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# A methodology to link national and local information for spatial targeting of ammonia mitigation efforts

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## Abstract

The effects of atmospheric nitrogen (N) deposition are evident in terrestrial ecosystems worldwide, with eutrophication and acidification leading to significant changes in species composition. Substantial reductions in N deposition from nitrogen oxides emissions have been achieved in recent decades. By contrast, ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>) emissions from agriculture have not decreased substantially and are typically highly spatially variable, making efficient mitigation challenging. One solution is to target NH<sub>3</sub> mitigation measures spatially in source landscapes to maximize the benefits for nature conservation. The paper develops an approach to link national scale data and detailed local data to help identify suitable measures for spatial targeting of local sources near designated Special Areas of Conservation (SACs). The methodology combines high-resolution national data on emissions, deposition and source attribution with local data on agricultural management and site conditions.

Application of the methodology for the full set of 240 SACs in England found that agriculture contributes ~45 % of total N deposition. Activities associated with cattle farming represented 54 % of agricultural NH<sub>3</sub> emissions within 2 km of the SACs, making them a major contributor to local N deposition, followed by mineral fertilizer application (21%). Incorporation of local information on agricultural management practices at seven example SACs provided the means to correct outcomes compared with national-scale emission factors. The outcomes show how national scale datasets can provide information on N deposition threats at landscape to national scales, while local-scale information helps to understand the feasibility of mitigation measures, including the impact of detailed spatial targeting on N deposition rates to designated sites.

**Keywords:** ammonia; dry deposition; emission abatement; nitrogen; UK

## 1. Introduction

Atmospheric nitrogen (N) deposition is an international issue, with effects of eutrophication and acidification evident worldwide. Throughout Europe, increases in N deposition have resulted in changes to species composition, with declines in N-sensitive species at the expense of a smaller number of fast growing species that favour high N supply (Dise *et al.*, 2011). Thresholds of N deposition are currently exceeded in > 50 % of Europe, and will continue to be exceeded under current projections of N emissions (Hettelingh *et al.*, 2008). In the UK, N deposition is estimated to have almost doubled throughout the 20<sup>th</sup> century (Fowler *et al.*, 2004), with increased emissions of nitrogen oxides (NO<sub>x</sub>, mainly from motorised transport, power generation and other combustion sources) and ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>, mainly from agricultural sources). Although substantial efforts in UK and European policies in recent decades have led to a considerable reduction in NO<sub>x</sub> emissions (RoTAP, 2012), much less has been achieved in reducing NH<sub>3</sub> emissions. Around 82 % of UK NH<sub>3</sub> emissions are estimated to derive from agriculture (Misselbrook *et al.*, 2013). As these are typically diffuse sources, it has sometimes been argued that it is much harder to implement emission controls, compared with NO<sub>x</sub>, which is often associated with point sources (RoTAP, 2012). However, in the UK there has also been a low political willingness to implement NH<sub>3</sub> control measures in

45 agriculture, compared with other countries, such as the Netherlands and Denmark, which have  
46 made more progress in reducing emissions (Sutton *et al.* 2003; Bleeker *et al.* 2009, e.g. Jimmink *et*  
47 *al.*, 2014; NERI, 2007).

48  
49 A wide range of potential mitigation measures exists to reduce NH<sub>3</sub> emissions from agricultural  
50 sources. Measures to reduce N deposition include both source-oriented technical measures, which  
51 aim to minimise emissions at source (e.g. covering slurry stores; Bittman *et al.*, 2014) and landscape-  
52 oriented measures. Landscape-oriented measures aim to optimise spatial relationships between  
53 emission sources and sensitive habitats. Such measures include minimising agricultural activity  
54 around sites (e.g. controlling spreading within buffer zones close to the sensitive habitat areas) or  
55 planting trees to recapture and disperse emissions (e.g. Dragosits *et al.*, 2006; Bealey *et al.*, 2016).  
56 Under current rates of N deposition, it is estimated that around 60 % of SACs (European  
57 Commission, 2016) remain under substantial threat, with thresholds for atmospheric N pollution  
58 effects exceeded both in the case of critical loads for total nitrogen deposition (Hall and Smith, 2015)  
59 and for critical levels for NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations (e.g. Hallsworth *et al.*, 2010; Vogt *et al.*, 2013).

60  
61 Concentrations of NH<sub>3</sub> (and subsequent deposition of reactive N) from agricultural sources are highly  
62 spatially variable (e.g. Vogt *et al.*, 2013; Dragosits *et al.*, 2002; Sutton *et al.*, 1998) making it  
63 challenging to avoid critical load and critical level exceedance across all designated sites at a national  
64 scale. This highlights the need to interface national level and local level strategies. In particular, to  
65 reduce N deposition effectively at designated sites, areas of high NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations need to be  
66 reliably identified, which can allow NH<sub>3</sub> mitigation measures to be targeted spatially to the most  
67 critical locations (e.g. Dragosits *et al.*, 2002; Theobald *et al.*, 2004; Dragosits *et al.*, 2006; Hallsworth  
68 *et al.*, 2010).

69  
70 This paper presents an approach for identifying the main sources of N deposition at Natura 2000  
71 sites and ascertain the most effective measures to target local decreases of deposition at each site. It  
72 focuses on where to apply NH<sub>3</sub> mitigation measures rather than an analysis of the different  
73 abatement measures themselves. This paper's focus is on the case of protecting Special Areas of  
74 Conservation (SACs), but the approach is generally applicable to other regions and natural habitat  
75 designations. The methodology is first applied to all 240 SACs in England by applying national  
76 datasets. It is then applied by combining national and local datasets for seven example SACs to  
77 provide insights on how local information can help refine the assessment.

78

## 79 **2. Methods**

80 The main emission sources contributing to N deposition were identified for each SAC in England,  
81 which are part of the European Union's Natura 2000 network. NH<sub>3</sub> emissions were also estimated in  
82 areas up to 2 km surrounding each site, and in more detail for agricultural sources, which are the  
83 largest contributor of NH<sub>3</sub> emissions. In addition, seven sites were assessed in more detail, to  
84 establish whether supplementary local data (e.g. the direction of prevailing winds) and refinements  
85 to the methodology could lead to improved targeting of measures. Figure 1 illustrates the draft  
86 framework devised to assess designated sites for N threats.

87

## << **FIGURE 1** >>

88 **Figure 1.** Draft framework for assessing N threats at designated sites (adapted from Dragosits *et al.*, 2015a)

89 The datasets used to determine the threat of atmospheric N input to sensitive protected features at  
90 SACs include: i) modelled atmospheric concentration and deposition data; ii) high-resolution  
91 agricultural statistics for livestock numbers and crop areas; iii) farm management and practice  
92 information; iv) aerial images; and v) meteorological data. A draft framework for the approach used  
93 is summarised in Figure 1. The following sub-sections outline how this framework may be applied  
94 and how national and local information sources have been used to assess N deposition threats to  
95 designated sites in England.

## 96 2.1. Data sources

### 97 National data sets

98 The main emission sources contributing to N deposition at each SAC were estimated using modelled  
99 source attribution data. Source attribution data are derived by performing multiple model runs of an  
100 atmospheric transport and deposition model, with each source type removed in turn. N deposition  
101 attributed to individual emission source categories (such as agriculture, road transport etc.) or  
102 individual large point sources (such as power stations) can then be calculated as a proportion of total  
103 deposition to each model grid square.

104 In this study, N deposition estimates for the year 2005 were produced at a 5 km grid resolution using  
105 the Fine Resolution Atmospheric Multi-pollutant Exchange model (FRAME, e.g. Dore *et al.*, 2014;  
106 Bealey *et al.*, 2014). FRAME is a Lagrangian atmospheric chemistry transport model with the relevant  
107 atmospheric processes (vertical diffusion, chemical transformation, wet and dry deposition)  
108 calculated in a moving vertical column of air comprising 33 layers with a variable layer depth from 1  
109 m at the surface to 200 m for the upper layer. The model utilises emission estimates of NH<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub> and  
110 SO<sub>2</sub>, to calculate atmospheric concentrations of gases. Chemical reactions include both aqueous and  
111 dry phase oxidation and the conversion of gases to form particulate matter (ammonium sulphate  
112 and ammonium nitrate). Long range transport is driven by year specific wind direction and wind  
113 speed frequency roses (Dore *et al.*, 2006) The model uses a resistance analogy within a 'big leaf  
114 model' to calculate the dry deposition velocity of gases and particulates to vegetation (Smith *et al.*,  
115 2000). Wet deposition is calculated using scavenging coefficients combined with annual precipitation  
116 estimates based on the UK Met Office national precipitation monitoring network. Deposition  
117 estimates are calculated for different vegetation types including forest, moorland, grassland, arable,  
118 urban and water. The boundary conditions for the concentrations of pollutants in air used to  
119 initialise a UK simulation were calculated with a larger scale European simulation using a 50 km grid  
120 resolution and emissions from the EMEP database (<http://www.ceip.at>). The model has been used  
121 to calculate historical and future trends in sulphur and nitrogen deposition as well as the exceedance  
122 of critical loads (Matejko *et al.*, 2009). Source-receptor relationships generated by the model were  
123 used in integrated assessment modelling to determine cost-effective emission abatement strategies  
124 to protect natural ecosystems and human health (Oxley *et al.*, 2013)

125 Comparison of the modelled concentrations of gases and particulates in air and of sulphur and  
126 nitrogen compounds in precipitation with measurements from the national monitoring networks  
127 demonstrated that the model was 'fit for purpose' and performed well in comparison with other  
128 atmospheric chemical transport models (Dore *et al.*, 2015). These data incorporate UK estimates of  
129 NO<sub>x</sub> and NH<sub>3</sub> emissions (National Atmospheric Emission Inventory (NAEI), [www.naei.org.uk](http://www.naei.org.uk)), with  
130 agricultural emissions distributed using the AENEID model (e.g. Dragosits *et al.* 1998). N deposition  
131 estimates from 160 source categories (e.g. including agriculture, road transport, shipping, industry)  
132 were used in this study.

133 In addition, high-resolution agricultural census data were used to provide information on livestock  
134 numbers and crop areas for characterising key local emission sources and emission densities in the  
135 vicinity of SACs. The English agricultural census contributes to the EC Farm Structure Survey (FSS),  
136 which gathers information on livestock numbers and crop areas from individual agricultural holdings  
137 for each of the 27 EU member states every 10 years. The 2013 agricultural census data used here  
138 were supplied at a holding level by the Department for Food and Rural Affairs (Defra) and is based  
139 on a survey of between ~50,000 holdings a year, with a full census carried out every 10 years (Defra,  
140 2013). For holdings where no survey is carried out, values are imputed based on the survey data  
141 received and corresponding trends derived from these and previous data available for these  
142 holdings.

143 Data on the occurrence of large pig and poultry farms were available from the register of permits  
144 under the Industrial Emissions Directive (IED; European Commission, 2016b), which applies to farms  
145 with > 40,000 places for poultry, > 2,000 places for production pigs (> 30 kg) or > 750 places for  
146 sows. In contrast to the agricultural census data (at the holding level), the location and capacity of  
147 these farms is freely available to the public. Ordnance Survey "Strategi" data were used to determine  
148 the proximity of SACs to major roads ([https://www.ordnancesurvey.co.uk/business-and-  
149 government/products/strategi.html](https://www.ordnancesurvey.co.uk/business-and-government/products/strategi.html)).

150

#### 151 **Local data sources**

152 Seven sites were further assessed, using more detailed local data sets. These sites were Birklands  
153 and Bilhaugh SAC (53.204 N, 1.075 W), Culm Grasslands SAC (50.980 N, 3.647 W), Ingleborough  
154 Complex SAC (54.160 N, 2.373 W), Mole Gap to Reigate SAC (51.265 N, 0.280 W), North York Moors  
155 SAC (54.409 N, 0.904 W) and Walton Moss SAC (54.990 N, 2.775 W).

156 At these sites, Google Earth imagery was used to identify potential additional sources and provide  
157 further information on the sources already identified. Areas with high NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations were  
158 identified using 1 km grid resolution NH<sub>3</sub> concentration data (1 km grid version of FRAME). Wind  
159 statistics taken from weather stations nearby to each of the sites (windfinder.com) were used to  
160 assess local wind conditions (where available). Findings from a parallel study by Misselbrook *et al.*  
161 (2015) were used to assess agricultural management practices in the areas surrounding some of the  
162 sites.

#### 163 **2.2. Identifying main emission sources contributing to N deposition at a site**

164 All SACs were assessed to determine the main sources of N deposition received by a given site. The  
165 source attribution dataset was used to help characterise sites, based on the origin of the N  
166 deposition they were estimated to receive. At SACs that intersect multiple 5 km source attribution  
167 grid squares, the intersecting grid square with the highest total N deposition estimate was used  
168 based on the requirement of the Habitats Directive to adopt a precautionary approach, as there is  
169 no dataset available with the location of designated features within UK SACs. The emission sources  
170 used in the FRAME model were aggregated into the following broader source categories:

171

172 **a) Lowland agriculture (many diffuse sources):** Emissions associated with livestock farming  
173 and mineral fertiliser application were considered a main source of N deposition where  
174 deposition from all agricultural sources contribute > 20 % of total N deposition.

175 **b) Vicinity of Large intensive pig and poultry farms:** Intensive agriculture was considered a  
176 main potential source of N deposition at sites within 2 km of an intensive pig/poultry farm  
177 above the threshold for the Industrial Emissions Directive and where > 20 % of N deposition  
178 originated from agricultural activities.

- 179 **c) Non-agricultural (point) source(s):** Non-agricultural emissions were considered a main  
180 source of N deposition where deposition from such sources contributes > 20 % of total N  
181 deposition. These sources include emissions from point combustion sources (such as energy  
182 production, refineries), international shipping, non-road transport (i.e. rail, local shipping, air  
183 travel), and non-agricultural NH<sub>3</sub> sources (such as pets, wild animals, sewage sludge,  
184 composting, household products, humans, and landfill).
- 185 **d) Vicinity of major roads:** Road traffic was considered a main contributor to N deposition if it  
186 accounted for > 10 % of total N deposition to the relevant grid square and if a main road  
187 (motorway, primary or A-road) was within 200 m of the SAC boundary.
- 188 **e) Remote (upland) sites affected by long-range N input:** N deposition was considered a  
189 regional issue when wet deposition was > 40 % of total N deposition received by a site.

190  
191 The 200 m road threshold was based on the findings in Cape *et al.* (2004), who suggest that local  
192 enhancement of NO<sub>x</sub> and NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations near roads is limited to within 200 m. A threshold of 10  
193 % of total N deposition was used for road transport, rather than the 20 % threshold used for other  
194 sources, as deposition from road transport does not typically account for a large proportion of the  
195 total N deposition to a 5 km grid square, due to their linear nature.

### 196 **2.3. Quantifying high-resolution agricultural emissions**

197  
198 In an additional analysis, agricultural NH<sub>3</sub> emissions were estimated for the area surrounding each of  
199 the designated sites, using 2012 agricultural census data. Buffer zones around each of the SACs were  
200 created to estimate the agricultural NH<sub>3</sub> emission density for the immediate area surrounding all the  
201 SACs in England, indicating the average intensity of the N-emitting agricultural activities, and to  
202 determine all major agricultural sectors contributing to emissions within this zone. A buffer zone of 2  
203 km has been used in this study, to quantify agricultural emissions around each site. The value of 2  
204 km was selected, as it is the approximate distance from a medium-large poultry farm (e.g. 400,000  
205 laying hens) beyond which the contribution of the poultry farm was marginal compared with the  
206 contribution of other sources in a mixed agricultural landscape (Dragosits *et al.* 2006). Additionally a  
207 2 km buffer zone is used when regulating (IED) farms in the UK, with farms required to conduct a  
208 detailed impact assessment when they are within 2 km of a designated site (Environment Agency,  
209 2005).

210  
211 UK average NH<sub>3</sub> emission factors (EFs) from the agricultural emission inventory (Misselbrook *et al.*,  
212 2013) were applied at the holding level data to estimate emission densities surrounding each SAC.  
213 Agricultural NH<sub>3</sub> emissions were estimated separately for mineral fertiliser and livestock sources.  
214 Emissions from livestock sources include all emissions associated with livestock and manure  
215 management (i.e. housing, grazing, manure storage and spreading). In order to comply with the data  
216 license agreement for this study model results were aggregated to show results that refer to at least  
217 five agricultural holdings. In extensive agricultural regions, where this requirement was not met with  
218 the standard 2 km buffer zone, the zone around the SAC boundary was increased in size to include  
219 additional agricultural holdings until the disclosivity criterion was met. The 2 km zone of influence  
220 had to be extended for 9 % of the SACs studied, to a maximum of 5 km.

### 221 **2.4. Detailed, site-level analyses**

222  
223 Seven example SACs were assessed in more detail, in addition to the modelling carried out for all  
224 SACs (as discussed in previous sections). This more detailed analysis was carried out to establish  
225 whether supplementary data (e.g. the direction of prevailing winds) and further refinement of the

226 methodology (e.g. considering constituent parts of each site individually) could lead to improved  
227 targeting of measures. In summary, the following methodological refinements were made:

- 228
- 229 - As some SACs are very large ( $> 1,000 \text{ km}^2$ ) and complex (consisting of multiple spatially  
230 separate parts, sometimes separated from each other by 10s of kilometres), sites were re-  
231 assessed at the sub-site level, using individual 5 km grid source attribution estimates, which  
232 intersect the SAC.
  - 233 - Detailed management information from nearby IED pig/poultry units ( $<2 \text{ km}$  away) was used  
234 to estimate the contribution of individual IED farms to N deposition and  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations  
235 at the sub-sites.
  - 236 - High spatial resolution (1 km grid resolution)  $\text{NH}_3$  concentration data allowed source areas  
237 (e.g. dominated by diffuse agriculture) to be separated from semi-natural  $\text{NH}_3$  sink areas  
238 more successfully than at the 5 km grid resolution. This therefore allowed a more realistic  
239 quantification of  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations at a site.
  - 240 - Aerial imagery was used in conjunction with the national datasets, to estimate distances of  
241 sources from the site boundary and to make a visual assessment of local conditions.
  - 242 - Local prevailing wind conditions were determined, to give a higher weighting to sources  
243 upwind of a site.
  - 244 - Local information on agricultural management practices was used to compare site-specific  
245 emission estimates (based on local data) to those allocated using UK average EFs. This  
246 additional information on farming practice included livestock housing systems and duration  
247 of housing season, locations and properties of manure storage systems and land spreading  
248 methods used. This information was collected for farms surrounding two of the sites, Culm  
249 Grasslands and Cerne & Sydling Downs and was used to produce more detailed emission  
250 estimates than by applying national average emission factors that include a mix of systems  
251 present

252 In addition to the methodological refinements listed above, results for these sites were also  
253 validated by the site-officers responsible for each site.

### 254 3. Results

255 The source attribution analysis indicates that the majority of SACs in England receive a substantial  
256 amount of their atmospheric N deposition from diffuse agriculture and non-agricultural (point)  
257 emission sources (Figures 2 and 3); with nearly all sites affected by these, two source types. Of the  
258 sites that receive substantial amounts of N deposition from agricultural sources, approximately 20%  
259 of English SACs are within 2 km of an IED-regulated intensive pig/poultry farm. Road transport is  
260 estimated to be a main source of N deposition at  $\sim 13 \%$  of sites with low growing semi-natural  
261 features and  $\sim 30 \%$  of sites with woodland features. Long-range transport of N deposition is  
262 estimated to be a main source at  $\sim 60 \%$  of sites with low-growing semi-natural features and  $\sim 30 \%$  of  
263 sites with woodland features.

264 << FIGURE 2 >>

265 **Figure 2** – Main contributors to N deposition at Special Areas of Conservation (SACs) in England ( $n = 240$ ) from  
266 national scale source attribution data (5 km grid) using N deposition estimates to semi-natural features and  
267 proximity of sites to IED poultry farms data (2 km radius) and major roads (200 m radius). The category  
268 ‘non-agricultural (point) source(s)’ shown in this map does not include a local distance criterion.

269

270 << FIGURE 3 >>

271  
 272 **Figure 3** – Histogram showing the main source sectors contributing to N deposition at every SAC site in  
 273 England ( $n = 240$ ), derived from source attribution output from the FRAME model. Results are shown  
 274 separately for low-growing semi-natural features (light grey) and woodland features (black) due to  
 275 different N deposition velocities.  
 276

### 277 3.1. Agricultural NH<sub>3</sub> emissions

278 A substantial proportion (66 sites) of SACs in England are estimated to be subject to NH<sub>3</sub> emission  
 279 densities of  $> 10 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  originating from agricultural activities close to their site boundary ( $< 2$   
 280 km, Table 1). The largest contributor to agricultural NH<sub>3</sub> emissions within the 2 km buffer zone of  
 281 sites, on average, is cattle farming ( $\sim 52 \%$ ). Sites with high emission densities ( $> 10 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ )  
 282 tend to be associated with emissions from dairy farming, in particular.  
 283

284 The spatial correlation between cattle farming areas and locations of SACs is also apparent from the  
 285 analysis of agricultural source categories shown in Table 1. The 2 km areas surrounding England's  
 286 SACs, appear to have higher emissions associated with cattle farming, when compared with  
 287 agricultural emissions for England as a whole. This may be because a large proportion of SACs are  
 288 situated in lowland regions, which typically are associated with cattle farming. Apart from cattle, the  
 289 application of mineral fertilizers (especially urea) is the next most important source category (Table  
 290 1), both for England as a whole and within 2 km distance of SACs. Only if a much higher emission  
 291 threshold is used do pig and poultry contribute to a larger proportion to the emissions. For example,  
 292 for locations with  $> 30 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  ( $\sim 3 \%$  of England's SACs), pigs contribute 12.5 % and poultry  
 293 contribute 18.1 % of the emissions.  
 294

295 Table 1 – Proportion of agricultural NH<sub>3</sub> emissions by sector 2012 (using emission factors from Misselbrook *et*  
 296 *al.* 2013). Sectors that are estimated to exceed 15% of total emissions are shown in bold (N.B. percentages  
 297 may not add up to 100 % due to rounding).

| Emission Area   | $n$ | Proportion of estimated agricultural NH <sub>3</sub> emissions (%) |              |       |      |           |                        |                 |
|---|-----|--|--------------|-------|------|-----------|------------------------|-----------------|
|   |     | Dairy Cattle   | Other Cattle | Sheep | Pigs | Poultry   | Fertiliser Application | Other Livestock |
| England   | NA  | <b>25</b>  | <b>21</b>    | 3     | 10   | 15        | <b>24</b>              | 2               |
| Within 2 km of England's SACs   | 240 | <b>27</b>  | <b>27</b>    | 5     | 8    | 10        | <b>21</b>              | 2               |
| Within 2 km of England's SACs, with agricultural NH <sub>3</sub> emission density $< 10 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ | 174 | <b>16</b>  | <b>29</b>    | 8     | 7    | 8         | <b>29</b>              | 3               |
| Within 2 km of England's SACs, with agricultural NH <sub>3</sub> emission density $> 10 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ | 66  | <b>35</b>  | <b>25</b>    | 3     | 9    | 11        | <b>15</b>              | 1               |
| Within 2 km of England's SACs, with agricultural NH <sub>3</sub> emission density $> 30 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ | 6   | <b>44</b>  | <b>16</b>    | 0     | 13   | <b>18</b> | 9                      | 0               |

298  
 299 The northwest and southwest of England especially appear to have high agricultural emission  
 300 densities, originating from activities associated with cattle farming near designated sites (Figure 4).  
 301 In contrast, the southeast and east of England, where much of England's intensive pig and poultry  
 302 farming is situated, cattle farming contributes to a smaller fraction of total agricultural emissions.  
 303

**<< FIGURE 4 >>**



304 **Figure 4** – Estimated agricultural NH<sub>3</sub> emission source apportionment for all SACs in England. The size of each  
 305 pie chart is proportional to the estimated local NH<sub>3</sub> emission density surrounding each site (< 2 km from SAC  
 306 boundary). The category ‘other agriculture’ refers to fertiliser and livestock sources other than cattle. At sites  
 307 with fewer than five cattle holdings within the 2 km buffer zone surrounding the site boundary, the category  
 308 ‘total agriculture’ is used to show the estimated emission density from all agricultural sources in order to  
 309 maintain farm anonymity.

310

### 311 3.3. Local scale assessment

312 The local scale analysis shows sub-site variability in N deposition at sites that intersect multiple  
 313 model grid squares (Table 2). The proportion of N deposition originating from agricultural sources is  
 314 also highly variable across sites. In this paper, the results for Culm Grasslands SAC are presented in  
 315 full and results from the other six sites summarised in Section 3.4.

316

317 **Table 2** – Summary statistics for the SACs selected for local scale assessment (further details given in Dragosits  
 318 *et al.* 2015b)

| SAC name                | Total N Deposition<br>kg N ha <sup>-1</sup> yr <sup>-1</sup> | Proportion of N deposition<br>from agricultural sources (%) | Emissions from cattle<br>(% of total agricultural NH <sub>3</sub> emissions) |
|-------------------------|--|---|--|
| Birklands and Bilhaugh  | 34.4   | 34  | 43   |
| Cerne and Sydling Downs | 24.2 – 26.7  | 52 – 57   | 27   |
| Culm Grasslands         | 21.0 - 28.4  | 52 - 66   | 88   |
| Ingleborough Complex    | 22.7 - 33.3  | 43 – 51   | 55   |
| Mole Gap to Reigate     | 17.8 - 20.3  | 21 - 23   | 59   |
| North York Moors        | 16.7 - 26.2  | 46 - 52   | 61   |
| Walton Moss             | 17.1 - 19.8  | 61- 69  | 90   |

319 The Culm Grasslands SAC is situated in an intensive agricultural region of southwest England. The  
 320 site comprises of several isolated parts separated by distances of up to 60 km. For the detailed  
 321 analyses, the five clusters of the SAC that were distant from one another were assessed individually  
 322 as sub-sites (Figure 5). Local wind information gathered from the nearest station (Holsworthy  
 323 weather station, < 5 km from the boundary of sub-site E) suggests a south-westerly prevailing wind.  
 324 Estimates of N deposition to low-growing semi-natural features at the site range from ~21 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup>  
 325 yr<sup>-1</sup> at sub-site C to ~28 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> at sub-site D (FRAME 5km grid model output for 2005). Given  
 326 the large spatial variability of N at the landscape scale, the modelled N deposition values are likely to  
 327 be an underestimation where there are N sources situated close to the site boundary (such as animal  
 328 housing and manure spreading).

329

330

## << FIGURE 5 >>

331 **Figure 5** – Estimated total N deposition (including oxidized and reduced N) to semi-natural grasslands in the  
 332 vicinity of the Culm Grasslands Special Area of Conservation (SAC) (FRAME model output 2010), noting the  
 333 sub-areas of this SAC used for local-scale analyses (cases A – E). The map also shows the locations of  
 334 pig/poultry units above the threshold for the Industrial Emissions Directive (IED) that are within 10 km of  
 335 the boundaries of Culm Grasslands SAC.

336

337 Further analysis of the source attribution data shows that agricultural sources are the main  
 338 contributor to N deposition received by the site, comprising between 52 % (sub-site C) to 66 % (sub-  
 339 site D) of N deposited (values taken from relevant grid squares covering each sub-site). The average  
 340 NH<sub>3</sub> emission density across the whole site was estimated at 16 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, with emissions ranging

341 from ~9 - 30 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> between sub-sites (Figure 6). Dairy farming was found to be the largest  
342 contributor to agricultural NH<sub>3</sub> emissions in the 2 km buffer zone surrounding the majority of sub-  
343 sites, apart from sub-site C. Ammonia emissions associated with dairy farming are particularly  
344 variable in the area surrounding the entire site, with estimated emission densities from activities  
345 associated with dairy farming ranging between 1.2 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (sub-site C) and 22.7 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>  
346 (sub-site E).

347

348

## << FIGURE 6 >>

349 **Figure 6** – Estimated agricultural emission densities in a 2 km buffer zone surrounding the whole site and,  
350 separately, all sub-sites of Culm Grasslands Special Area of Conservation (SAC), with respect to the  
351 agricultural emission source sectors. The shading labelled “Other Livestock” refers to categories that are  
352 disclosive or contribute less than 5 % of total agricultural emissions.

353

354 A large poultry unit near sub-site C (Figure 6) is estimated to produce ~11 t NH<sub>3</sub>-N yr<sup>-1</sup> and contribute  
355 30 % of agricultural NH<sub>3</sub> emissions in the area surrounding the sub-site. High-resolution (1 km grid)  
356 estimates of NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations show ‘hot-spots’ surrounding a number of IED units upwind  
357 (southwest) of sub-site D (where sub-site estimates of N deposition are highest).

358 Google Earth imagery (imagery date 31/12/2010) indicates agricultural emission sources close to the  
359 site boundaries of sub-site B and D, with cattle grazing in fields adjacent to the sites. There also  
360 appears to be an uncovered slurry lagoon next to sub-site D, though discussions with the site officer  
361 responsible for the SAC confirmed that the lagoon was no longer active.

362 At sub-sites D and E, local management data from site officers were used to produce more detailed  
363 site-specific emission estimates, for comparison with the estimates produced using national data  
364 and average UK EFs from Misselbrook *et al.* (2013). The two sets of emission estimates were very  
365 similar, with estimated emissions being 3 % and 1 % smaller than the UK average estimates at sub-  
366 sites D and E, respectively. The modest difference between the estimates was due to a shorter  
367 housing period than the UK average (i.e. resulting in lower emissions), offset by limited opportunity  
368 for rapid incorporation of manures due to the predominantly grassland-based agriculture (i.e.  
369 resulting in increased land spreading emissions).

### 370 **3.4. Comparison between Culm Grasslands SAC and other local scale assessments**

371

372 One of the sites assessed in more detail is North York Moors SAC, a large site (440 ha) that intersects  
373 forty-seven 5 km by 5 km source attribution grid squares. The source attribution dataset estimates  
374 that agricultural sources contribute ~46 - 52 % of the total N deposition received by the site. The  
375 estimate in the national scale analysis is given as 52 %, which corresponds to the single grid square  
376 with the highest estimate of N deposition, rather than providing a range for the whole site, to assess  
377 spatial variability. The source attribution dataset also indicates that a high proportion of the N  
378 deposition received by Mole Gap to Reigate Escarpment SAC and Ingleborough Complex SAC are  
379 from agricultural emission sources. However, the analysis of agricultural emission densities for the  
380 immediate area around these sites shows relatively low values. This would suggest that agricultural  
381 N deposition received by the sites is coming from further afield, therefore targeting local  
382 agricultural sources at such sites is not likely to substantially reduce N deposition at the site, and  
383 efforts to reduce N deposition regionally/nationally/internationally are therefore needed to achieve  
384 lower N deposition.

385

386 In the same way as for Culm Grasslands SAC, agricultural emissions at Cerne & Sydling Downs SAC  
387 (situated in SW England) were also estimated using local management practice data rather than  
388 national average data. At this site, agricultural emissions were overestimated by 11 % using UK  
389 average EFs, compared with emissions estimated with local management data. The overestimate  
390 from average UK EFs can be attributed to a shorter than average housing period for beef cattle in  
391 the area (associated with lower housing emissions). The lower emissions from beef cattle are partly  
392 offset by higher emissions from dairy cattle in the area, due to a greater proportion of slurry being  
393 stored in slurry lagoons (associated with higher emissions due to larger emitting surface areas)  
394 rather than slurry tanks or weeping-wall storage than on average across the UK.  
395

## 396 **4. Discussion**

### 397 **4.1 National scale approaches**

398 This study showed that it is possible to identify the main source categories contributing to N  
399 deposition using the national scale UK source attribution dataset (e.g. Bealey *et al.* 2014). However,  
400 this dataset did not allow for the differentiation between deposition that originated from local  
401 emission sources (i.e. those within 2 km of the site boundary) and those located further afield (> 2  
402 km from the site boundary). In the source attribution dataset, agriculture is given as a single  
403 category (due to data confidentiality and disclosivity issues), so that more detailed sector-specific  
404 analysis of agricultural NH<sub>3</sub> emission estimates was necessary to identify key agricultural activities,  
405 (such as dairy farming) around each site.

406 The national scale analyses described here provide useful information that could be used by site  
407 officers to select potential NH<sub>3</sub> mitigation at designated sites. There are however, certain limitations  
408 with a national scale analysis, which need to be taken into account when interpreting the data on an  
409 individual site basis. For example, in the present implementation of this approach, the UK source-  
410 attribution dataset is valid for the year 2005 and consequently does not include emission sources  
411 that postdate the analysis and sources that have since been included into the emission inventories  
412 (e.g. anaerobic digestion). The relative contributions to N deposition may therefore have changed  
413 over the recent decade, with e.g. current agricultural activities intensified/extensified in some areas  
414 since 2005. The national scale methodology also assumes N threats are homogenous across sites,  
415 however it is important to note that some English SACs have an expansive site area (with some > 400  
416 km<sup>2</sup>), and therefore N threats will be highly variable across such sites. For example, agricultural  
417 emission densities and dominant agricultural sectors are likely to vary substantially over such large  
418 areas. The average N deposition estimates and agricultural emission densities for these sites should  
419 therefore be treated with caution, as substantial emissions across parts of the surrounding areas  
420 may have been compensated with very low emissions elsewhere.

421 Spatial variability of N deposition within a 5 km grid square may be very large, for different reasons,  
422 which may result in grid square estimates over- or under estimating true deposition. Firstly, this may  
423 be due to high spatial variability in local emissions and dry deposition. For example, local emission  
424 hotspots in a lowland landscape (e.g. farms) may lead to large concentration and dry deposition  
425 gradients away from the source (also depending on land use-related surface roughness, canopy  
426 compensation point i.e. relative N concentrations of the plant surfaces vs atmosphere). Secondly,  
427 this may be due to high spatial variability in wet deposition. In the UK, wet N deposition across a 5  
428 km gridsquare (potentially originating from distant sources) may vary substantially, depending on  
429 topography, with altitude/rain shadow effects influencing deposition, but less related to local  
430 sources.

431 The spatial location of the farm data used are in some cases derived from postcodes and therefore  
432 may be several 100 m (in some rarer cases up to 1-2 km) away from the true source location. In

433 terms of uncertainty, agricultural holdings were treated as point sources, rather than area sources,  
434 which means emissions from an entire farm are attributed to a single spatial location. A farm's main  
435 livestock housing may therefore be situated away from the given point location and incorrectly  
436 included/excluded from emission estimates. However, given the number of farms included in the  
437 calculations at each SAC, this is not thought to contribute substantially to the uncertainty in emission  
438 density estimates. Such issues could easily be resolved locally at a detailed consultation.

439 For countries where source attribution estimates do not currently exist, these can be derived with  
440 openly available emission maps. Emission data (separate for source categories such as agriculture,  
441 industry, road transport) are available from open source international data collections such as the  
442 Centre on Emission Inventories and Projections data portal ([http://www.ceip.at/webdab-emission-](http://www.ceip.at/webdab-emission-database)  
443 [database](http://www.ceip.at/webdab-emission-database)). Deposition can then be estimated from these emission maps using an atmospheric  
444 transport model. In this study, the FRAME model has been used for the UK, which can be set up  
445 relatively easily for other domains (e.g. Poland, China – Werner *et al.*, 2016; Zhang *et al.*, 2011).

446

#### 447 **4.3. Combination of national and local-scale information**

448 The detailed site-level analysis indicated that the source attribution dataset was able to characterise  
449 the main source sectors contributing to N deposition successfully. This is in spite of relatively large  
450 known uncertainties associated with the modelled deposition estimates (e.g. Dore *et al.* 2012). The  
451 input data used to produce the source attribution data are relatively coarse: the modelling uses UK  
452 average meteorological conditions (e.g. precipitation rates and wind direction) and emission  
453 estimates at a 5 km grid resolution. One limitation of the source attribution dataset is that it is not  
454 possible to distinguish between N deposition threats from local sources, or from medium/long-range  
455 transport. Sites may therefore be estimated to receive a substantial proportion of N deposition from  
456 a particular source category (e.g. agriculture), but this may originate from a range of distances from  
457 local to transboundary. The detailed site-level assessment is therefore necessary to determine if  
458 local measures can provide reductions in atmospheric N input to a site.

459 In terms of quantifying agricultural NH<sub>3</sub> emissions, the use of average EFs in agricultural emission  
460 estimates also forces the assumption that every farm follows average management practice, in this  
461 case for the whole of England, which may lead to under/over estimates of NH<sub>3</sub> emissions at a local  
462 level. This was investigated in more detail for a small number of SACs where local agricultural  
463 practice information was available, with an estimated margin of error of +/- 3% at Culm Grasslands  
464 SAC and 11% at Cerne and Sydling Downs SAC. If mitigation measures are already implemented in an  
465 area, the associated reductions in local emissions are unaccounted for in the analysis, which again  
466 emphasises the need for further information from and discussion with local stakeholders, following  
467 initial national-level screening. Given the uncertainties associated with the national scale  
468 assessment, further site-specific analyses are therefore considered essential for selecting and  
469 targeting specific and locally relevant NH<sub>3</sub> measures.

470 The identification of the main agricultural sources contributing to N deposition and elevated NH<sub>3</sub>  
471 concentrations at a site is a first step towards pinpointing the most effective locally suitable N  
472 mitigation measures. As individual mitigation measures may only be appropriate to certain  
473 agricultural sectors, or only for suitable soil conditions, assessing geographically separate areas  
474 individually is expected to lead to improved targeting of measures. The results of the detailed site  
475 analyses provided useful information to supplement the national scale analyses. For example,  
476 examining NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations and aerial imagery for each site, in combination with statistics on

477 wind direction, allowed sources upwind of site boundaries to be identified and prioritised for  
478 potential spatial targeting of measures. Further steps towards implementation of such measures  
479 could then prioritise targeting in collaboration with the local community and stakeholders, as has  
480 been proposed by Natural England, the relevant conservation agency (Site Nitrogen Action Plans,  
481 SNAPS, Natural England, 2015).

482

## 483 **2. Conclusion**

484 The results of this study demonstrate that by using a combination of national datasets (e.g.  
485 atmospheric N concentrations and deposition maps), and high-resolution agricultural census/survey  
486 data, it is possible to identify suitable measures to reduce N deposition from agricultural sources.  
487 The present assessment was conducted for the example of England, accounting for 240 Special Areas  
488 of Conservation (SACs) in the Natura 2000 network, demonstrating the wider relevance of the  
489 approach, which is applicable to other regions. Although national scale datasets can provide  
490 information on general N deposition threats at the landscape scale, we have also shown that  
491 additional local-scale information is required to understand the feasibility of proposed mitigation  
492 measures and their impact on N deposition at this scale. Incorporating local agricultural  
493 management data, such as animal housing systems, duration of housing periods, and existing  
494 mitigation measures into emission estimates, is shown to be especially important for quantifying the  
495 main agricultural emission sources close to designated sites. For example, local information on cattle  
496 housing periods at one of the study sites improved emission estimates by 3 to 11%, compared with  
497 national average estimates. The approaches developed here provide a foundation to support  
498 conservation officers and government agencies in identifying of suitable mitigation measures to  
499 reduce atmospheric N deposition received by sensitive habitats.

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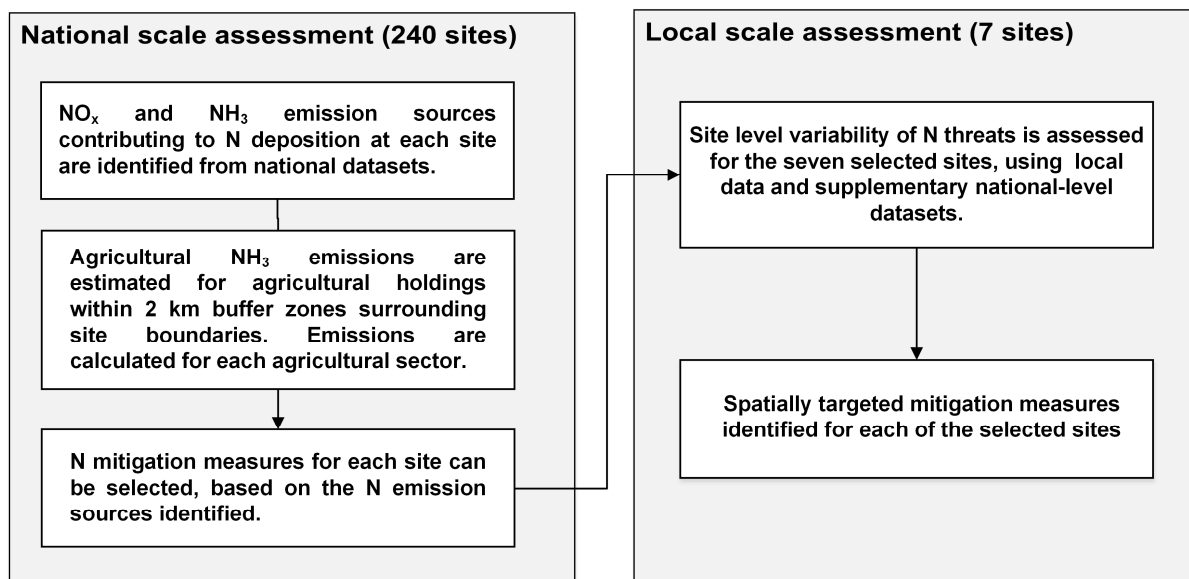
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### Main Sources of N deposition at SACs identified

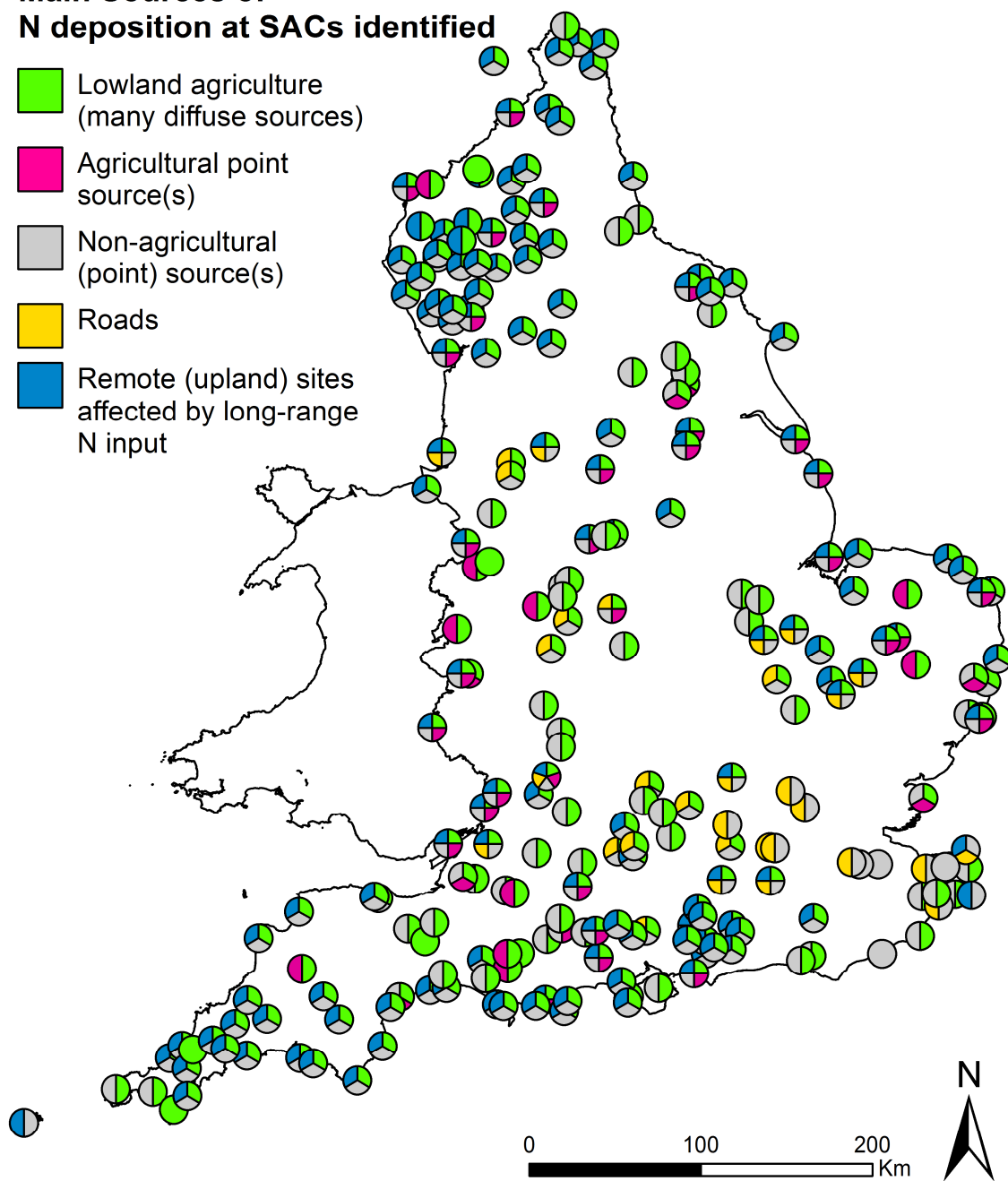
 Lowland agriculture (many diffuse sources)

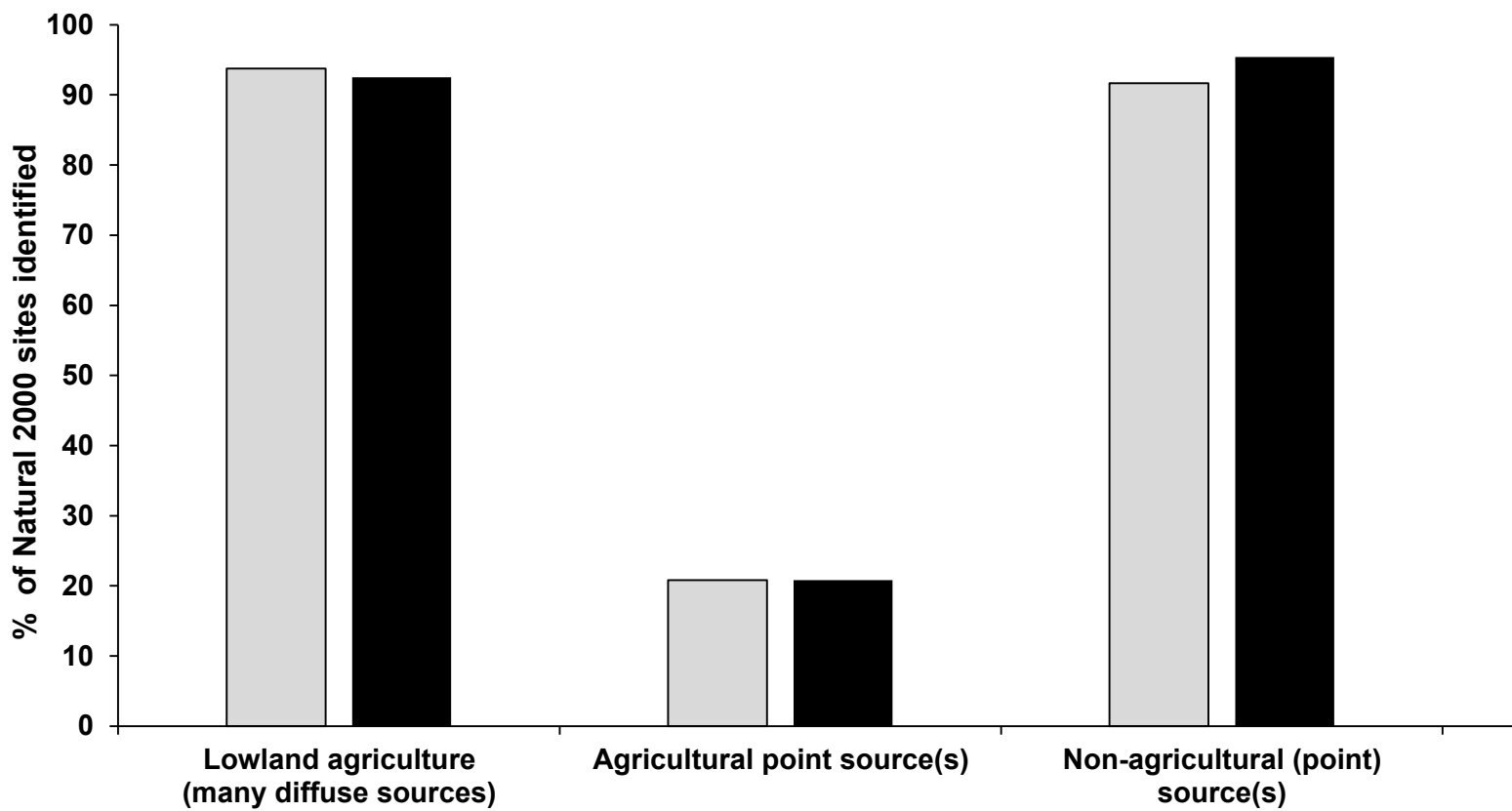
 Agricultural point source(s)

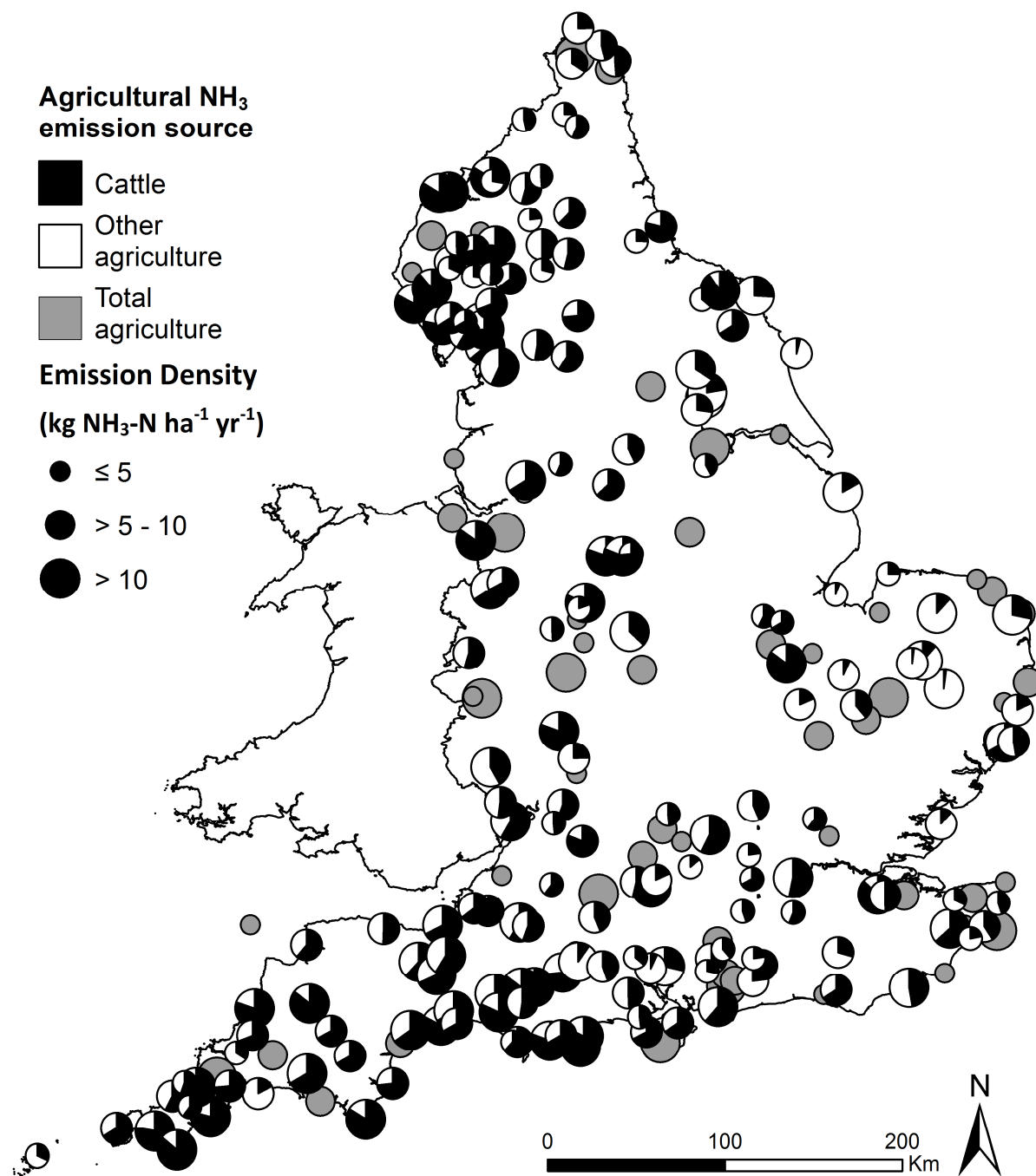
 Non-agricultural (point) source(s)

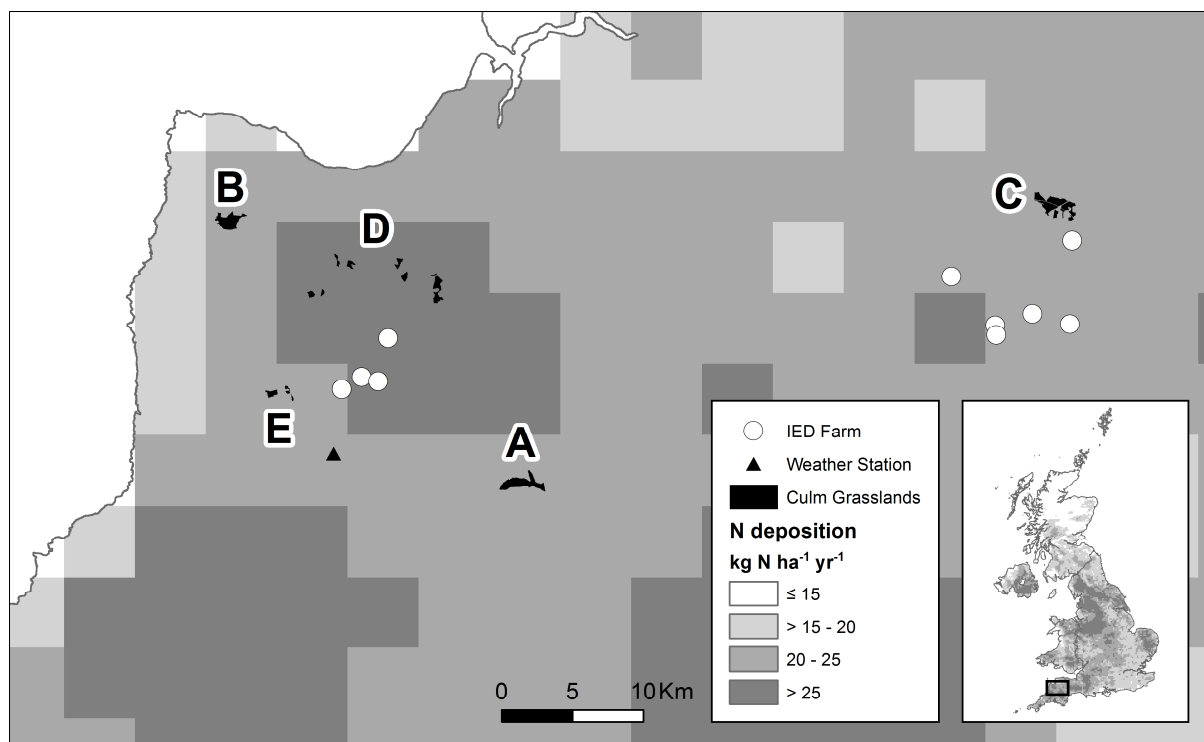
 Roads

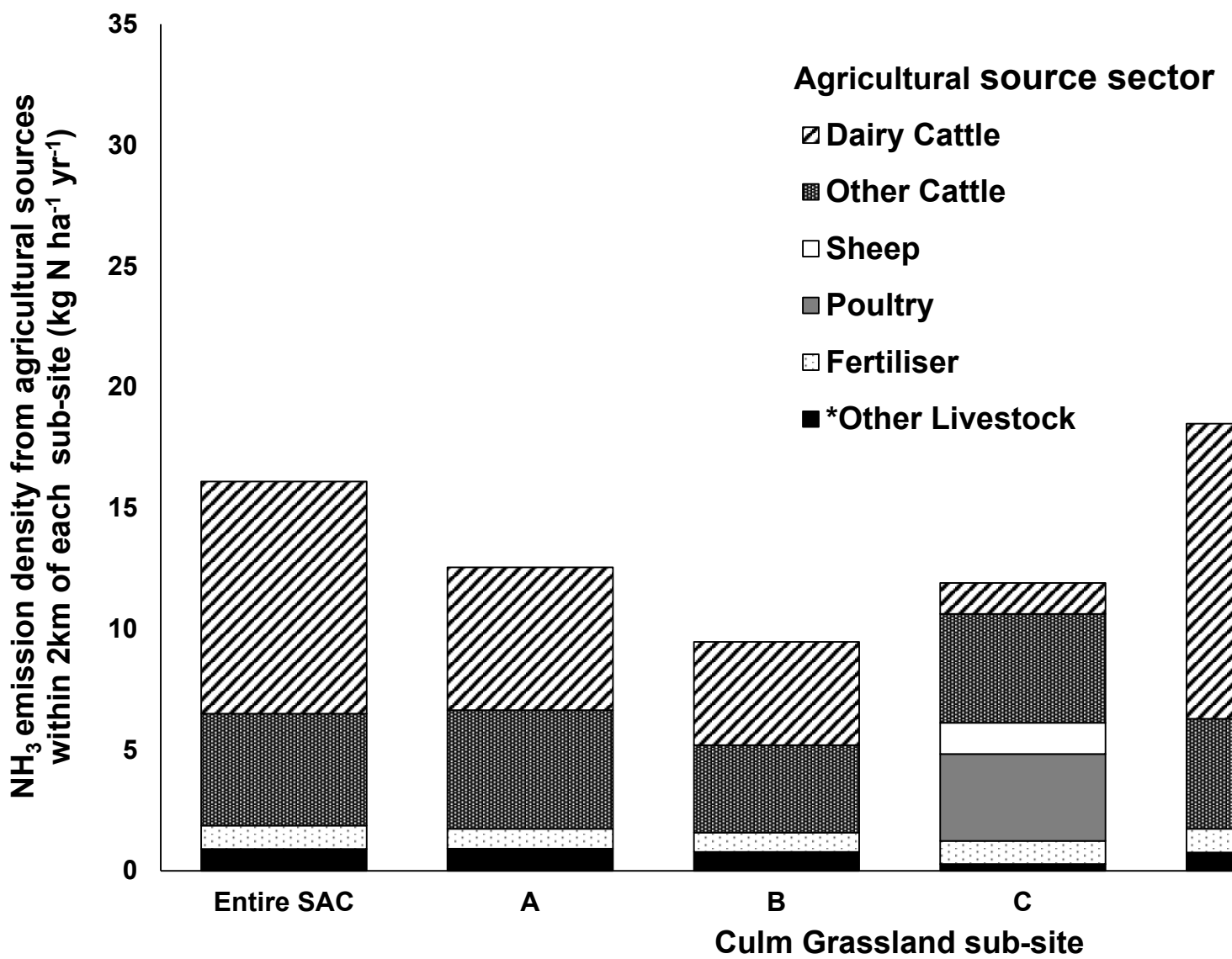
 Remote (upland) sites affected by long-range N input











- An approach to identify suitable NH<sub>3</sub> mitigation measures is proposed
- The methodology combines emission, concentration and deposition data
- Agriculture contributes ~45 % of total N deposition received by SACs

ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT