



# Niche partitioning of intertidal seagrasses: evidence of the influence of substrate temperature

Marnie L. Campbell<sup>1,2</sup> D, Lara D. Heppenstall<sup>1</sup>, Rebecca Hendry<sup>2</sup>, Ross Martin<sup>1,3</sup>, Stine Sørensen<sup>1,3</sup>, Ashley N. Rubenstein<sup>1,3</sup> and Chad L. Hewitt<sup>1,3</sup> D

<sup>1</sup>The Environmental Research Institute, University of Waikato, Private Bag 3105, Hamilton 3240, New Zealand; <sup>2</sup>School of Medical and Applied Science, Central Queensland University, Bryan Jordan Drive, Gladstone, Qld 4680, Australia; <sup>3</sup>School of Science, University of Waikato, Private Bag 3105, Hamilton 3240, New Zealand

Author for correspondence: Marnie L. Campbell Tel: +64 27 456 3930 Email: marnie.campbell@waikato.ac.nz

Received: 15 August 2017 Accepted: 9 November 2017

New Phytologist (2017) **doi**: 10.1111/nph.14944

**Key words:** climate impacts, niche separation, phytotoxins, rooting depth, seagrass restoration, soil temperature, thermal tolerance, vertical stratification.

# **Summary**

- The influence of soil temperature on rhizome depths of four intertidal seagrass species was investigated in central Queensland, Australia. We postulated that certain intertidal seagrass species are soil temperature-sensitive and vertically stratify rhizome depths.
- Below-ground vertical stratification of intertidal seagrass rhizome depths was analysed based upon microclimate (soil temperature) and microhabitat (soil type).
- Soil temperature profiles exhibited heat transfer from surface layers to depth that varied by microhabitat, with vertical stratification of rhizome depths between species. Halodule uninervis rhizomes maintain a narrow median soil temperature envelope; compensating for high surface temperatures by occupying deeper, cooler soil substrates. Halophila decipiens, Halophila ovalis and Zostera muelleri rhizomes are shallow-rooted and exposed to fluctuating temperatures, with broader median temperature envelopes. Halodule uninervis appears to be a niche specialist, with the two Halophila species considered as generalist niche usage species.
- The implications of niche use based upon soil temperature profiles and rhizome rooting depths are discussed in the context of species' thermal tolerances and below-ground biomass O<sub>2</sub> demand associated with respiration and maintenance of oxic microshields. This preliminary evidence suggests that soil temperature interaction with rhizome rooting depths may be a factor that influences the distribution of intertidal seagrasses.

### Introduction

Understanding what influences the distribution of species in intertidal zones has implications with regard to climate change with subsequent repercussions for how we consider restoring these habitats. Intertidal seagrasses are of particular interest given their decline over recent decades (e.g. Orth *et al.*, 2006; Waycott *et al.*, 2009; Short *et al.*, 2014) and the difficulties and variation in success rates when restoring these habitats (e.g. Valle *et al.*, 2015; Suykerbuyk *et al.*, 2016; York *et al.*, 2017).

A number of existing theories attempt to explain the zonation of intertidal species. Some zonation trends appear relatively straightforward, such as biotic interactions of predation and competition (e.g. Bando, 2006), and abiotic interactions of wave exposure (de Boer, 2007), desiccation (Leuschner *et al.*, 1998; Björk *et al.*, 1999; Lan *et al.*, 2005; Shafer *et al.*, 2007), species' thermal tolerances associated with exposure to air or water (Seddon & Cheshire, 2001; Short *et al.*, 2007; Massa *et al.*, 2009; Kaldy *et al.*, 2015), light availability (de Boer, 2007) and light tolerance (Björk *et al.*, 1999). Shafer *et al.* (2007) identified eight factors that can be attributed to intertidal seagrass zonation from the literature, with no one factor appearing to control all species'

intertidal zonation patterns. Of these eight factors, three (desiccation, air exposure and high irradiance) are most commonly investigated regarding potential constraints leading to intertidal zonation (Fig. 1). Although these eight factors have been discussed within the literature, a full understanding of the causes of intertidal zonation of seagrass species still eludes researchers. As Shafer *et al.* (2007) suggest, it may be a combination of factors, including growth strategies, that explain intertidal seagrass zonation.

We postulate an additional factor that has yet to be fully considered which might be limiting the vertical zonation of intertidal seagrass species – the substrate temperature profile and its influence on below-ground biomass, specifically rhizome depth. We note that substrate temperature profiles have not been previously considered as a constraint to intertidal elevation of seagrasses, and rooting depth (of rhizomes, or below-ground biomass) is rarely examined within the context of seagrasses. Similarly, we note that only one seagrass species (*Ruppia maritima*) has root depth records within the Plant Trait (TRY) database (https://www.try-db.org/TryWeb/Home.php).

Soil temperature is a major limiting factor for terrestrial plant growth, seedling establishment, and survival. The importance of

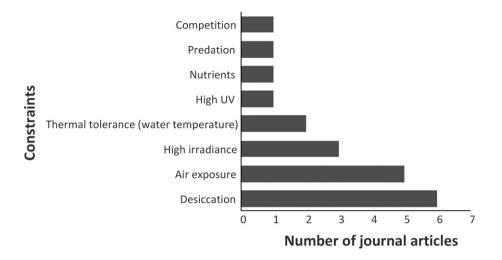


Fig. 1 Constraining factors reported in the literature that influence intertidal seagrass zonation (based on a Scopus search: 1997–2015)

soil temperature is linked, for example, to nutrient acquisition (e.g. Gutiérrez-Girón & Gavilán, 2013), biomass and productivity (e.g. Ityel et al., 2014), soil respiration (specifically carbon dioxide flux) (Fang & Moncrieff, 2001), organic matter decomposition (Davidson et al., 2012), and nitrogen mineralization (e.g. Theodose & Martin, 2003). Yet substrate temperature is often overlooked within a seagrass context in favour of investigating the influence of water temperature (e.g. Koch & Erskine, 2001; Koch et al., 2007; Lee et al., 2007; Collier & Waycott, 2014; Georgiou et al., 2016; McDonald et al., 2016; Wilkinson et al., 2017) and air temperature for intertidal species (Massa et al., 2009).

High water temperature increases seagrass growth (e.g. Lee et al., 2007), reproduction (e.g. Zhou et al., 2014), respiration, and sucrose-P synthase activity (Touchette & Burkholder, 2000). However, when water temperature exceeds a species' thermal tolerance, stress occurs that can interrupt photosystem II, enhance trace metal exposure and uptake from sediment or overlying waters, and increase shoot mortality, all of which are implicated in the biogeographic distributional limits of various tropical and austral seagrass species and can simultaneously increase sediment production of phytotoxins (e.g. sulphide) (Phillips et al., 1983; Marsh et al., 1986; Prange & Dennison, 2000; Seddon & Cheshire, 2001; Campbell et al., 2006; Lee et al., 2007; Short et al., 2007; Devault & Pascaline, 2013; Collier & Waycott, 2014; Mascaró & Pérez, 2014; Hyndes et al., 2016; Pedersen et al., 2016; Stafford-Bell et al., 2016). In general, tropical seagrasses seem more vulnerable to water temperature fluctuations, exhibiting narrower temperature ranges than temperate species (Bulthuis, 1987), and temperature tolerances that are approximately half that of temperate species (Moore, 1963). There is evidence that tropical seagrasses cannot survive exposure to prolonged high air and/or water temperatures (Zieman, 1975; Brouns, 1987; Campbell et al., 2006; Massa et al., 2009; Collier & Waycott, 2014); however, the role of substrate temperature profiles in ameliorating high air and/or water temperatures is unknown. This is particularly pertinent given that future planning and forecasts for climate change scenarios that may affect seagrasses are focused on water temperatures (e.g. Koch et al.,

2015) and fail to consider how marine soil temperature (especially intertidal soils) may influence the health, maintenance, spread and survival of seagrasses.

A chance observation of seagrass species' rhizome depths appearing to be correlated with changes in intertidal soil temperature at depth in a number of subtropical, intertidal seagrass meadows in Gladstone Harbour (also known as Port Curtis), Queensland, Australia, led us to postulate that certain intertidal seagrass species are soil temperature-sensitive. We hypothesize that soil temperature provides another dimension of differentiation. As an initial step to investigate this hypothesis, we examined linkages between below-ground vertical stratification based upon microclimate (soil temperature) and microhabitat (soil type). We note that we found no publications that explicitly examine niche breadth of seagrasses within the literature (Scopus and Web of Science searches). This work is a preliminary investigation and, as such, further investigations are required to see if the patterns observed are reflected in other intertidal locales and other species. Specifically, we note that the linkage between soil temperature and O2 as demonstrated by Borum et al. (2005) needs further investigation in intertidal seagrass habitats.

# **Materials and Methods**

The study was conducted in Gladstone Harbour (Fig. 2) during the start of austral summer (October 2013). Sea surface water temperatures vary between a minimum of 19.2°C (August) and a maximum of 29.7°C (January), averaging 24.4°C across the year (Fig. 3). Pelican Banks represents the largest extent of seagrasses in Gladstone Harbour (M. L. Campbell, pers. obs.) and has a mix of different substrates and five species of seagrass: Zostera muelleri Irmisch ex Asch (synonym Z. capricorni), Halophila ovalis (R.Br.) Hook f., Halophila decipiens Ostenf., Halodule uninervis (Forssk.) Asch. and Halophila spinulosa (R.Br.) Asch. (Weatherall et al., 2016). Gladstone Harbour is subtropical and reflects a transition zone between temperate and tropical species. Four species were examined in this study, of which, H. uninervis is tropical in extent, with Z. muelleri, H. ovalis and H. decipiens being both temperate and tropical species (Green & Short, 2003;

Short *et al.*, 2007). *H. uninervis* is potentially near its southern distributional limit and therefore close to its low-temperature extreme.

Sampling occurred at four sites on Pelican Bank, and one site at South Trees Inlet (Fig. 2). All sites were intertidally exposed (c. 0.8 m above the Lowest Astronomic Tide) during sampling at low tide between 12:00 h and 15:00 h on 3, 4 and 17 October 2013. The majority of seagrasses on Pelican Banks are intertidal, although some species are subtidal and are rarely exposed even at extreme low tides (e.g. H. decipiens and H. spinulosa). South Trees Inlet (site 5) is on the coastal mainland in close proximity to industrial wharves and has patches of seagrass in a sandy substrate. Three species (Z. muelleri, H. ovalis and H. uninervis) are present at site 5 and all are intertidal. Owing to the ephemeral presence of species at the sampled sites, not all species were sampled or represented at all sites across the study. Similarly, the distribution of the seagrass species was patchy at all five sites and hence sampling effort was uneven (Table 1).

Substrate temperature depth profiles and seagrass rhizome depth were measured at the five sites, each of which was characterized by a different substrate type: mud; mud/gravel complex; sand; shell/gravel complex; and mud/shell complex (Table 1). These substrate types represent the predominant substrates that seagrasses

occupy in Gladstone Harbour. At each site, temperature profiles of the substrate were taken on the surface and to a depth of 10 cm, at 1 cm increments. Temperatures were measured using a portable, waterproof digital thermometer ('Pocket temp' IP65 Digital Probe; HLP Controls, South Windsor, NSW, Australia) with an accuracy of  $\pm$  0.1°C that was gently pushed into the substratum to the relevant depth where the temperature was measured. The depth (cm) of the seagrass rhizome within the sediment was measured *in situ* by inserting a probe to detect rhizome depth and verifying rhizome presence by hand, and then measuring and recording the probe depth. All rhizome depth measurements were taken in the vicinity (< 1 m) of temperature profiles.

Measurements were taken at the start of an austral summer period (October 2013). The region is subtropical, typified by two seasons (wet and dry). Sampling occurred during the wet season at low tide when seagrass meadows were exposed. The wet season is the hottest season and is characterized by high rainfall, likely flood events and cyclones, with peaks of high turbidity and summer (October–March) air temperatures (average 29.6°C; average maxima 37.9°C; Fig. 3). The average seawater surface temperature (measured at -0.2 m water depth) during summer is 26.3°C (average maxima 28.3°C; Fig. 3). Turbidity in Gladstone Harbour is highly variable (ranging from 0.1 nephelometric turbidity

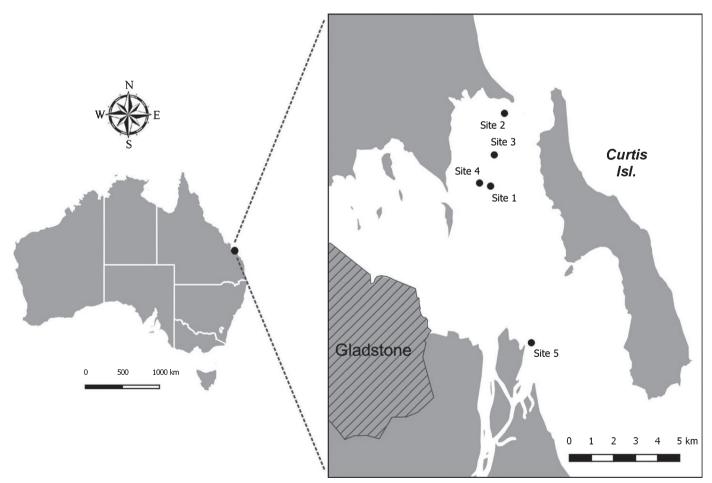


Fig. 2 Sites sampled (sites 1–5) for seagrass (*Halodule uninervis, Halophila ovalis, Zostera muelleri* and *Halophila decipiens*) rhizome depth, soil temperature profiles and substrate type in Gladstone Harbour, central Queensland, Australia.

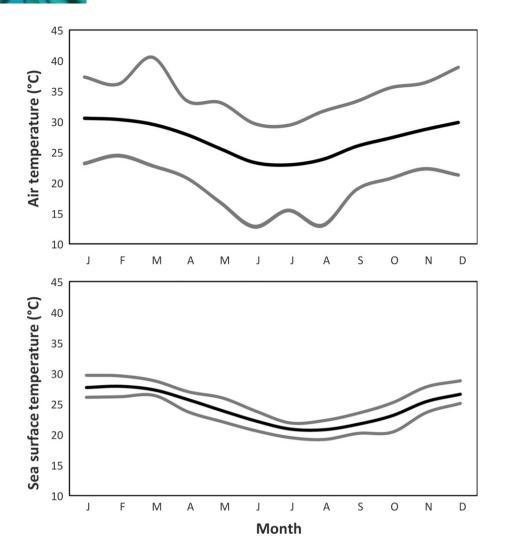


Fig. 3 Monthly mean (black) and minima/maxima (grey) air temperatures (1993—present) and sea surface temperatures (2009–present) in Gladstone Harbour. Air temperatures are from the Australian Bureau of Meteorology, Gladstone Airport Station (http://www.bom.gov.au); sea surface temperatures are from daily satellite readings from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) (https://www.seate mperature.org/australia-pacific/australia/gladstone.htm).

units (NTU) to 1329.5 NTU) with turbidity peaks consistent with flood events (Queensland Department of Environment and Resource Management, 2011).

For comparisons across the landscape (all sites), the species rhizome depth failed normality (Shapiro–Wilk test P < 0.05) and thus the nonparametric Kruskal–Wallis ANOVA on ranks was used to examine the between-species differences in rhizome depth. Similarly, the differences between temperature and substrata profiles across all sites was examined using a Kruskal–Wallis ANOVA on ranks. A Dunn's test (all pairwise multiple comparison) was used to isolate species and profile depths that differed.

At individual sites, differences in species substrata depth occupancy were examined using one of three different statistical analyses (dependent upon data meeting assumptions): parametric data where three species were present were analysed using an ANOVA, with a Holm–Sidak (all pairwise multiple comparison) post hoc analysis to isolate differences; nonparametric data where three species were present were analysed using a Kruskal–Wallis ANOVA on ranks, with a Tukey post hoc test; or when two species were present but the data were nonparametric, a Mann–Whitney rank sum test was used. When examining temperature

depth profiles, parametric data were analysed using ANOVA with a Holm–Sidak *post hoc* analysis. Nonparametric temperature depth profiles were examined using a Kruskal–Wallis ANOVA on ranks, with a Dunn's test to isolate groups. Descriptive statistics were used to explain other patterns in the data at individual sites

A one-way analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was used to investigate the relationship between substrate (granularity) and rhizome depth, with temperature as the dependant variable. A Holm–Sidak all pairwise multiple comparison was used *post hoc* to examine the pairwise relationships that exist. A significance level of 0.05 was used for all analyses.

#### Results

#### Landscape patterns

Site exposures All sites were exposed for > 2.5 h during sampling between 12:00 and 15:00 h. Based on solar irradiance profiles collected by the Australian Bureau of Meteorology site c. 3 km away, the sites were exposed to between 3.1 and 6.5 MJ m<sup>-2</sup> over the period of low tide exposure (c. 180 min).

**Table 1** Intertidal seagrass species (*Halodule uninervis, Halophila ovalis, Zostera muelleri* and *Halophila decipiens*) by site, substrate type, sampling effort (number of temperature profiles measured) and the number of rhizome depth replicates measured at a site for a species

Site no.	Species	Substrate type	No. of temperature profiles	No. of rhizome depth replicates
1	Zostera muelleri	Mud	6	8
1	Halodule uninervis	Mud	6	8
2	Halophila ovalis	Mud/shell	4	12
2	Halodule uninervis	Mud/shell	7	12
3	Zostera muelleri	Shell/gravel	5	10
3	Halophila ovalis	Shell/gravel	5	10
3	Halodule uninervis	Shell/gravel	8	10
4	Zostera muelleri	Mud/gravel	3	10
4	Halophila ovalis	Mud/gravel	8	10
4	Halophila decipiens	Mud/gravel	4	10
5	Zostera muelleri	Sand	6	10
5	Halophila ovalis	Sand	1	10
5	Halodule uninervis	Sand	1	10

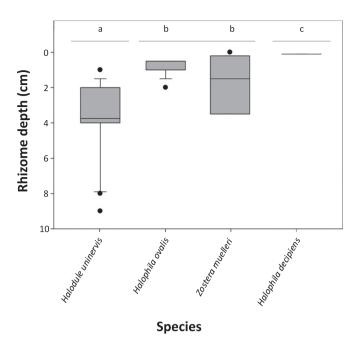
Sampling effort differs based upon seagrass presence at each site.

Cloud cover was intermittent during sampling, and reduced direct solar irradiance at sites 1, 2, 4, and 5.

Species rhizome depth Examination of the rhizomes of different seagrass species demonstrated significant vertical stratification  $(H_{(3)} = 73.3, P < 0.001; \text{ Fig. 4})$ . With the exception of *Z. muelleri* and *H. ovalis*, all other pairwise comparisons indicated significant differences between the substrata depths that their rhizomes occupy (Table 2). *H. uninervis* rhizomes were consistently found deeper than other species at each site where present (Table 3), at a median depth of  $3.8 \pm 0.3$  cm. The species with the next deepest median rhizome depth was *Z. muelleri*  $(1.5 \pm 0.2 \text{ cm})$ , followed by *H. ovalis*  $(1.0 \pm 0.1 \text{ cm})$ . At low tide, *H. ovalis* plants were typically found in 'puddles' of seawater, where air exposure was reduced, and the rhizomes were close to the substrate—air interface. *H. decipiens* had the shallowest rhizome depth (median depth of 0.1 cm, n=4) and is typically limited to subtidal environments, with exposure rarely occurring.

Substrate temperature profiles Substrate temperature profiles exhibited a pattern of temperature decreasing with substrate depth (Fig. 5). The temperature depth profile differed in a statistically significant manner ( $H_{(10)} = 201.133$ , P < 0.001). In general, the median temperature was highest at the surface, with substratum depths of 6 cm or deeper being significantly cooler than shallower substratum (Table 4). The substrate (surface—air interface) temperature at depths of 0 to -1 cm had a high range of variability, with a temperature range of > 5°C (Fig. 5). At substratum > 4 cm in depth, the temperature range was reduced between 2.7 and 3°C compared with the surface (Fig. 5), demonstrating that seagrass rhizomes that occupy shallow substratum are exposed to greater temperature fluctuations.

The influence of full sun exposure vs cloud cover when sampling had greatest influence on surface temperatures where samples in full sun were, on average, 1.7°C warmer than samples



**Fig. 4** Median depth of seagrass rhizomes in the substratum for four subtropical species (*Halodule uninervis, Halophila ovalis, Zostera muelleri* and *Halophila decipiens*) in Gladstone Harbour, Queensland, Australia. Whiskers are  $5^{th}$  and  $95^{th}$  percentiles, black dots denote outliers, and box midlines are the median rhizome depth in the substratum. Dunn's pairwise test result differences at P < 0.05 are expressed as groups a, b and c (Table 2).

under cloud. We noted rapid shifts over the course of c. 2 min with a maximum change from full sun to cloud of  $-3.7^{\circ}$ C (30.0–26.3°C) between adjacent (c. 1 m) surface samples, and rapid warming from cloud to full sun with a maximum change of  $+4.3^{\circ}$ C (26.3–30.6°C). This temperature difference was ameliorated at -1 cm where temperatures for samples in full sun were, on average,  $0.6^{\circ}$ C warmer than samples under cloud. Rapid surface cooling shifted maximum temperature depths to between -1 and 4 cm.

**Substrate type** At the landscape scale, the effect of species and soil type together statistically influenced the rhizome depth  $(F_{(5,117)} = 70.343, P = 0.0000)$ . Specifically, *H. uninervis* rhizomes are deeper when in mud, shell/gravel and/or sand substrates, compared with *H. ovalis* and *Z. muelleri*.

Both depth and substrate type were significant predictors of temperature. As expected, depth below the substrate surface explained most of the variance in temperature ( $F_{(4,1)} = 361.62$ , P < 0.001); however, substrate type also explained significant variance ( $F_{(4,1)} = 39.15$ , P < 0.001; Table 5; Fig. 6). Shell/gravel substrates were consistently cooler than all other substrate types (Fig. 6). Sand substrates were consistently warmer than other substrate types (Fig. 6).

Species' rhizome temperature differences Maximum and minimum differences between substrate temperatures at rhizome depths and measured surface temperatures demonstrated a consistent median decrease of c. 1°C for H. uninervis (-0.95°C),

*H. ovalis* ( $-0.9^{\circ}$ C) and *Z. muelleri* ( $-1.2^{\circ}$ C) (Fig. 7). The median difference for *H. decipiens* was  $2.35^{\circ}$ C; however, this was based on its presence at a single site (site 4) with 10 individuals measured. All species experience maximum temperature differences of  $>3.0^{\circ}$ C; >45% of individuals in each species experience maximum temperature differences  $>2.0^{\circ}$ C.

#### Site patterns

Site 1: species and substrate temperature Site 1 substrate was mud with two species present, Z. muelleri and H. uninervis (Table 1). The seagrasses at these sites occupied significantly different depth substrata ( $t_{(8)} = -9.97$ , P < 0.0001). Z. muelleri rhizomes occupied significantly shallower ( $-1 \pm 0.2$  cm) substratum compared with H. uninervis rhizomes ( $-7.5 \pm 0.6$  cm). The median depth of Z. muelleri rhizomes sat within a temperature envelope that ranged between 26.6 and 29°C. H. uninervis rhizomes occupied a narrow temperature envelope of  $26-26.5^{\circ}$ C.

Four of 16 temperature profiles were in cloudy conditions with a mean difference of 1.8°C between full sun and cloud. The substrata profile temperatures showed a decline from surface (0 cm) to depth (-10 cm) ( $H_{(10)} = 76.861$ , P < 0.001). At the surface, the median temperature was  $28.5 \pm 0.23$ °C, dropping to  $25.9 \pm 0.1$ °C at 10 cm depth. The range of temperatures

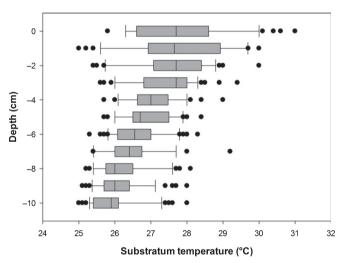
**Table 2** Dunn's test results for seagrass (*Halodule uninervis, Halophila ovalis, Zostera muelleri* and *Halophila decipiens*) rhizome depths, with bold font indicating statistically significant differences

Comparison	Difference of ranks	Q-statistic	<i>P</i> -value
Halodule uninervis vs Halophila decipiens	95.45	7.17	< 0.001
Halodule uninervis vs Halophila ovalis	54.41	6.54	< 0.001
Halodule uninervis vs Zostera muelleri	39.44	4.62	< 0.001
Zostera muelleri vs Halophila decipiens	56.01	4.18	< 0.001
Zostera muelleri vs Halophila ovalis	14.98	1.78	0.455
Halophila ovalis vs Halophila decipiens	41.04	3.10	0.012

recorded at shallow depths were more variable (range of 3.9°C) compared with temperatures measured at deeper depths (8, 9 and 10 cm substratum; range of 0.1–0.4°C)(Fig. 8a). Specifically, the temperature declines at the surface (0 cm) to 3 cm depth were significantly higher than temperatures at deeper depths (Table 6; Fig. 8a).

Site 2: species and substrate temperature Site 2 had a mud and shell mixed substrate, with two species present, H. ovalis and H. uninervis (Table 1). The seagrasses at these sites occupied significantly different depth substrata ( $t_{(8)} = 4.69$ , P = 0.0003), with H. ovalis rhizome median depth being significantly shallower ( $-1 \pm 0.12$  cm) than that of H. uninervis rhizomes ( $-2.25 \pm 0.29$  cm). The median depth of H. ovalis rhizomes sat within a temperature envelope that ranged between 27.4 and 28°C. H. uninervis rhizomes occupied a similarly narrow temperature envelope that was slightly cooler (26.9-27.5°C) than the H. ovalis temperature envelope.

Six of 11 temperature profiles were in cloudy conditions with a mean difference of -0.3°C between full sun and cloud. As with site 1, the site 2 substrata profile temperatures showed a decline from surface (0 cm) to depth  $(-10 \text{ cm})(H_{(10)} = 36.489)$ ,



**Fig. 5** Range of substratum temperatures (°C) across depth profiles (surface (0 cm) to -10 cm), pooled across the five sampling sites in Gladstone Harbour, Queensland, Australia. Whiskers represent the 5<sup>th</sup> and 95<sup>th</sup> percentiles, dots represent outliers, and the box line represents median substratum temperatures.

**Table 3** Mean seagrass (Halodule uninervis, Halophila ovalis, Zostera muelleri and Halophila decipiens) rhizome depth (cm) at each site, with substrate type

Species	Site 1 Mud	Site 2 Shell/mud	Site 3 Shell/gravel	Site 4 Mud/gravel	Site 5 Sand
Halophila decipiens	_	_	_	$-0.1 (\pm 0.0)$	_
Halophila ovalis	_	$-1.0~(\pm~0.1)$	$-1.2~(\pm~0.1)$	$-0.5~(\pm~0.0)$	$-1.0~(\pm 0.0)$
Halodule uninervis	$-7.2~(\pm~0.6)$	$-2.5~(\pm~0.3)$	$-2.0~(\pm~0.2)$	_	$-4.0 \ (\pm \ 0.0)$
Zostera muelleri	$-1.3~(\pm~0.2)$	_	$-1.4~(\pm~0.2)$	$-3.5~(\pm~0.0)$	$-0.2~(\pm0.0)$

<sup>&#</sup>x27;–', a species not present at a site. Values are means  $\pm\, 1$  SE.

Table 4 Dunn's test results (P-values) for substratum temperatures across depth (cm) profiles, with bold font indicating statistically significant differences

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	1.000									
2	1.000	1.000								
3	1.000	1.000	1.000							
4	0.761	1.000	1.000	1.000						
5	0.058	0.592	0.254	0.951	1.000					
6	< 0.001	0.008	0.002	0.016	0.961	1.000				
7	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.023	1.000	1.000			
8	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.014	0.853	1.000		
9	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.073	1.000	1.000	
10	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.008	0.355	1.000	1.000

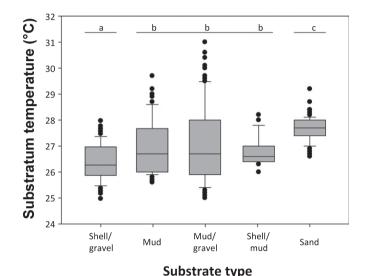
Table 5 Holm-Sidak all pairwise multiple comparison results (analysis of covariance *post hoc*) where substrate type is the factor and temperature is the dependent variable, with bold font indicating statistically significant differences

Comparison	Absolute difference of means	<i>t</i> -statistic	P-value
Sand vs shell/gravel	1.2252	12.108	< 0.001
Mud/gravel vs shell/gravel	0.624	7.253	< 0.001
Sand vs mud	0.759	6.427	< 0.001
Sand vs mud/gravel	0.628	5.925	< 0.001
Mud vs shell/gravel	0.494	4.909	< 0.001
Shell/mud vs shell/gravel	0.728	4.089	< 0.001
Sand vs shell/mud	0.524	2.778	0.022
Mud/gravel vs mud	0.131	1.265	0.500
Shell/mud vs mud	0.234	1.250	0.379
Shell/mud vs mud/gravel	0.104	0.577	0.564

P< 0.001) (Fig. 8b). However, the temperature differences between depth substrata were less striking than that observed at other sites (temperature range across the site was 0.3°C). The temperature variability at the surface remained a distinctive factor, with a wider temperature range (1.8°C) at the surface than at 10 cm depth (0.4°C). Statistically significant differences in substrata temperatures occurred between 1 and 10 cm depth (Q=3.530, P=0.023) and between 1 and 9 cm depth (Q=3.773, P=0.009).

Site 3: species and substrate temperature Site 3 had a shell and gravel mixed substrate, with three species - Z. muelleri, H. ovalis and *H. uninervis* – present (Table 1). There was a statistically significant difference in substrata depths that the different species occupied ( $F_{(2,27)} = 5.20$ , P = 0.012), with *H. uninervis* rhizomes occupying a significantly deeper substratum compared with *H. ovalis* rhizomes at this site (t=3.09, P=0.013). The substratum temperature envelope for H. uninervis rhizomes was 25.4-28°C (2.6°C range), with the temperature envelope for *H. ovalis* rhizomes being slightly broader (25–28°C; 3°C range).

All temperature profiles were in full sun conditions. The temperature depth profile at site 3 was similar to that at site 1, with a 2.1°C range (Fig. 8c). The temperature depth profiles differed significantly with depth  $(H_{(10)} = 41.334, P < 0.001)$ , yet, the

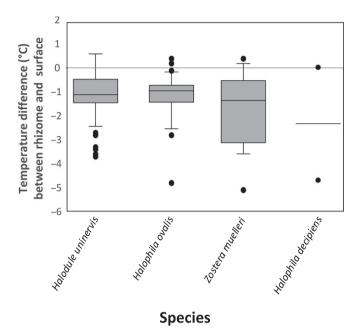


# Fig. 6 Median temperature (°C) by substrate type, pooled across depth at each site, in Gladstone Harbour, Queensland, Australia. Whiskers

represent the 5<sup>th</sup> and 95<sup>th</sup> percentiles, dots represent outliers, and the box line represents median substratum temperatures. Holm-Sidak all pairwise multiple comparison result (analysis of covariance post hoc) differences at P < 0.05 are expressed as groups a, b and c (Table 5).

statistical patterns at site 3 were less clear-cut than those seen at sites 1, 2 and 5. There were statistically significant differences between substrata temperatures at the surface and at 9 cm (Q=3.724, P=0.011); at the surface and at 10 cm (Q=4.437,P < 0.001); at 2 and 10 cm (Q = 3.449, P = 0.031); at 3 and 10 cm (Q = 3.979, P = 0.004); at 4 and 10 cm (Q = 3.976, P = 0.004); and at 5 and 10 cm (Q = 3.546, P = 0.022).

Site 4: species and substrate temperature Site 4 had a mud and gravel mixed substrate, with three species present, Z. muelleri, H. ovalis and H. decipiens (Table 1). The three seagrass species present occupied different substrata depths  $(H_{(2)} = 29.00,$ P < 0.001), with all three species rhizome depths being statistically different to each other (Z. muelleri vs H. decipiens, q = 7.184, P < 0.001; Z. muelleri vs H. ovalis, q = 3.592, P = 0.03; *H. ovalis* vs *H. decipiens*, q = 3.592, P = 0.01). Both *H. ovalis* and *H. decipiens* rhizomes occurred at shallow depths  $(-0.5 \pm 0)$  and  $-0.1 \pm < 0.01$  cm, respectively), with Z. muelleri occupying a



**Fig. 7** Median temperature difference (°C) between rhizome and surface, pooled by species (*Halodule uninervis, Halophila ovalis, Zostera muelleri* and *Halophila decipiens*) across sites, in Gladstone Harbour, Queensland, Australia. Whiskers represent the 5<sup>th</sup> and 95<sup>th</sup> percentiles, dots represent outliers, and the box line represents median temperature differences.

 $-3.5 \pm 0$  cm substratum. Both *Halophila* species sat within the same temperature envelope of 26.3–31°C, with *Z. muelleri* occupying a narrower and slightly cooler temperature envelope (26–29°C).

Five of 15 temperature profiles were in cloudy conditions with a mean difference of  $3.6^{\circ}$ C between full sun and cloud. The substrata temperature decline from the surface to 10 cm depth at site 4 had the largest relative temperature range ( $3.6^{\circ}$ C) across the depth profiles examined compared with the other sites (Fig. 8d). The temperature variability at this site was  $4.7^{\circ}$ C at the surface, reducing with depth (Fig. 8d). Substrata depth temperatures were statistically different ( $H_{(10)} = 113.605$ , P < 0.001); the statistical differences between substrata are summarized in Table 6. The first few centimetres (0 to -2 cm) of substrate were significantly warmer than substrata at 6 cm or deeper (Table 7).

Site 5: species and substrate temperature Site 5 had a sand substrate, with three species present, *Z. muelleri*, *H. ovalis* and *H. uninervis* (Table 1). *Z. muelleri* was the dominant seagrass at this location with both *H. ovalis* and *H. uninervis* being rare. The temperature envelopes that the seagrass species occupied were significantly different from each other ( $H_{(2)} = 23.00$ , P < 0.001), with *Z. muelleri* and *H. uninervis* found at statistically different depths (q = 6.400, P < 0.001). The temperature envelope for *H. ovalis* was not statistically different from the envelope for *Z. muelleri* (P = 0.061) or *H. uninervis* (P = 0.061). As with other sites, *Z. muelleri* occupied shallower depths (-0.2 cm substratum) where the temperature range was  $26.7 - 27.7^{\circ}$ C. In comparison, *H. uninervis* occupied a deeper substratum (-4 cm) where the temperature was cooler and the envelope range was narrower ( $0.8^{\circ}$ C; ranging from 27.6 to  $28.4^{\circ}$ C).

All temperature profiles were obtained in cloudy conditions. The temperature depth profile at site 5 was markedly different from that at other sites, with surface temperatures not representing the highest temperature, but rather a temperature peak (28.7°C) occurring at the -2 cm substratum (Fig. 8e). Site 5 was the only site that showed a temperature profile pattern that had peak temperatures below the surface. There was a statistically significant difference in substrata temperatures across the depth profile ( $F_{(10,77)} = 3.634$ , P < 0.001; power 0.930), with the difference occurring between the 3 and 10 cm substrata (t = 3.517, P = 0.040). The 3 cm depth substratum had the narrowest range of temperatures recorded (0.7°C) of all substrata. Temperature variability at the surface (1°C range) was less than the variability at depth (1.4°C range).

## Species temperature patterns

Specific patterns between the species at each site were evident and are summarized in Table 8. In general, H. uninervis occupied substrata at individual sites where the temperature envelope was relatively narrow (0.1-0.8°C) (Table 8). However, site 3 was an exception for H. uninervis, where it occurred in a relatively shallow substratum, in a temperature range of 2.6°C. Both Z. muelleri and H. ovalis had broader median temperature envelopes, with H. decipiens having the broadest temperature range of the species measured (Table 8). These temperature profiles were a reflection of the depth of substratum that each species rhizome occupied (Fig. 4), with H. uninervis tending to occupy deeper and cooler substratum. We note that our temperature envelopes are based upon data from the austral summer/wet season only (i.e., growing season) and that further investigation is needed to develop an understanding of the annual temperature envelope for the species investigated at these locations.

# **Discussion**

This study demonstrates that the four studied seagrass species present in Gladstone Harbour exhibit vertical stratification of below-ground rhizome placement (as a proxy for minimum rooting depth). Rhizome depth varied with substrate; however, rhizomes of H. uninervis are consistently and significantly found deeper than the other species' rhizomes, penetrating up to 9.0 cm (average  $3.7 \pm 0.3$  cm), and Z. nuelleri has average depths > 1 cm (with the exception of sand). Further, we found that this vertical stratification is related to soil temperature. Based on temperature profiles in differing soil types, these species achieve median temperature reductions from measured surface temperatures of at least 1°C, with >45% of individuals from each species having maximum temperature reductions >2°C, noting that measured surface temperatures are >5°C lower than observed maxima (Fig. 3).

Rooting depth is a common plant functional trait examined within terrestrial systems, with a body of literature examining root foraging for nutrients and water, and avoidance for specific soil types (see Kembel & Cahill, 2005; García-Palacios *et al.*,

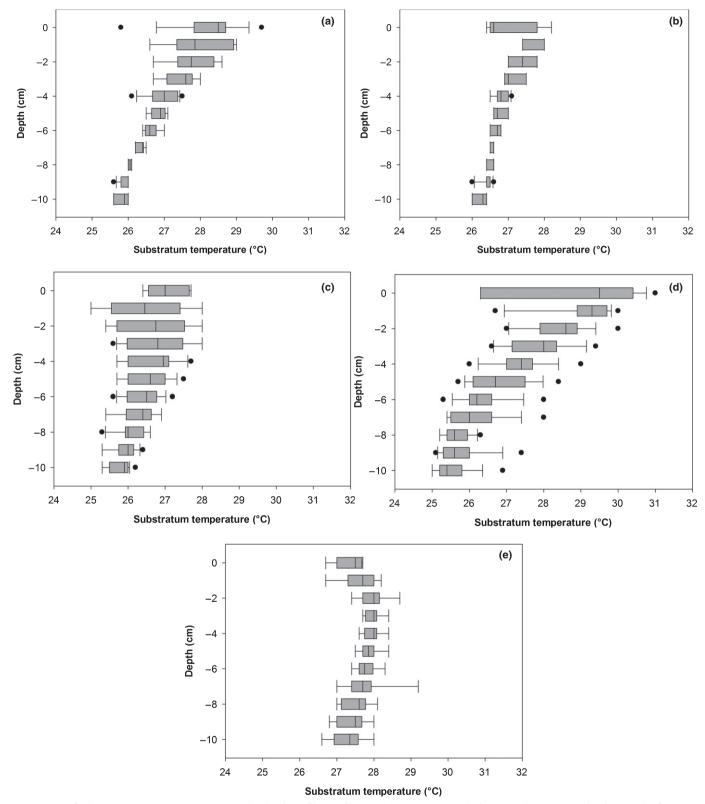


Fig. 8 Range of substratum temperatures ( ${}^{\circ}$ C) across the depth profiles (surface (0 cm) to -10 cm) in Gladstone Harbour, Queensland, Australia, for: (a) site 1; (b) site 2; (c) site 3; (d) site 4; and (e) site 5. Whiskers represent the 5<sup>th</sup> and 95<sup>th</sup> percentiles, dots represent outliers, and box line represents median substratum temperatures.

2012), but rooting depth is variously defined and only occasionally documented for seagrasses (e.g. https://www.try-db.org/TryWeb/Home.php; see Supporting Information Table S1).

Determinants of rhizome and rooting depths have included anchoring (e.g. Balestri *et al.*, 2015), lateral growth/spread (e.g. Han *et al.*, 2012), and nutrient capture (e.g. Duarte *et al.*, 1998;

Table 6 Dunn's test results (P-values) for substratum temperatures across depth (cm) profiles at site 1, with bold font indicating statistically significant differences

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	1.000									
2	1.000	1.000								
3	1.000	1.000	1.000							
4	0.544	1.000	1.000	1.000						
5	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000					
6	0.404	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000				
7	0.041	0.568	0.904	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000			
8	0.001	0.064	0.113	0.332	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000		
9	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.003	0.002	0.320	1.000	1.000	1.000	
10	< 0.001	0.002	0.005	0.019	0.053	0.649	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000

Table 7 Dunn's test results (P-values) for substratum temperatures across depth (cm) profiles at site 4, with bold font indicating statistically significant differences

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	1.000									
2	1.000	1.000								
3	1.000	1.000	1.000							
4	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000						
5	0.960	0.069	0.524	1.000	1.000					
6	0.035	0.001	0.015	0.218	1.000	1.000				
7	0.002	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.018	0.343	1.000	1.000			
8	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.014	0.346	1.000	1.000		
9	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.011	0.304	1.000	1.000	1.000	
10	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.049	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000

**Table 8** Temperature (°C) envelope range for each seagrass species (*Halodule uninervis, Halophila ovalis, Zostera muelleri* and *Halophila decipiens*) at each site when the site is exposed at low tide

	Temperature (°C) range							
Species	Site 1	Site 2	Site 3	Site 4	Site 5	Median		
Halophila decipiens Halophila ovalis Halodule uninervis Zostera muelleri	- - 0.1 2.4	- 0.6 0.6	- 3 2.6 2.6	4.7 4.7 - 3	- 1.5 0.8 1	4.7 2.25 0.7 2.5		

<sup>&#</sup>x27;-', a species not present at a site.

Balestri et al., 2015), with rhizome and root diameter representing size-related tradeoffs between nutrient uptake efficiency (smaller diameters) and O<sub>2</sub> loss (larger diameters) (Duarte et al., 1998). Han et al. (2012) observed a consistent rhizome depth for Zostera noltii Hornemann, 1832 and empirically demonstrated that, following addition (burial) and removal (erosion) experiments, Z. noltii consistently grew to achieve the 'preferred' rhizome depth and concluded that the ability to rapidly respond to altered sediment depths allowed Z. noltii to acclimate at meadow margins. Duarte et al. (1998) evaluated below-ground biomass in four subtidal locations and demonstrated substantial vertical stratification, with a finding that larger seagrass species tended to occupy deeper sediment layers, noting an overlap of root

structures in shallow sediment layers of mixed species meadows. Vertical stratification of below-ground biomass is typically interpreted as a means of reducing competition for nutrient resources (Wilson, 1988; Kembel & Cahill, 2005). We propose that for some seagrass species, root 'foraging' may be additionally influenced by thermal envelopes.

Unlike most terrestrial plants, seagrasses experience significant tradeoffs between above-ground photosynthetic biomass that also provides access to frequently limiting nutrients such as nitrogen and phosphorus (Stapel et al., 1996; Rubio et al., 2007) and the below-ground biomass that provides access to nutrient resources, but also exposure to anoxic sediments (Hemminga, 1998). Below-ground biomass can represent a significant fraction of living tissue (e.g. Duarte & Chiscano, 1999), creating a high O<sub>2</sub> demand for the organism as a combination of tissue respiration and radial O<sub>2</sub> loss to surrounding sediments (Armstrong, 1980; Isaksen & Finster, 1996; Borum et al., 2006; Brodersen et al., 2014). Radial O<sub>2</sub> loss leads to the establishment and maintenance of 'oxic microshields' surrounding root tips (Pedersen et al., 1998), rhizomes and basal meristems (Brodersen et al., 2014, 2016), which are critical in providing protection from reduced phytotoxins such as sulphide (e.g. Armstrong, 1980; Isaksen & Finster, 1996; Borum et al., 2006; Brodersen et al., 2014, 2015).

Oxygen in above-ground biomass is derived from photosynthesis and air-tissue diffusion (e.g. Colmer, 2003; Borum *et al.*, 2006). Transport of  $O_2$  from above-ground biomass to below-

ground biomass is primarily driven by diffusion from high (leaves) to low (roots) partial pressure gradients (Armstrong, 1980; Larkum *et al.*, 1989). Diffusion in seagrasses is further enhanced by a number of anatomical adaptations, morphological features and physiological traits (Colmer, 2003) which increase porosity of plant tissue (e.g. specialized lacunae; Penhale & Wetzel, 1983; Connell *et al.*, 1999), moderate O<sub>2</sub> loss to sediments (e.g. thickened rhizomes and roots; Duarte *et al.*, 1998; Johnson *et al.*, 2016) and reduce exposure of below-ground biomass to anoxic sediments (e.g. short, rapidly replaced roots within the oxic microshield; Johnson *et al.*, 2016).

Additionally, Colmer (2003) proposed that environmental conditions, such as decreased temperature, might reduce O<sub>2</sub> demand in below-ground biomass, noting that maintenancerelated respiration may differ significantly from growth-related respiration. In unvegetated subtidal systems, substrate (soil) temperatures are closely correlated with overlying waters (Wheatcroft et al., 2007); however, intertidal substrate temperatures fluctuate between submerged and exposed periods when surface exposure to solar warming results in vertical thermal transfer in the substrate to depths of 50 cm (Kim et al., 2007; Thomson, 2010). Our findings demonstrate that fine scale measurements (1 cm) exhibit rapid temperature reductions of several degrees within the top 10 cm (note that biogenic shell material influences temperature profiles, potentially by altering the surface albedo and substrate porosity). These temperature differentials present an environmental gradient for below-ground rhizome selection during growth.

Rhizomes and roots found at increasing intertidal soil depths experience net decreases in temperature relative to above-ground biomass of at least 1°C, with high proportions of populations having a maximum temperature reduction > 2°C. Given that metabolism scales exponentially with change in temperature, cooler temperatures will therefore decrease metabolic processes, lowering the O2 tissue demand in the below-ground biomass by slowing respiration (Armstrong, 1980). We estimated the reduction in below-ground respiratory demand using information from Collier et al. (2017) for H. uninervis ( $P_0 = 0.2$ ;  $Q_{10} = 1.89$ ) and Z. muelleri ( $P_0 = 0.8$ ;  $Q_{10} = 2.6$ )(both measured during austral summer at Moreton Bay, Queensland; c. 2° latitude further south of Gladstone Harbour). A 1°C temperature reduction would result in between 6% and 9% reduction in respiration; however, estimations based on field measurements for H. uninervis were between 2.8% and 10.5%, and those for Z. muelleri were between 3.6% and 24.0%, for maximum and minimum rhizome temperatures, respectively. These potentially represent significant reductions in tissue-specific O2 demand, resulting in greater pools of O2 in below-ground tissues, which should enhance radial O2 loss and enhance the oxic shield. In similar fashion, cooler temperatures will also decrease the metabolism of sulfate reducing microorganisms in the rhizosphere, resulting in increased effectiveness of the oxic microshield.

Our hypotheses that certain species are soil temperaturesensitive and compensate for temperature sensitivity via rhizome rooting depth are supported by our results. We demonstrate that H. uninervis rhizomes have consistently deeper rooting depths (Fig. 4) which are statistically cooler (Fig. 5) than the rooting depths that rhizomes of Z. muelleri, H. ovalis and H. decipiens occupy. H. uninervis also occupies a narrow, median soil temperature envelope (Table 8). We surmise with caution that, in this location, H. uninervis is a soil temperature (or thermal)-sensitive intertidal species that employs the thermal gradient in soil temperatures for placement of below-ground biomass to maintain a restricted thermal envelope. By contrast, Z. muelleri and H. ovalis appear to be plastic in their thermal response, with much wider thermal envelopes and less active use of the soil temperature gradient (Fig. 4; Table 8).

The implications of our findings have potential relevance to both restoration ecology and climate change-focused management of seagrass species, but require empirical evaluation and validation at biogeographic scales. Surface temperature of Queensland coastal waters has peaked at 41.5°C (2010/2011 summer; http://www.seagrasswatch.org/cairns.html), 11°C more than the reported average seawater temperature during the wet/summer for this region (Queensland Department of Environment and Resource Management, 2011). Increased warming of surface waters and soil temperatures will reduce available O<sub>2</sub> in seagrass meadows, and is likely to influence phytotoxic H<sub>2</sub>S concentrations in the substrate (Terrados *et al.*, 1999; Hemminga & Duarte, 2000; Borum *et al.*, 2005), resulting in increased stress upon the plants and shifting previously suitable habitats into suboptimal areas for seagrass survival in the future.

Climate change and restoration of seagrasses are intrinsically linked, with restoration considered an effective strategy to ameliorate climate change impacts (e.g. Marbà et al., 2015). There are clear concerns within the literature that increases in water temperature and extreme heat events (air temperature) will influence seagrass survival (e.g. Jordà et al., 2012; Collier & Waycott, 2014; Koch et al., 2015; Thomson et al., 2015; Pedersen et al., 2016; Galli et al., 2017). Furthermore, our results demonstrate that intertidal seagrasses occupy species' specific soil temperature envelopes, with H. uninervis actively using the soil temperature gradients to reduce temperature fluctuations based on depth of below-ground biomass. Similar patterns have been observed in metacommunities of seagrasses in Portugal, where seagrassassociated species sorting occurs and some species live deeper in the sediment when stress conditions are present (e.g. Dolbeth et al., 2013). We predict that species such as H. uninervis should exhibit a latitudinal gradient in depth of below-ground biomass correlated with shifting absolute temperatures and soil temperature profiles. Similarly, climate change-induced shifts in soil temperature profiles should influence seagrass species seeking deeper placement of below-ground biomass in the substrate as an adaptation strategy. An understanding of species soil thermal preferences could aid in modelling potential range shifts that are modulated by climate change.

The capacity for shallow-rooted species such as *Z. muelleri*, *H. decipiens* and *H. ovalis* (Fig. 4) to adapt to higher soil temperatures and potentially broader soil temperature envelopes remains an unknown at present. It is possible that these species may be vulnerable, as they occupy a niche that is currently exposed to

large fluctuations in soil temperature. Phillips *et al.* (1983) has noted that *H. ovalis* and *H. uninervis* are known to tolerate extreme temperature conditions. One mechanism that might aid *H. uninervis* in surviving extreme temperatures may be in its adaption to seek cooler temperature envelopes via more deeply rooted rhizomes (Fig. 4). Thus, *H. uninervis* may not be as vulnerable to climate change influences as shallower-rooted species. Species that are unable to compensate for variable soil temperature fluctuations are likely to be the ones at risk and become climate refugees, via shifting biogeography.

#### Conclusions

In conclusion, we have demonstrated a correlation between intertidal seagrass species, soil temperature profiles (during low tide) and rhizome rooting depths. In particular, *H. uninervis* is a deeprooted seagrass that occupies a soil temperature envelope that is relatively restricted, compared with the other species investigated. Soil temperatures followed an anticipated profile of temperatures decreasing with depth, and exhibit high temperature fluctuation within shallow depths, as a function of site sediment type. Implications of how soil temperature profiles influence intertidal seagrasses are relevant to restoration ecology and climate change impacts in these important habitats. We recommend that quantitative exploration of the seagrass species' soil temperature relationships is required to better understand the observations in this study.

# **Acknowledgements**

We thank the volunteers, postdoctoral fellow, graduate students and summer interns who were involved in helping to collect field data. This research was funded by a Queensland Government Smart Futures mid-career Fellowship (M.L.C.). Work was carried out under the Great Barrier Reef Marine Park and the Queensland Government permit (permit no. 2013CA0845).

## **Author contributions**

M.L.C. conceived the ideas and designed the methodology with input from C.L.H.; M.L.C., C.L.H. and R.H. collected the data; M.L.C., L.D.H. and C.L.H. analysed the data; M.L.C. and L.D.H. led the writing of the manuscript. M.L.C., L.D.H., R.H., R.M., S.S., A.N.R. and C.L.H. all contributed critically to the drafts and gave final approval for publication.

# **ORCID**

Marnie L. Campbell http://orcid.org/0000-0002-8716-0036 Chad L. Hewitt http://orcid.org/0000-0002-6859-6512

#### References

Armstrong W. 1980. Aeration in higher plants. *Advances in Botanical Research* 7: 225–332.

- Balestri E, de Battisti D, Vallerini F, Lardicci C. 2015. First evidence of root morphological and architectural variations in young *Posidonia oceanica* plants colonizing different substrate typologies. *Estuarine, Coastal and Shelf Science* 154: 205–213.
- Bando KJ. 2006. The roles of competition and disturbance in a marine invasion. *Biological Invasions* 8: 755–763.
- Björk M, Uku J, Weil A, Beer S. 1999. Photosynthetic tolerances to desiccation of tropical intertidal seagrasses. *Marine Ecology Progress Series* 191: 121–126.
- de Boer WF. 2007. Seagrass-sediment interactions, positive feedbacks and critical thresholds for occurrence: a review. *Hydrobiologia* 591: 5–24.
- Borum J, Pederson O, Greve TM, Frankovich TA, Zieman JC, Fourqurean JW, Madden CJ. 2005. The potential role of plant oxygen and sulphide dynamics in die-off events of the tropical seagrass, *Thalassia testudinum. Journal of Ecology* 93: 148–158.
- Borum J, Sand-Jensen K, Binzer T, Pedersen O, Greve T. 2006. Oxygen movement in seagrasses. In: Larkum AWD, Orth JR, Duarte CM, eds. *Seagrasses: biology, ecology and conservation.* Dordrecht, the Netherlands: Springer, 255–270.
- Brodersen KE, Koren K, Lichtenberg M, Kühl M. 2016. Nanoparticle-based measurements of pH and O<sub>2</sub> dynamics in the rhizosphere of *Zostera marina* L.: effects of temperature elevation and light-dark transitions. *Plant, Cell & Environment* 39: 1619–1630.
- Brodersen KE, Nielsen DA, Ralph PJ, Kühl M. 2014. A split flow chamber with artificial sediment to examine the below-ground microenvironment of aquatic macrophytes. *Marine Biology* 161: 2921–2930.
- Brodersen KE, Nielsen DA, Ralph PJ, Kühl M. 2015. Oxic microshield and local pH enhancement protects *Zostera muelleri* from sediment derived hydrogen sulphide. *New Phytologist* 205: 1264–1276.
- Brouns JJWM. 1987. Growth patterns in some Indo-West-Pacific seagrasses. Aquatic Botany 28: 39–61.
- Bulthuis DA. 1987. Effects of temperature on photosynthesis and growth of seagrasses. *Aquatic Botany* 27: 27–40.
- Campbell SJ, McKenzie LJ, Kerville SP. 2006. Photosynthetic responses of seven tropical seagrasses to elevated seawater temperature. *Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology* 330: 455–468.
- Collier CJ, Ow YX, Langlois L, Uthicke S, Johansson CL, O'Brien KR, Hrebien V, Adams MP. 2017. Optimum temperatures for net primary productivity of three tropical seagrass species. *Frontiers in Plant Science* 8: 1446.
- Collier CJ, Waycott M. 2014. Temperature extremes reduce seagrass growth and induce mortality. *Marine Pollution Bulletin* 83: 483–490.
- Colmer TD. 2003. Long-distance transport of gases in plants: a perspective on internal aeration and radial oxygen loss from roots. *Plant, Cell & Environment* 26: 17–36
- Connell EL, Colmer TD, Walker DI. 1999. Radial oxygen loss from intact roots of *Halophila ovalis* as a function of distance behind the root tip and shoot illumination. *Aquatic Botany* 63: 219–228.
- Davidson EA, Samanta S, Caramori SS, Savage K. 2012. The Dual Arrhenius and Michaelis-Menten kinetics model for decomposition of soil organic matter at hourly to seasonal time scales. Global Change Biology 18: 371–384.
- Devault AD, Pascaline H. 2013. Herbicide impact on seagrass communities. In: Price AJ, Kelton JA, eds. *Herbicides current research and case studies in use*. Rijeka, Croatia: In Tech, 353–375.
- Dolbeth M, Cardoso P, Grilo T, Raffaelli D, Pardal MA. 2013. Drivers of estuarine benthic species distribution patterns following a restoration of a seagrass bed: a functional trait analyses. *Marine Pollution Bulletin* 72: 47–54.
- Duarte CM, Chiscano CL. 1999. Seagrass biomass and production: a reassessment. *Aquatic Botany* 65: 159–174.
- Duarte CM, Merina M, Agawin NSR, Uri J, Fortes M, Gallegos ME, Marbá N, Hemminga MA. 1998. Root production and belowground seagrass biomass. *Marine Ecology Progress Series* 171: 97–108.
- Fang C, Moncrieff JB. 2001. The dependence of soil CO<sub>2</sub> efflux on temperature. Soil Biology and Biochemistry 3: 155–165.
- Galli G, Solidoro C, Lovato T. 2017. Marine heat waves hazard 3D maps and the risk for low motility organisms in a warming Mediterranean Sea. Frontiers in Marine Science 4: 1–14.

- García-Palacios P, Maestre FT, Bardgett RD, de Kroon H. 2012. Plant responses to soil heterogeneity and global environmental change. *Journal of Ecology* 100: 1303–1314.
- Georgiou D, Alexandre A, Luis J, Santos R. 2016. Temperature is not a limiting factor for the expansion of *Halophila stipulacea* throughout the Mediterranean Sea. *Marine Ecology Progress Series* 544: 159–167.
- Green EP, Short FT. 2003. World atlas of seagrasses. Berkeley, CA, USA: University of California Press, UNEP World Conservation Monitoring Centre.
- Gutiérrez-Girón A, Gavilán R. 2013. Plant functional strategies and environmental constraints in Mediterranean high mountain grasslands in central Spain. *Plant Ecology & Diversity* 6: 435–446.
- Han Q, Bouma TJ, Brun FG, Suykerbuyk W, van Katwijk MM. 2012.
  Resilience of Zostera noltii to burial or erosion disturbances. Marine Ecology Progress Series 449: 133–143.
- Hemminga MA. 1998. The root/rhizome system of seagrasses: an asset and a burden. *Journal of Sea Research* 39: 183–196.
- Hemminga MA, Duarte CM. 2000. Seagrass ecology. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Hyndes GA, Heck KL Jr, Verges A, Harvey ES, Kendrick GA, Lavery PS, McMahon K, Orth RJ, Pearce A, Vanderklift M et al. 2016. Accelerating tropicalization and the transformation of temperate seagrass meadows. BioScience 66: 938–945.
- Isaksen MF, Finster K. 1996. Sulphate reduction in the root zone of the seagrass Zostera noltii on the intertidal flats of a coastal lagoon (Arcachon, France). Marine Ecology Progress Series 137: 187–194.
- Ityel E, Ben-Gal A, Silberbush M, Lavarovitch N. 2014. Increased root zone oxygen by a capillary barrier is beneficial to bell pepper irrigated with brackish water in an arid region. Agricultural Water Management 131: 108–114.
- Johnson MG, Andersen CP, Phillips DL, Kaldy JE. 2016. Zostera marina root demography in an intertidal estuarine environment measured using microrhizotron technology. Marine Ecology Progress Series 557: 123–132.
- Jordà G, Marbà N, Duarte CM. 2012. Mediterranean seagrass vulnerable to regional climate warming. Nature Climate Change 2: 821–824.
- Kaldy JE, Shafer DJ, Magoun AD. 2015. Duration of temperature exposure controls growth of *Zostera japonica*: implications doe zonation and colonization. *Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology* 464: 68–74.
- Kembel SW, Cahill JF Jr. 2005. Plant phenotypic plasticity belowground: a phylogenetic perspective on root foraging trade-offs. *The American Naturalist* 166: 216–230.
- Kim T-W, Cho Y-K, Dever EP. 2007. An evaluation of the thermal properties of a macrotidal flat. *Journal of Geophysical Research* 112: C12009.
- Koch MS, Coronadi C, Miller MW, Rudnick DT, Stabenau E, Halley RB, Sklar FH. 2015. Climate change projected effects on coastal foundation communities of the greater everglades using a 2060 scenario: need for a new management paradigm. Environmental Management 55: 857–875.
- Koch MS, Erskine JM. 2001. Sulfide as a phytotoxin to the tropical seagrass Thalassia testudinum: interactions with light, salinity and temperature. Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology 266: 81–95.
- Koch MS, Schopmeyer S, Kyhn-Hansen C, Madden CJ. 2007. Synergistic effects of high temperature and sulphide on tropical seagrass. *Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology* 341: 91–101.
- Lan C-Y, Kao W-Y, Lin H-J, Shao K-T. 2005. Measurement of chlorophyll fluorescent reveals mechanisms for habitat niche separation of the intertidal seagrasses *Thalassia hemprichii* and *Halodule uninervis. Marine Biology* 148: 25–34.
- Larkum AWD, Roberts G, Kuo J, Strother S. 1989. Gaseous movement in seagrasses. In: Larkum AWD, McComb A, Shepherd SA, eds. *Biology of seagrasses*. Amsterdam, the Netherlands: Elsevier, 686–722.
- Lee K-S, Park SR, Kim YK. 2007. Effects of irradiance, temperature, and nutrients on growth dynamics of seagrasses: a review. *Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology* 350: 144–175.
- Leuschner C, Landwehr S, Mehlig U. 1998. Limitation of carbon assimilation of intertidal *Zostera noltii* and *Z. marina* by desiccation at low tide. *Aquatic Botany* 62: 171–176.
- Marbà N, Arias-Ortiz A, Masque P, Kendrick GA, Mazarrasa I, Bastyan GR, Garcia-Orellana J, Duarte CM. 2015. Impact of seagrass loss and subsequent revegetation on carbon sequestration and stocks. *Journal of Ecology* 103: 296–302.

- Marsh JA, Dennison WC, Alberte RS. 1986. Effects of temperature on photosynthesis and respiration in eelgrass (*Zostera marina* L.). *Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology* 101: 257–267.
- Mascaró O, Pérez JRM. 2014. Seasonal uncoupling of demographic processes in a marine clonal plant. *Estuarine, Coastal and Shelf Science* 142: 23–31.
- Massa SI, Arnaud-Haond A, Pearson GA, Serrao EA. 2009. Temperature tolerance and survival of intertidal populations of the seagrass *Zostera noltii* (Hornemann) in Southern Europe (Ria Formosa, Portugal). *Hydrobiologia* 619: 195–201.
- McDonald AM, Prado P, Heck KL Jr, Fourqurean JW, Frankovich TA, Dunton KH, Cebrian J. 2016. Seagrass growth, reproductive, and morphological plasticity across environmental gradients over a large spatial scale. *Aquatic Botany* 134: 87–96.
- Moore DR. 1963. Distribution of the seagrass *Thalassia*, in the United States. *Bulletin of Marine Science of the Gulf and Caribbean* 13: 329–342.
- Orth RJ, Carruthers TJB, Dennison WC, Duarte CM, Fourqurean JW, Heck KL, Hughes AR, Kendrick GA, Kenworthy WJ, Olyarnik S *et al.* 2006. A global crisis for seagrass ecosystems. *BioScience* 56: 987–996.
- Pedersen O, Borum J, Duarte CM, Fortes MD. 1998. Oxygen dynamics in the rhizosphere of *Cymodocea rotundata*. *Marine Ecology Progress Series* 169: 283–288.
- Pedersen O, Colmer TD, Borum J, Zavala-Perez A, Kendrick GA. 2016. Heat stress of two tropical seagrass species during low tides – impact on underwater net photosynthesis, dark respiration and diel in situ internal aeration. New Phytologist 210: 1207–1218.
- Penhale PA, Wetzel RG. 1983. Structural and functional adaptations of eelgrass (*Zostera marina* L.) to the anaerobic sediment environment. *Canadian Journal of Botany* 61: 1421–1428.
- Phillips RC, McMillan C, Bridges KW. 1983. Phenology of eelgrass, Zostera marina L., along latitudinal gradients in North America. Aquatic Botany 15: 145–156.
- Prange JA, Dennison WC. 2000. Physiological responses of five seagrass species to trace metals. *Marine Pollution Bulletin* 41: 327–336.
- Queensland Department of Environment and Resource Management. 2011.

  Port Curtis and tributaries. Comparison of current and historical water quality data. Water Science Technical Report, 1. Brisbane, Australia: Department of Environment and Resource Management.
- Rubio L, Linares-Rueda A, Garciá-Sánchez ML. 2007. Ammonium uptake kinetics in root and leaf cells of Zostera marina L. Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology 352: 271–279.
- Seddon S, Cheshire AC. 2001. Photosynthetic response of Amphibolis antarctica and Posidonia australis to temperature and desiccation using chlorophyll fluorescence. Marine Ecology Progress Series 220: 119–130.
- Shafer DJ, Sherman TD, Wyllie-Echeverria S. 2007. Do desiccation tolerances control the vertical distribution of intertidal seagrasses? *Aquatic Botany* 87: 161–166.
- Short F, Carruthers T, Dennison W, Waycott M. 2007. Global seagrass distribution and diversity: a bioregional model. *Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology* 350: 3–20.
- Short FT, Coles R, Fortes MD, Victor S, Salik M, Isnain I, Andrew J, Seno A. 2014. Monitoring in the Western Pacific region shows evidence of seagrass decline in line with global trends. *Marine Pollution Bulletin* 83: 408–416.
- Stafford-Bell RE, Chariton AA, Robinson RW. 2016. Germination and early-stage development in the seagrass, *Zostera muelleri* Irmisch ex Asch. in response to multiple stressors. *Aquatic Botany* 128: 18–25.
- Stapel J, Aarts TL, van Duynhoven BHM, de Groot JD, van den Hoogen PHW, Hemminga MA. 1996. Nutrient uptake by leaves and roots of the seagrass *Thalassia hemprichii* in the Spermonde Archipelago, Indonesia. *Marine Ecology Progress Series* 134: 195–206.
- Suykerbuyk W, Govers LL, Bouma TJ, Giesen WBJT, de Jong DT, van der Voort R, Giesen K, Giesen PT, van Katwijk M. 2016. Unpredictability in seagrass restoration: analysing the role of positive feedback and environmental stress on Zostera noltii transplants. Journal of Applied Ecology 53: 774–784.
- Terrados J, Duarte CM, Kamp-Nielsen L, Agawin NSR, Gacia E, Lacap D, Fortes MD, Borum J, Lubanski M, Greve T. 1999. Are seagrass growth and survival constrained by the reducing conditions of the sediment? *Aquatic Botany* 65: 175–197.

- Theodose TA, Martin J. 2003. Microclimate and substrate quality controls on nitrogen mineralisation in a New England high salt marsh. *Plant Ecology* 167: 213–221.
- Thomson J. 2010. Observations of thermal diffusivity and a relation to the porosity of tidal flat sediments. *Journal of Geophysical Research* 115: C05016.
- Thomson JA, Burkholder DA, Heithaus MR, Fourqurean JW, Fraser MW, Statton J, Kendrick GA. 2015. Extreme temperatures, foundation species, and abrupt ecosystem change: an example from an iconic seagrass ecosystem. *Global Change Ecology* 21: 1463–1474.
- Touchette BW, Burkholder JM. 2000. Overview of the physiological ecology of carbon metabolism in seagrasses. *Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology* 250: 169–205.
- Valle M, Garmendia JM, Chust G, Franco J, Borja A. 2015. Increasing the chance of a successful restoration of *Zostera noltii* meadows. *Aquatic Botany* 127: 12–19.
- Waycott M, Duarte CM, Carruthers TJB, Orth RJ, Dennison WC, Olyarnik S, Calladine A, Fourqurean JW, Heck KL Jr, Hughes AR et al. 2009.
  Accelerating loss of seagrasses across the globe threatens coastal ecosystems.
  Proceedings on the National Academy of Sciences, USA 106: 12377–12381.
- Weatherall EJ, Jackson EL, Hendry RA, Campbell ML. 2016. Quantifying the dispersal potential of seagrass vegetative fragments: a comparison of multiple subtropical species. *Estuarine, Coastal and Shelf Science* 169: 207–215.
- Wheatcroft RA, Stevens AW, Johnson RV. 2007. *In situ* time-series measurements of subseafloor sediment properties. *IEEE Journal of Oceanic Engineering* **32**: 862–871.
- Wilkinson AD, Collier CJ, Flores F, Langlois L, Ralph PJ, Negri AP. 2017. Combined effect of temperature and the herbicide diuron on photosystem II activity of the tropical seagrass *Halophila ovalis*. Scientific Reports 7: 45404.

- Wilson JB. 1988. Shoot competition and root competition. *Journal of Applied Ecology* 25: 279–296.
- York PH, Smith TM, Coles RG, McKenna SA, Connolly RM, Irving AD, Jackson EL, McMahon K, Runcie JW, Sherman CDH et al. 2017. Identifying knowledge gaps in seagrass research and management: an Australian perspective. Marine Environmental Research 127: 163–172.
- Zhou Y, Liu P, Liu B, Liu X, Zhang X, Wang F, Yang H. 2014. Restoring eelgrass (*Zostera marina* L.) habitats using a simple and effective transplanting technique. *PLoS ONE* 9: e92982.
- Zieman JC. 1975. Seasonal variation of turtle grass, *Thalassia testudinum* König, with reference to temperature and salinity effects. *Aquatic Botany* 1: 107–123.

# **Supporting Information**

Additional Supporting Information may be found online in the Supporting Information tab for this article:

**Table S1** Seagrass species rhizome depth information reported within the published literature, with supporting references

Please note: Wiley Blackwell are not responsible for the content or functionality of any Supporting Information supplied by the authors. Any queries (other than missing material) should be directed to the *New Phytologist* Central Office.



# About New Phytologist

- New Phytologist is an electronic (online-only) journal owned by the New Phytologist Trust, a **not-for-profit organization** dedicated to the promotion of plant science, facilitating projects from symposia to free access for our Tansley reviews.
- Regular papers, Letters, Research reviews, Rapid reports and both Modelling/Theory and Methods papers are encouraged.
   We are committed to rapid processing, from online submission through to publication 'as ready' via Early View our average time to decision is <26 days. There are no page or colour charges and a PDF version will be provided for each article.</li>
- The journal is available online at Wiley Online Library. Visit **www.newphytologist.com** to search the articles and register for table of contents email alerts.
- If you have any questions, do get in touch with Central Office (np-centraloffice@lancaster.ac.uk) or, if it is more convenient, our USA Office (np-usaoffice@lancaster.ac.uk)
- For submission instructions, subscription and all the latest information visit www.newphytologist.com