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2	Organic carbon sink dynamics and carbon sink-source balance in global lakes during
3	the Anthropocene
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21	Running title: lake carbon sink dynamics and sink-source balance
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24 Key findings

1, The organic carbon sink dynamics and carbon source-sink balance in lakes
are quantified with effect-size metrics, namely the organic carbon burial ratio and
carbon balance ratio, respectively.

28 2, There is a decreasing latitudinal trend for organic carbon sink dynamics,29 while nonsignificant for carbon sink-source balance.

30 3, The organic carbon sink dynamics are mainly positively influenced by lake
31 trophic state, while the carbon sink-source balance are primarily positively affected by
32 lake catchment properties.

33

35 Abstract

36 The carbon burial and greenhouse gas emissions of lakes are pivotal in the 37 global carbon cycle to offset or accelerate global warming. However, their balance or 38 the magnitude of anthropogenic increase of carbon burial remains uncertain in global 39 lakes. Here, we quantified the carbon sink dynamics and the sink-source balance in 40 global lakes with effect size metrics, that is, the log-response ratio of organic carbon 41 burial between post-1950 and pre-1900 periods and the carbon balance ratio between 42 carbon burial and greenhouse gas emissions, respectively. The organic carbon burial 43 ratios revealed an average increase of 2.44 times in carbon burial rates during the 44 Anthropocene, while the carbon balance ratios were negative in 82.68% of lakes, 45 indicating that most lakes had lower burial rates than emission rates and acted as carbon sources rather than carbon sinks. The organic carbon burial ratios exhibited a 46 47 significantly decreasing latitudinal trend and were mainly influenced by its trophic state with the explained variation of 44.79%. They were also indirectly influenced by 48 49 climate, lake morphometry and catchment properties through their interactions with 50 the lake's trophic state. The carbon balance ratios however showed nonsignificant 51 latitudinal trend. They were primarily affected by lake catchment properties with the 52 explained variation of 26.21% and were also indirectly affected by climate variables 53 via the interactions with catchment properties. Overall, our study highlights that 54 human activities such as lake eutrophication and catchment changes have altered the 55 carbon sink and source in global lakes during the Anthropocene, and are essential 56 drivers for future evaluations of lake carbon budgets.

57

58 *Keywords:* organic carbon burial; greenhouse gas emission; carbon sink dynamics;

- 59 carbon sink-source balance; anthropogenic activity
- 60

61 Glossary terms

Effect size metrics: The statistical metrics to quantify the magnitude and direction of the relationship between two sets of variables or groups. The log response ratio (LRR) is one of effect size statistics and is calculated as the log proportionate change in the means of a treatment and control group.

66 **Organic carbon burial ratio**: The organic carbon burial ratio is a log response 67 ratio used to quantify the magnitude and direction of changes in lake organic carbon 68 burial during the Anthropocene. For instance, the organic carbon burial ratio could be 69 calculated for organic carbon burial between the pre-1900 and post-1950 periods. 70 Positive values of the organic carbon burial ratio indicate an increase in organic 71 carbon burial rates over time, while negative values suggest a decrease. A ratio of zero 72 indicates no change in organic carbon burial rates.

73 Carbon balance ratio: A log response ratio that compares the difference 74 between organic carbon burial and greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions, and measures 75 the balance between carbon sink and source in a lake. A positive value of the carbon 76 balance ratio indicates a higher carbon burial rate than carbon emission in a lake, 77 resulting in a positive contribution to the regional carbon stock. Conversely, a 78 negative value suggests that a lake has higher carbon emission rate than carbon burial, 79 resulting in a negative contribution to the regional carbon stock. A ratio of zero 80 indicates no contribution in carbon stock.

81 **Organic carbon sink dynamics:** The temporal changes in the burial or 82 accumulation of organic carbon within lake sediments during a defined period. These 83 dynamics can be quantified by the log response ratio as changes in the burial rates, 84 either increasing or decreasing, over time, and indicate the potential contributions of a 85 lake to regional carbon stock.

86 **Carbon sink-source balance:** The balance between carbon sink and source 87 regulates the role of lakes in regional and global carbon budget. This balance could be 88 quantified by the difference between organic carbon burial and gaseous carbon 89 emissions in lake sediments.

90

92 Introduction

93 Lakes disproportionately affect the global carbon cycle relative to their area as a 94 highly efficient carbon sink and an important source of greenhouse gases. Although 95 lakes cover less than 4% of Earth's surface area, they have the potential to store 96 approximately 25-50% of the total organic carbon that is buried in marine sediments (Verpoorter et al. 2014, Drake et al. 2017). Lakes are also an important source of 97 98 greenhouse gases (GHG), which equals to nearly 20% of the whole global CO₂ fossil 99 fuel emissions into Earth's atmosphere (DelSontro et al. 2018). Notably, the estimates 100 of carbon sink and source in global lakes exhibited variability across different 101 literatures (Fig. 1). For instance, organic carbon burial varies with nearly three times differences from 0.04 to 0.12 Pg C yr⁻¹ (Dean and Gorham 1998, Anderson et al. 102 103 2020). The CO₂ emissions vary with nearly six times differences from 0.11 to 0.64 Pg C yr⁻¹ (Cole et al. 2007, Aufdenkampe et al. 2011), while the CH₄ emissions show less 104 variations with a range of 0.01 to 0.11 Pg C yr⁻¹ (Ehhalt 1974, Rosentreter et al. 2021). 105 106 Whether lakes are net sinks or net sources for their regional carbon neutral roles is 107 primarily determined by the balance between carbon burial and evasion to the 108 atmosphere. However, such a balance (i.e., carbon sink-source balance) and the 109 temporal variability of organic carbon burial (i.e., carbon sink dynamics) during the 110 Anthropocene remain uncertain for global lakes.

111 Characterizing the temporal changes of carbon burial in lakes during the 112 Anthropocene is critical to constrain the dynamics of global carbon stocks given the 113 increasing and widespread human disturbance (Anderson et al. 2020). Lake organic 114 carbon burial is promoted by climate warming and anthropogenic disturbance via 115 increasing autochthonous production and inputs of allochthonous carbon from the 116 catchments (Tranvik et al. 2009). For instance, the temperature at ecosystem level has 117 a positive effect on lake organic carbon burial (Heathcote et al. 2015), while 118 incubation experiments show decreased carbon burial in lakes with increasing 119 temperature (Gudasz et al. 2010). The increasing organic carbon burial observed 120 during the Anthropocene could not be fully explained by climate alone, and thus other 121 environmental drivers, such as human-induced landscape changes, are proposed to be 122 responsible (Heathcote et al. 2015). Anthropogenic activities, including land-cover 123 change and extensive agriculture, could impact the organic carbon burial in lakes by 124 causing eutrophication and increasing the inputs of terrestrially derived organic matter 125 (Anderson et al. 2013, Dietz et al. 2015). Eutrophication, induced by excessive

nutrient input, could increase the amount of fresh organic carbon available for subsequent depositional processes (Dong et al. 2012). For instance, eutrophication is the primary driver of the elevated carbon burial rates in European lakes, as indicated by the strong correlation between total phosphorus and the burial rates (Anderson et al. 2014). Nutrient enrichment could also promote heterotrophic bacterial activities and alter the community composition of microbes and could further elevate the mineralization of organic matters (Hu et al. 2022).

133 However, it remains largely unknown regarding the balance between carbon 134 burial and GHG emission in individual lakes, i.e., their role in regional carbon 135 budgets, and the major drivers behind these balances (Kortelainen et al. 2013). Such 136 carbon sink-source balance has been previously investigated in different terrestrial 137 and aquatic environments, such as forests, grasslands, arable lands, peatlands, and 138 oceans (Yang et al. 2008). For lake ecosystems, they are usually supersaturated in 139 CO_2 , acting as net carbon sources to the atmosphere, but have large spatial variability 140 depending on latitude, climate, and lake types. For instance, the ratios of lake 141 emissions to burial in high-latitude regions are ten times higher in boreal lakes 142 compared to subarctic-arctic lakes (Lundin et al. 2015). The role of individual lakes 143 could be overlooked when comparing organic carbon burial to CO2 emission at regional scales, such as catchments based on a coastal segmentation (Raymond et al. 144 145 2013, Mendonca et al. 2017). Moreover, climate change and human activities such as 146 temperature and nutrient availability could significantly affect lake carbon sink-source 147 balance, but their impacts are generally understudied (Tranvik et al. 2009, Gudasz et 148 al. 2015).

149 Under the combined influence of climate change and intensified anthropogenic 150 activities, lakes are playing more important roles in regulating the regional carbon 151 budgets by increasing carbon sedimentation and mediating the balance between 152 carbon sink and source. Here, we quantified carbon sink dynamics and carbon sink-153 source balance and evaluated how they were influenced by multiple drivers in global 154 lakes. Specifically, we obtained organic carbon burial and CO₂ emission rates from 155 423 global lakes reported in previous literatures, including 286 lakes with long-term 156 carbon burial rates over the last 100-200 years (Table S1), and 137 lakes with 157 pairwise short-term carbon burial rates and contemporary CO₂ emission rates (Table 158 S2). We developed two effect size metrics, namely the carbon burial ratios and carbon 159 balance ratios, to quantify the carbon sink dynamics and carbon sink-source balance,

160 respectively. We further evaluated the relative importance of nature and anthropogenic 161 drivers in explaining carbon sink dynamics and sink-source balance across global 162 scales. These hierarchical drivers could be categorized as climate variables, lake 163 morphometry, lake catchment properties, and lake trophic state (Fig. 2c). We expected 164 that autochthonous and allochthonous productions, represented by the trophic state of 165 the lake and the carbon inputs from the catchments, respectively, could strongly 166 influence the carbon sink dynamics and sink-source balance. We further hypothesized 167 that climate and lake morphometry could directly mediate the carbon sink dynamics 168 and the sink-source balance, and could also have indirect influence through their 169 interactions with lake trophic state and catchment properties. The syntheses of these 170 hierarchical drivers could better illustrate the carbon sink dynamics and carbon sink-171 source balance in the global lakes and provide valuable insights into the mechanisms 172 driving carbon cycling in lake ecosystems.

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174 Methods

175 Data compilation of organic carbon burial and CO₂ emission rates

We compiled organic carbon burial and greenhouse gas emissions data from 423 global lakes, which mainly derived from published sources (Tables S1, 2). These lakes exhibit varying characteristics in latitude, climate, lake morphometry, lake catchment properties, and lake trophic state. This comprehensive dataset allows us to examine the relative importance of natural and anthropogenic drivers of lake carbon sink dynamics and carbon sink-source balances.

Our carbon burial dataset consisted of 286 distinct lakes observations of long-182 183 term (i.e., the last 100~200 years) sediment focusing corrected organic carbon burial 184 rates, integrating both newly collected and previously published regional synthesis 185 data (see Table S1 for a list of sources). To ensure consistent dating and organic 186 carbon flux calculations across all sediment cores in this study, only records that had 187 both ²¹⁰Pb and organic carbon concentrations at approximately decadal resolutions for 188 the last 100 years were selected (Anderson et al. 2020). Our analysis relied 189 exclusively on whole-system organic carbon burial rates (i.e., a single spatially 190 resolved rate for each system), thus we used the average value if data on whole-191 system organic carbon burial from the same lake were available in different 192 publications. Artificial reservoirs were excluded from this study due to their limited 193 data of long-term organic carbon burial rates worldwide and their distinctive

194 characteristics compared to natural lakes. For instance, reservoirs could exhibit higher 195 carbon burial due to catchment instability, high erosion rates, and more favorable 196 conditions for organic carbon preservation (Mendonca et al. 2017, Anderson et al. 197 2020).

198 Our carbon burial-emission dataset included 142 pairwise data of CO₂ emission 199 and organic carbon burial rates from 137 different lakes, which is the largest dataset 200 available so far (see Table S2 for a list of sources). These lakes are widely distributed 201 in spatial scales and represent most of Earth's major biomes (Figs. 2, S4). For CO₂ 202 emissions across the air-water interface, we used the average value if data from the 203 same lake were available in different publications. For carbon burial across sediment-204 water interface, we used short-term organic carbon burial rates, such as post-1950, to 205 match the contemporary CO₂ emission if multiple estimates of burial rates for the 206 same lake from different periods existed. However, it is challenging to obtain more 207 data due to the heterogeneity of data sources for organic carbon burial and CO₂ 208 emissions, and the lack of precise temporal alignment between these two variables.

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Calculating organic carbon burial ratio and carbon balance ratio

211 Organic carbon burial rates were divided into three periods based on global 212 anthropogenic activity before and after the beginning of the Anthropocene: pre-1900, 213 1900-1950, post-1950 (Steffen et al. 2007). We considered pre-1900 as background or 214 very low disturbance, with limited global atmospheric emissions. Human population 215 and industrialization increased during the transitory period of 1900-1950. We 216 considered post-1950 as the modern period, reflecting the Post-World War II increase 217 in both human population and industrialization.

218 We introduced an effect-size metric, the log-response carbon burial ratio, to 219 quantify the magnitude and direction (i.e., positive, or negative) of lake organic 220 carbon burial change during the Anthropocene. This ratio was calculated by 221 comparing the modern rate of organic carbon burial (post-1950) to baseline value 222 (pre-1900):

Carbon burial ratio = LRR $\left(\frac{\text{post-1950}}{\text{pre-1900}}\right)$ 223

224 where pre-1900 and post-1950 are the organic carbon burial rates of lakes before 1900 225 and 1950 to present, respectively. Positive and negative values of organic carbon 226 burial ratios indicate that organic carbon burial rates increase or decrease with time, respectively, while zero organic carbon burial ratio suggests no temporal changes.
Larger absolute burial ratio values indicate greater temporal changes in organic
carbon burial rates within the two periods.

- We further applied the log-response carbon balance ratios to investigate the role of each lake in regional carbon cycling. This ratio was calculated by comparing shortterm organic carbon burial to contemporary CO₂ emissions:
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Carbon balance ratio = LRR ($\frac{Carbon burial}{CO_2 emission}$)

234 The carbon balance ratio is based on mass balance point of view, given that 235 comparable amounts of carbon are buried in sediments and emitted as gas from lakes 236 worldwide. It should be noted that the carbon balance ratios are employed as a 237 preliminary evaluation of the role of lakes in regional carbon cycling. Although there 238 is a lack of precise temporal alignment between carbon burial and CO₂ emissions, this 239 approach represents one of the viable methods for comparing the two net vertical 240 processes within lakes: evasion versus sedimentation (Ferland et al. 2014, Lundin et al. 241 2015, Mendonca et al. 2017). Specifically, lakes with positive carbon balance ratios 242 indicate that carbon burial exceeds CO₂ emissions, acting as carbon sinks, while lakes 243 with negative ratios indicate that carbon burial is lower than CO₂ emissions, acting as carbon sources. It should be noted that we excluded 15 lakes with negative CO2 244 245 emission rates, which accounted for 10.95% of the 137 lakes. This is because it is not 246 mathematically applicable to include negative CO₂ emissions in the carbon balance 247 ratio calculation. Moreover, there is no need to apply the carbon balance ratios to 248 quantify the carbon sink-source balance of the lakes with negative CO₂ emissions, 249 because they are typically characterized as net autotrophic ecosystems and could be 250 classified as carbon sinks, that is, higher CO₂ uptake by primary producers than the 251 release via ecosystem respiration (Pacheco et al. 2014).

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253 Data compilation of natural and anthropogenic drivers

Besides the carbon burial ratios and carbon balance ratios, the datasets also included natural and anthropogenic variables for each lake when available. A total of 11 explanatory variables were collected, including mean annual temperature (MAT), mean annual precipitation (MAP), lake area, mean average depth, maximum depth, nitrogen and phosphorus fertilizer use, Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI), chlorophyll *a*, total phosphorus (TP), and total nitrogen (TN). We categorized these explanatory variables into four distinct groups, that is, climate variables (MAT and MAP), lake morphometry (lake area, mean average depth, and maximum depth), lake catchment properties (nitrogen and phosphorus fertilizer use and NDVI), and lake trophic state (chlorophyll *a*, TP, and TN) (Fig. 2c, Table S4).

264 The climate variables and lake morphometry were considered as natural drivers. 265 For climate variables, we extracted MAT and MAP for each lake from previous 266 literatures when available (Tables S1, 2). The unavailable climatic variables were 267 derived by using latitude and longitude from Worldclim database version 2 for 1970-268 2000 with a spatial resolution of approximately 30 seconds (~1 km²) (Fick and 269 Hijmans 2017). For lake morphometry, we extracted lake area, mean average depth, 270 and maximum depth from previous literatures when available (Tables S1, 2). The 271 unavailable variables were extracted from online repositories, such as Minnesota 272 Pollution Control Agency (https://www.pca.state.mn.us/).

273 The lake catchment properties and lake trophic state were considered as 274 anthropogenic drivers. For lake catchment properties, we included the nitrogen and 275 phosphorus fertilizer use data and Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) to 276 quantify the impact of allochthonous carbon on the carbon sink dynamics and carbon 277 sink-source balance in lakes. The fertilizer use data and NDVI, as indicators of 278 terrestrial productivity in lake catchments, have been applied to predict organic 279 carbon burial in lakes worldwide (Anderson et al. 2020) and greenhouse gas 280 concentrations across boreal lakes (Valiente et al. 2022). Fertilizer application rates 281 for each lake were derived by using latitude and longitude from 0.5-decimal degree 282 interpolated averages of nitrogen and phosphorus fertilizer application spanning from 283 1994 to 2001 (Potter et al. 2010). These data are publicly available as part of NASA's 284 Socioeconomic Data Applications and Center (SEDAC) at 285 http://sedac.ciesin.columbia.edu/data/collection/ferman-v1. The average NDVI data 286 for each lake from 2000 to 2023 was derived by using latitude and longitude from 287 MODIS Terra Vegetation Indices MOD13Q1 v061 product 288 (https://lpdaac.usgs.gov/data/). This product provides a temporal resolution of 16 days 289 and a spatial resolution of 250 m (Didan 2021). For lake trophic state, we extracted 290 chlorophyll a, TP and TN from previous literatures when available (Tables S1, 2). The 291 unavailable variables were extracted from online repositories, such as Minnesota 292 Pollution Control Agency (https://www.pca.state.mn.us/), and a database of 293 chlorophyll *a* and water chemistry in freshwater lakes (Filazzola et al. 2020).

294 Statistical analysis

We conducted the linear models to explore the distribution patterns of carbon burial rates and CO_2 emission rates, and carbon burial ratios and carbon balance ratios along latitudinal gradients. We also conducted linear models to explore the relationships between the carbon burial ratios and carbon balance ratios and natural and anthropogenic variables. Prior to analyses, explanatory variables were logtransformed to improve normality when necessary. This analysis was performed using the R package "stats" V 4.2.2.

302 To further evaluate the key drivers of carbon burial ratios and carbon balance 303 ratios, we employed random forest analysis (Breiman 2001) and structural equation 304 modelling (SEM) (Grace et al. 2012). First, random forest analysis was conducted to 305 quantify the relative importance of climatic variables, lake morphometry, lake 306 catchment properties, and lake trophic state on carbon burial ratios and carbon 307 balance ratios. The importance of each predictor variable was determined by 308 evaluating the decrease in prediction accuracy (that is, increase in the mean square 309 error between observations and out-of-bag predictions) when the data for that 310 predictor were randomly permuted. The accuracy importance measure was computed 311 for each tree and averaged over the forest (5000 trees). The contributions of predictor 312 variables were scaled to sum to 100. This analysis was conducted using the R package 313 randomForestSRC V3.2.2 (Ishwaran and Kogalur 2019).

314 Second, SEM (Grace et al. 2012) was used to explore the interactive effects of 315 natural and anthropogenic drivers on carbon sink dynamics and carbon sink-source 316 balance. The hypothesized links were developed based on our expectation that lake 317 trophic state and lake catchment properties could strongly influence carbon sink 318 dynamics and sink-source balance. We further expected that climate variables and 319 lake morphometry could directly mediate the carbon sink dynamics and sink-source 320 balance, and could also have indirect influence through their interactions with lake 321 trophic state and catchment properties (Fig. 2c). Before modeling, all variables in the 322 SEMs were z-score transformed to allow comparisons among multiple predictors and 323 models. Consistent with previous studies (Grace et al. 2016), we used composite 324 variables to capture the collective effects of climate variables, lake morphometry, lake 325 catchment properties, and lake trophic state. The candidate observed indicators were 326 shown in Table S4. The indicators for each composite were selected based on the 327 multiple regressions for carbon burial ratios or carbon balance ratios (Table S5).

Based on all the hypothesized paths among composite variables (that is, full model; Fig. 2c), we examined all alternative models and chose the final model that met the model fit statistics with the low AIC value (Grace et al. 2010). The detailed modeling fit indices for all alternative models were provided in Table S6. We implemented SEMs using the R package lavaan V.0.6-15 (Rosseel 2012). It is worth noting that the sample size may vary across different analyses due to missing environmental data.

- 334
- 335 Results

336 Lake organic carbon burial and CO₂ emission rates

337 In the 286 global lakes, the organic carbon burial rates ranged from 0.01 to 223.30 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ across individual lakes of all periods in three regions of China (n 338 = 74), Europe (n = 73), and the USA (n = 139) (Fig. S1). Average organic carbon 339 burial rates in China (9.53 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹) were nearly four times lower than those in 340 Europe and the USA (40.94 and 35.16 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹, respectively). During the 341 342 Anthropocene, organic carbon burial substantially increased from pre-1900 to post-1950, but also showed variations across the studied lakes. Specifically, the organic 343 carbon burial rates increased averagely from 14.33 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ for pre-1900 to 22.45 344 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ for 1900-1950, and to 43.94 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ for post-1950. The magnitude of 345 the mean increase varied among regions: the lowest increase in burial rates of 9.04 g 346 C m⁻² yr⁻¹ was observed in China, while the highest increase in burial rates of 39.61 g 347 $C m^{-2} vr^{-1}$ occurred in the Europe. 348

349 In the 137 global lakes, the carbon burial rates had a mean of 21.98 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ and ranged from 0.01 to 204.40 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹, while the carbon emission rates, 350 represented by CO₂, had an average of 60.26 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ and a range of -97.10 to 351 411.71 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ (Fig. 3b). The carbon burial rates, but not the carbon emission 352 rates, in China (n = 48), Europe (n = 32), and the USA (n = 13) were significantly 353 354 higher than those in other regions (n = 49), such as Africa, South America, and 355 Oceania. However, non significant differences were observed in carbon burial and 356 emission rates among China, Europe, and the USA (Figs. S2a, b). There was also no significant relationship between carbon burial and emission rates, but the CO₂ 357 emissions showed relatively higher rates than the organic carbon burial (P < 0.001, 358 359 Fig. S3).

361 Organic carbon burial ratio and carbon balance ratio across lakes

362 We developed the organic carbon burial ratios to quantify the lake carbon sink 363 dynamics during the Anthropocene. The organic carbon burial ratios had a mean of 364 0.97 and ranged from -0.69 to 3.84 across individual lakes. These ratios indicated that 365 the organic carbon burial rates increased on average 2.44 times from pre-1900 to post-1950. The carbon burial ratios were the highest with a mean value of 1.03 in the USA, 366 367 which is significantly higher than those in Europe (mean 0.78). However, no significant differences observed between the burial ratios in the USA and China 368 369 (mean 0.93) (Fig. S1d). The ratios between post-1950 and 1900-1950 were much 370 lower (mean 0.50) than those between post-1950 and 1900-1950, supporting the 371 enhanced carbon burial in many lakes due to accelerated eutrophication and increased 372 sedimentation of organic matter in recent decades.

373 We further applied the carbon balance ratios to reflect the lake carbon sinksource balance. The carbon balance ratios had a mean of -1.60 and ranged from -5.90 374 375 to 3.28. The average ratios were highest in the USA (-0.59) and lowest in China (-376 1.93). The carbon balance ratios in Europe, with an average of -1.17, were 377 significantly higher than those in China but showed nonsignificant difference with 378 those in the USA. Negative carbon balance ratios were observed in 82.68 % of lakes, 379 indicating carbon burial rates were lower than CO₂ emission rates. This suggests that most lakes are generally supersaturated in CO₂, acting as a carbon source rather than a 380 381 sink in the regional carbon cycling.

382 The organic carbon burial ratios, but not the carbon balance ratios, showed 383 predictable patterns along the latitudinal gradient. For the organic carbon burial ratios, 384 there was a significantly decreasing trend towards high latitudes (P < 0.05, Fig. 3b), 385 which was different from the burial rates for both periods of pre-1900 and post-1950 386 (P < 0.05, Fig. 3a). It is worth noting that the organic carbon burial ratios showed 387 weaker variation than the burial rates along the latitudinal gradient, with a slope of -0.014 for the burial ratios, whereas the higher slopes of 0.403 and 1.171 for the burial 388 389 rates during the pre-1900 and post-1950 periods, respectively. For the carbon balance 390 ratios, however, there was no clear latitudinal pattern, with the pairwise carbon burial 391 rates (P > 0.05) and the CO₂ emission rates (P = 0.053) also showed no significant 392 relationship with latitude (Figs. 3c, d).

394 Drivers on organic carbon burial ratio and carbon balance ratio

395 We further examined the environmental drivers of the climate variables, lake 396 catchment properties, lake morphometry, and lake trophic state for the organic carbon 397 burial ratios and the carbon balance ratios (Fig. 4). The organic carbon burial ratios 398 showed a significant relationship with key biogeochemical indicators of lake trophic state, including chlorophyll a ($r^2 = 0.11$) and total phosphorus (TP, $r^2 = 0.09$). 399 Specifically, these ratios increased significantly with higher chlorophyll a and TP (P < 400 401 0.05). The burial ratios also had significant positive relationships with nitrogen and phosphorus fertilizer use ($r^2 = 0.08$ and 0.10, respectively), but a negative relationship 402 with normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI, $r^2 = 0.02$) in the catchment, 403 indicating complex connections between organic carbon burial and terrestrial 404 405 materials from surrounding catchments. Further, there was a positive relationship between carbon burial ratios and regional climate, such as mean annual temperature 406 (MAT, $r^2 = 0.08$), which is consistent with their decreasing latitudinal pattern. 407 408 However, lake morphometry, such as lake maximum depth, had a significant negative 409 relationship with burial ratios with r^2 of 0.08 (Figs. 4a, S5a).

The carbon balance ratios were primarily linked to lake catchment properties and trophic state, such as nitrogen fertilizer application ($r^2 = 0.03$), chlorophyll *a* ($r^2 =$ 0.12) and total nitrogen (TN, $r^2 = 0.07$). Meanwhile, the carbon balance ratios increased significantly with increases in MAT ($r^2 = 0.05$) and mean annual precipitation (MAP, $r^2 = 0.03$). However, there was no significant relationship between carbon balance ratios and lake morphometry, such as lake area, average depth, and maximum depth (Figs. 4b, S5b).

417 For the organic carbon burial ratios, the most important explanatory variable 418 revealed by random forest models was chlorophyll a, which is usually a proxy for 419 water quality and lake trophic state. Specifically, chlorophyll a accounted for 44.79% 420 of the explained variations, followed by MAT (43.54%) and MAP (6.01%) (Fig. 5a). 421 For the carbon balance ratios, the total relative contributions of climate factors (i.e., 422 MAT and MAP) were predominantly 53.82%. The other explanatory variables 423 included lake catchment properties and trophic state, such as nitrogen fertilizer 424 application (26.21%) and chlorophyll a (14.47%) (Fig. 5b).

To quantify the interactive effects of the multiple environmental variables on the lake carbon sink dynamics and the carbon sink-source balance, we applied SEM to statistically synthesize their hypothesized relationships (Grace et al. 2012) (Fig. 2c). 428 Model performance statistics showed that the path analysis produced good models 429 describing the carbon sink dynamics and carbon sink-source balance based on a 430 nonsignificant Chi-square statistic, RMSEA ≤ 0.08 , and CFI and TLI values ≥ 0.95 431 (Table S6). These models explained 15.5% of lake carbon sink dynamics while 6.4% 432 of variation carbon sink-source balance in the global lakes. It should be noted that the explained variations may not be as high as expected. This is largely because some 433 434 potentially important variables, such as lake trophic state, are not available for each 435 lake in literatures. Other variables, such as land-use change (Anderson et al. 2013, 436 Dietz et al. 2015), may also influence the carbon sink dynamics and sink-source 437 balance. We encourage future studies to include more comprehensive variables for 438 better explaining the observed patterns in carbon sink dynamics and carbon sink-439 source balance.

440 The predictors showed divergent effects on lake carbon sink dynamics and sinksource balance regarding their influence strength and directions (Fig. 6, Table S7). For 441 442 the carbon sink dynamics, the lake trophic state and catchment properties showed 443 similar important direct effects on the carbon sink dynamics (R = 0.221 and 0.236, 444 respectively), while lake catchment properties had strong indirect effects (R = 0.108) and total indirect effects of 0.344 on carbon sink dynamics. Furthermore, we found 445 446 that climate variables and lake morphometry also showed indirect influences on the carbon sink dynamics via the interactions with lake trophic state, with total indirect 447 448 effects of 0.221 and 0.116, respectively. For the carbon sink-source balance, lake 449 catchment properties exhibited the most significant direct effect of 0.253. The climate variables mainly showed indirect influences of 0.205 on the lake carbon balance via 450 451 the interactions with catchment properties. Such divergent effects of multiple 452 environmental variables were statistically supported by random forest analyses (Fig. 453 5). For instance, chlorophyll a, an indicator of lake trophic state, explained 44.79% of 454 the carbon sink dynamics, while nitrogen fertilizer application, reflecting lake catchment properties, accounted for 26.21% of the carbon sink-source balance. 455

457 **Discussion**

458 Lakes become increasingly important for carbon burial especially under the 459 joint effects of global warming and escalated anthropogenic activities (Tranvik et al. 460 2009, Heathcote et al. 2015). While the long-term storage of organic carbon is 461 frequently documented (Heathcote and Downing 2012, Anderson et al. 2013, 462 Anderson et al. 2020), there are few reports on the quantification of temporal changes 463 in the organic carbon burial rates for individual lake on a global scale. It is also 464 unclear how much greenhouse gas emissions could be offset by organic carbon burial 465 in global lakes. This further limit our comprehensive understanding of the spatial 466 distribution of the temporal changes in carbon burial and the balance between carbon 467 burial and greenhouse gas emissions, and also the environmental factors that influence them. Here, we developed the carbon burial ratios to quantify the temporal changes in 468 469 carbon burial, i.e., carbon sink dynamics. We then applied the carbon balance ratios to quantify the balance between carbon burial and CO2 emissions, i.e., carbon sink 470 471 dynamics. Finally, we constructed the statistical models with hierarchical drivers to 472 explain the spatial patterns observed in these two metrics.

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Carbon sink dynamics and carbon sink-source balance in lakes

475 Our study is among the very first ones to examine the temporal changes in 476 organic carbon burial rates across global lakes, referred to as carbon sink dynamics, 477 and further explore the environmental drivers underlying the temporal changes. The increased magnitude in burial rates from pre-1900 to post-1950 in China was lower 478 479 than those observed in Europe and the USA. This may be attributed to the larger lake 480 size of collected lakes in China compared to those in Europe and the USA, which 481 might have reduced the impact of anthropogenic disturbance on the organic carbon 482 burial rates (Wang et al. 2018). In addition, the lakes, located in Mongolia-Xinjiang 483 Plateau and Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau in China, were relatively unaffected by 484 anthropogenic activity, and exhibited a lower increased magnitude in burial rates 485 (Wang et al. 2018). However, the increased ratios in burial rates of China, as indicated 486 by the carbon burial ratios, were similar to those of the other regions (Fig. S1d). It 487 should be noted that the above increased magnitudes are less comparable across lakes 488 largely due to their differences in background burial rates across different regions 489 worldwide. Thus, the carbon burial ratio, as an effect size metric that disregards the

490 background, could be used to directly compare the increasements of carbon burial491 rates of lakes worldwide.

492 The organic carbon burial ratios indicated that organic carbon burial rates have 493 increased by average 2.44 times since 1900. The observed increase ratio in organic 494 carbon burial is similar to those reported in another global study, which showed burial 495 rates have tripled across all biomes over the last 100 years, while ~4-fold increases in 496 lakes in tropical grasslands and forests (Anderson et al. 2020). However, the increase 497 ratio is higher than the average values reported in previous studies, such as 1.58 in 498 North America (Heathcote et al. 2015), 2.20 in Europe (Anderson et al. 2014), and 499 2.00 in China (Wang et al. 2018). Although our study focuses on the temporal changes 500 in burial rates, the carbon burial ratio is comparable to the increased magnitude of 501 organic carbon burial. For instance, the carbon burial in global lakes has increased from 0.05 to 0.12 Pg C yr⁻¹ (that is, 1.40-fold increase) over the last 100 years 502 503 (Anderson et al. 2020), and inland waters have experienced an increase from 0.05 Pg C yr⁻¹ in the pre-industrial era to 0.15 Pg C yr⁻¹ at present (that is, 2.00-fold increase) 504 505 (Regnier et al. 2022).

506 On average, the carbon balance ratios was -1.60 across the global lakes, which 507 is similar to those of boreal and subarctic-arctic lakes in Scandinavia with a range 508 from -1.39 to -4.45 and a mean of -3.40 (Kortelainen et al. 2013), but substantially 509 lower than those for temperate lakes and reservoirs in Conterminous United States 510 (mean = 0.33) (Clow et al. 2015). Furthermore, we found that the lakes in temperate 511 biomes, such as temperate grasslands, savannas & shrublands exhibited relatively 512 higher carbon balance ratios (Fig. S4). This phenomenon is consistent with the fact 513 that temperate lakes are relatively effective at sequestering carbon (Clow et al. 2015). 514 It should be noted that we considered the emissions of only CO₂, but not CH₄, in our 515 calculation of the above ratios, which is mainly because CO₂ emissions are more 516 readily available than CH₄ in literature, and CH₄ emission is less important in terms of 517 only C units (Mendonca et al. 2017). Considering the stronger greenhouse effect of 518 CH₄ (Bastviken et al. 2011) and the revealed carbon balance ratios, we expected that 519 lakes should have a higher potential to act as sources for releasing carbon. 520 Nevertheless, these results collectively suggest that there are substantial differences in 521 lake carbon sink-source balance between biomes, and temperature lakes showed 522 larger organic carbon burial.

524 Latitudinal patterns for the carbon burial ratios and carbon balance ratios

525 Towards higher latitudes, we observed a decrease in the temporal changes of 526 organic carbon burial rates since 1900. This is supported by the fact that the organic 527 carbon burial ratios between post-1950 and pre-1900 periods showed a significantly 528 negative latitudinal trend across global lakes. Such a latitudinal pattern is rarely 529 reported in previous literature for the temporal changes of organic carbon burial rates, 530 except for the organic carbon burial rates (Heathcote et al. 2015, Anderson et al. 2020). 531 For instance, the organic carbon burial rates are negatively correlated with latitude in 532 a suite of northern lakes (Heathcote et al. 2015). When more lakes were included such 533 as the low-latitude lakes from China, however, the carbon burial rates consistently 534 showed increasing latitudinal trends for the global lakes in both periods of post-1950 535 and pre-1900 (Fig. 3a). These results suggest that there is a clear discrepancy in the 536 geographical variations between the carbon burial rates and their temporal changes, 537 and quantification of the temporal changes in carbon burial rate of each lake could 538 provide novel information on how the lakes could contribute to the future regional 539 carbon sink in a global scale.

540 In contrast, the carbon sink-source balance exhibited no clear latitudinal trends 541 in the global lakes. This is supported by the nonsignificant relationship between 542 latitude and the carbon balance ratios between carbon burial and CO₂ emissions rates 543 (Fig. 3d). Such a latitudinal pattern is unexpected as there are previous reports 544 frequently showing latitudinal differences in the balance between CO₂ emissions and 545 carbon burial. For instance, when two regions are compared, the average ratio of 546 emission to burial is substantially higher in boreal lakes than in subarctic-arctic lakes 547 (Kortelainen et al. 2013, Lundin et al. 2015). However, when the global lakes were 548 considered, such as including the tropical and temperate lakes, there were 549 nonsignificant latitudinal trends for the carbon balance ratios (Fig. 3d). These results 550 collectively suggest that in addition to climate variables, local factors such as the 551 specific ecological and environmental conditions unique to each region could also be 552 crucial drivers of carbon sink-source balance. It should be noted that the heterogeneity 553 of data sources for organic carbon burial and CO₂ emissions may contribute to the 554 nonsignificant latitudinal trends for the carbon balance ratios. The integration of a 555 more comprehensive assessment of lake carbon burial and emissions, along with 556 increased spatial and temporal coverage, is thus encouraged in future studies to 557 enhance our understanding of carbon sink-source balance.

558 The effects of lake trophic state and climate on organic carbon sink dynamics

559 Organic carbon burial in lake sediments is generally controlled by three primary 560 processes: autochthonous production, inputs of allochthonous carbon from the 561 catchments and mineralization in both the water column and sediments (Cole et al. 562 2007). Across the global lakes, we find that the increased ratios in organic carbon 563 burial were directly attributed to the increase in autochthonous production and 564 indirectly influenced by the transport and subsequent accumulation of terrestrial 565 organic matter to lake sediments.

566 Our results firstly indicate that the increased ratios of organic carbon burial rates were primarily driven by lake trophic state during the Anthropocene. This is 567 568 supported by the positive relationships between organic carbon burial ratios and lake 569 total phosphorus and chlorophyll a (Figs. 4a, S5a). It should be noted that carbon 570 burial rates, rather than carbon burial ratios, are the focus in previous studies, but are 571 also shown to be influenced by lake trophic state. For instance, the recent 10-year 572 carbon burial rates and the mean burial rates during the period 1950-1990 were 573 primary driven by cultural eutrophication, i.e., total phosphorus, in European 574 mesotrophic to eutrophic lakes (Anderson et al. 2014). The lake carbon burial rates 575 for post-1950 were positively correlated with in-lake total phosphorus in Yunnan-576 Guizhou Plateau while with the total nitrogen in East Plain in China (Wang et al. 577 2018). Such effects of nutrients on carbon burial rates could be attributed to the 578 enhanced autochthonous organic matter production due to the continuous increase of 579 in-lake total phosphorus and the total nitrogen concentration and subsequent 580 sedimentation (Pacheco et al. 2014). Collectively, we show here that lake trophic state 581 could influence not only carbon burial rates but also the organic carbon burial changes 582 since 1900, which is especially true regarding chlorophyll a (Figs. 4a, 5a), and 583 indicates that lakes with higher trophic states would have higher organic carbon burial 584 increases.

Secondly, the organic carbon burial ratios in lake sediments are also affected by the intensification of agricultural activities, such as fertilizer use in the lake catchment (Fig. 4a). This suggests that organic carbon burial ratios were not only a function of in-lake nutrient availability and primary productivity, but also affected by inputs of terrestrial carbon (Quinton et al. 2010). For instance, the lakes eutrophicated with fertile agricultural catchments accumulate more organic carbon than those in undeveloped catchments (Downing et al. 2008). The modern organic carbon burial 592 rates in Minnesotan lakes are primarily controlled by the intensification of agriculture 593 in the catchment, but not climate (Anderson et al. 2013). Moreover, the increase in 594 organic carbon burial rates observed at many lakes since the 1950s can be attributed 595 to the increasing extent of arable land in lake catchments (Dong et al. 2012). Intensive 596 agriculture is the main source of soil erosion with consequent transport of sediments, 597 terrestrial organic carbon, and nutrients to inland waters (Quinton et al. 2010). This 598 may therefore enhance organic carbon burial both directly through the high delivery 599 and effective preservation of terrestrially derived organic carbon, and indirectly 600 though nutrient enrichment (eutrophication) by stimulating aquatic productivity and 601 thus the sedimentation of aquatic organic carbon (Heathcote and Downing 2012, 602 Anderson et al. 2013, Pacheco et al. 2014). In contrast, the normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI) in the lake catchment displayed a distinct negative 603 604 relationship with organic carbon burial ratios (Fig. S5a). This may be explained by the 605 fact that extensive vegetation cover could reduce soil erosion and consequently 606 decrease the amount of carbon eroded from the soil and delivered to aquatic 607 ecosystems (Woo and Luk 1990). Moreover, the introduction and mixing of fresh 608 organic matter into the lakes could stimulate microbial activity and facilitate the 609 metabolism of more recalcitrant carbon via the priming effect (Fontaine et al. 2007, 610 Doetterl et al. 2015, Doetterl et al. 2016), that is, labile dissolved organic carbon 611 could stimulate decomposition of more refractory organic matter (Guenet et al. 2010). 612 These effects may jointly reduce organic carbon burial in lake sediments, thus 613 offsetting, to some extent, the effects of fertilizer use.

614 Finally, lake organic carbon burial ratios were also positively affected by 615 climate variables, such as mean annual temperature. This is consistent with previous 616 reports that the temperature at the regional scale exerts a weak but positive impact on 617 lake organic carbon burial (Heathcote et al. 2015), although warmer water 618 temperatures could lead to more mineralization and less organic carbon burial as 619 suggested by experimental incubations of boreal lake sediments (Gudasz et al. 2010). 620 Temperature increase may result in enhanced aquatic primary productivity and 621 increase the amount of organic carbon produced within lakes' basins (Maavara et al. 622 2017, Woods et al. 2020). Moreover, climate warming could exhibit stronger effect by 623 disrupting catchment hydrological budgets and, consequently, affecting the delivery of 624 both terrestrial carbon and nutrients to lakes (Weyhenmeyer and Karlsson 2009, Clark 625 et al. 2010). However, lake organic carbon burial ratios were negatively affected by

lake morphometry, which is supported by the negative relationships between organic
carbon burial ratios and lake maximum depth (Figs. 4a). This is consistent with the
fact that shallower lakes could have greater burial efficiency at temperate and high
latitudes (Alin and Johnson 2007).

630

631 The effects of lake catchment properties and climate on carbon sink-source

632 balance

The carbon sink-source balance was primarily affected by lake catchment 633 634 properties and climate variables. Since the carbon sink-source balance is quantified 635 based on the comparison of organic carbon burial to CO₂ emissions, lake catchment 636 properties and climate variables could influence the balance by affecting both organic carbon burial and CO₂ emissions. The application of nitrogen and phosphorus 637 638 fertilizers could result in regional differences in nutrient availability, which appear to 639 have influences on the carbon sink-source balance, as higher nutrient levels generally 640 stimulate CO₂ fixation and net ecosystem production (Lundin et al. 2015). This would 641 lead to a decrease in net CO_2 evasion and an increase in carbon accumulation in 642 sediments (Kortelainen et al. 2013), thereby increasing carbon balance ratios. For 643 instance, carbon accumulation has been shown to be very rapid, whereas pH is 644 generally high resulting in relatively small CO₂ evasion in heavily loaded agricultural lakes (Downing et al. 2008, Balmer and Downing 2011). In addition, nitrogen 645 646 fertilizer use may influence the carbon sink-source balance by increasing nitrogen 647 deposition in lake sediments, as sediment nitrogen pool is positively linked to carbon 648 accumulation/evasion ratio in boreal lakes (Kortelainen et al. 2013).

649 Climate variables, including temperature and precipitation, are also crucial 650 variables that influence the carbon sink-source balance. Temperature could affect both 651 the mineralization and burial of carbon by influencing aquatic respiration and primary 652 production (Velthuis et al. 2018). Increasing temperature could stimulate algal growth 653 and lead to the increase of primary production, thereby promoting the organic carbon 654 burial in lake sediment (Heathcote and Downing 2012). It could also accelerate 655 heterotrophic respiration rates, increase CO₂ emissions, and decrease the burial 656 efficiency of organic matter after sedimentation (Gudasz et al. 2010). The differential 657 temperature dependence of photosynthesis and respiration may lead to the positive 658 relationship between carbon balance ratios and mean annual temperature in our study 659 (Fig. 4b). Temperature and precipitation also have an indirect effect on lake's carbon 660 cycle through their influence on terrestrial carbon fixation and the subsequent carbon 661 leaching to the lake (Sobek et al. 2005). For instance, precipitation could increase 662 terrestrial inputs of nutrients and organic matter (Greaver et al. 2016) that may further 663 promote lake production, thus leading to an increase in carbon burial and a decrease 664 CO₂ emission.

665

666 Implications

Several studies have linked development, land clearing, and the intensification 667 668 of agriculture to increased soil erosion and transport of sediment, organic carbon, and nutrients to receiving water bodies (Anderson et al. 2013, Anderson et al. 2014). The 669 670 nutrient transfer from land to surface waters will maintain elevated levels of lake productivity and carbon burial in the short term (Smith et al. 1999). As a result of 671 672 these activities, organic carbon burial rates in lakes have increased on average 2.44 times during the Anthropocene, reflecting stimulation of autochthonous production by 673 674 eutrophication and enhanced allochthonous inputs related to erosion and 675 sedimentation (Alin and Johnson 2007). While rates of land-cover conversion have 676 slowed in temperate regions, intensification of agriculture in less developed regions 677 will continue to meet future food demands (Downing et al. 2006). These changes in 678 cultural practices have caused substantial alterations to the global carbon cycle, with 679 intensification of agriculture, soil erosion, and sedimentation contributing to a 680 stronger aquatic carbon sink.

681 Climate change could alter lake primary production and stimulate CO₂ fixation, 682 but it also may cause an increase in organic carbon mineralization rates. Meanwhile, 683 warming trends may facilitate agricultural expansion within the high latitude regions, 684 with associated impacts on lake carbon sink-source balances. High latitude regions are 685 of special interest in a future climate warming scenario, as the surface air temperature 686 increase is predicted to be amplified towards northern high latitudes (Serreze and 687 Francis 2006), which would lead to strongly enhanced lake organic carbon burial. 688 However, if also taking the higher emissions of CH₄ from lakes and its strong 689 greenhouse forcing potential into account (Bastviken et al. 2011), we suggest that 690 these effects could counteract the potential increased lake carbon sink capacity that 691 potentially follows a warmer climate. A better understanding of interactions between 692 these competing forces, and of linkages between terrestrial and aquatic carbon cycles,

693 is essential for improving global carbon cycle models that are used to project carbon694 budgets into the future.

695

696 Conclusions

697 Lakes play a critical role in the global carbon cycle by burying carbon in sediments and emitting greenhouse gas into the atmosphere. Lakes become 698 699 increasingly important for carbon burial during the Anthropocene, but there has been 700 little consideration of temporal change in organic carbon burial across global lakes. It 701 also remains uncertain how much greenhouse gas emissions could be offset by 702 organic carbon burial. In this study, we developed and applied effect-size metric 703 carbon burial ratio and carbon balance ratio for each lake to quantify the temporal 704 change of lake carbon burial and the balance between organic carbon burial and 705 greenhouse gas emission, and the relative importance of natural and anthropogenic 706 drivers. Our findings indicate that most lakes have consistently increased organic 707 carbon burial during the Anthropocene but still exhibit lower organic carbon burial 708 rates than carbon emission rates, acting as carbon sources rather than carbon sinks in 709 the regional carbon cycling. Moreover, our results demonstrate that the lake trophic 710 state exerts significant control over lake carbon sink dynamics, while lake catchment 711 properties determine carbon sink-sources. These findings highlight the need of 712 climate and anthropogenic-induced changes to be considered as integrated drivers of 713 lake organic carbon burial and greenhouse gas emissions under global change.

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723 Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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728 **Data availability**

The datasets of global lake carbon burial and CO₂ emission rates collected in this study are available in the NODE (https://www.biosino.org/node) with access number OEP004967.

732

733 Author contributions

JW designed the study. FM and HW collected and analyzed the data with
contributions from JW and AH. FM and JW finished the first draft. JW, AH and FM
finalised the manuscript with contributions from KJ, BL, TG, and QW.

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Figure 1. The synthesis of organic carbon burial (a) and greenhouse gas emissions (b) in global lakes based on various literature sources. The inserted text indicates the first author and the publication year of the literature. The studies indicated by * are based on global lakes and reservoirs. The data and corresponding references presented in the figure can be found in Table S3.

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903 Figure 2. The organic carbon burial rates and greenhouse gas emission 904 rates across global lakes (a), computation of carbon burial ratios and carbon 905 balance ratios (b), and hypothesized drivers and their pathways (c). (a) The map 906 of global lakes with organic carbon burial and greenhouse gas emission rates. The 907 color of the points represents lakes with long-term organic carbon burial rates over the 908 past 100-200 years (red) and lakes with pairwise annual CO₂ emissions and short-term 909 organic carbon burial rates during the Anthropocene (blue). (b) Schematic illustration 910 of the quantification of carbon sink dynamics and carbon sink-source balance. (c) 911 Hypothesized drivers and their pathways affecting lake carbon sink dynamics and 912 carbon sink-source balance. Inset figure in (a) shows whittaker biome plot of lake 913 locations, showing the mean annual temperature (MAT, °C) and mean annual 914 precipitation (MAP, cm) for all 423 lakes. The comprehensive lists of collected data 915 for this study are displayed in Table S1 and Table S2.

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917 Figure 3. Geographic patterns of lake organic carbon burial and carbon emissions. (a) Organic carbon burial rates (g C m⁻² yr⁻¹) in lake sediments. Grey: the 918 919 pre-1900 period; Black: the post-1950 period. (b) Carbon burial ratios between the 920 two periods of post-1950 and pre-1900; (c) The pairwise organic carbon burial rates (g C m⁻² yr⁻¹) and greenhouse gas emissions rates (g C m⁻² yr⁻¹). Grey: carbon 921 emission rates; Black: organic carbon burial rates. (d) Carbon balance ratios between 922 923 organic carbon burial rates and carbon emissions rates. Solid lines represent 924 statistically significant linear regression models ($P \le 0.05$) and dashed lines represent 925 nonsignificant linear regression models (P > 0.05).

927 Figure 4. Natural and anthropogenic drivers of organic carbon burial 928 ratios and carbon balance ratios. The relationships between natural and 929 anthropogenic drivers and carbon burial ratios (a) or carbon balance ratios (b) were 930 visualized with linear regression models. MAT, MAP, N fertilizer use, Maximum 931 depth, and Chlorophyll a were selected as representatives of the four environmental 932 groups to investigate the relationship between environmental variables and ratios. The 933 remaining environmental variables presented in Fig. S5. Solid lines represent 934 statistically significant linear regression models ($P \le 0.05$) and dashed lines represent 935 nonsignificant linear regression models (P > 0.05). (a) Carbon burial ratios larger than 936 zero (that is, over the horizontal dashed line) indicate that the organic carbon burial 937 rates increased from pre-1900 to post-1950. (b) Carbon balance ratios with values 938 above zero (that is, over the horizontal dashed line) indicate that organic carbon burial 939 rates were larger than CO₂ emission rates. MAT: Mean annual temperature (°C); MAP: 940 Mean annual precipitation (mm); N fertilizer: Nitrogen fertilizer use (kg/ha); 941 Maximum depth: Lake maximum depth (m); Chlorophyll a: Water Chlorophyll a 942 $(\mu g/L)$.

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Figure 5. Relative importance of predictor variables that influence carbon burial ratios (a) and carbon balance ratios (b) in random forest models. Predictor variables are colored by driver class: climate variables, lake catchment properties, lake morphometry and lake trophic state. MAT: Mean annual temperature ($^{\circ}C$); MAP: Mean annual precipitation (mm); Nfertilizer: Nitrogen fertilizer use (kg/ha); WMD: Lake maximum depth (m); Chla: Water Chlorophyll a (µg/L); TP: Total phosphorus (µg/L).

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952 Figure 6. Structural equation models to explain carbon sink dynamics (a) 953 and carbon sink-source balance (b). The carbon sink dynamics and carbon sink-954 source balance were quantified with carbon burial ratios and carbon balance ratios, 955 respectively. Response variables are displayed within grey boxes and include carbon 956 sink dynamics and carbon sink-source balance. Predictor variables are colored by 957 driver class: climate variables, lake catchment properties, lake morphometry and lake trophic state. R^2 denotes the proportion of variance explained for endogenous 958 959 variables. Arrows between variables represent statistically significant standardized direct effects. Arrow widths and accompanying numbers are the relative effects (that
is, standardized path coefficients) of modeled relationships. Composite and observed
variables are indicated in ovals and rectangles, respectively. More details on the
model fit are summarized in Tables S6, 7.



















