

1 **Heatwaves recurrence aggravates thermal stress in the surfgrass *Phyllospadix scouleri***

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25 **ABSTRACT**

26 The surfgrass *Phyllospadix scouleri* constitutes highly productive meadows along the Pacific  
27 coast of North America – a region that has been increasingly affected by severe marine  
28 heatwaves (MHWs) in recent years. Our study assessed the effects of consecutive MHWs  
29 simulated in mesocosms on critical ecophysiological descriptors of *P. scouleri*. Generally,  
30 our results revealed a progressive deterioration of the plant overall physiological status.  
31 Surprisingly, photosynthetic parameters only indicated physiological stress once the first heat  
32 exposure ceased (i.e., recovery period). Warming induced elevated oxidative damage and a  
33 decline in nitrate uptake rates. By contrast, non-structural carbohydrates and relative growth  
34 rates remained unaffected. Our results highlight the importance of including recovery periods  
35 in this sort of experiments, as they reveal delayed stress responses. Further, the accumulative  
36 detrimental effects due to the exposure to consecutive intense MHWs indicate that these  
37 events can compromise the vitality of surfgrasses and the ecosystem services provided by  
38 their meadows.

39

40 **Keywords:** marine heatwave, consecutive, recovery, ecophysiology, seagrass, climate change

41

42 **Abbreviations:** MHWs: Marine heatwaves, Net- $P_{\max}$ : Net maximum photosynthetic rate,  
43 Gross- $P_{\max}$ : Gross maximum photosynthetic rate, R: dark respiration,  $\alpha$ : Photosynthetic  
44 efficiency,  $E_c$ : Compensation Irradiance,  $E_k$ : Saturating irradiance,  $F_v/F_m$ : Maximum  
45 quantum yield, ETR = Electron transport rate,  $\Phi_{PSII}$ : Effective quantum yield, NPQ: Non-  
46 photochemical quenching, Chl*a*: Chlorophyll *a* content, Chl*b*: Chlorophyll *b* content,  $\delta^{15}N$ :  
47 Nitrogen isotopic signal ( $^{15}N/^{14}N$ ).

## 48 1. Introduction

49 Marine ecosystems are being threatened globally by more frequent and intense marine  
50 heatwaves (MHWs) (Fox-Kemper et al., 2021). Seagrasses are ranked as one of the most  
51 valuable marine biological systems worldwide and have been severely impacted by ocean  
52 warming and MHWs globally (de los Santos et al., 2020; Strydom et al., 2020; Garrabou et  
53 al., 2022). MHWs have the potential to negatively impact seagrass vitality and community  
54 structure and cause significant die-off events, thus threatening the ecological services and  
55 goods they provide (Serrano et al., 2021; Unsworth et al., 2022).

56 The interaction between seagrasses and rising temperatures has received considerable  
57 attention in the last decade (Koch et al., 2013; Duarte et al., 2018; Nguyen et al., 2021). The  
58 tolerance of seagrasses to warming depends mainly on complex interactions among their  
59 stress responses (i.e., phenotypic plasticity) at different organizational levels (e.g., molecular,  
60 physiological, morphological, and community) (Deguette et al., 2022; Pazzaglia et al., 2021).

61 The thermal tolerance of seagrasses varies depending on the thermal evolutionary history of  
62 the species, with tropical species generally being more tolerant than temperate species  
63 (Hyndes et al., 2016). On the other hand, ecotypes and genotypes of a species may also  
64 exhibit different capacities for thermal adaptation and acclimation depending on the specific  
65 temperature regime they naturally experience in their native environment (e.g., Marín-Guirao  
66 et al., 2016, 2018; Nguyen et al., 2021b; Stipcich et al., 2022). Symptoms of metabolic stress  
67 that usually occur when warming exceeds the metabolic tolerance of plants are a decrease in  
68 photosynthetic performance, depletion of internal carbon stocks, and reduced plant growth  
69 (e.g., Collier et al., 2011; Collier & Waycott, 2014; Marín-Guirao et al., 2018).

70 The effects of MHWs on seagrasses have usually been studied in controlled experiments  
71 based on the exposure to one warming event (e.g., Costa et al., 2021; Nguyen et al., 2021a;  
72 Deguette et al., 2022; Vivanco-Bercovich et al., 2022). However, these experimental  
73 approaches overlook that MHWs can repeatedly impact seagrass meadows, as the frequency  
74 of these events is rising globally (Laufkötter et al., 2020; Fox-Kemper et al., 2021). The  
75 effects of consecutive warming events have only been addressed in a few recent manipulative  
76 studies (e.g., DuBois et al., 2020; Nguyen et al., 2020; Saha et al., 2020; Pazzaglia et al.,  
77 2022a). Pre-exposure of seagrasses to mild temperature stress could act as 'eu-stress' (*sensu*  
78 Lichtenthaler, 1998) promoting physiological strengthening and thermo-tolerance to  
79 successive MHWs (i.e., stress memory) as documented for *Posidonia australis*, *Posidonia*  
80 *oceanica* and *Zostera muelleri* (Nguyen et al., 2020; Pazzaglia et al., 2022a). Conversely,  
81 three consecutive MHWs with increasing intensity resulted in a cumulative growth  
82 weakening in *Zostera marina* (Saha et al., 2020). The intensity of the first warming event  
83 could possibly determine the magnitude and direction of seagrass responses to subsequent  
84 MHWs. Hence, assessing the effects of consecutive and intense MHWs can help to better  
85 understand the resilience of seagrasses to thermal stress associated with ongoing climate  
86 change.

87 Surfgrasses (*Phyllospadix scouleri* Hooker and *Phyllospadix torreyi* S.Watson) are the only  
88 seagrasses able to colonize wave-exposed rocky substrates (Cooper & McRoy, 1988).  
89 Surfgrasses form extensive and highly productive meadows along the Pacific coast of North  
90 America, from Alaska (USA) to Baja California Sur in Mexico (Den Hartog, 1970; Ramírez-  
91 García et al., 2002; Garcia-Pantoja et al., 2020), regulating important coastal physico-  
92 chemical and biological processes, and providing food and shelter for several marine

93 organisms (Shelton, 2010; Moulton & Hacker, 2011). The Baja California Peninsula Pacific  
94 coastline, under the southernmost influence of the California Current System (Durazo, 2015),  
95 is susceptible to drastic and unpredictable ecological and economic impacts due to climate  
96 change (Xiu et al., 2018; Sunday et al., 2022). In this region, episodic thermal anomalies such  
97 as ENSO and MHWs (e.g., “the Blob” in 2014-2016, Sen Gupta et al., 2020) have caused  
98 deleterious effects in kelp forest (Arafeh-Dalmau et al., 2019; Michaud et al., 2022), but  
99 incredibly the effects on surfgrasses have been poorly documented. For instance, Pedraza-  
100 Venegas (2019) reported the disappearance of intertidal *P. scouleri* meadows near its  
101 southern distribution limit in Baja California Sur after the incidence of strong MHWs and  
102 hurricanes. In contrast, Menge et al. (2020) reported increased growth rates with increasing  
103 intertidal water temperature on intertidal *P. scouleri* populations along the Oregon and  
104 California (USA) coastline from 2008-2013.

105 Only a few studies (Drysdale & Barbour, 1975; Drew 1979; Ruiz-Montoya et al., 2021;  
106 Vivanco-Bercovich et al., 2022) have assessed the physiological responses of *P. torreyi* under  
107 experimental warming conditions, while thermal metabolic tolerance of *P. scouleri* remains  
108 largely unknown to date. Furthermore, most studies on surfgrasses have been conducted  
109 using intertidal plants, which may respond to warming differently from subtidal plants due  
110 to the specific regimes of environmental variables (including temperature) they naturally  
111 experience. While intertidal *Phyllospadix* plants can be exposed to a temperature rise from  
112 22 to ~40°C within a few minutes-hours due to periodic tidal cycles (Ruiz-Montoya et al.,  
113 2021), subtidal plants are subjected to a much narrower range of daily temperature variation  
114 (e.g., usually < 3°C at the donor meadow of this study). The subtidal portions of the meadow  
115 are generally larger and denser than the intertidal portions (Garcia-Pantoja et al., 2020), and

116 play a critical role for the intertidal plant recruitment (Williams, 1995). Understanding the  
117 capacity of subtidal surfgrasses to withstand realistic thermal disturbance regimes associated  
118 with climate change is therefore critical for anticipating the future of these vital foundation  
119 species and their related ecosystem services.

120 In this study, we conducted a manipulative mesocosm experiment to assess the ability of  
121 subtidal plants of *P. scouleri* to cope with a realistic regime of thermal perturbations  
122 associated with climate change. The investigation examined the effects of two consecutive  
123 MHWs on a broad set of ecophysiological descriptors (photobiology, nutrient acquisition,  
124 oxidative stress, and growth) at the end of each thermal event and its respective recovery  
125 period. With this study, we aimed to provide the first insights into the effects of MHWs on  
126 subtidal *P. scouleri*.

127

## 128 2. Material and methods

### 129 2.1. Plant collection, field conditions, and experimental design

130 *Phyllospadix scouleri* was collected in August 2020 in a meadow located on Todos Santos  
131 Island (Ensenada, Baja California, Mexico, 31° 48' 25.66" N, 116° 47' 46.41" O), belonging  
132 to the Pacific Islands Biosphere Reserve (Fig. 1A-C). The meadow is located in the  
133 infralittoral zone (~5 m below MHWL) of a rocky and wave-exposed shoreline, exposed to  
134 an annual seawater temperature range between 15-20°C and episodic peaks (e.g., MHWs)  
135 reaching up to 24°C (Schlegel, 2020). Plants were detached from their substrate by slowly  
136 inserting a plastic spatula between the rock and the plant's adhesion disc (formed by roots,

137 rhizomes, and adhesive mucilage), while carefully pulling the clump of shoots to keep their  
138 clonal integrity as much as possible.

139 After collection, plants were transported in coolers (within 2 h) filled with seawater to the  
140 experimental facilities of the Instituto de Investigaciones Oceanológicas (Universidad  
141 Autónoma de Baja California). The plants were randomly allocated in a mesocosm system  
142 consisting of eight independent aquaria (60 L). Each aquarium contained 5-6 shoot clumps,  
143 which were formed by approximately 50 shoots each and were attached to one rock each to  
144 prevent them from floating. Plants were acclimated for five days at 18°C, 150-180  $\mu\text{mol}$   
145  $\text{photon m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  with a photoperiod of 14:10 (dark: light) and a salinity of 33, according to  
146 average summer values at the donor meadow. The light was provided by LED lamps (150W),  
147 while chillers and submersible quartz heaters controlled the temperature. Submersible pumps  
148 were installed in each aquarium to allow water circulation and avoid temperature gradients.  
149 Light and temperature were monitored throughout the experiment by using submersible  
150 light/temperature sensors (Onset-HOBO MX2202), and salinity and pH were monitored  
151 using a multiparameter submersible probe (HACH HQd, YSI Professional Plus). Seawater  
152 was partially replaced (50 %) every two days with filtered (1  $\mu\text{m}$ ) UV-treated seawater.

153 After the acclimation period, conditions remained unchanged in half of the tanks (Control  
154 treatment, N = 4). In contrast, the other half were subjected to a seawater warming regime  
155 consisting of two consecutive MHWs, followed by corresponding recovery periods (MHWs  
156 treatment, N = 4). The temperature of the MHWs treatment was adjusted according to the  
157 characteristics of MHWs historically recorded in Todos Santos Island (see Fig. SM 1,  
158 Supplementary material) using the Marine Heatwave Tracker (Schlegel, 2020). The  
159 experimental thermal regime included two consecutive MHWs (HW-1 and HW-2) with their

160 respective recovery periods (R-1, and R-2). For the MHWs the temperature was increased at  
161 a rate of +2°C per day and maintained for five days at the maximum temperature of 24°C.  
162 Thereafter temperature returned to 18°C (-2°C per day) for a 5-day recovery period. Plant  
163 responses were analyzed at the end of MHWs and recovery period (Fig. 1D, E). To obtain  
164 reference values for the biological status of plants in the field (Table SM 1, Supplementary  
165 material), photobiological descriptors were measured immediately after plant collection, and  
166 leaf tissues were frozen (-80°C) to perform further biological analysis following the methods  
167 described below.

168

## 169 2.2. Physiological traits and growth

170 For most biological variables, measurements were performed in two plants per aquarium and  
171 averaged to obtain a true replicate (N = 4). P-E curves and leaf growth were determined on a  
172 single shoot per aquarium, while nitrate uptake measurements were made on three shoots.  
173 All measurements were conducted on the middle section of the second mature leaf to reduce  
174 the variability of biological descriptors within/among leaves as possible.

### 175 2.2.1. Photosynthesis and Respiration (*P* vs. *E* curves)

176 Photosynthesis (*P*) and respiration (*R*) rates were determined in leaf segments using  
177 respirometers composed of 200 mL borosilicate jacketed chambers connected to a  
178 temperature-controlled circulating bath, and surrounded by four LED light sources (Fig. SM  
179 2). Oxygen evolution was measured by optodes (DP-PSt3, PreSens, Germany), connected to  
180 a fiber-optic oxygen meter (OXY4 SMA, PreSens, Germany) and controlled by software  
181 (Measurement Studio 2, PreSens, Germany). A leaf biomass/seawater volume ratio of about  
182 0.03-0.05 g DW L<sup>-1</sup> was used to ensure accurate measurements of photosynthetic rates. Leaf

183 segments were initially incubated in darkness for 10 min to determine R and then exposed to  
184 nine increasing PAR irradiance steps up to  $806 \mu\text{mol photon m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , each lasting 5 min. Light  
185 intensities within the chamber were previously calibrated using a spherical ( $4\pi$ ) quantum  
186 sensor (Biospherical Instruments; California, USA). The maximum net photosynthetic rate  
187 ( $\text{Net-P}_{\text{max}}$ ;  $\mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ DW h}^{-1}$ ) was determined by averaging the maximum values above the  
188 saturating irradiance ( $E_k = \text{net-P}_{\text{max}} / \alpha$ ;  $\mu\text{mol photon m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ). Maximum gross photosynthesis  
189 ( $\text{Gross-P}_{\text{max}}$ ;  $\mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ DW h}^{-1}$ ) was calculated as the sum of  $\text{Net-P}_{\text{max}}$  and R.  
190 Photosynthetic efficiency ( $\alpha$ ) was calculated as the slope of the regression line fitted to the  
191 initial linear part of the P vs. E curve. The compensation irradiance ( $E_c$ ;  $\mu\text{mol photon m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ )  
192 was determined as the intercept of the initial linear part of the curve on the X-axis.

### 193 2.2.2. Daily Productivity

194 A proxy of daily net-productivity (DP,  $\mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ DW day}^{-1}$ ) was calculated, considering  
195 the average light availability within the plant's canopy in the aquaria ( $\sim 100 \mu\text{mol photon m}^{-2}$   
196  $\text{ s}^{-1}$ ) and the selected photoperiod (14:10, dark: light). DP was calculated as  $[(\text{net-P}_{100} \times 10) -$   
197  $(R \times 14)]$ , where  $\text{net-P}_{100}$  is the net photosynthesis corresponding to the irradiance at  $100$   
198  $\mu\text{mol photon m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  of P-E curves.

### 199 2.2.3. Chlorophyll a fluorescence and leaf absorptance

200 The chlorophyll a fluorescence emission of PSII was measured using a portable Diving-PAM  
201 fluorometer (Walz, Germany). The leaf surface was carefully cleaned off epiphytes and held  
202 in the fluorometer DCL-8 leaf-clip holder to ensure a constant distance between the tissue  
203 and the fiber optic of the fluorometer. Maximum quantum yield ( $F_v/F_m$ ), and minimum and  
204 maximum fluorescences ( $F_0$ ,  $F_m$ ) were obtained from plants kept in darkness overnight. The  
205 exact position of the leaf where the measurements were taken was marked with small clips.

206 Values of effective quantum yield ( $\Phi_{\text{PSII}}$ ),  $F_0'$ , and  $F_m'$  were obtained at midday from light-  
207 acclimated plants and illuminated with the actinic light ( $175 \mu\text{mol photon m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) of the  
208 fluorometer. The intensity of the actinic light was adjusted to the light intensity provided by  
209 aquaria lamps. According to previous trials of induction curves, an illumination period of 90  
210 seconds was selected to ensure a steady photosynthetic state at this irradiance. Non-  
211 photochemical quenching, NPQ, was calculated as  $(F_m - F_m')/F_m'$ . Absolute ETR was  
212 calculated as  $\text{ETR} = \Phi_{\text{PSII}} \cdot 175 \cdot A \cdot 0.5$ , where A is the leaf absorptance (see below), 175  
213 is the actinic-light intensity, and 0.5 is a constant assuming that half of the incident photons  
214 is absorbed by the PSII (Beer et al., 2014). For measuring leaf absorptance, the miniature  
215 quantum sensor of the fluorometer was attached to the fluorometer clip holder. A leaf  
216 (pigmented and bleached) was positioned over the sensor. The quantum sensor recorded the  
217 actinic light emitted by the fiber optic of the fluorometer attached to the clip holder. Leaf  
218 absorptance (A) was estimated as  $A = 1 - (LT / L_0) - TW$ , where LT is the transmitted light  
219 through the leaf tissue,  $L_0$  is the total incident light emitted by the fluorometer fiber optic  
220 without leaf tissue, and TW is the transmitted light through a bleached leaf  
221 (Vásquez-Elizondo et al. 2017).

#### 222 2.2.4. Pigment content

223 Leaf pigments were extracted from 10 – 15 mg FW leaf tissue, homogenized in 100%  
224 acetone, with  $\text{MgCO}_3$  solution added to prevent the acidification of the extract (Dennison,  
225 1990). Extracts were stored at  $4^\circ\text{C}$  in the dark for 24 h. After centrifugation ( $1000 \times g$ , 10  
226 min), absorbance was measured spectrophotometrically at 470, 646, and 663 nm, using 1 mL  
227 cuvettes. The Chlorophylls *a*, *b*, and total carotenoids concentrations were calculated using  
228 the equations described by Lichtenthaler & Wellburn (1983) and expressed as  $\text{mg g}^{-1}$  FW.

229 2.2.5. *Lipid peroxidation*

230 Oxidative damage was evaluated by malondialdehyde (MDA) quantification following the  
231 thiobarbituric acid-reactive-substances (TBARS) assay, described by Hodges et al. (1999)  
232 and Correia et al. (2006). Ultrafrozen leaf tissue (0.2 g FW) was mechanically ground in 2  
233 mL 80% ethanol, centrifuged for 10 min (3000 x g, 4°C), and the supernatant was added to  
234 a solution of trichloroacetic acid (20% TCA) and thiobarbituric acid (0.5% TBA). Blanks  
235 were prepared by adding the supernatant to a solution of 20% TCA. These two solutions were  
236 heated at 90°C for 30 min, and then centrifuged again (3000 x g) for 10 min. The supernatants  
237 were extracted, and their absorbance (440, 532, and 600 nm) was determined  
238 spectrophotometrically. Lipid peroxidation was expressed as equivalents of malonil-  
239 dialdehyde (Eq MDA; molar extinction coefficient 155 mM cm<sup>-1</sup>), which were calculated  
240 using the equations in Hodges et al. (1999).

241 2.2.6. *Total phenolic content and antioxidant capacity*

242 Phenolic and antioxidant compounds were extracted from dried ground leaf tissue (0.02 g  
243 DW) in 1 mL 80% methanol in darkness for 24 h. The extract was then centrifuged at 10,000  
244 rpm for 10 min. The phenolic compound content was determined according to a modification  
245 of the Folin–Ciocalteu assay using gallic acid as standard (Singleton & Rossi 1965). The  
246 methanolic extract (0.01 mL) was diluted in 1mL distilled water (dH<sub>2</sub>O), 0.1 mL Folin–  
247 Ciocalteu reagent, and 0.3 mL dH<sub>2</sub>O saturated with NaCO<sub>3</sub>. This mixture was homogenized,  
248 heated (40°C for 3 min), and its absorbance read spectrophotometrically at 765 nm. Total  
249 phenolic content was expressed as gallic acid equivalents (mg Eq. GA g<sup>-1</sup> DW). The radical  
250 scavenging activity was quantified according to Sabeena-Farvin & Jacobsen (2013); the  
251 reaction mixture was prepared with 0.1 mL of diluted extract (1:10 with 80% methanol) and

252 1 mL of 60  $\mu\text{M}$  2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) dissolved in 90% methanol. The  
253 absorbance was measured at 517 nm 30 min after DPPH addition. The total antioxidant  
254 capacity was expressed as ascorbic acid equivalents (mg Eq. AA  $\text{g}^{-1}$  DW).

255 *2.2.7. Nitrate uptake rate, nitrogen content, and nitrogen isotopic signal*

256 The leaves from three shoots per aquarium were incubated for 30 min in independent plastic  
257 containers filled with 6 L of filtered (5  $\mu\text{m}$ ) and UV-treated seawater supplemented with  $^{15}\text{N}$   
258 tracer ( $\text{K}^{15}\text{NO}_3$  at 99%, Cambridge Isotope Laboratories) at 20  $\mu\text{M}$ . This nitrate concentration  
259 was selected according to the maximum values of this nutrient during upwelling near the  
260 collection site (Espinosa-Carreón et al., 2001). Incubations were performed in large  
261 incubators under constant temperature and irradiance, corresponding to each treatment's  
262 conditions. Magnetic stirrers constantly homogenized the tracer in the seawater. A leaf  
263 biomass/seawater volume ratio of 0.3 g FW  $\text{L}^{-1}$  was used in each incubation to avoid a  
264 decrease in nitrate concentration and thus, underestimation of N-uptake. At the end of the  
265 incubations, leaf tissues were rinsed with deionized water to remove the tracer adsorbed to  
266 their surfaces and dried at 60°C until constant weight. After that, samples were ground to a  
267 fine powder for isotope enrichment analyses. Isotopic determinations were performed at UC-  
268 Davis Stable Isotope Facility using an elemental analyzer (EA) interfaced with a continuous  
269 flow isotope ratio mass spectrometer (IRMS). Nitrate uptake rates (expressed as  $\mu\text{mol N g}^{-1}$   
270 DW  $\text{h}^{-1}$ ) were calculated using the equations shown in Sandoval-Gil et al. (2015). Nitrogen  
271 content and nitrogen isotopic signal,  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ , were analyzed similarly in leaf tissues not exposed  
272 to the tracer.

273 2.2.8. *Non-structural carbohydrates*

274 Total soluble non-structural carbohydrates (free sugars and starch) were determined using  
275 the colorimetric phenol-sulfuric acid method (Dubois et al., 1956), with glucose as the  
276 standard. Leaf tissues were oven-dried at 60°C until constant weight and ground to a fine  
277 powder. The powder was digested in 0.1 N HCl (60 °C, 3 h), centrifuged (4000 x g, for 5  
278 min), and the supernatant was mixed with 3% phenol and concentrated sulfuric acid.  
279 Absorbance was measured spectrophotometrically at 490 nm. Non-structural carbohydrate  
280 content was expressed in mg g<sup>-1</sup> DW.

281 2.2.9. *Relative leaf growth rate*

282 At the beginning of each simulated MHW (HW-1 and HW-2) and each recovery phase (R-1  
283 and R-2), the leaves of one shoot per aquarium were marked following the hole-punching  
284 method adapted from Zieman (1974). All marked shoots were collected at the end of each  
285 experimental period, and leaf segments below the mark (i.e., newly formed tissue) were dried  
286 and weighted for all leaves of each shoot. Shoot growth was expressed as relative to the total  
287 shoot biomass or relative leaf growth rate (RGR; mg g<sup>-1</sup> DW day<sup>-1</sup>).

288 2.3. *Statistical analysis*

289 Two-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to test for the main and interactive  
290 effects of the factors Treatment (“Trt.”, 2 levels: Control and MHWs) and “Time” (“Time”,  
291 4 levels: HW-1, R-1, HW-2, R-2) for each biological descriptor. In case of significant  
292 interaction ( $P < 0.05$ ), Tukey HSD *post-hoc* tests were used to compare individual means  
293 between the Control group and the MHWs group at each sampling time. Data that did not  
294 meet the assumptions of normality (Shapiro-Wilk normality test,  $P > 0.05$ ) or homogeneity  
295 of variances (Bartlett test,  $P > 0.05$ ) were corrected with logarithmic transformations (i.e.,

296  $E_k$ ,  $E_c$ , phenolic content, nitrate uptake). If the data remained heteroscedastic (R,  $\Phi_{PSII}$ , NPQ,  
297 lipid peroxidation, and  $\delta^{15}N$ ), the model was adjusted with “White-corrected” covariance  
298 matrices (Long & Ervin, 2000). Univariate analyses were performed using the statistical  
299 software R (R CoreTeam 2020).

300 A Permutational Multivariate Analysis of Variance (PERMANOVA) was performed to test  
301 if the different temperature treatments led to statistically significant changes in the biology  
302 of *P. scouleri*. Analyses were based on the Euclidean distance matrix of normalized data.  
303 PERMANOVA tested for the main and interactive effects of the fixed factor “Treatment”  
304 (“Trt.”, 2 levels: Control vs. MHWs) and the fixed factor “Time” (4 levels: HW-1, R-1, HW-  
305 2, R-2). Pair-wise comparisons were performed between different Time levels for each  
306 Treatment, where the P-values were corrected by Monte Carlo test and Bonferroni  
307 adjustment. PERMANOVA was run with PRIMER 6 (Anderson et al., 2008).

308

### 309 3. Results

310 PERMANOVA Multivariate analyses indicated that the overall response of *P. scouleri* was  
311 significantly different among treatments and sampling times (Table 1). Plants exposed to  
312 warming (i.e., MHWs treatment) presented a significant variation of their physiology among  
313 sampling times. In contrast, physiological changes in the control plants were not significant  
314 (Pairwise PERMANOVA tests between sampling times). Also, significantly different  
315 physiological responses between treatments were observed at the end of the experiment (i.e.,  
316 R-2) (Pairwise PERMANOVA tests between treatments).

317 In plants exposed to MHWs, maximum photosynthetic capacities (gross- and net- $P_{\max}$ ; Fig.  
318 2A, B) and  $E_k$  (Fig. 2C) progressively decreased by ~50 % from HW-1 to R-2 ( $P < 0.001$ ,  
319 Table SM 2). No significant differences were found for the  $E_c$  (Fig. 2D), photosynthetic  
320 efficiency ( $\alpha$ , Fig. 2E), and R (Fig. 2F) (Table SM 2).

321 Maximum photochemical efficiency ( $F_v/F_m$ , Fig. 3A), effective quantum yield ( $\Phi_{PSII}$ , Fig.  
322 3B) and electron transport rate (ETR, Fig. 3C) significantly decreased in plants after recovery  
323 phases (Table SM 2,  $P < 0.05$ ), showing the highest reduction at the last recovery period (R-  
324 2), when those variables presented values 10, 36 and 31 % lower than the control,  
325 respectively. Conversely, NPQ in warmed plants nearly doubled in both recovery periods (R-  
326 1, R-2), compared to control plants (Fig. 3D, Table SM 2,  $P < 0.001$ ).

327 Chl $a$  and carotenoids significantly increased by 30 % and 35 % in plants exposed to the first  
328 heatwave (HW-1) with respect to the control (Fig. SM 3A, C; Table SM 2,  $P < 0.05$ ). In  
329 contrast, Chl $a$  and  $b$  were in lower concentration in warmed plants at the second heatwave  
330 (HW-2) (Fig. SM 3A, B,  $P < 0.05$ ). Values of the Chl  $b/a$  ratio were higher in warmed plants  
331 than in the control at the first HW, but lower during the second recovery period (Fig. SM 3C,  
332 Table SM 2,  $P < 0.05$ ).

333 In warmed plants, lipid peroxidation was significantly higher (Fig. 4A, Table SM 2,  $P <$   
334  $0.001$ ). The most significant differences occurred during both experimental heatwaves (an  
335 increase by 22 % in HW-1 and by 49 % in HW-2) (Fig. 4A). Conversely, phenolic content  
336 and antioxidant capacity were lower in warmed plants (Fig. 4B, C, Table SM 2). Phenolic  
337 content decreased by 22 % in R-2 and 32 % in HW-2 compared to the control (Fig. 4B),  
338 while antioxidant capacity was 10 % - 30 % lower during the entire experiment (Fig. 4C).

339 Nitrate uptake rates were substantially reduced (Table SM 2,  $P < 0.001$ ) in plants exposed to  
340 MHW with respect to the control in all sampling times, and the differences were more  
341 significant in HW-1 and R-2 (-80 %, Fig. 5A). There were no significant differences between  
342 treatments for leaf N-content (Fig. 5B). Values of  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  progressively increased towards the  
343 end of the experiment in warmed plants respect to control values (Fig. 5C, Table SM 2,  $P <$   
344 0.01).

345 The content of non-structural carbohydrates (Fig. 6A) was not different between control and  
346 MHW plants (Table SM 2). In contrast, the MHW treatment significantly affected the daily  
347 productivity (Fig. 6B, Table SM 2,  $P < 0.001$ ). Values were lower (by 29 % – 52 %) in  
348 warmed plants compared to control, with the largest differences found for R-2 (Fig. 6B).  
349 Relative growth rate was not significantly affected by treatments (Fig. 6C).

#### 350 4. Discussion

351 The results of this study showed that recurrent and intense MHWs (+6°C) can induce a  
352 progressive ecophysiological debilitation of subtidal *P. scouleri* plants, which was especially  
353 evident once exposures to warming ceased (i.e., recovery phases) (Fig. 7). Particularly,  
354 MHWs promoted a substantial reduction of nitrogen uptake capabilities and led to oxidative  
355 damage and exhaustion of antioxidant responses. Adverse effects on plant photosynthesis  
356 were most evident during the recovery phases, indicating a time lag in the response of *P.*  
357 *scouleri* to increased temperature. These lag effects, which appear to be more intense during  
358 the second heat wave, decreased seagrass daily productivity. Overall, our results indicate that  
359 repeated exposure to MHWs can overcome the thermal tolerance and resilience of the  
360 surfgrass *P. scouleri*.

361 *Phyllospadix scouleri* did not show signs of physiological stress at the photosynthetic level  
362 (i.e.,  $P_{\max}$ ,  $E_k$ ,  $E_c$ ,  $F_v/F_m$ ,  $\Phi_{\text{PSII}}$ , ETR) during the first experimental warming (i.e., HW-1, Figs.  
363 2, 3). Similarly, Vivanco-Bercovich et al. (2022) found that maximum photosynthetic  
364 capacities and photochemical efficiency can be maintained (or even enhanced) in the  
365 surfgrass *Phyllospadix torreyi* exposed to warming simulating a MHW. Within metabolic  
366 tolerance ranges, warming can stimulate photosynthesis by enhancing the enzymatic activity  
367 and facilitating the mobility of proteins within the thylakoid membranes (Masini & Manning,  
368 1997; Beca-Carretero et al., 2018). However, in our study, *P. scouleri* subjected to  
369 consecutive MHWs exhibited delayed and progressive declines in its photosynthetic  
370 performance. Values of net- $P_{\max}$ , ETR,  $F_v/F_m$  and  $\Phi_{\text{PSII}}$  mostly dropped in plants recovering  
371 from each experimental warming event, reaching minimum values in the second recovery  
372 phase, R-2. For instance, the  $F_v/F_m$  dropped from ~0.76 in HW-1 to ~0.65 in R-2, probably  
373 reflecting the accumulation of heat-induced damage on the PSII. Beyond metabolic thermal  
374 resistance, heat stress can directly affect the structure and functionality of the PSII by  
375 increasing the fluidity of thylakoid membranes and dislodging key proteins (Mathur et al.,  
376 2014). Heat can induce the dissociation of its manganese cluster oxygen-evolving complex  
377 of PSII (Mathur et al., 2014), hamper reaction centers functionality due to the thermolability  
378 of the D1 protein (Rokka et al., 2000), and reduce the quantum efficiency by separating  
379 reaction centers from the light-harvesting complexes, thus blocking energy transfer and  
380 decelerating electron transport carriers (Briantais et al., 1996; Pospíšil & Tyystjärvi, 1999).  
381 These and other potential heat-induced alterations along downstream photo-assimilation  
382 processes (e.g., carbon fixation/assimilation) likely contributed to the diminished  
383 photosynthetic capacity observed, as reported for other seagrasses (e.g., Marín-Guirao et al.,  
384 2016; Costa et al., 2021; Deguette et al., 2022). On the contrary, MHW had less impact on

385 pigments concentrations (Chla and Chlb, Fig. SM 3), and therefore, the light-harvesting  
386 capacity did not apparently contribute to the diminished photosynthesis.

387 Overall, the lowered photosynthetic capacities in plants repeatedly exposed to warming  
388 indicate a progressive deterioration of the photosynthetic apparatus. Interestingly, the  
389 photosynthetic stress was mainly manifested during the recovery periods (Fig. 7). Similar  
390 delayed thermal stress responses have been reported for other seagrass species such as  
391 *Cymodocea nodosa* and *Zostera marina* (Franssen et al., 2011; Winters et al., 2011;  
392 Jueterbock et al., 2020; Deguette et al., 2022), likely resulting from the complex interactions  
393 among photoprotection mechanisms, metabolic compensation strategies, and photosystem  
394 repair cycles (Allakhverdiev et al., 2008). Supporting this notion, the photoprotective  
395 mechanism known as non-photochemical quenching (NPQ) was uniquely activated in *P.*  
396 *scouleri* plants that had recovered from warming. NPQ is a mechanism through which energy  
397 is dissipated as heat through the xanthophylls cycle. Its activation post-heat stress conditions  
398 has been documented in *P. torreyi* in the intertidal zone (Ruiz-Montoya et al., 2021), as well  
399 as in other seagrass species (Chartrand et al., 2018; Ontoria et al., 2019).

400 The photosynthetic and photoprotective responses of *P. scouleri* were consistent with  
401 oxidative stress responses (Fig. 4). Oxidative damage related to the peroxidation of  
402 membrane phospholipids by reactive oxygen species (ROS) increased in plants at HW-1 and  
403 HW-2. Similar oxidative damage was recently reported for intertidal *P. torreyi* plants facing  
404 extreme warming and desiccation during low tide (Ruiz-Montoya et al., 2021). Surpassing  
405 antioxidant responses, ROS accumulation can damage different cellular components (e.g.,  
406 proteins, chloroplast membranes, DNA), and inhibit the *de novo* synthesis of D1 protein,  
407 leading to cellular death (Apel & Hirt, 2004; Sharma et al., 2012). Our results showed that

408 plants exposed to MHWs exhibited reduced total phenolic content and antioxidant capacities,  
409 indicating a potential decrease in their antioxidant defense mechanisms and ROS scavenging  
410 activity.

411 Nitrate uptake rate was another physiological process strongly affected by MHWs in *P.*  
412 *scouleri* (Fig. 5A). The incorporation and assimilation of nitrate include highly energy-  
413 demanding reactions, even competing with other metabolic processes for photosynthate C-  
414 skeletons and metabolic energy (Touchette & Burkholder, 2000). The diminished  
415 photosynthetic capabilities can thus restrict the potential for nitrate uptake in *P. scouleri*. This  
416 condition limits the utilization of this primary source of N fueled by upwellings in this region  
417 (Sandoval-Gil et al., 2019), as documented for other marine macrophytes affected by MHWs  
418 (Giant kelp, Sánchez-Barredo et al., 2020). Other works have reported the downregulation  
419 of genes related to nitrate uptake and assimilation (Pazzaglia et al., 2022b), and an alteration  
420 of the activity of nitrate assimilatory enzymes (Touchette & Burkholder, 2000) in seagrasses  
421 facing metabolic imbalances related to heat stress. However, enriched nitrogen isotopic  
422 signal (i.e., higher  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ ), and the unaltered N-content (always higher to the N-limiting level  
423 of 1.8 % DW; Duarte 1990) found in these plants contrasted with the drop in nitrate  
424 acquisition, because the low N-uptake should led to higher discrimination against  $^{15}\text{N}$  and  
425 reduced internal N. Likely, warming could alter other processes not assessed in our study  
426 (e.g., mobilization of N-internal resources, N-exudation rates, the acquisition of other N  
427 forms) decisive for the whole-plant nitrogen budget (e.g., Alcoverro et al., 2000; Martin et  
428 al., 2018; Alexandre et al., 2020).

429 The reduced photosynthetic performance of plants repeatedly exposed to warming caused a  
430 decline in their net productivity (Fig. 6B) and C-unbalance (i.e., lower photosynthetic C-

431 gains vs. respiratory C-losses). However, leaf growth rates and non-structural carbohydrates  
432 (assumed as primary C-internal reserves) remained almost unaltered. This suggests that *P.*  
433 *scouleri* was able to mobilize C-reserves from other vegetative compartments (e.g., rhizomes,  
434 old leaves) to maintain plant growth, or that the experimental time in our study was not  
435 enough to detect potential growth reductions. The regulation of R (respiration) and the  
436 unaltered values of the compensation irradiance ( $E_c$ ) and photosynthetic efficiency ( $\alpha$ )  
437 probably contributed to prolonging internal carbon storage and growth, optimizing the light  
438 utilization by young leaf tissue within the canopy (Enríquez et al., 2019). Because of leaf  
439 self-shading, light can be drastically attenuated within surfgrass canopies (up to ~90 %; Ruiz-  
440 Montoya et al., 2021), and thus sub-saturating irradiances can critically contribute to the  
441 whole-plant carbon economy (Enríquez & Pantoja-Reyes, 2005; Enríquez et al., 2019). The  
442 regulation of leaf R is critical for seagrasses facing heat stress (Marín-Guirao et al., 2016;  
443 2018), and it could be especially relevant for those with high above/below biomass ratio,  
444 such as surfgrasses (Garcia-Pantoja et al., 2020).

445 An increasing frequency in MHWs, as predicted for the near future (Laukötter et al., 2020;  
446 Fox-Kemper et al., 2021), will have detrimental effects for *P. scouleri* performance due to  
447 the accumulation of thermal-stress-induced effects. These seagrass species have been  
448 scarcely studied despite their remarkable ecological relevance along the Pacific coast of  
449 North America. During the experimental exposure to two consecutive MHWs, fast-  
450 responsive traits, such as those related to photosynthesis, nitrate acquisition, and oxidative  
451 damage, revealed a progressive deterioration of the plant's overall physiological status.  
452 Contrastingly, variables with slower response time (e.g., internal nutrient resources, leaf  
453 growth) remained constant throughout the experiment, indicating that carbon reserves were

454 not exhausted within our experimental timeframe. Furthermore, most of the stress effects and  
455 acclimation responses were manifested once heat stress ceased, thus demonstrating the  
456 importance of including recovery periods in future experimental approaches.

457 The accentuated physiological stress after the impact of the second heatwave demonstrated  
458 cumulative detrimental effects. Though we did not include a real control for assessing the  
459 performance of non-primed plants exposed to the second heatwave, our results seem to  
460 contrast with other studies, where physiological tolerance to warming was enhanced in plants  
461 pre-exposed to heat (Nguyen et al., 2020; Pazzaglia et al., 2022a). This discrepancy could  
462 also be associated with species-specific thermal tolerance ranges and different experimental  
463 conditions among studies (e.g., intensity of the first warming exposure, rate of temperature  
464 increase, duration of recovery periods). Therefore, the direction and magnitude of the effects  
465 of MHWs on seagrass performance will be defined by the frequency and intensity of the  
466 consecutive warming events. Manipulating these properties for the first warming event could  
467 help to identify temperature thresholds conditioning the stimulation of physiological  
468 “hardening” (or “stress memory”) or the accumulation of stress (or metabolic weakening).

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## 785 6. Acknowledgments

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## 789 7. Figure legends

790 **Figure 1.** The unaltered donor meadow of *Phyllospadix scouleri* is located at Todos Santos  
791 Island, Baja California, Mexico (A, B and C, red dot), where seawater temperature was  
792 monitored with sensors *in situ* before and during the experiment (D, black line). Seawater  
793 temperature at the mesocosm was also recorded (D, blue and red lines). The panel E shows  
794 a schematic representation of the experimental design, which consisted of one treatment  
795 (MHWs) with two consecutive warm periods (24°C) succeeded by recovery periods (18°C).  
796 A control treatment was set with constant temperature (C - 18°C). As indicated by black or  
797 red circles, biological descriptors were determined at the end of each experimental period  
798 (HW-1, R-1, HW-2, R-2).

799

800 **Figure 2. Parameters derived from photosynthesis-irradiance curves** determined for *P.*  
801 *scouleri* in response to the temperature treatments. The treatment of MHWs (red line)  
802 included two consecutive heatwaves of 24°C (red filled circles, HW-1 and HW-2) and their  
803 respective recovery periods at 18°C (red hollow circles, R-1 and R-2). A Control treatment  
804 (black line) was maintained at a constant 18°C during the entire experiment. Values are  
805 means and standard errors (N = 4). The significance of the main effects from Treatment (Trt.)  
806 and Time and their interaction term (Two-way ANOVA) is indicated at the bottom left corner

807 of each graph. In case of significant interaction, the significance of paired comparisons  
808 (Tukey HSD *post-hoc* test) between treatments at each sampling time is indicated with  
809 asterisks on top of the relevant sampling times. \*P < 0.05, \*\*P < 0.01, \*\*\*P < 0.001, n.s.: P  
810 > 0.1 (For complete results, see Table SM 2). (A) Net-P<sub>max</sub>: Net maximum photosynthetic  
811 rate, (B) Gross- P<sub>max</sub>: Gross maximum photosynthetic rate, (C) E<sub>k</sub>: Saturation Irradiance, (D)  
812 E<sub>c</sub>: Compensation Irradiance, (E) α: Photosynthetic efficiency, (F) R: Respiration rate.

813

814 **Figure 3. Chlorophyll *a* fluorescence parameters** measured in *P. scouleri* in response to  
815 two temperature treatments (MHWs in red, Control in black) along four sampling times  
816 (HW-1, R-1, HW-2, R-2). The treatment of MHWs (red line) included two consecutive  
817 heatwaves of 24°C (red filled circles, HW-1 and HW-2) and their respective recovery periods  
818 at 18°C (red hollow circles, R-1 and R-2). A Control treatment (black line) was maintained  
819 at a constant 18°C during the entire experiment. Values are means and standard errors (N =  
820 4). See further details of statistical analyses in the legend of Fig. 2. (A) F<sub>v</sub>/F<sub>m</sub>: Maximum  
821 photochemical efficiency, (B) Φ<sub>PSII</sub>: Effective photochemical efficiency, (C) ETR: Electron  
822 transport rate, (D) NPQ: Non-photochemical quenching.

823

824 **Figure 4. Lipid peroxidation (A), total phenolic content (B) and total antioxidant**  
825 **capacity (C)** determined in *P. scouleri* leaves in response to two temperature treatments  
826 (MHWs in red, Control in black) along four sampling times (HW-1, R-1, HW-2, R-2). The  
827 treatment of MHWs (red line) included two consecutive heatwaves of 24°C (red filled circles,  
828 HW-1 and HW-2) and their respective recovery periods at 18°C (red hollow circles, R-1 and  
829 R-2). A Control treatment (black line) was maintained at a constant 18°C during the entire

830 experiment. Values are means and standard errors (N = 4). See further details of statistical  
831 analyses in the legend of Fig. 2.

832

833 **Figure 5. Nitrate uptake rate (A), nitrogen content (B) and isotopic ratio of nitrogen (C)**

834 determined in *P. scouleri* leaves in response to two temperature treatments (MHWs in red,

835 Control in black) along four sampling times (HW-1, R-1, HW-2, R-2). The treatment of

836 MHWs (red line) included two consecutive heatwaves of 24°C (red filled circles, HW-1 and

837 HW-2) and their respective recovery periods at 18°C (red hollow circles, R-1 and R-2). A

838 Control treatment (black line) was maintained at a constant 18°C during the entire

839 experiment. Values are means and standard errors (N = 4). See further details of statistical

840 analyses in the legend of Fig. 2.

841

842 **Figure 6. Non-structural carbohydrates (A), daily productivity (B) and relative growth**

843 **rate (C)** determined in *P. scouleri* leaves in response to two temperature treatments (MHWs

844 in red, Control in black) along four sampling times (HW-1, R-1, HW-2, R-2 The treatment

845 of MHWs (red line) included two consecutive heatwaves of 24°C (red filled circles, HW-1

846 and HW-2) and their respective recovery periods at 18°C (red hollow circles, R-1 and R-2).

847 A Control treatment (black line) was maintained at a constant 18°C during the entire

848 experiment. Values are means and standard errors (N = 4). See further details of statistical

849 analyses in the legend of Fig. 2.

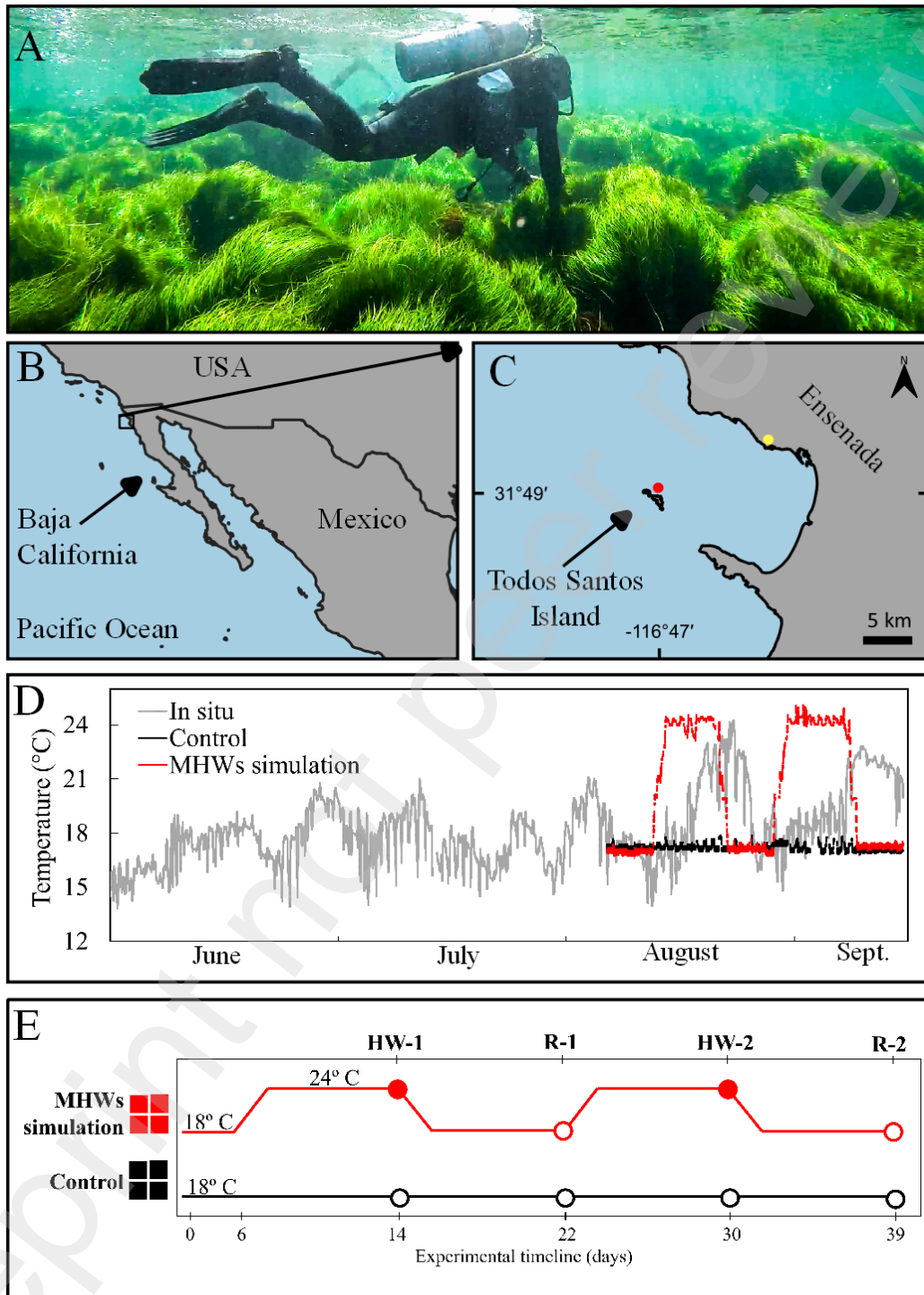
850

851 **Figure 7. A graphical representation** that summarizes the main responses and effects

852 observed in *P. scouleri* plants after being exposed to two consecutive heatwaves (HW-1 and

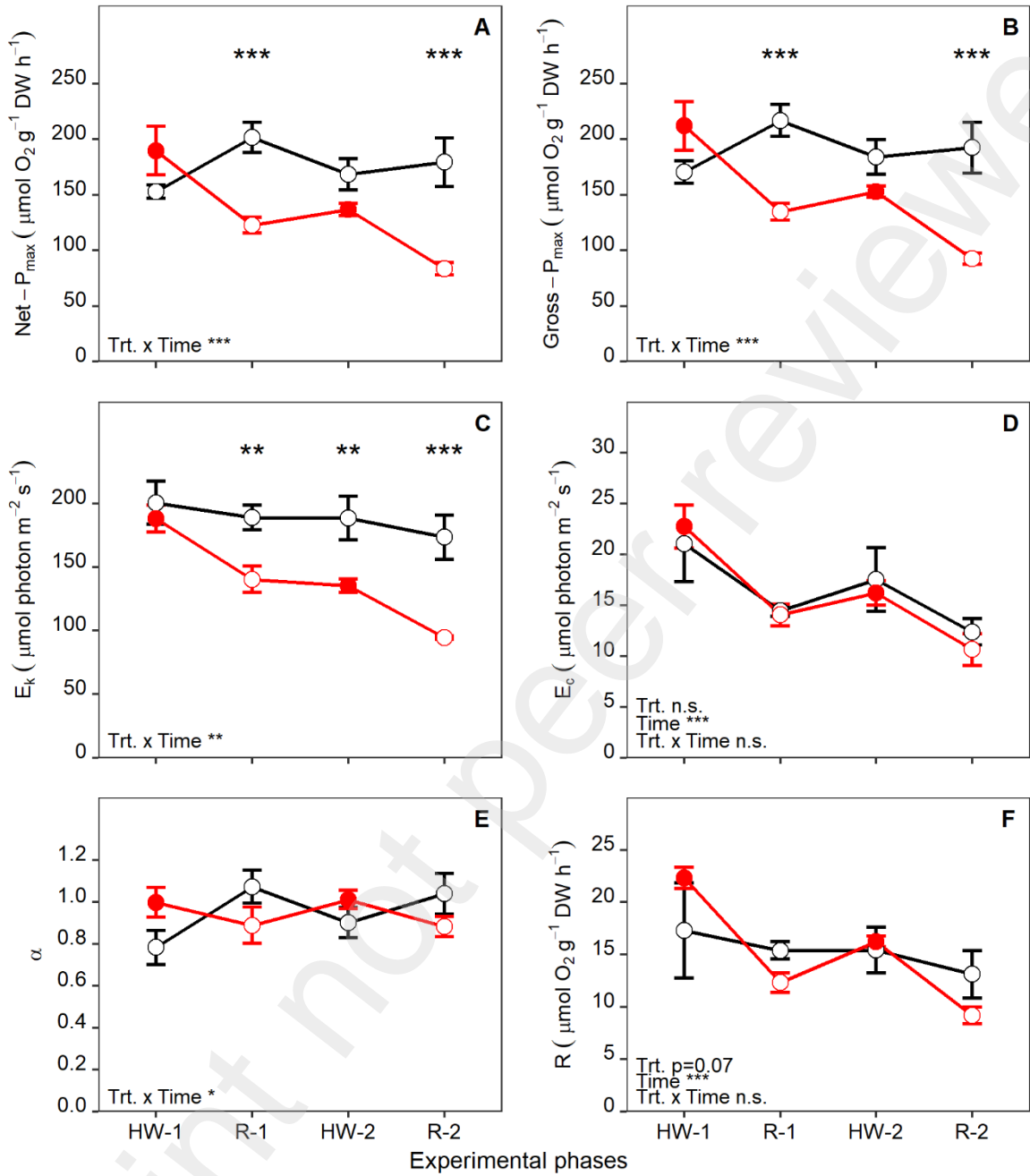
853 HW-2) with recovery periods (R-1 and R-2). The behavior of general physiological

854 processes/features (bold letters and vertical arrows) is based on the measurements of  
855 representative biological descriptors (italic letters). Only biological variables that showed  
856 statistically significant changes were considered (Two-way ANOVA with significant  
857 interaction term and *post-hoc* Tukey-HSD test with  $P < 0.05$ ). Gross-Pmax: Gross maximum  
858 photosynthetic capacity, Net-Pmax: Net maximum photosynthetic capacity,  $E_k$ : Saturation  
859 irradiance,  $F_v/F_m$ : Maximum quantum yield,  $\Phi_{PSII}$ : Effective quantum yield, ETR: Electron  
860 transport rate, NPQ: Non-photochemical quenching, N (% DW): Nitrogen content, NSC:  
861 Non-structural carbohydrates, RGR: Relative growth rate.



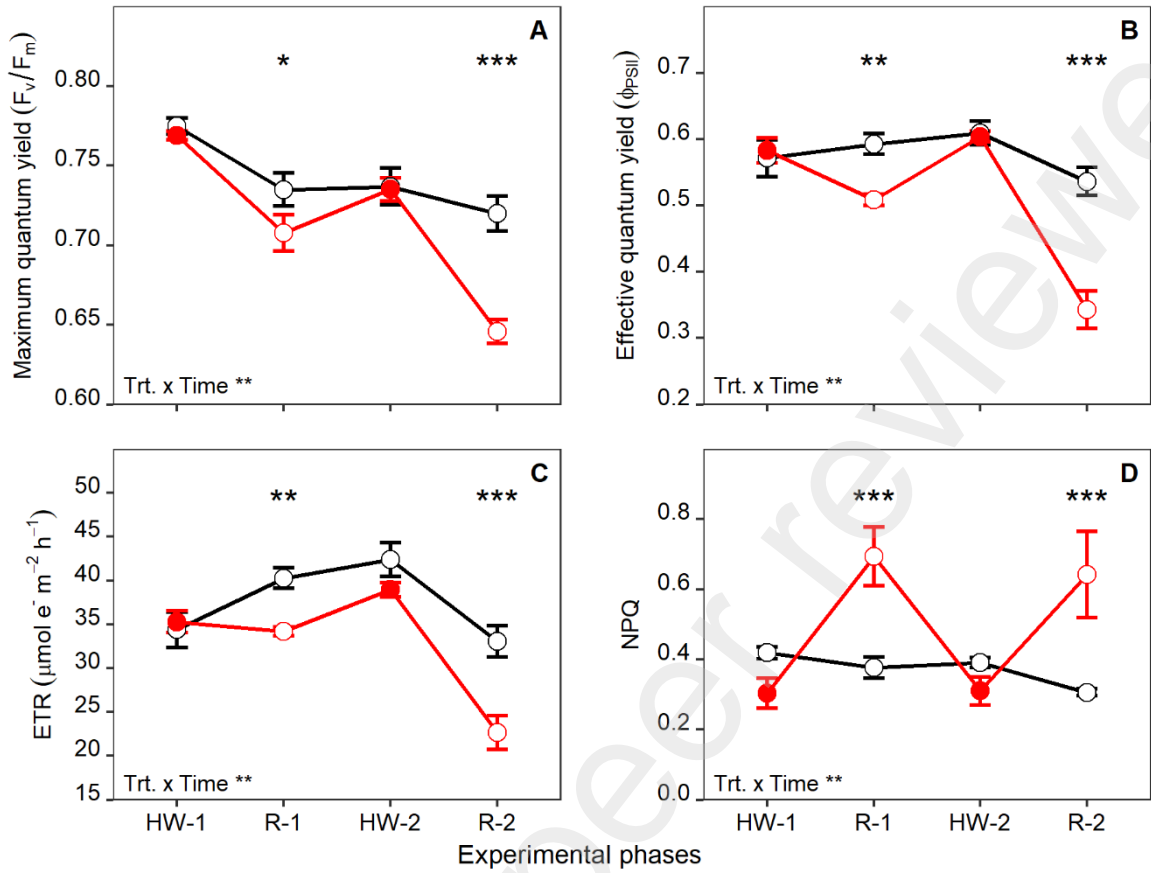
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864 Fig. 1.



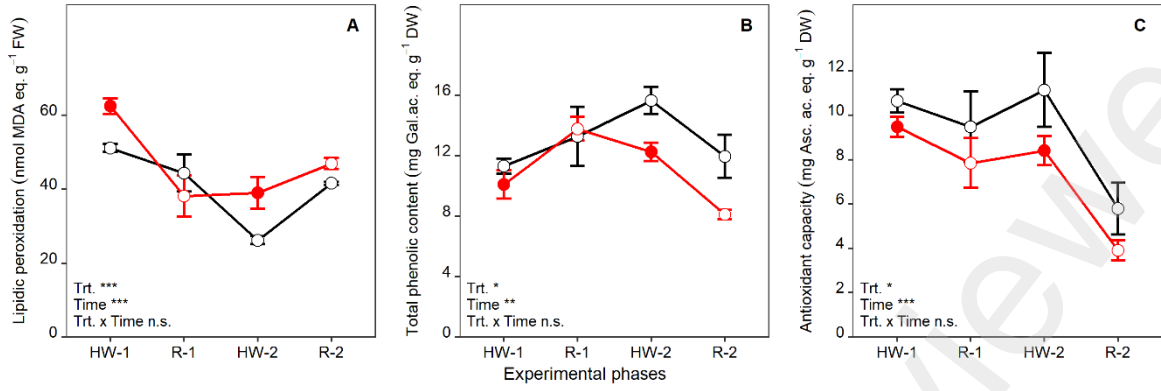
865

866 Fig. 2.



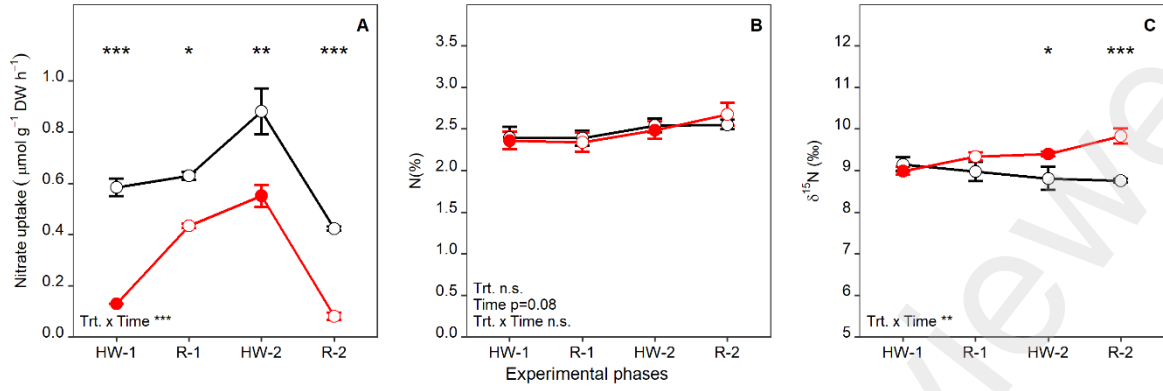
867

868 Fig. 3



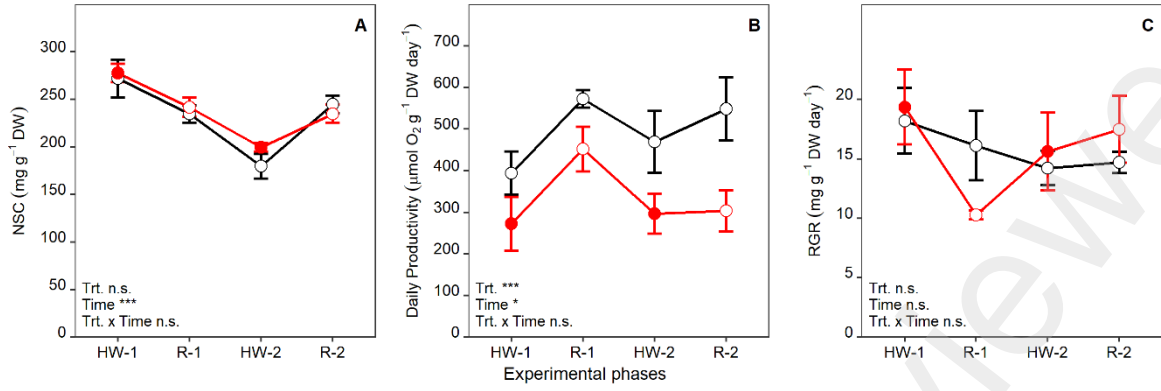
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870 Fig. 4.



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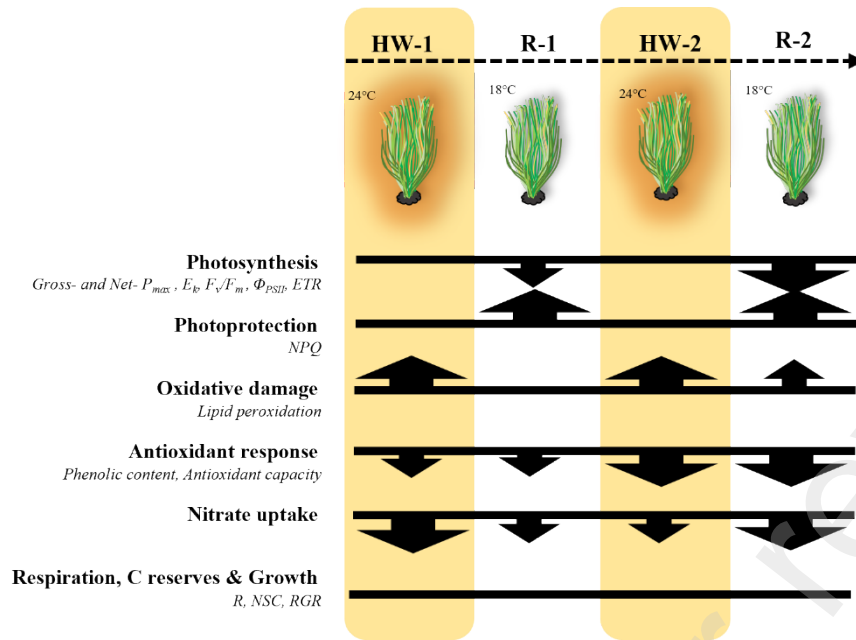
872 Fig. 5.



873

874 Fig. 6.

875



876

877 Fig. 7.

878 9. Tables

879 **Table 1.** Permutational analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) applied to the physiological  
 880 responses of *Phyllospadix scouleri* to two temperature treatments (MHWs and Control), with  
 881 four sampling times (HW-1, R-1, HW-2, R-2). The treatment MHWs included two  
 882 consecutive heatwaves of 24°C (HW-1 and HW-2) and their respective recovery periods at  
 883 18°C (R-1 and R-2). A reference group of plants (Control) was maintained at a constant  
 884 temperature of 18°C during the experiment. In the case of paired comparisons, the  
 885 Bonferroni adjustment was applied. P values in bold text indicate statistical significance at P  
 886 < 0.05.

<b>Main test</b>				
Source	df	MS	Pseudo-F	P
Treatment	3	81	6	<b>0.001</b>
Time	1	87	7	<b>0.001</b>
Treatment * Time	3	41	3	<b>0.001</b>
Residuals	23	12		
<b>Pairwise tests</b>				
<i>Between treatments for each sampling time</i>				
	HW-1	R-1	HW-2	R-2
C x MHWs	0.256	0.092	0.176	<b>0.048</b>
<i>Between sampling times for each treatment</i>				
	C	MHWs		
HW-1 x R-1	0.330	<b>0.030</b>		
HW-1 x HW-2	0.186	<b>0.036</b>		
HW-1 x R-2	0.222	<b>0.012</b>		
R-1 x HW-2	0.498	0.204		
R-1 x R-2	2.214	0.078		
HW-2 x R-2	0.228	<b>0.018</b>		

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