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3	Supporting Information for
4	Machine Learning Estimates of Global Marine Nitrogen Fixation
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24 Text S1.

25 **Caveats, uncertainties and future improvements**

26 1. Sparse and uneven distribution of observations, and mismatch of N₂ fixation

27 observations with predictors

28 While our training dataset includes new observations in the South Pacific, the Indian and 29 Arctic Oceans (which were not available in Luo et al. (2014)), the majority of 30 observations remain in the North Atlantic Ocean (Figure 1). For example, only 6 points 31 are available in the Indian Ocean. This uneven and sparse distribution of observations 32 may bias the statistical models by giving some regions more weight. Given that factors 33 regulating N₂ fixation likely vary between biomes and regions (Monteiro, Dutkiewicz, & 34 Follows, 2011; Ward, Dutkiewicz, Moore, & Follows, 2013; Weber & Deutsch, 2014), 35 models based on data mainly collected in the warm and oligotrophic waters of the 36 Atlantic and Pacific Ocean may not accurately represent the other regions, including the 37 recently discovered niches of N_2 fixation in cold and/or nutrient-rich waters. In addition, 38 spatial and temporal mismatch, and the coarse spatial and temporal resolution of our 39 predictors and predictand may introduce noise. Some of the predictors may also work 40 over longer timescales or larger spatial scales than the ones captured by the short-term 41 incubations. Finally, some environmental factors like nutrient supply ratios (Ward et al., 2013) may be better predictors of the presence or absence of diazotrophs rather N2 42 43 fixation rates. Overall, observations over broader swaths of the oceans will help further 44 refine the biogeography and magnitude of marine N₂ fixation.

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46 **2. Difference in methods measuring N₂ fixation**

47 Our models rely on measurements of N_2 fixation collected by three different incubation methods (i.e. ARA, ¹⁵N₂ gas addition, and dissolved ¹⁵N₂ addition). The uncertainties, 48 49 assumptions and drawbacks of each method introduce biases and noise in our predictions. 50 In line with this, training the algorithms with each individual method leads to significantly 51 different biogeographies of N₂ fixation (Figure S2). The ARA method detects bulk N₂ 52 fixation rates including the particulate and dissolved products (Mulholland, 2007), but 53 suffers from variable conversion stoichiometry of acetylene reduction to N₂ fixation 54 (Wilson, Böttjer, Church, & Karl, 2012) and other issues presented in Cassar et al. (2018). 55 It also displays a geographical bias with most applications being conducted in the North 56 Atlantic. The ¹⁵N₂ gas addition method is the most commonly used method so far. 57 Unfortunately, it has been shown to underestimate N₂ fixation rates because of incomplete gas-liquid equilibration of the ¹⁵N₂ tracer (Mohr, Großkopf, Wallace, & LaRoche, 2010) 58 59 and other issues (Bombar, Paerl, Anderson, & Riemann, 2018; Mulholland, 2007). While 60 a correction may be applied for the incomplete equilibration (Böttjer et al., 2016), it comes 61 with significant uncertainty because of variability in the degree of disequilibrium between 62 studies. The dissolved N_2 addition method is now believed to give the best estimates of *in*-63 situ N_2 fixation rates. However, the measurements are too few at this time to meaningfully 64 train our machine learning algorithms (Figure 1). Finally, varying depths of integration may also lead to significant uncertainties. Some studies report N2 fixation rates integrated 65 66 over the euphotic zone while others report rates to a specific depth (e.g. 200 m). The recent 67 discovery of aphotic N₂ fixation (Fernandez, Farías, & Ulloa, 2011; Hamersley et al., 2011) exacerbates this issue. Although rates of N₂ fixation are low at depth, they may be 68

- 69 significant when integrated over deep water columns. Observations should therefore be
- reported to a depth relevant to N_2 fixation to simplify inter-study comparisons.



Figure S1. Mean, standard deviation and coefficient of variation of global N₂ fixation from 100
 bootstrap reconstructed N₂ fixation datasets by random forest (RF, a-c), support vector regression
 (SVR, d-f) respectively.



Figure S2. RF (a-c) and SVR (d-f) model predictions of N_2 fixation based on observations collected with a single method. a, d. Acetylene reduction assay (ARA). b, e. ${}^{15}N_2$ gas addition. c, f. Dissolved ${}^{15}N_2$ addition.



Figure S3. Observed versus simulated N_2 fixation rates by stepwise multiple linear regression.



Figure S4. Comparison of observed and modeled seasonal changes in N_2 fixation rates at Hawaii Ocean Time-series (HOT). Bar plot with error bars represents the observed monthly climatology of N_2 fixation rates \pm one standard deviation at HOT.



Figure S5. Predictor feature importance in random forest.



Figure S6. N₂ fixation rates versus Fe:N and P:N supply ratios. Fe:N and P:N supply ratios are
from Ward et al. (2013).





Figure S7. Taylor diagram of N_2 fixation rates (logarithmic scale) estimated by different models with the alphabetical order shown in Figure 4, with the estimate by RF (a) as the reference value. Dashed blue and dotted green lines represent the correlation and centered root-mean-square difference (RMSD) between estimates by RF and other models, respectively. Solid black lines, the radial distance from the origin, represent the standard deviation of the spatial distribution estimated by each model, with lower values indicating less spatial variability.

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- **Movie S1.** Monthly changes of predicted N₂ fixation rates by random forest over the global ocean.
- Movie S2. Monthly changes of predicted N₂ fixation rates by support vector regression over the
 global ocean.