

1 **Title:**

2 **Climatic seasonality challenges the stability of microbial-driven deep**  
3 **soil carbon accumulation across China**

4 **Running title:**

5 **Climate challenges deep soil C stabilization**

6

7 Shuhai Wen<sup>1,2</sup>, Jiaying Chen<sup>2</sup>, Ziming Yang<sup>3</sup>, Lei Deng<sup>4</sup>, Jiao Feng<sup>2</sup>, Wen Zhang<sup>2</sup>,  
8 Xiao-Min Zeng<sup>2</sup>, Qiaoyun Huang<sup>1,2</sup>, Manuel Delgado-Baquerizo<sup>5,6</sup>, Yu-Rong Liu<sup>1,2\*</sup>

9 <sup>1</sup>National Key Laboratory of Agricultural Microbiology, Huazhong Agricultural  
10 University, Wuhan 430070, China

11 <sup>2</sup>College of Resources and Environment, Huazhong Agricultural University, Wuhan

12 <sup>3</sup>Department of Chemistry, Oakland University, Rochester, MI 48309, United States

13 <sup>4</sup>State Key Laboratory of Soil Erosion and Dryland Farming on the Loess Plateau,  
14 Institute of Soil and Water Conservation, Northwest A&F University, Yangling,  
15 Shaanxi 712100, China

16 <sup>5</sup>Laboratorio de Biodiversidad y Funcionamiento Ecosistémico, Instituto de Recursos  
17 Naturales y Agrobiología de Sevilla (IRNAS), CSIC, Sevilla 41012, Spain

18 <sup>6</sup>Unidad Asociada CSIC-UPO (BioFun), Universidad Pablo de Olavide, 41013 Sevilla,  
19 Spain.

20 Shuhai Wen and Jiaying Chen contributed equally to this work.

21 **\* Corresponding author:**

22 Dr. Yu-Rong Liu. E-mail: yrliu@mail.hzau.edu.cn; Phone: (+86) 27-87286165

23

24 **Abstract**

25 Microbial residues contribute to the long-term stabilization of carbon in the entire soil  
26 profile, helping to regulate the climate of the planet; however, how sensitive these  
27 residues are to climatic seasonality remains virtually unknown, especially for deep  
28 soils across environmental gradients. Here, we investigated the changes of microbial  
29 residues along soil profiles (0-100 cm) from 44 typical ecosystems with a wide range  
30 of climates (~3100 km transects across China). Our results showed that microbial  
31 residues account for a larger portion of soil carbon in deeper (60-100 cm) vs.  
32 shallower (0-30 and 30-60 cm) soils. Moreover, we find that climate especially  
33 challenges the accumulation of microbial residues in deep soils, while soil properties  
34 and climate share their roles in controlling the residue accumulation in surface soils.  
35 Climatic seasonality, including positive correlations with summer precipitation and  
36 maximum monthly precipitation, as well as negative correlations with temperature  
37 annual range, are important factors explaining microbial residue accumulation in deep  
38 soils across the continent. In particular, summer precipitation is the key regulator of  
39 microbial-driven carbon stability in deep soils, which has 37.2% of relative independent  
40 effects on deep-soil microbial residue accumulation. Our work provides novel insights  
41 into the importance of climatic seasonality in driving the stabilization of microbial  
42 residues in deep soils, challenging the idea that deep soils as long-term carbon  
43 reservoirs can buffer climate change.

44

45 **Keywords**

46 Climate-carbon feedback, Soil carbon stabilization, Deep soil, Summer precipitation,  
47 Microbial residues, Soil profile

48

## 49 **1. Introduction**

50 Deep soils represent a huge carbon (C) pool containing over half amount of total C  
51 stocks in terrestrial ecosystems, but with a longer resident time compared with  
52 topsoils (Balesdent et al., 2018; Jobbágy & Jackson, 2000; Luo et al., 2019). Because  
53 of this, deep-soil C storage and dynamics play an important role in the global C cycle  
54 in terrestrial ecosystems and climate change regulation (Balesdent et al., 2018;  
55 Jobbágy & Jackson, 2000; Rumpel & Kögel-Knabner, 2011). However, unlike for  
56 topsoils, C stored in deep soils is far less studied, and the understanding of different  
57 environmental factors that drive this C stock is quite limited. Moreover, although  
58 deep-soil C is expected to be less exposed to environmental conditions, our  
59 knowledge on their vulnerability to climate warming, water scarcity and soil  
60 degradation is scarce. Deep soil layer is also directly influenced by the entrance of C  
61 from plant inputs and litter decomposition on the surface. For example, deep soils can  
62 preserve microbial residues accumulated via lixiviation from shallow soil layers,  
63 which supports slow rates of C turnover. These microbial residues are mixtures of  
64 dead cell fragments, small biopolymers and enzymes that can be kept for a long time  
65 in soils by the protection of minerals, micropores and aggregates (He et al., 2022;  
66 Kuzyakov & Mason-Jones, 2018; Six et al., 2006), constituting a large proportion of  
67 soil organic C (SOC) (Buckeridge et al., 2022). Numerous studies have demonstrated  
68 significant contributions of microbial residues to SOC pools across biomes and  
69 climate zones, accounting for about 30-60% of the SOC storage (Deng & Liang, 2022;  
70 Ma et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2021b). However, much less is known regarding the  
71 influence of climate changes on deep-soil microbial residues, which hampers our  
72 ability to predict the role of these components in global climate regulations.

73 The uncertainties about the drivers of microbial residues in deep soils exist for  
74 three reasons. First, most studies on microbial residues were based on the top 30 cm  
75 of soils; but in fact, microbial-derived C might be much more critical for C storage in  
76 deeper soils than topsoils due to the less plant C inputs (Jobbágy & Jackson, 2000;

77 Rumpel & Kögel-Knabner, 2011). Lack of knowledge about microbial residues in  
78 deeper soils thus limits our capacity to evaluate the microbial contribution to soil C  
79 stocks. Second, most studies on microbial residues were conducted at a local scale or  
80 in a specific ecosystem (Chen et al., 2020; He et al., 2022; Zhu et al., 2021), which  
81 makes it difficult to provide a reliable assessment on the impact of biotic and abiotic  
82 factors on the accumulation of microbial residues across wide gradients of climate and  
83 vegetation. We know that microbial residues in topsoils are predominantly regulated  
84 by soil properties (Angst et al., 2021; Ni et al., 2020b), climatic variables (Chen et al.,  
85 2020; Ma et al., 2018; Zeng et al., 2022), ecosystem type (Liang et al., 2019; Wang et  
86 al., 2021a; Yang et al., 2022), and microbiomes (Buckeridge et al., 2020; C. Wang et  
87 al., 2021b). However, relative contribution of these environmental factors to explain  
88 microbial residues in deeper soils is virtually unknown. Third, unclear association  
89 between climate and microbial residues in deeper soils hinders us from clarifying  
90 whether stored C in deep soils is stable under climate change. Current knowledge  
91 assumes that deeper soils are more independent of climatic conditions than surface  
92 soils, but evidences are lacking. Nevertheless, climate might also regulate the  
93 accumulation of microbial residues in deeper soils indirectly via regulating the inputs  
94 of C from plant and microbial productivity. In particular, climatic seasonality  
95 (seasonal variations in meteorological attributes such as range of temperature and  
96 frequency and amplitude of rain events), could trigger substantial changes of plant  
97 and microbial communities (Engelhardt et al., 2018; Saikonen et al., 2012),  
98 subsequently, influencing their regulations on C storage. Therefore, exploring how  
99 microbial residues in deeper soils respond to climate seasonal changes is critical to  
100 understanding of the climate sensitivity of soil C pools and its feedback to climate  
101 change.

102 Here, we conducted a national-scale standardized survey of soil profiles (topsoil:  
103 0-30 cm, subsoil: 30-60 cm, deep soil: 60-100 cm) from 44 ecosystems (from  
104 19.95°N to 48.05°N, Fig. S1), covering a broad range of climate, vegetation and soil

105 types. We investigated the influence of climate on the accumulation of soil microbial  
106 residues and compared with other fundamental factors such as soil properties and  
107 plant productivity. We used amino sugars as a proxy of microbial residues because  
108 they are unique components of fungal and bacterial cell walls but are negligible in the  
109 living microbial biomass, making them the most commonly used biomarkers to  
110 quantify microbial residues (Buckeridge et al., 2022; Joergensen, 2018; Liang et al.,  
111 2019). We first evaluated the variations in content of amino sugars and their  
112 proportion in SOC along the soil profile. Then, we explored main driving forces of  
113 microbial residues in three soil layers, considering 15 environmental variables relating  
114 to geographic, climatic, vegetation and edaphic factors. In particular, we focused the  
115 effects of climatic seasonality on the accumulation of microbial residues in deeper  
116 soils, because buried microbes in deep soils may be especially sensitive to the changes  
117 in nutrients, moisture and temperature pulse driven by the seasonal climate, thus  
118 further influence their C assimilation and decomposition processes. Therefore, we  
119 assumed that climatic seasonality is the key regulator of microbial residues in deep  
120 soils. Furthermore, we identified the most important seasonal climatic variables and  
121 clarified the pathways that influence microbial residues in deep soils.

## 122 **2. Materials and methods**

### 123 **2.1 Study areas and soil sampling**

124 Soil samples were collected from 44 locations (Fig. S1 and Table S1) across China  
125 (from 19.95°N to 48.05°N, stretch across ~3100 km), covering a broad range of  
126 climate and environmental gradients. At each sampling site, three soil profiles of 100  
127 cm depth were randomly dug out. We separated topsoils, subsoils and deep soils by  
128 specific depths rather than by horizons of soil genesis and development, as done in  
129 many previous studies (Fontaine et al., 2007; Balesdent et al., 2018; Luo et al., 2019).  
130 This allowed us to better compare the microbial residues across a large-scale using the  
131 unified depth of soil layers. Generally, the layers of 0-30 cm soils consisted of humus  
132 layer and a transitional horizon and are identified as topsoil; the approximately 30-60

133 cm soil layers were mineral horizon and are referred as subsoil; the 60-100 cm soil  
134 layers consisted of the bottom of subsoil and weathered parent materials which have  
135 the characteristics of deep soils, and are therefore identified as the layer of deep soils  
136 in this study (Fig. 1b). We mixed the same layer of soil from three soil profiles at each  
137 site to obtain composite samples of all the three layers. The composite soil samples  
138 were sieved through 2 mm mesh and divided into two sub-samples, one was stored at  
139 -20 °C for microbial analysis, and the other was air dried for analyses of soil physical  
140 and chemical properties. Soil pH was determined by a pH meter in a 1:2.5 ratio of soil  
141 and water suspension. The contents of soil organic carbon (SOC) and total nitrogen  
142 (TN) were measured using the Walkley-Black and Kjeldahl methods, respectively  
143 (Page et al., 1982).

## 144 **2.2 Analysis of microbial residues**

145 Soil amino sugars are widely used biomarkers to quantify microbial residues, which  
146 are only found in cell walls of fungi and bacteria (Buckeridge et al., 2022; Liang et al.,  
147 2019). Amino sugars were determined according to the GC-based detection of  
148 aldonitrile acetate derivatized glucosamine and muramic acid in the soil (Liang et  
149 al., 2012). Briefly, air-dried soil samples (weighing soil that contains  $\geq 0.3$  mg of N)  
150 were hydrolyzed with 6 M HCl at 105 °C for 8 h. After digestion, 100  $\mu$ L internal  
151 standard (1  $\mu$ g ml<sup>-1</sup> myo-inositol) was added to each solution. The solutions were  
152 filtered, vacuum dried at 45 °C, and then re-dissolved with deionized water and  
153 centrifuged after adjusting the pH to 6.6-6.8 using 1 M KOH. The supernatants were  
154 freeze-dried, and the dried residues were dissolved with methanol and dried with N<sub>2</sub>  
155 gas at 45 °C. After that, 100  $\mu$ L N-methylglucamine was added to each sample, and  
156 freeze-dried again. The residues were derivatized with 300  $\mu$ L of pyridine-methanol  
157 (4:1 v/v) at 75-80 °C for 30 min, added acetic anhydride, and reheated at 75-80 °C for  
158 25 min. After cooling, the derivatives were mixed with 1.5 ml dichloromethane and  
159 removed the excessive derivatization reagents with 1 M HCl and deionized water. The  
160 organic phase containing amino sugar derivatives was dried with N<sub>2</sub> gas at 45 °C and

161 re-dissolved with 300  $\mu$ L hexane-ethyl acetate solvent (1:1 v/v). Amino sugar  
162 derivatives were determined by gas chromatography (Shimadzu GC2010 Plus,  
163 Shimadzu Corporation, Kyoto, Japan) equipped with an HP-5 column (25 m  $\times$  0.25  
164 mm  $\times$  0.25  $\mu$ m). Two types of amino sugars (glucosamine and muramic acid) were  
165 determined as the indicator of the microbial residues in this study. Muramic acid  
166 exclusively occurs in bacterial cells, glucosamine is derived both from fungal and  
167 bacterial cells, but a higher portion of it is from fungal cells than bacterial cells  
168 (Joergensen, 2018). Thus, the contents of bacterial residues are estimated by muramic  
169 acid, and the contents of fungal residues are estimated by fungal glucosamine which is  
170 figured out by subtracting the bacterial glucosamine from total glucosamine (Liang et  
171 al., 2019). The contents of amino sugars are the sum of glucosamine and muramic  
172 acid.

### 173 **2.3 Data collection of environmental variables**

174 We collected four categories of environmental factors (geographic, climatic,  
175 vegetation and edaphic factors, consisting of 15 individual environmental variables)  
176 to identify the main determinants of microbial residues in different soil depths.  
177 Geographic variables including longitude, latitude and elevation were recorded by a  
178 GPS device at sampling sites. Climatic variables include mean annual temperature  
179 (MAT), temperature seasonality (TS), temperature annual range (TAR), mean annual  
180 precipitation (MAP), maximum monthly precipitation (P<sub>MAX</sub>) and summer  
181 precipitation (SP), and were extracted from the WorldClim version 2 database (Fick  
182 & Hijmans, 2017) (<https://www.worldclim.org>; ~1 km resolution). Vegetation  
183 variable is the normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI) obtained from the  
184 MODIS, Global MOD13A1 data (Didan, 2015) (<http://modis.gsfc.nasa.gov/>; ~500 m  
185 resolution). Edaphic variables included SOC, TN, SOC:TN, pH and soil clay content,  
186 and were determined using soil samples from the filed survey. Soil clay content was  
187 collected from high resolution National Soil Information Grids of China (Liu et al.,  
188 2022; Liu et al., 2020) (<http://soil.geodata.cn>; ~1 km resolution). Detailed information

189 on the environmental variables and rationale of these variables on the accumulation of  
190 microbial residues are shown in Table S2.

## 191 **2.4 Statistical analysis**

192 Differences in the amino sugars between three soil depths were assessed by the  
193 Kruskal-Wallis test, and the Wilcox test was conducted for multiple comparisons  
194 using “rstatix” package. Hierarchical partitioning analyses were performed to identify  
195 the important environmental variables associated with amino sugars accumulation at  
196 three soil depths using “rdacca.hp” package (Lai et al., 2021). Hierarchical  
197 partitioning allowed us to quantify the independent effect (%) of grouped variables  
198 (geographic, climate, vegetation and edaphic) and every single variable (15  
199 environmental variables) on amino sugars. Correlation analysis and ordinary least  
200 squares regression were conducted to assess the relationships between climatic  
201 variables and amino sugars at three soil depths. These statistical analyses were  
202 conducted using R 4.1.1 (<http://cran.r-project.org/>).

203 Structural equation modeling (SEM) was conducted to clarify the pathways of  
204 four categories of environmental factors influencing amino sugars in topsoil, subsoil  
205 and deep soil, respectively. In the prior conceptual model, we assumed that  
206 geographic factors generally determined the climate, and climate drives vegetation  
207 and edaphic variables, subsequently directly and indirectly affect amino sugars (Fig.  
208 S9). Variables involved in SEM analysis include geographic (longitude, latitude and  
209 elevation), climatic seasonality (summer precipitation and temperature annual range),  
210 vegetation (NDVI) and edaphic (SOC, TN, SOC:TN, clay and pH). Detailed  
211 information of these variables was shown in Table S2. The goodness of model fit was  
212 examined by chi-square test ( $0 \leq \chi^2/df \leq 2$ , and  $0.05 < p \leq 1$ ) and RMSEA ( $0 \leq$   
213  $RMSEA \leq 0.05$ ), which further confirmed the fit of model by Bollen-Stine bootstrap  
214 test ( $0.10 < \text{bootstrap } p \leq 1.00$ ) (Delgado-Baquerizo et al., 2020). SEM analyses were  
215 conducted using AMOS 21.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA).

## 216 **3. Result**



### 217 **3.1 Distribution patterns of amino sugars along the soil profile across the** 218 **continent**

219 The concentration of amino sugars decreased with increasing soil depth across China  
220 (Fig. 1a and 1c). The average level of the amino sugars in deep soils ( $0.50 \pm 0.04$  mg  
221  $\text{g}^{-1}$ ) was lower compared to topsoils ( $0.69 \pm 0.08$  mg  $\text{g}^{-1}$ ) ( $p < 0.05$ , Fig. 1c). However,  
222 when normalizing amino sugars by the total amount of SOC, we show that the  
223 proportion of amino sugars in SOC increased with soil depth, being 1.8 times higher  
224 in deep soils than that in topsoils ( $p < 0.05$ , Fig. S3). Consistently, the proportion of  
225 muramic acid (proxy of bacterial residues) and fungal glucosamine (proxy of fungal  
226 residues) in SOC were higher in deep soils than in topsoils, even though the  
227 concentrations of muramic acid and fungal glucosamine decreased or were  
228 independent of soil depth ( $p < 0.05$ , Fig. S4). We observed general decreases of  
229 amino sugars with increasing latitude at all three soil depths (Fig. 1d), which  
230 exhibited a large geospatial variability across different climate zones. For instance,  
231 temperate climates are associated with a higher concentration of soil amino sugars  
232 than arid and cold climates (Fig. 1e).

### 233 **3.2 Climatic seasonality explains amino sugar concentration in deep soils**

234 Hierarchical partitioning analyses reveal that overall climate factor was closely  
235 associated with amino sugars in soil profiles, especially in deeper soil layers (Fig. 2).  
236 The independent effect of climate explained a much higher proportion in the variation  
237 of amino sugars in deep soils (27.1%) compared to that in topsoils (10.6%) (Fig. 2a).  
238 Among the climatic variables, precipitation explains a larger variation of amino  
239 sugars than temperature, and the discrepancy of explanations increased with the soil  
240 depth (Fig. 2b). Furthermore, we find that variables of climatic seasonality such as  
241 summer precipitation, maximum monthly precipitation, temperate seasonality and  
242 temperature annual range have strong associations with amino sugars in deep soils.  
243 Particularly, summer precipitation has the highest relative independent effect (37.2%)  
244 on amino sugars in deep soils. We further reveal that the content of amino sugars was

245 positively correlated with summer precipitation, maximum monthly precipitation and  
246 mean annual precipitation, while negative correlations with temperature seasonality  
247 and temperature annual range were observed in all three soil depths (Fig. 3). In  
248 addition, climatic variables had stronger associations with bacterial residues in deeper  
249 soils, but with fungal residues in topsoils (Fig. S5).

### 250 **3.3 Pathways of seasonal climatic effects on microbial residues in different soil** 251 **depths**

252 Structural equation modeling (SEM) analyses further illustrated the pathways by  
253 which climatic seasonality influenced amino sugars in soil profiles combined with  
254 other environmental variables (Fig. 4). In topsoils, climatic seasonality was indirectly  
255 associated with amino sugars through affecting edaphic variables (Fig. 4a). In deep  
256 soils, summer precipitation had a direct association with the concentration of amino  
257 sugars, while vegetation was indirectly associated with amino sugars through  
258 influencing the SOC (Fig. 4c). Overall, summer precipitation had the highest positive  
259 total effect on amino sugars in deep soils, followed by temperature annual range (Fig.  
260 4f). Moreover, amino sugars in deep soil had stronger associations with seasonal  
261 variations in precipitation than in temperature (Fig. 4c and 4f).

## 262 **4. Discussion**

263 Soil C pools in deep soil layers have been of great concern due to the enormous  
264 quantity of C stored which strongly affect global climate (Balesdent et al., 2018).  
265 Deep soils contain a huge amount of C associated with microbial residues, playing a  
266 key role in long-term C storage in the terrestrial ecosystems (Liang et al., 2017).  
267 However, the distribution of microbial residues in soil profiles and their associations  
268 with climate have been rarely assessed, and the major forces driving this C stock in  
269 deep soils remains virtually unknown. Moreover, we know little about the sensitivity  
270 of deep-soil microbial residues to changing climate, which limits our ability to predict  
271 deep-soil C budget under the ongoing climate change. Our study provides empirical

272 evidence that microbial residues contribute a larger proportion of SOC in deep soils  
273 than in topsoils across China, and climatic seasonality is a determining factor for the  
274 accumulation of microbial residues in deeper soil layer. Our work highlights a greater  
275 importance of climatic regions and seasonality on regulating the deep-soil C  
276 sequestration than we previously thought.

277 Our study shows that climate effects on the accumulation of microbial residues  
278 increased along the soil profile, and the main driving forces shifted from edaphic  
279 attributes in topsoils to climate variables in deep soils. Generally, climate and  
280 vegetation construct topsoils with abundant C and nutrient resources, microbial  
281 biomass and activities, thus microbial processes and residues accumulation are greatly  
282 influenced by soil properties such as SOC and N availability (Ni et al., 2020a; Ni et  
283 al., 2020b). The role of climate in microbial residues could be accompanied by soil  
284 properties in surface soils. However, deep soils have relatively deprived substrates  
285 (Fig. S2) which could suppress the turnover of microbial communities, wherein  
286 climate rather than soil properties or vegetation becomes crucial in regulating  
287 microbial processes. For example, frequent precipitation events and relatively large  
288 precipitation in summer can cause water logging and thus form anoxic conditions in  
289 deep soils due to poor drainage (Agboma & Itenfisu, 2020; Zhang et al., 2022), which  
290 slows down aerobic soil C respiration and leads to higher accumulation of microbial  
291 residues (García-Palacios & Chen, 2022). Nevertheless, the climate effects on  
292 deep-soil microbial community and their accumulated residues are not evident in  
293 small-scale experiments or regional studies (He et al., 2022; Moritz et al., 2009),  
294 owing to the little variations of climate variables. Consequently, our results suggest  
295 that seasonal climate is a more important driver of soil microbial residue  
296 accumulation in deep soils than other environmental attributes.

297 In general, soil C cycle in terrestrial ecosystems was considered predominantly  
298 controlled by the geo-climate (Doetterl et al., 2015; Patoine et al., 2022); however, the  
299 effects of climatic seasonality, climate annual changes on the storage of SOC and

300 microbial-derived C remained largely unexplored. In the present study, we show that  
301 summer precipitation, which represents the precipitation in the growing season, was a  
302 key climatic variable related to the accumulation of microbial residues in deep soils.  
303 High precipitation during the growing season is conducive to plant growth and  
304 decomposition of organic matter (Campos et al., 2017), which increases microbial  
305 assimilation and residue formation due to the high C inputs (Bell et al., 2014).  
306 Moreover, dissolved organic matter can be permeated into the deep soil through mass  
307 flow and diffusion through seasonal precipitation events (Belnap et al., 2005).  
308 Increased available substrates and moisture resulted from rainfall facilitate microbial  
309 turnover (Serna-Chavez et al., 2013), and thereby promote the formation of microbial  
310 residues in deep soils. In top soils, however, we did not observe a similar contribution  
311 of summer precipitation to variations of microbial residues, even though C input and  
312 nutrient availability were greater than those in deep soils. This might be attributed to  
313 that increased plant C input in topsoils was offset by the enhanced microbial  
314 respiration and SOC decomposition under favorable moist and warm conditions  
315 (Campos et al., 2017). Differently, in the deeper soils, summer precipitation-regulated  
316 water and nutrient supplies were essential for microbial assimilation under the harsh  
317 condition (Fierer et al. 2003; Fontaine et al., 2007; Suseela et al., 2012), and thus had  
318 stronger effects on the accumulation of microbial residues.

319 Our results also revealed that temperature seasonality and temperature annual  
320 range are important climatic variables associated with microbial residues in deep soils.  
321 Previous studies showed that microbial C use efficiency declined relative to  
322 respiration in subsoils under warming due to temperature seasonality (Maxwell et al.,  
323 2022; Sistla et al., 2014), and thus increased the loss of old C in deep soils (Pegoraro  
324 et al., 2021). For example, temperature switching from cold winter to hot summer can  
325 stimulate microbial activity more than that from warm winter to hot summer (Koven  
326 et al., 2017). Moreover, wide ranges of temperature between seasons can also indicate  
327 a soil environment under relatively long-term temperature changes, providing more

328 time for microbial decomposition. Consequently, large variations in temperature  
329 without timely substrates supply in deep soils may lead to more investment by  
330 microbes in catabolism rather than anabolism (Feng et al., 2021), impeding the  
331 formation of microbial residues in the soil (Buckeridge et al., 2020). This may explain  
332 why we observed that temperature seasonality and temperature annual range had  
333 negative correlations with microbial residues in deep soils, and low residue  
334 accumulation in high latitudes could be associated with the relatively wide ranges of  
335 temperature in these areas (Fig. S6). Thus, we suggest that seasonal variation of  
336 temperature is a key regulator of C sequestration in deep soils.

337 We did additional analyses to explore the contribution of various environmental  
338 factors to explain soil microbial residues excluding variables of climatic seasonality.  
339 The total explanations of these factors for amino sugars sharply reduced from 0.5 to  
340 0.2 for deep soil layer (Fig. S7a). Mean annual temperature and precipitation as  
341 climatic factors can well explain the accumulation of microbial residues in topsoils  
342 but not for deep soils. The dominant role of climate in explaining deep-soil amino  
343 sugars (Fig. 2a) was replaced by edaphic factors when only considering the mean  
344 annual climate (Fig. S7b). These analyses suggest that lacking consideration of  
345 climatic seasonality factors may underestimate climate impacts on deep-soil microbial  
346 residues, or overestimate the stability of such a C pool under climate change. We  
347 compared the relative independent effects of various climatic variables on SOC (Fig.  
348 S8), and found that climatic seasonality is a nonnegligible factor for C storage in deep  
349 soils. Moreover, plant C input associated with climatic seasonality is an important  
350 factor influencing microbial turnover and residue accumulation at different soil layers  
351 (He et al., 2022). In this study, plant C input was not included due to the great  
352 challenges of measuring plant biomass during such a large-scale field sampling.  
353 Instead, we did additional analyses using net primary production (NPP) as plant C  
354 input (ANPP+BNPP<sub>0-30</sub> for the shallow soil layer, BNPP<sub>30-100</sub> for the deeper soil layer,  
355 as commonly used in many previous studies (Balesdent et al., 2018; Luo et al., 2019).

356 Consistently, the result still indicated that climatic seasonality was the dominant  
357 driver of deep soil microbial residues even after involving belowground C input (Fig.  
358 S10). Therefore, we suggest that considering seasonal climatic variations in future  
359 work can improve our ability to predict SOC sequestration.

360 Microbial composition, turnover and recycling of dead residues vary along the  
361 soil profiles, influencing the accumulation of microbial-driven C (Throckmorton et al.,  
362 2012; Liang et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2018). Our results indicated that climate had a  
363 strong association with bacterial residues in deep soils, while with fungal residues in  
364 topsoils (Fig. S5), suggesting that climatic seasonality probably regulates soil  
365 microbial residues by influencing soil microbial communities. In topsoils, the input of  
366 a large amount of plant matter is conducive to the metabolism and turnover of fungi  
367 that typically utilize fresh litter, and thus fungal residues could sensitively respond to  
368 the climatic seasonality. However, the harsh conditions in deep soils may shift the  
369 microbial communities to bacteria-dominated communities because most bacteria are  
370 facultative anaerobes while fungi prefer aerobic environments (Moritz et al., 2009; De  
371 Vries & Shade, 2013). Moreover, fungal residues are considered to be more stable  
372 than bacterial residues owing to their large body size, thick cell walls, hyphae, and  
373 some recalcitrant components, such as melanins and chitin (Martin & Haider, 1979;  
374 Schweigert et al., 2015; Luo et al., 2021). Hence, bacteria communities and residues  
375 could be more susceptible to climatic seasonality in deeper soils due to their faster  
376 turnover and shorter resident time than fungi. The turnover of microbial residues is  
377 important for interpreting the stability of microbial residues and SOC pools in deep  
378 soils under climate change. Therefore, further evidence on microbial physiology,  
379 biomass and composition will deepen our understanding of soil microbial-driven C  
380 cycles.

381 Taken together, our study clarifies distribution patterns and drivers of microbial  
382 residues along the soil profile across China, and provides new insights into the  
383 associations between climate seasonal changes and C stability in deep soils. Microbial

384 residues are the major contributor to the organic C pools in deeper soils, which  
385 represent an enormous reservoir of terrestrial C. We identified that climatic  
386 seasonality plays a more important role in the deep-soil accumulation of microbial  
387 residues compared to other environmental attributes, and summer precipitation is a  
388 key climatic variable predicting microbial residues in deeper layer of soils. This  
389 knowledge is critical to our understanding of C stability in terrestrial ecosystems and  
390 the role in global climate regulation. Our work also highlights the necessity of  
391 reassessing deep-soil C stability and potential in response to ongoing climate changes  
392 at a global scale.

### 393 **Acknowledgments**

394 This research was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China  
395 (42207391, 32071595 and 42177022). M.D-B. is also supported by a project from the  
396 Spanish Ministry of Science and Innovation (PID2020-115813RA-I00), and a project  
397 of the Fondo Europeo de Desarrollo Regional (FEDER) and the Consejería de  
398 Transformación Económica, Industria, Conocimiento y Universidades of the Junta de  
399 Andalucía (FEDER Andalucía 2014-2020 Objetivo temático “01 - Refuerzo de la  
400 investigación, el desarrollo tecnológico y la innovación”) associated with the research  
401 project P20\_00879 (ANDABIOMA).

### 402 **Conflict of interest**

403 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

### 404 **Author contributions**

405 Y.-R.L. designed the study. J.C. and S.W. carried out the field survey and lab analyses.  
406 S.W. analyzed the data and wrote the first draft of the paper. Y.-R.L., M.D.-B., J.C.,  
407 Z.Y., L.D., J.F., W.Z., X.-M.Z. and Q.H. revised the paper. All authors reviewed the  
408 paper and approved the final version of the manuscript.

### 409 **Data availability statement**

410 The data that support the findings of this study are openly available in figshare at  
411 <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.21524778.v1>.

412 **References**

- 413 Agboma, C., & Itenfisu, D. (2020). Investigating the Spatio-Temporal dynamics in  
414 the soil water storage in Alberta's Agricultural region. *Journal of Hydrology*,  
415 588, 125104. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2020.125104>
- 416 Angst, G., Mueller, K. E., Nierop, K. G., & Simpson, M. J. (2021). Plant-or  
417 microbial-derived? A review on the molecular composition of stabilized soil  
418 organic matter. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry*, 156, 108189.  
419 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2021.108189>
- 420 Balesdent, J., Basile-Doelsch, I., Chadoeuf, J., Cornu, S., Derrien, D., Fekiacova, Z.,  
421 & Hatte, C. (2018). Atmosphere-soil carbon transfer as a function of soil depth.  
422 *Nature*, 559(7715), 599-602. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-018-0328-3>
- 423 Bell, C. W., Tissue, D. T., Loik, M. E., Wallenstein, M. D., Acosta-Martinez, V.,  
424 Erickson, R. A., & Zak, J. C. (2014). Soil microbial and nutrient responses to 7  
425 years of seasonally altered precipitation in a Chihuahuan Desert grassland.  
426 *Global Change Biology*, 20(5), 1657-1673. <https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.12418>
- 427 Belnap, J., Welter, J. R., Grimm, N. B., Barger, N., & Ludwig, J. A. (2005). Linkages  
428 between microbial and hydrologic processes in arid and semiarid watersheds.  
429 *Ecology*, 86(2), 298-307. <https://doi.org/10.1890/03-0567>
- 430 Buckeridge, K. M., Creamer, C., & Whitaker, J. (2022). Deconstructing the microbial  
431 necromass continuum to inform soil carbon sequestration. *Functional Ecology*,  
432 36(6), 1396-1410. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2435.14014>
- 433 Buckeridge, K. M., Mason, K. E., McNamara, N. P., Ostle, N., Puissant, J., Goodall,  
434 T., Griffiths, R. I., Stott, A. W., & Whitaker, J. (2020). Environmental and  
435 microbial controls on microbial necromass recycling, an important precursor for  
436 soil carbon stabilization. *Communications Earth & Environment*, 1(1), 1-9.  
437 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s43247-020-00031-4>
- 438 Campos, X., Germino, M. J., & de Graaff, M.-A. (2017). Enhanced precipitation  
439 promotes decomposition and soil C stabilization in semiarid ecosystems, but  
440 seasonal timing of wetting matters. *Plant and Soil*, 416(1), 427-436.  
441 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11104-017-3221-1>
- 442 Chen, G., Ma, S., Tian, D., Xiao, W., Jiang, L., Xing, A., Zou, A., Zhou, L., Shen, H.,  
443 Zheng, C., Ji, C., He, H., Zhu, B., Liu, L., & Fang, J. (2020). Patterns and  
444 determinants of soil microbial residues from tropical to boreal forests. *Soil*  
445 *Biology and Biochemistry*, 151, 108059.  
446 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2020.108059>
- 447 De Vries, F. T., & Shade, A. (2013). Controls on soil microbial community stability  
448 under climate change. *Frontiers in microbiology*, 4, 265.  
449 <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2013.00265>
- 450 Delgado-Baquerizo, M., Guerra, C. A., Cano-Díaz, C., Egidi, E., Wang, J.-T.,  
451 Eisenhauer, N., Singh, B. K., & Maestre, F. T. (2020). The proportion of  
452 soil-borne pathogens increases with warming at the global scale. *Nature climate*  
453 *change*, 10(6), 550-554. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41558-020-0759-3>



454 Deng, F., & Liang, C. (2022). Revisiting the quantitative contribution of microbial  
455 necromass to soil carbon pool: Stoichiometric control by microbes and soil. *Soil*  
456 *Biology and Biochemistry*, 165, 108486.  
457 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2021.108486>

458 Didan, K. (2015). MOD13A1 MODIS/Terra Vegetation Indices 16-Day L3 Global  
459 500m SIN Grid V006. *NASA EOSDIS Land Processes DAAC*, 10.  
460 <https://doi.org/10.5067/MODIS/MOD13A1.006>

461 Doetterl, S., Stevens, A., Six, J., Merckx, R., Van Oost, K., Casanova Pinto, M.,  
462 Casanova-Katny, A., Muñoz, C., Boudin, M., Zagal Venegas, E., & Boeckx, P.  
463 (2015). Soil carbon storage controlled by interactions between geochemistry and  
464 climate. *Nature Geoscience*, 8(10), 780-783. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ngeo2516>

465 Engelhardt, I. C., Welty, A., Blazewicz, S. J., Bru, D., Rouard, N., Breuil, M.-C.,  
466 Gessler, A., Galiano, L., Miranda, J., & Spor, A. (2018). Depth matters: effects  
467 of precipitation regime on soil microbial activity upon rewetting of a plant-soil  
468 system. *The ISME journal*, 12(4), 1061-1071.  
469 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41396-018-0079-z>

470 Feng, J., Zeng, X.-M., Zhang, Q., Zhou, X.-Q., Liu, Y.-R., & Huang, Q. (2021). Soil  
471 microbial trait-based strategies drive metabolic efficiency along an altitude  
472 gradient. *ISME Communications*, 1(1).  
473 <http://doi.org/10.1038/s43705-021-00076-2>

474 Fick, S. E., & Hijmans, R. J. (2017). WorldClim 2: new 1-km spatial resolution  
475 climate surfaces for global land areas. *International journal of climatology*,  
476 37(12), 4302-4315. <https://doi.org/10.1002/joc.5086>

477 Fierer, N., Schimel, J. P., & Holden, P. A. (2003). Variations in microbial community  
478 composition through two soil depth profiles. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry*,  
479 35(1), 167-176. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0038-0717\(02\)00251-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0038-0717(02)00251-1)

480 Fontaine, S., Barot, S., Barré, P., Bdioui, N., Mary, B., & Rumpel, C. (2007). Stability  
481 of organic carbon in deep soil layers controlled by fresh carbon supply. *Nature*,  
482 450, 277-280. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature06275>

483 García-Palacios, P., & Chen, J. (2022). Emerging relationships among soil microbes,  
484 carbon dynamics and climate change. *Functional Ecology*, 36(6), 1332-1337.  
485 <https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2435.14028>

486 He, M., Fang, K., Chen, L., Feng, X., Qin, S., Kou, D., He, H., Liang, C., & Yang, Y.  
487 (2022). Depth-dependent drivers of soil microbial necromass carbon across  
488 Tibetan alpine grasslands. *Global Change Biology*, 28(3), 936-949.  
489 <https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.15969>

490 Jobbágy, E. G., & Jackson, R. B. (2000). The vertical distribution of soil organic  
491 carbon and its relation to climate and vegetation. *Ecological applications*, 10(2),  
492 423-436. [https://doi.org/10.1890/1051-0761\(2000\)010\[0423:TVDOS0\]2.0.CO;2](https://doi.org/10.1890/1051-0761(2000)010[0423:TVDOS0]2.0.CO;2)

493 Joergensen, R. G. (2018). Amino sugars as specific indices for fungal and bacterial  
494 residues in soil. *Biology and fertility of soils*, 54(5), 559-568.  
495 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00374-018-1288-3>

496 Koven, C. D., Hugelius, G., Lawrence, D. M., & Wieder, W. R. (2017). Higher  
497 climatological temperature sensitivity of soil carbon in cold than warm climates.  
498 *Nature climate change*, 7(11), 817-822. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nclimate3421>

499 Kuzyakov, Y., & Mason-Jones, K. (2018). Viruses in soil: Nano-scale undead drivers  
500 of microbial life, biogeochemical turnover and ecosystem functions. *Soil Biology*  
501 *and Biochemistry*, 127, 305-317. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2018.09.032>

502 Lai, J., Zou, Y., Zhang, J., & Peres-Neto, P. (2021). rdacca. hp: an R package for  
503 generalizing hierarchical and variation partitioning in multiple regression and  
504 canonical analysis. *bioRxiv*. <https://doi.org/10.1101/2021.03.09.434308>

505 Liang, C., Amelung, W., Lehmann, J., & Kastner, M. (2019). Quantitative assessment  
506 of microbial necromass contribution to soil organic matter. *Global Change*  
507 *Biology*, 25(11), 3578-3590. <http://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.14781>

508 Liang, C., Jesus, E. d. C., Duncan, D. S., Quensen, J. F., Jackson, R. D., Balser, T. C.,  
509 & Tiedje, J. M. (2016). Switchgrass rhizospheres stimulate microbial biomass  
510 but deplete microbial necromass in agricultural soils of the upper Midwest, USA.  
511 *Soil Biology and Biochemistry*, 94, 173-180.  
512 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2015.11.020>

513 Liang, C., Read, H. W., & Balser, T. C. (2012). GC-based detection of aldonitrile  
514 acetate derivatized glucosamine and muramic acid for microbial residue  
515 determination in soil. *J Vis Exp*(63), e3767. <https://doi.org/10.3791/3767>

516 Liang, C., Schimel, J. P., & Jastrow, J. D. (2017). The importance of anabolism in  
517 microbial control over soil carbon storage. *Nature Microbiology*, 2, 17105.  
518 <https://doi.org/10.1038/nmicrobiol.2017.105>

519 Liu, F., Wu, H., Zhao, Y., Li, D., Yang, J.-L., Song, X., Shi, Z., Zhu, A.-X., & Zhang,  
520 G.-L. (2022). Mapping high resolution National Soil Information Grids of China.  
521 *Science Bulletin*, 67(3), 328-340. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scib.2021.10.013>

522 Liu, F., Zhang, G.-L., Song, X., Li, D., Zhao, Y., Yang, J., Wu, H., & Yang, F. (2020).  
523 High-resolution and three-dimensional mapping of soil texture of China.  
524 *Geoderma*, 361, 114061. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geoderma.2019.114061>

525 Liu, Y.-R., Delgado-Baquerizo, M., Wang, J.-T., Hu, H.-W., Yang, Z., & He, J.-Z.  
526 (2018). New insights into the role of microbial community composition in  
527 driving soil respiration rates. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry*, 118, 35-41.  
528 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2017.12.003>

529 Luo, Y., Xiao, M., Yuan, H., Liang, C., Zhu, Z., Xu, J., Kuzyakov, Y., Wu, J., Ge, T.,  
530 & Tang, C. (2021). Rice rhizodeposition promotes the build-up of organic carbon  
531 in soil via fungal necromass. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry*, 160, 108345.  
532 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2021.108345>

533 Luo, Z., Wang, G., & Wang, E. (2019). Global subsoil organic carbon turnover times  
534 dominantly controlled by soil properties rather than climate. *Nature*  
535 *communications*, 10(1), 1-10. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-019-11597-9>

536 Ma, T., Zhu, S., Wang, Z., Chen, D., Dai, G., Feng, B., Su, X., Hu, H., Li, K., Han,  
537 W., Liang, C., Bai, Y., & Feng, X. (2018). Divergent accumulation of microbial

538 necromass and plant lignin components in grassland soils. *Nature*  
539 *communications*, 9(1), 3480. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-018-05891-1>

540 Martin, J., & Haider, K. (1979). Biodegradation of <sup>14</sup>C-labeled model and cornstalk  
541 lignins, phenols, model phenolase humic polymers, and fungal melanins as  
542 influenced by a readily available carbon source and soil. *Applied and*  
543 *environmental microbiology*, 38(2), 283-289.  
544 <https://doi.org/10.1128/aem.38.2.283-289.1979>

545 Maxwell, T. L., Canarini, A., Bogdanovic, I., Böckle, T., Martin, V., Noll, L.,  
546 Prommer, J., Séneca, J., Simon, E., Piepho, H.-P., Herndl, M., Pötsch, E. M.,  
547 Kaiser, C., Richter, A., Bahn, M., & Wanek, W. (2022). Contrasting drivers of  
548 belowground nitrogen cycling in a montane grassland exposed to a multifactorial  
549 global change experiment with elevated CO<sub>2</sub>, warming, and drought. *Global*  
550 *Change Biology*, 28(7), 2425-2441. <https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.16035>

551 Moritz, L. K., Liang, C., Wagai, R., Kitayama, K., & Balsler, T. C. (2009). Vertical  
552 distribution and pools of microbial residues in tropical forest soils formed from  
553 distinct parent materials. *Biogeochemistry*, 92(1-2), 83-94.  
554 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10533-008-9264-x>

555 Ni, X., Liao, S., Tan, S., Peng, Y., Wang, D., Yue, K., Wu, F., Yang, Y., & Xu, X.  
556 (2020a). The vertical distribution and control of microbial necromass carbon in  
557 forest soils. *Global Ecology and Biogeography*, 29(10), 1829-1839.  
558 <https://doi.org/10.1111/geb.13159>

559 Ni, X., Liao, S., Tan, S., Wang, D., Peng, Y., Yue, K., Wu, F., & Yang, Y. (2020b). A  
560 quantitative assessment of amino sugars in soil profiles. *Soil Biology and*  
561 *Biochemistry*, 143, 107762. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2020.107762>

562 Page, A., Miller, R., & Keeney, D. (1982). Methods of soil analysis, part 2. *Chemical*  
563 *and microbiological properties*, 2, 643-698.  
564 <https://doi.org/10.1002/jpln.19851480319>

565 Patoine, G., Eisenhauer, N., Cesarz, S., Phillips, H. R., Xu, X., Zhang, L., & Guerra,  
566 C. A. (2022). Drivers and trends of global soil microbial carbon over two  
567 decades. *Nature communications*, 13, 4195.  
568 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-022-31833-z>

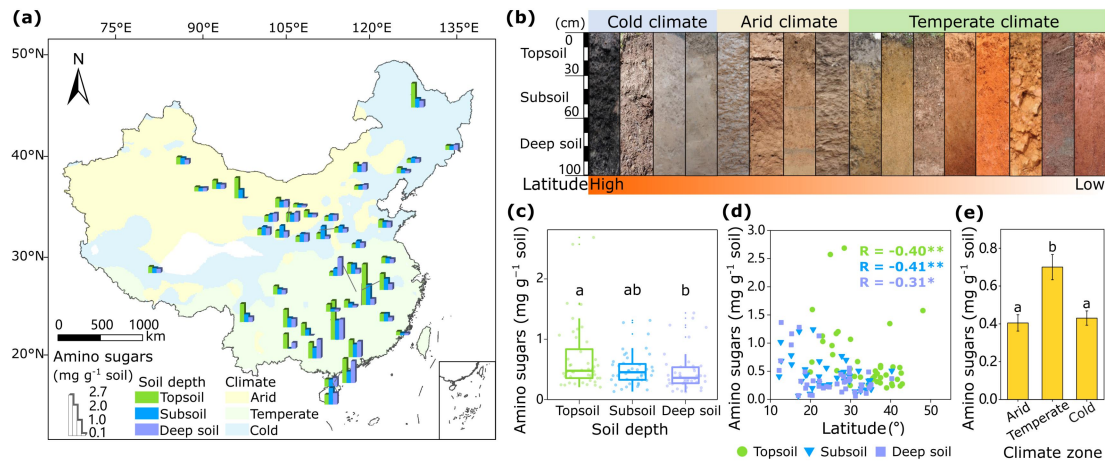
569 Pegoraro, E. F., Mauritz, M. E., Ogle, K., Ebert, C. H., & Schuur, E. A. (2021).  
570 Lower soil moisture and deep soil temperatures in thermokarst features increase  
571 old soil carbon loss after 10 years of experimental permafrost warming. *Global*  
572 *Change Biology*, 27(6), 1293-1308. <https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.15481>

573 Rumpel, C., & Kögel-Knabner, I. (2011). Deep soil organic matter—a key but poorly  
574 understood component of terrestrial C cycle. *Plant and Soil*, 338(1), 143-158.  
575 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11104-010-0391-5>

576 Saikkonen, K., Taulavuori, K., Hyvönen, T., Gundel, P. E., Hamilton, C. E.,  
577 Vänninen, I., Nissinen, A., & Helander, M. (2012). Climate change-driven  
578 species' range shifts filtered by photoperiodism. *Nature climate change*, 2(4),  
579 239-242. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nclimate1430>

- 580 Schweigert, M., Herrmann, S., Miltner, A., Fester, T., & Kästner, M. (2015). Fate of  
581 ectomycorrhizal fungal biomass in a soil bioreactor system and its contribution  
582 to soil organic matter formation. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry*, 88, 120-127.  
583 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2015.05.012>
- 584 Serna-Chavez, H. M., Fierer, N., & Van Bodegom, P. M. (2013). Global drivers and  
585 patterns of microbial abundance in soil. *Global Ecology and Biogeography*,  
586 22(10), 1162-1172. <https://doi.org/10.1111/geb.12070>
- 587 Sistla, S. A., Rastetter, E. B., & Schimel, J. P. (2014). Responses of a tundra system  
588 to warming using SCAMPS: a stoichiometrically coupled, acclimating  
589 microbe–plant–soil model. *Ecological Monographs*, 84(1), 151-170.  
590 <https://doi.org/10.1890/12-2119.1>
- 591 Six, J., Frey, S., Thiet, R., & Batten, K. (2006). Bacterial and fungal contributions to  
592 carbon sequestration in agroecosystems. *Soil Science Society of America Journal*,  
593 70(2), 555-569. <https://doi.org/10.2136/sssaj2004.0347>
- 594 Suseela, V., Conant, R. T., Wallenstein, M. D., & Dukes, J. S. (2012). Effects of soil  
595 moisture on the temperature sensitivity of heterotrophic respiration vary  
596 seasonally in an old-field climate change experiment. *Global Change Biology*, 18,  
597 336-348. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2486.2011.02516.x>
- 598 Throckmorton, H. M., Bird, J. A., Dane, L., Firestone, M. K., & Horwath, W. R.  
599 (2012). The source of microbial C has little impact on soil organic matter  
600 stabilisation in forest ecosystems. *Ecology Letters*, 15(11), 1257-1265.  
601 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1461-0248.2012.01848.x>
- 602 Wang, B., An, S., Liang, C., Liu, Y., & Kuzyakov, Y. (2021a). Microbial necromass  
603 as the source of soil organic carbon in global ecosystems. *Soil Biology and*  
604 *Biochemistry*, 162, 108422. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2021.108422>
- 605 Wang, C., Qu, L., Yang, L., Liu, D., Morrissey, E., Miao, R., Liu, Z., Wang, Q., Fang,  
606 Y., & Bai, E. (2021b). Large-scale importance of microbial carbon use efficiency  
607 and necromass to soil organic carbon. *Global Change Biology*, 27(10),  
608 2039-2048. <https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.15550>
- 609 Yang, Y., Dou, Y., Wang, B., Wang, Y., Liang, C., An, S., Soromotin, A., &  
610 Kuzyakov, Y. (2022). Increasing contribution of microbial residues to soil  
611 organic carbon in grassland restoration chronosequence. *Soil Biology and*  
612 *Biochemistry*, 170, 108688. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2022.108688>
- 613 Zeng, X.-M., Feng, J., Yu, D.-L., Wen, S.-H., Zhang, Q., Huang, Q.,  
614 Delgado-Baquerizo, M., & Liu, Y.-R. (2022). Local temperature increases  
615 reduce soil microbial residues and carbon stocks. *Global Chang Biology*, 28(21),  
616 6433-6445. <https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.16347>
- 617 Zhang, J., Chen, H., Fu, Z., Luo, Z., Wang, F., & Wang, K. (2022). Effect of soil  
618 thickness on rainfall infiltration and runoff generation from karst hillslopes  
619 during rainstorms. *European Journal of Soil Science*, 73(4), e13288.  
620 <https://doi.org/10.1111/ejss.13288>
- 621 Zhu, E., Cao, Z., Jia, J., Liu, C., Zhang, Z., Wang, H., Dai, G., He, J., & Feng, X.

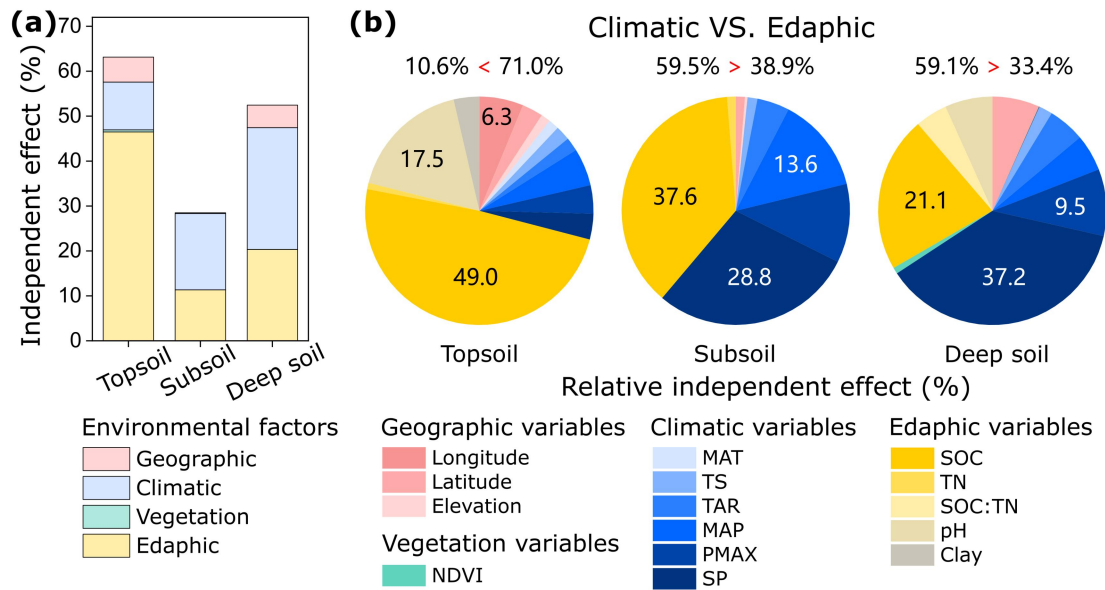
622 (2021). Inactive and inefficient: Warming and drought effect on microbial  
623 carbon processing in alpine grassland at depth. *Global Change Biology*, 27(10),  
624 2241-2253. <https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.15541>



626

627 **Fig. 1 Spatial distribution pattern of microbial residues across China.** (a) The  
 628 vertical distribution pattern of amino sugars (proxy of microbial residues) in the soil  
 629 profiles across China (total *n* = 129, Topsoil: *n* = 44, Subsoil: *n* = 43, Deep soil: *n* =  
 630 42). (b) The typical soil profiles of 100 cm depth from distinct climate zones. (c) The  
 631 concentration of amino sugars in three soil depths. (d) Correlations between latitude  
 632 and amino sugars in three soil depths. (e) Concentrations of soil amino sugars in  
 633 different climate zones (Arid: *n* = 29, Temperate: *n* = 61, Cold: *n* = 39). Lowercase  
 634 letters in (c) and (e) represent significant differences at *p* < 0.05 level between soil  
 635 depths and climate zones, respectively. Pearson correlation coefficients are shown in  
 636 (d), “\*” and “\*\*” represent significant levels at *p* < 0.05 and *p* < 0.01, respectively.  
 637 Soil depths include topsoil: 0-30 cm, subsoil: 30-60 cm, deep soil: 60-100 cm.

638



639

640

**Fig. 2 Hierarchical partitioning analyses illustrate the importance of**

641

**environmental factors for the microbial residues in three soil depths.** (a)

642

Comparison of environmental factors in explaining amino sugars in three soil depths

643

(Topsoil: n = 44, Subsoil: n = 43, Deep soil: n = 42). (b) Relative independent effects

644

of individual variable on amino sugars in three soil depths. Geographic variables

645

include latitude, longitude and elevation. Climatic variables include MAT (mean

646

annual temperature), TS (temperature seasonality), TAR (temperature annual range),

647

MAP (mean annual precipitation), PMAX (maximum monthly precipitation), SP

648

(summer precipitation). Vegetation variable includes NDVI (normalized difference

649

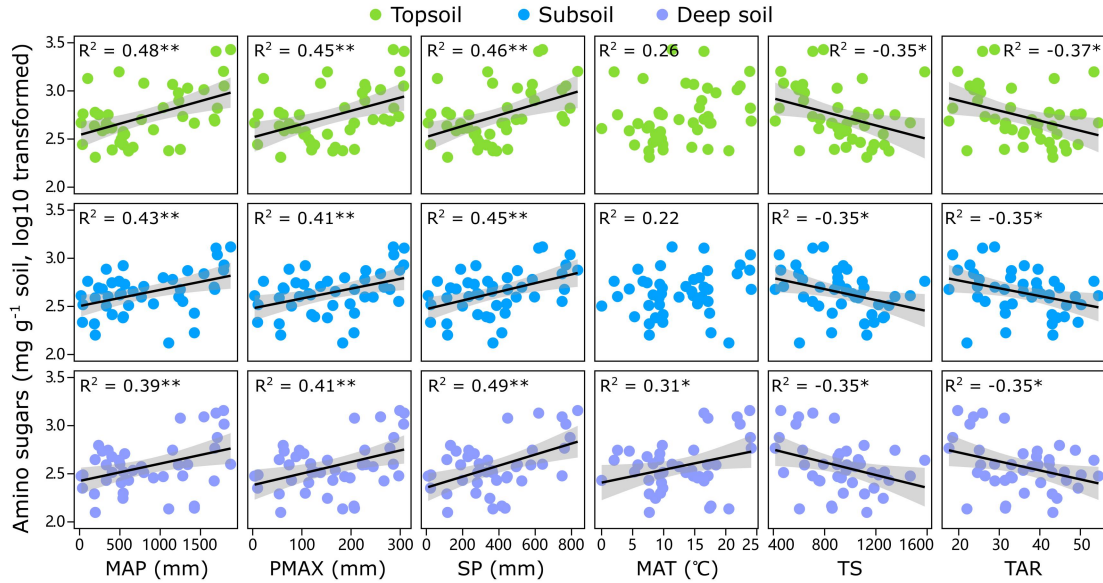
vegetation index). Edaphic variables include SOC (soil organic carbon), TN (total

650

nitrogen), SOC:TN, pH and Clay. Detailed information on environmental variables is

651

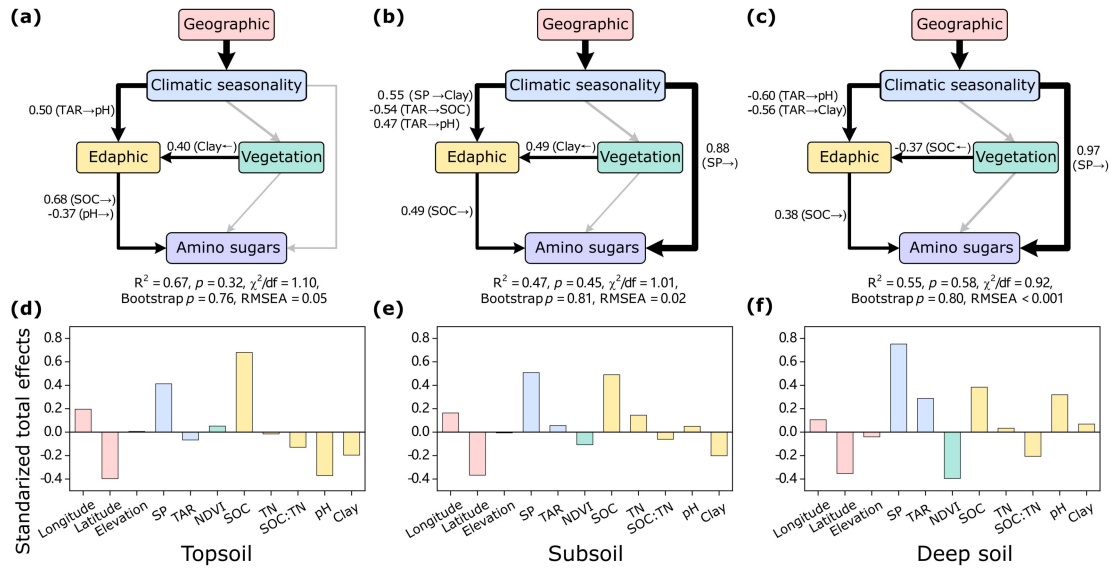
shown in Table S2.



652

653 **Fig. 3 Relationships between various climatic variables and microbial residues in**  
 654 **three soil depths.** Pearson correlation coefficient is shown in each panel (Topsoil:  $n =$   
 655  $44$ , Subsoil:  $n = 43$ , Deep soil:  $n = 42$ ), “\*” and “\*\*” represent significant levels at  $p <$   
 656  $0.05$  and  $p < 0.01$ , respectively. The solid lines were fitted by linear regressions, and  
 657 the shadow areas corresponded to 95% confidence intervals. MAP, mean annual  
 658 precipitation; PMAX, maximum monthly precipitation; SP, summer precipitation;  
 659 MAT: mean annual temperature; TS, temperature seasonality; TAR, temperature  
 660 annual range.





661

662 **Fig. 4 Structural equation models (SEMs) show the pathways of climatic**  
 663 **seasonality affecting microbial residues in three soil depths.** (a), (b), (c) Direct and  
 664 indirect associations of geographic, climate, edaphic and vegetation factors with  
 665 amino sugars in topsoils (n = 44), subsoils (n = 43) and deep soils (n = 42),  
 666 respectively. (d), (e), (f) The standardized total effects of different factors on amino  
 667 sugars in three soil depths, respectively. Different variables of each environmental  
 668 factor (geographic, climate, edaphic properties and vegetation) were grouped in the  
 669 same box for the simple illustration of SEM. The width of arrows is proportional to  
 670 the potential causal effects between variables, and standardized path coefficients are  
 671 shown by numbers adjacent to arrows. Paths with significant effects ( $p < 0.05$ ) are  
 672 plotted in black lines, and insignificant paths are plotted in gray lines. Considering the  
 673 potential collinearity of climatic variables, we selected summer precipitation (SP) and  
 674 temperature annual range (TAR) as the most important variables of climatic  
 675 seasonality in our SEM. The prior SEM model and more detailed information on the  
 676 environmental factors included in SEM are shown in Fig. S9 and Table S2.