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## V. INTERIM GUIDELINES FOR THE PROTECTION OF SENSITIVE RESOURCES RELATIVE TO AIR QUALITY CONCERNS

### A. REGIONAL COMPARISONS AS BASIS FOR GUIDELINES

#### 1. Critical Loads Estimates

Most work conducted to date on the assessment of critical loads of sulfur and nitrogen for terrestrial and aquatic systems has focused largely on examination of ecosystems that have already been damaged (see Appendix D for a discussion of European research concerning this topic). Key questions of the research efforts have involved mapping areas where critical loads have been exceeded, determining levels to which deposition must be reduced to restore ecosystem functioning, and projecting the time scale of recovery processes. For national parks in the Pacific Northwest, however, atmospheric deposition of both sulfur and nitrogen has remained relatively low, and it is unlikely that significant damage to park resources associated with deposition of N and S has occurred thus far. Critical loads assessments have not been conducted for sensitive receptors in the Pacific Northwest, and such future efforts should focus on the establishment of S and N deposition loads that will protect sensitive resources within the parks.

Care must be taken in applying critical loads assessments to relatively pristine ecosystems, using values developed in areas that have received substantial deposition. Such caution is particularly warranted for empirical and other steady state modeling approaches. For example, application of empirical methods that rely on evaluation of base cation fluxes (e.g., Henriksen et al. 1992) to surface waters in the Pacific Northwest implicitly assume that the proportional (to acidic anion) mobilization of base cations is constant over time. Such an assumption may not be valid, particularly in view of the complex and diverse nature of cation-exchanging materials in the soil. A more appropriate method for estimating critical loads for Pacific Northwestern surface waters would be a dynamic modeling approach, which incorporates all major watershed neutralization and exchange processes. The MAGIC model (Cosby et al. 1985a,b) has been applied to lake resources in wilderness areas of Idaho, Montana, and Wyoming for projecting the response of lakewaters throughout the region to differing levels of future acidic deposition (Eilers et al. 1991). MAGIC could be applied to selected aquatic resources within the national parks as a means of estimating the critical load of sulfur for aquatic and soil systems.

Data are lacking with which to assess critical loads of sulfur for forest soils in the Pacific Northwest by using empirical criteria of aluminum concentrations or Ca:Al ratios in soil solution. Available data on aluminum concentrations in lakewaters throughout the region show very low concentrations (Landers et al. 1987, Nelson 1991), far below lakewater

levels that would be expected in an area where soil solution [Al] was present in toxic ranges. Easthouse et al. (1993) conducted a field investigation of aluminum chemistry in two dilute alpine headwater lakes in the Alpine Lakes Wilderness in the central Washington Cascades (between NOCA and MORA). The study sites, Hi Ho Lake and Quartz Lake are small (2.4 and 0.3 ha, respectively) remote lakes, > 1200 m in elevation. Hi Ho Lake has pH about 5.5 and  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  concentrations of about 15  $\mu\text{eq/L}$ . Quartz Lake is naturally low in pH (~ 5.3) due to local geologic sources of sulfur, resulting in lakewater  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  concentrations of about 37  $\mu\text{eq/L}$ . Calcium concentrations in the two lakes are low (~ 20 and 11  $\mu\text{eq/L}$ , respectively). Total monomeric ( $\text{Al}_m$ ) and inorganic monomeric ( $\text{Al}_i$ ) aluminum concentrations were measured by Easthouse et al. (in press) on five occasions in the two lakes during summer and autumn. The highest concentration of total monomeric Al ( $\text{Al}_m$ ) measured in either lake was less than 0.1 mg/L; inorganic monomeric Al ( $\text{Al}_i$ ) concentrations were generally < 0.05 mg/L. Although high in comparison with typical concentrations of Al found in the Western Lake Survey (autumn sampling, Landers et al. 1987), such concentrations are still quite low in comparison to many regions adversely impacted by acidic deposition (Baker et al. 1990a).

Dynamic models of nitrogen processing within forested ecosystems have not been developed to the same level as watershed sulfur models. Two independent research efforts are currently being funded by EPA to develop watershed models of nitrogen processes to supplement the sulfur-based models (R. Church, pers. comm.). The best available tools at the present time for assessing critical loads of N to resources within the national parks are empirical. Based on empirical evaluations, coniferous forest ecosystems in Europe and the northeastern United States become N-saturated at N deposition levels greater than about 10 kg/ha/yr (Grennfelt and Hultberg 1986, R.F. Wright, pers. comm.). Using such a criterion, deposition of N within the five national parks considered in this study (N load 0.89 to 2.09 kg/ha/yr) is well below the range of what would be considered critical for N-leaching in European forests. Such an estimate ignores, however, the potential importance of episodic chemistry, and the radically different forest management histories in the Pacific Northwest and Europe. The less intensive management of forests in the Pacific Northwest makes the systems less N-deficient. Consequently, values for critical loads of N in the national parks of the Pacific Northwest may be significantly lower than the estimates of 10 kg/ha/yr for European forests.

Independent of potential toxic effects of nitrogen addition, the fertilizing effects of nitrogen can cause major changes in ecosystem structure and diversity by altering competitive interactions among plants. Based on limited data on ecosystem effects, generic condition classes can be set for different vegetation types (Table 49). These guidelines do not

account for species-level variation in plant sensitivity. Lacking more definitive data, the condition classes can be used as general guidelines for evaluating the potential risk of pollution impacts on certain species of taxa,

Table 49. Condition classes for vegetation in the Pacific Northwest based upon sensitivity to N deposition. From Horner and Peterson (1993).

Vegetation Type	Total N deposition (kg/ha/yr)		
	No Injury	Potential Injury	Severe Injury
Coniferous forest	< 3	3-15	> 15
Hardwood forest	< 5	5-20	> 20
Shrubs	< 3	3-5	> 5
Herbaceous plants	< 3	3-10	> 10

under present air quality conditions. For example, for a selected condition class (injury level), the corresponding pollutant exposure (or deposition) can be evaluated. See Appendix D for an explanation of the use of condition classes.

Because of the scarcity of available data and model simulations for calculating critical loads of sulfur (and nitrogen) for the national parks in the Pacific Northwest, perhaps the most defensible approach presently would involve comparison between surface waters, soil, and forest resources in this region and generally similar resources elsewhere for which more extensive data are available. It is likely that critical loads of acidifying substances for national parks in the Pacific Northwest will be low. Based on assessments of current surface water chemistry, lakes in this region are likely among the most sensitive aquatic systems anywhere in the world (Eilers et al. 1990, 1991). Other regions that have been judged to be extremely sensitive, and for which considerable data are available include Scandinavia (especially southern Norway) and the Galloway region of Scotland. Appropriate data for interregional comparison include both model estimates of critical loads and also quantified dose-response functions.

The highest wet nonmarine sulfur deposition within the Nordic countries is found in southern Norway and on the west coast of Sweden. The highest total S deposition is found in southern and southwestern Sweden and Denmark, where total S deposition is as high as 30 kg S/ha/yr in some spruce forests (Lövblad and Erisman 1992). Total S deposition is lower for pine and deciduous forests, and decreases to the north; in northern sections of the Nordic region, total S deposition in spruce forests is generally below 6 kg S/ha/yr. Total nitrogen deposition is highest in southern Sweden and Denmark, reaching levels higher than 25 kg N/ha/yr (Lövblad et al. 1992). The high levels of deposition in Europe are about an order of magnitude higher than the levels currently observed in the Cascade Mountains.

In North America, the highest S loadings tend to be adjacent to smelters and power plants where S deposition is locally high. The effects of S, especially as sulfates, often are mediated through soil processes such as cation exchange. Deposition must be high to produce potentially toxic effects. Fox et al. (1989) determined that 20 kg S/ha/yr is the maximum long-term deposition that can be tolerated without impacts in most terrestrial ecosystems, with certain assumptions about soil cation exchange capacity and mineral weathering rates. Effects in terrestrial ecosystems are unlikely below 5 kg/ha/yr. Variability in soil effects must be considered in applying this information to other locations (Binkley 1992, Peterson et al. 1992b).

The Coordination Center for Effects (CCE) was established to assist the UN/ECE in the production of maps of critical loads and exceedences as a basis for developing potential abatement strategies for sulfur and nitrogen. The CCE European map of critical loads of acidity (Kämäri et al. 1992) is based on data from both surface waters and soils, supplied by 14 individual countries. Most of the calculations were based on the steady-state mass balance method of estimating critical loads (Hettelingh et al. 1991), which incorporates the contributions of both sulfur and nitrogen to the total acidity. The resulting map portrayed large areas of Scandinavia, Finland, and Scotland, based on the fifth percentile of each 150-by-150-km map grid, as having critical loads of acidity  $< 20 \text{ meq/m}^2/\text{yr}$  (3.2 kg S/ha/yr if considering only sulfur).

The Stockholm Environment Institute (SEI) constructed a European map of relative sensitivity to acidic deposition (Kuylenstierna and Chadwick 1989, Chadwick and Kuylenstierna 1990, Kämäri et al. 1992). Critical loads were assigned subjectively, based on categories of rock type, soil type, precipitation, and land use. Five classes of relative sensitivity were devised, and each was assigned critical load values, based on extrapolations from detailed site studies. The resulting SEI map generally was similar to the CCE map, and, like the CCE map, placed large areas of Scandinavia, Finland, and Scotland in the critical load class  $< 20 \text{ meq/m}^2/\text{yr}$  (Kämäri et al. 1992). According to both maps, about 20% of Europe falls in this lowest critical load category ( $< 20 \text{ meq/m}^2/\text{yr}$ ) and an additional 20% falls in the critical load category of 20-50  $\text{meq/m}^2/\text{yr}$ .

Kämäri et al. (1993) employed a steady-state mass balance approach to calculating critical loads, for both sulfur and nitrogen, for the protection of lakes in Finland. Results of their calculations showed a wide variation in sensitivity to acidifying pollutants. Within the northern European study area, represented as a 150 by 150 km grid, the estimated critical load of S or N varied in some cases from zero to more than 100  $\text{meq/m}^2/\text{yr}$  for individual lakes. In the most sensitive portions of Finland, critical loads of both S and N were estimated to be below 20  $\text{meq/m}^2/\text{yr}$  (about 3 kg/ha/yr for both S and N) in a large percentage of the lakes.

These empirical and steady state approaches thus suggest that sensitive portions of northern Europe have critical loads of acidity (including both sulfur and nitrogen contributors to acidity) less than 20  $\text{meq/m}^2/\text{yr}$ . Although the uncertainties associated with such calculations are undoubtedly quite high, these approaches have been used extensively.

A somewhat more rigorous approach has been applied in Norway by scientists from the Norwegian Institute for Water Research (NIVA). They have calculated, using the MAGIC model, critical loads of sulfur for forest soils within 12-

by 12-km grid squares (Frogner et al. 1992). The model scenarios were based on soil survey data, forest productivity data, deposition, and surface water chemistry data from the Norwegian 1000 lake survey. Of the 2300-grid squares within Norway, about 450 have coniferous forests; MAGIC simulations have been conducted for nearly half of these. Critical loads were calculated by using the criterion that the Ca/Al molar ratio in soil solution should not fall below 1.0 in the uppermost 50 cm of soil over the next 50 years. The model simulations suggest that soils having low critical loads are found throughout southern Norway. Current deposition exceeds the calculated critical loads in more than one-fourth of the grid squares. The critical load calculations using MAGIC for soils, based on Ca/Al = 1.0 are higher by about a factor 2 than MAGIC calculations by using a surface water criterion of ANC = 20  $\mu\text{eq/L}$ .

Process-based model simulations for the critical loads of nitrogen to forest soils in Norway are not available. A model that simulates nitrogen cycling and retention is under development in conjunction with the NITREX project in Europe (Dise and Wright 1991), but nitrogen cannot be evaluated to the same level of detail as sulfur at the present time. Wright et al. (pers. comm.), however, have attempted to place bounds on N critical loads for forest soils, using the same grid network as was used by Frogner et al. (1992) for sulfur. Based on empirical data on N inputs and outputs at forested sites in Europe, Wright et al. (pers. comm.) determined that nitrogen leaching in Europe is initiated at input levels of 10 to 25 kg N/ha/yr. Once N breakthrough occurs, N leaching ranges up to 100% in some cases and is consistently above 50% at loadings higher than 25 kg N/ha/yr. Wright et al. (pers. comm.) prepared two maps of calculated critical loads of N for forest soils in Norway using the MAGIC model which was based on a sulfur deposition scenario of 80% of 1986 deposition levels. For the worst case, they assumed no nitrate leaching (100% retention) at deposition levels of 0 to 10 kg N/ha/yr, and 100% leaching at higher deposition levels. For the best case, they assumed zero leaching up to 25 kg N/ha/yr deposition, and 50% leaching at higher deposition levels. Depending on the assumed N retention, the most sensitive grids in southern Norway exhibited critical loads for forest soils in the range of 8 to 11 kg N/ha/yr (worst case N retention) to 21-28 kg N/ha/yr (best case N retention). These critical loads for protection of forest soils are much higher than estimates for protection of surface waters.

## 2. Quantified Dose-Response Functions

The data that are available for the regions under investigation for this report also can be compared and contrasted with more intensive dose-response data generated in other regions that have been impacted by acidic deposition and

studied in greater detail. Such comparisons are useful to place bounds on the magnitude of the acidification response. Quantitative dose-response functions for sulfur have been determined by using various approaches, in several regions in North America and Europe. Such studies have included, for example, measured changes in water chemistry during periods when sulfur deposition changed appreciably, regional paleolimnological investigations, whole-catchment manipulation studies, and intensive process modeling.

Measured changes in surface water chemistry in areas that have experienced short-term (< 20-yr) changes in chemical constituents in response to changes in mineral acid inputs are available from several sources. These include results from manipulation experiments and changes in acidic deposition. Proportional changes in ANC (expressed as  $[\text{HCO}_3^- - \text{H}^+]$ ,  $[\text{C}_B]$ , and  $[\text{Al}]_i$ , relative to changes in  $[\text{SO}_4^*]^1$  or  $[\text{SO}_4^* + \text{NO}_3^-]$ , have been quantified for lakes and streams in the Sudbury region of Ontario (Dillon et al. 1986, Hutchinson and Havas 1986, Keller et al. 1986, Gunn and Keller 1990), the Galloway lakes area of Scotland (Wright et al. 1986, Wright et al. in review), a stream site at Hubbard Brook, New Hampshire (Sullivan 1990), catchment manipulation experiments in the RAIN project in Norway (Wright et al. 1988, 1990), Little Rock Lake in Wisconsin (Brezonik et al. 1993), and Bear Brook in Maine (Norton et al. 1993). Most of the observed changes have been coincident with decreased acidic deposition, and it is unclear whether acidification and recovery are symmetrical. F-factors in the range of 0.5 to 0.9 are apparently typical for lakes having low  $[\text{C}_B]$ , although lower values (0.35 to 0.39) were observed for the highly sensitive catchments at Sogndal, Norway (Wright et al. 1988, 1990), which are characterized by thin soils and much exposed bedrock, as is common in many areas of southern Norway, and the western United States. Measured proportional change in ANC relative to  $[\text{SO}_4^{2-} + \text{NO}_3^-]$  change has been variable, within the range of 0.1 to 0.5. The proportional changes in Al have been smaller, ranging up to 0.2.

#### Trees and vascular plants

During the 1980s there was a major research effort in North America and Europe to evaluate forest health and vigor. The motivation for this research effort was increased awareness of the concept of "forest decline", and of how stress in forest ecosystems might be affected by acidic deposition, including acidic precipitation and ozone (Smith 1984). Much of this work focused on documenting the physiological and growth status of forest stands, and on establishing dose-response functions under experimental conditions for economically important tree species. Lichens, mosses, and other vegetation received less emphasis. Difficulties inherent in studying plant physiological processes under field conditions created limitations to testing pollution effects in natural ecosystems (Peterson et al. 1992a). Consequently, dose-response

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<sup>1</sup>Asterisk designates that the estimate is for non-marine concentrations. The concentration of  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  derived from marine aerosols was estimated from measured  $\text{Cl}^-$  concentration and an assumed ratio of  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  to  $\text{Cl}^-$  in seawater.

functions are poorly documented in most forests, and the correspondence between field and laboratory research findings is often poor.

### Ozone

More information is available on plant sensitivity to ozone than to N and S. Much of the ozone research has been conducted in California and has focused on dominant tree species in that region (e.g., Miller et al. 1983, 1989; Peterson et al. 1987, 1991, 1992a,b). Few data exist on the response of mature trees to pollutant exposure, and almost no data for herbaceous species exist. Table 50 lists some potentially sensitive vegetation in California, Idaho, Oregon, and Washington (Hogsett et al. 1989).

Ozone is the only regionally dispersed pollutant known to injure foliage and lead to tree mortality at ambient levels (Miller 1989, Woodman and Cowley 1987, Böhm 1992). Data on ozone stress in conifers have been compiled primarily for ponderosa pine and Jeffrey pine, which are sensitive to elevated ozone concentrations. Injury levels have been established for these species with respect to chlorotic injury and needle longevity based on field studies of large trees conducted in the Sierra Nevada and San Bernardino Mountains of California (Pronos et al. 1978, Pronos and Vogler 1981, Duriscoe and Stolte 1989, Miller et al. 1989). These data are the best information available anywhere on field level analysis of pollutant stress. Limited experimental data for seedlings of conifer species found in the Pacific Northwest (Hogsett et al. 1989) indicate differences in sensitivity among species and among individuals of a population (Table 51). For example, ponderosa pine is more sensitive to ozone than is Douglas-fir. Sensitivity classes

<b>Sensitive Receptor</b>	<b>AL</b>	<b>BD</b>	<b>BL</b>	<b>CH</b>	<b>DE</b>	<b>DP</b>	<b>JS</b>	<b>MC</b>	<b>MF</b>	<b>OW</b>	<b>PJ</b>	<b>RE</b>	<b>RI</b>	<b>SA</b>	<b>SF</b>	<b>DF</b>	<b>PS</b>	<b>WS</b>	<b>ES</b>	<b>WA</b>	<b>EA</b>	<b>ED</b>	<b>EP</b>	<b>SH</b>	<b>ME</b>	
Lichens	X	X	X	-	X	-	X	X	X	X	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Herbaceous plants	X	X	X	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Ponderosa pine	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	X	
Jeffrey pine	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
White fir	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
Sugar pine	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
Incense cedar	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X
Douglas-fir	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	X
W. white pine	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Lodgepole pine	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-
Whitebark pine	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	-
Pacific silver fir	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mountain hemlock	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-
Aspen	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Alders	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Cottonwoods	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Junipers	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Western juniper	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	
Pinyon pine	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Sagebrush	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Sedges	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Alaska yellow cedar	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Subalpine fir	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Alpine larch	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Grand fir	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-
Noble fir	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Port Orford cedar	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X
Red fir	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X
Western larch	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	-
Sugar pine	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	X	-	-	X

<sup>a</sup> Ecosystem: AL alpine; BD bigcone Douglas-fir; BL buckwheat/lichen/grass; CH chaparral; DE desert; DP digger pine; JS juniper shrubland; MC mixed conifer; MF montane forest; OW oak woodland; PJ pinyon pine/juniper; RE redwood; RI riparian; SA sagebrush; SF subalpine forest; DF Douglas fir/western hemlock; PS Pacific silver fir; WS west-side subalpine; ES east-side subalpine; WA west-side alpine; EA east-side alpine; ED east-side Douglas-fir; EP east-side ponderosa pine; SH sagebrush shrubland; ME mixed evergreen. From Peterson et al. (1992a,b).

Table 51. Sensitivity of tree species to O<sub>3</sub>, S, and N pollution.

Sensitive Receptor	Sensitivity		Nitrogen
	Ozone	Sulfur	
Ponderosa pine	H	H	H
Jeffrey pine	H	H	H
White fir	M	H	H
Calif. black oak	M		
Douglas-fir	M	H	H
W. white pine	L-M		
Lodgepole pine	M	H	H
Aspen	H		
Alders	M		

Sensitivity ratings are : high (H), moderate (M), and low (L). Blanks indicate there is insufficient information to rate sensitivity. From Peterson et al. 1992a,b.

(e.g., Table 51) have been developed to characterize general dose-response functions of species taking into account variability in results reported in the literature which reflect differences in scientific methodology and natural species variability.

Condition classes based on injury levels also have been developed (Miller et al. 1983) that relate injury characteristics of trees in the field to ozone concentrations, thus taking into account the natural variability in sensitivity observed within native populations in the natural habitat. Additional long-term monitoring will be required to develop an understanding of ozone effects on the growth of mature trees (Peterson et al. 1987, 1991).

Peterson (1992a) synthesized these data sources to develop general conditions classes for conifers in relation to ozone exposure based on visible injury classes observed in the field (Table 52). Condition classes can be used to estimate the "average" amount of plant injury expected to result at different levels of ozone exposure. For use in regulatory decision-making, these condition classes can be used cautiously to estimate general stress levels of coniferous forests in response to ambient ozone concentrations. However, the accuracy of such condition classes will be influenced by the particular species, environmental conditions, and ozone statistic used in a given situation. Based on observations of visible injury in the field, the condition classes developed primarily for pines in Table 52 can be applied cautiously to

other conifers. Although the tables below were developed using the 7-h growing season mean of ozone concentrations, additional ozone statistics or combinations of statistics may prove to be more biologically relevant in the future. Other work in California has shown that brief episodes of high ozone concentrations during atmospheric stability may produce substantial, although poorly quantified stress (Hogsett et al. 1989). The potential impacts of these acute episodes should be considered when evaluating ozone impacts. The larger controversy over the use of different ozone statistics to assess vegetation response is covered in Appendix D.

Hardwood tree species have different leaf injury symptoms than conifers, and there are few data available on the effects of ozone on hardwoods in the Pacific Northwest (Jensen and Masters 1975). The condition classes for hardwoods are similar to those for conifers, with an added class (Table 53). The limited data base for hardwoods reduces the reliability of the classes for hardwoods. The higher ozone levels for each class reflect the lower sensitivity of hardwoods to ozone, compared to conifers, although species-by-species ratings are needed for good reliability.

There are few data anywhere on responses of herbaceous and grass species to ozone. In California, some information exists on sensitivity of native species to ozone, including sweet cicely

Table 52. General Condition classes for conifers in relation to ozone exposure (Miller et al. 1983).

Condition Class	Needle Age Class With Chlorotic Mottle (yrs)	Needle Retention as Percent of Normal (pct)	Ozone Concentration (7-hr Growing Season Mean) (ppb)
No Injury	None	> 80	< 60
Slight Injury	≥ 5	71-80	61-70
Moderate Injury	3-4	41-70	71-90
Severe Injury	1-2	< 40	> 90

From: Peterson et al. (1992a)

Table 53. Condition classes for hardwoods in relation to ozone exposure.

Condition Class	Percent of Leaf Area with Stippling (pct)	Ozone Concentration (7-hr Growing Season Mean) (ppb)
No Injury	0	< 45
Very Slight Injury	1-20	45-70
Slight Injury	21-40	71-90
Moderate Injury	41-60	91-120
Severe injury	60-100	> 120

From: Peterson et al. (1992a)

(*Osmorhiza brachypoda*) (high sensitivity), squawbush (*Rhus trilobata*) (high), and perennial ryegrass (*Lolium perenne*) (moderate). These data are insufficient to make generalizations about all herbaceous species and grasses. Horner and Peterson (1993) suggest that the condition classes for hardwood species can be applied cautiously to herbaceous species until additional data are available.

### Sulfur Dioxide

There are few data on the effects of S compounds on mature trees and native plants, and there is a wide range of sensitivities to ambient S compounds (Davis and Wilhour 1976, Westman et al. 1985). Limited data indicate that SO<sub>2</sub> concentrations below 20 ppb (24-hour mean) do not produce visible injury symptoms (Hogsett et al. 1989). Conifers generally begin to exhibit symptoms of injury at 40-65 ppb (24-hour mean) of SO<sub>2</sub>. With limited quantitative data, the sensitivity of some tree species to SO<sub>2</sub> have been ranked (Davis and Wilhour 1976). The relative sensitivity to SO<sub>2</sub> is as follows, in decreasing order for conifers: Grand fir (*Abies grandis*), Subalpine fir (*Abies lasiocarpa*), western red cedar (*Thuja plicata*), western hemlock (*Tsuga heterophylla*) Douglas-fir (*Pseudotsuga menziesii*), western white pine (*Pinus monticola*), ponderosa pine (*Pinus ponderosa*), lodgepole pine (*Pinus contorta*), western birch (*Larix occidentalis*), Engelmann spruce (*Picea engelmannii*), western juniper (*Juniperus occidentalis*), and Pacific yew (*Taxus brevifolia*). For

hardwoods the order is thinleaf alder (*Alnus tenuifolia*), western paper birch (*Betula papyrifera*), sitka mountain ash (*Sorbus sitchensis*), water birch (*Betula occidentalis*), Douglas maple (*Acer glabrum*), bitter cherry (*Prunus emarginata*), chokecherry (*Prunus virginiana*), Blueberry elder (*Sambucus cerulea*), Willow (*Salix* species), Columbia hawthorn (*Crataegus columbiana*), black cottonwood (*Populus trichocarpa*), black hawthorn (*Crataegus douglasii*), and quaking aspen (*Populus tremuloides*).

Considering the lack of data for native species, data from California have been used to set general guidelines for vegetation (Peterson et al. 1992a,b).

In order to maximize protection of all plant species, maximum SO<sub>2</sub> concentrations should not exceed 40-50 ppb (24-hour mean), and annual average SO<sub>2</sub> concentrations should not exceed 8-12 ppb.

### Nitrogen Dioxide

Few data are available on the effects of NO<sub>2</sub> on plant species in the Pacific Northwest. Limited data from elsewhere in the United States and in Europe, however, have been used to establish some general guidelines for injury and exposure (EPA 1982, Peterson et al. 1992a,b).

These values should be used only for general guidelines as individual plant species exhibit a wide range of sensitivities (Table 54).

Table 54. Plant condition classes in relation to NO<sub>2</sub> exposure.

Condition Class	NO <sub>2</sub> Concentration (24-hr Annual Mean) ppb
No Injury	< 15
Potential Injury	15-50
Severe Injury	> 50

From: Peterson et al. (1992a,b)

### Interactions

The potential for interactions among pollutants should be considered when evaluating the effects of pollutants on natural resources (Peterson et. al. 1992b). The interaction can be antagonistic (less than additive, or canceling), or synergistic (greater than additive). Few data are available on interaction effects on plant species. Limited data on lichens indicate a likely synergy for ozone and SO<sub>2</sub> (DeWitt 1976), and ozone/NO<sub>x</sub> (Sigal and Nash 1983). Although it is difficult to make generalizations, situations can be identified for which complex interactions are likely. Acidic fog which contains N

and S compounds also may alter the growth of some tree species, but effects normally occur only if pH is below 3.5 (Hogsett et al. 1989). Far too few data are available to set guidelines at this time.

Lichens and bryophytes

Lichens and bryophytes are among the most sensitive of terrestrial organisms to pollution (Nash and Wirth 1988, Bates and Farmer 1992). Little is known about sensitivities of lichen and bryophyte species in the Pacific Northwest, however. Lichens exhibit a wide range of sensitivities to pollutants, although response is poorly quantified with respect to dose-response functions. More information is available on sensitivity to SO<sub>2</sub> and ozone than to nitrogen oxides or fluoride (Nash and Wirth 1988). Classes of lichen sensitivity to air pollution have been defined as sensitive, intermediate and tolerant, based on limited experimental data (Table 55). Sensitivity is usually expressed in relation to concentrations, because the cumulative effects of air pollutants are little known. Data on response to nitrogen oxides are currently inadequate to provide guidelines. According to Horner and Peterson (1993), the guidelines in Table 55 may be interpreted to be broadly applicable to both lichens and bryophytes.

These following classes were developed for *Hypogymnia enteromorpha*, from mixed-conifer forests in California. The classes with respect to ozone exposure have been quantified in more detail for *H. enteromorpha*, and to a lesser degree for other species (Table 56).

Table 55. Sensitivity classes for lichens in relation to prolonged exposure to pollutants. Determined for *Hypogymnia enteromorpha* (Sigal and Nash 1983).

	Sensitivity Class (parts per billion)			Pollutant
	Sensitive	Intermediate	Tolerant	
Ozone (ppb) <sup>a</sup>	< 20	15-70	> 65	
Sulfur dioxide (ppb) <sup>b</sup>	5-15	10-35	> 30	

<sup>a</sup> Ozone concentration is the 7-hour mean for May-October  
<sup>b</sup> Prolonged exposure

From: Peterson et al. 1992a

Table 56. Sensitivity classes for lichens with respect to ozone exposure are defined in terms of (1) morphological changes in <i>Hypogymnia enteromorpha</i> , and (2) relative presence of other species.			
Sensitivity Data	Ozone Conc. <sup>a</sup> ppb	Description	
		Hypogymnia	Other Species
Very Sensitive	<20	Generally not bleached or convoluted Fertility > 75 pct.	Very sensitive species common
Sensitive	21-40	Majority not bleached, but large percentage bleached Most thalli slightly convoluted Fertility 65-85 pct.	A few very sensitive species absent Sensitive species common
Tolerant	41-70	Majority slightly bleached Unconvoluted to moderately convoluted Fertility 40-65 pct.	Some very sensitive species absent A few sensitive species present ( <i>Usnea</i> sp.) Tolerant and sensitive species most common
Very Tolerant	> 70	Moderately to highly bleached Moderately to highly convoluted Fertility < 40 pct	A few very tolerant species common ( <i>Parmelia subolivocea</i> , <i>P. multispora</i> ) 50 pct of all species absent

<sup>a</sup> Ozone concentrations in the 7-hour mean for May-October. From: Peterson et al. 1992a.

Table 57a. Sensitivity classes in relation to ozone exposure for lichen species found in mixed-conifer forests.

Sensitivity Class	Lichen Species
Conifers	
Very Sensitive <sup>a</sup>	<i>Alectoria sarmentosa</i> <i>Bryoria abbreviata</i> <i>Bryoria fremontii</i> <i>Bryoria oregana</i> <i>Calcium virile</i> <i>Cetraria canadensis</i> <i>Evernia prunastri</i> <i>Platismatia glauca</i>
Sensitive <sup>b</sup>	<i>Centraria merrillii</i> <i>Cladonia</i> sp. <i>Parmelia quercina</i> <i>Ramalina farinacea</i> <i>Usnea</i> sp.
Tolerant	<i>Hypogymnia enteromorpha</i>
Very tolerant	<i>Letharia vulpina</i>
Oaks (Primarily California black oak)	
Very Sensitive <sup>a</sup>	<i>Evernia prunastri</i> <i>Pseudocyphellaria anthraspis</i>
Sensitive <sup>b</sup>	<i>Collema nigrescens</i> <i>Parmelia sulcata</i> <i>Parmelia quercina</i> <i>Phaeophyscia ciliata</i> <i>Usnea</i> sp.
Tolerant	<i>Parmelia (Melanelia) glabra</i> <i>Parmelia (Melanelia) subolivacea</i> <i>Parmelia (Melanelia) multispora</i> <i>Parmelia (Melanelia) elegantula</i>
Very Tolerant	<i>Physconia grisea</i> <i>Xanthoria fallax</i>

<sup>a</sup>Species in the very sensitive class have largely disappeared from the native habitat.

<sup>b</sup>Species in the sensitive class are found only in small amounts in the mountains adjacent to their former habitat.

From: Peterson et al. (1992b)

Ozone exposures at the highest level (>70 ppb) have caused the loss of up to 50% of lichen species in some areas of California (Sigal and Nash 1983). The more common lichen species and their sensitivity classes for ozone exposure are shown in Tables 57a,b,c (Peterson et al. 1992b). Visual criteria associated with condition classes for ozone also can be applied cautiously to effects of S and N exposure, in the absence of other criteria. There is considerable variation in species' sensitivities among studies. More experimental work is needed to differentiate the effects of small amounts of S pollution. There are insufficient data on the effects of N pollution to compile even a relative ranking of sensitivity.

Table 57b. Sensitivity classes in relation to ozone exposure for lichen species found in oaks woodland.

Sensitivity Class	Lichen species
Very Sensitive <sup>a</sup>	<i>Evernia prunastri</i> <i>Peltigera collina</i> <i>Pseudocyphellaria anthraspis</i> <i>Ramalina farinacea</i> <i>Ramalina menziesii</i>
Sensitive <sup>b</sup>	<i>Collema nigrescens</i> <i>Leptogium californicum</i> <i>Parmelia quercina</i> <i>Parmelia sulcata</i>
Tolerant	<i>Parmelia (Melanelia) glabra</i> <i>Xanthoria polycarpa</i>
Very Tolerant	<i>Physcia biziana</i> <i>Physcia tenella</i> <i>Physconia grisea</i> <i>Xanthroia fallax</i>

<sup>a</sup>Species in the very sensitive class have largely disappeared from their native habitat.

<sup>b</sup>Species in the sensitive class are found only in small amounts in the mountains adjacent to their former habitat.

From: Peterson et al. (1992b)

Table 57c. Sensitivity classes in relation to ozone exposure for lichen species found in mixed-conifer forests/oak woodland and subalpine forests.

Sensitivity Class	Lichen Species
Mixed Conifer Forest/ Oak Woodland: Conifers and Oaks Very Sensitive	<i>Alectoria sarmentosa</i> <i>Bryoria</i> sp. <i>Evernia prunastri</i> <i>Peltigera canina</i> <i>Peltigera collina</i> <i>Pseudocyphellaria anthraxis</i>
Sensitive	<i>Collema nigrescens</i> <i>Parmelia sulcata</i> <i>Parmelia quercina</i> <i>Usnea</i> sp.
Tolerant	<i>Melanella glabra</i> <i>Melanella subolivacea</i> <i>Xanthoria polycarpa</i>
Very Tolerant	<i>Letharia columbiana</i> <i>Letharia vulpina</i> <i>Xanthoria fallax</i>
Subalpine Forest: Conifers Very Sensitive	<i>Bryoria</i> sp. <i>Pseudephebe minuscula</i> <i>Pseudephebe pubescens</i>
Sensitive	<i>Cladonia</i> sp. <i>Tuckermannopsis merrillii</i> <i>Usnea</i> sp.
Tolerant (may not be found at higher elevations)	<i>Hypogymnia enteromorpha</i>
Very Tolerant	<i>Letharia columbiana</i> <i>Letharia vulpina</i>

From: Peterson et al. (1992b)

### 3. National Parks in the Pacific Northwest

Quantification of sulfur and nitrogen dose-response functions is difficult for the national parks considered in this report. Limited data availability precludes rigorous quantitative assessment in most cases. In particular, data are scarce in the following categories:

- stream and lake chemistry during snowmelt and precipitation events
- seasonal surface water chemistry data, particularly for nitrogen and aluminum
- model input parameters (especially soils characteristics) for watersheds
- deposition (wet and dry) data at high-elevation sites

Consideration of the efficacy of adopting one or more acid deposition standards for the protection of surface water quality from potential adverse effects of sulfur and nitrogen deposition is a multifaceted problem. It requires that sulfur and nitrogen be treated both separately and in combination as potentially acidifying agents, and that estimates for each be generated for all individual, well-defined regions or subregions of interest. Appropriate criteria must be selected as being indicative of damaged water quality, for example ANC or pH. Once a criterion has been selected, a critical value must be estimated, below which the criterion should not be permitted to fall. The ANC criteria have been set at 0, 20, or 50  $\mu\text{eq L}^{-1}$  in various European applications, and pH criteria have been set at 5.3 and 6.0 in Canadian assessments. Selection of critical values for ANC or pH is confounded by the existence of lakes and streams that are acidic or very low in pH or ANC due entirely to natural factors, irrespective of acidic deposition. In particular, low contributions of base cations in solution, due to low weathering rates and minimal contact between drainage waters and mineral soils, and high concentrations of organic acids contribute to naturally low pH and ANC in surface waters.

Acid deposition standards might be selected on the basis of protecting aquatic systems from chronic acidification; conversely episodic acidification also might be considered and would be of obvious importance in regions where hydrology is dominated by spring snowmelt. Thus, selection of appropriate acid deposition standards involves consideration of a matrix of factors.

Based on analysis of available sulfur dose-response data for sensitive watersheds worldwide, it is clear that proportional changes in ANC and base cations in drainage waters in response to changes in sulfur inputs are highly variable. Documented F-factors ( $\Delta\text{C}_B \div \Delta[\text{SO}_4^{2-}]$ ) generally are above 0.5, although lower values have been found.

Perhaps the best available estimate of an appropriate F-factor for highly sensitive watersheds, such as are found throughout mountainous regions of the western United States, would be based on the experimental values obtained at Sogndal, in western Norway ( $F \approx 0.4$ ). This alpine watershed exhibits substantial areas of exposed bedrock, and contains shallow acidic soils. As such, it seems to be a reasonable surrogate for the most sensitive watersheds in the West.

Assuming  $F \approx 0.4$ , we calculated that relatively minor increases in lakewater  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  concentration would lead to chronic acidity ( $\text{ANC} < 0$ ) in many lakes in the Cascade Range. An estimated 5% of the lakes in the Cascade region would become acidic with increased  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  concentration of only  $30 \mu\text{eq L}^{-1}$ . An approximate four-fold increase in sulfur deposition in this region, to levels in the range of 2 to 8 kg S  $\text{ha}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$  (6 to 24 kg/ha as  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ), would be required to achieve such chronic increases in lakewater  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  concentrations.

If the goal is to prevent *any* aquatic systems from becoming acidic ( $\text{ANC} \leq 0$ ), a more stringent standard may be required. There are many documented ultra-dilute Cascade Range that have  $\text{ANC} < 10 \mu\text{eq/L}$ . Although surface water chemistry has not been thoroughly characterized within the parks of the Pacific Northwest, it is clear that potentially highly-sensitive lakes and streams are found in North Cascades and Mount Rainier National Parks. The most complete water chemistry survey data available for North Cascades was conducted by Brakke (1984), who sampled 33 lakes in and around the park. The lowest measured ANC was for Lake Ann, located just outside the park boundaries. With ANC of  $3.5 \mu\text{eq/L}$ ,  $\text{pH} = 5.4$ , and conductivity of  $2.8 \mu\text{S/cm}$ , this lake clearly represents the extreme of watershed sensitivity.

Larson et al. (1992) surveyed 27 subalpine and high mountain forest lakes in Mount Rainier National Park. Although complete chemistry was not measured for all lakes, Larson et al. (1992) reported lakes with alkalinity as low as  $10 \mu\text{eq/L}$  and conductivity of  $4 \mu\text{S/cm}$ . One of the Golden Lakes (4B1-069) sampled in the Western Lake Survey had an ANC of  $12 \mu\text{eq/L}$  (Eilers et al. 1987).

In the absence of more extensive survey data for surface water in North Cascades and Mount Rainier National Parks, it is not possible to provide defensible estimates of the loadings of sulfur that might cause chronic acidification. However, assuming that the most sensitive systems range in ANC between 3 and  $10 \mu\text{eq/L}$ , and assuming an F-factor of 0.4 (which is conservative with respect to protecting the resources), increases in lakewater  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  concentration of about 5 to  $17 \mu\text{eq/L}$  would be sufficient to cause chronic acidity in these most sensitive waters. Increases in sulfur deposition in the range of only 1 to 5 kg S/ha/yr (3 to 15 kg/ha/yr as  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ) would be sufficient to cause such increases in  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  concentrations and thus likely lead to chronic acidity in some lakes and streams.

This estimate of increased  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  concentration required to acidify Cascade Range lakes within the lower percentiles of acid sensitivity are based on fall chemistry and chronic acidification processes. It is likely, however, that sensitive watersheds would experience episodic acidification (especially during snowmelt) at sulfur deposition levels lower than those that would cause chronic acidification. In most cases, episodic pH and ANC depressions during snowmelt are driven by natural processes (mainly base cation dilution) and nitrate enrichment. It seems likely that sulfur deposition will also contribute to episodic acidification of sensitive western surface waters at deposition levels below those that would cause chronic acidification. Episodes have been so little studied within the region, however, that it is not possible yet to provide quantitative estimates of episodic sulfur standards for the national parks of concern.

Analyses of existing water chemistry and deposition data for North Cascades and Mount Rainier National Parks lead to several important conclusions about future protection of potentially sensitive lakes and streams in these parks from acidification due to atmospheric deposition of sulfur. These conclusions have important implications regarding research needs and approaches for setting standards for sulfur deposition. Key conclusions include the following:

1. Total annual sulfur deposition is poorly known at the more sensitive sites, which tend to be located at higher elevations in remote regions of the parks. Extrapolation of low-elevation deposition monitoring data (e.g., NADP/NTN sites) to these high-elevation sites is problematic. Site-specific data of some measure of total deposition are needed. The problem of characterizing deposition at high-elevation areas remains an ongoing need for other federal land managers as well. Controversy remains regarding the best method of gathering deposition data in the Pacific Northwest including collection of snow cores, bulk deposition, and cloudwater chemistry. It may be that a combination of methods is required to fully assess annual deposition chemistry in the mountainous areas of the West.
2. Complete lake and streamwater chemistry are available for relatively few lakes and streams in the parks. Also, the data that are available generally are deficient in terms of full chemical characterization (i.e., key variables often not analyzed) or inadequate for these dilute waters (e.g., need Gran acid neutralizing capacity, not single-end-point alkalinity). Surface waters included in the surveys were not selected in such a fashion as to be statistically representative of waters within the parks. Thus, we can only guess at the relative sensitivity of lakes and streams in the parks to acidic deposition, based on available data for a few documented highly sensitive lakes.
3. The data available for assessment of surface water sensitivity to chronic acidification, although inadequate, suggest that extremely sensitive lakes (and likely also streams) are present in both of these parks. Modest increases in sulfur deposition (increases as low as 1 to 5 kg S/ha/yr) may be sufficient to chronically acidify (to  $\text{ANC} < 0$ ) the most sensitive waters in the parks.
4. Acidic deposition may cause episodic acidification of surface waters at even lower levels of increased deposition. Characterization of episodic chemistry is almost nonexistent within the parks. Both sulfur and nitrogen may be important agents of episodic and seasonal acidification at current, or slightly increased, levels of deposition.

Using a variety of modeling approaches, critical loads for sulfur deposition have been estimated to be less than 20 meq/m<sup>2</sup>/yr for many lakes in sensitive regions of Finland, Norway, and Scotland (e.g., Henriksen et al. 1990a,b; Kämäri et al. 1993; Jenkins et al., in press), based on an ANC criterion of zero. In the absence of additional data on surface water chemistry in Mount Rainier and North Cascades National Parks, it is not possible to provide rigorous estimates of critical loads for the protection of aquatic resources within the parks. **We recommend an interim nonmarine sulfur deposition guideline of 20 meq/m<sup>2</sup>/yr (about 3 kg S/ha/yr; 9 kg SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>/ha/yr), based on the expected high degree of sensitivity of lakes and streams within these parks, analyses of the limited data available, and on more detailed calculations for highly sensitive regions elsewhere. This recommended load is based on a normalized site receiving 1 m annual precipitation.<sup>2</sup>**

Note that this recommendation for maximum SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> loading to these two parks is predicated on the following:

- The recommended S loading will not necessarily protect all sensitive aquatic resources at all times. This recommended loading is adequate for protecting at least 95% of the resources from chronic acidification, but it may not be adequate for long-term protection of the most sensitive resources.
- The recommended S loading may not protect aquatic resources from episodic acidification from either S or N deposition. Episodic acidification will precede chronic acidification in many of the systems, particularly in view of the importance of snow to the hydrologic budgets of the alpine lakes.
- The recommended S loading does not address possible accumulation of N in low temperature lakes that remain ice covered for most of the year.

Many lakes in or near these two parks are probably at the stage where *any* increase in S deposition will result in loss of ANC. There is preliminary indication that one lake adjacent to MORA may have lost ANC as a result of atmospheric input of S. Summit Lake is located in the Clearwater Wilderness of the Mount Baker-Snoqualmie National Forest about 10 km north of the NW corner of the MORA boundary. The lake was sampled in 1985 (Eilers et al. 1987) and again in 1993 (Eilers and Bernert, unpublished data). Results from both samples show the lake to have SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> concentrations higher than expected marine contributions and an ANC near 0. The NADP/NTN data from the La Grande site 40 km southwest of the lake suggest that about

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<sup>2</sup>**This critical load is based on data from European sites which commonly have annual precipitation of about 1 m. Class I areas in the Pacific Northwest typically receive greater than 1 m annual precipitation and critical loads for S deposition should be adjusted upward to reflect the greater dilution of S from high precipitation.**

4  $\mu\text{eq/L}$  of the nonmarine base cations in Summit Lake can be attributed to wet deposition. Assuming that an additional 25% of the base cations in deposition are derived from dry deposition and that evapoconcentration is about 25%, precipitation accounts for about 75% of the nonmarine base cations in the lake. Thus, barring some unusual watershed processes (e.g., extremely low sedimentation rates, sequestering of base cations by bryophytes), nearly all of the nonmarine  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  in Summit Lake can be attributed to sources other than weathering. The most likely explanation for this lake chemistry, given this limited information, is that Summit Lake has lost much of its ANC from atmospheric input of S.

Episodes of high ozone concentrations at low elevations east of the Cascade Range occur sporadically downwind of three urban areas: Vancouver, British Columbia; the Puget Sound region in Washington; and Portland, Oregon. National parks surrounding the Puget Sound, especially northeast and southeast of Seattle (MORA and NOCA), are more likely to be impacted by ozone than forests elsewhere in the Pacific Northwest. Some of the largest ozone values are near Pack Forest. Ozone levels along the western slopes of the Washington Cascades range from growing season means of 17 ppb in the north, to 31-35 ppb east of Seattle. Hourly concentrations can exceed 80 ppb, and values as high as 196 ppb have been recorded (Basabe et al. 1989b). At monitoring sites in the Cascade foothills, diurnal cycles in ozone average between 22-51 ppb during 70% of summer days (Böhm and Vandetta 1990). Forests located on the rim of valleys with large urban areas experience hourly ozone concentrations greater than 100 ppb. The frequency of occurrence of such high ozone levels seems to be related to the size of the city and the air pollution potential of the area. Few data on ozone concentrations in western forests are available, since most ozone monitoring sites are located close to urban complexes. Furthermore, ozone monitoring sites in the West are clustered, leaving large gaps, such as in Idaho. Consequently, recommendations for pollutant exposures to protect vegetation in the national parks must be extrapolated from data obtained elsewhere. Based on the existing information, we recommend one or more of the following ozone guidelines for vascular plants: < 70 ppb (7-h growing season mean, May-October), and 80-100 ppb (maximum hourly). To protect most vascular plants, maximum  $\text{SO}$  concentrations should not exceed 50-50 ppb (24-h mean), and annual average  $\text{SO}_2$  concentrations should not exceed 8-12 ppb.

To protect most plant species from exposure to ozone, use of a more conservative cumulative statistics -- SUM06 or SUM08 -- for ozone has recently been considered. These indicators sum all hourly concentrations equal to and above 0.06-0.08 ppm (60-80 ppb). Due to the cumulative nature of ozone effects and the influence of higher concentrations on the effect, this level of measurement has proven to be relevant to minimizing effects on plants. Studies have compared air

quality indicators for use as the NAAQS from the perspective of minimizing plant effects as well as maximizing the ability to detect declining air quality despite variable temporal patterns and site conditions. The previous NAAQS based on extreme values was found to be inadequate for protecting vegetation from ozone exposure (EPA 1993b). Based on the information evaluated in this report, we believe that the NAAQS ozone standard should include a cumulative statistic such as the SUM06 or SUM08 together with a measure of peak ozone concentrations, such as the maximum hourly mean. Strengths and limitations of the various statistics for quantifying ambient ozone are discussed in detail by Lefohn (1992), as reviewed in Appendix D.

Guidelines presented in this report should be applicable to similar ecosystems or areas with similar resources.

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## VII. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This report was funded through a cooperative agreement between the National Park Service and the Pacific Northwest Research Station, USDA Forest Service. The project coordinator for the project was Tonnie Maniero, National Park Service Air Quality Division. The authors thank Ms. Maniero and staff with the AOD in Denver, Colorado, for providing information on emissions in the region and constructive comments at various stages in the project. Shirley Clark, NPS, Seattle, was very helpful in coordinating local reviews with the individual parks. The NPS librarians Nancy Hori, Richard Aroksaar, and Mary Ellen Bartholomew provided assistance in locating reports and documents at the NPS regional library. Resource managers in the five study sites were very helpful in reviewing park activities related to air pollution studies and in providing comments on progress reports. The principal park contacts were Mark Buktenica (CRLA), Vicki Snitzler-Neeck (CRMO), Barbara Samora (MORA), Reed Glesne and Bob Koonce (NOCA), Shelly Sparhawk (OLYM), and Cat Hoffman (OLYM). Researchers with the Cooperative Park Studies Units were generous in supplying information on their studies and include Dr. Gary Larson (CPSU-OSU Corvallis), Dr. Gerald Wright, Jr. (CPSU-Univ. Idaho), and Dr. Dave Peterson (CPSU-UW). Dr. Kathy Tonnessen, now with the NBS, was instrumental in formulating the project scope and providing comments on progress reports.

We are indebted to a large number of scientists and agency officials through the region and Europe for sharing information on work in progress.

Jayne Charles provided the word processing support, Susan Binder assisted with preparation of figures, and data analysis runs were conducted by Joseph Bernert, all of E&S. Technical editing was kindly provided by Sandra Ernst.