



**Geographic differentiation and cryptic diversity in the
monocled cobra, *Naja kaouthia* (Elapidae) from Thailand**

Journal:	<i>Zoologica Scripta</i>
Manuscript ID	ZSC-03-2019-0036.R2
Manuscript Type:	Original Manuscript
Date Submitted by the Author:	n/a
Complete List of Authors:	Ratnarathorn, Napat; UCL, Cell and Developmental Biology; Chulalongkorn University, Biology Harnyuttanakorn, Pongchai; Chulalongkorn University, Biology Chanhome, Lawan; Thai Red Cross Society, Snake Farm, Queen Saovabha Memorial Institute Evans, Susan; UCL, Cell and Developmental Biology Day, Julia; UCL, Genetics, Evolution, and Environment
Keywords:	Monocled cobra, snakes, molecular phylogenetics, mitochondrial DNA, phylogeography, cryptic species

SCHOLARONE™
Manuscripts

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1 **Geographic differentiation and cryptic diversity in the**
2 **monocled cobra, *Naja kaouthia* (Elapidae) from Thailand**

3 Napat RATNARATHORN^{a,b,c}, Pongchai HARNYUTTANAKORN^b, Lawan CHANHOME^c, Susan E.
4 EVANS^a, and Julia J. DAY^d

5 ^a *Department of Cell and Developmental Biology, University College London, London WC1E 6BT,*
6 *UK*

7 ^b *Department of Biology, Faculty of Science, Chulalongkorn University, Pathum Wan, Bangkok,*
8 *10330, Thailand*

9 ^c *Snake Farm, Queen Saovabha Memorial Institute, Pathum Wan, Bangkok, 10330, Thailand*

10 ^d *Department of Genetics, Evolution and Environment, University College London, London WC1E*
11 *6BT, UK*

12 **Running title:** Geographic differentiation in the monocled cobra

13 Ratnarathorn et al.

14 Corresponding authors:

15 Dr Julia DAY, **Tel:** 0044-(0)20-7679-0159 **Email:** j.day@ucl.ac.uk

16 Dr Napat RATNARATHORN, **Tel:** 0066-(0)80-016-7789 **Email:** r.napat@hotmail.com

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42

Abstract: South-east Asia has an exceptionally high diversity of snakes, with more than 250 snake species currently recorded from Thailand. This diversity likely reflects the diverse range of geographical and climatic conditions under which they live, but the evolutionary history and population genetics of many snake species in South-east Asia has been little investigated in comparison with morphological studies. Here, we investigated genetic variation in the monocled cobra, *Naja kaouthia*, Lesson, 1831, across its distribution range in Thailand using mitochondrial-DNA (Cytochrome b, control region) for ~100 individuals, and the nuclear DNA gene (C-mos) for a small subset. Using population genetic and phylogenetic methods, we show high levels of genetic variation between regional populations of this non-spitting cobra, including the north-eastern, north-central, and southern regions, in addition to a population on Pha-ngan Island, 150 km offshore from the southern peninsula. Moreover, inclusion of the north-eastern population renders *N. kaouthia* paraphyletic in relation to other regional *Naja* species. The north-eastern population is therefore probably specifically distinct. Given that these cobras are otherwise undifferentiated based on colour and general appearance to the 'typical' cobra type of this region; they would represent a cryptic species. As has been shown in other animal groups from Thailand, it is likely that the geographic characteristics and/or tectonic alteration of these regions have facilitated high levels of population divergence of *N. kaouthia* in this region. Our study highlights the need for dense sampling of snake populations to reveal their systematics, plan conservation, and facilitate anti-snake venom development.

43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Keywords: Monocled cobra, snakes, molecular phylogenetics, phylogeography, cryptic species

41 Introduction

42
43 South-east Asia has an exceptionally high diversity of snakes (Jitakune, 2004),
44 with more than 250 snake species currently recorded from Thailand (Cox *et al.*,
45 2013). This diversity likely reflects the diverse range of geographical and climatic
46 conditions under which they live (Mott, 2010), but the evolutionary history and
47 population genetics of many snake species in South-east Asia has been little
48 investigated in comparison with morphology-based studies. For example,
49 phenotypic polymorphisms at the population level have been found in snakes living
50 between different geographical regions of South-east Asia e.g. Asiatic cobra
51 species in the genus *Naja* (Wüster *et al.*, 1995), the monocled cobra, *Naja*
52 *kaouthia*, the King cobra, *Ophiophagus hannah* (Jitakune, 2004), and Kruki
53 snakes, *Oligodon* (Cox *et al.*, 2013), but their genetic variation is generally lacking.
54 Such morphology-based studies have formed the basis for understanding
55 biodiversity, but where species occur over a wide range, with distinct populations,
56 cryptic species may be missed.

57 The monocled cobra (*Naja kaouthia*) is reportedly the only species of non-
58 spitting cobra that occurs throughout South-east Asia and some parts of China and
59 India (Uetz and Hošek, 2014), in which the type locality is listed as “Bengale”
60 (Lesson 1932: 314), India. Due to the large distribution area of *N. kaouthia*,
61 variation in adult characteristics and morphological divergence in populations have
62 repeatedly been found (e.g. Wüster *et al.*, 1995; Wallach *et al.*, 2014). The adult
63 variation may reflect environmental (e.g. tropical savanna, rain forest) and
64 geophysical differences resulting from mountain, river, and land-ocean partitions.
65 In Thailand, *Naja kaouthia* shows high levels of variation among regional
66 populations in features such as colouration (Cox, 1991; Wüster *et al.*, 1995;
67 Jitakune and Chanhom, 1996; Jitakune, 2004) and toxin components (e.g. Tan *et*
68 *al.*, 2017). Field observations also supported that the colour and pattern of *N.*
69 *kaouthia* (north: black; central: black and brown; south: olive), and timing of their
70 reproductive period (north-central: Oct/Nov - Mar/Apr and south: Apr – Sep) vary

1
2
3
4 71 among regions in Thailand. However, these differences have not been investigated
5
6 72 from a genetic perspective to test if phenotypic variation is reflected by genetic
7
8 73 variation.

9
10 74 The relationship between environmental conditions and population genetic
11
12 75 diversification is well documented in *Naja atra*, the closest relative of *N. kaouthia*.
13
14 76 The genetic study of Lin *et al.* (2014) revealed three distinct populations of *N. atra*
15
16 77 across East Asia ($n = 285$) and suggested that lineage diversification was caused
17
18 78 by the development of the Nanling and Luoxiao mountain ranges (the ranges run
19
20 79 from west to east in Southern China, and continue north into Central China).
21
22 80 Wüster and colleagues (1989, 1992, 1995) examined the systematics of the genus
23
24 81 *Naja* in Asia, and variation of *N. kaouthia* across its range, and these studies have
25
26 82 formed the basis of subsequent discussions on the evolution of cobras in South-
27
28 83 east Asia. Analysis of *N. kaouthia* based on meristic and linear measurements
29
30 84 found no differentiation (Wüster *et al.*, 1995), while ‘typical’ and Suphan (white)
31
32 85 phase cobras were found to be genetically identical, although only four samples of
33
34 86 *N. kaouthia* were included. Other investigations of genetic differentiation in snake
35
36 87 taxa have generally yielded inconclusive results such as *Elapidae* in Asia, Africa,
37
38 88 and America, (Slowinski and Keogh, 2000), sequences of Caenophidian snakes
39
40 89 from GenBank (Kelly *et al.*, 2003; Vidal *et al.*, 2007), sequences of Colubroidea
41
42 90 snakes from GenBank (Lawson *et al.*, 2005; Yan *et al.*, 2008), and many snake
43
44 91 species in Thailand (Laopichienpong *et al.*, 2016).

45
46 92 As shown for *N. atra* (Lin *et al.*, 2014), our prediction was that
47
48 93 geographically separated regions (e.g. Woodruff, 2003; Hughes *et al.*, 2003) and
49
50 94 temporal geological changes had the potential to facilitate divergence of *N.*
51
52 95 *kaouthia* in Thailand (e.g. Buddhachat and Suwannapoom, 2018). The northern
53
54 96 region is a mountainous area covered by many high, parallel mountain ranges that
55
56 97 extend from the north, alternating with many deep valleys and steep rivers. It is
57
58 98 also drained by rivers that unite in the lowlands of the central region. Further south,
59
60 99 the Himalayan-Tanoasri mountain range stretches from the central region into the
100 100 southern peninsula region. Similarly, the north to south Phetchabun, Dong Phaya

1
2
3
4 101 Yen, and San Kamphaeng mountain range forms a potential barrier between the
5
6 102 central region and the high plateau of the north-eastern region. Major tectonic
7
8 103 organizations in Thailand > 60 Million years ago (Mya) (Department of Mineral
9
10 104 Resources, Thailand, 2007) occurred before the arrival of ancestral cobras into
11
12 105 Asia (11-16 Mya) (Slowinski and Keogh, 2000; Wüster *et al.*, 2007) but the rise in
13
14 106 sea level after the Late Pleistocene (8,000-6,000 years ago) (Sinsakul, 1992; Voris,
15
16 107 2000) may have restricted the distribution ranges of the cobra population.

17
18 108 Although high levels of morphological variation have been reported among
19
20 109 populations of *N. kaouthia* (e.g. Jitakune, 2004), there remains the question as to
21
22 110 whether this variation reflects genetic diversification (Ursenbacher *et al.*, 2008) or
23
24 111 local ecological/environmental adaptations resulting from phenotypic plasticity
25
26 112 (Forsman, 2015; Lin *et al.*, 2008). Given the limited data on the interrelationships of
27
28 113 *N. kaouthia*, this study investigated genetic differentiation among populations
29
30 114 across 12 localities (provinces) and four regions, with collecting sites covering
31
32 115 different environments in Thailand. Mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) for Cytochrome b
33
34 116 (Cyt *b*) and the control region (CR) was generated for over 100 individuals and
35
36 117 analysed using phylogenetic inference, and population genetics. As mtDNA trees
37
38 118 are not necessarily the same as species trees (e.g. Taggart *et al.* 2001), we also
39
40 119 generated nuclear DNA (C-mos) data for a subset of these samples to validate
41
42 120 results from the mitochondrial genome.

43
44 121 Our findings demonstrated a high degree of population differentiation among
45
46 122 the sampled *N. kaouthia* populations from Thailand. These populations are
47
48 123 genetically divergent among regions, and revealed that the north-eastern
49
50 124 population should be elevated to a separate species to render *N. kaouthia*
51
52 125 monophyletic in relation to other cobras. Moreover, these data can help to explain
53
54 126 the eco-evolutionary history of these lineages across Thailand.

55 127

56 128 **Material and methods**

57 129

58 130 *Taxon sampling*

131

132 Samples from scales and shed skin were collected from 102 wild caught *Naja*
133 *kaouthia*. The collecting sites were selected across the range of *N. kaouthia* within
134 Thailand, and designed to cover all regions including north, south, central, and
135 north-east. Within each region there are multiple provinces from which the snakes
136 were sampled (Fig. 1, see also supporting information, Table S1 for precise
137 sampled locality). However, within the north-eastern region, it was only possible to
138 sample *N. kaouthia* in one of the provinces (Nakhon Ratchasima: NR). For
139 outgroup comparison, two samples of *N. siamensis* were also collected, based on
140 its reported close relationship with *N. kaouthia* (Slowinski and Wüster, 2000),
141 together with a single sequence each of *N. atra* and *N. naja* from Genbank (see
142 supporting information, Table S2).

143 All snakes collected from the wild were handled by experienced regional
144 collectors. The fresh scale samples were clipped at the venter (belly scale) and the
145 shed body skins were taken at the Bangkok snake farm, QSMI, to which the wild
146 cobras had been moved under official permit by the snake farm (Document no.
147 1/2015). Scale samples were subsequently stored in 70% EtOH and kept in a
148 freezer at -20°C. Archival tissues from this study are stored in a -20°C freezer at
149 the Molecular laboratory, Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand.

150

151 *Genetic markers and sequences*

152

153 Two mitochondrial DNA markers: Cytochrome *b* (Cyt *b*) and the Control Region
154 (CR) were amplified from all samples in this study as these markers have been
155 shown to be useful for resolving genetic divergences within snake species (e.g.
156 Wüster *et al.*; 2007; Hofmann, 2012; McCartney-Melstad, 2012). As there are only
157 a small number of published mtDNA sequences of *N. kaouthia* which are mostly
158 partial, primers were newly designed using complete mtDNA sequences of *N. naja*
159 and *N. atra* from Genbank (Ref. No.: NC_010225.1; Yan *et al.*, 2008 and
160 NC_011389.1; Chen and Fu, 2008) in BioEdit software version 7.0 (Hall, 1999).

1
2
3
4 161 The location of the novel designed primers was based on a preliminary comparison
5 162 of those *Naja* sp. sequences that show low/high polymorphism (see supporting
6 163 information, Table S3 for sequence of primers). Based on the surprising placement
7 164 of the north-eastern samples in the phylogenetic analysis, a subset of samples
8 165 were also amplified for the nuclear DNA (nuDNA) marker: Oocyte maturation factor
9 166 (C-mos) ($n = 20$) using the primers from Lawson *et al.*, (2005). Amplification of
10 167 these samples resulted in a total of twelve samples ($n = 2$ for each of the following
11 168 locality codes: BK, SB, PNG, PL, NR, and $n = 2$ for *Naja siamensis*) being
12 169 successfully sequenced after several attempts.
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20

21 171 *DNA extraction, PCR amplification, and sequencing*

22
23 172

24
25 173 Prior to DNA extraction, tissue samples were washed twice using 70% ethyl-
26 174 alcohol and diluted water to remove any contamination (Graziano *et al.*, 2013).
27 175 Each sample was then cut into small pieces (~1-2 mm²). Extractions were carried
28 176 out using a Favorgen genomic DNA kit. PCRs were performed in 20.0 µl reactions
29 177 including EmeralAmp Max solution (10.0 µl), the mtDNA (4.0 µl), ddH₂O (4.0 µl),
30 178 forward and reverse primers (1.0 µl each). Conditions for PCR were as follows:
31 179 initial denaturation at 95°C for 5 minutes, followed by 30 cycles of 95°C for 40
32 180 seconds, an annealing at temperatures between 49-55°C (Cyt *b*), 47-62°C (CR),
33 181 and 56°C (C-mos) for 40 seconds, then an extension step of 72°C for 120 seconds.
34 182 The PCR product was then transferred to a column for DNA purification following
35 183 Favorgen kit protocols. A final concentration of DNA (80.0-100.0 µl) was checked
36 184 using gel-electrophoresis and stored at -20°C before sequencing. Sequencing was
37 185 carried out at Bioneer Ltd. (Daejeon, South Korea, www.bioneer.com) using both
38 186 forward and reverse primers of all markers.
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49

50 187

51 188 *Sequence alignment and data matrix*

52 189
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4 190 Following visual checking of electropherograms, correction of base comparison of
5 191 complementary strands was performed in the BioEdit. Contigs were generated
6 192 from the forward and reverse primers. The resulting sequences were subsequently
7 193 submitted to BLAST searches for comparison with sequences in GenBank and
8 194 aligned. Sequences of Cyt *b* and CR were of good quality with the former markers
9 195 consisting of 603 bp (Cyt *b*), the first CR domain (CR1) 599 bp (two insertion
10 196 bases) in north-eastern and out-group populations, while all other populations were
11 197 of 597 base pairs; and the second CR domain (CR2) consisted of 470 bp, in which
12 198 an indel of 1 bp was present in the north-east populations, and outgroups. The
13 199 nuDNA marker C-mos was 480 bp for all samples.

20 200 A concatenated mtDNA matrix of 1,673 bp of CR and Cyt *b* sequences (CR:
21 201 1-1,070 + Cyt *b*: 1,071-1,673) from 104 samples and two *N. naja* and *N. atra*
22 202 samples was initially generated. However, the flanking tRNAs from the CR and Cyt
23 203 *b* sequences were deleted as these regions were too small to apply evolutionary
24 204 models, resulting in a concatenated matrix of 1,531 base pairs for all downstream
25 205 genetic analyses. All data matrices were aligned using ClustalW (Thompson *et al.*,
26 206 1994) using default settings in the programme BioEdit version 7, and visually
27 207 inspected. Sequences for all samples in this study are available from Genbank
28 208 (see supporting information, Table S1 for Genbank Accession Numbers).

29 209

30 210 *Haplotype analyses*

31 211

32 212 The concatenated mtDNA matrix of 102 samples of *N. kaouthia* and 4 outgroup
33 213 samples of *N. siamensis*, *N. atra*, and *N. naja* were imported into the programme
34 214 DnaSP 5.0 to analyse DNA polymorphisms for haplotype analysis (Betrán *et al.*,
35 215 1997; Librado and Rozas, 2009; Rozas *et al.*, 2017). The programme Network
36 216 version 5.0.0.1 (Fluxus Technology Ltd.) was used to generate a full haplotype
37 217 network of all 106 mtDNA and 12 nuDNA samples using a median joining algorithm
38 218 (Bandelt *et al.*, 1995, 1999) with epsilon equal to zero. The final network was

1
2
3
4 219 reconstructed using image editing software (e.g. Paint and ACDSee Pro 4). The
5
6 220 same analysis was also implemented for the nuDNA data.
7

8 221

9 222 *Phylogenetic analyses*
10

11 223

12
13 224 To obtain the best-fit partitioning scheme and models of nucleotide evolution, the
14
15 225 combined mtDNA dataset was partitioned by markers, and for the protein-coding
16
17 226 Cyt *b* gene only by codon position, giving a total of four partitions. The nuDNA C-
18
19 227 mos dataset was analysed separately and was not partitioned. The datasets were
20
21 228 executed in Partition-Finder version 1.0 (Lanfear *et al.*, 2012) using the Bayesian
22
229 Information Criterion (BIC) as a metric of model selection with a heuristic algorithm.

23 230 For phylogenetic analyses, we used MrBayes version 3.2.6 (Huelsenbeck
24
25 231 and Ronquist, 2001; Ronquist *et al.*, 2012) which uses Bayesian Markov chain
26
27 232 Monte Carlo (MCMC) methods. Two simultaneous analyses (nruns = 2) were run
28
29 233 for 5,000,000 generations, sampling every 100 generations (number of chains = 4,
30
31 234 heating schemes = 0.2) with an initial burn-in equal to 12,000. Analyses were run
32
33 235 ensuring chains were stationary (assessed using Tracer version 1.6) with effective
34
35 236 sample size (ESS) values > 200 (Drummond *et al.*, 2006). FigTree version 1.4.3
36
37 237 (Rambaut *et al.*, 2014) was used to view the summarized tree which was
38
39 238 generated in TreeAnnotator version 1.8.4 (Drummond *et al.*, 2012). Branch support
40
41 239 was calculated using Bayesian Posterior Probabilities (BPP). Individual markers
42
43 240 (CR and Cyt *b*) were also analysed to determine if the resulting trees were
44
45 241 congruent with the concatenated mtDNA tree, using the same settings as
46
47 242 described above.

48 243

49 244 *Molecular diversity*
50

51 245

52
53 246 Molecular genetic diversity based on nucleotide difference between all samples,
54
55 247 including haplotype diversity (*h*), nucleotide diversity (π), Tajima's D (*D*), and Fu
56
57 248 and Li's *F* (*F_s*), were calculated using DnaSP and Arlequin version 3.5.2.2
58
59
60

249 (Excoffier *et al.*, 1992; Excoffier and Lischer, 2010). To confirm the population
250 differentiation grouped by locality (province), Analysis of hierarchical Molecular
251 Variance (AMOVA) was conducted in Arlequin for Φ -values (genetic structure based
252 on sequence differences between samples) using pairwise differences (Excoffier *et al.*,
253 1992), and for conventional F -values (bases on haplotype frequency). For all
254 analyses the settings were left as default, allowing missing data and a significance
255 level equal to 0.05, as well as permutations equal to 10,000.

257 Results

259 *Phylogeny of N. kaouthia in Thailand*

261 The best partitioned models for the phylogenetic inference were K81uf+I for CR,
262 Cyt *b* codon 1 and 2; HKY for Cyt *b* codon 3; and F81 for C-mos. Bayesian
263 analysis of the concatenated mtDNA marker supported four main clades (0.97-1.00
264 BPP) of *Naja kaouthia* which are composed of different geographical regions of
265 Thailand (Fig. 2). These clades are: 1) a northern (Sukhothai - SK and Nakhon
266 Sawan - NW) and central (Saraburi - SB, Bangkok - BK, Samutprakarn - SMP, with
267 the exception of the Prachuabkirikhan [PJ]) population that is sister to 2) a
268 southern population (Ranong [R], Phattalung [PL], and Trang [T]) combined with
269 one from Prachuabkirikhan (a province between the central and southern regions).
270 This grouping of samples (0.97 BPP) is sister to the cobra population from 3) Pha-
271 Ngan Island (PNG) (1.0 BPP), a small (125 Km²) offshore island close to the south
272 of Thailand (50 Km). A fourth geographic clade, Nakhon Ratchasima (NR) in the
273 north-eastern region is also identified. However, a major finding of this study is that
274 *N. kaouthia* is currently non-monophyletic. As shown in Fig. 2, both *N. naja* and *N.*
275 *atra* are more closely related to the geographic north-central + southern + island
276 clades of *N. kaouthia* than is the population from the north-east.

277 Separate phylogenetic analyses of the CR and Cyt *b* markers gave similar
278 results to the concatenated mitochondrial tree in that the geographic clades were

1
2
3
4 279 largely recovered, but they differed in their position within the tree. Most notably,
5 280 the monophyly of the ingroup differs between analyses. Within the CR tree, three
6 281 clades were identified (see supporting information, Fig. S1), in which, as in the
7 282 combined analyses, the north-east clade is distinct and is the sister group to other
8 283 *N. kaouthia*, but *N. kaouthia* is monophyletic in relation to the outgroup species.
9 284 The southern population is not separated from the north-central population but
10 285 nests within it. The Cyt *b* tree is more similar to the concatenated tree except that
11 286 the north-eastern population is sister to the spitting cobra (*Naja siamensis*) and the
12 287 island clade is sister to the north-central clade (see supporting information, Fig.
13 288 S2). A single sample (PL_NK_03) was resolved in alternative positions: nesting
14 289 within the Southern clade within the concatenated tree and the CR tree, but was
15 290 found to be the sister group to the Island clade in the Cyt *b* tree. Support for the
16 291 latter relationship was not strong, and therefore additional data is needed to clarify
17 292 its position.

18 293 Although the phylogeny based on the nuclear marker C-mos does not
19 294 support or contradict the non-monophyly of *N. kaouthia*, it supports the mtDNA
20 295 data by indicating the separation of the north-eastern (NR) clade (1.00 BPP) from
21 296 all other regional samples of *N. kaouthia* (supporting information, Fig. S4A). The
22 297 southern (PL) clade was also supported, but no unique bases were identified in
23 298 any of the other regional clades, which is unsurprisingly given generally slowly
24 299 evolving nature of the C-mos gene region (e.g. Jesus *et al.*, 2005).

300 301 *Haplotype network*

302
303 A haplotype network based on the concatenated mtDNA matrix showed ten
304 304 haplotypes (H1-10) of *N. kaouthia* across its regional distribution in Thailand,
305 305 supporting the results of the mtDNA concatenated phylogenetic analysis in that
306 306 four main groups are identified. These included: north and central (H1-2: red),
307 307 southern (H3-5: blue), island (H6: grey), and north-eastern (H7-10: green), with
308 308 outgroups denoted as (H11-14) (Fig. 3). There is no haplotype sharing among the

309 four main groups of *N. kaouthia*. One haplotype (H1) is found in all five provinces
310 (SK, SB, SMP, BK, and NW) in northern and central regions (Fig. 3). One unique
311 haplotype (H6) occurs in the island *N. kaouthia* only, and four haplotypes were
312 found only in the north-eastern region (NR) (Fig. 3 and Table 1). In agreement with
313 the concatenated mtDNA phylogenetic tree (Fig. 2), the island population is distinct
314 from that of the mainland, and the north-eastern population is highly isolated from
315 other regions (Fig. 3). A haplotype network for C-mos also supported the north-
316 eastern population being highly divergent from all other regions and the outgroup
317 species *Naja siamensis* (see supporting information, Fig. S4B). The haplotype
318 network obtained from analysis of nuDNA loci (Fig. S4B) is consistent with some
319 results of the mtDNA analysis (Fig. 3). Cobras from the central region (BK), Pha-
320 ngan island (PNG), and the spitting cobra outgroup (NS) were grouped together
321 (H1), but samples from Phattalung (PL) in the southern region (H2) and from
322 Nakhon Ratchasima (NR) in the north-eastern region (H3) (Fig. S4B), had distinct
323 haplotypes, supporting the result of mtDNA network (Fig. 3). The four main groups
324 of *N. kaouthia* and the shared haplotypes displayed in the separate CR and Cyt *b*
325 haplotype networks (see supporting information, Fig. S3A-B) correspond to the
326 concatenated network (Fig. 3) and the phylogenetic trees (Fig. 2). With the
327 exception of the outgroups, the Cyt *b* and CR networks exhibit five (H1-5, Fig. S3A
328 for Cyt *b* network) and nine (H1-9, Fig. S3B for CR network) haplotypes,
329 respectively.

330

331 *Molecular diversity*

332

333 Genetic diversity indices supported the geographical divergence of *N. kaouthia* into
334 four groups. Over the entire concatenated dataset, there are 142 polymorphic sites
335 (S) (67 in CR and 76 in Cyt *b*). Haplotype diversity (*h*) of the concatenated data
336 among all samples is high (0.773), and, unsurprising, the rapidly evolving CR
337 (0.770) has higher values than Cyt *b* (0.571). Within each population group, the *h*

1
2
3
4 338 values range from 0.47 to 0.60, but are zero in the island population (Table 1)
5
6 339 indicating that the island population have their own unique haplotype.

7
8 340 High nucleotide diversities (π) were detected for the whole population i.e.
9
10 341 the concatenated data = 0.973% (CR = 0.665% and Cyt *b* = 1.415%) but values
11
12 342 within each population group were low = 0.030-0.057% (Table 1). The values of *h*
13
14 343 and π corresponding to haplotype numbers suggest that genetic variation is higher
15
16 344 in the north-eastern population (11 samples) than in other populations, while the
17
18 345 genetic sequence of all island samples is identical (only eight samples were
19
20 346 tested).

21
22 347

23 348 *Population differentiation indices*

24 349

25 350 Analysis of hierarchical Molecular Variance (AMOVA), based on sequence
26
27 351 divergence of the concatenated mtDNA between samples (Φ), demonstrated a
28
29 352 high level of genetic variation between cobras from different geographic regions,
30
31 353 Φ_{CT} (97.57%, *p*-value < 0.05) but low levels of variation within provinces, Φ_{ST}
32
33 354 (1.43%, *p*-value < 0.05), and between provinces within regions, Φ_{SC} (1.00%, *p*-
34
35 355 value < 0.05). The same analysis for the separate CR and Cyt *b* datasets produced
36
37 356 similar results to the concatenated data (CR = 94.81% and Cyt *b* = 99.77%, *p*-
38
39 357 value < 0.05). The AMOVA based on variation of haplotype frequencies
40
41 358 (conventional *F*-test) displayed values for concatenated data = 42.99%, CR =
42
43 359 46.29%, and Cyt *b* = 96.77% (*p*-value < 0.05). These confirmed the population
44
45 360 differentiation of *N. kaouthia* into four clearly separated regions, as supported by
46
47 361 the clustering in the phylogenetic trees (e.g. Fig. 2) and haplotype networks (e.g.
48
49 362 Fig. 3).

50
51 363 The pairwise comparison of Φ_{CT} also confirmed a high level of population
52
53 364 differentiation between regions (Table 2). The Φ_{CT} results are also supported by
54
55 365 F_{CT} . Although the values are lower, they still indicated significant levels of regional
56
57 366 difference in *N. kaouthia*. A similar pattern is also shown in the results of the
58
59 367 separate analyses of the CR (81.26-98.72% for Φ_{CT} and 50.35-80.16% for F_{CT})

1
2
3
4 368 and Cyt *b* genes (99.31-100.0% for Φ_{CT} and 81.18-100.0% for F_{CT}). Thus, all
5
6 369 genetic results suggested that the populations of *N. kaouthia* in all four regions are
7
8 370 highly distinct from each other.
9

10 371

11 372 **Discussion**

12
13 373

14 374 In this study, substantial genetic diversity was found among populations of *N.*
15
16 375 *kaouthia* from the different areas of Thailand, in which the north-eastern region
17
18 376 population was shown to be highly distinct, lying outside of the ingroup populations.
19
20 377 Additional nuclear data (C-mos) supported this hypothesis, and it is likely that the
21
22 378 north-eastern population represents a new species of cobra. The island population
23
24 379 was also found to be isolated from mainland populations, but this finding requires
25
26 380 more samples from neighbouring islands to determine if this genetic lineage is
27
28 381 endemic.
29

30 382

31 383 *Sequence diversity*

32 384

33
34 385 This study found high levels of genetic diversity between samples of *N. kaouthia*
35
36 386 (see Table 1). Similar values for a species have been reported in other snake
37
38 387 studies (although some of these studies have used different mtDNA markers), such
39
40 388 as *Deinagkistrodon acutus* ($\pi = 1.409\%$ - NADH dehydrogenase (ND2) subunit 2;
41
42 389 Huang *et al.*, 2007), *Epicrates subflavus* ($h=0.79$, $\pi = 0.76\%$ - Cyt *b*; Tzika *et al.*,
43
44 390 2009), *Philodryas chamissonis* ($h = 0.97$, $\pi = 1.51\%$ - CR; Sallaberry-Pincheira *et*
45
46 391 *al.*, 2010), and *Naja atra* ($h = 0.868$, $\pi = 0.827\%$ - Cyt *b*; Lin *et al.*, 2014). A few
47
48 392 studies that calculated the same indices for several populations of a single species
49
49 393 showed low π as in this study, for example *Aipysurus laevis* ($h = 0.55-0.63$, $\pi =$
50
51 394 $0.12-0.52\%$ - ND4, Lukoschek *et al.*, 2008) and *Vipera latastei/monticola* group (h
52
53 395 $= 0.678-1.000$, $\pi = 0.8-4.1\%$ - ND4 and Cyt *b*; Velo-Antón *et al.*, 2012). As in
54
55 396 other studies, the high π value for the *N. kaouthia* samples generated here, is
56
57 397 evidence for a high level of nucleotide divergence between samples. However, the
58
59
60

1
2
3
4 398 low π values calculated for populations within regional groups (0.030–0.057%)
5
6 399 represent short nucleotide distances between haplotypes (de Jong *et al.*, 2011). All
7
8 400 of these values support the genetic variation among the regional populations of *N.*
9
10 401 *kaouthia* in Thailand.

11 402

13 403 *Regional diversification of Naja kaouthia*

14 404

16 405 Four population groups of *N. kaouthia* are recognised in Thailand. In contrast to
17
18 406 Wüster *et al.* (1995) who found no differentiation among populations of *N. kaouthia*
19
20 407 based on their multivariate analysis of morphology ($n = 132$) and mtDNA data ($n =$
21
22 408 4), our study revealed strong regional differentiation in *N. kaouthia*, based on our
23
24 409 genetic data (Fig. 2) and also by some colour and patterning from our fieldwork
25
26 410 observations (Ratnarathorn, 2019). However, although the genetically
27
28 411 differentiated northern+central population and southern population differed in
29
30 412 colouration (black, and plain olive respectively), this is not the case for the island
31
32 413 and the north-eastern populations. While the mtDNA data revealed that the island
33
34 414 and the north-eastern populations are not closely related, their colour and patterns
35
36 415 are barely distinguishable by visual inspection from the lowland basin cobras
37
38 416 (north-central), which are regarded as ‘typical cobras’ (Wüster *et al.*, 1995). On the
39
40 417 other hand, we found no genetic difference between the typical cobras and two
41
42 418 samples of ‘Suphan’ phase or the white cobra (SB_NK_08 and SB_NK_05),
43
44 419 supporting the result of Wüster *et al.* that there appears to be no divergence of the
45
46 420 cobras within the north-central region (1.00%, p -value < 0.005). These data show
47
48 421 that the relationship between phenotypic and genetic variation of *N. kaouthia* are
49
50 422 ambiguous.

51 423 The separation of monocled cobra populations is likely attributed to natural
52
53 424 barriers limiting genetic exchange (Lin *et al.* 2014). The mountain ranges of
54
55 425 Phetchabun, Dong Phrayayen, and Sankamphaeng form a barrier between the
56
57 426 north-eastern and central regions in Thailand (Fig. 1). The southern region is
58
59 427 characterized as a peninsular and is partitioned from the central region by the
60

1
2
3
4 428 Himalayan-Tanoasri mountain range (Fig. 1). Stuart and Wogan (2014) note that
5
6 429 *N. kaouthia* could be found at 1,000 meters above mean sea level although this is
7
8 430 likely very rare as *N. kaouthia* prefers to live close to lowland basins, in habitats
9
10 431 such as swamps and paddy fields (Cox *et al.*, 2013). However, there are more than
11
12 432 ten peaks along the Himalayan-Tanoasri mountain range and all of them extend
13
14 433 over 1600 meters above mean sea level. This region is also known as a transition
15
16 434 zone and plays an important role in diversity in other species (Hughes *et al.*, 2003;
17
18 435 Woodruff, 2003). Based on genetic data, comparisons among populations of the
19
20 436 mainland Asian tree frog, *Polypedates leucomystax* (Buddhachat and
21
22 437 Suwannapoom, 2018) gave similar results to our study in that the frogs were also
23
24 438 divided into north-central, north-eastern, and southern populations. The
25
26 439 differentiation between northern and southern populations has also been reported
27
28 440 in the king cobra (*Ophiophagus hannah*) using phylogenetic analyses of ND2 and
29
30 441 CR (Suntrarachun *et al.*, 2014), and other amphibian and reptile species (Inger and
31
32 442 Voris, 2001). Population phylogenetic studies of other snake species, such as
33
34 443 *Deinagkistrodon acutus* (Huang *et al.*, 2007), *Aipysurus laevis* (Lukoschek *et al.*,
35
36 444 2008), *Philodryas chamissonis* (Sallaberry-Pincheira *et al.*, 2010), *Gloydius*
37
38 445 *brevicaudus* (Ding *et al.*, 2011), *Vipera latastei/monticola* group (Velo-Antón *et al.*,
39
40 446 2012), and *Naja atra* (Lin *et al.*, 2014) showed similar results to those of this study
41
42 447 in finding that, for example, geography, climate, and/or distance correlate with
43
44 448 regional genetic variation.

45
46 449
47
48 450 *Cryptic speciation in N. kaouthia*

49
50 451
51
52 452 Based on the molecular phylogenetic analyses reported herein, snakes from the
53
54 453 genetically distinct north-eastern population (from NR province) do not nest within
55
56 454 *N. kaouthia* and are as distinct from *N. kaouthia* as are members of the other cobra
57
58 455 species sampled (*N. naja*, *N. atra*, and *N. siamensis*). This result is supported by
59
60 456 the haplotype network (Fig. 3) and high values of AMOVA population indices (0.98-
457 0.99, p -value < 0.005, in Table 2). This placement was unexpected and novel,

possibly because previous studies did not include samples from this part of the range of *N. kaouthia* (Wüster and Thorpe, 1994; Wüster *et al.*, 1995). These novel genetic data strongly support the designation of a new cobra species in the north-eastern region of Thailand. However, despite the strong genetic evidence that this lineage is highly distinct, our observations during fieldwork revealed neither major morphological traits nor a difference in reproductive timing between north-eastern cobras and typical monocled cobras from the lowland basin. Many of the north-eastern cobras have lighter black spots on the ventral scales (see supporting information, Fig. S4), but this trait is absent in some individuals and was rejected as a fixed regional trait by Lin *et al.* (2008). Another potential character is head length when the hood expands. Based on personal observation (see supporting information, Fig. S4), the head of north-eastern cobras appears to be flatter and wider posteriorly and longer at nasal area than in typical monocled cobras, but it can be limited by their posture, age, health or orientation (e.g. Bonnet *et al.*, 2001). A detailed morphological investigation is required to assess whether there are traits that differ between the NE lineage and 'typical' monocled cobras and is currently in progress. Nonetheless, the deep genetic divergence between the NE clade with respect to other populations of the monocled cobra, indicates cryptic speciation within this group of snakes. Our finding supports Laopichienpong *et al.*, (2016) who indicated that *N. kaouthia* samples from Bangkok ($n = 3$) were genetically divergent from those from Bangladesh (KM521202) + Myanmar (AF217835) using CO1 and Cyt *b*.

The negative values in both Tajima's D (-1.32) and Fu and Li's F (-1.02) of the north-eastern *N. kaouthia* (Table 1) indicate that they are currently experiencing different demographic processes (excess of rare alleles or population expansion) compared to other regional cobra populations (Tajima, 1989; Fu, 1997).

Species divergence of the north-eastern cobra may be due to geographic and/or climatic differences. This region differs from other regions of Thailand (Wittayarat *et al.*, 2001), and is known as a 'tropical savanna', experiencing a complete drought from October-May. Most of this region is represented by a high

1
2
3
4 488 plateau surrounded by mountain ranges that form a closed environment. These
5
6 489 features greatly restrict animal movement between regions, particularly for species
7
8 490 with typically low vagility such as terrestrial snakes (Brito, 2003; Pyron and
9
10 491 Burbrink, 2009; Breininger *et al.*, 2011). Similar findings of diversification within
11
12 492 species have been reported for various taxa including the fighting fish, *Betta*
13
14 493 *smaragdina* (Sriwattanothai *et al.*, 2010), the cardamom mountain horned
15
16 494 agamid *Acanthosaura cardamomensis* (Wood Jr *et al.*, 2010), the bamboo pit
17
18 495 viper, *Trimeresurus macrops sensu stricto* (Mrinalini *et al.*, 2015), and species of
19
20 496 the Asian tree frog, *Polypedates leucomystax* (Buddhachat and Suwannapoom,
21
22 497 2018).

23
24 498 Geographical history also supports the possibility of population divergence
25
26 499 or speciation for the north-eastern cobra group. In relation to *Betta*,
27
28 500 Sriwattanothai *et al.* (2010) suggested that changes in tectonic plate and mineral
29
30 501 deposition during the Mesozoic (Smith and Stokes, 1997) led to allopatric
31
32 502 speciation of fish populations within this highland. However, this would not explain
33
34 503 the speciation of north-eastern cobras. The ancestor of Asiatic cobras is estimated
35
36 504 to have split from its African sister group and dispersed to South-east Asia during
37
38 505 the early to mid-Miocene (Wüster *et al.*, 2007), which was long after the major
39
40 506 geological changes in this region during the Mesozoic. Similar to the divergence
41
42 507 and dispersal of Asiatic cobras to South-east Asia, other examples include the pit
43
44 508 viper *Trimeresurus* (Mrinalini *et al.*, 2015), mammalian faunas (Ducroq *et al.*,
45
46 509 1994), and floral assemblages (Songtham *et al.*, 2003).

47
48 510 It is possible that divergence of the north-eastern cobra occurred around the
49
50 511 beginning of the glacial period (from Late Pliocene to Early Pleistocene). The
51
52 512 development of a cooler and drier climate than in preceding periods (Udomchoke,
53
54 513 1989; Penny, 2001) may have resulted in the extinction of most of this warm-
55
56 514 restricted species, and led some populations to diverge in allopatry (refugial area)
57
58 515 (Hewitt, 2001; Hamilton *et al.*, 2001; Lin *et al.*, 2014), eventually promoting genetic
59
60 516 differentiation (Hewitt, 2001). A possible refugium exists in the south of the north-
517
518 517 eastern province and is dominated by tropical forest (where the focal cobras are

1
2
3
4 518 found) rather than the deciduous forest or savanna found in most other parts of the
5
6 519 north-eastern region. A similar suggestion with respect to refugia was made for
7
8 520 *Vipera latasteilmonticola* (Velo-Antón *et al.*, 2012) and *Naja atra* (Lin *et al.*, 2014),
9
10 521 but has not been confirmed for *Naja kaouthia*. The only evidence in our study
11
12 522 comes from the high sequence variation (4 haplotypes) within the north-eastern
13
14 523 samples, with expansion of the current population (high h and low π [Avice, 2000]
15
16 524 and negative values of D and F_s [Lin *et al.*, 2014]) after the end of glaciation.
17
18 525 However, the D and F_s values were not significant ($p > 0.05$).
19
20 526

21 527 *Endemic island N. kaouthia and population history*

22 528
23 529 In Thailand, the Isthmus of Kra is considered to be a buffer zone that facilitates
24
25 530 species divergence between the southern archipelagos and northern mainland
26
27 531 (Woodruff, 2003; Hughes *et al.*, 2003). As we report in this study, sampled *N.*
28
29 532 *kaouthia* from one small island (125km²) in the Gulf of Thailand, Pha-ngan (known
30
31 533 as 'Snake Island'), which is about 50 km from the mainland, showed a signal
32
33 534 suggesting isolation of this island population. This divergence is supported by
34
35 535 phylogenetic, network, and population statistics (e.g. AMOVA test (0.95-0.99, p -
36
37 536 value < 0.05 in Table 2). The isolation of the monocolled cobra population on Pha-
38
39 537 Ngan island was likely due to a massive rise of sea level in this region around the
40
41 538 late Pleistocene (8,000-6,000 B.P.) (Sinsakul, 1992; Voris, 2000). Similar patterns
42
43 539 (island isolation in this region) have been recorded in insects such as the *Varroa*
44
45 540 mites, *Varroa destructor* (Warrit *et al.*, 2006), the Eastern honey bee, *Apis cerana*
46
47 541 (Warrit *et al.*, 2006; Rueppell *et al.*, 2011), and the tephritid fruit fly, *Zeugodacus*
48
49 542 *cucurbitae* (Boontop *et al.*, 2017). Observations from fieldwork indicated that the
50
51 543 island cobras are approximately 50% smaller than those on the mainland
52
53 544 (Ratnarathorn, pers. obs), although it was not possible to take measurement data
54
55 545 under our permits. They also do not have the olive colouration of the southern
56
57 546 mainland snakes and are instead coloured black and brown. The smaller size of
58
59 547 the island cobras could be due to limited resources, leading to selection for a
60

1
2
3
4 548 reduction in body size and, if confirmed, could represent an example of insular
5
6 549 dwarfism in snakes (e.g. Boback, 2003; Keogh *et al.*, 2005; Luiselli *et al.*, 2015;
7
8 550 Card *et al.*, 2016). However, a much larger data set based on measurement and
9
10 551 body weight data is needed to confirm this observation, as the sample from Pha-
11
12 552 ngan was limited to eight small individuals whose maturity was not determined.

13 553 To explore the genetic diversity found in the Pha-ngan Island population
14
15 554 requires further sampling, particularly from other islands situated between Pha-
16
17 555 ngan Island and the mainland, such as Samui (~20 km from the mainland, ~252
18
19 556 km² in size) and/or Phaluai Islands (~20 km, ~16 km²), as well as the 42 islands in
20
21 557 the region. Some unobserved intermediate haplotypes are suggested on the
22
23 558 network branch between the mainland and island populations (Fig. 3), so that
24
25 559 additional samples may yield the missing haplotypes and thus act as 'stepping
26
27 560 stones' for dispersal, as opposed to the alternative hypothesis of vicariance,
28
29 561 caused by the rise in sea level that split this population from the mainland (e.g.
30
31 562 Michaelides *et al.*, 2015). Moreover, the distance between the island and the
32
33 563 mainland could be important. Studies of *N. kaouthia* on Phuket Island (distance:
34
35 564 ~0.5 km only) did not reveal any phenotypic difference between the island and
36
37 565 mainland samples (Wüster and Thorpe, 1989, 1992; Wüster *et al.*, 1995), and the
38
39 566 tree frog species, *Polypedates leucomystax* on Phuket Island displayed haplotypes
40
41 567 shared with mainland populations (Buddhachat and Suwannapoom, 2018).
42
43 568 However, no haplotypes of the Pha-ngan Island cobras were found to be shared
44
45 569 with the mainland populations in this study (Fig. 3). This suggests that the island
46
47 570 cobra may be independent, and that the population is endemic to this offshore
48
49 571 island.

50
51 572

52 573 *Demographic and ecological interpretation*

53 574

54 575 A preliminary signal suggesting current demographic expansion was demonstrated
55
56 576 in every population except that on Pha-ngan (due to the small sample size).
57
58 577 Population expansion is supported by the high haplotype diversity ($h = 0.471$ -

1
2
3
4 578 0.600) and low nucleotide diversity ($\pi = 0.030-0.057\%$) (Avice, 2000; de Jong *et*
5 579 *al.*, 2011), and may reflect the abundance of *N. kaouthia* in Thailand (Chaitae,
6 580 2011). The hypothesis of a bottleneck in the last glacial period (Udomchoke, 1989;
7 581 Penny, 2001) is well-supported by our current data on *N. kaouthia*. A field study by
8 582 Chaitae (2011) revealed high survivorship in juvenile (47%) and adult (93%) cobras
9 583 suggesting an ability to maintain large populations and the possibility of population
10 584 expansion. However, the study represented only the central population and was
11 585 carried out over a short time period (1-2 years).
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19

20 587 *Limitations of current sampling and markers*

21 588
22
23 589 Although we suggest that the north-eastern population should be recognised as a
24 590 separate species to maintain monophyly of the other *N. kaouthia* populations,
25 591 alternative possibilities are that the other populations sampled could be transferred
26 592 to a new species or that neither the north-eastern nor other populations sampled
27 593 are *N. kaouthia*. However, the geographical separation of the north-east region
28 594 makes it unlikely that this population is *N. kaouthia*. To test between these
29 595 alternative scenarios more samples of *N. kaouthia* are needed across its range,
30 596 including samples from the type locality (Bengal, India, Lesson 1932). Additional
31 597 outgroups should also be included in future studies to investigate the relationships
32 598 between *Naja* species in this region, and to test whether the nesting of several
33 599 outgroups included in this study within the ingroup (i.e. *N. kaouthia sensu lato*) is
34 600 real or an artefact of sampling.
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43

44 601 To give a clearer picture of the population structure of cobras in Thailand,
45 602 and ultimately across the range of *N. kaouthia*, we also recommend that future
46 603 studies should harness nuclear markers such as SNPs from Restriction site-
47 604 Associated DNA markers (RAD-seq), combined with comprehensive field work
48 605 (e.g. Lin *et al.*, 2014). As our work is largely based on mtDNA data, it may
49 606 therefore be prone to the recognised issues of such data (e.g. incomplete lineage
50 607 sorting and/or introgression).
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4 608 The insignificant values ($p > 0.05$) generated regarding some of the
5
6 609 population indices (see Table 1) could be because the demographic process is
7
8 610 evolving neutrally (without natural selection) (Subramanian, 2016), but may be due
9
10 611 to insufficient sample numbers. An increase in sample numbers and collecting
11
12 612 locations across each region would help to resolve this and provide a more
13
14 613 complete picture of the phylogeography of *N. kaouthia*.

15 614 The monocled cobra in Thailand may be undergoing a neutral evolutionary
16
17 615 process driven by genetic drift. In particular for the lowland basin cobras (northern
18
19 616 and central regions), annual flooding (May-October) and the clearance of paddy
20
21 617 fields (October-November) can lead to cobras being present in larger numbers in
22
23 618 some areas, where they are killed or harvested for commercial reasons (Chaitae,
24
25 619 2011; Stuart and Wogan, 2014). A generalist lifestyle, combined with high
26
27 620 reproductive success and a high growth rate in surviving cobras (Chaitae, 2011),
28
29 621 would facilitate population rebound. These traits could lead to sustainable natural
30
31 622 populations and gene flow between north and central provinces (shared haplotypes
32
33 623 – lowest h and π) along river networks. A similar demographic pattern was also
34
35 624 suggested in spiny rats, *Proechimys* sp. (Matocq *et al.*, 2000).
36
37 625

38 626 **Conclusion**

39 627
40 628 The relationships between populations of *Naja kaouthia* in Thailand have not been
41
42 629 investigated since the genetic and morphological study of Wüster (1995) who
43
44 630 reported a similar level of trait variation across their distribution. Our study is the
45
46 631 first to show differentiation among populations of the monocled cobra between
47
48 632 geographical regions in Thailand, and also reveals a likely cryptic species in the
49
50 633 north-eastern region. The divergence of four regional cobra groups (north and
51
52 634 central, south, island, and north-east) is also supported by the geographical,
53
54 635 demographic, and geological-history information in this study. The results not only
55
56 636 lead to a better understanding of monocled cobra diversity but also pave the way
57
58
59
60

637 for further applications e.g. new species identification, anti-snake venom
638 improvement, and conservation.

639

640 **Acknowledgements**

641

642 We thank the following people and colleagues who facilitated the collection of the
643 cobras: Mr Nirut Chomngam and his team, Mr Montri Sumontha, Dr Bartosz Nadol,
644 Mr Stefan Pullitzky, Mr Tanapong Tawan, and local snake capturers who collected
645 specimens from different regions of Thailand. For facilitating equipment, working
646 spaces, and other support during the field work, thanks to Dr Noppadon Kitana
647 (Chulalongkorn University [CU]), Dr Jirarach Kitana, Dr Amporn Wiwegweaw, Dr
648 Chutaphant Pinswasdi, Dr Malinee Chutmongkonkul. Special thanks to Mr Phumin
649 Simpalipan, Molecular Laboratory, CU who taught the lead author how to extract
650 and prepare DNA, and to the CU B.Sc. and M.Sc. students who helped with DNA
651 extraction and sequencing. We thank Dr David Gower (NHM) and an anonymous
652 reviewer for their helpful comments.

653

654 **References**

655

- 656 Avise, J. C. (2000). *Phylogeography: the history and formation of species*. Cambridge,
657 Massachusetts: Harvard University Press.
- 658 Bandelt, H. J., Forster, P., & Rohlf, A. (1999). Median-joining networks for inferring intraspecific
659 phylogenies. *Molecular Biology and Evolution*, 16(1), 37–48.
660 <https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordjournals.molbev.a026036>
- 661 Bandelt, H. J., Forster, P., Sykes, B. C., & Richards, M. B. (1995). Mitochondrial portraits of human
662 populations using median networks. *Genetics*, 141(2), 743–753.
- 663 Betrán, E., Rozas, J., Navarro, A., & Barbadilla, A. (1997). The estimation of the number and the
664 length distribution of gene conversion tracts from population DNA sequence data. *Genetics*,
665 146(1), 89-99.
- 666 Boback, S. M., (2003). Body size evolution in snakes: evidence from island populations. *Copeia*,
667 2003(1), 81-94. [https://doi.org/10.1643/0045-8511\(2003\)003\[0081:BSEISE\]2.0.CO;2](https://doi.org/10.1643/0045-8511(2003)003[0081:BSEISE]2.0.CO;2)

- 1
2
3
4 668 Bonnet, X., Shine, R., Naulleau, G., & Thiburce, C. (2001). Plastic vipers: influence of food intake
5 669 on the size and shape of Gaboon vipers (*Bitis gabonica*). *Journal of Zoology*, 255(3), 341-
6 670 351. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0952836901001443>
- 7
8 671 Boontop, Y., Kumaran, N., Schutze, M. K., Clarke, A. R., Cameron, S. L., & Krosch, M. N. (2017).
9 672 Population structure in *Zeugodacus cucurbitae* (Diptera: Tephritidae) across Thailand and the
10 673 Thai–Malay peninsula: natural barriers to a great disperser. *Biological Journal of the Linnean*
11 674 *Society*, 121(3), 540–555. <https://doi.org/10.1093/biolinnean/blx009>
- 12
13 675 Breininger, D. R., Bolt, R. M., Legare, M. L., Drese, J. H., & Stolen, E. D. (2011). Factors influencing
14 676 home-range sizes of Eastern Indigo Snakes in central Florida. *Journal of Herpetology*, 45(4),
15 677 484–490. <https://doi.org/10.1670/10-176.1>
- 16
17 678 Brito, J. C. (2003). Seasonal variation in movements, home range, and habitat use by male *Vipera*
18 679 *latastei* in northern Portugal. *Journal of Herpetology*, 37(1), 155-160.
19 680 [https://doi.org/10.1670/0022-1511\(2003\)037\[0155:SVIMHR\]2.0.CO;2](https://doi.org/10.1670/0022-1511(2003)037[0155:SVIMHR]2.0.CO;2)
- 20
21 681 Buddhachat, K., Suwannapoom, C. (2018). Phylogenetic relationships and genetic diversity of the
22 682 *Polypedates leucomystax* complex in Thailand. *PeerJ*, 16, e4263.
23 683 <https://doi.org/10.7717/peerj.4263>
- 24
25 684 Card, D. C., Schield, D. R., Adams, R. H., Corbin, A. B., Perry, B. W., Andrew, A. L., ... Castoe, T.
26 685 A. (2016). Phylogeographic and population genetic analyses reveal multiple species of *Boa*
27 686 and independent origins of insular dwarfism. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution*, 102,
28 687 104-116. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ympev.2016.05.034>
- 29
30 688 Carfagno, G. L. F., & Weatherhead P. J. (2006). Intraspecific and interspecific variation in use of
31 689 forest-edge habitat by snakes. *Canadian Journal of Zoology*, 84(10), 1440–1452.
32 690 <https://doi.org/10.1139/z06-124>
- 33
34 691 Chaitae, A. (2011). *Demography of the monocled cobra (Naja kaouthia) in the central region of*
35 692 *Thailand* (Master's thesis). Retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.18297/etd/228>
- 36
37 693 Chen, N., & Fu, X. Y. (2008). *Nucleotide: Naja atra voucher CIB093931 mitochondrion, complete*
38 694 *genome*. Retrieved from <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/nuccore/194739362>
- 39
40 695 Cox, M. J. (1991). *The snakes of Thailand and their husbandry*. Malabar, Florida: Krieger Public
41 696 Company Limited.
- 42
43 697 Cox, M. J., Hoover, M. F., Chanhom, L., & Kumthorn, T. (2013). *The Snakes of Thailand*.
44 698 Bangkok, Thailand: Chulalongkorn University Printing Press.
- 45
46 699 de Jong, M. A., Wahlberg, N., Van Eijk, M., Brakefield, P. M., & Zwaan, B. J. (2011). Mitochondrial
47 700 DNA signature for range-wide populations of *Bicyclus anynana* suggests a rapid expansion
48 701 from recent refugia. *PLoS ONE*, 6(6), e21385. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0021385>
- 49
50 702 Ding, L., Gan, X. N., He, S. P., & Zhao, E. M. (2011). A phylogeographic, demographic and
51 703 historical analysis of the short-tailed pit viper (*Gloydius brevicaudus*): evidence for early

- 1
2
3
4 704 divergence and late expansion during the Pleistocene. *Molecular Ecology*, 20(9), 1905–1922.
5
6 705 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-294X.2011.05060.x>
7 706 Drummond, A. J., Ho, S. Y., Phillips, M. J., & Rambaut, A. (2006). Relaxed phylogenetics and
8
9 707 dating with confidence. *PLoS Biology*, 4(5), e88. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.0040088>
10 708 Drummond, A. J., Suchard, M. A., Xie, D., & Rambaut, A. (2012). Bayesian phylogenetics with
11
12 709 BEAUti and the BEAST 1.7. *Molecular Biology and Evolution*, 29(8), 1969–1973.
13
14 710 <https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/mss075>
15 711 Ducroq, S., Chaimanee, Y., Suteethorn, V., & Jaeger, J. J. (1994). Ages and paleoenvironment of
16
17 712 Miocene mammalian faunas from Thailand. *Palaeogeography Palaeoclimatology*
18 713 *Palaeoecology*, 108(1-2), 149-163. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0031-0182\(94\)90027-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/0031-0182(94)90027-2)
19 714 Dupuis, J. R., Roe, A. D., & Sperling, F. A. (2012). Multi-locus species delimitation in closely related
20
21 715 animals and fungi: one marker is not enough. *Molecular Ecology*, 21(18), 4422–4436.
22 716 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-294X.2012.05642.x>
23 717 Excoffier, L., & Lischer, H. L. (2010). Arlequin suite ver 3.5: A new series of programs to perform
24
25 718 population genetics analyses under Linux and Windows. *Molecular Ecology Resources*,
26 719 10(3), 564-567. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1755-0998.2010.02847.x>
27
28 720 Excoffier, L., Smouse, P. E., & Quattro, J. M. (1992). Analysis of molecular variance inferred from
29
30 721 metric distances among DNA haplotypes: application to human mitochondrial DNA restriction
31 722 data. *Genetics* 131(2), 479-491.
32 723 Forsman, A. (2015). Rethinking phenotypic plasticity and its consequences for individuals,
33
34 724 populations and species. *Heredity*, 115(4), 276–284. <https://doi.org/10.1038/hdy.2014.92>
35 725 Fu, Y. X. (1997). Statistical tests of neutrality of mutations against population growth, hitchhiking
36
37 726 and background selection. *Genetics*, 147(2), 915–925.
38 727 Godinho, R., Crespo, E. G., Ferrand, N., & Harris, J. D. (2005). Phylogeny and evolution of the
39
40 728 green lizards, *Lacerta* spp. (Squamata: Lacertidae) based on mitochondrial and nuclear DNA
41 729 sequences, *Amphibia-Reptilia* 26(3), 271-285. <https://doi.org/10.1163/156853805774408667>
42 730 Graziano, M. U., Graziano, K. U., Pinto, F. M., Bruna, C. Q., de Souza, R. Q., & Lascala, C. A.
43
44 731 (2013). Effectiveness of disinfection with alcohol 70% (w/v) of contaminated surfaces not
45
46 732 previously cleaned. *Revista Latino-Americana de Enfermagem*. 21(2), 618-623.
47 733 <https://doi.org/10.1590/S0104-11692013000200020>
48 734 Hall, T. A. (1999). BioEdit: a user-friendly biological sequence alignment editor and analysis
49
50 735 program for Windows 95/98/NT. *Nucleic Acids Symposium Series*, 41, 95-98.
51 736 Hamilton, A., Taylor, D., & Howard, P. (2001). Hotspots in African forests as Quaternary refugia. In:
52
53 737 W. Weber, L. J. White, A. Vedder, & L. Naughton-Treves, (Eds.), *African Rain Forest Ecology*
54 738 *and Conservation: an Interdisciplinary Perspective* (pp. 183-206). New Haven and London:
55 739 Yale University Press.
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3
4 740 Hewitt, G. M. (2001). Speciation, hybrid zones and phylogeography or seeing genes in space and
5 741 time. *Molecular Ecology*, 10(3), 537-549. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-294x.2001.01202.x>
6
7 742 Hofmann, S. (2012). Population genetic structure and geographic differentiation in the hot spring
8 743 snake *Thermophis baileyi* (Serpentes, Colubridae): Indications for glacial refuges in southern-
9 744 central Tibet. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution*, 63(2), 396-406.
10 745 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ympev.2012.01.014>
11
12 746 Huang, S., He, S., Peng, Z., Zhao, K., & Zhao, E. (2007). Molecular phylogeography of endangered
13 747 sharp-snouted pitviper (*Deinagkistrodon acutus*; Reptilia, Viperidae) in Mainland China.
14 748 *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution*, 44(3), 942-952.
15 749 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ympev.2007.05.019>
16
17 750 Huelsenbeck, J. P., & Ronquist, F. (2001). MRBAYES: Bayesian inference of phylogeny.
18 751 *Bioinformatics* 17(8), 754-755. <https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/17.8.754>
19
20 752 Hughes, J. B., Round, P. D., & Woodruff, D. S. (2003). The Indochinese–Sundaic faunal transition
21 753 at the Isthmus of Kra: an analysis of resident forest bird species distributions. *Journal of*
22 754 *Biogeography*, 30(4), 569-580. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2699.2003.00847.x>
23
24 755 Inger, R. F., & Voris, H. K. (2001). The biogeographical relations of the frogs and snakes of
25 756 Sundaland. *Journal of Biogeography*, 28(7), 863–891. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2699.2001.00580.x>
26 757
27 758 Jesus, J., Brehm, A., & Harris, J. D. (2005). Phylogenetic relationships of *Hemidactylus* geckos from
28 759 the Gulf of Guinea islands: patterns of natural colonizations and anthropogenic introductions
29 760 estimated from mitochondrial and nuclear DNA sequences. *Molecular Phylogenetics and*
30 761 *Evolution*. 34(3), 480-485. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ympev.2004.11.006>
31
32 762 Ji, X., & Wang, Z. -W. (2005). Geographic variation in reproductive traits and trade-offs between
33 763 size and number of eggs of the Chinese cobra (*Naja atra*). *Biological Journal of the Linnean*
34 764 *Society*, 85(1), 27-40. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1095-8312.2005.00470.x>
35
36 765 Jitakune, P. (2004). งูพิษในประเทศไทย 2 (Venomous Snakes in Thailand 2). Bangkok, Thailand:
37 766 Matichonbook Publishing.
38 767 Jitakune, P., & Chanhome, L. (1996). งูพิษในประเทศไทย (Venomous Snakes in Thailand). Bangkok,
39 768 Thailand: Pachachon Co., Ltd.
40
41 769 Kelly, C. M., Barker, N. P., & Villet, M. H. (2003). Phylogenetics of advanced snakes (Caenophidia)
42 770 based on four mitochondrial genes. *Systematic Biology*, 52(4), 439-459.
43 771 <https://doi.org/10.1080/10635150390218132>
44
45 772 Keogh, S. J., Scott, I. A., & Hayes, C. (2005). Rapid and repeated origin of insular gigantism and
46 773 dwarfism in Australian tiger snakes. *Evolution*, 59(1), 226-233. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0014-3820.2005.tb00909.x>
47 774
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3
4 775 Lanfear, R., Calcott, B., Ho, S. Y., & Guindon, S. (2012). PartitionFinder: combined selection of
5 776 partitioning schemes and substitution models for phylogenetic analyses. *Molecular Biology*
6 777 *and Evolution*, 29(6), 1695–1701. <https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/mss020>
7
8 778 Laopichienpong, N., Muangmai, N., Supikamolseini, A., Twilprawat, P., Chanhom, L.,
9 779 Suntrarachun, S., ... Srikulnath, K. (2016). Assessment of snake DNA barcodes based on
10 780 mitochondrial COI and Cytb genes revealed multiple putative cryptic species in Thailand.
11 781 *Gene*, 594(2), 238-247. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gene.2016.09.017>
12
13 782 Lawson, R., Slowinski, J. B., Crother, B. I., & Burbrink, F. T. (2005). Phylogeny of the Colubroidea
14 783 (Serpentes): new evidence from mitochondrial and nuclear genes. *Molecular Phylogenetics*
15 784 *and Evolution*, 37(2), 581-601. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ympev.2005.07.016>
16
17 785 Librado, P., & Rozas, J. (2009). DnaSP v5: A software for comprehensive analysis of DNA
18 786 polymorphism data. *Bioinformatics*, 25(11), 1451-1452.
19 787 <https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btp187>
20
21 788 Lin, H. -C., Li, S. -H., Fong, J., & Lin, S. -M. (2008). Ventral coloration differentiation and
22 789 mitochondrial sequences of the Chinese cobra (*Naja atra*) in Taiwan. *Conservation Genetics*,
23 790 9(5), 1089-1097. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10592-007-9418-8>
24
25 791 Lin, L. H., Mao, L. X., & Ji, X. (2012). Genetic structure and demographic history should inform
26 792 conservation: Chinese cobras currently treated as homogenous show population divergence,
27 793 *PLoS ONE*, 7(4), e36334. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0036334>
28
29 794 Lin, L. -H., Hua, L., Qu, Y. -F., Gao, J. -F., & Ji, X. (2014). The phylogeographical pattern and
30 795 conservation of the Chinese cobra (*Naja atra*) across its range based on mitochondrial
31 796 Control Region sequences. *PLoS ONE*, 9(9), e106944.
32 797 <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0106944>
33
34 798 Luiselli, L. M., Petrozzi, F., Mebert, K., Zuffi, M. A. L., & Amori, G. (2015). Resource partitioning and
35 799 dwarfism patterns between sympatric snakes in a micro-insular Mediterranean environment.
36 800 *Ecological Research*, 30(3), 527-535. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11284-015-1250-x>
37
38 801 Lukoschek, V., Waycott, M., & Keogh, J. S. (2008). Relative information content of polymorphic
39 802 microsatellites and mitochondrial DNA for inferring dispersal and population genetic structure
40 803 in the olive sea snake, *Aipysurus laevis*. *Molecular Ecology*, 17(13), 3062–3077.
41 804 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-294X.2008.03815.x>
42
43 805 Matocq, M. D., Patton, J. L., & da Silva, M. F. (2000). Population genetic structure of two
44 806 ecologically distinct Amazonian spiny rats: separating history and current ecology. *Evolution*
45 807 54(4), 1423-1432. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0014-3820.2000.tb00574.x>
46
47 808 McCartney-Melstad, E., Waller, T., Micucci, P. A., Barros, M., Draque, J., Amato, G., & Mendez, M.
48 809 (2012). Population structure and gene flow of the Yellow Anaconda (*Eunectes notaeus*) in
49 810 Northern Argentina. *PLoS ONE*, 7(5), e37473. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0037473>
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3
4 811 Meyer, C.P., & Paulay, G. (2005). DNA barcoding: error rates based on comprehensive samplings.
5 812 PLoS Biology, 3(12), e422. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.0030422>
6
7 813 Michaelides, S., Cornish, N., Griffiths, R., Groombridge, J., Zajac, N., Walters, G. J., Aubret, F., ...
8 814 Uller, T. (2015). Phylogeography and conservation genetics of the common wall lizard,
9 815 *Podarcis muralis*, on islands at its northern range. *PLoS ONE*, 10(2), e0117113.
10 816 <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0117113>
11
12 817 Mott, C. L. (2010). Environmental Constraints to the Geographic Expansion of Plant and Animal
13 818 Species. *Nature Education Knowledge* 3(10), 72.
14
15 819 Mrinalini, M., Thorpe, R. S., Creer, S., Lallias, D., Dawnay, L., Stuart, B. L., & Malhotra, A. K.
16 820 (2015). Convergence of multiple markers and analysis methods defines the genetic
17 821 distinctiveness of cryptic pitvipers. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution*, 92, 266-279.
18 822 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ympev.2015.06.001>
19
20 823 Penny, D. (2001). A 40,000 year palynological record from north-east Thailand; implications for
21 824 biogeography and palaeo-environmental reconstruction. *Palaeogeography Palaeoclimatology*
22 825 *Palaeoecology*, 171(3-4), 97-128. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0031-0182\(01\)00242-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0031-0182(01)00242-5)
23
24 826 Pyron, A. R., & Burbrink, F.T. (2009). Lineage diversification in a widespread species: roles for
25 827 niche divergence and conservatism in the common kingsnake, *Lampropeltis getula*.
26 828 *Molecular Ecology*, 18(16), 3443–3457. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-294X.2009.04292.x>
27
28 829 Rambaut, A., Suchard, M. A., Xie, D., & Drummond, A. J. (2014). *FigTree*. Retrieved from
29 830 <http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree/>
30
31 831 Ratnarathorn, N. (2019). *Regional variation of the Monocled Cobra, Naja kaouthia Lesson, 1831*
32 832 *(Squamata: Elapidae) in Thailand: Development, Temperature Effects, Environment, and*
33 833 *Phylogeny* (Doctoral Dissertation). Retrieved from <http://discovery.ucl.ac.uk/10064939/>
34
35 834 Ronquist, F., Teslenko, M., Van Der Mark, P., Ayres, D. L., Darling, A., Höhna, S., ... Huelsenbeck,
36 835 J. P. (2012). MrBayes 3.2: efficient Bayesian phylogenetic inference and model choice across
37 836 a large model space. *Systematic Biology*, 61(3), 539-542.
38 837 <https://doi.org/10.1093/sysbio/sys029>
39
40 838 Rozas, J., Ferrer-Mata, A., Sánchez-DelBarrio, J. C., Guirao-Rico, S., Librado, P., Ramos-Onsins,
41 839 S. E., & Sánchez-Gracia, A. (2017). DnaSP v6: DNA sequence polymorphism analysis of
42 840 large datasets. *Molecular Biology and Evolution*, 34(12), 3299-3302.
43 841 <https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/msx248>
44
45 842 Rueppell, O., Hayes, A., Warrit, N., & Smith, D. (2011). Population structure of *Apis cerana* in
46 843 Thailand reflects biogeography and current gene flow rather than Varroa mite association.
47 844 *Insectes Sociaux*, 58(4), 445-452. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00040-011-0161-2>
48
49 845 Sallaberry-Pincheira, N., Garin, C. F., González-Acuña, D., Sallaberry, M. A., & Vianna, J.A. (2011).
50 846 Genetic divergence of Chilean long-tailed snake (*Philodryas chamissonis*) across latitudes:
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3
4 847 conservation threats for different lineages. *Diversity and Distributions*, 17, 152–162.
5
6 848 <https://doi.org/10.2307/41058148>
- 7 849 Sinsakul, S. (1992). Evidence of quaternary sea level changes in the coastal areas of Thailand: a
8
9 850 review. *Journal of Southeast Asian Earth Sciences*, 7(1), 23-37. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0743-](https://doi.org/10.1016/0743-9547(92)90012-Z)
10 851 [9547\(92\)90012-Z](https://doi.org/10.1016/0743-9547(92)90012-Z)
- 11 852 Slowinski, J. B., & Keogh, S. J. (2000). Phylogenetic relationships of elapid snakes based on
12
13 853 Cytochrome b mtDNA sequences. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution*, 15(1), 157-164.
14 854 <https://doi.org/10.1006/mpev.1999.0725>
- 15
16 855 Smith, P. F., & Stokes, R. B. (1997). Geology and petroleum potential of the Khorat Plateau basin in
17
18 856 the Vientiane area of Lao P.D.R. *Journal of Petroleum Geology*, 20(1), 27–50.
19 857 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1747-5457.1997.tb00754.x>
- 20 858 Songtham, W., Ratanasthien, B., Mildenhall, D. C., Singharajwarapan, S., & Kandharosa, W.
21
22 859 (2003). Oligocene-Miocene climatic changes in northern Thailand resulting from extrusion
23
24 860 tectonics of Southeast Asian landmass. *ScienceAsia*, 29, 221-233.
- 25 861 Spicer, J. I. (2006). *Biodiversity: A Beginner's Guide*. Oxford, UK: Oneworld Publications,
- 26 862 Sriwattanarothai, N., Steinke, D., Ruenwongsa, P., Hanner, R., & Panijpan, B. (2010). Molecular
27
28 863 and morphological evidence supports the species status of the Mahachai fighter *Betta* sp.
29 864 Mahachai and reveals new species of *Betta* from Thailand. *Journal of Fish Biology*, 77(2),
30 865 414-424. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1095-8649.2010.02715.x>
- 31 866 Stuart, B., & Wogan, G. (2014). *Naja kaouthia*. Retrieved from
32 867 <http://www.iucnredlist.org/details/177487/0>
- 33
34 868 Subramanian, S. (2016). The effects of sample size on population genomic analyses – implications
35
36 869 for the tests of neutrality. *BMC Genomics*, 17, 123. [https://doi.org/10.1186/s12864-016-2441-](https://doi.org/10.1186/s12864-016-2441-8)
37 870 [8](https://doi.org/10.1186/s12864-016-2441-8)
- 38
39 871 Suntrarachun, S., Chanhome, L., & Sumontha, M. (2014). Phylogenetic analysis of the king cobra,
40
41 872 *Ophiophagus hannah* in Thailand based on mitochondrial DNA sequences. *Asian*
42 873 *Biomedicine*, 8(2), 269-274. <https://doi.org/10.5372/1905-7415.0802.289>
- 43 874 Taggart, T. W., Crother, B. I., & White, M. E. (2001). Palm-Pitviper (*Bothriechis*) phylogeny, mtDNA,
44
45 875 and consilience, *Cladistics*, 17(4), 355-370. <https://doi.org/10.1006/clad.2001.0183>
- 46 876 Tajima, F. (1989). Statistical method for testing the neutral mutation hypothesis by DNA
47
48 877 polymorphism. *Genetics*, 123(3), 585–595.
- 49 878 Tan, K. Y., Tan, C. H., Chanhome, L., & Tan, N. H. (2017). Comparative venom gland
50
51 879 transcriptomics of *Naja kaouthia* (monocled cobra) from Malaysia and Thailand: elucidating
52 880 geographical venom variation and insights into sequence novelty. *PeerJ*, 5(5), e3142.
53 881 <https://doi.org/10.7717/peerj.3142>
- 54
55
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3
4 882 Thailand Department of Mineral Resources, Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment (2007).
5 883 *Geology of Thailand*. Bangkok, Thailand: Dokbia Printing House.
6
7 884 Thompson, J. D., Higgins, D. G., & Gibson, T. J. (1994). CLUSTAL W: improving the sensitivity of
8 885 progressive multiple sequence alignment through sequence weighting, position-specific gap
9 886 penalties and weight matrix choice. *Nucleic Acids Research*, 22(22), 4673-4680.
11 887 Tzika, A. C., Remy, C., Gibson, R., & Milinkovitch, M. C. (2009). Molecular genetic analysis of a
12 888 captive-breeding program: the vulnerable endemic Jamaican yellow boa. *Conservation*
13 889 *Genetics*, 10(1), 69–77. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10592-008-9519-z>
14
15 890 Udomchoke, V. (1989). Quaternary stratigraphy of the Khorat Plateau area, Northeastern Thailand.
16 891 In N. Thiramongkol. *Proceedings of the Workshop on Correlation of Quaternary Successions*
17 892 *in South, East, and Southeast Asia*, Bangkok, Thailand (pp. 69-94). Department of Geology:
18 893 Chulalongkorn University.
19
20 894 Uetz, P., & Hošek, J. (2014). *Naja kaouthia* LESSON, 1831. Retrieved from:
21 895 [http://reptiledatabase.reptarium.cz/species?genus=Naja&species=kaouthia&search_param=](http://reptiledatabase.reptarium.cz/species?genus=Naja&species=kaouthia&search_param=%28%28taxon%3D%27Elapidae%27%29%29)
22 896 [%28%28taxon%3D%27Elapidae%27%29%29](http://reptiledatabase.reptarium.cz/species?genus=Naja&species=kaouthia&search_param=%28%28taxon%3D%27Elapidae%27%29%29)
23
24 897 Ursenbacher, S., Schweiger, S., Tomovic´, L., Crnobrnja-Isailovic´, J., Fumagalli, L., & Mayer, W.
25 898 (2008). Molecular phylogeography of the nose-horned viper (*Vipera ammodytes*, Linnaeus
26 899 (1758)): Evidence for high genetic diversity and multiple refugia in the Balkan peninsula.
30 900 *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution*, 46(3), 1116–1128.
31 901 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ympev.2007.11.002>
32
33 902 Velo-Antón, G., Godinho, R., Harris, D. J., Santos, X., Martínez-Freiria, F., Fahd, S., ... Brito, J. C.
34 903 (2012). Deep evolutionary lineages in a Western Mediterranean snake (*Vipera*
35 904 *latastei*/monticola group) and high genetic structuring in Southern Iberian populations.
36 905 *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution*, 65(3), 965-973.
37 906 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ympev.2012.08.016>
38
39 907 Vidal, N., Delmas, A. S., David, P., Cruaud, C., Couloux, A., & Hedges, S. B. (2007). The phylogeny
40 908 and classification of caenophidian snakes inferred from seven nuclear protein-coding genes.
41 909 *Comptes Rendus Biologies*, 330(2), 182-187. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.crv.2006.10.001>
42
43 910 Voris, H. K. (2000). Maps of Pleistocene sea levels in Southeast Asia: shorelines, river systems and
44 911 time durations. *Journal of Biogeography*, 27(5), 1153–1167. [https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-](https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2699.2000.00489.x)
45 912 [2699.2000.00489.x](https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2699.2000.00489.x)
46
47 913 Wallach, V., Williams, K. L. & Boundy, J. (2014). *Snakes of the World. A Catalogue of Living and*
48 914 *Extinct Species*. Boca Raton/London/New York: CRC Press.
49
50 915 Warrit, N., Smith, D. R., & Lekprayoon, C. (2006). Genetic subpopulations of Varroa mites and their
51 916 *Apis cerana* hosts in Thailand. *Apidologie*, 37(1), 19-30.
52 917 <https://doi.org/10.1051/apido:2005051>
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3
4 918 Wittayarat, P., Worakawin, K., Münsin, W., Kaewmoung, D., Amaranan, K., & Parithan, V. (2001).
5 919 *Atlas แผนที่ภูมิศาสตร์-ประวัติศาสตร์*. Bangkok, Thailand: Thai Watana Panich Press.
6
7 920 Wood, P. L., Grismer, L. L., & Thy, N. (2010). A new cryptic species of *Acanthosaura* Gray, 1831
8 (Squamata: Agamidae) from Thailand and Cambodia. *Zootaxa*, 2488(1), 22–38.
9 921 <https://doi.org/10.11646/zootaxa.2488.1.2>
10 922
11 923 Woodruff, D. S. (2003). Neogene marine transgressions, palaeogeography and biogeographic
12 924 transitions on the Thai–Malay Peninsula. *Journal of Biogeography*, 30(4), 551-567.
13 925 <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2699.2003.00846.x>
14
15 926 Wüster, W. (1998). The cobras of the genus *Naja* in India. *Hamadryad*, 23(1), 15-32
16 927 Wüster, W., & Thorpe, R. S. (1989). Population affinities of the Asiatic cobra (*Naja naja*) species
17 928 complex in south-east Asia: reliability and random resampling. *Biological Journal of the*
18 929 *Linnean Society*, 36(4), 391–409. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1095-8312.1989.tb00503.x>
19 930 Wüster, W., & Thorpe, R. S. (1992). Asiatic Cobras: Population Systematics of the *Naja naja*
20 931 species complex (Serpentes: Elapidae) in India and Central Asia. *Herpetologica*, 48(1), 69-
21 932 85.
22 933 Wüster, W., & Thorpe, R. S. (1994). *Naja siamensis*, a cryptic species of venomous snake revealed
23 934 by mtDNA sequencing. *Experientia*, 50(1), 75–79.
24 935 Wüster, W., Crookes, S., Ineich, I., Mane´, Y., Pook, C. E., Trape, J. -F., & Broadley, D. G. (2007).
25 936 The phylogeny of cobras inferred from mitochondrial DNA sequences: evolution of venom
26 937 spitting and the phylogeography of the African spitting cobras (Serpentes: Elapidae: *Naja*
27 938 *nigricollis* complex). *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution*, 45(2), 437-453.
28 939 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ympev.2007.07.021>
29 940 Wüster, W., Thorpe, R. S., Cox, M. J., Jintakune, P., & Nabhitabhata, J. (1995). Population
30 941 systematics of the snake genus *Naja* (Reptilia: Serpentes: Elapidae) in Indochina:
31 942 multivariate morphometrics and comparative mitochondrial DNA sequencing (cytochrome
32 943 oxidase I). *Journal of Evolutionary Biology*, 8(4), 493–510. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1420-9101.1995.8040493.x>
33 944
34 945 Yan, J., Li, H., & Zhou, K. (2008). Evolution of the mitochondrial genome in snakes: gene
35 946 rearrangements and phylogenetic relationships. *BMC Genomics*, 9, 569.
36 947 <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2164-9-569>
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

948 Figures

949 **Fig. 1.** Map of collection localities and numbers of specimens from each site in Thailand. In the
950 figure, brightly coloured areas indicate where *N. kaouthia* is commonly found. Collection sites for
951 the central region (blue) consist of Bangkok (BK), Samutprakarn (SMP), the boundary between
952 Saraburi and Phra-Nakhon-Si-Ayutthaya (SB), and Prachuabkirikhan (PJ); for the northern region
953 (pink): Sukhothai (SK) and Nakhon Sawan (Bueng Boraphet) (NW); for the southern region (green):
954 Ranong (R), Phattalung (PL), Pha-Ngan Island (PNG), and Trang (T); for the north-eastern region
955 (orange): Nakhon Ratchasima (Sakaerat) (NR). The outgroup specimens of *Naja siamensis* were
956 collected from Phetchabun (PB) and Nan (NN).

957 **Fig. 2. A)** The mtDNA (concatenated CR and Cyt *b*) phylogeny of *N. kaouthia* from different
958 provinces of Thailand generated from a Bayesian analysis. Support values are shown on branches
959 are Bayesian Posterior Probabilities (BPP). Images show examples of the colour variation within
960 and between each lineage grouped by colour (top to bottom): north-east (green), island (grey),
961 south (blue), and north-central (red). Only branches with >50% BPP support are shown; **B) Inset:**
962 [Estimated distribution of the four inferred clades of *Naja kaouthia* in Thailand including the north-](#)
963 [central population \(red\), the north-eastern population \(green\), southern population \(blue\), and island](#)
964 [population \(grey\).](#)

965 **Fig. 3.** Median-joining haplotype network of concatenated mtDNA (Cyt *b* and CR): 10 haplotypes
966 were recovered (H1-10) from *N. kaouthia* across its distribution in Thailand and another four from
967 the outgroups (H11-14). Based on the network analysis, colours represent the collection province
968 (locality) while the colour tone indicates the four main groups (populations) of *N. kaouthia*; North
969 and Central (red), Southern (blue), Island (grey), and North-eastern (green). The outgroups are
970 shown in black, and include the non-spitting cobra species, *Naja naja* and *Naja atra* and a spitting
971 cobra species, *Naja siamensis*. A different colour shade indicates collection site (e.g. Sukhothai
972 (SK) = yellow, Nakhon Sawan (NW) = orange, Bangkok (BK) = brown, etc.) White dots on branches
973 represent inferred missing haplotypes. Short transverse lines inferred mutational steps (one base
974 difference)

975

976 **Tables**

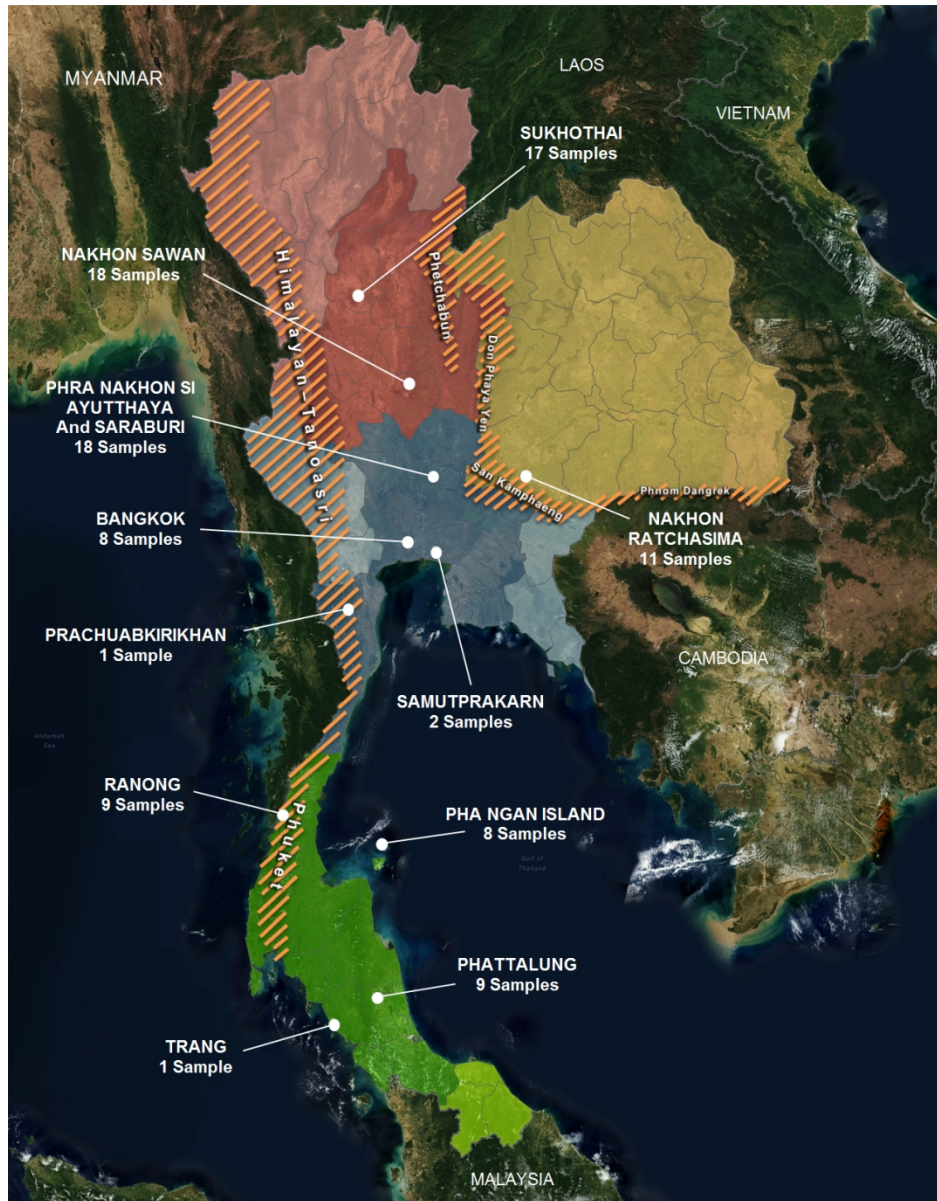
Population	<i>n</i>	<i>nh</i>	<i>H</i>	π (%)	<i>D</i>	<i>F_s</i>
North + Central	63	2	0.471 ± 0.034	0.0308 ± 0.0302	1.547 (0.947)	1.936 (0.751)
South	20	3	0.542 ± 0.104	0.0396 ± 0.0366	0.173 (0.662)	0.153 (0.488)
Island	8	1	0.000	0.000	0.000 (1.000)	-
North-east	11	4	0.600 ± 0.159	0.0571 ± 0.0488	-1.322 (0.092)	-1.026 (0.104)
All samples	102	14	0.773 ± 0.028	0.9375 ± 0.4691	0.503 (0.748)	18.524 (0.997)

977 **Table 1.** Genetic diversity and population indices measured within each population and between all
 978 samples of *N. kaouthia* (using the concatenated gene from partial Cytochrome *b* and the Control
 979 Region): *n*, sample size; *nh*, number of haplotypes; *h*, haplotype diversity; π , nucleotide diversity; *D*,
 980 Tajima's *D*; *F_s*, Fu and Li's *F*. Standard deviations for *h* and π follow the indices. Significant *p*-
 981 values for *D* and *F_s* are in brackets.

Regions	North + Central	South	Island	North-east
North + Central		0.50352*	0.63563*	0.48977*
South	0.93458*		0.64116*	0.43354*
Island	0.96621*	0.95175*		0.66132*
North-east	0.99068*	0.98666*	0.99037*	

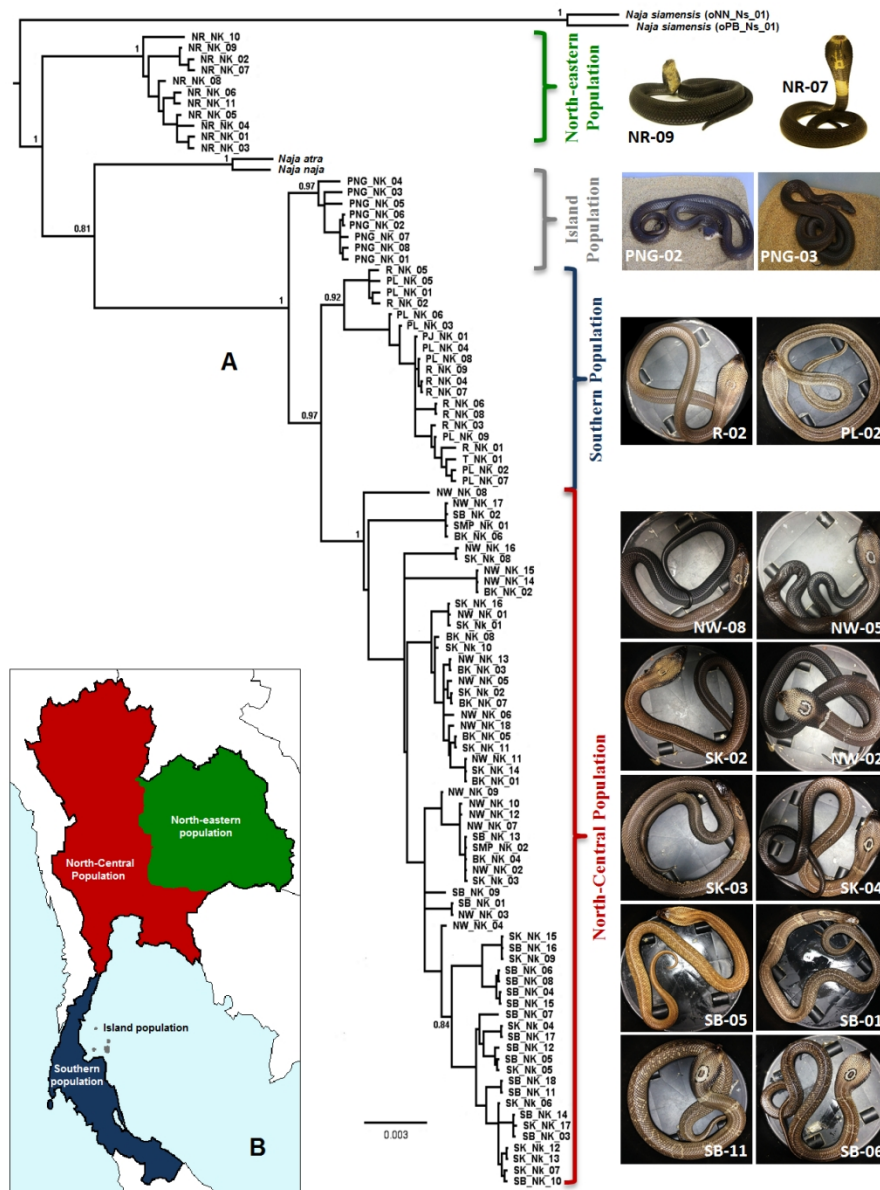
982 * Significance test (*p*-value) < 0.05

983 **Table 2.** Degrees of *Phi* (Φ)- (bottom left-italics) and *F*-statistics (top right) between regional *N.*
 984 *kaouthia* based on the concatenated mtDNA gene data.



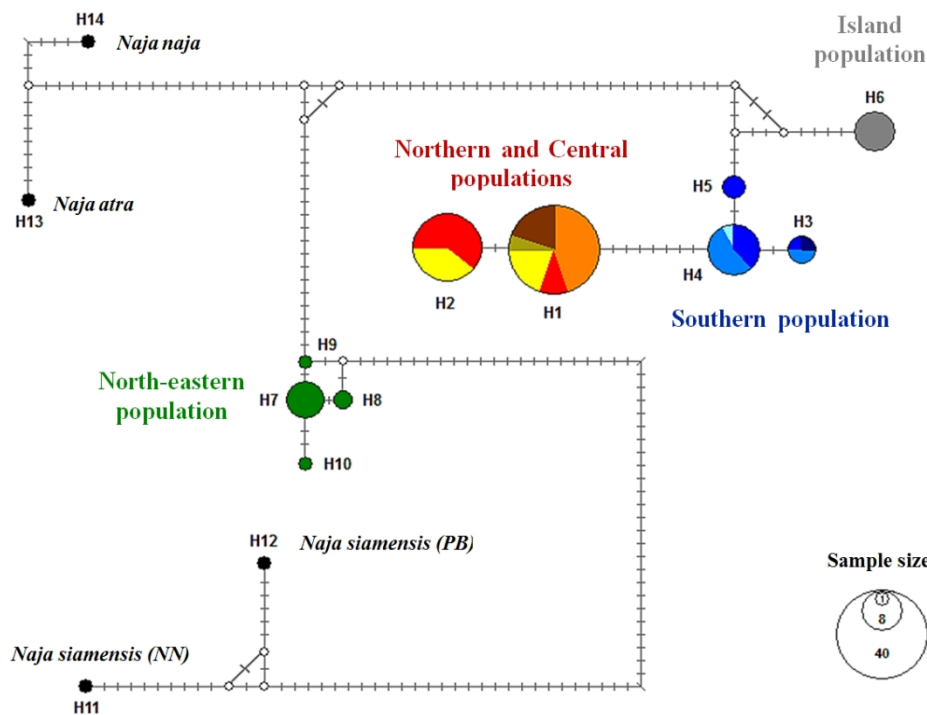
Map of collection localities and numbers of specimens from each site in Thailand. In the figure, brightly coloured areas indicate where *N. kaouthia* is commonly found. Collection sites for the central region (blue) consist of Bangkok (BK), Samutprakarn (SMP), the boundary between Saraburi and Phra-Nakhon-Si-Ayutthaya (SB), and Prachuabkirikhan (PJ); for the northern region (pink): Sukhothai (SK) and Nakhon Sawan (Bueng Boraphet) (NW); for the southern region (green): Ranong (R), Phattalung (PL), Pha-Ngan Island (PNG), and Trang (T); for the north-eastern region (orange): Nakhon Ratchasima (Sakaerat) (NR). The outgroup specimens of *Naja siamensis* were collected from Phetchabun (PB) and Nan (NN).

336x429mm (96 x 96 DPI)



A) The mtDNA (concatenated CR and Cyt b) phylogeny of *N. kaouthia* from different provinces of Thailand generated from a Bayesian analysis. Support values are shown on branches are Bayesian Posterior Probabilities (BPP). Images show examples of the colour variation within and between each lineage grouped by colour (top to bottom): north-east (green), island (grey), south (blue), and north-central (red). Only branches with >50% BPP support are shown; B) Inset: Estimated distribution of the four inferred clades of *Naja kaouthia* in Thailand including the north-central population (red), the north-eastern population (green), southern population (blue), and island population (grey).

342x449mm (96 x 96 DPI)



Median-joining haplotype network of concatenated mtDNA: 10 haplotypes were recovered (H1-10) from *N. kaouthia* across its distribution in Thailand and another four from the outgroups (H11-14). Colours represent the collection province (locality) while the colour tone indicates the four main groups (populations) of *N. kaouthia*; North and Central (red), Southern (blue), Island (grey), and North-eastern (green). The outgroups are shown in black, and include the non-spitting cobra species, *Naja naja* and *Naja atra* and a spitting cobra species, *Naja siamensis*. A different colour shade indicates collection site (e.g. Sukhothai (SK) = yellow, Nakhon Sawan (NW) = orange, Bangkok (BK) = brown, etc.) White dots on branches represent inferred missing haplotypes.

321x240mm (96 x 96 DPI)

Supplementary Information

Geographic differentiation and cryptic diversity in the monocled cobra, *Naja kaouthia* (Elapidae) from Thailand

Napat Ratnarathorn, Pongchai Harnyuttanakorn, Lawan Chanhome,

Susan E. Evans, and Julia J. Day

Contents

Figure S1 : Phylogenetic tree based on the Control Region of <i>N. kaouthia</i>	2
Figure S2 : Phylogenetic tree of partial Cytochrome <i>b</i> data of <i>N. kaouthia</i>	3
Figure S3 : Haplotype network of partial Cytochrome <i>b</i> of <i>N. kaouthia</i>	4
Figure S4 : A) Phylogenetic tree and B) haplotype network, based on the nuclear loci C-mos of <i>N. kaouthia</i>	5
Table S1 : Samples, locality information and Genbank accession numbers.....	6
Table S2 : Details of <i>Naja</i> species outgroups.....	7
Table S3 : Primers used in this study	7

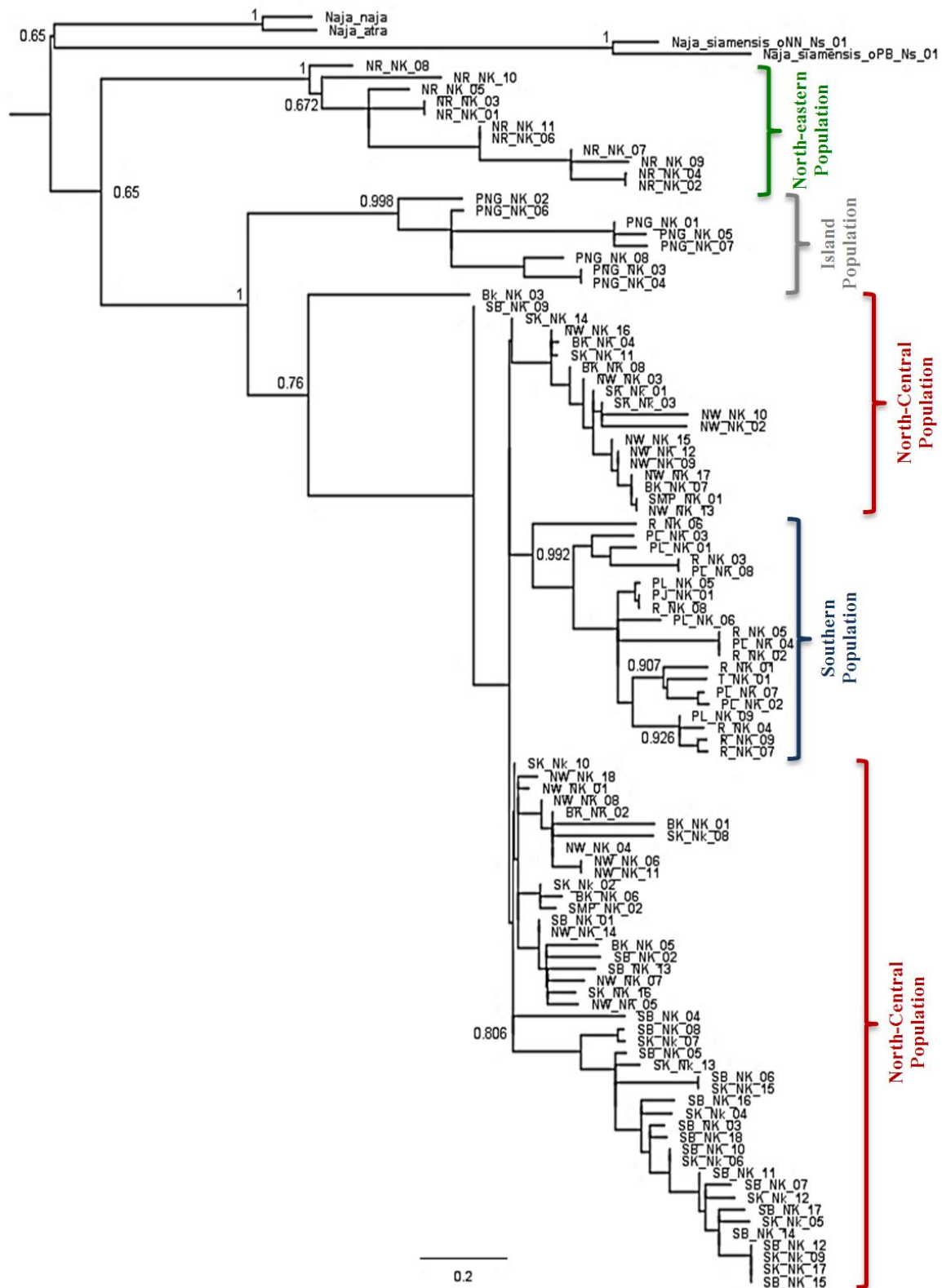


Fig. S1. Phylogenetic tree based on the Control Region of *Naja kaouthia* from different provinces of Thailand. BPP >50% shown below branches. Bayesian Posterior Probability (BPP) values support three clades of *N. kaouthia*: north-eastern (green), island (grey), and mainland (red) populations.

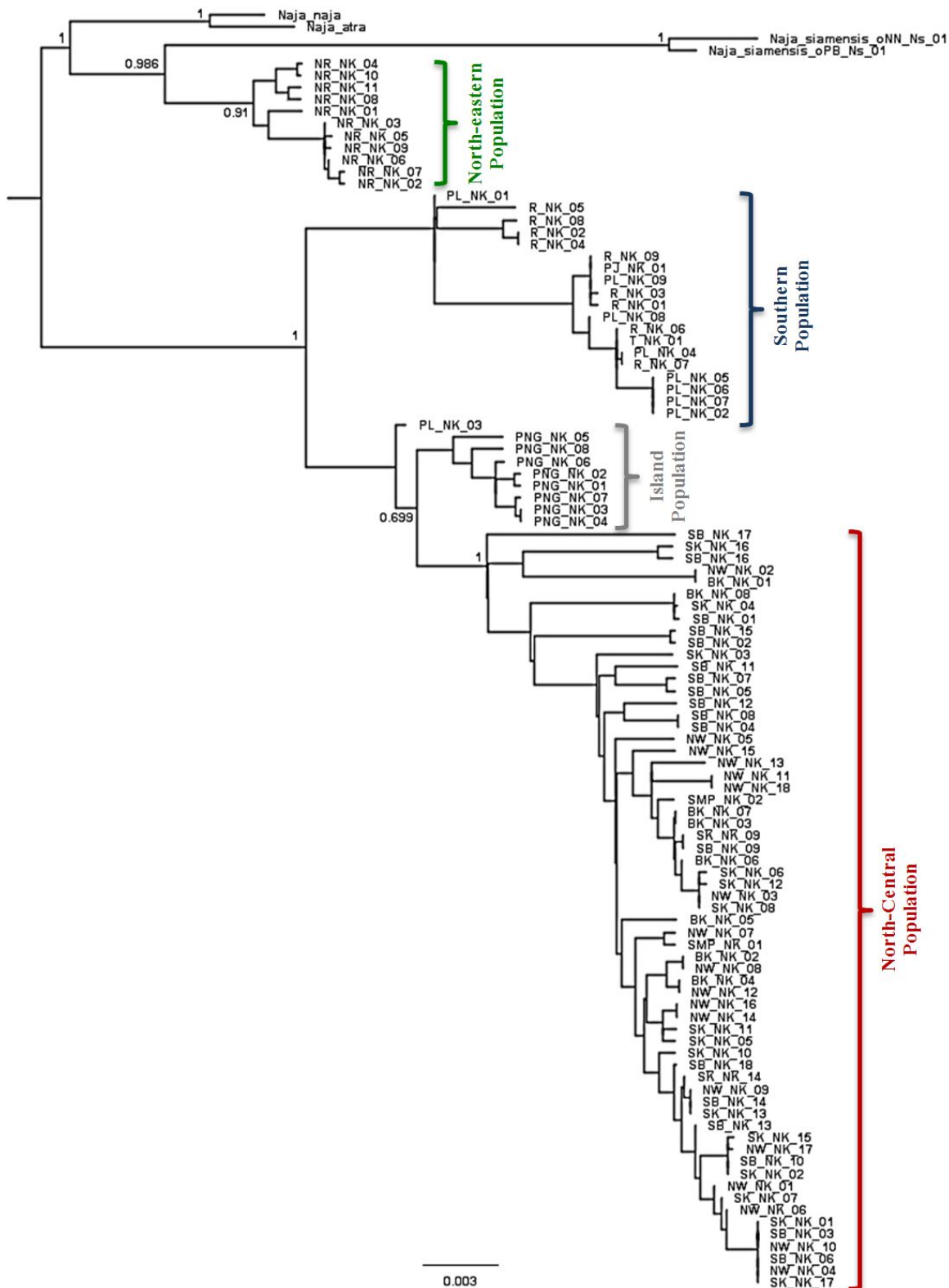


Fig. S2. Phylogenetic tree of partial Cytochrome b data of *Naja kaouthia* from different provinces of Thailand. Only branches with >50% are shown. BPP values supported four distinct clades of the *N. kaouthia* across Thailand: north-east (green), southern population (blue), island (grey), and northern & central populations (red).

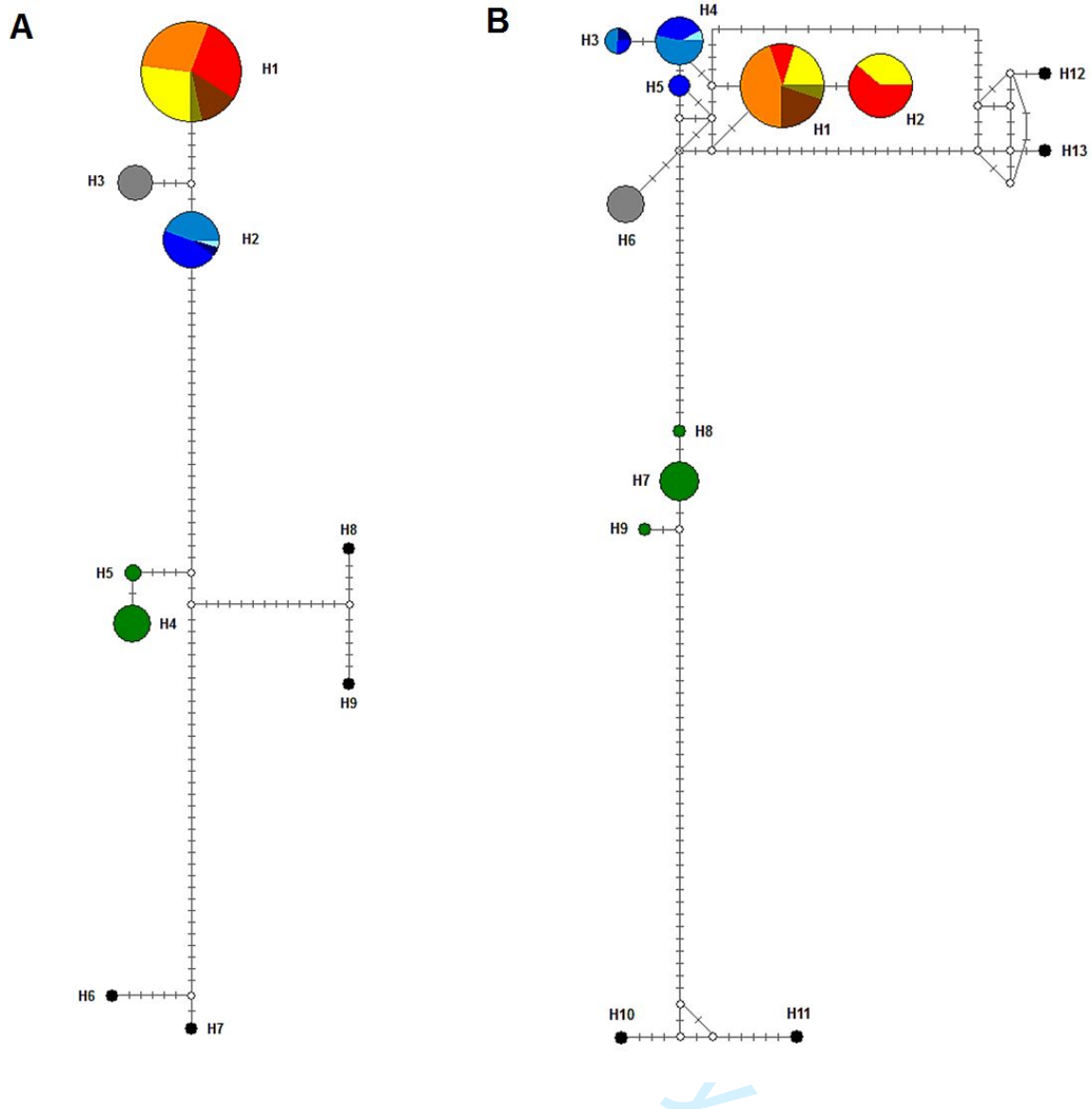


Fig. S3. A) Haplotype network of partial Cytochrome b identifies five main groups of *N. kaouthia* (H1-5) and four outgroup samples (H6-9); **B)** haplotype network of Control Region identifies nine main groups (H1-9) and four outgroup samples (H10-13).

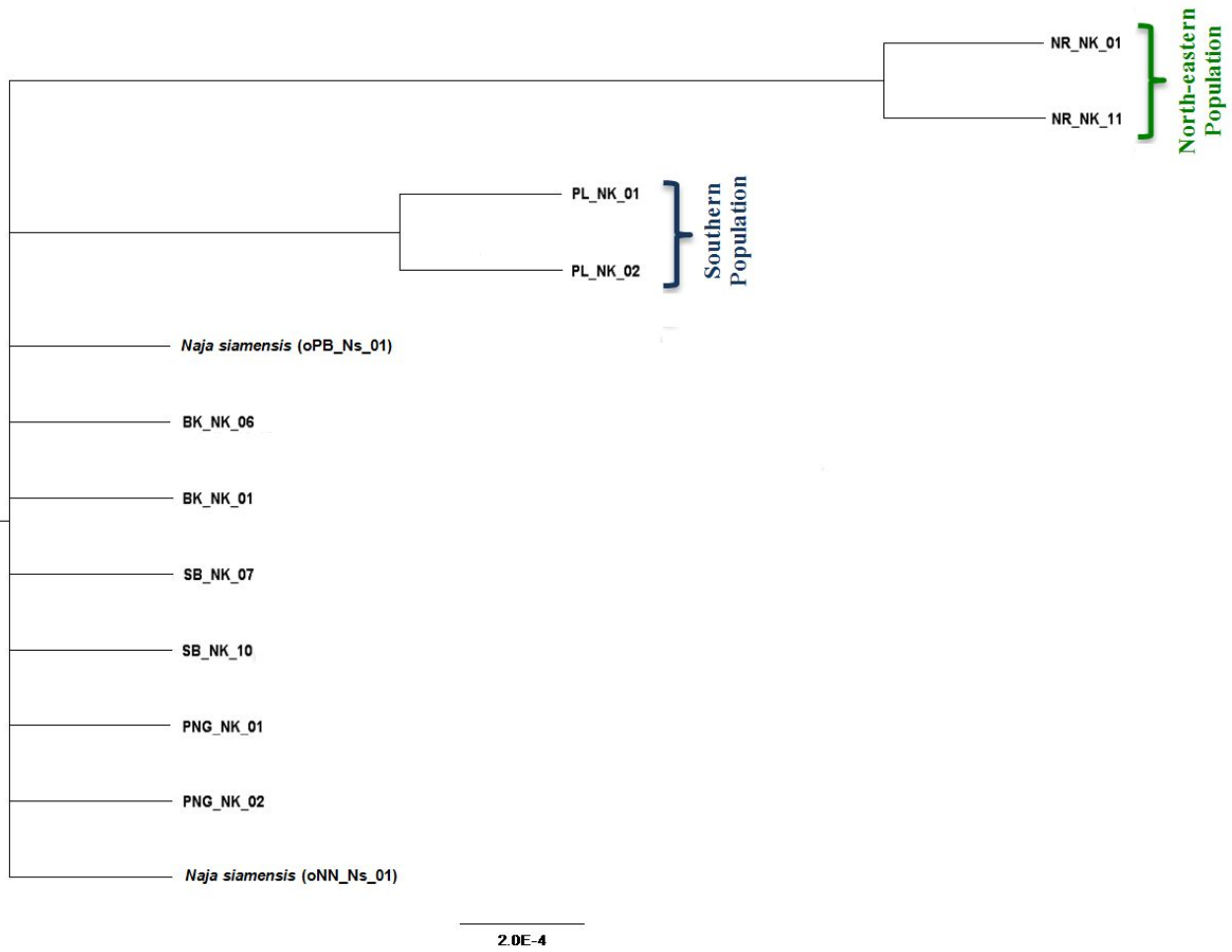
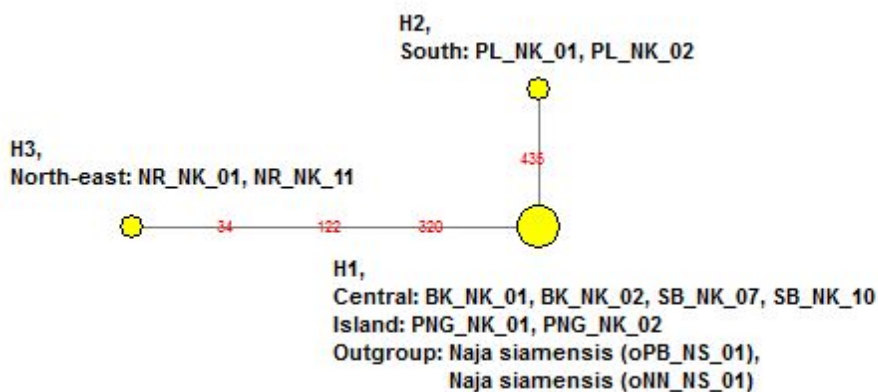
A**B**

Fig. S4. A) Phylogenetic tree and **B)** haplotype network based on the nuclear loci *C-mos* for 12 samples of *N. kaouthia*. In Fig S4a support values are represented by BPP. Both analyses identify the north-east samples as divergent from all others, including the outgroup *Naja siamensis*.

Table S1. Details of the localities, area sizes, and numbers of cobras sampled

Population	Location	Sample No.	Genbank Accession Number			Sample No.	Genbank Accession Number		
			Cytb	CR	Cytb		Cytb	CR	Cytb
Central + North	Provinces: Bangkok (BK) Location: Jomthong and Bangkae Districts Coordinates: 13°42'20.0"N 100°25'21.0"E Radius from the coordinates: 9 km Collector: Donation from local resident to the snake farm	BK_NK_01 BK_NK_02 BK_NK_03 BK_NK_04 BK_NK_05	MK721266 MK721267 MK721268 MK721269 MK721270	MK721410 MK721411 MK721412 MK721413 MK721414	MK721317 - - -	BK_NK_06 BK_NK_07 BK_NK_08	MK721271 MK721272 MK721273	MK721415 MK721416 MK721417	MK721318 - -
	Provinces: Samutprakarn (SMP) Location: Bangphli District Coordinates: 13°37'29.3"N 100°44'00.6"E Radius from the coordinates: 11 km Collector: Donation from local resident to the snake farm	SMP_NK_01 SMP_NK_02	MK721274 MK721275	MK721418 MK721419	- -				
	Provinces: Boundary between Saraburi and Phra-Nakhon-Si-Ayutthaya (SB) Location: Anghong-Tharuea Street, Don Phut Sub-district, Don Phut District, 18210 Coordinates: 14°35'10.7"N 100°36'56.6"E Radius from the coordinates: 5 km Collector: Local snake catcher	SB_NK_01 SB_NK_02 SB_NK_03 SB_NK_04 SB_NK_05 SB_NK_06 SB_NK_07 SB_NK_08 SB_NK_09	MK721248 MK721249 MK721250 MK721251 MK721252 MK721253 MK721254 MK721255 MK721256	MK721392 MK721393 MK721394 MK721395 MK721396 MK721397 MK721398 MK721399 MK721400	- - - - - - - - -	SB_NK_10 SB_NK_11 SB_NK_12 SB_NK_13 SB_NK_14 SB_NK_15 SB_NK_16 SB_NK_17 SB_NK_18	MK721257 MK721258 MK721259 MK721260 MK721261 MK721262 MK721263 MK721264 MK721265	MK721401 MK721402 MK721403 MK721404 MK721405 MK721406 MK721407 MK721408 MK721409	MK721320 - - - - - - - -
	Provinces: Sukhothai (SK) Location: Sukhothai-Kamphaeng Phet Street, Ban Klui Sub-district, Mueang District, 64000 Coordinates: 16°58'25.9"N 99°47'47.6"E Radius from the coordinates: 6 km Collector: Local snake catcher	SK_NK_01 SK_NK_02 SK_NK_03 SK_NK_04 SK_NK_05 SK_NK_06 SK_NK_07 SK_NK_08 SK_NK_09	MK721213 MK721214 MK721215 MK721216 MK721217 MK721218 MK721219 MK721220 MK721221	MK721329 MK721330 MK721331 MK721332 MK721333 MK721334 MK721335 MK721336 MK721337	- - - - - - - - -	SK_NK_10 SK_NK_11 SK_NK_12 SK_NK_13 SK_NK_14 SK_NK_15 SK_NK_16 SK_NK_17	MK721222 MK721223 MK721224 MK721225 MK721226 MK721227 MK721228 MK721229	MK721338 MK721339 MK721340 MK721341 MK721342 MK721343 MK721344 MK721345	- - - - - - - -
	Provinces: Nakhon Sawan (Bueng Boraphet) (NW) Location: Moo 8, Nakhon Sawan-Chaiyaphum Street, Thap Krit Tai Sub-district, Chum Saeng District, 60250 Coordinates: 15°44'55.9"N 100°14'55.8"E Radius from the coordinates: 8 km Collector: Local snake catcher	NW_NK_01 NW_NK_02 NW_NK_03 NW_NK_04 NW_NK_05 NW_NK_06 NW_NK_07 NW_NK_08 NW_NK_09	MK721230 MK721231 MK721232 MK721233 MK721234 MK721235 MK721236 MK721237 MK721238	MK721346 MK721347 MK721348 MK721349 MK721350 MK721351 MK721352 MK721353 MK721354	- - - - - - - - -	NW_NK_10 NW_NK_11 NW_NK_12 NW_NK_13 NW_NK_14 NW_NK_15 NW_NK_16 NW_NK_17 NW_NK_18	MK721239 MK721240 MK721241 MK721242 MK721243 MK721244 MK721245 MK721246 MK721247	MK721355 MK721356 MK721357 MK721358 MK721359 MK721360 MK721361 MK721362 MK721363	- - - - - - - - -
	Provinces: Prachuabkirkhan (PJ) Location: n.a. Collector: Field-work of the snake farm staff	PJ_NK_01	MK721295	MK721383	-				
	Provinces: Ranong (R) Location: Bang Rin Sub-district, Mueang District, 85000 Coordinates: 9°54'51.5"N 98°37'41.2"E Radius from the coordinates: 15 km Collector: Local snake catcher	R_NK_01 R_NK_02 R_NK_03 R_NK_04 R_NK_05	MK721276 MK721277 MK721278 MK721279 MK721280	MK721364 MK721365 MK721366 MK721367 MK721368	- - - - -	R_NK_06 R_NK_07 R_NK_08 R_NK_09	MK721281 MK721282 MK721283 MK721284	MK721369 MK721370 MK721371 MK721372	- - - -
	Provinces: Phattalung (PL) Location: Moo 8, Thale Noi Sub-district, Khuan Khanun District, 93150 Coordinates: 7°48'11.8"N 100°06'24.7"E Radius from the coordinates: 12 km Collector: Local snake catcher	PL_NK_01 PL_NK_02 PL_NK_03 PL_NK_04 PL_NK_05 PL_NK_06	MK721285 MK721286 MK721287 MK721288 MK721289 MK721290	MK721373 MK721374 MK721375 MK721376 MK721377 MK721378	MK721323 MK721324 - - - -	PL_NK_07 PL_NK_08 PL_NK_09	MK721291 MK721292 MK721293	MK721379 MK721380 MK721381	- - -
	Provinces: Trang (T) Location: Moo 5, Chao Mai beach, Mai Fat Sub-district, Sikao District, 92150 Coordinates: 7°26'15.8"N 99°20'45.2"E Collector: Road-kill	T_NK_01	MK721294	MK721382	-				
	Provinces: Pha Ngan Island (PNG) Location: Ko Pha-ngan, Ko Pha-ngan District, Surat Thani, 84280 Coordinates: 9°43'13.7"N 99°59'47.3"E Radius from the coordinates: Within Island (12 km) Collector: Mr Stefan Pullitzky	PNG_NK_01 PNG_NK_02 PNG_NK_03 PNG_NK_04 PNG_NK_05 PNG_NK_06	MK721296 MK721297 MK721298 MK721299 MK721300 MK721301	MK721384 MK721385 MK721386 MK721387 MK721388 MK721389	MK721321 MK721322 - - - -	PNG_NK_07 PNG_NK_08	MK721302 MK721303	MK721390 MK721391	- -
	Provinces: Nakhon Ratchasima (Sakaerat) (NR) Location: Udom Sap Sub-district, Wang Nam Khiao District, 30370 Coordinates: 14°30'36.4"N 101°55'51.2"E Radius from the coordinates: 10 km Collector: Dr Bartosz Nadol	NR_NK_01 NR_NK_02 NR_NK_03 NR_NK_04 NR_NK_05 NR_NK_06	MK721304 MK721305 MK721306 MK721307 MK721308 MK721309	MK721420 MK721421 MK721422 MK721423 MK721424 MK721425	MK721325 - - - - -	NR_NK_07 NR_NK_08 NR_NK_09 NR_NK_10 NR_NK_11	MK721310 MK721311 MK721312 MK721313 MK721314	MK721426 MK721427 MK721428 MK721429 MK721430	- - - - MK721326
	Nan (NN): <i>Naja siamensis</i> Phetchabun (PB): <i>Naja siamensis</i>	oNN_Ns_01 oPB_Ns_01	MK721315 MK721316	MK721431 MK721432	MK721327 MK721328				

Table S2. Details of *Naja* species used as outgroups in this study

Species	Vouchers	Genbank Accession number (Cytb and CR)	Publication
<i>Naja atra</i>	CIB093931	NC_011389.1 (mitochondrial DNA genome) (Location: Cytb = 14,941-16,057, and CR = 16,187-17,214)	Chen and Fu, 2008
<i>Naja naja</i>	n.a.	NC_010225.1 (mitochondrial DNA genome) (Location: Cytb = 14,939-16,055, and CR = 16,185-17,213)	Yan et al., 2008

Table S3. Details of primers used in this study

Primer	Primer name	Primer sequence	Tm°	%GC	Length (bp)
Cyt <i>b</i>	NkParCytb-F01	5'- TTT GCT CCA ATA GAG TCC TGC GGC CTG - 3'	76.9	55.5	~665
	NkParCytb-R01	3'- TGA TGG TTA TCC TTC TTT GAT GTT CTG G - 5'	69.2	39.2	(partial)
CR	NkParCR-F01	5'- TCC CCC AGA ACA TCA AAG AAG GAT AAC C - 3'	72.3	46.4	~645
	NkPar1CR-R01	3'- TAA CGG GCA TAC CTG TGT CAG GTG AAA GT - 5'	73.5	48.2	(partial)
	Nk2ParCR-F02	5'- CAA GGT TGA GCT CGA TTC TTG GTC TGG C - 3'	75.9	53.5	~489
	Nk2ParCR-R02	3'- CTT GTG CTG TCA GGC ATG GCC GTC TTA GC - 5'	79.3	58.6	(partial)
C-mos	NkParCmos-F01	5'- CAT GGA CTG GGA TCA GTT ATG - 3'	n.a.	47.6	~567
	NkParCmos-R01	5'- CCT TGG GTG TGA TTT TCT CAC CT - 3'	n.a.	47.8	(partial)

For CR, the same pairs of primers were always used i.e. NkPCR-F01 and NkP1CR-R01, and Nk2PCR-F02 and Nk2PCR-R02 for PCRs and sequencing.