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Nitrogen Deposition causes widespread loss of species richness in British Habitats

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Abstract

We use national scale data to test the hypothesis that N deposition is strongly negatively correlated with plant species richness in a wide range of ecosystem types. Vegetation plots from a national ecological surveillance programme were drawn from heathland, acid, calcareous and mesotrophic grassland habitats. Mean species number and mean plant traits were calculated for each plot and related to atmospheric N deposition. There was a significant reduction in species richness with N deposition in acid grassland and heathland even after fitting covarying factors.

In acid grassland and heathland, evidence from trait changes suggested that acidification rather than increased fertility was responsible for species loss. In contrast, calcareous grassland showed evidence of eutrophication in response to increasing N deposition.

Loss of species richness from chronic N deposition is apparent in infertile grasslands and heathland. Mechanisms associated with loss of species richness differ between habitats so mitigation of N deposition should be targeted to habitat type.

1 **Introduction**

2 In industrialised countries the burning and processing of fossil fuels for energy production
3 and the manufacture and application of agricultural fertilisers and manure have resulted in the
4 release of nitrogen (N) and Sulphur (S) compounds into the environment. There has been a
5 substantial reduction of Sulphur emissions in the UK since 1970 (NEGTAP, 2001), however,
6 atmospheric deposition of anthropogenic N in the form of NO_y and NH_x remains a
7 significant source of such compounds and has been associated with a variety of environmental
8 problems, most of which have been predicted to increase over the next century (Laurance,
9 2001, Tilman *et al.*, 2002,). The potential effects of N on natural ecosystems include direct
10 toxicity, eutrophication and acidification (Gordon *et al.*, 1999, Jones and Ashenden, 2000,),
11 all of which can drive changes in biodiversity and species composition (Heil and Diemont,
12 1983, Aerts *et al.*, 1992, Carroll *et al.*, 2003). Natural and semi-natural ecosystems impacted
13 most by N deposition are typically infertile and have high biodiversity value through the
14 presence of specialist species. Such species often possess resilient traits that confer tolerance
15 to grazing and low nutrient availability but are often unable to respond to additional nutrient
16 inputs and are at risk of competition from more nutrient-demanding species. This results in
17 shifts in species composition and loss of diversity (Wedin and Tilman, 1996, Achermann and
18 Bobbink, 2003). Effects of N deposition on communities are often the result of interactions
19 with other factors such as management regime (e.g. grazing pressure and its interactions with
20 fertilisation significantly affect species composition; (Alonso *et al.*, 2001), pests and disease
21 (e.g. increased foliar N increases palatability to herbivores and increases the likelihood and
22 severity of insect outbreaks; (Aerts and Bobbink, 1999) and plant responses to climatic
23 conditions (e.g. increased impact of drought and susceptibility to frost ; Power *et al.*, 1998).

24
25 Numerous experimental additions of N have demonstrated profound ecological effects in a
26 variety of habitats (Morecroft *et al.*, 1994, Power *et al.*, 1995, Power *et al.*, 1998, Roem *et al.*,
27 2002, Carroll *et al.*, 2003, Clark and Tilman, 2008) . These experiments are invaluable in
28 determining the impacts of N deposition on ecosystems and in elucidating mechanisms, but

29 they often use high nutrient inputs over shorter timescales in an attempt to mimic the high
30 cumulative dose that results from low-level, chronic atmospheric deposition. Experiments are
31 also not exposed to the range of covarying factors that can suppress or enhance responses to
32 atmospheric N inputs, including productivity, soil pH, sulphur deposition, climate and land-
33 use. Analyses that simultaneously incorporate such impacts can potentially result in realistic
34 testing of hypotheses of ecological change in highly managed, temperate ecosystems.

35

36 In Britain, a recent large-scale signal attribution study (Stevens *et al.*, 2004) demonstrated a
37 strong negative relationship between atmospheric N deposition and species richness in one
38 type of acid grassland. Potentially confounding factors were well crossed or kept constant
39 along a N deposition gradient. This, combined with rigorous targeting of the same type of
40 plant community across a large geographical area, optimised the chance of isolating a large-
41 scale atmospheric N deposition signal. This study demonstrated a clear correlation between N
42 deposition and biodiversity loss, but was unable to quantify the effect in a wider range of
43 habitat types relative to other drivers. We build on this study, using a larger Great Britain-
44 wide surveillance dataset and also use plant traits to attempt to explain the mechanisms
45 behind observed community changes (Maskell *et al.*, 2006).

46 We tested the following hypotheses: 1. the relationship between N deposition and plant
47 species richness found in one type of acid grassland (Stevens *et al.* 2004) is apparent in all
48 habitat types. 2. The effects of N deposition on plant species richness and composition are
49 driven by the fertilising effects of added N, i.e. by eutrophication.

50

51

52

53

54 **Materials and Methods**

55 The data used in these analyses are from the Countryside Survey (CS) of Great Britain, which
56 is a globally-unique project to monitor ecological and land use change in great detail over the
57 whole nation (<http://www.countrysidesurvey.org.uk/>). The sample design is based on a series
58 of stratified, randomly selected 1 km squares, which numbered 569 in the 1998 survey.
59 Stratification of sample squares was based on predefined groups derived from a classification
60 of all 1 km squares, comprising a grid covering Britain, based on their topographic, climatic
61 and geological attributes (Bunce *et al.*, 1996).

62 This sampling design means the dataset is representative of common British ecosystems and
63 therefore of the prevalence and severity of driving forces such as N deposition, agricultural
64 conversion and climate. Hence, the degree of crossing and replication of different drivers and
65 their range of intensities realistically reflects the way they have operated across Britain, rather
66 than sampling being designed to maximise any one gradient length. The methods used for
67 vegetation monitoring have been described in detail in Smart *et al* (2003). A series of
68 vegetation plots was located within each 1 km square using a restricted randomisation
69 procedure designed to reduce aggregation. In each vegetation plot a list was made of all
70 vascular plants and a selected range of the more easily identifiable bryophytes and macro-
71 lichens. Nomenclature followed Stace (1991), Watson (1981). Cover estimates were made to
72 the nearest 5% for all species reaching at least an estimated 5% cover. Linear features (road
73 verges, watercourse banks, hedges and field boundaries) and areal features (fields, unenclosed
74 land and small semi-natural biotope patches) were sampled, but in this study we have used
75 only the areal plots with a consistent size of 2m x 2m. The Countryside Survey took place in
76 1978, 1990, 1998 and most recently 2007 (data not yet available). We used data from 1998
77 because this year had the largest sample size (6782, 2 m x 2 m plots). The total number of
78 non-native and native taxa per plot were used to measure species richness (includes counting
79 species recorded to genus only or amalgamations of two taxonomically difficult species).

80 This is a simple measure of plant diversity. Analyses were carried out including bryophytes,
81 however, in addition tests were repeated without bryophytes and bryophytes were analysed
82 separately.

83 Vegetation plots were classified to the phyto-sociological units of the British National
84 Vegetation Classification (NVC) (Rodwell, 1992) . We used a new assignment of all CS plots
85 to the NVC based on the pseudo-quadrat approach (a simplified version of the technique
86 described in Critchley *et al* (2001)). Plots were selected that were classified into one of four
87 habitat types using their NVC classification; acid grassland (U1 to U9), calcareous grassland
88 (CG2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 10, 11), heathland (H1 to H19 except H5, 6 and 17) and mesotrophic
89 grasslands (MG6 and MG7 only) (Appendix 1). The first three habitats are infertile semi-
90 natural communities, likely to be adversely affected by N deposition whilst mesotrophic
91 grasslands are at the other end of the fertility gradient and may be less likely to react to
92 additional input of nutrients. This gave 895 acid grassland plots, 94 calcareous grassland
93 plots, 459 heathland plots and 1342 mesotrophic grassland plots.

94

95 The classification into clearly-defined habitat types ensured that similar communities were
96 compared and this reduced variation in management history among co-classified sites: for
97 example, direct agricultural applications of N are unlikely to have occurred in acid or
98 calcareous grassland and heathland, otherwise the vegetation would no longer be referable to
99 these three infertile community types. However, the plot locations were random in each 1 km
100 square, and thus a relatively high noise to signal ratio is likely *a priori* because sampled
101 stands will exhibit greater floristic variation than if homogenous sampling domains were pre-
102 selected. Nitrogen and Sulphur (S) deposition estimates were taken from 5km by 5km maps
103 for the UK (Smith *et al.*, 2000) and comprise wet deposition and dry deposition of oxidised
104 and reduced nitrogen derived from measured concentration fields and a dry deposition model.
105 Average values of total N and S deposition were calculated for each CS 1 km square as kg ha⁻¹
106 yr⁻¹. Despite a substantial decrease in Sulphur emissions between 1970 and the present, it is

107 known to have an acidifying effect so has been included as a potential explanatory variable in
108 this study.

109 Regressions were carried out between total N deposition and the number of species in a
110 quadrat as follows. Within each habitat type a mixed model analysis of variance (GLIMMIX
111 procedure in SAS) was used to determine the impact of N deposition on species richness
112 when other potential explanatory variables were taken into account. The number of species
113 was the response variable and then each explanatory variable was tested by entering it last
114 into a sequential model after all other variables (Type 1 tests). The type 1 tests quantify the
115 partial explanatory power of each driver and therefore exclude any overlapping variance
116 between drivers. Explanatory variables included N deposition, S deposition, climatic variables
117 and an indicator representing the degree of grazing as fixed effects. Grazing was represented
118 by the slope coefficient from a linear regression of sheep numbers in each wider 2 km square
119 between 1969 and 2000. Grazing data were taken from the EDINA AgCensus database¹.
120 Other variables were height of the highest point in the square, average precipitation, mean
121 maximum July and mean minimum January temperatures (long-term averages for the period
122 1961-1999; www.ukcip.org.uk). The 1 km Countryside Survey square was incorporated as a
123 random effect to account for the non-independence of plots located within the same square.
124 Degrees of freedom were calculated using the approximation of Satterthwaite (1946). A
125 Poisson distribution was specified. Soil data were available for a subset of plots (acid grass
126 N=101, heathland N= 52, calcareous grassland N=22) and thus for these plots we were able to
127 regress soil pH against nitrogen deposition. Further information on the methods used for soil
128 collection and analysis can be found in Emmett *et al* (2009).

129

130 To investigate plant traits, each quadrat was assigned a species' cover-weighted mean value
131 for each of a number of attributes. Ellenberg indicator values are integers that range between
132 1 and 9 and estimate the optimum of each plant species along an environmental gradient e.g.

¹ Downloaded for each 5km sqr containing each CS 1km sqr from the EDINA AgCensus database at www.edina.ac.uk.

133 light, fertility (Ellenberg et al 1991). Plant species were assigned an Ellenberg indicator value
134 for Fertility (N), Light (L), Moisture (F), and pH (R) using the re-calibrated values for the
135 British Flora, Hill et al (2000). More detailed information on methods used to determine plant
136 traits are available in Smart et al (2003, 2005). Other botanical traits analysed were specific
137 leaf area (SLA), canopy height, leaf nitrogen content, grass/forb ratio and acid preference
138 index. Data on SLA, grass/forb ratio and canopy height were obtained from Grime *et al.*,
139 (2007, 1988), Grime and Hodgson (1969) and Stace (1991). Leaf N data came from
140 Thompson et al (1997). An index of soil acidity preference was calculated using data from
141 Grime and Lloyd (1973). This is similar to the Ellenberg R score, but is a continuous scale
142 representing the frequency with which a species occurs above or below a value of pH 4.5, this
143 being an important threshold below which only species tolerant of aluminium toxicity are
144 found (Grime and Hodgson, 1969, Grime *et al.*, 2007). The index was calculated as the
145 number of sites with soil pH ≤ 4.5 at which a species occurred as a proportion of occupied
146 sites with soil pH > 4.5 (Stevens *et al* 2009 *in press*). Data were not available for all species
147 but sufficient to permit comparisons between sites. Traits were regressed against nitrogen
148 deposition within habitat type.

149

150 **Results**

151 The distribution of the plots within each habitat type across GB are shown in Figure 1. There
152 were significant negative relationships between total nitrogen deposition ($\text{kg N ha}^{-1}\text{yr}^{-1}$) and
153 species richness in heathland ($r^2=0.17$, $p<0.001$) and acid grassland ($r^2=0.09$, $p<0.001$) but not
154 calcareous grassland ($r^2=0.005$, $p=0.05$) habitats (Figure 2). There was a very weak negative
155 relationship between species richness and total N deposition in mesotrophic grassland
156 ($r^2=0.01$, $p<0.01$).

157

158 When other climatic variables were included, N deposition remained a significant explanatory
159 variable for species richness in heathlands, acid grasslands and mesotrophic grasslands, but

160 not for calcareous grassland (Table 1). When tests were repeated excluding bryophytes,
161 results were similar (acid grassland $F=8.2$, $p<0.01$, Calcareous grassland $F=0.01$, $p=0.9$,
162 Heathland $F=6.4$, $p<0.05$ and Mesotrophic grassland $F=3.25$, $p=0.07$). When bryophytes were
163 analysed independently there was only a significant relationship between bryophyte number
164 and N deposition in acid grassland ($F=8.2$, $p<0.001$). Other significant predictors of species
165 richness varied among habitats: sulphur deposition had a significant negative relationship
166 with richness in acid grassland, although not in the other habitats; climate variables were
167 important, but the precise relationships were variable, and estimated grazing intensity had an
168 effect in acid grassland but not the other habitats.

169

170 The relationship between plant traits and N deposition differed in each habitat type (Table 2).
171 In heathlands increased N deposition was related to decreased Ellenberg R, that is, plants
172 were indicative of more acid soils. There was also a significant negative relationship between
173 soil pH and N deposition in a subset of plots. At the same time potential canopy height
174 increased and Ellenberg light value decreased with higher N. Surprisingly, there was no
175 relationship with Ellenberg N, i.e. plants receiving higher rates of N do not indicate higher
176 soil fertility. N deposition also affected vegetation composition, being related positively to the
177 grass/forb ratio and negatively to the number of forb species. The results of the soil acidity
178 preference index were similar to the Ellenberg R scores, with the species present at high N
179 deposition showing a stronger preference for acid habitats. Acid grassland showed broadly
180 similar patterns: as N deposition increased, Ellenberg R and the number of forb species
181 decreased and the grass/forb ratio and acid preference index increased. Soil pH was
182 negatively related to N deposition in the subset of quadrats for which data were available.
183 Surprisingly, Ellenberg N, SLA and leaf N also declined as N deposition increased.

184

185 In calcareous grassland, canopy height, grass/forb ratio, Ellenberg N and leaf N all increased
186 at higher N deposition. In contrast to the situation in heathland and acid grassland, changes in
187 Ellenberg R, soil pH (in a sub-sample of plots) and soil acidity preference index all indicated

188 an increase in plants of more basic soils at high N deposition. In contrast to the other habitat
189 types, there were few relationships between plant traits and N deposition in mesotrophic
190 grasslands. There were slight increases in Ellenberg N ($r^2=0.01$, $p<0.01$) and a decrease in
191 Ellenberg L ($r^2=0.01$, $p<0.01$) at higher N depositions.

192

193 **Discussion**

194 We found general support for Hypothesis 1, in that the relationship between N deposition and
195 plant richness previously reported for one type of acid grassland (Stevens et al 2004) was
196 found in other habitat types in Britain. This is an important result because, despite many
197 experimental studies of the impacts of N deposition, determining effects on large-scale semi-
198 natural ecosystems in the presence of other potential drivers has until now not been
199 demonstrated.

200 The negative relationship between species richness and N deposition held true for heathlands
201 and acid grasslands in general, although the proportion of variation explained was not high (r^2
202 ranges from 0.09 to 0.17). Stevens et al. (2004) report a higher r^2 value of 0.55 for the
203 relationship between N deposition and species richness; however they specifically chose sites
204 along the N deposition gradient. This would artificially raise their r^2 value so cannot be used
205 to interpret the strength of the relationship for GB as a whole and is not directly comparable
206 with the values reported here. Countryside Survey, in contrast, is a stratified random sample
207 of the vegetation of GB, not designed to optimise signal detection along any specific gradient,
208 nor to control for the species-compositional heterogeneity of the habitats sampled (Smart *et*
209 *al.*, 2004), and therefore will provide results more representative of the GB countryside in
210 general. There are two main reasons why the r^2 values in this study would be expected to be
211 low. The national estimates of N deposition that are used are modelled values at the 5km
212 scale. Deposition can vary greatly over the small scale and restriction to a 5km scale means
213 that the deposition values are mathematically incapable of explaining variation in vegetation
214 at less than this scale. Vegetation, specifically species richness, also varies greatly at the sub-
215 kilometre scale. Approximately 73% of the variation in species richness of Countryside

216 Survey plots is at the sub-kilometre square level, leaving a possible maximum of 27% which
217 could be accounted for by variables at higher scales. In this context the observed r^2 values of
218 0.09 to 0.17 are substantial and to have detected a relationship at all within the limitations of
219 the available deposition data is an important result.

220 The additional mixed model ANOVA analyses (Table 1) including other explanatory
221 variables are powerful tests, they are designed to take into account the Countryside Survey
222 sampling structure and show significant relationships between species richness and N
223 deposition when other variables are accounted for.

224

225 The relationship analysed is spatial, relating geographical patterns of atmospheric deposition
226 to vegetation data in one survey year. A potential problem is that such patterns may coincide
227 with other spatial variables such as rainfall patterns and altitude, which is why it was
228 important to account for other, possibly confounding, variables. Even after accounting for
229 these other variables, N deposition was still the most important explanatory variable for
230 heathlands and acid grassland. This was not the case for calcareous grasslands, where N
231 deposition was not significant when other explanatory variables were included. However,
232 sample size was much lower for calcareous grasslands (94 plots compared to 459 for
233 heathland and 895 for acid grassland), which results in a more restricted distribution across
234 climatic gradients; N deposition was also correlated with mean June temperature and mean
235 January temperature in this habitat type so it was not possible to differentiate N deposition
236 from climatic effects.

237

238 Although there was a significant negative relationship between N deposition and species
239 richness in mesotrophic grasslands, this relationship was, as expected, quite weak.

240 The species composition of this habitat is shaped by deliberate applications of macro-nutrients
241 (P and K in addition to N) necessary to forage production. Hence, the relatively low levels
242 added from atmospheric deposition have little additional effect.

243

244 Species associated with low N deposition and thus vulnerable to decline under increased
245 levels are mostly small forbs and bryophytes. In acid grasslands such species include
246 *Hylocomium splendens*, *Plantago lanceolata* and *Campanula rotundifolia*. In heathland
247 *Hylocomium splendens*, *Campanula rotundifolia*, *Hypericum pulchrum*, *Viola* sp.,
248 *Dactylorhiza maculata* and *Polygala vulgaris*.

249

250 The response to N deposition of plant functional traits helped elucidate the mechanism
251 driving changes in communities. Hypothesis 2, that the effects of N deposition on richness
252 and/or composition of plant species are driven by increased fertility, was not supported.
253 Heathlands and acid grasslands showed little or no evidence of eutrophication; there was no
254 increase in Ellenberg N with increasing N deposition, suggesting the communities did not
255 appear to be responding to an increase in fertility. Indeed in acid grasslands the opposite
256 seems to be the case: there were small but significant *reductions* in Ellenberg N, SLA and leaf
257 nitrogen with increased N deposition, all of which are consistent with declines in fertility.
258 This raises the question of what happens to nitrogen deposited on these habitats. Phoenix et
259 al (2003), working in an acid grassland community in the Peak District, northern UK, found
260 that the majority of added nitrogen was immobilised in the soil and so was not freely available
261 to plants, even at high levels of N addition. Further research is required.

262 Thus in plant communities of acid soils, it seems clear that the observed reduction in richness
263 is not the result of competitive exclusion caused by the response of fast-growing dominants to
264 increased nutrient availability.

265

266 The main competing hypothesis is that the reduction in richness is caused by soil acidification
267 associated with increased N deposition. Acid deposition results from the oxidation of NO₂ to
268 NO₃⁻ or of NH₄⁺ to NO₃⁻ which may fall as wet or dry deposition (NEG-TAP, 2001). Such
269 deposition may result in acidification of acid-sensitive soils due to direct H⁺ deposition,
270 nitrification and nitrate leaching, with consequent impacts on both nutrient availability and
271 the presence of toxic metals (Horswill *et al.*, 2008, Bobbink *et al.*, 1998). The bio-availability,

272 mobility and speciation of metals is affected by pH and some such as Al and Pb become more
273 mobile when pH is less than 5 and can interfere with root function or cause chemical stress
274 (Stevens et al 2009). Acid deposition may impact through base cation deficiencies as basic
275 cations (e.g. Na, Mg, Ca) are lost through ion exchange (NEG-TAP 2001).

276 The response to atmospheric N inputs depends on the N status of the site and whether N
277 inputs exceed biotic requirements (NEG-TAP, 2001, Crawley *et al.*, 2005). In both acid
278 grasslands and heathland, N deposition was significantly correlated with a decreased mean
279 Ellenberg R score and an increased acid preference index, indicating that plants receiving
280 high rates of atmospheric N are experiencing increased soil acidity. This conclusion is
281 supported by the negative relationship between N deposition and soil pH in the subset of plots
282 for which soil pH was available. In a multifactorial experiment Roem (2002) also found that
283 the influence of nutrient availability was subsidiary to changes in acidity. Few species are
284 able to tolerate a lowering of soil pH and the few that can, such as *Molinia caerulea*, are able
285 to dominate. Soil acidification is not caused only by nitrogen; there was also a significant
286 relationship between sulphate deposition (which also has an acidifying effect) and species
287 richness in acid grasslands, and this effect was additional to that of N deposition.

288

289 In heathlands increased N deposition was also linked to an increase in potential canopy height
290 and decrease in Ellenberg L (light) score. Although the simplest interpretation of these
291 changes is successional change, associated with an increase in abundance of taller dominants,
292 such as *Molinia caerulea*, *Calluna vulgaris*, *Vaccinium myrtillus*, and a decline in shade-
293 intolerant subordinates, closer inspection reveals a more complex story. N deposition was
294 linked to the decline of a number of small forbs and bryophytes (e.g. *Campanula rotundifolia*,
295 *Hylocomium splendens*), probably through acidification or direct N toxicity. The acid
296 preference index shows that high N deposition is associated with species preferring low pH,
297 suggesting that acidification is the mechanism operating here. Since these species are both
298 small and relatively shade-intolerant, their loss leads inevitably to the apparent successional
299 change observed. An increase in the grass/forb ratio and a decline in the number of forb

300 species with N deposition is consistent with this interpretation. Stevens et al (2006) noted
301 similar patterns.

302

303 In heathland systems, interactions with the management regime are important. In
304 experimental studies interactions between management and N deposition have been shown to
305 be significant (e.g. Alonso et al 2001). *Calluna vulgaris* has been shown to maintain
306 dominance under high N inputs unless the canopy is opened up by stress or disturbance,
307 therefore high N inputs are more likely to result in the loss of *Calluna* in grazed systems
308 (Aerts and Bobbink, 1999) but this could mean an increase in diversity as the canopy is
309 opened up. Rapid growth of *Calluna* under increased N has also been associated with greater
310 prevalence of diseases and frost susceptibility.

311

312 In contrast to heathlands and acid grasslands, calcareous grassland showed evidence of
313 eutrophication in response to increasing N deposition. Several changes are indicative of an
314 increase in fertility, such as increased Ellenberg N, SLA, canopy height and leaf N.
315 Nevertheless, the effect of N deposition on richness was not significant, possibly because
316 grazing prevents potential dominants taking advantage of the small increase in fertility. This
317 suggests that calcareous grasslands may be particularly susceptible to N deposition where
318 management becomes less intensive. Experimental studies on calcareous grasslands have
319 found that N deposition can lead to shifts in species composition, with increases in rank
320 grasses and loss of forbs and bryophytes (Morecroft *et al.*, 1994, Lee and Caporn, 1998,
321 Johnson *et al.*, 1999). The increase in the grass/forb ratio with N deposition in calcareous
322 grasslands found in our study is consistent with these experiments. Surprisingly, not only was
323 there no evidence of soil acidification in calcareous grasslands, there was an increase in
324 Ellenberg R, soil pH and species preferring more basic soils with increasing N deposition. We
325 can offer no explanation for this result.

326

327 Species richness of mesotrophic grasslands changed only slightly in response to N deposition,
328 and the few small trait changes were consistent with this lack of response. Mesotrophic
329 grasslands are generally found on fertile lowland soils and also tend to receive high inputs of
330 fertiliser, so it is not surprising that extra atmospheric N had little impact on either species
331 richness or plant traits. Other studies have also found that the response of plant functional
332 traits to N deposition varies between sites and habitat types. Suding et al (2005) found that
333 whilst random loss of rare species was a process operating at most sites, particularly at larger
334 spatial scales, functional traits appeared to be better predictors of loss at smaller spatial scales
335 in response to local environmental contingencies (Suding *et al.*, 2005).

336

337 Current rates of N deposition to heathland and moorland in Britain range from 5 to 50 kg ha
338 yr (mean 15kg ha yr) (NEG TAP, 2001, Smart *et al.*, 2004). According to the relationships
339 elucidated in this paper these rates have caused and may continue to cause reductions in
340 species richness. These habitats are important for the specialist species that they support
341 (<http://www.ukbap.org.uk/habitats>). Whilst threats from management activities such as
342 intensification and grazing have been identified the potential impacts of N deposition have not
343 been fully assessed or accounted for. Mechanisms associated with reductions in species
344 richness differ between habitats so mitigation of N deposition and conservation of
345 biodiversity will need to be targeted according to habitat type and management regime.

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Table 1: Results from mixed model ANOVA (proc Glimmix procedure) with number of species as response variable and N deposition and climatic variables as explanatory variables.

These are type 1 tests with results for tests where the variable quoted is added last. Site was included as a random factor.

	Heathland		Acid grassland		Calcareous grassland		Mesotrophic grassland	
	F	p	F	p	F	p	F	p
Total N deposition	8.92	<0.01**	12.4	<0.001***	0.03	0.87	4.65	<0.05*
Maximum altitude	0.97	0.33	3.83	0.052	0.56	0.46	0.16	0.69
Mean January temperature	7.49	<0.01**	10.58	<0.01**	0.97	0.33	0.83	0.36
Mean June temperature	1.17	0.28	11.01	<0.01**	0.35	0.56	0.74	0.39
Precipitation	20.58	<0.001***	14.48	<0.001***	3.11	0.08	14.74	<0.001***
Change in sheep numbers	3.24	0.07	6.55	<0.05*	0.13	0.71	0.45	0.5
Sulphate deposition	0.93	0.34	4.18	<0.05*	3.46	0.07	0.49	0.48

Table 2: Results from regressions between N deposition and mean trait values per plot

(***= p<0.001, **=p<0.01, *=p<0.05).

Heathlands N=895			Acid grassland N=459		Calcareous grassland N=94	
	Direction	r ²	Direction	r ²	Direction	r ²
Ellenberg R	-	0.06***	-	0.09***	+	0.16***
Ellenberg N	n.s.		-	0.01**	+	0.06**
Soil pH	-	0.16**	-	0.05*	+	0.23*
Potential canopy height	+	0.11***	+	0.01*	+	0.1**
Ellenberg Light	-	0.08***	-	0.02***	n.s.	
Grass forb ratio	+	0.07***	+	0.03***	+	0.03*
Number of forbs	-	0.12***	-	0.05***	n.s.	
SLA	n.s.		-	0.04***	+	0.05*
Leaf N	n.s.		-	0.01**	+	0.13***
Acid preference index	+	0.11***	+	0.06***	-	0.12***

Figure 1

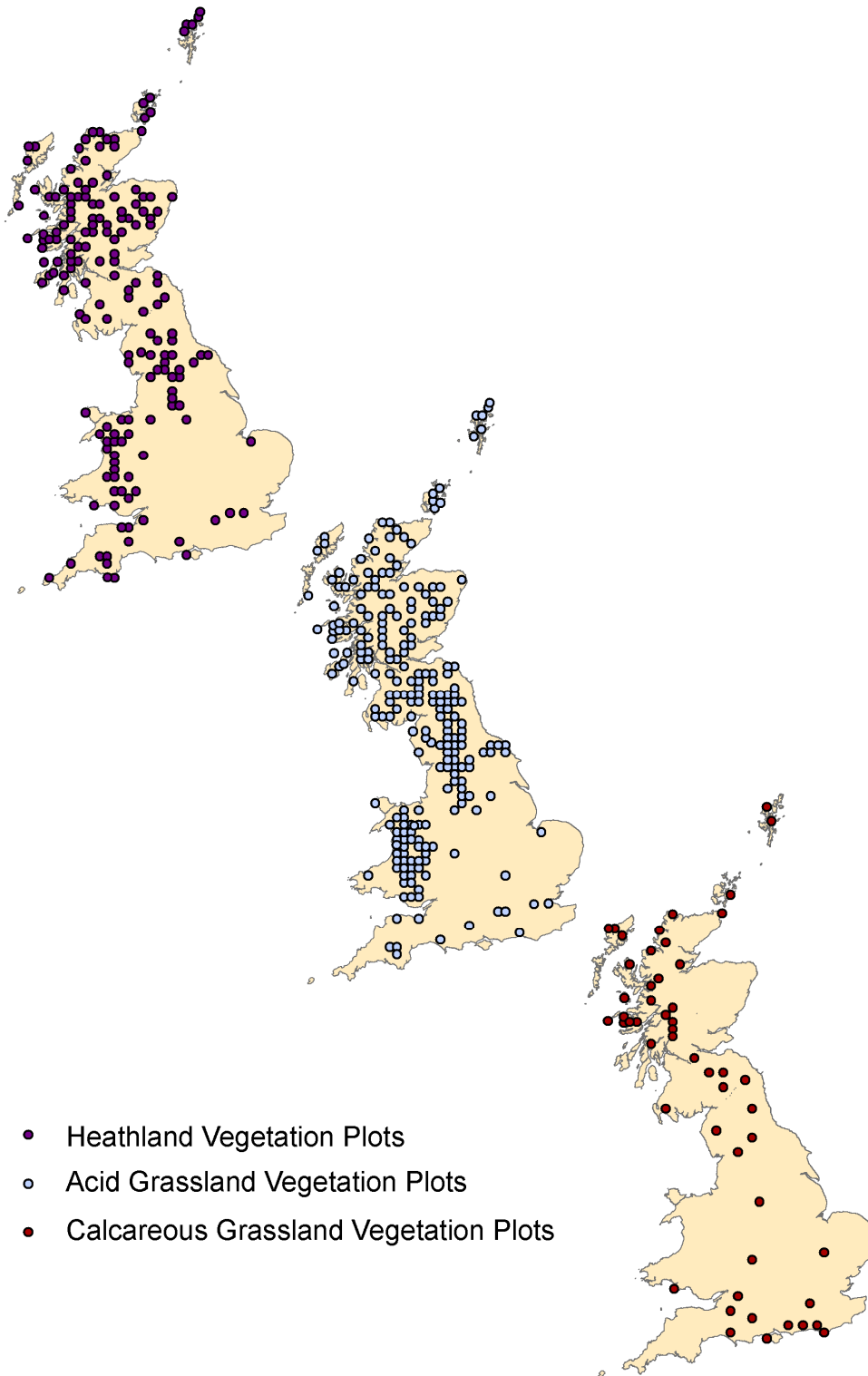
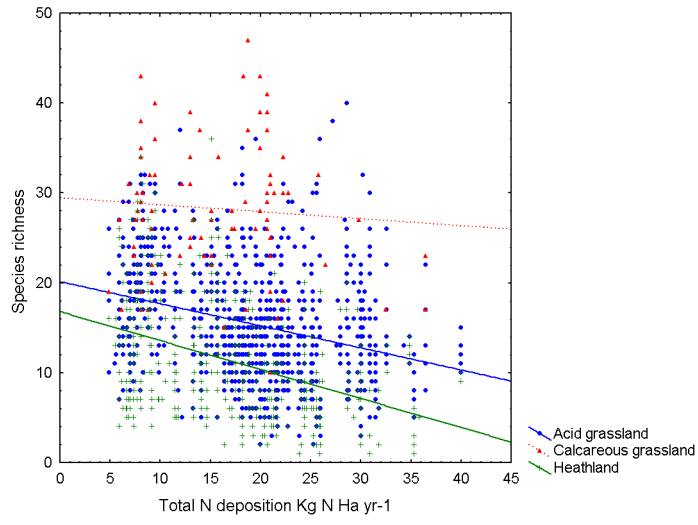


Figure 2



Appendix 1

Acid grassland

- U1 *Festuca ovina-Agrostis capillaris-Rumex acetosella* grassland
- U2 *Deschampsia flexuosa* grassland
- U3 *Agrostis curtisii* grassland
- U4 *Festuca ovina-Agrostis capillaris-Galium saxatile* grassland
- U5 *Nardus stricta-Galium saxatile* grassland
- U6 *Juncus squarrosus-Festuca ovina* grassland
- U7 *Nardus stricta-Carex bigelowii* grass-heath
- U8 *Carex bigelowii-Polytrcium alpinum* sedge-heath
- U9 *Juncus trifidus-Racomitrium lanuginosum* rush-heath

Heath

- H1 *Calluna vulgaris-Festuca ovina* heath
- H2 *Calluna vulgaris-Ulex minor* heath
- H3 *Ulex minor-Agrostis curtisii* heath
- H4 *Ulex gallii-Agrostis curtisii* heath
- H7 *Calluna vulgaris-Scilla verna* heath
- H8 *Calluna vulgaris-Ulex gallii* heath
- H9 *Calluna vulgaris-Deschampsia flexuosa* heath
- H10 *Calluna vulgaris- Erica cinerea* heath
- H11 *Calluna vulgaris Carex arenaria* heath
- H12 *Calluna vulgaris-Vaccinium myrtillus* heath
- H13 *Calluna vulgaris-Cladonia arbuscula* heath
- H14 *Calluna vulgaris-Racomitrium lanuginosum* heath
- H15 *Calluna vulgaris-Juniperus communis ssp. nana* heath
- H16 *Calluna vulgaris-Arctostaphylos uva-ursi* heath
- H18 *Vaccinium myrtillus-Deschampsia flexuosa* heath
- H19 *Vaccinium myrtillus-Cladonia arbuscula* heath

Calcareous grassland

- CG2 *Festuca ovina-Avenula pratensis* grassland
- CG3 *Bromus erectus* grassland
- CG4 *Brachypodium pinnatum* grassland
- CG6 *Avenula pubescens* grassland
- CG8 *Sesleria albicans-Scabiosa columbaria* grassland
- CG10 *Festuca ovina-Agrostis capillaris-Thymus praecox* grassland
- CG11 *Festuca ovina-Agrostis capillaris-Alchemilla alpina* grass-heath

Mesotrophic grassland

- MG6 *Lolium perenne-Cynosurus cristatus* grassland, *Lolium Cynosuretum cristati*
- MG7 *Lolium perenne* leys and related grasslands