

1 **Chronic nitrogen addition differentially affects gross nitrogen transformations in**
2 **alpine and temperate grassland soils**

3 Tianxiang Hao ^{a,b}, Yangyang Zhang ^a, Jinbo Zhang ^{c,d}, Christoph Müller ^{e,f}, Kaihui Li
4 ^{g,h,i}, Kaoping Zhang ^{j,k}, Haiyan Chu ^{j,k}, Carly Stevens ^b, Xuejun Liu ^{a,*}

5 ^a College of Resources and Environmental Sciences, National Academy of Agriculture Green
6 Development, Key Laboratory of Plant-Soil Interactions of MOE, Beijing Key Laboratory of
7 Farmland Soil Pollution Prevention and Remediation, China Agricultural University, Beijing,
8 100193, China

9 ^b Lancaster Environment Centre, Lancaster University, Lancaster, LA1 4YQ, United Kingdom

10 ^c School of Geography, Nanjing Normal University, Nanjing, 210023, China

11 ^d Jiangsu Center for Collaborative Innovation in Geographical Information Resource Development
12 and Application, Nanjing, 210023, China

13 ^e Institute of Plant Ecology, Justus-Liebig University Giessen, Heinrich-Buff-Ring 26, 35392,
14 Giessen, Germany

15 ^f School of Biology and Environmental Science and Earth Institute, University College Dublin,
16 Belfield, Dublin, Ireland

17 ^g CAS Key Laboratory of Biogeography and Bioresource in Arid Land, Xinjiang Institute of
18 Ecology and Geography, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Urumqi, 830011, China

19 ^h Research Center for Ecology and Environment of Central Asia, Chinese Academy of Sciences,
20 Urumqi, 830011, China

21 ⁱ Bayinbuluk Grassland Ecosystem Research Station, Xinjiang Institute of Ecology and Geography,
22 Chinese Academy of Sciences, Bayinbuluk, 841314, China

23 ^j State Key Laboratory of Soil and Sustainable Agriculture, Institute of Soil Science, Chinese
24 Academy of Sciences, Nanjing 210008, China

25 ^k University of Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, 100049, China

26

27 * Corresponding author. College of Resources and Environmental Sciences, National Academy of
28 Agriculture Green Development, Key Laboratory of Plant-Soil Interactions of MOE, Beijing Key

29 Laboratory of Farmland Soil Pollution Prevention and Remediation, China Agricultural University,
30 Beijing, 100193, China.
31 *E-mail address:* liu310@cau.edu.cn (X. Liu).

32 ABSTRACT

33 Nitrogen (N) deposition can profoundly alter soil N cycling of grassland ecosystems.
34 Substrates and soil acidification are expected to modify soil N transformations in
35 response to elevated N deposition. Here, we carried out ¹⁵N tracing studies to test the
36 effects of N addition rates (low: 30 kg N ha⁻¹ and high: 90/120 kg N ha⁻¹) and soil
37 acidification on gross N transformation rates using two typical Chinese grassland soils,
38 an alpine calcareous soil and a temperate neutral soil. We found that N addition
39 significantly increased the ratio of gross nitrification rate to gross ammonia
40 immobilization rate (N/I) in both soils, but gross N transformation rates changed
41 differently as a function of N addition rates and soil types. In the calcareous soil, N
42 addition increased soil gross N transformations, largely due to mineral N substrates,
43 SOC, TN and fungal dominance. In contrast, low N addition did not affect gross N
44 transformation rates in the neutral soil, but high N addition significantly decreased gross
45 N transformation rates. Although both SOC and TN were increased with N addition in
46 the neutral soil, N-induced soil pH decline decreased gross N transformation rates. Our
47 results indicate that the effects of N addition on grassland soil gross N transformations
48 are highly dependent on mineral N substrates, SOC and TN. Soil acidification played a
49 more important role than SOC and TN in gross N transformation rate changes in
50 response to elevated N deposition. These findings suggest that the different changes of
51 gross N transformation rates in response to N deposition and soil properties (e.g. SOC,
52 TN and soil pH) should be integrated into biogeochemical models to better predict
53 grassland ecosystem N cycling in the future scenarios of N deposition.

54

55 *Keywords:* ^{15}N tracing technology, Gross N transformations, Nitrogen deposition, Soil

56 acidification, Grassland

57 **1. Introduction**

58 Nitrogen (N) is a limiting factor for the growth of organisms in grassland
59 ecosystems (LeBauer and Treseder, 2008; Fujimaki et al., 2009). With the rapid
60 increase in anthropogenic reactive N emissions, elevated N deposition on a global scale
61 may mitigate N-limitation of plant growth but may also cause environmental pollution,
62 threatening ecosystem functions and services worldwide (Galloway et al., 2008; Yang
63 et al., 2012; Kanter and Searchinger, 2018).

64 Nitrogen mineralization-immobilization turnover (MIT) governs soil N availability
65 for organisms' growth and N losses providing an important grassland ecosystem
66 function (Ledgard et al., 1998; Huygens et al., 2007). Many N transformation processes,
67 such as mineralization, nitrification and immobilization of NH_4^+ and NO_3^- operate
68 simultaneously, and, thus, are jointly contributing to the fate of N in soil. Among those
69 processes, mineralization is a major source of N supply for plant growth. Mineral N
70 immobilization is the prime mechanism of N retention in soil. Nitrification, including
71 autotrophic and heterotrophic nitrification, is a main mechanism to transform N in the
72 reduced state (e.g. organic N, NH_4^+) to N in an oxidized state (e.g. NO_3^-) which is easily
73 lost to water and air via leaching and denitrification (Schimel and Bennett, 2004; Zhang
74 et al., 2018a; Zhang et al., 2018b). Other N transformation processes, chiefly related to
75 N_2O production, include: denitrification, nitrifier-denitrification, coupled nitrification-
76 denitrification and dissimilatory nitrate reduction to ammonia (DNRA).

77 Many previous studies have identified the impacts of N addition on N
78 transformation rates, but the results were inconclusive (e.g. Han et al., 2011; Lu et al.,

79 2011; Müller et al., 2011). Some research has shown that long-term N addition
80 significantly increased N mineralization and nitrification (Zhang et al., 2012; Wang et
81 al., 2015a), but had no effects on gross N transformation rates in an acid forest soil
82 (Kwak et al., 2018). Excess N addition decreased gross N transformation rates
83 (Barraclough and Smith, 1987). As microbially mediated processes, soil N
84 transformations are expected to be strongly regulated by soil pH. Significant soil
85 acidification has been widely observed across forest and grassland ecosystems, partially
86 or largely induced by N deposition (Van Breemen et al., 1982; Yang et al., 2012). In
87 addition, N transformations are also affected by other soil properties, including soil
88 temperature and moisture, soil organic carbon, total N, C/N ratio (Gibbs and
89 Barraclough, 1998), and microbial community (Booth et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2015a).
90 Hence, the impacts of N addition on N transformations are expected to be strongly
91 related to the changes in soil physical, chemical, and biological properties (Lu et al.,
92 2011).

93 In view of the variability in observed responses of soil processes to N addition, a
94 better process-based understanding of the response of soil N transformations to N
95 addition in grassland ecosystems is critical. Although the responses of soil N cycle to
96 N deposition/addition have been extensively investigated, the impacts of chronic N
97 addition on N transformations and their potential underlying mechanisms under
98 different N addition levels and across different grassland ecosystems with various soil
99 properties still needs clarifying.

100 We hypothesize that chronic N addition will increase soil gross N transformations,

101 but largely as a function of N addition rates and acid neutralization capacity. Soil gross
102 N transformation rates will be enhanced with increasing N addition rates by increasing
103 energy and substrate sources in soil (i.e. C and N). However, N-induced soil pH decline
104 will limit or even inhibit soil gross N transformation rates by affecting soil microbial
105 community. We tested these hypotheses by quantifying soil gross N transformation
106 rates in response to chronic N addition (over 10 years) at low and high rates in two
107 typical Chinese grassland soils with different properties (especially soil pH), one
108 calcareous alpine steppe and one neutral semiarid temperate steppe, using a ¹⁵N tracing
109 approach. The results will help understanding the grassland ecosystem N cycling under
110 elevated atmospheric N deposition (Liu et al., 2013), and predicting soil N availability
111 and N losses in future.

112

113 **2. Materials and Methods**

114 *2.1. Soils and sampling*

115 Topsoil of 0-20 cm was sampled from two typical northern grassland sites in China
116 in late August, 2019. The two sites, Bayinbuluk and Duolun, represent an alpine steppe
117 and a semiarid temperate steppe, respectively.

118 The Bayinbuluk site (BK) is located at the Bayinbuluk Grassland Ecosystem
119 Research Station, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Xinjiang, China (42°53'N, 83°43'E;
120 2,500 m a.s.l.). Mean annual precipitation is 266 mm with 78% occurring during the
121 growing season from May to September. Mean annual temperature is -4.8 °C. Local
122 ambient total N deposition is 7.6 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ (Xu et al., 2015). The soil is a Calcic

123 Kas-tanozems (FAO classification), consisting of 51.2% sand, 42.2% silt, and 6.6%
124 clay. The original topsoil (0-10 cm) before the experiment had the following physical
125 and chemical properties: bulk density, 1.01 g cm⁻³; soil pH (H₂O), 7.71; soil organic
126 carbon (SOC), 32.7 g kg⁻¹; soil total nitrogen (TN), 3.1 g kg⁻¹. Dominant plant species
127 include *Stipa purpurea*, *Festuca ovina*, *Agropyron cristatum*, *Koeleria cristata*,
128 *Oxytropis glabra*, *Potentilla multifida* and *Potentilla bifurca*. After the fencing to
129 exclude grazers in 2005, N addition started in 2009, including four N addition rates of
130 0 (N0 as control), 10 (N10), 30 (N30) and 90 (N90) kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ to four replicate plots
131 of 4 m × 8 m with a 1 m wide buffer zone between adjacent plots. Three N treatments,
132 N0, N30 and N90, were selected for this study. Nitrogen as NH₄NO₃ was uniformly
133 applied to the plots in two equal amounts in late May and June. More information can
134 be found in Li et al. (2015).

135 The Duolun site (DL) is located at the Duolun Restoration Ecology Research
136 Station of the Institute of Botany, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Inner Mongolia, China
137 (42°02'N, 116°17'E; 1,324 m a.s.l.). Mean annual precipitation is 293 mm with 82%
138 occurring during the growing season. Mean annual temperature is 3.3°C. Local ambient
139 total N deposition is 14.7 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ (Xu et al., 2015). The soil is a Haplic Calcisol
140 (FAO classification), consisting of 62.8% sand, 20.3% silt, and 16.9% clay. The
141 original topsoil (0-10 cm) before the experiment had the following physical and
142 chemical properties: bulk density, 1.31 g cm⁻³; soil pH (H₂O), 7.12; SOC, 12.3 g kg⁻¹;
143 TN, 1.7 g kg⁻¹. Dominant plant species include *Stipa capillata*, *Agropyron cristatum*,
144 *Cleistogenes squarrosa*, *Leymus chinensis*, *Artemisia frigida*, *Carex tibetica*, *Potentilla*

145 *acaulis*, *Potentilla tanacetifolia* and *Potentilla bifurca*. The study site has been fenced
146 since 2001 to protect it from grazing disturbance. The N addition experiment started in
147 2005, including six N addition rates of 0 (N0 as control), 30 (N30, since 2006), 60
148 (N60), 120 (N120), 240 (N240), and 480 (N480) kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ to five replicate plots of
149 5 m × 5 m with a 1 m wide buffer zone between adjacent plots. Three N treatments, i.e.
150 N0, N30 and N120, were selected in this study. Nitrogen addition was applied as urea
151 in 2005 and NH₄NO₃ from 2006 onward. N was uniformly applied to the plots in two
152 equal amounts in the middle of June and July. The detailed field managements are given
153 in Chen et al. (2019).

154 After manually removing the roots and impurities from the soil, collected soil
155 samples were sieved to 2 mm and immediately stored at 4°C until the incubation
156 experiment began within two weeks. Parts of mixed-well soils were used for the ¹⁵N
157 dilution experiments. Another part was used to measure important soil properties,
158 including soil pH, SOC, TN and water holding capacity (WHC). The detailed results
159 are given in Table 1.

160

161 2.2. Laboratory ¹⁵N tracing experiment

162 Gross N transformation rates were quantified using a ¹⁵N tracing approach
163 (Kirkham and Bartholomew, 1954; Müller et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2012; Zhu et al.,
164 2019). Each soil treatment was conducted in two sub-treatments, adding ¹⁵NH₄NO₃ and
165 NH₄¹⁵NO₃, respectively, with 3 replicates and 3 extraction times. Also a control (no N
166 addition) with 3 replicates was investigated for each treatment. Sieved fresh soil,

167 equivalent to 20 g oven-dried soil, was added into a reagent bottle and pre-incubated
168 under the natural water content for 24 h at 20 °C. The control soil was extracted with 2
169 mol L⁻¹ KCl (Guaranteed Reagent) to measure soil mineral N (NH₄⁺-N and NO₃⁻-N)
170 concentrations (Song et al., 2011). To the other soils, 2 mL solution of ¹⁵NH₄NO₃ (¹⁵N
171 atom% excess of 9.8337) or NH₄¹⁵NO₃ (¹⁵N atom% excess of 9.8837) was added at a
172 rate of 50 mg NH₄⁺-N kg⁻¹ or 50 mg NO₃⁻-N kg⁻¹, respectively (Wang et al., 2015b).
173 The soils were adjusted to 60% WHC with high-purity water. 60% of WHC is widely
174 used in previous studies, being an appropriate water potential to promote microbial
175 activity under aerobic conditions (Zhang et al., 2012; Zhu et al., 2019). The bottles were
176 sealed with parafilm® with uniformly distributed eight pinholes to allow aeration, and
177 incubated in the dark for 48 h at 20 °C. The incubation temperature of 20 °C is close to
178 the natural outdoor conditions in the day-time during the growing season for the two
179 sampling sites. During the incubation, soils were extracted with 2 mol L⁻¹ KCl at 0.5,
180 12, and 48 h after labeling to determine the concentrations and isotopic compositions
181 of NH₄⁺-N and NO₃⁻-N.

182

183 *2.3. Analytical methods*

184 Soil pH (H₂O) was measured with a pH meter (PHS-3C, Shanghai Yueping
185 Scientific Instrument Co., Ltd, China) at a soil to water ratio of 1:2.5. SOC and TN
186 were measured with an element analyzer (Vario Macro Cube, Elementar, Germany).
187 NH₄⁺-N and NO₃⁻-N in soils were measured with an AA3 continuous-flow analyzer
188 (Bran + Luebbe GmbH, Norderstedt, Germany) after extraction with 2 mol L⁻¹ KCl

189 solution and filtration by filter papers (Whatman, Double Ring quantitative filter paper).
190 Isotopic compositions of $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ and $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$ were determined using the modified
191 micro-diffusion method (Zhu et al., 2019) and measured using a Delta V plus isotope
192 mass spectrometer (Delta Plus XP, Thermo Finnigan, Germany). Briefly, 20 mL the
193 extract was mixed with 0.3 g MgO to release NH_3 from the $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ pool. 0.3 g
194 Devarda's alloy was then added to the bottle to reduce $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$ to $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$, and then to
195 NH_3 . Liberated NH_3 was trapped using filter paper (Whatman 41), which was acidified
196 with 1 mol L^{-1} oxalic acid. After diffusion, filters were transferred to an ammonia free
197 environment for drying, then dried filter papers were transferred to a tin capsule and
198 wrapped to enable the enrichment of ^{15}N to be analyzed.

199

200 *2.4 Soil DNA extraction, 16S/ITS rRNA sequencing and sequence analysis*

201 For each soil in BK, 0.5 g fresh mixed soil with three replicates was used to extract
202 DNA using a DNA extraction kit for soil. 1% agarose gels were used to determinate
203 DNA integrity and purity while a NanoDrop One microvolume UV-Vis
204 spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, USA) was used to measure DNA concentration
205 and purity (Tomaso et al., 2010). Bacterial 16S rRNA genes of V4 hypervariable regions
206 were amplified using primers 515F and 806R (Caporaso et al., 2012), and fungal ITS
207 rRNA genes of ITS1 hypervariable regions were amplified using primers ITS5-1737F
208 and ITS2-2043R with 12bp barcode (White et al., 1990; Gardes and Bruns, 1993).
209 Primers were synthesized by Invitrogen (Carlsbad, CA, USA). PCR reactions,
210 containing 25 μL 2x Premix Taq (Takara Biotechnology, Dalian Co. Ltd., China), 1 μL

211 each primer (10 mM) and 3 μL DNA (20 ng μL^{-1}) template in a volume of 50 μL , were
212 amplified by thermos cycling: initialization at 94°C for 5 min; 30 cycles of denaturation
213 at 94°C for 30 s, annealing at 52°C for 30 s, and extension at 72°C for 30 s; followed
214 by final elongation at 72°C for 10 min. 3 replicates per sample and each PCR products
215 of the same sample were mixed, the PCR instrument was BioRad S1000 (Bio-Rad
216 Laboratory, CA). High-throughput sequencing was performed on an
217 IlluminaHiseq2500 platform and 250 bp paired-end reads were generated.

218 Paired-end clean reads were merged using FLASH (V1.2.11) (Magoč and Salzberg
219 2011) after the removal of low-quality sequences according to the Trimmomatic (V0.33)
220 quality controlled process (Bolger et al., 2014). After chimera detection using the
221 UCHIME de novo algorithm, the remaining high-quality sequences were clustered into
222 operational taxonomic units (OTUs) at 97% sequence identity by USEARCH (Edgar,
223 2010). Representative sequence for each OTU was screened for further annotation. For
224 each representative sequence, the Greengenes (for 16S) and Unite (for ITS) database
225 were used to annotate taxonomic information in Quantitative Insights Into Microbial
226 Ecology (QIIME V1.9.1) (DeSantis et al. 2006; Abarenkov et al., 2010; Caporaso et al.,
227 2010). The OTU and its Tags, which belong to plantae and can't be annotated to the
228 kingdom level, were removed. Subsequent analysis of alpha diversity, including
229 observed species, Chao1, Shannon's index, and dominance (defined as $\sum p_i^2$, where p_i
230 is the proportion of the community represented by OTU $_i$), was performed with QIIME
231 using the normalized OTU data.

232

233 2.5. ¹⁵N tracing analysis

234 Gross N transformations rates were quantified via a ¹⁵N tracing analysis. Measured
235 concentrations and ¹⁵N enrichment values (mean ± standard deviation) of NH₄⁺-N and
236 NO₃⁻-N from the triplicate measurements at 0.5, 12, and 48 h after labeling in the two
237 ¹⁵N-added treatments were supplied to the ¹⁵N tracing model *Ntrace_{Basic}* (Müller et al.,
238 2007). Gross N transformation rates were calculated by simultaneously optimizing the
239 kinetic parameters for each individual process by minimizing the misfit between
240 modeled and observed concentrations of NH₄⁺-N and NO₃⁻-N and their respective ¹⁵N
241 enrichments. To obtain the most appropriate model, several model modifications, which
242 vary in the number of considered N pools and processes, and kinetic settings, were
243 tested (Rütting and Müller, 2008). The most appropriate model was guided by the
244 Akaike's information criterion (AIC), selecting the minimum AIC value (Cox et al.,
245 2006; Rütting and Müller, 2007; Wang et al., 2016). In addition, the determination
246 coefficient (R²) was also used to verify the model; if R² > 0.80, the modeled result can
247 be accepted (Quinn and Keough, 2002). The numerical optimization model based on
248 Markov Chain Monte Carlo Metropolis algorithm, can provide reliable results for a
249 large number of parameters. For more detailed information on the model development
250 and parameter optimization see Müller et al. (2007). Ten simultaneously occurring
251 transformation processes were quantified (Müller et al., 2007; McGeough et al., 2016):
252 1) *M_{Nrec}*, mineralization of recalcitrant organic N to NH₄⁺-N; 2) *M_{Nlab}*, mineralization
253 of labile organic N to NH₄⁺-N; 3) *I_{NH4_Nrec}*, immobilization of NH₄⁺-N to recalcitrant
254 organic N; 4) *I_{NH4_Nlab}*, immobilization of NH₄⁺-N to labile organic N; 5) *R_{NH4}*, release

255 of adsorbed NH_4^+ -N; 6) A_{NH_4} , absorption of NH_4^+ -N on cation exchange sites; 7) O_{NH_4} ,
256 oxidation of NH_4^+ -N to NO_3^- -N; 8) O_{Nrec} , oxidation of recalcitrant organic N to NO_3^- -
257 N; 9) I_{NO_3} , immobilization of NO_3^- -N to recalcitrant organic N; and 10) D_{NO_3} ,
258 dissimilatory NO_3^- -N reduction to NH_4^+ -N. Gross transformation rates were calculated
259 by zero or first order kinetics. In this model, labile organic N was assumed to be the
260 maro-organic matter fraction accounting for ca. 1% of total organic N (Rütting and
261 Müller, 2008; Chen et al., 2015). The optimization procedure resulted in a probability
262 density function for each parameter, from which averages and standard deviations were
263 calculated (Müller et al., 2007). Each analysis run was carried out with three parallel
264 sequences. Based on the kinetic setting and the final parameters, average N
265 transformation rates were calculated over the 48 h incubation period and expressed in
266 units of mg N kg^{-1} dry soil d^{-1} (Table 2).

267

268 2.6. Statistical analyses

269 One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with a Tukey's Honestly Significance
270 Difference (HSD) test ($P < 0.05$) was used to test significant differences between
271 treatments in soil pH, SOC, TN and bacterial/fungal diversity indices. Most statistical
272 tests are inappropriate for the comparison of gross N transformation rates above,
273 because of the large number of iterations of the ^{15}N tracing model. Parameter results
274 based on the comparisons of standard deviations and the 95% and 99% confidence
275 intervals were used to test significant differences between treatments in gross N
276 transformation rates (Müller et al., 2011). If 95% confidence intervals of parameter

277 results overlap, the parameters are not significantly different. If 95% or 99% confidence
278 intervals do not overlap, the differences in results are significant or highly significant.
279 Correlation and linear or nonlinear regression analyses were used to test relationships
280 between N input and N gross transformation rates. All the statistical analyses and
281 correlation analyses were performed using IBM SPSS Version 23.0 (IBM Corp.,
282 Armonk, NY, USA).

283

284 **3. Results**

285 *3.1. Soil chemical and biological properties*

286 Compared to the control plots, long-term N addition (> 10 years) did not
287 significantly change topsoil pH in N treated plots at BK site, but significantly decreased
288 topsoil pH by 0.22 and 0.83 for N30 and N120 treatments, respectively, at DL site
289 (Table 1). Nitrogen addition also significantly increased SOC, TN and soil mineral N
290 (N_{\min} , mainly NO_3^- -N) at both sites, while C/N and WHC did not significantly change.
291 For soil N_{\min} at both sites and soil pH at DL site, the impacts of N addition increased
292 with increasing N addition rates. At BK site, N addition significantly increased bacterial
293 observed species, bacterial Shannon's diversity index and fungal dominance, while
294 decreasing bacterial dominance and fungal Shannon's diversity index (Fig. S1).

295

296 *3.2. The concentration and ^{15}N abundance of NH_4^+ -N and NO_3^- -N*

297 During the incubation period, the concentrations of NH_4^+ -N decreased with
298 increasing incubation time for all treatments, with low and high decline rates being

299 related to DL and BK (Fig. 1a). Decline rates of NH_4^+ -N concentrations were similar
300 among all three treatments at DL site, being higher in N120 treatment than other two
301 treatments at BK site. The concentrations of NO_3^- -N increased with incubation time.
302 Net NO_3^- -N production rates had a similar trend to net NH_4^+ -N consumption (NH_4^+ -N
303 decline) rates among three treatments at two sites (Fig. 1b).

304 ^{15}N abundances of NH_4^+ -N in the $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ labeled treatments decreased with
305 incubation time. The decline was steeper with increasing N addition rates especially for
306 the BK soils while only a slight decline was observed in the DL soils (Fig. 1c).
307 Meanwhile, ^{15}N abundances of NO_3^- -N in the $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ labeled treatments increased at
308 BK sites and slightly increased at DL sites. ^{15}N abundances of NH_4^+ -N changed slightly
309 in the $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ -N labeled treatments (Fig. 1d), while ^{15}N abundances of NO_3^- -N
310 decreased with incubation time at a low and similar rates in the three DL treatments and
311 a higher and N-dependent increase at BK sites.

312

313 3.3. Gross N transformation rates in response to N addition

314 Gross N transformation rates were associated with N addition rates (Fig. S2), but
315 showed different responses at the two sites (Table 2 and Fig. 2). Many common results
316 of N transformations were observed at two sites, i.e. autotrophic nitrification (O_{NH_4}),
317 rather than heterotrophic nitrification (O_{Nrec}). Gross rates of oxidation of recalcitrant
318 organic N to NO_3^- -N (O_{Nrec}), dissimilatory NO_3^- -N reduction to NH_4^+ -N (D_{NO_3}), release
319 of adsorbed NH_4^+ -N ($R_{\text{NH}_4\text{ads}}$) and absorption of NH_4^+ -N on cation exchange sites (A_{NH_4}),
320 were negligible in all treatments at both sites.

321 There were also many different impacts of N addition on specific N transformation
322 processes between two sites. At the DL site, gross rates of all N transformation
323 processes slightly fluctuated in N treated plots at 30 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ compared to the
324 control plots. However, N addition of 120 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ led to a significant decline of
325 20%, 88% and 78% for the oxidation rate of NH₄⁺-N to NO₃⁻-N (*O_{NH4}*), the
326 immobilization rates of NH₄⁺-N to labile (*I_{NH4_Nlab}*) and recalcitrant organic N (*I_{NH4_Nrec}*),
327 respectively. However, no significant difference was observed between two N
328 treatments (i.e. N30 and N120). Further, compared to the control plots, the ratio of gross
329 nitrification rates to gross immobilization rates of NH₄⁺-N (N/I) and net NH₄⁺-N
330 production rate increased by 140% and 63%, 352% and 77% for N30 and N120 treated
331 plots, respectively. Meanwhile, total N_{min} activity and net NO₃⁻-N production rate
332 decreased by 42% and 13%, 62% and 21% for N30 and N120 treatments, respectively.

333 For the BK site, compared to the control plots, N addition led to a significant
334 increase in autotrophic nitrification (*O_{NH4}*) of 66% and 149% for N30 and N90 treated
335 plots, respectively. N addition of 90 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ led to a significant decline of 93% in
336 the mineralization rate of recalcitrant organic N to NH₄⁺-N (*M_{Nrec}*), and an increase of
337 129% and 256% in the mineralization rate (*M_{Nlab}*) and the immobilization rate of NH₄⁺-
338 N to recalcitrant organic N (*I_{NH4_Nrec}*), respectively. Consequently, compared to the
339 control plots, N addition increased N/I, total N_{min} activity and net NO₃⁻-N production
340 rate by 37%, 31% and 80% for N30 treatments and by 50%, 81% and 166% for N90
341 treatments, respectively. Meanwhile, net NH₄⁺-N production rates decreased by 69%
342 and 168% for N30 and N90 treatments, respectively, compared to the control plots. In

343 addition, gross rates of mineralization and nitrification were negatively or positively
344 correlated with bacterial or fungal diversity indices (dominance, Shannon's index and
345 observed species), respectively (Fig. S3).

346

347 **4. Discussion**

348 Long-term N addition experiments have been widely conducted to accurately
349 identify the impacts of N deposition on plant species diversity, community stability,
350 ecosystem multifunctionality as well as biogeochemistry (Ledgard et al., 1998; Tilman
351 et al., 2001; Isbell et al., 2013). Soils with chronic N addition, combined with
352 quantification of gross N transformation rates, could provide reliable evidence to reveal
353 the underlying mechanisms of soil N cycling in response to elevated N deposition
354 concerning N availability and N losses (Zhang et al., 2012). Our results showed that
355 chronic N addition significantly changed gross N transformation rates, but the impacts
356 were largely dependent on N addition rates and soil properties. Generally, N
357 mineralization, immobilization and nitrification were the dominant N transformation
358 process while other processes were negligible, as observed in other soils (Chen et al.,
359 2016; Zhu et al., 2019). Autotrophic nitrification dominated over heterotrophic
360 nitrification, which is in line with previous studies (Zhang et al., 2013a; Zhu et al.,
361 2019). However, heterotrophic nitrification may play a significant role in acid soils
362 (Zhang et al., 2011). NH_4^+ -N immobilization rather than NO_3^- -N immobilization
363 dominated N retention. NO_3^- -N immobilization needs more energy than NH_4^+ -N
364 immobilization and is highly related to soil organic carbon, C/N-ratio and ATP

365 production (Bengtsson et al., 2003; Habteselassie et al., 2006) and possibly suppressed
366 by $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$, even at relatively a low concentrations (Templer et al., 2008).
367 Consequently, the low C/N ratios (approximately 10-11) may have limited $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$
368 immobilization in this study. In addition, N addition also increased the risk of N losses
369 (N/I), especially for temperate grassland soils (DL) with an obvious shift from N
370 limitation ($\text{N/I} < 1.0$) to N saturation ($\text{N/I} > 1.0$) as N addition are increasing.

371 The impacts of N addition on some specific gross N transformation rates were
372 different between BK alpine steppe and DL temperate steppe. Enhanced N deposition
373 has been confirmed to affect soil N transformations by changing soil N availability, pH,
374 microbial biomass and microbial community composition (Liu et al., 2011). Increased
375 mineral N substrates with enhanced N deposition can promote N mineralization and
376 nitrification (Niu et al., 2016). Meanwhile, N-induced soil acidification could limit N
377 transformation processes by affecting microbial activities and N form as substrates
378 (Pietri and Brookes, 2008; Cheng et al., 2013). Although meta-analysis showed that N
379 deposition significantly increased N mineralization by 24.9% and nitrification by 153.9%
380 (Lu et al., 2011), many variable results of impacts of N deposition on soil N
381 transformations have been reported in individual studies, likely derived from the
382 differences in local climatic conditions and soil properties. Thus, some important soil
383 properties, strongly related to N transformation processes and largely affected by N
384 addition, likely explain the different impacts of N addition on N transformation rates in
385 these two grassland soils (Tables 1 and 2).

386

387 4.1. *The comparison of N transformation rates between the calcareous and neutral soils*
388 *under natural conditions*

389 Although the two studied soils had comparable total N_{\min} activities of 13.1 and 12.4
390 mg N kg⁻¹ d⁻¹ for DL and BK sites, respectively, the gross rates of some specific
391 transformation processes were partially or completely different. Compared to DL
392 neutral temperate grassland soil, BK calcareous alpine grassland soil had higher gross
393 rates of mineralization (both M_{Nrec} and M_{Nlab}), O_{NH4} and I_{NO3} and a lower gross rate of
394 $I_{NH4-Nrec}$. High soil organic carbon (SOC) and total nitrogen (TN) in the calcareous soil
395 can supply more energy and substrates to soil microorganism growth, favoring N
396 transformations (Booth et al., 2005; Grosso et al., 2016). As a result of the high gross
397 nitrification rate, soil mineral N was dominated by NO₃⁻-N in the calcareous soil, which
398 was equally contributed by NH₄⁺-N and NO₃⁻-N in the neutral soil (Table 1). Further,
399 low NH₄⁺-N in substrates and high accumulated NO₃⁻-N limited the immobilization of
400 NH₄⁺-N and increased the immobilization and net production of NO₃⁻-N in the
401 calcareous soil. In addition, high SOC in the calcareous soil also favored NO₃⁻-N
402 immobilization, needing more energy than NH₄⁺-N immobilization (Bengtsson et al.,
403 2003).

404

405 4.2. *The effects of N addition on N transformations in calcareous alpine grassland soils*

406 In BK alpine grassland soils, chronic N addition increased the gross rates of three
407 important N transformation processes, i.e. M_{Nlab} , $I_{NH4-Nrec}$ and O_{NH4} , especially with
408 increasing N addition rates. Increased SOC (by 9.6-12.6%) and TN (by 13.4-18.4%)

409 caused by N addition were the potential main contributors to increased N
410 transformation rates. SOC, TN and their quality (C/N ratio) have been identified to play
411 important roles in N transformations (Aber et al., 2003; Niu et al., 2016), particularly
412 N mineralization (Wang et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2016). SOC is the energy and
413 substrate source to support microbial growth and activity (Kreitinger et al., 1985;
414 Grosso et al., 2016). Thus, close relationships between SOC and N transformations
415 were widely observed in previous studies, including microbial immobilization of
416 mineral N (Bradley, 2001; Zhang et al., 2013b), heterotrophic nitrification and
417 consequent NO₃⁻-N production (Hart et al., 1994; Chen et al., 2015). Increased TN also
418 favors soil N transformations by providing more N substrates (Booth et al., 2005; Zhang
419 et al., 2016). Increased N availability mitigates the limit of N on microorganism, further
420 increasing gross N mineralization rates in an N-limited ecosystem (Blaško et al., 2013;
421 Högberg et al., 2014). Studied alpine and temperate grassland ecosystems appear to be
422 N-limited (Li et al., 2015; Hao et al., 2018). Regarding C/N ratio, it is an important
423 indicator reflecting C or N limited microbial growth which in turn is controlled by the
424 mineralization-immobilization turnover (MIT). Organic substrates with high C/N ratios
425 are generally associated with turnover of recalcitrant compounds in soil organic matter,
426 which negatively influences N mineralization (Booth et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2016).
427 Microbes immobilize mineral N to meet their N requirement when they decompose
428 organic matter with high C/N ratios (Sollins et al., 1984; Janssen, 1996; Zak et al., 2006).
429 However, C/N ratios were not changed by N addition in this study and remained around
430 10, much lower than the critical value C/N ratio of ~25 for switching between N

431 mineralization and immobilization processes, thus, falling into the range of C-limited
432 microbial growth (Arunachalam et al., 1998; Zhu et al., 2015).

433 In addition, although soil pH plays a critical role in N transformation by affecting
434 microbial activities and mineral N forms (especially for NH_x) (Pietri and Brookes, 2008;
435 Cheng et al., 2013), the studied alpine grassland soils are calcareous, with a strong acid-
436 buffering capacity. Soil pH hardly changed with N addition, being similar in the control
437 soils even after 11 years of $90 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ additions. Hence, the increased availability
438 of SOC and TN, rather than stable C/N and soil pH, was the prime mechanism of the
439 varying N transformation rates in response to N addition in the specific soils.

440 Both M_{Nlab} and $I_{\text{NH}_4\text{-Nrec}}$ increased with N addition while M_{Nrec} decreased by 44-94%
441 and total gross mineralization ($M_{Nlab} + M_{Nrec}$) slightly changed. Other studies showed
442 similar results after fertilizer applications (Müller et al., 2011) or elevated CO_2 (Chen
443 et al., 2016). Nitrogen addition may stimulate microbial growth by alleviating N
444 limitation and/or C limitation by promoting plant growth and consequent litter and root
445 decomposition. In the studied soil, N addition led to a slight increase in bacterial
446 Shannon diversity and a decline in bacterial dominance. In contrast, fungal dominance
447 was increased with N addition, suggesting some specific fungi became more prominent.
448 Consequently, fungi-dominated immobilization into the recalcitrant organic N pool
449 ($I_{\text{NH}_4\text{-Nrec}}$) also significantly increased. Fungi, e.g. arbuscular mycorrhizal fungus, play
450 an important role in the nitrogen cycle (Hodge et al., 2001; Veresoglou et al., 2012).
451 Generally, bacteria prefer NH_4^+ -N as N source (Jansson et al., 1955) but fungi may
452 prefer NO_3^- -N (Marzluf, 1997). NO_3^- -N is the main form of N in soil at BK for the

453 persistent drought (Table 1) and high gross nitrification rate (Table 2). Those results
454 showed that various soil organic N pools, with different turnover times, responded
455 differently to N addition in calcareous grassland soils, i.e. feeding on labile organic N
456 and storing as recalcitrant organic N. The observation provides compelling evidence
457 that N addition interacted with the microbial community structure in the soil MIT and
458 can stimulate transformations associated with SOC turnover, being an important part of
459 the underlying mechanism of soil N retention with N addition in calcareous alpine
460 grassland soils.

461

462 *4.3. The effects of N addition on N transformations in neutral temperate grassland soils*

463 With long-term N addition, SOC and TN significantly increased while C/N ratios
464 slightly changed around 11 in DL temperate grassland soils. However, N addition did
465 not significantly increase gross rates of N transformations, even leading to a significant
466 decrease in autotrophic nitrification (O_{NH_4}) and N immobilization to both labile and
467 recalcitrant organic N ($I_{NH_4_Nlab}$ and $I_{NH_4_Nrec}$) at a high N addition rate of 120 kg N ha⁻¹
468 yr⁻¹. Meanwhile, many negative relationships between N addition rates and gross N
469 transformation rates were observed (Fig. S2). According to the key role of soil pH in
470 soil N cycling and neutral soils are generally sensitive to acid input compared to
471 calcareous soils (Ulrich, 1986), N-induced soil acidification was a considerable factor
472 in the changes of N transformations in response to N addition in the specific acid-
473 sensitive soils. A significant decline in soil pH was observed with chronic N addition
474 in DL neutral temperate grassland soils, even at a low N addition rate of 30 kg N ha⁻¹

475 yr⁻¹, which is close to the national average N deposition (Liu et al., 2013). Although N
476 mineralization can provide pH-favorable microsites for nitrification, significant soil pH
477 decline favors soil NH_x as NH₄⁺ rather than NH₃, where NH₃ is the substrate to
478 ammonia-oxidizing bacteria (AOB) and ammonia-oxidizing archaea (AOA). Soil pH is
479 a critical factor to AOB, the abundance and activity of AOB decreased at a low soil pH
480 and consequent nitrification and net NO₃⁻-N production also decreased with N supply
481 promoted soil acidification (Zhang et al., 2008). Tan et al (2018), working at the same
482 site, found that N additions led to a large decline in both fungi and bacteria abundance
483 (phospholipid fatty acids (PLFAs) as the indicator) associated with a decrease in DOC
484 (dissolved organic carbon) and increasing cations (e.g. Al³⁺ and Mn²⁺) as soil acidified.
485 However, the microbial community structures (ratio of fungal to bacterial biomass) did
486 not show any significant change (Tan et al., 2018). Further, N addition slightly changed
487 the bacterial/fungal diversity in DL soils, except bacterial Shannon's index which was
488 increased with N addition (Fig. S4). It differed considerably from BK soils with
489 significant changes in the bacterial/fungal diversity indices (especially for dominance)
490 with N addition, which could be an important contributor to the different impacts of N
491 addition on soil gross N transformations between DL and BK. Meanwhile, decreased
492 total mineral N activity and increased N/I ratio with N addition also suggested an
493 increasing potential risk of N losses (Stockdale et al., 2002). The observation indicated
494 N-induced acidification counteracted the promoting effect of increased SOC and TN
495 with N addition on the gross rates of N transformations, leading to a significant decline
496 in autotrophic nitrification and N immobilization in neutral temperate grassland soils.

497

498 **5. Conclusions**

499 Under natural N deposition, the calcareous alpine grassland soil had higher gross
500 rates of mineralization and nitrification and a lower gross immobilization rate than the
501 neutral temperate grassland soil, mainly contributed by the locality-specific soil
502 properties, i.e. high soil organic carbon (SOC) and total nitrogen (TN) and the low C/N
503 ratio. Nitrogen addition differentially affected gross N transformations in alpine and
504 temperate grassland soils. In calcareous alpine grassland soils, N addition increased
505 gross N transformation rates, by increasing SOC, TN, mineral N and fungal dominance.
506 In contrast, N transformation rates in neutral temperate grassland soil did not change at
507 a low N addition rate, but decreased at a high N addition rate caused by N-induced soil
508 pH decline. Our results illustrated the impacts of N addition on gross N transformation
509 rates were largely as a function of N addition rates and soil properties (e.g. SOC, TN
510 and soil pH). Notably, N-addition induced soil pH decline (acidification) might play a
511 more important role than SOC and TN in N transformations in response to N addition
512 by altering soil microbial community in the acid-sensitive soils (e.g. DL neutral
513 grassland soil). The understanding of the interactive response of the individual gross N
514 transformation processes to N addition provides insights on how different grassland
515 soils are likely to react to future changes in soil N availability, such as enhanced
516 atmospheric N deposition.

517

518 **Declaration of competing interest**

519 There are no conflicts of interest associated with this publication.

520

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530

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770 **Captions of Tables and Figures**

771 **Table 1.** Soil-climatic properties of six studied soils (0-20 cm) [Mean \pm S.D.] at the two
772 experimental sites Bayinbuluk (BK) and Duolun (DL).

773 **Table 2.** Gross N transformation rates calculated by ^{15}N tracing model *Ntrace_{Basic}* (mean
774 with S.D. in brackets, n=3).

775 **Fig. 1.** Measured (*dots*) and modeled (*lines*) concentrations of soil $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ (a) and $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$
776 -N (b), and ^{15}N enrichments of $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ (c) and $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$ (d).

777 **Fig. 2.** A schematic diagram illustrating the response of soil properties (pH, SOC, TN,
778 and C/N) and gross N transformation rates in response to enhanced N deposition at low
779 and high rates based on chronic N addition experiments in alpine and temperate
780 grassland soils.

781 **Table 1.** Soil-climatic properties of six studied soils (0-20 cm) [Mean \pm S.D.] at the two experimental sites Bayinbuluk (BK) and Duolun (DL).

Sampling sites	T ¹ (°C)	P ² (mm)	Climate	Treatment ³	N input, kg N ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹	Code	Soil pH (H ₂ O) (S:W =1:2.5)	SOC (g C kg ⁻¹) ⁴	TN (g N kg ⁻¹) ⁵	C/N	NH ₄ ⁺ -N (mg kg ⁻¹)	NO ₃ ⁻ -N (mg kg ⁻¹)	WHC (%)
Bayinbuluk	-4.8	266	Temperate continental	Natural	7.6 _(dep.)	BK _{Control}	7.82 \pm 0.02 a	37.4 \pm 0.7 b	3.59 \pm 0.13 b	10.4 \pm 0.2 a	3.67 \pm 0.22 b	12.23 \pm 0.26 b	44.9 \pm 0.1 a
				Experimental	7.6 _(dep.) + 30 _(fert.)	BK _{N30}	7.80 \pm 0.04 a	41.0 \pm 0.4 a	4.07 \pm 0.26 a	10.1 \pm 0.6 a	3.77 \pm 0.13 b	16.73 \pm 0.15 b	44.5 \pm 0.1 a
				Experimental	7.6 _(dep.) + 90 _(fert.)	BK _{N90}	7.79 \pm 0.04 a	42.1 \pm 0.5 a	4.25 \pm 0.12 a	9.9 \pm 0.2 a	7.87 \pm 0.24 a	55.81 \pm 4.27 a	44.0 \pm 0.7 a
Duolun	3.3	293	Temperate continental monsoon	Natural	14.7 _(dep.)	DL _{Control}	6.58 \pm 0.10 a	12.6 \pm 0.9 b	1.08 \pm 0.03 b	11.7 \pm 0.4 a	6.77 \pm 0.39 c	5.89 \pm 0.42 c	28.4 \pm 0.1 a
				Experimental	14.7 _(dep.) + 30 _(fert.)	DL _{N30}	6.36 \pm 0.11 b	15.2 \pm 0.2 a	1.34 \pm 0.03 a	11.4 \pm 0.2 a	7.49 \pm 0.15 b	8.78 \pm 0.16 b	28.4 \pm 0.2 a
				Experimental	14.7 _(dep.) + 120 _(fert.)	DL _{N120}	5.75 \pm 0.04 c	14.4 \pm 0.7 a	1.28 \pm 0.09 a	11.3 \pm 0.7 a	15.13 \pm 0.09 a	19.13 \pm 1.31 a	28.3 \pm 0.2 a

782 ¹ T is mean annual temperature;

783 ² P is mean annual precipitation;

784 ³ ‘Natural’ represents the site only received N deposition without other N inputs; ‘Experimental’ represents the site received both natural N deposition and experimental

785 N addition; In the subscripts of values, ‘dep.’ represents atmospheric N deposition, given by Xu et al., (2015) for BK and Zhang et al., (2017) for DL, and ‘fert.’

786 represents experimental N fertilizer application to simulate different levels of N deposition;

787 ⁴ ‘SOC’ represents soil organic carbon;

788 ⁵ ‘TN’ represents soil total nitrogen.

789 * The lowercases behind the values of soil properties denote the statistical difference between three treatments for each sampling site, where one-way ANOVA and

790 Tukey's HSD test were used at $P < 0.05$.

791 **Table 2.** Gross N transformation rates calculated by ¹⁵N tracing model *NtraceBasic* (mean with S.D. in brackets, n=3).

Gross N transformation rates (mg N kg ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	Duolun			Bayinbuluk		
	N ₀	N ₃₀	N ₁₂₀	N ₀	N ₃₀	N ₉₀
<i>M_{Nrec}</i>	0.25 (0.18)	0.64 (0.55)	0.69 (0.20)	1.70 (0.31)	0.95 (0.53)	0.11** (0.04)
<i>M_{Nlab}</i>	0.79 (0.20)	1.07 (0.56)	0.56 (0.29)	1.41 (0.38)	2.26 (0.69)	3.24** (0.19)
<i>I_{NH4-Nrec}</i>	5.38 (0.91)	1.69 (1.20)	1.21** (0.60)	1.47 (0.89)	2.94 (1.62)	5.23* (0.86)
<i>I_{NH4-Nlab}</i>	4.22 (0.81)	1.91 (1.24)	0.51** (0.48)	2.34 (1.45)	1.68 (1.41)	1.06 (0.85)
<i>I_{NO3}</i>	0.01 (0.01)	0.06 (0.04)	0.04 (0.03)	0.44 (0.09)	0.07* (0.07)	0.27 (0.23)
<i>O_{NH4}</i>	2.43 (0.07)	2.16 (0.11)	1.95* (0.12)	5.07 (0.12)	8.40** (0.11)	12.60*** (0.24)
<i>O_{Nrec}</i>	0.00 (0.00)	0.00 (0.00)	0.00 (0.00)	0.00 (0.00)	0.00 (0.00)	0.00 (0.00)
<i>D_{NO3}</i>	0.01 (0.00)	0.00 (0.00)	0.00 (0.00)	0.00 (0.00)	0.00 (0.00)	0.01 (0.00)
<i>A_{NH4}</i>	0.08 (0.03)	0.06 (0.03)	0.08 (0.04)	0.05 (0.03)	0.03 (0.02)	0.07 (0.02)
<i>R_{NH4}</i>	0.00 (0.00)	0.00 (0.00)	0.00 (0.00)	0.00 (0.00)	0.00 (0.00)	0.00 (0.00)
N/I ¹	0.25	0.60	1.13	1.33	1.82	2.00
Total N _{min} activity ²	13.09	7.53	4.96	12.43	16.30	22.52
Net NH ₄ ⁺ -N production ³	-11.06	-4.11	-2.5	-5.82	-9.84	-15.6
Net NO ₃ ⁻ -N production ⁴	2.41	2.1	1.91	4.63	8.33	12.32

792 ¹ N/I is the ratio of gross nitrification rate (*O_{NH4}*+*O_{Nrec}*) to gross ammonia immobilization rate (*I_{NH4-Nrec}* + *I_{NH4-Nlab}*);

793 ² Total N_{min} activity = *M_{Nrec}* + *M_{Nlab}* + *I_{NH4-Nrec}* + *I_{NH4-Nlab}* + *I_{NO3}* + *O_{NH4}* + *O_{Nrec}* + *D_{NO3}*

794 ³ Net NH₄⁺-N production = *M_{Nrec}* + *M_{Nlab}* + *R_{NH4}* + *D_{NO3}* - *I_{NH4-Nrec}* - *I_{NH4-Nlab}* - *I_{NO3}* - *A_{NH4}* - *O_{NH4}*

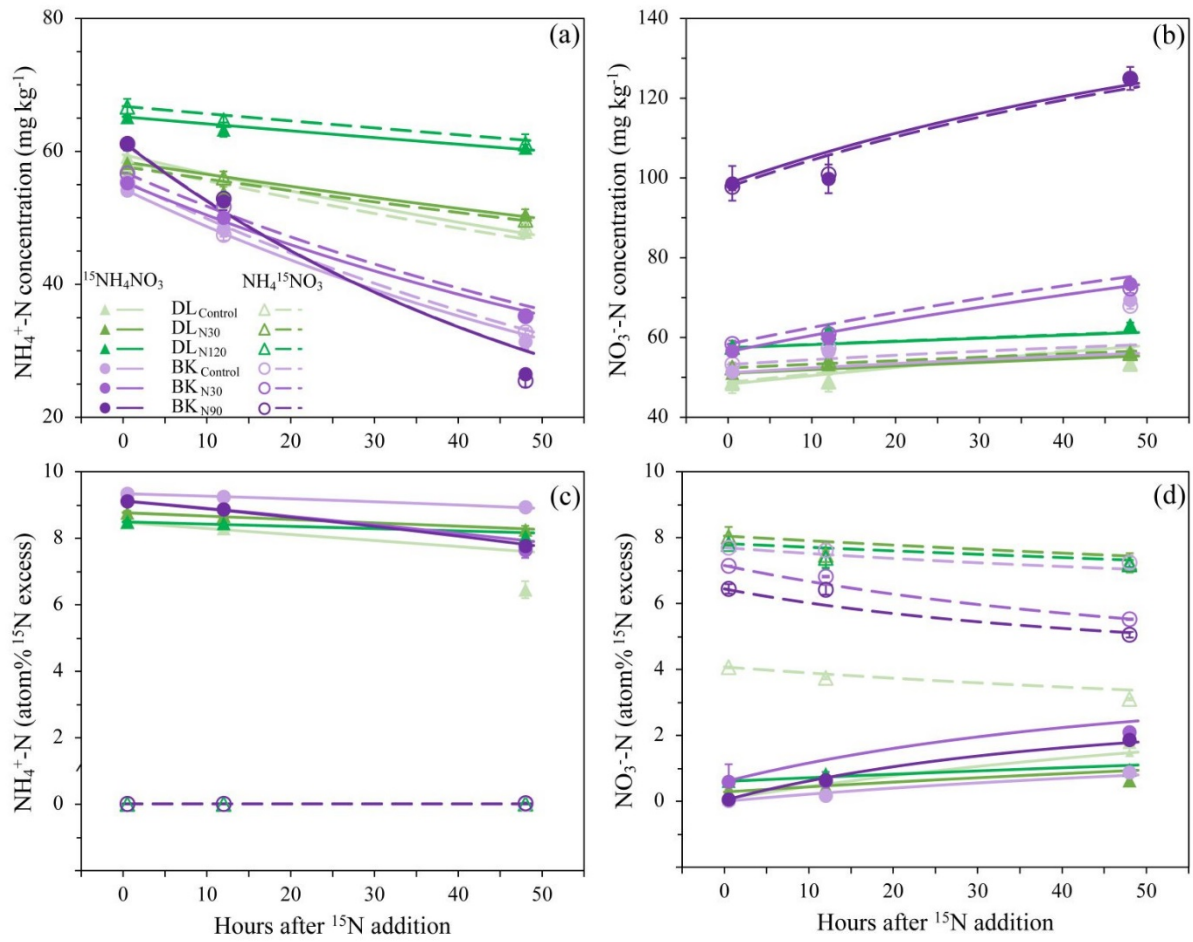
795 ⁴ Net NO₃⁻-N production = *O_{NH4}* + *O_{Nrec}* - *I_{NO3}* - *D_{NO3}*

796 Note: * and # represent the parameters are significantly different at *P* < 0.05, ** and ### represent the parameters are

797 highly significant at *P* < 0.01. * and ** represent the comparison of control plots and N treated plots at low rates (N30),

798 # and ### represent the comparison of N treated plots at low rates (N30) and high rates (N90 and N120), respectively.

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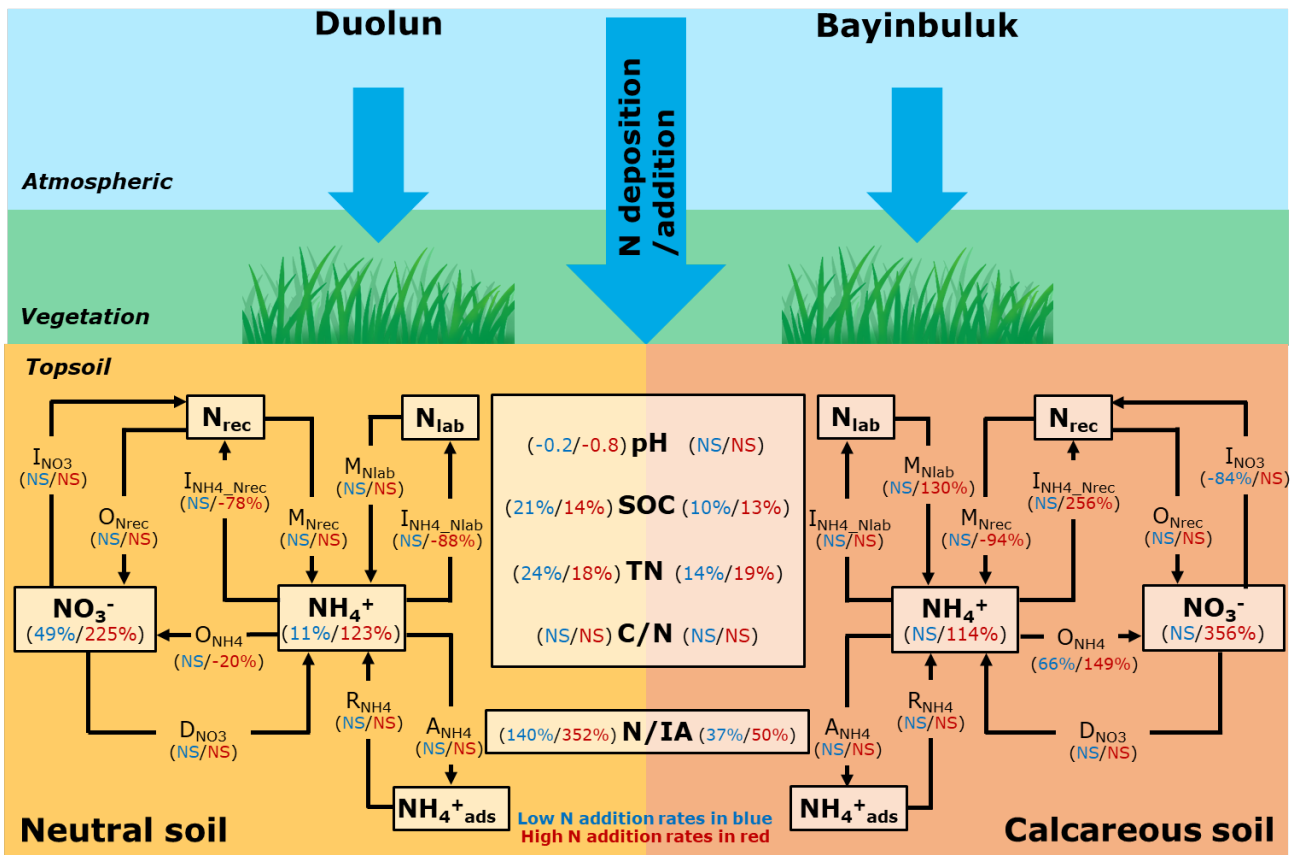
801 **Fig. 1.** Measured (*dots*) and modeled (*lines*) concentrations of soil $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ (a) and $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$ (b), and

802 ^{15}N enrichments of $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ (c) and $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$ (d).

803 Note: Bars indicate S.D.; Solid lines indicate $^{15}\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$ added treatments; Dashed lines indicate

804 $\text{NH}_4^{15}\text{NO}_3$ added treatments.

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807 **Fig. 2.** A schematic diagram illustrating the response of soil properties (pH, SOC, TN, and C/N) and

808 gross N transformation rates in response to enhanced N deposition at low and high rates based on

809 chronic N addition experiments in alpine and temperate grassland soils.

810 Note: Comparing to the control plots, only N addition-induced significant changes at $P < 0.05$ (absolute

811 difference values for soil pH and % for others) in parameters are shown in brackets, no significant

812 difference is shown as NS. Positive values represent increase, negative values represent decrease. The

813 values at low N addition rate were in blue ($30 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) and the values at high N addition rate

814 were in red (120 and $90 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ for DL and BK, respectively).

815