

1 **Reduced representation sequencing for symbiotic anthozoans: are reference**
2 **genomes necessary to eliminate endosymbiont contamination and make**
3 **robust phylogeographic inference?**

4
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16 Symbiodiniaceae

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23 **Abstract**

24 Anthozoan cnidarians form the backbone of coral reefs. Their success relies on endosymbiosis
25 with photosynthetic dinoflagellates in the family Symbiodiniaceae. Photosymbionts represent a
26 hurdle for researchers using population genomic techniques to study these highly imperiled and
27 ecologically critical species because sequencing datasets harbor unknown mixtures of anthozoan
28 and photosymbiont loci. Here we use range-wide sampling and a double-digest restriction-site
29 associated DNA sequencing (ddRADseq) of the sea anemone *Bartholomea annulata* to explore
30 how symbiont loci impact the interpretation of phylogeographic patterns and population genetic
31 parameters. We use the genome of the closely related *Exaiptasia diaphana* (previously *Aiptasia*
32 *pallida*) to create an anthozoan-only dataset from a genomic dataset containing both *B. annulata*
33 and its symbiodiniacean symbionts and then compare this to the raw, holobiont dataset. For each,
34 we investigate spatial patterns of genetic diversity and use coalescent model-based approaches to
35 estimate demographic history and population parameters. The Florida Straits are the only
36 phylogeographic break we recover for *B. annulata*, with divergence estimated during the last
37 glacial maximum. Because *B. annulata* hosts multiple members of Symbiodiniaceae, we
38 hypothesize that, under moderate missing data thresholds, *de novo* clustering algorithms that
39 identify orthologs across datasets will have difficulty identifying shared non-coding loci from the
40 photosymbionts. We infer that, for anthozoans hosting diverse members of Symbiodiniaceae,
41 clustering algorithms act as *de facto* filters of symbiont loci. Thus, while at least some
42 photosymbiont loci remain, these are swamped by orders of magnitude greater numbers of
43 anthozoan loci and thus represent genetic “noise,” rather than contributing genetic signal.

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45

46 **1. Introduction**

47 The study of the distribution of genetic diversity across broad geographic space (i.e.
48 phylogeography) can shed light on the historical and contemporary processes responsible for the
49 generation and maintenance of biodiversity within species and ecosystems (Arbogast, 2001;
50 Avise, 2009; Avise, Bowen, & Ayala, 2016; Knowles, 2009). Phylogeographic surveys
51 demarcate barriers to dispersal, routinely recover cryptic species, and with increasing dataset
52 sizes and statistical approaches, can estimate important demographic parameters such as
53 effective population size, divergence time, migration rates, and historical changes in population
54 size (e.g. Avise et al., 2016; Carstens, Pelletier, Reid, & Satler, 2013; Knowles, 2009; Pante et
55 al., 2015; Pelletier & Carstens, 2014; Smith et al., 2017). To that end, high-throughput
56 sequencing, which can generate thousands of unlinked single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs)
57 across the genome, has been particularly powerful, allowing for greater statistical and
58 explanatory power into complex evolutionary and demographic histories (e.g. Carstens,
59 Lemmon, & Lemmon, 2012; Excoffier, Doupenloup, Huerta-Sánchez, Sousa, & Foll, 2013;
60 McCormack, Hird, Zellmer, Carstens, & Brumfield, 2013).

61 Although the field of phylogeography has a long history in marine systems (e.g. Bowen
62 et al., 1992, 1994; Reeb & Avise, 1990), cnidarians in the class Anthozoa (i.e. corals, sea
63 anemones, zoanthids, corallimorpharians), which form the backbone of coral reefs and a major
64 component of its biodiversity, have been historically challenging to work with at the population
65 level. In addition to large range sizes and the logistical difficulties of sampling underwater,
66 mitochondrial DNA barcodes (mtDNA), the molecular marker of choice for metazoan
67 phylogeographic studies from the field's outset, evolve too slowly in most anthozoans to be
68 useful for intraspecific studies (e.g. Allio, Donega, Galtier, & Nabholz, 2017; Daly, Gusmão,

69 Reft, & Rodríguez, 2010; Shearer, Van Oppen, Romano, & Wörheide, 2002;). Further, the
70 overwhelming majority of tropical anthozoans found on coral reefs form endosymbioses with
71 photosynthetic dinoflagellates in the family Symbiodinaceae, which allows these animals to
72 thrive in oligotrophic habitats (e.g. Baker, 2003; Gates & Edmunds, 1999; Muscatine,
73 McCloskey, & Marian, 1981; Rowan & Powers, 1991; Santos, 2016). In field-collected samples,
74 contamination from symbiodiniaceans is unavoidable, and resulting DNA extractions harbor a
75 mix of anthozoan and dinoflagellate DNA (termed “holobiont DNA”). The combination of
76 slowly evolving mtDNA and dinoflagellate contamination complicates the development of
77 molecular markers suitable for population level questions (e.g. Shearer, Gutiérrez-Rodríguez, &
78 Coffroth, 2005). No broadly useful phylogeographic markers have ever been developed for
79 anthozoans, and thus, most population genetic studies of tropical anthozoans rely on species-
80 specific microsatellite loci to make population-level inferences (e.g. Andras, Rypien, & Harvell,
81 2013; Baums, Miller, & Hellberg, 2005; Foster et al., 2012; Rippe et al., 2017; Titus et al.,
82 2017a).

83 The generation of datasets targeting thousands of single nucleotide polymorphisms
84 (SNPs) from anonymous loci via high-throughput sequencing is affordable and provides
85 genome-scale data for non-model organisms. However, marine scientists interested in studying
86 symbiotic anthozoans must still contend with symbiodiniacean contamination in genomic
87 sequence data because there are no simple or reliable ways to completely separate symbiont and
88 host DNA before sequencing. For studies using transcriptomic approaches, anthozoan and
89 dinoflagellate DNA can be parsed bioinformatically, as assembled contigs are long, and
90 conserved, enough to map to published genomic resources (e.g. Davies, Marchetti, Ries, &
91 Castillo, 2016; Kenkel & Matz, 2016; Kenkel, Moya, Strahl, Humphrey, & Bay, 2018).

92 However, the reduced representation sequencing approaches most commonly used in population-
93 level phylogeographic studies (e.g. RADseq, GBS) produce anonymous loci, have short read
94 lengths (e.g. 50-100 bp), and are expected to be recovered largely from non-coding regions.
95 Thus, currently available anthozoan reference genomes will be of limited use to separate
96 dinoflagellate from anthozoan SNPs bioinformatically unless the reference species is closely
97 related to the focal taxa. Likewise, the currently available genomic resources for Symbiodinaceae
98 are also of limited use for parsing reduced representation SNP datasets because of the genetic
99 diversity within its members: long considered to belong to a single genus (*Symbiodinium*), the
100 photosymbiotic dinoflagellates are now recognized to represent 7-15 genus-level lineages
101 (LaJeunesse et al., 2018), with genetic distances between many of these on par with order-level
102 divergences (LaJeunesse et al., 2018; Rowan & Powers, 1992; Santos, 2016). Thus, any
103 symbiodiniacean reference genome used in an attempt to disambiguate endosymbiont and host
104 DNA needs to be very closely related to the specific endosymbiotic dinoflagellate found within
105 the focal anthozoan species to effectively identify dinoflagellate sequences within reduced
106 representation datasets.

107 Because of the complexity of disentangling host and symbiont sequences from reduced
108 representation sequencing of holobiont DNA, these sequencing approaches have been applied in
109 only limited ways to a small number of photosymbiotic anthozoan species. The majority of these
110 studies come from the scleractinian coral genus *Acropora* (e.g. Devlin-Durante & Baums, 2017;
111 Drury et al., 2017; Shinzato, Mungpakdee, Arakaki, & Satoh, 2015; Rosser et al., 2017;), which
112 have circumvented symbiont contamination by mapping RADseq or GBS loci to the congeneric
113 *Acropora digitifera* reference genome (Shinzato et al., 2011). Others have mapped anonymous
114 loci to conspecific or congeneric transcriptomes and used only the resulting protein-coding SNP

115 datasets for interspecific phylogenetic reconstruction and hybridization studies (e.g. Combosch
116 & Vollmer 2015; Forsman et al., 2017; Johnston et al., 2017). One study employed a subtraction
117 library approach, spinning down homogenized tissue in an effort to remove dinoflagellate cells
118 prior to DNA extraction and creating a separate reduced representation dinoflagellate reference
119 library (Bongaerts et al., 2017). Leydet, Grupstra, Coma, Ribes, & Hellberg (2018) targeted
120 anthozoan RADseq loci by including a congeneric, aposymbiotic, species in their library prep
121 and sequencing- acting as a *de facto* reference library. Each of these studies recognized the
122 importance of removing symbiodiniacean sequences from their reduced representation datasets,
123 acknowledging that successful interpretation of patterns or population parameters requires
124 knowing the extent to which each organism is contributing to the observed patterns.

125 While true in theory, in practice, how important is it to account for and remove 100% of
126 endosymbiotic dinoflagellate loci from reduced representation datasets? Are reference genomes,
127 or other approaches, always required in order to obtain anthozoan datasets that lead to robust
128 phylogeographic inference and that do not lead spurious results? We hypothesize that, in many
129 commonly encountered circumstances, the unique combination of anthozoan biology, diversity
130 of the endosymbionts, and the manner in which *de novo* SNP-calling programs (i.e. pyRAD,
131 *Stacks*) identify orthologous loci in reduced representation datasets will alleviate the need for
132 anthozoan reference genomes to separate anthozoan from dinoflagellate DNA. This hypothesis
133 rests on several observations. First, many tropical anthozoans have flexible associations that
134 involve diverse lineages of Symbiodiniaceae (e.g. Santos, 2016; Silverstein, Correa, & Baker,
135 2012). Members of the same host species can harbor different lineages of Symbiodiniaceae
136 (previously called Clades and Types of *Symbiodinium*) in different habitats and across broad
137 geographic space, and even within the same individual or colony (Baker, 2003; Silverstein et al.,

138 2012; Santos, 2016). Second, as outlined above, the genetic divergences between members of
139 Symbiodiniaceae are comparable to order-level differences seen in other dinoflagellates,
140 representing divergences as old as the mid-Jurassic (LaJeunesse et al., 2018, Santos, 2016).
141 Thus, given an adequate sampling distribution, many reduced representation datasets produced
142 for tropical anthozoans will harbor multiple lineages of Symbiodiniaceae. Finally, reduced
143 representation datasets should be comprised of largely short, non-coding DNA fragments. When
144 *de novo* SNP-calling programs cluster DNA sequence fragments and call orthologous loci, the
145 user specifies a missing data threshold before a locus is incorporated into a final dataset. A
146 moderately conservative missing data threshold may be enough to filter out the majority of
147 symbiodiniacean sequences because the program cannot find enough mutationally-conserved,
148 orthologous loci present across the genetically divergent Symbiodiniaceae to meet the missing
149 data thresholds. For example, imagine a RADseq dataset consisting of 10 individuals of an
150 anthozoan from Florida that harbor *Symbiodinium* (previously “Clade A”), and 10 individuals
151 from Bermuda that harbor *Breviolum* (previously *Symbiodinium* “Clade B”), The genetic
152 divergence between *Symbiodinium* and *Breviolum* is large enough (pairwise distance for LSU
153 DNA = 0.37, estimated divergence ~170 mya: LaJeunesse et al., 2018) that few (if any) non-
154 coding orthologous DNA sequences from *Symbiodinium* and *Breviolum* would be retained under
155 a pyRAD missing data threshold requiring a locus to be present in 75% of all individuals. Thus,
156 the loci that would be retained in the final dataset would primarily be from the host anthozoan,
157 which represents intraspecific diversity at shallower evolutionary timescales.

158 To test this, we used double digest restriction-site associated DNA sequencing
159 (ddRADseq) to reconstruct the range-wide phylogeographic history of the corkscrew sea
160 anemone *Bartholomea annulata*- a species known to harbor multiple members of

161 Symbiodiniaceae throughout the Tropical Western Atlantic (TWA) (see Grajales, Rodríguez,
162 Thornhill, 2016). We then leverage the genome of the sea anemone *Exaiptasia diaphana*
163 (previously *Aiptasia pallida*; see Grajales & Rodríguez, 2014; ICZN, 2017) (Baumgarten et al.,
164 2015), a closely related species from the same family (Aiptasiidae; Grajales & Rodriguez, 2016),
165 to create an aposymbiotic SNP dataset for *B. annulata*. We compare the spatial genetic structure
166 of the aposymbiotic and full holobiont SNP datasets throughout the region, and use coalescent
167 simulation and model selection to understand whether the two datasets are similarly structured
168 and whether they are interpreted as having similar patterns of demographic history with the same
169 parameter estimates (i.e. effective population size, migration) as the aposymbiotic data. We
170 discuss the competing phylogeographic reconstructions and their implications for future studies
171 on symbiotic anthozoans, and further our understanding of the phylogeographic history of
172 Caribbean coral reef taxa.

173

174 **2. Methods**

175 *2.1. Focal taxon*

176 The corkscrew sea anemone, *B. annulata*, is the most abundant large-bodied species of
177 anemone on coral reef habitats throughout the TWA (Briones-Fourzán, Pérez-Ortiz, Negrete-
178 Soto, Barradas-Ortiz, & Lozano-Álvarez, 2012). Like many tropical anthozoans, it is symbiotic
179 with multiple members of Symbiodiniaceae throughout its range- *Symbiodinium* (formerly Clade
180 A) in Bermuda and Florida and *Cladocopium* (formerly Clade C) in Florida, Mexico, and
181 Panama (Grajales et al., 2016). Symbiodiniaceans are obtained horizontally after planktonic
182 larvae metamorphose and settle to the benthos, or vertically during pedal laceration. Sexual
183 reproduction occurs twice per year, but asexual reproduction occurs year round (Jennison, 1981).

184 Although the contribution of sexual and asexual reproduction can vary by habitat type, *B.*
185 *annulata* appears to rely primarily on sexual reproduction (Titus et al., 2017a). This species also
186 appears to have highly dynamic populations with rapid turnover and a maximum estimated
187 lifespan of ~2 years (O'Reilly & Chadwick, 2017; O'Reilly, Titus, Nelsen, Ratchford, &
188 Chadwick, In Press).

189 Ecologically, *B. annulata* serves as an important host to the most diverse community of
190 crustacean ectosymbionts of any TWA sea anemone (Briones-Fourzán et al., 2012; Titus & Daly,
191 2017), including cleaner shrimps that remove parasites from more than 20 families of reef fishes
192 (Huebner & Chadwick, 2012a, b; Titus, Daly, & Exton, 2015a, b; Titus, Vondriska, & Daly,
193 2017b, Titus, Palombit, & Daly, 2017c). Thus, this species forms the hub of a complex multi-
194 level symbiosis that has potentially radiating effects across multiple trophic levels on TWA reef
195 systems. Finally, this species and its crustacean symbionts are collected commercially by the
196 ornamental aquarium trade along the Florida Reef Tract and are listed by the Florida Fish and
197 Wildlife Conservation Commission as “biologically vulnerable” and “species of conservation
198 concern.”

199

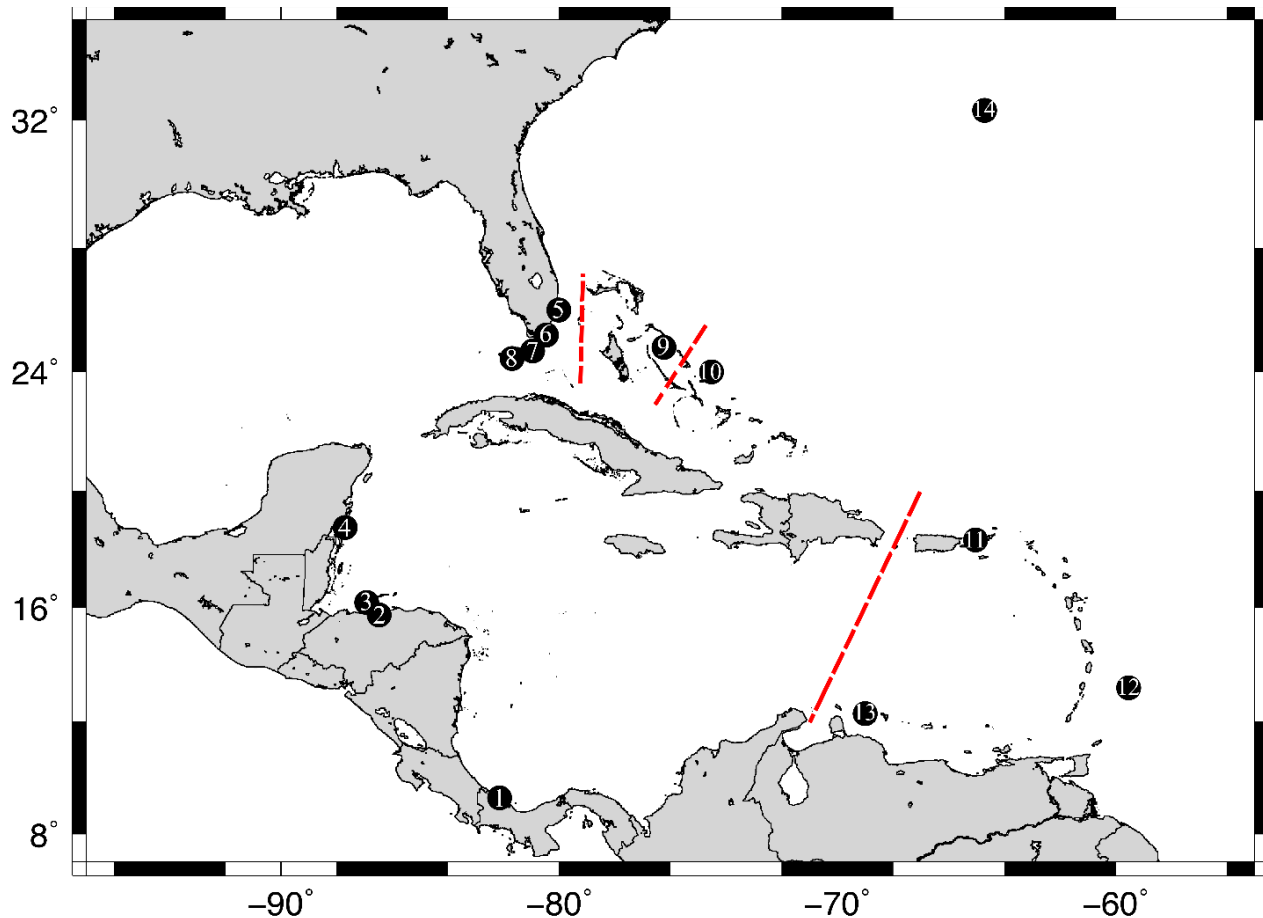
200 2.2. Sample collection, DNA isolation, library preparation, and data processing

201 Tissue samples (i.e. tentacle clippings and whole animals) were collected using SCUBA
202 from 14 localities encompassing the entire geographic range of *B. annulata*, and from localities
203 separated by known phylogeographic barriers (Table 1; Fig. 1; Table S1; reviewed by DeBiasse,
204 Richards, Shivji, & Hellberg, 2016). Samples were collected by hand from coral reef habitats
205 between 5- and 15-m depth and preserved on shore using RNAlater. 20-30 samples were
206 collected per locality and transferred back to The Ohio State University for DNA extraction,

207 library preparation, and sequencing. Genomic DNA was isolated using DNeasy Blood and
208 Tissue Kits (Qiagen Inc.) and stored at -20°C. DNA degradation was assessed for each sample
209 using gel electrophoresis, and only samples with high molecular weight DNA were carried
210 forward for ddRADseq library preparation. DNA concentrations were quantified (ng/uL) using a
211 Qubit 2.0 (ThermoFisher) fluorometer and dsDNA broad-range assay kits. 20uL aliquots, each
212 with 200ng of DNA, were prepared for each sample and used for ddRADseq library preparation.

213 Between 12-15 individual *B. annulata* samples per locality were carried forward for
214 ddRADseq library preparation. Genomic DNA was digested using two restriction enzymes
215 (*EcoRI*-HF and *psti*-HF), Illumina compatible barcodes were annealed to restriction cut sites,
216 samples were size selected manually using a 400-800 bp size range, and then cleaned using
217 Nucleospin Gel and PCR clean up kits (Macherey-Nagel). Following size selection, each
218 individual sample was amplified using polymerase chain reaction (PCR), cleaned using AMPure
219 XP beads (Agilent), and then quantified via quantitative PCRs (qPCR) to inform the pooling of
220 individual samples into final libraries. A total of 141 individuals (Table 1) met all quality control
221 steps and were pooled across five separate libraries. Samples were sequenced on an Illumina
222 HiSeq 2500 using single-end 100 base pair reads at The Ohio State University Genomics Shared
223 Resource.

224



225
226 Figure 1. Map of sampling localities throughout the Tropical Western Atlantic for the populations of corkscrew sea
227 anemone *Bartholomea annulata* studied here. 1. Bocas del Toro, Panama, 2) Cayos Cochinos, Honduras, 3) Utila,
228 Honduras, 4) Mahahual, Mexico, 5) Ft. Lauderdale, Florida, 6) Upper Keys, Florida, 7) Middle Keys, Florida, 8)
229 Lower Keys, Florida, 9) Eleuthera, Bahamas, 10) San Salvador, Bahamas, 11) St. Thomas, US Virgin Islands, 12)
230 Barbados, 13) Curacao, 14) Bermuda. Red dashed lines denote previously recovered major phylogeographic breaks
231 in the region.
232

233 2.3. Data processing and aposymbiotic dataset assembly

234 Raw sequence reads were demultiplexed, aligned, and assembled *de novo* using the
235 program pyRAD v3.0.66 (Eaton, 2014). We required a minimum base call Phred score of 20 and
236 set the maximum number of bases in a locus with Phred scores < 20 (NQual) to five. Low quality
237 base calls were replaced with Ns. We set the clustering threshold (Wclust) to 0.90 to assemble
238 reads into loci, and required a minimum coverage depth of seven to call a locus (Mindepth).
239 Finally, we required a locus to be present in 75% of all individuals to be retained in the final

240 dataset. RADseq protocols are known to be susceptible to missing data due to mutations in
241 restriction cut sites and allelic dropout (e.g. Arnold, Corbett-Detig, Hartl, & Bomblies, 2013), but
242 biases can also arise when datasets are overly conservative (i.e. no missing data allowed; Huang
243 & Knowles, 2014). Thus we allowed some missing data in our final dataset.

244 Previously, we delimited two cryptic lineages of *B. annulata* co-distributed throughout
245 the range in our ddRADseq dataset (Titus, Blischak, & Daly, 2018). After running pyRAD to
246 completion, members of the infrequently sampled lineage (Clade 1, N = 18 individuals; Titus et
247 al., 2018) and individuals with low sequencing coverage (< 500,000 reads; N = 21 individuals),
248 were removed from the dataset, leaving only the more well sampled lineage (Clade 2; n = 101
249 individuals; Table 1; Table S1). After accounting for cryptic diversity this initial SNP dataset
250 represented our “holobiont dataset,” sequences that were, putatively, a combination of anemone
251 and algal DNA.

252 To create an anemone-only “aposymbiotic dataset,” we mapped polymorphic loci from
253 the holobiont ddRADseq dataset to the genome of the closely related *Exaiptasia diaphana*
254 (Baumgarten et al., 2015) to identify anemone-only sequences. *Exaiptasia diaphana* and *B.*
255 *annulata* are members of the same family and are closely related (Grajales & Rodriguez, 2016),
256 and polymorphic microsatellites have previously been designed from *E. diaphana* that amplify in
257 *B. annulata* (Titus et al., 2017a). To map polymorphic *B. annulata* loci to *E. diaphana*, we
258 downloaded the *E. diaphana* genome and created a local BLAST database. After initially
259 running pyRAD to completion, a python script (parse_loci.py, available on Dryad doi:XXX) was
260 written to select the first DNA sequence from each locus in the .loci output file, and create a
261 .fasta file that could then be BLAST-ed against the *E. diaphana* genome (BLAST+; Camacho et
262 al., 2009). We used an 85% identity threshold to call a locus as putatively anemone in origin.

263 Next, a separate python script (blast2loci.py, available on Dryad doi:XXX) was used to read
264 through the BLAST output file, pull all sequences in all loci that met the 85% identity threshold,
265 and create a new .loci file with the same file name as the original. The original .loci file was then
266 replaced with the new anemone-only file, at which point the final step of pyRAD (step 7) was re-
267 run to create our final anemone-only output files (i.e. unlinked SNPs and alleles files) for
268 downstream analyses. As a final check, we created additional local BLAST databases by
269 downloading publicly available endosymbiotic dinoflagellate genomes: *Symbiodinium*
270 *micradriaticum* (Aranda et al., 2016 as *Symbiodinium micradriaticum* “Clade A”), *Breviolum*
271 *minutum* (Shoguchi et al., 2013 as *Symbiodinium minutum* “Clade B”), *Cladocopium goreau*
272 (Liu et al., 2018, as *Symbiodinium goreau* “Clade C”), and *Fugacium kawagutii* (Liu et al.,
273 2018, as *Symbiodinium kawagutii* “Clade F”). We mapped both our holobiont and aposymbiotic
274 datasets to the symbiodiniacean genomes to see if we could 1) identify any symbiodiniacean
275 sequences in the holobiont data, and 2) confirm that no loci in our aposymbiotic dataset mapped
276 to both symbiodiniacean and *Exaiptasia* genomes. Lastly, we mapped our holobiont dataset to
277 the genome of the distantly related starlet sea anemone, *Nematostella vectensis* (Putnam et al.,
278 2007), to gauge the extent to which intra-order (Actiniaria) genomic resources could be used to
279 effectively identify anemone-only 100bp ddRADseq loci. All scripts for mapping and parsing
280 anemone from symbiodiniacean DNA, along with full details and instructions for using them,
281 can be found on Dryad (doi:XXX).

282

283 2.4. Population genetic structure

284 We used the clustering program Structure v2.3.4 (Pritchard, 2000) to infer population
285 genetic structure across the Tropical Western Atlantic. For both holobiont and aposymbiotic

286 datasets, we collapsed bi-allelic data into haplotypes at each locus, thus using information
287 contained in linked SNPs when more than one SNP was present in a locus. Structure analyses
288 were conducted using the admixture model and correlated allele frequencies. Each MCMC chain
289 for each value of K was run with a burnin of 1×10^5 generations and sampling period of 2×10^5
290 generations.

291 We initially conducted two separate Structure analyses for both the holobiont and
292 aposymbiotic datasets. First, we conducted three iterations of a broad range of K values (1- 6) to
293 gain an initial snapshot of the data across the region. In both initial analyses we used the peak \ln
294 $\Pr(D|K)$ and the ΔK (Evanno et al. 2005) to inform the selection of the best K value. We then re-
295 ran Structure using a narrower range of K values (1-4) but with more iterations ($n = 10$). Each
296 MCMC chain for each value of K was run with a burnin of 1×10^5 generations and sampling
297 period of 2×10^5 generations. Again, we used $\ln \Pr(D|K)$ and ΔK to select the best value of K .

298 We conducted an analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA) in Arlequin v.3.5 (Excoffier
299 & Lischer, 2010) to test for hierarchical partitioning of genetic diversity across the region.
300 Following our Structure results (see Results), we partitioned samples into Eastern and Western
301 regions. We tested for hierarchical structure among sample localities (φ_{ST}), among sample
302 localities within a region (φ_{SC}), and between regions (φ_{CT}). Calculations in Arlequin v3.5 were
303 made using haplotype data and distance matrices calculated using the number of different alleles
304 per locus. Statistical significance was assessed with 10,000 permutations. Pairwise φ_{ST} values
305 were calculated to test for differentiation among sample localities. Genetic diversity summary
306 statistics and pairwise φ_{ST} values were also calculated in Arlequin for all sample localities. All
307 calculations were conducted for both aposymbiotic and holobiont datasets.

308

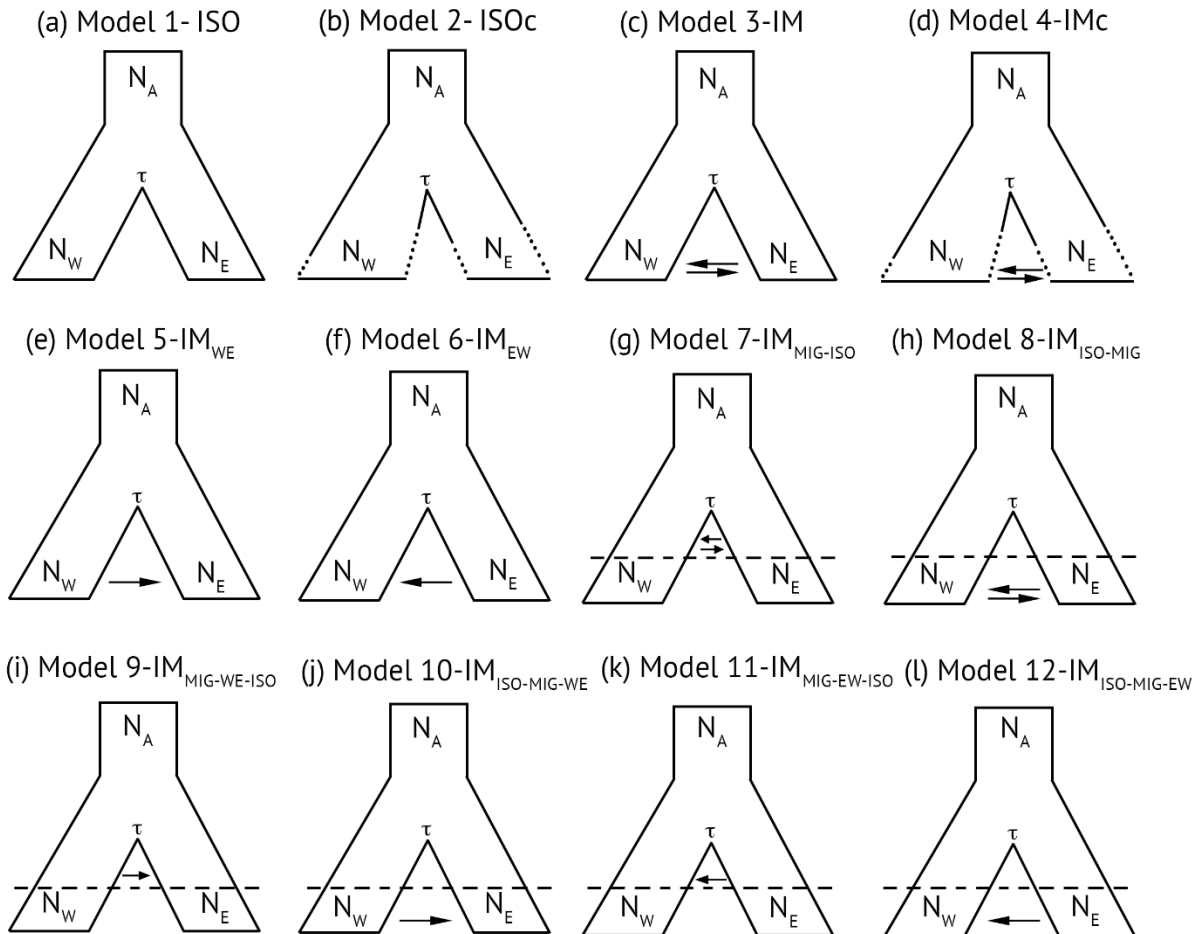
309 2.5. Demographic modeling selection and parameter estimation

310 While broad-scale patterns of spatial genetic structure may be robust to some levels of
311 dinoflagellate contamination in reduced representation sequencing datasets, we expect that
312 demographic model selection approaches that make inferences regarding patterns of
313 demographic history, and that generate important population parameter estimates (i.e. effective
314 population sizes, migration rates), should be highly sensitive to the incorporation of data from
315 taxa with different evolutionary histories. Thus, we conducted model selection using the allele
316 frequency spectrum (AFS) and coalescent simulations in the program *fastsimcoal2* (FSC2;
317 Excoffier et al., 2013). FSC2 uses coalescent simulations to calculate the composite likelihood of
318 arbitrarily complex demographic models under a given AFS. The best fit model can then be
319 selected using Akaike information criterion (AIC). We developed 12 user-specified demographic
320 models (Figure 2), all variants of a two-population isolation-migration model as Structure
321 delimited $K = 2$ as the best clustering scheme (see Results). Models differed in the directionality
322 of gene flow, population size changes following divergence, and whether they exhibit patterns of
323 secondary contact following divergence. Genetic clusters in Structure were largely partitioned
324 East and West in the TWA, and 25 individuals from each putative population (50 individuals
325 total; Table S2) were selected to generate two-population, joint-folded, AFS. We conducted
326 model selection on both aposymbiotic and holobiont datasets.

327 Two-population, joint-folded AFS were generated from pyRAD output files and
328 previously published python scripts (see Satler & Carstens, 2017). One of the assumptions of
329 FSC2 is that SNPs are in linkage equilibrium (Excoffier et al., 2013), and thus, only one SNP per
330 locus was selected to produce the AFS. Further, AFS calculations in FSC2 require fixed numbers
331 of alleles from all populations (i.e. no missing data). As meeting this latter requirement would

332 greatly decrease our dataset size, and thus likely bias our analyses, we followed the protocol of
333 Satler and Carstens (2017) and Smith et al., (2017) by requiring a locus in our AFS to be present
334 in 85% of all individuals. To account for missing data without violating the requirements of the
335 AFS we built our AFS as follows: 1) if a locus had fewer alleles than our threshold it was
336 discarded, 2) if a locus had the exact number of alleles as the threshold, the minor allele
337 frequency was recorded, and 3) if a locus exceeded the threshold, alleles were down-sampled
338 with replacement until the number of alleles met the threshold, at which point the minor allele
339 frequency was counted. This approach allowed us to maximize the number of SNPs used to build
340 the AFS, but also has the potential to lead to monomorphic alleles based on the down-sampling
341 procedure (see Satler & Carstens 2017). Thus, we repeated the AFS building procedure 10 times,
342 allowing us to account for variation in the down-sampling process during model selection, and
343 also allowing us to calculate confidence intervals on our parameter estimates (Satler & Carstens,
344 2017; Smith et al., 2017).

345 Each simulation analysis in FSC2 (i.e. each AFS replicate per model; 12 models x 10
346 replicates) was repeated 50 times, and we selected the run with the highest composite likelihood
347 for each AFS replicate and model. The best-fit model was then calculated using the AIC and
348 model probabilities calculated following Burnham and Anderson (2002). Because FSC2 requires
349 a per generation mutation rate to scale parameter estimates into real values, we used the
350 substitution per site per generation mutation rate of 4.38×10^{-8} proposed for tropical anthozoans
351 (Prada et al., 2017) and a generation time of 1 year for *B. annulata* (Jennison, 1981). All analyses
352 were conducted on the Oakley cluster at the Ohio Supercomputer Center (<http://osc.edu>).



353

354 Figure 2. Models used in FSC2 to understand the demographic processes leading to the two-population pattern of
 355 diversification in the corkscrew anemone *Bartholomea annulata* across the Tropical Western Atlantic. Each model
 356 is a two-population isolation-migration (IM) model that varies in the degree and directionality of gene flow and
 357 effective population size. Models are as follows: a) isolation only, b) isolation with population size changes
 358 following divergence, c) IM model with symmetric migration, d) IM model with symmetric migration and
 359 population size changes, e) IM model with migration from the Western to Eastern population, f) IM model with
 360 migration from population Eastern to Western, g) IM model with symmetric migration between populations
 361 immediately following divergence followed by more contemporary isolation, h) IM model with isolation
 362 immediately following divergence followed by secondary contact and symmetric migration, i) IM model with
 363 migration from population Western to Eastern immediately following divergence followed by more contemporary
 364 isolation, j) IM model with isolation immediately following divergence followed by secondary contact and
 365 migration from population Western to Eastern, k) IM model with migration from population Eastern to Western
 366 immediately following divergence followed by more contemporary isolation, and l) IM model with isolation
 367 immediately following divergence followed by secondary contact and migration from population Eastern to
 368 Western.

369

370

371 3. RESULTS

372 3.1. Dataset assembly

373 Double digest RADseq library preparation and sequencing resulted in a total of 186.7
374 million sequence reads across 141 individuals, 175.6 million of which passed quality control
375 filtering and were retained to create the final dataset. Accounting for individuals with low
376 sequence reads (< 500,000 reads) and cryptic species level diversity (Titus et al., 2018) resulted
377 in a final intraspecific dataset of 101 individuals (Table 1; Table S1). Requiring a locus to be
378 present in a minimum of 75% of all individuals resulted in a final holobiont data set of 11,331
379 parsimony-informative sites distributed across 3854 unlinked loci. After BLASTing these loci to
380 the *Exaiptasia diaphana* genome, we retained 1402 loci that had matched with high confidence
381 ($\geq 85\%$ identity) and these were used as the final aposymbiotic SNP dataset. A total of 59 of the
382 3854 holobiont ddRADseq loci ($\sim 1.5\%$) mapped to Symbiodiniaceae genomes (Table S3),
383 confirming the presence of at least some symbiont DNA in our holobiont dataset. Of these, 58
384 mapped to the *S. microadriaticum* genome and one mapped to the *C. goreau* genome (Table
385 S3). Only five *B. annulata* loci mapped to the starlet sea anemone *N. vectensis* genome (Table
386 S4). SNP files and raw data for both holobiont and aposymbiotic datasets are available on Dryad
387 (Dryad doi:XXX).

388

389 3.2. Population genetic structure

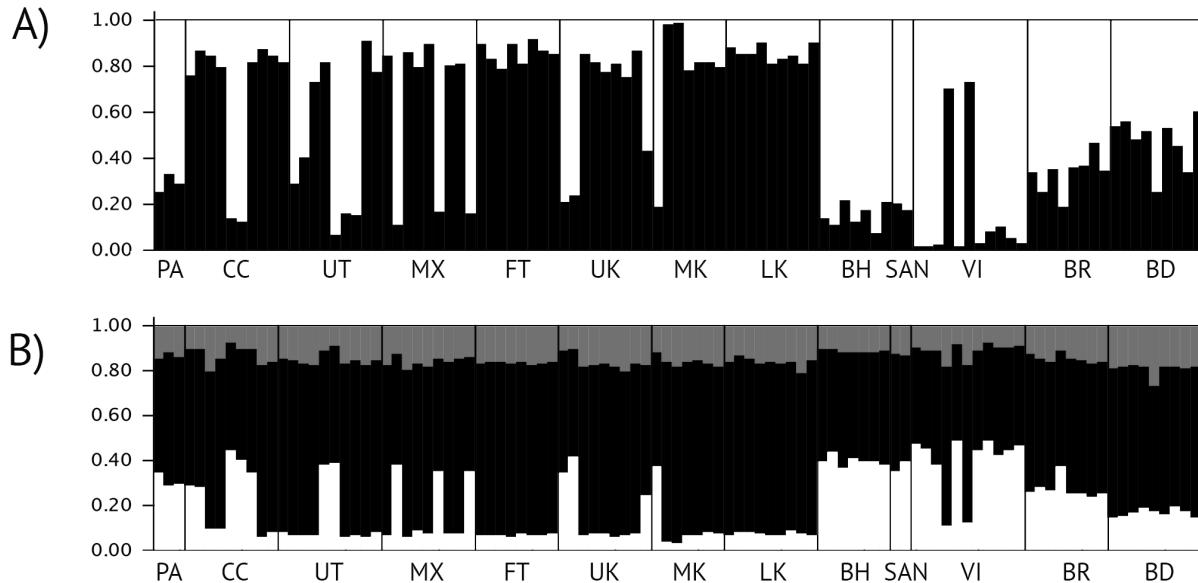
390 Genetic clustering analysis in Structure resolved similar patterns across the TWA for both
391 aposymbiotic and holobiont datasets. For the aposymbiotic dataset, $K = 2$ was selected by
392 Structure using both $\ln P(K)$ and ΔK as the best clustering scheme (Fig. 3; Table S5). Diversity
393 was largely binned into Western and Eastern partitions, but with admixture (Figure 3). The most
394 notable genetic break was that between the Lower Keys (LK) and Eleuthera, Bahamas (BH),
395 sample localities in close proximity and bisected by the Florida Straits (Figs. 1 & 3). The

396 holobiont dataset recovered similar geographic partitioning, but Structure selected $K = 3$ as the
397 best partitioning scheme using $\ln P(K)$ and ΔK (Fig. 3; Table S6). The additional genetic cluster
398 did not illuminate any unrecovered geographic partitioning across the region beyond what was
399 recovered by a $K = 2$ partitioning scheme (Fig. 3). The West-East genetic break across the TWA,
400 with admixture, is still largely resolved in the holobiont dataset with the most notable break
401 again between the LK and BH sample localities (Fig. 3b).

402 Population genetic analyses in Arlequin reflect nearly identical results for both datasets.
403 AMOVA results indicate low, but significant, population genetic structure at all hierarchical
404 levels for both datasets, and both datasets have similar patterns of genetic variation at each
405 hierarchical level (Table 2). Similarly, pairwise ϕ_{ST} values calculated by Arlequin were low, but
406 significant, among many sample localities for both datasets (Table 3), and there were no major
407 differences in the genetic diversity summary statistics for both datasets across the range (Table
408 4).

409

410



411

412 Figure 3. A) Genetic clustering results ($K=2$) for the aposymbiotic *Bartholomea annulata* RADseq dataset. B)
413 Genetic clustering results ($K=3$) for the holobiont *Bartholomea annulata* RADseq dataset. Samples are partitioned
414 by sample locality in a largely West to East (left to right) geographic layout. 1. Bocas del Toro, Panama, 2) Cayos
415 Cochinos, Honduras, 3) Utila, Honduras, 4) Mahahual, Mexico, 5) Ft. Lauderdale, Florida, 6) Upper Keys, Florida,
416 7) Middle Keys, Florida, 8) Lower Keys, Florida, 9) Eleuthera, Bahamas, 10) San Salvador, Bahamas, 11) St.
417 Thomas, US Virgin Islands, 12) Barbados, 13) Bermuda.

418

419 3.3. Demographic model selection

420 Coalescent modeling in FSC2 returned identical model selection results between
421 aposymbiotic and holobiont datasets (Table 5). For both, Akaike Information Critereon (AIC)
422 selected model 6, an IM model with unidirectional gene flow from East to West, as the best-fit
423 model (Fig. 2). According to Akaike model weights, model 6 received over 0.70 of the support
424 (Table 5) in both aposymbiotic and holobiont datasets. A secondary contact model (Model 10;
425 Fig. 2), with isolation immediately after divergence followed by secondary contact and
426 unidirectional West-East gene flow, received the next highest amount of support according to
427 AIC, although the Akaike weight differed in how much support was given to each, with the
428 aposymbiotic dataset having a clearer preference for this model over the next best one, compared
429 to the holobiont data set (Table 5).

430 Parameter values and confidence intervals for effective population size, divergence time,
431 and migration rate estimated from FSC2 simulations were entirely overlapping between
432 aposymbiotic and holobiont datasets (Table 6). For both datasets, FSC2 estimated that Eastern *B.*
433 *annulata* populations had greater effective population sizes than Western populations, and that
434 per-generation migration rate was low (Table 6). Divergence time estimates varied more than
435 other parameter values but still had overlapping confidence intervals. The aposymbiotic dataset
436 had an estimated a mean divergence time between Eastern and Western populations at ~39,000
437 ybp, whereas the holobiont dataset had an estimated a mean divergence time between
438 populations at ~58,000 ybp.

439

440 **4. DISCUSSION**

441 *4.1. Reduced representation sequencing for symbiotic anthozoans*

442 Symbiodiniacean DNA contamination has represented a substantial hurdle for researchers
443 working on tropical anthozoans (e.g. Shearer et al., 2005; Bongaerts et al., 2017; Leydet et al.,
444 2018), and high-throughput sequencing has done little to alleviate these issues in population-
445 level studies. Based on the analyses we conduct here, however, we fail to reject our hypothesis
446 that, anthozoan reference genomes may not always be necessary for making reliable spatial and
447 demographic phylogeographic inference including, importantly, population parameter estimates.
448 Instead, we find broadly similar interpretations from a holobiont dataset and from one “cleaned”
449 of symbiont sequences. Understanding the evolutionary and historical processes that have shaped
450 the diversity of tropical anthozoans has been, and will continue to be, an important research
451 priority for marine phylogeographers (Bowen, Rocha, Toonen, Karl, & ToBo Lab, 2016; Bowen
452 et al., 2016). Our results present a promising framework and way forward for researchers

453 wishing to employ these reduced representation sequencing approaches on symbiotic anthozoan
454 species that are not closely related to species with currently available reference genomes.

455 The framework and experimental design of our study, effectively a single-species
456 phylogeographic study that spans the entire range of our focal taxon, is representative of many
457 studies that examine the spatial and demographic history of a given species. Although the degree
458 to which symbiotic anthozoans are specific to a particular lineage of Symbiodiniaceae is
459 unresolved, evidence is mounting that these associations are spatially and temporally variable,
460 particularly in stony corals, where much of this research has focused (e.g. Silverstein et al.,
461 2012). Thus, we believe that given a broad sampling scheme with respect to geography and
462 habitat, *de novo* assembly and SNP-calling programs will act as *de facto* filtering programs for
463 symbiodiniaceans in many reduced representation datasets produced from symbiotic anthozoans.
464 Resulting datasets will be overwhelmingly comprised of anthozoan DNA loci.

465 In our analyses, we would expect that more than doubling of our dataset (~1400 to 3800
466 SNPs) by the inclusion of putative symbiont loci in our holobiont dataset would lead to major
467 differences in interpretation. The ~2400 uncharacterized loci that did not map to the *E. diaphana*
468 genome represent some combination of anemone and symbiont sequences. Because each
469 anthozoan tentacle cell can contain dozens of *Symbiodinium* cells, and thus *Symbiodinium* nuclei
470 often outnumber anemone nuclei (reviewed by Davy, Allemand, & Weis, 2012), the holobiont
471 dataset could reflect a greater contribution from dinoflagellates than from *B. annulata*. If even
472 only half of the 2400 uncharacterized loci our holobiont dataset were from members of
473 Symbiodiniaceae, we would expect them to greatly influence our holobiont analyses, especially
474 our parameter estimates, which should be the most sensitive to the incorporation of sequence
475 data from multiple species with different evolutionary histories. That we recover

476 indistinguishable phylogeographic histories with completely overlapping diversity indices and
477 parameter estimates leads us to hypothesize that we have very few symbiodiniacean loci in our
478 holobiont dataset. The use of a sea anemone reference genome from the same family rather than
479 a congeneric or conspecific reference genome is the most likely explanation for why ~2300 loci
480 remain uncharacterized in our holobiont dataset: these loci are not shared between *E. diaphana*
481 and *B. annulata*, and so are not included in the aposymbiotic dataset (because that uses the *E.*
482 *diaphana* genome as a probe for putative anemone loci). Although mapping our reads to
483 genomic resources from members of Symbiodiniaceae confirms we do have some dinoflagellate
484 sequence data in our holobiont dataset (at least ~1.5% of all loci), these are such a small fraction
485 of the SNPs that they may simply be genetic “noise,” swamped out by orders of magnitude more
486 anthozoan SNPs.

487 Conspecific, or congeneric, reference genomes clearly represent the best approach to
488 removing symbiont loci from reduced representation datasets. However, to date, there are only a
489 handful of published anthozoan genomes (Baumgarten et al. 2015; Prada et al., 2017; Putnam et
490 al. 2007; Shinzato et al. 2011; Wang, Liew, Li, Zoccola, Tambutte, & Aranda, 2017; Voolstra et
491 al., 2017). Our study demonstrates that reference genomes within the same family may serve as
492 adequate genomic resources, but reference genomes that are simply within the same order are
493 likely too distant to serve in the same capacity, at least for actinarians: only five loci from *B.*
494 *annulata* (suborder Anthemonae, superfamily Metridioidea, family Aiptasiidae) mapped to the
495 genome of *Nematostella vectensis* (suborder Anenthemonae, superfamily Edwardsioidiea,
496 Family Edwardsiidae). This point parallels the observation that using a reference genome of the
497 endosymbiotic dinoflagellate without concern for the particular lineage of symbiodiniacean
498 harbored by a particular anthozoan is unlikely to remove all dinoflagellate loci.

499 From a practical standpoint, we recommend that studies employing reduced
500 representation approaches for symbiotic anthozoans without genomic resources from closely
501 related species 1) employ extensive geographic sampling, or sample broadly across ecologically
502 disjunct habitats (i.e. depth, temperature, nutrient concentration) to maximize the likelihood of
503 sampling hosts that harbor diverse symbiodiniaceans and 2) demonstrate empirically that
504 multiple lineages of Symbiodiniaceae are represented in the collected samples via PCR or
505 sequencing (e.g. ITS, cp23s). In host species with highly specific endosymbiont associations, the
506 approach to sampling and sequencing we describe here would likely be ineffective, as
507 orthologous symbiodiniacean loci would be present in all samples and sample localities, and *de*
508 *novo* clustering programs would not filter these out. In these cases, employing approaches like
509 those of Bongaerts et al. (2017) or Leydet et al. (2018) may be required. Finally, for a host
510 species where population genetic differentiation is driven by a handful of SNPs under selection,
511 incorporating even a small number of symbiont loci could mask important signal. This is
512 unknowable *a priori*, and studies wanting to analyze holobiont DNA at the population level
513 should acknowledge these limitations, and follow up studies should be conducted once reference
514 genomes are available.

515

516 *4.2. Phylogeographic history of Bartholomea annulata*

517 The phylogeographic history of coral reef communities in the TWA most often revolves
518 around a major barrier to dispersal at the Mona Passage, separating Hispanola from Puerto Rico
519 (e.g. Baums et al., 2005; Hellberg, 2007; DeBiasse et al. 2016). This barrier has been well
520 resolved for a number of stony corals, fishes, and other invertebrates (reviewed by DeBiasse et
521 al. 2016). Our range-wide phylogeographic analysis demonstrates that the corkscrew sea

522 anemone *Bartholomea annulata* shows subtle, but significant, genetic structure across the TWA,
523 with the Florida Straits, rather than the Mona Passage, being the most well resolved
524 phylogeographic break in the region. Further, while we demonstrate a number of low, but
525 significant, φ_{ST} values across many sample localities, genetic clustering loosely groups *B.*
526 *annulata* into Eastern and Western populations (Fig. 3). The Bahamas and the Florida Keys,
527 sample localities immediately to the East and West of the Florida Straits are separated by ~100
528 km, but is the region with the clearest genetic partitioning (Figure 3). Sample localities further
529 East (e.g. Barbados, Bermuda) and West (e.g. Mexico, Honduras) exhibit more genetic
530 admixture and may have experienced more historical and contemporary gene flow. No other
531 major genetic structuring was recovered across the TWA, although phylogeographic breaks and
532 regions with unique genetic diversity are known for other groups of organisms, including the
533 Southern Caribbean phylogeographic break between Panama and Curacao, a proposed Central
534 Bahamas phylogeographic break, and regions such as the Meso-American Barrier Reef, Panama,
535 and Bermuda (reviewed by DeBiasse et al. 2016).

536 Across the Florida Straits, demographic model selection suggests that the best fit for
537 these data among the models we tested is a two-population pattern with continuous
538 unidirectional gene flow from East to West following divergence (Table 5). An important note is
539 that as the coalescent is a backwards-in-time framework, a model with gene flow from East to
540 West reflects forward-in-time gene flow from West to East. This largely fits with the prevailing
541 currents in the TWA, as currents that deflect North in the Western Caribbean basin ultimately
542 form the Loop Current in the Gulf of Mexico and then are forced East through the narrow stretch
543 of sea between Florida and Cuba before turning North again and forming the Gulf Stream.

544 Contemporary gene flow from East to West, would most likely occur in the Southern Caribbean
545 where equatorial currents flow westward near the Southern Windward Islands.

546 Divergence time estimates from FSC2 between Eastern and Western populations given
547 the current estimate of mutation rate suggests a recent divergence between populations of *B.*
548 *annulata* sometime within the last 30,000-50,000 years (Table 6), firmly within the most recent
549 glacial maxima (15,000-100,000 years before present). During this time, sea level would have
550 been as much as 120 m below present day levels, and both the Florida peninsula and the
551 Bahamas platform would have been sub-aerially exposed, significantly increasing the amount of
552 dry land subdividing the region and also decreasing available reef habitat (reviewed by Ludt &
553 Rocha 2015). This would have been especially true for Eleuthera, which would have been
554 isolated from the Florida Straits by two large portions of the then-dry-land Bahamas Banks, and
555 two enclosed deep water trenches (Tongue of the Ocean and the Exuma Sound). Water
556 exchange, and thus potential for dispersal and gene flow, would have been greatly reduced
557 during this period, allowing for allopatric divergence and local retention of larvae. This scenario
558 would fit well with a phylogeographic model of divergence followed by a period of isolation,
559 then secondary contact and migration during more recent interglacial periods which coincided
560 with sea level rise. A secondary contact model was the next best fit to our data according to AIC
561 (Table 5). However, we either 1) do not have enough signature in the data for it to be selected as
562 the best fit, or, 2) even though the Florida and Bahamas populations would have been largely
563 isolated, other sample localities in the Eastern (i.e. Virgin Islands, Barbados) and Western (i.e.
564 Mexico, Honduras) would not have been isolated to the same extent, and gene flow between
565 these localities could be responsible for the unidirectional gene flow we see in our best-fit
566 models.

567 Interestingly, FSC2 simulations and population summary statistics estimate larger
568 effective population sizes in the Eastern Caribbean than in the West (Table 6). At face value, this
569 seems to be at odds with the current geography of the Western Caribbean basin as there is more
570 submerged continental-shelf shallow-water habitat in the Western Caribbean and Florida than
571 there is in the Eastern Caribbean (Ludt & Rocha, 2015), where coral reef habitat is largely
572 limited to small fringing reefs around islands of volcanic origin. Unidirectional gene flow from
573 the West to the East, as recovered by our best-fit model, could be responsible for this increase in
574 effective population size, with the Eastern Caribbean effectively a sink of a genetic diversity. In
575 addition, the Bahamas are a large, shallow, archipelago and likely capable of supporting
576 immense census population sizes of *B. annulata*. As a habitat generalist, *B. annulata* can
577 colonize hard bottom, seagrass, mangrove, and coral-dominated habitats (e.g. Briones-Fourzán et
578 al. 2012; O'Reilly & Chadwick, 2017; Titus et al., 2017a), and is thus, not limited strictly to fore
579 reefs. Large habitat space with genetic input from Western population could be driving this
580 pattern.

581

582 4.3. Conclusions

583 Our study demonstrates that the corkscrew sea anemone, *Bartholomea annulata*, exhibits
584 weak genetic structure across the Tropical Western Atlantic, and that demographic modeling of
585 this species suggests that unidirectional gene flow from the western to eastern Caribbean can
586 largely explain the observed patterns of genetic diversity. Interestingly, we recover the same
587 spatial and demographic patterns, including entirely overlapping parameter estimates, regardless
588 of whether we use an aposymbiotic ddRADseq dataset or whether we use our putative holobiont
589 dataset. Although we can confirm that at least ~1.5% of the loci in the holobiont dataset are from

590 members of Symbiodiniaceae, we hypothesize that the remaining ~2400 uncharacterized loci are
591 primarily from *B. annulata*, representing SNPs not shared with *Exaiptasia diaphana*. Because of
592 the diversity of dinoflagellate lineages hosted by *B. annulata* across its range and the genetic
593 divergence within and among lineages within Symbiodiniaceae, we believe the manner in which
594 *de novo* reduced representation clustering algorithms assemble RADseq datasets effectively
595 removes most of the SNPs from the photosymbionts.

596 To further test our hypothesis, this study should be repeated with an anthozoan species
597 with flexible *Symbiodinium* associations and that has a conspecific reference genome available
598 (e.g., in *Exaiptasia diaphana*, *Acropora digitifera*, *Stylophora pistillata*). This would allow the
599 exact number of anthozoan SNPs identified in the final dataset to be quantified rather than
600 leaving a large fraction of SNPs uncharacterized. Nonetheless, our findings represent an
601 important avenue along which future research on symbiotic anthozoans can continue until greater
602 numbers of reference genomes can be sequenced, annotated, and made publicly available.
603 Tropical anthozoans form the foundation of ecosystems that rival rainforests in diversity,
604 perform important ecological roles, have commercial value, and are especially vulnerable to
605 climate change (e.g. Hughes et al. 2017; Palumbi et al., 2014). As selection can act rapidly on
606 standing genetic diversity (Przeworski et al., 2005; Barrett & Schluter, 2008; Reid et al., 2016),
607 understanding the historical processes that have shaped contemporary distributions of diversity
608 can help set conservation priorities in a rapidly changing climate.

609

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630

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633

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637

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901 **Tables**

902 Table 1. Sample localities, sample sizes, and geographic coordinates of corkscrew sea anemone
903 *Bartholomea annulata* used in this study. Sample sizes reflect the number of samples sequenced
904 and the number of samples retained in the final double digest Restriction-site Associated DNA
905 sequencing (ddRADseq) dataset after accounting for low sequence reads and cryptic species
906 diversity (in parentheses). Differences between the number of samples sequenced and retained
907 reflects variation in the number of sequence reads and sequencing coverage in our ddRADseq
908 dataset across all individuals.

Locality	Code	Sample sizes	Latitude	Longitude
Eleuthera, Bahamas	BH	10 (7)	24°49'44.51"N	76°16'46.11"W
San Salvador, Bahamas	SAN	10 (2)	24° 2'37.12"N	74°31'59.83"W
Barbados	BR	10 (8)	13°11'30.52"N	59°38'29.04"W
Bermuda	BD	12 (9)	32°26'53.62"N	64°45'45.42"W
Curacao	CU	10 (0)	12° 7'19.45"N	68°58'10.80"W
Ft. Lauderdale, Florida, USA	FT	9 (8)	26° 4'19.80"N	80° 5'46.68"W
Upper Keys, Florida, USA	UK	10 (9)	25° 1'57.92"N	80°22'4.45"W
Middle Keys, Florida, USA	MK	10 (7)	24°41'58.09"N	80°56'21.48"W
Lower Keys, Florida, USA	LK	10 (9)	24°33'42.39"N	81°23'31.59"W
Utila, Honduras	UT	10 (10)	16° 5'18.03"N	86°54'38.54"W
Cayos Cochinos, Honduras	CC	10 (9)	15°57'1.12"N	86°29'51.82"W
Mahahual, Mexico	MX	10 (9)	18°42'18.45"N	87°42'34.46"W
Bocas del Toro, Panama	PA	10 (3)	9°25'7.28"N	82°20'32.55"W
St. Thomas, US Virgin Islands	VI	11 (11)	18°19'0.69"N	64°59'22.59"W
Total		141(101)		

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914 Table 2. Analysis of Molecular Variance (AMOVA) results for aposymbiotic and holobiont
915 *Bartholomea annulata* RADseq datasets. Data were partitioned into Eastern and Western
916 Regions and reflect nearly identical levels of genetic diversity partitioned at all hierarchical
917 levels. **p < 0.0005; *p < 0.005.

Dataset	Among localities	φ_{ST}	Among localities within regions	φ_{SC}	Among regions	φ_{CT}
Aposymbiotic	96.55	0.03**	2.24	0.02**	1.21	0.01*
Holobiont	95.90	0.04**	2.62	0.03**	1.48	0.01*

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929 Table 3. Pairwise φ_{ST} calculated among sample localities for aposymbiotic (below diagonal) and
 930 holobiont (above diagonal) *Bartholomea annulata* datasets. Locality codes correspond to those in
 931 Figure 1. φ_{ST} values highlighted and bolded are significant at $p < 0.05$. ^denotes φ_{ST} values
 932 significant in the holobiont dataset only

	PA	CC	UT	MX	FT	UK	MK	LK	BH	SAN	VI	BR	BD
PA	-	0.05	0.03	0.08	0.05	0.03	0.04	0.04	0.05	0.03	0.03	0.03[^]	0.03
CC	0.05	-	0.05	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.03	0.07	0.07	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.05
UT	0.03	0.04	-	0.08	0.04	0.03	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.04	0.05	0.03	0.05
MX	0.06	0.02	0.07	-	0.07	0.05[^]	0.09	0.09	0.08	0.07	0.08	0.05[^]	0.07
FT	0.05	0.03	0.04	0.06	-	0.03	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.04	0.03[^]	0.04	0.05
UK	0.03	0.04	0.02	0.03	0.02	-	0.03	0.02	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.01[^]	0.02
MK	0.03	0.02	0.03	0.07	0.06	0.02	-	0.02[^]	0.03	0.00	0.02	0.01	0.02
LK	0.03	0.06	0.04	0.07	0.06	0.02	0.01	-	0.03	0.00	0.02	0.02	0.02
BH	0.04	0.06	0.05	0.05	0.06	0.02	0.02	0.03	-	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.03
SAN	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.07	0.04	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	-	0.06	0.00	0.00
VI	0.02	0.04	0.05	0.04	0.04	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.02	0.07	-	0.00	0.00
BR	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.04	0.03	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.00	0.00	-	0.02[^]
BD	0.03	0.04	0.03	0.05	0.04	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.03	0.00	0.02	0.01	-

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941 Table 4. Diversity indices calculated from aposymbiotic and holobiont (in parentheses) RADseq
 942 data for *Bartholomea annulata* across the Tropical Western Atlantic. Diversity indices calculated
 943 for each sample locality and for each genetically defined population grouping determined by
 944 Structure. Values reflect nearly identical genetic diversity indices between aposymbiotic and
 945 holobiont datasets all sample localities. N_G = Number of gene copies, SS = segregating sites, θ =
 946 theta calculated from segregating sites, π = nucleotide diversity, Ho = observed heterozygosity,
 947 He = expected heterozygosity.

Sample locality	Code	N_G	SS	θ	π	Ho	He
Eleuthera	BH	14	169 (169)	53.1 (53.1)	0.030 (0.028)	0.20 (0.18)	0.21 (0.19)
San Salvador	SAN	4	93 (84)	50.7 (45.8)	0.033 (0.029)	0.45 (0.48)	0.52 (0.51)
Barbados	BR	16	166 (140)	50.02 (42.1)	0.031 (0.026)	0.17 (0.17)	0.19 (0.18)
Bermuda	BD	18	197 (177)	57.7 (51.4)	0.035 (0.032)	0.15 (0.15)	0.17 (0.16)
Curacao	CU	-	-	-	-	-	-
Ft. Lauderdale, Florida, USA	FT	16	206 (178)	62.08 (53.6)	0.031 (0.026)	0.17 (0.15)	0.18 (0.16)
Upper Keys, Florida, USA	UK	18	221 (198)	64.2 (57.5)	0.03 (0.028)	0.15 (0.14)	0.16 (0.15)
Middle Keys, Florida, USA	MK	14	177 (151)	55.6 (47.4)	0.029 (0.027)	0.18 (0.19)	0.20 (0.20)
Lower Keys, Florida, USA	LK	18	198 (169)	57.56 (49.3)	0.033 (0.026)	0.17 (0.16)	0.18 (0.16)
Cayos Cochinos, Honduras	CC	18	194 (169)	56.4 (49.1)	0.029 (0.025)	0.15 (0.14)	0.16 (0.15)
Utila, Honduras	UT	20	179 (163)	50.4 (45.9)	0.027 (0.042)	0.13 (0.12)	0.14 (0.13)
Mexico	MX	18	152 (148)	44.1 (43.0)	0.033 (0.032)	0.14 (0.14)	0.16 (0.15)
Panama	PA	6	68 (59)	29.8 (25.8)	0.025 (0.022)	0.33 (0.35)	0.39 (0.38)
US Virgin Islands	VI	22	152 (171)	41.6 (46.9)	0.026 (0.027)	0.14 (0.13)	0.15 (0.13)

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950 Table 5. Akaike Information Criterion results for model selection from FSC2 for the
 951 aposymbiotic and holobiont (in parentheses) *Bartholomea annulata* datasets. Model rank was
 952 identical between aposymbiotic and holobiont datasets, with broadly similar model likelihoods
 953 and model weights. Model refers to those depicted and described in Figure 2. k = number of
 954 parameters in the model, AIC = Akaike Information Criterion, Δ_i = change in AIC scores, and w_i
 955 = Akaike weights. Models are listed according to their AIC rank and the highest ranked model is
 956 highlighted.

Model	k	ln(Likelihood)	AIC	Δ_i	Model Likelihoods	w_i
6 - IM _{EW}	5	-8846.5 (-19863.5)	17703.1 (39737.0)	0 (0)	1 (1)	0.75 (0.73)
10 - IM _{ISO-MIG-WE}	6	-8847.3 (-19863.5)	17706.7 (39739.0)	3.5 (2.0)	0.17 (0.36)	0.12 (0.26)
5 - IM _{WE}	5	-8848.4 (-19870.0)	17706.9 (39750.1)	3.7 (13.1)	0.15 (0.001)	0.11 (0.001)
3 - IM	6	-8853.0 (-19877.1)	17718.0 (39766.3)	14.8 (29.3)	$6.0e^{-3}$ ($4.2e^{-7}$)	$4.0e^{-3}$ ($3.1e^{-7}$)
8 - IM _{ISO-MIG}	7	-8857.7 (-19844.6)	17729.5 (39783.3)	26.3 (46.3)	$1.8e^{-6}$ ($8.6e^{-11}$)	$1.4e^{-6}$ ($6.3e^{-11}$)
1 - ISO	4	-8868.3 (-19922.8)	17744.6 (39853.7)	41.4 (116.7)	$1.0e^{-9}$ ($4.5e^{-26}$)	$7.7e^{-10}$ ($3.3e^{-26}$)
12 - IM _{ISO-MIG-EW}	6	-8885.5 (-19963.2)	17783.0 (39938.4)	79.8 (201.3)	$4.6e^{-18}$ ($1.8e^{-44}$)	$3.4e^{-18}$ ($1.3e^{-44}$)
2 - ISOc	11	-10965.6 (-22778.0)	21953.3 (45578.1)	4250.0 (5841.1)	0 (0)	0 (0)
4 - IMc	12	-11569.8 (-24493.4)	23163.7 (49010.9)	5460.5 (9272.9)	0 (0)	0 (0)
9 - IM _{MIG-WE-ISO}	6	-13772.4 (-30574.7)	27556.8 (61161.5)	9853.6 (21424.4)	0 (0)	0 (0)
7 - IM _{MIG-ISO}	7	-13772.0 (-30576.1)	27558.1 (61166.2)	9854.9 (21429.1)	0 (0)	0 (0)
11 - IM _{MIG-EW-ISO}	6	-13947.7 (-30985.4)	27907.5 (61982.8)	10204.3 (22245.8)	0 (0)	0 (0)

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958 Table 6. Parameter estimates and 95% confidence intervals (CI) generated from FSC2 coalescent
959 simulations for aposymbiotic (Aposym) and holobiont (Holo) *Bartholomea annulata* datasets. N_e
960 = effective population size, τ = divergence time, Mig_{EW} = migration rate from Eastern to Western
961 populations. Values reported for N_e are in number of individuals and the values for τ are reported
962 in years before present. Parameter values reflect overlapping confidence intervals between
963 aposymbiotic and holobiont for every parameter calculated.

Dataset	N_e Ancestral		N_e West		N_e East		τ		Mig_{EW}	
	Mean	95% CI	Mean	95% CI	Mean	95% CI	Mean	95% CI	Mean	95% CI
Aposym	38,179	(± 6058)	61,787	(± 5465)	100,290	(± 5339)	39,274	(± 11,079)	1.50e ⁻⁴	(± 1.24 e ⁻⁵)
Holo	33,273	(± 9477)	68,137	(± 5302)	118,113	(± 10,619)	58,140	(± 14,884)	1.25e ⁻⁴	(± 9.46 e ⁻⁶)

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