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1 **Divergent Evolution of Nitrogen Cycling Along Gradients of Landscape** 2 **Water Velocities**

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13

14 **Abstract**

15 Increasing fertilization has pushed nitrogen cycle beyond planetary boundaries, yet its fate
16 remains uncertain due to long-standing neglect of landscape water velocities in nitrogen models.
17 Leveraging isotope-aided modelling across 3,821 European catchments, we demonstrate that
18 evolution of nitrogen cycling is strongly linked to shifts in landscape water velocities since
19 1980. We propose the concept of “wetness boundaries”, where hydrological transitions beyond
20 boundaries amplify nitrogen accumulation and leaching, while conditions remaining within
21 boundaries mitigate these processes. Applying this framework, we project reduced nitrogen
22 leaching across 76% of Europe under mild hydrological shifts by 2100 but increasing nitrogen
23 accumulation under pronounced deceleration of water cycling in Eastern and Southern Europe.
24 These findings underscore emerging water-quality risks under climate change and the need to
25 mitigate extreme hydrological shifts.

26

27

28 Planetary boundaries define a safe operating space for humanity, yet the boundary for nitrogen
29 has been exceeded due to the doubling of anthropogenic inputs since pre-industrial era (1). This
30 transgression poses substantial risks to freshwater eutrophication, food production, and
31 ecosystem sustainability (2). Accordingly, nitrogen cycling has been extensively studied across
32 terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems from catchment to global scales (3–5).

33 Despite decades of research, however, the fate of nitrogen at the landscape scale remains poorly
34 understood, as it emerges from an intricate interplay among spatiotemporally variable
35 fertilizer/manure application, fossil fuel combustion, hydrological transport, and a cascade of

biogeochemical reactions from nitrification to denitrification (4, 5). Among these dimensions, the influence of hydrology is, perhaps, one of the most pivotal yet comparatively under-explored aspects. As the primary medium transporting soluble nitrogen, water governs its movement and shapes the kinetics of biogeochemical transformations along flow paths (3, 6). However, hydrological processes are often under-represented with simplified assumption/conceptualization in water quality models, with many applications relying solely on in-stream observations (typically discharge) for process inference (3). This, unfortunately, captures only half the story of how water and solutes move through landscapes (7), as a good model fit of discharge reflects only the celerity of the system's response to precipitation inputs (or the speed with which perturbations are transmitted), while the velocity of internal water fluxes remains unquantified. A key paradox is that stream discharge may respond within minutes or hours to rainfall or snowmelt, yet with flows comprised of water that can be years or decades old (8). While the lack of understanding of velocities may suffice for hydrological studies that focus more on the integrated response at a system's outlet (e.g., flood generation), this information is indispensable for understanding nitrogen cycling where fate of solutes emerges from pathways with vastly different velocities (6). With climate projections pointing to potential intensification of water cycling and increasing drought risks (9), a thorough knowledge of the role of landscape water velocities in nitrogen cycling, particularly how acceleration and deceleration of water cycling reshape nitrogen transport and transformation, remains elusive but needed.

Here, we employ stable water isotopes (^2H and ^{18}O) to fill this knowledge gap. As conservative tracers, these isotopes have been increasingly used to identify the water velocities and ages due to their independence of biogeochemical reactions (10, 11). However, the power of isotopes has rarely been leveraged for understanding water quality, with existing pioneering studies limited to specific scales (plot to catchment scales), coarse resolution (lumped or semi-distributed) or simplified conceptualisations (12–14; details in text S5). Therefore, we present a continental-scale water velocity framework based on a fully distributed process-based ecohydrological model that simultaneously tracks water, isotopes, and nitrogen (EcoTWIN; text S1; (15)). EcoTWIN was applied in 3,821 catchments (50 to 802,032 km²) across Europe at high spatial (5 km) and temporal resolution (daily timesteps since 1980) and validated against observed discharge, in-stream isotope compositions, and nitrate concentrations at 1,218 sites (text S2–4). Here, we used nitrate to reflect nitrogen cycling given its widespread dominance in surface waters and the availability of large-scale observations (uncertainties in text S10). With this fully distributed isotope-aided water quality modelling at the continental scale, we revisited water cycling across Europe through the lens of landscape water velocity and assessed how its acceleration and deceleration have reshaped nitrogen cycling since the 1980s and may evolve towards the end of the 21st century.

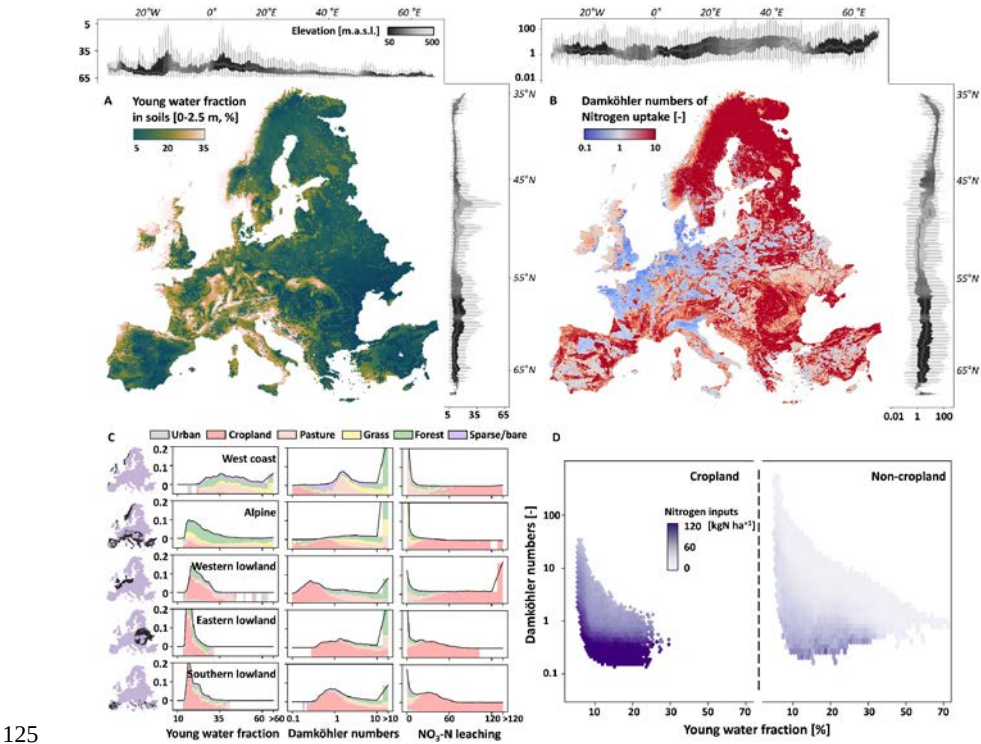
Slow Water Cycling Buffers Nitrogen Leaching

To uncouple the hydrological impacts from nitrogen cycling, we first quantified the water velocities using two indices - soil travel time (time for water traveling through ~2.5 m soils) and young water fraction (fraction of soil water younger than 90 days). Isotope-aided simulations revealed distinct regimes along geographic and climatic gradients in Europe, showing a gradual decline in young water along elevations (from high to low) and longitude (from west to east) (fig. 1A). The fastest water cycling was found at west-north coast of Europe (fig. 1C), where moist air masses are advected by the prevailing westerlies (16). Accordingly, the water cycling in these regions is generally more active with higher soil infiltration (1548 mm yr⁻¹ averaged between 1982 to 2024) compared to the European average (685 mm yr⁻¹, fig. S5). The abundant precipitation led to rapid water velocities as evidenced by the significantly higher young water fraction (40.9%) and lower soil travel time (181 days) relative to the European median of 22.7% and 1063 days, respectively. Similar fast turnover rates are found in Alpine regions with abundant precipitation yet limited evapotranspiration (fig. 1C), where young water fraction reached up to 80.0% (though snow-dominated catchments are not included due to the dominant baseflow contribution during extended snow-dominated low-flow periods, e.g., in the Middle Alps) (17, 18). In contrast, substantially slower water cycling was found in lowlands with soil travel times ranging from 81.1 to >3000 days with a median of 1182 days. This is attributed to the dual impacts of lower precipitation and higher evapotranspiration, returning a large proportion of precipitation to the atmosphere (accounting for 69% of infiltration; fig. S5). Such slow turnover rates are especially pronounced in regions dominated by continental or Mediterranean climate, where water might stay in the soil for years before leaching vertically to groundwater or laterally downslope (7, 19).

The contrasts in hydrological regimes further propagate to nitrogen cycling, as rates of water fluxes not only govern nutrient transport, but also regulate biogeochemical reactions along flow paths through modulating moisture conditions (20). From a hydrological standpoint, nitrogen leaching can be viewed as the fraction of nitrogen leached from soil before being removed via biogeochemical processes (denitrification and plant uptake). Following the concept of soil Damköhler numbers (14), we expanded this dimensionless metric to reflect the balance between nitrogen retention and transport, defined as the ratio between transport timescale (average soil travel time) and reaction timescale (average time required to remove soil-water nitrogen via denitrification and plant uptake). Damköhler numbers <1 indicates the dominance of transport over removal processes and the potential of nitrogen leaching (12, 14, 21).

Generally, Damköhler numbers tend to be higher in regions with lower anthropogenic nitrogen inputs (fig. 1B). The median value in non-agricultural regions was 17.2, suggesting that most natural ecosystems effectively retain nitrogen at low levels. In contrast, croplands showed a median Damköhler numbers of 0.7, indicating insufficient nitrogen removal capacity relative to larger anthropogenic inputs and existing legacy. Meanwhile, the magnitudes of landscape

112 water velocities played a vital role. This is evident from the comparison between the croplands
 113 in Eastern-Southern Europe and Central-Western Europe (fig. 1C): 59% and 40% of croplands
 114 exhibited Damköhler numbers > 1 in Eastern and Southern Europe, while the median
 115 Damköhler number dropped to 0.3 (minimal 0.05) in Central-Western Europe, implying
 116 reaction times are 3-20 times of travel times. This difference is mainly attributed to the slower
 117 turnover rates in the former regions. Longer soil travel times extended the timescales available
 118 for biogeochemical removal (denitrification and plant uptake), thus providing buffering against
 119 nitrogen leaching in Eastern and Southern Europe, while faster water velocities in Central-
 120 Western Europe increased the leaching risks. Such nitrogen stress has previously been
 121 attributed to a gradual build-up of legacy through historical fertilisation and the resulting
 122 intensification of nitrogen deposition (22). Here, using a water velocity framework, we
 123 demonstrate the role of water velocities in controlling the timescale for nitrogen removal and
 124 leaching potential (fig. 1D).



126 **Fig. 1. Spatial patterns and statistical characteristics of young water fraction (YWF) and**
 127 **Damköhler number (Da) for nitrogen removal across Europe.** Panels (A–B) show the mean
 128 values of YWF and Da during 1982–2024, with inset boxplots summarizing their minimum,
 129 maximum, 25th–75th percentiles, and median values along latitude, longitude, and elevation.

Panel (C) illustrates the probability density distributions of YWF (%), Da (-), and NO₃-N leaching (kg N ha⁻¹) across different land-use types. Panel (D) presents the correlations among YWF, Da, and nitrogen inputs.

Magnitudes of Hydrological Change Control the Evolution of Nitrogen Cycling

While spatial contrasts reveal the critical role of water velocity in buffering nitrogen leaching through a snapshot of the past 45 years, it remains unclear on how such buffering evolved under climate change. Therefore, we further investigated the temporal shifts in water velocities and the response of nitrogen cycling since the 1980s.

Hydrological shifts across Europe were primarily driven by precipitation (89.8%), evapotranspiration (6.1%) and land-use change (4.1%) (text S7; fig. S6). In regions with increasing precipitation inputs, water cycling accelerated with higher velocity of water fluxes. Typical examples include the Alpine regions in Southern Europe (e.g., Apennines, Pyrenees, and Iberian mountains; fig. 2A), where average travel time of soil water and young water fraction decreased by 219 days and 2.3% from 1980s to 2020s. In contrast, Central-Western Europe experienced a moderate precipitation decline (averaging 1 mm yr⁻¹). This, together with the ubiquitous increase in temperature and radiation fluxes, led to a higher fraction of water returning to atmosphere via evapotranspiration (0.1% increase per year) (23). The drying trend further decelerated water cycling, increasing water ages by 109 days and decreasing young water fractions by -1.3% in the past 45 years (fig. 2A, I). Similar deceleration of water cycling was also found in Northern Europe (sparsely distributed across Nordic mountains and adjacent highlands in mid Norway and Sweden with young water fractions varying by -1.0% from 1980s to 2020s), Eastern Europe (the Baltic Plain; -0.7%), Southern Europe (non-alpine regions in the Iberian Peninsula; -1.0%), and the South-West corner and eastern part of Turkish mountains (fig. 2A).

These hydrological shifts controlled the evolution of nitrogen cycling. From a hydrological standpoint, decelerated water cycling should, intuitively, mitigate nitrogen accumulation and leaching in soil water, as slower turnover rates tend to prolong the soil travel times, thus extending the window for nitrogen removal. However, our simulations revealed diverse responses, as the kinetics of biogeochemical processes (e.g., plant uptake and soil denitrification) were also modulated by moisture conditions, which concurrently affected reaction timescales (3). This resulted in bi-directional correlations between travel times and Damköhler numbers, formalised in four co-evolution schemes (fig. 3A-B):

Accelerating cycling: The acceleration of water cycling was mainly driven by enhanced hydrological fluxes, often accompanied by increased soil moisture. Higher saturation levels, coupled with warmer condition, favored nitrogen uptake by extending the duration of denitrification and plant uptake (2, 5). When biogeochemical acceleration outweighed the

167 marginal decrease in soil travel times, an optimal Scheme A emerged, reflected by younger
 168 water, higher Damköhler numbers, and lower nitrogen leaching (fig. 3B-C). However, a
 169 sufficiently intense acceleration of water cycling could result in an opposing Scheme C with
 170 younger water and lower Damköhler numbers. This scheme occurs in relatively dry regions
 171 that undergo abrupt rewetting (with low soil moisture yet high infiltration increases; fig. 3C).
 172 The pronounced acceleration of water cycling enabled rapid flushing of nitrogen from soil
 173 instead of being removed by biogeochemical processes, elevating the risks of leaching.

174 **Decelerating cycling:** Decelerated water cycling could also nudge nitrogen cycling in both
 175 directions. Generally, deceleration enables longer residence times and reaction windows for
 176 biogeochemical processing, formalizing Scheme B with older water, higher Damköhler
 177 numbers, and lower potentials of nitrogen accumulation and leaching (fig. 3B-C). However, if
 178 climate change further amplifies drought conditions, continuous decrease in soil moisture may
 179 inhibit nitrogen uptake, especially denitrification that relies heavily on soil saturation (24).
 180 When such moisture-related biogeochemical depressions are no longer marginal but dominant
 181 compared to the extended travel time, the nitrogen surplus will increase considerably, leading
 182 to higher chances of both nitrogen accumulation and leaching (fig. 3C). This formalizes the
 183 last and worst Scheme D with older water and lower Damköhler numbers.

184 Overall, both accelerated and decelerated water cycling may drive nitrogen cycling along
 185 negative trajectories (with increased nitrogen accumulation or leaching). The outcome depends
 186 not only on the direction of hydrological shifts, but also on its magnitude (fig. 3B). Moderate
 187 hydrological shifts tend to guide nitrogen cycling towards positive trajectories with mitigated
 188 nitrogen accumulation and leaching, while increasing nitrogen risks might be triggered by
 189 intense hydrological shifts, including abrupt wetting (causing intense acceleration of water
 190 fluxes) or prolonged drying (causing potential violation of the criteria for biogeochemical
 191 processes). Here, to synthesize this behavior, we introduce the concept of “wetness boundaries”
 192 – shifting within these boundaries promotes positive nitrogen cycling with mitigated risks
 193 while vice versa (method and uncertainty in text S8, fig. S8). For general applicability, the
 194 boundaries are approximated by expressing precipitation change (%) as a function of variability
 195 in temperature ΔT (°C) and anthropogenic addition ΔA (kg ha⁻¹yr⁻¹):

$$196 \quad \Delta P = [-6.4 + 0.8 * \Delta T - 0.04 * \Delta A, 10.9 + 0.5 * \Delta T - 0.1 * \Delta A]$$

197 Elevated anthropogenic inputs tend to narrow both upper and lower boundaries, increasing the
 198 likelihood of nitrogen accumulation and leaching through either acceleration or deceleration of
 199 water cycling. The latter scheme can also be triggered by warming, which reflects dual increase
 200 in vulnerability of water and nitrogen cycling.

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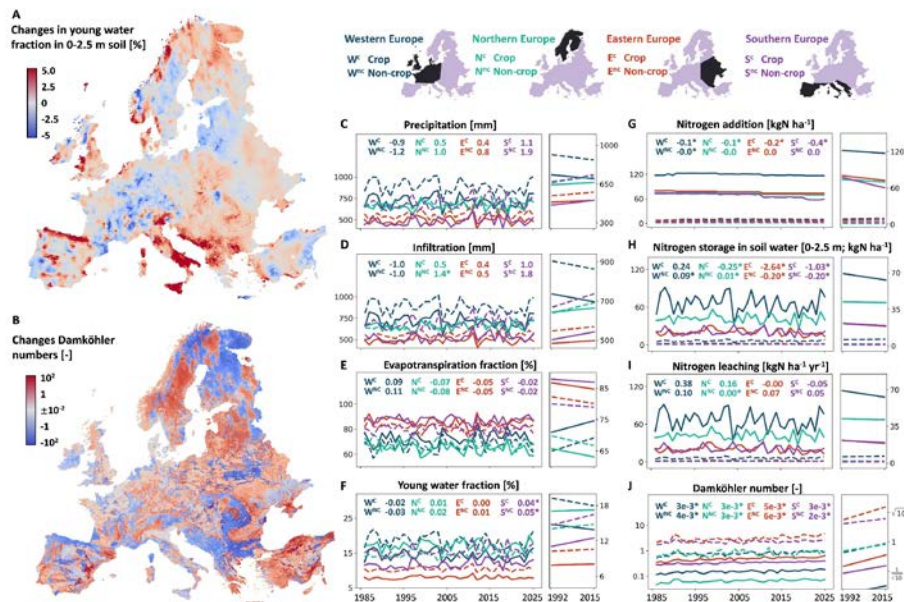


Fig. 2. Temporal dynamics of hydrological and nitrogen states/fluxes during 1982–2024. Panel (A) shows the differences of young water fraction and Damköhler numbers between 1982–1992 and 2014–2024 (A–B). Panels (C–J) show the annual dynamics of representative hydrological and nitrogen states, fluxes, and statistics across four different European regions (reflected with four colours). In each pair of panels, cropland (C) and non-crop (NC) regions are represented by solid and dotted lines, with linear regressions displayed in the right-hand. The numbers are the slopes of linear regression with * indicating the significance of monotonic trend ($P < 0.05$).

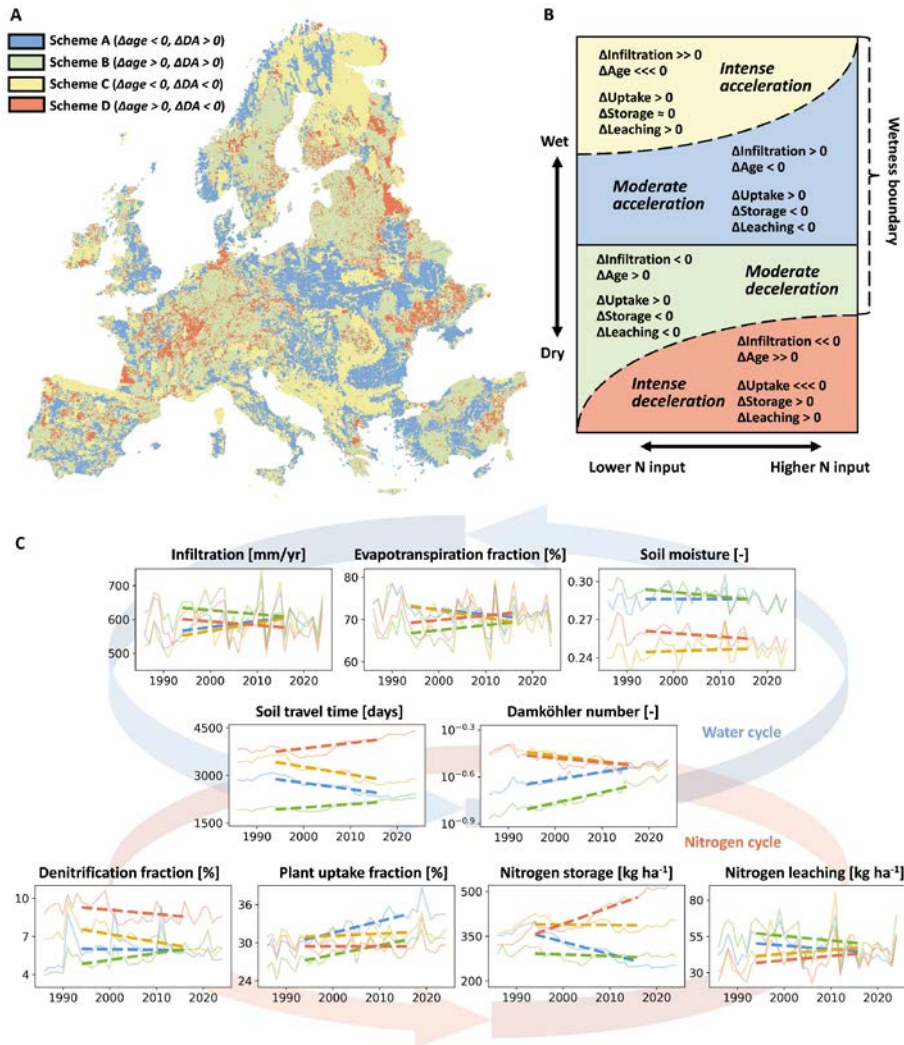


Fig. 3. Divergent evolution schemes of water and nitrogen cycling. Panel (A) and (B) show their spatial distribution and conceptual schematics, respectively. Panel (C) summarises temporal trends of key hydrological and nitrogen states, fluxes, and statistics under each of the four schemes. The full and dotted lines represent the annual means and linear regressions, respectively. Age, Uptake, Leaching, and Leaching are the abbreviation of soil travel time, nitrogen uptake (sum of soil denitrification and plant uptake), soil water nitrogen storage, and nitrogen leaching, respectively.

Divergent Trajectories of Nitrogen Evolution in an Aging Future

The co-evolution of water and nitrogen cycling over the past four decades raises a critical question: will these trajectories persist under future climate change? To explore this, we extended the simulation towards 2100 based on ensembles of CMIP6 projections (text S9). Two scenarios, SSP1-2.6 and SSP5-8.5, were investigated, representing low-emission sustainable and high-emission fossil-fuel development pathways, respectively.

Future projections reveal divergent hydrological responses along a latitudinal gradient, shifting from acceleration in high-latitude regions to deceleration in Central-West, Eastern, and Southern Europe (fig. 4D, S10). The trends are mainly driven by precipitation variability, exhibiting a “WWDD” trend where wet and dry regions get wetter and drier due to the warming-induced changes in atmospheric water-vapor concentration (fig. S9) (25). An amplified drying is expected under the high-emission scenario due to higher temperature, radiation and the resulting precipitation change following the Clausius-Clapeyron relationship (26). This led to stronger deceleration of water cycling, evidenced by a decrease in median young water fraction of 1.8% by 2100 under SSP5-8.5 while remaining relatively stable in most regions under SSP1-2.6 (fig. 4A). Notably, dry regions exhibited additional vulnerability to climatic change in both scenarios (27), as the median young water fractions declined to 4.8% (SSP1-2.6) and 3.5% (SSP5-8.5) across Eastern-Southern Europe, respectively (fig. S10).

This hydroclimatic discrepancy further propagated to nitrogen cycling, nudging it along diverse trajectories. Under the low-emission scenario (SSP1-2.6), the acceleration and deceleration of water cycling remained generally mild (fig. 4D), largely confined within the wetness boundaries under limited climatic variability (fig. S8). Combined with increasing temperatures that extended growing seasons, these conditions substantially enhanced nitrogen uptake, resulting in positive shifts in Damköhler numbers across 75.7% of Europe. Such enhanced uptake efficiency was even stronger under the high-emission scenario (SSP5-8.5) due to the higher temperature, accounting for 78.3% of Europe (fig. 4E). However, further drying in Eastern and Southern Europe projected potential hydrological perturbations beyond the lower wetness boundaries under SSP5-8.5, leading to systematic moisture-induced depression of nitrogen uptake that overrode the extended residence times (fig. S11C). In these regions, nitrogen storage is projected to double by 2100 (fig. S11F), posing severe challenges to water quality due to quick flushing of accumulated nitrogen during flood events (28), a risk exacerbated by projected shifts toward extreme precipitation events with higher frequency and intensity (29).

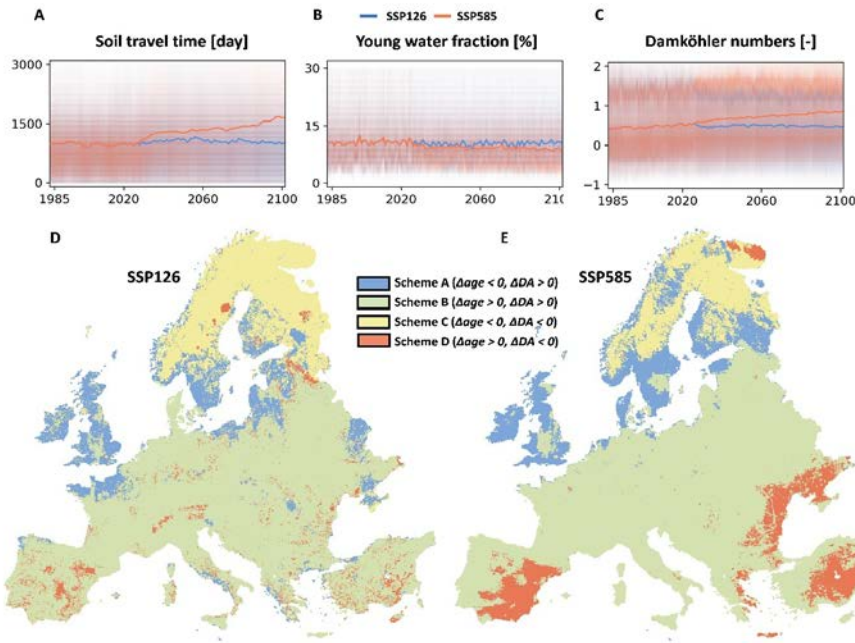


Fig. 4. The projected evolution of water and nitrogen cycling from 2025 to 2100. Panels (A-C) show the temporal dynamics of median soil travel time, young water fraction, and Damköhler numbers across Europe, respectively. Panels (D) and (E) show the spatial distribution of the four water–nitrogen co-evolution schemes under SSP1-2.6 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios. The schemes are classified based on the projected changes in soil travel time and Damköhler numbers between 2015-2025 and 2090-2100 (fig. S10).

Discussion

A persistent barrier of understanding nitrogen cycling arises from the long-standing neglect of water velocities (7), despite their fundamental control over solute transport and mixing in landscapes (20). Consequently, water quality modelling often remains a grey box — capable of reproducing riverine water-quality dynamics yet sometimes for “for the wrong reasons” (8, 12, 30). Here, our isotope-aided water velocity framework, though subject to some inherent uncertainties (text S10), represents a step towards unboxing the complex interactive water-nitrogen co-cycling through the lens of velocities. Such an approach complements previous studies focusing primarily on celerity and offers important perspectives on several enduring puzzles in nitrogen research. For example, the delayed ecohydrological response to nitrogen interventions, over years to decades (31), can not only be attributed to long groundwater residence times, but also the prolonged soil travel times in European lowlands. Likewise, the

stronger leaching in Central-Western relative to Eastern-Southern Europe emerges not only from higher fertilizer inputs and deposition (32) but also from faster hydrological turnover.

Among these insights, one key finding is how water velocities have reshaped nitrogen cycling under climate change. We reveal that the evolution trajectories of nitrogen cycling depend primarily on the magnitude of velocity shifts: mild changes promote positive evolution (declining nitrogen storage and leaching), whereas strong acceleration or deceleration drives negative evolution (increasing storage or leaching). To conceptualise this behaviour, we introduce the concept of “wetness boundaries”, where transitions within or across these boundaries determine whether evolution is positive or negative. These boundaries are shaped by the local wetness conditions and evolve along the changing climate and anthropogenic boundaries.

This theory reframes the long-standing question of whether global warming will exacerbate nitrogen pollution. Based on current simulations, the answer is unlikely for most of Europe. Warming generally decelerates water cycling, extending water travel times and promoting nitrogen uptake (33). Even where warming accelerates water cycling, as in Northern Europe, the shortened residence times are offset by temperature-stimulated uptake and extended growing seasons. However, the magnitude of hydrological shifts remains pivotal for nitrogen evolution, which may push ecosystems beyond the wetness boundaries under high-mission scenarios (SSP5-8.5). An example arises from Eastern and Southern Europe where moisture-induced suppression of nitrogen uptake was projected with subsequent nitrogen accumulation (24). Such drought-induced deterioration (Scheme D), reflecting dual vulnerability of water quantity and quality, is expected to emerge not only in Europe, but also in other regions like Central–East Asia where declining water storage has been observed (34) and is projected to exacerbate in the 21st century (35). Similarly, the opposite scheme (Scheme C) is likely to occur in tropical regions (e.g., South America and Southeast Asia) where rapid water cycling may further intensify under future warming (27). These extrapolations suggest a greater global risk of nitrogen deterioration than what European projections alone would imply (36).

How can such negative evolution trajectories be prevented? Within the water velocity framework, the central objective would be to keep ecosystems from crossing their wetness boundaries. The direct route is to limit the magnitude of climatic shifts by reducing fossil-fuels emissions (37). In parallel, hydrological shifts can be moderated through anthropogenic interventions, e.g., constructing wetlands as riverine buffers to decelerate flow velocities (12). Finally, we can expand the safe operating space by widening wetness boundaries through measures that reduce nitrogen inputs, including systematic crop rotation (38), optimizing fertilization (39), improved wastewater treatment (40), and developing varieties for improved nitrogen use efficiency with breeding or genetically engineering techniques (36).

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Methodology: SW

Software: SW

Visualization: SW

Supervision: CS, DT

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586 **Competing interests:** Authors declare that they have no competing interests.
587 **Data and materials availability:** The model EcoTWIN v1.0 is archived in
588 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.16747633> (41). For further development please refer to GitHub
589 repository: <https://github.com/songjun-wu/EcoTWIN>. The sources of geographic and climatic
590 data and observations of discharge, in-stream isotopes, and instream nitrate are introduced in
591 Supplementary material (text S2 and S3). No new materials were generated for this study.

592

593 **Supplementary Materials**

594 Materials and Methods

595 Supplementary Text

596 Figs. S1 to S11

597 Tables S1 to S9

598 References (42-87)

Kommentiert [JS1]: This dataset must be assigned a reference number and included in the list of References and Notes because it has a DOI. Please note that this means references listed in both the main manuscript and the Supplementary Materials must be renumbered accordingly.