

Figure #	Figure title One sentence only	Filename This should be the name the file is saved as when it is uploaded to our system. Please include the file extension. i.e.: <i>Smith_ED Fig1.jpg</i>	Figure Legend If you are citing a reference for the first time in these legends, please include all new references in the Online Methods References section, and carry on the numbering from the main References section of the paper.
Extended Data Fig. 1	Sampling locations of three global field surveys.	Extended Data Fig 1.PDF	A total of 673 ecosystems were included in this study.
Extended Data Fig. 2	Frequency of drought events (top) and global map of study plot locations (bottom).	Extended Data Fig 2.PDF	The map data is equivalent to the SPEI reclassification in dry and wet events and normal years of 16 August 2018 to illustrate an example of the distribution of events.
Extended Data Fig. 3	Explained variation in ecosystem stability in global survey #1.	Extended Data Fig 3.PDF	Variation partitioning (%) of four categories of predictors (a): climate predictors (V1), soil properties and biomes (V2), fungi (fungal diversity and community composition) (V3) and plant mycorrhizal association (V4) in explaining ecosystem stability, mean and SD NDVI, and ecosystem resistance and resilience to drought events in global survey #1 (n = 235 ecosystems). The values in brackets after each groups present the variance explained.
Extended Data Fig. 4	Explained variation in ecosystem stability in global survey #2.	Extended Data Fig 4.PDF	Variation partitioning (%) of four categories of predictors (a): climate predictors (V1), soil properties and biomes (V2), fungi (fungal diversity and community composition) (V3) and plant mycorrhizal association (V4) in explaining ecosystem stability, mean and SD NDVI, and ecosystem resistance and resilience to drought events in global survey #2 (n = 351 ecosystems). The values in brackets after each groups present the variance explained.
Extended Data Fig. 5	Explained variation in ecosystem stability in global survey #3.	Extended Data Fig 5.PDF	Variation partitioning (%) of four categories of predictors (a): climate predictors (V1), soil properties and biomes (V2), fungi (fungal diversity and community composition) (V3) and plant mycorrhizal association (V4) in explaining ecosystem stability, mean and SD NDVI, and ecosystem resistance and resilience to drought events in global survey #3 (n = 87 ecosystems). The values in brackets after each groups present the variance explained.
Extended Data Fig. 6	Drivers of mean (a) and SD NDVI (b) in global survey #1.	Extended Data Fig 6.PDF	Multiple ranking regression reveal the relative effects of the most important predictors of ecosystem stability (n = 235 ecosystems). The average parameter estimates (standardized regression coefficients) of the model predictors are shown with their associated 95% confidence intervals along with the relative importance of each predictor, expressed as the

			percentage of explained variance. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001. Soil saprobe = Soil fungal decomposers.
Extended Data Fig. 7	Drivers of mean (a) and SD NDVI (b) in global survey #2.	Extended Data Fig 7.PDF	Multiple ranking regression reveal the relative effects of the most important predictors of ecosystem stability (a,c) (n = 351 ecosystems). The average parameter estimates (standardized regression coefficients) of the model predictors are shown with their associated 95% confidence intervals along with the relative importance of each predictor, expressed as the percentage of explained variance. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001. Soil saprobe = Soil fungal decomposers.
Extended Data Fig. 8	Drivers of mean (a) and SD NDVI (b) in global survey #3.	Extended Data Fig 8.PDF	Multiple ranking regression reveal the relative effects of the most important predictors of ecosystem stability (a,c) (n = 87 ecosystems). The average parameter estimates (standardized regression coefficients) of the model predictors are shown with their associated 95% confidence intervals along with the relative importance of each predictor, expressed as the percentage of explained variance. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001. Soil saprobe = Soil fungal decomposers.
Extended Data Fig. 9	Fitted linear relationships between ecosystem stability and the diversity (richness) of selected functional groups of soil fungi across all ecosystems in global survey #2 (n = 351 ecosystems).	Extended Data Fig 9.PDF	Akaike information criterion (AIC) was used to selected the best model. Significance levels of each predictor are *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001. Grey shade indicates 95% confidence interval. Soil saprobes = soil fungal decomposers. Ecosystem stability was estimated at a resolution of 250 m×250 m. Fungal diversity is estimated at a resolution of 50 m×50 m. Plant diversity was estimated at a resolution of 110 m×110 m.
Extended Data Fig. 10	Explained variation in ecosystem stability in global survey #2.	Extended Data Fig 10.PDF	Variation partitioning (%) of four categories of predictors (a): climate predictors (V1), soil properties and biomes (V2), fungi (fungal diversity and community composition) (V3) and plant richness and mycorrhizal association (V4) in explaining ecosystem stability, mean and SD NDVI, and ecosystem resistance and resilience to drought events in global survey #2 (n = 351 ecosystems). The values in brackets after each groups present the variance explained.

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Item	Present?	Filename	A brief, numerical description of file contents.
		This should be the name the file is saved as when it is uploaded to our system, and should include the file extension. The extension must be .pdf	i.e.: <i>Supplementary Figures 1-4, Supplementary Discussion, and Supplementary Tables 1-4.</i>

Supplementary Information	Supplementary Information	NEE_Supplementary_Information.PDF	This .PDF file includes: Supplementary Figures 1-11 Supplementary Note 1
Reporting Summary	Reporting Summary	nr-reporting-summary.pdf	

Title: Phylotype diversity within soil fungal functional groups drives ecosystem stability

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Abstract

Soil fungi are fundamental to plant productivity, yet their influence on the temporal stability of global terrestrial ecosystems, and their capacity to buffer plant productivity against extreme drought events, remains uncertain. Here, we combined three independent global field surveys of soil fungi with a satellite-derived temporal assessment of plant productivity, and report that phylotype richness within particular fungal functional groups drives the stability of terrestrial ecosystems. The richness of fungal decomposers was consistently and positively associated with ecosystem stability worldwide, while the opposite pattern was found for the richness of fungal plant pathogens, particularly in grasslands. We further demonstrated that the richness of soil decomposers was consistently positively linked with higher resistance of plant productivity in response to extreme drought events, while that of fungal plant pathogens showed a general negative relationship with plant productivity resilience/resistance patterns. Together, our work provides evidence supporting the critical role of soil fungal diversity to secure stable plant production over time in global ecosystems, and as to buffer against extreme climate events.

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100 **Introduction**

101 Soil fungal communities comprise a large fraction of the global terrestrial biomass and diversity¹⁻
102 ³, and they are intimately linked to plants through multiple processes such as plant nutrient uptake,
103 organic matter decomposition, and pathogenesis that ultimately determine plant production³⁻⁹. Yet,
104 the importance of soil fungi for ecosystem stability, a fundamental ecosystem property defined as
105 the ratio of the temporal mean of plant productivity to its standard deviation¹⁰, is practically
106 unknown. We posit that soil fungal diversity may promote ecosystem stability by increasing the
107 resistance and resilience of plant production during and after drought events^{11,12}, which are
108 increasing in frequency worldwide¹³. For instance, the diversity of fungal decomposers is
109 responsible for the breakdown of plant litter^{14,15}, providing a continuous source of available
110 nutrients for stable plant production^{3,14}. Similarly, the biodiversity of mycorrhizal fungi is critical
111 for tree growth¹⁶, and helps plants withstand climate extremes such as droughts, promoting plant
112 production resilience after these dramatic events^{12,17}. On the contrary, a greater proportion of soil-
113 borne plant pathogenic fungi may lead to unstable plant productivity¹⁸. However this negative
114 effect on ecosystem stability can also be moderated by mycorrhizal fungi via decreasing
115 antagonistic interactions¹⁹. A conspicuous fungal diversity-ecosystem stability relationship would
116 imply that soil biodiversity decline with climate change and land use intensification^{18,20} may
117 destabilize ecosystems. Assessing whether the stabilizing role of soil fungal diversity is consistent
118 across a wide range of plant, climatic, and soil conditions is, therefore, critical to inform policy
119 and management measures aimed at conserving soil biodiversity and promoting ecosystem
120 services under anthropogenic environmental change.

121 Here, we combined three independent global field surveys of soil fungal diversity with
122 satellite-derived metrics of ecosystem stability, resistance, and resilience to drought events. We
123 first investigated the relationship between the diversity (richness; number of phylotypes after
124 amplicon sequencing of the Internal Transcribed Spacer (ITS) gene) within major soil fungal
125 functional groups (i.e., soil decomposers, potential fungal plant pathogens, and mycorrhizae as
126 identified in the FungalTraits database²¹) and ecosystem stability (the ratio of the mean
127 Normalized Difference Vegetation Index, NDVI, to its standard deviation over 2001 -
128 2018) in three independent global field surveys (global survey #1: 235 sites²², and global
129 survey #2: 351 sites²³, global survey #3: 87 sites²⁴, Extended Data Fig. 1-2). Then, we assessed
130 the linkages between the diversity within soil fungal functional groups and the ecosystem
131 resistance (capacity of plant productivity to remain the same in response to a drought event) and
132 resilience (capacity of plant productivity to return to the original levels of productivity after a
133 drought event) using NDVI temporal data and the long-term Standardized Precipitation and
134 Evaporation Index (SPEI)²⁵. Our analysis based on three independent global field surveys
135 provides a complementary assessment of the linkages between soil fungal diversity and
136 ecosystem stability.

137 **Results and Discussion**

138 Our findings provide real-world evidence that diversity (number of phylotypes) within soil fungal
139 functional groups drives the stability of global ecosystems (Figs. 1-2). First, we found that the

140 diversity of soil fungal decomposers is positively related with ecosystem stability (Fig. 1a,d,g).
141 Remarkably, the positive association between the diversity of fungal decomposers and ecosystem
142 stability was maintained after accounting for geographic location, climate, vegetation types, and
143 soil properties (Figs. 3-4). In fact, fungal diversity could explain unique variation in ecosystem
144 stability. Climate also explained unique variation, however, we found that the shared effects of
145 multiple biotic and abiotic variables drove most of the explained variation (Fig. 3; Extended Data
146 Figs. 3-5). The direction of the predictors' effect was consistent among the three global surveys,
147 although the magnitude varied (Fig 2; Extended Data Figs. 6-8), which may be due to differences
148 in sampling design and experimental methods (e.g., primer sets and sequencing technologies).
149 Similarly, we also found that our results were maintained after accounting for plant richness,
150 which was available for all locations in global survey #2 (Extended Data Figs. 9-10 and
151 Supplementary Fig. 1).

152 We further found a consistent and negative correlation between the diversity of fungal plant
153 pathogens and ecosystem stability (Fig. 1b, h), particularly across the global grasslands included
154 in global surveys #1 and #2 (Fig. 3a, b). This negative correlation between the diversity of fungal
155 plant pathogens and ecosystem stability was also apparent across all biomes when we statistically
156 controlled for key environmental factors (Figs. 3 and 4). On the contrary, we did not find
157 consistently significant correlations between the diversity of mycorrhizal, ectomycorrhizal
158 (EcM), arbuscular mycorrhizal (AMF) or endophytic fungi (Fig. 1 and Supplementary Fig.
159 2) and ecosystem stability. Despite the absence of a significant stabilizing role for the
160 diversity of mycorrhizal fungi (Fig. 1c,f,i; Supplementary Fig. 3 for results within EcM
161 forests), our results showed a consistent hump-shaped relationship between the estimated basal
162 area of AM-associated or EcM- plants (based on ref.²⁶) and ecosystem stability (Fig. 5a-f),
163 suggesting that the proportion of plant functional groups still play key roles in sustaining
164 ecosystem stability. In fact, our analyses revealed a positive association between the proportion
165 of AM plants²⁶ and ecosystem stability (Fig. 3a,b,c) when other environmental factors were
166 simultaneously considered. Our multiple statistical approaches supported our hypotheses.
167 However, future microcosm studies should aim to experimentally test the reported
168 relationships between fungal diversity and ecosystem stability under controlled conditions.

169 Collectively, our analyses indicate a consistent stabilizing role of the diversity of soil fungal
170 decomposers across terrestrial ecosystems. A greater diversity of soil decomposers may provide a
171 constant source of nutrients for plant growth³⁻⁶, connecting the aboveground and belowground
172 worlds through the decomposition process. Experimental and local evidence from microcosm
173 studies indicate that asynchrony among taxa mediates the stabilizing role of soil biodiversity²⁷⁻²⁹,
174 as found in plant communities³⁰⁻³⁴. To confirm whether microbial asynchrony is driving the
175 global fungal diversity-stability relationship, new investigations considering shifts in
176 community composition over time need to be conducted in the future³¹, which is logistically
177 demanding and remains a gap to be considered in future global soil biodiversity monitoring
178 networks³. Our results further indicate that the diversity of soil decomposers positively influence
179 ecosystem productivity while simultaneously reducing its variability, resulting in a higher
180 ecosystem stability; the opposite pattern is found for the diversity of fungal plant pathogens
181 (Extended Data Figs. 6-8). These contrasted results suggest that while maintaining highly
182 diverse fungal decomposers supporting complex processes such as organic matter
183 decomposition and nutrient release could help promoting ecosystem stability, supporting the
184 diversity of pathogens could have the opposite effect impacting plant stability, especially in
185 grasslands³⁵⁻³⁷. These findings suggest that losses in the diversity of decomposers, or increases
186 in that of fungal plant pathogens (e.g., with warming and over-fertilization)^{18,38}, could contribute
187 to destabilize global ecosystems, which is in line with the buffering effect hypothesis³⁰⁻³⁵. For
instance, mean annual temperature (MAT), which is known to

188 be a fundamental driver of soil fungal communities^{18,23}, was also found to be an essential driver
189 of ecosystem stability (Figs. 3-4). Moreover, we found a consistent and positive connection
190 between the dissimilarity in community composition of soil decomposers and potential
191 fungal plant pathogens with dissimilarity in ecosystem stability in two independent
192 global surveys (Supplementary Figs. 4-5; additional analyses in Supplementary Appendix 1).
193 These important findings suggest that changes in the diversity and community composition of
194 fungal functional groups associated with anthropogenic activities, including global warming,
195 could cause indirect effects on ecosystem stability that need to be considered when
196 investigating the stability of terrestrial ecosystems.

197 We then investigated the relationships between the diversity of fungal functional groups and
198 the resistance and resilience of plant productivity to extreme drought events²⁵. The ecosystems
199 included in this study have suffered multiple droughts over the last two decades (Extended Data
200 Fig. 2), and we determined the resistance and resilience of NDVI to these events using remote
201 sensing (Methods). Our results suggest that higher diversity of fungal decomposers and root
202 endophytes are consistently and positively associated with the resistance of ecosystem productivity
203 during drought events (Fig. 6a,b,e,i). On the contrary, higher richness of plant pathogens was
204 negatively associated with the resistance (Fig. 6c,k) or resilience (Fig. 6g) of ecosystem
205 productivity during, or after, drought events. Moreover, we found that the diversity of mycorrhizal
206 fungi is positively associated with resilience of ecosystem productivity after drought events (Fig.
207 6d,h). In other words, plant productivity in ecosystems with higher mycorrhizal and root endophyte
208 richness recovered faster from extreme drought events, suggesting these fungi play an important
209 role in promoting ecosystem stability. We further showed that the diversity of fungal decomposers,
210 plant pathogens and mycorrhizal fungi drove ecosystem resistance and resilience beyond the role
211 of climate, ecosystem types, and soil properties (Extended Data Figs. 3-5,10). Together, our
212 findings indicate that diversity of fungal functional groups drives ecosystems stability via
213 regulating plant productivity resistance and resilience to drought events, as has been observed in
214 plant diversity studies³⁰⁻³⁴.

215 In summary, our study, based on three independent global soil surveys, indicates that the
216 diversity within key fungal groups drives ecosystem stability at a global scale, as well as with the
217 resistance and resilience of plant productivity to extreme drought events. In particular, we
218 showed that the diversity of soil decomposers is consistently and positively associated with
219 ecosystem stability. The opposite pattern was found for potential fungal plant pathogens. These
220 findings are integral to improving the prediction and management of long-term stability
221 of ecosystem productivity globally, and support the importance of conserving soil biodiversity
222 to promote the stability of plant productivity over time, and to buffer it against climate extremes.

223

224 **Methods**

225 ***Study sites and data collection***

226 The analyses in this study are based on three independent global field surveys:

227

228 ***Global survey #1.*** Composite soil samples from multiple soil cores (top 7.5 cm) were collected
229 from 235 sites (ecosystems) located in 18 countries from six continents (Extended Data Fig. 1),
230 and covering nine biomes (temperate, tropical and dry forests, cold, temperate, tropical and arid
231 grasslands, shrubland and boreal) between 2003 and 2015²². Locations were selected to provide a
232 solid representation for most environmental conditions (climate, soil and vegetation types) found
233 on Earth. For example, MAP and MAT in these locations ranged from 52 to 3483mm, and from -
234 9.5 to 26.5 °C, respectively (<https://www.worldclim.org/>). Soil samples were sieved (2 mm mesh).
235 A portion of soil was frozen at -20°C for molecular analyses, and the rest of the soil was air-dried

236 and stored for a month before physicochemical analyses. Other details on this sampling can be
237 found in ref.²². The diversity of fungi was determined using MiSeq platform (2 x 300 PE),
238 (Illumina, San Diego, California, United States) on a fraction of the fungal ITS gene²². zOTU
239 tables (100% similarity) were obtained from bioinformatic analyses as described in ref.¹⁸. Fungal
240 functional groups, e.g., soil decomposers (soil saprotrophs), potential fungal plant pathogens,
241 mycorrhizal fungi (both arbuscular and ectomycorrhizal fungi) and root endophytes were
242 identified using rarefied zOTU tables and FungalTraits²¹.

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244 **Global survey #2.** Composite soil samples (top 5 cm) from multiple soil cores were sampled
245 using a standardized protocol in 351 sites (ecosystems) across the world (Extended Data Fig.
246 1). Air-dried soil samples were stored for molecular and soil analyses. Other details on this
247 sampling were reported in ref.²³. The diversity of fungi was determined using 454
248 pyrosequencing (life sciences, America) on a fraction of the fungal ITS gene. Bioinformatic
249 analyses were done as described in ref.²³. Fungal functional groups, e.g., soil decomposers (soil
250 saprotrophs), potential fungal plant pathogens, mycorrhizal fungi (both arbuscular and
251 ectomycorrhizal fungi) and root endophytes were identified using rarefied phylotypes tables
252 from bioinformatics analyses²³ and FungalTraits²¹.

253

254 **Global survey #3.** Composite soil samples from multiple soil cores (top 10 cm) were collected
255 using standardized protocols between 2016 and 2017 from 87 sites (ecosystems) with known
256 substrate ages located in nine countries and six continents (Extended Data Fig. 1). Other detail
257 information for soil chemical and geography were reported in ref.^{24,39}. Here, we produced *de novo*
258 previously unpublished ITS PacBio sequencing (Full-length sequencing) data to determine the
259 diversity of fungi. PacBio sequencing offers longer read lengths than the second-generation
260 sequencing technologies, making it well-suited for studying soil biodiversity). The diversity of
261 fungi was determined via 18S-full ITS amplicon sequencing using the primers
262 ITS9mun/ITS4ngsUni and PacBio Sequel II platform in the University of Tartu. zOTU tables
263 (100% similarity) were obtained from bioinformatic analyses as described in ref.¹⁸. Fungal
264 functional groups, e.g., soil decomposers (soil saprotrophs), potential fungal plant pathogens and
265 mycorrhizal fungi (arbuscular and ectomycorrhizal fungi) were identified using rarefied zOTU
266 tables and FungalTraits²¹.

267

268 ***Stability of ecosystem productivity***

269 We used NDVI (Normalized Difference Vegetation Index), from MODIS satellite imagery
270 MOD13Q1 product, as our proxy of aboveground plant biomass³⁰ because several studies have
271 suggested the existence of a positive relationship between the Normalized Difference Vegetation
272 Index (NDVI) derived from AVHRR/NOAA satellite data and either biomass or annual
273 aboveground net primary production (ANPP) for different geographic areas and ecosystems.^{40,41}
274 NDVI provides a global measure of the “greenness” of vegetation across the Earth’s landscapes
275 for a given composite period^{42,43}. We calculated annual NDVI data for each year in the period from
276 2001 to 2018. To do so, we averaged the product values between the date of the minimum NDVI
277 (n) and the date n - 1 of the following year at each site. This approach allowed us to consider the
278 different annual vegetation growth cycles. Using the 18 annual NDVI data, we calculated the
279 temporal stability of the ecosystem as the ratio between the mean annual NDVI calculated between
280 2001 and 2018 (mean NDVI) and the SD of the annual NDVI (SD of NDVI) during that period.
281 We focused on this period of time (2001-2018), because: (i) its comprises the span of all the soil
282 samplings conducted in the three global field surveys; and (ii) drought information was available
between these dates^{25,44}. NDVI information was collected at 250m resolution. This spatial

283 resolution is comparable to that in soil samplings from three global soil surveys (~2500m²),
284 wherein composite samples were collected.

285

$$286 \text{ Ecosystem stability} = \text{Mean}/\text{SD} \quad (1)$$

287

288 To strengthen our ecosystem stability results using the NDVI index, we compare this analysis with
289 the global neural network-based spatially *Contiguous solar-induced fluorescence (CSIF)* dataset
290 based on MODIS MCD43C4 product and SIF data from Orbiting Carbon Observatory-2^{45,46} at a
291 spatial resolution of at 5000 m resolution (the highest available resolution) for clear-sky conditions
292 in the period 2001-2018⁴⁷. The instantaneous clear-sky CSIF shows high accuracy against the
293 clear-sky OCO-2 SIF and little bias between biome types. In addition, we used Gross Primary
294 Productivity (GPP) dataset from MODIS MOD17A2H product⁴⁸ at 500 m resolution over the
295 period 2001-2018. We also repeated analyses using NDVI (500m) to allow a better comparison
296 with this lower resolution metrics of stability. Overall, these three metrics gave very similar
297 results for testing the relationships between fungal diversity and ecosystem stability
298 (Supplementary Fig. 6-11), however, their lower spatial resolution (vs. NDVI 250m used in the
299 main text) limits the utility of these results. Finally, we would like to highlight that the long-term
300 trend of ecosystem production and stability in NDVI, GPP and CSIF at each site are
301 expected to integrate both anthropogenic (e.g., greening processes)⁴⁹ and natural variation.

302

303 ***Quantifying ecosystem resistance and resilience to drought events***

304 To investigate the relationship between soil fungal diversity and the responses of plant productivity
305 to drought events, we used two complementary indexes describing the stability of ecosystems to
306 perturbations: ecosystem resistance and resilience^{25,44}. Resistance (RS; eq. 2 from ref.⁴⁴) is defined
307 as the capacity of plant productivity (NDVI) to remain the same in response to a drought event.
308 Resilience (RL; eq. 3 from ref.⁴⁴) is defined as the capacity of plant productivity (NDVI) to return
309 the original levels of productivity after a drought event (i.e., the next year after the drought event).
310 To quantify the resistance and resilience of plant productivity to drought events, we used a multi-
311 scale drought index based on climate data –the standardized precipitation-evapotranspiration index
312 (SPEI)–, that quantified temporal variations in water balance and classified the onset, magnitude
313 and duration of drought conditions with respect to regular conditions at a given location. This
314 information, available for the period of 2001-2018, was used, in combination with collected NDVI
315 data (explained above), to determine the ecosystem resistance and resilience of all the ecosystems
316 included in the three global surveys. These analyses further revealed that the ecosystems in these
317 databases have gone through important drought cycles over the years. We determined the average
318 RS and RL of each ecosystem to drought events in all ecosystems included in the three global
319 surveys using the indexes based on⁴⁴, are normalised indices that shows a monotonic increase with
320 increasing resilience avoiding problems of 0 values in the denominator. The index used in this
321 study to measure resilience is bounded even when extreme situations are considered, as is the case
322 in our study plots located in drylands:

323

$$324 \text{ Resistance } (t_0) = 1 - \frac{2|D_0|}{(C_0 + |D_0|)} \quad (2)$$

325

326 Where D_0 is the difference between control (C_0), mean ecosystem productivity during normal years
327 (all years without drought events), and disturbance D_0 during a climate event (t_0).

328

329 $Resilience (t_x) = \frac{2|D_0|}{(|D_0|+|D_x|)} - 1$ (3)

330

331 Where D_x is the difference between the control (C_x) and the disturbance at the time point during
332 the year after a climate event (t_x).

333

334 We further cross-validated the patterns provided by the RL index used here⁴⁴ with that in ref.²⁵.
335 We found that both RL indexes are highly positively, significantly and consistently correlated in
336 all the global datasets analyzed here: (1) Global survey #1 (Spearman $\rho = 0.89$, $P < 0.001$),
337 Global survey #2 (Spearman $\rho = 0.87$, $P < 0.001$) and Global survey #3 (Spearman $\rho = 0.82$, $P <$
338 0.001). The fact that RL index⁴⁴ and RL index²⁵ supported similar patterns at a global scale,
339 reduce any concern on potential bias, and provide further support to our conclusions.

340

341 *Drought events*

342 Drought events were quantified with the SPEI index⁵⁰. It can be used to determine the onset,
343 duration and magnitude of drought conditions relative to normal conditions in a variety of natural
344 and managed ecosystems⁵¹. SPEI is a multi-scale drought index based on climatic data of monthly
345 precipitation and potential evapotranspiration from Climatic Research Unit (CRU) TS3.10.01
346 dataset⁵² (<http://badc.nerc.ac.uk/>) with FAO-56 Penman-Monteith equation estimation⁵³ at 0.5 °
347 spatial resolution. Particular, in this study focuses on the response of vegetation in terrestrial
348 ecosystems, which do not necessarily react immediately to precipitation fluctuations, so the 12-
349 SPEI data were chosen. We obtain 12-month water shortage or surplus periods for this study. That
350 is, a 12-SPEI value is based on the accumulated water shortage or surplus during the previous 12
351 months. Finally, after normalizing the period data, we can interpret negative values of the index as
352 dry conditions. To obtain sufficient drought events, we quantified drought events in the period
353 2001-2018 by analyzing dry events below the 30th percentile which is equivalent to an SPEI of -
354 0.67 and includes moderate and extreme dry events. In addition, normal years were
355 quantified between -0.67 and 0.67 SPEI data according to Isbell et al.²⁵ (Supplementary Fig. 2).

356

357 *Statistical analyses*

358 **Fungal diversity.** Soil fungal diversity was determined as the richness of phylotypes (i.e.,
359 zOTUs) within functional groups (Fungaltraits) from rarefied phylotype tables.

360

361 **Mantel test correlations.** We used Mantel test (Spearman) to determine the associations between
362 the cross-site variations in fungal community composition (phylotype level) and ecosystem
363 stability. We used rarefied phylotype tables and Bray-Curtis distance for these analyses. In the
364 case of ecosystem stability, we used Euclidean distance matrices.

365

366 **Variation partitioning.** We used Variation Partitioning modeling^{54,55} to quantify the relative
367 importance of four groups of factors as predictors of ecosystem stability, mean and SD of NDVI,
368 and ecosystem resistance and resilience to drought events. These four groups of predictors
369 included: (i) climate, (ii) environment: soil properties and biomes, (iii) fungal diversity; and (iv)
370 % basal areas of mycorrhizal plants/site. These predictors were kept consistent for global survey
371 #1, #2 and #3. However, we also repeated analyses in global survey #2 including plant richness,
372 which was available for all locations in this dataset, to further account for any influence of plant
373 diversity in our analyses. Climate includes the mean annual temperature (MAT) and aridity index
374 (the higher the aridity index the greater the water availability) from <https://www.worldclim.org>.
375 Fungal diversity includes the richness of fungal functional groups (soil saprobes, plant pathogen,

376 root endophyte and mycorrhizal fungi) and community composition of functional groups
377 (summarized using a non-metric multidimensional scaling; NMDS; Bray-Curtis distance).
378 Mycorrhizal plant include the basal area (%) of AM- and EcM-associated plants retrieved using
379 maps from ref.²⁶. Soil properties include total soil phosphorus (TP), soil pH, total N (TN), C: N
380 ratio (C:N) from the original databases in global surveys #1, #2 and #3. Soil age was also included
381 as soil properties in global survey #3. Biomes includes forest and others. Variation partitioning
382 model performed based on “vegan” package^{54,55}. Before this analysis, we used the “forward.sel”
383 procedure^{54,55} to avoid redundancy and multicollinearity in variation partitioning analyses.

384

385 **Multiple regression models.** We used multiple regression models to assess the joint effects of
386 geography, climate, soil properties, fungal diversity and mycorrhizal plant as well as the relative
387 importance of individual variable on ecosystem stability, and mean and SD of NDVI in global
388 surveys #1, #2 and #3. The predictor variables included in this model were consistent with those
389 in Variation Partitioning. Climate includes MAT and aridity index. Fungal diversity includes the
390 richness of fungal functional groups (soil saprobes, plant pathogen, root endophyte and
391 mycorrhizal fungi). Given the importance of the diversity of soil decomposers in our analyses, we
392 also included a surrogate of the community composition of decomposers (i.e., summarized using
393 a non-metric multidimensional scaling; NMDS; Bray-Curtis distance), to further investigate the
394 robustness of the soil decomposer diversity (richness) and ecosystem stability when controlling
395 for their composition. Mycorrhizal plant include the basal area (%) of AM- and EcM-associated
396 plants. Soil properties include TP, soil pH, TN, C: N ratio. We also considered quadratic terms for
397 climatic variables, plant mycorrhizal association because these variables have been observed to
398 affect ecosystem functioning in previous studies³⁰ and our results (Fig. 3; Extended Data Figs. 5-
399 7) in a nonlinear way. Additionally, we included spatial variability: latitude, longitude and
400 elevation. All predictors and response variables were standardized before analyses, using the z-
401 score to interpret parameter estimates on a comparable scale. Soil age in global survey #3 was log-
402 transformed before Z-score transformation to meet the assumptions of the tests used. We used the
403 “relaimpo” package⁵⁶ in R to estimate parameter coefficients for each predictor.

404

405 **SEM.** We used PicewiseSEM^{57,58} to further evaluate the associations between fungal diversity (the
406 richness of soil saprobes, plant pathogen, root endophyte and mycorrhizal fungi) and ecosystem
407 stability in our global survey after accounting for multiple key ecosystem factors such as
408 geography (longitude, latitude and elevation), climate (MAT, aridity index), ecosystem types
409 (forest or others), soil properties (pH, TP, TN and C:N) and % of mycorrhizal plants (the basal
410 area of AM plant and EcM plant; retrieved using maps from ref.²⁶) simultaneously. As done with
411 the Multiple regression models, we also included a surrogate of the community composition of
412 decomposers (i.e., NMDS), to further investigate the robustness of the soil decomposer diversity
413 (richness) and ecosystem stability when controlling for their composition. All measured variables
414 included in this model were firstly divided into “composite variable” and then included in SEM.
415 We also repeated analyses in global survey #2 including plant richness, which was available for
416 all locations in this dataset, to further account for any influence of plant diversity in our analyses.
417 In order to confirm the robustness of the relationships between soil biodiversity and ecosystem
418 stability, we used piecewiseSEM to account for random effects of sampling sites, with providing
419 “marginal” and “conditional” contribution of environmental predictors in driving ecosystem
420 stability. These analyses were conducted using “piecewiseSEM”⁵⁷, “nlme” and “lme4” packages⁵⁸.
421 We used the Fisher’s C test (when $0.05 < p < 1.00$) to confirm the goodness of the modelling
422 results. We then modified our models according to the significance ($p < 0.05$) and the goodness of
423 the model⁵.

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553
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566 **Author contributions:**

567 M.D-B. designed the study in consultation with S.L. and P.G-P; S.L., M.D-B., L.T. and E.G.
568 analyzed the data; S.L. and M.D-B. wrote the first draft paper, and P.G-P., L.T., M.v.d.H., C.W.,
569 E.G., D.C., Q.W., J.W., and B.K.S., contributed significantly to improve subsequent drafts.

570

571 **Competing interests:**

572 The authors declare no competing interests.

573

574 **Data and materials availability:**

575 The raw data associated with this study is available in
576 (<https://figshare.com/s/5299f4b83c1abec736fc>; DOI: 10.6084/m9.figshare.14905236). ITS
577 sequencing data associated with Global #1, 2 and 3 is available in
578 <https://figshare.com/s/9772d31625426d90778222> (doi: 10.6084/m9.figshare.5923876.v1), the
579 Short Read Archive (accession SRP043706)²³ and <https://figshare.com/s/5e16fa5b0475880c0fa5>
580 (doi: 10.6084/m9.figshare.19419335), respectively.

581

582 **Supplementary Materials:**

583 Supplementary Figures 1 to 11

584 Supplementary Note 1

585

586 **Figure caption**

587 **Figure 1. Relationships between soil fungal diversity and ecosystem stability.** Fitted linear
588 relationships between ecosystem stability and the richness of selected functional groups of fungi
589 in global surveys #1 (a-c; n = 235 ecosystems), #2 (d-f; n = 351 ecosystems) and #3 (g-i; n =
590 87 ecosystems). Statistical analysis for the relationship between richness and stability was
591 performed using ordinary least squares linear regressions. Significance levels of each predictor are
592 * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$. Grey shade indicates 95% confidence interval. Soil saprobes
593 = Soil fungal decomposers.

594

595 **Figure 2. Relationships between soil fungal diversity and ecosystem stability in grasslands.**

596 Fitted linear relationships between ecosystem stability and the richness of selected functional
597 groups of fungi in grasslands associated with global surveys #1 (a; n = 120 ecosystems) and #2 (b;
598 n = 54 ecosystems). Statistical analysis for the relationship between richness and stability was
599 performed using ordinary least squares linear regressions. Significance levels of each predictor are
600 * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$. Grey shade indicates 95% confidence interval. Soil saprobes
601 = Soil fungal decomposers.

602

603 **Figure 3. Drivers of ecosystem stability.** Biotic and abiotic predictors of ecosystem stability in

604 global surveys #1 (a; n = 235 ecosystems), #2 (b; n = 351 ecosystems) and #3 (c; n = 87
605 ecosystems). Multiple ranking regression reveal the relative importance of the most important
606 predictors of ecosystem stability. The standardized regression coefficients of the models are shown
607 for each predictor with their associated 95% confidence intervals. * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P <$
608 0.001. Bar graphs show the relative importance of each group of predictors, expressed as the
609 percentage of explained variance. Soil saprobe = Soil fungal decomposers. Community

610 composition of soil saprobes was summarized using a non-metric multidimensional scaling;
611 NMDS (Methods).

612

613 **Figure 4. Direct and indirect drivers of ecosystem stability.** PiecewiseSEM accounting for the
614 direct and indirect effects of geography, climate predictors, vegetation type, plant
615 mycorrhizal association and fungal diversity on the ecosystem stability at global surveys #1
616 (a; n = 235 ecosystems), #2 (b; n = 351 ecosystems) and #3 (c; n = 87 ecosystems).
617 Numbers adjacent to arrows are path coefficients (partial regression) which represent the
618 directly standardized effect size of the relationship. The conditional and marginal R^2
619 represent the proportion of variance explained by all predictors without and with accounting
620 for random effects of “sampling site”. Relationships between residual variables of measured
621 predictors were not showed. Significance levels of each predictor are * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$,
622 *** $P < 0.001$. Microbes includes the richness of saprobes, potential fungal plant pathogens,
623 root endophytes and mycorrhizal fungi, and the community composition of decomposers (soil
624 saprobes).

625

626 **Figure 5. Relationship between basal area of mycorrhizal association and ecosystem**
627 **stability in global survey #1 (a,b; n = 235 ecosystems), #2 (c,d; n = 351 ecosystems) and #3**
628 **(c,d; n = 87 ecosystems).** Statistical analysis for the relationship between richness and stability
629 was performed using ordinary least squares regressions. Regression lines and 95% confidence
630 bands are shown for significant relationships ($P < 0.05$). Akaike information criterion (AIC) was
631 used to select the best model.

632

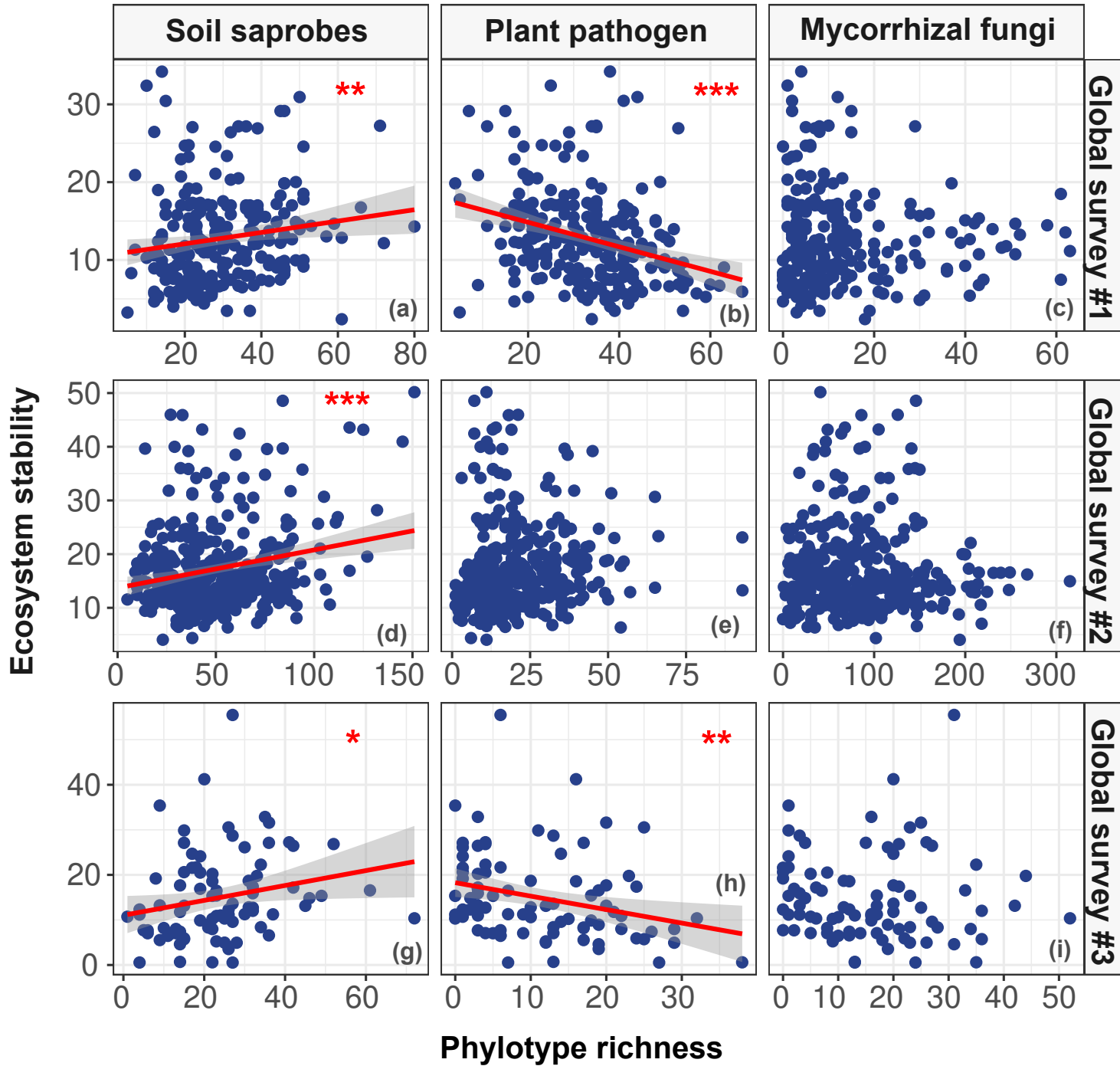
633 **Figure 6. Relationships between soil fungal diversity and ecosystem resistance and**
634 **resilience to drought events.** Fungal diversity effects on ecosystem resistance (RS) and
635 resilience (RL) in drought events in global surveys #1 (a-d; n = 235 ecosystems), #2 (e-h; n =
636 351 ecosystems) and #3 (i-l; n = 87 ecosystems). Statistical analysis for the relationship between
637 richness and stability was performed using ordinary least squares linear regressions. Significance
638 levels of each predictor are * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$. Grey shade indicates 95%
639 confidence interval. Soil saprobes = Soil fungal decomposers.

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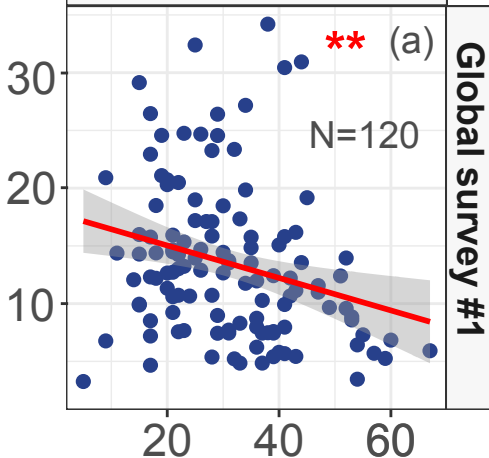
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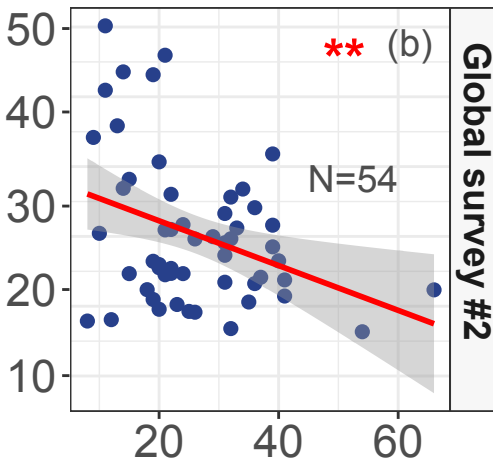


Plant pathogen/Grassland

Ecosystem stability

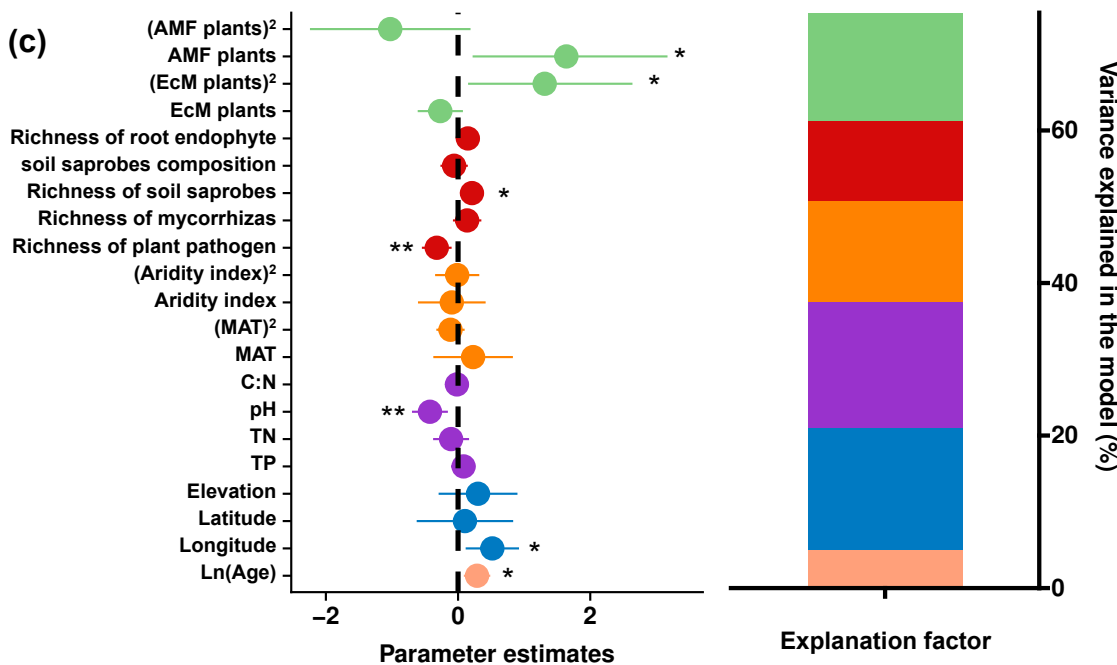
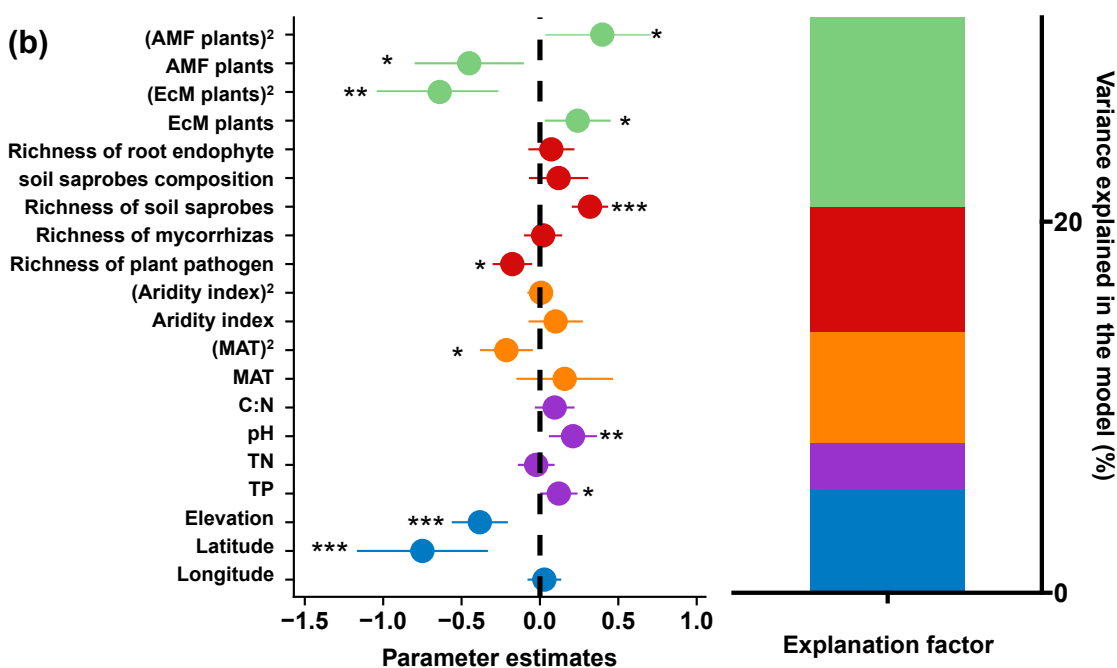
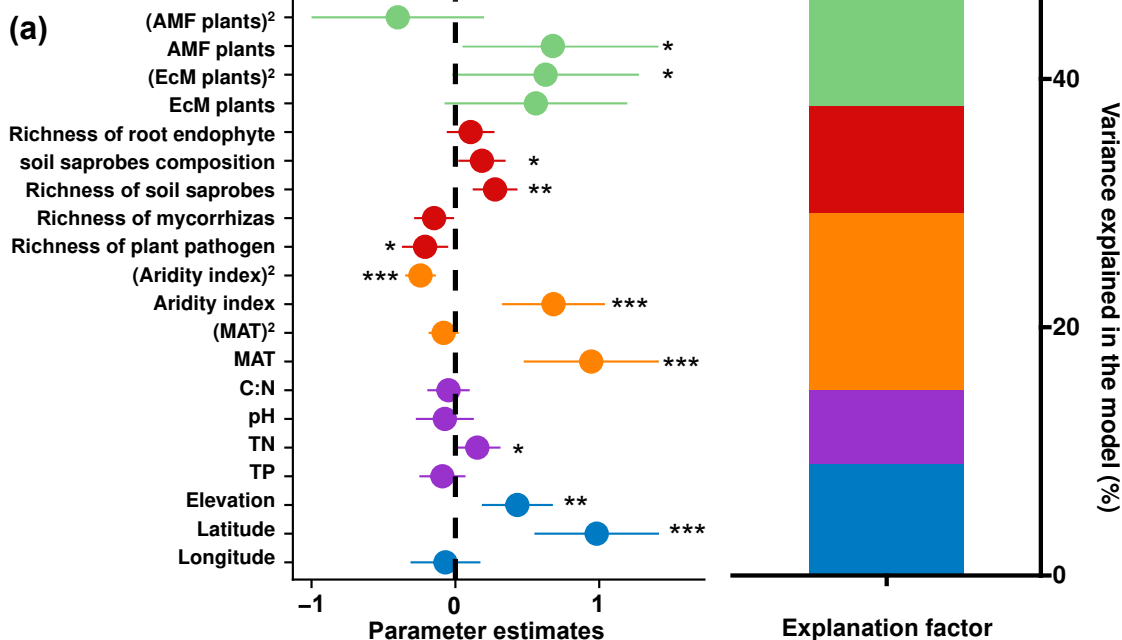


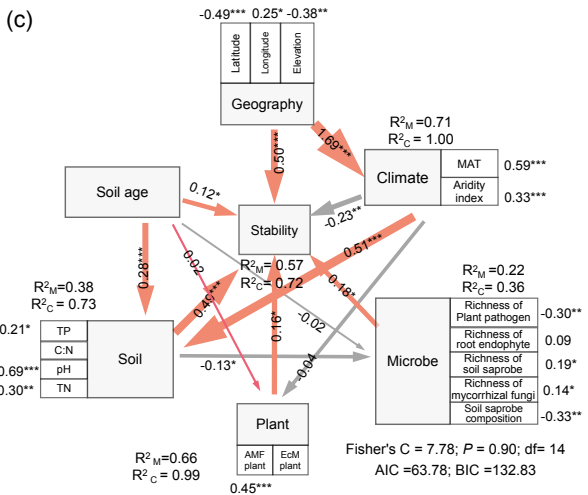
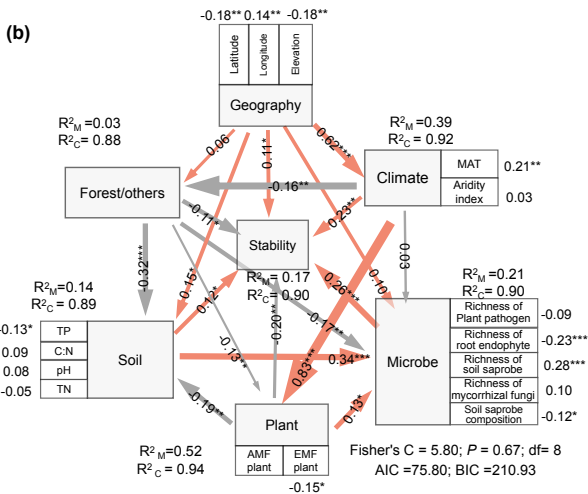
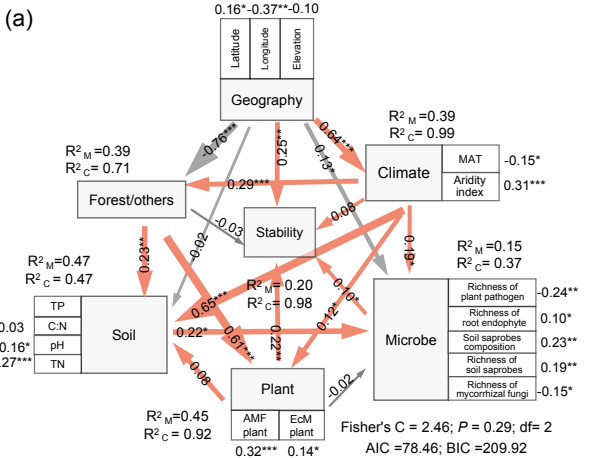
Global survey #1

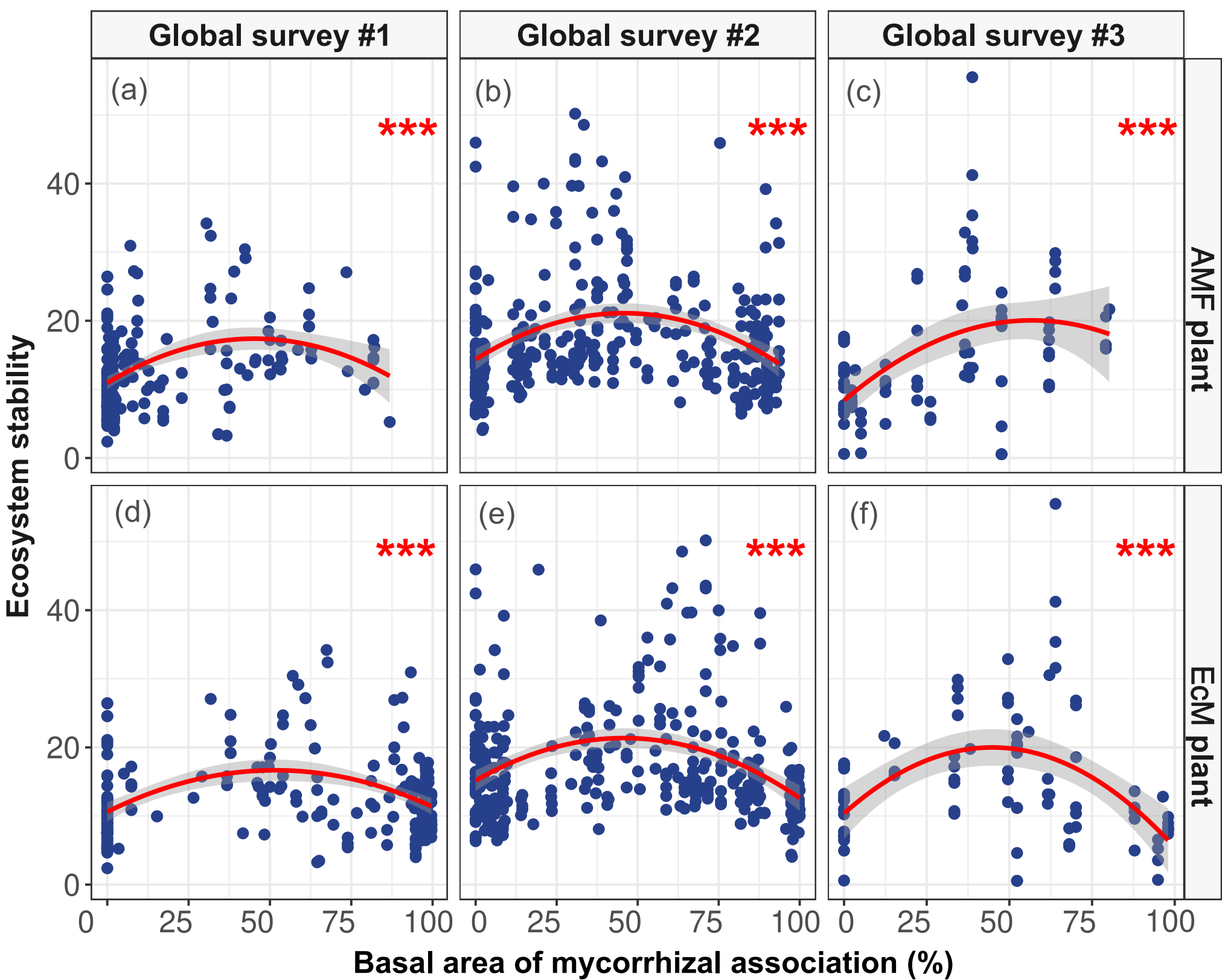


Global survey #2

Phylotype richness







Ecosystem RS and RL to drought events

