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Original research paper

**Mapping correlations between nitrogen concentrations in atmospheric deposition and mosses for natural landscapes in Europe**

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Highlights

- Mosses can serve as bio-indicators of atmospheric nitrogen.
- Ecological land classes help relating exposure with effects assessments.
- Factors influencing N concentrations ranked including landscape characteristics.

1 Original research paper

2

3 **Mapping correlations between nitrogen concentrations in atmospheric deposition and**  
4 **mosses for natural landscapes in Europe**

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20

21 **Abstract**

22 Recent investigations proved that nitrogen (N) concentrations in mosses are primarily  
23 determined by atmospheric deposition. The correlations are country- and N compound-  
24 specific and agree well with spatial patterns and temporal trends across Europe as a whole  
25 and in single European countries. This study investigates whether correlations between the

26 concentration of N in atmospheric deposition and mosses within the units of an ecological  
27 land classification of Europe can be established. To this end, N measurements from the 2005  
28 European moss survey and modelled N atmospheric deposition in 2005 were intersected with  
29 a map of European landscapes. Then, considering minimum numbers of sampling sites  
30 required across Europe, in single European countries and within the landscapes of Europe and  
31 accounting for spatial auto-correlation, the correlations between the N concentration in  
32 mosses and corresponding deposition were calculated and mapped for each of those  
33 landscape units containing moss sampling sites. Using an example of one landscape with  
34 positive correlation and one landscape with no correlation between N concentrations in  
35 deposition and in mosses, influencing factors were ranked based on investigating the  
36 multivariate interactions between moss concentrations and, amongst others, atmospheric  
37 deposition, land use, elevation or moss species by classification and regression trees. From  
38 this study it could be concluded that the numbers of sampling sites within Europe and most  
39 participating countries as well as within most of the landscapes covering Europe are  
40 sufficient. Spatial patterns of correlations between the atmospheric N deposition and N  
41 concentration in mosses could be proven to vary across the landscapes of Europe. Where  
42 clear positive correlations between N concentrations in deposition and mosses exist in  
43 landscapes, multivariate ranking identifies the deposition as main influencing factor. In cases  
44 with no correlation between deposition and N concentrations in mosses, other factors such as  
45 e.g. moss species collected may be of importance. Therefore, mosses were proved to serve as  
46 biological indicators for atmospheric depositions and ecologically defined land classes could  
47 be identified as more complex indicators which allow relating exposure monitoring with  
48 effects assessment.

49

50 **Keywords:** Nitrogen deposition; bio-indication; ecological land classification; minimum  
51 number of sampling sites

52

### 53 **1. Introduction**

54 Nitrogen (N) is an essential plant nutrient. The N cycling in ecosystems is derived from  
55 biological N fixation, mineralization, and atmospheric deposition. Atmospheric deposition  
56 was a relatively unimportant N source until the beginning of the agricultural and industrial  
57 revolution with an increasing population and demands for food and energy. Since 1860,  
58 atmospheric deposition got more and more an important N source for ecosystems and can  
59 also be the dominant source. The shape of the effects of atmospheric N deposition depends  
60 on: duration, total amount, and N form of the deposition; sensitivity of plant species exposed  
61 to deposition; abiotic conditions in the ecosystem which can be influenced significantly by  
62 both past and present land use. Therefore, sensitivity to N deposition can vary between  
63 ecosystems or landscapes, respectively, as reviewed for the Global 200 priority ecoregions  
64 for conservation (Bobbink et al., 2010): Changes in species composition; direct toxicity of N  
65 gases and aerosols; long-term negative effects of increased ammonium and ammonia  
66 availability; soil-mediated effects of acidification; susceptibility to secondary stress and  
67 disturbance.

68 To avoid ecological damages due to atmospheric N deposition, the Gothenburg Protocol of  
69 the Convention on Long-range Transboundary Air Pollution (LRTAP) was developed with  
70 respect to the abatement of acidification, eutrophication and ground-level ozone. The  
71 implementation of the Gothenburg Protocol is monitored and evaluated by the European  
72 Monitoring and Evaluation Programme (EMEP), by collating emission data from parties,  
73 measuring air and precipitation quality and modelling atmospheric transport and deposition.  
74 Deposition of N is calculated from emission data compiled by EMEP by use of the EMEP

75 chemistry and atmospheric transport model and then verified against concentrations in air and  
76 precipitation. In 2005, 53 EMEP stations measured the concentration of N compounds in  
77 precipitation and wet deposition, whereas up to 41 stations reported air concentrations of N  
78 compounds (Fagerli and Hjellbrekke, 2007). Finally, the EMEP modelling results are mapped  
79 on grids of 50 km by 50 km.

80 Within the LRTAP Convention, the Working Group on Effects (WGE) provides information  
81 on the impacts of air pollutants on human health and the environment. The International  
82 Cooperative Programme on Effects of Air Pollution on Natural Vegetation and Crops (ICP  
83 Vegetation) has been coordinating the European moss survey since 2000. Within that survey,  
84 conducted every 5 years since 1990, naturally growing mosses are used as indicators of  
85 atmospheric deposition of pollutants. In 2005, mosses were sampled ca. 6000 sites in 28  
86 countries and analyzed for heavy metals (Harmens et al., 2010) and, for the first time for N  
87 concentrations at ca. 3000 sites in 16 countries (Harmens et al., 2011). Compared to the  
88 EMEP monitoring network, the spatial resolution of the European moss survey in terms of  
89 extent, i.e. area covered by sampling sites, and grain, i.e. number of sampling sites, is much  
90 higher.

91 Although the N concentrations in mosses provide no direct quantitative measurement of  
92 atmospheric deposition, the moss survey data yield an indication of the spatial patterns and  
93 temporal trends of N deposition from the atmosphere to terrestrial systems (Harmens et al.,  
94 2011; Schröder et al., 2010b, 2011, 2012). Thus, for environmental impact assessments the  
95 moss survey data could help characterizing the N exposure of large areas, especially if they  
96 could be related with information on ecological characteristics of the receiving environmental  
97 systems. Factors other than atmospheric depositions also contribute to the variation of  
98 elemental concentrations in mosses (Holy et al., 2010; Schröder et al., 2008, 2010a,b). For  
99 nitrogen, these factors were discussed in more detail in Harmens et al. (2011) and Schröder et

100 al. (2010a). As these factors and their influence on the relationship between deposition and  
101 moss concentrations might be different for landscapes with different ecological  
102 characteristics, we hypothesise that the correlations between both N concentrations in  
103 depositions and mosses are landscape-specific. Therefore, the current study investigated the  
104 relationship between N concentrations in atmospheric deposition and in mosses for up to 40  
105 ecologically defined land classes covering Europe. Our approach for Europe provides further  
106 detail to the global approach presented by Bobbink et al. (2010) for the G 200 ecoregions  
107 (Olson and Dienerstein, 2002).

108

## 109 **2. Materials and methods**

### 110 *2.1. Moss sampling and chemical analyses*

111 Mosses were sampled according to the guidelines described in the protocol for the 2005  
112 European survey (ICP Vegetation, 2005). Since the sampling sites cover a broad range of  
113 ecologically different habitats, several carpet-forming moss species were collected (Fig. 1).

114

115 Figure 1: Geographical distribution of mosses sampled for N analyses. *Other species*  
116 containing those with each  $n < 20$ , i.e. *Br* - *Brachythecium rutabulum* ( $n = 12$ ); *Brach* sp. -  
117 mosses of the genus *Brachythecium* ( $n = 14$ ); *Hom* sp. mosses of the genus *Homalothecium*  
118 ( $n = 12$ ); *Scler* sp. - mosses of the genus *Scleropodium* other than *Pp* ( $n = 2$ ); *Ta* - *Thuidium*  
119 *abietinum*, ( $n = 2$ ); *Tt* - *Thuidium tamariscinum* ( $n = 15$ ). For full names cf. Fig. 6.

120

121 Although participants of the European moss survey generally aimed to only use the last two  
122 to three years' growth of moss material for nitrogen analysis, variations in environmental  
123 conditions between countries and years sometimes made it hard to identify years of growth  
124 accurately (Harmens et al., 2011). Each sampling site was located at least 300 m from main

125 roads and populated areas and at least 100 m from any road or single house. The majority of  
126 mosses were sampled in forests (coniferous, broad-leaved or mixed), followed by ‘moors and  
127 heathland’ and natural grassland. In forests, samples were collected as far as possible in small  
128 open spaces to preclude any significant effect of canopy drip. Samples were generally dried  
129 at room temperature and stored under those conditions until N analysis, although some  
130 countries did refrigerate or deep-freeze the samples. For the determination of N, moss tissue  
131 was dried at 40 °C and concentrations were determined according to either the Kjeldahl  
132 method or via elemental analysis following the Dumas method; for details of methods used in  
133 each country see Harmens et al. (2011). N concentrations are expressed as percentage N  
134 based on dry weight and were only determined in the last 2-3 years’ growth.

135 In 2005/6, a quality control exercise was conducted for assessing the analytical performance  
136 of the participating laboratories (Harmens et al., 2011). Moss reference material M2 and M3  
137 (Harmens et al., 2010; Steinnes et al., 1997) were distributed amongst participating  
138 laboratories. In addition, some laboratories used other certified reference material for quality  
139 assurance. For determination of the total nitrogen concentration in the reference material,  
140 laboratories followed the same analytical procedure as used for the collected moss samples.

141 Generally, data obtained indicated good agreement between laboratories: The recommended  
142 values for reference materials M2 and M3 showed a variation of 7.4 % and 7.6 %  
143 respectively (Harmens et al., 2010). Only for one laboratory a correction factor was applied  
144 to the total nitrogen concentration of the moss samples as the values for the moss standards  
145 were outside the range of two standard deviations from the mean recommended value for the  
146 reference material M2.

147 For this investigation we used the data on N concentrations in mosses sampled in 2005 at  
148 2796 sites across Europe and spatially connected them with the modelled atmospheric  
149 depositions of N (section 2.2) and the ecological land classes of Europe (section 2.3) within a



150 Geographic Information System (GIS). As the last two to three years of moss growth was  
151 selected for N determination, representing the accumulation of atmospheric depositions in  
152 mosses in up to three years previous to sampling (ICP Vegetation, 2005), average modelled N  
153 deposition data for the years 2003, 2004, and 2005 were included in the statistical analyses.

154

## 155 2.2. Monitoring and modelling atmospheric deposition

156 Using the EMEP transport model, atmospheric deposition of N (Simpson et al., 2012) was  
157 calculated from emission data compiled by EMEP. The modelled data were verified against  
158 measured concentrations in air and precipitation (Fagerli and Aas, 2008). In 2005, 53 EMEP  
159 stations measured the concentration of N compounds in precipitation and wet deposition,  
160 whereas up to 41 stations reported air concentrations of nitrogen compounds.

161 The modelled deposition data comprise uncertainties of data collected from emission  
162 inventories as well as from monitoring and modelling:

- 163 • The *uncertainty of emission data* is difficult to quantify since the national emission  
164 inventories do not provide respective information.
- 165 • The *uncertainty of modelling results* includes intrinsic model uncertainties, the overall  
166 model uncertainty and the comparison of modelled values with field observations.  
167 According to Simpson et al. (2012), the model performance compared to EMEP and  
168 other measurements is presented annually in EMEP validation reports  
169 ([www.emep.int](http://www.emep.int)) or in papers as for instance in those from Fagerli and Aas (2008) and  
170 Simpson et al. (2006a, b) dealing with nitrogen compounds.
- 171 • To assure the *quality of monitoring data* measurements are validated through a quality  
172 assurance / quality control process involving the individual institutions responsible for  
173 the different sites and the EMEP-CCC as documented by the reports available in the  
174 Chemical Coordinating Centre EMEP series ([www.emep.int](http://www.emep.int)). In addition to applied

175 reference methods and standard operation procedures, EMEP conducts laboratory-  
176 and field inter-comparison of most components defined by the monitoring  
177 programme. Field inter-comparisons are an important part of the quality assurance  
178 programme in EMEP to document the overall uncertainty in the methods used  
179 (Tørseth et al., 2012). The *uncertainty of monitoring data* includes the estimation of  
180 the uncertainty caused by analytical methods. While laboratory comparisons provided  
181 estimations of the accuracy of analytical methods, *overall measurement accuracy* was  
182 estimated by field campaigns.

183 From the above broad quality assurance framework could be concluded the difficulty to  
184 assess the uncertainty of atmospheric chemical transport models for deposition. This is  
185 mainly due to a lack of information about the quality of emission data and data on dry  
186 deposition. According to the EMEP data quality objective (EMEP / CCC 2001), the accuracy  
187 for the chemical analysis should be better than 10%, and that is met by most laboratories in  
188 the annual laboratory inter-comparison, often better than 5%. The uncertainty for the  
189 combined sampling and chemical analysis should be better than 15 -25%. There has been  
190 some field inter-comparison to assess the uncertainties in the overall measurements and they  
191 are in general within these objectives if the reference methods are used (wet only for  
192 precipitation and filterpack for air and aerosol). Notice that the above mentioned uncertainties  
193 refer to concentrations and not to deposition loads, because dry deposition is not measured in  
194 EMEP.

195 For wet-deposition, Simpson et al. (2006b) found that the EMEP model's wet-deposition of  
196 NO<sub>3</sub> and NH<sub>4</sub> were within 20-30% of values measured at sites within the ICP-Forests Level  
197 II programme, or 10-23% lower when compared to the EMEP/CCC network. For dry-  
198 deposition, Flechard et al. (2011) compared four different deposition-modules making use of  
199 data from 55 sites across Europe. This study found differences of the order of 2-3 between

200 the models, with estimates for particle deposition over forests showing especially large  
201 differences. Estimates of total deposition should of course be more robust than those of dry  
202 deposition, and analysis of the results of the EURODELTA ensemble study (7 chemical  
203 transport models) showed standard deviations between models of about 50-200 mg N / m<sup>2</sup> in  
204 regions where the ensemble mean was about 200-500 mg N / m<sup>2</sup> (Simpson et al., 2011).  
205 Given that airborne nitrogen species are usually reproduced within 30% though, and given  
206 the constraints of mass-balance, a first estimate of total deposition uncertainty might be  
207 around 30-50%.

208

### 209 *2.3 Ecological Landscape Classification of Europe (ELCE)*

210 The data on atmospheric deposition and their accumulation in mosses were linked to a map  
211 depicting the geographical distribution of ecological land classes across Europe. This map  
212 was calculated by means of Classification and Regression Trees (CART; Breimann et al.,  
213 1984) from 48 digital maps each depicting the spatial pattern of one of 48 ecologically  
214 relevant landscape characteristics covering climate, altitude, soil, and potential natural  
215 vegetation in Europe (Hornsmann et al., 2008). ELCE subdivides Europe into spatial units  
216 mapped on grids of about 20 km x 20 km. Data used for calculating the ELCE unit are data  
217 on the potential natural vegetation (PNV; Bohn et al., 2005), on altitude (Hastings et al.,  
218 1999) on soil texture (FAO, 1996) as well as on monthly averages on air temperature,  
219 sunshine duration, relative humidity and precipitation (New et al., 2002). The PNV was set as  
220 the target variable whereas the data on altitude, soil texture, and climate were chosen as  
221 predictors. CART allows the production of several levels of grain. In this investigation that is  
222 the numbers of ELCE units differentiated (Lam, 2004), depicting the spatial patterns of 200  
223 (ELCE<sub>200</sub>) to 40 (ELCE<sub>40</sub>) units. In this investigation ELCE<sub>40</sub> was used. For further CART  
224 details we refer to section 2.6.

225

226 *2.4 Calculation of minimum number of sampling sites needed for reliable statistics*

227 Measurement values should be meaningful not only for one certain point in space and time.  
228 Measurements taken in a geographically specified area should rather allow for  
229 generalizations so that, e.g. their mean value is reliable with respect to variability and number  
230 of measurements covering that region. The number of samples required is to be based on a  
231 specified confidence interval of the mean of the variable considered (Nelson and Ward,  
232 1981). Therefore, in this investigation the minimum number of sampling sites needed for  
233 reliable statistics were calculated prior to the calculation of correlations between atmospheric  
234 deposition of N and in the N concentration in mosses. Hox (2010) provides an overview of  
235 sample size issues with regard to minimum sample sizes needed. In our study, the minimum  
236 number was computed for a) Europe in terms of the sum of the territories of countries which  
237 participated in the moss survey 2005; b) each of the participating countries; c) each of the 40  
238 ecological land classes of Europe covered by the survey network. For the countries (b) and  
239 the land classes (c) both, the percentage countries and classes with missing monitoring sites  
240 and the percentage of area covered were calculated. In contrast to countries, ELCE units are  
241 not necessarily spatially contiguous. Therefore, the percentage was only calculated for those  
242 parts of land classes covered by moss survey sampling sites buffered by the minimum auto-  
243 correlation range of N.

244

245 *2.5 Correlations between modelled N deposition and measured concentrations in mosses*

246 As a widespread phenomenon in environmental systems, auto-correlation of a random  
247 process is defined as the similarity of, or correlation between, values of a process at  
248 neighbouring points in time or space. Positive autocorrelation means that the individual  
249 observations contain information which is part of other temporal or spatial neighbouring

250 observations. Subsequently, the effective sample size will be lower than the number of  
251 realized observations. Thus, positive spatial auto-correlation enhances type I errors, so that  
252 parametric statistics such as Pearson correlation coefficients are declared significant when  
253 they should not be (Nelson and Ward, 1981). Therefore, Schröder et al. (2012) calculated  
254 spatial auto-correlations of both EMEP deposition data and moss data across Europe  
255 according to Dutilleul (1993).

256 Then, landscape-specific Spearman rank correlations between EMEP modelled atmospheric  
257 dry, wet and total deposition and concentrations in mosses for N were determined. In this  
258 investigation, Spearman rank correlation coefficients  $r_s$  were calculated because the measured  
259 concentrations mostly proved not to be normally distributed. Although this non-parametric  
260 correlation method is less powerful than parametric methods if the assumptions underlying  
261 the latter are met, it is less likely to give distorted results when the assumptions fail. The  
262 strength of correlation were classified as follows:  $r_s$  values  $<|0.2|$  are very low, between  $|0.2|$   
263 and  $|0.49|$  low, from  $|0.5|$  to  $|0.69|$  moderate, between  $|0.7|$  and  $|0.89|$  high and  $\geq |0.9|$  very  
264 high (Schröder et al., 2010).

265 To assess the impact of using EMEP modelled data averaged over three years in comparison  
266 to modelled data for the year previous to moss sampling, correlations were also determined  
267 using only the EMEP modelled data for the year previous to moss sampling. Sampling-sites-  
268 specific N concentrations in mosses were averaged for each of the 50 km x 50 km EMEP  
269 grids containing the atmospheric N deposition values (Fig. 2) before correlations were  
270 calculated (Harmens et al., 2011). Moss data outside the mean  $\pm 3$  standard deviations were  
271 eliminated from the analysis leading to exclusion of 2-3% of the moss data.

272

273 Figure 2: Atmospheric N deposition modelled on a 50 km by 50 km grid (EMEP) and N  
274 concentrations in moss samples at individual sites

275

276 *2.6 Decision trees uncovering relations between N concentrations in mosses and potentially*  
277 *influencing factors*

278 In this investigation, CART (Breiman et al., 1984) was not only used to compute a map  
279 depicting the geographical distribution of ecologically defined land classes across Europe  
280 (section 2.3). Additionally, CART was applied to detect correlations between the N  
281 concentrations in mosses and sampling site-specific and regional characteristics, which  
282 potentially could influence the concentration in mosses (Table 1).

283 CART does not make any assumptions regarding the distribution of the data and can use an  
284 explanatory variable more than once, so it can work with multiple interrelated data. CART  
285 can reveal hierarchical and nonlinear relationships among one dependent variable (N  
286 concentration in mosses) and several describing variables (sampling sites and regional  
287 characteristics) by subdividing a heterogeneous data set into more homogeneous subsets  
288 (classes, groups, nodes) by a series of nested binary “if-then-else” splits. Each split  
289 maximizes the homogeneity of the dependent variable. Each possible binary split for all  
290 variables is evaluated recursively for the best class separation until homogeneous end points  
291 (nodes) are reached. The predictor selected is the one for which the two new classes have the  
292 greatest within-group similarity for the response variable. The two new classes are then  
293 examined separately with respect to each of the predictor variables to see if they can be split  
294 again. The resulting dendrogram can have multiple branches each of which represents a path  
295 to a particular combination of independent variables defining variable subspaces.

296 CART results are easy to understand. Additionally, neither dependent nor independent  
297 variables are assumed to follow any kind of statistical distribution. The variables can be a  
298 mixture of categorical, interval, and continuous. CART is not at all affected by outliers,  
299 collinearities or heteroscedasticity that affect parametric procedures. Outliers are isolated into

300 a node, and do not have any effect on splitting. CART is able to reveal interactions in the data  
301 set. The algorithm is invariant under monotone transformation of independent variables; that  
302 is, the transformation of explanatory variables to logarithms or squares or square roots has no  
303 effect on the tree produced.

304

### 305 **3. Results and discussion**

#### 306 *3.1 Minimum number of sampling sites*

307 Table 1 contains the results of calculated minimum number of moss sampling sites for each  
308 of those 40 ELCE units which were covered by the European moss survey network 2005. In  
309 most cases the number of sampled sites exceeds the number of sites required. The minimum  
310 number of sampling sites required had failed in three out of 27 ECLE units (11.1%) with N  
311 determined in mosses: In these three land classes, 27 sites instead of 12, 6 instead of 2, and 8  
312 instead of 4, should have been sampled, respectively.

313

314 Table 1: Moss species and minimum sample size needed for Europe, participating countries  
315 and ELCE units covered by the survey network with regard to mean and standard deviation  
316 of N concentrations in mosses 2005.

	N
Number of sites missing for adequate coverage of Europe	0
Area of Europe covered by countries with missing sites [km <sup>2</sup> ]	0
Number of ELCE units with missing sites	3 / 27 11.1%

Area covered by ELCE units with missing sites [km <sup>2</sup> ]	78563.0 3.3%
Number of countries with missing sites	0 / 16 0.0%
Area covered by countries with missing sites [km <sup>2</sup> ]	0 0%

317

318 The determination of minimum numbers of sampling sites needed for calculating reliable  
319 mean values for Europe as a whole and for each of the 16 countries participating in the  
320 nitrogen moss survey in 2005 revealed a similar picture as found for landscapes as spatial  
321 reference system. The number of sampling sites could be proved to be adequate to estimate  
322 reliable statistics on the N concentrations in mosses.

323 The results for the minimum sample size needed give reason to discuss whether the network  
324 should be adjusted accordingly. Pesch and Schröder (2006) developed a methodology how to  
325 optimize the moss monitoring network by example of Germany without reduction of  
326 statistical power. Accordingly, the German moss survey network for 2005 was designed.  
327 Hornsmann et al. (2008) complemented that approach for Europe by use of ELCE.

328

329 *3.2 Landscape-specific correlations between concentrations in atmospheric depositions and*  
330 *in mosses*

331 Positive spatial auto-correlations could be proven and accounted for in the calculation of  
332 statistical correlations between atmospheric deposition and concentration in mosses within  
333 ELCE units (Fig.3). The results showed that the auto-correlation considerably reduces the  
334 degrees of freedom. Despite this, the correlations remained statistically significant (Schröder  
335 et al., 2012). Harmens et al. (2012) correlated metal deposition and concentrations in mosses  
336 for single European countries. This is reasonable in terms of environmental policies but



337 should be added by correlation analyses within the spatial framework of ecologically defined  
338 land classes. Such spatial units are, contrary to species which are used to indicate single  
339 aspects of habitat quality including pollution, complex indicators comprehending the  
340 ecological coverage of land in terms of, e.g., soil, vegetation, elevation and climate (Aspinall  
341 and Pearson, 2000; Wallace et al., 2004). Figure 3 depicts the spatial structures of Spearman  
342 Rank correlations coefficients between concentrations of N in atmospheric deposition and  
343 mosses calculated and mapped for each of the ELCE<sub>40</sub> units.

344

345 Figure 3: Correlations of N concentrations in modelled atmospheric total deposition summed  
346 up for the years 2003-2005 and in mosses (2005) within ELCE units.

347

348 The spatial pattern of correlations between N deposition and N concentration in mosses  
349 (Figure 3) is characterized by clear clusters of values from  $|0.5|$  to  $|0.69|$  (16.1% of total area)  
350 in Great Britain and the Alps as well as in parts of central Europe and northern Scandinavia,  
351 indicated in yellow. Correlations of  $r_s > |0.7|$  (orange coloured) occur only to a small extent  
352 (0.9% of total area) in northern Europe, where N deposition was generally low.  $R_s$  values  
353 between  $|0.2|$  and  $|0.49|$  (27.7% of total area) were found in large areas of Finland and the  
354 Baltic States and to a lesser extent in parts of central Europe and Great Britain. Correlations  $<$   
355  $|0.2|$  (48.7% of total area) including negative values dominate landscapes in western, central  
356 and eastern Europe as well as parts of England, Scotland, southern Finland and the Baltic  
357 States.

358 The N concentrations in mosses over the last three years of growth were compared with the  
359 average EMEP modelled annual deposition for the three years previous to moss sampling in  
360 2005, which provides a buffer for any annual variations that might occur. Considering the  
361 uncertainties in the EMEP modelled deposition data (section 2.2) and the potential limitations

362 and confounding factors in the use of mosses as monitors of atmospheric deposition (Aboal et  
363 al., 2010; Harmens et al., 2011), the spatial patterns and temporal trends of both data sets  
364 agree reasonably well for N. The landscape-specific results confirm that metal and N  
365 concentrations in mosses can serve as a complementary method to determine spatial patterns  
366 and temporal trends of N deposition.

367

368 *3.3 Uncovering interrelations between N concentration in mosses and influencing factors in*  
369 *landscapes with strong and weak correlations between N deposition and N concentration in*  
370 *mosses*

371 Previous analyses had indicated that total atmospheric deposition of N is the main factor  
372 explaining the variation of N concentrations in mosses across Europe. However, other factors  
373 potentially might also contribute to the spatial variation of N concentrations in mosses,  
374 including, for example, the variation in moss species sampled, land use in the surrounding  
375 area, altitude and distance to the sea (Harmens et al., 2011; Schröder et al., 2010). CART  
376 calculations (section 2.6) were applied to explain quite different correlation values for N  
377 concentrations in deposition and mosses, for example for ELCE units F\_1.2 ( $r_s = 0.58$ ) and  
378 F\_4.2 ( $r_s = 0.01$ ) (Fig. 4), by uncovering the multivariate interactions between moss  
379 concentrations and potentially influencing factors.

380

381 Figure 4: Geographical distribution of ELCE units F\_1.2 and F\_4.2 and moss sampling sites  
382 across Europe.

383

384 The decision tree analysis identifies the following most powerful predictors for the N  
385 concentration in mosses collected in ELCE unit F\_1.2, covering parts of Great Britain and  
386 France as well as several small areas across central Europe: total N deposition (Level 1),

387 moss species and population density (Level 2), wet total N and wet NO<sub>x</sub> deposition,  
388 percentage of urban areas in a radius of 5 km around sampling sites (Level 3), and percentage  
389 of urban areas in 10 km and 25 km around sampling sites (Fig. 5). This CART model  
390 explains 62% of the variance in data on 236 N measurements in mosses and proved them to  
391 be mainly dominated by total N atmospheric deposition.

392

393 Figure 5: Decision Tree Analysis for N concentrations in modelled atmospheric total N  
394 depositions summed up for the years 2003-2005 and mosses (2005) for ELCE unit F\_1.2 ( $r_s =$   
395 0.58).

396

397 At sampling sites with deposition lower than  $3675.3 \mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{a}^{-1}$  the N concentration in *Ps*, *Hs*  
398 and *Pp* is lower (0.83% of dry mass) than in *Rs*, *Hc*, *Sp* and *Tt* (1.09%) (full names of moss  
399 species are listed in Figure 6). Each of both these CART subgroups is further subdivided by  
400 the wet deposition of total N and NO<sub>x</sub>. Another split is established for sampling sites with wet  
401 deposition exceeding  $194.39 \mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{a}^{-1}$  NO<sub>x</sub>. This sample is, finally, split into nodes 13 and  
402 14 by the percentage of urban areas around the sampling sites. In mosses sampled at sites  
403 with total N deposition higher than  $3675.3 \mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{a}^{-1}$  and a population density above 37.5  
404 inhabitants per 1 sq km grid cell, the N concentrations (1.77%) are higher than mosses  
405 collected at sites with lower population densities (N = 1.32%). The latter sub-sample is  
406 further split by the percentage of urban areas in node 12 with a mean N concentration of  
407 1.11% and node 11 with a mean N concentration amounting for 1.38%. The latter sub-sample  
408 is split by the percentage of urban areas around the moss sampling sites into nodes 15 and 16  
409 with mean N concentrations of 1.19% and 1.45%, respectively.

410 In ELCE unit F\_4.2, mainly occurring in the Pyrenees, southern Great Britain and central  
411 Europe, especially in the Alps as well as in the Carpathians and the Balkans, the correlation

412 between N concentrations in depositions and mosses is almost zero ( $r_s = 0.01$ ). The low  
413 correlation might be explained by the fact that the majority of sampling sites fall within  
414 Central Europe where N deposition rates are high and saturation occurs of the N  
415 concentration in mosses (Harmens et al., 2011). The CART model calculated (Fig. 6) only  
416 explains 10% of the variance amongst the 369 measurements and identifies the moss species  
417 (Level 1) and the dry deposition of  $\text{NO}_x$  (Level 2) as the main predictors. In *Hs*, *Rs*, *Ps* and *Br*  
418 the N concentrations (1.24%) are lower than in *Hc*, *Ta*, *Pp*, *Dicr sp*, *Aa*, and *Tt* (1.45%). The  
419 latter sample is split by the dry deposition of  $\text{NO}_x$  below / equal or exceeding  $738.41 \mu\text{g} / \text{m}^2$   
420 / a , yielding two CART-subgroups with N concentrations of 1.39% and 1.71% respectively.

421

422 Figure 6: Decision Tree Analysis for modelled atmospheric total N deposition averaged for  
423 the years 2003-2005 and mosses (2005) for ELCE unit F\_4.2 ( $r_s = 0.01$ ).

424 *Aa* *Abietinella abietina*, *Br* *Brachythecium rutabulum*, *Dicr. Sp.* *Dicranum*, *Hc* *Hypnum*  
425 *cupressiforme*, *Hs* *Hylocomium splendens*, *Pp* *Pseudoscleropodium purum*, *Ps* *Pleurozium*  
426 *schreberi*, *Rs* *Rhytidiadelphus squarrosus*, *Sp* *Scleropodium purum*, *Ta* *Thuidium abietinum*,  
427 *Tt* *Thuidium tamariscinum*

428

429

#### 430 **4. Conclusions**

431 Substances emitted into the atmosphere such as N are removed at the Earth's surface by  
432 atmospheric deposition and then accumulated in soils and plants. The partitioning between  
433 dry, occult and wet deposition depends on atmospheric concentrations of the respective  
434 element and landscape characteristics as for instance climate, land use, surface roughness.  
435 Unlike wet deposition, which is widely monitored in regional networks with wet-only or bulk  
436 precipitation collectors, measurements of dry N deposition are limited to some few sites and a

437 few days to a few months. Dry deposition monitoring networks across large areas such as  
438 Europe are impracticable. Results from dry deposition modelling revealed that the differences  
439 between models reached a factor 2–3 and exceeded the differences between monitoring sites  
440 (Flechard et al., 2011). Thus, supplementary deposition monitoring techniques should be  
441 applied which enable to collect dry, occult and wet depositions (Knappe et al. 2008) and to  
442 cover large areas and different landscapes in a high spatial resolution.

443 From this study it can be concluded that the requirements mentioned above can be reached by  
444 application of the moss technique. Mosses were proved to serve as biological indicators for  
445 atmospheric depositions and ecologically defined land classes could be identified as more  
446 complex indicators which allow relating exposure monitoring with effects assessment: For N  
447 the correlations between concentrations in mosses and the EMEP modelled total atmospheric  
448 deposition are landscape-specific and, in comparison with the landscape-specific correlations  
449 for Cd, Hg and Pb (Schröder et al., 2013), substance-specific. Significant positive  
450 correlations between atmospheric N deposition and the N concentration in mosses were found  
451 for 13 out of 25 (= 52%) ELCE units. Non-significant or significant, low negative  
452 correlations were found in landscapes where mosses were sampled in a relative small number  
453 of EMEP grid squares. Correlations were generally not affected by using EMEP modelled  
454 deposition data for the year previous to sampling or averaged over three years previous to  
455 sampling of the mosses. For the majority of landscapes across Europe, the moss bio--  
456 monitoring could be corroborated as a valid, complementary method for assessing spatial  
457 patterns and temporal trends of atmospheric deposition of N across Europe. Atmospheric N  
458 deposition and N concentration in mosses could be proven to differ considerably between  
459 natural landscapes across Europe. In a following investigation, these results should be used to  
460 detail estimations of critical loads of eutrophication exceedances which, in EU27, in 2000  
461 and 2020 amount to 74% and 61%, respectively, under current legislation (Baseline

462 scenario). Under the Maximum Feasible Reduction scenario, the area at risk in EU27 could  
463 be 24% (Hettelingh et al., 2010). Thus, in parts of Europe, ecotoxicologically critical input  
464 levels are exceeded. Long-term exceedances of the critical N input rate can lead to an  
465 imbalance of nutrients and to changes in the species composition in sensitive ecosystems  
466 (Bobbink et al., 2010). For Natura2000 sites, 15% of the area in EU27 is at risk of significant  
467 change in bio-diversity in 2000 (Hettelingh et al., 2010) through high N inputs, which can  
468 increase the sensitivity of plants to climatic extremes and to biotic pests (Bobbink et al.,  
469 2010). These areas should be assessed in more detail by applying the approach presented in  
470 this investigation.

471 Furthermore, the first European N survey should be resumed and implemented as a long-term  
472 monitoring programme to enable detection of temporal trends. This would support the spatial  
473 modelling of atmospheric depositions and critical loads exceedances. Harmens et al. (2006)  
474 demonstrated the use of herbarium moss analyses for retrospective monitoring of long-term  
475 (ca. 1860 – ca. 2000) temporal trends of N concentration in mosses collected from Czech  
476 Republic, Finland, France and Switzerland. The study corroborated that before 1960 there  
477 were no changes in the total N concentration in mosses. However, after 1960 the total N  
478 concentration in mosses was increased in all countries, although significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) only  
479 in Switzerland. Total N deposition rates estimated by EMEP/M SC-West using the EMEP  
480 Unified model show broadly a similar trend: not much change in total N deposition rates up  
481 to 1960 (apart from the Czech Republic) and a clear rise since 1960 (Harmens et al., 2006).

482

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490

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649

650 Figure 1: Geographical distribution of mosses sampled for N analyses. *Other species*  
651 containing those with  $n < 20$ , i.e. *Br* - *Brachythecium rutabulum* ( $n = 12$ ); *Brach* *sp.* - mosses  
652 of the genus *Brachythecium* ( $n = 14$ ); *Hom* *sp.* mosses of the genus *Homalothecium* ( $n = 12$ );  
653 *Scler* *sp.* - mosses of the genus *Scleropodium* other than *Pp* ( $n = 2$ ); *Ta* - *Thuidium abietinum*,  
654 ( $n = 2$ ); *Tt* - *Thuidium tamariscinum* ( $n = 15$ ). For full names cf. Fig. 6.

655

656 Figure 2: Atmospheric N deposition modelled on a 50 km by 50 km grid (EMEP) and N  
657 concentrations in moss samples at individual sites

658

659 Figure 3: Correlations of N concentrations in modelled atmospheric total deposition summed  
660 up for the years 2003-2005 and in mosses (2005) within ELCE units.

661

662 Figure 4: Geographical distribution of ELCE units F\_1.2 and F\_4.2 and moss sampling sites  
663 across Europe.

664

665 Figure 5: Decision Tree Analysis for N concentrations in modelled atmospheric total N  
666 depositions summed up for the years 2003-2005 and mosses (2005) for ELCE unit F\_1.2 ( $r_s =$   
667 0.58).

668

669 Figure 6: Decision Tree Analysis for modelled atmospheric total N deposition averaged for  
670 the years 2003-2005 and mosses (2005) for ELCE unit F\_4.2 ( $r_s = 0.01$ ).

671 **Aa** *Abietinella abietina* (Hedw.) Fleisch., **Br** *Brachythecium rutabulum* (Hedw.) Schimp.,

672 **Dicr. Sp.** *Dicranum* species, **Hc** *Hypnum cupressiforme* Hedw., **Hs** *Hylocomium splendens*

673 (Hedw.) Schimp., **Pp** *Pseudoscleropodium purum* (Hedw.) Fleisch., **Ps** *Pleurozium schreberi*

674 (Brid.) Mitt., **Rs** *Rhytidiadelphus squarrosus* (Hedw.) Warnst., **Ta** *Thuidium abietinum*

675 (Hedw.) Schimp., **Tt** *Thuidium tamariscinum* (Hedw.) Schimp.

676

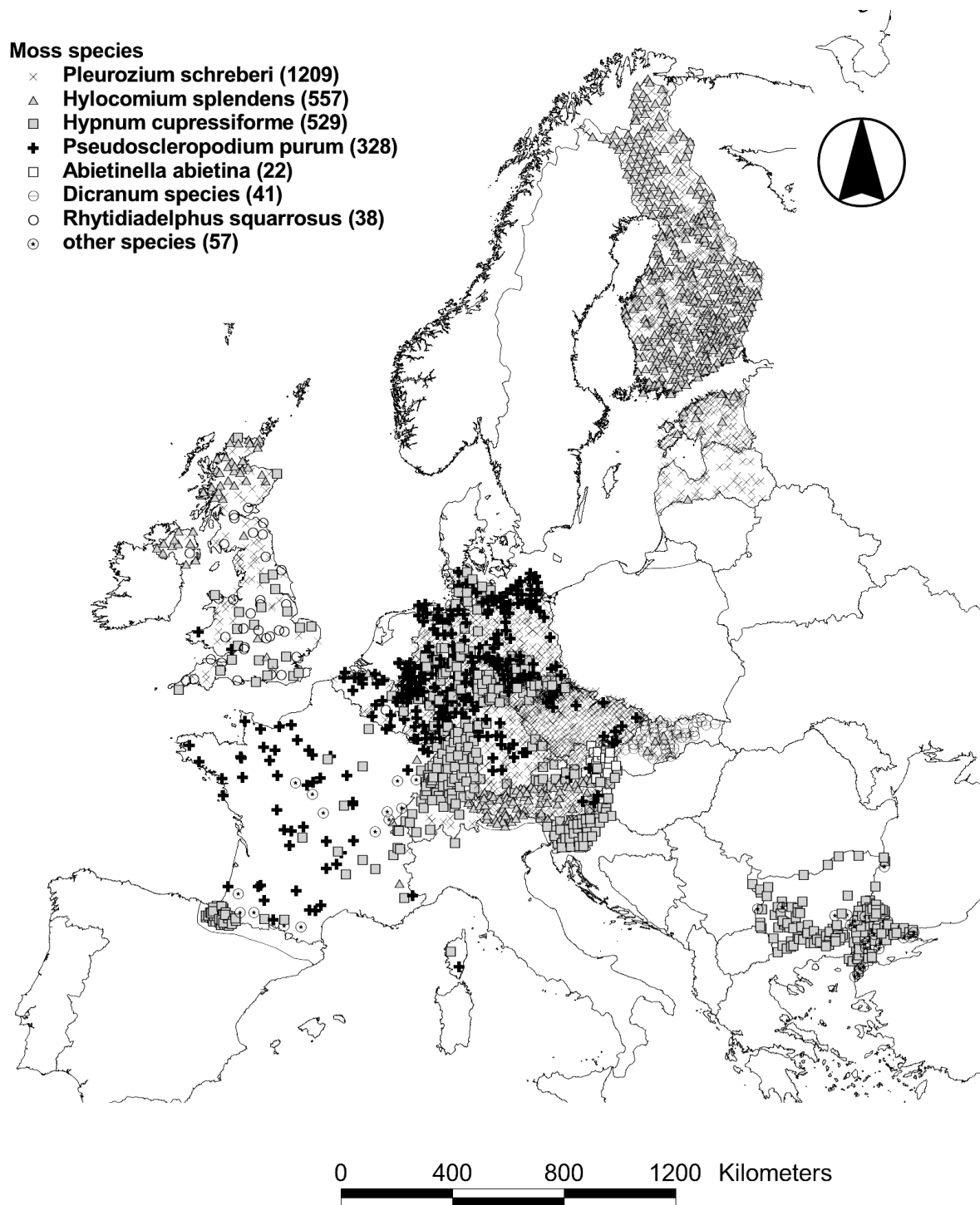


Figure 1: Geographical distribution of mosses sampled for N analyses *Other species* containing those with  $n < 20$ , i.e. *Br* - *Brachythecium rutabulum* ( $n = 12$ ); *Brach sp.* - mosses of the genus *Brachythecium* ( $n = 14$ ); *Hom sp.* - mosses of the genus *Homalothecium* ( $n = 12$ ); *Scler sp.* - mosses of the genus *Scleropodium* other than *Pp* ( $n = 2$ ); *Ta* - *Thuidium abietinum*, ( $n = 2$ ); *Tt* - *Thuidium tamariscinum* ( $n = 15$ ). For full names cf. Fig. 6.

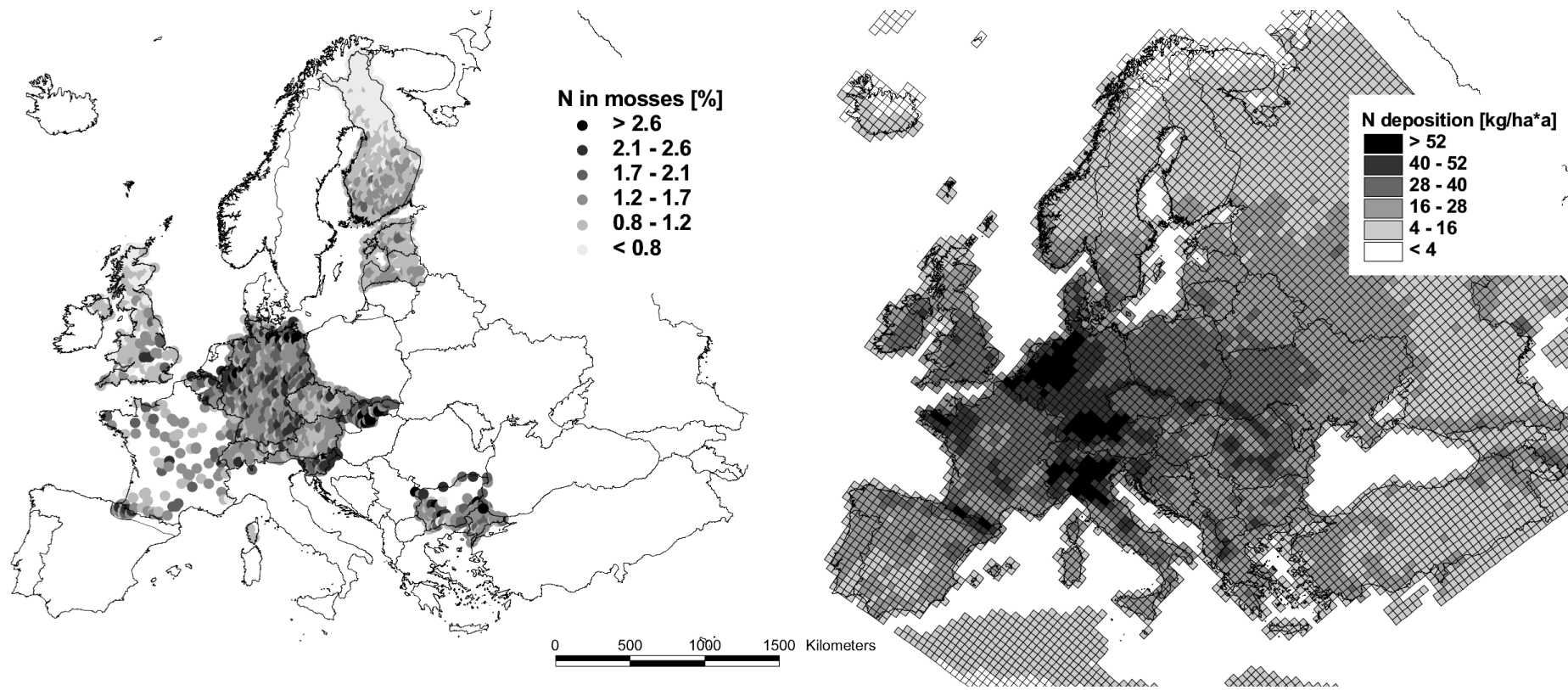


Figure 2: Atmospheric N concentrations in mosses samples at individual sites and N deposition modelled on a 50 km by 50 km grid (EMEP)



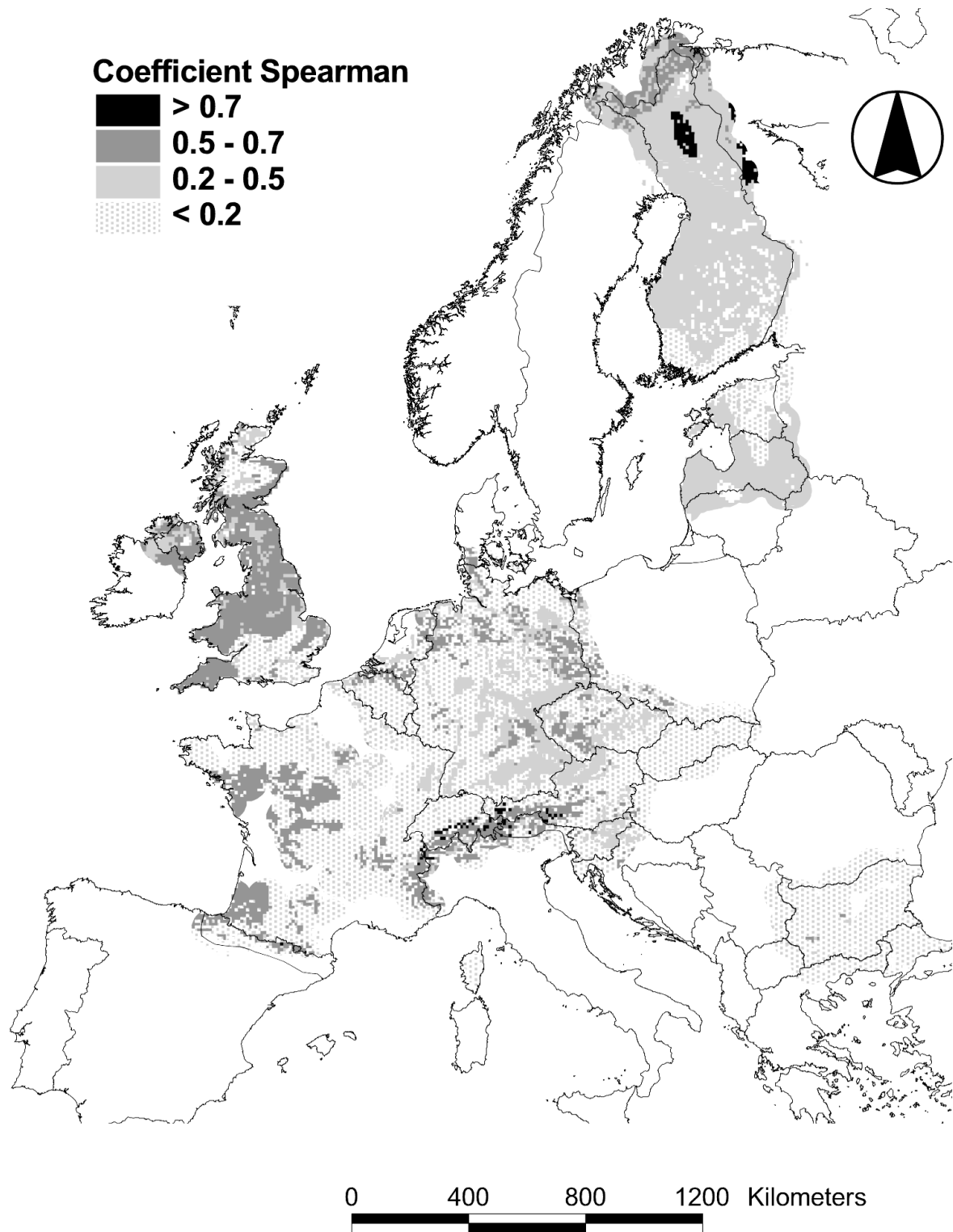


Figure 3: Correlations of N concentrations in modelled atmospheric total deposition summed up for the years 2003-2005 and in mosses (2005) within ELCE units.

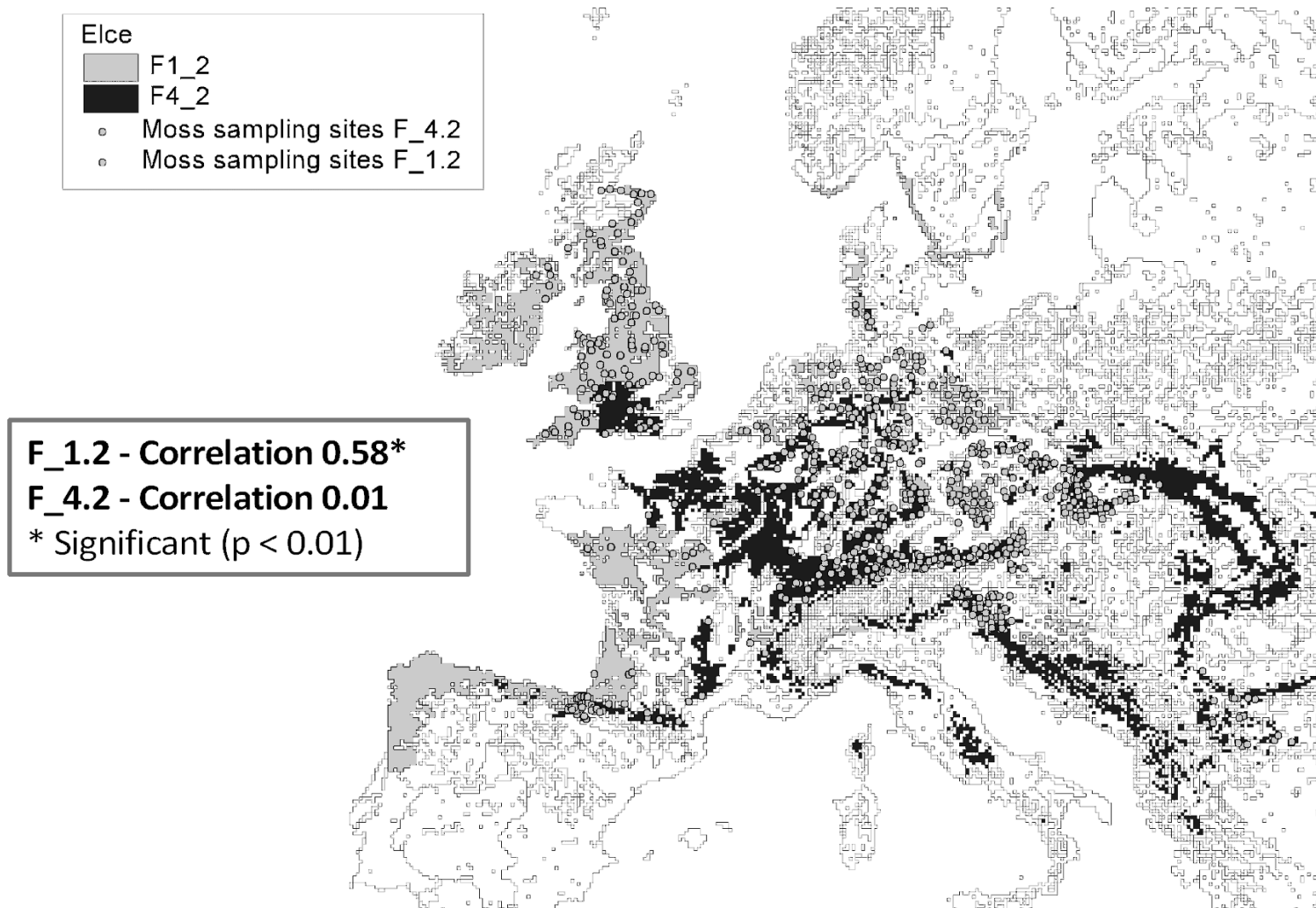


Figure 4: Geographical distribution of ELCE units F\_1.2 and F\_4.2 and moss sampling sites across Europe.

**CART analysis for  
ELCE class F\_1.2**

**N = 236**

**62 % explained  
variance**

**High correlation!**

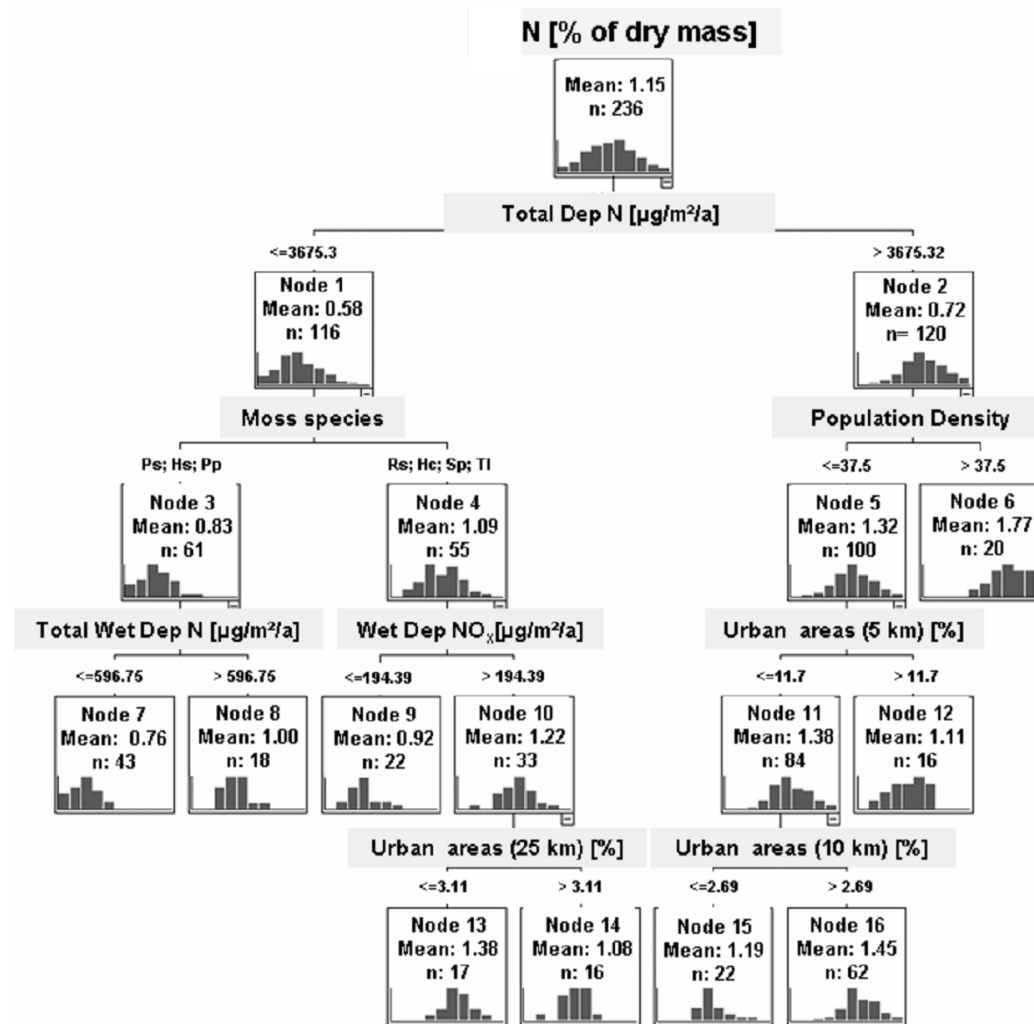
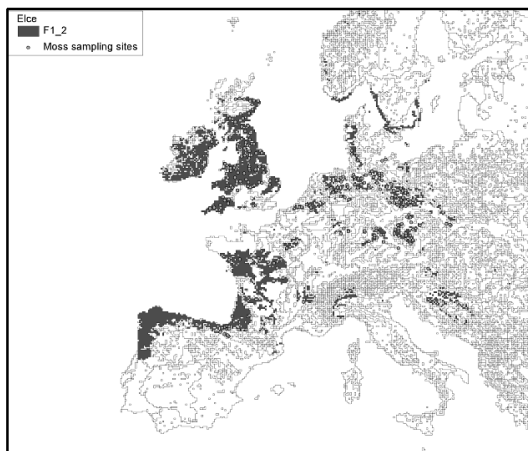


Figure 5: Decision Tree Analysis for N concentrations in modelled atmospheric total N depositions summed up for the years 2003-2005 and mosses (2005) for ELCE unit F\_1.2 ( $r_s = 0.58$ ).

**CART analysis for  
ELCE class F\_4.2**

**N = 396**

**10 % explained  
variance**

**Low correlation!**

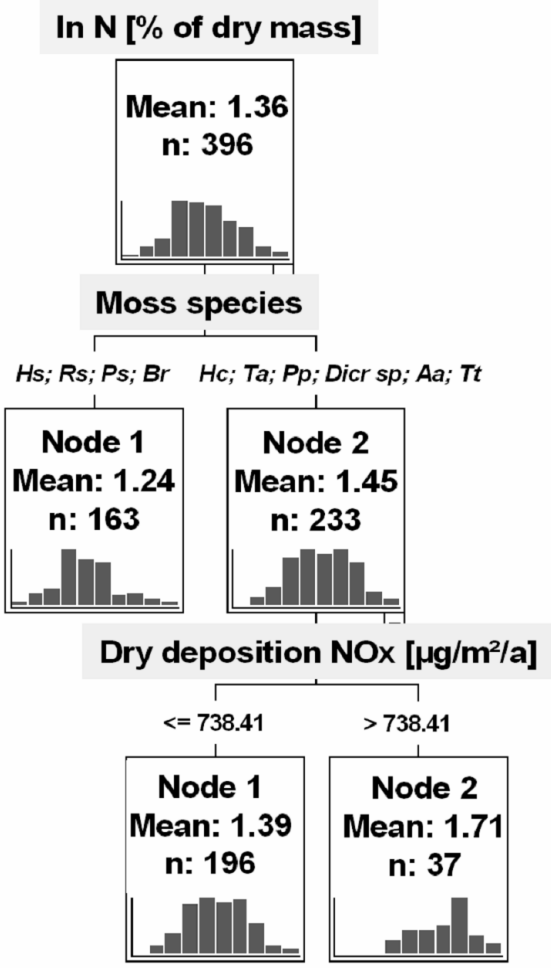
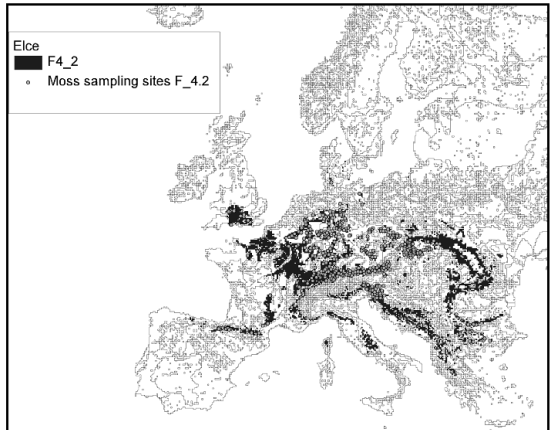


Figure 6: Decision Tree Analysis for modelled atmospheric total N deposition averaged for the years 2003-2005 and mosses (2005) for ELCE unit F\_4.2 ( $r_s = 0.01$ ) *Aa* *Abietinella abietina* (Hedw.) Fleisch., *Br* *Brachythecium rutabulum* (Hedw.) Schimp., *Dicr. Sp.* *Dicranum* species, *Hc* *Hypnum cupressiforme* Hedw., *Hs* *Hylocomium splendens* (Hedw.) Schimp., *Pp* *Pseudoscleropodium purum* (Hedw.) Fleisch., *Ps* *Pleurozium schreberi* (Brid.) Mitt., *Rs* *Rhytidiadelphus squarrosus* (Hedw.) Warnst., *Ta* *Thuidium abietinum* (Hedw.) Schimp., *Tt* *Thuidium tamariscinum* (Hedw.) Schimp.

