THE DESCRIPTION OF SEA CUCUMBER ON THE NEARSHORE SOFT-BOTTOM OF SELECTED SITES IN THE STRAITS OF MALACCA, MALAYSIA

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by

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKN	OWLED	GEMENTi	i
TABLE	OF CO	NTENTSii	i
LIST O	F TABL	ES	V
LIST O	F FIGU	RESv	i
LIST O	F SYMI	BOLSxii	i
ABSTR	2AK	xiv	V
ABSTR	ACT	XV	V
СНАРТ	ΓER 1	INTRODUCTION	1
1.1	General	Introduction	1
	1.2	Objectives of the Study	7
СНАРТ	ΓER 2	LITERATURE REVIEW	3
2.1	Intertida	ıl Zone	3
2.2	Identific	eation of Holothurians9)
2.3	Past Stu	dies of Nearshore Holothurians in the Straits of Malacca	3
СНАРТ	TER 3	MATERIAL AND METHODS)
3.1	Samplin	g Site20)
	3.1.1	Middle Bank24	1
	3.1.2	Tanjung Kepah24	1
	3.1.3	Blue Lagoon24	1
	3.1.4	Merambong Shoals	5
3.2	Specime	en Collection25	5
3.3	Specime	en Preservation	5
3.4	Identific	eation26	5

REFER	ENCE128
СНАРТ	TER 6 CONCLUSION AND FUTURE RECOMMENDATIONS 127
5.2	Species Identification and Descriptions
5.1	Diversity in the Nearshore Zone of Straits of Malacca
СНАРТ	TER 5 DISCUSSION110
4.2	Species Identification and Descriptions
4.1	Diversity and Distribution
СНАРТ	TER 4 RESULTS29
3.5	Diversity Indices

LIST OF TABLES

		Page
Table 1	The seven orders of holothurian and their respective tentacle	C
	shape (Hyman, 1955; Clark & Rowe, 1971; Pawson et al.,	
	2010; Kamarudin et al., 2010; Smirnov, 2015; Miller et al.,	
	2017)	10
Table 2	Sampling sites and the date of sampling.	24
Table 3	Species of sea cucumbers identified in this study.	34
Table 4	Number of individuals of a species in each sampling site	35
Table 5	Value of Shannon Weiner Diversity Index and Simpson's	
	Dominance Index at each sampling site	36

LIST OF FIGURES

		Page
Figure 1	Movement of tube feet; arrow depicting the direction of	
	movement; 1. ampulla relaxed, tube foot contracted; 2.	
	ampulla contracting, tube foot extending; 3. ampulla fully	
	contracted, tube foot fully extended; 4. ampulla relaxing,	
	tube foot contracting; ampulla relaxed, tube foot contracted;	
	A=ampulla; TF=tube foot (modified from Clark, 1977)	3
Figure 2	Morphology of a holothurian (adapted from Clark & Rowe,	
	1971)	5
Figure 3	Representative tentacle shapes: A. dendritic; B. peltate; C.	
	pinnate; D. digitate (modified from Conand, 1998; Pawson	
	et al., 2010)	11
Figure 4	Representative shapes of calcareous rings: A. ring with	
	medium posterior projections; B. ring with short posterior	
	projections; C. ring with no posterior projections; D. tubular	
	ring with long, complex, posterior projections; R-radial	
	piece, IR-interradial piece (modified from Pawson et al.,	
	2010)	12
Figure 5	Representative shape of ossicles: A. anchors; B. anchor	
	plates; C. baskets (modified from Clark & Rowe, 1971)	13
Figure 6	Representative shape of ossicles: A. button; B. knobbed	
	button; C. flattened oval button with median optical	
	discontinuity; D. irregular button; E. fircone-shaped	
	knobbed button; F. swollen smooth nodular button; G.	
	button with large regular knobs; H. button with moderate	
	irregularly placed knobs (modified from Clark & Rowe,	
	1971; Thandar, 2007)	14
Figure 7	Endplate ossicle (Modified from Ong et al., 2016)	15
Figure 8	Representative shape of ossicles: A. fenestrated ellipsoids;	
	B. fenestrated spheres; C. lenticulate plate; D. miliary	

	granules; E. perforated plate; F. smooth swollen perforated	
	plates (modified from Clark & Rowe, 1971; Ong et al.,	
	2016)	16
Figure 9	Phosphatic bodies (adapted from Pawson & Vance, 2007)	17
Figure 10	Representative shape of ossicles: A. pseudo-button; B. C-	
	shaped rod; C. dichotomously branched rod; D. rod derived	
	from table; E. spinose rod; F. rosette; G. sigmoid bodies	
	(modified from Hyman, 1955; Clark & Rowe, 1971)	17
Figure 11	Table ossicles: A. table with arched disc; B. table seen from	
	above showing cruciform central hole; C. table with two-	
	pillared spire; D. table with four-pillared spire; E. table from	
	above showing ring of apical spines on spire; F. table with	
	two-pillared spire from above; G. table seen from side; H.	
	tack-like table with large, almost solid spire; I. table seen	
	from above showing maltese cross formation of terminal	
	spines of spire (modified from Clark & Rowe)	18
Figure 12	Wheel-shaped ossicles (modified from Hyman, 1955; Clark	
	& Rowe, 1971)	19
Figure 13	Sampling sites: 1. Middle Bank; 2. Tanjung Kepah; 3. Blue	
	Lagoon; 4. Merambong Shoal	21
Figure 14	Middle Bank. Red dotted lines denote sampling area	22
Figure 15	Tanjung Kepah. Red dotted lines denote sampling area	23
Figure 16	Blue Lagoon. Red dotted lines denote sampling area	23
Figure 17	Merambong Shoal. Red dotted lines denote sampling area	24
Figure 18	Flowchart of ossicle extraction	30
Figure 19	Total number of species identified in each sampling site	33
Figure 20	Actinocucumis longipedes, USMCRC-Echi-027; dorsal view.	
		40
Figure 21	Actinocucumis longipedes, USMCRC-Echi-027; ventral	
	view	40
Figure 22	Calcareous ring of Actinocucumis longipedes, MB015.	
	R=Radial plate; IR=Interradial plate	41
Figure 23	Ossicles of Actinocucumis longipedes: A. figure-eight-	
	shaped fenestrated ellipsoids from dorsal body wall; B.	

	elongated perforated plates from dorsal body wall; C.	
	fenestrated ellipsoid from dorsal body wall; D. elongated	
	perforated plates from papillae; E. figure-eight-shaped	
	fenestrated ellipsoids form papillae; F. pear-shaped	
	fenestrated ellipsoids from papillae; G. tables from papillae	42
Figure 24	Tube feet ossicles of Actinocucumis longipedes: H. support	
	tables; I. figure-eight-shaped fenestrated ellipsoid; J. large	
	perforated plate; K. elongated perforated plate; L. end plate	43
Figure 25	Tentacle ossicles of Actinocucumis longipedes: M.	
	perforated plates; N-P. rods	44
Figure 26	Cercodemas anceps, USMCRC-Echi-142; dorsal view	46
Figure 27	Calcareous ring of Cercodemas anceps. R=Radial plate;	
	IR=Interradial plate	47
Figure 28	Ossicles of Cercodemas anceps: A. fenestrated spheres from	
	the anal region; B. baskets from the anal region; C.	
	fenestrated spheres from the dorsal body wall; D. baskets	
	from the dorsal body wall	48
Figure 29	Papillae ossicle of Cercodemas anceps: E. fenestrated	
	spheres; F. baskets.	49
Figure 30	Tube feet ossicles of Cercodemas anceps: G. Ovoid	
	perforated plates; H. elongated perforated plates; I. buttons;	
	J. end plate	50
Figure 31	Tentacle ossicles of Cercodemas anceps: K. perforated	
	plates; L. rods; M. rosettes.	51
Figure 32	Colochirus quadrangularis, USMCRC-Echi-143; dorsal	
	view	54
Figure 33	Colochirus quadrangularis, USMCRC-Echi-143; ventral	
	view	54
Figure 34	Calcareous ring of Colochirus quadrangularis. R=Radial	
	plate; IR=Interradial plate	55
Figure 35	Ossicles of Colochirus quadrangularis: A. baskets from the	
	anal region; B. fenestrated spheres from the anal region; C.	
	baskets from the dorsal body wall; D. baskets from the	
	papillae: E. fenestrated spheres from the papillae.	55

Figure 36	Tube feet ossicles of <i>Colochirus quadrangularis</i> : F. support	
	rods; G. baskets; H. perforated plates.	56
Figure 37	Tentacle ossicles of Colochirus quadrangularis: I. large	
	rods; J. curved rods; K. small rods; L. perforated plates; M.	
	rosettes.	57
Figure 38	Havelockia versicolor, USMCRC-Echi-145; dorsal view	61
Figure 39	Havelockia versicolor, USMCRC-Echi-145; ventral view	61
Figure 40	Calcareous ring of Havelockia versicolor. R=Radial plate;	
	IR=Interradial plate.	62
Figure 41	Ossicles of Havelockia versicolor: A. table from the anal	
	region; B. perforated plate from the anal region; C. table	
	from the dorsal body wall; D. elongated table from the	
	papillae; E. ovoid table from the papillae; F. perforated plate	
	from the papillae.	62
Figure 42	Tube feet ossicles of Havelockia versicolor: G-H. table; I.	
	end plate.	63
Figure 43	Tentacle ossicles of Havelockia versicolor: J. tables; K. rod-	
	like rosettes; L. rosette; M. rods.	64
Figure 44	Euthyonidiella zulfigaris. USMCRC-Echi 010; dorsal view	69
Figure 45	Euthyonidiella zulfigaris. USMCRC-Echi 010; ventral view	69
Figure 46	Calcareous ring of Euthyonidiella zulfigaris. R=Radial plate;	
	IR=Interradial plate; A=Anterior; P=Posterior	70
Figure 47	Ossicles of Euthyonidiella zulfigaris: A. Tables in the dorsal	
	body wall; B. Tables with three-pillared spires in the dorsal	
	body wall; C. Endplate in the tube feet; D. Large rods in the	
	tentacle; E. Small rod in the tentacle; F. Spinose rod in the	
	tentacle; G. Rosettes in the tentacle; H. Tables in the body	
	wall near anus; I. Table in the dorsal body wall	70
Figure 48	Globosita argus. USMCRC-Echi-012; ventral view	74
Figure 49	Globosita argus. USMCRC-Echi-012; lateral view	74
Figure 50	Calcareous ring of Globosita argus. R=Radial plate;	
	IR=Interradial plate	75
Figure 51	Ossicles of <i>Globosita argus</i> : A. rosettes from the body wall	
	near anus; B. table from the body wall near anus	76

Figure 52	Ossicles of <i>Globosita argus</i> : A. plates from the body wall; B.	
	fragment of end plate from the podia; C. rosette from the	
	tentacles; D. large rod from the tentacles; E. small rods from	
	the tentacles.	. 77
Figure 53	Stolus buccalis, USMCRC-Echi-151; dorsal view	.81
Figure 54	Stolus buccalis, USMCRC-Echi-151; ventral view	81
Figure 55	Calcareous ring of Stolus buccalis. R=Radial plate;	
	IR=Interradial plate.	. 82
Figure 56	Ossicles of Stolus buccalis: A. buttons in the anal region; B.	
	buttons in the dorsal body wall; C. buttons in the tube feet;	
	D. rods in the tube feet; E. perforated plates in the tube feet;	
	F. rosettes in the tentacles; G. rods in the tentacles	. 83
Figure 57	Holothuria (Mertensiothuria) leucospilota, USMCRC-Echi-	
	002. Dorsal view.	.87
Figure 58	Holothuria (Mertensiothuria) leucospilota, USMCRC-Echi-	
	002. Ventral view.	.87
Figure 59	Calcareous ring of Holothuria (Mertensiothuria)	
	leucospilota. R=Radial plate; IR=Interradial plate	87
Figure 60	Ossicles of Holothuria (Mertensiothuria) leucospilota: A.	
	table in the dorsal body wall; B. pseudo-buttons in the	
	dorsal body wall; C. pseudo-plates in the tube feet; D.	
	perforated plates in the tube feet; E. rods in the papillae	. 88
Figure 61	Holothuria (Metriatyla) martensii, MB019. Dorsal view	. 92
Figure 62	Holothuria (Metriatyla) martensii, MB019. Ventral view	. 92
Figure 63	Holothuria (Metriatyla) martensii, USMCRC-Echi-141.	
	Dorsal view; contracted.	.93
Figure 64	Holothuria (Metriatyla) martensii, USMCRC-Echi-141.	
	Ventral view; contracted.	.93
Figure 65	Calcareous ring of Holothuria (Metriatyla) martensii.	
	R=Radial plate; IR=Interradial plate.	. 93
Figure 66	Ossicles of Holothuria (Metriatyla) martensii: A. tables in	
	the anal region; B. buttons in the anal region; C-C'. tables	
	in the dorsal body wall; D. buttons in the dorsal body wall;	

	E-E' tables in the papillae; F. buttons in the papillae; G.	
	plate-like support rods in the papillae	94
Figure 67	Ossicles of Holothuria (Metriatyla) martensii: H. tables in	
	the tube feet; I. buttons in the tube feet; J. perforated rod in	
	the tube feet; K. rods in the tube feet; L. curved spinose rods	
	in the tentacles.	95
Figure 68	Holothuria (Stauropora) fuscocinerea, USMCRC-Echi-159.	
	Dorsal view.	98
Figure 69	Holothuria (Stauropora) fuscocinerea, USMCRC-Echi-159.	
	Ventral view.	98
Figure 70	Calcareous ring of Holothuria (Stauropora) fuscocinerea.	
	R=Radial plate; IR=Interradial plate	98
Figure 71	Ossicle of Holothuria (Stauropora) fuscocinerea: A. buttons	
	in the dorsal body wall; B. tables in the dorsal body wall; C.	
	rods in the papillae; D. buttons in the tube feet; E. rods in	
	the tube feet.	99
Figure 72	Tentacle ossicles of Holothuria (Stauropora) fuscocinerea:	
	F. curved rods.	100
Figure 73	Holothuria (Thymiosycia) impatiens, USMCRC-Echi-158.	
	Dorsal view.	103
Figure 74	Holothuria (Thymiosycia) impatiens, USMCRC-Echi-158.	
	Ventral view.	104
Figure 75	Calcareous ring of Holothuria (Thymiosycia) impatiens.	
	R=Radial plate; IR=Interradial plate	104
Figure 76	Ossicles of Holothuria (Thymiosycia) impatiens: A. tables	
	in the anal region; B. buttons in the anal region; C. tables in	
	the dorsal body wall; D. buttons in the dorsal body wall; E.	
	tables in the papillae; F. buttons in the papillae; G. rods in	
	the papillae	105
Figure 77	Ossicles of Holothuria (Thymiosycia) impatiens: H. large	
	rods in the tentacles; I. small rods in the tentacles; J. tables	
	in the tube feet; K. buttons in the tube feet; L. rods in the	
	tube feet; M. end plate in the tube feet	106
Figure 78	Acaudina molpadioides, USMCRC-Echi-132. Lateral view	108

Figure 79	Calcareous ring of <i>Acaudina molpadioides</i> . R=Radial plate;	
	IR=Interradial plate	109
Figure 80	Anal region ossicles of Acaudina molpadioides: A. ovoid	
	miliary granules; B. dumbbell-shaped miliary granules; C.	
	elongated miliary granules.	110
Figure 81	Acaudina spinifera, USMCRC-Echi-030; lateral view	114
Figure 82	Acaudina spinifera, USMCRC-Echi-029; dorsal view	114
Figure 83	Calcareous ring of Acaudina spinifera. R=Radial plate;	
	IR=Interradial plate	115
Figure 84	Ossicles of Acaudina spinifera USMCRC-Echi 029. A-B.	
	Spinose doughnut-shaped bodies in the dorsal body wall; C.	
	Spinose perforated plates in the dorsal body wall; D.	
	Spinose sub-spherical bodies in the dorsal body wall; E.	
	Spinose perforated plates in the caudal region body wall; F.	
	Spinose sub-spherical bodies in the caudal region body wall;	
	G. Rosettes in the caudal region body wall; H. Rosette-like	
	rods in the caudal region body wall; I. Thick rounded rods	
	in the caudal region body wall; J. Dumbbell-shaped rod in	
	the caudal region body wall; K. Rosette in the tentacle	116

LIST OF SYMBOLS

H'	Value for Shannon Weiner's Species Diversity Index
p_{i}	Proportion of individuals of a species
ln	Natural logarithm
S	Species richness
D	Value for Simpson's Species Dominance Index

PEMERIHALAN TIMUN LAUT DI KAWASAN DASAR LEMBUT PERSISIR PANTAI TERPILIH DI SELAT MELAKA, MALAYSIA

ABSTRAK

Timun laut adalah satu jenis hidupan laut yang dikumpul untuk kegunaan makan di Malaysia. Oleh itu, mereka mempunyai nilai komersial dan perlu dipantau. Tetapi, kajian mengenai kepelbagaian dan pemerihalan timun laut di persisir pantai di Selat Melaka, Malaysia terhad kepada tiga kajian dalam tempoh sepuluh tahun yang lalu. Kita memerlu lebih banyak kajian untuk menghasilkan rancangan pengurusan stok timun laut di liar. Kajian ini disediakan untuk melaporkan penerangan taksonomi timun laut di kawasan dasar lembut pesisiran pantai terpilih dalam Selat Melaka, Malaysia. Tinjaun lapangan dibuat di Middle Bank, Tanjung Kupang, Blue Lagoon, dan Merambong Shoal dari April 2021 sehingga Jun 2022. Spesimen dikumpulkan semasa air surut. Spesimen tambahan dari koleksi Pusat Kajian Samudera dan Pantai (CEMACS) dan USM juga diperiksa. Osikel timun laut diekstrak, diperiksa, dan dirakam menggunakan mikroskop dengan kamera yang dipasang. Gambar ossikel dilakar menggunakan ADOBE Photoshop. Semua spesimen diawet di CEMACS, USM. Sebanyak 13 jenis timun laut telah dikenal pasti. Middle Bank mempunyai kepelbagaian timun laut tertinggi dengan lapan jenis timun laut, 1.688 untuk Indeks Kepelbagaian, dan 4.405 untuk 'Dominance Index'. Merambong Shoals mempunyai kepelbagaian timun laut kedua tertinggi dengan lima jenis timun laut, 1.423 untuk Indeks Kepelbagaian, dan 3.745 untuk 'Dominance Index'. Dua jenis species timun laut baru, Euthyonidiella Zulfigaris sp. nov. dan Acaudina spinifera sp. nov. telah ditemui dan diterangkan.

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ABSTRACT

Sea cucumbers are one of the targeted animals collected for food. As such, they possess commercial value and should be monitored. However studies on the description and diversity of sea cucumbers in the nearshore zones of the Straits of Malacca in Malaysia for the past ten years were limited to three studies. More studies are needed to manage sea cucumber stocks. This study was conducted to provide a description of the sea cucumbers on the nearshore soft-bottom zones of selected sites in the Straits of Malacca. Field samplings were conducted at Middle Bank, Tanjung Kupang, Blue Lagoon, and Merambong Shoal in the Straits of Malacca from April 2021 to June 2022 during low tide. Additional specimens from the collection of Centre for Marine and Coastal Studies (CEMACS) and USM were examined. Ossicles were extracted, examined, and photographed using a microscope with a camera attached. Images of ossicles were traced with ADOBE Photoshop. All specimens were preserved in CEMACS, USM. A total of 79 individuals were examined and 13 species of sea cucumbers were identified. Middle Bank had the highest diversity of sea cucumbers at eight species with a Diversity Index of 1.688 and Dominance Index of 4.405. Merambong Shoals had the second-highest diversity of sea cucumbers at five species with a Diversity Index of 1.423 and Dominance Index of 3.745. Two new species of sea cucumbers, Euthyonidiella zulfigaris sp. nov. and Acaudina spinifera sp. nov. were discovered and described.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Introduction

The definition of nearshore varies depending on the field of study and the different processes being studied (Moulton et al., 2023). Holman & Haller (2013) defined the nearshore zone as the narrow strip of ocean that borders continents and stretches up to a distance in which the offshore depth reaches 10m. Elko et al. (2015) defined nearshore as the transition region in between land and continental shelf which includes a variety of habitats such as coastal plains, wetlands, estuaries, coastal cliffs, dunes, beaches, surf zones, and inner shelf. Micallef et al. (2021) defined nearshore zones as "the region where the waves steepen, break, then re-form in their passage to the beach, where they break for the last time before surging up to the foreshore." Moulton et al. (2023) defined the nearshore region as the region extending from the shoreline to a few kilometers offshore which includes several sub-regions such as the surfzone and inner shelf. In this study, we defined the nearshore zone as the region extending from the supralittoral zone, intertidal zone, and to the shallow subtidal zone.

The supralittoral zone is defined as the region above the high tide mark and may occasionally only be inundated during storms (Lalli & Parsons, 1997). The intertidal zone is defined as the region immersed during high tide and exposed during low tide while the subtidal zone is defined as the region extending from low tide mark to the outer edge of the continental shelf (Lalli & Parsons, 1997).

Despite the harsh living conditions that organisms had to endure, rough ocean currents, changes in salinity, and desiccation (Halim et al., 2019), intertidal zones remained as one of the most productive coastal ecosystems that support a diverse

marine fauna population (Khaironizam & Norma-Rashid, 2005; Hwang et al., 2019). Certain soft-bottom intertidal ecosystems, such as seagrass beds, provided breeding and nursing grounds for organisms with economical value (Nakaoka, 2005; Ilias et al., 2021). As such, intertidal zones had long been utilized by coastal communities, including those in Malaysia, to collect food and generate income through small-scale fisheries (Teh & Sumaila, 2013; Ilias et al., 2021; Stiepani et al., 2023).

One of the most common methods to exploit intertidal zones in Malaysia was gleaning where the coastal community collected edible marine invertebrates within the intertidal zone (Unsworth & Cullen, 2010; Rahman & Yaakub, 2020). Gleaning is defined as the act of "walking through intertidal zones during the low tide, with little to-no-gear, in search of species that can be consumed, sold or used as bait" (Pike et al., 2024). Nordlund et al. (2018) remarked that invertebrate gleaning in intertidal zones provided a consistent and low-cost means of obtaining food and income, highlighting the importance of this activity. The target organisms of gleaners were often molluscs, crustaceans, and echinoderms (Nieves et al., 2010; Furkon & Ambo-Rappe, 2019; Rahman & Yaakub, 2020).

Echinoderms, meaning 'spiny skin' in Latin, are a group of animals that have the following defining characteristics: pentaradial symmetry, true coelom, calcareous endoskeleton composed of separate pieces, and water-vascular system (Hyman, 1955; Nichols, 1967; Clark, 1977). The body wall of echinoderms is separated into the epidermis, dermis, and peritoneum (Hyman, 1955). The dermis layer of echinoderms is capable of producing calcium carbonate-based plates or microscopic deposits that form the endoskeleton, the former known as a 'test' while the latter known as 'ossicles' (Hyman, 1955; Nichols, 1967).

The water-vascular system, which is found only in echinoderms, is a system of tubes within the coelom that are filled with water (Hyman, 1955). Water is taken from the outside world into the water-vascular system by a modified plate known as the madreporite (Hyman, 1955). Between the ring canal and madreporite is the stone canal, serving as a bridge between the two (Hyman, 1955). The ring canal, located around the oesophagus, branches into radial canals found within the inner surface of the ambulacra before finally feeding into a series of tube feet (Hyman, 1955; Nichols, 1967; Clark, 1977). The tube feet serve as the locomotory appendages for echinoderms. An ampulla can be found in each tube foot. Upon contraction, it forces water down and extends the tube foot. It is through the extension and contraction of the tube feet that echinoderms achieve locomotion (Clark, 1977). Fig. 1 illustrates the process of the extension and contraction of tube feet.

Currently, extant echinoderms are classified into five different classes: Crinoidea, Asteroidea, Ophiuroidea, Echinoidea, and Holothuroidea (Nichols, 1967).

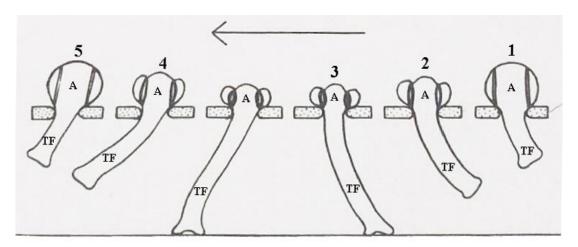


Figure 1 Movement of tube feet; arrow depicting the direction of movement; 1. ampulla relaxed, tube foot contracted; 2. ampulla contracting, tube foot extending; 3. ampulla fully contracted, tube foot fully extended; 4. ampulla relaxing, tube foot contracting; ampulla relaxed, tube foot contracted; A=ampulla; TF=tube foot (modified from Clark, 1977).

Holothurians, or sea cucumbers, belong to the class Holothuroidea. There are currently 1,820 extant species described (WoRMS, 2023). Currently, holothurians are separated into seven orders: Apodida, Dendrochirotida, Elasipodida, Holothuriida, Molpadida, Persiculida, and Synallactida (Pawson et al., 2010; Slater & Chen, 2015; Miller et al., 2017). Holothurians can be found in almost all marine ecosystems, ranging from the shallow nearshore zones to the deep oceanic trenches (Woo et al., 2013). In Malaysia, holothurians were highly valued as food (Woo et al., 2013) or as medicine (Choo, 2004).

Unlike the other four classes in the phylum Echinodermata, holothurians have a soft and elongated body, with the mouth on one end and the anus on the other (Hyman, 1955). Holothurians have two ambulacra on their dorsal plane and three ambulacra on their ventral plane, each separated by an interambulacra (Hyman, 1955; Clark & Rowe, 1971). Because of their body orientation, they exhibit a weak bilateral symmetry with a distinct anterior and posterior end (Hyman, 1955). Nevertheless, they still retain their pentaradial symmetry when viewed from the anterior-posterior axis. Fig. 2 depicts the morphology of a holothurian.

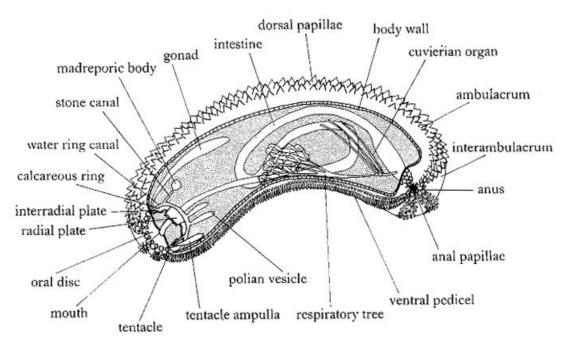


Figure 2 Morphology of a holothurian (adapted from Clark & Rowe, 1971).

The Straits of Malacca had long been an important area for the coastal and fishing community. The calm waters are unaffected by the monsoon season and the dense population on the west coast of Malaysia has led to an increased supply and demand for fish products (Cleary & Goh, 2000). The Straits of Malacca is also an important shipping route and the second busiest sea lane in the world, causing the waters to be extremely susceptible to anthropogenic activities and pollution (Cleary & Goh, 2000). Unfortunately, the nearshore zones where the holothurians inhabited were heavily impacted by anthropogenic activities (Khatri & Tyagi, 2015; Madricardo et al., 2019; Veiga et al., 2019; Polgar & Lim, 2011; Rasha et al., 2022), especially in the Straits of Malacca because most of the industrial and agricultural activities were concentrated here (Shazili et al., 2006). This would inevitably cause the decline of wild holothurian stocks. Considering that 70% of the fishermen of Peninsular Malaysia were also concentrated in the Straits of Malacca (Gran, 1999), the reduction in the numbers of commercially important holothurians would affect the livelihood of the fishing communities that relied on invertebrate gleaning to

obtain food and income. Actions had previously been taken by the Department of Fisheries Malaysia to mitigate this by launching programs to determine the potential of sea cucumber aquaculture through obtaining broodstocks and inducing them to spawn artificially (Syed & Khairudin, 2022).

The increasing impact of anthropogenic activities on nearshore zones in the Straits of Malacca has sparked numerous research in that area. These include studies on pollution (Ikram et al., 2010; Yap & Pang, 2011; Haris & Aris, 2015; Looi, 2021) and biodiversity (Takita et al., 1999; Rezai et al., 2004; Zainuddin et al., 2008; Mohammad et al., 2016; Asmida et al., 2017; Samad et al., 2018; Ghazaly et al., 2019; Pfingstl et al., 2019; Jiang & Sun, 2020; Lavoué et al., 2022).

One of the most important data to collect in order to produce a management plan is a checklist of species inhabiting in a specific region. Proposed by Blankenship & Leber (1995), a responsible marine stock enhancement plan includes prioritizing and selecting a target species. As such, studies involving the taxonomy and identification of holothurian species in the Straits of Malacca were essential if we were to produce a plan to manage their stock in the wild.

Without sufficient data on the species of holothurians in a particular area, it would be difficult to prepare plans to manage and monitor the stock in the wild. While such studies has been conducted in Malaysia (Baine and Forbes, 1998; Zulfigar et al., 2007; Kamarudin, 2009; Kamarudin et al., 2009; Kamarudin et al., 2010; Mohamad Saupi et al., 2010; Kamarudin, 2011a; Kamarudin, 2011b; Woo et al., 2013; Woo et al., 2014; Kamarudin and Rehan, 2015; Kamarudin et al., 2015; Kamarudin et al., 2017; Harith et al., 2018; Wolfe and Davey, 2020; Akasha et al., 2021; Ilias et al., 2021; Ilias et al., 2022; Rahman et al., 2022; Abdul et al., 2023), only a select few had focused on the nearshore zone of the Straits of Malacca (Woo

et al., 2014; Teoh & Woo, 2021; Teoh & Woo, 2022). Considering the limited studies conducted on holothurian species in the soft-bottom nearshore zones within the Straits of Malacca, the importance of holothurians as one of the target organisms for invertebrate gleaning activities, and the increasingly affected coastal areas, there was a need to conduct a study on the holothurians in the Straits of Malacca. This study is conducted to provide a checklist and description of holothurian species at the nearshore soft-bottom of selected sites in the Straits of Malacca in hopes that it would fill in the current gap in our understanding.

1.2 Objectives of the Study

This study aims to:

- To produce a taxonomic account of holothurians found in the nearshore softbottom of selected sites in the Straits of Malacca, Malaysia.
- To produce a checklist of holothurians found in the nearshore soft-bottom of selected sites in the Straits of Malacca, Malaysia.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Intertidal Zone

The intertidal zone is defined as the region immersed during high tide and exposed during low tide (Lalli & Parsons, 1997). Intertidal zones can be separated into soft-bottom or hard-bottom based on their substrate, with the former having unconsolidated substrates such as mud, silt, and sand (Dugan et al., 2013). Soft-bottom intertidal zones can be further differentiated into several ecosystems such as mangroves, estuaries, mudflat, seagrass, and sandy shores (Khaironizam & Norma-Rashid, 2005; Omar et al., 2011; Abu et al., 2023).

The intertidal zone is one of the most productive coastal environments bordering between land and sea (Hwang et al., 2019). Intertidal zones can be differentiated into various productive ecosystems such as beaches, estuaries, mangroves, mudflats, tide pools, and seagrass beds (Khaironizam & Norma-Rashid, 2005; Londoño-Cruz et al., 2014; Ilias et al., 2021). Due to their proximity to human activities, intertidal zones are important for food and recreation (Fincham, 1984). As such, intertidal zones have been subjected to increased anthropogenic stress originating from industrial, agricultural, deforestation, fishing, logging, and mining sources (Khatri & Tyagi, 2015; Madricardo et al., 2019; Veiga et al., 2019).

The intertidal zone in Malaysia is also an important place for gleaning in which the coastal communities could supplement their income or food source (Ridzwan & Kaswandi, 1995; Unsworth & Cullen, 2010; Nordlund et al., 2018; Rahman & Yaakub, 2020). For example, it was reported that the coastal community in Mukim Tanjung Kupang, close to where the Merambong Shoals was, often collected *Holothuria scabra* because of their high value which fetches MYR 10 per

fresh individual (Rahman & Yaakub, 2020). The collected sea cucumbers would then be dried and sold for up to approximately MYR500 per kg (Rahman & Yaakub, 2020).

2.2 Identification of Holothurians

Identification of holothurians largely relies on external morphology. The body shape of holothurians is diverse, ranging from cylindrical to spherical (Hyman, 1955). The external body of holothurians, except those from the order Apodida and Molpadida, is covered in podia (Hyman, 1955; Clark & Rowe, 1971). The podia are usually distributed on the ambulacra but may sometimes be present on the interambulacra or even scattered throughout the body (Clark & Rowe, 1971). The podia with locomotory function, known as tube feet, are hollow tubular projections containing a branch of the water-vascular system (Hyman, 1955). Holothurians from the orders Holothuriida, Persiculida, and Synallactida have their tube feet restricted to their ventral surface, forming a flattened 'sole' (Hyman, 1955; Miller et al., 2017). Podia without locomotory function, known as papillae, may be found instead on the dorsal surface of holothurians in the order Elasipodida, Holothuriida, Persiculida, and Synallactida (Hyman, 1955; Clark & Rowe, 1971; Pawson et al., 2010). Hyman (1955) remarked that they functioned as sensory appendages.

Modified tube feet, called tentacles, encircle the mouth (Hyman, 1955). The shape and number of tentacles vary between orders, making them an important diagnostic feature for holothurians (Hyman, 1955; Clark & Rowe, 1971; Pawson et al., 2010; Kamarudin et al., 2010, Smirnov, 2015). The four tentacle shapes are: dendritic, peltate, pinnate, and digitate (Conand, 1998; Pawson et al., 2010). Dendritic tentacles branch like a tree; pinnate tentacles have a central axis with a series of side branches on each side; peltate tentacles have a central stalk with

numerous horizontal branches encircling it, and digitate tentacles have short projections with or without terminal digits (Hyman, 1955). Table 1 lists the seven orders of holothurians and their respective tentacle shape. Fig. 3 illustrates the different tentacle shapes of holothurians.

Table 1. The seven orders of holothurian and their respective tentacle shape (Hyman, 1955; Clark & Rowe, 1971; Pawson et al., 2010; Kamarudin et al., 2010; Smirnov, 2015; Miller et al., 2017).

Order	Tentacle Shape
Dendrochirotida	Dendritic
Apodida	Pinnate or digitate
Molpadida	Digitate
Elasipodida	Peltate
Holothuriida	Peltate
Persiculida	Peltate
Synallactida	Peltate

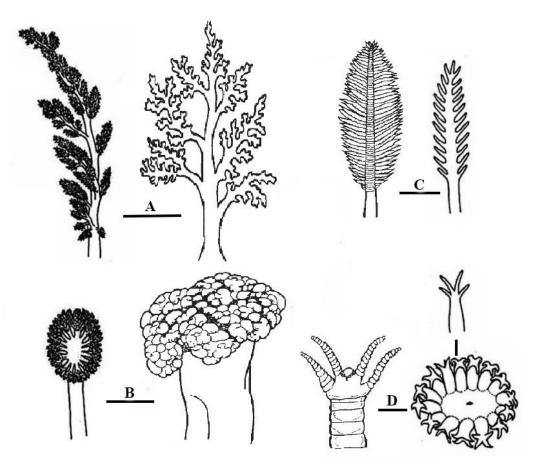


Figure 3 Representative tentacle shapes: A. dendritic; B. peltate; C. pinnate; D. digitate (modified from Conand, 1998; Pawson et al., 2010).

The esophagus of holothurians is surrounded by the calcareous ring (Pawson et al., 2010). The calcareous ring is usually formed by ten calcareous plates separated into radial and interradial plates, the former to which the longitudinal muscles are attached (Hyman, 1955; Pawson et al., 2010). The calcareous ring plays an important role as it provides support to the pharynx, nerve ring, water ring canal, and insertion point for the longitudinal muscle bands (Hyman, 1955). Since the size and shape of the calcareous plates vary between species, they could also be used to differentiate species (Hyman, 1955). Fig. 4 illustrates some examples of calcareous rings.

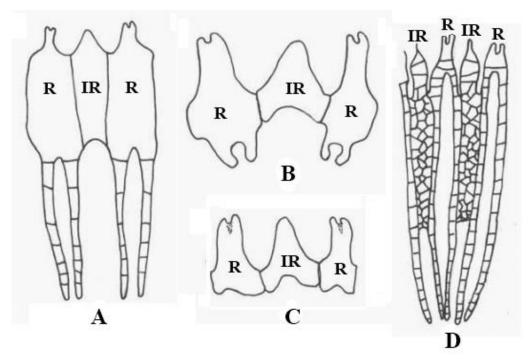


Figure 4 Representative shapes of calcareous rings: A. ring with medium posterior projections; B. ring with short posterior projections; C. ring with no posterior projections; D. tubular ring with long, complex, posterior projections; R—radial piece, IR—interradial piece (modified from Pawson et al., 2010).

Ossicles are minute calcium carbonate structures found within the dermis layer of holothurians that provide structural support to the body wall (Hyman, 1955; Pawson et al., 2010; Smirnov, 2014). They are exclusively found in holothurians, forming a three-dimensional mesh-like skeleton (Smirnov, 2014). Ossicles occur in numerous shapes, many of which have been assigned unique names based on their shape (Pawson et al., 2010). The assemblage of ossicles is distinct and different between species, making them the most important morphological feature in the identification of holothurians (Pawson et al., 2010; Purcell et al., 2012; Zhao, 2015).

Anchor-shaped ossicles (Fig. 5A) have two arms, known as flukes, attached to the central shaft (Clark & Rowe, 1971). The arms may be smooth or denticulated while the vertex, the area where both arms connect to the shaft, may be denticulated or smooth (Clark & Rowe, 1971). Anchors are connected to anchor plates (Fig. 5B) by connective tissue (Hyman, 1955). The anchor plates have a transverse bar located

at the posterior end to which the anchor ossicles are connected (Hyman, 1955; Clark & Rowe, 1971). Anchor plates come in different shapes such as oval, rectangular, rounded, or pear-shaped (Clark & Rowe, 1971). Basket ossicles (Fig. 5C) are concaved perforated plates with either a smooth or denticulated edge (Hyman, 1955; Clark & Rowe, 1971).

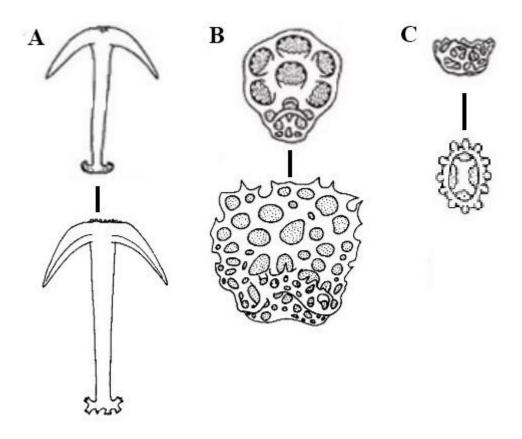


Figure 5 Representative shape of ossicles: A. anchors; B. anchor plates; C. baskets (modified from Clark & Rowe, 1971).

Button ossicles (Fig. 6A–H) are elongated or circular plates with four or perforations arranged in two rows (Hyman, 1955; Clark & Rowe, 1971). The size and shape vary between species, ranging from smooth to highly knobbed (Hyman, 1955; Clark & Rowe, 1971). Endplates (Fig. 7) are large, circular perforated plates found at the terminal of the tube feet (Clark & Rowe, 1971). Fenestrated ellipsoids (Fig. 8A) are ossicles formed by modified buttons with interconnecting knobs while

fenestrated spheres (Fig. 8B) are formed by modified table ossicles with the spines from the margin of the disc interconnecting with the spire (Clark & Rowe, 1971).

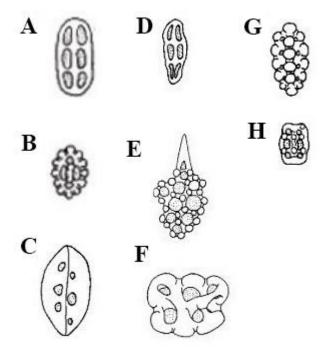


Figure 6 Representative shape of ossicles: A. button; B. knobbed button; C. flattened oval button with median optical discontinuity; D. irregular button; E. fircone-shaped knobbed button; F. swollen smooth nodular button; G. button with large regular knobs; H. button with moderate irregularly placed knobs (modified from Clark & Rowe, 1971; Thandar, 2007).

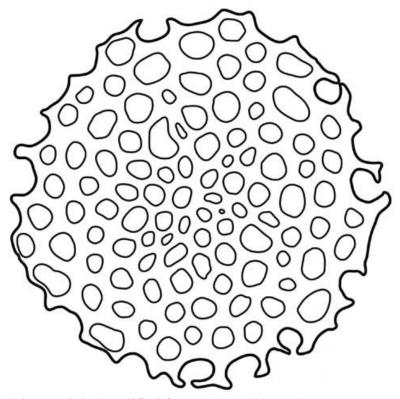


Figure 7 Endplate ossicle (Modified from Ong et al., 2016).

Lenticulate plates (Fig. 8C) are double-convexed in shape in which the perforations are often obstructed by the thick plate (Clark & Rowe, 1971). Miliary granules (Fig. 8D) are small solid ossicles that may also present themselves in a rosette-like or rod shape (Hyman, 1955; Clark & Rowe, 1971). Perforated plates (Fig. 8E–F) are plates of different sizes, shapes, and textures with numerous perforations (Clark & Rowe, 1971).

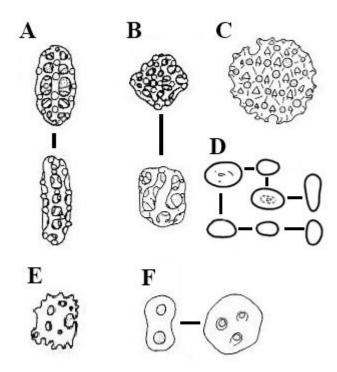


Figure 8 Representative shape of ossicles: A. fenestrated ellipsoids; B. fenestrated spheres; C. lenticulate plate; D. miliary granules; E. perforated plate; F. smooth swollen perforated plates (modified from Clark & Rowe, 1971; Ong et al., 2016).

Phosphatic bodies (Fig. 9) are present only within the order Molpadida (Clark & Rowe, 1971). Derived from anchors or rosettes, they are covered in iron phosphate as the specimen matures (Clark & Rowe, 1971). Pseudo-buttons (Fig. 10A) are incomplete button ossicles, often twisted and reduced with only a single row of perforations (Clark & Rowe, 1971). Rods (Fig. 10B–E) are bar-like with a diverse spectrum of shapes such as S-shaped, C-shaped or branched (Clark & Rowe, 1971). The surface of rod ossicles is also diverse, ranging from smooth to spinose (Clark & Rowe, 1971). Rosettes (Fig. 10F) derived from highly dichotomously branched rods with various perforations and terminal ends (Hyman, 1955; Clark & Rowe, 1971). Sigmoid bodies (Fig. 10G) are derived from curved rods with one blunted end and one sharpen end, which are curled at right angles to each other (Clark & Rowe, 1971).

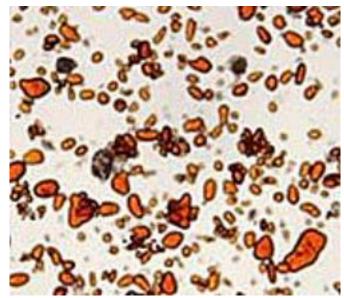


Figure 9 Phosphatic bodies (adapted from Pawson & Vance, 2007).

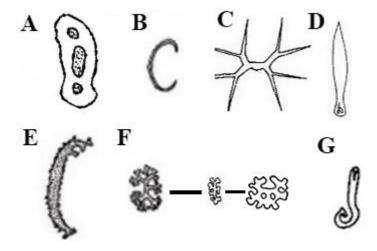


Figure 10 Representative shape of ossicles: A. pseudo-button; B. C-shaped rod; C. dichotomously branched rod; D. rod derived from table; E. spinose rod; F. rosette; G. sigmoid bodies (modified from Hyman, 1955; Clark & Rowe, 1971).

Tables (Fig. 11A–I) have a spire erected on the base of a circular perforated plate (Hyman, 1955). The surface and rim of the disc could be smooth or denticulated, with some species exhibiting larger spines (Clark & Rowe, 1971). The spire is formed from two to four pillars connected by transverse bars, called bridges, while the tip of the spire ends in either a tip, a crown, or a cluster of spines (Clark & Rowe, 1971). Table ossicles may be referred as 'tourelles' in French literature and stühlchen in German literature, translated as 'tower' and 'chair' respectively (Sluiter,

1901; Hyman, 1955; Cherbonnier, 1960). Finally, wheels (Fig. 12) are ossicles with a circular rim and six or more spokes connecting in the middle (Clark & Rowe, 1971).

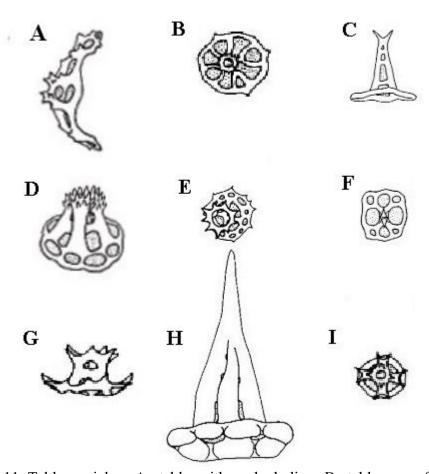


Figure 11 Table ossicles: A. table with arched disc; B. table seen from above showing cruciform central hole; C. table with two-pillared spire; D. table with four-pillared spire; E. table from above showing ring of apical spines on spire; F. table with two-pillared spire from above; G. table seen from side; H. tack-like table with large, almost solid spire; I. table seen from above showing maltese cross formation of terminal spines of spire (modified from Clark & Rowe).

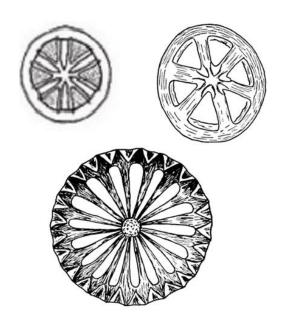


Figure 12 Wheel-shaped ossicles (modified from Hyman, 1955; Clark & Rowe, 1971).

2.3 Past Studies of Nearshore Holothurians in the Straits of Malacca

Studies on holothurians, especially on the diversity, had previously been conducted in Malaysia (Baine and Forbes, 1998; Zulfigar et al., 2007; Kamarudin, 2009; Kamarudin et al., 2009; Kamarudin et al., 2010; Mohamad Saupi et al., 2010; Kamarudin, 2011a; Kamarudin, 2011b; Woo et al., 2013; Woo et al., 2014; Kamarudin and Rehan, 2015; Kamarudin et al., 2015; Kamarudin et al., 2017; Harith et al., 2018; Wolfe and Davey, 2020; Akasha et al., 2021; Ilias et al., 2021; Ilias et al., 2022; Rahman et al., 2022; Abdul et al., 2023). However, only some of the studies focused on the nearshore zone within the Straits of Malacca (Woo et al., 2014; Teoh & Woo, 2021; Teoh & Woo, 2022).

Singapore has also conducted studies on the diversity of holothurians previously near the Straits of Malacca (Teo et al., 2010; Ong & Wong, 2015; Ong et al., 2016; Zhou & Goh, 2024). From the studies they've further described one new species of caudinid sea cucumber (O'Loughlin & Ong, 2015), one new species of

synaptid sea cucumber species (O'Loughlin & Ong, 2015), and two new species of psolid sea cucumbers (Ong et al., 2019).

Towards the north of the Straits of Malacca, Thailand has also launched numerous studies on sea cucumber species diversity and checklist near the Andaman Sea (Munprasit, 2009; Kritsanapuntu et al., 2014; Ninwichian and Klinbunga, 2020; Panithanarak, 2022; Theeratatthanakorn et al., 2023).

Finally, towards the western side of the Straits of Malacca, Indonesia had also completed several studies on sea cucumber species diversity and checklist near the Straits of Malacca (Wiadnyana, 2009; Setyastuti et al., 2024).

CHAPTER 3

MATERIALS AND METHODS

3.1 Sampling Site

A total of four sites were identified and five field samplings were conducted during the low tide. The satellite images of the sampling locations are shown in Fig. 13–17, while the sampling dates and sampling area covered are recorded in Table 2.

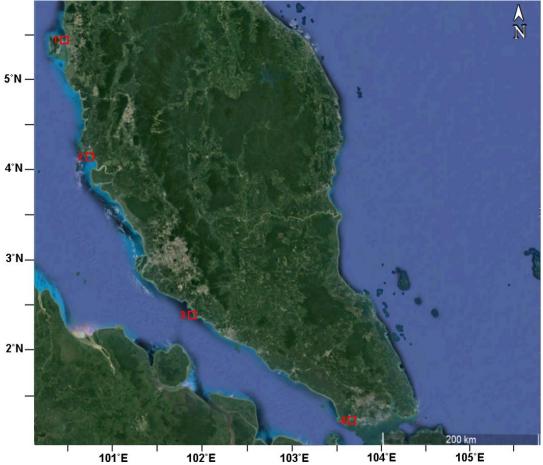


Figure 13 Sampling sites: 1. Middle Bank; 2. Tanjung Kepah; 3. Blue Lagoon; 4. Merambong Shoal.



Figure 14 Middle Bank. Red dotted lines denote sampling area.



Figure 15 Tanjung Kepah. Red dotted lines denote sampling area.



Figure 16 Blue Lagoon. Red dotted lines denote sampling area.



Figure 17 Merambong Shoal. Red dotted lines denote sampling area.

Table 2. Sampling sites and the date of sampling.

Sampling sites	Sampling dates	Total Area Covered (km²)
Blue Lagoon,	25th–28th April 2021	
Port Dickson,	•	0.06
Negeri Sembilan	20th–22nd September 2021	
Middle Bank, Penang	6th–7th December 2021	0.88
Merambong Shoal,	16th–19th March 2022	1.16
Johor	10th-19th March 2022	1.10
Pusat Riadah Laut		
Tanjung Kepah,	14th-15th June 2022	0.05
Sitiawan, Perak		