# A new species of Crinia (Anura: Myobatrachidae) from the high rainfall zone of the northwest Kimberley, Western Australia 

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#### Abstract

Crinia is a large genus of small-bodied myobatrachid frogs that occur throughout most of Australia. They are less diverse in arid regions and northern Australia, and in the Kimberley are currently only represented by C. bilingua. Recent exploration of the northwest Kimberley has revealed another species of Crinia, here named Crinia fimbriata sp. nov. Molecular genetic analyses of mitochondrial nucleotide sequence data indicate the new species is a highly divergent lineage within Crinia. Compared to C. bilingua, the new species is smaller but with longer legs, has a dorsal ground colour of bluish greybrown, yellow-brown or red, with distinctive dark brown variegations and the entire dorsal surface is stippled with fine, pale bluish-white tubercles. Males of the new species have wide flanges on the fingers which are not typical of other Crinia species. The tadpole is also unlike any other known species of Crinia in that it has large jaw sheaths, which may be an adaptation for scraping algae from the rock pools in which it has been found. The male advertisement call has not been recorded. Within the Kimberley region, many species of frogs, reptiles and mammals only occur in the northwest along a narrow high rainfall zone from the Mitchell Plateau to the Prince Regent River Nature Reserve, making this region of especially high conservation value.


Keywords - frog, tropics, conservation, tadpole, mitochondrial DNA, ND2.

## INTRODUCTION

Frogs of the family Myobatrachidae Schlegel, 1850 are an ancient lineage of smaller-bodied Gondwanan anurans endemic to Australia and southern New Guinea (the larger-bodied Limnodynastidae Lynch, 1969 are the sister family). The myobatrachids show large phenotypic diversity across the family, especially for burrowing and reproductive modes (Roberts and Watson 1993; Tyler 1994; Tyler and Doughty 2009). However, three speciose genera - Crinia Tschudi, 1838, Pseudophryne Fitzinger, 1843 and Uperoleia Gray, 1841 - show strong conservatism in body form and ecology.

After Uperoleia, Crinia is the second-largest myobatrachid genus, with 15 species currently recognised (including C. [Bryobatrachus] nimbus Rounsevell et al., 1994; see Read et al. 2001). Regions with the highest diversity are in southeastern

Australia with seven species and southwestern Australia with five species. Most Crinia are small ( $\sim 2-4 \mathrm{~cm}$ ) and conservative in shape and breeding biology. One exception is C. georgiana from the southwest with its large body size, red groin and thighs, red or gold eyelids, dimorphism in arm size, polyandry, large egg size, diminutive tadpole and small size at metamorphosis. Because C. georgiana is the type species, the genus Ranidella Girard, 1853 had often been applied to all other Crinia species until recently. The other exceptions to Crinia conservatism are C. riparia Littlejohn and Martin, 1965 from the Flinders Ranges in South Australia and C. nimbus from Tasmania. Crinia riparia is a stream-dwelling species that lays its eggs underneath rocks in flowing streams and the tadpole has a stream-adapted body shape with a broader and larger oral disc for improved adherence
to rocks; C. nimbus has nidicolous larvae (Altig and Johnston 1989; Mitchell and Swain 1996).

In far northern Australia, Crinia is represented by C. bilingua Martin, Tyler and Davies, 1980 which occurs from the Kimberley region in Western Australia to northwestern Northern Territory. It is replaced to the east by C. remota Tyler and Parker, 1974 (type locality - Morehead in south-eastern Papua New Guinea), which reputedly occurs in Arnhemland and Groote Eylandt in the Northern Territory, and also in northern Queensland (Tyler and Davies 1986; Barker et al. 1995). Crinia bilingua and C. remota are common woodland and savannah species that occur in grassy habitats associated with creeks and ponds, not unlike those of southern species.

Recent collecting expeditions in January 2007 to the Mitchell Plateau and Prince Regent River Nature Reserve in the Kimberley region (Figure 1) have revealed a distinctive new species of Crinia. The new taxon is sympatric with C. bilingua (see Results), but has only been found in rocky sandstone escarpment platforms in highly dissected mountainous habitat. Here we present molecular and adult and larval morphological analyses on Kimberley Crinia and describe the northwest taxon as a new species.

Abbreviations: ABTC - Australian Biological Tissue Collection, Adelaide; SA - South Australia; ANWC - Australian National Wildlife Collection; SAMA - SA Museum, Adelaide; QM - Queensland Museum; WA - Western Australia; WAM - WA Museum.

## METHODS

## Adult morphology

Morphometric measurements of the 4 adult male specimens of the new taxon were compared with those of 20 adult C. bilingua from WAM (Appendix 1). All specimens were formalin-fixed, then preserved in $70 \%$ ethanol (unless noted). The C. bilingua measured were those collected on the same field trips that specimens of the new taxon were collected, as well as specimens from the central and eastern Kimberley to provide a wider geographical coverage. Table 1 provides definitions of the characters measured. We also calculated the following ratios: HL/SUL, HW/HL and TL/SUL. 'Drink patch' is defined as the skin of the posterior ventral surface and proximal surface of thighs beneath the cloaca. Significance tests of hypotheses were not possible to carry out owing to the small sample size of the type series. Accordingly, we


Figure 1. Distribution of Crinia species in the Kimberley region, Western Australia, showing annual rainfall.
present the data descriptively and discuss trends qualitatively.

## Tadpole morphology and development

Five tadpoles were collected from a small rock pool above Little Mertens Falls, Mitchell Plateau, and one tadpole collected from a small pool next to a creek in the Prince Regent River Nature Reserve. Tadpoles from Mitchell Plateau were at Gosner (1960) stages 36 and 37 when collected and were reared in a 30 cm diameter plastic basin containing stream water to a depth of 12 cm , sand, silt and rocks. One metamorph was raised to adulthood to confirm identity and all other tadpoles were preserved at stages 38-41. Water temperatures ranged from $30-36^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ during development. The single specimen from the Prince Regent River region was at stage 41 and preserved on capture. Tadpole descriptions and abbreviations for tadpole morphometric characters are provided in Table 1 and follow Anstis (2002) and Anstis and Tyler (2005). Morphometric measurements were made using vernier callipers and an ocular micrometer, and two tadpoles of Crinia sp. nov. and a typical C. bilingua tadpole were measured for comparison.

Tadpoles were anaesthetised in $1 \%$ chlorbutol solution and preserved in $4 \%$ buffered formalin. Tadpoles were drawn with the aid of a drawing tube attached to the stereoscopic microscope.

## Molecular genetic analyses

## Sampling

Species within the genus Crinia show remarkably high levels of morphological diversity in both skin colour pattern and texture, even within a single population (Tyler and Doughty 2009). Therefore, it was necessary to confirm whether the morphologically unique Crinia specimens represented a unique lineage of Crinia or are members of a morphologically variable population of a currently recognised spieces. Assessment of the single female raised from a tadpole was also necessary as this specimen lacked a diagnostic character of the new taxon (i.e. flanged fingers, see below). We performed molecular genetic analyses of mitochondrial nucleotide sequences sampled from all adults from the Mitchell Plateau, but not the male from the Prince Regent River as the sample was too degraded. Additionally, we

Table 1 Characters measured with abbreviations and explanations.
Character Abbrev. Explanation of Measurement

| A. Adults |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Snout-urostyle length | SUL | From tip of snout to posterior tip of urostyle |
| Head length | HL | From tip of snout to posterior edge of tympanum |
| Head width | HW | Width of head at centre of tympani |
| Eye-naris distance | EN | From anterior corner of eye to posterior edge of naris |
| Interorbital span | IO | Distance between anterior corners of eyes |
| Internarial span | IN | Distance between inner edges of nares |
| Tibia length | TL | Measured with leg in natural resting position, from knee to tarsus |
| Foot length | FootL | From tip of $4^{\text {th }}$ toe to proximal end of inner metatarsal tubercle |

## B. Tadpoles

| Total length | TL | From tip of snout to tail tip |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Body length | BL | From tip of snout to end of body |
| Body depth | BD | Maximum height of body |
| Body width | BW | Widest point of body in dorsal view |
| Body width at eyes | EBW | Body width at level of eyes in dorsal view |
| Tail muscle depth | BTM | Depth of tail muscle at base |
| Tail muscle width | BTMW | Width across tail muscle at base in dorsal view |
| Tail depth | TD | Measured at midpoint of tail |
| Dorsal fin depth | DF | Measured at tail depth |
| Tail muscle depth | TM | Measured at tail depth |
| Ventral fin depth | VF | Measured at tail depth |
| Inter-orbital span | IO | Measured in dorsal view |
| Inter-narial span | IN | Measured in dorsal view |
| Eye to naris | EN | Measured in dorsal view |
| Narial diameter | N | Measured in dorsal view |
| Snout to spiracle | SS |  |
| Snout to naris | SN |  |
| Snout to eye | SE |  |
| Eye diameter | ED |  |
| Oral disc width | ODW | Measured at maximum in ventral view |

sampled individuals from the three other northern species of Crinia, including individuals near the type localities.

A total of 18 Crinia were sequenced in this study: four Crinia sp. nov. - the holotype and three paratypes from the type locality, seven C. bilingua from near the type locality in WA and across the species' range; four C. remota from near the type locality in New Guinea and also Queensland; two C. deserticola from near the type locality in Queensland and also SA; and one C. riparia from the type locality in SA. Because our goal was to determine conspecificity of both the adult and larval specimens from the type series and ascertain if the type series belongs to a unique lineage within the genus Crinia, we selected four outgroups for the analyses. Outgroups were chosen based on the phylogeny of Read et al. (2001), which was derived from analysis of combined 12sRNA and ND2 datasets. Details of specimens from which sequence data was obtained, other outgroup taxa and Crinia species from Read et al. (2001) are presented in Table 2.

## DNA extraction, amplification, and sequencing

DNA was extracted using a Puregene ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ DNA Isolation Tissue Kit, D-7000A (Gentra Systems) following the manufacturer's instructions. A 655 base pair (bp) mitochondrial DNA fragment comprising 145bp of partial sequence from $\mathrm{tRNA}^{\text {ILE }}$ ( 6 bp ), tRNA ${ }^{\text {GLN }}\left(70 \mathrm{bp}\right.$ ), tRNA ${ }^{\text {MET }}$ ( 69 bp ) and 510 bp of the protein coding gene ND2 was amplified using the polymerase chain reaction (Saiki et al. 1986, 1988). PCR conditions were: $5 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ dilution of template DNA (50-100 ng); $0.2 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ of AmpliTaq Gold DNA polymerase (Perkin Elmer), $4 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ of $25 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{MgCl}_{2}$, $5 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ of GeneAmp $10 \times$ PCR Gold Buffer (Perkin Elmer), $4 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ of 10 mM dNTPs, $2 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ of $0.5 \mu \mathrm{M}$ of each primer $=4 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ in a total volume of $50 \mu \mathrm{~L}$. Light and heavy strand primer sequences were: L4221 tRNA ${ }^{\text {ILE }} 5^{\prime}$-AAGGACCTCCTTGATAGGGA-3 and H4980 ND2 5'-ATTTTTCGTAGTTGGGTTTGRTT-3' respectively (Macey et al. 1997).

PCR cycling conditions were: one cycle of $94^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for $9 \mathrm{~min}, 36$ cycles of $94^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for $45 \mathrm{~s}, 55^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 45 s , and $72^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 1 min , and one cycle of $72^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 6 min . PCR products were assessed for expected PCR product size on $1.5 \%$ agarose gel electrophoresis and visualised with ethidium bromide staining and a UV transilluminator before sequencing. PCR products were sent to the commercial sequencing facility Macrogen Inc. (www.macrogen.com) for purification and DNA sequencing. BigDyeTM cycling conditions were employed to sequence the light strand with the same primer used for PCR amplification. Purification of reacted products was performed using ethanol precipitation and sequencing reactions were visualised using automatic sequencer ABI3730XL. Raw sequences
were edited using SeqEd (Version 1.0.3, ABI) and aligned by eye using Se-Al (Rambaut 1996) against a subset of homologous myobatrachid sequences from Read et al. (2001) that were donated by J. S. Keogh. Sequences from ABTC 99434, WAM R114841 and the sequence from a $M$. gouldii are missing the $5^{\prime} 145 \mathrm{bp}, 114 \mathrm{bp}$ and 114 bp of this fragment, respectively. To check for nuclear paralogues all ND2 protein encoding sequences were translated in Se-Al using the standard vertebrate mitochondrial genetic code and examined for unexpected stop or nonsense codons.

## Phylogenetic analyses

The aligned sequence data were used to explore three methods of phylogenetic analyses: Markov-Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)-Bayesian phylogenetic analyses implemented in MrBayes v. 3.1.2 (Huelsenbeck and Ronquist 2001; Ronquist and Huelsenbeck 2003), maximum parsimony (MP) using PAUP ver. 4.0b5 (Swofford 2000) and maximum likelihood (ML) criterion using Garli (Zwickl 2006).
Two programs were used to determine an appropriate model of nucleotide substitution for Bayesian and ML analyses. For the Bayesian analysis MrModeltest version 2.2 (Nylander 2004) was used and for the ML analysis the Modeltest program version 3.7 (Posada and Crandall 1998, 2001). For Bayesian analysis four data partitions were applied; the tRNA genes and the three codon positions in ND2. Under the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) a different model of nucleotide substitution was found to be the most suitable for each data partition: $\mathrm{HKY}+\mathrm{I}+\mathrm{G}$ for the tRNA genes, GTR $+\mathrm{I}+\mathrm{G}$ for the $1^{\text {st }}$ codon position, HKY+I for the $2^{\text {nd }}$ codon position and GTR+G for the $3^{\text {rd }}$ codon position. For ML analysis the most suitable model of nucleotide substitution was found to be TIM + I $+G$ under the AIC.

Phylogenetic analysis by Bayesian inference was performed on the aligned sequences using the appropriate model of nucleotide substitution for each data partition. Analyses were performed in two runs, each with four separate MCMC chains ( 1 cold) for $1 \times 10^{7}$ generations and sampled every 1000 generations to give a sample of 10,000 trees. Using AWTY (Wilgenbush et al. 2004) the cumulative and compare commands were used to assess stationarity. Stationarity was reached by $5 \times 10^{6}$ generations and thus the first 6,000 trees were excluded and the remaining 4,000 trees, used to derive a $50 \%$ majority-rule consensus tree with posterior probabilities of the clades.

The ML analysis was performed with the default parameters in Garli (Zwickl 2006), using the GTR + I + G model and employed a heuristic search strategy. Because it was not possible to
specify the TIM + I + G model, GTR + I + G, a similar model, was selected. The non-parametric bootstrap with 100 pseudoreplicates was used to assess branch support.

For MP analyses all substitutions were weighted equally (see Kluge 1997). A heuristic search strategy was employed, using the random stepwise addition ( 100 replicates) and tree-bisection-reconnection (TBR) branch swapping options. The non-parametric bootstrap with 1,000 pseudoreplicates was used to assess branch support.

## RESULTS

## Adult and tadpole morphology

Table 3 summarises the morphological differences between Crinia sp. nov. and C. bilingua. The two Crinia were similar, except C. bilingua appears to be slightly larger and Crinia sp. nov. has a longer tibia (in both mean and in the TL/SUL ratios). Whereas the fingers of C. bilingua share the pointed nonwebbed fingers typical of other Crinia, males of Crinia sp. nov. have unusually wide flanges (Figure 2). Tadpoles of Crinia sp. nov. have large, laterallycompressed jaw sheaths which are atypical of other Crinia (Watson and Martin 1973; Anstis 2002).


Differences in dorsal pattern and colouration between the two taxa were more apparent (Figure 3). Crinia bilingua usually has a light brown or reddish-brown background colour often with a darker rectangular marking on the dorsum and a chevron or Y-shaped mark between the eyes. In contrast, all individuals observed of Crinia sp. nov. lack the chevron marking and have either a reddish or bluish hue to a background colour of brown, with a network of minute, pale bluish-white tubercles scattered over the dorsum and limbs.

## Molecular genetic analyses

The final dataset comprised 655 bp of aligned ND2 and tRNA sequences for all currently recognised species in the genus Crinia and selected outgroup taxa from the family Myobatrachidae. Of the 655 sites, 339 were constant and 316 characters were variable of which 266 of these were parsimony-informative.

A single majority rule consensus tree derived from the final Bayesian runs is shown in Figure 4. Posterior probabilities (Bayesian analysis) and bootstrap support values (MP and ML analysis) of nodes are indicated on branches if values were above $95 \%$ for Bayesian analyses and 60 for MP and ML analyses. Well-supported nodes (> 0.95

B


Figure 2 Flanges on the fingers of Crinia fimbriata sp. nov. A) diagram of finger with pin holding back flange (WAM R167745); B) close-up of flange of uncollected individual floating in a small pool at the top of Little Merten's Falls, Mitchell Plateau. specimens that were sequenced and analysed and correspond to those in Figure 2．Data is sorted by genus，species then museum tissue number and in the absence of
the museum tissue number is sorted by specimen number．Tissue numbers marked with an（a）indicate individual frogs from which tissues were sequenced and used in the phylogenetic analyses；those marked with a（b）indicate which individuals were used in the morphometric comparisons；numbers marked with a（c）indicate sequences from Read et．al．（2001）used in phylogenetic analysis which were donated by J．S．Keogh．If the specimen（s）belongs to a type series its type designation is indicated as follows；Holotype（H）；and Paratype（P）．Institution codes are as follows；Australian Museum，Sydney（AM），Queensland Museum，Brisbane（QM），South Australian Museum，Adelaide（SAM），Australian Biological Tissue Collection，South Australian Museum，Adelaide（ABTC），Australian National Wildlife Collection
（ANWC）．
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> 5 km N of Lake Argyle Village, WA Pentecost R., El Questro Stn, WA Victoria R., NT Kimbolton HS, WA Middle Springs, WA Mount Leake, WA Mornington Station, WA Mitchell Plateau, WA Ivanhoe Crossing, WA Mitchell Plateau, WA Mitchell Plateau, Mining Campsite, WA 1.5km N of Lake Argyle Tourist Village, WA Dead Horse Springs, WA 11.5km NE of Lake Argyle Tourist Village, WA 20km NE of Lake Argyle Tourist Village, WA Grotto Creek, nr Kununurra, WA Mornington Station, WA Doongan Station, WA Mitchell Falls, WA Mount Elizabeth Station, WA Prince Regent River NR, WA Prince Regent River NR, WA Prince Regent River NR, WA Prince Regent River NR, WA Prince Regent River NR, WA Prince Regent River NR, WA Prince Regent River NR, WA

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tinnula
laevis
rosea
gouldii
rugosa

Geocrinia
Myobatrachus
Uperoleia


Figure 3 Photos in life of Crinia from the Kimberley region, Western Australia. A) C. fimbriata sp. nov. from Mitchell Plateau (not collected) (photo J. Francis); B) male C. fimbriata sp. nov. from Prince Regent River (WAM R163823)(photo M. Barrett); C,D) ventral and dorsolateral views of captive-reared female C. fimbriata sp. nov. (SAMA R62994); E) preserved male holotype (WAM R167743) of C. fimbriata sp. nov.; F) male C. bilingua from Kununurra.
posterior probability or $>70$ bootstrap support values) in the phylogenies resulting from the Bayesian, ML and MP analyses showed congruent phylogenetic pattern for all taxa. Crinia nimbus and C. tasmanienis form a weakly supported basal clade, sister to all other Crinia. The type series (Crinia sp. nov.) belongs to a strongly supported, highly divergent lineage which is the sister taxon to the remaining Crinia. Within the type series, SAMA R62994, WAM R167744 and WAM R167745 possess the same haplotype (Ss2); WAM R167743 has a unique haplotype (Ss1) differing at four sites in the fragment of ND2 sequenced.

Uncorrected pairwise genetic distance between the Crinia sp. nov. lineage and clades of other Crinia species ranged between $\sim 16.8 \%$ (C. riparia and $C$. remota) and $\sim 22 \%$ (C. deserticola and C. nimbus). Crinia bilingua and C. remota each form wellsupported clades which together form a strongly supported clade, sister to the remaining Crinia species. Uncorrected pairwise genetic distance between haplotypes from the C. bilingua lineage and haplotypes of the C. remota lineage ranged from $\sim 12.8 \%$ to $\sim 11.3 \%$. Crinia deserticola forms a well-supported clade which is grouped with the remaining Crinia species by a weakly-supported node. Intra-clade genetic diversity was minimal ( 0 to $\sim 2 \%$ ) in C. bilingua, C. deserticola, C. remota and Crinia sp. nov. In contrast, intraspecific genetic distances within the C. signifera clade were high ( $\sim 9.4 \%$ to $\sim 4.7 \%$ ), and lineages within this clade show definite phylogeographic pattern. Crinia parinsignifera, C . tinnula and Crinia sp . form a weakly-supported clade, but there is strong support for a subclade comprising C. tinnula and Crinia sp. There is weak support for C. riparia as the sister lineage to a weakly supported clade containing C. signifera, C. georgiana, C. glauerti, C. sloanei, C. insignifera, C. pseudinsignifera and C. subinsignifera. However there is strong support for the $C$. signifera clade and moderate support for the clade comprising C. georgiana, C. glauerti, C. sloanei, C. insignifera, C. pseudinsignifera and C. subinsignifera.

## DISCUSSION

## Conspecificity and distinctiveness

The molecular results provide strong support for the conspecificity of the type series, which is consistent with the distinctive colour and pattern observed on the adult individuals. Indeed, all genotyped individuals, including the female SAMA R62994, belong to a single divergent mitochondrial DNA lineage which is well supported with a Bayesian posterior probability of 1.00 and MP and ML bootstrap support values of 100 . The conspecificity of the female SAMA R62994 also indicates that the distinctive larvae are the juvenile

Table 3 Morphometric comparisons between Crinia bilingua and Crinia sp. nov. from the Kimberley. Figures are mean $\pm$ S.D. (range).

| Character: | Crinia bilingua <br> $\mathrm{N}=20$ | Crinia sp. nov. <br> $\mathrm{N}=4$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| SUL | $19.1 \pm 1.3$ | $17.0 \pm 0.4$ |
|  | $(17.5-22.5)$ | $(16.5-17.5)$ |
| TL | $8.3 \pm 0.6$ | $8.8 \pm 0.5$ |
|  | $(7.2-9.4)$ | $(8.1-9.2)$ |
| HL | $5.2 \pm 0.4$ | $4.5 \pm 0.3$ |
|  | $(4.7-5.9)$ | $(4.2-4.9)$ |
| HW | $5.8 \pm 0.4$ | $4.5 \pm 0.4$ |
|  | $(5.1-6.4)$ | $(4.7-5.5)$ |
| FootL | $9.3 \pm 0.7$ | $8.4 \pm 1.0$ |
|  | $(8.1-10.7)$ | $(7.0-9.2)$ |
| EN | $1.3 \pm 0.2$ | $1.4 \pm 0.1$ |
|  | $(1.1-1.9)$ | $(1.3-1.5)$ |
|  | $1.5 \pm 0.1$ | $1.6 \pm 0.1$ |
| IN | $(1.3-1.8)$ | $(1.5-1.6)$ |
|  | $3.0 \pm 0.2$ | $3.1 \pm 0.1$ |
| IO | $(2.7-3.5)$ | $(3.0-3.5)$ |
|  | $0.27 \pm 0.01$ | $0.27 \pm 0.02$ |
| HL/SVL | $(0.25-0.30)$ | $(0.25-0.29)$ |
|  | $1.10 \pm 0.06$ | $1.14 \pm 0.04$ |
| HW/HL | $(1.00-1.30)$ | $(1.10-1.20)$ |
|  | $0.43 \pm 0.02$ | $0.52 \pm 0.03$ |
| TL/SUL | $(0.39-0.50)$ | $(0.48-0.54)$ |
|  |  |  |

form of the distinctive adults from the type series.
It is reasonable to propose that the Crinia sp. nov. lineage represents a divergent population and not an ancestral gene lineage (e.g. Thomaz et al. 1996), retained within a population of a sympatric species such as C. bilingua. This proposition is supported by the large genetic distances observed between Crinia sp. nov. and other lineages of Crinia, which implies a substantial period of isolation, and that the range of divergence seen between Crinia sp. nov. and the other Crinia species exceeds the genetic divergence between described sister species pairs such as $C$. bilingua and C . remota.
The molecular data in conjunction with the distinctive adult and larval morphology provide strong support for the recognition of Crinia sp. nov. as a distinct evolutionary species. In particular, the degree of sequence divergence of the Crinia sp. nov. lineage relative to currently described sister species pairs in the genus Crinia and the monophyly of haplotypes representing the morphologically distinct individuals is compelling evidence in support of species recognition. This diagnosis is consistent with the evolutionary species concept (Simpson 1951; Wiley 1978) and the generalised lineage concept of de Queiroz (1998). Additionally, the flanged fingers of males and the specialised mouthparts of larvae indicate


Figure 4 A majority rule consensus tree derived from the final Bayesian runs showing phylogenetic relationships among mitochondrial ND2 haplotypes for Crinia. Values at nodes indicate Bayesian posterior probabilities $>0.95$ and MP and ML bootstrap support values $>60$, respectively. Haplotype numbers are indicated where more than one haplotype is present in a lineage representing a particular species. Species names and haplotype numbers refer to specimens, tissues and collection locations in Table 2.
a possible change in reproductive behaviour and a high degree of habitat specificity for breeding (i.e. rocky pools), respectively. Although observations of morphological differences such as these are not a direct test of reproductive isolation, they clearly indicate significant adaptive divergence of Crinia sp. nov. despite a contemporary sympatric distribution with at least one congeneric species C. bilingua. It is therefore logical to suggest these morphological differences indicate reproductive isolation of Crinia sp. nov. in spite of the potential for interbreeding with C. bilingua. Consequently, species recognition is also supported under the biological species concept (Mayr 1963). Based on the morphological and genetic differences among Crinia taxa, we describe the northwest taxon as a new species in the Systematics section below.

## Relationships within Crinia

Various methods have previously been employed to explore species relationships within the genus Crinia (see Read et al. 2001 for review). The most comprehensive examination of relationships to date was provided by Read et al. (2001). The phylogenetic relationships inferred from analyses in the present study are largely congruent with those of Read et al. (2001). However, some relationships depicted by weakly supported nodes in our analyses do conflict with the tree topologies from Read et al. (2001). The placement of C. riparia as the sister to both $C$. signifera and the clade comprising C. georgiana, C. glauerti, C. sloanei, C. insignifera, C. pseudinsignifera and $C$. subinsignifera in our analyses is not consistent with the closer relationship of C. riparia to $C$. signifera inferred by analyses of Read et al. (2001). Additionally, the analyses of Read et al. (2001) placed, albeit tentatively, the clade comprising $C$. parinsignifera, C. tinnula and Crinia sp. as the sister of the clade comprising C. riparia and C. signifera. We used a smaller fragment of mitochondrial DNA for phylogenetic analysis and as such it is not surprising that phylogenetic relationships inferred by the analyses of Read et al. (2001) are different from our own. Interestingly, the only differences in the tree topology between ours and the analyses of Read et al. (2001) exist where a shorter fragment of identical sequence was used for all but one of the species in question. Consequently, where support values are weak for the differing node, the tree topology produced by the analyses of Read et al. (2001) is a more accurate estimate of phylogenetic relationships. Besides our use of a smaller fragment of mitochondrial DNA we also used different outgroup and in-group specimens and different sample sizes for some species. The use of SAMA R62992 as our representative sample of C. riparia instead of ABTC 14948, used in the analyses of Read et al. (2001), may also have contributed to the difference in tree topologies.

We do point out that although our analyses included every recognised species of Crinia, we elected not to include every recognised divergent lineage within Crinia. Recent molecular analyses of 12 S and 16 S mitochondrial DNA sequences by Symula et al. (2008) also included the divergent northern lineage of $C$. riparia to which ABTC 14948 (Read et al. 2001) belongs. Likewise, only one of the divergent mitochondrial lineages recognised in C. georgiana (see Edwards et al. 2007) was included in our analyses. Relationships within C. signifera were largely congruent with those of Symula et al. (2008), however our analyses lacked representatives from the B1, C2 and C3 mitochondrial lineages/sub-clades.

## SYSTEMATICS

Family Myobatrachidae Schlegel, 1850

## Genus Crinia Tschudi, 1838

## Type species

Crinia georgiana Tschudi, 1838, by monotypy.

## Diagnosis

Small (1.5-4 cm SUL) ground-dwelling frogs characterised by pointed snout, flattened body shape, small limbs, long unwebbed fingers and toes, toothed upper jaw and long and oval tongue. All species lay pigmented eggs in water, except $C$. nimbus which lays unpigmented eggs in a terrestrial nest and with nidicolous larvae. Genetic data (Read et al. 2001; Frost et al. 2006) support the monophyly of Crinia, including C. tasmaniensis + C. (Bryobatrachus) nimbus as a basal lineage.

## Crinia fimbriata sp. nov.

## Kimberley Froglet

Figures 2, 3, 5 and 6

## Material examined

## Holotype

Australia: Western Australia: WAM R167743, an adult male collected at the top of Little Mertens Falls, Mitchell Plateau ( $14^{\circ} 49^{\prime} 20^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{S}$; $125^{\circ} 42^{\prime} 39^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}$ ) on 7 January 2007 by L. Price and J. Francis.

## Paratypes

Australia: Western Australia: WAM R163823 (male), collected 5.2 km southwest of the junction of the Prince Regent River and Pitta Creek ( $15^{\circ} 52^{\prime} 08^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{S}$; $125^{\circ} 36^{\prime} 23.6^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}$ ) on 28 January 2007 by M. Barrett, R. Barrett and P. Kendrick; WAM R167744 and WAM R167745 (males) - details as for holotype;

SAMA R62994 (female raised from one of 5 larvae) - Mitchell Plateau ( $14^{\circ} 49^{\prime} 19.4^{\prime \prime}$ S; $125^{\circ} 42^{\prime} 35.2^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}$ ) on 11 January 2007 by M. Anstis, J. Francis and J. D. Roberts; WAM R159800-03 (larvae) - details as for SAMA R62994; WAM R159804 (larva) - Prince Regent River Nature Reserve ( $15^{\circ} 41^{\prime} \mathrm{S} ; 125^{\circ} 35^{\prime} \mathrm{E}$ ) on 20 January 2007 by M. Barrett, R. Barrett and P. Kendrick.

## Diagnosis

Adults distinguishable from all other Crinia in life by a network of minute bluish-white tubercles scattered over dorsum and limbs. Ventral surfaces smooth (except for rugose drink patch) and fingers of males with wide flanges. Tadpoles can be distinguished from all other Crinia tadpoles by robust laterally-compressed jaw sheaths, more numerous papillae and an emarginate oral disc.

## Description of holotype

Small ( 17.5 mm SUL) body size with flattened shape and moderately pointed snout. Canthus rostralis slightly rounded, loreal region steep and slightly concave. Tympanum indistinct but tympanic bulge present. Tongue long and narrow, broadly rounded at tip; texture rugose. Fingers unwebbed, but with wide flanges along entire length of digits $1-3,4^{\text {th }}$ finger with only a narrow flange. Finger length: $3>4>2>1$. Outer metacarpal tubercle enlarged; palmar tubercles moderately well-developed, especially on fingers. Metatarsal tubercles small with inner moderately developed; tubercles on plantar surface and toes also small. Toes with a wide flange (constricted near the joints) along entire length of digit; $1^{\text {st }}$ toe with narrow flanges. Toe length: $4>5>=3>2>1$. Dorsal skin smooth between prominent, scattered raised tubercles coincident with darker markings (see below). Minute bluish-white tubercles scattered over dorsum and limbs, tending to form irregular networks. Throat and abdomen smooth except for distinct granular tissue in drink patch.

Colour in life a dull blue-grey with dark brown longitudinally-aligned blotches on dorsum. Dark Y-shaped marking between eyes and medial blotch anterior to this on snout. Minute bluish-whitetipped tubercles scattered over dorsal surface and limbs. Upper arms and snout imbued with pale orange. Upper surfaces of limbs with stronglycontrasting dark bars of varying widths. The arms have $5-6$ bars, the legs $12-14$ bars with banding continuing along digits; thin and thick bands on femur and tibia align when legs folded. Lateral zone dark. Side of head between insertion of arm and upper posterior corner of eye with a dark brown inverted U-shaped arc enclosing a cluster of whitish tubercles. Upper half of iris golden, lower half dark brown. A squarish dark blotch beneath
anterior corner of eye, upper lip mostly brown with scattered fine whitish tubercles. Canthus rostralis bordered with thin dark stripe. Tip of snout has a dark bar extending down each side from below each naris. Ventral surfaces dark with extensive lighter markings comprised of diffuse networks of blotches on the throat and chest, strongly contrasting white spots scattered on dark zones (less dense on flanks); an absence of pigment in the centre of the abdomen. Throat dark except for a thin pale medial stripe; white spots on chest at point of arm insertion. Undersides of thighs darker with fine yet distinct white spots; drink patch dark, rest of leg dark with extensive lighter mottling and spots; a central unpigmented patch in groin.

Colour in preservative slate blue-grey with two paravertebral rows of large dark blotches which bear scattered short dark longitudinal lines. In preservative, the fine dorsal tubercles lose their white pigment, and the orange on upper arms and snout is lost.

## Variation

The other three male specimens were similar in body size and shape, limb proportions, tubercles and digital flanges to the holotype. The blotches on WAM R163823 are larger and joined together more than the holotype and the ' $Y$ ' on the head between the eyes has an anterior- projecting stripe (Figure 3B). On WAM R167745 the 'Y' lacks the stem and appears as a bowed transocular bar. The blotch anterior and below the eye projects forwards in WAM R167745 and is triangular in WAM R167744. There are a similar number of bands on the limbs and digits, although the widths and position of the bands vary moderately. WAM R163823 was preserved in $100 \%$ ethanol and has a light ventral surface. The lighter area in the centre of the abdomen is narrower in WAM R167745 and wider in WAM R167744. In WAM R167745 there is an unpigmented zone around the darker glandular drink patch and the white spots are slightly larger on the undersides of the thighs. SAMA R62994, the female raised from a tadpole, lacks the wide digital flanges although the fingers appear very slightly fringed in life (Figure 3C). Colour in life (Figure 3D) is similar to males, with a dorsal colour of reddish brown and the large dark patches, but the marking between the eyes consists of four isolated spots.

## Tadpole morphology and development

Tadpoles collected at stages 36-37 developed rapidly and the earliest developmental stage studied was stage 38. A composite description of tadpoles at stages $38-41$ is provided. Morphometric measurements of one anaesthetised live tadpole at stage 40 and one preserved tadpole at stage 38 are provided in Appendix 2, together with
measurements of a typical C. bilingua tadpole at stage 37 for comparison. Fully grown tadpoles are small, the longest specimen with a total length of 20.5 mm and body length of 8.5 mm (preserved, stage 41).

Body. Body small, rounded and wider than deep across abdomen. Snout rounded in dorsal view and deeply truncate in lateral view, especially by stage 41 (Figures 5 and 6). Eyes dorsolateral with slight anterior tilt (in life). Iris mostly golden, darker at each side; small dark umbraculum present on upper edge. At stage 38, nares small, closer to tip of snout than eyes and open dorsally, tilting more anteriorly by stage 41 . Spiracle directed dorsoposteriorly, opens near midpoint of body well below horizontal body axis (almost onto venter
in life); stretches higher up body in preserved specimens (Figure 5A). Vent tube dextral (type a; Anstis 2002), broad, opens above edge of ventral fin and mostly unattached to it behind.
Tail. Dorsal fin moderately arched, in a symmetrical arc-shape at stage 41 (Figures 5 and 6), tapers just before rounded tail tip. Ventral fin less arched. Muscle moderate at junction with body, tapers evenly to narrow point.

Oral Disc. Disc is ventral in direction, and emarginate. No anterior papillae, single row of small, crowded marginal papillae around each side and posterior margin with occasional submarginal papillae in some; narrow medial gap in posterior papillae. Two anterior and three posterior tooth rows, narrow or distinct medial gap in $\mathrm{A}^{2}$, distinct


Figure 5. Tadpole and mouthparts of Crinia fimbriata sp. nov., and mouthparts of C. bilingua from Howard Springs, NT. A, B) C. fimbriata sp. nov. stage 38 , in lateral and dorsal view, scale bar $=5 \mathrm{~mm} ;$ C) mouthparts of $C$. fimbriata sp. nov. (SAMA R62994) stage 38 , scale bar $=1 \mathrm{~mm} ;$ D) mouthparts of $C$. bilingua stage 37 , scale bar $=1 \mathrm{~mm}$.


E


Figure 6 Larval development of C. fimbriata and C. bilingua. A) C. fimbriata stage 40 (left) and stage 41, dorsal view; B) C. fimbriata stage 40, anterior view showing pale gold spots on snout; C) C. fimbriata stage 41, lateral view, spiracle outlined in white and white arrow indicates opening of spiracle; D) C. bilingua stage 39, lateral view, Howard Springs NT, spiracle outlined, white arrow indicates opening of spiracle; E) C. fimbriata stage 41, 42, dorsal view; F) C. fimbriata stage 41, ventral view; G) stage 46, metamorph. Scale bar $=5 \mathrm{~mm}$.
gap in $\mathrm{P}^{1}, \mathrm{P}^{3}$ short, equivalent to and just above, medial gap in posterior papillae. Jaw sheaths strongly laterally compressed, upper sheath acutely angled with long straight lateral processes, lower sheath massive and V-shaped (Figure 5C). By stage 41, the keratin on the jaw sheaths is reducing.

Pigmentation in life. Dorsum mostly covered with dull gold layer of iridophores over black layer beneath; irregular small dark patches or prominent spots that show through gaps in gold layer (Figure $6 \mathrm{~A}, \mathrm{C})$. There is a small dark patch across the base of the body. More advanced tadpoles develop the distinctive broad dark spots often later associated with tubercles in adults (Figure 6E). Sides of body black beneath with scattered gold flecks becoming denser towards dorsum. There is a silver-white spot anteriorly on each side of the snout just above the oral disc (Figure 6B). Ventral surface transparent over gut, which is bordered by melanophores; stippled melanophores over gills and buccal cavity, a few scattered gold flecks over gills, heart, down middle of abdomen and denser on either side of mouth (Figure 6C,F). Dorsal fin pigmented with fine melanophores, some pigmented venation; ventral fin less pigmented, with fine flecks posteriorly. Dense gold layer covers much of dark tail muscle except for some prominent black spots dorsally and a few laterally. The adult pattern becomes more apparent as tadpoles approach metamorphosis.

Pigmentation in preservative. All gold and silver/ white pigment is lost and only melanophore pigment remains. The intestines are more visible through the sides and also the venter, which is mostly transparent.

Metamorphosis. Development to metamorphosis is rapid once tadpoles have reached stage 38. One newly metamorphosed froglet (SAM R62994) measured 7.5 mm SUL with essentially adult pigmentation. The dorsum is brown with scattered prominent black round tubercles and numerous minute pale blue tubercles all over the body and limbs; iris golden. The limbs have dark bands and forelimbs are paler brown (Figure 6G).

## Comparison with other species

Adults. Crinia fimbriata sp. nov. can be distinguished from sympatric $C$. bilingua by a combination of the network of minute bluish-white tubercles over the dosal surface and limbs, the smooth belly and flanges on the fingers of males. Because of its small size, C. fimbriata sp. nov. may be confused with other small syntopic rock-dwelling Litoria species (e.g. L. meiriana, L. staccato), but all potential Litoria species have expanded terminal discs, whereas all Crinia have no terminal discs.

Tadpoles. Tadpoles are similar to C. bilingua, however, they have the most robust and laterallycompressed jaw sheaths of any Crinia, the sides of
the oral disc are emarginate and marginal papillae are smaller and more numerous. In addition, $C$. fimbriata has a deeper more truncate snout (cf. Figure 6C,D) and a broader, fatter body with a slightly shorter tail relative to body length (body/ total length ratio $0.40-0.42$ versus 0.36 for C. bilingua (see Appendix 2). Crinia fimbriata has a spiracle that points dorsoposteriorly in life (Figure 6C), while that of all other northern Crinia species points ventrally or ventroposteriorly (Figure 6D). Finally, C. fimbriata sp. nov. appears to have much less ventral pigmentation in life than C. bilingua (Tyler et al. 1983; Anstis, unpublished data).

## Habitat

All adult specimens of C. fimbriata sp. nov. have been collected from shallow (to 5 cm depth) pools on the top of sandstone rock platforms. At both collection sites, pools were located on the top of large cliffs with running water in creeks and waterfalls close by. The Mitchell Plateau specimens were at the top of Little Mertens Falls and were encountered together while active at night (ca. $2100 \mathrm{~h})$. The pool was near the edge of the rock platform near the forest (ca. 20 m from the river and falls). The Prince Regent River specimen was in a shallow rock pool on the edge of a high rock platform (M. Barrett, pers. comm.). It was collected in the daytime and was sheltering in a crevice when it dived into the pool and remained motionless, even when prodded. In contrast, C. bilingua adults were only found associated with temporary flooded ponds and ditches in grassland and woodland, well away from rocky escarpments.

Tadpoles at Mitchell Plateau were found in a temporary, shallow rock pool about $1 \times 0.75 \mathrm{~m}$ and $4-5 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep on top of a dry rocky ledge well above stream level. Water temperature was about $35^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ at 1100 hr. The specimen from Prince Regent River Nature Reserve was found in a temporary, shallow pool 1 m in diameter and 5 cm deep (M. Barrett and P. Kendrick, pers. comm.). Tadpoles are benthic and were mostly observed in stationary positions on the sandstone substrate, which was partly covered with some algae, silt and a few leaves.

## Etymology

Fimbria is Latin for 'fringed' in reference to fringes on adult males observed in this species. Used as a noun in apposition.

## Remarks

Discovery of new tropical species of frogs in northern Australia is still occurring owing to the diverse anuran fauna and the difficulty of travelling to remote areas during the wet season. Recent discoveries include Uperoleia species from near Darwin (Young et al. 2005) and the northwest

Kimberley (Doughty and Roberts 2008), a rock hylid from the Kimberley (Doughty and Anstis 2007) and a stream-dwelling hylid from north Queensland (Hoskin 2007). All of these species were initially identified by a distinctive call. However, the call of C. fimbriata sp. nov. is still unknown. Crinia fimbriata sp. nov. was discovered and collected because of their unusual colour and markings. As C. fimbriata sp. nov. and C. bilingua occur sympatrically, we expect their calls to be sufficiently distinct to enable females to choose males of their own species.

Two features of C. fimbriata sp. nov. are unique in Crinia. First, the flanges on the fingers of males may have a functional role, but we lack any observations to suggest a function, and the only female has no flanges. Sexual dimorphism in finger flanges is known from Limnodynastes Fitzinger, 1843, Philoria Spencer, 1901 and Platyplectrum Günther, 1863 species, but these are possessed by females to help them make a foam nest of bubbles. Second, the unusually massive and laterally compressed jaw sheaths of C. fimbriata sp. nov. tadpoles readily distinguish them from congeners. These are likely to be an adaptation that increases medial rasping pressure of the jaw sheaths, thereby enabling these benthic tadpoles to remove algae embedded in the rock substrate of the pools where they are found. The less benthic tadpoles of Litoria cavernicola Tyler and Davies, 1979 were also found in the same pool and, although they have moderately keratinised jaw sheaths, they are not as laterally compressed as in C. fimbriata sp. nov.

The existence of a basal lineage containing $C$. nimbus and C. tasmaniensis from the southern, temperate latitudes of Tasmania and a second sister lineage comprising C. fimbriata sp. nov. from the northern tropical latitudes of the Kimberley represents an interesting and somewhat perplexing phylogenetic pattern. Several alternative historical scenarios may explain the existence of highly divergent mitochondrial lineages with disparate distributions across Australia. One possible explanation is that the ancestral Crinia species were once widespread across the Australian continent and the pattern we see now reflects historical vicariance with divergence driven by the aridification of central Australia in the Miocene.

The northwestern Kimberley has high conservation value owing to the large diversity of endemic frog, reptile and mammal species known to occur there. The discovery of C. fimbriata sp. nov. along with other frog species from this region in the last two years (Doughty and Anstis 2007; Doughty and Roberts 2008) highlights how little is known of the high rainfall zone of the northwest Kimberley. Although descriptions of new species greatly enhance our appreciation of the high diversity of the region, there is still much to learn about the true
distributions, ecology, reproduction and behaviour of the Kimberley fauna. It is essential that the wilderness areas of the northwest Kimberley are preserved to conserve the diversity of organisms that occur there and the ecological processes that have led to the generation of this diversity.

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Appendix 1. Crinia bilingua specimens examined (WAM and $R$ prefixes excluded).
Males - 161202, 162477, 162579, 162541, 162599, 166143, 167709, 167851, 168070, 168085, 168140, 168142.

Females - 162478, 167850, 167962, 167996, 168012, 168119, 168120, 168189.

Appendix 2. Tadpole morphometrics (in mm).
Crinia fimbriata sp. nov., stage 38 (preserved): TL 19.1, BL 8.2, BD 4.3, BW 5.6, EBW 4.1, BTM 1.8, BTMW 1.5, TD 3.7, DF 1.5, TM 1.1, VF 1.1, IO 1.6, IN 0.8, EN O.6, N 0.2, SS 4.1, SN O.8, SE 1.6, ED 1.1, ODW 1.6.

Crinia fimbriata sp. nov., stage 40 (anaesthetised): 19.5, 7.9, $3.9,5.0,4.5,1.5,1.6,3.5,1.6,1.0,0.9,1.6,0.8$, $0.6,0.2,4.3,0.6,1.8,1.2,1.6$.
Crinia bilingua, stage 37 (anaesthetised): 21.7, 7.9, 4.2, 4.8, $3.9,2.0,1.8,4.0,1.7,1.4,0.9,1.1,0.8,0.5,0.2$, 4.4, 0.7, 1.4, 1.5, 1.2.

