

Article (refereed) - postprint

Rhymes, J.; Wallace, H.; Tang, S.Y.; Jones, T.; Fenner, N.; Jones, L. 2018. **Substantial uptake of atmospheric and groundwater nitrogen by dune slacks under different water table regimes**.

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This is a post-peer-review, pre-copyedit version of an article published in *Journal of Coastal Conservation* (2018), 22 (4). 615-622. The final authenticated version is available online at: https://doi.org/10.1007/s11852-018-0595-z.

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1 Abstract

2 Dune slacks are biodiverse seasonal wetlands which experience considerable fluctuations in water 3 table depths. They are subject to multiple threats such as eutrophication and climate change, and 4 the interactions of both of these pressures are poorly understood. In this study we measured the 5 impact of groundwater nitrogen contamination, as ammonium nitrate (0, 0.2, 10 mg/L of DIN, 6 dissolved inorganic nitrogen), lowered water table depth (lowered by 10 cm) and the interactions 7 of these factors, in a mesocosm study. We measured gross nutrient budgets, evapotranspiration 8 rates, the growth of individual species and plant tissue chemistry. This study found that nitrogen uptake within dune slack habitats is substantial. Atmospheric inputs of 23 kg N ha⁻¹ yr.⁻¹ were 9 retained by the mesocosms, with no increase of nutrient levels in the groundwater, i.e. there was 10 11 no leaching of excess N. When N was added to the groundwater (in addition to atmospheric N), total uptake was equivalent to 116 kg N ha⁻¹ yr.⁻¹, at a groundwater DIN concentration of 10 mg/L. 12 13 This resulted in increased plant tissue N concentrations showing uptake by the vegetation. The 14 effect of lowering water tables did not influence N uptake, but did alter vegetation composition. 15 This suggests that groundwater can be a substantial input of N to these habitats and should be 16 considered in combination with atmospheric inputs, when assessing potential ecosystem damage.

17 Keywords

18 Dune slack, Ecology, Soil, Groundwater, Eutrophication

19 Introduction

20 Dune slacks are seasonal wetlands with an annually fluctuating water table (Stratford et al., 2013; van 21 der Laan, 1979). They are highly biodiverse and the vegetation communities they support are adapted 22 to low levels of nutrient input (Grootjans et al., 2004). As a result, these wetland communities are 23 sensitive to multiple threats including eutrophication and lowered water tables, e.g. from climate 24 change or water abstraction (Clarke and Ayutthaya, 2010; Provoost et al., 2011). Many semi-natural 25 habitats are sensitive to excess nutrients (Field et al., 2014), and critical loads were designed as a policy tool to protect plant communities from atmospheric nitrogen deposition. Critical loads are defined as 26 27 "exposure to one or more pollutants below which significant harmful effects on specified sensitive elements of the environment do not occur according to present knowledge" (Nilsson, 1988). However, 28 in addition to atmospheric inputs, wetlands may receive nutrients from sources including 29 30 groundwater and overland flow as shown by Rhymes et al. (2014). It is not known how much of that 31 N is retained, denitrified or otherwise removed by soil and groundwater processes before it reaches a 32 receptor wetland. This is a key knowledge gap in relating non-atmospheric and atmospheric nitrogen sources to biological impacts. The magnitude of N contributions from these other sources is 33 34 recognised as a gap in knowledge (Achermann and Bobbink, 2003) and there is no framework currently 35 able to account for these combined impacts. Recent studies have shown ecological impacts on dune 36 slack vegetation resulting from low concentrations of nutrients in groundwater from a variety of non-37 atmospheric sources (Rhymes et al., 2015; Rhymes et al., 2014). Those impacts included changes in 38 plant species composition, with a shift towards nitrophilic species in the more nutrient-enriched areas. 39 Crucially, those shifts were observed at very low nutrient concentrations in the groundwater, at a 40 concentration of 0.2 mg L⁻¹ of dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN).

In addition to nutrient impacts, hydrology plays a key role in determining composition of wetland communities (Curreli et al., 2013; van der Laan, 1979; Willis et al., 1959), with 40 cm in hydrological regime separating wet from dry communities (Curreli et al., 2013). Hydrological fluctuations may also play a role in conserving the low nutrient status required by dune slack species (Berendse et al., 1998), by moderating rates of nutrient uptake or of denitrification (Adema et al., 2005), but the conditions governing these mechanisms are poorly understood.

However, in the field it is very difficult to manipulate water levels under controlled conditions, and to assess the relative importance of groundwater vs atmospheric inputs. Therefore, we designed an experiment to manipulate three levels of nitrogen concentration in groundwater supply to dune slack mesocosms, to determine whether that N was taken up by dune slack vegetation & soils. In factorial combination with the N treatments, we varied water levels seasonally using two treatments to mimic wetter and drier hydrological regimes, to see whether this affected N uptake.

53 We tested the following hypotheses: 1) Higher groundwater nitrogen contamination concentrations 54 will increase the quantity of nitrogen taken up by dune slack ecosystems, which will affect growth of 55 dune slack vegetation. 2) Lowered water tables will decrease evapotranspiration rates and reduce 56 exposure to nutrients, both of which will result in lower uptake of N in the drier community.

57 Materials and methods

58 Dune slack soil (from a 6 m X 6 m area to a depth of 50 cm) was collected from an uncontaminated 59 *Salix repens-Calliergon cuspidatum stellatum* community dune slack at Aberffraw (Anglesey, North 60 Wales, UK, 53°11'N, 4°27'W) identified by the presence of pristine vegetation communities and very 61 low groundwater NO₃ concentrations. These were separated into two soil types: an organic 0 to 10 62 cm layer and mineral sand from depth range -10 to -50 cm. Roots were removed by hand from both
63 soil types and the soils were separately homogenised with a clean cement mixer.

64 The mesocosm experiment investigated lowered water levels, N loading, and their interactions under 65 controlled water level conditions using reconstructed dune slack soils, planted with four 66 representative dune slack plant species. Each mesocosm was constructed from plastic UPVC pipe, (50 67 cm height and 16 cm diameter) with a mesh-lined perforated plastic base attached to the bottom for drainage. The first 42 cm was filled with the mineral sand collected from Aberffraw (see above) and 68 69 the top 8 cm was filled with the organic matter collected from Aberffraw (see above) to replicate a 70 mature slack. Each mesocosm was planted with four typical dune slack species (2 sedge and 2 forb 71 species): one specimen each of Carex arenaria, Carex flacca, Leontodon autumnalis and Prunella 72 vulgaris. The mesocosms were then placed into individual 10 L buckets filled with a synthesised and 73 re-created groundwater (See Appendix I for chemical composition) and the additional nutrient 74 treatments. Holes (1.5 cm diameter) in the side of the buckets were used to control the desired water 75 table depth and were attached to plastic tubing and a collecting vessel to collect any overflow due to 76 rainfall (See Fig. 1). The bucket rim was covered with plastic joined to the side of the mesocosm, thus 77 evapotranspiration was limited to the mesocosm surface. This experiment ran from October 2013 to 78 July 2014 in Bangor, North Wales, UK (53°13'N, 4°07'W). The mesocosms were setup in October 2013 79 to allow for a seven month equilibration period, i.e. for mineralisation due to soil disturbance to 80 diminish and for the plants to establish before the groundwater N treatments commenced in May.



81

82 Fig 1: Diagram of constructed mesocosm

83 There were three groundwater ammonium nitrate dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN) treatments;

control (0.0 mg L^{-1} of DIN), low (0.2 mg L^{-1} of DIN) and high (10 mg L^{-1} of DIN) in factorial combination

85 with a wet or dry hydrological regime. The hydrological regimes followed a three-stage seasonal pattern. Wet hydrological regimes were altered from -10 cm water table depth in the winter months 86 (1st of October 2013 to 15th of March) to -20 cm in spring (16th March to 31st April), to -30 cm in the 87 summer months (1st of May onwards), whilst the dry hydrological treatments were altered to 88 89 consistently be 10 cm lower than the wet treatment. There were eight replicates of each nitrogen X 90 hydrological regime combination, giving 48 mesocosms overall. The low N treatment concentration of 91 0.2 mg L^{-1} of DIN was chosen due to evidence that shows biological impacts on dune slack habitats at 92 these low concentrations (Rhymes et al., 2014). The DIN treatments were maintained monthly and 93 therefore fluctuated throughout the experiment. Mesocosms were located outside and exposed to 94 natural levels of rainfall and sunlight, which allowed for water table fluctuations (below the maximum 95 level controlled by the overflow tubes).

96 Water table depth, water chemistry sampling and maintenance of treatments

97 Water table depth was measured once a week. Volume of water within each mesocosm was calculated by the volume of water within the bucket and the water held within the mesocosm sand based on a 98 99 water-holding capacity of 30 % (Ranwell, 1959). The groundwater chemical composition was 100 measured on a monthly basis by taking a water sample from each bucket and filtering through 0.45um 101 nylon syringe filter (Avonchem[™]) prior to chemical analysis. NO₃ and NH₄ concentrations were 102 quantified by ion chromatography (Metrohm, UK Ltd.), whist total nitrogen (TN) concentrations were 103 analysed by thermal oxidation on a thermalox TOC/TN analyser. DIN concentrations and water volume 104 were then used to calculate the quantity of ammonium nitrate required to return DIN concentrations to the target DIN treatments on a monthly basis. 105

106 Nitrogen and water budget experiment

From the 1st of May to the 22nd of July 2014 a simplified water and nitrogen budget was calculated for each individual mesocosm. Inputs of water were rainfall and added groundwater stock, rainfall volume was measured weekly from a manual rain gauge. Measured outputs of water were water collected in the overflow bottles, measured every two weeks. Water loss from evapotranspiration was calculated on a monthly basis, and combined to give evapotranspiration losses over 84 days.

Nitrogen inputs measured included monthly DIN inputs from the ammonium nitrate treatments added (see above) and monthly atmospheric deposition concentrations and fluxes (described below), DIN and TN concentrations from the overflow bottles were measured bi-weekly. Budget calculations estimated total uptake of N (assumed to include plant and soil uptake and denitrification losses) on a 116 monthly basis, to give total N losses over an 84 day period. Denitrification fluxes were not separately

117 measured in this study.

118 Atmospheric nitrogen deposition measurements

119 A monitoring station located 3 metres away from the mesocosms, measured dry and wet N deposition 120 over the three months. Gaseous nitrogen was measured using triplicate nitrogen dioxide diffusion 121 tubes (Gradko International Ltd, Winchester, UK) and triplicate ammonia ALPHA badge samplers 122 (Centre for Ecology and Hydrology, Edinburgh), (Tang et al., 2001), exposed monthly for a three-month 123 period from May to July. Wet deposited nitrogen was sampled weekly for the three month period; 124 rainfall volume was obtained from a rain gauge and NO₃, NH₄, and TN were measured for each weekly rainfall sample (methods described earlier). Dry gaseous NO₂-N and NH₃-N concentrations were 125 126 converted to N fluxes using a deposition velocity of 1.13 mm s⁻¹ for NO₂-N (Jones et al., 2004) and 22 mm s⁻¹ for NH₃-N (Jones et al., 2013). Total nitrogen concentrations from weekly rainfall samples were 127 128 converted to fluxes using rainfall volumes and bulked to a monthly wet deposition flux.

129 Plant responses

- 130 At the end of July species cover was recorded using visual estimates of percentage cover with aid of a
- 131 custom-built 5 cm X 5 cm grid for each species in each mesocosm. In order to measure plant tissue
- 132 chemistry four randomly chosen leaves from each *Carex flacca* specimen were harvested, dried for 38
- hours at 30 °C and ground using a ball mill. The samples were then analysed for Total C and total N by
- dry combustion using Leco Truspec CN analyser (Leco corp., St Joseph, MI, USA).

135 Statistical analysis

All statistical analysis was performed using Minitab v.16. Data were tested for assumptions of normality. Where transformation was not sufficient to achieve assumptions of normality a nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis test was carried out. Differences in nitrogen uptake (N mg L⁻¹), mean species percentage cover, and *Carex flacca* tissue chemistry were analysed by a general linear model to test for the individual differences caused by the water level and nitrogen treatments and the interaction between the two. Differences in water losses between the wet and dry mesocosms from the 1st of May to the 22nd of July were analysed by analysis of covariance.

143 Results

144 Maintenance of treatments

The target treatment DIN concentrations for the whole experimental period were maintained, with 145 values of (average \pm standard error): control 0.151 \pm 0.170 mg L⁻¹, low 0.218 \pm 0.018 mg L⁻¹ and high 146 147 9.486 ± 0.370 mg L⁻¹. The average monthly DIN treatment concentrations for all nitrogen treatment 148 measurements are shown within a time series (Fig.2 a), whilst the dry hydrological regime treatment was successfully maintained at approximately 10 cm lower than that of the wet hydrological regime 149 150 treatment (average difference between the water tables was 9.2 cm). Total water losses from 151 evapotranspiration over this period within mesocosms subject to the wet hydrological regime were 152 403.31 ± 6.88 mm, compared with only 334.04 ± 5.86 mm water losses within mesocosms subject to 153 the dry hydrological regime. Overall, and for many of the individual time points (Fig. 2 c), water losses were significantly greater (F= 297.85 df = 1 p = 0.000) in mesocosms subject to a wet water 154 155 regime compared to those subject to a dry water regime. The exception was for the first two weeks 156 in July. This was an artefact caused by the supplementary addition of the synthesised artificial 157 groundwater (Fig. 2 c) to all treatments following a dry spell (Fig. 2 b) to reach the desired water 158 table depth, with greater uptake of water to replenish the soil moisture deficit in the drier 159 mesocosm treatment.



Fig 2: Eighty-four day time series for; a) log DIN concentrations for all nitrogen treatments for the three month period. b) weekly rainfall and, c) fortnightly water loss where different letters denote significance between treatments; n.s = no significance. In Fig. 1a, the short arrows represent when ammonium nitrate treatment was added, grey arrows represent ammonium nitrate only, the black arrow represents when both groundwater stock and ammonium nitrate treatment was added. In Fig. 2c, the long black arrow indicates when 2 litres of water was added to both treatments.

170 **1.1** Nutrient uptake

The sum of nitrogen inputs and outputs for the three months is presented in Fig. 3 and shows that in
the highest N treatment, an annual equivalent of 98 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ had to be added to the groundwater,
in addition to the 23 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ coming from atmospheric deposition, in order to maintain a

- concentration of 10 mg L⁻¹ DIN in the groundwater. Comparing nitrogen outputs among the three DIN
 treatments (Fig. 3), the total N uptake by the mesocosms from the 1st of May to the 22nd of July was
 significantly higher in the high nitrogen treatment than the control and low nitrogen treatments. No
- 177 significant difference was found between the control and low nitrogen treatments.
- 178



Fig 3: Diagram summarising total nitrogen inputs and outputs from the 84 days from the 1st of May to
the 22nd of July and calculated annual equivalent kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ from the 84 day period measurements.
Values are expressed as mean ± standard error and values denoted with the same letter are not
significantly different.

184

Separating atmospheric deposition into wet and dry classes (Table 1) shows that rainfall contributes double the amount of atmospheric nitrogen inputs compared to the total dry gaseous nitrogen inputs. Very high rainfall volumes in May compared with previous months accounted for most of the wet deposition measured, and lead to a relatively high annual equivalent. The highest proportion of gaseous nitrogen inputs is from gaseous ammonia with a small amount contributed by nitrous oxidedeposition.

Table 1: Total wet and dry measured atmospheric deposition inputs into individual mesocosms from
 the 1st of May to the 22nd of July and calculated annual deposition from the 84 day period
 measurements.

Atmospheric deposition		mg of N	Annual
		deposited in 84	equivalent
		days, per	(kg N ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹)
		mesocosm	
Wet	NO ₃ -N	2.87	7.07
	NH ₄ -N	3.06	7.52
Dry	NO ₂ -N	0.67	1.64
	NH ₃ -N	2.79	6.87

194

195 In order to compare the effects of the experimental treatments on nutrient uptake in plants, the nitrogen and carbon content was measured within the leaves of the dominant species within the 196 197 experiment, Carex flacca. The comparison of nitrogen treatments showed that plant tissue nitrogen 198 of *C. flacca* was elevated in the high nitrogen treatment, with values significantly greater (F= 3.87 df= 199 2 p= 0.029) than the low nitrogen treatment (Fig. 4 a), although the high and low nitrogen treatment 200 were not significantly different from the control. The C:N ratio was not significantly different (p= 201 0.084) between the nitrogen treatments (Fig. 4 b), although the C:N ratio is nonetheless noticeably 202 lower within the high nitrogen treatment than the control and low nitrogen treatments. No difference 203 was found when comparing the effects of the wet and dry hydrological regime or the interaction 204 between hydrological regime and nitrogen treatment on either nitrogen content or the C:N ratio.



Fig 4: *Carex flacca* tissue composition of a) nitrogen and, b) C:N ratio for all nitrogen treatments.
Different letters denote significance between treatments; n.s = not significant.

209 1.2 Effects of water tables

The plant responses to the wet and dry treatment, the nitrogen treatment and the interaction 210 211 between the two were analysed. The percentage cover of the forb Prunella vulgaris (Fig.5 a) was 212 significantly greater (F= 19.15 df= 1 p<0.001) within the dry treatment than the wet, whereas the sedge Carex flacca (Fig.5 c) showed significantly greater (F= 6.81 df= 1 p=0.013) percentage cover in 213 214 the wet treatment compared to the dry. There were no significant differences between the wet and dry treatments for Leontodon autumnalis (Fig.5 b) or Carex arenaria (Fig.5 d), and no influence on 215 216 overall species percentage cover from the nitrogen treatment or the interaction between the wet and 217 dry treatments and nitrogen treatments (Fig.5). Carex flacca had the greatest percentage cover within 218 all mesoscosms compared with all other species.





Fig 5: Species percentage cover in wet/dry and nitrogen treatments for a) *Prunella vulgaris,* b) *Leontodon autumalis,* c) *Carex flacca* and, d) *Carex arenaria.* No difference was found between nitrogen treatments; significant differences between wet and dry treatments are indicated. Error bars show +/- 1 s.e.

226

228 **1.3 Discussion**

Results of this study show that high DIN groundwater concentrations increase nitrogen uptake by
dune slack mesocosms, however groundwater DIN concentrations ≤ 0.2 mg/Lhad no effect on nitrogen
uptake. A water table lowered by only 10 cm resulted in lower water losses in the drier dune slack
mesocosms and altered percentage plant cover in a forb and sedge species.

233 Very high levels of nutrient uptake were revealed in the experiment. The quantity of N which had to 234 be added to the groundwater in order to maintain a concentration of 10 mg L⁻¹DIN suggests that, for 235 sites where groundwater N concentrations are elevated, the input fluxes from groundwater are likely 236 to be substantial, and are larger than the inputs from atmospheric deposition. The annual equivalent atmospheric inputs were also high, due partly to an extremely wet month and to the study being 237 238 located in an urban area where dry atmospheric loads are typically 47 % higher than non-urban areas 239 (Bettez and Groffman, 2013). The atmospheric deposition contributions already exceed the critical load of 10-20 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ for wet dune slack habitats (Bobbink and Hettelingh, 2010), yet this did not 240 241 cause groundwater DIN concentrations in the control to rise above those observed in dune 242 groundwater un-impacted by groundwater nitrogen contamination (Rhymes et al., 2014), and 243 additional N had to be added to maintain the 'low' treatment concentration of 0.2 mg L⁻¹ of DIN. The 244 implication here is that dune slack soils are able to retain relatively high levels of atmospheric inputs 245 without excess N leaching into groundwater. Taken together, and since N deposition in most dune areas of the UK is < 20 kg N (Field et al., 2014), these findings suggest that, where groundwater 246 concentrations are elevated, the most likely source is terrestrial rather than atmospheric and that the 247 248 input fluxes, from either source, are high.

249 However, although dune slack soils appear to be able to process relatively high rates of atmospheric 250 inputs, that does not mean there are no ecological effects. Ecological damage such as altered plant 251 community composition can still occur at very low groundwater N concentrations (Rhymes et al., 252 2014), even at the concentrations of the low N treatment (0.2 mg L^{-1}) in this study. At higher 253 concentrations, ecological changes can be profound. At a site in South Wales, UK, Jones et al. (2006) discuss the effects of a seasonal limestone spring with high levels of nitrate, equivalent to 8.7 mg L⁻ 254 255 ¹DIN. The outflow area of the spring supports eutrophic flood meadow vegetation rather than the typical dune slack vegetation found elsewhere on the site. In The Netherlands, nitrate (and phosphate) 256 257 concentrations were negatively correlated with dune slack species richness at groundwater nitrate-N concentrations ranging from 0.01 – 2.44 mg L⁻¹ of N (Meltzer and Van Dijk, 1986). However, to date 258

there are still relatively few studies that have studied plant community responses to elevatedgroundwater N in dune systems, and this remains a knowledge gap.

261 In all three treatments, including the control, the average plant tissue nitrogen content for Carex flacca 262 was greater than 1.5 %. By comparing with data from other studies (Jones et al., 2013), these tissue 263 concentrations are broadly comparable with exposure to 22 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ of ammonia fumigation, or 264 >40 kg N ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹ of bulk deposition in the field, i.e. well above the critical load (Bobbink & Hettelingh 265 2010). At these loads, both the atmospheric and groundwater inputs of N in this study are likely to cause ecological damage. The overall uptake of N was greater than 116 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ annual equivalent 266 267 in the high N treatment. Some of this uptake was due to the incorporation into plant tissue by C. flacca 268 in the high N treatment, but not all of the potential loss pathways were separately quantified in this experiment. Uptake may consist of a combination of nitrogen incorporation into plant tissues, binding 269 270 and uptake by the soil and microbes, and losses through denitrification. Denitrification has been found 271 to significantly increase with N availability (Adema et al., 2005; Rhymes et al., 2016). The use of 15 N 272 labelling to trace the fate of N would help quantify the relative magnitude of these pathways in future 273 studies. While the experimental nutrient additions ran for only three months, after a seven-month 274 settling period for the mesocosms, this was sufficient to demonstrate substantial uptake of N. 275 However, running the experiment for a full year would have allowed a more accurate annual budget 276 to be calculated.

277 It is well documented that the species composition and distribution within dune slack habitats are 278 primarily influenced by water table depth (Curelli et al., 2013; Willis et al., 1959). Here we found that 279 a small (10 cm) difference in water level treatments had an effect on both plant growth and water 280 losses. The responses of Prunella vulgaris and Carex flacca were consistent with the UK National 281 vegetation classification (Rodwell et al., 2000); where the SD16 drier slack communitycontains 282 relatively lower cover of *C. flacca* and higher cover of *P. vulgaris* and the wettest subtype slack 283 community of SD14, SD14b, is characterised by higher C. flacca and lower P. vulgaris cover. This 284 indicates the sensitivity of individual dune slack species to changes in water tables as small as 10 cm. 285 Similar sensitivity to elevation above the water table in dune slacks has been shown in the field by 286 Hope-Simpson et al. (1979). With only 40 cm differences in water table depth separating the drier 287 from the wetter dune slack communities (Curreli et al., 2013), and the increasing threat of dropping 288 water table depths due to climate change, dune slack communities are likely to change from wetter 289 SD15/14 to drier SD16 communities.

290 Previous studies show that annual water losses through evapotranspiration are greater in wet dune 291 slacks than dry slacks (Stratford et al., 2007). Overall, this study found that the water losses due to 292 evapotranspiration were significantly greater in the wet hydrological regime than the dry. These 293 findings are comparable to those of Stratford et al. (2007), which suggests that water losses within 294 natural dune slack systems are likely to decrease with lowered water tables from climate change 295 (Clarke and Ayutthaya, 2010), thus providing a degree of negative feedback on hydrological change. 296 However, the response under further lowering of the groundwater level may not be linear since 297 evaporation and transpiration can decouple. In drier conditions, surface soils may be dry but deep-298 rooted plants still have access to groundwater and can continue transpiring. Further research to 299 assess likely impacts of lowering water tables on evapotranspiration would be useful under both 300 controlled experimental conditions, and in the field.

301

Despite altered plant growth and water fluxes, nitrogen uptake was not affected by the differing water table regimes. This may be due to the soils and plants within both treatments having equal accessibility to groundwater nitrogen due to capillary processes, which can carry water 45cm above the water table (Ranwell, 1959) and due to deeper rooting depths observed within drier slack communities (Rhymes et al., 2014), i.e. the plant rooting depth is constrained by high water levels, meaning that for the hydrological regimes and species used in this study, the roots maintained similar contact with the water table.

309 **1.4 Conclusions**

These results suggest that for sites where nutrient concentrations in dune groundwater are elevated, there is a nutrient source in addition to atmospheric deposition. This highlights the necessity to develop a mechanism to include the contribution of groundwater nitrogen loads when assessing critical nitrogen loads for dune slack and other wetland habitats (Bobbink and Hettelingh, 2010).

This study demonstrates loss of DIN in groundwater suggesting N uptake and processing in dune slacks however, additional work is required to investigate the fate of this N, whether it is stored in soil and plant N pools and microbial biomass, or whether it is denitrified and emitted as N2 or the greenhouse gas N2O.

This study also highlights the vulnerability of dune slack communities to hydrological change. Changes
in plant species cover due to a 10 cm change in water table depth emphasises the necessity to consider
the potential impacts of climate change and groundwater abstraction on water tables and therefore

- 321 on botanical composition of dune slacks, and to implement conservation management plans to
- 322 respond to these combined threats.

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386 Appendix I

387 Table 1 – Artificial groundwater recipe compound weights added to 20L of deionised water. Table 388 extracted from Rhymes et al. (2016).

389

Compound	Weight
CaCO ₃	0.941
CaCl ₂	7.541
MgSO ₄	0.370
MgCL ₂	0.996
KCI	0.089
NaHCO ₃	5.082