

1 **The impact of 36 years of grazing management on soil nitrogen (N) supply rate and**  
2 ***Salix repens* N status and internal cycling in dune slacks.**

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10 **Abstract**

11 Aims: To determine the impact of long-term rabbit and sheep grazing on *Salix repens* N  
12 status (green and abscised leaf N content and C:N ratio), internal N dynamics and soil N  
13 supply rate in dune slacks.

14 Methods: Herbivore exclosures were erected in dune slacks at Ainsdale Sand Dunes NNR,  
15 creating three grazing treatments: rabbit grazing; rabbits excluded for 36 years; rabbit grazing  
16 followed by sheep and rabbit grazing for 18 years. Soil N supply rate was analysed using ion  
17 exchange membranes; leaf N dynamics of *S. repens* were measured over one summer.

18 Results: soil N supply rate was higher in ungrazed plots. There was no difference in green  
19 leaf N<sub>MASS</sub> or C:N ratio between treatments, but N dynamics differed. Adding sheep to  
20 existing rabbit grazing reduced *S. repens* N resorption efficiency (R<sub>EFF</sub>) from 67% to 37%;  
21 excluding rabbits had no impact. Litter N<sub>MASS</sub> was lower and C:N ratio higher in ungrazed  
22 plots.

23 Conclusions: Grazing can impact significantly on leaf N resorption, but this impact depends  
24 on the grazing regime.

25 Key words: herbivory; grazing; mammals; wetland; nitrogen; biogeochemical cycling

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27

## 28 **Introduction**

29 Mammalian herbivores can have significant impacts on plant – soil interactions. These  
30 impacts can alter ecosystem functioning and responses to other environmental drivers such as  
31 climate change. Herbivory can alter ecosystem nutrient cycling in a number of ways:  
32 indirectly through impacts on individual plants (Sirontnak and Huntley 2000) and on species  
33 composition (Jaramillo and Detling 1992; Parsons et al 1994), and directly through  
34 deposition of faeces and urine, and due to physical impacts on the soil such as compaction  
35 (Schrama et al 2013). These impacts can retard (Ritchie et al 1998; Stark and Grellmann 2002)  
36 or accelerate (Frank and Evans 1997; Van der Wal et al 2004) the rate of nutrient cycling  
37 depending on ecosystem characteristics such as productivity, the identity of the herbivore and  
38 the timing of herbivory (Millard et al 2001; Stark and Grellmann 2002). These impacts can  
39 also change over the long-term (e.g. Olofsson et al 2007), but the majority of studies are  
40 short- to medium-term, which limits our understanding.

41 Most conceptual models predict that herbivores will speed up nutrient cycling in fertile  
42 systems and slow down nutrient cycling in low nutrient systems (Wardle et al 2004). This is  
43 because when leaf N concentrations are low herbivores consume a smaller proportion of net  
44 primary productivity (NPP). Return of nutrients to the soil is then dominated by less labile  
45 litter rather than fecal inputs and community composition becomes dominated by plants with  
46 low quality litter. Experimental studies, however, find contrasting results. Bakker et al (2009),  
47 for example, found that the opposite is the case for grasslands, but this might be due to the  
48 short term nature of experiments. Stark et al. (2014) found that herbivory decreased soil N  
49 cycling in more N replete tundra systems but increased cycling in N deficient systems. One  
50 hypothesis is that plant nutrient stoichiometry is a more important driver of herbivore impacts  
51 (Cherif and Loreau 2013), while Stark et al. (2014) considered that nutrient redistribution by

52 herbivores might be the mechanism. What is clear is that plant – particularly leaf – and litter  
53 N concentrations and C:N ratios are key to understanding how grazing affects N cycling.  
54 These two traits are directly linked through the process of leaf nutrient resorption.

55 During leaf senescence plants withdraw N from their leaves, this is known as N resorption.  
56 Plants store this N in perennial tissues and use it for growth in the following year (Millard  
57 1996). N not withdrawn remains in the leaf and is returned to the soil as litter. Leaf nutrient  
58 resorption is, therefore, a key process that controls nutrient fluxes from plants to the soil and  
59 nutrient availability for storage and reuse (Millard 1996). Between-site variability in leaf  
60 nutrient resorption appears to be controlled by plant nutrition; more nutrient replete plants are  
61 less efficient than more nutrient limited plants (Kobe et al 2005; Vergutz et al 2012). Within-  
62 site controls are less clear, but leaf nutrient resorption can be affected by competition (Millett  
63 et al 2005) and plant growth stage (Yasumura et al 2005), but not irradiance (Yasumura et al  
64 2005). Herbivory may potentially influence resorption by altering litterfall timing, phenology  
65 or leaf chemistry (Chapman et al 2006b). Surprisingly, however, few studies have considered  
66 the impact of grazing on leaf nutrient resorption.

67 In terms of measuring the impact of herbivory a variety of leaf traits are interesting to study  
68 because they are strongly correlated with plant performance (e.g. mass, area, mass per unit  
69 area, nitrogen concentration), are potentially affected by herbivory and have the potential to  
70 impact on rates of herbivory and N cycling. The impact of herbivory is predicted to be  
71 strongly related to leaf N concentrations and C:N ratios (Bakker et al 2009). Leaves with  
72 more N and a lower C:N ratio tend to be more palatable to herbivores; litter with more N and a  
73 lower C:N ratio tends to decompose faster (Cornwell et al 2008). Once grazed, plant tissue  
74 C:N ratios, leaf area and leaf mass can change, with impacts on plant function,  
75 decomposability and the probability of further herbivory (Kielland et al 1997). There are

76 therefore clear links between green leaf chemistry, herbivory and decomposability (Wardle et  
77 al 2002).

78 In this *in-situ* experimental study we measured the impact of different grazing regimes –  
79 rabbit grazing (*Oryctolagus cuniculus*) or rabbit plus sheep (*Ovis aries*) grazing – after 36  
80 years of grazing treatments. Rabbits and sheep are important mammalian herbivores, which  
81 might be expected to have different impacts on N cycling. Rabbits are small sized, hind gut  
82 fermenters; sheep are medium sized ruminants. These differences might have important  
83 impacts on ecosystem N cycling. Small animals should be more selective, choosing higher  
84 quality plants (Dement and Van Soest 1985), should redistribute N more widely in smaller  
85 pellets which release their N more quickly (Pastor et al 1996), and small burrowing animals  
86 such as rabbits should increase soil aeration, whereas larger animals should increase soil  
87 compaction. We, therefore, measured impacts on two key N cycling processes: soil N supply  
88 rate and leaf N cycling in the typical dune slack plant species *Salix repens*.

89 Herbivory has been a constant component of the ecology and management of dune slack  
90 systems, which are of high conservation importance (for example being listed in Annex 1 of  
91 the EU Habitats Directive). We have previously reported changes in plant community  
92 composition in these communities, in response to different grazing regimes (Millett and  
93 Edmondson 2013). We were interested in determining whether there were also changes in  
94 nitrogen cycling in these communities. We measured soil nitrogen (N) supply rate and leaf N  
95 traits for *S. repens* within dune slacks in Ainsdale Sand Dunes National Nature Reserve in  
96 North West England to assess the effects of three different grazing regimes: 1. grazing  
97 prevented for 36 years (*'ungrazed'*), 2. continued rabbit grazing (*'rabbit'*) and 3. sheep  
98 grazing added to existing rabbit grazing for 18 years (*'rabbit+sheep'*). Specifically, we  
99 addressed the following questions: 1. does grazing over the long-term slow down or speed up  
100 soil N supply rate and alter *S. repens* leaf N content and autumn leaf N resorption, 2. how

101 does adding sheep to existing rabbit grazing impact soil N supply rate and alter *S. repens* leaf  
102 N content and autumn leaf N resorption?

### 103 **Materials and Methods**

104 The details of the study site and experimental set-up have been described in full in Millett and  
105 Edmondson (2013); we will provide only pertinent details here.

#### 106 *Study site*

107 This study was conducted in dune slacks within the Ainsdale Sand Dunes National Nature  
108 Reserve, which is part of the Sefton Coast Special Area of Conservation (SAC). Dune slacks  
109 are low-lying seasonally flooded areas in coastal dune systems. They have high alpha plant  
110 diversity and contribute to beta and gamma diversity due to the high proportion of specialist  
111 species. Ainsdale Sand Dunes NNR has received long-term grazing by rabbits (Houston  
112 2004); more recently—in 1991—additional sheep grazing was added. The sheep graze the  
113 dune system intermittently between September/October and May/June each year, at a density  
114 of approximately 1.65 sheep per hectare. During the study mean±se annual rainfall was:  
115 849±18.4 mm; mean annual maximum and minimum temperatures were respectively  
116 13.6±0.2°C and 6.1±0.1°C. Atmospheric N deposition was approximately 1.37±0.03 g N m<sup>-2</sup>  
117 year<sup>-1</sup> and remained relatively constant throughout the study. This level of N deposition is  
118 intermediate for the UK and is at the critical load threshold for this habitat of 1.0-1.5 g N m<sup>2</sup>  
119 year<sup>-1</sup> (Bobbink and Hettelingh 2011). The water table varies by over 50 cm most years, with  
120 30% of the slacks flooded in winter (10-30 cm) and 10% remaining flooded in the summer  
121 (Clarke and Sanitwong Na Ayutthaya 2009).

#### 122 *Experimental design*

123 We erected three 1.5 x 1.5 m and 1 m high rabbit exclosures (30 mm mesh) in each of four  
124 dune slacks in 1974. By 2009 one exclosure had failed in one slack and all three had failed in  
125 another slack leaving a total of 8 functioning rabbit exclosures. 10 x 10 m and 1 m high sheep  
126 exclosures (mesh size 150 mm mesh) were added around the rabbit exclosures in two of the  
127 slacks in 1991, at the same time that sheep grazing was introduced. These exclosures  
128 prevented sheep access, but still allowed rabbit access. Counts of rabbit faecal pellets  
129 confirmed that no rabbits were able to enter the rabbit exclosures and that rabbit abundance  
130 was similar inside and outside the sheep exclosures (Millett and Edmondson 2013a).  
131 Specifically, in 2009 we found no faecal pellets inside the rabbit exclosures; outside the  
132 exclosures numbers were not significantly different inside and outside the sheep exclosure  
133 and varied from 0 – 121 per m<sup>2</sup>, being on average 22.6 per m<sup>2</sup>.

#### 134 *Plant community*

135 The plant community in the dune slacks has been monitored since 1974; changes over time  
136 and the impact of grazing treatments are described in detail by (Millett and Edmondson 2013).  
137 In 1974 the community was dominated by *S. repens* and *Agrostis stolonifera* with abundant  
138 *Carex flacca*, *Lotus corniculatus* and *Hydrocotyle vulgaris*. Over time, this community  
139 changed, and was affected by the grazing treatments. In 2009 in the plots with no grazing the  
140 vascular plant community were dominated by *Rubus caesius* and *S. repens*, with the ground  
141 layer dominated by *Lotus pedunculatus* and *H. vulgaris*. In the grazed plots the plant  
142 community was dominated by *S. repens*, *Festuca rubra* and *L. pedunculatus* with *H. vulgaris*  
143 also dominating in those grazed by both rabbits and sheep. Also abundant in grazed plots, but  
144 not the ungrazed plots, were *Carex nigra*, *C. flacca*, *Anagallis tenella* and *A. stolonifera*.  
145 *Equisetum variegatum* and *L. corniculatus* were also abundant in plots grazed by rabbits and  
146 sheep but not in ungrazed plots or those grazed by only rabbits. Overall, grazing removal  
147 resulted in an increase in woody plant abundance and a decrease in forb and graminoid

148 abundance. Graminoid and forb cover were higher in the plots grazed by rabbits and sheep  
149 than those grazed by rabbits alone. The weighted Ellenberg N score of the plant community  
150 in the ungrazed plots was higher ( $4.2 \pm 1.6$ ) than in the grazed plots, but did not differ  
151 significantly between grazing treatments (Rabbit grazing:  $3.8 \pm 2.2$  Rabbit and sheep grazing:  
152  $3.7 \pm 1.2$ ).

### 153 *Measurements*

154 The plots used in this study are identical to those in (Millett and Edmondson 2013), allowing  
155 direct comparison between the plant community and N cycling. We established one study  
156 plot inside each of the rabbit exclosures ('ungrazed':  $n=8$  in total), 2 plots inside each of the  
157 sheep exclosures ('rabbit grazed':  $n=4$  in total) and three near to the exclosures but in areas  
158 where sheep and rabbits were able to graze ('Sheep and rabbit grazed':  $n=11$  in total).

159 In 2009 nitrogen cycling was investigated in the plots using two approaches. Firstly, leaf-N  
160 dynamics were measured for *S. repens* in each plot. This species was present in all plots and  
161 is characteristic of dune slack vegetation, making it a good indicator species for the impacts  
162 of grazing on plant-N cycling. Fully formed leaves ( $n=30$  per plot) were removed on 6<sup>th</sup> July  
163 2009 and 31<sup>st</sup> August 2009. On 25<sup>th</sup> October 2009 a sample of abscised leaves was removed  
164 from each plot. These were leaves that fell off readily when touched. The leaves from each  
165 plot were scanned using a flat-bed scanner. Leaf area was determined from the resulting  
166 image using image analysis software (ImageJ, Abramoff et al. 2004). Leaves within each plot  
167 were pooled and dried at 70°C for 72 hours, weighed and milled to a fine powder using a ball  
168 mill (Retsch MM200). Carbon (C) and N content was then determined using a Perkin Elmer  
169 2400 Series II CHN Elemental Analyzer. The height of *S. repens* in each plot was also  
170 measured at 10 random points in each plot.



171 Soil N availability was determined using Plant Root Simulator Probes (PRS<sup>TM</sup>, Western Ag  
172 Innovations, Saskatoon, SK, Canada). These use either an anion- or cation-exchange resin  
173 membrane (total of 17.5 cm<sup>2</sup> per probe) housed in a plastic casing, the counter ions are Na<sup>+</sup>  
174 and HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>. The absorption of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> by the resin membrane in the PRS<sup>TM</sup> probes  
175 give an integrative index of the flux of plant available inorganic N over the burial period  
176 (Hangs et al 2004). This is a function of the size of N pools and the transformation of N to  
177 these NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> pools. Therefore, they are unable to provide any measure of differences  
178 in the size of these pools between grazing treatments. Nonetheless, they are a useful measure  
179 of differences in terms of rates of N supply rate, particularly the impact of net mineralisation  
180 on N supply (because we removed root interactions). They are also broadly comparable to  
181 measurements made by (Bakker et al 2009) who measured N supply rate using resin bags.

182 Three pairs of PRS<sup>TM</sup> probes (one anion and one cation, 5 cm apart) were buried in each plot  
183 on 6<sup>th</sup> July 2009 with at least 40 cm between pairs. Each probe was inserted into a slit cut into  
184 the soil so that the membrane was level with the top of the soil, extending down 5 cm into the  
185 soil. To prevent root interaction with the ion exchange membrane all vegetation was removed  
186 along with as much of the root system as possible (minimising soil disturbance) from a 10 cm  
187 diameter circle around each pair. Roots were severed with a serrated knife around the  
188 perimeter of this circle. The probes were removed on 31<sup>st</sup> August 2009 (a burial period of 60  
189 days). On removal the probes were rinsed in the field with deionised water to remove as  
190 much soil as possible, they were later carefully scrubbed with a brush and deionised water to  
191 remove all remaining soil residue. The PRS probes were sent to Western Ag Innovations  
192 where they were extracted using 0.5 N HCl for 1 h. The extractant was analysed for NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and  
193 NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, for the cation and anion exchange membranes respectively, using colourimetry with a  
194 flow injection analysis system (FIALab-2600 automated procedure). The amount of N

195 absorbed by the PRS<sup>TM</sup> probes was calculated by adding the total amount of N contained in  
196 the extractants (so is the sum of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N).

197 *Data analysis*

198 Initial data exploration showed that the pattern of treatment differences in leaf N  
199 concentrations differed between July and August for N<sub>AREA</sub> – lower for leaves in  
200 *rabbit+sheep* grazed plots in July but not in August – but did not differ for N<sub>MASS</sub> – no  
201 significant differences between treatments in July or August. Leaves collected in July had  
202 consistently higher N concentrations on a mass and area basis than those collected in August.  
203 We therefore used the July leaves as our ‘green’ leaves and the leaves collected in October as  
204 our ‘abscised’ leaves. Leaf N resorption before autumn leaf abscission (R<sub>EFF</sub>) is best  
205 measured on a leaf area basis because this changes less than leaf mass during senescence (van  
206 Heerwaarden et al 2003). Thus, R<sub>EFF</sub> was calculated as follows (Aerts 1996; Killingbeck  
207 1996):

208 Equation 1: 
$$R_{EFF} = \frac{(N_{AREA} \text{ of green leaf} - N_{AREA} \text{ of abscised leaf})}{N_{AREA} \text{ of green leaf}}$$

209 We used a number of leaf traits. Leaf N content is directly related to plant nutritional status  
210 and is a key parameter for understanding ecosystem responses to herbivory (Bakker et al  
211 2009). We therefore calculated leaf N concentration on an area (N<sub>AREA</sub>) and mass (N<sub>MASS</sub>)  
212 basis. We calculated the C:N ratio for green and abscised leaves because of the hypothesised  
213 importance of nutrient stoichiometry for herbivore impacts on N cycling. We also used leaf-  
214 mass, leaf-area and leaf mass per unit area (LMA) because woody perennials alter biomass  
215 allocation patterns as a result of herbivory (Hester et al 2004) and this may be captured in  
216 these traits.

217 We tested for differences in these leaf traits and  $R_{\text{EFF}}$ , PRS<sup>TM</sup> probe N absorption and *S.*  
218 *repens* height between grazing treatments using a Linear Mixed Model (LMM) in SPSS 20.0  
219 (IBM Corp. 2011) with grazing treatment and dune slack as fixed effects. The effect of  
220 grazing treatment was also tested using a priori tests of the difference between ungrazed and  
221 grazed (the mean of *rabbit* and *rabbit+sheep* grazed plots) plots and the difference between  
222 *rabbit* and *rabbit+sheep* grazed plots were tested separately using custom hypothesis tests  
223 with the ‘TEST’ subcommand in SPSS. The relationship between green leaf N content and  
224 abscised leaf N content was assessed using linear regression.

225 We undertook further analysis of plant community data from the plots (presented in (Millett  
226 and Edmondson 2013). We calculated an index of impact of grazing removal on the most  
227 common vascular plant species found in the plots. The index was calculated as follows:

228 Equation 2: 
$$\text{Grazing index} = \frac{(\text{ungrazed abundance} - \text{grazed abundance})}{(\text{ungrazed abundance} + \text{grazed abundance})}$$

229 This index yields a number for each species from -1 to +1. A value of +1 indicates that  
230 species is only present in ungrazed plots, a value of -1 indicates that species is only present in  
231 grazed plots and a value of 0 indicates that abundance is the same in grazed and ungrazed  
232 plots.

## 233 **Results**

234 During the 60 day soil incubation period considerably more inorganic N was absorbed by ion  
235 and cation exchange membranes in the PRS<sup>TM</sup> probes in the *ungrazed* plots than in either of  
236 the grazing treatments (Table 1, Fig. 1). *Salix repens* was present in every plot and plants  
237 were taller in the *ungrazed* treatments than either of the grazed treatments (Table 1, Fig. 2).  
238 Leaf traits in July differed between grazing treatments. Leaves of *S. repens* in grazed plots  
239 had, on average, higher mass than those growing in ungrazed plots and those grazed by only

240 rabbits had a higher leaf mass than those grazed by rabbits and sheep (Table 1, Fig. 3a).  
241 Leaves of *S. repens* in ungrazed plots also had a smaller area than those in grazed plots, with  
242 no significant difference between *rabbit* or *rabbit+sheep* grazed plots (Table 1, Fig. 3b). As a  
243 result LMA of *S. repens* in grazed plots was not different on average to that of plants in  
244 *ungrazed* plots. LMA of plants in *rabbit* grazed plots was, however, significantly higher than  
245 that of plants in *rabbit+sheep* grazed plots (Table 1, Fig. 3c). In terms of leaf nutrients, only  
246 leaf N content on an area basis was affected by the grazing treatments (Table 1), those in  
247 *rabbit* grazed plots had higher  $N_{\text{AREA}}$  than those in *rabbit+sheep* grazed plots. There was no  
248 impact of the treatments on green leaf C:N ratios or N content on a mass basis.

249 On average *S. repens* leaf-N decreased by  $51.0 \pm 5.1\%$  between July and abscission. Leaf N  
250 dynamics were also affected by the grazing treatments (Table 1, Fig. 4). Leaves of plants  
251 which had higher green-leaf N concentrations withdrew more N from these leaves than those  
252 with lower green-leaf N concentrations. The result of this was a weak negative relationship  
253 between green-leaf N content and abscised-leaf N content (Linear regression:  $P=0.053$ ,  
254  $r^2=0.174$ ), and significantly lower leaf N resorption efficiency ( $R_{\text{EFF}}$ ) of *S. repens* plants in  
255 the *rabbit+sheep* grazing treatment than that of plants in the *ungrazed* or *rabbit* grazed plots  
256 (Table 1, Fig. 5a). Abscised leaf  $N_{\text{MASS}}$ , however, was significantly lower in *ungrazed* plots  
257 and C:N ratio was significantly higher in ungrazed plots.

258 Grazing removal had a positive impact on the abundance of only four of the most common  
259 species (Fig. 6). There was no discernible impact on the abundance of *S. repens* and a  
260 negative impact on the remaining 14 most common species, with six of these species being  
261 absent from ungrazed plots.

## 262 **Discussion**

263 The impact of herbivory on leaf nutrient resorption is relatively poorly studied and the  
264 controls over leaf N resorption are not yet fully resolved. Millett et al (2005) found no impact  
265 of low levels of simulated herbivory on autumn N resorption by *Betula pubescens* but Silla  
266 and Escudero (2003) found that foliar herbivory reduced green-leaf N content and so leaf N  
267 resorption efficiency. We found an impact of grazing regime on leaf N resorption efficiency.  
268 The leaf N resorption efficiency of *S. repens* growing in plots grazed by *rabbits+sheep* was  
269 approximately half that of those in *ungrazed* or *rabbit* grazed plots. This suggests that  
270 herbivory might be an important control over within site variability in leaf nutrient resorption,  
271 but this effect is dependent on the grazing regime. Green-leaf  $N_{\text{AREA}}$  was lower in  
272 *rabbit+sheep* grazed plots but abscised-leaf  $N_{\text{AREA}}$  did not differ between treatments.  
273 Similarly to Silla and Escudero (2003) these differences in green-leaf N concentrations  
274 appear to have resulted in the observed differences in leaf N resorption efficiency. This  
275 suggests that herbivore impacts on leaf nutrient resorption may depend on impacts on green-  
276 leaf nutrient content. Herbivory might, therefore, reverse the usual between site pattern of  
277 positive correlation between green- and abscised-leaf N content and negative correlation  
278 between plant N status and resorption efficiency (Vergutz et al 2012).

279 Green-leaf  $N_{\text{MASS}}$  and so C:N ratio of *S. repens* growing in grazed plots was unaffected by  
280 grazing but abscised-leaf  $N_{\text{MASS}}$  was increased in grazed plots, resulting in lower C:N ratios.  
281 The differences between  $N_{\text{MASS}}$  and  $N_{\text{AREA}}$  might be explained by the herbivore induced  
282 production of C-based secondary metabolites (Mithöfer and Boland 2012), which might be  
283 less mobile within the plant and so less likely to be withdrawn from the leaves. This would  
284 alter  $N_{\text{MASS}}$  by changing the mass of the leaf, but not  $N_{\text{AREA}}$  because the area of the leaf  
285 would remain unchanged. The results here show that adding sheep grazing to existing rabbit  
286 grazing reduced green-leaf N content and N resorption efficiency, reducing the leaf N pool  
287 available to *S. repens* plants for resorption and reuse. This might be a result of increased

288 herbivory resulting in removal of more N from *S. repens* plants in *rabbit+sheep* grazed plots  
289 than in only *rabbit* grazed plots, reducing total plant N content and so leaf N content. This  
290 might have consequences for *S. repens* nutrition in following years. Further studies are  
291 needed to better understand the impacts and implications of grazing for leaf nutrient  
292 resorption.

293 Long-term exclusion of herbivores resulted in an increase in N ion absorption onto the PRS<sup>TM</sup>  
294 probes. This suggests an increased soil N supply rate due to acceleration of N cycling below-  
295 ground, and so increased plant N availability. This effect was consistent for both rabbit  
296 grazing and when sheep grazing was added to the rabbit grazing. It is maybe surprising that  
297 this increased soil N supply did not result in altered N status of *S. repens*. The reasons cannot  
298 be unambiguously determined but might be because the plants were not N limited – as  
299 indicated by relatively high leaf N content; or due to an interaction between increased soil N  
300 supply and decreased herbivory – both changes are confounded; or maybe the additional N  
301 was used by the plants for growth – they were taller in ungrazed plots – rather than to  
302 increase tissue N concentration.

303 Grazing impacts on ecosystem N cycling are often observed (Hobbs 1996), though the  
304 impacts are variable (Milchunas and Lauenroth 1993; Olofsson et al 2007). Models predict  
305 that herbivores will increase soil N supply in high nutrient systems and decrease soil N  
306 supply in low nutrient systems (Bardgett and Wardle 2003). Bakker et al (2009), however,  
307 found the opposite in a relatively short term (6 – 8 years) experiment. Our measurements are  
308 broadly comparable to those of Bakker et al (2009). We only measured nutrition of leaves in  
309 one species, but Jones et al (2004) found tissue N concentrations in entire dune slack plant  
310 communities ranged from 0.94-1.67% in the UK, which is in the mid to high part of the range  
311 studies by Bakker et al (2009). The *S. repens* plants in our plots had relatively high leaf N  
312 concentrations (2.1% in ungrazed plots and 2.0% in grazed plots) and low C:N ratios (24 in

313 ungrazed plots and 26 in grazed plots); grazing had a negative impact on N supply rates (-62%  
314 with *rabbit* grazing and -30% with *rabbit+sheep* grazing). These results are consistent with  
315 those found by Bakker et al (2009), but after 36 years of grazing exclusion (for *rabbit*  
316 grazing), and so provide good support of their findings.

317 Changes in soil N supply could be due to changes in the soil microbial community, the  
318 accumulation of litter due to increased above-ground biomass (e.g. Olofsson et al 2007) or  
319 the return of plant-N to the soil in a more readily available form by the herbivores or due to  
320 changes in litter chemistry and so decomposability. Our evidence suggests that changes in  
321 litter chemistry are not responsible. *Salix repens* was present in all plots, forming a significant  
322 proportion of vascular plant cover (19-30%). Therefore it might be expected that this single  
323 species would have a disproportionate impact on ecosystem N cycling. *S. repens* leaf litter N  
324 concentration ( $N_{MASS}$ ) decreased and C:N ratios increased when grazing was removed, which  
325 would likely decrease litter decomposability and so slow N cycling (Bardgett and Wardle  
326 2003), rather than speed up soil N supply rate as we found.

327 Grazing removal caused significant changes in the plant community, resulting in an increase  
328 in the weighted Ellenberg N value (Millett and Edmondson 2013). These changes could  
329 potentially impact on N cycling if the N uptake and cycling characteristics of the species in  
330 the respective communities differ (Hobbs 1996; Chapman et al 2006a). We have summarised  
331 the impact on individual species in Fig. 6. There is no evidence from these data that changes  
332 in the plant community might have caused the grazing removal induced increase in soil N  
333 supply. In fact grazing removal resulted in a reduction in the abundance of plant species  
334 which might be expected to increase soil N supply (e.g. N-fixing species and herbaceous  
335 species). It, therefore, seems unlikely that changes in plant community composition were the  
336 reason for the changes in soil N supply.

337 Stark et al (2014) considered that the movement of N within ecosystems by herbivores might  
338 be the mechanism that causes the negative impacts of herbivores on soil N cycling in tundra  
339 systems. This could be the case on dune slacks where the N content of vegetation varies  
340 between plant communities (Jones et al 2004). Rabbits and sheep may remove nutrients from  
341 relatively nutrient replete areas such as dune slacks to relatively nutrient poor areas such as  
342 mobile and semi-fixed dunes. Excluding herbivores would prevent this movement.

343 Alternatively, Schrama et al (2013) hypothesise that soil compaction by herbivores reduces  
344 oxygen availability in wet soils such as those in the present study, resulting in a reduction in  
345 N mineralisation. This warrants further study and maybe sand dune systems are the ideal  
346 place to study this because very different hydrological conditions can exist within meters of  
347 each other—from very wet dune slacks to very dry dune summits.

348 In summary, *S. repens* plants in grazed plots were shorter and had bigger (mass and area)  
349 leaves than those in ungrazed plots. The leaves of plants in plots grazed by both rabbits and  
350 sheep had a lower LMA, which might reflect increased grazing pressure and/or different  
351 grazing patterns. These relatively subtle additive impacts of sheep resulted in considerably  
352 lower leaf N resorption efficiency. This decreased resorption efficiency will reduce the size  
353 of the resorption pool available to the plants, increasing reliance on root N uptake. Soil N  
354 supply rate increased significantly when rabbits were excluded, but was not affected by  
355 adding sheep. So *S. repens* plants in the *rabbit+sheep* plots are likely to have to compete  
356 more – due to reduced leaf N resorption – for a more limited soil N supply. We found,  
357 however, no impact of herbivory on *S. repens* N status, but *S. repens* litter N concentrations  
358 were higher and C:N ratios lower in grazed plots, which will likely increase rates of litter  
359 decomposition. We conclude that grazing can impact significantly on leaf N resorption; sheep  
360 grazing seems to be more important than rabbit grazing for autumn leaf N resorption in *S.*  
361 *repens*. Soil N supply is also significantly affected by grazing, but seems to be indifferent of



362 herbivore identity and additive effects. Further study of herbivore impacts on leaf nutrient  
363 resorption is required to be able to fully understand how herbivores affect ecosystem nutrient  
364 cycling.

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## 368 **Conflict of interests**

369 The authors have no conflicts of interest.

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- 469

470 **Table 1**

471 Linear Mixed Model (LMM) results for traits of *Salix repens* growing in dune slack plant  
472 communities subjected to different grazing regimes. Presented are the *P*-values for the effect  
473 of grazing regime on characteristics measured in 2009, changes in characteristics during 2009,  
474 and the interaction between the two. LMA is leaf mass per unit area,  $N_{AREA}$  and  $N_{MASS}$  are N  
475 per unit area and mass respectively,  $R_{EFF}$  is autumn leaf N resorption efficiency on an area  
476 basis.

477 **Fig. 1** Dune slack soil N availability under three different grazing regimes. Presented are the  
478 estimated marginal mean±SE inorganic N ( $NH_4^+$  +  $NO_3^-$ ) uptake by Plant Root Stimulator  
479 (PRS<sup>TM</sup>) probes.

480 **Fig. 2** Height of *Salix repens* plants growing in three different grazing treatments. Presented  
481 are mean±SE.

482 **Fig. 3** Leaf traits of *Salix repens* plants growing in three different grazing treatments.  
483 Presented are estimated marginal mean±SE of: a. leaf mass b. leaf area; c. LMA.

484 **Fig. 4** Leaf traits of *Salix repens* plants growing in three different grazing treatments.  
485 Presented are estimated marginal mean±SE of leaf N content on a. and b. an area basis and c.  
486 and d. a mass basis; and e. and f. leaf C:N ratio. Data are presented for green leaves in July (a,  
487 c, and e) and for abscised leaves in October (b, d and f).

488 **Fig. 5** Autumn leaf N resorption efficiency ( $R_{EFF}$ ) of *Salix repens* plants growing in three  
489 different grazing treatments. Presented are estimated marginal mean±SE for resorption  
490 efficiency calculated on a per unit area basis.

491 **Fig. 6** Index of impact of grazing removal on most common vascular plant species found in  
492 dune slacks. A value of +1 indicates that species is only present in ungrazed plots, a value of  
493 -1 indicates that species is only present in grazed plots and a value of 0 indicates that  
494 abundance is the same in grazed and ungrazed plots..

495 **Table 1**

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Measure	d.f.	Treatment	Grazed vs Ungrazed	Rabbit vs Rabbit+sheep
<i>S. repens</i> height	2, 16	<b>0.003</b>	<b>0.001</b>	0.974
<i>S. repens</i> summer leaf area	2, 16	<b>0.013</b>	<b>0.005</b>	0.725
<i>S. repens</i> summer leaf mass	2, 16	<b>0.001</b>	<b>0.001</b>	<b>0.005</b>
<i>S. repens</i> summer LMA	2, 16	<b>0.049</b>	0.887	<b>0.017</b>
<i>S. repens</i> N <sub>AREA</sub> (July)	2, 16	<b>0.004</b>	0.289	<b>0.002</b>
<i>S. repens</i> N <sub>AREA</sub> (October)	2, 16	0.093	n/a	n/a
<i>S. repens</i> N <sub>MASS</sub> (July)	2, 16	0.637	n/a	n/a
<i>S. repens</i> N <sub>MASS</sub> (October)	2, 16	<b>0.011</b>	<b>0.004</b>	0.980
<i>S. repens</i> leaf C:N ratio (October)	2, 16	<b>0.005</b>	<b>0.001</b>	0.801
<i>S. repens</i> R <sub>EFF</sub>	2, 16	<b>0.018</b>	0.096	<b>0.038</b>
PRS <sup>TM</sup> probe N absorption	2, 16	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	<b>0.017</b>	0.958

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501 **Fig. 1**

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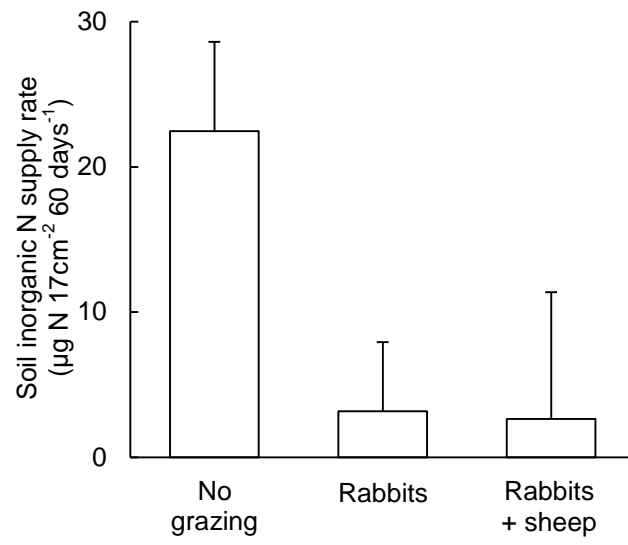
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508 **Fig. 2**

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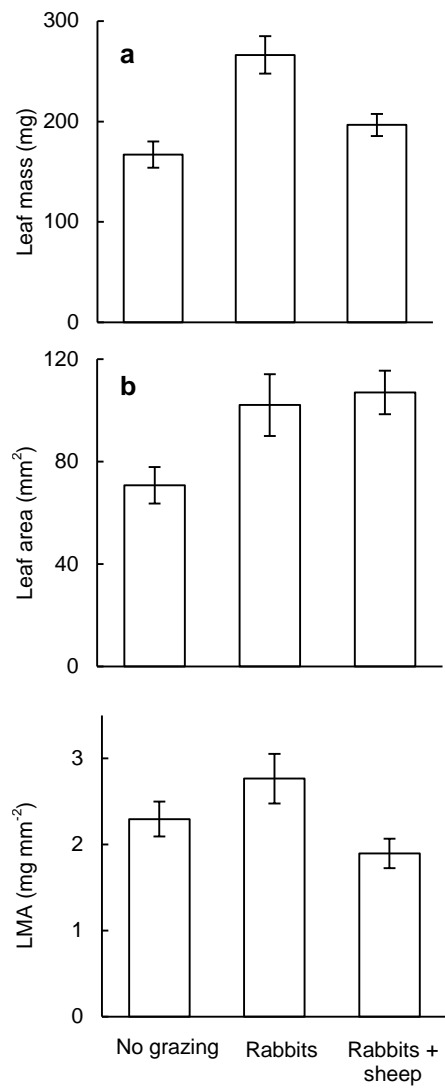




511 **Fig. 3**

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514 **Fig. 4**

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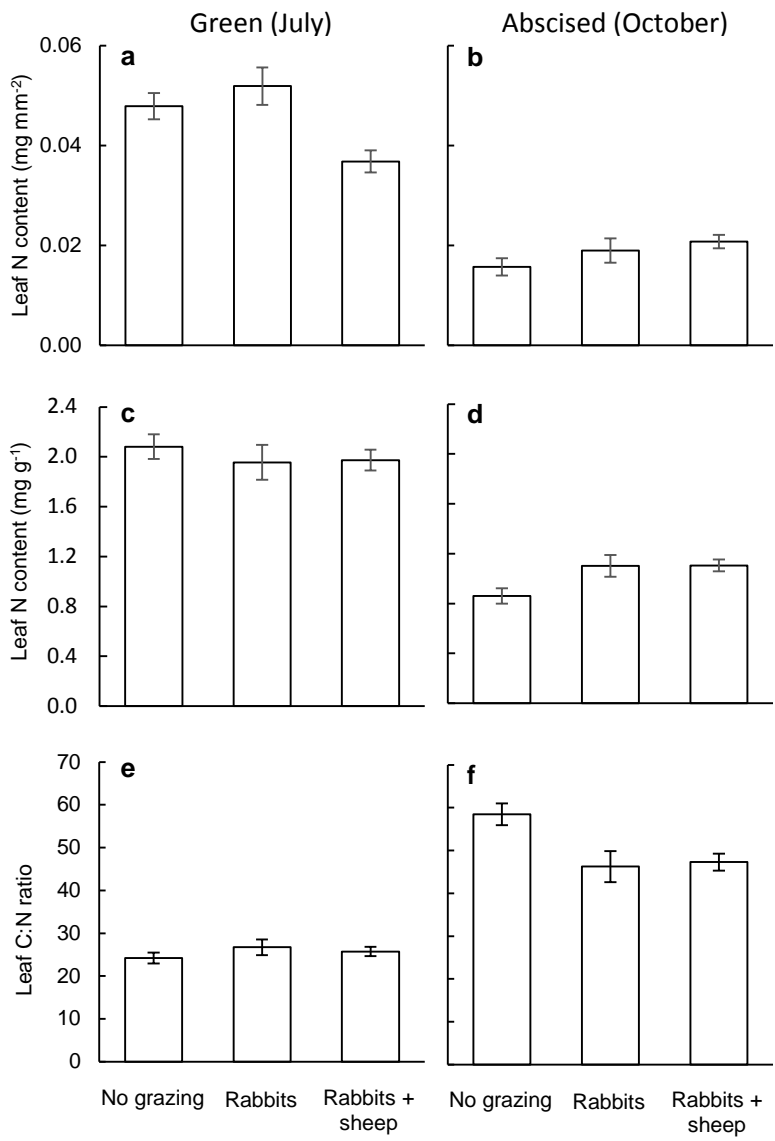
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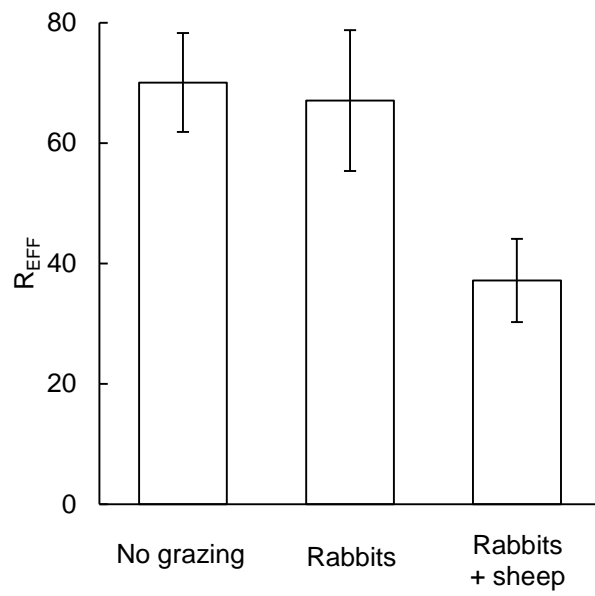
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528 **Figure 5**

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531 **Figure 6**

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