

**THE MARINE
ANGIOSPERMS,
SEAGRASS**



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23 MARCH 2012

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Universiti Putra Malaysia



Universiti Putra Malaysia Press

Serdang • 2012

<http://www.penerbit.upm.edu.my>

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First Print 2012

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UPM Press is a member of the Malaysian Book Publishers Association
(MABOPA)

Membership No.: 9802

Typesetting : Sahariah Abdol Rahim @ Ibrahim

Cover Design : Md Fairus Ahmad

Design, layout and printed by
Penerbit Universiti Putra Malaysia
43400 UPM Serdang
Selangor Darul Ehsan
Tel: 03-8946 8855 / 8854
Fax: 03-8941 6172
<http://www.penerbit.upm.edu.my>

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ABSTRACT

Seagrasses are a group of marine flowering plants. They are under the sub-division of angiosperms classed within a family of the monocotyledonous plants, which also includes the freshwater aquatic macrophytes. Although totally submerged, seagrasses have all the structures of the terrestrial plants with a root system, a shoot system, a vascular system, and vegetative and sexual reproduction, with flowers fertilized by water borne pollen. These structures and functions are unique for plants in the sea.

Seagrasses occur in many areas along the coast of Malaysia and although small in area, form a significant component of the coastal ecosystem besides mangroves and coral reefs. Our research group field studies revealed that even though are seagrasses patchy in distribution, they constitute one of the common coastal ecosystem types. Those areas that were studied were those accessible ones. Many more areas, far and wide particularly in the off-shore islands in the territorial waters of Sabah are the most likely environments where extensive seagrasses occur. The structure of seagrass ecosystem can vary from a few or patches of plants to extensive seagrass beds by two or more mixed species. These beds are dynamic and productive, attract diverse grazers and predators, and often these are commercially important species. In some coastal areas, seagrasses are service provider i.e., support livelihood of coastal communities that depend on fisheries which are linked directly or indirectly to the environment and production created by seagrasses. These intrinsic roles of seagrasses although have been recognized have not been afforded the same priority as the mangroves and corals. One reason could be that seagrass ecosystem has historically been neglected and not been well-studied. With the growing concern and interest, this important system is based on what have been studied should be communicated. In this respect,

I am glad to have this opportunity to present this lecture personally than my numerous papers published on seagrasses alone could provide. In general, what are known about seagrasses in Malaysia? What differentiates seagrasses from other plants? Seagrasses together with seaweeds and phytoplankton form the important primary producers of a shallow marine environment. Seagrasses and seaweeds in particular share similar habitats e.g., mangroves, coral reef ecosystem, intertidal areas, lagoons and rocky shores. It is important to learn and be able to distinguish between them. “If you take seagrasses away to identify, make sure take the “whole plant” – a complete cluster of shoots with rhizomes, roots and if available the flowering plants. If just a shoot is collected, not only you may miss the flowering materials but you may find that you do not have all the information that you require”. Accurate species identification in the field would be helpful and allow more people to understand and appreciate seagrasses. This is especially true where people now are very much aware on its unique natural values e.g., especially seagrass beds provide habitats and feeding ground for dugongs, green turtles, seahorses and other invertebrates. Are seagrasses merely green vegetation along the coastline? Seagrasses do much more than providing underwater spectacular scenes. The lush vegetation in a seagrass bed (e.g., Sungai Pulai estuary and its adjacent waters) may harbor hundreds of species and each is unique and interconnected in a food web. In this case the heart of a food web is the seagrasses, providing food and oxygen. A food web is strong when intact, yet easily disturbed and each disrupted connection weakening the web. We must recognize the value of all species and the hidden relationship between them. This lecture provides the basis for far more work on the seagrasses and their associates.

INTRODUCTION

Seagrasses are submerged monocotyledonous plants that form patches to dense extensive coastal beds or meadows. Seagrasses constitute complex and productive ecosystems occurring both in temperate and tropical seas (den Hartog 1970). In Malaysia, along its 4,800 km coastline, stretching along the Malay Peninsula, Sabah and Sarawak bounding much of the southern part of the South China Sea are environments with mangroves and coral reefs. Along the mainland coastal areas between mangroves and corals, from low tide level to the coral reef fringe, are habitats for seagrasses. Seagrasses are also found around off-shore islands with fringing corals. Here they inhabit the subtidal areas between the corals and the semi-open sea (Japar Sidik et al. 2006a).

Seagrass ecosystem in Malaysia is made up of a small portion of the marine ecosystem (Japar Sidik and Muta Harah 2011) compared to mangroves and coral reefs, yet it accounts for the high diversity of assortment of vertebrates and invertebrates (Arshad et al. 2001, 2002, 2006, 2008, Sasekumar et al. 1989), and seaweeds (Japar Sidik et al. 1996, 2001a). Seagrasses form the food and habitats for the vulnerable dugongs (*Dugong dugon*), seahorses (*Hippocampus* spp.) and endangered green turtles (*Chelonia mydas*), other fishes, crabs and feeding ground for seasonal migratory birds such as the *Egretta garzetta* (Japar Sidik et al. 2006a). Seagrasses, being rich in food resources, provide conditions for growth and abundance of fish and invertebrates that many local coastal inhabitants catch and collect for their daily livelihood (Japar Sidik and Muta Harah 2003a, Japar Sidik et al. 2006a, Muta Harah and Japar Sidik 2011). Seagrass ecosystems, with rich and diverse food resources, are continually being threatened by human activities causing their degradation and possibly habitat loss.

The information provided here are derived from published sources of the authors' own, his colleagues' and students' works in the Seagrass Group at UPM and references of which are included in the 'References' section. Other supporting sources of information pertaining to the period of 1904-1995 on the understanding of seagrass distribution, species composition and uses in Malaysia come from Ridley (1907, 1924), Burkill (1935), Henderson (1954), Holttum (1954), Sinclair (1956), den Hartog (1970), Sasekumar et al. (1989), Norhadi (1993) and Phang (2000), and dugong sightings from Jaaman (1999, 2000).

This inaugural lecture represents research contributions from various studies of the seagrass ecosystem in Malaysia. The assessment of the ecosystem in its previous and present status either in totality or in its major components may stimulate further research. It contains a review of the information on various aspects of the seagrasses forming the important basic materials for continuing research on seagrass resources. Unlike other terrestrial communities that can be lived in, managed or exploited, seagrasses offer only a few direct uses. However, given the importance of their ecological roles and importance of seagrasses as fisheries habitats, nurseries and feeding grounds, this neglected and relatively lesser known resource must be afforded the same priority as the well managed mangroves and corals. I believe that by knowing the resources, one will appreciate the tremendous contribution made by them, one good example is the seagrasses; "seagrasses may appear to be unimportant as it is not visible, being submerged plants, but they play an important role in the life of coastal resource-dependent families (e.g, in Sungai Pulai estuary, Johore). The livelihood of these coastal communities is linked with the seagrasses.

WHAT ARE SEAGRASSES?

Seagrasses are monocots that live in marine and estuarine habitats, structurally and functionally similar to terrestrial grasses, and as such, are differentiated into discrete morphological entities—leaves, stems, roots and reproductive structures (den Hartog 1970, Tomlinson 1974, Phillips and Menez 1988, Duarte et al. 1994, Japar Sidik et al. 1995, 1999a, 1999b). The horizontal stems known as rhizomes are well-developed, very extensive typically buried in the sandy or muddy substrate. Some seagrasses have also vertical stems. Leaves are produced on horizontal and vertical stems and usually only the leafy part, generally green, are the most obvious component of the plant appearing above the substrate. These range in shape from thin strips to oval structures and may be grouped into shoots with the older leaves on the outside. The stems, roots and leaves of seagrasses contain lignified conducting tissue (veins) and air channels named as lacunae. Seagrasses are flowering plants and as such produce flowers, fruits and seeds (Japar Sidik et al. 1999a, 2000, 2003, Muta Harah et al. 1998) though these do not necessarily resemble their terrestrial counterparts. The general structure of the plant is displayed in different forms as shown in Figure 1. Arber (1920) formulated a set of four properties indispensable for a marine water plant. These properties can be listed as follows: (i) the plant must be adapted to life in a saline medium, (ii) the plant must be able to grow fully submerged, (iii) the plant must have a secure anchoring system, and (iv) the plant must have a hydrophilous pollination mechanism. It is obvious that seagrasses fulfill these requirements. A full discussion on the origin of seagrasses and their limitation based on Arber's (1920) criteria and the euryhaline plants is given in Kuo and den Hartog (2000).

The Marine Angiosperms, Seagrass

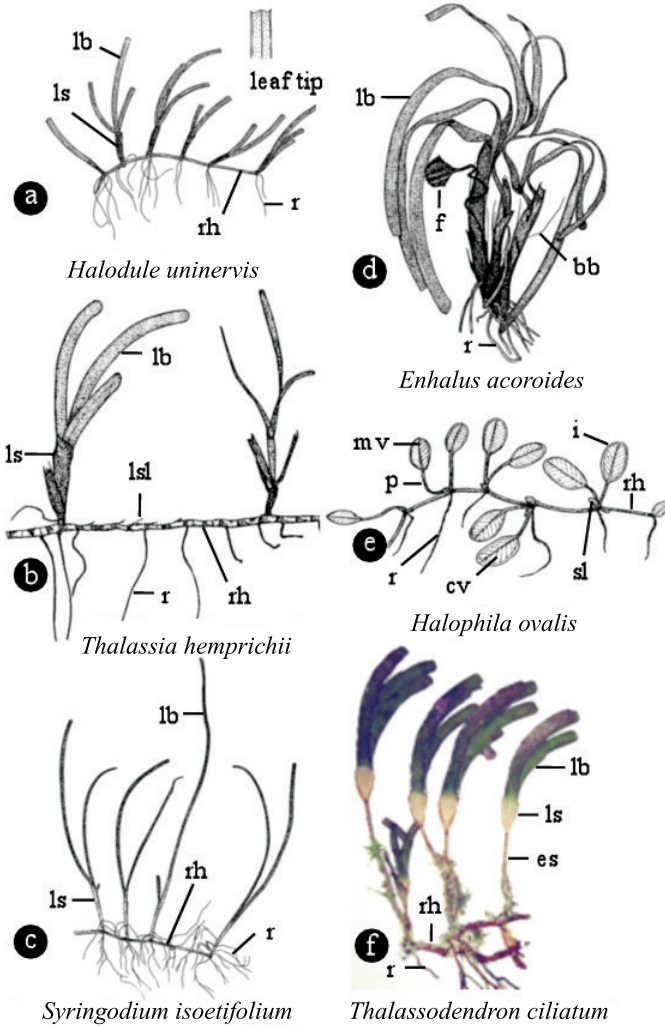


Figure 1 The general structure and terminology used to describe the various components of the seagrasses. a-Category 1, b-Category 2, c-Category 3, d-Category 4, e-Category 5 and f-Category 6. lb-leaf blade, ls-leaf sheath, rh-rhizome, r-root, lsl-leaf scale, bb-black bristle, f-fruit, mv-mid vein, p-petiole, cv-cross vein, i-intra marginal vein and es-erect stem

SEAGRASSES SYNONYMOUS TO SEaweEDS?

Seagrasses are not synonymous to seaweeds or macroalgae and, therefore have different vegetative and reproductive structures. The possibility of confusing with the other marine plant e.g., seaweeds for the most part is unlikely, nevertheless it must be regarded as a potential problem for the botanical novice. I know of at least two species of green macroalgae, *Caulerpa sertularoides* and *Caulerpa taxifolia* which could be mistaken for the ‘fern-like’ seagrass, *Halophila spinulosa*. There are a number of obvious morphological differences between seagrasses and seaweeds (Table 1). Only occasionally do seaweeds become large and complex with differentiation into organs that resemble leaves, stems and roots.

Table 1 The differences between seagrasses and seaweeds

Seagrasses	Seaweeds
Possess a prostrate stem or extensive rhizome networks buried in the substrate	Possess a prostrate axis, rarely extensive and almost always lie above the substrate
Have leaves that are generally green; produce on erect branches and usually only the leafy parts of the plant emerge from the substrate	Occasionally the body, thallus of various colours (green, brown, red) become large and complex, with differentiation into organs that resemble leaves, stems and roots
Produce flowers, fruits and seeds	Produce sporangium and spores, never produce flowers, fruits or seeds

If a seaweed does possess a prostrate axis, it is rarely extensive and almost always lies above the substrate. Leaflike organs, if present, never have lignified conducting tissue or air channels, though gas-filled floats (e.g., in *Sargassum*) may be produced. Seaweeds vary greatly in colour; some are green but many are brown or reddish; the colour may be uniform across the entire body called thallus. Seaweeds never form flowers, fruits or seeds, instead they have structures called sporangium that carry the spores.

WHAT MAKES A SEAGRASS PLANT?

The life of seagrass is initiated as a single fruit with seed/seeds produced by the mature plant. The fruit detached or remained with the plant, dispersing the seeds. A seed germinates and forms a pioneer shoot (Figure 2a), which produces a rhizome, then another shoot and so on (Figure 2b, Muta Harah et al. 1999, 2000, Japar Sidik et al. 2003). Each shoot however, is genetically identical to its predecessor. The production of new shoots is through vegetative propagation or asexual reproduction. As development continues, at some later stage, individual shoots may produce flowers, fruits, disperse seeds and ultimately seeds germinate. These give rise to separate, genetically different individual plants. What do we call this individual seagrass that reproduces in this way?, a shoot or a cluster of shoots? All seagrass species except *Enhalus* (Japar Sidik et al. 2003) and in some *Halophila* have differentiated vertical or a cluster of short shoots that are placed at different intervals along the horizontal creeping rhizome (Muta Harah et al. 1998, Japar Sidik et al. 2000). A shoot cluster is a group of shoots known as ramets attached as branches to a common rhizome axis (Harper 1977). The material produced by the original seed, regardless of whether all of the shoots are still connected, forms a group of genetically identical material. This is called a genet.

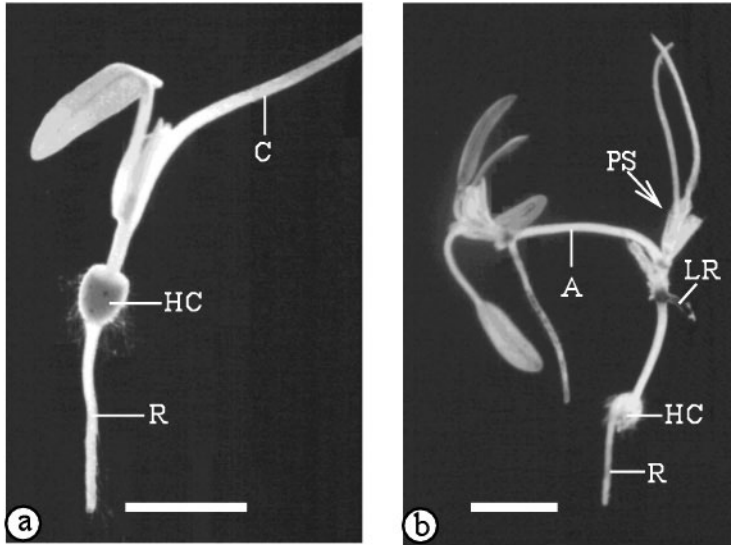


Figure 2 Seedling development of *Halophila beccarii*. a-a seedling showing a first true leaf, a cotyledon (C), hypocotyl (HC) and a radicle (R) emerging from the basal end. Scale bar, 3 mm; b-a seedling producing unilateral rhizome system with two shoots and nodes: a lateral rhizome (A) from the pioneer shoot (PS), lateral root (LR), Hypocotyl (HC) and radicle (R). Scale bar, 3 mm

Individual leaves are repeated units within each shoot, but they cannot exist alone. Shoots can be isolated and still survive, although they are usually connected to other shoots. These shoots are termed modules. A group of modules that are still joined together by their rhizomes can share nutrients. They are physiologically connected. This group of shoots is termed a ramet. The module and ramet form the basic architecture of seagrasses is illustrated in Figure 3. Thus organisms exhibiting the above characteristic are considered as modular organisms. They are different from many other organisms, including most familiar animals – fish, snails, barnacles, mussels, humans which are termed unitary organisms (Harper 1977).

However, most plants and a wide range of invertebrate animals e.g., sponges, corals, bryozoans, ascidians are modular.

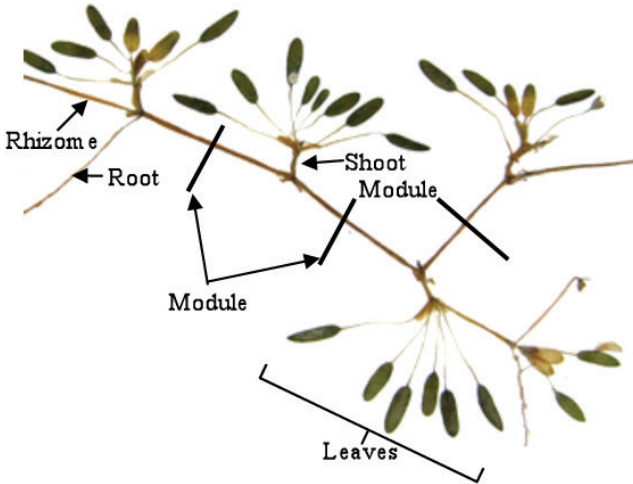


Figure 3 Seagrass ramets showing modular arrangement in *Halophila beccarii*. Each ramet is composed of a set of module i.e., a piece of rhizome which can be horizontal or vertical, a pair or a bundle of leaves attached to the rhizome and a root system

HOW DO THEY LOOK LIKE?

Seagrasses show a high degree of similarity in their external vegetative morphology and with respect to growth type with well-developed rhizomes bearing at each node a shoot of linear or strap-shaped leaves and branched or unbranched roots. However there are exceptions, in *Halophila* where leaves are ovate, lanceolate and petiolated. In general a closer inspection shows that seagrasses exhibit a considerable degree of diversity (refer to Figure 1). Based on mode of growth and the branching system introduced by den Hartog (1967), seagrasses in Malaysia can be subdivided into six categories.

A. Seagrasses with vegetative system monopodially branched; herbaceous, leaves linear or strap-shaped with air channels are categorized as;

Category 1. with fine linear leaves e.g., *Halodule*.

Category 2. with wide linear leaves; the sheaths either decay completely or remain membranous, but do not persist as a bunch of fibers e.g., *Cymodocea*, *Thalassia*.

Category 3. with long subulate leaves e.g., *Syringodium*.

Category 4. with leathery linear or coarse strap-shaped leaves; the remains of the sheaths form thick paintbrush-like fiber bundles at the base of the plant e.g., *Enhalus*.

Category 5. with leaves elliptic, ovate, lanceolate e.g., *Halophila*.

B. Seagrasses with vegetative system sympodially branched, lignified as;

Category 6. leaves distichously arranged along upright stems e.g., *Thalassodendron*.

Although in the genus *Halophila*, leaves are basically arranged in pairs, there are some variations on this theme e.g., *Halophila spinulosa* has caulescent stems with leaflets arranged in opposite pairs (den Hartog 1970, Kuo and McComb 1989, Posluszny and Tomlinson 1990) or has 2-3 leaflets per node in a whorled arrangement (Japar Sidik et al. 2000), and in *Halophila beccarii*

the upright stems are crowned by a rosette consisting of three to thirteen leaves (Muta Harah et al. 2003a).

HOW ARE THEY IDENTIFIED?

The classification with respect to species separation has always been a fairly simple in terrestrial plants which centered on the flower structure. Characterization or species separation in seagrass has not. Reproductive structures comprising flowers and fruits have rarely been used as key characters since they tend to be similarly structured. In addition, flowers and fruits are also often inconspicuous and not obvious to the untrained eyes. Since the findings of seagrass flowers and fruits are infrequent or inconsistent, taxonomists focused to vegetative characters to identify sterile materials (den Hartog 1964, 1970, Fortes 1993, Lanyon 1986, Japar Sidik et al. 1995, 1999b, 2007, Japar Sidik and Muta Harah 1996, 2002). The organization of the vegetative organs of seagrass is peculiar and quite different from that of other flowering plants and hence can be used for identification of seagrass species. For taxonomic and descriptive purposes it is desirable to have a consistent terminology for the various vegetative organs (refer to Figure 1) and morphology of adult plants can be recognized through paired cross-vein numbers (*Halophila ovalis*, *H. minor*, Figure 4), rhizome characteristics (*Enhalus acoroides*, *Thalassia hemprichii*), blade tips and blade width (*Halodule uninervis*, *H. pinifolia*, Figure 5), leaf and arrangement of flowers (*Halophila beccarii*, *H. decipiens*, *H. spinulosa*, *Syringodium isoetifolium*) and leaf sheath characteristics (*Cymodocea serrulata*, *C. rotundata*). These characters are most obvious and found to be useful for field identifying species of seagrass in Malaysia.

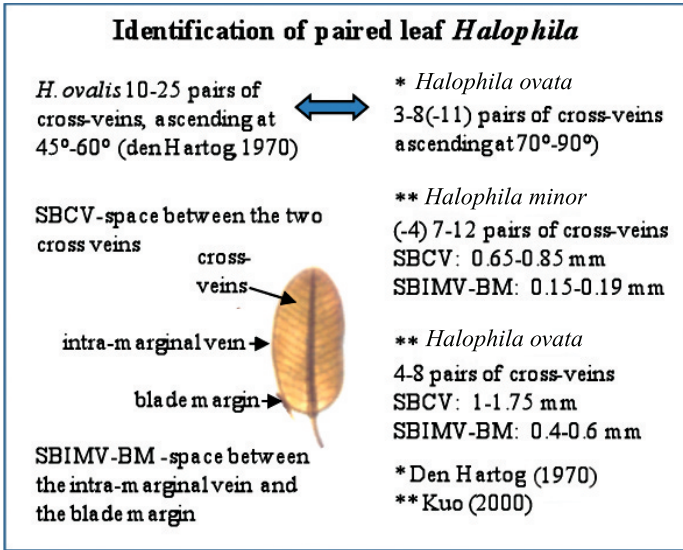


Figure 4 Species differentiation between *Halophila ovalis*, *H. ovata* and *H. minor* based on paired cross-veins numbers

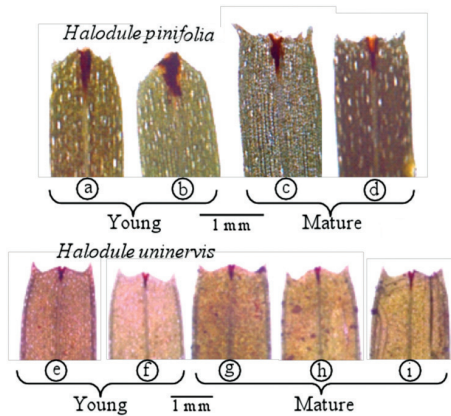


Figure 5 Leaf-tips of *Halodule pinifolia* (a-d) and *H. uninervis* (e-i). In *H. pinifolia*, young (a, b) leaf-tips are rounded or pointed while mature (c, d) leaf-tips are set with numerous small uneven serratures. In *H. uninervis* both young (e, f) and mature (g-i) leaf-tips are with 2 lateral teeth and obtuse or round median tooth

Another method for confirming identification is based on the epidermal cells features of the leaf surface (Figure 6). Epidermal cells features and keys adapted from Channells and Morrissey (1981) are useful and applicable when the plant specimen consists of damaged leaves or fragments. We have used this feature for the identification of seagrass plant tissues in gut of juvenile flower crab, *Portunus pelagicus* (Arshad et al. 2002).

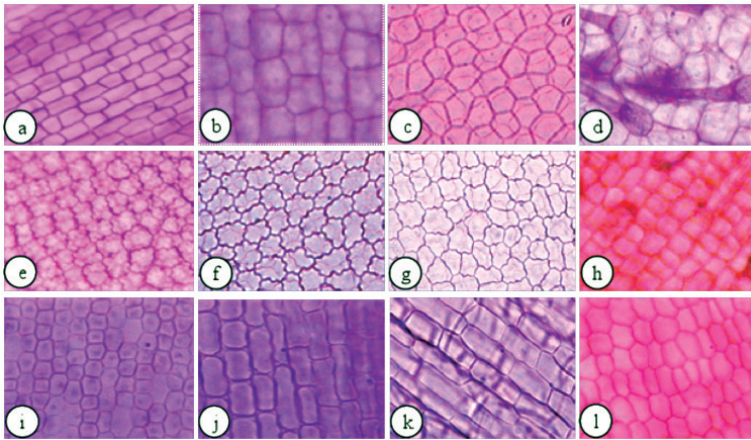


Figure 6 Leaf surface cells of a-*E. acoroides*, b-*T. hemprichii*, c-*H. beccarii*, d-*H. decipiens*, e-*H. minor*, f-*H. ovalis*, g-*H. spinulosa*, h-*C. rotundata*, i-*C. serrulata*, j-*H. pinifolia*, k-*H. uninervis* and l-*S. isoetifolium*

Other component of seagrass plants that has unique characteristics that can be used for species identification is the seed sculpturing feature particularly in *Halophila* (Figure 7, Japar Sidik et al. 2006b). *Halophila* seeds from different species showed diverse seed coats morphology with different sculpturing. Seeds of *H. beccarii*, *Halophila ovalis* and *H. decipiens* have coats with variations in micro sculpturing within the reticulations. *Halophila* seeds are

sub-globose and bluntly beaked at both ends. With respect to gross morphology, *Halophila beccarii*, *H. decipiens*, *H. ovalis* have reticulate testa or seed coats. Detailed examination under scanning electron microscope indicated that seed coat of each *Halophila* species have distinct patterns or characters. The seed coat surface *H. beccarii* has reticulation with a pale short brown peg (appearing as brown dot as observed under light microscope) in the center of the reticulation. The surface within the reticulation is smooth.

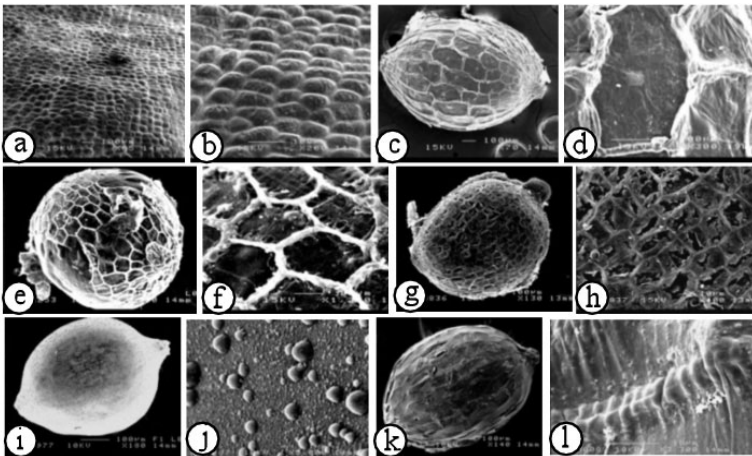


Figure 7 Seed coat morphology of seagrasses, (a-b)-*Enhalus acoroides* seed coat compared to the *Halophila*; (c-d)-*Halophila beccarii*, (e-f)-*H. decipiens*, (g-h)-*H. ovalis*, (i-j)-*Halophila* sp. and *Halophila* from Fiji, (k-l)-*H. stipulacea*

The seed coat of *H. decipiens* has hexagonal reticulation without peg at the center and smooth within the reticulation. In *H. ovalis*, the surface of the seed covering has a distinct isometric or rectangular reticulation and some micro sculptures within the reticulation. The seed of *Halophila* sp. is sub-globose in shape. The seed coat is without reticulation but verrucose in appearance sculptured with

numerous small blunt projections. As a comparison *Halophila stipulacea* (a species not present in Malaysia, the one shown here is from Fiji) seed is also sub-globular with reticulate seed coat surface. The boundary of the reticulations has a peculiar fish bones sutures. *Halophila spinulosa* is characteristically sculptured with numerous long small peg-like projections (Birch 1981). It has been reported that the peculiar reticulate seed coat in Australian *H. ovalis* and *H. tricostata* probably facilitates floating by entrapment of air bubbles and dispersal of seeds (Kuo and Kirkman 1992, Kuo et al. 1993). However, field observation indicated that in *H. beccarii*, although the seed coat has reticulation, the seed is negative buoyant and may not promote floating and may not be conducive to the wide dispersal of seed (Muta Harah et al. 1999). Irrespective of species, the seed coat sculpturing has some functional significance in providing surface friction against the substratum whereby the seed coat loosened around the seed before emergence of the coiled cotyledon (Birch 1981) probably for the initiation of germination. Additional studies are needed to assess the effect of the difference of seed coats sculpturing in order to find out more on their functional roles.

Most seagrass plants are identified based on the classic reference “The Sea Grasses of The World” of den Hartog (1970) which is devoted on the use of vegetative characters and almost all taxonomy are based from herbarium specimens alone. Although seagrass plants can be separated into species following den Hartog (1970), they showed level of variation, often plastic in nature particularly with regard to the gross morphology. In Malaysia, distinct intraspecific variations in gross morphology have been observed namely *Halodule pinifolia* and *H. uninervis* (Japar Sidik et al. 1999a), *H. spinulosa* (Japar Sidik et al. 2000), *Halophila ovalis* (Japar Sidik et al. 2001b, c) and *Cymodocea serrulata* (Japar

Sidik et al. 2001c). For these species, we have introduced the term variant, understood as having characters that differed in a minor way from the usual characteristics of the species but plants have clearly defined geographical or ecological distribution.

Two morphological variants of *H. uninervis* (narrow- and wide-leaved) and *H. pinifolia* (short- and long-leaved) can be distinguished (Japar Sidik et al. 1999a). Both species adapt in the different environmental conditions through changes in morphology. Water depth (associated with ambient light), sediment type and sediment depth have an influence on the morphology of vegetative components e.g., leaf length, leaf width, erect stem length and rhizome growth pattern (Japar Sidik et al. 2008). In the case of *Halodule pinifolia* and *H. uninervis* plants or their variants, they have clearly defined ecological and geographical distribution. *Halodule uninervis* occurs around off shore islands or shoals and reef atoll. It rarely thrives in the coastal waters of the mainland. *Halodule pinifolia* tends to thrive in relatively calm coastal waters of the mainland, particularly in lagoons or bays and as isolated populations on shoals. It is rarely found around islands.

In *H. spinulosa*, two variants have been observed, those as described by den Hartog (1970), Phillips and Menez (1988) and (Kuo and McComb 1989, Posluszny and Tomlinson 1990, Japar Sidik et al. 1999b) as having opposite leaflets at each node along the erect shoot and, those with flowering shoot have 2 leaflets at each node and the same shoot possesses a rosette of 3 to (4) sessile leaflets at each node while supporting a male or female flower or developing fruit (Figure 8). This new variant is only for *H. spinulosa* from subtidal areas of Tg. Adang, Johore, Peninsular Malaysia and Police Beach, Pulau Gaya, Sabah (Japar Sidik et al. 2000).

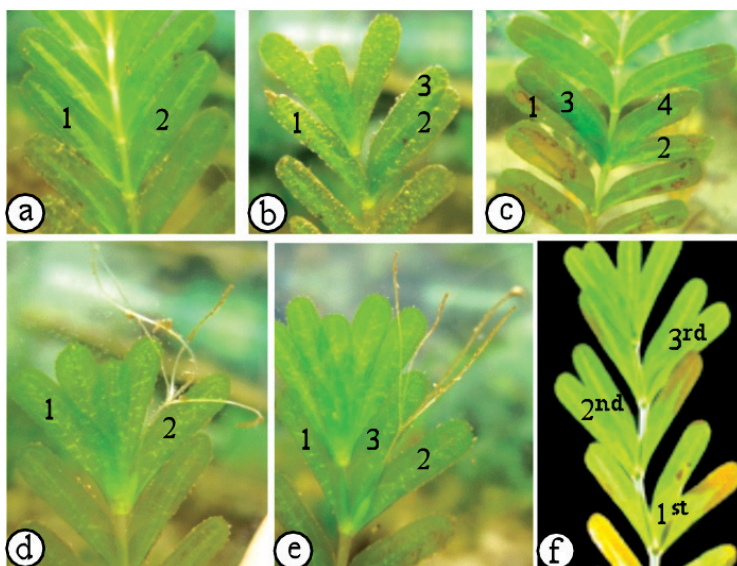


Figure 8 Sterile (a-c) shoot of *Halophila spinulosa* having opposite leaflets at each node along the erect shoot: a-2 leaflets; b-3 leaflets; c-4 leaflets and, flowering shoot having, d-2 leaflets; e-3 leaflets and f-alternately arrangement 3 leaflets per node

In *H. ovalis* five variants have been detected differing in basic folia characteristics; dimensions (small and big-leaved, Japar Sidik et al. 2001b, c), colour (green-, purplish red-, purple-leaved, Low et al. 2005; red blotches or dots in *Halophila* sp., Japar Sidik et al. 2010, Figure 9). The phenotypic plasticity of leaf size is related to depth and light variations. The survival under minimum light requires seagrass ability to respond to changes in light availability through a variety of morphological and physiological mechanisms. The primary adaptive morphological features towards decreased light include bigger leaf size, longer petiole length and erect stem length (Japar Sidik et al. 2001b). Similar respond has also been shown by *H. decipiens* which responded to the low light

environment (shallow water depth) by having bigger leaves (Japar Sidik et al. 1995) compared to those small-leaved *H. decipiens* growing in deep waters (Japar Sidik et al. 1997, Muta Harah et al. 2003b).

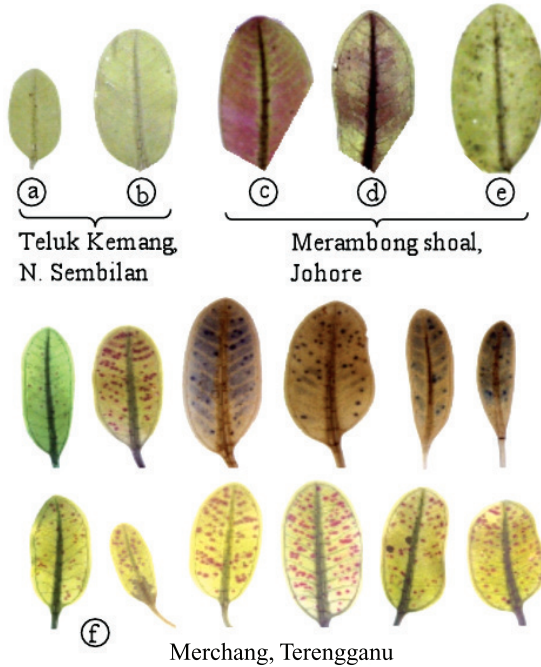


Figure 9 *Halophila* variants. The variability in *Halophila*'s leaf shapes in respond to the environment. Teluk Kemang, N. Sembilan: a-small-leaved *Halophila* occurred in shallow area, b-*Halophila* in relatively deeper water produced big-leaved variant; Merambong shoal, Johore: *Halophila* in this shoal possessed three leaf variants with respect to coloration, c-purplish red-, d-purple-, e-normal green-leaved. Merchang, Terengganu: f-*Halophila* in pure or mixed population, possessed different leaf shapes in respond to wide and frequent fluctuation in water salinity (9.4 to 34.5 psu) and coloration, red or purplish spots or spots to direct exposure to strong sun-light during the low tides

Halophila leaves possessing purplish coloration, red blotches or spots are as a form of response for protection of *Halophila* to direct exposure to strong sun-light during the low tides. It is believed that blotches are anthocyanin pigments (Low 2005) and serves as UV-blocking pigments (Hemminga and Duarte 2000). In a recent survey of the world's six seagrass bioregions, Novak and Short (2010) documented leaf reddening in 12 seagrass species from intertidal and shallow subtidal waters at 25 locations in the tropical Atlantic and tropical Indo-Pacific Oceans including additional observations of seagrasses with reddened leaves from Australia. The phenomenon is now documented in 15 seagrass species at 29 locations worldwide. Similar to terrestrial angiosperms, leaf reddening in seagrasses may relate to enhanced production and accumulation of anthocyanins, water soluble flavonoid pigments (Lee and Gould 2002) after exposure to one or more stressors (Novak and Short 2010).

Others *Halophila* species from Peninsular Malaysia and Sabah, East Malaysia (Annaletchumy et al. 2005, Japar Sidik et al. 2010, refer to the Figures 10 and 11) showed leaf shapes, dimension (cross vein number, SBCV-space between the two cross veins, SBIMV-BM-space between the intra-marginal vein), the blade margin and description that do not fit or conform to the description of den Hartog (1970) for *H. ovalis* and Kuo (2000) for *H. ovata* and *H. minor*. These small-leaved *Halophila* cannot be placed within the *H. ovalis*-*H. minor*-*H. ovata* complex as collective species, perhaps they can be treated under separate taxon.



Figure 10 Variation in relative size and shape of *Halophila* leaves (drawn to scale) from nine locations along the coastlines of Peninsular Malaysia and Sabah, East Malaysia. The leaves are representative from plants of Pulau Perhentian, Terengganu; Pulau Redang, Terengganu; Merchang, Terengganu; Tanjung Adang, Johore; Pulau Manukan, Sabah; Pulau Gaya, Sabah; Teluk Kerambunai, Sabah; Pulau Jambongan, Sabah and Pulau Selingan, Sabah

In *Cymodocea serrulata*, two variants can be observed, distinguished by the presence or absence of the long, leaf-bearing erect stems. The long erect stem is directly related with the shading effect of the bigger and taller companion seagrasses, e.g., *Enhalus acoroides* or associated seaweeds e.g., *Sargassum* spp. or low light conditions and sedimentation (Japar Sidik et al. 2001c, Lam et al. 2004).

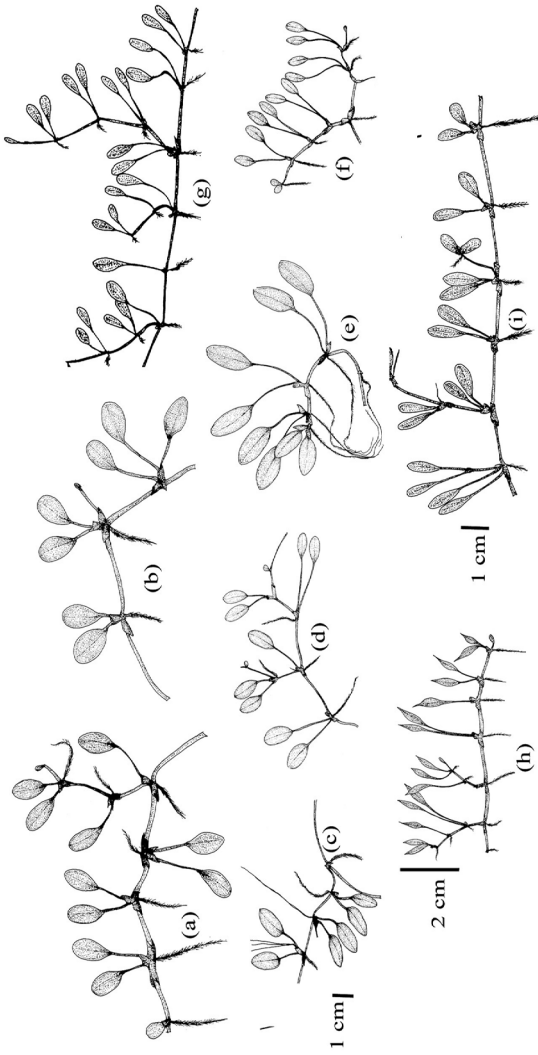


Figure 11 Variation in relative size of *Halophila* (drawn to scale) from nine locations. a-Pulau Perhentian, b-Pulau Redang, c-Merchang, d-Tanjung Adang, e-Pulau Manukan, f-Pulau Gaya, g-Teluk Karambunai, h-Pulau Jambongan and i-Pulau Selingan

Based on evidences, it is not realistic and practical to separate seagrass and their environment characteristics as they make some anatomical, physiological and morphological adjustments in order to complete their life. The true identity of seagrasses includes their ecological niche and morphological adaptation to their specific environments as explained above. Reliable visual morphological characters combined with molecular identification are now being used for identification of seagrasses.

Seagrass plants can also be identified based on their life cycle. The lives of seagrass plants, like those of all other organisms, are finite, having both a beginning and an end. The advanced groups of plants can be divided into three general categories based on their life cycle. Annuals complete their entire life cycle in one growing season. Biennials require two seasons to complete their life cycle; in the first season they are vegetative, and only flower and reproduce in their second year of life. Perennials continue to live and flower for some years after reaching maturity.

Studies clearly showed *H. beccarii* germinates from seed, grows into seedlings, juvenile plants, flowering and fruiting plants. They produce flowers and fruits continuously throughout the year (as in Kemaman, Terengganu,) or produce flowers, fruits and finally disappeared, all occurring within a period of approximately eight months (as in Pengkalan Nangka, Kelantan). The phenological cycles in the two studies suggest that *H. beccarii* can be both as perennial (Muta Harah et al. 1999) and an annual (Muta Harah et al. 2002) species (Figure 12).

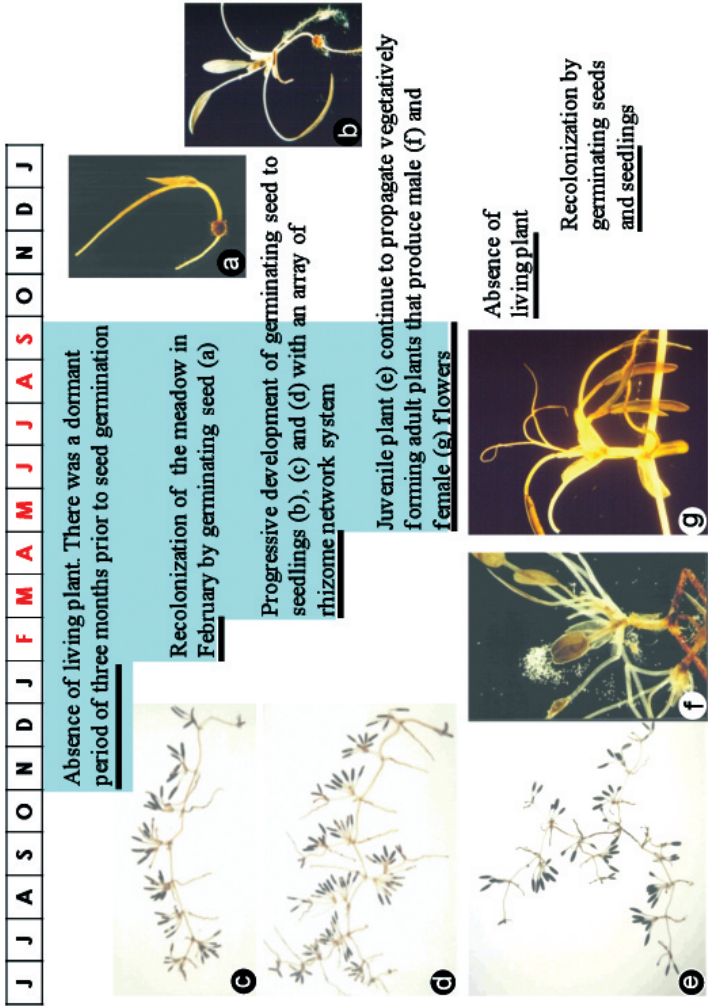


Figure 12 Growth cycle of annual *Halophila beccarii* (Source: Muta Harah et al. 2000)

Halophila ovalis from Malaysia, a dioecious is also an annual species (Japar Sidik et al. 2008, Figure 13). Other *Halophila*, such as dioecious *H. tricostata* at Fitzroy Island, in the Great Barrier Reef (Kuo et al. 1993) and monoecious *H. decipiens* in the estuaries of south western Australia (Kuo and Kirkman 1995) and from St. Croix in the U.S. Virgin Islands (Josselyn et al. 1986) are annual while dioecious *H. ovalis* (R. Br.) Hook. f. at Whitfords near Perth, south western Australia (Kuo and Kirkman, 1992), dioecious *H. johnsonii* in Indian Estuary, Florida (Jewett-Smith et al. 1997) and monoecious *H. decipiens* at Toro Point on the Caribbean coast of Panama (McMillan and Soong 1989) are perennial. Our studies have demonstrated that the identification of species must also consider the life cycle or covering series of observations of the species and not merely dependent on one-time collection.

FLOWERS AND GENDER IN SEAGRASSES

Seagrasses can reproduce both sexually and asexually, through detached or drifting rhizome fragments. One of the characteristics of seagrass is its capability to reproduce in submerged condition and does not rely on animals for pollination (den Hartog 1970). The sexual reproduction of seagrasses does not differ from reproductive modes of their land counterparts except with respect to the dispersal processes and frequencies of dioecious species (Ewanchuk and Williams 1996).

Seagrasses are modular plants composed of units or ramets, which are repeated during clonal growth (Harper 1977, Hemminga and Duarte 2000). Each ramet is composed of a set of module; a piece of rhizome which can be horizontal or vertical, a pair or a bundle of leaves attached to the rhizome and a root system. In addition, the ramet may hold flowers or fruits depending on the timing of observation. In spite of the necessary presence of all other

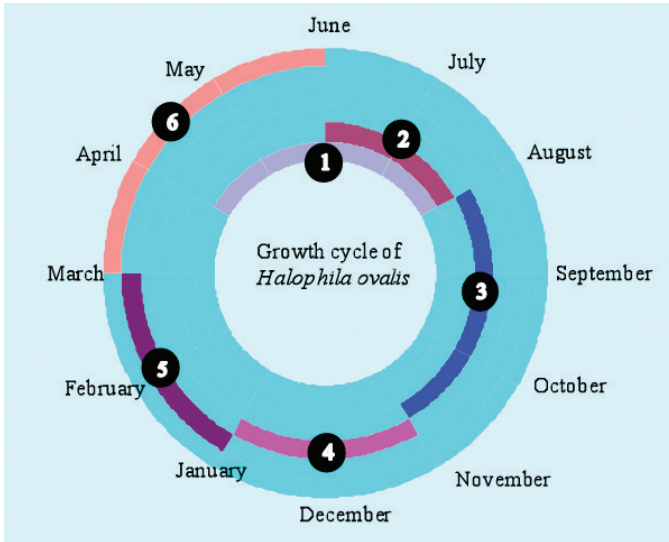


Figure 13 Growth cycle of annual *Halophila ovalis*. The stages from germinating seeds, seedlings, young to mature plants with the eventual death of *H. ovalis* plants take about 6 months
(Source: Japar Sidik et al. 2008)

- 1) Flowering (both male and female flowers in April and lasted for three months until July.
- 2) Fruiting occurred in June to July.
- 3) Decreasing in shoot density leading to the absence of living plants and dispersing seeds from August until November.
- 4) Different developmental stages from seeds, germinating seeds, seedlings, juvenile plants to formation of mature plants.
- 5) Flowering detected again in January.
- 6) Decreasing in shoot density started in early of March.

modules, most seagrasses e.g., *Cymodocea rotundata*, *C. serrulata* and *Syringodium isoetifolium* shoots rarely produce flowers or fruits. Species such as some *Halophila* and *Enhalus acoroides* flower frequently. These species are able to produce a flower or more for every rhizome node formed. In higher plants, flowers are essential as a structure and mechanism for propagation. The typical flowers of land plants are complex, having sepals, petals and the essential components the stamen and pistil. Seagrass flowers are often inconspicuous, relatively simple and reduced in forms usually as separate sexes male and female. Seagrass flowers are diverse morphologically and range in size from the large flowers of *Enhalus* to minute flowers of *Halophila*. Of the thirteen flowering seagrasses two species, *Halophila beccarii* and *H. decipiens* (Table 2, Figure 14) are monoecious (15%) where functionally male and female flowers are on the same plant while the rest; *Enhalus acoroides*, *Thalassia hemprichii*, *Halophila beccarii*, *H. decipiens*, *H. ovalis*, *H. minor*, *H. spinulosa*, *Halophila* sp., *Cymodocea rotundata*, *C. serrulata*, *Halodule pinifolia*, *H. uinervis* and *Syringodium isoetifolium* are dioecious (85%).

In dioecious seagrass, plants are separated into sexes, functionally female and male flowers are on separate plants which are relatively rare in land flowering plants. In Angiosperms, hermaphroditism occurs in plants where individual bisexual flower, the reproductive organ with both male and female equivalent parts (stamens and pistil) is common. Seventy percent (70%) of plants are hermaphroditic, while 5% are dioecious and 7% are monoecious. About 7% of species are gynodioecious (both female and hermaphrodite plants present) or androdioecious (both male and hermaphrodite plants present), while 10% plants that both unisexual and bisexual flowers (Molnar 2004). Worldwide, there is a high frequency of dioecious plants in seagrasses and has been interpreted to be important in the

out crossing mechanism (McConchie and Knox 1989) or to avoid self-fertilization (Hemminga and Duarte 2000).

Table 2 Flowering forms in Malaysian seagrasses

No.	Seagrass species	Gender	
1	<i>Halophila beccarii</i>	Monoecious	Andromonoecious
2	<i>H. decipiens</i>	Monoecious	Gynomonoecious
3	<i>Enhalus acoroides</i>	Dioecious	-
2	<i>Thalassia hemprichii</i>	Dioecious	-
5	<i>H. minor</i>	Dioecious	-
6	<i>H. ovalis</i>	Dioecious	-
7	<i>H. spinulosa</i>	Dioecious	-
8	<i>Halophila</i> sp.	Dioecious	-
9	<i>Cymodocea rotundata</i>	Dioecious	-
10	<i>C. serrulata</i>	Dioecious	-
11	<i>Halodule pinifolia</i>	Dioecious	-
12	<i>H. uninervis</i>	Dioecious	-
13	<i>Syringodium isoetifolium</i>	Dioecious	-
14	<i>Thalassodendron ciliatum</i>	No flower observed	
15	<i>Ruppia maritima</i>	No flower observed	

A whole range of flower diversities are shown in seagrasses at the genus level. Flowers can vary in structure, morphology and the orientation along the axis of the shoot of the plants. The structure and morphology of the Malaysian seagrass flowers are illustrated in Figures 14 and 15.

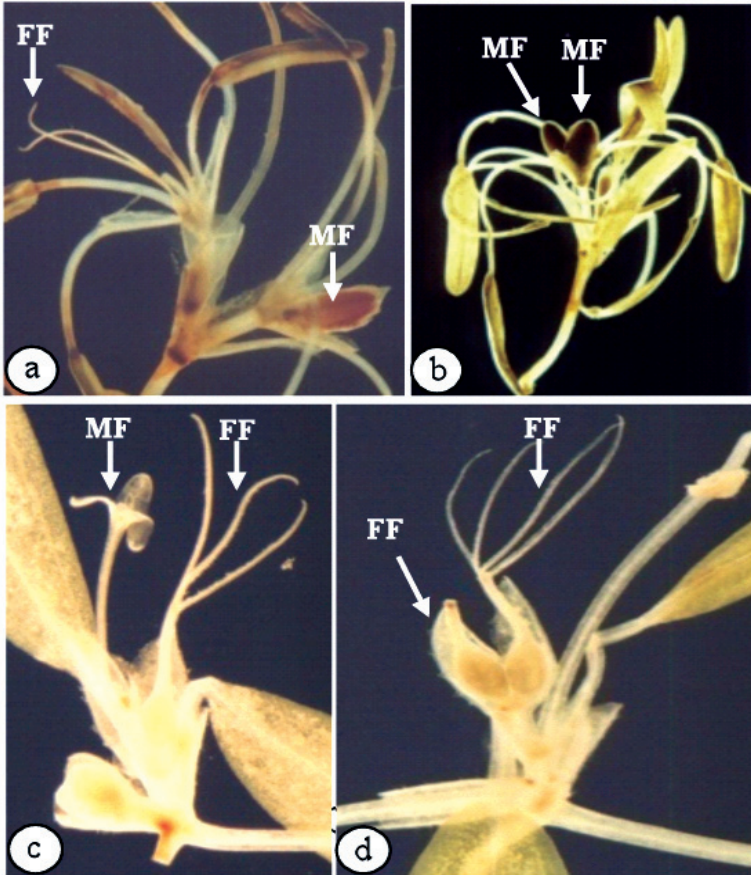


Figure 14 Flowers and sexes in seagrasses. a-in monoecious *H. beccarii*, a single shoot bears a pair of opposite sex, male and female flowers; b- Andromonoecious, a rare observation on a pair of the same sex male flowers (MF); c-similarly, in monoecious *H. decipiens*, a single shoot bears a pair of opposite sex, male and female flowers and; d- Gynomonocious, a pair of the same sex female flowers (FF)
Source: Japar Sidik et al. (2006c)

In *Halophila* irrespective whether they are monoecious or dioecious e.g., in *H. beccarii*, *H. decipiens*, *H. minor*, *H. ovalis*, *H. spinulosa*, a male flower comprises a pedicel, three tepals (sepal and petal being reduced to a structure called tepal) while still retaining the stamen comprising 3 anthers which housed the pollen (Figure 15a). A female flower is also reduced in the form of having an ovary, a hypanthium and three styles that lack stigma (Figure 15b). Similarity in flowers' structure and morphology are also observed in other *Halophila*; *H. australis* Doty & Stone (Doty and Stone 1966, den Hartog 1970), *H. hawaiiiana* Doty & Stone (Doty and Stone 1966, Herbert 1986), *H. johnsonii* Eiseman (Eiseman and McMillan 1980), *H. ovata* Gaud (Ostenfeld 1909), *H. stipulacea* (Forssk.) Aschers. (den Hartog 1970), *H. baillonis* Aschers. Ex Dickie in Hook. f. (den Hartog 1970, Oliveira et al. 1983), *H. engelmannii* Aschers. (den Hartog 1970, Short and Cambridge 1984) and *H. tricostata* Greenway (Greenway 1979, Kuo et al. 1993).

Enhalus acoroides (male plant), *H. spinulosa* (both male and female plants) and *S. isoetifolium* do not develop solitary terminal flowers on their vertical shoots. In *E. acoroides* a single male inflorescence comprises numerous male flowers enclosed by spathal leaves (Figure 15c). In *H. spinulosa*, flowers are laterally arranged in alternate and acropetal (Figure 15e, f) succession (Japar Sidik et al. 1999b, Japar Sidik et al. 2000) along the shoot.

In some seagrasses, mostly dioecious species, their individual shoots carry flowers pair of the same sex-female e.g., in *E. acoroides* (Figure 15d, female plant), *S. isoetifolium*, *H. pinifolia*, *Halodule uninervis*, *C. rotundata*, *C. serrulata* and, the same sex-male e.g., in *T. hemprichii* (Figure 15g, male plant). A female plant of *T. hemprichii* (Figure 15h) has a single flower in a shoot. In temperate species, *Thalassia testudinum* Banks ex Konig have more than one flower in a shoot for a male plant which has been reported by William and Mark (1978). Male plants of *S. isoetifolium*, *H.*

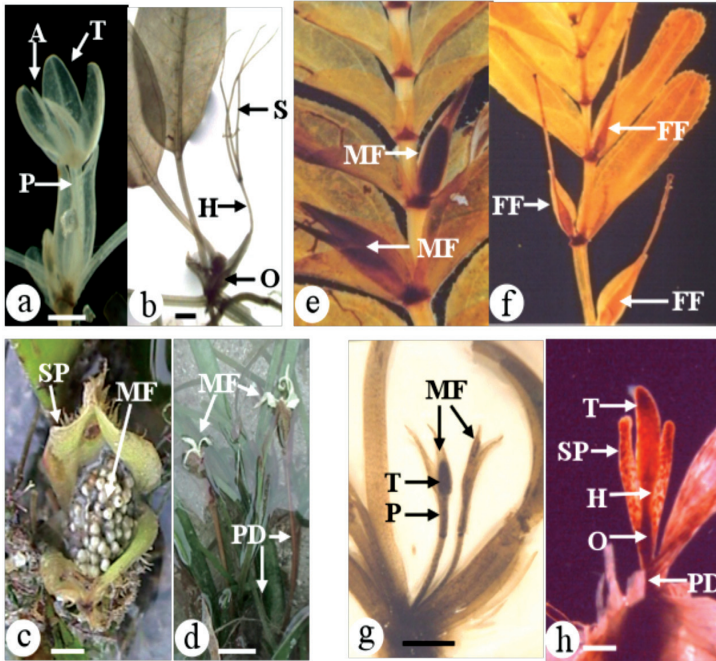


Figure 15 Flowers and sexes in seagrasses. a-The male flower in *Halophila* comprises a pedicel (P), three tepals (T) and alternating three anthers (A), scale bar=2 mm; b-the *Halophila* female flower in comprises an ovary (O), a hypanthium (H) and three styles (S), scale bar=5 mm; c-the numerous white male flowers (MF) in *Enhalus acoroides* enclosed by spathal leaves (SP), scale bar=1.5 cm; d-the female flowers (MF) in *E. acoroides* borne by a long peduncle (PD), scale bar=10 cm; e, f-in *H. spinulosa*, male flowers (MF) and female flowers (FF) are laterally arranged in alternate and acropetal (i.e., the lower flowers are older than the upper flowers) succession along the shoot, scale bar=3 mm; g-in male plant of *T. hemprichii*, a shoot bears a pair of male flowers (MF). The male flower comprises a pedicel (P), three tepals (T) which house the anthers containing pollen, scale bar=10 mm; h-the female plant of *T. hemprichii* bears only a single female flower (FF) by a pair of spathal leaves (SP) in a shoot. A female flower comprises a conical ovary (O) supported by a short peduncle (PD), a persistent hypanthium (H) and three tepals enclosing six styles with 11 stigmas

pinifolia, *H. uninervis*, *C. rotundata*, and *C. serrulata* borne a single flower at each shoot node (Japar Sidik et al. 2006c). The information and illustrations presented (Figures 14 and 15) demonstrate the possible diverse range of variation with respect to flowers' sexes (gender-male or female), morphology, structure, size, number and their arrangement on the plant ramet. The sexes for seagrass plants are determined by the presence of both male and female flowers on the same plant (monoecious) or separate male and female flowers on different plants (dioecious).

WHERE DO WE FIND SEAGRASSES?

Seagrass beds are patchy throughout the Peninsular and East Malaysia. The major important seagrass beds and area are shown in Figure 16. The coasts of Peninsular Malaysia are relatively extensive and environmental conditions available are different on the east and west coasts. On the west coast, seagrasses occur in coastal waters of open sea while in the east coast, seagrasses inhabit the calm lagoons, behind the sand ridges sheltered from the open sea. The general suitability of the coastline in the east coast with inland coastal lagoons sheltered from waves make the area available for colonization. During the monsoon season, the physical features fluctuate along with the water quality conditions and create a highly dynamic and fluctuating environment and hence seagrasses are rarely found in the open sea. Records (Japar Sidik 1994) indicated that in Peninsular Malaysia, *Enhalus acoroides* and *Halophila ovalis* are common around the coast, on muddy shores, and in areas exposed at low tide as documented by Ridley (1924), Burkill (1935), Henderson (1954) and Holttum (1954). Seagrass beds of considerable sizes (Japar Sidik et al. 1996) are found in Johore (south-west and east coasts), Peninsular Malaysia and much of the habitats have been utilized or deteriorated due to coastal development (Japar Sidik and Muta Harah 2003b).



Figure 16 The major seagrass areas, associated habitats, utilization by coastal communities and other users in Peninsular Malaysia (A) and east Malaysia- Sabah (B) and Sarawak (C). Lagoon¹, intertidal², subtidal³. Aquaculture^a, turtle sanctuary^b, traditional capture fisheries^c, dugong feeding ground^d and marine park^e

Norhadi (1993) described seagrass habitats that are already degraded by human activities in Sabah, East Malaysia. This may explain the observed geographical distribution and areas of seagrasses patchy distribution that is no longer extensive along the Malaysian coastline (Japar Sidik et al. 2006a, Japar Sidik and Muta Harah 2011).

The most natural and extensive communities occur in the south-west coast and east coasts of Peninsular Malaysia, Sabah and Sarawak where urbanization is minimal. Along the west coast of peninsular Malaysia, patches of mixed species seagrass beds grow on substrates from the sandy-mud of Tanjung Rhu in the extreme northern region along the coast of P. Langkawi, Kedah to sand-covered corals of Teluk Kemang, Negri Sembilan extending to as far as P. Serimbun, Malacca. The Teluk Kemang is the only area in mainland Peninsula that has an intertidal seagrass bed on a reef platform (Japar Sidik et al. 2006a). In the southern region, the calcareous sandy-mud subtidal shoals of Tanjung Adang Darat, Tanjung Adang Laut and Merambong (Figure 17) at depths of 2 to 2.7 m support ten species of seagrasses, the highest species number for any locality in Peninsular Malaysia or Malaysia (Japar Sidik and Muta Harah 2003a).

Most of the intertidal areas of the eastern coastline are fringed with sandy to rocky areas and therefore are not suitable habitats for seagrasses. Beds of two species, *Halophila beccarii*-*Halodule pinifolia* inhabit the fine sand substrate of the shallow inland coastal lagoons from Pengkalan Nangka, Kelantan to Paka, Terengganu while *H. pinifolia*-*H. ovalis* inhabit similar substrate type at Gong Batu and Merchang. A monospecific bed of *H. pinifolia* is found at Kemasik, Terengganu.



Figure 17 In the southern region, the calcareous sandy-mud subtidal shoal of Merambong, Johore, visible only during the extreme low tides supports diverse species of seagrasses

Monospecific beds of *H. pinifolia* or *H. minor* or *H. decipiens* (e.g., at P. Redang, Muta Harah et al. 2003a) to mixed species seagrass beds occur in the waters of the off-shore islands with fringing coral reefs of P. Sibul, P. Tengah, P. Besar and P. Tinggi, P. Redang and P. Perhentian (Japar Sidik et al. 2006a, Japar Sidik and Muta Harah 2003a, Muta Harah et al. 2003a) and P. Tioman (Zelina et al. 2000). Seagrasses usually inhabit the outer region between the corals and the semi-open sea. With different species forming distinct communities and environmental parameters, seagrass beds are site specific.

The west and south-eastern coasts of Sabah harbor mixed species seagrass beds in substrates ranging from sand, muddy-sand to coral

rubble of the intertidal zone down to a depth of 2.5 m. There are six areas of intertidal mixed associations of seagrass and coral reef along the west coast at Bak-Bak, Tanjung Mengayau, Sepangar Bay and Pulau Gaya. The four off-shore islands of P. Maganting, P. Tabawan, P. Bohey Dulang and P. Sipadan along the south-eastern coast have subtidal seagrasses growing on coral rubble (Norhadi 1993, Japar Sidik et al. 1997, 1999a, 1999b, 2000, Josephine and De Silva 2007).

In Sarawak, records of the presence of seagrasses are those of *H. beccarii*, collected in Sungai Bintulu (Beccari 1904, den Hartog 1970) and *H. decipiens* at P. Talang Talang, Semantan (Phang 2000). A survey in 2003 discovered an extensive intertidal beach front of Punang-Sari-Lawas river estuary, Sarawak, comprising sandy flatland traversed by shallow channels, intermittent pockets of pools and mangrove mud flats harbouring seven seagrass species: *E. acoroides*, *Thalassia hemprichii*, *H. ovalis*, *H. beccarii*, *Cymodocea rotundata*, *H. pinifolia* and *H. uninervis* (Muta Harah and Japar Sidik 2004, 2005). A survey in 2009 at Kuala Similajau, Bintulu, recorded three species of seagrasses; *H. decipiens* inhabiting the deeper subtidal area while *T. hemprichii* and *H. pinifolia* occurred in the intertidal sandy rocky shore.

SEAGRASS SPECIES AND DIVERSITY

Information on seagrass diversity from as early 1904 to 1990 was based on accounts and records that appeared in the publications of Ridley (1907-Materials for a flora of the Malay Peninsula Part 1, pp. 5-6; 1927), Burkill (1935), Henderson (1954), Holttum (1954), Sinclair (1956), Keng (1969) and den Hartog (1970). These were on seagrass brief plant's descriptions and habitat lists of 7 species of seagrasses; *E. acoroides* (then referred to as *Enhalus koenigii* by Holttum 1954), *H. ovalis*, *H. minor* (*H. ovata* as written by

Henderson 1954), *H. spinulosa*, *Halodule uninervis* (*Diplanthera uninervis*), *T. hemprichii* and *Ruppia maritima* (*R. rostellata* as identified by Burkill, Herbarium specimen no. 6234, Flora of Province Wellesley, Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew-England). Early records on the distribution of the seagrass communities in Sabah were made by den Hartog (1970) in three areas; Labuan Island, Sandakan, and Lahad Datu. *Halophila beccarii* was the only species recorded for Sarawak (Beccari 1904, den Hartog 1970). Based on the available records in the form of herbarium specimens deposited at the herbaria of Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew-England, British Natural History Museum-England, Universitatis Florentinae-Instituto Botanico-Italy, Rijksherbarium, Leyden-the Netherlands, Herbarium of the Botanic Gardens-Singapore and the University of Malaya and actual collection by the author, colleagues and students, Malaysia has 15 species belonging to 8 genera from 3 families (Table 3, Japar Sidik and Muta Harah 2011) of seagrasses sparsely distributed over wide areas covering the west, east coasts and southern part of Peninsular Malaysia (Figure 18), Sabah and Sarawak (Figure 19) of East Malaysia. Three other species, *T. ciliatum* (Phang 2000), *R. maritima* (Burkill 1935) and *Halophila* sp. (Japar Sidik and Muta Harah 2011) are rare in occurrence. Several localities along the coasts of Malaysia support well-developed seagrass communities and a large proportion (40%-71%) of all known seagrass species in Malaysia. The Teluk Kemang and Tanjung Adang-Merambong shoals of the Peninsular Malaysia, P. Gaya, Sabah and Punang-Sari-Lawas river estuary, Sarawak has a greater diversity of seagrasses.

The previous low diversity of seagrasses is due to; (i) undiscovered habitats where seagrass thrive e.g., river system, coastal lagoon, coral reefs, mangrove areas, subtidal shoals and seagrasses are not confined to the sea alone, (ii) seagrasses are often overlooked by low tide collectors and by collectors using

Table 3 Seagrass species in Peninsular Malaysia (Wc-west coast, Ec-east coast, S-southern) and in East Malaysia (SWc-Sabah east coast, SNc-Sabah north coast, SSE-Sabah south eastern, SA-Sarawak)

Family and Species	Peninsular Malaysia			East Malaysia			
	Wc	Ec	S	SWc	SNc	SSE	SA
Hydrocharitaceae							
1. <i>Enhalus acoroides</i> (L.f.) Royle	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
2. <i>Thalassia hemprichii</i> (Ehrenb.) Aschers.	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
3. <i>Halophila beccarii</i> Aschers.	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
4. <i>Halophila decipiens</i> Ostenfeld	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
5. <i>Halophila minor</i> (Zoll.) den Hartog	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
6. <i>Halophila ovalis</i> (R. Br.) Hook.f.	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
7. <i>Halophila spinulosa</i> Aschers.							
8. <i>Halophila</i> sp.				+		+	
Cymodoceaceae							
9. <i>Cymodocea rotundata</i> Ehrenb. & Hempr. ex Aschers.	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
10. <i>Cymodocea serrulata</i> (R. Br.) Aschers. & Magnus	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
11. <i>Halodule pinifolia</i> (Miki) den Hartog	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
12. <i>Halodule uninervis</i> (Forsk.) Aschers.	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
13. <i>Syringodium isoetifolium</i> (Aschers.) Dandy	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
14. <i>Thalassodendron ciliatum</i> (Forsk.) den Hartog				+			
Ruppiaaceae							
15. <i>Ruppia maritima</i> L.	+						
Total	12	12	11	12	10	11	8

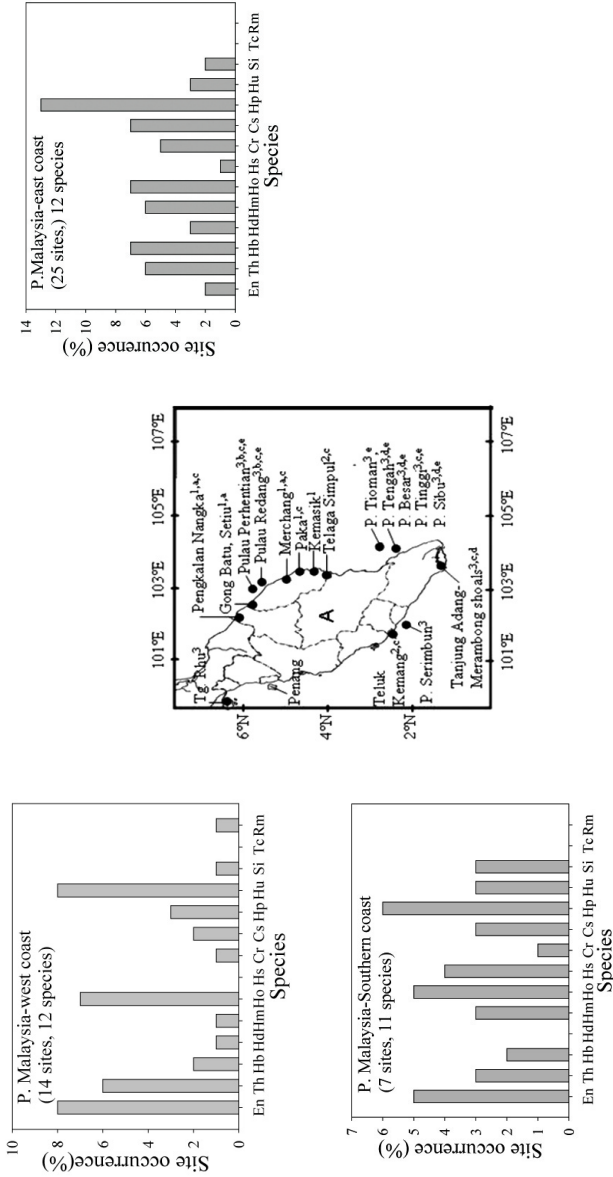


Figure 18 The diversity and site occurrence (%) of seagrass species in Peninsular Malaysia

The Marine Angiosperms, Seagrass

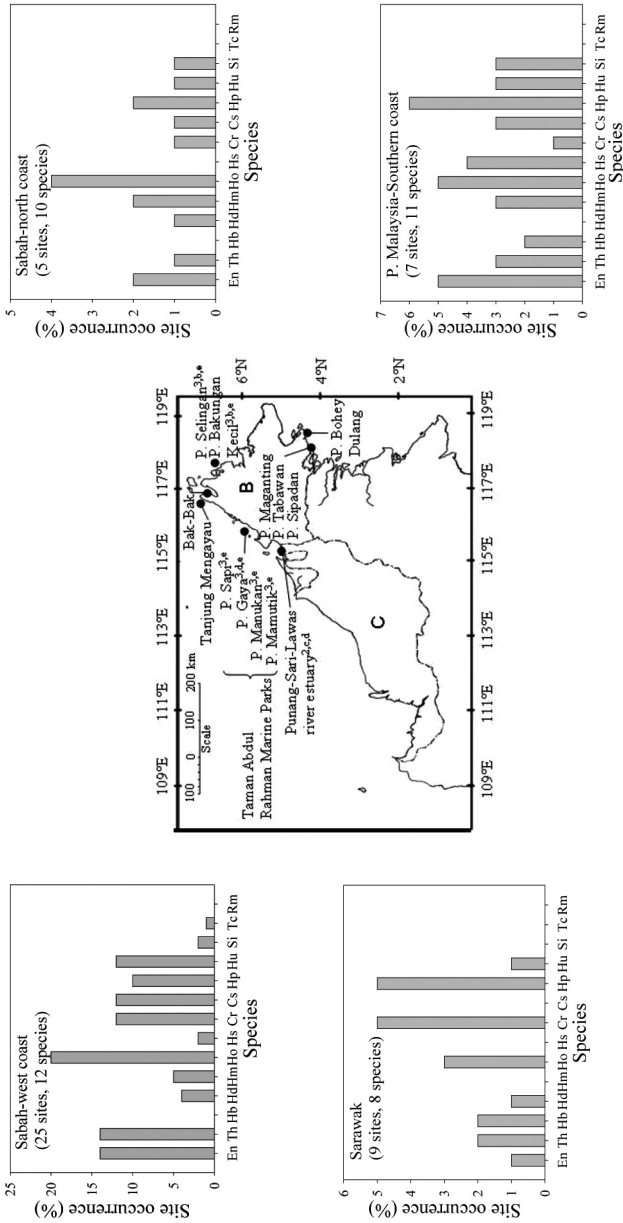


Figure 19 The diversity and site occurrence (%) of seagrass species in Sabah and Sarawak, East Malaysia

only snorkel gear, except in habitats where the water has a low transparency. Certain seagrass species e.g., *H. decipiens*, *H. minor*, *H. ovalis*, *H. spinulosa* and *Halodule pinifolia* are found at deeper depths (Figure 20) and this is normally discovered by scuba divers or by dredging.

Based on those documentation and researches, now we have a reasonable understanding of the species composition, distribution and plant description especially in Peninsular and Sabah, East Malaysia (Japar Sidik 2001, Japar Sidik et al. 2006a, Japar Sidik et al. 2007).

SEAGRASS ASSOCIATES AND THEIR IMPORTANCE

Seagrass beds support a diverse assemblage of aquatic lives especially to shallow marine ecosystem. Several characteristics of seagrass beds allow them to perform this role. Among them as mentioned by Kikuchi (1980) are; (i) where seagrass form dense vegetation, they increased the available substrate surface for epiphytic biota. The differentiation of the plant into leaves, stems, rhizomes and roots increase the heterogeneity resulting in a greater diversity of animals, some of them feeding directly upon seagrasses, (ii) dense vegetation retards water movement, thus offering calm underwater space within the bed for many animals, such as mysids, hydromedusae and juvenile fishes, (iii) the relatively less disturbed hydrodynamic conditions, settlement of minerals and organic particles, deposition of decayed leaves and sedimentation of fine, suspended particle occur, providing eutrophic environment for benthic animals and (iv) reduction of excessive illumination in daytime permits the developments of a shaded microenvironment that is beneficial to animals. They provide food and shelter for many fishes, crustaceans, and they protect juvenile and small fish from predation. Due to this, species richness in seagrass ecosystem is equivalent if not richer than the mangroves or coral reefs.

The Marine Angiosperms, Seagrass

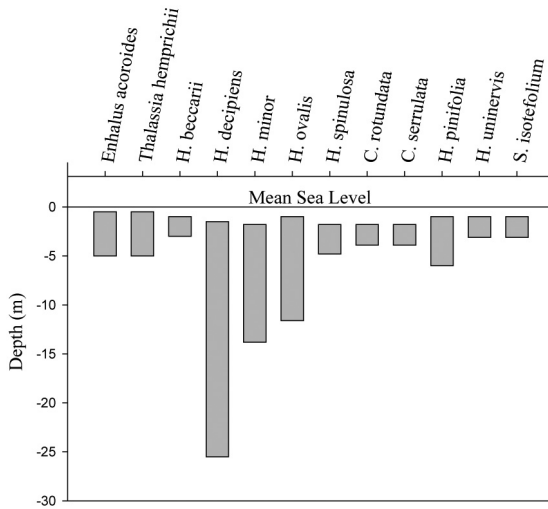


Figure 20 Depth distribution of the different seagrasses in Malaysia

Fishes are by far the most diverse and abundant vertebrates. The dense seagrass beds of sub-tidal shoals of Tanjung Adang-Merambong, south-west Johore, Pengkalan Nangka, Kelantan and Paka shoal, Terengganu support many juvenile to adult fishes and prawns. In Tanjung Adang-Merambong seagrass areas, approximately 70-76 species of fish in 41 families have been observed in seagrass beds and the adjacent mangrove areas (Sasekumar et al. 1989). Thirty five (35) fish species are of commercial important, among them *Ilisha* spp., *Stolephorus indicus*, *Thryssahamiltoni*, *Hippocampus* spp., *Lates calcarifer*, *Lutjanu schrysoaenia*, *Plotosus canius*, *Apolynemus sextarius*, *Rastrelliger kanaqurta*, *Siganus guttatus*, *S. javus*, *Siganus* sp. *Epinephalus* sp. and *Therapon* spp. (Arshad et al. 2001). The rest are low-grade fish which are consumed locally. Seahorses species (e.g., *Hippocampus kuda*, status: vulnerable VU A4cd) are very much in

demand locally and abroad for the Chinese traditional medicine. Species of commercially important prawns e.g., *Penaeus indicus*, *Penaeus merguensis*, *Penaeus monodon*, *Penaeus semisculcatus*, *Parapeneopsis* sp., *Metapeneopsis barbeensis*, *Metapenaeus* sp., *Lucifer* sp. and *Acetes* sp. and stomatopods (*Oratosquilla* sp.) have been recorded from the seagrass areas (Japar Sidik et al. 2006a). Other crustaceans include crabs e.g., *Hemigrapsus* sp., *Portunus pelagicus*, *Scylla serrata*, *Thalamita* sp., and horse-shoe crab, *Carcinoscorpius rotundicauda* have been observed (Arshad et al. 2001). In Kelantan and Terengganu, fishes such as *Caranx sexfasciatus*, *Leiognathus equulus*, *Lutjanus russelli*, *Mugil cephalus*, *Periophthalmus* sp., *Scatophagus argus*, *Tylosurus crocodilus* and *Scomberoides lysan* are found in abundance in seagrass beds (Muta Harah, 2001).

Many infaunal organisms i.e., animals living in soft sea bottom sediments also utilize and live within seagrass beds. Species such as gastropods (*Lambis lambis*, *Strombus canarium*, *Cypraea felina*), bivalves (*Gafrarium* sp., *Geloina coaxans*, *Meretrix meretrix*, *Modiolus* sp., *Modiolus senhausii*, *Hiatula solida*), echinoderms e.g., *Archaster* sp., *Astropecten* sp., *Protoreaster nodusus*, *Macrophiothrix* sp. and sea cucumbers; *Phyllophorus* sp., *Pentacta quadrangularis* and *Mensamaria intercedens* use the buffering capabilities of seagrasses to provide a refuge from strong currents. In Sabah, most seagrass and coral reef associated ecosystems are fishing and gleaning sites for food collection such as *Caulerpa* spp., *Gracilaria* sp. and fauna such as sea cucumbers, gastropods and bivalves (Japar Sidik and Muta Harah 2011). Illegal fishing methods with explosives (e.g., at Pulau Selingan, Pulau Bakungan Kecil) are among the major causes of damage to coral reefs and associated seagrasses.

Many bird species occasionally land on exposed seagrass area along the shores, though only a few are highly adapted to use this habitat to any great extent. Wading birds, the herons and egrets, *Egretta garzetta* are occasionally seen in seagrass areas (e.g., Pengkalan Nangka, Kelantan, Tanjung Adang-Merambong shoals, Johore), but they much prefer shallow floodplain waters vegetated shore or mudflats of mangroves where it is easier for them to catch prey and where they find more appropriate perching sites in the areas.

Very rarely is the seagrass ecosystem has a large number of mammals or reptiles. *Dugong dugon* (status: vulnerable, VU A1cd) and *Chelonia mydas* (green turtle, status: endangered, EN A1bd) are found associated and feed on seagrasses. Dugongs are common in the 50's and later became rare because they were hunted for meat and hide (Holttum 1954). Presently dugongs are found in areas with abundant seagrasses such as Pulau Sibul, Pulau Tengah, Pulau Besar and Pulau Tinggi on the east coast and around Tanjung Adang-Merambong shoals of Sungai Pulai, Johore (Japar Sidik et al. 2006a). In Sabah, sightings reports and surveys indicated that dugongs have been encountered occasionally in Tunku Abdul Rahman Marine Park (Jaaman 2000). Other areas with possible viable populations are the shallow coastal waters from Semporna, Kudat, Kota Kinabalu, Sepangar bay, Sabah to Lawas, Sarawak. Green turtles are abundant at Cagar Hutang, Pulau Redang, Peninsular Malaysia and in Pulau Selingan and Pulau Bakungan Kecil, Sabah. These areas are the nesting ground of turtles and the presence of seagrass meadows in the vicinity may serve as feeding ground.

Seagrass ecosystems teem with life, providing habitats for associated fauna (Figure 21, Arshad et al. 2005) and algal (Japar Sidik et al. 2001a, Japar Sidik and Muta Harah 2011). A number



Figure 21 Diversity of life associated with seagrass ecosystem; a-*Dugong dugon*, b-*Chelonia mydas*, c-*Portunus pelagicus*, d-*Epinephalus* sp., e-*Acreichthys tomentosus*, f-*Dasyatis* sp., g-*Meretrix meretrix*, h-*Strombus canarium*, i-*Actinopyga* sp., j-*Pseudocolochirus* sp., k-*Phyllophorus* sp., *Protoreaster nodosus*, m-*Goniidiscaster scaber*, n-*Asthenosoma* sp. and o-*Astropyga* sp.

of problems affect the long-term survival and health of seagrass populations in our coastal zone. More than half the nation's population lives within the coast, and more new residents move in coastal areas each year. This growing population places increasing stress on coastal environments that harbor the biological diversity. Where seagrasses are found, human benefit directly or indirectly from the presence of this vegetation and at the same time, it has also become evident that seagrasses are a vulnerable resource, easily lost in coastal areas facing environmental changes. In recent years the rate and variety of human induced influences have increased, exerting pressures on coastal resources such as seagrasses (Japar Sidik et al. 2006a). However, the nature itself can also threats seagrasses like storms hit that caused shifting sand burying seagrasses. Long rainy season e.g., in the east coast of Peninsular Malaysia also give impact to seagrasses by reduce salinity and change in water levels. The serious threats are those from the external sources-human and coastal development activities (Muta Harah and Japar Sidik 2011). While we know what the various components of seagrass ecosystem are, we still do not understand the processes and mechanisms of its function. For example, although we have evidence to say that seagrass ecosystem is productive as other natural ecosystem e.g., mangroves, coral reefs, we do not really know how much this productivity contributes to the fisheries and to the adjacent coastal ecosystem. This information is important in terms of rational use and management of this ecosystem. In addition given the importance of seagrass as fisheries habitat, nursery and feeding ground, this resource must be afforded the same priority as well-managed as mangroves and corals to provide for future renewable resource utilization, education and training, science and research, conservation and protection. Future priority of initiatives or seagrass research should look at how best to manage open-access, multi-user seagrass systems mentioned above to ensure their sustainable use to conserve biodiversity.

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BIOGRAPHY

Japar Sidik bin Bujang was born in Miri, Sarawak, Malaysia on 15 November 1954. He obtained his early education at Saint Columbas Secondary School and Kolej Tunku Haji Bujang in Miri, Sarawak. He graduated with B.Sc. (Hons.) in Aquatic Biology at Universiti Sains Malaysia, Penang, Malaysia in 1982. He was awarded an Academic Staff Training Fellowship and received his Ph.D from the School of Biological Sciences from the same University in 1989.

Dr. Japar Sidik Bujang started his lectureship in the School of Biological Sciences USM in 1989 after which in 1991 he joined the Faculty of Fisheries and Marine Sciences, Universiti Pertanian Malaysia, Serdang, Selangor and transferred to the Department of Biology, Faculty of Science and Environmental Studies (now Faculty of Science), Universiti Putra Malaysia in 1996. He was also a visiting lecturer at the Department of Marine Sciences, Faculty of Science and Natural Resources, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, Sabah Campus. He was promoted to Associate Professor in August 2000 and later received his Professorship in Aquatic Biology from the Faculty of Science in October 2008. In May 2000 he was appointed as the Head of Department of Biology, as the Deputy Dean of Academic at the Faculty of Science in January 2003 and Faculty of Agriculture and Food Sciences, UPMKB in February 2006. Since January 2008 till present he is the Dean of Faculty of Agriculture and Food Sciences, UPMKB, Sarawak.

For more than 21 years of career as an academician, he has experienced a broad-based teaching as well as learning experiences from terrestrial ecology to marine and botany related subjects. Since his appointment in 1991 at Universiti Putra Malaysia, he has secured research field in aquatic biology (seagrasses and mangroves) and taught subjects in both fields in courses such as Aquatic Ecology, Aquatic Botany, The Ecology of Estuaries and Mangroves, Biology

of Mangroves, Wetland Ecosystems Management, Aquatic Living Resources, Anatomy and Morphology of Vascular Plants, Plant Structure and Function, and Biodiversity I: Monera, Protista, Fungi and Plantae. Further he introduced an elective course “The Ecology and Biology of Seagrasses” at the Department of Biology, Faculty of Science. The course received very good response from students since its introduction in 1997. To his credit, he has supervised and co supervised more than 30 postgraduate and 145 undergraduate students. In general he has been involved in both teaching as well as supervision of students where those experiences together with his involvement in research and association with scientists in other parts of the world in related field have nurtured his academic career.

He was actively involved in research activities in the field of seagrasses and mangroves either as a team member in the Department of Biology or collaborated with other scientists from other local research institutions e.g., Universiti Sains Malaysia, Penang; Universiti Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Sabah Parks, Sabah and officers from Federal Government Agency e.g., Department of Fisheries Malaysia and Department of Environment Malaysia, Federal Department of Town and Country Planning Peninsular Malaysia, Ministry of Housing and Local Government Malaysia and non-governmental organizations e.g., World Wide Fund (WWF) for Nature Malaysia, Petronas Penapisan Sdn. Berhad. Internationally, he was involved with multi-lateral research projects, ASEAN-Australia Co-operative Programme in Marine Science, Coastal Living Resources and United Nation Environmental Programme (UNEP)-East Asian Seas 35. He was involved in Seagrass Ecology of a research project on Aquatic Resources and Environmental Studies of the Straits of Malacca under the Japan International Co-operation Agency (JICA) and SeagrassNet Western Pacific Seagrasses Monitoring Program at Kg. Tanjung Balang, Pulau

Tinggi Marine Park, Mersing, Johore funded by David and Lucile Packard Foundation and Jackson Estuarine Laboratory, University of New Hampshire, USA. He was also involved in a Multilateral Core University Program on Coastal Oceanography, a research project on Biodiversity of Seaweeds and Seagrasses partially funded by Japan Society for the Promotion of Science (JSPS). Currently he is doing a research project on Identification of Seagrasses using Morphology and Molecular Approach with Kitasato University and Atmosphere and Ocean Research Institute, the University of Tokyo under the JSPS Asian Core Project: Establishment of Research Education Network on Coastal Marine Science in Southeast Asia.

Based on his, co-authors and students' research activities, out of which more than 250 papers have been published in international and local journals, proceedings, books, chapters in Books, chapters in Bulletins, monographs/Training modules/magazines and reports. His expertise and interests are generously shared with the public, government departments and scientists in his field of expertise. The seagrass plants in particular have been processed as herbarium specimens for reference purposes, teaching materials and have been on loaned to outside countries (e.g., Australia, Japan, Smithsonian Institute, Washington) for taxonomic studies. The publications, herbarium specimens, data, photographic records (prints and slides) acquired during research have formed into valuable resources. Prints, slides and data records of seagrasses and mangroves flora and fauna have been used in articles for educational magazines. Those on seagrasses are illustrations and invited chapters as in - J.E. Ong and W.K. Gong (eds.) 2001. Seagrasses, The Encyclopaedia of Malaysia The Malaysian Seas (Didier Millet), Mangroves and Seagrasses of the Indian Ocean-*Halodule pinifolia* seagrass bed, male and female flowers by Charles Sheppard, The University of Warwick, Guide to the Seagrasses specifically on *Halophila* by

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His active research in seagrasses has led him to being invited as a resource person in lecturing assignments, workshops, awareness programs locally and internationally e.g., ASEAN-Australia Database on Living Coastal Resources, Coral Reef Organisms Workshop, Universiti Malaysia Sabah-Introduction to Malaysian seagrass taxonomy, JICA Third Country Training Programme-Seagrasses and Mangroves, Marine Education Kit under the Government and non-Government Organisation) and consultant for several projects (World Wild Life Fund for Nature Malaysia, Petronas, ESSO Malaysia). He is involved still with the Department of Environment, the Department of Environment, Ministry of Science, Technology and Environment Malaysia; Department of Fisheries Malaysia, Ministry of Agriculture Malaysia; Federal

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Department of Town and Country Planning Peninsular Malaysia, Ministry of Housing and Local Government Malaysia and, frequently being consulted on matters pertaining to seagrass and mangroves current status on distribution and conservation in Malaysia. Finally through involvement of his work, research and expertise assignments, he has established linkages benefiting both the Universiti Putra Malaysia and the counterparts local and other Universities, government departments, non-governmental organisation such as JICA and JSPS.

His latest contribution to the world of seagrasses is serving as a member of the IUCN/Species Survival Commission (SSC) Seagrass Red List Authority.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

In the name of ALLAH the Most Gracious and the Most Merciful

I am most grateful to ALLAH SWT for His Blessings and Guidance. This is the most gratifying moment to thank and acknowledge the tremendous assistance and great contributions from individuals, organizations and institutions throughout my career for the past 21 years in UPM.

My sincere appreciation and gratitude to all staff, students of both undergraduates and postgraduates and colleagues whose names are impossible to list at the Department of Fish Biology, Faculty of Fisheries and Marine Science, Department of Biology, Faculty of Science, Department of Animal Science and Fishery, Faculty of Agriculture and Food Sciences, UPMKB, Department of Fisheries, Malaysia, Sabah Marine Park, and others from all over the country.

The sponsors for the research grants from Ministry of Science, Technology and Innovation Malaysia (MOSTI) through the Intensified Research for Priority Areas IRPA-7: Seagrass Resources Utilization and Development, Ecology, Distribution and Systematic of Seagrass Resources in Malaysia, IRPA-8: Seagrass Taxonomy, Biology and Habitat Characteristics, scienceFund: Laboratory Culture Studies of *Halophila ovalis*), Ministry of Higher Education, Malaysia (FRGS), Department of Fisheries, Malaysia, Department of Forestry Peninsular Malaysia, World Wide Fund (WWF) for Nature Malaysia, ASEAN Australia, Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA), Japan Society for Promotion of Science (JSPS), United Nation Environmental Protection (UNEP), World Seagrass Association (WSA), SeagrassNet, World Conservation Monitoring Centre (WCMC) are gratefully acknowledged.

I am greatly indebted to Vice Chancellors, Deputy Vice Chancellors of UPM, Prof. Dato' Dr. Wan Md. Zin Wan Yunus

(former Dean, Faculty of Science), Prof. Tan Soon Guan (former Head, Department of Biology), my co-researchers Assoc. Prof. Dr. Muta Harah Zakaria, Prof. Dr. Aziz Arshad, Prof. Dr. Mazlan Abd. Ghaffar, Dr. Hishamuddin Omar, Mr. Fazrullah Rizally Abdul Razak, the late Prof. Dr. Law Ah Theem, Dato' Lamri Ali, Mr. Francis Liew and other Marine Scientists, Prof. Dr. John Kuo, Prof. Dr. Miguel Fortes, Dr. Hisao Ogawa, Prof. Dr. Frederick Short, Prof. Dr. Masahiro Nakaoka, Assoc. Prof. Kenichi Hayashizaki for their support. Last but not least to my late mother Mastura binti Sidik, father Bujang bin Sulaiman, my wife Aini Hj. Kuntom and wonderful daughter Nur Jannah for your undying love, invaluable support, inspirations, sacrifices, understanding and constant prayers, thank you so much.

To All – Thank You and May ALLAH SWT Bless all of You.

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