Application of parsimony analysis of endemicity to Mexican gymnosperm distributions: grid-cells, biogeographical provinces and track analysis

RAÚL CONTRERAS-MEDINA¹, ISOLDA LUNA VEGA^{1*} and JUAN J. MORRONE²

¹Herbario, Departamento de Biología Evolutiva, Facultad de Ciencias, and ²Museo de Zoología 'Alfonso L. Herrera', Departamento de Biología Evolutiva, Facultad de Ciencias, UNAM, Apdo. Postal 70-399, 04510, Mexico DF, Mexico

Received 13 March 2006; accepted for publication 6 December 2006

Parsimony analysis of endemicity (PAE) was used to analyse the distributional patterns of 124 species of Mexican gymnosperms, using two different sample units: grid-cells and biogeographical provinces. PAE analyses were based on distributional data from herbarium specimens and specialized literature. Two data matrices were constructed for 60 grid-cells of 2° and 14 biogeographical provinces. The analysis of the 2° grid-cell matrix led to 7084 cladograms. The strict consensus cladogram showed several clades equivalent to the results obtained with the biogeographical provinces. Three clades agree with some principal regions of distribution of Mexican pines, previously identified by several authors, located at the northern portion of the Baja California peninsula, the Sierra Madre Occidental, and the Sierra Madre Oriental. These areas represent important centres of species diversity and endemism for Mexican gymnosperms. The analysis of the province matrix led to two most parsimonious cladograms, which only differed in the position of the Sierra Madre Occidental province. The iterative procedure PAE with progressive character elimination was applied to identify generalized tracks, where clades of provinces were considered equivalent to generalized tracks, and each time a cladogram was obtained, species defining its clades were deleted and a new run was undertaken. We found five generalized tracks, mainly located in montane provinces. The distribution patterns of gymnosperms agree with the existence of several Mexican biogeographical provinces, and a different historical biogeography of the Mexican peninsulas from the rest of the country is evident. © 2007 The Linnean Society of London, Biological Journal of the Linnean Society, 2007, 92, 405-417.

ADDITIONAL KEYWORDS: area cladograms – biogeography – biodiversity – generalized tracks – Mexican mountains – Nearctic – Neotropical – panbiogeography.

INTRODUCTION

Gymnosperms are woody plants mainly distributed in temperate forests and arid scrubs, which inhabit temperate zones of both hemispheres and have been important elements in fossil and extant plant communities (Contreras-Medina & Luna, 2002). Presence of gymnosperms in the fossil record of Mexico that can be related to extant genera are traced back to the Eocene (Martínez-Hernández & Ramírez, 1996). These plants deserve special attention from the historical biogeographical viewpoint due to their antiquity, and because tectonic events and climatic change have been important to shape their distributional patterns. Studies on the geographical distribution of these plants in Mexico are imperative not only theoretically, but also practically, especially for some groups with great economic value and some threatened taxa included in some risk category.

Gymnosperms represent approximately 2% of the Mexican plant species diversity, in contrast to angiosperms and pteridophytes (Contreras-Medina, 2004). Mexico is the richest country in species of *Ceratozamia*, *Dioon*, and *Pinus* (Contreras-Medina,

^{*}Corresponding author. E-mail: ilv@hp.fciencias.unam.mx

2004) and represents an important centre of diversity and endemism at worldwide level (Osborne, 1995; Farjon & Styles, 1997).

Parsimony analysis of endemicity (PAE) was developed by Rosen (1984, 1988) and Rosen & Smith (1988) to address the shortcomings of phenetic approaches used to assess area relationships of fossil or recent assemblages from different areas (Porzecanski & Cracraft, 2005). It takes as starting point the presence/absence of data for a set of sample localities and a particular taxon (Rosen & Smith, 1988). With this information, a data matrix of areas \times taxa is constructed and analysed (Luna et al., 2001). Shared presences are analogous to synapomorphies in phylogenetic systematics, and areas are grouped according to the most parsimonious cladogram, which represent nested sets of areas. The cladogram is rooted with a hypothetical area or locality coded with all zeros, and represents a sample area or locality without any of the taxa from the remaining localities or areas. Compared to cladistic biogeography, PAE can be applied to taxa whose phylogenetic relationships are unknown. Notwithstanding that phylogenies comprising Mexican species of Ceratozamia (González & Vovides, 2002), Dioon (Moretti et al., 1993), Ephedra (Huang, Giannasi & Price, 2005), and Pinus (Gernandt et al., 2005) are available, other taxa, namely Taxus, Taxodium, Cupressus, Juniperus, and Podocarpus, among others, do not have these analyses. Thus, we run a PAE to include all the Mexican species of gymnosperms, which led us generate hypotheses about the biogeography of these seed plants.

PAE was originally applied using localities as units (Rosen & Smith, 1988; Rosen, 1988). Other authors have used this method to assess relationships among predetermined areas of endemism (Craw, 1988; Cracraft, 1991; Morrone, 1994b; Morrone et al., 1999; Espinosa et al., 2000; Ron, 2000; Aguilar-Aguilar et al., 2003), grid-cells (Morrone, 1994a; Cavieres et al., 2002; Morrone & Escalante, 2002; Rojas-Soto, Alcántara & Navarro, 2003; Méndez-Larios et al., 2005), hydrological basins (Aguilar-Aguilar et al., 2003), real and virtual islands (Maldonado & Uriz, 1995; Morrone, 1998; Luna et al., 1999, 2001; Trejo-Torres & Ackerman, 2001), and transects (Trejo-Torres & Ackerman, 2002; García-Trejo & Navarro, 2004; León-Paniagua et al., 2004; Navarro et al., 2004). An additional implementation is track analysis (Craw, Grehan & Heads, 1999; Luna et al., 2001; Morrone & Márquez, 2001). To determine areas of endemism, grid-cells were used in such a way that nested sets observed in the cladogram represented areas of endemism, if each set was supported by at least two taxa (Morrone, 1994a; Morrone & Escalante, 2002). Craw et al. (1999) considered that PAE is a method for recognizing generalized tracks through

the discovery of nested sets of biogeographical units, which was previously suggested by Smith (1992) and further applied by Luna *et al.* (2001) and Morrone & Márquez (2001).

In Mexico, PAE has been applied to different geographical units. Grid-cells as unit areas have been applied to Mexican terrestrial mammals (Morrone & Escalante, 2002), birds of the Baja California Peninsula (Rojas-Soto *et al.*, 2003), and flowering plants of the Valle de Tehuacán-Cuicatlán (Méndez-Larios *et al.*, 2005). Gymnosperms have been never included in this type of analysis.

In the present study, we analyse the distributional patterns of Mexican gymnosperms using PAE with two different sample units (grid-cells and predetermined areas of endemism, represented by biogeographical provinces) and also detect generalized tracks. We intend to test previous hypotheses and to explore the potential of gymnosperms for biogeographical analyses.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Distributional data of gymnosperm species were obtained from the revision of 1462 herbarium specimens deposited in the following collections: MO, MEXU, ENCB, XAL, IEB, XALU, IBUG, FCME, and INIF (acronym sensu Holmgren, Holmgren & Barnett, 1990). In addition, floristic and revisionary published studies were reviewed (Zanoni & Adams, 1979; Wiggins, 1980; Zanoni, 1982; Vovides, 1983, 1999; Stevenson et al., 1986: Patterson, 1988: Espinosa. 1991; McVaugh, 1992; Zamudio, 1992, 2002; Moretti et al., 1993; Fonseca, 1994; Zamudio & Carranza, 1994; Farjon & Styles, 1997; Medina & Dávila, 1997; Narave & Taylor, 1997; Aguirre-Planter, Furnier & Eguiarte, 2000; Felger, 2000; Contreras-Medina, Luna & Alcántara, 2001, 2003). Botanical field explorations were carried out in the states of Hidalgo, Querétaro, Estado de México, Puebla, and Oaxaca to obtain field data and additional distribution information of some species.

We used two different units of analysis to run PAE: grid-cells of 2° latitude \times 2° longitude and Mexican biogeographical provinces (Fig. 1) proposed by Morrone (2005). We used 124 species (columns) to construct two data matrices; the number of areas (rows) varied according to the different units analysed, 60 grid-cells of 2° latitude \times 2° longitude (Supplementary Material, Table S1) and 14 biogeographical provinces (Supplementary Material, Table S2). Both matrices included one row coded with all zeros to root the area cladograms. The analyses were carried out with the heuristic search option in Nona (Goloboff, 1999) through Winclada (Nixon, 2002). When more than one cladogram resulted from the analysis, a strict consensus cladogram was constructed.

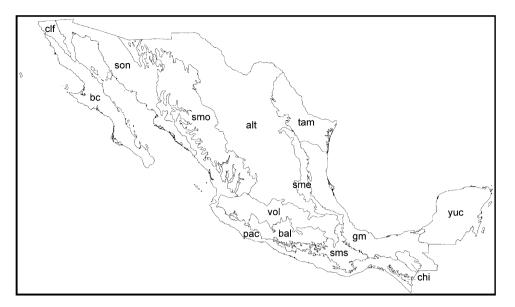


Figure 1. Biogeographical provinces of Mexico according to Morrone (2005). alt, Mexican Plateau; bal, Balsas Basin; bc, Baja California; clf, California; chi, Chiapas; gm, Gulf of Mexico; pac, Pacific Coast; sme, Sierra Madre Oriental; smo, Sierra Madre Occidental; sms, Sierra Madre del Sur; son, Sonora; tam, Tamaulipas; vol, Transmexican Volcanic Belt; yuc, Yucatan Peninsula.

Morrone (1994a) proposed PAE as a tool to detect areas of endemism, using grid-cells as units based on their shared species, where one group of grid-cells defined at least by two taxa represents an area of endemism. We draw the grid-cells on a map of Mexico, including only those where at least one species was recorded. With this information, we constructed a data matrix (Supplementary Material, Table S1) as explained above and a parsimony analysis was performed. The resultant cladogram grouped those gridcells with shared species, and those groups were superimposed onto the map of grid-cells, delimiting the areas of endemism.

The application of PAE using Mexican biogeographical provinces to construct generalized tracks was implemented by Morrone & Márquez (2001). The nested sets of biogeographical provinces obtained from the resulting cladograms were used to construct generalized tracks. PAE may be considered as a method of nesting panbiogeographical tracks in a hierarchical scheme (Smith, 1992). Details about the panbiogeographical approach are provided by Craw et al. (1999). We followed the iterative procedure PAE with progressive character elimination (Luna et al., 2000; García-Barros et al., 2002) where, each time that a set of cladograms was obtained, the species defining the clades (synapomorphies) were deleted and a new run was undertaken. The major clades obtained and supported by the congruent distributions of two or more species in each run were converted into generalized tracks, by joining together the

Table 1.	Generalized	tracks	and	examples	of	species
defining	them					

Track	Total of species involved	Examples
a	5	Ephedra californica, Juniperus californica, and Pinus lambertiana
b	24	Cupressus lusitanica, Juniperus flaccida, Pinus leiophylla, Pinus teocote, and Pseudotsuga menziesii
с	2	Ceratozamia latifolia and Ceratozamia microstrobila
d	3	Abies hickelii, Pinus lawsonii, and Pinus pringlei
e	2	Podocarpus oleifolius and Zamia splendens

provinces included in the same clade by their minimal geographical distance. Gymnosperm species defining each track are listed in Table 1.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

GRID-CELLS

The analysis of the grid-cell matrix produced 7084 cladograms of 382 steps, consistency index of 0.32 and

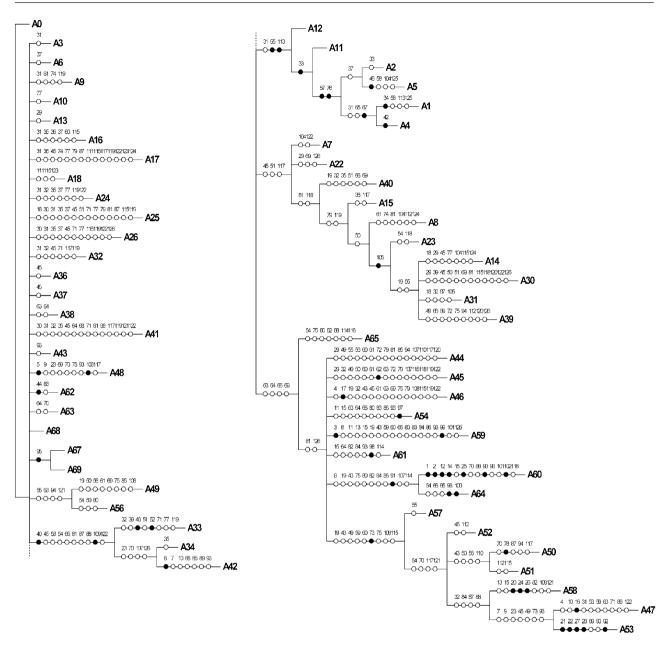


Figure 2. Strict consensus cladogram obtained with the 2° grid-cell analysis. Each number represents one grid-cell. For reference numbers, see Fig. 3. Numbers above branches represent species which correspond with data matrix in the Supplementary Material, Table S1. Black circles in the branches represent synapomorphies, whereas white circles represent homoplasies.

retention index of 0.56. The strict consensus cladogram (Fig. 2), with 462 steps, a consistency index of 0.27, and a retention index of 0.43, showed a polytomy composed of 21 grid-cells, three major components and three small clades (composed of two or three grid-cells each). The largest component (1) comprised grid-cells from central and southern Mexico, the second set represents the Sierra Madre Occidental province (smo) (2), and the third major component includes those grid-cells located in the northern part of the Baja California peninsula (3). Among the small clades, a set of three grid-cells are located in northeastern Mexico (4), in the northern portion of the Sierra Madre Oriental (sme) province; another clade with two grid-cells (5) is located in western Mexico in the Pacific Coast province (pac); and a third one grouped into two grid-cells is located in the Yucatan peninsula (6) (Fig. 3).

The largest component (1) corresponds to the classic Mesoamerican pattern (Vivó, 1943; Rzedowski,

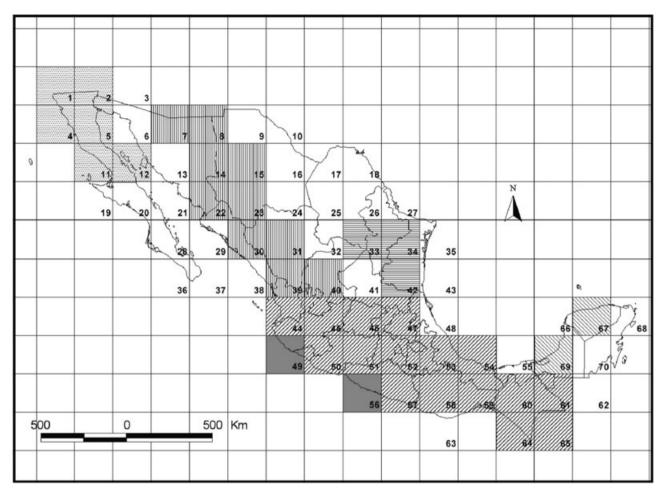


Figure 3. Map obtained for the 2° grid-cell matrix, based on the cladogram of Fig. 2, showing the spatial representation of grid-cell components. Each set of grid-cells shades represent the different groups of grid-cells obtained in the cladogram of Fig. 2.

1978; Halffter, 1987; Morrone & Márquez, 2001), which includes southern and central Mexico and Central America. Two of the smaller components (5 and 6) are equivalent to the biogeographical provinces with the same name, but the inclusion of only two grid-cells in each one of them did not allow any inference to be made about their precise delimitation. Among these components, three sets of gridcells agree with some principal regions of distribution of Mexican pines, as previously proposed (Eguiluz, 1985; Styles, 1993; Farjon & Styles, 1997), which are located at the northern portion of the Baja California peninsula, the Sierra Madre Occidental, and the Sierra Madre Oriental. Based on the congruence of our results with these proposals, we suggest that these areas represent important centres of diversity and endemism for Mexican gymnosperms.

An exploratory analysis using grid-cells of 1° did not show congruent patterns. This same problem was observed by Morrone & Escalante (2002) with mammals, demonstrating that the results obtained with larger Mexican grid-cells are better than those obtained with smaller ones (in their case, 1° and 0.5°). Based on a phenetic analysis, Ramírez-Pulido & Castro-Campillo (1990) proposed a Mexican regionalization using grid-cells of 2°, obtaining 19 mastofaunistic provinces. We obtained a better resolution with the grid-cells of 2°, results that are congruent with the biogeographical provinces analysis undertaken and explained below, mainly in the case of the Sierra Madre Occidental province (smo). As previously suggested by Linder (2001), we consider that the choice of the grid-cell size is decisive to undertake biogeographical analyses. The selection of small size gridcells (0.5° or 1°) can result in poor resolution of the resultant area cladograms (Morrone & Escalante, 2002). We can affirm this after an exploratory analysis of Mexican gymnosperm species using grid-cells of 1° (not shown), where we obtained more than 10 000

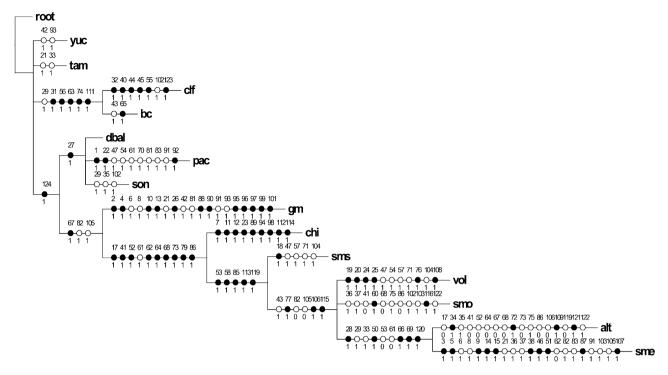


Figure 4. Strict consensus cladogram obtained with the provinces matrix, depicting the relationships of the Mexican biogeographical provinces. Labels are the names of the provinces. Numbers above branches represent species and numbers below represent character state (presence/absence) of each species. Black circles in the branches represent synapomorphies, whereas white circles represent homoplasy. alt, Mexican Plateau; bc, Baja California; clf, California; chi, Chiapas; dbal, Balsas Basin; gm, Gulf of Mexico; pac, Pacific Coast; sme, Sierra Madre Oriental; smo, Sierra Madre Occidental; sms, Sierra Madre del Sur; son, Sonora; tam, Tamaulipas; vol, Transmexican Volcanic Belt; yuc, Yucatan Peninsula.

cladograms, whose consensus cladogram had a big polytomy, with only few grid-cells grouped.

BIOGEOGRAPHICAL PROVINCES

For the biogeographical province matrix, we obtained two cladograms with 186 steps, a consistency index of 0.66 and a retention index of 0.57. The consensus cladogram, of 191 steps, consistency index of 0.64 and retention index of 0.54, is shown in Figure 4. Both cladograms were very similar, and only differed in the position of the Sierra Madre Occidental (smo), which in one cladogram is related to the Transmexican Volcanic Belt province (vol), and in the second cladogram is the sister group to the Sierra Madre Oriental (sme)-Mexican Plateau (alt) provinces. The consensus cladogram was used to draw the generalized tracks, as explained below. In this cladogram, one component included the California (clf) and Baja California (bc) provinces, supported by five gymnosperm species, Ephedra californica S. Watson, Juniperus californica Carrière, Pinus lambertiana Douglas, P. monophylla Torrey et Frémont, and P. quadrifolia Sudworth. The Yucatan peninsula (yuc) is also separated from the rest of continental Mexico. The Tamaulipas (tam) province has an uncertain position in the cladogram. A large component including the majority of the Mexican continental provinces (excluding both peninsulas) is divided in two clades: the first one comprises three lowland provinces located in western Mexico (pac, dbal, son), and a second one includes all the mountainous provinces (chi, sms, vol, smo, sme) as well as the Mexican Plateau (alt) and Gulf of Mexico (gm) provinces. In the latter, the Gulf of Mexico province (gm) is located at the base, followed by two southern provinces (sms and chi) and, finally, a clade including the Sierra Madre Occidental (smo), Transmexican Volcanic Belt (vol), Sierra Madre Oriental (sme), and Mexican Plateau (alt) provinces.

Previous PAEs that examined the relationships among Mexican biogeographical provinces partially agree with our results. Morrone *et al.* (1999) and Espinosa *et al.* (2000), based on distributional data of birds, insects, and vascular plants, found two major components: one (Nearctic) that includes all the northern Mexican provinces, and another (Neotropical) that includes the remaining central and southern provinces. In both studies, these authors grouped all the provinces of the Baja California peninsula in the same clade, as well as the provinces of the Yucatan peninsula, reflecting the separate histories of both peninsulas from the rest of continental Mexico. Also in both studies, all the montane provinces were located in different clades whereas, in the present study, all the main montane provinces were included in the same clade, as in the study by Morrone & Márquez (2001). Another consistent pattern is the relationship of the Chiapas and Gulf of Mexico provinces, which always appears in the same clade, as was the case in our study, usually as sister areas. This implies a close relationship between eastern and southern Mexico, representing a recurrent pattern frequently found in several works with different methodologies and taxa (Smith, 1941; Aguilar-Aguilar et al., 2003).

Morrone & Escalante (2002), when analysing Mexican terrestrial mammals, found a basal divergence of the Baja California peninsula in their cladogram. In addition, some areas from eastern and western Mexico were located at the base of a large component, and the relationships among the Neotropical provinces were very similar to those detected herein. An important difference of the present study versus that of Morrone & Escalante (2002) is the relationship found by them for the Yucatan peninsula with southern provinces; and similar results were also obtained by Aguilar-Aguilar et al. (2003) with helminth parasites. The Yucatan peninsula is also well differentiated and separated from the rest of continental Mexico, and our results suggest that it can be considered as a single biogeographical unit, as was previously established by Rzedowski (1978), Morrone (2005), and Morrone & Escalante (2002), among others. In the results from the present study, the Baja California peninsula can be differentiated from the rest of the country, as suggested previously by Morrone et al. (1999), Espinosa et al. (2000), and Morrone & Escalante (2002).

The uncertain position of the Tamaulipas (tam) province is possibly due to the relatively few gymnosperm species that it harbours. Similar results in the placement of the poorest-in-species areas in uncertain positions have been obtained by Glasby & Álvarez (1999) and Trejo-Torres & Ackerman (2001) with PAE, and Contreras-Medina & Luna (2002) with a cladistic biogeographical analysis. Another explanation about the uncertain position of certain areas may be due, as noted by Glasby & Álvarez (1999), to long-distance dispersal processes, latitudinal gradients, degree of isolation, or other undetected historical patterns. The Tamaulipas province is more closely related to some eastern North American provinces (Katinas *et al.*, 2004). In this sense, the restriction of the present study to the Mexican territory may reflect in some way its uncertain position.

The changing position of the Sierra Madre Occidental may be mainly due to the geographical distribution of several pine species and the transitional character of many of the provinces studied. Some gymnosperm species that inhabit the USA are also distributed in some portions of the Sierra Madre Occidental, the Sierra Madre Oriental, and the Mexican Plateau provinces, which reflects the relationships suggested in one cladogram, such as Cupressus arizonica Greene, Pinus arizonica Engelmann, Pinus engelmannii Carrière and Juniperus erythrocarpa Cory. In the other cladogram, the relationship between the Transmexican Volcanic Belt and Sierra Madre Occidental provinces is supported by the geographical distribution of some pine species that inhabit the latter and also are found in the western portion of the Transmexican Volcanic Belt province, such as Pinus durangensis Martínez, Pinus lumholtzii B.L. Robinson et Fernald, and Pinus praetermissa Styles et McVaugh, as well as one juniper species (Juniperus jaliscana Pérez de la Rosa). The above results may be due to the transition nature of the Mexican mountain provinces (Morrone, 2005).

Rzedowski (1978) included all the mountain provinces (sme, smo, vol, sms, and chi) in a single region named Mesoamerican Mountain region. Morrone & Márquez (2001) and Katinas et al. (2004) found similar results with PAE, where most of these provinces are grouped in the same clade, with the exception of the Chiapas (chi) province, which is located in a different clade in the first work, and was not analysed in the second one. Our results support the proposal of Rzedowski because all the mountain provinces are in the same clade, but differ in the position of the Sierra Madre Oriental, which is sister area to the Mexican Plateau in both cladograms, and they are sister group to the Sierra Madre Occidental. According to Liebherr (1991), there are large numbers of shared endemic species of Coleoptera between the northern portions of the Sierra Madre Oriental and the Sierra Madre Occidental. Morrone et al. (1999) and Espinosa et al. (2000) showed different area relationships (i.e. the Sierra Madre del Sur is related to the Balsas Basin, Pacific Coast and Transmexican Volcanic Belt provinces; Chiapas is included in other clade and is related to the Gulf of Mexico and Soconusco provinces; the Sierra Madre Occidental is related to the Sonora province; and the Sierra Madre Oriental is related to the Mexican Plateau). These results confirm that Mexico (or at least a great part of it) represents a transition zone, where biotic events of 'hybridization' have occurred, allowing the mixture of different biotic components (Morrone, 2005). Transition zones deserve special attention because they

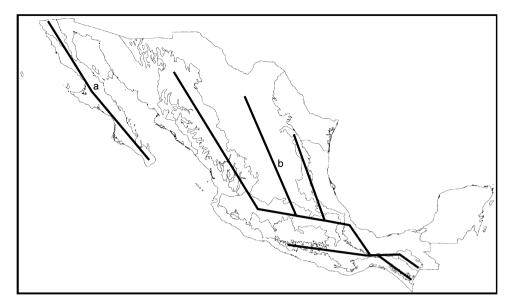


Figure 5. Main clades of the cladogram of Fig. 4 superimposed onto the map as generalized tracks in the Baja California peninsula (a) and in the Mesoamerican Mountain region (b).

represent sites of intensive biotic interaction (Ruggiero & Ezcurra, 2003) and may exhibit an unusual high biodiversity.

TRACK ANALYSIS

The main clades in the consensus cladogram obtained in the biogeographical provinces analysis were mapped as generalized tracks (Fig. 5). Subsequently, we performed parsimony analyses deleting the species defining the tracks in the previous run. The second analysis yielded nine cladograms (114 steps, a consistency index of 0.74, and a retention index of 0.45). A strict consensus cladogram (121 steps, a consistency index of 0.70, and a retention index of 0.32) was constructed (Fig. 6); the main clade was mapped as a generalized track (Fig. 7). The third analysis yielded a single cladogram (108 steps, a consistency index of 0.75, and a retention index of 0.44) (Fig. 8); its two main clades were mapped as generalized tracks (Fig. 9). In the fourth run, 20 cladograms were obtained (92 steps, a consistency index of 0.79, and a retention index of 0.47); in their consensus cladogram only two clades were obtained (not shown), but they were supported on homoplasies, so we decided to stop the analysis here.

In the five generalized tracks obtained, we observed that at least one montane province is included except for track a, which suggests that the Mexican montane areas have played an important role in the spatial evolution of gymnosperms. The existence of several generalized tracks is evidence of the complexity of

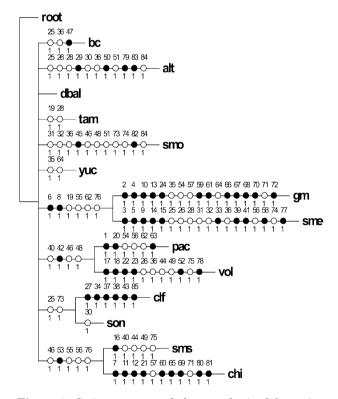


Figure 6. Strict consensus cladogram obtained from nine most parsimonious trees in the second run. Numbers above branches represent species and numbers below represent character state (presence/absence) of each species. Black circles in the branches represent synapomorphies, whereas white circles represent homoplasies.

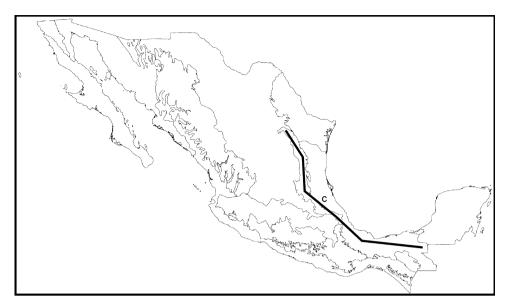


Figure 7. Main clade of the strict consensus cladogram obtained from nine new cladograms in the second run, superimposed onto the map as a generalized track in eastern Mexico (c).

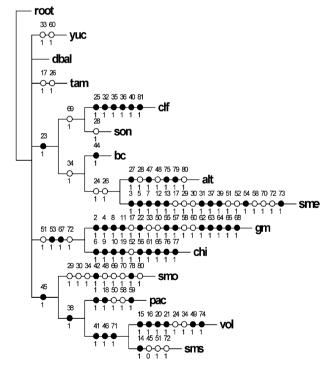


Figure 8. Most parsimonious cladogram obtained in the third run. Numbers above branches represent species and numbers below represent character state (presence/ absence) of each species. Black circles in the branches represent synapomorphies, whereas white circles represent homoplasies.

Mexico. Four generalized tracks obtained (b-e) coincide mainly with the Mountain Mesoamerican pattern proposed by Halffter (1976, 1978, 1987) and with the Mountain Mesoamerican biotic element of Morrone (2005). A different historical biogeography of the Mexican peninsulas from the rest of the Mexican territory is evident, mainly in the first run. Some species that inhabit Mexico have most of their distributional area in the USA, especially those distributed in the Baja California peninsula, reflecting a Nearctic distributional pattern. This is represented in the generalized track a. Tracks c and d are based mainly on endemic species, where the Sierra Madre Oriental and Transmexican Volcanic Belt, both mountain chains, contain most of the biodiversity of gymnosperm species in the country and the former include a high number of endemic species. Tracks b and e are based on a combination of endemic species and taxa distributed in Mexico and Central America, reflecting a Neotropical distributional pattern.

CONCLUSIONS

Smaller grid-sizes result in a finer resolution of distributional patterns, but increase artificially the number of empty grid-cells, especially in those cases where species were assigned to an incorrect grid-cell by error (Linder, 2001). Some general patterns are evident in our area cladogram using grid-cells of 2°, so we can conclude that the use of larger size grid-cells minimizes the occurrence of false absences, as Linder (2001) earlier suggested. The 2° grid-cell appears to

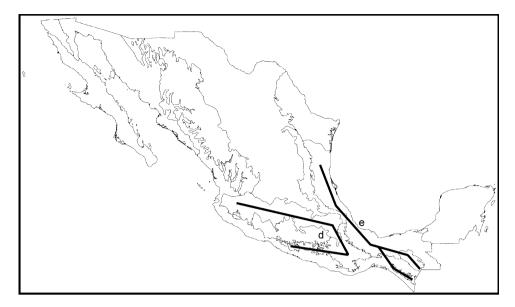


Figure 9. Main clades of the cladogram obtained in the third run, superimposed onto the map as generalized tracks in the Serranías Meridionales region (d) and in eastern and southern Mexico (e).

be an adequate resolution to be explored in future biogeographical analysis using PAE and other parsimony methods of the Mexican biota.

The track analysis shows that the Mexican mountain chains have played an important role in the spatial evolution of gymnosperms because these areas are represented in all generalized tracks and represent areas where the highest biodiversity of these plants in the country are concentrated, which also reflects speciation events in these mountain chains. The track analysis also suggests that the Baja California and Yucatan peninsulas have had independent biogeographical histories from continental Mexico because the generalized track in the California peninsula is isolated from the remaining tracks and the Yucatan peninsula is not included in any track. Our analysis supports the idea that Mexico represents a complex area, as demonstrated by the analyses of Contreras-Medina & Eliosa-León (2001) with several taxa, Álvarez & Morrone (2004) with birds, Escalante, Rodríguez & Morrone (2004) with terrestrial mammals, and Morrone & Gutiérrez (2005) with fleas. Our data indicate that Mexico is an evolutionary 'active' zone, which led to the speciation of several lineages, especially Pinus, Ceratozamia, and Dioon, and the local extinction of other lineages, especially Picea and Tsuga in southern and central Mexico (Clisby & Sears, 1955; Palacios & Rzedowski, 1993; Lozano-García & Xelhuantzi-López, 1997; Graham, 1999). These facts have been suggested with other sources of evidence, supporting the idea that Mexico represents an important centre of diversity and endemism at the worldwide level for gymnosperms (Farjon & Styles, 1997; Osborne, 1995).

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank Susana Magallón, Oswaldo Téllez, Adolfo Navarro, Othón Alcántara, and two anonymous reviewers for useful comments on the manuscript. We are also indebted to the staff of the herbaria cited in the text for their courtesy during our review of specimens. Assistance in the field provided by Sandra Córdoba, Ana Quintos, Othón Alcántara, Hamlet Santa Anna, Armando Ponce, Jorge Escutia, Diana Castañeda, Francisco Yberri, Rogelio Aguilar, and Andrés Martínez is gratefully appreciated. Othón Alcántara, Alberto González, and Karla Comparán assisted us with the figures. Support from projects PAPIIT IN206202, FOSEMARNAT-2004-C01-311, and CONABIO W025 is gratefully acknowledged. The first author was supported by a Research Doctoral Fellowship number 169858 from the Consejo Nacional de Ciencia y Tecnología (CONACyT), Mexico.

REFERENCES

- Aguilar-Aguilar R, Contreras-Medina R, Salgado-Maldonado G. 2003. Parsimony analysis of endemicity (PAE) of Mexican hydrological basins based on helminth parasites of freshwater fishes. *Journal of Biogeography* 30: 1861–1872.
- Aguirre-Planter E, Furnier GR, Eguiarte LE. 2000. Low levels of genetic variation within and high levels of genetic

differentiation among populations of species of *Abies* from southern Mexico and Guatemala. *American Journal of Botany* 87: 362–371.

- Álvarez E, Morrone JJ. 2004. Propuesta de áreas para la conservación de aves de México, empleando herramientas panbiogeográficas e índices de complementariedad. *Interciencia* 29: 112–120.
- Cavieres LA, Arroyo MTK, Posadas P, Marticorena C, Matthei O, Rodríguez R, Squeo FA, Arancio G. 2002. Identification of priority areas for conservation in an arid zone: application of parsimony analysis of endemicity in the vascular flora of the Antofagasta region, northern Chile. *Biodiversity and Conservation* 11: 1301–1311.
- Clisby KH, Sears PB. 1955. Palynology in southern North America. Part III. Microfossil profiles under Mexico City correlated with the sedimentary profiles. *Bulletin of the Geological Society of America* 66: 511–520.
- Contreras-Medina R. 2004. Gimnospermas. In: Luna I, Morrone JJ, Espinosa D, eds. *Biodiversidad de la Sierra Madre Oriental*. México DF: UNAM, 137–148.
- Contreras-Medina R, Eliosa-León H. 2001. Una visión panbiogeográfica preliminar de México. In: Llorente J, Morrone JJ, eds. Introducción a la Biogeografía en Latinoamérica: Teorías, conceptos, métodos y aplicaciones. México DF: Las Prensas de Ciencias, UNAM, 197–211.
- **Contreras-Medina R, Luna I. 2002.** On the distribution of gymnosperm genera, their areas of endemism and cladistic biogeography. *Australian Systematic Botany* **15:** 193–203.
- Contreras-Medina R, Luna I, Alcántara O. 2001. Las gimnospermas de los bosques mesófilos de montaña de la Huasteca Hidalguense, México. *Boletín de la Sociedad Botánica de México* 68: 69–81.
- Contreras-Medina R, Luna I, Alcántara O. 2003. Zamiaceae en Hidalgo, México. Anales del Instituto de Biología, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, Serie Botánica 74: 289–301.
- **Cracraft J. 1991.** Patterns of diversification within continental biotas: hierarchical congruence among the areas of endemism of Australian vertebrates. *Australian Systematic Botany* **4:** 211–227.
- Craw RC. 1988. Continuing the synthesis between panbiogeography, phylogenetic systematics and geology as illustrated by empirical studies on the biogeography of New Zealand and the Chatham Islands. *Systematic Zoology* 37: 291–310.
- Craw RC, Grehan JR, Heads MJ. 1999. Panbiogeographyraphy: tracking the history of Life. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Eguiluz T. 1985. Origen y evolución del género *Pinus* (con referencia especial a los pinos mexicanos). *Dasonomía Mexicana* 3: 5–31.
- **Escalante T, Rodríguez G, Morrone JJ. 2004.** The diversification of the Nearctic mammals in the Mexican transition zone: a track analysis. *Biological Journal of the Linnean Society* **83**: 327–339.
- Espinosa D, Morrone JJ, Aguilar C, Llorente J. 2000. Regionalización biogeográfica de México: Provincias bióticas. In: Llorente J, González E, Papavero N, eds. *Biodiver*-

sidad, taxonomía y biogeografía de artrópodos de México: Hacia una síntesis de su conocimiento, Vol. 2. México DF: UNAM, 61–94.

- **Espinosa J. 1991.** Gymnospermae. In: Rzedowski J, Calderón G, eds. *Flora fanerogámica del Valle de México*. México DF: Instituto Politécnico Nacional, 63–76.
- Farjon A, Styles BT. 1997. Pinus (Pinaceae). Flora Neotropica Monograph 75. New York, NY: The New York Botanical Garden.
- **Felger RS. 2000.** Flora of the Gran Desierto and Rio Colorado of Northwestern Mexico. Tucson, AZ: University of Arizona Press.
- Fonseca RM. 1994. Cupressaceae y Taxodiaceae. In: Diego-Pérez N, Rzedowski J, Fonseca RM, eds. *Flora de Guerrero*. Fascicle 2. Mexico DF: Facultad de Ciencias, UNAM.
- García-Barros E, Gurrea P, Luciáñez MJ, Cano JM, Munguira ML, Moreno JC, Sainz H, Sanz MJ, Simón JC. 2002. Parsimony analysis of endemicity and its application to animal and plant geographical distributions in the Ibero-Balearic region (western Mediterranean). Journal of Biogeography 29: 109–124.
- García-Trejo EA, Navarro AG. 2004. Patrones biogeográficos de la riqueza de especies y el endemismo de la avifauna en el oeste de México. Acta Zoológica Mexicana 20: 167–185.
- Gernandt D, Geada-López G, Ortiz-García S, Liston A. 2005. Phylogeny and classification of *Pinus. Taxon* 54: 29-42.
- Glasby CJ, Álvarez B. 1999. Distribution patterns and biogeographic analysis of Austral Polychaeta (Annelida). Journal of Biogeography 26: 507-534.
- **Goloboff P. 1999.** *Nona*, Version 2.0 (for Windows). San Miguel de Tucumán: Published by the author.
- González D, Vovides AP. 2002. Low intralineage divergence in *Ceratozamia* (Zamiaceae) detected with nuclear ribosomal DNA ITS and chloroplast DNA trnL-F non coding region. *Systematic Botany* 27: 654–661.
- Graham A. 1999. The Tertiary history of the northern temperate element in the northern Latin American biota. *American Journal of Botany* 86: 32–38.
- Halffter G. 1976. Distribución de los insectos en la Zona de Transición Mexicana. Relaciones con la entomofauna de Norteamérica. Folia Entomológica Mexicana 35: 1–64.
- Halffter G. 1978. Un nuevo patrón de dispersión en la Zona de Transición Mexicana: El Mesoamericano de Montaña. *Folia Entomológica Mexicana* 39–40: 219–222.
- Halffter G. 1987. Biogeography of the montane entomofauna of Mexico and Central America. Annual Review of Entomology 32: 95–114.
- Holmgren PK, Holmgren NH, Barnett LC. 1990. Index Herbariorum, pt I, The Herbaria of the World. New York Botanical Garden, Bronx: International Association of Plant Taxonomy.
- Huang J, Giannasi DE, Price RA. 2005. Phylogenetic relationships in *Ephedra* (Ephedraceae) inferred from chloroplast and nuclear DNA sequences. *Molecular Phylogenetics* and Evolution 35: 48–59.
- Katinas L, Crisci JV, Wagner WL, Hoch PC. 2004. Geographical diversification of tribes Epilobieae, Gongylocar-

peae, and Onagreae (Onagraceae) in North America, based on parsimony analysis of endemicity and track compatibility analysis. *Annals of the Missouri Botanical Garden* **91:** 159– 185.

- León-Paniagua L, García E, Arroyo-Cabrales J, Castañeda-Rico S. 2004. Patrones biogeográficos de la mastofauna. In: Luna I, Morrone JJ, Espinosa D, eds. *Biodiversidad de la Sierra Madre Oriental*. México DF: UNAM, 469–486.
- Liebherr JK. 1991. A general area cladogram for montane Mexico based on distributions in the Platynine genera *Elliptoleus* and *Calathus* (Coleoptera: Carabidae). *Proceedings of the Entomological Society of Washington* 93: 390–406.
- Linder HP. 2001. Plant diversity and endemism in sub-Saharan tropical Africa. Journal of Biogeography 28: 169– 182.
- Lozano-García MS, Xelhuantzi-López MS. 1997. Some problems in the Late Quaternary pollen records of Central Mexico: basins of Mexico and Zacapu. *Quaternary International* 43/44: 117–123.
- Luna I, Alcántara O, Espinosa D, Morrone JJ. 1999. Historical relationships of the Mexican cloud forests: a preliminary vicariance model applying parsimony analysis of endemicity to vascular plant taxa. *Journal of Biogeography* 26: 1299–1305.
- Luna I, Alcántara O, Morrone JJ, Espinosa D. 2000. Track analysis and conservation priorities in the cloud forests of Hidalgo, Mexico. *Diversity and Distributions* 6: 137–143.
- Luna I, Morrone JJ, Alcántara O, Espinosa D. 2001. Biogeographical affinities among Neotropical cloud forests. *Plant Systematics and Evolution* **228**: 229–239.
- McVaugh R. 1992. Gymnosperms. In: Anderson WR, ed. Flora Novo-Galiciana, Vol. 17. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press, 4–119.
- Maldonado M, Uriz MJ. 1995. Biotic affinities in a transitional zone between the Atlantic and the Mediterranean: a biogeographical approach based on sponges. *Journal of Biogeography* 22: 89–110.
- Martínez-Hernández E, Ramírez E. 1996. Paleocorología de angiospermas de la flora mexicana durante el Mesozoico y Terciario: algunas evidencias palinológicas. Boletín de la Sociedad Botánica de México 58: 87–97.
- Medina R, Dávila P. 1997. Gymnospermae. In: Dávila P, Villaseñor JL, Medina R, Téllez O, eds. Flora Del Valle de Tehuacán-Cuicatlán. Fascicle 12. México DF: Instituto de Biología, UNAM, 1–29.
- Méndez-Larios I, Villaseñor JL, Lira R, Morrone JJ, Dávila P, Ortiz E. 2005. Toward the identification of a core zone in the Tehuacán-Cuicatlán biosphere reserve, Mexico, based on parsimony analysis of endemicity of flowering plant species. *Interciencia* **30**: 267–274.
- Moretti A, Caputo P, Cozzolino S, De Luca P, Gaudio L, Siniscalco G, Stevenson DW. 1993. A phylogenetic analysis of Dioon (Zamiaceae). American Journal of Botany 80: 204–214.
- Morrone JJ. 1994a. On the identification of areas of endemism. Systematic Biology 43: 438-441.

- **Morrone JJ. 1994b.** Distributional patterns of species of Rhytirrhinini (Coleoptera: Curculionidae) and the historical relationships of the Andean provinces. *Global Ecology and Biogeography Letters* **4**: 188–194.
- **Morrone JJ. 1998.** On Udvardy's Insulantarctica province: a test from the weevils (Coleoptera: Curculionoidea). *Journal of Biogeography* **25:** 947–955.
- Morrone JJ. 2005. Hacia una síntesis biogeográfica de México. Revista Mexicana de Biodiversidad 76: 207–252.
- Morrone JJ, Escalante T. 2002. Parsimony analysis of endemicity (PAE) of Mexican terrestrial mammals at different area units: when size matters. *Journal of Biogeography* 29: 1095–1104.
- Morrone JJ, Espinosa D, Aguilar C, Llorente J. 1999. Preliminary classification of the Mexican biogeographic provinces: a parsimony analysis of endemicity based on plant, insect, and bird taxa. *Southwestern Naturalist* 44: 507–514.
- Morrone JJ, Gutiérrez A. 2005. Do fleas (Insecta: Siphonaptera) parallel their mammal host diversification in the Mexican transition zone? *Journal of Biogeography* 28: 1315–1325.
- Morrone JJ, Márquez J. 2001. Halffter's Mexican transition zone, beetle generalized tracks, and geographical homology. *Journal of Biogeography* 28: 635–650.
- Narave H, Taylor K. 1997. Pinaceae. In: Sosa V, ed. Flora de Veracruz. Fascicle 98. Xalapa, Veracruz: Instituto de Ecología AC and University of California, 1–50.
- Navarro AG, Garza-Torres HA, López de Aquino S, Rojas-Soto OR, Sánchez-González LA. 2004. Patrones biogeográficos de la avifauna. In: Luna I, Morrone JJ, Espinosa D, eds. *Biodiversidad de la Sierra Madre Oriental*. México DF: UNAM, 439–467.
- Nixon KC. 2002. *WinClada*, Version 1.00.08. Ithaca, NY: Published by the author.
- **Osborne R. 1995.** The 1991–1992 world cycad census and a proposed revision of the threatened species status for cycads. In: Vorster P, ed. *Proceedings of the Third International Conference on cycad biology*. Stellensboch: Cycad Society of South Africa, 65–83.
- Palacios R, Rzedowski J. 1993. Estudio palinológico de las floras fósiles del Mioceno Inferior y principios del Mioceno Medio de la región de Pichucalco, Chiapas, México. Acta Botánica Mexicana 24: 1–96.
- Patterson TE. 1988. A new species of *Picea* (Pinaceae) from Nuevo León, México. *Sida* 13: 131–135.
- Porzecanski AL, Cracraft J. 2005. Cladistic analysis of distributions and endemism (CADE): using raw distributions of birds to unravel the biogeography of the South American aridlands. *Journal of Biogeography* 32: 261– 275.
- Ramírez-Pulido J, Castro-Campillo A. 1990. Regionalización mastofaunística (mamíferos). Mapa IV.8.8.A. In: Gutiérrez MT, Coll-Hurtado A, García A, eds. Atlas Nacional de México, Vol. II. México DF: Instituto de Geografía, UNAM.
- Rojas-Soto O, Alcántara O, Navarro A. 2003. Regionalization of the avifauna of the Baja California Peninsula,

Mexico: a parsimony analysis of endemicity and distributional modeling approach. *Journal of Biogeography* **30:** 449– 461.

- Ron SR. 2000. Biogeographic area relationships of lowland Neotropical rainforest based on raw distributions of vertebrate groups. *Biological Journal of the Linnean Society* 71: 379–402.
- **Rosen BR. 1984.** Reef coral biogeography and climate through the Late Cainozoic: just islands in the sun or a critical pattern of islands? In: Brenchley P, ed. *Fossils and climate*. London: John Wiley & Sons, 201–262.
- **Rosen BR. 1988.** From fossils to earth history: applied historical biogeography. In: Myers AA, Giller PS, eds. *Analytical biogeography*. London: Chapman & Hall, 437–481.
- Rosen BR, Smith AB. 1988. Tectonics from fossils? Analysis of reef-coral and sea-urchin distributions from late Cretaceous to Recent, using a new method. Gondwana and Tethys, Special Publications of the Geological Society of London 37: 275–306.
- Ruggiero A, Ezcurra C. 2003. Regiones y transiciones biogeográficas: complementariedad de los análisis en biogeografía histórica y ecológica. In: Morrone JJ, Llorente J, eds. Una perspectiva latinoamericana de la biogeografía. México DF: Las Prensas de Ciencias, UNAM, 141–154.
- **Rzedowski J. 1978.** Vegetación de México. México DF: Limusa.
- Smith AB. 1992. Echinoid distribution in the Cenomanian: an analytical study in biogeography. *Palaeogeography*, *Palaeoclimatology*, *Palaeoecology* 93: 263–276.
- Smith HM. 1941. Las provincias bióticas de México, según la distribución geográfica de las lagartijas del género Sceloporus. Anales de la Escuela Nacional de Ciencias Biológicas 2: 103–110.
- Stevenson DW, Sabato S, Vázquez-Torres M. 1986. A new species of *Ceratozamia* (Zamiaceae) from Veracruz, Mexico with comments on species relationships, habitats, and vegetative morphology in *Ceratozamia*. *Brittonia* 38: 17–26.

- Styles BT. 1993. Genus Pinus: a Mexican purview. In: Ramamoorthy TP, Bye R, Lot A, Fa J, eds. Biological diversity of Mexico: origins and distribution. New York, NY: Oxford University Press, 397–420.
- Trejo-Torres JC, Ackerman JD. 2001. Biogeography of the Antilles based on a parsimony analysis of orchid distributions. *Journal of Biogeography* 28: 775–794.
- Trejo-Torres JC, Ackerman JD. 2002. Composition patterns of Caribbean limestone forests: are parsimony, classification, and ordination analyses congruent? *Biotropica* 34: 502–515.
- Vivó JA. 1943. Los límites biogeográficos en América y la zona cultural mesoamericana. *Revista de Geografía* 3: 109–131.
- Vovides AP. 1983. Zamiaceae. In: Gómez-Pompa A, ed. Flora de Veracruz. Xalapa: INIREB, 1–31.
- Vovides AP. 1999. Familia Zamiaceae. In: Rzedowski J, Calderón G, eds. *Flora del Bajío y de regiones adyacentes*. Fascicle 71. AC Pátzcuaro: Instituto de Ecología, 1–17.
- Wiggins IL. 1980. Flora of Baja California. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Zamudio S. 1992. Familia Taxaceae. In: Rzedowski J, Calderón G, eds. *Flora del Bajío y de regiones adyacentes*. Fascicle 9. Pátzcuaro, Michoacán: Instituto de Ecología, 1–7.
- Zamudio S. 2002. Familia Podocarpaceae. In: Rzedowski J, Calderón G, eds. Flora del Bajío y de regiones adyacentes. Fascicle 105. Pátzcuaro, Michoacán: Instituto de Ecología, 1–7.
- Zamudio S, Carranza E. 1994. Familia Cupressaceae. In: Rzedowski J, Calderón G, eds. *Flora del Bajío y de regiones adyacentes*. Fascicle 29. Pátzcuaro: Instituto de Ecología, 1–21.
- Zanoni TA. 1982. Cupressaceae. In: Gómez-Pompa A, ed. Flora de Veracruz. Fascicle 23. Xalapa: INIREB, 1–15.
- Zanoni TA, Adams RP. 1979. The genus Juniperus (Cupressaceae) in Mexico and Guatemala: synonymy, key, and distributions of the taxa. Boletín de la Sociedad Botánica de México 38: 83-121.

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

The following supplementary material is available for this article:

Table S1. Data matrix (grid-cells of 2° versus gymnosperm species) for the parsimony analysis of endemicity. **Table S2.** Data matrix (gymnosperm species versus biogeographical provinces) for the parsimony analysis of endemicity.

This material is available as part of the online article from: http://www.blackwell-synergy.com/doi/abs/10.1111/j.1095-8312.2007.00844.x (This link will take you to the article abstract).

Please note: Blackwell Publishing are not responsible for the content or functionality of any supplementary materials supplied by the authors. Any queries (other than missing material) should be directed to the corresponding author for the article.