1 Measuring ecosystem nitrogen status: a comparison of proxies

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6 organic nitrogen

7

8 Abstract. There are many proxies used to measure nitrogen (N) availability in watersheds, but 9 the degree to which they do (or do not) correlate within a watershed has not been systematically 10 addressed. We surveyed the literature for intact forest or grassland watersheds globally, in which several metrics of nitrogen availability have been measured. Our metrics included: foliar $\delta^{15}N$, 11 soil δ^{15} N, net nitrification, net N mineralization, and the ratio of dissolved inorganic to organic 12 13 nitrogen (DIN:DON) in soil solution and streams. We were particularly interested in whether 14 terrestrial and stream based proxies for N availability were correlated where they were measured 15 in the same place. Not surprisingly, the strongest correlation (Kendall's tau) was between net 16 nitrification and N mineralization ($\tau=0.71$, p<0.0001). Net nitrification and N mineralization were each correlated with foliar and soil δ^{15} N (*p*<0.05). Foliar and soil δ^{15} N were more tightly 17 18 correlated in tropical sites ($\tau=0.68$, p<0.0001), than in temperate sites ($\tau=0.23$, p=0.02). The only 19 significant correlations between terrestrial- and water-based metrics were those of net nitrification (τ =0.48, p=0.01) and N mineralization (τ =0.69, p=0.0001) with stream DIN:DON. 20 21 The relationship between stream DIN:DON with both net nitrification and N mineralization was 22 significant only in temperate, but not tropical regions. To our surprise, we did not find a significant correlation between soil δ^{15} N and stream DIN:DON, despite the fact that both have 23

- been used to infer spatially or temporally integrated N status. Given that both soil δ^{15} N and
- stream DIN:DON are used to infer long-term N status, their lack of correlation in watersheds
- 26 merits further investigation.

27 1.0 Introduction

28 Nitrogen (N) limitation to primary production is widespread in both terrestrial and 29 aquatic ecosystems, and variation in N availability drives differences in ecosystem properties 30 across space and time (Vitousek and Howarth, 1991; Elser et al., 2007; LeBauer and Treseder, 31 2008). Yet quantifying N availability over timescales that are relevant to ecosystems is non-32 trivial. Short timescale measurements of N availability in soil are common (e.g. inorganic N 33 pools, N mineralization and nitrification rates; Binkley and Hart, 1989; Sparks et al., 1996), but 34 such short-term proxies are influenced by both short and long-term drivers, and thus it is difficult 35 to know whether short-term proxies can be used to infer N status (i.e. the relative abundance of 36 plant available N) over long timescales in relatively undisturbed ecosystems. For example, 37 measured net mineralization and nitrification rates in arctic tundra are commonly less than 38 annual rates of plant uptake (Schimel et al., 1996; Schmidt et al., 1999), and annual N budgets 39 based on short-term measurements are difficult to balance (e.g. Magill et al., 1997). While long-40 term N status is relevant to many ecosystem properties and their responses to global change, it is 41 more difficult to measure.

Land-based investigations of N cycling commonly measure soil extractable N, N
mineralization, and nitrification, which give a snapshot of N status over minutes to days (Binkley
and Hart, 1989; Robertson et al., 1999). Some researchers also use lysimeters to quantify
dissolved N losses from below the rooting zone (Hedin et al., 2003; McDowell et al., 2004;
Lohse and Matson, 2005) on a similar timescale. Repeated measurements give longer timescale
information, but even the longest studies are short relative to ecosystem development.
In addition to these short-term proxies, there are two relatively common measurements of

49 available N that are thought to average over space and/or time. The first is the ratio of dissolved

50 inorganic (DIN) to organic (DON) N concentration lost from ecosystems. Losses of DIN are 51 considered controllable by biota, and thus should be low if soil N is in short supply. In contrast, 52 most DON is not accessible to plants, and thus represents a loss beyond biotic control (Hedin et 53 al., 1995; Figure 1). Thus low DIN:DON in streams has been used to infer relative N-poverty in 54 watersheds (e.g. McDowell and Asbury, 1994; Perakis and Hedin, 2002; Brookshire et al., 2012). 55 The few sites where such measurements have been made over decades (e.g. the Luquillo 56 Mountains of Puerto Rico, Harvard Forest in Massachusetts, Hubbard Brook LTER in New 57 Hampshire; McDowell et al., 1992, McDowell et al., 2004, Bormann and Likens 2012) suggest 58 stream DIN:DON is not particularly variable over this timescale, and thus this metric may 59 integrate N availability over time as well as space (W.C. McDowell, pers. comm.). It is common 60 for researchers measuring stream DIN:DON to infer ecosystem N status implicitly and to assume 61 that a few measurements are indicative of longer-term patterns (e.g. Perakis and Hedin, 2002; 62 Brookshire et al., 2012).

In contrast to stream DIN:DON, soil δ^{15} N integrates soil N availability solely over time, 63 64 and at steady state reflects the isotopic signature associated inputs (N fixation and/or deposition) 65 and fractionation associated with outputs (Handley and Raven, 1992). The major N loss 66 pathways (primarily denitrification, and to a lesser extent nitrate leaching) discriminate against ¹⁵N, which thus remains in relative abundance in N-rich soils (Hogburg, 1997; Martinelli et al., 67 68 1999; Craine et al., 2009; Houlton and Bai, 2009, Craine et al., 2015; Figure 1). To some degree foliar δ^{15} N reflects soil δ^{15} N (Amundson et al., 2003), but there can be fractionation during 69 70 nitrification, between bulk and soil solution N pools (Hogburg, 1997), during N uptake and 71 assimilation by mychorrhizae and plant tissue (Hobbie et al., 2009; Dawson et al. 2002), and even during xylem transport (Soper et al., 2015). For this reason, foliar δ^{15} N may display greater 72

variability between species in a single site than the bulk soil δ^{15} N (Vitousek et al., 1989;

74 Nadlehoffer et al., 1996).

75 Given that proxies for N availability function over different spatial and temporal scales, 76 we asked which proxies correlate in watersheds where several measurements have been made in 77 the same place and at roughly the same time. We were particularly interested in whether short-78 timescale measurements (nitrification, mineralization) correlated with the more temporally (foliar and soil δ^{15} N) and spatially (stream DIN:DON) integrated proxies. Unlike previous 79 80 reviews (Sudduth et al., 2013) we focus solely on unmanaged systems where we were able to 81 compare plant, soil, soil solution and stream proxies. This review assesses the relatinships between common foliar, surface soil (i.e. δ^{15} N, nitrification and mineralization), and nutrient loss 82 83 (i.e. soil solution and stream N concentrations) metrics of N availability from unmanaged ecosystems globally (Figure 2). 84

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86 **2.0 Methods**

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88 **2.1 Literature Review**

We surveyed the literature (through 2012) and contacted individual investigators to gather data from forested and grassland watersheds where more than one proxy of long-term N availability had been measured. We focused on the most commonly-used proxies for N status: foliar (n=78) and surface soil δ^{15} N (n=104; <20 cm depth), net nitrification rates (n=86; <20 cm depth), net N mineralization rates (n=88; <20 cm depth), the ratio of dissolved inorganic to organic N forms (DIN:DON) in soil solution below the rooting zone (n=43; >20 cm depth), and stream DIN:DON (n=32). We chose these metrics because 1) other authors have suggested that

96	they are indicative of soil nutrient status (Martinelli et al., 1999, Amundson et al., 2001,
97	Brookshire et al., 2012; Figure 1), and 2) they are thought to integrate N fluxes on different
98	timescales (e.g. soil δ^{15} N integrates N losses over decades while net N mineralization rates
99	integrate inorganic N production over days; Binkley and Hart, 1989, Hogburg 1997).
100	We used the search engines Web of Science and Google Scholar and searched key words:
101	"nitrogen", "15N", "natural abundance", "mineralization", and "dissolved organic nitrogen",
102	"watershed name". References in papers that resulted from the keyword search were then used to
103	gather additional data. We limited our search criteria to studies that took place in forest or
104	grassland ecosystems that had not incurred any large disturbances that might impair their
105	function.
106	We collected data from 154 watersheds across a broad climatic range (Figure 2), in which
107	at least two of the six N proxies of interest had been measured (see Supplemental Data). We used
108	DataThief II software (version 1.2.1) to extract data from figures when data were not available in
109	text or tables. When necessary, data were converted to standardize units.
110	From each paper we collected the following site description data: country, site,
111	watershed, biome, ecosystem type, latitude, longitude, elevation (m), mean annual temperature
112	(MAT; °C), mean annual precipitation (MAP; mm yr ⁻¹), N deposition rate (kg N ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹), soil
113	depth (cm), soil solution (lysimeter) depth (cm), and N mineralization method. Site description
114	data were gathered from other sources when they were not in the original publication.
115	In order to control for methodological differences, we limited our net nitrification and N
116	mineralization data to those which used intact soil core, buried bag, and laboratory incubations of
117	unamended soils (Boone, 1992; Piccolo et al., 1994), and eliminated studies using methods such
118	as ion resin exchange beads or ¹⁵ N tracer techniques (Binkley et al., 1986; Hart and Firestone,

119 1989; Davidson et al., 1991; Templer et al., 2008). We did not limit net nitrification and N
mineralization data based on the length of the incubation, as there is little change in rates
between 1-7 days (Tietema et al., 1998), however we recognize that longer incubations may
result in lower net rates. Soil data from mineral soil horizon only were used, and were
preferentially collected in the 0-10 cm range, however if soil samples were not in 10 cm
increments, we selected the increment that was most similar (e.g. A horizon, 0-5 cm, 0-15 cm),
and no deeper than 20 cm.

126 When data were missing, or we were uncertain about location or collection method, we 127 contacted the authors to request unpublished data, elucidation of data collection, data reduction, 128 or soil samples. Terrestrial metrics were typically gathered from different papers than that of 129 water-based metrics, requiring validation of congruent watershed location. For five watersheds, 130 including Puerto Rico's Pared, Sonadora, Bisley, Tronoja watersheds and Hubbard Brook's watershed 6, we collected soil that we analyzed for δ^{15} N. In Puerto Rico, we collected five 131 132 mineral soil samples (0-10 cm) using an open side soil sampler from locations that were >3 m 133 away from the stream. Replicate samples were combined in a Ziploc bag, air-dried and shipped 134 to the Marine Biological Laboratory for analysis. Colleagues at Hubbard Brook collected three 135 replicate B horizon samples for us from several soil pits dug across an elevation gradient in 136 watershed 6 (Christopher Neill, pers. comm.), which were air-dried at the Marine Biological 137 Laboratory prior to analysis.

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139 2.2 Soil Sample Analysis

140 The soils we analyzed in house for δ^{15} N were homogenized, sieved (2 mm) and ground 141 using a mortar and pestle. We analyzed samples at the Marine Biological Laboratory Ecosystem

142 Center Stable Isotope Laboratory for δ^{15} N using a Europa 20-20 continuous-flow isotope ratio 143 mass spectrometer interfaced with a Europa ANCA-SL elemental analyzer. The analytical 144 precision based on replicate analyses of δ^{15} N of isotopically homogeneous international 145 standards was ± 0.1 ‰.

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147 **2.3 Statistics**

148 Five of our six variables were not normally distributed, so we used a non-parametric 149 Kendall tau rank test in R (version 2.11.1), to determine the significance of all potential 150 correlations. Kendall's tau evaluates the degree of similarity between two sets of ranked data and 151 generates a smaller co-efficient as the number of discordant pairs between two ranking lists 152 becomes greater (Abdi 2007). The Kendall tau rank test is well suited for these comparisons as it 153 is not sensitive to missing data and outliers, it measures both linear and non-linear correlations, 154 and generates a more accurate p-value with small sample sizes (Helsel and Hirsch, 1992; Raike 155 et al., 2003). We corrected for multiple comparisons by reporting Bonferroni adjusted p-values 156 for each of our 15 comparisons (Bland and Altman, 1995). We used the watershed as our 157 experimental unit. When multiple data were available for a single site, we calculated an 158 unweighted mean for the watershed. We removed a single stream DIN:DON value from Cascade 159 Head, Oregon, as it was ~20 times higher than the mean of all other stream values (Compton et 160 al., 2003); however removing this outlier had little effect on the relationships examined.

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162 **3.0 Results**

163 All terrestrial-based proxies that integrate across long and short timescales were 164 significantly correlated with each other. Soil δ^{15} N was positively correlated with both net

165 nitrification (n=60, τ =0.37, p<0.0001) and N mineralization (n=64, τ =0.41, p<0.0001). Foliar

166 δ^{15} N was also positively correlated with net nitrification (n=43, τ =0.49, p<0.0001), and N

167 mineralization (n=46, τ =0.34, p=0.001; Figure 2).

168 Not surprisingly, we found significant correlations between terrestrial-based proxies that 169 measure nutrient availability on similar timescales. Foliar δ^{15} N was positively correlated with

soil δ^{15} N (n=78, τ =0.40, p<0.0001). There was also a positive correlation between net

171 nitrification and N mineralization (n=88, τ =0.71, p<0.0001; Figure 3).

Despite the correlation between all terrestrial-based measurements of N availability, terrestrial metrics did not exhibit similarly robust relationships with water-based proxies. No metric was significantly correlated with soil solution DIN:DON (n=53, p>0.05). Net nitrification (n=15, τ =0.48, p=0.01) and N mineralization (n=17, τ =0.69, p=0.0001) were the only metrics to correlate with stream DIN:DON. Soil solution and stream DIN:DON data were not correlated (Figure 3). All of the data in Figure 3, and their original sources, are available in Supplemental Table 1.

The lack of relationship between water-based and terrestrial-based metrics lead us to ask questions about variability of soil solution and stream DIN:DON across environmental gradients. We found that neither soil solution or stream DIN:DON were correlated with mean annual temperature, precipitation, elevation or N deposition (p>0.05). To our surprise, solution DIN:DON was not correlated with lysimeter depth (p>0.05).

Some relationships between proxies differed with latitude. Soil and foliar δ^{15} N were more tightly correlated in the tropics (n=24, τ =0.68, p<0.0001) than in the temperate zone (n=49, τ =0.23, p=0.02). Soil δ^{15} N was correlated with net nitrification in tropical (n=17, τ =0.39, p=0.03), but not temperate regions. Conversely, soil δ^{15} N was correlated with net N mineralization (n=44, τ =0.34, p=0.001) in temperate but not tropical areas. Stream DIN:DON was correlated with net nitrification (n=10, τ =0.63, p=0.01) and N mineralization (n=10, τ =0.78, p=0.002) in the temperate zone, and not in the tropics (n=4, p>0.05). Because we only found multiple proxies measured at eleven boreal sites, this limited our ability to compare correlated data in boreal regions with correlations in temperate or tropical areas.

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194 4.0 Discussion

195 The metrics presented here are typically interpreted to fall into one of three categories: 1) long-timescale (decades to centuries) integrators of soil N losses (foliar and soil δ^{15} N: Martinelli 196 197 et al., 1999, Craine et al., 2015), 2) short-timescale direct measures of N transformations 198 (mineralization, nitrification; Vitousek et al., 1982), and 3) short-medium timescale (weeks to 199 vears) measures of hydrologic N losses that are influenced by N availability in a catchment (soil 200 solution and stream DIN:DON; Hedin et al., 1995; Perakis and Hedin, 2001). Our data suggest 201 that category 1 and 2 metrics are correlated, and that short-term soil assays may capture similar 202 patterns as inferred by long-term plant and soil-based proxies. However, the lack of correlation between long-term terrestrial proxies (plant and soil $\delta^{15}N$) and both soil solution and stream 203 204 DIN:DON is interesting, as several authors have suggested that both types of proxies give insight 205 into ecosystem N status (Vitousek et al., 1982; Hedin et al., 1995; Martinelli et al., 1999; Perakis 206 and Hedin, 2001; Amundson et al., 2003; Brookshire et al., 2012). It is particularly interesting that stream DIN:DON was not correlated with soil δ^{15} N as both 207 208 are proxies used to infer long-term N status. There is a wealth of literature that uses stream

209 DIN:DON to infer large spatial and temporal scale patterns in N availability (Hedin et al., 1995;

210 Perakis and Hedin, 2002; McDowell et al., 2004; Fang et al., 2008). Similarly, many studies

211 interpret soil δ^{15} N as an integrator of coupled N cycling and N losses over time (Martinelli et al., 212 1999; Houlton et al., 2006; Houlton and Bai, 2009, Craine et al., 2015). These are the only two 213 proxies for N status that integrate over relatively long timescales, and their lack of correlation 214 with each other warrants more careful consideration. We note that stream DIN:DON is sensitive 215 to N deposition, and that relatively pristine settings have a lower DIN:DON than polluted ones 216 (Perakis and Hedin, 2001). In our dataset, N deposition was not correlated with stream 217 DIN:DON (τ =0.03, *p*>0.05), or any other metric. Although 48% of our sites lacked N deposition 218 data, our data do not support the idea that N deposition is responsible for the lack of correlation 219 between these two long-term proxies.

220 Another surprise from our dataset is that soil solution DIN:DON was not significantly 221 correlated with any other metric, not even with stream DIN:DON, despite ~40% of papers in our 222 dataset reporting both soil solution and stream DIN:DON in the same watershed. While the 223 correlation between soil solution DIN:DON below the rooting zone and N availability has been 224 documented across gradients in soil age and fertility (Hedin et al., 1995), this correlation was not 225 found across the range of sites examined here. We found no relationship between soil solution 226 DIN:DON and lysimeter depth, suggesting that the majority of N transformations responsible for 227 the discontinuity between soil solution DIN:DON and that of terrestrial metrics are likely 228 occurring either within the rooting zone or in riparian zones. Neither soil solution or stream 229 DIN:DON was sensitive to environmental variability (i.e. elevation, temperature, precipitation, N 230 deposition), suggesting that processing along flow paths may be responsible for the disconnect 231 between soil solution and stream N concentrations. From these data, at least, it does not seem 232 that soil solution DIN:DON can be used to infer terrestrial N status across this suite of 233 unmanaged sites. These data also do not support the idea that soil solution DIN:DON is

representative of N forms that leach into streams (Binkley et al., 1992; Pregitzer et al., 2004;
Fang et al., 2008).

236 While nitrate (NO₃⁻) removal along flow paths can reduce stream NO₃⁻ (Vidon et al., 2010), 237 with higher percent removal in forested watersheds (Sudduth et al., 2013), DON has been shown 238 to be relatively resistant to removal by decomposition and biologic uptake along subsurface flow 239 paths (Carreiro et al., 2000, Neff et al. 2003). We found no correlation between stream and soil 240 solution DIN:DON, and suggest that variation in NO₃⁻ removal (relative to DON) along flow 241 paths of undisturbed ecosystems may explain this lack of correlation. The extent to which 242 riparian zones influence nutrients varies spatially with geomorphology, soil texture, vegetation, 243 and riparian zone development (McDowell et al., 1992, Mayer et al., 2007); and soils with high 244 rates of leaching to ground water may bypass riparian processing. As nutrients leach down the soil profile, denitrification, biologic uptake, and storage are all potential mechanisms that could 245 246 alter soil solution and stream N species concentrations. Investigation of soil profile processes and 247 riparian zone spatial variability may help determine where and when watershed-scale N status 248 can be inferred from these proxies. Alternatively, varied land-use (e.g. pasture, N fixing plant 249 species, etc.) upstream of undisturbed sites is typically not reported in the literature, but is 250 another possible explanation for the break down between terrestrial and water-based proxies. 251 While most observed relationships were consistent across latitudes, a few differed between the tropics and the temperate zone. The relationships between soil $\delta^{15}N$ with foliar $\delta^{15}N$, foliar 252 δ^{15} N with net nitrification, and net nitrification with N mineralization were consistent across both 253 254 tropical and temperate regions. However, net nitrification and N mineralization were correlated 255 with stream DIN:DON only in temperate regions. These data suggest that while terrestrial 256 proxies may be a useful across biomes, stream DIN:DON requires further research to understand

257 the extent of its applicability across space. The relationship between foliar and soil δ^{15} N also 258 differs across latitudes, in that the correlation in the tropics was much tighter than in the 259 temperate zone. Bias in the literature towards natural abundance isotopic data from the temperate 260 zone may explain why previous research looking at this relationship has been noisy (Craine et 261 al., 2009).

262 One commonly reported metric that was not included in our analysis is the bulk soil carbon 263 to nitrogen ratio (C:N). The conception for this manuscript focused on the relationship between 264 soil δ^{15} N and stream DIN:DON, because these are most commonly used as long term proxies of 265 N availability (Martinelli et al., 1999; Amundson et al., 2000; Perakis and Hedin et al. 2001; 266 Brookshire et al. 2012). Specifically, theory regarding spatial differences in N availability, 267 especially between the tropics and temperate zone, focus on the metrics we report here. 268 Conclusions about N richness at the global scale have vet to use C:N data to support the theory 269 for latitudinal gradation in N availability (Brookshire et al. 2011; Smith et al.; 2014). Soil C:N has already been shown to be tightly correlated with soil $\delta^{15}N$ at the global scale (Craine et al., 270 271 2015), but has yet to be compared to the other metrics we present here. Its relationship with soil δ^{15} N leads us to believe that soil C:N will likely reflect the same trends as that of soil δ^{15} N. The 272 273 measurement of soil C:N is perhaps reported more so than any other biogeochemical metric, and 274 certainly more so than those included in this meta-analysis. We suggest that future research 275 utilize meta-analysis techniques to look at how soil C:N changes across ecosystem gradients, and whether or not it agrees with latitudinal patterns observed for soil δ^{15} N and stream DIN:DON 276 277 (Martinelli et al., 1999; Brookshire et al. 2011). Although we found that temporal (soil δ^{15} N) and spatial (stream DIN:DON) integrators of

Although we found that temporal (soil δ^{15} N) and spatial (stream DIN:DON) integrators of watershed N were correlated with short-term proxies (net nitrification and net N mineralization),

water-based metrics did not correlate very well with most of the soil-based metrics of N
availability or each other. Explicit comparisons of these proxies to each other, with a focus on
how they are influenced by hot-spots, hot-moments, biological diversity, and N transformation
between the soil-stream interface, will enhance their utility for understanding N availability at
the ecosystem scale.

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286 **5.0 Conclusions**

287 Despite decades of research the N status of terrestrial ecosystems remains difficult to 288 measure, and researchers typically employ several metrics of N availability. While nitrification 289 and mineralization most frequently correlate with other metrics, they are short-term proxies that vary over short spatial and temporal scales. Soil $\delta^{15}N$ and dissolved N losses from streams are 290 291 long-term integrators of N loss that have been relied on to advance our understanding of N 292 cycling at the global scale (Martinelli et al., 1999; Amundson et al., 2003; Hedin et al., 2003; 293 Brookshire et al., 2012), however the lack of correlation between these two commonly used 294 proxies highlights the need to better understand how these terrestrial and stream-based metrics 295 vary in relation to each other and with soil N availability.

Understanding ecosystem N status at the watershed and landscape scale is a first step towards projecting ecosystem responses to climate change and environmental pollution (Aber et al., 1998; Oren et al., 2001; Reich et al., 2004). Soil N status can determine the rate at which detrimental N losses occur, such as NO_3^- (a drinking water contaminant) and nitrous oxide (a potent greenhouse gas). Furthermore, it is becoming more evident that projections regarding the potential for a terrestrial CO_2 sink, and concomitant feedbacks to the trajectory of climate change, are dependent on the nutrient status of soils (Thornton et al., 2007; Zaehle et al., 2010;

303	Wieder et al., 2015). The health and environmental implications of soil N status heighten the
304	need to develop methodology to adequately assess long-term soil N availability.
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306	6.0 Author contribution
307	M. Almaraz and S. Porder conceived research and designed study. M. Almaraz collected data
308	and performed statistical analyses. M. Almaraz and S. Porder wrote the manuscript.
309	
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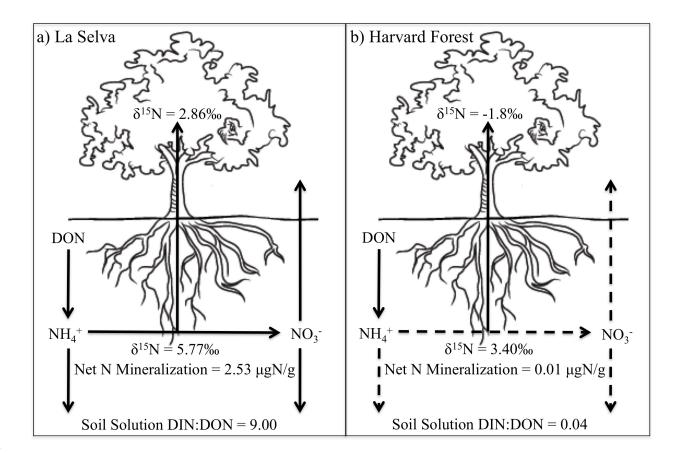
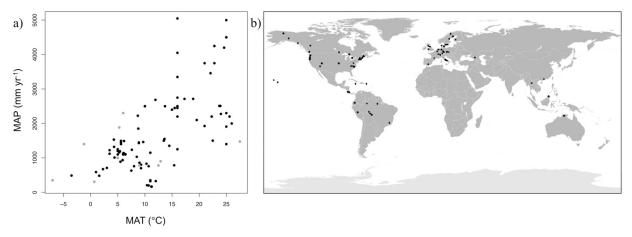


Figure 1. Nitrogen availability values for a) a nitrogen rich tropical forest at the La Selva field station in Costa Rica, and for b) a nitrogen limited temperate pine forest at Harvard Forest,

549 Massachusetts. Solid and dotted lines represent the relative magnitude of fluxes (i.e. net N

550 mineralization, denitrification to the atmosphere, dissolved organic and inorganic nitrogen

551 leaching), which are contingent on ecosystem nitrogen status.



554 **Figure 2**. a) Distribution of grassland (grey) and forest (black) watershed mean annual temperature (MAT; °C) and mean annual precipitation (MAP; mm yr⁻¹) included in meta-

analysis (left), and b) location of 154 sites (some black dots represent multiple watersheds; right).

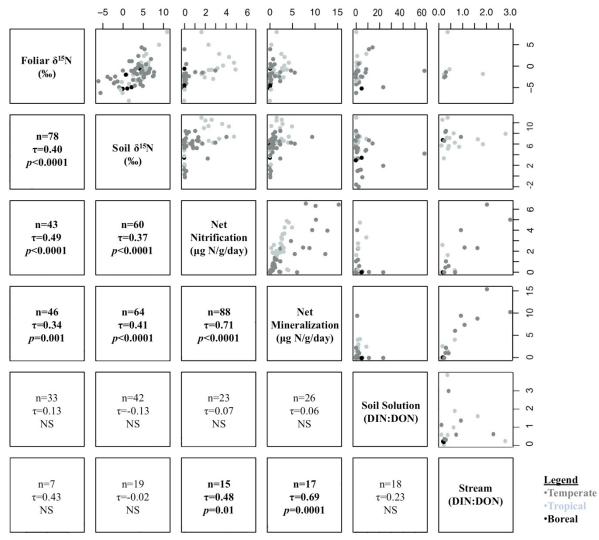


Figure 3. Correlation matrix of N status proxies (foliar and soil δ^{15} N, net nitrification and N mineralization (<20 cm), the ratio of dissolved inorganic to organic N forms (DIN:DON) in soil solution below the rooting zone (>20 cm), and the DIN:DON in streams). Data are above the diagonal, summary statistics are below. NS signifies correlations that were not significant (p>0.05).

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- 567 Supplemental Table 1. Site description data, full citations, foliar and surface soil $\delta^{15}N$ (<20 cm
- 568 depth), net nitrification (<20 cm depth), net N mineralization (<20 cm depth), the ratio of
- dissolved inorganic to organic N forms (DIN:DON) in soil solution below the rooting zone (>20
- 570 cm depth), and stream DIN:DON.
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