# Investigating the Influence of Microclimate on Bryophyte Species Richness in a Cornish Atlantic Oak Woodland

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**Cover photo**: Assemblage of epiphytic bryophytes at the study site (author's photography).

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# <span id="page-4-2"></span>**GLOSSARY OF TERMS**

- **VPD** Vapour pressure deficit
- **AOW** Atlantic oak woodland
- **BSR** Bryophyte species richness
- **SR** Species richness

# <span id="page-5-0"></span>**ABSTRACT**

The Earth is currently in a state of biodiversity crisis and the UK is no exception to this trend. Despite being the most biodiversity-poor European country, the UK has roughly 1,100 known species of bryophytes. The UK therefore has an international responsibility to protect such a rich bryophyte flora to aid UK biodiversity goals and support ecosystem functioning. Understanding the factors that influence bryophyte distribution within an ecosystem is critical for effective management practices that optimise bryophyte richness. This study collected microclimatic data and conducted a bryophyte survey in a Cornish Atlantic oak woodland. Significant linear relationships were found between mean lux and minimum temperature. However, no other microclimatic variables had any relationships with bryophyte species richness. The absence of any casual relationship between vapour pressure deficit and species richness may be explained by a riparian buffer zone creating overall moist conditions along the sampling transects. Woodland age was found to have no influence over bryophyte richness, and instead varied substrate cover of dead wood and boulders was important. The results of this study indicate that management should focus on and exploit riparian buffer zones in Atlantic woodlands and ensure varied substrate cover for the proliferation and protection of bryophytes.

**Key words:** Bryophyte, microclimate, moss, liverwort, Atlantic oak woodland, species richness, bryoflora

# <span id="page-6-0"></span>**1. INTRODUCTION**

# <span id="page-6-1"></span>**1.1 The global biodiversity crisis and the role of the UK in bryophyte conservation**

The Earth is currently in a state of biodiversity crisis. Biodiversity across the globe is diminishing at alarming rates. Indeed, up to 13% of all known species globally have gone extinct since the year 1500 AD (Cowie *et al.*, 2022). Several studies have confirmed that the current rate of extinction is up to 100 times the baseline average and is likely to continue to increase under predicted trends (Barnosky *et al.*, 2011; Ceballos *et al.*, 2015). This is highly problematic as biodiversity is essential for the functioning of ecosystems (Hong *et al.*, 2022; Tilman *et al.*, 2014), the provisioning of ecosystem services to humans (Balvanera *et al.*, 2016; Zhang *et al.*, 2019), and climate regulation (Daba and Dejene, 2018; Shin *et al.*, 2022). Yet, the influence of anthropogenic activity on the biosphere through land-use and land-cover changes, causing habitat fragmentation and loss, are major drivers in the reduction of global biodiversity (Hautier *et al.*, 2015; Jaureguiberry *et al.*, 2022; Prakash and Verma, 2022). Moreover, anthropogenic climate change caused by the combustion of fossil fuels is contributing to warming that threatens to alter the habitat conditions of many taxonomic groups, resulting in phenological changes (Bertin, 2008; Ibáñez *et al.*, 2010), range shifts (Freeman *et al.*, 2018), and extinction (Malcolm *et al.*, 2006).

The UK is no exception to this global trend. Indeed, the UK stands as one of the most biodiversity-poor countries in Europe (Hayhow *et al.,* 2019). Poor woodland and agricultural management alongside rapid urbanisation have driven reductions in up to 41% of UK species since the 1970s (Hayhow *et al*., 2019). In addition, a mere 13.2% of UK land is covered in woodlands, making the UK one of the least forested countries in Europe (Woodland Trust, 2021). Consequently, the UK government has pledged to reverse biodiversity loss by the year 2030 which will require broad scale conservation efforts, proper woodland management, and a reform of current agricultural practices (Smith *et al.*, 2023). Furthermore, the government have set ambitious targets to increase woodland cover to 17% which will undoubtedly facilitate biodiversity and other ecosystem services associated with woodland landscapes (Defra, 2021).

Despite having significantly lower biodiversity in comparison to other European nations, the UK has the richest bryophyte flora (hereafter 'bryoflora') in Europe, and one of the richest bryofloras in the world. The UK has around 1,100 known species of mosses, liverworts, and hornworts; roughly 65% of the total European bryoflora or an astonishing 5% of all known species globally, which totals approximately 25,000 (Rothero, 2005). There are 883, 782, 906 and 587 known species in England, Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland, respectively (Hill *et al.*, 2007). The UK even hosts near-endemic bryophyte species and some species that, despite being rare in Europe, are common in the UK such as the liverworts *Saccogyna viticulosa and Plagiochila spinulosa* (Plant life, 2016).

Thus, the UK has an international responsibility to protect bryophytes due to their significance in national and international biodiversity and overall ecosystem health and functioning (Hallingbäck *et al.*, 2000). However, doing so requires well informed management that considers the multifaceted influences upon bryophyte distribution

within an ecosystem. Hence, this study explores the influence of habitat conditions on the distribution of bryophytes within an Atlantic woodland ecosystem in attempt to better inform management practices in a time of biodiversity crisis and climate change.

#### <span id="page-7-0"></span>**1.2 Bryophyte physiology and their ecological significance**

Bryophytes are small, lower order plants that differ from vascular plants in their size and physiology. Survival and reproduction of bryophytes is greatly dependent on their environments due to their unique physiology and morphology (He *et al.,* 2016; Marschall, 2017). Bryophytes lack a vascular system and instead have a poikilohydric strategy to uptake water and nutrients from the environment across the surface of the gametophore, where leafy shoots of the plant rapidly equilibrate with the water potential of the environment (Proctor, 1990). The moisture is then retained by a network of capillaries and rhizoids (Marschall, 2017). Bryophytes have varying desiccation-tolerance, meaning they are able to lose virtually all intracellular water through warm and dry environmental conditions but can recover full function upon rehydration (Proctor, 1990; Proctor *et al*., 2007). Though, recovery time depends upon the degree to which desiccation occurs and for how long this state persists as well as environmental conditions such as temperature and humidity (Proctor *et al*., 2007). Moreover, the degree of desiccation-tolerance varies by species due to habitat niche requirements, and liverworts tend to be less tolerant than mosses in general (Proctor *et al*., 2007).

In general, bryophytes prefer cooler temperatures due to having a low optimum temperature for photosynthesis (Marschall, 2017). Additionally, whilst bryophyte species across biomes encounter varying light conditions, it can be generalised that they are shade-adapted plants (Marschall and Proctor, 2004). Indeed, most photosynthesis occurs in 20% full light conditions and only when the plant is fully moist as under bright and dry weather conditions bryophytes are metabolically inactive due to desiccation (Marschall and Proctor, 2004). Bryophytes also have low thermal-acclimation potential, raising the necessity for consistent temperatures in their habitats for productivity (He *et al.*, 2016). As external water is vital for photosynthesis and the growth of bryophytes, this factor accordingly guides their distribution within ecosystems. Though, bryophytes occur in virtually all terrestrial habitats globally, from the arctic to tropical regions (Hallingbäck *et al.*, 2000). In these ecosystems, bryophytes are often found blanketing forest floors, colonising rocks, boulders, deadwood (epixylic species) and as epiphytic vegetation on tree trunks and branches.

Bryophytes play an essential role in the dynamics of ecosystem functioning. For instance, in temperate forest ecosystems bryophytes form vast mixed communities that contribute to the overall forest structure and function (Hallingbäck *et al.*, 2000). Due to their structure, bryophytes have a high water-retention capacity. This means they can rapidly absorb water and slowly release it back into the environment which helps mediate humid forest microclimates as well as restrict the impact of flash flooding and erosion within a drainage basin (Coelho *et al.*, 2023; Hallingbäck *et al.*, 2000; Oishi, 2018). Additionally, bryophytes have crucial nutrient recycling and carbon and nitrogen fixation properties which are comparable across ecosystem types (Turetsky, 2003). Hence, the loss of bryophytes from an ecosystem would have cascading effects for the overall ecosystem health and functioning (Marschall, 2017), prompting the necessity of protection and conservation.

#### <span id="page-8-0"></span>**1.3 Microclimates, climatic buffering effects, and woodland composition**

Although bryophytes are ubiquitous in terrestrial ecosystems, their occurrence and distribution within an ecosystem are controlled by a range of factors. At the coarse spatial scale, these include, but are not limited to, climatic factors, light-shade conditions (Tinya *et al.*, 2009), substrate availability and type, aspect (Hylander, 2005), and topography (Bennie *et al.*, 2008). Specifically, microclimates within a habitat are largely generated by temperature, the moisture regime (which affects relative humidity) and canopy cover (which affects light conditions) (De Frenne *et al.*, 2021). Many studies have highlighted the influence of microclimate on bryophytes within an ecosystem (Chen and Franklin, 1997; Ellis, 2020; Ellis and Eaton, 2021; Man *et al.*, 2022; Oishi, 2019; Sonnleitner *et al.*, 2009; Sporn *et al.*, 2009; Stewart and Mallik, 2006; Táborská *et al.*, 2020) due to their environmentally dependent water and nutrient uptake strategy.

It is well documented that woodland or forest microclimates differ greatly to the climate outside (De Frenne *et al.*, 2019, 2021). This is important for bryophytes, which require niche climatic optima and are more sensitive to macro-scale climate change (Frego, 2007). A woodland is a spatially complex and varied system with differing light, moisture, and temperature gradients created by the stand structural characteristics, watercourses, site location, and canopy cover. This variation of parameters creates below-canopy microclimates which are important for a rich and varied dispersal of bryophytes (Chen and Franklin, 1997; Ellis, 2020; Ellis and Eaton, 2021; McCune *et al.*, 2000). Indeed, even a small change in microclimatic conditions within an ecosystem may have a notable effect on bryophyte richness (Zhang *et al.*, 2023). Thus, woodlands may create and facilitate microrefugia for bryophytes by buffering the effects of habitat fragmentation and macroclimatic change (Ellis, 2020; Ellis and Eaton, 2021; Suggitt *et al.*, 2018). This alone highlights the importance of understanding the spatial patterns of microclimate and bryophyte richness within a woodland ecosystem.

Moreover, tree species composition and woodland (stand) age can influence the distribution of bryophytes. Several studies have identified that various measures of bryophyte diversity are directly influenced by stand age (Fenton and Bergeron, 2008; Fritz *et al.*, 2009; Király *et al.*, 2013; Rola *et al.*, 2021). Generally, older stands are often associated with higher bryophyte richness when compared to younger or secondary woodlands (Fritz *et al.*, 2009; McGee and Kimmerer, 2002; Müller *et al.*, 2019). Older trees, especially oaks, may have more gnarled features which in themselves provide specific microhabitats for bryophytes (Plant life, 2016). In fact, over-matured trees have been shown to have increased epiphyte diversity, with some species being exclusively limited to ancient trees (McGee and Kimmerer, 2002). Additionally, older trees are responsible for the input of deadwood into the environment which provides an essential substrate for bryophytes to colonise (Müller *et al.*, 2019; Táborská *et al.*, 2020). Though, in some woodland types, the influence of stand age is minor compared to tree-specific factors such as tree species and bark chemistry (Mežaka *et al.*, 2012).

# <span id="page-9-0"></span>**1.4 The oceanic climate of the UK and Atlantic woodlands**

Climatic conditions are a major reason for the markedly rich bryoflora in the UK. A zone of oceanicity covers the west coast of the UK, including Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland, Cumbria, Cornwall, and Devon (**Figure 1**). Woodlands that lie within these climatic zones are often Atlantic woodlands. Atlantic woodlands are characterised by high annual rainfall, little incidence of frost, and relatively small differences in the mean summer and winter temperatures (DellaSala *et al.*, 2011). Notably, roughly 25% of the total annual rainfall occurs over the warmest months, creating an absence of long dry periods that would otherwise create unsuitable conditions for bryophytes to proliferate (DellaSala *et al.*, 2011). As well as climatic conditions, the recently glaciated landscape of the western UK provides suitable rocky substrates and steep valleys that may have experienced reduced grazing pressure (Rothero, 2005). Furthermore, the distance from urban hubs of the UK over recent history has buffered against the influence of pollution on bryophyte abundance (Rothero, 2005).



**Figure 1:** Distribution of oceanic and hyper-oceanic climatic zones in the UK. Pockets of hyper-oceanicity are present in the Southwest of England. Red polygon represents study site. The index of hygrothermy considers mean annual precipitation and temperatures and the mean temperatures of the warmest can coolest months. Methodology from: (Ellis, 2016). 5 km grid-scale data from: (Met Office, 2024).

Atlantic woodlands are some of the most biodiverse habitats in the UK and correspondingly play an important role in the conservation of bryophytes. In fact, these woodlands, especially those with boulder covered streams or ravines (**Figure 2**), are not too dissimilar to other bryophyte rich ecosystems of the world such as tropical montane cloud forests (Gotsch *et al*., 2017; Rothero, 2005). Hence, various organisations in the UK are highlighting the need to protect these woodland ecosystems (Plant life, 2016). Arguably, to do this optimally, an understanding of the spatial distribution of bryophytes with microclimate is needed.



**Figure 2:** Example of typical Atlantic Woodland. Habitat heterogeneity is created through various features. Tree species composition depends on latitude but often include oak, hazel, birch, and ash. Luxuriant epiphytic vegetation is characteristic of this ecosystem. Image adapted from: (Woodland Trust, 2024).

# <span id="page-10-0"></span>**1.5 Atlantic oak woodlands in Cornwall and the importance of management**

Existing studies in ecosystems such as tropical forests (Gotsch *et al*., 2017; Karger *et al.*, 2012), Japanese urban gardens (Oishi, 2019), and temperate forests (Király *et al.*, 2013; Táborská *et al.*, 2020) have explored the relationship between microclimatic factors (air temperature, relative humidity, Vapour Pressure Deficit (VPD; see section 2.3.1), and light), substrate, tree characteristics and varying metrics of bryophyte diversity, richness, or cover. Yet, limited studies exist in Atlantic woodlands in the UK, of which are concentrated in Scotland and often focus on lichens or epiphytic groups only due to their importance as indicator species (Ellis, 2016, 2020; Ellis and Eaton, 2021). Nonetheless, Southwest England too has a role to play in bryoflora conservation and diversity in the UK but there exists no comprehensive study on the influence of

microclimate and substrate on bryophyte richness in this ecosystem. This study therefore aims to fill this research gap.

Atlantic Oak Woodland (AOW) in the Southwest tends to be less wet and experiences more sun than its hyper-oceanic counterparts in Scotland. This makes Cornish AOWs important for a range of southern oceanic species that may have limited distribution in other parts of the UK. Considering the current biodiversity crisis, conservation and optimal management of these habits is therefore essential to protect the UK's bryoflora and biodiversity over coming decades. To achieve this, study at a fine spatial scale provides an opportunity to collect data across different oceanic gradients with the aim of generating a consensus that can be used to guide and implicate effective management based on microclimatic factors in AOWs.

## <span id="page-11-0"></span>**1.6 Research objectives**

This study primarily aims to investigate how microclimatic factors (air temperature, relative humidity, VPD and light) influence Bryophyte Species Richness (BSR) in a Cornish AOW. Furthermore, it will explore whether stand age and structural composition influences BSR. These study aims therefore give rise to the following research questions:

- 1) *How does temperature, humidity, light, and VPD microclimatic variables affect BSR in a Cornish AOW?*
- 2) *Does woodland age and composition influence BSR in a Cornish AOW?*
- 3) *How can the findings of this study be used to assist woodland landowners and managers in optimising BSR?*

# <span id="page-12-0"></span>**2. METHODOLOGY**

# <span id="page-12-1"></span>**2.1 Study site**

Cabilla Manor Farm is a 297 acre traditional upland hill farm situated on the edge of Bodmin moor, Cornwall, Southwest England (**Figure 3**). The site is roughly 200 m above mean sea level. The local climate is characteristically mild-temperate with an oceanic influence. The annual mean temperature is 13.5°C, ranging from 8.1°C to 19.2°C (Met Office, 2020). Additionally, the total annual rainfall is 1431.7 mm  $yr<sup>-1</sup>$ , with 20% of this occurring over the summer months (Met Office, 2020).

Cabilla Manor Farm has ~70 acres of native broadleaf woodland. The woodland is an SSSI designated partly for the abundance of bryophytes including forty-six species of moss with the locally rare *Atrichum undulatum* and the first record of *Pohlia muyldermansii* in Cornwall at the time of designation (Natural England, 1989). The study site is situated within a wooded valley to the east of the farm with the river Bedalder meandering through from north to south (**Figure 3, Figure 4**). The river itself provides habitat for both flora and fauna being structurally diverse with pools, overhanging banks, and scattered granitic boulders. The woodland bordering the river is of differing ages. The patch to the west of the river is an ancient woodland (AW) whereas the patch to the east of the river is a secondary woodland (SW) of around 200 years old (Merlin-Hanbury Tenison, *Pers. Comm.)* (**Figure 5**). The woodland on site has evidence of historical coppice management for charcoal, as characteristic of AOWs (Thompson *et al.*, 2001), and quarry activity in the valley to the far east of the site.



**Figure 3:** Location map showing **(a)** the study site within Cabilla Manor Farm, **(b)** Cabilla Manor Farm's location within Cornwall (OS grid reference: SX 14649 69718, 50.502N, 4.667W).



**Figure 4:** Example of the woodland structure at the study site (author's photography).

# <span id="page-13-0"></span>**2.2 Sampling design**

QGIS version 3.26.2 (QGIS Development Team, 2024) was used to do a preliminary exploration of the site. National LiDAR programme data at 1 m resolution were downloaded from Defra's environmental data platform (Defra, 2019) and loaded into QGIS to analyse the topographical features of the site using the slope and aspect tools. This allowed for generally suitable transect locations to be identified that were at a reasonable (for site access) and similar slope gradient. In addition, canopy cover was analysed using 3cm resolution drone photogrammetry data (Merlin Hanbury-Tenison, *Pers. Comm*.). Both transect locations had 100% canopy cover of vegetation >3 m. Resultantly, canopy cover was removed as an explanatory variable for the analysis. A subsequent site visit allowed for in-situ confirmation of the study locations, ensuring they had similar substrate cover, were not overly dominated by bracken that had been growing throughout the summer, and were representative of the overall woodland structure and composition.

A systematic sampling approach was taken using an interrupted transect. A transect of 20 m was placed either side of the banks of the river Bedalder (**Figure 5**). Sample points were placed at 1 m, 4 m, 8 m, 13 m, 19 m points along the transect to encapsulate any possible sharp changes in relative humidity or air temperature with increasing distance from the river (**Figure 6**).



**Figure 5:** Study site map showing the two different woodland patches within the valley and the location of both transects. Transect 1 is located inside the AW whereas transect 2 is located opposite in the 200-year-old SW.



**Figure 6:** Transect 1 (sensors 1-5) SX15008 69828 at 191 m elevation to SX14999 69813 at 192 m elevation. Transect 2 (sensors 6-10) SX14996 69836 at 195 m elevation to SX14997 69856 at 201 m elevation.

#### <span id="page-15-1"></span><span id="page-15-0"></span>**2.3 Data collection**

#### *2.3.1 Microclimatic data*

Light (Onset HOBO UA-002-64) and temperature/relative humidity (Onset HOBO U23- 002 Pro v2) data loggers were attached to a bamboo cane at 1.3 m above ground level (Király *et al.*, 2013) (**Figure 7**). Temperature/humidity sensors were sealed with a rainproof shield (closed around the top and sides, but open at the bottom) and electrical tape to ensure water droplets did not interfere with the humidity reading. Measurements were programmed to be continuously taken every 15 minutes on both types of data loggers. Equipment was placed at all 10 transect sample locations where data collection occurred from 00:00 19<sup>th</sup> August - 00:00 22<sup>nd</sup> September 2023.

VPD is an indicator of the evaporation potential of the air that considers relative humidity and temperature, leading it to be an important metric to consider in assessments of bryophyte diversity due to desiccation-tolerance (Gotsch *et al*., 2017). Relative humidity only gives a measure of the proportion of air that is currently saturated whereas VPD indicates how much more water the air can hold at a given temperature (Monteith and Unsworth, 2013). Therefore, temperature and relative humidity data were used to calculate the VPD using the following equation:

$$
VPD = \left(1 - \left(\frac{RH}{100}\right)\right) * SVP
$$

Where SVP is the saturated vapour pressure, calculated using the following equation (Monteith and Unsworth, 2013):

$$
SVP = 0.61078e^{\wedge} \left( \frac{17.27T}{T + 237.3} \right)
$$



**Figure 7: (a)** Equipment used to collect microclimatic data (plot 1); **(b)** transect 1 (author's photography).

#### <span id="page-16-0"></span>*2.3.2 Woodland composition*

Woodland composition was calculated using a point-centred-quarter sampling method (Wainscott, 2015). Two 20 m sample transects were carried out along the existing transects in both woodland patches to account for the tree density, species composition, basal area, and relative dominance. Resultantly, importance values for each tree species component could be calculated.

## <span id="page-16-1"></span>*2.3.3 Bryophyte species richness*

A bryophyte survey was conducted on 1<sup>st</sup> September 2023 using a hand lens (x10 and x20). All bryophyte occurrences (presence/absence) at each sample location within a 1 m radius plot surrounding the bamboo cane were recorded. Nomenclature followed that of the British Bryological Society (British Bryological Society, 2010). Species substrate was recorded as either ground, rock/boulder, tree, or logs/deadwood. Epiphytic bryophytes were considered on trees with DBH of at least 10 cm and at a height of 1 m (Király *et al.*, 2013). Unidentified species were collected and later identified using a microscope (Matt Stribley, *Pers. Comm.)*. The number of different species recorded within each sample plot was regarded as the Species Richness (SR). SR was chosen as a metric due to its simplicity to measure and ease of communicating to land managers who may not understand various ecological measures of diversity. It also easily identifies areas that are ecologically important due to high SR and overall contribution to biodiversity (Scott *et al.*, 1987), so focusing management is more straightforward.

# <span id="page-17-0"></span>**2.4 Data analyses**

#### <span id="page-17-1"></span>*2.4.1 Data processing*

Initially microclimatic data were processed and downloaded using HOBOware pro version 3.7.26 (Onset Computer Corporation, 2023). Data were then processed from raw measurements into the mean, max, min, and range statistics for light, temperature, relative humidity, and VPD across all 10 sample plots. Minimum light and range data were excluded from analysis due to null values during dark hours having little influence on BSR. New datasets of all microclimate variables at each of the 10 sample plots were created.

All data analysis was conducted using RStudio (version 2023.09.1) (RStudio Team, 2020) and interpreted using a 95% confidence interval (p≤0.05). Plots were made using base and ggplot2 packages. Each variable was tested for parametricity using visual inspection of histograms and QQ plots, skewness, kurtosis, mean and median values, and a Shapiro-Wilkes test. All microclimatic explanatory variables except mean lux and max lux were non-parametric whereas the response variable, SR, was parametric.

## <span id="page-17-2"></span>*2.4.2 Influence of woodland age on SR*

To determine whether BSR differed between the AW and the SW, the SR dataset was split into half in accordance with the transect design. As these variables were parametric, an F-test was performed. Resultantly, as the variance was equal, an independent t-test was performed to test for a significant difference between the woodland patches.

## <span id="page-17-3"></span>*2.4.3 Relationship between microclimate and species richness*

To test for significant relationships between microclimate and BSR, each microclimatic variable was plotted against SR, as well as one another to test for collinearity. A subsequent Spearman's (Pearson's) corelation test between non-parametric pairs of (parametric pairs of) variables was performed and where a significant relationship was found, regression analysis was performed to determine the strength of an explanatory relationship between variables and SR. Multivariate regression was performed where multiple variables were significantly correlated with SR to determine whether the combination of variables had a stronger influence upon SR than in isolation.

## <span id="page-17-4"></span>*2.4.4 Ellenburg indicator values and the BRYOATT tool*

Ellenburg indicator values (Ellenberg *et al.*, 1991) are utilised in vegetation science due to their excellent ability to assess environmental conditions without the need to take insitu measurements. The values are derived from long-term vegetation surveys and give insight into the optimal habitat conditions (for instance light, temperature, and continentality) for peak species occurrence. These data have been complied into a database format for bryophytes (Hill *et al.*, 2007). The BRYOATT tool provides a detailed database of attribute data for UK bryophyte species that allow the many factors that make up a species autecology to be recognized. Used in conjunction with in-situ data, a detailed description of site-specific microhabitats and bryophyte distributions can be established.

The BRYOATT tool was used to calculate the Ellenburg light and moisture values and the mean biogeographic element (BGE) score for each sample plot. This was done using the list of species present at each plot. A mean and mode value for each variable was subsequently calculated for each plot. These new variables were finally tested for relationships with the collected microclimatic data and SR in the same way as stated in section 2.4.3.

# <span id="page-19-0"></span>**3. RESULTS**

#### <span id="page-19-1"></span>**3.1 Bryophyte species richness**

A total of 42 bryophyte species were identified across all 10 plots, 10 of which were liverworts and 32 were mosses (**Figure 8**; see appendix 1.1 for a full species list). No hornworts were identified at any of the sample plots. The most dominant species found were *Isothecium myosuroides, Kindbergia parelonga* and *Thuidium tamariscinum,* which were present at 7 out of the 10 sample plots. Other species such as *Amblystegium serpens* and *Fontinalis squamosa* were only present at 1 sample plot across both transects. In addition, *Lepidozia reptans, Nowelia curvifolia*, and *Fissidens polyphyllus*  were only identified along transect 1 whereas *Loeskeobryum brevirostre* and *Plagiomnium undulatum* were only identified along transect 2.



**Figure 8:** Bryophyte assemblages at sample plots **(a)** 1, **(b)** 3, **(c)** 7, and **(d)** 10 (author's photography).

All species found are of least conservation concern in accordance with the IUCN Red list (Callaghan, 2022). All identified species are commonly found in the UK, with many having a broad range across different oceanic gradients, especially species such as *Isothecium myosuroides, Kindbergia parelonga, Thuidium tamariscinum and Brachythecium rutabulum* (British Bryological Society, 2010). Species found such as *Loeskeobryum brevirostre*, *Plagiochila punctata, Isothecium holtii* and *Neckera pulmila,* although not rare, follow a more oceanic distribution in the UK and are common in Cornwall (British Bryological Society, 2010; Paton, 1969).

Overall, plot 1 had the highest SR at 16 (**Figure 9**). In addition, plot 1 had the highest number of liverworts and mosses as separate groups. By contrast, plot 2 had the lowest SR at 5. Across all sampling plots, the average SR was 10  $\pm$  3.4 (mean  $\pm$  SD) and the range was 11. Logs and deadwood were the most common substrate class across all sampling plots, closely followed by rocks and boulders (**Table 1**).



**Figure 9:** Schematic visualising BSR across both transects. Red dashed lines represent the general expected trend based on the findings of other studies (Gotsch *et al*., 2017; Oishi, 2019). Vertical blue line represents the river Bedalder.





#### <span id="page-21-0"></span>**3.2 Influence of woodland age on species richness**

The t-test revealed no significant difference in SR between the two woodland types ( $t =$ -0.53033, p= 0.61). Yet, the SW had marginally higher SR on average compared to the AW. The mean SR of transect 1 was  $9.4 \pm 4.3$ , whereas the mean for transect 2 was 10.6 ± 2.7 (**Figure 10**).



**Figure 10:** Distribution of SR values in both the AW and SW patches. AW richness = 9.4  $\pm$  4.3 and SW = 10.6  $\pm$  2.7 (mean  $\pm$  SD). Black line on plot represents the median value.

#### <span id="page-22-0"></span>**3.3 Relationship between microclimate and bryophyte species richness**

Of all tested microclimatic variables, only mean light and minimum temperature showed moderate significant relationships with SR (rho=  $-0.6$ , p= 0.04 and rho=0.63, p= 0.05, respectively). Though, mean temperature and max relative humidity were closer to significance than other variables (rho=  $0.42$ , p=  $0.23$  and rho=  $0.48$ , p=  $0.16$ , respectively) (**Figure 11**). However, regressional analysis could not be justified due to insignificant test statistics, despite normally distributed residuals in both the mean light (W = 0.94244, p = 0.58) and minimum temperature (W = 0.90172, p = 0.23) models. Resultantly, no further regression analysis could be performed between microclimatic explanatory variables and SR. Moreover, multivariate regression did not show any stronger relationships when microclimatic variables were tested in conjunction with one another.



**Figure 11:** Relationships between **(a)** mean lux, **(b)** mean temp, **(c)** min temp and, **(d)**  max rh and SR. Line represents the linear regression model. None of the regression models were significant. Despite this, minimum temperature (c) was approaching significance.

#### <span id="page-23-0"></span>**3.4 BRYOATT habitat indicator scores**

Across all plots, 'temperate European' BGE scores were most common. In addition, some plots had mode BGE scores relating to 'boreo-temperate sub-oceanic' distributions. Within this, plots 1, 3, 4, 5, 9, and 10 had at least one species of temperate 'hyper-oceanic' biogeographic distribution.

When Ellenburg light and moisture indicator values were used as explanatory variables for SR, no significant relationships were found. Thus, no further regressional analysis could be carried out. Additionally, when microclimatic data were used as explanatory variables for BGE scores, no significant relationships were found despite mean temperature and max temperature approaching significance (rho=  $0.60$ ,  $p= 0.06$  and, rho= 0.57, p= 0.08, respectively) (**Figure 12**). No combination of explanatory and response variables in multivariate analysis produced any stronger relationships.



**Figure 12:** Relationships between microclimatic explanatory variables **(a)** mean temperature, **(b)** max temperature, and **(c)** mean VPD and BGE scores. Line represents linear model.

#### <span id="page-24-0"></span>**3.5 Woodland composition**

Overall, the AW has a density of 845 trees/ha whereas the SW has slightly higher density at 892 trees/ha. 50% of the AW is dominated by hazel, with a further 44% being oak. This was different in the SW where the dominant species is sycamore (~32%). In contrast to the AW, other tree species such as beech, hawthorn and ash are present (**Figure 13a**). However, oak is the most important species in both the AW and SW with a calculated importance value of 121 and 102, respectively (**Figure 13b**). The average DBH in the AW was 27 cm whereas in the SW it was 23 cm, and the range was 66 and 60, respectively.



**Figure 13: (a)** Relative density of tree species in both woodland patches, and **(b)** the importance value of each tree species in both woodland patches. Importance values take into consideration the relative density, frequency, and dominance of the tree species within the woodland.

# <span id="page-25-0"></span>**4. DISCUSSION**

Effective management for the protection and proliferation of bryophytes in an ecosystem requires an understanding of the influence of microclimate on bryophyte distribution. This is the first known study that explores the influence of microclimate on bryophyte richness in a Cornish AOW. This study has demonstrated the complexity in bryophyte richness in AOWs and thus highlighted why these ecosystems are renowned for having such a rich bryoflora. Although no IUCN red list or rare species were identified, *Plagiochila punctata*, *Isothecium holtii* and *Fissidens polyphyllus* are 'very good' indicator species for oceanic woodlands (Averis, 2023). The abundance of these indicator species identified during the survey alongside the hyper-oceanic climate of the site (**Figure 1**) indicates that the study woodland is indeed very suitable for the proliferation of oceanic bryophyte species, despite the absence of rare or notable species in this instance.

# <span id="page-25-1"></span>**4.1 The influence of microclimate on bryophyte richness and distribution**

#### <span id="page-25-2"></span>*4.1.1 VPD and bryophyte species richness*

The results of this study show no significant relationships with any measure of VPD and bryophyte richness. These findings do not align with the general trend presented in numerous other studies in varying bryophyte rich ecosystems (Gotsch *et al.,* 2017; Karger *et al*., 2012; Király *et al.,* 2013; Oishi, 2019). For instance, VPD was found to be the strongest microclimatic predictor of epiphyte abundance in a tropical montane forest (Gotsch *et al*., 2017). Although, when compared to other influential microclimatic variables in a different habitat type, the relationship between VPD and bryophyte diversity was not as strong as that of temperature and humidity metrics when analysed individually (Oishi, 2019). The lack of a relationship between VPD and BSR in this study indicates that other local-scale factors may be influencing the richness and distribution of bryophytes in the woodland.

The design of the present study may begin to explain these results. The presence of a waterway within the woodland valley will indeed have a large impact on the localised climate and thus microclimates sampled along the transects. Several other studies have presented the significance of riparian zones in woodlands for cooling the air temperature and regulating the relative humidity of the local climate, and thus the VPD (Ellis, 2020; Ellis and Eaton, 2021; Higgins and Yasué, 2014; Stewart and Mallik, 2006). A riparian buffer zone of up to 500 m has been shown to enhance the cover of and protect bryophytes and lichens, both characteristic groups of AOWs, from unsuitable macroclimatic conditions (Ellis, 2020). Specifically, a study in a coastal temperate rainforest in Canada identified that a riparian buffer zone of up to 35 m either side of a watercourse protected liverworts from microclimatic change due to unfavourable woodland management conditions (Higgins and Yasué, 2014).

This implies that a riparian buffer zone wider than the span of the transects may have been present in the study area, resulting in an insufficient change between VPD of the sampling plots to have any causal relationship with BSR i.e. the riparian buffering effect has created suitable microclimatic conditions for a rich bryoflora across both transects so distance from the river has a limited effect on BSR. Across all the transect sampling plots, the VPD was relatively low (mean at each plot=<0.16), suggesting that the bryophytes sampled are under little drought stress and thus can proliferate in the environment, explaining the high BSR across most of the sampling plots. This finding supports the overall importance of riparian zones in mediating suitable climatic conditions in AOWs for the conservation of bryophytes (and particularly liverworts) that are adapted to wetter conditions. With this in mind, future study may build on these findings by utilising longer transects, allowing for greater data acquisition across a wider moisture gradient and possibly identifying differing relationships to those found here.

#### <span id="page-26-0"></span>*4.1.2 Temperature and bryophyte species richness*

Notwithstanding the non-significant liner model between temperature variables and SR (**Figure 11**), minimum temperature was found to have a significant positive relationship with SR (rho=0.63,  $p= 0.05$ ). This may be explained by the fact that high temperatures reduce the rates of net photosynthesis in bryophytes, which can lead to inhibited growth and reproduction and ultimately decrease the richness of species present (Frahm, 1990). Temperatures that are too low can also inhibit photosynthesis; the optimum temperature tends to be close to the mean daily temperature during the growing season (Rothero, 2005). Additionally, high temperatures can lead to desiccation which inhibits metabolic function (Marschall, 2017; Proctor *et al*., 2007). Indeed, minimum, and average temperature variables have been found in other studies to be the primary environmental drivers for forest bryophyte diversity and distribution (Oishi, 2019; Zhang *et al.*, 2023). Zhang *et al*. (2023) found that a minor increase in temperature from a cool optimum lead to a decrease in overall bryophyte diversity. Therefore, the significant relationship identified with minimum temperature and BSR here aligns with findings of other studies in the literature.

As this study only measured BSR, it remains unknown what effect the varying microclimatic conditions had on the cover or community composition of bryophytes across the transects. For instance, bryophyte community composition (Sporn *et al.*, 2009) and cover (Király *et al.*, 2013; Oishi, 2019) have both been shown to change with microclimatic variables, whilst species richness has remained constant (Sporn *et al.*, 2009). Further study may build on the methods and results presented here by including measures of cover and diversity across some e.g. only epiphytic, or all, substrate types to better understand the distribution of bryophytes with microclimate in an AOW.

#### <span id="page-26-1"></span>*4.1.3 Light conditions and bryophyte species richness*

It was found that mean lux had a moderate negative relationship with SR (rho=  $-0.6$ , p= 0.04) i.e. plots with higher mean light intensities had lower BSR. Although, a causal relationship could not be determined with these data due to a non-significant linear model (**Figure 11**). Despite the lack of regressional analysis, this relationship aligns with what was expected. Bryophytes are generally shade adapted plants, with optimal photosynthesis occurring under 20% of the max light conditions within an environment (Marschall and Proctor, 2004). High light intensities are also associated with desiccation, which through reduced metabolic rate, hinders the proliferation of bryophytes within an environment (Proctor *et al.,* 2007). However, species living closer to watercourses i.e. under less desiccation-stress, may be able to withstand higher light intensities due to being fully, or sufficiently hydrated for metabolic processes to continue (Proctor *et al.,* 2007).

Moreover, transect 2 (SW) had on average 21% lower light intensity, despite the canopy cover being 100% in both the AW and SW. This may be part of the explanation as to why BSR was marginally higher in the SW in contrast to the AW. In this instance, bryophytes in the SW may be under less desiccation-stress and at a more optimum light intensity for photosynthesis to occur, allowing for greater abundance across the sample locations. Although the non-significant difference in SR implies that this effect is not influential enough for a statistically distinguishable effect to be recorded.

# <span id="page-27-0"></span>**4.2 The influence of woodland age and composition on bryophyte richness**

Contrary to what was expected (Fenton and Bergeron, 2008; Fritz *et al.*, 2009), no significant difference was found between the BSR of the AW and the SW (**Figure 10**). Although, the SW had marginally higher mean SR than the AW. Tree species composition may be a reason as to why this is the case. There were marked differences in species composition between the AW and the SW (**Figure 13a**). In comparison to the AW, the SW had higher tree species diversity that may have contributed greater variance in epiphytic substrate for bryophytes (Király *et al.*, 2013; McCune *et al.*, 2000). In addition, the SW was denser than the AW, which may provide larger surface area for epiphytic bryophytes. Despite this, oak trees had the highest importance values (**Figure 13b**) in both woodland patches which indicates that oak may be the dominant species substrate in each regardless of the or structure woodland age (Wainscott, 2015).

Considering this, only 9 species occurrences were recorded as epiphytic. Thus, the influence of species composition and density may not be the only driving factor in the woodland. By contrast, woody substrates made up the most abundantly colonised group, which is similarly the case in other studies (McCune *et al.*, 2000; Riffo-Donoso *et al.*, 2021). The structural diversity, continuity, and presence of varying decay stages are all important factors in creating a continuum of microhabitats within the substrate group which is crucial for overall epixylic bryophyte richness and health (Ódor and Van Hees, 2004; Táborská *et al.*, 2020).

Additionally, it was expected that aspect may have an influence on the SR between the woodland patches. There is a marked difference between North facing and South facing slopes which has been documented in the literature for a range of plant species (Badano *et al*., 2005; Bennie *et al.,* 2008; Sternberg and Shoshany, 2001; Zhang *et al.,* 2022). The aspect differentiates the intensity of incoming solar radiation, and this affects rates of evaporation and soil moisture content (Sternberg and Shoshany, 2001). Indeed, North facing slopes tend to support a greater abundance, cover, and diversity of bryophytes due lower average temperatures and higher moisture (Luis *et al.*, 2010). However, the findings of this study are inconsistent with this general trend as on average transect 1 in the AW with the North facing slope had less bryophyte richness than transect 2 in the SW with a South facing slope. Thus, aspect can be ruled out as a confounding factor. To account for any differences that may be caused by slope aspect, which ultimately influences light conditions and bryophyte physiology, future study could ideally select sample locations of the same aspect to test for differences between these variables.

# <span id="page-28-0"></span>**4.3 The importance of substrate cover and implications for management in Atlantic oak woodlands**

Ultimately, protection of bryophytes through the formation of microclimates in a woodland not only enhances biodiversity but also maintains ecosystem resilience through the ecosystem services that they provide (Glime, 2024). For this reason, understanding the major drivers in bryophyte richness in a woodland is crucial for both ecologists and woodland managers alike. This study has started to explore these relationships and has alluded to several major ways in which management practices in Cornish AOWs can be enhanced.

Firstly, this study has emphasised the importance of varied substrate cover for the proliferation of bryophytes. Boulders, rocks, and deadwood proved to be important for bryophyte richness, whereas epiphytic bryophytes were less rich overall (**Table 1**). Many studies support this finding (Humphrey *et al.*, 2002; Oishi, 2019; Spitale, 2017; Táborská *et al.*, 2020), especially under riparian influence (Higgins and Yasué, 2014). The abundance of woody substrates in the bryophyte survey coveys the importance of allowing native tree species to stand and age naturally, eventually producing deadwood which should be left on the woodland floor to provide substrate for bryophytes (Radu, 2006). Indeed, deadwood has often been found to be the limiting substrate for bryophytes in managed woodlands (Spitale, 2017). In addition, this study has identified that rocks and boulders provide a large proportion of the overall substrate for bryophytes in this woodland. Rocky substrates provide important habitats for bryophytes due to their varying chemistry, surface textures and the presence of cavities and fissures which allows for the growth of varying species (Hespanhol *et al.*, 2011; Táborská *et al.*, 2020). Thus, a woodland with higher coverage of rocky substrates provides greater potential for colonisation and a rich bryoflora and these substrates should be encouraged rather than cleared from a woodland under management.

Moreover, topographic gradients, including distance to streams and rivers, should be exploited to create microclimatic heterogeneity within the ecosystem (Ellis and Eaton, 2021). This study has highlighted the importance of riparian zones in mediating suitable climatic conditions over a large buffer area (Ellis, 2020; Higgins and Yasué, 2014; Stewart and Mallik, 2006). This in conjunction with the suitable oceanic macro-climate facilitates bryophyte 'hotspots' within AOWs that offer prime areas to focus conservation efforts. Indeed, afforestation or reforestation within the suitable climatic pockets (**Figure 1**) and in riparian zones would exploit this buffering effect and maximise the biodiversity net gain of newly planted woodlands due to the potential for oceanic bryophyte proliferation under high atmospheric moisture conditions.

Overall, AOWs themselves act as strongholds for the protection of bryophytes (Averis, 2023; Plant life, 2016). However, the addition of microclimatic buffer zones created by waterways may provide suitable buffering of temperature extremes and the maintenance of a low VPD. This in the face of climate change may buffer the effects of macro-climatic change and protect bryophytes from warmer temperatures and drought-stress (IPCC, 2021). With this in mind, studies using this methodology at different AOW sites in Cornwall and wider oceanic areas in the UK would build on the results presented here and help form a consensus on the influence of microclimate on bryophyte richness in AOWs and ultimately optimise understanding and management on a wider scale. This study consequently presents useful indications of the influence of microclimate on BSR in AOWs and opens many avenues for future research in this field.

#### <span id="page-30-0"></span>**5. CONCLUSION**

This study sought to investigate the influence of microclimate on BSR in a Cornish AOW. Primarily, the findings of this study have shown that BSR is highly variable within the woodland and has many influential factors. Significant relationships between mean lux and minimum temperature and BSR were identified. These findings corroborate general trends identified in the literature; bryophyte distribution within an ecosystem is controlled by temperature and light preferences. Specifically, the data presented here show that bryophytes in this Cornish AOW prefer an optimum of cooler temperatures and lower light intensities. However, no other microclimatic variables, notably VPD, had any significant relationships with BSR. The absence of any relationship between VPD and BSR may be explained by the presence of a riparian buffer zone broader than the sampled transect length. Here, the river Bedalder is likely to be creating a low VPD over at least a 20 m buffer, creating suitable moist conditions for bryophytes to photosynthesise and proliferate across the riverbanks and adjacent woodlands.

Additionally, no significant difference in BSR was found between the AW and SW. This was likely due to the overall importance of oak as a habitat for bryophytes, the influence of the riparian buffer zone, and the even abundance of rocky and deadwood substrate in both woodland patches. This study has highlighted the overall importance of varied substrate cover in contrast to woodland age and structure in this instance. Thus, management should ensure that key substrate classes are abundant in an AOW to provide varied substrate for high bryophyte richness. Particularly, ensuring that there is a high cover of boulders and deadwood within 20-35 m of a watercourse may provide optimal substrate cover and microclimatic conditions (low VPD and cooler temperatures) for a rich bryoflora. Indeed, exploiting riparian areas for expansion and restoration of oak dominated woodlands in Cornwall and the wider Southwest may enhance local biodiversity through the formation of a rich bryoflora over time. Future study should build on the methods and findings of this present study and acquire measurements over a broader temporal and spatial scale. These expansions would test whether the findings of this study hold true across a broader range of conditions to best generalise and optimise management practices in AOWs for bryophytes.

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# **APPENDICES**

# **1. Supplementary tables and figures**



**S1:** Full species list



**S2:** Descriptive statistics used to test all variables for parametricity.



**S3:** Rho and p-values for correlation tests between all variables. Bold values in a green cell are significant at the 95% confidence interval. Those highlighted in orange were identified as approaching significance, so were included in multivariate regression analysis and plotted.



**S4:** Bar chart to visualise the mean microclimatic measurements at each sampling plot.

#### **2. R code**

VPD\_max<-read.csv("VPD\_max.csv", header=TRUE) VPD\_mean<-read.csv("VPD\_mean.csv", header=TRUE) VPD\_min<- read.csv("VPD\_min.csv", header=TRUE) VPD\_range<- read.csv("VPD\_range.csv", header=TRUE) temp\_range<-read.csv("Temp\_range.csv", header=TRUE) temp\_max<-read.csv("temp\_max.csv", header=TRUE) temp\_min<- read.csv("temp\_min.csv", header=TRUE) temp\_mean<- read.csv("temp\_mean.csv", header=TRUE) lux\_max<-read.csv("lux\_max.csv", header=TRUE) lux\_mean<-read.csv("lux\_mean.csv", header=TRUE) rh\_mean<-read.csv("rh\_mean.csv", header=TRUE) rh\_max<- read.csv("rh\_max.csv", header=TRUE) rh\_min<- read.csv("rh\_min.csv", header=TRUE) rh\_range<-read.csv("rh\_range.csv", header=TRUE) richness<- read.csv('species\_richness.csv', header=TRUE)

library(moments)

#####lux\_mean##### hist(lux\_mean\$mean) shapiro.test(lux\_mean\$mean) qqnorm(lux\_mean\$mean) qqline(lux\_mean\$mean) skewness(lux\_mean\$mean) kurtosis(lux\_mean\$mean)

#####variable normality testing#####

hist(lux\_max\$max)

shapiro.test(lux\_max\$max)

qqnorm(lux\_max\$max)

qqline(lux\_max\$max)

skewness(lux\_max\$max)

kurtosis(lux\_max\$max)

#####temp\_mean##### hist(temp\_mean\$mean) shapiro.test(temp\_mean\$mean) qqnorm(temp\_mean\$mean) qqline(temp\_mean\$mean) skewness(temp\_mean\$mean) kurtosis(temp\_mean\$mean)

#####temp\_max##### hist(temp\_max\$max) shapiro.test(temp\_max\$max) qqnorm(temp\_max\$max) qqline(temp\_max\$max) skewness(temp\_max\$max) kurtosis(temp\_max\$max)

#####temp\_min##### hist(temp\_min\$min) shapiro.test(temp\_min\$min) qqnorm(temp\_min\$min) qqline(temp\_min\$min) skewness(temp\_min\$min) kurtosis(temp\_min\$min)

#####temp\_range##### hist(temp\_range\$range) shapiro.test(temp\_range\$range) qqnorm(temp\_range\$range) qqline(temp\_range\$range) skewness(temp\_range\$range) kurtosis(temp\_range\$range)

#### #####rh\_mean#####

hist(rh\_mean\$mean) shapiro.test(rh\_mean\$mean) qqnorm(rh\_mean\$mean) qqline(rh\_mean\$mean) skewness(rh\_mean\$mean) kurtosis(rh\_mean\$mean)

#### #####rh\_max#####

hist(rh\_max\$max) shapiro.test(rh\_max\$max) qqnorm(rh\_max\$max) qqline(rh\_max\$max) skewness(rh\_max\$max)

kurtosis(rh\_max\$max)

#####rh\_min##### hist(rh\_min\$min) shapiro.test(rh\_min\$min) qqnorm(rh\_min\$min) qqline(rh\_min\$min)

skewness(rh\_min\$min)

#### kurtosis(rh\_min\$min)

#####rh\_range#####

hist(rh\_range\$range)

shapiro.test(rh\_range\$range)

qqnorm(rh\_range\$range)

qqline(rh\_range\$range)

skewness(rh\_range\$range)

kurtosis(rh\_range\$range)

#####VPD\_mean##### hist(VPD\_mean\$mean) qqnorm(VPD\_mean\$mean) qqline(VPD\_mean\$mean) skewness(VPD\_mean\$mean) kurtosis(VPD\_mean\$mean) shapiro.test(VPD\_mean\$mean)

#####VPD\_max##### hist(VPD\_max\$max) qqnorm(VPD\_max\$max) qqline(VPD\_max\$max) shapiro.test(VPD\_max\$max) skewness(VPD\_max\$max) kurtosis(VPD\_max\$max)

#####VPD\_min##### hist(VPD\_min\$min) qqnorm(VPD\_min\$min) qqline(VPD\_min\$min)

shapiro.test(VPD\_min\$min)

skewness(VPD\_min\$min)

kurtosis(VPD\_min\$min)

#### #####VPD\_range#####

hist(VPD\_range\$range)

qqnorm(VPD\_range\$range)

qqline(VPD\_range\$range)

shapiro.test(VPD\_range\$range)

skewness(VPD\_range\$range)

kurtosis(VPD\_range\$range)

#### #species richness#####

hist(richness\$species\_richness)

shapiro.test(richness\$species\_richness)

qqnorm(richness\$species\_richness)

qqline(richness\$species\_richness)

mean(richness\$species\_richness)

median(richness\$species\_richness)

skewness(richness\$species\_richness)

kurtosis(richness\$species\_richness)

# ## #####Relationships##### plot(VPD\_max\$max, richness\$species\_richness) cor.test(VPD\_max\$max, richness\$species\_richness, method = "spearman")

plot(VPD\_mean\$mean, richness\$species\_richness)

cor.test(VPD\_mean\$mean, richness\$species\_richness, method='spearman')

plot(temp\_range\$range, richness\$species\_richness)

cor.test(temp\_range\$range, richness\$species\_richness, method="spearman")

plot(lux\_mean\$mean, richness\$species\_richness, ylab= 'Species richness', xlab='Mean light') cor.test(log(lux\_mean\$mean), richness\$species\_richness, method= "spearman")

plot(temp\_max\$max, richness\$species\_richness) cor.test(temp\_max\$max, richness\$species\_richness, method= "spearman")

plot(temp\_min\$min, richness\$species\_richness) cor.test(temp\_min\$min, richness\$species\_richness, method="spearman")

plot(temp\_mean\$mean, richness\$species\_richness) cor.test(temp\_mean\$mean, richness\$species\_richness, method="spearman")

plot(VPD\_min\$min, richness\$species\_richness) cor.test(VPD\_min\$min, richness\$species\_richness, method="spearman")

plot(VPD\_range\$range, richness\$species\_richness) cor.test(VPD\_range\$range, richness\$species\_richness, method="spearman")

plot(lux\_max\$max, richness\$species\_richness) cor.test(lux\_max\$max, richness\$species\_richness, method="spearman")

plot(rh\_mean\$mean, richness\$species\_richness) cor.test(rh\_mean\$mean, richness\$species\_richness, method="spearman")

plot(rh\_max\$plot, richness\$species\_richness) cor.test(rh\_max\$max, richness\$species\_richness, method="spearman") plot(rh\_min\$min, richness\$species\_richness)

cor.test(rh\_min\$min, richness\$species\_richness, method= "spearman")

plot(rh\_range\$range, richness\$species\_richness)

cor.test(rh\_range\$range, richness\$species\_richness, method="spearman")

#####additional correlation tests#####

cor.test(temp\_mean\$mean, lux\_max\$max, method="spearman") cor.test(temp\_mean\$mean, lux\_mean\$mean, method ="spearman") cor.test(temp\_max\$max, lux\_mean\$mean, method= "spearman") cor.test(temp\_min\$min, lux\_mean\$mean, method= "spearman") cor.test(temp\_range\$range, lux\_mean\$mean, method= "spearman") cor.test(rh\_mean\$mean, lux\_mean\$mean, method= "spearman") cor.test(rh\_max\$max, lux\_mean\$mean, method= "spearman") cor.test(rh\_min\$min, lux\_mean\$mean, method= "spearman") cor.test(rh\_range\$range, lux\_mean\$mean, method= "spearman") cor.test(VPD\_mean\$mean, lux\_mean\$mean, method= "spearman") cor.test(VPD\_max\$max, lux\_mean\$mean, method= "spearman") cor.test(VPD\_min\$min, lux\_mean\$mean, method= "spearman") cor.test(VPD\_range\$range, lux\_mean\$mean, method= "spearman") cor.test(temp\_max\$max, lux\_max\$max, method= "spearman") cor.test(temp\_min\$min, lux\_max\$max, method= "spearman") cor.test(temp\_range\$range, lux\_max\$max, method= "spearman") cor.test(rh\_mean\$mean, lux\_max\$max, method= "spearman") cor.test(rh\_max\$max, lux\_max\$max, method= "spearman") cor.test(rh\_min\$min, lux\_max\$max, method= "spearman") cor.test(rh\_range\$range, lux\_max\$max, method= "spearman") cor.test(VPD\_mean\$mean, lux\_max\$max, method= "spearman") cor.test(VPD\_max\$max, lux\_max\$max, method= "spearman")

cor.test(VPD\_min\$min, lux\_max\$max, method= "spearman") cor.test(VPD\_range\$range, lux\_max\$max, method= "spearman") cor.test(rh\_mean\$mean, temp\_mean\$mean, method= "spearman") cor.test(rh\_max\$max, temp\_mean\$mean, method= "spearman") cor.test(rh\_min\$min, temp\_mean\$mean, method= "spearman") cor.test(rh\_range\$range, temp\_mean\$mean, method= "spearman") cor.test(VPD\_mean\$mean, temp\_mean\$mean, method= "spearman") cor.test(VPD\_max\$max, temp\_mean\$mean, method= "spearman") cor.test(VPD\_min\$min, temp\_mean\$mean, method= "spearman") cor.test(VPD\_range\$range, temp\_mean\$mean, method= "spearman") cor.test(rh\_mean\$mean, temp\_max\$max, method="spearman") cor.test(rh\_min\$min, temp\_max\$max, method ="spearman") cor.test(rh\_max\$max, temp\_max\$max, method= "spearman") cor.test(rh\_range\$range, temp\_max\$max, method= "spearman") cor.test(VPD\_mean\$mean, temp\_max\$max, method= "spearman") cor.test(VPD\_max\$max, temp\_max\$max, method= "spearman") cor.test(VPD\_min\$min, temp\_max\$max, method= "spearman") cor.test(VPD\_range\$range, temp\_max\$max, method= "spearman") cor.test(rh\_mean\$mean, temp\_min\$min, method= "spearman") cor.test(rh\_max\$max, temp\_min\$min, method= "spearman") cor.test(rh\_min\$min, temp\_min\$min, method= "spearman") cor.test(rh\_range\$range, temp\_min\$min, method= "spearman") cor.test(VPD\_mean\$mean, temp\_min\$min, method= "spearman") cor.test(VPD\_max\$max, temp\_min\$min, method= "spearman") cor.test(VPD\_min\$min, temp\_min\$min, method= "spearman") cor.test(VPD\_range\$range, temp\_min\$min, method= "spearman") cor.test(rh\_mean\$mean, temp\_range\$range, method="spearman") cor.test(rh\_max\$max, temp\_range\$range, method="spearman") cor.test(rh\_min\$min, temp\_range\$range, method="spearman") cor.test(rh\_range\$range, temp\_range\$range, method="spearman")

cor.test(VPD\_mean\$mean, temp\_range\$range, method="spearman") cor.test(VPD\_max\$max, temp\_range\$range, method="spearman") cor.test(VPD\_min\$min, temp\_range\$range, method="spearman") cor.test(VPD\_range\$range, temp\_range\$range, method="spearman") cor.test(VPD\_mean\$mean, rh\_mean\$mean, method ="spearman") cor.test(VPD\_max\$max, rh\_mean\$mean, method ="spearman") cor.test(VPD\_min\$min, rh\_mean\$mean, method ="spearman") cor.test(VPD\_range\$range, rh\_mean\$mean, method ="spearman") cor.test(VPD\_mean\$mean, rh\_max\$max, method ="spearman") cor.test(VPD\_max\$max, rh\_max\$max, method ="spearman") cor.test(VPD\_min\$min, rh\_max\$max, method ="spearman") cor.test(VPD\_range\$range, rh\_max\$max, method ="spearman") cor.test(VPD\_mean\$mean, rh\_min\$min, method ="spearman") cor.test(VPD\_max\$max, rh\_min\$min, method ="spearman") cor.test(VPD\_min\$min, rh\_min\$min, method ="spearman") cor.test(VPD\_range\$range, rh\_min\$min, method ="spearman") cor.test(VPD\_mean\$mean, rh\_range\$range, method ="spearman") cor.test(VPD\_max\$max, rh\_range\$range, method ="spearman") cor.test(VPD\_min\$min, rh\_range\$range, method ="spearman") cor.test(VPD\_range\$range, rh\_range\$range, method ="spearman")

#### #####Linear regression#####

#####lux\_mean#####

plot(lux\_mean\$mean, richness\$species\_richness, xlab='Mean light (lx)', ylab='Species richness') lux\_mean\_lm<-lm(richness\$species\_richness ~ lux\_mean\$mean) lux mean lm<-lm(richness\$species richness ~ +I(lux mean\$mean^1)+I(lux mean\$mean^2)) abline(lux\_mean\_lm, col ="red") summary(lux\_mean\_lm) resid\_lux\_mean\_lm<-resid(lux\_mean\_lm) plot(resid\_lux\_mean\_lm)

abline(0,0, col="red")

shapiro.test(resid\_lux\_mean\_lm)

plot(richness\$species\_richness, resid\_lux\_mean\_lm)

install.packages("ggplot2")

library(ggplot2)

ggplot(data=lux\_mean, aes(x=mean, y=richness))+

geom\_point()+

geom\_smooth(method=lm, level = 0.95, color = "red") + # Change the line color to red

theme\_bw() +  $\#$  Use a white background theme

theme(panel.grid = element\_blank())+

labs(x = 'Mean lux (lx)', y= 'Species richness')+

coord cartesian(xlim = c(750,2700), ylim =  $c(0,16)$ )+

theme(panel.border = element\_blank())+

axis.line.x = element\_line(size = 0.5, linetype = "solid", colour = "black")# Add the x axis line

axis.line.y = element\_line(size = 0.5, linetype = "solid", colour = "black")# Add the y axis line

plot(temp\_min\$min, richness\$species\_richness, ylim=c(0,20), ylab='Species richness', xlab='Minimum temperature (°C)')

temp\_min\_lm<-lm(richness\$species\_richness ~ temp\_min\$min)

abline(temp\_min\_lm, col ="red")

summary(temp\_min\_lm)

resid temp\_min\_lm<-resid(temp\_min\_lm)

plot(resid\_temp\_min\_lm)

 $abline(0,0, col = "red")$ 

shapiro.test(resid\_temp\_min\_lm)

ggplot(data=temp\_min, aes(x=min, y=richness))+

geom\_point()+

geom\_smooth(method=lm, level = 0.95, color = "red") +

theme\_bw() +

theme(panel.grid = element\_blank())+

labs(x = 'Minimum temperature (°C)', y= 'Species richness')+

coord cartesian(xlim = c(5.2,6.02), ylim =  $c(0,20)$ )+

theme(panel.border = element\_blank(),

axis.line.x = element line(size = 0.5, linetype = "solid", colour = "black"),

axis.line.y = element\_line(size = 0.5, linetype = "solid", colour = "black"))

######multivariate\_regression#####

multi regression<-lm(richness\$species richness ~ lux mean\$mean + temp min\$min) summary(multi\_regression)

#### #####T-test#####

 $n < -2$ 

richness\_split<-split(richness, factor(sort(rank(row.names(richness))%%n)))

print(richness\_split\$'0')

print(richness\_split\$'1')

mean\_1<-mean(richness\_split\$'0'\$species\_richness)

mean\_2<-mean(richness\_split\$'1'\$species\_richness)

mean\_2-mean\_1

sd 1<-sd(richness\_split\$'0'\$species\_richness)

sd\_2<-sd(richness\_split\$'1'\$species\_richnes)

var.test(richness\_split\$'0'\$species\_richness,richness\_split\$'1'\$species\_richnes)

t.test(richness\_split\$'0'\$species\_richness, richness\_split\$'1'\$species\_richness)

#### #####ANOVA#####

one.way.VPD.mean<- aov(richness\$species\_richness ~ VPD\_mean\$mean)

summary(one.way)

one.way.VPD.max<- aov(richness\$species\_richness ~ VPD\_max\$max)

summary(one.way.VPD.max)

two.way<- aov(richness\$species\_richness ~ temp\_max\$max \* lux\_mean\$mean) summary(two.way)

one.way.temp.min<-aov(richness\$species\_richness ~ temp\_min\$min)

summary(one.way.temp.min)

two.way.significant<-aov(richness\$species\_richness ~ temp\_min\$min + lux\_mean\$mean)

summary(two.way.significant)

#### #####plot#####

plot(lux\_mean\$mean, richness\$species\_richness, ylab= 'Species richness', xlab='Lux (lx)', ylim=c(0,17), xlim=c(500,3000), col="#85d54aff", pch= 19, cex.lab=1.3, cex=2, bty='l')

lm1<-lm(richness\$species\_richness ~ lux\_mean\$mean)

abline(lm1)

plot(temp\_mean\$mean, richness\$species\_richness, xlab='Temperature (°C)', ylab='Species richness', ylim=c(0,17), pch = 19, col = "#1e9b8aff", cex.lab=1.3, cex=2, bty='l')

lm2<- lm(richness\$species\_richness ~ temp\_mean\$mean)

abline(lm2)

summary(lm2)

plot(temp\_min\$min, richness\$species\_richness, xlab='Temperature (°C)', ylab='Species richness', ylim=c(0,17), pch = 19, col = "#38598cff", cex.lab=1.3, cex=2, bty='l')

lm3<-lm(richness\$species\_richness ~ temp\_min\$min)

abline(lm3)

summary(lm3)

plot(rh\_max\$max, richness\$species\_richness, xlab='Relative humidity (%)', ylim=c(0,17), ylab= 'Species richness', pch = 19, col = "#48217cff", cex.lab=1.3, cex=2, bty='l')

lm4<- lm(richness\$species\_richness ~ rh\_max\$max)

#### abline(lm4)

#### #####make figures#####

figure<-read.csv("figure\_1\_data.csv", header=TRUE)

plot(figure\$Distance, figure\$species\_richness, ylab= 'Species richness', xlab= 'Distance from river (m)', pch=16, col='black', bty='n')

abline(v=0, col='blue')

plot(figure\$Distance, figure\$mean\_VPD, ylab= "VPD Mean (kPa)", xlab= "Distance from river (m)", pch =16)

abline(v=0, col= "blue")

master<-read.csv("master\_data.csv", header= TRUE)

master\$plot <- factor(master\$plot)

levels(master\$plot) <-c("1", "2", "3", "4", "5", "6", "7", "8", "9", "10")

boxplot(master\$VPD ~ master\$plot, ylab= "VPD", xlab = "Plot", col="#85d54aff", range= 0)

boxplot(master\$temp ~ master\$plot, ylab= "Temperature", xlab = "Plot", col = "#1e9b8aff", range= 0)

boxplot(master\$rh ~ master\$plot, ylab= "Relative humidity (%)", xlab = "Plot", col = "#38598cff", range= 0)

boxplot(master\$lux ~ master\$plot, ylab= "Lux(lx)", xlab = "Plot", col = "#48217cff", range= 0)

par(mfrow=c(2,2))

## **3. Ethics approval**

# **NAME: Eloise Fleur Evans**

## **WORKING TITLE OF DISSERTATION:**

Investigating the influence of microclimate on bryophyte species richness in a Cornish Atlantic oak woodland

# **Summary of your dissertation research project (200 words max).**

For my study, I will be looking at how bryophyte distribution and richness varies with microclimate within the Atlantic oak woodland habitat. I will be carrying out my primary data collection at Cabilla Cornwall whilst on work placement over the summer. I will also be using secondary LiDAR data during the analysis stage of my project. To collect my data, I will be putting up microclimate probes at a range of sample locations within the forest. I will be collecting data on the bryophyte distribution at these sites using a quadrat sampling method. From these data, I can explore what species are present under different microclimatic conditions. Using LiDAR data, I can also study how canopy cover, aspect and topography relate to these microclimates and thus species distributions. Through this study I aim to assess whether there is a relationship between microclimate and species richness. Overall, I would like to demonstrate and evaluate the importance of Atlantic oak woodlands for UK biodiversity.

**Summary for any participants – what will taking part mean from the perspective of the participants? (200 words max) -** *if no participants, leave blank.*

**N/A**

# **Summary of ethical issues, and how they will be managed (200 words max).**

To carry out my study at Cabilla, I have spoken to the landowner and managers there, ensuring my plans are transparent and that I have full permission. Only since then have I been planning the study and have stayed in touch with them through all developments to ensure there are no discrepancies. My data collection will not involve removing any samples, therefore avoiding environmental harm. I will be working with some members of the British Bryological Society (BBS) so will fully acknowledge their help where necessary. I will of course respect confidentiality if they wish. I will fully acknowledge and respect the use of secondary data sources (LiDAR, BBS records) ensuring I have full permission to use them. My report will be used by the management at Cabilla to better understand the species distribution of their woodland. It may also be shared with the BBS and other interested individuals, especially those who contribute to site surveys during my placement and data collection. I will ensure integrity when evaluating the habitat at Cabilla to avoid any adverse influence on the work of the Charity. **Student:** I confirm that I have read and understood the material included in this form and agree to act ethically and in accordance with the requirements set out here.

**Student initials:** EFE

Date initialled: 20<sup>th</sup> March 2023



Advisor's signature:

Date signed:15/03/24

## **4. Risk assessments**

# **Desk-based risk assessment:**



- Answer all the questions below (*all the questions have been allocated a score)*
- A total score is generated at the end of the

assessment

• Refer to the chart with your total score to determine if any action is required









*NB: Refer to the DSE Website for further information on keyboard shortcuts*



*NB: If not, contact your line manager for advice*



*NB: Place the phone on the opposite side to the mouse (e.g.mouse right, phone left and vice versa) and operate the phone with the non-dominant hand*



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 **0 – 18** Workstation set-up is good, however if you have any concerns raise these with your line manager

19 – 40 Contact your line manager for help and advice. Consider whether there are any aons you can take

 that will improve your score (e.g. clean the screen, adjusting your chair, purchasing or improvising by creating a

footrest or document holder)?

**41+** Contact your line manager in the first instance. Line Manager to contact the Health and Safety

 $|$ (safety@exeter.ac.uk) for further advice and/or to request and arrange a telephone assessment (if required)

#### **Action Plan:**

Complete the sections below/overleaf indicating what action is required to address the issues identified in your Self-Assessment.

- Key information must be passed onto your line manager to ensure that action can be taken
- All actions must be agreed with the line
- manager

• Actions that requires purchasing new equipment must be approved by the line manager and the relevant College/Service key contact

• Action plans must be monitored and completed within a reasonable timeframe







# **Field risk assessment:**















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