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Nitrogen Deposition Weakens Soil Carbon Control of Nitrogen Dynamics Across the Contiguous United States

Permalink <https://escholarship.org/uc/item/75v4t3fx>

Journal Global Change Biology, 30(12)

ISSN 1354-1013

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Publication Date

2024-12-01

DOI

10.1111/gcb.70016

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- **Key words:** air quality, coupled carbon-nitrogen, COVID-19, net nitrogen mineralization, net
- nitrification, extracellular enzyme activity

Abstract

 Anthropogenic nitrogen (N) deposition is unequally distributed across space and time, with 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 ($f_{nitrified}$), affecting N bioavailability for plants and microbes. However, it is unknown whether N deposition has modified the relationships between soil C, net N mineralization, and net nitrification. To test whether N deposition alters the relationship between soil C and net N transformations, we collected soils from coniferous and deciduous forests, grasslands, and residential yards in 14 regions across the contiguous U.S. that vary in N deposition rates. We quantified rates of net nitrification and N mineralization, soil chemistry (soil C, N, and pH), and 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 $f_{nitrified}$ across 59 regions, whereby increasing soil C resulted in a decline in net nitrification and $f_{nitrified}$. The f_{nitrified} value increased with lower microbial enzymatic investment in N acquisition (increasing BG:NAG ratio) and lower active microbial biomass, providing some evidence that heterotrophic microbial N demand controls the ammonium pool for nitrifiers. However, higher total N 63 deposition increased $f_{nitrified}$, including for high soil C sites predicted to have low $f_{nitrified}$, which 64 decreased the role of soil C as a predictor of $f_{\text{nitrified}}$. Notably, the drop in contemporary 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 explained by weaker microbial competition for N. Therefore, past N inputs and soil C should be used together to predict N dynamics across terrestrial ecosystems.

Introduction

The rise in agricultural production and fossil fuel combustion during the $20th$ century increased nitrogen (N) emissions and, consequently, atmospheric N deposition to terrestrial ecosystems across the globe (Fixen & West, 2002; Gruber & Galloway, 2008). This deposition 74 caused widespread negative environmental impacts, including elevated nitrate $(NO₃.)$ leaching 75 and nitrous oxide (N_2O) emissions (Schlesinger, 2009; Vitousek et al., 1997). As such, 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), 78 reducing inorganic N deposition by 0.11 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in the eastern U.S. during this period (Ackerman et al., 2019). Although inorganic N deposition rose 8% globally from 1984 to 2016, 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 $CO₂$ concentrations, can reduce N availability for plants and soil microbes (Garten et al., 2011; Norby et al., 2010; Olff et al., 2022), with emerging evidence suggesting unmanaged ecosystems worldwide are returning to N-limited states (Mason et al., 2022; McLauchlan et al., 2017). The long-term decline in reactive N deposition likely affects ecosystem functions, including decomposition and nitrification. Yet, much remains to be discovered about the variable effects of N deposition across space and time on the microbially-mediated N cycle and its relationship with 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

 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,

 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

Methods

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.

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

 Samples were collected by taking the top 10 cm of mineral soil with a trowel to fill approximately a quart-size (0.95 L) sterile bag four times at each site in 2020. These collection times were selected to correspond with changes in national activity due to COVID-19 restrictions in 2020 (with increasing human activity across time): April (stay-at-home), May (partial reopening), June, and August. Each sample was split in half with one sub-sample immediately 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 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 deposition rates. Because some sites included replicated plots, samples from plot replicates were 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.

Atmospheric nitrogen deposition estimates

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

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 NH $_4$ ⁺ deposition was also calculated for each site. The decline in human activity from the COVID-19 pandemic presented unique challenges to quantifying real-time wet N deposition declines because many NTN stations were closed during this time. Therefore, we used the automated United States Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) Clean Air Status and Trends Network (CASTNET) (https://epa.gov/castnet/) to gather particulate (dry) N deposition data since CASTNET stations were not disrupted during the lockdown period of spring 2020. We extracted weekly CASTNET dry N concentration data from 2013-2021 on February 14, 2024, from six stations. These stations were selected because of their proximity to sampling locations and variation in total background N deposition rates (Fig. S1). With the CASTNET data, we first calculated dry N deposition flux using deposition velocities reported in Holland et al. (2005) and then added the fluxes to report annual cumulative dry N deposition. As with total N deposition, 2013-2017 served as 246 background years to calculate the 95% confidence interval for dry N deposition. Dry N 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 \pm 250 standard deviation) 10.4 \pm 2.2% in northern Montana to 61.7 \pm 4.9% in southern California (overall mean: 22.4%). Thus, we are somewhat limited in our inference about the potential change in total N deposition during the early part of the COVID-19 pandemic due to missing wet 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).

Soil chemistry

 Air-dried soils were sieved to 2 mm and then pulverized using a CertiPrep 8000-D Mixer mill (Spex, Mutuchen, NJ, USA), and total C and N from two milled analytical replicates were 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 were transformed to molar quantities to calculate soil C:N ratios. A portion of the frozen soil was thawed and sieved to 2 mm, and the pH was measured in a 1:2 volumetric ratio of soil and deionized water (Allen, 1974). Soil moisture was measured as gravimetric water content (GWC), quantified by drying soils for 24 h at 105ºC (Bradford et al., 2008).

Soil microbial carbon and nitrogen cycling

 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 dry-equivalent soil were added to 50 mL of 2 M KCl and shaken vigorously by hand (day 0) (Keiser et al., 2016; Robertson et al., 1999). Another 10 g dry-equivalent soil were incubated at 20 °C in the dark for 28 days and checked weekly to maintain soil moisture at gravimetric moisture from field collection. At day 28, the soil was extracted in 50 mL of 2 M KCl and 276 shaken. Inorganic N concentrations (NH_4^+ -N and NO_3^- -N) were quantified

 spectrophotometrically with a BioTek Synergy HTX Multimode Reader (Agilent, Santa Clara, CA, USA) using a modified salicylate assay and vanadium (III) assay, respectively (Hood- 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 $NO₃$ -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 285 for 1 h at 100 rpm inside capped, 50 mL tubes with 2 replicates per sample (Anderson $\&$ 286 Domsch, 1978; Bradford, Fierer, et al., 2008). After a 4 h incubation, $CO₂-C$ in the headspace 287 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 (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 replicates for each enzyme per sample and included MUB curves, substrate controls, and soil 293 homogenate controls. Prior to these assays, K_m tests for each site were performed to determine 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 HTX Multimode Reader. To evaluate microbial enzymatic investment for labile C and N, we 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,

2012).

Statistical analysis

 All statistical analyses were done in R V4.3.3 (R Core Team, 2024) using *tidyverse* to handle and visualize data (Wickham et al., 2019). We used linear mixed effects (LME) models 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⁺ deposition from 2013-2017 were different among the low, intermediate, and high deposition 307 ranks. We then assessed whether total N and wet NH_4^+ deposition decreased from 2013-2017 by using LME models that included N deposition rank (low, intermediate, and high N deposition) and years as interacting fixed effects with sites being random effects to account for repeating measurements using packages *lme4* and *lmerTest* (Bates et al., 2015; Kuznetsova et al., 2017). We used stepwise modeling to identify linear models that describe net nitrification rates and test H1. Following the Keiser et al. (2016) and Gill et al. (2023) approach, we used model selection among known drivers of nitrification to isolate the best model that describes nitrification, first excluding and then including background N deposition. The first model selection exercise tested for the best model using predictors identified by Keiser et al. (2016) and tested at a continental scale by Gill et al. (2023): net N mineralization rates, soil C, and GWC as interacting explanatory variables. Using Akaike information criterion (AIC) from the R package *MASS* to remove variables (Venables & Ripley, 2002), the best fit model included net N mineralization rate, soil C, soil moisture, and the interaction of N mineralization rate and soil 320 moisture as predictive variables for net nitrification rates (Adjusted $R^2 = 0.313$, $P < 0.001$, AIC = 193.6)*.* The second model selection exercise included background (2013-2017) total N 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 324 NH_4^+ , was used because it accounts for other deposited N species that can influence plant- microbe 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 327 exercise (AIC = 188.0, $P = 0.013$); thus, we report results from the second model.

 Additional models were implemented to test H1. Because other soil characteristics can influence nitrification (Keiser et al., 2016), we designed a separate linear model using the stepwise approach to test the effects of net N mineralization, soil moisture, soil pH, soil C, soil C:N, and their interactions on net nitrification rates, which were visualized using the *interactions* R package (Long, 2019). Soil N was excluded due to its collinearity with soil C. Moreover, we 333 used linear models to test if $f_{nitrified}$ was different between soils with low C and high C and among ecosystem types, including their interaction. We further tested H1 by assessing whether 335 net nitrification and N mineralization rates and $f_{nitrified}$ were related to soil microbial functions. 336 To do this, we used linear models of net nitrification, net N mineralization, and $f_{nitrified}$ that separately tested active microbial biomass, log(NAG), and microbial enzymatic C:N investment 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 ƒnitrified. We first designed model paths *a priori* from existing literature (Fig. S2, Table S2) and added linear models into an SEM using the *piecewiseSEM* 343 package (Lefcheck, 2016). We then checked the fit of the SEM using χ^2 and Fisher's C statistics 344 which showed that the data fit poorly to the SEM ($\chi^2 = 25.37$, df = 6, *P* < 0.001; Fisher's C = 345 28.74, $df = 12$, $P = 0.004$). A d-separation test (Shipley, 2013) indicated that adding a path

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

emmeans (Lenth, 2023). Significance was set at α ≤ 0.05.

Results

Nitrogen deposition

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

 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 $f_{nitrified} = 1$ (Fig. 3a). Indeed, ƒnitrified 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 soils, among which net N mineralization rates varied widely, indicating that the net N transformations were highly or entirely decoupled from one another in these soils. Yet, net 398 nitrification and N mineralization rates did not always decouple at high soil C sites, with $f_{nitrified}$ varying between 0 and 1 (Fig. 3a). The best fit model from the model selection exercises 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, 402 $P = 0.024$), and soil moisture ($t = -1.87$, $P = 0.065$; Adjusted $R^2 = 0.379$). Net nitrification rates were negatively related to soil C as expected (Table 1). Under low soil moisture content, soils 404 with higher net N mineralization rates resulted in higher net nitrification rates $(t = -3.32, P =$ 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 ($t = 2.93$, $P =$ 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 410 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

 moisture (Fig. S4). However, at any given net N mineralization rate, soils with lower C:N ratios (i.e., more N relative to C) or higher pH had higher net nitrification rates (Fig. S4).

Soil chemistry

417 Background N deposition classification was identified as a significant predictor for soil pH, total C and N, and soil C:N (Table 3), soil characteristics that also predicted net nitrification rates (Table 2). Except in the case of the soil C:N ratio, N deposition classification also interacted significantly with ecosystem type to explain soil chemistry variation (Table 3). Soil C and N concentrations decreased across increasing N deposition classes for coniferous forests and grasslands by an average 59% and 60%, respectively (Fig. S5; all *P* < 0.05) but did not change 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 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 \pm 0.5 in high N deposition sites (Fig. S5; $P \le 0.013$). In contrast to other soil properties, soil moisture was best explained by ecosystem type and time, reflecting that soils were wetter at the 430 first collection than the fourth collection $(F_{1, 64} = 47.02, P \lt 0.001)$ and that deciduous forests had the highest soil moisture content at the first collection (all *P* < 0.05). Climate only emerged as a predictor for the soil pH, albeit insignificantly (Table 3).

Soil microbial functions

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_{nitified} 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 $f_{nitrified}$ and its predictors generally declined and became 461 insignificant (Fig 6a-c). The direct effect of soil C on $f_{nitrified}$ was significantly negative while 462 N concentration effects were significantly positive at low N deposition (Fig. 6a). However, soil 463 C was not significantly associated with $f_{nitrified}$ at intermediate and high N deposition, with only 464 soil pH being positively related to $f_{nitrified}$ at intermediate N deposition. Collectively, the total 465 (direct + indirect) effect of soil C on $f_{nitrified}$ 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 $f_{nitrificed}$ 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 \pm 0.11) 479 than 2020 (0.02 \pm 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 \pm 0.74)

481 compared to 2020 (0.77 \pm 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 $f_{\text{nitrified}}$.

Discussion

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

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

 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.

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

523 The negative relationship between active microbial biomass and $f_{nitrified}$ further supports the idea that competition between microbial heterotrophs and nitrifiers may drive the relationship 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 $f_{nitrified}$ 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 NH_4^+ .

538

539 *Nitrogen deposition modifies net N transformation dynamics*

540 Background rates of N deposition partially explained net nitrification rates and $f_{nitrified}$, 541 with $f_{nitrified} increasing under high background N deposition in high soil C, supporting H1 that N$ 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_{nitified} in addition to soil C. Many of the high soil C 546 sites that deviated from their predicted decoupled net nitrification-N mineralization relationship 547 (i.e., $f_{nitrified} = 0$) had intermediate or high background N deposition. Moreover, the total effect of 548 soil C on $f_{nitrified}$ diminished as background N deposition increased. These findings could explain

 why some high soil C ecosystems reported in Gill et al. (2023) had coupled net N transformations, particularly for the Midwest and Atlantic coast sites where dry deposition of ammonia (NH3) is high because of agriculture (Liu et al., 2022). Further, these Midwest and Atlantic coast soils were relatively enriched with N based on soil C:N ratios (Fig. S3); thus, net 553 nitrification rates and $f_{nitrified}$ 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 deposition should continue to alleviate NH₄⁺-limitation for nitrifiers, with oxidized forms of deposited N supplying N to plants and microbial heterotrophs, weakening competition with nitrifiers.

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

 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 $f_{nitrified}$.

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

Spatiotemporal dynamics of microbial competition for N

Conclusions and implications

633 Our measurements of net N transformations, $f_{\text{nitrified}}$, and microbial biomass and function at 39 sites in 14 regions across the contiguous U.S. document that N deposition can disrupt the 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 ($f_{nitrified}$) weakened because heterotrophs and nitrifiers shifted their N source. However, background N deposition rates of previous years, instead of N deposition inputs during the years of observation, controlled soil microbial responses. This finding suggests previous N deposition has a stronger role in the contemporary N cycle than current deposition. While inherent ecosystem properties

Acknowledgements

We thank Cameron Chin, Gabriella Griffen, and Sabrina Sprague for laboratory assistance. We

also thank the Stable Isotope Ecology Laboratory at the University of Georgia and personnel for

soil C and N data. This work was supported by the University of Massachusetts Amherst.

Authors were supported by National Science Foundation awards (DEB-1831944 for SEH, EAR-

2045135 for SSP, and 1845417 for MSS) and Department of Energy Office of Biological and

Environmental Research (DE-SC0020382 for SDA). Any use of trade, firm, or product names is

for descriptive purposes only and does not imply endorsement by the US Government.

661 **Table 1 |** The best fitting model explaining net nitrification rates that excludes soil pH and soil

662 C:N. Background rates of N deposition was included since the model fit improved with its

663 inclusion (AIC, 188.0 < 193.6 when excluding N deposition). All fixed effects were modeled as

664 continuous variables. Unstandardized coefficients are reported for estimates.

665

- 667 *P*-values less 0.05 are bolded.
- 668 Adjusted $R^2 = 0.379$
- 669 **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.
- 672

- 674 *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

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 NH_4^+ between microbial heterotrophs and nitrifiers. In
- 685 contrast, high soil C facilitates strong competition, resulting in NH₄+-limitation for nitrifiers and
- 686 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
- 689 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 $f_{nitrified}$, 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

700 and (b) background N deposition rates. Coupled net N transformations align closely to a 1:1

- 701 relationship between net nitrification and N mineralization rates ($f_{\text{nitified}} = 1$). Decoupled net N
- 702 transformations fall along the horizontal lines ($f_{\text{nitrified}} = 0$). $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ values greater than 1 indicate
- 703 net nitrification rates were greater than net N mineralization rates. (c) The $f_{nitrified}$ values across

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

observations is 75 (*n* = 75).

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

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

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

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

limitation index.

Fig. 6 | Soil chemistry and microbial functional effects on ƒnitrified under (a) low, (b),

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


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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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[†] Longitude and latitude coordinates for Yard sites are inexact for privacy.

5 °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.
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Table S3 | Model outputs of net N transformations with different soil microbial functional attributes. Bolded lines separate the different models. Values in cells are the *F*-, *P*-values.

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

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47 **°** Yeo-Johnson-transformation

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

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54 **°** Yeo-Johnson-transformation

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

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

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

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

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

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.

- **Figure S3 |** Cumulative dry N deposition for six CASTNET stations across the United States
- categorized based on N deposition class ranks. Line colors correspond to year. Shaded areas for
- 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,
- Joshua Tree NP; GLR468, Glacier NP; IRL141, Indian River Lagoon; LRL117, Laurel Hill;
- PRK134, Perkinstown; and QAK172, Quaker City.
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- **Figure S4 |** Interactions between net N mineralization rates and (a) soil C:N ratio, (b) soil pH,
- and (c) soil moisture for the best fitting soil characteristics model to explain net nitrification rates
- (model in Table 2). Each line corresponds to the first quartile, mean, and third quartile of the soil
- chemistry variable. Values of the soil chemistry variables are listed adjacent to lines in the
- legends.
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- **Figure S5 |** Responses of (a) soil pH, (b) soil %C, (c) soil %N, and (d) soil C:N to background N
- deposition, split by different ecosystems (*n* = 69). Each point is the soil chemistry parameter for
- a site at each collection time. Letters within an ecosystem type denote post-hoc differences at *P* < 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 $\log NAG$ activity. Each point is the net N transformation rate or $f_{\text{nitrified}}$ for each site at a

 \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 N-cycling metrics and NAG activity.

- N-cycling metrics and NAG activity.
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