2	Bird's	Head Seascape (Papua and West Papua, Indonesia)
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Title: Strong genetic structure among coral populations within a conservation priority region, the Bird's Head Seascape (Papua and West Papua, Indonesia)

Abstract: Marine Protected Areas (MPAs) are widely considered to be one of the best strategies
available for protecting biodiversity and ecosystem processes in marine environments,

particularly in developing, tropical nations. While data on connectivity and genetic structure of 26 27 marine populations are critical to designing appropriately sized and spaced networks of MPAs, such data are rarely available. Here we present an assessment of genetic structure in reef-28 29 building corals from Papua and West Papua, Indonesia, among the most biologically diverse and least disturbed coral reef regions in the world, and the focus of the multi-institutional Bird's Head 30 Seascape initiative to design and implement a functional network of MPAs. Microsatellite 31 32 variation was assessed within and among populations of *Pocillopora damicornis* (Linnaeus, 33 1758) and Seriatopora hystrix (Dana 1846) (family: Pocilloporidae) from three regions, each 34 currently under a different conservation regime: Teluk Cenderawasih, Raja Ampat, and 35 southwest Papua. Analyses of molecular variance, assignment tests, and genetical bandwidth mapping revealed significant local-scale structure in both species, and a lack of regional filters to 36 gene flow. Overall, *P. damicornis* populations were less structured (FST = 0.139, p < 0.00001) 37 38 than those of S. hystrix (FST = 0.357, p < 0.00001). In order to maintain connectivity within and 39 among regions, coral reef conservation on the local scale is needed. These data have been 40 directly applied to the design of a MPA network in the Bird's Head Seascape.

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47 Introduction

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Comprising only a small fraction of the surface of the Earth's oceans, coral reefs are the world's 49 50 most biologically diverse marine ecosystems (Connell 1978, Reaka-Kudla 1997). Despite the 51 ecological and economic importance of coral reefs, they are rapidly declining worldwide due to 52 human influence (Hoegh-Guldberg et al. 2007). Within the past few decades, 19% of the world's coral reefs have been destroyed and 15% are now at risk of imminent collapse in the next 10 to 53 20 years (Wilkinson 2008), with rates of decline that exceed those of tropical rain forests (Bruno 54 55 and Selig 2007). Two thirds of the Caribbean and over 85% of Southeast Asian coral reefs are 56 considered under threat (Burke et al. 2012)

Most troubling in these declines is the dramatic reduction in the abundance of reef-building 59 corals (order: Scleractinia) threatening the very foundation of coral reef ecosystems. For 60 61 example, the Coral Triangle (a region comprised of the Philippines, Malaysia, Indonesia, Papua 62 New Guinea, the Solomon Islands, Brunei Darussalam, and Timor-Leste) has the highest 63 proportion of 'Vulnerable' and 'Near Threatened' coral species based on IUCN Red List Criteria (Carpenter et al. 2008). Anthropogenic loss of corals and the degradation of coral reef 64 65 environments are severely impacting the long term stability of coral communities (Adams and 66 Ebersole 2010, Hughes et al. 2010) creating an urgent need for coral-focused conservation, 67 especially within the Coral Triangle (Burke et al. 2012)

69 Marine protected areas (MPAs) are considered one of the best methods for protecting species 70 diversity and ecosystem processes and functions. Despite their demonstrated effectiveness 71 (Levitan and McGovern 2005), only 2% of the world's coral reefs are within MPAs with 72 adequate conditions for the conservation of biodiversity (Mora et al. 2006). Given that this 73 amount is far less than the recommended 20-30% (Mora et al. 2006), the recent and projected 74 growth of MPAs in the coming years increases the need for sound marine conservation science. While understanding connectivity has been identified as critical to developing long-term 75 76 conservation strategies for marine ecosystems (Botsford et al. 2001, Cowen et al. 2006, Crowder 77 et al. 2000, Palumbi 2003), it remains among the most crucial gaps in scientific knowledge 78 necessary for marine conservation (Sale et al. 2005). In addition, genetic diversity has rarely 79 been incorporated in international biodiversity conservation policy (Laikre 2010).

Coral reefs in the provinces of Papua and West Papua, Indonesia, (Figure 1) collectively referred 81 to as the 'Bird's Head Seascape' (BHS), are among the most diverse and pristine in the world 82 83 (Allen 2008) and rank as the Indonesian government's number one priority region for marine 84 biodiversity conservation development (Huffard et al. 2012a). This region is also the focus of the 85 multi-institutional Bird's Head Seascape initiative, comprised of NGOs and universities working 86 with local governments to design and implement an ecosystem-based management plan that has 87 as its centerpiece a network of MPAs that span the entire Bird's Head Seascape (Mangubhai et 88 al. 2012). Therefore, understanding patterns of genetic connectivity among populations of coral reef animals within this region has been an ongoing research priority for the past seven years. 89 90 Results from genetic studies, including this one, have been fed directly into MPA network 91 planning and design in the Bird's Head Seascape even before many of these studies were
92 formally published (Huffard et al. 2012b).

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94 Here we present fine scale spatial genetic patterns in *Pocillopora damicornis* (Linnaeus, 1758) 95 and Seriatopora hystrix (Dana 1846), two scleractinian coral species that represent opposite ends 96 of the genetic connectivity spectrum. We use analytical methods specifically designed for low and uneven sample sizes (necessary for investigators focusing on rare and threatened species) to test for limits to connectivity among the coral reefs of the Bird's Head Seascape, a region designated a top conservation priority within the Coral Triangle, and to test the hypothesis that populations of *P. damicornis* will be more open with lower levels of genetic structure, while *S.* hystrix will exhibit higher genetic structure, resulting from more limited dispersal (Starger et al. 2010). We also hypothesize that these populations have undergone recent declines given the threatened nature of many Indonesian coral reefs. Our results improve our understanding of 104 genetic structure of coral populations in remote and understudied areas while providing useful 105 data for managers currently developing conservation strategies for the globally significant Bird's 106 Head Seascape.

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Recent reports from Australia, Kenya and the Eastern Pacific have revealed previously unknown genetic diversity within *P. damicornis* and *S. hystrix* and some have suggested that this genetic variation may represent cryptic species (e.g. Souter 2010, Pinzón and LaJeunesse 2011, Schmidt-Roach et al. 2012, Pinzón et al. 2013). Despite these findings, most of the evidence for cryptic coral species presented in these publications is derived a limited number of molecular loci and no quantitative morphology resulting in poorly supported phylogenetic reconstructions and no clear

114 delimitations of cryptic species. In addition, studies rarely incorporate known sister taxa in a 115 phylogenetic context except for Souter (2010), who tested East African P. damicornis against 116 congeners from Hawai'i and the Tropical Eastern Pacific, and Bongaerts et al. (2010), whose 117 analysis of S. hystrix and S. caliendrum recovered S. hystrix as a monophyletic clade with 118 marginal evidence of reproductive isolation among depth-distributed types. Furthermore, some 119 of these recent methods, such as the use of symbiosis ecology to delineate coral species (Pinzón and LaJeunesse 2011), are already being invalidated (Cunning et al. 2013). Clearly not enough 120 data currently exist to reject the null hypothesis that the original species designations are still valid and that our population genetic study and others (e.g. Ayre and Hughes 2004, Starger et al. 2010, Combosch and Vollmer 2011, Nir et al. 2011, Paz-Garcia et al. 2012) also remain valid.

Methods

127 Species identification and site selection

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129 Coral samples were identified in the field using the species identification criteria and key of 130 Veron (2000). Samples included in the present study (Table 1) were collected from three remote 131 and relatively undisturbed regions within the Bird's Head Seascape that are currently under 132 different conservation management plans and that also represents distinct 'coral ecoregions' 133 based on coral species composition (Veron et al. 2009): Raja Ampat, Teluk Cenderawasih, and 134 Southwestern Papua (Figure 1). The coral reefs of Raja Ampat lay off the western most tip of the 135 island of New Guinea and are at the center of the Bird's Head Seascape. Human threats are 136 minimal but increasing, and include destructive and unsustainable fishing (Varkeya et al. 2010)

and terrigenous pollution from logging and coastal development (McKenna et al 2002, Burke etal. 2012, Mangubhai et al. 2012).

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There are currently 12 actively managed MPAs in the BHS ranging in size from 5000 to 141 1,453,500 ha and covering a total area of 3,594,702 ha (see Figure 1 and Table 2 in Mangubhai 142 et al. 2012). A network of seven marine protected areas was first designated in Raja Ampat in 143 May, 2007 and expanded in 2009 to cover a total of 1,125,940 ha, approximately 50% of Raja 144 Ampat's shallow reef areas, with MPAs ranging in size from 53,100 ha to 343,200 ha and the 145 spacing between MPAs ranging from 20-100 km (Mangubhai et al. 2012). To the east of Raja 146 Ampat is Teluk Cenderawasih, wherein lies the Taman Nasional Teluk Cenderawasih (TNTC, or 147 Cenderawasih Bay National Park), an MPA covering 1,453,500 ha and approximately 30% of 148 the reefs of Teluk Cenderawasih (Figure 1). To the Southwest, the Kaimana MPA covers all of 149 Kaimana's jurisdictional waters (597,747 ha) (Mangubhai et al. 2012).

151 Located along the New Guinea Coastal Current that flows westward toward Raja Ampat (Morey 152 et al. 1999, Nof 1995), Teluk Cenderawasih may serve as a larval source for Raja Ampat. 153 Alternatively, connectivity may be restricted due to the relatively sheltered nature of the bay, 154 (DeBoer et al. 2008, Crandall et al. 2008, Wallace et al. 2011, Allen and Erdman 2012) limiting water and larval movement to outside populations. Although the reefs of Lemon, Adoki and Owi 155 156 islands are technically not in Teluk Cenderawasih, they do lie within the 'Cenderawasih Bay' 157 coral ecoregion (Veron et al. 2009) and are therefore pooled with reefs within the bay for our analysis. On the southern coast of the Bird's Head Seascape lie Fakfak and Kaimana. Recent 158 159 surveys in this region by Conservation International revealed a diverse and highly endemic fauna (Allen 2008), and both the local and national governments are now committed to developing newMPAs in the region to protect this diversity (Huffard et al. 2012b).

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163 *Genetic analysis*

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A subset of previously published allele frequency data from Starger et al. (2010) was used to test new hypotheses for the Bird's Head Seascape using new analytical methods. Briefly, Starger et al. (2010) analyzed specimens from across Indonesia, including the Bird's Head Seascape, as possible source populations for the recovery of coral genetic diversity in the Sunda Strait following the 1883 eruption of the volcano Krakatau. For the present study, we used truncated allele frequency data files from Starger et al. (2010) to focus only on the populations of the Bird's Head Seascape to address entirely different research questions. We subsequently employed new analysis methods to estimate connectivity and genetic diversity of these populations to inform an ongoing conservation initiative in the region that aims to promote a network of marine protected areas based on scientific data.

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In order to test the hypothesis that significant genetic variation exists among sample locations, data from the Bird's Head Seascape (Table 1) were analyzed for each species with AMOVA (Excoffier et al. 1992) as implemented in Arlequin 3.5.1.2 (Excoffier and Lischer 2010) assuming no regional genetic structure among sample locations. Hierarchical AMOVA was then performed to test the significance of the three coral ecoregions (Veron et al 2009): Raja Ampat, Teluk Cenderawasih, and Southwestern Papua. The significance of this structure was tested with 20,000 random permutations using both the infinite alleles model (IAM, represented by F statistics, (Weir and Cockerham 1984)) and the distance-based, stepwise mutation model of
microsatellite evolution (SMM, represented by *R* statistics, (Slatkin 1995)). Only those
populations with ten or greater unique genotypes were considered in AMOVA calculations.

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To examine genetic structure without *a priori* assumptions of population membership, we employed spatial and non-spatial Bayesian assignment methods implemented in BAPS 5.3 (Corander et al. 2008, Corander and Marttinen 2006) as described by Starger et al. (2010). Genetic structure and admixture were also assessed using the individual-based assignment test implemented in the program Structure 2.2.2 (Hubisz et al. 2009, Falush et al. 2003, Pritchard et al. 2000) using the admixture model with no prior information on population origin. All individuals were considered in this analysis. The assignment method was performed using 300,000 iterations, the first 100,000 of which were discarded as burn-in. K values from 2 to 15 were tested. The Delta K method of Evanno et al. (2005) was implemented to determine the most likely K value.

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In order to assess population decline in these coral species, a critical component of conservation planning, we tested for recent population bottlenecks using a method developed by Garza and Williamson (2001). This approach calculates M, the ratio of the total number of alleles to the range in allele sizes, and is a good estimate of recent population decline that is commonly used to inform conservation decision making.

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Finally, in order to identify putative barriers to dispersal, we applied a 'genetical bandwidth mapping' approach, which is based on 'wombling' (Womble 1951) and implemented in the

206 program GenbMap (Cercueil et al. 2007). Genetical bandwidth mapping identifies spatial 207 discontinuities in allele frequencies that may represent barriers to dispersal. Unlike model-based 208 approaches, genetical bandwidth mapping is nonparametric and does not assume a particular 209 measure of genetic distance. This method is particularly relevant to studies where fine scale 210 structure is stronger than regional structure, which can occur in low dispersal species, and for 211 studies with low and irregular sample sizes (Cercueil et al. 2007) which is appropriate in this case. GenbMap was run with a resolution of 300 x 300 pixels, 200 iterations, and p=0.05. Since 213 GPS coordinates were only taken at each locality, each individual coral's GPS coordinates were randomly perturbed by 10 m following the example of Cercueil et al. (2007). Statistical significance of the resulting 'genetical regions' was tested using AMOVA.

Results

Allelic variation in microsatellites

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221 For *P. damicornis*, 169 individuals (Table 1) were genotyped and analyzed at nine microsatellite 222 loci. The number of alleles per locus ranged from seven at locus Pd3-005 to 20 at locus PV2 223 (mean: 11.67). Five multilocus genotypes were observed in more than one individual however only two of these were observed in more than two individuals. In total, nine clonal individuals 224 225 were removed from the analysis. For S. hystrix, 191 individuals (Table 1) were genotyped and 226 analyzed at seven microsatellite loci. The number of alleles per locus ranged from three at locus 227 Sh3-003 to 19 at locus Sh2-006 (mean: 10.57). Six multilocus genotypes were observed in more 228 than one individual however only one of these was observed in more than two individuals. In

229 total, six clonal individuals were removed from the analysis. The unique number of genotypes 230 (Ng) and M values for each study location are presented in Tables 2 and 3. Statistics on 231 heterozygosity and Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium are available in Starger et al. (2010).

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233 Population genetic structure

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AMOVA analysis with no *a priori* assumptions indicated strong structure in both species with 235 236 FST = 0.139 (RST = 0.130) for P. damicornis and FST = 0.357 (RST = 0.246) for S. hystrix (p < 237 238 239 240 241 0.00001 for all values) with 16-17% and 30-37% respectively of the variation due to differences among localities (Tables 4 and 5). Results from the hierarchical AMOVA (Tables 4 and 5) indicate that genetic structure does not result from differentiation among the three biogeographic regions (Figure 1). In *P. damicornis* both the infinite alleles model and stepwise mutation model indicate that regional genetic breaks explain none of the observed genetic variation. Regional 242 structure is weak but significant in S. hystrix when based on the infinite alleles model (FCT = 243 0.068, p=0.03), explaining 6.84% of the variation, but not significant when based on the stepwise 244 mutation model (RCT = 0.043, p = 0.18). Instead, variation among populations within regions 245 explained the majority of variation in both species: 86.84% of the variation in *P. damicornis* with 246 FST = 0.132 (p < 0.00001) and 63.02% of the variation in S. hystrix, with FST = 0.370 (p < 247 0.00001). Similar results were achieved using the SMM (Tables 4 and 5).

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249 M values (Tables 2 and 3) are generally lower for P. damicornis. Results from the non-spatial 250 assignments test implemented in BAPS identified five genetic clusters from 12 P. damicornis 251 localities, two of which were excluded due to low sample size (Table 2, Figure 2), and ten 252 genetic clusters in 11 S. hystrix populations (Table 3, Figure 3). Clusters containing multiple populations were generally but not always comprised of geographically proximal localities. For example, P. damicornis Cluster 1 includes four sites in Raja Ampat, however Cluster 2 consists of sites from Raja Ampat and Teluk Cenderawasih, suggesting genetic connectivity between these ecoregions. For S. hystrix, Cluster 1 contained adjacent sites Kri Island and Alyui in Raja Ampat. Spatial clustering results were identical to the non-spatial clustering for both species, with the exception of *P. damicornis* in which Kri Island, was assigned to Cluster 1 in the spatial analysis and clustered alone in the non-spatial analysis (not shown). Furthermore, log(likelihood) was higher in the non-spatial analysis compared to the spatial analysis for P. damicornis (-3,701.47 versus 3,718.95) and S. hystrix (-2,892.18 versus 2,916.11), indicating close agreement between spatial and non-spatial methods. While AMOVA results based on BAPS partitions indicate significant variation among groups explaining 6% and 28% of the variation among regions of P. damicornis and S. hystrix respectively, the majority of the variation was still observed within localities (Tables 4 and 5).

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When using the individual-based analysis implemented in Structure 2.2.2, the 'correct' number 267 268 of clusters that fit our data was not clear. Delta K indicated K=2 as the most likely value for P. 269 damicornis and K=12 for S. hystrix, but in both species likelihood increased asymptotically as K values increased towards and then beyond the number of sampled localities (not shown). Results 270 271 for K=2 for each species indicate mixing of clusters between Raja Ampat and Teluk 272 Cenderawasih, while Kaimana and Fakfak contained mostly one cluster (Figure 2). As a 273 heuristic, we also present K=6 for *P. damicornis* and K=11 for *S. hystrix* as indicated by BAPS 274 as the most likely number of clusters (Table 2, Figure 2). Results of these analyses show a strong

correspondence between cluster assignment and locality in *S. hystrix* (Figure 3), whereas results
from *P. damicornis* show more mixing of clusters among localities (Figure 2). In both species,
admixture is evident because localities nearly always contain a mixed composition of individuals
from various genetic clusters.

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Genetical bandwidth mapping identified genetic discontinuities which are common to both coral species, and which may correspond to barriers to larval dispersal that were not clearly detected by other analysis methods. At least six distinct 'genetical regions' were delineated for each species within the Bird's Head Seascape (Figures 4 and 5). Most notable in the genetical bandwidth maps for both species is a putative dispersal barrier between eastern and western localities within and above Teluk Cenderawasih, and genetic breaks in concordance with the land barrier formed by the Bird's Head peninsula. The isolation of Mayalibit and Jefman from the other sites in Raja Ampat is also evident in both species, as is a genetic break between Adoki and Ambai, north of Teluk Cenderawasih. AMOVA based on the 'genetical regions' structure was only significant for *S. hystrix* when based on the infinite alleles model (*F*CT = 0.142, p=0.006 and Table 2).

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292 Discussion

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Microsatellite analyses of two Indo-Pacific, reef-building corals, *P. damicornis* and *S. hystrix*, indicate significant levels of genetic differentiation among populations within the Bird's Head Seascape of Papua and West Papua, Indonesia. A mixture of traditional AMOVA, assignment tests, and the genetical bandwidth mapping approach all indicate significant structure among 298 localities within West Papua, suggesting limits to connectivity among these coral populations. 299 Sample sizes were not large enough for traditional estimates of gene flow (*Nm*) however, as 300 predicted, genetic structure was higher in *S. hystrix* (*F*ST = 0.360, p < 0.001) than in *P.* 301 *damicornis* (*F*ST = 0.139, p < 0.001) suggesting more limited dispersal in the former, a result 302 consistent with previous comparative research from Eastern Australia (Ayre and Hughes 2000, 303 2004) and across all of Indonesia (Starger et al. 2010).

Strong, significant genetic structure indicates substantial limits to genetic and demographic connectivity (Hedgecock et al. 2007) among coral populations of West Papua. However, while the data clearly indicate structure across the Bird's Head Seascape in both species, this structure is not clearly explained by geography or the delineated coral ecoregions of Veron et al. (2009). AMOVA and assignment tests could not differentiate among Teluk Cenderawasih, Raja Ampat, and Southwestern Papua, but instead revealed fine scale patterns of genetic structure within 311 Teluk Cenderawasih and within Raja Ampat. AMOVA results indicate significant levels of 312 variation among localities within these regions, explaining 15.99% of the overall variation for P. 313 damicornis and 30.14% for S. hystrix, with almost all the remaining genetic variation contained 314 within localities (Table 2). Similar results were obtained by the Bayesian assignment method 315 implemented in Structure and in the population-based analysis implemented in BAPS.

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This pattern of strong structure on the local scale with weak differences among geographic regions was confirmed by the new technique of genetical bandwidth mapping, a technique that is specifically designed for data sets where sample sizes are irregular and occasionally small. This is characteristic of coral populations in eastern Indonesia —the extreme biodiversity and patchy

321 composition of coral communities in this region (Veron et al 2009) makes obtaining large sample sizes of individual species difficult. Genetical bandwidth mapping identified putative barriers to dispersal within Raja Ampat and within Teluk Cenderawasih indicating that the results from AMOVA and assignment tests are not artifacts of sample sizes. Interestingly, genetical bandwidth mapping also identified mainland West Papua as a region of genetic discontinuity in both species, supporting the presence of a dispersal barrier common to a wide range of marine invertebrates in this part of the Bird's Head Seascape (Barber et al. 2006, Barber et al. 2010, Crandall et al. 2008, DeBoer et al. 2008, Carpenter et al. 2011, Barber et al. 2011). These patterns are concordant between the two coral species based on visual inspection of the maps (Figures 3 and 4). Although sample sizes and fixation indices were within the ranges where genetical bandwidth mapping can accurately infer genetic breaks (Cercueil et al. 2007), additional research could result in more accurate estimates of coral connectivity in the region. For example, taking a community genomics approach aligned with quantitative morphological and reproductive studies and oceanographic modeling (Treml and Halpin 2012) would improve 335 our ability to detect subtle genetic structure and the presence of cryptic lineages (Chen et al. 336 2007, Souter 2010, Bongaerts et al. 2010), ecophenotypes (Nir et al. 2011), and cryptic species 337 (discussed below) in corals of the Bird's Head Seascape.

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339 Differences between species

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341 Results also indicate a clear difference in levels of genetic structure between P. damicornis and 342 S. hystrix, the latter having higher genetic structure. Genetic clustering analyses in BAPS and 343 Structure indicate that nearly every S. hystrix locality formed its own unique cluster with

344 minimal evidence of admixture among localities. The only clear geographic association was seen 345 in the clustering of Alyui with Kri Island, which cluster together in both BAPS and Structure. 346 Otherwise, each S. hystrix locality is genetically distinct, possibly suggestive of the occurrence of 347 multiple ecophenotypes (Nir et al. 2011). Given the geographic proximity of our study sites, and 348 previous evidence suggesting the monophyly of S. hystrix relative to its easily identifiable sister 349 species S. caliendrum (Bongaerts et al. 2010), we find it unlikely, though not impossible, that our genetic clusters represent reproductively isolated cryptic species. P. damicornis populations 350 exhibited lower levels of genetic structure based on fixation indices, and fewer clusters were resolved by BAPS and Structure, suggesting that this species has lower genetic structure than S. hystrix. Cryptic species in P. damicornis might also exist, but we find this even less likely than in S. hystrix given P. damicornis's reproductive plasticity and long larval duration.

Differences in observed genetic structure among these two corals may be explained by differences in their larval dispersal abilities. The majority of larvae of both species have been 357 358 observed to settle within a few days of release (Isomura and Nishihira 2001). However, 359 aquarium-based research on the larval biology of *P. damicornis* indicates the potential for long 360 distance dispersal via a maximum larval duration of at least 103 days (Richmond 1987). It is not 361 known whether S. hystrix similarly possesses this ability, but as more corals are studied in this 362 way, maximum larval life spans are proving to be much higher than previously thought (Graham 363 et al. 2010). The presence of zooxanthellae in S. hystrix larvae, coupled with evidence of diverse 364 reproductive strategies such as polyp bail-out (Sammarco 1982) and rafting (Jokiel 1984) suggest 365 that extended larval durations may be possible in this species as well. However, the observation 366 of higher structure in S. hystrix in comparison to P. damicornis in this and other studies (Ayre

and Hughes 2000, 2004; Starger et al. 2010) suggests that actual larval dispersal may be lower in *S. hystrix.*

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370 While our results are generally consistent with previous results comparing genetic structure 371 between these two coral species, we observed higher magnitudes of genetic structure over a 372 smaller spatial scale in both species in the Bird's Head Seascape in comparison to results from the Great Barrier Reef. Van Oppen et al. (2008) observed a mean pairwise FST of 0.20 among S. 373 hystrix populations on the Great Barrier Reef, which is considerably lower than our observed mean pairwise FST of 0.36 in West Papua, even though our spatial scale is much smaller. Physical oceanography, regional variation in reproduction, and more heterogeneous environmental conditions in the Bird's Head Seascape may explain the observed differences in genetic structure between the Great Barrier Reef and the Bird's Head Seascape. Furthermore, coral populations on the Great Barrier Reef are largely arranged in a linear pattern along 380 Australia's northeastern coastline and are subjected to relatively predictable patterns of sea 381 surface circulation, dominated by the Eastern Australian Current that flows southeast along the 382 Great Barrier Reef. Surface patterns are much less well understood in the Bird's Head Seascape, 383 where the coastline of West Papua is far more complex and currents less predictable than they 384 are on the northeastern coast of Australia. This complexity may result in localized sea surface 385 circulation eddies and seasonal or irregular reversals which increase mean drift time between 386 geographically proximate reefs. Oceanographic modeling has found patterns similar to the 387 conservation planning boundaries at both the ecoregional and the priority seascape scales (Treml 388 and Halpin 2012). An additional explanation that is not mutually exclusive is that there may be 389 variations in reproductive strategies between corals of the Great Barrier Reef and those of the

Bird's Head Seascape. It is well established that *P. damicornis* can be either a brooder or spawner depending on location (Baird et al. 2009), and may undergo 'reverse metamorphosis' from polyp to planula when stressed (Richmond 1985). Similarly, *S. hystrix* can undergo polyp bailout when stressed (Sammarco 1982). It is therefore possible that regional differences in reproductive strategy between the Great Barrier Reef and the Bird's Head Seascape are contributing to the observed genetic differences. *P. damicornis* has also been observed rafting on pumice, which could increase drift times under rare circumstances (Bryan et al. 2012). Coral reproduction studies here would serve to shed light on this question.

On coral species

Although the possibility exists that some of the genetic variation we observed represents cryptic lineages or species, presently we find limited evidence in the literature for the existence of 403 cryptic coral species. Therefore, we cannot reject the original species descriptions at this time. 404 However, we do not discount the possibility that cryptic species can and probably do exist in the 405 Bird's Head Seascape where several undescribed coral species have recently been discovered 406 (Mangubhai et al. 2012). Likewise it is possible that reproductive barriers may exist among some 407 of the individuals and populations in our dataset. If this were true, it could potentially invalidate some of the assumptions made in our genetic analysis methods which assume cohesion. 408 409 Unchanged, however, would be (1) our conclusions that genetic subdivision is widespread and 410 complex within these nominal coral species in the Bird's Head Seascape, and (2) the knowledge 411 that the Bird's Head Seascape is home to a remarkable assemblage of endemic coral species 412 (Veron et al. 2009) and genetic variants requiring immediate conservation action. Applying

413 genomic methods and quantitative morphological characters in a phylogenetic context, as well as 414 conducting reproductive and ecological studies on coral species, would help characterize 415 biodiversity in the Bird's Head Seascape, advance our understanding of the evolutionary 416 processes that generate and maintain this diversity, and further inform MPA design and 417 management.

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Population decline and coral reef conservation

The Bird's Head Seascape is home to some of the most diverse, modern day coral reef ecosystems (Mangubhai et al. 2012). However, one of the disturbing results from this study is that these reefs may not have been immune to population declines. The mean M values, a genetic measure used to infer population declines, for *P. damicornis* and *S. hystrix* populations in West Papua (averaging 0.64 and 0.65 respectively) are strikingly similar to those of the Mediterranean 425 426 Monk Seal (M = 0.64) and the Northern Elephant Seal (M = 0.66) (Garza and Williamson 2001), 427 two highly endangered species that have suffered massive population declines. This result 428 strongly suggests a similar, recent population decline in these two coral species. Increasing 429 human pressures on coral reefs in the Bird's Head Seascape, coupled with increasing sea surface 430 temperatures and episodes of coral bleaching, are likely to exacerbate coral decline throughout 431 the region unless strategic conservation action is taken. Marine conservation initiatives in coral 432 reef regions are increasingly focused on designing and implementing effective networks of 433 MPAs (Roberts 2005, Clifton 2009, Horigue et al. 2012, Mangubhai et al. 2012) with the optimal 434 size and spacing of the individual MPAs within a network being a critical aspect of applied MPA 435 research (Shanks 2003, Mills et al. 2010). While difficulties obtaining the large sample sizes

436 needed precluded the use of more quantitative estimates of connectivity, and the presence of 437 cryptic species remains possible, our results unequivocally identify fine-scale genetic structure, 438 which strongly suggests limited genetic connectivity among reef building corals within the 439 Bird's Head Seascape on small spatial scales. This is especially clear in the clustering of S. 440 hystrix individuals by location and the genetical bandwidth maps of both species showing 441 genetic discontinuities within Raja Ampat and within Teluk Cenderawasih. As genetic connectivity requires far fewer dispersing individuals than does demographic connectivity, the 443 strong genetic differentiation in both of these coral species indicates demographic independence of these populations throughout the Bird's Head Seascape (Hedgecock et al. 2007).

While methods exist to infer connectivity through genetic assignment tests (e.g. BayesAss+), robust results generally require larger sample sizes than were logistically and biologically possible in our study. While our results cannot provide strong inferences of connectivity, our analyses do show strong evidence for the absence of connectivity. As the number of samples and 449 450 loci required to detect genetic structure is inversely proportional to the strength of population 451 subdivision (Hillis et al. 1996), the observation of strong genetic structure, even with sample 452 sizes between 10 and 20 individuals, demonstrates that populations of these coral species are 453 strongly isolated across the Bird's Head Seascape. As such, designating a small number of large, 454 widely-spaced "anchor" MPAs in the hopes that they will serve as larval sources, seeding 455 adjacent unprotected areas, would be an ineffective strategy to protect these coral populations. A 456 more effective strategy to maintain biodiversity and connectivity in the Bird's Head Seascape is 457 one that is currently being implemented: a network of numerous, relatively closely-spaced MPAs 458 over a broad geographic area. This strategy is designed to provide protection of local reefs as

459 well as support regional genetic connectivity across the entire Bird's Head Seascape. In fact, the 460 preliminary results of the present study were directly incorporated into the Bird's Head Seascape 461 MPA network design process, which included an objective to limit the spacing between MPAs to 462 25-100 km (Huffard et al. 2012b). The network of seven MPAs in the Raja Ampat region is a 463 good example of this approach, with an average MPA size of 160,000 ha and spacing between 464 nearest MPAs averaging less than 60 km. However, further research is advisable to determine whether the number and spacing of these reserves is sufficient, and how many coral reef taxa 465 will benefit from this arrangement. Similarly, Teluk Cenderawasih would also benefit from a network of numerous closely spaced reserves. The Taman Nasional Teluk Cenderawasih covers a large area, nearly 1.5 million hectares, but only includes the western half of the bay. Due to the genetic differentiation of most local populations, it would be advisable to also designate additional MPAs in the eastern half of the bay and to the northeast of the bay, in the vicinity of Adoki and Owi, both to protect local diversity as well as facilitate regional connectivity. Fortunately, the Indonesian Ministry of Marine Affairs and Fisheries and the local Biak 472 473 government recently gazetted the Padaido Islands Marine Tourism Park in this northeast 474 quadrant of Cendrawasih Bay, and additional MPAs are now being considered.

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Genetic diversity has been historically overlooked in international conservation policy implementation (Laikre 2010). This is also true at the subnational level, where genetic data are very rarely incorporated in conservation planning. However, ours is case where genetic data can and do directly inform conservation action. For example, in addition to arranging MPAs to maintain connectivity, we recommended that the Bird's Head Seascape MPA network should also serve to protect representative populations from each genetically unique cluster, thereby

482 conserving the maximum degree of coral genetic diversity. Our data from S. hystrix, where all 483 but two of the sample localities (Kri Island and Alyui) represent distinct genetic clusters, argued 484 for the inclusion of each of these localities within MPAs to maintain this unique genetic diversity 485 into the future. Now, 9 of the 13 localities sampled in this study are indeed included in MPAs 486 within the BHS network (Mangubhai et al. 2012). In the case of P. damicornis, 3 sites 487 (Mauwara, Lemon and Alyui) represent unique genetic clusters that should be prioritized for inclusion in MPAs; in this case, Mauwara is now included in the Kaimana MPA, Alyui is largely 488 489 490 491 492 493 494 protected by a pearl-farming concession and is bordered by the 155,000 ha Kawe MPA, and Lemon is currently under consideration for inclusion as a new MPA. As coral reefs face the coming onslaught of increased coral bleaching (Oliver et al. 2009) and ocean acidification (Pandolfi et al. 2011), it is imperative to maximize protection of genetic diversity to preserve the ability of local populations to adapt to changing environmental conditions.

Funding limitations in combination with political and socioeconomic realities that motivate 495 496 unsustainable natural resource use only increase the need for sound science on which to base 497 conservation strategies. Genetic investigations like this provide a disproportionately large 498 amount of data relative to time spent in the field, and the results can help fill some of the most 499 critical scientific gaps in MPA planning (Sale et al. 2005). Although not all reefs can be assessed 500 in a scientifically rigorous manner, insights into the patterns and processes of biological diversity 501 can be used to design effective management schemes that can be put to use in an effective time 502 frame. In our case, the means to apply genetic data to conservation action already exist in 503 ongoing, multi-institutional partnerships in the Bird's Head Seascape (Green and Mous 2004, 504 Huffard et al. 2012b, Mangubhai et al. 2012). Examination of additional taxa in a similar fashion 505 to those presented here (Carpenter et al. 2011, Barber et al. 2011), including economically 506 important species, will provide a wide range of results that resource managers may utilize in 507 refining the optimum MPA network for the Bird's Head Seascape and should serve as an 508 important example for ongoing efforts to design further MPA networks within the Coral Triangle 509 and elsewhere.

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853	Table 1: Sampling locations in Papua and West Papua, Indonesia
854	

				Number of s	samples
Region	Locality	Latitude	Longitude	P. damicornis	S. hystrix
Raja Ampat	Alyui Bay	0° 10.47 S	130° 14.85 E	20	19
	Mayalibit	0° 17.85 S	130° 48.49 E	9	20
	Kri Island	0° 33.38 S	130° 40.68 E	30	9
	Jefman	0° 55.64 S	131° 07.41 E	22	22
	Gam Passage	0° 25.88 S	130° 33.16 E	4	0
Teluk Cenderwasih	Lemon	0° 53.41 S	134° 04.90 E	18	20
	Rumberpon	1° 44.23 S	134° 12.15 E	13	19
	Adoki Village	1° 08.53 S	135° 59.68 E	10	12
	Serui	1° 54.32 S	136° 13.65 E	6	0
	Owi	1° 15.26 S	136° 10.99 E	9	9
	Ambai	1° 57.64 S	136° 19.23 E	15	22
Fakfak / Kaimana	Mommon	3° 56.38 S	132° 48.21 E	4	18
	Mauwara	3° 49.65 S	134° 03.51 E	23	0
	Namatote	3° 46.73 S	133° 52.93 E	0	21
	Total			169	191

Table 2: Population statistics for *Pocillopora damicornis*: Give are the number of samples (N),
number of unique genotypes (Ng), *M* value (M), its variance (M var), and BAPS cluster.

Locality (region)		Ng	Μ	M var	Cluster
Alyui Bay (R4)	20	16	0.61	0.07	1
Mayalibit (R4)	9	9	0.63	0.07	2
Kri Island (R4)	30	30	0.61	0.06	2
Jefman (R4)	22	22	0.72	0.06	3
Lemon (TC)	18	18	0.64	0.08	4
Rumberpon (TC)	13	13	0.62	0.04	3
Adoki Village (TC)	10	7	0.61	0.07	2
Owi (TC)	9	9	0.67	0.08	3
Ambai (TC)	15	15	0.62	0.05	3
Mauwara (F/K)	23	21	0.59	0.05	5

Table 3: Population statistics for Seriatopora hystrix: Give are the number of samples (N), 860 861 number of unique genotypes (Ng), M value (M), its variance (M var), and BAPS cluster. 862

Locality (region)	N	Ng	М	M var	Cluster
Alyui Bay (R4)	19	17	0.61	0.06	1
Mayalibit (R4)	20	20	0.49	0.09	2
Kri (R4)	9	9	0.62	0.03	1
Jefman (R4)	22	17	0.66	0.07	3
Lemon (TC)	20	20	0.67	0.09	4
Rumberpon (TC)	19	19	0.79	0.09	5
Adoki Village (TC)	12	12	0.7	0.11	6
Owi (TC)	9	9	0.79	0.09	7
Ambai (TC)	22	22	0.72	0.08	8
Mommon (F/K)	18	18	0.7	0.1	9
Namatote (F/K)	21	21	0.81	0.08	10

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Table 4: Results from AMOVA for *Pocillopora damicornis*. Four genetic structures are tested. "All samples" indicates that there was no hierarchical structure imposed. '3 regions' tests the significance of a priori geographic structure among Teluk Cenderawasih, Raja Ampat, and Fakfak/Kaimana. Finally, the structures inferred by BAPS and Genetical Bandwidth Mapping (GBM) are tested. Estimators are calculated based on both the infinite alleles model (*F* statistics) and stepwise mutation model (*R* statistics) of microsatellite evolution. Negative values are presented, but are effectively equal to zero.

871									
		F st	atistic	р	% var	R sta	atistic	р	% var
	All samples								
	Among localities	$F_{\rm ST}$	0.139	< 0.00001	13.940	<i>R</i> _{ST}	0.130	< 0.00001	13.000
	Within localities				86.060				87.000
	3 regions								
	Among groups	$F_{\rm CT}$	-0.028	0.874	-2.830	$R_{\rm CT}$	0.017	0.382	1.660
	Among localities within regions	F_{SC}	0.156	< 0.00001	15.990	$R_{\rm SC}$	0.120	< 0.00001	11.810
	Within localities	$F_{\rm ST}$	0.132	< 0.00001	86.840	<i>R</i> _{ST}	0.135	< 0.00001	86.540
	Structure inferred by BAPS								
	Among clusters	$F_{\rm CT}$	0.140	0.003	14.000	<i>R</i> _{CT}	0.060	0.240	6.020
	Among localities within clusters	$F_{\rm SC}$	0.030	0.007	2.610	$R_{\rm SC}$	0.079	0.013	7.460
	Within localities	$F_{\rm ST}$	0.166	<0.00001	83.400	R _{ST}	0.135	<0.00001	86.520
	Structure inferred by GBM								
	Among clusters	$F_{\rm CT}$	-0.011	0.555	-1.070	$R_{\rm CT}$	0.063	0.178	5.930
	Among localities within clusters	F_{SC}	0.148	< 0.00001	14.940	<i>R</i> _{SC}	0.076	0.007	7.160

 $F_{\rm ST}$ 0.139 < 0.00001 86.130 $R_{\rm ST}$ 0.136 < 0.00001 86.530

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Within localities

Table 5: Results from AMOVA for *Seriatopora hystrix*. Four genetic structures are tested. "All samples" indicates that there was no hierarchical structure imposed. '3 regions' tests the significance of a priori geographic structure among Teluk Cenderawasih, Raja Ampat, and Fakfak/Kaimana. Finally, the structures inferred by BAPS and Genetical Bandwidth Mapping (GBM) are tested. Estimators are calculated based on both the infinite alleles model (*F* statistics) and stepwise mutation model (*R* statistics) of microsatellite evolution. Negative values are presented, but are effectively equal to zero.

	F statistic		р	% var	R statistic		р	% var
All samples								
Among localities	$F_{\rm ST}$	0.357	< 0.00001	35.710	$R_{\rm ST}$	0.246	< 0.00001	24.560
Within localities				64.290				75.440
3 regions								
Among groups	$F_{\rm CT}$	0.068	0.034	6.840	$R_{\rm CT}$	0.043	0.177	4.290
Among localities within regions	F_{SC}	0.324	< 0.00001	30.140	$R_{\rm SC}$	0.222	< 0.00001	21.210
Within localities	F_{ST}	0.370	< 0.00001	63.020	R _{ST}	0.255	< 0.00001	74.510
Structure inferred by BAPS								
Among clusters	$F_{\rm CT}$	0.325	0.016	32.530	$R_{\rm CT}$	0.286	0.018	28.620
Among localities within clusters	F_{SC}	0.050	0.088	3.400	$R_{\rm SC}$	-0.054	0.919	-3.830
Within localities	$F_{\rm ST}$	0.359	< 0.00001	64.070	$R_{\rm ST}$	0.248	< 0.00001	75.220
Structure inferred by GBM								
Among clusters	$F_{\rm CT}$	0.142	0.006	14.170	$R_{\rm CT}$	-0.031	0.566	-3.080
Among localities within clusters	F_{SC}	0.263	< 0.00001	22.610	$R_{\rm SC}$	0.270	< 0.00001	27.370
Within localities	$F_{\rm ST}$	0.368	< 0.00001	63.220	R _{ST}	0.243	< 0.00001	75.710

Figure 1: The Bird's Head region of West Papua, Indonesia. Sampling localities are shown as 882 883 white circles. The solid black line delineates the border of Teluk Cenderawasih National Park.





887 Figure 2: Results from Bayesian assignment methods implemented in Structure and BAPS for Pocillopora damicornis. X indicates exclusion from BAPS analysis due to Ng = 6 or less. K = 2 888 and K = 6 were used as heuristics as described in the text. 889

P. damicornis Raja Ampat Teluk Cendrawasih S. Papua K=2 K=6 BAPS 2 2 ∠ Mui ^Aalalibir cluster











- Figure 4: Genetical Bandwidth Map for *Pocillopora damicornis*. Green areas indicate regions of
 genetic homogeneity. White areas indicate putative barriers to larval dispersal and are
 highlighted with blue dashed lines. The solid black line indicates the borders of Taman Nasional
 Teluk Cenderawasih.
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Figure 5: Genetical Bandwidth Map for *Seriatopora hystrix*. Green areas indicate regions of
genetic homogeneity. White areas indicate putative barriers to larval dispersal and are
highlighted with blue dashed lines. The solid black line indicates the borders of Taman Nasional
Teluk Cenderawasih.

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