

Supplementary Information

Reviews and Syntheses: Carbon use efficiency from organisms to ecosystems – Definitions, theories, and empirical evidence

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1 Estimating carbon-use and Carbon-storage efficiencies

1.1 Leaves

Leaves are responsible for fixing atmospheric CO₂, thereby representing the entry points of C into terrestrial ecosystems. By measuring net photosynthesis and respiration, CUE at the leaf level can be defined as the ratio of net to gross photosynthetic rates,

$$\text{CUE}_{\text{leaf}} = \frac{\text{Net photosynthesis}}{\text{Gross photosynthesis}} = \frac{A_{\text{net}}}{A_{\text{net}} + R_{\text{dark}} + R_{\text{photo}}}, \quad (1)$$

where the net photosynthetic rate (A_{net} , also referred to as net CO₂ assimilation) is the difference between gross photosynthesis and the sum of photorespiration (R_{photo}) and mitochondrial respiration (R_{dark}). Photorespiration releases CO₂, and occurs when the photosynthetic enzyme Rubisco (which fixes CO₂) experiences non-saturating CO₂ conditions in the presence of O₂, as is the case for most plants in our current atmosphere. We therefore include photorespiration costs in the term gross photosynthesis in Eq. (1), as done in other studies (Way and Sage, 2008), although we will not be able to account for that in our calculations due to data limitations. In leaves, mitochondrial respiration proceeds in both the dark and in the light, although respiration rates are often lower in the light than in the dark. As the phenomenon of light-suppression of respiration is poorly understood and leaf respiration in the light is difficult to measure (Tcherkez et al., 2017), we use dark respiration rates and assume that they represent respiration rates over a 24-hour period. Moreover, photorespiration is neglected in our calculations, because the compensation point was not reported in the dataset we used (Atkin et al., 2015), so that our estimates of leaf CUE are slightly overestimated.

1.2 Individual organisms (autotrophs and heterotrophs)

When egestion is neglected, the balance of growth and respiration plus exudation defines the CUE (or GGE, Eq. (6) in the main text) of individual organisms,

$$\text{CUE}_{\text{organism}} = \frac{\text{Net biomass production}}{\text{C uptake}} = \frac{G}{U} = 1 - \frac{R+EX}{U} = \frac{G}{G+R+EX}, \quad (2)$$

where R includes all respiration components shown in Eq. (7) in the main text. The equalities in Eq. (2) show how CUE can be estimated from different combinations of observations: net biomass accretion (G), C consumption from the resource pool (U – organic C for heterotrophs or CO₂ for autotrophs), and respiration rate (R) (Geyer et al., 2016; Slansky and Feeny, 1977; Gifford, 2003). While EX should be included in these calculations, it is generally neglected or implicitly considered as autotrophic respiration. For all organisms, when net biomass

production and respiration are measured, cell turnover and other organic C losses during the incubation time are not accounted for. This can be challenging when incubation times are long. Moreover, unless CUE is calculated as G/U , exudation is not accounted for, resulting in inflated CUE. For plants, gross rates of C uptake are estimated by summing up net photosynthesis measured during the day to the respiration rate obtained assuming that night and day respiration are comparable; if heterotrophic respiration is included in the measurements, it needs to be subtracted to isolate the autotrophic component (Wang et al., 2015) (see also Sect. 1.3). CUE of non-vascular vegetation, such as mosses and lichens, is defined in the same way as CUE of vascular plants with empirical estimates typically adopting similar approaches. Consequently, they share the same limitations. Only few studies traced how much of newly acquired C is incorporated into biomass using isotopes (Street et al., 2013; Woodin et al., 2009; Lotscher et al., 2004).

1.3 Primary producer communities

CUE of plant communities can be defined as for individual plants, but using data at a larger scale (~100-1000 m) and covering the whole range of species and age classes in a certain community. In this case, the control volume conceptually comprises all plant organs including roots; it is thus virtually impossible to accurately measure all C fluxes and major assumptions on the contribution of autotrophs to measured net C fluxes have to be made. At this scale, production is defined by the net primary productivity (NPP) and C uptake by the gross primary productivity (GPP), so that (DeLucia et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2009),

$$CUE_{plant\ community} = \frac{Net\ primary\ productivity}{Gross\ primary\ productivity} = \frac{NPP}{GPP} \quad (3)$$

An extensive database containing both stand-scale GPP and NPP is available for forest sites globally, including direct measurements, indirect estimates (derived from measurements of other C fluxes) and model results (Luyssaert et al., 2007). In general, GPP is obtained by flux partitioning from eddy covariance measurements of net ecosystem exchange (NEE) (Lasslop et al., 2010; Reichstein et al., 2005). NPP can be derived from the increase in biomass of the different biomass compartments (stem, branches, foliage, roots), but may also include the C allocated to understory, herbivory, reproductive organs, root exudates, volatile organic compounds and CH₄ emissions (Luyssaert et al., 2007). However, below-ground NPP as well as these latter C fluxes are extremely difficult to capture and thus often either ignored or very uncertain (Clark et al., 2001). At the global scale, observation-based GPP products rely on either spatial extrapolation of diagnostic models relating site-level eddy covariance derived GPP to climate, vegetation type and remote sensing indices (Beer et al., 2010), or on relations to the fraction of absorbed photosynthetic active radiation measured by satellite remote sensing (e.g., MODIS, with resolution ~1000 m) (Zhao et al., 2005). Global observation-based NPP products in turn are solely available from combining satellite based GPP estimates with model assumptions on biomass allometry and autotrophic respiration (Tum et al., 2016; Zhao and Running, 2010).

In addition to the existing dataset by Luyssaert et al. (2007), we also estimated CUE for non-vascular vegetation. In productive forest and grassland ecosystems, non-vascular vegetation usually contributes only a small part to total carbon uptake. Exceptions are high values of up to 60% at high latitudes (Turetsky et al., 2010). Because of this small contribution, it is impractical to estimate CUE of non-vascular vegetation by methods such as eddy covariance. In less productive drylands where non-vascular vegetation may be the main primary

producers, samples of complete crusts can be collected in the field and the CUE of these communities can be derived from measured net photosynthesis and dark respiration in the laboratory (see references in Table S2).

70 **1.4 Microbial communities**

While conceptually similar to the definition for individual organisms, interpreting CUE at the whole microbial community level (in either terrestrial or aquatic systems) is complicated by the presence of inactive organisms and by the co-occurrence of a range of life history strategies with their potentially different CUE (Geyer et al., 2016; del Giorgio and Cole, 1998). CUE is estimated typically by measuring (at least) two among the C fluxes
75 relevant for microbial C budgets: substrate consumption (assumed to be equal to C uptake; i.e., neglecting losses of depolymerized C before uptake by microorganisms), net microbial growth, and respiration rates. These C exchanges are generally measured under controlled conditions in relatively small incubation systems (<1 L volume) and in transient conditions. A substrate (often isotopically-labelled) is generally added to trace C uptake into biomass and thus determine the changes in C pools required to estimate CUE. The concentration and choice
80 of substrate (more or less similar to compounds used in natural conditions) and the length of the incubation period affect the obtained CUE (see Sect. 4.1 in the main text). In marine sediments, ^3H , ^{14}C , or ^{13}C -uptake experiments are conducted to estimate microbial growth rates, but application of this technique in sediments is challenging, and the contribution of biomass turnover is poorly constrained (an issue shared with measurements in soil). Labile substrates and more generally higher C concentrations result in higher CUE values (Frey et al., 2013; Öquist et al., 2017; del Giorgio and Cole, 1998; Bolscher et al., 2017), while increasing incubation time from a day to a week or more results in lower apparent CUE, as necromass is recirculated and used (Ladd et al., 1992; Öquist et al., 2017). Previous reviews discuss these methodological issues in depth (Geyer et al., 2016; Sinsabaugh et al., 2013; del Giorgio and Cole, 1998).

1.5 Food webs

90 The efficiency of C (and energy) transfer in terrestrial and aquatic food webs has been defined as the ratio of C used at a certain trophic level and the C produced at a lower level (Dickman et al., 2008; Downing et al., 1990; Lindeman, 1942; McNaughton et al., 1989). These transfer efficiencies are not defined as for individual organisms because they consider inputs to a food web and biomass increments in a single component of the food web, but we include them here for completeness. The scale at which C transfer efficiencies are calculated varies widely,
95 ranging from small-scale laboratory to broad-scale field studies (Fig. 3). In terrestrial systems, where NPP is the main C input to food-webs, the efficiency of herbivore production is evaluated with respect to NPP (McNaughton et al., 1989). In aquatic systems, allochthonous C inputs have been typically neglected, and the efficiency of herbivore or predator production is also estimated with respect to primary productivity (Table S2).

1.6 Soils and sediments

100 The efficiency of C storage in soils has been studied in the context of climate change mitigation strategies, aiming to understand how much of the C added to a soil can be stored there and potentially sequestered (Stewart et al., 2007). The C storage efficiency of soils (CSE_{soil}) is defined as the ratio of the net soil C balance and the total C inputs from vegetation ($\sim\text{NPP}$) and soil amendments. As such, CSE_{soil} can be positive when soils accumulate C or negative when C losses are larger than inputs. C fluxes to quantify CSE_{soil} are measured at the plot- to field-

105 scale, analogous to $CUE_{ecosystem}$, but because soil organic matter changes slowly, CSE_{soil} is generally defined
 over decades in specifically designed long-term experiments set up in agricultural systems where vertical C inputs
 are controlled and manipulated (but again lateral C fluxes are neglected; see references in Table S2). In these
 experiments, annual C inputs are measured and long-term C storage changes are estimated from repeated SOC
 measurements – thus, this method implicitly requires a (long) time frame over which a time-integrated CSE is
 110 calculated.

A conceptually similar CSE can be defined for lake and marine sediments and is often referred to as
 organic C burial efficiency (or preservation efficiency), as the ratio between the rates of C burial and of deposition
 at the sediment surface ($CSE_{sediment}$) (Alin and Johnson, 2007; Canfield, 1994; Hedges and Keil, 1995). In
 sediment CSE calculations, benthic photosynthesis is ignored in most environments (despite shallow-water
 115 ecosystems being among the most productive in the world), assuming that the export of C from the photic zone
 dominates C accumulation. Organic C accumulation in sediments is often only measurable over multi-year time-
 scales by ^{210}Pb dating, which fails to account for the initial rapid degradation of organic material at the sediment
 surface. As for soils, this method yields a time-integrated CSE (rather than instantaneous). An alternative
 definition involves primary productivity instead of C deposition, which underestimates CSE because it neglects
 120 C removal via respiration in the photic zone and during sedimentation (Azam and Malfatti, 2007; Ducklow et al.,
 2001). An instantaneous burial efficiency can be determined by measurements of ^{210}Pb -based C accumulation
 rates minus respiration rates measured through oxygen consumption. Moreover, all these methods share similar
 issues; primarily, they focus on vertical fluxes and tend to neglect lateral transport of C, in particular as DOC
 (Seiter et al., 2005; Alperin et al., 1994).

125 1.7 Ecosystems

At the ecosystem level, both CUE of the biotic components and CSE can be defined. When focusing on the biotic
 components, the only input $U = \text{GPP}$ and the only output is respiration (assuming exudates are re-cycled), which
 comprises autotrophic and heterotrophic terms. Net ecosystem productivity (NEP) is thus defined as the difference
 between GPP and the total respiration ($R = R_a + R_h$), and ecosystem CUE can be written as,

$$CUE_{ecosystem} = \frac{\text{Net ecosystem productivity}}{\text{Gross primary productivity}} = \frac{\text{NEP}}{\text{GPP}} = 1 - \frac{R}{\text{GPP}} = 1 - \frac{R_a + R_h}{\text{GPP}} = CUE_{plant\ community} - \frac{R_h}{\text{GPP}}, \quad (4)$$

130 where the first equality is used for empirical estimation of ecosystem CUE (Fernandez-Martinez et al., 2014),
 whereas the last equality links ecosystem CUE to the vegetation CUE ($=\text{NPP}/\text{GPP}$) and the heterotrophic
 respiration to GPP ratio. When including abiotic components and thus lateral abiotic fluxes, Eq. (10) in the main
 text can be used to obtain,

$$CSE_{ecosystem} = 1 - \frac{R_a + R_h + F_{out}}{\text{GPP} + F_{in}}. \quad (5)$$

The scale at which terrestrial ecosystem-level C fluxes are measured as for plant communities (~100-1000 m),
 135 but the control volume extends to include soils (generally down to the rooting depth) (Chapin et al., 2006). C
 fluxes are generally obtained from eddy covariance systems that measure vertical net CO_2 exchanges (NEE); GPP
 is then inferred by adding total ecosystem respiration (based on night-time C exchanges) to the day-time C fluxes.
 While the eddy covariance approach provides fluxes at sub-daily time scales, often these are aggregated at the
 annual time scale in ecosystem-level CUE and CSE estimates. Because this approach measures vertical CO_2

140 exchanges, it neglects lateral transfer of C in both the atmosphere and the water bodies (see Sect. 1.8), and exchanges occurring in gaseous forms other than CO₂ (Chapin et al., 2006).

In aquatic systems, net oxygen fluxes are often used to infer C fluxes and CUE (Hoellein et al., 2013; Glud, 2008). Measurements are conducted on small samples (~0.1-1 L), but averaged spatially to have representative values for the water body under investigation, or by eddy covariance (over spatial scales ~100-145 1000 m) (Berg et al., 2003). Respiration is calculated from oxygen consumption at night, which is then used to correct the daytime net oxygen production to estimate gross primary productivity. Moreover, as for terrestrial ecosystems, this approach neglects allochthonous CO₂ contributions; e.g., from groundwater (Hall and Tank, 2005). Most coastal aquatic ecosystems are prevalently heterotrophic, because of large allochthonous inputs of organic C that is decomposed locally (Duarte and Prairie, 2005; Hoellein et al., 2013). As a consequence, NEP is often strongly negative (large $\frac{R_h}{GPP}$ in Eq. (4)), leading to negative values of CUE_{ecosystem}, despite all organisms having positive CUE values. When accounting for C transport in and out of the system (Eq. (5)), estimated CSE increases because $F_{out} < F_{in}$, which reduces the numerator with respect to the denominator in the last term of Eq. (5). As a result, CSE_{ecosystem} > CUE_{ecosystem}, although CSE_{ecosystem} remains negative as long as the ecosystem is a net source of C.

155 In the photic zone of marine ecosystems, a conceptually similar efficiency is defined – the biological pump efficiency, which represents the ratio of C exported outside the euphotic zone (operationally defined at 100 m depth) over the net primary productivity (Ducklow et al., 2001; Volk and Hoffert, 1985). The biological pump efficiency is estimated from independent measurements of net primary productivity (phytoplankton uptake minus respiration over a 24-hour period) and C export either from sediment traps or ²³⁴Th flux-based measurements 160 (Boyd and Trull, 2007; Giering et al., 2017; Le Moigne et al., 2015). This efficiency increases when less C is re-mineralized in the euphotic zone via decomposition and consumption by the aquatic food web (Azam and Malfatti, 2007; Ducklow et al., 2001). However, not all C exported below the euphotic zone is stored, because a potentially large fraction is re-mineralized in the upper mesopelagic zone (< 300 m water depth) (Buesseler and Boyd, 2009; Wakeham et al., 1997). A better measure of C storage efficiency for marine systems is therefore the organic carbon 165 burial efficiency in sediment (Sect. 1.6). However, in particular in shelf systems, resuspension and lateral transport of deposited organic material to the continental slope constitute an important loss component (Inthorn et al., 2006).

Figure S2a illustrates the relations between C export rates (either as litter production or C export below the euphotic zone) and net primary productivity in terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems. The ratios of these C export and NPP fluxes define C export efficiencies (or biological pump efficiency for oceanic systems), shown in Fig. 170 S2b. Terrestrial systems have much higher efficiencies than aquatic systems in general and in particular than oceanic systems ($p < 0.05$), indicating that herbivory or other C loss pathways are more effective in aquatic systems at removing biomass that would be otherwise exported to the decomposition pathway.

1.8 Watersheds

175 Watersheds represent naturally-defined control volumes for water fluxes and are convenient also for C budget calculations because they allow measuring lateral outputs of dissolved C at the watershed outlet. At the watershed scale, C inputs are given by terrestrial and aquatic GPP and atmospheric deposition (which we neglect for simplicity) and C outputs include heterotrophic and autotrophic respiration (as in Sect. 1.7), but also lateral abiotic losses via dissolved organic and inorganic C transport in rivers and groundwater (denoted by F_{out}). Therefore, the

watershed-scale CSE can be defined as (from Eq. (10) in the main text and the definition of $CUE_{ecosystem}$ in Eq. (4)),

$$CSE_{watershed} = \frac{NECB}{GPP} = 1 - \frac{R+F_{out}}{GPP} = CUE_{ecosystem} - \frac{F_{out}}{GPP}, \quad (6)$$

where the net ecosystem carbon balance is evaluated in the whole watershed and the last equality links the watershed CSE to the ecosystem CUE averaged over the whole watershed. Eq. (6) illustrates that increased abiotic losses of C always decrease $CSE_{watershed}$ with respect to the efficiency of the biotic component of the system ($CUE_{ecosystem}$). Also, the lateral abiotic losses are particularly high at times when GPP is low, such as during high precipitation/low radiation events (Öquist et al., 2014) or during snow-melt in cold environments (Finlay et al., 2006). There are only a few watersheds with long-term monitoring of both vegetation-atmosphere C exchanges and C transport in water bodies, in which $CSE_{watershed}$ can be estimated (see references in Table S2).

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Table S1. Definition of symbols and acronyms used in the Supplementary Information. Subscripts indicating the system under consideration are added to acronyms (*leaf, organism, plant community, autotroph, ecosystem, soil, sediment*), but are not included in this table.

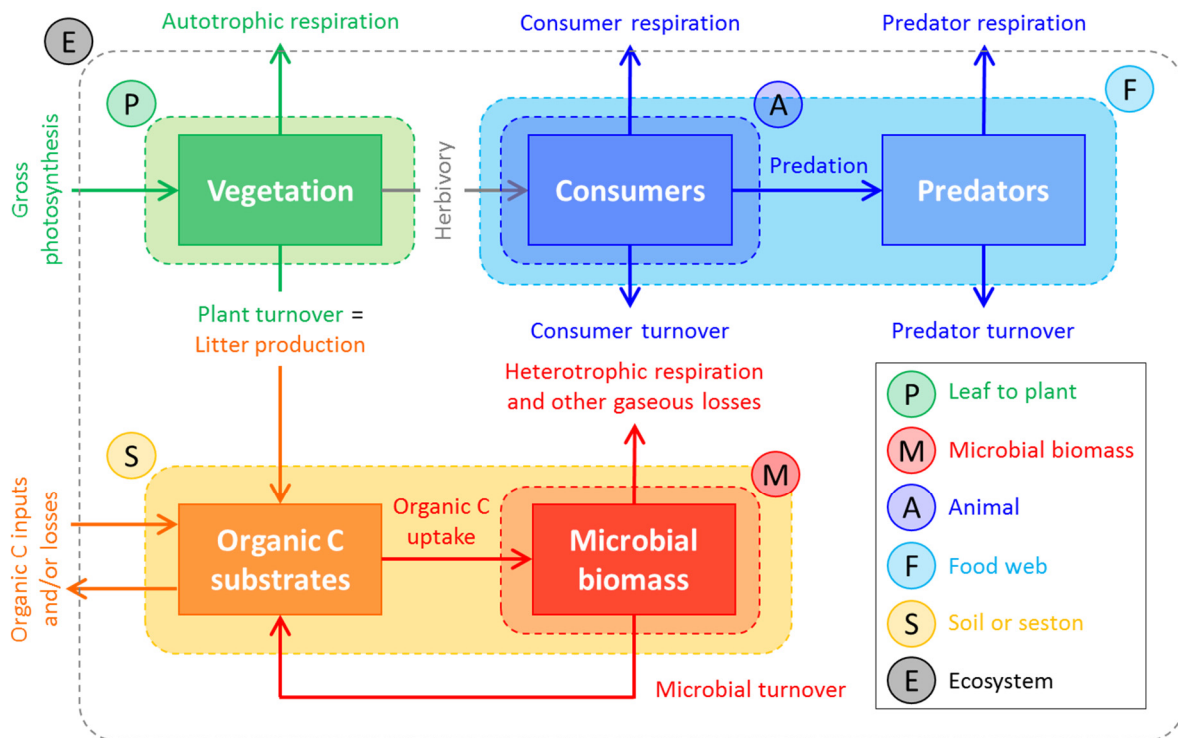
Symbols and acronyms	Description	Dimensions *
AE	Assimilation efficiency	-
A_{net}	Net photosynthesis	$M L^{-2} T^{-1}$
EG	Egestion	$M L^{-2} T^{-1}$ or $M T^{-1}$
EX	Exudation	$M L^{-2} T^{-1}$ or $M T^{-1}$
F_{in}	Abiotic carbon input	$M L^{-2} T^{-1}$
F_{out}	Abiotic carbon output	$M L^{-2} T^{-1}$
I	Input	$M L^{-2} T^{-1}$
C	Carbon-mass	$M L^{-2}$ or M
CSE	Carbon-storage efficiency	-
CUE	Carbon-use efficiency	-
CUE_A	Apparent carbon-use efficiency	-
GGE	Gross growth efficiency	-
GPP	Gross primary productivity	$M L^{-2} T^{-1}$
NECB	Net ecosystem carbon balance (= dC/dt)	$M L^{-2} T^{-1}$
NEP	Net ecosystem productivity	$M L^{-2} T^{-1}$
NGE	Net growth efficiency	-
NPP	Net primary productivity	$M L^{-2} T^{-1}$
O	Output	$M L^{-2} T^{-1}$
R	Respiration	$M L^{-2} T^{-1}$ or $M T^{-1}$
R_a	Autotrophic respiration	$M L^{-2} T^{-1}$ or $M T^{-1}$
R_{dark}	Dark respiration	$M L^{-2} T^{-1}$
R_{growth}	Growth respiration	$M L^{-2} T^{-1}$ or $M T^{-1}$
R_h	Heterotrophic respiration	$M L^{-2} T^{-1}$ or $M T^{-1}$
$R_{maintenance}$	Maintenance respiration	$M L^{-2} T^{-1}$ or $M T^{-1}$
$R_{overflow}$	Overflow respiration	$M L^{-2} T^{-1}$ or $M T^{-1}$
R_{photo}	Photorespiration	$M L^{-2} T^{-1}$
T	Biomass turnover	$M L^{-2} T^{-1}$ or $M T^{-1}$
U	Carbon uptake	$M L^{-2} T^{-1}$ or $M T^{-1}$

605 * M: mass, L: length, T: time, -: non-dimensional quantity.

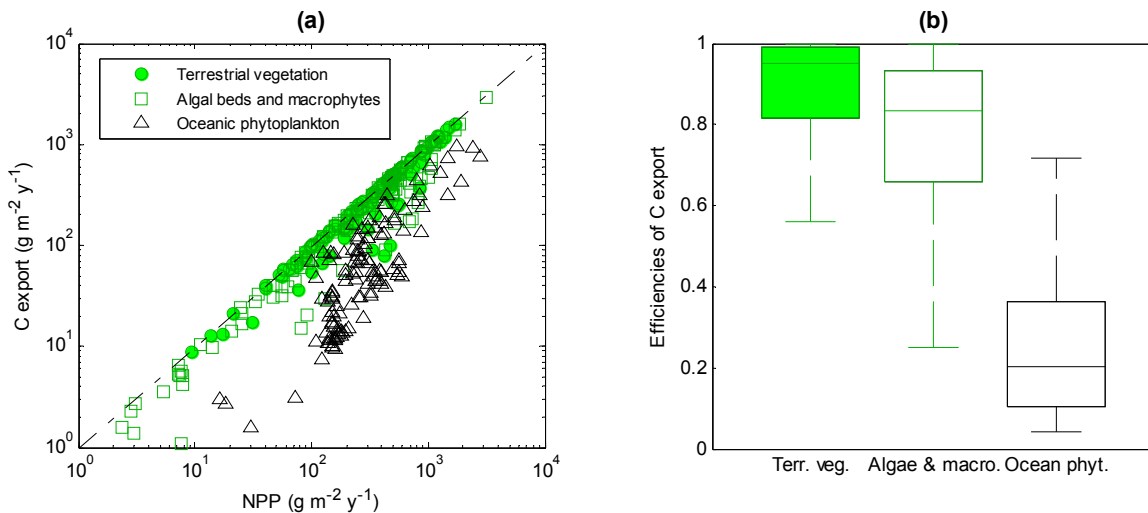
Table S2. Data sources (online databases were last accessed on November 17th, 2017).

System	Figures	Sources	Dataset
Leaves	6a	(Atkin et al., 2015)	Existing dataset (GlobResp database, https://www.try-db.org/TryWeb/Data.php)
Whole plants	5e, 6a	(Wang et al., 2015; Atkin et al., 1996; Atkin et al., 2007; Dillaway and Kruger, 2014; Frantz and Bugbee, 2005; Frantz et al., 2004; Gifford, 1995; Loveys et al., 2002; Nemali and van Iersel, 2004; Tjoelker et al., 1999; van Iersel, 2000, 2003; Yamaguchi, 1978; Yokota and Hagihara, 1998; Ziska and Bunce, 1998; Gifford, 2003; Lotscher et al., 2004; Poorter et al., 1990)	Original compilation
Non-vascular plant communities	6a	(Green et al., 1998; Lange, 2002; Lange et al., 1998; Lange et al., 2000, 2004; Lange et al., 1977; Palmqvist and Sundberg, 2000; Pannewitz et al., 2005; Sundberg et al., 1997; Tretiach and Geletti, 1997; Uchida et al., 2006; Wagner et al., 2013; Uchida et al., 2002; Palmqvist, 2002; Kappen et al., 1989; Oechel and Collins, 1976; Brostoff et al., 2002, 2005; Goulden and Crill, 1997; Jeffries et al., 1993; Lange et al., 1997a; Lange et al., 1993; Lange et al., 2006; Lange et al., 1997b; Lange et al., 1992; Street et al., 2013; Swanson and Flanagan, 2001; Woodin et al., 2009; Yoshitake et al., 2010; Zaady et al., 2000; Büdel et al., 2013; Lange and Green, 2002, 2004; Street, 2011)	Original compilation
Vascular plant communities (forests)	5f, 6a, 7	(Luysaert et al., 2007; Luysaert et al., 2009; Vicca et al., 2012)	Existing dataset (http://dx.doi.org/10.3334/ORN LDAAC/949)
Microbial isolates	6b	(Gommers et al., 1988; Lehmeier et al., 2016; Min et al., 2016; Roels, 1980; Collado et al., 2014; Schmidt et al., 2005; Wakelin and Forster, 1997)	Original compilation including previous synthesis papers
Terrestrial and aquatic microorganisms	4b, 5c, 5d, 6b	(Manzoni et al., 2017)	Existing dataset (http://bolin.su.se/data/Manzoni-2017)
Animals	6e	(Manzoni et al., 2017)	Existing dataset (http://bolin.su.se/data/Manzoni-2017)
Terrestrial ecosystems	6c, 7	(Luysaert et al., 2007; Luysaert et al., 2009)	Existing dataset (http://dx.doi.org/10.3334/ORN LDAAC/949)

Aquatic ecosystems	6c	(Hoellein et al., 2013)	Existing dataset (http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.4319/lo.2013.58.6.2089/abstract)
Terrestrial food chains	6e, S2	(McNaughton et al., 1989; Cebrian and Lartigue, 2004)	Previous synthesis papers
Aquatic food chains	6e, S2	(Adams et al., 1983; Dickman et al., 2008; Downing et al., 1990; Iverson, 1990; Lefebure et al., 2013; Liang et al., 1981; Rock et al., 2016; Rowland et al., 2015; Cebrian and Lartigue, 2004; Dunne et al., 2005)	Original compilation including previous synthesis papers
Soils	6d, 7	(Hua et al., 2014; Liang et al., 2016; Purakayastha et al., 2008; Tan et al., 2014; Yan et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2010a; Zhang et al., 2012; Zhao et al., 2016; Poeplau et al., 2017; Poffenbarger et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2017; Parton and Rasmussen, 1994; Paustian et al., 1992)	Original compilation
Sediments	6d	(Alin and Johnson, 2007; Ferland et al., 2014; Sobek et al., 2009; Canfield, 1994; Hartnett et al., 1998; Hedges and Keil, 1995)	Original compilation including previous synthesis papers
Catchments	Results present ed in the text	(Gielen et al., 2011; Leach et al., 2016; Olefeldt et al., 2012; Peichl et al., 2014; Waddington and Roulet, 2000; Öquist et al., 2014; Zhou et al., 2013; Dinsmore et al., 2010; Helfter et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2010b)	Original compilation



610 **Figure S1.** Schematic illustration of the C balances of various components of a generic ecosystem. The ‘control volumes’ for each C balance are represented by colour-coded dashed boxes; C storages and exchange rates are respectively shown as rectangular shaded boxes and arrows. For each of this sub-systems, C-use and C-storage efficiencies can be calculated and are synthesized in Fig. 5. Colour codes are explained in the legend and are the same as in the figures of the main text.



615 **Figure S2.** Comparison of the efficiencies of C export (exported C/primary production) among terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems. (a) Relation between C export rate and net primary productivity; (b) box plot of C-export efficiencies across ecosystem types. Data for terrestrial vegetation and algal beds/macrophytes is from Cebrian and Lartigue (2004); data for oceanic phytoplankton is from Dunne et al. (2005).

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