

Annual plankton community metabolism in estuarine and coastal waters in Perth (Western Australia)

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The planktonic metabolic balance, that is the balance between gross primary production (GPP) and community respiration (CR), was determined in Matilda Bay (estuarine) and Woodman Point (coastal) in Perth, Western Australia. The rates of net community production (NCP = GPP - CR) and the ratio between GPP and CR (P/R) were assessed to evaluate whether the metabolic balance in the two coastal locations tend to be net autotrophic (production exceeding community respiration) or net heterotrophic (respiration exceeding production). We also analyzed environmental variability by measuring temperature, salinity, heterotrophic bacterial abundance and chlorophyll *a* concentration. Samples were collected fortnightly from March to October of 2014. During the study period the metabolic rates were three times higher in Matilda Bay than in Woodman Point. The predominant metabolism was the net autotrophic at both sites with P/R ratios higher than one in the majority of the sampling dates. In Matilda Bay the metabolic rates were negatively correlated with salinity and positively with chlorophyll *a*. In Woodman Point only the GPP was positively correlated with chlorophyll *a*. The positive correlation between P/R ratio and GPP in Matilda Bay and the positive correlations between the metabolic rates and chlorophyll *a* suggest that factors controlling autotrophic processes are modulating the planktonic metabolic balance in the coastal marine ecosystem in Perth. Not significant correlations were found between the metabolic rates and the temperature and heterotrophic bacterial abundance. However, in Matilda Bay the metabolic rates were negatively correlated with salinity, denoting river dynamics influence. The net autotrophic metabolic balance indicates that in both ecosystems planktonic communities are acting as a sink of CO₂ and as a source of organic matter and oxygen to the system and are able to export organic matter to other ecosystems.

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15

16 Abstract

17

18 The planktonic metabolic balance that is the balance between gross primary production (GPP)
19 and community respiration (CR) was determined in Matilda Bay (estuarine) and Woodman Point
20 (coastal) in Perth, Western Australia. The rates of net community production ($NCP = GPP - CR$)
21 and the ratio between GPP and CR (P/R) were assessed to evaluate whether the metabolic
22 balance in the two coastal locations tend to be net autotrophic (production exceeding community
23 respiration) or net heterotrophic (respiration exceeding production). We also analyzed
24 environmental variability by measuring temperature, salinity, heterotrophic bacterial abundance
25 and chlorophyll *a* concentration. Samples were collected fortnightly from March to October of
26 2014. During the study period the metabolic rates were three times higher in Matilda Bay than in
27 Woodman Point. The predominant metabolism was the net autotrophic at both sites with P/R
28 ratios higher than one in the majority of the sampling dates. In Matilda Bay the metabolic rates
29 were negatively correlated with salinity and positively with chlorophyll *a*. In Woodman Point
30 only the GPP was positively correlated with chlorophyll *a*. The positive correlation between P/R
31 ratio and GPP in Matilda Bay and the positive correlations between the metabolic rates and
32 chlorophyll *a* suggest that factors controlling autotrophic processes are modulating the
33 planktonic metabolic balance in the coastal marine ecosystem in Perth. Not significant
34 correlations were found between the metabolic rates and the temperature and heterotrophic
35 bacterial abundance. However, in Matilda Bay the metabolic rates were negatively correlated
36 with salinity, denoting river dynamics influence. The net autotrophic metabolic balance indicates
37 that in both ecosystems planktonic communities are acting as a sink of CO_2 and as a source of
38 organic matter and oxygen to the system and are able to export organic matter to other
39 ecosystems.

40

41

42 **Introduction**

43

44 Plankton metabolism is a fundamental property of marine ecosystem driving the flux of gases
45 and the transference of organic matter to the food web (Duarte et al. 2011). The metabolism of
46 plankton communities in the open ocean is in approximate balance, i.e. with gross primary
47 production (GPP) similar to community respiration (R) and a P/R ration close to 1.0, or
48 experiences small deviations from this balance (Williams et al. 2013, Duarte et al. 2013),
49 because deviations from such balance require external inputs of nutrients or organic carbon,
50 which are small in the open ocean. In contrast, coastal plankton communities, which typically
51 present higher metabolic rates (Duarte and Agustí, 1998), may present large deviations from
52 metabolic balance with either excess respiration over production when the ecosystem receives
53 large inputs of labile organic carbon (e.g. Mediterranean coastal areas, Duarte et al., 2004,
54 Vidussi et al., 2011) or gross primary production in excess of respiration when the ecosystem
55 receives large inputs of dissolved inorganic nutrients (e.g. Agusti et al., 2004).

56

57 The metabolic balance of coastal ecosystems plays an important role in determining their role as
58 CO₂ sources or sinks. What the role of coastal ecosystems is as CO₂ sources or sinks is uncertain
59 (Borges 2005, Cai 2011). Recently, a contrasting role between continental shelves acting as sinks
60 and near-shore ecosystems as sources of atmospheric CO₂ was proposed to reconcile opposing
61 views on the role of coastal ecosystems as CO₂ sources or sinks (Chen and Borges, 2009; Cai,
62 2011). In particular, inner estuaries are believed to act as sources of CO₂ to the atmosphere due
63 to a prevalence of heterotrophic ecosystem metabolic status fuelled by land-derived inputs of
64 organic carbon (Odum and Hoskin, 1958; Odum and Wilson, 1962; Heip et al., 1995; Kemp et
65 al., 1997; Gattuso et al., 1998; Hopkinson and Smith, 2005).

66 However, virtually all of the results from near-shore and open coastal ecosystems thus far
67 refer to those in the northern hemisphere, particularly Europe, the USA and Asia (Borges, 2005;
68 Chen and Borges, 2009; Cai, 2011). As these typically represent highly populated areas with
69 watersheds supporting intense agricultural practices, the results may not be directly transferable
70 to coastal areas in the southern hemisphere. In particular, we are only aware of one published
71 study assessing plankton metabolism in Australian coastal waters, conducted in the Great Barrier

72 region (McKinnon et al., 2013). This study concluded that autotrophic plankton metabolism
73 prevails in this coastal zone (McKinnon et al., 2013), despite being located in the wet Australian
74 tropics with a distinct rainy season. Moreover, the inshore area was even more strongly
75 autotrophic than the offshore region of the GBR, which is in contrast to the expectation that
76 inshore coastal waters should be heterotrophic. Whether this is specific of the Great Barrier Reef
77 or autotrophic metabolism is prevalent in other regions of Australia is, thus far, unresolved.

78

79 Here we report plankton metabolic rates for two contrasting coastal sites in the Perth area in
80 temperate Western Australia, Matilda Bay, an inshore-site in the Swan river estuary, and
81 Woodsman Point, an open coastal site. Specifically, we assessed fortnightly during a year
82 (March 2014 to March 2015) community respiration (CR), gross primary production (GPP) and
83 net community production (NCP), along with temperature, salinity, dissolved inorganic nutrient
84 concentration, chlorophyll a and bacterial abundance.

85

86 **Methods**

87

88 Matilda Bay is located in the lower reaches of the Swan River, one of the main rivers in Western
89 Australia with an extension of more than 50 Km and a catchment area about 190,000 Km²
90 (Thomson, 1998). The estuary is permanently open to the ocean since 1987 when a rocky bar
91 near to the mouth of the estuary in Fremantle was removed, and has a seasonal cycle influenced
92 by rainfall seasonal variations with hot and dry summers and wet and cool winters with about
93 90% of the annual rain (Thomson, 1998; Hamilton et al., 2006). During winter most of the water
94 body is fresh because of the rainfall and runoff but the salinity increases upstream when the
95 rainfall decreases and the system receive a significant flow of oceanic waters (Thompson 1998).
96 The estuary has received anthropogenic pressure because of land clearing for agricultural
97 purposes, increase of urbanization and construction of dams for water supply among others
98 (Chan et al. 2002; Thompson 1998). Consequently, nutrient inputs and sedimentation rates have
99 increased and the water quality has decreased (Chan et al. 2002; Hamilton et al. 2006). Gedaria
100 (2012) reported that salinity and temperature are the main drivers of the abundance of
101 phytoplankton species in the Swan River estuary. Woodman Point is located in the Owen

102 Anchorage in the Coast of Cockburn Sound (Perth, Western Australia), and, in contrast with
103 Matilda Bay, represents an open shoreline with no direct freshwater influence.

104

105 Sub-surface water samples were collected at fortnightly intervals between March 2014 to March
106 2015 in Matilda Bay (Latitude -31.990496 °S, longitude 115.818182 °E) and the Ammunition
107 Jetty, Woodman Point Latitude -32.124124 °S, longitude 115.75868 °E). Samples were then
108 transported to incubated and processed at the University of Western Australia (UWA).

109 Temperature (°C), Salinity and dissolved oxygen were measured through the water column by
110 deploying a calibrated YSI EXO1 Multi-parameter Water Quality Sonde fitted with a pressure
111 sensor (± 0.04 m), temperature ($\pm 0.01^\circ\text{C}$) and conductivity sensor , as well as an optode
112 dissolved oxygen sensor. In addition, surface water temperature was measured from the water
113 collected by a digital thermometer.

114

115 Net community production (NCP), gross primary production (GPP) and community respiration
116 (CR) were quantified by changes in dissolved oxygen using micro-Winkler techniques by the use
117 of a precise automatic titration based on redox potentiometric endpoint. Water collected in each
118 site was siphoned into 21 calibrated glass borosilicate Winkler bottles. Seven bottles were fixed
119 immediately to measure initial oxygen, another seven bottles were incubated in the light and the
120 last seven bottles were incubated in the dark (Fig. 2). The incubation was run for 24 hours in situ
121 conditions of temperature and natural solar radiation in an outdoor, temperature controlled tank.
122 After the incubation, samples were fixed and the final oxygen was measured using a high-
123 precision autotitrator (Compact Titrator G20, Mettler Toledo). NCP rates were determined from
124 the oxygen change in the clear bottles (oxygen clear – initial oxygen), CR rates were determined
125 from the oxygen change in the dark bottles (Initial oxygen – dark oxygen) and GPP rates were
126 calculated as the sum of CR and NCP (Duarte et al., 2011).

127

128 Aliquots of 200 ml of water samples were used for chlorophyll *a* analyses using acetone
129 extraction and fluorometric determination after Parsons et al. (1984). Subsamples were filtered
130 through Whatman grade GF/F glass microfiber filters of 25 mm diameter. Filters were placed in
131 plastic tubes of 1 ml and stored at -20°C until their analysis. Filters were immersed in acetone at
132 90% during 24 hours for chlorophyll *a* extraction. After that period, chlorophyll *a* fluorescence

133 was measured by the use of a Trilogy Laboratory Fluorometer (Turner Designs) equipped with a
134 module of Chlorophyll a Non-Acidification Fluorescent Module (CHL-A NA) at UWA. The
135 fluorometer was calibrated with pure chlorophyll a (Sigma- Aldrich C6144-1mg) solution.

136

137 Samples for dissolved inorganic nutrient analyses were collected during transportation to the
138 laboratory and kept frozen until analysis in a segmented flow autoanalyzer following standard
139 procedures Samples (Hansen and Koroleff, 1999).

140

141 The temperature response of plankton communities was described by fitting, using least squares
142 regression analysis, the Arrhenius equation,

143

$$144 \quad \text{Ln } Y = A \exp^{-AE/kT}$$

145

146 where Y is the property of interest, AE is the activation energy (eV), k is the
147 Boltzmann' s constant ($8.617734 \cdot 10^{-5} \text{ eV } ^\circ\text{K}^{-1}$) and T is the sea-surface water temperature ($^\circ\text{K}$),
148 and A is a fitted intercept (Regaudie-de-Gioux and Duarte, 2012).

149

150 **Results**

151

152 Surface water temperature ranged from 12 to 27.4 $^\circ\text{C}$ and 15.1 to 25 $^\circ\text{C}$ (Fig. 1a) and salinity
153 ranged from 22.03 to 36.97 units and 31.62 to 37.12 units (Fig. 1b) in Matilda Bay and
154 Woodman Point, respectively. The minimum salinity was reached in late winter and spring in
155 Matilda Bay, following river discharge, whereas the pattern was less clear, with low salinity also
156 concentrated in winter and early spring, in Woodman Point (Fig. 1b). Dissolved inorganic
157 nitrogen concentration was highest in winter, but phosphate concentration was highest in late
158 summer in Matilda Bay (Fig. 2a-c). In contrast, nitrate and phosphorus concentrations in
159 Woodman Point were lower ($P < 0.05$) than those in Matilda Bay (Table 1) and dissolved
160 inorganic nitrogen concentration showed two maxima, winter and summer, in while phosphate
161 concentrations showed a summer minima (Fig. 2a-c). Chlorophyll *a* concentration was
162 significantly higher and more variable in Matilda Bay than in Woodman Point (Table 1, Fig. 2d),
163 and reached the highest values in winter, at the time of peak nitrate concentration (Fig. 2d), as

164 there was a significant, positive, relationship between chlorophyll *a* concentration and nitrate
165 concentration ($r = 0.67$, $P < 0.0001$).

166

167 Respiration rates were, on average, twice as high in Matilda Bay as in Woodman Point (Table 1),
168 and increased strongly toward summer in Woodman Point whereas it shows a less seasonal
169 variability in Matilda Bay (Fig. 3a). Gross primary production was also much higher in Matilda
170 Bay than in Woodman Point (Table 1), with no clear seasonal pattern at either site (Fig. 3b). The
171 communities were generally autotrophic, with GPP about twice as high as R (NCP and P/R > 1,
172 Table 1), with NCP being three times higher, on average, at Matilda Bay than at Woodman Point
173 (Table 1, Fig. 3c), and neither community displaying any clear seasonal trend in net community
174 production along the year (Fig. 3c). GPP was significantly correlated with CR ($r = 0.68$, $P <$
175 0.0001), but NCP increased strongly with increasing GPP (Fig. 4). Net community production
176 and gross primary production increased with increasing chlorophyll *a* concentration, with the
177 relationship between community respiration rate and chlorophyll *a* being much weaker, albeit
178 also significant (Fig. 5a,c).

179

180 Respiration rates increased with increasing temperature, resulting in an activation energy of 0.76
181 ± 0.21 (Fig. 6a). GPP showed, in contrast, no significant temperature-dependence ($P > 0.05$),
182 possibly due to large variability in chlorophyll *a*, masking the effect of temperature on GPP.
183 Indeed, when standardized to chlorophyll *a*, as observed in previous studies (e.g. Regaudie de-
184 Gioux and Duarte, 2012; Garcia-Corral et al., 2017), there was a significant temperature-
185 dependence of gross primary production, with an activation energy of 0.69 ± 0.12 (Fig. 6b),
186 comparable to that of community respiration.

187

188 **Discussion**

189

190 Chlorophyll *a* values were higher in Matilda Bay than in Woodman point, which values ranged
191 within those reported for coastal waters around Perth (Pearce et al., 2006). The highest
192 chlorophyll *a* concentration in both Matilda Bay and Woodman point occurred at the low salinity
193 winter events. Chlorophyll *a* concentration in the Swan River has been reported to vary
194 seasonally showing large interannual variability (Thompson, 1998). The mean and highest values

195 observed in Matilda Bay were consistent with the highest chlorophyll *a* reported previously for
196 the estuary (Thompson, 1998). Both coastal ecosystems, but particularly Matilda Bay, supported
197 productive communities, as reflected in relatively high GPP rates.

198

199 Community Respiration rates was less variable than GPP, particularly at Matilda Bay, but GPP
200 sufficed to support all carbon demands from the community and generate excess organic matter,
201 resulting in a prevalence of autotrophic communities at both sites, with average P/R ratios above
202 2.0 similar across both sites. This is expected from relatively productive sites with GPP well
203 above the threshold previously determined to delineate autotrophic from heterotrophic
204 communities (Duarte & Agustí, 1998; Duarte & Regaudie-de-Gioux, 2009). Net community
205 production was strongly correlated with chlorophyll *a* concentration, accounting for the much
206 higher NCP in eutrophic Matilda Bay compared to Woodman Point plankton communities,
207 suggesting that the metabolic balance of plankton communities in the coast of Perth is regulated
208 by factors controlling autotrophic processes, such as nutrient inputs, salinity regimes and
209 temperature. In coastal waters of Northern Australia, McKinnon et al (2017) observed also that
210 the metabolism and community respiration were also positively related to chlorophyll
211 concentration.

212

213 The results presented here contribute to address a paucity of studies of plankton community
214 metabolism in the Indian Ocean (Regaudie-de-Gioux & Duarte, 2013). Robinson and Williams
215 (1999) studied the planktonic metabolic balance during a research cruise in the Gulf of Oman,
216 reporting P/R ratios for surface waters between 1.17 and 2.43, with the highest ratio near to the
217 Omani coast (Regaudie-de-Gioux & Duarte, 2013; Robinson & Williams, 1999). Indeed, the P/R
218 ratio of the station closer to the Omani coast, 2.43 (Robinson & Williams, 1999) was similar to
219 the P/R ratio for our study sites in the Western Australia coast.

220

221 Our results indeed showed a prevalence of net autotrophic metabolism in plankton communities
222 of the Coast of Perth (Western Australia), both at the eutrophic estuarine waters at Matilda Bay
223 and the open coastal Indian Ocean waters at Woodman Point. This indicates that planktonic
224 communities in these coastal location act as strong CO₂ sinks and sources of organic matter and
225 oxygen to the system. This is in contrast to the expectation that near-shore ecosystems act as

226 sources of atmospheric CO₂, proposed to reconcile opposing views on the role of coastal
227 ecosystems as CO₂ sources or sinks (Chen & Borges, 2009; Cai, 2011). Indeed, the pattern
228 showed here, with higher net community production in the inner waters of Matilda Bay
229 compared to the more open waters at Woodman Point are in agreement with prior findings for
230 Australia of prevalence of autotrophic metabolism, with inshore areas being more strongly
231 autotrophic than offshore waters of the Great Barrier Reef (McKinnon et al., 2013).

232

233 The plankton communities in the coastal waters of Perth showed increased metabolic rates with
234 increasing temperature, as expected from metabolic theory of ecology (Brown et al., 2004).
235 However, the activation energy for gross primary production of 0.69 ± 0.12 eV found here was
236 well below that found in previous analyses of Indian Ocean communities, focused on open-ocean
237 waters, reporting a E_a for gross primary production, standardized to chlorophyll *a*, of 1.70 eV
238 (Garcia-Corral et al., 2017). Also, whereas, consistent with other assessments (e.g. Regaudie de-
239 Gioux & Duarte 2012; Garcia-Corral et al., 2017), the activation energy for community
240 respiration was higher than that for gross primary production, this difference was small and not
241 statistically significant. This is important as it predicts that warming events, such as the heat
242 wave that impacted on marine ecosystems across Western Australia in 2011 (Wernberg et al.,
243 2016), will affect gross primary production and respiration rates of plankton communities in a
244 similar way.

245

246

247 **Conclusions**

248

249 Our results indicated that planktonic communities in the two coastal Western Australia locations
250 studied act as strong CO₂ sinks and sources of organic matter and oxygen to the system. The
251 plankton communities of the Coast of Perth (Western Australia) showed net autotrophic
252 metabolism both at the eutrophic estuarine waters at Matilda Bay and the open coastal Indian
253 Ocean waters at Woodman Point. This result is in contrast to the expectation of net
254 heterotrophic balance for near-shore ecosystems, but in agreement with the few metabolic
255 balance assessments from Australian coastal waters. The thermal relationships indicated that
256 warming may decrease the strong capacity observed for CO₂ sinks. Our study is based on two

257 contrasting plankton communities in Western Australia and, while useful to address the absence
258 of reports on plankton community metabolism in the Indian Ocean coast of Australia, and the
259 paucity of reports across the Indian Ocean (Regaudie de-Gioux & Duarte 2013), a broader
260 analyses of coastal plankton communities across Western Australia is required to confirm the
261 patterns revealed here and diagnose the role of plankton communities in across Western
262 Australia in carbon fluxes and their likely response to future warming.

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267 **Acknowledgement**

268

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270 analyses.

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275 **References**

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362
363

364 **Figure Headings**

365

366 **Figure 1: Temporal variability in seawater temperature and salinity.** Changes in surface
367 seawater temperature and salinity in Matilda Bay are shown as blue line and symbols, and in
368 Woodman Point as red line and symbols, along the study period.

369

370 **Figure 2: Nutrient variability.** Changes in (a) nitrate, (b) ammonium, (c) phosphate and (d)
371 chlorophyll *a* concentration in Matilda Bay (blue line and symbols) and Woodman Point (red
372 line and symbols) along the study period.

373

374 **Figure 3: Planktonic metabolism.** Changes in (a) community respiration rate, (b) gross
375 primary production, and (c) net community production in Matilda Bay (blue line and symbols)
376 and Woodman Point (red line and symbols) along the study period.

377

378 **Figure 4. The relationship between net community production and gross primary**
379 **production.** The solid line shows the fitted regression equation: $NCP \text{ (mmol O}_2 \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ d}^{-1}) = -2.65$
380 $+ 0.65 (\pm 0.05) GPP \text{ (mmol O}_2 \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ d}^{-1})$ ($R^2 = 0.75$, $P < 0.0001$). Blue symbols and red symbols
381 correspond to Matilda Bay and Woodman Point, respectively.

382

383 **Figure 5. Plankton metabolism and phytoplankton.** The relationship between (a) net
384 community production, (b) gross primary production and (c) community respiration and
385 chlorophyll *a* concentration. The solid lines shows the fitted regression equations: (a) NCP
386 $\text{(mmol O}_2 \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ d}^{-1}) = -1.54 + 2.29 (\pm 0.19) Chl \ a \ (\mu\text{g Chl } a \ L^{-1})$ ($R^2 = 0.73$, $P < 0.0001$); (b) GPP
387 $\text{(mmol O}_2 \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ d}^{-1}) = 2.93 + 3.03 (\pm 0.05) Chl \ a \ (\mu\text{g Chl } a \ L^{-1})$ ($R^2 = 0.69$, $P < 0.0001$); and (c) R
388 $\text{(mmol O}_2 \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ d}^{-1}) = 4.45 + 0.74 (\pm 0.24) Chl \ a \ (\mu\text{g Chl } a \ L^{-1})$ ($R^2 = 0.15$, $P = 0.0036$). Blue
389 symbols and red symbols correspond to Matilda Bay and Woodman Point, respectively.

390

391 **Figure 6: Thermal relationships.** Arrhenius plots showing the relationship between the natural
392 log of (a) community respiration and (b) gross primary production standardized to chlorophyll *a*,
393 and $1/kT$, where k is the Boltzmann's constant ($8.617734 \times 10^{-5} \text{ eV } ^\circ\text{K}^{-1}$) and T is the sea-surface
394 water temperature ($^\circ\text{K}$) in Matilda Bay (blue symbols) and Woodman Point (red symbols). The

395 solid lines show the fitted equations: $\ln R$ ($\text{mmol O}_2 \text{ mg m}^{-3} \text{ d}^{-1}$) = $31.87 - 0.76 (\pm 0.21) 1/kT$ (R^2
396 = 0.21, $P = 0.0008$) and $\ln \text{GPP/Chl a}$ ($\text{mmol O}_2 \text{ mg Chl a}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$) = $28.8 - 0.69 (\pm 0.12) 1/kT$ ($R^2 =$
397 0.41, $P < 0.0001$).

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Table 1 (on next page)

Mean (\pm SE) of the variables measured in Matilda Bay and Woodman Point (Western Australia).

NCP = net community production, GPP = gross primary production and P/R = is the ratio of GPP over R. Asterisks denotes statistically significant difference (t-test, $P < 0.05$).

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	Matilda Bay		Woodman Point	
	Mean	± SE (N = 33)	Mean	± SE (N = 27)
Temperature (°C)	20.90	0.66	20.79	0.57
Salinity	32.09	0.95	35.13*	0.29
Ammonia ($\mu\text{mol N L}^{-1}$)	2.68	0.30	2.17	0.29
Nitrate ($\mu\text{mol N L}^{-1}$)	2.32	0.71	0.56*	0.08
Phosphate ($\mu\text{mol P L}^{-1}$)	0.52	0.06	0.20*	0.02
Chlorophyll a ($\mu\text{g Chl } a \text{ L}^{-1}$)	4.05	0.47	1.68*	0.14
Respiration ($\mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$)	8.81	0.76	4.33*	0.48
NCP ($\mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$)	7.21	1.29	2.32*	0.61
GPP ($\mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$)	16.05	1.56	6.23*	0.60
P/R	1.91	0.14	2.05	0.27

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Figure 1 (on next page)

Temporal variability in seawater temperature and salinity.

Changes in surface seawater temperature and salinity in Matilda Bay are shown as blue line and symbols, and in Woodman Point as red line and symbols, along the study period.

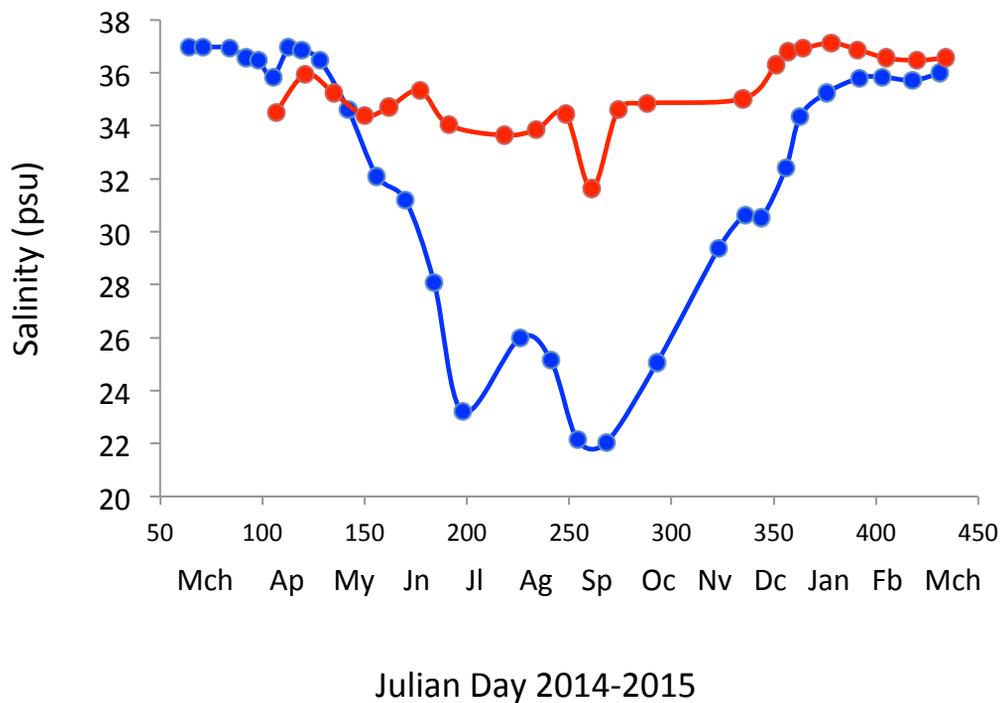
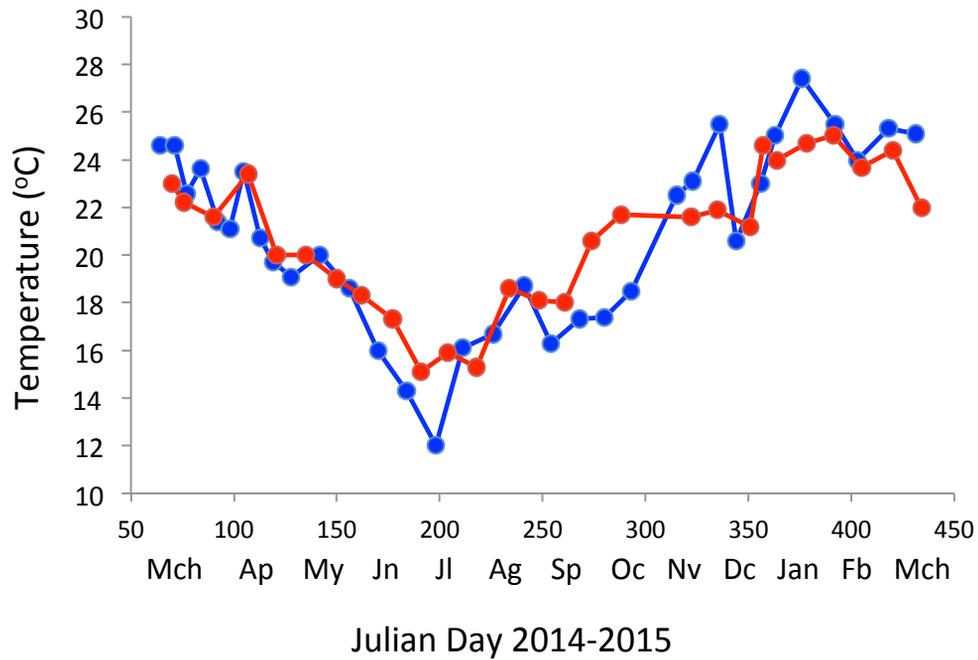


Figure 2 (on next page)

Nutrient variability

Changes in (a) nitrate, (b) ammonium, (c) phosphate and (d) chlorophyll *a* concentration in Matilda Bay (blue line and symbols) and Woodman Point (red line and symbols) along the study period.

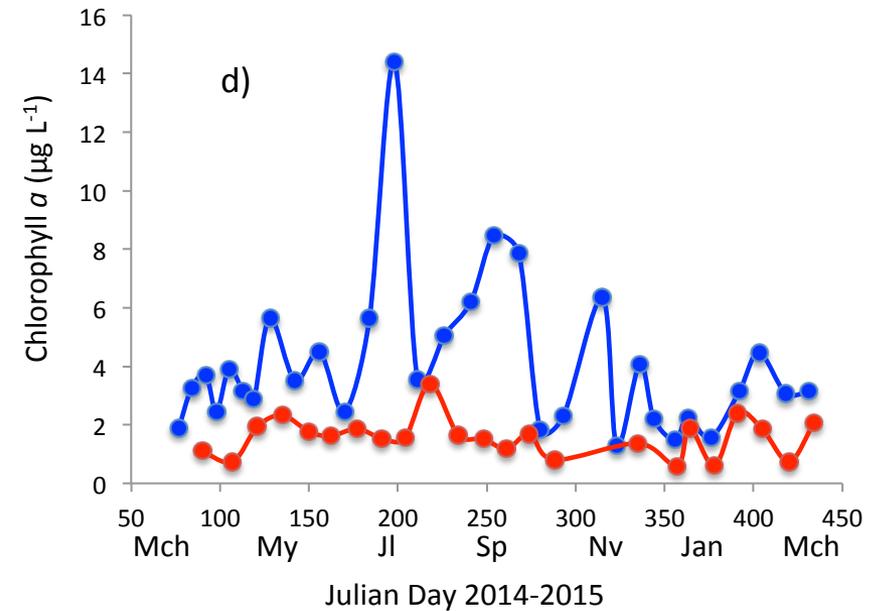
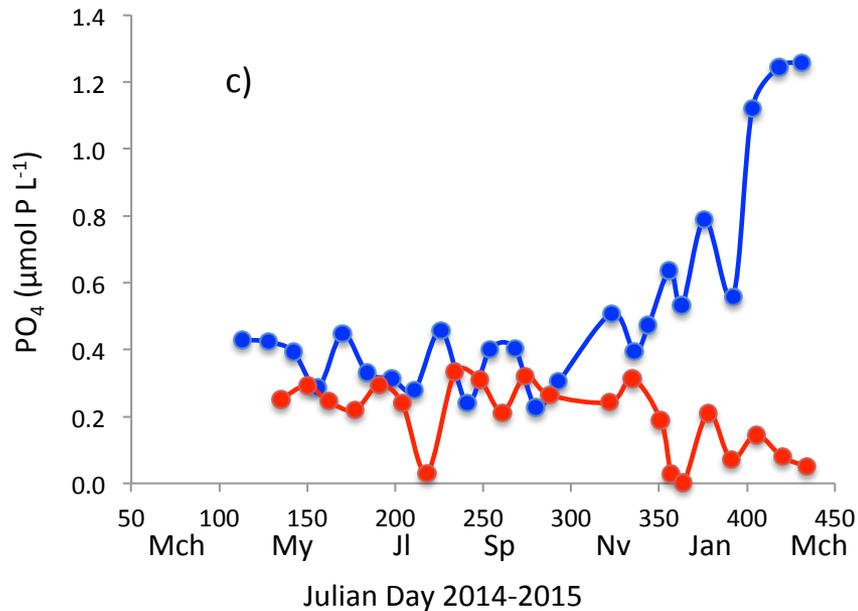
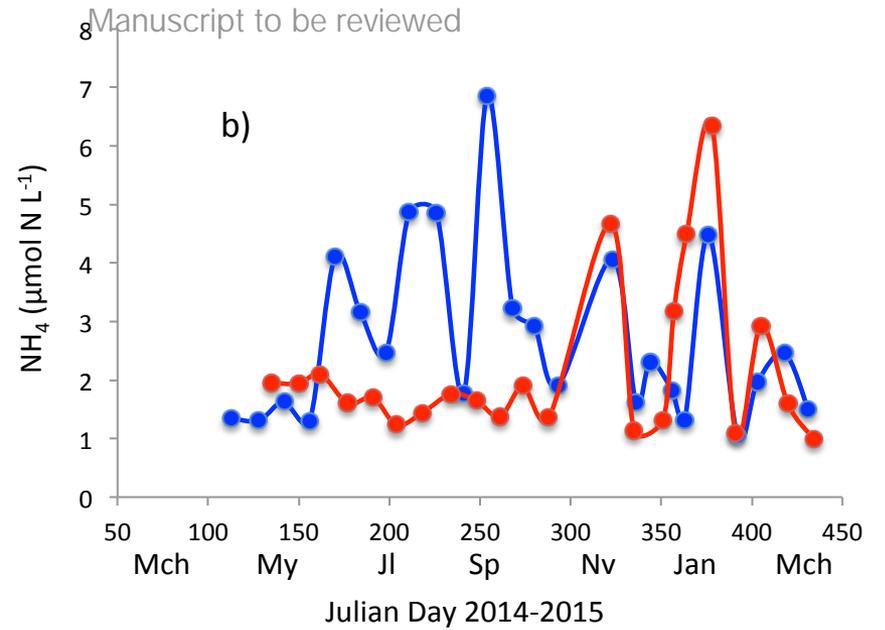
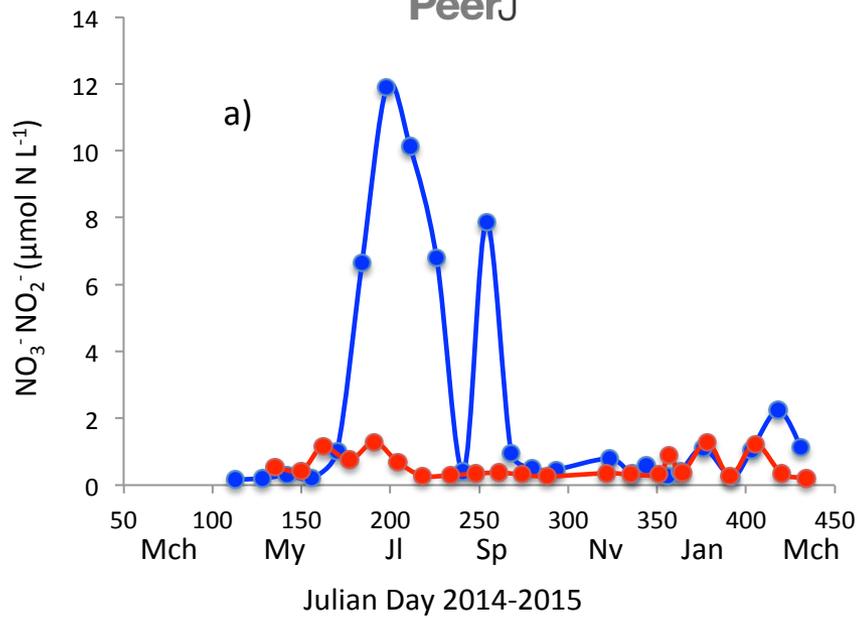
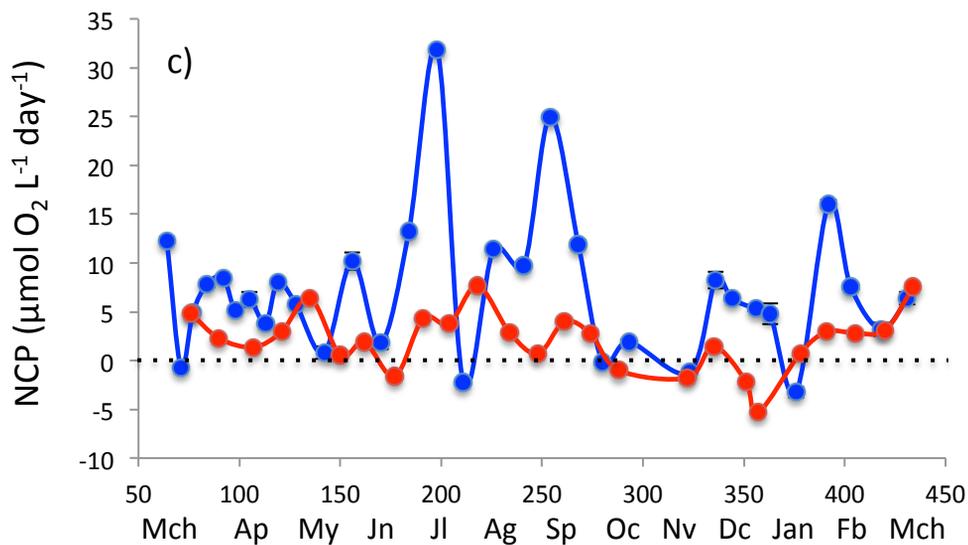
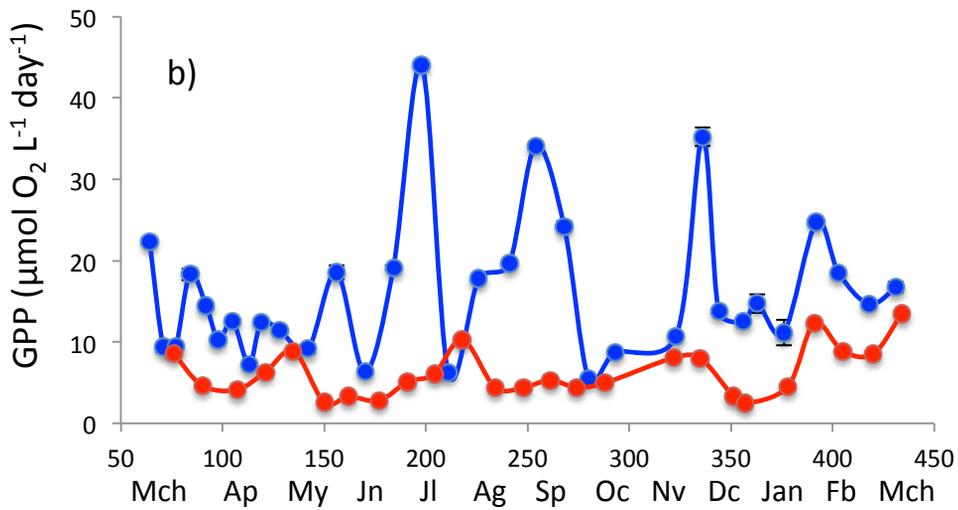
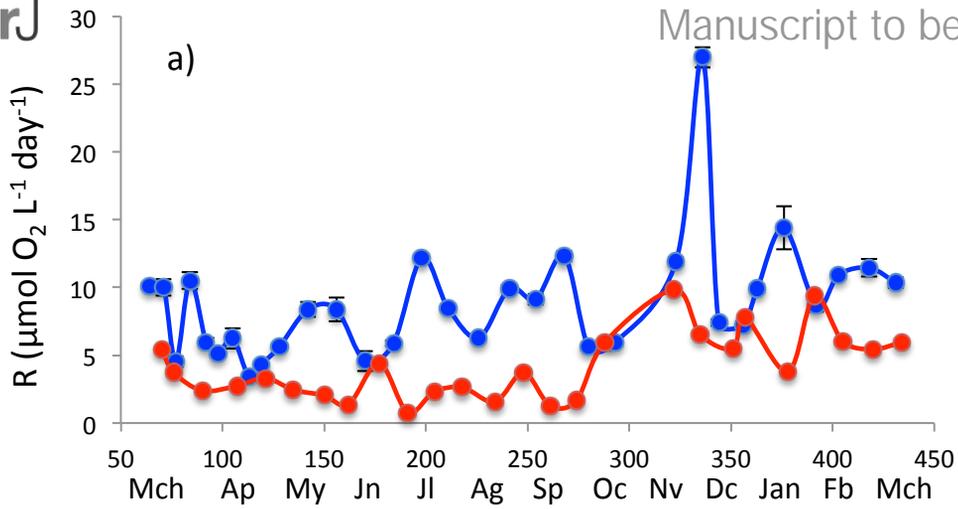


Figure 3(on next page)

Planktonic metabolism

Changes in (a) community respiration rate, (b) gross primary production, and (c) net community production in Matilda Bay (blue line and symbols) and Woodman Point (red line and symbols) along the study period.



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Figure 4(on next page)

The relationship between net community production and gross primary production.

The solid line shows the fitted regression equation: $\text{NCP (mmol O}_2 \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ d}^{-1}) = -2.65 + 0.65 (\pm 0.05) \text{ GPP (mmol O}_2 \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ d}^{-1})$ ($R^2 = 0.75$, $P < 0.0001$). Blue symbols and red symbols correspond to Matilda Bay and Woodman Point, respectively.

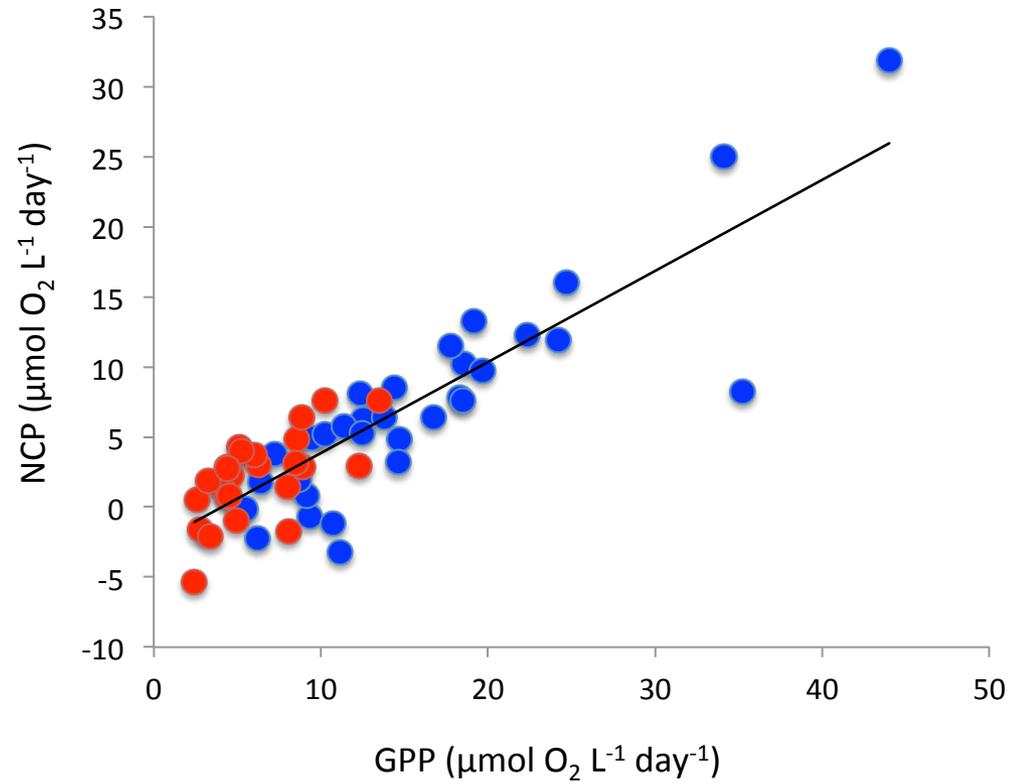


Figure 5(on next page)

Plankton metabolism and phytoplankton.

The relationship between (a) net community production, (b) gross primary production and (c) community respiration and chlorophyll *a* concentration. The solid lines shows the fitted regression equations: (a) NCP ($\text{mmol O}_2 \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ d}^{-1}$) = $-1.54 + 2.29 (\pm 0.19) \text{ Chl } a (\mu\text{g Chl } a \text{ L}^{-1})$ ($R^2 = 0.73$, $P < 0.0001$); (b) GPP ($\text{mmol O}_2 \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ d}^{-1}$) = $2.93 + 3.03 (\pm 0.05) \text{ Chl } a (\mu\text{g Chl } a \text{ L}^{-1})$ ($R^2 = 0.69$, $P < 0.0001$); and (c) R ($\text{mmol O}_2 \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ d}^{-1}$) = $4.45 + 0.74 (\pm 0.24) \text{ Chl } a (\mu\text{g Chl } a \text{ L}^{-1})$ ($R^2 = 0.15$, $P = 0.0036$). Blue symbols and red symbols correspond to Matilda Bay and Woodman Point, respectively.

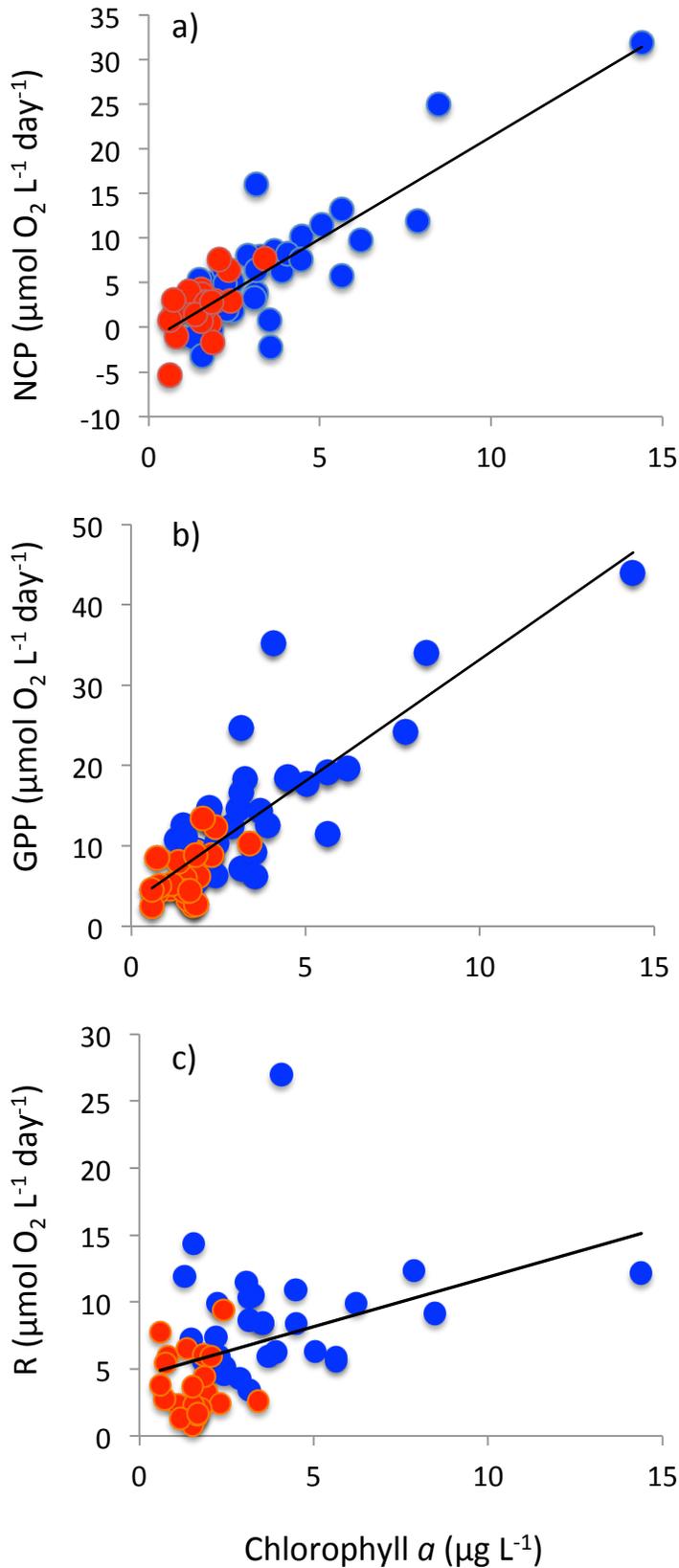


Figure 6(on next page)

Thermal relationships.

Arrhenius plots showing the relationship between the natural log of (a) community respiration and (b) gross primary production standardized to chlorophyll *a*, and $1/kT$, where k is the Boltzmann's constant ($8.617734 \times 10^{-5} \text{ eV } ^\circ\text{K}^{-1}$) and T is the sea-surface water temperature ($^\circ\text{K}$) in Matilda Bay (blue symbols) and Woodman Point (red symbols). The solid lines show the fitted equations: $\ln R \text{ (mmol O}_2 \text{ mg m}^{-3} \text{ d}^{-1}) = 31.87 - 0.76 (\pm 0.21) 1/kT$ ($R^2 = 0.21$, $P = 0.0008$) and $\ln \text{GPP/Chl } a \text{ (mmol O}_2 \text{ mg Chl } a^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}) = 28.8 - 0.69 (\pm 0.12) 1/kT$ ($R^2 = 0.41$, $P < 0.0001$).

