

1 **Microbial necromass contribution to topsoil organic carbon storage of natural**
2 **and agricultural ecosystems**

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Abstract

Microbial necromass is an important component of soil carbon (C). Yet, the relative contribution of microbial necromass in shaping the global C stocks in agricultural and natural ecosystems worldwide remains virtually unknown. Here, we compiled data on fungal and bacterial necromass along with soil organic carbon (SOC) from the 0–20 cm soil layer across 486 study sites (145 agricultural and 341 natural ecosystems) to evaluate the relative contribution of fungal necromass C (FNC) and bacterial necromass C (BNC) to SOC. Our results indicated that, on average, FNC is two times more important than BNC in explaining SOC in both agricultural and natural ecosystems. The contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC were markedly higher in agricultural ecosystems compared with natural ecosystems, with a contrasting trend in the FNC/BNC ratio. Soil physicochemical properties (soil C/N ratio and clay content) were the most important predictors of the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC in both ecosystems, while geographical factor (elevation) was the most important predictor of the FNC/BNC ratio. Our study enhances the current level of understanding regarding microbially mediated biogeochemical cycling and SOC dynamics, underscoring the critical role of microbial necromass in the global C cycle.

Keywords: agricultural ecosystems, bacterial necromass carbon, fungal necromass carbon, microbial necromass carbon, natural ecosystems

1 Introduction

As the largest carbon (C) pool in the terrestrial biosphere, soil organic carbon (SOC) plays a pivotal role in shaping the global C cycle and climate system (Bellamy et al., 2005; Crowther et al., 2015). In brief, plant inputs provide the primary carbon source to soils, and microbial processing transforms these inputs into microbial necromass that can persist over long turnover times (Angst et al., 2021; Cotrufo et al., 2013). Although the living soil microbial biomass typically constitutes only about 2% of SOC (a ratio referred to as the microbial quotient; Anderson & Domsch, 1989; Liu et al., 2023), microbial necromass has been shown to contribute more than half and up to approximately 80% of SOC, depending on soil type and analytical methods (Liang & Balsler, 2011; Kallenbach et al., 2016; Liang et al., 2019). In other words, microbial necromass C (MNC) constitutes a substantial and critical component of stable SOC (Ma et al., 2018), and its dynamics are increasingly recognized for their role in regulating the terrestrial carbon cycle and climate feedbacks (Zhao et al., 2023). As such, there is growing scientific attention on the forces driving the accumulation of MNC and its contribution to SOC (Liang et al., 2017; Ni et al., 2020; Luo et al., 2022; Zhou et al., 2023). To gain a comprehensive understanding of MNC in the global C cycle, recent research has highlighted the distinct roles of fungal and bacterial necromass, revealing their contrasting responses to environmental and anthropogenic drivers. For instance, studies have shown that the accumulation and contribution of MNC are sensitive to factors such as aridity, primary productivity, agricultural management practices like tillage and fertilization, as well as key soil properties including pH and clay content (Zhang et al., 2021; Zhou et al., 2023; Xu et al., 2024).

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删除了: The traditional paradigm is that SOC storage is primarily formed directly based on plant material (Zhu and Miller, 2003; von Lützow et al., 2008). However, emerging evidence demonstrates that the stable SOC pool is predominantly composed of microbially derived organic compounds rather than plant-derived residues, indicating that microbial necromass may in fact be a primary source of stable SOC (Kallenbach et al., 2016; Liang et al., 2017). Microbes generate biomass by degrading plant-derived C, which is subsequently stabilized as microbial necromass through interactions with minerals and various processes within soil aggregates (Liang et al., 2017)...

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删除了: Although the living soil microbial biomass constitutes only about 2% of SOC, microbial necromass carbon (MNC) can contribute up to 50%–80% of SOC (Liang and Balsler, 2011; Kallenbach et al., 2016; Liang et al.,

106 Despite these advances, it remains unclear whether these organism-specific
107 mechanisms translate into systematic differences in necromass contributions between
108 ecosystems under varying degrees of human interference, such as agricultural versus
109 natural systems.

110 With the distinct roles of fungi and bacteria in decomposing organic matter and
111 stabilizing organic carbon in soil, the relative contribution to SOC of fungal and
112 bacterial necromass C could be used to track the dynamics of SOC storage (Malik et
113 al., 2016). The cell walls of fungi primarily consist of chitin (a nitrogen-containing
114 polysaccharide) and β -glucans, whereas bacterial cell walls are mainly composed of
115 peptidoglycan—a complex of sugars and amino acids (Lenardon et al., 2007). As
116 bacterial amino sugars is degradable rather than fungal chitin or β -glucans, fungal
117 necromass existed in soil generally with longer turnover time than bacterial necromass,
118 (Xu et al., 2022). Wang et al. (2021a) reported that the contribution of fungal
119 necromass carbon (FNC) to SOC exceeded 65%, considerably higher than that of
120 bacterial necromass carbon (BNC, 32–36%). This pattern is likely attributed to the
121 slower decomposition rate and stronger mineral-associative capacity of fungal
122 necromass. Furthermore, greater fungal biomass and higher turnover rates may
123 enhance the input flux of fungal necromass (Klink et al., 2022). The contributions of
124 FNC and BNC to SOC depended on the type of ecosystems (Wang et al., 2021a; Cao
125 et al., 2023; Xu et al., 2024). However, few studies on fungal and bacterial necromass
126 carbon and their contribution to SOC has been reported for ecosystems under human
127 interference (Zhou et al., 2023).

128 Terrestrial ecosystems can be broadly categorized into managed (agricultural) and
129 natural ecosystems (Hobbs et al., 2011; Keith et al., 2022). The agricultural
130 ecosystems are typical of plant litter derived from single crops under intensive human
131 management (Bohan et al., 2013), a context that typically leads to bacterial-dominated
132 soil communities (van Der Heijden et al., 2008). In contrast, natural ecosystems
133 display greater diversity in plant litter and root deposits (Wu et al., 2019). In such
134 ecosystems, fungal mycelial networks and stable soil aggregates are enhanced,
135 leading to higher FNC contributions to SOC (Sanauallah et al., 2020; Sae-Tun et al.,
136 2022). While bacteria are undoubtedly vital decomposers, fungi play a distinct and
137 often dominant role in the initial breakdown of complex plant polymers such as
138 cellulose and lignin. This functional prominence stems from their potent enzymatic
139 machinery and hyphal growth form, which enable physical penetration and decay of
140 solid organic matter (de Boer et al., 2005). As key decomposers, fungi are thus critical
141 in processing cellulose and other complex organic compounds (Hättenschwiler et al.,
142 2005). Accordingly, as demonstrated by Choi et al. (2018), soil cellulose-degrading
143 genes are frequently linked to fungal activity and abundance. Rather than implying
144 higher cellulose concentration per se, diverse plant inputs increase the chemical
145 heterogeneity of plant-derived polymers (e.g., cellulose, hemicelluloses, and lignin),
146 which broadens decomposer niches and often favors fungal communities in litter
147 horizons (Hättenschwiler et al., 2005; Štursová et al., 2012). In contrast, agricultural
148 monocultures tend to reduce fungal diversity unless mitigated by management
149 practices (Chen et al., 2020). Reflecting this context dependence, cellulose-rich inputs

删除了: In order to gain a comprehensive and in-depth understanding of the role of MNC in the global C cycle, many studies have focused on the relative contributions of fungal (FNC) versus bacterial necromass (BNC; Zhang et al., 2021; Zhou et al., 2023; Xu et al., 2024)....

删除了: The contribution of fungal and bacterial necromass to explain soil carbon is also poorly understood. With the

删除了: The distinct roles of fungi and bacteria in stabilizing and decomposing SOC, enable their necromass C to elucidate the kinetics of SOC storage and decomposition (Malik et al., 2016).

删除了: To be more specific, the chemical composition and functional characteristics of fungi and bacteria differ considerably, which may also contribute to different mechanisms of SOC formation. ...

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删除了: he contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC depended on the type of ecosystems...

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删除了: However, these studies on the relative contributions of fungal necromass carbon (FNC) and BNC to SOC, and ...

删除了: The agricultural ecosystems, heavily reliant on human management, typically exhibit uniform plant litter ...

删除了: In contrast, natural ecosystems, which are self-sustaining, display greater diversity in litter and root ...

删除了: Minimal human interference enhances fungal mycelial networks and stable soil aggregates, leading to ...

删除了: As key decomposers, fungi can break down cellulose and other complex organic compounds (Hättenschwiler et al., 2005)....

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219 [can enrich saprotrophic fungi in arable soils \(Clocchiatti et al., 2021\), whereas](#)
220 [bacteria may contribute substantially in mineral soils or under specific microhabitat](#)
221 [and land management conditions \(Štursová et al., 2012; Choi et al., 2018\). Due to](#)
222 [distinct chemical properties and organo-mineral stabilization pathways, fungal and](#)
223 [bacterial necromass exhibit differing turnover times, making the FNC/BNC ratio a](#)
224 [mechanistic tracer of SOC formation \(Angst et al., 2021; Kleber et al., 2021\).](#)
225 [Therefore, elucidating the global distribution and drivers of FNC, BNC, and their ratio](#)
226 [across agricultural and natural ecosystems is essential for predicting](#)
227 [management-induced shifts in SOC under varying climatic and soil conditions \(Zhang](#)
228 [et al., 2021; Zhou et al., 2023; Xu et al., 2024\).](#)

229 In order to explore the global patterns and drivers of FNC, BNC and the
230 FNC/BNC ratio in agricultural and natural ecosystems, we compiled data from 486
231 study sites worldwide. The aims of this study were: (1) to quantify the contributions
232 of FNC and BNC to SOC and the FNC/BNC ratio in agricultural and natural
233 ecosystems; and (2) to investigate the primary driving factors influencing the
234 contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC and the FNC/BNC ratio.

235 **2 Materials and methods**

236 **2.1 Data collection**

237 [We compiled a comprehensive dataset following the stepwise workflow. \(1\) We](#)
238 [collected peer-reviewed papers published from 1996 to 31 December 2022 from Web](#)
239 [of Science \(http://apps.webofknowledge.com\), Google Scholar](#)
240 [\(http://scholar.google.com\), and the China National Knowledge Infrastructure](#)
241 [\(http://cnki.net\), using the keywords: ‘amino sugars’, ‘microbial necromass’,](#)
242 [‘microbial residue’, ‘fungal residue’, and ‘bacterial residue’. Records from different](#)
243 [databases were merged and deduplicated to form an initial compilation. \(2\) We then](#)
244 [filtered the compiled studies to include only those focusing on topsoil, defined as the](#)
245 [0–20 cm layer. Studies reporting deeper or unspecified sampling depths \(e.g., 0–30](#)
246 [cm\) were excluded to ensure spatial comparability. \(3\) Full texts were assessed to](#)
247 [confirm the presence of paired fungal and bacterial residue data from the same](#)
248 [sample—specifically, glucosamine \(GluN\) and muramic acid \(MurA\), or directly](#)
249 [reported FNC and BNC values—to enable consistent cross-study calculation of the](#)
250 [FNC/BNC ratio. Studies lacking either biomarker were excluded from ratio analyses,](#)
251 [though those directly reporting the FNC/BNC ratio were retained. \(4\) Eligible](#)
252 [observations were classified into agricultural ecosystems \(including dry land, irrigated](#)
253 [cropland, and submerged paddy\) or natural ecosystems \(forest and grassland\) based](#)
254 [on study metadata. \(5\) For natural ecosystems, data from fertilized, polluted,](#)
255 [experimentally treated, or otherwise anthropogenically disturbed sites were excluded.](#)

256 In total, the final dataset consisted of 2094 observations from 486 sites worldwide
257 (145 agricultural and 341 natural sites; Figure 1) reported in 164 peer-reviewed papers.
258 Of these observations, 1001 were from agricultural ecosystems, and 1093 from natural
259 ecosystems. Among the 341 natural sites, 195 were forests and 146 were grasslands.
260 For agricultural sites, we used Google Earth Engine with the LGRIP30 V1 dataset to
261 classify agricultural ecosystem into dry land and irrigated cropland, and we overlaid
262

删除了: This suggests cellulose-rich soils may support higher fungal diversity and abundance. The low cellulose and chitin abundance in agricultural ecosystems might result from plant monoculture, while diverse plant inputs in natural ecosystems lead to rich soil cellulose content and higher fungal abundance and FNC (Song et al., 2022). Due t

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删除了: e compiled a comprehensive dataset from a range of peer-reviewed papers published before 2022 through the Web of Science (<http://apps.webofknowledge.com>), Google Scholar (<http://scholar.google.com>), and the China National Knowledge Infrastructure (<http://cnki.net>), using the keywords ‘amino sugars’, ‘microbial necromass’, ‘microbial residue’, ‘fungal residue’, and ‘bacterial residue’. Data compilation was conducted following four stringent criteria to reduce bias from selected publications: (1) fungal and bacterial necromass (or glucosamine [GluN] and muramic acid [MurA]) had to be reported simultaneously for the same samples; (2) only data from agricultural and natural ecosystems (i.e., grasslands and forests) were used; (3) for natural ecosystems, we excluded the data from fertilized, polluted, treated, or anthropogenically disturbed sites; and (4) we only included data from the top 0–20 cm of the soil profile reported in the publications, with other depths or unspecified soil depths excluded from our dataset...

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302 [the JRC surface-water seasonality layer to extract submerged paddy from the irrigated](#)
303 [class \(LGRIP30 irrigated value = 2 and JRC seasonality ≥ 1\). We ultimately classified](#)
304 [145 samples of agricultural ecosystems into 32 dry land, 72 irrigated, and 41](#)
305 [submerged paddy sites.](#)

306 We calculated the FNC and BNC based on [amino sugar concentrations following](#)
307 [widely used conversion factors, correcting total GluN for its bacterial share using](#)
308 [MurA;](#)

$$309 \quad FNC = \left(\frac{GluN}{179.17} - 2 \times \frac{MurA}{251.23} \right) \times 179.17 \times 9 \quad \text{Equation 1}$$

310 where 9 (unitless) is the conversion factor from GluN to FNC. [To estimate](#)
311 [fungal-derived GluN, we subtracted the bacterial share of GluN assuming an](#)
312 [empirical GluN:MurA molar ratio of 2:1 for bacterial residues.](#) 179.17 and 251.23 are
313 the molecular weights of GluN and MurA, respectively. [And their units are all g/mol.](#)
314 [The unit of FNC is mg/kg.](#)

$$315 \quad \frac{BNC = MurA \times 45}{\text{Equation 2}}$$

316 where 45 (unitless) is the conversion factor from MurA to BNC. [The unit of BNC](#)
317 [is mg/kg.](#)

318 Additional information including site geographic location (latitude and longitude),
319 topographical condition (elevation), climatic factors (MAT) and mean annual
320 precipitation [MAP]), soil physicochemical properties (pH, SOC, TN, clay content,
321 and soil temperature), and biotic (microbial and plant) factors were recorded.
322 Specifically, biotic factors included microbial biomass carbon (MBC), microbial
323 biomass nitrogen (MBN), MBC/MBN, net primary production (NPP), and
324 belowground biomass C density (BGBC). The data of topographical condition
325 (elevation) was classified as geographical factor in this study. When MAT and MAP
326 were unavailable in the original articles, we extracted them from the global climate
327 layers of WorldClim (<http://www.worldclim.org/>) with a grid precision of 30 × 30 arc
328 sec according to geographic location. Missing elevation data were extracted using the
329 *elevatr* package v.0.4.2 (Hollister, 2021) in the R environment. We acquired the data
330 on annual mean soil temperature from the study of Lembrechts et al. (2022), while
331 other absent soil physicochemical data were extracted from the Harmonized World
332 Soil Database

333 (<https://www.fao.org/soils-portal/data-hub/soil-maps-and-databases/harmonized-world>
334 [-soil-database-v12/en/](#)) and SoilGrids 2.0 (Poggio et al., 2021;
335 <https://www.soilgrids.org/>) using ArcGIS 10.3. [We supplemented missing climatic and](#)
336 [soil variables using high-resolution, globally interpolated datasets to ensure consistent](#)
337 [spatial coverage across all sites. After retrieving missing value from gridded data, we](#)
338 [typically calibrate them against field-reported values via a field-anchored bias](#)
339 [correction \(i.e., a site- or region-specific “delta” adjustment\) to minimize errors](#)
340 [introduced by gridded data. While the use of such data introduces inherent](#)
341 [uncertainties, these databases are widely adopted in global-scale ecological analyses](#)
342 [and provide the most feasible approach for a unified assessment.](#) In addition, the data
343 on NPP and BGBC were acquired from the studies of Zhao and Running (2010) and
344 Spawn et al. (2020), respectively. Missing MBC and MBN data were acquired using a

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356 global database with a high resolution of 30×30 arc sec (Wang et al., 2022).

357

358 2.2 Statistical analysis

359 All the statistical analyses were performed using R v4.1.3 (R Core Team, 2021).

360 Initially, the Shapiro–Wilk test was employed to assess the normality of our data,

361 followed by the application of Levene's test to evaluate the homogeneity of variances

362 across different groups. To detect the significant differences in the contributions of

363 FNC and BNC to SOC, and the FNC/BNC ratio between agricultural and natural

364 ecosystems, as well as between forest and grassland ecosystems, the Wilcoxon rank

365 sum test was conducted. [Kruskal–Wallis and Dunn's post hoc tests were used to](#)

366 [assess the significant differences of the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC, and](#)

367 [the FNC/BNC ratio among dry land, irrigated cropland, and submerged paddy.](#) We

368 used Spearman's rank correlation coefficient to explore the connections between the

369 16 variables considered in this study, including geographical and climatic factors, soil

370 physicochemical properties, and biotic factors. Since there was a strong positive

371 correlation between MAT and soil temperature (Figure S1), soil temperature was

372 excluded from our subsequent analyses. Linear regressions between different factors

373 and the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC and the FNC/BNC ratio were

374 performed. Dots and smoothing curves were drawn using the *geom_point* and

375 *geom_smooth* functions, respectively, in the *ggplot2* package v.3.4.0 (Wickham,

376 2016).

377 Variation partitioning analysis was conducted using the *vegan* package v.2.5.7

378 (Oksanen et al., 2020) to evaluate the effects of four types of factors on the

379 contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC and the FNC/BNC ratio in agricultural and

380 natural ecosystems at global scale. We used a variance inflation factor threshold of 3.3

381 to eliminate those variables that were strongly correlated and avoid multicollinearity

382 (Figure S2; Kock, 2015; Fanin et al., 2020). Following factor selection, boosted

383 regression trees (BRTs) were used to partition independent influences of geographical

384 (elevation) and climatic (MAT and MAP) factors, soil physicochemical properties (pH,

385 clay, C/N, and SOC), and biotic factors (NPP, BGBC, MBC, and MBC/MBN) on the

386 contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC and the FNC/BNC ratio with the *gbm* package

387 v.2.1.8.1 (Greenwell et al., 2022).

388 Utilizing the selected factors, we performed structural equation models (SEMs)

389 to quantify the effects (direct, indirect and both) of four types of factors on the

390 contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC and the FNC/BNC ratio using *lavaan* package

391 v.0.6.19 (Rosseel, 2012). According to the previously reported potential causal

392 relationships between explanatory and response variables (Wang et al., 2021a, 2021b;

393 Li et al., 2024), we established the *priori* structural equation models for agricultural

394 and natural ecosystems, respectively (Figure S3). The SEMs were fitted via maximum

395 likelihood estimation, with non-significant paths iteratively pruned through stepwise

396 exclusion, followed by model evaluation using modification indices and

397 goodness-of-fit criteria. The fit indices included degrees of freedom (df), chi-square

398 (χ^2 , $0 \leq \chi^2/df \leq 2$), comparative fit index (CFI > 0.9), and root mean square error of

399 approximation (RMSEA < 0.08), which were used to assess the adequacy of the SEM.

400 Map, box, bar, bubble, and lollipop charts were plotted with the *ggplot2* package
401 v.3.4.0 (Wickham, 2016). To enhance map visualization, the *ggnewscale* package
402 v.0.4.8 (Campitelli, 2022) was necessary alongside the *ggplot2* package v.3.4.0
403 (Wickham, 2016). Similarly, the *ggpubr* package v.0.5.0 (Kassambara, 2022) was an
404 additional necessity when creating lollipop charts.

3 Results

3.1 Fungal and bacterial necromass contribution to SOC in agricultural and natural ecosystems

409 Our analysis revealed statistically significant disparities in the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC in agricultural and natural ecosystems at the global scale ($P < 0.05$; Figure 2a, b). Notably, the average contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC were substantially higher in agricultural ecosystems than in natural ecosystems ($P < 0.001$; Figures 2a, b). For FNC, the average contribution was 34.39% in agricultural ecosystems, versus 29.24% in natural ecosystems. BNC contributed an average of 15.65% to SOC in agricultural ecosystems, compared to 14.02% in natural ecosystems (Table 1). Our results also indicated that the contributions of FNC to SOC were approximately twice those of BNC in agricultural and natural ecosystems (Table 1).

419 The contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC indicated no significant difference between dry land and irrigated cropland ($P > 0.05$), whereas both differed significantly from submerged paddy ($P < 0.05$; Figure S4a, b). In detail, across dry land, irrigated cropland, and submerged paddy, the mean contributions of FNC to SOC were 37.77%, 35.35%, and 22.82%, respectively, whereas those of BNC were 17.34%, 15.95%, and 10.55% (Table 1). Moreover, there were no significant differences in the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC between forest and grassland ecosystems ($P > 0.05$; Figure S5). Specifically, FNC contributed, on average, 29.11% to SOC in forests and 26.75% in grasslands, while BNC contributed 13.48% in forests and 14.34% in grasslands (Table 1).

3.2 Ratios of fungal and bacterial necromass in agricultural and natural ecosystems

430 Our results indicated that, at the global scale, the soil FNC/BNC ratio differs significantly between agricultural and natural ecosystems ($P < 0.05$; Fig. 2c), with a higher ratio in natural ecosystems (3.22) than in agricultural ecosystems (2.61; Table 1). The FNC/BNC ratio did not differ significantly among dry land, irrigated cropland, and submerged paddy ($P > 0.05$; Figure S4c), with average FNC/BNC ratios of 2.87, 2.51, and 2.62, respectively (Table 1). Similarly, there was no significant difference in the FNC/BNC ratio between forest and grassland ecosystems ($P > 0.05$; Figure S5), and the average FNC/BNC ratios for forests and grasslands were 2.80 and 3.58 (Table 1), respectively.

3.3 Associations of abiotic and biotic factors with microbial necromass parameters

441 Soil physicochemical factors were the most important influence on the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC across both ecosystem types (Figures 3a–d, 4a–d).

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These findings were further substantiated by the results obtained from the BRTs. These results indicated that soil physicochemical factors accounted for a substantial portion of the variance in the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC in agricultural and natural ecosystems (Figures 4a–d), and geographical factors played a similar role in explaining the FNC/BNC ratio (Figures 4e, f). More precisely, soil physicochemical factors were identified as the primary

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587 Specifically, they explained 16% and 17% of the variance in the contributions of FNC
588 and BNC to SOC in agricultural ecosystems, respectively (Figures 3a, c), and 20%
589 and 24% in natural ecosystems (Figures 3b, d). BRTs corroborated this pattern, with
590 soil physicochemical factors showing the highest relative influence (51% for FNC,
591 and 44% for BNC) in agricultural systems and 44% in natural systems (Figures 4a–d).
592 All BRT models were significant ($P < 0.001$), with explained variance 36–66%. While
593 soil factors dominated overall, responses to individual variables differed between
594 ecosystems. In detail, in agricultural systems, the C/N ratio ranked third for FNC after
595 clay and SOC (Figure 4a), whereas C/N was the top predictor for FNC in natural
596 systems and for BNC in both ecosystems (Figures 4b–d). Consistently, linear models
597 showed declines in the contributions of FNC and BNC with increasing C/N in both
598 ecosystems (Figures S6g, S7g). SEMs yielded convergent results, indicating both
599 direct and indirect pathways (Figures 5a–d, 6a–d). Notably, the direct and total effects
600 of soil physicochemical factors on FNC were negative in agricultural but positive in
601 natural ecosystems (Figures 5a, b, 6a, b), whereas the effects on BNC were negative
602 in both ecosystem types (Figures 5c, d, 6c, d).

603 Our results indicated that geographical factors were the most important
604 contributors to explain the FNC/BNC ratio in both agricultural and natural ecosystems,
605 accounting for 21% and 10% of the explained variance in the FNC/BNC ratio,
606 respectively (Figures 3e, f). The results of the BRTs suggested that geographical
607 factors played a similar role in explaining the FNC/BNC ratio (Figures 4e, f). In the
608 BRT models, geographical factors emerged as the primary influencers of the
609 FNC/BNC ratio in agricultural and natural ecosystems, accounting for 32% and 44%
610 of the variance in each case, respectively (Figures 4e, f). To be more specific,
611 elevation was the most significant geographical factors influencing the FNC/BNC
612 ratio in both ecosystems (Figures 4e, f). Moreover, the FNC/BNC ratio in agricultural
613 and natural ecosystems show significantly increased with an increase elevation
614 (Figure S8a). The results of SEMs also indicated that geographical factors were the
615 most influential factors for the FNC/BNC ratio in agricultural and natural ecosystems,
616 exerting both direct and indirect effects on this ratio (Figures 5e, 6e), with the
617 standardized total effect being positive (Figures 5f, 6f).

619 4 Discussion

620 4.1 Fungal necromass contributes two times more to SOC than bacterial necromass,
621 Our results show that in agricultural ecosystems, FNC/SOC ranged from 0.09% to
622 97.53% (mean \pm SE: $34.39 \pm 0.67\%$), and BNC/SOC ranged from 0.81% to 65%
623 ($15.65 \pm 0.33\%$). In natural ecosystems, FNC/SOC ranged from 0.92% to 96.29%
624 ($29.24 \pm 0.51\%$), and BNC/SOC ranged from 0.25% to 89.45% ($14.02 \pm 0.36\%$)
625 (Table 1). The FNC/BNC ratio ranged from 0.02 to 12.74 (2.61 ± 0.06) in agricultural
626 ecosystems and from 0.12 to 44.24 (3.22 ± 0.11) in natural ecosystems (Table 1).
627 Despite substantial variability at the individual sample level, the mean contribution of
628 FNC was approximately twice that of BNC in both ecosystem types. Moreover, the
629 mean FNC/BNC ratio was significantly higher in natural ecosystems than in
630 agricultural ecosystems ($P < 0.05$; Figure 2). Although this general pattern has been

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MNC is an important component of SOC (Ma et al., 2018), and its variations can influence the feedback effects on the C cycle and global climate change (Zhao et al., 2023). Our study indicated that the contributions of FNC to SOC were approximately twice those of BNC in agricultural and natural ecosystems. Although the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC were significantly higher in agricultural ecosystems than in natural ecosystems, the FNC/BNC ratio was significantly higher in the latter. In addition, soil physicochemical properties and geographical factors were the most important predictors of the contributions of MNC (FNC and BNC) to SOC and the FNC/BNC ratio in the two ecosystems, respectively. These findings enhance our understanding of microbially mediated biogeochemical cycling processes under current and future climate scenarios.

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删除了: Variation in the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC and the FNC/BNC ratio in agricultural and natural ecosystems... With growing appreciation for the critical role of microbial necromass constituents in forming SOC, it is critical to understand the different drivers of this process across the globe. Our results show that in agricultural ecosystems,

删除了: With growing appreciation for the critical role of necromass constituents in forming SOC, it is critical to understand the different drivers of this process across the globe. Our results show that in agricultural ecosystems,

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删除了: In this study, we found that the contribution of FNC to SOC significantly exceeded that of BNC, with the former contributing approximately twice as much as BNC to SOC in both agricultural and natural ecosystems (including forests and grasslands; Table 1). ...

664 reported in previous studies (Liang et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2021a; Zhang et al., 2023;
665 Ding et al., 2024), the systematic differences in the magnitude of these contributions
666 between agricultural and natural ecosystems—and their underlying drivers—have
667 remained poorly understood. Our study not only confirms the broad pattern but also
668 elucidates these ecosystem-level disparities and their environmental determinants.
669 Consistent with our finding that the contribution of fungal necromass carbon (FNC) to
670 SOC exceeded that of bacterial necromass carbon (BNC) in both ecosystem types
671 (Table 1), the predominance of fungal necromass may be attributed to its more
672 recalcitrant cell wall composition (e.g., chitin) and slower decomposition rate (Wang
673 et al., 2021a). Our BRT and SEM analyses further identified soil clay content and C/N
674 ratio as key drivers of FNC accumulation (Figs. 4a, 5a), reinforcing the importance of
675 organo-mineral associations in the stabilization of fungal-derived carbon.

676 Additionally, our study reveals previously unreported disparities between
677 ecosystem types, for example, the contributions of both fungal and bacterial
678 necromass carbon (FNC and BNC) to SOC were significantly higher in agricultural
679 ecosystems, while the FNC/BNC ratio was substantially elevated in natural
680 ecosystems. The higher contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC in agricultural
681 ecosystems may be attributable to two main factors. First, natural ecosystems
682 typically receive larger and more heterogeneous plant-derived carbon inputs than
683 agricultural systems. These inputs expand the plant-derived SOC pool and can dilute
684 the relative contribution of microbial necromass to SOC, thereby resulting in a lower
685 perceived contribution of microbial necromass in natural ecosystems (Angst et al.,
686 2021; Kleber et al., 2021). Second, the significantly lower soil C/N ratio in
687 agricultural ecosystems (10.78) compared to natural ecosystems (27.44) reflects
688 relative nitrogen enrichment, largely resulting from anthropogenic fertilization
689 (Castellano et al., 2015; Chen et al., 2020). This nitrogen-rich environment can
690 enhance microbial carbon use efficiency and alleviate nutrient limitation, thereby
691 promoting the production and accumulation of microbial necromass (Liang et al.,
692 2017). Supporting this mechanism, we found that the contributions of both FNC and
693 BNC to SOC decreased significantly with increasing soil C/N ratio in both
694 agricultural ecosystems (FNC/SOC: $R = -0.27$, $P < 0.001$; BNC/SOC: $R = -0.29$, $P <$
695 0.001) and natural ecosystems (FNC/SOC: $R = -0.17$, $P < 0.001$; BNC/SOC: $R =$
696 -0.35 , $P < 0.001$; Figures S6g, S7g). These results further underscore that a lower soil
697 C/N ratio—often indicative of higher nitrogen availability—is a key driver of
698 microbial necromass accumulation. It should be noted that although in situ plant
699 residues in agricultural systems (e.g., cereal straw) may have high C/N ratios, the
700 overall soil C/N ratio is reduced by management practices such as mineral fertilization
701 and the incorporation of low C/N organic amendments.

702 Furthermore, nutrient-rich conditions prevalent in agricultural systems (e.g., due
703 to fertilization) often select for bacterial-dominated communities, as many bacteria
704 exhibit γ -strategist traits that support rapid growth under high resource availability. In
705 contrast, natural ecosystems—characterized by lower nutrient availability and greater
706 resource heterogeneity—tend to favor fungal dominance, since fungi often function as
707 K -strategists with higher efficiency in decomposing complex organic matter under

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删除了: These findings were consistent with previous studies (Liang et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2021a; Zhang et al., 2023; Ding et al., 2024). On the one hand, this might be attributable to the various nutrient utilization strategies of the different microbial groups. Labile compounds in bacterial cell walls are preferentially utilized by microbes, resulting in a lower content of bacterial residue in soil (Hu et al., 2020). In contrast, fungi, with their more recalcitrant compounds (e.g., chitin), decompose slowly, allowing them to persist longer in soil. Over time, fungal residue contributes more significantly to SOC pools (Wang et al., 2021a). On the other hand, the thicker cell walls of fungi result in a lower surface area-to-volume ratio of their residual fragments, facilitating the easy formation of complex macromolecular aggregates (Zhao et al., 2023). This contributes significantly to the stability of fungal necromass and plays a crucial role in the accumulation of SOC. Additionally, the comparatively larger biomass of fungi may be a contributing factor to the predominance of FNC over BNC in terms of contributing to SOC in agricultural and natural ecosystems (He et al., 2020). In the present study, their contributions were found to be consistently higher in agricultural ecosystems as compared to natural ecosystems, with respective values of 34.39% vs. 29.24% for FNC, and 15.65% vs. 14.02% for BNC (Figures 2a, b, Table 1). ...

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760 resource-limited conditions (Strickland & Rousk, 2010; Yu et al., 2022). This shift in
761 microbial community composition is observed in our results, which show a
762 significantly higher FNC/BNC ratio in natural ecosystems across our global dataset
763 (Figure 2c, Table 1). A high FNC/BNC ratio signifies a fungal-dominated
764 decomposition pathway. Fungal necromass—rich in recalcitrant compounds such as
765 chitin—is more resistant to decay, and fungal hyphae play a key role in the formation
766 of stable soil aggregates that physically protect organic matter from degradation
767 (Lenardon et al., 2007). This pathway promotes the formation of stable, long-turnover
768 SOC pools essential for long-term carbon sequestration (Six et al., 2006; Lehmann et
769 al., 2020). Furthermore, fungi generally exhibit higher carbon use efficiency than
770 bacteria, meaning a larger proportion of assimilated carbon is allocated to biomass
771 production (and subsequently necromass) rather than being respired as CO₂ (Wang &
772 Kuzyakov, 2024). Thus, the fungal-driven pathway characteristic of natural
773 ecosystems represents a highly efficient conversion of plant litter into persistent soil
774 organic matter (Kallenbach et al., 2016; Malik et al., 2016). Conversely, the lower
775 FNC/BNC ratio observed in agricultural ecosystems reflects a bacterial-dominated
776 pathway, accelerated by practices such as tillage and nutrient amendments. This
777 pathway is associated with faster carbon cycling and greater carbon loss through
778 respiration. Although microbial necromass can accumulate under these
779 conditions—sometimes contributing more significantly to a reduced total SOC
780 pool—the resulting carbon is often less stabilized (Zhou et al., 2023). Therefore, the
781 FNC/BNC ratio serves not merely as a descriptive metric, but as a functional
782 biomarker that elucidates fundamental differences in the stability and persistence of
783 SOM between managed agricultural systems and natural ecosystems.

784 Notably, as major components of agricultural ecosystems, both dryland and
785 irrigated croplands exhibited significantly greater contributions of FNC and BNC to
786 SOC than submerged paddy soils, although the FNC/BNC ratio did not differ
787 significantly among these three systems (Figure S4). This pattern may reflect similar
788 aeration regimes in dryland and irrigated systems (predominantly oxygenated),
789 leading to comparable decomposition–transformation–mineral association pathways
790 and, thus, similar net contributions of fungal and bacterial residues to SOC
791 (Ghezzehei et al., 2019). By contrast, persistent or periodic flooding in paddy soils
792 induces anoxia, suppresses aerobic decomposition, and shifts metabolic pathways
793 (e.g., denitrification and methanogenesis), potentially suppressing fungal activity or
794 dominance and altering the relative accumulation and turnover of fungal and bacterial
795 necromass (Qiu et al., 2017), resulting in contributions that differ significantly
796 from—and are lower than—those in the other two systems. Flooding can suppress
797 fungi yet also enhance the joint retention of both fungal and bacterial necromass via
798 slower decomposition and mineral protection, yielding unchanged ratios but altered
799 totals or compositional pathways (Chen et al., 2021; Gao et al., 2024).

801 4.2 Driving factors of the change in fungal and bacterial necromass contribution to 802 SOC and their ratio

803 Deng and Liang (2022) suggested that the potential contribution of microbial

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删除了: Important driving factors for the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC and the FNC/BNC ratio...Our results indicated that soil physicochemical factors were key in determining the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC (Figures 3a–d, 4a–d, 5a–d). ...

删除了: Our results indicated that soil physicochemical key in determining the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC (Figures 3a–d, 4a–d, 5a–d). ...

814 necromass to the SOC pool was governed by the C/N ratio. This finding was
815 confirmed by our results (Figures 4b–d). As elaborated in Section 4.1, high N
816 availability (i.e., low soil C/N ratio) promotes the production and accumulation of
817 microbial necromass (Wu et al., 2025). Consequently, the contributions of both FNC
818 and BNC to SOC decreased with increasing soil C/N ratio (Figures S6g, S7g). In
819 agricultural ecosystems, high soil N levels primarily result from fertilization (Chen et
820 al., 2020). In contrast, natural ecosystems experience minimal anthropogenic
821 disturbance, N often acts as the key limiting factor for microbial activity (Elser et al.,
822 2007). Under N-limited conditions, microbes (both fungi and bacteria) allocate more
823 energy and C resources to the synthesis of N-acquiring enzymes (e.g., proteases and
824 chitinases). This shift in metabolic strategy reduces the C allocated to biomass
825 synthesis, thereby diminishing the amount of C ultimately converted into microbial
826 necromass (Mooshammer et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2024). Thus, although microbial
827 community composition differs between natural and agricultural ecosystems, the
828 regulatory role of soil C/N ratio in shaping their structure and function remains
829 consistent (Han et al., 2024). In our study, soil clay content was identified as the
830 predominant factor governing the contribution of FNC to SOC in agricultural
831 ecosystems (Figure 4a), with this contribution increasing concomitantly with clay
832 content (Figure S6d). This suggests that soils with higher clay and silt contents
833 generally accumulate greater amounts of microbial residues, particularly those derived
834 from fungi, which can be attributed to the promotion of stable organo-mineral
835 complex formation by abundant fine soil particles (Six et al., 2006 and Liang et al.,
836 2017). Furthermore, although agricultural management practices often disturb soil
837 structure, they simultaneously enhance clay enrichment and aggregate formation,
838 thereby providing effective physical protection for the long-term stabilization of
839 fungal-derived C (Chen et al., 2020; Mou et al., 2021; Zhou et al., 2023).

840 On the contrary, geographical factor (elevation) was identified as the most
841 influential predictor of the FNC/BNC ratio in both agricultural and natural ecosystems
842 (Figures 4e, f, 5f, 6f), with the ratio increasing significantly with elevation (Figure
843 S8a). Increasing elevation typically leads to decreased temperature, and increased
844 precipitation (Körner, 2007), conditions favoring fungi over bacteria due to higher
845 enzymatic capabilities and resource-use efficiency of fungi under the environments
846 (Chen et al., 2020; Yu et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2025). High elevation also results in
847 slower soil development, which can reduce the availability of soil nutrients
848 (Guerrero-Ramírez et al., 2020). This in turn increases environmental stress and
849 restricts bacterial activity, thereby favoring the accumulation and conversion of fungal
850 residues into necromass (Li et al., 2024). Our study further demonstrated that although
851 elevation had a direct effect on the FNC/BNC ratio, it also indirectly influenced the
852 ratio by modulating climatic factors, soil physicochemical properties, and biological
853 factors (Figures 5e, 6e). This may explain why elevation is always integrate other
854 environmental factor effects in the studies of MNC (Cui et al., 2023; Zhang et al.,
855 2025).

856 4.3 Limitations and uncertainties 857

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删除了: Several factors may account for the results. On the one hand, the soil C/N ratio regulates microbial community composition, thereby influencing the accumulation of FNC and BNC (Han et al., 2023). Specifically, a high C/N ratio often indicates a relative surplus of C and a limitation of N, which constrains microbial metabolism, reduces microbial turnover and biomass input, and consequently decreases the accumulation of FNC and BNC (Wu et al., 2025). On the other hand, under high C/N conditions, microbes tend to allocate more C to maintenance respiration or CO₂ release rather than biomass synthesis, leading to a lower efficiency of necromass production and diminished contribution to SOC (Liu et al., 2024). In addition, a high C/N ratio may also impair the binding capacity of microbial residues to soil minerals, thereby reducing their long-term stabilization and further weakening their contribution to SOC (Li et al., 2024). In contrast, soil clay content was the most predominant factor influencing the contribution of FNC to SOC in agricultural ecosystems (Figure 4a), and this contribution increased with increasing clay content (Figure S5g). Consistent findings have been reported by Six et al. (2006) and Liang et al. (2017), demonstrating that soils with higher clay and silt contents generally harbor greater quantities of microbial residues, particularly fungal-derived residues, due to the enhanced formation of stable organo-mineral complexes promoted by abundant fine soil particles. Moreover, agricultural management practices frequently disturb soil structure but simultaneously enhance clay enrichment and aggregate formation, thereby providing effective physical protection for the long-term stabilization of fungal-derived C (Chen et al., 2020; Mou et al., 2021; Zhou et al., 2023)....

删除了: On the contrary, geographical factor (elevation) was identified as the most influential predictors of the FNC/BNC ratio in both agricultural and natural ecosystems (Figures 4e, f, 5f, 6f), and the FNC/BNC ratio increased with increasing elevation (Figure S7a). ...

899 Although the present study provides important insights on global patterns and drivers
900 of soil microbial necromass in agricultural and natural ecosystems, we must clarify
901 two limitations. First, the limited data available on microbial characteristics, such as
902 microbial community composition, enzymatic activities, and the content of soil
903 aggregates and minerals hinder exploration of the drivers of soil microbial necromass.
904 Second, it is undeniable that our dataset is unevenly distributed, primarily
905 concentrating on the Northern Hemisphere, with sparse or nearly no data from other
906 regions such as Africa, South America, and Australia (Figure 1). Additionally, the
907 natural ecosystems in this study were limited to forests and grasslands, excluding
908 other natural habitats such as wetlands and deserts. The uneven distribution of data
909 may reduce the universality of MNC as a key driver of soil carbon pools in global
910 terrestrial ecosystems. Furthermore, the compiled studies employed varied
911 methodologies regarding sampling time, depth, and laboratory protocols. While such
912 heterogeneity is an inherent challenge in global meta-analyses, it likely introduces
913 additional variability and may constrain the direct comparability of certain data points.
914 Therefore, more standardized data from these important areas and biomes are clearly
915 required, and further investigation is warranted to fill the data gaps regarding the
916 contribution of MNC to SOC in terrestrial ecosystems.

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917 5 Data availability

918 The data and R code for this manuscript are available at
919 <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.28827383> (Lu, 2025).

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922 6 Conclusions

923 Our results indicate that, on average, fungal necromass carbon (FNC) contributes
924 approximately twice as much to soil organic carbon (SOC) as bacterial necromass
925 carbon (BNC) in both agricultural and natural ecosystems. The relative contributions
926 of FNC and BNC to SOC were found to be higher in agricultural ecosystems—an
927 effect that is mediated by differences in soil physicochemical factors. The FNC/BNC
928 ratio was significantly higher in natural ecosystems than in agricultural ecosystems,
929 albeit with a modest effect size, and was primarily driven by geographical
930 factors—particularly elevation. Our findings demonstrate that, despite considerable
931 variability among individual sampling sites, statistically significant differences exist
932 between agricultural and natural ecosystems in the contributions of fungal and
933 bacterial necromass carbon (FNC and BNC) to soil organic carbon (SOC), as well as
934 in the FNC/BNC ratio, at a global scale. These results underscore a potential
935 fundamental divergence in the pathways and mechanisms of carbon turnover and
936 stabilization between these two broad ecosystem types. These insights provide novel
937 evidence that ecosystem management type (agricultural versus natural) is a key
938 determinant of the pathways through which microbial necromass contributes to the
939 global soil organic carbon (SOC) pool. Future studies that integrate microbial
940 community composition with necromass dynamics across a broader range of biomes
941 will be essential to predict ecosystem-specific responses of this critical carbon pool to
942 global change.

删除了: Our results suggest that the contribution of FNC to SOC is significantly greater than that of BNC in both agricultural and natural ecosystems. The relative

删除了: The FNC/BNC ratio was significantly higher in natural ecosystems compared to agricultural ecosystems, primarily driven by geographical factors (elevation)...

删除了: . Our results reveal consistent trends in the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC, and the FNC/BNC ratio, which are indicative of ecosystem-level differences in C turnover and stabilization mechanisms across the globe.

删除了: These insights are conducive to a better mechanistic understanding of the role of microbes in the C cycle in terrestrial ecosystems, and could inform strategies for C sequestration and sustainable land management strategies in the context of global change.

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Author contributions

JL performed the data analysis and prepared the original draft. TC and MDB contributed to manuscript review and editing. WL and HS contributed to data collection. YJ contributed to data analysis. ZW supervised the project and contributed to the original draft.

Competing interests

The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interests.

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1380 **Table 1. Summary of the contributions of fungal necromass carbon (FNC) and**
 1381 **bacterial necromass carbon (BNC) to SOC and the FNC/BNC ratio in**
 1382 **agricultural and natural ecosystems at the global scale investigated in this study.**

Ecosystem	FNC/SOC (%)		BNC/SOC (%)		FNC/BNC	
	Range	Mean± SE	Range	Mean± SE	Range	Mean± SE
Natural ecosystem^{&} (<i>N</i> = 341)	0.92– 96.29	29.24 ± 0.51 b*	0.25– 89.45	14.02 ± 0.36 b	0.12– 44.24	3.22 ± 0.11 a
<i>Forest</i> (<i>N</i> = 195)	0.92– 96.29	29.11 ± 0.63 A [#]	0.94– 96.47	13.48 ± 0.43 A	0.22– 11.56	2.80 ± 0.07 A
<i>Grassland</i> (<i>N</i> = 146)	0.96– 93.89	26.75 ± 0.74 A	0.25– 89.45	14.34 ± 0.60 A	0.05– 44.24	3.58 ± 0.22 A
Agricultural ecosystem[%] (<i>N</i> = 145)	0.09– 97.53	34.39 ± 0.67 a	0.81– 65.00	15.65 ± 0.33 a	0.02– 12.74	2.61 ± 0.06 b
<i>Dry land</i> (<i>N</i> = 32)	<u>3.01–</u> <u>96.81</u>	<u>37.77 ±</u> <u>1.15 A[#]</u>	<u>0.81–</u> <u>65.00</u>	<u>17.34 ±</u> <u>0.65 A</u>	<u>0.13–</u> <u>9.12</u>	<u>2.87 ±</u> <u>0.12 A</u>
<i>Irrigated cropland</i> (<i>N</i> = 72)	<u>0.09–</u> <u>97.25</u>	<u>35.35 ±</u> <u>0.73 A</u>	<u>1.18–</u> <u>62.47</u>	<u>15.95 ±</u> <u>0.38 A</u>	<u>0.02–</u> <u>12.74</u>	<u>2.51 ±</u> <u>0.06 A</u>
<i>Submerged paddy</i> (<i>N</i> = 41)	<u>4.96–</u> <u>97.53</u>	<u>22.82 ±</u> <u>1.55 B</u>	<u>1.48–</u> <u>30.97</u>	<u>10.55 ±</u> <u>0.66 B</u>	<u>0.31–</u> <u>10.40</u>	<u>2.62 ±</u> <u>0.16 A</u>

1383 Note: *N* refers to the number of study sites;
 1384 [&]Natural ecosystem includes forest and grassland;
 1385 [%]Agricultural ecosystem includes dry land, irrigated cropland, and submerged paddy;
 1386 *Within the same column, values with different lowercase letters indicate a significant
 1387 difference in the same variable between agricultural and natural ecosystems
 1388 (Wilcoxon rank sum test; *P* < 0.05);
 1389 [#]Within the same column, values with different capital letters indicate a significant
 1390 difference in the same variable between forests and grasslands (Wilcoxon rank sum
 1391 test), as well as between dry land, irrigated cropland, and submerged paddy (Kruskal–
 1392 Wallis and Dunn’s post hoc tests; *P* < 0.05).

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1396 **Figure legends**

1397 **Figure 1. Global distribution of the sites used in this study.** Ecosystem types are
1398 distinguished by distinct shapes and colors, with the numbers in parentheses
1399 indicating the number of study sites for each ecosystem type.

1400 **Figure 2. Comparison of the contributions of MNC to SOC and their ratio in**
1401 **agricultural and natural ecosystems.** Colors indicate different ecosystems types.
1402 Significance levels: *** $P < 0.001$ and * $P < 0.05$.

1403 **Figure 3. Variations in the contributions of MNC to SOC and their ratio**
1404 **explained by four types of factors in agricultural and natural ecosystems.** Colors
1405 indicate different types of factors.

1406 **Figure 4. Relative influence of different factors on the contributions of MNC to**
1407 **SOC and their ratio in agricultural and natural ecosystems.** MAT, mean annual
1408 temperature; MAP, mean annual precipitation; MBC, microbial biomass carbon; SOC,
1409 soil organic carbon; C/N, the ratio of SOC to total nitrogen (TN); MBC/MBN, the
1410 ratio of MBC to microbial biomass nitrogen (MBN); NPP, net primary production;
1411 BGBC, belowground biomass carbon density. Colors indicate different types of
1412 factors.

1413 **Figure 5. The influence pathways of four types of factors on the contributions of**
1414 **MNC to SOC and their ratio in agricultural ecosystems.** Direct and indirect effects
1415 (a, c, e) and the standardized total effects (b, d, f) of different factors on the
1416 contributions of MNC to SOC and their ratio of agricultural ecosystems are shown.
1417 Standardized path coefficients representing the effect sizes of potential causal factors
1418 are indicated by numbers adjacent to arrows. The width of arrows is proportional to
1419 the potential causal effect between variables. The red arrows indicate positive effects,
1420 and the blue arrows indicate negative effects. The numbers adjacent to boxes of
1421 response variables denote the explained variance (R^2). Right-angled rectangles denote
1422 single variables, whereas rounded rectangles represent composite variables. Colors
1423 indicate different types of factors. Significance levels: *** $P < 0.001$, ** $P < 0.01$ and
1424 * $P < 0.05$. The *priori* models are shown in Figure [S3](#).

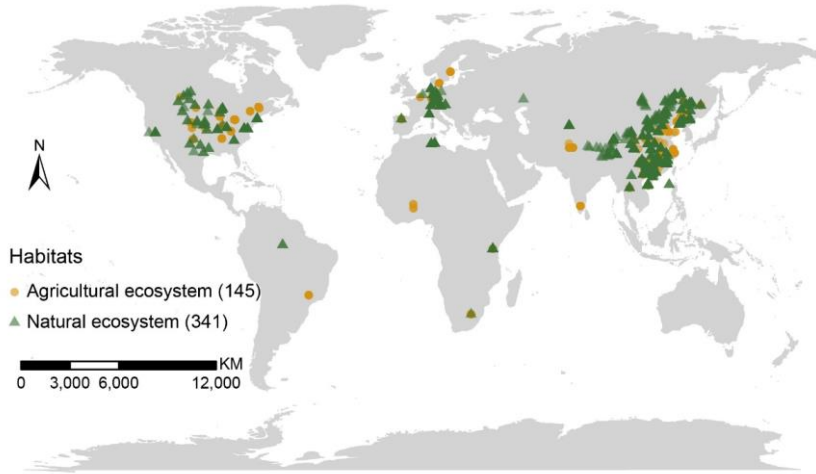
1425 **Figure 6. The influence pathways of four types of factors on the contributions of**
1426 **MNC to SOC and their ratio in natural ecosystems.** Direct and indirect effects (a, c,
1427 e) and the standardized total effects (b, d, f) of different factors on the contributions of
1428 MNC to SOC and their ratio of natural ecosystems are shown. Standardized path
1429 coefficients representing the effect sizes of potential causal factors are indicated by
1430 numbers adjacent to arrows. The width of arrows is proportional to the potential
1431 causal effect between variables. The red arrows indicate positive effects, and the blue
1432 arrows indicate negative effects. The numbers adjacent to boxes of response variables
1433 denote the explained variance (R^2). Right-angled rectangles denote single variables,
1434 whereas rounded rectangles represent composite variables. Colors indicate different
1435 types of factors. Significance levels: *** $P < 0.001$, ** $P < 0.01$ and * $P < 0.05$. The
1436 *priori* models are shown in Figure [S3](#).

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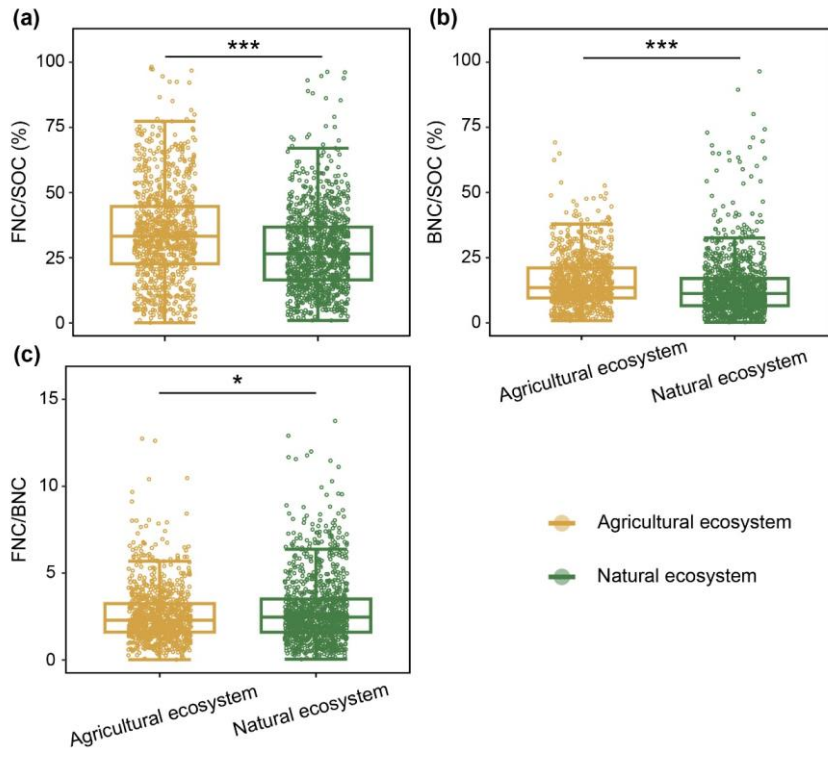
Figure 1.



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Figure 2.



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Figure 3.

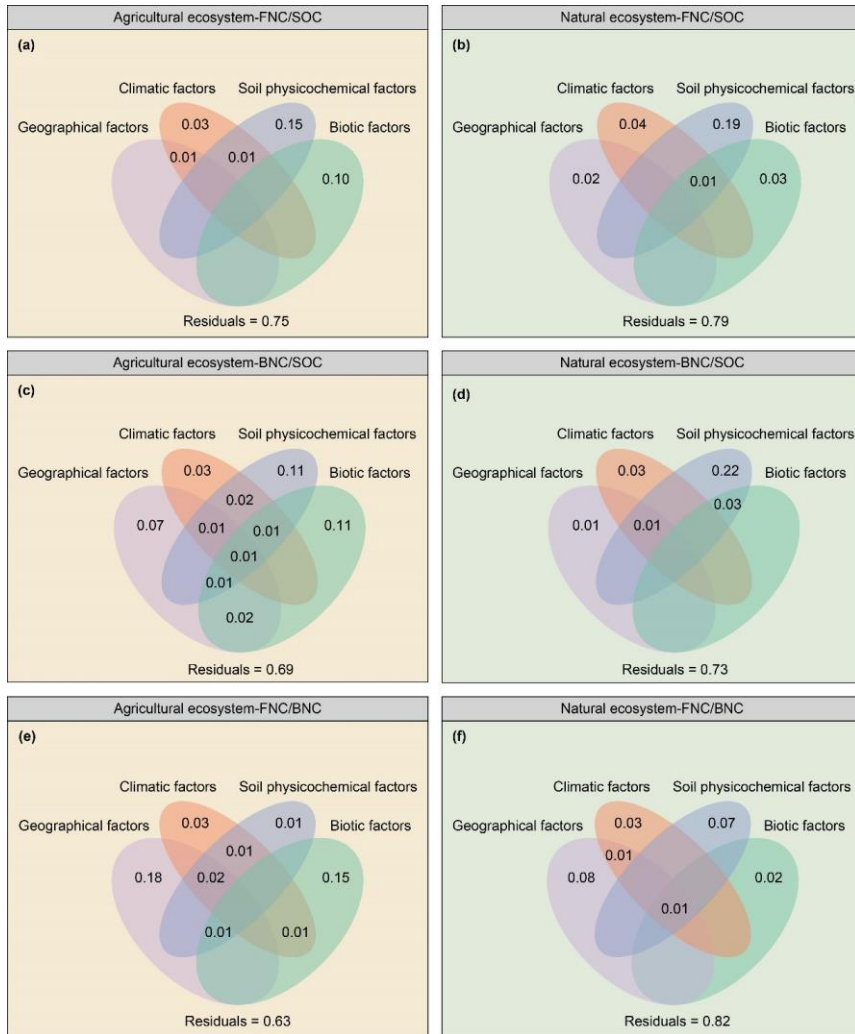


Figure 4.

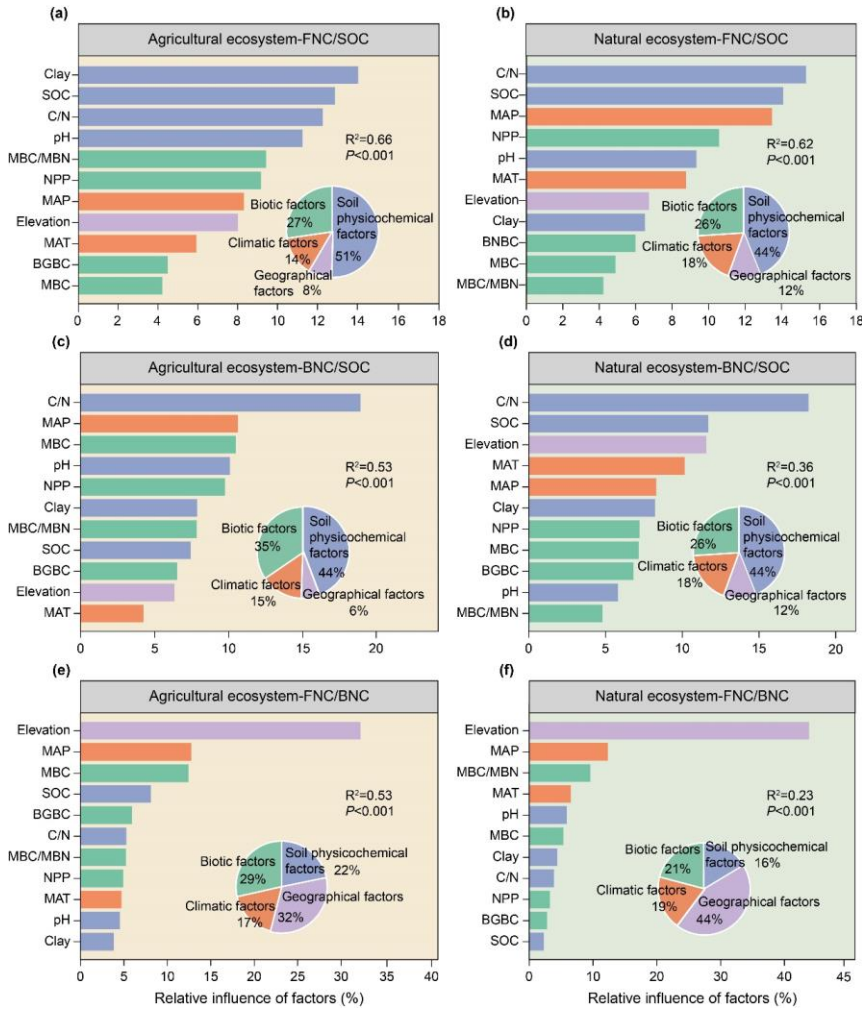


Figure 5.

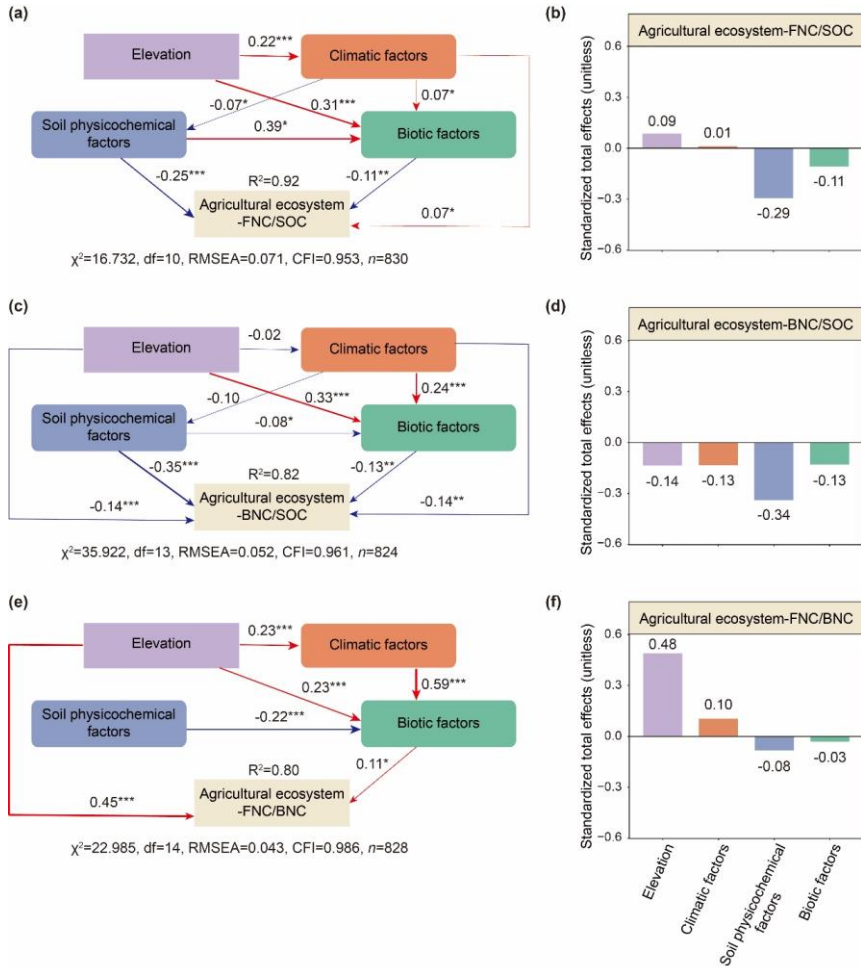


Figure 6.

