Nature Communications

Supplementary Information for

Prominence of the tropics in the recent rise of global nitrogen pollution

Minjin Lee et al.

Correspondence to: minjinl@princeton.edu

Supplementary Figure 1. River discharge and dissolved N loads. a, b, Simulated river discharge (10³ $(m³ s⁻¹)$ (a) and dissolved N (DN) loads (ktN yr⁻¹) (b) for the year 1995.

Supplementary Figure 2. Reported and simulated river discharge and N loads. LM3-TAN results were compared with reported river discharge and measurement-based estimates of dissolved organic N (DON) loads and concentrations from 21 large rivers¹⁻² and reported river discharge and measurementbased estimates of dissolved inorganic N (DIN) loads and concentrations from 33 large rivers²⁻³ for the year 1995 (Supplementary Table 2). **a, b,** discharge in m³ s⁻¹ (Log-scale); **c, d,** DIN and DON loads in kt yr-1 (Log-scale); **e, f,** DIN and DON loads in kg km-2 yr-1 (Log-scale); **g, h,** DIN and DON concentrations in mg l^{-1} (Log-scale).

Supplementary Figure 3. Global land N storage and fluxes under different scenarios. a-d, Land N storage (cyan), total Nr inputs (black), and total N outputs (orange) in simulations with BNF settings spanning the upper (a) and lower (b) bounds of the published ranges⁴⁻⁵, different fertilizer inputs⁶(c), and a different LULUC scenario without shifting cultivation⁷ (**d**) (See Methods). All plots show 30-year moving averages from 1750 to 2005.

Supplementary Figure 4. Prominence of the tropics in global N pollution. Tropical (global) land N pollution was estimated as the sum of N outputs from tropical (global) land, minus the sum of environmentally benign portions of the outputs (See Methods and Supplementary Note 2). These estimates from the no CO_2 fertilization simulation suggest that the tropics create 57 \pm 6% of global land N pollution despite covering only 34% of global land area and receiving far lower amounts of synthetic fertilizers than the extratropics. The reported uncertainties consider the sensitivity of the pollution estimates to different partitioning of the outputs into environmentally benign vs. pollutant forms.

Supplementary Figure 5. Land N fluxes in the tropics and extratropics. This figure shows results, which were simulated by using the low BNF setting (See Methods and Supplementary Table 3). **a, b,** Land Nr inputs include atmospheric deposition (light orange), synthetic fertilizers (sky-blue), biological N fixation (BNF) in non-agricultural (plum) and agricultural (purple) lands. **c, d,** Land N outputs include river dissolved organic N (DON) exports (green), river dissolved inorganic N (DIN) exports (blue), soil and freshwater denitrification (light green), fire emissions (orange), net harvest in agricultural (red) and non-agricultural (brown) lands. **e, f,** N fluxes to land storage. All plots show 30-year moving averages from 1750 to 2005.

Supplementary Figure 6. Land N fluxes in the tropics and extratropics. This figure shows results, which were simulated by using the high BNF setting (See Methods and Supplementary Table 3). **a, b,** Land Nr inputs include atmospheric deposition (light orange), synthetic fertilizers (sky-blue), biological N fixation (BNF) in non-agricultural (plum) and agricultural (purple) lands. **c, d,** Land N outputs include river dissolved organic N (DON) exports (green), river dissolved inorganic N (DIN) exports (blue), soil and freshwater denitrification (light green), fire emissions (orange), net harvest in agricultural (red) and non-agricultural (brown) lands. **e, f,** N fluxes to land storage. All plots show 30-year moving averages from 1750 to 2005.

Supplementary Figure 7. Land N fluxes in the tropics and extratropics. This figure shows results, which were simulated by using a LULUC scenario without shifting cultivation⁷. a, b, Land Nr inputs include atmospheric deposition (light orange), synthetic fertilizers (sky-blue), biological N fixation (BNF) in non-agricultural (plum) and agricultural (purple) lands. **c, d,** Land N outputs include river dissolved organic N (DON) exports (green), river dissolved inorganic N (DIN) exports (blue), soil and freshwater denitrification (light green), fire emissions (orange), net harvest in agricultural (red) and non-agricultural (brown) lands. **e, f,** N fluxes to land storage. All plots show 30-year moving averages from 1750 to 2005.

Supplementary Figure 8. Land N fluxes in the tropics and extratropics. This figure shows results, which were simulated by using fertilizer inputs from Lu and Tian⁶. **a**, **b**, Land Nr inputs include atmospheric deposition (light orange), synthetic fertilizers (sky-blue), biological N fixation (BNF) in nonagricultural (plum) and agricultural (purple) lands. **c, d,** Land N outputs include river dissolved organic N (DON) exports (green), river dissolved inorganic N (DIN) exports (blue), soil and freshwater denitrification (light green), fire emissions (orange), net harvest in agricultural (red) and non-agricultural (brown) lands. **e, f,** N fluxes to land storage. All plots show 30-year moving averages from 1750 to 2005.

Supplementary Figure 9. Historical human land-use changes. Thirty-year moving averages of historical (1750-2005) land-use fraction changes for the Mackenzie (blue), Colorado (blue-green), Amazon (green), Parana (yellow), and Mississippi (red) River Basins. **a,** Agricultural land use (i.e., cropland and pasture); **b,** All land use disturbed by human activities (i.e., agricultural land use and secondary land use – abandoned agricultural land or regrowing forest after logging).

Supplementary Figure 10. Global distributions of historical human land use. Contemporary (1976- 2005 mean) basin-wide mean fraction of human land use for 159 globally-distributed major river basins. **a,** Agricultural land use (cropland and pasture); **b,** All land use disturbed by human activities (i.e., agricultural land use and secondary land use (abandoned agricultural land or regrowing forest after logging)).

Supplementary Figure 11. A long-term increase in the aboveground biomass density in Amazonian intact forests. Our simulation shows positive net biomass changes in Amazonian intact forests during 1983-2005 (blue solid line), which are consistent with corresponding uncertainty bounds (shaded orange area) reported in Brienen and colleagues⁸.

Supplementary Figure 12. Sensitivity tests of different fractions to divide Nr inputs into three N species. Each of Nr inputs was divided into three N species (i.e., organic, ammonium, and nitrate plus nitrite N) by multiplying reported fractions (See Methods and Supplementary Table $4)^{9-10}$. Sensitivity tests suggest that changing fractionation of N species has almost no influence on total land N outputs from global, tropical, and extratropical lands.

^APrimary plus secondary lands. (See Methods for a land-use description.)

^BThe sum of Lu and Tian⁶'s fertilizer to croplands and Bouwman and colleagues¹⁵'s fertilizer allocated to grasslands in mixed systems. (See Methods for model forcing and simulations.)

CUpper bound on total denitrification N_2 emissions. These fluxes are likely reduced by denitrification nitrous oxide (N_2O) emissions. (See Supplementary Note 2.)

 D_{Total denitrification N₂ emissions.

ELower bound on other emissions of NO_x , NH_3 , and N_2O . These fluxes are likely enhanced by denitrification N_2O emissions. (See Supplementary Note 2.)

 FNO_x and $NH₃$ emissions from food, energy, and natural sources, except combustion processes that create new Nr (See Table 2 in Galloway and colleagues⁴) plus N₂O emissions from soils and rivers (See Table 3 in Galloway and colleagues⁴).

 ${}^{G}NO_x$ and NH_3 emissions from agriculture, biomass and biofuel burning, and soils under natural vegetation plus N_2O emissions from agriculture, biomass and biofuel burning, human excreta, and soils under natural vegetation (See Table 6.9 in Ciais and colleagues 20).

Supplementary Table 1. Comparison of simulated global land N budgets with published estimates. References are marked as superscript: 1, Green and colleagues⁵; 2, Galloway and colleagues⁴; 3, Herridge and colleagues¹¹; 4, Vitousek and colleagues¹²; 5, Cleveland and colleagues¹³; 6, Cleveland and colleagues¹⁴; 7, Bouwman and colleagues¹⁵; 8, Lu and Tian⁶; 9, Galloway and colleagues¹⁶; 10, Mayorga and colleagues¹⁷; 11, Seitzinger and colleagues¹⁸; 12, Bouwman and colleagues¹⁹; 13, Ciais and colleagues²⁰; 14, Dentener and colleagues²¹; 15, Zaehle²²; 16, Post and colleagues²³ and references in Post and colleagues. Units are TgN yr⁻¹ for fluxes and TgN for storage. The values in parentheses are the results with a range of BNF settings⁴⁻⁵, different fertilizers^{6,15}, different LULUC⁷, and different fractionation of \overline{N} species in Nr inputs⁹⁻¹⁰ (See Methods).

Supplementary Table 2. Reported river discharge and N loads. LM3-TAN results were compared with reported river discharge and measurement-based estimates of dissolved organic N (DON) loads and concentrations from 21 large rivers $1-2$ and reported river discharge and measurement-based estimates of dissolved inorganic N (DIN) loads and concentrations from 33 large rivers²⁻³ for the year 1995 (Supplementary Figures 1 and 2). We chose the rivers of which basin areas are larger than 100,000 km² and log_{10} of their discharges are larger than 2.2.

Supplementary Table 3. Newly introduced or adjusted parameters from the earlier developments. The calibration factors were introduced by Lee and colleagues^{24} to compensate for processes that were not accounted for in the model, such as impacts of soil microbes and N storage in lentic systems. The incorporation of the lake N cycle into the model led these parameters to be adjusted at lower values than in the previous development. Uncertainty tests of low and high BNF $(116$ and 145 TgN yr⁻¹) were simulated by setting an upper limit of BNF as 40 and 120 kgN ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ respectively (See Supplementary Table 1 and Supplementary Note 1).

Supplementary Table 4. Reported fractions to divide N inputs into three N species. Atmospheric deposition was divided into ammonium and nitrate plus nitrite N by using reported fractions of multimodel mean N deposition from the Atmospheric Chemistry and Climate Model Intercomparison Project⁹. For fertilizers, manure, and urban wastewater, reported input fractions for the Chesapeake Bay Program's Watershed Model were adopted¹⁰. We did not conduct sensitivity tests for urban wastewaters, because their amount is very small compared to the other N sources. Sensitivity tests show that different fractions (i.e., -25% and +25% fractions of the dominant N species for each N source) have almost no influence on land N storage and fluxes (Supplementary Figure 12).

Supplementary Note 1. Comparison of simulated global land nitrogen (N) budgets with published estimates. We compare simulated global land N storage and fluxes with published estimates in 16 different studies^{4-6,11-23} (Supplementary Table 1). We focus on agreement during the contemporary period, which is of primary interest to the results of this paper and for which more data is available. While published N storage and flux estimates are invaluable in identifying and understanding the dominant global N cycling processes, the authors of these studies also acknowledge considerable uncertainties due to sparse measurements and subsequent assumptions required to estimate the global magnitude of different N cycling processes. We thus emphasize consistency in the magnitude and direction of N storage and fluxes.

Simulated contemporary BNF in our baseline simulation (128 TgN yr⁻¹) is between 112 TgN yr⁻¹ estimated by Green and colleagues⁵ and 139 TgN yr⁻¹ estimated by Galloway and colleagues⁴ (Supplementary Table 1a). Simulated preindustrial BNF $(76$ TgN yr⁻¹) is well within the latest estimate of 58 (40-100) TgN yr⁻¹ by Vitousek and colleagues¹². Simulated BNF in agricultural lands (cropland and pasture; 69 TgN yr⁻¹) is within the latest BNF estimate in agricultural systems (50-70 TgN yr⁻¹) by Herridge and colleagues¹¹. Our estimate lies on the high end of Herridge and colleagues¹¹'s range, in part, because the agricultural land area simulated by using the LULUC scenarios of Hurtt and colleagues⁷ (49 $10⁶km²$) is larger than the area considered to calculate the Herridge and colleagues¹¹'s estimate (27 10⁶km²). See Methods for a land-use description.

Simulated BNF in non-agricultural (primary and secondary) lands (59 TgN yr⁻¹) is smaller than published BNF in natural systems by Galloway and colleagues⁴ (107 TgN yr⁻¹) and by Cleveland and colleagues¹⁴ (128 TgN yr-1). In contrast to agricultural BNF, this is partly because the non-agricultural land area derived from Hurtt and colleagues⁷'s LULUC scenarios (82 10^6 km²) is smaller than the area considered to calculate the Cleveland and colleagues¹⁴'s estimate (104 10^6 km²). Furthermore, we note the suggestion by Vitousek and colleagues¹² that contemporary natural BNF is likely lower than their preindustrial estimate 58 (40-100) TgN yr-1 due to land conversion for cultivation and perhaps to downregulation of BNF under increasing anthropogenic Nr inputs. This implies that the estimates of Galloway and colleagues⁴ and Cleveland and colleagues¹⁴ may be high.

The range of published BNF estimates highlights the substantial uncertainty in this important element of the N budgets. As noted in the main text, we thus conducted uncertainty tests of low and high contemporary BNF (116 and 145 TgN yr⁻¹, see Supplementary Table 3). The results suggest that the different BNF settings have little effect on the patterns of global, extratropical, and tropical land N fluxes and pollution (Figures 3a and 4, Table 1, Supplementary Figures 3, 5, and 6).

Moving on to atmospheric N deposition, Galloway and colleagues⁴ estimated 59 TgN yr⁻¹ as the sum of atmospheric NO_y, (25 TgN yr⁻¹) and NH_x (34 TgN yr⁻¹) deposition to land, while Green and colleagues⁵ estimated 32 $TgN yr^{-1}$ (Supplementary Table 1b). We used the Green and colleagues⁴'s estimate of atmospheric deposition.

For fertilizer, we applied estimates from Bouwman and colleagues¹⁵ (114 TgN yr⁻¹) that are between the Haber-Bosch estimate by Galloway and colleagues⁴ (100 TgN yr⁻¹ for 1990s) and that by Galloway and colleagues¹⁶ (120 TgN yr⁻¹ for 2000s) (Supplementary Table 1c). We also conducted an uncertainty test of different fertilizer by Lu and Tian⁶. Applications of the both fertilizers show higher land N sequestration in the extratropics than in the tropics (Figure 3a) and create similar global, extratropical, and tropical land N pollution and fluxes (Figures 3a and 4, Table 1, Supplementary Figures 3 and 8).

Simulated N fluxes to the ocean (49 TgN yr⁻¹) is consistent with 48 TgN yr⁻¹ estimated by Galloway and colleagues⁴ and 45 TgN yr⁻¹ estimated by Mayorga and colleagues¹⁷ and Seitzinger and colleagues¹⁸ (Supplementary Table 1d). We further evaluate N fluxes to the ocean by comparing simulated regional

river dissolved inorganic and organic N loads and concentrations with measurement-based estimates from 47 major rivers, which are distributed broadly over the globe and influenced by various climates, biomes, and human activities¹⁻³ (Supplementary Figures 1 and 2, Supplementary Table 2). The correlations between the simulated and reported estimates of river discharge, N loads and concentrations all fall between 0.74 and 0.91.

Atmospheric N emissions in LM3-TAN arise from simulated denitrification (on land and within rivers and lakes), fire emissions, and harvested material, which is presumed to be primarily a precursor to atmospheric N pollution via various pathways including wood, biofuel, and waste burning, livestock respiration, emissions from food, human, and livestock waste^{4,15,20}. As described in the main text and Methods, the portion of the harvest associated with atmospheric emissions is calculated as the harvest remaining after subtracting manure applications, wastewater discharges to rivers, and the fraction of the harvest used for durable goods (e.g., home building). Manure applications and wastewater discharges are specified model forcings (See Methods, Bouwman and colleagues¹⁵, Van Drecht and colleagues³⁰) and subtracted accordingly, while Zaehle²² estimated human appropriation of N as 15 TgN yr⁻¹. This accounts for a 0.17 fraction of our net harvest, and we consider a range of 0.1-0.3 (Supplementary Note 2) to estimate LM3-TAN's total atmospheric N emissions of 178 (150-198) TgN yr⁻¹, which are consistent with 189 TgN yr⁻¹ estimated by Galloway and colleagues⁴ (Supplementary Table 1e).

LM3-TAN simulated soil and freshwater denitrification (N_2+N_2O) emissions of 96 (73-98) TgN yr⁻¹. This value would be further augmented by denitrification associated with harvested material. If we consider that 0.09 (0-0.2) of the harvested material is denitrified (See Supplementary Note 2), LM3-TAN produced a total denitrification estimate of 104 (73-116) TgN yr⁻¹. This compares favorably with denitrification N₂ emission estimates by Galloway and colleagues⁴ (115 TgN yr⁻¹) and by Bouwman and colleagues¹⁹ (96 TgN yr⁻¹) (Supplementary Table 1f). We note that the partitioning of total denitrification into N₂O (which is discussed in Supplementary Note 2 in the context of pollution estimates) is generally small relative to N_2 emissions^{4,19-20,22} and does not affect the agreement in the magnitude of these estimates. Furthermore, subtracting total denitrification from total atmospheric emissions yields an estimate of atmospheric N emissions that are not associated with denitrification $(74 (77-82)$ TgN yr⁻¹) which provides a lower bound on other emissions. These fluxes are likely enhanced by denitrification N_2O emissions (See Supplementary Note 2) and is consistent with emissions of 74 TgN yr⁻¹ estimated by Galloway and colleagues⁴ and 70 (60-82) TgN yr⁻¹ estimated by Ciais and colleagues²⁰ and Dentener and colleagues²¹ (Supplementary Table 1g).

Simulated N fluxes to the land storage is 32 TgN yr⁻¹ (Supplementary Table 1h), which is similar in magnitude though less than 60 TgN yr^{-1} estimated by Galloway and colleagues⁴ and consistent with estimates by other terrestrial ecosystem models (e.g., 27 TgN yr⁻¹; Zaehle²²). Galloway and colleagues⁴ and Gruber and Galloway³¹ acknowledged significant uncertainty in their global estimate and the gap between our estimate and theirs could be easily closed by higher total land Nr inputs of Galloway and colleagues⁴ (+22 Tg N yr⁻¹). Simulated global soils/litter N storage (86124 TgN) is within reported estimates (70000-820000 TgN) by Post and colleagues²³ and references in Post and colleagues²³ (Supplementary Table 1i).

Supplementary Note 2. Estimation of total land N pollution. Directly simulated N compartments and fluxes in LM3-TAN provide closed land N budgets and estimates of the total N fluxes from land to the atmosphere and ocean. Not all N fluxes, however, are harmful. N_2 is generally considered benign, as is N sequestered into durable goods (e.g., home building). It has furthermore been suggested that organic N exports from rivers to the coastal ocean are less harmful pollutants than inorganic N exports due to their relative long-lived nature³². This is, however, likely to only apply to acute local impacts at river mouths and does not preclude broader impacts on continental shelf and ocean scales. Total land N pollution for our study was thus estimated as total land N outputs, minus the sum of N_2 emissions and human appropriation of the net harvest into durable goods.

To estimate total land N pollution, we did three additional partitioning of the fluxes directly simulated by LM3-TAN: 1) the partitioning of the soil and freshwater denitrification into N_2O and N_2 emissions, 2) the partitioning of the net harvest into N_2 emissions, and 3) the partitioning of the net harvest transformed into durable goods. To test the robustness of our results to uncertainty in these partitions, an interval for each partition was assigned based on the scientific literature and 1000 Monte Carlo style calculations were conducted with random draws from a uniform distribution across the uncertainty interval. This was done for the baseline simulation, and for the 4 sensitivity simulations with different BNF, fertilizer inputs, and LULUC. Lastly, we created additional 1000 different total land N pollution estimates by excluding river organic N exports. These provided a total of 6000 permutations.

A N2O fraction of denitrification emissions can vary significantly in different climate, land use, and time (See Supplementary Materials in Bai and colleagues³³). Global budgets^{4,19-20,22}, however, suggest large scale characteristic values ~0.08-0.11. For a N₂O fraction of soil and freshwater denitrification, we assigned different intervals: (0, 0.2) for global land and (0, 0.3) for tropical land. The higher upper bound for tropical land was because natural tropical systems have been recognized as a major hotspot of N_2O $emissions³³⁻³⁴$.

A primary source of N_2 emissions associated with our net harvest are emissions from manure storage systems and wastewater treatment plants. Bouwman and colleagues¹⁹ estimated denitrification (N₂O+N₂) emissions from manure storage systems and wastewater treatment plants as 8 TgN yr⁻¹, which accounts for a 0.09 fraction of our net harvest. For fractions of the net harvest into N_2 emissions, we assigned an interval $(0, 0.2)$ for both global and tropical lands. We note that N_2O emissions from these sectors were assumed to be minor relative to N_2 emissions, based on the literature³⁵ that estimated N_2O emissions from wastewater treatment plants as 0.3 TgN yr⁻¹.

Zaehle²² estimated human appropriation of N as 15 TgN yr⁻¹, which accounts for a 0.17 fraction of our net harvest. For fractions of human appropriation of the net harvest into durable goods, we assigned an interval (0.1, 0.3) for both global and tropical lands.

Supplementary Note 3. Comparison of simulated and published C balances in various tropical systems. Tropical NLI, estimated as approximately 1 (0.97-0.99) during 1992-1996 (Figure 3a), suggests that tropical land as a whole (including all kind of land use and land cover, such as agricultural lands, intact and disturbed forests) is nearly N neutral. This result aligns with filtered inverse models against an additional observational constraint, suggesting nearly neutral net C fluxes from tropical land for the same period (1992-1996)³⁶. A recent study of plot measurements in Amazonian intact forests demonstrated a long-term increase in the aboveground biomass density since 1983 (\sim 0-3 Mg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹⁾⁸, and a similar pattern during 1983-2005 was captured in our simulation (Supplementary Figure 11). For the same period (1983-2005), however, our simulation suggests that tropical forests as a whole (including both intact and disturbed forests) are a net C source of 271 TgC yr^{-1} , based on changes in aboveground C storage. This result appears to be consistent with a recent satellite-data-based study³⁷, demonstrating a net C source of 425 TgC yr-1 from tropical forests during 2003-2014. However, we note that this comparison cannot be done more formally, because of unconsidered terms in Baccini and colleagues³⁷ approach, such as herbaceous and nonwoody vegetation, and because our simulations do not span the entire Baccini and colleagues³⁷ period. Analyses of our simulations were limited up to 2005, because the used CMIP5 dataset for land-use changes stops in 2005⁷.

Supplementary Note 4. Lake N cycle. Lakes receive dissolved organic N, ammonium, and nitrate plus nitrite from river inflows, and lose those by outflows to rivers and denitrification. Microbial processes in lakes are simulated by first-order loss function with respect to lake N content and with an adjustment for the influence of lake water temperature. Reported nonlinear regression function based on Lotic Intersite Nitrogen experiment reach-scale measurements^{28,38-39} was adopted to estimate reaction rate constants of lake denitrification. The lowest measured value (0.034 day⁻¹) was set as a minimum reaction rate constant of lake denitrification (Supplementary Table 3). A maximum reaction rate constant of lake denitrification (0.05 day−1) was calibrated to match reported and simulated river N exports. Previously used reaction rate constants of river mineralization and nitrification and river temperature reduction function 24 were also used for those of lakes.

$$
\frac{dL_{DOM}}{dt} = F_{DOM}^{in} - F_{DOM}^{out} - f_I'' k_{min}'' L_{DOM}
$$

\n
$$
\frac{dL_{NH_4^+}}{dt} = F_{NH_4^+}^{in} - F_{NH_4^+}^{out} + f_I'' k_{min}'' L_{Don} - f_I'' k_{nit}'' L_{NH_4^+}
$$

\n
$$
\frac{dL_{NO_3^-}}{dt} = F_{NO_3^-}^{in} - F_{NO_3^-}^{out} + f_I'' k_{nit}'' L_{NH_4^+} - f_I'' k_{dent}'' L_{NO_3^-}
$$

\nSupplementary Eq. (3)
\n
$$
f_I'' = T_I''^{(T'' - T_I'')}
$$

\nSupplementary Eq. (4)

$$
k''_{denit} = min\left\{k''_{denit,max}, max\left\{k''_{denit,min}, C_{d,s}\left(b_0 C_{N O_3}^{b_1} H^{b_2} c^t\right)\right\}\right\}
$$
Supplementary Eq. (5)

where *i* is DON, NH_4^+ , and NO_3^- ; L_i is lake N content (kg m⁻²); F_i^{in} and F_i^{out} are river inflows to lakes and river outflows from lakes (kg m⁻² s⁻¹); f_T'' is lake temperature reduction function; T_p'' is a parameter; T_r'' is a reference lake temperature (°C); T'' is lake water temperature (°C); k_{min}'' , k_{nit}'' , and k_{denit}'' are lake mineralization, nitrification, and denitrification (s⁻¹); $k''_{denit,min}$ and $k''_{denit,max}$ are minimum and maximum reaction rate constants of lake denitrification (s⁻¹); $C_{NO_3^-}$ is lake nitrate-N concentration (µmol L⁻¹); *H* is lake depth (m); b_0 , b_1 , and b_2 are constants; c^t is a log re-transform bias correction factor; $C_{d,s}$ is a unit-conversion constant (day s^{-1}).

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