# Molecular phylogeny of Caribbean dipsadid (Xenodontinae: Alsophiini) snakes, including identification of the first record from the Cay Sal Bank, The Bahamas 

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#### Abstract

We document the first specimen of a dipsadid snake from the Anguilla Cays, Cay Sal Bank, The Bahamas. We analyze 3,426 base pairs (bp) of sequence data derived from five mitochondrial loci and one nuclear locus using Maximum Likelihood (ML) and Bayesian Inference (BI) methods. Our molecular data agree with some aspects of morphology (e.g., scale counts, dentition, and color pattern) supporting identification of this specimen as the Cuban Racer, Cubophis cantherigerus cantherigerus (Bibron 1840), a species previously regarded as endemic to Cuba. This discovery provides another example of the strong Cuban affinities of the terrestrial vertebrate fauna of Bahamian islands.


Key words: Cuba, West Indies Racers, Cubophis, Dipsadidae, molecular phylogenetics, The Bahamas

## Introduction

Dipsadidae is one of the largest families of snakes, consisting of approximately 754 species primarily found in the Neotropical region (Uetz \& Hošek 2015). The subfamily Xenodontinae is exclusive to South America northward to Mexico, and the West Indies, and highly diverse in both morphology and natural history (Cadle \& Greene 1993, Vidal et al. 2000; Sheehy 2012). The Tribe Alsophiini comprises about 43 species restricted to the West Indies. Alsophiine snakes are typically slender, fast-moving, and active diurnal foragers (Hedges et al. 2009). While taxonomic classifications of xenodontines were historically based on hemipenial, dentition, external morphology, and color pattern (Cope 1893, Dunn 1928, Maglio 1970, Zaher et al. 2009), recent molecular analyses of Alsophiini are not necessarily in agreement regarding monophyly of the group (Hedges et al. 2009; Zaher et al. 2009; Burbrink et al. 2012; Grazziotin et al. 2012; Pyron et al. 2013).

In 2012, we collected the first known dipsadid snake on the Cay Sal Bank, The Bahamas. Only two snake species have been previously recorded from any island on the Cay Sal Bank: the Bahamian Slender Blindsnake, Typhlops biminiensis Richmond 1955, on Elbow Cay; and the Northern Bahamas Trope, Tropidophis curtus (Garman 1887), on both Elbow Cay and Double Headed Shot Cay (Buden \& Schwartz 1968; Buckner et al. 2012). In this paper, we examine the external morphology, dentition, and color pattern, and conduct molecular analyses of Caribbean Alsophiine snakes to determine species identity and phylogenetic placement of our Cay Sal Bank specimen.

## Material and methods

Site of study. On 28 May 2012, during nest surveys for Audubon's Shearwater, Puffinus lherminieri (Lesson 1839), on the Anguilla Cays, Cay Sal (pronounced "Key Sal") Bank, The Bahamas, a dipsadid snake was observed at $22: 00 \mathrm{~h}$ along an expansive plateau with sparse vegetation and weathered karst rock. This site $\left(23.56927^{\circ} \mathrm{N}\right.$ $79.58675^{\circ} \mathrm{W}$, datum WGS84, 1 m above sea level) lies approximately 72 km NE of Cuba, 162 km SW of Andros,
and 183 km SE of the Florida Keys (Fig. 1). The Cay Sal Bank is isolated from the Great Bahama Bank and the Little Bahama Bank by the Santaren Channel, and from Cuba by the Nicholas Channel, meaning that it is equally isolated from both adjacent regions and could reasonably contain either predominant dipsadid species in Cuba [i.e., Cubophis cantherigerus (Bibron 1840)] or The Bahamas [i.e., C. vudii (Cope 1862)]. The Cay Sal Bank (Fig. 2) has an atoll-like structure with six relatively large islands (29-150 ha) and hundreds of smaller exposed islets and rocks lying at the margin of a shallow ( $9-16 \mathrm{~m}$ ) lagoon (Goldberg 1983). The remote, uninhabited islands of the Cay Sal Bank are perhaps in a more natural condition than anywhere else in the Bahamian region.


FIGURE 1. Map of Cuba and The Bahamas, illustrating the location of the Cay Sal Bank and known localities of the predominant dipsadid species Cuban Racer, Cubophis cantherigerus (solid triangles) and Bahamian Racer, Cubophis vudii (solid circles), modified after Schwartz and Henderson 1991.

Field and laboratory techniques. The Anguilla Cays snake specimen weighed 585 g , was photographed in the field, and brought to the Rand Nature Centre on Grand Bahama, where it was held in captivity until export permits were secured. The individual and selected digital images were deposited as vouchers in the Florida Museum of Natural History, University of Florida Herpetology collection (UF-Herpetology 168557). Because our Cay Sal Bank specimen phenotypically resembled the Cuban Racer, Cubophis cantherigerus, we also obtained available tissues from three other known Cuban specimens [two C. cantherigerus adspersus (Gundlach \& Peters 1864)] and one C. cantherigerus cantherigerus) for comparisons in our phylogenetic analyses (Table 1). Note that the C. cantherigerus cantherigerus specimen (MCZ 186206) was originally labeled as Alsophis cantherigerus caymanus (Garman 1887), however this taxon is apparently endemic to the Cayman Islands (i.e., C. caymanus; Hedges et al. 2009). According to the locality data for this specimen (Matanzas Province, Cuba) along with our molecular data (see below), we re-identify this specimen as C. cantherigerus cantherigerus.

We determined sex through a ventral incision at the base of tail in order to check for presence or absence of the hemipenis. We measured snout-vent length (SVL) and tail length (TL) with a flexible ruler to the nearest 1 mm . We counted dentition of the dentary, maxillary, palatine, and pterygoid. We counted traditional meristic characters for colubroid snakes and take into account the dorsal and ventral color patterns. We follow Peters (1964) for
terminology of the cephalic shields. We compared all these data to those found in the literature (Maglio 1970, Schwartz \& Henderson 1991).


FIGURE 2. Map of the Cay Sal Bank.
DNA isolations were obtained using ZR Genomic DNA ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ Tissue Microprep Kit (Zymo Research, LLC). Using total cellular DNA as a template and polymerase chain reaction (PCR) methodology (Saiki et al. 1988), DNA was amplified and sequenced for mitochondrial (mtDNA) 12S, 16S, cytochrome $b$ (cyt $b$ ), nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide dehydrogenase subunit 2 (ND2), the ND4 region (ND4), and the single copy nuclear (scnDNA) recombination activating gene 2 (RAG2) following Hedges et al. (2009) (see Table 2 for primers). PCR was conducted in $25 \mu \mathrm{l}$ reactions: $9.5 \mu \mathrm{l} \mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}, 12.5 \mu \mathrm{l}$ GoTaq ${ }^{\circledR}$ Master Mix (Promega Corp, Madison, Wisconsin, USA), $1.0 \mu \mathrm{l}$ each primer $(10 \mu \mathrm{M})$, and $1.0 \mu \mathrm{l}$ DNA template. PCR parameters for mtDNA included initial denaturing at $94^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 3 min , followed by 35 cycles of amplification: denaturing at $94^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 1 min , annealing at $52^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 1 min , and extension at $72^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 1 min , followed by a final extension at $72^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 7 min . PCR parameters for scnDNA included initial denaturing at $94^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 5 min , followed by 35 cycles of amplification: denaturing at $94^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 30 sec , annealing at $50^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 40 sec , and extension at $68^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 3 min ; followed by a final extension at $68^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 5 min . Three $\mu \mathrm{l}$ of each PCR product were electrophoresed on a $1 \%$ agarose gel, visualized with GelRed ${ }^{\mathrm{TM}}$ staining (Biotium Inc., Hayward, California, USA), and compared with a DNA standard. Sequence files from the automated sequencer (Genomics Division, Interdisciplinary Center for Biotechnology Research, University of Florida) were assembled using the Muscle algorithm and manually edited as necessary with Geneious 6.1 (created by Biomatters. Available from http://www.geneious.com). GenBank Accession numbers for our sequenced specimens are listed in Table 1.
TABLE 1. Species, voucher, locality, and GenBank accession numbers for specimens used in this study for molecular analyses, modified after Appendix in Hedges et al. (2009) and Burbrink et al. (2012).

| Species | Voucher | Locality | GenBank 12S | GenBank 16S | GenBank Cyt $b$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { GenBank } \\ & \text { ND2 } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { GenBank } \\ & \text { ND4 } \end{aligned}$ | GenBank RAG2 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Alsophis antillensis | SBH 266740 | Guadeloupe, Basse Terre | FJ416691 | FJ416702 | FJ416726 | FJ416764 | FJ416800 | FJ416837 |
| Alsophis manselli | SBH 192791 | Montserrat, St. Peter | AF158459 | AF158528 | FJ416727 | FJ416765 | FJ416801 | FJ416838 |
| Alsophis rijgersmaei | SBH 266429 | Anguilla | FJ416697 | FJ416708 | FJ416729 | FJ416767 | FJ416803 | FJ416840 |
| Alsophis rufiventris | AM | Saba | FJ416698 | FJ416709 | FJ416730 | FJ416768 | FJ416804 | FJ416841 |
| Alsophis sajdaki | SBH 194104 | Antigua, Great Bird Island | AF158455 | AF158524 | FJ416731 | FJ416769 | FJ416805 | FJ416842 |
| Alsophis sibonius | SBH 268000 | Dominica, Cabrits | FJ416692 | FJ416703 | FJ416728 | FJ416766 | FJ416802 | FJ416839 |
| Arrhyton dolichura | USNM 306534 | Cuba, Ciudad de la Habana Prov | AF158438 | AF158507 | FJ416721 | FJ416759 | FJ416795 | FJ416832 |
| Arrhyton procerum | SBH 191526 | Cuba, Matanzas Prov | AF158452 | AF158521 | FJ416723 | FJ416761 | FJ416797 | FJ416834 |
| Arrhyton redimitum | USNM 335891 | Cuba, Guantanamo Bay | AF158439 | AF158508 | FJ416720 | FJ416758 | FJ416794 | FJ416831 |
| Arrhyton supernum | SBH 190230 | Cuba,Guantánamo Prov. | AF158436 | AF158505 | FJ416718 | FJ416756 | FJ416792 | FJ416829 |
| Arrhyton taeniatum | SBH 191163 | Cuba, Guantánamo Prov. | AF158453 | AF158522 | FJ416717 | FJ416755 | FJ416791 | FJ416828 |
| Arrhyton tanyplectum | USNM 306538 | Cuba, Pinar de Río Prov | AF158446 | AF158516 | FJ416722 | FJ416760 | FJ416796 | FJ416833 |
| Arrhyton vittatum | SBH 191528 | Cuba, Pinar del Río Prov | AF158437 | AF158506 | FJ416719 | FJ416757 | FJ416793 | FJ416830 |
| Borikenophis portoricensis portoricensis | SBH 160062 | United States, Puerto Rico | FJ416696 | FJ416707 | FJ416732 | FJ416770 | FJ416806 | FJ416843 |
| Borikenophis portoricensis prymnus | USNM 327162 | Puerto Rico, Playa de Tamarindo | AF158448 | AF158517 | FJ416733 | FJ416771 | FJ416807 | FJ416844 |
| Borikenophis variegatus | SBH266424 | Puerto Rico, Mona Island | FJ416700 | FJ416711 | FJ416734 | FJ416772 | FJ416808 | FJ416845 |
| Caraiba andreae | USNM 335887 | Cuba, Pinar de Río Prov | AF158442 | AF158511 | FJ416743 | FJ416781 | FJ416817 | FJ416854 |
| Cubophis cantherigerus | NV | Cuba | AF158405 | AF158475 | AF544669 | FJ416782 | FJ416818 | EF144109 |
| Cubophis cantherigerus adspersus | MCZ 189861 | Cuba, Guantanamo Bay | KM087829 | KM087826 | KM087813 | KM087816 | KM087819 | KM087821 |
| Cubophis cantherigerus adspersus | MCZ 189862 | Cuba, Guantanamo Bay | KM087828 | KM087825 | KM087812 | KM087815 | KM087818 | KM087822 |
| Cubophis cantherigerus cantherigerus | UF 168557 | Bahamas, Cay Sal Bank | KF612919 | KF612920 | KF612921 | KF612917 | KF612918 | KM087823 |
| Cubophis cantherigerus cantherigerus | MCZ 186206 | Cuba, Mantanzas Province | KM087830 | KM087827 | KM087814 | KM087817 | KM087820 | KM087824 |
| Cubophis caymanus | SBH 267081 | Cayman Islands, Grand Cayman | FJ416693 | FJ416704 | FJ416745 | FJ416784 | FJ416820 | FJ416856 |
| Cubophis fuscicauda | SBH 266565 | Cayman Islands, Cayman Brac | FJ416695 | FJ416706 | FJ416747 | FJ416786 | FJ416822 | -- |
| Cubophis ruttyi | SBH 266495 | Cayman Islands, Little Cayman | FJ416699 | FJ416710 | FJ416746 | FJ416785 | FJ416821 | -- |
| Cubophis vudii | SBH 192985 | Bahamas, New Providence | AF158443 | AF158512 | FJ416744 | FJ416783 | FJ416819 | FJ416855 |
| Haitiophis anomalus | SBH 268413 | Dominican Republic; Independencia | FJ666091 | FJ666092 |  |  |  |  |
| Hypsirhynchus callilaemus | USNM 328394 | Jamaica, St. Mary Prov. | AF158440 | AF158509 | FJ416737 | FJ416775 | FJ416811 | FJ416848 |
| Hypsirhynchus ferox | USNM 329438 | Dominican Republic, Barahona Prov | AF158447 | AF158515 | FJ416742 | FJ416780 | FJ416816 | FJ416853 |
| Hypsirhynchus funereus | USNM 328400 | Jamaica, St. Mary Prov | AF158451 | AF158520 | FJ416739 | FJ416777 | FJ416813 | FJ416850 |
| Hypsirhynchus parvifrons | USNM 329378 | Dominican Republic, Barahona Prov | AF158441 | AF158510 | FJ416740 | FJ416778 | FJ416814 | FJ416851 |
| Hypsirhynchus polylepis | USNM 328392 | Jamaica, Portland Prov | AF158450 | AF158519 | FJ416738 | FJ416776 | FJ416812 | FJ416849 |
| Hypsirhynchus scalaris | SBH 191992 | Haiti, Dept. de la Grand' Anse | AF158449 | AF158518 | FJ416741 | FJ416779 | FJ416815 | FJ416852 |
| Ialtris dorsalis | USNM 329439 | Haiti, Grand' Anse | AF158456 | AF158525 | FJ416735 | FJ416773 | FJ416809 | FJ416846 |
| Ialtris haetianus | USNM 329419 | Haiti, Grand'Anse | AF158458 | AF158527 | FJ416736 | FJ416774 | FJ416810 | FJ416847 |
| Magliophis exiguus | SBH 266833 | U.S. Virgin Islands, St. Thomas | FJ416694 | FJ416705 | FJ416724 | FJ416762 | FJ416798 | FJ416835 |
| Magliophis stahli | USNM 327164 | United States, Puerto Rico | AF158457 | AF158526 | FJ416725 | FJ416763 | FJ416799 | FJ416836 |
| Uromacer catesbyi | SBH 192456 | Dominican Republic, La Altagracia | AF158454 | AF158523 | FJ416714 | FJ416752 | FJ416788 | FJ416825 |
| Uromacer frenatus | USNM 329444 | Haiti, Dept. de la Grand' Anse | AF158444 | AF158513 | FJ416715 | FJ416753 | FJ416789 | FJ416826 |
| Uromacer oxyrhynchus | SBH 192457 | Dominican Republic, La Altagracia | FJ416701 | FJ416712 | FJ416716 | FJ416754 | FJ416790 | FJ416827 |
| Helicops angulatus | NV | French Guiana, Kourou | AF158408 | AF158478 | AF471037 | FJ416751 |  | FJ416824 |
| Helicops infrataeniatus |  |  |  |  |  |  | U49310 |  |
| Heterodon nasicus | NV |  | AF158428 | AF158494 |  |  |  |  |
| Heterodon platirhinos | SBH 268311 | United States | -- | -- | -- | FJ416750 | -- | FJ416823 |
| Heterodon simus |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Leptodeira annulata | NV | French Guiana, Kaw | AF158404 | AF158473 | FJ416713 | FJ416749 | FJ416787 | EF144108 |
| Xenocrophis flavipunctuatus Xenocrophis trianguligerus | NV | Thailand, Phetchaburi Province | AF544780 | AF544809 |  | FJ416748 | U49321 | EF144112 |

TABLE 2. Primers ( $5^{\prime}-3$ ' direction) used to sequence 12 S ribosomal (12S), 16 S ribosomal ( 16 S ), cytochrome $b$ (cyt $b$ ), nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide dehydrogenase subunit 2 (ND2), nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide dehydrogenase subunit 4 (ND4) region, and recombination activating gene 2 (RAG2) regions in Cubophis specimens.

| Gene <br> Region | DNA Marker | Primer Name | Primer Sequence | Source |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 12S | rRNA | L12 | CGC-CAA-AYA-ACT-ACG-AG | Vidal et al. (2000) |
| 12S | rRNA | H1557 | GTA-CAC-TTA-CCT-TGT-TAC-GAC-TT | Knight \& Mindell (1994) |
| 16S | rRNA | L16 | ACG-GCC-GCG-GTA-YCC-TAA-CCG-TG | Vidal et al. (2000) |
| 16S | rRNA | H3056 | CTC-CGG-TCT-GAA-CTC-AGA-TCA-CGT-AGG | Hedges (1994) |
| Cyt $b$ | mtDNA | L14910 | GAC-CTG-TGA-TMT-GAA-AAC-CAY-CGT-TGT | Burbrink et al. (2000) |
| Cyt $b$ | mtDNA | H16064 | CTT-TGG-TTT-ACA-AGA-ACA-ATG-CTT-TA | Burbrink et al. (2000) |
| ND2 | mtDNA | L4437b | CAG-CTA-AAA-AAG-CTA-TCG-GGC-CCA-TAC-C | Kumazawa et al. (1996) |
| ND2 | mtDNA | tRNA-trpR | GGC-TTT-GAA-GGC-TMC-TAG-TTT | de Queiroz et al. (2002) |
| ND4 | mtDNA | ND4 | TGA-CTA-CCA-AAA-GCT-CAT-GTA-GAA-GC | Forstner et al. (1995) |
| ND4 | mtDNA | Leu | TAC-TTT-TAC-TTG-GAT-TTG-CAC-CA | Forstner et al. (1995) |
| RAG2 | nDNA | L562 | CCT-RAD-GCC-AGA-TAT-GGY-CAT-AC | Vidal \& Hedges 2005 |
| RAG2 | nDNA | H1306, | GHG-AAY-TCC-TCT-GAR-TCT-TC | Vidal \& Hedges 2005 |
| RAG2 | nDNA | L63 | GGT-TCA-ATC-TTC-AAG-CCA-AGG | This Study |
| RAG2 | nDNA | H705 | CAT-GAC-GAA-CTG-CAA-ACT-CG | This Study |

Phylogenetic analyses. DNA sequence data for each of the six genes were downloaded from GenBank for 36 West Indian dipsadid snakes and eight outgroups [Helicops angulatus (Linnaeus 1758), Hel. infrataeniatus Jan 1865, Heterodon nasicus Baird \& Girard 1852, Het. platirhinos Latreille 1801, Het. simus (Linnaeus 1766), Leptodeira annulata (Linnaeus 1758), Xenochrophis flavipunctatus (Hallowell 1860), and X. trianguligerus (Boie 1827)], incorporating the original data matrix and revised taxonomy and nomenclature of Hedges et al. (2009). Roure et al. (2012) demonstrated that missing data could be informative in a probabilistic framework; however it could also exacerbate systemic errors in the model due to the decreased number of species. Because a considerable amount of sequence data (i.e., entire genes) were missing in this original data set from one ingroup taxon [Haitiophis anomalus (Peters 1863); missing cyt $b$, ND2, ND4, and RAG2] and seven of the eight outgroup taxa (Table 1), we created and analyzed two different data matrices. The first data set included all original samples ( $n=$ 48 , including our four new terminals), regardless if they were missing data or not. The second data set included only samples that contained sequence data for all five mtDNA genes [Cubophis fuscicauda (Garman 1888) and C. ruttyi (Grant 1941) were missing only RAG2] and used Leptodeira annulata as the sole outgroup ( $n=41$ ).

A total of 3,426 base pairs (bp) of sequence data were analyzed, including 299 bp for $12 \mathrm{~S}, 385 \mathrm{bp}$ for $16 \mathrm{~S}, 608$ bp for cyt $b, 745 \mathrm{bp}$ for ND2, 675 bp for ND4, and 714 bp for RAG2. Relationships among haplotypes were estimated using both Maximum Likelihood (ML) and Bayesian Inference (BI) methods. ML was conducted with the General Time Reversible model with gamma distributed rate heterogeneity $(\mathrm{GTR}+\Gamma)$ and 1000 nonparametric bootstrap replicates (Felsenstein 1985) to assess node support using RAxML-HPC BlackBox (Stamatakis 2006; Stamatakis et al. 2008) from the CIPRES Science Gateway (Miller et al. 2010).

BI was conducted using BEAST 1.8 (Drummond \& Rambaut 2007) from the UF-HPC Galaxy instance (http:// hpc.ufl.edu; Giardine et al. 2005; Blankenberg et al. 2010; Goecks et al. 2010). To infer trees and assess nodal support using models incorporating evolutionary information specific to each gene, a mixed-model analysis was performed. The Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) in jModelTest 2.1.4 (Guindon \& Gascuel 2003; Darriba et al. 2012) determined the best-fit nucleotide substitution models to be Hasegawa, Kishino and Yano with gamma distributed rate heterogeneity $(\mathrm{HKY}+\Gamma)$ for 12 S , GTR with gamma distributed rate heterogeneity and proportion of invariant sites $(\mathrm{GTR}+\mathrm{I}+\Gamma)$ for 16S and ND2, HKY $+\mathrm{I}+\Gamma$ for cyt $b$ and ND4, and HKY $+\Gamma$ for RAG2. A relaxed phylogenetics method was used without having to rely on a potential arbitrary molecular clock (Zuckerkandl \& Pauling 1965) that might incorporate uncertainty in the tree estimation process (Drummond et al. 2006). An uncorrelated lognormal relaxed clock, yule speciation process (a special case of the birth-death process [Yule 1925, Gernhard 2008, also see Burbrink et al. 2012]), estimated base frequencies, randomly generated starting tree, and
exponential relaxed clock mean (ucld.mean) priors were used. Two independent runs were performed consisting of three heated and one cold Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) estimated for 30 million generations, with every $1000^{\text {th }}$ sample being retained. Both MCMC runs were analyzed independently (to confirm chains were converging and not sampling local optima) using Tracer 1.6 for ESS values $>200$, as well as for a split standard deviation less than 0.005 for $-\operatorname{lnL}$ tree values among chains that indicate parameter stationarity was achieved. Trees sampled prior to stationarity were discarded as burn-in, which occurred prior to 5 million generations. Trees from both independent MCMC runs were combined and burn-in was removed using LogCombiner 1.8. The best statistically supported tree (i.e., Maximum clade credibility tree) with mean heights was obtained using TreeAnnotator 1.8, and a phylogenetic hypothesis with posterior probabilities was created using FigTree 1.4.2.

The most credible inferences of phylogenetic relationships were confined to nodes where nonparametric bootstrap values $\geq 70 \%$ and posterior probability (Pp) was $\geq 95 \%$ (Hillis \& Bull 1993, Felsenstein 2004).

## Results

The ML and BI methods analyzing all samples $(n=48)$ produced similar tree topologies (except for the addition of our four new terminal samples, and the position of the outgroup taxon Xenochrophis flavipunctatus was sister to the ingroup genus Uromacer in the ML analysis) to that found in the ML and BI analyses by Hedges et al. (2009). The trimmed data set $(n=41)$ produced similar phylogenies with either the ML or BI method, although an unsupported clade with Magliophis was incorporated as the sister group to the entire remaining ingroup in the ML analysis.

Because considerable data were missing from the data set $(n=48)$ and because we obtained the same phylogenetic tree topology as Hedges et al. (2009), we illustrate only the trimmed ( $n=41$ ) ML and BI phylogenies (Figs. 3-4). All of our analyses suggest that our Cay Sal Bank specimen is most closely related to the Cuban Racer, Cubophis c. cantherigerus. Morphological data for this Cay Sal Bank specimen are as follows: an adult male; SVL 1111 mm ; TL $177 \mathrm{~mm}+n$ (terminal tail amputated); ventrals 178 , subcaudals $37+n$, supralabials $8 / 8$, infralabials $10 / 10$, preoculars $1 / 1$, postoculars $2 / 2$, temporals $1+2 / 1+2$, and loreals $1 / 1$. All of these data are consistent with those for C. c. cantherigerus according to last taxonomic review provided by Schwartz \& Henderson (1991). In addition, the dentition data for the Cay Sal Bank specimen are as follows: maxillary $12+2$, palatine 10 , pterygoid 26, and dentary 19. According to Maglio (1970) these data are consistent with C. cantherigerus, but diagnosable from nearby C. vudii (with 24 pterygoid and 21 dentary teeth) (Fig. 1). Furthermore, the color pattern is between patterns 3 and 4 of Schwartz and Henderson (1991:569) in these characters: a black crown cap present on parietals but reduced on supraoculars and frontal; dorsum without banding; venter bicolored; and each scale light colored anteriorly with dark free edges (also see Lando \& Williams 1969). Lastly, both of our molecular analyses place two of our new terminal samples (C. c. adspersus) as more closely related to C. caymanus.

## Discussion

Our molecular analyses are nearly identical to the phylogenetic hypothesis presented by Hedges et al. (2009), with all taxa yielding monophyletic groups. We note that our trimmed data set $(n=41)$ in the ML analysis place Magliophis as sister to the entire ingroup (Fig. 3), whereas our BI analysis place Magliophis sister to Alsophis (also see Hedges et al. 2009; Lemmon et al. 2009; Grazziotin et al. 2012; Pyron et al. 2013 regarding the effects of using different outgroups and missing data). Because these two different types of commonly used analyses yield such differences in tree topology of certain taxa, the phylogenetic position of Magliophis warrants more study.

Our molecular and morphological data support our Cay Sal Bank specimen as Cubophis cantherigerus cantherigerus. This is the first record of this species from The Bahamas (Buckner et al. 2012), and this species was previously believed to be endemic to Cuba (Powell \& Henderson 2012). We consider this species to be native on the Cay Sal Bank because our specimen is most closely related to another C. c. cantherigerus with the known locality of Matanzas Province, Cuba, which is the closest land to the Cay Sal Bank. Additionally, both of our analyses place the two new terminal samples of C. c. adspersus from Guantanamo Bay in eastern Cuba as more closely related to $C$. caymanus from the Cayman Islands than they are to C. c. cantherigerus from Matanzas

Province in western Cuba. It is interesting to note that all three of these taxa were recently treated as subspecies of C. cantherigerus, thus our data suggest that they might be different species. Glor et al. (2005) found this same biogeographic pattern; eastern Cuban Anolis porcatus (Gray 1840) is more closely related to A. maynardi (Garman 1888) from Little Cayman Island than it is to western Cuban $A$. porcatus populations.


FIGURE 3. Maximum Likelihood phylogeny for West Indian dipsadid (Xenodontinae: Alsophiini) snakes, including only known specimen (UF-Herpetology 168557) from the Cay Sal Bank, The Bahamas (highlighted in yellow). Note that values ( $\geq$ $70 \%$ ) above major nodes represent bootstrap support. Photograph (in situ) of Cay Sal Bank specimen by Lisa Ferguson.


FIGURE 4. Bayesian Inference phylogeny for West Indian dipsadid (Xenodontinae: Alsophiini) snakes, including only known specimen (UF-Herpetology 168557) from the Cay Sal Bank, The Bahamas (highlighted in yellow). Note that the values ( $\geq$ $95 \%$ ) above major nodes represent posterior probabilities. Photograph (in situ) of Cay Sal Bank specimen by Lisa Ferguson.

Islands of the Cay Sal Bank are rarely visited by scientists. We are aware of only biological surveys for marine plants and invertebrates (Agassiz 1894; Wilson 1909; Goldberg 1983), terrestrial vegetation (Wilson 1909; Gillis 1976), birds (Buden 1987), nesting marine turtles (Addison \& Morford 1996), and other reptiles (Barbour \& Shreve 1935). Documentation of terrestrial reptiles has been limited to visits by Bartsch for Anolis fairchildi (Barbour \& Shreve 1935) on Cay Sal and Cotton Cay in 1930 (Barbour \& Shreve 1935) and Buden in 1968 (Buden \& Schwartz 1968). The Cay Sal Bank, because of its long history of isolation, human absence, and lack of freshwater, differs from most other Bahamian islands in not sustaining established populations of non-native plants or vertebrates (Lee 2005).

Many other living and extinct species of terrestrial vertebrates are shared uniquely between The Bahamas and Cuba (or Cuba + Cayman Islands). These shared species include amphibians such as the Cuban Treefrog, Osteopilus septentrionalis (Duméril \& Bibron 1841), reptiles such as the Cuban Brown Anole, Anolis sagrei (Duméril \& Bibron 1835), and Cuban Crocodile, Crocodylus rhombifer (Cuvier 1807), and birds such as the Cuban Emerald, Chlorostilbon ricordii (Gervaise 1835), West Indian Woodpecker, Melanerpes superciliaris (Temminck 1827), Cuban Crow, Corvus nasicus (Temminck 1827), Olive-capped Warbler, Setophaga (Dendroica) pityophila (Gundlach 1855), and the extinct Creighton's Caracara, Caracara creightoni (Brodkorb 1959) (Pregill 1982; Franz et al. 1995; Raffaele et al. 1998; Suárez \& Olson 2001; Steadman et al. 2007; Powell \& Henderson 2012; Morgan \& Albury 2013). As we further explore the living and fossil fauna of The Bahamas, we expect to find more examples that conform to this biogeographic pattern.

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