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1 **Mowing mitigates the negative impacts of N addition on plant species diversity**

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17 data. G. Y. wrote the first draft, X. L. and C. S. revised the manuscript; other authors
18 provided editorial advice.

19

20 **Abstract**

21 Increasing availability of reactive nitrogen (N) threatens plant diversity in diverse
22 ecosystems. While there is mounting evidence for the negative impacts of N deposition
23 on one component of diversity, species richness, we know little about its effects on
24 another one, species evenness. It is suspected that ecosystem management practice that
25 removes nitrogen from the ecosystem, such as hay-harvesting by mowing in grasslands,
26 would mitigate the negative impacts of N deposition on plant diversity. However,
27 empirical evidence is scarce.

28 Here, we reported the main and interactive effects of N deposition and mowing on plant
29 diversity in a temperate meadow steppe with four years data from a field experiment
30 within which multi-level N addition rates and multiple N compounds are considered.

31 Across all the types of N compounds, species richness and evenness significantly
32 decreased with the increases of N addition rate, which was mainly caused by the growth
33 of a tall rhizomatous grass, *Leymus chinensis*. Such negative impacts of N addition were
34 accumulating with time. Mowing significantly reduced the dominance of *L. chinensis*,
35 and mitigated the negative impacts of N deposition on species evenness.

36 We present robust evidence that N deposition threatened biodiversity by reducing both
37 species richness and evenness, a process which could be alleviated by mowing. Our
38 results highlight the changes of species evenness in driving the negative impacts of N
39 deposition on plant diversity and the role of mowing in mediating such negative impacts
40 of N deposition.

41 Keywords: Nitrogen deposition, nitrogen compounds, hay-making, diversity, community
42 evenness, semi-arid grassland, temperate steppe, Erguna

43

44 **Introduction**

45 Human activities have substantially altered global N cycling (Vitousek et al. 1997,
46 Galloway et al. 2004), resulting in large amounts of reactive N being deposited into many
47 terrestrial ecosystems (Galloway et al. 2008). For instance, N deposition increased by ~8
48 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ from 1980 (9.4 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) to 2010 (averaged 21.8 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) in
49 China (Liu et al. 2013), with an average NO₃⁻ deposition of 32.93 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in Chinese
50 terrestrial ecosystems from 2009 to 2014 (Yu et al. 2016). Nitrogen enrichment generally
51 decreases species richness, especially in herbaceous communities (Stevens et al. 2004,
52 Clark and Tilman 2008, Bobbink et al. 2010), and alters community composition (Suding
53 et al. 2005, Dickson et al. 2014), with consequences for ecosystem processes and
54 functioning (Vitousek et al. 1997, Cardinale et al. 2012, Isbell et al. 2015). Many
55 mechanisms have been proposed for the negative impacts of N deposition on species
56 richness, including light limitation (Hautier et al. 2009, Borer et al. 2014), eutrophication
57 (Clark and Tilman 2008), acidification (Stevens et al. 2004), and metal toxicity (Tian et
58 al. 2016).

59 It is well established that species richness is not a complete surrogate for plant diversity
60 (Wilsey and Potvin 2000). There are many limitations for using species richness as a
61 surrogate for biodiversity, which would not capture the key responses of biodiversity to
62 environmental changes (Hillebrand et al. 2008). However, fewer studies have focused on

63 the impacts of N deposition on other components of plant diversity beyond species
64 richness, for example species evenness, which measures the distribution of abundance or
65 biomass among species in a community (Smith and Wilson 1996). Species evenness
66 plays an important role in driving ecosystem functioning (Hillebrand et al. 2008), in that
67 it has a positive relationship with primary productivity (Wilsey and Potvin 2000, Orwin
68 et al. 2014) and could increase the resistance of plant community to dicot invasion and
69 insect infestation (Wilsey and Polley 2002). However, it should be noted that the impacts
70 of species evenness on ecosystem invasibility are variable depending on phenological
71 traits of target species (Losure et al. 2007). While species evenness could indirectly affect
72 ecosystem processes by affecting species richness (Wilsey and Polley 2004), a recent
73 study reported that species evenness and richness would show synergistic effects on
74 ecosystem functioning (Lembrechts et al. 2018).

75 Nitrogen deposition generally facilitates the growth of grasses but is unfavorable for that
76 of forbs (Bobbink et al. 2010, Mitchell et al. 2017), and thus changes the relative
77 abundance of species with different functional and morphological traits in grasslands
78 (Suding et al. 2005, Gough et al. 2012). N enrichment is beneficial to competitively
79 dominant species (Stevens et al. 2004, Suding et al. 2005). Whether such changes in
80 community composition and species relative abundance following N deposition would
81 alter **species** evenness remains unknown. In a tallgrass prairie, Avolio et al. (2014) found
82 that a decade long N addition increased species evenness but the substantial changes in
83 community composition had no effect on species evenness. In a survey of calcareous
84 grasslands in UK, however, van den Berg et al. (2011) reported that species evenness was
85 negatively correlated with N deposition rate.

86 The divergent responses of plant diversity to N addition have been ascribed to the
87 variation in addition rate, application duration, and climate in different experiments
88 (Phoenix et al. 2012, Humbert et al. 2016). Other factors may also play a role, for
89 instance, the different types of N compounds used for simulating N deposition (Gaudnik
90 et al. 2011, Van Den Berg et al. 2016). Atmospheric deposited N is mainly composed of
91 inorganic N (Jia et al. 2016) with less organic N (Cornell 2011), and is often
92 accompanied by sulfate deposition (Yu et al. 2016). Many types of N compounds have
93 been used in related experiments, including NH_4NO_3 , NaNO_3 , $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$, NH_4Cl , and
94 urea (Phoenix et al. 2012, Stevens and Gowing 2014). In an alpine meadow, Song et al.
95 (2012) showed the idiosyncratic responses of different plant functional groups to different
96 N compounds, with ammonium addition favoring legumes and sedges and nitrate
97 addition favoring forbs. Similarly, species richness in acid grasslands is more sensitive to
98 the reduced N form while that in calcareous grasslands is more sensitive to the oxidized
99 form (van den Berg et al. 2016). Compared with species richness, the effects of different
100 N compounds on species evenness have received less attention.

101 Ecosystem management practice can also modulate the impacts of N deposition on plant
102 diversity (Bobbink et al. 2010). **On one hand, mowing** can alter the intrinsic sensitivity of
103 plants to N deposition (Bobbink et al. 1998). **On the other hand, it can change the abiotic**
104 **factors, such as light availability and biotic factors, such as the number of C3 species**
105 **(Collins et al. 1998)**. In fertilized plots, mowing is apparently able to mitigate for the
106 negative effects of the dominant species which positively affected by fertilization (Lepš
107 2014). Mowing for hay-harvesting, as a widely-used ecosystem management practice in
108 grasslands, could preserve plant diversity under the scenarios of N deposition (Collins et

109 al. 1998, Poschlod et al. 2005, Knop et al. 2006). The removal of biomass and N could
110 reduce the accumulation of N in soils (Storkey et al. 2015), which reduces the
111 eutrophication effects. Mowing could increase light availability, therefore promoting low-
112 statured perennial grasses and forbs (Collins et al. 1998, Hautier et al. 2009). While
113 evidence from the **European and** Chinese grasslands showed that mowing can mitigate
114 the negative effects of N addition on species richness (Socher et al. 2013, Jones et al.
115 2016, Yang et al. 2012, Zhang et al. 2017), we are not sure how mowing would mediate
116 the N impacts on species evenness.

117 To investigate the main and interactive effects of N addition (both rates and forms) and
118 mowing on plant diversity, we carried out a four-year field experiment in a temperate
119 meadow steppe in northeastern China. We hypothesized that (1) N addition would
120 decrease species **diversity** via a **biomass** promotion of the nitrophilous species, (2) such
121 **effects** would vary among different types of N compounds, and (3) mowing would
122 mitigate the negative effects of N addition on species **diversity** by decreasing the
123 dominance of nitrophilous species.

124

125 **Materials and Methods**

126 *Study site*

127 The experiment was conducted at the Erguna Forest-Steppe Ecotone Research Station
128 (N50°10' 46.1' ' , E119°22' 56.4' '). The field experiment was carried out in a
129 natural steppe which has been fenced since 2013 to prevent livestock grazing, before that
130 the grassland was annually mown for hay-harvesting. The long-term mean annual

131 precipitation of the site is 363 mm and the mean annual temperature is -2.45°C (1957-
132 2016). The soil is classified as chernozem according to the US soil taxonomy
133 classification. The pH of top soil (0-10cm) is 6.8~7.0. The dominant species in this
134 ecosystem are *Leymus chinensis*, *Stipa baicalensis*, *Cleistogenes squarrosa*, *Thermopsis*
135 *lanceolate*, *Cymbaria dahurica*, and *Carex duriuscula*. Previous study from this region
136 showed that N enrichment increased the aboveground biomass of *L. chinensis* (Zhang et
137 al. 2015), whose maximum photosynthetic rate showed positive responses to N
138 enrichment (Chen et al. 2005). Moreover, *L. chinensis* is a nitrophilous species with
139 higher foliar N concentration than other grasses (Cui et al. 2010).

140 *Experimental design*

141 The N addition experiment began in 2014, following a randomized complete block
142 design. There were six rates of N addition (i.e., 0, 2, 5, 10, 20, and 50 g N m⁻² yr⁻¹), five
143 types of N compounds (NH₄NO₃, (NH₄)₂SO₄, NH₄HCO₃, CO(NH₂)₂, slow-release
144 CO(NH₂)₂, crossed with mowing treatments (non-mown vs. mown). There were 60
145 treatments with each being replicated by eight times (480 treatment plots in total). The
146 area of each plot was 10 m × 10 m. Nitrogen fertilizers were added annually since 2014,
147 in late May. Fertilizers were mixed with sand (because of the low amount of added
148 fertilizer at low addition rates) and broadcast uniformly by hand. Sand was sieved
149 through less than 2 mm in size, washed in water, and then heated at nearly 250°C for 60
150 minutes in an iron pan. To avoid potentially confounding effects, all plots received the
151 same amount of sand (0.5 kg per plot). Mowing was conducted annually in late-August at
152 the height of 10 cm above the soil surface to simulate hay harvesting. The harvested
153 biomass was removed from the plots.

154 *Field sampling and measurement*

155 Aboveground biomass was sampled each year between August 10th and 20th by clipping
156 all vascular plants at the soil surface in a 1 m × 1 m quadrat, which was randomly placed
157 in each plot without a spatial overlap of quadrats among different years and at least 50 cm
158 inside the border of each plot to avoid edge effects. All living vascular plants were sorted
159 to species. All plant materials were oven-dried at 65°C for 48h and weighed. Species
160 richness (number of plant species m⁻²) was recorded in the same quadrat in which
161 aboveground biomass was measured. We classified species into the following five plant
162 functional groups based on life forms: perennial **rhizomatous grasses** (PR), non-
163 leguminous forbs (NF), bunchgrasses (BG), sedges (SE) and legumes(LE).

164 *Calculation and statistical analysis*

165 Species evenness was quantified as $1/D$. D is the Simpson's dominance index and
166 calculated as $D = \sum_{i=1}^S (p_i)^2$ (**vegan package**), where p_i is the **relative** aboveground
167 biomass of species i in the community. The relative biomass of *L. chinensis* was
168 calculated as its proportional contribution to the community total aboveground biomass.
169 Repeated-measures ANOVAs (gls function in nlme packages) were conducted to detect
170 the effects of N addition rate, N compounds type, mowing, and their interactions on
171 species evenness, species richness, aboveground biomass of each plant functional group,
172 and relative biomass of *L. chinensis* across 2014 to 2017. The relationship between the
173 relative biomass of *L. chinensis* and species evenness was fitted with quadratic regression
174 in different years, using the lm function, **with** model selection criterion AIC to choose the

175 best model. All analyses were conducted using R version 3.2.3 (R development core
176 team, 2015)

177

178 **Results**

179 *Effects of N addition and mowing on plant diversity*

180 Both species evenness and richness significantly decreased with increasing N addition
181 rates ($P < 0.001$, Table 1; Figs. 1 and 2). The effects of N addition on species evenness
182 and richness significantly different among N compounds ($P < 0.05$, Table 1, Figs. 1 and
183 2), with the $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ treatment showing stronger reduction of evenness and richness
184 averaged across the four years (Fig. 1F, Fig. 2F). Mowing significantly enhanced species
185 evenness and richness ($P < 0.001$, Table1; Figs.1 and 2).

186 After four years treatments, species evenness declined by 8.5%-55.8% and 13.1%-62.9%,
187 species richness decreased 4%-30% and 2%-45% across the N addition gradient with the
188 presence and absence of mowing, respectively. Species evenness and richness showed
189 significant inter-annual variation ($P < 0.001$, Table1; Figs. 1 and 2), with a decreasing
190 trend as time went on. The effects of N addition rates on species evenness and richness
191 varied among different years as indicated by the significant interaction between both of
192 them (Table 1).

193 *Effects of N addition and mowing on aboveground biomass of plant functional groups*

194 The aboveground biomass of perennial rhizome grasses (PR) significantly increased with
195 increasing the N addition rates, whereas that of bunchgrasses (BG), sedges (SE) and

196 legumes (LE) significantly decreased with increasing N addition (Table S1). Mowing
197 significantly reduced aboveground biomass of PR and increased that of non-leguminous
198 forbs (NF) and SE (Table S1).

199 *Effects of N addition and mowing on the relative biomass of L. chinensis*

200 The relative biomass of *L. chinensis*, a tall perennial rhizomatous grass, significantly
201 increased with the increasing N addition rates ($P < 0.001$, Table1; Fig. 3). The changes of
202 relative biomass of *L. chinensis* varied significantly across different N compounds, with
203 the largest enhancement presenting under the $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ treatment (Fig. S2). Mowing
204 significantly reduced the relative biomass of *L. chinensis* by 19.2% averaged across all
205 the N treatments and years. Mowing and N addition rates did not interact to affect the
206 relative biomass of *L. chinensis* (Table 1), indicating a consistent role of mowing across
207 the N addition gradient.

208 The relative biomass of *L. chinensis* varied significantly among different years, with
209 higher contribution of *L. chinensis* to the total community biomass at late years than that
210 in early years (Table 1, Fig. 4). From 2014 to 2017, averaged across all the rates and
211 types, N addition increased the relative biomass of *L. chinensis* by 14.5%, 36.9%, 46.2%,
212 and 93.0%, respectively. The effects of both the rates and types of N addition on the
213 relative biomass of *L. chinensis* varied among different years (Table 1).

214 The relative biomass of *L. chinensis* and species evenness showed significantly quadratic
215 regression in each year. With the increases of the relative biomass of *L. chinensis*, species
216 evenness decreased sharply when the relative biomass of *L. chinensis* was less than 60%
217 and changed slowly higher than 60% (Fig.5).

218

219 **Discussion**

220 Species evenness and richness was reduced with the increases of N addition rates, which
221 was consistent with our first hypothesis and findings from previous studies (Stevens et al.
222 2004, Clark and Tilman 2008, Hillebrand et al. 2007, Bobbink et al. 2010, van den Berg
223 et al. 2011, Niu et al. 2018). Effects of N addition and mowing on perennial rhizomatous
224 grasses (PR) were much stronger than on other plant functional groups, so we deduced
225 that the losses of species evenness and richness in response to N addition resulted from
226 the enhancement of the dominance of the rhizomatous grass, *L. chinensis*. Species
227 evenness decreased with the increases of relative biomass of *L. chinensis*, highlighting
228 the important role of *L. chinensis* in driving the decline of species evenness in response to
229 N enrichment in this ecosystem. Similarly, other studies have reported that N enrichment
230 may reduce species diversity by favoring competitively dominant species (Stevens et al.
231 2004, Suding et al. 2005). From a plant physiology perspective, *L. chinensis* has higher
232 foliar N concentration than other grasses in this ecosystem (Cui et al. 2010) and its
233 maximum photosynthetic rate shows positive responses to N enrichment (Chen et al.
234 2005). In natural steppe, *L. chinensis* dominates in sites with high N availability (Chen et
235 al. 2005). *L. chinensis* spreads clonally with runners (in contrast to clumps) following the
236 classification of Cleland et al. (2008), with rhizomes and longer spacers between ramets
237 of the same individual (Wang et al. 2004). The capacity of *L. chinensis* to vegetatively
238 expand by rhizomes would give it competitive advantage under N enrichment. Moreover,
239 *L. chinensis* is a canopy species in this ecosystem. Height would give it benefit for the
240 competition for light, a limiting factor which drives local species extinction following N

241 enrichment thus reduce species richness (Hautier et al. 2009). The above-mentioned
242 physiological and morphological traits would account for the rapid enhancement of
243 dominance of *L. chinensis* in response to N enrichment, with direct consequences on the
244 changes of species evenness and richness.

245 Although species evenness and richness decreased with increasing N addition rates for all
246 the N compounds examined in this study, the magnitude of such responses varied
247 significantly among different compounds. Across all the five types of N compounds,
248 $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ addition resulted in the lowest evenness due to the strongest increases of the
249 dominance of *L. chinensis*. Soil pH, an important driver for the local extinction of plant
250 species in temperate steppe (Zhang et al. 2014), was lowest in the $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ treatment
251 (Fig. S3). There would be, therefore, more niche space for *L. chinensis* in the $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$
252 treatment due to the losses of other acid-sensitive species. In contrast, *L. chinensis* is
253 tolerant of acid conditions. Lan (2014) found that *L. chinensis* was the sole species
254 showing positive relationship between primary productivity and the degree of
255 acidification in an acid addition experiment in a temperate steppe. While the variation of
256 the effects of reduced and oxidized N on biodiversity is well-recognized (Stevens et al.
257 2011), our results implied that the combined N and S deposition, which is occurring
258 globally (Dentener et al. 2006), would be a bigger threaten to biodiversity (species
259 evenness and richness) than N deposition alone.

260 The negative effects of N addition rates on species evenness increased over the duration
261 of our experiment, which is in line with previous results about the changes of species
262 richness in other studies (Isbell et al. 2013, Zhang et al. 2016). For example, species
263 richness has been found to show large decreases during the later years of a three-decade

264 N addition experiment in tall prairie in US (Isbell et al. 2013) and of a five-year
265 experiment in temperate steppe in China (Zhang et al. 2016), and global mountain
266 grasslands (Humbert et al. 2016). Such temporal changes for the responses of species
267 richness could be ascribed to the increasing of N availability, decreasing of soil pH, and
268 litter accumulation (Clark and Tilman 2010, Dupre et al. 2010). The cumulative negative
269 effects of N deposition on species richness **and evenness** have important implications for
270 measures of ecosystem functioning, such as primary productivity (Wilsey and Potvin
271 2000, Cardinale et al. 2007, Orwin et al. 2014).

272 Our results supported the second hypothesis, in that mowing mitigated the negative
273 effects of N addition on **species evenness and richness**, mainly due to it reducing the
274 growth of *L. chinensis*. In line with our results, Smith et al. (2017) showed that the effects
275 of mowing on evenness was generally positive for temperate grassland in Australia.
276 Furthermore, mowing also preserved species richness under N enrichment **partly reducing**
277 the competitive ability of dominant species (Lepš 2014). On the one hand, mowing (and
278 also herbivory) could remove aboveground plant biomass and increase light availability
279 (Borer et al. 2014, Kotas et al. 2017), which would help reduce the dominance of tall
280 herbs and perennial grasses and increase that of small herbs (Hewett 1985, Plassmann et
281 al. 2009). On the other hand, mowing **had** considerable potential to remove N (Jones et al.
282 2017). For example, Barker et al. (2004) found that high intensity mowing removed 23%
283 of total system N while regular mowing had been able to maintain the N balance despite
284 at high N deposition levels in heathland (Verhoeven et al. 1996). The lower biodiversity
285 losses in response to N deposition under mown communities not only help maintain
286 ecosystem services under the N enriched conditions (Yang et al. 2012), but also facilitate

287 the biodiversity recovery after the cessation of N deposition (Tilman and Isbell 2015).
288 Consequently, annual mowing with the removal of biomass would be an appropriate
289 management strategy to conserve biodiversity in temperate grasslands.

290

291 **Conclusions**

292 Our results **demonstrated that N deposition could simultaneously reduce species richness**
293 **and evenness**. The negative impacts of N deposition on biodiversity would be stronger
294 than previous findings based solely on species richness as it substantially reduced species
295 evenness. But, it remains unknown whether and how such shifts in species evenness
296 would contribute to the impacts of N deposition on ecosystem functioning. The N-
297 induced losses of species evenness and richness in mown plots were much lower than that
298 in unmown plots, highlighting the important role of ecosystem management practice in
299 mediating the impacts of N deposition on plant diversity. The higher species evenness
300 and richness in mown plots compared with that in unmown plots may help explain why
301 the biodiversity in mown ecosystems shows a more rapid recovery as N declines (Tilman
302 and Isbell 2015).

303

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521

522 **Table1.** Results (*F* values) of the repeated measures analysis of variance for the effects of
 523 mowing(M), N addition rate (R), Year (Y), N compounds type (T) and their interactions
 524 on species evenness, species richness and relative biomass of *Leymus chinensis*.

525

	<i>df</i>	Species evenness	Species richness	Relative biomass of <i>L. chinensis</i>
R	5	78.63***	63.89***	27.825***
T	4	7.07***	5.41***	2.867*
M	1	284.80***	111.22***	195.053***
R×T	20	1.18 ^{ns}	1.01 ^{ns}	2.373**
R×M	5	2.51*	1.35 ^{ns}	0.832 ^{ns}
T×M	4	0.17 ^{ns}	1.78 ^{ns}	3.774**
R×T×M	20	1.05 ^{ns}	0.99 ^{ns}	2.284**
Y	3	18.14***	106.43***	17.195***
Y×R	15	2.15**	2.21**	2.561***
Y×T	12	1.43 ^{ns}	1.38 ^{ns}	0.494 ^{ns}
Y×M	3	1.08 ^{ns}	0.29 ^{ns}	1.409 ^{ns}
Y×R×T	60	0.96 ^{ns}	0.77 ^{ns}	0.770 ^{ns}
Y×R×M	15	1.47 ^{ns}	2.11**	0.517 ^{ns}
Y×T×M	12	0.87 ^{ns}	1.01 ^{ns}	0.770 ^{ns}
Y×R×T×M	60	0.68 ^{ns}	0.63 ^{ns}	0.653 ^{ns}

526

527 Asterisks denote significant levels: ns, $P > 0.05$; *, $P \leq 0.05$; **, $P \leq 0.01$; and ***, $P \leq$
 528 0.001, respectively.

529