Faculty of Science and Engineering

School of Biological and Marine Sciences

2020-03

# Seasonal dynamics of native and invasive Halophila stipulacea populationsA case study from the northern Gulf of Aqaba and the eastern Mediterranean Sea

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http://hdl.handle.net/10026.1/15332

10.1016/j.aquabot.2020.103205 Aquatic Botany Elsevier BV

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2	study from the northern Gulf of Aqaba and the eastern Mediterranean Sea.
1	Title: Seasonal dynamics of native and invasive <i>Halophila stipulacea</i> populations <u>– a case</u>

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#### 33 Abstract

The tropical seagrass *Halophila stipulacea* is native to the Red Sea, Persian Gulf and the Indian Ocean. Following the opening of the Suez Canal, *H. stipulacea* became a Lessepsian immigrant, spreading to most of the eastern Mediterranean Sea. Its arrival in the Caribbean, where it has changed the local seagrass landscapes, has led to concerns about its potential effects on Mediterranean seagrass diversity. Surprisingly, morphological, growth, structural and demographic and ecological traits have never been quantitively compared between native and invasive populations of *H. stipulacea*.

This study used a standardized methodology to provide the first quantitive comparison between populations of native and invasive *Halophila stipulacea* and sheds a-light on the importance of long-term monitoring in both native (Red Sea) and invasive (Mediterranean and Caribbean Seas) regions. Results from our study are important for understanding the current population dynamics of *H. stipulacea* in both regions and could be used as baseline data <u>in-for</u> future assessments.

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49

48 Keywords: Halophila stipulacea, seagrass monitoring, invasive species, seagrass cover

50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 1. Introduction The seagrass Halophila stipulacea (Forsskal) Ascherson is a dioecious, small tropical species, 60 61 native to the Red Sea, Persian Gulf, and Indian Ocean (Lipkin 1975). Soon after the opening 62 of the Suez Canal in 1869, H. stipulacea became a Lessepsian migrant. Since its first report in 63 the island of Rhodes in 1894, H. stipulacea has spread throughout most of the eastern and 64 southern Mediterranean basins (Lipkin 1975, Gambi et al. 2009, Sghaier et al. 2011).

65 In 2002, *Halophila-H. stipulacea* was reported for the first time in Grenada, in the Caribbean

66 Sea (reviewed by Willette and Ambrose 2012). In just over 10 years, it has spread to most of

67 the Eastern Caribbean island nations (Willette and Ambrose 2012) and has even reached the 68 South American continent (Vera et al. 2014). Studies from the Caribbean have demonstrated 69 the invasiveness of *H. stipulacea* by showing that *H. stipulacea* is physically displacing local Caribbean seagrass species (e.g. Syringodium filiforme, Halophila decipiens, and Halodule 70 wrightii; Willette and Ambrose 2012, Steiner and Willette 2015a), while in parallel it has also 71 72 expanded into sand 'halos' and the margins of coral reefs, where other seagrasses usually do 73 not grow (Steiner and Willette, 2015b). Taken together, these processes - This phenomenon 74 hashave transformed been changing the Caribbean's seagrass landscapes (Steiner and Willette, 75 2015a). 76 through three different schemes including (1) "native strongholds" of sheer native seagrasses, 77 Chaidlows What is in the company of 78 Considering the highly invasive character displayed by Halophila stipulacea in the Caribbean, 79 the ongoing tropicalization of the Mediterranean Sea (Bianchi and Morri 2003) together with 80 the recent expansion of the Suez Canal (Galil et al. 2015) and the increasing mortality of the 81 Mediterranean's native seagrasses in an era of rapid global change (Jordà et al. 2012), there is 82 growing concerns about the expansion of *H. stipulacea* in the Mediterranean and its potential 83 effects on the native temperate seagrass species in this basin. Thus, it is surprising to know that 84 only limited data are available regarding the year-round population dynamics of  $H_{alophila}$ stipulacea in its original distributional ranges (e.g. within the Gulf of Aqaba [GoA]), where it 85 86 is considered as the dominant seagrass species (Wahbeh 1988; Cardini et al. 2018), and no 87 year-round data at all exists for H. stipulacea from the Mediterranean, where it has the potential 88 to trigger significant changes to the local seagrass communities (Sghaier et al. 2014). 89 Lack of information regarding the year-round dynamics of both native and invasive populations 90 of Halophila stipulacea limits our understanding of the current population dynamics of this seagrass species in both these sites but also hinders future conservation and management efforts 91 92 directed at seagrasses in both habitats.

Here we report on the first-ever year-round quantitative comparison between native (Eilat,
Israel, northern Gulf of Aqaba, northern Red Sea) and invasive (Limassol, Cyprus, eastern
Mediterranean Sea) populations of *Halophila stipulacea*. <u>The Rresults presented here provide</u>
knowledge about the population dynamics of *H. stipulacea* from both <u>its native</u> and invasive
ranges. <u>This knowledge</u>, <u>also</u>\_can serve as baseline data <u>to facilitatefor</u> future monitoring
efforts in the<u>se</u> regions.

99 2. Methods

#### 100 2.1.Setup of monitoring sites

50-meter long permanent transects were set up at 3-4 m depth at both the native site (Eilat, northern Gulf of Aqaba, northern Red Sea, Israel; 29°34'48"N, 34°57'33"E; Fig. 1c,e,g) and at the invasive site (Limassol, eastern Mediterranean Sea, Cyprus; 34°42'20"N, 33°07'24"E; Fig. 1b,d,f). Transects were marked with labelled plastic poles and floats for easy identification,

seasonally in 2017 as followsing: spring (Eilat: 18<sup>th</sup> March; Limassol: 9<sup>th</sup> April), summer (Eilat:

allowing for revisiting once every three months. The transects (one in each site) were visited

- 107 3<sup>rd</sup> July; Limassol: 9<sup>th</sup> July), autumn (Eilat: <del>0</del>3<sup>rd</sup> October; Limassol: 29<sup>th</sup> September) and winter
- 108 (Eilat: 25<sup>th</sup> December; Limassol: 2<sup>nd</sup> December) (Fig. 1h).

109 2.2.Sea surface temperature

105

110 To compare environmental temperatures between study locations in Eilat and Limassol, we

111 obtained daily average sea surface temperatures for the period of 2017 from the NOAA

112 dOISST.v2 dataset at <u>www.ngdc.noaa.gov</u>. We used Advanced Very High-Resolution

- 113 Radiometer (AVHRR) only data, due to its longer temporal span and because it has been shown
- to out-perform other datasets in coastal areas (Lima and Wethey 2012).
- 115 2.3.Seagrass measurements
- 116 Roca et al. (2016) showed that in small seagrasses (e.g., *Halophila* sp.), morphological, growth,
- 117 structural and demographic traits were particularly responsive to both a suit of stressors and
- 118 the recovery from them. Following these traits provides a basic understanding of the
- 119 population's dynamics, seasonal changes, alongside basic population characteristics and
- 120 general environmental quality (Roca et al. 2016). These traits also tend to be relatively cheap

and easy to apply, providing an opportunity for citizen science programs to join future
 monitoring of *H. stipulacea*.

- 123 Seagrass cover was assessed in replicated photo-quadrats (50x50 cm, n=10) every 5 m along
- the 50 m transects and the taken photos were processed using the CoralNet Platform (Beijbomet al. 2015) by applying 100 random points per quadrat.
- 126 Plant materials were collected from 25x25 cm quadrats (n=4 in each site and season), placed
- along the transect ( $\sim 10$  m away from each other). Samples were collected and transported to
- the laboratory in zip-lock bags filled with seawater for further measurements.
- 129 Shoot density was calculated as the total number of shoots per  $m^2$ .
- 130 Fresh plant material was separated into above-ground (leaves) and below-ground (rhizomes
- and roots) compartments and oven-dried at 70°C for 24 hours to obtain above- and below-
- 132 ground dry biomass (g DW m<sup>-2</sup>) and their ratios.
- 133 Data from replicated quadrats in each season were then averaged and normalized to  $m^2$ .

Thirty mature-undamaged leaves from each quadrat were digitally scanned (CanoScan LiDE 134

135 220, Canon U.S.A., Inc, USA) and images were processed with ImageJ 136 (https://imagej.nih.gov/ij/) to estimate the leaf surface area (cm<sup>2</sup>).

Percentage of apical shoots (shoot apical meristems) and internode distance was assessed 137

throughout all collected samples. 138

139 2.4. Statistical analyses

140 Statistically, Permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) was performed 141 to assess the significant difference between native vs. invasive sites, seasons (i.e. spring 142 [March-April 2017], summer [July 2017], autumn [Sep-Oct 2017], and winter [Dec 2017]) and the interaction between sites and seasons. Data were analyzed on the resemblance matrix 143 144 (created by S17 BrayCurtis similarity) on Primer 6 v.6.1.16 + PERMANOVA v. 1.0.6 145 (Anderson et al. 2008) with site and season treated as fixed factors and 9999 permutations. 146 FollowingPERMANOVA was followed by , a pair-wise test was performed to detect 147 significant differences between seasons of each population separately.

### 148

#### 149 3. Results and discussion

150 Results show that percent of seagrass cover (Fig. 2a) was higher year-round in the native site (Eilat) compared with its invasive site (Limassol; PERMANOVA, Pseudo-F = 155.6,  $p_{(perm)}$  = 151 0.0001). This is not surprising since Halophila stipulacea is the dominant and often the only 152 153 seagrass species in Eilat where (i.e. it is found -growing in a monospecific meadows (,-Fig. 1g; 154 Winters et al. 2017) while in Limassol, H. stipulacea has to compete with other native species 155 and is usually (here it is found growing in a-mixed meadows (+Fig. 1f). In the native population, 156 Tthe highest percent of *H. stipulacea* cover was found in the summer-, for the native population, 157 while in the Cyprus invasive population, percent of cover developed to a maximum relatively 158 was highest during autumn (Fig. 2a). This could be explained by two possible reasons, (1) the 159 invasive H. stipulacea could be limited by the fast-growing neighbouring Mediterranean 160 Cymodocea nodosa which reaches a maximum during the summer (Cancemi et al. 2002) and (2) the much colder winter (~16°C) in Limassol than in Eilat (~21°C; Fig. 1h) might extend 161 162 the recovery time of the invasive plants before flowering takes place during the summer months 163 (Nguyen et al. 2018). As a result, we observed significant differences in season 164 (PERMANOVA, Pseudo-F =4.5192,  $p_{\text{(fperm)}} = 0.0041$ ) as well as the interaction between 165 seasons and sites (PERMANOVA, Pseudo-F = 13.815, p[ferm]) = 0.0001) in percent of cover. 166 (Eilat vs. Limassol; PERMANOVA, Pseudo-F = 4.5192, p(perm) = 0.0041 and Pseudo-F 167

 $=13.815, p_{(perm)} = 0.0001, respectively).$ 

168 Itisinteresting to Wealsonoticed note that shoot density was somehows similar between both populations during spring, autumn 169 and winter while but very different in the summer due to the extremely higher shoot density in the 170 native population during summer time (Fig. 2b) that leads to the significant difference between 171 sites (Eilat vs. Limassol; PERMANOVA, Pseudo-F =4.979,  $p_{[\text{fperm}]} = 0.019$ ).

172 Results for the above-ground biomass (Fig. 2c) reflected what was found in the percent cover. 173 Above-ground dry biomass was significantly higher year-round in plants from Eilat compared 174 with their invasive counterparts (Fig. 2c, PERMANOVA, Pseudo-F =24.741,  $p_{[{perm}]}$  = 175 0.0001), with highest above-ground biomass found in Eilat during the summer, but in October 176 the autumn for the Cyprus population.

177 In the invasive population, below-ground biomass (Fig. 2d) started to increase from the autumn 178 and reached the highest value during spring (PERMANOVA, Pseudo-F = 2.4767,  $p_{\text{[fperm]}}$  = 179 0.0261). This phenomenon corresponds with the hypothesis that the invasive plants were using 180 their below-ground energy to survive the cold Mediterranean winter (Figure 1h). The year-181 round above- to below-ground biomass ratios in Eilat plants were much higher than that of 182 their Cyprus counterparts (never less than 0.7; Fig. 2e), indicating that relatively, in Eilat plants, 183 more biomass was being accumulated above-ground compared with the Cyprus population. 184 The significant interaction between sites and sampling seasons found for the above- to below-185 ground biomass ratios (PERMANOVA, Pseudo-F =4.15882.565,  $p_{[\text{(perm)}]} = -0.00420.0235$ ) 186 confirms that both of these populations modified their above to below-ground biomass ratios 187 but at different seasons (Figure 2e). Above- to below-ground biomass ratios in invasive plants 188 were less than 0.5 most of the year (spring, summer, and winter) indicating that majority of the 189 biomass of these plants during most of the year was below ground. The accumulation of 190 underground biomass could potentially help these plants store energy in their "underground 191 storage" to better overcome the cold winter (Marín-Guirao et al. 2018). The year-round above-192 to below-ground biomass ratios in Eilat plants were much higher than that of their Cyprus 193 counterparts (never less than 0.7), indicating that relatively, more biomass was being 194 accumulated above ground compared with the Cyprus population. Highest above- to belowground ratios were found in Cyprus in the autumn (close to 1.0) compared with maximal ratios 195 196 in the Eilat plants that were measured in the summer (close to 1.2).

197 Although found growing in similar depths, in terms of leaf surface area (Fig. 2f), native plants 198 were found to be significantly larger year-round than leaves from invasive plants 199 (PERMANOVA, Pseudo-F=123.21,  $p_{\{[permb]\}} = 0.0001$ ). The fact that leaf area might be affected 200 by different environmental parameters at the different sites might be indicated by the 201 significant differences between seasons and a significant season×site interaction 202 (PERMANOVA, Pseudo-F = 12.103,  $p_{\text{[fperm]}} = 0.0001$  and Pseudo-F = 7.7689,  $p_{\text{[fperm]}} = 0.0003$ , 203 respectively). Changes in leaf area may help Halophila stipulacea plants to optimize their 204 carbon balances. In Eilat where there are relatively small changes in water temperature 205 throughout the year (21-27°C; Fig. 1h), changes in leaf area reflect the seasonal changes in light 206 in this region (Winters et al. 2006). Minimal leaf areas in the Eilat's summer could indicate 207 photoacclimation to the intense irradiance experienced during this season, while maximal leaf areas in the winter probably indicate attempts to compensate for the relatively low light in his 208 209 season. In contrast, in the invasive population, smaller leaves during spring and winter can 210 strengthen the ability of invasive H. stipulacea plants to cope better with the colder 211 temperatures experienced in this region (17-18°C), as compared with warmer waters of Eilat 212 (21°C). A similar mechanism has been demonstrated in terrestrial plants (Milford and Riley 213 1980). Indeed, results showed that the invasive plants increased their leaf size during autumn 214  $(2.09 \text{ cm}^{-2} \pm 0.14 \text{ SE}, \text{ Fig. 2f})$ , when water temperatures were more favourable. Shoot density 215 results (Fig. 2b) concur with the results from above-ground biomass and leaf surface area. 216 Invasive plants produced a similar number of shoots as native plants during the spring and 217 winter, but smaller leaf surface area year round (Fig. 2f) resulted in lower above-ground 218 biomass (Fig. 2d).

219 Furthermore, our results demonstrate some of the different morphology that might be 220 associated with the invasive characteristic of Halophila stipulacea in the Mediterranean ranges 221 via a higher percentage of apical shoots and longer internode distances. Having significantly 222 more apical shoots and longer internode distances (Fig. 2g,h; Eilat vs. Limassol, 223 PERMANOVA, Pseudo-F =6.7344,  $p_{[\text{(perm)}]} = 0.0178$  and Pseudo-F =15.74,  $p_{[\text{(perm)}]} = 0.0015$ , 224 respectively) could contribute to the ability of the invasive plants to (i) rapidly occupy more 225 space and (ii) escape from un-favourable new environments. These invasive-morphological 226 traits can potentially contribute to the invasiveness of H. stipulacea in the Mediterranean 227 (Gambi et al. 2009) and Caribbean Seas (Steiner and Willette 2015).

Although *Halophila stipulacea* was included in the "100 Worst Invasive Alien Species in the Mediterranean" (Streftaris and Zenetos 2006), in this basin, evidence for its "invasive" characteristics are scarce. In the Mediterranean, *H. stipulacea* has been continuously spreading westwards and northwards (Lipkin 1975, Gambi et al. 2009, Sghaier et al. 2011) and was experimentally predicted to spread throughout the whole Mediterranean Sea in the coming future (Georgiou et al. 2006, Nguyen et al. *in review*). With the semi-enclosed Mediterranean Sea becoming warmer and saltier (Bianchi and Morri 2003), it has been predicted that the 235 ongoing tropicalization of the Mediterranean Sea might be causing declines in local 236 Mediterranean temperate seagrasses species (Jordà et al. 2012), while favouring the expansion 237 of the tropical invasive H. stipulacea (Georgiou et al. 2016, Gambi et al. 2009). Evidence for the invasive characteristics of *H. stipulacea* in the Mediterranean includes observations by 238 239 Sghaier et al. (2014) that showed in Tunisia, that introduced H. stipulacea was taking over the 240 meadows of the local Mediterranean seagrass species (i.e. Cymodocea nodosa). Work by 241 Chiquillo et al. (in prep.) has recently experimentally shown that both in the Caribbean and the 242 Mediterranean Seas, H. stipulacea grows better with local native species than by itself, hinting 243 to the potential mechanism of H. stipulacea's success in its new invasive habitats.

Indeed, the limited data available for year round population dynamics of *Halophila stipulacea* within the Gulf of Aqaba, where it is considered the dominant and sometimes only (Winters et
 al. 2017) scagrass species (Wahbeh 1988, Cardini et al. 2018) is worrying.

- 247 On the other hand, tropicalization (Bianchi and Morri 2003) of the Mediterranean invasive 248 habitats, accompanied by the recent doubling of the Suez Canal (Galil et al. 2015), could 249 potentially (i) facilitate the further spreading of Halophila stipulacea, (ii) enhance its ability to 250 outcompete local seagrass species (Sghaier et al. 2014) or (iii) broaden its stability to occupy 251 newly available habitat following predicted extirpation of local Mediterranean seagrass species 252 (Jordà et al. 2012). Although H. stipulacea has yet been on the main agenda of seagrass 253 research and monitoring efforts in Mediterranean waters, we emphasize that now is the time to 254 put more effort into studying and monitoring this seagrass species.
- 255 It is important to note that in this study, we used only one population from each basin and 256 visited each site only once per season. Considering the exponentially growing human pressures 257 on coastal areas, specifically in the crowded shores of Mediterranean and the northern GoA, 258 we highlight the need for coordinated monitoring (e.g. this study) and mapping efforts (e.g. 259 Winters et al. 2017) that will focus on recording changes over time and space in Halophila 260 stipulacea and associated communities in multiple sites both its native and invasive ranges. In 261 addition to field based efforts, simulated mesocosm studies answering the question about the 262 future of the seagrass H. stipulacea both natively and invasively are incredibly crucial in an 263 era of rapid global change (Oliver et al. 2018).
- 264
- 265 Funding: This work was partially funded by a short term scientific mission (STSM) awarded
- 267 European and contiguous seas = MarCons). We thank the Arava International Center for
- 268 Agriculture Training (AICAT) for giving Hung Manh Nguyen financial support during his

269	M.Sc. We thank the Mann	a Center Program for Food	Safety & Security, at the School of

- 270 Plant Sciences and Food Security Faculty of Life Sciences Tel Aviv University (TAU) for
- 271 their ongoing support for the co-op between TAU and ADSSC. We that the Israeli Ministry
- 272 of Science and Technology (MOST) for their continued support of the ADSSC.
- 273

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