

Version Global oceanic diazotroph database version 2 and elevated estimate of the global oceanic diazotroph database N₂ fixation

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Abstract. Marine diazotrophs convert dinitrogen (N_2) ~~in seawater gas~~ into bioavailable nitrogen (N), ~~contributing approximately half of the external input of bioavailable N to supporting life in the global ocean.~~ ~~A~~ In 2012, the first version of the global oceanic diazotroph database (version 1) was ~~previously published in 2012 (Luo et al., 2012).~~ Here, we ~~compiled~~ present an updated version 2 of the database by adding 23,095 *in situ* measurements of marine diazotrophic abundance and N_2 fixation rates published in the past decade, (version 2), significantly increasing the number of *in situ* diazotrophic measurements from 13,565 to 55,286. Data points for N_2 fixation rates and microscopic and qPCR-based diazotrophic cell abundance, and *nifH* gene copy abundance ~~data~~ have increased by 140%, 26%, 184%, 86%, and 443–809%, respectively. ~~Although~~ Version 2 includes two new datasheets for the updated database expanded spatial coverage considerably, particularly in the Indian Ocean, the data *nifH* gene copy abundance of non-cyanobacterial diazotrophs and cell-specific N_2 fixation rates. ~~The measurements of N_2 fixation rates approximately follow a log-normal distribution was still not uniform and most data were sampled in the surface Pacific and Atlantic Oceans. By summing the arithmetic means of the N_2 fixation rates in each ocean basin, the updated database substantially increased the estimate of~~ in both version 1 and version 2. However, version 2 considerably extends both the left and right tails of the distribution. Consequently, when estimating global oceanic N_2 fixation from $137 \pm 9 \text{ Tg N yr}^{-1}$ rates using the old database to $260 \pm 20 \text{ Tg N yr}^{-1}$ (mean \pm standard error). However, using geometric means instead, the updated database gave an estimate of global oceanic N_2 fixation (60 Tg N yr^{-1} of different ocean basins, version 1) and version 2 yield similar to that estimated from the old database (62 Tg N yr^{-1}), while the new estimate had a larger uncertainty (confidence intervals rates ($43\text{--}57$ versus $45\text{--}63 \text{ Tg N yr}^{-1}$; ranges based on one geometric standard error). In contrast, when using arithmetic means, version 2 suggests a significantly higher rate of $223 \pm 30 \text{ Tg N yr}^{-1}$ (mean \pm standard error: $47\text{--}107$; same hereafter) compared to version 1 ($74 \pm 7 \text{ Tg N yr}^{-1}$). Specifically, substantial rate increases are estimated for the South Pacific Ocean (88 ± 23 versus $20 \pm 2 \text{ Tg N yr}^{-1}$), primarily driven by measurements in the southwestern subtropic, and the North Atlantic Ocean (40 ± 9 versus $10 \pm 2 \text{ Tg N yr}^{-1}$). Moreover, version 2 estimates the N_2 fixation rate in the Indian Ocean to be $35 \pm 14 \text{ Tg N yr}^{-1}$ versus $52\text{--}73 \text{ Tg N yr}^{-1}$), mostly attributable to elevated uncertainties in the Pacific Ocean. An analysis comparing, which could not be estimated using version 1 due to limited data availability. Furthermore, a comparison of N_2 fixation rates measured obtained through different measurement methods at the same months and location ($1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ grids) showed that the new $^{15}N_2$ dissolution method obtained N_2 fixation rates higher than, locations, and depths reveals that the conventional $^{15}N_2$ bubble method yields lower rates in 65% of 69% cases, with this percentage increasing when compared to the N_2 fixation rates were high ($>$ approximately $3 \mu\text{mol N m}^{-3} \text{ d}^{-1}$ using the new $^{15}N_2$ dissolution method). With greatly increased data points, this. This updated version 2 of the global oceanic diazotrophic database can support facilitate future studies in marine ecology and biogeochemistry. The database is stored at the Figshare repository (<https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.21677687>), (<https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.21677687>) (Shao et al., 2022).

1 Introduction

Dinitrogen (N₂) fixation is ~~conducted a~~ process carried out by a group of microbes, termed ~~select~~ prokaryotes (diazotrophs, ~~to~~ ~~convert inert~~) capable of converting N₂ ~~gases~~ gas, which is not usable by most organisms, into bioavailable nitrogen (N). In the ~~sunlit surface~~ ocean, where ~~dissolved inorganic forms of N~~ nutrients are largely such as nitrate (NO₃⁻) and ammonium (NH₄⁺) ~~are~~ scarce, N₂ fixation plays an important role in ~~fertilizing~~ providing N that can contribute to primary production, particularly in oligotrophic regions (Gruber et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2019), and balances N loss processes such as ~~(Wang et al., 2019; Gruber, 2008)~~. Globally, N₂ fixation serves to compensate, at least partially, for fixed N removed via denitrification and anammox (Deutsch et al., 2007; Gruber, 2019)(Deutsch et al., 2007; Gruber, 2019).

Marine diazotrophs include three main types of autotrophic cyanobacteria (Zehr, 2011): (1) nonheterocystous filamentous cyanobacteria, *Trichodesmium*; (2) heterocystous cyanobacteria, *Richelia* or *Calothrix*, forming diazotroph-diatom associations (DDAs); and (3) unicellular cyanobacteria (UCYNs).

Diazotrophic abundance can be directly obtained by counting their cells using microscopes or be estimated from their copies of *nifH* using qPCR assays (Church et al., 2005). *NifH* copies have been more frequently measured than microscopic cell counting, particularly in the past decade, and can be more useful when evaluating the abundance of different diazotrophic groups. However, caution must be taken because there are discrepancies between cell count based and *nifH* based diazotrophic abundance (Luo et al., 2012), largely attributed to large variations in the number of *nifH* copies in the genomes of marine diazotrophs, particularly *Trichodesmium* and heterocystous cyanobacteria (Sargent et al., 2016; White et al., 2018).

Considering the key role of N₂ fixation in oceans, a database compiling up to date measurements of N₂ fixation and diazotrophic abundances is essential in studying marine ecology and biogeochemistry. For example, the estimated global marine N₂ fixation rate ranges from 15 to 238 Tg N yr⁻¹ using different methods (Zehr and Capone, 2021), which is commonly thought to be much lower than the estimated nitrogen loss (126—481 Tg N yr⁻¹) from denitrification and anammox. Marine diazotrophs include three main types of cyanobacteria (Zehr, 2011): (1) nonheterocystous filamentous cyanobacteria (e.g., *Trichodesmium*); (2) heterocystous cyanobacteria like *Richelia*, which may form diatom-diazotroph associations (DDAs); and (3) unicellular cyanobacteria (UCYNs). Non-cyanobacterial diazotrophs (NCDs) have also been widely detected in the ocean (Bombar et al., 2016; Delmont et al., 2021; Moisaner et al., 2017). However, the contribution of NCDs to marine N₂ fixation has not been directly quantified, despite a few studies that have reported N₂ fixation by putative NCDs at the cellular level (Harding et al., 2022; Bentzon-Tilia et al., 2015a).

Diazotroph abundance has been estimated from *nifH* gene copies using qPCR assays (Church et al., 2005b) or droplet digital PCR (ddPCR) (Gradoville et al., 2017). The abundance of some cyanobacterial diazotrophs can also be obtained by counting them directly using microscopy-based techniques and in some cases flow cytometry. A recent work combined an image recognition pipeline with molecular mapping of the *nifH* gene to quantify diazotrophs in the Tara Oceans dataset (Karlusich et al. 2021). *NifH* gene copies have been more frequently measured than microscopy-based cell counts and can be more useful when evaluating the abundance of different diazotrophic groups. Caution must be taken because there can be

discrepancies between cell-count-based and *nifH*-based diazotrophic abundances (Zehr and Capone, 2020; GruberLuo et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 20202012). One possible reason for this imbalance is inaccurate estimation of global marine N₂ fixation due to limited spatio-temporal coverage of measurements and questionable N₂ fixation assays (White et al., 2020).

, a finding largely attributed to large variations in the number of *nifH* copies per diazotroph cell, thus far observed particularly in *Trichodesmium* and heterocystous cyanobacteria (Sargent et al., 2016; White et al., 2018; Karlusich et al., 2021). However, a recent regional study spanning over 200 km in the North Pacific Subtropical Gyre has found a statistically significant linear correlation between the abundances of the *nifH* gene and cell counts in the UCYN-B (i.e., *Crocospaera*) (linear slope = 1.82) and heterocystous cyanobacteria (*Richelia* and *Calothrix*; linear slope from 1.51-2.58) but not in *Trichodesmium* (Gradoville et al., 2022). A recent discussion highlighted the influence of the uncertainty in gene copy conversion to biomass and the need for further investigations on how to best take advantage of gene copy data for global diazotroph biogeography modelling purposes (Meiler et al., 2022; Zehr and Riemann, 2023); however, there is an agreement that quantifying gene counts is a powerful tool for studying marine diazotroph distributions (Meiler et al., 2023; Zehr and Riemann, 2023). Meiler et al., (2023) proposed a number of topics of study for this field moving forward; Gradoville et al. (2022) concluded that “we hope that future studies report *nifH*:cell and explore the mechanisms controlling this ratio.” Both gene based and microscopy cell counts have innate biases, which should be elucidated in future studies.

Given the importance of N₂ fixation to ocean ecology and biogeochemistry, it is imperative that a database of up-to-date N₂ fixation and diazotrophic abundance measurements be maintained. Currently, global estimates of marine fixed N inputs via N₂ fixation rate mostly ranges from 100 to 170 Tg N yr⁻¹ (see summary in Zhang et al., 2020). This value, together with other bioavailable N sources to the ocean including riverine input and atmospheric deposition, is considerably lower than estimates of N losses from the ocean such as denitrification, anammox and sediment burial (Zhang et al., 2020; Gruber, 2008; Zehr and Capone, 2021). While the overestimation of the N losses cannot be ruled out, one of possible reasons for this imbalance is the inaccurate estimation of global marine N₂ fixation due to limited spatio-temporal coverage of rate measurements and the different methods employed in N₂ fixation assays (White et al., 2020). Another possible reason is the limited knowledge of ecological niches of N₂ fixing organisms. Over the last decade, the realm of marine N₂ fixation has been expanded to include numerous non-paradigmatic habitats. Coastal (Mulholland et al., 2012; Bentzon-Tilia et al., 2015b; Mulholland et al., 2019; Tang et al., 2020; Turk-Kubo et al., 2021), subpolar (Sato et al., 2021; Shiozaki et al., 2018c), and even polar ocean regions (Blais et al., 2012; Sipler et al., 2017; Harding et al., 2018; Shiozaki et al., 2020) have demonstrated N₂ fixation. Notably, N₂ fixation in aphotic waters remains debated (Bonnet et al., 2013; Farnelid et al., 2013; Selden et al., 2021a; Rahav et al., 2013b; Hamersley et al., 2011; Benavides et al., 2018a; Moisander et al., 2017). Other studies have also suggested that NCDs may be significant contributors to marine N₂ fixation (Shiozaki et al., 2014b; Turk-Kubo et al., 2022; Geisler et al., 2020; Delmont et al., 2021; Karlusich et al., 2021; Bombar et al., 2016; Moisander et al., 2017) and may occupy different niches from cyanobacterial diazotrophs (Shao and Luo, 2022).

Luo et al. (2012) compiled the first global oceanic diazotrophic database including *in situ* measurements of N₂ fixation rates and cell-count-based and *nifH*-based diazotrophic abundance. In the past decade, many more measurements have been

reported, extending diazotrophic activities to new habitats such as subpolar (Sato et al., 2021; Shiozaki et al., 2018b) and even polar regions (Shiozaki et al., 2020; Harding et al., 2018). Several years ago later, two studies supplemented the database with a collection of some newly measured reported diazotrophic data (Tang and Cassar, 2019; Tang et al., 2019) (Tang and Cassar, 2019; Tang et al., 2019), although a substantial amount of additional data still needed remained to be included.

Here, we present an updated version of the global oceanic diazotrophic database with data not yet compiled. We describe the database information, a summary of the data updates, measurement methods and data distribution. Furthermore, we conduct a first-order estimation of the global oceanic N₂ fixation rate using the updated version of the database. We also analyzed the discrepancy in light of the aforementioned concerns of *nifH*:cell and various N₂ fixation assays and the relationship methods (see Section 2.3), we also discuss the significance of employing different methodological approaches to estimate N₂ fixation rates and abundance metrics. We use the data available in the database to analyze the discrepancies between N₂ fixation rates using ¹⁵N₂ bubble and dissolution methods, and compare the observed ranges of *nifH* gene copies and diazotrophic cell abundance based on the existing data.

2 Data and methods

2.1 Database summary

This study updated the original global oceanic diazotrophic database of Luo et al. (2012) (version 1 hereafter) with new *in situ* measurements of N₂ fixation rates and abundances of diazotrophic cells and *nifH* gene copies. There were 55,286 diazotrophic data points in the updated database (version 2) included 23,095 new data points, including 6,902 hereafter (Tables 1–3), including 13,565 data points from version 1 (Luo et al., 2012), 6,736 measured in 2012–2018 and collected compiled by two previous studies (Tang et al., 2019; Tang and Cassar, 2019) and 16,193 (Tang et al., 2019; Tang and Cassar, 2019), 26,597 data points measured in 2012–2023 and collected compiled by this study (Table 1), and 8,388 NCD data mostly from Turk-Kubo et al. (2022) (see below). In version 2 of the database, some errors in the datasets of Tang et al. (2019) (Tang et al. (2019) (mostly caused by unit conversions) were also corrected.

Version 2 of the database is composed of six main sub-databases: (1) 7,515,231 volumetric N₂ fixation rates (4,200,853 new data points) (Tables 1 & 4); (2) 2,248,590 depth-integrated N₂ fixation rates (1,497 new data points) (Tables 1 & 2); (3) 6,016 volumetric cell counts (1,130,805 new data points) (Tables 1 & 4); (3); (4) 1,291 depth-integrated 9,040 volumetric cell counts (360 abundances (4,154 new data points) (Tables 1 & 3); (5) 17,143 & 5); (4) 1,784 depth-integrated cell abundances (859 new data points) (Tables 2 & 5); (5) 29,655 volumetric *nifH* copies (13,994 new data points) (Tables 1 & 4); and (6) 2,356 depth-integrated *nifH* copies (1,914 gene copy abundances (26,506 new data points) (Tables 1 & 43 & 6); and (6) 2,986 depth-integrated *nifH* gene copy abundances (2,544 new data points) (Tables 3 & 6). Please be aware that 2,416 N₂ fixation rates were measured with incubation periods less than 24 hours; they were listed in separate spreadsheets in the database for reasons discussed in Section 2.3. Additionally we included a compiled NCD dataset (Turk-Kubo et al., 2022) in the database, which contained 7,919 *nifH* gene copy abundances of primarily the most studied phylotype

235 [NCD Gamma A \(Shao and Luo, 2022; Langlois et al., 2015\)](#), also referred to as [24774A11 \(Moisander et al., 2012\)](#) and [UMB \(Bird et al., 2005\)](#), as well as other phylotypes, and updated that compilation with 469 additional *nifH* gene copy abundances of NCDs published more recently ([Turk-Kubo et al., 2021](#); [Sato et al., 2022](#); [Moore et al., 2018](#); [Reeder et al., 2022](#); [Wen et al., 2022](#); [Bonnet et al., 2023](#)). We also collected 468 cell-specific *in situ* N₂ fixation rates and added them to version 2 (**Table 7**).

240 ~~More recently, a unique group of non-cyanobacterial diazotrophs (NCDs) carrying *nifH* (gene encoding N₂-fixing enzyme, nitrogenase) has been widely found (Moisander et al., 2017; Zehr et al., 1995; Zehr, 1998), although direct evidence of N₂ fixation by NCDs is still limited (Harding et al., 2022). We therefore did not include NCD data in our database, while those who would be interested can use two recently published NCD datasets (Shao and Luo, 2022; Turk-Kubo et al., 2022).~~

~~— Depth-integrated data were either provided directly in published papers or calculated for those vertical profiles with at least 3 volumetric data points in each profile. A profile was integrated from the sea surface to the depth of the deepest datum, while using the value of the shallowest datum to represent the level in the upper layer. We ignored those rates of N₂ fixation deeper than 200 m when calculating depth integrals, because they often had low vertical resolutions.~~

245 ~~As in the original database, the data in version 2 were grouped into three taxonomic categories: *Trichodesmium*, UCYN and heterocystous cyanobacteria. The UCYN abundance data were further grouped into UCYN-A, UCYN-B, and UCYN-C, and the heterocystous cyanobacterial abundance was grouped into *Richelia* and *Calothrix*. N₂ fixation rates were measured for size groups or in whole seawater samples.~~

250 ~~Depth-integrated data were either provided directly in published papers or calculated as part of this study for those vertical profiles with at least 3 volumetric data points in each profile. The measurements within a profile were first interpolated linearly with depth, with the shallowest datum representing the level between the sea surface and the depth of that datum. The profile was then integrated from the sea surface to the deepest recorded measurement. Most vertical profiles of N₂ fixation rates were measured within the euphotic zone, with a few studies extending measurements to several hundred meters or deeper. In these cases, we only integrated to the deepest data point above 200 m, taking into account the scarcity of aphotic N₂ fixation measurements in the global ocean and their controversial contribution to the global budget (Benavides et al., 2018a). As a result, it was possible that certain measurements below the euphotic zone but above 200 m were included in the integration. However, these measurements would typically have minimal impact on the depth-integrated N₂ fixation rates due to their low rates and limited vertical extent in this range.~~

255 ~~N₂ fixation rates were measured for whole seawater samples, for different size fractions (> 10 μm and < 10 μm), or specifically for *Trichodesmium* and heterocystous cyanobacteria. When whole-water N₂ fixation rates were not reported, total N₂ fixation rates were calculated as the sum of the N₂ fixation rates of different available groups.~~

260 ~~The cyanobacterial diazotrophic abundance data in version 2 were grouped into three taxonomic categories: *Trichodesmium*, UCYN, and heterocystous cyanobacteria. The UCYN abundance data were further grouped into UCYN-A, UCYN-B, and UCYN-C. Four sublineages of UCYN-A, including UCYN-A1, UCYN-A2, UCYN-A3, and UCYN-A4, have been identified (Thompson et al., 2014; Farnelid et al., 2016). UCYN-A1 and UCYN-A2 have significant distinctions in the sizes and species of their symbiotic hosts, with the former living in relatively smaller hosts (Thompson et al., 2014; Martínez-~~

270 [Pérez et al., 2016; Cornejo-Castillo et al., 2016](#)). Hence, in addition to recording the total *nifH* gene copy abundance of UCYN-
A in our database, the *nifH* gene copy abundances of its sublineages were also included if reported. Heterocystous
cyanobacterial abundance was grouped into *Richelia intracellularis* (het-1 and het-2, associated with *Hemiaulus* and
Rhizosolenia, respectively) and *Richelia rhizosoleniae* (het-3, named *Calothrix* sp. before, associated with *Chaetoceros*)
(Foster et al., 2022b).

275 Sampling information (latitude, longitude, depth and time) was provided for each data point. Physical, chemical and
biological parameters, including temperature, salinity, and concentrations of nitrate, phosphate, iron and chlorophyll *a*, were
also included when ~~they were~~ available.

Table 1. Summary of number of data points for N₂ fixation rates, cell-count-based abundance and *nifH*-based abundance, by category. Measurements with incubation periods of 24 hours or of shorter than 24 hours are summarized separately.

-	Original database		New data added in <u>Version version 2</u>			Sumsum		
			Tang et al., 2019	<u>Tang & Cassar, 2019</u>	This study			
Volumetric N₂ fixation rate								
	<u>24 h</u>	<u>< 24 h</u>	<u>24 h</u>	<u>< 24 h</u>	<u>24 h</u>	<u>< 24 h</u>	<u>24 h</u>	<u>< 24 h</u>
<i>Trichodesmium</i>	<u>689</u>	<u>145677</u>		<u>83</u>	<u>9176</u>		<u>6</u>	<u>677</u>
UCYN	<u>275</u>		<u>124</u>					<u>399</u>
Heterocystous	<u>205</u>	<u>30185</u>		<u>83</u>	<u>318</u>			<u>185</u>
<u>< 10 μm</u>	<u>228</u>	<u>28</u>	<u>75</u>		<u>265</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>568</u>	<u>34</u>
<u>> 10 μm</u>	<u>54</u>	<u>36</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>21</u>	<u>51</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>114</u>	<u>63</u>
Whole seawater	<u>2,146</u> <u>1,743</u>	<u>427</u>	<u>1,32</u> <u>2169</u>	<u>171</u>	<u>2,413</u> <u>3,782</u>	<u>5,881</u> <u>92</u>	<u>6,694</u>	<u>890</u>
Total	<u>3,315</u> <u>2,025</u>	<u>1,621353</u>	<u>1,25</u> <u>3</u>	<u>2,579192</u>	<u>4,104</u>	<u>304</u>	<u>7,515</u> <u>382</u>	<u>1,849</u>
Proportion in <u>version 2</u>	<u>48.1</u> <u>1.9%</u>	<u>214.6%</u>	<u>13.6</u> <u>%</u>	<u>2.1%</u>	<u>44.5</u> <u>%</u>	<u>343.3</u> <u>%</u>		
Depth-integrated N₂ fixation rate								
	<u>24 h</u>	<u>< 24 h</u>	<u>24 h</u>	<u>< 24 h</u>	<u>24 h</u>	<u>< 24 h</u>	<u>24 h</u>	<u>< 24 h</u>
<i>Trichodesmium</i>	<u>28040</u>	<u>89206</u>	<u>81</u>	<u>458</u>	<u>414</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>121</u>	<u>223</u>
UCYN	<u>46</u>		<u>18</u>				<u>1</u>	<u>65</u>
Heterocystous	<u>1</u>	<u>65</u>	<u>9280</u>	<u>12</u>	<u>20</u>	<u>177</u>	<u>81</u>	<u>77</u>
<u>< 10 μm</u>	<u>28</u>	<u>18</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>12</u>	<u>21</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>56</u>	<u>32</u>
<u>> 10 μm</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>32</u>			<u>21</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>24</u>	<u>34</u>
Whole seawater	<u>36028</u> <u>5</u>	<u>544107</u>	<u>500</u>	<u>70253</u>	<u>16069</u> <u>56</u>	<u>41</u>	<u>1,741</u>	<u>201</u>
Total	<u>751</u>		<u>743</u>				<u>768</u>	<u>2262</u>
Proportion	<u>33.2</u> <u>%</u>		<u>32.8%</u>				<u>34.0%</u>	
Volumetric cell-count-based data								
<i>Trichodesmium</i>	<u>3,274</u>						<u>645</u>	<u>3,919</u>
UCYN							<u>85</u>	<u>85</u>
Heterocystous	<u>1,612</u>						<u>400</u>	<u>2,012</u>
Total	<u>4,886</u>						<u>1,130</u>	<u>6,016</u>
Proportion	<u>81.2</u> <u>%</u>						<u>18.8%</u>	

Depth-integrated cell count-based data

<i>Trichodesmium</i>	626				241	867
UCYN					49	49
Heterocystous	305				100	405
Total	931				360	1,291
Proportion	72.1					
n	%				27.9%	

Volumetric *nifH*-based data

<i>Trichodesmium</i>	758			770	2,382	3,910
UCYN	1,792			2,640	4,822	9,254
Heterocystous	599			505	2,875	3,979
Total	3,149			3915	10,079	17,143
Proportion	18.4					
n	%			22.8%	58.7%	

Depth-integrated *nifH*-based data

<i>Trichodesmium</i>	405			423	297	525
UCYN	263			418	609	1,290
Heterocystous	74			82	385	541
Total	<u>44235</u>	<u>428</u>	<u>6236</u>	<u>1,29185</u>	<u>998</u>	<u>54</u>
Proportion in	<u>7</u>		<u>68</u>		<u>2,356</u>	<u>567</u>
version 2	1813.	16.5%	26.4%	5425.	38.5	2.1%
	8%		8%	3.3%	%	

280 **Table 2.** Summary of number of data points of N₂ fixation rates in version 2 of the database, including whole seawater for diazotrophic cell abundances. UCYNs include UCYN-A, UCYN-B and volumetric measurements for *Trichodesmium*, unicellular unclassified UCYNs. Heterocystous cyanobacteria include Het-1, Het-2 and heterocystous diazotrophs Het-3.

	<u>Original</u>	<u>New data added to</u>	<u>Sum</u>
	<u>database</u>	<u>version 2</u>	
<u>Volumetric cell abundances</u>			
<u><i>Trichodesmium</i></u>	<u>3,274</u>	<u>2,812</u>	<u>6,086</u>
<u>UCYN</u>		<u>139</u>	<u>139</u>
<u>Heterocystous cyanobacteria</u>	<u>1,612</u>	<u>1203</u>	<u>2,815</u>
<u>Total</u>	<u>4,886</u>	<u>4,154</u>	<u>9,040</u>
<u>Proportion in version 2</u>	<u>54.1%</u>	<u>45.9%</u>	
<u>Reference</u>	<u>Region</u>	<u>Tri</u>	<u>U</u>
		<u>cho</u>	<u>He</u>
		<u>ce</u>	<u>ter</u>
			<u>Wh</u>
			<u>ole</u>
Depth-integrated <u>cell abundances</u>			

<i>Trichodesmium</i>	Years	Seawater		
Agawin et al. (2013)	2016	Subtropical Atlantic	21692	17
Ahmed et al. (2017)	UCYN	Arabian Sea	19	5 ^a
Benavides et al. (2013)	Heterocystous	Subtropical North Atlantic	15148	15
Benavides et al. (2016a)		Mediterranean Sea	40	
Benavides et al. (2018a)		Tropical SW Pacific	59	
Benavides et al. (2022)		SW Pacific	38	
Bentzon-Tilia et al. (2015)		Baltic Sea	23	23 ^a
Berthelot et al. (2017)		Tropical W Pacific	48	12 ^a
Bhavya et al. (2016)		Arabian Sea	4	
Biegala and Raimbault (2008)		SW Pacific	9	2
Blais et al. (2012)		Arctic Ocean	18	12
Bombar et al. (2011)		South China Sea	15	
Bombar et al. (2015)		Subtropical North Pacific	20	2
Bonnet et al. (2013)		Tropical SW Pacific		8 ^a
Bonnet et al. (2015)		SW Pacific		30 ^a

Bonnet et al. (2018)	Tropical SW Pacific	102	14
Böttjer et al. (2017)	Subtropical N Pacific	243	108 ^a
Chang et al. (2000)	S East China Sea		7 ^a
Chang et al. (2019)	Tropical SE Pacific	37	
Dekazemaeker et al. (2013)	Tropical SE Pacific	43	10
Fernandez et al. (2015)	Central Chile Upwelling System	84	14 ^a
Fernández-Castro et al. (2015)	Atlantic, Pacific and Indian Oceans		43 ^a
Fonseca-Batista et al. (2017)	E Atlantic	56	14
Fonseca-Batista et al. (2019)	Temperate NE Atlantic	46	10 ^a
Foster et al. (2009)	Red Sea	26	
Gandhi et al. (2011)	E Arabian Sea	28	7 ^a
Garcia et al. (2007)	SW Pacific		1 ^a
González et al. (2014)	Southern Ocean	8	
Gradoville et al. (2020)	N Pacific	20	
Großkopf et al. (2012)	Atlantic Ocean	39	17
Hallstrøm et al. (2022)	NE Atlantic	59	11 ^a

Halm et al. (2012)	S Pacific	43	43		43	10 ^a
Harding et al. (2018)	Arctic Ocean				38	
Hörstmann et al. (2021)	S Indian Ocean; Southern Ocean				13	
Ibello et al. (2010)	Mediterranean Sea				21	7 ^a
Jayakumar et al. (2017)	Tropical NE Pacific				32	7 ^a
Knapp et al. (2016)	Tropical SE Pacific					6 ^a
Konno et al. (2010)	NW Pacific					16 ^a
Kromkamp et al. (1997)	Indian Ocean					4 ^a
Krupke et al. (2013)	Subtropical N Atlantic				3	
Krupke et al. (2014)	N Atlantic	42	42	30	42	44 ^a
Krupke et al. (2015)	Subtropical NE Atlantic				1	
Kumar et al. (2017)	E Arabian Sea				12	3
Kumari et al. (2022)	Bay of Bengal				97	18 ^a
Lee Chen et al. (2014)	South China Sea					24 ^a
Li et al. (2020)	N-South China Sea; East China Sea				68	15 ^a

Liu et al. (2020)	South China Sea	25	5 ^a
Loescher et al. (2014)	Pacific Ocean	30	5 ^a
Loick-Wilde et al. (2015)	Amazon River		36 ^a
Loick-Wilde et al. (2019)	Tropical W Pacific	8	
Lory et al. (2022)	Tropical SW Pacific	5	
Löscher et al. (2016)	Tropical SW Pacific	225	31 ^a
Löscher et al. (2020)	Bay of Bengal	18	
Lu et al. (2018)	Equatori al W Pacific	3	3 ^a
Martínez-Pérez et al. (2016)	Tropical N Atlantic	84	14
Messer et al. (2016)	S Pacific	27	
Mouriño-Carballido et al. (2011)	Atlantic Ocean		20 ^a
Mulholland et al. (2019)	NW Atlantic	402	242 ^a
Needoba et al. (2007)	Temper ate N Pacific	2	1 ^a
Raes et al. (2020)	S Pacific	55	
Rahav et al. (2013a); Rahav et al. (2015)	Red Sea and E Mediterr anean Sea	62	10
Rahav et al. (2013b); Rahav et al. (2013c)	Mediterr anean Sea	8	

Rahav et al. (2016)	Mediterranean Sea			3 ^a
Reeder et al. (2022)	S Baltic Sea		15	5
Riou et al. (2016)	N Atlantic	24	24	6
Sahoo et al. (2021)	Bay of Bengal			6 ^a
Sarma et al. (2020)	Bay of Bengal		2	
Sato et al. (2021)	Subarctic Sea of Japan; Sea of Okhotsk		31	3
Saxena et al. (2020)	Bay of Bengal		32	8
Selden et al. (2019)	Tropical NE Pacific		8	16 ^a
Shiozaki et al. (2013)	W Pacific		50	10
Shiozaki et al. (2014a)	Indian Ocean		42	
Shiozaki et al. (2014b)	SW Pacific		26	6 ^a
Shiozaki et al. (2015a)	NW Pacific		73	11 ^a
Shiozaki et al. (2015b)	N Pacific		112	22 ^a
Shiozaki et al. (2017)	N Pacific		74	15
Shiozaki et al. (2018b)	W Arctic Ocean		84	21 ^a
Shiozaki et al. (2020)	Antarctic Coast		53	15 ^a
Sipler et al. (2017)	Arctic Ocean		8	
Sohm et al. (2011)	S Atlantic		12	3 ^a

Subramaniam et al. (2008)	Tropical N Atlantic					242 ^a
Subramaniam et al. (2013)	Atlantic Ocean			96		24 ^a
Tang et al. (2020)	N Atlantic			15		
Turk-Kubo et al. (2012)	Tropical N Atlantic			27		7
Wang et al. (2021)	NW Atlantic			85		
Wasmund et al. (2015)	S Atlantic					66 ^a
Watkins-Brandt et al. (2011)	N Pacific					1 ^a
Wen et al. (2022)	Tropical NW Pacific			143		22 ^a
White et al. (2018)	Subtropical N Pacific	83	83	62		51 ^a
Wilson et al. (2012)	N Pacific			9		4 ^a
Wilson et al. (2017)	Subtropical N Pacific			33		
Wu et al. (2021)	Eastern Indian Ocean			48		7
Yogev et al. (2011)	E Mediterranean Sea			16		32 ^a
Zhang et al. (2015)	South China Sea			82		11
Zhang et al. (2019)	Tropical NW Pacific			87		9 ^a
Total		<u>925</u>	<u>228859</u>	<u>1241,784</u>	<u>113</u>	<u>3735</u>
<u>Proportion in version 2</u>		<u>51.9%</u>	<u>48.1%</u>			<u>7</u>

Table 3. Summary of number of data points for *nifH* gene copy abundances. UCYNs include UCYN-A1, UCYN-A2, UCYN-B and UCYN-C. Heterocystous cyanobacteria include Het-1, Het-2 and Het-3.

	Original database	New data added to version 2		Sum
		Tang & Cassar, 2019	This study	
<u>Volumetric <i>nifH</i> gene copy abundances</u>				
<i>Trichodesmium</i>	<u>758</u>	<u>770</u>	<u>3,165</u>	<u>4,693</u>
UCYN	<u>1,792</u>	<u>2,640</u>	<u>6,903</u>	<u>11,309</u>
Heterocystous cyanobacteria	<u>599</u>	<u>505</u>	<u>4,135</u>	<u>5,239</u>
NCDs			<u>8,388</u>	<u>8,388</u>
Total	<u>3,149</u>	<u>3915</u>	<u>22,591</u>	<u>29,655</u>
Proportion in version 2	<u>10.6%</u>	<u>13.2%</u>	<u>76.2%</u>	
<u>Depth-integrated <i>nifH</i> gene copy abundances</u>				
<i>Trichodesmium</i>	<u>105</u>	<u>123</u>	<u>408</u>	<u>636</u>
UCYN	<u>263</u>	<u>418</u>	<u>871</u>	<u>1552</u>
Heterocystous	<u>74</u>	<u>82</u>	<u>642</u>	<u>798</u>
Total	<u>442</u>	<u>623</u>	<u>1,921</u>	<u>2,986</u>
Proportion in version 2	<u>14.8%</u>	<u>20.9%</u>	<u>64.3%</u>	

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Table 4. Summary of new data points of N₂ fixation rates added to the version 2 of the database.

Reference	Region	<i>Tricho-</i> <i>desmium</i>	Hetero- cystous	< 10 μ m Diazotrophs	\geq 10 μ m Diazotrophs	Whole Seawater	Depth- integrated data
<u>Part 1. Incubation periods of 24 hours</u>							
<u>Ahmed et al. (2017)</u>	<u>E Arabian Sea</u>					<u>19</u>	<u>5^a</u>
<u>Benavides et al. (2016a)</u>	<u>Mediterranean Sea</u>					<u>10</u>	
<u>Benavides et al. (2018a)</u>	<u>Tropical SW Pacific</u>					<u>59</u>	
<u>Benavides et al. (2022a)</u>	<u>Tropical SW Pacific</u>					<u>38</u>	
<u>Benavides et al. (2017)</u>	<u>SW Pacific</u>					<u>2</u>	
<u>Benavides et al. (2021)</u>	<u>S Pacific</u>					<u>41</u>	
<u>Benavides et al. (2022b)</u>	<u>S Pacific</u>	<u>6</u>				<u>6</u>	<u>2</u>

<u>Reference</u>	<u>Region</u>	<u>Tricho-</u> <u>desmium</u>	<u>Hetero-</u> <u>cystous</u>	<u>< 10 µm</u> <u>Diazotrophs</u>	<u>≥ 10 µm</u> <u>Diazotrophs</u>	<u>Whole</u> <u>Seawater</u>	<u>Depth-</u> <u>integrated</u> <u>data</u>
<u>Bentzon-Tilia et al.</u> <u>(2015b)</u>	<u>Baltic Sea</u>					<u>23</u>	<u>23^a</u>
<u>Berthelot et al. (2017)</u>	<u>Tropical W Pacific</u>					<u>48</u>	<u>12^a</u>
<u>Biegala and Raimbault</u> <u>(2008)</u>	<u>SW Pacific</u>			<u>12</u>	<u>12</u>	<u>12</u>	<u>9</u>
<u>Blais et al. (2012)</u>	<u>Arctic Ocean</u>					<u>18</u>	<u>12</u>
<u>Bombar et al. (2015)</u>	<u>Subtropical N Pacific</u>					<u>20</u>	<u>2</u>
<u>Bonnet et al. (2013)</u>	<u>Tropical SE Pacific</u>						<u>8^a</u>
<u>Bonnet et al. (2018)</u>	<u>Tropical SW Pacific</u>					<u>102</u>	<u>14</u>
<u>Bonnet et al. (2015)</u>	<u>SW Pacific</u>			<u>126</u>		<u>128</u>	<u>30^a</u>
<u>Bonnet et al. (2023)</u>	<u>Subtropical S Pacific</u>					<u>84</u>	<u>14</u>
<u>Böttjer et al. (2017)</u>	<u>Subtropical N Pacific</u>					<u>243</u>	<u>108^a</u>
<u>Cerdan-Garcia et al.</u> <u>(2021)</u>	<u>subtropical N Atlantic</u>					<u>15</u>	
<u>Chang et al. (2019)</u>	<u>Tropical SE Pacific</u>					<u>37</u>	
<u>Chen et al. (2019)</u>	<u>W Pacific Ocean</u>					<u>95</u>	<u>16</u>
<u>Dekaezemacker et al.</u> <u>(2013)</u>	<u>Tropical SE Pacific</u>					<u>43</u>	<u>10</u>
<u>Dugenne et al. (2023)</u>	<u>Subtropical N</u> <u>Pacific</u>					<u>30</u>	<u>5</u>
<u>Fernandez et al. (2015)</u>	<u>Central Chile</u> <u>Upwelling System</u>					<u>55</u>	<u>14^a</u>
<u>Fernández-Castro et al.</u> <u>(2015)</u>	<u>Atlantic, Pacific and</u> <u>Indian Oceans</u>					<u>177</u>	<u>43^a</u>
<u>Fonseca-Batista et al.</u> <u>(2017)</u>	<u>E Atlantic</u>					<u>56</u>	<u>14</u>
<u>Fonseca-Batista et al.</u> <u>(2019)</u>	<u>Temperate NE</u> <u>Atlantic</u>					<u>46</u>	<u>10^a</u>
<u>Foster et al. (2009)</u>	<u>Red Sea</u>					<u>26</u>	
<u>Foster et al. (unpublished</u> <u>data)</u>	<u>E tropical S Pacific</u>					<u>23</u>	<u>5</u>
<u>Garcia et al. (2007)</u>	<u>SW Pacific</u>						<u>1^a</u>
<u>Gradoville et al. (2020)</u>	<u>N Pacific</u>					<u>20</u>	

<u>Reference</u>	<u>Region</u>	<u>Tricho-</u> <u>desmium</u>	<u>Hetero-</u> <u>cystous</u>	<u>< 10 µm</u> <u>Diazotrophs</u>	<u>> 10 µm</u> <u>Diazotrophs</u>	<u>Whole</u> <u>Seawater</u>	<u>Depth-</u> <u>integrated</u> <u>data</u>
Gradoville et al. (2017)	S Pacific; N Pacific					<u>30</u>	<u>5</u>
Großkopf et al. (2012)	Atlantic Ocean					<u>39</u>	<u>17</u>
Hallström et al. (2022)	NE Atlantic					<u>59</u>	<u>11^a</u>
Harding et al. (2018)	Arctic Ocean					<u>38</u>	
Harding et al. (2022)	Subtropical N Pacific					<u>7</u>	
Hörstmann et al. (2021)	S Indian Ocean; Southern Ocean					<u>13</u>	
Ibello et al. (2010)	Mediterranean Sea					<u>21</u>	<u>14^a</u>
Jayakumar et al. (2017)	Tropical NE Pacific					<u>32</u>	<u>7</u>
Jiang et al. (2023)	East China Sea and Southern Yellow Sea					<u>97</u>	<u>29^a</u>
Kittu et al. (2023)	Tropical SE Pacific					<u>103</u>	<u>21</u>
Knapp et al. (2016)	Tropical SE Pacific						<u>6^a</u>
Konno et al. (2010)	NW Pacific						<u>16^a</u>
Krupke et al. (2015)	Subtropical NE Atlantic					<u>1</u>	
Kumari et al. (2022)	Bay of Bengal					<u>97</u>	<u>18^a</u>
Landou et al. (2023)	Red Sea					<u>72</u>	<u>22^a</u>
Li et al. (2020)	N South China Sea; East China Sea					<u>68</u>	<u>15^a</u>
Liu et al. (2020)	South China Sea					<u>25</u>	<u>5^a</u>
Loescher et al. (2014)	Tropical SE Pacific					<u>30</u>	<u>5^a</u>
Loick-Wilde et al. (2015)	Amazon River						<u>54^a</u>
Loick-Wilde et al. (2019)	Tropical W Pacific					<u>8</u>	
Lory et al. (2022)	Tropical SE Pacific					<u>5</u>	
Löscher et al. (2016)	Tropical SW Pacific					<u>225</u>	<u>31+4^a</u>
Löscher et al. (2020)	Bay of Bengal					<u>18</u>	
Lu et al. (2018)	Equatorial W Pacific					<u>3</u>	<u>3^a</u>
Martínez-Pérez et al. (2016)	Tropical N Atlantic					<u>84</u>	<u>14</u>
Messer et al. (2016)	S Pacific					<u>27</u>	
Messer et al. (2021)	S Australian Gulf System			<u>10</u>		<u>10</u>	

<u>Reference</u>	<u>Region</u>	<u>Tricho-</u> <u>desmium</u>	<u>Hetero-</u> <u>cystous</u>	<u>< 10 µm</u> <u>Diazotrophs</u>	<u>> 10 µm</u> <u>Diazotrophs</u>	<u>Whole</u> <u>Seawater</u>	<u>Depth-</u> <u>integrated</u> <u>data</u>
<u>Mills et al. (2020)</u>	<u>California Current</u> <u>System</u>					<u>4</u>	
<u>Moreira-Coello et al.</u> <u>(2017)</u>	<u>the coastal NW Iberian</u> <u>upwelling</u>			<u>30</u>			<u>10^a</u>
<u>Mulholland et al. (2019)</u>	<u>NW Atlantic</u>					<u>402</u>	<u>242^a</u>
<u>Needoba et al. (2007)</u>	<u>Temperate N Pacific</u>					<u>2</u>	
<u>Palter et al. (2020)</u>	<u>Gulf stream</u>					<u>7</u>	
<u>Raes et al. (2014)</u>	<u>E Indian</u>					<u>31</u>	
<u>Raes et al. (2020)</u>	<u>S Pacific</u>					<u>118</u>	
<u>Rahav et al. (2013b):</u> <u>Rahav et al. (2015)</u>	<u>Red Sea and E</u> <u>Mediterranean Sea</u>					<u>62</u>	<u>10</u>
<u>Rahav et al. (2013a)</u>	<u>Mediterranean Sea</u>					<u>8</u>	
<u>Rahav et al. (2016)</u>	<u>Mediterranean Sea</u>						<u>3^a</u>
<u>Reeder et al. (2022)</u>	<u>S Baltic Sea</u>					<u>15</u>	<u>5</u>
<u>Riou et al. (2016)</u>	<u>N Atlantic</u>					<u>24</u>	<u>6</u>
<u>Sarma et al. (2020)</u>	<u>Bay of Bengal</u>					<u>2</u>	
<u>Sato et al. (2021)</u>	<u>Subarctic Sea of</u> <u>Japan; Sea of Okhotsk</u>					<u>31</u>	<u>3</u>
<u>Sato et al. (2022)</u>	<u>E Indian</u>					<u>73</u>	<u>18^a</u>
<u>Saulia et al. (2020)</u>	<u>Tropical SW Pacific</u>					<u>71</u>	<u>71^a</u>
<u>Selden et al. (2019)</u>	<u>Tropical NE Pacific</u>					<u>8</u>	<u>16^a</u>
<u>Selden et al. (2021b)</u>	<u>NW Atlantic</u>					<u>93</u>	<u>26^a</u>
<u>Selden et al. (2021a)</u>	<u>Tropical SE Pacific</u>					<u>125</u>	<u>19</u>
<u>Shiozaki et al. (2013)</u>	<u>W Pacific</u>					<u>50</u>	<u>10</u>
<u>Shiozaki et al. (2014a)</u>	<u>SW Pacific</u>			<u>40</u>		<u>42</u>	
<u>Shiozaki et al. (2014b)</u>	<u>Indian Ocean</u>			<u>26</u>		<u>26</u>	<u>6^a</u>
<u>Shiozaki et al. (2015a)</u>	<u>NW Pacific</u>					<u>73</u>	<u>11</u>
<u>Shiozaki et al. (2015b)</u>	<u>N Pacific</u>					<u>112</u>	<u>22^a</u>
<u>Shiozaki et al. (2017)</u>	<u>N Pacific</u>					<u>74</u>	<u>15^a</u>
<u>Shiozaki et al. (2018b)</u>	<u>W Arctic</u>					<u>84</u>	<u>21^a</u>
<u>Shiozaki et al. (2018c)</u>	<u>S Pacific</u>					<u>65</u>	<u>15^a</u>
<u>Shiozaki et al. (2020)</u>	<u>Antarctic Coast</u>					<u>53</u>	<u>15</u>
<u>Singh et al. (2017)</u>	<u>Tropical NE Atlantic</u>					<u>52</u>	<u>13</u>

<u>Reference</u>	<u>Region</u>	<u>Tricho-</u> <u>desmium</u>	<u>Hetero-</u> <u>cystous</u>	<u>< 10 µm</u> <u>Diazotrophs</u>	<u>> 10 µm</u> <u>Diazotrophs</u>	<u>Whole</u> <u>Seawater</u>	<u>Depth-</u> <u>integrated</u> <u>data</u>
Sipler et al. (2017)	Arctic Ocean					<u>8</u>	
Sohm et al. (2011)	S Atlantic					<u>12</u>	<u>3^a</u>
Subramaniam et al. (2008)	Tropical N Atlantic						<u>242^a</u>
Subramaniam et al. (2013)	Atlantic Ocean					<u>96</u>	<u>24^a</u>
Tang et al. (2020)	N Atlantic					<u>15</u>	
Turk-Kubo et al. (2012)	Tropical N Atlantic			<u>27</u>			<u>7</u>
Turk-Kubo et al. (2021)	Southern California Current System			<u>21</u>		<u>64</u>	<u>14</u>
Wasmund et al. (2015)	S Atlantic						<u>66^a</u>
Watkins-Brandt et al. (2011)	N Pacific						<u>1^a</u>
Wen et al. (2022)	Tropical NW Pacific					<u>143</u>	<u>22^a</u>
White et al. (2018)	Subtropical N Pacific					<u>43</u>	<u>13^a</u>
Wilson et al. (2012)	N Pacific					<u>9</u>	<u>4^a</u>
Wilson et al. (2017)	Subtropical N Pacific					<u>33</u>	
Wu et al. (2021)	Eastern Indian Ocean			<u>48</u>	<u>48</u>	<u>48</u>	<u>7</u>
Yogev et al. (2011)^b	E Mediterranean Sea					<u>16</u>	<u>32^a</u>
Zhang et al. (2015)	South China Sea					<u>82</u>	<u>11</u>
Zhang et al. (2019)	Tropical NW Pacific					<u>87</u>	<u>9^a</u>
<u>Part 2. Incubation period less than 24 hours</u>							
Agawin et al. (2013)	Subtropical Atlantic				<u>21</u>	<u>17</u>	
Benavides et al. (2013b)	subtropical N Atlantic the coastal Namibian upwelling system					<u>38</u>	
Benavides et al. (2014)	Arabian Sea					<u>14</u>	<u>3</u>
Bhavya et al. (2016)	Arabian Sea					<u>4</u>	
Biegala and Raimbault (2008)	SW Pacific			<u>6</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>6</u>
Bombar et al. (2011)	South China Sea					<u>15</u>	
Fernandez et al. (2015)	Central Chile Upwelling System					<u>29</u>	

Reference	Region	<i>Trichodesmium</i>	Heterocystous	< 10 µm Diazotrophs	≥ 10 µm Diazotrophs	Whole Seawater	Depth- integrated data
Foster et al. (2013)	Subtropical N Pacific					3	
Foster et al. (2022a)	Tropical NW Atlantic					45	9
Foster et al. (unpublished data)	N Atlantic					24	5
Gandhi et al. (2011)	E Arabian Sea					28	7 ^a
Halm et al. (2012)	S Pacific					43	10 ^a
Kromkamp et al. (1997)	Indian Ocean						9 ^a
Krupke et al. (2013)	Subtropical N Atlantic					6	
Krupke et al. (2014)	N Atlantic					42	44 ^a
Kumar et al. (2017)	E Arabian Sea					12	3
Chen et al. (2014)	South China Sea						24 ^a
Sahoo et al. (2021)	Bay of Bengal						6 ^a
Saxena et al. (2020)	Bay of Bengal					32	8 ^a
Singh et al. (2019)	E Arabian Sea					20	5 ^a
Wang et al. (2021)	NW Atlantic					85	
Total		6	0	346	87	5414	1805

^a Data are reported by data providers as depth-integrated N₂ fixation rates (unlabelled data computed from by integrating profiles of volumetric N₂ fixation rate data).

^b N₂ fixation rate incubation time during 24-30 hrs.

Table 35. Summary of new data points of cell-count-based abundances added to the version 2 of the database, including volumetric measurements for *Trichodesmium*, unicellular. The data were measured using microscopy-based method (method A), TSA/CARD-FISH (method B), flow cytometer (method C) or image recognition (method D). UCYNs include UCYN-A, UCYN-B and heterocystous diazotrophs. Heterocystous cyanobacteria include Het-1, Het-2 and Het-3.

Reference	Region	Cell-count-based abundance					Depth- integrated data
Reference	Region	Method Free <i>Trichodesmium</i>	<i>Trichodesmium</i> Unicellular	<i>Riccia</i> HaU CYN	<i>Calothrix</i> Heterocystous cyanobacteria		
Biegala and Raimbault (2008)	SW Pacific	B			15		

Reference	Region	Cell-count-based abundance					Depth-integrated data
Reference	Region	<u>Method</u> no- desmium	<u>Tricho-</u> <u>desmium</u> <u>Un</u> <u>icellular</u>	<u>Riehe</u> <u>lia</u> <u>CYN</u>	<u>Calothrix</u> <u>rocystous</u> <u>cyanobacteria</u>	<u>Hete</u>	Depth-integrated data
<u>Bif and Yunes (2017)</u> <u>and Yunes (2017)</u>	S Atlantic	<u>16</u> <u>A</u>	<u>16</u>				
<u>Campbell et al. (2005)</u> <u>Campbell et al. (2005)</u>	SW Pacific	<u>A</u>	<u>462</u>		<u>259</u>		33 ^a
<u>Detoni et al. (2016)</u> <u>Detoni et al. (2016)</u>	S Atlantic	<u>14</u> <u>A</u>	<u>14</u>				
<u>Dugenne et al. (2023)</u> <u>Gradoville et al. (2022)</u>	<u>N Pacific</u> <u>Subtropic Gyre</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>7</u>		
<u>Dupouy et al. (2011)</u> <u>Dupouy et al. (2011)</u>	SW Pacific	<u>18</u> <u>A</u>	<u>18</u>				
<u>Estrada et al. (2016)</u>	<u>Global</u>	<u>A</u>	<u>407</u>		<u>407</u>		
<u>Fernández et al. (2010)</u> <u>Fernández et al. (2010)</u>	Global	<u>A</u>					40 ^a
<u>Foster et al. (2022a)</u>	<u>W tropical N</u> <u>Atlantic</u>	<u>A</u>			<u>37</u>		<u>9</u>
<u>Foster et al. (unpublished data)</u>	<u>N Atlantic</u>	<u>A</u>			<u>54</u>		
<u>Hegde et al. (2008)</u> <u>Hegde et al. (2008)</u>	Bay of Bengal	<u>135</u> <u>A</u>	<u>135</u>				
<u>Holl et al. (2007)</u> <u>Holl et al. (2007)</u>	N Atlantic	<u>A</u>					10 ^a
<u>Jiang et al. (2017)</u>	<u>E China Sea</u>	<u>A</u>	<u>1174</u>				<u>252</u> ^a
<u>Jiang et al. (2023)</u>	<u>E China Sea</u>	<u>A</u>	<u>39</u>		<u>39</u>		<u>78</u> ^a
<u>Krupke et al. (2013)</u> <u>Krupke et al. (2013)</u>	N Atlantic	<u>B</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>9</u>			
<u>Le Moal and Biegala (2009)</u>	<u>Mediterranean</u> <u>Sea</u>	<u>B</u>			<u>17</u>		
<u>Le Moal et al. (2011)</u>	<u>Mediterranean</u> <u>Sea</u>	<u>B</u>			<u>18</u>		
<u>Lory et al. (2022)</u>	S Pacific	<u>3</u> <u>A</u>	<u>3</u>				
<u>Lu et al. (2018)</u> <u>Lu et al. (2018)</u>	<u>W Equatorial</u> <u>Eq.</u> <u>Pacific</u>	<u>2</u> <u>A</u>	<u>2</u>				
<u>Martínez-Pérez et al. (2016)</u>	Tropical N Atlantic	<u>A</u>	<u>56</u>	<u>56</u>			14

Reference	Region	Cell-count-based abundance				Depth-integrated data
Reference	Region	<u>Method</u> <u>no-</u> <u>desmium</u>	<u>Tricho-</u> <u>desmium</u> <u>Un-</u> <u>icellular</u>	<u>Riehe</u> <u>lia</u> <u>CYN</u>	<u>Calothrix</u> <u>Hete</u> <u>rocystous</u> <u>cyanobacteria</u>	Depth-integrated data
Masotti et al. (2007) Masotti et al. (2007)	Southwestern W Pacific	<u>20</u> <u>A</u>	<u>20</u>			5
Mompeán et al. (2013) Mompeán et al. (2013)	N Atlantic	<u>A</u>				43 ^a
Mompeán et al. (2016)	Global	<u>A</u>				<u>141</u> ^a
Pierella Karlusich et al. (2021) Karlusich et al. (2021)	Global	<u>46</u> <u>D</u>	<u>46</u>	<u>46</u>	<u>3581</u>	
Riou et al. (2016) Riou et al. (2016)	N Atlantic	<u>B</u>	<u>20</u>	<u>20</u>		5
Sahu et al. (2017) Sahu et al. (2017)	Bay of Bengal	<u>14</u> <u>A</u>	<u>14</u>			
Shiozaki et al. (2013) Shiozaki et al. (2013)	W Pacific	<u>10</u> <u>A</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>12</u>	<u>12</u>	
Shiozaki et al. (2015a)	NW Pacific	<u>60</u> <u>A</u>	<u>60</u>			10
Subramaniam et al. (2008) Subramaniam et al. (2008)	N Atlantic	<u>A</u>				162 ^a
Tenório et al. (2018)	SW Pacific	<u>A</u>	<u>81</u>			<u>19</u> ^a
White et al. (2018)	N Pacific	<u>83</u> <u>A</u>	<u>83</u>	<u>83</u>	<u>83</u>	38
Wu et al. (2021) Wu et al. (2021)	Bay of Bengal	<u>224</u> <u>A</u>	<u>224</u>	<u>224</u>	<u>224</u>	
Total		<u>645</u>	<u>852812</u>	<u>3651</u> <u>39</u>	<u>351203</u>	<u>360859</u>

300 ^a Data are reported by data providers as depth-integrated cell-count-based abundance (unlabelled [data](#)[depth-integrated abundances](#) computed from volumetric [cell-count-based abundance](#)[data](#)).

Table 46. Summary of new data points of *nifH*-based abundance in gene copy abundances added to the version 2 of the database, including volumetric measurements for *Trichodesmium*, unicellular UCYNs include UCYN-A1, UCYN-A2, UCYN-B and heterocystous diazotrophs UCYN-C. Heterocystous cyanobacteria include Het-1, Het-2 and Het-3.

References	Region	<i>nifH</i> -based abundances			
Reference	Region	<i>Trichodesmium</i>	Unicellular UCYN	Heterocystous cyanobacteria	Depth-integrated data
Benavides et al. (2016a)	N Atlantic	13	30	15	
Bentzon-Tilia et al. (2015) Bentzon-Tilia et al. (2015b)	Baltic Sea		20		
Berthelot et al. (2017)	W Tropical Pacific	64	256	64	96
Bombar et al. (2011)	SS South China Sea	18	36	18	
Bombar et al. (2015) Bombar et al. (2015)	N Pacific				32
Bonnet et al. (2015)	SW Pacific	87	261	87	84
Bonnet et al. (2023)	SW Pacific	66	132		44
Cabello et al. (2020)	Monterey Bay		200		
Confesor et al. (2022) ^b	W Florida Shelf	67			
Cerdan-Garcia et al. (2021)	N Atlantic	7	7		
Chen et al. (2019)	W Pacific	103	381	177	123
Cheung et al. (2020)	N Pacific	519	519		
Cheung et al. (2022) Cheung et al. (2022)	Western W Bering Sea		58	29	
Church and Zehr (2020) Church and Zehr (2020)	N Pacific	968	1936	1936	605
Church et al. (2008) Church et al. (2008)	N Pacific				60
Detoni et al. (2022) Detoni et al. (2022)	WSSW Atlantic	70	140	70	72
Dugenne et al. (2023); Gradoville et al. (2022)	N Pacific Subtropic Gyre	72	216	216	112
Foster et al. (unpublished data)	South China Sea	99	224	350	158
Gradoville et al. (2020) Gradoville et al. (2020)	N Pacific	43	85	28	
Hallström et al. (2022) Hallström et al. (2022)	NE Atlantic				42 ^a

<u>References</u>	<u>Region</u>	<i>nifH</i> -based abundances			
<u>Reference</u>	<u>Region</u>	<u><i>Tricho-</i> <i>desmium</i> <i>smium</i></u>	<u>Unicellular</u> <u>YN</u>	<u>UC</u> <u>Heterocystous</u> <u>cyanobacteria</u>	<u>Depth-</u> <u>integrated</u> <u>data</u>
Halm et al. (2012)	S Pacific Gyre	8	16		
Hamersley et al. (2011) Hamersley et al. (2011)	S California Bight	6	12	6	
Harding et al. (2018)	Arctic Ocean		39		
Hashimoto et al. (2016) Hashimoto et al. (2016)	Seto Inland Sea		176		
Henke et al. (2018) Henke et al. (2018)	W Tropical S Pacific		142		
Krupke et al. (2013) Krupke et al. (2013)	N Atlantic		24		3
Liu et al. (2020) Liu et al. (2020)	S South China Sea	49	98		33
Lory et al. (2022)	W Tropical S Pacific	3	3		
Lu et al. (2018) Lu et al. (2018)	W Tropical Pacific	3	6	3	
Martínez-Pérez et al. (2016)	N Tropical Atlantic	84	252	84	70
Messer et al. (2021)	S Australian Gulf		20		
Mills et al. (2020)	Coast of S California	4	12	4	
Moisander et al. (2014) Moisander et al. (2014)	S Pacific	174	348	174	92
Moore et al. (2018)	Tropical Atlantic	104	312	208	
Moreira-Coello et al. (2017)	N Pacific the coastal NW Iberian upwelling		20		20 ^a
Palter et al. (2020)	Gulf stream	24	24		
Ratten et al. (2015) Ratten et al. (2015)	N Atlantic	9	27	9	10
Reeder et al. (2022) Reeder et al. (2022)	Baltic Sea		15	15	
Sato et al. (2021) Sato et al. (2021)	Subarctic Sea		31		3
Sato et al. (2022)	Eastern Indian Ocean	73	73		36
Saulia et al. (2020)	SW Pacific	71	213	143	
Scavotto et al. (2015)			2		
Selden et al. (2021b)	Atlantic Bight	23	69	23	

References	Region	<i>nifH</i> -based abundances			
Reference	Region	<i>Trichodesmium</i>	Unicellular UC YN	Heterocystous cyanobacteria	Depth-integrated data
Selden et al. (2022)	Arctic Ocean		40		
Shiozaki et al. (2014a) Shiozaki et al. (2014b)	Arabian Sea	26	52		18
Shiozaki et al. (2014b) Shiozaki et al. (2014c)	S China Sea	171	342		72 ^a
Shiozaki et al. (2015a)	Temperate N Pacific	73	146		33
Shiozaki et al. (2017)	N Pacific	74	222	74	90
Shiozaki et al. (2018a)	Kuroshio	46	138	46	
Shiozaki et al. (2018b) Shiozaki et al. (2018b)	W Arctic		84		21
Shiozaki et al. (2018c)	S Pacific	94	285	95	95
Shiozaki et al. (2020) Shiozaki et al. (2020)	Antarctic sea ice		53		
Sohm et al. (2011) Sohm et al. (2011)	S Atlantic Gyre		58		
Stenegren et al. (2017)	W Tropical N Atlantic			235	61
Stenegren et al. (2018) Stenegren et al. (2018)	W Tropical S Pacific	108	402	120	108
Tang et al. (2020) Tang et al. (2020)	N Atlantic	42	42		
Turk-Kubo et al. (2014) Turk-Kubo et al. (2014)	E Tropical S Pacific	60	159	57	53
Turk-Kubo et al. (2021)	Coast of S California	190	588	202	135
Wen et al. (2017) Wen et al. (2017)	W Pacific	22	44	22	
Wen et al. (2022) Wen et al. (2022)	W Pacific	130	390	130	110 ^a
White et al. (2018)	N Pacific				34
Wu et al. (2019) Wu et al. (2019)	Bay of Bengal	68	63		19
Total		30823935	74629543	32814640	19142544

^a Data are reported by data providers as depth-integrated *nifH*-based abundance gene copy abundances (unlabelled [data](#) depth-integrated abundances computed from volumetric *nifH*-based abundance data).

2.2 Nitrogen fixation rates

310 Marine N₂ fixation rates are commonly measured using the acetylene reduction assay or ¹⁵N₂-assimilation method (Mohr et al., 2010; Montoya et al., 1996; Capone, 1993). The acetylene reduction assay estimates gross N₂ fixation rates indirectly by using a factor of 3:1 (Stewart et al., 1967; Bhavya et al., 2019) or 4:1 (Zehr and Capone, 2021) to convert acetylene reduction rates to N₂ fixation rates. When using the ¹⁵N₂-assimilation method, samples are incubated in seawater with ¹⁵N₂-labelled gas; the ¹⁵N/¹⁴N ratio of particulate nitrogen is measured at the beginning and at end of incubation to calculate the N₂ fixation rate (Capone and Montoya, 2001). Compared to the ¹⁵N₂-assimilation method, the acetylene reduction assay is easier to conduct, but acetylene used in the assay can potentially impact the metabolic activities of diazotrophs (Bhavya et al., 2019). The conversion factor between acetylene reduction and N₂ fixation is also controversial (Flett et al., 1976; Giller, 1987; Hardy et al., 1973). The ¹⁵N₂-assimilation method has higher sensitivity and requires a shorter incubation time than the acetylene reduction assay, particularly when N₂ fixation is low (Montoya et al., 1996). The ¹⁵N₂-assimilation method, however, needs to concentrate cells for signal detection, which can potentially damage cells and underestimate N₂ fixation rates (Bhavya et al., 2019). Hence, the ¹⁵N₂ assimilation method only measures the fixed N in particulate forms and ignores the N that is fixed but then excreted by diazotrophs during incubation, which, however, can theoretically be counted by the acetylene reduction assays (Mulholland, 2007).

320 — The conventional ¹⁵N₂-assimilation method was conducted by bubbling ¹⁵N₂-labelled gas. It was later found to be difficult to reach complete solubility equilibrium over a short incubation time, leading to serious underestimations of N₂ fixation rates (Mohr et al., 2010; Großkopf et al., 2012; Wannicke et al., 2018). This “bubble” method was then modified by dissolving ¹⁵N₂-labelled gas in seawater for an adequate period to ensure that it reached solubility equilibrium (Mohr et al., 2010). Recently, this dissolution method was reported to have risks of introducing heavy metal pollution and affecting the growth of diazotrophs (White et al., 2020).

330 ^b *rnpB* gene copies were determined. **Table 7.** Summary of data points of cell-specific N₂ fixation rates added to the version 2 of the database. The rates were measured either by using the combination of CARD-FISH and nanoSIMS (method A), or via the measurements of bulk N₂ fixation rates incubated with known number of diazotrophic cells (method B) (*see Section 2.3*). Note that all the data were reported as N₂ fixation rates per cell, except for Filella et al. (2022) in which biomass-normalized rates in unit of d⁻¹ were reported.

Reference	Region	Method	<i>Trichodesmium</i>	UCYN -A	UCYN -A1	UCYN -A2	UCYN -B	<i>Richestia</i>	<i>Calothrix</i>	Unclassified Cyano-bacteria	NCDs
Benavides et al. (2022a)	Tropical SW Pacific	A	6								
Benavides et al. (2017)	SW Pacific	A	2								
Bonnet et al. (2018)	Tropical SW Pacific	A	3				2				

<u>Reference</u>	<u>Region</u>	<u>Method</u>	<u>Trichode- -smium</u>	<u>UCYN -A</u>	<u>UCYN -A1</u>	<u>UCYN -A2</u>	<u>UCYN -B</u>	<u>Riche- -lia</u>	<u>Calo- -thrix</u>	<u>Unclassified Cyano- -bacteria</u>	<u>NCDs</u>
<u>Filella et al. (2022)</u>	<u>S Pacific Gyre</u>	<u>A</u>	<u>12</u>				<u>12</u>				
<u>Foster et al. (2011)</u>	<u>N Pacific</u>	<u>A</u>					<u>2</u>	<u>18</u>	<u>2</u>		
<u>Foster et al. (2013)</u>	<u>N Pacific</u>	<u>A</u>					<u>6</u>				
<u>Foster et al. (2022a)</u>	<u>Tropical NW Atlantic</u>	<u>A</u>						<u>39</u>			
<u>Gradoville et al. (2020)</u>	<u>N Pacific</u>	<u>A</u>			<u>5</u>						
<u>Gradoville et al. (2021)</u>	<u>N Pacific</u>	<u>A</u>			<u>17</u>						
<u>Harding et al. (2018)</u>	<u>Arctic Ocean</u>	<u>A</u>					<u>2</u>				
<u>Harding et al. (2022)</u>	<u>Subtropical N Pacific</u>	<u>A</u>								<u>40</u>	<u>34</u>
<u>Krupke et al. (2013)</u>	<u>Subtropical N Atlantic</u>	<u>A</u>		<u>4</u>			<u>2</u>				
<u>Krupke et al. (2015)</u>	<u>Subtropical NE Atlantic</u>	<u>A</u>		<u>1</u>							
<u>Martínez-Pérez et al. (2016)</u>	<u>Tropical N Atlantic</u>	<u>A</u>	<u>101</u>		<u>57</u>	<u>10</u>					
<u>Mecarthy and Carpenter (1979)</u>	<u>N Atlantic California</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>24</u>								
<u>Mills et al. (2020)</u>	<u>Current System Southern California</u>	<u>A</u>			<u>15</u>	<u>9</u>					
<u>(Turk-Kubo et al., 2021)</u>	<u>Current System</u>	<u>A</u>			<u>26</u>	<u>17</u>					
<u>Total</u>			<u>148</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>115</u>	<u>38</u>	<u>24</u>	<u>57</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>40</u>	<u>34</u>

335 **2.2 Quality control**

The data of N₂ fixation rates and diazotrophic abundance in the database spanned over several orders of magnitude. Extremely high rate and abundance values of both usually occurred during algal blooms, and zero values indicated that diazotrophic activity was below detection or truly absent at the sampling time and stations. The positive-value data were first logarithmically transformed and then analyzed for outliers, considering that they were approximately log-normally distributed (**Fig. S1-S5**).
340 For each parameter, we used Chauvenet's criterion to identify suspicious outliers whose probability of deviation from the means is lower than $1/2n$, where n is the number of data points (Glover et al., 2011). Because N₂ fixation rates and diazotroph abundances in the ocean can be extremely low, this filtering only applied to data on the high side. Although these outliers (labelled in the database) could be true values, we flagged them to remind users for caution.

345 **2.3 Nitrogen fixation rate data**

The commonly used methods for marine N₂ fixation rates include ¹⁵N₂ tracer methods and acetylene reduction assay (Mohr et al., 2010; Montoya et al., 1996; Capone, 1993). However, in the last decade, the community has turned largely to the use of ¹⁵N₂ tracer methods. The acetylene reduction assay estimates gross N₂ fixation rates indirectly from the reduction of acetylene to ethylene. Theoretical conversion factors of 3:1 or 4:1 have been used to convert acetylene reduction rates to N₂ fixation rates (Postgate, 1998; Capone, 1993; Wilson et al., 2012), although a wide range of conversion factors from 0.93 to 56 have been reported (e.g., Mague et al., 1974; Graham et al., 1980; Montoya et al., 1996; Capone et al., 2005; Mulholland et al., 2006; Wilson et al., 2012). When using the ¹⁵N₂ tracer method, samples are incubated in seawater with ¹⁵N₂ gas; the ¹⁵N/¹⁴N ratio of particulate nitrogen is measured at the beginning and at end of the incubation to calculate the N₂ fixation rate (Capone and Montoya, 2001). Most measurements using the ¹⁵N₂ tracer method only counted the fixed N in particulate forms and
350 ignored the N that was fixed but then excreted by diazotrophs in form of dissolved organic N (DON) during incubation, which could theoretically be counted by the acetylene reduction assays (Mulholland, 2007). In some studies using the ¹⁵N₂ tracer method, this missing N was counted by also measuring the ¹⁵N enrichment in DON (Berthelot et al., 2017; Benavides et al., 2013a; Berthelot et al., 2015; Benavides et al., 2013b).

Compared to the ¹⁵N₂ tracer method, the acetylene reduction assay needs a shorter incubation time. However, in addition
360 to the uncertainty in converting ethylene production to N₂ fixation, the purity of acetylene gas, trace ethylene contamination, and the Bunsen gas solubility coefficient of produced ethylene can also affect the accuracy of estimated N₂ fixation rates (Hyman and Arp, 1987; Breitbart et al., 2004; Kitajima et al., 2009). Acetylene used in the assay can even impact the metabolic activities of diazotrophs (Giller, 1987; Hardy et al., 1973; Flett et al., 1976; Staal et al., 2001). Moreover, the acetylene reduction assay needs to pre-concentrate cells for signal detection when diazotrophic biomass is low, which may
365 lead to underestimated N₂ fixation rates by perturbing cells during concentration and filtration (e.g., Capone et al., 2005; Barthel et al., 1989; Staal et al., 2007). In recent years, the acetylene reduction assay has undergone significant advancements.

The sensitivity of ethylene detection has been improved by utilizing a reduced gas analyzer (Wilson et al., 2012) and by using highly purified acetylene gas to minimize the ethylene background (Kitajima et al., 2009). However, the preparation of high-purity acetylene with low level of ethylene contamination remains a challenge. More recently, a new method named Flow-through incubation Acetylene Reduction Assays by Cavity ring-down laser Absorption Spectroscopy (FARACAS) has been introduced for high-frequency measurements of aquatic N₂ fixation (Cassar et al., 2018). This method involves continuous flow-through incubations and spectral monitoring of the acetylene reduction to ethylene. By employing short-duration flow-through incubations without cell preconcentration, potential artifacts are minimized. This approach also allows for near real-time estimates, enabling adaptive sampling strategies.

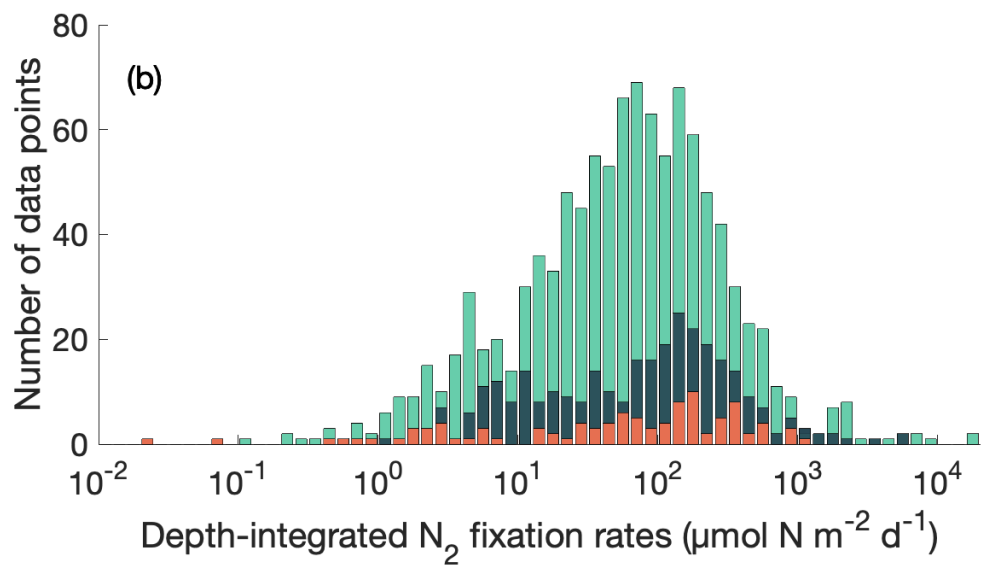
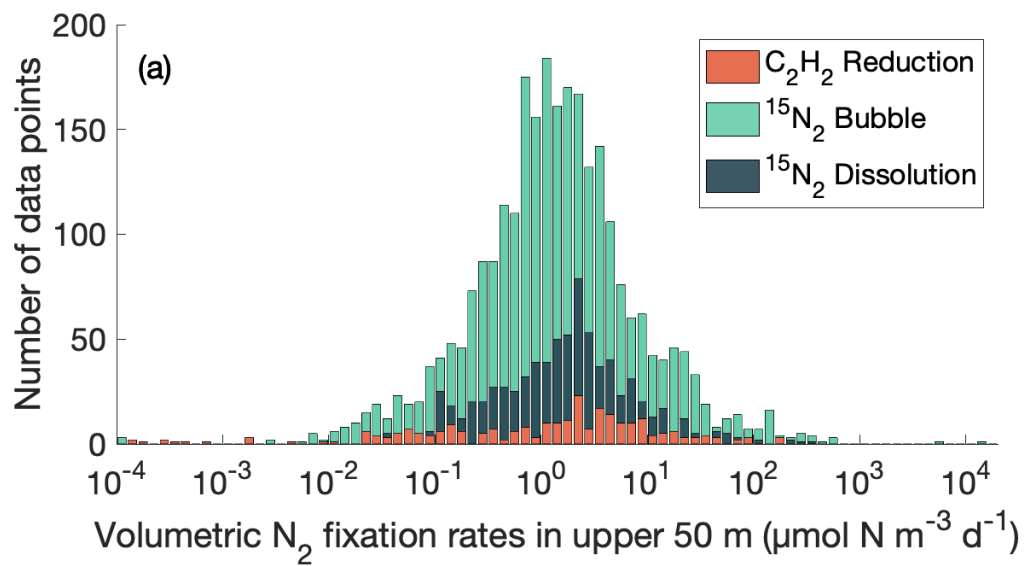
The original ¹⁵N₂ tracer method involved addition of a known volume of ¹⁵N₂-labelled bubbles to the incubation bottle (named *original ¹⁵N₂ bubble method* hereafter). However, this method was later found to underestimate rates because N₂ gas solubility is low and tracer additions take a long time to equilibrate (Mohr et al., 2010; Großkopf et al., 2012; Jayakumar et al., 2017). To address this issue, the *¹⁵N₂ dissolution method* has been employed, which involves pre-preparing ¹⁵N₂-enriched seawater to maintain a constant ¹⁵N₂ atom% enrichment throughout the incubation (Mohr et al., 2010), similar to the method described in Glibert and Bronk (1994). However, the ¹⁵N₂ dissolution method does not always yield higher N₂ fixation rates than the original ¹⁵N₂ bubble method (Table S4 in Großkopf et al., 2012; Saulia et al., 2020); it is still not conclusive what control the magnitude of the underestimation (if it exists) by the original ¹⁵N₂ bubble method. Compared to the original ¹⁵N₂ bubble method, the ¹⁵N₂ dissolution method is more susceptible to the introduction of contaminants (e.g., metals) during the preparation of the ¹⁵N₂ inoculum due to its more complex process, which can alter the diazotrophic activities and abundance, thereby impacting the accuracy of N₂ fixation measurements (Dabundo et al., 2014; Klawonn et al., 2015). For example, Needoba et al. (2007) reported that a low but detectable amount of Fe³⁺ contamination can be measured when protecting the needle of the gas-tight syringe with a commercially available tubing. Additionally, pH and other chemical properties of the inoculum may be altered during its preparation, further affecting the measurements of N₂ fixation. Despite these limitations, the ¹⁵N₂ dissolution method remains the predominant assay for measuring N₂ fixation rate due to its ability to satisfy the fundamental assumption of constant ¹⁵N₂ atom% enrichment over the incubation period.

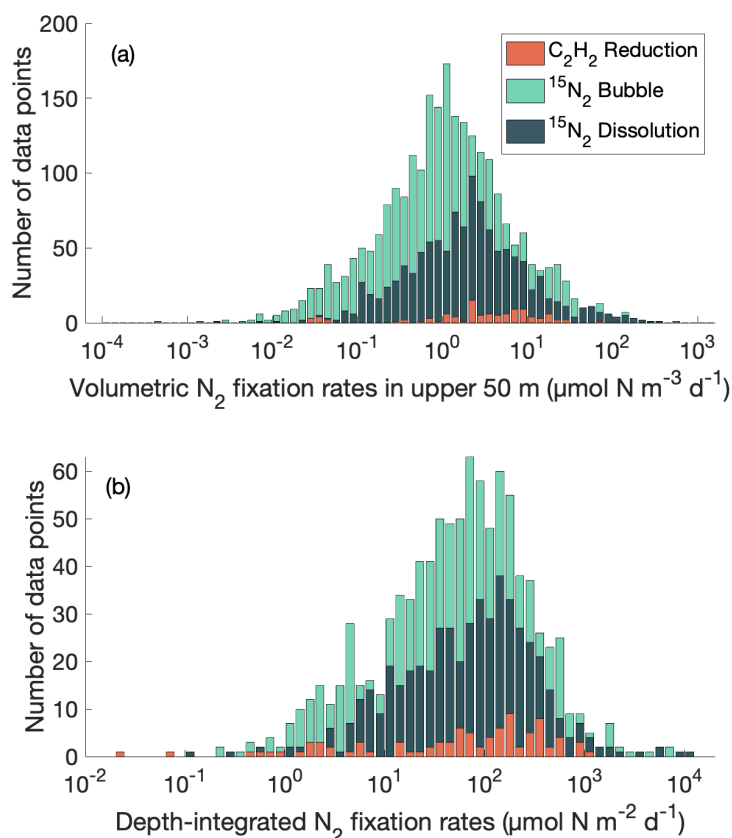
More recently, a modified ¹⁵N₂ bubble method, known as the *¹⁵N₂ bubble release method*, has been proposed as an alternative to the ¹⁵N₂ dissolution method (Klawonn et al., 2015; Chang et al., 2019; Selden et al., 2019). This method involves adding ¹⁵N₂ gas to the incubation bottles and mixing for a brief period (~15 min) to facilitate ¹⁵N₂ equilibration, then removing the gas bubble. Compared to the original ¹⁵N₂ bubble method, the ¹⁵N₂ bubble release method ensures a uniform ¹⁵N₂ atom% enrichment throughout the incubation. Moreover, it causes less interference with the incubation matrix than the ¹⁵N₂ dissolution method. However, the mixing of incubation bottles required to stimulate gas dissolution has been suggested to negatively affect diazotrophs, although no robust studies have yet been performed to assess this criticism (Wannicke et al., 2018; White et al., 2020). Moreover, the ¹⁵N₂ bubble release method requires a handling step and additional costs for preparing tracers may be another challenge for researchers (White et al., 2020). Ultimately White et al. (2020) “advise employing either the

400 dissolution or bubble release method, whichever is best suited to the specific research objectives and logistical constraints”
with additional recommendations on the need for determination of detection limits for all rate measurements.

We compared volumetric N₂ fixation rates in the upper 50 m and depth-integrated N₂ fixation rates in the database measured using the ~~above three methods~~ acetylene reduction assays, the original ¹⁵N₂ bubble method and the ¹⁵N₂ dissolution method, and found that they ~~basically~~ span a similar range ~~of magnitude~~ **(Fig. 1)**. ~~The results~~ Meanwhile, in the analysis for
405 volumetric N₂ fixation rates in upper 50 m, the peak of the log-normal distributions of the measurements using the ¹⁵N₂ dissolution method was approximately double that of the original ¹⁵N₂ bubble method (Fig. 1a). The measurements using the ¹⁵N₂ bubble release method were limited to several study sites and their distribution was thus not presented in this study. A
further analysis comparing the original ¹⁵N₂ bubble method and the ¹⁵N₂ dissolution method will be ~~discussed~~ presented later.

410 ~~— Most N₂ fixation rates were originally reported as daily rates. For those reported hourly N₂ fixation rates in the daytime, we converted them to daily rates by multiplying by 12 hours. Some studies also reported hourly rates at night. We multiplied these night rates by 12 hours and added them to the daytime rates.~~





415 **Figure 1.** Distribution of N_2 fixation rates measured using [different methods: the acetylene \(\$C_2H_2\$ \) reduction assays, the original](#)
 [\$^{15}N_2\$ bubble method and the \$^{15}N_2\$ dissolution method.](#) (a) Volumetric data in upper 50 m; (b) depth-integrated data. [Only rates](#)
[measured with incubation periods of 24 hours are shown. Please note that the bars in plot do not represent cumulative data.](#)

2.3

420 [The majority of \$N_2\$ fixation rates \(9,405\) were measured with incubation periods of 24 hours and were reported as daily](#)
[rates. In contrast, 2,416 samples were incubated for less than 24 hours and hourly \$N_2\$ fixation rates were reported. Diel cycles](#)
[of \$N_2\$ fixation vary among samples and/or diazotrophic groups, and substantial errors may be introduced when extrapolating](#)
 [\$N_2\$ fixation rates incubated for less than 24 hours to daily rates \(White et al., 2020\). Therefore, the \$N_2\$ fixation rates measured](#)
[with incubation periods of less than 24 hours were collected into separated datasheets in our database and were not used in](#)
[further analyses within this study. Please note that the incubation periods of whole diurnal cycles \(e.g., 24, 48, or 72 hours\)](#)
 425 [were used in Konno et al. \(2010\). The samples in Yogev et al. \(2011\) were incubated between 24 to 30 hours. The reported](#)
[daily \$N_2\$ fixation rates by these two studies were also included in the 24-hour datasheets and were used in our estimation of](#)
[the global marine \$N_2\$ fixation rate \(see below\).](#)

430 Cell-specific N₂ fixation rates of diazotrophs (or symbioses) were mostly measured using catalyzed reporter deposition
fluorescence in-situ hybridization (CARD-FISH) and nanoscale secondary ion mass spectrometry (nanoSIMS), in combination
with ¹⁵N₂ addition experiments (Mills et al., 2020; Berthelot et al., 2019). Using specific oligonucleotide probes, CARD-FISH
enables the visualization and location of the regions of interest in diazotrophs at a single-cell level under epifluorescence
microscope. This is subsequently prepared for the secondary electron image in nanoSIMS analysis. Importantly, the handling,
fixation and processing of the samples with CARD-FISH, has been demonstrated to significantly impact the enrichment
measured by nanoSIMS (see Musat et al. 2014; Woebken et al. 2015; Meyer et al. 2021). The nanoSIMS technique detects the
435 enrichment of ¹⁵N atoms in the targeted regions, allowing for the calculation of the cell-specific rate. Additionally, in one
study, handpicked *Trichodesmium* colonies or trichomes were incubated, and the measured total N₂ fixation rates were
normalized to number of cells (Mccarthy and Carpenter, 1979).

2.4 Estimation of the global marine N₂ fixation rate

440 Using these data, we performed a first-order estimation of the global marine N₂ fixation rate. In a previous study (Luo et
al., 2012), version 1 was utilized to estimate the global marine N₂ fixation rate, which included all the depth-integrated N₂
fixation rates. However, in this study, we employed more rigorous criteria to estimate the global rate using both version 1 and
version 2, taking into account the reliability of different N₂ fixation rate data discussed in the preceding section. Specifically,
we exclusively used depth-integrated N₂ fixation rates that met the following criteria: (1) measurements were taken from whole
seawater samples, (2) incubation periods of 24 hours were used, and (3) the three ¹⁵N₂-based methods were employed, although
445 we acknowledged that the rates obtained using the original ¹⁵N₂ bubble method might be underestimated. N₂ fixation rates
obtained through the acetylene reduction method were excluded from this estimate due to the significant uncertainties
described above.

Applying these criteria, we selected 309 and 1,642 depth-integrated N₂ fixation rates from version 1 and version 2,
respectively. The much more data in version 2 potentially provided more constraints on estimating global marine N₂ fixation.
450 We applied Chauvenet's criterion to identify outliers, using the log-transformed values of the selected data (see Section 2.2).
As a result, two high-value outliers were removed in version 1 (one in North Pacific and one in South Pacific) while no outliers
were detected in version 2. This difference can be attributed to the larger number of data samples in version 2, which allowed
for a more relaxed threshold in identifying outliers.

455 The estimation of the global marine N₂ fixation rate involved four steps. First, we calculated the arithmetic or geometric
means of depth-integrated N₂ fixation rates within each 3° latitude × 3° longitude bin. Second, these mean values were further
averaged using either arithmetic or geometric methods to determine the mean N₂ fixation rates for different ocean basins,
which included the North Atlantic, South Atlantic, North Pacific, South Pacific, Indian, Arctic, Southern Oceans, and the
Mediterranean Sea. Third, we multiplied the arithmetic or geometric mean of each basin by its respective area to estimate the
total N₂ fixation rate for that specific basin, except when there was insufficient spatial coverage available. Finally, we obtained

460 the global marine N₂ fixation rate by summing up the individual rates calculated for each basin, with the errors associated with basin rates propagated properly (Glover et al., 2011).

In the first two steps, the geometric means were derived from positive N₂ fixation rates (NF_+): if μ and SE represented the mean and standard error of $\ln(NF_+)$, respectively, the geometric mean was e^μ . The confidence interval for the geometric mean, based on the standard error, ranged between e^μ / e^{SE} and $e^\mu \cdot e^{SE}$ (Thomas, 1979). To address the issue of not including zero-value N₂ fixation rates, we adjusted the geometric means by multiplying them with the percentage of zero-value data within each $3^\circ \times 3^\circ$ bin (in the first step) or within each basin (in the second step).

2.5 Diazotrophic abundance data

Diazotroph cell ~~abundance was counted mainly~~ abundances were determined by using standard light microscopy, and in some cases by using epifluorescence microscopy ~~with the aid of color excitation~~. A recent study used machine learning techniques to detect and enumerate diazotrophs in a large dataset of microscopic images (Pierella-Karlusich et al., 2021). (Karlusich et al., 2021). In the original database, only the cell ~~counted abundance~~ abundances of *Trichodesmium* and heterocystous cyanobacteria ~~was/were~~ recorded. ~~The updated database~~ Version 2 also included ~~a dataset~~ datasets of enumerated abundance of ~~all UCYN-A after staining groups detecting them by~~ TSA (Tyramid Signal Amplification)-FISH using the specific DNA probe UCYN-238 (Biegala and Raimbault, 2008; Le Moal and Biegala 2009; Le Moal et al., 2011; Riou et al. 2016). This method is also called CARD-FISH assays and was used to specifically enumerated UCYN-A (Martínez-Pérez et al., 2016; Biegala and Raimbault, 2008; Le Moal et al., 2011). (Table 3) (Martínez-Pérez et al., 2016), although this unicellular diazotroph remained uncultivated-5).

Cell abundance of *Trichodesmium* ~~cell count abundance in our database~~ was recorded as the number of trichomes per volume of water in our database, although it was also reported in ~~the literature~~ some studies as the number of cells or colonies per volume of water. In the latter cases, the data were converted to trichomes per volume of water by using a commonly used factor of 200 (132–241) trichomes colony⁻¹ ~~or 100 cells trichome⁻¹~~ (Letelier and Karl, 1996), similar to the conversion used in the original database (Luo et al., 2012).

~~The abundance of heterocystous cyanobacterial cells was recorded in this database. When the number of symbioses was reported in several studies, we assumed that 2 and 5 *Richelia* heterocystous cells were associated with each *Hemiaulus* and *Rhizosolenia* cell, respectively (Villareal et al., 2011), and 5 *Calothrix* heterocystous cells were associated with each *Chaetoceros* cell (Tuo et al., 2021).~~

~~In measurements of *nifH* copies, different qPCR assays were designed to target specific diazotrophic groups (Church et al., 2005; Foster et al., 2007), mainly including *Trichodesmium*, UCYN subgroups (A, B and C) and heterocystous groups (Table 4). More recently, UCYN-A was found to have three sublineages, UCYN-A1, UCYN-A2, and UCYN-A3, with clade UCYN-A1 sharing the same genome as previously targeted UCYN-A (Thompson et al., 2014). UCYN-A1 and UCYN-A2 have significant distinctions in the sizes and species of their symbiotic hosts, with the former living in relatively smaller hosts~~

(Thompson et al., 2014; Martínez-Pérez et al., 2016; Cornejo-Castillo et al., 2016). The *nifH* copies of these two sublineages were included in our database. The *nifH* copies of UCYN A3 were not listed separately in our database because there were only very few measurements reported. Three major associations of heterocystous groups were also marked for the *nifH* data, including *Richelia Hemiaulus* (het-1), *Richelia Rhizosolenia* (het-2) and *Calothrix Chaetoceros* (het-3).

2.4 Quality control

The data of N₂ fixation rates and diazotrophic abundance in the database ranged by several orders of magnitude. Extremely high values usually occurred during algal blooms, and zero values indicated that diazotrophic activity was below detection or true absence at the sampling time and stations. The data (nonzero value) were first logarithmically transformed and then analyzed for outliers, considering that they were likely log-normally distributed (Fig. S1-S6). For each parameter, we used Chauvenet's criterion to identify suspicious outliers whose probability of deviation from the means is lower than 1/2n, where n is the number of data points (Glover et al., 2011). Because N₂ fixation rates and diazotroph abundances in the ocean can be extremely low, this filtering only applies to data on the high side. Although these outliers (labelled in database) may be true values, we flagged them to remind users for caution. These outliers were also not used in our estimation of global ocean N₂ fixation rates.

3. Result

The abundance of heterocystous cyanobacterial cells was also recorded in this database. When the number of DDAs was reported in several studies, we assumed that 2 (reported range: 1–2) and 5 (reported range: 1–5) *Richelia* spp. filaments associated with each *Hemiaulus* and *Rhizosolenia* cell, respectively (Villareal et al., 2011; Caputo et al., 2019), and 5 (reported range: 3–10) *Richelia rhizosoleniae* filaments were associated with each *Chaetoceros* cell (Tuo et al., 2021; Caputo et al., 2019). *Richelia* have terminal heterocysts, and the number of vegetative cells varies depending on the host diatom. In *Hemiaulus* and *Chaetoceros* spp. diatoms, *Richelia* filaments are shorter (e.g., 3-4 vegetative cells), compared to in *Rhizosolenia*, the *Richelia* filaments are longer (e.g., 5-6 vegetative cells) (Foster et al., 2022b).

In measurements of *nifH* gene copy abundances, different qPCR or ddPCR assays were designed to target specific diazotrophic groups (Church et al., 2005a; Foster et al., 2007; Gradoville et al., 2017; Benavides et al., 2016a), mainly including *Trichodesmium*, UCYN subgroups (A1, A2, B, and C) and heterocystous groups (het-1, het-2, and het-3) (Table 6).

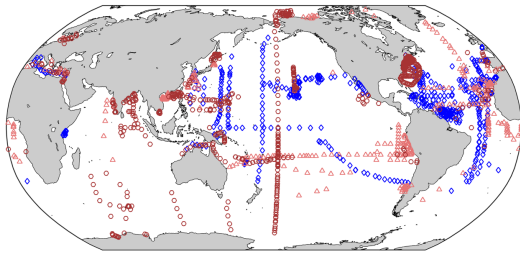
All the uncertainties reported in this paper reflect one standard error of the means unless specified otherwise.

3. Results

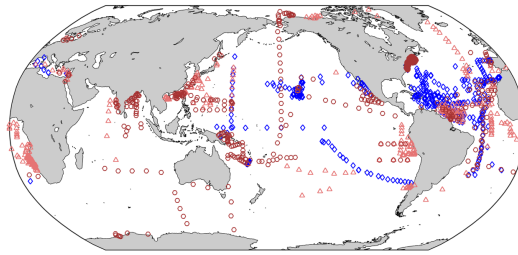
520 **3.1 Data distribution**

Version 2 of the database ~~approximately doubled the number of~~ significantly expanded N₂ fixation rate data in the original database measurements, filling spatial gaps particularly in the Indian Ocean and the Southern Oceans (Hemisphere) (Table 1; Figs. 2a, 2b, 3a-b). The number of depth-integrated N₂ fixation rate measurements was tripled (Table 1; Figs. 2b & 3b). The number of depth-integrated N₂ fixation rate data tripled, potentially providing more constraints on estimating global marine N₂ fixation (Figs. 2b & 3b). ~~NifH-based abundance consisted of the~~ The largest fraction of new data, mostly in derived from inclusion of *nifH* gene abundances, in particular data contributions from the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans (Table 3; Figs. 2e, f & 3e, f). Compared to other parameters, ~~a relatively moderate amount of new cell count data was added and mainly distributed in the Indian and Atlantic Oceans (the new database contained only a modest increase in new cell abundances, mostly from the subtropical oceans (Table 2; Figs. 2c, d & 3c, d).~~ Overall, there ~~were~~ remained more limited data on N₂ fixation and diazotrophic abundance in the ~~Southern Ocean~~ Arctic and Southern Oceans, with a number of rate measurements reporting values below detection limits.

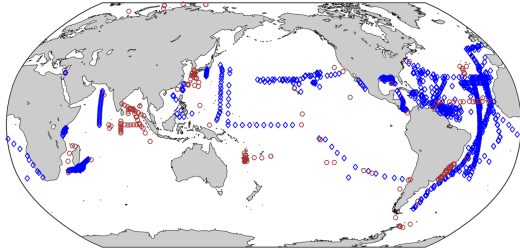
(a) Volumetric N_2 fixation rates



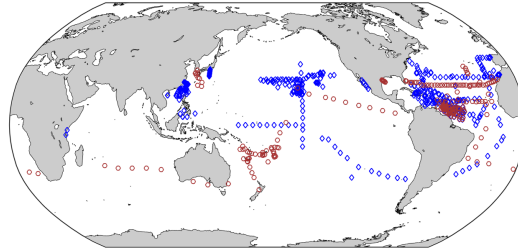
(b) Depth-integrated N_2 fixation rates



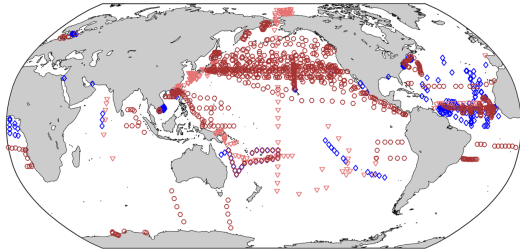
(c) Volumetric cell-count-based abundance



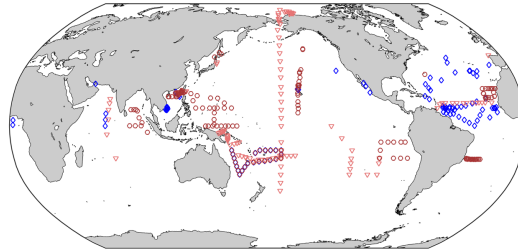
(d) Depth-integrated cell-count-based abundance



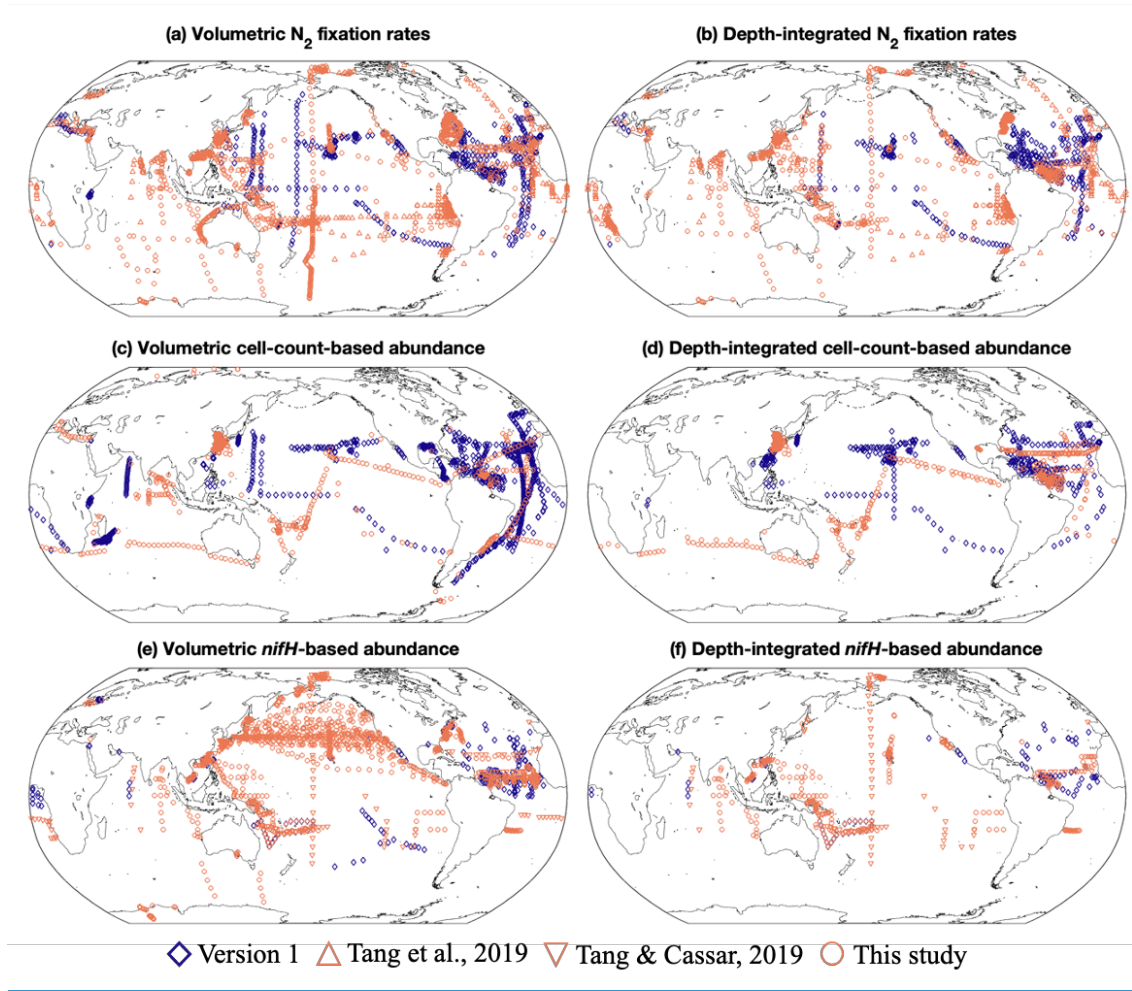
(e) Volumetric *nifH*-based abundance



(f) Depth-integrated *nifH*-based abundance

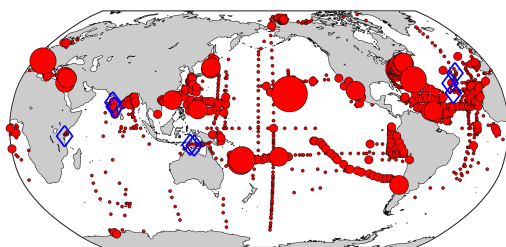


◇ Original database △ Tang et al., 2019 ▽ Tang & Cassar, 2019 ○ This study

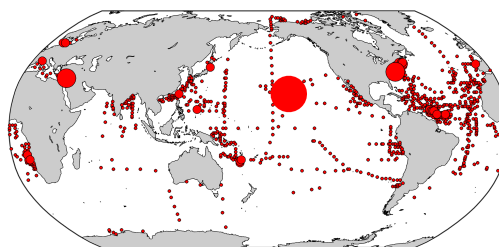


535 **Figure 2.** Spatial distribution of volumetric and depth-integrated [number of data points](#) in the version 2 of the diazotrophic database binned in $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ [latitude](#) \times 1° [longitude](#) grids. (a-b) N_2 fixation rates, (c-d) cell [counts](#) abundance, and (e-f) *nifH* gene [copy](#) abundance. The data sources include the original version of this database (Luo et al., 2012) (blue diamonds), two compiled datasets (Tang et al., 2019; Tang and Cassar, 2019) ([red](#) triangles) and this study ([red](#) circles).

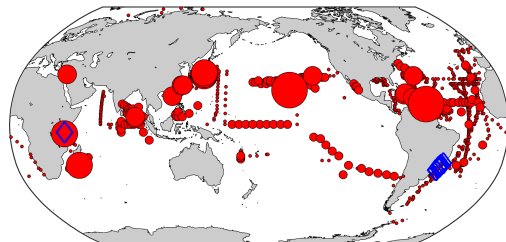
(a) Volumetric N_2 fixation rates



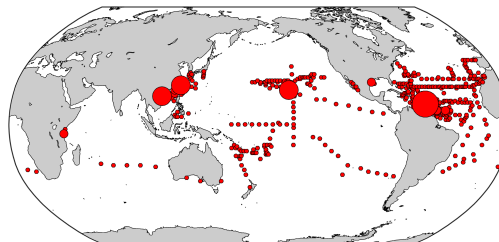
(b) Depth-integrated N_2 fixation rates



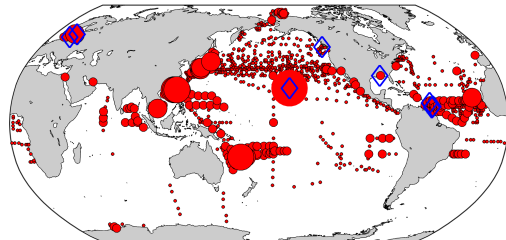
(c) Volumetric cell-counts-based abundance data



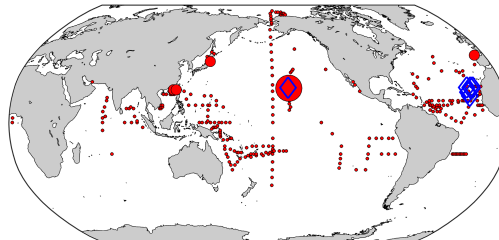
(d) Depth-integrated cell-counts-based abundance

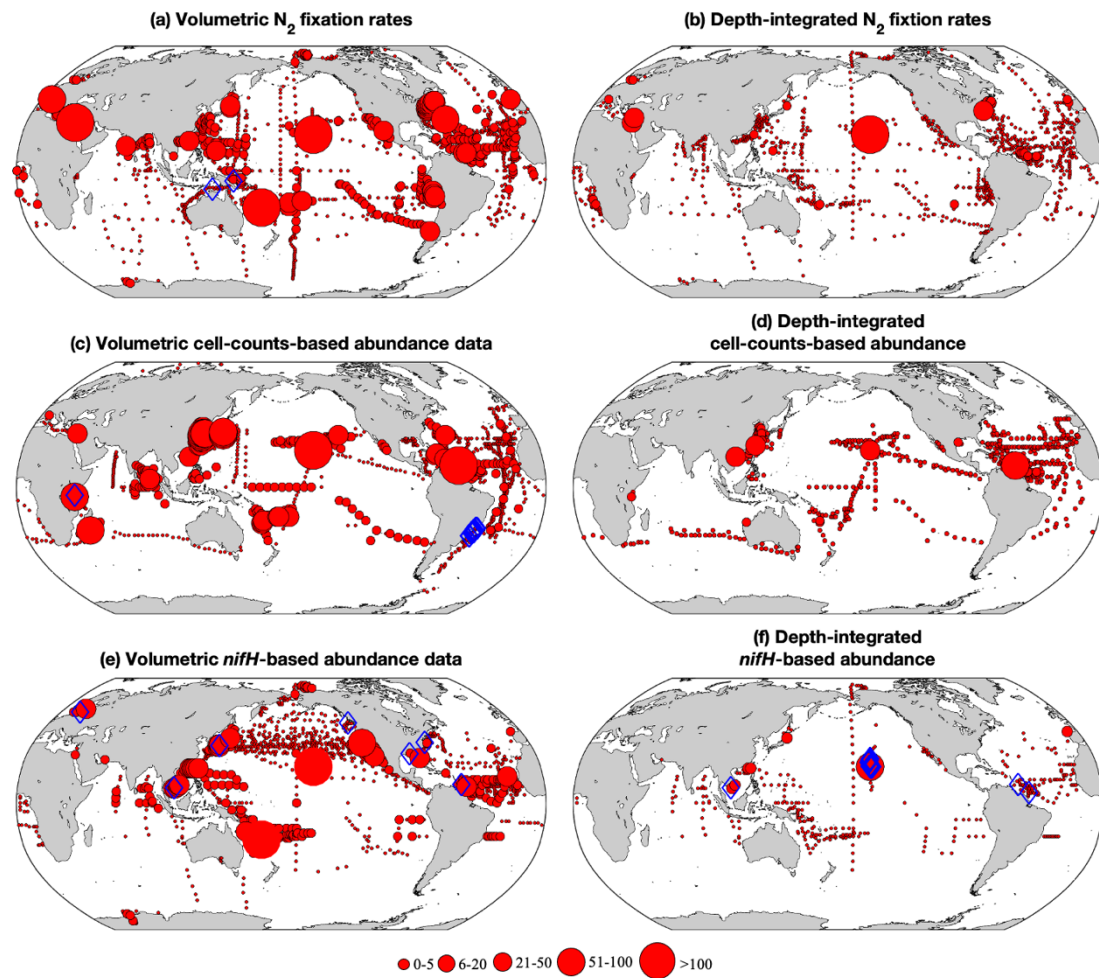


(e) Volumetric *nifH*-based abundance data



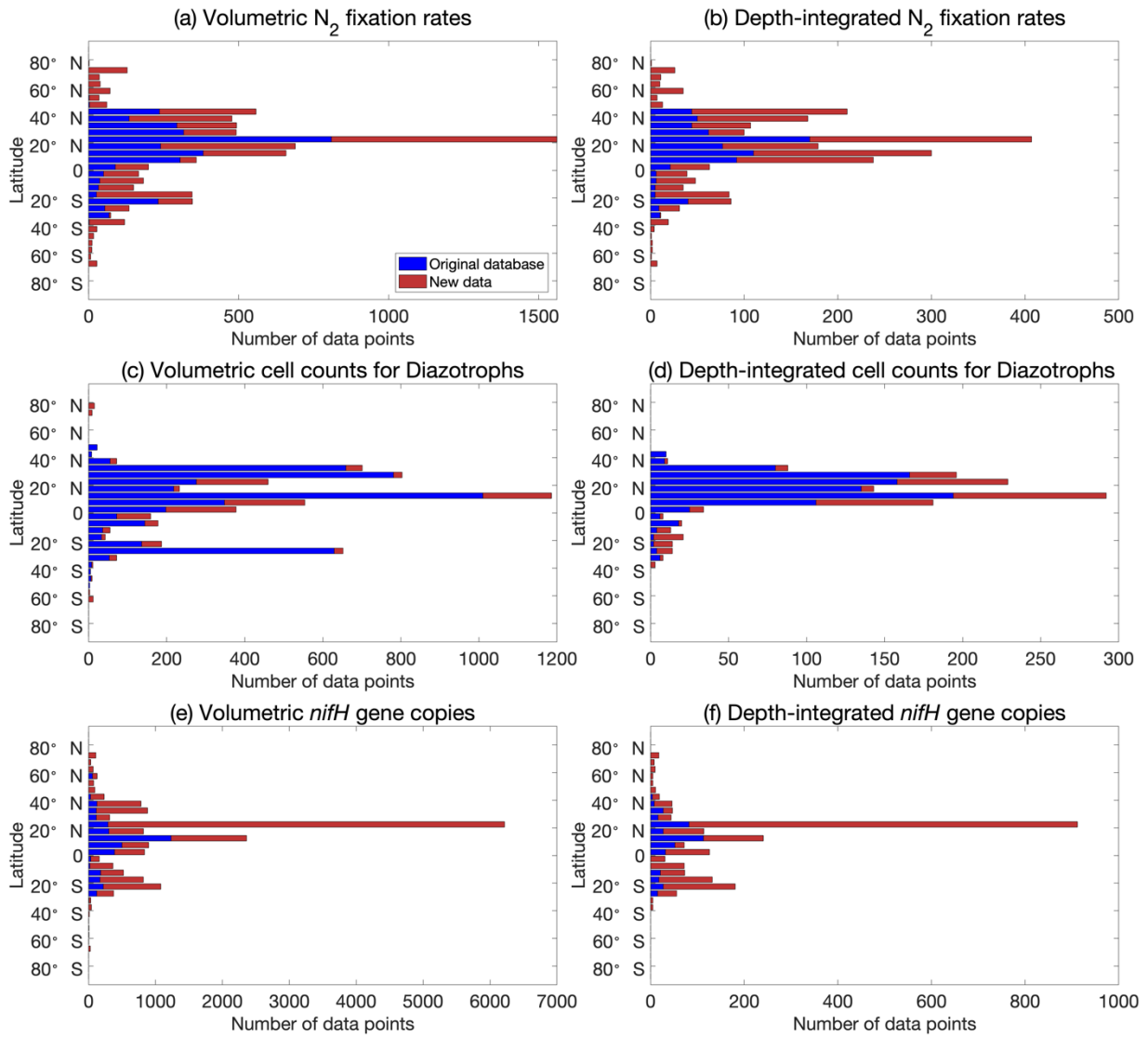
(f) Depth-integrated *nifH*-based abundance





540 **Figure 3.** Spatial distribution of volumetric and depth-integrated [number of data points](#) binned in $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ [latitude](#) \times 1° [longitude](#) grids for **(a-b)** N_2 fixation rates, **(c-d)** cell [counts](#) [abundance](#), and **(e-f)** *nifH* gene [copy](#) [abundance](#). The size of the circles represents the number of data points in each bin. The blue diamonds mark the [location of](#) outliers identified using Chauvenet's criterion.

545 Version 2 [of the database](#) added data at all latitudinal ranges (**Fig. 4**). In particular, version 2 extended the [range of](#) data from tropical and subtropical areas to [include](#) polar regions in the Arctic Ocean (Harding et al., 2018) [and Antarctic coast](#) (Shiozaki et al., 2020).



[and Antarctic coast \(Shiozaki et al., 2020\).](#)

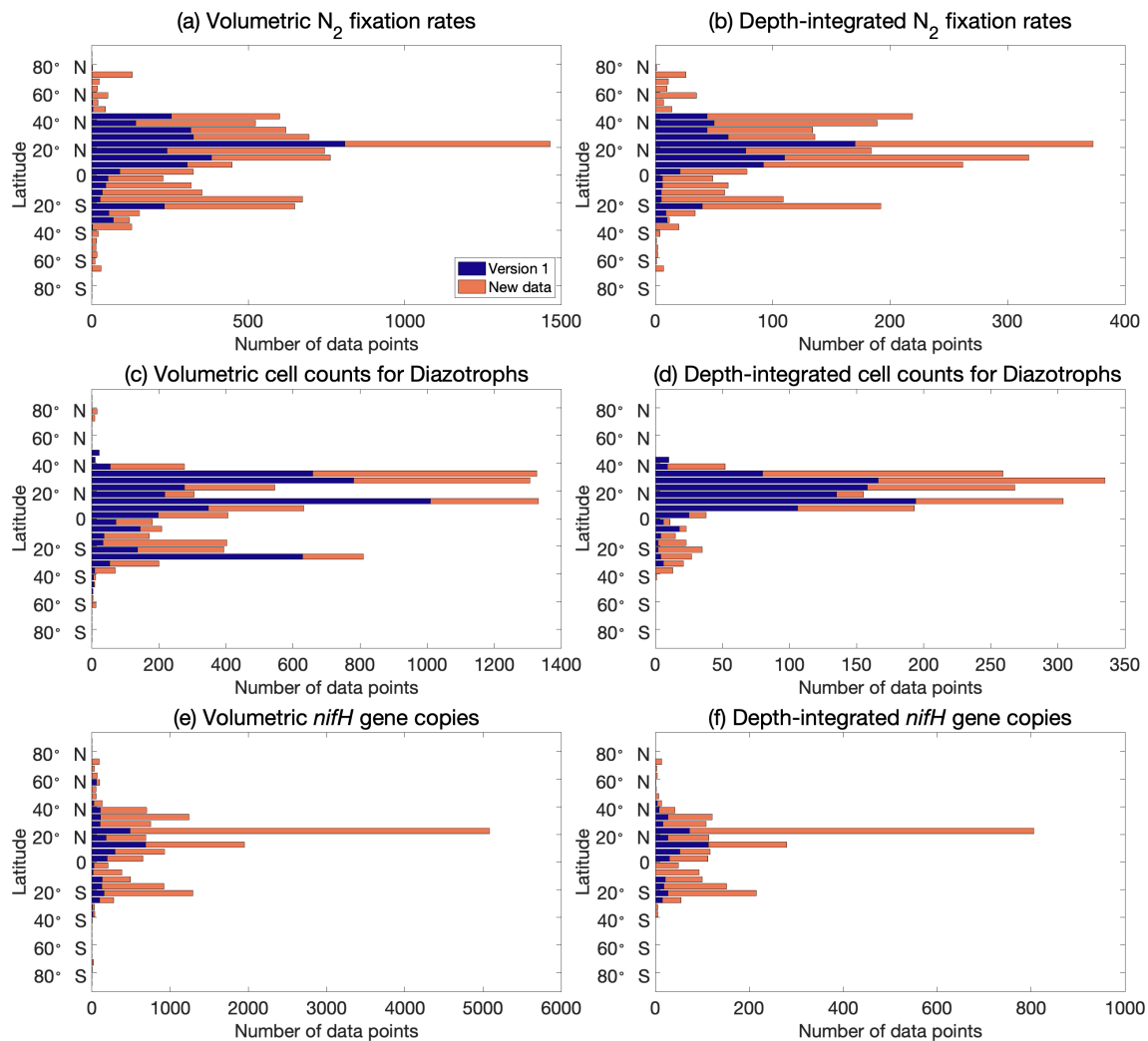
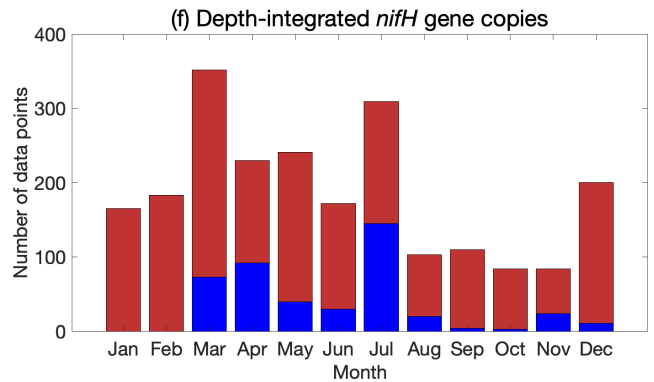
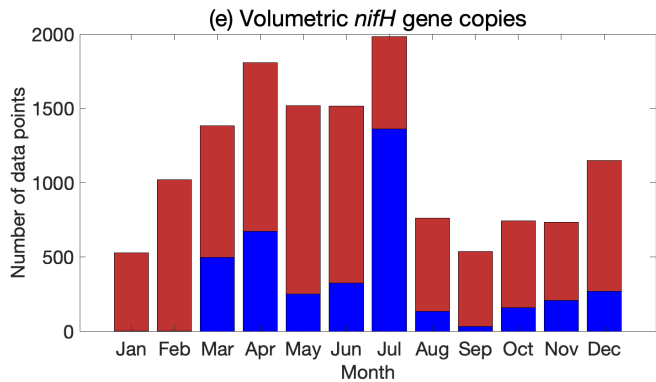
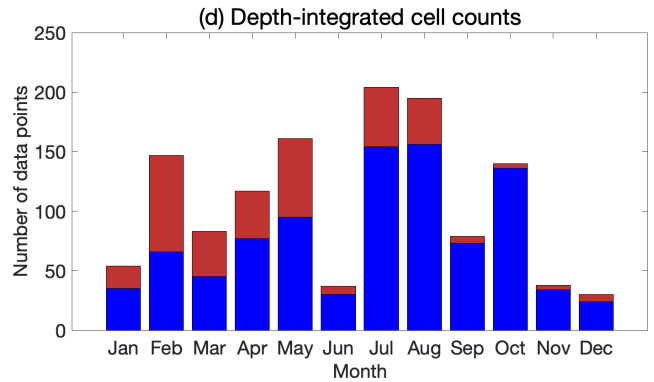
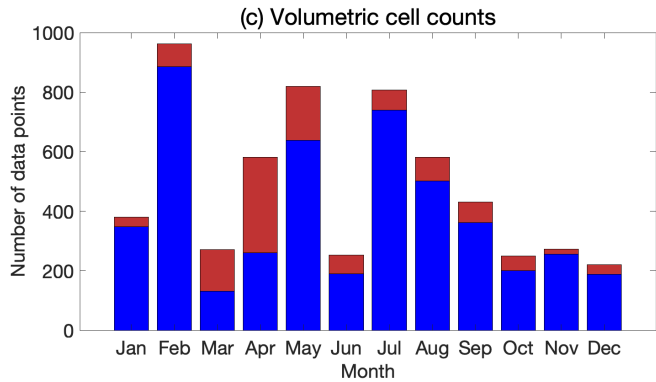
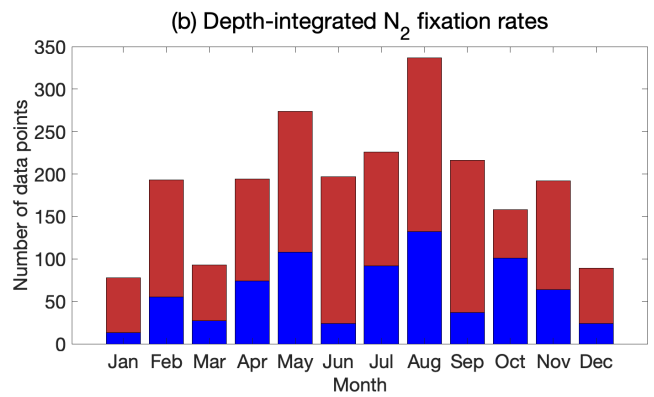
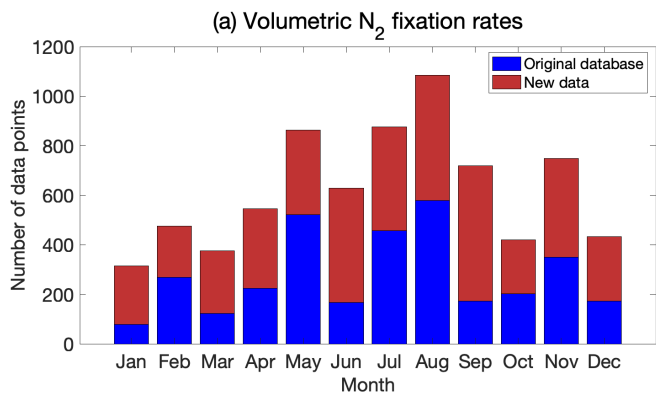


Figure 4. Latitudinal distribution of volumetric and depth-integrated [data including](#) (a-b) N_2 fixation rates, (c-d) cell [counts abundance](#), and (e-f) *nifH* gene [copies abundance](#), including the data in the [original version 1 of the](#) database (blue) and the new data added [into the](#) version 2 of the database ([red orange](#)).

The data in version 2 [of reduce](#) the [database were distributed more evenly](#) difference in [number of data points across](#) months [than in the original database](#), especially for [the *nifH* gene](#) copies, in which substantially more [datasamples](#) were collected [from in](#) January [to and](#) February (**Fig. 5**). [When considering seasons in both the Northern hemisphere and South Atlantic and Pacific the data were distributed more evenly](#) (**Fig. 6**).



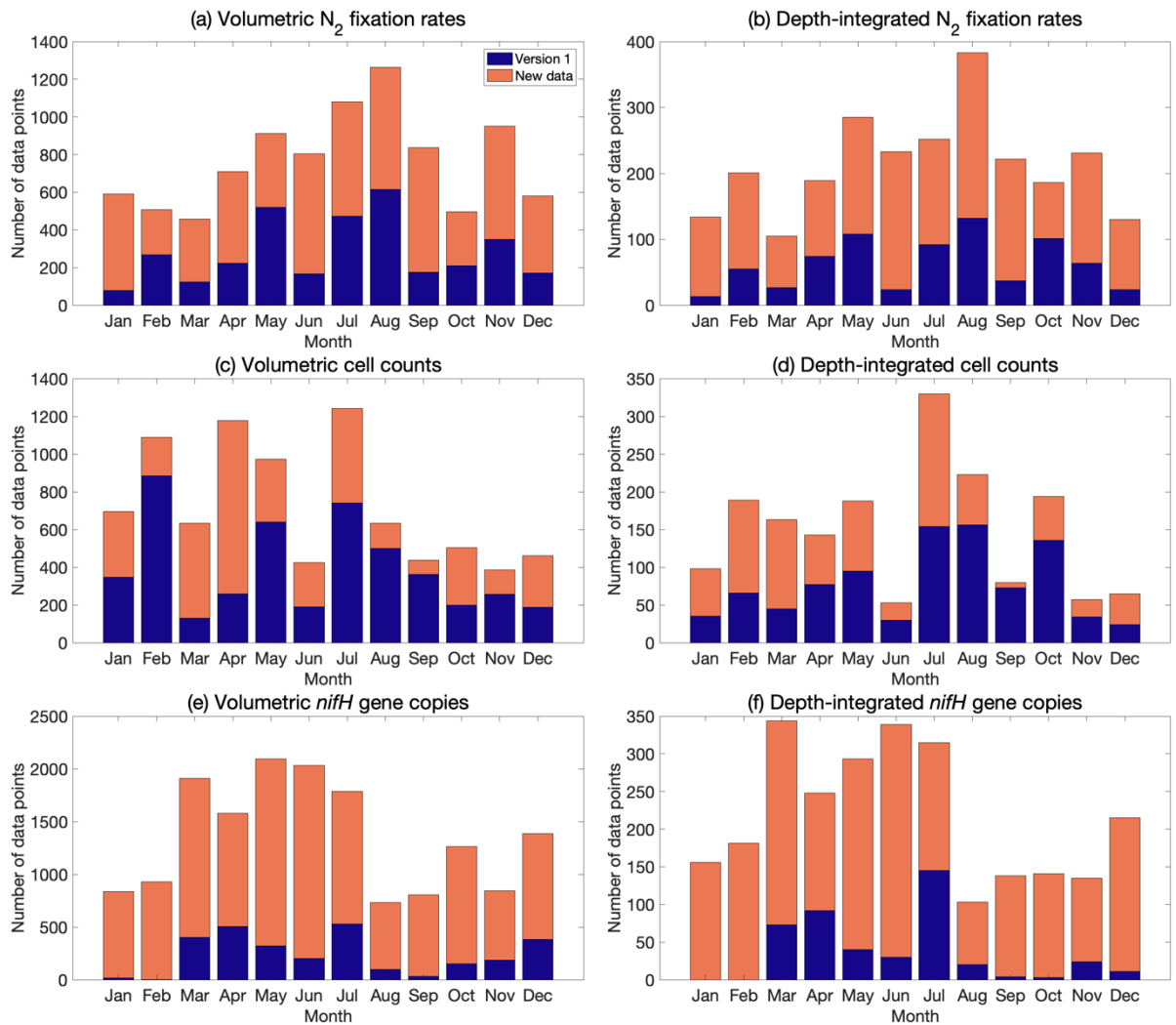


Figure 5. Temporal+Monthly distribution of volumetric and depth-integrated data including (a-b) N_2 fixation rates, (c-d) cell counts+abundance, and (e-f) *nifH* gene copies+abundance, including the data in the original+version 1 of the database (blue) and the new data added into the version 2 of the database (red+orange).

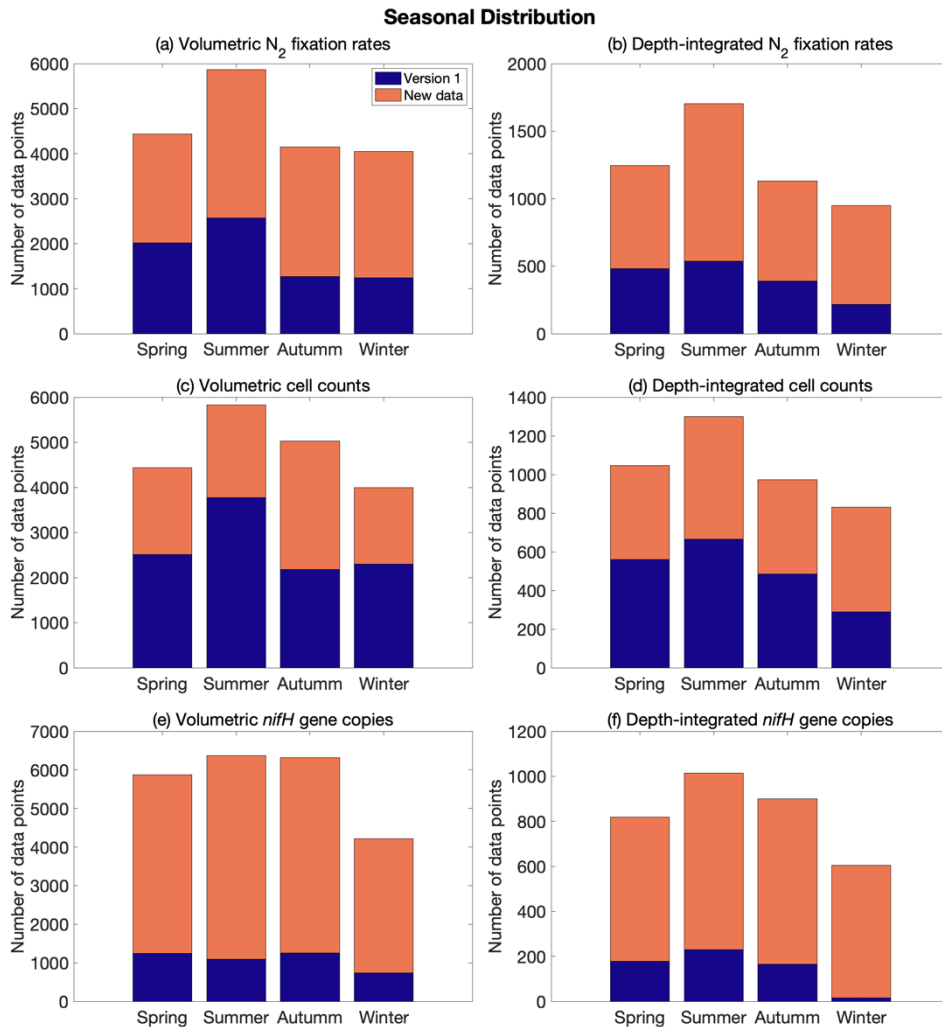
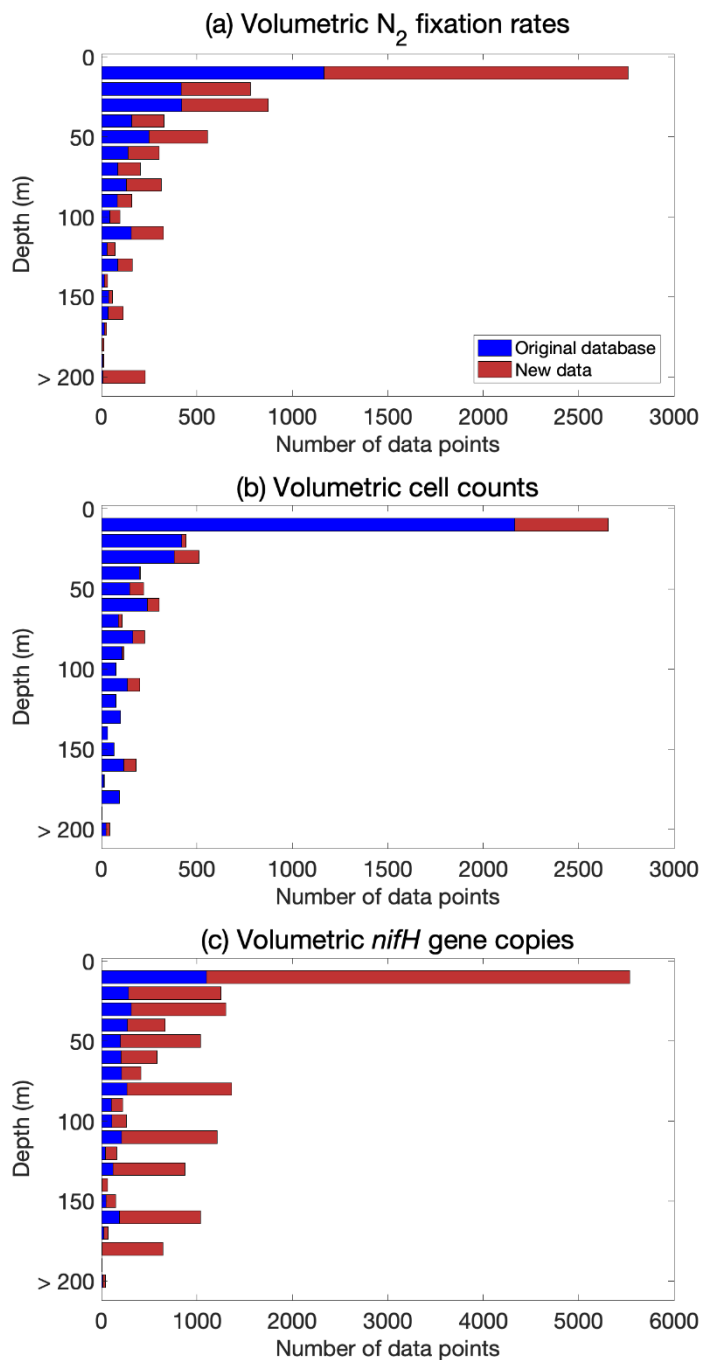


Figure 6. Seasonal distribution of volumetric and depth-integrated (a-b) N₂ fixation rates, (c-d) cell abundance, and (e-f) *nifH* gene copy abundance, including the data in the version 1 of the database (blue) and the new data added to the version 2 of the database (orange). Spring: March–May in the Northern Hemisphere and September–November in the Southern Hemisphere; summer: June–August in the Northern Hemisphere and December–February in the Southern Hemisphere; autumn: September–November in the Northern Hemisphere and March–May in the Southern Hemisphere; and winter: December–February in the Northern Hemisphere and June–August in the Southern Hemisphere.

Although most of the new data were measured in the near-surface waters, there were numerous *nifH* gene copy abundance data were also sampled in other deeper layers in the euphotic zone (Fig. 67). Additionally, active N₂ fixation and the existence of diazotrophs were found below the euphotic zone (e.g., depth > 200 m) (Benavides et al., 2016b; Benavides et al., 2018b; Selden et al., 2019; Hamersley et al., 2011; Bonnet et al., 2013; Loescher et al., 2014) (Fig. 6 (Benavides et al., 2016b;



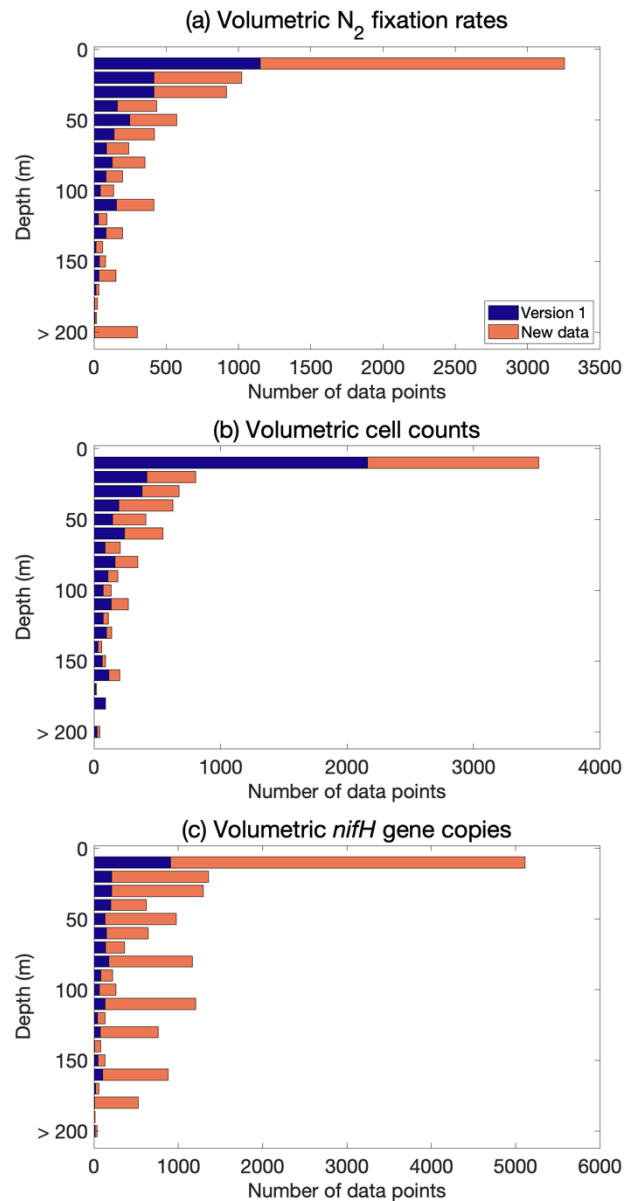


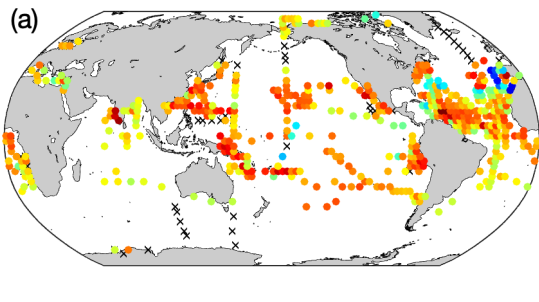
Figure 67. Vertical distribution ~~number of data including~~ (a) N_2 fixation rates, (b) cell ~~counts~~ abundance, and (c) *nifH* gene ~~copies~~ abundance data, including the data in the ~~original~~ version 1 of the database (blue) and the new data added ~~into~~ the version 2 of the database (~~red~~orange).

3.2 N_2 fixation rates

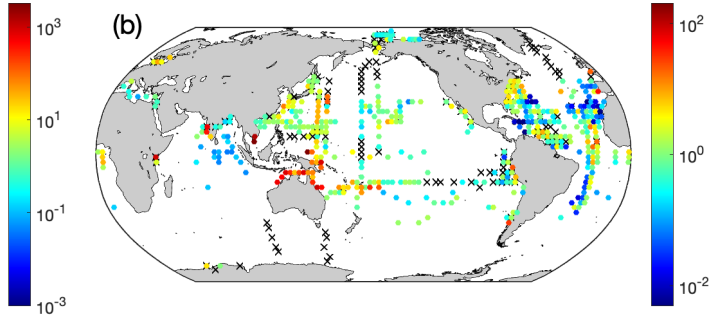
585 The volumetric N_2 fixation rates in 5 vertical layers and the depth-integrated N_2 fixation rates were binned in $3^\circ \times$ ~~latitude~~ $\times 3^\circ$ ~~grids~~ ~~longitude~~ bins, and the ~~geometric~~ ~~arithmetic~~ means in each bin are displayed (**Fig. 78**). The depth-integrated N_2 fixation rates ranged ~~in order~~ ~~orders~~ of ~~magnitude~~, ~~from~~ $10^{-4} - 10^3 \mu\text{mol N m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ (mostly ~~in order~~ ~~offrom~~ $1 - 100$ to $10^2 \mu\text{mol N m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$

1) (Fig. 7a8a). Some high rates (i.e., $10^2 - 10^3 \mu\text{mol N m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$) were found in the western Pacific Ocean, the regions near the Hawaiian Islands, and the western tropical Atlantic Ocean. Approximately 25-10% of the depth-integrated N_2 fixation rates were $\leq 1 \mu\text{mol N m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$, and were mainly from the North Atlantic Ocean and the Indian Ocean. Vertically, the N_2 fixation rates were highest in the upper 25 m (Fig. 7b8b, c), below which the rates rapidly decreased with depth (Fig. 7d8d, e, f). In the upper 25 m, the volumetric N_2 fixation rates in the southwestern Pacific were higher than those in other areas, mostly ranging from 1 to $100 \mu\text{mol N m}^{-3} \text{d}^{-1}$. Note that some undetectable N_2 fixation rates were reported mostly in subpolar regions, as well as in certain tropical and subtropical regions (Fig. 78).

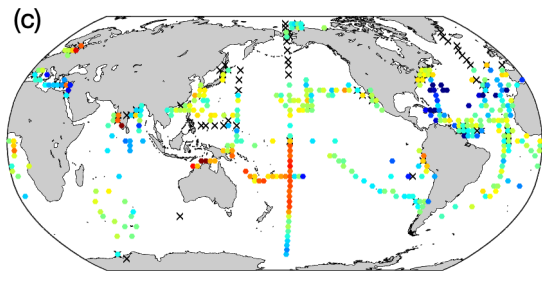
Depth-integrated N_2 fixation rates ($\mu\text{mol N m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$)



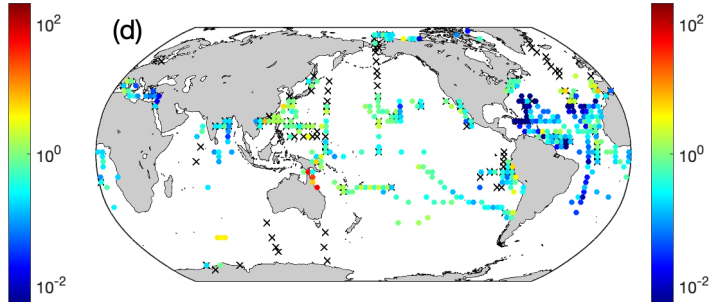
Volumetric N_2 fixation rates in 0 to 5 m ($\mu\text{mol N m}^{-3} \text{d}^{-1}$)



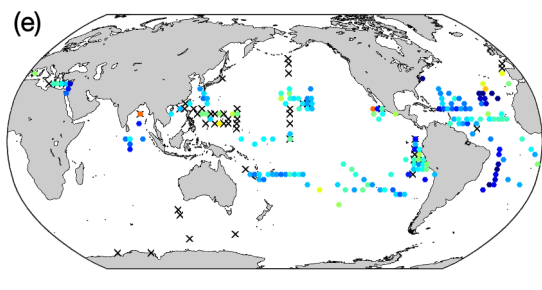
Volumetric N_2 fixation rates in 5 to 25 m ($\mu\text{mol N m}^{-3} \text{d}^{-1}$)



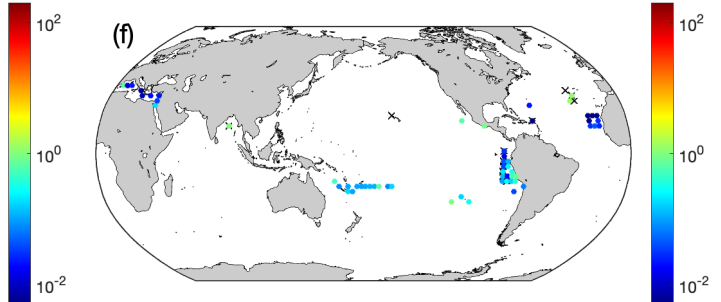
Volumetric N_2 fixation rates in 25 to 100 m ($\mu\text{mol N m}^{-3} \text{d}^{-1}$)

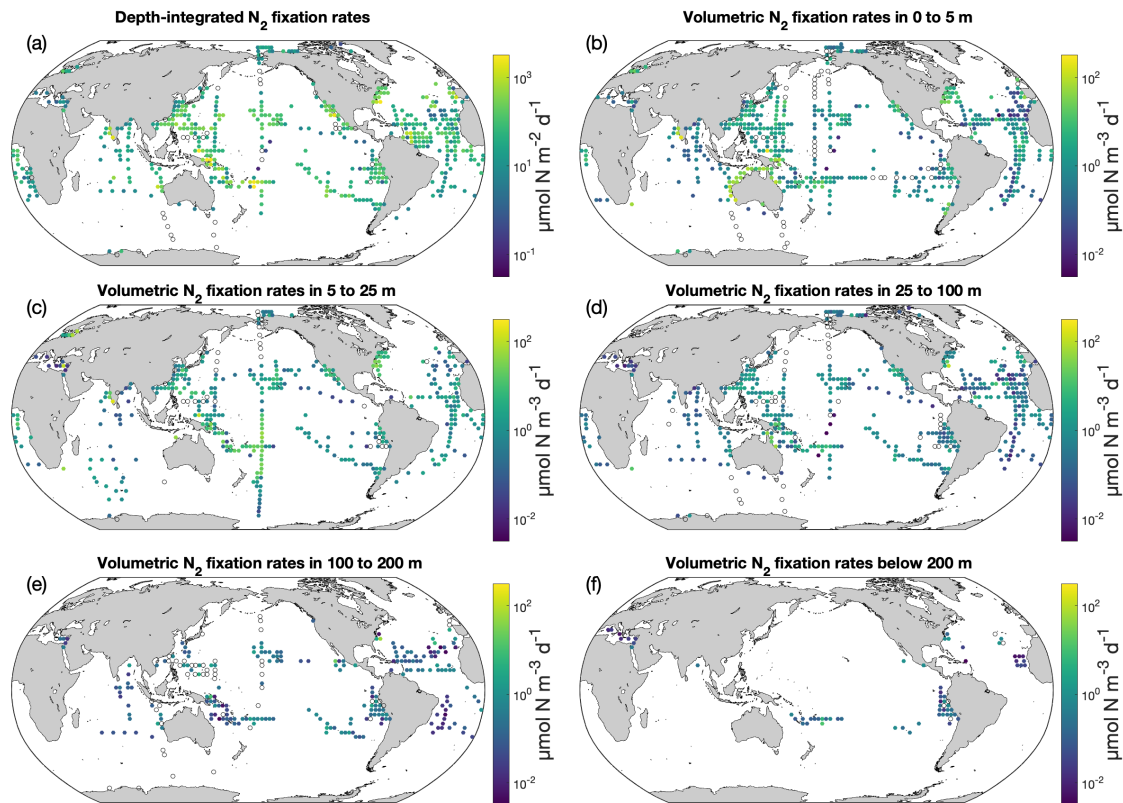


Volumetric N_2 fixation rates in 100 to 200 m ($\mu\text{mol N m}^{-3} \text{d}^{-1}$)



Volumetric N_2 fixation rates below 200 m ($\mu\text{mol N m}^{-3} \text{d}^{-1}$)





600 **Figure 78.** N_2 fixation rates in the version 2 of the database. The panels show (a) depth-integrated data and volumetric data in (b) 0–5 m, (c) 5–25 m, (d) 25–100 m, (e) 100–200 m, and (f) below 200 m. For a clear demonstration, data are binned to arithmetic mean N_2 fixation rates in 3° latitude \times 3° grids and geometric means in each bin along longitude bins are shown. Zero-value data are denoted as black crosses/empty circles. Only rates measured with incubation periods of 24 hours are included.

605 Cell-specific N_2 fixation rates span a range from 10^{-4} to 10^3 fmol N cell $^{-1}$ d $^{-1}$, although mostly on the order of 10^{-2} to 10^2 fmol N cell $^{-1}$ d $^{-1}$ (Fig. 9). The mean cell-specific N_2 fixation rates of *Trichodesmium*, UCYN-A2 and heterocystous cyanobacteria were one to two orders of magnitude higher than those of other diazotrophic groups (Fig. 9 & Table S1).

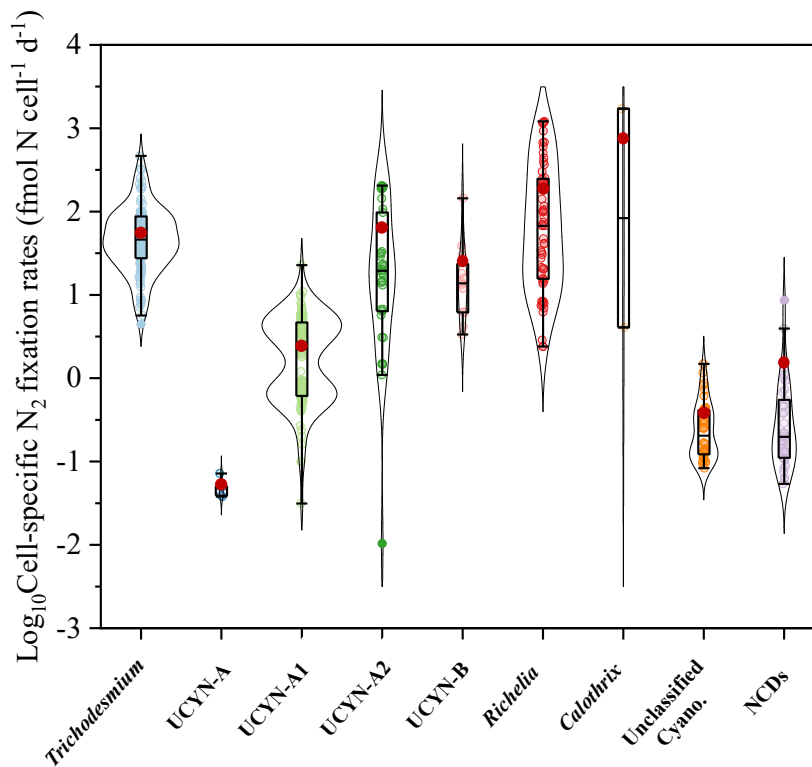
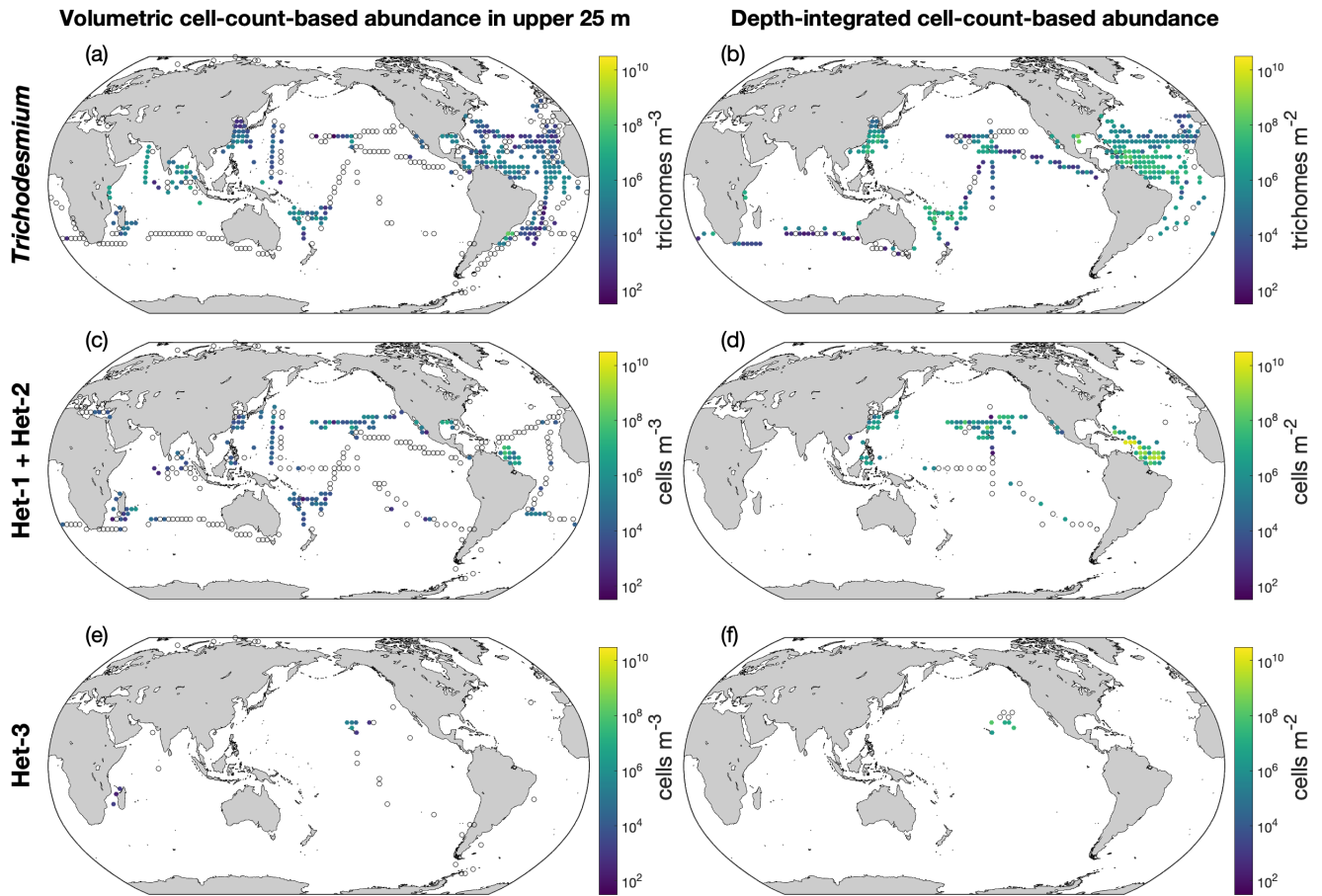


Figure 9. Violin plot of cell-specific N_2 fixation rates, including measurements for *Trichodesmium*, UCYN-A, UCYN-A1, UCYN-A2, UCYN-B, heterocystous cyanobacteria, unclassified cyanobacteria, and NCDs. The range of each box spans the 25th–75th percentile of data, the black line in each box is the median, and the red dot represents the arithmetic mean.

3.3 Diazotrophic abundance

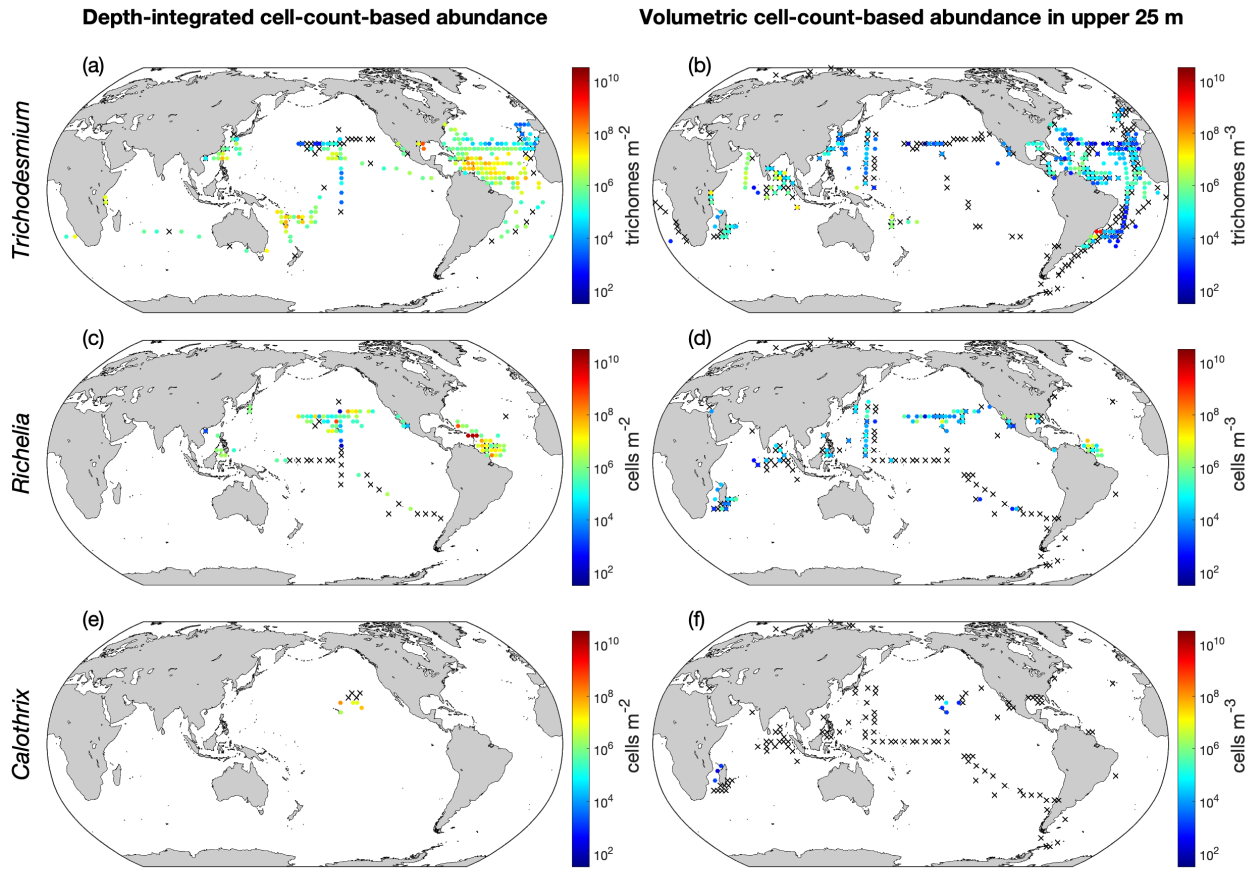
The depth-integrated cell abundances and upper 25 m-volumetric cell-count-based abundances in upper 25 m are also shown in geometries as the arithmetic means of each in $3^\circ \times 3^\circ$ latitude \times 3° grid longitude bins (Fig. 810). *Trichodesmium* abundance generally decreased from the west to the east in the Atlantic Ocean (Fig. 8a10a–b). In the Pacific Ocean, *Trichodesmium* appeared more abundant in the west. The abundance data of *Richelia* and *Calothrix* heterocystous diazotrophs were still scarce (Fig. 8e10c, e). The volumetric cell-count-based abundance data are also displayed in three additional depth intervals (Fig. S6).



620 [Figure 10](#). Depth-integrated cell abundances and volumetric cell abundances in upper 25 m in the version 2 of the database. The panels show (a–b) *Trichodesmium*, (c–d) het-1/2, and (e–f) het-3. For a clear demonstration, data are binned to 3° latitude × 3° longitude, and arithmetic means in each bin are shown. Zero-value data are denoted as open black circles.

625 [Gene copies](#) of *nifH* ~~copies~~ had better spatial coverage than the cell-count data ([Fig. 911](#)). Depth-integrated *Trichodesmium nifH* copies were also more abundant in the western Pacific and western Atlantic Oceans ([Fig. 9a11a](#)). Some high depth-integrated *nifH* abundance of UCYN-A and UCYN-B ~~was~~[were also](#) reported in the northwestern and southwestern Pacific Ocean ([Fig. 9e11c](#), e). High *nifH* ~~abundance~~[abundances](#) of *Richelia* ~~was~~[also were](#) found in the ~~northwestern~~[southwestern](#) Pacific Ocean [and western Atlantic Oceans](#) ([Fig. 9i11i](#)). The *nifH* abundance data for UCYN-C and *Calothrix* ~~het-3~~ were sparse. The volumetric *nifH* abundance data are ~~also shown~~[displayed](#) in ~~four~~[three](#) depth intervals ([Fig. 911](#) & [Fig. S8S7](#)). Almost all diazotrophs were more abundant in the upper 25 m than ~~below~~[in deeper water](#).

630



Volumetric *nifH*-based abundance in upper 25 m

Depth-integrated *nifH*-based abundance

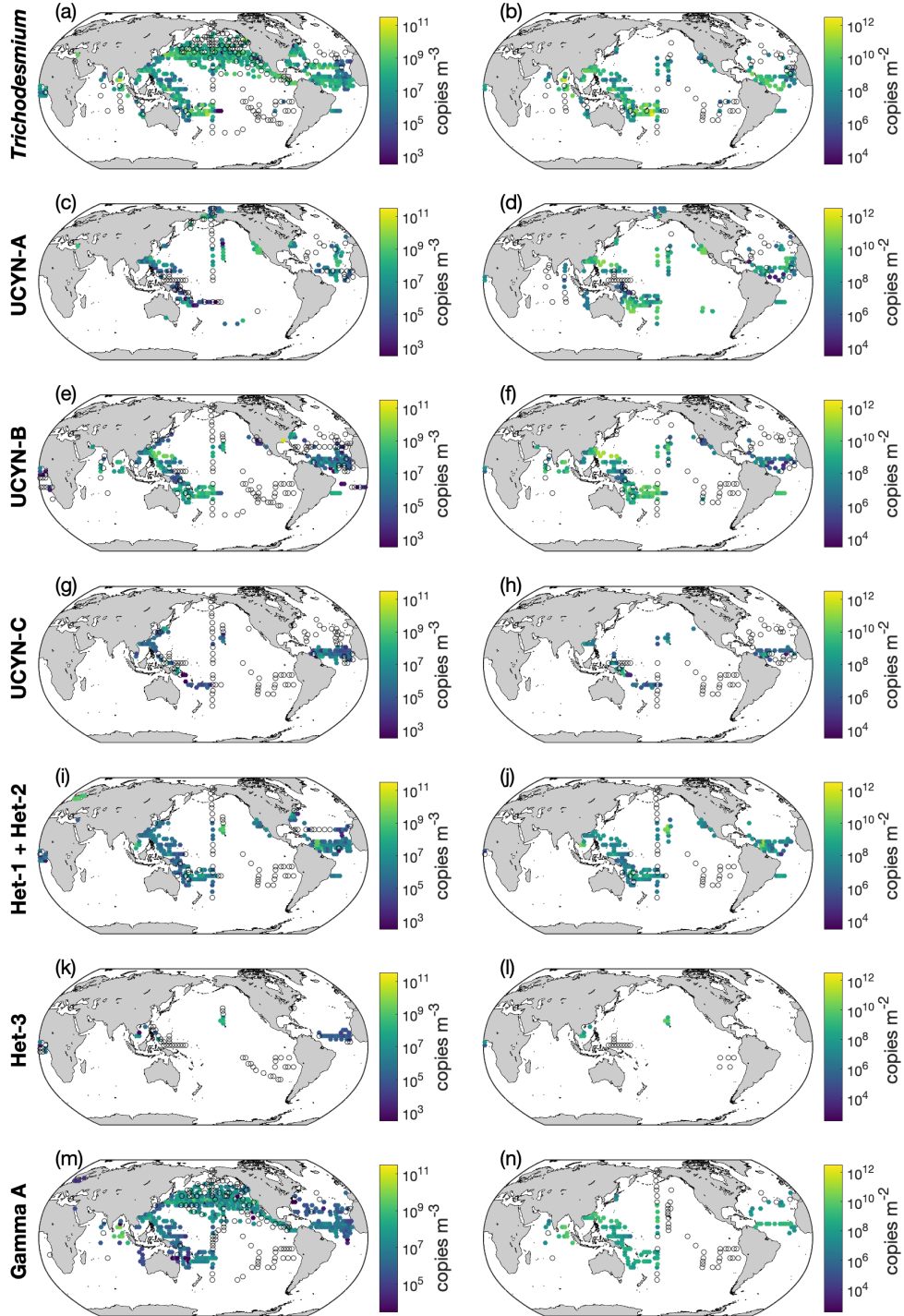


Figure 8. ~~Depth-integrated cell-count-based abundance~~**11.** ~~Volumetric and upper 25 m volumetric cell-count-based abundance~~~~depth-integrated *nifH* gene copy abundances in the~~ version 2 of the database. ~~For volumetric abundances, only data in the upper 25 m are shown.~~ The panels show ~~gene copy abundances of~~ (a–b) *Trichodesmium*, (c–d) *Rickettsia* UCYN-A, (e–f) UCYN-B, (g–h) UCYN-C, (i–j) het-1 + het-2, (k–l) het-3, and (e–f) *Calothrix*. ~~m–n~~ Gamma A (an NCD phylotype). ~~The depth-integrated data for Gamma A are not available.~~ For a clear demonstration, data are binned to 3° latitude × 3° longitude and ~~geometric~~arithmetic means in each bin are shown. Zero-value data are denoted as ~~open~~ black crosses. ~~Note that the abundance of *Trichodesmium* is reported as the number of trichomes per square or cubic meter~~circles.

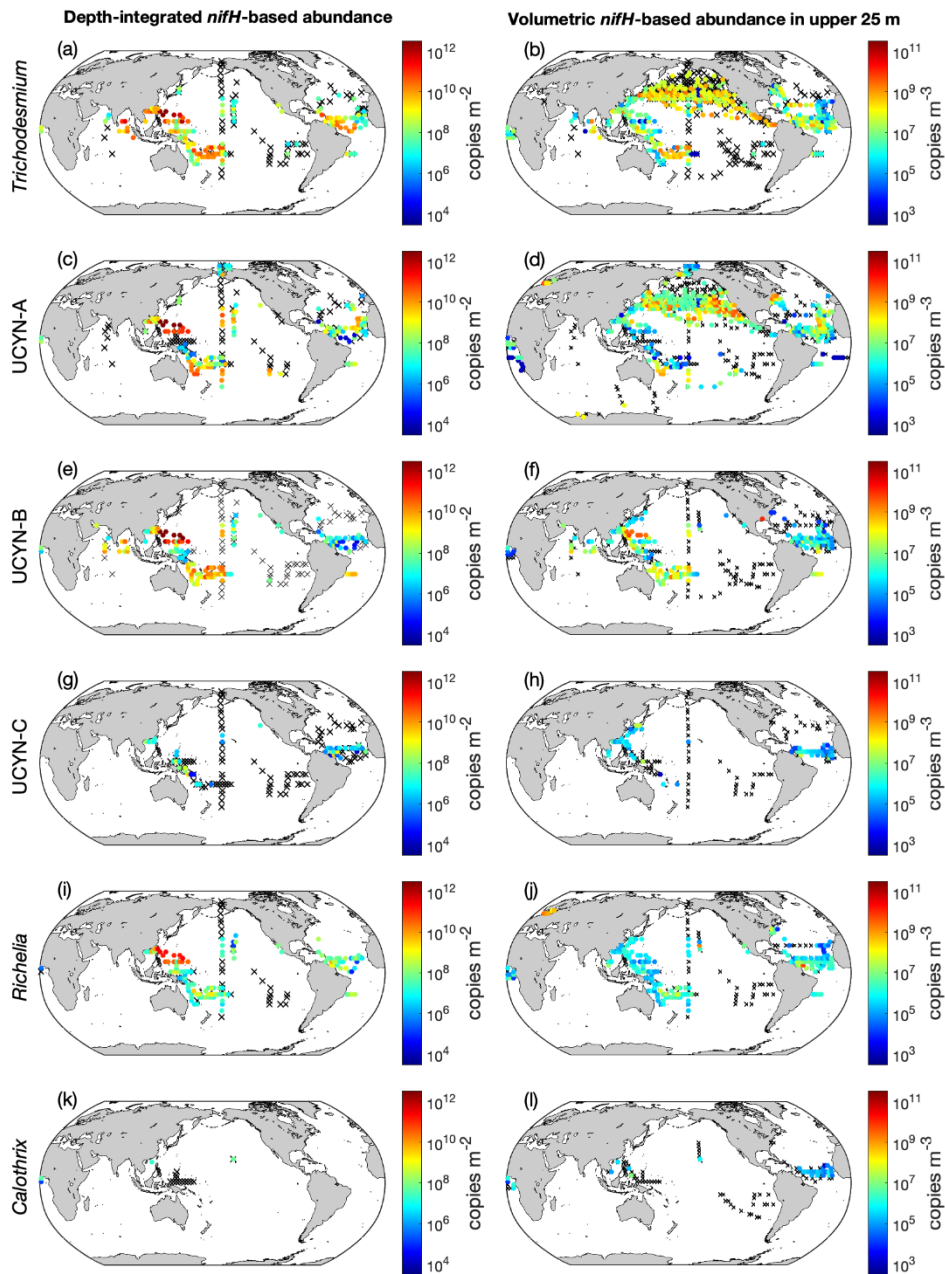


Figure 9. Depth-integrated *nifH* abundance and upper 25 m volumetric *nifH* abundance in version 2 of the database. The panels show (a–b) *Trichodesmium*, (c–d) UCYN A, (e–f) UCYN B, (g–h) UCYN C, (i–j) *Richelia*, and (k–l) *Calothrix*. For a clear demonstration, data are binned to $3^\circ \times 3^\circ$ and geometric means in each bin are shown. Zero-value data are denoted as black crosses.

650 3.4 First-order estimate of global oceanic N₂ fixation rate

655 Similar to that applied to the original database, we used version 2 of the database to conduct a first order estimate of global ocean N₂ fixation rates (Table 5). The adequate data in version 2 supported the estimates of mean and total N₂ fixation rates in the Indian and Arctic Oceans, while the estimates for these two ocean basins were not available when using the original database. Compared to version 1, the spatial coverage of data in version 2, in terms of the fraction of 3°×3° bins, was greatly increased in all ocean basins (Table 8). The spatial data coverage was very low in the Southern and Arctic Oceans (1% and 2% of total bins, respectively) (Table 8) and we therefore did not estimate total N₂ fixation rates for these two basins. Please note that the inaccurate areas of the North and South Pacific Oceans used in estimating global oceanic N₂ fixation rate by (Luo et al., (2012)– was corrected in this study (Table 8).

660 Version 2 estimated a much higher arithmetic mean of N₂ fixation rates in the South Pacific Ocean than that using the original database, while the difference did not exist in the geometric means in the same basin. Another large difference between the two versions of the database was the much lower geometric mean of N₂ fixation rates in the North Pacific. The global oceanic N₂ fixation rate was calculated by summing its geometric or arithmetic means in every ocean basin, with the associated errors being propagated (Glover et al., 2011; Luo et al., 2012). The estimates of global oceanic N₂ fixation based on geometric means were close using the original and version 2 databases (62 and 60 Tg N yr⁻¹, respectively), while those based on arithmetic means differed greatly (137 versus 260 Tg N yr⁻¹, respectively). This higher arithmetic mean based estimate of global oceanic N₂ fixation was mainly due to the supplementation of the Indian Ocean, for which the estimate was unavailable when using the original database because of data limitations, and due to the higher rates in the South Pacific Ocean. It must be noted that high uncertainties were associated with the arithmetic means of N₂ fixation in the South Pacific and Indian Oceans when using version 2 (Table 5), indicating that more measurements were needed in these basins to better constrain the elevated estimates of global oceanic N₂ fixation.

675 **Table 58.** First-order estimates of N₂ fixation rates ~~is based on their arithmetic means in~~ different ocean basins. Data are first binned to 3°×3° latitude ×3° longitude grids before being used to calculate ~~geometric or~~ arithmetic means in each basin. The arithmetic means are multiplied by the basin areas to calculate the N₂ fixation rates of each basin. NQ: not quantified due to limited data points. ND: no data. The ~~numbers/percentages~~ in parentheses ~~after geometric means are~~ confidence intervals estimated from fraction of the 3° ×3° bins in each basin that have measurements. The reported uncertainties are one standard error of log₁₀ transformed data. Arithmetic means were reported with one standard error the mean.

Region	Number of binned data	Latitudinal range	Ocean area (× 10 ¹² m ²)	Mean-Arithmetic mean N ₂ fixation rate (μmol N m ⁻² d ⁻¹)	Areal sum of N ₂ fixation rate (Tg N yr ⁻¹)
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	Version 1	Version 2	Version 1	Version 2	Version 1	Version 2	Version 1	Version 2	Version 1	Version 2
	Original database	Original database	Original database	Original database	Original database	Original database	Original database	Original database	Original database	Original database
North Atlantic	12547 (9%)	18011 6 (21%)	9.2 (7.0-12) -55°N	170± 400°-55° N	18.9 (18.6 -19.1) 37	180± 3337	1.7 (1.3-2.2) 55±9	32± 7.4213±4 6	3.98 (3.93- 4.03) 1	38± 7.040±9
South Atlantic	1514 (4%)	5352 (15%)	7.9 (6.3-9.8) 40°S-0°	13± 4.445°S -0°	17 (6.9- 43)26	30± 5	1.1 (0.9-1.13±4)	1.8± 0.630±5	2.7 (1.1-8 ±0.6-7)	4.6± 0.815±1
North Pacific	4534 (4%)	13114 3 (17%)	78 (67-90) 0°-55°N	120± 220°-55° N	50 (22-1 15)75	130± 2075	35 (30-41 111±17)	56± 9.8144±2 8	20 (8.8-4 7)42±7	52± 8.255±11
South Pacific	2620 (2%)	95100 (12%)	64 (54-76) 0°S-0°	130± 4645°S-0°	58 (30-1 15)63	240± 6669	24 (20-28 61±7)	46± 17250±6 6	20 (10-4 0)±2	83± 88±23
Indian Ocean	4ND	3447 (9%)	120 (29-490)	590± 32045°S- 25°N	17 (15-2 0)	270± 14056	NQND	NQ123± 50	4.9 (4.3-5 -6)ND	76± 3335±14
Mediterranean Sea	101 (3%)	129 (23%)	18 (12-28) 0°N-45° N	30°N-45± 21°N	9.8 (7.4- 13)2.5	120± 942.5	0.2 (0.1-0.4)NQ	0.6± 0.35±1	0.2 (0.15- 0.26) NQ	2.4± 1.90.06± 0.02
Arctic Ocean	ND	17 (2%)	ND	ND	14 (8.5- 23)	19± 511	ND	ND23±5	0.8 (0.48- 1.3)N D	1.1± 0.28NQ
Southern Ocean	ND	10 (1%)	ND	ND	21 (7.7- 58)	8.6± 8.160	ND	ND9±8	6.5 (2.4-1 8)ND	2.7± 2.5NQ

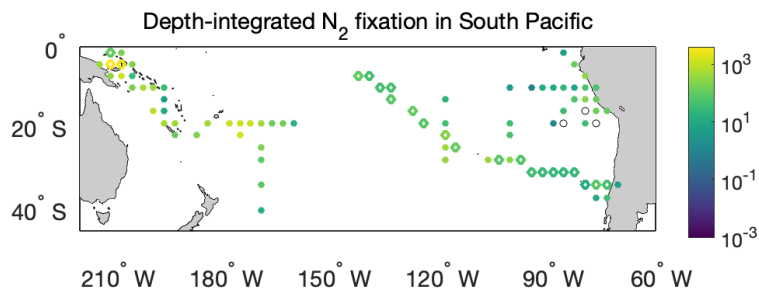
Global								60	260±		
Ocean	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	62 (52-73)	137± 9.2	(47-1 07)74 ±7	20223±3 0

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We first compared the N_2 fixation rates estimated based on arithmetic means between using version 1 and version 2 (Table 8). Using available data in version 2, the global N_2 fixation rate was determined to be $223 \pm 30 \text{ Tg N yr}^{-1}$, which was three times that obtained from version 1 (Table 8). The substantial increase was mostly driven by notable changes in the South Pacific, North Atlantic, and Indian Oceans. In the South Pacific Ocean, numerous high N_2 fixation rates were observed in the western subtropical region over the past decade (Fig. 12), resulting in a substantial increase of $68 \pm 23 \text{ Tg N yr}^{-1}$ in the estimated N_2 fixation rate for this basin (Table 8). It is worth noting that these newly recorded measurements in the western subtropics of the South Pacific Ocean might even be underestimated since most of them were obtained using the original $^{15}N_2$ bubble method. In the North Atlantic Ocean, the estimated N_2 fixation rate also experienced an increase of $30 \pm 9 \text{ Tg N yr}^{-1}$ for (Table 8), without any discernible pattern regarding the locations of the new high N_2 fixation measurements (Fig. 13). Furthermore, in the Indian Ocean, the improved data coverage in version 2 (Fig. 8a) supported the estimation of an N_2 fixation rate of $35 \pm 14 \text{ Tg N yr}^{-1}$ for this basin (Table 8), which was not possible to calculate using version 1 due to insufficient data availability.



695

Figure 12. Depth-integrated N_2 fixation rates in the South Pacific Ocean ($\mu\text{mol N m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$). The shown data are arithmetic mean rates in 3° latitude $\times 3^\circ$ longitude bins. Empty diamonds and filled circles denote the existing data in the version 1 of the database and the new data added to version 2, respectively.

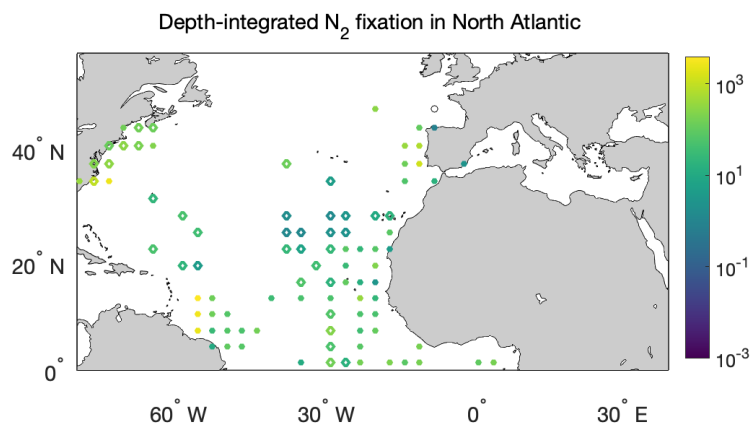


Figure 13. Depth-integrated N₂ fixation rates in the North Atlantic Ocean ($\mu\text{mol N m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$). The shown data are arithmetic mean rates in 3° latitude \times 3° longitude bins. Empty diamonds and filled circles denote the existing data in the version 1 of the database and the new data added to version 2, respectively.

However, when estimating the global marine N₂ fixation rate using geometric means, both version 1 and version 2 yielded similar rates of approximately 50 Tg N yr⁻¹ (Table 9). The N₂ fixation rates in each basin tended to follow a log-normal distribution (Fig. 14), with the geometric mean aligning near the peak of the distribution. In the South Pacific Ocean, as discussed earlier, version 2 included a substantial number of newly observed high N₂ fixation rates, but it also incorporated a significant number of rates that were much lower than those in version 1 (Fig. 14c). This could be partially attributed to enhanced detection limits in measurements. Consequently, while version 2 yielded a much higher arithmetic mean N₂ fixation rate compared to version 1 for the South Pacific Ocean (Table 8), their geometric means remained quite similar (Table 9). In the North Pacific Ocean, for the same reasons, the arithmetic mean N₂ fixation rates obtained from both versions were very close, while the geometric mean from version 1 could be even higher than that from version 2 (Tables 8 & 9; Fig. 14a). These analyses reveal that, despite the similarity in geometric means of N₂ fixation rates obtained from both versions of the database, the higher arithmetic means in version 2 were not coincidental. Instead, they were a direct outcome of the improved measurement methods and the expanded spatial and temporal coverage of marine N₂ fixation over the past decade. Consequently, previous assessments of the global marine N₂ fixation rate were likely underestimated due to the absence of these new measurements.

Table 9. Same as Table 8 but based on the geometric means of N₂ fixation rates. The numbers in parentheses are estimated ranges based on one standard error of log-transformed N₂ fixation rates (see Section 2.4).

Region	Proportion of zero-value data		Geometric mean N ₂ fixation rate ($\mu\text{mol N m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$)		Areal sum of N ₂ fixation rate (Tg N yr ⁻¹)	
	Version 1	Version 2	Version 1	Version 2	Version 1	Version 2
North Atlantic	0%	5%	22 (18–26)	46 (39–54)	4.1 (3.3–5.0)	8.7 (7.4–10.1)

<u>South Atlantic</u>	<u>0%</u>	<u>25%</u>	<u>$\frac{8}{(6-10)}$</u>	<u>$\frac{15}{(13-17)}$</u>	<u>$\frac{1.1}{(0.9-1.3)}$</u>	<u>$\frac{2.3}{(1.9-2.7)}$</u>
<u>North Pacific</u>	<u>3%</u>	<u>6%</u>	<u>$\frac{73}{(63-83)}$</u>	<u>$\frac{45}{(39-52)}$</u>	<u>$\frac{27.8}{(24.2-32.0)}$</u>	<u>$\frac{17.3}{(15.1-19.8)}$</u>
<u>South Pacific</u>	<u>0%</u>	<u>9%</u>	<u>$\frac{52}{(45-59)}$</u>	<u>$\frac{51}{(43-61)}$</u>	<u>$\frac{16.6}{(14.4-19.1)}$</u>	<u>$\frac{18.0}{(15.1-21.4)}$</u>
<u>Indian Ocean</u>	<u>ND</u>	<u>0%</u>	<u>ND</u>	<u>$\frac{25}{(20-31)}$</u>	<u>ND</u>	<u>$\frac{7.1}{(5.7-8.9)}$</u>
<u>Mediterranean Sea</u>	<u>0%</u>	<u>3%</u>	<u>NQ</u>	<u>$\frac{3}{(2-4)}$</u>	<u>NQ</u>	<u>$\frac{0.04}{(0.03-0.05)}$</u>
<u>Arctic Ocean</u>	<u>ND</u>	<u>2%</u>	<u>ND</u>	<u>$\frac{14}{(11-18)}$</u>	<u>ND</u>	<u>NQ</u>
<u>Southern Ocean</u>	<u>ND</u>	<u>70%</u>	<u>ND</u>	<u>$\frac{4}{(1-16)}$</u>	<u>ND</u>	<u>NQ</u>
<u>Global Ocean</u>					<u>$\frac{50}{(43-57)}$</u>	<u>$\frac{53}{(45-63)}$</u>

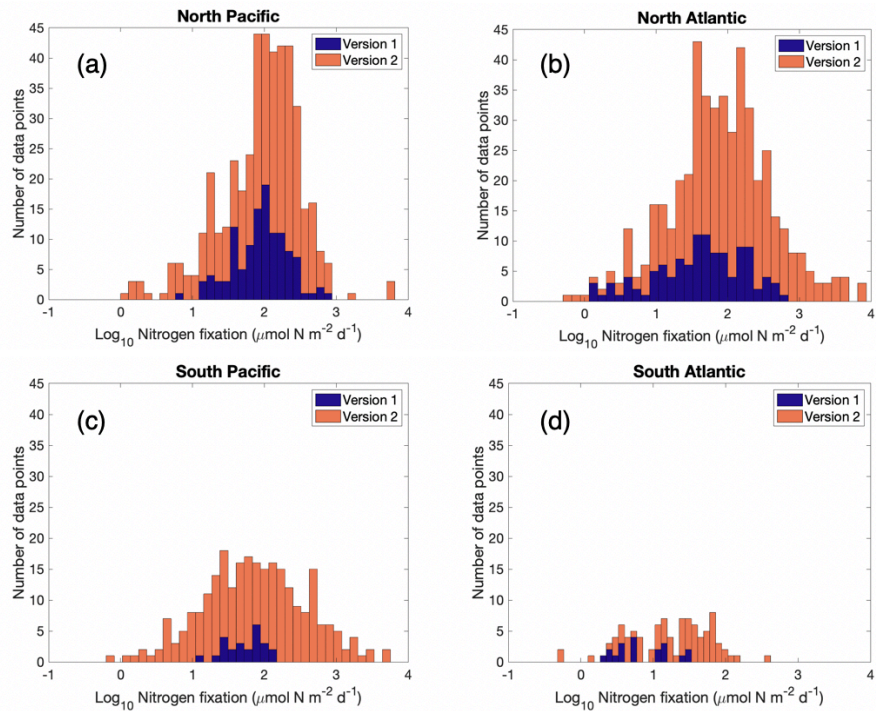


Figure 14. Comparison of the distribution of log-transformed N_2 fixation rates between the two versions of the database. Note that the zero-value data are not included because of the log-transformation. The comparison is performed for data in (a) North Pacific, (b) North Atlantic, (c) South Pacific, and (d) South Atlantic Oceans.

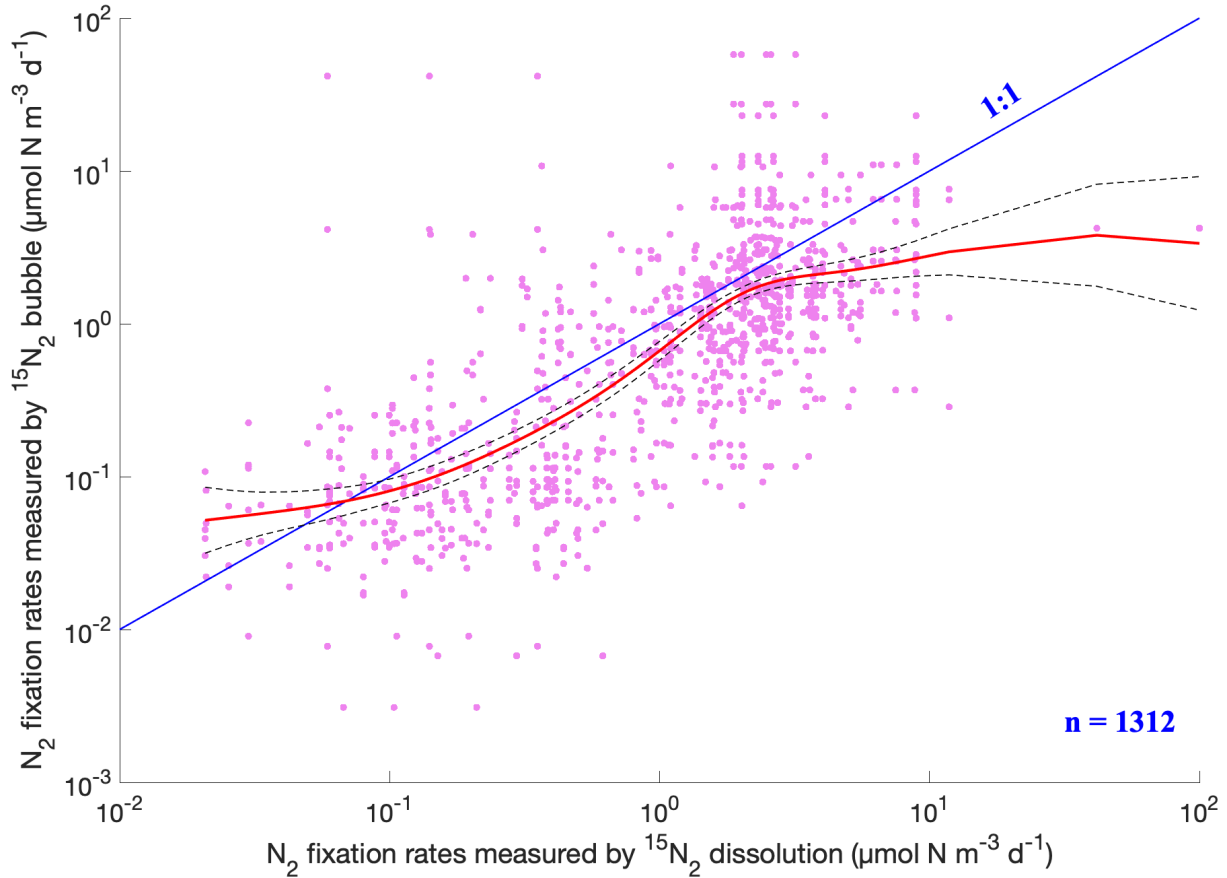
725 We must emphasize that this calculation simply used average N₂ fixation rates in different ocean basins, and therefore can only be considered as a first-order estimate. Furthermore, limited measurements have shown a large range of N₂ fixation rates in the Southern Ocean (Fig. 8). Considering its vast area, future measurements expanding coverage of N₂ fixation rates in the Southern Ocean (but see White et al. 2022) may help to better constrain the contribution of N₂ fixation to the N budget of the global ocean.

730 4. Discussion

4.1 Comparison of N₂ fixation measured using ¹⁵N₂ bubbling and dissolution methods

735 Compared to the ¹⁵N₂ dissolution method, the magnitude of underestimation in ¹⁵N₂ fixation rates acquired by the ¹⁵N₂ bubble method remains inconclusive. Here, we used data in our database to compare these two methods. First, as estimated using different ¹⁵N₂ tracer methods remains unclear. As shown above, the volumetric N₂ fixation rates obtained by these two methods varied in a similar range of extent of magnitude (Fig. 1). The average N₂ fixation rate measured using the original ¹⁵N₂ bubble method and the ¹⁵N₂ dissolution method was spanned a similar range (Fig. 1), while the average rates using the former method were significantly higher (17%) lower than that measured using the ¹⁵N₂ bubble latter method (one-tailed Wilcoxon test, $p < 0.01$). We also (001, $n = 2460$ and 1128). With substantial data accumulated over the past decade, we further compared N₂ fixation rates at the same location (1° × 1° grids) and months but measured by either the ¹⁵N₂ bubble or dissolution method measured using the two methods at close locations and sampling time, although the samples measured by the two methods were not identical. We first binned data collected from the same months, horizontal locations (3° latitude × 3° longitude) and depth intervals (0–5 m, 5–25 m, 25–100 m, and 100–200 m), and calculated the average rates for each method in each bin. The results showed that the original ¹⁵N₂ dissolution bubble method produced higher lower rates than the ¹⁵N₂ bubble dissolution method in 6569% of the cases (Fig. 10). The 13). Furthermore, our analysis using employing the generalized additive model (GAM) further demonstrated revealed that the underestimation by the relationship between the rates measured using the original ¹⁵N₂ bubble method tended to be exaggerated under high N₂ fixation (> 3 μmol N m⁻³ d⁻¹) and those obtained through the ¹⁵N₂ dissolution method closely adhered to the 1:1 line, albeit with slightly lower values in the former (Fig. 10), which 15). Please note that this slightly lower values can be explained by the gas equilibrium time (Mohr et al., 2010; Wannicke et al., 2018; Jayakumar et al., 2017): Under low N₂ fixation, they still result in significant underestimation in measured N₂ fixation rates, because the GAM model was applied in a logarithmic space. It is crucial to reiterate that the rates being compared were derived from different samples, emphasizing the necessity for more future investigations that directly compare the two methods using the same samples with controlled parameters such as temperature, volume of injected ¹⁵N₂ and incubation volume. Despite this limitation, our analysis suggests that the extensive body of historical marine N₂ fixation rate data obtained through the original ¹⁵N₂ bubble method still holds a value, particularly in the examination of spatial and temporal variations in N₂ fixation.

We also used the same procedure to compare the N_2 fixation rates measured using the acetylene reduction assays and the $^{15}N_2$ tracer methods. However, there were insufficient pairs of data available for reliable comparisons ($n = 16$ for acetylene reduction versus the $^{15}N_2$ dissolution method; $n = 6$ for acetylene reduction versus original $^{15}N_2$ bubble method—can provide sufficient dissolved $^{15}N_2$ regardless of whether the gas reaches equilibrium; under high N_2 fixation, the $^{15}N_2$ bubble method cannot fulfil the requirement of dissolved $^{15}N_2$, resulting in relatively large underestimation.).



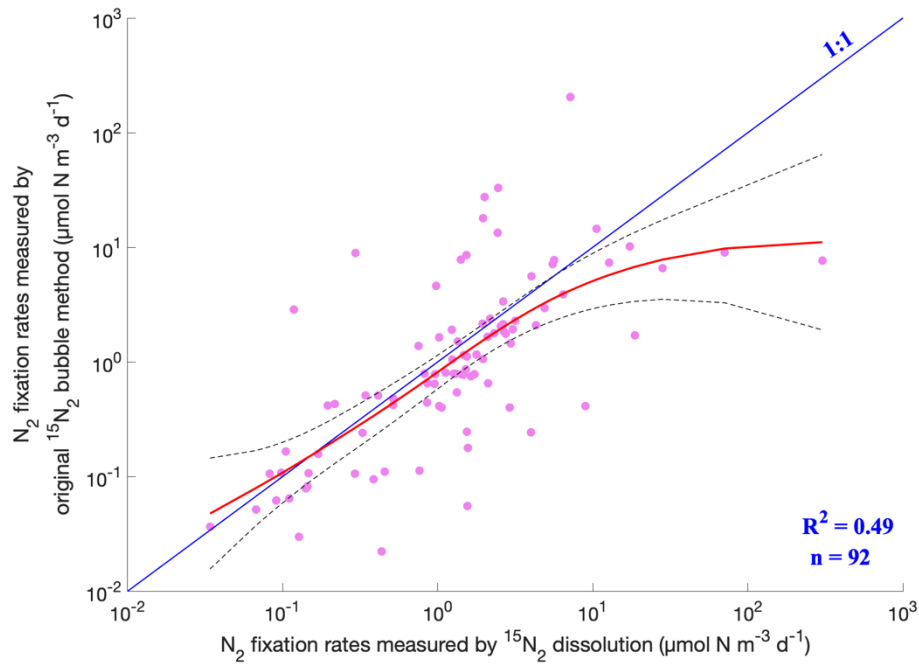


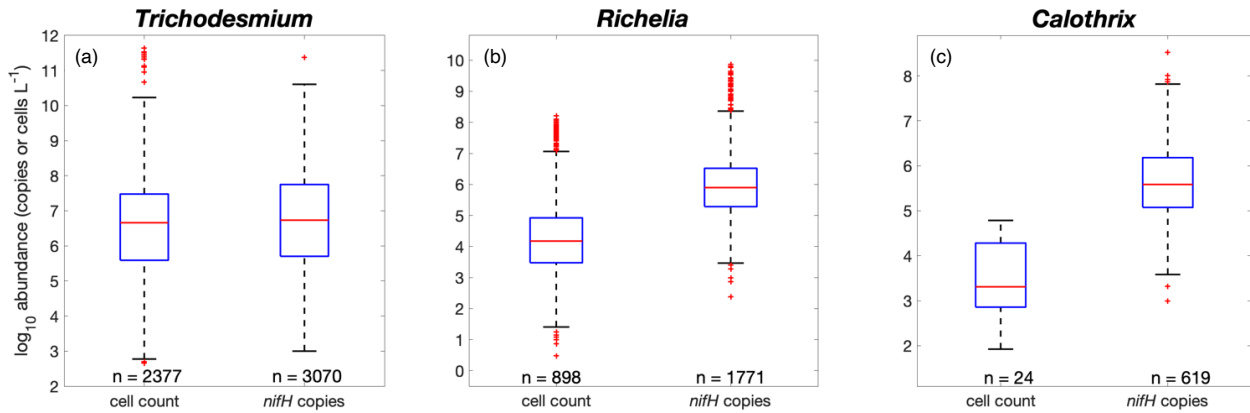
Figure 1015. Comparison of measured N_2 fixation rates using the original $^{15}N_2$ dissolution bubble method and the $^{15}N_2$ bubble assays. The blue line represents the 1:1 ratio of the two methods dissolution method. The pink dots are measurements. The fitted results of the two methods by the generalized additive model (GAM) and confidence intervals are represented by the red solid line and the dashed black lines, respectively. Only the N_2 fixation rates measured with incubation periods of 24 hours were included in this analysis.

4.2 Comparison between diazotrophic cell counts and *nifH* copies

Whether *nifH* copies can be used to infer diazotrophic abundance remains debated and to study diazotrophic biogeography, while some challenges remain in conversion of gene counts to biomass, as a large range in the number of *nifH* copies per diazotrophic cell has been reported (**Table S1**). The reported ratios of *nifH* copies to cell numbers in S2. In version 2, we first converted *Trichodesmium* and heterocystous cyanobacteria appeared larger than those trichome abundance to cell abundance using the same conversion factor of 100 cells trichome⁻¹ as that used in UCYNs (Table S1), possibly caused by large genome size in *Trichodesmium* (SargentLuo et al., 2016, (2012) and inclusion of the *nifH* gene in vegetative cells of heterocystous filaments. This conversion resulted in mean and variance of log-10 transformed *Trichodesmium* cell abundance ($10^{6.5 \pm 1.3}$ cells L^{-1}) very similar to that of *Trichodesmium nifH* gene copies ($10^{6.6 \pm 1.5}$ copies L^{-1}) (**Fig. 16a**). More recently, however, a much lower conversion factor of 13.2 ± 2.3 cells trichome⁻¹ was suggested for *Trichodesmium* based on larger sample sizes, although a very large range of 1.2–685 cells trichome⁻¹ were reported (White et al., 2018). In our database, the log-10 transformed abundance of *Trichodesmium* cell counts ($10^{6.5 \pm 1.2}$ cells L^{-1}) was only slightly lower than the log-10 transformed abundance of *Trichodesmium nifH* copies ($10^{6.6 \pm 1.6}$ copies L^{-1}) (**Fig. 11a**), while the difference was approximately two orders of magnitude

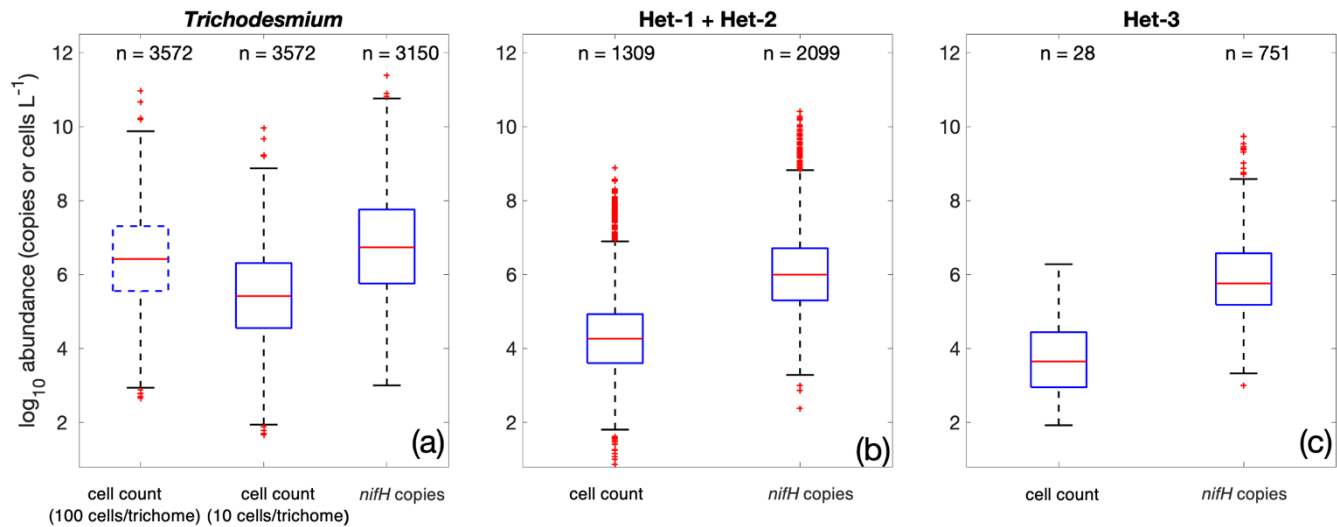
in heterocystous cyanobacteria *Richelia* and *Calothrix* (Fig. 11b, c). It must be noted that this simple analysis used all the data in our database, and the cell counts and *nifH* copies were measured for samples that were not in the same season and location. Much lower ratios of cell counts to *nifH* copies (1.51–2.58) were recently reported in heterocystous cyanobacteria and UCYN-B collected near the Hawaii Islands (Gradoville et al., 2022), demonstrating potentially large variance in these ratios.

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Hence, when a conversion factor of 10 cells trichome⁻¹ was applied, the *Trichodesmium nifH* gene copy abundance was an order of magnitude higher than its cell abundance (Fig. 16a). This result was within the reported mean *nifH*:cell ratios for *Trichodesmium*, albeit based on sparse samples, on the order of 10–100 (Table S2). It is worth noting that there have been suggestions that the observed *nifH*:cell ratio for *Trichodesmium* may be overestimated due to methodological limitations (Gradoville et al., 2022). Our analyses underscore the importance of enumerating *Trichodesmium* cells, rather than solely focusing on trichomes, in future studies, as suggested by White et al. (2018). While counting all *Trichodesmium* cells may be impractical, it would be valuable to report the number of cells in random samples of *Trichodesmium* trichomes.

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Figure 116. Comparison of all cell-count and *nifH* gene copy abundance data in the database. The box plots show the median (central line), 25th and 75th percentiles (upper and lower edges of the boxes), 5th and 95th percentiles (error lines) and outliers (red crosses) of log-10 transformed data. The comparisons are conducted for (a) *Trichodesmium*, (b) het-1/2, (c) het-3. Note that two conversion factors of 10 and 100 cells trichome⁻¹ are used for *Trichodesmium*.

The same analyses for heterocystous cyanobacteria showed that the *nifH* gene copy abundances were approximately two orders of magnitude greater than the cell abundances in terms of both mean and distribution (Fig. 16b, c). It must be noted that this simple analysis used all the data in our database. The limited *in situ* measurements for identical samples resulted in a mean *nifH*:cell ratio of 76 for heterocystous cyanobacteria (Table S2), consistent with our simple analysis.

In contrast, much lower *nifH*:cell ratios (1.51 – 2.58) were derived from regression analysis for heterocystous cyanobacteria and UCYN-B collected in the subtropical North Pacific (Gradoville et al., 2022). Considering these overall scarce measurements and the outcomes of our analysis, it is plausible that there is substantial variability in *nifH*:cell ratios. We expect that future studies, focusing on constraining these ratios and identifying mechanisms underlying variability in these ratios, will contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of the connection between *nifH* gene counts and diazotrophic cell abundance.

The application of qPCR assays for *nifH* based abundance (DNA) and expression (RNA) emerged as a critical step forward in our understanding of the distribution, abundance, and physiology (e.g., expression of *nifH*) of diazotrophs (Short and Zehr, 2005; Zehr and Riemann, 2023). Until then, estimating the abundances of diazotrophs were limited to those that could be identified by microscopy, e.g., *Trichodesmium*, heterocystous cyanobacteria (e.g., *Richelia*, *Calothrix*, *Anabaena*, *Nodularia*, *Aphanizomenon*), and some unicellulars (e.g., *Cyanothece*, later *Crocospaera*). Thus, qPCR enabled the study of diazotrophic targets (and their activity) without the need to microscopy identify them, which came later as some diazotrophs would (and still) require application of FISH techniques for identification (Biegala and Raimbault, 2008). Additionally, qPCR allowed the study of *in situ* activity (gene expression) by diazotrophs without the need for cultivation. Although beyond the scope of the work presented here, important considerations should be taken into account when using microscopy and qPCR datasets (Table S3), for example, in application to biogeochemical models (Meiler et al., 2023).

4.3 Biomass conversion factor

For the possible further use of cell-count or *nifH*-based abundance data, here we suggest factors to convert the abundance to carbon biomass conversion factors for different diazotrophic groups (Tables 610 and S2S4). Most biomass conversion factors suggested here are the same as those used in Luo et al. (2012), except for heterocystous cyanobacteria and excluding UCYN-A and heterocystous cyanobacteria where new information has become available or additional consideration is necessary. A recent study has discovered a new symbiosis association between the unicellular diazotroph

(UCYN-C) and diatom *Epithemia* strains (Schvarcz et al., 2022). However, the conversion factor of UCYN-C could not be updated in this study due to insufficient information on the biovolumes of host cell.

The conversion factor for UCYN-A was updated because it has been found to live symbiotically with haptophyte *Braarudosphaera bigelowii* and relatives (Thompson et al., 2012; Hagino et al., 2013). Because the host and UCYN-A should function together, the host biomass is allocated to UCYN-A. It has been reported that each haptophyte cell hosts one UCYN-A1 cell (Cornejo-Castillo et al., 2019) or one UCYN-A2 cell (Suzuki et al., 2021). We used the empirically-derived equation (Verity et al., 1992):

$$C = 0.433 \times V^{0.863} \tag{1}$$

to estimate biomass of UCYN-A and their hosts. The biomass of a UCYN-A1 cell with a diameter of 1 μm and a UCYN-A2 cell with a diameter of 1.6–3.3 μm (Cornejo-Castillo et al., 2019; Martínez-Pérez et al., 2016) equate to 0.2 pg C and 0.8–5.5 pg C, respectively. The biomasses of the host cell for UCYN-A1 or UCYN-A2 is 1.5–2.2 pg C or 6.8–43 pg C according to their reported cell diameters (2–2.3 μm or 3.6–7.3 μm), respectively (Martínez-Pérez et al., 2016; Cornejo-Castillo et al., 2019). Hence, the biomasses of the UCYN-A1 and the UCYN-A2 symbioses are 1.7–2.4 pg C and 7.6–48 pg C, respectively. After normalizing the symbiotic biomass to the number of UCYN cells in each symbiosis (1 for both UCYN-A1 and UCYN-A2), the biomass conversion factors are 1.7–2.4 pg C (UCYN-A1 cell)⁻¹ and 7.6–48 pg C (UCYN-A2 cell)⁻¹.

Because heterocystous cyanobacteria and their host diatoms form DDAs, similar to UCYN-A, we also suggest allocating the biomass of host diatoms to each associated diazotrophic cell (Table S4). The biomasses of heterocystous cells and vegetative cells in *Richelia* filaments were updated according to the cell dimension data reported in Caputo et al. (2019) using the same empirical equation above. The carbon biomass of host diatom cells was calculated using an empirical equation (Menden-Deuer and Lessard, 2000):

$$C = 0.117 \times V^{0.881} \tag{2}$$

UCYN-A because new information has become available or additional consideration is necessary.

Because heterocystous cyanobacteria and their host diatoms form DDAs and need to function together, we suggest allocating the biomass of host diatoms to each associated diazotrophic cell (Table S2). The carbon biomass of host diatom cells was calculated using an empirical equation (Menden-Deuer and Lessard, 2000):

$$C = 0.117 \times V^{0.881} \tag{1}$$

where C is the diatom cell carbon biomass (pg C cell⁻¹), and V is the average cell biovolume (μm^3) of each diatom genus, for which values from a database (Harrison et al., 2015) (Harrison et al., 2015) were used in this study (Table S2S4). Each host diatom associates with multiple heterocysts. The numbers of *Richelia* heterocysts in associated with *Hemiaulus*, *Rhizosolenia* and *Rhizosolenia*/*Chaetoceros* were observed to be 2 and 5 (Villareal et al., 2011; Yeung et al., 2012), and the within the range of 1–2, 1–5 and 3–10 respectively (Villareal et al., 2011; Yeung et al., 2012; Caputo et al., 2019), we selected both the maximum and minimum to do the estimation. The number of vegetative cells in each heterocyst can range from 3 to 10 (Foster et al., 2011). We tried 2 and 5 *Calothrix* heterocysts in *Chaetoceros* when estimating the biomass conversion factor, although the values were unknown. The biomasses of heterocystous cells and vegetative cells (2–80 pg C cell⁻¹ for *Richelia* and 5–20

865 pg C cell^{-1} for *Calothrix*) were adopted from Luo et al. (2012). Hence, the conversion also updated according to Caputo et al. (2019). Conversion factors for DDAs were estimated by dividing the total biomass of each DDA by the number of associated heterocysts. As a result, the changes in the number of *Richelia* in *Rhizosolenia* (1 or 5) would make a large variation in its conversion factor, possibly due to large host biomass, therefore we keep them both to let users take caution when using this conversion factor. The resulting biomass conversion factors of *Richelia-Hemiaulus* and *Richelia-Rhizosolenia-Chaetoceros* associations were estimated to be 280 (range: 150–1250) and 430 (range: 10–1900) $\text{pg C heterocyst}^{-1}$, respectively (Table S2). As S4, as the number of filaments (2 or 5) did not have a large impact on the factors of *Calothrix-Chaetoceros* associations, we recommend using 100 (range: 20–360) $\text{pg C heterocyst}^{-1}$ conversion factors.

870 The conversion factor for UCYN-A is also updated because it has been found to live symbiotically with prymnesiophyte or eococcolithophore species (Thompson et al., 2012). Similar to DDAs, the host biomass is allocated to UCYN-A. It has been reported that each prymnesiophyte cell hosts one UCYN-A1 cell, and each eococcolithophore hosts 5–10 UCYN-A2 cells (Cornejo-Castillo et al., 2019). The biomass of a UCYN-A1 cell with a diameter of 1 μm and a UCYN-A2 cell with a diameter of 1.6–3.3 μm (Cornejo-Castillo et al., 2019; Martínez-Pérez et al., 2016) is 0.2 and 0.8–5.5 pg C , respectively, by using an empirical equation (Verity et al., 1992):

$$C = 0.433 \times V^{0.863} \quad (2)$$

880 Using Equation (2), the biomass of a host prymnesiophyte or eococcolithophore cell is 1.5–2.2 pg C or 6.8–43 pg C according to their reported cell diameters (2–2.3 μm and 3.6–7.3 μm , respectively) (Martínez-Pérez et al., 2016; Cornejo-Castillo et al., 2019). Hence, the biomass of the UCYN-A1 symbiosis and the UCYN-A2 symbiosis is 1.7–2.4 pg C and 7.6–48 pg C , respectively. After normalizing the symbiotic biomass to the number of UCYN cells in each symbiosis (1 for UCYN-A1 and 5–10 for UCYN-A2), the biomass conversion factors are 1.7–2.4 $\text{pg C (UCYN-A1 cell)}^{-1}$ and 0.8–9.6 $\text{pg C (UCYN-A2 cell)}^{-1}$. Thus, we recommend using a uniform conversion factor of 2 pg C cell^{-1} for these two clades of UCYN-A (Table 7) considering that UCYN-A1 is more frequently found and often in higher abundance than UCYN-A2 (Thompson et al., 2014).

885 **Table 6.** Biomass conversion factors for diazotrophs.

It is important to reiterate that these biomass conversion factors are only applicable to cell-count data. Attempting to convert *nifH* gene copies to biomass is not recommended due to significant uncertainties associated with *nifH*:cell, as previously discussed.

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Table 10. Recommended carbon biomass conversion factors and their likely ranges for diazotrophic groups.

<i>Trichodesmium</i>	UCYN-A1 (pg C cell^{-1})	UCYN-A2 (pg C cell^{-1})	UCYN-B (pg C cell^{-1})	UCYN-C (pg C cell^{-1})	Het-1 <i>Richelia-Hemiaulus</i> ($\text{pg C heterocyst}^{-1}$)	Het-2 <i>Richelia-Rhizosolenia</i> ($\text{pg C heterocyst}^{-1}$)	<i>Calothrix</i> Het-3 <i>Richelia-Chaetoceros</i>
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Recommended	300	2	<u>30</u>	20	10	280 <u>350</u>	<u>450</u> (5 heterocyst DDA ⁻¹) or <u>1900</u> (1 heterocyst DDA ⁻¹)	100 <u>50</u>
<u>Range</u> <u>Likely</u> <u>range</u>	100–500	1–40 <u>3</u>	<u>10–50</u>	4–50	5–24	150– 1250 <u>1030</u>	10–19–5700 <u>19</u> 00	20–360 <u>9–30</u> <u>0</u>

5. Conclusions

895 ~~This~~In this study, we updated the global oceanic diazotrophic database by Luo et al. (2012) ~~using~~by adding new measurements reported in the past decade. Although the spatial coverage of the data was greatly expanded by this effort, the data distribution is still uneven, with most measurements ~~is reported from~~ the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans. ~~The~~Using the updated database, the estimation of global oceanic N₂ fixation based on ~~its~~ arithmetic means rates in ocean basins was ~~greatly increased by using the updated database, particularly in~~ from 74±7 Tg N yr⁻¹ to 217±29 Tg N yr⁻¹. This change is largely attributable to a new estimate for the Indian and Ocean, and a much elevated estimate for the South Pacific Oceans. Although this result may suggest the potential to reduce the imbalance existing in estimated Ocean that would account for ~40% of global N₂ fixation and N removal rates in the global ocean, large uncertainties still exist, and better constraints with more measurements are needed in the future. For instance, if geometric means of, this high estimation for the South Pacific Ocean is in line with its qualification as a ‘hot spot’ for diazotrophy (Messer et al., 2016; Bonnet et al., 2017), partly due to iron fertilization processes in this region (Bonnet et al., 2023). Due to data sparsity, our updated estimation did not include N₂ fixation in ocean basins were instead used, the updated database did not increase the estimation of global oceanic N₂ fixation the Southern and Arctic Oceans. Furthermore, data were more concentrated in surface seawater, especially in the Southern Ocean, and a significant amount of data were measured with incubation periods shorter than a daily cycle (24 h), limiting reliable evaluations of depth-integrated N₂ fixation rates. Although this result suggests more balanced N inputs and losses in the global ocean than the previous estimate suggested, large uncertainties still exist. We also compared the N₂ fixation rates measured using bubbling addition of a bubble of labelled gas or addition of dissolving ¹⁵N₂ gases reported at the same location and month (not necessarily in identical samples). The results ~~showed~~indicated that the bubbling original ¹⁵N₂ bubble method produced lower rates, ~~on average,~~ than the ¹⁵N₂ dissolution method, ~~although in 69% of the former method even generated higher rates in approximately one third of cases. All these~~These results suggest reveal that, despite ~~the efforts in the past several decades of effort,~~ the ocean is still ~~under sampled~~undersampled in terms of the distribution of diazotrophs and level of N₂ fixation rate measurements. Our analyses suggest that prioritizing N₂ fixation measurements in the South Pacific Ocean and high northern latitudes can significantly

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reduce the current uncertainty of N₂ fixation rates in the global ocean. Nevertheless, we believe ~~that this updated~~ diazotrophic database, ~~updated~~ ~~supplemented~~ with ~~a large amount of enhanced~~ data ~~accumulated in from~~ the past decade, is timely and can ~~help be helpful to~~ scientists ~~studystudying the~~ marine ~~ecology and biogeochemistry~~ biogeochemical cycle of N.

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Data availability.

The database is available in a data repository (<https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.21677687>) (Shao et al., 2022)

~~Author contributions:~~

925 ~~YWL~~The database is available in a data repository (<https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.21677687>) (Shao et al., 2022)

Author contributions.

~~Y.-W. Luo~~ conceived and designed the structure of the database ~~and supervised the study. All the authors, Z. Shao, Y. Xu, H. Wang, W. Luo, L. Wang, Y. Huang and Y.-W. Luo~~ collected the data and updated the database. ~~ZS, YX, HW and YWL~~ ~~Z. Shao, Y. Xu, H. Wang, S. C. Doney and Y.-W. Luo~~ analyzed data. Other authors contributed the data. ~~ZS, YX~~ ~~Z. Shao, Y. Xu~~ and ~~YWL~~ ~~Y.-W. Luo~~ wrote the ~~first draft of the manuscript, and all authors revised the~~ manuscript.

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Competing interests.

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

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