

# Diversity and distribution of Symbiodiniaceae detected on coral reefs of Lombok, Indonesia using environmental DNA metabarcoding

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**Background:** Dinoflagellates of family Symbiodiniaceae are important to coral reef ecosystems because of their contribution to coral health and growth ; however, only a few studies have investigated the function and distribution of Symbiodiniaceae in Indonesia . Understanding the distribution of different kinds of Symbiodiniaceae can improve forecasting of future responses of various coral reef systems to climate change. This study aimed to determine the diversity of Symbiodiniaceae around Lombok using environmental DNA (eDNA).

**Methods:** Seawater and sediment samples were collected from 18 locations and filtered to obtain fractions of 0.4–12 and >12 µm. After extraction, molecular barcoding polymerase chain reaction was conducted to amplify the primary V9-SSU 18S rRNA gene , followed by sequencing (Illumina MiSeq). BLAST, Naïve-fit-Bayes, and maximum likelihood routines were used for classification and phylogenetic reconstruction. We compared results across sampling sites, sample types (seawater/sediment), and filter pore sizes (fraction).

**Results:** Phylogenetic analyses resolved the amplicon sequence variants into 16 subclades comprising six Symbiodiniaceae genera ( or genera-equivalent clades ) as follows: *Symbiodinium*, *Breviolum*, *Cladocopium*, *Durusdinium*, Foraminifera Clade G , and *Hallaxium*. Comparative analyses showed that the three distinct lineages within *Cladocopium*, *Durusdinium*, and *Foraminifera Clade G* were the most common . Most of the recovered sequences appeared to be distinctive of different sampling locations, supporting the possibility that eDNA may resolve regional and local differences among Symbiodiniaceae genera and species.

**Conclusions:** eDNA survey s offer a rapid proxy for evaluating Symbiodiniaceae species on coral reefs and are a potentially useful approach to revealing diversity and relative ecological dominance of certain Symbiodiniaceae organisms. Moreover, Symbiodiniaceae eDNA analysis shows potential in monitoring the local and regional stability of coral-algal mutualisms.

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**Abstract**

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23 because of their contribution to coral health and growth; however, only a few studies have

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25 distribution of different kinds of Symbiodiniaceae can improve forecasting of future responses of

26 various coral reef systems to climate change. This study aimed to determine the diversity of

27 Symbiodiniaceae around Lombok using environmental DNA (eDNA).

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29 fractions of 0.4–12 and >12  $\mu\text{m}$ . After extraction, molecular barcoding polymerase chain

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32 classification and phylogenetic reconstruction. We compared results across sampling sites,

33 sample types (seawater/sediment), and filter pore sizes (fraction).

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35 comprising six Symbiodiniaceae genera (or genera-equivalent clades) as follows: *Symbiodinium*,

36 *Breviolum*, *Cladocopium*, *Durusdinium*, Foraminifera Clade G, and *Hallaxium*. Comparative

37 analyses showed that the three distinct lineages within *Cladocopium*, *Durusdinium*, and

38 *Foraminifera Clade G* were the most common. Most of the recovered sequences appeared to be

39 distinctive of different sampling locations, supporting the possibility that eDNA may resolve  
40 regional and local differences among Symbiodiniaceae genera and species.

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42 reefs and are a potentially useful approach to revealing diversity and relative ecological  
43 dominance of certain Symbiodiniaceae organisms. Moreover, Symbiodiniaceae eDNA analysis  
44 shows potential in monitoring the local and regional stability of coral–algal mutualisms.

45

46 **Subjects** Marine Biology, Biodiversity, Ecology, Molecular Biology, Genetics

47

48 **Keywords** Coral Triangle, endosymbiotic dinoflagellate, aquatic plankton, benthic periphyton,  
49 next-generation biomonitoring

## 50 INTRODUCTION

51 Symbiodiniaceae, also known as zooxanthellae, play vital roles within their coral hosts,  
52 such as providing energy, absorbing residual metabolites, and promoting growth (Davy,  
53 Allemand & Weis, 2012; Purnomo, 2014). These symbionts also contribute to the adaptability  
54 and resilience of corals to environmental change, especially ocean warming (Berkelmans & Van  
55 Oppen, 2006; Baskett, Gaines & Nisbet, 2009; Suggett, Warner & Leggat, 2017; Claar et al.,  
56 2020; Howells et al., 2021). Stress-tolerant Symbiodiniaceae can improve the survival of coral  
57 colonies exposed to thermal stress (Abrego et al., 2008; LaJeunesse et al., 2010; Stat & Gates,  
58 2011; Cunning, Silverstein & Baker, 2015; Bourne, Morrow & Webster, 2016; Hoadley et al.,  
59 2019). Therefore, understanding the potential diversity of Symbiodiniaceae is necessary in  
60 forecasting the future of coral reef ecosystems in different regions under a rapidly changing  
61 climate.

62 Endosymbiotic dinoflagellates of family Symbiodiniaceae are extremely prevalent in  
63 coral reef ecosystems. Symbiodiniaceae engage in mutualistic relationships with various  
64 invertebrates, including scleractinian corals, octocorals, anemones, jellyfishes, mollusks,  
65 sponges, flatworms, and foraminifera (Pochon et al., 2001; LaJeunesse et al., 2010, 2018;  
66 LaJeunesse, Pochon, Putnam & Gates, 2014). A number of Symbiodiniaceae live as aquatic  
67 plankton and benthic periphyton, and some are associated with macroalgae and seagrasses  
68 (Venera-Ponton et al., 2010; Takabayashi et al., 2012; Fujise et al., 2021). To date, 11 named

69 genera have been classified as members of the Symbiodiniaceae family: *Symbiodinium* (clade  
70 A), *Philozoon* (temperate clade A), *Breviolum* (clade B), *Cladocopium* (clade C), *Durusdinium*  
71 (clade D), *Miliolidium* (foraminifera clade D), *Effrenium* (clade E), *Freudhentalidium* (clade  
72 Fr3), *Fugacium* (clade Fr5), *Gerakladium* (clade G), and *Hallaxium* (clade H) (LaJeunesse et al.,  
73 2018, 2021; Nitschke et al., 2020; Pochon & LaJeunesse, 2021). However, there are 16 distinct  
74 lineages, with Foraminifera Clade G, Clade Fr2, Clade Fr4, Clade I, and Clade J representing the  
75 undescribed genera (LaJeunesse et al., 2018; Yorifuji et al., 2021).

76 Indonesia is a part of the Coral Triangle (Veron et al., 2009; Gelis et al., 2021), and coral  
77 reef ecosystems are a valuable economic resource for coastal communities across the  
78 archipelago; however, data on the diversity of Indonesian Symbiodiniaceae are still limited (Loh  
79 et al., 2006, Bo et al., 2011, Purnomo 2014, DeBoer et al., 2012). Previous studies about  
80 Symbiodiniaceae from areas in the region such as the South China Sea, Thailand, Singapore,  
81 Palau, the Philippines, and Timor-Leste, only focused on Symbiodiniaceae populations within  
82 their host organisms. Some of the Symbiodiniaceae genera in these reports include  
83 *Symbiodinium*, *Breviolum*, *Cladocopium*, *Durusdinium*, *Gerakladium*, and *Fugacium* (Fabricius  
84 et al., 2004; Loh, Cowlshaw & Wilson, 2006; (Reimer & Todd, 2009); LaJeunesse et al., 2010;  
85 Taguba, Sotto & Geraldino, 2016; Tong et al., 2018; Brian, Davy & Wilkinson, 2019). However,  
86 little is known about Symbiodiniaceae within Indonesian waters, which is the most biodiverse  
87 marine region in the world.

88           Symbiodiniaceae cannot be directly identified using conventional microscopy. The need  
89 for collection and isolation from multiple locations increases the difficulty of assessing this  
90 taxonomic group. Advances in the use of environmental DNA (eDNA) and multitaxon  
91 sequencing techniques (metabarcoding) have allowed the study of Symbiodiniaceae communities  
92 through the collection of environmental samples, such as water and sediment (Arif et al., 2014;  
93 Shinzato et al., 2018; Fujise et al., 2021). The advantages of the eDNA-based approach include  
94 ease of use, noninvasive nature, broad spatial scale, and cost effectiveness (Deiner et al., 2017).

95           This study aimed to develop a rapid proxy for estimating the diversity of  
96 Symbiodiniaceae in water and sediment samples from the coral reef ecosystems around Lombok  
97 Island in Indonesia using eDNA. We make comparisons across sampling sites, eDNA source  
98 (seawater/sediment), and filter pore sizes (fraction). A better understanding of the diversity and  
99 composition of Symbiodiniaceae in Indonesian coral reefs is important for conservation and  
100 management of marine ecosystems.

101

## 102 **METHODS**

### 103 **Study sites**

104 This study was conducted in coral reef habitats around Lombok Island, West Nusa Tenggara  
105 Province, Indonesia. This island is the constituent of the marine ecoregion of Nusa Tenggara  
106 (Lesser Sunda), which has a coral reef area of about 272,123 ha (Giyanto et al., 2017). The

107 western part of Lombok Island is directly adjacent to Lombok Strait and its southern part is the  
108 Indian Ocean. The study areas were located 5–100 m from shore, with depths ranging 1–10 m  
109 and a mean tidal range of about 1.8 m. Samples were collected from 5th to 12th July 2018 (Table  
110 1.).

111

### 112 **eDNA sample collection**

113 During the survey, eDNA seawater and sediment samples were collected by scuba diving from  
114 six reef stations within each coastal area (West Lombok, East Lombok, and North Lombok).  
115 Two samples (one seawater and one sediment) per station were collected per day from three  
116 stations, in total, 72 samples in Lombok (Fig. 1 and Table 1, 2). The distance between the  
117 sampling stations was at least 1500 m to avoid overlap. At each station, 4 L of seawater was  
118 collected from the water column (~2 m above the reef substrate) as well as a sediment sample  
119 (water + sediment in 1:1 ratio) in sterilized bottles. Before sampling, the bottle was rinsed with a  
120 30% commercial bleach solution, followed by distilled water. The collected eDNA samples were  
121 stored in a cool box and brought to basecamp at Lombok Island as soon as possible (less than 12  
122 hours). Each sample was filtered twice using a peristaltic pump (Fisher Scientific) through 47  
123 mm diameter polycarbonate membrane filters (Sterlitech) with two different pore sizes: 12  $\mu\text{m}$   
124 first and then 0.4  $\mu\text{m}$ . According to Turner et al. (2014), a combination of  $\geq 0.2 \mu\text{m}$  filtration  
125 pore size and water volume enables optimal eDNA capture and maximize detection probability.

126 In addition, a large pore size is required to avoid clogging the filters. The sediment samples,  
127 were shaken first and then filtered 1–2 minutes after shaking. Each filter was cut into two, and  
128 each half was placed in a 1.5 mL vial prefilled with DNA Shield as a preservative. At the end of  
129 all eDNA survey activities, all the samples were transported to the Marine Biodiversity and  
130 Biosystematics Laboratory at Bogor Agricultural (IPB) University, Indonesia, via commercial  
131 courier and then stored at  $-20^{\circ}\text{C}$  until DNA extraction.

132 eDNA seawater sampling in this study was permitted within the framework of the United  
133 States Agency for International Development—Sustainable Higher Education Research  
134 Alliances (USAID-SHERA) program through the Centre for Collaborative Research Animal  
135 Biotechnology and Coral Reef Fisheries of IPB University, award no. AID-497-A-16-00004. The  
136 field research permit was issued by IPB University Rector (Surat Tugas no. 403/IT3/KP/2019).  
137 Permits for this research were issued by the Indonesian Ministry of Research and Technology to  
138 EB (130/E5/E5.4/SIP/2019), CL (461/SIP/FRP/E5/Dit.KI/XII/2017), and AH  
139 (455/SIP/FRP/E5/Dit.KI/XII/2017).

140

#### 141 **DNA extraction, amplification, and sequencing**

142 The filtered eDNA samples were extracted and amplified at the Marine Biodiversity and  
143 Systematic Laboratory of IPB University and sequenced at the University of Rhode Island (URI)  
144 Genomics and Sequencing Center, United States of America. DNA was extracted from the filters

145 using ZymoBiomics Miniprep Kit (Zymo Research, Irvine, CA, USA) following the  
146 manufacturer's instructions. V9 hypervariable regions of the eukaryotic small sub unit (SSU)  
147 18S ribosomal RNA (rRNA) genes were amplified using a polymerase chain reaction (PCR)  
148 platform and prepared for 2×250 bp paired-end Illumina MiSeq sequencing (Illumina, San  
149 Diego, CA, United States). Amplification was conducted using V9 primer set 1389F: 5'-TTG  
150 TAC ACA CCG CCC-3' and 1510R: 5'-CCT TCY GCA GGT TCA CCT AC-3' (Amaral-Zettler  
151 et al., 2009; Stoeck et al., 2010), Illumina adapters, linker sequences, index, and pad (Kozich et  
152 al., 2013). The PCR profile used was as follows: 3 min at 94 °C, followed by 35 cycles of 94 °C  
153 for 45 s, 48 °C for 30 s, and 72 °C for 30 s, and a final extension at 72 °C for 5 min. Each 49 µL  
154 of PCR reaction comprised 25 µL of My™ HS red mix (Bioline Ltd., London, UK), 1 µL of  
155 (10 µM) forward primer, 1 µL of (10 µM) reverse primer, and 1 µL of DNA template. The final  
156 volume was adjusted to 49 µL using ddH<sub>2</sub>O. 1x reaction was 0.2 µM. The PCR product was  
157 checked via the electrophoresis final master mix concentration in 1× reaction was 0.8×, and the  
158 final primer concentration in of 5 µL of aliquots on 1% agarose gel in 0.5X TBE buffer. Library  
159 preparation and sequencing were performed at URI. A second PCR was performed to add the  
160 dual indices and Illumina sequencing adapters from the TruSeq PCR-Free LT kit to the target  
161 amplicons, using Kapa HotStart HiFi 2x ReadyMix DNA polymerase (Kapa Biosystems Ltd.,  
162 London UK). The PCR profile used was as follows: initial denaturation at 95 °C for 3 min,  
163 followed by 9 cycles of 95 °C for 30 s and 55 °C for 30 s, and final extension at 72 °C for 5 min.

164 The presence and length (bp) of the PCR product or amplicon were tested by electrophoresis.  
165 Successful amplicons were then purified using paramagnetic Kapa pure beads (bead-to-sample  
166 volumetric ratio in 1.6:1). A Qubit fluorometer with Qubit dsDNA HS Assay reagent  
167 (Invitrogen, California, US) was used to quantify all libraries. The prepared samples were  
168 combined in equal concentrations and then pooled with a 20% denatured and diluted PhiX  
169 Illumina control library. The final pooled library was sequenced on an Illumina MiSeq with the  
170 MiSeq v2 500-cycle kit (Illumina, San Diego, CA, United States). After quality checking, only  
171 41 out of 72 samples were found to be of sufficiently high quality for sequencing (Table 2). The  
172 low quality of some libraries may be due to eDNA degradation during sample transport and  
173 extraction.

174

#### 175 **Data processing and bioinformatic analyses**

176 The obtained forward and reverse raw sequence data were converted to demultiplexed fastq files  
177 (see additional information on data availability). The sequence read quality was checked using  
178 FastQC v.0.11.8 (<https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk>) at each analysis step. Cutadapt  
179 v.1.18 (Martin, 2011) was used to trim the reverse and forward primer sequences and remove  
180 short reads with lengths < 100 bp and low quality reads with a Phred Q score of < 20.  
181 Qiime2.2019.10 pipeline (Caporaso et al., 2010; Bolyen et al., 2019) was employed for further  
182 data processing. DADA2 v.2018.11.0 (Callahan et al., 2016) (via q2-dada2) was applied for

183 denoising, joining denoised paired-end reads, filtering out chimeric sequences and singletons,  
184 and dereplicating sequences to produce amplicon sequence variants (ASVs). Owing to the high  
185 quality of the sequences obtained after Cutadapt procedure, trimming and truncating were not  
186 performed during DADA2 processing.

187

### 188 **ASV identification**

189 Symbiodiniaceae species were identified from the eDNA sequences by classifying all ASVs  
190 (Supplemental File S1) using the q2-feature-classifier (Bokulich et al., 2018) classify-sklearn Fit-  
191 Naïve Bayes taxonomy classifier against the 18S NR SILVA (release 123 Qiime compatible)  
192 97% and 99% OTU reference sequences (<https://www.arb-silva.de/download/archive/qiime/>).  
193 Stoeck et al. (2010) showed the differential increase in diversity detected when the V9 dataset is  
194 clustered at 97%, 98%, 99%, and 100% sequence similarity for the minimum expected error rate.  
195 Putative Symbiodiniaceae ASVs were then filtered from the obtained eukaryote taxonomy table  
196 (Supplemental File S2) (Table 3) and then assessed using the NCBI BLAST routine by selecting  
197 the best hit at >95% identity in the nr/nt database of NCBI (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/>,  
198 accessed on 1/19/2020, version 2.11.0). The BLAST results (Supplemental File S3) were  
199 evaluated, and reference sequences (accessions) were selected for further analyses. Additional  
200 SSU 18S Symbiodiniaceae reference sequences (accessions) representing several families in the  
201 order Suessiales, family Symbiodiniaceae were obtained from the NCBI database and the V9-

202 SSU 18S sequence reference database of TARA Ocean Expedition (Decelle et al., 2018) and Loh  
203 et al. (2006). The final compiled reference sequence database (Supplemental File S4) contained  
204 82 sequences. These reference sequences and the putative Symbiodiniaceae ASVs from the  
205 samples were then aligned with MAFFT v.7 (Katoh & Standley, 2013) (via q2-alignment),  
206 followed by masking (Rajan, 2012). A phylogenetic tree representing the evolutionary  
207 relationships of Symbiodiniaceae members was constructed using the maximum likelihood  
208 approach in the IQ-TREE v.1.6.12 (Nguyen et al., 2015) (via q2-phylogeny) with 1000  
209 bootstraps. These parameters were adopted to calculate the phylogenetic branch support scores  
210 from Shimodaira and Hasegawa approximate likelihood ratio test (SH-*alrt*) with local bootstraps  
211 (*lbt*), Bayesian (*abayes*), and ultrafast bootstraps (*ufboot*). Detailed explanations for these scores  
212 are provided in the IQ-TREE documentation (Minh et al., 2021). The best-fit substitution model  
213 TIM3 + F + R3 was chosen according to the Bayesian Information Criterion by ModelFinder  
214 applied in IQ-TREE (Kalyaanamoorthy et al., 2017). The Symbiodiniaceae taxonomic  
215 nomenclature was adopted from LaJeunesse et al. (2018). The term subclade was used instead of  
216 species because the 18S short eDNA sequence cannot be resolved to species-level for  
217 Symbiodiniaceae.

218

## 219 **Statistical analyses**

220 The relative abundance data for the putative Symbiodiniaceae taxa (Supplemental File S5) were  
221 from DADA2 results and used as input for Venn diagram and statistical analyses. Venn diagram  
222 analyses were performed using the online application in  
223 <http://bioinformatics.psb.ugent.be/webtools/Venn/> to compare the Symbiodiniaceae individuals  
224 across different locations (coastal area), eDNA source (seawater and sediment samples), and  
225 fractions (filter pore size). We determined the most commonly distributed subclades and  
226 distinctive subclades to each location/station. Statistical analyses were used to compare  
227 Symbiodiniaceae abundance, diversity, and features observed across different sites, sample  
228 types, and fractions. All these statistical analyses were carried out on Qiime2.2019.10 pipeline  
229 (Caporaso et al., 2010; Bolyen et al., 2019). Alpha diversity (observed features and Shannon's  
230 entropy) and beta diversity (Bray–Curtis dissimilarity) were estimated using q2-diversity after  
231 the samples were rarefied (subsampling without replacement) to 28 sequences per sample. The  
232 comparison of all samples were grouped by location, eDNA source, and fraction to examine  
233 differences in abundance and alpha diversity employing the Kruskal–Wallis test (Kruskal &  
234 Wallis, 1952 and beta diversity applying the Permanova test (Anderson, 2001) using 9999  
235 permutations.

236

## 237 **RESULTS**

**238 Obtained sequences, ASVs, and eukaryote classification**

239 From the 72 samples across 18 stations, DNA was successfully extracted from 41 samples at 16  
240 stations, yielding a total of 3,168,655 raw sequences and about 30,205–240,604 sequences per  
241 sample (Table 2 and Fig. S1). DADA2 yielded a total of 20,486 ASVs (Supplementary File S1).  
242 The mean length of the obtained sequences was  $127.81 \pm 22.03$  bp. The ASV classification  
243 demonstrated the potential diversity of eukaryotes in the reef waters of Lombok Island.  
244 According to the total ASVs classified to taxon level 4 from the SILVA database, the dominant  
245 taxon was unclassified eukaryotes (43.35%), followed by Metazoa (9.47%), Ochrophyta  
246 (7.83%), Dinoflagellates (4.5%), and Discicristata (4.4%) (Fig. 2).

247

**248 Symbiodiniaceae detection and classification**

249 Table 3 summarizes the results of Symbiodiniaceae classification performed using a Eukaryote  
250 classifier (Supplemental File S2) and BLAST (Supplemental File S3) and phylogenetic analyses.  
251 The probabilistic classifier detected and classified the Symbiodiniaceae taxa at the family level.  
252 Twenty-two ASVs (named OTU.sym1 to OTU.sym22) were found to be putative  
253 Symbiodiniaceae with confidence levels ranging 0.743–0.999 (Table 3). BLAST results  
254 indicated that some ASVs were neither Symbiodiniaceae nor classified at the genus level. A  
255 partial phylogenetic reconstruction of the families in order Suessiales was conducted using the

256 reference sequences obtained from the searched databases (Supplemental File S4) and the  
257 putative Symbiodiniaceae ASV sequences from the study (Fig. 3A). Only 16 out of the 22 ASVs  
258 were identified as members of the monophyletic group of the Symbiodiniaceae family clade on  
259 the basis of the score of 100/100/1/99 for SH-rlrt/lbt/abayes/ufboot. Three of the six remaining  
260 ASVs were categorized in the clades representing genera in Family Suessiaceae, two ASVs were  
261 in the *Yihiella* clade (OTU.sym11 and OTU.sym13), and one was in the *Ansanella* clade  
262 (OTU.sym20). The remaining three ASVs were designated to the Suessiaceae family but were  
263 not classified at the genus level (OTU.sym3, OTU.sym9, and OTU.sym14).

264         The Symbiodiniaceae family branch (Fig. 3B) comprised six clades, each representing  
265 one genus with strong-to-moderate support (see the scores in Table 3 and Fig. 3). This  
266 phylogenetic topology is concordant with the Symbiodiniaceae phylogeny reconstructed by  
267 Decelle et al. (2018). One ASV was allocated to each of clades *Symbiodinium* (A.sym21),  
268 *Breviolum* (B.sym18), Foraminifera Clade G (G2.sym4), and *Hallaxium* (H.sym12). Eight ASVs  
269 were designated to *Cladocopium* (C.sym1, C.sym5, C.sym7, C.sym8, C.sym10, C.sym15,  
270 C.sym16, and C.sym17), and four ASVs allocated to *Durusdinium* (D1.sym2, D1.sym6,  
271 D1.sym19, and D1.sym22).

272

273 **Symbiodiniaceae distribution and diversity**

274 Venn diagrams show the overlap of the 16 ASVs belonging to Symbiodiniaceae according to  
275 location (Fig. 4A) and sample type (media and fractions) (Fig. 4B) (see also Supplemental file  
276 S6). The presence/absence table shows the Symbiodiniaceae proportion per subclade by site–  
277 sample type–filter pore size combination (Table 4 and Supplemental file S7). This table  
278 illustrates the common and unique subclades of Symbiodiniaceae. The unique subclades were the  
279 sequences distinctive of sampling location, medium, and fraction. Three subclades were most  
280 common (C.sym1, D1.sym2, and G2.sym4), and the remaining subclades were unique (Table 4).  
281 The unique subclades (< 11.11% of subclade presence in all samples) showed site- or sample  
282 type-specificity. C.sym1 was the most common (77,78%) and was detected at more sites–media–  
283 fractions than D1.sym2 (44.44%) and G2.sym4 (33.33%). In term of medium, the sediment  
284 samples yielded more Symbiodiniaceae subclades than seawater (12 vs. 7 subclades), with nine  
285 unique ASVs found in the sediment medium.

286         On the basis of Symbiodiniaceae relative abundance, genus *Cladocopium* was the most  
287 dominant (Fig. 5). In general, the Symbiodiniaceae communities of Lombok were characterized  
288 with low alpha diversity and high beta diversity (Fig. 6). However, comparison of  
289 Symbiodiniaceae abundances, observed features, and diversity does not show significant  
290 difference between locations, media, and fractions (see Supplemental file S8).

291

## 292 **DISCUSSION**

293 The results illustrate the potential of eDNA to detect Symbiodiniaceae. The eDNA of  
294 Symbiodiniaceae can be obtained from different sources including free-living Symbiodiniaceae  
295 (Hirose et al., 2008; Littman, van Oppen & Willis, 2008) and Symbiodiniaceae living in  
296 symbioses with various host organisms (Freudenthal, 1962; Loh et al., 2006; Barneah et al., 2007;  
297 LaJeunesse et al., 2010, 2018; Pochon & Gates, 2010; DeBoer et al., 2012; Pochon, Putnam &  
298 Gates, 2014; Ramsby et al., 2017). Additionally, these eDNA sources could come from within  
299 and outside the sample site (Goldberg et al. 2016). Symbiodiniaceae DNA could be obtained  
300 from prey organism feces and through the shedding of host cells in the water and sediment (Rees  
301 et al., 2014; Grupstra et al., 2021).

302 The SSU 18S rRNA gene primer set has long been used in the biomolecular studies of  
303 Symbiodiniaceae (Rowan & Powers, 1991; Loh, Cowlshaw & Wilson, 2006). Hypervariable  
304 regions V4 and V9 isolated and then amplified by the SSU 18S rRNA gene universal primer  
305 were successful in detecting and identifying Symbiodiniaceae from water samples (Stoeck et al.,  
306 2010). This study used the same V9-SSU 18S rRNA gene primer set for oceanic planktonic  
307 Symbiodiniaceae by the Ocean TARA Expedition. The substitutions in the hypervariable  
308 terminal loop region amplified by this primer allowed us to distinguish Symbiodiniaceae genera  
309 and subclades (Decelle et al., 2018). Other primers such as ITS, LSU 28S, and chloroplast  
310 primers can be used to provide high taxonomic resolution for Symbiodiniaceae (Venera-Ponton

311 et al., 2010; Takabayashi et al., 2012; Arif et al., 2014). Nevertheless, this study succeeded in  
312 detecting and identifying Symbiodiniaceae at the genus level.

313         The use of universal eukaryote primers with eDNA samples can reveal information on  
314 the rich diversity of marine life and compensate for the high cost of next-generation sequencing  
315 (Smart et al., 2016; Bálint et al., 2018). Universal primers allow us to broadly look at the system  
316 and complete more than a single study using the same data (Madduppa et al., 2021). The lack of  
317 field blanks (non-reef sampling areas) and filter blanks (distilled water or sterile seawater  
318 samples), might influence our study results. Lack of control/blanks can lead to contamination of  
319 the eDNA source, or false-positive data. However, the comparative analyses across the given  
320 samples allowed the evaluation of the possibility of exogenous and local eDNA sources.  
321 Moreover, the presence of contaminant DNAs was likely suppressed by rinsing the instruments  
322 (e.g., bottle samples and filtering tools) with bleach to make them as sterile as possible.

323         To the authors' knowledge, this work is the first study of Symbiodiniaceae using eDNA in  
324 Indonesia and Southeast Asia. Symbiodiniaceae in the Southeast Asia region have been identified  
325 from scleractinian stony corals, sea slugs, giant clams, and other bivalves, sea anemones, sponges,  
326 zoantharians, antipatharian black corals, and *Heliopora* blue corals. At least seven  
327 Symbiodiniaceae genera have been discovered in Southeast Asia (Table 5). Various primers, such  
328 as nuclear primers, mitochondrial organelle primers, and chloroplast primers, and a range of  
329 molecular techniques such as single stranded conformational polymorphism, restriction fragment

330 length polymorphism, and denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis, have been used in the  
331 identification and characterization of the genetic diversity of Symbiodiniaceae in the region but  
332 did not detect as many genera as the present study did (see Table 5). No report was found about  
333 the genus *Effrenium* and Clade I in Southeast Asia. However, clade E (AF238261.1) in our  
334 phylogeny (Fig. 3) was assigned to clade D1 by Kimes et al. (2013). *E. voratum* is the only species  
335 from *Effrenium* that was previously described and is only found in temperate waters (Jeong et al.,  
336 2014). LaJeunesse et al. (2012) predicted that the Southeast Asia region might have a higher  
337 diversity of Symbiodiniaceae species than other regions in the world. Previous and current findings  
338 supports this prediction (Loh et al., 2006; Bo et al., 2011; DeBoer et al., 2012; Purnomo 2014).  
339 Therefore, other under-sampled coral reef areas in Indonesia should be further explored.

340         The detected Symbiodiniaceae in the study sites are probably coral endosymbionts. Some  
341 species of *Symbiodinium*, *Brevolium*, *Cladocopium*, and *Durusdinium* are the main coral  
342 endosymbiont genera, and species of *Fugacium* and *Gerakladium* are rare endosymbionts in  
343 corals (LaJeunesse et al., 2010; Rouzé et al., 2017). The main coral endosymbionts, especially in  
344 Indo-Pacific, are species of *Cladocopium* and *Durusdinium*; meanwhile members *Symbiodinium*  
345 and *Brevolium* are common in corals in the Caribbean (Baker, 2003; LaJeunesse et al., 2004,  
346 2010; LaJeunesse, 2005; Stat & Gates, 2011). Many members of *Cladocopium* (e.g., ITS2  
347 subclade C1) generally have high rates of carbon fixation, provide a high fitness benefit,  
348 translocate high amounts of carbon to host corals, and positively impact host coral growth rates.

349 By contrast, some species of *Durusdinium* tend to be opportunistic, even though they can help  
350 corals to survive or quickly recover from bleaching when sea surface temperatures rise (Stat,  
351 Morris & Gates, 2008; Stat & Gates, 2011; Lesser, Stat & Gates, 2013; Bay et al., 2016).

352 This study detected the three most common subclades, namely C.sym1, D1.sym2, and  
353 G2.sym4. These subclades may represent the most common species or types of  
354 Symbiodiniaceae. BLAST results showed that C.Sym1 was similar to *C. goreau* (99.24%),  
355 formerly clade C type C1, which is a generalist Symbiodiniaceae found in many coral hosts in  
356 the Great Barrier Reef (LaJeunesse, 2005; Bongaerts et al., 2015). The sequence of D1.sym2  
357 detected by BLAST has 100% sequence similarity with the molecular marker of *D. trenchii*, a  
358 Symbiodiniaceae species that increases the tolerance of corals to bleaching stress (Stat & Gates,  
359 2011). Previous studies have suggested the importance of a minimum density of *D. trenchii* as a  
360 minority component alongside a dominant endosymbiont from the genus *Cladocopium* in the  
361 Symbiodiniaceae community within a coral colony (Bay et al., 2016). However, Swain et al.  
362 (2017) found that each genus of Symbiodiniaceae has the potential for heat-resistant species or  
363 variants. For example, *C. thermophilum* is a thermotolerant variant of *Cladocopium* type C3  
364 (Hume et al., 2015).

365 This study fully resolved the ASV of subclade G2.sym4 within the Foraminifera Clade G  
366 (formerly clade G type G2). This genus can be isolated from the foraminifera, particularly in  
367 Subfamily Soritinae (Pochon et al., 2007). Bo et al. (2011) also isolated a subclade close to type

368 G2 from Indonesian octocorals. Foraminifera Clade G is a common endosymbiotic  
369 Symbiodiniaceae in sponges, such as bio-eroding sponge (*Cliona orientalis*) in Australia  
370 (Schönberg & Loh, 2005; Ramsby et al., 2017). However, G2.sym4 appears to be a common  
371 type and is also found in the sediment samples. Therefore, this subclade may be an  
372 endosymbiont of benthic foraminifera. Foraminifera communities around Lombok are diverse,  
373 widely distributed, and present in the seabed in shallow coastal waters around the island  
374 (Auliaherliaty, Dewi & Priohandono, 2004; Natsir, 2009, 2010; Dewi et al., 2012). However, no  
375 studies of foraminifera endosymbiotic Symbiodiniaceae in Indonesia have been published.

376         The detected *Halluxium* in this study is the first record in the Southeast Asia region. To  
377 date, *Halluxium* has only been found in Guam, Heron Island (Great Barrier Reef, Australia), and  
378 the Caribbean (Pochon, LaJeunesse & Pawlowski, 2004; Pochon et al., 2007; Nitschke et al.,  
379 2020). This genus and Clade I are generally foraminifera-specific endosymbionts. Meanwhile,  
380 *Breviolum* or *Effrenium* species living as foraminifera endosymbionts have never been reported  
381 (Pochon & Pawlowski, 2006; Pochon & Gates, 2010).

382         The richer Symbiodiniaceae subclades in sediment than in seawater indicate the potential  
383 occurrence of benthic Symbiodiniaceae. These Symbiodiniaceae can have important implications  
384 for the coral reef ecosystems of Lombok. The benthic sediment can be a source of free-living  
385 Symbiodiniaceae that live outside the host (Hirose et al., 2008; Littman, van Oppen & Willis,  
386 2008; Fujise et al., 2021). Some of these can (re-) establish stable host–algal mutualisms

387 (transient free-living), and others are true free-living, such as *E. voratum* (Yamashita & Koike,  
388 2013; Jeong et al., 2014). Some transient free-living Symbiodiniaceae can come from expelled  
389 coral endosymbionts. Corals regularly expel some of their endosymbionts into the seawater  
390 column (Fujise et al., 2014), most of which are deposited in sediments. The other source of  
391 transient free-living Symbiodiniaceae is reef fishes. Corallivorous, detritivorous, and herbivorous  
392 fishes can contribute to the release and distribution of transient free-living Symbiodiniaceae in  
393 their habitat through their feces (Castro-Sanguino & Sánchez, 2012; Grupstra et al., 2021). The  
394 availability of such Symbiodiniaceae in the environment is essential. During larval stage and/or  
395 recruitment time, most corals horizontally obtain transient free-living Symbiodiniaceae from the  
396 nearby environment (Coffroth et al., 2006; Fujise et al., 2021). The presence of such  
397 Symbiodiniaceae can also influence juvenile coral survival (Suzuki et al., 2013).

398         This study found that 13 of the 16 subclades were distinctive of different sampling  
399 locations. These subclades may represent the species or types of Symbiodiniaceae originating  
400 from local sources. Environmental genetic materials are prone to degradation (Barnes & Turner,  
401 2016), so they tend to accumulate around the source. Therefore, eDNA is representative of the  
402 local biotic genetic material. Shinzato et al. (2018) showed the feasibility of studying nearby  
403 coral species and their symbiotic algae detection using eDNA; therefore, it might also be used to  
404 monitor coral ecosystem health. However, such data must be carefully interpreted because of

405 some issues regarding the possible sources of eDNA from outside the sample site due to  
406 biological factors and human activities (Goldberg et al., 2016).

407         The eDNA method also has some limitations, such as the dependence on the presence  
408 and concentration of eDNA in the water sample, capture efficacy, extraction efficacy, sample  
409 interference (e.g., inhibition), and assay sensitivity (see Goldberg et al., 2016). Seawater eDNA  
410 samples can degrade beyond the detection threshold within 1 day to weeks (Dejean et al., 2011;  
411 Thomsen et al., 2012). Water quality conditions, such as high temperatures, neutral pH, and  
412 moderately high UV-B, tend to increase the eDNA degradation rate (Strickler, Fremier &  
413 Goldberg, 2014). However, the degradation rate of eDNA in aquatic environments is different  
414 from that in sediments. The nature and proportion of minerals, organic substances, and charged  
415 particles adsorbing eDNA fragments influence the rate of eDNA degradation in sediments and  
416 protect them from further destruction. A previous study showed that the degradation rate of  
417 eDNA in sediment is about 57 times slower than that in seawater (Torti, Lever & Jørgensen,  
418 2015; Turner, Uy & Everhart, 2015; Sakata et al., 2020). Limited information is available  
419 regarding the factors that influence the rate of symbiont DNA shed by coral reef taxa and  
420 maintained in the water column over spatial scales.

421

422 **CONCLUSIONS**

423 This study demonstrates that eDNA surveys can describe the potential diversity of  
424 Symbiodiniaceae in the reefs around Lombok. Six genera (or genera-equivalent clades) of  
425 Symbiodiniaceae were identified. eDNA survey has higher sensitivity than traditional methods  
426 and thus offer a rapid proxy for evaluating Symbiodiniaceae communities across different coral  
427 reefs. This approach can also be used to enhance the understanding of the diversity and relative  
428 ecological dominance of certain Symbiodiniaceae members. Moreover, the presence of  
429 distinctive Symbiodiniaceae individuals in different locations support the potential application of  
430 eDNA for monitoring the local and regional stability of coral–algal mutualisms. Further  
431 confirmation through isolation from a variety of sources (including possible hosts) and  
432 microscopic observations is warranted to strengthen the evidence for local eDNA sources.

433

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445

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455

##### 456 **Competing Interests**

457 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

458

##### 459 **Author Contributions**

- 460 • Arief Pratomo conceived and designed the experiments, collected and processed eDNA  
461 samples, performed laboratory work and analyzed the data, prepared figures and tables,  
462 authored or reviewed drafts of the paper, and approved the final draft.
- 463 • Dietrich Geoffrey Bengen conceived the research idea, reviewed drafts of the paper, and  
464 approved the final draft.
- 465 • Neviaty Putri Zamani conceived the research idea, reviewed drafts of the paper, and approved  
466 the final draft.
- 467 • Christopher Lane conceived the research idea, reviewed drafts of the paper, and approved the  
468 final draft.
- 469 • Erin Borbee performed laboratory work and analysed the data, reviewed drafts of the paper,  
470 and approved the final draft.
- 471 • Austin T Humphries conceived and designed the experiments, conceived the research idea,  
472 authored or reviewed drafts of the paper, and approved the final draft.
- 473 • Beginer Subhan contributed reagents/materials/analyses tools, conceived and designed the  
474 experiments, conceived the research idea, authored or reviewed drafts of the paper, and  
475 approved the final draft
- 476 • Hawis Madduppa contributed reagents/materials/analyses tools, conceived and designed the  
477 experiments, conceived the research idea, authored or reviewed drafts of the paper, and  
478 approved the final draft.

479

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490

491 **Data Availability**

492 The Fastq sequence raw data that supports the findings of this study are available at the public

493 storage with the following link: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sra/PRJNA768103> and Putative494 Symbiodiniaceae ASV sequence data: <https://trace.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Traces/sra/?study=SRP339775>.

495 Relevant analyses Code for this research analyses is available at

496 [https://github.com/arief2021/Symbio\\_Qiime2.git](https://github.com/arief2021/Symbio_Qiime2.git).

497

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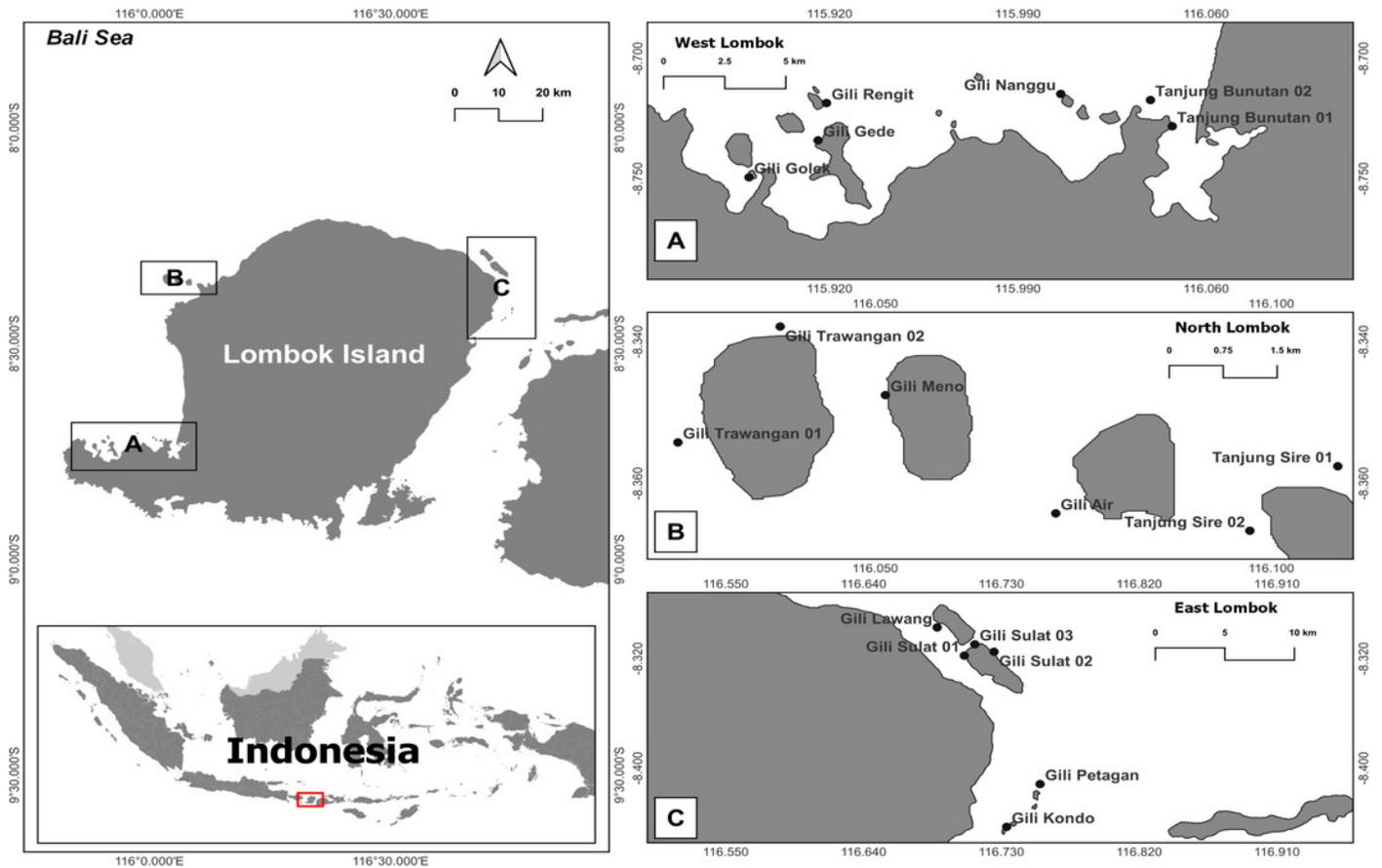
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# Figure 1

Map of the research sites around Lombok Island, Indonesia.

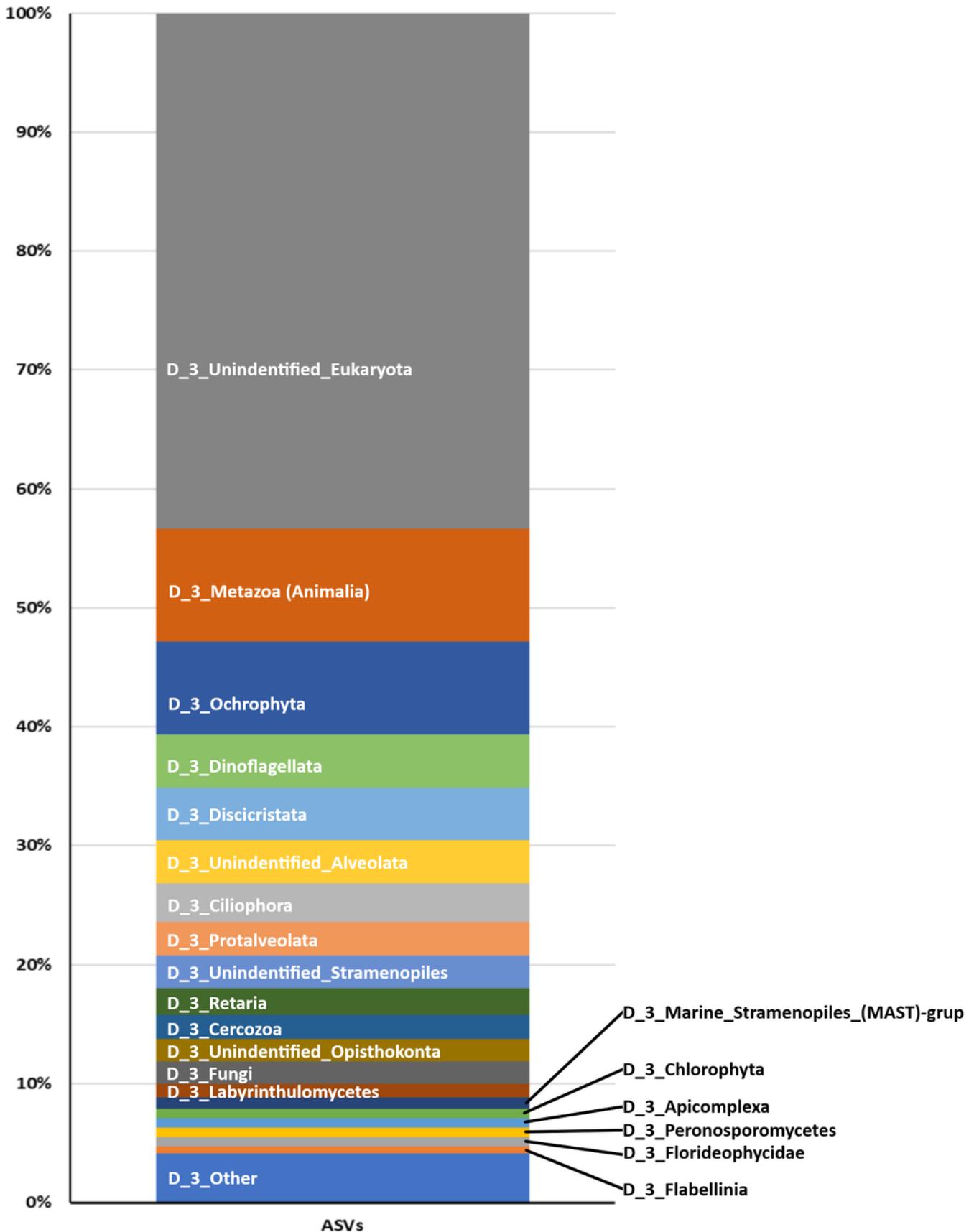
(A) West Lombok, (B) North Lombok, and (C) East Lombok.



## Figure 2

Proportion of Eukaryote taxa.

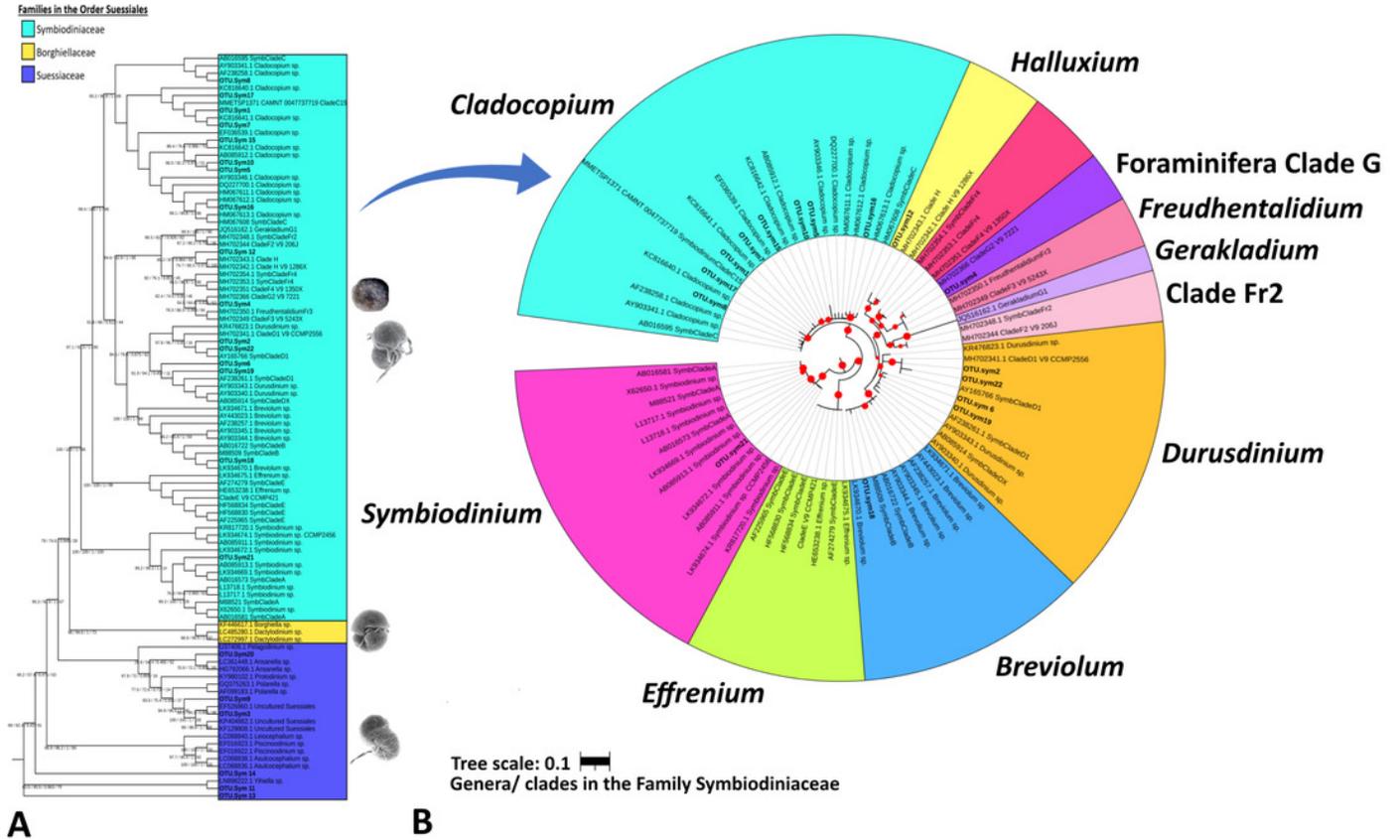
Based on the total ASVs of taxon level 4 out of 15 taxon levels according to the SILVA database ( <https://www.arb-silva.de/>).



## Figure 3

Maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree based on V9-18S rRNA gene for Order Suessiales (A) and Family Symbiodiniaceae (B).

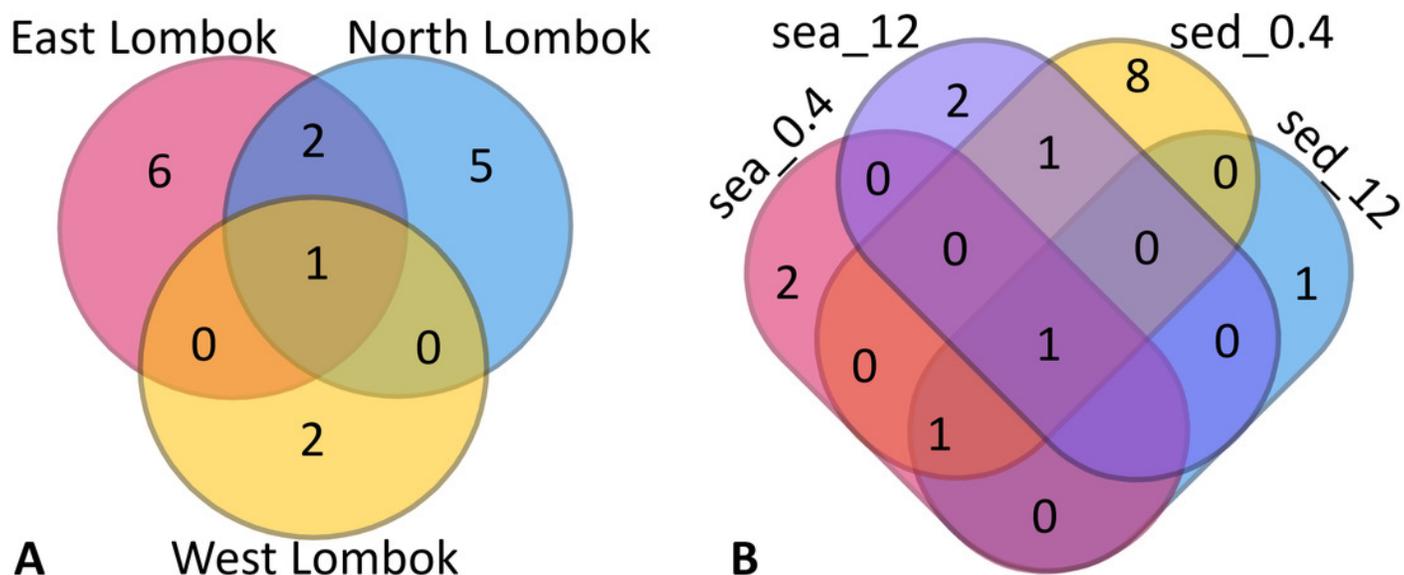
(A) Phylogeny of families in Order Suessiales. ASVs from this study (OTU.sym1–OTU.sym22) are shown in bold black font, and the branch support values represent the multi scores of SH-*alrt/lbt/abayes/ufboot*. Top: Motile stage of *Symbiodinium natans* and coccoid form of Symbiodiniaceae (source: Lajeunesse, 2020), Middle: Ventral view of *Borghiella dodgei* (source: Pandeirada, Craveiro & Calado, 2013), Bottom: Ventral view of *Polarella glacialis* (source: Montresor et al., 2003). (B) Phylogeny of genera in Family Symbiodiniaceae. ASVs are shown in bold black, and red circles represent branch support scores >50 in SH-*alrt*. Phylogenetic reconstruction was performed in IQ-TREE and visualized with iTOL ( <https://itol.embl.de/> ).



## Figure 4

Venn diagram of Symbiodiniaceae subclades around Lombok by: (A) coastal area and (B) method (sample type-filter pore size combination).

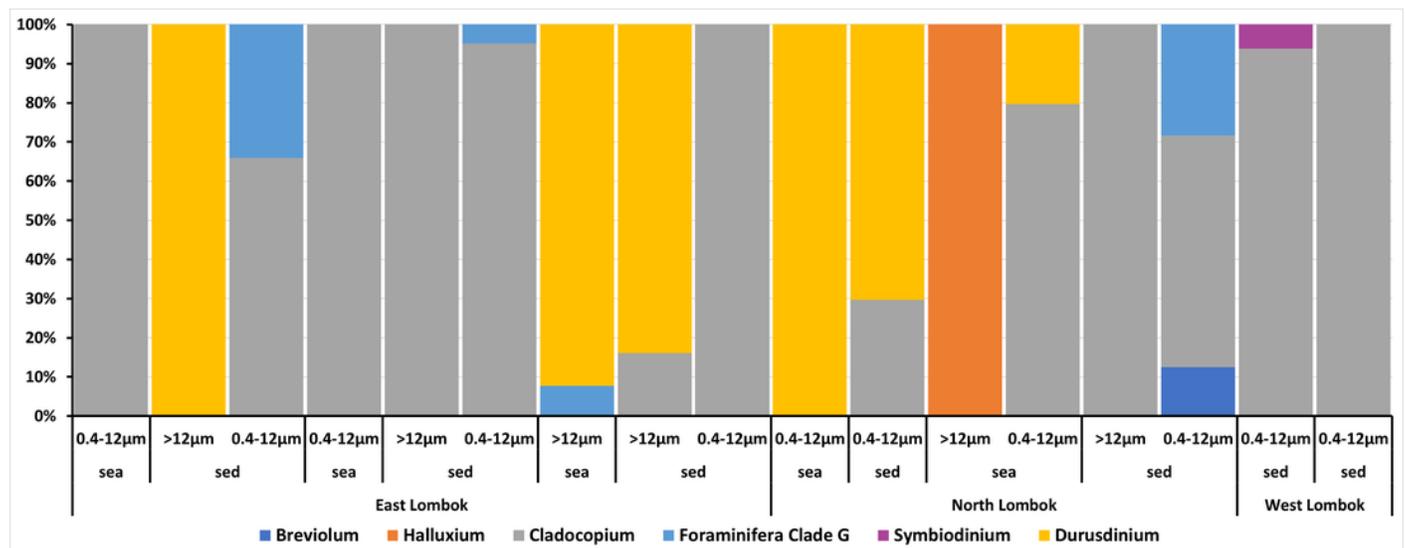
Sample labels: sea = seawater sample; sed = sediment sample; \_0.4 and \_12 indicate the pore size of the filter (in  $\mu\text{m}$ ).



## Figure 5

Composition of the relative abundance of Symbiodiniaceae communities across different sites, sample types, and fractions.

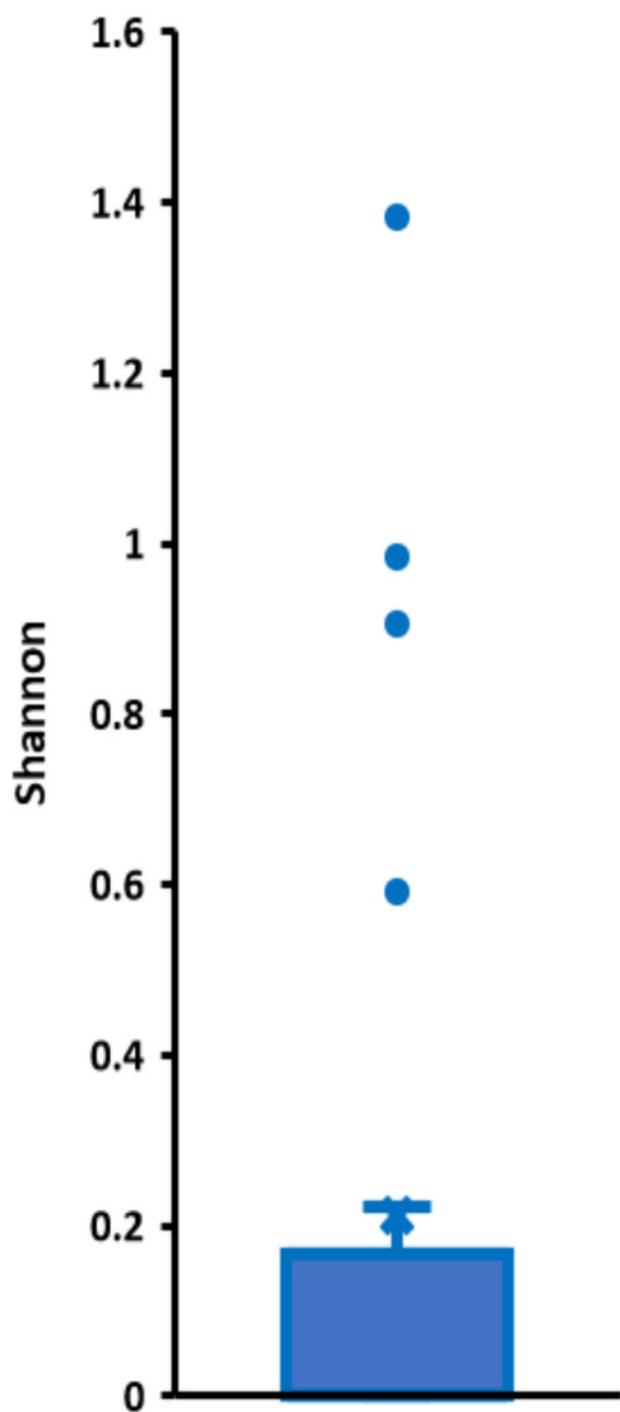
Relative abundance based on the total presence of ASV frequencies. Bar graphs represent the total percent abundance of Symbiodiniaceae detected from all samples. Sample labels: sea = seawater sample; sed = sediment sample; 0.4-12  $\mu\text{m}$  and >12 indicate the pore size of the filter (in  $\mu\text{m}$ ) sample.



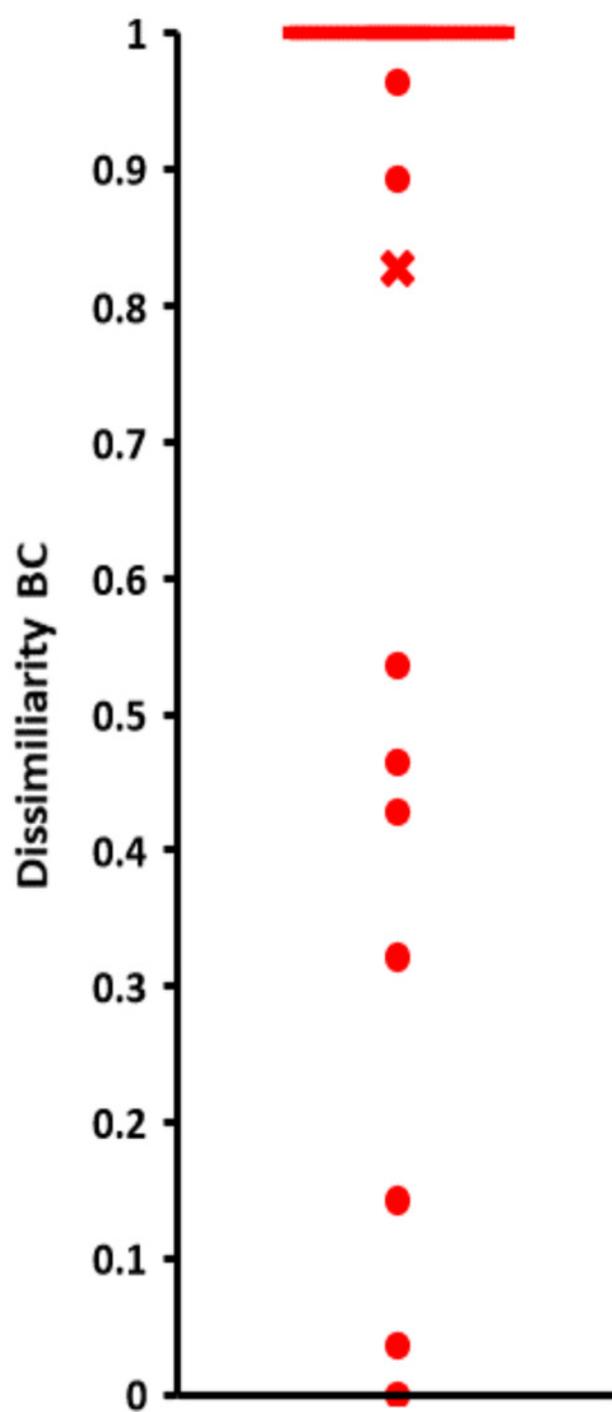
## Figure 6

Total diversity of Symbiodiniaceae in coral reefs waters around Lombok Island: (A) alpha diversity and (B) beta diversity.

Alpha diversity is indicated by Shannon index and beta diversity is represented by Bray-Curtis (BC) dissimilarity. Boxplots display the median as the midline, and the upper and lower quartiles as the top and bottom lines of the boxes, respectively. Crossing symbols indicate the mean, and circles denote the outliers.



**A** Alpha Diversity



**B** Beta Diversity

**Table 1** (on next page)

Coordinates of sampling stations at each coastal area around Lombok Island, Indonesia.

Coastal area	Station	Date	Depth (m)*	Position	
				South	East
East Lombok	Gili Sulat 01	5 July 2018	< 1	08°19.069'	116°42.355'
	Gili Lawang	6 July 2018	1.2	08°17.833'	116°41.290'
	Gili Sulat 02	5 July 2018	> 10	08°18.900'	116°43.519'
	Gili Sulat 03	5 July 2018	< 1	08°18.574'	116°42.767'
	Gili Petagan	6 July 2018	2.8	08°24.698'	116°45.324'
	Gili Kondo	6 July 2018	< 1	08°26.572'	116°44.016'
North Lombok	Gili Trawangan 01	11 July 2018	8.46	08°21.253'	116°01.505'
	Gili Air	12 July 2018	< 1	08°21.854'	116°04.369'
	Gili Trawangan 02	11 July 2018	1.4	08°20.271'	116°02.280'
	Gili Meno	11 July 2018	> 10	08°20.852'	116°03.077'
	Tanjung Sire 01	12 July 2018	4.8	08°21.455'	116°06.506'
	Tanjung Sire 02	12 July 2018	8.3	08°22.001'	116°05.840'
West Lombok	Gili Nanggu	8 July 2018	< 1	08°42.887'	116°00.362'
	Gili Rengit	9 July 2018	< 1	08°43.114'	115°55.135'
	Gili Golek	9 July 2018	< 1	08°44.967'	115°53.405'
	Gili Gede	9 July 2018	< 1	08°44.045'	115°54.945'
	Tanjung Bunutan 01	8 July 2018	> 10	08°43.693'	116°02.848'
	Tanjung Bunutan 02	8 July 2018	> 10	08°43.039'	116°02.363'

**Notes:**

\* In lowest low water level (LLWL) based on Hydrographic and Oceanographic Center, The Indonesian Navy (2007) and mean tidal range is 187 cm.

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**Table 2** (on next page)

Successfully amplified eDNA samples by sample type and filter pore size.

EB356-EB396 are the sample codes; n.a. (not available) indicates the eDNA samples were not successfully amplified; red font indicates Symbiodiniaceae were detected.

Location	Station	Seawater fraction		Sediment fraction	
		0.4 - 12 $\mu\text{m}$	>12 $\mu\text{m}$	0.4 - 12 $\mu\text{m}$	>12 $\mu\text{m}$
East Lombok	Gili Sulat 1	n.a.	EB356	EB357	EB358
	Gili Lawang	EB367	EB368	EB369	EB370
	Gili Sulat 2	EB359	EB360	EB361	EB362
	Gili Sulat 3	EB363	EB364	EB365	EB366
	Gili Petagan	n.a.	EB371	EB372	EB373
	Gili Kondo	n.a.	EB374	EB375	EB376
West Lombok	Gili Nanggu	n.a.	n.a.	EB377	n.a.
	Gili Rengit	n.a.	n.a.	EB379	n.a.
	Gili Golek	n.a.	n.a.	EB380	EB381
	Gili Gede	EB382	n.a.	EB383	n.a.
	Bunut 1	n.a.	n.a.	EB378	n.a.
	Bunut 2	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
North Lombok	Gili Trawangan 1	EB384	EB385	EB386	EB387
	Gili Air	EB396	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
	Gili Trawangan 2	EB388	EB389	EB390	EB391
	Gili Meno	EB392	EB393	EB394	EB395
	Tanjung Sire 1	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
	Tanjung Sire 2	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.

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**Table 3**(on next page)

Summary of Symbiodiniaceae classifications.

ASVs were classified using a probabilistic Bayesian method referring to SILVA database at similarities of 97% and 99%, NCBI database BLAST routine, and phylogenetic reconstruction.

**Notes:** 1 In SILVA 97%, OTU.sym13 was classified as *Symbiodinium*, but in SILVA 99%, OTU.sym13 and OTU.sym11 were classified as *Polarella*. Therefore, the further analysis considered *Polarella* as possibly belonging to the Symbiodiniaceae. 2 According to Decelle et al. (2018). 3 Non BLAST result. 4 Nearest subclade branch (see Fig. 3). \* Reference database. \*\* Confidence level. \*\*\* Percentage identity.

Methods → DB Ref.* → OTUs	Fit-Classifer-Naïve Bayes		BLAST			Phylogenetics	
	SILVA (97&99%)	Conf. rates**	Accession no.	NCBI <sup>4</sup>	%Id.***	Genera/subclades	Scores: SH-ahlr/lbt/abayes/ufboot
OTU.sym1	Symbiodinium	0.999410455	KC816641.1	<i>Cladocopium</i> sp. clade C	100	<i>Cladocopium</i> /C.sym1	93.2/90.8/1/69
OTU.sym2	Symbiodinium	0.823380237	AY165766.1	<i>Symbiodinium</i> sp. ex <i>P. briareum</i> /D1 <sup>2</sup>	100	<i>Durusdinium</i> /D1.sym2	84.5/79.8/0.875/62
OTU.sym3	Symbiodinium	0.890746449	EF526860.1	uncultured marine Eukaryote	99.24	Unclassified Suessiaceae/OTU.sym3	100/100/1/100
OTU.sym4	Symbiodinium	0.78273645	MH702366	CladeG2_V9_7221 <sup>3</sup>		Formaninifera Clade G/. G2.sym4	54.8/64.4/0.838/63
OTU.sym5	Symbiodinium	0.768964536	AB085912.1	<i>Cladocopium</i> sp. <sup>3</sup>		<i>Cladocopium</i> /C.sym5	93.2/90.8/1/69
OTU.sym6	Symbiodinium	0.993577182	AF238261.1	<i>Symbiodinium</i> sp. clade E/D1 <sup>2</sup>	99.24	<i>Durusdinium</i> /D1.sym6	84.5/79.8/0.875/62
OTU.sym7	Symbiodinium	0.995164623	KC816641.1	<i>Cladocopium</i> sp. clade C	99.24	<i>Cladocopium</i> /C.sym7	93.2/90.8/1/69
OTU.sym8	Symbiodinium	0.999188819	AF238258.1	<i>Symbiodinium</i> sp. type C	99.24	<i>Cladocopium</i> /C.sym8	93.2/90.8/1/69
OTU.sym9	Symbiodinium	0.82770918	KP404862.1	uncultured Eukaryote <sup>3</sup>		Unclassified Suessiaceae/OTU.sym9	94.9/96.6/1/91
OTU.sym10	Symbiodinium	0.925078226	AB085912.1	<i>Cladocopium</i> sp. <sup>3</sup>		<i>Cladocopium</i> /C.sym10	93.2/90.8/1/69
OTU.sym11	Symbiodinium <sup>1</sup>	0.998952834	LN898222.1	<i>Yihiella yeosuensis</i>	100	<i>Yihiella</i> /OTU.sym11	83.5/80.5/0.963/79
OTU.sym12	Symbiodinium	0.991677932	MH702343.1	<i>Symbiodinium</i> sp. clade H	97.71	<i>Halluxium</i> /H.sym12	89.2/87/0.964/83
OTU.sym13	Symbiodinium <sup>1</sup>	0.942758624	LN898222.1	<i>Yihiella yeosuensis</i>	99.24	<i>Yihiella</i> /OTU.sym13	83.5/80.5/0.963/79
OTU.sym14	Symbiodinium	0.890990315		Incertae Sedis		Unclassified Suessiaceae/OTU.sym14	68/62.4/0.43/91
OTU.sym15	Symbiodinium	0.999046044	KC816642.1	<i>Cladocopium</i> sp. clade C	99.24	<i>Cladocopium</i> /C.sym15	93.2/90.8/1/69
OTU.sym16	Symbiodinium	0.999527293	HM067612.1	<i>Symbiodinium</i> sp. 2-125/CladeC <sup>2</sup>	99.24	<i>Cladocopium</i> /C.sym16	93.2/90.8/1/69
OTU.sym17	Symbiodinium	0.987978975	MMETSPP1371	<i>Symbiodinium</i> C15 <sup>3</sup>		<i>Cladocopium</i> /C.sym17	93.2/90.8/1/69
OTU.sym18	Symbiodinium	0.997997906	LK934670.1	<i>Breviolum minutum</i>	99.24	<i>Breviolum</i> /B.sym18	100/100/1/99
OTU.sym19	Symbiodinium	0.994027696	AF238261.1	<i>Symbiodinium</i> sp. clade E/D1 <sup>2</sup>	99.24	<i>Durusdinium</i> /D1.sym19	84.5/79.8/0.875/62
OTU.sym20	Symbiodinium	0.742593275	LC361448.1	<i>Ansanella natalensis</i>	98.47	<i>Ansanella</i> /OTU.sym20	26.8/54.4/0.465/52
OTU.sym21	Symbiodinium	0.978735399	AB085913.1	<i>Cladocopium</i> sp. <sup>3</sup>		<i>Symbiodinium</i> /A.sym21	100/100/1/100
OTU.sym22	Symbiodinium	0.977772371	AY165766.1	<i>Symbiodinium</i> sp. ex <i>P. briareum</i> /D1 <sup>2</sup>	100	<i>Durusdinium</i> /D1.sym22	84.5/79.8/0.875/62

1 **Notes:**2 1 In SILVA 97%, OTU.sym13 was classified as Symbiodinium, but in SILVA 99%, OTU.sym13 and OTU.sym11 were classified as *Polarella*.3 Therefore, the further analysis considered *Polarella* as possibly belonging to the Symbiodiniaceae.

4 2 According to Decelle et al. (2018).

5 3 Non BLAST result.

6 4 Nearest subclade branch (see Fig. 3).

7 \* Reference database

8 \*\* Confidence level

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\*\*\* Percentage identity

**Table 4**(on next page)

List of Symbiodiniaceae proportion per subclade based on present/absent analysis by site-sample type-filter pore size combination.

Symbiodiniaceae types considered as “common” were  $\geq 33.33\%$  in the presence of all sample combinations, and unique were  $< 33.33\%$  in the presence of all sample combinations.

Sample label: ESea0.4 indicate site-sample type-filter pore size combination of East Lombok\_Sea Water\_0.4-12  $\mu\text{m}$ ; ESea12: East Lombok\_Sea Water\_>12  $\mu\text{m}$ ; ESed0.4: East Lombok\_Sediment\_0.4-12  $\mu\text{m}$ ; ESed12: East Lombok\_Sediment\_>12  $\mu\text{m}$ ; NSea0.4: North Lombok\_Sea Water\_0.4-12  $\mu\text{m}$ ; NSea12: North Lombok\_Sea Water\_>12  $\mu\text{m}$ ; NSed0.4: North Lombok\_Sediment\_0.4-12  $\mu\text{m}$ ; NSed12: North Lombok\_Sediment\_>12  $\mu\text{m}$ ; WSed0.4: West Lombok\_Sediment\_0.4-12  $\mu\text{m}$ .

Intersection inter site-sample type-fraction	Proportion per subclade (%)	Total	Subclades	Type
ESea0.4/Esed0.4/Esed12/NSea0.4/NSed0.4/NSed12/WSed0.4	77.78	1	C.sym1	Common
ESea12/ESed12/NSea0.4/NSed0.4	44.44	1	D1.sym2	Common
ESea12/Esed0.4/NSed0.4	33.33	1	G2.sym4	Common
ESea0.4	11.11	1	C.sym16	Unique
ESea12	11.11	1	D1.sym6	Unique
ESed0.4	11.11	3	C.sym7	Unique
	11.11		C.sym17	Unique
	11.11		C.sym10	Unique
ESed12	11.11	1	C.sym8	Unique
NSea0.4	11.11	1	D1.sym19	Unique
NSea12	11.11	1	H.sym12	Unique
NSed0.4	11.11	3	D1.sym22	Unique
	11.11		C.sym15	Unique
	11.11		B.sym18	Unique
WSed0.4	11.11	2	A.sym21	Unique
	11.11		C.sym5	Unique

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**Table 5** (on next page)

Comparison of Symbiodiniaceae studies in Indonesia and Southeast Asia region.

Geographic scope	Sample type(s)	Identification Method(s)	Genera	Reference(s)
<b>Indonesia:</b>				
Sulawesi	Sea slugs ( <i>Pteraeolidia ianthina</i> )	SSU 18S rRNA, LSU 28S rRNA, Single Stranded Conformational Polymorphism (SSCP)	<i>Cladocopium</i> , <i>Durusdinium</i>	Loh et al. 2006
West Sumatra	Anthipatharian black corals ( <i>Cirrhopathes</i> sp.)	ITS2 rRNA, LSU 28S rRNA, denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis (DGGE), restriction fragment length polymorphisms (RFLPs)	<i>Gerakladium</i>	Bo et al. 2011
Papua & West Papua	Giant clams ( <i>Tridacna</i> spp.)	ITS2 rRNA, DGGE	<i>Symbiodinium</i> , <i>Breviolum</i> , <i>Cladocopium</i>	DeBoer et al. 2012
Central Java	Scleractinian corals, sea anemones, <i>Tridacna</i> sp.	SSU 18S rRNA, RFLPs	<i>Symbiodinium</i> , <i>Breviolum</i> , <i>Cladocopium</i> , <i>Durusdinium</i>	Purnomo 2014
West Nusa Tenggara	Seawater, sediment	V9-SSU 18S rRNA	<i>Symbiodinium</i> , <i>Breviolum</i> , <i>Cladocopium</i> , <i>Durusdinium</i> , <i>Gerakladium</i> , <i>Halluxium</i>	This Study
<b>Southeast Asia:</b>				
Palau	Sponges (porifera), giant clams ( <i>Tridacna</i> spp.), other bivalves (cardiids), foraminifera ( <i>Amphisorus hemprichii</i> )	SSU 18S rRNA, RFLPs	<i>Symbiodinium</i> , <i>Cladocopium</i> , <i>Durusdinium</i>	Carlos et al. 1999
	Scleractinian corals	ITS1 rRNA, SSCP	<i>Cladocopium</i> , <i>Durusdinium</i>	Fabricius et al. 2004
	Scleractinian corals ( <i>Porites cylindrica</i> )	ITS2 rRNA, psbA <sup>ncr</sup>	<i>Cladocopium</i> , <i>Durusdinium</i>	Kurihara et al. 2021
Singapore	Sea slugs ( <i>Pteraeolidia ianthina</i> )	SSU 18S rRNA, LSU 28S rRNA, SSCP	<i>Cladocopium</i> , <i>Durusdinium</i>	Loh et al. 2006
	Zoantharians	mt 16S rRNA, mt COI, ITS rRNA	<i>Cladocopium</i> , <i>Durusdinium</i>	Reimer and Todd 2009
	Scleractinian corals ( <i>Porites lutea</i> )	ITS2 rRNA	<i>Symbiodinium</i> , <i>Cladocopium</i> , <i>Durusdinium</i>	Tan et al. 2020

Malaysia	Scleractinian corals ( <i>Porites lutea</i> )	ITS2 rRNA	<i>Symbiodinium</i> , <i>Cladocopium</i> , <i>Durusdinium</i>	Tan et al. 2020
Thailand	Scleractinian corals, <i>Corallimorpharia</i> sp., sea anemones (Actiniidae & Stichodactyliidae), soft coral (Alcyonidae & Nephtheidae), gorgonian ( <i>Gorgonia</i> sp.), giant clams ( <i>Tridacna crocea</i> ), Zoantharia ( <i>Palythoa</i> sp.)	ITS1 rRNA, ITS2 rRNA, DGGE, microsatellite,	<i>Symbiodinium</i> , <i>Cladocopium</i> , <i>Durusdinium</i> , <i>Fugacium</i> , <i>Gerakladium</i>	LaJeunesse et al. 2010
Philippines	Giant clams ( <i>Hippopus hippopus</i> & <i>Tridacna crocea</i> )	SSU 18S rRNA, RFLPs	<i>Symbiodinium</i>	Carlos et al. 1999
	<i>Heliopora</i> blue corals ( <i>Heliopora coerulea</i> )	SSU 18S rRNA, RFLPs	<i>Cladocopium</i>	Taguba et al. 2016
	Scleractinian corals ( <i>Acropora</i> spp.)	ITS2 rRNA, DGGE	<i>Cladocopium</i>	Ravelo and Conaco 2018
	Scleractinian corals	ITS2 rRNA, DGGE	<i>Cladocopium</i> , <i>Durusdinium</i>	Da-anoy et al. 2019
South China Sea	Scleractinian corals	LSU 28S rRNA	<i>Cladocopium</i> , <i>Durusdinium</i>	Tong et al. 2018
Timor-Leste	Scleractinian corals	mt cob, psbA <sup>ncr</sup>	<i>Cladocopium</i> , <i>Durusdinium</i>	Brian et al. 2019