



1 **Reviews and syntheses: Heterotrophic fixation of inorganic carbon –**
2 **significant but invisible flux in global carbon cycling**

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17 **Abstract**

18 Heterotrophic CO₂ fixation is a significant, yet underappreciated CO₂ flux in the global
19 carbon cycle. In contrast to photosynthesis and chemolithoautotrophy – the main
20 recognized autotrophic CO₂ fixation pathways - the importance of heterotrophic CO₂
21 fixation remains enigmatic. All heterotrophs – from microorganisms to humans – take up
22 CO₂ and incorporate it into their biomass. Depending on the available growth substrates,
23 heterotrophic CO₂ fixation contributes at least 2-8% and in the case of methanotrophs up to
24 50% of the carbon building up their biomass. Assuming a standing stock of global
25 heterotrophic biomass of 47-85 Pg C, we estimate that up to 7 Pg C have been derived from
26 heterotrophic CO₂ fixation and up to 20 Pg C yr⁻¹ originating from heterotrophic CO₂ fixation
27 are funneled into the global annual heterotrophic production of 34-245 Pg C yr⁻¹. These first
28 estimates on the importance of heterotrophic fixation of inorganic carbon indicate that this
29 carbon fixation pathway should be included in present and future global carbon budgets.

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32 **Key words:** CO₂ fixation, heterotrophs, anaplerosis, carbon cycling

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34 1. Introduction

35 Fixation of CO₂ is a fundamental biosynthetic process in nature (Beer et al. 2010, Berg et al.
36 2007) providing the main source of metabolic energy on Earth (Giovannoni and Stengl 2005).
37 At the same time, it acts as a sink for atmospheric CO₂, the most important greenhouse gas,
38 which is responsible for more than 60% of the ‘enhanced greenhouse effect’ resulting in
39 global warming (Beer et al. 2010, Berg 2011, Houghton 2007, Le Quéré et al. 2016).

40 While photosynthesis and chemosynthesis are the most important processes of carbon
41 fixation, non-autotrophic carbon fixation, i.e., the carbon fixation mediated by
42 heterotrophic organisms might also be relevant albeit not yet quantified. While
43 heterotrophs are, per definition, organisms that respire organic compounds to gain energy
44 and build up biomass, CO₂ fixation plays also an essential role in heterotrophic metabolism.
45 The diversity of carboxylating enzymes in nature reaches far beyond autotrophy and
46 virtually all heterotrophs harbor numerous enzymes fixing dissolved inorganic carbon. Even
47 though the first carboxylase in heterotrophs was discovered already more than 80 years ago
48 (Wood and Werkman 1936), the role of heterotrophs in carbon cycling has so far largely
49 focused on the oxidation of organic substrate using oxygen or alternatives (e.g. nitrate,
50 ferric iron, sulfate) as electron acceptor and the production of CO₂. Similar to the CO₂
51 fixation by autotrophs, “heterotrophic CO₂ fixation” might, however, constitutes a
52 significant carbon flux in specific habitats and most likely in the global carbon cycle. The
53 relevance of this process has not been quantified yet due to the lack of reliable estimates of
54 heterotrophic CO₂ fixation for most organisms and the presumption that CO₂ fixation in
55 natural environments is restricted to autotrophic organisms.

56 To fill this gap, we review the current knowledge on (i) the significance of heterotrophic CO₂
57 fixation for cellular metabolism, (ii) the CO₂ fixation in habitats dominated by heterotrophs,
58 and (iii) merge both to estimate the contribution of heterotrophically fixed carbon on the
59 global biomass and the annual heterotrophic CO₂ fixation rates.

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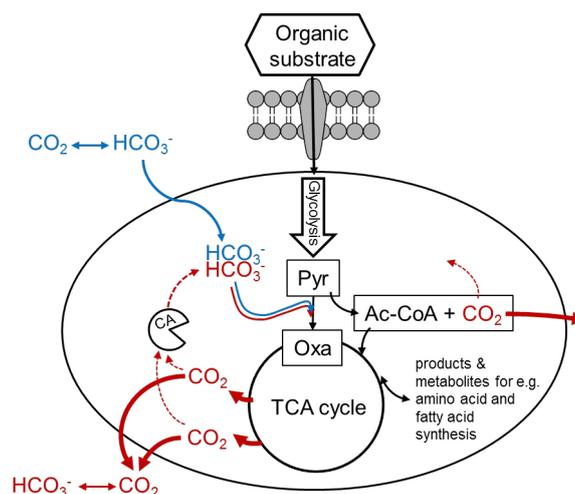
61 2. Significance of heterotrophic CO₂ fixation for cellular metabolism

62 Currently, more than twenty carboxylases are known forming an integral part of the central
63 and peripheral metabolic pathways of heterotrophic metabolism (Fig. 2), e.g., in the
64 synthesis of fatty acids, biotin and purine, the assimilation of leucine, and in anaplerosis (Erb
65 2011, Sauer and Eikmanns 2005). Carboxylation in heterotrophs does not compensate for
66 the dependence on organic matter, rather CO₂ fulfills the role of a “co-substrate” providing
67 an effective and simple way to extend an existing organic carbon substrate by a single C1
68 unit as part of the secondary production (Erb 2011).



69 The most important CO₂ fixation pathway in all organisms is anaplerosis. The replenishment
70 of metabolites continuously withdrawn from the citric acid (TCA) cycle via the anaplerotic
71 reaction of pyruvate carboxylase entails an assimilation of CO₂ corresponding to 25% of the
72 initial substrate's carbon content. Moreover, TCA metabolites are used as building blocks for
73 macromolecular compounds, e.g. almost half of all amino acids in prokaryotes are directly
74 synthesized from oxaloacetate and α-ketoglutarate (Fuchs 1999). In mammals, 4 and 10% of
75 the carbon in proteins and carbohydrates, respectively, originate from heterotrophic CO₂
76 fixation (Kleiber, Smith and Black 1952).

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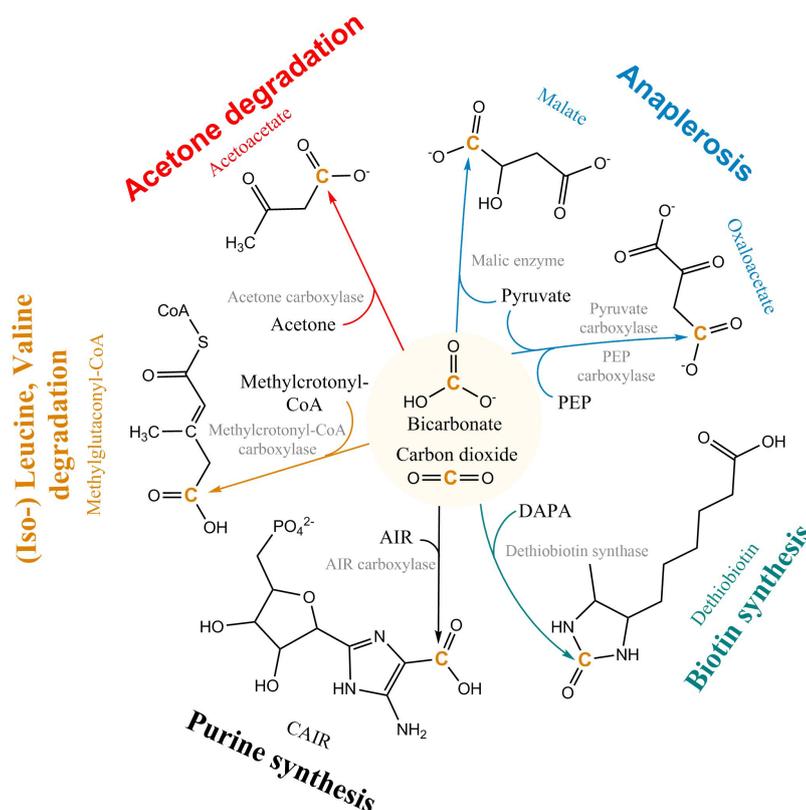
79 **Figure 1:** Flow of organic and inorganic carbon in a heterotrophic prokaryotic cell with focus on organic carbon
80 oxidation (e.g. glucose) and anaplerotic fixation of inorganic carbon. Intracellular inorganic carbon produced,
81 released or re-fixed is marked in red. Extracellular inorganic carbon taken up by the cell for anaplerotic fixation
82 is marked in blue. Arrow size points at the relative contribution to fluxes. Ac-CoA = acetyl coenzyme-A, CA =
83 carbonic anhydrase, HCO₃⁻ = bicarbonate, Oxa = oxaloacetate, Pyr = pyruvate, TCA cycle = tricarboxylic acid
84 cycle.

85 Heterotrophic CO₂ fixation via anaplerosis in prokaryotes generally contributes around 1 to
86 8% to the carbon biomass (Romanenko 1964, Doronina and Trotsenko 1984, Roslev et al.
87 2004, Hesselsoe et al. 2005). The advantage that CO₂ is readily available to the cell either as
88 atmospheric gas or, more commonly, in its hydrated form HCO₃⁻, obviously outcompetes the
89 disadvantage that carboxylation is generally an endergonic reaction (Faber, Fessner and
90 Turner 2015). This thermodynamic obstacle may be less important when carboxylation
91 supports the assimilation of organic substrates that are more reduced than the organism's
92 biomass, resulting in carbon-limited but excess-energy conditions (Battley 2013, von Stockar
93 et al. 2006). In this case, in addition to anaplerosis further carboxylation reactions are
94 induced (Fig. 2) to add oxidized C (from CO₂) to the reduced organic substrate for adjusting



95 the degree of reduction to that of the biomass (Fig. 3). For example, the assimilation of
 96 leucine and propionate into biomass entails carboxylation of the initial C-6 and C-3 carbon
 97 bodies, respectively, and thus triggers an assimilation of inorganic carbon that corresponds
 98 to 17% and 33% of the initial substrate's carbon content, respectively (Erb 2011). In aerobic
 99 methane oxidation, the full oxidation potential of one molecule of CO₂ is needed to adjust
 100 the high degree of reduction of methane to that of biomass during its assimilation.
 101 Consequently, methanotrophs derive up to 50% of their carbon biomass from CO₂ (Strong,
 102 Xie and Clarke 2015, Battley 2013). These figures highlight the fundamental role of CO₂
 103 fixation in heterotrophs in specific habitats.

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106 **Figure 2:** Selected heterotrophic CO₂ fixation reactions and pathways. PEP: phosphoenolpyruvate, DAPA: 7,8-
 107 diamininonanoate, AIR: 1-(5'-phosphoribosyl)-5-aminoimidazole, CAIR: 1-(5-phospho-D-ribose)-5-amino-4-
 108 imidazolecarboxylate, CoA: Coenzyme-A.

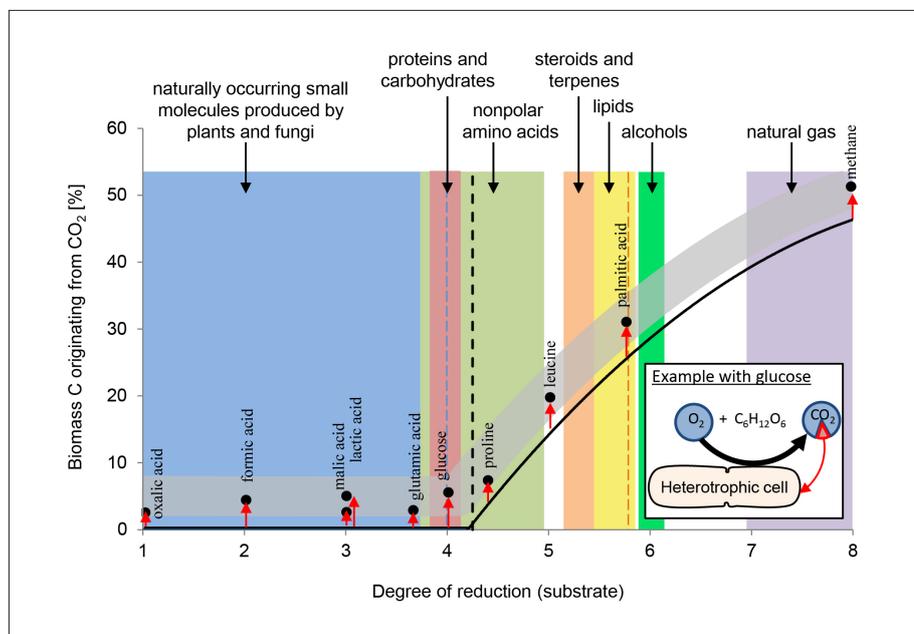
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110 The heterotrophic fixation of CO₂ is generally considered a back-reaction, i.e., part of the
111 originally produced CO₂ from respiration is re-assimilated. Consequently, heterotrophic
112 fixation of inorganic carbon does not necessarily lead to a net carbon biomass production.
113 However, if microbes oxidize geogenic methane new biomass is generated.

114 Growth stimulation has been found in heterotrophic marine bacteria harboring
115 proteorhodopsin, linked to an overexpression of the glyoxylate shunt genes and CO₂ fixation
116 (Palovaara et al., 2014). In stable isotope labelling experiments with *Bacillus subtilis*, a gram-
117 positive heterotrophic bacterium widespread in the environment, the interdependency of
118 pathways and rates of CO₂-fixation on the concurrent utilization of organic substrate(s) was
119 explored. Over the course of the experiments *B. subtilis* assimilated up to 6% of biomass
120 carbon from the external H¹³CO₃ pool when growing on glucose (Spona-Friedl et al. 2020).
121 Growth on lactate and malate revealed a contribution to biomass production from inorganic
122 carbon of 3% and 2%, respectively. Heterotrophic CO₂-fixation took place even in the
123 absence of cell growth during the stationary phase.

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126 **Figure 3:** Aerobic heterotrophs gain energy from the oxidation of reduced organic compounds. As a result,
127 oxygen is consumed and CO₂ is released into the environment. Not all of the CO₂ is released – part of it is also
128 recycled in the cell and used in anaplerosis, as well as in other heterotrophic CO₂ fixation pathways. The
129 amount of CO₂ that is fixed into biomass varies, depending on the degree of reduction of the utilized substrate
130 (see explanation in text). Anaplerosis makes up for 1-8% of the biomass carbon (grey shaded area). Red arrows
131 indicate the contribution of carbon from CO₂ fixation to be expected when growing on the individual substrate.
132 The dashed line depicts the degree of reduction of the cell's biomass (for further explanation see text).



133 In an ecological context, the amount of inorganic carbon fixed by heterotrophs, either from
134 an endogenous or exogenous source, is directly related to their biomass production and
135 respiration (Spona-Friedl et al. 2020). The ratio between carbon biomass production and the
136 total organic carbon assimilated (commonly estimated as the sum of C-biomass production
137 and the amount of C respired) represents the carbon use efficiency or also coined growth
138 efficiency of heterotrophic organisms. Generally, the more reduced an organic substrate is,
139 the less CO₂ is released (Fig. 3). Respiration in aquatic systems is frequently determined via
140 the consumption of dissolved oxygen (Robinson and Williams 2005) and potentially
141 underestimates the carbon use efficiency of heterotrophs. Depending on the substrate, the
142 respiration quotient ($\Delta\text{CO}_2/\Delta\text{O}_2$) varies between 0.7 – 1.3 (Robinson 2019) leading to an
143 error between 20 and 40% with regard to CO₂ production from respiration. Moreover, the
144 respiration ratio also varies because of other oxygen consuming processes potentially taking
145 place simultaneously (e.g. nitrification) (Robinson 2019). For instance, it is 138 O₂ for 106
146 CO₂ for ideal Redfield type organic matter, and 150 O₂ for 106 CO₂ for more realistic marine
147 organic matter (Fraga et al. 1998; Paulmier et al. 2009). Collectively, with respect to C
148 cycling, heterotrophic CO₂ fixation and the carbon flux from the inorganic pool into
149 heterotrophic biomass can be regarded as a process more important than hitherto
150 assumed.

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152 3. CO₂ fixation in habitats dominated by heterotrophs

153 In contrast to sunlit habitats, where autotrophs make up a significant portion of the total
154 biomass and photosynthesis is of major importance in carbon cycling, heterotrophs (and
155 chemolithoautotrophs) represent the only biota in the “dark habitats”, i.e., soils, subsurface
156 environments and the deep sea. These dark environments exceed their photic counterparts
157 in both, volume and biomass. In the case of oceans, the deep sea (below 200 m) exceeds the
158 sunlit surface layer by a factor of 18 in volume and, remarkably, by a factor of two in
159 biomass (Aristegui et al. 2009). Therefore, the so-called “dark CO₂ fixation” does not only
160 occur in specific 'hot spots' on the seafloor (hydrothermal vents, cold seeps and mud
161 volcanoes), or in anoxic waters, but throughout the whole oxygenated 'dark' water column
162 (Reinthal et al., 2010, Yakimov et al., 2014). Yet, heterotrophic CO₂ fixation does not occur
163 only in the dark environments since heterotrophs are also found in the photic zone. This is
164 particularly relevant in the ocean because the photic zone is where the highest biomass
165 concentrations are found. Recently, it has been estimated that the inclusion of dark CO₂
166 fixation (integrated over the euphotic layer, 0-150 m depth) would increase oceanic primary
167 production estimates by 2.5–22 % (Baltar et al., 2019).

168 In the absence of solar radiation, particularly in the dark ocean, CO₂ fixation rates of up to
169 ~125mg C m⁻³ d⁻¹ have been measured, which is as much as 30% (on a per volume basis) of
170 the phototrophic CO₂ fixation taking place in ocean surface waters (Zopfi et al. 2001, Detmer



171 et al. 1993, Casamayor et al. 2001, Baltar et al. 2010). We recently showed that the ratio
172 between dark/light CO₂ fixation in surface oceanic waters is usually around 0.1 but it
173 increases with depth reaching a ratio of 1 at 120-160 m depth (Baltar et al., 2019).

174 Part of the dark CO₂ fixation has been attributed to chemolithoautotrophic archaea
175 (Wuchter et al. 2003, Ingalls et al. 2006) obtaining the energy required for the endergonic
176 carboxylation through the oxidation of reduced inorganic compounds, such as ammonia or
177 hydrogen sulfide (Swan et al. 2011; Zhang et al. 2020). A total annual chemolithotrophic CO₂
178 fixation rate of 0.77Pg C was calculated for the oceans (Middelburg 2011). The observed
179 fluxes of the reduced compounds available as energy sources, however, seem largely
180 insufficient to explain the relatively high dark CO₂ fixation rates (Overbeck 1979, Tuttle and
181 Jannasch 1979, Baltar et al. 2010, Reinthaler et al. 2010, Herndl and Reinthaler 2013). In
182 some cases, the supply rates of the reduced compounds used as an energy source explain
183 less than 40% of the observed dark CO₂ fixation rates (Zopfi et al. 2001). Recently,
184 chemoautotrophic nitrification was estimated to explain <13% of the dark CO₂ fixation
185 (integrated over the euphotic zone) with the rest coming from either heterotrophic DIC
186 fixation or other chemoautotrophic fixation (Baltar et al., 2019).

187 The potential energy sources for the unexplained proportion of the dark CO₂ fixation remain
188 enigmatic. Possible explanations could be either an underestimation of the supply rates of
189 reduced inorganic compounds or the uptake of CO₂ by heterotrophic organisms (Zopfi et al.
190 2001, Baltar et al. 2019). In the surface ocean in particular, DIC incorporation via anaplerotic
191 reactions might play an important role in compensating metabolic imbalances in marine
192 bacteria under oligotrophic conditions, contributing > 30 % of the carbon incorporated into
193 biomass (González et al. 2008; Palovaara et al., 2014). Evidence for the latter comes from
194 experiments with Arctic seawater, which exhibited high bicarbonate incorporation rates
195 (0.5–2.5 µg C L⁻¹ d⁻¹) correlating with heterotrophic bacterial production. Using different
196 molecular tools, DIC uptake was attributed mainly to heterotrophic *Gamma*- and
197 *Betaproteobacteria* rather than to typical chemoautotrophs (Alonso-Sáez et al. 2010), thus
198 showing that chemolithoautotrophs were not the main drivers of CO₂ fixation in this
199 habitat. Further evidence comes from the genome of *Polaribacter* sp. MED152, a
200 representative of Bacteroidetes, which typically comprise about 10–20% of the prokaryotic
201 abundance in seawater. A unique combination of membrane transporters and carboxylases
202 in these organisms indicates the importance of anaplerosis besides other DIC fixation
203 pathways (González et al. 2008). If the heterotrophic metabolism of bacteria is suddenly
204 intensified (e.g., after an input of organic matter), dark DIC fixation rates and the expression
205 of transcripts associated with key anaplerotic enzymes increase proportionally (Baltar et al.,
206 2016). Based on these lines of evidence, we argue that heterotrophic CO₂ fixation is an
207 important process which needs to be considered when interpreting dark CO₂ fixation rates.

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209 **4. Global estimates of heterotrophic CO₂ fixation**

210 **4.1. Carbon biomass stock originating from heterotrophic CO₂ fixation**

211 Earth's total living biomass is estimated to amount to about 499 – 738 Pg C, of which
212 approx. 451 – 653 Pg C is photoautotrophic biomass (Bar-On et al. 2018). Heterotrophic
213 biomass contributes 47 – 85 Pg C (Table 1). Therein, the estimates of heterotrophic biomass
214 of the terrestrial subsurface have huge uncertainties (Whitman, Coleman and Wiebe 1998,
215 McMahon and Parnell 2014, Bar-On, Phillips and Milo 2018). Nevertheless, assuming that a
216 minimum of 2-8% of this biomass C originates from anaplerotic CO₂ fixation, and ignoring
217 further pathways and processes of heterotrophic fixation of DIC, we conclude that at least
218 0.9 – 7 Pg of DIC are temporarily sequestered in living biomass by anaplerosis.

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220 **4.2. Carbon flux related to heterotrophic CO₂ fixation**

221 In terms of annual global heterotrophic production rates, oceans and the terrestrial
222 subsurface (including soils) are the main habitats of heterotrophic CO₂ fixation (Cole et al.
223 2002; Magnabosco et al. 2018) (Table 2). We calculated a global heterotrophic C production
224 of 34 – 245 Pg C yr⁻¹, which would translate into 0.7 to 20 Pg of DIC bound by heterotrophic
225 CO₂ fixation each year. Interestingly, these numbers are consistent with the recently
226 calculated contribution of CO₂ fixation for the integrated epipelagic ocean of ca. 1.2– 11 Pg
227 C yr⁻¹ (Baltar et al., 2019). This is a significant carbon flux amounting to 1-20% of the global
228 net amount of carbon produced annually by photoautotrophs (NPP: 90 – 110 Pg C yr⁻¹).

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230 Our estimates, as already mentioned, are subject to a high uncertainty, which, on the one
231 hand, results from the dependency of the extent of heterotrophic CO₂ fixation on the
232 organic carbon oxidized and, on the other hand, on the predominant environmental
233 conditions. Moreover, data on terrestrial and marine subsurface environments, although
234 huge in dimension, are scarce. Here, no detailed information on the abundance, growth
235 (yield) and metabolic activity of microbial communities is available, particularly with
236 increasing depth. Most of the deeper subsurface environments, even when harboring
237 considerable living biomass, do not participate in the global carbon cycle on a short term
238 (years to decades), but rather in centennial to geological timescales. Nevertheless, in order
239 to provide a first estimate and to be able to roughly evaluate the relevance of heterotrophic
240 CO₂ fixation for all habitats of high uncertainty (e.g. the continental subsurface) we adopted
241 a conservative approach to avoid overestimation in our calculations (see Tables 1 and 2 for
242 explanations).

243



244 **Table 1:** Global standing stock of organic carbon in living biomass and contribution from anaplerotic CO₂
 245 fixation (only anaplerosis is considered here; other mechanisms of heterotrophic CO₂ fixation were neglected).
 246 In heterotrophs, 2-8% of the cell carbon is assumed to originate from inorganic carbon fixation (see references
 247 in text), for photoautotrophs a contribution of 1-5% of carbon biomass from anaplerotic CO₂ fixation is
 248 assumed (Melzer and O'Leary 1987).

Continental habitats	Carbon biomass [Pg C]	Carbon in biomass derived from anaplerotic CO ₂ fixation [Pg C]	References for carbon biomass
Terrestrial animals	0.6	0.01 – 0.05	(Bar-On et al. 2018)
Soil fungi	12	0.2 – 1	(Bar-On et al. 2018)
Terrestrial protists	1.6	0.03 – 0.1	(Bar-On et al. 2018)
Soil prokaryotes (upper 100 cm of soil)	23.2	0.5 – 1.9	(Xu, Thornton and Post 2013)
Continental subsurface prokaryotes	2.4 – 12.6*	0.05 – 1	(Magnabosco et al. 2018)
Heterotrophic prokaryotes in freshwater and saline inland surface waters	0.013**	0.0003 – 0.001	(Whitman et al. 1998)
Marine and oceanic habitats			
Marine Animals	2	0.04 – 0.2	(Bar-On et al. 2018)
Marine protists	2	0.04 – 0.2	(Bar-On et al. 2018)
Marine fungi	0.3	0.01 – 0.02	(Bar-On et al. 2018)
Marine planktonic heterotrophic prokaryotes	1.4 – 3.5***	0.03 – 0.3	(Whitman et al. 1998)
Subseafloor sedimentary prokaryotes	1.5 – 22	0.03 – 1.8	(Kallmeyer et al. 2012, Schippers et al. 2005)
Prokaryotes of the oceanic crust	0.5 – 5	0.01 – 0.4	(Bar-On et al. 2018)
Total heterotrophic carbon biomass	47 – 85	0.9 – 6.8	
For comparison:			
Plants (terrestrial)	450 – 650	4.5 – 32.5	(Watson et al. 2000, Prentice et al. 2001, Ciais et al. 2013, Bar-On et al. 2018)
Plants (marine)	0.4 – 1.8	0.004 – 0.09	(Schlesinger 1997, Whitman et al. 1998, Groombridge and Jenkins 2000)
Phytoplankton (marine)	1	0.01 – 0.05	(Falkowski, Barber and Smetacek 1998)
Total photoautotrophic carbon biomass	451-653	4.5 – 32.6	
Total carbon biomass on Earth	499-738	5.5 – 39.4	

249 Footnotes on the next page



250 * Cell abundances ($2 - 6 \times 10^{29}$ cells) from Magnabosco et al. (2018) were converted into cell carbon using the
251 carbon conversion factors $12 \text{ fg C cell}^{-1}$ and $21 \text{ fg C cell}^{-1}$ (Wilhartitz et al. 2009, Griebler et al. 2002) for the
252 minimum and maximum values of the range, respectively. In favor of a conservative estimate, quite low
253 carbon conversion factors were used (at the lower end of the carbon content values for freshwater prokaryotic
254 cells reported in literature).

255 ** Cell abundance (2.3×10^{26} cells) from Whitman et al. (1998) were converted into cell carbon using a carbon
256 conversion factor of $57 \text{ fg C cell}^{-1}$, which is the arithmetic mean of the minimum and maximum of a range of
257 values (6 to $107 \text{ fg C cell}^{-1}$) reported for freshwater lakes and rivers of different trophic states in literature
258 (Pedrós-Alió and Brock 1982, Bjørnsen 1986, Simon 1987, Lever et al. 2015).

259 *** Cell abundances were converted into cell carbon using the carbon conversion factors $12 \text{ fg C cell}^{-1}$ and
260 $30 \text{ fg C cell}^{-1}$ (Fukuda et al. 1998) for the minimum and maximum values, respectively.

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300 **Table 2:** Annual global heterotrophic carbon biomass production and contribution from heterotrophic CO₂
 301 fixation (via anaplerosis).

	Annual heterotrophic C-biomass production [Pg C yr⁻¹]	Anaplerotically fixed carbon [Pg C yr⁻¹][§]	
Marine and oceanic habitats			
Marine and freshwater	2.4 – 76 [*]	0.05 – 6.1	(Cole, Findlay and Pace 1988, del Giorgio and Duarte 2002)
Oceanic seafloor	0.1 – 9.8 ^{**}	0.002 – 0.8	(Schippers et al. 2005)
Continental habitats			
Aquifers and unsaturated subsurface	0.12 – 26.3 [†]	0.002 – 2.1	(Magnabosco et al. 2018, Griebler et al. 2014)
Soils	31.3 – 133.2 ^{††}	0.6 – 10.7	(Prentice et al. 2001, Manzoni et al. 2012, Hashimoto et al. 2015, Potter and Klooster 1998)
Total heterotrophic C-biomass production	34 – 245	0.7 – 20	

302 ^{*} Bacterial carbon production (BCP) rates from 54 marine and freshwater studies (Cole et al. 1988) were
 303 converted from [mg C m⁻²d⁻¹] into [Pg C yr⁻¹] and extrapolated to global scale using a world water surface
 304 area of 361419000 km² (<http://www.worldatlas.com/aatlas/infopage/oceans.htm>).

305 ^{**} The total number of living cells [1.3 x 10²⁹] was divided by the turnover time of seafloor bacteria [0.25-22
 306 yrs], multiplied by the mean carbon content per cell [19 fg C], and converted from [fg C] to [Pg C]. All data as
 307 given in Schippers et al. (2005).

308 [†] The range of bacterial carbon production rates [fg C L⁻¹ yr⁻¹] from 14 groundwater wells (sampled in spring
 309 and autumn) located in an oligotrophic porous aquifer in the Bavarian Alps (close to Mittenwald in Southern
 310 Germany) was divided by the corresponding bacterial abundance [cells L⁻¹] to obtain BCP rates per cell (data
 311 from Griebler et al. 2014). The minimum and the maximum values of these cell-specific BCP rates were then
 312 multiplied by the minimum and the maximum estimated total number of prokaryotes in the continental
 313 subsurface [2-6 x 10²⁹ cells] from Magnabosco et al. (2018), respectively, and carbon mass units were
 314 converted from [fg] to [Pg]. Note: since comprehensive, global data on microbial carbon production in
 315 aquifers are currently still missing, the level of uncertainty of this estimate is quite high. Therefore, in order
 316 to avoid overestimation, and in favor of obtaining a most conservative estimate, we selected out of the
 317 available data only those production rates, which were determined in pristine, highly oligotrophic
 318 environments. If all other data from the dataset in Griebler et al. (2014), in total 88 wells throughout
 319 Germany, sampled twice, as well as the data from four other available studies with sites in the USA, Austria
 320 and Denmark (Thorn and Ventullo 1988, Kazumi and Capone 1994, Albrechtsen and Winding 1992,
 321 Wilhartitz et al. 2009) were to be included, a much higher estimate of the global annual heterotrophic
 322 carbon biomass production in aquifers would be obtained, ranging from 0.06 to 4829 Pg C yr⁻¹, and
 323 corresponding to 0.001 – 386 Pg C yr⁻¹ of anaplerotically fixed carbon each year.

324 ^{††} Global terrestrial heterotrophic respiration in soils [55 Pg C yr⁻¹] from Prentice et al. (2001) was extrapolated
 325 to carbon biomass production assuming that respiration accounts for 30-62% of the total carbon consumed
 326 (corresponding to a carbon use efficiency (CUE) of 38-70%) in the course of organic matter decomposition in
 327 different types of soils (Manzoni et al. 2012).

328 [§] It was assumed that 2-8% of the annually produced carbon biomass of heterotrophs originate from
 329 anaplerotic CO₂ fixation (see ref. in the text). A fraction of 2% was applied to the minimum, and 8% to the
 330 maximum value of the C-biomass production ranges in this table, respectively.



331 **5. Conclusions**

332 Current models of carbon cycling and carbon sequestration do not account for
333 heterotrophic CO₂ fixation (Le Quéré et al. 2009, Randerson et al. 1997, Gruber et al. 2004).
334 Despite the uncertainties in the data on heterotrophic biomass and production rates for
335 some habitats (e.g. the terrestrial subsurface), the numbers presented here represent the
336 first attempt to quantify the global contribution and relevance of heterotrophic CO₂ fixation
337 to carbon cycling. Our results indicate that heterotrophs significantly contribute to global
338 CO₂ fixation – especially (although not restricted to) in dark habitats. In specific
339 environments, this may explain the mismatch between autotrophic C input, consumption,
340 and sequestration that is exemplarily observed in marine systems (Baltar et al. 2009, Burd et
341 al. 2010, Reinthaler et al. 2010, Morán, Pérez and Fernández 2007, Hoppe et al. 2002, Tait
342 and Schiel 2013). Particularly in aphotic habitats (which outnumber the photic habitats in
343 both size and volume) such as the dark ocean, seafloor sediments, soils, as well as the
344 sediments and rocks of the terrestrial subsurface (Miltner et al. 2004, Miltner et al. 2005,
345 Yakimov et al. 2014, Wegener et al. 2012), carbon cycling needs to be re-evaluated taking
346 into account anaerobic CO₂ fixation and other inorganic carbon uptake pathways in
347 heterotrophs. In seafloor sediments, wetlands and marshes, as well as in other habitats
348 where methane oxidation is a key process, a large fraction (10-50%) of heterotrophic
349 biomass potentially originates from heterotrophic CO₂ fixation. Recently, a time-series study
350 showed a tendency towards higher ratios of dark to light DIC fixation in the top half of the
351 euphotic layer (0– 65 m) in the years 2012-2019 than in the preceding years (data started in
352 1989), which was linked to oceanographic changes (i.e., a deepening of the mixed zone)
353 (Baltar et al., 2019). Moreover, the metabolic theory of ecology (MTE) posits that
354 heterotrophic metabolism increases more than gross primary production in the ocean in
355 response to warming (see Baltar et al., 2019b and reference therein), which might also
356 make heterotrophy DIC fixation relatively more important in a warmer ocean. In the light of
357 global warming leading to an extensive thawing of permafrost soils and providing new
358 habitats for methanotrophs, these processes are expected to become more important in the
359 future. Hence, the potential contribution of heterotrophic CO₂ fixation under climate change
360 conditions clearly deserves further investigations.

361

362 **Author contributions**

363 A.B., M.E. and C.G. conceived the idea for the manuscript. A.B., G.J.H. and C.G. wrote the
364 manuscript. M.S.F., M.E., M.A. F.B. and T.R. substantially commented on and edited the
365 manuscript. M.A., M.S.F. and C.G. did the literature search on available global carbon data.
366 C.G. and M.A. performed the estimation of heterotrophic CO₂ fixation on a global scale.

367



368 **Acknowledgments**

369 We acknowledge B.B. Jørgensen for commenting on an earlier draft of the manuscript. We
370 thank R. Thauer and W. Eisenreich for fruitful discussions on heterotrophic CO₂ fixation.
371 Financial support was provided by the Wittgenstein Prize (Austrian Science Fund, project
372 number Z194-B17), by the European Research Council under the European Community's
373 Seventh Framework Program (FP7/2007-2013) / ERC grant agreement No. 268595 (MEDEA
374 project) and the Austrian Science Fund (P 28781-B21) to G.J.H. Financial support was further
375 provided by the Helmholtz Center Munich to A.B., M.E., M.S.F. and C.G.

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