

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

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21 **Abstract**

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

38

39 **Keywords:** agricultural ecosystems, bacterial necromass carbon, fungal necromass
40 carbon, microbial necromass carbon, natural ecosystems

41 **1 Introduction**

42 Soils are the most important reservoir of organic carbon (SOC), playing a pivotal role
43 in shaping the global C cycle and climate system (Bellamy et al., 2005; Crowther et
44 al., 2015). Such carbon stocks are the result of key processes such as organic matter
45 decomposition. Plant inputs provide the primary carbon source to soils, and microbial
46 processing transforms these inputs into microbial necromass that can persist over long
47 turnover times (Cotrufo et al., 2013; Angst et al., 2021). Although the living soil
48 microbial biomass typically constitutes only about 2% of SOC (a ratio referred to as
49 the microbial quotient; Anderson & Domsch, 1989; Liu et al., 2023), microbial
50 necromass has been shown to contribute more than half and up to approximately 80%
51 of SOC, depending on soil type and analytical methods (Liang & Balser, 2011;
52 Kallenbach et al., 2016; Liang et al., 2019). As such, microbial necromass C (MNC) is
53 likely to constitute a substantial and critical component of stable SOC (Ma et al.,
54 2018), and its dynamics are increasingly recognized for their role in regulating the
55 terrestrial carbon cycle and climate feedbacks (Zhao et al., 2023). To gain a
56 comprehensive understanding of the critical role of MNC in the global C cycle, recent
57 research has highlighted the distinct roles of fungal and bacterial necromass, revealing
58 their contrasting responses to environmental and anthropogenic drivers (Liang et al.,
59 2017; Ni et al., 2020; Luo et al., 2022; Zhou et al., 2023). For instance, studies have
60 shown that the accumulation and contribution of MNC are sensitive to factors such as
61 aridity, primary productivity, agricultural management practices like tillage and
62 fertilization, as well as key soil properties including pH and clay content (Zhang et al.,
63 2021; Zhou et al., 2023; Xu et al., 2024). Despite these advances, it remains unclear
64 whether these organism-specific mechanisms translate into systematic differences in
65 necromass contributions between ecosystems under varying degrees of human
66 interference, such as agricultural versus natural systems.

67 With the distinct roles of fungi and bacteria in decomposing organic matter and
68 stabilizing organic carbon in soil, the relative contribution to SOC of fungal and
69 bacterial necromass C could be used to track the dynamics of SOC storage (Malik et
70 al., 2016). The cell walls of fungi primarily consist of chitin (a nitrogen-containing
71 polysaccharide) and β -glucans, whereas bacterial cell walls are mainly composed of
72 peptidoglycan—a complex of sugars and amino acids (Lenardon et al., 2007). As
73 bacterial amino sugars are readily degradable, while fungal chitin and -glucans are
74 more recalcitrant, fungal necromass generally exhibits a longer turnover time in soil
75 compared to bacterial necromass (Xu et al., 2022). Wang et al. (2021a) reported that
76 the contribution of fungal necromass carbon (FNC) to SOC exceeded 65%,
77 considerably higher than that of bacterial necromass carbon (BNC, 32–36%). This
78 pattern is likely attributed to the slower decomposition rate and stronger
79 mineral-associative capacity of the more recalcitrant fungal necromass. Furthermore,
80 greater fungal biomass and higher turnover rates may enhance the input flux of fungal
81 necromass (Klink et al., 2022). The contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC varied
82 across ecosystem types (Wang et al., 2021a; Cao et al., 2023; Xu et al., 2024).
83 However, until now, few studies have explored how fungal and bacterial necromass
84 carbon contribution to SOC vary across both natural and human managed landscapes

85 (Zhou et al., 2023).

86 To explore the global patterns and drivers of FNC, BNC and the FNC/BNC ratio
87 in agricultural and natural ecosystems, we compiled data from 486 study sites
88 worldwide. The aims of this study were: (1) to quantify the contributions of FNC and
89 BNC to SOC and the FNC/BNC ratio in agricultural and natural ecosystems; and (2)
90 to investigate the primary driving factors influencing the contributions of FNC and
91 BNC to SOC and the FNC/BNC ratio. Agricultural and natural ecosystems are known
92 to differ in the amount and characteristics of carbon stored in their soils (Hobbs et al.,
93 2011; Keith et al., 2022). Agricultural ecosystems often stock less carbon typically
94 resulting in bacterial-dominated soil communities (van Der Heijden et al., 2008). In
95 contrast, natural ecosystems display greater carbon stocks of greater diversity coming
96 from plant litter and root deposits (Wu et al., 2019). In such ecosystems, fungal
97 mycelial networks and stable soil aggregates are enhanced, leading to higher FNC
98 contributions to SOC (Sanaullah et al., 2020; Sae-Tun et al., 2022). While bacteria are
99 undoubtedly vital decomposers, fungi play a distinct and often dominant role in the
100 initial breakdown of complex plant polymers such as cellulose and lignin in natural
101 environments. In contrast, agricultural monocultures tend to reduce fungal diversity
102 unless mitigated by management practices (Chen et al., 2020). Reflecting this context
103 dependence, cellulose-rich inputs can enrich saprotrophic fungi in arable soils
104 (Clocchiatti et al., 2021), whereas bacteria may contribute substantially in mineral
105 soils or under specific microhabitat and land management conditions (Štursová et al.,
106 2012; Choi et al., 2018). Elucidating the global distribution and drivers of FNC, BNC,
107 and their ratio across agricultural and natural ecosystems is essential for predicting
108 management-induced shifts in SOC under varying climatic and soil conditions (Zhang
109 et al., 2021; Zhou et al., 2023; Xu et al., 2024).

110

111 **2 Materials and methods**

112 2.1 Data collection

113 We compiled a comprehensive dataset following the stepwise workflow. (1) We
114 collected peer-reviewed papers published from 1996 to 31 December 2022 from Web
115 of Science (<http://apps.webofknowledge.com>), Google Scholar
116 (<http://scholar.google.com>), and the China National Knowledge Infrastructure
117 (<http://cnki.net>), using the keywords: ‘amino sugars’, ‘microbial necromass’,
118 ‘microbial residue’, ‘fungal residue’, and ‘bacterial residue’. Records from different
119 databases were merged and deduplicated to form an initial compilation. (2) We then
120 filtered the compiled studies to include only those focusing on topsoil, defined as the
121 0–20 cm layer. Studies reporting deeper or unspecified sampling depths (e.g., 0–30
122 cm) were excluded to ensure spatial comparability. (3) Full texts were assessed to
123 confirm the presence of paired fungal and bacterial residue data from the same
124 sample—specifically, glucosamine (GluN) and muramic acid (MurA), or directly
125 reported FNC and BNC values—to enable consistent cross-study calculation of the
126 FNC/BNC ratio. Studies lacking either biomarker were excluded from ratio analyses,
127 though those directly reporting the FNC/BNC ratio were retained. (4) Eligible
128 observations were classified into agricultural ecosystems (including dry land, irrigated

129 cropland, and submerged paddy) or natural ecosystems (forest and grassland) based
 130 on study metadata. (5) For natural ecosystems, data from fertilized, polluted,
 131 experimentally treated, or otherwise anthropogenically disturbed sites were excluded.
 132 In total, the final dataset consisted of 2094 observations from 486 sites worldwide
 133 (145 agricultural and 341 natural sites; Figure 1) reported in 164 peer-reviewed papers.
 134 Of these observations, 1001 were from agricultural ecosystems, and 1093 from natural
 135 ecosystems. Among the 341 natural sites, 195 were forests and 146 were grasslands.
 136 For agricultural sites, we used Google Earth Engine with the LGRIP30 V1 dataset to
 137 classify agricultural ecosystem into dry land and irrigated cropland, and we overlaid
 138 the JRC surface-water seasonality layer to extract submerged paddy from the irrigated
 139 class (LGRIP30 irrigated value = 2 and JRC seasonality ≥ 1). We ultimately classified
 140 145 samples of agricultural ecosystems into 32 dry land, 72 irrigated, and 41
 141 submerged paddy sites.

142 We calculated the FNC and BNC based on amino sugar concentrations following
 143 widely used conversion factors, correcting total GluN for its bacterial share using
 144 MurA:

$$145 \quad FNC = \left(\frac{GluN}{179.17} - 2 \times \frac{MurA}{251.23} \right) \times 179.17 \times 9 \quad \text{Equation 1}$$

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

$$151 \quad BNC = MurA \times 45 \quad \text{Equation 2}$$

152 where 45 (unitless) is the conversion factor from MurA to BNC. The unit of BNC
 153 is mg/kg.

154 Additional information including site geographic location (latitude and longitude),
 155 topographical condition (elevation), climatic factors (mean annual temperature [MAT]
 156 and mean annual precipitation [MAP]), soil physicochemical properties (pH, SOC,
 157 total nitrogen [TN], clay content, and soil temperature), and biotic (microbial and
 158 plant) factors were recorded. Specifically, biotic factors included microbial biomass
 159 carbon (MBC), microbial biomass nitrogen (MBN), MBC/MBN, net primary
 160 production (NPP), and belowground biomass C density (BGBC). The data of
 161 topographical condition (elevation) was classified as geographical factor in this study.
 162 When MAT and MAP were unavailable in the original articles, we extracted them
 163 from the global climate layers of WorldClim (<http://www.worldclim.org/>) with a grid
 164 precision of 30×30 arc sec according to geographic location. Missing elevation data
 165 were extracted using the *elevatr* package v.0.4.2 (Hollister, 2021) in the R
 166 environment. We acquired the data on annual mean soil temperature from the study of
 167 Lembrechts et al. (2022), while other absent soil physicochemical data were extracted
 168 from the Harmonized World Soil Database
 169 (<https://www.fao.org/soils-portal/data-hub/soil-maps-and-databases/harmonized-world-soil-database-v12/en/>)
 170 and SoilGrids 2.0 (Poggio et al., 2021;
 171 <https://www.soilgrids.org/>) using ArcGIS 10.3. We supplemented missing climatic and

172 soil variables using high-resolution, globally interpolated datasets to ensure consistent
173 spatial coverage across all sites. After retrieving missing value from gridded data, we
174 typically calibrate them against field-reported values via a field-anchored bias
175 correction (i.e., a site- or region-specific “delta” adjustment) to minimize errors
176 introduced by gridded data. While the use of such data introduces inherent
177 uncertainties, these databases are widely adopted in global-scale ecological analyses
178 and provide the most feasible approach for a unified assessment. In addition, the data
179 on NPP and BGBC were acquired from the studies of Zhao and Running (2010) and
180 Spawn et al. (2020), respectively. Missing MBC and MBN data were acquired using a
181 global database with a high resolution of 30×30 arc sec (Wang et al., 2022).

182

183 2.2 Statistical analysis

184 All statistical analyses were performed using R v4.1.3 (R Core Team, 2021). Initially,
185 the Shapiro–Wilk test was employed to assess the normality of our data, followed by
186 the application of Levene's test to evaluate the homogeneity of variances across
187 different groups. To detect the significant differences in the contributions of FNC and
188 BNC to SOC, and the FNC/BNC ratio between agricultural and natural ecosystems, as
189 well as between forest and grassland ecosystems, the Wilcoxon rank sum test was
190 conducted. Kruskal–Wallis and Dunn's post hoc tests were used to assess the
191 significant differences of the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC, and the
192 FNC/BNC ratio among dry land, irrigated cropland, and submerged paddy. We used
193 Spearman's rank correlation coefficient to explore the connections between the 16
194 variables considered in this study, including geographical and climatic factors, soil
195 physicochemical properties, and biotic factors. Since there was a strong positive
196 correlation between MAT and soil temperature (Figure S1), soil temperature was
197 excluded from our subsequent analyses. Linear regressions between different factors
198 and the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC and the FNC/BNC ratio were
199 performed. Dots and smoothing curves were drawn using the *geom_point* and
200 *geom_smooth* functions, respectively, in the *ggplot2* package v.3.4.0 (Wickham,
201 2016).

202 Variation partitioning analysis was conducted using the *vegan* package v.2.5.7
203 (Oksanen et al., 2020) to evaluate the effects of four types of factors on the
204 contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC and the FNC/BNC ratio in agricultural and
205 natural ecosystems at global scale. We used a variance inflation factor threshold of 3.3
206 to eliminate those variables that were strongly correlated and avoid multicollinearity
207 (Figure S2; Kock, 2015; Fanin et al., 2020). Following factor selection, boosted
208 regression trees (BRTs) were used to partition independent influences of geographical
209 (elevation) and climatic (MAT and MAP) factors, soil physicochemical properties (pH,
210 clay, C/N, and SOC), and biotic factors (NPP, BGBC, MBC, and MBC/MBN) on the
211 contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC and the FNC/BNC ratio with the *gbm* package
212 v.2.1.8.1 (Greenwell et al., 2022).

213 Utilizing the selected factors, we performed structural equation models (SEMs)
214 to quantify the effects (direct, indirect and both) of four types of factors on the
215 contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC and the FNC/BNC ratio using *lavaan* package

216 v.0.6.19 (Rosseel, 2012). According to the previously reported potential causal
217 relationships between explanatory and response variables (Wang et al., 2021a, 2021b;
218 Li et al., 2024), we established the *priori* structural equation models for agricultural
219 and natural ecosystems, respectively (Figure S3). The SEMs were fitted via maximum
220 likelihood estimation, with non-significant paths iteratively pruned through stepwise
221 exclusion, followed by model evaluation using modification indices and
222 goodness-of-fit criteria. The fit indices included degrees of freedom (df), chi-square
223 (χ^2 , $0 \leq \chi^2/df \leq 2$), comparative fit index (CFI > 0.9), and root mean square error of
224 approximation (RMSEA < 0.08), which were used to assess the adequacy of the SEM.

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

230

231 **3 Results**

232 3.1 Fungal and bacterial necromass contribution to SOC in agricultural and natural 233 ecosystems

234 Our results show that in agricultural ecosystems, FNC/SOC ranged from 0.09% to
235 97.53% (mean \pm SE: $34.39 \pm 0.67\%$), and BNC/SOC ranged from 0.81% to 65%
236 ($15.65 \pm 0.33\%$). In natural ecosystems, FNC/SOC ranged from 0.92% to 96.29%
237 ($29.24 \pm 0.51\%$), and BNC/SOC ranged from 0.25% to 89.45% ($14.02 \pm 0.36\%$)
238 (Table 1). The FNC/BNC ratio ranged from 0.02 to 12.74 (2.61 ± 0.06) in agricultural
239 ecosystems and from 0.12 to 44.24 (3.22 ± 0.11) in natural ecosystems (Table 1).

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

250 The contributions of FNC and BNC to explaining the variation of SOC indicated
251 no significant difference between dry land and irrigated cropland ($P > 0.05$), whereas
252 both differed significantly from submerged paddy ($P < 0.05$; Figure S4a, b). In detail,
253 across dry land, irrigated cropland, and submerged paddy, the mean contributions of
254 FNC to SOC were 37.77%, 35.35%, and 22.82%, respectively, whereas those of BNC
255 were 17.34%, 15.95%, and 10.55% (Table 1). Moreover, there were no significant
256 differences in the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC between forest and
257 grassland ecosystems ($P > 0.05$; Figure S5). Specifically, FNC contributed, on
258 average, 29.11% to SOC in forests and 26.75% in grasslands, while BNC contributed
259 13.48% in forests and 14.34% in grasslands (Table 1).

260

261 3.2 Ratios of fungal and bacterial necromass in agricultural and natural ecosystems

262 Our results indicated that, at the global scale, the soil FNC/BNC ratio differs
263 significantly between agricultural and natural ecosystems ($P < 0.05$; Fig. 2c), with a
264 higher ratio in natural ecosystems (3.22) than in agricultural ecosystems (2.61; Table
265 1). The FNC/BNC ratio did not differ significantly among dry land, irrigated cropland,
266 and submerged paddy ($P > 0.05$; Figure S4c), with average FNC/BNC ratios of 2.87,
267 2.51, and 2.62, respectively (Table 1). Similarly, there was no significant difference in
268 the FNC/BNC ratio between forest and grassland ecosystems ($P > 0.05$; Figure S5),
269 and the average FNC/BNC ratios for forests and grasslands were 2.80 and 3.58 (Table
270 1), respectively.

271

272 3.3 Associations of abiotic and biotic factors with microbial necromass parameters

273 Soil physicochemical factors were the most important influence on the contributions
274 of FNC and BNC to SOC across both ecosystem types (Figures 3a–d, 4a–d).
275 Specifically, they explained 16% and 17% of the variance in the contributions of FNC
276 and BNC to SOC in agricultural ecosystems, respectively (Figures 3a, c), and 20%
277 and 24% in natural ecosystems (Figures 3b, d). BRTs corroborated this pattern, with
278 soil physicochemical factors showing the highest relative influence (51% for FNC,
279 and 44% for BNC) in agricultural systems and 44% in natural systems (Figures 4a–d).
280 All BRT models were significant ($P < 0.001$), with explained variance 36–66%. While
281 soil factors dominated overall, responses to individual variables differed between
282 ecosystems. In detail, in agricultural systems, the C/N ratio ranked third for FNC after
283 clay and SOC (Figure 4a), whereas C/N was the top predictor for FNC in natural
284 systems and for BNC in both ecosystems (Figures 4b–d). Consistently, linear models
285 showed declines in the contributions of FNC and BNC with increasing C/N in both
286 ecosystems (Figures S6g, S7g). SEMs yielded convergent results, indicating both
287 direct and indirect pathways (Figures 5a–d, 6a–d). Notably, the direct and total effects
288 of soil physicochemical factors on FNC were negative in agricultural but positive in
289 natural ecosystems (Figures 5a, b, 6a, b), whereas the effects on BNC were negative
290 in both ecosystem types (Figures 5c, d, 6c, d).

291 Our results indicated that geographical factors were the most important
292 contributors to explain the FNC/BNC ratio in both agricultural and natural ecosystems,
293 accounting for 21% and 10% of the explained variance in the FNC/BNC ratio,
294 respectively (Figures 3e, f). The results of the BRTs suggested that geographical
295 factors played a similar role in explaining the FNC/BNC ratio (Figures 4e, f). In the
296 BRT models, geographical factors emerged as the primary influencers of the
297 FNC/BNC ratio in agricultural and natural ecosystems, accounting for 32% and 44%
298 of the variance in each case, respectively (Figures 4e, f). To be more specific,
299 elevation was the most significant geographical factors influencing the FNC/BNC
300 ratio in both ecosystems (Figures 4e, f). Moreover, the FNC/BNC ratio in agricultural
301 and natural ecosystems show significantly increased with an increase elevation
302 (Figure S8a). The results of SEMs also indicated that geographical factors were the
303 most influential factors for the FNC/BNC ratio in agricultural and natural ecosystems,

304 exerting both direct and indirect effects on this ratio (Figures 5e, 6e), with the
305 standardized total effect being positive (Figures 5f, 6f).

306

307 **4 Discussion**

308 4.1 Comparing fungal versus bacterial necromass

309 Our results, from a global synthesis, suggest that fungal necromass can explain up two
310 times more variation in SOC compared with bacterial necromass both in natural and
311 agricultural ecosystems. This is, despite, the long-term described dominance of
312 bacterial communities in disturbed soils environments. Moreover, the mean
313 FNC/BNC ratio was significantly higher in natural ecosystems than in agricultural
314 ecosystems ($P < 0.05$; Figure 2). Although this general pattern has been reported in
315 previous studies (Liang et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2021a; Zhang et al., 2023; Ding et al.,
316 2024), the systematic differences in the magnitude of these contributions between
317 agricultural and natural ecosystems—and their underlying drivers—have remained
318 poorly understood. Our study not only confirms the broad-scale trend, but also
319 elucidates these ecosystem-level disparities and their environmental determinants.
320 Consistent with our finding that the contribution of fungal necromass carbon (FNC) to
321 SOC exceeded that of bacterial necromass carbon (BNC) in both ecosystem types
322 (Table 1), the predominance of fungal necromass may be attributed to its more
323 recalcitrant cell wall composition (e.g., chitin) and slower decomposition rate (Wang
324 et al., 2021a). Our BRT and SEM analyses further identified soil clay content and C/N
325 ratio as key drivers of FNC accumulation (Figs. 4a, 5a), reinforcing the importance of
326 organo-mineral associations in the stabilization of fungal-derived carbon.

327 Our study further reveals that the contributions of both fungal and bacterial
328 necromass carbon (FNC and BNC) to explaining variation in SOC is higher in
329 agricultural ecosystems. On the contrary, FNC/BNC ratio seems to be a better
330 predictor in natural ecosystems. The higher contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC in
331 agricultural ecosystems. This is probably associated with natural environments
332 supporting greater inputs from more diverse carbon sources such as plant-derived
333 carbon, in addition to microbial necromass, compared with agricultural systems.
334 Moreover, agricultural nitrogen-rich environment, characterized by low C/N ratios,
335 can enhance microbial mineralization, thereby promoting the production and
336 accumulation of microbial necromass (Liang et al., 2017). Supporting this mechanism,
337 we found that the contributions of both FNC and BNC to SOC decreased significantly
338 with increasing soil C/N ratio in both agricultural ecosystems (FNC/SOC: $R = -0.27$,
339 $P < 0.001$; BNC/SOC: $R = -0.29$, $P < 0.001$) and natural ecosystems (FNC/SOC: $R =$
340 -0.17 , $P < 0.001$; BNC/SOC: $R = -0.35$, $P < 0.001$; Figures S6g, S7g). These results
341 further underscore that a lower soil C/N ratio—often indicative of higher nitrogen
342 availability—is a key driver of microbial necromass accumulation. It should be noted
343 that, although in situ plant residues in agricultural systems (e.g., cereal straw) may
344 have high C/N ratios, the overall soil C/N ratio is reduced by management practices
345 such as mineral fertilization and the incorporation of low C/N organic amendments.
346 Deng and Liang (2022) suggested that the potential contribution of microbial
347 necromass to the SOC pool was governed by the C/N ratio. This finding was

348 confirmed by our results (Figures 4b–d). As elaborated in *Section 4.1*, high N
349 availability (i.e., low soil C/N ratio) promotes the production and accumulation of
350 microbial necromass (Wu et al., 2025). Consequently, the contributions of both FNC
351 and BNC to SOC decreased with increasing soil C/N ratio (Figures S6g, S7g). In
352 agricultural ecosystems, high soil N levels primarily result from fertilization (Chen et
353 al., 2020). In contrast, natural ecosystems experience minimal anthropogenic
354 disturbance, N often acts as the key limiting factor for microbial activity (Elser et al.,
355 2007). Under N-limited conditions, microbes (both fungi and bacteria) allocate more
356 energy and C resources to the synthesis of N-acquiring enzymes (e.g., proteases and
357 chitinases). This shift in metabolic strategy reduces the C allocated to biomass
358 synthesis, thereby diminishing the amount of C ultimately converted into microbial
359 necromass (Mooshammer et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2024). Thus, although microbial
360 community composition differs between natural and agricultural ecosystems, the
361 regulatory role of soil C/N ratio in shaping their structure and function remains
362 consistent (Han et al., 2024). These potential mechanisms will need to be further
363 addressed by future experimental work.

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

380

381 4.2 Factors driving fungal and bacterial necromass contribution

382 In addition to C/N ratio explained above, soil clay content was identified as the
383 predominant factor governing the contribution of FNC to SOC in agricultural
384 ecosystems (Figure 4a), with this contribution being increasing significant with clay
385 content (Figure S6d). This suggests that soils with higher clay and silt contents
386 generally accumulate greater amounts of microbial residues, particularly those derived
387 from fungi, which can be attributed to the promotion of stable organo-mineral
388 complex formation by abundant fine soil particles (Six et al., 2006; Liang et al., 2017).
389 Furthermore, although agricultural management practices often disturb soil structure,
390 they simultaneously enhance clay enrichment and aggregate formation, thereby
391 providing effective physical protection for the long-term stabilization of

392 fungal-derived C (Chen et al., 2020; Mou et al., 2021; Zhou et al., 2023). In contrast,
393 topographic factors such as elevation were identified as the most influential predictor
394 of the FNC/BNC ratio in both agricultural and natural ecosystems (Figures 4e, f, 5f,
395 6f), with the ratio increasing significantly with elevation (Figure S8a). Increasing
396 elevation typically leads to decreased temperature, and increased precipitation (Körner,
397 2007), conditions favoring fungi over bacteria due to higher enzymatic capabilities
398 and resource-use efficiency of fungi under the environments (Chen et al., 2020; Yu et
399 al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2025). High elevation also results in slower soil development,
400 which can reduce the availability of soil nutrients (Guerrero-Ramírez et al., 2020).
401 This in turn increases environmental stress and restricts bacterial activity, thereby
402 favoring the accumulation and conversion of fungal residues into necromass (Li et al.,
403 2024). Our study further demonstrated that although elevation had a direct effect on
404 the FNC/BNC ratio, it also indirectly influenced the ratio by modulating climatic
405 factors, soil physicochemical properties, and biological factors (Figures 5e, 6e). This
406 may explain why elevation is always integrate other environmental factor effects in
407 the studies of MNC (Cui et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2025).

408

409 4.3 Limitations and uncertainties

410 Although the present study provides important insights on global patterns and drivers
411 of soil microbial necromass in agricultural and natural ecosystems, we must clarify
412 three limitations. First, the limited data available on microbial characteristics, such as
413 microbial community composition, enzymatic activities, and the content of soil
414 aggregates and minerals hinder exploration of the drivers of soil microbial necromass.
415 Second, it is undeniable that our dataset is unevenly distributed, primarily
416 concentrating on the Northern Hemisphere, with sparse or nearly no data from other
417 regions such as Africa, South America, and Australia (Figure 1). Additionally, the
418 natural ecosystems in this study were limited to forests and grasslands, excluding
419 other natural habitats such as wetlands and deserts. The uneven distribution of data
420 may reduce the universality of MNC as a key driver of soil carbon pools in global
421 terrestrial ecosystems. Furthermore, the compiled studies employed varied
422 methodologies regarding sampling time, depth, and laboratory protocols. While such
423 heterogeneity is an inherent challenge in global meta-analyses, it likely introduces
424 additional variability and may constrain the direct comparability of certain data points.
425 Therefore, more standardized data from these important areas and biomes are clearly
426 required, and further investigation is warranted to fill the data gaps regarding the
427 contribution of MNC to SOC in terrestrial ecosystems.

428

429 5 Data and code availability

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

432

433 6 Conclusions

434 Our results indicate that, on average, fungal necromass carbon (FNC) contributes
435 approximately twice as much to soil organic carbon (SOC) as bacterial necromass

436 carbon (BNC) across both agricultural and natural ecosystems. The relative
437 contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC were found to be higher in agricultural
438 ecosystems—an effect that is likely to be mediated by differences in soil
439 physicochemical factors. The FNC/BNC ratio was significantly higher in natural
440 ecosystems than in agricultural ecosystems, albeit with a modest effect size, and was
441 primarily driven by geographical factors—particularly elevation. Our findings
442 demonstrate that, despite considerable variability among individual sampling sites,
443 statistically significant differences exist between agricultural and natural ecosystems
444 in the contributions of fungal and bacterial necromass carbon (FNC and BNC) to soil
445 organic carbon (SOC), as well as in the FNC/BNC ratio, at a global scale. These
446 results are likely to underscore a fundamental divergence in the pathways and
447 mechanisms of carbon turnover and stabilization between these two broad ecosystem
448 types. These insights provide novel evidence that ecosystem management type
449 (agricultural versus natural) is a key determinant of the pathways through which
450 microbial necromass contributes to the global soil organic carbon (SOC) pool. Future
451 studies that integrate microbial community composition with necromass dynamics
452 across a broader range of biomes will be essential to predict ecosystem-specific
453 responses of this critical carbon pool to global change.

454

455 **Author contributions**

456 JL performed the data analysis and prepared the original draft. MDB contributed to
457 data interpretation, data conceptualization and provided specific insights during the
458 drafting. WL and HS contributed to data collection. YJ contributed to data analysis.
459 ZW supervised the project and contributed to the original draft. TWC and MDB
460 contributed to manuscript review and editing.

461

462 **Competing interests**

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

464

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480

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780 **Table 1. Summary of the contributions of fungal necromass carbon (FNC) and**
 781 **bacterial necromass carbon (BNC) to SOC and the FNC/BNC ratio in**
 782 **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)	3.01– 96.81	37.77 ± 1.15 A [#]	0.81– 65.00	17.34 ± 0.65 A	0.13– 9.12	2.87 ± 0.12 A
<i>Irrigated cropland</i> (<i>N</i> = 72)	0.09– 97.25	35.35 ± 0.73 A	1.18– 62.47	15.95 ± 0.38 A	0.02– 12.74	2.51 ± 0.06 A
<i>Submerged paddy</i> (<i>N</i> = 41)	4.96– 97.53	22.82 ± 1.55 B	1.48– 30.97	10.55 ± 0.66 B	0.31– 10.40	2.62 ± 0.16 A

783 Note: *N* refers to the number of study sites;

784 [&]Natural ecosystem includes forest and grassland;

785 [%]Agricultural ecosystem includes dry land, irrigated cropland, and submerged paddy;

786 *Within the same column, values with different lowercase letters indicate a significant
 787 difference in the same variable between agricultural and natural ecosystems

788 (Wilcoxon rank sum test; *P* < 0.05);

789 [#]Within the same column, values with different capital letters indicate a significant
 790 difference in the same variable between forests and grasslands (Wilcoxon rank sum

791 test), as well as between dry land, irrigated cropland, and submerged paddy (Kruskal–

792 Wallis and Dunn's post hoc tests; *P* < 0.05).

793 **Figure legends**

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

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

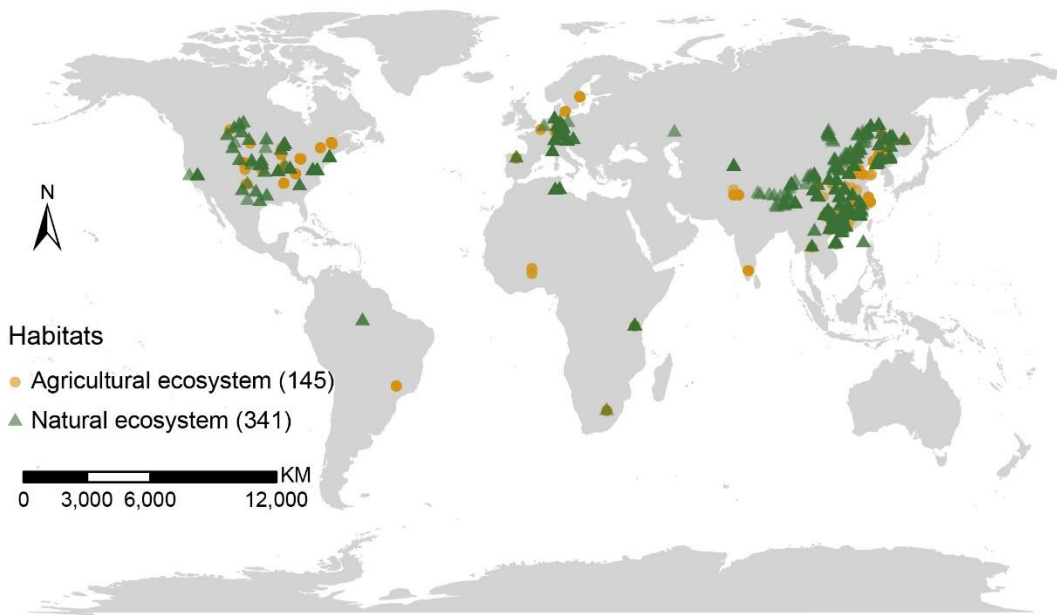
800 **Figure 3. Variations in the contributions of MNC to SOC and their ratio**
801 **explained by four types of factors in agricultural and natural ecosystems.** Colors
802 indicate different types of factors.

803 **Figure 4. Relative influence of different factors on the contributions of MNC to**
804 **SOC and their ratio in agricultural and natural ecosystems.** MAT, mean annual
805 temperature; MAP, mean annual precipitation; MBC, microbial biomass carbon; SOC,
806 soil organic carbon; C/N, the ratio of SOC to total nitrogen (TN); MBC/MBN, the
807 ratio of MBC to microbial biomass nitrogen (MBN); NPP, net primary production;
808 BGBC, belowground biomass carbon density. Colors indicate different types of
809 factors.

810 **Figure 5. The influence pathways of four types of factors on the contributions of**
811 **MNC to SOC and their ratio in agricultural ecosystems.** Direct and indirect effects
812 (a, c, e) and the standardized total effects (b, d, f) of different factors on the
813 contributions of MNC to SOC and their ratio of agricultural ecosystems are shown.
814 Standardized path coefficients representing the effect sizes of potential causal factors
815 are indicated by numbers adjacent to arrows. The width of arrows is proportional to
816 the potential causal effect between variables. The red arrows indicate positive effects,
817 and the blue arrows indicate negative effects. The numbers adjacent to boxes of
818 response variables denote the explained variance (R^2). Right-angled rectangles denote
819 single variables, whereas rounded rectangles represent composite variables. Colors
820 indicate different types of factors. Significance levels: *** $P < 0.001$, ** $P < 0.01$ and
821 * $P < 0.05$. The *priori* models are shown in Figure S3.

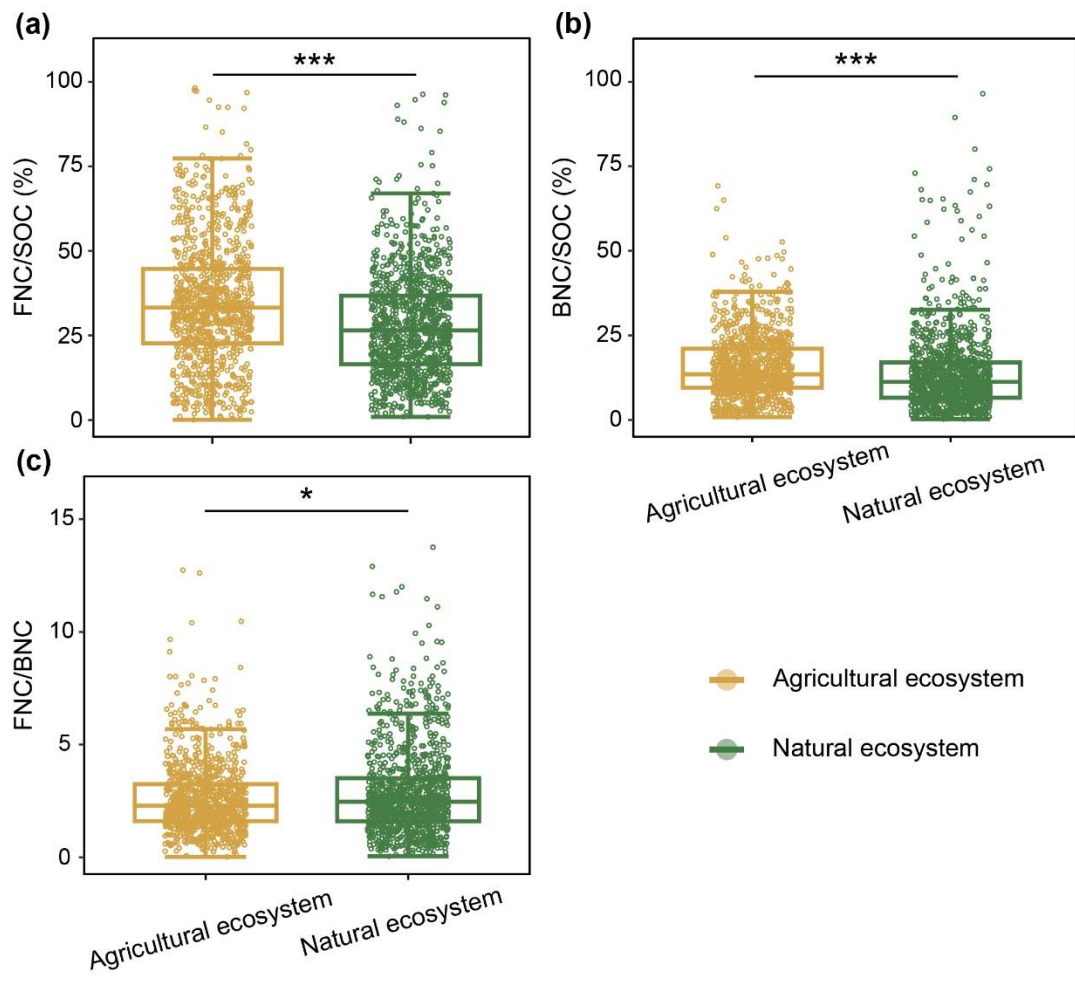
822 **Figure 6. The influence pathways of four types of factors on the contributions of**
823 **MNC to SOC and their ratio in natural ecosystems.** Direct and indirect effects (a, c,
824 e) and the standardized total effects (b, d, f) of different factors on the contributions of
825 MNC to SOC and their ratio of natural ecosystems are shown. Standardized path
826 coefficients representing the effect sizes of potential causal factors are indicated by
827 numbers adjacent to arrows. The width of arrows is proportional to the potential
828 causal effect between variables. The red arrows indicate positive effects, and the blue
829 arrows indicate negative effects. The numbers adjacent to boxes of response variables
830 denote the explained variance (R^2). Right-angled rectangles denote single variables,
831 whereas rounded rectangles represent composite variables. Colors indicate different
832 types of factors. Significance levels: *** $P < 0.001$, ** $P < 0.01$ and * $P < 0.05$. The
833 *priori* models are shown in Figure S3.

834 **Figure 1.**

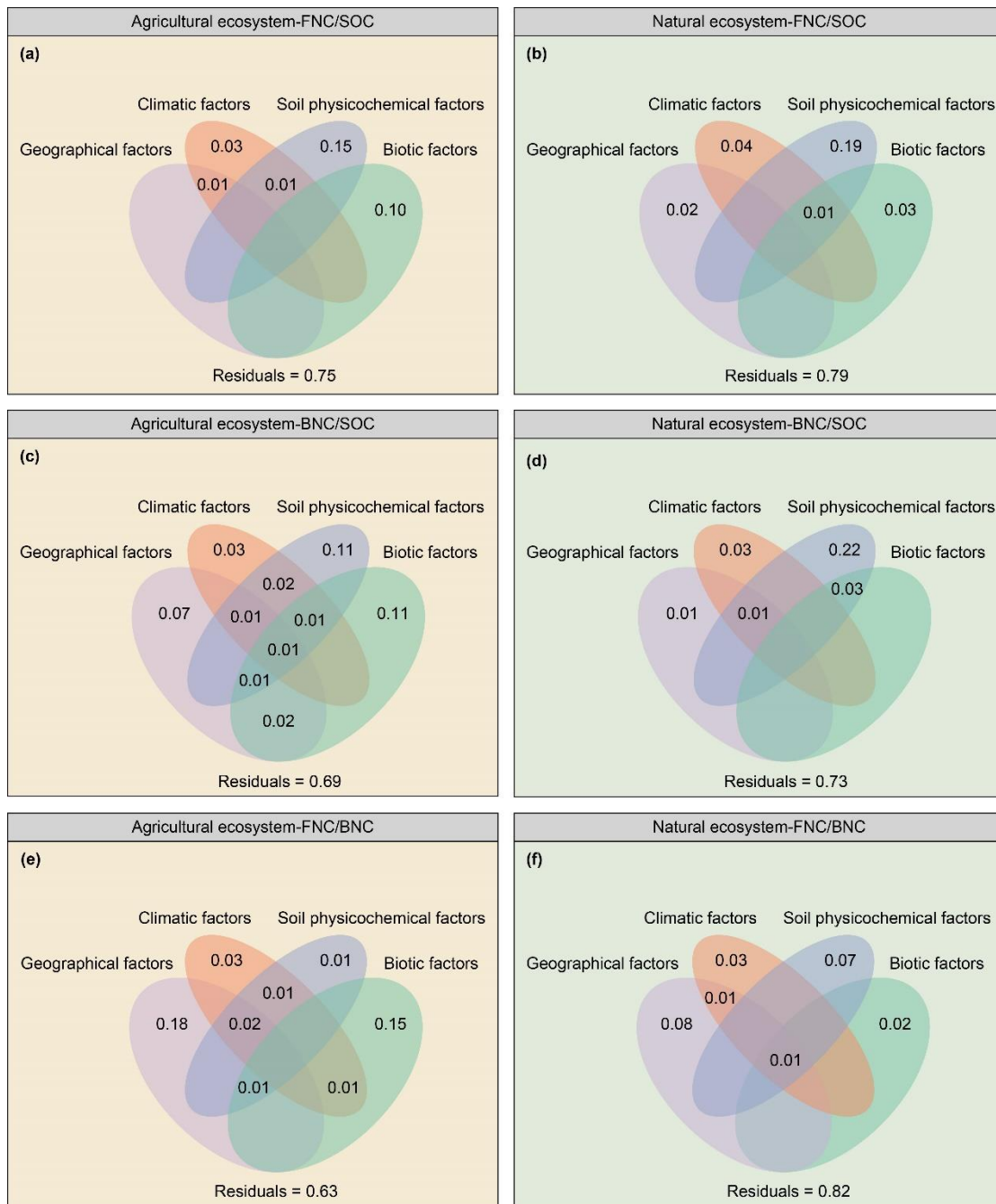


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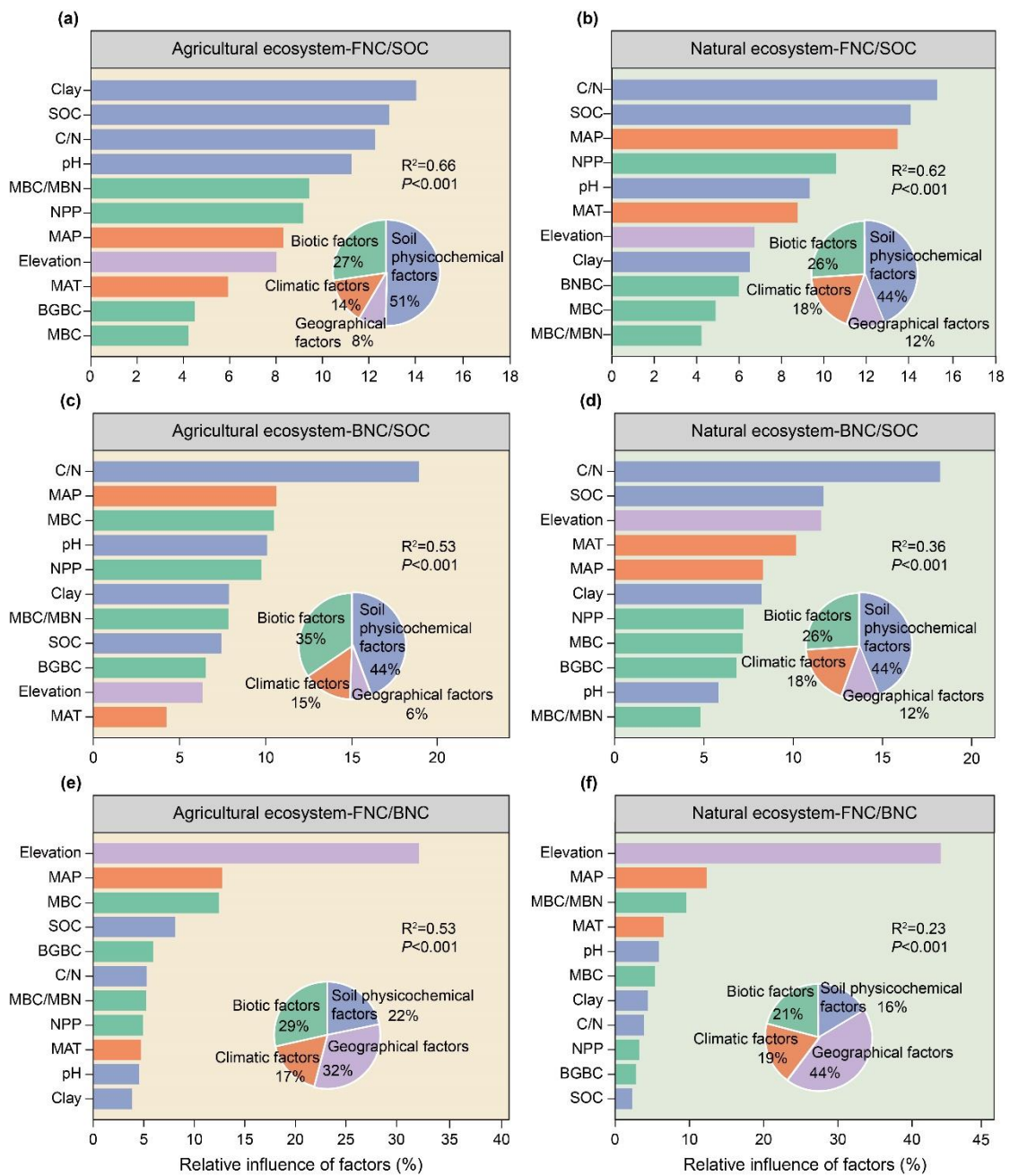
836 **Figure 2.**



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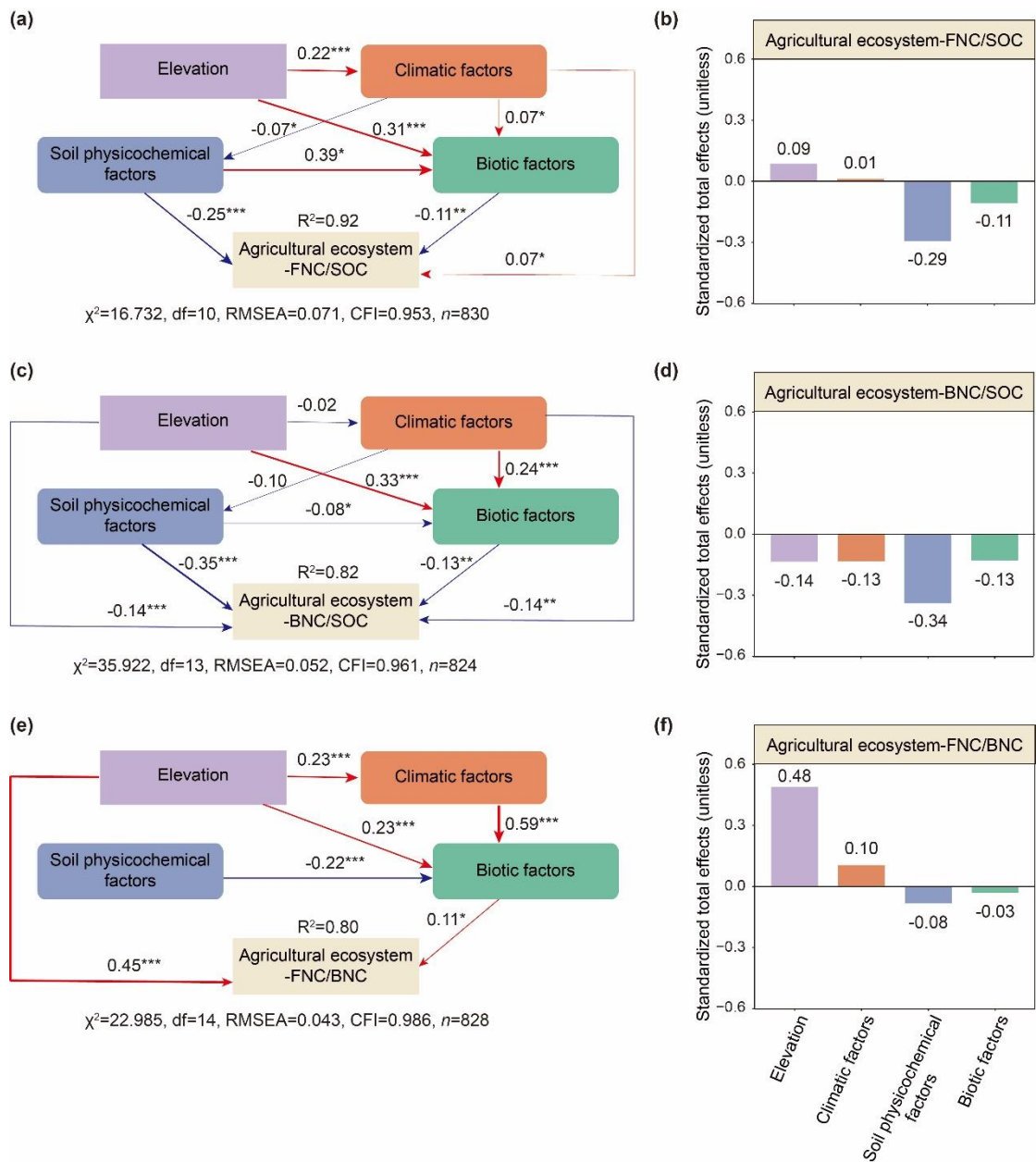


840 **Figure 4.**



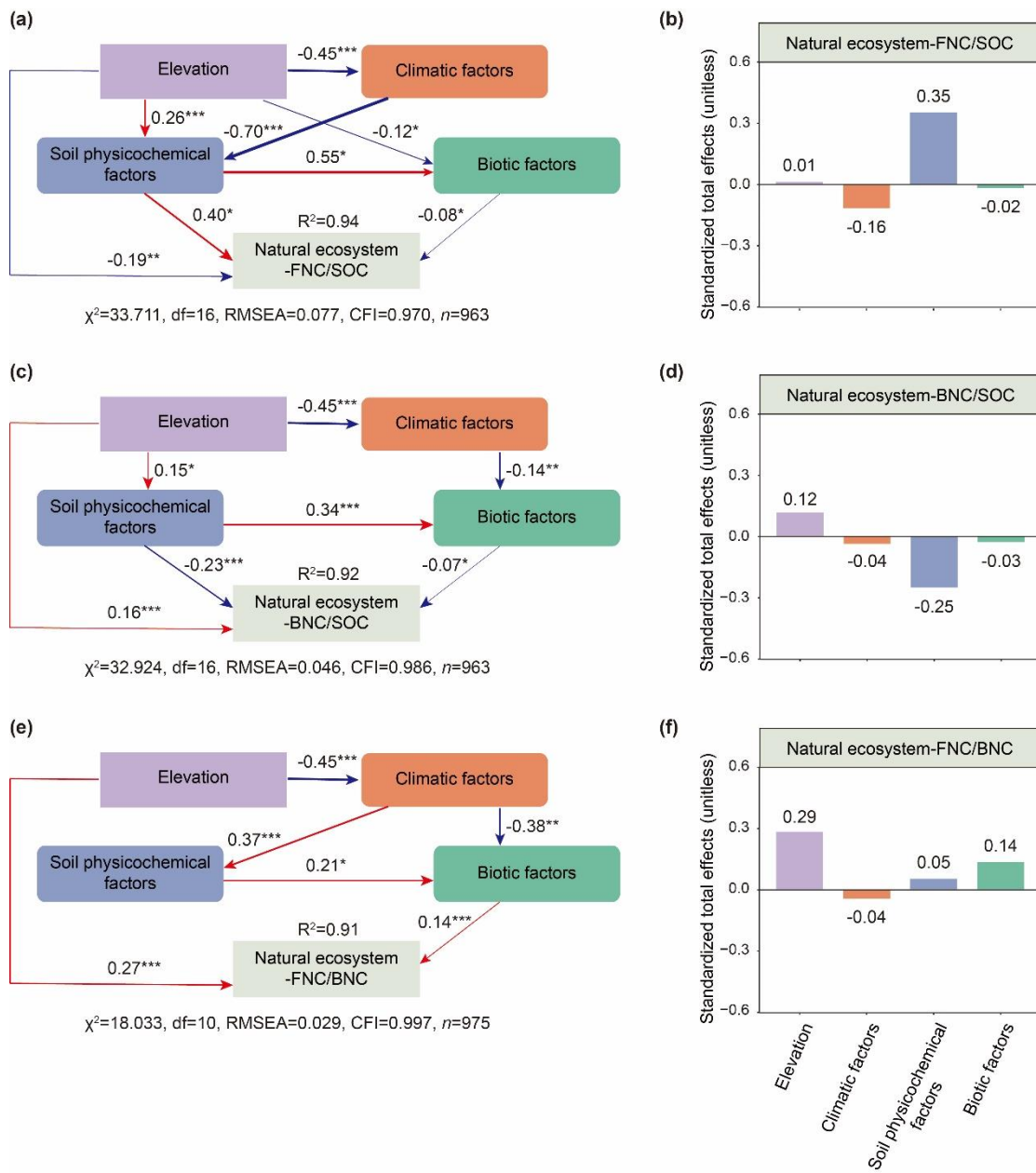
841

842 **Figure 5.**



843

844 **Figure 6.**



845