



1 **Evaluating Nitrogen Cycling in Terrestrial Biosphere Models: Implications for the Future**
2 **Terrestrial Carbon Sink**

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25

26 **Abstract**

27 Terrestrial carbon (C) sequestration is limited by nitrogen (N), a constraint that could
28 intensify under CO₂ fertilisation and future global change. The terrestrial C sink is estimated to
29 currently sequester approximately a third of annual anthropogenic CO₂ emissions based on an
30 ensemble of terrestrial biosphere models, which have been evaluated in their ability to reproduce
31 observations of the C, water, and energy cycles. However, their ability to reproduce observations
32 of N cycling and thus the regulation of terrestrial C sequestration by N has been largely
33 unexplored. Here, we evaluate an ensemble of terrestrial biosphere models with coupled C-N
34 cycling and their performance at simulating N cycling, outlining a framework for evaluating N
35 cycling that can be applied across terrestrial biosphere models. We find that models exhibit



36 significant variability across N pools and fluxes, simulating different magnitudes and trends over
37 the historical period, despite their ability to generally reproduce the historical terrestrial C sink.
38 This suggests that the underlying N processes that regulate terrestrial C sequestration operate
39 differently across models and may not be fully captured. Furthermore, models tended to
40 overestimate tropical biological N fixation, vegetation C:N ratio, and soil C:N ratio but
41 underestimate temperate biological N fixation relative to observations. However, there is
42 significant uncertainty associated with measurements of N cycling processes given their scarcity
43 (especially relative to those of C cycling processes) and their high spatiotemporal variability.
44 Overall, our results suggest that terrestrial biosphere models that represent coupled C-N cycling
45 (let alone those without a representation of N cycling) could be overestimating C storage per unit
46 N, which could lead to biases in projections of the future terrestrial C sink under CO₂ fertilisation
47 and future global change. More extensive observations of N cycling processes are crucial to
48 evaluate N cycling and its impact on C cycling as well as guide its development in terrestrial
49 biosphere models.

50

51 **Plain Language Summary**

52 Nitrogen (N) is an essential limiting nutrient to terrestrial carbon (C) sequestration. We
53 evaluate N cycling in an ensemble of terrestrial biosphere models. We find that they simulate
54 significant variability in N processes. Models tended to overestimate C storage per unit N in
55 vegetation and soil, which could have consequences for projecting the future terrestrial C sink.
56 However, N cycling measurements are highly uncertain and more are necessary to guide the
57 development of N cycling in models.

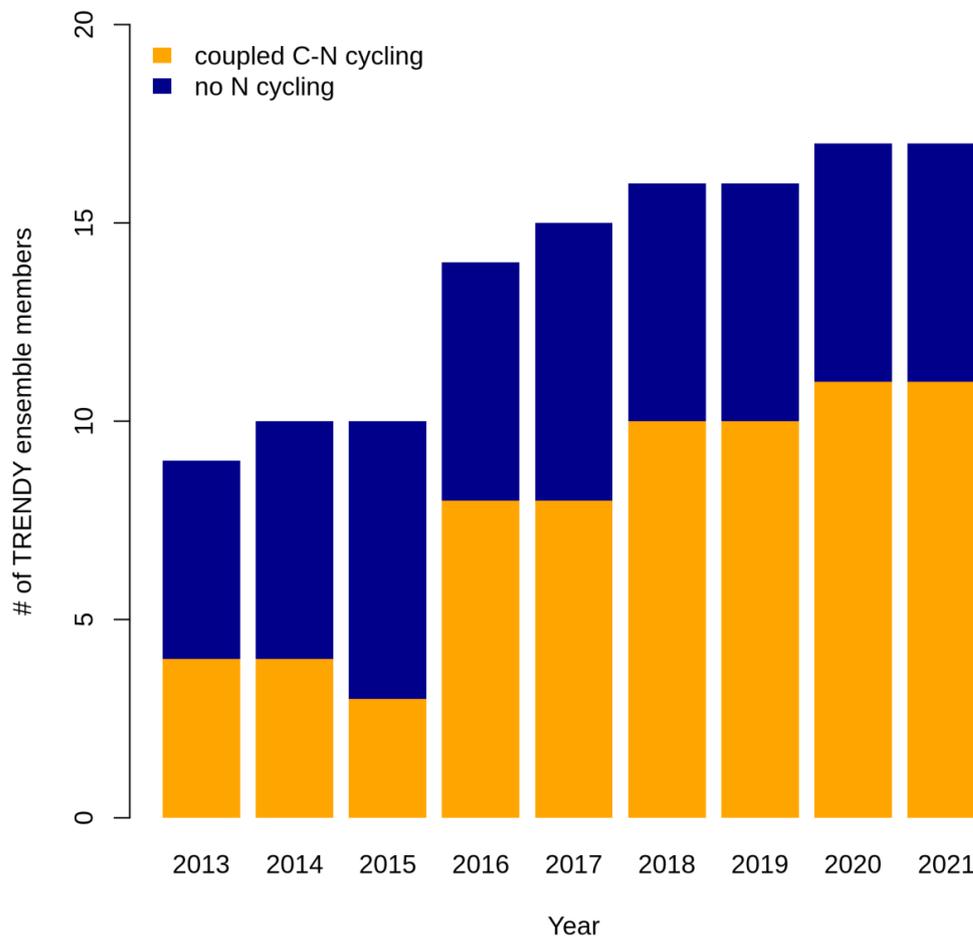
58

59 **1 Introduction**

60 The terrestrial biosphere is estimated to currently sequester approximately a third of
61 anthropogenic CO₂ emissions by the Global Carbon Project (GCP) (Friedlingstein et al., 2022).
62 The GCP annually reports an estimate of the global carbon (C) budget which includes an
63 estimate of the atmosphere-land CO₂ flux, i.e., the terrestrial C sink, based on simulations of an
64 ensemble of terrestrial biosphere models – the trends in the land carbon cycle project (TRENDY)
65 ensemble. In recent years, the majority of the models within the TRENDY ensemble have
66 incorporated a representation of coupled C and nitrogen (N) cycling given the empirically
67 established importance of N limitation of vegetation growth (Elser et al., 2007; Fernández-
68 Martínez et al., 2014; LeBauer and Treseder, 2008; Wright et al., 2018): whereas only four out of
69 nine models represented coupled C-N cycling in the 2013 GCP, 11 out of 16 models represented
70 coupled C-N cycling in the 2022 GCP (Figure 1). Capturing N constraints on C cycling is critical
71 for realistically simulating the terrestrial C sink, which arises from the combined effects of
72 concurrently acting global change drivers that are each modulated by N: CO₂ fertilisation is
73 limited by N (Terrer et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2020a), intensifying N deposition increases N
74 supply (O’Sullivan et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2017), rising temperature and varying precipitation
75 modulate decomposition and soil N availability (Liu et al., 2017), and land use change and
76 associated N fertilisation regimes determine N supply to crops.



77 Figure 1: Inclusion of coupled C-N cycling in the terrestrial biosphere models contributing to the
78 Global Carbon Project, i.e., the TRENDY ensemble.



79



80 The TRENDY ensemble has been extensively evaluated against observations of the C,
81 water, and energy cycles (Collier et al., 2018; Friedlingstein et al., 2022; Seiler et al., 2022).
82 Within the GCP itself, the primary simulated C pools, C fluxes, and water fluxes are evaluated
83 using a skill score system developed by the International Land Model Benchmarking Project
84 (ILAMB) that quantifies model performance by comparing model simulations to observations
85 (Collier et al., 2018; Friedlingstein et al., 2022). ILAMB scores encompass the mean and
86 variability of a given pool or flux over monthly to decadal temporal scales and over grid cell to
87 global spatial scales. However, N cycling has not been explicitly evaluated despite its importance
88 in regulating C cycling. This is in part due to the relatively recent incorporation of N cycling in
89 terrestrial biosphere models (Figure 1) (Fisher and Koven, 2020; Hungate et al., 2003) but also
90 due to the paucity of global observation-based datasets of N cycling: N exists in many forms and
91 is lost from terrestrial ecosystems via numerous pathways (emissions of NH_3 , N_2O , NO_x and N_2
92 as well as NO_3^- and NH_4^+ leaching), N processes are generally not measured in situ in networks
93 such as FLUXNET, and remote sensing methodologies for measuring N processes are still in
94 their infancy. Additionally, N processes exhibit extremely high spatial and temporal variabilities
95 and are thus challenging to measure. As such, N cycling has commonly been evaluated by
96 comparing simulated N pools and fluxes to global totals based on a small number of observations
97 that have been scaled up or averaged to yield a value with wide confidence intervals (Davies-
98 Barnard et al., 2020).

99 N cycling is implicitly evaluated by comparing terrestrial biosphere models without N
100 cycling to those with coupled C-N cycling in reproducing observations of the C, water, and
101 energy cycles in the absence of N cycle observations. Results suggest that there are only minor
102 differences between the performance of models with and without N cycling. There is no
103 significant difference between the terrestrial C sink simulated by the TRENDY models with and
104 without N cycling (Friedlingstein et al., 2022) nor between the terrestrial C sink simulated by the
105 models participating in the Multi-scale synthesis and Terrestrial Model Intercomparison Project
106 (MsTMIP) with and without N cycling (Huntzinger et al., 2017). Comparing the mean score
107 across all C, water, and energy cycle variables between TRENDY models with and without N
108 cycling yielded no significant difference (Seiler et al., 2022). However, TRENDY models
109 without N cycling had significantly higher scores for net biome productivity than TRENDY
110 models with N cycling (although all other variables were not significantly different between
111 TRENDY models with and without N cycling, including vegetation C, soil C, net biome
112 productivity, leaf area index, latent heat flux, and runoff, among others) (Seiler et al., 2022).
113 Despite this seeming absence of a difference between models with and without coupled C-N
114 cycling in simulating the current terrestrial C sink, it is imperative that N constraints on C
115 cycling are properly represented by terrestrial biosphere models in order to realistically simulate
116 the terrestrial C sink under future global change, which modifies the C/N balance through N
117 limitation of CO_2 fertilisation and intensifying N deposition among other effects of global
118 change. As such, explicitly evaluating N cycling processes themselves is necessary to assess the
119 ability of terrestrial biosphere models to capture the underlying mechanisms that determine
120 terrestrial C sequestration and thus to realistically project the future terrestrial C sink under
121 global change.



122 Here, we synthesise the N pools and fluxes simulated by 11 terrestrial biosphere models
123 in the TRENDY ensemble that participated in the 2022 GCP. We evaluate their performance in
124 reproducing observations of three key variables of the N cycle: biological N fixation, vegetation
125 C:N ratio, and soil C:N ratio. These three variables are critical to C cycling because (1)
126 biological N fixation is the dominant natural N supply to terrestrial ecosystems, influencing the
127 degree of N limitation of plant growth and thus terrestrial C sequestration, and (2) vegetation and
128 soil C:N ratios reflect assimilated C per unit N and thus terrestrial C storage.

129

130 **2 Methods**

131 **2.1 Simulation Protocol**

132 For the 2022 GCP (version 11), the TRENDY ensemble consisted of 16 terrestrial
133 biosphere models, 11 of which represent N cycling (CABLE-POP, CLM5.0, DLEM, ISAM,
134 JSBACH, JULES-ES, LPJ-GUESS, LPX-Bern, OCNv2, ORCHIDEEv3, and SDGVM).
135 Although SDGVM includes a representation of N cycling, its representation is simplistic and was
136 therefore not included. Additionally, CLASSIC contributed to the 2022 GCP without coupled C-
137 N cycling; the S3 simulation was repeated by CLASSIC with coupled C-N cycling following the
138 2022 GCP protocol and was used here. Overall, we analysed eleven models with coupled C-N
139 cycling (Table 1).



140 Table 1: Terrestrial biosphere models in the TRENDY-N ensemble and descriptions of their
 141 representations of N limitation of vegetation growth, biological N fixation, vegetation response
 142 to N limitation (i.e., strategies in which vegetation invests C to increase N supply in N-limited
 143 conditions), and N limitation of decomposition.

	Reference	N limitation of vegetation growth	Biological N fixation	Vegetation response to N limitation	N limitation of decomposition
CABLE-POP	(Haverd et al., 2018)	V_{cmax} flexible C:N stoichiometry	Time-invariant	Static	N-invariant
CLASSIC	(Melton et al., 2020)	V_{cmax} flexible C:N stoichiometry	f(N limitation of vegetation growth)	Dynamic (biological N fixation)	N-invariant
CLM5.0	(Lawrence et al., 2019)	V_{cmax} flexible C:N stoichiometry	f(N limitation of vegetation growth)	Dynamic (biological N fixation, mycorrhizae, retranslocation)	f(soil N)
DLEM	(Tian et al., 2015)	GPP	f(soil T, soil H ₂ O, soil C, soil N)	Dynamic (root allocation)	f(soil N)
ISAM	(Shu et al., 2020)	GPP	f(ET)	Static	f(soil N)
JSBACH	(Reick et al., 2021)	NPP	f(NPP)	Static	f(soil N)
JULES-ES	(Wiltshire et al., 2021)	NPP	f(NPP)	Static	f(soil N)
LPJ-GUESS	(Smith et al., 2014)	V_{cmax} flexible C:N stoichiometry	f(ET)	Dynamic (root allocation)	N-invariant
LPX-Bern	(Lienert and Joos, 2018)	NPP	Derived post hoc to simulate a closed N cycle	Static	N-invariant
OCNv2	(Zaehle and Friend, 2010)	V_{cmax} flexible C:N stoichiometry	f(N limitation of vegetation growth)	Dynamic (root allocation)	f(soil N)



ORCHIDEEv3	(Vuichard et al., 2019)	V_{cmax} flexible C:N stoichiometry	Time- invariant	Static	N-invariant
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145 We analysed the S3 simulation which includes historical changes in atmospheric CO₂,
146 climate, N deposition, N fertilisation, and land use from 1851 to 2021 (see Friedlingstein et al.
147 (2022) for a full description of the simulation protocol). Briefly, models were forced with
148 atmospheric CO₂ from Dlugokencky and Tans (2022), the merged monthly Climate Research
149 Unit (CRU) and 6-hourly Japanese 55-year Reanalysis (JRA-55) dataset or the monthly CRU
150 dataset Harris et al. (2020), N deposition from Hegglin et al. (2016) / Tian et al. (2022), N
151 fertilisation from the global N₂O Model Intercomparison Project (NMIP) (Tian et al., 2018), and
152 land use from the LUH2-GCB2022 (Land-Use Harmonization 2) dataset (Chini et al., 2021;
153 Hurtt et al., 2020; Klein Goldewijk et al., 2017a, b). We interpolated outputs from all models to a
154 common resolution of 1° x 1° using bilinear interpolation.

155 **2.2 Terrestrial biosphere model descriptions**

156 The terrestrial biosphere models in the TRENDY ensemble employ a wide variety of
157 assumptions and formulations of N cycling processes, reflecting knowledge gaps and divergent
158 theories (Table 1). Here we describe four fundamental aspects of N cycling for each terrestrial
159 biosphere model: N limitation of vegetation growth, biological N fixation, the response of
160 vegetation to N limitation (i.e., strategies in which vegetation invests C to increase N supply in
161 N-limited conditions), and N limitation of decomposition. These have been identified as
162 important challenges for representing N cycling in terrestrial biosphere models (Meyerholt et al.,
163 2020; Peng et al., 2020; Stocker et al., 2016; Wieder et al., 2015a; Zaehle et al., 2015; Zaehle and
164 Dalmonech, 2011).

165 Terrestrial biosphere models differ in how N limitation of vegetation growth is
166 represented (Thomas et al., 2015). Some TRENDY models represent flexible C:N stoichiometry
167 and modelled maximum carboxylation rate of photosynthesis (V_{cmax}) decreases with decreasing
168 leaf N (CABLE-POP, CLASSIC, CLM5.0, LPJ-GUESS, OCNv2, ORCHIDEEv3) following
169 empirical evidence (Walker et al., 2014). Other TRENDY models represent time-invariant C:N
170 stoichiometry and modelled GPP or NPP decreases with N limitation (DLEM, ISAM, JSBACH,
171 JULES-ES, and LPX-Bern). Importantly, flexible vs. time-invariant C:N stoichiometry
172 determines terrestrial C storage per unit N.

173 Biological N fixation is the dominant natural N supply to terrestrial ecosystems (Vitousek
174 et al., 2013). In terrestrial biosphere models, biological N fixation has generally been represented
175 phenomenologically as a function of either net primary productivity (NPP) or evapotranspiration
176 (ET) (Cleveland et al., 1999). More recently, representations of biological N fixation have been
177 updated such that it is up-regulated in N-limited conditions following empirical evidence (Menge
178 et al., 2015; Vitousek et al., 2013; Zheng et al., 2019). The majority of TRENDY models
179 represent biological N fixation phenomenologically (ISAM, JSBACH, JULES-ES, and LPJ-
180 GUESS). Three TRENDY models (CLASSIC, CLM5.0, and OCNv2) represent biological N
181 fixation mechanistically such that it increases with N limitation of vegetation (Kou-Giesbrecht
182 and Arora, 2022; Lawrence et al., 2019; Meyerholt et al., 2016). These representations separate
183 free-living biological N fixation (via soil microbes, epiphytic microbes, lichens, bryophytes, etc.
184 (Reed et al., 2011)) from symbiotic biological N fixation, which is regulated by N limitation of
185 vegetation. DLEM derives biological N fixation as a function of soil temperature, soil moisture,



186 soil C, and soil N. LPX-Bern derives biological N fixation post hoc to simulate a closed N cycle,
187 implicitly including rock N sources (Joos et al., 2020). Finally, CABLE-POP and ORCHIDEEv3
188 represent biological N fixation as a specified time-invariant input over the historical period.
189 Importantly, representing the regulation of biological N fixation by N limitation does not only
190 determine biological N fixation itself but also modulates terrestrial C sequestration: it enables
191 vegetation to increase N uptake in N-limited conditions, reduce N limitation, and thus sustain
192 terrestrial C sequestration. Some TRENDY models (DLEM, LPJ-GUESS, and OCNv2) also
193 represent increasing C allocation to roots with increasing N limitation (Smith et al., 2014; Zaehle
194 and Friend, 2010) following empirical evidence (Poorter et al., 2012). This enables vegetation to
195 increase root N uptake in N-limited conditions, reduce N limitation, and thus sustain terrestrial C
196 sequestration. The response of vegetation to N limitation, which could also include increased C
197 allocation to mycorrhizae (Phillips et al., 2013) (represented in CLM5.0) or increased
198 retranslocation of N during tissue turnover (Du et al., 2020; Han et al., 2013; Kobe et al., 2005)
199 (represented in CLM5.0) is important for determining terrestrial C sequestration.

200 Decomposition rate is controlled by soil temperature, soil moisture, and N content in
201 litter, where increasing litter C:N ratio decreases decomposition rate (Cotrufo et al., 2013). Some
202 TRENDY models represent this reduction in decomposition rate with increasing litter C:N ratio
203 (CLM5.0, DLEM, ISAM, JSBACH, JULES-ES, and OCNv2) following empirical evidence.

204 **2.3 Observation-based datasets**

205 We interpolated observation-based datasets to a common resolution of $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ using
206 bilinear interpolation for comparison against model outputs. To compare model outputs against
207 observation-based datasets we averaged model outputs over 1980–2021, which spans the period
208 in which most measurements were made.

209 **2.3.1 Biological N fixation**

210 A biological N fixation observation-based dataset was derived from Davies-Barnard and
211 Friedlingstein (2020), a global meta-analysis of field measurements of natural biological N
212 fixation (free-living and symbiotic) that scales biome-specific means onto the Collection 5
213 MODIS Global Land Cover Type International Geosphere-Biosphere Programme (IGBP)
214 product (Friedl et al., 2010). To account for agricultural biological N fixation, we assumed that
215 N-fixing crops account for 15.7% of global cropland area (U.S. Department of Agriculture,
216 2022) and their biological N fixation rate as $11.5 \text{ g N m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (Herridge et al., 2008). We
217 assumed that N-fixing crops are distributed evenly across all cropland. We amended the dataset
218 from Davies-Barnard and Friedlingstein (2020) to include agricultural biological N fixation
219 (DBF-USDA).

220 The score of LPX-Bern in simulating biological N fixation is not analysed because it
221 implicitly includes rock N sources and is thus not directly comparable to the observation-based
222 dataset.

223 **2.3.2 Vegetation C:N ratio**



224 A vegetation C:N ratio observation-based dataset was derived by scaling biome-specific
225 means from the TRY plant trait database (Kattge et al., 2020) onto the Collection 5 MODIS
226 Global Land Cover Type IGBP product (Friedl et al., 2010). First, we obtained N content per dry
227 mass for leaves, root, and stem, as well as C content per dry mass for leaves, root, and stem from
228 the TRY plant trait database. We selected entries that reported species. Second, we obtained
229 plant functional type (PFT) for each species from the TRY plant trait database. We categorised
230 each PFT into the IGBP land cover types (Table A1) and then used this to categorise each entry
231 into the IGBP land cover types. We averaged across entries in each IGBP land cover type. Third,
232 we divided mean tissue C content per tissue dry mass by mean tissue N content per tissue dry
233 mass for each tissue and for each IGBP land cover type. Fourth, we weighed each tissue by its
234 PFT-specific fraction of total biomass from Poorter et al. (2012) to obtain total vegetation C:N
235 ratio for each IGBP land cover type. Lastly, we scaled total vegetation C:N ratio for each IGBP
236 land cover type to the Collection 5 MODIS Global Land Cover Type IGBP product.

237 **2.3.3 Soil C:N ratio**

238 A soil C:N ratio observation-based dataset was derived from soil C and soil N products
239 from SoilGrids (Poggio et al., 2021), which provides globally gridded datasets of soil organic C
240 and total soil N at a 250m x 250m resolution for six layers up to a depth of 200 cm. These
241 estimates are derived using machine learning methods and soil observations from 240 000
242 locations across the globe and over 400 environmental covariates. We summed soil C over all
243 layers and soil N over all layers (using the bulk density and depth of each layer) then obtained
244 the soil C:N ratio.

245 **2.3.4 C cycling variables**

246 In addition to evaluating N cycling variables, we also evaluated the primary C cycling
247 variables: gross primary productivity (GPP), net biome productivity (NBP), vegetation C
248 (C_{VEG}), soil C (C_{SOIL}), and leaf area index (LAI). These variables have been previously
249 evaluated in detail for the terrestrial biosphere models in the TRENDY ensemble (GCP 2021) in
250 Seiler et al. (2022). Seiler et al. (2022) gives further details on the observation-based datasets
251 used to evaluate the primary C cycling variables. Briefly, we evaluated GPP against MODIS
252 (Zhang et al., 2017), GOSIF (Li and Xiao, 2019), and FLUXCOM (Jung et al., 2020) products.
253 We evaluated NBP against the CAMS (Agustí-Panareda et al., 2019), CarboScope (Rödenbeck
254 et al., 2018), and CT2019 (Jacobson et al., 2020) products. We evaluated C_{VEG} against the
255 GEOCARBON (Avitabile et al., 2016; Santoro et al., 2015), Zhang and Liang (2020), and Huang
256 et al. (2021) products. We evaluated LAI against AVHRR (Claverie et al., 2016), Copernicus
257 (Vergier et al., 2014), and MODIS (Myneni et al., 2002) products. We evaluated C_{SOIL} against
258 HWSO (Todd-Brown et al., 2013; Wieder, 2014) and SoilGrids (Hengl et al., 2017) products.
259 These observation-based products are globally gridded.

260 **2.4 Model evaluation with the Automated Model Benchmarking R Package (AMBER)**

261 The Automated Model Benchmarking R (AMBER) package developed by Seiler et al.
262 (2021) quantifies model performance in reproducing observation-based datasets using a skill
263 score system that is based on ILAMB (Collier et al., 2018). Five scores assess the simulated



264 time-mean bias (S_{bias}), monthly centralised root-mean-square-error (S_{rmse}), seasonality (S_{phase}),
265 inter-annual variability (S_{iav}), and spatial distribution (S_{dist}) in comparison to the observation-
266 based dataset. Scores are dimensionless and range from 0 to 1, where higher values indicate
267 better model performance. The overall score for each variable ($S_{overall}$) is

$$268 \quad S_{overall} = \text{mean}(S_{bias}, S_{rmse}, S_{phase}, S_{iav}, S_{dist})$$

269 We calculated the overall score for each C and N cycling variable. Because biological N fixation,
270 vegetation C:N ratio, and soil C:N ratio datasets are representative of the present-day (as a single
271 time point), S_{rmse} , S_{phase} , and S_{iav} are not defined and thus do not contribute to $S_{overall}$. This also
272 holds for vegetation C and soil C. The calculation of each score is described in detail in Seiler et
273 al. (2022).

274 **2.5 Statistics**

275 We used a Mann-Kendall trend test to assess the existence of a statistically significant
276 trend in the time series over the historical period for simulated C and N cycling variables (Hipel
277 and McLeod, 1994). We calculated Spearman's rank correlation coefficient to assess the
278 existence of statistically significant correlations between overall scores, present-day global
279 values, and Kendall's tau. We used a t-test or ANOVA (p-value < 0.05) to assess the existence of
280 statistically significant differences between overall scores, present-day global values, and
281 Kendall's tau for models with different representations of N limitation of vegetation growth,
282 biological N fixation, vegetation response to N limitation, and N limitation of decomposition
283 (Table 1).

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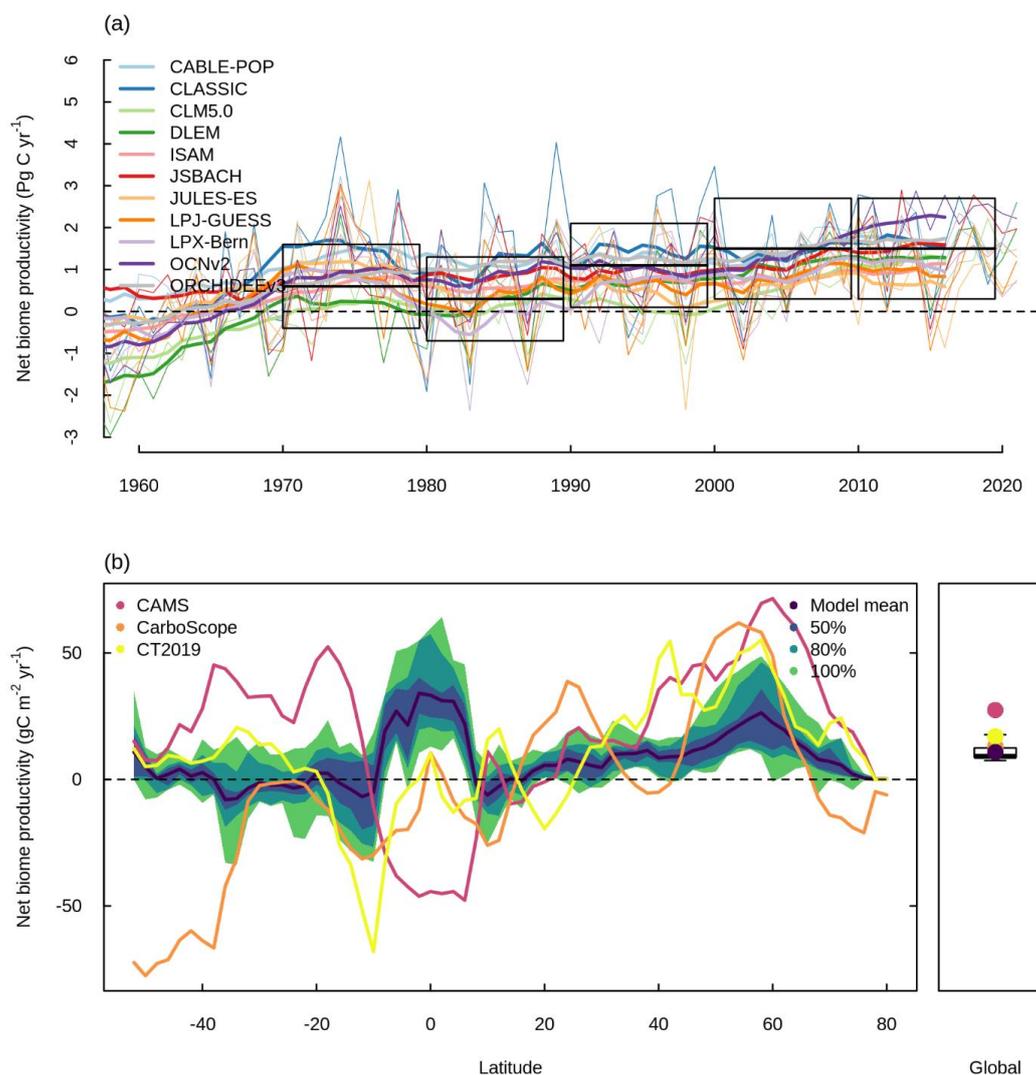
285 **3 Results**

286 **3.1 Net biome productivity**

287 Figure 2 shows NBP simulated by the TRENDY ensemble models with coupled C-N
288 cycling (hereafter referred to as the TRENDY-N ensemble). NBP is the difference between the
289 net natural atmosphere-land flux of CO₂ and land use change CO₂ emissions. Positive values of
290 NBP indicate a terrestrial C sink whereas negative values of NBP indicate a terrestrial C source.
291 All TRENDY-N ensemble models suggest a terrestrial C sink for the present-day, agreeing with
292 the global C budget constraint from the 2022 Global C Budget with most models within two
293 standard deviations of the mean (1.5 ± 0.6 Pg C for 2012–2021) (Figure 2a). The TRENDY-N
294 ensemble agrees reasonably well with observations globally, agreeing somewhat better with
295 CarboScope and CT2019 than with CAMS (Figure 2b). However, the latitudinal distributions of
296 the observation-based datasets display weak agreement among themselves, with opposing signs
297 in multiple regions, especially at southern latitudes and at high northern latitudes (Figure 2b).
298 This is in part due to the smaller land area at these latitudes. The region showing the strongest
299 agreement is mid to high northern latitudes, in which both the TRENDY-N ensemble and
300 observations suggest a terrestrial C sink (Figure 2b).



301 Figure 2: Net biome productivity (NBP) simulated by the TRENDY-N ensemble. a. Global NBP
 302 from 1960 to 2021. The boxes indicate the global C budget constraint (difference between fossil
 303 fuel CO₂ emissions and the growth rate of atmospheric CO₂ and the uptake of CO₂ by oceans;
 304 mean ± 2 standard deviation) from the 2022 Global C Budget (Friedlingstein et al., 2022). Thick
 305 lines indicate the moving average over 10 years and thin lines indicate the annual time series. b.
 306 Latitudinal distribution and global mean of NBP (averaged over 1980–2021) in comparison to
 307 three datasets (CAMS (Agustí-Panareda et al., 2019), CarboScope (Rödenbeck et al., 2018), and
 308 CT2019 (Jacobson et al., 2020)). The boxplot shows the median, interquartile range (box), and
 309 80% percentiles (whiskers) of the global mean of NBP.



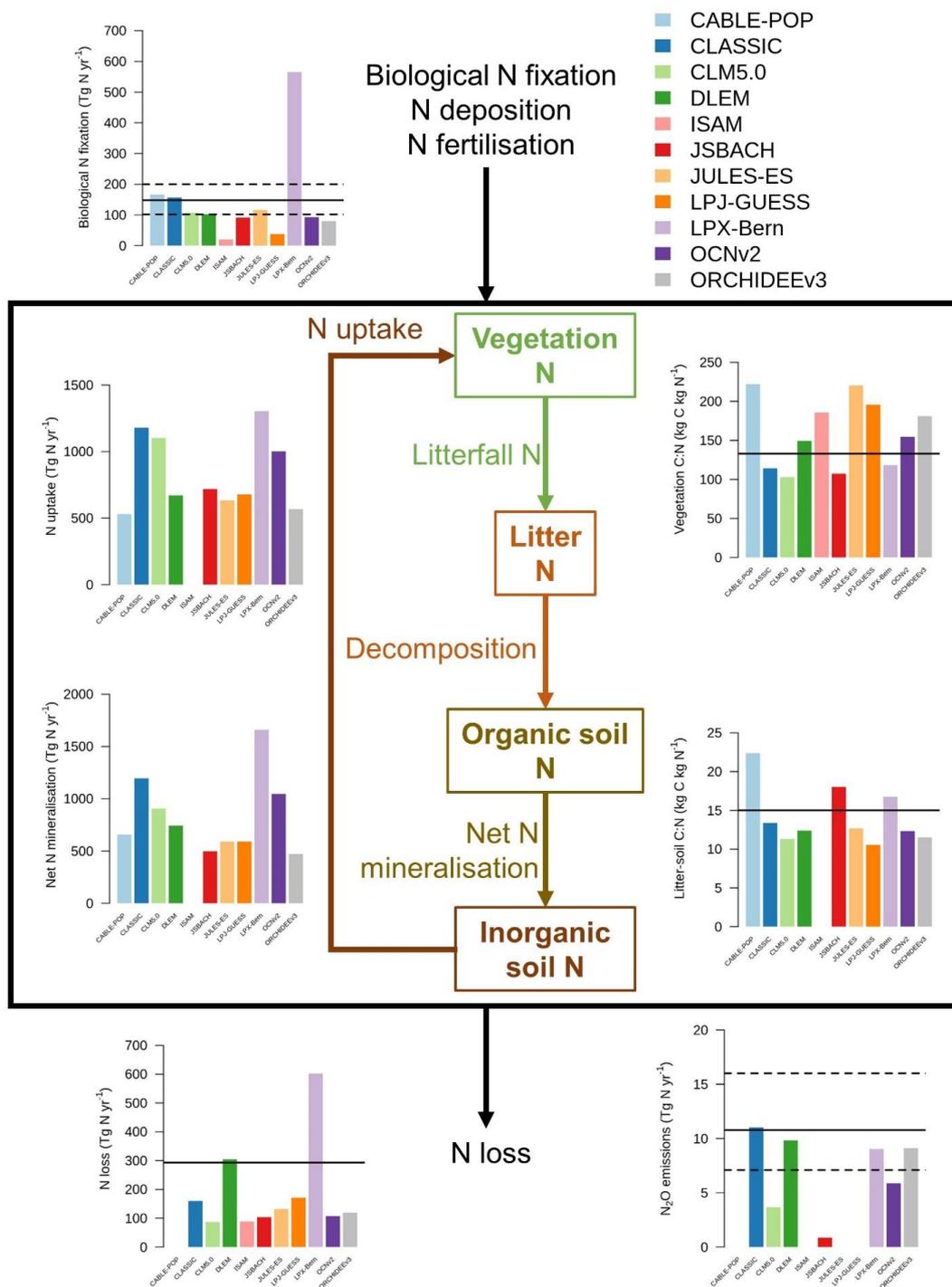


311 3.2 Overview of N cycling

312 Figure 3 shows a schematic of the N cycle alongside the primary N fluxes and C:N ratios
313 of the primary pools simulated by the TRENDY-N ensemble for the present-day (averaged over
314 1980–2021) as well as observation-based estimates for these variables that have previously been
315 used for model evaluation (Davies-Barnard et al., 2020). Simulated biological N fixation ranged
316 between 20 and 566 Tg N yr⁻¹ (Table 2) in comparison to the observation-based estimate of 148
317 Tg N yr⁻¹, which includes both natural biological N fixation (88 Tg N yr⁻¹ (52 – 130 Tg N yr⁻¹)
318 (Davies-Barnard and Friedlingstein, 2020)) and agricultural biological N fixation (50 – 70 Tg N
319 yr⁻¹ (Herridge et al., 2008)). Simulated N₂O emissions ranged between 0.9 and 11.0 Tg N yr⁻¹
320 (Table 2) in comparison to the observation-based estimate of 10.8 Tg N yr⁻¹ (7.1 – 16.0 Tg N yr⁻¹)
321 (Tian et al., 2020). Simulated N losses (which include emissions of NH₃, N₂O, NO_x and N₂ as
322 well as NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺ leaching) ranged between 87 and 603 Tg N yr⁻¹ (Table 2) in comparison
323 to the observation-based estimate of 293 Tg N yr⁻¹ (Fowler et al., 2013). The simulated
324 vegetation C:N ratio ranged between 103 and 222 (Table 2) in comparison to the observation-
325 based estimate of 133 (Zechmeister-Boltenstern et al., 2015). The simulated combined litter-soil
326 C:N ratio ranged between 10 and 64 (Table 2) in comparison to the observation-based estimate
327 of 15 (Zechmeister-Boltenstern et al., 2015). Biological N fixation has the largest inter-model
328 spread with a coefficient of variation of 1.06 (Table 2). Figure 4 shows the geographical
329 distribution of the primary N pools and fluxes simulated by the TRENDY-N ensemble for the
330 present-day (averaged over 1980–2021).

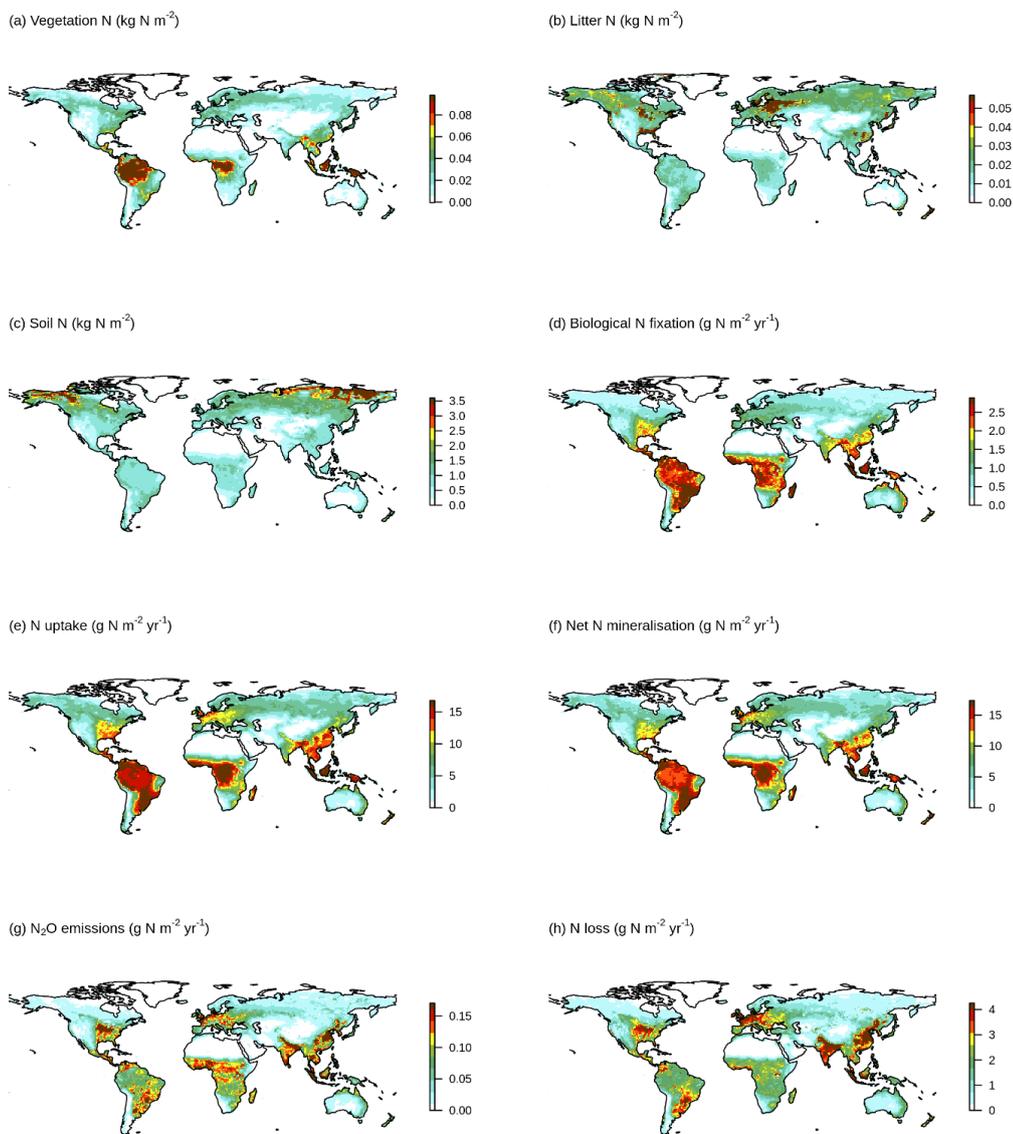


331 Figure 3: The N cycle and the primary N pools and fluxes simulated by the TRENDY-N
332 ensemble (averaged over 1980–2021). Horizontal black lines indicate observation-based
333 estimates that have previously been used for model evaluation (biological N fixation from
334 Davies-Barnard and Friedlingstein (2020) and Herridge et al. (2008), vegetation and combined
335 litter-soil C:N ratios from Zechmeister-Boltenstern et al. (2015), N₂O emissions from Tian et al.
336 (2020), and N losses from Fowler et al. (2013)). The black box indicates the terrestrial biosphere.
337 N enters the terrestrial biosphere via biological N fixation, N deposition, and N fertilisation
338 (entering the organic soil N pool, the inorganic soil N pool (ammonium (NH₄⁺) or nitrate (NO₃⁻
339)), or the vegetation N pool). N is transferred from the inorganic soil N pool to the vegetation N
340 pool via N uptake. N is transferred from the vegetation N pool to the litter N pool via N litterfall.
341 N is transferred from the litter N pool to the organic soil N pool via decomposition. N is
342 transferred from the organic soil N pool to the inorganic soil N pool via net N mineralisation. N
343 exits the terrestrial biosphere via N loss (which includes N leaching from soils and N₂O, NO_x,
344 NH₃, and N₂ emissions from both soils and land use change). Not all models provide output for
345 each N pool or flux. Note that biological N fixation simulated by LPX-Bern implicitly includes
346 rock N sources.





348 Figure 4: Geographical distributions of a. vegetation N, b. litter N, c. soil N, d. biological N
349 fixation, e. N uptake, f. net N mineralisation, g. N₂O emissions, and h. N loss simulated by the
350 TRENDY-N ensemble (averaged across models over 1980–2021).





352 Table 2: Global mean and coefficient of variation of each N pool and flux simulated by the
 353 TRENDY-N ensemble (across models over 1980–2021).

	Coefficient of variation	Global mean	Global median	Global minimum	Global maximum
Vegetation N (Tg N)	0.41	2.94	2.94	1.50	5.58
Litter N (Tg N)	0.81	1.94	1.08	0.73	5.61
Soil N (Tg N)	0.67	101.43	81.21	32.10	277.41
Biological N fixation (Tg N yr ⁻¹)	1.06	139.63	101.83	19.92	565.53
N uptake (Tg N yr ⁻¹)	0.33	838.78	698.11	529.53	1304.87
Net N mineralisation (Tg N yr ⁻¹)	0.45	836.00	700.28	471.39	1661.53
N ₂ O emissions (Tg N yr ⁻¹)	0.53	7.06	9.04	0.86	11.01
N loss (Tg N yr ⁻¹)	0.85	187.62	125.96	87.02	602.77
Vegetation C:N ratio	0.28	159.28	154.50	102.84	222.22
Soil C:N ratio	0.90	17.32	11.13	10.00	63.57

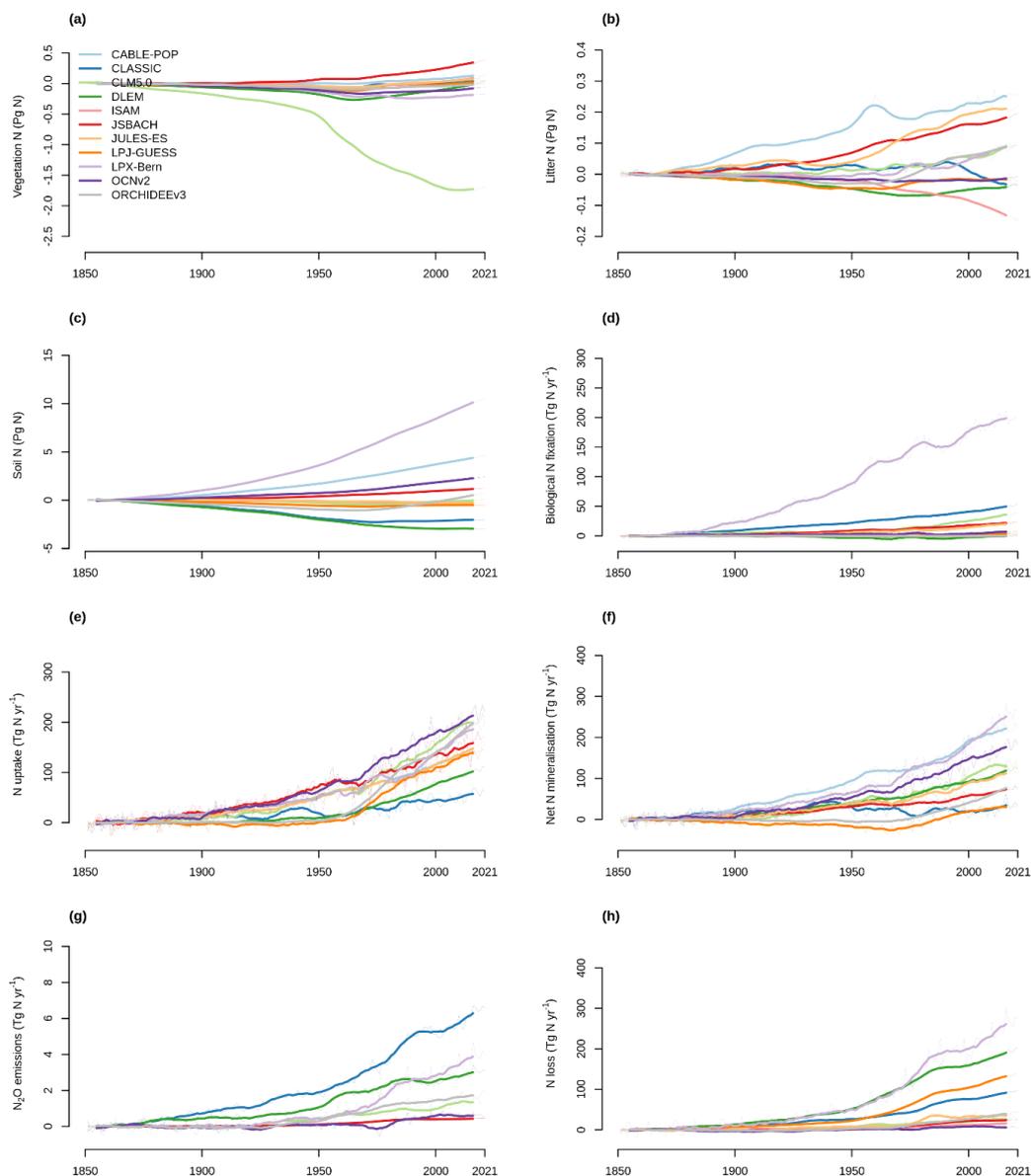
354



355 Figure 5 shows the time series of the change from pre-industrial levels of the primary N
356 pools and fluxes from 1850 to 2021 simulated by the TRENDY-N ensemble. Figure 6 shows the
357 corresponding Kendall's tau which identifies the existence of a statistically significant trend
358 (Table A2). Some models suggest decreasing vegetation N (6/11 models), whereas other models
359 suggest increasing vegetation N (2/11 models) or no trend in vegetation N (3/11 models). Some
360 models suggest decreasing soil N (7/11 models), whereas other models suggest increasing soil N
361 (4/11 models). Some models suggest increasing biological N fixation (7/11 models), whereas
362 other models suggest decreasing biological N fixation (2/11 models) or no trend in biological N
363 fixation (2/11 models). All models suggest increasing N uptake (10/10 models). Most models
364 suggest increasing net N mineralisation rate (9/10 models) or no trend in N mineralisation rate
365 (1/10 models). All models suggest increasing N₂O emissions (7/7 models) and increasing N loss
366 (10/10 models).



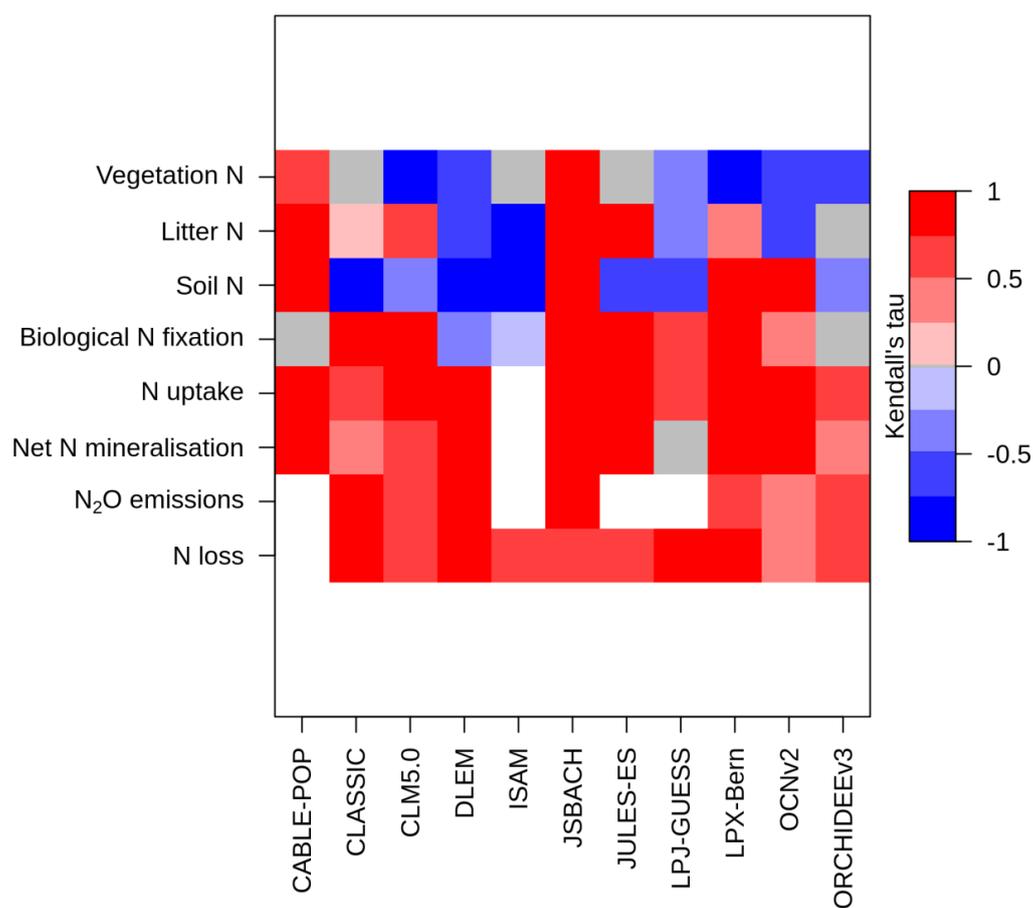
367 Figure 5: Time series of the change from the pre-industrial level (averaged over 1850–1870) of a.
368 vegetation N, b. litter N, c. soil N, d. biological N fixation, e. N uptake, f. net N mineralisation,
369 g. N₂O emissions, and h. N loss simulated by the TRENDY-N ensemble from 1850 to 2021.
370 Figure A4 shows the time series for each N pool and N flux simulated by the TRENDY-N
371 ensemble from 1850 to 2021.



372



373 Figure 6: Kendall's tau from the Mann-Kendall test (p -value < 0.05) for each N pool and N flux
374 time series simulated by the TRENDY-N ensemble from 1850 to 2021 (Table A2). A positive
375 value (red) indicates an increasing trend and a negative value (blue) indicates a decreasing trend
376 Gray indicates a statistically insignificant value and white indicates a missing value.



377

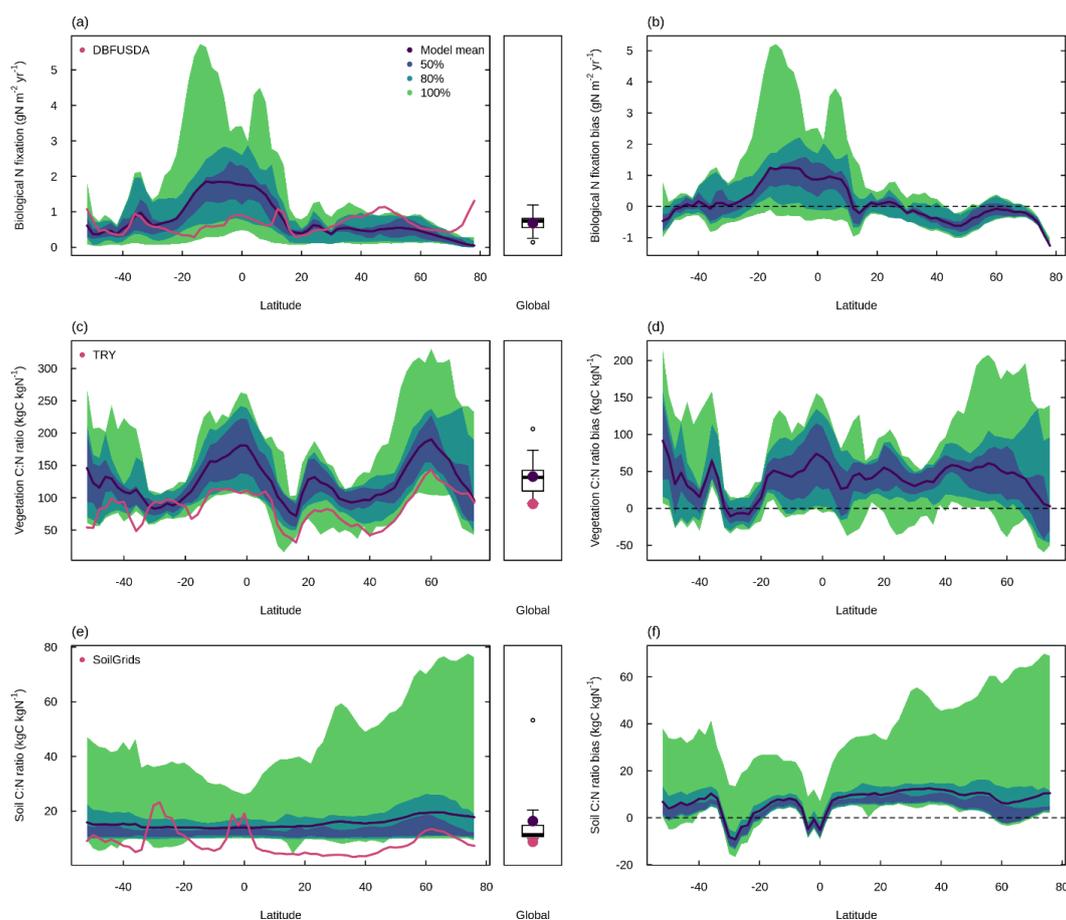


378 **3.3 Evaluation of biological N fixation, vegetation C:N ratio, and soil C:N ratio**

379 In comparison to the observation-based dataset from Davies-Barnard and Friedlingstein
380 (2020) and the U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA), the TRENDY-N ensemble reproduced
381 global biological N fixation ($101.8 \text{ Tg N yr}^{-1}$ vs. $108.0 \text{ Tg N yr}^{-1}$; Figure 7a and Table 2) but
382 overestimated low-latitude biological N fixation and underestimated high-latitude biological N
383 fixation in the Northern hemisphere (Figure 7b). In comparison to the observation-based dataset
384 from the TRY plant trait database, the TRENDY-N ensemble overestimated the global
385 vegetation C:N ratio (154.5 vs. 90.5; Figure 7c and Table 2) and overestimated the vegetation
386 C:N ratio across latitudes while capturing its latitudinal pattern (Figure 7d). In comparison to the
387 observation-based dataset from SoilGrids, the TRENDY-N ensemble overestimated the global
388 soil C:N ratio, simulating a relatively constant soil C:N ratio across latitudes (11.1 vs. 8.8; Figure
389 7e and Table 2). The TRENDY-N ensemble was thus unable to capture the latitudinal pattern of
390 the soil C:N ratio (Figure 7f).



391 Figure 7: Latitudinal distributions and global means of biological N fixation, vegetation C:N
392 ratio, and soil C:N ratio simulated by the TRENDY-N ensemble (averaged across models over
393 1980–2021) in comparison to observations. ace. show the latitudinal distribution of the mean and
394 boxplots show the global mean. bdf. show the latitudinal distribution of the bias. Latitudinal
395 distributions show the mean (black line) and the 50%, 80%, and 100% percentiles across models.
396 Boxplots show the median, interquartile range (box), and 80% percentiles (whiskers) across
397 models. Observation-based datasets are from Davies-Barnard and Friedlingstein (2020) and the
398 U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA) for biological N fixation, the TRY plant trait database
399 for vegetation C:N ratio, and SoilGrids for soil C:N ratio. LPX-Bern simulations are not shown
400 in ab. Latitudinal distributions and global means of individual models in the TRENDY-N
401 ensemble are shown in Figure A5.



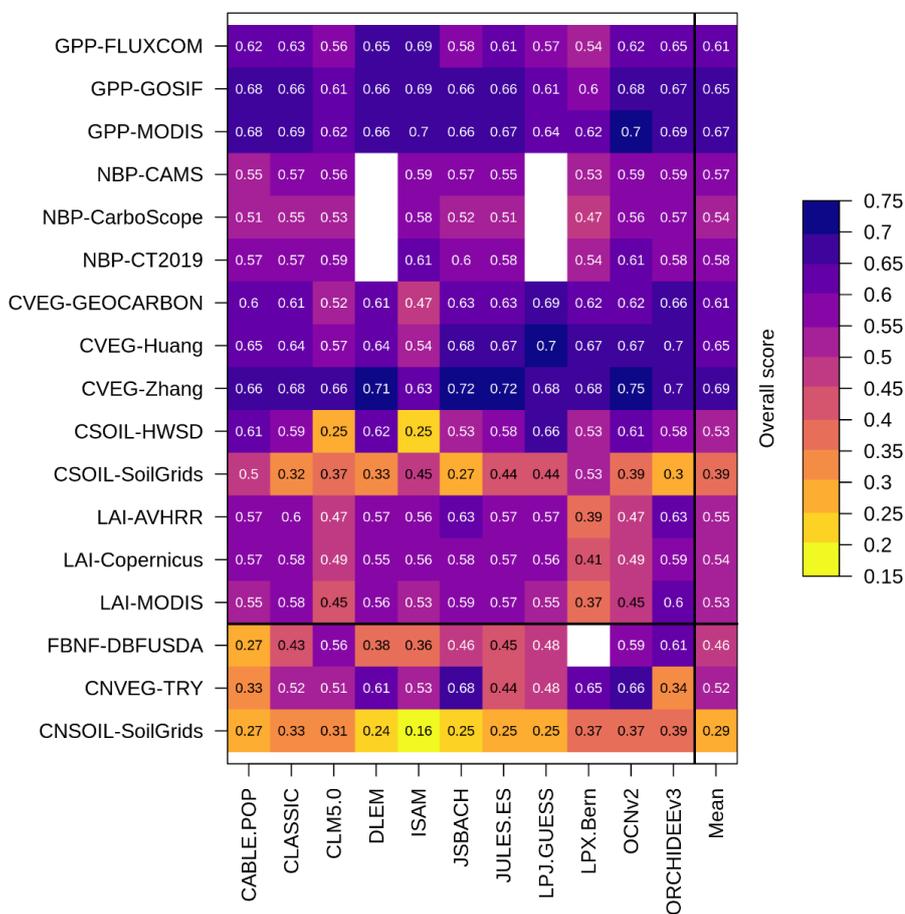
402



403 The overall score is a metric of model performance in reproducing an observation-based
404 dataset. Overall scores for biological N fixation, vegetation C:N ratio, and soil C:N ratio (0.46,
405 0.52, and 0.29 averaged across models, respectively) were lower than those for C cycling
406 variables (0.58 averaged across all C cycling variables and across models) (Figure 8). The mean
407 overall score for vegetation C:N ratio across models (0.52) was lower than the mean overall
408 scores for vegetation C across models (which ranged from 0.61 to 0.69 depending on the
409 observation-based dataset used to derive the score). Similarly, the mean overall score for soil
410 C:N ratio across models (0.20) was lower than the mean overall scores for soil C across models
411 (which ranged from 0.39 to 0.53 depending on the observation-based dataset used to derive the
412 score). Overall scores varied between 0.27 and 0.61 for biological N fixation, between 0.33 and
413 0.68 for vegetation C:N ratio, and between 0.16 and 0.39 for soil C:N ratio.



414 Figure 8: Overall scores of the TRENDY-N ensemble in simulating C and N cycling variables:
 415 gross primary productivity (GPP), net biome productivity (NBP), vegetation C (CVEG), soil C
 416 (CSOIL), leaf area index (LAI), biological N fixation (FBNF), vegetation C:N ratio (CNVEG),
 417 and soil C:N ratio (CNSOIL). Abbreviations of the observation-based datasets are described in
 418 the Methods and in Seiler et al. (2022).



419



420 For N cycling variables, the overall score is composed of the time-mean bias score
421 (which assesses the difference between the time-mean of model simulations and the time-mean
422 of the observation-based dataset) and the spatial distribution score (which assesses the ability of
423 the model to reproduce the spatial pattern of the observation-based dataset) (Collier et al., 2018;
424 Seiler et al., 2022). For biological N fixation, the time-mean bias score averaged across models
425 was 0.50 and the mean spatial distribution score across models was 0.41 (Table A3). For the
426 vegetation C:N ratio, the time-mean bias averaged score across models was 0.47 and the mean
427 spatial distribution score across models was 0.58 (Table A3). For the soil C:N ratio, the time-
428 mean bias score averaged across models was 0.39 and the mean spatial distribution score across
429 models was 0.19 (Table A3).

430 Note that, for C fluxes, the overall score is composed of not only the time-mean bias
431 score and the spatial distribution score, but also the monthly centralised root-mean-square-error
432 score (which assesses the ability of the model to reproduce the time series of the observation-
433 based dataset), the seasonality score (which assess the ability of the model to reproduce the
434 seasonality of the observation-based dataset), and the inter-annual variability score (which
435 assesses the ability of the model to reproduce the inter-annual variability of the observation-
436 based dataset) because observation-based datasets of C fluxes are available over time (whereas
437 observation-based datasets of C pools and all N cycling variables are representative of the
438 present-day (as a single time point)).

439 **3.4 Representation of N cycling processes**

440 There were no statistically significant differences in overall scores between models with
441 different representations of N limitation of vegetation growth (decreasing V_{cmax} and flexible C:N
442 stoichiometry vs. decreasing NPP), different representations of biological N fixation (function of
443 N limitation of vegetation growth vs. function of NPP or ET vs. time-invariant), different
444 representations of the response of vegetation to N limitation (dynamic vs. static), or different
445 representations of N limitation of decomposition (function of soil N vs. N-invariant) (Table A4).
446 However, models that represented decomposition as a function of soil N had a significantly
447 higher NBP score (corresponding to CT2019) than models that represented decomposition as N-
448 invariant. Similarly, there were no statistically significant differences between present-day global
449 values or Kendall's tau of primary C and N pools and fluxes between models with different
450 representations of N limitation of vegetation growth, biological N fixation, vegetation response
451 to N limitation, and N limitation of decomposition (Table A5 and A6). Figure A1 shows
452 correlations between present-day global values of the primary C and N pools and fluxes across
453 the TRENDY-N ensemble. Figure A2 shows correlations between Kendall's tau of the primary C
454 and N pools and fluxes across the TRENDY-N ensemble. Figure A3 shows correlations between
455 overall scores of the primary C and N pools and fluxes across the TRENDY-N ensemble.

456

457 **4 Discussion**

458 Despite the pivotal importance of N in constraining terrestrial C cycling and ultimately
459 the terrestrial C sink, there is substantial variation in simulated N cycling processes by the



460 terrestrial biosphere models in the TRENDY-N ensemble. The magnitude of N pools and fluxes
461 differ considerably between models, between 19.9 and 565.5 Tg N yr⁻¹ for biological N fixation
462 (CV = 1.1), between 1.5 and 5.6 Tg N for vegetation N (CV = 0.4), between 32.1 and 277.4 Tg
463 N for soil N (CV = 0.7), and between 87.0 and 602.8 Tg N yr⁻¹ for N loss (CV = 0.9). The spread
464 across the TRENDY-N ensemble suggests that approaches to represent N cycling processes vary
465 among terrestrial biosphere models and that there is no clear consensus yet on what the best
466 approaches are, supporting the use of an ensemble approach to capture the uncertainties in our
467 understanding of the N cycle, similarly to the C cycle (Tebaldi and Knutti, 2007).

468 Additionally, the historical trajectories of the N pools and fluxes differ between models:
469 some models simulate increasing vegetation N and soil N whereas others simulate decreasing
470 vegetation N and soil N between 1850 and 2021. These are the result of a host of interacting
471 global change drivers (CO₂ fertilisation, intensifying N deposition, rising temperature and
472 varying precipitation, land use change and associated N fertilisation regimes) whose effects are
473 challenging to disentangle without additional simulations. For example, while intensifying N
474 deposition and N fertiliser use could drive increasing soil N and N uptake, land use change could
475 increase N losses from both vegetation N and soil N. Despite these large differences across
476 models in the historical trajectories of vegetation N and soil N, all models simulate the historical
477 terrestrial C sink in line with observations. This suggests that the underlying N cycling processes
478 that regulate terrestrial C sequestration operate differently across models and may not be fully
479 captured. Modelled experimental manipulations (such as CO₂ fertilisation or N fertilisation
480 experiments) are imperative to evaluate model formulations of the underlying mechanisms of C-
481 N cycling interactions given that it is these processes that dictate the response of terrestrial C
482 sequestration to global change (Medlyn et al., 2015; Wieder et al., 2019; Zaehle et al., 2014).

483 Most models suggest increasing biological N fixation between 1850 and 2021. This
484 occurs either as a result of increasing vegetation biomass or the up-regulation of biological N
485 fixation due to N limitation imposed by CO₂ fertilisation or a combination thereof, depending on
486 the representation of biological N fixation in a given model (Table 1). This follows observations
487 that suggest that biological N fixation is stimulated by CO₂ fertilisation (Zheng et al., 2020),
488 although its mechanism (i.e., up-regulated biological N fixation in N-limited conditions) may not
489 be captured. Similarly, most models also suggest increasing N uptake between 1850 and 2021.
490 This also occurs as a result of increasing vegetation biomass, increasing soil N from intensifying
491 N deposition and N fertiliser use, or increasing biological N fixation, mycorrhizae and root
492 allocation due to N limitation imposed by CO₂ fertilisation, again dependent on the
493 representation of the vegetation response to N limitation in a given model (Table 1). Most
494 models suggest increasing net N mineralisation rate between 1850 and 2021 likely due to rising
495 temperature following observations (Liu et al., 2017). Most models suggest increasing N₂O
496 emissions (and N losses) between 1850 and 2021 likely due to rising temperature and
497 intensifying N deposition and N fertiliser use following observations (Tian et al., 2020).

498 We focused on three key N cycling processes for evaluation: biological N fixation,
499 vegetation C:N ratio, and soil C:N ratio. These three key N cycling processes have important
500 implications for projecting the future terrestrial C sink. Biological N fixation is the dominant



501 natural N supply to terrestrial ecosystems and allows vegetation to increase N uptake in N-
502 limited conditions, reduce N limitation, and thus sustain terrestrial C sequestration, such as in
503 response to N limitation imposed by CO₂ fertilisation (Zheng et al., 2020). Vegetation and soil
504 C:N ratios reflect assimilated C per unit N and thus terrestrial C sequestration. They can
505 potentially vary, such as in response to high photosynthesis rates relative to N uptake rates driven
506 by CO₂ fertilisation (Elser et al., 2010). Overall scores of N cycling variables, which quantify
507 model performance in reproducing an observation-based dataset, are lower than overall scores of
508 corresponding C cycling variables, suggesting that models could be less capable of capturing N
509 cycling processes than C cycling processes. However, this could also be due to the significant
510 uncertainty associated with measurements of N cycling processes as discussed below. Besides
511 models that represent N limitation of decomposition yielding a higher overall NBP score, there
512 were no statistically significant differences between models with different representations of N
513 limitation of vegetation growth, biological N fixation, the response of vegetation to N limitation,
514 and N limitation of decomposition for the overall score, present-day global value, or Kendall's
515 tau. This is likely due to the low number of models in the TRENDY-N ensemble and the
516 confounding influence of other process representations. Studies have explored the validity of
517 different representations of N cycling processes within a single model, suggesting that alternative
518 representations of a biological N fixation, ecosystem C:N stoichiometry, and ecosystem N losses
519 lead to substantial differences in simulated C cycling (Kou-Giesbrecht and Arora, 2022;
520 Meyerholt et al., 2020; Peng et al., 2020; Wieder et al., 2015a).

521 The TRENDY-N ensemble reproduced global observation-based biological N fixation
522 but tended to overestimate low-latitude biological N fixation and underestimate high-latitude
523 biological N fixation. This is likely because most models represented biological N fixation
524 phenomenologically as a function of a measure of vegetation activity (either NPP or ET). Since
525 there is higher vegetation activity at low latitudes than at high latitudes these models thus
526 represent higher biological N fixation at low latitudes than at high latitudes. However, because
527 biological N fixation is down-regulated in non-N-limited conditions, it is often down-regulated at
528 low latitudes, which are generally not (or at least less) N-limited (Barron et al., 2011; Batterman
529 et al., 2013; Sullivan et al., 2014). While CLASSIC, CLM5.0, and OCNv2 can represent the
530 down-regulation of biological N fixation in non-N-limited conditions, they still simulate high
531 low-latitude biological N fixation. This suggests that the strength of regulation of biological N
532 fixation could be insufficient and/or that there could be unaccounted N sources at low latitudes.
533 For example, rock N weathering could be a significant N source to terrestrial ecosystems. Some
534 estimates have suggested that rock N weathering could be as high as 11 – 18 Tg N yr⁻¹ globally
535 (Houlton et al., 2018) but is not explicitly represented in the TRENDY-N ensemble (with the
536 exception of LPX-Bern which calculates all external N sources post hoc to simulate a closed N
537 cycle thereby implicitly including rock N sources). The discrepancy between modelled and
538 observed biological N fixation could also be due to uncertainty in the observation-based dataset
539 given the difficulties associated with measuring biological N fixation (Soper et al., 2021).
540 Ecological theory (Hedin et al., 2009) has suggested that natural biological N fixation should be
541 higher at low latitudes given large N losses, in contrast to the observation-based dataset from
542 Davies-Barnard and Friedlingstein (2020). Observational uncertainty is discussed further below.



543 The TRENDY-N ensemble overestimated global observation-based vegetation C:N ratio
544 but reproduced its latitudinal pattern (as also indicated by its higher spatial distribution score).
545 This is because most models represent different plant functional types (e.g., evergreen needleleaf
546 trees, deciduous broadleaf trees, evergreen broadleaf trees, etc.) with different tissue C:N ratios
547 (which can either be flexible within a constrained range or time-invariant). These plant
548 functional types are geographically distributed according to similar land cover products. The
549 TRENDY-N ensemble overestimated global observation-based soil C:N ratio and failed to
550 reproduce its latitudinal pattern (as also indicated by its lower spatial distribution score). In
551 particular, models failed to reproduce the peak at the equator and the peak at approximately -
552 30°S, corresponding to tropical forests and deserts respectively. This is because most models
553 represent a constant soil C:N ratio (both temporally and spatially) and are thus unable to capture
554 the spatial variability in the soil C:N ratio. Improving the representation of soil N is an important
555 future direction for terrestrial biosphere model development given the essential feedbacks
556 between soil N and soil C.

557 Evaluating N cycling in terrestrial biosphere models is severely restricted by the lack of
558 available observations of N cycling. N cycling processes are notoriously difficult to measure,
559 such as biological N fixation (Soper et al., 2021) and gaseous N losses (Barton et al., 2015). In
560 the past, N cycling has been commonly evaluated by comparison to estimates of global N pools
561 and fluxes derived from a small number of observations that have been scaled up or averaged to
562 yield a value with wide confidence intervals (Davies-Barnard et al., 2020). Not only are these
563 global totals highly uncertain, but they also do not allow for the analysis of spatial patterns. Here,
564 we present an improved framework to evaluate three key N cycling processes – biological N
565 fixation, vegetation C:N ratio, and soil C:N ratio – in terrestrial biosphere models. However,
566 these globally-gridded observation-based datasets are also uncertain, given uncertainty in the
567 estimates of tissue C:N ratios for different plant functional types and tissue fraction of total
568 biomass (especially those of roots and wood which had a lower number of measurements in
569 comparison to that of leaves), as well as in the measurements and models used to derive soil N
570 (Batjes et al., 2020). Importantly, more observations of additional N cycling processes are
571 necessary to fully evaluate N cycling in terrestrial biosphere models. Multiple observation-based
572 datasets from different sources of a given N cycling process are necessary to evaluate
573 observational uncertainty (Seiler et al., 2021). Observation-based datasets of N cycling processes
574 at intra-annual and inter-annual time scales are necessary to assess temporal patterns.
575 Paleoclimatic observations could also be utilised for evaluation (Joos et al., 2020). Leveraging
576 advances in remote sensing (Knyazikhin et al., 2013; Townsend et al., 2013) as well as
577 incorporating N cycling process measurements into research networks such as FLUXNET (Vicca
578 et al., 2018) is essential.

579 While some of the models in the TRENDY-N ensemble have the capability of
580 representing coupled C, N, and phosphorus (P) cycling (Goll et al., 2012; Nakhavali et al., 2022;
581 Sun et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2010, 2020b; Yang et al., 2014), P cycling was not active in the
582 model simulations in the GCP 2022. P limitation could be important for limiting terrestrial C
583 sequestration, especially in low-latitude forests (Elser et al., 2007; Terrer et al., 2019; Wieder et



584 al., 2015b). As more models incorporate coupled C-N-P cycling (Reed et al., 2015), observation-
585 based datasets of P will also be necessary for model evaluation.

586

587 **5 Conclusions**

588 Because the TRENDY-N ensemble overestimated both vegetation and soil C:N ratios, it
589 is possible that models could overestimate assimilated C per unit N and thus future terrestrial C
590 sequestration under CO₂ fertilisation. Alongside discrepancies in biological N fixation, this could
591 lead to biases in projections of the future terrestrial C sink by the TRENDY-N ensemble (not to
592 mention the other terrestrial biosphere models in the TRENDY ensemble that do not represent
593 coupled C-N cycling). While terrestrial biosphere models are capable of reproducing the current
594 terrestrial C sink, the results presented here suggest that underlying mechanisms of C-N cycling
595 interactions operate differently across models and may not be fully captured. These interactions
596 are critical for projections of the future terrestrial C sink as the C/N balance is expected to shift
597 in the future under interacting global change drivers.



598 **Code availability**

599 AMBER is available at <https://gitlab.com/cseiler/AMBER>.

600

601 **Data availability**

602 Biological N fixation, vegetation C:N ratio, and soil C:N ratio are available at
603 <https://gitlab.com/siankg/amber-nitrogen>.

604

605 **Author contribution**

606 SKG designed and conducted the study and prepared the initial manuscript. VA and CS provided
607 feedback on the initial manuscript and its subsequent revisions. The other co-authors conducted
608 TRENDY simulations and provided feedback on the manuscript.

609

610 **Competing interests**

611 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

612

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614 The authors would like to thank T Davies-Barnard for compiling the observations used to
615 evaluate biological N fixation. ORCHIDEEv3 simulations were granted access to the HPC
616 resources of GENCI-TGCC under the allocation A0130106328.

617



618 **Appendix A**

619

620 Table A1: IGBP land cover type, corresponding TRY plant trait database PFT, tissue C:N ratios
 621 (from the TRY plant trait database (Kattge et al., 2020)), tissue fractions (Poorter et al., 2012),
 622 and calculated total C:N ratio.

IGBP land cover type	TRY plant trait database PFT	Leaf C:N	Leaf fraction	Root C:N	Root fraction	Stem C:N	Stem fraction	Total C:N
0 bare	-							
1 Evergreen needleleaf forest	Tree evergreen needleleaf Temperate evergreen needleleaf Boreal evergreen needleleaf Gymnosperm evergreen needleleaf tree Temperate conifer Boreal conifer Evergreen gymnosperm	40.1	0.04	51.9	0.21	305.4	0.75	241.5
2 Evergreen broadleaf forest	Tree evergreen broadleaf Temperate evergreen broadleaf Tropical evergreen broadleaf Boreal evergreen broadleaf Angiosperm evergreen broadleaf tree Gymnosperm evergreen broadleaf tree Temperate evergreen Rainforest Evergreen angiosperm	26.8	0.02	26.4	0.16	139.3	0.82	119.0
3 Deciduous needleleaf forest	Tree deciduous needleleaf Boreal deciduous needleleaf Gymnosperm deciduous needleleaf tree Deciduous gymnosperm							241.5 ^a
4 Deciduous broadleaf forest	Tree deciduous broadleaf Temperate deciduous broadleaf Tropical deciduous broadleaf Boreal deciduous broadleaf Angiosperm deciduous broadleaf tree Gymnosperm deciduous broadleaf tree Temperate deciduous Deciduous angiosperm	21.5	0.03	39.6	0.21	102.1	0.76	86.6
5 Mixed forest								149.0 ^b



6 Closed shrubland	Shrub evergreen broadleaf	34.5	0.09	24.9	0.47	216.7	0.49	121.0
7 Open shrubland	Evergreen shrub Deciduous shrub Shrub	34.5	0.09	24.9	0.47	216.7	0.49	121.0
8 Woody savannas	Angiosperm evergreen broadleaf shrub	34.5	0.09	24.9	0.36	216.7	0.57	134.5
9 Savannas	Angiosperm deciduous broadleaf shrub Gymnosperm evergreen broadleaf shrub Desert shrub Savanna evergreen Savanna deciduous	34.5	0.09	24.9	0.36	216.7	0.57	134.5
10 Grasslands	Grass C3 Grass C4 Temperate herbaceous Tropical herbaceous Herbaceous C3 Herbaceous C4 Angiosperm herbaceous C3 Angiosperm herbaceous C4	18.6	0.17	30.9	0.77	29.3	0.27	34.9
11 Permanent wetlands								34.9 ^c
12 Croplands	Crop C3	11.7	0.17	30.9 ^c	0.77	29.3 ^c	0.27	28.9
13 Urban and built-up	-							
14 Cropland / natural vegetation mosaic								28.9 ^d
15 Snow and ice	-							
16 Barren or sparsely vegetated	-							

623 ^a Value from evergreen needleleaf forest.

624 ^b Average of evergreen needleleaf forest, evergreen broadleaf forest, and deciduous broadleaf forest.

625 ^c Value from grasslands.

626 ^d Value from croplands.

627



628 Table A2: Kendall’s tau from the Mann-Kendall test (p -value < 0.05) for each N pool and N flux
 629 time series simulated by the TRENDY-N ensemble from 1850 to 2021. NS indicates that
 630 Kendall’s tau is not significant. NA indicates that the variable was not reported by the model.

	CABLE-POP	CLASSIC	CLM5.0	DLEM	ISAM	JSBACH	JULES-ES	LPJ-GUESS	LPX-Bern	OCNv2	ORCHIDEEv3
Vegetation N	0.58	NS	-0.97	-0.51	NS	0.83	NS	-0.25	-0.75	-0.67	-0.51
Litter N	0.88	0.15	0.65	-0.7	-0.87	0.92	0.86	-0.35	0.44	-0.69	NS
Soil N	1	-0.8	-0.47	-0.97	-0.91	0.99	-0.67	-0.68	1	1	-0.3
Biological N fixation	NS	0.95	0.84	-0.33	-0.11	0.89	0.79	0.62	0.92	0.45	NS
N uptake	0.89	0.64	0.81	0.78	NA	0.81	0.85	0.54	0.82	0.85	0.71
Net N mineralisation	0.91	0.33	0.73	0.87	NA	0.85	0.76	NS	0.86	0.82	0.31
N ₂ O emissions	NA	0.92	0.7	0.87	NA	0.95	NA	NA	0.7	0.42	0.69
N loss	NA	0.94	0.67	0.94	0.73	0.59	0.63	0.94	0.81	0.42	0.65

631



632 Table A3: Time-mean bias score (S_{bias}), spatial distribution score (S_{dist}), and overall score
 633 (S_{overall}) of the TRENDY-N ensemble in simulating biological N fixation, vegetation C:N ratio,
 634 and soil C:N ratio.

	Biological N fixation			Vegetation C:N ratio			Soil C:N ratio		
	S_{bias}	S_{dist}	S_{overall}	S_{bias}	S_{dist}	S_{overall}	S_{bias}	S_{dist}	S_{overall}
CABLE-POP	0.46	0.08	0.27	0.34	0.33	0.33	0.2	0.34	0.27
CLASSIC	0.46	0.4	0.43	0.45	0.59	0.52	0.43	0.22	0.33
CLM5.0	0.55	0.56	0.56	0.57	0.46	0.51	0.45	0.16	0.31
DLEM	0.46	0.29	0.38	0.47	0.75	0.61	0.48	0.01	0.24
ISAM	0.47	0.24	0.36	0.49	0.57	0.53	0.05	0.28	0.16
JSBACH	0.48	0.44	0.46	0.63	0.74	0.68	0.38	0.11	0.25
JULES-ES	0.47	0.43	0.45	0.4	0.49	0.44	0.51	0	0.25
LPJ-GUESS	0.51	0.45	0.48	0.45	0.52	0.48	0.49	0.01	0.25
LPX-Bern	NA	NA	NA	0.54	0.76	0.65	0.33	0.4	0.37
OCNv2	0.56	0.62	0.59	0.56	0.76	0.66	0.47	0.26	0.37
ORCHIDEEv3	0.6	0.63	0.61	0.27	0.41	0.34	0.48	0.31	0.39

635



636 Table A4: Overall scores of biological N fixation, vegetation C:N ratio, soil C:N ratio, and NBP
 637 of TRENDY-N ensemble models with different representations of key N cycling processes (N
 638 limitation of vegetation growth, biological N fixation, vegetation response to N limitation, and N
 639 limitation of decomposition, see Table 1).

		BNF- DBFUSDA	CNVEG-TRY	CNSOIL- SoilGrids	NBP-CAMS	NBP- Carboscope	NBP-CT2019
N limitation of vegetation growth	V_{cmax} / flexible C:N stoichiometry	0.49	0.47	0.32	0.57	0.54	0.58
	NPP	0.41	0.58	0.26	0.56	0.52	0.58
	p-value	0.21	0.14	0.15	0.59	0.44	0.9
Biological N fixation	f(N limitation of vegetation growth)	0.44	0.34	0.33	0.57	0.54	0.57
	f(NPP) or f(ET)	0.44	0.53	0.23	0.57	0.54	0.6
	Time-invariant	0.53	0.56	0.33	0.57	0.55	0.59
	p-value	0.59	0.07	0.06	0.92	0.91	0.28
Vegetation response to N limitation	Dynamic	0.49	0.56	0.3	0.57	0.55	0.59
	Static	0.43	0.5	0.28	0.56	0.53	0.58
	p-value	0.44	0.41	0.71	0.48	0.3	0.67
N limitation of decomposition	f(soil N)	0.47	0.57	0.26	0.57	0.54	0.6
	N-invariant	0.45	0.46	0.32	0.56	0.52	0.56
	p-value	0.86	0.17	0.16	0.26	0.44	0.02

640



641 Table A5: Present-day global values of biological N fixation, vegetation C:N ratio, and soil C:N
 642 ratio simulated by TRENDY-N ensemble models with different representations of key N cycling
 643 processes (N limitation of vegetation growth, biological N fixation, vegetation response to N
 644 limitation, and N limitation of decomposition, see Table 1).

		Biological N fixation	Vegetation C:N ratio	Soil C:N ratio
N limitation of vegetation growth	V_{cmax} / flexible C:N stoichiometry	106.78	161.8	12.75
	NPP	179.06	156.26	22.79
	p-value	0.51	0.85	0.39
Biological N fixation	f(N limitation of vegetation growth)	123.14	201.68	15.71
	f(NPP) or f(ET)	66.37	177.37	24.31
	Time-invariant	118.95	123.89	11.64
	p-value	0.27	0.15	0.68
Vegetation response to N limitation	Dynamic	99.25	143.32	11.22
	Static	173.29	172.58	22.4
	p-value	0.41	0.29	0.24
N limitation of decomposition	f(soil N)	88.21	153.36	20.04
	N-invariant	201.34	166.38	14.04
	p-value	0.3	0.66	0.53

645



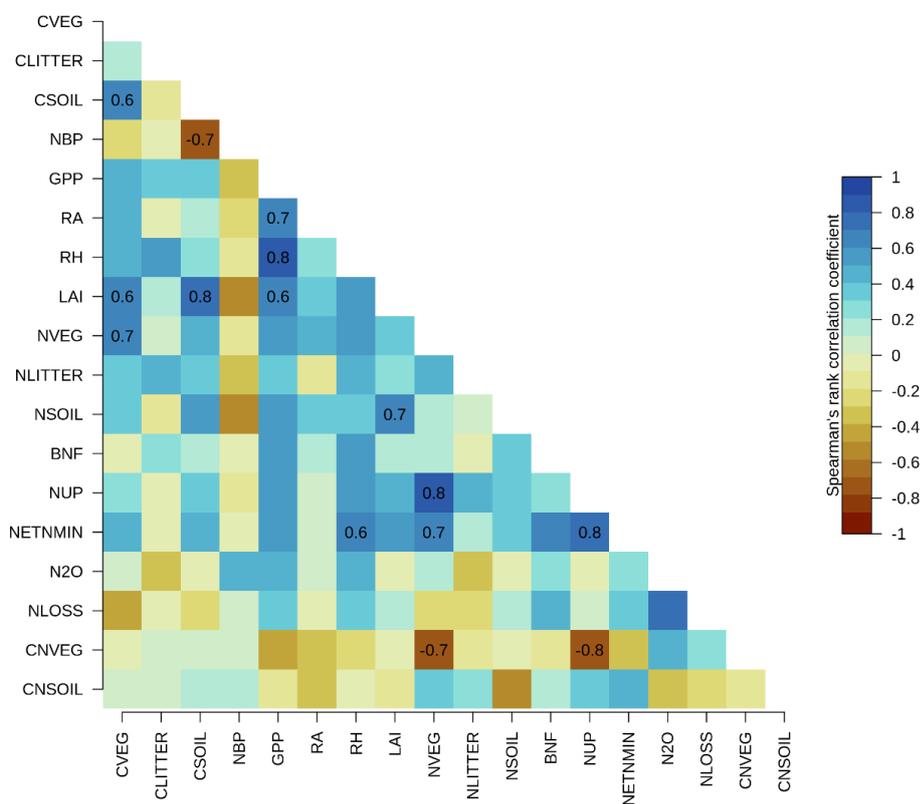
646 Table A6: Kendall’s tau from the Mann-Kendall test (p -value < 0.05) for biological N fixation,
 647 vegetation C:N ratio, and soil C:N ratio simulated by TRENDY-N ensemble models with
 648 different representations of key N cycling processes (N limitation of vegetation growth,
 649 biological N fixation, vegetation response to N limitation, and N limitation of decomposition, see
 650 Table 1).

		Biological N fixation	Vegetation C:N ratio	Soil C:N ratio
N limitation of vegetation growth	V_{cmax} / flexible C:N stoichiometry	0.48	-0.01	-0.04
	NPP	0.43	-0.74	0
	p-value	0.89	0.06	0.94
Biological N fixation	f(N limitation of vegetation growth)	0	-0.31	0.02
	f(NPP) or f(ET)	0.55	-0.6	0.14
	Time-invariant	0.74	0.39	-0.03
	p-value	0.15	0.15	0.97
Vegetation response to N limitation	Dynamic	0.5	-0.08	0.01
	Static	0.41	-0.56	-0.04
	p-value	0.77	0.3	0.93
N limitation of decomposition	f(soil N)	0.42	-0.42	0.31
	N-invariant	0.5	-0.25	-0.42
	p-value	0.8	0.7	0.14

651

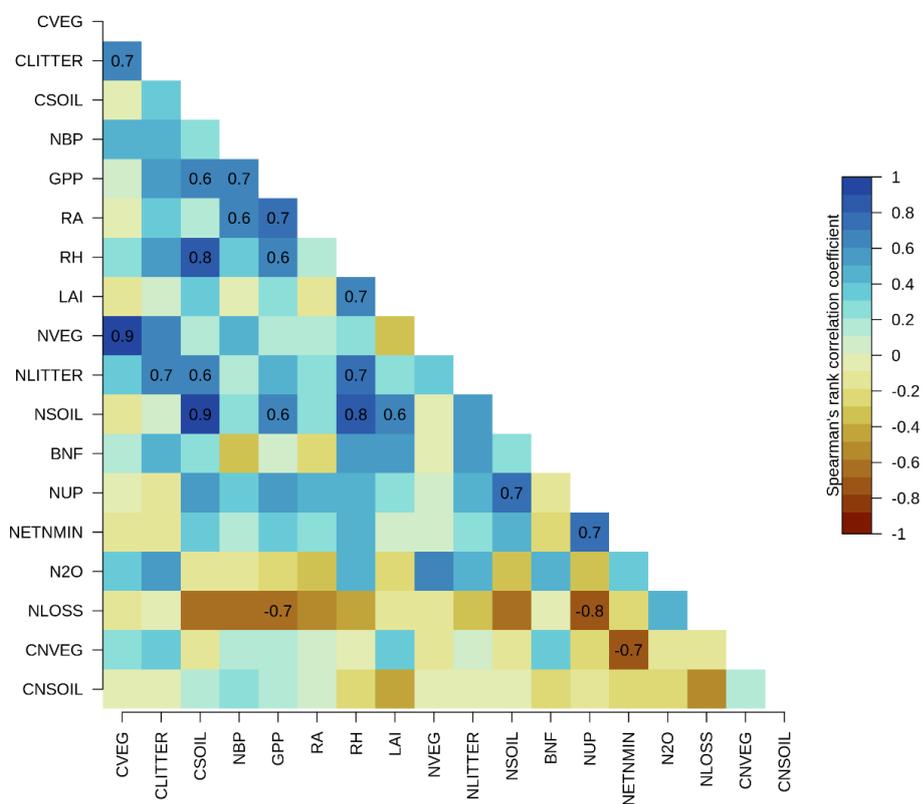


652 Figure A1: Correlations between present-day global values (averaged over 1980–2021) of
 653 primary C and N pools and fluxes across TRENDY-N ensemble models: vegetation C (CVEG),
 654 litter C (CLITTER), soil C (CSOIL), net biome productivity (NBP), gross primary productivity
 655 (GPP), autotrophic respiration (RA), heterotrophic respiration (RH), leaf area index (LAI),
 656 vegetation N (NVEG), litter N (NLITTER), soil N (NSOIL), biological N fixation (BNF), N
 657 uptake (NUP), net N mineralisation (NETNMIN), N₂O emissions (N₂O), N loss (NLOSS),
 658 vegetation C:N ratio (CNVEG), and soil C:N ratio (CNSOIL). Spearman's rank correlation
 659 coefficient is shown for statistically significant correlations (p-value < 0.05).



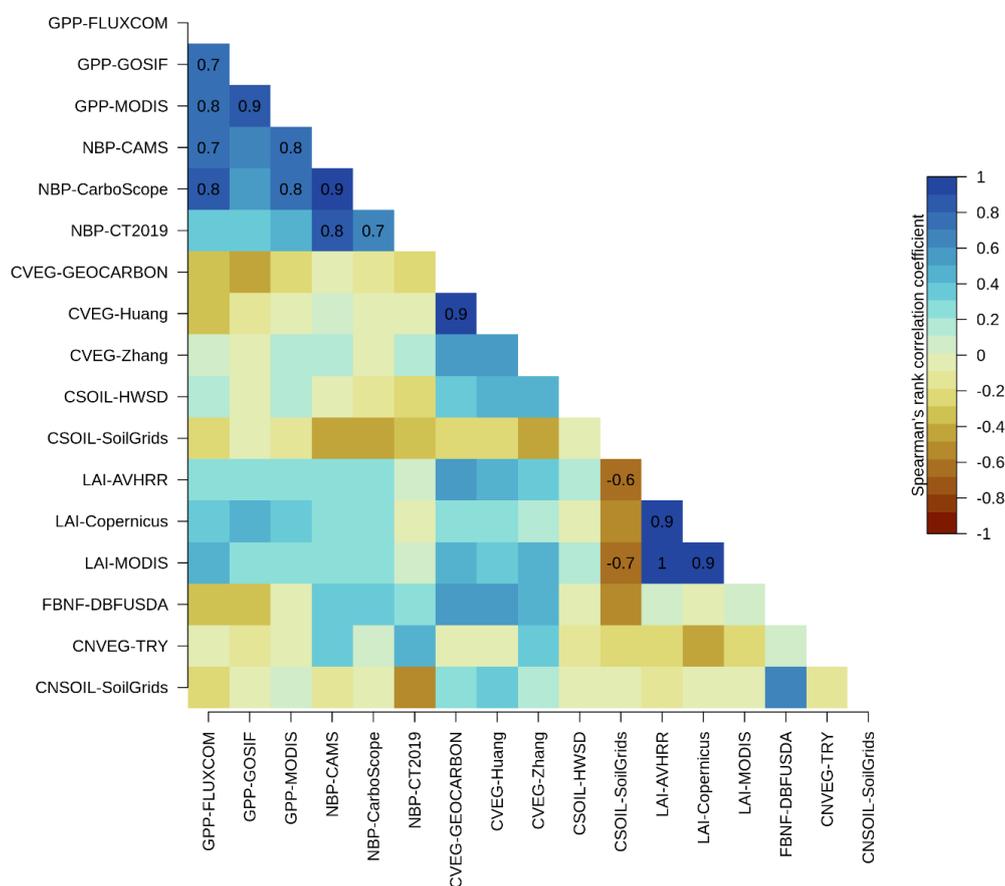


661 Figure A2: Correlations between Kendall's tau of primary C and N pools and fluxes across
 662 TRENDY-N ensemble models: vegetation C (CVEG), litter C (CLITTER), soil C (CSOIL), net
 663 biome productivity (NBP), gross primary productivity (GPP), autotrophic respiration (RA),
 664 heterotrophic respiration (RH), leaf area index (LAI), vegetation N (NVEG), litter N
 665 (NLITTER), soil N (NSOIL), biological N fixation (FBNF), N uptake (NUP), net N
 666 mineralisation (NETNMIN), N₂O emissions (N₂O), N loss (NLOSS), vegetation C:N ratio
 667 (CNVEG), and soil C:N ratio (CNSOIL). Spearman's rank correlation coefficient is shown for
 668 statistically significant correlations (p-value < 0.05).





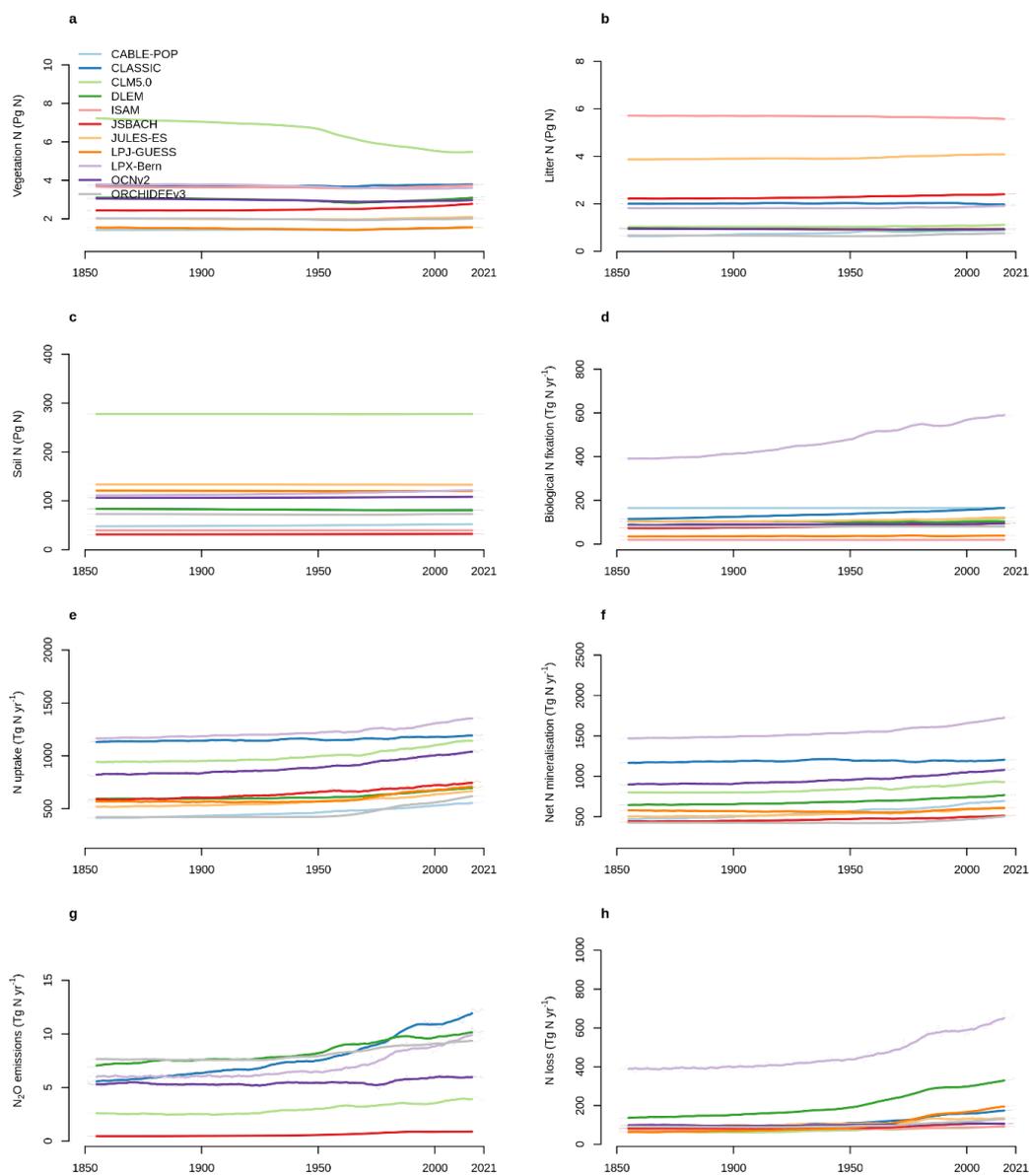
670 Figure A3: Correlations between overall scores of primary C and N pools and fluxes across
 671 TRENDY-N ensemble models: gross primary productivity (GPP), net biome productivity (NBP),
 672 vegetation C (CVEG), soil C (CSOIL), leaf area index (LAI), biological N fixation (FBNF),
 673 vegetation C:N ratio (CNVEG), and soil C:N ratio (CNSOIL). Abbreviations of the observation-
 674 based datasets are described in the Methods and in (Seiler et al., 2022). Spearman's rank
 675 correlation coefficient is shown for statistically significant correlations (p -value < 0.05).



676



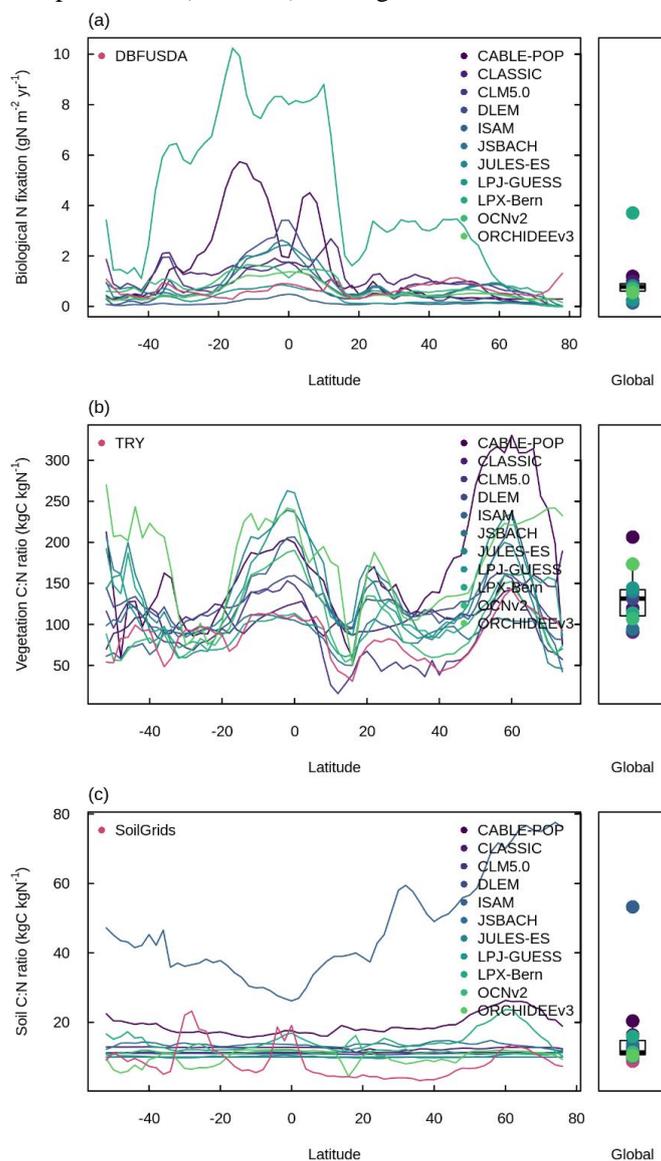
677 Figure A4: Time series of a. vegetation N, b. litter N, c. soil N, d. biological N fixation, e. N
678 uptake, f. net N mineralisation, g. N₂O emissions, and h. N loss simulated by the TRENDY-N
679 ensemble from 1850 to 2021.
680



681



682 Figure A5: Latitudinal distributions and global means of ab. biological N fixation, cd. vegetation
683 C:N ratio, and ef. soil C:N ratio simulated by the TRENDY-N ensemble (averaged across models
684 over 1980–2021) in comparison to observation-based datasets from (Davies-Barnard and
685 Friedlingstein, 2020) for biological N fixation, the TRY plant trait database for vegetation C:N
686 ratio, and SoilGrids for soil C:N ratio. Boxplots show the median, interquartile range (box), and
687 80% percentiles (whiskers) of the global mean.



688



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