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1 **Disparities between plant community responses to nitrogen deposition and critical loads in UK**
2 **semi-natural habitats**

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21

22 **ABSTRACT**

23 Empirical critical loads are widely used to quantify and manage the ecological impacts of reactive
24 nitrogen (N) deposition. Critical load values aim to identify a level of N deposition below which
25 significant harmful effects do not occur according to present knowledge. Critical loads have been
26 primarily based on experiments, but these are few in number and have well-known limitations, so
27 there is a strong imperative to test and validate values with other forms of evidence. We assembled
28 data on the spatial variability in vegetation communities in the United Kingdom and used Threshold
29 Indicator Taxa Analyses (TITAN) to investigate linkages between species changes and modelled
30 current and cumulative N deposition. Our analyses focused on five datasets from acid grasslands,
31 alpine habitats, coastal fixed dunes, dune slacks and wet grassland. In four of these habitats there
32 was evidence for a significant decline in the cover of at least one species (a 'species-loss change-
33 point') occurring below the critical load, and often at very low levels of N deposition. In all of the
34 habitats there was evidence for clustering of many individual species-loss change-points, implying a
35 community change-point analogous to an ecological threshold. Three of these community change-

36 points occurred below the critical load and the remaining two overlapped with the critical load
37 range. Studies using similar approaches are now increasingly common, with similar results. Across 19
38 similar analyses there has been evidence for plant species loss change-points below the critical load
39 in 18 analyses, and community-level species loss change-points below the critical load in 13 analyses.
40 None of these analyses has shown community change-points above the critical load. Field data
41 increasingly suggest that many European critical loads are too high to confidently prevent loss of
42 sensitive species.

43 **KEYWORDS:** Air pollution, Ammonia, Biodiversity, Nitrogen deposition, Threshold responses.

44 **HIGHLIGHTS:**

- 45 • We analysed plant cover changes along N deposition gradients for five UK habitats.
 - 46 • Our study shows both species and community changes below the current critical load.
 - 47 • Current critical loads may be too high to prevent biodiversity impacts.
- 48

1. INTRODUCTION

Reactive nitrogen deposition (N deposition) derived from intensive agriculture, industry and transport emissions is recognised as an important threat to global biodiversity (Baron et al., 2014; Sutton et al., 2011). In terrestrial ecosystems, N deposition is associated with eutrophication, acidification, and increased susceptibility to secondary stressors (Dise et al., 2011). N deposition can lead to changed assemblage composition and reduced diversity in plant communities, which may lead to knock-on impacts at higher trophic levels (Nijssen et al., 2017; Payne et al., 2012; Stevens et al., 2018). These changes may ultimately have significant impacts (both positive and negative) on ecosystem services (Jones et al., 2018; Jones et al., 2014), ultimately imposing a significant societal cost (Sutton et al., 2011).

In many nations the key policy instruments used for the management of air pollution impacts are critical levels (for gaseous pollutants) and critical loads (for pollutant deposition). A critical load is defined as 'a quantitative estimate of an 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 and Grennfelt, 1988). Critical loads were originally proposed following the 1979 UN ECE Convention on Long-Range Transboundary Air Pollution, and have been developed and applied in Europe over more than thirty years (Nilsson and Grennfelt, 1988). More recently, critical loads have been developed for the USA (Pardo et al., 2011) and the approach has also been trialled in many countries around the world (Kuylenstierna et al., 2001; Liu et al., 2011; Reinds et al., 2008). Four different values are relevant to nitrogen pollution in Europe: the critical levels for gaseous ammonia and NO_x, and the critical loads for acid deposition and nutrient N; here we focus on the empirical critical load for nutrient N. These critical load values form empirically-based 'impact floors' below which the negative consequences of pollution are not expected.

Critical loads are used for two main purposes: policy and permitting. They are used in policy to help understand the large-scale impacts of current air pollution and the potential consequences of future pollution scenarios. Critical loads are also used to make decisions concerning the permitting of new pollution sources. In the United Kingdom this involves the modelling of additional N deposition from a proposed development (the 'process contribution') and then the appropriate agencies making judgements of potential harm to conservation-designated sites, based largely on critical load exceedance.

One of the key limitations of the critical load concept is that - as strictly defined - it is a binary: dividing locations at risk of impacts from those which are not. This is simple and easy to understand but can often be unhelpful in practice. For instance, the empirical critical loads ranges for nine UK habitats, including widespread ecosystems such as blanket bogs, begin at just 5 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ (Bobbink & Hettelingh, 2011). However, modelling data show that more than 96% of the UK receives N deposition above 5 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ [CBED model, 2014 (Smith et al., 2000)]. Most permit applications will be for sites at which the critical load value is already exceeded. Economic imperatives mean that prohibiting all additional N deposition to these sites is often unrealistic, and the critical load values offer no direct information on the consequences of additional loading in sites where the critical load is already exceeded. In practice, the degree to which N deposition exceeds the critical load value (the 'exceedance') is often taken as an index of harm. However, this usage goes beyond the original definition in making the implicit assumption that impacts develop linearly: every additional kg of N

91 produces the same degree of environmental harm. This assumption is rarely tested and there is
92 some evidence that N deposition impacts often do not develop incrementally but rather show
93 ‘threshold-like’ responses whereby the rate of change in a biological assemblage varies with the
94 intensity of a driver. Previous studies have shown non-linear species richness responses to N
95 deposition (Tipping et al., 2013) and disproportionate changes in individual species responses at
96 particular levels of N deposition (Payne et al., 2013; Wilkins and Aherne, 2016; Wilkins et al., 2016).

97 Empirical critical loads are primarily based on experiments, with other forms of evidence largely
98 restricted to a supporting role. Experiments are ideal for identifying cause-effect relationships and
99 testing the impacts of N deposition while controlling for other factors, but are poorly suited to the
100 identification of full response patterns because each experiment will rarely have more than a small
101 number of treatment levels. Many experiments also have limitations including small scale, high
102 treatment levels, infrequent treatments, and in many experiments even the ‘control’ plots have
103 received substantial long-term background N deposition. An alternative is to use field data from sites
104 spanning gradients of N deposition. These spatial data are more complicated to analyse and
105 interpret, with a lower signal-to-noise ratio, but offer a better representation of the range of real-
106 world situations, with no experimental artefacts and a greater N deposition range. Both
107 experimental and gradient studies have strengths and weaknesses, and both have their roles. A
108 useful analogy is medical science where randomised controlled trials provide causal evidence of
109 effects, but epidemiology is essential to understand the real-world consequences of external factors.

110 Over the last 15 years numerous spatial datasets have been analysed to identify N deposition effects
111 on vegetation (Field et al., 2014; Maskell et al., 2010; Payne et al., 2014; Payne et al., 2011; Stevens
112 et al., 2004). These have primarily considered impacts at the level of the community or functional
113 group, although recently effects at the species level have also been considered (Payne et al. 2013,
114 Clark et al. 2019). There is a need to further understand pollution effects on the individual species in
115 a community, since this can pinpoint more exactly the conditions leading to a decline in species of
116 high conservation value (ecologically, economically or culturally), or an increase in undesirable
117 invasive species. Combining species-specific responses can also allow one to calculate the
118 community-level response to a pollutant, and compare this to existing critical load values.

119 In this study we use datasets spanning N deposition gradients in UK semi-natural vegetation to test
120 the critical loads for those vegetation communities. We aim to assess how plant assemblages change
121 with increasing N deposition, pin-point levels at which species and communities show change, and
122 relate these points to critical loads. We simultaneously consider both current N deposition and
123 cumulative N deposition in order to understand differing responses to current conditions and long-
124 term N exposure.

125 **2. METHODS**

126 ***2.1 Vegetation and N deposition data***

127 We first compiled a pool of vegetation data for UK semi-natural habitats. Full details of these
128 datasets and their compilation are presented in Payne et al. (2019) and summarised in
129 Supplementary Table 1. We considered two metrics of N deposition: current and cumulative
130 deposition. Current deposition was estimated for each survey site using data from the CBED model
131 (Smith et al., 2000) for the year of data collection, or the latest year in the case of surveys conducted

132 over multiple years. Current annual N deposition is the metric that is the basis of critical load values
133 and is most widely used in air pollution management and policy. However, there is evidence that
134 many ecological communities respond to the accumulated pool of plant-available N in the soil (Dise
135 et al. 2011), and 30-year cumulative N deposition (a metric first proposed by Rowe et al., 2017)
136 generally explains greater significant variance in plant species cover than current N deposition
137 (Payne et al., 2019). Available evidence suggests that this 30-year cumulative metric may be more
138 ecologically meaningful, but it is also less widely used, making results more difficult to place in the
139 context of previous research. We therefore conducted parallel analyses for both current and
140 cumulative deposition. Past N deposition was calculated using the FRAME model with historic data
141 on N deposition sources (Tipping et al., 2017), with 30-year cumulative deposition calculated based
142 on linear interpolation between fixed time points and the trapezoidal area method (Payne et al.,
143 2019).

144 **2.2 TITAN**

145 Threshold Indicator Taxa ANalysis (TITAN) was used to identify species and community changes in
146 relation to N deposition (Baker and King, 2010). TITAN focuses on the identification of *change-points*
147 in taxon abundance in relation to environmental gradients, quantification of the uncertainty in these
148 values and, by combining the multiple individual taxon responses, change-points in overall
149 community response. Underlying TITAN is the Indicator Value (IndVal) method of Dufrêne and
150 Legendre (1997); a technique for the identification of taxa which typify groups of an *a priori* sample
151 classification. A taxon with a high IndVal score will have a high concentration of abundances and
152 high fidelity to a single group (Dufrêne and Legendre, 1997; Podani and Csányi, 2010). A taxon with a
153 maximal IndVal score would be found in all samples of a group and only in that group. In TITAN,
154 IndVal scores are calculated for all taxa for all possible change-points along the environmental
155 gradient (excluding very rare taxa and the very ends of the gradient) with permutation tests to
156 assess the uncertainty in these scores.

157 To assess overall community response, permuted IndVal scores are standardised as z-scores and
158 summed for positive (sum(z+)) and negative (sum(z-)) responses for each possible change-point.
159 Sum(z) peaks highlight values of the environmental variable around which many taxa exhibit strong
160 directional changes in abundance. Uncertainty in these maxima is assessed by boot-strapping, and
161 quantiles of the boot-strapped maxima are used as confidence intervals. For each taxon response
162 TITAN also returns measures of purity (the proportion of boot-strap replicates matching group
163 assignment in the original data) and reliability (the proportion of boot-strap replicates with
164 maximum IndVal reaching a specified P-value). Key advantages of the technique are the ability to
165 differentiate individual taxon responses and separate community responses in taxa responding
166 positively and negatively (Baker and King, 2010; King and Baker, 2010).

167 We applied TITAN to vegetation cover data, with species present in fewer than five sampling sites
168 excluded from each dataset. We conducted separate TITAN analyses using both single-year current
169 N deposition and thirty-year cumulative deposition. TITAN was implemented using the TITAN2
170 package (Baker et al., 2015) in R (R Development Core Team, 2014) with the five most extreme
171 candidate change-points from either end of the gradient excluded from the analysis. TITAN is
172 computer-power intensive, so for speed we conducted initial screening analyses with 250 IndVal
173 permutations and 500 boot-strap replicates but increased this to 1000 IndVal permutations and

174 1000 boot-strap replicates for the final analyses of selected datasets presented below. Results are
175 presented as sum(z) plots, taxon change-point plots with associated uncertainties, and aggregated
176 community-level change-points. Results are compared to currently-accepted critical load values
177 (Bobbink and Hettelingh, 2011) for each habitat based on accepted conversions between the UK
178 National Vegetation Classification and EUNIS classes, using our best judgement where there was
179 ambiguity in this assignment.

180 **2.3 Inclusion criteria and testing**

181 TITAN was originally developed and tested using datasets from freshwater systems with a single,
182 dominant anthropogenic gradient leading to major assemblage change. The signal of N deposition in
183 large-scale vegetation datasets can be complicated as there are likely to be other drivers of change
184 (other pollutants, climate, land-use etc). The TITAN method does not directly account for co-variables
185 and there is a risk of misleading results if the method is inappropriately applied to datasets where N
186 deposition impacts are absent, weak or confounded by other variables. In this study we adopted a
187 strictly precautionary approach to ensure that TITAN was only applied, and results interpreted, in
188 situations where it was appropriate to do so.

189 We first screened out datasets where N deposition was not a significant driver of plant assemblage
190 change, when accounting for co-variables. To identify potentially significant co-variables we assembled
191 a large pool of environmental variables comprising a consistent set of data on mean annual
192 temperature, precipitation (Hijmans et al., 2005), altitude (Farr et al., 2007), and historic peak S
193 deposition (CBED 86-88: (Smith et al., 2000)) along with other relevant environmental data where
194 available for the individual datasets (Payne et al., 2019). We used partial redundancy analysis (RDA)
195 on Hellinger transformed data to test the explanatory power of alternative combinations of
196 explanatory variables (Borcard et al., 1992; Legendre and Gallagher, 2001). From the total pool of
197 environmental data – excluding N deposition variables – we constructed an optimum model using
198 the ordistep function in the vegan R package (Oksanen et al., 2007). Variables selected in this model
199 were then introduced as co-variables in analyses with each of current N deposition and 30 year
200 cumulative N deposition as explanatory variables (Payne et al., 2019). Datasets were taken forward
201 for further analysis if N deposition explained significant variance at $P < 0.01$ in Monte Carlo testing. As
202 one of our aims was to compare responses to current and cumulative N deposition, we required that
203 both of these N deposition metrics were significant in these tests.

204 In datasets where N deposition variables explained significant variance independent of other large-
205 scale drivers of environmental change we conducted TITAN analyses. However, a few of these
206 analyses yielded a relatively small proportion of taxon change-points with high purity and reliability
207 in boot-strap testing. We defined a conservative criterion for adequate characterisation of a species
208 change-point of at least 95% of boot-strap replicates matching original group assignment and P-
209 value. We excluded datasets where at least 30% of taxa did not meet this criterion for both current
210 and cumulative N deposition (Table 1; Supplementary Table 1). In datasets failing this test it is likely
211 that only a small proportion of taxa are unambiguously responsive to N, complicating the
212 quantification of community responses.

213 The datasets which passed these tests are those on which we based our main analysis. Focussing
214 solely on those datasets where the signal of N deposition is highly significant when accounting for
215 co-variables, and where a large proportion of taxa show pure and reliable change-points along the N

216 deposition gradient, greatly reduces the possibility of spurious results. As an additional test of the
217 potential influence of co-variates, we also conducted tests in which we identified and eliminated
218 taxa where N deposition change-points correlated with change-points for co-varying environmental
219 variables (Payne et al., 2013). For each of the co-variates identified in the RDA model-building we
220 conducted a TITAN analysis and identified change-points. We then regressed each of these co-
221 variates against the N deposition variable. We used these regression equations to calculate 'N
222 deposition equivalent' values for each co-variate change-point for each species. Where a species
223 change-point in the N deposition TITAN analysis lay between the 10th and 90th boot-strap percentile
224 of the 'N deposition equivalent' change-point for any co-variate we eliminated this species from the
225 dataset and conducted a further TITAN analysis. The removal of species in these tests does not imply
226 that the change-points are spurious but does suggest that these should be treated with greater
227 caution. The comparison of these results to the original analyses allows us to assess the potential
228 consequences of a scenario in which species change-points reflect co-variates rather than N
229 deposition.

230 All analyses were conducted with both current and 30-year cumulative N deposition. To
231 quantitatively compare results, for each change-point based on current N deposition we calculated
232 an equivalent cumulative N deposition change-point value based on a linear regression between
233 current and cumulative N deposition in each dataset (Supplementary Fig. 2). We then compared
234 these values and calculated the proportions which were higher or lower than those based on the
235 cumulative N deposition TITAN analysis (Supplementary Fig. 3). This analysis is used to provide
236 insight into the relative position of change-points in terms of current and cumulative N deposition.
237 The change points were also compared with the latest version of the empirical critical loads for
238 European habitats (Bobbink & Hettelingh, 2011).

239 **3. RESULTS**

240 ***3.1 Data selection and screening***

241 We ultimately focused our study on five of the candidate datasets. A large proportion of the datasets
242 (28 of 36) were eliminated at the first screening stage as one or both N deposition metrics failed to
243 explain significant variance in redundancy analysis with co-variates partialled out (Supplementary
244 Table 1). Many of these datasets did meet $P < 0.05$ but not the more conservative $P < 0.01$ we opted to
245 use as a screening threshold. In 11 of these cases the lack of significance related solely to current N
246 deposition, with cumulative N deposition explaining significant variance. This is not unexpected
247 given that previous analyses of these data have shown that cumulative deposition is a better
248 predictor of assemblage composition (Payne et al., 2019). However, given the aim to compare TITAN
249 results between deposition metrics and to critical load values which are defined solely in terms of
250 current N deposition it was considered important that TITAN could be meaningfully applied based on
251 both current and cumulative deposition. A further three datasets were excluded based on a high
252 proportion of taxa with low purity and reliability change-points in initial TITAN analyses. In two of
253 these cases the purity and reliability criteria were not met for both current and cumulative N
254 deposition, while in one dataset these criteria were not met only for current deposition
255 (Supplementary Table 1).

256 The exclusion of datasets in this filtering exercise does not imply that they contain no evidence of
257 nitrogen deposition impacts, and certainly not that these vegetation types are insensitive to N

258 deposition. On the contrary, N deposition variables are significant in most ordination analyses
259 (Payne et al., 2019) and plausible change-points are often identified for individual species. However,
260 the lower significance of N deposition in initial redundancy analyses, and lower proportion of pure
261 and reliable indicator taxa, means that community-level responses are less likely to be robustly
262 identified and there is a greater risk of results being confounded by co-varying environmental
263 factors. Following this filtering we focused on the five datasets which met our criteria: the acid
264 grasslands dataset of Stevens et al. (2004) and Stevens et al. (2006); the 'alpine' habitats dataset of
265 Ross et al. (2012) and the wet grassland, fixed dune and dune slack components of the Scottish
266 Coastal Resurvey dataset (Lewis et al., 2016; Pakeman et al., 2015; Pakeman et al., 2016; Pakeman et
267 al., 2017) (Table 1). These five datasets are from a range of habitats with a variety of levels and
268 ranges of N deposition (Table 1; Supplementary Fig. 1). Compared to the datasets which did not
269 meet our inclusion criteria these five are notable for relatively large sample sizes and relatively high
270 species numbers, attributes which are clearly likely to aid the identification of community responses
271 (Supplementary Table 1).

272 **3.2 Community changes**

273 *3.2.1 Wet grasslands*

274 In the wet grasslands fourteen species showed negative responses to current N deposition with high
275 reliability/purity, but only two showed positive responses (Fig. 1A). The first negative responses to
276 current N deposition occurred at less than 3 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in species including the forbs *Veronica*
277 *arvensis* and *Daucus carota*. Responses to cumulative N were generally similar but with notable
278 differences in species ordering. For instance, the forb *Euphrasia officinalis* had the second lowest
279 high purity/reliability negative response change-point in the cumulative N analysis but the highest in
280 the current N deposition analysis. Positive response change-points were apparent in *Cirsium arvense*
281 and *Cirsium vulgare* in both analyses, and in *Urtica dioica* in the cumulative N analysis.

282 In terms of the overall assemblage, there was a strongly 'peaked' response in negative-responding
283 species (sum z-), typical of an ecological threshold (Figure 2A). There was little trend in aggregated
284 positive responses (sum(z+)) due to the small number of positive-responding taxa. The response was
285 more peaked – indicative of a more abrupt and 'threshold-like' response – in the cumulative than
286 the current N deposition analysis. The current N deposition sum(z-) peak was centred on 3.9 kg N ha⁻¹
287 yr⁻¹ and was tightly constrained in boot-strapping (3.5-4.9 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) while the cumulative
288 deposition sum(z-) peak was centred at 86 (80-98) kg N ha⁻¹ (Table 2). In both analyses the bootstrap
289 confidence intervals of the sum(z+) peak spanned a large proportion of the total deposition range.
290 Few change-points (none high purity/reliability in the current N analysis) were identified as
291 potentially affected by co-varying variables, and the exclusion of these taxa made little difference to
292 the results (Fig. 1, Table 2). The current N deposition sum(z-) peak (3.9 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) was well below
293 the existing critical load for the habitat (10-20 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹).

294 *3.2.2 Acid grasslands*

295 The acid grasslands showed a large number of negative (z-) change-points, with these clustered at
296 the lower end of the current N deposition gradient (Fig. 1B). There were far fewer positive response
297 change-points, and these typically occurred at higher levels of N deposition. Species responding
298 positively to N included the moss *Hypnum cupressiforme* and the grass *Nardus stricta*. The UK acid

299 grasslands dataset is a subset of the European-scale acid grasslands dataset (Stevens et al., 2010)
300 previously analysed using TITAN by Payne et al. 2013, and the pattern of species responses was
301 generally similar. In the current N deposition analysis, six high purity/reliability change-points
302 occurred below the critical load, ten within the critical load range and seven above the critical load
303 range.

304 Results based on cumulative N deposition showed a similar pattern, with some difference in species
305 ordering. The most marked difference was that in the analysis based on cumulative deposition many
306 species change-points clustered at the level of the lowest change-point. Sum(z-) results for current N
307 deposition showed a peaked response while there was little strong trend in sum(z+) response (Fig.
308 2B). Results for cumulative N deposition were similar, but the sum(z-) peak was more elongated. The
309 current N deposition sum (z-) peak was centred at 13.2 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹, within the critical load range,
310 and the cumulative N deposition peak was centred at 216 kg N ha⁻¹. Both were tightly constrained in
311 boot-strapping (Table 2). Both values were modestly affected by the exclusion of taxa which were
312 potentially affected by co-varying environmental factors, but confidence intervals extensively
313 overlapped (Table 2). There was no evidence for a sum(z+) threshold in either dataset, with peak
314 location very variable under boot-strapping.

315 3.2.3 Alpine habitats

316 Seventeen negative response and eleven positive response change-points were identified in the
317 alpine dataset. The negative-responding taxa clustered into two groups responding around 5-7 and
318 10-14 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹, with the positive-responding taxa more widely distributed along the gradient
319 (Fig. 1C). The pattern of species responses in the cumulative N analysis was broadly similar. Species
320 showing negative responses in both sets of analyses included the lichen *Cladonia uncialis* and moss
321 *Racomitrium lanuginosum*, while positive responses were present in taxa including the grass *Festuca*
322 *ovina* and moss *Pleurozium schreberi*. Most current N deposition species change-points occurred
323 within the critical load range, which in this dataset spanned most of the total N deposition range (5-
324 15 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹).

325 Sum(z) plots for both current and cumulative N deposition, with both positive and negative species
326 responses, showed abrupt increases at the lower end of the deposition range and declines at the
327 upper end of the deposition range, but with peaks rather broad indicating a community response
328 which was more gradual than for some of the other datasets (Figure 2C). For current deposition both
329 sum(z-) and sum(z+) change-points were located towards the upper end of critical load range. In
330 bootstrapping, the sum(z+) community change point was relatively consistent across iterations while
331 the sum(z-) change-point was less tightly constrained. All change points were relatively robust to the
332 exclusion of taxa potentially affected by co-variates (Table 2).

333 3.2.4 Dune slacks

334 Thirty negative and four positive response change-points were identified in the current N analysis of
335 the dune slacks dataset (Fig. 1D). Results of current and cumulative N analyses were generally
336 similar, with the cumulative N analysis showing more evidence for clustering of change-points (at
337 around 80 kg N ha⁻¹). In both datasets positive-responding taxa included the forbs *Cirsium palustre*
338 and *Salix repens* and negative-responding taxa included the forbs *Centaurea nigra* and *Succisa*
339 *pratensis*. With both current and cumulative deposition, the sum(z-) plots show marked peaks while

340 there were not strong trends in the sum(z+) plots, presumably due to the limited numbers of taxa
341 showing positive responses (Fig. 2D). The sum(z-) peaks were relatively tightly constrained in boot-
342 strapping at around 4.8 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ and 90 kg N ha⁻¹ and were not affected by species filtering
343 (Table 2). The sum(z+) peaks were rather variable in boot-strapping with both N metrics. All species
344 and community change-points were below the critical load range (10-15 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹).

345 3.2.5 Fixed dunes

346 More high purity/reliability species change-points were identified in the fixed dune dataset than the
347 other four datasets considered, with 39 negative and 16 positive response change-points in the
348 current N deposition analysis (Figure 1E). The first negative responses occurred below 3 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹
349 and the first positive responses below 4 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹. High purity and reliability change points were
350 all below 8 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹, compared to the critical load range of 8-15 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹. The lowest
351 negative response to current N deposition was in the forb *Arenaria serpyllifolia* and the lowest
352 positive response in the forb *Cirsium vulgare*. The sum(z) community response plots showed a peak
353 which was more distinct for negative than positive responses and more defined in the cumulative
354 than current N deposition analysis (Fig. 2E). Positive and negative change-points were relatively
355 tightly constrained in boot-strapping and only modestly affected by species exclusion (Table 2).
356 Current N deposition community change-points (sum(z-): 5.0 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ and sum(z+): 4.8 kg N ha⁻¹
357 yr⁻¹) were both well below the critical load range.

358 4. DISCUSSION

359 4.1 Species responses

360 Our analysis provides a large-scale assessment of the response of individual plant species to N
361 deposition in a range of habitats. The vast majority of the species responses identified here agree
362 with the known ecology of the species. Species which have well-characterised tolerance or
363 sensitivity to N deposition are typically shown to have positive or negative change-points,
364 respectively. For instance, positive responses are identified in *Urtica dioica*, a well-known nitrophile,
365 and *Cirsium arvense*, a competitive forb (Hamdoun, 1970; Hogg et al., 1995; Pitcairn et al., 2003).
366 Similarly, the pollution-sensitive moss *Racomitrium lanuginosum*, the forb *Plantago lanceolata* and
367 hemi-parasite *Euphrasia officinalis* show negative change-points in response to N deposition
368 (Armitage et al., 2014; Maskell et al., 2010).

369 A few species show negative responses in some datasets and positive responses in some others (e.g.
370 *Hypnum cupressiforme*, *Carex panicea*), and in many others the value and relative position of
371 change-points varies (e.g. *Luzula campestris*, *Succisa pratensis*). These remain plausible responses to
372 N deposition. It is possible that plants may respond differently in different habitats with different
373 competitors and environmental pressures: a species of intermediate resilience to N deposition might
374 increase in abundance when competing against N-sensitive taxa and decrease when competing
375 against more resilient taxa. Change-point values are also context-dependent and only reflect the
376 range of N deposition covered by the dataset; values can be expected to differ in datasets covering
377 differing parts of the N deposition gradient. In any correlative analysis it is likely that some changes
378 along the environmental gradient may be coincidental, and individual change-points should not be
379 over-interpreted. It is further possible that results might be affected by inconsistent taxonomy or

380 cryptic diversity. However, overall the results present a convincing representation of plant
381 communities responding to N deposition.

382 **4.2 Plant community responses**

383 In all analyses, many more taxa were identified that responded negatively than positively to N
384 deposition. This result supports the general observation that N deposition is associated with a loss of
385 diversity in many semi-natural habitats (Field et al., 2014; Stevens et al., 2004). Across most
386 analyses, there was also evidence for the clustering of species change-points at particular levels of N
387 deposition, implying disproportionate community change. There was stronger evidence for non-
388 linear community change when considering species decreasing in occurrence and abundance than
389 species increasing. Sum(z-) scores often showed distinctly different profiles to sum(z+) scores, being
390 more likely to show a 'peaked' response. Sum(z-) change-points were typically similar to or at lower
391 N deposition levels than sum(z+) change-points and were often more tightly constrained in
392 bootstrapping. Evidence for a tightly defined sum(z-) peak, implying an ecological threshold in
393 species loss, was strongest in dune slacks and wet- and acid grasslands, and weakest in the 'alpine'
394 habitats. Only a small proportion of all species showed change-points at corresponding positions on
395 co-varying environmental gradients, and exclusion of these species made little difference to
396 community-level results (Table 2). Overall, these analyses imply that the assumption of impacts
397 generally developing at a consistent rate with increasing N loading may be misplaced; instead there
398 is more evidence for threshold-like effects.

399 **4.3 Relationship to critical loads**

400 In all analyses there is evidence for change in species composition with N deposition and a loss of
401 diversity. There can be little doubt that these datasets demonstrate a 'significant harmful effect', but
402 results show little correspondence with critical load values. In three of the datasets all (wet
403 grassland) or most (fixed dunes, slacks) of the sites had N deposition below the critical load.
404 Nevertheless, N deposition explained significant variance, and numerous species change points were
405 identified representing plausible responses to N deposition.

406 In four of the five datasets negative species change-points in response to N deposition were
407 identified below the critical load value. The sole exception was the 'alpine' habitats dataset, where it
408 would be impossible to identify change-points below the critical load because of the lack of very low
409 deposition sites. There has been a difference amongst previous studies in how TITAN results should
410 be related to the 'significant harmful effects' principle of the critical load concept. Whereas Payne et
411 al. (2013) focussed on comparing the lowest individual species change-point to the critical load,
412 Wilkins et al. (2016) focussed on the community-level sum(z) change points. The former is arguably
413 more in keeping with the underlying principles, but the latter focusses on the community-level
414 results which are likely to be more robust than the species-level results. In practise, this distinction
415 only matters to one of the five sets of analyses presented here: the acid grasslands dataset in which
416 the community change point was within the critical load range, but several individual species
417 change-points were below it. In the other datasets, both the community and lowest species change-
418 points were consistently either within (alpine) or below (other habitats) the critical load range.
419 Considered in aggregate, the results strongly suggest that N deposition has ecological impacts at
420 levels below the currently-defined European critical load values for many habitats.

421 In the first study to adopt the TITAN approach for the identification of N deposition impacts on plant
422 communities, Payne et al. (2013) found that the lowest change-points coincided with the lowest
423 point at which any change-point could possibly be recorded. This could be taken to imply that not
424 only is the critical load value for this community too high, but also that it might not be realistic to
425 identify a level of N deposition at which there is no evidence for negative consequences. Of the
426 analyses presented in this study, only one (fixed dunes with current N deposition) showed the
427 lowest species change-point at the lowest possible level of N deposition. However, in several others
428 (e.g. alpine habitats with current N deposition) the lowest change-point was only marginally above
429 this lowermost point or the boot-strap confidence intervals extended to the lowermost point.
430 Whether it is fundamentally possible to identify a level of N deposition below which there are
431 *absolutely* no impacts remains unclear.

432 Findings of species change-points and sum(z) peaks below current critical load values are now
433 increasingly well-replicated. TITAN results considered robust by the authors are available for
434 nineteen different vegetation datasets spanning a substantial range of semi-natural habitat types in
435 northwest Europe (Payne et al., 2013; Wilkins and Aherne, 2016; Wilkins et al., 2016). In all but one
436 of these datasets, high purity and reliability change-points were identified for some species below
437 the critical load. In twelve of the nineteen datasets, community-level sum(z-) change-points were
438 also identified below the critical load, and in none of the datasets was a sum(z-) change-point
439 identified above the critical load range. In seventeen of the nineteen analyses, more species were
440 identified with negative than positive responses, usually by a substantial margin.

441 Correlative studies can never prove cause-effect relationships and all statistical methods have
442 limitations, which in the case of TITAN include sensitivity to co-variates and to the distribution of
443 samples along the gradients (Baker and King, 2013). While these factors could have had some
444 influence on some of these analyses, overall, the weight of evidence is becoming increasingly strong:
445 TITAN applied to large-scale vegetation datasets spanning N deposition gradients suggests that the
446 majority of critical loads are currently too high to prevent all species change, and in many cases may
447 also fail to prevent habitats passing points of disproportionate impact. Similar results have also
448 recently been presented for ectomycorrhizal fungi in European forests (van der Linde et al., 2018),
449 implying that critical loads may similarly fail to prevent harm in other important elements of the
450 ecosystem.

451 **4.4 Current and cumulative N deposition**

452 A recognised limitation of empirical critical load-based N deposition management is that critical
453 loads are a steady-state concept and provide no information on the timescales for damage or
454 recovery (Hall et al., 2015). Critical loads are based on current deposition only and do not allow for
455 the possibility of chronic impacts with gradual accumulation of N in ecosystems, despite this being
456 probable (Rowe et al., 2017). There are several implications of this. First, a community in which
457 current N deposition falls below the critical load may still retain extensive damage due to historical N
458 deposition which is largely retained within the plant-soil system. The current concept of critical loads
459 does not *a priori* distinguish between this community and one with a much lower load of
460 accumulated N due to lower historical N deposition. Second, vegetation communities that have
461 previously shifted due to chronically elevated N deposition will not necessarily shift back to their
462 initial state, even if the excess N is removed from the system. This is especially the case for

463 communities dominated by perennial species. In these cases, active management such as biomass
464 removal and turf cutting may be necessary to restore communities to a desired species composition.
465 Clearly, other things being equal, the less accumulated N in the system, the less likely it is that a
466 community will shift to an altered species composition and the less intervention would be needed to
467 restore that community.

468 For experimental studies, the critical load-setting process specifies a minimum treatment duration of
469 1 year for inclusion in assessment (Bobbink and Hettelingh, 2011). A number of long-term N
470 deposition experiments are now available, and results from these studies are given greater weight.
471 However, even long-running experiments have a relatively short duration compared with exposure
472 time-scales of many decades of elevated nitrogen deposition. For this reason it has been stated that
473 'critical loads cannot guarantee to offer protection to ecosystems over longer timescales' (Hall et al.,
474 2015).

475 The simultaneous analysis of changes based on both cumulative and current N deposition metrics
476 gives the opportunity to compare species and community responses. Patterns of community
477 response were generally similar between current and cumulative N deposition (Fig. 2) but in many of
478 the cumulative analyses more N-responsive species were identified. There were some differences in
479 species ordering, which are to be expected as different species may be sensitive to N deposition on
480 differing time-scales. If change-points based on cumulative N deposition were equivalent to those
481 based on current N deposition it would be expected that a similar proportion would be higher and
482 lower when compared by regressing values (Supplementary Fig. 2). However, the actual distribution
483 appears skewed (Supplementary Fig. 3). In all five datasets there were more change-points which
484 were higher when based on current N deposition, and in all but one of these datasets the difference
485 was substantial. This suggests the possibility that for an equivalent level of current N deposition
486 more species change-points may be passed in sites which have received higher cumulative N
487 deposition. This possibility has significant implications for the management of N deposition, implying
488 that pollution management and policy may need to account for long-term deposition history.

489 **CONCLUSIONS**

490 Our results demonstrate that plant species across a range of habitats respond to N deposition from
491 low levels of deposition which are widely exceeded in the UK and across the developed world.
492 Across habitats there is evidence for non-linear community responses, suggesting ecological
493 thresholds and challenging current assumptions of linear, iterative development of impacts.
494 Numerous individual species change-points and most community change-points lie below the critical
495 load values which are widely used in management, science, and policy, suggesting that these values
496 may be currently set too high. With European critical load values soon to undergo periodic review,
497 there is an urgent need to adopt more systematic approaches to the synthesis of experimental
498 evidence, and make better use of field data for validation and testing (Banin et al., 2014).

499

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691 loads of nutrient nitrogen may be too high. *Atmospheric Environment* 146, 324-331.

692

693

FIGURES AND TABLES

Table 1. Details of the five datasets ultimately utilised in this study showing dataset references, UK National Vegetation Classification (NVC) communities considered, lower limit of the critical load range, dataset codes used in this study, number of data points, number of species, current N deposition range and key details of survey design. For full details of survey methodologies and habitat definitions, refer to cited publications.

| Dataset | Code | N | Species | Current N dep range (kg ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹) | Details |
|--|-----------|-----|---------|---|---|
| <i>Scottish Coastal - Wet grasslands</i> (Pakeman et al., 2015) | SC.WGRASS | 57 | 224 | 2.9-9.0 | A minimum of five, 5 m x 5 m quadrats were recorded for each site. Vascular plant cover was estimated by species and lichen and bryophyte cover was estimated collectively. NVC communities: MG8, MG11, MG13, OV28, OV29 |
| <i>Stevens - Acid grasslands</i> (Stevens et al., 2006; Stevens et al., 2004) | CS.AGRASS | 64 | 181 | 7.7-40.9 | Acid grasslands were sampled to span the N deposition gradient. Five sampling points were randomly selected within a 100 m x 100 m area. At each point a 2 m x 2 m quadrat was surveyed and species cover estimated. NVC communities: U4 |
| <i>McVean - Alpine</i> (Ross et al., 2012) | MCV.ALP | 91 | 191 | 4.9-19.4 | Surveys on Domin scale in 1 m x 1 m or 2 m x 2 m quadrats (the latter most frequent), recording all species including bryophytes and lichens. Surveys based on percentage cover. NVC communities: H13, H14, H17, H19, H20, U7, U8, U10, U12 |
| <i>Scottish Coastal - Dune slacks</i> (Lewis et al., 2016; Pakeman et al., 2015; Pakeman et al., 2016; Pakeman et al., 2017) | SC.SLAC | 65 | 246 | 2.7-11.8 | A minimum of five, 5 m x 5 m quadrats were recorded for each site. Vascular plant cover was estimated by species and lichen and bryophyte cover was estimated collectively. NVC communities: SD13, SD16, SD17 |
| <i>Scottish Coastal - Fixed dunes</i> (Lewis et al., 2016; Pakeman et al., 2015; Pakeman et al., 2016; Pakeman et al., 2017) | SC.FDU | 121 | 310 | 2.7-11.8 | A minimum of five, 5 m x 5 m quadrats were recorded for each site. Vascular plant cover was estimated by species and lichen and bryophyte cover was estimated collectively. NVC communities: CG10, CG11, CG13, SD8, SD9, SD11, SD12 |

Table 2. Current empirical critical load (CL) (Bobbink & Hettelingh, 2011) and community-level change points in response to N deposition for the five datasets meeting inclusion criteria (see Table 1 for codes and details). Results show sum(z-) and sum(z+) change points along with 5th and 95th boot-strap percentiles. Separate results are presented for analyses based on current and cumulative (30 year moving window) N deposition, and for results based on all taxa and only on taxa where the influence of co-variates could be excluded. See text for full details. Co-variates used in taxon exclusion are listed in Supplementary Table 2 and identified taxa are highlighted with “*” in Figure 1.

| Dataset | Current CL, kg N ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹ (ecosystem response) | All taxa | | | | Selected taxa excluded | | | |
|----------------------------|---|--|------------------|--|---------------|--|------------------|--|---------------|
| | | Current N deposition (kg N ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹) | | Cumulative N deposition (kg N ha ⁻¹) | | Current N deposition (kg N ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹) | | Cumulative N deposition (kg N ha ⁻¹) | |
| | | Sum (z-) | Sum (z+) | Sum (z-) | Sum (z+) | Sum (z-) | Sum (z+) | Sum (z-) | Sum (z+) |
| SC.WGRASS (wet grassland) | 20-30 (↑ graminoids; ↓ diversity) | 3.9 (3.5-4.9) | 7.1 (3.0-7.2) | 86 (80-98) | 75 (68-163) | 3.9 (3.5-4.9) | 7.1 (3.0-7.2) | 86 (82-97) | 70 (68-229) |
| CS.AGRASS (acid grassland) | 10-15 (↑ graminoids; ↓ diversity) | 13.2 (9.0-13.7) | 23.4 (13.2-30.6) | 216 (205-514) | 858 (399-884) | 9.0 (8.7-12.8) | 30.6 (11.9-31.3) | 230 (196-313) | 883 (221-931) |
| MCV.ALP (alpine) | 5-15 (↓ moss & lichen cover) | 12.3 (6.3-12.3) | 11.2 (11.0-13.5) | 233 (136-242) | 238 (233-251) | 6.3 (6.0-12.3) | 12.3 (11.2-14.0) | 241 (130-247) | 238 (236-251) |
| SC.SLAC (slacks) | 10-20 (↑ graminoid biomass) | 4.8 (2.9-5.3) | 7.5 (3.4-7.6) | 90 (82-163) | 245 (68-270) | 5.0 (2.9-5.8) | 7.5 (3.6-7.6) | 90 (82-160) | 245 (68-270) |
| SC.FDU (fixed dunes) | 8-15 (↑ graminoids; ↓ diversity) | 5.0 (3.9-6.8) | 4.8 (3.9-5.8) | 131 (98-168) | 132 (102-247) | 5.3 (3.9-6.8) | 4.8 (3.9-5.9) | 131 (87-171) | 132 (98-282) |

Figure Captions

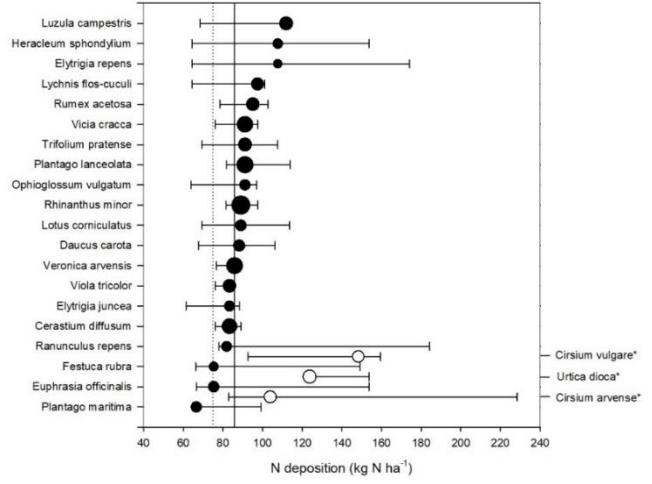
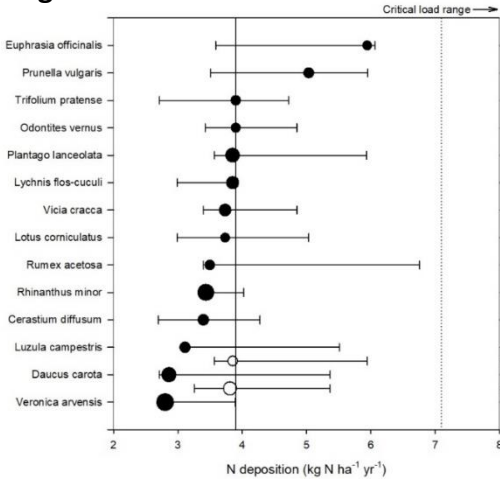
Figure 1. Species change-points for five vegetation datasets from UK semi-natural habitats. Separate results are presented for analyses based on current annual (left), and 30-year cumulative N deposition (right). A) Wet Grassland (SC.WGRASS); B) Acid Grassland (CS.AGRASS); C) Alpine (MCV.ALP); D) Dune Slack (SC.SLAC); E) Fixed Dune (SC.FDU). See Table 1 for details. Plots show species showing high purity and reliability negative (black circles) and positive (white circles) change points in response to nitrogen deposition and boot-strap 5% and 95% quantiles. Vertical lines show overall community sum(z-) [solid line] and sum(z+) [dotted line] change-points. Shaded bands show critical load ranges; where not shown the critical load lies at higher deposition levels out-with the plotted range. Species highlighted with “*” have change-points at equivalent positions on other environmental gradients.

Figure 2. Sum(z) plots for five vegetation datasets from UK semi-natural habitats, see Table 1 for details. Plots show sum(z-) [filled circles] and sum(z+) [open circles] scores for all possible change-points along the N deposition gradient. Separate results are presented for analyses based on current annual (left), and 30-year cumulative N deposition (right). Vertical lines show overall community sum(z-) [solid line] and sum(z+) [dotted line] change-points. Shaded bands show critical load ranges; where not shown the critical load lies at higher deposition levels outwith the plotted range. Critical loads are based only on current N deposition.

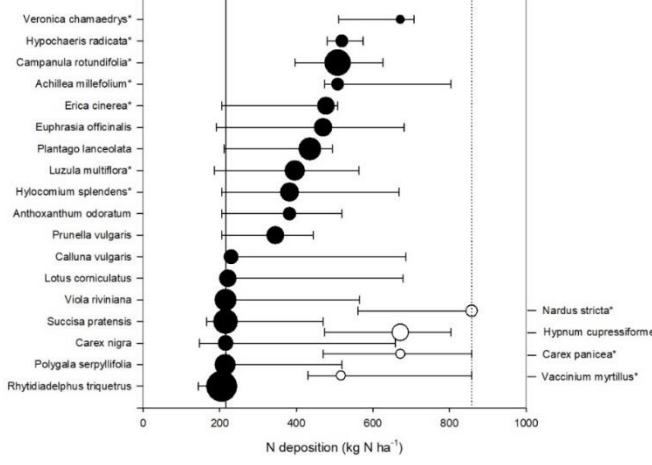
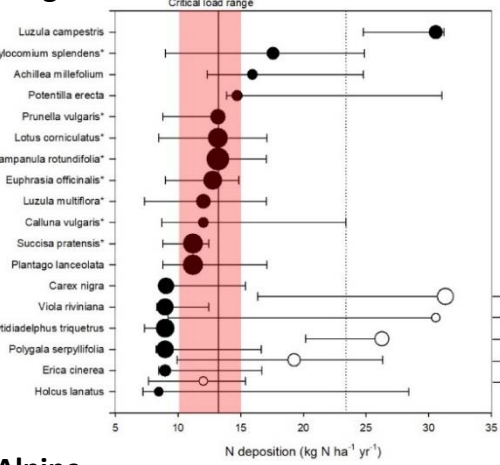
CURRENT N DEPOSITION

CUMULATIVE N DEPOSITION

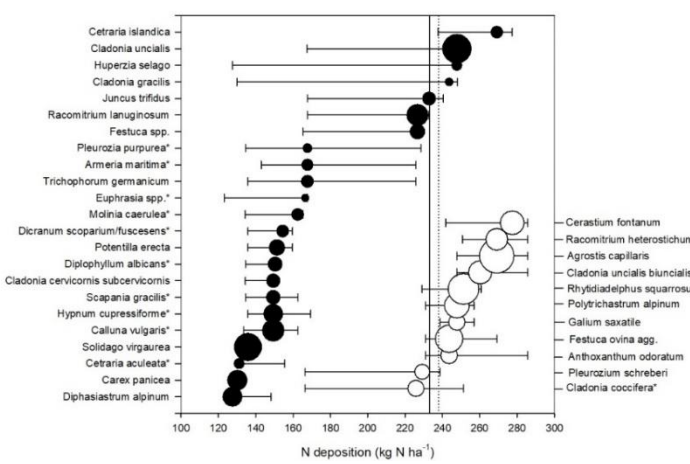
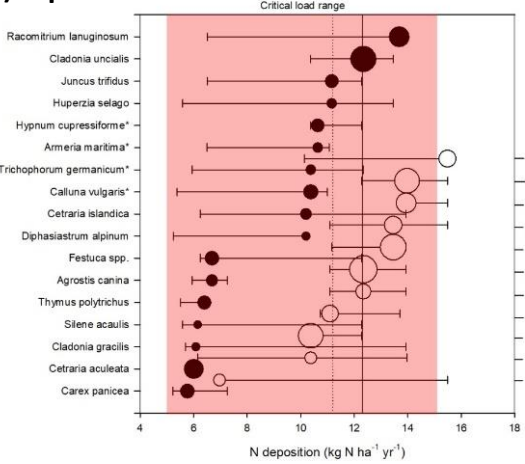
a) Wet grassland



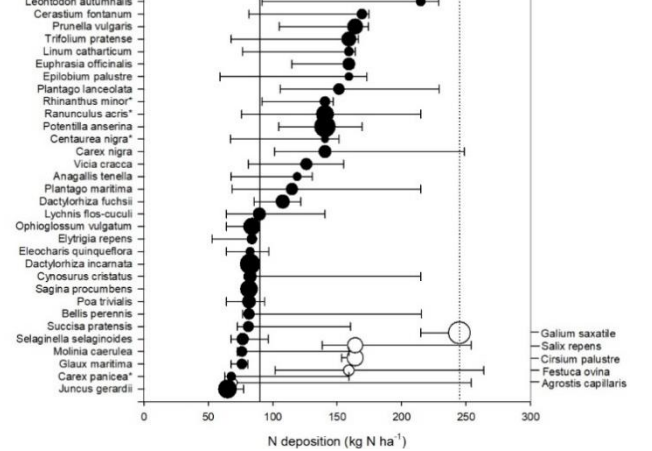
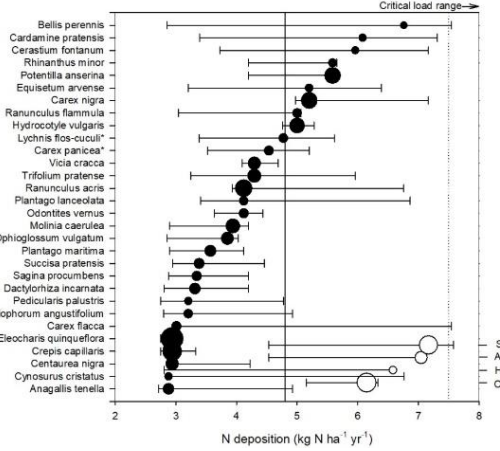
b) Acid grassland



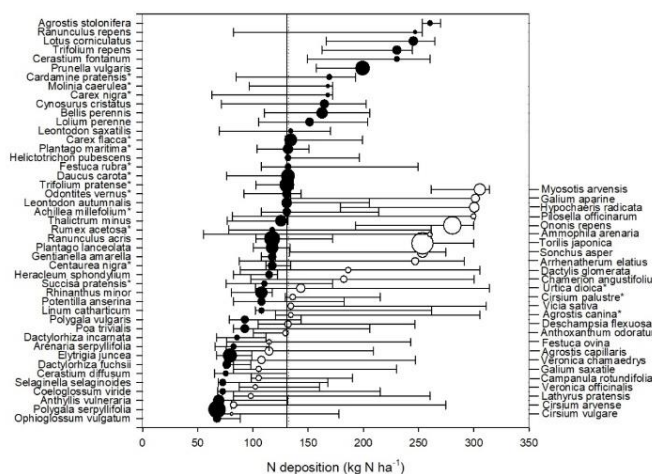
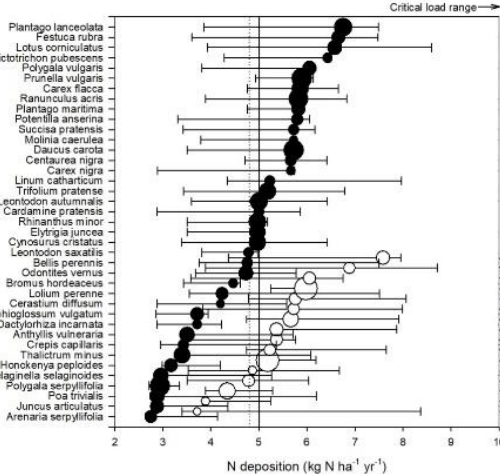
c) Alpine

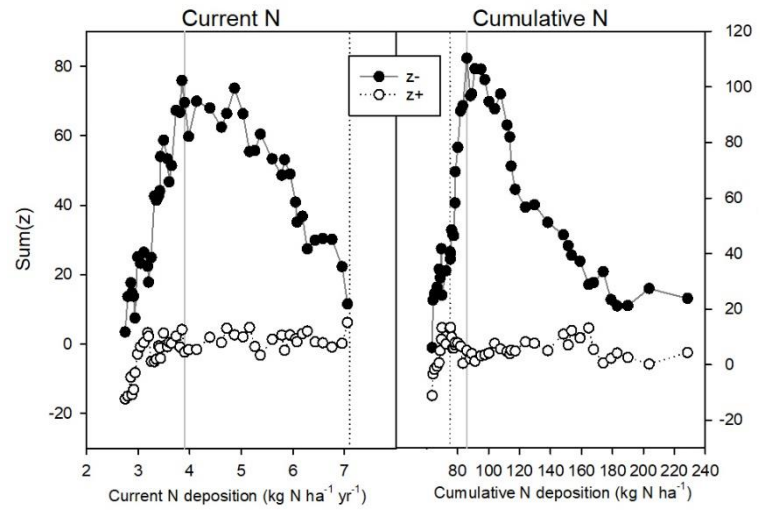
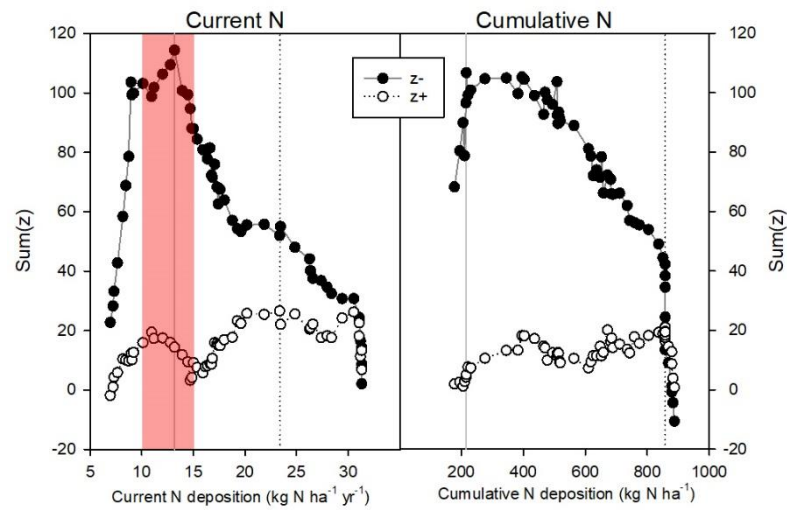
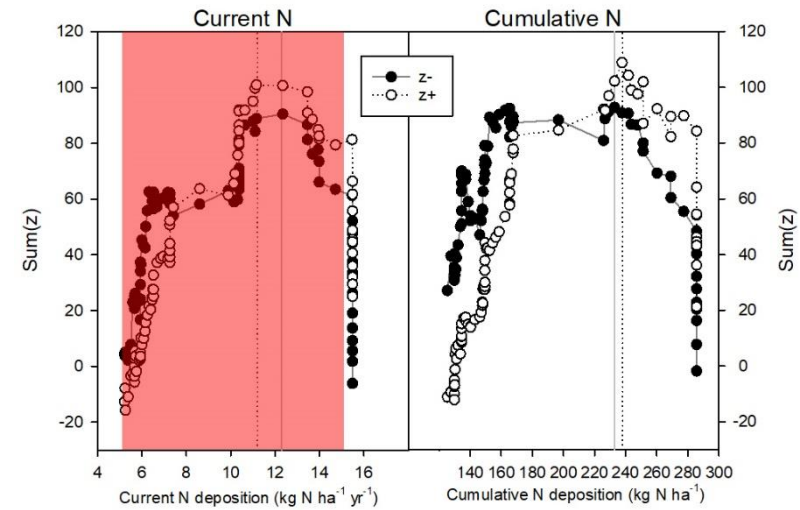
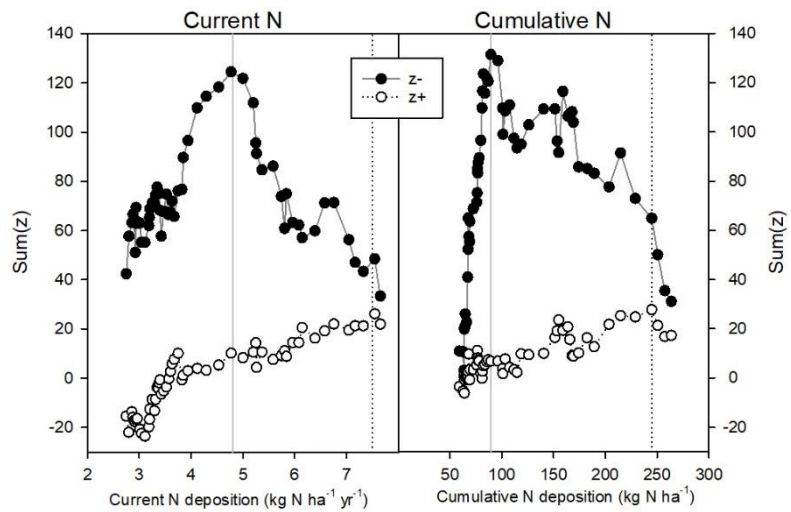
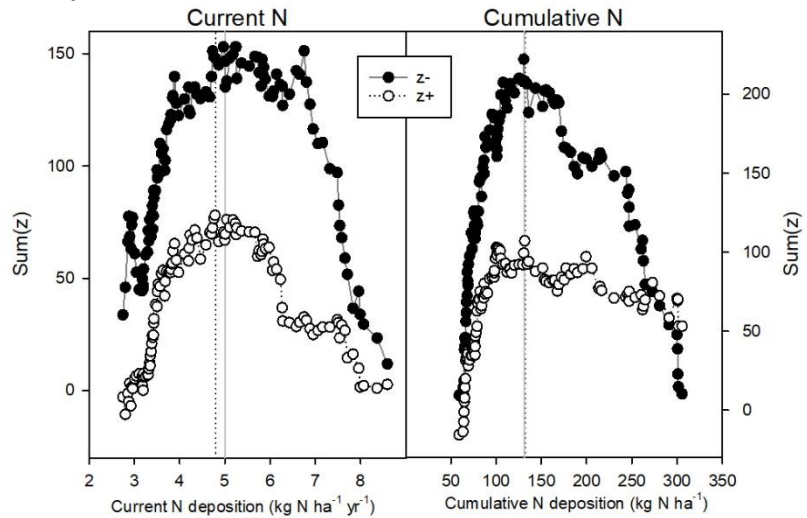


d) Dune slack



e) Fixed dune



a) Wet grassland**b) Acid grassland****c) Alpine****d) Dune slack****e) Fixed dune**

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

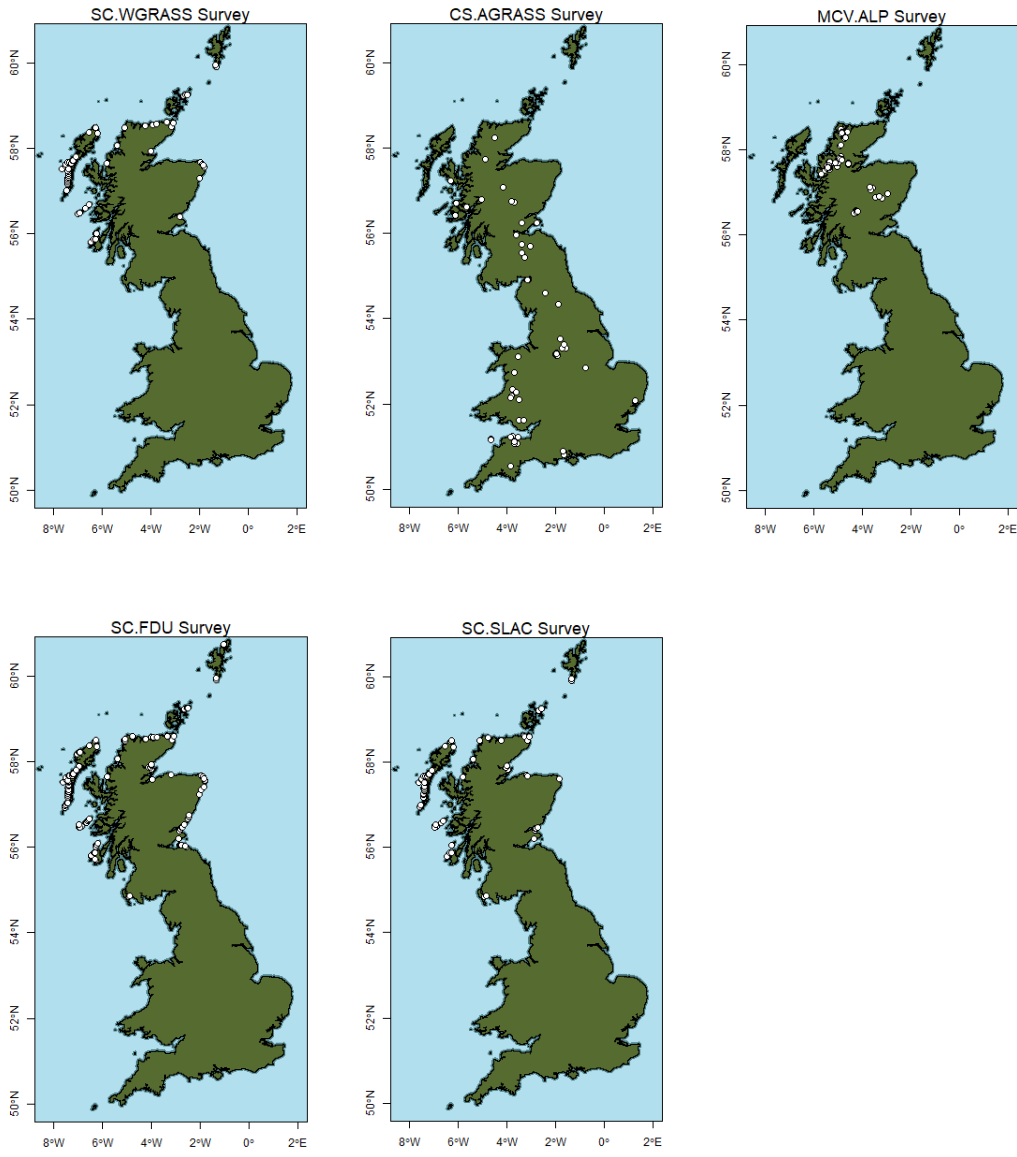
Supplementary Table 1. Details of all datasets considered in this study and rationale for inclusion/exclusion.

| Dataset | Code | N | Species | Current N dep range (kg ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹) | Exclusion stage. |
|---|-----------|----|---------|---|---|
| Birse - Calluna heaths (Britton et al., 2009; Britton et al., 2017a) | B.CHEATH | 67 | 233 | 4.5-26.3 | RDA significance testing P>0.01 (current N only). |
| Birse - <i>Vaccinium</i> heaths (Britton et al., 2009; Britton et al., 2017a) | B.VHEATH | 33 | 152 | 7.9-26.3 | RDA significance testing P>0.01 (current N only). |
| Edmondson- heather moorlands (Edmondson et al., 2013) | EDM | 14 | 19 | 20.2-28.7 | RDA significance testing P>0.01 (current N only). |
| McVean - moorlands (Ross et al., 2012) | MCV.MOOR | 79 | 200 | 3.9-19.6 | RDA significance testing P>0.01 (current N only). |
| Moorland Regional Survey- heaths (Caporn et al., 2014) | MRS | 22 | 50 | 6.9-33.7 | RDA significance testing P>0.01 (current N only). |
| Scottish Coastal - heathlands (Lewis et al., 2016; Pakeman et al., 2015; Pakeman et al., 2016; Pakeman et al., 2017) | SC.HEATH | 36 | 173 | 2.7-11.8 | RDA significance testing P>0.01 (current N only). |
| Scottish Coastal - wet heathlands (Lewis et al., 2016; Pakeman et al., 2015; Pakeman et al., 2016; Pakeman et al., 2017) | SC.WHEATH | 38 | 174 | 2.9-10.7 | RDA significance testing P>0.01 (both N variables). |
| Terrestrial Umbrella - lowland heaths (Field et al., 2014) | TU.LH | 27 | 87 | 4.8-18.1 | RDA significance testing P>0.01 (both N variables). |
| Terrestrial Umbrella - upland heaths (Field et al., 2014) | TU.UH | 24 | 78 | 5.6-29.5 | RDA significance testing P>0.01 (both N variables). |
| Birse - acid grasslands (Britton et al., 2009; Britton et al., 2017a; Britton et al., 2017b; Mitchell et al., 2017) | B.AGRASS | 42 | 192 | 4.6-21.8 | RDA significance testing P>0.01 (both N variables). |
| Birse - calcareous grasslands (Mitchell et al., 2017) | B.CGRASS | 41 | 209 | 5.8-21.6 | RDA significance testing P>0.01 (current N only). |
| Birse - Lolium grasslands (Mitchell et al., 2017) | B.LGRASS | 46 | 96 | 4.6-19.0 | RDA significance testing P>0.01 (both N variables). |
| Birse - mesotrophic grasslands (Mitchell et al., 2017) | B.MGRASS | 73 | 178 | 4.0-23.3 | RDA significance testing P>0.01 (both N variables). |
| Birse - wet grasslands (Mitchell et al., 2017) | B.WGRASS | 56 | 248 | 3.3-31.1 | RDA significance testing P>0.01 (current N only). |
| McVean – grassland (Ross et al., 2012) | MCV.GRASS | 56 | 218 | 5.1-18.8 | RDA significance testing P>0.01 (both N variables). |
| Scottish Coastal - acid grasslands (Lewis et al., 2016; Pakeman et al., 2015; Pakeman et al., 2016; Pakeman et al., 2017) | SC.AGRASS | 53 | 230 | 2.7-11.2 | TITAN purity/reliability test (>30% low purity or reliability, both N variables). |
| Scottish Coastal - cliffs (Lewis et al., 2016; Pakeman et al., 2015; Pakeman et al., 2016; Pakeman et al., 2017) | SC.CLIFF | 38 | 175 | 2.8-10.7 | RDA significance testing P>0.01 (both N variables). |
| Scottish Coastal - unimproved grasslands (Lewis et al., 2016; Pakeman et al., 2015; Pakeman et al., 2016; Pakeman et al., 2017) | SC.UGRASS | 76 | 296 | 2.7-9.0 | RDA significance testing P>0.01 (both N variables). |
| Scottish Coastal - wet grasslands (Lewis et al., 2016; Pakeman et al., 2015; Pakeman et al., 2016; Pakeman et al., 2017) | SC.WGRASS | 57 | 224 | 2.9-9.0 | Included. |
| Stevens - acid Grasslands (Stevens et al., 2006; Stevens et al., 2004) | CS.AGRASS | 64 | 181 | 7.7-40.9 | Included. |
| Birse - springs (Britton et al., 2009; Britton et al., 2017b) | B.SPRI | 25 | 191 | 5.3-20.4 | RDA significance testing P>0.01 (both N variables). |

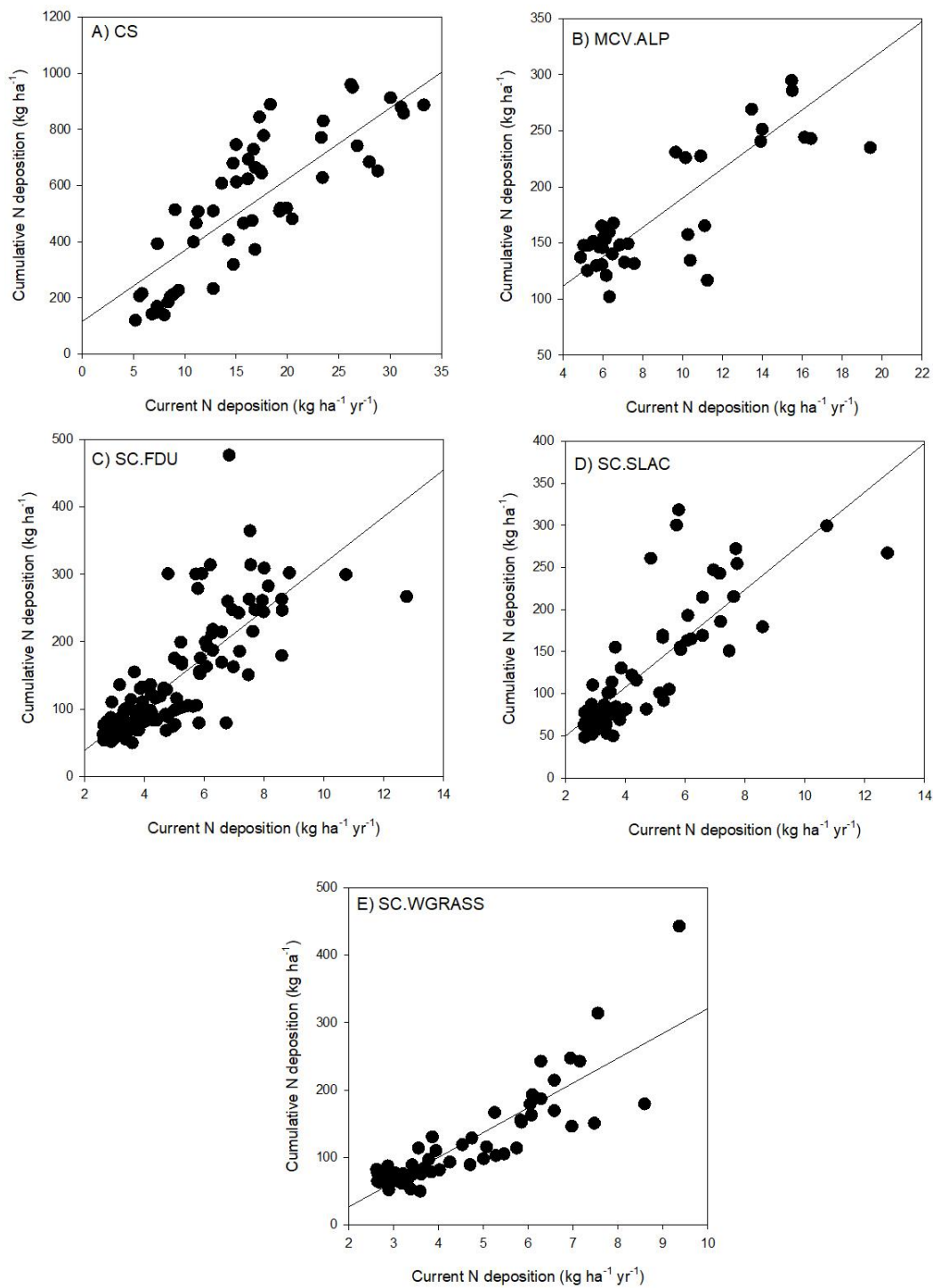
| | | | | | |
|---|----------|-----|-----|----------|---|
| Birse - swamps (Britton et al., 2017b) | B.SWAM | 33 | 160 | 3.6-20.9 | RDA significance testing $P > 0.01$ (both N variables). |
| McVean - wetlands (Ross et al., 2012) | MCV-WETL | 28 | 170 | 5.1-15.8 | RDA significance testing $P > 0.01$ (both N variables). |
| Payne - bogs (Payne, unpublished) | PAYN | 33 | 81 | 3.4-29.2 | TITAN purity/reliability test (>30% low purity or reliability, current N only). |
| Scottish Coastal - tall grass mire (Lewis et al., 2016; Pakeman et al., 2015; Pakeman et al., 2016; Pakeman et al., 2017) | SC.TGM | 51 | 233 | 2.7-10.7 | RDA significance testing $P > 0.01$ (both N variables). |
| Terrestrial Umbrella - bogs (Field et al., 2014) | TU.BOG | 29 | 97 | 4.8-26.7 | RDA significance testing $P > 0.01$ (current N only). |
| Armitage - <i>Racomitrium</i> heaths (Armitage et al., 2014) | ARM.RHE | 26 | 58 | 8.9-47.9 | RDA significance testing $P > 0.01$ (current N only). |
| Birse - <i>Racomitrium</i> heaths (Britton et al., 2009) | B.RHE | 77 | 214 | 5.8-31.2 | TITAN purity/reliability test (>30% low purity or reliability, both N variables). |
| Britton - <i>Racomitrium</i> heaths (Britton et al., 2018) | BRI.RHE | 15 | 66 | 6.0-34.7 | RDA significance testing $P > 0.01$ (both N variables). |
| McVean - alpine (Ross et al., 2012) | MCV.ALP | 91 | 191 | 4.9-19.4 | Included. |
| CEH dune grasslands (Aggenbach et al., 2017; Beaumont et al., 2014; Jones et al., 2008; Jones et al., 2004) | CEH.DUGR | 34 | 345 | 3.4-13.1 | RDA significance testing $P > 0.01$ (both N variables). |
| CEH dune slacks (Aggenbach et al., 2017; Beaumont et al., 2014; Jones et al., 2008; Jones et al., 2004) | CEH.SLAC | 29 | 362 | 2.8-11.4 | RDA significance testing $P > 0.01$ (both N variables). |
| Scottish Coastal - dune slacks (Lewis et al., 2016; Pakeman et al., 2015; Pakeman et al., 2016; Pakeman et al., 2017) | SC.SLAC | 65 | 246 | 2.7-11.8 | Included. |
| Scottish Coastal - fixed dunes (Lewis et al., 2016; Pakeman et al., 2015; Pakeman et al., 2016; Pakeman et al., 2017) | SC.FDU | 121 | 310 | 2.7-11.8 | Included. |
| Scottish Coastal - mobile dunes (Lewis et al., 2016; Pakeman et al., 2015; Pakeman et al., 2016; Pakeman et al., 2017) | SC.MDU | 60 | 136 | 2.7-11.8 | RDA significance testing $P > 0.01$ (both N variables). |
| Terrestrial Umbrella - sand dunes (Field et al., 2014) | TU.SD | 24 | 190 | 3.9-12.5 | RDA significance testing $P > 0.01$ (current N only). |

Supplementary Table 2. Co-variates identified in RDA and used in change-point filtering. Co-variates are listed in order of selection in model-building.

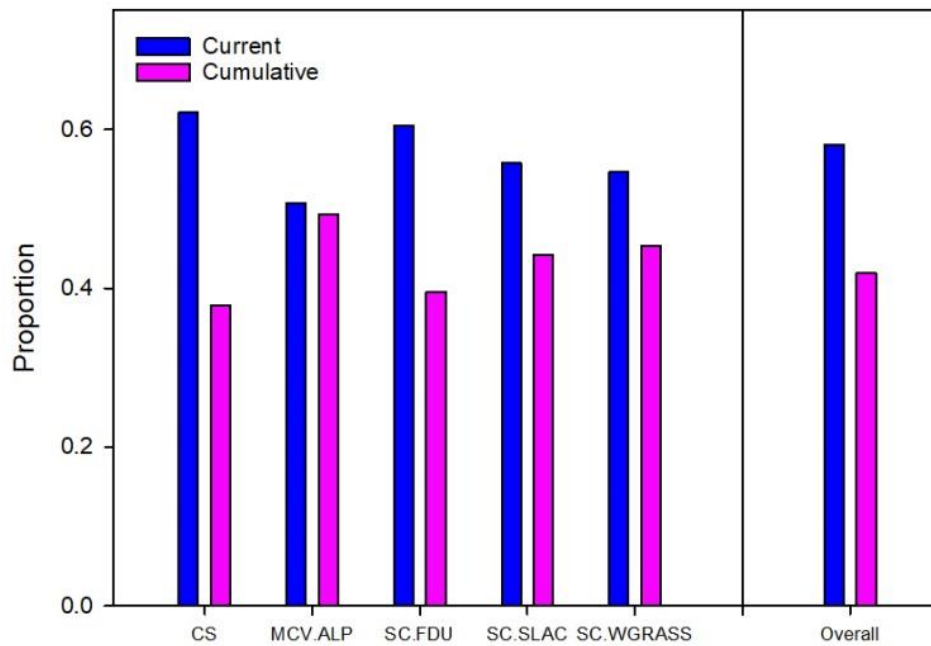
| Dataset | Co-variates identified | |
|-----------|--|--|
| | Current N deposition | Cumulative N deposition |
| SC.WGRASS | Altitude, mean annual precipitation, mean annual temperature | Altitude, mean annual precipitation, mean annual temperature |
| CS.AGRASS | S deposition, mean maximum temperature, mean annual precipitation, altitude, management index. | S deposition, mean maximum temperature, mean annual precipitation, altitude, management index. |
| MCV.ALP | Altitude, S deposition, aspect, mean annual precipitation, mean annual temperature, slope. | Altitude, S deposition, mean annual precipitation, aspect, mean annual temperature, slope. |
| SC.SLAC | Mean annual precipitation, mean annual temperature, S deposition. | Mean annual precipitation, mean annual temperature. |
| SC.FDU | Mean annual precipitation, mean annual temperature, altitude. | Mean annual precipitation, mean annual temperature. |



Supplementary Figure 1. Locations of sites in the five focal datasets.



Supplementary Figure 2. Correlations between current and 30-year cumulative N deposition in the five focal datasets. Plots showing linear regressions used to produce Supplementary Figure 3.



Supplementary Figure 3. Proportion of change-points higher in either a TITAN analysis based on cumulative deposition, or a TITAN analysis based on current deposition with values subsequently converted to cumulative deposition based on the overall correlation between cumulative and current deposition in each dataset (Supplementary Figure 2).

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