



Royal Netherlands Institute for Sea Research

This is a postprint of:

Soissons, L.M., Li, B., Han, Q. van Katwijk, M.M., Ysebaert, T., Herman, P.M.J. & Bouma, T.J. (2016). Understanding seagrass resilience in temperate systems: the importance of timing of the disturbance. *Ecological Indicators*, 66, 190-196.

Published version: dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolind.2016.01.030

Link NIOZ Repository: www.vliz.be/nl/imis?module=ref&refid=282879

[Article begins on next page]

The NIOZ Repository gives free access to the digital collection of the work of the Royal Netherlands Institute for Sea Research. This archive is managed according to the principles of the [Open Access Movement](#), and the [Open Archive Initiative](#). Each publication should be cited to its original source - please use the reference as presented.

When using parts of, or whole publications in your own work, permission from the author(s) or copyright holder(s) is always needed.

1 **Understanding seagrass resilience in temperate systems: the importance of**
2 **timing of the disturbance**

3 Laura M. Soissons^{a*}, Baoquan Li^b, Qiuying Han^b, Marieke M. van Katwijk^{a,c}, Tom Ysebaert^a,
4 Peter M.J. Herman^{a,c}, Tjeerd J. Bouma^a

5

6 ^a Spatial Ecology Department, Royal Netherlands Institute for Sea Research (NIOZ-Yerseke), P.O. Box
7 140, 4400 AC Yerseke, The Netherlands

8 ^b Yantai Institute of Coastal Zone Research – Chinese Academy of Sciences (YIC-CAS), Chunhui Road
9 17, Laishan District, Shandong, China

10 ^c Department of Environmental Sciences, Institute for Wetland and Water Research, Faculty of
11 Science, Radboud University Nijmegen, Nijmegen, Heijendaalseweg 135, 6525 AJ, The Netherlands

12

13 * Corresponding author: laura.soissons@nioz.nl, Telephone: +31(0) 113 577445, Fax: +31(0) 113
14 573616

15

16

17 **Abstract**

18 Temperate seagrass meadows form valuable ecosystems in coastal environments and present a
19 distinct seasonal growth. They are threatened by an increasing amount of stressors, potentially
20 affecting their capacity to recover from disturbances. We hypothesized that their resilience to
21 disturbances is affected by seasonal dynamics. Hence, we investigated the effect of the timing of the
22 disturbance on seagrass Leaf Area Index (as a proxy for presence, or ‘visible’ status), recovery from
23 disturbance (as a proxy for meadow resilience), and rhizome carbohydrates (as a proxy for longer
24 term resilience) by a series of four disturbance-recovery field experiments spread over the growing
25 season at two sites in Shandong Province, China. During the course of the growing season, we found
26 the highest recovery at the start of the growing season, lowest recovery when Leaf Area Index
27 peaked around mid-growing season, and intermediate recovery when Leaf Area Index decreased at
28 the end of the growing season. Rhizome carbohydrates were not affected by disturbances during any
29 of the four experimental periods and could not explain the low recovery during mid-growing season.
30 The two sites differed in exposure and in the occurrence of incidents like a green tide and storms,
31 which affected recovery. However, general patterns were similar; timing strongly influenced the

32 indicator of meadow resilience and its correlation with presence during the two main seagrass
33 growth phases. Our results emphasize the importance of carefully considering timing in the
34 evaluation of seagrass resilience in temperate systems. Furthermore, our study implies that, to
35 effectively protect seagrass beds, conservation management should aim at avoiding disturbances
36 particularly during the peak of the growing season, when resilience is lowest.

37

38 **Keywords:** Indicators for ecosystem health; Resilience; Leaf Area Index; Recovery; *Zostera marina*;
39 Temperate systems; Timing of disturbances

40

41

42 **Introduction**

43 Seagrasses are key marine angiosperms capable of creating extensive meadows through
44 clonal growth (Hemminga & Duarte 2000; Larkum et al., 2006). Their presence in intertidal as well as
45 subtidal areas worldwide modifies the environment and creates suitable habitats for many benthic
46 organisms and juvenile fish (Heck et al., 2003; Hughes et al., 2009). But seagrasses are globally
47 increasingly threatened. Threats come mainly from anthropogenic activities and the subsequent
48 environmental changes they induce (Hughes et al., 2009; Orth et al., 2006; Short and Wyllie-
49 Echeverria, 1996; Waycott et al., 2009). It has been widely acknowledged that, over the last two
50 decades, the combination of increasing disturbances and stresses has led to seagrass decline and
51 occasionally sudden collapse. Recovery of such decline can be cumbersome, as seagrass meadows
52 may act as bi-stable ecosystems, with the bare state being the alternative attractor (Carr et al., 2012,
53 2010; van der Heide et al., 2007). To be able to manage and to protect remaining seagrass meadows,
54 it is important to gain fundamental insight in their resilience to disturbance.

55 Temperate seagrass ecosystems are known to have distinct seasonal growth and rhizome
56 proliferation (Duarte 1989; Hemminga & Duarte 2000; Larkum et al., 2006). The main mechanisms
57 controlling the seasonal growth of seagrasses are changes in light intensity and temperature
58 (Dennison, 1987; Duarte, 1991; Marbà et al., 2012; Ochieng et al., 2010; Olesen and Sand-jensen,
59 1993). Generally, plants start to grow in spring, until mid-summer when they reach their maximum
60 shoot density and cover to build up their carbon reserve that allows them to overwinter and regrow
61 the next year (Madsen, 1991). Then senescence starts in late summer with the release of seeds,
62 leaves get thinner and shorter, and shoot density becomes lower (Hemminga and Duarte, 2000;

63 Larkum et al., 2006). In winter, the vegetation is very sparse (Orth et al., 2012), only the below
64 ground biomass – with limited leave presence – and seed banks remain until spring when new shoots
65 grow again. To overcome the winter months, seagrass plants exploit the non-structural carbohydrate
66 reserves gained during the summer period (Alcoverro et al., 1999; Govers et al., 2015; Lee et al.,
67 2007; Madsen, 1991; Olivé et al., 2007). The amount of carbohydrates needed for seagrass survival
68 over the winter periods depends on abiotic factors, i.e. temperature and light availability; but also on
69 internal factors, such as respiration and growth (Alcoverro et al., 2001; Govers et al., 2015; Madsen,
70 1991). Chances of survival during winter thus depend on the plant’s capacity to build up its carbon
71 reserves during summer (Govers et al., 2015). Given these strong seasonal dynamics, it may be
72 expected that seagrass resilience in temperate systems will be strongly affected by its growing
73 season, making the recovery to a disturbance strongly sensitive to the period the disturbance occurs.
74 It becomes essential to clearly pinpoint the specific time in their growth cycle when seagrass
75 resilience would be either the most or least severely affected.

76 The resilience of a system is its ability to return to its initial form or state after a disturbance
77 (Scheffer et al., 2009; van Nes and Scheffer, 2007). Resilience can be evaluated by looking at
78 indicators of an ecosystem health status (for seagrasses e.g. cover, or multi parametric indexes such
79 as ZONI, POMI, BIPO; Krause-Jensen et al., 2005; Marbà et al., 2012; García-Marín et al., 2013;
80 Mascaró et al., 2013) or more dynamic early warning signals that indicate a potential critical
81 transition of the system to another stable state, such as “critical slowing down” (Dakos et al., 2011;
82 Scheffer et al., 2009). Critical slowing down is defined as “a phenomenon that happens when a
83 monitored stable variable of the system returns more slowly to equilibrium after a small
84 perturbation” (Dakos et al., 2011). It is evidenced, for instance, by a decrease in recovery rate when
85 the system gets close to a transition point, and its resilience gets lower (Chisholm and Filotas, 2009;
86 van Nes and Scheffer, 2007). Recent work shows that the choice of indicators (cover vs. critical
87 slowing down) is important to consider, as they may provide an opposed response in their evaluation
88 of seagrass health and resilience (Soissons et al., 2014). If resilience of temperate seagrass meadows
89 would be affected by the different stages of the growing season, the indicators cover and critical
90 slowing down may be expected to give different outcomes for seagrass resilience over the season.

91 In this study, we aim to assess the importance of timing over the growing season on seagrass
92 resilience to disturbances. More specifically, we question whether seagrass recovery, as a measure
93 for resilience and as a proxy for nearness of collapse (‘critically slowing down’, cf. Scheffer et al.,
94 2009) and carbohydrates in the rhizomes, potentially representing a longer term resilience (cf.
95 Govers et al., 2015) are dependent on the timing of a disturbance over the growing season. If the
96 resilience differs along the growing season, our study will allow identifying the timing in the seagrass

97 growth cycle that lead for better recovery and the timing when the beds are particularly vulnerable
98 to disturbances. A manipulative experiment was implemented and repeated at different stages of
99 the growing season on *Zostera marina* intertidal, seasonal stands at two sites in Shandong province,
100 China, differing in their exposure to hydrodynamics and geographical setting (Figure 1). We
101 measured Leaf Area Index (as a proxy for cover, representing seagrass presence or 'visible' status),
102 relative recovery and carbohydrate content in rhizomes at each of the sequential, identical
103 experiments.

104

105

106 **Material and methods**

107

108 **Study sites and experimental design**

109 In order to encompass the entire growing season, a series of 4 strictly identical resilience
110 experiments were implemented at two sites within dense *Zostera marina* meadows (average
111 densities ranging from 450 to 1080 shoots.m⁻² at sites) but contrasting in their hydrodynamic
112 conditions: Swan Lake, hereafter referred as Sheltered site (SS) and Dongchu Island, hereafter
113 referred as Exposed site (ES) (Figure 1). Both sites are located in the Shandong province in China and
114 are submitted to different pressures and stochastic events such as green tides during the summer
115 season (at SS), storms (at ES) and human activities (at both sites). Hydrodynamics were not measured
116 during the experiment, but the geographical situation (Figure 1) and wind fetch of both sites allowed
117 us to define their relative exposure as sheltered versus exposed. The shallow lagoon was a relatively
118 sheltered site (SS) compared to the open-sea system with a rocky shore and visible waves on the
119 shore close to the meadow (i.e., exposed site; ES). This relative difference in exposure was confirmed
120 by the difference in granulometry with a D50 of 119 ± 26 µm (fine sand) at the SS and a D50 of 478 ±
121 121 µm (medium sand) at the ES (see Soissons et al., 2014 for more information on both field sites).

122 In temperate systems, like for these two sites, the seagrass *Zostera marina* has a seasonal
123 growth with shoots and seeds developing in spring until summer when, usually in July, they reach a
124 maximum presence in terms of shoot density, size and cover (Zhang et al., 2014; and personal
125 observations). In order to cover the growing season and to ascertain to capture the peak of seagrass
126 presence at both sites, 4 sequential, independent and identical resilience experiments, with a slight
127 overlap in timing for the 2 experiments during the expected peak seagrass cover (Zhang et al., 2014;

128 personal observation), were implemented. The temporal resolution of the four resilience
129 experiments was based on previous studies in the area, aiming to cover the entire growing season
130 (Zhang et al., 2014; personal observation during 2012): *i*) experiment “Exp 1” at the beginning, when
131 cover increases (9 May - 7 June 2013); *ii*) experiments “Exp 2” and “Exp 3” around the peak of the
132 seagrass cover (7 June – 8 July and 26 June – 25 July 2013, respectively); and *iii*) experiment “Exp 4”
133 at the end of the growing season presenting a decrease in cover (25 July – 24 August 2013) (for
134 schematic representation see Figure 2). In each experiment, to assess seagrass resilience we
135 measured recovery rates over a four week period; within this period we harvested four times:
136 Harvest 1 (H1), at the start of the experiment for control and initial plant parameters; Harvest H2 and
137 H3, respectively two and three weeks after the beginning of the experiment; and Harvest H4, at the
138 end of the experiment after four weeks from the start (Figure 2).

139 At each site, for each resilience experiment of four weeks, the procedure was identical: 30
140 plots (15 disturbed and 15 controls) were randomly allocated on a small area of apparent
141 homogeneous seagrass density (average density of 450 to 1080 shoot.m⁻² at SS and ES respectively)
142 at start; different areas were selected for each of the four experiments (located at approx. 10 m
143 distance from each other) to avoid working with an already sampled plot. From the 30 plots, 15 were
144 randomly defined as controls and the other 15 as disturbed plots, leaving 5 replicates for control and
145 5 replicates for disturbed plots for each harvest time (i.e. Harvest H2, H3 and H4, after 2, 3 and 4
146 weeks, respectively) (Figure 2). As disturbance, circular gaps of 0.3 m diameter in the centre of each
147 plot were created by clipping the leaves at the start of each resilience experiment, leaving the below
148 ground and sheaths in place. Clipping was chosen to mimic grazing from birds (swans migrating in
149 this region), or the effect of boat anchoring and shell collection by local fishermen, removing parts of
150 the seagrass. It represents one type of disturbance experienced by seagrass meadows and was used,
151 for this study, in order to get a general conceptual understanding of how timing of disturbances
152 affect resilience. It also allowed us to investigate the short-term regrowth of disturbed plants. The
153 size of a disturbance can affect the rate of recovery (Macreadie et al., 2014; Rasheed, 2004, 1999).
154 For our experiments, 0.3 m diameter gaps were chosen from our experience with previous
155 experiments in the same area as an optimal size for direct recovery measurements in a short-time
156 period (4 weeks long experiments), to match the scale of the disturbance we mimic, and to minimize
157 the overall impact of the experiment on the meadow (Soissons et al., 2014). Rhizomes around the
158 disturbed plots were cut to limit recovery by colonization from the edges. Control plots were
159 positioned similarly but remained untouched until harvest time (Figure 2).

160 Note that each resilience experiment (i.e. Exp’s 1 to 4, representing timing) was independent
161 from the others: each starting with a disturbance (i.e. leaves clipping and subsequent clipped leaves

162 biomass measures) with an additional harvest (n=5) of full plant material (i.e. above and below-
163 ground material, sampled within the experimental area) that served as an initial measurement of
164 Leaf Area Index (H1), then followed by 3 other harvest time (H2 to H4). Each resilience experiment
165 lasted 4 weeks in total.

166

167 Harvesting and analysis

168 **Seagrass harvesting:** At the start of each resilience experiment, whole plant samples (i.e.
169 including above and below-ground material) were harvested within the experimental area for initial
170 morphological measurements (H1, n=5) in a surface of 0.07 m². The leaves clipped in the 0.3 m
171 diameter gaps to create the disturbance at the start of each resilience experiment (n=15) were not
172 used for morphological measures. Then, for each following harvest time (H2, H3 and H4 after 2, 3
173 and 4 weeks, respectively), whole plants in 5 control and 5 disturbed plots were sampled in 0.3 m
174 cores (0.07 m²) so that all plants in the 0.3 m diameter gaps were collected. After harvest, seagrasses
175 were directly cleaned a first time in seawater in the field before being transported to the laboratory
176 for measurements. All plants were carefully rinsed and cleaned in fresh water to remove epiphytes
177 and any sediment left. The total number of shoots per sample was directly noted. Subsamples of 5
178 representative shoots per sample were randomly selected for morphodynamic measurements. Leave
179 length, width and the number of leaves per shoot were measured for all replicates. Then, for the
180 whole sample, leaves, rhizomes and roots were carefully separated, and subsequently freeze-dried
181 for dry biomass measurements and carbohydrates analysis.

182 Leaf surface per shoot was calculated from the averaged values of morphodynamic
183 measurements. The Leaf Area index of the standing seagrass meadow ($LAI_{standing}$; m².m⁻²) was
184 calculated as the product of leaf surface per shoot (m²) times the shoot density (m⁻²) from control
185 plots. LAI was chosen as a proxy for seagrass cover, representing seagrass presence or 'visible' status,
186 as quantifying stem density and leaf area provided us with a more precise and reproducible method
187 than by making cover estimates. The $LAI_{regrowth}$ (m².m⁻²) in the clipped gaps (i.e. disturbed plots)
188 collected at each harvest time was used as a proxy for absolute recovery during the corresponding
189 time period (i.e. harvest times: H2, after 2 weeks; H3, 3 weeks and H4, after 4 weeks). To enable
190 comparison between sites for each harvest time, a relative recovery in terms of LAI was defined. We
191 calculated the relative recovery (RC; %) by dividing $LAI_{regrowth(t)}$ by $LAI_{standing(t)}$ (*equation 1*). This relative
192 recovery also provides us with a proxy for the evaluation of a potential critical slowing down (i.e. a
193 slower recovery rate of a monitored variable after a disturbance), which is a measure of nearness to
194 collapse (Chisholm and Filotas, 2009; Dakos et al., 2011; van Nes and Scheffer, 2007). Relative

195 recovery was preferred over absolute recovery to estimate the recovery as a function of the growing
196 season and because the experimental design already took recovery as a function of the growing
197 season into account by being spread over the seasonal growth of plants. Indeed, we expected LAI to
198 vary with time and thus to affect the relative recovery. We assumed that a lower relative recovery
199 was indicative for a slower return of the system to its initial state and hence was representative of a
200 critical slowing down in the system response to disturbance.

$$(1) \quad \%RC_{(t)} = \frac{LAI_{regrowth(t)}}{LAI_{standing(t)}} \times 100$$

201

202

203 **Carbohydrate measurements:** Freeze-dried and grinded rhizome samples were carefully
204 shipped from China for carbohydrate measurements. Analyses of carbohydrates were completed at
205 the Netherland Institute for Sea Research (NIOZ) in Yerseke; following a method developed after
206 Yemm & Willis (1954). First, soluble sugars -glucose, fructose and sucrose- were extracted out of the
207 freeze-dried plant material by using an 80% ethanol solution. The residue was hydrolyzed with
208 diluted hydrochloric acid (3%HCL) to convert all the sugar compounds into carbohydrates.
209 Subsequently the fraction was boiled at 100°C for 30 minutes. An Anthrone coloring reagent was
210 added and the color intensity was measured at 625 nm. By calibration with a d-glucose standard
211 series, carbohydrate content in rhizomes was measured in mg carbohydrates per gram dry plant
212 material (Yemm and Willis, 1954). All samples were measured in duplicate and a new calibration
213 curve was prepared for every series of measurements.

214

215 **Statistical analysis:** The influence of three factors being 'timing' (i.e. the sequential, identical
216 resilience experiments Exps 1 to 4), 'harvest time' and 'site' and their interactive effect on leaf
217 surface per shoot, shoot density in controls and LAI ($LAI_{standing}$), absolute ($LAI_{regrowth}$), relative recovery
218 (%RC) in disturbed plots were checked with a 3-way ANOVA (univariate) on SPSS (IBM® SPSS®
219 Statistics Version 21). For carbohydrate content in rhizome (only measured for the last harvest time,
220 H4), the 3-way ANOVA included the effect of 'timing' (i.e. the sequential, identical resilience
221 experiments Exps 1 to 4), 'site' and 'disturbance' and their interactive effect. Statistical differences
222 between means were measured using the Tukey post-hoc tests. The correlation between indicators
223 was tested with a linear regression model. Assumptions for regression as well as normality and
224 homogeneity of the data were previously checked, along with interactions between factors. Data are
225 presented as means (\pm SE).

226

227

228 **Results**

229 During the experimental period, two storms occurred at the exposed site, and two green
230 tides at the sheltered site. During the green tide, algal cover (mainly *Chaetomorpha linum*) was up to
231 265 g DW.m⁻². Such events are common in the region (personal communication, Qiuying Han and
232 local managers). No exceptional variations in the water temperature were noticed either in the
233 winter before we implemented the experiment or during the growing season, although air
234 temperatures in August were 2°C higher than normal (data obtained from the meteorological station
235 in Rongcheng, Weihai, China).

236

237 **Leaf Area Index in relation to the growing season and across sites**

238 Leaf Area Index (LAI_{standing}) measurements at both sites show that the standing stock develops
239 as expected and in line with the growing season: LAI progressively increases from May until the
240 beginning of July before decreasing in July-August (*Figure 3A and 3B*). LAI_{standing} was similar to the
241 LAI_{standing} in the preceding year at the same sites (values in 2012 between 6 and 10 m².m⁻²; Soissons et
242 al., 2014). Differences between sites and timing (i.e. differences between the sequential, identical
243 resilience experiments Exp's 1 to 4) are strong (*Table 1 and 2*), as well as their interactive effect
244 (*Table 1*): LAI_{standing} values are higher at site ES with values up to 12.6 ± 1.5 m².m⁻² at the top of the
245 growing season (H1-Exp 3, *Figure 3A*) whereas the highest standing stock values at SS only reached
246 9.8 ± 1.9 m².m⁻² (H2-Exp 3, *Figure 3B*). At neither site, no significant differences were found between
247 the two resilience experiments implemented at the peak of growth season (Exp 2 and Exp 3; *Table 2*).
248 Other post-hoc tests indicated for the exposed site (Tukey: p<0.01) that LAI values increased from
249 experiments Exp 1 to Exp 2 and decreased at Exp 4 as compared to Exp 3. Similarly, at the sheltered
250 site, Exp 3 presented significantly higher LAI_{standing} values than Exp 1 (Tukey: p=0.03) and Exp 4
251 (Tukey: p=0.013). Harvest time did not show any statistical differences as such (*Table 1*), but a
252 significant interactive effect between harvest time and resilience experiments is seen for LAI_{standing}
253 (*Table 1*). This interactive effect indicates an increasing LAI_{standing} between harvest times in the first
254 experiment and decreasing LAI_{standing} between harvest times in the last experiment, as is expected.

255

256 **Recovery from disturbances along the growing season and across sites**

257 Both absolute recovery (LAI_{regrowth} ; recovered LAI after leaves clipping) and relative recovery
258 (%RC) show an opposite trend to the standing stock with high values at the beginning (Exp 1), a
259 decrease over the growing season, and a small increase towards the end of the growing season
260 (Figure 3C and 3D; Table 2). Differences between sites and timing (i.e. differences between the
261 sequential, identical resilience experiments Exp's 1 to 4) were significant on LAI_{regrowth} and %RC values
262 as well as their interactive effect (Table 1 and 2). However, in all instances %RC did not increase any
263 further after the first harvest time (after 2 weeks), never reaching values higher than 25%RC,
264 meaning that the gaps might 'never' completely recover over the growing season (Figure 3C and 3D).
265 Post-hoc tests show that regrowth differed over time at the exposed site, with the first experiment
266 being higher than the subsequent experiments (Tukey: $p < 0.001$).

267

268 **Correlation between indicators (LAI vs. Relative recovery)**

269 In order to evaluate the correlation between the two indicators, data were compared
270 according to two phases: a growth phase, where LAI_{standing} is increasing at both sites, Exp 1 until the
271 end of Exp 3 (from May until mid-July); and an end-of-season phase, evidenced by a decrease in
272 LAI_{standing} from the end of Exp 3 until the end of the last resilience experiment, Exp 4 (mid July-
273 August). No significant regression was found at SS. At ES, during the growth phase, a negative
274 relationship was found between %RC and LAI_{standing} ($R^2 = 0.61$; $p = 0.013$; Figure 4A). During the end-of-
275 season phase, this correlation was positive for ES ($R^2 = 0.67$; $p = 0.042$; Figure 4C).

276

277 **Carbohydrate reserves**

278 Carbohydrate reserves were evaluated by measuring non-structural carbohydrates in
279 rhizomes at the end of each experiment. The evolution of rhizome carbohydrate content differed
280 between the two sites and along the entire experimental period but was not affected by disturbance
281 (Table 3; Figure 5). Timing (i.e. comparing sequential, identical resilience experiments Exps'1 to 4)
282 had an interactive effect with site, as well as with the disturbance treatment (Table 3; Figure 5). At
283 ES, rhizome carbohydrate content showed an increase during the growth phase (between Exp 1 and
284 Exp 2, Tukey: $p < 0.001$) and a decrease during the end-of-season phase (between Exp 3 and Exp 4,
285 Tukey: $p = 0.014$; Figure 5). The maximum carbohydrate content at ES was $56.3 \pm 0.97 \text{ mg.gDW}^{-1}$ at
286 the peak of the growing season in control plots (Exp 2). At SS, rhizome carbohydrate content
287 decreased over the growing season, with values declining almost 2-fold from $80.3 \pm 12.7 \text{ mg.gDW}^{-1}$

288 for Exp 1 to $43.8 \pm 1.6 \text{ mg.gDW}^{-1}$ at Exp 4 in controls ($p= 0.001$; Figure 5). No linear relationship was
289 found between carbohydrate content (as an explanatory variable) and recovery.

290

291

292 **Discussion**

293

294 Seagrass presence and seasonal growth in temperate systems are controlled by abiotic
295 variables such as light availability, hydrodynamics and temperatures (Marsh et al., 1986; Duarte
296 1991; Hemminga & Duarte 2000) and their seasonal changes (Duarte, 1989, 1991; Hansen and
297 Reidenbach, 2013; Olesen and Sand-jensen, 1993; Zharova et al., 2001). This seasonal growth of
298 seagrasses is determinant for their winter survival and chances for seagrass expansion over time as
299 they build up carbon reserves over the growing season (Alcoverro et al., 2001, 1999; Govers et al.,
300 2015; Madsen, 1991). Present results emphasize the influence of different phases of the growing
301 season on the resilience of temperate seagrass meadows against disturbance. In our series of
302 identical experiments over the growing season at two sites, recovery from small-scale disturbances
303 (i.e. above-ground biomass removal by clipping) was higher in the first experiments (at the beginning
304 of the growing season) than in the experiments during the peak of the growing season, when
305 seagrass cover had increased. This effect was found at both sites, despite their difference in exposure
306 and in stochastic events (one site experiencing, green tides, the other site experiencing storms).
307 Carbohydrates content in rhizomes varied between sites and over the growing season, but were not
308 affected by the experimental small-scale disturbances applied throughout the growing season.

309

310 **The effect of timing on resilience in temperate systems**

311 According to the theoretical concepts of critical slowing down and resilience (Dakos et al.,
312 2011; Scheffer et al., 2009; van Nes and Scheffer, 2007), a decrease in recovery rate indicates that
313 the resilience against disturbances of the system is lowered and potential collapse is nearer. Our
314 study shows that, at both research sites, recovery from a small-scale disturbance (clipping) is lowest
315 during the peak of the growing season. Thus, when Leaf Area Index peaked, resilience of the
316 meadows is indicated to be lowest. The slight increase in recovery at the end of the season would
317 imply a higher resilience again at that stage. In general, this demonstrates the need to include a time
318 dimension into the evaluation of resilience in seasonal systems. More specifically our findings imply

319 for management that disturbances should be avoided during the peak of the growing season. It is
320 however noted that a lower recovery at one specific moment in time may represent a low short-term
321 resilience of the plants, but does not necessarily imply a reduced longer-term resilience. Also, it
322 might be expected that repetitive disturbances would at some point lead to no recovery and
323 drastically affect the plant's capacity to overwinter and regrow for the next season (Di Carlo et al.,
324 2011).

325 Understanding timing effects on resilience is clearly particularly important in bi-stable
326 seagrasses ecosystems (Carr et al., 2012, 2010; van der Heide et al., 2010), but may also apply to
327 other bi-stable temperate ecosystems such as e.g. temperate shallow lakes (Scheffer et al., 2001,
328 Scheffer and Van Nes 2007); salt-marshes (van Wesenbeeck et al., 2008); temperate reefs (Baskett
329 and Salomon 2010); and temperate floodplains lakes (Chaparro et al., 2014). A time-scale in the
330 evaluation of resilience and potential transition to another stable state (for instance, unvegetated) is
331 to be considered at two levels: (i) Recovery might slow down in time as an indicator of a lower
332 resilience (Chisholm and Filotas, 2009; Dakos et al., 2011; van Nes and Scheffer, 2007) but also (ii)
333 might vary along the growth curve of the system as a function of its growth rate, and seasonal
334 changes.

335

336 **The effect of timing on indicators of seagrass presence and resilience**

337 Indicators of seagrass presence (LAI) and resilience (recovery from small-scale disturbance, or
338 Critical Slowing Down) showed an opposite response during the growth phase with recovery
339 decreasing when the standing stock increased similar to results of Soissons et al. (2014). In contrast,
340 both indicators were positively related at the end of the growing season at the exposed site, which to
341 our knowledge was not observed before. Present results are opposite to results from tropical
342 seagrasses measured by de Longh et al. (1995), where a full recovery was observed during the wet
343 season (when biomass/cover increases) and no recovery was measured during the dry season after
344 dugong grazing (i.e. mostly above-ground removal). This difference could be explained by this
345 seagrass population being close to collapse, or, more likely, by the stronger role of timing during the
346 growing season and more extreme changes in abiotic variables in temperate systems (Baskett and
347 Salomon, 2010; Chaparro et al., 2014).

348 During an event of green tide at the sheltered site, rather common in that region, with green
349 algae (mainly *Chaetomorpha linum*) covering the seagrasses, the Leaf Area Index in the controls was
350 less affected than the disturbed plants, though lower than at the exposed site. This implies that

351 stress reduces resilience, which is in line with the CSD-theory (Dakos et al., 2011; Scheffer et al.,
352 2009; van Nes and Scheffer, 2007). It might be speculated that the plants, under disturbance and
353 additional stress (green tides/algae shading) might experience a trade-off between recovering from
354 the disturbance through re-growth and maintaining their below-ground stock for better chances to
355 survive the winter period. Such trade-off might explain the difference in recovery rates, although
356 small at both sites at the peak of growth, between ES and SS. Most importantly, the timing of the
357 disturbance and the seasonal changes in seagrass presence and biomass played an overruling role on
358 both resilience and capacity to recover, regardless of site and stress level.

359

360 **Seagrass resilience in relation to carbohydrate content in rhizomes**

361 Surprisingly, in our experiment, rhizome carbohydrate content did not show any change after
362 disturbances, whereas differences between sites were present. At the sheltered site, rhizome
363 carbohydrate content remained high in disturbed plots even though recovery was very low or close
364 to 0. During a green tide with large algae cover at the sheltered site, carbohydrates had the tendency
365 to decrease but only in controls as has been observed in Spain on *Zostera noltii* plants shaded by the
366 macroalgae *Ulva rigida* (Brun et al., 2003). Our results suggest that the plants do not use the
367 carbohydrates stored in the rhizomes for recovery from small-scale disturbances in summer.

368 In temperate systems, plants use carbon reserves such as carbohydrates stored in rhizomes
369 to cope with winter stresses and regrow next season (Alcoverro et al., 1999; Govers et al., 2015;
370 Madsen, 1991). A higher standing stock –and thus recovered stock– would ensure a better chance for
371 winter survival, and carbon reserves can serve as an indicator for winter survival, as a colder winter
372 might greatly reduce their carbohydrate reserves and thus their resilience (Govers et al., 2015). Our
373 study did not investigate the link between current and past growing season, however no exceptional
374 variations in the water temperature were noticed either in the winter before we implemented the
375 experiment or during the growing season. Overall our results hence suggest that small-scale
376 disturbances during the growing season do not affect winter survival.

377

378 **Conclusion and implications for seagrass conservation and management**

379 Seagrasses worldwide form essential ecosystems in the coastal landscape. Unfortunately,
380 they are submitted to various and repetitive stresses, mostly due to the increasing development of
381 anthropogenic activities (Orth et al., 2006; Waycott et al., 2009; Unsworth et al., 2014) as well as

382 effects of climate change. A growing number of seagrass meadows are nowadays monitored and
383 submitted to management plans, as part of Marine Protect Area (MPA) schemes for instance, to
384 conserve them (La Manna et al., 2015). In economically strongly developing countries, as e.g. China,
385 land reclamation and the intensive use of coastal areas are still on-going and increase at high rates
386 (Ma et al., 2014). Our finding that both seagrass sites show a low capacity to recover over their
387 seasonal growth (i.e. lower than 50%) is illustrative of the threats to seagrass in such rapidly
388 developing areas, particularly considering the almost complete absence of other seagrass beds in a
389 wide area around them (Yellow river mouth, personal observation).

390 In our study, the seasonal changes in standing stock and growth, as well as recovery capacity,
391 were more likely due to spring and abiotic fluctuations than to carbon reserves. Hence, carbohydrate
392 content in rhizomes, in our experiment, did not form a good predictor for the plant's capacity to
393 recover over their growing season. Our results illustrate the need to pinpoint the time in the growing
394 season when the seagrass response to a disturbance would be the least or the most damaging for
395 their short-term resilience. The knowledge of seasonal changes in presence but also in the resilience
396 of keystone ecosystems such as seagrasses becomes then essential in order to preserve them from
397 future collapse. For instance, our study shows that a disturbance at the peak of growth could result
398 in a lower recovery than at the beginning of the growing season. This might thus reduce their net
399 production and lead to their decline. Henceforth, it is essential to carefully consider the timing at
400 which a potentially disturbing activity such as e.g. dredging or trawling is carried out, as timing was
401 shown to have considerable impacts on recovery rates, implying a reduced resilience.

402 Overall, these results provide conceptual insights that may help management of seagrass
403 meadows, for conservation purposes, especially with respect to the importance of regulating the
404 timing of human disturbances in coastal areas. Considering the seasonal growth and changes of
405 coastal ecosystems is essential, in order to better preserve them and to prevent their potential
406 collapse. Indicators are needed to evaluate resilience, but the effect of timing must be considered as
407 it forms a fundamental factor to integrate for both the use of indicators and the evaluation of
408 resilience, in seagrass as for any other seasonal systems.

409

410

411 **Acknowledgments**

412 This study was conducted as part of the NSFC-NWO “Water ways, Harbours, Estuaries and Coastal
413 Engineering” scheme and was co-supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China
414 (No. NSFC41061130543) and the Netherlands Organisation for Scientific Research (No. 843.10.003).
415 We thank the local managers from Swan Lake and Dongchu Island for their interest and support in
416 implementing the experiments. We are also grateful to the students from the YIC-CAS for their help
417 and time during field experiments and measurements done in China; to Marco Houtekamer, Peter
418 van Breugel and Benjamin Moerenhout for their help and contribution to the carbohydrate analysis
419 in the Netherlands. We would like to thank two anonymous reviewers for their comments and
420 suggestions on an earlier version of the manuscript.

421

422

423 **References**

- 424 Alcoverro, T., Manzanera, M., Romero, J., 2001. Annual metabolic carbon balance of the seagrass
425 *Posidonia oceanica*: the importance of carbohydrate reserves. *Mar. Ecol. Prog. Ser.* 211, 105–
426 116. doi:10.3354/meps211105
- 427 Alcoverro, T., Zimmerman, R.C., Kohrs, D.G., Alberte, R.S., 1999. Resource allocation and sucrose
428 mobilization in light-limited eelgrass *Zostera marina*. *Mar. Ecol. Prog. Ser.* 187, 121–131.
- 429 Baskett, M.L., Salomon, A.K., 2010. Recruitment facilitation can drive alternative states on temperate
430 reefs. *Ecology* 91, 1763–1773. doi:10.1890/09-0515.1
- 431 Brun, F.G., Hernández, I., Vergara, J.J., Pérez-Lloréns, J.L., 2003. Growth, carbon allocation and
432 proteolytic activity in the seagrass *Zostera noltii* shaded by *Ulva* canopies. *Funct. Plant Biol.* 30,
433 551–560. doi:10.1071/FP03010
- 434 Carr, J.A., D’Odorico, P., McGlathery, K.J., Wiberg, P. I., 2010. Stability and bistability of seagrass
435 ecosystems in shallow coastal lagoons: Role of feedbacks with sediment resuspension and light
436 attenuation. *J. Geophys. Res.* 115, G03011. doi:10.1029/2009JG001103
- 437 Carr, J.A., D’Odorico, P., McGlathery, K.J., Wiberg, P. I., 2012. Modeling the effects of climate change
438 on eelgrass stability and resilience: future scenarios and leading indicators of collapse. *Mar.*
439 *Ecol. Prog. Ser.* 448, 289–301. doi:10.3354/meps09556
- 440 Chaparro, G., Fontanarrosa, M.S., Schiaffino, M.R., de Tezanos Pinto, P., O’Farrell, I., 2014. Seasonal-
441 dependence in the responses of biological communities to flood pulses in warm temperate
442 floodplain lakes: implications for the “alternative stable states” model. *Aquat. Sci.* 579–594.
443 doi:10.1007/s00027-014-0356-5
- 444 Chisholm, R.A., Filotas, E., 2009. Critical slowing down as an indicator of transitions in two-species
445 models. *J. Theor. Biol.* 257, 142–9. doi:10.1016/j.jtbi.2008.11.008
- 446 Dakos, V., Kéfi, S., Rietkerk, M., van Nes, E.H., Scheffer, M., 2011. Slowing down in spatially patterned
447 ecosystems at the brink of collapse. *Am. Nat.* 177, E153–66. doi:10.1086/659945
- 448 de longh, H.H., Wenno, B.J., Meelis, E., 1995. Seagrass distribution and seasonal biomass changes in
449 relation to dugong grazing in the Moluccas, East Indonesia. *Aquat. Bot.* 50, 1–19.

450 doi:10.1016/0304-3770(94)00438-R

451 Dennison, W.C., 1987. Effects of light on seagrass photosynthesis, growth and depth distribution.
452 *Aquat. Bot.* 27, 15–26. doi:10.1016/0304-3770(87)90083-0

453 Di Carlo, G., Benedetti-Cecchi, L., Badalamenti, F., 2011. Response of *Posidonia oceanica* growth to
454 dredging effects of different magnitude. *Mar. Ecol. Prog. Ser.* 423, 39–45.

455 Duarte, C., 1989. Temporal biomass variability and production/biomass relationships of seagrass
456 communities. *Mar. Ecol. Prog. Ser.* 51, 269–276. doi:10.3354/meps051269

457 Duarte, C.M., 1991. Seagrass depth limits. *Aquat. Bot.* 40, 363–377. doi:10.1016/0304-
458 3770(91)90081-F

459 García-Marín, P., Cabaço, S., Hernández, I., Vergara, J.J., Silva, J., Santos, R., 2013. Multi-metric index
460 based on the seagrass *Zostera noltii* (ZoNI) for ecological quality assessment of coastal and
461 estuarine systems in SW Iberian Peninsula. *Mar. Pollut. Bull.* 68, 46–54.
462 doi:10.1016/j.marpolbul.2012.12.025

463 Govers, L.L., Suykerbuyk, W., Hoppenreijns, J.H.T., Giesen, K., Bouma, T.J., van Katwijk, M.M., 2015.
464 Rhizome starch as indicator for temperate seagrass winter survival. *Ecol. Indic.* 49, 53–60.
465 doi:10.1016/j.ecolind.2014.10.002

466 Hansen, J.C.R., Reidenbach, M. a., 2013. Seasonal Growth and Senescence of a *Zostera marina*
467 Seagrass Meadow Alters Wave-Dominated Flow and Sediment Suspension Within a Coastal Bay.
468 *Estuaries and Coasts* 36, 1099–1114. doi:10.1007/s12237-013-9620-5

469 Heck, K.L., Hays, G., Orth, R.J., 2003. Critical evaluation of the nursery role hypothesis for seagrass
470 meadows. *Mar. Ecol. Prog. Ser.* 253, 123–136.

471 Hemminga, M.A., Duarte, C.M., 2000. *Seagrass Ecology*. Cambridge university Press.

472 Hughes, A.R., Williams, S.L., Duarte, C.M., Heck, K.L., Waycott, M., 2009. Associations of concern:
473 declining seagrasses and threatened dependent species. *Front. Ecol. Environ.* 7, 242–246.
474 doi:10.1890/080041

475 Krause-Jensen, D., Greve, T.M., Nielsen, K., 2005. Eelgrass as a Bioindicator Under the European
476 Water Framework Directive. *Water Resour. Manag.* 19, 63–75. doi:10.1007/s11269-005-0293-0

477 La Manna, G., Donno, Y., Sarà, G., Ceccherelli, G., 2015. The detrimental consequences for seagrass
478 of ineffective marine park management related to boat anchoring. *Mar. Pollut. Bull.* 90, 160–
479 166. doi:10.1016/j.marpolbul.2014.11.001

480 Larkum, A.W.D., Orth, R.J., Duarte, C.M., 2006. *Seagrasses: Biology, Ecology and Conservation*.
481 Springer.

482 Lee, K.-S., Park, S.R., Kim, Y.K., 2007. Effects of irradiance, temperature, and nutrients on growth
483 dynamics of seagrasses: A review. *J. Exp. Mar. Bio. Ecol.* 350, 144–175.
484 doi:10.1016/j.jembe.2007.06.016

485 Ma, Z., Melville, D.S., Liu, J., Chen, Y., Yang, H., Ren, W., Zhang, Z., Piersma, T., Li, B., 2014. Rethinking
486 China’s new great wall. *Science* (80-.). 346, 912–914. doi:10.1126/science.1257258

487 Macreadie, P.I., York, P.H., Sherman, C.D.H., 2014. Resilience of *Zostera muelleri* seagrass to small-
488 scale disturbances: the relative importance of asexual versus sexual recovery. *Ecol. Evol.* n/a–
489 n/a. doi:10.1002/ece3.933

490 Madsen, J.D., 1991. Resource allocation at the individual plant level. *Aquat. Bot.* 41, 67–86.
491 doi:10.1016/0304-3770(91)90039-8

- 492 Marbà, N., Krause-Jensen, D., Alcoverro, T., Birk, S., Pedersen, A., Neto, J.M., Orfanidis, S.,
 493 Garmendia, J.M., Muxika, I., Borja, A., Dencheva, K., Duarte, C.M., 2012. Diversity of European
 494 seagrass indicators: patterns within and across regions. *Hydrobiologia* 704, 265–278.
 495 doi:10.1007/s10750-012-1403-7
- 496 Marsh, J. a, Dennison, W.C., Alberte, R.S., Alberte, S., 1986. Effects of temperature on photosynthesis
 497 and respiration in eelgrass (*Zostera marina* L.). *J. Exp. Mar. Bio. Ecol.* 101, 257–267.
 498 doi:10.1016/0022-0981(86)90267-4
- 499 Mascaró, O., Alcoverro, T., Dencheva, K., Díez, I., Gorostiaga, J.M., Krause-Jensen, D., Balsby, T.J.S.,
 500 Marbà, N., Muxika, I., Neto, J.M., Nikolić, V., Orfanidis, S., Pedersen, A., Pérez, M., Romero, J.,
 501 2013. Exploring the robustness of macrophyte-based classification methods to assess the
 502 ecological status of coastal and transitional ecosystems under the Water Framework Directive.
 503 *Hydrobiologia* 704, 279–291. doi:10.1007/s10750-012-1426-0
- 504 Ochieng, C.A., Short, F.T., Walker, D.I., 2010. Photosynthetic and morphological responses of eelgrass
 505 (*Zostera marina* L.) to a gradient of light conditions. *J. Exp. Mar. Bio. Ecol.* 382, 117–124.
 506 doi:10.1016/j.jembe.2009.11.007
- 507 Olesen, B., Sand-jensen, K., 1993. Seasonal acclimatization of eelgrass *Zostera marina* growth to light.
 508 *Mar. Ecol. Prog. Ser.* 94, 91–99.
- 509 Olivé, I., Brun, F.G., Vergara, J.J., Pérez-Lloréns, J.L., 2007. Effects of light and biomass partitioning on
 510 growth, photosynthesis and carbohydrate content of the seagrass *Zostera noltii* Hornem. *J. Exp.*
 511 *Mar. Bio. Ecol.* 345, 90–100. doi:10.1016/j.jembe.2007.02.008
- 512 Orth, R.J., Carruthers, T.J.B., Dennison, W.C., Duarte, C.M., Fourqurean, J.W., Heck Jr, K.L., Hughes,
 513 A.R.R., Kendrick, G.A., Kenworthy, W.J., Olyarnik, S., Short, F.T., Waycott, M., Williams, S.L.,
 514 2006. A Global Crisis for Seagrass Ecosystems. *Bioscience* 56, 987–996. doi:10.1641/0006-
 515 3568(2006)56
- 516 Orth, R.J., Moore, K.A., Marion, S.R., Wilcox, D., Parrish, D., 2012. Seed addition facilitates eelgrass
 517 recovery in a coastal bay system. *Mar. Ecol. Prog. Ser.* 448, 177–195. doi:10.3354/meps09522
- 518 Rasheed, M.A., 1999. Recovery of experimentally created gaps within a tropical *Zostera capricorni*
 519 (Aschers.) seagrass meadow, Queensland Australia. *J. Exp. Mar. Bio. Ecol.* 235, 183–200.
 520 doi:10.1016/S0022-0981(98)00158-0
- 521 Rasheed, M.A., 2004. Recovery and succession in a multi-species tropical seagrass meadow following
 522 experimental disturbance: the role of sexual and asexual reproduction. *J. Exp. Mar. Bio. Ecol.*
 523 310, 13–45. doi:10.1016/j.jembe.2004.03.022
- 524 Scheffer, M., Bascompte, J., Brock, W. a, Brovkin, V., Carpenter, S.R., Dakos, V., Held, H., van Nes,
 525 E.H., Rietkerk, M., Sugihara, G., 2009. Early-warning signals for critical transitions. *Nature* 461,
 526 53–9. doi:10.1038/nature08227
- 527 Scheffer, M., Carpenter, S., Foley, J. a, Folke, C., Walker, B., 2001. Catastrophic shifts in ecosystems.
 528 *Nature* 413, 591–6. doi:10.1038/35098000
- 529 Scheffer, M., Van Nes, E.H., 2007. Shallow lakes theory revisited: Various alternative regimes driven
 530 by climate, nutrients, depth and lake size. *Hydrobiologia* 584, 455–466. doi:10.1007/s10750-
 531 007-0616-7
- 532 Short, F.T., Wyllie-Echeverria, S., 1996. Natural and human-induced disturbance of seagrasses.
 533 *Environ. Conserv.* 23, 17–27.
- 534 Soissons, L.M., Han, Q., Li, B., van Katwijk, M.M., Ysebaert, T., Herman, P.M.J., Bouma, T.J., 2014.
 535 Cover versus recovery: Contrasting responses of two indicators in seagrass beds. *Mar. Pollut.*

536 Bull. 87, 211–219. doi:10.1016/j.marpolbul.2014.07.057

537 Unsworth, R.K.F., van Keulen, M., Coles, R.G., 2014. Seagrass meadows in a globally changing
538 environment. *Mar. Pollut. Bull.* 83, 383–386. doi:10.1016/j.marpolbul.2014.02.026

539 van der Heide, T., van Nes, E.H., Geerling, G.W., Smolders, A.J.P., Bouma, T.J., van Katwijk, M.M.,
540 2007. Positive Feedbacks in Seagrass Ecosystems: Implications for Success in Conservation and
541 Restoration. *Ecosystems* 10, 1311–1322. doi:10.1007/s10021-007-9099-7

542 van der Heide, T., van Nes, E.H., van Katwijk, M.M., Scheffer, M., Hendriks, A.J., Smolders, A.J.P.,
543 2010. Alternative Stable States Driven by Density-Dependent Toxicity. *Ecosystems* 13, 841–850.
544 doi:10.1007/s10021-010-9358-x

545 van Nes, E.H., Scheffer, M., 2007. Slow recovery from perturbations as a generic indicator of a nearby
546 catastrophic shift. *Am. Nat.* 169, 738–47. doi:10.1086/516845

547 van Wesenbeeck, B.K., van de Koppel, J., Herman, P.M.J., Bertness, M.D., van der Wal, D., Bakker,
548 J.P., Bouma, T.J., 2008. Potential for Sudden Shifts in Transient Systems: Distinguishing Between
549 Local and Landscape-Scale Processes. *Ecosystems* 11, 1133–1141. doi:10.1007/s10021-008-
550 9184-6

551 Waycott, M., Duarte, C.M., Carruthers, T.J.B., Orth, R.J., Dennison, W.C., Olyarnik, S., Calladine, A.,
552 Fourqurean, J.W., Heck, K.L.J., Hughes, A.R., Kendrick, G.A., Kenworthy, W.J., Short, F.T.,
553 Williams, S.L., 2009. Accelerating loss of seagrasses across the globe threatens coastal
554 ecosystems. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* 106, 12377–12381. doi:10.1073/pnas.0905620106

555 Yemm, E.W., Willis, A.J., 1954. The estimation of carbohydrates in plant extracts by anthrone.
556 *Biochem. J.* 57, 508–514.

557 Zhang, P.D., Liu, Y.S., Guo, D., Li, W.T., Zhang, Q., 2014. Seasonal Variation in Growth, Morphology,
558 and Reproduction of Eelgrass *Zostera marina* on the Eastern Coast of the Shandong Peninsula,
559 China. *J. Coast. Res.* doi:10.2112/JCOASTRES-D-14-00117.1

560 Zharova, N., Sfriso, A., Voinov, A., Pavoni, B., 2001. A simulation model for the annual fluctuation of
561 *Zostera marina* biomass in the Venice lagoon. *Aquat. Bot.* 70, 135–150. doi:10.1016/S0304-
562 3770(01)00151-6

563

564

565

566 **Tables**

567

568 **Table 1:** Three-factors ANOVA p-values of the effect of resilience experiments representing timing (Exps' 1 to 4), harvest
569 time (within each experiment), site and their interactive effect for the dependent variables LAI_{standing}, LAI_{regrowth} (absolute
570 recovery) and Relative recovery (%RC)

	LAI_{standing}	LAI_{regrowth}	%RC
Timing	<0.001***	<0.001***	<0.001***
Harvest time	0.273	0.995	0.394
Site	<0.001***	<0.001***	0.015***
Timing* Harvest time	0.004***	0.742	0.321
Timing* Site	0.003***	<0.001***	0.018***
Harvest time* Site	0.667	0.462	0.283
Timing* Harvest time* Site	0.002***	0.261	0.714

571

572

573

574

575 **Table 2:** p-values, following post-hoc Tukey HSD test (from 3-factor ANOVA) on the effect of timing (i.e. differences
 576 between the resilience experiments, Exp's 1 to 4) for the dependent variables LAI_{standing}, LAI_{regrowth} (absolute recovery)
 577 and %RC (Relative recovery). Exp1-Exp4 correspond to the four sequential, identical resilience experiments and
 578 represent timing in the growing season

		LAI_{standing}	LAI_{regrowth}	%RC
Exp 1	Exp 2	0.001***	<0.001***	<0.001***
	Exp 3	0.017**	0.005***	0.003***
	Exp 4	0.01***	<0.001***	0.005***
Exp 2	Exp 3	0.839	0.801	0.847
	Exp 4	<0.001***	0.972	0.637
Exp 3	Exp 4	<0.001***	0.552	0.988

579

580

581 **Table 3:** Three-factors ANOVA p-values of the effect of site, timing (i.e. resilience experiments (Exps'1 to 4), disturbance
 582 and their interactive effect for the dependent variables carbohydrate content in rhizomes at the end of each resilience
 583 experiment.

	Carbohydrate content in rhizomes
Site	<0.001***
Timing	0.003***
Disturbance	0.433
Site*Timing	<0.001***
Site*Disturbance	0.549
Timing*Disturbance	0.049**
Site*Timing*Disturbance	0.407

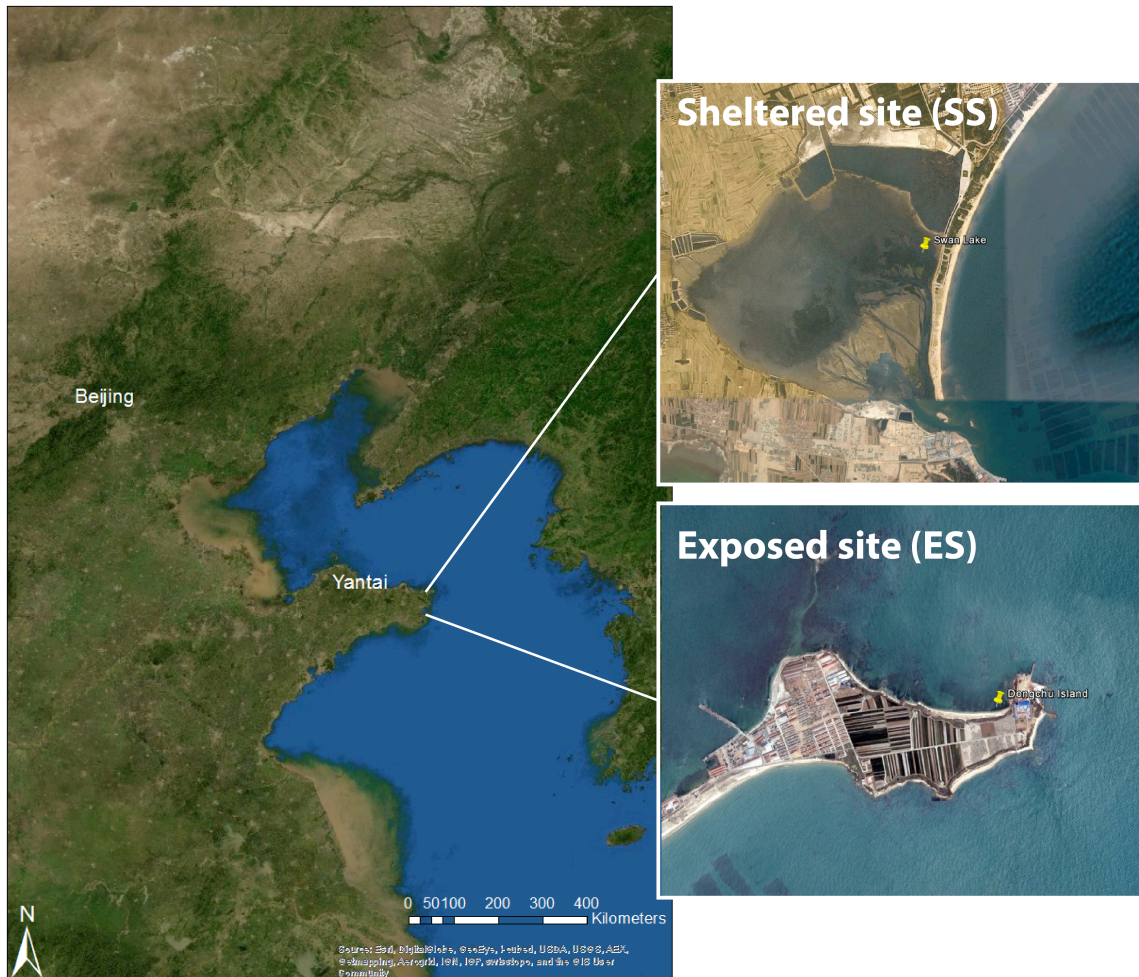
584

585

586

587 **Figures**

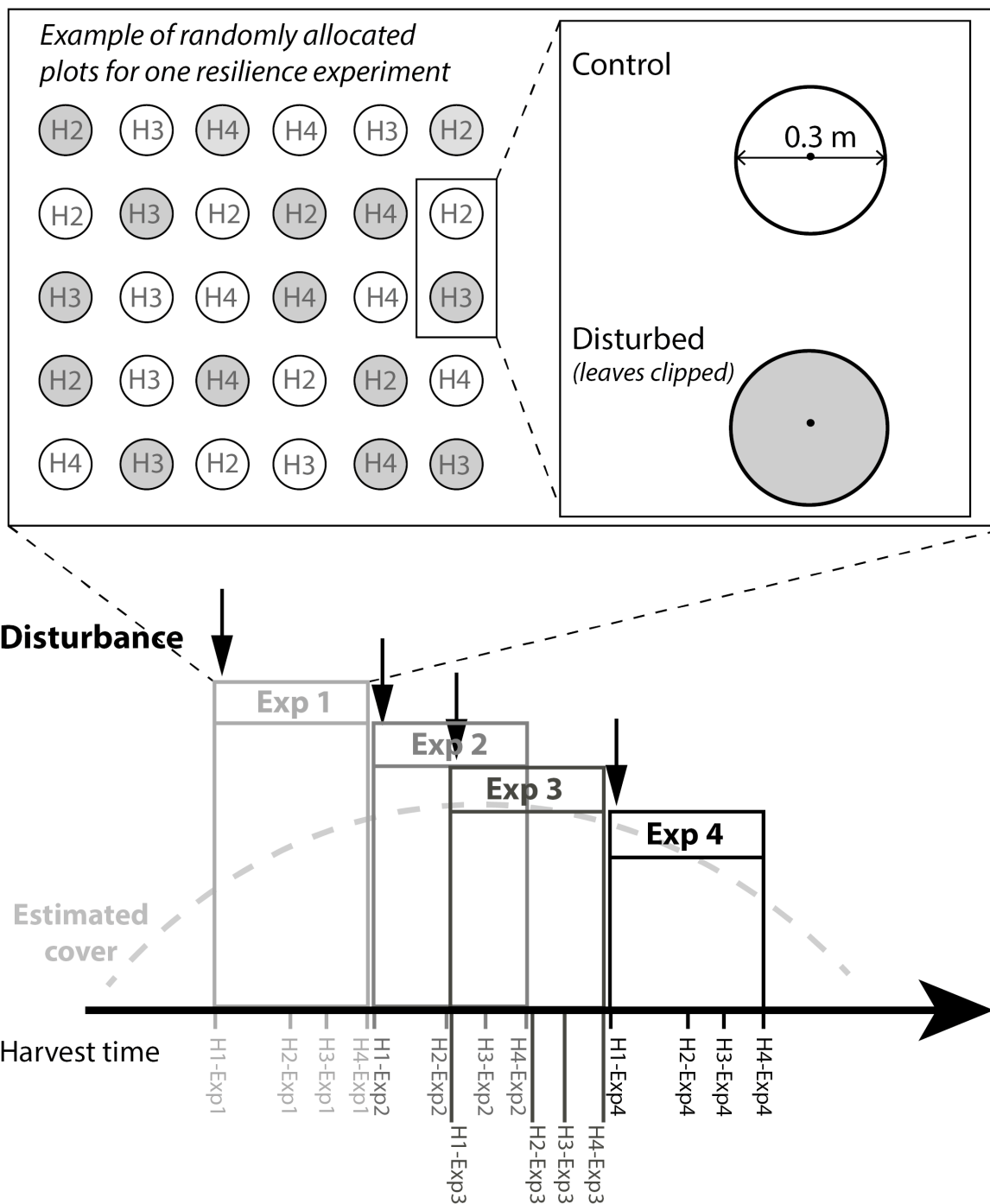
588



589

590 **Figure 1: Satellite images of the two study sites in the Shandong province, China.**

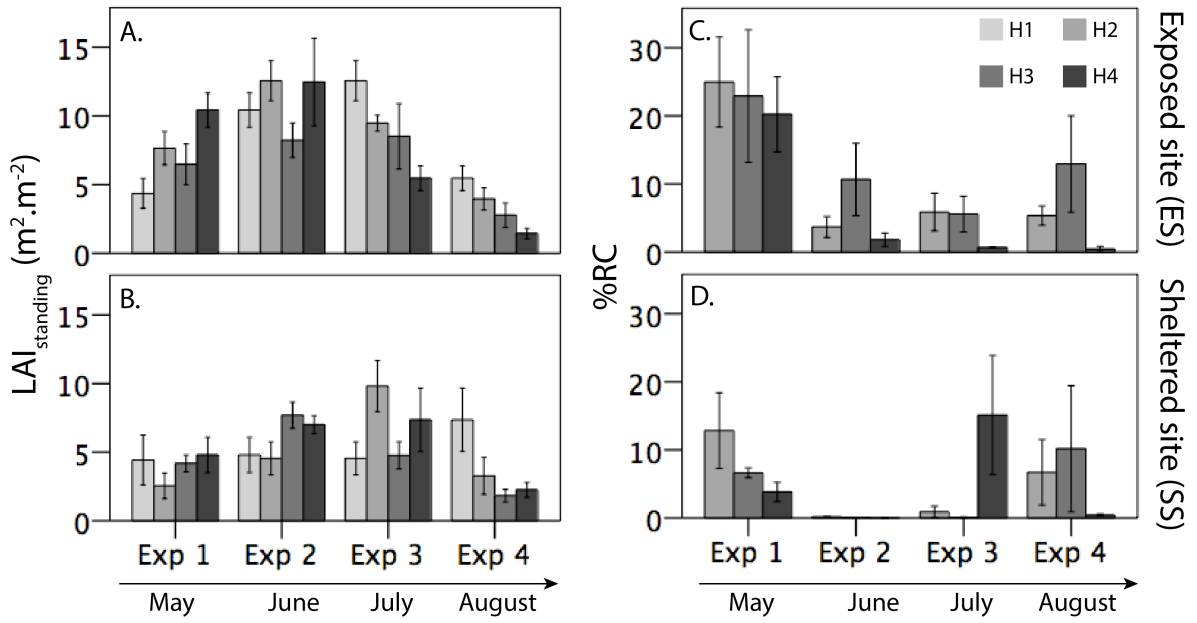
591



592

593 **Figure 2: Diagram of the experimental design and time frame for all resilience experiments.** The upper diagram shows
 594 **the random distribution of the plots according to their treatments (empty circles represent the control plots, grey circles**
 595 **represent the disturbed plots) and the different harvest times.** In the lower diagram, the four independent, sequential,
 596 **identical resilience experiments to study timing are represented along the time line and referred to as Exp 1 to 4.** The
 597 **slight overlap between Exp 2 and Exp 3 was designed to better capture the peak of the growing season.** The downward
 598 **black arrows at the start of each resilience experiment represent the disturbance created by clipping the leaves.** The four
 599 **harvest times (H1 to H4) are represented per resilience experiment along the timeline.** H1 was done at the start of each
 600 **resilience experiment within the experimental area for control samples only, and thus is not represented in the upper**
 601 **diagram.**

602



603

604

605

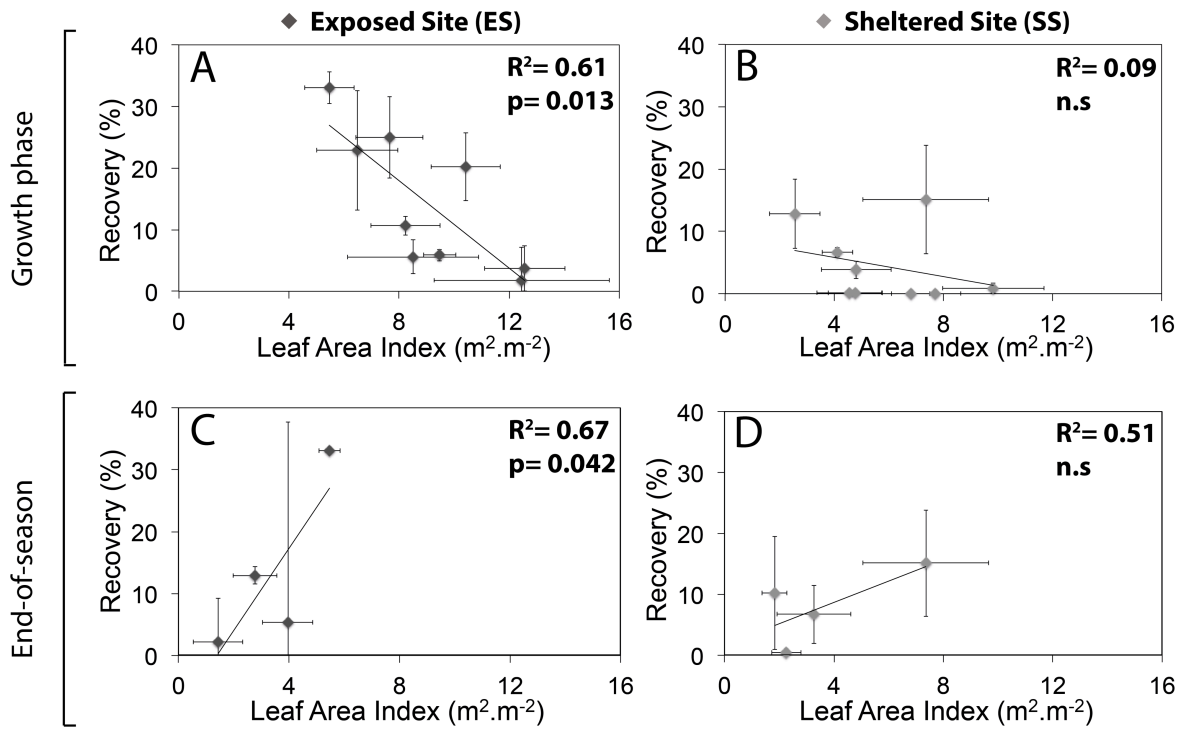
606

607

Figure 3: Leaf Area Index of the standing stock ($LAI_{standing}$) in $m^2 \cdot m^{-2}$ (A. and B.; data based on control plots) and Relative recovery (Critical slowing down) in %RC (C. and D.; data based on disturbed plots) at both sites (Exposed site (ES) for A. and C., and Sheltered site (SS) for B. and D.) at the different resilience experiment (Exp) and harvest times (H).

608

609



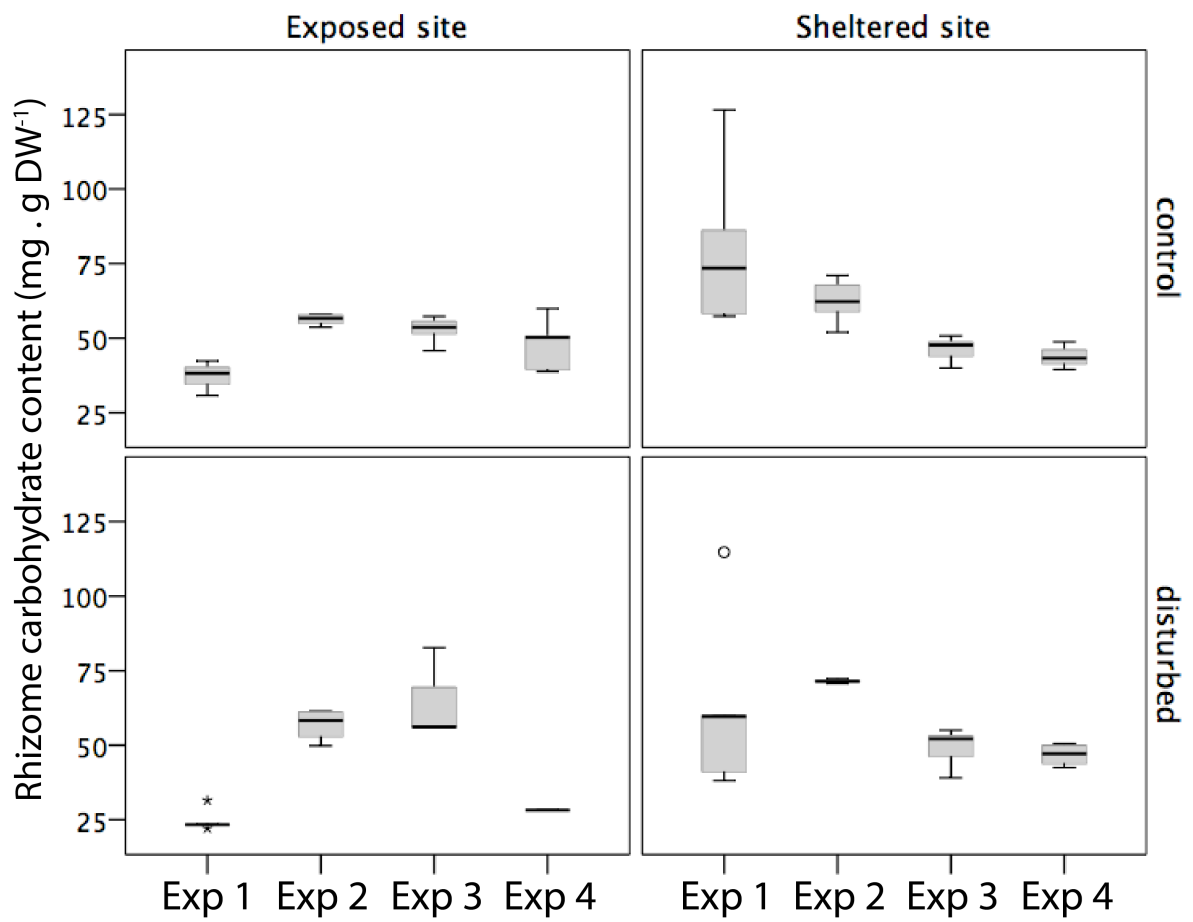
610

611 **Figure 4: Correlation between indicators: Relative recovery (%RC) as a function of Leaf Area Index (LAI_{standing}; m².m⁻²) in**
612 **control plots. A and B: Correlation during the growth phase at the Exposed site ES (dark markers) and Sheltered site SS**
613 **(grey markers) respectively; C and D: Correlation during the End-of-season phase at ES and SS respectively. The growth**
614 **phase corresponds to the period from May until mid-July; the end-of-season phase corresponds to the period from end**
615 **of July till end of August. Bars represent standard errors for both indicators. R² and p-values are displayed on each graph**
616 **(n.s for when p>0.05)**

617

618

619



620

621 Figure 5: Boxplots representing the rhizome carbohydrate content in mg.gDW⁻¹ at the end of each resilience experiments
622 (X-axis). Columns represents the sites (Exposed site ES and Sheltered site SS), rows represent the treatment (control and
623 disturbed). Symbols (° and *) represent outliers.

624