

1 **Multi-locus phylogeny and species delimitation of Australo-Papuan blacksnakes**  
2 **(*Pseudechis* Wagler, 1830: Elapidae: Serpentes)**

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24

25 **Abstract**

26 Genetic analyses of Australasian organisms have resulted in the identification of  
27 extensive cryptic diversity across the continent. The venomous elapid snakes are among  
28 the best-studied organismal groups in this region, but many knowledge gaps persist: for  
29 instance, despite their iconic status, the species-level diversity among Australo-Papuan  
30 blacksnakes (*Pseudechis*) has remained poorly understood due to the existence of a group  
31 of cryptic species within the *P. australis* species complex, collectively termed “pygmy

32 mulga snakes”. Using two mitochondrial and three nuclear loci we assess species  
33 boundaries within the genus using Bayesian species delimitation methods and reconstruct  
34 their phylogenetic history using multispecies coalescent approaches. Our analyses  
35 support the recognition of 10 species, including all of the currently described pygmy  
36 mulga snakes and one undescribed species from the Northern Territory of Australia.  
37 Phylogenetic relationships within the genus are broadly consistent with previous work,  
38 with the recognition of three major groups, the viviparous red-bellied black snake *P.*  
39 *porphyriacus* forming the sister species to two clades consisting of ovoviviparous  
40 species.

41

## 42 **Introduction**

43 Molecular phylogenetics has become an increasingly important tool for almost all  
44 biological disciplines. While the importance of understanding intrageneric phylogenies is  
45 widely accepted (e.g. Barraclough and Nee, 2001), Australia, often referred to as the  
46 ‘land of the reptile’, has lagged behind Northern Hemisphere landmasses in terms of  
47 phylogenetic exploration (Beheregaray, 2008). Despite much progress, significant  
48 knowledge gaps still remain in snakes.

49 The highly venomous blacksnakes (*Pseudechis* Wagler, 1830) are widespread  
50 across Australia and southern New Guinea and represent one of the most recognisable  
51 genera across much of this distribution. The monophyly of the genus had been questioned  
52 due to the lack of clear morphological synapomorphies (e.g. Greer, 1997), but hemipenial  
53 morphology (Keogh, 1999) and a multilocus molecular phylogeny of Australasian elapids  
54 (Sanders et al., 2008) provided substantial evidence supporting the recognition of the  
55 genus.

56 The first published phylogeny of the genus (Mengden et al., 1986) grouped the six  
57 species then recognised into 3 major clades: the viviparous *P. porphyriacus* (Shaw, 1794)  
58 constituted the sister group to two oviparous clades, one with 19 dorsal scale rows at  
59 midbody (*P. colleti* Boulenger 1902, *P. guttatus* De Vis 1905, and *P. papuanus* Peters &  
60 Doria, 1878), and its sister clade with 17 scale rows at midbody (*P. australis* (Gray,  
61 1842) and *P. butleri* Smith, 1982). Subsequent mitochondrial (mtDNA) phylogenies  
62 (Kuch et al., 2005; Wüster et al., 2005) were largely congruent with that of Mengden et

63 al. (1986), but also provided evidence of deep divergences within *P. australis*, suggesting  
64 that this taxon may represent a multispecies complex, hereafter referred to as the *P.*  
65 *australis* complex (Kuch et al., 2005).

66 While most species of *Pseudechis* are restricted to specific regions of Australia or  
67 New Guinea, the *P. australis* complex is widespread across most of Australia and parts of  
68 southern New Guinea. This vast distribution and accompanying morphological variation  
69 have rendered this complex the subject of taxonomic confusion and controversy (Smith,  
70 1982). Beside the large, widespread *P. australis* sensu stricto, multiple additional taxa  
71 have been described within the complex, but except for *P. butleri*, these additional  
72 species, *P. weigeli* (Wells & Wellington, 1987), *P. pailsi* (Hoser, 1998) and *P. rossignolii*  
73 (Hoser, 2000), collectively termed “pygmy mulga snakes”, were described outside the  
74 peer-reviewed scientific literature (e.g. Wells and Wellington, 1987; Hoser 1998). As a  
75 result, most have only gained tentative and sporadic recognition by later authors (e.g.  
76 Williams et al., 2008; Cogger, 2014). However, several distinctive mitochondrial lineages  
77 within the *P. australis* complex appear to correspond to these taxa, suggesting that they  
78 may warrant recognition as separate species (Kuch et al., 2005). Nevertheless, there  
79 remains considerable uncertainty over the status and nomenclature of these taxa (e.g.,  
80 Inagaki et al., 2010), not least due to the confusion created by their largely evidence-free  
81 naming in the unreviewed hobbyist or self-published literature (see Kaiser et al., 2013,  
82 for comments).

83 Although the deep mitochondrial divergences within the *P. australis* complex are  
84 suggestive of taxonomic diversity, mitochondrial data on their own are inadequate for  
85 species delimitation (e.g. Leaché and Fujita, 2010) due to the non-recombining,  
86 matrilineal mode of inheritance of this locus, and phylogenetic inference on this basis  
87 relies on the assumption that the mtDNA gene tree reflects the species tree. Increasingly  
88 multiple nuclear markers are being used in combination with mtDNA for species  
89 delimitation purposes as well as for phylogenetic reconstruction, due to their biparental  
90 inheritance and their evolutionary independence from mtDNA and each other. Advances  
91 in multispecies coalescent models (e.g. Heled and Drummond, 2010) has enabled  
92 multiple independent loci to be analysed simultaneously within a framework that weights

93 each locus equally and accounts for gene tree incongruence resulting from incomplete  
94 lineage sorting, something that traditional concatenation methods cannot do.

95         Due to the confusion surrounding the status of the pygmy mulga snakes and other  
96 members of the genus, this study aims to (i) clarify species boundaries within the *P.*  
97 *australis* complex, and (ii) employ a multi-locus approach to test past phylogenetic  
98 hypotheses for *Pseudechis*. We use an expanded mitochondrial phylogeny to identify  
99 candidate species and test these using recently developed Bayesian approaches (Yang and  
100 Rannala, 2010, 2014). The phylogenetic relationships among the identified species are  
101 then inferred using multispecies coalescent methods.

102

## 103 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 104 *2.1. Tissue collection and extraction*

105 *Pseudechis* specimens from all known species were sampled from across Australia and  
106 New Guinea (see table 1 and figure 2), and genomic DNA was extracted from tissue,  
107 blood or sloughed skin using a Qiagen DNeasy™ Tissue Kit according to the  
108 manufacturer's protocol.

109

### 110 *2.2. PCR amplification*

111 Sequences of two mitochondrial gene fragments (*nadh4* and *cytb*) and partial exon  
112 sequences of three single copy protein coding nuclear (nuDNA) genes (*prlr*, *ubn1* and  
113 *nt3*) were generated (see supplementary material 1 for primer details). PCRs were carried  
114 out in 11ul volumes with the following thermocycling conditions: denature at 94 °C for 2  
115 minutes (min); then 35 (*ubn1*, *nt3* and *prlr*) or 40 (*nadh4* and *cytb*) cycles of [94 °C for  
116 30 seconds (s); annealing at 48 °C (*cytb*, *nt3*), 50 °C (*ubn1* and *prlr*), or 54 °C (*nadh4*) for  
117 30 seconds; 72 °C amplification for 45 s]; and a final extension of 72 °C for 5 min.

118 Mitochondrial DNA was Sanger sequenced in the forward direction only and nuDNA in  
119 both directions by Macrogen Inc., South Korea.

120

### 121 *2.3 Sequence data preparation*

122         PHASE v. 2.1.1 (Stephens et al., 2001) was used to reconstruct individual alleles  
123 (haplotypes) from diploid nuclear sequences. Input files for PHASE were produced using

124 the online resource seqPHASE (Flot, 2010). For each locus, PHASE was executed three  
125 times at a random starting seed for 1000 iterations, a 10 thinning interval, and 100 burn-  
126 in. Each run was examined against the other two to test for mean frequency concordance,  
127 and the most similar to zero selected for further analysis. Sites with heterozygous  
128 probabilities of  $\geq 0.7$  were considered to be correctly called by PHASE, a standard  
129 employed in many phylogenetic studies.

130 The optimal partitioning strategy and evolutionary substitution models (for  
131 Bayesian inference (BI) were selected based on results using PartitionFinder (Lanfear et  
132 al., 2012) (supplementary material 2), from a total set of six possible partitions for  
133 mtDNA analyses comprising (codon positions 1, 2 and 3 from *nadh4* and *cytb*); and from  
134 four possible partitions for each locus for complete dataset analyses. The optimal  
135 partitioning strategy and evolutionary substitution models were identical across all  
136 optimality criteria (AIC, AICc and BIC).

137

#### 138 2.4. Mitochondrial phylogeny

139 *Acanthophis rugosus* and *Oxyuranus scutellatus* were used as outgroups in the mtDNA  
140 analyses based on their relationships with *Pseudechis* (sister genus and a more distant  
141 outgroup respectively) (Sanders et al., 2008). All sequences were aligned using  
142 CodonCode Aligner v. 3.7.1 and checked for any unexpected indels or stop codons using  
143 MEGA5 (Tamura et al., 2011).

144 Maximum likelihood (ML) and BI methods were employed to infer phylogenetic  
145 relationships of the mitochondrial haplotypes. The dataset was first partitioned into four  
146 pertinent partitions based on suggestions from PartitionFinder (*nadh4* codon position (cp)  
147 1; *nadh4* cp2 and *cytb* cp1; *nadh4* cp3 and *cytb* cp2; and *cytb* cp3). For ML, Randomized  
148 Axelerated Maximum Likelihood (RAxML) v.7.2.2 (Pfeiffer and Stamatakis, 2010) was  
149 used to estimate the ML tree under the GTR-gamma model and assess clade support  
150 using 500 bootstrap replicates using the GTR-CAT model. RAxML was run through the  
151 CIPRES Science Gateway v.3.1 (Miller et al., 2010). Data generated in this study was  
152 also compared with the *nadh4* sequence data from Kuch et al. (2005) and obtained  
153 through GenBank (see supplementary material 5 for further information).

154 MrBayes v.3.1.2 (Ronquist and Huelsenbeck, 2003) was implemented for BI and  
155 was run for  $10^7$  generations, with two independent parallel runs each with one cold and  
156 three heated chains each. Trees were sampled every 1000 generations. Convergence and  
157 sufficient parameter sampling was assessed using Tracer v.1.5 (available from  
158 <http://beast.bio.ed.ac.uk/Tracer>) by examining effective sample size of each parameter.

159

## 160 2.5. *Species delimitation*

161 To visualise patterns of haplotype sharing between candidate species, we  
162 constructed median-joining networks using the software Network v.4.6.11 (Fluxus-  
163 engineering.com).

164 The reversible-jump Markov Chain Monte Carlo (rjMCMC) method of Yang &  
165 Rannala (2010), implemented through the software BPP v.3 (Rannala and Yang, 2003;  
166 Yang and Rannala, 2014), was used to test whether the candidate species suggested by  
167 the mitochondrial gene tree are supported by the nuclear gene sequences. This method  
168 tests alternative speciation hypotheses while accommodating uncertainty in the species  
169 tree. Posterior probabilities are determined for different speciation models by collapsing  
170 (no speciation) or expanding (speciation) nodes of the species tree using rjMCMC  
171 sampling.

172 In any Bayesian analysis, the results may be strongly influenced by the priors.  
173 The key priors for Bayesian species delimitation are the ancestral population size ( $\theta$ ) and  
174 root age ( $\tau_0$ ). Both can affect the posterior probabilities for speciation models (Yang &  
175 Rannala, 2010). Since we lacked adequate prior knowledge of these parameters, we  
176 assessed the impact of different combinations of priors on the posterior speciation  
177 probabilities. We considered four different combinations of priors, both being assigned a  
178 gamma  $G(\alpha, \beta)$  distribution, consisting of four combinations of small or large ancestral  
179 population sizes and shallow or deep divergences. Large and small ancestral population  
180 size estimates were modelled as  $\theta \sim G(1,10)$  and  $\theta \sim G(2,2000)$ , respectively, and deep  
181 and shallow divergences as  $\tau_0 \sim G(1,10)$  and  $\tau_0 \sim G(2,2000)$  respectively (following the  
182 scheme of Leaché & Fujita, 2010). Priors assuming large ancestral population sizes and  
183 shallow divergences are more conservative in terms of numbers of species estimated  
184 (Yang & Rannala, 2010).

185 We used the clades found in the mitochondrial phylogeny as candidate species for  
186 species delimitation. We tested the following candidate species using this procedure: the  
187 universally recognised taxa *P. porphyriacus*, *P. colletti*, *P. guttatus*, *P. papuanus*, *P.*  
188 *butleri*, and *P. australis* sensu stricto, and four contentious taxa from the *P. australis*  
189 complex: the New Guinea pygmy mulga snake, *P. rossignolii* (Hoser, 2000), the  
190 Kimberley form described as *Cannia weigeli* Wells & Wellington (1987), the SW  
191 Queensland form described as *Pailsus pailsei* Hoser (1998) and a Northern Territory  
192 form of unclear nomenclatural status, here referred to as NT dwarf form (see Kaiser et al.,  
193 2013). BPP3 was run twice for each combination of tau and theta priors, using 100,000  
194 generations, a burnin of 20,000 generations and a sampling frequency of 2.

195

## 196 2.6 Multilocus coalescent species tree

197 A species level phylogeny was produced using all sampled loci based on the  
198 results of the mtDNA analysis and the Bayesian species delimitation analysis using  
199 \*BEAST (Heled and Drummond, 2010). The MCMC chain ran for  $3 \times 10^8$  generations  
200 with sampling every 30,000 generations. The first 10% of reads were discarded as burn-  
201 in. The dataset was partitioned by locus and following preliminary runs that detected  
202 significant variation in evolutionary rate for all genes except *prlr* relaxed molecular  
203 clocks were used for all partitions apart from *prlr* where a strict clock was used.  
204 Evolutionary rates of the nuclear loci were estimated relative to the mitochondrial locus.  
205 A Yule-process prior was used for the species tree in conjunction with a piecewise linear  
206 and constant-root population-size model. Convergence and adequate sampling ( $ESS \geq$   
207 200) of all parameters was verified using Tracer.

208

## 209 3. Results and Discussion

### 210 3.1. Gene variability and mitochondrial phylogenetic relationships

211 Within *Pseudechis*, *nadh4* (698bp) had 232 variable sites of which 159 were parsimony  
212 informative; *cytb* (709bp) had 214 variable sites of which 148 were parsimony  
213 informative; *prlr* (538bp) had 16 variable sites of which 11 were parsimony informative;  
214 *ubn1* (486bp) had 7 variable sites of which 3 were parsimony informative; and *nt3*  
215 (584bp) had 19 variable sites of which 13 were parsimony informative. The low

216 variability present in the nuclear datasets is unsurprising and is consistent with the recent  
217 radiation of the Australian elapid fauna (Sanders et al., 2008), yet despite this they  
218 provided phylogenetic signal in haplotype assemblages conforming to splitting between  
219 some of the major clades.

220 The mitochondrial dataset revealed the same major clades presented in Wüster et  
221 al. (2005) and the relationships within the *P. australis* complex presented by Kuch et al.  
222 (2005) (Fig. 1; supplementary material 5). In particular, the four mtDNA clades within  
223 the *P. australis* complex identified by Kuch et al. are represented in our mitochondrial  
224 gene tree, and provide the basis for the designation of candidate species for delimitation.

225

### 226 3.2 Species delimitation

227 Networks of nuclear haplotypes (Fig. 2) revealed patterns of shared alleles broadly  
228 consistent with the mitochondrial gene tree: *P. porphyriacus* group, *P. australis* group,  
229 and *P. papuanus* group all possess unique alleles. However, the constituent species of  
230 these clades frequently share alleles. *Pseudechis colletti* and *P. guttatus* share alleles and  
231 both of these also share alleles with *P. papuanus* in *ubn1*. Similarly, the sympatric *P.*  
232 *australis* and *P. butleri* share alleles with each other in *ubn1*. Since sharing of alleles  
233 occurs across the Torres Strait and between clearly distinct species that are sympatric,  
234 and thus likely to be largely reproductively isolated, it seems more likely that this  
235 represents the sharing of common ancestral alleles rather than the result of ongoing gene  
236 flow.

237 Although our sampling in this study is limited, our nuDNA data provides  
238 additional evidence on species limits within the genus, and in particular within the  
239 contentious *P. australis* complex. Bayesian species delimitation provided strong support  
240 for most of the candidate species, irrespective of tau and theta priors (Table 2). Overall  
241 the highest posterior support was for a 10 species model, thus supporting the status of all  
242 candidate species. The universally recognised taxa *P. porphyriacus*, *P. butleri*, *P.*  
243 *papuanus* and *P. australis* were consistently supported by speciation probabilities  $\geq 0.99$ .  
244 The same is also true of the previously contentious taxon *P. rossignolii* from New  
245 Guinea. *Pseudechis colletti* and *P. guttatus* were somewhat less supported, with  
246 speciation probabilities of 0.89 in analyses where priors assumed a large ancestral



247 population size. The contentious taxon *P. pailsi*, from western Queensland, received  
248 similar support as *P. colletti* and *P. guttatus*. We regard all of these taxa as separate  
249 species based on the evidence presented here. The status of the Kimberley (*P. weigeli*)  
250 and NT forms was less certain: analyses with priors based on assumptions of large  
251 ancestral populations provided little support for separate species status for the two taxa,  
252 whereas analyses based on assumptions of small ancestral populations provided stronger  
253 support. Nevertheless, in all analyses, separate species status for both *P. weigeli* and the  
254 NT dwarf form was the option receiving the highest support. While we acknowledge the  
255 need of more data to fully resolve the status of *P. weigeli* and the NT pygmy mulga as  
256 separate species, we consider both to be distinct for coalescent species tree inference.

257

### 258 3.3 Multilocus phylogeny

259 The nuclear genes used here have provided novel evidence on the phylogeny of  
260 *Pseudechis*. The multilocus species tree (Fig. 1) is largely congruent with the  
261 mitochondrial phylogeny. The three major subclades of *Pseudechis* (Mengden et al.,  
262 1986; Wüster et al., 2005) and the relationships among them remain strongly supported.  
263 Within the *P. australis* complex, our data were unable to resolve relationships between  
264 the four main groups: *P. australis* sensu stricto, *P. butleri*, *P. rossigolii*, and the  
265 Australian pygmy mulga clade.

266 There was strong support for the sister species relationship of the Australian *P.*  
267 *colletti* with *P. guttatus*, with the Papuan *P. papuanus* forming their closest relatives.  
268 Within the strongly supported clade of species with 17 scale rows, our data revealed four  
269 major subclades: *P. australis* sensu stricto, *P. butleri*, *P. rossignolii* and an Australian  
270 pygmy mulga clade containing *P. pailsi*, *P. weigeli* and the NT dwarf form (species A:  
271 Fig. 1). However, we were unable to resolve the relationships between these four  
272 subclades in the *P. australis* complex.

273 The nuDNA revealed a large amount of variation within *P. australis* sensu stricto  
274 (Fig. 2), which was not revealed by mtDNA alone (Kuch et al., 2005; Wüster et al., 2005;  
275 Fig. 1). This could be attributed to aridification changes (which occurred in the Pliocene  
276 from arid to mesic to arid) (see Byrne et al., 2008) or glacial cycling causing populations  
277 to retract to different refugia therefore separating populations. This would contradict the

278 theory of a single rapid range expansion during the Pleistocene (Kuch et al., 2005) as a  
279 sole explanation for the phylogeographic pattern observed, suggesting instead multiple  
280 instances of range expansion by several populations from different refugia after glacial  
281 cooling. The lack of variability in mt- compared to nuDNA may have been due to  
282 secondary introgression and fixation, possibly as a result of a selective sweep. Although  
283 this pattern has been commonly observed in other taxa and its occurrence in reptiles is  
284 documented reasonably well in lizards (e.g., Rato et al., 2010, 2011), only limited data is  
285 available for snakes (Barbanera et al., 2009). Alternatively, the observed pattern is also  
286 consistent with past diversification followed by more recent genetic drift or a short  
287 bottleneck (as per Kuch et al., 2005), resulting in reduced greater reduction of mtDNA  
288 haplotype diversity compared to nuDNA allele diversity due to the lower effective  
289 population size of the former. This further underscores the problems with solely utilising  
290 mtDNA in phylogenetic studies.

291 In conclusion, our multilocus phylogeny largely confirmed previous  
292 mitochondrial (Kuch et al., 2005; Wüster et al., 2005) and morphological phylogenies  
293 (Mengden et al., 1986) of *Pseudechis*, supporting the existence of three major clades  
294 within the genus. Our new nuclear data confirm the validity of separate species across  
295 several lineages that have previously been revealed by mtDNA phylogeographic  
296 analyses, but whose status had remained contentious due to a lack of other corroborating  
297 evidence. [Based on the current body of evidence](#), our results suggest that 10 species of  
298 *Pseudechis* should be recognized pending further analysis.

299

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421 **Table 1.** Sample information and sequences generated in this study. Abbreviations in accession number refer to: NT = Northern Territory  
 422 Museum; QM = Queensland Museum; WAM = Western Australia Museum; SAM = South Australian Museum. Locality abbreviations are as  
 423 follows: NT = Northern Territory; QLD = Queensland; WA = Western Australia; SA = South Australia; PNG = Papua New Guinea and within  
 424 PNG CP = Central Province and WP = Western Province.

Species	Accession number	Locality	Locus				
			NADH4	CYTB	PRLR	UBN1	NT3
NT dwarf form	NT R28277	Wigram Island, English Company Islands, NT	KX981683				
NT dwarf form	NT R29812	Ooloo Road, Daly River, NT	KX981667	KX981640	KX981721		KX981783
NT dwarf form	NT R35195	Umbakumba, Groote Eylandt, NT	KX981682				
NT dwarf form	NT R35582	Daly River, NT	KX981668	KX981641	KX981722		KX981784
NT dwarf form	NT R36768	Wongalara, NT	KX981666	KX981639	KX981720		KX981782
NT dwarf form	WW1234	Adelaide River, NT	KX981654	KX981623	KX981732		KX981762
<i>P. australis</i>	NT R35196	Kapalga, Kakadu NP, NT	KX981665	KX981638	KX981719	KX981689	KX981781
<i>P. australis</i>	QM A007284	Heathlands Resource Reserve, Cape York Peninsula, QLD		KX981637	KX981717	KX981687	KX981779
<i>P. australis</i>	WW1139	Alice Springs, NT	KX981648	KX981617	KX981729	KX981709	KX981757
<i>P. australis</i>	WW1149	Port Hedland, WA	KX981647	KX981615		KX981706	KX981759
<i>P. australis</i>	WW1157	Mt. Isa, QLD	KX981678	KX981616		KX981727	KX981760
<i>P. australis</i>	WW1235	Barkly Tableland, NT	KX981653	KX981622			KX981763
<i>P. australis</i>	WW1237	Mt. Isa, QLD	KX981650	KX981619			KX981765
<i>P. australis</i>	WW1238	Mt. Isa, QLD	KX981651	KX981620	KX981730		KX981766
<i>P. australis</i>	WW1260	Kakadu Hwy, NT	KX981649	KX981618			KX981767
<i>P. australis</i>	WW1512	Frewena Station, NT	KX981655	KX981627			KX981769
<i>P. australis</i>	WW3207	Alice Springs, NT	KX981658	KX981630	KX981746	KX981707	KX981772
<i>P. australis</i>	WW855	St George, QLD	KX981672		KX981737	KX981705	KX981755
<i>P. australis</i>	WW856	Eyre Peninsula, SA	KX981676		KX981747	KX981697	KX981756
<i>P. butleri</i>	WAM R156863	Murchison, WA	KX981669		KX981725	KX981692	KX981787

<i>P. butleri</i>	WW1148	Leonora, WA	KX981680	KX981626	KX981739		KX981758
<i>P. colletti</i>	QM A001703	Audreystone, QLD	KX981663	KX981636	KX981716		
<i>P. colletti</i>	QM A007566	Ballater Stn, 123 km SE Richmond, QLD	KX981664				
<i>P. colletti</i>	WW853	QLD	KX981673		KX981749	KX981704	KX981753
<i>P. guttatus</i>	QM A000609	Warwick, QLD	KX981662		KX981715	KX981686	KX981778
<i>P. guttatus</i>	QM A000613	Wallumbilla, QLD	KX981661		KX981714	KX981685	KX981777
<i>P. guttatus</i>	WW854	QLD	KX981675		KX981748	KX981699	KX981754
<i>P. pailsi</i>	QM A000587	Dajarra Road, Mt. Isa, QLD		KX981634	KX981712	KX981684	KX981775
<i>P. pailsi</i>	WW1158	Captive specimen	KX981677	KX981624	KX981731	KX981710	KX981761
<i>P. pailsi</i>	WW1236	Mt. Isa, QLD	KX981679	KX981625	KX981738	KX981711	KX981764
<i>P. papuanus</i>	WW1367	Papua, Indonesia	KX981644	KX981610	KX981740	KX981700	
<i>P. papuanus</i>	WW1368	Papua, Indonesia	KX981645	KX981611	KX981741	KX981698	KX981768
<i>P. papuanus</i>	WW1502	Iamega Village, WP, PNG	KX981657	KX981629	KX981742		
<i>P. papuanus</i>	WW1735	Sabuia, CP, PNG	KX981646	KX981612	KX981743	KX981701	KX981770
<i>P. papuanus</i>	WW1736	Saibai Island, QLD	KX981656	KX981628	KX981744	KX981702	KX981771
<i>P. papuanus</i>	WW844	Bamustu, WP, PNG	KX981643	KX981609	KX981745	KX981703	KX981751
<i>P. porphyriacus</i>	QM A001270	Twin Falls, Paluma, QLD			KX981718	KX981688	KX981780
<i>P. porphyriacus</i>	QM A004039	Karrabin-Rosewood Road, Thagoona, QLD	KX981681	KX981635	KX981713		KX981776
<i>P. porphyriacus</i>	WW852	Borossa Valley, SA	KX981642	KX981605	KX981733	KX981694	KX981752
<i>P. rossignolii</i>	WW275	Merauke, Indonesia	KX981652	KX981621	KX981736	KX981708	KX981750
<i>P. rossignolii</i>	WW4238	Captive specimen			KX981723	KX981690	KX981785
<i>P. rossignolii</i>	WW4239	Captive specimen			KX981724	KX981691	KX981786
<i>P. weigeli</i>	WAM	Prince Regent Nature Reserve,					
<i>P. weigeli</i>	R171499	Kimberley, WA	KX981670		KX981726	KX981693	KX981788
<i>P. weigeli</i>	WW3209	Litchfield, NT	KX981659	KX981631	KX981734	KX981695	KX981773
<i>P. weigeli</i>	WW3212	Kununurra, WA	KX981660	KX981632	KX981735	KX981696	KX981774

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427 **Table 2.** Posterior probabilities for species status for candidate species of *Pseudechis* and different numbers of species under different tau and  
 428 theta prior combinations. Only scores from the first run of each analysis are shown. BPP scores are given to two decimal places and alternatives  
 429 receiving BPP  $\leq 0.01$  in all combinations are not shown. Complete scores for both runs of each of the BPP analysis are shown in Appendix 1.  
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	thetaprior = 2 2000 tauprior = 2 2000	thetaprior = 1 10 tauprior = 1 10	thetaprior = 1 10 tauprior = 2 2000	thetaprior = 2 2000 tauprior = 1 10
	Small ancestral population, shallow divergences	Large ancestral population, deep divergences	Large ancestral population, shallow divergences	Small ancestral population, deep divergences
<i>australis</i>	1	1	1	1
<i>butleri</i>	1	1	1	1
<i>pailsi</i>	0.99	0.84	0.95	0.98
<i>pailsi</i> +NT dwarf form	0.01	0.15	0.05	0.02
<i>weigeli</i>	0.94	0.73	0.61	0.92
<i>weigeli</i> +NT dwarf form	0.05	0.26	0.39	0.08
NT dwarf form	0.93	0.59	0.56	0.9
<i>rossignolii</i>	1	1	1	1
<i>guttatus</i>	0.98	0.9	0.93	0.98
<i>guttatus</i> + <i>colletti</i>	0.02	0.09	0.07	0.02
<i>colletti</i>	0.98	0.91	0.93	0.98
<i>papuanus</i>	1	1	1	1
<i>porphyriacus</i>	1	1	1	1
<b>BPP for number of species</b>				
P[7]		0.00	0.00	
P[8]	0.00	0.04	0.03	0.00
P[9]	0.08	0.43	0.45	0.12
P[10]	0.91	0.53	0.52	0.88

431 **Fig. 1** Phylogeny of *Pseudechis*. (a) Phylogenetic tree of the relationships inferred from  
432 the mitochondrial dataset. Bayesian inference tree with maximum likelihood support  
433 values placed on (BI posterior clade probabilities / ML bootstrap percentages). Where  
434 there is a disagreement in topology between BI and ML analyses a ‘\*’ indicates this.  
435 The separate ML and BI trees are presented in supplementary material 4. (b) Bayesian  
436 species tree of the relationships within *Pseudechis* inferred using the multispecies  
437 coalescent in \*BEAST. Support on branches is BI posterior clade probabilities. State  
438 abbreviations are as follows: WA = Western Australia, NT = Northern Territory, Qld =  
439 Queensland, SA = South Australia (Australia); WP = Western Province, CP = Central  
440 Province (Papua New Guinea).

441  
442 **Fig. 2** (a) Sampling map of *Pseudechis* used in this study. Colours used refer to  
443 individual species supported in the bpp analyses and are indicated in the key and are the  
444 same used in the nuclear haplotype networks; (b) haplotype network for the *nt3* locus;  
445 (c) haplotype network for the *ubn1* locus; (d) haplotype network for the *prlr* network.  
446 White circles indicate median vectors; black circles indicate mutational steps.

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