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1 **Fates of atmospheric deposited nitrogen in an Asian tropical primary forest**

2

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25

26 **Abstract:** The impacts of increasing nitrogen (N) deposition on forest ecosystems,
27 including on carbon (C) sequestration, largely depend on the extent to which forests
28 are N-limited and so whether and where deposited N is retained within the ecosystem.
29 The ^{15}N tracer method can provide excellent insight into the ecosystem fates of N, but
30 while it has been extensively used in temperate forests it has yet to be sufficiently
31 employed in tropical forests, which are often thought not to be N-limited. Here, we
32 used stable isotope $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ and $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ tracers applied as solutions to the forest floor to
33 examine the fates of different forms of N in a tropical montane primary forest with
34 low background atmospheric N deposition ($6 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) in China. We found that a
35 substantial amount of ^{15}N was assimilated by plants over time and significantly more
36 ^{15}N was recovered following $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ addition than following $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ addition: 7% and
37 16% of ^{15}N were recovered three months after the respective $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ and $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ tracer
38 additions and 11% and 29% respectively after one year. In contrast to plants, the
39 organic layer was only an important short-term sink for deposited N: while 21% and
40 12% of the ^{15}N from $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ and $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ additions were accumulated in the organic
41 layer after three months, more than half of the retained ^{15}N was lost after one year.
42 Mineral soil was the largest sink for deposited N, and the ^{15}N retained in soil was
43 relatively stable over time for both N forms, with 39% and 32% of the initial ^{15}N
44 input recovered after one year for $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ and $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ tracer additions, respectively.
45 Overall, the total ecosystem ^{15}N recovery one year after the $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ and $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ tracer
46 additions was large (60% and 66% respectively), and not significantly different from
47 total recovery after three months, suggesting that a large proportion of deposited N

48 could be retained in the longer term. Based on the measured fate of ^{15}N one year after
49 labeling and the C/N ratios of different plant components, this tropical forest's carbon
50 sequestration efficiency is calculated to be 17 kg C per kg N added, comparable to the
51 values reported for temperate and boreal forests in Europe and North America and
52 indicating substantial N limitation of this tropical forest. Our results suggest that
53 anthropogenic N input in moderate levels may contribute to enhanced C sequestration
54 in some tropical forests, without significant long-term loss of N to the environment.

55

56 **Keywords:** ^{15}N tracer, nitrogen deposition, nitrogen retention, plant uptake, carbon
57 sequestration, total ecosystem recovery

58

59 **1. Introduction**

60

61 Human activities have been substantially affecting the global nitrogen cycle, with
62 potential wide-ranging and profound impacts on climate, ecosystems, and biodiversity.
63 For example, forest ecosystems worldwide have experienced strongly increased N
64 deposition over recent decades as a result of anthropogenic emissions of reactive N
65 from fossil fuel combustion and modern agriculture (Galloway et al., 2008). In forests,
66 increased deposited N could alleviate N limitation and stimulate plant growth
67 (LeBauer and Treseder, 2008; Thomas et al., 2010; Niu et al., 2016), but excessive N
68 might also bring negative effects, including nitrate leaching, soil acidification,
69 nutrient imbalance, and forest decline, with the magnitude and timing of the effects
70 depending strongly on ecosystem N status (Gundersen et al., 1998; Aber et al., 2003;

71 Xia and Wan, 2008).

72

73 The global C cycle has also been significantly altered, and understanding changes of
74 C cycle and their interactions with N is of critical scientific importance because they
75 have consequences for the global greenhouse gas burden and hence for global climate.

76 A substantial body of research is concerned with the effects of N deposition on forest
77 C sequestration (e.g., Luo et al., 2004; Gruber and Galloway, 2008; Thomas et al.,
78 2010; De Vries et al., 2014). These impacts depend ultimately on the fate of deposited
79 N (Lovett and Goodale, 2011; Templer et al., 2012; Niu et al., 2016). Nitrogen
80 deposition may increase tree growth and thereby increase C sequestration if deposited
81 N is taken up by plants. However, N deposition may not increase C sequestration if
82 deposited N is initially retained in the soil, and then lost through gas emission or
83 leaching (Aber et al., 2003; Lovett and Goodale, 2011).

84

85 Many studies based on N input-output budgets or N addition experiments have been
86 conducted to quantify N cycling of forest ecosystems and its response to increased N
87 deposition (MacDonald et al., 2002; Campbell et al., 2004; Magill et al., 2004; Fang
88 et al., 2008; Lu et al., 2011), but it remains challenging to identify how the deposited
89 N is distributed among different ecosystem components. The stable isotope ^{15}N tracer
90 method provides an excellent approach to study the retention and the fates of
91 deposited N (Currie et al., 2002; Templer et al., 2012; Niu et al., 2016). By applying
92 N-compounds enriched in ^{15}N (but without substantially altering the quantity of N

93 input), it is possible to track cohorts of N input into different ecosystem pools and to
94 determine the fates of deposited N across different time scales (Currie and
95 Nadelhoffer 1999). To date, however, only limited studies have been conducted in
96 tropical or subtropical forests (Templer et al., 2012), which may be due to the high
97 cost in ^{15}N tracer studies and the fact that most of tropical and subtropical forests are
98 located in developing countries. So far, world-wide, the fate of deposited N using the
99 ^{15}N tracer approach has only been investigated for two subtropical lowland forests
100 (Dinghushan, Sheng et al., 2014 and Gurmesa et al., 2016; Tieshanping, Liu et al.,
101 2017). These two subtropical forests are somewhat unusual in terms of their N status:
102 both forests are N saturated, caused by high chronic N deposition ($21\text{-}38\text{ kg N ha}^{-1}$
103 yr^{-1} in Dinghushan and $54\text{ kg N ha}^{-1}\text{ yr}^{-1}$ in Tieshanping, respectively). In general,
104 tropical lowland forests are considered as N-enriched and limited instead by other
105 nutrients including phosphorus (P) (e.g. Quesada et al. 2009, Mercado et al. 2011),
106 while tropical montane forests are more likely to be N-limited (Matson et al., 1999),
107 but these inferences on tropical forest N status largely remain to be tested
108 experimentally. These considerations, and the findings from the subtropical
109 N-saturated forests, highlight the need for more research into the fate of deposited N
110 in tropical forests, especially those with low N deposition.

111

112 In this study, we used both $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ and $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ tracers to examine the different fates of
113 NH_4^+ and NO_3^- deposition over time in a tropical montane primary forest in China.

114 This site has experienced a relatively low rate of N deposition, at $6.1\text{ kg N ha}^{-1}\text{ yr}^{-1}$

115 (Wang et al., 2014). Previous results from a nutrient addition experiment indicate that
116 this forest might be N-limited (Zhou, 2013). Our objectives in the present study were
117 as follows: 1) to determine the fates of deposited N in this tropical forest and thereby
118 the potential effect of N deposition on ecosystem C sequestration; 2) to examine the
119 mechanisms affecting the fates of NH_4^+ and NO_3^- to plants, organic layer, and soil
120 pools; and 3) to explore the temporal variation of the retention of deposited N (after
121 three months vs. one year). We hypothesized that: 1) vegetation would be an
122 important N sink in this tropical forest due to a relative thin organic layer, and the
123 proportion of $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ and $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ assimilated by plants will be different; 2) most of the
124 added ^{15}N would be retained in mineral soil, not the organic layer; 3) total ecosystem
125 N retention would be greater than in N-saturated subtropical forests of China, but
126 lower than in temperate and boreal forests world-wide; 4) ^{15}N retained in the organic
127 layer and mineral soil would be lost over time due to fast turnover under the humid
128 tropical climate.

129

130 **2. Materials and methods**

131 **2.1. Study site**

132 The study site is an undisturbed tropical montane primary forest located in the
133 Jianfengling National Natural Reserve, southern China ($18^\circ23'-18^\circ50'$ N,
134 $108^\circ36'-109^\circ05'$ E, 893 m a.s.l.). The climate is tropical monsoon, characterized by
135 high mean annual temperature ($19.8 \pm 0.08^\circ\text{C}$), humidity ($88 \pm 0.2\%$), and
136 precipitation ($2449 \pm 123.5\text{mm yr}^{-1}$, with more than 80% falling during May-October)

137 (climatology based on measurements over a 26-year period from 1980 to 2005, Figure
138 1). The forest experiences low rates of atmospheric N deposition ($6.1 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$,
139 roughly half as NH_4^+ and half as NO_3^-) and no fertilization has ever been applied.
140 Dominant species in this forest include *Livistona saribus*, *Pinanga baviensis*,
141 *Alseodaphne hainanensis*, *Mallotus hookerianus*, *Girardinia subaequalis*,
142 *Cryptocarya chinensis*, *Cyclobalanopsis patelliformis* and *Nephelium topengii* (Fang
143 et al., 2004; Chen et al., 2010). The site has a relative thin organic layer consisting of
144 mainly undecomposed plant materials ($< 2 \text{ cm}$ and averaged 5.9 Mg ha^{-1} for the
145 biomass, Jiang and Lu, 1991). The soil is acidic (pH 4.1) and is classified as lateritic
146 yellow soil with 57.1% sand, 18.2% silt, and 24.7% clay; the soil is well-drained and
147 its porosity exceeds 50% (Luo et al., 2005).

148

149 **2.2. Experimental design**

150 In August 2014, three separate plots ($20 \text{ m} \times 20 \text{ m}$ each) were randomly selected
151 within the forest, each at least 100 m apart from one other. Each plot was divided into
152 two subplots ($10 \text{ m} \times 20 \text{ m}$ each); one subplot received a solution of $^{15}\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$, and
153 another subplot a solution of $\text{NH}_4^{15}\text{NO}_3$. These 200 m^2 subplots contained on average
154 42 tree species and 86 individual trees. The solutions were made of 99.14 atom%
155 $^{15}\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$ or 99.21 atom% $\text{NH}_4^{15}\text{NO}_3$. For each subplot, $27.234 \text{ g } ^{15}\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$ or
156 $27.215 \text{ g } \text{NH}_4^{15}\text{NO}_3$ were dissolved in 200 L water and then the solutions were
157 sprayed directly on the forest floor using backpack sprayers (equal to 1 mm
158 precipitation) at the beginning of the rainy season (April 2015). Each subplot was

159 walked four times to achieve the uniformity of application. There was no visible sign
160 of lateral surface runoff when the tracers were applied. The quantity of the ^{15}N tracer
161 applied to each subplot equaled $0.25 \text{ kg } ^{15}\text{N ha}^{-1}$, which has been typically used in
162 forest ^{15}N tracer experiments (e.g., Zogg et al., 2000; Liu et al., 2016). In this study
163 forest, N deposition mainly concentrates on the rainy season (accounting for 85% of
164 the total N deposition). Therefore, the added ^{15}N tracer ($0.25 \text{ kg } ^{15}\text{N ha}^{-1}$) plus the
165 equal amount of ^{14}N was approximately equal to the N deposition of two weeks
166 during the rainy season. Furthermore, the content of NH_4^+ and NO_3^- in mineral soils
167 (0-40 cm) equaled $14.0 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1}$ (Wang and Fang, unpublished data). Thus the added
168 ^{15}N tracer substantially increased the concentration of ^{15}N above its natural abundance
169 in all ecosystem pools without having major impact on ecosystem N pools and fluxes.

170

171 **2.3. Sampling**

172 Sampling was conducted prior to, three months after, and one year after the addition
173 of ^{15}N tracers. Since there was no buffer zone between the two subplots, we collected
174 the samples from the central part of each subplot to avoid potential edge effects. In
175 each 200 m^2 subplot, foliage and branches of trees and shrubs were sampled from all
176 common species. There were 34 to 63 tree species sampled from each subplot (Table
177 A.1). About 50% of the sampled species were collected from at least three individual
178 trees while others from 1-2 individuals (DBH [diameter at breast height] of sampled
179 trees was above 1 cm). Collected samples were mixed to one composite sample per
180 species. Bark and wood samples were collected using an increment corer from trees

181 with DBH above 5 cm (8 to 18 plant species were sampled from each subplot, Table
182 A.1). Herbs were sampled using a 20 cm × 20 cm iron frame. Six herb samples taken
183 at random locations in each subplot were mixed to one composite sample. The organic
184 layer was sampled using the same frame used for the sampling of the herbs. Mineral
185 soil samples were taken using an auger (2.5 cm inner diameter) and divided into three
186 layers (0-10, 10-20 and 20-40 cm). Six random soil cores in each subplot were
187 composited to one soil sample based on the soil depth. Soil bulk density was
188 estimated using the core (5.0 cm inner diameter) method: soil sample was oven-dried
189 (105°C for 48h) and bulk density was estimated as the mass of oven-dry soil divided
190 by the volume. Living fine roots (0-40 cm) were hand sorted from another set of
191 composite soil samples (taken in 6 replicates per subplot using a 5.0 cm inner
192 diameter auger) and then cleaned by deionized water.

193

194 **2.4. Chemical analysis**

195 In the laboratory, all plant and organic layer samples were dried at 60 °C to constant
196 weight (plant samples were cleaned before oven-dried). Mineral soil was passed
197 through a 2 mm mesh sieve to remove fine roots and coarse fragments, and then
198 air-dried at room temperature. Subsamples of oven-dried foliage, organic layer, and
199 mineral soil were ball-milled and analyzed for ¹⁵N natural abundance and total N and
200 total C concentrations by an elemental analyzer-isotope ratio mass spectrometry
201 (Elementar Analysen systeme GmbH, Germany; IsoPrime100, IsoPrime limited, UK).
202 Calibrated DL-alanine ($\delta^{15}\text{N} = -1.7\%$), glycine ($\delta^{15}\text{N} = 10.0\%$), and histidine ($\delta^{15}\text{N} =$

203 -8.0%) were used as the internal standards. The analytical precision for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ was
204 0.2%. The $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of the sample relative to the standard (atmospheric N_2) was expressed
205 as the following equation:

$$207 \quad \delta^{15}\text{N} = [({}^{15}\text{N}/{}^{14}\text{N})_{\text{sample}} / ({}^{15}\text{N}/{}^{14}\text{N})_{\text{standard}} - 1] * 1000 \quad (1)$$

208

209 **2.5. Calculation**

210 Tree biomass was estimated by a mixed-species regression model developed by Zeng
211 et al. (1997) for this tropical montane primary forest. The biomass of each individual
212 tree for stem, branch, leaf, bark and root was estimated by the following equations
213 (Zeng et al., 1997; Chen et al., 2010):

214

$$215 \quad \text{Stem: } W_t = 0.022816(D^2H)^{0.992674}, \quad (2)$$

$$216 \quad \text{Bark: } W_{bk} = 0.006338(D^2H)^{0.902418}, \quad (3)$$

$$217 \quad \text{Branch: } W_{br} = 0.005915(D^2H)^{0.999046}, \quad (4)$$

$$218 \quad \text{Leaf: } W_l = 0.005997(D^2H)^{0.804661}, \quad (5)$$

$$219 \quad \text{Root: } W_r = 0.003612(D^2H)^{1.11527}. \quad (6)$$

220

221 where D represents DBH (cm) and H represents height (m). Tree height was
222 calculated based on the DBH by the following equation (Zeng et al., 1997):

223

$$224 \quad \text{Height: } H = 1 / (0.026048 + 0.772186/D). \quad (7)$$

225

226 The species-specific biomass of each tree compartment was calculated and then
227 multiplied with the measured N concentration to estimate the compartment N pool,
228 and thereafter compartment N pools were summed to get a plot specific N pool for
229 trees.

230

231 Biomass of herbs, organic layer and fine roots were calculated by the weight of the
232 harvested samples. Nitrogen pools of herbs, organic layer and fine roots were
233 calculated by multiplying biomass and N concentration of each measured component.
234 Soil N pools were calculated by multiplying bulk density at each soil layer, soil depth
235 and the corresponding N concentration.

236

237 Percent ^{15}N tracer recovery in all sampled components of ecosystem was estimated by
238 ^{15}N tracer mass balance according to the following equation (Nadelhoffer and Fry,
239 1994):

240

$$241 \quad {}^{15}\text{N}_{\text{rec}} = \frac{(\text{atom}\% {}^{15}\text{N}_{\text{sample}} - \text{atom}\% {}^{15}\text{N}_{\text{ref}}) \times \text{N}_{\text{pool}}}{(\text{atom}\% {}^{15}\text{N}_{\text{tracer}} - \text{atom}\% {}^{15}\text{N}_{\text{ref}}) \times \text{N}_{\text{tracer}}} \times 100\% \quad (8)$$

242

243 where ${}^{15}\text{N}_{\text{rec}}$ = percent of ^{15}N tracer recovered in the labeled N pool; N_{pool} = N pool of
244 each ecosystem compartment; $\text{atom}\% {}^{15}\text{N}_{\text{sample}}$ = atom percent ^{15}N in the labeled
245 sample; $\text{atom}\% {}^{15}\text{N}_{\text{ref}}$ = atom percent ^{15}N in the reference sample (non- ^{15}N labeled);
246 and $\text{atom}\% {}^{15}\text{N}_{\text{tracer}}$ = atom percent ^{15}N of added tracer; N_{tracer} = the mass of ^{15}N in the

247 ¹⁵N tracer applied to the subplot.

248

249 An estimate for carbon sequestration efficiency of plants stimulated by N deposition
250 was derived using the ¹⁵N tracer recovery and the C/N ratio of each plant N pool, by
251 the following equation (Nadelhoffer et al., 1999):

252

$$253 \text{ NUE}_{\text{dep}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n [^{15}\text{N}_{\text{rec}, i} \times (\text{C/N})_i]}{\text{Total } ^{15}\text{N recovered}}$$

254 (9)

255

256 where NUE_{dep} = carbon sequestration efficiency stimulated by N deposition; $^{15}\text{N}_{\text{rec}, i}$
257 = percent of ¹⁵N tracer recovered in each plant pool; $(\text{C/N})_i$ = C/N ratio of each plant
258 pool.

259

260 **2.6. Statistical analysis**

261 All analyses were conducted using SPSS software (version 19.0; SPSS Inc., Chicago,
262 IL, U.S.A.). The differences in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and ¹⁵N recovery between the treatments and
263 sampling time were tested by the independent t-tests. Statistically significant
264 differences were set at the P-value of 0.05 unless otherwise stated.

265

266 **3. Results**

267 **3.1. Ecosystem N pools**

268 The total ecosystem N pool was estimated at 7765 kg N ha⁻¹ (Table 1). The plant N
269 pool was 2228 kg N ha⁻¹ with trees accounting for about 94.5% of the total plant N

270 (Table 1). The total soil N pools down to 40 cm depth was 5537 kg N ha⁻¹. There was
271 82.2 kg N ha⁻¹ in the organic litter layer, which accounted for just 1.1% of the total
272 ecosystem N. There were no significant differences between three months and one
273 year in the N pools of herbs, tree foliage and the organic layer (Table A.2).

274

275 **3.2. $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of plants, organic layer and soil pools before and after the ^{15}N tracer** 276 **addition**

277 Before the ^{15}N tracer addition, the ^{15}N natural abundance ($\delta^{15}\text{N}$) ranged from -1.5‰ to
278 4.6‰ (Figure 2). Plants were depleted in ^{15}N , ranging from -1.5‰ to 0‰. The organic
279 layer was also depleted in ^{15}N , with $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ averaged -0.4‰. Mineral soil $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ exhibited
280 an increasing trend with soil depth, ranging from 2.7‰ to 4.6‰.

281

282 After the ^{15}N tracer addition, increases in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ were detected in all plants, organic
283 layer, and soil pools (Figure 2). The highest increases in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ were observed in herbs
284 and organic layer. No significant differences in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of herbs and mineral soils were
285 observed between $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ and $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ labeling (Figure 2), but there was a significant
286 difference between the two treatments in the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of organic layer one year after the
287 tracer addition. The $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of tree foliage, branches and shrubs were significantly lower
288 under $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ than under $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ labeling. From three months to one year, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$
289 increased over time in all components of trees (excluding stem, because $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of stem
290 was measured only once so that we could not observe the trend of increase), as well as
291 in shrubs, but decreased in herbs, fine roots and organic layer. In addition, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ also

292 increased over time in 0-10 cm mineral soils, suggesting a redistribution of the added
293 ^{15}N , plus smaller changes in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ in soils at 10-20 cm and 20-40 cm depths (Figure
294 2).

295

296 **3.3. Fates of ^{15}N tracer in plants, organic layer, and soils**

297 The total ecosystem recovery of ^{15}N was 60.9% and 61.1% three months after the ^{15}N
298 tracer addition under $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ and $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ labeling, respectively, and 59.8% and 65.5%
299 after one year (Table 2). Thus there was little change of total ecosystem ^{15}N recovery
300 between the three months and one year, indicating that ^{15}N was not being significantly
301 lost from the ecosystem after the initial three months or less.

302

303 Three months after the $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ tracer addition, 6.9% of the ^{15}N was recovered in plant
304 tissues, and this increased to 10.9% after one year. Much more ^{15}N was found in
305 plants after the $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ tracer addition than after $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ addition: 15.6% after three
306 months, and 28.5% after one year (Table 2). In this diverse primary tropical forest,
307 tree components, including foliage, branches, bark, and roots, were the dominant ^{15}N
308 sinks, while herbs and shrubs were less significant. With $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ labeling, ^{15}N
309 recovery in fine roots (of which 95% were tree roots, Table 1) declined from 8.6%
310 after three months to 3.9% after one year, while ^{15}N in aboveground foliage, branches,
311 and bark all increased significantly (Table 2). Significant increases of aboveground
312 ^{15}N pools were also found in foliage and shrubs with $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ labeling, while the
313 changes of ^{15}N in branches, bark and fine roots were insignificant.

314

315 In contrast to plant pools, a large amount of ^{15}N was found in the organic layer three
316 months after the ^{15}N tracer addition (21% under $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ labeling and 11.7% under
317 $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ labeling), but that declined by half after one year (9.8% under $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ labeling
318 and 4.8% under $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ labeling). There was a significantly higher recovery of ^{15}N
319 with $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ labeling than with $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ labeling after one year (Table 2).

320

321 Mineral soil was the most important ecosystem pool of recovered ^{15}N tracer, despite
322 smaller increase in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (Table 2, Figure 2). However, soil retention of ^{15}N did not
323 change significantly over time from three months to one year. With $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ labeling,
324 33.0% of the ^{15}N was found in the soil after three months, and that recovery
325 insignificantly increased to 39.2% after one year; with $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ labeling, 33.7% and
326 32.2% of the ^{15}N was recovered after three months and one year, respectively. In soils,
327 recovery of ^{15}N was greater close to the surface, even though substantial amounts of
328 ^{15}N were also found in deeper soil layers, at 10-20 cm and 20-40 cm (Table 2). In
329 0-10 cm soils, with $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ labeling, ^{15}N recovery increased slightly with time, from
330 average 15.9% after three months to 21.9% after one year, whereas the change was
331 minor with $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ labeling (20.3% and 18.6%, respectively).

332

333 **3.4. Carbon sequestration efficiency of plants**

334 According to the recovery of deposited N in different plant components and the
335 measured C:N ratio of each plant component, the carbon sequestration efficiency of

336 plants (NUE_{dep}) was calculated as 9 and 24 kg C per kg N under $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ and $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$
337 tracer additions, respectively. This gave an average 17 kg C per kg N for $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ and
338 $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ tracers combined.

339

340 **4. Discussion**

341 **4.1. Fates of $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ and $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ in plants**

342 As hypothesized, vegetation was an important sink for deposited N in our study,
343 accounting for 10.9% and 28.5% of the initial $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ and $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ tracer label,
344 respectively, one year after the tracer addition. Our results for recovery in plants are
345 slightly lower than those of several previous ^{15}N tracer studies in apparently
346 N-saturated forests (Koopmans et al., 1996; Feng et al., 2008; Gurmesa et al., 2016),
347 where large recoveries of ^{15}N in plant biomass (17% to 35%, accounting for 30-48%
348 of total ecosystem recovery) were reported (Table 3). However, the rates of ^{15}N
349 recovery in plants in our study are comparable to, but in the high end of range for,
350 those in many temperate and boreal forests which are considered to be N-limited
351 (plant recoveries 1% to 14% with $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ labeling and 5% to 25% with $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$
352 labeling) (Buchmann et al., 1996; Nadelhoffer et al., 2004; Templer et al., 2005; Liu
353 et al., 2016; Table 3). Kuzyakov and Xu (2013) suggested that such differences in
354 plant ^{15}N recovery among different forests were related to different levels of
355 competition for N between plants and microorganisms. The ^{15}N recovery in plants is
356 indicative of ecosystem N status, with high recovery in N-saturated forests and low
357 recovery in N-limited forests. In N-limited forests, trees seem to be less competitive

358 than microorganisms and most deposited N was retained through microbial
359 immobilization. In contrast, the competition between trees and microorganisms may
360 be alleviated in N-rich forests, consequently, increasing the ^{15}N tracer recovery in
361 plants.

362
363 In addition, we expected that the thin organic layer would facilitate the role of
364 vegetation as a sink for deposited N in our N-limited tropical forest. Thus, the thin
365 layer might increase the accessibility of plant roots to deposited N. Also, fast turnover
366 within the organic layer might release the N retained and facilitate plant N uptake.
367 Our results showed that although the organic layer initially retained a considerable
368 amount of ^{15}N , more than half was lost one year after the tracer addition (Table 2,
369 additional discussion in Section 4.2). The ^{15}N recovery in plants increased with time
370 for both $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ and $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ treatment. From three months to one year after the tracer
371 addition, the ^{15}N recovery of plants increased from 6.9% to 10.9% and from 15.6% to
372 28.5% with $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ and $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ labeling, respectively (Table 2). Previous studies
373 suggested that immobilization by microorganisms created a rapid initial sink in the
374 short-term; ^{15}N immobilized by microorganisms was released to soil solution at time
375 scales longer than a month and then assimilated by plants (Zogg et al., 2000; Zak et
376 al., 2004). The “temporal niche differentiation” (Kuzyakov and Xu, 2013) protects
377 ecosystems from N losses by leaching or gaseous loss, and also reduces the
378 competition between plants and microorganisms. In addition to this mechanism, we
379 suggest that fast decomposition of litter is another important mechanism for the large
380 ^{15}N recovery in plants. A litter decomposition experiment in our study site has showed
381 that 72% of litter was decayed within one year (Zhou, 2013), much higher than in
382 most temperate and boreal forests (36%-42%, Melillo et al., 1982; Austin and

383 Vivanco, 2006; Prescott, 2010).

384

385 The fates of different forms of deposited N were significantly different in our study,
386 supporting the second part of our hypothesis 1. More of the added $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ was retained
387 in plants compared to the added $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$, which is consistent with many previous ^{15}N
388 tracer studies (Nadelhoffer et al., 1999; Feng et al., 2008; Sheng et al., 2014; Liu et
389 al., 2016). Although it is more costly for plants to take up NO_3^- , NO_3^- may be more
390 readily available for plant uptake at any given soil concentration because of its higher
391 diffusion efficiency compare to NH_4^+ (Jacob and Leuschner, 2015). This is probably
392 also a strategy of trees to avoid direct competition for NH_4^+ with microbes (Kuzyakov
393 and Xu, 2013). Thus our study suggests that in tropical forests like the one we have
394 studied, plants will constitute an important NO_3^- sink. This is relevant as N deposition
395 increases in the region and the proportion of NO_3^- also increases (Liu et al., 2013).

396

397 Among plant pools, the ^{15}N recovery in all tree components increased with time, as
398 well as in shrubs, but decreased in herbs and fine roots, indicating that assimilated N
399 was being redistributed in different plant pools and plant species, and that ^{15}N would
400 be transferred from more active pools (leaves and fine roots) to stable pools (branches,
401 bark, stems, and coarse roots) (Goodale, 2017). These results suggest that more
402 deposited N will be retained in high C:N ratio plant biomass over time and thus likely
403 contribute to long-term C sequestration.

404

405 **4.2. Fates of $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ and $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ in the organic layer**

406 In our study, the organic layer was an important short-term sink for deposited N three
407 months after the tracer addition (supporting our hypothesis 2), and the initial fraction
408 retained in the organic layer (21% and 12% for $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ and $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ tracer, respectively,
409 Table 2) is close to the global mean value of 20% (Templer et al., 2012). These results
410 suggest that organic layer in the short-term can serve as a buffer for deposited N,
411 avoiding rapid leaching loss or denitrification. However, the organic layer was not a
412 long-term sink for deposited N in our tropical forest. From three months to one year
413 after the tracer addition, the organic layer lost about half of the ^{15}N retained (Table 2).
414 This may be due to fast litter turnover in the humid climate as mentioned above,
415 resulting in a thin organic layer having limited capacity to retain ^{15}N for the long term
416 (Gurmesa et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2017); ^{15}N tracer could be also transferred to the
417 mineral soil, or released and assimilated by plants in the growing season. That is in
418 direct contrast to findings from many temperate and boreal forest studies (Buchmann
419 et al., 1996; Gundersen, 1998; Koopmans et al., 1996; Nadelhoffer et al., 1999;
420 Templer et al., 2005; Providoli et al., 2006; Liu et al., 2016), where ^{15}N was mainly
421 retained in the organic layer at both the short-term (1-3 months) and long-term (3-18
422 months) (Table 3). However, there are two studies in temperate forests reporting low
423 ^{15}N recovery (21% and 13%, respectively) in their organic layers, both are thin, one is
424 due to coarse soil texture in a coastal environment (Seely and Lajtha, 1997) and
425 another earthworm's disturbance (Goodale, 2017).

426

427 We found a significantly higher ^{15}N recovery in the organic layer with $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ labeling
428 than with $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ labeling, which is consistent with previous studies (Corre and
429 Lamersdorf, 2004; Feng et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2016). The difference in ^{15}N recovery
430 between deposited $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ and $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ is affected by their specific characteristics.
431 Deposited NH_4^+ is preferably immobilized by forest floor microbes due to the low
432 energy consumption (Recous et al., 1990). Deposited NO_3^- can also be immobilized
433 via abiotic processes, but this abiotic capacity can be quickly saturated (Davidson et
434 al., 2003). Moreover, NO_3^- has a higher mobility and is prone to leach out to mineral
435 soils.

436

437 **4.3. Fates of $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ and $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ in mineral soils**

438 Consistent with our hypothesis 2, the mineral soil (0-40 cm) was the largest sink of
439 deposited N in our study (39% and 32%, respectively). This result is different from
440 those in many temperate and boreal forests (Buchmann et al., 1996; Koopmans et al.,
441 1996; Gundersen, 1998; Tietema et al., 1998; Nadelhoffer et al., 1999; Templer et al.,
442 2005; Providoli et al., 2006; Liu et al., 2016; also see Table 3), in which the largest
443 proportion of deposited N was retained in the organic layer unless there is a
444 bio-disturbance (e.g., by earthworms, Goodale, 2017) or unusual soil texture (Seely
445 and Lajtha, 1997). Similar results of high soil ^{15}N retention were also found in two
446 subtropical forests in which the organic layer was thin or absent (Gurmesa et al., 2016;
447 Liu et al., 2017). Comparing $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ with $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ treatments, we found no significant
448 difference, although less ^{15}N was retained in the mineral soil under $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ treatments

449 (and more recovered in plants).

450

451 The fraction of ^{15}N label retained in the mineral soil was relatively stable over time
452 for both N forms, though $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ recovery increased slightly from three months to one
453 year (Table 2). Previous studies found that most of the applied $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ was
454 immobilized immediately in the organic pool or incorporated permanently in the illite
455 clay structure (Gebauer et al., 2000; Providoli et al., 2006; Liu et al., 2016). The
456 elevated ^{15}N pool in the upper (0-10 cm depth) mineral soil layer in this study
457 corresponded closely to the decrease in the organic layer, suggesting that the ^{15}N
458 tracer was transferred from the organic layer to the mineral soil. Under $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$
459 treatment, ^{15}N recovery changed little from three months to one year in all three soil
460 depths (Table 2). These results imply that the loss of ^{15}N in this tropical forest is
461 minimal after three months of receiving N.

462

463 **4.4. Total ecosystem ^{15}N recovery**

464 Previous work suggest that our tropical montane forest with low N deposition is
465 N-limited and we therefore expected a greater N retention than recently reported from
466 two N-saturated subtropical forests in South China (Sheng et al., 2014; Gurmesa et al.,
467 2016; Liu et al., 2017). However, our results didn't fully support our expectation
468 (hypothesis 3). The observed total ecosystem ^{15}N recoveries (in plants, organic layer
469 and mineral soils) of between 60% and 66% (Table 2) were approximately equal to
470 the mean recovery of the two N-saturated subtropical forests (19%-90%, on average

471 58%, n = 5, Table 3), while somewhat less than the global mean ecosystem recovery
472 of 75% for temperate forest ecosystems (Templer et al., 2012, Table 3). This suggests
473 that tropical forests, even those with low N deposition, may have a rather lower
474 retention capacity to retain deposited N than temperate forests (Table 3), but until
475 more comparable studies are conducted in tropical forests world-wide this will be
476 speculative.

477

478 In our study, total ecosystem ^{15}N recovery was 61% (for both N forms) after three
479 months, suggesting a considerable amount of ^{15}N was lost within the first three
480 months. This may be caused by a rapid hydrologic loss under the humid climate (994
481 mm precipitation in the first three months). Leachate was collected at the depth of 40
482 cm in each plot by zero tension lysimeters installed before the experiment (methods
483 described in Fang et al. (2009)). Water samples were available only during the rainy
484 season (from April to October), and NH_4^+ and NO_3^- leaching loss were 0.7 and 24.7
485 kg ha^{-1} in $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ treatment and 0.9 and 31.3 kg ha^{-1} in $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ treatment, respectively
486 (Wang et al., unpublished data). The $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of leachate was not determined so the ^{15}N
487 recovery in leachate could not be calculated. In addition, gaseous N loss is a possible
488 explanation for the initial ^{15}N loss. Fang et al. (2015) estimated total denitrification in
489 this forest could be up to 15.4 $\text{kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$.

490

491 Surprisingly, total ecosystem ^{15}N recovery did not change from three months to one
492 year, in spite of the high precipitation in that period (1422 mm precipitation). Thus,

493 our hypothesis 4 is rejected. Our results indicate that after an initial rapid loss, a large
494 proportion of the deposited N is retained in a relatively longer term. In the mineral
495 soil, ^{15}N recovery declined with soil depth (Table 2); however, a significant amount of
496 ^{15}N was found at 20-40 cm soil depth. Yet in all soil layers, ^{15}N retained stayed
497 constant, except a slight increase at 0-10 cm for the $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ labeling. In plant biomass,
498 recovery of ^{15}N increased over time from three months to one year in the aboveground
499 tree components but declined in the fine roots, which implies that ^{15}N is tightly cycled
500 in the study forest and that this forest is N limited or co-limited by other factors. In the
501 same tropical forest we studied, Zhou (2013) found that N and P addition could
502 enhance tree growth (23% greater growth with N addition, 10%-21% with P addition
503 and 15-32% with N+P addition). However, a multiyear ^{15}N tracer study in an
504 N-limited temperate forest reported persistent ecosystem retention of N deposition
505 even as the deposited N was redistributed, without additional plant uptake over the
506 longer timescale (Goodale, 2017). Thus, follow-up studies on a decadal scale should
507 be conducted to test: 1) whether deposited N can be steadily retained for longer time
508 scale (> 1 year); and 2) whether trees can assimilate more deposited N and enhance C
509 sequestration. For the world's most biodiverse forests these important questions still
510 remain open.

511

512 **4.5. Implications for carbon sequestration**

513 In our study, a substantial fraction of the ^{15}N tracer addition was assimilated by plants
514 and increasingly so from three months to one year (Table 2). Based on our data, the

515 carbon sequestration efficiency of plants stimulated by N deposition (NUE_{dep}) was
516 estimated at 17 kg C per kg N. This is slightly lower than the 23 kg C per kg N value
517 estimated from chronic N addition experiments in the same forest (Zhou, 2013),
518 which enhanced tree growth and carbon sequestration, and from a N-saturated
519 subtropical forest (23 kg C per kg N, Gurmesa et al., 2016). Compared with temperate
520 forests, NUE_{dep} of this tropical forest is also slightly lower than the mean global value
521 of 26 kg C per kg N (Table 4), but it is markedly higher than one estimated for
522 tropical forests (9 kg C per kg N) (De Vries et al., 2014), and greater than some
523 estimates for temperate forests (Pregitzer et al., 2008; Gundale et al., 2014; Goodale,
524 2017). Our results therefore indicate potential for a moderate C sequestration in
525 response to increased N deposition in this tropical forest, provided that the N
526 assimilated by plants is actively used for growth and not simply stored in perennial
527 plant tissues.

528

529 **5. Conclusion**

530 By using $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ and $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ tracers, we were able to examine the different fates of
531 deposited NH_4^+ and NO_3^- over time in a tropical primary forest with relatively low
532 background rates of N deposition ($6 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$). We found that after an initial loss,
533 a large proportion of added ^{15}N was retained. Moreover, a substantial amount of ^{15}N
534 was recovered in plant biomass, and ^{15}N retention in plant biomass increased from
535 three months to one year. Significantly more ^{15}N was recovered by tropical plants
536 following $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ addition than $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ addition. The organic layer was an important

537 transient sink for ^{15}N added; however, about half of the ^{15}N that was retained in the
538 three months was lost after one year. The mineral soil was the largest ecosystem sink
539 for N, and the ^{15}N retained in soil was relatively stable over time for both N forms.
540 The total ecosystem ^{15}N recoveries (60% and 66%), while large, are slightly lower
541 than those reported from many temperate and boreal forests. Furthermore, the pattern
542 of ^{15}N distribution in our tropical forest is substantially different from a majority of
543 temperate and boreal forests, with larger fractions of ^{15}N added being found in plants
544 and mineral soils compared to temperate and boreal forests where the organic layer
545 was a much more important sink. Our results provide new evidence that
546 anthropogenic N input, in moderate levels, may benefit tropical forest growth and
547 consequently enhance C sequestration, without significant long-term loss of N to the
548 environment.

549

550 **Associated content:** Supporting information.

551

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555

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557

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573

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835 **Table 1** Dry mass, N pool, N content and C/N ratio of major ecosystem components

836 before ^{15}N tracer addition. Values in parentheses are 1 SE (n = 3 plots).

	Mass (Mg ha ⁻¹)	N pool (kg ha ⁻¹)	N (%)	C/N
Tree				
Foliage	11.0 (1.4)	187.7 (24.3)	1.7 (0.03)	28.4 (0.5)
Branch	80.1 (14.5)	480.5 (87.3)	0.6 (0.02)	76.6 (2.1)
Bark	31.5 (4.8)	188.8 (29)	0.7 (0.05)	74.3 (4.1)
Stem	289.0 (51.9)	577.9 (103.8)	0.2 (0.01)	318.9 (24.8)
Coarse root	167.4 (36.6)	669.8 (146.2) *	0.4 (0.01) *	197.7 (13.4) *
Subtotal	579.0 (109.2)	2104.6 (389.7)		
Shrub	0.4 (0.1)	4.9 (0.9)	1.2 (0.1)	45.9 (3.2)
Herb	0.1 (0.0)	1.9 (0.6)	1.8 (0.2)	24.0 (2.0)
Fine root				
< 2 mm	4.6 (1.0)	55.0 (11.9)	1.2 (0.1)	40.8 (2.5)
2~10mm	8.0 (0.4)	61.6 (3.3)	0.8 (0.1)	64.7 (4.2)
Plant subtotal	592.1 (109.5)	2227.9 (395.0)		
Organic layer	6.3 (0.5)	82.2 (6.7)	1.3 (0.04)	33.2 (1.0)
Mineral soil				
0-10 cm	1133.6 (18.5)	2153.8 (35.1)	0.19 (0.01)	12.0 (0.6)
10-20 cm	1203.9 (58.2)	1444.6 (69.9)	0.12 (0.02)	10.9 (0.4)
20-40 cm	2651.1 (160.8)	1855.7 (112.6)	0.07 (0.01)	10.0 (0.3)
Soil subtotal	4994.9 (207.6)	5536.8 (170.9)		

837 Notes: *Coarse root of trees was not sampled due to the highly destructive. The N concentration

838 and C/N of coarse root was estimated by the mean value of branch and stem.

839

840

841 **Table 2** Mean ^{15}N recovery (%) of ^{15}N tracer in forest ecosystem components at 3
 842 months and 1 year after the ^{15}N tracer addition. Values in parentheses are 1 SE (n = 3
 843 plots).

	3 months		1 year		P values of t-test**	
	$^{15}\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$	$\text{NH}_4^{15}\text{NO}_3$	$^{15}\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$	$\text{NH}_4^{15}\text{NO}_3$	$^{15}\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$	$\text{NH}_4^{15}\text{NO}_3$
Tree						
Foliage	0.7 ^a (0.1)	1.8 ^b (0.3)	1.8 ^a (0.4)	7.4 ^b (1.1)	0.047	0.007
Branch	1.1 ^a (0.5)	3.3 ^b (0.5)	3.2 ^a (1.1)	9.2 ^b (1.2)	0.15	0.011
Bark	0.7 ^a (0.2)	0.8 ^a (0)	1.1 ^a (0.3)	3.6 ^b (1.0)	0.44	0.041
Stem	--	--	0.7 ^a (0.1)	1.9 ^b (0.2)	--	--
Root	--	--	0.6 ^a (0.1) *	1.5 ^b (0.1) *	--	--
Subtotal	2.5 ^a (0.7)	5.9 ^b (0.6)	7.4 ^a (1.7)	23.6 ^b (2.8)	--	--
Shrub	0.01 ^a (0.01)	0.05 ^b (0.01)	0.06 ^a (0.02)	0.14 ^b (0)	0.043	0.002
Herb	1.1 ^a (0.5)	1.1 ^a (0.3)	0.5 ^a (0.1)	0.8 ^a (0.5)	0.28	0.59
Fine root	3.3 ^a (0.1)	8.6 ^b (0.8)	3 ^a (0.5)	3.9 ^a (0.5)	0.54	0.007
Plant subtotal	6.9^a (1.2)	15.6^b (1.3)	10.9^a (1.5)	28.5^b (3.1)	--	--
Organic layer	21.0 ^a (4.2)	11.7 ^a (3)	9.8 ^b (1.4)	4.8 ^a (0.9)	0.06	0.09
Mineral soil						
0-10 cm	15.9 ^a (6.2)	20.3 ^a (5.5)	21.9 ^a (6.6)	18.6 ^a (1.9)	0.55	0.79
10-20 cm	10.2 ^a (2.1)	6.8 ^a (1.5)	8.2 ^a (2.1)	6.2 ^a (0.6)	0.52	0.74
20-40 cm	6.9 ^a (2.5)	6.6 ^a (3.6)	9.1 ^a (1.4)	7.4 ^a (0.6)	0.49	0.27
Subtotal	33.0 ^a (9.0)	33.7 ^a (2.6)	39.2 ^a (10.0)	32.2 ^a (1.8)	0.68	0.67
Total	60.9^a (4.2)	61.1^a (1.5)	59.8^a (12.7)	65.5^a (2.6)	--	--

844 Notes: -- Stem and coarse root of trees were not sampled at 3months, so the ^{15}N recovery was not
 845 calculated.

846 Different lowercase superscript letters within a row represent statistically significant (P < 0.05)
 847 differences in recovery between the two N forms at each sampling time.

848 * Recovery of ^{15}N in coarse root was calculated by the mean $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ value and N concentration of
 849 branch and stem in one year.

850 ** The differences in ^{15}N recovery of different ecosystem components between sampling time
 851 were tested by the independent t-tests, with P-values reported.

852

Table 3 ^{15}N recovery (%) of ^{15}N tracer in forest ecosystems under ambient N deposition.

Site	Vegetation	Climate	^{15}N recovery (%)														References	
			Climate		N deposition	Plant		Organic layer				Mineral soil layer				Total		
			MAT (°C)	MAP (mm)		$^{15}\text{NH}_4$	$^{15}\text{NO}_3$	$^{15}\text{NH}_4$		$^{15}\text{NO}_3$								
USA																		
Waquoit Bay	Mixed forest	Temperate	9.8	1150	4.2		1.9		24.7				23.7			50.3	Seely and Lajtha, 1997*	
Waquoit Bay	Mixed forest	Temperate	9.8	1150	4.2		1.5		17.2				21.8			40.5	Seely and Lajtha, 1997*	
Waquoit Bay	Pitch pine	Temperate	9.8	1150	4.2		1.4		22.8				12			36.2	Seely and Lajtha, 1997*	
Harvard Forest	Hardwoods	Temperate	7.0	1120	6.0	4.7	9.0	57.9	105.5		9.8	12.4		72.4		126.9	Nadelhoffer et al., 2004	
Harvard Forest	Pines	Temperate	7.0	1120	6.0	2.4	4.7	45.7	74.1		8.4	9.2		56.5		87.9	Nadelhoffer et al., 2004	
Catskill Mountain	Beech	Temperate	4.3	1530	11.2	2.9		64.1			2.1			69.1			Templer et al., 2005	
Catskill Mountain	Hemlock	Temperate	4.3	1530	11.2	1.4		62.8			1.9			66.1			Templer et al., 2005	
Catskill Mountain	Red Oak	Temperate	4.3	1530	11.2	4.0		60.3			10.9			75.2			Templer et al., 2005	
Catskill Mountain	Sugar Maple	Temperate	4.3	1530	11.2	5.8		51.1			5.0			61.9			Templer et al., 2005	
Arnot Forest	Hardwoods	Temperate	7.8	930	9.0	10.8		13.5			45.5			69.7			Goodale, 2017	
Europe																		
Wulfersreuth	Norway spruce	Temperate	5.9	1072	11.8	13.5	24.8	62.6	46.3		24.5	32.6		100.6		103.7	Buchmann et al., 1996	
Speuld	Douglas fir	Temperate	9.3	750	23.0	28.8		15.8			21.4			66.0			Koopmans et al., 1996**	

Continued

Ysselsteyn	Scots pine	Temperate	9.3	750	33.0	16.7		21.4		15.2		53.3			Koopmans et al., 1996**
Klosterhede	Norway spruce	Temperate	9.0	860	9.0			44.3		25.9		12.0		82.2	Gundersen, 1998
Klosterhede	Coniferous	Temperate	9.0	860	20.0			45.0		26.0		12.0		83.0	Tietema et al., 1998
Aber	Coniferous	Temperate	8.8	1850	51.0			32.0		47.0		1.0		80.0	Tietema et al., 1998
Aber	Coniferous	Temperate	8.8	1850	51.0		32.0		17.0		15.0		64.0		Tietema et al., 1998
Alpta	Norway spruce	Temperate	6.0	2300	42.0			13.0		13.0		63.0		99.0	Schleppi et al., 1999
Alpta	Norway spruce	Temperate	6.0	2300	12.0	31.8	19.5		22.7	58.6	2.7	5.0	57.3	83.2	Providoli et al., 2006
Solling plateau China	Norway spruce	Temperate	6.4	1090	32.5	30.0	35.6		64.8	8.0	6.4	34.2	101.0	77.8	Feng et al., 2008
Changbais han	Evergreen forest	Temperate	3.6	745	27.0	9.0	23.0		50.0	20.0	25.0	42.0	84.0	85.0	Liu et al., 2016
Tieshanping	Evergreen forest	Subtropical	18.2	1105	54.0	5.0	4.0		10.0	4.9	40.0	9.0	55.0	19.0	Liu et al., 2017
Dinghushan	Mixed forest	Subtropical	21.0	1927	34.4	20.6	34.3		36.0	12.6	33.1	8.4	89.7	55.3	Sheng et al., 2014***
Dinghushan	Mixed forest	Subtropical	21.0	1927	34.4			35.0		0.5		37.0		72.5	Gurmesa et al., 2016***
Jianfengling	Primary forest	Tropical	19.8	2449	6.1	10.9	28.5		9.8	4.8	39.2	32.2	59.8	65.5	This study

855 Notes: *¹⁵N recovery was calculated 6 months after the tracer addition in Seely and Lajtha (1997);

856 **¹⁵N recovery was calculated 18 months after the tracer addition in Koopmans et al. (1996);

857 ***¹⁵N recovery was calculated 4 months after the tracer addition in Sheng et al. (2014) and Gurmesa et al. (2016).

858 **Table 4** Estimated ranges in carbon sequestration efficiency (NUE_{dep}) stimulated by N
 859 deposition in aboveground biomass in forest.

Approach	Country/Region	Climate	NUE_{dep} (kg C/kg N)	Reference	
Field inventory	Europe	Temperate	19	Solberg et al., 2009	
	Europe	Temperate	21-26	Laubhann et al., 2009	
	North America	Temperate	60	Thomas et al., 2010	
	Global research	Boreal		33	De Vries et al., 2014
		Temperate		21	
Fertilization	Sweden	Temperate	25	Högberg et al., 2006	
		and Temperate	25	Hyvönen et al., 2008	
	Finland				
	North America	Temperate	17	Pregitzer et al., 2008	
	Europe	Temperate	16	Gundale et al., 2014	
Model simulations	North America	Temperate	24-67	Pinder et al., 2012	
	Netherlands	Temperate	20-30	Wamelink et al., 2009a	
	Europe	Temperate	3-12	Wamelink et al., 2009b	
	UK	Temperate	15-25	Rehfuess et al., 1999	
^{15}N tracer	Sweden	Temperate	30-70	Melin et al., 1983	
	Generic average		25	Nadelhoffer et al., 1999	
	Europe	Temperate	33	De Vries et al., 2006	
	North America	Temperate	12-14	Goodale, 2017	
	China	Subtropical	23	Gurmesa et al., 2016	
	China	Tropical	17	This study	

860
 861

862 **Legends for figures**

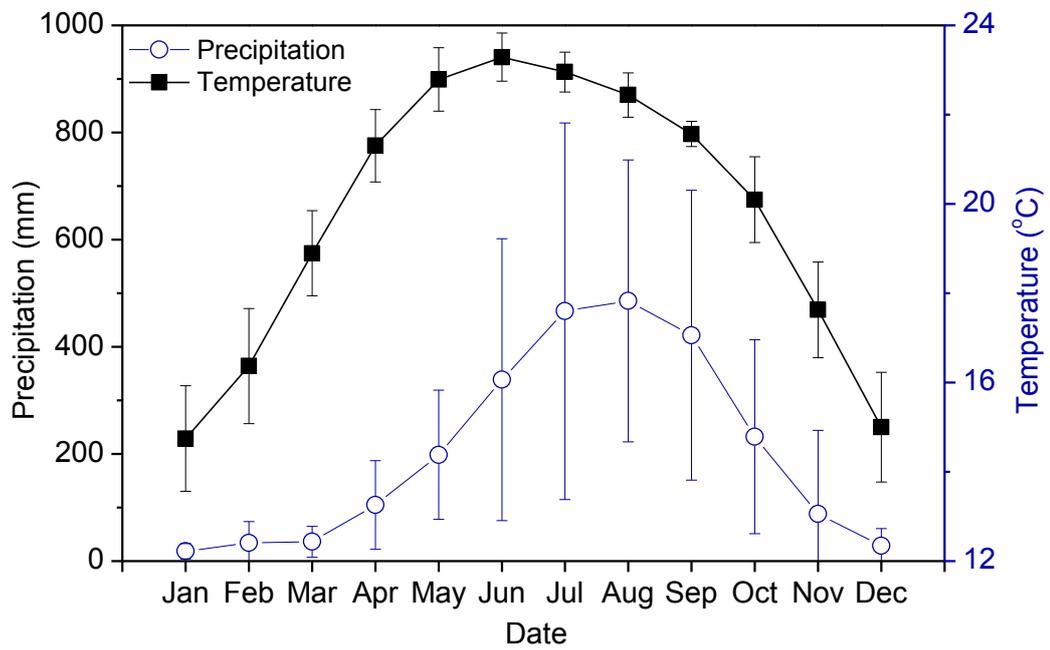
863 **Figure 1** Mean annual precipitation and mean annual temperature of the study site
864 (climatology based on measurements over a 26-year period from 1980 to 2005).

865

866 **Figure 2** Mean $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values (‰) of all sampled plant (averaged across species) and
867 soil pools before, 3 months after, and 1 year after the ^{15}N tracer addition. Notes:
868 Symbol (**) represent statistically significant ($P < 0.05$) differences between two
869 treatments and symbol (*) represent $P < 0.1$. Stem and coarse root of trees were not
870 sampled after three months, so the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ was not measured.

871

872 **Figure 1**

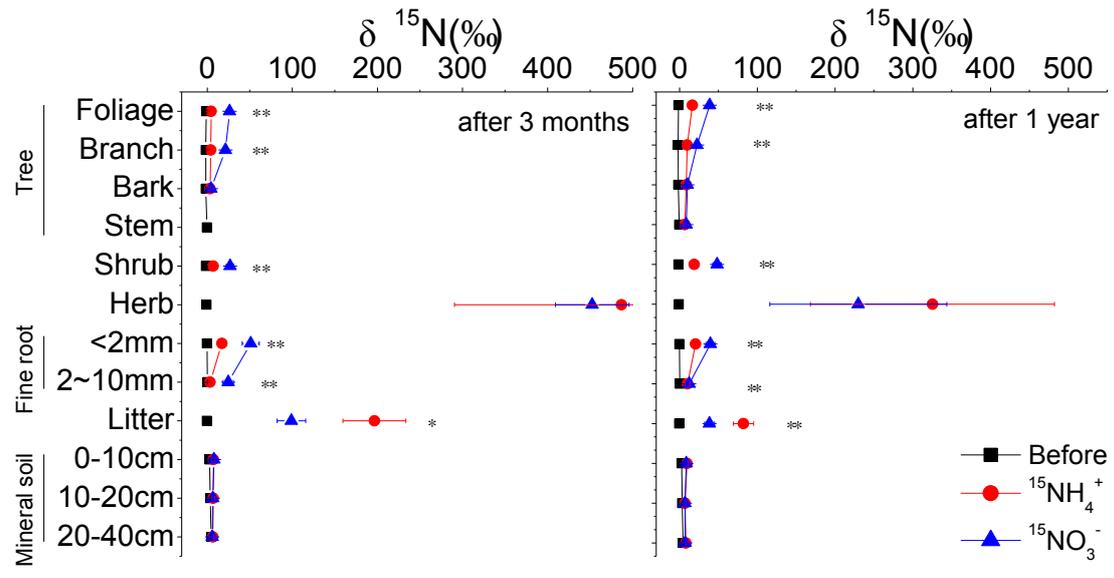


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Figure 2



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