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**Photosynthetic responses of subtidal seagrasses to a daily light cycle in
Torres Strait: a comparative study**

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20 **Abstract**

21

22 In this study we examined the photosynthetic responses of five common seagrass species
23 from a typical mixed meadow in Torres Strait at a depth of 5-7m using Pulse Amplitude
24 Modulated (PAM) fluorometry. The photosynthetic response of each species was measured
25 every 2 hours throughout a single daily light cycle from dawn (6am) to dusk (6pm). PAM
26 fluorometry was used to generate rapid light curves from which measures of electron
27 transport rate (ETR_{max}), photosynthetic efficiency (α), saturating irradiance (E_k) and light
28 adapted quantum yield ($\Delta F/F_m'$) were derived for each species. The amount of light
29 absorbed by leaves (absorption factor) was also determined for each species. Similar
30 diurnal patterns were recorded among species with 3-4 fold increases in maximal electron
31 rate from dawn to midday and a maintenance of ETR_{max} in the afternoon that would allow
32 an optimal use of low light by all species. Differences in photosynthetic responses to
33 changes in the daily light regime were also evident with *Syringodium isoetifolium* showing
34 the highest photosynthetic rates and saturating irradiances suggesting a competitive
35 advantage over other species under conditions of high light. In contrast *Halophila ovalis*,
36 *Halophila decipiens* and *Halophila spinulosa* were characterised by comparatively low
37 photosynthetic rates and minimum light requirements (i.e. low E_k) typical of shade
38 adaptation. The structural makeup of each species may explain the observed differences
39 with large, structurally complex species such as *Syringodium isoetifolium* and *Cymodocea*
40 *serrulata* showing high photosynthetic efficiencies (α) and therefore high light adapted
41 traits (e.g. high ETR_{max} , and E_k) compared with the smaller *Halophila* species positioned
42 lower in the canopy. For the smaller *Halophila* species these shade adapted traits are
43 features that optimise their survival during low light conditions. Knowledge of these

44 characteristics and responses improves our understanding of the underlying causes of
45 changes in seagrass biomass, growth and survival that occur when modifications in light
46 quantity and quality arise from anthropogenic and climatic disturbances that commonly
47 occur in Torres Strait.

48

49 Keywords: Fluorescence, Rapid Light Curves, photosynthesis, seagrass, photon flux, PAM,
50 multi-species stands^[but169 1]

51

52 Regional Index: Torres Strait, Queensland, Australia

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53 **1. Introduction**

54 Seagrass meadows in northern Australia provide large tracts of nearshore marine benthic
55 habitat, are highly productive and support many key faunal food chains (Walker, 1989;
56 Duarte et al., 1997; Waycott et al., 2005). For seagrass ecosystems light is one of the most
57 important factors controlling their productivity, distribution and survival (Longstaff et al.,
58 1999; Carruthers et al., 2002; Biber et al., 2005). Excessive loadings of sediments and
59 nutrients into marine systems from terrestrial sources can reduce available light and inhibit
60 physiological processes such as photosynthesis, causing seagrass die-off (Short and Wyllie-
61 Echeverria, 1996). In northern Australia turbidity-related light stress has been identified as
62 a major driver of seagrass habitat structure (Long and Poiner, 1997; Carruthers et al.,
63 2002). However our knowledge of the photosynthetic responses of different seagrass
64 species to changes in light in this region have received relatively little research attention
65 (Longstaff and Dennison, 1999; Longstaff et al., 1999) and our knowledge is limited.

66
67 The northern region of Australia in Torres Strait possesses some of the most extensive
68 shallow and deep water seagrass communities in Australia, which provide critical habitat
69 and food for demersal and pelagic fisheries (Long and Poiner, 1997), the green turtle and
70 dugong (Long and Poiner, 1997; Andre et al., 2005). The standing biomass and distribution
71 of these meadows has been well described with extensive areas of seagrass growing from
72 intertidal to depths greater than 40 m in Torres Strait (Long and Poiner, 1997). The systems
73 are highly dynamic and respond to a complex suite of physical environmental factors
74 including tides, currents and turbidity that affect the quality and quantity of light reaching
75 seagrass communities. Recent large scale die back of seagrass in north-western Torres
76 Strait has been attributed to reductions in light availability due to the movement and

77 deposition of sediments and increased turbidity that result from climatic events (e.g. storms,
78 monsoons) (Pitcher et al., 2004).

79

80 Pulse Amplitude Modulated (PAM) fluorometry is a common tool that has been used to
81 rapidly measure real-time changes in the photosynthetic activity and photo-adaptation of
82 seagrasses in response to changes in light availability from diurnal fluctuations (Ralph et
83 al., 1998; Silva and Santos, 2003), depth gradients (Schwarz and Hellblom, 2002; Durako
84 et al., 2003) and turbidity (Campbell et al., 2003). Rapid light curves measure the
85 photosynthetic efficiency in light adapted plants or the effective quantum yield as a
86 function of irradiance and provide a reliable assessment of photosynthetic activity and
87 integration of a leaf's short-term light history (Ralph and Gademann, 2005). The technique
88 can reliably be used to compare responses among species to changes in light and provide
89 insight into these responses under known light regimes that may occur in different habitat
90 types (e.g. shallow water vs deep water habitats) (Campbell et al., 2007). Because
91 processes operating at small scales of metres are often most important in structuring
92 seagrass assemblages (Long and Poiner, 1997), the photosynthetic response of individual
93 seagrass species to predictable and constant changes in light, that occur throughout a daily
94 cycle, is likely to have a strong influence on seagrass growth, and is fundamental to the
95 development of predictive models that explain the dynamics of these ecosystems.

96

97 In this study we employed PAM fluorometry to measure the photosynthetic responses of
98 five common seagrass species, at a depth of 5-7m, from a typical mixed meadow in Torres
99 Strait. We were interested in comparing responses of these subtidal species throughout a

100 single daily light cycle from dawn to dusk to provide insight into the photosynthetic
101 strategies that enable species to adapt to changing and at times limiting light environments.

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104 2. Methods

105 2.1 Study site

106

107 The photosynthetic performance of seven species of seagrass was examined on 28 March
108 2004, at a site at 5-7m depth at Turnagain Island, Torres Strait, Queensland, Australia (Fig.
109 1). The site represents a typical subtidal seagrass meadow consisting of a mix of species
110 including *Syringodium isoetifolium*, *Cymodocea serrulata*, *Halophila spinulosa*, *Halophila*
111 *ovalis* and *Halophila decipiens*. The photosynthetic performance of all five species was
112 examined using PAM (Walz GmbH, Effeltrich, Germany) fluorometry.

113

114 2.2 Light adapted rapid light curves (RLC's)

115

116 RLC's are a useful tool to evaluate a plant's photosynthetic response to varying light
117 conditions based on the background light that they have been acclimated to. All plants in
118 this study were collected from the same area so were exposed to the same light conditions
119 and inter-species comparisons of photo-biology are therefore possible (Ralph and
120 Gademann, 2005). Seagrasses were collected as whole seagrass plants including sediments,
121 maintained in shaded conditions in seawater on the boat. At each site, *ex situ* measures of
122 rapid light curves (RLC's) were made on the midpoint of 5 replicate attached leaves from
123 separate plants for each species at 2 h intervals between 6am and 6pm. Leaves were
124 measured for RLC's within 5 minutes of collection using an external power source. Rapid
125 light curves (RLC's) were generated automatically with a diving PAM using an
126 incremental sequence of actinic illumination periods, with light intensities increasing in 8
127 steps from 0 to 1760 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ according to methods outlined by Ralph and

128 Gademann (2005). Each illumination period lasted 10s, at the end of which time,
129 fluorescence (F), and following a saturating pulse of white light (800 ms of 8000 μmol
130 quanta $\text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ PPF), maximum fluorescence (F_m'), was measured.

131

132 Apparent photosynthetic electron transport rates (ETR) were calculated from the
133 fluorescence measures taken at the end of each illumination period, as the product of
134 effective quantum yield ($\Phi_{PSII} = F - F_m' / F_m' = \Delta F / F_m'$; where F is initial fluorescence, F_m' is
135 maximum fluorescence and ΔF is variable fluorescence), the actinic illumination irradiance
136 (I) (Ralph and Gademann, 2005) and the absorbance factor (AF), i.e. the fraction of light
137 absorbed by the leaf (Beer et al., 2001). This product was further multiplied by 0.5 because
138 it is assumed that half the photons required for the movement of electrons along the
139 photosystem pathways are absorbed by Photosystem II (PSII) (Schreibers et al., 1995). The
140 first of 7 actinic illuminations (i.e 50, 150, 340, 580, 850, 1150 and 1760) were used to
141 calculate RLC's, the actinic width or illumination period was 0.15 s and gain was set at 4.

142

143 AF values for all species were derived by measuring the proportion of light absorbed by
144 single leaves according to the method described by Beer et al. (2001). The maximal rate of
145 ETR (ETR_{max}) and photosynthetic efficiency (α) were calculated by fitting the RLC data to
146 an exponential function; $\text{ETR} = \text{ETR}_{\text{max}} * (1 - \exp[-\alpha(I)/\text{ETR}_{\text{max}}])$ modified from Jassby and
147 Platt (1976); where ETR = Electron transport rate and I = Irradiance. For the most part ETR
148 values plateaued at the highest light intensities and therefore no photo-inhibition term was
149 used in the exponential function fitted to data and used to derive ETR_{max} and α . The onset
150 of light saturation (E_k) was calculated as $\text{ETR}_{\text{max}}/\alpha$. Light adapted effective quantum yields

151 ($\Phi_{PSII} = F - F_m' / F_m' = \Delta F / F_m'$) used for analysis were chosen from the first yield measured
152 of the RLC when PPFD = 0 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$, i.e. just prior to applying the increasing
153 irradiances.

154

155 2.3 Photosynthetic photon flux density

156

157 Underwater photosynthetic photon flux density (PPFD) ($\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) was
158 measured using the optical light sensor of the PAM fluorometer (Waltz, Germany)
159 calibrated with a Li-Cor (USA) quantum sensor. Measures of PPFD were made at the start
160 and end of each set of rapid light curves for each species at a given time interval. The mean
161 value of all measures is given as the integrated PPFD for a given time interval. Means are
162 only shown as variation in PPFD was low due to relatively constant light levels and water
163 quality conditions during sampling.

164

165 2.4 Data analysis

166

167 To examine the influence of species and time on photosynthetic variables we tested for
168 significant difference in means among times for each variable (ETR_{max} , α , E_k , $\Delta F / F_m'$)
169 ($n=10$) using 2 way ANOVA. ETR_{max} and E_k data were \log_e transformed prior to analysis
170 to meet assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variances. Post-hoc tests
171 (Bonferroni) were performed to explain significant differences in the photosynthetic
172 parameters for factors including species, time and species x time.

173

174 All analyses were performed using SYSTAT ver. 10.2.

175 3. Results

176

177 Mean absorbance factors ranged from 0.52 to 0.68 among the 5 species. Means (\pm SE) were
178 lowest for *Halophila ovalis* (0.522 ± 0.009) and *Halophila decipiens* (0.527 ± 0.009),
179 intermediate for *Halophila spinulosa* (0.627 ± 0.022) and *Syringodium isoetifolium*
180 (0.624 ± 0.028) and highest for *Cymodocea serrulata* (0.682 ± 0.056).

181

182 Most variation in the 4 photosynthetic traits (ETR_{max} , E_k , α , $\Delta F/F_m'$) was due to the effects
183 of time and species (ie high F ratios) and not interactive effects (Table 1). For ETR_{max} the
184 effect of species was due to higher ETR_{max} of *Syringodium isoetifolium* compared with
185 *Cymodocea serrulata*, *Halophila ovalis* and *H. spinulosa* which were all higher than *H.*
186 *decipiens* (Table 1). For E_k the effect of species was due to higher values for *Syringodium*
187 *isoetifolium* compared with all other species. For photosynthetic efficiency (α) *Syringodium*
188 *isoetifolium* was also higher than all species while *Cymodocea serrulata* was higher
189 compared with the 3 *Halophila* species and lowest values were found in *Halophila*
190 *decipiens*. Significant effect of species on effective quantum yield ($\Delta F/F_m'$) was due to
191 higher values *Syringodium isoetifolium* than all species and higher values for *Cymodocea*
192 *serrulata* and *Halophila ovalis* than *H. spinulosa* and *H. decipiens* (Table 1).

193

194 Significant interactions between time and species were found for all variables except
195 effective quantum yield ($\Delta F/F_m'$) (Table 1). Post-hoc tests revealed that significant
196 interactions between time and species for ETR_{max} and saturating irradiance (E_k) were
197 generally due to lower values at 6am compared with 8am–4pm for all species, while all
198 species except *Halophila decipiens* and *Halophila spinulosa* had lower values at 6pm

199 compared with measures at 12pm–4pm (Fig. 2). For α , the significant interaction between
200 time and species was because values remained relatively constant from 8am to 4pm in
201 *Halophila ovalis* and *Halophila decipiens* whereas for *Syringodium isoetifolium*,
202 *Cymodocea serrulata* and *Halophila spinulosa* a decline in α occurred at 12pm before a
203 recovery at 2pm (Fig. 2). For $\Delta F/F_m'$ all species showed a similar pattern over the diurnal
204 cycle with highest values recorded at low photon fluxes at 6am and 6pm (Fig. 2).

205

206 Rapid light curves at 8am, 12pm and 4pm show that *Syringodium isoetifolium* had the
207 highest ETR and *Halophila decipiens* had the lowest ETR compared with all other species.
208 At 8am and 4pm *Cymodocea serrulata* had higher ETR compared with the 3 *Halophila*
209 species, while *H. ovalis* and *H. spinulosa* had similar ETR values. In contrast, at 12pm
210 *Halophila ovalis* had a higher ETR than both *Cymodocea serrulata* and *Halophila*
211 *spinulosa* (Fig. 3).

212

213

213 4. Discussion

214

215 This study was limited to a subtidal habitat in Torres Strait over a single day, yet provided
216 insight into the comparative photosynthetic traits of several dominant seagrass species in
217 the region. Key findings were that all species maintained relatively high rates of
218 photosynthesis from 12pm until 4pm, despite declining light availability. This maintenance
219 of ETR_{max} and E_k would serve to optimise photosynthetic output and assist growth during
220 fluctuating and limiting light conditions in subtidal waters. Differences among species were
221 also apparent with the photosynthetic responses of structurally complex seagrass species
222 adapted to both high and low light conditions while smaller species showed photosynthetic
223 traits well suited to shaded and deep water habitats.

224

225 Of all species *Syringodium isoetifolium* had the highest photosynthetic rates and saturating
226 irradiances suggesting it has competitive advantage during high light conditions. In contrast
227 the low minimum light requirements (i.e. low E_k) of *Halophila spinulosa*, *Cymodocea*
228 *serrulata*, *H. ovalis* and *H. decipiens* may infer a competitive ability under extreme low
229 light conditions as found in depths greater than 10 metres. The abundance of *H. ovalis* and
230 *H. decipiens* in deep water environments greater than 10 metres (Lee Long 1996 et al.,
231 1996; Campbell et al., 2007) and the paucity of *Halophila spinulosa* and *Cymodocea*
232 *serrulata* at these depths is almost certainly due to their low biomass and hence low
233 respiratory demand enabling maximal productivity at low light climates. Although
234 *Halophila spinulosa* and *Cymodocea serrulata* also showed low E_k values capable of
235 utilising low light, their greater biomass would confer a high respiratory demand which
236 would impede the maintenance of productivity and biomass in very deep habitats. Similar

237 findings have been found for temperate species of *H. ovalis* (Ralph et al., 1998) and other
238 tropical *Halophila* species (Schwarz and Hellblom, 2002; Durako et al., 2003), and these
239 features may explain the survival of these species in deep waters greater than 30m (Lee
240 Long et al., 1996; Long and Poiner, 1997).

241

242 For all species except *Syringodium isoetifolium* saturating irradiances throughout the day
243 were generally below *in situ* photon fluxes between 8am and 4pm, suggesting that plants
244 were light saturated for about 8-10h a day. Persistent low saturating irradiances from 6am
245 till 10am for all species, except *Syringodium isoetifolium*, would allow these plants to
246 optimise available light and take advantage of low photon fluxes during the morning and
247 afternoon. In contrast the relatively high E_k values recorded for *Syringodium isoetifolium*
248 meant that it was light limited during morning and afternoon and light saturated for only 6h
249 each day. The high photosynthetic efficiency and performance reported here is consistent
250 with relatively high E_k values recorded for *Syringodium filiforme* (Touchette and
251 Burkholder, 2000) and its previously reported high productivity and colonising ability
252 (Rollon et al., 1998; Duarte and Chiscano, 1999; Rasheed, 2004).

253

254 The diurnal pattern in ETR_{max} and E_k , was characterised by low morning values between 6
255 and 8pm and a 1-3 fold increase in values between 8am and 4pm before a decline occurred
256 at 6pm. The pattern differs somewhat to that shown for intertidal and shallow water species
257 (Silva and Santos, 2003; Campbell et al., 2003; Durako et al., 2003) where a downturn in
258 maximal ETR corresponds with reduced photon flux in the afternoon and midday
259 reductions in photosynthetic efficiency (α) and light adapted effective quantum yield help
260 regulate photosynthetic rates under changing light conditions. Interestingly, in the present

261 study reductions in photosynthetic efficiency (α) occurred in the larger species well adapted
262 to high light, but not in the small leafed species *Halophila ovalis* and *H. decipiens*. These
263 *Halophila* species are positioned lowest in the canopy and subject to severe light limitation
264 and the lack of reduction in α at midday implies an inability to regulate photosynthesis or
265 take advantage of increased light fluxes. Most interesting though was that both *Halophila*
266 *ovalis* and *H. spinulosa* maintained ETR_{max} from midday to 4pm, a trait that would help
267 adaptation to low light climates and optimise photosynthetic output. Similarly, ETR_{max} for
268 both *Syringodium isoetifolium* and *Cymodocea serrulata* were highest in the afternoon,
269 suggesting that these species were also able to regulate and maintain photosynthetic output
270 as afternoon photon fluxes waned. Overall the results demonstrate an optimal use of low
271 light characteristics in this suite of subtidal species which differs from that found for
272 shallow water species (Campbell et al., 2003; Durako et al., 2003; Silva and Santos 2003).

273 The morphological and structural makeup may to some extent explain the differences in
274 photosynthetic characteristics of the species examined. *Cymodocea serrulata* is a larger,
275 more structurally complex species with slower growth rates compared with *Halophila*
276 species and *Syringodium isoetifolium* (Brouns, 1987; Rollon et al., 1998). Its high
277 absorbance values which may reflect high pigment content (Beer et al., 2000, Silva and
278 Santos, 2003) would permit a more efficient capture of photon fluxes. This may optimise
279 its metabolic and growth rates through a more efficient use of carbon reserves during
280 periods of limiting light conditions (Alcoverro et al., 1999). An interesting finding was also
281 the lowering of photosynthetic efficiency during midday for *Cymodocea serrulata*,
282 *Syringodium isoetifolium* and *Halophila spinulosa* but not for *Halophila ovalis* and
283 *Halophila decipiens*. The former three species are all structurally more complex than the

285 two small *Halophila* species and the lowering of photosynthetic efficiency was due to their
286 relatively small increase in photosynthetic rates from 10am till 12pm compared with the
287 *Halophila* species. For the structurally less complex and smaller *Halophila decipiens* these
288 shade adapted characteristics (i.e. low ETR_{max} , α , E_k) likely reflect its position in the
289 canopy, lying flat on or partially covered by sediments and often shaded by the more
290 structurally complex larger species. In comparison, although both *Halophila spinulosa* and
291 *Halophila ovalis* are also likely to be shaded, their higher photosynthetic performance over
292 the daily cycle may reflect their ability to grow “higher” in the canopy and even colonise
293 open spaces in the canopy (S. Campbell, pers. obs.). Of all the species *Halophila decipiens*
294 showed most sensitivity to high light fluxes evidenced by a depression in quantum yield
295 during maximal photon flux. Such down regulation of photosynthesis as measured by
296 changes in $\Delta F/F_m'$ suggests photo-inhibition and has been reported for shallow water
297 species stressed during high light conditions (Ralph et al., 1998; Campbell et al., 2003;
298 Durako et al., 2003).

299
300 The light adapted photosynthetic responses described above pertain to how these species
301 have adapted to variable light conditions in a low light environment at a depth of 7 metres.
302 Although we have shown that differences exist between structurally complex species,
303 which are possibly more likely to be advantaged by high light conditions, and less
304 structurally species possibly more competitive in low light conditions, it must be stressed
305 that these features may change and different patterns emerge if the plants were acclimated
306 to a different light environment such as described for shallow water species (Ralph, 1998;
307 Campbell et al., 2003; Silva and Santos, 2003).

308

309 Both *Syringodium isoetifolium* and *Cymodocea serrulata* are the dominant seagrasses in
310 terms of biomass and percentage cover in Torres Strait (Long and Poiner, 1997). Although
311 they provide habitat for fish and other marine fauna they represent relatively low nutritional
312 value for grazing by large herbivores (J. Sheppard, pers. comm.). More nutritious (i.e. high
313 starch and nitrogen) and less fibrous species such as *Halophila ovalis* and *Halodule*
314 *uninervis* are more preferred by marine herbivores such as dugong and turtle (Sheppard et
315 al. 2007). The shade adapted characteristics of these species, coupled with their capacity to
316 rapidly colonise areas following disturbance (Preen et al., 1995), are features that will
317 optimise their survival during reductions in light availability from climatic events or when
318 shading by larger seagrass occurs. Although commonly found in deep waters greater than
319 10m both *Halophila ovalis* and *Halophila decipiens* also have wide depth distributions and
320 geographic ranges in Torres Strait (Long and Poiner, 1997) that possibly make them the
321 most important seagrass species for marine herbivore foraging.

322

323 4.1 Conclusion

324

325 We found both similarities and differences in the photosynthetic responses of subtidal
326 seagrasses examined. Similar diurnal patterns were recorded among species with 3-4 fold
327 increases in maximal electron rate from dawn to midday and a maintenance of ETR_{max} in
328 the afternoon as photon flux declined. This sustained ETR_{max} into the afternoon was
329 characteristic of all the subtidal species examined and contrasts with reports on shallow
330 water species acclimated to high photon flux, where ETR_{max} drops with declining photon
331 flux in the afternoon. Such a strategy may enable optimal use of fluctuating and low light
332 climates. Differences were also evident with highly structured species such as *Syringodium*

333 *isoetifolium* and *Cymodocea serrulata* showing photosynthetic traits well adapted to high
334 light conditions while *Halophila ovalis* and *H. decipiens* were best suited to low light.
335 These differences may reflect the position of species in this multi-species canopy with
336 larger species more able to capture incident light than those smaller species in the
337 understory. The higher respiratory demand of larger species also means they are unable to
338 maintain biomass and survive in very low light conditions while small species can. Our
339 improved knowledge of these characteristics and responses increase our understanding of
340 the underlying causes of changes in seagrass biomass, growth and survival that occur when
341 modifications in light quantity and quality arise from anthropogenic and climatic
342 disturbance. However, more studies are required to examine responses to short-term
343 perturbations in PPFD at different times and depths in order to evaluate the full range of
344 photosynthetic performance and resilience of these species to changes in photon flux.

345

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352 Australia.

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Accepted manuscript

1 Figure captions

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3 Figure 1. Map showing survey location (black arrow) near Turnagain Island, Torres

4 Strait.

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6 Figure 2. Diurnal changes in a) ETR_{max} , b) saturating irradiance (E_k), c) photosynthetic

7 efficiency (α) and d) effective quantum yield ($\Delta F/F_m'$), at 5-7 m depth for 5 seagrass

8 species: Hs = *Halophila spinulosa*, Hd = *Halophila decipiens*, Cs = *Cymodocea*

9 *serrulata*, Si = *Syringodium isoetifolium*, Ho = *Halophila ovalis*, PPFD = photon flux

10 density ($\mu\text{mol photon m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) (n=5).

11

12 Figure 3. Mean (\pm SE) (n=5) ETR ($\mu\text{mol e}^- \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) versus photosynthetic photon flux

13 density (PPFD) for 5 seagrass species: Hs = *Halophila spinulosa*, Hd = *Halophila*

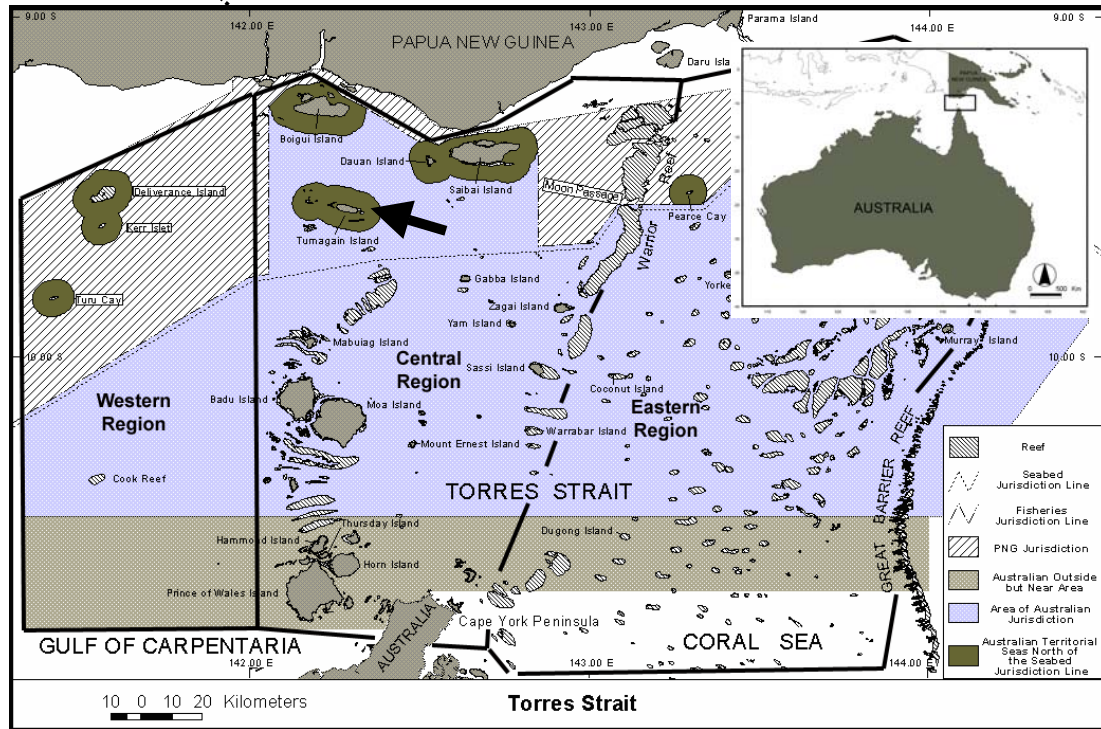
14 *decipiens*, Cs = *Cymodocea serrulata*, Si = *Syringodium isoetifolium*, Ho = *Halophila*

15 *ovalis* at a) 8am, b) 12pm and c) 4pm.

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1 Figure 1.

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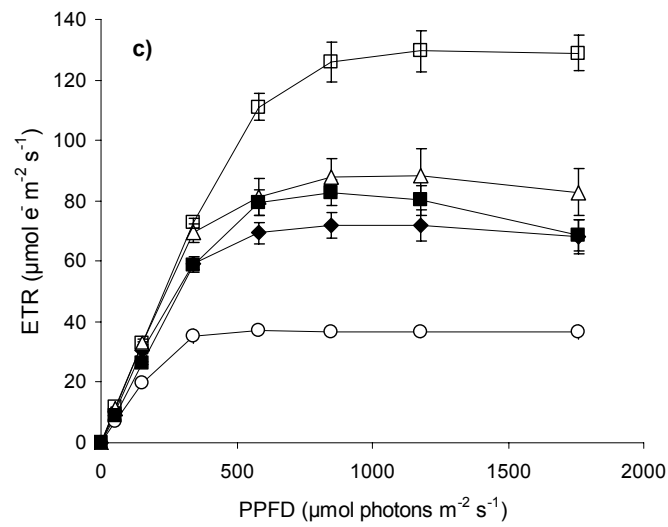
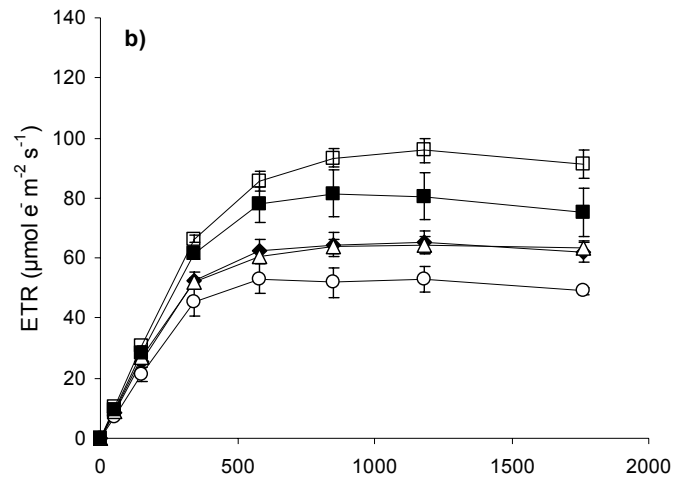
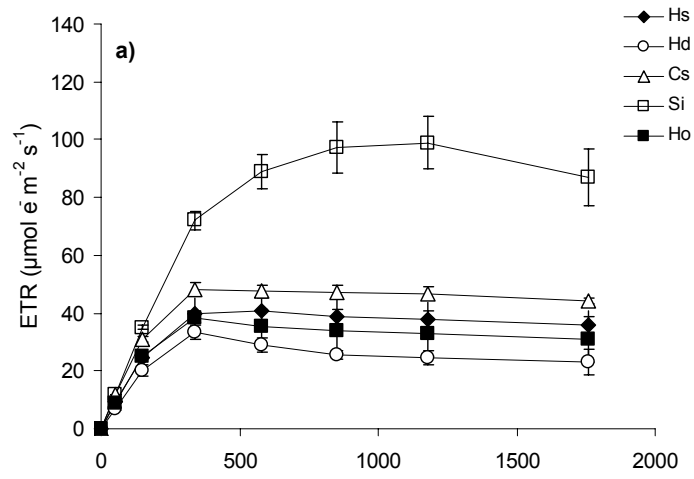
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1 Figure 3

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1 Table 1. Two-way nested ANOVA of the effects of time and species on ETR_{max} ,
 2 photosynthetic efficiency (α), saturating irradiance (E_k), and effective quantum yield
 3 ($\Delta F/F_m'$) for 5 seagrass species from Turnagain Island, Torres Strait. %Variance values
 4 are based on the % contribution of F values. Bonferoni post-hoc tests show significance
 5 among times (numbers shown are times from 6am to 6pm given in 24h format) and
 6 species (species codes same as in Fig 3).

Source	df	MS	F value	P value	%Var	<i>Post hoc tests</i>
ETR_{max}						
Time	6	5.177	136.70	< 0.001	51.88	6<8,10<12,14,16>18, 6<18
Species	4	4.626	122.13	< 0.001	46.35	SI>CS, HO, HS>HD
Time*Species	24	0.177	4.68	< 0.001	1.78	
Error	140	0.038				
α						
Time	6	0.055	53.80	< 0.001	45.21	6<8,10,12,14,16,18
Species	4	0.062	61.39	< 0.001	51.58	SI>CS>HO,HS>HD
Time*Species	24	0.004	3.82	< 0.001	3.21	
Error	140	0.001				
E_k						
Time	6	2.102	52.38	< 0.001	53.30	6<8,10<12,14,16>18, 6<18
Species	4	1.665	41.49	< 0.001	42.22	SI>CS,HD,HO,HS
Time*Species	24	0.176	4.40	< 0.001	4.48	
Error	140	0.040				
$\Delta F/F_m'$						
Time	6	0.089	2.77	0.014	5.02	no sig. differences
Species	4	0.651	51.47	< 0.001	93.36	SI>CS,HO>HD,HS
Time*Species	24	0.016	0.89	0.611	1.62	
Error	140					

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