy
342 *et al.*, 2009; Andersen *et al.*, 2014). This probably reflects the effect of land bridges formed during
343 times of low sea levels in the Pleistocene, when global glaciation cycles resulted in sea level
344 changes of up to 120 m (Bintanja *et al.*, 2005). At times of low sea levels, the New Georgia group
345 was connected in “Greater Gatumbangra”, and Choiseul and Isabel were connected with Buka,
346 Bougainville and probably Guadalcanal in “Greater Bukida” (Fig. 1; Mayr & Diamond, 2001).
347 However, in contrast to other studies (Uy *et al.*, 2009; Andersen *et al.*, 2014), we do not recover a
348 sister relationship between the Greater Gatumbangra and Bukida populations, suggesting
349 alternative colonization pathways of the Solomon Islands (i.e. directly from New Guinea).
350 Pleistocene island aggregates have been involved in shaping patterns of intraspecific genetic
351 variation across organisms (Lohman *et al.*, 2011). Together with the lack of differentiation of *E.*
352 *tenuirostre* subspecies across the Pleistocene Australo-Papuan mainland, this also suggest a role
353 of recent sea-level changes in shaping the present-day phylogeography of *E. tenuirostre*.

354 **Rapid evolutionary shifts in dispersal ability reflect geography**

355 The present distribution of *E. tenuirostre* on the islands of Palau and Pohnpei (Fig. 1), which
356 remained remote during the evolution of *Edolisoma* (Hall, 2002), almost certainly reflects long-
357 distance dispersal (1000 km) from Wallacea and the Bismarcks, respectively, and illustrates the
358 (historically) high capacity for long-distance dispersal of *E. tenuirostre*. The taxa on these isolated
359 islands have the lowest HWI, while the archipelagic subspecies in Wallacea and Melanesia have
360 “intermediate” HWI values, and *E. t. tenuirostre* of Australo-Papua the highest HWI. This might
361 be the result of reduced selection for dispersal on remote islands, suggesting rapid evolutionary
362 shifts in dispersal ability (Diamond *et al.*, 1976; Moyle *et al.*, 2009). Such shifts in dispersal ability
363 can occur rapidly in insular avian populations; Slikas *et al.* (2002) inferred that some species of
364 Rallidae became flightless within a few hundred thousand years, possibly through adaptation to
365 limited resources on islands and intraspecific competition that reduced the basal rate of metabolism
366 (McNab, 2002).

367 The Australo-Papuan *E. t. tenuirostre* has the highest HWI, consistent with its wide range,
368 migratory behaviour of some populations, and habitat preference (open forest and edge habitat).
369 Thus, this Australo-Papuan clade could be considered a “supertramp” group (*sensu* Diamond,
370 1974), consistent with an interpretation of recent expansion and rapid colonization (from the

371 Melanesian origin). This illustrates the different stages of diversification within the range of the
372 species. That is, isolation by distance generates diversification within archipelagos, but within
373 Australo-Papua (Sahul) periods of landmass connectivity and gene flow together prevent
374 differentiation (Claramunt *et al.*, 2012).

375 **Taxon cycles within *Edolisoma***

376 In a recent study on another Indo-Pacific passerine bird radiation (*Pachycephala*), Jønsson *et al.*
377 (2014) found that old taxa tend to inhabit higher elevations on a few large islands while young
378 taxa inhabit the more disturbed lowlands on many islands. We find a similar pattern within
379 *Edolisoma*, in which the age of a species is positively correlated with elevational range (Fig. 4b):
380 Lowest elevational range class 1 corresponds to early taxon cycle stages (I and II) of relatively
381 recent colonists inhabiting coastal areas. Elevational range class 2 consists of species of stage II or
382 III, which are absent from coastal habitats (due to either competitive exclusion or adaptation to
383 inland habitats), but retain their dispersal ability, and class 3 consists of late stage III or IV species,
384 which are confined to high elevations. This observation supports the prediction of taxa passing
385 through temporal stages of expansions and contractions (Ricklefs & Cox, 1972), but in synchrony
386 with closely related species.

387 **Taxonomy**

388 Apart from *E. parvulum*, which should be placed in *Coracina*, our data affirm the monophyly of
389 *Edolisoma* and corroborate the phylogeny of Jønsson *et al.* (2010) in that the *E. tenuirostre*
390 complex is polyphyletic. Based on the GMYC model, we suggest the following tentative
391 taxonomic changes at species-level (checklist in Table S3.1 in Appendix S3 modified from
392 Dickinson & Christidis, 2014): 1) *E. t. insperatum*, *E. t. monacha* (including *E. m.*
393 *salvadorii/talautense*), *E. holopolium tricolor* and *E. mindanense everetti* should each be elevated
394 to species rank. 2) *E. incertum*, *E. morio morio* and *E. sula*, which were originally lumped by
395 Peters (Cottrell *et al.*, 1960) are each nested deeply within the *E. tenuirostre/remotum* complex
396 and should therefore all be lumped. 3) *E. t. emancipatum*, *E. t. timoriense* and *E. dispar* are
397 conspecific and should be lumped. The identity of *E. t. edithae* remains unclear (Table S3.1 in
398 Appendix S3).

399 In contrast to other *E. tenuirostre* subspecies, the female plumages of *E. sula* and *E. incertum* are
400 highly masculinized. This feature has likely been considered when giving these taxa species status.
401 However, intraspecific variation in the degree of sexual dichromatism is known in other great
402 speciators including *Pachycephala pectoralis* (Andersen *et al.*, 2014) and *Petroica multicolor*
403 (Kearns *et al.*, 2016). It might therefore be a characteristic with a common genetic basis (Cornetti
404 *et al.*, 2015) that facilitates the early (parapatric) diversification of great speciators.

405 Several molecular studies of avian diversity in the Indo-Pacific have resulted in elevating
406 subspecies to species rank (Irestedt *et al.*, 2013; Kearns *et al.* 2016) or recognizing polytypic taxa
407 as multiple incipient species (Andersen *et al.*, 2015). Contrary to this trend, this study suggests the
408 inclusion of five currently recognized species into one single species complex. In an island setting
409 like the Indo-Pacific, subspecies designation has often been readily assigned based on
410 allopatrically occurring island populations in which each island population is assigned to its own
411 subspecies. This might have contributed to the apparently overestimated intraspecific diversity of
412 the *E. tenuirostre* complex, in combination with the high dispersal ability, the wide distribution,
413 and confounding effects of migratory populations.

414 **A great speciator**

415 Although this study excludes the Lesser Sundas and Micronesia from the range of the most recent
416 *E. tenuirostre* diversification, the morphological and ecological diversity of the species is
417 complemented by the inclusion of *E. incertum*, which has male-like plumage in females and
418 inhabits lower montane areas across New Guinea, *E. morio* across Sulawesi and *E. sula* bridging
419 the gap to Sulawesi (Fig. 1). This study affirms the status of *E. tenuirostre* as a great speciator
420 corresponding to an early expanding taxon cycle stage, where differentiation in isolation is
421 balanced by gene flow due to ongoing dispersal within the range of the species. However, the
422 geographical setting (mainland versus archipelagos) influences the dynamics of this diversification
423 process and shows the importance of water barriers to dispersal. This is further reflected in the
424 decreasing dispersal capacity from mainlands (high) via archipelagos (intermediate) to remote
425 island (low) taxa, respectively. The early dispersive phase of *E. tenuirostre* is illustrated relative
426 to older contraction stage *Edolisoma* species by their elevational ranges. Thus over evolutionary
427 time the oceanic island (or montane) populations of *E. tenuirostre* might differentiate in relative

428 isolation (or become locally extinct), fragmenting the current range of this “great speciator”, while
 429 the Australo-Papuan *E. tenuirostre* clade maintains the dispersal potential for renewed expansions.

430

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575 **SUPPORTING INFORMATION**

576 Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article:

577

578 **Appendix S1** Notes on materials and methods.

579 **Appendix S2** Notes on results.

580 **Appendix S3** Notes on taxonomy.

581

582 **DATA ACCESSIBILITY**

583 All sequence data have been deposited on GenBank (Table S1.2 in Appendix S1).

584

585 **Biosketch:** Michael Pepke Pedersen is a PhD student at NTNU (Trondheim) and has a broad
586 interest in avian biogeography, phylogenetics and life-history evolution. This paper is part of his
587 master thesis at UCPH (Copenhagen) on the phylogeny and biogeography of the Campephagidae
588 family as a model group for understanding the build-up and distribution of insular avian diversity.

589

590 **Editor:** Sonya Clegg

591

592 **Author contributions:** MPP and KAJ conceived the ideas; MPP, MI and CR collected the data;
593 MPP analysed the data. MPP led the writing with contributions from all authors.

594 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

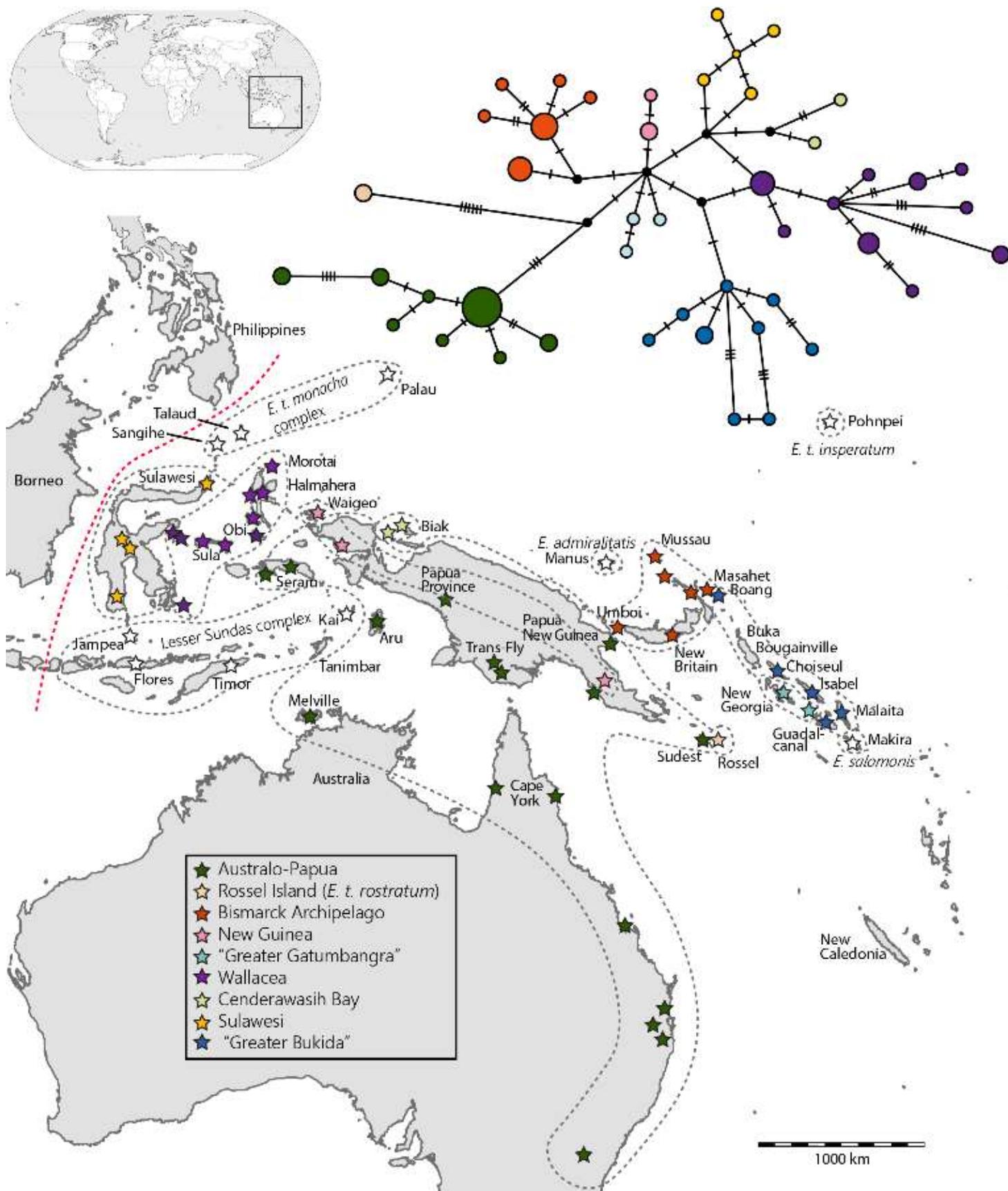
595 **Fig. 1:** *Edolisoma tenuirostre/remotum* sample locations (coloured stars, there can be multiple
 596 samples per star) and closely related allopatrically occurring *Edolisoma* species (white stars).
 597 Dotted grey lines delimit the phylogeographic clades indentified within the *E. tenuirostre* complex
 598 and allopatrically occurring related species. The dotted red line indicates Wallace's Line. In the
 599 haplotype network (based only on ND2 sequences) one bar indicates one mutation, black nodes
 600 are hypothetical ancestral states and the size of the circles corresponds to the number of sampled
 601 haplotypes.

602 **Fig. 2:** Time-calibrated maximum clade credibility tree of the concatenated dataset of the
 603 *Edolisoma* genus with asterisks indicating well-supported nodes with posterior probabilities \geq
 604 0.99. Several recent splits have been pruned for clarity. Letters and colours refer to the areas of
 605 Australo-Papua (A), Wallacea (W), Melanesia (M), the Philippines (P) and combinations of these.
 606 The results of the ancestral range estimation in 'BioGeoBEARS' are shown as pie charts coloured
 607 in relative proportions of the most likely ancestral area.

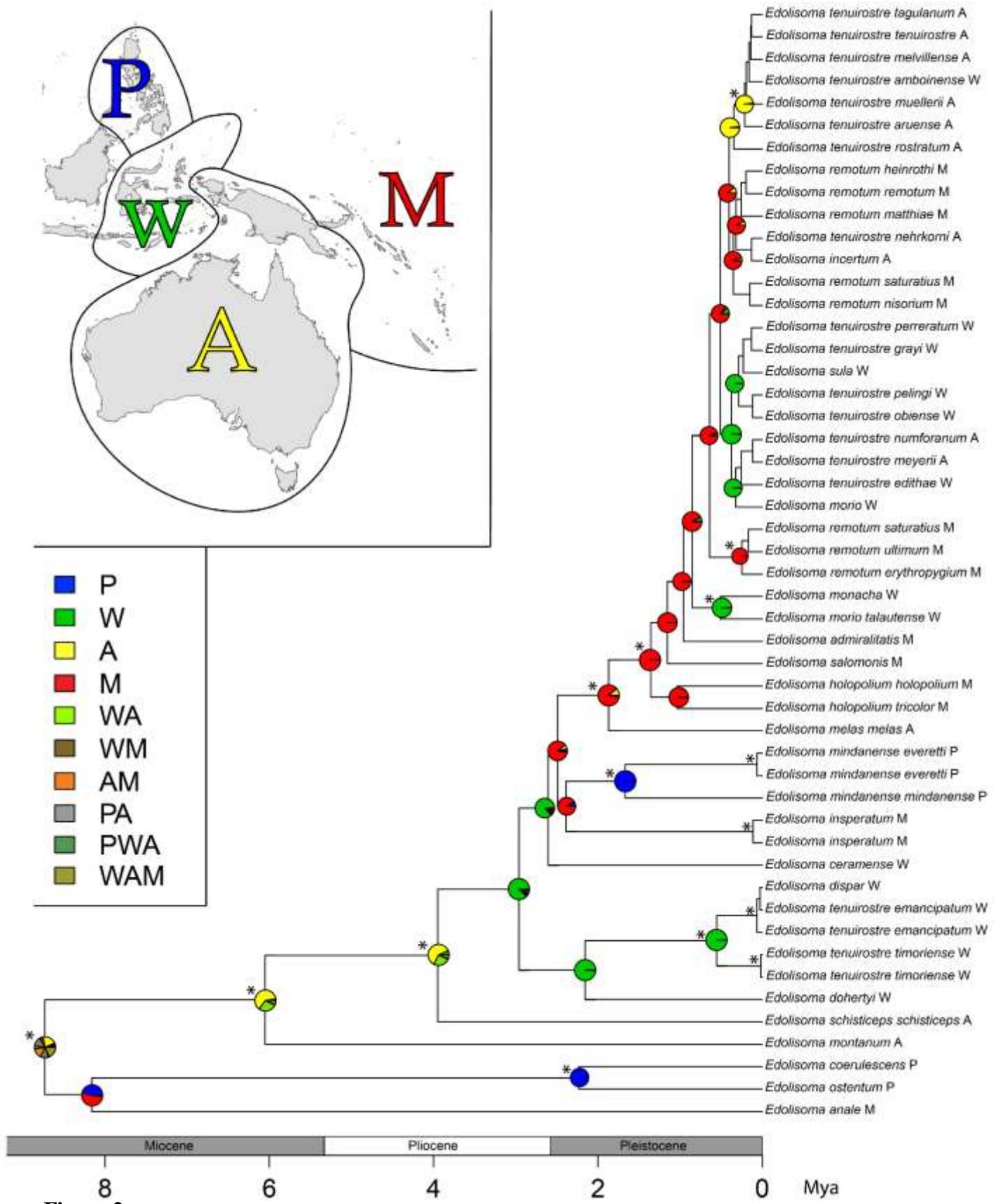
608 **Fig. 3:** Unpruned section of the maximum clade credibility tree in Fig. 2 showing the *Edolisoma*
 609 *tenuirostre* (*E. t.*) / *E. remotum* (*E. r.*) complex with populations coloured according to Fig. 1.
 610 Asterisks indicate posterior probabilities \geq 0.99 and $\square \geq$ 0.97. Figures show males (left) and
 611 females (right), illustrating the extreme female plumage variation. Specimen E69 lacks location
 612 and is most likely not an *E. t. meyerii* (see Table S1.2 in Appendix S1 for full specimen
 613 information). Figures reproduced with permission from del Hoyo, J., Elliott, A., Sargatal, J.,
 614 Christie, D.A. & de Juana, E. (eds.) (2017). *Handbook of the Birds of the World Alive*. Lynx
 615 Edicions, Barcelona (retrieved from <http://www.hbw.com/> on 10 March 2017).

616 **Fig. 4:** a) Lineage-through time plot of log-transformed number of lineages against time in Ma.
 617 The solid line represents the maximum clade credibility tree and the grey area shows the
 618 phylogenetic uncertainty of 100 randomly sampled trees from the posterior distribution. b) Boxplot
 619 showing node ages (in Myr) of species in elevational range class 1 (coastal areas, number of
 620 species $n = 13$), class 2 (lowlands, $n = 3$) and class 3 (montane areas, $n = 2$). c) Correlation between
 621 HWI and node age (Myr) for subspecies within the revised *Edolisoma tenuirostre* complex and
 622 closest relatives (blue, $p < 0.01$, all < 1.5 Myr old and in Fig. 3) and for species within the genus
 623 *Edolisoma* (red, not significant). The Australo-Papuan (mainland) *E. t. tenuirostre* has the largest

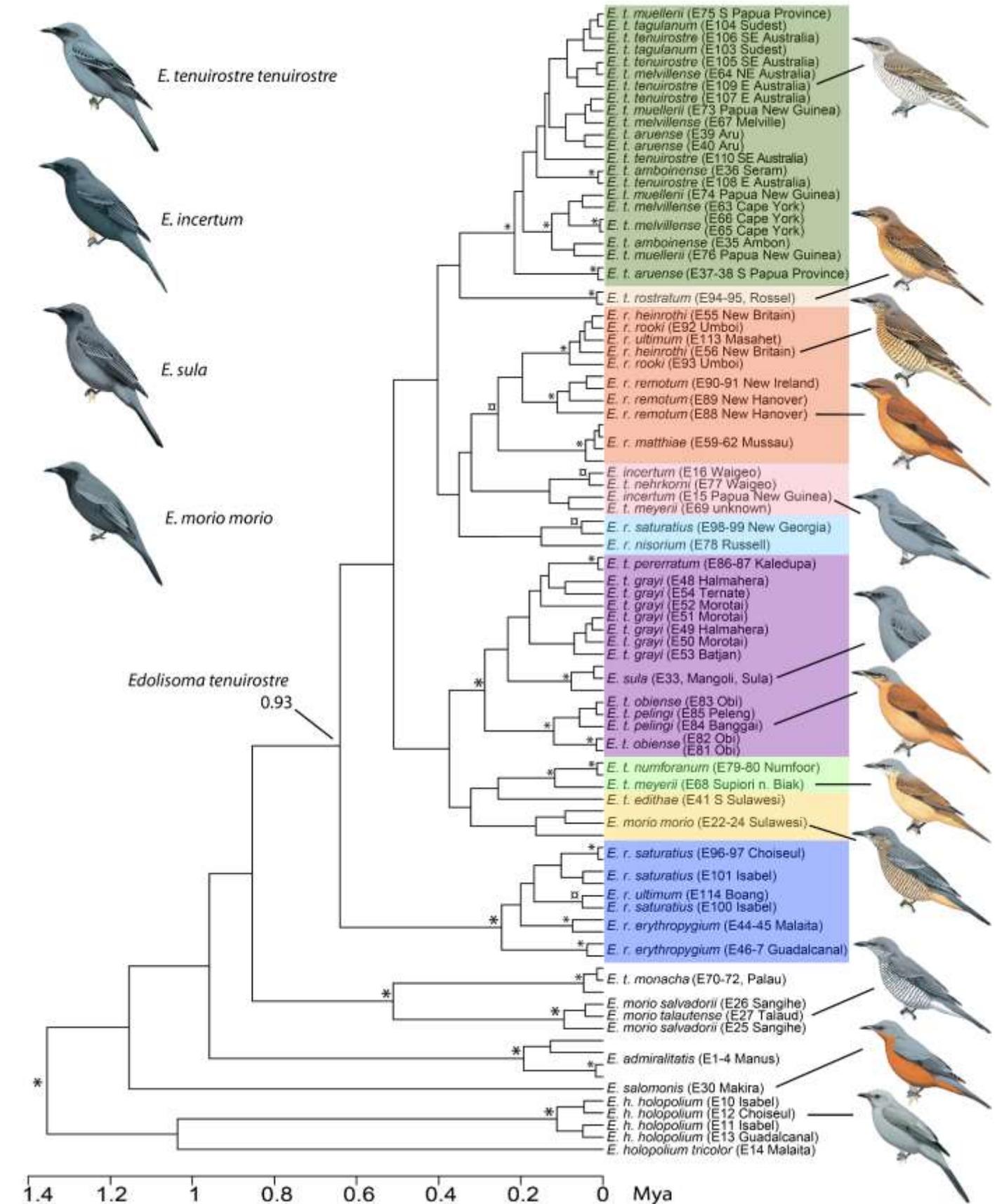
624 HWI, the archipelagic subspecies (black shape, see Appendix S1) have intermediate HWIs and the
625 remote island forms (except *E. holopolium*) have the lowest HWIs.



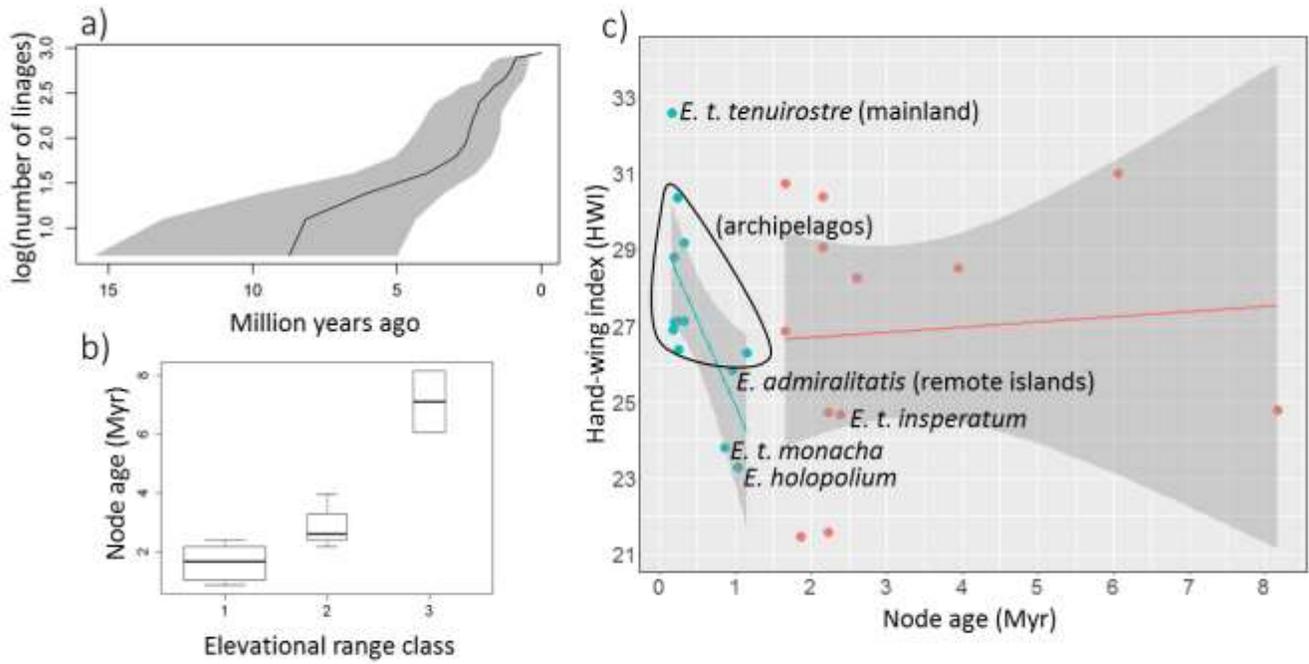
626 **Figure 1**



627 Figure 2



628 Figure 3

629 **Figure 4**