

1 **Primary Research Article**

2 **Soil enzymes as indicators of soil function: a step toward greater realism in microbial**

3 **ecological modeling**

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5 Running Title: **Soil enzymes based ecological modeling**

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38 Abstract

39 Soil carbon (C) and nitrogen (N) cycles and their complex responses to environmental changes
40 have received increasing attention. However, large uncertainties in model predictions remain,
41 partially due to the lack of explicit representation and parameterization of microbial processes.
42 One great challenge is to effectively integrate rich microbial functional traits into ecosystem
43 modeling for better predictions. Here, using soil enzymes as indicators of soil function, we
44 developed a competitive dynamic enzyme allocation scheme and detailed enzyme-mediated soil
45 inorganic N processes in the Microbial-ENzyme Decomposition (MEND) model. We conducted
46 a rigorous calibration and validation of MEND with diverse soil C-N fluxes, microbial C:N ratios,
47 and functional gene abundances from a 12-year CO₂×N grassland experiment (BioCON) in
48 Minnesota, USA. In addition to accurately simulating soil CO₂ fluxes and multiple N variables,
49 the model correctly predicted microbial C:N ratios and their negative response to enriched N
50 supply. Model validation further showed that, compared to the changes in simulated enzyme
51 concentrations and decomposition rates, the changes in simulated activities of eight C-N associated
52 enzymes were better explained by the measured gene abundances in responses to elevated
53 atmospheric CO₂ concentration. Our results demonstrated that using enzymes as indicators of soil
54 function and validating model predictions with functional gene abundance in ecosystem modeling
55 can provide a basis for testing hypotheses about microbially-mediated biogeochemical processes
56 in response to environmental changes. Further development and applications of the modeling
57 framework presented here will enable microbial ecologists to address ecosystem-level questions
58 beyond empirical observations, toward more predictive understanding, an ultimate goal of
59 microbial ecology.

60 **Keywords:** elevated CO₂, functional traits, metagenomics, microbial ecological modeling,
61 microbial functional genes, nitrogen enrichment, predictive ecology, soil enzymes
62

63 1 INTRODUCTION

64 Projecting future carbon cycling and climate change scenarios is a grand challenge in ecology,
65 and for society (Cavicchioli *et al.*, 2019). Microorganisms, acting as detritivores, plant symbionts,
66 or pathogens, are critical in mediating ecosystem carbon (C) and nutrient cycling and consequently
67 climate change (Bardgett *et al.*, 2008, Cavicchioli *et al.*, 2019). However, traditional
68 biogeochemical and Earth system models (ESMs) do not explicitly consider the roles of microbial
69 communities by assuming that microbes are in equilibrium with their environment (Schimel, 2013).
70 Such classical models appear to work well for large scale patterns of bulk soil organic matter pools,
71 but they may have reached their limits, particularly when depicting transient dynamics in the face
72 of environmental changes (Wieder *et al.*, 2015). In the last decade, a considerable amount of effort
73 has been devoted to explicitly integrating microbial communities and functions into microbial
74 ecological models (e.g., Allison *et al.*, 2010, Davidson *et al.*, 2012, Manzoni *et al.*, 2016, Schimel
75 & Weintraub, 2003, Sulman *et al.*, 2018, Tang & Riley, 2019, Wang *et al.*, 2013, Wieder *et al.*,
76 2015). Studies have shown that microbial-explicit models could more accurately represent the
77 impacts of global change drivers, such as warming and priming effects (Wieder *et al.*, 2015). This
78 calls for more mechanistic microbial ecological models to advance our understanding of soil
79 microbial and biogeochemical responses to environmental changes.

80 Ecosystem models with carbon-nitrogen (C-N) coupled processes have elucidated substantial
81 impacts on the carbon-climate feedbacks that are lacking from the C-only models, for instance,
82 smaller sensitivity of land C uptake to temperature variation or increasing atmospheric CO₂
83 concentration (Thornton *et al.*, 2007). N availability is known to strongly influence microbial
84 growth and C cycling (Cavicchioli *et al.*, 2019, Treseder, 2008), hence, multiple microbial-explicit
85 models have accounted for C-N interactions (e.g., Abramoff *et al.*, 2017, Drake *et al.*, 2013, Gao

86 *et al.*, 2020, Kyker-Snowman *et al.*, 2020, Schimel & Weintraub, 2003). However, limited
87 attention has been paid to the explicit representation and parameterization of multiple differential
88 microbial groups, particularly related to the inorganic N cycle (e.g., N mineralization and
89 immobilization, nitrification, and denitrification) (Sulman *et al.*, 2018, Wang *et al.*, 2019). This
90 impedes a comprehensive validation of complex C-N processes and their interactions as have been
91 done for classical terrestrial C-N coupled models. Therefore, the introduction of mechanistic
92 inorganic N cycling into microbial ecological models may provide new opportunities to pose and
93 validate further hypotheses about coupled C-N cycling in response to environmental perturbations,
94 especially elevated atmospheric CO₂ concentration (eCO₂) and enhanced N deposition (Abramoff
95 *et al.*, 2017, Wieder *et al.*, 2015).

96 The absence of microbial communities in ecosystem models is primarily due to the extremely
97 high diversity and complexity of microbial communities and the lack of appropriate strategies and
98 frameworks for using microbial information in ecological modeling (Bailey *et al.*, 2018, Bardgett
99 *et al.*, 2008, Gao *et al.*, 2020, Todd-Brown *et al.*, 2012, Wieder *et al.*, 2015). Because microbial
100 communities under natural settings are extremely diverse and complex, functional traits-based
101 approaches are very attractive and promising for explicitly accounting for the role of microbes in
102 regulating biogeochemical cycles in ecosystem models (Falkowski *et al.*, 2008, Klausmeier *et al.*,
103 2020). However, one big challenge is how to extract and scale functional information to inform
104 ecosystem modeling (Torsvik & Øvreås, 2002). This challenge has also become an important
105 motivation to develop microbially-explicit models (Bailey *et al.*, 2018). Despite increasing interest
106 in incorporating microbial functional traits into ecosystem models, it remains a major challenge to
107 directly link genomes to global processes (Bailey *et al.*, 2018). However, it is viable to link
108 genomes and processes at intermediate scales with integrated applications of powerful analytical

109 and modeling techniques (Song *et al.*, 2017, Trivedi *et al.*, 2013). While representing a massive
110 number of microbial taxa in models is impractical and unnecessary, owing to functional
111 redundancy (Bailey *et al.*, 2018), grouping microbes and enzymes into simplified functional guilds
112 is feasible and enables the parameterization of microbial ecological models (Chen & Sinsabaugh,
113 2021, Song *et al.*, 2017).

114 However, it remains challenging to develop microbially-explicit N transformation processes.
115 First, the multi-step inorganic N reactions are regulated by intracellular enzymes that are located
116 at cell membrane, cytoplasm, or periplasm (Fiencke & Bock, 2006, Schlesier *et al.*, 2016, Song
117 *et al.*, 2017). These intracellular N enzymes differ from extracellular enzymes (e.g., ligninases and
118 cellulases) and have little capability of acting on their own, leading to the concern in representing
119 them in microbial ecological models. Second, an effective microbial or enzyme allocation scheme
120 is warranted to handle diverse microbial communities associated with the multiple inorganic N
121 processes. For instance, we have recently used GeoChip-based gene abundances (Shi *et al.*, 2019)
122 to constrain the Microbial-ENzyme Decomposition (MEND) model, where we only considered
123 extracellular C-degrading enzymes owing to the lack of detailed representation of microbially-
124 mediated inorganic N reactions (Gao *et al.*, 2020, Guo *et al.*, 2020). In short, modeling efforts have
125 not kept pace with the rapid advances in the microbial ecology of N relevant microorganisms and
126 genes (Hu *et al.*, 2015).

127 Model parameterization through calibration and validation with field observations is arduous
128 due to the limited available long-term experimental data and large uncertainties in measurements
129 of the state variables, fluxes, and microbial community structure and functions, as well as
130 uncertainties in model structure and simulations (Bradford *et al.*, 2016, Sulman *et al.*, 2018).
131 Consistent with these large uncertainties in observations and model simulations, recent comparison

132 of five soil C models with different representation of microbial and mineral processes revealed
133 that existing traditional measurements (e.g., CO₂ fluxes and soil C contents) were insufficient to
134 constrain or validate ecosystem models (Sulman *et al.*, 2018). To demonstrate the capability of
135 microbially-explicit models, development of benchmarking with multiple datasets with a variety
136 of microbial and omics data, especially for inorganic N cycling, is needed.

137 In this study, building on past work (Gao *et al.*, 2020), we attempted to improve the MEND
138 model by developing a new microbially-mediated inorganic N module that uses relevant enzymes
139 as indicators of soil function, with the proposition of a competitive dynamic enzyme allocation
140 scheme. The new inorganic N module accounts for the important roles of intracellular enzymes in
141 regulating several critical inorganic N transformations, including N fixation, nitrification, and the
142 sequential denitrification reactions from nitrate (NO₃⁻) to dinitrogen (N₂) (Xue *et al.*, 2016, Zhou
143 *et al.*, 2012). In addition to several important observations (soil respiration, soil concentrations of
144 ammonium and nitrate, and abundances of two functional gene groups targeting SOM
145 decomposition) used in Gao *et al.* (Gao *et al.*, 2020), the new MEND model was further calibrated
146 and validated with a variety of new data from that 12-year field experiment, called BioCON (Gao
147 *et al.*, 2020), including SOC content, multiple inorganic N transformations, and the abundances of
148 six functional gene groups important to inorganic N processes. We directly compared model
149 outputs to the relative changes of the measured gene abundances in response to eCO₂. Our results
150 indicated that explicitly using enzymes as soil function indicators in ecosystem models and
151 validating model predictions with gene abundance data can provide a basis for better understanding
152 and testing hypotheses about microbially-mediated biogeochemical processes under
153 environmental changes.

154

155 2 MATERIALS AND METHODS

156 2.1 Overview of the MEND modeling framework

157 We developed an integrated microbial ecological modeling framework, consisting of several
158 key components such as model development, sensitivity analysis, model calibration, validation,
159 and uncertainty quantification (Fig. 1a). The new MEND model explicitly represents distinct
160 microbial and enzyme groups responsible for C-N transformation processes. The Multi-Objective
161 Parameter Sensitivity Analysis (MOPSA) was used to determine the relative importance of
162 parameters in terms of multiple response objectives (i.e., variables). The sensitivity analysis forms
163 the cornerstone of the Multi-Objective Parameter Stochastic Optimization (MOPSO) and
164 validation procedure. The MOPSO approach aims to determine the values of those “free”
165 parameters by calibrating the model against observations (Fig. 1b), where a stochastic optimization
166 algorithm, the Shuffled Complex Evolution (SCE) (Duan *et al.*, 1992), is modularized and
167 incorporated into the MEND model for automatically calibrating parameters. The SCE algorithm
168 combines the strengths of several optimization strategies such as controlled random search,
169 complex shuffling, and competitive evolution, which ensure that the parameter space is efficiently
170 and thoroughly exploited (Duan *et al.*, 1992, Wang *et al.*, 2015). The MOPSO enables to fit
171 multiple observational variables (soil respiration, C pools, microbial biomass, etc.) by minimizing
172 the overall objective function as the weighted average of multiple objectives pertaining to these
173 variables (Fig. 1b). We further validated the model and evaluated model performance against
174 datasets not used for model calibration. The Uncertainty Quantification by Critical Objective
175 Function Index (UQ-COFI) approach was developed to filter the parameter sets generated by the
176 MOPSO procedure. These filtered parameter sets by UQ-COFI represented the posterior parameter
177 space, which were used to drive multiple model runs to quantify uncertainties in response variables

178 due to parametric uncertainty. We employed this integrated modeling framework to guide reliable
179 model development and application.

180 A detailed description of model sensitivity analysis (MOPSA) and uncertainty quantification
181 (UQ-COFI) are presented in Supporting Information Sections 3.3 and 3.6, respectively. In the
182 following, we overview the new MEND model and its calibration and validation against multiple
183 datasets.

184

185 **2.2 New MEND model with a competitive dynamic enzyme allocation scheme**

186 We incorporated a new N-associated module into the old MEND (MEND-old) model (Gao *et*
187 *al.*, 2020, Wang *et al.*, 2021) (Supporting Information Fig. S1b; for comparison, the new MEND
188 model (MEND-new) is shown in Fig. S1a, a copy of Fig. 2) by explicitly representing: (i) multiple
189 key intracellular enzymes as indicators that catalyze nitrification, sequential denitrification, and
190 nitrogen fixation processes; (ii) plant-microbial competition for inorganic N (NH_4^+ and NO_3^-); (iii)
191 ammonium (NH_4^+) sorption; (iv) nitrate (NO_3^-) and nitrite (NO_2^-) leaching; and (v) N gases (NO ,
192 N_2O , and N_2) exchange between soil and the atmosphere. A reaction rate in the model may be
193 modified by soil pH, soil temperature and moisture conditions (Supporting Information Figs. S2–
194 S4). Details on MEND-new model and its state variables, governing equations, component fluxes
195 and parameters are described in Supporting Information Sections 1–3 and Table S1–S6.

196 We used flexible stoichiometry (i.e., time-variant C:N ratio) for SOM and microbial biomass
197 pools to represent microbial adaptation in response to the stoichiometric imbalance of available
198 resources (Du *et al.*, 2018, Fanin *et al.*, 2017, Mooshammer *et al.*, 2014a, Mooshammer *et al.*,
199 2014b, Zechmeister-Boltenstern *et al.*, 2015). In addition to the three SOM-degrading enzyme
200 functional groups, i.e., EP_O , EP_H and EM, we incorporated six new enzyme systems as indicators

201 controlling inorganic N transformations (Fig. 2), i.e., nitrogenases (corresponding to functional
202 genes of *nifH*), ammonia oxidases (*amoA*), nitrate reductases (*narG/napA*), nitrite reductases
203 (*nirS/nirK*), nitric oxide reductases (*norB*), and nitrous oxide reductases (*nosZ*) (Xue *et al.*, 2016,
204 Zhou *et al.*, 2012).

205 We proposed a competitive dynamic enzyme allocation scheme to deal with the synthesis of
206 multiple enzyme groups (see Supporting Information Section 1.1.7). The enzyme allocation
207 approach developed here is based on the synthetic results that enzyme activities are dependent on
208 microbial biomass (Jian *et al.*, 2016) and substrate availability (Sinsabaugh *et al.*, 2014). A
209 competitive allocation scheme is applied to the production of enzymes for each inorganic N
210 transformation process, where the competitive allocation coefficient is the saturation level of an
211 inorganic N substrate (i.e., the ratio of the substrate concentration to the corresponding half-
212 saturation constant) relative to the sum of the saturation levels of all inorganic N substrates
213 (Supporting Information Eq. 40).

214

215 **2.3 Model calibration and validation**

216 We implemented the MOPSO approach, based on the SCE algorithm (Duan *et al.*, 1992, Wang
217 *et al.*, 2015), to calibrate selected model parameters according to the sensitivity analysis (Fig. 1b).
218 We aimed to determine parameter values and their uncertainties by achieving high goodness-of-
219 fits of model simulations against experimental observations, such as soil respiration (R_s), microbial
220 heterotrophic respiration (R_h), microbial biomass carbon (MBC), and soil C and N pools and fluxes.
221 Each objective evaluates the goodness-of-fit of a specific observed variable. The parameter
222 optimization attempts to minimize the overall objective function (J) that is computed as the
223 weighted average of multiple single-objectives (see Eqs. 67 in Supporting Information Section

224 3.4). Generally, equal weights are assigned to these objectives. However, a higher weight is
225 recommended for a variable that is frequently measured or is vital to the research topic.

226 Different objective functions were used to quantify the goodness-of-fit for different variables
227 (Supporting Information Section 3.4), depending on the measurement method and frequency. As
228 per model validation (Refsgaard, 1997), we used datasets that were not involved in model
229 calibration to evaluate model performance, where the same calibrated parameter values were used
230 in model validation.

231

232 **2.4 BioCON datasets for model calibration and validation**

233 Since there is no gold-standard for validating model performance, it is a common practice to
234 use published datasets in ecosystem and bioinformatic studies, which have advantages for model
235 calibration and validation (Luo *et al.*, 2012, Ning *et al.*, 2020). Thus, we used experimental data
236 (Table 1) from a well-designed, long-term multifactor free-air CO₂ enrichment experiment,
237 BioCON (Biodiversity, CO₂, and N deposition) (45.4010° N, 93.2010° W) in Minnesota, USA
238 (Reich & Hobbie, 2013). The BioCON experiment aims, among other goals, to elucidate how
239 microbe-mediated feedbacks to soil respiration are affected by N addition (+4 g N m⁻² yr⁻¹) and
240 elevated atmospheric CO₂ (eCO₂, +180 ppm) (Adair *et al.*, 2009, Adair *et al.*, 2011). The BioCON
241 soil is an Entisol, more specifically, a mixed, frigid Lamellic Udipsamments as per the USDA soil
242 taxonomy (O'Geen *et al.*, 2017, Soil Survey Staff, 1999). This excessively drained soil, derived
243 from glacial outwash with a coarse structure, has very poor development and a sandy texture (92–
244 94% sand and 2–3% clay in the top 114 cm) (Kazanski *et al.*, 2021, O'Geen *et al.*, 2017). In
245 summary, there were four CO₂×N treatments among 296 plots: ambient atmospheric CO₂ &
246 ambient N supply (aCO₂-aN), eCO₂-aN, aCO₂ & enriched N supply (aCO₂-eN), and eCO₂-eN with

247 each treatment having 74 plots (biological replicates). To examine the effects of plant diversity on
248 ecosystem N cycling, the BioCON experiment also has (at each level of CO₂ and N) treatment
249 plots planted with either 1, 4, 9, or 16 grassland species (Dijkstra *et al.*, 2007).

250 Estimates of daily GPP (gross primary production) values were obtained from a corrected 8-
251 day GPP product based on the MODIS GPP (MOD17A2/MOD17A2H) (Gao *et al.*, 2020, Zhu *et*
252 *al.*, 2018) and used to drive model simulations under the control treatment (aCO₂-aN). The GPP
253 for the other three treatments was rescaled according to the general linear relationship between
254 NPP (net primary production) and GPP (Gao *et al.*, 2020). Meanwhile, environmental datasets
255 measured in each CO₂×N treatment were also used for model simulations for each treatment,
256 including monthly soil pH, daily soil temperature and moisture.

257 Soil samples for microbial community analysis were collected from the 296 plots in August
258 2009. Each sample was a composite of five soil cores from each plot at a depth of 0–15 cm.
259 Microbial DNA was extracted, hybridized with GeoChip arrays, and analyzed as described
260 previously (Guo *et al.*, 2020, Tu *et al.*, 2014). The eCO₂ effect on the abundance of each functional
261 gene (total abundance of all probes of this gene) was examined by the response ratio (Luo *et al.*,
262 2006):

$$263 \quad RR = \ln (x_T/x_C) \quad (1)$$

264 where *RR* is the response ratio (effect size) that quantifies the log-proportional change between the
265 gene abundances of eCO₂ (*x_T*) and aCO₂ (*x_C*) samples.

266 The observed response ratios (*RRs*) between the gene abundances (*GA_{obs}*) of eCO₂ and aCO₂
267 were used as additional data to evaluate model-simulated enzyme concentrations (*EC_{sim}*), enzyme
268 activities (*EA_{sim}*), or equivalent first-order reaction rates (*FR_{sim}*). As the Michaelis-Menten kinetics

269 is used in the MEND model, the relationships among EC_{sim} , EA_{sim} , and FR_{sim} are described as
 270 follows:

$$271 \quad EA_{sim} = Vd \cdot EC_{sim} \quad (2)$$

$$272 \quad FR_{sim} = (Vd \cdot EC_{sim}) / (K + S) = EA_{sim} / (K + S) \quad (3)$$

273 where EC_{sim} (mg C cm^{-3}), EA_{sim} ($\text{mg C cm}^{-3} \text{ h}^{-1}$), and FR_{sim} (h^{-1}) are simulated enzyme
 274 concentration, enzyme activity, and the equivalent first-order reaction rate, respectively; S denotes
 275 the substrate (e.g., SOC) concentration; and the parameters Vd and K represent the specific enzyme
 276 activity ($\text{mg C mg}^{-1} \text{ C h}^{-1}$) and the half-saturation constant (mg C cm^{-3}), respectively.

277 In summary, nine C-N response variables were involved in the calibration of MEND-new
 278 (Table 1): soil CO_2 flux (R_s), microbial biomass C (MBC), soil organic C (SOC), ammonium
 279 (NH_4^+), nitrate + nitrite ($\text{NO}_3^- + \text{NO}_2^-$), as well as the reference rates of net N mineralization (FN_{mn-}
 280 $_{im}$), nitrification (FN_{nit}), biological N fixation (FN_{fix}), and plant N uptake (FN_{im_VG}). Among these
 281 variables, the literature-reported biological N fixation rates (including both symbiotic and non-
 282 symbiotic N fixation) (Cleveland *et al.*, 2013, 1999) and plant N uptake rates (Bessler *et al.*, 2012,
 283 Harty *et al.*, 2017, Reyes *et al.*, 2015) in grasslands were used as reference for model calibration.
 284 To examine the predictive power of the model, we only calibrated the model against the data under
 285 the control treatment (a CO_2 -aN) and then applied the calibrated parameters to the other three
 286 treatments for model validation. To further investigate the model's capability in representing
 287 microbial and enzyme functional traits, we directly validated the model against literature-reported
 288 microbial C:N ratios (Xu *et al.*, 2013) and the measured response ratios of gene abundances
 289 (GA_{obs}).

290

291 **3 RESULTS**

292 Detailed results of model sensitivity analysis and uncertainty quantification are presented in
293 Supporting Information Results 5.1 (with Fig. S5) and 5.2 (with Fig. S6), respectively. In the
294 following, we focus on the key results with respect to model calibration, validation, and ecological
295 insights.

296

297 **3.1 Model calibration and validation of soil respiration and inorganic N processes**

298 3.1.1 Model calibration and validation strategy in terms of the BioCON data

299 Based on the aforementioned sensitivity analysis and previous studies on the MEND model
300 (Wang *et al.*, 2019, Wang *et al.*, 2015, Wang *et al.*, 2013), we selected 14 important parameters
301 (Supporting Information Fig. S6) to conduct model calibration.

302 In the first step of calibration, we calibrated nine microbial physiological parameters by
303 achieving high goodness-of-fits of model simulations against experimental observations, such as
304 soil respiration (R_s), microbial biomass carbon (MBC), and soil organic carbon (SOC) (Table 1).
305 We only compared the simulated mean values of MBC and SOC to the observed reference MBC
306 and SOC, respectively, as we only had observations at one time point for each of them. In the
307 overall objective function (Eqs. 67 in Supporting Information Section 3.4), the weights of 0.50,
308 0.25, and 0.25 were assigned to the objectives pertaining to R_s , MBC, and SOC, respectively,
309 owing to far more data points available for R_s (284 data points) than for MBC and SOC. The 9
310 parameters (Supporting Information Table S5) included: (i) six parameters (V_g , α , K_D , Y_g , kY_g , γ)
311 for microbial growth, maintenance, and mortality; and (ii) three parameters (p_{EP} , fp_{EM} , r_E) for
312 enzyme production, turnover and decomposition of SOM.

313 As for the second step of calibration, we fixed the parameter values determined by the first
314 step and calibrated five important inorganic N parameters (Supporting Information Table S5: VN_{fix} ,
315 VN_{nit} , VN_{denit} , VN_{plant} , and $Qmax_{NH4}$) by fitting observed concentrations of ammonium (NH_4^+) and
316 nitrate + nitrite ($NO_3^- + NO_2^-$), as well as the reference rates of net N mineralization (FN_{mn-im}),
317 nitrification (FN_{nit}), biological N fixation (FN_{fix}), and plant N uptake (FN_{im_VG}) (Table 1). In the
318 overall objective function, higher weights were used for the objectives of NH_4^+ and $NO_3^- + NO_2^-$
319 than the remaining N variables. As a result, there were nine individual objective functions
320 regarding the nine C-N response variables in the model calibration: the first three objective
321 functions were used for the calibration of microbial physiological parameters and the remaining
322 six variables were used for the parametrization of inorganic N transformation parameters (Table
323 1).

324 The model simulation period covered the 12-year observational period (1998–2009). Model
325 simulations for each treatment were driven by the corresponding data: GPP, soil temperature and
326 moisture, and inorganic N (NH_4^+ and NO_3^-) input. We used the MOPSO approach to calibrate
327 model parameters with the data from the aCO₂-aN treatment. We then validated the model using
328 the same set of model parameters calibrated for aCO₂-aN to simulate R_h and R_s , and soil inorganic
329 N in the other three treatments (eCO₂-aN, aCO₂-eN and eCO₂-eN).

330 3.1.2 Model calibration and validation results of soil respiration

331 Our model calibration with aCO₂-aN data achieved good agreement between simulated and
332 observed soil respiration (Fig. 3a, $R^2 = 0.60$), so did the model validation of soil respiration in the
333 other three treatments (Fig. 3b, $R^2 = 0.56–0.61$). In addition, the percent bias ($|PBIAS|$) values of
334 mean soil respiration were 3% for calibration and 3–11% for validation, suggesting that simulated
335 mean soil respiration values were close to the observed ones in all four treatments. The simulated

336 mean values of MBC and SOC were within the tolerances for MBC (10%) and SOC (5%),
337 respectively, as expected in model simulations (Table 1).

338

339 3.1.3 Model calibration and validation results of soil ammonium and nitrate

340 In addition, the simulated mean soil NH_4^+ and ($\text{NO}_3^- + \text{NO}_2^-$) concentrations also agreed well
341 with the observations in both model calibration and validation (Fig. 3c and 3d). Although model
342 validation showed larger percent bias between simulated and observed values ($|PBIAS| = 24\text{--}29\%$
343 for NH_4^+ and $5\text{--}39\%$ for $\text{NO}_3^- + \text{NO}_2^-$) than model calibration (2% for both NH_4^+ and 8% for NO_3^-
344 $+ \text{NO}_2^-$), the model validation of inorganic N concentrations could still be judged as satisfactory
345 according to the 70% bias criterion for N modeling (Moriassi *et al.*, 2007). Simulated variation (i.e.,
346 average standard deviation (SD) = 0.20 gN m^{-2}) in soil NH_4^+ concentrations by the MEND-new
347 model was also comparable to observed variation (average SD = 0.15 gN m^{-2}), which was also
348 true for soil $\text{NO}_3^- + \text{NO}_2^-$ (average SD = 0.074 and 0.070 gN m^{-2} for observed and simulated
349 concentrations, respectively). For comparison, the simulated average SD values by the MEND-old
350 model were 0.072 and 0.095 gN m^{-2} for soil NH_4^+ and $\text{NO}_3^- + \text{NO}_2^-$, respectively.

351 Generally, the simulated mean NH_4^+ and NO_3^- concentrations by MEND-new from this study
352 showed much lower biases than MEND-old with simplified N processes as described in Gao *et al.*
353 (2020), except for the NO_3^- validation under $\text{eCO}_2\text{-aN}$. The average $|PBIAS|$ for NH_4^+ was reduced
354 from 45% (MEND-old, $12\text{--}68\%$ in range) to 21% (MEND-new, $2\text{--}28\%$), though the average
355 $|PBIAS|$ values for NO_3^- were similar between MEND-old ($11\text{--}32\%$ with an average of 18%) and
356 MEND-new ($5\text{--}39\%$ with an average of 18%) (Fig. 3c and 3d). In order to account for the effects
357 of the number of free (i.e., calibrated) model parameters on the model performance, we calculated
358 the Akaike information criterion (AIC) of the two models (Goll *et al.*, 2012). The number of free

359 model parameters for inorganic N processes was five for MEND-old (Gao *et al.*, 2020) and six for
360 MEND-new (see Table S5), as most of the N-related parameters in MEND-new were determined
361 as per literature. Compared to MEND-old, MEND-new had a slightly higher AIC under aCO₂-aN
362 (Fig. 3c), but lower AIC under the other three treatments (Fig. 3d).

363 3.1.4 Model calibration and validation results of inorganic N fluxes

364 Biological N fixation and plant N uptake rates during model calibration and validation were
365 generally in accordance with literature-reported data (Fig. 4). The simulated biological N fixation
366 rates in all four treatments were comparable to the ranges for grasslands reported in the literature
367 (Cleveland *et al.*, 2013, Cleveland *et al.*, 1999). The N fixation rates were significantly higher
368 under the two eN treatments compared to those under the aCO₂-aN treatment (Fig. 4a). However,
369 we did not observe statistically significant eCO₂ effects on the N fixation rates. Our simulated
370 plant N uptake rates were generally between 15 and 30 g N m⁻² yr⁻¹, which were within the range
371 (10–40 g N m⁻² yr⁻¹) observed in grasslands (Bessler *et al.*, 2012, Harty *et al.*, 2017, Reyes *et al.*,
372 2015). The plant N uptake rates were significantly lower under aCO₂-aN than those under the other
373 three treatments, with the highest under eCO₂-eN and no significant difference between eCO₂-aN
374 and aCO₂-eN or eCO₂-eN (Fig. 4b).

375 The simulated net N mineralization and nitrification rates were within the observed ranges in
376 both model calibration and validation (Supporting Information Fig. S7). As mentioned in the
377 methods, we did not expect simulated values to match the measured nitrification rates and net N
378 mineralization rates as they represented reference rates or rough estimates. Our simulated net N
379 mineralization rates were 57–85% (with a mean of 68%) of the reference rates, with the lowest
380 simulated actual N mineralization rate under aCO₂-aN and the highest under the two eCO₂
381 treatments (Supporting Information Fig. S7a). The simulated nitrification rates accounted for 39–

382 54% (with a mean of 47%) of the reference values, with the lowest under the two ambient N
383 treatments and the highest under the two enriched N treatments (Supporting Information Fig. S7b).

384

385 **3.2 Model validation of microbial C:N ratios**

386 Independent model validation showed that the microbial C:N ratios simulated by MEND-new
387 conformed to the literature-reported mean value and the 95% confidence interval for grassland
388 soils (Xu *et al.*, 2013), whereas MEND-old predicted much higher microbial C:N ratios (Fig. 5a).
389 Though both models predicted lower microbial C:N under eN than aN (Fig. 5b and 5c), only the
390 MEND-new model revealed a statistically significant decrease in the microbial C:N as a result of
391 N addition (Fig. 5c). However, neither model demonstrated significant eCO₂ effect on the
392 microbial C:N ratios (Supporting Information Fig. S8).

393

394 **3.3 Model validation with functional gene abundances**

395 We first compared the eCO₂ effects on enzymes simulated by the two models, i.e., MEND-old
396 and MEND-new. To make the results comparable between the two models, gene abundances were
397 not included in the calibration of MEND-old, matching what we did for MEND-new in this study.
398 We only examined the oxidative enzymes (Fig. 5d) and hydrolytic enzymes (Fig. 5e) that are
399 associated with the C cycle because only these two groups are included in both models. The
400 response ratios (*RRs*) of simulated enzyme concentrations (EC_{sim}), enzyme activities (EA_{sim}), and
401 the first-order reaction rates (FR_{sim}) by MEND-old were significantly higher than the response
402 ratios of observed gene abundances (GA_{obs}). The simulated response ratios by MEND-new were
403 generally lower than those by MEND-old, except for the FR_{sim} of hydrolytic enzymes under eN
404 and the FR_{sim} of oxidative enzymes. In short, compared to MEND-old, the simulated response

405 ratios by MEND-new were generally closer to the measured values. Particularly, only the EA_{sim}
406 by MEND-new correctly reflected the negative response in the oxidative enzymes observed under
407 eN (Fig. 5d).

408 We further evaluated the similarity or dissimilarity between MEND-new simulated and
409 observed response ratios of all eight enzymes associated with the C and N cycling by the Wilcoxon
410 signed rank test (Conover, 1998). The simulated response ratios consist of EC_{sim} (Fig. 6a), EA_{sim}
411 (Fig. 6b), or FR_{sim} (Fig. 6c) for eight enzymes, whereas the observed response ratios include GA_{obs}
412 for eight corresponding genes (Table 1 and Fig. 6).

413 The simulated results of response ratios indicate that the eCO_2 effects on the enzymes were
414 more pronounced under aN than under eN, consistent with the responses in GA_{obs} , i.e., 50% CI =
415 0.03~0.06 under aN *versus* -0.02~ -0.01 under eN (Fig. 6). We also found that, among the three
416 simulated variables (EC_{sim} , EA_{sim} , and FR_{sim}), only EA_{sim} responses were not significantly different
417 from the responses of GA_{obs} under aN or eN according to the Wilcoxon signed rank test (Fig. 6b).
418 Our results showed positive responses of EA_{sim} under aN for six out of eight enzymes, which
419 concurred with the changes in GA_{obs} . However, the other two enzyme groups (NO and N_2O
420 reductases) exhibited slightly negative response ratios (-0.019 and -0.003) when comparing eCO_2 -
421 aN to aCO_2 -aN, which were not consistent with GA_{obs} responses (0.03 and 0.05). In addition,
422 negative response ratios of EA_{sim} under eN were found for all enzymes except two groups
423 (hydrolytic enzymes and NO_2^- reductases), which generally concurred with the changes in GA_{obs}
424 under eN.

425

426 **4 DISCUSSION**

427 **4.1 Ecosystem modeling with explicit enzymes as bioindicators**

428 The MEND-new model developed here offers new capabilities to investigate microbial-
429 enzyme mediated N fixation, nitrification, and denitrification, and plant-microbe competition for
430 inorganic N, as well as inorganic N leaching and gaseous emissions processes, which adds
431 additional features to the original MEND-old model (Gao *et al.*, 2020, Wang *et al.*, 2020). The
432 oxidative and hydrolytic enzymes for depolymerizing SOM are actual molecules which are
433 independently functional. However, the intracellular N enzymes (responsible for biological N
434 fixation, nitrification, and denitrification) are not physical molecules and thus have little ability to
435 function independently of a living cell (Fiencke & Bock, 2006, Schlesier *et al.*, 2016, Song *et al.*,
436 2017). Toward this end, we treat these inorganic N enzymes as simple bioindicators of likely
437 activity of cellular level microbial physiology. Explicit representing these intracellular N enzymes
438 in the model is more “pseudo-mechanistic” rather than “truly-mechanistic” (Hommel, 2020), but
439 it provides a tractable way to capture complex biological dynamics of inorganic N cycling.
440 Although enzyme-enabled representation of more detailed C-N transformation processes increases
441 model complexity, it potentially offers important insights into microbial control over
442 biogeochemical and the interactions between multiple physical, chemical, and biological processes.

443 In contrast with enzyme-based models like MEND, the gene-centric approach was developed
444 for examining ocean N cycling, where the gene abundances can be directly modeled to mediate
445 chemical reactions (Reed *et al.*, 2014). The gene-centric approach offers the advantage of direct
446 comparison between modeled and measured gene abundances. However, currently there is no
447 enough information available for identifying appropriate biomarker genes for a specific metabolic
448 pathway (Reed *et al.*, 2014). In addition, for modeling a complex system with many processes,

449 compared with the models characterized by enzyme groups, the number of genes may increase
450 dramatically, resulting in difficulties and uncertainties in estimating a vast number of parameters
451 for these genes. In terms of ecosystem-level modeling that relies on bulk concentrations, it is
452 currently more feasible to adopt the strategy with aggregated enzyme groups than the gene-centric
453 approach.

454 We also proposed a competitive dynamic enzyme allocation scheme to assist the incorporation
455 of multiple enzyme systems. Here, ‘dynamic’ means the allocation of each enzyme group varies
456 with time, and ‘competitive’ implies that multiple enzyme systems compete with each other as per
457 the relative saturation levels of the corresponding substrates. Enzyme allocation problems have
458 been studied theoretically (Müller *et al.*, 2014) or empirically (Sinsabaugh & Moorhead, 1994,
459 Sinsabaugh *et al.*, 2002) based primarily on stoichiometric information (Allison *et al.*, 2011).
460 These previous studies were generally focused on limited groups of enzymes (Averill, 2014,
461 Müller *et al.*, 2014), in contrast to the eight enzyme systems regulated by our competitive dynamic
462 enzyme allocation scheme. We realize that this allocation approach could not be directly evaluated
463 as it is currently challenging to measure in situ production rates, particularly, of multiple enzyme
464 systems. However, our model calibration and validation with a variety of inorganic N
465 concentrations and fluxes indirectly demonstrated the applicability of this competitive dynamic
466 enzyme allocation scheme, which was further supported by the model evaluation with measured
467 gene abundance data.

468

469 **4.2 Rigorous calibration and validation of microbial ecological models**

470 Rigorous calibration and validation of microbial ecological models against observations is
471 essential for assessing and refining models. However, finding appropriate datasets to validate

472 microbial and enzymatic reactions in ecosystem models exhibits significant challenges. Treating
473 inorganic N enzymes as indicators of soil function also allows the use of corresponding gene
474 abundance data in ecosystem modeling, yet the relationship between enzymes and their coding
475 genes is complicated (Bailey *et al.*, 2018). Here, we used gene abundance data for model validation
476 instead of calibration, because we attempted to explore the possible relationships between
477 simulated ecosystem functioning (i.e., enzyme concentrations, enzyme activities, or reaction rates)
478 and gene abundance. We showed that the changes in enzyme activities, rather than enzyme
479 concentrations and the first-order reaction rates, are better explained by the responses in gene
480 abundances. This may be due to the inclusion of more (eight in this study vs. two in Gao *et al.*
481 (2020)) enzyme systems and relevant gene abundance data, which could introduce larger variation
482 in the data resulting in differential modeling performance in terms of multiple variables. Therefore,
483 we need more paired measurements of gene abundances and process rates under long-term field
484 conditions in various ecosystems. DNA-based functional gene abundances have been thought to
485 integrate longer-term (hours to days or longer) microbial potential in the physicochemical
486 environment (Petersen *et al.*, 2012, Rocca *et al.*, 2015). Thus, we infer that DNA-based functional
487 gene abundance is likely a better predictive variable for enzyme activity than for enzyme
488 concentration or reaction rate. In the MEND model, enzyme activity contains the information of
489 both active enzymes and their specific activity. To this end, enzyme activity represents the
490 potential enzyme-catalyzed biogeochemical rates not limited by substrate availability (Ouyang *et*
491 *al.*, 2018, Petersen *et al.*, 2012), whereas substrate availability is considered in the actual reaction
492 rate (i.e., FR_{sim} calculated by Eq. 3). This interpretation supports our results on stronger
493 relationship between GA_{obs} and EA_{sim} than between GA_{obs} and the other two variables (EC_{sim} and
494 FR_{sim}).

495 Very few studies have adopted gene abundance data in ecosystem or environmental modeling,
496 where the model-data integration practices were often implemented for a short time period (e.g.,
497 20 days) based on laboratory data (Gao *et al.*, 2020, Li *et al.*, 2017, Pagel *et al.*, 2016, Song *et al.*,
498 2017). Compared to these short-term laboratory-based modeling studies, it is likely more
499 challenging to conduct gene-informed long-term (e.g., years to decades or longer) ecosystem
500 modeling in the field, owing to complex spatiotemporal environmental conditions and large
501 uncertainties in measurements, as demonstrated by the current study.

502 We also adopted the differential split-sample test to conduct a rigorous model calibration (for
503 the baseline treatment aCO₂-aN) and validation (for the other three treatments under differential
504 CO₂ and N supply), which has been considered as the best possible approach for model
505 parameterization (Refsgaard, 1997) and helped to demonstrate the predictive power of the
506 calibrated model. During this process, we implemented advanced model-data integration by
507 combining a wide spectrum of observations ranging from conventional measurements (e.g., soil
508 respiration fluxes, concentrations of NH₄⁺ and NO₃⁻), to less frequently measured variables (e.g.,
509 all kinds of inorganic N fluxes and microbial biomass), and to rarely available gene abundance
510 data of multiple enzyme systems that regulates SOM decomposition and inorganic N processes.

511 Simulation of some processes and properties were improved using our new modeling approach,
512 while others were not. For example, we incorporated new data associated with N processes from
513 the BioCON experiment into model calibration and validation, and compared to the BioCON
514 results from the MEND-old model (Gao *et al.*, 2020), the simulated NH₄⁺ and NO₃⁻ concentrations
515 from this study were improved as indicated by much lower biases and generally lower AIC (except
516 aCO₂-aN). By contrast, the model performance in soil respiration simulations was consistent
517 between MEND-new ($R^2 = 0.56-0.61$) and MEND-old ($R^2 = 0.53-0.61$). Previous studies have

518 demonstrated that the incorporation of more detailed biogeochemical processes might not
519 necessarily improve modeling performance of soil respiration, as multi-objective model
520 calibration aims to find a compromise between different objectives, such as various observed C-N
521 pool sizes and process rates other than soil respiration (Bao *et al.*, 2012, Davidson *et al.*, 2012,
522 Wang & Chen, 2012, Wang *et al.*, 2019). Such model-data integration with multiple datasets on
523 diverse system processes is crucial for examining the model's capability in representing a
524 multitude of soil biogeochemical processes. In addition, model goals are not limited to improving
525 gross predictions but also gaining insights to underlying processes. Mechanistic understanding and
526 representation of microbially-mediated biogeochemical processes would help depict ecosystem
527 responses to diverse perturbations more confidently.

528 Our direct validation of simulated microbial C:N ratios exemplifies the predictive power of the
529 MEND-new model, given that microbial C:N ratios were not included in model calibration. The
530 near congruence between observed and simulated microbial C:N ratios indicated the substantive
531 improvement of the MEND-new model over the old version through mechanistic representation
532 of N processes including dynamic N mineralization-immobilization and the competitive N uptake
533 between plants and microbes. In addition, the MEND-new model predicted decreased microbial
534 C:N ratios under enriched N supply (Xiao *et al.*, 2018), owing to insignificant changes in microbial
535 biomass C and significantly increased microbial biomass N.

536 It should be noted that the soil system studied in this study could be not well representative.
537 The soil in the experimental site is a Typic Udipsammments that is minimally developed with no
538 diagnostic horizons, and it could have little potential for stabilizing organic matter by mineral
539 sorption or occlusion in aggregates (Schimel & Schaeffer, 2012, Six *et al.*, 2002). Mineral
540 interactions and spatial processes could play a small role in regulating the processing of plant

541 detritus or SOM, or of N cycling processes in this soil. In addition, anaerobiosis and anerobic
542 micro-sites are likely uncommon in the coarsely textured soils with high saturated hydraulic
543 conductivity (O'Geen *et al.*, 2017), which will certainly affect N (especially denitrification)
544 dynamics, differently from other soils that are more developed with more texture structure
545 (Kristensen *et al.*, 2000). Nevertheless, this simple soil system is a perfect test-bed in many ways
546 for experimental and modeling ideas. However, the parameterization of the model might not be
547 readily applicable to other soils that have a fine texture and/or aggregate development, in which
548 microbe-substrate-mineral interactions regulate the functioning of the biological components of
549 the soil system. More likely, the model might just need different parameterization or perhaps more
550 sophisticated treatment of organic-mineral interactions. Testing this would be a natural next phase
551 in evaluating the model's applicability in diverse soils and ecosystems.

552 In summary, this study presents substantive methodological and ecological advances relative
553 to previous studies, including our recent publication (Gao *et al.*, 2020), in that (i) the MEND-new
554 model now includes a more detailed representation of enzyme-catalyzed N transformation
555 processes, with the addition of a competitive dynamic enzyme allocation scheme to tackle the
556 synthesis of multiple enzyme systems; (ii) the model was calibrated against a variety of observed
557 N fluxes and validated by gene abundances for six N-associated processes, indicating that the
558 changes in enzyme activities, rather than enzyme concentrations and reaction rates, were better
559 explained by the measured gene abundances in responses to eCO₂; and (iii) the MEND-new
560 model's predictions agreed well with the literature in terms of microbial C:N ratios and decreased
561 microbial C:N as a result of N addition, whereas the MEND-old model did not. Taken together,
562 our results indicated that representing microbial-enzyme groups in ecosystem models is a
563 potentially valuable step forward to develop robust predictive models that interpolate or

564 extrapolate observed interactions among microbes and soil C-N cycling, likely bolstering
565 confidence in the assessments and projections of carbon-climate feedbacks. Pertaining to model
566 refinement, a comprehensive understanding of microbial communities and their roles in regulating
567 specific C and nutrient processes is essential for successful incorporation of enzymes-based
568 bioindicators in ecosystem modeling. The newly refined MEND model has the potential to provide
569 a powerful avenue for understanding and testing hypotheses about microbially mediated soil
570 biogeochemical processes under environmental changes.

571

572 **Abbreviations**

573 aCO₂: ambient atmospheric CO₂ concentration; BioCON (Biodiversity, CO₂, and Nitrogen); C:
574 Carbon; DOM: Dissolved Organic Matter; EA: Enzyme Activity; EC: Enzyme Concentration;
575 eCO₂: elevated atmospheric CO₂ concentration; FR: First-order reaction Rate; GA: Gene
576 Abundance; GPP: Gross Primary Productivity; MARE: Mean Absolute Relative Error; MB:
577 Microbial Biomass; MBC: Microbial Biomass Carbon; MB_A: Active Microbial Biomass; MB_D:
578 Dormant Microbial Biomass; MEND: Microbial-ENzyme Decomposition model; MOM: Mineral-
579 associated Organic Matter; MOPSA: Multi-Objective Parameter Sensitivity Analysis; MOPSO:
580 Multi-Objective Parameter Stochastic Optimization; N: Nitrogen; PBIAS: percent bias; POM:
581 Particulate Organic Matter; RR: Response Ratio; SCE: Shuffled Complex Evolution; SD: Standard
582 Deviation; SOC: Soil Organic Carbon; SOM: Soil Organic Matter; SWC: Soil Water Content;
583 SWP: Soil Water Potential; UQ-COFI: Uncertainty Quantification by Critical Objective Function
584 Index.

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586

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603

604 DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

605 The model code and data that support the findings of this study are openly available in GitHub at
606 <https://github.com/wanggangsheng/MEND.git>. The BioCON experimental data can be freely
607 accessed at <https://www.cedarcreek.umn.edu/research/data>.

608

609 **SUPPORTING INFORMATION**

610 Additional supporting information may be found online in the Supporting Information section.

611 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT**

612 The authors declare they have no conflict of interest.

613 **Author's contributions**

614 All authors contributed intellectual input and assistance to this study and manuscript preparation.

615 The original concept and modeling strategy were developed by G.W., J.Z., P.R. and S.H. Field

616 experiments are maintained by P.R. and S.H. Model input data were compiled by Q.G., Y.Y., and

617 G.W. The MEND modeling was developed and conducted by G.W. All data analysis and

618 integration were guided by G.W. and J.Z. The paper was written by G.W. and J.Z., with help from

619 Q. G., Y. Y., P.R., and S.H.

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624 **Figure legends:**625 **Figure 1 Framework for developing the Microbial-ENzyme Decomposition (MEND) model.**

626 **(a)** MEND modeling framework. **(b)** Procedure of the Multi-Objective Parameter Stochastic
627 Optimization (MOPSO), which directly incorporates the Shuffled Complex Evolution (SCE)
628 algorithm into MEND model calibration.

629

630

631 **Figure 2 Diagram of the Microbial-ENzyme Decomposition (MEND) model.** R_a and R_h are

632 autotrophic and heterotrophic respiration, respectively. POM_O and POM_H are particulate organic

633 matter (POM) decomposed by oxidative (EP_O) and hydrolytic enzymes (EP_H), respectively.

634 MOM is mineral-associated OM, which is decomposed by a mixed enzyme group EM.

635 Dissolved OM (DOM) interacts with the active layer of MOM (QOM) through sorption and

636 desorption. Litter enters POM_O , POM_H , and DOM. Microbes consist of active (MB_A) and

637 dormant microbes (MB_D). DOM can be assimilated by MB_A . Inorganic N deposition and

638 fertilization enter NH_4^+ and NO_3^- that can be immobilized by microbes and taken up by plant

639 roots. NH_4^+ adsorption is also considered. N fixation, nitrification and denitrification are

640 mediated by nitrogenases (*nifH*), ammonia oxidases (*amoA*, *nxrA/B*) and N-reductases

641 (*narG/napA*, *nirS/nirK*, *norB*, *nosZ*), respectively. Inorganic N loss pathways include leaching

642 (NO_3^- and NO_2^-) and gas emission (NO , N_2O , and N_2) from the soil to the atmosphere.

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646

647 **Figure 3 MEND model calibration and validation. (a)** Soil respiration (R_s) calibration with
648 ambient CO_2 -ambient N (aCaN) data, **(b)** R_s validation with data from the other three treatments:
649 elevated CO_2 -aN (eCaN), aC-enriched N (aCeN), and eCeN. **(c)** Absolute value of percent bias
650 ($|PBIAS|$, %) between simulated and observed mean for the calibration of ammonium (NH_4^+) and
651 nitrate (NO_3^- , including both NO_3^- and NO_2^-) from aCaN. **(d)** $|PBIAS|$ for the validation of NH_4^+
652 and NO_3^- from the other three treatments. Error bars in A represent the standard deviations. R^2
653 values in A and B denote the coefficient of determination. In **(c)** and **(d)**, the two models of
654 MEND-old and MEND-new denote the old version of MEND model as described in Gao et al.
655 (2020) and the new MEND model in this study, respectively. The two numbers in each facet of
656 **(c)** and **(d)** denote the Akaike information criterion (AIC, lower is better) for the two models,
657 respectively.

658

659

660 **Figure 4 Comparison between simulated rates and literature-reported nitrogen flux rates.**

661 **(a)** Biological N fixation rate; the “Literature” data were from Cleveland et al. (1999, GBC) and
662 Cleveland et al. (2013, PNAS), where the bars show the mean values and the error bar shows the
663 value range. **(b)** Plant N uptake rate; the “Literature” data were from Bessler et al. (2012) and
664 Reyes et al. (2015), where the error bar denotes the value range. The difference in simulated
665 rates between paired treatments was tested by the Wilcoxon signed rank test. “*”, “**”, and
666 “***” denote significant difference with $p\text{-value} < 0.05$, $p\text{-value} < 0.01$, and $p\text{-value} < 0.001$,
667 respectively. “NS.” means not significant.

668

669 **Figure 5 Comparison of microbial C:N ratios and functional enzymes simulated by two**
670 **models (MEND-old and MEND-new). (a)** modeled versus literature-reported microbial C:N
671 ratios (error bars denote the 95% confidence interval); **(b)** MEND-old modeled microbial C:N
672 ratios under ambient N (aN) and enriched N (eN); **(c)** MEND-new modeled microbial C:N ratios
673 under aN and eN; **(d)** elevated CO₂ (eCO₂) effect on oxidative enzymes; **(e)** eCO₂ effect on
674 hydrolytic enzymes. MEND-old and MEND-new denote the old version of MEND model as
675 described in Gao et al. (2020) and the new MEND model in this study, respectively. The
676 “Literature” data in **(a)** were from Xu et al. (2013). The eCO₂ effects in the year of 2009 (**d** and
677 **e**) are quantified by the response ratio (RR), which is defined as the logarithmic ratio of a
678 variable under eCO₂ to that under ambient CO₂ (aCO₂) as per ambient N (aN) or enriched N (eN)
679 treatment. The RRs are calculated pertaining to observed gene abundances (GA_{obs}), simulated
680 enzyme concentrations (EC_{sim}, mg C cm⁻³ soil), simulated enzyme activities (EA_{sim}, mg C cm⁻³
681 C h⁻¹), and simulated first-order reaction rates (FR_{sim}, h⁻¹). The difference between paired data
682 was tested by the Wilcoxon signed rank test. “*”, “**”, and “***” denote significant difference
683 with *p-value* < 0.05, *p-value* < 0.01, and *p-value* < 0.001, respectively. “NS.” means not
684 significant.

685

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687

688 **Figure 6 Elevated CO₂ (eCO₂) effects on functional genes/enzymes quantified by the**
689 **response ratio (RR) in the year of 2009. (a)** RRs of observed gene abundances (GA_{obs}) *versus*
690 simulated enzyme concentrations (EC_{sim}, mg C cm⁻³ soil), **(b)** RRs of GA_{obs} *versus* simulated
691 enzyme activities (EA_{sim}, mg C cm⁻³ C h⁻¹), **(c)** RRs of GA_{obs} *versus* simulated first-order
692 reaction rates (FR_{sim}, h⁻¹). The RR is defined as the logarithmic ratio of a variable under eCO₂ to
693 that under ambient CO₂ (aCO₂) as per ambient N (aN) or enriched N (eN) treatment. Each
694 boxplot includes eight RR values from eight genes (enzymes): two groups (oxidative and
695 hydrolytic) for the decomposition of soil organic matter, nitrogenases (nifH), ammonia oxidases
696 (amoA) and four N-reductases (narG/napA, nirS/nirK, norB, nosZ). The difference in RR
697 between two variables was tested by the Wilcoxon signed rank test. “*”, “***”, and “****” denote
698 significant difference with *p-value* < 0.05, *p-value* < 0.01, and *p-value* < 0.001, respectively.
699 “NS.” means not significant.

700

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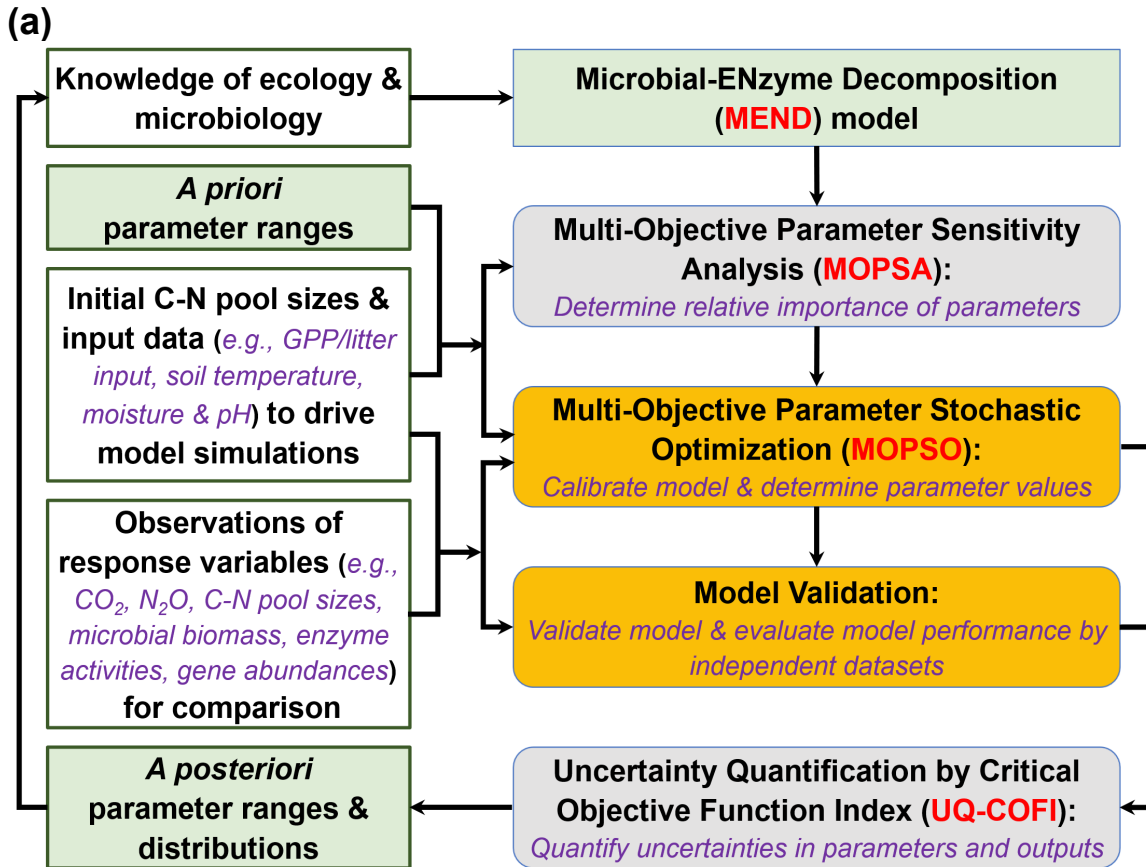
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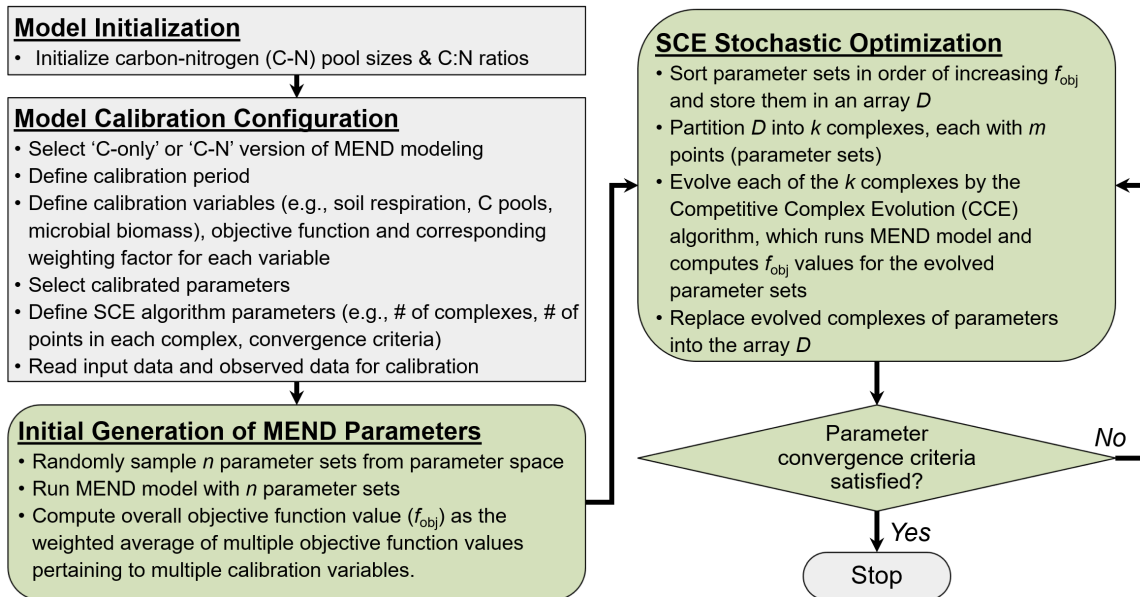
Table 1. BioCON data for MEND model calibration and validation

Response variable	Description	Objective Function	Number of data points
R_s (CO ₂)	Soil respiration = root respiration (R_a) + microbial respiration (R_h)	$J_1 = R^2$	284
MBC	Microbial biomass carbon	$J_2 = MAREt$, tolerance = 10%	1
SOC	Soil organic carbon	$J_3 = MAREt$, tolerance = 5%	1
NH ₄ ⁺	Ammonium concentration	$J_4 = 0.8 \times PBIAS + 0.2 \times MARE$	8
NO ₃ ⁻ + NO ₂ ⁻	Nitrate+Nitrite concentration	$J_5 = 0.8 \times PBIAS + 0.2 \times MARE$	8
FN _{mn-im}	Net N mineralization rate	$J_6 = MAREt$, tolerance = 0.5	10
FN _{nit}	Nitrification flux rate	$J_7 = MAREt$, tolerance = 0.9	10
FN _{fix}	N fixation flux rate	$J_8 = MAREt$, tolerance = 0.2	1
FN _{im,vG}	Plant uptake rate of N	$J_9 = MAREt$, tolerance = 0.5	1
EPO	Oxidative Enzyme	For model validation only:	1
EPH	Hydrolytic Enzyme	Compare simulated and observed Response Ratios (RR).	1
ENH4	Ammonium oxidase	Observed RR is the response ratio of omics-detected gene abundances between elevated CO ₂ (eCO ₂) and ambient CO ₂ (aCO ₂).	1
ENO3	Nitrate reductase		1
ENO2	Nitrite reductase		1
ENO	Nitric oxide reductase	Simulated RR is the response ratio of MEND-modeled enzyme concentrations, activities, or reaction rates between eCO ₂ and aCO ₂ .	1
EN2O	Nitrous oxide reductase		1
EN2	Nitrogenase		1

Notes: R^2 denotes the coefficient of determination, $|PBIAS|$ is the absolute value of the percent bias, $MARE$ is the mean absolute relative error, $MAREt$ is the $MARE$ with a tolerance. See Supporting Information Eqs. 68–71 for a description of these criteria.



(b)
Multi-Objective Parameter Stochastic Optimization (MOPSO)



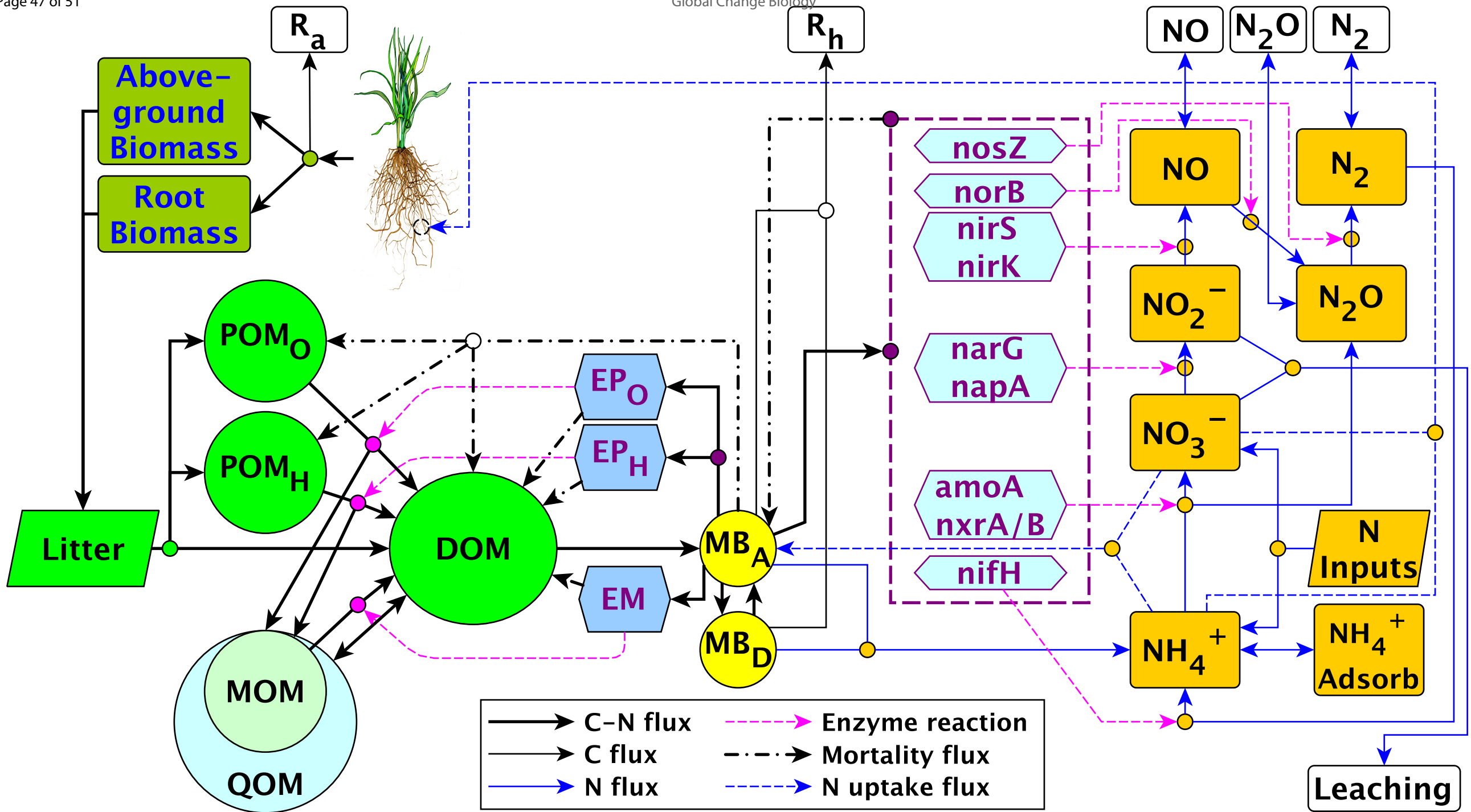


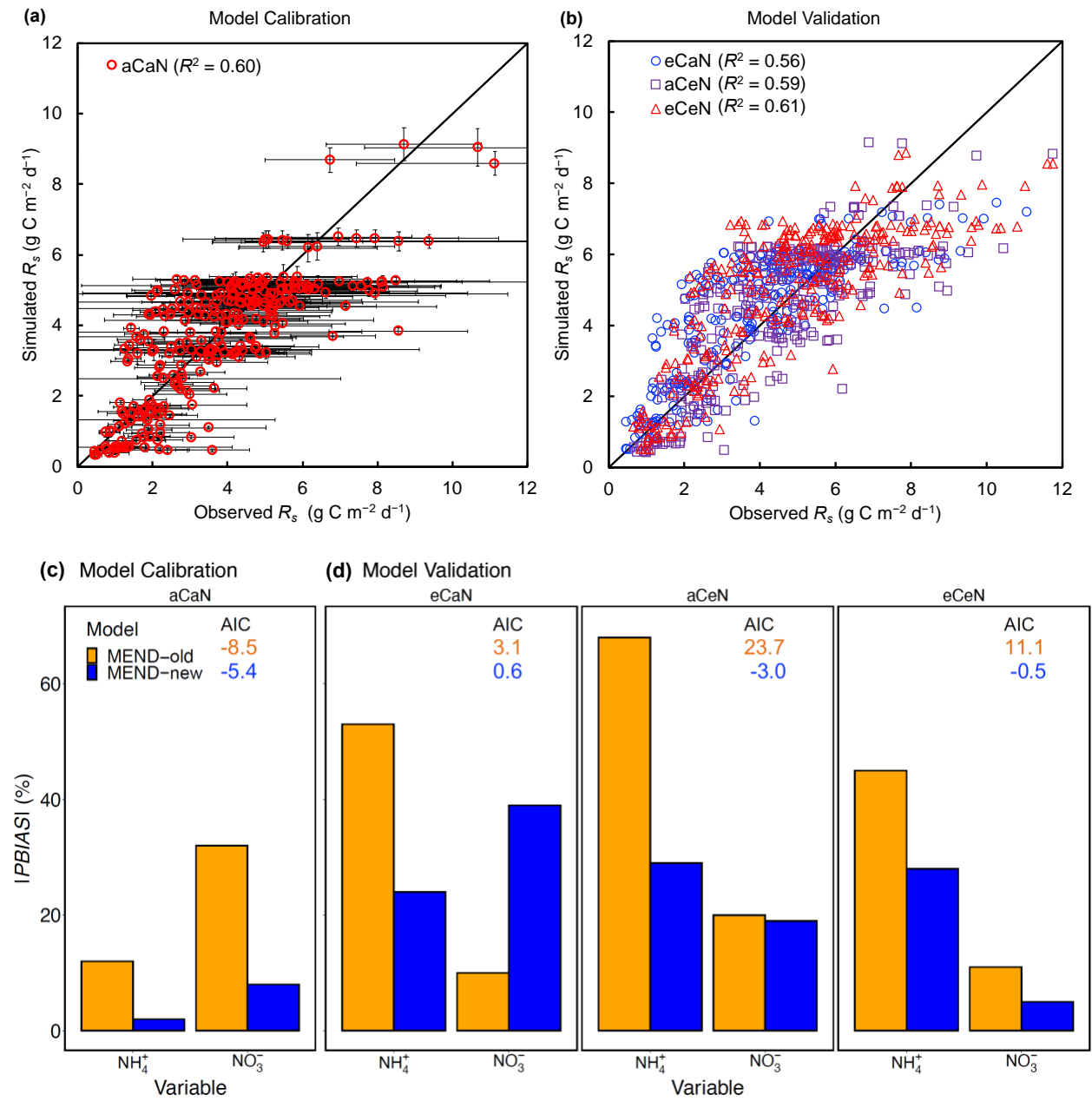
Fig. 3

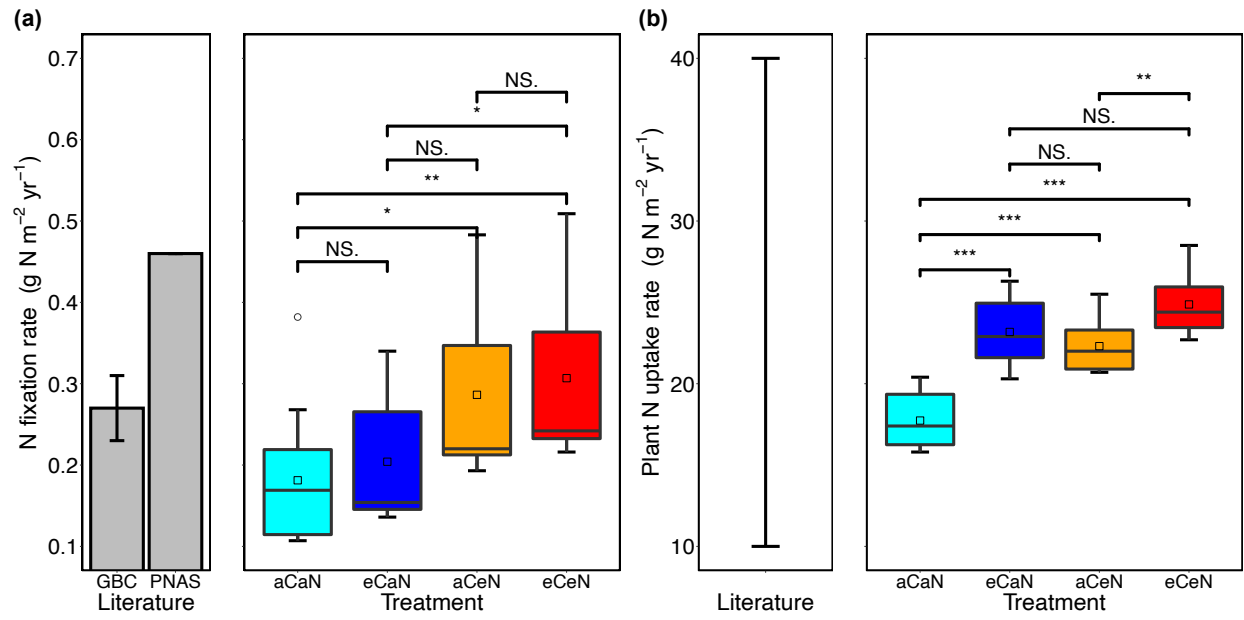
Fig. 4

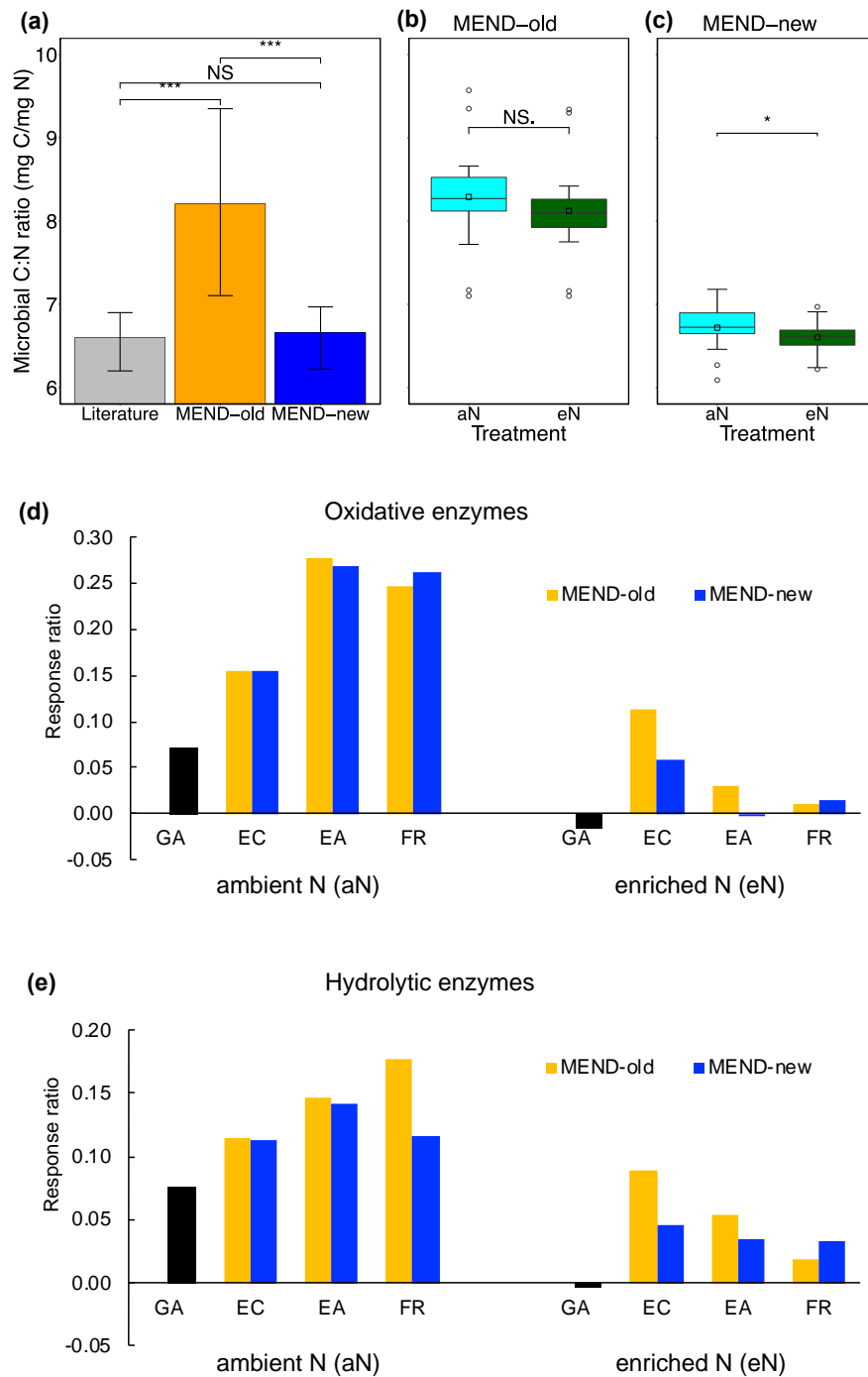
Fig. 5

Fig. 6