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5 **Title:** Impacts of nitrogen addition on plant species richness and abundance: A global meta-analysis

6

7 **Running head:** Nitrogen addition reduces plant species richness and abundance.

8

9 **Manuscript category:** Meta-analysis

## 10 **Abstract**

11 **Aim** Experimental nitrogen (N) addition (fertilization) studies are commonly used to quantify the  
12 impacts of increased N inputs on plant biodiversity. However, as plant community responses can vary  
13 considerably among individual studies, there is a clear need to synthesize and generalize findings  
14 with meta-analytical approaches. Our goal was to quantify changes in species richness and abundance  
15 in plant communities in response to N addition across different environmental contexts, while  
16 controlling for different experimental designs.

17 **Location** Global

18 **Time period** Data range: 1985 – 2016; Publication years: 1990-2018

19 **Major taxa studied** Plants

20 **Methods** We performed a meta-analysis of 115 experiments reported in 85 studies assessing the  
21 effects of N addition on terrestrial natural and semi-natural plant communities. We quantified changes  
22 in plant biodiversity in relation to N addition using four metrics: species richness (SR), individual  
23 species abundance (IA), mean species abundance (MSA) and geometric mean abundance (GMA).

24 **Results** For all metrics, greater amounts of annual N addition resulted in larger declines in plant  
25 diversity. Additionally, MSA decreased more steeply with N that was applied in reduced ( $\text{NH}_4^+$ )  
26 rather than oxidised ( $\text{NO}_3^-$ ) form. Species richness loss with increasing N amounts was found to be  
27 larger in warmer sites. Further, greater losses in species richness were found in sites with longer  
28 experimental duration, [smaller plot sizes](#) and lower soil cation exchange capacity (CEC). Finally,  
29 abundance reductions of individual species were larger for N-sensitive plant life-form types (legumes  
30 and non-vascular plants).

31 **Main conclusions** N enrichment decreases both species richness and abundance of plant communities  
32 in N-addition experiments, but the magnitude of the response differs among biodiversity metrics and  
33 with the environmental and experimental context. This underlines the importance of integrating  
34 multiple dimensions of biodiversity as well as relevant modifying factors into assessments of  
35 biodiversity responses to global environmental change.

36

37 **Keywords:** anthropogenic impacts, biodiversity, eutrophication, global change, GLOBIO, vegetation,

38 soil acidification

## 39 **Introduction**

40 Nitrogen (N) deposition is among the main drivers of the loss of plant biodiversity in terrestrial  
41 ecosystems (Bobbink et al., 2010; Sala et al., 2000; Vellend et al., 2017). In the last century, enhanced  
42 emissions of nitrogenous compounds caused by agricultural and industrial activities have increased  
43 atmospheric nitrogen (N) deposition in natural and semi-natural ecosystems across the world  
44 (Erisman et al., 2013; Galloway et al., 2008), with concomitant consequences for the biodiversity of  
45 these ecosystems (Bobbink et al., 2010; Dise et al., 2011). Biodiversity is key for maintaining the  
46 functioning of ecosystems and the provision of ecosystem services (Cardinale et al., 2012; Hooper et  
47 al., 2005). Plant diversity, for example, enhances the ability of ecosystems to maintain multiple  
48 functions and processes, such as carbon sequestration, productivity, and the build-up of nutrient pools  
49 (Maestre et al., 2012). Apart from positive effects on ecosystem productivity, diversity also provides  
50 increased erosion control, resistance to invasive species and pest regulation (Quijas et al., 2012).

51 The responses of plant communities to N deposition vary depending on the environmental context  
52 (Simkin et al., 2016; Vellend et al., 2017; Perring et al., 2018<sup>a</sup>). Modifying factors include the amount  
53 and duration of N deposition, which determine the cumulative N input over time (Bernhardt-  
54 Römermann et al., 2015; Duprè et al., 2010); soil pH and acid neutralizing capacity (Clark et al., 2007;  
55 Simkin et al., 2016); the chemical forms of N input (Stevens et al., 2011) and environmental  
56 conditions such as climate (Clark et al., 2007; Humbert, Dwyer, Andrey, & Arlettaz, 2016; Limpens  
57 et al., 2011) and vegetation types (Pardo et al., 2011; Simkin et al., 2016). Additionally, land use  
58 history might play a relevant role, as this may drive the composition and function of plant  
59 communities into different trajectories of change (Perring et al., 2018<sup>b</sup>).

60 There are two main empirical approaches to study the impact of N on plant diversity (Hettelingh,  
61 Stevens, Posch, Bobbink, & de Vries, 2015). These approaches are experimental N addition studies,  
62 and observational studies investigating plant species diversity over a gradient of N deposition, either  
63 in time series analysis (e.g. Stevens, Duprè et al., 2010; Stevens, Thompson, Grime, Long, and  
64 Gowing, 2010) or over a spatial gradient (e.g. Jones et al., 2004; Duprè et al., 2010). Observational

65 gradient studies can benefit from existing datasets (e.g. Simkin et al., 2016), but need to correct for  
66 confounding site factors and cannot prove causality (Dise et al., 2011). Experimental studies, on the  
67 other hand, allow for effects to be directly attributed to N addition. However, experimental studies  
68 typically assess relatively short-term responses only and often use higher levels of N addition  
69 compared to atmospheric deposition in the field. Furthermore, the results might be influenced by  
70 experimental design and local environmental conditions, which limits the possibilities for regional  
71 and global extrapolation (Hettelingh et al., 2015). The latter might be solved by setting up globally  
72 distributed experiments such as the Nutrient Network (Firn et al., 2011; Borer et al., 2014), but also  
73 by synthesizing multiple N-addition experiments with a meta-analysis, allowing to derive a more  
74 general quantitative response of plant species diversity to N enrichment.

75 Previous meta-analyses that addressed impacts of N on plant assemblages focused on species richness  
76 or biomass in specific ecosystems (i.e. Limpens et al., 2011; Humbert et al., 2016) or in specific  
77 geographic regions (i.e. Clark et al., 2007; Fu and Shen, 2016) or continents (i.e. De Schrijver et al.,  
78 2011; Soons et al., 2017). To our knowledge, a systematic meta-analysis covering multiple  
79 dimensions of biodiversity in multiple ecosystems across the globe is yet lacking. In addition to  
80 covering a large geographical extent, it is particularly important to consider metrics beyond species  
81 richness, such as measures of species abundance, as different aspects of biodiversity may respond  
82 differently to environmental change (Dornelas et al., 2014; Schipper et al., 2016; Winfree, Fox,  
83 Williams, Reilly, & Cariveau, 2015). In this study we synthesized a large number of N-addition  
84 studies worldwide, in order to reveal overall effects of N addition on various metrics of local plant  
85 biodiversity and explore the role of potential experimental (amount of yearly N applied, experimental  
86 duration, type of fertilizer, plot size) and environmental (temperature, precipitation, soil pH, soil  
87 cation exchange capacity, atmospheric N deposition) moderators (Figure 1a). We considered four  
88 metrics of biodiversity change to incorporate richness and abundance as two essential dimensions of  
89 biodiversity (Schipper et al., 2016) (Figure 1b): species richness (SR), individual species abundance  
90 (IA) (Benítez-López et al., 2017), mean species abundance (MSA) (Alkemade et al., 2009) and

91 geometric mean abundance (GMA) (Buckland, Magurran, Green, & Fewster, 2005; Buckland,  
92 Studeny, Magurran, Illian, & Newson, 2011). The metrics adopted cover different domains of the  
93 richness-abundance space and in our meta-analysis represent the changes observed between treatment  
94 and control plots (Figure 1b).

95 We expected [local biodiversity](#) to decrease with increasing yearly N addition amounts and  
96 experimental duration, reflecting the negative effect of cumulative N enrichment (De Schrijver et al.,  
97 2011; Humbert et al., 2016). We further hypothesized that larger negative impacts to N addition will  
98 occur in sites with low soil pH and low atmospheric N deposition, as plants growing in such  
99 conditions tend to be more adapted to low N availability (Bobbink et al., 2010; Simkin et al., 2016).

100 We also expected that fertilizer types containing reduced N forms ( $\text{NH}_4^+$ ) result in higher impacts on  
101 plant diversity than oxidised forms ( $\text{NO}_3^-$ ), as reduced N tends to strongly acidify the soil and  
102 disadvantage the nutrient uptake of N-poor adapted species (van den Berg, Peters, Ashmore &  
103 Roelofs, 2008; Song et al., 2012). [We further hypothesized that species losses would be larger in](#)  
104 [larger experimental plots, as these have higher chances of including rare species, which may also be](#)  
105 [more likely to go extinct in the treatment plots \(Perring et al., 2018<sup>b</sup>\)](#). Higher impacts were also  
106 expected in sites with low soil cation exchange capacity (CEC), as lower CEC indicates higher  
107 susceptibility to acidification in response to N addition (De Vries, Posch & Kämäri, 1989; Clark et  
108 al., 2007). We further hypothesized losses to be larger in experiments conducted under higher mean  
109 annual temperature and precipitation, because these conditions are expected to result in higher N  
110 mineralisation rates hence enhanced N availability following fertilization (Dise et al., 2011; Yang,  
111 Ryals, Cusack & Silver, 2017).

112

## 113 **Methods**

### 114 *Selection of primary studies*

115 In April 2018, we used the Scopus and Web of Science databases to collect primary studies. The  
116 search strings were composed of ‘OR’ and ‘AND’ statements combining terms related to N-addition

117 experiments and different dimensions of plant species diversity, for example (“nitrogen fertilization”  
118 OR “nitrogen addition”) AND (“abundance” OR “composition” OR “number” OR “richness”) (see  
119 the complete search strings in Supporting Information Appendix S1). We selected relevant studies  
120 based on title and abstract, and then scanned their full texts and supporting materials to extract data  
121 on N-addition experiments. Where factorial treatment combinations were present, we retained data  
122 from control and N addition plots alone to avoid confounding effects. Thus, we excluded data from  
123 plots where N addition was performed together with watering, temperature increase, litter removal,  
124 grazing, fire manipulation or where N was added in combination with other nutrients. We limited our  
125 selection to experiments conducted on natural or semi-natural vegetation excluding studies conducted  
126 on crops, mono-cultures or where species were artificially introduced in plots. Finally, we removed  
127 studies that reported the same data as other studies already included in our database. To avoid over-  
128 representation, we collected data on species richness and abundance change at the final year of each  
129 experiment.

130 Our literature search yielded a total of 2314 studies, of which we selected 85 relevant studies  
131 (published between March 1990 and January 2018) that reported data from 115 N-addition  
132 experiments performed between 1985 and 2016 in different geographical locations (Figure 2; Table  
133 S2.1, Appendix S2). Of the 85 studies, 48 reported data on species richness, 15 on individual species  
134 abundance, and 22 on both species richness and abundance ([a list of the data sources is found in](#)  
135 [Appendix A](#)). We extracted the number of species and species-specific abundance data separately  
136 from treatment and control plots and calculated the four biodiversity metrics as described in Table 1.  
137 Abundance data were extracted for each species reported in both the treatment and control plots, for  
138 a total of 403 taxa. The majority of these were identified to species level, but 32 were indicated with  
139 the genus name only. Thus, the total number of species in our dataset might be slightly overestimated.  
140 We recorded a total of 220 pairwise comparisons for SR. At the species level, we included 871  
141 individual species abundance comparisons (IA), some across multiple N fertilization levels within  
142 the same experiment, which resulted in 89 observations for MSA and GMA. Nitrogen addition levels

143 ranged from 3.75 to 572 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> in the species richness dataset (mean = 124.8 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>;  
144 median = 92 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>), and from 7 to 480 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> in the species abundance dataset (mean =  
145 96.5 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>; median = 70 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>).

146

#### 147 *Calculation of the effect sizes*

148 We calculated four biodiversity metrics for the meta-analysis, including the species richness ratio  
149 (SR), individual species abundance ratio (IA), mean species abundance (MSA), and geometric mean  
150 abundance (GMA) (Table 1). Both SR and IA were obtained by log-transforming the ratio between  
151 the species richness and individual species abundance in each N-treatment plot and control plot,  
152 respectively (Hedges, Gurevitch, & Curtis, 1999). Some species had zero abundance in treatment  
153 plots, precluding log-transformation for IA calculation. Therefore, we transformed IA effect sizes  
154 using a modification of the transformation proposed by Smithson and Verkuilen (2006) to shrink the  
155 ratios and avoid zero values (Benítez-López et al., 2017) (eq.1):

$$156 \quad y_i = \frac{(y \cdot N + 0.5)}{N} \quad (\text{eq. 1})$$

157 where  $y$  is the ratio ( $A_T/A_C$ ) of individual species abundance in the treatment ( $A_T$ ) and control ( $A_C$ ) and  
158  $N$  is the number of observations in the individual species abundance dataset ( $N = 871$ ). This resulted  
159 in a distribution of ratios ( $y_i$ ) slightly displaced towards larger values (before transformation:  $[0, 82.5]$ ,  
160 after transformation:  $[0.0006, 82.5006]$ ). The new ratios were then log-transformed to obtain IA.  
161 Since ratios  $A_T/A_C$  cannot be calculated when abundance in the control is equal to 0, we decided to  
162 exclude species that were present only in the treatments from the calculation of the IA and GMA  
163 metrics, following the definitions and approaches applied in previous studies (Table 1).

164 We calculated MSA as the mean of the ratios of individual species abundance in each treatment versus  
165 the corresponding control (Alkemade et al., 2009; Benítez-López, Alkemade, & Verweij, 2010).  
166 Following the definition of MSA, the individual ratios were truncated at 1 for species with a higher  
167 abundance in the treatment group compared to the control group (Table 1). As MSA captures losses  
168 in abundance of species that are found in reference conditions (control plots) only, it cannot go beyond



169 the original abundance and richness (Figure 1b). Finally, GMA was calculated as the back-  
170 transformed mean of the log-transformed individual abundance ratios, without truncation (Buckland  
171 et al., 2011). The GMA metric (Buckland et al., 2005; Buckland et al., 2011) also combines abundance  
172 and species richness into one index but allows for gains in the abundance dimension (Figure 1b).

173

#### 174 ***Moderators***

175 Factors influencing plant community responses to N were selected *a priori* based on literature study  
176 (Figure 1a; Table S3.1, Appendix S3) and data availability. Nine moderators were considered in the  
177 analysis: 1) the annual amount of N added in the experiment ( $\text{kg N ha}^{-1}\text{yr}^{-1}$ ); 2) the annual amount of  
178 background N deposition ( $\text{kg N ha}^{-1}\text{yr}^{-1}$ ) (i.e. the amount of N deposited from the atmosphere, which  
179 is independent from the experimental N addition); 3) mean annual temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ); 4) mean annual  
180 precipitation ( $\text{mm yr}^{-1}$ ); 5) duration of the experiment (number of years of N addition); 6) the type of  
181 N fertilizer, categorized as fertilizers containing nitrate ( $\text{NO}_3$ ) (i.e. ammonium nitrate or alkali nitrates)  
182 or fertilizers containing ammonium ( $\text{NH}_4$ ) as the only source of N (i.e. urea, urine, ammonium  
183 sulphate and ammonium chloride) (see details in Table S4.1, Appendix S4); 7) plot size ( $\text{m}^2$ ) (i.e. the  
184 area of vegetation surveyed to estimate richness or abundance in each experiment); 8) initial soil pH  
185 at the experimental sites (estimated before N addition); 9) soil cation exchange capacity (CEC) ( $\text{cmol}$   
186  $\text{kg}^{-1}$ ). Additionally, we examined overall biodiversity responses among the ecosystem type where the  
187 study/experiment took place, with ecosystems categorized into five broad categories (temperate  
188 grasslands and heathlands, semi-arid ecosystems, bogs/peatlands, arctic/alpine ecosystems, and  
189 forests) (see details about grouping criteria in Table S4.2, Appendix S4). Further, we categorized each  
190 taxon into plant life-form types (herbaceous forbs, graminoids, legumes, ferns, woody plants and non-  
191 vascular plants; see Table S4.3, Appendix S4) and used this to assess possible differences in individual  
192 abundance response among different species groups.

193 We collected from each study the location (geographic coordinates), experimental setup (yearly  
194 amount of N addition, experimental duration, type of N fertilizer, plot size) and ecosystem type.

195 Because many studies did not report atmospheric N deposition levels, we collected these data from  
196 the global TM5 model for the year 2000 (Dentener et al., 2006). For the same reason, we extracted  
197 estimates of cation exchange capacity (CEC) and soil pH from the 250 m resolution global SoilGrids  
198 data (Hengl et al., 2014; Hengl et al., 2017), by averaging values provided for soil depths of 0-5, 5-  
199 15 and 15-30 cm. Data on temperature and precipitation were derived from the global Climate  
200 Research Unit database, which comprises series of monthly meteorological data on a  $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$  grid  
201 (New, Hulme, & Jones, 1999). For each observation we extracted data for the corresponding year and  
202 calculated the mean temperature and precipitation over the 12 monthly values.

203

#### 204 ***Data analysis***

205 We performed the meta-analysis using multilevel mixed-effect models to control for non-  
206 independence in the data due to multiple effect sizes per study and species (Nakagawa & Santos,  
207 2012). We first fitted single meta-regression models using yearly N addition as the only moderator,  
208 in order to compare changes among the metrics for a given amount of N applied. Then, we fitted  
209 multiple meta-regression models by including other moderators as well as interaction terms between  
210 the amount of N addition and these other moderators. Except for mean annual temperature and soil  
211 pH, we log-transformed all continuous moderators, as the data showed strong positive skewness, and  
212 we scaled and centred all continuous variables. The only moderate correlation among moderators was  
213 between mean annual precipitation and soil pH (richness dataset  $\rho=-0.75$ ; abundance dataset  $\rho=-0.68$ ).  
214 Based on this, we decided not to exclude any moderators upfront. We performed stepwise backward  
215 selection based on the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC), whereby we excluded a moderator only  
216 in case it was also dropped from the interaction term. We estimated the amount of heterogeneity  
217 reduced in the best models selected and by each moderator using the omnibus Wald-type test of  
218 moderators (Benítez-López et al., 2017).

219 We accounted for the correlation in the true effects by using experiments as the random effect in the  
220 models. For the IA metric, we used a crossed random effect structure including both experiment and

species as random components. We nested the individual estimates within the experiment grouping-level in the random structure of the models to account for the possibility that the underlying true effects within experiments are not homogeneous (Konstantopoulos, 2011). We weighted the importance of the effect sizes of SR and IA by the inverse of the sampling variance (Hedges et al., 1999) (Table 1). Because of non-independence of the effect sizes, we computed the variance-covariance matrix based on Lajeunesse (2011). For SR and IA, the models were fitted with the *rma.mv* function of the R package ‘metafor’ (Viechtbauer, 2010). Observations were weighted by the inverse of the sampling variance (Table 1), which we calculated from standard deviation directly from papers or through personal contact with the authors. We imputed missing standard deviations using the coefficient of variation from all complete cases with the R package ‘metagear’ (Lajeunesse, 2016). Since MSA and GMA have a different structure compared to log-transformed response ratios and standard deviations are not reported for these derived metrics, we used the number of replicates in each experiment to weight the observations (Soons et al., 2017). We fitted multi-level linear mixed-effect models for MSA and GMA with the *lme* function of the R package ‘nlme’ (Pinheiro, Bates, DebRoy, Sarkar, & R Core Team, 2017). Finally, we used null models to estimate the weighted mean pooled effect size, namely the overall amount of plant diversity change across all experiments, independently from the amount of N addition. Based on these models, we also investigated publication bias with visual estimation of the funnel plots (Nakagawa & Santos, 2012). We tested the significance of funnel plots asymmetry with the Egger's test by fitting the residuals of the null model with observation precision (1/SE or the inverse of number of replicates) as a moderator (Møller & Jennions, 2001; Nakagawa & Santos, 2012). Results of null models and publication bias are reported in Appendix S5. All analyses were performed in the R environment (version 3.4.2) (R Core Team, 2017).

244

## 245 **Results**

246 We found all metrics of plant diversity to respond negatively to increasing yearly N addition (Figure  
247 3). The single meta-regression models estimated different amounts of plant diversity loss per unit of  
248 N addition, depending on the metric considered. For example, with a yearly amount of 100 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup>  
249 yr<sup>-1</sup> the models indicated a relative loss in species richness by 17% and in individual abundance by  
250 64%, whereas the MSA and GMA were estimated to be reduced by 34% and 36%, respectively,  
251 compared to the control plots. Only the GMA metric showed a non-linear relationship with yearly N  
252 amounts, indicating that a small amount of N addition may lead to an increase in abundance or  
253 evenness (Figure 3d).

254 The multiple meta-regression models showed that responses of plant biodiversity to N addition are  
255 influenced by various environmental and experimental covariates (Table 2; see Appendix S6 for  
256 detailed model outputs). Climatic moderators were found to influence the responses of the abundance  
257 metrics, indicating stronger declines in areas with greater mean annual precipitation (for IA and  
258 GMA) or higher mean annual temperature (for MSA). In addition, the lowest BIC model for SR  
259 retained a significant interaction between yearly N addition amounts and mean annual temperature  
260 (Table 2). Species richness decreased not only with yearly N addition amounts, but also with  
261 experimental duration, indicating cumulative effects over time. We also found that plot size was a  
262 relevant moderator for SR, with larger relative losses occurring in smaller plots. Additionally, we  
263 found that overall losses in SR were less pronounced in soils with higher cation exchange capacity  
264 (CEC). For instance, after a 5-year experiment with an addition level of 100 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, the model  
265 estimates 10% of species richness loss for soils with a moderately high buffering capacity to  
266 acidification (CEC = 35 cmol kg<sup>-1</sup>). However, estimated species richness loss drops to 30% if the  
267 same experiment (i.e. same duration and yearly N addition) is conducted on a poorly buffered soil  
268 (CEC = 8 cmol kg<sup>-1</sup>). The best model for MSA retained a significant interaction between yearly N  
269 addition amount and fertilizer type, with stronger declines for N applied in a reduced form (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> in  
270 urea or ammonium sulphate) as compared to fertilizer containing oxidised N forms (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in  
271 ammonium nitrate or alkali nitrates).

272 We did not find a significant interaction between N application and ecosystem type for any metric,  
273 indicating that the overall direction of biodiversity change with increasing yearly N addition was the  
274 same in all the ecosystem types considered (Figure 4). For plant life-form types, we did not find a  
275 significant interaction with N application either, i.e., all plant groups decreased with increasing N  
276 addition amounts. A single regression model with life-form types as moderator indicated the largest  
277 mean losses for the most N-sensitive groups (-85% for legumes; -75% for non-vascular plants; Figure  
278 5). The responses of woody species and ferns showed larger variation and was not significantly  
279 different from zero.

280

## 281 **Discussion**

### 282 *N dose-response relationships*

283 The biodiversity loss observed was strongly driven by the amount of yearly N addition. The higher  
284 the N addition to the soil, the larger the negative impact on [local](#) plant diversity, reflecting that the  
285 coexistence of different species is promoted by nutrient limitation (Harpole et al., 2011; Soons et al.,  
286 2017). Growing accumulation of N in the soil increases soil acidification, which progressively  
287 determine abundance loss up to the complete extirpation of species adapted to N-poor conditions  
288 (Bobbink et al., 2010). In addition, eutrophication caused by N enrichment causes plant diversity  
289 losses through enhanced light competition (Hautier, Niklaus, & Hector, 2009). The negative  
290 relationships between plant biodiversity and the amount of N addition agree with the results of  
291 previous meta-analyses conducted on a [large geographical extent](#) across multiple ecosystems types  
292 (De Schrijver et al., 2016; Soons et al., 2017) and in mountain grasslands specifically (Humbert et  
293 al., 2016), although these studies did not consider species abundance. Abundance metrics and species  
294 richness were found to decrease at different rates as N addition increased. The largest declines were  
295 observed for IA, possibly because at the assemblage level extremely negative responses of some  
296 species (like the full extirpation occurring in the treatment plot) might be buffered by positive  
297 responses of other species in the same plot.

## 298 *Experimental duration and cumulative N enrichment*

299 For species richness, we found that experimental duration had a negative additive effect comparable  
300 in magnitude to the effect of the yearly N addition amount (Table 2), in accordance with the results  
301 of Humbert et al. (2016). This suggests that plant communities respond similarly to cumulative N  
302 application and cumulative atmospheric N deposition (Stevens et al., 2004; Duprè et al., 2010) and  
303 indicates that large diversity losses may occur even at low yearly N amounts when fertilization is  
304 protracted over a long-time period (Clark & Tilman, 2008). In the short term, species richness loss  
305 due to N application is likely to be buffered by species gain. However, species turnover tends to  
306 decline after several years of N addition (i.e. long experimental duration), when plant communities  
307 have become adapted to N inputs and populations of a few well-established N-tolerant species  
308 dominate the plots (Dise et al., 2011; Bobbink & Hettelingh, 2011). The absence of an effect of  
309 experimental duration on the responses of the species abundance metrics may reflect that these  
310 metrics do not capture effects of species replacement, because they include only species that were  
311 already present in the controls. Further, our models did not reveal a significant modifying influence  
312 of the background N deposition on the biodiversity responses (Table 2). This might reflect that  
313 background annual N deposition rates were too small ( $0.7\text{--}46.3\text{ kg N ha}^{-1}\text{yr}^{-1}$ ) compared to N amounts  
314 applied in the experiments. In addition, it may reflect that the data source used to retrieve the N  
315 deposition levels ( $50 \times 50\text{ km}$  resolution) was not detailed enough to adequately capture the site-  
316 specific deposition rates.

## 317 *Scale dependence*

318 There is evidence that effects of experimental N addition on local species richness are scale-  
319 dependent. For example, Lan et al. (2015) found that proportional loss following N addition was  
320 significantly higher in larger plots ( $> 8\text{ m}^2$ ). Contrary to these findings, we did not find a significant  
321 interaction between the rate of species richness change and plot size and we found overall larger  
322 richness loss in smaller plot sizes ( $1 \times 1\text{ m}$  or less) compared to larger ones ( $3 \times 3\text{ m}$  or more). Possibly,  
323 in larger plots chances are bigger to survey a few remaining individuals of the same species,

324 decreasing the chance of full extirpation from the sampled area. Like our results, Perring et al. (2018<sup>b</sup>)  
325 found that richness response ratios across 1814 survey-resurvey plots in European temperate forest  
326 understories were positively related to the plot size of the survey. This may reflect that chances to  
327 encounter the same species in two different plots increase with plot size.

328 As we studied effects on local or site-level biodiversity only, we cannot make inferences on the  
329 impacts of N on plant biodiversity at larger extents. Trends in local biodiversity have implications for  
330 changes in biodiversity at larger scales, but the mechanisms involved in these links are not yet fully  
331 understood (McGill, Dornelas, Gotelli & Magurran, 2015). Chase (2010) found that higher beta  
332 diversity (specifically spatial turnover) in more productive mesocosms yielded higher overall  
333 (gamma) diversity at greater nutrient levels. However, the extent to which such effects will also occur  
334 in response to atmospheric N deposition remains elusive, as atmospheric deposition levels are lower  
335 than typical experimental N addition doses and because responses may be confounded by influences  
336 of other environmental pressures. This may also explain why previous analyses of temporal changes  
337 in site-level plant diversity revealed no clear trends in species richness (Vellend et al. 2013; Vellend  
338 et al., 2017), despite increasing atmospheric N deposition levels occurring in the last century.

#### 339 *Effect of N fertilizer type*

340 In our analysis, fertilizer type itself did not induce a significant response in any of the metrics  
341 considered, indicating similar overall impacts of the two types of N fertilizer. However, we found  
342 that MSA decreased more strongly when N was added as urea or ammonium nitrate (containing only  
343  $\text{NH}_4^+$ ) rather than ammonium nitrate or alkali nitrate (fertilizers also containing  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ). In general,  
344 differences in the chemical form of fertilizer applied are very often neglected in the experimental  
345 design of N addition studies (but see Dias, Malveiro, Martins-Loução, Sheppard, & Cruz, 2011; Song  
346 et al., 2012). Yet, evidence suggests that plant species occurring in the same community differ in their  
347 ability to take up  $\text{NO}_3$  and  $\text{NH}_4$  forms, implying that plant community composition and abundance  
348 may strongly depend on the partitioning of differentially available soil N forms (Kahmen, Renker,  
349 Unsicker, & Buchmann, 2006; McKane et al., 2002; Miller & Bowman, 2002). Various studies in

350 Northern Europe suggest that larger species losses are expected with increasing  $\text{NH}_4^+$  deposition due  
351 to increased acidification, especially in case of oligotrophic ecosystems that are sensitive to  
352  $\text{NH}_4^+:\text{NO}_3^-$  increase, such as heathlands, bogs, and acidic grasslands (Kleijn, Bekker, Bobbink, Graaf,  
353 & Roelofs, 2008; Paulissen, van der Ven, Dees, & Bobbink, 2004), while acidification tends to be  
354 less severe when  $\text{NO}_3^-$  fertilizers are applied instead (van den Berg et al., 2008). Future nutrient  
355 addition experiments should account for the type of fertilizer applied to better elucidate such  
356 differences.

### 357 *Soil properties*

358 Soil acidification is one of the major processes to drive biodiversity loss following atmospheric N  
359 enrichment (Stevens et al., 2011). Yet, we did not find any evidence of soil pH modifying the  
360 relationship between [local plant biodiversity](#) and N addition, similar to the results of previous meta-  
361 analyses (De Schrijver et al., 2011; Humbert et al., 2016). Soil acidity follows a negative linear  
362 relationship with base saturation (exchangeable base cations) (Beery & Wilding, 1971). However,  
363 the drop in base saturation is independent of initial soil pH, but it is dependent on soil cation exchange  
364 capacity (CEC) when the soil pH ranges between 4-7 units, as in the case of our data (Helling,  
365 Chesters & Corey, 1964, De Vries et al., 1989; Ulrich, 1986). This may explain why we found that  
366 the response of species richness was not modified by initial soil pH, but instead was related to the soil  
367 CEC, which reflects the ability of the soil to buffer N-induced acidification. Thus, in sites with higher  
368 soil CEC, the negative impact of N addition through acidification is reduced by base cation exchange  
369 in the soil, resulting in a lower species loss compared to sites with low CEC. Similar to our findings,  
370 greater species loss has been associated with lower soil CEC across 23 N-addition experiments in  
371 North America (Clark et al. 2007). Likely, soil CEC may also explain the small species richness  
372 response observed in peatlands and bogs, where overall mean effect size was close to zero (Figure 4).  
373 These ecosystems had the highest soil CEC values in our data ( $32 \pm 3 \text{ cmol kg}^{-1}$ ), reflecting the high  
374 organic matter content that characterizes peatland soils.

### 375 *Climate*



376 The best models selected for the abundance metrics retained main effects of the two climatic  
377 moderators (Table 2), suggesting that overall larger abundance losses occur in sites with higher mean  
378 annual temperature (for MSA) and precipitation (for IA and GMA). We also found evidence that the  
379 slope of the dose-response relationship for species richness is dependent on mean annual temperature  
380 at the site level, indicating that richness decreases more steeply with N dose in warmer sites. Similar  
381 outcomes have been reported for species richness of mountain grasslands (Humbert et al. 2016) and  
382 the abundance of *Sphagnum* mosses (Limpens et al. 2011), probably because N uptake tends to  
383 increase with temperature (Cross, Hood, Benstead, Huryn, & Nelson, 2015). In grasslands, higher  
384 temperature and precipitation have been found to amplify aboveground biomass growth in response  
385 to N addition (Shaw et al., 2002; Zavaleta, Shaw, Chiariello, Mooney, & Field, 2003). Similarly, in  
386 forests and tundra ecosystems, temperature has been shown to positively affect net primary  
387 productivity following N addition (LeBauer and Treseder 2008). This in turn negatively influences  
388 plant biodiversity, as increased biomass results in increased competition for light and in the loss of  
389 rare species (Soons et al., 2017). In addition, higher precipitation could also lead to increased N  
390 mineralisation (Yang et al. 2017) which, in the absence of increased N loss via leaching or gaseous  
391 emissions, could result in higher N availability and increased biodiversity loss. Although in general  
392 plant assemblage responses in our analysis were not very different among ecosystem types, the  
393 modifying role of temperature and precipitation highlight the importance to account for  
394 biogeographical and climatic gradients to assess the impacts of N enrichment on local plant diversity  
395 across large geographical extents.

#### 396 ***Individual responses of plant life-form types***

397 We found that abundance losses were particularly large for legumes and non-vascular plants (mosses  
398 and lichens). Indeed, both groups have been identified as the most sensitive to increased N inputs  
399 (Bobbink et al., 2010; Craine et al., 2002). Previous studies showed that vascular plants are known to  
400 outcompete mosses after N enrichment due to light competition (Malmer, Albinsson, Svensson, &  
401 Wallen, 2003; van der Wal, Pearce, & Brooker, 2005), with a substantial decline of nonvascular plants

beyond 10-15 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup>yr<sup>-1</sup> (Bobbink et al., 2010). A large negative response of legumes was also expected, as increased soil N availability represents a disadvantage for N fixation (Craine et al., 2002). Long-term fertilization studies conducted on multiple sites in the USA found substantial declines in N-fixers (Suding et al., 2005) and an overall large decline in total legume biomass was also detected in previous systematic reviews (Fu and Shen, 2016; Humbert et al., 2016). In addition, we found the abundance of individual graminoids decreased, on average, by half. This contradicts the general hypothesis that graminoids tend to become dominant following N enrichment (see e.g. Bobbink et al., 2010; Dise et al., 2011) and contrasts with previous meta-analyses of N addition studies that reported significant increases in total biomass of grasses and sedges (De Schrijver et al., 2011; Fu and Shen, 2016; Humbert et al., 2016). Such discrepancies with our results could reflect the fact that grass encroachment following N input usually comes about by one or few species only (Bobbink et al., 2010) while the rest of the graminoid species are progressively outcompeted in the treatment plots, resulting, on average, in a loss of graminoids' individual abundance. Finally, the relatively small impacts on woody species might be due to longer persistence in vegetation thanks to their longer life span, which may exceed the typical duration of the experiments.

Further insight into the mechanisms behind community change with N enrichment, including individual abundance responses, may be provided by trait analyses (see e.g. La Pierre & Smith, 2015; Read, Henning, Classen & Sanders, 2018). However, analyses of changes in plant functional traits (at both within- and among-species levels) were out of scope of our meta-analysis and the primary studies analysed.

### ***Concluding remarks***

We showed the importance of minimizing N enrichment in terrestrial ecosystems to reduce [local plant biodiversity](#) loss. Compared to several previous studies that summarized the impacts of N-addition experiments on plant biodiversity, we improved our understanding of the responses of plant communities to N enrichment by including not only species richness but also abundance metrics, which showed stronger responses and have been unexplored in meta-analyses so far. Further, we shed

428 more light on the roles of different moderators influencing the response of species richness and  
429 abundance, thus showing how biodiversity loss is context-dependent and underlining the importance  
430 to integrate multiple dimensions of biodiversity into assessments of biodiversity responses to global  
431 environmental change.

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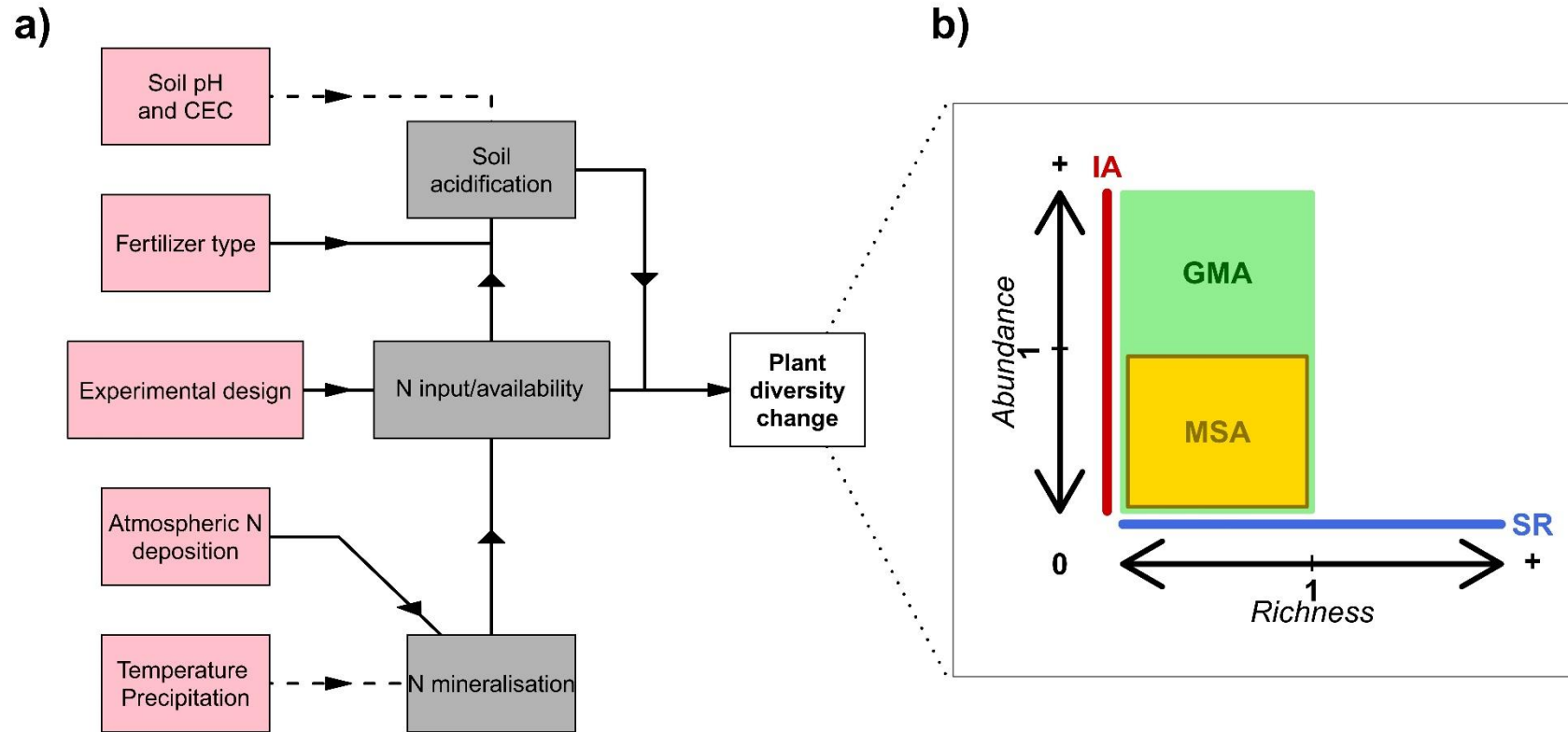
703 **Table 1:** Summary table of the metrics and weights used to quantify biodiversity change in the meta-analysis.

Effect size	Description	Calculation	Weight	References
Species richness (SR)	Log-transformed response ratio of mean species richness in the treatment ( $S_T$ ) and control ( $S_C$ )	$SR = \ln\left(\frac{\bar{S}_T}{\bar{S}_C}\right)$	Inverse of the sampling variance	De Schrijver et al. (2011) Bernhardt-Römermann et al. (2015) Humbert et al. (2016)
Individual species abundance (IA)	Log-transformed response ratio of mean individual abundance of species in the treatment ( $A_T$ ) and control ( $A_C$ ) *	$IA = \ln\left(\frac{\bar{A}_T}{\bar{A}_C}\right)$	Inverse of the sampling variance	Benítez-López et al. (2017)
Mean species abundance (MSA)	Mean of the individual species abundance response ratios (truncated at 1 if $A_T > A_C$ ). $N$ is number of species in each observation.	$MSA = \frac{\sum_{\bar{A}_T < \bar{A}_C} \left(\frac{\bar{A}_T}{\bar{A}_C}\right) + \sum_{\bar{A}_T \geq \bar{A}_C} 1}{N}$	Number of replicates	Alkemade et al. (2009) Benítez-López et al. (2010)
Geometric mean abundance (GMA)	Mean of log-transformed response ratios of mean individual abundance. $N$ is number of species in each observation.	$GMA = \exp\left(\frac{\sum(\ln(\bar{A}_T) - \ln(\bar{A}_C))}{N}\right)$	Number of replicates	Buckland et al. (2011) Schipper et al. (2016) Santini et al. (2017)

704 \* Before log-transformation, the ratio was first transformed following Smithson and Verkuilen (2006) to shrink the data and avoid zero values in the treatment. See  
705 ‘Methods’

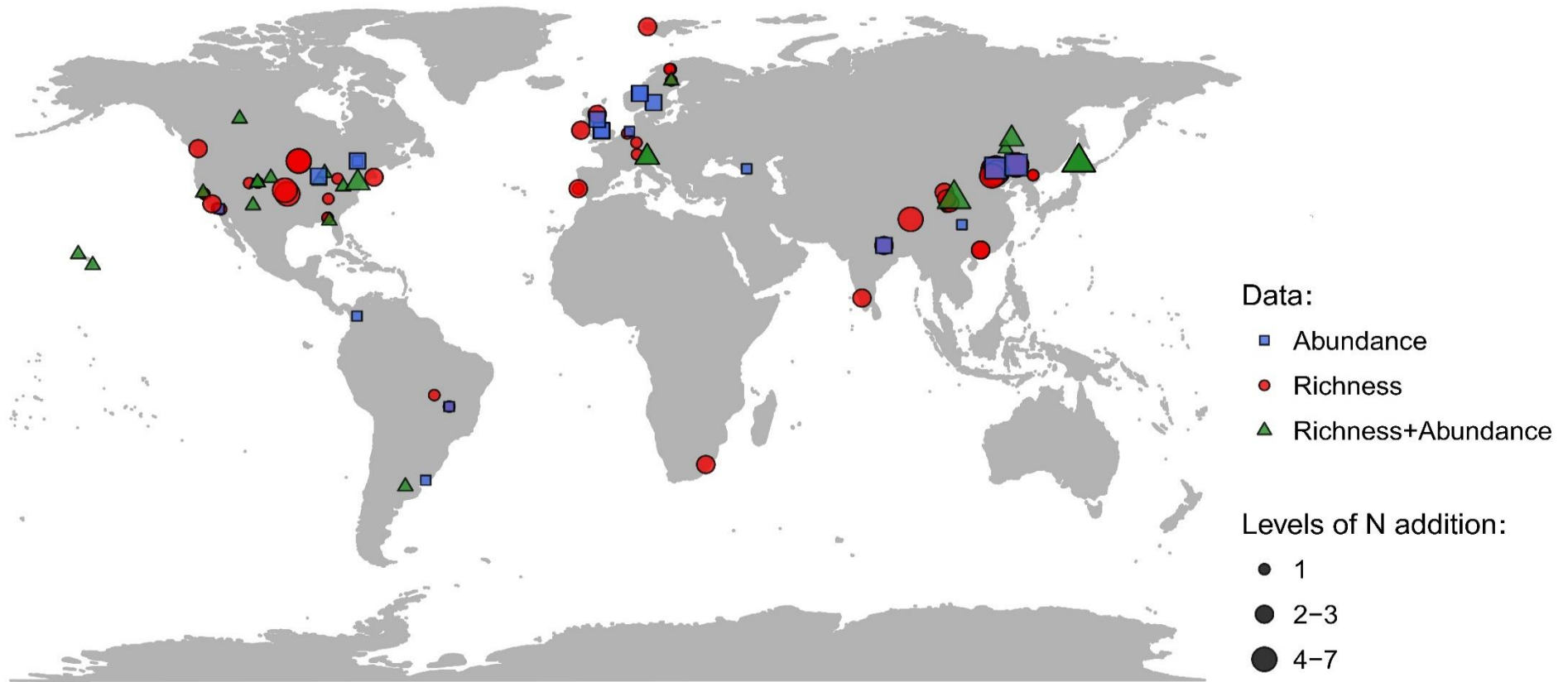
**Table 2:** Standardized coefficients (slope estimates) of terms retained in the best meta-regression models based on the Bayesian information criterion (BIC). Nadd = amount of yearly N addition; duration = duration of the experiment; CEC = cation exchange capacity; plot size = size of the plot; Nadd:MAT = interaction term between Nadd and MAT; Nadd:NO<sub>3</sub> / Nadd:NH<sub>4</sub> = interaction term (slope) of responses to Nadd depending on fertilizer used in the experiment (containing NO<sub>3</sub> or NH<sub>4</sub> only, respectively); MAP = mean annual precipitation; MAT = mean annual temperature. The omnibus test statistics ( $Q_M$  and  $P_Q$ ) indicate the amount of residual heterogeneity explained for each individual moderator and for the whole model. In case of an interaction, the omnibus test is reported for the interaction term only. See Appendix S6 for detailed model outputs.

Effect size	Fixed effect (moderators)	Estimate	SE	Z-value	LCI	UCI	P-value	$Q_M$ (d.f.)	$P_Q$
Species richness (SR)	Nadd	-0.111	0.016	-6.855	-0.142	-0.079	<.0001	-	-
	duration	-0.093	0.024	-3.909	-0.140	-0.046	<.0001	15.7 (1)	<.0001
	CEC	0.076	0.023	3.237	0.030	0.122	0.001	10.5 (1)	0.001
	plot size	0.101	0.024	4.168	0.054	0.149	<.0001	17.4 (1)	<.0001
	MAT	-0.015	0.024	-0.610	-0.062	0.033	0.542	-	-
	Nadd:MAT	-0.049	0.019	-2.599	-0.085	-0.012	0.009	6.7 (1)	0.009
								76.9 (6)	< .0001
Individual species abundance (IA)	Nadd	-0.275	0.081	-3.389	-0.434	-0.116	0.001	11.5 (1)	0.001
	MAP	-0.441	0.146	-3.011	-0.728	-0.154	0.002	9.1 (1)	0.002
								18.5 (2)	< .0001
Mean species abundance (MSA)	Nadd:NO <sub>3</sub>	-0.014	0.014	-0.958	-0.042	0.014	0.014	6.5 (1)	0.014
	Nadd:NH <sub>4</sub>	-0.072	0.022	-2.552	-0.145	0.000	-	-	-
	MAT	-0.050	0.023	-2.314	-0.092	-0.008	0.025	5.2 (1)	0.047
								26.0 (2)	< .0001
Geometric mean abundance (GMA)	Nadd	-0.103	0.037	-2.796	-0.175	-0.030	0.008	6.8 (1)	0.012
	MAP	-0.181	0.059	-3.079	-0.295	-0.065	0.004	9.5 (1)	0.004
								16.3 (3)	< .0001



712

713 **Figure 1:** Graphical representation of **a)** relationships between key factors (i.e. moderators; pink boxes) and fundamental processes (grey boxes) that  
 714 trigger plant species responses in N-addition experiments. Solid arrows represent direct effects, while dashed arrows represent context-dependent  
 715 effects (i.e. in the experiments, the extent of soil acidification and N mineralisation may be positively or negatively affected by soil fertility and  
 716 climatic conditions, respectively), and **b)** the linkages between the changes in biodiversity metrics considered in this study. Richness and abundance  
 717 represent the two dimensions of biodiversity affected by N addition, with ‘-’, ‘0’ and ‘+’ on the axes indicating loss, no change and increase,  
 718 respectively. SR = species richness, IA = individual species abundance, MSA = mean species abundance, and GMA = geometric mean abundance.



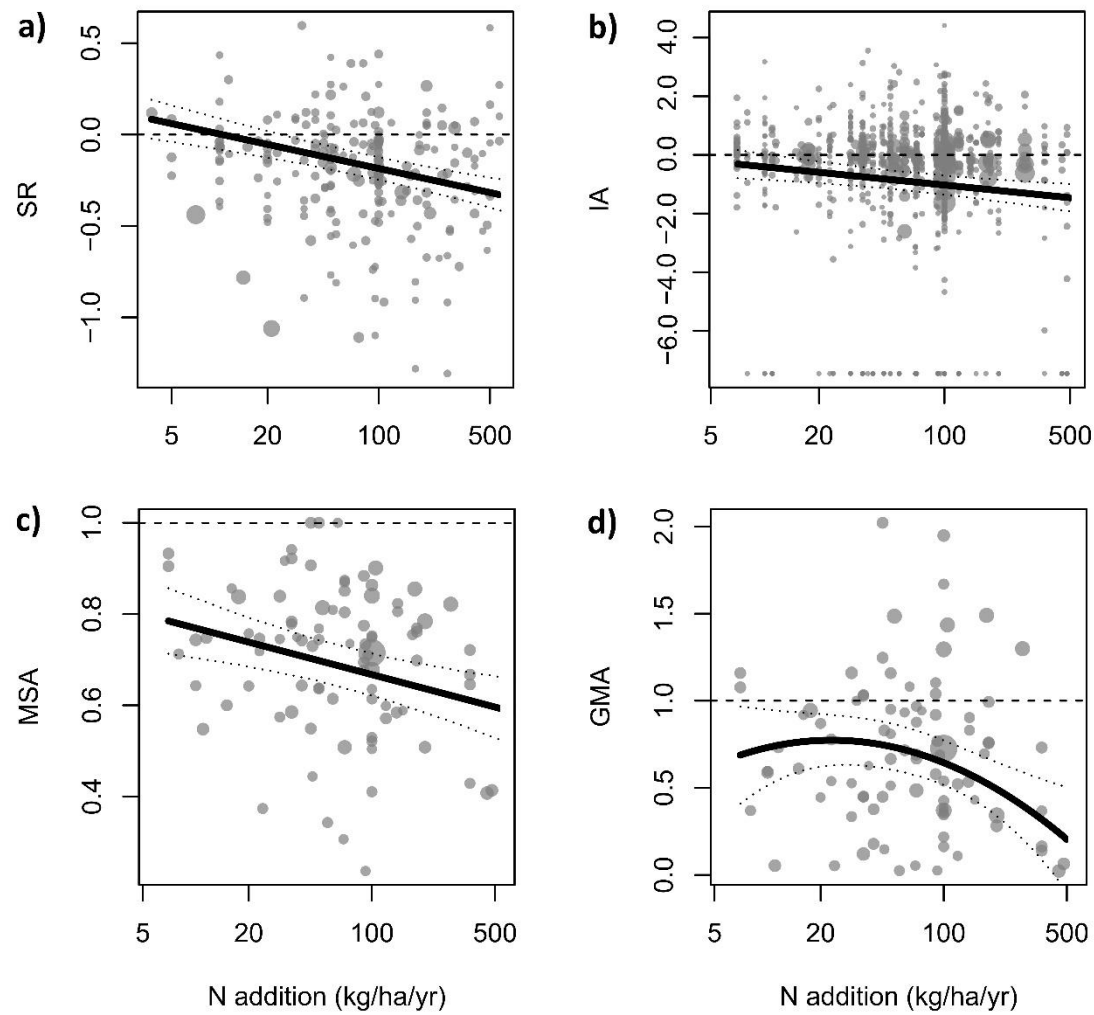
719

720 **Figure 2:** Geographical distribution of the studies included in the meta-analysis. Studies included experiments reporting on species richness only (=

721 red circles); abundance only (= blue squares); or both species richness and abundance (= green triangles). Point size depicts the number of observations

722 available (i.e. the number of N addition level) from each experiment.

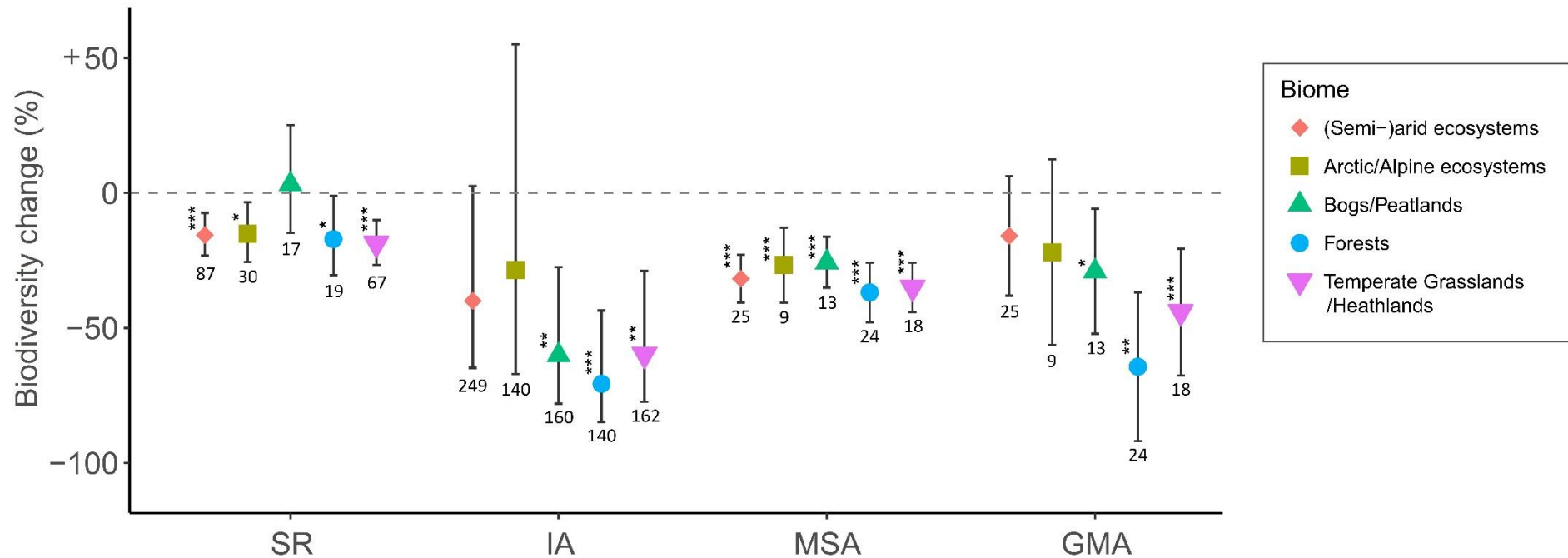
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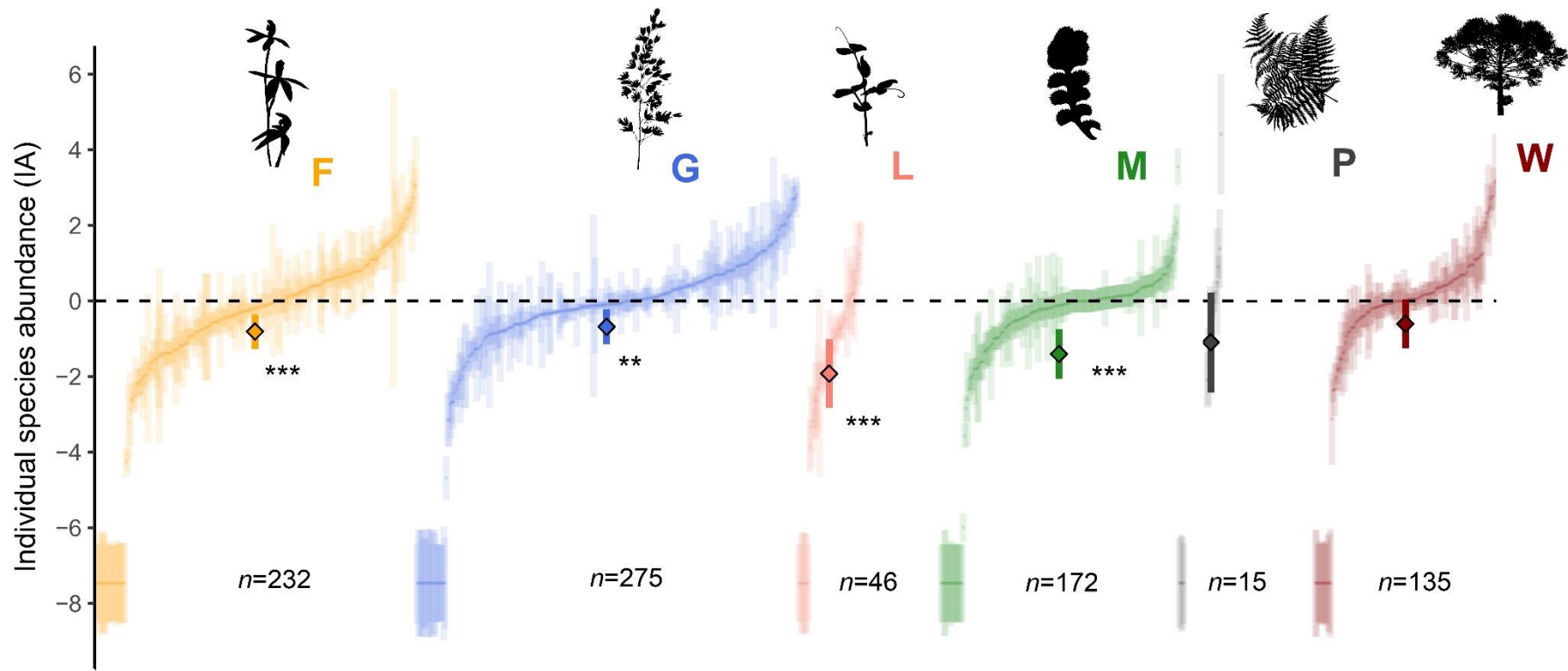
725 **Figure 3:** Effect of yearly N addition amount ( $\text{kg N ha}^{-1}\text{yr}^{-1}$ ) on plant biodiversity metrics: a) species richness  
 726 (SR); b) individual species abundance (IA); c) mean species abundance (MSA); and d) geometric mean  
 727 abundance (GMA). Solid lines represent model predictions with log-transformed yearly N addition as  
 728 moderator only, allowing for quadratic term inclusion when significantly improving the goodness of fit (the  
 729 dotted lines represent the corresponding 95% CI bounds). The dashed lines indicate no biodiversity change  
 730 compared to the control. Point size depicts observation weight.

731



**Figure 4:** Mean pooled biodiversity change (and 95% CI) per ecosystem type, expressed as percentage of change in N addition plots compared to control plots. Biodiversity change is quantified with species richness (SR), individual species abundance (IA), mean species abundance (MSA), and geometric mean abundance (GMA). Values are obtained by fitting the models without the intercept term, to estimate the mean pooled effect of each level. Significance level (\* $P < 0.01$ ; \*\* $P < 0.001$ ; \*\*\* $P < 0.0001$ ) and number of observation is provided for each estimate.





738 **Figure 5:** Individual species abundance ratios (and 95% CI) for forbs (F), graminoids (G), leguminosae (L), non-vascular plants (M), ferns (P) and  
 739 woody species (W) ( $n$  = number of observations of each plant life-form type). Extremely negative effect sizes indicate the extirpation of species in  
 740 the treatment plots. Diamonds represent overall weighted mean effect size estimate for each group (and 95% CI). Significance levels are provided for  
 741 each mean estimate (\*\* $P < 0.001$ ; \*\*\* $P < 0.0001$ ). The values are obtained by running the model without the intercept term to estimate the mean  
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## 744 Appendix A – Data Sources

745

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1004

1005    **Supporting Information**

1006    **Appendix S1:** Search string for primary studies collection

1007    **Appendix S2:** Summary of primary studies included in the meta-analysis

1008    **Appendix S3:** Influencing factors on plant diversity response to N addition

1009    **Appendix S4:** Description of categorical variables (ecosystem types, fertilizers and plant life-form  
1010    types)

1011    **Appendix S5:** Mean pooled effect sizes and funnel plots of the null-model residuals

1012    **Appendix S6:** Detailed model outputs of best meta-regression models