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47 Abstract

48 Anthropogenic nitrogen (N) deposition is unequally distributed across space and time, with 49 inputs to terrestrial ecosystems impacted by industry regulations and variation in human activity. 50 Soil carbon (C) content normally controls the fraction of mineralized N that is nitrified (*f*_{nitrified}), 51 affecting N bioavailability for plants and microbes. However, it is unknown whether N 52 deposition has modified the relationships between soil C, net N mineralization, and net 53 nitrification. To test whether N deposition alters the relationship between soil C and net N 54 transformations, we collected soils from coniferous and deciduous forests, grasslands, and 55 residential yards in 14 regions across the contiguous U.S. that vary in N deposition rates. We 56 quantified rates of net nitrification and N mineralization, soil chemistry (soil C, N, and pH), and 57 microbial biomass and function (as beta-glucosidase (BG) and N-acetylglucosaminidase (NAG) 58 activity) across these regions. Following expectations, soil C was a driver of $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ across 59 regions, whereby increasing soil C resulted in a decline in net nitrification and $f_{\text{nitrified}}$. The 60 $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ value increased with lower microbial enzymatic investment in N acquisition (increasing 61 BG:NAG ratio) and lower active microbial biomass, providing some evidence that heterotrophic 62 microbial N demand controls the ammonium pool for nitrifiers. However, higher total N 63 deposition increased $f_{\text{nitrified}}$, including for high soil C sites predicted to have low $f_{\text{nitrified}}$, which decreased the role of soil C as a predictor of $f_{\text{nitrified}}$. Notably, the drop in contemporary 64 65 atmospheric N deposition rates during the 2020 COVID-19 pandemic did not weaken the effect 66 of N deposition on relationships between soil C and $f_{\text{nitrified}}$. Our results suggest N deposition can disrupt the relationship between soil C and net N transformations, with this change potentially 67 68 explained by weaker microbial competition for N. Therefore, past N inputs and soil C should be 69 used together to predict N dynamics across terrestrial ecosystems.

70 Introduction

71 The rise in agricultural production and fossil fuel combustion during the 20th century 72 increased nitrogen (N) emissions and, consequently, atmospheric N deposition to terrestrial 73 ecosystems across the globe (Fixen & West, 2002; Gruber & Galloway, 2008). This deposition 74 caused widespread negative environmental impacts, including elevated nitrate (NO_3^{-}) leaching 75 and nitrous oxide (N₂O) emissions (Schlesinger, 2009; Vitousek et al., 1997). As such, 76 legislative efforts were imposed to curb these atmospheric N inputs. Air quality regulations in 77 the U.S. cut emissions of nitrous oxides (NO_x) by 41% from 1990 to 2010 (Li et al., 2016), reducing inorganic N deposition by 0.11 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in the eastern U.S. during this period 78 79 (Ackerman et al., 2019). Although inorganic N deposition rose 8% globally from 1984 to 2016, 80 regions like Europe and Central Indo-Pacific had downward trends in N deposition (Ackerman et 81 al., 2019). The drop in anthropogenic N deposition, combined with elevated atmospheric CO_2 82 concentrations, can reduce N availability for plants and soil microbes (Garten et al., 2011; Norby 83 et al., 2010; Olff et al., 2022), with emerging evidence suggesting unmanaged ecosystems 84 worldwide are returning to N-limited states (Mason et al., 2022; McLauchlan et al., 2017). The 85 long-term decline in reactive N deposition likely affects ecosystem functions, including 86 decomposition and nitrification. Yet, much remains to be discovered about the variable effects of 87 N deposition across space and time on the microbially-mediated N cycle and its relationship with 88 soil carbon (C).

Aside from bioavailable N derived from atmospheric deposition, terrestrial N availability is controlled by soil microbial communities. Heterotrophic soil microorganisms use extracellular enzymes to break down soil organic matter (SOM) for energy and materials (Burns, 1982; Sinsabaugh, 1994). Microbial enzyme production facilitates N mineralization in soils by

93 converting simple organic N compounds from plants and microbes (including N-fixing bacteria) 94 to ammonium (NH_4^+). Ammonium may then be oxidized by chemolithoautotrophic nitrifiers into 95 NO_3^{-} , with the potential to be leached into adjacent waterways or lost as the potent greenhouse 96 gas nitrous oxide (N₂O). Both ammonium and nitrate can be immobilized by heterotrophic 97 microbes or taken up by plants to meet N demands (Melillo et al., 1989; Soong et al., 2020). 98 Additionally, larger soil C pools increase heterotrophic N demand to maintain their C:N 99 stoichiometry (Cleveland & Liptzin, 2007; Redfield, 1958; Schimel & Weintraub, 2003), leading 100 to increased N mineralization and immobilization rates but decreased nitrification rates. While 101 site-dependent variables like soil moisture and NH4⁺ do drive nitrification rates, it has been 102 shown at local (Keiser et al., 2016) and continental (Gill et al., 2023) scales from laboratory 103 incubations and field-based assays that soil C content determines whether or not mineralized N 104 (NH_4^+) is nitrified. Specifically, the fraction of mineralized N that is nitrified ($f_{nitrified}$) is lower 105 under high soil C conditions, likely driven by heterotrophic N immobilization (Elrys et al., 106 2021), reducing NH_4^+ availability for nitrifiers. As a result, net N mineralization and nitrification 107 rates can become decoupled under high microbially-available C conditions. However, large 108 pulses of external N inputs (e.g., fertilizer application) may exceed heterotrophic N demand, 109 resulting in high nitrification rates and $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ across an array of soil C concentrations as 110 competition for N eases between microbial heterotrophs and nitrifiers (Aber et al., 1998; Yuan et 111 al., 2019). While it is expected that an increase in N availability will increase nitrification rates, 112 the effects of atmospheric N deposition on the role of soil C in mediating $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ has not been 113 resolved.

To identify how the activity of soil microorganisms shifts with N availability, we can
quantify changes in their functional attributes that characterize their C- and N-cycling potentials,

116	including extracellular enzyme activity. Field experiments show that N-acquiring enzyme
117	activity declines with concomitant increases in C-acquisition enzyme activity under experimental
118	N-fertilization rates ranging from 30-100 kg N ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹ (Ajwa et al., 1999; Saiya-Cork et al.,
119	2002; Zeglin et al., 2007). These studies suggest that experimental N fertilization rates-
120	typically greater than realized N deposition rates—lower the enzymatic investment to acquire N
121	by soil microbes, indicative of lower microbial N limitation. In addition, decomposition
122	measures, such as litter mass loss and microbial respiration, decrease with experimentally higher
123	N availability (Craine et al., 2007; Knorr et al., 2005; Treseder, 2008). A decline in
124	decomposition due to decreased microbial N limitation may increase SOM pools as heterotrophic
125	microbes rely less on this organic pool for N (Bowden et al., 2019). Yet, studies report
126	contrasting effects of N-addition on soil C stocks. In forests, chronic N fertilization increases the
127	stock of organic C in the topsoil layer (Frey et al., 2014), whereas soil C stocks do not change in
128	grassland N-addition experiments (Keller et al., 2022). This distinction between forest and
129	grassland soils not only reveals key differences in soil microbial communities between these
130	systems (Carson et al., 2019; Edwards et al., 2011; Frey et al., 2004), but also the importance of
131	understanding what mechanisms govern microbial responses to higher N availability across
132	ecosystems, including edaphic properties known to affect the N cycle, such as soil pH (Kemmitt
133	et al., 2006; Riggs & Hobbie, 2016).

As N deposition decreases in response to environmental regulations, ecosystem recovery may lag behind this decline (Gilliam et al., 2019; Stevens, 2016) given that ecosystems retain exogenous N in plant and soil pools (Lovett & Goodale, 2011). From the few field experiments where high rates of N fertilization has ceased and observations have continued, N mineralization rates have been shown to remain elevated for over five years compared to never-fertilized

139	controls (Clark et al., 2009; O'Sullivan et al., 2011), but pre-fertilization nitrification rates can
140	recover in one year (Nieland et al., 2021). Yet, these experiments coincide with the slow,
141	multidecadal decline in N deposition in many regions and concurrent rise in atmospheric CO ₂
142	concentrations, with studies without experimental N fertilization reporting decreases in plant
143	tissue N concentrations and natural abundance δ^{15} N values, ecosystem N-cycling rates, and
144	aquatic N exports from watersheds (Groffman et al., 2018; Penuelas et al., 2020; Sabo et al.,
145	2020). The observational N fertilization studies instead suggest that legacies of anthropogenic N
146	deposition may not be realized in natural systems because contemporary atmospheric chemistry,
147	specifically CO ₂ fertilization, appears to have a stronger role in ecosystem N-cycling than
148	previous N deposition. With limited experimental data matching low and variable rates of N
149	deposition, it remains uncertain as to how soil microbial communities respond functionally to
150	decreased anthropogenic N deposition across diverse ecosystems (Lamarque et al., 2013).
151	The COVID-19 pandemic prompted a sudden drop in human activity around the globe as
152	2020 lockdowns restricted work and outdoor activities in an attempt to slow the spread of SARS-
153	CoV-2 (Alfano & Ercolano, 2020), the virus that causes COVID-19. Consequently, 2020
154	vehicular traffic and industry activity decreased (Liu & Stern, 2021) with increases in select air
155	quality metrics (i.e., PM _{2.5} , PM ₁₀ , NO ₂ ; Yang et al., 2022) and avian and beach flora and fauna
156	abundances across urban ecosystems (Schrimpf et al., 2021; Soto et al., 2021). However, the
157	effects of the COVID-19 pandemic on terrestrial biogeochemistry are not known, despite
158	reported declines in atmospheric N deposition (Berman & Ebisu, 2020; Le Quéré et al., 2020).
159	This 'anthropause' (Rutz et al., 2020) presents the opportunity to investigate whether a short-
160	term decrease in N deposition during 2020 alters the relationships between soil C, net N
161	mineralization, and net nitrification and the strength of soil C as a driver of $f_{\text{nitrified}}$.

162	Taking advantage of both the decline in rates of atmospheric N deposition during the
163	COVID-19 pandemic and the range in background atmospheric N deposition across the
164	contiguous U.S., we examined under laboratory conditions if N deposition alleviates soil C-
165	controlled competition for N between microbial heterotrophs and nitrifiers. We sampled 14
166	regions (with multiple sites per region) experiencing variable N deposition rates (annual means:
167	3.2-11.7 kg N ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹), and measured soil net nitrification and N mineralization rates,
168	extracellular enzyme activities (EEAs), active microbial biomass with substrate induced
169	respiration (SIR), and soil chemistry (soil C, N, and pH). We hypothesized (H1) that high C soils
170	with high background rates of atmospheric N deposition exhibit higher net nitrification rates and
171	$f_{\rm nitrified}$ than high C soils with low background N deposition because NH ₄ ⁺ supplied through
172	deposition would alleviate NH4 ⁺ -limitation of nitrifiers induced by immobilization (Fig. 1a, b).
173	Initiating the study during the COVID-19 pandemic, we leveraged this natural experiment to
174	discern if a short-term dip in contemporary N deposition decreased $f_{\text{nitrified}}$. We hypothesized
175	(H2) that a temporary decrease in N deposition strengthens the role of soil C in regulating net N
176	transformation rates and $f_{\text{nitrified}}$, resulting in a decrease in net N transformation rates and $f_{\text{nitrified}}$,
177	because microbial immobilization would drive NH4 ⁺ -limitation for nitrifiers at sites where
178	background N deposition rates are typically at intermediate or high levels (Fig. 1c).

180 Methods

181 Study sites and sample collection

We sampled soils from 14 regions across the U.S. that varied in rates of atmospheric N
deposition and climate (Table S1). Each region included individual sites that captured a range of
vegetation and land uses, including forest, grassland, and residential yard, for a total of 39 sites.

185 At a minimum, each region had one natural ecosystem reflecting the area's dominant ecosystem 186 type and one residential yard. We included yards because they offer a relatively similar 187 comparison, in terms of vegetation, across the 14 regions and climates, and most yards shared 188 similar management across regions (Table S1). We classified non-yard sites into coniferous 189 forest, deciduous forest, grassland, scrub, and oak-palmetto forest ecosystems based on 190 vegetation and climate. 30-year mean annual precipitation (MAP) and temperature (MAT) were 191 estimated for each site using the closest weather station in the National Weather Service 192 Cooperative Network (NWS COOP). Monthly precipitation (PPT) and potential 193 evapotranspiration (PET) during 2013-2021 were calculated to identify climate (i.e., mesic or 194 xeric) using daily precipitation, daily maximum and minimum temperatures, and latitude (for 195 solar radiation; Allen et al., 1999). A PPT:PET ratio of less than one was defined as a xeric 196 climate (Knapp et al., 2008).

197 Samples were collected by taking the top 10 cm of mineral soil with a trowel to fill 198 approximately a quart-size (0.95 L) sterile bag four times at each site in 2020. These collection 199 times were selected to correspond with changes in national activity due to COVID-19 restrictions 200 in 2020 (with increasing human activity across time): April (stay-at-home), May (partial 201 reopening), June, and August. Each sample was split in half with one sub-sample immediately 202 frozen and the other air-dried. Once COVID-19 restrictions lifted, dried and frozen samples were 203 shipped to the University of Massachusetts Amherst where frozen samples remained at -20 °C 204 until processed. For this study, we analyzed soils from the first and fourth collections to capture 205 the timepoints with the widest range in COVID restrictions and potential for contrasting N 206 deposition rates. Because some sites included replicated plots, samples from plot replicates were 207 processed separately and then averaged within a site for data analysis. Samples were collected at

a subset of the sites a year after the initial collections in 2021 to determine if changes in local
deposition levels affected soil microbial functions. While the seven sites resampled were
collected from the Northeastern U.S., because of their proximity to the University of
Massachusetts Amherst, we only used these sites to compare soil functional parameters between
a year with reduced human activity (2020) and a year with closer to normal activity (2021). For
these samples, we kept plot replicates separate for data analysis.

214

215 Atmospheric nitrogen deposition estimates

216 Annual total (wet + dry) N deposition and wet NH_4^+ deposition were estimated for each 217 site using model outputs detailed in Schwede and Lear (2014). Grids from the National 218 Atmospheric Deposition Program's (NADP) National Trends Network (NTN) (version 2023.01; 219 https://nadp.slh.wisc.edu/committees/tdep/) were accessed on November 14, 2023, and uploaded 220 to RStudio V2023.12.1+402 (Posit team, 2024) using R package raster (Hijmans 2023). We 221 collected deposition data from online databases covering 2013-2021 (pre-study years plus study 222 period). While an expected decrease in deposition induced by the COVID-19 pandemic inspired 223 the current study, preliminary data analysis indicated that annual N deposition rates declined in 224 2018 and through 2020, before rebounding in 2021. Because we wanted to investigate both 225 background and contemporary N deposition effects motivated by the COVID-19 restrictions, we 226 defined background N deposition as 2013-2017 before N deposition began to decline. Using the 227 2013-2017 values, we averaged annual total N deposition estimates for each of the 39 sites to define 'low' (2013-2017 mean site total N deposition range: 3.18-6.93 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), 228 229 'intermediate' (7.53-8.45 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), and 'high' (8.56-11.67 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) background rates of N deposition from the 33rd and 66th percentiles of the mean rates of N deposition. We binned 230

231 background N deposition into ranks because preliminary analyses of 2013-2017 mean site N 232 deposition rates showed three distinct groups, which approximately aligned with the 33rd and 66th 233 percentiles. Each N deposition rank included 13 sites. Average annual NH₄⁺ deposition was also 234 calculated for each site. 235 The decline in human activity from the COVID-19 pandemic presented unique 236 challenges to quantifying real-time wet N deposition declines because many NTN stations were 237 closed during this time. Therefore, we used the automated United States Environmental 238 Protection Agency (EPA) Clean Air Status and Trends Network (CASTNET) 239 (https://epa.gov/castnet/) to gather particulate (dry) N deposition data since CASTNET stations 240 were not disrupted during the lockdown period of spring 2020. We extracted weekly CASTNET 241 dry N concentration data from 2013-2021 on February 14, 2024, from six stations. These stations 242 were selected because of their proximity to sampling locations and variation in total background 243 N deposition rates (Fig. S1). With the CASTNET data, we first calculated dry N deposition flux 244 using deposition velocities reported in Holland et al. (2005) and then added the fluxes to report 245 annual cumulative dry N deposition. As with total N deposition, 2013-2017 served as background years to calculate the 95% confidence interval for dry N deposition. Dry N 246 247 deposition in 2018-2021 that fell outside the confidence intervals was considered significantly 248 different from background N deposition at $P \le 0.05$. The fraction of annual total N deposition 249 deposited as dry N, based on the 2013-2017 NTN and CASTNET data, ranged from (mean ± 250 standard deviation) 10.4 ± 2.2% in northern Montana to 61.7 ± 4.9% in southern California 251 (overall mean: 22.4%). Thus, we are somewhat limited in our inference about the potential 252 change in total N deposition during the early part of the COVID-19 pandemic due to missing wet 253 N deposition data in 2020. However, dry N deposition serves as a good indicator for vehicular

activity since dry N deposition is higher in urban sites (Bettez & Groffman, 2013) and deposition
rates decline exponentially away from roads (Redling et al., 2013), with some notable exceptions
(Rocci et al., 2023).

- 257
- 258 Soil chemistry

259 Air-dried soils were sieved to 2 mm and then pulverized using a CertiPrep 8000-D Mixer 260 mill (Spex, Mutuchen, NJ, USA), and total C and N from two milled analytical replicates were 261 quantified using a Carlo Erba NA1500 CHN analyzer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, 262 USA). Soils with $\leq 5\%$ C (by mass) were defined as low C soils (Gill et al., 2023). Soil C and N 263 were transformed to molar quantities to calculate soil C:N ratios. A portion of the frozen soil was 264 thawed and sieved to 2 mm, and the pH was measured in a 1:2 volumetric ratio of soil and 265 deionized water (Allen, 1974). Soil moisture was measured as gravimetric water content (GWC), 266 quantified by drying soils for 24 h at 105°C (Bradford et al., 2008).

267

268 Soil microbial carbon and nitrogen cycling

269 Functional assessments of microbial communities were measured from thawed soils 270 previously frozen at -20°C. Net N mineralization and nitrification rates were measured using a 271 28-d lab incubation (Robertson & Groffman, 2015). Immediately after sieving to 2 mm, 10 g 272 dry-equivalent soil were added to 50 mL of 2 M KCl and shaken vigorously by hand (day 0) 273 (Keiser et al., 2016; Robertson et al., 1999). Another 10 g dry-equivalent soil were incubated at 274 20 °C in the dark for 28 days and checked weekly to maintain soil moisture at gravimetric 275 moisture from field collection. At day 28, the soil was extracted in 50 mL of 2 M KCl and 276 shaken. Inorganic N concentrations (NH4⁺-N and NO3⁻-N) were quantified

277 spectrophotometrically with a BioTek Synergy HTX Multimode Reader (Agilent, Santa Clara, 278 CA, USA) using a modified salicylate assay and vanadium (III) assay, respectively (Hood-279 Nowotny et al., 2010). Net N mineralization rates were calculated as the difference in total 280 inorganic N after 28 days, while nitrification rates were calculated as the difference in NO_3^-N . 281 The nitrified fraction of mineralized N ($f_{nitrified}$) was calculated by dividing net nitrification rate 282 by net N mineralization rate.

We measured substrate induced respiration (SIR) as an estimate of active soil microbial
biomass. SIR was measured after shaking 5 g dry-equivalent soil with autolyzed yeast solution
for 1 h at 100 rpm inside capped, 50 mL tubes with 2 replicates per sample (Anderson &
Domsch, 1978; Bradford, Fierer, et al., 2008). After a 4 h incubation, CO₂-C in the headspace
was quantified using a LI-7000 CO₂/H₂O analyzer (LICOR, Lincoln, NE, USA).
Soil EEAs were measured using short-term, room-temperature assays with fluorometric
methylumbelliferone (MUB) substrates in a modified universal buffer at a given soil's pH

290 (German et al., 2011; Saiya-Cork et al., 2002). Beta-glucosidase (BG; EC 3.2.1.21) and N-

acetylglucosaminidase (NAG; EC 3.2.1.14) activities were measured in 96-well plates with 8

293 homogenate controls. Prior to these assays, K_m tests for each site were performed to determine

replicates for each enzyme per sample and included MUB curves, substrate controls, and soil

294 the times and substrate concentrations to achieve the maximum reaction rate (V_{max}) (Keiser et al.,

2019). Fluorescence was measured at 360/450 nm (excitation/emission) with a BioTek Synergy

296 HTX Multimode Reader. To evaluate microbial enzymatic investment for labile C and N, we

297 calculated the ratio of BG and NAG activities, both natural-log transformed, with lower ratios

indicative of higher N relative to C demand (Nieland et al., 2024; Sinsabaugh & Follstad Shah,

299 2012).

292

301 Statistical analysis

All statistical analyses were done in R V4.3.3 (R Core Team, 2024) using tidvverse to 302 303 handle and visualize data (Wickham et al., 2019). We used linear mixed effects (LME) models 304 and linear models for all analyses. To test for differences in background N deposition, we first 305 used linear models to determine if mean annual background total N deposition and wet NH₄⁺ 306 deposition from 2013-2017 were different among the low, intermediate, and high deposition 307 ranks. We then assessed whether total N and wet NH₄⁺ deposition decreased from 2013-2017 by 308 using LME models that included N deposition rank (low, intermediate, and high N deposition) 309 and years as interacting fixed effects with sites being random effects to account for repeating 310 measurements using packages *lme4* and *lmerTest* (Bates et al., 2015; Kuznetsova et al., 2017). 311 We used stepwise modeling to identify linear models that describe net nitrification rates 312 and test H1. Following the Keiser et al. (2016) and Gill et al. (2023) approach, we used model 313 selection among known drivers of nitrification to isolate the best model that describes 314 nitrification, first excluding and then including background N deposition. The first model 315 selection exercise tested for the best model using predictors identified by Keiser et al. (2016) and 316 tested at a continental scale by Gill et al. (2023): net N mineralization rates, soil C, and GWC as 317 interacting explanatory variables. Using Akaike information criterion (AIC) from the R package 318 MASS to remove variables (Venables & Ripley, 2002), the best fit model included net N 319 mineralization rate, soil C, soil moisture, and the interaction of N mineralization rate and soil moisture as predictive variables for net nitrification rates (Adjusted $R^2 = 0.313$, P < 0.001, AIC = 320 321 193.6). The second model selection exercise included background (2013-2017) total N 322 deposition as a variable, along with net N mineralization rates, soil C, and GWC (allowing them

to interact), to describe net nitrification rates. Background total N deposition, rather than wet NH₄⁺, was used because it accounts for other deposited N species that can influence plantmicrobe and microbe-microbe competition for N. According to AIC and analysis of variance (ANOVA), the model from the second exercise was a better fit than the model from the first exercise (AIC = 188.0, P = 0.013); thus, we report results from the second model.

328 Additional models were implemented to test H1. Because other soil characteristics can 329 influence nitrification (Keiser et al., 2016), we designed a separate linear model using the 330 stepwise approach to test the effects of net N mineralization, soil moisture, soil pH, soil C, soil 331 C:N, and their interactions on net nitrification rates, which were visualized using the interactions 332 R package (Long, 2019). Soil N was excluded due to its collinearity with soil C. Moreover, we 333 used linear models to test if $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ was different between soils with low C and high C and 334 among ecosystem types, including their interaction. We further tested H1 by assessing whether 335 net nitrification and N mineralization rates and $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ were related to soil microbial functions. 336 To do this, we used linear models of net nitrification, net N mineralization, and f_{nitrified} that 337 separately tested active microbial biomass, log(NAG), and microbial enzymatic C:N investment 338 as fixed effects interacting with N deposition rank.

To further test H1, we built a structural equation model (SEM) to determine how N deposition class (low, intermediate, and high) changed the effects of soil chemistry, particularly soil C, and microbial functions on $f_{\text{nitrified}}$. We first designed model paths *a priori* from existing literature (Fig. S2, Table S2) and added linear models into an SEM using the *piecewiseSEM* package (Lefcheck, 2016). We then checked the fit of the SEM using χ^2 and Fisher's C statistics which showed that the data fit poorly to the SEM ($\chi^2 = 25.37$, df = 6, *P* < 0.001; Fisher's C = 28.74, df = 12, *P* = 0.004). A d-separation test (Shipley, 2013) indicated that adding a path

346	between microbial enzymatic C:N investment and soil pH to the SEM would improve fit. In
347	addition, a linear model predicting $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ from soil moisture was unnecessary based on its P-
348	value ($P = 0.555$); we subsequently removed this linear model from the SEM. After making
349	these changes, the overall fit of the SEM improved ($\chi^2 = 3.61$, df = 3, $P = 0.307$; Fisher's C =
350	5.12, df = 6, $P = 0.529$). We tested if N deposition class changed the magnitude of effects by
351	performing a multigroup analysis using the multigroup function in <i>piecewiseSEM</i> . Standardized
352	coefficients and P-values were gathered to compare outputs of each N deposition class, and we
353	calculated the direct, indirect, and total effect of soil C on $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ among each N deposition class.
354	For H2, we used LME models to assess whether there were differences in net N
355	nitrification and N mineralization rates between 2020 and 2021 for the resampled sites with
356	individual plots as a random effect. These LME models included site, collection, and year as
357	interacting fixed effects. We further tested H2 by using an LME model to test for differences in
358	$f_{\text{nitrified}}$ between year and soil C as interacting fixed terms, with plot as a random effect.
359	To test if soil characteristics varied across sites, we used stepwise modeling to select the
360	best fitting linear model for the response variables soil pH, soil %C, soil %N, and soil C:N.
361	Model predictors included climate (xeric or mesic), ecosystem (coniferous forest, deciduous
362	forest, grassland, or residential yard), and deposition rank. We also modeled soil moisture as a
363	function of these factors, excluding N deposition rank. Background N deposition was modeled as
364	a categorical rather than continuous variable for ease of interpretation, and scrub and oak-
365	palmetto forest ecosystems were excluded due to low replication. Two-way interactions among
366	all predictor variables were included in the models. To meet model assumptions, some response
367	variables were natural-log transformed or expressed using Yeo-Johnson transformation (Table
368	S3 and S4). ANOVA approximations were used to acquire F- and P-values for models, and

369 significant effects or interactions were tested using Tukey's post-hoc analysis in package

370 *emmeans* (Lenth, 2023). Significance was set at $\alpha \le 0.05$.

371

372 **Results**

373 Nitrogen deposition

374 Background total (wet + dry) N deposition rates (2013-2017) varied strongly across the 375 contiguous U.S., ranging over an order of magnitude among our 39 sites in 14 regions (Fig. 2a). Most of the high background N deposition sites were in the Midwest (n = 6; 9.8 ± 0.4 kg N ha⁻¹ 376 yr⁻¹), and all the sites in Northern Rockies and California (n = 10; 4.7 ± 1.4 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) had 377 378 low background N deposition. Background total N deposition rates increased significantly from 379 the low to intermediate to high classes (all P < 0.001). Regardless of deposition class, however, total N deposition rates declined annually 0.14 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ from 2013-2017 ($F_{1,153} = 10.9, P =$ 380 0.001; Fig. 2b) consistent with other studies (Ackerman et al., 2019; Benish et al., 2022). High N 381 deposition sites had higher mean annual wet NH_4^+ deposition (2.9 ± 1.1 kg NH_4^+ -N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) 382 than low $(1.1 \pm 0.4 \text{ kg NH}_4^+\text{-N ha}^-1 \text{ yr}^-1)$ and intermediate $(1.7 \pm 0.5 \text{ kg NH}_4^+\text{-N ha}^-1 \text{ yr}^-1)$ sites (P 383 384 < 0.001), but unlike total N deposition annual wet NH₄⁺ deposition rates did not decline from 385 2013-2017. While cumulative dry N deposition decreased significantly in 2019 from the 2013-386 2017 mean for three of the six CASTNET stations surveyed, it fell to its the lowest values in 387 2020 for five stations (Fig. S3). Cumulative dry N deposition returned to 2013-2017 ranges in 388 2021 (Fig. S3).

391 Low C soils (< 5% C by mass; Gill et al., 2023) had net nitrification rates that 392 predominantly aligned 1:1 with net N mineralization rates, as indicated by an of $f_{\text{nitrified}} = 1$ (Fig. 393 3a). Indeed, $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ was two-fold greater in low C soils (0.945) than in high C soils (0.417; $F_{1.60}$ 394 = 15.87, P < 0.001; Fig. 3c) and was not different among coniferous and deciduous forests and 395 grasslands (P > 0.05). Net nitrification rates were very low or undetectable in many of the high C 396 soils, among which net N mineralization rates varied widely, indicating that the net N 397 transformations were highly or entirely decoupled from one another in these soils. Yet, net nitrification and N mineralization rates did not always decouple at high soil C sites, with fnitrified 398 399 varying between 0 and 1 (Fig. 3a). The best fit model from the model selection exercises 400 predicting net nitrification rates included background mean N deposition as a covariate (t = -3.02, P = 0.004; Fig. 3b), along with net N mineralization (t = 1.09, P < 0.001), soil C (t = -2.31, 401 P = 0.024), and soil moisture (t = -1.87, P = 0.065; Adjusted $R^2 = 0.379$). Net nitrification rates 402 403 were negatively related to soil C as expected (Table 1). Under low soil moisture content, soils with higher net N mineralization rates resulted in higher net nitrification rates (t = -3.32, P =404 405 0.001). In contrast, net nitrification rates increased with soil moisture at sites with higher mean 406 background N deposition rates but decreased under lower background N deposition (t = 2.93, P =407 0.005).

The model testing the effects of soil characteristics and net N mineralization explained 72% of the variation in net nitrification rates. In this model (Table 2), net N mineralization rates interacted positively with soil pH (t = 2.86, P = 0.006) and soil C (t = 2.56, P = 0.013) but negatively with soil C:N (t = -3.32, P = 0.002) and moisture (t = -2.10, P = 0.04). Net nitrification rates increased more with higher net N mineralization rates under drier, lower soil 413 moisture (Fig. S4). However, at any given net N mineralization rate, soils with lower C:N ratios
414 (i.e., more N relative to C) or higher pH had higher net nitrification rates (Fig. S4).

415

416 Soil chemistry

417 Background N deposition classification was identified as a significant predictor for soil 418 pH, total C and N, and soil C:N (Table 3), soil characteristics that also predicted net nitrification 419 rates (Table 2). Except in the case of the soil C:N ratio, N deposition classification also 420 interacted significantly with ecosystem type to explain soil chemistry variation (Table 3). Soil C 421 and N concentrations decreased across increasing N deposition classes for coniferous forests and 422 grasslands by an average 59% and 60%, respectively (Fig. S5; all P < 0.05) but did not change 423 for deciduous forests or yards. Collectively, soil C:N ratio declined from intermediate to high N 424 deposition (P = 0.013) by 2.2 units, with coniferous and deciduous forests having higher soil 425 C:N ratios than grasslands and yards (Fig. S5; all P < 0.001). While coniferous forest soil pH 426 decreased from 6.0 ± 0.4 in low N deposition sites to 4.7 ± 0.9 in intermediate N deposition sites 427 (Fig. S5; P = 0.006), yard soil pH instead increased from 6.1 ± 1.1 in low N deposition sites to 428 7.1 ± 0.5 in high N deposition sites (Fig. S5; $P \le 0.013$). In contrast to other soil properties, soil 429 moisture was best explained by ecosystem type and time, reflecting that soils were wetter at the 430 first collection than the fourth collection ($F_{1, 64} = 47.02$, P < 0.001) and that deciduous forests 431 had the highest soil moisture content at the first collection (all P < 0.05). Climate only emerged 432 as a predictor for the soil pH, albeit insignificantly (Table 3).

433

434 Soil microbial functions

435	Microbial enzymatic investment for C relative to N acquisition through the ratio of the C-
436	acquiring enzyme BG with the N-acquiring enzyme NAG (BG:NAG ratio) can be used as a
437	microbial N demand index (Nieland et al., 2024; Sinsabaugh & Follstad Shah, 2012). Our results
438	show that when $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ was low, generally in high C soils, the ratio of BG:NAG was also low,
439	indicating relatively high microbial N demand ($F_{1,68} = 23.42$, $P < 0.001$; Fig. 4a). The
440	relationship between the BG:NAG ratio and net nitrification rates was also positive ($F_{1,68}$ =
441	12.10, $P < 0.001$; Fig. 5a); in contrast, net N mineralization rates decreased under higher
442	BG:NAG ratios (i.e., lower net N mineralization rates with lower relative microbial N demand)
443	($F_{1,71} = 5.04$, $P = 0.028$; Fig. 5b). Significant interactive effects of background N deposition and
444	NAG activity on net nitrification ($F_{2,71} = 3.21$, $P = 0.046$) and N mineralization rates ($F_{2,71} =$
445	4.12, $P = 0.02$) signal how background N deposition changed microbially mediated N-
446	cycling. Post-hoc tests show that net nitrification and N mineralization rates increased with NAG
447	activity at low N deposition but decreased at intermediate ($P = 0.045$) and high N deposition (P
448	= 0.031), respectively (Fig. S6).
449	Active microbial biomass associated negatively with $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ ($F_{1,71} = 4.71$, $P = 0.033$),
450	such that a larger active microbial biomass pool led to a smaller fraction of mineralized N that
451	was nitrified (Fig. 4b). However, active microbial biomass interacted significantly with N
452	deposition for net N mineralization ($F_{2,71} = 5.09$, $P = 0.009$), in that the relationship between
453	active microbial biomass and net N mineralization rates switched from positive to negative as
454	background N deposition increased (Fig. 4c; $P = 0.012$).
455	

Structural equation model analysis

457 The SEM revealed that the strength of the relationships between soil C, soil N, microbial 458 biomass, microbial enzymatic C:N, and soil pH with $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ diminished as N deposition 459 increased (Fig. 6). Moving from low to high N deposition classification, the effect sizes of soil 460 chemistry and microbial functions on $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ and its predictors generally declined and became 461 of soil C on $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ was significantly negative while insignificant (Fig 6a-c). The direct effect 462 N concentration effects were significantly positive at low N deposition (Fig. 6a). However, soil 463 C was not significantly associated with $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ at intermediate and high N deposition, with only 464 soil pH being positively related to $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ at intermediate N deposition. Collectively, the total 465 (direct + indirect) effect of soil C on $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ decreased with increasing N deposition 466 classification (Fig. 6d).

467

468 Interannual variability in net N transformations

469 Despite a decline in external N inputs in the year 2020 and an increase back to pre-2020 470 rates (2013-2017) in 2021 (Fig. S3), there were no major differences in net N transformation 471 rates between 2020 and 2021 (Fig. 7). Only one of the seven sites (Mixed Forest - N CT) had 472 higher net N mineralization rates in 2021 compared to 2020 (Fig. 7a). A significant three-way 473 interaction between site, time, and year for net nitrification rates ($F_{15.88} = 1.85$, P = 0.040) 474 indicated that rates were sometimes higher in 2021 than in 2020 for two sites, with no 475 differences in rates between 2020 and 2021 for the other five sites (Fig. 7b). Four sites had little 476 to no net nitrification in 2020 and 2021, resulting in $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ values close to zero. In contrast, one 477 site (Oak-Hickory - S CT) had a 2020-2021 mean f_{nitrified} of 0.173 while two sites (Suburban -478 PA and Urban – PA) had $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ values greater than 1. $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ was greater in 2021 (0.06 ± 0.11) 479 than 2020 (0.02 ± 0.04 ; $F_{1,84} = 9.76$, P = 0.002) but only after excluding the two PA sites from

480 the analysis. When including the PA region, however, $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ decreased in 2021 (0.46 ± 0.74)

481 compared to 2020 (0.77 ± 1.48) because of their greater overall rates compared to the remaining

482 sites ($F_{1,115} = 4.36$, P = 0.039). Soil C was an insignificant parameter in explaining net N

483 transformations and $f_{\text{nitrified}}$.

484

485 **Discussion**

486 Fraction of mineralized N that is nitrified potentially tied to microbial competition

487 Across an anthropogenic N deposition gradient within the contiguous U.S., we tested 488 whether N deposition weakened soil C control over the coupling between net nitrification and N 489 mineralization rates when plants are excluded. We found that soil C was negatively related to net 490 nitrification rates and resulted in $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ either close to 0 (decoupled N transformations) or 1 491 (coupled N transformations), supporting the hypothesis that soil C controls competition for N 492 between heterotrophic microbes and nitrifiers (Dijkstra et al., 2008). A recent study leveraging 493 Long-Term Ecological Research data across various biomes and climates in North America also 494 documented that soil C influenced the degree of coupling of net N transformations across 495 ecosystems (Gill et al., 2023). Labile C availability primarily regulates how much N is released 496 by microbial heterotrophs (Keiser et al., 2016). Although we did not quantify labile C 497 availability, this pool correlates positively to the measured total soil C (McLauchlan & Hobbie, 498 2004). Moreover, higher soil C:N ratios resulted in much lower net nitrification rates measured 499 using laboratory incubations even under relatively high net N mineralization rates. This finding 500 of low net nitrification rates under high soil C:N environments could be more pronounced in the 501 presence of roots because plants also compete with nitrifiers for NH_4^+ , further restricting 502 nitrification. Thus, our analysis across multiple terrestrial ecosystems that vary in soil

503 characteristics and climates offers evidence that soil C availability drives coupled-decoupled net 504 N transformations whereby $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ associates negatively with increasing soil C.

201

505 Although we did not explicitly measure competition for NH_4^+ in this study using gross 506 suggested that competition for N between microbial heterotrophs rates, our functional assays 507 and nitrifiers appeared to shape soil N dynamics. Soil microorganisms synthesize fewer 508 extracellular enzymes that target SOM for labile N (i.e., NAG) under higher available N 509 conditions as a mechanism to conserve intracellular resources (Allison & Vitousek, 2005; 510 Chróst, 1991; Nieland et al., 2024; Sinsabaugh et al., 2008; Sinsabaugh & Follstad Shah, 2012). 511 Microbial enzymatic investment for C- relative to N-acquisition, the BG:NAG ratio, serves as an 512 indicator of microbial N limitation because it reflects the balance between bioavailable N, largely 513 controlled by plant N uptake and heterotrophic N requirements (Fierer et al., 2021; Sinsabaugh et 514 al., 2009), despite NAG being a C- and N-acquisition enzyme. Lower microbial heterotrophic N 515 demand has been associated with higher net nitrification and mineralization rates (Jia et al., 516 2020; Jian et al., 2016; Ouyang et al., 2018; Vega Anguiano et al., 2024), and we found some 517 evidence that $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ increased also as microbial N demand decreased (Fig. 4a). However, the 518 SEM indicated that microbial N demand was weakly associated with $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ when other 519 pathways in explaining $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ were also included. This contrast between the SEM and the linear 520 model highlights that other relationships tied to $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ besides microbial N demand measured 521 using extracellular enzymes are necessary to explain how microbial competition for N affects 522 fnitrified.

523 The negative relationship between active microbial biomass and $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ further supports 524 the idea that competition between microbial heterotrophs and nitrifiers may drive the relationship 525 between soil C and net N transformations. Soil microbial heterotrophs compete with nitrifiers for

526 NH_4^+ (Verhagen et al., 1995), with gross immobilization rates exceeding gross nitrification rates 527 in some cases (Hart et al., 1994). A recent synthesis found that soil microbial biomass C, 528 quantified through chloroform fumigation extraction, is a driver of gross N immobilization rates 529 (Li et al., 2021). Hence, greater soil microbial biomass, particularly the active pool measured 530 through SIR, should increase N immobilization and limit nitrification (Li et al., 2020; Schimel & 531 Bennett, 2004). Ectomycorrhizal (EcM) fungi may also play a key role in $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ in soils as these 532 organisms are known to compete with nitrifiers for NH_4^+ (Tatsumi et al., 2020) and associate 533 with trees at some of our sites (Table S1; Phillips et al., 2013). Given that net N mineralization 534 and nitrification rates were measured in the lab, bioavailable N may be greater than would be 535 expected in the presence of roots and their mycorrhizal symbionts . Altogether, our functional 536 assessments of soil microbial communities provide further evidence that the mechanism for net 537 nitrification and N mineralization coupling is explained by microbial competition for NH₄⁺.

538

539 Nitrogen deposition modifies net N transformation dynamics

540 Background rates of N deposition partially explained net nitrification rates and $f_{\text{nitrified}}$, 541 with $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ increasing under high background N deposition in high soil C, supporting H1 that N 542 deposition alleviates NH₄⁺-limitation of nitrifiers (Fig. 1). Previous research found that soil C 543 was the primary driver determining the degree of coupling of net N mineralization and 544 nitrification in terrestrial landscapes (Gill et al., 2023; Keiser et al., 2016). Our analysis suggests 545 that background N deposition explained $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ in addition to soil C. Many of the high soil C 546 sites that deviated from their predicted decoupled net nitrification-N mineralization relationship (i.e., $f_{\text{nitrified}} = 0$) had intermediate or high background N deposition. Moreover, the total effect of 547 soil C on $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ diminished as background N deposition increased. These findings could explain 548

549 why some high soil C ecosystems reported in Gill et al. (2023) had coupled net N 550 transformations, particularly for the Midwest and Atlantic coast sites where dry deposition of 551 ammonia (NH₃) is high because of agriculture (Liu et al., 2022). Further, these Midwest and 552 Atlantic coast soils were relatively enriched with N based on soil C:N ratios (Fig. S3); thus, net 553 nitrification rates and $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ should increase with more available N (Elrys et al., 2021). Because 554 wet and dry deposition has been NH_4^+ -dominated in the U.S. in recent years (Li et al., 2016), N 555 deposition should continue to alleviate NH₄⁺-limitation for nitrifiers, with oxidized forms of 556 deposited N supplying N to plants and microbial heterotrophs, weakening competition with 557 nitrifiers.

558 Site-specific characteristics may partially explain net nitrification rates. For example, our 559 analysis showed that under drier soil conditions, high net N mineralization rates resulted in high 560 net nitrification rates. Conversely, soils with high moisture content and high background mean N 561 deposition supported high net nitrification rates even when net N mineralization rates were low. 562 The source of available NH₄⁺ for nitrifiers may therefore switch from N mineralization to 563 deposition, and vice versa, under changing soil moisture conditions that could reflect site-564 specific edaphic characteristics, such as soil texture. However, our inferences on soil moisture 565 and nitrification rates are limited since soil moisture was excluded from the SEM and given that 566 laboratory incubations were run under field moisture conditions rather than at 65% water holding 567 capacity (Linn & Doran, 1984). Another soil characteristic, soil pH, also interacted with net N 568 mineralization rates to explain net nitrification rates. Nitrification activity is generally more favored in neutral soils since NH3 availability, the substrate for ammonia oxidizers, declines at 569 570 lower pH conditions due to NH_4^+ ionization (Frijlink et al., 1992). While site-specific soil 571 characteristics influence soil microbial activity (Zeglin et. al, 2007) and N access (Keiser et al.,

572 2016) and can explain some variation in nitrification rates across regions, our analysis reveals the 573 dual control of soil C and background N deposition as potential large-scale drivers of $f_{\text{nitrified}}$.

574 The functional assessments of enzyme activity and active microbial biomass that indicate 575 probable soil microbial competition for N when considered together changed in response to 576 increasing background N deposition. At low N deposition, active microbial biomass and net N 577 transformations rates were positively related as expected (García-Ruiz et al., 2008; Hobbie, 578 2015), with the SEM confirming the negative association with active microbial biomass and 579 $f_{\text{nitrified.}}$ However, at intermediate and high N deposition, active microbial biomass and NAG 580 activity correlations with net N transformations unexpectedly turned negative, as well as active 581 microbial biomass insignificantly relating to $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ in the SEM. A recent meta-analysis reports 582 NAG activity is suppressed at N application rates at or exceeding 83 kg N ha⁻¹ y⁻¹ (Jia et al., 583 2020), but our results show NAG activity decreased at the high N deposition level, i.e. at N input 584 rates about an order of magnitude lower than that published threshold. This finding indicates that 585 soil microbial communities are sensitive to external N supplied at rates much lower than those 586 typically applied in N-fertilization studies (Averill et al., 2018), suggesting a low critical N load 587 to alter soil C-N dynamics. Although the reason for this large difference in thresholds is not 588 known, plants and soil microbes take up a small fraction of applied fertilizer-N because their net 589 sink rates are likely saturated (Lovett & Goodale, 2011). In contrast, in most regions of the 590 world, N deposition rates are lower than agricultural fertilization rates and consistent over time, 591 allowing for N accumulation in ecosystems. Future work should discern the quantity of 592 anthropogenic N required to alter competition for N between microbial heterotrophs and 593 nitrifiers and explicitly test microbial competition with measures of gross N transformation rates 594 across ecosystems.

596

Spatiotemporal dynamics of microbial competition for N

597 Despite a reduction in N deposition related to COVID-19 restrictions, there were no 598 major differences in net N transformation rates between 2020 and 2021. Soil C did not control 599 net N transformation rates nor $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ in 2021 at sites with intermediate and high background 600 rates of N deposition, in contrast to H2 (Fig. 1). Instead, it appears that background N deposition 601 was a mediator of the N cycle. Our findings are supported by the few N-cessation field 602 experiments that document soil net N mineralization (Clark et al., 2009; O'Sullivan et al., 2011) 603 and nitrification rates (Stienstra et al., 1994) in previously fertilized treatments remaining higher 604 than rates in unfertilized treatments for at least 10 years. These findings, along with our results, 605 are evidence of microbial functional legacies in which contemporary microbial functions are 606 driven by previous environmental conditions (Crowther et al., 2019; Hawkes et al., 2020; 607 Hawkes & Keitt, 2015), or that high levels of N supply persisted. With higher N availability 608 from past N deposition, the cumulative amount of anthropogenic N, rather than annually 609 supplied N concentration, appears to mutually control $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ along with soil C. Therefore, a 610 short-term dip in N deposition does not decrease net N transformation rates and $f_{\text{nitrified.}}$ 611 Consequently, soil microbial functions may not change in tandem with ongoing declines in N 612 availability across most unmanaged landscapes (Mason et al., 2022; McLauchlan et al., 2017). 613 If background N deposition modifies the influence of soil C on net N transformations, 614 legacies of elevated net N transformation rates and $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ could persist after a decrease in 615 anthropogenic N deposition. The recovery of ecosystem pools and processes from high N 616 availability likely occurs non-linearly and asynchronously (Gilliam et al., 2019) because plants 617 and soil microbes jointly drive this recovery (Nieland & Zeglin, 2024). For example, low C:N

618	ratio in SOM can support high rates of N mineralization after N fertilization ceases
619	(Frankenberger & Abdelmagid, 1985; Manzoni et al., 2008), but lower NH4 ⁺ availability due to
620	immobilization can reduce nitrification rates and $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ within five years after N fertilization
621	stops (Nieland & Zeglin, 2024). Given that dry N deposition rates decreased across 2018-2020, it
622	appears that three years of total dry N decline was not long enough to disrupt the role of
623	background N deposition across North American ecosystems. Plants also retain high
624	concentrations of N in their biomass that later serve as a substrate for N once plant litter turns
625	over (Cotrufo et al., 2015; Lavallee et al., 2020). For example, over longer time scales, early-
626	seral N2-fixing trees can leave legacies of elevated soil N availability that persist for tens to
627	hundreds of years (Perakis et al., 2011; Von Holle et al., 2013). Thus, the effects of high
628	background N deposition on soil C, net N mineralization, and net nitrification relationships may
629	depend on the magnitude and duration of N deposition in combination with ecosystem-specific
630	characteristics, such as plant community composition.

632 *Conclusions and implications*

633 Our measurements of net N transformations, $f_{\text{nitrified}}$, and microbial biomass and function 634 at 39 sites in 14 regions across the contiguous U.S. document that N deposition can disrupt the 635 role of soil C as a gatekeeper of coupled net N transformations. As deposition supplied more N 636 to soil pools, the relationship between net N mineralization and net nitrification rates (*f*_{nitrified}) 637 weakened because heterotrophs and nitrifiers shifted their N source. However, background N 638 deposition rates of previous years, instead of N deposition inputs during the years of observation, 639 controlled soil microbial responses. This finding suggests previous N deposition has a stronger 640 role in the contemporary N cycle than current deposition. While inherent ecosystem properties

641	such as differences in vegetation or soil characteristics affect how ecosystems respond to higher
642	N availability, our findings suggest that background N deposition uniformly disrupts the
643	relationship between soil C and net N transformations across different ecosystems and climates.
644	The cumulative effect of N deposition attenuates how soil C controls coupled net N
645	transformations by decoupling NH4 ⁺ availability from soil N mineralization, which persists even
646	with short-term (1-2 year) dips in deposition. With N deposition generally declining across the
647	U.S. and more widely across the globe, it is unknown how long the historical imprint of N
648	deposition will alter the relationship between soil C and net N transformations and whether this
649	legacy will vary across soil and ecosystem types. In the short-term, predictions of N
650	transformations, N availability and N losses should account for both soil C content and regional
651	N deposition.
(

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Table 1 | The best fitting model explaining net nitrification rates that excludes soil pH and soil
C:N. Background rates of N deposition was included since the model fit improved with its
inclusion (AIC, 188.0 < 193.6 when excluding N deposition). All fixed effects were modeled as
continuous variables. Unstandardized coefficients are reported for estimates.

Parameter	Estimate	t	Р
Net N mineralization rate	1.091	5.41	< 0.001
Soil C	-0.120	-2.31	0.024
Soil moisture	-5.128	-1.87	0.065
Mean historical N deposition	-0.345	-3.02	0.004
Net N mineralization rate \times	-1.666	-3.32	0.001
Soil moisture			
Soil moisture × Mean N	1.04	2.93	0.005
deposition			

- 667 *P*-values less 0.05 are bolded.
- 668 Adjusted $R^2 = 0.379$

- **Table 2** | The best fitting soil characteristics model explaining net nitrification rates. All fixed
- 670 effects were modeled as continuous variables. Unstandardized coefficients are reported for
- 671 estimates.

Parameter	Estimate	t	Р
Net N mineralization rate	0.241	0.38	0.703
Soil C	-0.040	-0.46	0.648
Soil moisture	5.873	3.12	0.003
Soil C:N	0.024	0.68	0.500
Soil pH	0.077	0.51	0.611
Net N mineralization rate × Soil C	0.155	2.56	0.013
Net N mineralization rate × Soil moisture	-1.152	-2.10	0.040
Net N mineralization rate × Soil C:N	-0.075	-3.32	0.002
Net N mineralization rate × Soil pH	0.186	2.86	0.006
Soil C \times Soil moisture	-0.524	-2.34	0.023

- *P*-values less 0.05 are bolded.
- 675 Adjusted $R^2 = 0.719$

676 **Table 3** | The best fitting soil chemistry models. Ecosystem, N deposition (N dep), and climate

Response	Model	F, P
Soil pH	\sim Ecosystem + N dep + Climate	Ecosystem: <i>F</i> _{3, 57} = 30.12, <i>P</i> < 0.001
	$+$ Ecosystem \times N dep $+$	N dep: $F_{2, 57} = 3.41, P = 0.040$
	Ecosystem × Climate	Climate: $F_{1, 57} = 2.95, P = 0.091$
		Ecosystem × N dep: <i>F</i> _{5, 57} = 2.88, <i>P</i> = 0.031
		Ecosystem × Climate: $F_{1, 57} = 6.74, P = 0.012$
Soil C [†]	\sim Ecosystem + N dep +	Ecosystem: <i>F</i> _{3, 59} = 11.38, <i>P</i> < 0.001
	Ecosystem \times N dep	N dep: <i>F</i> _{2, 59} = 4.89, <i>P</i> = 0.011
		Ecosystem × N dep: $F_{4, 59} = 3.63, P = 0.010$
Soil N [†]	\sim Ecosystem + N dep +	Ecosystem: $F_{3, 59} = 3.73, P = 0.016$
	Ecosystem \times N dep	N dep: $F_{2, 59} = 2.86, P = 0.065$
		Ecosystem × N dep: <i>F</i> _{4, 59} = 6.35, <i>P</i> < 0.001
Soil C:N ratio [†]	~ Ecosystem + N dep	Ecosystem: <i>F</i> _{3, 63} = 22.08, <i>P</i> < 0.001
		N dep: $F_{2, 63} = 4.49, P = 0.015$
Soil moisture	~ Ecosystem + Time +	Ecosystem: <i>F</i> _{3, 64} = 9.63, <i>P</i> < 0.001
	Ecosystem × Time	Time: $F_{1, 64} = 47.02, P < 0.001$
		Ecosystem × Time: $F_{3, 64} = 3.29, P = 0.026$

677 fixed effects were all modeled as categorical variables.

- 679 Fixed effects with *P*-values less 0.05 are bolded.
- ⁶⁸⁰ [†]Soil chemistry responses were log-transformed to meet normality assumptions.

681 Figures

682 Fig. 1 | Conceptual model of hypotheses. (Top panel) Under low N deposition (a), net

- 683 nitrification and N mineralization rates are expected to couple $(f_{\text{nitrified}} = 1)$ in low soil C
- 684 conditions due to reduced competition for NH₄⁺ between microbial heterotrophs and nitrifiers. In
- 685 contrast, high soil C facilitates strong competition, resulting in NH₄⁺-limitation for nitrifiers and
- decoupled net nitrification and N mineralization rates ($f_{\text{nitrified}} = 0$). As background N deposition
- 687 increases (b), competition between microbial heterotrophs and nitrifiers for NH₄⁺ weakens as
- 688 nitrifiers can switch their source for NH_4^+ resulting in higher net nitrification rates in high C
- soils. (c) A short-term dip in N deposition because of a COVID-19 response to reduced vehicle
- 690 emissions is predicted to decrease net nitrification rates, lowering $f_{\text{nitrified}}$, particularly for soils

691 with high C content as heterotrophic immobilization increases.

692

Fig. 2 | Distribution of site locations and background total (wet + dry) N deposition. (a) Map of
the contiguous United States showing the 14 regions and average background N deposition rates
from 2013-2017. Shapes of the points correspond to background N deposition classification. (b)
Interannual variability in background total N deposition rates from 2013-2017 across N
deposition class ranks.

- 698
- 699 Fig. 3 | Coupled-decoupled relationships between net N transformations as related to (a) soil C
- and (b) background N deposition rates. Coupled net N transformations align closely to a 1:1
- relationship between net nitrification and N mineralization rates ($f_{\text{nitrified}} = 1$). Decoupled net N
- transformations fall along the horizontal lines ($f_{\text{nitrified}} = 0$). $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ values greater than 1 indicate
- net nitrification rates were greater than net N mineralization rates. (c) The $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ values across

104 low and high soil C environments visualized as boxplots. The number of independent

706

observations is 75 (n = 75).

705

707 Fig. 4 | Correlations between f_{nitrified} and net N mineralization with functional assessments of soil 708 microbial communities. $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ increased with (a) microbial enzymatic investment for C relative 709 to N (BG:NAG ratio), an index of microbial N limitation (n = 74), but decreased with increasing 710 (b) active microbial biomass (n = 78). The $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ correlations were not different among 711 background N deposition classes. (c) The association between net N mineralization and active 712 microbial biomass varied significantly with N deposition (n = 78). Net N mineralization rates 713 correlated significantly with active microbial biomass at low N deposition ($\beta = 0.640$, P =714 0.020), but not at intermediate ($\beta = 0.085$, P = 0.358) or high ($\beta = -0.2878$, P = 0.096) N 715 deposition as indicated by the dotted linear regressions. Line colors correspond to the point 716 colors reflecting background N classification. 717 718 Fig. 5 | The relationship of (a) net nitrification and (b) net N mineralization rates and microbial

ratio, where higher BG:NAG indicates greater microbial investment in C relative to N

acquisition). Each point is the net N transformation rate for each site at a collection time (n = 74).

enzymatic investment for C relative to N (microbial N limitation as indicated by the BG:NAG

The black lines show the correlations between the net N transformations and the microbial N

723 limitation index.

724

719

Fig. 6 | Soil chemistry and microbial functional effects on $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ under (a) low, (b),

intermediate, and (c) high N deposition. Paths in the SEM ($\chi^2 = 3.61$, df = 3, P = 0.307; Fisher's

727	C = 5.12, $df = 6$, $P = 0.529$) include the standardized effect sizes (boxes) under the different N
728	deposition classes with solid lines indicating significant relationships at the $^*P < 0.05$, $^{**}P < 0.01$,
729	and $***P < 0.001$ levels that are sized proportionally to the effect size for the 71 independent
730	observations ($n = 71$). Dotted lines show the insignificant paths for each deposition
731	classification. The correlated error between soil C and N was 0.876. (d) The calculated direct,
732	indirect, and total effects of soil C on $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ at low, intermediate, and high N deposition.
733	
734	Fig. 7 Net N transformation rates in 2020 and 2021 collected at the resampled sites to assess
735	temporal changes resulting from changes in N deposition from the COVID-19 pandemic ($n =$
736	154). (a) Net N mineralization rates were higher in 2021 than 2020 for the Mixed Forest - S. CT
737	site. (b) Net nitrification rates varied significantly between 2020 and 2021 for some collection
738	points for two sites. Points are the mean rates (± 1 standard error) at each time point separated by
739	year. Asterisks above points in (b) indicate statistical differences between years at the time
740	collection at the $*P < 0.01$ and $*P < 0.001$ thresholds.








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750 Fig. 4
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1	Table S1	List of regions	and sites used for	the study.
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Region	Site	# of plots	Ecosystem	Latitude, Longitude†	Mean annual N deposition (kg N ha ⁻¹)	N deposition class	Mean annual precipitation (mm)	Mean annual temperature (°C)	Climate	Dominant vegetation°	Yard management
CA	Annual Grassland	1	Grassland	33°44' N, 117°42' W	6.93	Low	332	19.3	Xeric	Avena fatua, Bromus diandrus	-
	Coastal Sage Scrub	1	Scrub	33°44' N, 117°42' W	6.93	Low	332	19.3	Xeric	Malosma laurina	-
	Yard	2	Yard	33° N, 117° W	5.60	Low	284	18.3	Xeric	Native forbs, grasses, and shrubs	Small amount of fertilization once a year; Limited drip irrigation during dry season
E. MA	Deciduous Forest	2	Deciduous Forest	42°19' N, 71°10' W	8.81	High	1254	10.7	Mesic	Acer rubrum, Betula lenta, Quercus rubra	-
	Mixed Deciduous Forest	2	Deciduous Forest	42°19' N, 71°10' W	6.38	Low	1254	10.7	Mesic	Acer rubrum, Pinus strobus, Quercus rubra	-
FL	Subtropical Pine Forest	1	Coniferous Forest	28°4' N, 82°23' W	7.53	Intermediate	1257	23.6	Mesic	Pinus elliottii, Pinus palustris, Quercus spp.	-
	Subtropical Oak- Palmetto Forest	1	Oak- Palmetto Forest	28°4' N, 82°23' W	7.53	Intermediate	1257	23.6	Mesic	Serenoa repens, Quercus spp.	-
	Yard	1	Yard	28° N, 82° W	7.82	Intermediate	1257	23.6	Mesic	Turfgrass and forbs	No fertilization, irrigation, or pesticide use; Occasional mowing
ID	Palouse Prairie	1	Grassland	46°40' N, 116°58' W	4.58	Low	706	8.0	Xeric	Balsamorhiza sagittate, Festuca idahoensis, Pseudoroegneria spicata	-
	Western Dry	1	Coniferous Forest	46°40' N, 116°58' W	4.58	Low	706	8.0	Xeric	Pinus ponderosa	-

	Coniferous Forest										
	Yard	1	Yard	47° N, 117° W	4.63	Low	706	8.0	Xeric	Turfgrass	No current fertilization, pesticide use, or irrigation, infrequent mowing
MN	Mixed Deciduous Forest	3	Deciduous Forest	45°25' N, 93°11' W	9.86	High	753	6.7	Mesic	Acer rubrum, Quercus ellipsoidalis	-
	Old Field Grassland	3	Grassland	45°25' N, 93°11' W	9.86	High	753	6.7	Mesic	Schizachyrium scoparium	-
	Yard	1	Yard	45° N, 93° W	10.45	High	831	7.1	Mesic	Poa pratensis	No fertilization, occasional irrigation
MT	Semiarid Grassland	3	Grassland	47°4' N, 113°14' W	3.18	Low	549	5.4	Xeric	Native and introduced bunchgrass spp.	-
	Western Dry Coniferous Forest	3	Coniferous Forest	47°4' N, 113°14' W	3.18	Low	549	5.4	Xeric	Pinus ponderosa, Pseudotsuga menziesii	-
N. CT	Mixed Forest	3	Deciduous Forest	41°59' N, 72°7' W	8.02	Intermediate	1275	8.4	Mesic	Acer rubrum, Betula lenta, Pinus strobus, Tsuga canadensis, Quercus rubra	-
	Yard	1	Yard	42° N, 72° W	8.07	Intermediate	1275	8.4	Mesic	Turfgrass, <i>Trifolium</i> spp.	No fertilization or irrigation
NH	Mixed Deciduous Forest	1	Deciduous Forest	43°10' N, 71°13' W	5.65	Low	1176	8.6	Mesic	Acer rubrum, Fagus grandifolia, Pinus spp., Quercus spp.	-
	Yard	1	Yard	43° N, 71° W	5.65	Low	1176	8.6	Mesic	Turfgrass	No fertilization or irrigation; Occasional mowing
NY	Alley Pond	1	Deciduous Forest	40°44' N, 73°44' W	11.67	High	1100	12.4	Mesic	n/a	-
	Bethpage	1	Deciduous Forest	40°45' N, 73°28' W	8.28	Intermediate	972	11.9	Mesic	n/a	-
	Edgewood	1	Scrub	40°46' N, 73°18' W	7.68	Intermediate	972	11.9	Mesic	Pinus rigida, Quercus spp.	-

	Hempstead	1	Deciduous Forest	40°40' N, 73°38' W	8.56	High	1100	12.4	Mesic	n/a	-
	Yard	1	Yard	40° N, 73° W	8.45	Intermediate	972	11.9	Mesic	n/a	No fertilization; Occasional mowing
OH	Blendon	1	Deciduous Forest	40°4' N, 82°52' W	9.90	High	1073	12.2	Mesic	Fagus grandifolia, Quercus alba	-
	Wooster	1	Deciduous Forest	39°59' N, 82°59' W	9.42	High	1134	11.6	Mesic	Carya ovata, Quercus alba	-
	Yard	1	Yard	41° N, 83° W	9.33	High	889	11.2	Mesic	Turfgrass and forbs	No fertilization, irrigation, or pesticide use
OR	Western Wet Coniferous Forest	2	Coniferous Forest	44°37' N, 123°21' W	3.78	Low	1093	11.6	Mesic	Abies grandis, Acer macrophyllum, Pseudotsuga menziesii	-
	Yard	1	Yard	44° N, 123° W	3.78	Low	1093	11.6	Mesic	Turfgrass and forbs	No current fertilization, irrigation, or pesticide use; Occasional mowing
PA	Suburban Forest	3	Deciduous Forest	40°32' N, 79°54' W	10.10	High	1131	10.5	Mesic	Acer spp., Prunus serotina, Quercus spp	-
	Urban Forest	3	Deciduous Forest	40°25' N, 79°56' W	7.77	Intermediate	1031	11.3	Mesic	Acer spp., Liriodendron tulipifera, Quercus spp.	-
	Yard	1	Yard	40° N, 80° W	7.77	Intermediate	1031	10.5	Mesic	Turfgrass, <i>Trifolium</i> repens	No fertilization or irrigation; Infrequent mowing
S. CT	Maple Beech Birch	3	Deciduous Forest	41°20' N, 72°57' W	8.96	High	1280	10.9	Mesic	Acer rubrum <u>,</u> Betula lenta <u>,</u> Fagus grandifolia	
	Oak- Hickory	3	Deciduous Forest	41°20' N, 72°58' W	8.96	High	1280	10.9	Mesic	Carya glabra, Juniperus virginiana, Quercus spp.	
	Yard	1	Yard	41° N, 72° W	8.96	High	1280	10.9	Mesic	Turfgrass	No fertilization or irrigation; Regular

											mowing and maintenance
W. MA	Hardwood	2	Deciduous Forest	42°22'N 72°25'W	7.66	Intermediate	1183	9.0	Mesic	Acer spp., Betula spp., Fagus grandifolia, Quercus spp.	-
	Pine	2	Coniferous Forest	42°22'N 72°25'W	7.66	Intermediate	1183	9.0	Mesic	Picea spp., Pinus spp., Tsuga canadensis	-
	Yard	1	Yard	42° N 72° W	7.66	Intermediate	1183	9.0	Mesic	Turfgrass, <i>Trifolium</i> spp.	No current fertilization or irrigation

[†]Longitude and latitude coordinates for Yard sites are inexact for privacy. °Species listed in alphabetical order.

- 6 **Table S2** | Rationale for model paths for hypothesized structural equation model (SEM) (Fig.
- 7 S2) prior to fitting data to model. We included the hypothesized path of enzymatic C:N
- 8 explained by soil pH to justify its inclusion in the final SEM.
- 9

Response variable	Explanatory variable	Justification
Active microbial	Soil C	Bradford et al., 2008
biomass (SIR)		
Enzymatic C:N	Soil C	Sinsabaugh et al., 2014
	Soil N	Sinsabaugh et al., 2014
	Soil pH	Sinsabaugh et al., 2008
fnitrified	Active microbial	Li et al., 2021
	biomass (SIR)	
	Enzymatic C:N	Vega Anguiano et al., 2024
	Soil pH	Petersen et al., 2012
	Soil moisture (GWC)	Gill et al., 2023
	Soil C	Keiser et al., 2016
	Soil N	Petersen et al., 2012

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43 Table S3 | Model outputs of net N transformations with different soil microbial functional

44 attributes. Bolded lines separate the different models. Values in cells are the *F*-, *P*-values.

45

	Enzymatic C:N ratio	N deposition classification	Interaction
Net nitrification	10.52,	1.61,	0.49,
	0.002	0.207	0.614
Net N mineralization°	5.04,	3.85,	0.33,
	0.028	0.026	0.721
$f_{ m nitrified}$	trified 24.82, < 0.001		0.02, 0.981
	NAG activity	N deposition classification	Interaction
Net nitrification°	4.10,	0.40,	3.21,
	0.047	0.672	0.046
Net N mineralization	0.36,	4.32,	4.12,
	0.551	0.017	0.020
$f_{ m nitrified}$	5.89,	1.15,	5.06,
	0.018	0.321	0.009
	Active microbial biomass (SIR)	N deposition classification	Interaction
Net nitrification	1.35,	0.81,	2.21,
	0.249	0.447	0.118
Net N mineralization	0.17,	4.43,	5.09,
	0.685	0.015	0.009
<i>f</i> nitrified 4.71 , 0.033		0.77, 0.469	2.30, 0.107

46

47 ° Yeo-Johnson-transformation

48 Fixed effects with *P*-values less 0.05 are bolded.

50 Table S4 | Model outputs of net N transformations to test for differences between years 2020 and

51 2021. Values in cells are the *F*-, *P*-values.

52			·					
		Site (S)	Time (T)	Year (Y)	$S \times T$	$S \times Y$	$T \times Y$	$S \times T \times Y$
	Net N	2.04,	0.84,	3.23,	1.30,	4.65,	0.78,	1.11,
	mineralization	0.127	0.475	0.076	0.207	< 0.001	0.509	0.356
	Net	60.22,	7.11,	16.67,	2.03,	2.99,	2.40,	1.85,
	nitrification°	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.016	0.011	0.073	0.040

53

° Yeo-Johnson-transformation 54

Fixed effects with *P*-values less 0.05 are bolded. 55

57 Figure S1 | The CASTNET stations surveyed for dry N deposition rates from 2013-2021. Shapes

58 of the points correspond to background N deposition classification at low (circles), intermediate

59 (squares), and high (triangles). Names of the CASTNET station are the following: JOT403,

60 Joshua Tree NP; GLR468, Glacier NP; IRL141, Indian River Lagoon; LRL117, Laurel Hill;

61 PRK134, Perkinstown; and QAK172, Quaker City.

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- **Figure S2** | Hypothesized structural equation model designed *a priori* before fitting data. See Table S2 for justifications of paths.



- 69 Figure S3 | Cumulative dry N deposition for six CASTNET stations across the United States
- 70 categorized based on N deposition class ranks. Line colors correspond to year. Shaded areas for
- 71 the 2013-2017 average are the 95% confidence interval. Locations of CASTNET stations with
- the U.S. are found in Fig. S1. Names of the CASTNET station are the following: JOT403,
- 73 Joshua Tree NP; GLR468, Glacier NP; IRL141, Indian River Lagoon; LRL117, Laurel Hill;
- 74 PRK134, Perkinstown; and QAK172, Quaker City.
- 75



- Figure S4 | Interactions between net N mineralization rates and (a) soil C:N ratio, (b) soil pH, 77
- 78 and (c) soil moisture for the best fitting soil characteristics model to explain net nitrification rates
- 79 (model in Table 2). Each line corresponds to the first quartile, mean, and third quartile of the soil
- 80 chemistry variable. Values of the soil chemistry variables are listed adjacent to lines in the legends.
- 81
- 82


- 84 Figure S5 | Responses of (a) soil pH, (b) soil %C, (c) soil %N, and (d) soil C:N to background N
- 85 deposition, split by different ecosystems (n = 69). Each point is the soil chemistry parameter for
- 86 a site at each collection time. Letters within an ecosystem type denote post-hoc differences at P < 0.05
- 87 0.05 among background N deposition classes.





- 91 Figure S6 | The relationship of (a) net nitrification, (b) net N mineralization, and (c) $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ with
- 92 log NAG activity. Each point is the net N transformation rate or $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ for each site at a
- 93 collection time colored (n = 78). Line colors correspond to background N deposition
- 94 classification, showing the significant (solid) or insignificant (dotted) correlations between the
- 95 N-cycling metrics and NAG activity.
- 96

