# Model-based approach to test hard polytomies in the Eulaemus clade of the most diverse South American lizard genus Liolaemus (Liolaemini, Squamata) 

MELISA OLAVE ${ }^{1 *}$, LUCIANO J. AVILA ${ }^{1}$, JACK W. SITES Jr ${ }^{2}$ and MARIANA MORANDO ${ }^{1}$<br>${ }^{1}$ Centro Nacional Patagónico - Consejo Nacional de Investigaciones Científicas y Técnicas<br>(CENPAT-CONICET), Boulevard Almirante Brown 2915, ZC: U9120ACD, Puerto Madryn, Argentina<br>${ }^{2}$ Department of Biology and M. L. Bean Life Science Museum, LSB, Brigham Young University, ZC: 84602, Provo, UT, USA

Received 23 June 2014; revised 3 November 2014; accepted for publication 7 November 2014


#### Abstract

Lack of resolution in a phylogenetic tree is usually represented as a polytomy, and often adding more data (loci and taxa) resolves the species tree. These are the 'soft' polytomies, but in other cases additional data fail to resolve relationships; these are the 'hard' polytomies. This latter case is often interpreted as a simultaneous radiation of lineages in the history of a clade. Although hard polytomies are difficult to address, model-based approaches provide new tools to test these hypotheses. Here, we used a clade of 144 species of the South American lizard clade Eulaemus to estimate phylogenies using a traditional concatenated matrix and three species tree methods: *BEAST, BEST, and minimizing deep coalescences (MDC). The different species tree methods recovered largely discordant results, but all resolved the same polytomy (e.g. very short internodes amongst lineages and low nodal support in Bayesian methods). We simulated data sets under eight explicit evolutionary models (including hard polytomies), tested these against empirical data (a total of 14 loci), and found support for two polytomies as the most plausible hypothesis for diversification of this clade. We discuss the performance of these methods and their limitations under the challenging scenario of hard polytomies.


© 2015 The Linnean Society of London, Zoological Journal of the Linnean Society, 2015
doi: 10.1111/zoj. 12231
ADDITIONAL KEYWORDS: deep coalescences - incomplete lineage sorting - phylogeny - species trees.

## INTRODUCTION

Estimation of relationships amongst species in an evolutionary context broadly falls within the purview of the discipline of systematics (Knowles \& Kubatko, 2010). Although molecular data predominate in the pursuit of estimating evolutionary histories of species, trees estimated from only a few genes may differ from the species tree (Maddison, 1997; Slowinski \& Page, 1999). Recent coalescent-based approaches have been developed [e.g. *BEAST: Drummond \& Rambaut, 2007; BEST: Liu \& Pearl, 2007; BUCKy: Ané et al., 2007; minimizing deep coalescence (MDC): Maddison \&

[^0]Knowles, 2006; Than \& Nakhleh, 2009; STELLS: Wu, 2012; STEM: Kubatko, Carstens \& Knowles, 2009] to accommodate multilocus data for direct estimates of species trees. These analyses may be computationally challenging, but they overcome the idiosyncrasies of individual gene trees or traditional concatenation of genes into 'super matrices'.

Although multilocus phylogenetic studies have increased during the last decade, elucidating the evolutionary history of some relationships remains difficult. Lack of resolution in a phylogenetic tree is usually represented as a polytomy, and although adding more data (loci and taxa) may resolve the species tree in cases of 'soft' polytomies, there are other cases of 'hard' polytomies that cannot be resolved with more data. These hard polytomies identify origins of three or more
branches diverging so closely together in time that few or no derived character states have evolved that clearly signal their order of appearance. In particular cases of rapid simultaneous radiations, additional data will not resolve the polytomies (McCracken \& Sorenson, 2005).

In cases of hard polytomies with sufficient time for speciation to be accompanied by postradiation character divergence, individual gene trees may be well resolved but they are expected to show high incongruence with each other because of their independent allelic genealogies and patterns of inheritance and segregation. For example, if we consider three lineages (sp. 1 , sp. 2, and sp. 3) sharing a most recent common ancestor (MRCA), then three different resolved topologies are possible: ((sp. $1+\mathrm{sp} .2)+\mathrm{sp} .3)$, ( $\mathrm{sp} .1+\mathrm{sp}$. $3)+\mathrm{sp} .2)$, and ((sp. $2+\mathrm{sp} .3)+\mathrm{sp} .1)$; and it is expected that, under selective neutrality, $\sim 33 \%$ of gene trees from independent, polymorphic loci should support each of the three topologies (McCracken \& Sorenson, 2005). Individual gene trees may therefore be fully resolved and well supported, and yet provide no signal of a hard polytomy.

Phylogenetic inference for clades characterized by simultaneous rapid radiations is challenging. Leaché \& Rannala (2011) tested the performance of different species tree methods (BEST, BUCKy, and STEM) and traditional concatenated analyses (Bayesian and Maximum Parsimony) given different evolutionary scenarios. They found that under challenging scenarios [short internodes $(\tau)$ and large population size $\left(\mathrm{N}_{\mathrm{e}}\right)$ ] every method showed low accuracy in recovering the real phylogeny. Thus, given that a hard polytomy fits in a challenging scenario ( $\tau$ tends to zero), gene tree incongruence owing to stochastic lineage sorting is likely to confound resolution of the species phylogeny (Whitfield \& Lockhart, 2007), and different methods are likely to recover different phylogenies.

Some phylogenetic and phylogeographical studies have been based on explicit models of species or population divergence, in which data were simulated under alternative scenarios and statistically compared with real data (e.g. Steele \& Storfer, 2006; Carstens \& Richards, 2007; Knowles, Carstens \& Keat, 2007; Richards, Carstens \& Knowles, 2007; Audzijonyte \& Vrijenhoek, 2010). Model-based approaches can accommodate complex evolutionary histories involving combinations of processes (e.g. population divergence, admixture, changes in $N_{e}$, and stochastic sorting of gene trees) and any number of populations and samples, while also offering a framework for comparing alternative species trees, estimating parameters, and computing bias and precision measures for any given scenario (e.g. Voight et al., 2005; Fagundes et al., 2007; Cornuet et al., 2008; Gray, Huang \& Knowles, 2008; Carnaval et al., 2009; Hickerson et al., 2010; Muster
et al., 2009). Despite these advantages of using an explicit model and its flexibility for estimating the evolutionary history of poorly known clades, this approach has not been used to test hard polytomies. In this paper we describe a model-based approach to test support for hard polytomies in the evolution of a speciesrich clade of South American lizards of the genus Liolaemus.

The Eulaemus clade is a subgenus within the genus Liolaemus, and includes 144 recognized species (those described until the beginning of January 2013). Multiple studies have consistently recovered two large clades within Eulaemus, including the lineomaculatus and montanus sections (Schulte et al., 2000; Morando et al., 2004; Avila, Morando \& Sites, 2006; Abdala, 2007; Fontanella et al., 2012). However, at more recent levels of divergence, there is discordance between hypotheses of phylogenetic relationships amongst the main clades within the montanus section ( 122 species). There is general consensus amongst taxonomists in the recognition of the following main clades within Eulaemus (Box 1): the lineomaculatus section (Schulte et al., 2000; 21 species); and several montanus section clades, including: the anomalus group (Abdala, 2007; seven species); the montanus group (Etheridge, 1993; 59 species); the wiegmannii group (Etheridge, 1995; 12 species); the darwinii group (Etheridge, 1993; 20 species); and the melanops series (Fontanella et al., 2012; goestchi group + telsen group, currently 24 species). As our focus here was on resolving relationships amongst the main clades within Eulaemus, we included some species from all of these groups, and for some of these we sampled most or all described species: the

Box 1. List of main recognized groups within the Eulaemus subgenus, following Etheridge (1993, 1995); Schulte et al. (2000); Avila et al. (2006); Abdala (2007); Lobo et al. (2010); Fontanella et al. (2012); Breitman et al. (2011, 2012, 2013)

## Liolaemus

Eulaemus subgenus (144 species)
lineomaculatus section (21 species)
montanus section ( 122 species)
anomalus group (seven species)
montanus group (59 species)
wiegmannii group (12 species)
darwinii group ( 20 species)
melanops series [= goestchi group + telsen group
(Abdala, 2007); 24 species]
boulengeri complex (five species)
donosobarrosi group (five species)
fitzingerii group (nine species)
rothi complex (five species)
lineomaculatus section and the melanops series (boulengeri complex + rothi complex + donosobarrosi group + fitzingerii group; Avila et al., 2006), and for others we included only some representative species: anomalus group (three species), wiegmannii group (seven species), darwinii group (seven species), and montanus group (seven species); and several candidate species.

Most recently, Fontanella et al. (2012) published a phylogenetic tree showing patterns of short internodes and unresolved relationships amongst some of the main clades listed above. Although these authors did not mention a hard polytomy as one possible explanation for their short internodes, this is certainly a viable hypothesis. The fact that this alternative has not been formally proposed makes the genus Liolaemus an ideal clade for statistical tests of a simultaneous radiation of lineages. In this study we employed a total of 14 loci to estimate phylogenies using a traditional concatenated matrix, as well as three species tree methods (*BEAST, BEST, and MDC), and tested eight explicit evolutionary models (including hard polytomies models) against empirical data, in order to explain Eulaemus evolution history. We discuss the performance of the methods employed and their limitations under this challenging scenario.

## MATERIAL AND METHODS

## Field sampling and lab work

We included samples used in the taxonomically focused study of Olave et al. (2014), which presents the most densely sampled molecular phylogeny of the Eulaemus clade currently available, in terms of taxa and loci. Olave et al. (2014) focused on the relationships at the species level using species tree methods, whereas here we focused on relationships amongst the main groups by testing explicit alternative models. We included a total of 188 terminals of the subgenera Eulaemus and Liolaemus (sensu stricto), sampled mostly from Argentina, but with a small number from Chile and Brazil. Our ingroup included one to three individuals from 108 described species and 34 candidate species (as defined by Morando, Avila \& Sites, 2003) of Eulaemus. We used two species of Liolaemus sensu stricto as outgroups: L. petrophilus and L. bibronii.

We included two mitochondrial loci, four anonymous nuclear loci and eight nuclear protein-coding loci, giving a total of 14 loci.

## PhYLOGENETIC ANALYSES

We explored the phylogenetic signal of the 14 loci included in the analyses with two different methods. We used a likelihood-mapping algorithm (Strimmer \& Von Haeseler, 1997) included in the TREE-PUZZLE software (Schmidt et al., 2002), which has been suggested
(Whitfield \& Lockhart, 2007) as a useful method to evaluate phylogenetic signal in sequence data. We also performed a statistical test developed by Xia et al. (2003), as implemented in the DAMBE software (Xia \& Xia, 2001), to explore locus informativeness. This method estimates the probability of locus saturation and gives two index values (Iss and Iss.c); when Iss < Iss.c the locus is considered to have phylogenetic signal and thus to be informative for phylogenetic analyses.

We estimated individual gene trees and a concatenated matrix phylogeny using MrBayes v. 3.2 (Ronquist \& Huelsenbeck, 2003), and then estimated species trees using three different approaches: MDC using the dynamic programming algorithm implemented in the PhyloNet package (Than \& Nakhleh, 2010); *BEAST 1.6.2 (Drummond \& Rambaut, 2007); and BEST 2.3.1 (Liu \& Pearl, 2007). Some analyses of our full matrix ( 188 terminals, 14 loci) failed to converge (see Method performance and limitations section below); we therefore only ran the full matrix using traditional concatenated and MDC species tree approaches, and we ran Bayesian species tree estimation methods (i.e. *BEAST and BEST) using a reduced matrix. Based on results of the full matrix analyses, we selected representatives [two species, two individuals per species (Camargo et al., 2012)] from each well-supported clade, and implemented *BEAST and BEST analyses on this submatrix ( 40 individuals representing 20 species). Note that we did not assume the monophyly of each main clade a priori, but we tested for this using concatenated and MDC approaches.

## Gene trees

We conducted Bayesian analyses with four independent runs and two chains per run for $10 \times 10^{6}$ generations of Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) and sampled at intervals of 1000 generations with a burnin of the first $25 \%$ generations for each gene alignment. These gene trees were used as the input files to perform MDC analyses.

## Eulaemus phylogeny

We ran a Bayesian analysis in MrBayes v. 3.2 with the concatenated matrix ( 14 loci, 188 taxa, 8808 bp ) for $10 \times 10^{6}$ generations of MCMC with two independent runs and four chains per run, sampling every 1000 generations with a burn-in of the first $25 \%$ generations. After we performed independent runs for each gene tree (Gene trees), we conducted a MDC analysis with this same matrix.

## Eulaemus clade relationships

Representatives of the main clades were selected from the MDC and concatenated matrices results (188 taxa, 14 loci). We selected two individuals per species, two species per group/complex (for a total of

40 terminals) as follows: (1) the L. lineomaculatus section $=$ L. magellanicus, L. baguali; (2) L. wiegmannii group $=$ L. multimaculatus, L. wiegmannii; (3) L. darwinii group $=$ L. ornatus, L. grosseorum; (4) L. anomalus group $=$ L. lentus, L. pseudoanomalus; (5) L. montanus group $=$ L. andinus, L. famatinae; (6) L. rothi complex $=$ L. rothi, L. sagei; (7) L. boulengeri complex $=L$. boulengeri, L. senguer; (8) L. fitzingerii group = L. canqueli, L. melanops; (9) L. donosobarrosi group $=L$. puelche, L. donosobarrosi; and the outgroup $=L$. petrophilus, L. bibronii. We ran *BEAST for $500 \times 10^{6}$ generations of MCMC and sampled at intervals of 50000 generations (burn-in 10\%), using 14 loci. We also ran BEST to estimate a species tree using this matrix. We could not obtain high effective sample size (ESS) values in multiple runs with the full data set and different $\theta$ values ( $=0.3653$, calculated from data following BEST 2.3 Manual; and $=0.3 ;=0.03 ;=0.003$; following Leaché \& Rannala, 2011; see Method performance and limitations section below). However, we did obtain good ESS values (>200) using only nuclear genes ( 12 loci) and four independent runs with two chains per run, $65.5 \times 10^{6}$ generations MCMC, sampling every 1000 generations, $\theta=0.3$, $\alpha=3$, and burn-in $10 \%$. For both Bayesian species tree methods (*BEAST and BEST) we specified 12 S and cytochrome $b$ (cyt-b) sequences as mitochondrial genes, as well as autosomal and diploid for all nuclear genes.

## DIVERGENCE TIMES AND SUBSTITUTION RATES ESTIMATIONS

We obtained a mutation rate for each locus using the Eulaemus 'main clades' submatrix and divergence times of each lineage. Following Breitman et al. (2011) and Fontanella et al. (2012), we calibrated the Eulaemus clade using a fossil (Albino, 2008) dated at 20 Mya , to date the divergence between $L$. (sensu stricto) and Eulaemus, using a lognormal distribution and a standard deviation of 0.13 (24.56-16.01) following the recommendation of Ho (2007). This analysis also estimates the substitution rate of each locus.

## Model-Based approach and hypothesis testing

We took phylogenetic hypotheses previously proposed to explain Eulaemus evolution (Fig. 1) and used them as models to statistically test the fit of the data against
the probability distribution of expected deep coalescence generated by simulated gene trees given each particular model's parameters (Fig. 2). In this context, each of the phylogenetic hypotheses represents a model, and use of this word throughout the paper refers to the set of parameters that comprise a particular hypothesis (i.e. branch length, the topology of a particular phylogenetic tree, and the evolution model for each locus). Thus, eight different models of Eulaemus relationships (Fig. 1) were constructed to test alternative hypotheses for diversification histories for this clade. Five of these models were based on published hypotheses: (1) Fontanella et al. (2012) (two mtDNA gene regions + two nuclear loci, 2153 bp ); (2 and 3) Abdala (2007) [morphology (128 characters) and morphology + mtDNA (1776 bp)]; (4) Avila et al. (2006) [three mtDNA gene regions + two nuclear loci, 3287 bp$]$; and (5) Schulte et al. (2000) (a mitochondrial region of 11 fragments, 1710 bp ). We also constructed a model (6) based on the *BEAST results obtained here; and then (7) an hypothesis of one hard polytomy (involving all main clades of the montanus section), and (8) an hypothesis of two hard polytomies. The oldest of these two hard polytomies includes the anomalus, darwinii, montanus, and wiegmannii groups, and melanops series main clades, and the younger radiation is within the melanops series and includes the boulengeri, rothi, and donosobarrosi complexes and the fitzingerii group main clades (Fig. 1).

Models 6 to 8 included lineage divergence times obtained using BEAST (results in Divergence times and rates of evolution). Hard polytomies are dated from nodes where clades coalesce. We used 13 loci in this part of the analysis, including only one mitochondrial (12S) and the 12 nuclear loci (only independent loci are valid for these analyses). We selected the 12 S fragment because saturation was detected for cyt-b; although it was corrected for in all phylogenetic analyses by removing the third base position (Results), it was more appropriate to work with 12 S for these analyses. Procedures of modelling and hypothesis testing are illustrated in Figure 2.

We used MESQUITE 2.74 (Maddison \& Maddison, 2010) to simulate 1000 gene trees for each of the eight models (phylogenetic hypotheses) proposed in Figure 1. These simulated gene trees are those expected based on all the model parameters (Fig. 2, step 1), and were constructed for each of the 13 loci from their respective character evolution models (Table 1).

Figure 1. Models of relationships. Alternative hypotheses tested in this study; the one and two rapid radiation models and the *BEAST topology from this study are also time-calibrated (Divergence times and rates of evolution). Five models were based on previously published topologies: Fontanella et al. (2012) (two mitochondrial loci + two nuclear loci, 2153 bp ); Abdala (2007) [morphology (128 characters) and morphology + mtDNA (1776 bp)]; Avila et al. (2006) (three mitochondrial loci + two nuclear loci, 3287 bp ); and Schulte et al. (2000) (mtDNA, 1710 bp ).


Figure 2. Description of hypothesis-testing procedures. Models were constructed in MESQUITE v. 2.74 and simulations of 1000 gene trees were generated for each of the 13 loci for each of the eight models (step 1). We then compared the simulated trees for each locus against the corresponding model in order to obtain
 tree within the model and obtained the probability of observing that value given the model (step 3). If the empirical data fell outside the $95 \%$ confidence interval, then the hypothesized number of deep coalescence events for that gene tree (real data) is not expected under the specified model, thus rejecting that hypothesis.
Table 1. Summary of matrices used. Models of evolution were selected by the corrected Akaike information criterion

| Matrix | Total <br> length <br> (bp) | $N$ | Mitochondrial loci |  | ANL |  |  |  | NPCL |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | cyt-b | 12S | A1D | A4B | A9C | A12D | CMOS | DNAH3 | EXPH5 | KIF24 | MXRA5 | PNN | PRLR | SNCAIP |
| Full matrices | 8808 | 188 | 528 bp (1st and 2nd codon position) GTR + I + G | $\begin{aligned} & 810 \mathrm{bp} \\ & \mathrm{SYM}+\mathrm{G} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 749 \mathrm{bp} \\ & \mathrm{HKY}+\mathrm{G} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 759 \mathrm{bp} \\ & \mathrm{~K} 80+\mathrm{G} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 411 \mathrm{bp} \\ & \mathrm{~K} 80+\mathrm{G} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 411 \mathrm{bp} \\ & \mathrm{HKY}+\mathrm{G} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 481 \mathrm{bp} \\ & \text { HKY + } \\ & \mathrm{I}+\mathrm{G} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 639 \mathrm{bp} \\ & \text { HKY + } \\ & \mathrm{I}+\mathrm{G} \end{aligned}$ | 811 bp $\mathrm{HKY}+\mathrm{G}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 470 \mathrm{bp} \\ & \mathrm{~K} 80+\mathrm{G} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 827 \mathrm{bp} \\ & \mathrm{HKY}+\mathrm{G} \end{aligned}$ | 887 bp HKY + I + G | $\begin{aligned} & 431 \mathrm{bp} \\ & \text { JC } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 417 \mathrm{bp} \\ & \mathrm{JC}+\mathrm{G} \end{aligned}$ |
| Eulaemus large groups phylogeny | 9409 | 40 | 528 bp (1st and 2nd codon position) GTR + I + G | $\begin{gathered} 820 \mathrm{bp} \\ \text { GTR + } \\ \mathrm{I}+\mathrm{G} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 777 \mathrm{bp} \\ & \text { HKY + G } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 496 \mathrm{bp} \\ & \mathrm{HKY}+\mathrm{G} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 759 \mathrm{bp} \\ & \text { HKY + I } \end{aligned}$ | 803 bp HKY + I + G | 531 bp HKY + <br> I + G | $\begin{aligned} & 536 \mathrm{bp} \\ & \mathrm{HKY}+\mathrm{G} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 902 \mathrm{bp} \\ & \mathrm{HKY}+\mathrm{G} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 536 \mathrm{bp} \\ & \text { HKY + G } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 849 \mathrm{bp} \\ & \text { HKY + I } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 903 \mathrm{bp} \\ & \text { GTR + G } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 502 \mathrm{bp} \\ & \mathrm{HKY}+\mathrm{G} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 468 \mathrm{bp} \\ & \mathrm{HKY}+\mathrm{G} \end{aligned}$ |

ANL, anonymous nuclear loci; cyt-b, cytochrome $b$; NPCL, nuclear protein-coding loci.

We then compared the 1000 simulated trees for each locus against the corresponding model in order to obtain an approximation of a probability distribution of expected deep coalescence events (Fig. 2, step 2). Deep coalescences represent the source of discord between gene trees and the species tree when the common ancestry of a gene copy at a single locus extends deeper than speciation events. Deep coalescences is calculated as the number of extra lineages by counting the discrete number of differences once the gene tree has been fitted onto the species tree (Maddison, 1997). We compared the number of deep coalescence events of the observed tree (real data) against the probability distribution of deep coalescent events. If the empirical data fell outside of the $95 \%$ confidence interval, then the hypothesized number of deep coalescence events for that gene tree (real data) is not expected under the specified model, thus rejecting that hypothesis (Fig. 2, step 3). Full and didactic tutorials to perform these analyses are explained on the webpage http://mesquiteproject.org.

## RESULTS

Details of the data matrices and evolution models used in this study are shown in Table 1. Both methods employed revealed that the gene regions used in this study were phylogenetically informative. TREE-PUZZLE results showed that between 65.2 and $93.6 \%$ of each locus support the 'tree-likeness' (a well-resolved tree), indicating good phylogenetic signal in our data set. Saturation and phylogenetic signal tests both returned $P$-values $<0.05$, as well as Iss < Iss.c, also indicating no saturation and phylogenetic signal for each locus. The single exception is cyt-b, which is saturated ( $P>0.05$ ), so we excluded the third base position in all phylogenetic analyses.

In all individual gene tree analyses (not shown) we observed many instances of paraphyly amongst the main clades of Eulaemus, with the exception of the lineomaculatus section, which was recovered as the sister clade of all other Eulaemus clades in almost all individual gene trees.

## The Eulaemus phylogeny (full matrix)

We recovered nine main clades using both concatenated and MDC analyses (Fig. 3A, B; main clade names: anomalus group, boulengeri complex, darwinii group, donosobarrosi complex, fitzingerii complex, lineomaculatus section, montanus group, rothi complex, wiegmannii group), but relationships amongst these main clades are discordant between methods.
$\mathbb{C} .0 n c a t e n a t e d ~ a n a l y s i s ~(F i g . ~ 3 A) . ~ T h e ~ M r B a y e s ~ a n a l y-~$ sis of the complete concatenated matrix (188 taxa,

14 loci) recovered all of the traditionally recognized main Eulaemus groups with high posterior probabilities ( $\mathrm{PP}=1$ ). The lineomaculatus section was recovered as sister clade of the montanus section. The montanus section had the following topology: (montanus group + (anomalus group + wiegmannii group)), and its sister clade was resolved as (darwinii group + (rothi complex, boulengeri complex + (donosobarrosi group + fitzingerii group))). Almost all of these relationships were well supported ( $\mathrm{PP}>0.95$ ) with the exception of the unresolved positions of the rothi and boulengeri complexes ( $\mathrm{PP}=0.77$ ). MDC (Fig. 3B). Our MDC analysis was also based on the complete data set, and although it recovered the main traditional groups of Eulaemus as clades, the majority of relationships amongst these clades are different from those recovered with the concatenation approach. We again recovered the lineomaculatus section as the sister group to all other clades; the anomalus group was still recovered as the sister clade of the wiegmannii group, and this clade is sister to a larger clade with the following topology: ((donosobarrosi group + fitzingerii group $)+(($ darwinii group + rothi complex) $+($ montanus group + boulengeri complex))$)$.

## EULAEMUS PHYLOGENY

Using a reduced matrix of 40 taxa and 14 loci, the main clades were recovered as monophyletic using every method. However, with the exception of the lineomaculatus section, which was recovered as sister clade of the montanus section under every method, we found strong discordances amongst phylogenetic estimates of the main clades.

1. Our *BEAST analysis (Fig. 3C) recovered all of the main groups as monophyletic and with high statistical support ( $\mathrm{PP}=1$ ), except for the boulengeri complex and donosobarrosi group, which had no support. We again recovered the $L$. lineomaculatus section $(P P=1)$ as the sister clade to the $L$. montanus section ( $\mathrm{PP}=1$ ), with strong support $(\mathrm{PP}=1)$. Within the montanus section, we recovered the melanops series (rothi complex + boulengeri complex + fitzingerii group + donosobarrosi group) as a well-supported clade, but relationships amongst these are not resolved ( $\mathrm{PP}<0.47$ ), and monophyly is strongly supported only for the fitzingerii group and the rothi complex. The wiegmannii, darwinii, anomalus, and montanus groups are strongly supported as monophyletic, but relationships between these and the melanops series are not resolved ( $\mathrm{PP}<0.75$ ).
A Concatenated matrix


Figure 3. Empirical Eulaemus phylogenetic hypotheses. Phylogenetic results using the full matrix of 188 taxa (A, B) and a reduced set of 40 taxa chosen to subsample the largest clades ( C to F ). A, topology recovered from the concatenated matrix; B, species tree recovered by the minimizing deep coalescence (MDC) approach; C, *BEAST results of partial matrix with representatives of largest clades; values on branches are estimated divergences times (upper) and posterior probability values estimated (lower) or separated by a slash; bold branches represent nodal support>0.90; D, BEST result; E, MDC result of partial matrix; and F, partial concatenated matrix. In (A), (D), and (F) nodes with support < 0.90 were collapsed. The calibration point for estimation of divergence times is shown with a white circle in the node corresponding to the divergence of the Eulaemus and Liolaemus clades.
2. BEST (Fig. 3D). The species tree based on 12 nuclear loci obtained with BEST is highly concordant with the one obtained using *BEAST with 14 loci (including the two mitochondrial loci). We recovered the same pattern of strongly supported main clades and the lineomaculatus section as the sister clade to all others, which were unresolved.
3. MDC (Fig. 3E). The lineomaculatus section is consistently recovered as the sister clade to all others in the Eulaemus clade. The montanus group is recovered in a basal position within the montanus section, and the anomalus group was recovered as sister of [((darwinii group + (donosobarrosi group + fitzingerii group $))+(($ boulengeri complex + (rothi complex + wiegmannii group))]. This topology differs from the tree recovered by the MDC analysis of the complete data set (Fig. 3B).
4. Concatenated analysis (Fig. 3F). These results are concordant with the *BEAST and BEST trees (Fig. 3C, D), but here we recovered full resolution and higher support values for clades within the melanops series ( $\mathrm{PP}=1$ in all cases). We obtained similar no- to low-support values for relationships amongst the wiegmannii, darwinii, anomalus, and montanus groups plus the melanops series.

## Divergence times and rates of evolution

Our time-calibrated BEAST analyses for representatives of the Eulaemus clade (Fig. 3C) estimated a divergence time for the subgenera Eulaemus and Liolaemus at 19.63 Mya, and for the L. lineomaculatus clade at 15.23 Mya (11.63-19.33). We estimated that the L. wiegmannii group diverged at 10.14 Mya (7.1713.3), and after this event we detected very short internodes (short times for speciation) for the rest of the groups. For example, the L. anomalus and L. darwinii groups diverged in less than 0.5 million years later [9.43 Mya (6.73-12.49)]. One and a half million years later the montanus group diverged [7.91 Mya (5.4-10.57)], and after 2.5 million years [5.48 Mya (2.19-4.79)] the melanops series lineages separated. This pattern of rapid speciation was also found within the melanops series. The mutation rates obtained for each locus are presented in Table 2.

## MODEL-BASED APPROACH AND HYPOTHESIS TESTING

The results of hypothesis testing are shown in Figure 4, and although there is some evidence to support each hypothesis, the 'two hard polytomies' model is best supported by the largest data set (nine loci). This hypothesis is the most likely one to explain Eulaemus evolution, followed by the one hard polytomy hypothesis (eight loci). Seven loci support the topology proposed by Schulte et al. (2000) and the *BEAST topology

Table 2. Mutation rates estimates for each locus in site per million years ( $\mathrm{s} / \mathrm{Myr}$ ). Right column shows mean, followed by the SD, and below the highest probability density (HPD) of $95 \%$

| Locus | Mutation rate $(\mathrm{s} / \mathrm{Myr})$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| cyt-b | $0.019355( \pm 0.000034639)$ |
|  | HPD: $0.013099-0.0263359$ |
| 12 S | $0.006339( \pm 0.0000095782)$ |
|  | HPD: $0.0042601-0.0084861$ |
| CMOS | $0.00079215( \pm 0.0000025418)$ |
|  | HPD: $0.00052709-0.0012697$ |
| DNAH3 | $0.00076162( \pm 0.0000023663)$ |
|  | HPD: $0.0004473-0.0010827$ |
| EXPH5 | $0.0012955( \pm 0.000002806)$ |
|  | HPD: $0.00085449-0.0017507$ |
| KIF24 | $0.0019021( \pm 0.0000035705)$ |
|  | HPD: $0.0012063-0.0025878$ |
| A12D | $0.0026373( \pm 0.0000061488)$ |
|  | HPD: $0.0015289-0.0038698$ |
| A1D | $0.001765( \pm 0.00000377775)$ |
|  | HPD: $0.0010673-0.0025142$ |
| A4B | $0.0035965( \pm 0.000012311)$ |
|  | HPD: $0.001806-0.0059404$ |
| A9C | $0.0017753( \pm 0.0000032789)$ |
|  | HPD: $0.001967-0.0024185$ |
| MXRA5 | $0.00077525( \pm 0.0000023498)$ |
|  | HPD: $0.000488-0.0010812$ |
| PNN | $0.00081714( \pm 0.000002345)$ |
|  | HPD: $0.00052669-0.001122$ |
| PRLR | $0.00132228\left( \pm 2.9225 \times 10^{-6}\right)$ |
|  | HPD: $0.00085565-0.0018254$ |
| SNCAIP | $0.0010351\left( \pm 2.6589 \times 10^{-6}\right)$ |
|  | HPD: $0.00063883-0.0014966$ |

cyt-b, cytochrome $b$.
from this study. We also found that six loci supported the Avila et al. (2006) hypothesis, five loci supported both the Fontanella et al. (2012) and the mtDNA + morphology topology of Abdala (2007), and four loci supported the morphology-only hypothesis of Abdala (2007).

These results suggest that two hard polytomies is the most likely scenario to describe Eulaemus evolution. The pattern with partial support for all of the different proposed phylogenetic hypotheses is also expected under a hard polytomy scenario (McCracken \& Sorenson, 2005).

## DISCUSSION <br> EULAEMUS PHYLOGENY

Here we used four different methods representing different conceptual approaches to reconstruct phylogenies


Figure 4. Simulation results. Total number of loci supporting each model after comparisons of the data against 1000 simulated data sets for each locus for each model, and compared with data. We compared the 1000 simulated trees against the model and obtained an approximation of a probability distribution of the deep coalescences expected, and then compared the number of deep coalescences on the observed tree (real data) against the probability distribution. Here, we the show number of loci that fell within the $95 \%$ confidence intervals of those probability distributions.
of the subgenus Eulaemus. First, we used a complete matrix of 188 terminals and 14 loci (MDC and concatenated analyses), and then selected representatives of the main clades for which we implemented two Bayesian species tree methods (*BEAST and BEST). All of our analyses strongly support the lineomaculatus section as the sister clade of the montanus section (Fig. 3A-F). We also recovered identical main clades within the montanus section with all four methods, with the exception of the paraphyletic melanops series' groups in the MDC analysis (Fig. 3E), but these were recovered as monophyletic in the MDC and the concatenated analysis for the full matrix (Fig. 3A, B). However, we did not fully resolve rela-
tionships amongst these main clades owing to short, weakly supported internodes, and the same was true for relationships amongst the main clades within the montanus section (Fig. 3A, C).

Previously published phylogenetic studies of the genus Liolaemus show extensive topological incongruence (e.g. Etheridge, 1995, 2000; Schulte et al., 2000; Espinoza, Wiens \& Tracy, 2004; Avila et al., 2006; Abdala, 2007; Fontanella et al., 2012), with few shared strongly supported hypotheses; thus, no consensus has been reached. In this most inclusive study to date, we did not recover a strongly supported and fully resolved phylogeny, and we represent the uncertain relationships as polytomies. Although these polytomies may be re-
solved by adding more data, they may also indicate rapid radiations amongst some clades. However, before arriving at this conclusion, we need to consider that poor branch support can also be the result of: (1) insufficiently informative data; (2) data sets that strongly conflict with one another; (3) inappropriate phylogenetic methods and substitution models; or (4) insufficient data to resolve short branches (Whitfield \& Lockhart, 2007).

To address point 1, we explored the informativeness of our data set using likelihood-mapping as well as saturation tests and phylogenetic signal index calculations. These analyses showed that all of the 13 loci included in our empirical analyses and simulations are phylogenetically informative, and although it was not possible to resolve the relationships amongst the main clades within the montanus section, our data are informative enough to resolve the oldest divergence (between the montanus and lineomaculatus sections), as well as providing high levels of resolution within each main clade (results not shown; see Olave et al., 2014). This suggests that our data set is sufficiently informative to resolve recent and ancient divergences, probably because we included loci with relatively high ( 12 S and cyt-b), intermediate (KIF24, A12D, A1D, A4B, A9C), and low substitution rates (EXPH5, PRLR, SNCAIP, CMOS, DNAH3, MXRA5, PNN; see details in Table 2). In our experience with other lizard clades, some combination of these or similar loci is usually sufficient to recover well-resolved/wellsupported trees (Benavides et al., 2009; Sinclair et al., 2010; Breitman et al., 2011; Camargo et al., 2012; Werneck et al., 2012). Further, Camargo et al. (2012) showed in simulation studies that the accuracy of Bayesian species tree methods is significantly higher when multiple loci of different mutation rates are used. Multiple samples per species are also necessary for successful estimation of species trees in *BEAST and although we had to reduce the number of samples per species, simulation studies show that even two samples per species are sufficient given enough loci (Heled \& Drummond, 2010).

To minimize the effects of points 2 (conflicts in data) and 3 (inappropriate methods), we used three recently developed approaches (*BEAST, BEST, and MDC) that accommodate discordance amongst gene trees to estimate species trees. Finally, to address point 4 (insufficient data) we included the largest molecular data set and the most dense species sampling effort (188 terminals, 14 loci) of any phylogenetic study of this genus.

After considering all of these likely causes of poor phylogenetic reconstruction and still not resolving some polytomies, we performed statistical tests of diversification hypotheses within the montanus section. We tested two models with one and two hard polytomies
(with estimated divergence times of 10.14 and 5.48 Mya , respectively) in the broader context of five models based on different published topologies and a sixth alternative based on our *BEAST results (Fig. 1). We found some support for all these models (Fig. 3), but the strongest support favoured the 'two hard polytomies' model (nine loci), followed by the 'one hard polytomy' model (eight loci). The models based on the Schulte et al. (2000) hypothesis and our *BEAST analysis were supported by seven loci, and the Avila et al. (2006) topology was supported by six loci.

Hard polytomies are recognized by very short internodes for which by chance every descendent lineage has the same probability of receiving one allele (McCracken \& Sorenson, 2005). This implies that when multiple loci are analysed we would expect to find support for different gene tree topologies owing to a stochastic pattern of shared allele sorting amongst lineages. As the length of the internode increases, an increasing proportion of gene trees should become congruent with the species history.

Our tests suggest that two hard polytomies are the most plausible explanation for the history of this clade amongst the eight models evaluated. However, the difference between two and one hard polytomy models is only one locus, and we note that differences probably reflect the uncertainty of a real statistical difference between these results. As the 'two hard polytomies' hypothesis is the most strongly supported, and because we recovered the melanops series as monophyletic in most phylogenetic analyses (Fig. 3A, C, D, F) with a longer average speciation time (7.91-5.48 = 2.33 Mya interval), we accept this model as the best working hypothesis. If rapid simultaneous radiations of lineages is the true history for this clade, then the incongruence amongst previously published studies is expected; all of these studies found some well-supported topological differences amongst the main clades regardless of the method or data set used.

Phylogenetic methods are designed to locate dichotomies in trees, and until recently none was appropriate to search for a shared MRCA amongst three or more lineages. Traditional concatenated analyses also tend to inflate nodal support for dichotomies that may not be real (Belfiore, Liang \& Moritz, 2008), but modelbased approaches now provide new analytical possibilities (Knowles, 2009), and we designed such a test here to shed light on the evolutionary history of the Eulaemus clade. Our results suggest that the most plausible species tree for this clade includes two hard polytomies amongst lineages, and describes two events of rapid radiation of lineages in Eulaemus history. If true, then we predict that neither the inclusion of species not sampled here, nor the increase in the number of informative loci, will resolve these polytomies (Delsuc,

Brinkmann \& Philippe, 2005; Rokas \& Carroll, 2006; Whitfield \& Lockhart, 2007).

## Divergence times and geoclimatic changes

Divergence between the two Liolaemus subgenera (Eulaemus-Liolaemus) is dated to the Early Miocene (19.63 Mya), close to the beginning of the Andean uplift ( $\sim 23$ Mya; Ramos, 1989). Schulte et al. (2000) suggested that this vicariant event promoted divergence between Eulaemus and Liolaemus (sensu stricto). The Andean uplift then may have accelerated, causing a decrease in global temperature and several climate shifts, which probably promoted further diversification, range shifts, and extinctions. Although climatic changes caused the extinction of tropical/subtropical biotas in southern Argentina during this period (Iglesias, Artabe \& Morel, 2011), the Middle Miocene later experienced a short climatic optimum with higher global temperatures (Zachos et al., 2001), which coincides with our divergence estimates for the lineomaculatus and montanus sections ( 15.23 Mya ). Ectothermic species, such as lizards are critically sensitive to their ability to regulate body temperature within a narrow temperature range (Labra, Pienaar \& Hansen, 2009), because their physiological performance is temperature dependent (Angilletta, Niewiarowski \& Navas, 2002). For Liolaemus lizards it has been shown that adaptation of thermal preferences to environmental temperatures may happen rapidly although within a relatively narrow range (Labra et al., 2009). Thus, if the environmental temperature changes rapidly to either too high or too low, most probably this poses a serious threat to the survival of species as has been shown by Sinervo et al. (2010) for very rapid increases in temperature. It is possible that the climatic optimum during the Middle Miocene, may have generated an optimum temperature range for lizards, thus promoting the diversification of the lineomaculatus and montanus sections.
The earliest Eulaemus rapid radiation is dated to the beginning of the Late Miocene (10.14 Mya), a period during which xeric-adapted plants [Asteraceae, Chenopodiaceae, Convolvulaceae, Anacardiaceae (Schinopsis), Goodeniaceae, Cyperaceae, Poaceae, Fabaceae, Caesalpinioideae, and Mimosoideae] also increased in abundance and diversity (Iglesias et al., 2011). The second radiation within the Eulaemus clade is dated to the Miocene-early Pliocene transition at 5.48 Mya. During this time, in addition to strong climatic changes because of glacial cycles, several marine incursions in regions along coastlines, and regional tectonic uplift may have contributed to habitat fragmentation during this period, most probably promoting approximately simultaneous divergences between isolated populations (Rabassa, Coronato \& Salemme, 2005). In south-
ern South America, Miocene-to-Pliocene palaeoclimatic and geological events presumably imposed strong selective forces on the evolutionary histories of the southern temperate-adapted vertebrate fauna (Baez \& ScillatoYané, 1979; Markgraf, McGlone \& Hope, 1995), especially ectothermic species owing to their strong dependence on environmental conditions. This could be the case for Liolaemus lizards, perhaps driving the two rapid radiations during environmental temperature cycles that may have acted jointly with specific thermal adaptations within different clades.

## METHOD PERFORMANCE AND LIMITATIONS

We used four different methods to estimate phylogenetic trees: PHYLONET (MDC approach) and MrBayes (concatenated matrix) with a data set of 188 terminals and 14 loci, and *BEAST and BEST using a subsampled matrix of 40 taxa and 14 loci. We found topological incongruence amongst these methods using the same matrix, as well as between the two MDC analyses based on the full matrix and a second with a reduced number of terminals.

Our BEST analyses failed to converge in some cases. We ran analyses on a reduced matrix ( 40 terminals, 14 loci) using different $\theta$ values ( $0.3653 ; 0.3 ; 0.03 ; 0.003$ ), but failed to obtain MCMC convergence on any of these runs. Many BEST users experience difficulties reaching stationary values when analysing data sets exceeding approximately 50 samples. In some cases, sampling multiple individuals within species is desirable because it increases species tree accuracy (Maddison \& Knowles, 2006; Liu et al., 2008; Heled \& Drummond, 2010; Camargo et al., 2012), but too many samples may hinder the convergence of MCMC analyses. Leaché \& Rannala (2011) also showed that user-specified $\theta$ priors have important influences on convergence, and here we had similar problems but removal of the mitochondrial regions permitted our analyses to reach adequate convergence values. Discordance amongst all gene trees was easily identified by eye, and removing the two most variable regions (cyt-b, 12S) was enough for BEST to accommodate the remaining gene tree incongruences.

By contrast, our *BEAST analyses easily recovered species trees from the smallest matrix ( $=40$ terminals). This program loads multiple loci and runs MCMC to estimate the posterior distribution of the species tree, and generates posterior samples from a similar model to that implemented in the widely used BEST program. Both programs require user-specified a priori individual species associations for all terminals, and errors in these associations have a serious impact on tree topologies. Users should be cautious in making such assessments amongst closely related but poorly delimited species (i.e. species complexes). However,
unlike BEST, *BEAST assumes randomness of the effective population sizes and places a hierarchical prior on them (Kubatko, Gibbs \& Bloomquist, 2011). This allows *BEAST to work better given uncertainties of some priors (such as $\theta$ values). Further, *BEAST samples the gene trees and the species tree simultaneously, whereas BEST employs a two-stage algorithm; it first finds the marginal posterior estimates (PE) of the gene trees, and then uses an importance sampling correction to transform these marginal estimates into joint PEs. Both algorithms have the same analytical goal of estimating a species tree and associated parameters, but in practice, implementation of *BEAST is more computationally efficient than the BEST program (Kubatko et al., 2011). This difference allowed *BEAST to perform better than BEST with our larger data sets: *BEAST could handle 14 loci whereas BEST could not.

However, *BEAST failed to estimate a species tree with 188 terminals and 14 loci. Although this data set should not be too large for the *BEAST algorithm, the large incongruence amongst gene trees combined with the challenging scenario of unresolved polytomies may have confounded the analysis.

The MDC method implements Maddison's (1997) parsimony-based criterion for inferring species trees from gene trees by minimizing the number of extra lineages. The method does not need to specify a priori species associations and the output tree is fully resolved, but it is not yet possible to obtain bootstrap (or other) values of nodal support. The principal advantage of this method is that it runs quickly and can handle large data sets.

Than \& Nakhleh (2009) showed that the accuracy of a species tree inferred from the MDC approach is higher than $80 \%$ when incomplete lineage sorting is low (total depth $=10 \mathrm{~N}_{\mathrm{e}}$ ), and this improves with increasing numbers of individuals and loci. However, in a worse-case scenario (total branch depth $=1 \mathrm{~N}_{\mathrm{e}}$ ), at least three individuals per species and ten loci (or more than nine individuals and three loci) are needed to obtain the same accuracy. Thus, the MDC algorithm probably performed better with the full matrix (Fig. 3B) in our study than with the reduced matrices (Fig. 3E).

Concatenated analyses of independent loci estimate only a single tree (Degnan \& Rosenberg, 2009) by treating the complete matrix as a supergene inherited as a linked block of sequence. By contrast, species trees inference methods take into account genealogical discord rather than forcing loci to conform to a single genealogical history (Hey \& Machado, 2003; Wakeley, 2007; Kuhner, 2008). Here, we used MrBayes for tree construction of the complete concatenated matrix and a submatrix including two representatives of 20 species from the main clades ( 40 terminals, 14 loci). For the case of the full matrix we recovered a well-
resolved tree (Fig. 3B), but we also recovered the same pattern of short internodes amongst the large groups of the montanus section that we recovered in our Bayesian species tree analyses. When we reduced the number of samples and ran the matrix with representatives of the main clades, we did not obtain this level of resolution (Fig. 3F). Apparently, this drastic reduction in the number of terminals reduced phylogenetic signal in the MrBayes analyses, as reflected in lower nodal support. Here, the concatenated tree shows high resolution within the melanops series (Fig. 3F), whereas the *BEAST and BEST analyses do not. Although concatenated data may be useful for a given clade if the species tree does not fall within the 'anomaly zone' of the parameter space (Kubatko \& Degnan, 2007; see Smith, Braun \& Kimball, 2013, for an empirical evaluation), here we have shown that this method does not accommodate conflicting signals amongst our gene trees (Fig. 3A). The Bayesian species tree method accommodates conflicting signals and down-weights support for those nodes, a result previously described by Belfiore et al. (2008).

In general, phylogenetic methods look for dichotomies in trees, and although uncertainty can be estimated with nodal support values, the probability of a hard polytomy is not tested by currently available methods. When a hard polytomy is the real evolutionary history, phylogenetic trees will include short internodes coupled with low nodal support, and conflicting topologies recovered by different methods, even with large and informative data sets. Our study shows all of these signals, and we hypothesize an evolutionary history with two hard polytomies in the Eulaemus radiation.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank F. Breitman, M. Kozykariski, C. Medina, N. Feltrin, C.H.F. Perez, N. Frutos, M. Nicola, R. Martinez, C. Zanotti, S. Reese, and K. Temus for assistance with field collections. We thank A. Camargo for help with the laboratory and data analyses. We also thank other members of the Grupo de Herpetología Patagónica for assistance in animal curation procedures. We thank Laura Vega and Federico Kakoliris for L. multimaculatus samples, and Miguel Trefaut Rodrigues for L. scapularis and L. lutzae samples. Financial support was provided by grants PICT 2006506 ANPCYT-FONCYT (L. J. A.), ANPCYT-FONCYT 33789 (M. M.), and a doctoral fellowship (M. O.) from Consejo Nacional de Investigaciones Científicas y Técnicas (CONICET), the Brigham Young University Kennedy Center for International Studies, Department of Biology and the M.L. Bean Life Science Museum, and NSF-PIRE award (OISE 0530267) for support of collaborative research on Patagonian
biodiversity granted to the following institutions (listed alphabetically): Brigham Young University, Centro Nacional Patagónico [Argentina (AR)], Dalhousie University, Instituto Botánico Darwinion (AR), Universidad Austral de Chile, Universidad de Concepción, Universidad Nacional del Comahue, Universidad Nacional de Córdoba, and University of Nebraska. We thank Dr Keith Crandall for continuing support. We thank the fauna authorities from Buenos Aires, Chubut, Santa Cruz, Neuquén, Catamarca, Córdoba, Corrientes, Jujuy, La Pampa, La Rioja, Salta, San Juan, San Luis, Tucuman, Mendoza, and Rio Negro provinces for collection permits.

## REFERENCES

Abdala CS. 2007. Phylogeny of the boulengeri group (Iguania: Liolaemidae, Liolaemus). Zootaxa 1538: 1-84.
Albino AM. 2008. Lagartos iguanios del Colhuehuapense (MiocenoTemprano) de Gaiman (provincia del Chubut, Argentina). Ameghiniana 45: 775-782.
Ané C, Larget B, Baum DA, Smith SD, Rokas A. 2007. Bayesian estimation of concordance among gene trees. Molecular Biology and Evolution 24: 412-426.
Angilletta MJ, Niewiarowski PH, Navas CA. 2002. The evolution of thermal physiology in ectotherms. Journal of Thermal Biology 27: 249-268.
Audzijonyte A, Vrijenhoek R. 2010. When gaps really are gaps: statistical phylogeography of hydrothermal vent invertebrates. Evolution 64: 2369-2384.
Avila LJ, Morando M, Sites JW Jr. 2006. Congeneric phylogeography: hypothesizing species limits and evolutionary processes in Patagonian lizards of the Liolaemus boulengeri group (Squamata: Liolaemini). Biological Journal of the Linnean Society 89: 241-275.
Baez AM, ScillatoYané GJ. 1979. Late Cenozoic environmental changes in temperate Argentina. In: Duellman WE, ed. The South American herpetofauna: its origin, evolution, and dispersal. Lawrence, Kansas: Museum of Natural History. The University of Kansas, Monograph No. 7. 141-156.
Belfiore NM, Liang L, Moritz C. 2008. Multilocus phylogenetics of a rapid radiation in the genus Thomomys (Rodentia: Geomyidae). Systematic Biology 57: 294310.

Benavides E, Baum R, Snell HM, Snell HL, Sites JW Jr. 2009. Island biogeography of Galápagos lava lizards (Tropiduridae: Microlophus): species diversity, arrival times, and colonization within the archipelago. Evolution 63: 16061626.

Breitman MF, Avila LJ, Sites JW Jr, Morando M. 2011. Lizards from the end of the world: phylogenetic relationships of the Liolaemus lineomaculatus section (Squamata: Iguania: Liolaemini). Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution 59: 364-376.
Breitman F, Avila LJ, Sites JW Jr, Morando M. 2012. How lizards survived blizzards: phylogeography of the Liolaemus lineomaculatus group (Liolaemidae) reveals multiple breaks
and refugia in southern Patagonia and their concordance with other codistributed taxa. Molecular Ecology 21: 6068-6085.
Breitman F, Avila LJ, Sites JW Jr, Morando M. 2013. Past and present taxonomy of the Liolaemus lineomaculatus section (Liolaemidae): is the morphological arrangement hypothesis valid? Zoological Journal of the Linnean Society 168: 612-668.
Camargo A, Avila LJ, Morando M, Sites JW Jr. 2012. Accuracy and precision of species trees: effects of locus, individual and base pair sampling on inference of species trees in lizards of the Liolaemus darwinii Group (Squamata, Liolaemidae). Systematic Biology 61: 272-288.
Carnaval A, Hickerson MJ, Haddad CFB, Rodrigues MT, Moritz C. 2009. Stability predicts genetic diversity in the Brazilian Atlantic Forest hotspot. Science 323: 785789.

Carstens BC, Richards CL. 2007. Integrating coalescent and ecological niche modeling in comparative phylogeography. Evolution 61: 1439-1454.
Cornuet JM, Santos F, Beaumont MA, Robert CP, Marin JM, Balding DJ, Guillemaud T, Estoup A. 2008. Inferring population history with DIY ABC: a user-friendly approach to approximate Bayesian computation. Bioinformatics 24: 2713-2719.
Degnan JH, Rosenberg N. 2009. Gene tree discordance, phylogenetic inference and the multispecies coalescent. Trends in Ecology \& Evolution 24: 332-340.
Delsuc F, Brinkmann H, Philippe H. 2005. Phylogenomics and the reconstruction of the tree of life. Nature 6: 361375.

Drummond AJ, Rambaut A. 2007. BEAST: Bayesian evolutionary analysis by sampling trees. BMC Evolutionary Biology 7: 214.
Espinoza RE, Wiens JJ, Tracy CR. 2004. Recurrent evolution of herbivory in small, cold-climate lizards: breaking the ecophysiological rules of reptilian herbivory. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, USA 101: 1681916824.

Etheridge R. 1993. Lizards of the Liolaemus darwinii complex (Squamata: Iguania: Tropiduridae) in northern Argentina. Bollettino del Museo Regionale di Scienze Naturali 119: 137199.

Etheridge R. 1995. Redescription of Ctenoblepharys adspersa (Tschudi, 1845), and the taxonomy of Liolaeminae (Reptilia: Squamata: Tropiduridae). American Museum Novitates 3142: 1-34.
Etheridge R. 2000. A review of lizards of the Liolaemus wiegmannii Group (Squamata, Iguania, Tropiduridae). And a history of morphological change in the sand-dwelling species. Herpetological Monographs 14: 293-352.
Fagundes NJR, Ray N, Beaumont M, Neuenschwander S, Salzano FM, Bonatto SL, Excoffier L. 2007. Statistical evaluation of alternative models of human evolution. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, USA 104: 17614-17619.
Fontanella FM, Olave M, Avila LJ, Sites JW Jr, Morando M. 2012. Molecular dating and diversification of the South American lizard genus Liolaemus (subgenus Eulaemus) based
on nuclear and mitochondrial DNA sequences. Zoological Journal of the Linnean Society 164: 825-835.
Gray DA, Huang H, Knowles LL. 2008. Molecular evidence of a peripatric origin for two sympatric species of field crickets (Gryllus rubens and G. texensis) revealed from coalescent simulations and population genetic tests. Molecular Ecology 17: 3826-3855.
Heled J, Drummond AJ. 2010. Bayesian inference of species trees from Multilocus data. Molecular Biology and Evolution 27: 570-580.
Hey J, Machado CA. 2003. The study of structured populations - new hope for a difficult and divided science. Nature 4: 535-543.
Hickerson MJ, Carstens BC, Cavender-Bares J, Crandall KA, Graham CH, Johnson JB, Rissler L, Victoriano PF, Yoder AD. 2010. Phylogeography's past, present, and future: 10 years after Avise, 2000. Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution 54: 291-301.
Ho SYM. 2007. Calibrating molecular estimates of substitution rates and divergence times in birds. Journal of Avian Biology 38: 409-414.
Iglesias AR, Artabe AE, Morel EM. 2011. The evolution of Patagonian climate and vegetation from the Mesozoic to the present. Biological Journal of the Linnean Society 103: 409422.

Knowles LL. 2009. Statistical phylogeography. Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics 40: 593612.

Knowles LL, Carstens BC, Keat ML. 2007. Coupling genetic and ecological-niche models to examine how past population distributions contribute to divergence. Current Biology 17: 1-7.
Knowles LL, Kubatko LS. 2010. Estimating species trees: practical and theoretical aspects. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley Blackwell.
Kubatko LS, Carstens BC, Knowles LL. 2009. STEM: Species Tree Estimation using Maximum likelihood for gene trees under coalescence. Bioinformatics 25: 971-973.
Kubatko LS, Degnan J. 2007. Inconsistency of phylogenetic estimates from concatenated data under coalescence. Systematic Biology 56: 17-24.
Kubatko LS, Gibbs HI, Bloomquist EW. 2011. Inferring species-level phylogenies and taxonomic distinctiveness using multilocus data in Sitrurus rattlesnakes. Systematic Biology 60: 393-409.
Kuhner MK. 2008. Coalescent genealogy samplers: windows into population history. Trends in Ecology \& Evolution 24: 86-93.
Labra A, Pienaar J, Hansen JF. 2009. Evolution of thermal physiology in Liolaemus lizards: adaptation, phylogenetic inertia, and niche tracking. American Naturalist 174: 204220.

Leaché AD, Rannala B. 2011. The accuracy of species tree estimation under simulation: a comparison of methods. Systematic Biology 60: 126-137.
Liu L, Pearl DK. 2007. Species trees from gene trees: reconstructing Bayesian posterior distributions of a species phylogeny using estimated gene tree distributions. Systematic Biology 56: 504-514.

Liu L, Pearl DK, Brumfield RT, Edwards SV. 2008. Estimating species trees using multiple-allele DNA sequences data. Evolution 62: 2080-2091.
Lobo F, Espinoza RE, Quinteros S. 2010. A critical review and systematic discussion of recent classification proposals for liolaemid lizards. Zootaxa 2549: 1-30.
Maddison WP. 1997. Gene trees in species trees. Systematic Biology 46: 523-536.
Maddison WP, Knowles LL. 2006. Inferring phylogeny despite incomplete lineage sorting. Systematic Biology 55: 21-30.
Maddison WP, Maddison DR. 2010. Mesquite: a modular system for evolutionary analysis. Version 2.74. Available at: http://mesquiteproject.org
Markgraf V, McGlone M, Hope G. 1995. Neogene paleoenvironmental and paleoclimatic change in southern temperate ecosystems - a southern perspective. Trends in Ecology \& Evolution 10: 143-149.
McCracken KG, Sorenson MD. 2005. Is homoplasy or lineage sorting the source of incongruent mtDNA and nuclear gene trees in the stiff-tailed ducks (Nomonyx-Oxyura)? Systematic Biology 54: 35-55.
Morando M, Avila LJ, Baker JJ, Sites JW Jr. 2004. Phylogeny and phylogeography of the Liolaemus darwinii complex (Squamata: Liolaemidae): evidence for introgression and incomplete lineage sorting. Evolution 58: 842-861.
Morando M, Avila LJ, Sites JW Jr. 2003. Sampling strategies for delimiting species: genes, individuals and populations in the Liolaemus elongatus-kriegi complex (Squamata: Liolaemimi) in Andean-Patagonian South America. Systematic Biology 52: 159-185.
Muster C, Maddison WP, Uhlmann S, Berendonk TU, Vogler AP. 2009. Arctic-alpine distributions metapopulations on a continental scale? The American Naturalist 173: 313-326.
Olave M, Avila LJ, Sites JW, Jr, Morando M. 2014. Multilocus phylogeny of the widely distributed South American lizard clade Eulaemus (Liolaemini, Liolaemus). Zoologica Scripta 43: 323-337.
Rabassa J, Coronato AM, Salemme M. 2005. Chronology of the Late Cenozoic Patagonian glaciations and their correlation with biostratigraphic units of the Pampean region (Argentina). The Journal of South American Earth Sciences 20: 81-103.
Ramos V. 1989. The birth of southern South America. American Scientist 77: 444-450.
Richards CL, Carstens BC, Knowles LL. 2007. Distribution modeling and statistical phylogeography: an integrative framework for generating and testing alternative biogeographic hypotheses. Journal of Biogeography 34: 18331845.

Rokas A, Carroll SB. 2006. Bushes in the Tree of Life. PLoS Biology 4: 1899-1904.
Ronquist F, Huelsenbeck JP. 2003. MrBayes version 3: Bayesian phylogenetic inference under mixed models. Bioinformatics 19: 1572-1574.
Schmidt HA, Strimmer K, Vingron M, Von Haeseler A. 2002. TREE-PUZZLE: maximum likelihood phylogenetic analysis using quartets and parallel computing. Bioinformatics 18: 502-504.

Schulte JA II, Macey JR, Espinoza RE, Larson A. 2000. Phylogenetic relationships in the iguanid lizard genus Liolaemus: multiple origins of viviparous reproduction and evidence for recurring Andean vicariance and dispersal. Biological Journal of the Linnean Society 69: 75-102.
Sinclair EA, Pramuk PB, Bezy RL, Crandall KA, Sites JW Jr. 2010. DNA evidence for nonhybrid origins of parthenogenesis in natural populations of vertebrates. Evolution 64: 1346-1357.
Sinervo B, Bastiaans E, Villagrán-Santa Cruz M, LaraResendiz R, Martínez-Méndez N, Calderón-Espinosa ML, Meza-Lázaro RN, Gadsden H, Avila LJ, Morando M, De la Riva IJ, Sepulveda PV, Rocha CFD, Ibargüengoytía N, Puntriano CA, Massot M, Lepetz V, Oksanen TA, Chapple DG, Bauer AM, Branch WR, Clobert J, Sites JW Jr. 2010. Erosion of lizard diversity by climate change and altered thermal niches. Science $\mathbf{3 2 8}$ : 894-899.
Slowinski J, Page RDM. 1999. How should species phylogenies be inferred from sequence data? Systematic Biology 105: 147158.

Smith JV, Braun EL, Kimball RT. 2013. Ratite nonmonophyly: independent evidence from 40 novel loci. Systematic Biology 62: 35-49.
Steele CA, Storfer A. 2006. Coalescent-based hypothesis testing supports multiple Pleistocene refugia in the Pacific Northwest for the Pacific giant salamander (Dicamptodon tenebrosus). Molecular Ecology 15: 2477-2487.
Strimmer K, Von Haeseler A. 1997. Likelihood-mapping: a simple method to visualize phylogenetic content of a sequence alignment. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, USA 94: 6815-6819.
Than C, Nakhleh L. 2009. Species tree inference by
minimizing deep coalescences. PLoS Computational Biology 5: e1000501. doi:10.1371/journal.pcbi. 1000501.
Than C, Nakhleh L. 2010. Inference of parsimonious species phylogenies from multi-locus data by minimizing deep coalescences. In: Knowles LL, Kubatko LS, eds. Estimating species trees: practical and theoretical aspects. Hoboken, NJ: WileyVCH, 79-98.
Voight BF, Adams AM, Frisse LA, Qian Y, Hudson RR, Di Rienzo A. 2005. Interrogating multiple aspects of variation in a full resequencing data set to infer human population size changes. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, USA 102: 18508-18513.
Wakeley J. 2007. Coalescent theory: an introduction. New York: Roberts and Company Publishers.
Werneck FP, Gamble T, Colli GR, Rodrigues MT, Sites JW Jr. 2012. Deep diversification and long-term persistence in the South American 'dry diagonal': integrating continent-wide phylogeography and distribution modeling of geckos. Evolution 66: 3014-3034.
Whitfield JB, Lockhart PJ. 2007. Deciphering ancient rapid radiations. Trends in Ecology \& Evolution 22: 258265.

Wu Y. 2012. Coalescent-based species tree inference form gene tree topologies under incomplete lineage sorting by maximum likelihood. Evolution 66: 763-775.
Xia X, Xia Z. 2001. DAMBE: data analysis in molecular biology and evolution. The Journal of Heredity 92: 371-373.
Xia X, Zheng X, Salemi M, Chen L, Wang Y. 2003. An index of substitution saturation and its application. Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution 26: 1-7.
Zachos JC, Pagani M, Sloan L, Thomas E, Billups K. 2001. Trends, rhythms, and aberrations in global climate 65 Ma to present. Science 292: 686-693.


[^0]:    *Corresponding author. E-mail: olave@cenpat.edu.ar

