

1 Seasonal heterogeneity in the impact of air exposure on the photophysiology of two tropical
2 intertidal seagrass species (*Zostera muelleri* ssp. *capricorni* and *Halophila ovalis*)

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20 Running head: Tidal effects on seagrass photosynthesis

21 **Abstract**

22 Photosynthesis, chlorophyll *a* fluorescence, leaf bio-optical properties and pigments were
23 measured in two tropical intertidal seagrass species, *Zostera muelleri* ssp. *capricorni* and
24 *Halophila ovalis* before, during and after air-exposure over a tidal cycle. Data were collected
25 across four seasons (October and January – growing season; May and July – senescent
26 season) to determine seasonal dynamics in physiological responses to air exposure. Both
27 species showed clear light-dependent responses with a decline in photosynthetic efficiency
28 and increased photoprotection during periods of combined maximum daily irradiance and air
29 exposure for all seasons. In *Z. muelleri* ssp. *capricorni* there was a negative correlation
30 between air exposed effective quantum yield and light intensity, suggesting exposure was
31 driving this decline. Conversely, sensitivity (decline in effective quantum yield of
32 photosystem II) to increased irradiance dominated the response in *H. ovalis*, with no change
33 in the magnitude of this response between air-exposed and submerged blades. The response
34 to air exposure observed in *Z. muelleri* ssp. *capricorni* showed seasonal variation, with a
35 greater decline in photosynthesis during the spring. Tidal exposure did not provide intertidal
36 seagrasses a ‘window’ of photosynthetic respite (increase in photosynthesis) from high
37 natural or anthropogenic related turbidity. However, the periods immediately prior to and
38 after exposure were important for providing an optimum period for net photosynthetic gain.

39

40 **Keywords:** Seagrass, chlorophyll *a* fluorescence, light-limitation, air exposure.

41 **Introduction**

42 Seagrass meadows are highly productive coastal habitats, important in nutrient cycling,
43 carbon sequestering and supporting commercially valuable fisheries through the provision of

44 habitat and food (Orth et al. 2006, Rasheed et al. 2008, Unsworth and Cullen 2010). Globally,
45 seagrass meadows occupy the coastal regions of tropical and temperate waters. Productivity
46 of seagrasses, as with all plants, is driven by photosynthesis, which in turn is regulated by
47 light, temperature and nutrient availability. In general, the minimum light requirement to
48 maintain seagrass health (growth and photosynthesis) is relatively high (Duarte 1991,
49 Dennison et al 1993); however tolerance to light deprivation often varies among species
50 (Longstaff and Dennison 1999).

51 Seagrass meadows that grow in the intertidal zone are exposed to highly variable and often
52 extreme environmental conditions (Rasheed and Unsworth 2011; Taylor and Rasheed 2012).
53 Tidal oscillations that change asynchronously with diurnal irradiance mean that seagrasses
54 are subject to large fluctuations in temperature and light. At times where the maximum
55 irradiance and midday (air and water) temperature maximum coincide with low tide,
56 intertidal seagrasses are vulnerable to thermal stress, desiccation and possible photosynthetic
57 damage as a result of persistent photoinhibitory irradiances. Seagrasses need to constantly
58 balance their use of captured photons for photosynthesis and the need for photoprotection
59 from excess irradiance and other photosynthetic stress factors. This balance is achieved by
60 adjusting their photosynthetic activity and pigments in response to light (Ralph 1998).

61 Light is considered the most important determinant of seagrass productivity, distribution and
62 abundance (Dennison et al 1993, Abal and Dennison 1996). In many coastal habitats, light
63 quantity and quality may change rapidly with increased light scattering and attenuation due to
64 suspended particles greatly altering light availability for seagrasses (Zimmerman et al. 1991,
65 Longstaff and Dennison 1999). Increased turbidity can result from natural processes such as
66 storm events and tidal flux or catchment runoff after high rainfall. Additionally, it can be the
67 result of anthropogenic activities such as poor land management practices leading to

68 increased sediment loads in the coastal zone or port and dredge operations that re-suspend
69 sediments, both causing significant light attenuation (Ralph et al 2007).

70 Along the Queensland coast, many estuaries are naturally subject to large tidal fluxes and an
71 associated constant re-suspension of sediment, creating a highly turbid light environment for
72 intertidal seagrasses. Shallow seagrass meadows often become air-exposed during the day,
73 altering photosynthetic condition and potentially affecting oxygen production (Johnston and
74 Raven 1986). Exposure or near exposure at the lower tidal range may actually provide short
75 periods of time for an increase in photosynthesis due to the increase in available light or as a
76 result of increased CO₂ assimilation rates, due to the decreased resistance for CO₂ diffusion
77 (Johnston and Raven 1986, Beer and Rehnberg 1997). In highly turbid conditions where
78 plants are light-limited, periods of high light, while still submerged or air-exposed, may
79 provide a “window” of photosynthetic relief from high turbidity during low tide.
80 Alternatively, if irradiances become too high or desiccation too prolonged during these
81 periods it could lead to severe light stress on photosynthetic tissues and even damage the
82 photosystems (Seddon and Cheshire 2001). It is also possible that exposed seagrass blades
83 exceed their thermal tolerance for photosynthesis when exposed for long periods at low tide
84 which would also lead to a decline in net photosynthesis (Leuschner et al. 1998). Given the
85 complex growing conditions that intertidal seagrasses are exposed to, it is necessary to
86 understand how photosynthesis is impacted by the daily tidal cycle and periodic air exposure.
87 In this study, we aim to determine whether this ‘window’ of exposure during a tidal cycle
88 actually results in an increase in photosynthesis for these intertidal seagrasses living in turbid
89 environments.

90 Here we investigate the effect of tidal flux on the photochemical efficiency, photoprotective
91 pigment ratios and oxygen production of intertidal seagrass meadows from Gladstone

92 Harbour over a tidal cycle across different seasons. Specifically, this study aims to measure
93 changes in photosynthesis during exposure events, to better understand how exposure and
94 near-exposure (shallow water) influences seagrass physiology and production. This study
95 focuses on two seagrass species whose distributions overlap on Australia's northeast coast;
96 *Halophila ovalis* (R. Br.) Hook. f., a widespread tropical species and *Zostera muelleri* ssp.
97 *capricorni* (Ascherson), a species endemic to Australia that occurs only in shallow coastal
98 tropical and sub-tropical waters. While this study is limited in its ability to provide significant
99 causality to changes in photosynthesis upon exposure, the quarterly sampling does provide
100 some understanding of the variability in the responses to air exposure in seagrasses over an
101 annual cycle and helps to differentiate possible effects of temperature stress, with lower water
102 temperatures in the senescent season compared with the growing season.

103

104 **Materials and Methods**

105 *Study site and sampling protocol*

106 The study site was an intertidal seagrass meadow at Pelican Banks, Gladstone Harbour
107 (151.308456; -23.766299) where two intertidal seagrass species *Zostera muelleri* ssp.
108 *capricorni* and *Halophila ovalis* form the dominant benthic habitat. The seagrass meadows of
109 Pelican Banks are subject to a semi-diurnal tidal cycle with two high and two low tides each
110 day and an average spring tidal range of about 5 m. Due to the tidal activity, the site is fairly
111 turbid, particularly on the extreme of each incoming and outgoing tide. The maximum
112 Nephelometric Turbidity Units (NTU) during the study months were 321.9 (October), 61.8
113 (January), 48.7 (May) and 21.45 (July) (data sourced from Vision Environment, QLD).
114 Field measurements were made over one or two days on four separate field trips, each during
115 different seasons –spring (22nd and 24th October, 2010), summer (19th and 20th January,

116 2011), autumn (14th May, 2011) and winter (14th July, 2011). Mean water temperatures for
117 the months sampled were 23.69 ± 1.14 (Oct), 27.25 ± 0.67 (Jan), 21.45 ± 1.52 (May) and
118 $18.18 \pm 0.59^\circ\text{C}$ (July), while mean monthly solar irradiances were 12.30 ± 7.12 , 6.56 ± 2.56 ,
119 5.76 ± 3.50 and 14.28 ± 4.06 mol photons $\text{m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ for the same months, respectively.
120 Physiological measurements were made from before solar noon until sundown at near-hourly
121 intervals starting three hours prior to the absolute low tide. This sampling protocol was used
122 to ensure that before, during and after air exposure photosynthetic activity was captured in
123 the sampling program. Chlorophyll *a* fluorescence measurements were performed using
124 SCUBA divers to capture *in situ* photosynthetic activity and leaf samples (2nd blade) were
125 collected by the divers and measurements including oxygen production and bio-optical
126 properties were taken on board the vessel. Leaf blades were also collected and immediately
127 frozen in liquid nitrogen for later HPLC pigment determinations of the state of the
128 xanthophyll cycle.

129

130 *Chlorophyll a fluorescence*

131 Chlorophyll *a* fluorescence measurements were performed using a Pulse Amplitude
132 Modulated fluorometer (Diving-PAM; Walz GmbH, Effeltrich, Germany). Rapid light
133 curves (RLCs) were measured on leaf blades using the in-built software routine of nine
134 incrementing actinic illumination steps (0, 33, 72, 117, 178, 249, 375, 512, 780 $\mu\text{mol photons}$
135 $\text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) at 10 s intervals. A specialised leaf clip was used to position the fibre optic probe at a
136 fixed distance from the leaf blade for each measurement. All measurements were performed
137 on the second leaf blade to be comparable across all plants. Six independent leaf blades were
138 measured every 1–2 h on the outgoing and incoming tides, before during and, where possible,
139 after air exposure.

140 Relative electron transport rate (rETR) was calculated as the product of effective quantum
141 yield (Φ_{PSII}) and irradiance ($\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$). Data were fitted according to the double
142 exponential function as in Ralph and Gademann (2005) and three photosynthetic parameters;
143 maximum electron transport rate (rETR_{max}), light utilisation efficiency (α) and minimum
144 saturating irradiance (E_k) were derived from these curves. Initial effective quantum yield of
145 PSII (Y_i) taken as the first Φ_{PSII} value (Φ_{PSII} at *in situ* irradiance) from each RLC was plotted
146 as a function of irradiance for both *Halophila ovalis* and *Zostera muelleri* ssp. *capricorni* to
147 help differentiate a light-dependent from an exposure-dependent response and a linear
148 regression analysis was applied to the data.

149

150 *Direct O₂ measurements*

151 Rates of photosynthesis were determined before, during and after exposure at low tide by
152 measuring oxygen (O₂) evolution inside 5 ml air- and water-tight incubation bottles equipped
153 with oxygen sensitive luminescent material and read by an optical sensor (SDR SensorDish
154 Reader, Presens, Germany). Leaves (2nd blade) were collected at 1-2 h intervals between
155 10:00 and 17:00 h on each of the sampling days and processed on board within 1-2 h. Leaves
156 were cleaned of epiphytes and placed into the incubation bottles filled with filtered (pore size
157 0.2 μm) seawater (3 to 5 leaves per bottle, $n= 6$ bottles). Oxygen concentrations within each
158 bottle were measured at the start (t_0) and end (t_1) of a 20 min dark incubation period within a
159 constant temperature seawater bath (same as the *in situ* temperature). After respiration
160 measurements (R_D), the bottles were then placed into a transparent chamber that was returned
161 to the seabed for 30 min of *in situ* light incubation, and recovered for measurement of the
162 final O₂ concentration (t_2). Rates of gross oxygenic production (P_G) within each bottle were
163 determined as: $P_G = P_N - R_D$, where P_N and R_D are the net photosynthesis measured in the

164 light and the respiration in the dark, respectively. Productivity was normalized to total leaf
165 area in the bottle and reported as $\mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$.

166

167 *Leaf-specific absorptance $A(\lambda)$*

168 Leaf-specific absorptance is a measure of the fraction of photosynthetically active radiation
169 (PAR) captured by the leaf's photosynthetic pigments. Leaf spectral transmittance and
170 reflectance were measured from 400 to 750 nm at 1 nm resolution using two fibre optic
171 spectrometers (USB2000+ and USB2000 Ocean Optics, USA) interfaced with two
172 integrating spheres (FOIS-1 and ISP-REF, Ocean Optics, USA). Leaves collected from the
173 seagrass meadow were placed in numbered plastic containers and kept moist and in the dark
174 until optical properties were measured (within ~1 hour). Leaves were gently scraped clean of
175 epiphytes and placed between two microscope slides. Black tape was used to obscure the
176 portion of the sample port not covered by leaf tissue.

177 For transmittance measurements, a tungsten halogen light source (LS-1, Ocean Optics, USA)
178 was adjusted to completely irradiate the 9.5 mm diameter sample port of the integrating
179 sphere (FOIS-1, Ocean Optics, USA). Leaf spectral transmittance ($T(\lambda)$) was calculated with
180 reference to the slide and tape without a leaf in place. For reflectance measurements, the
181 sample was placed over the port of the second integrating sphere (ISP-Ocean Optics, USA)
182 so that the same side faced the light source (internal to the sphere in the case of the ISP-
183 Ocean Optics). Leaf spectral reflectance ($R(\lambda)$) was calculated, referenced to the slide and
184 tape with a diffusive reflectance standard (Spectralon 98%). Leaf-specific absorptance $A(\lambda)$
185 was then calculated as:

186
$$A(\lambda) = 1 - T(\lambda) - R(\lambda) - A(750 \text{ nm})$$

187 Where $A(750 \text{ nm})$ is a correction for non-photosynthetic absorptance:

$$188 \quad A(750 \text{ nm}) = 1 - T(750 \text{ nm}) - R(750 \text{ nm})$$

189 Leaf-specific photosynthetic absorptance $A\Phi$ (PAR) was calculated as the spectral average of
190 $A(\lambda)$ over the spectral range 400-700 nm (Durako 2007).

191

192 *Leaf optical cross section $a^*(\lambda)$*

193 Leaf optical cross section (a^*) is a measure of chlorophyll use efficiency. The collected
194 leaves were photographed and their surface area was determined digitally using image
195 analysis software (ImageJ). Pigments were then extracted by grinding weighed leaf samples
196 in ice cold 80% acetone using a mortar and pestle with clean sand. Concentrations of
197 chlorophyll *a* (Chl *a*) and *b* (Chl *b*) were determined spectrophotometrically using the
198 equations and extinction coefficients of Jeffrey and Humphrey (1975). The leaf-specific
199 absorption coefficient $a(\lambda)$ was calculated from the absorptance $A(\lambda)$ as $-\ln [1-A(\lambda)]$ and the
200 optical cross-section $a^*(\lambda)$ was calculated by normalizing $a(\lambda)$ to the area specific Chl *a*
201 concentration (Enrquez 2005):

$$202 \quad a^*(\lambda) = a(\lambda) / [\text{Chl } a]$$

203

204 *Photoprotective pigments*

205 Pigment concentrations were determined using high performance liquid chromatography
206 (HPLC). Pigments were extracted by grinding and analysed according to the methods of van
207 Heukelem and Thomas (2001) with the only modification being an extra filtration step
208 through 0.2 μm PTFE 13 mm syringe filters (Micro-Analytix Pty Ltd). Clarified samples

209 were stored in amber HPLC glass vials (Waters Australia Pty Ltd, Australia) at -80 °C
210 overnight before analysis. The HPLC system included a pump, temperature-controlled auto-
211 injector (Waters Australia Pty Ltd, Australia), C8 column (150 x 4.6 mm; Eclipse XDB), and
212 photodiode array detector (Waters Australia Pty Ltd, Australia). Pigments were identified by
213 comparison of their retention times and spectra using calibration standards (DHI, Denmark)
214 for each pigment. Peaks were integrated using curve-fitting software (Empower Pro Waters
215 Australia Pty Ltd, Australia) and checked manually to confirm the accuracy of the peak
216 baselines and the similarity of the integrated peaks to that of the standard. The pigment data
217 were used to investigate rapid photoprotective responses over a tidal cycle by measuring the
218 de-epoxidation state of violaxanthin (a measure of violaxanthin conversion to the
219 photoprotective zeaxanthin). This was calculated as: $((\text{Zeaxanthin}) + (0.5 * \text{Antheraxanthin})) /$
220 $(\text{Violaxanthin} + \text{Antheraxanthin} + \text{Zeaxanthin})$ (Thayer and Björkman 1990).

221

222 *Underwater light climate*

223 Down-welling photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) at the water surface and seafloor
224 were measured at each sampling period using a 2Π underwater quantum sensor (LI192SA,
225 LI-COR Nebraska, USA) attached to a frame and a photometer (LI-1400, LI-COR Nebraska,
226 USA). Water depth was also measured at each time point of sampling.

227

228 *Data analysis*

229 To test for significant differences in the photosynthetic parameters and oxygen production
230 throughout the tidal cycle a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used at $\alpha = 0.05$ and
231 pairwise comparisons made using a Tukey's post hoc test. To ensure that the assumption of

232 equal variances for all parametric tests was satisfied, a Levene's test for homogeneity of
233 variance was applied to all data *a priori*. In cases where the assumption of homoscedasticity
234 was not met, data were log transformed before analysis or a non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis
235 test was used instead. All analyses were performed using Minitab statistical software (version
236 15.1.0.0 2006, Pennsylvania, USA).

237

238 **Results**

239 *Spring (growing season)*

240 Maximum daily irradiance coincided with the time just prior to air exposure on both sampling
241 days, but stayed around the same intensity ($543\text{-}733 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) during the
242 exposure event (Fig. 1a and b). Due to the nature of the measurements, oxygen data could
243 only be measured in water (as the instrument relies on aqueous phase). Therefore, samples
244 were taken immediately prior to exposure and after 1 h of complete air exposure. Oxygen
245 production showed a significant decrease after exposure in *Zostera muelleri* ssp. *capricorni*
246 ($P < 0.05$; Fig 1c). The same response was measured in *Halophila ovalis*, whereby O_2
247 production following air exposure was significantly lower than during the immersed periods
248 ($P < 0.05$; Fig 1d). Seagrass photosynthetic light absorption capacity remained constant for
249 *Z. muelleri* ssp. *capricorni* and *H. ovalis* (0.62 ± 0.12 , 0.46 ± 0.09 , respectively) throughout
250 the tidal exposure event. The photoprotective pigment ratios determined by HPLC analysis
251 showed a strong and significant increase ($P < 0.001$) with increased irradiance, where the
252 violaxanthin de-epoxidation state increased throughout the day in both *Z. muelleri* ssp.
253 *capricorni* and *H. ovalis* (Fig. 1e and f). On both days, the greatest violaxanthin de-

254 epoxidation occurred during air exposure (black arrows) in both species (Fig. 1e and f,
255 respectively).

256 Initial effective quantum yield of PSII (Y_i) from the RLC declined significantly ($P < 0.001$)
257 with increased irradiance from 10:30 to 14:00 in *Zostera muelleri* ssp. *capricorni* with a
258 further significant decline occurring during air exposure (Table 1A). The same pattern was
259 seen in *Halophila ovalis* with a consistent decline in Y_i with increasing *in situ* irradiance;
260 however, only a significant drop ($P < 0.001$) in Y_i occurred during exposure (Table 1B). The
261 maximum rETR ($rETR_{max}$) and minimum saturating irradiance (E_k) values showed a light-
262 dependent response in both species (Table 1 A and B), with a significant increase in $rETR_{max}$
263 with increased irradiance followed by a significant decline upon air exposure in both *Z.*
264 *muelleri* ssp. *capricorni* ($P < 0.001$; Table 1A) and *H. ovalis* ($P = 0.011$; Table 1B). E_k was
265 significantly greater at the maximum daily irradiance for both *Z. muelleri* ssp. *capricorni* (P
266 $= 0.001$) and *H. ovalis* ($P = 0.003$; Table 1A and B). These changes in photosynthetic
267 parameters further support the idea of additional stress to the plants when exposed, where
268 seagrass, able to maintain high rates of electron transport at higher irradiance level only seem
269 to be able to do this if they are submerged (Table 1). Light utilisation efficiency (α) decreased
270 throughout the day in *Z. muelleri* ssp. *capricorni*, declining with increased irradiance and
271 dropped significantly as the plants became air-exposed ($P < 0.001$; Table 1A). A similar
272 pattern was seen in *H. ovalis* ($P = 0.001$; Table 1B), where increased irradiance lead to a
273 decline in α . However, unlike *Z. muelleri* ssp. *capricorni*, there was no difference in α from
274 the highest irradiance to being exposed, suggesting that the plant's ability to efficiently utilise
275 the light available is not greatly impacted by air-exposed conditions and that in *H. ovalis* this
276 parameter is more sensitive to high irradiance than air exposed conditions.

277

278 *Summer (growing season)*

279 *In situ* PAR varied throughout the day due to intermittent cloud cover. However, it was
280 maximal during tidal minimum on the 19th of January, with plants being air-exposed during
281 irradiances above 1600 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (Fig. 2a; Table 2A). On the 20th, PAR reached a
282 maximum one hour prior to exposure, but remained above 1000 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ during
283 the exposure event (Fig. 2b; Table 2B). Oxygen production in *Zostera muelleri* ssp.
284 *capricorni* increased significantly with increasing irradiance as the tide withdrew (Fig. 2c).
285 Gross O₂ evolution just prior to air exposure was 2-3 times greater than the noon values
286 measured at ~ 1 m depth. The reduced light level at the end of the day may have contributed
287 to the decline in photosynthesis after re-immersion for *Z. muelleri* ssp. *capricorni* following
288 air exposure (Fig 2c). For *Halophila ovalis*, gross O₂ production rates didn't vary throughout
289 the tidal cycle. There was however, a significant decline in respiration rate at 14:00 (Fig d).
290 Seagrass photosynthetic light absorption capacity remained largely constant throughout the
291 tidal exposure event (0.48 ± 0.04 , 0.46 ± 0.09 , respectively). There was a significant increase
292 ($P < 0.001$) in the violaxanthin de-epoxidation state with increased irradiance (Fig. 2e and f).
293 In *Z. muelleri* ssp. *capricorni* the greatest violaxanthin de-epoxidation occurred during air
294 exposure (black arrows). A similar response was measured in *H. ovalis*; however, the last
295 time point did not drop following air exposure (Fig. 2f).

296 There was a significant decline ($P < 0.005$) in initial effective quantum yield of PSII (Y_i)
297 during air exposure in *Zostera muelleri* ssp. *capricorni* and *Halophila ovalis* (Table 2).
298 Maximum rETR (rETR_{max}) and minimum saturating irradiance (E_k) values showed a light-
299 dependent response in both species (Table 2), although with some inconsistencies for *Z.*
300 *muelleri* ssp. *capricorni* (Table 2A). These were likely due to the intermittent cloud cover
301 during sampling which may have affected some of the fluorescence and PAR values. In both

302 species there was a significant decline in $rETR_{max}$ during air exposure ($P < 0.001$; Table 2).
303 In both cases, irradiance was equally high immediately prior to and during air exposure,
304 further supporting the suggestion of additional stress to the plants when exposed to
305 desiccation, even when irradiance is optimal for greater rates of electron transport. Light
306 utilisation efficiency (α) decreased throughout the day in both *Z. muelleri* ssp. *capricorni* and
307 *H. ovalis*, declining with increased irradiance and then declining further as the plants became
308 air-exposed ($P < 0.001$; Table 2). The significant recovery in α following exposure (Table 2A)
309 emphasises the negative impact that air exposure has on the photosynthetic efficiency of *Z.*
310 *muelleri* ssp. *capricorni*.

311

312 *Autumn (senescent season)*

313 The low tide (13:00 h) coincided with the maximum solar irradiance during the Autumn
314 study, with PAR reaching in excess of $1800 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ during air exposure (Fig. 3a
315 and b). Consistent with the previous tidal exposure studies, rates of gross O_2 production in
316 both species were significantly greater ($P < 0.01$) at 12:30 (just prior to air exposure) than at
317 10:10 and 14:10 (Fig. 3c and d). No change in dark respiration rate was found throughout the
318 day in either species. During this collection trip, *Zostera muelleri* ssp. *capricorni* and
319 *Halophila ovalis* were sampled on the same day and therefore incubated simultaneously, thus
320 being exposed to identical light and temperature conditions. Interestingly, O_2 production rate
321 appears more responsive to irradiance variations and air exposure in *Z. muelleri* ssp.
322 *capricorni* than *H. ovalis* (Fig 3c and d, respectively), closely matching the chl *a* fluorescence
323 data. In line with previous measurements, the fraction of light absorbed by seagrass leaves
324 remained constant throughout the tidal cycle (0.46 ± 0.01 , 0.49 ± 0.03 , respectively), thus
325 further confirming that these seagrass do not regulate their light capturing efficiency under
326 rapidly changing light intensities. Also consistent with the previous two seasons, the

327 violaxanthin de-epoxidation state showed a significant increase in de-epoxidation ratio with
328 increased irradiance ($P < 0.001$) and maximum de-epoxidation occurring during air exposure
329 (Fig. 3e and f).

330 Initial effective quantum yield of PSII (Y_i) showed a significant decline ($P < 0.001$) during
331 air exposure and greatest irradiance in both species (Table 3), but with a greater decline
332 measured for *Zostera muelleri* ssp. *capricorni*. A similar pattern was observed for maximum
333 $rETR_{max}$ and α in *Z. muelleri* ssp. *capricorni* declining significantly during air exposure ($P =$
334 0.012 and $P = 0.001$; Table 3A), but recovering by 14:10. *Halophila ovalis* did not show the
335 same trend in photosynthetic parameters (Table 3B). Instead, significant differences were
336 only detected for $rETR_{max}$ at the lowest irradiance levels and deepest depth (8:30), where
337 $rETR_{max}$ was greatest ($P < 0.047$) and during moderate light at 10:10 where $rETR_{max}$ dropped
338 significantly ($P = 0.038$; Table 3B). Thus, it would seem that there was no clear response in
339 $rETR_{max}$ to air exposure or irradiance in autumn for *H. ovalis* (Table 3B). No differences
340 were detected in E_k or α between sampling times for *H. ovalis* also indicating no light-
341 dependent response or sensitivity to desiccation.

342

343 *Winter (senescent season)*

344 Due to poor weather conditions, only one day of sampling was possible for this season.
345 Therefore, data was only collected for *Zostera muelleri* ssp. *capricorni* for the winter period.
346 Tidal and PAR data showed an inverse pattern, consistent with previous seasons, of high
347 irradiance during low tide (Fig. 4a). Unlike previous seasons however, oxygen production
348 declined significantly ($P < 0.05$) just before air exposure and then stayed low following
349 exposure (Fig. 4b). This would suggest that the decline in photosynthesis was due to high
350 irradiance and not necessarily air exposure, as was seen in the previous three seasons.

351 Seagrass photosynthetic light absorption capacity remained constant throughout the tidal
352 exposure event (0.45 ± 0.01). Consistent with the other seasons, violaxanthin de-epoxidation
353 state showed a significant increase in de-epoxidation ratio with increased irradiance ($P <$
354 0.001) with maximum de-epoxidation occurring during air exposure (Fig. 4c). Photosynthetic
355 parameters Y_i , $rETR_{max}$ and α all declined significantly ($P < 0.05$) during air exposure (Table
356 4), but did not differ during the other parts of the day and there was no significant change in
357 E_k throughout the day.

358

359 *Light-dependent or air-exposed response?*

360 To help differentiate a light-dependent response from the effects of air exposure, effective
361 quantum yield of PSII (Y_i) as a function of *in situ* irradiance was plotted for *Zostera muelleri*
362 *ssp. capricorni* and *Halophila ovalis* (Fig. 5). Regression analyses were then performed on
363 the data to ascertain the effect of air exposure on Y_i . First, a regression analysis using all the
364 Y_i data was performed to elucidate the effect of light on Y_i (Fig. 5a & c). Then another
365 regression using only the Y_i values obtained while seagrass were submerged (ie: in the
366 absence of air-exposed data) was conducted to see if this altered the light-dependent response
367 (Fig 5b & d). Y_i for *Z. muelleri ssp. capricorni* showed a significant although weak negative
368 correlation with increased irradiance ($R^2 = 0.3268$; $P < 0.0001$; Fig. 5a) when regression was
369 applied to all the data (including the air-exposed data; Fig 5a). However, when only the
370 submerged data were used (Fig. 5b), no correlation was detected ($R^2 = 0.0001$). In contrast, a
371 significant relationship was detected in *H. ovalis* between Y_i and irradiance under both air-
372 exposed ($R^2 = 0.4872$; $P < 0.0001$; Fig. 5c) and submerged conditions ($R^2 = 0.3313$; $P <$
373 0.0001 ; Fig. 5d).

374

375 **Discussion**

376 All organisms growing in an intertidal habitat must tolerate oscillations in environmental
377 conditions, some of which may act synergistically or antagonistically. Consequently, trying to
378 ascertain the effect of a single environmental stressor is difficult in isolation of other
379 environmental factors (Lee et al. 2007). For this reason, this study was focused on
380 determining whether there was a significant change in photosynthesis over a tidal cycle, with
381 particular interest to see how photosynthesis was impacted by low tide exposure and not on
382 what was the main driver of this change. Several significant differences in physiological
383 responses were detectable in both seagrass species and between seasons. The data show that
384 oxygen evolution increased as the tide receded and then declined significantly immediately
385 after air exposure during the growing season. This compliments the chl *a* fluorescence data,
386 which further shows that during exposure, photosynthetic activity (Y_i , $rETR_{max}$) declined as
387 a result of increased photoinhibitory stress (increased de-epoxidation of violaxanthin). The
388 increase in photosynthetic activity with increased irradiance in spring and summer (growing
389 season) is consistent with previous studies that have found photoinhibition to be primarily
390 absent in intertidal seagrasses (Beer and Björk 2000). The cause of the photosynthetic stress
391 measured in this study during air exposure is still unknown; it could be the result of
392 desiccation or excess heat or a combination of both. What is clear is air exposure during a
393 tidal cycle did not provide these intertidal seagrass meadows with a 'window' of opportunity
394 in which to maximise productivity.

395 The significant and seasonally consistent decline in photosynthetic efficiency (Y_i) during air
396 exposure for *Zostera muelleri* ssp. *capricorni* highlights the sensitivity of this intertidal
397 species to exposed conditions. Light had very little effect on photosynthetic activity until it
398 was combined with the negative effect of air exposure, in all seasons. *Z. muelleri* ssp.

399 *capricorni* has been shown to have a preference for higher irradiances, with significant
400 declines in carbon production and above ground biomass when grown in light levels that are
401 below saturating irradiances (Collier et al. 2011). This has major implications with respect to
402 daily productivity, as during low tide, when irradiance is maximal, photosynthetic activity
403 declines in response to exposure stress and not high irradiance, thus limiting the ‘window’ for
404 high rates of productivity to times of high irradiance with submergence. Although this
405 response was also seen in *Halophila ovalis*, it was only observed when it corresponded with
406 high irradiances and was rarely significantly different from the high irradiance response.
407 Indeed, in this study *H. ovalis* showed a stronger response to light condition than to exposure.
408 This absence of any correlation between effective quantum yield of PSII and air exposure for
409 *H. ovalis* could be a result of its morphology. The leaf stems are fine and unable to support
410 the leaves when the tide recedes, resulting in the leaves lying flat against the substrate and
411 often submerged in small pools of water, potentially providing protection against air exposure
412 (Björk et al. 1999).

413 For each season, measurements were taken close to midday low tide “windows” when light
414 levels were greatest. Cayabyab and Enriquez (2007) found a strong light-dependent response
415 in oxygen evolution rates in *Thalassia testudinum* with very similar values to those found in
416 this study (ranging from 0.5-2.0 $\mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ over 50-2000 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$). The
417 increase in photosynthetic activity with increased irradiance in the spring and summer studies
418 (growing season) would suggest that these species have a higher-light requirement for growth
419 and photosynthesis than what is normally available during high tide. It also suggests that they
420 take advantage of increased irradiances as the tide recedes. However, during autumn and
421 winter (senescent season) this type of opportunistic response by seagrasses is no longer
422 apparent (Lee et al. 2007). The fact that photosynthetic light absorption capacity (a^*)
423 remained largely constant throughout the tidal exposure events across all seasons, as well as

424 the lack of change in leaf chlorophyll concentrations, confirms that these seagrass species do
425 not regulate light capturing efficiency under rapidly changing irradiance. Furthermore, an a^*
426 of approx. 0.5 is consistent with the average values published by Campbell et al. (2007) for
427 intertidal *H. ovalis* (0.52 ± 0.10) and *Z. capricorni* (0.60 ± 0.04) sampled along the northern
428 Queensland coast.

429 Comparison of the data between seasons shows the greatest response to air-exposure for
430 *Zostera muelleri* ssp. *capricorni* in the spring sampling month – ie a reduced response to
431 exposure in late summer and the senescent seasons. This difference in stress during air
432 exposure between the seasons could correspond to temperature differences or monthly light
433 supply, both of which might play a significant role in the loss of photosynthetic efficiency in
434 *Z. muelleri* ssp. *capricorni*. Water temperatures were more than five degrees warmer during
435 the growing season (23.7-27.3°C) compared with the senescent season (18.2-21.5°C). Indeed,
436 a recent study on *Z. muelleri* ssp. *capricorni* showed significant decline in photosynthesis,
437 growth and carbon production at temperatures exceeding 31°C (Collier et al. 2011). The clear
438 difference between spring and the other seasons is likely to be the result of a number of
439 factors, rather than temperature alone. Average monthly irradiance varied from relatively
440 high in spring ($12.3 \text{ mol photons m}^{-2}\text{d}^{-1}$) to around of that half in summer ($6.5 \text{ mol photons m}^{-2}\text{d}^{-1}$)
441 and autumn ($5.7 \text{ mol photons m}^{-2}\text{d}^{-1}$), before increasing again in winter ($14.2 \text{ mol photons m}^{-2}\text{d}^{-1}$). This would suggest a potential synergistic effect between light and
442 temperature, where spring showed combined high light and warmer temperature conditions.
443 A similar result was found by Collier et al (2011) whereby high light in the presence of
444 warmer temperatures led to reduced photosynthesis after 30 days, whereas high irradiance in
445 the absence of high temperature showed no change in leaf photosynthesis. This provides a
446 possible explanation for the difference in stress response measured between the spring and
447

448 summer (growing season) in this study. However, determination of the exact causality of
449 these differences is beyond the scope of this study.

450 Similarly, the measured decline in effective quantum yield of PSII in response to high
451 midday irradiances indicates that energy is being diverted from photochemistry to non-
452 photochemical processes; this potentially results in substantial losses (up to 10%) in carbon
453 assimilation (Long et al. 1994). Again this could relate to the warmer temperatures during the
454 growing season (October and January), which showed higher respiration rates, potentially
455 inhibiting carbon production (Balthuis 1983; Ralph 1998). These seasonal differences in
456 physiological stress responses measured in this study (increased respiration rates and decline
457 in effective quantum yield) would again suggest that temperature might play a key role in the
458 loss in productivity during air exposure. One study found that in the absence of desiccation,
459 high temperatures had minimal effect on seagrass health and physiology, but when exposed
460 to high temperatures during air exposure, there was a significant decline in seagrass
461 photosynthetic health (Seddon and Cheshire 2001).

462 *Zostera muelleri* ssp. *capricorni* and *Halophila ovalis* showed maximum de-epoxidation
463 ratios during the growing season (maximum approx. 0.6) declining in the senescent season
464 (maximum approx. 0.35). These maximum de-epoxidation ratios are within the same range
465 (0.4 – 0.7) of those measured previously in *Zostera marina* (Ralph et al. 2002). The
466 photoprotective pigment response measured over each tidal cycle, where de-epoxidation ratio
467 increased with increased irradiance, was to be expected. However, the additional increase in
468 de-epoxidation ratio during exposure provides further support for increased physiological
469 stress under air exposed conditions. In several instances, this response occurred irrespective
470 of irradiance being less during the exposure period than at other times in the day.
471 Violaxanthin de-epoxidation ratio is an indicator of non-photochemical quenching, a

472 photoprotective response in which carotenoid pigments are utilised to dissipate excess photon
473 energy as heat (Demmig-Adams & Adams, 1996). The light-dependent increase in de-
474 epoxidation ratio indicates increased heat dissipation from the light harvesting antenna of
475 PSII. However, when combined with the significant decline in photosynthetic efficiency (Y_i),
476 this data provides strong evidence that under air-exposed conditions, less photon energy is
477 being utilised for photochemistry and a larger proportion is being lost as heat, thus, providing
478 protection for the cell when electron transport and photosynthesis are compromised by the
479 external environmental conditions.

480 The results from this study have successfully demonstrated that tidal exposure does not
481 provide intertidal seagrass meadows with a 'window' of respite from high turbidity.
482 Furthermore, this study has increased our understanding of *in situ* photosynthetic efficiency
483 and measured changes in oxygen evolution and physiology as a result of changes in
484 irradiance and water depth over a tidal cycle. The seasonal variability in the response of these
485 two species to air exposure has provided a greater understanding of annual patterns in
486 seagrass photosynthetic activity under natural tidal fluctuations and has demonstrated the
487 need for seagrass to have access to high light in turbid coastal environments during the early
488 growing season when compared with the senescent season. This has important management
489 implications when considering the impact of coastal development, such as dredging
490 operations, in estuaries and harbours.

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496

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605 Tables:

606 Table 1: Photosynthetic parameters initial effective quantum yield of photosystem II (Y_i),
607 maximum electron transport rate ($rETR_{max}$), minimum saturating irradiance (E_k) and light
608 utilisation efficiency (α) calculated from the rapid light curves of A) *Zostera muelleri* ssp.

609 *capricorni* and B) *Halophila ovalis* (24th October, 2010). PAR (μE) = $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$.
610 Data represent means \pm SD ($n = 6$). Superscript letters indicate significant differences at $\alpha <$
611 0.05.

A. <i>Zostera muelleri</i> ssp. <i>capricorni</i> SPRING				
Time	10:30	12:00	14:00	15:40
PAR (μE)	240-320	358-510	792-774	733-543
Water depth (m)	1.9	1.5	0.2	Exposed
Y _i	0.726 \pm 0.010 ^a	0.702 \pm 0.020 ^a	0.647 \pm 0.026 ^b	0.598 \pm 0.036 ^c
rETR _{max}	69.90 \pm 4.800 ^{ab}	84.04 \pm 7.330 ^{bc}	84.90 \pm 12.20 ^c	55.05 \pm 11.90 ^a
E _k	70.90 \pm 5.400 ^a	97.70 \pm 9.020 ^{bc}	108.3 \pm 27.40 ^b	79.90 \pm 7.880 ^c
α	0.980 \pm 0.020 ^a	0.860 \pm 0.020 ^b	0.820 \pm 0.110 ^b	0.680 \pm 0.130 ^c
B. <i>Halophila ovalis</i>				
Time	10:30	12:00	14:00	15:40
PAR (μE)	240-320	358-510	792-774	733-543
Water depth (m)	1.9	1.5	0.2	Exposed
Y _i	0.737 \pm 0.020 ^a	0.673 \pm 0.014 ^a	0.657 \pm 0.081 ^a	0.549 \pm 0.102 ^b
rETR _{max}	69.60 \pm 13.20 ^a	74.80 \pm 12.75 ^{ab}	91.10 \pm 16.80 ^b	64.10 \pm 7.500 ^a
E _k	69.00 \pm 15.40 ^a	79.40 \pm 18.60 ^a	113.0 \pm 21.50 ^{bc}	84.50 \pm 15.60 ^{ac}
α	1.000 \pm 0.040 ^a	0.960 \pm 0.090 ^a	0.810 \pm 0.028 ^b	0.770 \pm 0.080 ^b

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620 Table 2: Photosynthetic parameters initial effective quantum yield of photosystem II (Y_i),
621 maximum electron transport rate (rETR_{max}), minimum saturating irradiance (E_k) and light
622 utilisation efficiency (α) calculated from the rapid light curves of A) *Zostera muelleri* ssp.

623 *capricorni* (19th January, 2011) and B) *Halophila ovalis* (20th January, 2011) Data represent
 624 means \pm SD ($n = 6$). Superscript letters indicate significant differences at $\alpha < 0.05$.

A. <i>Zostera muelleri</i> ssp. <i>capricorni</i> SUMMER					
Time	11:00	12:00	13:30	15:00	16:30
PAR (μ E)	400	86	1550	1692	320
Water depth (m)	2.5	1.0	0.3	Exposed	0.2
Y _i	0.773 \pm 0.010 ^a	0.737 \pm 0.042 ^a	0.730 \pm 0.030 ^a	0.346 \pm 0.081 ^b	0.607 \pm 0.080 ^a
rETR _{max}	40.27 \pm 3.160 ^a	28.62 \pm 5.300 ^b	37.48 \pm 3.510 ^a	10.65 \pm 3.030 ^c	37.41 \pm 7.750 ^{ab}
E _k	99.49 \pm 8.360 ^a	74.06 \pm 12.39 ^b	102.7 \pm 9.130 ^a	60.52 \pm 13.58 ^b	130.8 \pm 23.82 ^c
α	0.410 \pm 0.010 ^a	0.380 \pm 0.030 ^a	0.360 \pm 0.030 ^a	0.170 \pm 0.030 ^b	0.280 \pm 0.040 ^c
B. <i>Halophila ovalis</i>					
Time	11:30	12:30	13:45	15:00	16:00
PAR (μ E)	153	741	591	1200	1053
Water depth (m)	2.0	1.0	0.6	0.05	Exposed
Y _i	0.759 \pm 0.022 ^a	0.741 \pm 0.018 ^a	0.734 \pm 0.017 ^a	0.614 \pm 0.076 ^a	0.436 \pm 0.053 ^b
rETR _{max}	15.64 \pm 2.590 ^a	26.82 \pm 4.960 ^{ab}	28.17 \pm 8.170 ^b	42.20 \pm 13.95 ^b	14.74 \pm 5.910 ^{ca}
E _k	36.70 \pm 6.190 ^a	61.86 \pm 13.52 ^b	69.22 \pm 23.03 ^b	145.1 \pm 46.89 ^c	69.34 \pm 31.91 ^{ab}
α	0.430 \pm 0.060 ^a	0.440 \pm 0.020 ^a	0.410 \pm 0.030 ^a	0.310 \pm 0.030 ^b	0.220 \pm 0.030 ^c

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633 Table 3: Photosynthetic parameters initial effective quantum yield of photosystem II (Y_i),
 634 maximum electron transport rate (rETR_{max}), minimum saturating irradiance (E_k) and light
 635 utilisation efficiency (α) calculated from the rapid light curves of *Zostera muelleri* ssp.
 636 *capricorni* and *Halophila ovalis* (14th May 2011). Data represent means \pm SD ($n = 6$ Z.

637 *muelleri* ssp. *capricorni*; $n = 4$, *H. ovalis*). Superscript letters indicate significant differences
 638 at $\alpha < 0.05$.

A. <i>Zostera muelleri</i> ssp. <i>capricorni</i> AUTUMN				
Time	08:30	10:10	13:00	14:10
PAR (μE)	350	750	1800	750
Water depth (m)	1.5	0.5	Exposed	0.5
Y_i	0.749 ± 0.019^a	0.732 ± 0.034^a	0.535 ± 0.070^b	0.719 ± 0.050^a
$rETR_{\text{max}}$	71.84 ± 15.23^a	67.79 ± 21.24^a	37.69 ± 9.798^b	67.74 ± 22.23^a
E_k	78.79 ± 18.61^a	$73.04 \pm$	58.63 ± 17.16^a	83.23 ± 26.48^a
α	0.916 ± 0.041^a	$25.86^a 0.937 \pm$ 0.040^a	0.674 ± 0.194^b	0.812 ± 0.067^a
B. <i>Halophila ovalis</i>				
Time	08:30	10:10	13:00	14:10
PAR (μE)	350	750	1800	750
Water depth (m)	1.5	0.5	Exposed	0.5
Y_i	0.723 ± 0.022^a	0.638 ± 0.100^{ab}	0.609 ± 0.072^b	0.733 ± 0.033^a
$rETR_{\text{max}}$	82.24 ± 21.30^a	40.82 ± 15.54^b	51.92 ± 15.21^b	53.15 ± 21.90^b
E_k	86.61 ± 23.21^a	44.41 ± 15.13^a	60.56 ± 24.51^a	54.04 ± 22.75^a
α	0.954 ± 0.062^a	0.921 ± 0.619^a	0.888 ± 0.112^a	0.978 ± 0.114^a

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647 Table 4: Photosynthetic parameters initial effective quantum yield of photosystem II (Y_i),
 648 maximum electron transport rate ($rETR_{\text{max}}$), minimum saturating irradiance (E_k) and light
 649 utilisation efficiency (α) calculated from the light response curves of *Zostera muelleri* ssp.

650 *capricorni* (14th July, 2011). Data represent means \pm SD ($n = 6$). Superscript letters indicate
 651 significant differences at $\alpha < 0.05$.

<i>Zostera muelleri</i> ssp. <i>capricorni</i> WINTER				
Time	10:00	11:30	13:15	15:35
PAR (μ E)	400	800	1800	350
Water depth (m)	1.8	1.0	Exposed	0.4
Yi	0.736 ± 0.017^a	0.712 ± 0.023^a	0.558 ± 0.049^b	0.694 ± 0.036^a
rETR _{max}	92.77 ± 45.17^a	105.6 ± 27.56^a	57.40 ± 12.39^b	92.64 ± 23.72^a
E _k	101.3 ± 57.37^a	121.0 ± 41.12^a	75.15 ± 18.77^a	107.3 ± 30.89^a
α	0.939 ± 0.086^a	0.894 ± 0.082^a	0.776 ± 0.095^b	0.871 ± 0.055^{ab}

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664 Figure captions:

665 Figure 1: Photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) at the depth of the seagrass and water

666 depth over the spring tidal cycles on the 23rd and 24th of October 2010 (a and b, respectively),

667 gross oxygenic photosynthesis (black bars) and dark respiration (grey bars) *in situ* for the
668 intertidal seagrass species (c) *Zostera muelleri* ssp. *capricorni* and (d) *Halophila ovalis*.
669 Violaxanthin de-epoxidation ratio for (e) *Z. muelleri* ssp. *capricorni* and (f) *H. ovalis* during
670 tidal cycles on the 22nd and 24th of October 2010, respectively. Data represent mean \pm SEM
671 ($n = 6$), superscript letters indicate significant differences at $\alpha < 0.05$ and down arrows
672 indicate time of air exposure at low tide.

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674 Figure 2: Photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) at the depth of the seagrass and water
675 depth over summer tidal cycles on the 19th and 20th of January 2011 (a and b, respectively),
676 gross oxygenic photosynthesis (black bars) and dark respiration (grey bars) *in situ* for the
677 intertidal seagrass species (c) *Zostera muelleri* ssp. *capricorni* and (d) *Halophila ovalis*.
678 Violaxanthin de-epoxidation ratio for (e) *Z. muelleri* ssp. *capricorni* and (f) *H. ovalis*. Data
679 represent mean \pm SEM ($n = 6$), superscript letters indicate significant differences at $\alpha < 0.05$
680 and down arrows indicate time of air exposure at low tide.

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682 Figure 3: Photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) at the depth of the seagrass and water
683 depth over an autumn tidal cycle on the 14th of May 2011 (a and b), gross oxygenic
684 photosynthesis (black bars) and dark respiration (grey bars) *in situ* for the intertidal seagrass
685 species (c) *Zostera muelleri* ssp. *capricorni* and (d) *Halophila ovalis*. Violaxanthin de-
686 epoxidation ratio for *Z. muelleri* ssp. *capricorni* (e) and *H. ovalis* (f) during a tidal cycle. Data
687 represent mean \pm SEM (*Z. muelleri* ssp. *capricorni* $n = 6$; *H. ovalis* $n = 4$), superscript letters
688 indicate significant differences at $\alpha < 0.05$ and down arrows indicate time of air exposure at
689 low tide.

690

691 Figure 4: Photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) at the depth of the seagrass and water
692 depth over a winter tidal cycle on the 14th of July 2011 (a), gross oxygenic photosynthesis
693 (black bars) and dark respiration (grey bars) *in situ* for the intertidal seagrass species *Zostera*
694 *muelleri* ssp. *capricorni* (b). Violaxanthin de-epoxidation ratio for *Z. muelleri* ssp. *capricorni*
695 (c) during a tidal cycle. Data represent mean \pm SEM ($n = 6$), superscript letters indicate
696 significant differences at $\alpha < 0.05$ and down arrows indicate time of air exposure at low tide.

697

698 Figure 5: Initial effective quantum yield (Y_i) as a function of *in situ* irradiance (PAR μmol
699 $\text{photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) in (a & b) *Zostera muelleri* ssp. *capricorni* and (c & d) *Halophila ovalis* for
700 all data (submerged and air-exposed) collected during tidal cycle (a & c) and yield obtained
701 during submersion only (b & d). Dots represent all data collected from each field study (all
702 four seasons). The relationships between Y_i and irradiance were fitted using linear regression
703 (solid line) and the R^2 values are provided in the legend.

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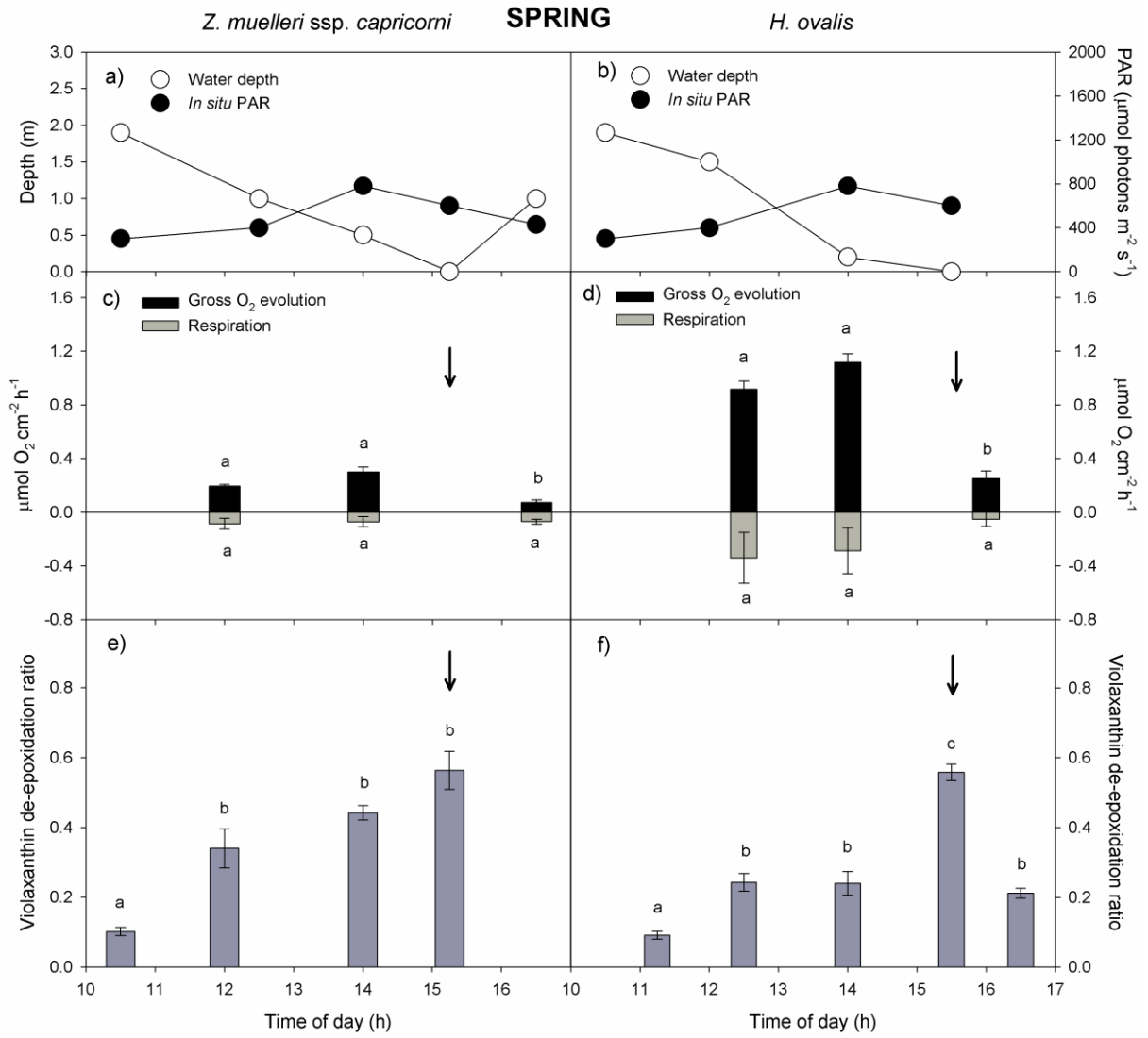
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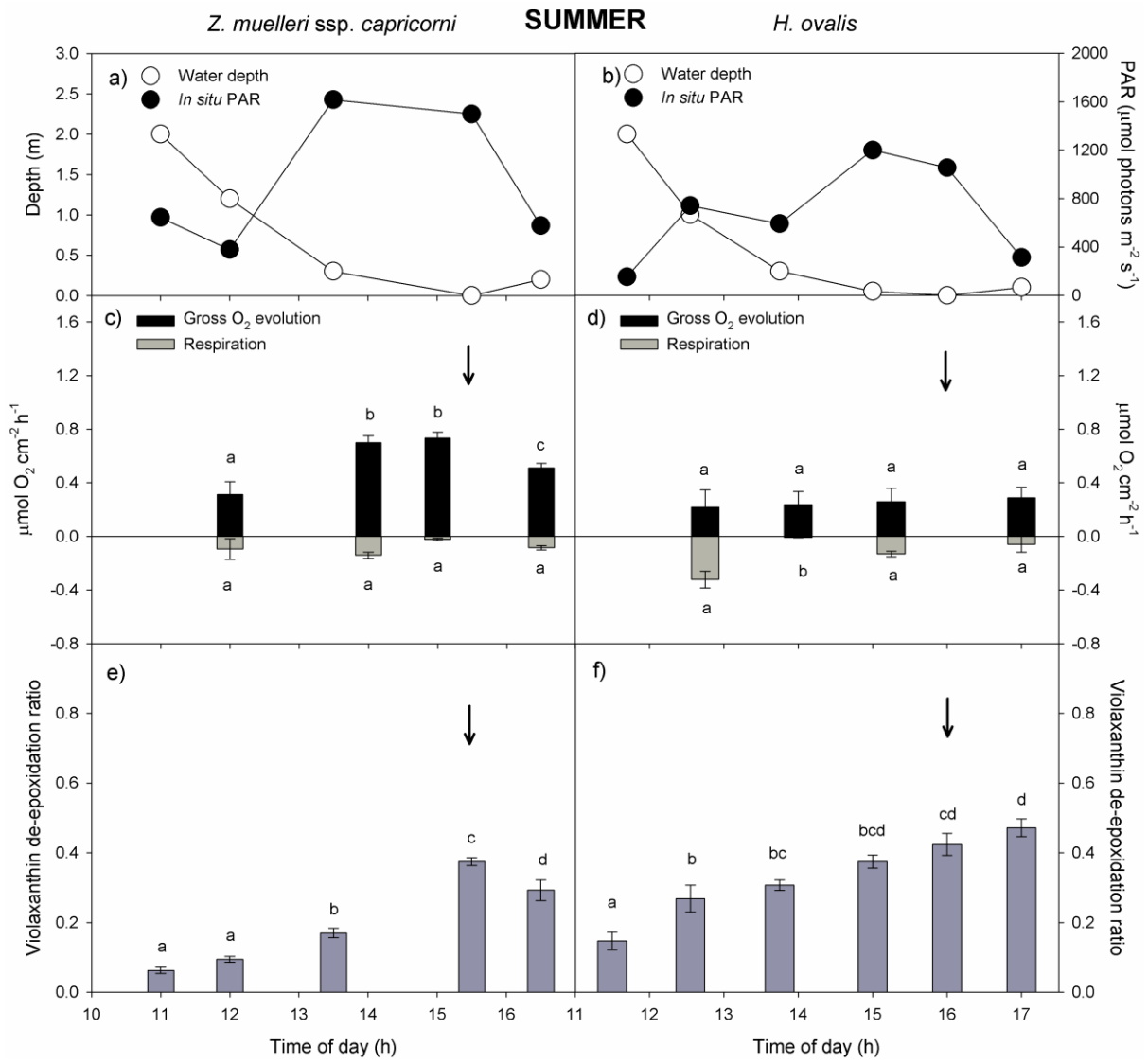
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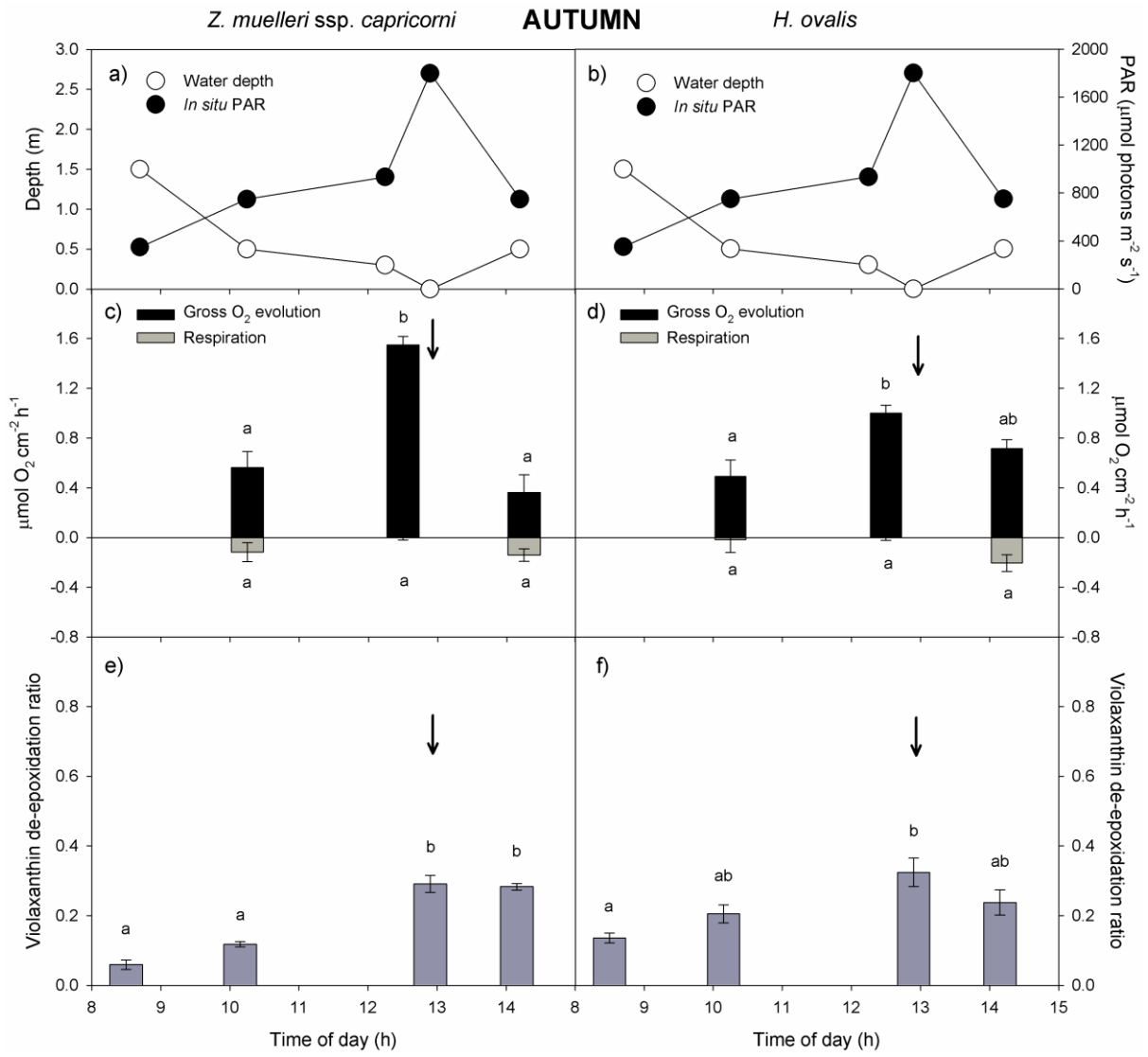
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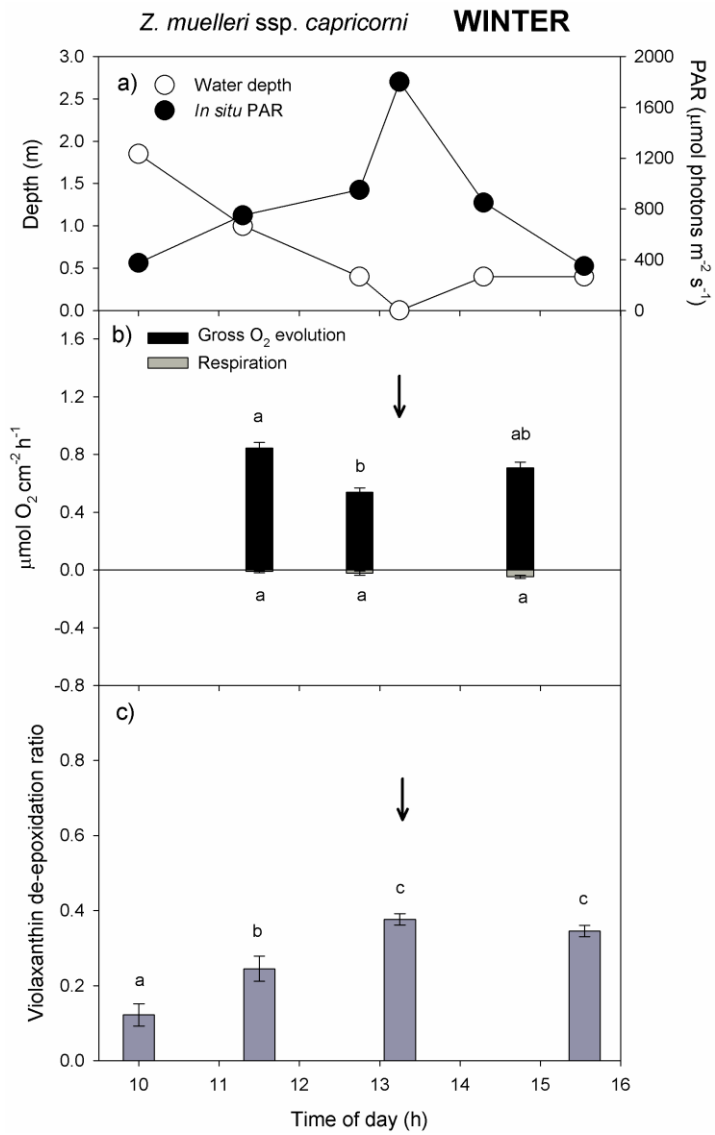
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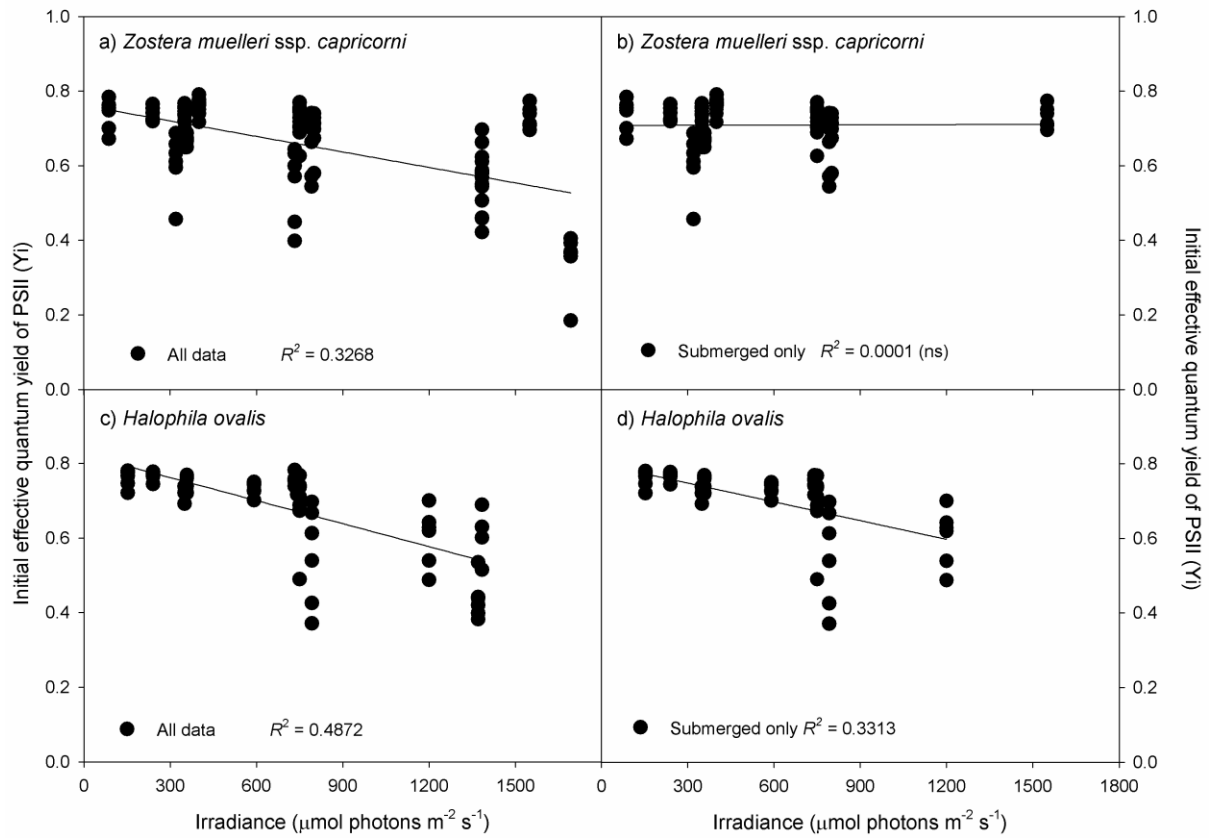
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