



1 Soil microbial necromass shapes global carbon stocks in agricultural and natural

2 ecosystems

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20 Abstract

Soil carbon (C) plays an essential role in regulating global C cycle and climate. 21 22 Microbial necromass is an important component of soil C, and yet the relative contribution of microbial necromass in shaping the global C stocks in agricultural and 23 24 natural ecosystems worldwide remains virtually unknown. In this study, we compiled data on fungal and bacterial necromass along with soil organic carbon (SOC) from the 25 26 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 27 necromass C (BNC) to SOC and the FNC/BNC ratio, after accounting for other biotic 28 and abiotic factors. Our results indicated that, in both agricultural and natural 29 ecosystems, the contribution of FNC to SOC significantly exceeded that of BNC, with 30 31 FNC contributing approximately twice as much as BNC to SOC. However, the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC were markedly higher in agricultural 32 ecosystems than those in natural ecosystems, with a contrasting trend in the 33 FNC/BNC ratio. Soil physicochemical properties (C/N and clay) were the most 34 35 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 36 FNC/BNC ratio. Our study enhances the current level of understanding regarding 37 microbially mediated biogeochemical cycling and SOC dynamics, underscoring the 38 39 critical role of microbial necromass in the global C cycle.

40

41 Keywords: agricultural ecosystems, bacterial necromass carbon, fungal necromass





42 carbon, microbial necromass carbon, natural ecosystems

43

44 1 Introduction

As the largest carbon (C) pool in the terrestrial biosphere, soil organic carbon (SOC) 45 46 plays a pivotal role in shaping the global C cycle and climate system (Bellamy et al., 2005; Crowther et al., 2015). The traditional paradigm is that SOC storage is 47 48 primarily formed directly based on plant material (Zhu and Miller, 2003; von Lützow 49 et al., 2008). However, emerging evidence demonstrates that the stable SOC pool is 50 predominantly composed of microbially derived organic compounds rather than 51 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 52 53 biomass by degrading plant-derived C, which is subsequently stabilized as microbial necromass through interactions with minerals and various processes within soil 54 aggregates (Liang et al., 2017). Although the living soil microbial biomass constitutes 55 only about 2% of SOC, microbial necromass carbon (MNC) can contribute up to 56 57 50%-80% of SOC (Liang and Balser, 2011; Kallenbach et al., 2016; Liang et al., 2019). As such, there is growing scientific attention on the forces driving the 58 accumulation of MNC and its contribution to SOC (Liang et al., 2017; Ni et al., 2020; 59 Luo et al., 2022; Zhou et al., 2023). In order to gain a comprehensive and in-depth 60 understanding of the role of MNC in the global C cycle, many studies have focused 61 on the relative contributions of fungal (FNC) versus bacterial necromass (BNC; 62 Zhang et al., 2021; Zhou et al., 2023; Xu et al., 2024). 63





The distinct roles of fungi and bacteria in stabilizing and decomposing SOC, 64 65 enable their necromass C to elucidate the kinetics of SOC storage and decomposition (Malik et al., 2016). To be more specific, the chemical composition and functional 66 characteristics of fungi and bacteria differ considerably, which may also contribute to 67 68 different mechanisms of SOC formation. The cell walls of fungi primarily consist of chitin (a nitrogen-containing polysaccharide) and β-glucans, whereas bacterial cell 69 70 walls are mainly composed of peptidoglycan-a complex of sugars and amino acids 71 (Lenardon et al., 2007). The intricate structures of chitin and β -glucans in fungal 72 necromass make them more resistant to decomposition compared to the typically more degradable bacterial necromass, leading to differences in their C decomposition 73 rates in soil (Xu et al., 2022). Wang et al. (2021a) suggested that the higher 74 75 contribution of FNC to SOC (exceeding 65%) than BNC (32-36%) may be not only due to the slower decomposition rates of fungal cellular compounds but also 76 attributable to the higher living fungal biomass relative to bacterial biomass in 77 terrestrial ecosystems. Previous studies have also indicated that the contributions of 78 79 FNC and BNC to SOC depended on the type of ecosystems (Wang et al., 2021a; Cao et al., 2023; Xu et al., 2024), and they were mainly affected by climatic and soil 80 physicochemical factors (e.g., soil pH and clay content; He et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 81 2023). However, these studies on the relative contributions of fungal necromass 82 83 carbon (FNC) and BNC to SOC, and their ratio (FNC/BNC), have predominantly focused on ecosystems categorized based on biotic communities and vegetation types, 84 such as forests (Chen et al., 2020), with limited attention given to ecosystems 85





86 classified by levels of human interference.

Terrestrial ecosystems can be broadly categorized into managed (agricultural) and 87 natural ecosystems (Hobbs et al., 2011; Keith et al., 2022). The agricultural 88 ecosystems, heavily reliant on human management, typically exhibit uniform plant 89 90 litter influenced by agricultural activities (Bohan et al., 2013). In contrast, natural ecosystems, which are self-sustaining, display greater diversity in litter and root 91 92 deposits, encompassing various plants and biological remains (Wu et al., 2019). 93 Minimal human interference enhances fungal mycelial networks and stable soil 94 aggregates, leading to higher FNC sequestration and contributions to SOC (Sanaullah et al., 2020; Sae-Tun et al., 2022). As key decomposers, fungi can break down 95 cellulose and other complex organic compounds (Hättenschwiler et al., 2005). Choi et 96 97 al. (2018) indicated that soil cellulose-degrading genes are associated with fungal activity and abundance. This suggests cellulose-rich soils may support higher fungal 98 diversity and abundance. The low cellulose and chitin abundance in agricultural 99 ecosystems might result from plant monoculture, while diverse plant inputs in natural 100 101 ecosystems lead to rich soil cellulose content and higher fungal abundance and FNC (Song et al., 2022). These findings suggest that FNC and BNC accumulation respond 102 differently to human interference and ecosystem characteristics, causing disparities in 103 the FNC/BNC ratio across ecosystems. Therefore, understanding global patterns and 104 105 drivers of FNC, BNC, and the FNC/BNC ratio in agricultural and natural ecosystems is crucial amid intensifying human activities and global changes. 106

107 In order to explore the global patterns and drivers of FNC, BNC and the





study sites worldwide. The aims of this study were: (1) to quantify the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC and the FNC/BNC ratio in agricultural and natural ecosystems; and (2) to investigate the primary driving factors influencing the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC and the FNC/BNC ratio, and determine whether the influencing factors were consistent across these two ecosystem types.	108	FNC/BNC ratio in agricultural and natural ecosystems, we compiled data from 486
of FNC and BNC to SOC and the FNC/BNC ratio in agricultural and natural ecosystems; and (2) to investigate the primary driving factors influencing the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC and the FNC/BNC ratio, and determine whether the influencing factors were consistent across these two ecosystem types.	109	study sites worldwide. The aims of this study were: (1) to quantify the contributions
ecosystems; and (2) to investigate the primary driving factors influencing the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC and the FNC/BNC ratio, and determine whether the influencing factors were consistent across these two ecosystem types.	110	of FNC and BNC to SOC and the FNC/BNC ratio in agricultural and natural
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	113	whether the influencing factors were consistent across these two ecosystem types.

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115 2 Materials and methods

116 2.1 Data collection

To clarify the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC and the FNC/BNC ratio at 117 global scale, we compiled a comprehensive dataset from a range of peer-reviewed 118 119 papers published before 2022 through the Web of Science (http://apps.webofknowledge.com), Google Scholar (http://scholar.google.com), and 120 the China National Knowledge Infrastructure (http://cnki.net), using the keywords 121 'amino sugars', 'microbial necromass', 'microbial residue', 'fungal residue', and 122 123 'bacterial residue'. Data compilation was conducted following four stringent criteria to reduce bias from selected publications: (1) fungal and bacterial necromass (or 124 glucosamine [GluN] and muramic acid [MurA]) had to be reported simultaneously for 125 the same samples; (2) only data from agricultural and natural ecosystems (i.e., 126 grasslands and forests) were used; (3) for natural ecosystems, we excluded the data 127 from fertilized, polluted, treated, or anthropogenically disturbed sites; and (4) we only 128 included data from the top 0-20 cm of the soil profile reported in the publications, 129





130	with other depths or unspecified soil depths excluded from our dataset. In total, the
131	final dataset consisted of 2094 observations from 486 sites worldwide (Figure 1)
132	reported in 164 peer-reviewed papers. Among them, there were 1001 observations
133	from agricultural ecosystems and 1093 observations from natural ecosystems.
134	We calculated the FNC and BNC based on the contents of fungal GluN and
135	bacterial MurA using the following equations (Liang et al., 2019):
136	$FNC = \left(\frac{GluN}{179.17} - 2 \times \frac{MurA}{251.23}\right) \times 179.17 \times 9,$
137	$BNC = MurA \times 45,$
138	where 9 is the conversion factor from GluN to FNC, and, 179.17 and 251.23 are
139	the molecular weights of GluN and MurA, respectively; 45 is the conversion factor
140	from MurA to BNC.
141	Additional information including site geographic location (latitude and longitude),
142	topographical condition (elevation), climatic factors (mean annual temperature [MAT])
143	and mean annual precipitation [MAP]), soil physicochemical properties (pH, SOC,
144	total nitrogen (TN), clay content, and soil temperature), and biotic (microbial and
145	plant) factors were recorded. Specifically, biotic factors included microbial biomass
146	carbon (MBC), microbial biomass nitrogen (MBN), MBC/MBN, net primary
147	production (NPP), and belowground biomass C density (BGBC). The data of
148	topographical condition (elevation) was classified as geographical factor in this study.
149	When MAT and MAP were unavailable in the original articles, we extracted them
150	from the global climate layers of WorldClim (<u>http://www.worldclim.org/</u>) with a grid

151 precision of 30×30 arc sec according to geographic location. Missing elevation data





152	were extracted using the <i>elevatr</i> package v.0.4.2 (Hollister, 2021) in the R
153	environment. We acquired the data on annual mean soil temperature from the study of
154	Lembrechts et al. (2022), while other absent soil physicochemical data were extracted
155	from the Harmonized World Soil Database
156	(https://www.fao.org/soils-portal/data-hub/soil-maps-and-databases/harmonized-world
157	<u>-soil-database-v12/en/</u>) and SoilGrids 2.0 (Poggio et al., 2021;
158	https://www.soilgrids.org/) using ArcGIS 10.3. In addition, the data on NPP and
159	BGBC were acquired from the studies of Zhao and Running (2010) and Spawn et al.
160	(2020), respectively. Missing MBC and MBN data were acquired using a global
161	database with a high resolution of 30×30 arc sec (Wang et al., 2022).

162

163 2.2 Statistical analysis

All the statistical analyses were performed using R v4.1.3 (R Core Team, 2021). 164 Initially, the Shapiro-Wilk test was employed to assess the normality of our data, 165 followed by the application of Levene's test to evaluate the homogeneity of variances 166 across different groups. To detect the significant differences in the contributions of 167 FNC and BNC to SOC and the FNC/BNC ratio between agricultural and natural 168 ecosystems, as well as between forest and grassland ecosystems, the Wilcoxon rank 169 sum test was conducted. We used Spearman's rank correlation coefficient to explore 170 the connections between the 16 variables considered in this study, including 171 geographical and climatic factors, soil physicochemical properties, and biotic factors. 172 Since there was a strong positive correlation between MAT and soil temperature 173





(Figure S1), soil temperature was excluded from our subsequent analyses. Linear
regressions between different factors and the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC
and the FNC/BNC ratio were performed. Dots and smoothing curves were drawn
using the *geom_point* and *geom_smooth* functions, respectively, in the *ggplot2*package v.3.4.0 (Wickham, 2016).

Variation partitioning analysis was conducted using the vegan package v.2.5.7 179 180 (Oksanen et al., 2020) to evaluate the effects of four types of factors on the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC and the FNC/BNC ratio in agricultural and 181 182 natural ecosystems at global scale. We used a variance inflation factor threshold of 3.3 to eliminate those variables that were strongly correlated and avoid multicollinearity 183 (Figure S2; Kock, 2015; Fanin et al., 2020). Following factor selection, boosted 184 185 regression trees (BRTs) were used to partition independent influences of geographical (elevation) and climatic (MAT and MAP) factors, soil physicochemical properties (pH, 186 clay, C/N, and SOC), and biotic factors (NPP, BGBC, MBC, and MBC/MBN) on the 187 contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC and the FNC/BNC ratio with the gbm package 188 189 v.2.1.8.1 (Greenwell et al., 2022).

Utilizing the selected factors, we performed structural equation models (SEMs) to quantify the effects (direct, indirect and both) of four types of factors on the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC and the FNC/BNC ratio using *lavaan* package v.0.6.19 (Rosseel, 2012). According to the previously reported potential causal relationships between explanatory and response variables (Wang et al., 2021a, 2021b; Li et al., 2024), we established the *priori* structural equation models for agro- and





natural ecosystems, respectively (Figure S3). The SEMs were fitted via maximum 196 likelihood estimation, with non-significant paths iteratively pruned through stepwise 197 exclusion, followed by model evaluation using modification indices and 198 goodness-of-fit criteria. The fit indices included degrees of freedom (df), chi-square 199 200 $(\chi^2, 0 \le \chi^2/df \le 2)$, comparative fit index (CFI > 0.9), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA < 0.08), which were used to assess the adequacy of the SEM. 201 202 Map, box, bar, bubble, and lollipop charts were plotted with the ggplot2 package v.3.4.0 (Wickham, 2016). To enhance map visualization, the ggnewscale package 203 204 v.0.4.8 (Campitelli, 2022) was necessary alongside the ggplot2 package v.3.4.0 205 (Wickham, 2016). Similarly, the ggpubr package v.0.5.0 (Kassambara, 2022) was an additional necessity when creating lollipop charts. 206

207

208 3 Results

- 3.1 Contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC and their ratio in agricultural and naturalecosystems
- There were no significant differences in the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC and the FNC/BNC ratio between forest and grassland ecosystems (P > 0.05; Figure S4). 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). The average FNC/BNC ratios for forests and grasslands were 2.80 and 3.58, respectively.

217 In contrast, our analysis revealed statistically significant disparities in the





218	contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC and the FNC/BNC ratio in agricultural and
219	natural ecosystems at the global scale ($P < 0.05$; Figure 2). Notably, the average
220	contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC were substantially higher in agricultural
221	ecosystems than in natural ecosystems ($P < 0.001$; see Figures 2a, b). For FNC, the
222	average contribution was 34.39% in agricultural ecosystems, versus 29.24% in natural
223	ecosystems. BNC contributed an average of 15.65% to SOC in agricultural
224	ecosystems, compared to 14.02% in natural ecosystems (Table 1). Additionally,
225	natural ecosystems exhibited a higher average FNC/BNC ratio of 3.22, surpassing the
226	average of 2.61 observed in agricultural ecosystems (Figure 2c, Table 1).

227

3.2 Effects of driving factors on the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC and theFNC/BNC ratio

To investigate the reasons behind the significant differences in the contributions of 230 FNC and BNC to SOC and the FNC/BNC ratio between agricultural and natural 231 ecosystems, we quantified the impact of four types of factors (geographical, climatic, 232 soil physicochemical, and biotic) upon them. Soil physicochemical factors were the 233 most important influence on the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC in 234 agricultural and natural ecosystems (Figures 3a-d, 4a-d). Specifically, in agricultural 235 ecosystems, soil physicochemical factors accounted for 16% and 17% of variance in 236 the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC, respectively (Figures 3a, c). In 237 comparison, soil physicochemical factors accounted for 20% and 24% of variance in 238 the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC in natural ecosystems, respectively 239





(Figures 3b, d). Conversely, geographical factors, rather than soil physicochemical
factors, were the most important contributors to explain the FNC/BNC ratio in both
agricultural and natural ecosystems, accounting for 21% and 10% of the explained
variance in the FNC/BNC ratio, respectively (Figures 3e, f).

244 These findings were further substantiated by the results obtained from the BRTs. These results indicated that soil physicochemical factors accounted for a substantial 245 246 portion of the variance in the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC in agricultural 247 and natural ecosystems (Figures 4a-d), and geographical factors played a similar role 248 in explaining the FNC/BNC ratio (Figures 4e, f). More precisely, soil physicochemical factors were identified as the primary contributors for the 249 contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC, with their contributions amounting to 51% 250 251 and 44% in agricultural ecosystems (Figures 4a, c), and 44% in natural ecosystems 252 (Figures 4b, d), respectively. This underscores soil physicochemical factors as the primary influencers on the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC in both ecosystems. 253 Similarly, in the BRT models, geographical factors emerged as the primary 254 255 influencers of the FNC/BNC ratio in agricultural and natural ecosystems, accounting for 32% and 44% of the variance in each case, respectively (Figures 4e, f). In both 256 ecosystems, the BRT models used to quantify the relative influence of the four types 257 of factors on the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC and the FNC/BNC ratio were 258 all significant (P < 0.001), with explained model variances ranging from 23% to 66% 259 (Figure 4). Although soil physicochemical factors were the primary factors 260 influencing the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC in both ecosystems, the 261





262	response of the contributions to individual soil physicochemical factors was not
263	entirely consistent between agricultural and natural ecosystems. Specifically, in the
264	BRT models, the C/N ratio was the third most influential factor, following clay and
265	SOC, influencing the contribution of FNC to SOC in agricultural ecosystems (Figure
266	4a). However, the C/N ratio emerged as the most important factor influencing the
267	contribution of FNC to SOC in natural ecosystems and the contribution of BNC to
268	SOC in both ecosystems (Figures 4b-d). Linear regression models indicated that the
269	contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC decreased with increasing C/N ratio in both
270	ecosystems (Figures S5g, S6g). Elevation was the most significant geographical
271	factors influencing the FNC/BNC ratio in both ecosystems (Figures 4e, f). Moreover,
272	the FNC/BNC ratio in agricultural and natural ecosystems show significantly
273	increased with an increase elevation (Figure S7a).

The SEMs revealed similar results, indicating that soil physicochemical factors 274 were the most influential factors for the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC in 275 276 both agricultural and natural ecosystems, and the factor can affect the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC in two ecosystems both directly and indirectly (Figures 5a-d, 277 6a-d). Notably, the direct and standardized total effects of soil physicochemical 278 279 factors on the contribution of FNC to SOC in natural ecosystem were both positive (Figures 6a, b). Geographical factors were the most influential factors for the 280 FNC/BNC ratio in agricultural and natural ecosystems, exerting both direct and 281 indirect effects on this ratio (Figures 5e, 6e), with the standardized total effect being 282 positive (Figures 5f, 6f). 283



284

285 4 Discussion

286	MNC is an important component of SOC (Ma et al., 2018), and its variations can
287	influence the feedback effects on the C cycle and global climate change (Zhao et al.,
288	2023). Our study indicated that the contributions of FNC to SOC were approximately
289	twice those of BNC in agricultural and natural ecosystems. Although the contributions
290	of FNC and BNC to SOC were significantly higher in agricultural ecosystems than in
291	natural ecosystems, the FNC/BNC ratio was significantly higher in the latter. In
292	addition, soil physicochemical properties and geographical factors were the most
293	important predictors of the contributions of MNC (FNC and BNC) to SOC and the
294	FNC/BNC ratio in the two ecosystems, respectively. These findings enhance our
295	understanding of microbially mediated biogeochemical cycling processes under
296	current and future climate scenarios.

297

4.1 Variation in the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC and the FNC/BNC ratio inagricultural 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. 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). These findings were consistent with previous studies (Liang et





306	al., 2019; Wang et al., 2021a; Zhang et al., 2023; Ding et al., 2024). On the one hand,
307	this might be attributable to the various nutrient utilization strategies of the different
308	microbial groups. Labile compounds in bacterial cell walls are preferentially utilized
309	by microbes, resulting in a lower content of bacterial residue in soil (Hu et al., 2020).
310	In contrast, fungi, with their more recalcitrant compounds (e.g., chitin), decompose
311	slowly, allowing them to persist longer in soil. Over time, fungal residue contributes
312	more significantly to SOC pools (Wang et al., 2021a). On the other hand, the thicker
313	cell walls of fungi result in a lower surface area-to-volume ratio of their residual
314	fragments, facilitating the easy formation of complex macromolecular aggregates
315	(Zhao et al., 2023). This contributes significantly to the stability of fungal necromass
316	and plays a crucial role in the accumulation of SOC. Additionally, the comparatively
317	larger biomass of fungi may be a contributing factor to the predominance of FNC over
318	BNC in terms of contributing to SOC in agricultural and natural ecosystems (He et al.,
319	2020).

320 In the present study, their contributions were found to be consistently higher in agricultural ecosystems as compared to natural ecosystems, with respective values of 321 322 34.39% vs. 29.24% for FNC, and 15.65% vs. 14.02% for BNC (Figures 2a, b, Table 323 1). The higher contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC in agricultural ecosystems compared to natural ecosystems may be attributable to two main factors. First, owing 324 to the diverse range of plant communities and minimal human interference in natural 325 ecosystems, the content of plant-derived organic C significantly exceeds that in 326 agricultural ecosystems impacted by farming activities, potentially resulting in a 327





328	greater proportion of microbially derived C within SOC (Angst et al., 2021). Second,
329	the concept of the microbial efficiency-substrate stability framework suggests that
330	high-quality substrates (characterized by low C/N ratio) allow for greater
331	accumulation of microbial residue because of a higher rate of microbial residue
332	production (Castellano et al., 2015; Chen et al., 2020; Ni et al., 2020). In this study,
333	the average C/N ratio in agricultural ecosystems was found to be significantly lower
334	than in natural ecosystems-approximately one-third that of natural ecosystems
335	(10.78 vs. 27.44). Therefore, the contribution of MNC (primarily from FNC and BNC)
336	to SOC in agricultural ecosystems was significantly higher than that in natural
337	ecosystems.

Significant differences in the FNC/BNC ratio were also observed between 338 339 agricultural and natural ecosystems, with natural ecosystems exhibiting a higher FNC/BNC ratio (3.22 vs. 2.61; Figure 2c, Table 1). This finding is consistent with that 340 of Wang et al. (2021a), providing additional confidence to the critical differences 341 between these major microbial functional groups. The observed differences in the 342 343 FNC/BNC ratio between agricultural and natural ecosystems may be attributable to the intrinsic characteristics of these two ecosystems. Zhou et al. (2023) suggested that 344 soils with minimal human interference, such as those in natural ecosystems, tend to 345 have higher FNC. Conversely, human interference (e.g., the application of organic 346 fertilizers) is associated with an increase in BNC content in soil. Other studies have 347 also demonstrated that minimizing soil disturbance can be advantageous for microbial 348 growth, particularly fungi (Sanaullah et al., 2020; Sae-Tun et al., 2022). The mycelial 349





350	networks of fungi contribute to the formation of more stable soil aggregates, which in
351	turn promotes the sequestration of FNC (Sae-Tun et al., 2022). Furthermore, bacteria
352	tend to dominate in soil with high nutrient content, such as agricultural ecosystems,
353	while in soil with relatively lower nutrient levels, like natural ecosystems, fungi
354	assume a dominant position owing to their enhanced and more extensive substrate
355	degradation capabilities (Strickland and Rousk, 2010; Yu et al., 2022). Hence,
356	comparatively speaking, natural ecosystems, characterized by minimal human
357	interference and relatively lower nutrient levels, are more conducive to fungal growth
358	and the accumulation of their necromass C, consequently resulting in a higher
359	FNC/BNC ratio compared to agricultural ecosystems.

360

4.2 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 363 contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC (Figures 3a-d, 4a-d, 5a-d). Deng and Liang 364 (2022) suggested that the potential contribution of microbial residue to the SOC pool 365 was governed by the C/N ratio. This finding was corroborated by our results, which 366 further indicated that the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC decreased as the soil 367 C/N ratio increased (Figures 4b-d, S5g, S6g). Several factors may account for the 368 results. On the one hand, the soil C/N ratio regulates microbial community 369 composition, thereby influencing the accumulation of FNC and BNC (Han et al., 370 2023). Specifically, a high C/N ratio often indicates a relative surplus of C and a 371





372	limitation of N, which constrains microbial metabolism, reduces microbial turnover
373	and biomass input, and consequently decreases the accumulation of FNC and BNC
374	(Wu et al., 2025). On the other hand, under high C/N conditions, microbes tend to
375	allocate more C to maintenance respiration or CO2 release rather than biomass
376	synthesis, leading to a lower efficiency of necromass production and diminished
377	contribution to SOC (Liu et al., 2024). In addition, a high C/N ratio may also impair
378	the binding capacity of microbial residues to soil minerals, thereby reducing their
379	long-term stabilization and further weakening their contribution to SOC (Li et al.,
380	2024). In contrast, soil clay content was the most predominant factor influencing the
381	contribution of FNC to SOC in agricultural ecosystems (Figure 4a), and this
382	contribution increased with increasing clay content (Figure S5g). Consistent findings
383	have been reported by Six et al. (2006) and Liang et al. (2017), demonstrating that
384	soils with higher clay and silt contents generally harbor greater quantities of microbial
385	residues, particularly fungal-derived residues, due to the enhanced formation of stable
386	organo-mineral complexes promoted by abundant fine soil particles. Moreover,
387	agricultural management practices frequently disturb soil structure but simultaneously
388	enhance clay enrichment and aggregate formation, thereby providing effective
389	physical protection for the long-term stabilization of fungal-derived C (Chen et al.,
390	2020; Mou et al., 2021; Zhou et al., 2023).

On the contrary, geographical factor (elevation) was identified as the most 391 influential predictors of the FNC/BNC ratio in both agricultural and natural 392 393 ecosystems (Figures 4e, f, 5f, 6f), and the FNC/BNC ratio increased with increasing





394	elevation (Figure S7a). Increasing elevation typically leads to decreased temperature,
395	and increased precipitation (Körner, 2007), conditions favoring fungi over bacteria
396	due to higher enzymatic capabilities and resource-use efficiency of fungi under the
397	environments (Chen et al., 2020; Yu et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2025). High elevation
398	also results in slower soil development, which can reduce the availability of soil
399	nutrients (Guerrero-Ramírez et al., 2020). This in turn increases environmental stress
400	and restricts bacterial activity, thereby favoring the accumulation and conversion of
401	fungal residues into necromass (Li et al., 2024). Our study further demonstrated that
402	although elevation had a direct effect on the FNC/BNC ratio, it also indirectly
403	influenced the ratio by modulating climatic factors, soil physicochemical properties,
404	and biological factors (Figures 5e, 6e). This may explain why elevation is always
405	integrate other environmental factor effects in the studies of MNC (Cui et al., 2023;
406	Zhang et al., 2025).

407

408 4.3 Limitations and uncertainties

Although the present study provides important insights on global patterns and drivers of soil microbial necromass in agricultural and natural ecosystems, we must clarify two limitations. First, the limited data available on microbial characteristics, such as microbial community composition, enzymatic activities, and the content of soil aggregates and minerals hinder exploration of the drivers of soil microbial necromass. Second, it is undeniable that our dataset is unevenly distributed, primarily concentrating on the Northern Hemisphere, with sparse or nearly no data from other





416	regions such as Africa, South America, and Australia (see Figure 1). Moreover, the
417	natural ecosystems in this study were limited to forests and grasslands, excluding
418	other natural habitats such as wetlands and deserts. The uneven distribution of data
419	may reduce the universality of MNC as a key driver of soil carbon pools in global
420	terrestrial ecosystems. Therefore, more data from these important areas and biomes
421	are clearly required, and further investigation is warranted to fill the data gaps
422	regarding the contribution of MNC to SOC in terrestrial ecosystems.

423

424 **5 Data availability**

425 The data and R code for this manuscript are available at 426 https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.28827386 (Lu, 2025).

427

428 6 Conclusions

Our results suggest that the contribution of FNC to SOC is significantly greater than 429 that of BNC in both agricultural and natural ecosystems. The relative contributions of 430 FNC and BNC to SOC were found to be higher in agricultural ecosystems-an effect 431 that is mediated by differences in soil physicochemical factors. The FNC/BNC ratio 432 was significantly higher in natural ecosystems compared to agricultural ecosystems, 433 primarily driven by geographical factors (elevation). Our results reveal consistent 434 trends in the contributions of FNC and BNC to SOC, and the FNC/BNC ratio, which 435 are indicative of ecosystem-level differences in C turnover and stabilization 436 mechanisms across the globe. These insights are conducive to a better mechanistic 437





438	understanding of the role of microbes in the C cycle in terrestrial ecosystems, and
439	could inform strategies for C sequestration and sustainable land management
440	strategies in the context of global change.
441	
442	Author contributions
443	JL performed the data analysis and prepared the original draft. TC and MDB
444	contributed to manuscript review and editing. WL and HS contributed to data
445	collection. YJ contributed to data analysis. ZW supervised the project and contributed
446	to the original draft.
447	
448	Competing interests
449	The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interests.
450	
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- 710 Table 1. Summary of the contributions of fungal necromass carbon (FNC) and
- 711 bacterial necromass carbon (BNC) to SOC and the FNC/BNC ratio in

	FNC/SOC (%)		BNC/S	OC (%)	FNC/BNC		
Ecosystem	Range	Mean± SE	Range	Mean± SE	Range	Mean± SE	
Natural	0.92–	29.24 ±	0.25–	14.02 ±	0.12-	3.22 ±	
(N = 341)	96.29	0.51 b*	89.45	0.36 b	44.24	0.11 a	
Forest	0.92-	$29.11 \pm$	0.94–	$13.48 \pm$	0.22-	$2.80 \pm$	
(<i>N</i> = 195)	96.29	0.63 A [#]	96.47	0.43 A	11.56	0.07 A	
Grassland	0.96–	$26.75 \pm$	0.25 -	$14.34 \pm$	0.05 -	$3.58 \pm$	
(N = 146)	93.89	0.74 A	89.45	0.60 A	44.24	0.22 A	
Agricultural	0.09–	34.39 ±	0.81 -	15.65 ±	0.02–	2.61 ±	
ecosystem (<i>N</i> = 145)	97.53	0.67 a	65.00	0.33 a	12.74	0.06 b	

agricultural and natural ecosystems at the global scale investigated in this study.

- 713 Note: *N* refers to the number of study sites;
- ^{*}Natural ecosystem includes forest and grassland;
- ^{*}Within the same column, values with different lowercase letters indicate a significant
- difference in the same variable between agricultural and natural ecosystems (P < 0.05,
- 717 Wilcoxon rank-sum test);
- [#]Within the same column, values with different capital letters indicate a significant
- 719 difference in the same variable between forests and grasslands (P < 0.05, Wilcoxon
- 720 rank-sum test).





721	Figure	legends
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- 722 Figure 1. Global distribution of the sites used in this study. Ecosystem types are
- 723 distinguished by distinct shapes and colors, with the numbers in parentheses
- 724 indicating the number of study sites for each ecosystem type.
- 725 Figure 2. Comparison of the contributions of MNC to SOC and their ratio in
- 726 agricultural and natural ecosystems. Colors indicate different ecosystems types.
- 727 Significance levels: ***P < 0.001 and *P < 0.05.
- Figure 3. Variations in the contributions of MNC to SOC and their ratio
 explained by four types of factors in agricultural and natural ecosystems. Colors
 indicate different types of factors.

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

Figure 5. The influence pathways of four types of factors on the contributions of MNC to SOC and their ratio in agricultural ecosystems. Direct and indirect effects (a, c, e) and the standardized total effects (b, d, f) of different factors on the contributions of MNC to SOC and their ratio of agricultural ecosystems are shown.
Standardized path coefficients representing the effect sizes of potential causal factors





are indicated by numbers adjacent to arrows. The width of arrows is proportional to the potential causal effect between variables. The red arrows indicate positive effects, and the blue arrows indicate negative effects. The numbers adjacent to boxes of response variables denote the explained variance (R^2). Right-angled rectangles denote single variables, whereas rounded rectangles represent composite variables. Colors indicate different types of factors. Significance levels: ***P < 0.001, **P < 0.01 and *P < 0.05. The *priori* models are shown in Figure S7.

Figure 6. The influence pathways of four types of factors on the contributions of 750 751 MNC to SOC and their ratio in natural ecosystems. Direct and indirect effects (a, c, e) and the standardized total effects (b, d, f) of different factors on the contributions of 752 MNC to SOC and their ratio of natural ecosystems are shown. Standardized path 753 754 coefficients representing the effect sizes of potential causal factors are indicated by numbers adjacent to arrows. The width of arrows is proportional to the potential 755 causal effect between variables. The red arrows indicate positive effects, and the blue 756 arrows indicate negative effects. The numbers adjacent to boxes of response variables 757 denote the explained variance (R²). Right-angled rectangles denote single variables, 758 whereas rounded rectangles represent composite variables. Colors indicate different 759 types of factors. Significance levels: ***P < 0.001, **P < 0.01 and *P < 0.05. The 760 priori models are shown in Figure S7. 761













764 Figure 2.





766 **Figure 3.**









768 Figure 4.







771





Figure 6. 772





χ²=33.711, df=16, RMSEA=0.077, CFI=0.970, *n*=963





χ²=32.924, df=16, RMSEA=0.046, CFI=0.986, *n*=963



