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1 *Short Note*

2 **Inferring nitrogen deposition from plant community composition**

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15 ABSTRACT

16 Chronically elevated reactive nitrogen deposition has a severe impact on many ecosystems, and there is
17 widespread interest in the possibility of using plant community composition to estimate the level of
18 nitrogen deposition and consequent impacts. Existing approaches use a variety of simple measures
19 including functional type ratios, Ellenberg numbers, and diversity indices. We propose an alternative
20 approach in which species-environment models are constructed using national datasets designed to
21 capture broad-scale deposition patterns. We construct models using partial least squares, weighted
22 average, and maximum likelihood Gaussian logit regression for two British semi-natural habitats, and
23 test how well they predict N deposition by cross-validation. We find that performance is good with R^2
24 values up to 0.7, and suggest that such models may be a useful addition to the bioindication toolbox.

25 KEYWORDS: Nitrogen; Bioindication; Pollution; Ellenberg indices; Transfer functions; Biodiversity

26

1. Introduction

Deposition of reactive nitrogen (N) largely derived from intensive agricultural and industrial activity is an increasingly urgent conservation concern. A wealth of evidence links N deposition to loss of biodiversity, plant community change and degradation of ecosystem services (Bobbink et al. 1998; 2010). In developing countries N deposition is increasing rapidly and constitutes a clear threat to biodiversity hot-spots and protected areas (Bleeker et al. 2011; Phoenix et al. 2006). While N deposition is stabilising, or even falling in much of the industrialised world, ecosystems carry a legacy of past deposition which will not be quickly reversed. National- and international-scale models of N deposition (Jonson et al. 1998; Smith et al. 2000; Fagerli & Aas 2008) represent the large-scale distribution of pollution reasonably accurately, but cannot show the local-scale impacts of point sources such as individual industrial or agricultural units. It is these local-scale impacts which are usually the concern of practical conservation management, where the interest is often in the impacts of a specific polluter on an individual designated site. Protected areas are preferentially located in topographically complex regions (Joppa & Pfaff 2009) where large-scale deposition models perform less effectively (Sutton et al. 2004). Considerable research attention has therefore focussed on the identification of bioindicator approaches. Bioindicators can be used to identify both the level of pollution and the impacts of pollution exposure, although this distinction is rarely made explicit. Among the many approaches to bioindication of nitrogen pollution (Sutton et al. 2004), studies have investigated the potential of plant community-based bioindicators using the occurrence or abundance of indicator species, or derived indices such as Ellenberg values, plant functional type ratios and diversity measures (Pitcairn et al. 2002, 2003; Stevens et al. 2009). Although results have often shown significant relationships with N deposition, the strength of this relationship is variable.

We propose an alternative concept in which relationships between plant species composition and N deposition are modelled using national vegetation datasets and N deposition models. These species-environment models can be calibrated using sites better suited to national-scale models (away from point sources and complex topography), and then applied to predict deposition in situations where national-scale deposition models are less appropriate. The approach essentially uses vegetation-N relationships to down-scale national deposition models. In this paper we test the concept that the vegetation composition of a set of plant communities that fulfil certain criteria can be used to develop models to predict the cumulative N deposition at other sites comprising a similar vegetation type.

2. Material and Methods

We model the relationship between species abundance and N deposition for two semi-natural UK vegetation types using three alternative regression approaches. We use UK vegetation datasets of average species cover for acid grasslands (%), and frequency (occurrence per quadrat) for heather moorlands. The acid grassland dataset encompasses 64 sites of UK National Vegetation Classification (NVC: Rodwell 1992) type U4, (*Festuca ovina*-*Agrostis capillaris*-*Galium saxatile* grassland) sampled in 2002-3 (Stevens et al. 2004, 2006). The heathlands dataset (NVC type H12, *Calluna vulgaris*-*Vaccinium myrtillus* heath) combines the data of Edmondson et al. (2010) and Caporn et al. (2009) giving 36 sites sampled in 2005 and 2006. While the grasslands data includes all plant species the heathlands data includes bryophytes alone. All studies used five quadrats per site.

In both datasets, N deposition is the strongest environmental correlate with community composition, and appears to be a key agent of vegetation change (Payne et al. 2011; unpublished). We use modelled cumulative N deposition between 1900 and the year of sampling rather than modelled current N deposition, reflecting an increasing weight of opinion that cumulative deposition better represents how ecosystems respond to N pollution (Duprè et al. 2010, De Schrijver et al. 2011). We

apply the scaling factors of Fowler et al. (2004) to output from the Centre for Ecology and Hydrology CBED model (Smith et al. 2000) to calculate cumulative nitrogen deposition since 1900 on a 5x5 km grid basis. The cumulative N deposition range was 430-2856 kg N ha⁻¹ (mean: 1742, sd: 720) for the grassland sites and 459-3067 kg N ha⁻¹ (mean: 1886, sd: 671) for the heathlands.

We test three regression techniques based on two contrasting concepts of how species abundance may respond to N deposition. The simplest concept assumes that species respond linearly to N deposition: an increase in N deposition produces an increase or decline in each species. Multiple linear regression performs poorly for ecological data with large number of species whose abundances are strongly correlated (e.g. ter Braak & van Dam 1989). We test an alternative approach: partial least squares (PLS) regression. PLS attempts to extract a minimal number of latent factors or components from a training set which explain the variability in the environmental data (Geladi & Kowalski 1986). PLS has been applied in several previous ecological studies (e.g. Charman 1997) and has been used for the bioindication of nitrogen deposition with metabolic finger-print data (Gidman et al. 2006).

The assumption of a linear relationship between species abundance and cumulative N deposition may be valid if impacts are due to direct toxicity, species are at the edge of their environmental tolerances or where there is a limited range of deposition values. However, N is an essential nutrient for plants so an alternative hypothesis is that, for many species, small inputs may be beneficial but larger additions deleterious, producing a unimodal response. We therefore also test two regression techniques which assume a unimodal response of species abundance to N deposition.

In maximum likelihood (ML) Gaussian logit regression, the relationship between an environmental variable and abundance of each species is modelled as a Gaussian curve. Maximum likelihood estimation is used to determine the value of the environmental variable with the highest probability of being associated with a particular community composition; this estimate is the model

prediction (for details of computation see Birks 1995). The method has been shown to perform well with simulated data and real ecological datasets (ter Braak & Looman 1986), but it is relatively complex and computationally intensive.

An alternative unimodal technique is weighted average (WA) regression, in which it is assumed that a species will be most abundant in a site with environmental conditions close to the species optimum; a reasonable approximation of the species optimum is therefore made by calculating the average environmental values of all the sites in which the species occurs, weighted by the abundance of the species in those sites. An estimate of the environmental variable for an unknown site is provided by a weighted average of the optima of all species present. As this procedure serves to compress the environmental gradient a de-shrinking regression is applied to remove this compression. WA is less statistically rigorous than ML but is computationally simpler and often has superior performance in practise (Birks et al. 1990; ter Braak & van Dam 1989).

Assumptions of all these models include the independence of samples, lack of confounding secondary gradients and the presence of a direct (or indirect but linear) relationship between the species and the environmental variable of interest. These assumptions, and the consequences of their violation, are discussed in greater depth by Birks (1990, 1995, 1998), Belyea (2007) and ter Braak & Prentice (1988).

We applied all three techniques (PLS, ML & WA) to both of the vegetation datasets. We assessed model performance statistically by applying the model to the same dataset used to construct the model. To avoid overly optimistic estimates of performance if the same data are used to both build and test models we used jack-knife ('leave-one-out') cross-validation in which models are successively constructed using $n-1$ samples with the remaining sample serving as a test. Performance statistics used are the R^2 between observed and predicted values, the root mean squared error of prediction (RMSEP)

and the Maximum Bias (cross-validated values are denoted R^2_{jack} , $RMSEP_{jack}$ and $Max\ Bias_{jack}$). These three measures provide distinct but complementary information about the performance of models: R^2 gives a measure of the overall strength of relationship between observed and predicted values, $RMSEP$ gives a measure of average errors along the gradient and Maximum Bias gives a measure of maximum mean error for any one tenth of the gradient. Models were developed using C^2 (Juggins 2003).

3. Results

All models produced $RMSEP$ values below the standard deviation of the nitrogen deposition data, so all can be considered to have predictive power despite the limited size of the training sets. $RMSEP$ values suggest that these models may be able to predict cumulative N deposition with a mean error as low as 367 kg N ha^{-1} , 15% of the range captured by the vegetation dataset.

For the acid grasslands data the best-performing model in terms of R^2 and $RMSEP$ is ML and in terms of maximum bias is a 3-component PLS model. For the heathlands data the best-performing model is a single-component PLS model for R^2 and $RMSEP$ and ML for maximum bias. Model performance with the heathland data is superior to that of the grasslands, despite the smaller dataset size and use of frequency rather than cover data. This may represent greater importance of other environmental variables in the grasslands or greater sensitivity of bryophytes in comparison to vascular plants. The strength of the relationships between observed data (i.e. the output of deposition models) and predicted values, using the ML model for acid grasslands and the PLS model for heathlands, is shown in Fig. 1. Regression lines are close to the 1:1 line, and scatter is relatively limited. Both models tend to over-predict N deposition at the low end of the gradient and under-predict N deposition at the high end of the gradient.

4. Discussion

Our study shows that species-environment models may be effective at predicting cumulative nitrogen deposition from vegetation composition. Plant community-based bioindication has several appealing features. In contrast to other techniques, vegetation surveys require no more equipment than a quadrat and no more expense than the time of an experienced observer. The skills for plant identification are fairly widespread and much vegetation data is collected routinely. We show that relatively simple statistical models perform well, and appear to have potential for bioindication. By making better use of community data, such models may allow more accurate estimates of deposition. For instance in the acid grasslands data, the R^2 between N deposition and Ellenberg R was only 0.06 (there was no significant relationship with Ellenberg N: Stevens et al. 2010), compared to an R^2_{jack} of 0.64 here. Once such models are developed, the application of the model to new data is straightforward and software is freely available.

A strength of our approach is that the relative performance of models imparts some information about the underlying relationship between N deposition and community composition. Consequently, it is best to consider several different approaches in evaluating data from such studies. For instance, if a maximum likelihood regression fits the data better than a partial least squares regression, it follows that the relationship is better modelled as a unimodal curve than a straight line. For species abundance along an environmental gradient this in turn suggests that the full range of the gradient has been sampled, since species respond by increasing, and then decreasing, in abundance along the gradient.

Our models are developed on the basis of national-scale models rather than local deposition monitoring data for the individual sites. This is partly for pragmatic reasons, as it is clearly impractical to monitor deposition at a hundred, widely dispersed and often remote sites for a period of many years. The use of modelled data is justified as the deposition model performs well at capturing the broad-scale patterns of deposition and the sampling sites have been carefully selected to capture this broad-scale

pattern, avoiding local factors which may modify deposition. The regression models developed using these data-sets should therefore be able to predict N deposition in situations where the national models cannot (e.g. in the rain shadow of a woodland, an exposed slope, or downwind of a long-term point source). The scatter in our results probably partly relates to the limitations of the deposition models. Indeed, the comparison of values predicted by our regression models and the national deposition model could potentially indicate the contribution of local factors.

Our study is a proof-of-concept but further validation and testing of these models is necessary. It is possible that model performance in practice may be poorer than the cross-validated results we present here due to the influence of other environmental factors, taxonomic biases, spatial autocorrelation (Telford & Birks 2005) and surveyor variability. However there are also alternative modelling approaches which might offer superior performance (including neural nets: Malmgren & Nordlund 1997, analogue techniques: Simpson 2007, and Bayesian approaches: Toivonen et al. 2001). Further studies including a greater variety of techniques and testing with independently collected field data will be required to reveal the full potential of this approach. Studies of local-scale gradients near to point-sources would be a particularly interesting test of model performance. Although we use cumulative deposition data, models could equally be constructed using current deposition values for easier comparison with measured data: correlations between cumulative and modern deposition are strong so we believe such models will have broadly similar efficacy. Our results indicate that models relating nitrogen deposition to vegetation in large-scale gradient studies could be a useful addition to the suite of techniques used for the bioindication of pollution, and deserve further study.

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291 Figure and Table

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293 Table 1. Model performance for grassland and heathland data showing model structure and R^2 , root
294 mean squared error of prediction (RMSEP) and maximum bias (Max Bias) determined by jack-knife
295 cross-validation. Model results illustrated in Fig. 1 marked '*'.

	R^2_{jack}	$\text{RMSEP}_{\text{jack}}$	$\text{MaxBias}_{\text{jack}}$
Grasslands			
PLS (3 component)	0.43	548	623
ML*	0.64	464	1440
WA (inverse deshrinking)	0.46	526	677
Heathlands			
PLS (1 component)*	0.70	367	695
ML	0.62	456	586
WA (inverse deshrinking)	0.61	421	759

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Figure 1. Cumulative N deposition (the output of a national deposition model with historical scaling factors) against vegetation-predicted cumulative N deposition for heathland and grassland data-sets under jack-knife cross validation.

