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Identifying indicators of atmospheric nitrogen deposition impacts in acid grasslands

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25 **Abstract:** Atmospheric deposition of nitrogen has become a serious concern for
26 nature conservation managers and policy makers. It has the potential to reduce
27 species richness, increase the graminoid component of the sward, encourage species
28 typical of more fertile conditions and alter the soil biogeochemistry of grasslands.
29 Calcifugous grasslands (grasslands found on acid soils) are among the most sensitive
30 to N deposition due to their poorly buffered soils and species typical of nutrient poor
31 environments.

32 Indicators have an important role to play in detecting the impact of nitrogen
33 deposition on sites of conservation importance and assessing conservation status.
34 This study investigates potential indicators of nitrogen deposition impacts that could
35 be incorporated into site-condition monitoring programmes such as the UK Common
36 Standards Monitoring.

37 Using two national surveys of calcifugous grasslands we examined the potential for
38 using: the presence or absence of indicator species, the cover of indicator species, the
39 species richness and richness of functional groups, and the cover of functional groups
40 as indicators of N deposition impacts. Of all the potential indicators investigated,
41 graminoid:forb ratio was found to be the best indicator of N deposition impacts. It
42 showed a significant relationship to N deposition in both data sets and is quick and
43 easy to assess in the field. Vegetation indicators must be used with caution as there is
44 potential for vegetation management regime and nutrients from other sources to cause
45 similar changes in species composition. Consideration must be given to these before
46 attributing changes to nitrogen deposition.

47

48 **Keywords:** Acid grasslands, canonical correspondence analysis, countryside survey,
49 indicator species, common standards monitoring.

50 **Introduction**

51 In recent years, atmospheric deposition of nitrogen (N) has become a serious concern
52 for nature conservation managers and policy makers. It has the potential to alter
53 species composition, species richness and soil chemistry in a range of habitats through
54 acidification and enrichment. In grasslands, addition of nitrogen typically reduces
55 species richness (e.g. Mountford et al., 1993; Jenkinson et al., 1994; Stevens et al.,
56 2004; Clark and Tilman, 2008), increases productivity (e.g. Wilson et al., 1995),
57 increases the graminoid component of the sward (e.g. Wilson et al., 1995; Mountford
58 et al., 1993, Stevens et al., 2006), encourages species typical of more fertile conditions
59 (Kirkham and Kent, 1997), reduces pH (e.g. Blake et al., 1999) and increases N
60 turnover rates (e.g. Phoenix et al., 2003).

61
62 Grasslands differ in their sensitivity to N deposition as a result of their soils and
63 species composition. Grasslands with base-rich soils are well buffered against
64 changes in soil pH, but soils that have low concentrations of base cations and already
65 have an acid pH are much more sensitive to further acidification (Skiba et al., 1989).
66 There is clear evidence for acidification of soils and metal availability that can be
67 linked with N deposition (e.g. Falkengren-Grerup et al., 1987; Jönsson et al., 2003;
68 Skiba et al., 1989; Stevens et al., 2006; Stevens et al., 2009).

69
70 Nitrogen deposition also has the potential to increase the amount of nitrogen in the
71 soil that is available to plants (Stevens et al., 2006). This nitrogen may be stored in
72 the soil or used by plants for increased biomass production. Grasslands dominated by
73 species typical of nutrient poor environments are more likely to be impacted by the

74 enrichment of the soil by N deposition through changes in their species composition
75 and an increase in competitive species (Smart et al., 2003).

76

77 Calcifugous grasslands are among the most sensitive to N deposition. The soils are
78 poorly buffered against changes in pH and toxic metals are commonly mobilised at
79 low pH. In a number of these grasslands, especially the *Violion caninae* alliance
80 (British NVC Community U4, dominated by grasses *Agrostis capillaris* and *Festuca*
81 *rubra*), the majority of species are typical of infertile environments (Hill et al., 1999).
82 Evidence using a national gradient (Stevens et al., 2004; Stevens et al., 2006) shows
83 sensitivity to changes even at low levels of N deposition and evidence of acidification
84 from S deposition. This demonstrates that these grasslands are vulnerable to N
85 deposition. Long-term experimental N additions in the UK have also demonstrated
86 changes in species composition and soil chemistry. A decline in mosses was observed
87 after three years of N addition (Morecroft et al., 1994), this effect has continued with
88 a reduction in bryophyte cover and a reduction in the cover of individual species
89 (Carroll et al., 2000).

90

91 Indicators have an important role to play in detecting the impact of N deposition. The
92 use of critical load exceedance (Achermann & Bobbink 2003) gives an indication of
93 the likely impact of N deposition on plant communities but, on a specific site, critical
94 load exceedance does not tell us what the actual damage is and indeed whether it has
95 occurred at the site under investigation. For the protection of sites of nature
96 conservation importance and to aid in management decisions, indicators of damage
97 from N deposition would be a useful tool.

98

99 The Conservation of Natural Habitats and of Wild Fauna and Flora Directive
100 (92/43/EEC) requires that member states maintain or restore listed habitats or species
101 to 'favourable condition status'. The conservation status of the natural habitats and
102 species should be monitored and a report produced every 6 years. In the UK
103 Common Standards Monitoring (CSM), together with other information, is used to
104 inform assessment of the conservation status of designated site features. CSM
105 provides a basic framework to ensure consistent monitoring of site condition in the
106 UK. CSM assesses the condition of designated features (species, habitats, or
107 geological features) by examining attributes chosen to reflect condition. For a habitat,
108 this might include extent, vegetation structure and physical characteristics. CSM is
109 not specifically designed to assess and attribute drivers of global environmental
110 change, such as air pollution impacts, but The Habitats Directive considers the
111 conservation status of a habitat in terms of the 'sum of all influences acting on a
112 natural habitat', which clearly includes air pollution.

113

114 The aim of this investigation is to investigate indicators of N deposition impacts that
115 could be incorporated into site condition monitoring programmes such as CSM. In
116 order to do this, indicators need to be identified that are sensitive to N deposition,
117 robust and, for rapid assessments such as these, quick to assess and easy for non-
118 specialist surveyors to use. Here we focus on calcifugous grasslands, identifying
119 potential indicators of N deposition impacts using national datasets and assessing their
120 suitability for inclusion in a rapid assessment monitoring scheme. Calcifugous
121 grasslands are an important component of UK upland habitats covering extensive
122 areas, whilst in lowland areas 'Lowland dry acid grassland' is a UK Biodiversity
123 Action Plan Priority Habitat (UK Biodiversity Group, 1998).

124

125 **Materials and methods**

126 Two national datasets were used to identify potential indicators of N deposition
127 impacts in calcifugous grasslands. The first data used were a survey of 68 calcifugous
128 grassland belonging to the British National Vegetation Classification (NVC)
129 community U4 *Festuca ovina-Agrostis capillaris-Galium saxatile* (Rodwell, 1992)
130 grassland selected by stratified random sampling where the stratification was by level
131 of N deposition. These data were collected during 2002 and 2003 (Stevens *et al.*,
132 2004; Stevens *et al.*, 2006). This data set encompasses both upland and lowland U4
133 grasslands throughout England, Scotland and Wales with mixed grazing intensities
134 and management regimes. Five randomly placed 2 x 2m quadrats were recorded at
135 each of the 68 sites and all plants identified to species level. The data used in the
136 analysis are mean percentage cover for each species (lichens are excluded).

137

138 The second data set was taken from the Countryside Survey of Great Britain (see
139 Smart *et al.*, 2003). This is a nationwide survey of natural resources in the UK
140 countryside which has been conducted at regular intervals since 1978. It uses 1 km
141 squares based on a random sample stratified by the ITE Land Classification, which is
142 a set of 32 groups of all 1km squares in Britain defined by having internally similar
143 combinations of soils, geology and climate (Bunce *et al.*, 1996). Within each 1 km
144 square all of the habitats present are mapped and a number of different plot types are
145 sampled to record species present and their percentage cover. Some of these are
146 randomly placed nested plots (X plots), of which the inner nest was used for this
147 analysis; some are stratified random plots located in particular habitat types (U plots)
148 and some are targeted on semi-natural habitat patches missed by the other plots in

149 each square (see Smart et al., 2003 for further details). All sampling units were 2 x 2
150 m in size. For this analysis only plots from 1998 were used. They were all allocated to
151 an NVC community (Rodwell, 1992 et seq.). To select calcifugous grassland, plots
152 were selected by broad habitat type as identified by the land-cover mapping carried
153 out in each square, then within this a subset of grasslands that were classified to an
154 acid grassland NVC category with a Jaccard coefficient of greater than 0.5 was
155 selected.

156

157 The two datasets provide complementary perspectives on the relationship between
158 species abundance and N deposition across Britain. The Stevens et al. dataset
159 maximised sensitivity to detection of species x driver relationships because it was
160 designed to sample the entirety of the atmospheric deposition gradient in GB with
161 even replication and also minimised other sources of noise by targeting the same
162 specific kind of plant community along the gradient. The Countryside Survey dataset
163 reflects representative random sampling of British ecosystems. It is optimal for
164 detecting the signal of N deposition in an unbiased sample of British vegetation but
165 this also means that noise to signal ratio is likely to be high because sampled
166 vegetation maybe heterogenous whilst reflecting the impacts of a range of other
167 drivers and land-use histories.

168

169 Modelled N deposition data, provided by CEH Edinburgh for the period 1998 and
170 2000, were used. The N deposition estimates were extracted from 5 x 5 km maps for
171 the UK and comprise measured wet deposition including orographic enhancement,
172 and dry deposition of NH₃, NO₂ and HNO₃ from measured concentration fields and a
173 dry deposition model (described in Smith et al., 2000; NEG-TAP, 2001).

174

175 Data were analysed using regression analysis in excel to identify relationships
176 between N deposition and changes in species richness, functional group richness and
177 cover, and the cover of individual species. To identify individual species as positive
178 or negative indicators canonical correspondence analysis (CCA) was used. CCA is a
179 multivariate ordination technique for direct gradient analysis. Species composition is
180 directly related to measured environmental variables (Palmer, 1993). It assumes that
181 species have unimodal distributions along environmental gradients. The resultant
182 ordination diagram conveys large amounts of information regarding the
183 environmental variables and their relations to species. CCA distributes individual
184 species in the ordination diagram in a position that reflects their net tolerance to the
185 environmental factors based on their cover and frequency. CCA and Monte Carlo
186 Permutation tests were carried out using CANOCO 4.5 (ter Braak and Smilauer,
187 2002) with species percentage cover data; species that occurred in less than 10 percent
188 of quadrats were removed from the ordination. Default settings were used.

189

190 **Results**

191 Individual species that could potentially be used as indicators of N deposition impacts
192 we identified using CCA. Data from Stevens et al. (2004) and the Countryside
193 Survey (CS) (Smart et al., 2003) were combined into one ordination. N deposition at
194 the sites ranged from 6 to 36 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹. The centroids of the two datasets are
195 shown on the ordination diagram (Figure 1), the differences between the two datasets
196 explains the greatest amount of variation in the combined dataset. N deposition was
197 significantly related to species composition (Monte Carlo Permutation test F=2.63;
198 p<0.01). Species associated with high N deposition were *Hypnum cupressiforme* agg.

199 (*H. jutlandicum* and *H. cupressiforme* were not differentiated), *Carex panicea* and
200 *Carex pilulifera*. Species associated with low levels of N deposition were *Lotus*
201 *corniculatus*, *Hylocomium splendens*, *Plantago lanceolata*, *Campanula rotundifolia*
202 and *Thuidium tamariscinum* (Figure 1). Examining these species individually against
203 N deposition shows that although all except *L. corniculatus* show a significant
204 ($p < 0.05$) relationship with N deposition (*C. rotundifolia* $r^2 = 0.05$, *H. Splendens*
205 $r^2 = 0.02$, *P. Lanceolata* $r^2 = 0.05$, *T. Tamariscinum* $r^2 = 0.03$, *C. panacea* $r^2 = 0.03$, *C.*
206 *pilulifera* $r^2 = 0.01$ and *H. Cupressiforme* $r^2 = 0.16$) they all occur across the range of N
207 deposition (Figure 2).

208

209 In the Stevens data, there was a statistically significant negative correlation between N
210 deposition and species richness ($r^2 = 0.52$; $p < 0.01$). This relationship is discussed in
211 detail by Stevens et al. (2004). Mean annual precipitation and altitude were found to
212 explain additional significant variation (Stevens et al., 2004). CS data also showed a
213 significant negative correlation between N deposition and species richness ($r^2 = 0.09$,
214 $p < 0.001$) with a similar line of best fit from the two surveys and although this
215 relationship was much weaker, given the wider range of grasslands included, this is
216 not surprising. Combining the two data sets maintains a significant negative
217 relationship ($r^2 = 0.04$, $p < 0.001$), although the r^2 is low, the trend is still apparent
218 (Figure 3).

219

220 Examining the richness of functional groups reveals further trends. Although less of
221 the variation in forb richness is explained by N deposition the relationship between
222 forb richness and N deposition is highly significant in the Stevens data set ($r^2 = 0.38$,
223 $p < 0.001$). Forb richness also shows a significant relationship in the CS data ($r^2 = 0.04$,

224 $p < 0.001$). Richness of pleurocarpous mosses also showed a significant negative
225 relationship with N deposition in the Stevens data set, however, this relationship was
226 not as strong as with either forb or species richness ($r^2 = 0.10$, $p < 0.01$). Richness of
227 grasses, sedges, rushes and acrocarpous mosses did not show significant relationships
228 with N deposition.

229

230 Functional group abundance provides an alternative to species richness. In the
231 Stevens data set, forb cover showed a significant negative relationship with N
232 deposition ($r^2 = 0.42$, $p < 0.001$). Forb cover did not show a significant relationship in
233 the CS data ($r^2 = 0.002$, $p < 0.36$) suggesting it is not a robust indicator. Using
234 percentage cover of other groups (grasses, sedges, rushes, shrubs, all mosses,
235 pleurocarpous mosses, acrocarpous mosses) did not reveal any significant trends.
236 Ratios (based on percentage cover) were also examined and revealed several
237 potentially interesting relationships. Grass:forb ratio (based on cover) shows a
238 significant positive relationship ($p < 0.05$) with N deposition in the Stevens data set.
239 For the Stevens data, this relationship shows that at the highest levels of N deposition,
240 the grass:forb ratio increases sharply, suggesting that this may be an indicator of the
241 sites most severely affected by N deposition. Fitting an exponential relationship gives
242 an r^2 of 0.33, but this relationship is strongly driven by a sudden increase in the ratio
243 at $32 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$, a level of deposition which few of the surveyed sites exceeded.
244 Grass:forb ratio also showed a significant relationship ($r^2 = 0.05$, $p < 0.001$) with N
245 deposition in CS data (Figure 4a). An alternative to a grass:forb ratio is a
246 gramnoid:forb ratio where the cover of grasses and sedges are included together.
247 Although cover of sedges may not show a response to N deposition alone, in most

248 cases they are a small component of the vegetation so the combined cover shows a
249 very similar pattern to the grass:forb ratio in both data sets (Figure 4b).

250

251 **Discussion and Conclusions**

252 The presence or absence of indicator species is commonly used in CSM assessment of
253 site condition in the UK. However, all of the species identified as potential indicators
254 in this study were found across the range of N deposition in the UK (Figure 2). This
255 means that the presence or absence of indicator species is not suitable for use as an
256 indicator of N deposition impacts. The percentage cover of individual species shows
257 more promise as an indicator. Species identified as potential indicators of positive
258 site condition in response to N deposition were *Lotus corniculatus*, *Campanula*
259 *rotundifolia*, *Hylocomium splendens*, *Plantago lanceolata* and *Thuidium*
260 *tamariscinum*. *L. corniculatus* is a leguminous species and may have a competitive
261 advantage at low N deposition though this trend is not strong (Figure 2E) *C.*
262 *rotundifolia* is a species of infertile habitats (Preston et al., 2002; Hill et al., 1999) and
263 is described as intolerant of competition with vigorous grasses (Sinker et al., 1991). It
264 is also a species that is increasingly rare at low soil pH (Grime et al., 2007) so may be
265 reacting to acidification of the soil. The decline in *Hylocomium splendens* in response
266 to air pollution was noted by Porley & Hodgetts (2005) and experiments in Europe
267 have confirmed a strong link with N eutrophication (Dirkse & Martakis, 1992;
268 Hallingbick, 1992; Strengbom et al., 2001; Koranda et al., 2007). *P. lanceolata* is a
269 stress-tolerant species (Grime et al., 2007) and is very common in a wide range of
270 grasslands. N addition experiments at Tadhams Moor, Somerset, on an unimproved
271 hay meadow, showed a significant decline in percent cover of *P. lanceolata* with low
272 N additions (25 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) (Mountford et al., 1993; Mountford et al., 1994;

273 Kirkham et al., 1996). As with *C. rotundifolia*, *P. lanceolata* becomes increasingly
274 rare at low soil pH (Grime et al., 2007). In experimental N additions *Thuidium*
275 *tamariscinum* was not found to be sensitive to N deposition (Koranda et al., 2007) and
276 has even been shown to be associated with high deposition (Zechmeister et al., 2007)
277 so it is surprising that this species was identified in our ordination. The negative
278 association of *Thuidium tamariscinum* with N deposition in this study is mainly due to
279 one outlier, a relatively low N deposition site with relatively high cover of this species
280 (Figure 2D). Ellenberg values (Hill et al., 2007) for reaction (pH) and nutrients for
281 this species also do not indicate that it is likely to be an indicator of low N deposition.

282

283 Potential indicators of negative site condition as a result of N deposition were *Carex*
284 *panicea*, *C. pilulifera* and *Hypnum cupressiforme* agg.. There is no experimental
285 evidence linking either *C. panicea* or *C. pilulifera* to high N deposition although
286 sedges in general have been shown to increase in some habitats (e.g. van der Wal,
287 2003). Both species are more typical of nutrient poor environments, although both
288 also tend to be found in acid soils (Hill et al., 1999), so may benefit from
289 acidification. *H. cupressiforme* is a pollution-tolerant moss (Rodenkirchen, 1992),
290 and has been found to persist in areas where other bryophytes have declined
291 considerably due to N deposition (Hallingback, 1992). *H. jutlandicum* has been
292 shown to increase in cover with the addition of N in both heathland (Gordon et al.,
293 2001) and forest habitats (Zechmeister et al., 2007). This pollution tolerance would
294 allow *H. cupressiforme* to compete well with more sensitive mosses.

295

296 Figure 2 shows that some species would make better indicators than others. An
297 average cover of *C. rotundifolia* of over 0.5% would initially seem to be a good

298 indicator of low N deposition. However, there are quite a few sites with low N
299 deposition where this species has lower cover or where it is absent. It is also
300 extremely difficult to estimate percentage covers accurately in this range. Most of
301 the other species identified contain too many absences or very low cover values to be
302 useful as an indicator. *H. cupressiforme* could potentially be used to identify sites
303 with the highest levels of N deposition as cover of over 5% is only found at sites with
304 the highest levels of deposition. Some high deposition sites are not identified by this;
305 estimating the proportion of moss cover that is accounted for by *H. cupressiforme*
306 may provide a better indicator, however, the work involved in assessing this in the
307 field is likely to be prohibitive for a rapid assessment monitoring scheme.

308

309 Despite the potential of individual species to indicate high or low N deposition, using
310 the cover of individual species is not a reliable indicator of N deposition impacts. The
311 main reason for this is that individual species have less potential for detecting a signal
312 of N deposition due to the inherent ubiquity or rarity of the species. Additionally, we
313 rarely have sufficient knowledge of species niche requirements to determine the
314 relative importance of N deposition compared to other environmental drivers in
315 controlling how common or rare the species will be at a particular site.

316

317 Although the results presented describe indicators as functions of current levels of N
318 deposition, they may actually express the net result of many years of cumulative N
319 deposition (with the exception of communities that do not have a stable substrate),
320 because current N deposition is a reasonable surrogate for the amount of past N
321 deposition. A century or more of elevated N deposition means there is a high
322 likelihood that major shifts in plant species composition have already taken place in

323 sensitive vegetation types receiving elevated N deposition (Stevens et al. 2004, 2006).
324 Therefore, just as the impact of a point application of N in field experiments needs to
325 take into account the impact of cumulative background N deposition, the detection of
326 local impacts of nitrogen deposition should also account for the expected starting
327 point. Long-term monitoring or experimentation would be needed to determine how
328 quickly these grasslands respond to changes in N deposition.

329

330 In this study species richness (Figure 3) would appear to be a good indicator but there
331 are some drawbacks to using species richness as an indicator of N deposition impacts.
332 Species richness is also governed by many different factors (including vegetation
333 management), so care would need to be taken in interpreting the data. For example,
334 species richness shows a typically unimodal relationship with the full length of the
335 substrate productivity gradient so species richness may be increased initially by
336 increasing the nutrient status of the soil but will fall at higher nutrient levels, hence
337 the expected direction of change needs to be supported by carefully establishing the
338 starting community type, i.e. being certain the monitored stand qualifies as acid
339 grassland. It is also time consuming to collect species richness data and requires a
340 trained botanist, especially in this typically grazed system. Species do not all need to
341 be identified, but there is a need to distinguish all distinct species, including mosses
342 and grasses. This probably makes it prohibitively time consuming for incorporation
343 into a rapid assessment scheme, but the value of species richness as a potential
344 indicator should be considered. Setting a level of species richness to indicate habitats
345 that are negatively impacted by N deposition is hard with these trends, but a richness
346 of below 10 species per 2 x 2m quadrat is consistently associated with higher N
347 deposition in both of the data sets examined in this study.

348

349 The decline in forb richness accounted for the majority of the species loss in both data
350 sets and a decline in pleurocarpous moss richness was also observed in the Stevens
351 data. Neither of these relationships was as strong as species richness, yet they present
352 the same difficulties. In addition to the problems of collecting richness data described
353 above, finding mosses in a closed sward requires careful attention and specialist
354 knowledge is needed to distinguish species.

355

356 Assessments of percent cover for functional groups offers an alternative to richness.
357 Percent cover is quick and easy to assess, but cover of plant species is notoriously
358 variable between surveyors and is also prone to considerable seasonal variability as
359 the growing season progresses. Random error between surveyors will reduce the
360 sensitivity of the measurements to potential drivers and increase scatter about the
361 regression line, but should not alter its slope or intercept. Bias is more problematic
362 because it could affect the apparent direction and strength of relationships. The danger
363 is that if it is not avoided or controlled, users may not be able to separate real
364 ecological relationships from bias-induced relationships. The best guidance for
365 avoiding bias is to be vigilant to the possibility of seasonal or observer effects and
366 take steps to increase replication by gathering data across the growing season or at
367 least by starting in the south or in lowland sites, and recording more northerly or
368 upland sites later in the year. Future surveys should then be carried out at the same
369 time of year (or ideally the same phenological stage) as the baseline.

370

371 As forbs account for the main decline in species richness, possibly due to increased
372 competition with grasses promoted by N deposition (Stevens et al., 2004) using a

373 grass:forb ratio provides a good potential indicator of N deposition impacts in this
374 data set. Both the Stevens and CS data sets showed significant relationships with N
375 deposition ($p < 0.001$). Although there is a less clear trend in the CS data, the absolute
376 values of the grass:forb ratios are similar between the two data sets. In both data sets,
377 a grass:forb ratio of above five could be taken as indicative of sites where N
378 deposition is having a negative impact on species composition. Grass:forb ratio may
379 vary considerably over a site and several estimates would need to be made to gain an
380 average, it will also vary with time of year and should only be estimated during the
381 summer as that is when the reference data were gathered.

382

383 Grass cover itself may be quite hard for a non-expert to reliably estimate as there are
384 many other graminoid species (especially sedges) that look like grasses without close
385 inspection. A graminoid:forb ratio, where the cover of grasses and sedges are
386 included together, provides an alternative with less potential for error in estimation.
387 Although sedges do not show a response to N deposition alone they are a small
388 component of the vegetation in these grasslands so the combined cover shows a very
389 similar pattern.

390

391 Attributing the effects of nutrient enrichment and acidification to N deposition is very
392 difficult because many of the effects are the same as those that would be seen from
393 other forms of nutrient enrichment, such as the application of organic and inorganic
394 fertilisers. Where species of unimproved habitats are used as positive site condition
395 indicators, they will generally decline through the use of fertilisers as well as N
396 deposition. To separate these effects using species composition alone is not possible.
397 General observation of the surrounding area and identification of other nitrogen

398 sources combined with the presence of negative site condition indicators and the
399 absence of positive site condition indicators could be used to give a stronger
400 indication of nitrogen source. This method could be applied to all habitat types, but as
401 N deposition is expected to decline gradually across the UK (NEGTAP, 2001),
402 relationships such as those described here need to be regularly validated to determine
403 if species richness has rapidly responded to this change, or if it lags behind the
404 change.

405

406 Considering whether a site is subject to other sources of enrichment by fertilisation
407 (current or historic), the occurrence of flooding or the presence of flushes or springs
408 should be established to identify whether atmospheric N deposition is responsible for
409 site condition. In some managed habitats, failure to cut and remove herbage can have
410 equivalent effects to N deposition. Reducing grazing pressure or changing the
411 seasonality of management may also be factors in species loss or a change in species
412 composition. If there are indicators of inappropriate or poor management, it may not
413 be possible to determine the impact of N deposition. To confidently attribute N
414 deposition as the cause of change in species composition would require some
415 certainty that other factors such as management were optimal which may be difficult
416 in practice. If the critical load for nutrient nitrogen is exceeded, this indicates that N
417 deposition has a greater potential to have an impact. If there are point sources (such
418 as intensive animal units where animals are housed, or manure stored) or diffuse
419 sources (major roads and other areas of intensive vehicle use) in close proximity to
420 the site, these will increase N deposition and the potential for damage from N
421 deposition.

422

423 Of the variables investigated, the most promising as indicators of N deposition
424 impacts were species richness, forb richness and graminoid:forb ratio (based on %
425 cover). Of these variables, the graminoid:forb ratio is the easiest to apply and most
426 reliable in a rapid assessment monitoring scheme. Although estimating the relative
427 cover of these groups is not always easy in a species-rich grassland, it would be
428 relatively easy to apply this indicator within the UK's current CSM framework, since
429 cover of forbs is already estimated in the CSM guidance for upland acid grasslands
430 (JNCC, 2004). As an indicator of N deposition impact there are other factors that
431 could be responsible for such changes and this indicator should not be used without
432 considering the proximity and potential impact of other current and historical sources
433 of enrichment as well as site management history. This approach to identifying
434 indicators could be used in other habitat types sensitive to N addition although data
435 would need to be gathered to determine specific indicators.

436

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449

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604 **Figure 1.** CCA ordination diagram of species and total inorganic N deposition (Kg N
605 ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) for Countryside Survey and Stevens datasets. Species Δ . For clarity labels
606 for species are only shown for those either positively or negatively associated with N
607 deposition. Survey (\bullet) shown as a categorical variable.

608

609 **Figure 2.** Percentage cover against total inorganic N deposition (kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) for A.
610 *Campanula rotundifolia*, B. *Hylocomium splendens*, C. *Plantago lanceolata*, D.
611 *Thuidium tamariscinum*, E. *Lotus corniculatus*, F. *Carex panacea*, G. *Carex pilulifera*
612 and H. *Hypnum cupressiforme* for Countryside Survey and Stevens datasets.

613

614 **Figure 3.** Species richness per 2 x 2 metre quadrat against N deposition (Kg N ha⁻¹
615 yr⁻¹) for Countryside survey (\bullet) and Stevens survey (\circ).

616

617 **Figure 4.** A. grass:forb ratio and B. graminoid:forb ratio against total inorganic N
618 deposition for Countryside survey (\bullet) and Stevens survey (\circ).

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