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Larger Symbiont-bearing Benthic Foraminiferal Assemblages in Shelf Sediments of Andaman-Nicobar Archipelago

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Authors' contributions

This work was carried out in collaboration among all authors. Author MM did the sample collection, sample analysis, identification of foraminifera, data analyses and manuscript. Authors RB and PMM did the research plan, sample collection and manuscript preparation. Author JRP did the statistical analysis. Authors AR, CJ and PJR did the sample collection, isolation of foraminifera, sediment sample processes and review of literature. Authors ADS and ASM did the scanning electron microscopic photograph and discussions. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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ABSTRACT

The endosymbionts bearing larger benthic foraminifera (LBF) is among the important faunal group of coral reef ecosystems. They are extensively studied globally to understand coral reefs' health prospects. This paper aimed to document the number of species belongs LBF that existed in the shelf sediments of Andaman and Nicobar Islands (ANI). To know the species composition between shallow (~10 m) to deeper transect (~50 m). In addition, the distribution and diversity of LBF from present study compared with earlier reported data from other geographical locations of the Indian Ocean. A total of 26 LBF species were identified in 26 sediment samples from 13 locations, which was the highest richness of LBF among the studies reported earlier from 35° E to 93° E (west to east) of Indian Ocean. However, other than ANI the Gulf of Mannar and Red Sea showed more species richness (16 species from each) and lowest richness was found at Chagos Archipelago and Arabian Gulf (4 species each). Two assemblages found in the study corresponded with the two targeted- sample transects of ~10 and ~50 m those are the assemblage I *Calcarina spenglerii* group and the assemblage II *Calcarina mayori* group from the depth transect respectively.

Keywords: Species richness; coral reef; algal symbionts; mesophotic environments.

1. INTRODUCTION

Coral reefs are biodiverse and economically valuable marine ecosystems [1,2]. Shallow-water and mesophotic coral reefs occur within subtropical and tropical regions (~30°S–30°N), living on the seafloor within the photic zone [3,4]. Reef ecosystems are often called rain forests of the oceans based on their immense biodiversity; they can harbor 32 out of 34 described phyla that occur in marine habitats [5]. Yet coral reefs are well developed and extend to the greatest depths in very clear, nutrient-poor (oligotrophic) waters where sufficient light for photosynthesis can reach depths in excess of 100 m [6-9].

Benthic foraminifera that host algal endosymbionts and grow to larger sizes than most other benthic protozoans are often informally referred to as larger benthic foraminifera (LBF). The LBF are important calcifiers, contributing substantially to reef sediments [10-13]. The LBF can be long lived compared to most other shallow-dwelling foraminifera, growing slowly over the course of months to a year or more to reach diameters usually in excess of 1 mm and commonly >1 cm. Because they host symbiotic algae, they generally require predictably clear water, especially those living at depths >20 m [14,15]. suitable light intensities and limited With availability of dissolved inorganic nutrients (e.g., ammonia, nitrite, nitrate and phosphate), the

photosynthetic algal symbionts can produce photosynthate (i.e., simple sugars and lipids) well in excess of the inorganic nutrients that are available for algal growth. Instead, the algae excrete their excess photosynthate to the host, providing the host with energy for calcification, metabolism, and reproduction, while feeding by the host provides essential nutrients for growth of the host and the algae [16,17].

Since the late Paleozoic, LBF have been common components of carbonate biofacies, especially throughout the Cenozoic [18,19]. The LBF are widely used as stratigraphic tools [20-22], as well as paleoenvironmental indicators [23,24]. The latter interpretations have been based in part upon ecological studies of modern LBF [25-28] that have revealed that specific assemblages and morphologies can be used to interpret paleodepth and other paleoenvironmental factors [23,24].

The definition of LBF has varied substantially through time and across studies. Originally, the term referred to fossil taxa that were large in size and sufficiently complex in internal morphologies that they required examination in oriented thin sections to identify them, and that were useful in biostratigraphic research (Drooger [29], and references therein). Their likely dependence on algal endosymbionts when alive was not originally recognized. Moreover, this definition did not include the Amphisteginidae nor the Peneroplidae, despite their common occurrence in Cenozoic fossil LBF assemblages [23, 30].

In the 1970s and 1980s, researchers began to recognize that many of the largest foraminifera, in reef and carbonate-shelf which live environments where thev are important sediments. contributors to host algal endosymbionts [31,32]. This understanding greatly enhanced the utility of such foraminifera as paleoenvironmental indicators. Recognition that Amphistegina spp. host algal endosymbionts, important sediment are producers, and are amenable to study in culture, resulted in some researchers including them in the informal LBF functional group. More recently, with greater emphasis on algal symbiosis than on size or carbonate production, even peneroplids that are quite small (e.g., Monalysidium spp.) are being considered LBF by some authors [33].

As currently used, extant LBF include members of the orders Miliolida and Rotaliida, with several families that host algal symbionts represented in each order. Among the Miliolida, there are families that host diatoms (Alveolinidae), dinoflagellates (Soritidae), chlorophytes (Soritidae. Peneroplidae), and rhodophytes (Peneroplidae) [31,32]. Among the Rotaliida, diatoms are the predominant algal-symbiont group.

Species recognized as LBF can be found on oceanic banks, continental margins and islandshelf margins throughout most of the warmtemperate, subtropical and tropical latitudes where sufficient light for photosynthesis reaches the sea floor to depths of at least several meters [15,34,35]. However, taxonomic comparisons of LBF assemblages have been influenced by several trends. As noted above, what taxa have been categorized as LBF has varied widely through time. Moreover, whether the taxa have been identified conservatively by taxonomic "lumpers" or separated more finely by "splitters" has influenced the number of species reported in any specific study. Finally, technology has played a key role, first with improved optics and scanning electron microscopy and, more recently, such applications as micro-CT scanning [36,37] and molecular genetics [38].

A global total of 76 species of extant LBF has been recognized in very recent publications Förderer et al. [33] estimated a total of 68 species for Indo-Pacific Ocean including Red Sea and Persian Gulf, to which [39] added three newly described *Marginopora* species. At least

five species are restricted to the Atlantic Ocean [40]. The 76 species are recognized as belonging to six families: Alveolinidae. Peneroplidae. Soritidae, Amphisteginidae, Calcarinidae and Nummulitidae (though not includina the Asterigerinidae, which host diatom symbionts and are comparable in size to, or larger than, Peneroplidae). Distributions of modern LBF in various regions have been reported by numerous authors, which [33] utilized to model LBF diversity trends, concluding that the highest LBF diversity (54 species) can be found in the Philippines, which is the centre of the Coral Triangle and centre of coral diversity [41].

The Andaman-Nicobar Archipelago also has been identified as a hotspot of biodiversity that deserves attention and preservation [42]. We found relatively few previous studies that reported modern LBF taxa in this region Yuvaraja and Ramanujam [43,44]. reported eight species from the South Andaman and Neil Island, while Muruganantham et al. [45] and Tripati [46] reported 16 species each from the South Andaman and Great Nicobar Islands respectively. Moreover, these studies were not based upon systematic sample collection and did not reveal the ecological and environmental significance of the LBF reported. The goal of our was to sample and assess LBF study assemblages along a north-south traverse from the Northern Andaman to Car Nicobar Island, to assess species richness of taxa we considered to be LBF, and to compare assemblage occurrences between ~10 and ~50 m depth This study also conducted a transects. comprehensive comparison of the distribution and diversity of LBF from the existing literature and within the Indian Ocean, focusing on the western region from 93°E to 35°E.

1.1 Study Area

The Andaman-Nicobar Archipelago in the Northern Indian Ocean $(6-14^{\circ} \text{ N} \text{ and } 92-93^{\circ} \text{ E})$ represents the emergent portion of the Arakan Yoma Ridge (Fig. 1). This ridge is the northern extent of the island arc that is bordered on the west by the Sumatra-Andaman subduction zone [47]. To the west of the Archipelago is the Bay of Bengal, to the east is the younger Andaman Sea. The unique biodiversity and endemism of the Archipelago ranges from indigenous human tribes and unique terrestrial biotas to mega diversity in the marine flora and fauna. Coral reefs include fringing reefs on the eastern side and barrier-reef development to the west.



Fig. 1. Map of the Andaman and Nicobar Islands with sampling locations

The Andaman group of islands are separated from the Nicobar Islands at 10° N by a channel (known as the middle channel) that is 150 km wide and 732 m deep. As a result, the terrestrial fauna and flora are represented by separate provinces: The Indo-Burma Biodiversity Hotspot is recognized in the Andaman Islands, while the Sundaland Hotspot biota are found in the Nicobar Islands [48]. Marine biodiversity has close affinity with the Indo-Malayan and Indo-Chinese regions [49]. Two additional passages connect the Andaman Sea with the Bay of Bengal and the equatorial Indian Ocean, the northern channel at 15° N, and the southern channel at 06° N. The Andaman Sea is also connected with the South China Sea through the Malacca Strait [47,50].

The archipelago is influenced by both the southwest and northeast Indian monsoons; average rainfall is ~3000 mm/year. During the winter, surface currents in the Andaman Sea flow to the southwest, driven by north-easterly winds. In summer, westerly winds drive currents towards the northeastern part of the Andaman Sea from the Indian Ocean [51]. The climate of the islands can be classified as three seasons, based on rainfall. The southwest monsoon (May–October) produces heavy rainfall, strong winds and frequent cyclones. During the northeast monsoon (November–December), rainfall is more moderate. The dry season (January–April) is characterized by minimal rainfall, reduced

winds and waves, and consistently calm environmental conditions. High humidity, about 80%, occurs throughout the year. Annual temperature varies from 22.5–32.5° C, averaging slightly higher in the southern Nicobar Islands than in the northern Andaman Islands. Similarly, the average salinity of 32.0–33.5‰ increases to the south. The average primary productivity of the Andaman Sea is 273 mgC/m²/day, indicating an oligotrophic environment [52]. The area selected for this study extends from the North Andaman (13°N) to the South Car Nicobar (9°N) (Fig. 1).

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

We collected 2 sediment samples from each location (one as replicate) of a total of 13 locations and altogether 26 samples. Therefore, ~100 g of sediment was chosen for foraminiferal studies and 50 gm for other sedimentary and geochemical work from each location. While the samples belonging to 10 m depth were collected by SCUBA diving during the coral reef drilling program in March-2018; whereas the 50 m depth was sampled through McIntryre Grab during the 355th voyage of Sagar Sampada (FORV), in January-2016. The sediments collected for foraminifera studies were divided into two aliquots each 50 g and one stored as an archive and another used for the present study. The sediments were washed using tap water to remove the particles <63 µm and air-dried at

room temperature. The dried sediments were sieved to separate the >500 µm and > 63µm. All the available live larger benthic foraminifera (based on the appearance of symbiotic colors on the specimens) specimens were picked using a stereoscopic binocular microscope from the >500 µm sediment fractions. In addition, we also examined 2-3 g sediments of <500 µm and >63µm fractions was essential to finding specimens of the Peneroplidae. The identified specimens were mounted on micropaleontological slides and some selected specimens were illustrated using scanning electron microscopy to aid species identification. The number of specimens counted from replicate samples converted as average numbers (Table 1). Data were analyzed using the statistical software PRIMER-6 [53] to determine species richness (S), number of LBF per 50 g (N), the Margalef Richness Index (D), the Pilou Equitability Index (J'), and the Shannon-Weiner Diversity Index (H'), and to carry out cluster analysis by stations, using Bray Curtis similarity of square-root transformed species-abundance data.

3. RESULTS

Twenty six species of LBF were identified among 2051 specimens considered to have been alive at the time of collection (Table 1) Andaman-Nicobar along the Archipelago (Fig. 1). Eleven species from the Order Miliolida were found, including three belonging to Soritidae. the Family six species of Peneroplidae and two species of Alveolinellidae. The remaining 15 species belonged to the Order Rotaliida, including five species of Amphisteginidae, four species of Calcarinidae, and six species of Nummulitidae. The absolute abundance was high in the families (Fig. 2) were noticed in Calcarinidae (759) followed by Amphisteginidae Peneroplidae (199), Nummulitidae (399). (123). Soritidae (27) and Alveolinellidae (13) in the 10 m depth, though in the 50 m depth it was found as the Nummulitidae (235) was more abundant followed by Amphisteginidae (166), Calcarinidae (121), Soritidae (6) and Alveolinellidae (3). However, the Peneroplidae was absent in this regime.



Fig. 2. Family wise absolute abundance in both ~10 and ~50 m Depths





Fig. 3. Absolute abundance of LBF in both ~10 and ~50 m depths



Fig. 4. Relative abundance of LBF in overall study

Table 1. Larger benthic foraminiferal species counts by sample (LA=Little Andaman, SA=South Andaman, MA=Middle Andaman, NA=North Andaman, CN= Car Nicobar, E = Andaman Seaside of the island chain, W = Bay of Bengal side of the island chain)

Family	Amphisteginidae				Calcarinidae Nummulitidae								Alvelolinellidae Peneroplidae Soritidae														
Species	Amphistegina bicirculata	Amphistegina lessonii	Amphistegina lobifera	Amphistegina papillosa	Amphistegina radiata	Baculogypsinoides spinosa	Calcarina mayori	Calcarina spengleri	Neorotalia calcar	Heterostegina depressa	Operculina ammonoides	Operculina complanata	Palaeonummulites venosus	Planoperculina heterosteginoides	Planostegina operculinoides	Alveolinella quoii	Borelis schlumbergeri	Euthymonacha polita	Monalysidium acicularis	Monalysidium confusa	Peneroplis pertusus	Peneroplis planatus	Peneroplis sp.	Amphisorus hemprichii	Parasorites orbitolitoides	Sorites orbiculus	Total
1-SA (10 m) E	0	76	49	0	0	0	0	170	40	15	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	18	11	32	14	0	0	0	7	449
2-SA (8 m) E	0	63	0	0	0	0	0	198	66	12	18	0	8	0	0	0	1	10	0	7	19	8	0	0	0	0	410
3-MA (07 m) E	0	92	17	0	0	0	0	132	80	0	21	0	12	0	0	0	2	6	0	4	23	13	0	0	0	0	402
4-NA (10 m) E	0	30	56	0	0	0	0	27	32	21	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	10	5	0	0	0	184
5-NA (10 m) E	0	9	0	0	7	0	0	14	0	6	0	0	0	0	0	7	0	0	0	0	12	0	0	13	0	7	75
6-LA (48 m) E	0	4	0	26	17	0	33	0	0	0	0	2	4	0	8	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	97
7-MA (50 m) E	0	8	0	0	21	0	0	0	0	0	0	19	26	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	74
8-MA (56 m) W	0	0	0	17	0	0	0	0	0	0	22	1	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	50
9-NA (67 m) W	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	17	13	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	44
10-NA (63 m) F	12	0	0	0	9	0	20	0	0	0	4	2	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	53
11-SA	0	3	0	0	7	0	0	0	0	0	15	9	0	13	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	0	61
12-CN	0	7	0	22	0	0	27	0	0	0	0	14	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	82
(49 m) E 13-CN	0	0	0	13	0	16	25	0	0	0	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	70
Total	12	292	122	78	61	16	105	541	218	54	106	47	95	26	30	13	3	23	18	22	86	45	5	13	6	14	2051

In the ten sediment samples collected from the ~10 m target depth immediately offshore from the Andaman Islands, 18 species from the six families were identified. The Peneroplidae produced the most species (6). Amphistegina lessonii and Calcarina spengleri tests were found Neorotalia in all five samples; calcar. Heterostegina depressa, Peneroplis pertusus and P. planatus were each found in four samples. Calcarina spenglerii (541 specimens), Amphistegina lessonii (270), Neorotalia calcar (218) and A. lobifera (122) were the most abundant species (Fig. 3) found in the ~10 m samples.

Sixteen sediment samples were collected from the 50-m target depth, including two samples from Car Nicobar and six from Andaman. Overall, these samples were quite variable, vielding 13 species belonging to five families (Table 1). The Nummulitidae, representing five species, made up nearly half (235) of the 531 specimens found in these samples. The most abundant species (Fig. 3) overall were Calcarina mayorii (105 specimens), Amphistegina papillosa Palaeonummulites venosus (78), (75), Operculina ammonoides (57) and Amphistegina radiata (54). Palaeonummulites venosus and O. complanata were found in twelve of the sixteen samples. Specimens found in eight samples, in order of abundance, were Calcarina mayorii, A. radiata, Operculina ammonoides, A. papillosa,

and A. lessonii, though the last accounted for only 22 specimens overall. Other species that occurred in at least four samples were Planostegina operculinoides and Planoperculina heterosteginoides. Amphistegina bicirculata (29 specimens), Baculogypsinoides spinosus (20) and C. spengleri (16) and Alveolinella quoii (3) were each found in two samples. Planostegina operculinoides and Planoperculina heterosteginoides were identified only from the sites off the Andaman Islands. The relative abundance (Fig. 4) found in overall study was dominated with Calcarina spenglerii (26.38%) followed by Amphistegina lessonii (14.24%) and Neorotalia Calcar (10.63%).

Statistical analysis was used to further describe the density, diversity, species richness and equitability of the LBF (Table 2). The density of LBF was 2–22 specimens cm⁻². The Shannon-Wiener Diversity Index (H) ranged from 1.12– 2.03, the Margalef Species Richness Index (D) from 0.70–1.80 and Pielou's Equitability Index (J) varied from 0.68–0.97.

To further understand for the relationship among the stations, cluster analysis was utilized (Bray Curtis Similarity Index), and it has (Fig. 5) emphasized that a total of 3 major groups based on the abundance of LBF at on or above 50% similarity level. Group I from four



Fig. 5. Dendrogram showing relative similarity among the stations

Table 2. Summary of statistics for each sample (S = number of species, N = number of specimens identified, D = Margelef's Richness Index, J' = Peilou's Equitablity Index, H' = Shannon Weiner Diversity Index)

Sample	S	N	D	J'	H'	
1	12	449	1.80	0.79	1.97	
2	11	410	1.66	0.69	1.65	
3	11	402	1.67	0.76	1.83	
4	8	184	1.34	0.87	1.82	
5	8	75	1.62	0.98	2.03	
6	8	97	1.53	0.81	1.68	
7	4	74	0.70	0.95	1.32	
8	4	50	0.77	0.81	1.13	
9	3	44	0.53	0.99	1.09	
10	6	53	1.26	0.88	1.57	
11	7	61	1.46	0.95	1.85	
12	5	82	0.91	0.94	1.51	
13	4	70	0.71	0.98	1.36	

~10 m stations showed 60% average similarity. Calcarina spengleri, A. lessonii (21%), N. calcar, A. lobifera, P. pertusus and P. planatus were the most abundant members of the group. The other shallow site, Station 5, was an outlier from this group due to the occurrence of lower abundance of LBF. Group II included 4 stations from ~50 m sites (6,7,10 and 12), with an average similarity of 42%. The five dominant species were C. mayori, P. venosa, A. radiata, O. complanata and A. papillosa. A third group of two ~50 m stations (8 and 13), with an average similarity of 48%, had two dominant species, O. ammonoides and A. papillosa. Two other deeper stations (9 and 11) showed less similarity due to low abundance and of Nummulitidae species dominance Р heterosteginoides and P. operculinoides. Overall, common species A. lessonii, A. radiata, O. ammonoides, P. venosus and A. quoii were found in samples from both ~10 and ~50 m sites.

4. DISCUSSION

The 26 sediment samples collected across an ~450 km² area of the Andaman-Nicobar Archipelago yielded 26 species of LBF belonging to six families. This number of species is somewhat lower that the ~39 species reported from northwestern Pacific reefs and reefs of Indonesian Archipelago [27,54] and is about half the 54 species reported for the Coral Triangle region and Philippines [33]. However, the number of species that we found was undoubtedly limited by our sampling. In particular, collection of only ten sediment samples at ~10 m depth clearly undersampled for the shallow-dwelling, reef-associated taxa. As Stephenson et al. [55] demonstrated in samples from the Florida reef tract (western Atlantic), most reef-dwelling foraminifera live on firm or hard substrata, not in mobile sediments,

regardless of whether they host algal symbionts. Also, as Baker et al. [40] demonstrated, the shallowest habitats (<5 m) occur in a wider range of environmental conditions than deeper shelf environments, and a greater diversity of habitats can support a greater diversity of taxa. Thus, we undoubtedly missed species that live in reef flats, shallow patch reefs, and reef-margin environments. Nonetheless, our data support the hypothesis of greater diversity in shallow habitats, as we recorded 18 species in 10 samples, compared to sixteen samples from ~50 m depths, which yielded 13 species.

The inclusion of small peneroplids as LBF did increase species numbers compared to results from earlier studies of LBF, which did not include tiny genera such as *Monalysidium*. We primarily found the smaller peneroplids in the 63–500 μ m size fraction of the sediment samples.

Thus, while we recorded a higher diversity of LBF than previous reports from the central and western Indian Ocean, and adjacent seas (Table 3), other factors must be considered when making comparisons. Such factors range from what sampling methods were employed, what depths were sampled, and what specimens were included in counts (e.g., only those known to be collected live, those presumed to have been collected live, all well preserved specimens, all specimens identifiable to genus). Classification considerations also are inherent to such comparisons, including what species were defined as larger benthic foraminifera, whether the researchers involved in identifications tended to be taxonomic "splitters" or "lumpers", and when the studies were conducted relative to recent species descriptions, especially those in association with studies of phylogenetic relationships.

		4		•				_					
SI.NO	Species	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	8	9	10	11	12
1	Alveolinella quoli	+	+		+								
2	Ampnisorus nemprichii	+		+		+		+	+			+	
3	Amphisorus duplex							+	+				
4	Amphistegina bicirculata	+			+			+					
5	Amphistegina lessonii	+	+	+	+	+		+	+	+	+	+	
6	Amphistegina lobifera	+	+		+			+		+			
7	Amphistegina madagascariensis			+									
8	Amphistegina papillosa	+	+					+					
9	Amphistegina radiata	+	+	+	+			+	+	+			
10	Amphistegina sp.				+								
11	Amphistegina sp1						+						
12	Baculogypsina spinosus	+											
13	Borelis pulchra			+									
14	Borelis schlumbergeri	+	+				+	+			+	+	
15	Borelis sp.											+	
16	Calcarina sp1.				+								
17	Calcarina mayori	+											
18	Calcarina spengleri	+	+										
19	Coscinospira hemprichii						+					+	+
20	Coscinospira sp.												+
21	Euthymonacha polita	+					+						
22	Heterostegina depressa	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+		+	
23	Laevipeneroplis inornatus		+										
24	Marginopora vertebralis			+									
25	Monalysidium acicularis	+											
26	Monalysidium confusa	+											
27	Neorotalia calcar	+	+	+			+	+		+		+	
28	Operculina ammonoides	+	+		+	+		+		+			
29	Operculina complanata	+									+	+	
30	Operculina discoidalis							+					
31	Pararotalia calcar								+				
32	Parasorites orbitoloides	+											
33	Palaeonummulites venosus	+		+	+			+					
34	Peneroplis arietinus			+								+	+
35	Peneroplis planatus	+	+				+		+			÷.	+
36	Peneroplis pertusus		+	+					+		+	+	+
37	Peneronlis proteus											÷	·
38	Peneroplis bradvi												
39	Peneronlis sp	±											
40	Planoparculina hatarostacinoidas	+ +											
41	Planostegina operculinoides				+								

Table 3. Comparison of LBF taxa reported in studies from the western Indian Ocean [1 = Present Study, 2 = Gulf of Mannar Islands [78], 3 =Lakshadweep Islands [79, 80], 4 = Maldive Islands [81], 5 = Chagos Archipelago [82], 6 = Mozambique Coast [65], 7 = Zanzibar Islands [83], 8 =Kenya Coast [84], 9 = Somalia Coast [85], 10 = Arabian Gulf [86], 11 = Red Sea [64] and 12 = Bahrain Coast [87]]

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SI.No	Species	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
42	Soritus marginalis		+	+								+	
43	Soritus orbiculus	+	+				+	+				+	
44	Soritus sp.											+	
45	Soritus sp1			+									
46	Soritus variablis						+						

The relatively few samples available from each location and depth also limited our ability to statistically compare our samples relative to location. For example, species recorded in only one or two samples probably reflect natural conditions, patchiness or local and not necessarily biogeographic differences between assemblages from the Andaman Islands compared to the Car Nicobar sites. The second factor is water transparency; especially at depths >30 m, small differences in the proximity to terrestrial runoff or topographic upwelling can influence whether LBF species requiring verv low-light can survive at a 50 m or 100 m location [15, 27]. We conclude that the depth trends we found are robust, with porcelaneous (miliolid) taxa primarily found in shallow samples, while the various members of the rotaliid families show the well-known depth zonation of these taxa.

The Miliolida: Miliolid foraminifera produce high magnesium-calcite tests, whose wall structure includes a combination of calcite needles, rod, lath or plate-shaped crystals that produce a translucent to opaque structure [56-58]. Many of the estimated 36 species of living Miliolida that host algal symbionts [45, 33] and those foraminifera have morphologic features that are considered adaptations to allow light to reach the algal symbionts, while maintaining strength of the test [59, 60]. The inherent opacity of the porcelaneous test wall, combined with structural limitations, tend to limit the depth distributions of such Miliolida. We recorded 11 species. representing three families. Alveolinellidae. Peneroplidae and Soritidae, of which specimens of only two species, A. quoii and Parasorities orbitolitoides, were found in any samples that came from >10 m depth. The limited number of species that we recorded was probably the consequence of not sampling at depths <10 m and their associated habitats.

Alveolinid fossils appeared in the upper Cretaceous [61] Two species of Alveolinellidae, *A. quoii* and *B. sclumbergeri*, were recorded in our samples. *Alveolinella quoii* is a large fusiform species that occurs throughout the western Pacific and the eastern Indian Ocean, with limited records beyond the Maldive Islands and northern Indian Ocean [33, 34, 45]. This species has been recorded living on reef slopes at depths of 5–60 m [27, 62] We found living specimens in two samples from ~10 m and one sample from 48 m. *Borelis schlumbergeri* is smaller in size and is well known from throughout the Indo-Pacific [33, 40, 63]. The depth distribution of this species has been reported from 8 m [64] to 45 m,

and as living abundantly at 25-35 m [25]. We found only three specimens in two samples from ~10 m depth.

The fossils of family Peneroplidae known from late Cretaceous [61]. We identified six species from this family, all from samples collected at ~10 m depth and primarily from the 63-500 µm grain-size fractions. The smallest species. Euthymonacha polita was identified from 3 samples. It has been reported depths of 5-20 m [44, 65–67], with a distribution ranging from the eastern Pacific to the western Indian Ocean [33]. We also found two species of Monalysidium. The species M. acicularis occurs throughout the tropical Indo-Pacific [33] to depths of 40 m [68]. We found 18 specimens in only one ~10-m sample. Monalysidium confusa was previously reported from the Philippines and New Caledonia [33, 68] and from the 15 m depth of Andaman Sea [67]. We found specimens in three of our ~10 m samples. The genus Peneroplis was represented by three species in our study. Peneroplis pertusus occurs circumtropically [33. 40. 45] at depths ranging from 0-40 m [27, 45, 67-69] We found living specimens in four samples from ~10 m depth. Peneroplis planatus was identified in four ~10 m samples; this species is also well known from throughout the tropical Indo-Pacific, though it has not been reported previously from the central Indian Ocean from Lakshadweep, Maldives and Chagos Islands [33, 45, 70] Peneroplis planatus has been reported as living from the inter-tidal to 40 m depth [27, 68, 69]. A morphospecies identified as Peneroplis sp. was similar to P. pertusus, but it has a single large aperture with multiple apertural teeth. We found five specimens in one ~10 m sample.

The Family Soritidae, found since late Oligocene [61], includes relatively large, discoid taxa. This family was represented by three species from three different genera, two of which host dinoflagellate symbionts. Sorites orbiculus is a shallow-dwelling [27], circumtropical [71] species; we found specimens in two ~10 m samples. Amphisorus hemprichii is also broadly distributed throughout the tropical Indo-Pacific [33], reportedly as deep as 70 m, but most commonly at <30 m [27, 45, 68]. We found 13 live specimens from one sediment sample from ~10 m depth. Parasorites orbitolitoides which hosts chlorophyte symbionts, is the deepest living member of the Soritidae. This species has been reported from throughout the Indo-west Pacific region, though reports are lacking from the Lakshadweep Islands in the western Indian Ocean [33, 70]. Living specimens have been reported from depths of 10–90 m [27, 28, 62, 71]. We found specimens showing some chlorophyte greenish colour in a 64 m sample.

The Rotaliida: In the Order Rotaliida, 35 extant species that host diatom endosymbionts and that are considered LBF have been identified worldwide, families belonging to the Amphisteginidae, Calcarinidae and Nummulitidae [33,72]. We found 15 of these species in our samples from the Andaman-Nicobar Archipelago. In this section, we discuss these taxa by family and, within the families, by their depth trends, from shallow- to deeper-dwelling species. In general, our findings are consistent with depth trends reported by Hohenegger [27] for LBF within 64 m.

The family Amphisteginidae is known since the Eocene Epoch [73]. We identified five species of the genus Amphistegina Members of this genus in the Indo-Pacific are well known to exhibit lightrelated depth zonation and trends in test shape. The robust A. lobifera thrives at the shallowest depths, followed in order by A. lessonii, A. radiata, A. bicirculata, and A. papillosa, the latter often recorded from depths >100 m [26-28, 74]. Amphistegina lobifera has been reported to depths of 45 m or more but lives most abundantly at depths <20 m [26-28,74]. We found this species in three samples from ~10 m. Amphistegina lessonii commonly co-occurs at shallow depths with A. lobifera and at intermediate depths with A. radiata and A bicirculata [26, 27,74]. We found A. lessonii to be the dominant species in the ~10 m samples, and they occurred in low numbers in four of the ~50 m depth samples. The largest, biconvex testbearing member of this family, A. radiata has been reported from the western Pacific to the western Indian Ocean and Red Sea, though it has not been reported from Lakshadweep Island. Chagos or the Sevchelles islands [33, 45, 70]. The species has been reported from depths of 5-95 m, most abundantly in the 20-50 m depth range [26-28, 62, 74]. We recorded A. radiata in one samples of ~10 m depth and four samples from ~50 m depth. The much less common A. bicirculata strongly resembles very flat A. lessonii specimens in dorsal view but exhibits an inner circular arrangement of chamber walls in ventral view, when viewed with a light microscope. Amphistegina bicirculata occurs throughout most of the Indo-Pacific, at least as far east as Hawai'i [26] and in the northern Indian Ocean and Gulf of Agaba. The species has not been reported from

the Philippines, the eastern tropical Pacific Ocean or the islands of the western Indian Ocean [33, 45]. Amphistegina bicirculata has been found alive at depths from 20-130 m, but most abundantly at depths from ~30-70 m depth [28, 62, 74]. We found this species in only one sample at 63 m. The deepest-dwelling species of the genus is A. papillosa, which is characterized by a relatively small, papillated, flattenedbiconvex test. It occurs abundantly in low light, usually relatively deep habitats in the western Pacific and Indian Ocean (e.g., Madagascar, Mozambigue) and Red Sea, but has not been reported from central Indian Ocean islands such as Lakshadweep, Maldives, Chagos and Seychelles [33, 45, 70]. While living specimens have been reported at depths ranging from 10-150 m, this species tends to be most common in the 50-130 m depth range [27, 28, 62, 74]. We found specimens from 48-56 m depths.

Star-shaped LBF with canaliculated spines belong to the Family Calcarinidae and members of this family are found since Late Cretaceous time [58]. A total of 14 species representing four genera have been identified primarily from the western Pacific and eastern Indian Ocean; we found four of those species belonging to three genera. Neorotalia calcar is the most broadly distributed species of this family, and as it is also found in the western Indian Ocean [33, 35,39, 45]. Specimens are characterized by elongated and pointed chambers with canaliculated spines, and it commonly lives in shallow waters associated with macroalgae [58]. We found this species relatively abundant in four of the five samples from ~10 m depth. The genus Calcarina includes two species that tend to occur at shallow to intermediate euphotic depths. We identified Calcarina spengleri, which bears long spines on the terminus of its chambers in all the five samples from ~10 m depth. This species has been reported from intertidal to 45 m depths, with abundance noted at 15-25 m [37, 54, 62]. The largest species, Baculogypsinoides spinosus has been reported from 5-85 m depth, with peak abundance at ~55-65 m [27,28, 74]. Tripaty [46] reported it from Great Nicobar Island and we found representatives in only one samples, at 52 m depths, off Car Nicobar. The calcarinid species that we found most abundantly and consistently in the deeper samples was C. mayori, which is characterized by a relatively small test. This species has been reported from 3-70 m depth, and most abundantly down to 40 m depth [28, 54]. This was the most abundant species that we found in the ~50 m depth samples (20%) from 4 samples.

The Family Nummulitidae is widely known from Paleogene carbonates [75] and is represented by 15 extant species. Though most are restricted to the Indo-Pacific region, Heterostegina depressa occurs circumtropically [33, 34, 69, 74]. In our samples from the Andaman-Nicobar Archipelago, we identified six species belonging to five genera. Because most of these species are well adapted to low-light environments, they can live in well-shaded environments in shallow water as well as in much deeper habitats [76]. For example, Heterostegina depressa has been found from intertidal sites to >100 m depths, but most abundantly at 20-30 m [26, 27, 77, 76]. We found this species in four ~10 m samples out of five. We found both Operculina ammonoides and Palaeonummulites venosus in samples from the ~10 and ~50 m depths. Both are widespread tropical Indo-Pacific species [33, 34], that have been reported from depths of ~10 m to more as much as 90 m, with peak abundances at ~40-50 m [27, 74]. Operculina complanata is a somewhat deeper-dwelling species reported only from the Indo-west Pacific [33, 45]. We found specimens in samples from eight sites from 10-67 m. Previous studies have reported this species from 20-150 m depth, with peak abundances at ~50 m [28, 62]. Planoperculina heterosteginoides has been previously reported only from sites in the core area of Indo-west Pacific region [33, 45]. Most recently Tripati [46] reported it from Nicobar samples, consistent with our findings from the Andaman region. The species has previously been reported from 50-130 m depth [27, 28, 62, 74]. We found it only in two samples from 64 and 67 m depths. Planostegina operculinoides has also been reported mostly from a limited range in the Indowest Pacific [33, 58]. Living specimens were reported from depths of 15 to >100 m [27, 28, 62, 74], and most abundantly at ~80 m depth. We found P. operculinoides in three samples from the ~50 m sites.

5. CONCLUSION

Twenty-six LBF species were recorded for reefs of the Andaman-Nicobar Archipelago, which is somewhat higher than diversities reported for western Indian Ocean reefs, slightly lower than diversities of Japan and Indonesian reefs, and roughly half the number of LBF species reported in the Coral Triangle region.

- All species identified in this study are wellknown Indo-west Pacific taxa.
- Calcarina spenglerii, Amphistegina lessonii, Neorotalia calcar, and Amphistegina lobifera dominated in the samples from ~10 m depth
- Calcarina mayori, Palaeonummulites venosus, Amphistegina papillosa and Operculina ammonoides were characteristic of samples from ~50 m depth.
- Representatives of the Miliolida were primarily found in the 63–500 µm sediment fractions from ~10 m samples; *Peneroplis pertusus*, *Peneroplis planatus* and *Parasorites orbitolitoides* were also found in some >500 µm sediment fractions.
- Baculogypsinoides spinosus was only found in samples from Car Nicobar.
- Because we only sampled sediment from ~10 m or deeper, and many LBF live primarily on phytal or hard substrata, we likely missed some species, especially taxa that live in nearshore and back-reef habitats.
- We recommend further systematic sampling of reef and other nearshore habitats associated with the islands of the Andaman-Nicobar Archipelago, especially samples from back-reef, reef-flat, and shallow fore-reef environments, to more completely enumerate the LBF species, their habitats, and their depth distributions.

DISCLAIMER (ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE)

Author(s) hereby declare that NO generative AI technologies such as Large Language Models (ChatGPT, COPILOT, etc) and text-to-image generators have been used during writing or editing of this manuscript.

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COMPETING INTERESTS

Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

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Appendix I. Species identified from 13 locations of ~10 and ~50 m depth in the Andaman and Nicobar Islands with the reference that illustrates the species

Amphistegina bicirculata Larsen, 1976 Amphistegina lessonii d'Orbigny in Deshayes, 1830 Amphistegina lobifera Larsen, 1976 Amphistegina papillosa Said, 1949 Amphistegina radiata (Fichtel & Moll, 1798) Baculogypsinoides spinosus Yabe & Hanzawa, 1930 Calcarina mavori Cushman, 1924 Calcarina spengleri (Gmelin, 1791) Neorotalia calcar (d'Orbigny in Deshayes, 1830) Heterostegina depressa d'Orbigny, 1826 Operculina ammonoides (Gronovius, 1781) Operculina complanata (Defrance in Blainville, 1822) Palaeonummulites venosus (Fichtel & Moll, 1798) Planoperculina heterosteginoides Hottinger, [25] Planostegina operculinoides (Hofker, 1927) Alveolinella quoii (d'Orbigny, 1826) Borelis schlumbergeri (Reichel, 1937) Euthymonacha polita (Chapman, 1900) Monalysisdium acicularis (Batsch, 1791) Monalysidium confuse (McCulloch, 1977) Peneroplis pertusus (Forsk°al in Niebuhr, 1775) Peneroplis sp. Montfort, 1808 Peneroplis planatus (Fichtel& Moll 1798) Amphisorus hemprichii Ehrenberg [71] Parasorites orbitolitoides (Hofker, 1930) Sorites orbiculus (Forsk°al in Niebuhr, 1775)

Hohenegger [82], Fig. 5 (3) Hohenegger et al. [31], Fig. 19 Hohenegger [27], Fig. 8 Hohenegger [27], Fig. 8 Hohenegger et al. [31], Fig. 20 Hoheneager [82], Fig. 6 (9) Renema (2002), PI, 5 Fig. 5-6 Renema & Hohenegger (2005), pl. 1,2 Hohenegger et al. [31], Fig. 21 Hohenegger et al. [31], Fig. 30 Hohenegger et al. [31], Fig. 28 Hohenegger [31], Fig. 6 Hohenegger et al. [31], Fig. 29 Hohenegger [31], Fig. 6 Tripathi [46] Pl. 3, Fig. 4 Hohenegger et al. [31], Fig. 13 Madkour and Ali [64], Fig. 3 (1&2) Langer et al., (2013) Fig. 7 (23&24) Debenay [68] p. 112 Debenay [68] p. 112 Hohenegger et al. [31], Fig. 9 Loeblich and Tappan, [58] p. 379 Hohenegger et al. [31], Fig. 8 Hohenegger et al. [31], Fig. 16 Hohenegger et al. [31], Fig. 14

Hohenegger et al. [31], Fig. 15

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