# An updated assessment of *Symbiodinium* that associate with common scleractinian corals from Moorea (French Polynesia) reveals high diversity among background symbionts and a novel finding of clade B. (#9263)

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## An updated assessment of *Symbiodinium* that associate with common scleractinian corals from Moorea (French Polynesia) reveals high diversity among background symbionts and a novel finding of clade B.

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The adaptative bleaching hypothesis (ABH) states that depending on the symbiotic flexibility of coral hosts (i.e., the ability of corals to "switch" or "shuffle" their algal symbionts), coral bleaching can lead to a change in the composition of their associated Symbiodinium community, and, thus, contribute to the coral's overall survival. In order to determine the capacity by which corals may be flexible, molecular tools are required that can provide ecise systematic inferences, and detect low levels of coral-associated Symbiodinium. Here, we used highly sensitive quantitative (real-time) PCR (qPCR) technology to analyse five common coral species from Moorea (French Polynesia), that were previously only screened using conventional molecular methods, to assess the presence of low-abundance (background) Symbiodinium. Similar to other studies, each coral species exhibited a strong specificity to a particular clade, irrespective of the environment. In addition, however, each of the five species harboured at least one additional Symbiodinium clade, among clades A-D, at background levels. Unexpectedly, and for the first time in French Polynesia, clade B was detected as a coral symbiont. These results increase the number of known coral-Symbiodinium associations from corals found in French Polynesia, and likely indicate an underestimation of the ability of the corals in this region to associate with and/or "shuffle" different Symbiodinium clades. Altogether our data suggest that corals from French Polynesia may manage a trade-off between optimizing symbioses with a specific Symbiodinium clade(s), and maintaining associations with particular background clades that may play a role in the ability of corals to respond to environmental change.

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#### ABSTRACT

The adaptative bleaching hypothesis (ABH) states that depending on the symbiotic flexibility of coral hosts (i.e., the ability of corals to "switch" or "shuffle" their algal symbionts), coral bleaching can lead to a change in the composition of their associated *Symbiodinium* community, and, thus, contribute to the coral's overall survival. In order to determine the capacity by which corals may be flexible, molecular tools are required that can provide precise systematic inferences, and detect low levels of coral-associated Symbiodinium. Here, we used highly sensitive quantitative (real-time) PCR (qPCR) technology to analyse five common coral species from Moorea (French Polynesia), that were previously only screened using conventional molecular methods, to assess the presence of low-abundance (background) Symbiodinium. Similar to other studies, each coral species exhibited a strong specificity to a particular clade, irrespective of the environment. In addition, however, each of the five species harboured at least one additional Symbiodinium clade, among clades A-D, at background levels. Unexpectedly, and for the first time in French Polynesia, clade B was detected as a coral symbiont. These results increase the number of known coral-Symbiodinium associations from corals found in French Polynesia, and likely indicate an underestimation of the ability of the corals in this region to associate with and/or "shuffle" different Symbiodinium clades. Altogether our data suggest that corals from French Polynesia may manage a trade-off between optimizing symbioses with a specific Symbiodinium clade(s), and maintaining associations with particular background clades that may play a role in the ability of corals to respond to environmental change.

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#### INTRODUCTION

The foundation of coral reefs is based on the symbiotic association between scleractinian
corals and dinoflagellates in the genus Symbiodinium. Molecular phylogenetic analyses currently
subdivide Symbiodinium into nine clades (A-I), each divided further into sub-clades or types
based on various molecular techniques (reviewed in Pochon, Putnam & Gates, 2014). However,
corals most commonly associate with Symbiodinium in clades A-D (reviewed in Baker, 2003),
and, in few cases, with members of clades F and G (LaJeunesse et al., 2010; Putnam et al., 2012;
Lee et al., 2016). Symbiodinium is assumed to provide up to 95% of the energy required for coral
metabolic activities (Muscatine & Porter, 1977; Davy, Allemand & Weis, 2012), mostly due to
their photosynthetic activity (i.e., production of carbohydrates). In return, the algae benefit by
receiving a protected habitat from predation, and a source of inorganic nutrients derived from the
host's metabolism. However, this symbiosis can break down, depending on the degree of
resistance of either partner, in response to various stressors that may include natural and/or
anthropogenic sources [e.g., increasing seasurface temperatures, ocean acidification, and
sedimentation; (Pandolfi et al., 2011)].
The overall fitness of a coral colony depends on the biological and functional traits of the
various organisms that comprise the coral holobiont, [i.e., the coral host, its Symbiodinium
assemblages (Mieog et al., 2009b), and other associated microorganisms (e.g. bacteria) (Neave et
al., 2016)]. Moreover, some eoral-Symbiodinium partnerships are characterized as having
different sensitivities to environmental conditions, which can be correlated to specific biological
characteristics such as morphology (van Woesik et al., 2011). For example, the massive coral
Porites predominately associates with a thermally tolerant Symbiodinium, type C15 (Fitt et al.,
2009; Fabricius et al., 2011), and has been shown to exhibit increased resistance to
environmental stressors such as temperature anomalies (Penin, Vidal-Dupiol & Adjeroud, 2012),

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69 and experience lower mortality and/or bleaching rates compared to those observed for branching 70 corals such as *Acropora* and *Pocillopora* (Penin, Vidal-Dupiol & Adjeroud, 2012). To date, both 71 in situ (e.g. Rowan et al., 1997; Baker, 2003; Berkelmans & Van Oppen, 2006; Sampayo et al., 72 2008) and in vitro physiological studies (e.g. Banaszak, 2000; Kinzie et al., 2001; Hennige et al., 73 2009) suggest that Symbiodinium elades are characterized by intrinsic physiological properties 74 that enable them to be differentially suited for various environmental conditions. 75 Spatial partitioning of different Symbiodinium clades may occur within a single coral colony depending on the the colony and/or solar irradiance (Rowan et al., 1997). In 76 77 addition, coral-Symbiodinium associations may be diverse, and can include either mono or multi-78 clade associations (Fabina et al., 2012; Silverstein, Correa & Baker, 2012). Moreover, these 79 assorted Symbiodinium assemblages have been described in different coral colonies from the 80 same species (Cunning, Glynn & Baker, 2013), during coral ontogeny (Abrego, Van Oppen & 81 Willis, 2009), and/or in 'normal' vs. 'stressful' environmental conditions (e.g. seawater 82 temperature anomalies) (Berkelmans & Van Oppen, 2006). Symbiodinium in clade D have been 83 identified as the predominant algal symbiont in resistant coral colonies during and after massive bleaching events, and/or, more generally, in reefs exposed to local stressors such as 84 85 sedimentation and eutrophication (Van Oppen et al., 2001; Ulstrup & Van Oppen, 2003; LaJeunesse et al., 2010, 2014; Cooper et al., 2011). These observations highlight the importance 86 87 of coral-Symbiodinium associations with respect to thermo-tolerant eapacity (Berkelmans & Van 88 Oppen, 2006; Stat, Carter & Hoegh-Guldberg, 2006; LaJeunesse et al., 2009). Consequently, it 89 has been proposed that corals with flexible associations among various Symbiodinium clades (or 90 types), those that result in a range of host-Symbiodinium associations, may contain an ecological



advantage in the context of environmental change, and is the foundation of the 'Adaptive Bleaching Hypothesis' (ABH) (Buddemeier & Fautin, 1993).

The ABH asserts that there is potential for rapid 'adaptation' of corals facing stressful conditions by a dynamic modification of their *Symbiodinium* community composition either by i) the acquisition of resistant *Symbiodinium* clades from free algae present in the environment (i.e., 'switching') or ii) repopulation by background pre-existing resistant *Symbiodinium* clades (i.e., 'shuffling'). Therefore, in the context of the ABH, coral flexibility (the ability of a coral species to associate with multiple *Symbiodinium* types) is of the utmost importance, and has led to the characterization of coral hosts as either 'specialists' (associating with a specific *Symbiodinium* clade) or 'generalists' (associating with multiple *Symbiodinium* clades) (Fabina et al., 2012; Putnam et al., 2012; Silverstein, Correa & Baker, 2012).

The development of molecular tools with highly sensitive detection capacities such as real-time quantitative PCR (qPCR), which is up to 1000 times more sensitive than conventional methods (e.g. cloning, DGGEs, RFLP) (Mieog et al., 2007), allows for the detection of background symbionts (in addition to the dominant symbionts), and provides a measurable degree of host flexibility among corals (Silverstein, Correa & Baker, 2012). As a result, some studies have suggested that corals may be more flexible than previously thought (Mieog et al., 2007, 2009a; Silverstein, Correa & Baker, 2012). The goal of this study was to investigate the degree of flexibility in host-symbiont partnerships among particular coral species from the under-explored Moorea island in French Polynesia using qPCR. Coral flexibility, considered here as the ability of a coral species to associate with multiple *Symbiodinium* clades or types in different proportions, and which represents one of the main conditions of the ABH, was tested. The presence of *Symbiodinium* clades A-F was quantified among five coral species,



Acropora cytherea, Acropora pulchra, Pocillopora damicornis, Porites rus and Pavona cactus.
 Although each coral species displayed a high degree of specificity to a dominant Symbiodinium
 clade, all of the coral species hosted multiple Symbiodinium clades in low abundance, including
 partnerships never recorded in French Polynesia.

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#### MATERIALS & METHODS

#### Choice of coral species

Five coral species, chosen among the most common scleractinian coral genera from the Pacific: Pocillopora (P. damicornis type β sensu Schmidt-Roach et al., 2014; Genbank reference xx-xx), Acropora (A. cytherea and A. pulchra), Porites (P. rus) and Pavona (P. cactus), were collected from a fringing reef with a depth 0.5-2.0 m off Moorea island in French Polynesia (17°30'9S, 149°50'9W) (Fig. 1). These five coral species display different biological traits, and were among corals characterized as having varying resistance during severe local bleaching events in 2002 and 2007 (Penin, Vidal-Dupiol & Adjeroud, 2012). Acropora is considered the "sentinel" coral genus, described as having high sensitivity to environmental stressors (e.g. McClanahan et al., 2007; Penin et al., 2007; Penin, Vidal-Dupiol & Adjeroud, 2012). Conversely, the genus *Porites* was chosen for its high resistance to stress (e.g. Kayal et al., 2012; Penin, Vidal-Dupiol & Adjeroud, 2012), living in a wide range of various habitats on the island (e.g., sedimentary bays). Finally, the last two genera, *Pocillopora* and *Pavona*, were chosen because they are considered to have intermediate degrees of sensitivity (Penin, Vidal-Dupiol & Adjeroud, 2012). All of the coral species were sampled during the dry season between August and October 2012, P. damicornis (N=27), P. rus (N=21) and A. cytherea (N=16) were sampled in greater



proportions compared to *A. pulchra* (N=6) and *P. cactus* (N=7). Sampling was performed among five contrasting fringing reefs from the lagoon of Moorea island: Mahareapa (Ma) and Vaiare (Va) are exposed to anthropogenic influence, and Teavaro (Te), Linareva (Li) and Tiahura (Ti) are more isolated from human activities (Nahon et al. 2013; Rouzé et al., 2015).

#### **DNA** extraction

Small coral fragments (0.5-1 cm<sup>3</sup>) were sampled from several areas of the top of each coral colony, were directly placed into a tube underwater, and immediately transferred at the surface into a new 1.5 mL centrifuge tube containing 80% ethanol. All samples were stored at -20°C until DNA extraction. Prior to extraction, all of the ethanol was discarded and the sample was gently rinsed with sterile freshwater to eliminate all traces of mucus. This allows for better targeting of *Symbiodinium* present in the host tissues.

Total coral DNA (i.e., *Symbiodinium*, polyps, and associated micro-organisms) was extracted using a CTAB-based extraction protocol adapted from Mieog *et al.* (Mieog et al., 2009a). To increase the efficiency of DNA extraction, coral samples were incubated in 600 μL of extraction buffer CTAB 2% (2% CTAB, 1.4 M NaCl, 20 mM EDTA pH 8, 100 mM Tris-HCl pH 8 and 20 μg/mL proteinase K). They were then exposed to 3 cryo-shock cycles (5 min in nitrogen liquid following by 10 min at ambient temperature), and incubated at 60°C overnight while rotating. Next, the CTAB buffer was recovered and placed into new tube in which 600 μL of chloroform/iso-amyl alcohol (24:1 vol/vol) was added. The resulting solution was mixed thoroughly and centrifuged for 15 min at 12000 g (4°C). The aqueous phase was then transferred to a new tube and mixed with 600 μL of isopropanol at 0°C and incubated for 20 min at -20°C. After a new round of centrifugation, the supernatant was discarded and the pellet rinsed with



500  $\mu$ L of 70% ethanol. After a final centrifugation of 10 min at 12000 g, the ethanol was removed and the DNA pellet air-dried before dilution in 100  $\mu$ L sterile water (Sigma). All DNA samples were then stored at -40°C.

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#### qPCR assay

Primer set assessment

Six primer sets optimized for the amplification of nuclear ribosomal 28S in Symbiodinium clades A-F (Yamashita et al., 2011), and one coral-specific 18S primer set for the coral host (i.e., polyps) used. The 18S coral host primers (univPolyp-18SF: 5'were ATCGATGAAGAACGCCAGCCA-3' and univPolyp-18SR: 5'CAAGAGCGCCATTTGCGTTC-3') were designed with Primer 3 (Untergasser et al., 2012) from the 18S rDNA sequence alignment (276 sequences) of 18 coral species that are among the most abundant genera found in French Polynesia (Porites spp., Pocillopora spp., Acropora spp., Montipora spp., and Poyona spp.) as well as Symbiodinium clades as negative controls.

The quality of the different primer sets for qPCR was confirmed using the evaluation of indicators of specificity and efficiency. Firstly, the specificity of the symbiont and host primer sets were verified with DNA from cultured *Symbiodinium* strains [available from the BURR Collection (http://www.nsm.buffalo.edu/Bio/burr/); clade A: CasskB8 and Flap1, B: Pe and Flap2, C: Mp, D: A001 and A014, E: RT383 and F: Sin and Pdiv44b], and with coral DNA from various species (*Acropora*: *A. pulchra, A. cytherea, A. hyacynthus*; *Pocillopora*: *P. damicornis*, *P. verrucosa*, *P. meandrina*; *Porites rus*; *Pavona cactus*; *Montipora* spp. and *Fungia* spp.). A percentage of specificity (Sp: expected with target / unexpected with non-target region) of the symbiont-specific primer sets was calculated according to the formula: Sp= 1- ∑ (100/2<sup>(Cti-Ctx)</sup>),



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where Cti and Ctx are Ct obtained from a specific primer set (Cti) and from other primer sets (Ctx) on the same targeted DNA sample. Secondly, the efficiency of the different primer sets was estimated from the standard curve method based on the log-linear regression of the Ct values with 10-fold serial dilutions of the DNA over 7 concentrations. For both Symbiodinium and the coral host, the matrix for dilution was based on a series of known DNA concentrations. In order to mimic multiclade associations and/or the DNA complexity, the matrix was performed by a mixture of several DNA extracts equally concentrated for Symbiodinium (70 ng of each clades A-F; one reference strains per clade; clade A: CasskB8, B: Pe, C: Mp, D: A001, E: RT383 and F: Sin), and the coral host (on 1/ mixture multi-specific: 50 ng of the ten coral species mentioned above or 2/ mixture mono-specific: 50 ng of five DNAs from the same coral species for P. damicornis, P. rus or A. cytherea). Additionally, for Symbiodinium the standard curve method was applied on a series of known 28S rDNA copy numbers (amplified DNA for clades A-F; Supplementary method), or a series of known cell densities of clade A, C and D isolated from the coral hosts (clade B was not available; Supplementary method). Percentage of efficiency (100% of efficiency indicates that the amount of PCR product doubles during each cycle) was the ratio of the observed slope and the expected slope (-3.322) of the log-linear regression. In addition, the standard curves of efficiency for each corresponding primer set denoted sensitivity, which corresponded to the threshold of Ct ranges to insure an accurate amplification (i.e., the limits of the detectable log-linear range of the PCR).

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#### Quantification of Symbiodinium in coral hosts

Once validated, the absolute quantification of each *Symbiodinium* clade (from A to F) was normalized within coral hosts allowing the comparison between different coral DNA



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samples and the evaluation of the *Symbiodinium* densities. For each coral DNA sample, a value

of polyp unit was estimated by the 18S copy quantification using the standard curve equation

(Fig. S1b) in order to normalize the quantification of the Symbiodinium clades in 28S copy

number, or in cell number per unit of 18S polyp.

All qPCR assays were conducted on a MX3000 Thermocycler (Stratagene) using SYBR-Green. Each reaction was performed, in a final volume of 25 µL containing: 12.5 µL of Brillant® SYBR Green Master Mix reagent, 2.5 µL of both reverse and forward primers diluted at the concentration of 4 µM, and 10 µL of DNA at various concentrations for standard curve analysis or at 1 ng.uL-1 for field sample analysis. The following run protocol was performed: 1 cycle of pre-incubation of 10 min at 95°C; 40 cycles of amplification: 30s at 95°C, 1 min at 60°C or 64°C for Symbiodinium and coral host respectively, and 1 min at 72°C; and a final step, for melting temperature curve analysis, of 1 min at 95°C, 30s at 60°C and 30s at 95°C. Each sample was analysed twice on the same plate, as one technical replicate, and averaged when the variation between both Ct values was not exceeding 1 (if not, samples were re-processed until ΔCt<1). An interplate calibrator (i.e., positive control with known concentrations and Ct values: mixture of DNA from Symbiodinium clades A-F), tested in triplicate (one technical replicate), was added to each plate to calibrate Ct values (performed manually on the MxPro software to set the fluorescent threshold to a fixed Ct value) among different plates of coral DNA samples. Positive amplifications were taken into account only when both technical replicates produced Ct values inferior to the estimated threshold ranges (i.e., limit sensitivity to insure an accurate quantification; Table S1) after correction with the interplate calibrator. In addition, all melting curve analyses ensured the specificity of the amplifications (Table S1). For new partnerships between Symbiodinium clade(s) and coral species, we further purified the qPCR products (~100



bp) using QiaEx II Gel Extraction Kit (Qiagen GmbH, Hilden, Germany) and sequenced in both directions [GATC Biotech (Cologne, Germany)].

#### Statistical analysis

For each *Symbiodinium* clade, positively quantified in coral DNA, the symbiont/host ratio (i.e., S/H ratio) were log+1 transformed for further analyses. Slopes, intercepts, and the Pearson correlation coefficient (R<sup>2</sup>) were evaluated and compared by pairwise comparisons with Student's t-tests.

Discriminant analysis of principal components (DAPC) on S/H ratios, available for the 5 coral species, was performed in R (package ade4) in order to characterize their preferential endosymbiotic assemblages and densities. Therefore, the discrimination represented by ellipses was applied through the coral species as factor.

#### **RESULTS**

#### Validation and optimization of qPCR assay

For all clade-specific primer sets, the specificity of each qPCR assay was greater than 98%, and was characterized by a unique melting temperature (Table S1), confirming the high accuracy of each primer set to its targeted sequence. All clade-specific primers yielded a good fit linear regression with similar efficiencies close to the desired efficiency of 100% (95-101%; Table S1), strong linear correlations (R<sup>2</sup> > 0.985; Fig. S1) between Ct and concentrations of DNA template, and no significant differences among slopes. This indicates that the increase in clade-specific *Symbiodinium* quantity is directly proportional to the number of amplification cycles regardless of whether the tests were performed on DNA from either *Symbiodinium* culture



strains (Table S1 and see Yamashita et al. 2011), purified PCR products (Fig. S1a), or from counted *Symbiodinium* cells (Fig. S2). The sensitivity of the clade-specific primers allowed two groups of primer sets to be distinguished. Pairwise comparisons of the intercepts (Student's ttest, p<0.05) between the standard regression lines of 28S amplicons (Fig. S1a) showed earlier detection of the primers specific to clades A, B, E and F ( $i = 16.36\pm0.39$ ; Fig. S1a) when compared with the clade-specific primers to clades C and D ( $i = 19.83\pm0.27$ ; Fig. S1a). From the *Symbiodinium* cell extraction, clade D sensitivity was significantly different from clades A and C (Student's t-tests, pairwise comparisons of slopes: D/A P < 0.005 and D/C P = 0.104; intercepts: D/A P < 0.001 and D/C P = 0.015; Fig. S2). The threshold of 28S copy number estimation for each clade A-F, evaluated by the absolute quantification of *Symbiodinium* clades, was effective under 200 copies of the gene (Table S1 and Fig. S1a).

Similarly, the specificity of the coral-specific primer set was confirmed with positive amplifications from 10 coral species and no amplifications with *Symbiodinium* DNA. In addition, the amplification of multi (mixture of 10 coral species) vs. mono-specific (mixture of P. rus, P. damicornis or A. cytherea) mixes with the coral-specific primer set yielded a good fit linear regression with similar efficiencies that were close to the desired efficiency of 100% (101%; Table S1b), contained strong linear correlations ( $R^2 > 0.99$ ; Fig. S1b) between Ct and concentration of DNA template, and demonstrated no significant differences among linear correlation slopes and intercepts (Student's t-tests, pairwise comparisons among the 4 DNA mixes: P > 0.05). In order to consider the higher complexity of multi-partner coral DNA, we used for subsequent analyses relationships performed on multi-specific mixes of Symbiodinium and coral hosts to quantify the different Symbiodinium clades in coral DNA samples.



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#### Diversity and flexibility of dominant vs. background Symbiodinium clades

Symbiodinium clades A, C and D (among the tested clades A-F) were detected at least once in association with each of the five coral species studied, except for P. cactus which was never found associated with clade A (Fig. 2). The expression of these clades either by 28S copy number or by cell density displayed similar order of magnitudes when present, whatever the species (Fig. 2A, B). For some coral species, this represents novel associations for corals from for Moorea: clade C for both Acropora species, A. cytherea and A. pulchra, clade D for P. cactus, and clades A and D for P. rus (Table 1). The corresponding 28S sequences for these novel coral-Symbiodinium partnerships revealed the presence of lineages within sub-clades: A13, C15, C1, and D1 (Table 1; Fig. S3). In addition, Symbiodinium clade B was detected in P. damicornis (N=2; Fig. 2), albeit in low abundances equivalent to 26 and 183 copies of 28S (4.25 and 6.21 in log+1, respectively Fig. 2A). However, no relationship was available to estimate this clade's cell number. The presence of clade B was confirmed by a match to a sequence within the sub-clade B1 (Genbank reference: XX). Two pht profiles in temperature melting curves were obtained with clade C amplification for P. rus. Their sequences showed that each profile corresponded to two distinct lineages within sub-clades (Fig. S3): C1 (Tm~82.95°C; Genbank reference: XX-XX) and C15 (Tm~83.5°C; Genbank reference: XX-XX). In subsequent analyses of the Symbiodinium community composition, each clade was expressed by 28S copy number per unit of coral 18S in order to cover clades A-F. The S/H ratio calculation displayed intra and inter-specific variation of the total Symbiodinium densities harbored within the host (Fig. 2A), either for a specific clade or from the total Symbiodinium density (all clade(s) included).



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The occurrence of clades A, B, C, and D led to fifteen possible theoretical patterns among which nine have been observed previously, including assemblages of three clades together (Fig. 2): ACD (A. cytherea and A. pulchra), BCD (P. damicornis) or ABC (P. damicornis). However, Symbiodinium patterns that include clade B as either a unique clade (B) or as an additional clade (BA, BC, BD, BAD and ABCD) have never been recorded. The absolute quantification of each clade through the S/H ratio led to an estimation of their relative proportion within the coral host (Fig. 2C), and allowed for the their classification as either dominant (>5 %) or background clade(s) (≤5 %; Table 2). Symbiodinium clade B, only detected in P. damicornis, was always characterized as background regardless of the clade pattern (0.0002-0.0009% of the Symbiodinium communities; Table 2), and was systematically associated with at least clade C. All of the other three clades (A, C and D) were observed at least once as background clades, depending on the species and on the clade pattern. For example, clade A was occasionally background in P. rus with an AC-pattern (0.0001 % within Li-05 and 0.002 % within Va-03), and was frequently observed as background in A. cytherea (<2 %; Table 2). Clade D was background in P. rus (0.026 % within Va-05) or P. cactus (0.003 % within Ti-05) with a CDpattern. Clade C was observed as a background clade only once in P. damicornis with a CDpattern (0.04 % within Li-01). In some corals, different Symbiodinium clades occurred in elosed proportions. For example, clades C (51.07 %) and D (48.93 %) within P. damicornis (Li-02; Fig. 2C) exhibited a BCD-pattern, and clades A (57.13 %) and D (42.87 %) showed AD-pattern within A. cytherea (Va-03; Fig. 2C).

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#### Selective coral-Symbiodinium partnerships



The discriminant analysis of principal components (DAPC; Fig. 3) on the five coral
species showed compositional differences among associated communities of Symbiodinum
according to clade identity and to their density in the host. The first axis (43.9 % of total
variance) of the DAPC opposed Symbiodnium communities characterized with higher clade D
density (Pearson's corelation: $P < 0.001$ , $t = 15.7$ ) from communities composed with higher
clade C density (Pearson's correlation: $P < 0.001$ , $t = -21.5$ ) and/or clade B (Pearson's
correlation: $P = 0.01$ , $t = -2.5$ ) densities. Clade D was strongly representative of P. damicornis
Symbiodinium communities (100 % of coral colonies sampling), nearly always appearing as a
unique clade (24/27 = 89 %; Fig. 2). In contrast, P. rus (18/21 = 85.7 %; Fig. 2) and P. cactus
(6/7 = 85.7 %; Fig. 2) colonies were nearly exclusively composed of mono-clade C communities.
However, one P. cactus colony also associated with clade D (Fig. 2), underlying a larger
variation range of the density of the associated symbiotic communities (wide size of discriminant
ellipse, Fig. 3). The second axis (24.9 % of total variance) of the DAPC differentiated
Symbiodinium communities was composed of clade A (Pearson's correlation: $P < 0.001$ ,
t = 11.4), and was comprised of both Acropora species. These two species mainly associated
with multi-clade communitities (A. cytherea: 81% and A. pulchra: 67 %) and were distinguished
by a second preferential clade in addition to clade A (Figs. 2, 3): D for A. cytherea (AD and
ACD patterns $11/16 = 68.8 \%$ ) and C for A. pulchra (AC and ACD patterns $4/6 = 66.7 \%$ ).

#### **DISCUSSION**

This study analysed the *Symbiodinium* communities of five abundant coral species from Moorea (*A. cytherea*, *A. pulchra*, *P. damicornis*, *P. cactus* and *P. rus*), and found *Symbiodinium* clades A, C and D (from the six clades tested, A-F) in all of the species except *P. cactus*, which



342 was never observed in association with clade A. This is congruent with previous observations 343 that have described these 3 Symbiodinium clades as the principal clades inhabiting scleractinian 344 corals (Van Oppen et al., 2005). In contrast, while Symbiodinium clade B was commonly 345 reported in Caribbean corals (Rowan et al., 1997; Diekmann et al., 2003; Pettay & Lajeunesse, 346 2007; Cunning, Silverstein & Baker, 2015) it was rarely reported in corals from the Central 347 Pacific (e.g., LaJeunesse, 2001). This study is the first record of clade B found among corals 348 from French Polynesia (see previous studies by Magalon, Flot & Baudry, 2007; Putnam et al., 349 2012). Clade B was detected exclusively as a background population in P. damicornis, and 350 genotyped as belonging to sub-clade B1. Coincidentally, among the few detections of 351 Symbiodinium clade B in corals to date (e.g. LaJeunesse, 2001; Silverstein, Correa & Baker, 352 2012; Lee et al., 2016), lineages of B1 were found in association with P damicornis in Hawaii 353 (LaJeunesse, 2001). In addition, clade B has also been found in Moorea, but as a symbiont with 354 the nudibranch Aeolidiella alba (Wecker, Fournier & Bosserelle, 2015). 355 The rarity and low abundance of B1 lineages in corals from Moorea may be consistent with a 356 previous report in which a B1 type was found to opportunistically associate with bleached 357 Siderea siderastrea following a coral bleaching event (LaJeunesse et al., 2009). However, a 358 recent study by Lee et al. (2016) found clade B (type B2) to commonly reside in the host tissues 359 of Alveopora japonica. Alternatively, although corals rarely associate with clade B, the function 360 of this symbiosis may represent an, as of yet, unknown ecological niche. However, given the 361 rarity of this association, the significance of this partnership it likely to have minor physiological consequences on the host's survival (e.g. sensitivity to thermal stress; Loram et al., 2007). 362 363 The qPCR assays revealed that each of the four clades A-D could be detected at least 364 once at a background level (i.e.,  $\leq 5\%$ ), a finding that is consistent with previous studies (e.g.



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366 number of known background clades, and presents novel partnerships between corals and Symbiodinium (e.g. P. rus with clades A or D). However, some coral-Symbiodinium pairs were 367 368 not recovered. For example, P. cactus was not found to associate with clade A, and P. rus, 369 P. cactus and the Acropora spp. were not detected with clade B. Alternatively, this could be due  $\mathfrak{D}_0$ to a limited sampling effort among some of the corals (e.g., 6 A. pulchra sampled), rather than a 371 selective exclusion by the host species with particular Symbiodinium by cellular recognition 372 mechanisms (Silverstein, Correa & Baker, 2012; Davy, Allemand & Weis, 2012). While a 373 majority of background clades were only occasionally detected within some coral species (e.g., 374 clades A and D in P. rus or clade B in P. damicornis) the presence of clade A in low abundance 375 in A. cytherea was nearly exclusive. Consequently, and in this case, the ability of corals to 376 harbour multi-clade Symbiodinium communities at background levels may represent a meaningful ecological function that could influence holobiont resistance (Berkelmans & Van 377 378 Oppen, 2006; Mieog et al., 2007). Indeed, background clades support the potential for dynamic 379 ecological strategies (e.g., switching vs. shuffling), as described in the ABH, that could lead to a 380 rapid selective mechanism of tolerant coral-Symbiodinium partnerships in response to environmental change (Buddemeier & Fautin, 1993; Baker, 2003). Despite the observed increase in variation among *Symbiodinium* clade associations for the six 382 383 coral species studied, each species was restricted to a particular dominant or background 384 Symbiodinium clade(s). For example, Clade A was exclusively observed (>95 %; Fig. 1) in the 385 Symbiodinium assemblages associated with both Acropora species, either as a background clade

or as dominant clade. Similarly, other coral species exhibited a principal association to a

particular clade: either exclusively, as with clade C in P. rus and clade D in P damicornis, or

Mieog et al., 2007; Silverstein, Correa & Baker, 2012). In addition, this study increases the



 $\mathfrak{P}_0$ 

dominant, as with clade C in *P. cactus*. Similar to the study by Putnam et al. (2012), which investigated a wide range of various fringing reefs during different seasons (i.e., dry season in this study *vs.* April: wet season), our findings also support *Symbiodinium* specialization to particular clades (LaJeunesse et al., 2008; Stat et al., 2009). The few exceptions of the multiclade associations found for *P. damicornis* or *P. cactus*, could be explained by a punctual acquisition of *Symbiodinium* clades (Muscatine, 1973; Yamashita et al., 2011), but is unlikely due to the spatial *variation* of *Symbiodinium* within host colonies (e.g. Rowan & Knowlton, 1995) given our standardized sampling method. Overall, our findings are consistent with corals as 'specialists' (low flexibility: specific to particular symbiont(s)) or 'generalists' (high flexibility: associated to various symbionts). To further explore symbiont diversity in corals, similar fine-scale molecular approaches (e.g., qPCR, next generation sequencing; see Barbrook, Voolstra & Howe, 2014) should be performed on a wide range of coral species throughout a large geographic range.

The association of coral species with specific clade(s) in this study is consistent with previous reports of stable partnerships between coral hosts and subsets of *Symbiodinium* (e.g. Thornhill et al., 2006, 2009; Suwa, Hirose & Hidaka, 2008; Rouzé et al., 2016). Such symbiotic specificity is derived from the 'winnowing' of multiple symbiont types initially present in the host (Nyholm & Mcfall-Ngai, 2004). This process occurs in many mutualisms (e.g. legume-zhizobial bacteria: Hirsch, Lum & Downie, 2001; squid-luminous bacteria: Nyholm & Mcfall-Ngai, 2004), and consists of a complex series of molecular recognition interactions between the host and the symbionts. It is likely that the specific partnerships observed between corals and *Symbiodinium* are derived from various biological traits (Yost et al., 2013), as well as different physiological and ecological attributes among *Symbiodinium* clades (Kinzie et al., 2001;



Berkelmans & Van Oppen, 2006; Hennige et al., 2009; Baker et al., 2013) that ultimately lead to 412 the ecological success of distinct holobionts. For example, the high resistance of *Porites* to a 413 variety of stressors could be explained, in part, by its stable association with Symbiodinium type C15 (Putnam et al. 2012). This symbiont has been characterized as thermally tolerant 414 (LaJeunesse et al., 2003; Fitt et al., 2009) and more resilient to extreme environmental conditions 415 416 compared to other clade C types (LaJeunesse et al., 2003), which may have contributed to an 417 ecological radiation of this Symbiodinium type throughout the Indo-Pacific (LaJeunesse, 2005; Pochon et al., 2007). In this study, and similar to a previous report by Putnam et al. (2012), 418 419 P. cactus always associated with Symbiodinium in clade C. However, it is likely belonging to 420 type C1 (GenBank reference: XX-XX; Putnam et al. 2012) which is described as thermo-421 sensitive (Deschaseaux et al., 2014), and that could explain the lower resistance to environmental 422 conditions of the species. Similarly, the ecological sensitivity of branching corals from the 423 genera Acropora and Pocillopora could be explained, in part, by their specialization with Symbiodinium clade A, type A1 (Putnam et al. 2012) and A13, and Ode D, type D1/D1a 424 425 (Putnam et al. 2012) respectively. In some cases, Symbiodinium belonging to these clades have 426 been reported as nominal contributors to host metabolism [e.g., growth and reproduction (Little, Van Oppen & Willis, 2004; Jones & Berkelmans, 2010) and/or nutrition (Stat, Morris & Gates, 427 2008; Cantin et al., 2009; Baker et al., 2013)]. 428 The specialization of coral hosts to particular Symbiodinium clades likely represents a 429 430 driver resulting in stable mutualisms, initiated from selective pressure, that enhances the benefits 431 of specific symbiosis by co-evolution (Douglas, 2008; Thornhill et al. 2014). However, this specificity is contrasted with the detection of additional clades, at trace levels, within the five 432 coral species examined. Lee et al. (2014) suggest that low abundance 'background' 433



Symbiodinium populations are not necessarily mutualistic but can reflect a transient relative
abundance in the surrounding environment, such as non-directional ingestion by polyps leading
to ephemeral symbiont shifts (LaJeunesse et al., 2009; Stat et al., 2009; Coffroth et al., 2010).
However, the frequent association of Acropora corals with clade A in low abundance in this
study may represent an ecological advantage for the coral or example, <i>Symbiodinium</i> in clade F
were never found in the host tissues of the five coral species examined, despite F being detected
in the surrounding environment (Supplementary data: Fig.S4), and described as a dominant
symbiont within veral coral hosts (e.g., Alveopora japonica: Lee et al., 2016). This suggests a
combination of physiological controlled process(es) among the coral host and its background
Symbiodinium communities. Therefore, two opposite selection pressures may be co-occuring: i)
the optimization of a symbiosis with a specific clade(s) and/or ii) the maintenance of the ability
to integrate several different (but not all) clades in low abundance that could yield an overall
benefit to the coral holobion.

Symbiodinium present in low abundance play an ecological role for the holobiont over time, and to further explore the processes that may govern the maintenance of Symbiodinium in low

Altogether, these findings emphasize the need to better understand whether those

abundance in addition to the dominant symbioses that occur with particular clades.

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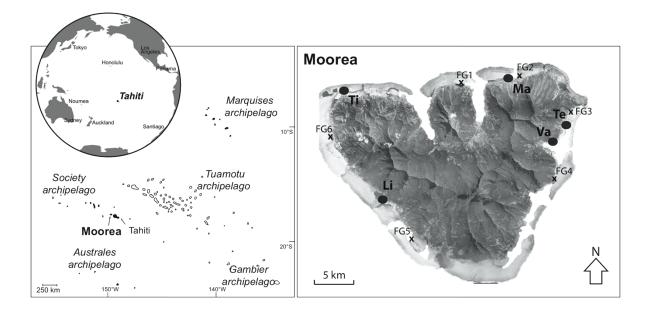
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**Figure 1** Map of Moorea island (Archipelago of society, French Polynesia) and the locations of the fringing reefs studied (black circles). Locations with an "x" indicate the sites investigated previously by Putnam et al. (2012). Vaiare (Va), Teavaro (Te), Maharepa (Ma), Tiahura (Ti) and Linereva (Li).







673	Figure 2 Quantitative composition of different Symbiodinium clades observed in association
674	with ACYT: A. cytherea, APUL: A. pulchra, PCAC: P. cactus, PDAM: P. damicornis and
675	PRUS: P. rus based on: (A) 28S copy number estimation (B) cell number estimation and (C)
676	clade proportions within coral hosts: the grey circles represent the presence of background clades
677	under a 5% threshold (dashed line).

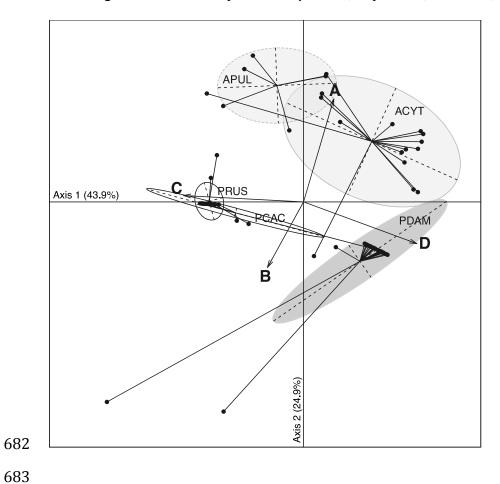




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**Figure 3** Spatio-temporal multivariate analysis of clade A-D quantifications converted in 28S copy number. Axis 1 and 2 of the discriminant analysis of principal component (DAPC) according to the five coral species: *A. cytherea*, *A. pulchra*, *P. cactus*, *P. damicornis* and *P. rus*.



**Table 1** Comparative census of *Symbiodinium* clades and types associated with common coral species from Moorea (*A. cytherea*, *A. pulchra*, *P. damicornis*, *P. cactus*, and *P. rus*) detected in a previous report by Putnam et al. 2012 [1] *vs.* the present study.

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Corol angeles	Previous report [1]		Present study		
Coral species	clade(s)	type	clades	* type	* accession nos
A. cytherea	A, D	A1, D1	A, C*, D	* C1	XX
A. pulchra	A, D	A1, D1	A, C*, D		
P. damicornis	A, C, D	DA, A1, C15	A, B*, C, D	* B1	B: XX
P. rus	C	C15	A*, C**, D*	*: A13, D1; C15, **:C1	A: XX, C: XX; D: XX
P. cactus	C	C1, C3, C45	D*	*: D1, **C1	C: XX-XX, D: XX

<sup>\*</sup> novel detected clade from this study

<sup>\*\*</sup> new type of previously reported clade

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691 Table 2 Proportion of background clades identified within the coral hosts A. cytherea,

692 A. pulchra, P. cactus, P. damicornis and P. rus.

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Species	Coral ID	Backgrou	Background clade proportion		
	Li-02	A = 0.0012%	-		
	Li-03	A = 0.0005%			
	Li-04	A = 1.5718%			
	Va-01	A = 0.7750%			
	Va-02	A = 0.1496%			
4 .1	Va-04	C = 3.0797%	A = 0.2089%		
A. cytherea	Va-05	A = 0.3314%			
	Te-02	A = 0.0242%			
	Te-03	C = 1.5921%			
	Te-04	A = 0.1931%			
	Te-05	A = 0.8460%			
	Te-06	A = 0.7958%			
	Ti-04	C = 5.0116%			
A. pulchra	Ti-05	A = 0.2073%			
•	Ti-06	D = 0.7418%	A = 0.3984%		
P. cactus	Ti-05	D = 0.0029%			
	Li-01	C = 0.0380%			
P. damicornis	Li-02	B = 0.0002%			
	Ti-01	B = 0.0009%	A = 0.0002%		
	Li-05	A = 0.0001%			
P. rus	Va-03	A = 0.0020%			
	Va-05	D = 0.0259%			

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