



Nitrogen deposition and climate drive plant nitrogen uptake while soil factors drive nitrogen use efficiency in terrestrial ecosystems

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- 48 efficiency (NUE), as these factors directly influence the capacity of plants to store carbon.
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49 However, the contribution of N deposition and soil factors (biotic and abiotic) in addition to 50 climate to plant N cycle, remains inadequately understood, introducing significant uncertainties into climate change projections. Here, we used ground-based observations 51 52 across 159 locations to calculate Nup and NUE and identify their main drivers in natural 53 ecosystems. We found that global plant Nup is primarily driven by N deposition, air 54 temperature and precipitation, with Nup increasing in warmer and wetter areas. In 55 contrast, NUE is driven by soil biotic and abiotic factors, with little direct control by climatic 56 factors. Specifically, NUE decreased with the intensity of the colonization by arbuscular 57 mycorrhizal fungi and increased with soil pH and soil microbial stocks. Nup and NUE presented opposite latitudinal distributions, with Nup higher on tropical latitudes and NUE 58 59 higher towards the poles. Total soil N stocks were not found to be a driver of Nup or NUE. 60 We also compared our results with TRENDY models and found that models may overestimate Nup by ~ 100 Tg N yr⁻¹ in the tropics and triple the standard deviation on 61 62 boreal latitudes. Our findings emphasize the effect of N deposition and soil microbes that, 63 in addition to climate and soil pH, are crucial for accurately predicting ecosystems' capacity 64 to sequester carbon and mitigate climate change.

65

66 Plain language summary

67 We used field empirical data worldwide to calculate plant nitrogen uptake (Nup) and 68 nitrogen use efficiency (NUE) in woodlands and grasslands and determine its drivers, which 69 can be used as empirical validation for models. Even though some regions of the world have 70 decreased their N deposition, N deposition is still the most important driver explaining plant 71 nitrogen uptake, aside from climatic variables.

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93 94 95 96 1.Introduction 97 98 Climate and nutrient availability play significant roles in the capacity of plants to sequester 99 carbon (C). Nitrogen uptake (Nup) and nitrogen use efficiency (NUE) are fundamental 100 processes in plant-soil N cycling, which in turn impact biodiversity, ecosystem productivity, 101 C sequestration, food security and human health (Peñuelas et al., 2020). Hence, realistic 102 quantifications of Nup and (NUE) and the understanding of their drivers are crucial to 103 predict the fate of terrestrial ecosystems under a changing environment. Climate, biomass 104 production, and Nup are strongly intertwined, where hotter and wetter ecosystems have 105 the capacity to grow more, increase their N demand and therefore absorb more N if 106 available (Berntson et al., 1998; Wu et al., 2011). Nonetheless, several factors can affect N 107 availability. Traditionally, total soil N stocks were used to proxy N availability or plant Nup. 108 Although this correlation is weak, it is still used in a modeling perspective (Stevens et al., 109 2015; Vicca et al., 2018) assuming that total soil N, positively correlates with N availability. 110 Recent advances in plant-soil science revealed the remarkable importance of the soil biotic 111 community in N availability related processes and plant growth (Aber et al., 2001; 112 Sinsabaugh et al., 2002; Sinsabaugh et al., 2008; Crowther et al., 2019; Delgado-Baquerizo 113 et al., 2020; Etzold et al., 2020). Thus, by extension, soil microorganisms (e.g., soil microbes 114 stocks and mycorrhizal associations) could potentially affect Nup and NUE. In addition, N 115 deposition has increased from ~30 to ~80 Tg N/year worldwide since 1850 (Kanakidou et 116 al., 2016), with substantial effects on global biogeochemical fluxes and N availability (Elser 117 et al., 2010; Battye et al., 2017; Peñuelas et al., 2020). Consequently, reliable quantifications 118 of plant Nup and NUE need to include climatic factors as well as soil biotic factors and N 119 deposition.

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121 N regulates the capacity of ecosystems to store C (Hungate et al., 2003; Fernández-Martínez 122 et al., 2014; 2019; Wang et al., 2017) and respond to climate change drivers (Fleischer et 123 al., 2019; Terrer et al., 2019; Walker et al., 2021; Zhou et al., 2022) being the C-N assembly 124 relevant for land surface models (LSM). Eight of the LSM of the TRENDY ensemble (Sitch et 125 al., 2015), a model ensamble designed to disentangle the effects of climate, CO2, land-use and land cover change, include representations of the N cycle and plant N uptake. 126 127 Nonetheless, its parameterization of N cycling is poorly constrained by observations (Zaehle 128 et al., 2014; Fowler et al., 2015; Braghiere et al., 2022). As a consequence, when models are 129 assembled, the result leads to accumulated uncertainty (Prentice et al., 2015; Franklin et 130 al., 2020) and therefore divergent predictions of the land sink (Zaehle et al., 2014; Stocker 131 et al., 2016; Arora et al., 2020). Furthermore, when accounting for N interactions, LSM do 132 generally not consider the direct effects of microorganisms' missing out on the role of soil 133 bacteria or mycorrhizae on plant nutrient uptake. Thus, including global calculations of 134 plant Nup and NUE based on empirical data as well as accounting for climate, N deposition, 135 and soil biomass interactions would potentially refine the N accountability in LSM.





137 Here, we gathered information from 159 plots worldwide that describe woodlands and 138 grasslands across different biomes to calculate plot-based plant Nup and plant NUE using 139 exclusively empirical field data. Our analyses combine N concentration and net primary 140 productivity (NPP) data in different aboveground and belowground plant tissues (i.e., 141 leaves, roots, stem). We used linear models to identify the drivers of Nup and NUE, including 142 N deposition, soil microbes, woodiness and climatic factors. We then upscaled those results 143 using the machine-learning models to quantify yearly plant Nup and plant NUE at a global 144 scale in natural terrestrial ecosystems (woodlands and grasslands) and compared these 145 results with simulations from LSM. We hypothesize that factors such as N deposition and 146 soil microorganisms have significant impacts on Nup and NUE respectively, playing a role as 147 important as climatic drivers. We expect the ground-based data, and incorporation of these 148 N-relevant drivers to increase the accuracy of global Nup quantifications. Thus, a mismatch 149 between our estimation and current TRENDY simulation outputs is expected.

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151 2. Results and discussion

152 2.1 Nitrogen uptake and nitrogen use efficiency

Our findings indicate that N deposition and climate are fundamental factors explaining plant 153 154 Nup on a global scale (Fig. 1). Further analysis revealed a positive relationship between Nup 155 and accumulated N deposition, mean annual temperature (MAT), and mean annual 156 precipitation (MAP). Thus, regions that are warm and wet, and also experience higher levels 157 of N deposition, exhibit the highest rates of Nup. Our empirical results did not show 158 important relationships between plant Nup and soil microbial interactions nor soil physico-159 chemical variables including soil N stocks at a global scale (Fig. 1a). We further tested the 160 univariate relation between Nup and total soil N stocks with no significant relation among 161 them (Fig. S1a).

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Plant nitrogen uptake

 163
 Temperature (°C)
 Precipitation (mm)

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 Figure 1. a) Variable importance plot for the general linear model describing plant nitrogen uptake (Nup). The dashed line

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 is set at 0.8, separating the threshold for important variables. The model preudoR2 was 0.349. Linear regressions were

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 displayed describing plants' nitrogen and important variables b) accumulated Nox deposition from 1901 to 2021, c) mean

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 annual temperature, and d) mean annual precipitation. Equation and p-value per regression displayed. Acronyms: Nox:

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 oxidized nitrogen, N: nitrogen, Myco %: Mycorryzal percentage.

169 In contrast, when describing NUE our model selection analysis identified soil biotic and 170 abiotic factors as NUE drivers with little direct control by climatic factors (Fig. 2). Specifically, 171 our results described NUE decreased with AM % but a positive relation between soil pH, soil 172 microbial N stocks and NUE was found. Thus, when plant species are more colonized by arbuscular mycorrhizae, are less efficient in N use to build biomass. In contraposition, basic 173 174 pH and abundant soil microbial stocks facilitate higher NUE rates. Even though soil variables 175 appear to be important for NUE, soil N stocks remain unrelated to NUE in the model and 176 when tested individually (Fig. S1b).





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Figure 2. a) Variable importance plot for the generalized linear model describing nitrogen use efficiency (NUE). The model preudoR2 was 0.355. The dashed line is set at 0.75, separating the threshold for important variables. In b) arbuscular mycorrhizae percentage is divided into low, medium, and high, and NUE is displayed. * = P-value < 0.05, ** = P-value < 0.01, *** = P-value < 0.001. Linear regressions were displayed describing plants' nitrogen use efficiency c) soil pH and d) microbial N stocks. Equation and p-value per regression displayed.

184 2.2 Global maps of Nup and NUE

185 Next, we used a machine-learning model to understand the global magnitude and 186 distribution of Nup and NUE when the relationships found at the site-level are extrapolated 187 at a global scale. For methodological consistency, the XGBoost model was trained using the 188 same nine variables as the linear model. We identified temperature, precipitation, and N 189 deposition as the most critical factors for describing Nup (Fig. S2), which aligned with those 190 in the linear model, albeit in a slightly different order. Partial dependence plots further 191 corroborated these relationships, showing consistent correlation signs with those observed 192 in the linear models (Fig. S3). The upscaled Nup map showed a total yearly Nup of 842.215 193 \pm 236.11 Tg of N, with a mean coefficient of variation of 26.77 % (Fig. S4) and an r² of 0.54 194 (Fig. S2). The lowest Nup values were on boreal latitudes and mountain ranges such as the 195 Rocky Mountains in the USA, the Andes in South America, the different mountain ridges in 196 Europe, and the Himalayan plateau in Asia. The higher rates of Nup are predicted in





temperate latitudes in Europe, the eastern United States, Southeast Asia, East Australia,
most of South America and central Africa, with the most intense spot around Congo, where
there is the most N deposition, temperature and precipitation combined (Fig. 3a).
Therefore, Nup map shows an NPP influence, driven by temperature and precipitation, but
added to an N deposition distribution that shades the strictly latitudinal distribution of Nup.



b) Average nitrogen use efficiency: 110.262 ± 19.40 kg C/Kg N



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Figure 3. Upscaled global maps describing a) Plant nitrogen uptake and b) Nitrogen use efficiency. The total amount of
 nitrogen uptake calculated per year is 842.215 Tg of N with a standard deviation of ± 236.11. The mean value of global
 nitrogen use efficiency is 110.26 kg of C per kg of N, and its standard deviation is 19.40. White color describes no data due
 to a lack of grasslands or woody vegetation.

The machine-learning models describing NUE showed the importance of microbial N stocks, altitude, precipitation, soil pH, and AM% as NUE drivers (Fig. S5). These results generally align with the variable importance shown in the linear models, with the addition of precipitation and altitude. The variables' relation showed similar general trends as in the linear model (Fig. S6). The average predictions for NUE at a global scale were 110.262 units of C per unit of N with a mean coefficient of variation of 17.89 % (Fig. S4) and an r² of 0.44





(Fig. S5). The map distribution showed general lower NUE around the Equator, and
progressively increasing towards the poles. Nonetheless, some heterogeneous parches
alternating high and low NUE can be found between 50 and 60 degrees latitude north (Fig.
3b).

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219 2.3 Global-scale Nup comparison with TRENDY models

220 We further seek to compare our estimates for the total yearly Nup upscaled from field 221 observations with the mean of the Nup provided by the eight models included in TRENDY. 222 When comparing TRENDY Nup with our Nup upscaled projections, we found clear 223 geospatial pattern differences. TRENDY models produce higher Nup in the tropical regions, 224 reaching differences of around 100 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in those areas (Fig. 4a) representing more 225 than 100% of the Nup estimated by field observations (Fig. 4b). Other areas like the north 226 and northeast of North America, Southeast Asia, and north of Eurasia also appear to have 227 higher Nup values in TRENDY models than in field observations. In boreal latitudes, the 228 TRENDY models deviation for Nup could even reach 300% of overestimation. On the other 229 hand, areas where the upscaled approach projects higher values than the TRENDY models, 230 are the austral latitudes, the Middle Eastern regions, the Somali peninsula, and the Rocky 231 Mountains (Fig. 4). Overall, TRENDY models estimate higher values of Nup, by 16.61 kg N 232 ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹, meaning the 48.54 % of the variability. When aggregating the total year Nup, LPX-233 Bern and CLM5.0 were the models that predicted overall values exceding our range of 234 confidence, assuming a significantly larger Nup (Fig. S7). 235

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Figure 4. Comparison between the mean of the nitrogen uptake provided by TRENDY v8 models minus the upscaled nitrogen uptake. The red color stands for higher values on the TRENDY model, and the blue color stands for higher nitrogen uptake values on the upscaled approach. In a) units in kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ and in b) units in percentage of deviation from field upscaling. Latitudinal aggregation on the right, with a red vertical line showing a) the mean of the total comparison at 16.61 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ and b) the mean percentage of deviation at 48.54%.

243 2.4 Nup global drivers and implications

244 Our models estimated the annual global plant Nup at 842.215 ± 236.110 Tg of N. This figure 245 is consistent with the findings of Peng et al., 2023, which estimated 950 ± 260 Tg of N, and 246 Braghiere et al., 2022, with an estimated uptake of 841.8 Tg N. The slight variations can be 247 attributed to differences in methodologies and data sources (simultaneous plot-averaged 248 records vs individual-level records) used in these studies. In our study, linear models and 249 machine learning models are consistent when determining N deposition, temperature, and 250 precipitation as global drivers of Nup. Hotter and wetter environments increase biological 251 activity, leading to more biomass production and therefore more N demand. An increase in 252 N demand with enough N availability is associated with an increase in Nup. The 253 accumulation of N deposition throughout time originating from anthropogenic sources has 254 been increasing the N availability in some areas, generally close to industrial or agroforestry 255 pools. Hence, in a global change context where CO₂ fertilization and temperature increase





have generated a greening effect (Ruehr et al., 2023), areas with higher N deposition were
able to better supply the increasing N demand. Thus, according to our results,
anthropogenic N supply may have become a Nup driver as important as climate.

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260 These results are concerning since our data emphasize the far-reaching influence of human-261 induced nitrogen deposition in shaping global Nup patterns. Some regions such as Europe, 262 the Eastern USA, and the tropics have decreased their N deposition during the last four 263 decades (Ackerman et al., 2019). Nonetheless, these efforts do not translate yet on low N 264 deposition effects in natural woodlands and grasslands. This sustained entrance of 265 anthropogenic N has been associated with a fertilization effect, enhancing the land C sink 266 by 0.72 Pg C yr⁻¹ during the 2010s (Gurmesa et al., 2022). Nonetheless, this N fertilization 267 effect showed evidence of saturation in forests and grasslands (Tian et al., 2016; Peng et al., 268 2020), where the biomass production and therefore the C sink increase slowed down. 269 Consequently, this input of N not being captured by biomass will enhance the N leaching 270 associated with eutrophication, acidification, loss of biodiversity, and N₂O emissions (Aber 271 et al., 1989; Gundersen et al., 1998; Bobbink et al., 2010) exacerbating environmental 272 problems.

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274 **2.5 NUE global drivers and implications**

275 Our results predict a mean NUE of 110.262 ± 19.40 kg C per kg N. Our results indicate soil 276 biotic and abiotic factors drive NUE in natural ecosystems. The main divergence between 277 linear models and machine learning models is the importance of altitude and precipitation, 278 which showed explicit relevancy only in machine learning models. We attribute these 279 differences to the nature of the models, where machine-learning models accommodate 280 correlations without modifying their variable importance. Thus, the important variables in 281 the linear model could also have embedded important latitudinal gradients and therefore 282 altitudinal or precipitation gradients. Our NUE predictions contrasted with Peng et al., 2023, 283 which predicts a mean NUE of 76 ± 26 kg C per kg of N. The main difference between studies 284 is that our approach included biotic factors, such as mycorrhizal associations and microbial 285 interactions, that described NUE better than abiotic factors. In contrast, Peng et al., 2023 focused their predictions only on abiotic factors. In that regard, we do not consider 286 287 environmental variables such as precipitation to be totally detached from NUE relations, 288 since they are somewhat drivers of important biotic variables such as AM %, soil pH, and 289 microbial N stocks. Nonetheless, the results showed that including biotic variables may 290 result in more efficient use of N by plants at global scale.

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292 The response of NUE has been postulated as a method to assess N saturation in plant 293 communities (Shcherbak et al., 2014). A negative relation between N addition and NUE and 294 lower NUE levels would indicate N saturation (Iversen et al., 2010). In our study, tropical 295 areas are shown to have the lowest NUE, being the less N limited and matching with 296 previous global upscaling studies using different approaches (Du et al., 2020; Vallicrosa et 297 al., 2022). According to the soil age hypothesis (Walker and Syers, 1976), N accumulates in 298 ecosystems through time due to biological processes. Thus, newer formation areas, such as 299 high elevation or lower pH areas are those showing higher values of NUE and where N is





expected to be more limiting. Our results only show a modest effect of N saturation due to
 N deposition, so further studies are needed to better assess where and under what
 circumstances areas are N saturated due to N deposition.

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304 Biological activity, such as the type of mycorrhizal associations and soil microbes N stocks, 305 was found to have a strong impact in the terrestrial N cycle. Arbuscular mycorrhizal 306 associations are the most abundant in the tropics (Soudzilovskaia et al., 2019) and are 307 theorized to be more efficient in nutrient capture and more abundant in areas with fast N 308 cycling (Averill et al., 2019). Our models show that AM associations have lower NUE, 309 possibly driven by the abundance of N and the high efficiency of AM associations in N 310 acquisition. Conversely, N obtention was more efficient in areas with high soil microbes 311 stocks. As described by Kuzyakov and Xu 2013, we hypothesize a potential competition 312 effect between soil microbes and plants for N, but further studies are needed to 313 corroborate this relation. Thus, given the importance of biological activity in fixing and 314 transforming N, it is reasonable that total soil N stocks, that include N in all forms and 315 aggregations, would not be a good indicator of N availability and plant N uptake.

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317 2.6 Discrepancies between Nup map and TRENDY

318 TRENDY model ensemble projects substantially higher Nup values than the empirical 319 upscaling. These differences were especially relevant in the tropics in absolute terms and in 320 boreal latitudes in % of deviation. This mismatch could be associated with an 321 overestimation of terrestrial C sink capacity and a misinterpretation of the role of 322 vegetation in N cycling. A possible explanation of this phenomenon would be the 323 overestimation of biomass production by LSM when not accounting for growth-limiting factors such as phosphorus availability, drought, or overall biotic competition. Alternatively, 324 325 overestimation when accounting for N concentration in tissues could also lead to Nup 326 overestimation, which would necessarily reflect in overall lower NUE values. In our 327 calculations, we embraced the variability of N concentration and net primary productivity 328 among tissues and leaf resorption to generate a truthfully Nup and NUE values.

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330 2.7 Representativity and future research

331 An inherent challenge in ecological studies of this scale is to ensure the global 332 representativeness of the dataset, since there are systematic geographical sampling biases 333 underrepresenting the global south. In this study, the 28 % of the data comes from areas 334 below 15º latitude, outside the US, Europe, or China (Fig. S8). When accounting for 335 ecosystems representativity, the Whittaker diagram shows we have a representation of all 336 the biomes (Fig. S9), showing the lowest representativity on subtropical desert, tundra, and 337 temperate rainforest. Nonetheless, we acknowledge that calculations based on empirical 338 data, especially when a portion of the data have undergone a gap-filling process, can still 339 have biases associated with sampling and the upscaling process, which are mainly defined 340 by the more represented biomes of the observations. Still, we believe that calibrating and 341 cross-checking models built over mathematical assumptions with field measurements is 342 necessary to better root models to reality.

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344 This study is focused on a quantitative approach at global scale, attempting to target 345 variables' relative importance on Nup and NUE along with its correlations to environmental 346 and biotic variables. In future research, specific data detailing the different N fractions 347 obtained at a global scale (e.g. organic-inorganic, ammonium-nitrate) and a more 348 mechanistic frame are strongly encouraged. Approaches such as in Niu et al., 2016 349 quantifying the fraction of Nup taken by plants, leached and retained in the soil at a global 350 scale are crucial to enhance our understanding of the N cycle and its interactions with 351 ecosystems.

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353 3. Conclusion

354 We showed that accumulated N deposition and climatic variables are the main global-scale 355 factor describing Nup, where regions that are warm and wet and also experience higher 356 levels of N deposition, exhibit the highest rates of Nup. This result highlights the far-357 reaching influence of nitrogen deposition in shaping the global Nup pattern. Interestingly, 358 NUE was shown to be driven by soil biotic and abiotic factors, emphasizing the importance 359 of soil microorganisms and pH as regulators of the N cycle. We further revealed that total 360 soil N stocks are not a Nup nor NUE driver. Our upscaling showed large spatial-explicit 361 differences with TRENDY Nup values, where TRENDY projects higher absolute values around 362 the tropics and higher deviation values in boreal latitudes. This mismatch in the spatial 363 correlation between empirical data and land system models could substantially affect 364 model accuracy and future predictions of the C sink, where the tropical capacity to store C 365 might have been overestimated. Our results provide insights to understand better the C – 366 N interactions, N cycling, and absorption in terrestrial ecosystems and highlight that N 367 deposition largely impacts plant Nup worldwide.

369 **4. Methods**

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370 **4.1 Plant data gathering**

371 We gathered 159 (Table S1) field plot data in natural conditions, including dominant species 372 and vegetation type (grassland, coniferous or broadleaved), foliar and root N concentration, 373 foliar and root biomass production, and stem biomass production in the case of woody 374 plants on the same location and time. In situ measurements for foliage and fine roots are 375 the most relevant for Nup calculation (Dybzinski et al., 2024), so all our datapoints include 376 biomass production (NPP) and N content (N%) of leaves and roots. We gathered 45 377 datapoints, representing a 28% of the data, coming from latitudes under the 15^o latitude, 378 despite of the systematic lack of field sampling on some regions of the earth such as the 379 global south. We also complemented the dataset with field values of litter biomass 380 production, litter N concentration, stem N concentration, soil pH, soil C %, soil N %, soil 381 texture, soil moisture, mean annual precipitation, mean annual air temperature, and 382 altitude. We included woody and grassland natural environments (Fig. S8), including 383 representation from most biomes according to Whitakker's diagram (Fig. S9). Each data 384 point covered by the analysis has been collected from 1984 to 2022. If stem N was missing, 385 happening in 25% of the data entries, we gap-filled it with the mean value of its vegetation 386 type (coniferous=0.33 or broadleaved=0.52%). With leaves, stem and roots we calculated 387 the gross Nup (see in the next section). By subtracting the amount of N recovered during





388 leaf senescence we obtain the net Nup. If litter biomass was missing, 52% of the time, we 389 assumed it to be the same amount of green leaf biomass production. If litter N 390 concentration was missing, we calculated the net Nup using the predicted value from a 391 linear model created with net Nup in the base of gross Nup, in 33% of the entries. This 392 model had an r2 of 0.88, a p-value < 2.2e-16, and a correlation of 0.72 between gross and 393 net Nup.

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395 4.2 Environmental data

396 We extracted mean annual precipitation from WorldClim2 (Fick and Hijmans, 2017), as well 397 as soil pH, soil C, and soil N, soil moisture, soil bulk density, and soil texture from soilGrids 398 (Poggio et al., 2021). All soil data for the topsoil layer (0-15 cm). We also identified the 399 potential mycorrhizal association from the dominant species based on Soudzilovskaia et al. 400 2020, and categorized it into 0, 50, or 100 arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) percentages. When 401 dominant species were not provided, we extracted the AM% based on the AM map of 402 Soudzilovskaia et al. 2019 and the coordinates of our samples. Moreover, we extracted the 403 microbial N stock from Xu et al. 2013. We calculated and obtained the accumulated oxidized 404 N deposition from Yang and Tian, 2022 from 1901 to 2022 by georeferencing each field plot. 405 Oxidized and reduced N deposition are correlated and are thought to have similar ecological 406 effects (Sutton and Fowler, 1993; Yang and Tian, 2022). Oxidized forms generally come from 407 combustion reactions while reduced forms generally come from agricultural practices. We decided to use the oxidized form because it is the most equally distributed at a global scale. 408 409

410 4.3 Nitrogen uptake calculation

411 We calculated the increase in annual N stock for each tissue (leaves, stem, roots, and litter) 412 by multiplying the biomass increase by its N concentration. We obtained the gross annual 413 Nup by aggregating tissue's Nup (roots, leaves, and stem if woody). To account for the N 414 that has been reabsorbed before senescence, we subtracted the litter N stock from the 415 green leaves N stock. We subtracted the reabsorbed N from the gross Nup to obtain the 416 final net Nup value as follows:

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418 419 GrossNup = (NPPleaves * Nleaves + NPPstem * Nstem + NPProots * Nroots)

NetNup = *GrossNup* - (*NPPleaves* * *Nleaves* - *NPPlitter* * *Nlitter*)

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422 *Nup* = Plant nitrogen uptake (kg N/ha/yr)

423 *NPP* = Net primary production (kg N/ha/yr) *N* = Nitrogen (% of dry weight)

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426 4.4 Nitrogen use efficiency calculation

427 We calculated the nitrogen use efficiency (NUE) by calculating the total amount of biomass 428 produced in leaves, stems, and root tissue divided by the amount of nitrogen in each tissue. 429 It will give the amount of biomass produced by a unit of nitrogen.

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- $NUE = (NPP_{leaves} / Nup_{leaves}) + (NPP_{stem} / Nup_{stem}) + (NPP_{roots} / Nup_{roots})$





- 433 *NUE* = Nitrogen use efficiency (kg C / kg N)
- 434 NPP = Net primary production or biomass increase (kg N/ha/yr)
- 435 Nup = Nitrogen uptake by tissue calculates as NPP * N %
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437 4.5 Linear statistical analysis

438 From the available variables collected, we selected the less correlated ones using the cor 439 function in R to deal with multicollinearity. The less correlated variables selected were mean 440 annual air temperature, mean annual precipitation, altitude, arbuscular mycorrhizae 441 percentage, microbial N stock, soil N stock, soil pH, accumulated oxidized N deposition from 442 1901 to 2022, and woodiness. The biggest collinearity among variables was 0.52 between 443 mean annual temperature and AM presence (Table S2). Generalized linear models were 444 created using Nup and NUE as dependent variables and the family was set up as Gamma 445 with an inverse link to fulfill the residuals normality requirements. We performed a model 446 selection using the dredge function in the MuMIn R package (Barton, 2023) and chose the 447 best linear model based on its lowest AIC. We calculated the variable importance using the 448 function sw on the MuMIN R package (Barton, 2023). We calculated the pseudo R square 449 of the models using the function pR2 from the package pscl (Jackman, 2020). Figures were 450 created using the R package ggplot2 (Wickham, 2016).

451

452 **4.6 Nitrogen uptake and nitrogen use efficiency upscaling**

453 To upscale Nup and NUE to global grasslands and woody vegetation, we used extreme 454 gradient boosting (XGBoost) models splitting the database into train, test, and validation 455 using a ratio of 70:20:10, respectively. Extreme gradient boosting is a machine learning 456 algorithm that builds ensemble decision trees, applying regularization and pruning 457 techniques to improve performance and prevent overfitting (Chen et al., 2016). We trained 458 an XGBoost model using the R package xqboost (Chen et al., 2023), forcing an early stop 459 based on minimum root mean squared error to avoid overfitting and setting up the 460 objective as a gamma regression. We optimized the parameters based on performance at a 461 maximum depth of 6, minimum child weight of 1, and eta of 0.3. We considered the same 462 independent variables included in the linear model without interactions. We repeated this 463 process 20 times with random database separation to stabilize the variability due to 464 randomness in subset splitting. We extracted the variable importance of each model using 465 the function xgb.plot.importance on the xgboost R package (Chen et al., 2023), calculated 466 the mean of the values among the 20 different training sets, and displayed it using ggplot. 467 We calculated partial dependence plots using the function partial in purrr R package 468 (Wickham and Henry, 2023) to explore the non-linear relations on the models. To calculate 469 the model performance, we calculated the mean squared error of the test set and the r 470 squared of the predicted vs observed in the validation subset, considering the validation set 471 as completely independent.

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To predict the values at a global scale, we used the spatial explicit mean annual
precipitation, mean annual temperature, and altitude variables provided by WorldClim2
(Fick and Hijmans, 2017); the microbial N stocks by Xu et al. 2013; the oxidized accumulated
N deposition from 1909 to 2022 calculated from Yang and Tian 2022 and soil N stocks and





477 soil pH provided by soilGrids 2.0 (Poggio et al., 2021) at 15 cm depth. We reclassified the 478 European Space Agency Land Cover (ESA-LC) map (Defourny, 2019) (Table S3) and we 479 downscaled its resolution to 2 km using the raster R package (Hijmans, 2023). We upscaled 480 each of the 20 Nup and NUE models using the trained XGBoost models and their prediction 481 per pixel at 2 km resolution and calculated the mean to obtain the final maps. We 482 parallelized the process using the parallel function and spaDES.tools R package (McIntire 483 and Chubaty 2023) to accelerate the upscaling. We masked areas not considered woodlands 484 or grasslands in natural conditions according to the European Space Agency cover map 485 (Defourny, 2019) (Table S3), and then, we obtained a map of the yearly Nup, Nup standard 486 deviation, and annual NUE. We obtained the final number of yearly Nup by summing all the 487 pixels available.

488

489 **4.7** Nitrogen uptake comparison with TRENDY models ensemble

490 We obtained the available Nitrogen uptake of Vegetation (fNup) variable associated with 491 all the available models in TRENDY v8 S3 (Sitch et al., 2015; Le Quéré et al., 2018). The 492 models containing fNup are ORCHIDEE, LPX-Bern, LPJ-GUESS, JULES, JSBACH, DLEM, 493 CLM5.0, and Cable-POP, and the S3 experiment in the simulation considering the adaptation 494 of CO₂, land use, N deposition, and climate from 1850 representing current environmental 495 conditions. We calculated the yearly mean Nup from 1984 to 2022 for each model. Then, 496 we calculated the difference between each TRENDY model and our Nup estimations. We 497 also calculated the latitudinal mean of the difference to achieve a latitudinal profile and 498 calculated the overall mean.

499

500 Contributions

H.V. and C.T. conceived the project; C.T. got the funding and supervised the work; H.V.,
C.M., A.K., J.C., and D.T. collected and compiled the data; H.V. curated and analyzed the
data, created the visuals and wrote the first draft; H.V., C.T., M.D.B., M.F.M., M.L., D.G.,
contributed with substantial ideas and feedback on the manuscript; all authors revised,
edited, and agreed on the final manuscript.

507 Data availability statement

508 The data gathered for this study, code and produced models are available at Zenodo 509 (Vallicrosa Pou, 2024).

510

506

511 Competing interests

- 512 The authors declare no competing interests
- 513

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