

Review of “Variation pattern of particulate organic carbon and nitrogen in oceans and inland waters”. In this manuscript, Huang et al. compile and describe an updated dataset of POC and PON measurements from the ocean and inland waterways. They describe spatial and biophysical relationships in an attempt to explain variations in the dataset. There is clearly a lot of information present in this dataset and the authors do an exhaustive comparison of the data in many ways. However, I think the authors do not convincingly support their conclusions and do not put their work in a context where the reader can assess its importance. For instance, many of the values or relationships they cite as significantly different have overlapping standard deviations, and many of the significant relationships they describe are accompanied by figures that do not clearly show the relationships they describe. The authors present many relationships without identifying their significance to our understanding of organic matter production and consumption. I think a manuscript that clearly identifies new and statistically significant relationships and their importance would be a useful contribution to the field.

Response: We very appreciate the reviewer for his suggestive and valuable comments. Those comments are very helpful for revising and improving our paper. We have studied the comments carefully and addressed all of the comment. The main corrections have marked in the revised manuscript and the responses on a point-by-point basis are given below.

Specific comments:

1. The major conclusions appear to be:
  - a. The global average POC/PON from this study is higher than the Redfield ratio.
  - b. The relationship between POC and PON in the northern hemisphere is different (higher regression slope) than in the southern hemisphere.

I do not find support in the text for the first conclusion. The POC/PON ratio you describe has an uncertainty that easily overlaps the Redfield ratio, not to mention published uncertainty in the Redfield ratio. It is not clear that your new value represents a new understanding or simply a different subset of data. Perhaps focusing your analysis on the one latitudinal region that appears significantly different than Redfield (80-90 deg N, Fig. 2), would be a worthwhile approach.

Response: Redfield ratio is usually defined as 6.63 in previous studies. The first conclusion is ambiguous according to the reviewer’s comment. Here, we just consider the mean value of POC/PON, but not fully take into account of uncertainty in the comparison. We rewrote these ambiguous contexts and compared them separately according to the reviewer’s suggestion. The significant difference between Redfield ratio and in situ observation in 80-90 ° N (low temperature) was focused in the discussion section (3.4.2 Temperature).

I believe your second point is derived from Figure 2, and at multiple points in the text you describe the latitudinal dependency of POC/PON as much higher in the northern hemisphere than in the southern hemisphere (lines 142-3). It is difficult to draw this conclusion from your figures. If you plotted POC/PON as a function of latitude (not forcing the separation through latitude bins) I do not think a relationship would emerge. Certainly there are only ~2-3 latitude ranges with POC/PON ratios that do not overlap the Redfield ratio at the 25th percentile.

Response: The difference of variation pattern in POC, PON and POC/PON between northern and southern hemispheres is embodied in two aspects, one is the latitudinal dependency

another is the couple relationships of POC and PON. The latitudinal dependency of POC/PON is insignificant in the low latitude area and southern hemisphere, but relative remarkable between 20° N ~ 90° N. The linear regression slopes between POC and PON in the northern hemisphere (including intercept, 7.06 and excluding intercept, 7.00) are much higher than in the southern hemisphere (including intercept, 5.97; excluding intercept, 6.03). We rewrote the relative context in the manuscript.

## 2. Distance from shore:

There does appear to be a difference between PON within 50km of shore in the northern hemisphere and further than 50km from shore. Is it possible to distinguish terrestrial inputs from coastal productivity? Perhaps you can expand on this finding.

Response: 50 Km could be used to distinguish the impact of land from ocean. We enhance the finding of the variation in POC, PON and POC/PON along the distance from shore.

Other comments:

Line 15: “some new points” – it is unclear what this means

Response: we rewrote this sentence. ‘some new points’ was removed in the context.

Line 23 and elsewhere: “morphology”? Do you mean size? Or does the shape of the lake impact its organic matter?

Response: it means the shape of lake. It commonly defined as the ratio of lake area to depth.

Line 24: “significantly” – you use the word significantly throughout the text when presenting two values that do not appear to be statistically distinguishable.  $6.89 \pm 2.38$  to  $7.59 \pm 4.22$  does not appear to be a significant change.

Response: we revised the presentation in the context.

Line 35: Over what time frame and due to what influences do you expect these changes?

Response: much more data and higher accuracy model were used in the recent studies. These changes mainly caused by the estimation method.

Line 61: This larger range for the Redfield ratio appears to contradict your abstract and conclusions.

Response: Redfield ratio is usually defined 6.63 in previous studies. 6.63-7.7 is the range of POC/PON in the study of Redfield. We rewrote it to avoid causing ambiguity.

Figure 1: Perhaps showing the sample density (using a heat map?) on the global map would make it easier to see where the majority of the samples come from.

Response: we revised the figure to the intensity plot according to the reviewer’s suggestion.

Figure captions throughout: “...with whiskers covering most of the data” – I don’t know what this means, but it does not appear that the whiskers cover the majority of the data range for most samples.

Response: we revised these figure captions, and remove these sentences with ambiguous and unmeaningful description. The box plot can present statistical information for most samples.

Figures throughout: Many of your figures (for example Figure 4) present data in bins vs. POC or PON or POC/PON. Without grid lines or some straight reference it is difficult to distinguish any relationship between the data and the y-axis values. These plots often give the impression that no relationship exists. You do not show your regression lines in the plots, only in your Supplemental tables. This makes it very hard for readers to follow your chain of argument and

believe your results.

Response: The box plot could not be processed to regression lines. We replot some figures and added the regression lines in the plot.

# Variation pattern of particulate organic carbon and nitrogen in oceans and inland waters

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**Abstract:** We examined the relationship between, and variations in, particulate organic carbon (POC) and

15 particulate organic nitrogen (PON) based on previously acquired ocean and inland water data. [The latitudinal dependency of POC/PON is insignificant in the low latitude area and southern hemisphere, but relative remarkable between 20° N ~ 90° N. The global average value of POC/PON \(7.54 ± 3.82, mean value ± standard deviation\) is slightly higher than the Redfield ratio \(6.63\).](#) The mean values of POC/PON in south and north hemisphere are 7.40±3.83 and 7.80±3.92, respectively. The high values of POC/PON appeared between 80° N ~  
20 90° N (12.2 ± 7.5) and 70° N ~ 80° N (9.4 ± 6.4), and relatively low POC/PON were found from 20 °N (6.6 ± 2.8) to 40 °N (6.7 ± 2.7). [The latitudinal variation of POC/PON in the northern hemisphere is much stronger than in the southern hemisphere due to the influence of more terrestrial organic matter. Higher POC and PON could be expected in the coastal waters, while POC/PON growth from 6.89 ± 2.38 to 7.59 ± 4.22 in north hemisphere with](#)

[the increasing rate of 0.0024/km from coastal to open ocean.](#) Variations of POC/PON in lake water also showed similar latitude-[variation](#) of POC/PON in ocean water, but significantly regulated by lake's morphology, trophic state and climate, etc. factors. [Small and high latitude lakes prefer to relative high POC/PON, yet large and low latitude lakes tend to low POC/PON.](#) The coupling relationship between POC and PON in oceans is much stronger than in inland waters. Variations in POC, PON and POC/PON in inland waters should receive more attention due to the importance of these values to global carbon and nitrogen cycles and the indeterminacy of the relationship between POC and PON.

## 1. Introduction

Inland waters and oceans transport, transform and contain large amounts of organic carbon and thus play an important role in global carbon, nitrogen and nutrient cycles (Cole et al., 2007). Inland waters receive carbon from terrestrial ecosystems at a rate of 2.9 PgC/yr. Of this carbon, 21% (0.6 PgC/yr) is stored in sediment, 48% (1.4 PgC/yr) is emitted to the atmosphere as CO<sub>2</sub>, and 31% (0.9 PgC/yr) is discharged into oceans via rivers (Tranvik et al., 2009). Recent studies suggest that the emission of CO<sub>2</sub> in inland water could increase to 2.1 PgC/yr (Raymond et al., 2013) from past estimates of 0.8 (Cole et al., 2007) and 1.4 PgC/yr (Tranvik et al., 2009). The receive carbon in inland water from terrestrial ecosystems can reach to 5.7 PgC/yr in recent study (Le Quéré et al., 2015). The stored in the sediment and discharged into ocean carbon could increase to 2.8 PgC/yr by subject 2.1 PgC/yr from 5.7 PgC/yr according to Raymond et al., (2013) and Le Quéré et al., (2015). The ocean is an important carbon sink due to the flux of riverine

carbon (0.9 PgC/yr, Tranvik et al., 2009, maybe more than 0.9 PgC/yr according to Raymond et al., 2013 and Le Quéré et al., 2015) and the absorption of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>, which is fixed by phytoplankton at a rate of 2.3±0.7 PgC/yr (IPCC, 2013).

45 There is a strong relationship between nitrogen and carbon cycles in natural aquatic ecosystems. The input of nitrogen into aquatic ecosystems as nutrients from the land and atmosphere stimulates additional uptake of carbon (Hyvönen et al., 2007), and fixed carbon and nitrogen are released as gas and ions (CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub>, etc.) when organisms are mineralized (Galloway, et al., 2004; Flückiger et al., 2004). This relationship is made stronger by the life processes of organisms, but it is weakened by variations in the sequestration and mineralization rates of carbon and nitrogen  
50 (Gruber and Galloway, 2008). The relationship between carbon and nitrogen is relatively stable in natural aquatic ecosystems, although carbon and nitrogen levels vary depending on autotrophic biotypes and water environment (Thornton and McManus, 1994; Gruber and Galloway, 2008). This relationship is also affected by human activity (Gruber and Galloway, 2008; Galloway et al., 2008; Perga et al., 2016).

The elemental composition of organic matter affects the global biogeochemical cycle and varies depending on its  
55 sources (DeVries and Detsch, 2014). The carbon to nitrogen (C/N) ratio affected by the life processes of organisms and is a good measure of the relationship between carbon and nitrogen cycles (Sterner and Elser, 2002; Schneider et al., 2003; Meisel and Struck, 2011; Babbín et al., 2014). Organic nitrogen originates from plant proteins and nucleic acids and, to a lesser extent, from lignin and cellulose. The C/N ratio in terrestrial plants is much higher than in autotrophic phytoplankton due to their high lignin and cellulose content (Kendall et al., 2001; McGroddy et al., 2004; Watanabe

60 and Kuwae, 2015). This leads to a C/N ratio that is higher and much more variable in inland waters than in offshore oceans; there is also a sharp contrast in nutrient levels and water residence times between the two (Hall et al., 2007, Sterner et al., 2008; Watanabe and Kuwae, 2015). Several studies suggest that the currently observed C/N ratio, and variations in it, are difficult to reconcile with the value estimated by Redfield (6.63), which was based on data taken from ocean-surface plankton and deep, dissolved nutrients from 1898 to 1933 (Kokrtzinger et al., 2001; Schneider et al., 2004; Koeve, 2006; Sterner et al., 2008; Martiny et al., 2013a; 2013b; DeVries and Deutsch, 2014; Watanabe and Kuwae, 2015). The factors influencing variations in C/N are complex due to the loss and product rate of POC and PON. Nitrogen and light limitation and phytoplankton can only explain approximately 20% of the variation in C/N on a global scale (Martiny et al., 2013b). The temperature, composition of organic matter, dynamic characteristics of water will significantly conduct the loss rates of OC and ON in the water (Stief 2007; Gälman et al., 2008; Gudasz et al., 2010; Sobek et al., 2014; Cardoso et al., 2014). Other factors that regulate C/N on a regional scale include microzooplankton (Talmy et al., 2016), heterotrophic microbes (Crawford et al., 2015) and terrestrial organisms (Jiang, 2013). This variation in C/N increases the uncertainty of global carbon and nitrogen estimation (Babbin, 2014). Consequently, understanding temporal and spatial variation in particulate organic carbon (POC), particulate organic nitrogen (PON) and the POC/PON ratio, as well as the processes that govern POC/PON, is critical to better explain the global biogeochemical cycles of carbon and nitrogen.

75 Recently, global oceanic studies have proposed that the median global value of C/N in oceans is close to the Redfield value, but there is significant regional variation (Martiny et al., 2013b). Meanwhile, POC/PON exhibits a strong

latitudinal pattern, with lower values in the cold ocean waters of the higher latitudes (Martiny et al., 2013a). In contrast to the study of oceanic POC/PON, the elemental stoichiometry research of C/N in inland waters is still need to be  
80 complement and perfection (Sterner et al., 2008). In this study, we extend the study area and dataset of previous studies (Martiny et al., 2013b; 2014; Kim et al., 2015), from 60° N ~ 78° S with 40482 samples to 80° N ~ 78° S with 63184 samples, to re-examine variations in POC, PON and POC/PON on a global scale. Values for POC, PON and POC/PON in inland waters were combined to further reveal the relationship between POC and PON and deviations in POC/PON from the classical Redfield value.

## 85 **2. Data and Methods**

### 2.1 Data collection

To achieve this study's objective, datasets from previously published studies and publicly available online data were acquired (detailed information was listed in the supporting material Table S1). This compiled dataset contained 63,184 paired POC and PON samples (northern hemisphere, 40,809 samples; southern hemisphere,  
90 22,448 samples) from offshore and coastal oceans and 23,996 samples from inland waters (rivers and lakes). The spatial distribution of samples is shown in Figure 1. Measurements of particulate elements were carried out by standard methods, which C and N were analyzed on C/N elemental analyzer after water samples filtered through preweighed, precombusted (450°C for 4 hours) GF/F filters and acidified treatment. The units of POC and PON in all data ( $\mu\text{g/L}$ ,  $\mu\text{m/L}$ ) were unified to  $\mu\text{m/L}$  via molecular-weight of C and N.



<http://daac.ornl.gov/SOILS/guides/HWSD.html>) were also used to analyze the factors influencing variations in

POC, PON and POC/PON.

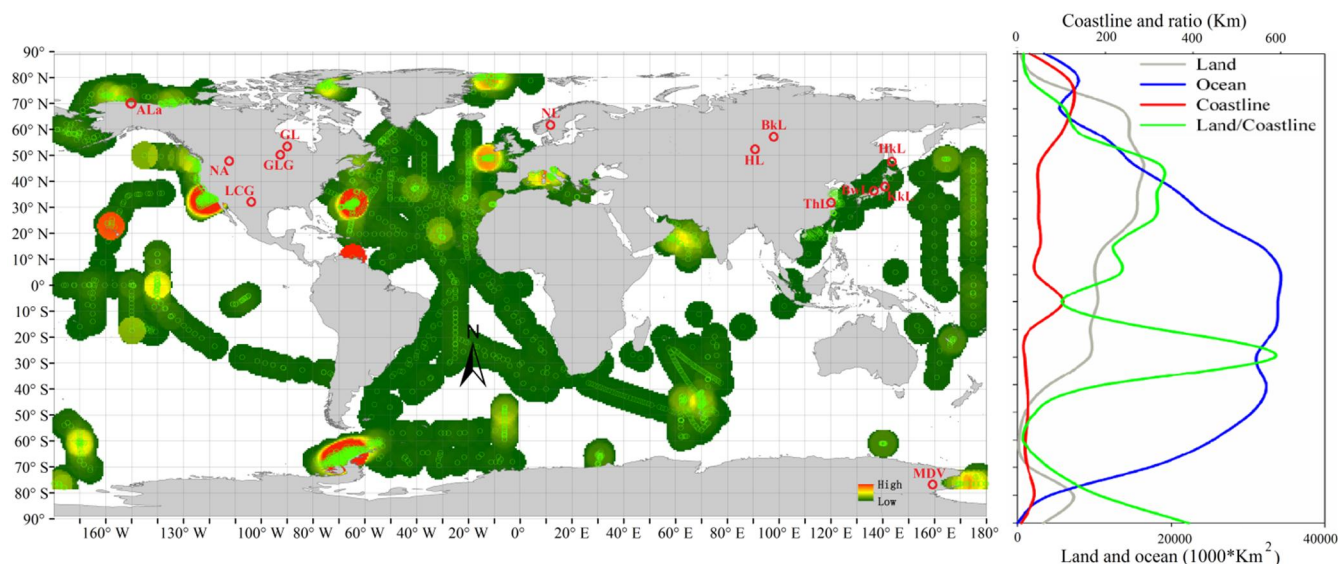


Figure 1 Global distribution of paired samples of POC and PON. Green circles are oceanic samples and red circles are inland samples. Land and ocean area, coastline length and the ratio of land area to coastline are also shown. The original map data of world vector downloaded from <http://www.naturalearthdata.com/>.

## 2.2 Data category and analyses methods

Samples with extremely low POC ( $< 0.01 \mu\text{m/L}$ ) and PON ( $< 0.001 \mu\text{m/L}$ ) values were removed due to the limit

of detection for the analysis. The collection data of ocean from previous studies and web-sharing database contained variable ranges of POC and PON with latitude, time, depth and temperature. In order to reveal the pattern of POC and PON, the remaining data were classified into groups relating to latitude, depth, offshore distance and temperature to aid data analysis: 1) Oceanic POC and PON data, taken from  $80^\circ \text{N}$  to  $78^\circ \text{S}$ , were divided into 17 ranges with  $10^\circ$  latitudinal intervals (Table S2). The data in each latitudinal range include all

110 ranges of temperature, time and depth for POC and PON. 2) Ocean POC and PON samples were separated into  
0-5m, 5-10m, 10-20m, 20-80m and >80m depth ranges according to the distribution of samples' number (Table  
S3 and Figure S1). The distribution of samples in each depth covers most ranges of latitude, time and temperature  
for POC and PON. 3) POC and PON samples were divided into temperature ranges with an interval of  
approximately 1 degree centigrade. 4) Offshore distance ranges (5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 50, 75, 100, 125, 150, 200, 300,  
115 500, 800 and 1100 km) were created via buffers establishment module in Arcgis 10 (Esri), and the samples  
located in each range were separated and statistically analyzed (Table S4). All ranges of POC and PON with  
different depth, time and latitude in each buffer were treated as same category for each offshore distance range.  
The samples located on different ranges of buffers (different distance from offshore) can show the variation of  
POC, PON and POC/PON from coastal to open sea (Figure S2).

120 The lake collection data of POC and PON was analyzed for individual lakes. Some measurements of POC and  
PON are multiple observations in many small lakes. These observational data were processed as lake groups,  
such as Great Lakes Group, Lacustrine Central Group, Alaskan Lakes and so on (Table S7).

The number of samples was listed in the tables of supporting material (Table S2 – S6). Statistical values (mean,  
maximum, minimum and standard deviation) were calculated for POC, PON and POC/PON for all groups. The  
125 relationships between PON and POC for all categories (ocean and lakes) were also regressed and listed in the  
supporting material. The relationships between particulate organic matter (PON and POC) and water properties  
(temperature, DOM, chlorophyll and total suspended sediment), as well as the soil organic carbon, were regressed

to explore the effect of each influencing factors to the variation pattern of POC and PON.

130 The soil organic carbon data from harmonized world soil database was also divided into 17 ranges with 10°  
latitudinal intervals according to the process of oceanic POC and PON data. The soil organic carbon and oceanic  
POC, PON and POC/PON in the same latitudinal range were statistically compared with mean, maximum, and  
minimum value, respectively. The relationships between soil organic carbon and POC, PON and POC/PON  
reveal the potential impact of terrestrial organic matter to the variation of oceanic POC, PON and POC/PON.

### 3. Results and discussion

135 3.1 ~~Spatial Latitude and depth dependent variation of~~ POC, PON and POC/PON ~~variation~~ in the ocean

#### 3.1.1 Latitudinal variation of POC, PON and POC/PON

The spatial distributions of POC, PON and POC/PON significantly affect marine carbon and nitrogen flux  
estimation as well as the air-ocean exchange of CO<sub>2</sub> via the global ocean carbon cycle model (Schneider et al.,  
2004). Studies have proposed that the elemental ratio (POC/PON) of particulate organic matter in marine  
140 environments is characterized by a strong latitudinal pattern (for 60° N ~ 60° S) due to the influence of nutrients,  
temperature and respiration (Martiny et al., 2013a; Devries and Deutsch, 2014). Microzooplankton and algae  
production also regulate POC/PON in the ocean (Tamelander et al., 2013; Crawford et al., 2015; Talmy et al.,  
2016). ~~PON and POC co vary, resulting in a strongly coupled relationship.~~ Compared with the strongly  
latitudinal-dependent in the elemental ratios (Martiny et al., 2013a), both POC and PON show a barely latitudinal  
145 pattern globally, but latitudinal variations in POC and PON in the southern hemisphere are much weaker than in

the northern hemisphere (Figure 2A, B). The latitudinal dependency of POC/PON in northern hemisphere is stronger than in southern hemisphere, especially in the latitude of 40N - 90N, showing attenuation trend with decrease of latitude (Figure 2C). Different from a previous study (Crawford et al., 2015), which observed that a low POC/PON ratio (2.1 to 5.6) existed in the middle-high latitudes ( $80^{\circ}$  N  $\sim$   $50^{\circ}$  N) due to the presence of heterotrophic microbes in summer time, we found high values for POC/PON,  $12.2 \pm 7.5$  and  $9.4 \pm 6.4$  between  $80^{\circ}$  N  $\sim$   $90^{\circ}$  N and  $70^{\circ}$  N  $\sim$   $80^{\circ}$  N, respectively. Relatively low POC/PON ratios were found from  $20^{\circ}$  N ( $6.6 \pm 2.8$ ) to  $40^{\circ}$  N ( $6.7 \pm 2.7$ ). Consistent with earlier studies, the low POC/PON ratios were very close to the Redfield value (6.625). ~~The determined coefficient ( $R^2$ ) of the relationship between POC and PON in the southern hemisphere is slightly higher than in the northern hemisphere (Table S2).~~ The mean value of POC/PON in northern hemisphere ( $7.50 \pm 4.65$ ) is slight lower than in southern hemisphere ( $7.81 \pm 3.79$ ) and close to the global mean value of POC/PON ( $7.54 \pm 3.82$ ). The variation for POC/PON in the northern hemisphere is bigger than in the southern hemisphere (Table S2). These maybe indicate that geobiochemical processes and the circulation of carbon and nitrogen in the northern hemisphere are much more complex than in the southern hemisphere.

PON and POC co-vary, resulting in a strongly coupled relationship (Figure 3). Linear functions (including and excluding intercepts) and power functions can be used to express the relationship between carbon and nitrogen for each latitudinal range (Table S2). However, the optimal function is different for each latitudinal range. The regression functions for POC and PON and the best regression results (highest  $R^2$ ) noted with an asterisk are listed in Table S2. The linear function ~~is~~ used to describe the relationship between ~~carbon-POC~~ and ~~nitrogen-PON~~

globally is  $POC = 6.17 \times PON + 1.24$ ,  $R^2 = 0.916$ . The linear function between POC and PON for southern and northern hemisphere are  $POC = 5.974 \times PON + 1.528$ ,  $R^2 = 0.913$  and  $POC = 7.062 \times PON - 0.624$ ,  $R^2 = 0.899$ , respectively. The regression functions for POC and PON are listed in Table S2. The determined coefficient ( $R^2$ ) of the relationship between POC and PON in the southern hemisphere is slightly higher than in the northern hemisphere (Table S2). The slopes of the linear regressions in northern and southern hemisphere this study (7.06 and 5.97) are very close to Redfield ratio of 6.63 and almost covers the range of POC/PON in previous regional studies (e.g., 5.89, 5.06 and 4.63, Caperon, 1976; 6.43, Verity, 2002; 5.8, Lara et al., 2010; 5.53 and 5.38, Crawford et al., 2015; 6.62, Cai, P.H. et al., 2015; 6.75, Kim et al., 2015). However, the global linear slope between POC and PON (6.17) is lower than the Redfield ratio of 6.63.

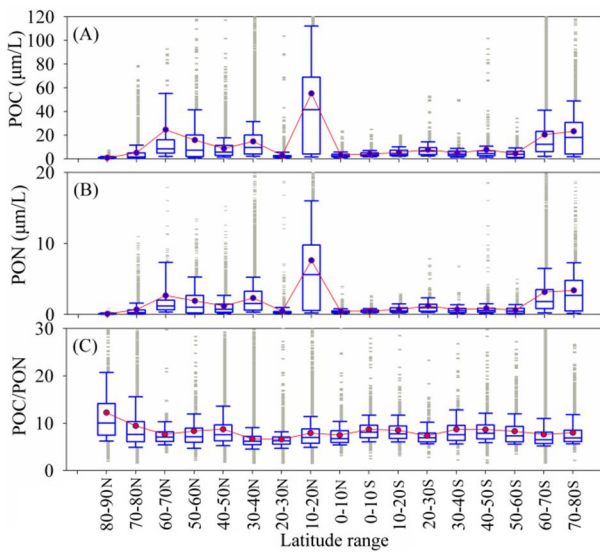


Figure 2 Latitudinal variation of PON, POC and the POC/PON ratio from the compiled statistical results of depth-integrated data for all ocean data. The box plots show the median and 25th and 75th percentiles, with whiskers covering most of the data. The red line with green boxes shows the mean value for each latitudinal range.

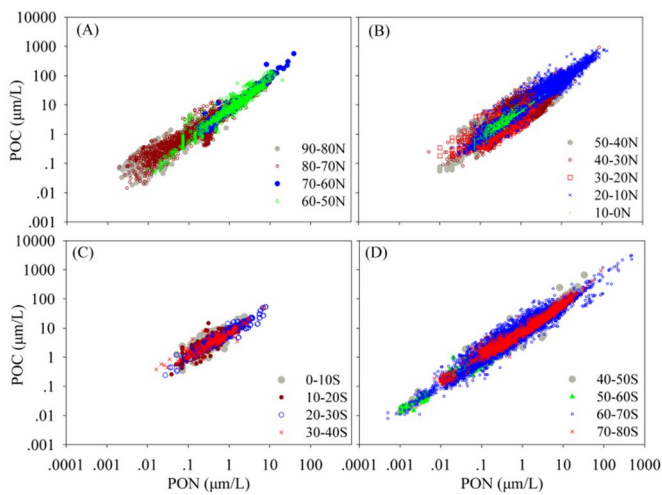


Figure 3 scatter plot of POC and PON for each latitudinal range. The relationships between POC and PON were listed in Table S2.

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### 3.1.2 Depth variation of POC, PON and POC/PON

The vertical distributions of POC and PON, and the resulting variations in POC/PON, have a critical impact on carbon and nitrogen cycles in oceans and should be considered in models of the biogeochemical cycle (Schneider et al., 2003; 2004; 2005; Babbitt et al., 2014). These distributions of POC and PON present that the relative high

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POC and PON were distributed in the surface water (0 - 5 m) in the northern hemisphere with mean values of  $17.83 \pm 2.03 \mu\text{m/L}$  (POC) and  $2.72 \pm 0.29 \mu\text{m/L}$  (PON); Diversely, the relative high POC and PON in the southern hemisphere were appeared in deeper water (10-20 m) with mean values of  $16.79 \pm 1.51 \mu\text{m/L}$  (POC)

and  $2.49 \pm 0.23 \mu\text{m/L}$  (PON) (Figure 4A, B). However, the depth-dependence of POC/PON in the northern and southern hemispheres is weak than that in the northern hemisphere (Figure 3C4C). POC/PON increased

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significantly, from  $6.88 \pm 2.3$  (0 - 5 m) to  $8.36 \pm 6.5$  (> 80 m), in the northern hemisphere but was nearly constant ( $7.92 \pm 0.10$ ) in the southern hemisphere (Figure 4C). Increases in POC/PON with depth in the northern and

southern hemispheres occurred at rates of 5.2/km and 2.5/km (depth < 200 m), respectively. These increasing rates are much higher than the  $0.2 \pm 0.1/\text{km}$  (0 - >5000 m) rate proposed by Schneider (2004). This may be due to the predominance of nitrogen remineralization in shallow ocean water (Babbin et al., 2014). The coupling relation between POC and PON is relatively lower than other depths, which deeper than 80 m (figure S3B) and in surface water (figure S3A) in northern hemisphere. The relationship between POC and PON in southern hemisphere is much tighter than in northern hemisphere (figure S3C and S3D). The regression functions of POC and PON for each depth were listed in table S3.

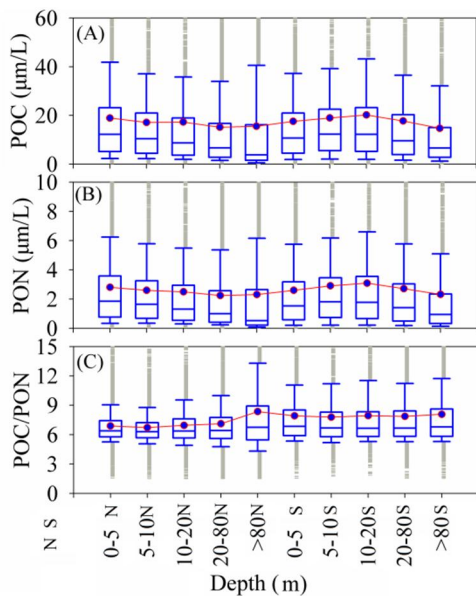


Figure 34 Depth-dependence of POC and PON in the southern hemisphere and depth-dependence of POC/PON in the northern hemisphere. The box plots show the median and 25th and 75th percentiles, with whiskers covering most of the data. The red line with green boxes shows the mean value at each depth.

### 3.2-1.3 Variations in POC, PON and POC/PON with offshore distance

Previous studies indicate that large of terrestrial carbon are discharged from rivers to oceans (Cole et al., 2007).

causing variations in POC, PON and POC/PON, especially in coastal regions (Martiny et al., 2013b;). The most of the remaining terrestrial carbon will sink as sediment in estuaries or transport to open ocean, although large amount (0.3 PgC/yr) of terrestrial carbon (0.5 PgC/yr) is emitted as CO<sub>2</sub> (Cai, W.J., 2011).

Variations in POC and PON levels with distance from shore show that there is a significant separation zone (50 km) dividing POC and PON levels into two regions in the northern hemisphere (Figure 5A, B). POC levels close to land (0 - 50 km) (region of close to shore, 21.90±11.01 µm/L) are nearly two times larger than in regions more than 50 km from land (region of offshore, 11.65±3.58 µm/L) due to terrestrial influences. The distribution of PON is similar; PON levels are higher close to shore (0 - 50 km, 3.19±1.46 µm/L) compared to offshore (>50 km, 1.67±0.44 µm/L). Conversely, POC/PON increases from 6.89 ± 2.38 to 7.59 ± 4.22 with distance from shore to open sea in the northern (Figure 5C). Terrestrial impacts on POC and PON levels in the southern hemisphere are relatively weak (POC, 20.14 ± 5.51 µm/L; PON 3.12 ± 0.87 µm/L) (Figure 5D, 5E). In addition, there is little change variation in POC/PON with distance from shore is insignificant in southern hemispheres POC/PON shore (7.59 ± 3.77) to offshore regions (7.90 ± 3.99) in the southern hemispheres (Figure 5F).

Coastal water with relatively high POC and PON levels has a low POC/PON within 75 km of coast in the northern hemisphere (Table S4, northern hemisphere). This is inconsistent with previous studies that show coastal water has a higher POC/PON ratio than offshore water (Sterner et al., 2008; Kaiser et al., 2014; Watanabe and Kuwae, 2015) due to the discharge of terrestrial organic matter with high POC/PON (Hilton et al., 2015; Cai, Y.H. et al., 2015). Previous study proposed that more than 0.2 PgC/yr of CO<sub>2</sub> is emitted from coastal waters due to the



microbial decomposition of terrestrial organic matter (Cai, W.J. et al., 2011) as well as the priming effect (Bianchi, 2011). The over-consumption of carbon in coastal waters could reduce the POC/PON ratio in the coastal waters. Zooplankton, phytoplankton and high nutrient levels also reduce POC/PON in coastal waters (Koeve, 2006; Martiny et al., 2013b; Watanabe and Kuwae, 2015; Talmy et al., 2016). The relatively high POC/PON ratio in offshore water is primary caused by small phytoplankton, which is the dominant contributor to POC levels at the ocean surface and has a high POC/PON ratio (Richardson and Jackson, 2007; Puigcorb  et al., 2015). The increase of POC/PON with the distance is very significant in the North hemisphere with the increasing rate of 0.0024/km ( $\text{POC/PON} = 0.0024 \times D + 7.1764$ ,  $R^2 = 0.519$ ), especially within 75 km of coast ( $\text{POC/PON} = 0.0262 \times D + 6.421$ ,  $R^2 = 0.855$ ), but insignificant in South hemisphere with rate of 0.0004/km ( $\text{POC/PON} = 0.0004 \times D + 7.7346$ ,  $R^2 = 0.118$ ) (Figure 6).

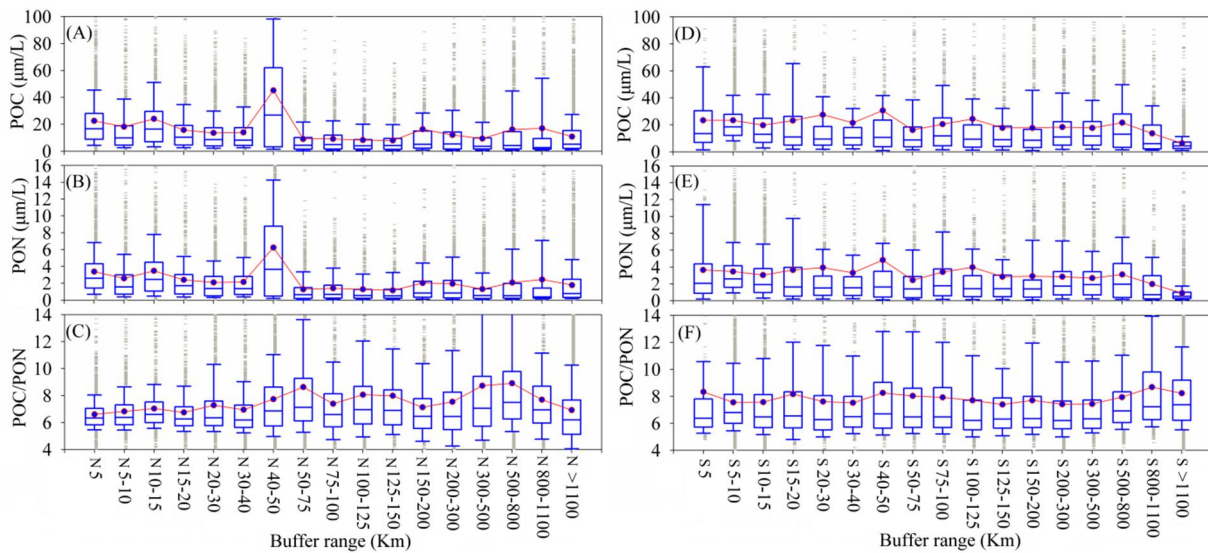
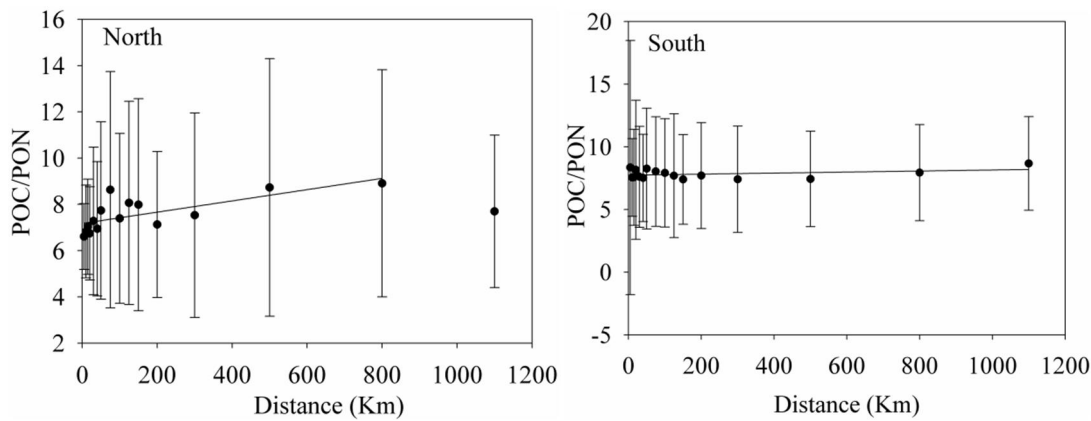


Figure 4-5 Variation of POC, PON and POC/PON with distance from shore. The number of samples for each buffer is listed in Table S4. The box plots show the median and 25th and 75th percentiles. The red line with green boxes shows

the mean value for each range.



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Figure 6 The variation of POC/PON with the distance from the shore to open sea. The relationships between POC/PON and distance are  $POC/PON=0.0024*D+7.1764$  ( $R^2=0.519$ , North hemisphere) and  $POC/PON=0.0004*D+7.7346$  ( $R^2=0.118$ , South hemisphere).

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### 3.3.2 Variability of POC, PON and POC/PON in inland waters

#### 3.3.2.1 Lake water

Inland waters play an important role in the global carbon cycle, linking the terrestrial, atmospheric, and oceanic carbon pools. The [lakes investigated in this study were](#) sorted by the latitude according to the [geographical location](#). POC and PON in lake waters exhibit a similar [latitudinal variation](#) trend with that in ocean of north hemisphere, which POC and PON decreased with the latitude, but greater variability than in oceans due to the strongly dual influences of terrestrial and aquatic organic matter (Figure 57) (Wilkinson et al., 2013). [In contrast to latitudinal variation trend of POC and PON,](#) The POC/PON in lake waters [increased](#) with the latitude.

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However, the lake's morphology, trophic state, climate and other influencing factors also cloud regulate the latitude-[variation](#) of POC/PON in lake waters. [The investigated data from 8300 lakes indicate that the average carbon / nitrogen stoichiometry in different types of lakes are approximately 10.6 at the global scale, 9.5 for small](#)

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lakes, 8.5 for large lakes, 8.16 for shallow lakes, 5.67 for deep lakes, 11.46 for frigid northern lakes and 10.37 for temperate lakes (Chen et al., 2015; Sterner et al., 2008). For example, Kasumigaura Lake is an extremely eutrophic lake, with a mean (from 1977 to 2013) chlorophyll-a concentration of  $67 \pm 44$   $\mu\text{g/L}$  and relatively high POC and PON (POC, 332.76  $\mu\text{m/L}$  and PON, 47.94  $\mu\text{m/L}$ ). The trophic state of Lake Taihu is similar to Kasumigaura Lake (Huang et al., 2015), and the POC and PON levels in Lake Taihu are very close to those in Kasumigaura Lake. However, the POC/PON ratio in Lake Taihu ( $4.04 \pm 3.96$ ) is much smaller than in Kasumigaura Lake ( $7.1 \pm 1.5$ ). This could be caused by that over-mineralization of organic carbon reduce the POC/PON in large shallow lakes (e.g., Lake Taihu), and can emit much more  $\text{CO}_2$  than small lakes (e.g., Kasumigaura Lake) (Xiao et al., 2014; Hotchkiss et al., 2015). The large and deep lakes, Great Lakes also show a relatively low POC/PON ratio (5.07). Lakes located in cold-dry climatic zones (McMurdo Dry Valleys Lakes, Alaskan Lakes, Norwegian Lakes, Lake Baikal, and Hovsgol Lake) tend to have low POC and PON levels but a high POC/PON ratio (Figure 57). This agrees with previous studies that ~~show that~~ inland waters maintain high POC/PON ratios due to the strong impact of terrestrial organic matter (Guo et al., 2003; Cai, Y.H. et al., 2008). Meanwhile, the coupling relationship between POC and PON for each lake also was regulated by these influencing factors (Table S5 and Figure S5). The relationships of PON and POC for each lake were listed in Table S5.

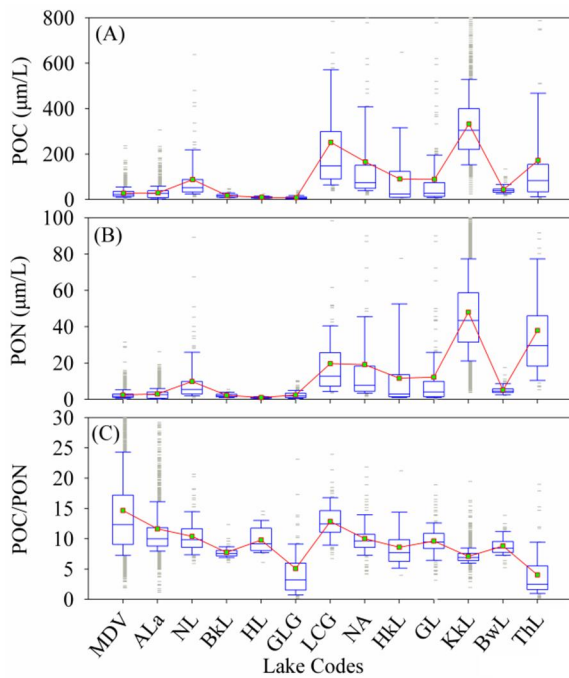
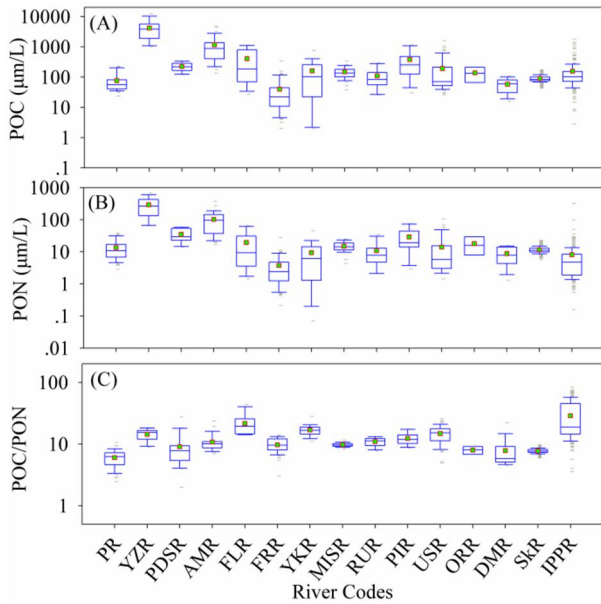


Figure 5-7 Variation of PON, POC and POC/PON in lake waters. The lakes are mainly located in the northern hemisphere. Eutrophic, small, large, and shallow lakes are included in the dataset. MDV is McMurdo Dry Valleys Lakes (Antarctica), ALa is Alaskan Lakes(USA), NL is Norwegian Lakes (Norway), NA is Northern American Lakes (USA), HkL is Hokkaido Lakes (Japan), LCG is Lacustrine Central Group (USA), KkL is Lake Kasumigaura (Japan), BwL is Lake Biwa (Japan), HL is Lake Hovsgol (Mongolia), BkL is Lake Baikal (Russia), GL is Green Lake (Canada), ThL is Lake Taihu (China), GLG is Great Lakes Group (USA), The box plots show the median and 25th and 75th percentiles, with whiskers covering most of the data. The red line with green boxes shows the mean value of each range. The lake names and their abbreviations were listed in the Table S7.

### 3.3.2.2 River water

Rivers not only bridge the carbon and nitrogen elemental cycles in the land and ocean through the transmission of organic matters, but also conduct the emission of CO<sub>2</sub> in the inland water (Raymond et al., 2013; Ward et al., 2017; Sawakuchi et al., 2017). The POC and PON in the river are relatively higher than that in the ocean and lake, especially in the big and high turbid rivers (such as Yanagtzze River, Amazon River in figure 8A and B). The POC

and PON in Yanagtzee River (the highest POC and PON river,  $4154.6 \pm 3109.6 \mu\text{m/L}$  and  $290.7 \pm 180.5 \mu\text{m/L}$ ) are proximate 100- and 80-fold bigger than in Fraser River (the lowest POC and PON river in this study,  $39.7 \pm 54.9 \mu\text{m/L}$ ,  $3.7 \pm 4.3 \mu\text{m/L}$ ), indicating the hugely spatial variation of POC and PON in river system. It also could  
290 manifest that big rivers with high POC and PON may discharge much more POC and PON into ocean (globally annual fluxe of POC is 216 Tg, Voss, 2009) accompanied by high runoff. Previous studies also proposed that the temporal variation of POC and PON in river is significant (Verity, 2002; Ward et al., 2012). However, the variation of POC/PON (variable coefficient, 0.47) in river waters is much small than POC (variable coefficient, 2.03) and PON (variable coefficient, 1.81) ~~in river water~~. The value and variation of POC/PON ( $12.5 \pm 5.8$  with  
295 variable coefficient of 0.47) in this study is much bigger than that in previous study ( $10.6 \pm 2.3$  with variable coefficient of 0.21, Meybeck, 1982). The highest POC/PON ratio appeared in the Ipswich and Parker rivers (IPPR, 28.73 in figure 8C). This value is higher than in previous studies on the Mississippi River ( $9.74 \pm 0.70$ , this study; 9.7 Trefry et al., 1994; 14.4, Cai Y.H. et al., 2015), the USA central river ( $11.22 \pm 1.86$ , Onstad et al., 2000) and the Amazon River ( $10.8 \pm 3.3$ , this study; 11.6, Moreira-Turcq et al., 2013), but it is still lower than in northern  
300 rivers such as the Chena River ( $32 \pm 12$ , Guo et al., 2003; 34.33 (Cai, Y.H. et al., 2008). The lowest POC/PON ratio appeared in the Pearl River (PR,  $6.02 \pm 1.91$ ), closing to the 5.67 for deep lakes (Chen et al., 2015). The latitude-dependent of POC, PON and POC/PON were not evaluated due to that the samples of each river were not follow the latitude-distribution. The relationships of PON and POC for each river were listed in Table S6.



305 Figure 6-8 Variation of PON, POC and POC/PON in river waters. PR is Pearl River (China), YZR is Yanagtzze River (China), PDSR is paraiba do sul River (Brazil), AMR is Amazon River (Brazil), FLR is Fly River (Papua New Guinea), FRR is Fraser River (Canada), YKR is Yukon River (USA), MISR is Mississippi River (USA), RUR is Russian rivers (Russian), PIR is Ping River (Thailand), USR is Union and Skokomish River (USA), ORR is Orinoco river (Venezuela), DMR is Mandovi river (India), SkR is Skidaway River (USA), IPPR is Ipswich and Parker rivers (USA).

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### 3.4 Drivers of POC, PON and POC/PON variation

#### 3.4.1 Terrestrial organic carbon

Land is a huge organic carbon pool and delivers a large amount of POC into oceans via rivers (IPCC, 2013).

Global studies of riverine export of POC have proposed that POC export from land to the oceans is mostly caused

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by physical erosion (Galy et al., 2015). The storage and distribution of soil organic carbon (Köchy et al., 2015) in

the global terrestrial sphere is highly positively correlated to POC and PON levels in the oceans (Figure 9A, B).

The linear functions  $POC = 0.0961 \cdot SOC + 3.4355$  ( $R^2=0.86$ ) and  $PON = 0.0103 \cdot SOC + 0.5132$  ( $R^2=0.83$ )

express the relationship between PON, POC and SOC well, except between of  $40^\circ N \sim 50^\circ N$  and  $80^\circ N \sim 90^\circ N$

(marked with an ellipse in Figure 9A, B). PON and POC levels between 40 °N ~ 50 °N are underestimated by the relationship between PON, POC and SOC due to excess organic matter from phytoplankton (satellite estimation result chlorophyll-a in ocean color products, <http://oceancolor.gsfc.nasa.gov/cgi/l3>). Overestimated PON and POC levels for 80 °N ~ 90 °N are primarily caused by ice on the land and ocean. POC/PON is negatively correlated to the ratio of land area to coastline length (land/coastline):  $POC/PON = 11.938 * (\text{land/coastline})^{-0.078}$  ( $R^2=0.41$ ) (Figure 9C).

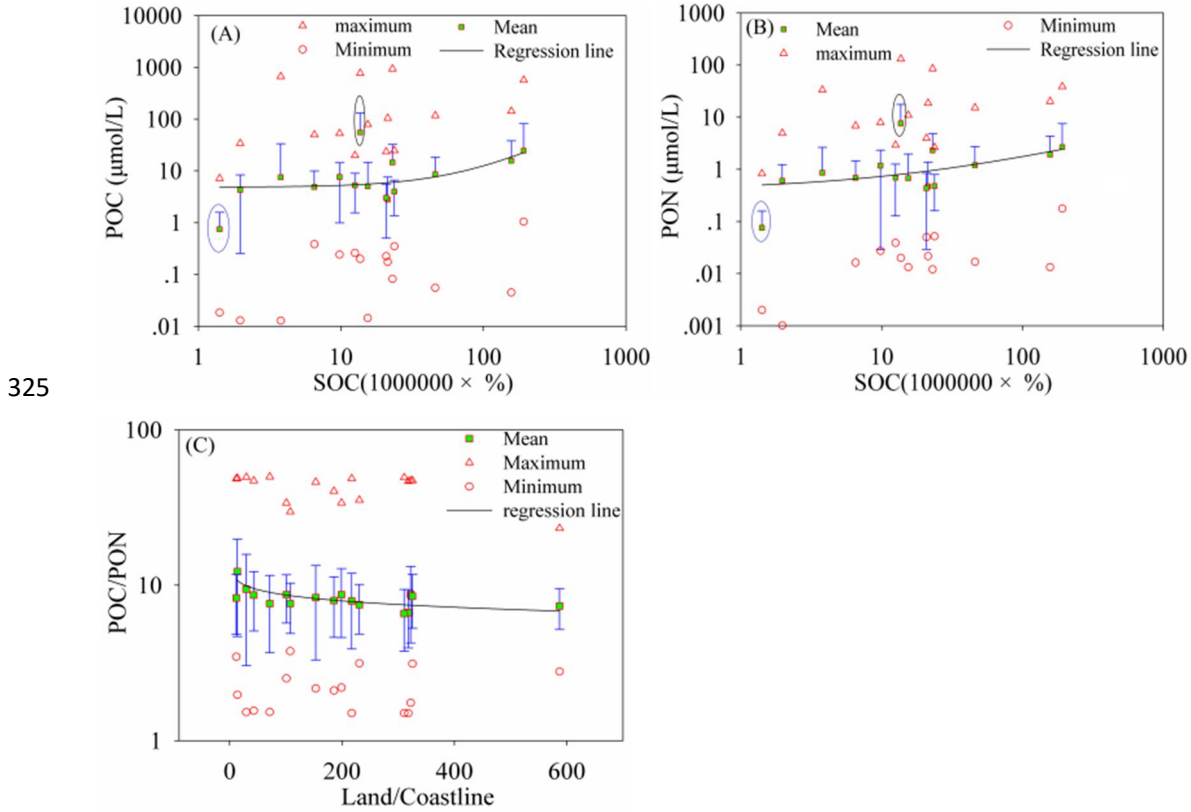


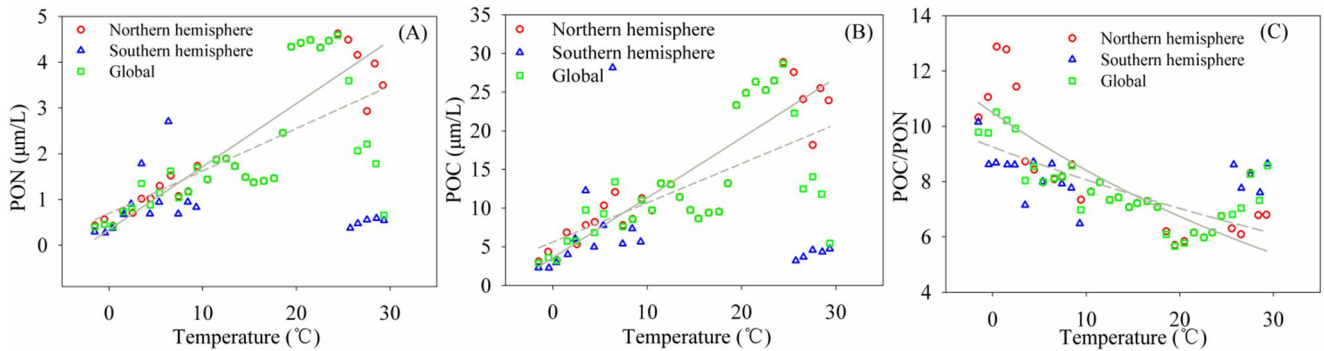
Figure 9 (A) and (B) Relationship between POC, PON and soil organic carbon. (C) The relationship between POC/PON and the ratio of land area to coastal linear length. The red boxes with green shading are the mean values of POC, PON and POC/PON in each latitudinal range, the blue line is the standard deviation, and the red triangle and roundness are the maximum and minimum values of POC, PON and POC/PON in each latitudinal range.

### 3.4.2 Temperature

The temperature dependence of organic carbon production (e.g., primary production, released from permafrost and soil erosion) and consumption (e.g., mineralization, respiration and methane emission) increases the influence of temperature on aquatic ecosystems and reflects the importance of temperature in the carbon cycle (Gudasz et al., 2010; Padfield et al., 2015; Yvon-Durocher et al., 2011a; 2011b; 2012; 2014; 2015a; 2015b; Zona et al., 2016). POC and PON levels are highly positively correlated to temperature in the northern hemisphere with the relationships  $PON=0.142*T+0.260$  ( $R^2=0.74$ ) and  $POC=0.788*T+3.340$  ( $R^2=0.74$ ). However, the effect of temperature on POC and PON levels in the southern hemisphere is not very significant, with correlation coefficients ( $r$ ) of -0.11 and -0.08, respectively. The influence of temperature on POC and PON levels at a global scale is not homogeneous (Figure 10A, B). The increased sensitivity of POC and PON to temperature in the northern hemisphere may be caused by relatively large amounts of nutrients and a large land area when compared to the southern hemisphere. POC/PON is highly negatively correlated to temperature in the northern hemisphere, with the relationship  $POC/PON=11.88*T^{-0.190}$  ( $R^2=0.81$ ) (not including samples with subzero temperature). Phytoplankton and microzooplankton growing in low temperatures (subzero) may regulate POC/PON, keeping the value low (Crawford et al., 2015; Talmy et al., 2016), and nitrogen ( $NO_3^-$  and  $NH_4^+$ ) uptake and light may also play a role (Yun et al., 2012). The impact of temperature on POC/PON in the southern hemisphere ( $r=-0.31$ ) is relatively low when compared to the northern hemisphere (Figure 10C). This may indicate that the mineralization of organic carbon occurs at a much higher rate than organic nitrogen with increasing temperature or that terrestrial organic carbon, which has a high POC/PON ratio, is more efficiently kept than phytoplankton- and



350 microzooplankton-derived organic carbon, which has a low POC/PON ratio, with increasing temperature (Sharma, et al., 2015; Porcal et al., 2015; Watanabe and Kuwae, 2015; Crawford et al., 2015; Talmy et al., 2016).



355 Figure 10 Relationships between POC, PON, and POC/PON and temperature (T). POC, PON and POC/PON are highly correlated to temperature in the northern hemisphere (solid line), with relationships of  $PON=0.142*T+0.260$  ( $R^2=0.74$ ),  $POC=0.788*T+3.340$  ( $R^2=0.74$ ) and  $POC/PON=11.88*T^{-0.190}$  ( $R^2=0.81$ ), respectively. There is almost no correlation in the southern hemisphere, with correlation coefficients of -0.11, -0.08 and -0.31 for PON, POC and POC/PON, respectively. The relationships between POC, PON, and POC/PON and T at a global scale (dash line) are  $PON=0.093*T+0.697$  ( $R^2=0.42$ ),  $POC=0.507*T+5.630$  ( $R^2=0.41$ ) and  $POC/PON=10.02*T^{-0.122}$  ( $R^2=0.57$ ).

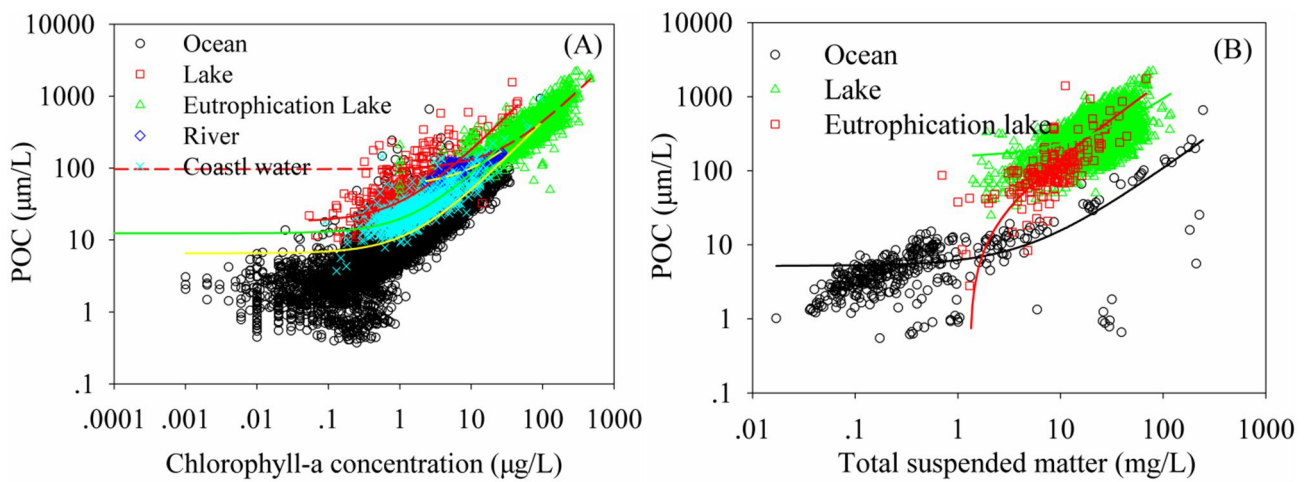
### 360 3.4.3 Productivity and migration

Phytoplankton is an agent of the biological pump, which sequesters carbon from the atmosphere to the deep sea (Koeve, 2006); thus, it influences the global carbon cycle and the climate system (Lam et al., 2011). Studies have proposed general relationships between POC and chlorophyll-a concentration ( $C_{Chl-a}$ ) to describe the dominant effect of phytoplankton on the POC reservoir (Peña et al., 1991; Legendre and Michaud, 1999; Lefevre et al., 365 2003; Wang et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2013). However, the relationship between POC and  $C_{Chl-a}$  can't accurately explain POC variation at the global scale due to high variation in  $POC/C_{Chl-a}$  (Arrigo et al., 2003; Sathyendranath et al., 2009). POC levels are highly positively correlated to  $C_{Chl-a}$  for oceans, lakes, eutrophic lakes, rivers and

coastal waters (Figure 11A). The best fit function for the relationship between POC and  $C_{\text{Chl-a}}$  varies with water type. A linear function is best for lakes ( $R^2=0.64$ ) and coastal waters ( $R^2=0.82$ ), and a power function is best for oceans ( $R^2=0.68$ ) and eutrophic lakes ( $R^2=0.77$ ). Both linear and power functions can be used in rivers (linear,  $R^2=0.77$ ; power,  $R^2=0.77$ ). This is partly consistent with previous studies on ocean water, where POC co-varied with  $C_{\text{Chl-a}}$  via a power function (Sathyendranath et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2011). However, the power exponent for the global ocean (0.581) is slightly higher than that of Wang (0.5402, 2011). The highest power exponent (0.645) is for eutrophic lakes, and the lowest (0.434) is for rivers. The slope of the linear fit function in lakes is much higher than in coastal waters. The best-fit power function for POC and  $C_{\text{Chl-a}}$  in oceans, eutrophic lakes and rivers demonstrates that phytoplankton carbon sequestration efficiency reduces with increasing chlorophyll-a in these water types. Consequently, carbon sequestration efficiency in eutrophic lakes, following a power function, is much higher than in oceans and rivers, and in lakes, following a linear function, it is higher than in coastal waters. Thus, the regulation of lake water requires more attention, as it significantly affects the global carbon cycle.

Total suspended particulate matter transported from the continental biosphere significantly affects POC levels in the water body, in addition to producing phytoplankton (Galy et al., 2015). The relationship between POC and suspended particulate matter concentration ( $C_{\text{TSM}}$ ) (Figure 11B) is very similar to studies that show that POC is highly positively correlated to suspended particulate matter (Ni et al., 2008; Cetinić et al., 2012; Woźniak et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2016). The linear relationship between POC ( $\mu\text{m/L}$ ) and  $C_{\text{TSM}}$  (mg/L) is shown in Figure 7B.

The power relationship between POC (mg/L) and  $C_{TSM}$  (mg/L) at the global scale ( $POC=0.2641*C_{TSM}^{0.8466}$ ,  $R^2=0.81$ ,  $n= 5306$ ) is close to the same relationships in the Baltic Sea ( $POC = 0.317*C_{TSM}^{0.969}$ ,  $R^2=0.86$ , Woźniak et al., 2016) and surface water in the US ( $POC = 0.2992*C_{TSM}^{0.3321}$ ,  $R^2=0.593$ , Yang et al., 2016). However, this relationship differs slightly from the one presented by Galy (2015, Figure 1–3), in which the global flux of terrestrial POC to oceans is composed of biospheric (80%) and petrogenic (20%) POC, with the relationship  $POC_{exp} = 0.0524*C_{sed}^{0.665}$ . This indicates that suspended particulate matter includes large amounts of organic carbon in addition to terrestrial organic carbon due to primary productivity and the subsequent zooplankton in the food chain.



395 Figure 11 (A) Comparison of the relationships between POC and chlorophyll-a concentration ( $C_{Chl-a}$ ) for oceans, lakes, eutrophic lakes, rivers and coastal waters. (B) Comparison of the relationship between POC and total suspended matter concentration ( $C_{TSM}$ ) for oceans, lakes and eutrophic lakes. The relationships between POC and  $C_{Chl-a}$  are  $POC=4.429*C_{Chl-a}+6.531$  ( $R^2=0.51$ ,  $N=5462$ , yellow solid line);  $POC=16.420*C_{Chl-a}+17.855$  ( $R^2=0.64$ ,  $N=984$ , red solid line);  $POC=3.513*C_{Chl-a}+96.528$  ( $R^2=0.72$ ,  $N=4656$ , red dash line);  $POC=4.458*C_{Chl-a}+55.931$  ( $R^2=0.77$ ,  $N=936$ , yellow dash line); and  $POC=7.357*C_{Chl-a}+12.349$  ( $R^2=0.82$ ,  $N=692$ , green solid line) for oceans, lakes, eutrophic lakes, rivers, and coastal waters, respectively. The relationships between POC and  $C_{TSM}$  are  $POC=1.045*C_{TSM}+5.198$  ( $R^2=0.53$ ,  $N=432$ , black solid line);  $POC=15.932 *C_{TSM}-25.645$  ( $R^2=0.67$ ,  $N=191$ , green solid line); and  $POC=7.984*C_{TSM}+149.950$  ( $R^2=0.27$ ,  $N=4683$ , red solid line) for oceans, lakes, and eutrophic lakes, respectively.

DOC, which is present in much higher concentrations than POC (Figure 11A and Figure 12A), quantitatively represents the most important carbon pool (Emerson and Hedges, 2008). DOC is a complex mix of organic compounds from both autochthonous and allochthonous sources that primarily originate from aquatic organisms and runoff, respectively (Doval et al., 2016; Kuliński et al., 2016). DON is highly positively correlated to DOC, with a best-fit function of  $DOC=17.825*DON^{1.019}$  ( $R^2=0.58$ ,  $n=995$ ) at the global scale. The linear regression model (Figure 10A) shows that the slope of the linear function is smaller than in previous regional studies ( $13.3 \pm 0.8$ , Doval et al., 1999;  $20.5 \pm 3$ , Aminot and K erouel, 2004) and is also smaller than DOC sequestered in the deep sea ( $17.38$ ) via the microbial carbon pump (Jiao et al., 2010). The DOC/DON ratio in lakes ( $40.43 \pm 34.56$ ) and rivers ( $29.35 \pm 34.93$ ) is much higher than in oceans ( $12.86 \pm 4.88$ ) and coastal waters ( $13.15 \pm 4.95$ ) (Figure 12B); thus, inland water holds much more DOC, which may result in the high emission of CO<sub>2</sub> in inland waters (Raymond et al., 2013; Hotchkiss et al., 2015). The correlation between POC and DOC is weak for individual water types, but is strong for the whole data of lake, ocean and coastal water. The regression function (gray line in the Figure 12C) between POC and DOC is  $DOC = 0.315 * POC + 64.88$  ( $R^2=0.58$   $n=570$ ), except the data of river. High DOC/POC and DOC/DON ratios indicate that organic carbon is mostly stored in dissolved form. DOC and DON regulate the organic carbon and nitrogen equilibrium system with the POC and PON, besides the interaction with the inorganic carbon and nitrogen (such as CO<sub>2</sub>, nutrients, N<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub>).

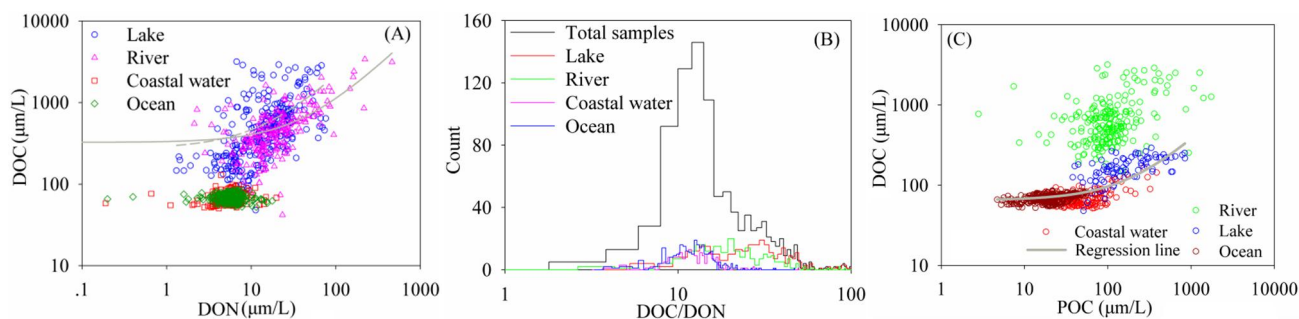


Figure 12 (A) Comparison of the relationships between DOC and DON for oceans, lakes, rivers, and coastal waters. The relationships between DOC and DON are  $DOC = 11.738 \cdot DON + 165.41$  ( $R^2=0.35$ ,  $n=995$ );  $DOC = 19.037 \cdot DON + 273.59$  ( $R^2=0.20$ ,  $n=288$ , gray dash line); and  $DOC = 11.932 \cdot DON + 234.36$  ( $R^2=0.61$ ,  $n=255$ , gray slid line) for all samples, lakes and rivers, respectively. The correlation coefficients for DOC and DON are  $r=0.44$ ,  $0.78$ ,  $0.15$  and  $-0.15$  for lakes, rivers, coastal waters and oceans, respectively. (B) DOC/DON for oceans, lakes, rivers and coastal waters. The DOC/DON ratios are  $24.10 \pm 24.57$ ,  $40.43 \pm 34.56$ ,  $29.35 \pm 34.93$ ,  $13.15 \pm 4.95$  and  $12.86 \pm 4.88$  for all samples, lakes, rivers, coastal waters and oceans, respectively. The corresponding POC/PON ratios are  $9.65 \pm 16.73$ ,  $7.71 \pm 0.61$ ,  $7.07 \pm 2.44$  and  $6.24 \pm 1.20$  for lakes, rivers, coastal waters and oceans, respectively. (C) Relationships of POC and DOC for different water types. The correlation between POC and DOC is weak for individual water types, but is strong for the whole data of lake, ocean and coastal water. The regression function (gray line in the figure) between POC and DOC is  $DOC = 0.315 \cdot POC + 64.88$  ( $R^2=0.58$ ,  $n=570$ ), except the data of river.

Analysis of global temporal and spatial variation in POC, PON and POC/PON and the analysis of drivers that influence POC, PON and POC/PON distribution is the basis of biogeochemical implication. The simple mean value of POC/PON at the global scale ( $7.54 \pm 3.82$ ) is relatively higher than the Redfield ratio (6.63), but the linear regression slope (including intercept, 6.17; excluding intercept, 6.23) for all ocean data is lower than the simple mean value of POC/PON and the Redfield ratio. The linear regression slopes between POC and PON in the northern hemisphere (including intercept, 7.06 and excluding intercept, 7.00) are much higher than in the southern hemisphere (including intercept, 5.97; excluding intercept, 6.03). Variations in POC, PON and POC/PON in inland waters requires further attention due to the importance of inland waters in global carbon and nitrogen cycles and the indeterminacy of the relationship between carbon and nitrogen. Land and soil organic

carbon distribution and offshore distance were appeared to be controlled factors to the variation of POC, PON and POC/PON at a global scale besides the temperature and productivity.

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