

1 **Changing soil moisture and pH with alpine meadow**
2 **degradation determines nitrogen preference of dominant**
3 **species**

4
5 **Abstract**

6 1. Our previous results revealed dominant plant species of alpine meadows under various
7 degradation stages showed differential preference to the three available N forms (ammonia,
8 nitrate, and amino acids). However, the perseverance of the N-uptake preference of the
9 species in different soil conditions and its affecting factors remains unknown, which
10 determines efficacy of nutrients addition in the restoration of degraded alpine meadows.

11 2. An indoor pot experiment was conducted to investigate the plasticity and determinants
12 of different plant species' N-uptake preference using ¹⁵N-labeled inorganic N (¹⁵NH₄⁺ and
13 ¹⁵NO₃⁻) and one of dual-labeled (¹³C-¹⁵N) amino acid (glycine). In the experiment, dominant
14 species of alpine meadow under specific degradation status were planted in soils of alpine
15 meadows with three different degradation status.

16 3. Different with the changing preference of dominant species in the field, results of this
17 study showed that all species preferred to uptake nitrate in all soils, except the *Kobresia*
18 *humilis*, *Carex moorcroftii*, and *Aster flaccidus* planted in the soil of severely degraded
19 alpine meadow (SD-soil), which took up more ammonia. The relative abundance of
20 different available N forms directly affects the N-uptake preferences of all species. Either
21 soil moisture or pH was controlled, the partial correlations between percentage uptake and
22 availability of various nitrogen forms changed. Differences in soil moisture and pH among
23 the three alpine meadows determines the N uptake preference of the nine species through
24 their impacts on the relative abundance of different available N forms.

25 4. *Synthesis*. The forms of available N added into soil will change with N cycling processes
26 regulated by soil moisture and pH, thereby affecting the plant N uptake. Our results imply
27 1) during the restoration of degraded alpine meadow the use of appropriate N form that
28 favors the target plant species should well match the soil environment, 2) adjusting the soil
29 moisture and pH, and consequently affecting the different abundance of various available

30 N forms therefore drive the plant community restoration may be better than directly adding
31 different available N to degraded alpine meadow.

32 **Keywords:** Alpine meadow, grassland degradation, ¹⁵N tracer, N acquisition strategies,
33 Organic and inorganic N

34

35

36 1. Introduction

37 Alpine meadows on the Qinghai-Tibetan plateau (QTP) are home to and the livelihood
38 source of 5 million people belonging to ethnic minorities. However, even though a few local
39 and national restoration projects have been implemented, alpine meadows on the QTP are
40 still regarded as severely degradation (Harris, 2010; Miehe et al., 2019). Degradation
41 greatly harms the provision of ecosystem services such as carbon storage and the
42 livelihood of local farmers (Wen et al., 2013). Fertilization is the most common and effective
43 measure used to restore the productivity of degraded alpine meadows (He et al., 2020;
44 Dong et al., 2020). Nitrogen (N) is an essential macronutrient that often limits net primary
45 productivity in terrestrial ecosystems (Vitousek & Howarth, 1991; Lebauer & Treseder,
46 2008; Moreau et al., 2019), especially in cold ecosystems where N mineralization is slow
47 due to low temperatures (McKane et al., 2002; Song et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2021). Thus,
48 N fertilizer application has been widely used to restore the alpine meadows. However,
49 several studies have shown that plants have a preference with respect to the uptake of
50 different forms of available N (NH₄⁺, NO₃⁻ and low-molecular-weight organic N) (Wang &
51 Macko, 2011; Wang et al., 2012; Lai et al., 2023). Given this fact, the effectiveness of N
52 fertilizer application in the restoration of degraded alpine meadows may depend on the use
53 of the most appropriate form of N.

54 Most plants obviously prefer to absorb and utilize inorganic N in soil (Harrison et al.,
55 2007; Ashton et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2017; Yi et al., 2023). However, plants may differ in
56 their capacity to utilize different forms of inorganic N. Some plants prefer to absorb NO₃⁻ in
57 soil, while others prefer to utilize NH₄⁺ (Zhang et al., 2018; Hong et al., 2019; Liu et al.,
58 2022). For example, an *in-situ* ¹⁵N-labeling experiment found that alpine meadow species
59 *Kobresia humilis* and *Kobresia pygmaea* preferred to take up NH₄⁺ while *Stipa aliena* and
60 *Saussurea pulchra* take up more NO₃⁻ (Xu et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2012; Lai et al., 2023).

61 However, most previous studies have typically focused on the dominant species' N
62 utilization preference in specific environments, leaving the response of plant N utilization
63 preference to environmental fluctuations largely unexamined. Moreover, the proportion of
64 different N forms that plants absorb can depend on many interacting factors, making it hard
65 to isolate the factors influencing plant N utilization preference in previous *in-situ*
66 experiments.

67 Plants have evolved nutritional adaptations to different forms of N, thus can often be
68 found on soils enriched in the particular N source to which they are most adapted. Indeed,
69 some plants appear to be so well adapted to a specific N source that they appear to prefer
70 it under a wide range of conditions (Britto & Kronzucker, 2013). For example, seedlings of
71 *Picea glauca* and *Pinus radiata* showed greater growth and N uptake with NH_4^+ than with
72 NO_3^- , regardless of changes in soil environment (McFee & Stone, 1968). Other studies
73 have indicated plant preferences for one inorganic N source over another for various plant
74 species/genotypes (von Wirén et al., 1997; Britto & Kronzucker, 2013). Therefore, closely
75 phylogenetically related species may exhibit similar plant N-uptake preferences (Li et al.,
76 2022). Some studies have also shown that plant N-uptake strategies may be related to
77 plant functional traits (Moreau et al., 2019). For example, plants promote the uptake
78 proportion of inorganic N by increasing specific root length and specific root surface area
79 (Hong et al., 2017). These studies suggested that plants may adapt to environmental
80 conditions and complete their life history through long-term evolutionary optimal N-uptake
81 strategies.

82 Nevertheless, another view states that plant N-uptake strategies are flexible and
83 plastic, adjusting quickly in a short-term under the influence of environment. The relative
84 amounts of N in soils is identified as the main factor determining which forms of N are used
85 by plants and plant N-uptake strategies may change with the concentration of available N
86 (Chapin et al., 2002; Andersen & Turner et al., 2013; Song et al., 2015). Soil moisture, and
87 pH influence the forms of N in soil and, therefore, the forms of N uptake by plants (Britto &
88 Kronzucker, 2013). For example, plants may switch N sources from NH_4^+ to NO_3^- along an
89 environmental gradient from wetter to drier conditions (Houlton et al., 2007; Mansson et
90 al., 2014; Wen et al., 2021) due to intensified nitrification and a higher NO_3^- availability in

91 relatively dry environments. By comparison, a shift in the main source of plant N from NH_4^+
92 to NO_3^- was reported when the soil changed from acidic to alkaline (von Wirén et al., 1997;
93 Hawkins & Robbins, 2010). In order to determine the most appropriate approach for
94 restoration of degraded meadows, the perseverance of N use preference of dominant
95 species along degradation gradients and the factors that affect it should be examined.

96 Degraded alpine meadows provide a natural platform for assessing the changes in
97 plant N acquisition strategies along an environmental gradient. Soil moisture decreases
98 and pH increases with grassland degradation (Peng et al., 2018). The total available soil
99 N also decreases, and the concentration of different forms of N may change with grassland
100 degradation (Che et al., 2017; Lai et al., 2023). Grassland degradation can also change
101 the plant community composition, and plant properties (Lai et al., 2021). Our previous
102 studies have shown that the dominant species at non-degraded alpine meadow prefer to
103 absorb NH_4^+ whereas the dominant species at moderately degraded alpine meadow prefer
104 to absorb NO_3^- (Lai et al., 2023). Although the dominant species at severely degraded
105 prefer to absorb inorganic N, the proportion of organic N used increased (Lai et al., 2023).
106 Whether the N use preference of plants persists under changing environmental conditions,
107 and what are the main mechanisms of plant N uptake preference in degraded alpine
108 meadows remains unknown. To solve this problem, we conducted a greenhouse pot
109 experiment to grow the dominant species from each degradation stage in soils of various
110 degradation stages, and a short-term ^{15}N labeling experiment to examine the plant uptake
111 of different available forms of N when the plant reaches maturity.

112 **2. Materials and Methods**

113 **Study site and species selection**

114 Collection of “field-conditioned” soils was done at the non-degraded (Intact),
115 moderately degraded (MD), and severely degraded (SD) areas of an alpine meadow in the
116 central QTP (92°56'E, 34°49'N), near the source of the Yangtze River, with a mean
117 elevation of 4635 m above sea level. The detailed information about environmental
118 background of the field area and identification of land degradation stages can be seen in
119 our previous study (Lai et al., 2023). We selected three dominant species at each
120 degradation stage based on our previous vegetation survey data (Lai et al., 2021, 2023).

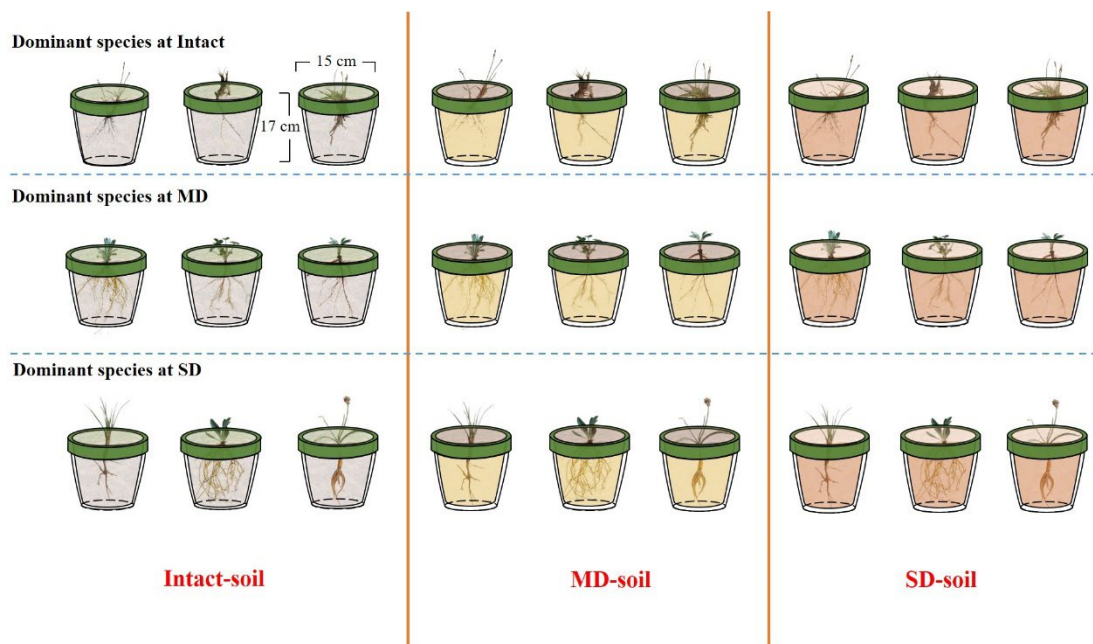
121 *Kobresia humilis* Sergievskaya (Cyperaceae), *Kobresia pygmaea* C. B. Clarke
122 (Cyperaceae), and *Poa pratensis* L. (Poaceae) were the dominant species at the non-
123 degraded grassland. *Saussurea pulchra* Lipsch (Asteraceae), *Leontopodium nanum* (Hook.
124 f. et Thoms.) Hand.-Mazz. (Asteraceae), *Potentilla acaulis* L. (Rosaceae) were the
125 dominant species at the moderately degraded grassland. *Carex moorcroftii* Falc. ex Boott
126 (Cyperaceae), *Allium sikkimense* Baker (Amaryllidaceae), and *Aster flaccidus* Bge.
127 (Asteraceae) were the dominant species at the severely degraded grassland. For detailed
128 information about the relative cover, height, frequency, and biomass of each dominant
129 species please refer to Lai et al. (2023).

130 **Pot experiment**

131 In the greenhouse experiment, the nine species from three degradation stages in an
132 alpine meadow on the QTP were used in this study. Seeds of all species were collected in
133 August 2020 near the field experiment site. The greenhouse experiment was conducted at
134 the Linze Experimental Station of Lanzhou University (103°05'E, 38°38'N; 1400 m a.s.l.)
135 from June to September 2021. The seeds were initially germinated in a glass culture dish
136 and placed in an incubator. The percentage seed germination was determined in trials for
137 each species (*Poa pratensis* L., 95%; *Saussurea pulchra*, 50%; *Leontopodium nanum*,
138 90%; *Potentilla acaulis* L., 50%; *Allium sikkimense*, 80%; *Aster flaccidus*, 90%). Due to
139 very low germination rates, underground buds of sedge species (*Kobresia humilis*,
140 *Kobresia pygmaea*, and *Carex moorcroftii*) were transplanted from field plots. This
141 approach was also used in a pot experiment about sedge species (Phoenix et al., 2020).
142 Soils were collected across three plots (3 m × 3 m) within each degradation stage nearby
143 the research station. As roots of all species were mainly concentrated at 0–20 cm soil layer
144 (Lai et al., 2023), we collected soil at 0–20 cm depth and sieved to 2 mm to remove large
145 roots and rocks. Soil of the same degradation stage was mixed. The field-collected and
146 processed soil was cooled immediately to –4°C in refrigerated trucks and then transported
147 to the experimental station.

148 To investigate the plant N-uptake preferences of each species under changing
149 environments, we conducted the experiments with 9 dominant species in soils of three
150 degraded alpine meadows, and 4-¹⁵N-labeling treatments (¹⁵NH₄⁺, ¹⁵NO₃⁻, [¹³C₂, ¹⁵N]-

151 glycine, and control), 3 replicates for each ¹⁵N-labeling treatments, with a total of 324 pots
 152 (3 (degradation stages)×9 (dominant species)×4 (¹⁵N-labeling treatments)×3 (replicates)).
 153 Pots (15 × 15 × 17 cm deep) were filled with 2 kg prepared soil and placed at room
 154 temperature for 2 weeks. All seedlings emerging from the soil seed bank were removed in
 155 the 2 weeks. Five seedlings of same species (about 1 cm high) and underground buds of
 156 sedge species were planted in each pot. Seedlings that died within the first week after
 157 transplanting were removed and replanted. The environment in the greenhouse was set
 158 similar as much as possible to the field during the growing season. The air temperature in
 159 the greenhouse was 24°C during the day (7:00 am to 22:00) and 16°C at night (22:00 to
 160 7:00 am), and the relative humidity was consistent at 65%. Throughout the study, soil
 161 moisture in pots was maintained at 65% of field capacity by adding distilled water every 1-
 162 3 days according to the water loss determined by weighing (Zhang et al., 2020). The pots
 163 were placed randomly and moved periodically in the greenhouse.



164
 165 Fig. 1 Design of greenhouse pot experiment. Each row of pots represents one of the
 166 dominant species at the same degradation stage planted into soils of different degradation
 167 stages. Five seedlings of same species were planted in each pot. The figure above shows
 168 only one of the four ¹⁵N-labeling treatments (¹⁵NH₄⁺, ¹⁵NO₃⁻, [¹³C₂, ¹⁵N]-glycine, and control),
 169 and the other three treatments were set as the same method. Intact, non-degraded alpine
 170 meadow; MD, moderately degraded alpine meadow; SD, severely degraded alpine

171 meadow

172 **Isotope labelling and harvest**

173 Short-term ^{15}N -labeling experiments were carried out on September 14th, 2021, after
174 the seedlings in each pot had been growing for 12 weeks. We used three types of ^{15}N
175 labels: $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ (98 atom% ^{15}N), $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ (99 atom% ^{15}N) and [$^{13}\text{C}_2,^{15}\text{N}$]-glycine (98 atom%
176 ^{15}N) (Fig. 1). The ^{15}N concentration of the solutions with these labeled N sources was all 8
177 mM. The three ^{15}N -labeled treatments and a water control were injected one at a time at
178 two soil depths (2.5 cm and 7.5 cm) in each pot. In total, 16 ml solution (1 ml per injection)
179 was injected at the two soil depths at each of the eight injection sites around individuals of
180 dominant species at each pot. There was no irrigation the day before labeling.

181 Six hours after the ^{15}N solution adding to the soil, plant and soil samples were collected
182 from the pots (Xu et al., 2011). The soil was carefully separated from the plant roots.
183 Harvested soil samples were immediately brought to the laboratory and stored at -4°C until
184 measurements were made.

185 **Sample analysis**

186 Shoots and roots were rinsed first with tap water, and carefully separated, then roots
187 were soaked in a 0.5 mM CaCl_2 solution for 30 min, and again with deionized water to clear
188 the ^{15}N adsorbed onto the root surface (Xu et al., 2011). Roots were put in transparent
189 plastic root disk, the root images were scanned with Epson scanner (10000XLPro, Canada)
190 with a resolution of 300 dpi, then root characteristics were analyzed by Win Rhizo Pro
191 (V2012b, Canada). The total root length and root diameter of each scanned roots were
192 recorded, and specific root length ($\text{cm}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$) was calculated. Root with diameter less than 2
193 mm was fine roots (Makkonen et al., 1999). Finally, shoots and roots were dried at 75°C
194 for 48 h, weighed, and ground to a fine powder separately with a mortar and pestle. About
195 2 mg of plant material (shoots and roots separately) was weighed into tin capsules to
196 analyze the C, N content, ^{13}C and ^{15}N atom% using a Vario EL cube interfaced with an
197 IsoPrime100 isotope ratio mass spectrometer (Elementar Analysensysteme GmbH, Hanau,
198 Germany).

199 The concentrations of exchangeable NH_4^+ , and NO_3^- in soil were determined using a
200 flow autoanalyzer (SEAL analytical AutoAnalyzer 3, Northern Ireland, United Kingdom)

201 after extraction with 1 M KCl. Soil water content was determined by the drying method, pH
 202 was measured using the acidimeter (FE28K, Mettler Toledo, Shanghai) with dry soil: water
 203 ratio of 1:2.5. The concentrations of soil dissolved organic N (DON) was determined using
 204 a TOC-TN analyzer (Elementar vario TOC select, Hanau, Germany) after extraction with
 205 0.5 M K₂SO₄. The concentration of soil glycine was estimated considering the percentage
 206 of glycine to total dissolved organic N in alpine grasslands (Liu et al., 2022; Lai et al., 2023).
 207 The sum of three N fractions (exchangeable NH₄⁺, NO₃⁻, and dissolved organic N) in soil
 208 was estimated to indicate the available soil N under different degradation stages (Lai et al.,
 209 2023).

210 Calculation and statistics

211 ¹⁵N atom% excess (APE) was calculated as the atom% ¹⁵N difference between labeled
 212 and control plants samples. ¹⁵N amount in the shoot or root material (μg) was calculated
 213 by multiplying root or shoot N concentration (μmol N g⁻¹ d.w.), the corresponding atom%
 214 (APE/100), biomass (B, g), and the relative molecular mass of ¹⁵N (15), according to the
 215 following equation (Liu et al., 2020):

$$216 \quad ^{15}\text{N} (\mu\text{g}) = N_{\text{concentration}} \left(\frac{\mu\text{mol}}{\text{g}} \right) \times \frac{\text{APE}}{100} \times B (\text{g}) \times 15 \left(\frac{\text{g}}{\text{mol}} \right) \quad (1)$$

217 Plant ¹⁵N uptake rates (P¹⁵NUR, μg ¹⁵N g⁻¹ h⁻¹ d.w. root) was calculated by adding the
 218 root and shoot ¹⁵N amount together, and then dividing by the labeling time (h), root biomass
 219 (g), as shown in the following equation:

$$220 \quad P^{15}\text{NUR} (\mu\text{g} \ ^{15}\text{N} \ \text{g}^{-1} \ \text{h}^{-1}) = \frac{\text{Root} \ ^{15}\text{N} \ \text{amount} (\mu\text{g}) + \text{Shoot} \ ^{15}\text{N} \ \text{amount} (\mu\text{g})}{\text{Root biomass (g)} \ \text{Time (h)}} \quad (2)$$

221 Plant N uptake rates (NUR, μg N g⁻¹ h⁻¹ d.w. root) were calculated by multiplying plant
 222 P¹⁵NUR by the concentration of native NH₄⁺, NO₃⁻, and N-glycine in soil (MN, μg N g⁻¹),
 223 and then divided the amount of ¹⁵N labeling and ¹⁵N labeling abundance, as follows
 224 (McKane et al., 2002):

$$225 \quad \text{NUR} (\mu\text{g} \ \text{N} \ \text{g}^{-1} \ \text{h}^{-1}) = \frac{P^{15}\text{NUR} (\mu\text{g} \ \text{g}^{-1} \ \text{h}^{-1}) \times \text{MN} (\mu\text{g} \ \text{g}^{-1})}{^{15}\text{N}_{\text{added}} \times ^{15}\text{N} \ \text{labeling abundance}} \quad (3)$$

226 Total N uptake was calculated as the sum of the uptake of exchangeable NH₄⁺, NO₃⁻,
 227 and N-glycine. Preferences for different N forms were calculated as the ratio of individual
 228 uptake to the total N uptake.

229 One-Way ANOVA was conducted to test the differences in plant N-uptake rate and

230 preference of different available forms of N, soil moisture, pH, concentration of different
231 available N forms, total soil available N concentration and root characteristics at different
232 degradation stages soils. All the data satisfied normal distributions and homogeneity of
233 variance tests when performing One-Way ANOVA. The uptake of intact glycine molecules
234 by plants was corrected by the linear correlation slope of the percentage excess of ^{13}C and
235 ^{15}N of the labeled plants (Fig. S1). We used Pearson correlations to test the relationships
236 between plant N-uptake preference and soil environment, soil available N and plant
237 properties. We used the “phytools” package of R (R Development Core Team, 2016) to
238 construct the phylogenetic tree and the “ape” package was used to calculate the
239 phylogenetic trees distance.

240 Variation partitioning analysis (VPA) that partitioned the variance shared by all factors
241 was then used to quantify the independent and interactive contribution of each group of
242 factors. We firstly used the VPA to examine the contribution of soil environment, soil
243 available N and plant properties to plant N-uptake preferences. Soil moisture and pH were
244 grouped as soil environment, the different forms of N and total available N were classified
245 as soil available N, and root traits and phylogenetic trees distance were grouped as plant
246 properties. The variation partitioning analyses were conducted with the R package “vegan”
247 v.3.2.4 (R Development Core Team, 2016). The “caret” package of R was used to
248 standardize all the data before the variation partitioning analysis.

249 Then, as soil pH or moisture may affect the availability of various N forms therefore
250 the plant nitrogen uptake preference, its effect on the N-uptake preference was determined
251 by comparing the zero-order and partial correlation coefficients when one of them was
252 controlled. The greater the difference between the zero-order and the partial correlation
253 coefficients, the stronger the effect of the factor being controlled (Doetterl et al., 2015).
254 These analyses were conducted using the packages “ggm” and “psych” of the R statistical
255 software v.3.2.4 (R Development Core Team, 2016).

256 Structural equation modelling was further used to evaluate the direct and indirect
257 relationships between the plant N-uptake preference and soil environment (soil moisture
258 and pH), different forms of N concentration and total soil available N concentration. This
259 approach can partition the direct and indirect effects that one variable may have on another

260 and is therefore useful for exploring complex relationships in natural ecosystems. Owing
261 to strong multicollinearity among the factors of soil N forms, we calculated the variance
262 inflation factor (VIF) to remove the linearly dependent indicators before structural equation
263 modelling construction (Table S1). The fit of the final model was evaluated using the model
264 χ^2 test and the root mean-squared error of approximation. The structural equation
265 modelling analyses were conducted using AMOS 26.0 (Amos Development Corporation,
266 Chicago, IL, USA).

267 **3. Results**

268 **Soil characteristics**

269 The concentration of total soil available N, inorganic N, DON, and glycine-N decreased
270 significantly with degradation (Fig. 2a-e). The concentration of NO_3^- was the highest in soils
271 of all degradation stages. The concentration of NO_3^- was 18, 11 and 4 times higher than
272 that of NH_4^+ in soil of non-degraded (Intact-soil), moderately degraded (MD-soil) and
273 severely degraded alpine meadow (SD-soil), respectively (Fig. 2a). The ratio of NH_4^+ to
274 NO_3^- significantly increased in SD-soil (Fig. 2b).

275 Soil moisture was significantly declined in degraded soil (Fig. S3a), but there was no
276 significant difference between MD-soil and SD-soil. Soil pH was significantly increased in
277 degraded soil (Fig. S3b). It was 8.2 ± 0.02 , 8.7 ± 0.03 and 8.9 ± 0.02 at Intact, MD and SD
278 -soil, respectively.

279 **Species characteristics**

280 There were no significant differences in average total root length, fine root length, thick
281 root length, root surface area, specific root length and specific root area of any species
282 when planted in soils of different degradation stages (Fig. S4a-f). Phylogenetic trees of the
283 same genus have close distance to each other (Table S2). For example, there is a close
284 genetic distance between *Carex moorcroftii*, *Kobresia humilis* and *Kobresia pygmaea* of
285 *Cyperaceae* family (Table S2).

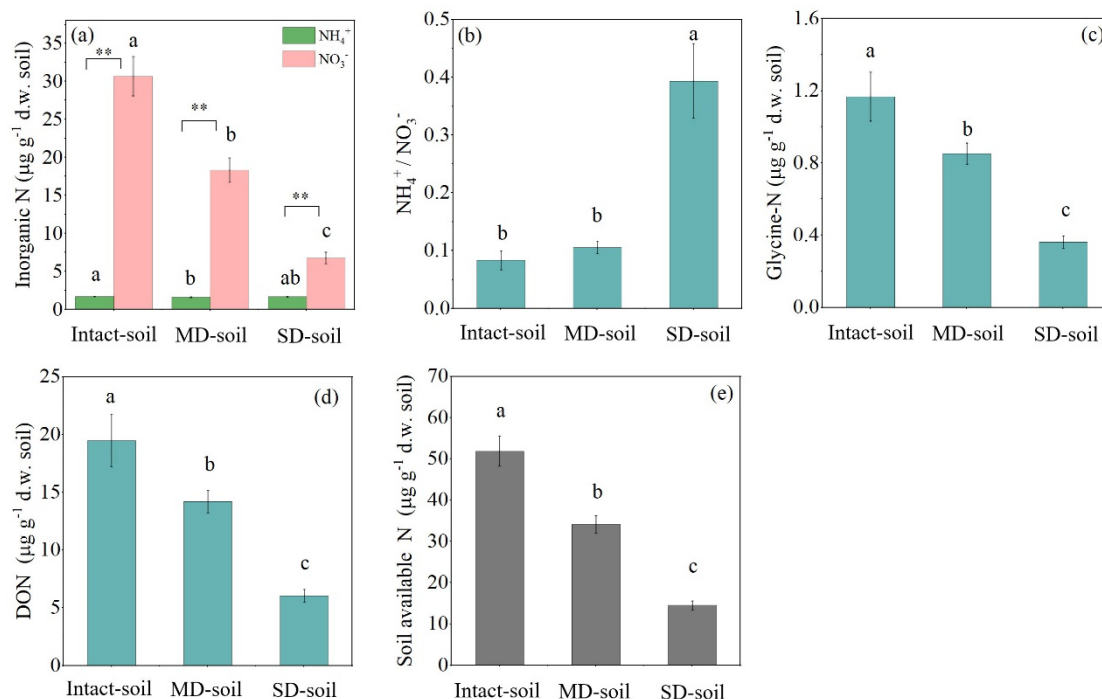
286 **N-uptake of the nine species at different soils**

287 *Kobresia humilis*, *Carex moorcroftii*, and *Aster flaccidus* had higher uptake percentage
288 for NO_3^- when planted in Intact-soil and MD-soil (Fig. 3c, g, and i), but took up more NH_4^+
289 when planted in SD-soil (Fig. 3c, g, and i). Other species mainly absorbed NO_3^- when

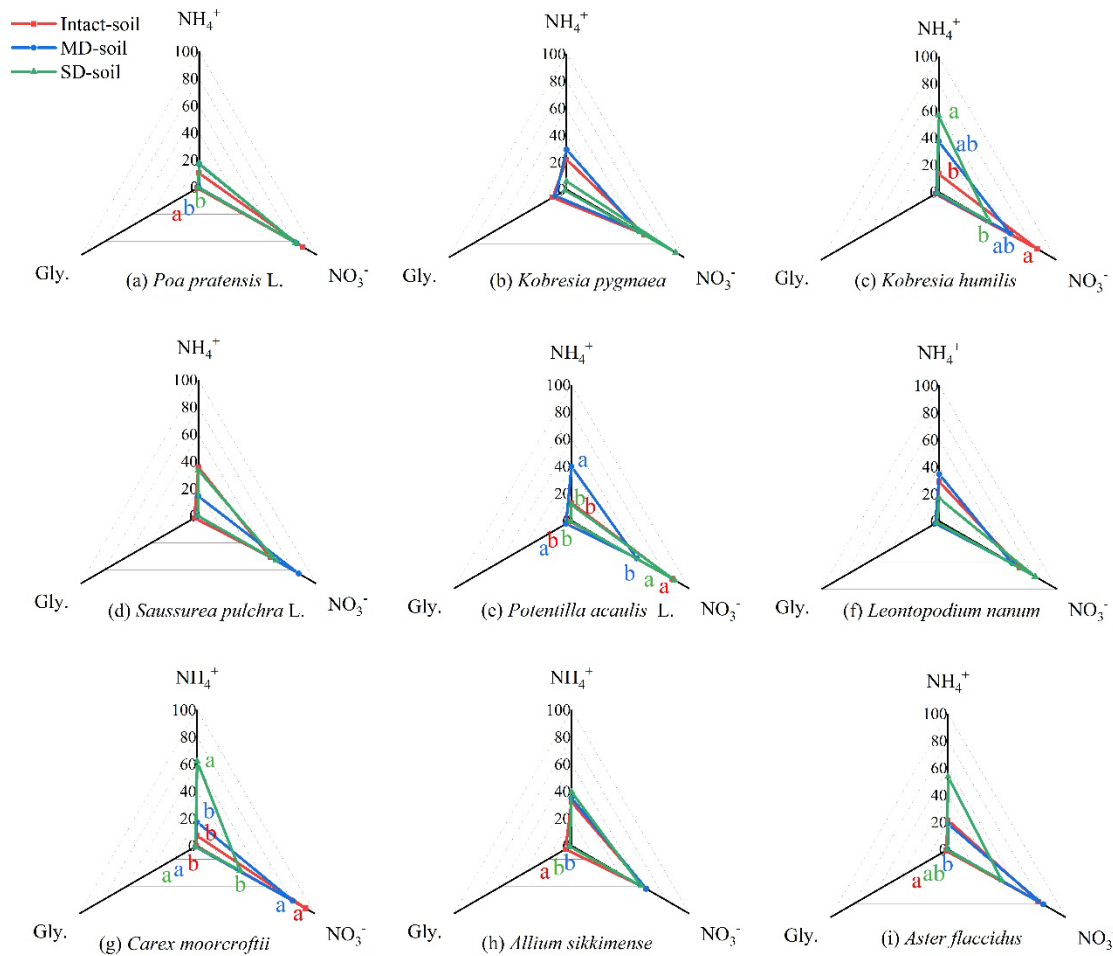
290 planted in any of the three soils (Fig. 3a, b, d, e, f and h).

291 Factors affecting plant N-uptake

292 Soil environment and soil available N had significant effects on plant N-uptake (Fig.
293 4). Soil available N explained 17% variance of the nine species' plant N-uptake preference
294 whereas soil environment explained 4% of the variance (Fig. 4), which also interactively
295 affected plant N-uptake preference (Fig. 4). The percentage uptake of NH_4^+ (Fig. 5a and
296 S5) and NO_3^- (Fig. 5b and S5) were closely correlated with the ratio of NH_4^+ to NO_3^- , NH_4^+
297 to total available N and NO_3^- to total available N. No significant correlations were observed
298 between plant N-uptake preference with root functional traits and phylogenetic tree
299 distances (Fig. S5). When either soil moisture or pH was controlled, the zero-order
300 correlation coefficients decreased (Fig. 5). The structural equation modelling analysis
301 revealed that the change in soil environments (soil moisture and pH) affected the
302 availability of different forms of soil N and thus influenced the plant N-uptake preferences
303 (Fig. 6a). The total standardized effects of the soil environment were higher than for
304 available soil N (Fig. 6b).

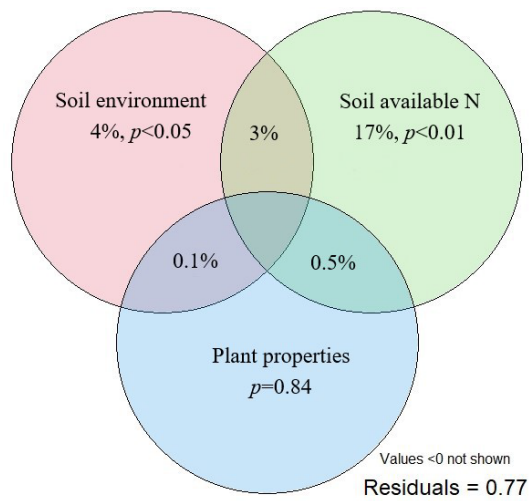


305 Fig. 2 Different forms of soil available N and total available soil N concentrations at different
306 degradation stages soil. The values are means \pm SE (n=27). Different lowercase letters
307 above the columns indicate significant differences at $p < 0.05$ among different degradation
308 stages soil
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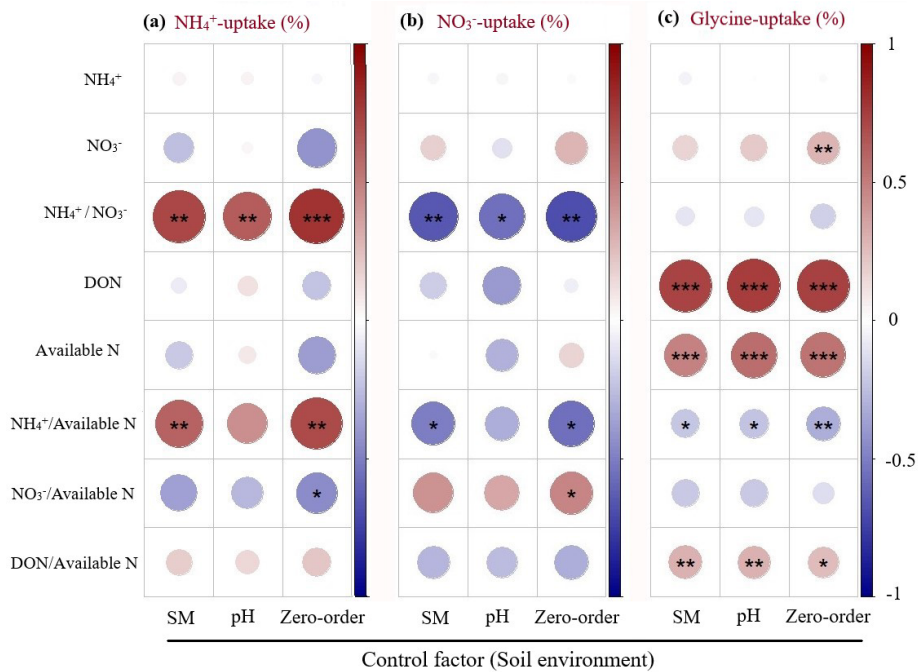
Fig. 3 The uptake preference of NH_4^+ , NO_3^- , and glycine by dominant species at different degradation stages soil. The three-axis present the contribution of NH_4^+ , NO_3^- , and glycine to total N uptake (%) by plants (total sum of three N forms in plants= 100%). The different colored lines represent the N uptake preference by all dominant species planted at different degradation stages soil. Different lowercase letters indicate the significant difference of plant uptake preference for the same form N in soil at different degradation stages soil ($p < 0.05$)



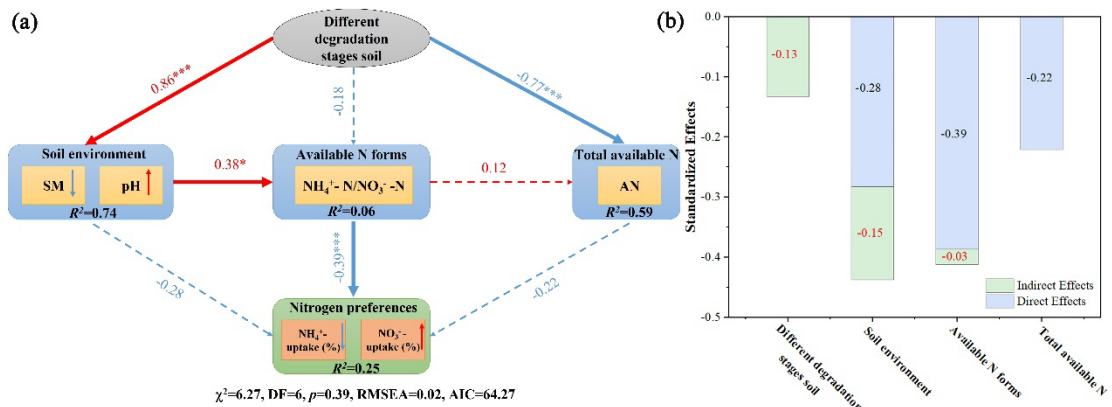
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Fig. 4 Variation partitioning analyses (VPA) reveal the relative contribution of soil

321 environment, soil available N and plant properties to different form of N-uptake (%) by plant.
 322 Soil environment includes soil moisture and pH; Soil available N includes the concentration
 323 of different forms of N and total available N; Plant properties includes total root length, fine
 324 root length, thick root length, root surface area, specific root length, specific root area and
 325 phylogenetic trees distance



326
 327 Fig. 5 Partial correlations between the N-uptake percentage of different available N forms
 328 and soil available N after controlling soil environment (soil moisture and pH). The x-axis
 329 shows the zero-order (without controlling any factors) and the factors being controlled. The
 330 y-axis shows the N-uptake percentage of NH_4^+ (a), NO_3^- (b), and Glycine (c) correlations
 331 with soil available N. The size and color of the circles indicate the strength and sign of the
 332 correlation. Differences in circle size and color between the zero-order and controlled
 333 factors indicate the level of dependency of the correlation between the different form of N-
 334 uptake (%) by plant and the examined factor on the controlled variable (no change in circle
 335 size and color between the controlled factor and zero-order = no dependency; a
 336 decrease/increase in circle size and color intensity = loss /gain of correlation).
 337



339 Fig. 6 Direct and indirect effects of soil environment, concentration of different forms of N

340 and total available N on the N-uptake preferences by plant (a), and direct and indirect path
341 standardized effects (b). Solid and dashed arrows represent significant ($p < 0.05$) and non-
342 significant ($p > 0.05$) paths. Blue and red lines represent negative and positive correlation.
343 The numbers adjoining the arrows are standardized path coefficients. * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$;
344 *** $p < 0.001$

345

346 **4. Discussion**

347 **4.1 Plant nitrogen uptake preferences in degraded alpine meadows**

348 The dominant species in degraded alpine meadows examined here showed flexibility
349 in using available N forms compared to field experiment. Houlton et al. (2007) found
350 community-wide shifts in preferences for N sources that tracked N pools along a
351 precipitation gradient, suggesting that tropical plants are flexible in their N uptake strategies.
352 In boreal forest (Nordin et al., 2001) and temperate forest (Finzi & Berthrong, 2005; Liu et
353 al., 2017; Zhou et al., 2019), plants preferred to uptake NH_4^+ , the dominant available N
354 forms in soil. In our pot experiment, NO_3^- was the most abundance form of N in soils of all
355 degradation stages, and the NO_3^- concentration was 18 times, 11 times and 3.9 times
356 higher than that of NH_4^+ in the three soils, respectively (Fig. 2a). However, in the field, NH_4^+
357 was the most abundance form of N in soil at non-degraded stage (Lai et al., 2023). The
358 relatively higher concentration of NO_3^- in pot experiment may be due to the enhancement
359 of nitrification because of low soil pH in pot experiment (0.5 unit lower than in the field). Six
360 of the nine dominant species preferred to uptake NO_3^- at soils of all degradation stages,
361 and the proportion of NO_3^- uptake by plants was more than 50% (Fig.3). Different with the
362 results of pot experiment, *K. pygmaea* and *P. pratensis* in the field mainly absorbed NH_4^+
363 (Lai et al., 2023), which indicate the flexibility of the two species' nitrogen uptake preference.
364 However, *K. humilis*, *C. moorcroftii*, and *A. flaccidus* planted in SD-soil took up more NH_4^+
365 than other forms (Fig. 3c, g, and i), which is mainly due to the increase of $\text{NH}_4^+/\text{NO}_3^-$ in SD-
366 soil supported by the positive correlation between NH_4^+ uptake percentage and the
367 $\text{NH}_4^+/\text{NO}_3^-$ (Fig. S5). The significant increase in the proportion of NH_4^+ to soil available N
368 (Fig. 2b) and the correlation between it and uptake percentage of different N forms
369 suggests that plant N use preferences may be influenced not only by the most abundant
370 form of N in the soil but also by the proportion of different forms of available N. In a word,
371 the difference in N uptake preference of the nine species in various soils (Fig. 3) and

372 corresponding changes in concentrations of available N forms (Fig.2) imply the apparent
373 plasticity of dominant species' N uptake in different degraded alpine meadows, which are
374 in line with previous studies that dominant species often use the most abundant N forms
375 (Mckane et al., 2002; Andersen & Turner, 2013; Wen et al., 2021).

376 **4.2 The main influencing mechanisms of plant nitrogen utilization strategies in** 377 **degraded alpine meadows**

378 Nitrogen uptake preferences of dominant plant species in alpine meadows of various
379 degradation status is determined by soil environments (soil moisture and pH) and
380 availability of different N forms rather than the root functional traits and phylogenetic trees
381 distance (Fig. 4 and S5). Soil moisture is an important environmental factor that affects the
382 transformation of N in soil, therefore, the forms of N uptake by plants (Britto & Kronzucker,
383 2013). In most cases, ammonification is an aerobic process (Zhalnina et al., 2012; Che et
384 al., 2017). Thus decrease in soil moisture and improved soil aeration with alpine meadow
385 degradation should promote the activities of soil nitrifiers (Che et al. 2017). The increase
386 in soil nitrifiers might make NO_3^- the most abundant available N form, therefore plants are
387 likely to uptake more NO_3^- (Houlton et al., 2007; Lai et al., 2023). Our partial correlation
388 results show that after controlling soil moisture, the correlation coefficients between the
389 percentage uptake of NH_4^+ (Fig. 5a), NO_3^- (Fig. 5b) and glycine (Fig. 5c) by dominant
390 species with concentration of NO_3^- significantly decreased by 9%, 6% and 12%. This
391 indicates that soil moisture regulates concentration of NO_3^- in soil and thus affects the plant
392 N-uptake preference. Soil pH affects NH_4^+ and NO_3^- transport differentially, with more
393 uptake of NO_3^- in alkaline conditions (Britto & Kronzucker, 2013). In addition, soil pH also
394 significantly alters the diversity, abundance, and function of ammonia oxidation genes
395 (AOB-*amoA* and AOA-*amoA*), determining the nitrification and changes the NO_3^-
396 concentration in the soil (Gubry-Rangin et al., 2011). Nitrification is inhibited under acidic
397 conditions (Watanabe et al., 1998) because acidic conditions in the rhizosphere inhibit the
398 associated soil bacterial activity (Falkengren-Grerup, 1995), while nitrification capacity may
399 be increased in alkaline soils. A study on alpine meadow has shown that a weak increase
400 in pH after grassland degraded could result in a significant increase in the abundance of
401 AOA-*amoA* genes (Che et al., 2017). The soils at different degradation stages in this study

402 are all weakly alkaline (Fig. S3b), which was conducive to nitrification and further increased
403 NO₃⁻ concentration in the soil. Moreover, the correlation coefficients significantly decreased
404 by 19%, 10% and 9% between the percentage uptake of NH₄⁺ (Fig. 5a), NO₃⁻ (Fig. 5b) and
405 glycine (Fig. 5c) with concentration of NO₃⁻ in soil after controlling soil pH. Thus, soil
406 moisture and pH ultimately affect plant N-uptake preferences by influencing the
407 concentration of different forms of N in soil (Fig. 6a).

408 Our study found that root traits and phylogenetic trees distance had no significant
409 effect on plant N-uptake preference across degraded alpine meadow species (Fig. 4 and
410 S5). Roots are vital for plants to acquire nutrients (Ma et al., 2018). Hong et al. (2017)
411 found that the root biomass, volume, surface area and average diameter were negatively
412 correlated with the N uptake rate, while the specific root length and the specific root area
413 had significantly positive effects on the N uptake rate across ten alpine plant species.
414 However, the plant root characteristics did not determine the N-uptake preference of our
415 study species. The contrast between Hong's and our results suggest that root functional
416 traits determine the uptake rate of various N forms but not the N uptake preference. Plant
417 N-uptake preference may be an inherent property of plant evolution, and there was a
418 possibility that consistent plant preference was genetically inherited (Wang & Macko, 2011;
419 Daryanto et al., 2019). Wang et al. (2011) found that plant seeds retain the adaptation
420 towards the N uptake preference of their parents, even when the abundances of NH₄⁺ and
421 NO₃⁻ changed. However, the phylogenetic trees distance did not show an effect on plant
422 N-uptake preference in this study (Fig. 4 and S5), and plant progeny does not continue to
423 exhibit the same N preference as the parent plants in the field (Lai et al., 2023). There may
424 be differences in physiological traits and genotypes among different species. The
425 insufficient phylogenetic trees between dominant species in our study also may mask the
426 influence of evolutionary traits on the plant N uptake preference. More species and wider
427 phylogenetic trees species should be further studied in the future.

428 **4.3 Implications for restoration of degraded alpine meadows**

429 Nitrogen fertilizer application can significantly improve the productivity of alpine
430 meadows, and it is an effective means for restoration of degraded grassland in short-term.
431 Our *in-suit* ¹⁵N-labeling experiment have shown that dominant species at non-degraded

432 alpine meadow prefer to absorb NH_4^+ ; dominant species at moderately degraded prefer to
433 absorb NO_3^- (Lai et al., 2023). Thus, applying NH_4^+ -N fertilizer would be most efficient
434 approach to recover the plant community. However, results of this pot experiment raise the
435 possibility that restoration of degraded alpine meadow grassland productivity is not
436 necessarily linked to the particular form of N fertilizer. The manipulation of soil moisture
437 and pH of degraded alpine meadow to ensure the higher concentration of NH_4^+ in soil may
438 restore the dominance of non-degraded alpine meadow species.

439 As the dominant species of non-degraded alpine meadow showed plasticity to uptake
440 the most abundant N form available in soil, either NH_4^+ -N or the NO_3^- -N fertilizer could help
441 to restore the degraded alpine meadow. However, the synthesis of NO_3^- into proteins
442 consumes four times higher energy than NH_4^+ (Wang & Macko, 2011), which suggests that
443 NH_4^+ -N fertilizer may be more efficient in the restoration. But further restoration practices
444 either by applying different form of N fertilizer or manipulating the soil environment and
445 addition of N fertilizer should be tested in the field.

446 **5. Conclusions**

447 Our results shown that dominant species of degraded alpine meadows have evolved
448 a uniformly plastic ability to switch among different N sources, and different species
449 showed different levels of flexibility in degraded meadows. The change in soil moisture and
450 pH alters the different forms of available N concentration, thereby influencing plant N-
451 uptake preferences. From the perspective of grassland restoration management, our
452 results revealed that plant N-uptake preferences were mainly regulated by the soil
453 environments. To better understand the mechanism of plant N acquisition strategies,
454 further studies should consider the effects of competing neighboring plants and soil
455 microorganisms on the N acquisition strategies of degraded alpine meadow plants.

456 **6. Author Contributions**

457 **7. Acknowledgements**

458 **8. Conflict of Interest Statement**

459

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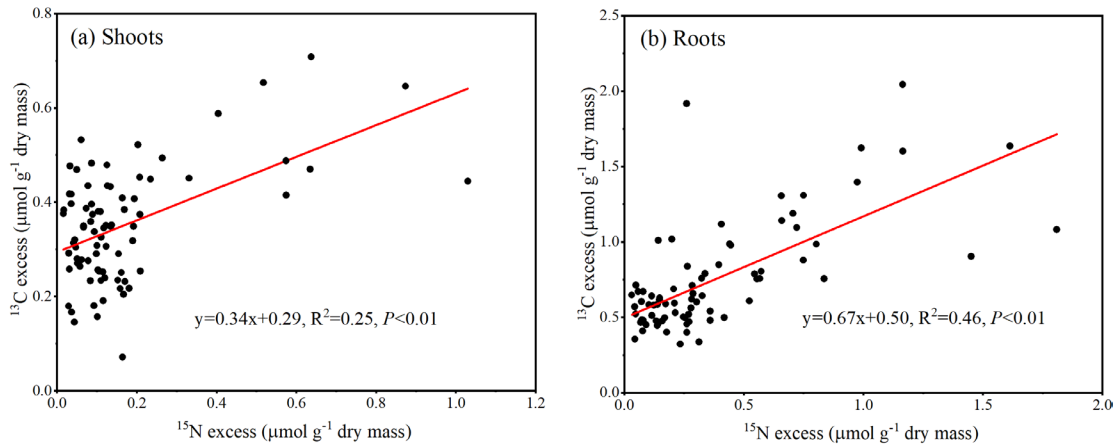
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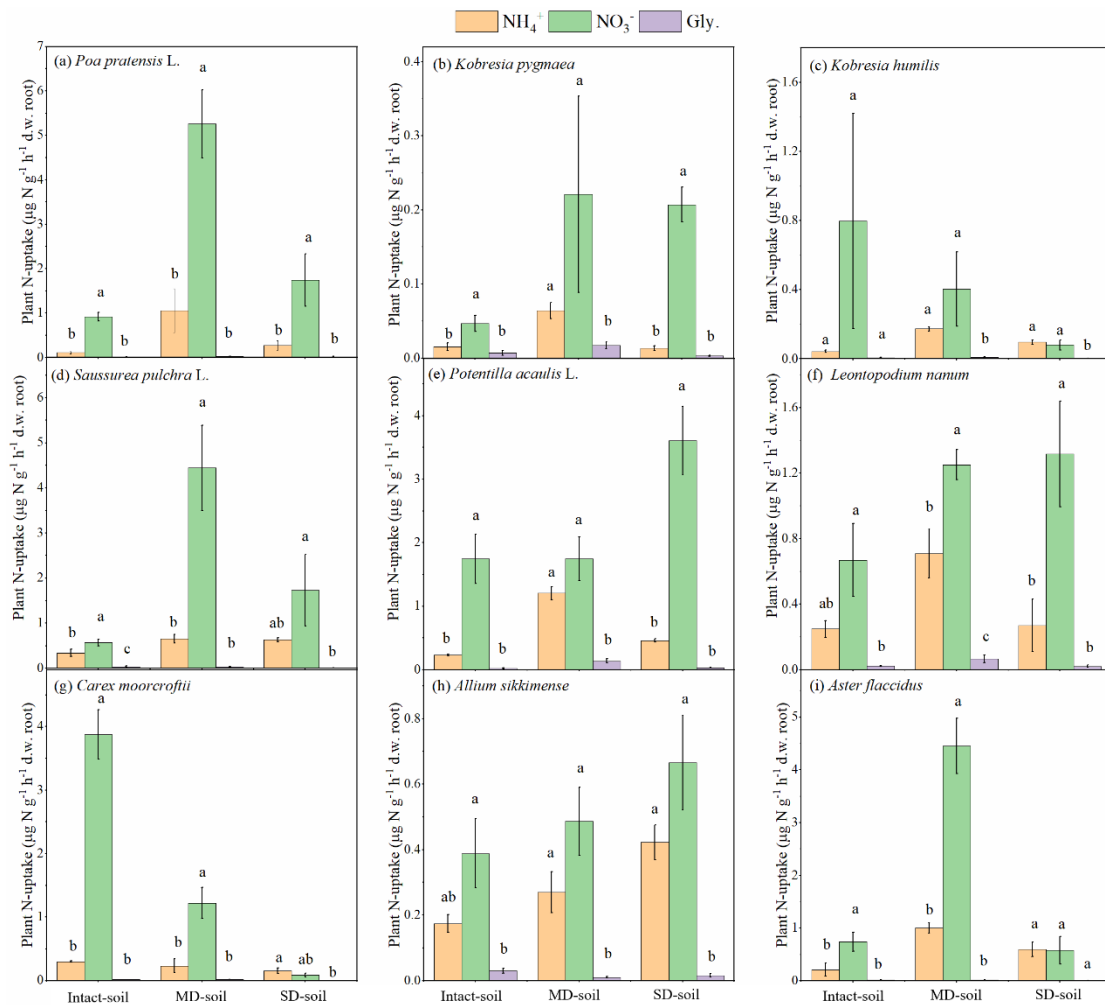
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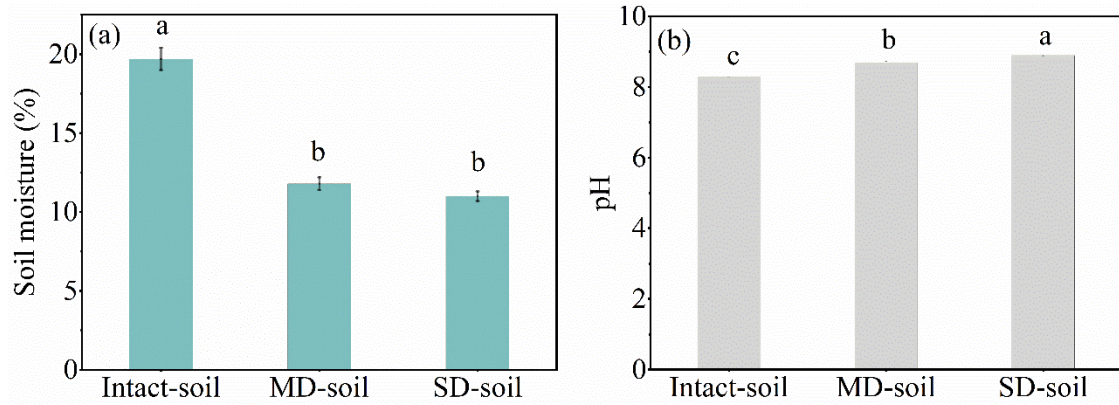
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641
 642 Fig. S1 The linear relationship of excess ¹³C and excess ¹⁵N in plant leaf (a) and root (b)
 643 of double-labeled glycine



644
 645 Fig. S2 The uptake rates of different forms N by dominant species at different degradation
 646 stages soil. Different lowercase letters indicated significant differences in the absorption
 647 rates of different forms of N by different dominant species in soil at different degradation
 648 stages ($p < 0.05$).



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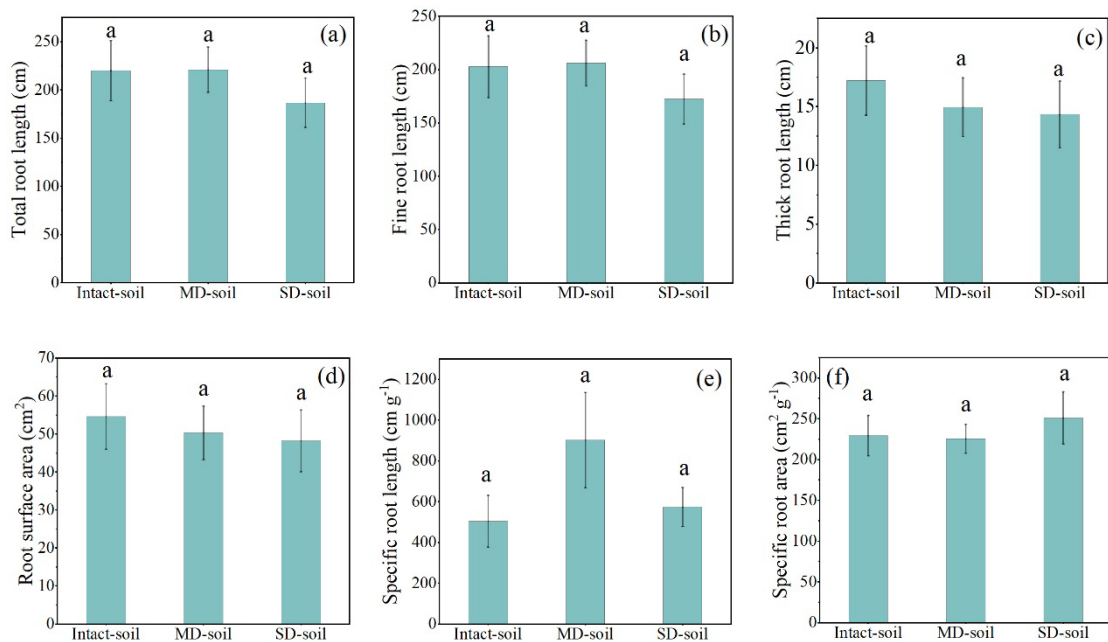
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Fig. S3 Soil moisture (a) and pH (b) at different degradation stages soil. The values are means \pm SE (n=27). Different lowercase letters above the columns indicate significant differences at $p < 0.05$ among different degradation stages soil.



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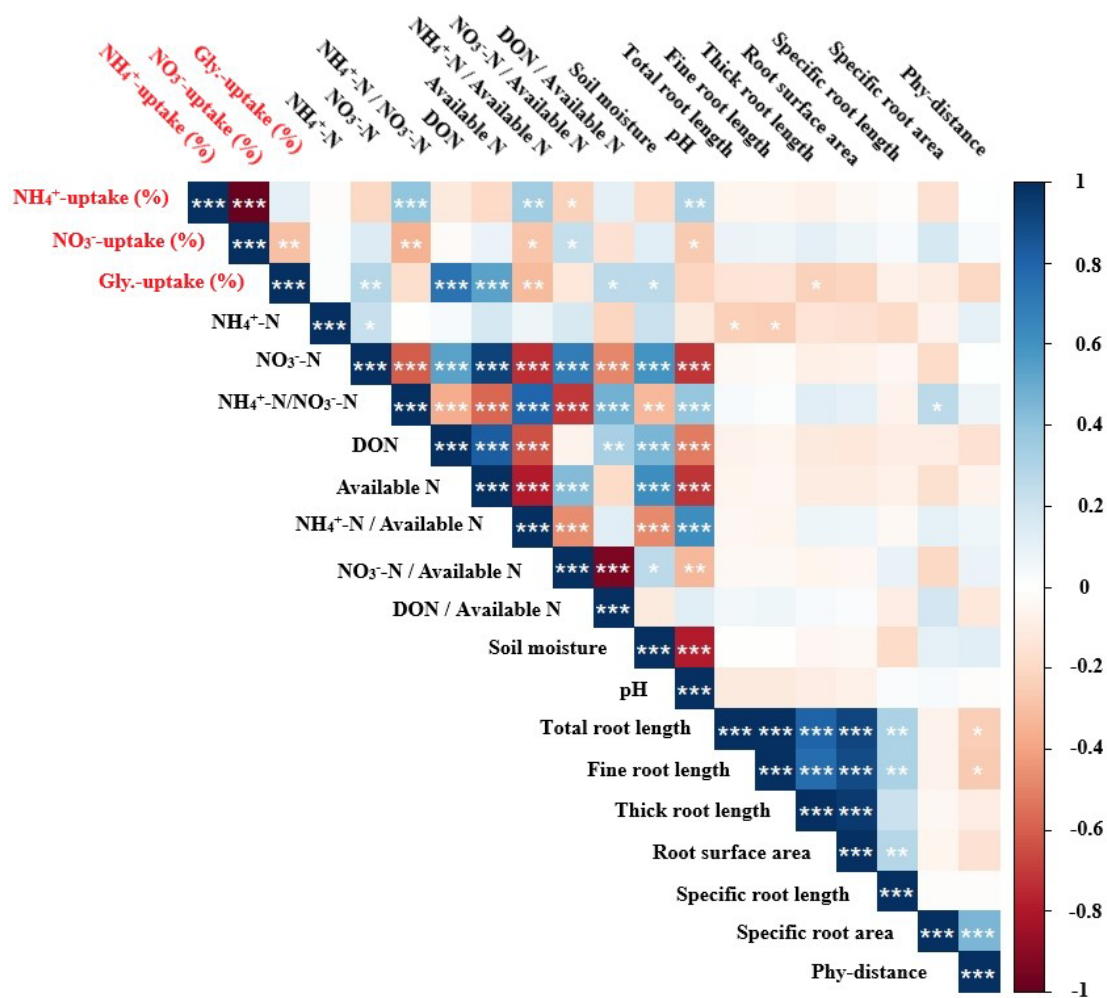
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Fig. S4 Total root length (a), fine root length (b), thick root length (c), root surface area (d), specific root length (e), and specific root area (f) of all dominant species planted at different degradation stages soil. The values are means \pm SE (n=27). Different lowercase letters above the columns indicate significant differences at $p < 0.05$ among different degradation stages soil.



662

663 Fig. S5 Correlation between uptake preference of NH_4^+ , NO_3^- , and glycine by dominant
 664 species and plant and soil parameters. *, ** and *** indicate significance at $p < 0.05$, 0.01
 665 and 0.001, respectively. DON: dissolved organic nitrogen; Phy-distance: phylogenetic trees
 666 distance.

667

668

669 Table S1 Multicollinearity was removed by variance inflation factor (VIF) before structural
 670 equation models.

Factors	VIF
$\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$	7.72
$\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$	6.43
$\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N} / \text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$	4.20
DON	5.67
$\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}/\text{AN}$	8.02
$\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}/\text{AN}$	9.58
DON/AN	Na

671 Delete values where VIF is greater than 5. AN: total available N

672

673

674 Table S2 The phylogenetic trees distance matrix of dominant species at different
 675 degradation stages

	<i>Ln.</i>	<i>Af.</i>	<i>Sp.</i>	<i>Pa.</i>	<i>As.</i>	<i>Pp.</i>	<i>Cm.</i>	<i>Kh.</i>	<i>Kp.</i>
<i>Ln.</i>	0								
<i>Af.</i>	45.98	0							
<i>Sp.</i>	68.56	68.56	0						
<i>Pa.</i>	247.4	247.47	247.4	0					
	7		7						
<i>As.</i>	271.5	271.52	271.5	271.52	0				
	2		2						
<i>Pp.</i>	271.5	271.52	271.5	271.52	229.20	0			
	2		2						
<i>Cm.</i>	271.5	271.52	271.5	271.52	229.20	187.64	0		
	2		2						
<i>Kh.</i>	271.5	271.52	271.5	271.52	229.20	187.64	13.40	0	
	2		2						
<i>Kp.</i>	271.5	271.52	271.5	271.52	229.20	187.64	13.40	12.61	0
	2		2						

676 *Ln.*: *Leontopodium nanum*, *Af.*: *Aster flaccidus*, *Sp.*: *Saussurea pulchra* L., *Pa.*: *Potentilla*
 677 *acaulis* L., *As.*: *Allium sikkimense*, *Pp.*: *Poa pratensis* L., *Cm.*: *Carex moorcroftii*, *Kh.*:
 678 *Kobresia humilis*, *Kp.*: *Kobresia pygmaea*