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Molecular phylogeny and biogeography of Oriental voles: genus *Eothenomys* (Muridae, Mammalia)

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Abstract

Oriental voles of the genus *Eothenomys* are predominantly distributed along the Southeastern shoulder of the Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau. Based on phylogenetic analyses of the mitochondrial cytochrome *b* gene (1143 bp) obtained from 23 specimens (eight species) of Oriental voles collected from this area, together with nucleotide sequences from six specimens (two species) of Japanese red-backed voles (*Eothenomys andersoni* and *Eothenomys smithii*) and five species of the closely related genus *Clethrionomys*, we revised the systematic status of *Eothenomys*. We also tested if vicariance could explain the observed high species diversity in this area by correlating estimated divergence times to species distribution patterns and corresponding paleo-geographic events. Our results suggest that: (1) the eight species of Oriental voles form a monophyletic group with two distinct clades, and that these two clades should be considered as valid subgenera—*Eothenomys* and *Anteliomys*; (2) *Eothenomys eleusis* and *Eothenomys miletus* are not independent species; (3) Japanese red-backed voles are more closely related to the genus *Clethrionomys* than to continental Asian *Eothenomys* taxa; and (4) the genus *Clethrionomys*, as presently defined, is paraphyletic. In addition, the process of speciation of Oriental voles appears to be related to the Trans-Himalayan formation via three recent uplift events of the Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau within the last 3.6 million years, as well as to the effects of the mid-Quaternary ice age.

Keywords: Phylogeny; Cytochrome b; Oriental voles; Eothenomys; Clethrionomyini; Biogeography; Trans-Himalayan Ranges; Speciation

1. Introduction

Oriental voles are traditionally included in the genus *Eothenomys* (Muridae: Clethrionomyini), and inhabit the Trans-Himalayan Ranges of Southwest China, small

parts of Northeast Burma and the Assam province in India (Fig. 1). According to the fossil record, this group is of recent origin, and most likely diversified during the late Pliocene (Zheng, 1993). It is assumed that speciation events within this group are linked to historical changes in the geography of their main distribution habitat, the Trans-Himalayan Ranges, which have been severely affected by several uplift events along the Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau. These geological processes have been considered to play a fundamental vicariant role in species

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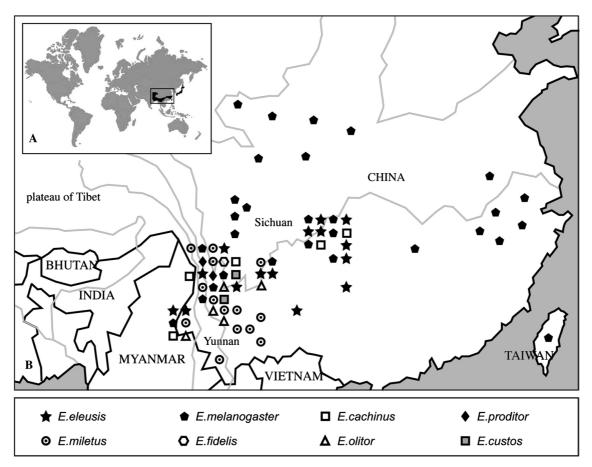


Fig. 1. (A) Map showing the distribution of Oriental voles (Continental mainland) and Japanese red-backed voles (Japan). (B) Distribution of the eight species of Oriental voles and the locations of sites where the specimens of each species have been reported (after Wang and Li, 2000).

divergence of many other vertebrates endemic to this region (Chen et al., 1998; Pang et al., 2003; Yu et al., 2000). Thus, we wanted to test whether the uplift of the Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau also facilitated speciation and adaptation processes of Oriental voles.

The taxonomy of the genus Eothenomys is under considerable debate, primarily due to the inherent morphological plasticity among members of this group and to subjectivity regarding the descriptions of some species. This is reflected by the contrasting definitions of the subgenera and genera ascribed to the group (Table 1). Indeed, 7–9 nominal species have been assigned to the genus Eothenomys under the subtribe Clethrionomyini based on morpho-anatomical characters or cytological data (Allen, 1940; Corbet, 1978; Ellerman and Morrison-Scott, 1951; Hinton, 1923, 1926; Musser and Carleton, 1993; Wang and Li, 2000; Yang et al., 1998; see Table 1 for summary). Allen (1940) further classified the genus Eothenomys into three subgenera: Eothenomys, Anteliomys, and Caryomys. Under this classification scheme, the subgenus Eothenomys contains species with the first upper molars displaying three outer and four inner salient angles, and the last upper molars exhibiting three or four outer salient angles. The subgenus Anteliomys is comprised of species with the first upper molars possessing three outer and three inner salient angles. The subgenus Caryomys includes only two species, both of which have inter-bedded molar triangles in the first and second lower molars. Ma and Jiang (1996) revised the taxonomic status of the subgenus Caryomys and elevated it to genus rank based on its karyotype (2n=54) compared to the karyotypes of other species in Eothenomys (2n=56) (Chen et al., 1994; Yang et al., 1998). They left only two subgenera in Eothenomys, Eothenomys and Eothenomys, as was also suggested by Wang and Li (2000) (Table 1).

Early classification schemes generally subdivided the subtribe Clethrionomyini into two groups based on the morphology of the molars: *Clethrionomys* (where species have rooted molars) and the *Eothenomys/Caryomys* complex (where species have rootless molars). However, following this scheme, the position of Japanese red-backed voles was ambiguous since these species possess rooted molars that appear quite late in adult life. Consequently, Japanese red-backed voles, which were traditionally included by most authorities in *Eothenomys*, are now sometimes reassigned to their own genus, *Phaulomys*, Thomas (1905) (Musser and Carleton, 1993; Kawamura, 1988;

Table 1 Different opinions on the taxonomy of the genus *Eothenomys*

Wang and Li (2000)	Allen (1940)	Hinton (1923, 1926)	Musser and Carleton (199						
Genus Eothenomys	Genus Eothenomys	Genus Eothenomys	Genus Eothenomys						
Subgenus Eothenomys	Subgenus Eothenomys	_	_						
E. melangoster	E. melangoster	E. melangoster	E. melangoster						
E. me. melanogaster	E. me. melanogaster	E. me. melanogaster	_						
E. me. mucronatus	E. me. melanogaster	E. me. mucronatus	_						
E. me. colurnus	E. me. colurnus	E. me. colurnus	_						
E. me. libonotus	_	E. me. libonotus	_						
E. cachinus	_	E. me. cachinus	_						
E. eleusis	E. eleusis	E. me. eleusis	_						
E. eleusis aurora	E. miletus aurora	E. me. aurora	_						
E. miletus confinii	E. eleusis	E. me. confinii	_						
E. miletus miletus	E. miletus miletus	E. me. miletus	_						
E. miletus miletus	E. miletus miletus	E. fidelis	_						
Subgenus Antelionomys	Subgenus Antelionomys	_	_						
E. olitor	E. olitor	E. olitor	E. olitor						
E. proditor	E. proditor	E. proditor	E. proditor						
_	_	Genus Antelionomys	_						
E. chinensis	E. chinensis	A. chinensis	E. chinensis						
E. c. chinensis	E. c. chinensis	A. c. chinensis	_						
E. c. tarquinius	E. c. tarquinius	A. c. tarquinius	_						
E. wardi	E. c. wardi	A. wardi	_						
E. custos	E. custos	A. custos	E. custos						
E. c. custos	E. c. custos	A. c. custos	_						
E. c. rubellus	E. c. rubellus	A. c. rubelius	_						
E. c. hintoni	E. c. hintoni	_	_						
Genus Caryomys	Subgenus Caryomys	Genus Evotomys	_						
Ca. inez	E. inez	Ev. rufocanus shanseius	E. inez						
Ca. eva	E. eva	Ev. r. shanseius	E. eva						
_	_	Ev. r. regulus	E. regulus						
Genus Clethrionomys	Genus Clethrionomys	_	_						
C. rufocanus shanseius	C. rufocanus shanseius	Ev. rufocanus shanseius	E. shanseius						
Genus Phaulomys	_	_	Genus Phaulomys						
P. andersoni	_	Ev. r. andersoni	P. andersoni						
P. smithii	_	Ev. r. smithii	P. smithii						

[&]quot;—" Indicates that the taxon is not recognized by this author.

Suzuki et al., 1999). Wang and Li (2000) accepted this designation and hypothesized that the subtribe Clethrionomyini includes four valid genera: Clethrionomys, Eothenomys, Caryomys, and Phaulomys. Yang et al. (1998) summarized all available karvotype data and discussed the putative evolutionary relationships among the main lineages of the Clethrionomyini. These species are diploids and generally possess chromosome numbers between 54 and 56 with a fundamental arm number between 54 and 60. However, cytological data sometimes provides discordant results. For example, Yang et al. (1998) reported that the karyotype of the Yulong vole (Eothenomys proditor) (distributed in Lijiang region, Northwest Yunnan of China) exhibit a dramatically different diploid chromosome number (2n = 32). In addition, these authors suggested that karyotype data do not provide enough convincing evidence to elucidate the phylogenetic relationships within this group. A comprehensive phylogeny based on unambiguous characters and appropriate phylogenetic reconstruction methods is still required to shed light on the classification and evolutionary history of this group. In this context, Cook et al.

(2004) recently examined the molecular systematics of red-backed voles, and suggested that the genus *Clethrionomys* is paraphyletic with respect to both *Eothenomys* and *Alticola*. However, important taxa from the genus *Eothenomys* were not intensively sampled for this study, with only one Oriental vole species included. Thus, it is imperative to include additional species from the genus *Eothenomys* to better investigate the phylogenetic relationships among the subtribe Clethrionomyini.

The levels of genetic divergence typically found between sister species and their congeners are usually in the range in which the mitochondrial cytochrome b (cyt b) gene is phylogenetically informative. The cyt b gene is usually not affected by severe saturation effects involving superimposed nucleotide substitutions (Johns and Avise, 1998; Meyer, 1993; Moritz et al., 1987). Hence, it has often been used to reconstruct phylogenetic relationships within and among numerous vertebrate groups (Andrews et al., 1998; Irwin et al., 1991; Johns and Avise, 1998), including arvicolid rodents (Cook et al., 2004; Iwasa and Suzuki, 2002; Suzuki et al., 1999). To explore the molecular phylogenetic relation-

ships of Oriental voles and their taxonomic affiliation with other members of the subtribe Clethrionomyini, we thus sequenced their mitochrondrial DNA cyt *b* gene. Drawing on this data, the goals of this study were: (1) to elucidate the phylogeny of *Eothenomys* from the Southeast border default region of the Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau; (2) to revise the taxonomic status of Oriental voles as well as other species in the subtribe Clethrionomyini with reference to the molecular phylogeny constructed; e.g., we wanted to test whether the rank of genus or subgenus assigned to groups such as *Eothenomys*, *Anteliomys*, and *Phaulomys* are valid; (3) to investigate if the divergence events within the group are correlated with recent uplift events of the Qinghai-Tibet-

an Plateau. To achieve this final goal, we compared divergence times inferred from cyt *b* data with the orogenic events and corresponding biogeographic distribution patterns of voles from this particular area.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Data collection

Voles were collected along the Southwestern shoulder of the Trans-Himalayan Ranges (Fig. 1). The voucher numbers and localities of the collected samples are listed in Table 2. Except for *Eothenomys fidelis*, specimens

Table 2
Taxonomic sampling, accession numbers, and geographic area of origin

Species	Sample number	Haplotype	Sample locality	Accession No.			
Eothenomys eleusis	E. eleusis 003	E. eleusis 003	Mount Wuliang, Jingdong, YN	AY426678			
	E. eleusis 009	E. eleusis 009	Mount Wuliang, Jingdong, YN	AY426679			
E. miletus	E. miletus 014	E. miletus 014	Mount Yulong, Lijiang, YN	AY426683			
	E. miletus 029	E. miletus 029	Mount Wuliang, Jingdong, YN	AY426684			
	E. miletus 030	Same as E. miletus 014	Mount Wuliang, Jingdong, YN				
	E. miletus 044	Same as E. miletus 029	Mount Wuliang, Jingdong, YN				
	E. miletus 98823	E. miletus 98823	Mount Ailao, YN	AY426685			
	E. miletus 98830	E. miletus 98830	Mount Ailao, YN	AY426686			
E. cachinus	E. cachinus 088	E. cachinus 088	Zhaotong, YN	AY426675			
E. fidelis	E. fidelis 084	E. fidelis 084	Lijiang, YN	AY426680			
-	E. fidelis 97599	Same as E. fidelis 84	Lijiang, YN				
E. melanogaster	E. melanogaster 201039	E. melanogaster 201039	Mount Wawu, SC	AY426681			
	E. melanogaster 201040	E. melanogaster 201040	Mount Wawu, SC	AY426682			
E. custos	E. custos 98810	E. custos 98810	Lijiang, YN	AY426676			
	E. custos 98812	E. custos 98812	Lijiang, YN	AY426677			
	E. custos 98814	Same as E. custos 98810	Lijiang, YN				
	E. custos 98820	Same as E. custos 98810	Lijiang, YN				
E. proditor	E. proditor 97585#	E. proditor 97585	Mount Yulong, Lijiang, YN	AY426691			
_	E. proditor 97592#	Same as E. proditor 97585	Mount Yulong, Lijiang, YN				
E. olitor	E. olitor 105	E. olitor 105	Zhaotong, YN	AY426687			
	E. olitor 106	E. olitor 106	Zhaotong, YN	AY426688			
	E. olitor 98448	E. olitor 98448	Zhaotong, YN	AY426689			
	E. olitor 98449	E. olitor 98449	Zhaotong, YN	AY426690			
E. andersoni	E. andersoni CH	E. andersoni CH	Central Honshu, JP	AB037290			
	E. andersoni NH	E. andersoni NH	Northern Honshu, JP	AB037281			
	E. andersoni WH	E. andersoni WH	Western Hunshu, JP	AB037296			
E. smithii	E. smithii NH	E. smithii NH	Northeastern Honshu, JP	AB037305			
	E. smithii SHI	E. smithii SHI	Shikoku, JP	AB037313			
	E. smithii	E. smithii*	Honshu, JP	AB104508			
Clethrionomys glareolus	C. glareolus	C. glareolus*	Unknown	AF119272			
C.rutilus	C. rutilus	C. rutilus*	Unknown	AF119274			
C. rex	C. rex	C. rex*	Unknown	AB031582			
C. rufocanus	C. rufocanus	C. rufocanus*	Unknown	AB031580			
C. gapperi	C. gapperi	C. gapperi*	Unknown	AF272639			
Microtus clarkei	C. clarkei	C. clarkei 103	Zhongdian, YN	AY641526			
Arvicola terrestris		Arvicola terrestris*	Unknown	AF119269			
Microtus gregalis		Microtus gregalis*	Unknown	AF163895			
Ellobius fuscocapillus		Ellobius fuscocapillus*	Unknown	AF126430			
Myopus schisticolor		Myopus schisticolor*	Unknown	AF119263			
Phenacomys intermedius		Phenacomys intermedius*	Unknown	AF119260			
Ondatra zibethicus		Ondatra zibethicus*	Unknown	AF119277			
Volemys kikuchii		Volemys kikuchii*	Unknown	AF348082			
Synaptomys borealis		Synaptomys borealis*	Unknown	AF119259			

Note. # Denotes formalin-fixed tissues; * denotes sequences from GenBank; YN, Yunnan; SC, Sichuan; and JP, Japan,

were identified based on external characteristics and skull morphology following the system of Wang and Li (2000) (see Table 1). E. fidelis was defined according to its unique cytological pattern (Yang et al., unpublished data). Twenty-three specimens comprising seven Oriental vole species plus E. fidelis were included in the current study. Where subspecies exist, we used nominal subspecies nomenclature. Despite several collection expeditions, we failed to obtain the Oriental vole species, Eothenomys wardi and Eothenomys chinensis. Clarke's vole *Microtus clarkei* (this study), together with eight species of Arvicolinae (sequences retrieved from Gen-Bank) were chosen as outgroup taxa (Table 2). The strategy of multiple outgroup sampling was used to avoid inappropriate selection of outgroups, which might result in misleading conclusions about the phylogeny of the ingroup (Adachi and Hasegawa, 1995; Dalevi et al., 2001; Garcia-Moreno et al., 2001; Hillis, 1996).

Genomic DNA was extracted from 21 freshly frozen voles following Luo et al. (1999). Two formalin-fixed specimens were extracted according to Xiao et al. (1997). Two universal cyt b primers: L14724 5'-CG AAGCTTGATATGAAAAACCATCGTTG-3' (Pääbo and Wilson, 1988) and H15915R 5'-GGAATTCATCT CTCCGGTTTACAAGAC-3' (Irwin et al., 1991) were initially used to amplify and sequence the cyt b gene. PCRs were conducted in a total volume of 50 µl PCR cocktail that included 1× buffer with 0.15 mmol MgCl₂ (Sina-American), 0.25 mM dNTPs (Amersco), 1U Tag DNA polymerase (Sina-American) and 25–50 ng genomic DNA. Following a 2-min denaturing period at 95°C, PCR was conducted for 40 cycles at 95 °C for 60 s, 50 °C for 60 s, and 72 °C for 80 s, followed by a final extension at 72°C for 5min. Based on partial cyt b sequences obtained, two internal primers (CYTBL320 5'-GCAG TTTACTACGGCTCCTAC-3' and CYTBH370 5'-GC CCATAAATGCTGTTGCTAT-3') were designed for subsequent reactions. The PCR condition with L14724 and CYTBH370 was: 2 min at 95 °C followed by 35 cycles of 95°C for 50 s, 56°C for 45 s, and 72°C for 50 s; and the PCR condition with CYTBL320 and H15915R was: 2 min at 95°C, and 40 cycles of 95°C for 50s, 50°C for 50s, and 72 °C for 60 s. Both reactions concluded with a posterior extension of 5 min.

PCR products were purified with a gel extraction kit (Watson BioMedical). Double-stranded PCR products were directly sequenced from both directions with an ABI 377 automatic sequencer (Perkin–Elmer) using an ABI PRISM BigDye Terminator Cycle Sequencing Ready Reaction Kit (with AmpliTaq DNA polymerase FS, Applied Biosystems). The inadvertent amplification and possible inclusion of nuclear pseudo-gene sequences was checked by observing if the obtained sequences translated properly, that is, whether they possessed conventionally positioned start and stop codons, and no false stop codons, insertions or deletions. One pseudo-

gene sequence was detected for *Eothenomys olitor*. This sequence was discarded from the analyses.

2.2. Data analyses

All sequences were aligned using the DNASTAR software package 5.0 (DNASTAR) and confirmed by eye. The program DAMBE 4.1.19 (Xia and Xie, 2001) was used to identify haplotypes and to analyze saturation plots. Other parameters (variable sites, parsimony informative sites, and base composition biases) were obtained from PAUP 4.0b10 (Swofford, 2002).

We performed a wide array of phylogenetic analyses using different methods to gauge the robustness of our resulting hypotheses. These methods were maximum parsimony (MP), neighbor-joining with maximum likelihood distance (NJ), maximum likelihood (ML) as implemented in PAUP* Version 4.0b10 (Swofford, 2002), and a Bayesian approach as implemented in MrBayes ver.2.01 (Huelsenbeck and Ronquist, 2001). Likelihood ratio tests (Goldman, 1993a,b; Huelsenbeck and Crandall, 1997), as implemented in MODELTEST 3.06 (Posada and Crandall, 1998), were employed to choose models for model-based methods (NJ, ML, and Bayesian analyses). The HKY+G+I model (Hasegawa et al., 1985) was selected by MODELTEST. All model parameters were estimated via the maximum likelihood procedure as implemented in PAUP* through an iterative process (Swofford et al., 1996, p. 445). The Shimodaira-Hasegawa test, as implemented in PAUP*, was used to test alternative phylogenetic hypotheses (Shimodaira and Hasegawa, 1999). Four independent MCMC chains were simultaneously run for 1,000,000 replicates by sampling one tree per 100 replicates with the Bayesian procedure. We discarded the first 100 trees as part of a burn-in procedure, and used the remaining 9900 sampling trees (whose log likelihoods converged to stable values) to construct a 50% majority rule consensus tree. In addition to Bayesian posterior probabilities, node supports were assessed using ML, MP, and NJ bootstraps (Felsenstein, 1985) with 120, 1000, and 1000 replicates, respectively.

To estimate divergence times, we first tested for consistency of molecular evolution rate of the cyt *b* gene sequences in different lineages using PHYL-TEST2.0 (Kumar, 1996) and following the method of Takezaki et al. (1995). Owing to the inconsistency of the evolutionary rate in *Eothenomys custos*, divergence times and rates among lineages were estimated by r8s version 1.5 (Sanderson, 2003), since this program enables estimations of divergence time regardless of evolutionary rate inconsistencies. The earliest fossils of *Eothenomys* from the Trans-Himalayan area are recorded from the early Pleistocene, but no direct ancestor has yet been detected in Chinese fossil layers (Zheng, 1993). In Japan, however, the fossil record is

relatively complete and suggests that the divergence between the genus *Clethrionomys* and the ancestor of Japanese red-backed voles lived in the late Pliocene or early Pleistocene (Kawamura, 1988). For this study, we took the early Pleistocene divergence of Japanese red-backed voles and the genus *Clethrionomys* (1.80 million years ago; Mya) (Kawamura, 1988) as a calibration point to infer divergence times for the different lineages of Oriental voles.

3. Results

3.1. Sequence variations and phylogenetic information

The entire coding region of the cyt *b* gene was sequenced from 23 Oriental voles (Table 2), and deposited in GenBank (Accession Nos. AY426678–AY426690). Including the start and stop codons, all sequences were 1143 bp—the same as other related mammalian groups

(Irwin et al., 1991; Iwasa and Suzuki, 2002). A total of 252 nucleotide sites were variable, 53 of which were parsimony-informative. Seventeen haplotypes were identified from the 23 sequences. The following taxa shared the same haplotype: *Eothenomys miletus* 030 and *E. miletus* 014; *E. miletus* 044 and *E. miletus* 029; *E. fidelis* 97599 and *E. fidelis* 084; *E. custos* 98814, *E. custos* 98820, and *E. custos* 98810; and *E. proditor* 97592 and *E. proditor* 97585. There were no shared haplotypes between different species, implying that no gene flow occurred.

The final dataset for phylogenetic analyses included 17 unique haplotype sequences from the 23 Oriental vole specimens, together with six sequences from 2 Japanese red-backed vole species (*Eothenomys andersoni* and *E. smithii*), five *Clethrionomys* sequences and nine sequences from eight genera of outgroup taxa. Base composition bias across taxa was not detected (*p* value = 1). The relative saturation test was performed on transitions and transversions (Fig. 2). The plots appeared to become

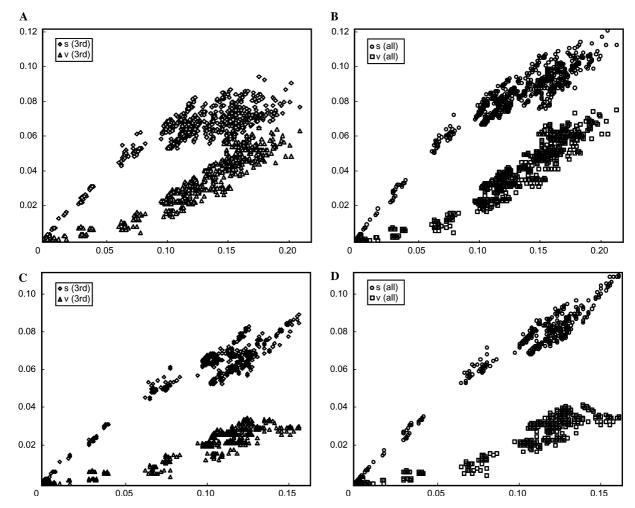


Fig. 2. The relative saturation test (Jukes and Cantor (1969) distances versus uncorrected pairwise distance) performed on transitions (s) and transversions (v) by considering all positions and the third codon position, respectively. Analysis involving 27 sequences from the subtribe Clethrionomyini and 9 outgroup taxa are shown in (A,B); analysis involving ingroup taxa sequences only are shown in (C,D).

saturated when outgroup taxa were included (Figs. 2A and B), notably in the case of substitution type on transitions at the third codon position (Fig. 2A). Nevertheless, neither substitution type exhibited a clear saturation plateau in Figs. 2C and D, suggesting a low frequency of multiple substitutions in our dataset among the ingroup taxa. The average pairwise distance between taxa was 26.42%; the maximum pairwise distance (64.1%) was recorded between *Myopus schisticolor* and *Arvicola terrestris*, and the minimum distance (0.084%) was found between *E. miletus* 14 and *Eothenomys eleusis* 9 (see Appendix A for details).

3.2. Phylogenetic analyses

Fig. 3 shows the ML tree constructed from a set of 37 cyt b sequences and confirming the monophyly of the subtribe Clethrionomyini. The other methods produced very similar topologies (data not shown). The primary differences concerned the interrelationships among Eothenomys cachinus, E. fidelis, and the complex of E. miletus and E. eleusis. In these cases, the internal branches were extremely short and the related statistical support below 50%. Three major clades within the subtribe Clethrionomyini were identified (Fig. 3). Clade A contained all the nominal species in the subgenus *Eothenomys* (Wang and Li, 2000) (Table 1). Clade B contained the three species ascribed to the subgenus Antelionomys (Wang and Li, 2000). Clades A and B appeared to be sister-groups and included all eight species of the genus Eothenomys from the Southwestern shoulder of the Trans-Himalayan Range. The monophyly of both clades A and B were highly supported by posterior probability (100%) and ML bootstrap analysis (81 and 89%, respectively), but received mediocre bootstrap support from the MP and NJ analyses (51–83%; Fig. 3). When using only closely related outgoup taxa of clades A and B in the analyses, such as Japanese red-backed voles or Clethrionomys, bootstrap support for the monophyly of clades A and B increased dramatically (in the MP tree, support for this grouping increased from 51 to 100%, whereas in the NJ tree it increased from 70 to 97%). This finding is in agreement with the results of the saturation test described above (Fig. 2).

Clade C contained both Japanese red-backed vole species plus the five *Clethrionomys* species. These results were consistent regardless of the tree building method used. Support for the monophyly of Japanese red-backed voles plus *Clethrionomys* was strong, with node support values of 100, 94, 90, and 96% from posterior probability, ML, MP, and NJ bootstrap analyses, respectively.

Within clade A, cyt b sequences of E. miletus and E. eleusis exhibited a notably high degree of similarity (Appendix A). The most widely distributed species, Eothenomys melanogaster, was placed at the basal position of

this clade (Fig. 3). However, the interrelationships between E. cachinus, E. fidelis, and the species complex of E. miletus and E. eleusis were unresolved. The interrelationships among the three species of clade B (E. custos, E. proditor, and E. olitor) were fully resolved in terms of bootstrap support and posterior probability (Fig. 3). E. custos diverged first, with E. olitor and E. proditor appearing to be more derived sister-taxa. Within clade C, the Japanese red-backed voles E. andersoni and E. smithii comprised a monophyletic group nested together with two species of the genus Clethrionomys (Fig. 3). In fact, Clethrionomys rex and Clethrionomys rufocanus appeared to be more closely related to Japanese red-backed voles than to the other three Clethrionomys sampled in this study, Clethrionomys glareolus, Clethrionomys rutilus, and Clethrionomys gapperi.

3.3. Divergence time estimations

Based on the relative rate test, all vole lineages exhibited a constant rate except for evolutionary heterogeneity between E. custos and the other Oriental voles or the species of Clethrionomys. Divergence times were estimated using the split between *Clethrionomys* and Japanese red-backed voles (1.80 Mya; Kawamura, 1988) as a calibration point (Fig. 4). Molecular-clock estimates for the divergence of Eothenomys and Clethrionomys was 2.70 Mya (mean rate = 6.208% per site per million years, SD=0.228% for all estimates), falling within the time frame of the first severe uplift of the Oinghai-Tibetan Plateau (3.6-2.6 Mya; An et al., 2001; Zheng et al., 2000). The divergence between the subgenera Eothenomys and Anteliomys (clades A and B of Fig. 4) was calculated to be 2.08 Mya. Interestingly, our estimate of the split between Japanese red-backed voles and the clade leading to the *Clethrionomys rex/C. rufocanus* complex (0.90 Mya) is nearly identical to that calculated for the radiation of the other three *Clethrionomys* species (0.90-1.02 Mya).

4. Discussion

4.1. Systematics of the subtribe Clethrionomysi: are Japanese red-backed voles more closely related to Oriental voles than to other species?

Miller (1896) first proposed the subgenus *Eothenomys* (which included Oriental and Japanese red-backed voles) and Hinton (1923, 1926) subsequently designated it as a valid genus. Contrary to this suggestion, and regardless of the tree reconstruction methods employed, our phylogenetic analyses consistently grouped all Oriental vole species from the genus *Eothenomys* into a monophyletic clade separate from Japanese red-backed voles (Fig. 3). In fact, Japanese red-backed voles (*E.*

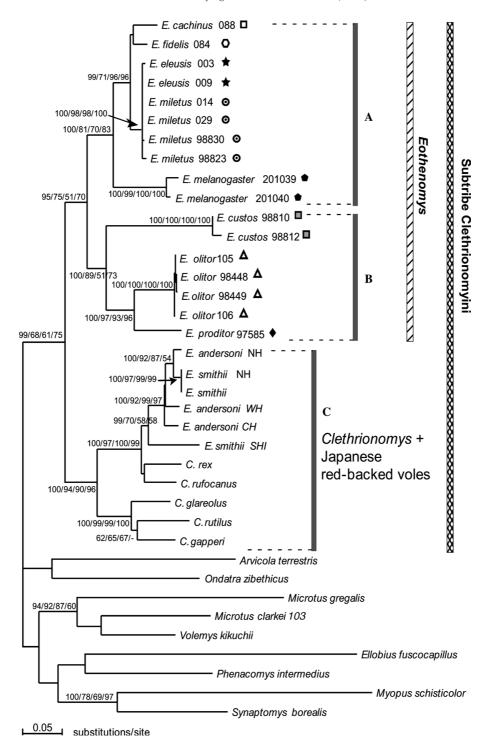


Fig. 3. Maximum-likelihood tree using the HKY+G+I model depicting the relationship of Oriental voles, Japanese voles, *Clethrionomys*, and associated outgroup taxa. ML score is 8904.73819. Numbers represent node supports inferred from Bayesian posterior probability, ML bootstrap, MP bootstrap, and NJ bootstrap analyses, respectively. The symbols of the species are the same as in Fig. 1B.

andersoni and E. smithii) appear to be more closely related to the genus Clethrionomys, especially C. rex (endemic to Japan) and C. rufocanus (Gray red-backed vole, a widely distributed species in Siberia) than to continental Asian Eothenomys species (Oriental voles). Thomas (1905) established the genus Phaulomys for Japanese

red-backed voles based on their differentiated external characters. Fossils ascribed to *Clethrionomys* are recorded from the Early Pleistocene of Moldavia (the early Khaprovsk fauna; Gromov and Polyakov, 1977) and *Clethrionomys* are a predominant element of the arvicolid fauna of the Japanese Middle Pleistocene. Some fossils

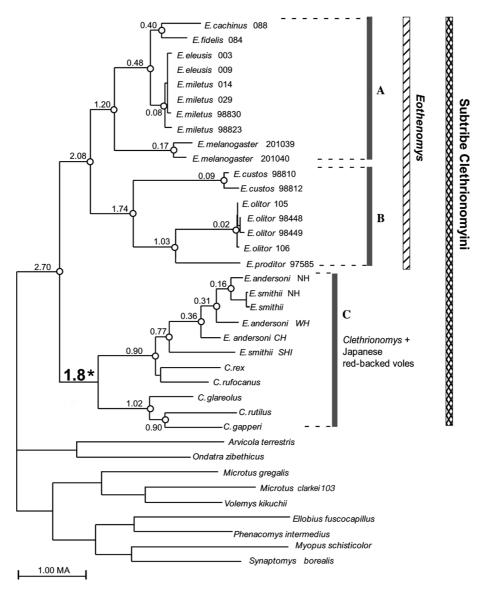


Fig. 4. Phylogenetic relationships and divergence time of Oriental voles. The early Pleistocene divergence between Japanese red-backed voles and the genus *Clethrionomys* (1.80 Mya) (Kawamura, 1988) was taken as a calibration point (node marked with an asterisk) to infer divergence times of the different lineages. Estimated divergence dates, in millions of years, are shown on individual nodes.

of a transitional form of Clethrionomys—"Phaulomys" have been reported from Japan (Kawamura, 1988). In the late Pleistocene, the transitional form diverged into the two Japanese red-backed vole species: E. andersoni and E. smithii. According to Kawamura (1988), the extant species of Clethrionomys and Phaulomys may have shared a common ancestor. This evidence, together with the biogeographical distribution patterns of the extant species indicates that Oriental and Japanese voles of the genus Eothenomys have separate, distinct evolutionary histories. Our phylogeny supports this hypothesis and, mirroring the results of Cook et al. (2004), suggest that the genus *Eothenomys* is paraphyletic (Fig. 3). Based on this evidence, we recommend that Japanese red-backed voles should be considered as a separate genus, Phaulomys, as initially defined by Thomas

(1905). In addition, the closely related taxa, C. rex and C. rufocanus, should also be included in this genus. Comparable to the molecular topology of Cook et al. (2004), our results also provide support for the paraphyly of the genus *Clethrionomys*. Since both Cook et al. (2004) and the present study used the same molecular marker, cytochrome b, the congruent results are not surprising. Additionally, the hypothesis of monophyly for the genus Clethrionomys as well as monophyly for the genus Eothenomys were both statistically rejected when we compared the ML scores between the optimal ML tree and constrained monophyletic trees using the Shimodaira-Hasegawa test as implemented in PAUP* (p=0.00097). Thus, based on the combined evidence from these two studies, we suggest that C. glareolus, C. rutilus, and C. gapperi should be retained in their

original genus. Interestingly, Cook et al. (2004) suggested *Alticola macrotis* formed a monophyletic clade with this latter grouping. Though this species was not included in our final analysis, a subsequent (post-submission) analysis using our dataset suggested *Alticola* formed robust clade with *C. glareolus*, *C. rutilus*, and *C. gapperi*, congruent with the topology presented by Cook et al. (2004). However, because there is cyt *b* sequence data available for only one species in this genus, additional taxon sampling is required to confirm this relationship.

Finally, our molecular topology suggests *Clethriono*mys and Phaulomys form a clade separate from that of Oriental voles (Eothenomys) plus perhaps the genus Caryomys (unfortunately, specimens were not obtained during the course of this study). Similarly, Cook et al. (2004) noted that E. melanogaster (the only Oriental vole included in their study) formed a distinct subclade within the subthbe Clethrionomyini. It is noteworthy that all Eothenomys species within clades A and B (see Fig. 3), together with *Caryomys*, have rootless molars (which can be considered as a synapomorphy for this group), while those of clade C have rooted molars. Moreover, the genus Caryomys might be the sistergroup to Eothenomys since species in Caryomys complex present some unique molar characteristics (e.g., opposite molar triangles of the first lower molar alternating and separate), and a karyotype (2n = 54) that differs from that generally found in Eothenomys (2n=56). Based on these distinctions, we recommend that the generic ranking of Eothenomys should be maintained. This designation is in contrast with the suggestion that Alticola, Eothenomys, Phaulomys, and Clethrionomys should be amalgamated into a single genus: Clethrionomys (Cook et al., 2004).

4.2. Molecular systematics of the genus Eothenomys

Different hypotheses have been forwarded on the subgenus classification of Eothenomys (Ellerman and Morrison-Scott, 1951; Hinton, 1923; Ma and Jiang, 1996; Musser and Carleton, 1993). Wang and Li (2000) suggested to keep only two subgenera within Eothenomys (Table 1). Our phylogenetic analyses provided strong support for the monophyly of Oriental voles (Eothenomys) and support the classification of two valid subgenera, Eothenomys and Anteliomys (clades A and B of Fig. 3). A morphological differentiation between these two subgenera is the number of inner salient angles on the last upper molar (see Section 1). Interestingly, these two clades can also be distinguished from each other by their distribution patterns. Species in clade A have widespread distribution patterns, while species in clade B are restricted more or less to the Trans-Himalayan Ranges (Figs. 1A and B).

At the species level, all species in clades A and B except for *E. custos* were initially considered as subspecies

of *E. melanogaster* (Allen, 1924; Ellerman and Morrison-Scott, 1951; Hinton, 1923, 1926; Osgood, 1932). However, Thomas (1921) proposed *E. cachinus* as a valid species. When *E. miletus* was proposed as a valid species distinct from *E. melanogaster*, Allen (1940) and Wang and Li (2000) used *E. fidelis* as a synonym of *E. miletus*. Recently, Wang and Li (2000) summarized a suite of morphological data and suggested four valid species occurred in the subgenus *Eothenomys* (clade A) and five valid species in the subgenus *Anteliomys* (clade B) (Table 1). Our phylogenetic results are in line with those of Wang and Li (2000). There are three distinct lineages in clade B (*E. custos*, *E. olitor*, and *E. proditor*) and three to four lineages in clade A (Fig. 3).

According to our phylogenic topology E. cachinus, E. fidelis, and E. miletus/E. eleusis appear to be more closely related to each other than to E. melanogaster (Fig. 3). Moreover, based upon our divergence time estimates (Fig. 4), the initial speciation event leading to the present day Oriental vole species occurred approximately 2.1 Mya whereas the split between E. melanogaster and the other members of the subgenus Eothenomys occurred about 1.2 Mya. Thus, our results reject the hypotheses of Hinton (1923, 1926) and Ellerman and Morrison-Scott (1951), which considered all species in clade A to be subspecies of E. melanogaster. In fact, E. cachinus and E. fidelis appear to be neither subspecies of E. melanogaster nor a synonym of E. miletus as previously suggested (Hinton, 1923; Wang and Li, 2000). However, it should be noted that the interrelationships among E. cachinus, E. fidelis, and E. miletus/E. eleusis were unresolved in our analyses. To clarify their relationships and designation as valid species, a broader sampling strategy and more information, such as interbreeding and behavior and ecological data, are still required. Significantly, however, our results suggest that separate species designations for E. eleusis and E. miletus may not be warranted. Although E. eleusis and E. miletus were proposed as separate subspecies or species (Allen, 1940; Hinton, 1923; Musser and Carleton, 1993; Thomas, 1912a,b; Wang and Li, 2000), the cyt b sequences from these two taxa were nearly identical. Indeed, pairwise distances between these two taxa (0.08– 0.86%) were consistently smaller than pairwise distances between the intraspecific haplotypes of other species, e.g., the pairwise distance between the two E. melanogaster sequences was 1.78%, while that between conspecifics of E. andersoni ranged from 1.69 to 3.60% (Appendix A). Moreover, E. eleusis and E. miletus share the same karyotype: 2n = 54A + XY (A, A) (A: acrocentric chromosome) (Yang et al., unpublished data). This combined evidence suggests that E. eleusis and E. miletus should not be considered as a separate species at the genetic level. It should be cautioned, however, that because phylogenetic relationships inferred from single gene studies might be biased due to gene-tree effects, evidence from additional molecular markers (i.e., nuclear genes) are required to independently assess this finding (Chen et al., 2003), and address the potential problem of hybridization events between these "species" (Sang and Zhong, 2000).

4.3. The evolutionary history of Eothenomys and its biogeography

In comparison to the biogeographical distributions of many other vole species in the subtribe Clethrionomyini, Oriental voles are generally found at lower latitudes, mainly in the Southwestern region of China. Only *E. melanogaster* is found in central and eastern China and Taiwan (Fig. 1). Conversely, most other species have overlapping ranges in the Trans-Himalayan region (Wang and Li, 2000). The evolutionary history of how and when ancestral Oriental vole species spread into these particular lower latitude areas is unknown.

The present Trans-Himalayan Range includes various north-south extending ranges and adjacent mountainous areas on the east skirts of the Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau. The geological configuration of this area is complicated, as it is composed of several non-uniform landform assemblages. However, three main areas may be defined, the western high-mountain and gorge area, the northeastern piedmont plain-gorge area and the southeastern plateau-lake basin area. The first two areas belong to the Qinghai-Xizang (Tibetan) plateau while the third is a part of the Yunnan-Guizhou Plateau (Li and Wang, 1986). Geological studies have indicated that the uplift events of the Tibetan plateau occurred most intensely and frequently between 2.6 and 3.6 Mya (An et al., 2001; Zheng et al., 2000). These large-scale uplifts caused strong orogenic movement, including the formation of the Trans-Himalayan Range. This occurrence heightened climate change in East Asia, especially that related to the severity of summer and winter monsoons (An et al., 2001). This period was also characterized by large-scale glaciations in the Northern Hemisphere. Based on the divergence times estimated from our molecular data, the Oriental vole clade (clade A+B in Fig. 4) arose about 2.70 Mya. This event is within the latter time frame of the paleo-geographic and paleo-climate change episode mentioned above, implying that

the early speciation of Oriental voles is likely related to this major orogenic uplifting. Additionally, mapping the patterns of biogeography onto our phylogeny suggests that the lower latitude Oriental voles are derived taxa. On balance, these results imply that the ancestor of all Oriental voles evolved in the northern part of Asia and underwent a large-scale expansion to the south during the period 2.70–2.08 Mya.

As noted earlier, the radiation of Oriental voles is probably recent, and most likely began about 2 Mya according to the fossil record (Zheng and Li, 1990; Zheng, 1993). Interestingly, two successive orogenic movements occurred near the edge of Qinghai-Tibetan plateau about 2.5 and 1.6 Mya, respectively (Liu et al., 1986; Yu et al., 2000 and references therein), followed closely by the mid-Quaternary Ice age. Notably, the inferred divergence times for the early radiation of the subgenera Eothenomys and Antelionomys (1.20 and 1.74 Mya, respectively; Fig. 4) correspond to these geographic occurrences. Thus, these recent geological and glacial events likely acted to isolate vole populations, and probably account for the high species diversity of voles found in this area today. However, more detailed information about the distribution of these endemic species and the paleo-geography from this area, together with additional taxon sampling, are still required to develop a clearer picture of the evolutionary history of Oriental voles in Southeast Asia.

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Appendix A

ML pairwise distances by HYK variant model

	1	2		3	4	5	(5	7	8	9	10	11	12	1	3	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37
1 E. eleusis 003																																								
2 E. eleusis 9	0	.25																																						
3 E. fidelis 84	3	49	3.17																																					
4 E. miletus 14	0	42	0.17	3.38																																				
5 E. miletus 29	0	.34	0.08	3.27	0.2	5																																		
6 E. miletus 98823	0	.86	0.60	3.61	0.7	8 0	.69																																	
7 E. miletus 98830	0	.43	0.17	3.40	0.3	4 0	.25	0.78																																
8 E. cachinus 88	4	.58	4.24	4.23	4.4	6 4	.35	4.35	4.4	9																														
9 E. melanogaster 201039	39 10	16	9.71	10.97	10.0	0 9	.86	9.86	10.0	7 11.3	36																													
10 E. melanogaster 201040	10 9	.90	9.45	10.04	9.7	4 9	.60	9.61	9.8	1 10.7	75 1.	78																												
11 E. custos 98810	17	.99 1	7.40	17.47	17.3	9 17	.40	17.19	17.9	3 18.0	08 22.	97 21.	18																											
12 E. custos 98812	19	38 1	8.78	19.07	18.7	7 18	.78	18.57	19.3	4 18.6	54 23.	39 21.	59 1	.11																										
13 E. olitor 105	14	96 1	4.41	14.27	14.4	1 14	.24	14.76	14.8	9 14.7	70 19.	00 17.	13 18	.78 19	.55																									
14 E. olitor 106	15	.07 1	4.52	14.38	14.5	1 14	.34	14.87	15.0	0 15.1	7 19.	16 17.	27 18	.93 19	.71	0.17																								
15 E. olitor 98448	15	.33 1	4.78	14.64	14.7	7 14	.60	15.12	15.2	6 15.0	7 19.	00 17.	13 19	.18 19	.96	0.17	0.34																							
16 E. olitor 98449	15	44 1	4.88	14.74	14.8	8 14	.71	15.24	15.3	7 15.1	18 19.	16 17.	68 18	.84 19	.37	0.34	0.51	0.17	,																					
17 E. proditor 97585	16	.33 1	5.76	15.99	15.7	5 15	.57	15.74	15.8	5 13.8	34 19.	49 18.	69 19	.16 19	.93	9.81	9.87	10.11	10.2)																				
18 E. andersoni NH	17	27 1	6.86	18.37	16.8	5 16	.86	17.25	17.2	1 18.6	58 22.	15 20.	84 26	.25 27	.92 2	1.99	22.19	22.46	22.5	21.13	5																			
19 E. andersoni CH	19	.53 1	9.11	19.90	19.1	0 19	.11 1	19.99	19.4	9 20.1	1 22.	70 21.	35 28	.09 28	.78 2	2.88	23.09	23.36	23.3	9 22.42	2 3.0	3																		
20 E. andersoni WH	18	45 1	8.03	19.53	18.0	2 18	.03	18.91	18.4	0 18.1	18 23.	02 21.	20 28	.24 29	.42 2	3.23	23.46	23.73	23.7	5 21.89	9 3.0	3.6	0																	
21 E. smithii NH	17	22 1	6.81	18.32	17.2	1 16	.81	17.66	17.1	6 17.9	94 21.	68 20.	83 27	.73 28	.90 2	2.54	22.75	23.02	23.0	5 21.20	6 1.6	3.5	9 3.3	9																
22 E. smithii SHI	21	81 2	1.63	21.73	22.0	7 21	.63 2	21.61	22.0	5 21.5	52 24.	76 23.	42 24	.24 25	.91 2	6.44	26.70	26.94	26.9	4 24.30	6 8.1	8.6	4 8.9	9 8.1	1															
23 E. smithii AB104508	17	42 1	7.01	18.52	17.4	1 17	.01	17.87	17.3	6 18.1	15 21.	45 21.	05 27	.97 29	.14 2	2.77	22.99	23.26	23.2	9 21.4	7 1.7	3.4	8 3.2	9 0.2	5 8.2	24														
24 C. rex	17	.00 1	6.39	16.70	16.3	8 16	.59	16.77	16.7	2 17.0)3 21.	54 19.	79 25	.80 26	.92 2	1.55	21.51	22.02	22.0	5 19.4	4 8.1	5 8.3	8 8.1	6 8.5	6 9.6	60 8.7	70													
25 C. rufocanus	18	92 1	8.29	17.72	18.6	9 18	.50	18.69	18.6	5 18.6	50 20.	11 19.	21 25	.76 26	.96 2	3.60	23.82	24.08	23.6	3 20.40	0 8.3	1 7.6	0 8.3	5 8.3	1 9.2	21 8.1	7.7	72												
26 C. glareolus	19	60 1	8.94	19.18	19.1	5 19	.16	18.50	19.5	5 20.8	38 22.	46 21.	04 26	.33 27	.08 2	0.37	20.55	20.83	20.8	8 21.42	2 14.6	7 15.7	7 16.2	1 15.3	7 17.6	4 15.5	55 16.3	39 14.0	19											
27 C. rutilus	20	64 1	9.96	20.17	20.1	7 20	.19	19.49	20.3	7 18.2	23 23.	57 24.	15 27	.09 28	.08 2	6.19	26.45	26.70	26.1	9 22.5	7 15.3	3 17.2	3 15.4	1 15.7	0 18.1	4 15.5	51 15.5	7 16.0	3 9.8	4										
28 C. gapperi	20	29 2	0.06	18.84	20.2	8 20	.29 2	20.09	19.6	8 20.3	30 22.	43 20.	61 26	.78 28	.01 2	1.79	22.00	22.27	22.3	1 21.3	8 15.0	3 16.1	2 15.1	1 15.0	4 18.2	21 15.2	21 15.3	32 15.5	2 8.4	0 9.64										
29 Arvicola terrestris	32	.60 3	2.95	33.98	32.6	5 33	.24	32.92	33.6	3 34.7	77 35.	68 34.	06 41	.18 43	.56 3	8.99	39.44	38.92	38.7	8 45.54	4 38.3	39.4	2 37.5	3 40.3	3 40.9	7 40.6	52 37.	78 38.5	9 39.3	4 38.2	7 36.1	19								
30 Microtus gregalis	40	.93 3	9.91	38.71	40.2	3 39	.91 4	41.31	41.1	2 41.2	23 39.	52 37.	77 52	.98 55	.59 4	8.08	48.71	48.75	48.4	7 48.43	3 43.6	43.7	2 42.2	8 44.9	0 47.6	2 44.5	6 44.9	46.4	6 42.1	4 44.1	9 44.9	98 56.0	8							
31 Microtus clarkei 103	32	.80 3	1.95	34.25	31.9	4 31	.95	31.10	32.8	8 32.7	76 33.	61 31.	71 41	.98 41	.63 3	4.69	35.08	34.69	34.6	34.52	2 31.2	1 31.1	5 29.3	4 31.5	2 30.8	31.7	79 33.2	27 31.4	7 32.4	5 36.7	0 34.8	33 44.2	1 36.2	29						
32 Ellobius fuscocapill	39	.56 3	8.91	40.99	38.5	7 38	.91	39.22	38.4	4 43.0)3 41.	71 38.	66 43	.00 42	.90 3	9.38	40.49	39.70	40.8	0 40.20	0 40.4	4 44.1	0 43.4	4 40.2	5 44.8	86 41.1	9 41.	4 46.5	0 43.0	5 45.4	5 42.6	55 53.2	2 61.6	50 54.8	88					
33 Myopus schisticolor	49	47 4	9.88	54.41	50.1	9 49	.88 4	48.87	50.8	6 52.4	12 52.	02 50.	08 57	.32 58	.48 5	8.72	59.17	58.72	57.8	7 62.99	9 48.5	4 51.1	1 47.5	7 49.5	5 48.1	5 50.5	52 49.7	73 51.9	6 54.2	9 59.3	8 58.1	15 64.0	7 63.8	39 56.2	7 69.7	72				
34 Phenacomys intermedi	30	.52 3	0.87	28.71	31.1	6 30	.87	30.27	31.5	5 32.0	0 29.	17 29.	22 39	.79 42	.52 3	3.46	33.85	33.46	34.4	4 37.7	1 32.7	2 35.8	3 34.4	2 34.0	8 33.6	7 34.9	3 31.3	34.1	1 34.9	5 35.9	8 38.1	11 42.3	5 41.3	31 41.6	4 46.2	20 54.9	6			
35 Ondatra zibethicus	26	.84 2	7.67	28.41	27.4	0 27	.67 2	27.13	28.5	0 28.3	36 34.	58 32.	70 32	.58 34	.46 3	3.31	33.67	33.32	32.7	1 33.30	0 32.2	34.1	8 32.0	1 34.4	6 34.5	55 34.1	7 33.9	7 32.7	6 32.1	4 33.0	6 33.1	19 34.6	7 42.9	92 38.5	4 50.2	22 50.2	20 37.3	3		
36 Volemys kikuchii	27	.81 2	7.01	29.87	27.2	6 27	.01 2	26.71	27.8	3 31.2	20 29.	25 27.	72 36	.63 39	.17 3	3.47	33.85	34.06	33.9	7 31.63	3 27.9	3 27.8	2 28.2	3 27.3	3 26.6	55 28.1	0 28.2	21 29.6	5 28.6	1 30.8	0 30.0)2 37.0	0 30.1	17 18.7	4 47.3	39 50.6	35.0	3 33.1	5	
37 Synaptomys borealis	43	.53 4	3.97	42.28	43.6	0 43	.97	12.87	44.5	9 42.7	78 44.	47 43.	13 45	.34 46	.88 4	9.69	50.37	50.38	49.3	9 42.34	4 39.0	7 39.1	7 40.2	1 39.5	8 38.7	1 40.5	52 37.4	48 40.6	1 40.5	3 42.4	5 39.9	92 47.0	8 55.4	48 43.6	52 55.6	52 40.2	2 35.4	7 35.6	1 36.5	4

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