

Cyanobacterial formation of intracellular Ca-carbonates in undersaturated solutions

Nithavong Cam, Karim Benzerara, Thomas Georgelin, Maguy Jaber, Jean-François Lambert, Mélanie Poinsot, Fériel Skouri-Panet, David Moreira, Purificacion Lopez-Garcia, Emmanuelle Raimbault, et al.

▶ To cite this version:

Nithavong Cam, Karim Benzerara, Thomas Georgelin, Maguy Jaber, Jean-François Lambert, et al.. Cyanobacterial formation of intracellular Ca-carbonates in undersaturated solutions. Geobiology, 2018, 16 (1), pp.49-61. 10.1111/gbi.12261. hal-01655173

HAL Id: hal-01655173 https://hal.sorbonne-universite.fr/hal-01655173v1

Submitted on 5 Dec 2017

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

¹ Cyanobacterial formation of intracellular Ca-carbonates

2 in undersaturated solutions

4

8

- 3 Running title: Cyanobacterial carbonatogenesis in undersaturated solutions
- 5 Nithavong Cam^{1,2}, Karim Benzerara¹, Thomas Georgelin², Maguy Jaber³, Jean-François
- 6 Lambert², Mélanie Poinsot¹, Fériel Skouri-Panet¹, David Moreira⁴, Purificación López-García⁴,
- 7 Emmanuelle Raimbault⁵, Laure Cordier⁵, Didier Jézéquel⁵
- ¹Institut de Minéralogie, de Physique des Matériaux, et de Cosmochimie (IMPMC), Sorbonne
- Universités, UPMC Univ Paris 6, UMR CNRS 7590, Muséum National d'Histoire Naturelle,
- 11 IRD UMR 206, 4 Place Jussieu, 75005 Paris, France
- ²Laboratoire de Réactivité de Surface (LRS), Sorbonne Universités, UMR CNRS 7197, UPMC
- Univ Paris 6, 4 Place Jussieu, 75005 Paris, France
- ³Laboratoire d'Archéologie Moléculaire et Structurale (LAMS), Sorbonne Universités, UMR
- 15 CNRS 8220, UPMC Univ Paris 6, 4 Place Jussieu, 75005 Paris, France
- ⁴Unité d'Ecologie, Systématique et Evolution, CNRS UMR 8079, Université Paris-Sud/Paris-
- Saclay, AgroParisTech, 91400 Orsay, France.
- ⁵Institut de Physique du Globe de Paris (IPGP), Sorbonne Paris Cité– Université Paris Diderot,
- 19 UMR CNRS 7154, 1 rue Jussieu, 75238 Paris cedex 05, France
- 21 Corresponding author: Karim Benzerara, IMPMC, Case 115, 4 Place Jussieu 75005 Paris,
- 22 France. Phone: 33144277542; Fax: 33144273785; karim.benzerara@upmc.fr
- 23 Conflict of interest. The authors declare no conflict of interest
- Keywords: biomineralization; cyanobacteria; calcium homeostasis; polyphosphates

Abstract

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

40

41

Cyanobacteria have long been thought to induce the formation of Ca-carbonates as secondary byproducts of their metabolic activity, by shifting the chemical composition of their extracellular environment to conditions favoring mineral precipitation. Some cyanobacterial species forming Ca-carbonates intracellularly were recently discovered. However, the environmental conditions under which this intracellular biomineralization process can occur and the impact of cyanobacterial species forming Ca-carbonates intracellularly on extracellular carbonatogenesis are not known. Here, we show that these cyanobacteria can form Cacarbonates intracellularly while growing in extracellular solutions undersaturated with respect to all Ca-carbonate phases, i.e., conditions thermodynamically unfavorable to mineral precipitation. This shows that intracellular Ca-carbonate biomineralization is an active process, i.e., it costs energy provided by the cells. The cost of energy may be due to the active accumulation of Ca intracellularly. Moreover, unlike cyanobacterial strains that have been usually considered before by studies on Ca-carbonate biomineralization, cyanobacteria forming intracellular carbonates may slow down or hamper extracellular carbonatogenesis, by decreasing the saturation index of their extracellular solution following the buffering of the concentration of extracellular calcium to low levels.

42

43

44

45

46

47

48

49

Introduction

Biomineralization of CaCO₃ by cyanobacteria has been thoroughly studied because of its consequences for the formation of ancient biogenic carbonate deposits and its impact on the global geochemical cycles of carbon and calcium (Riding, 2000; Jansson & Northen, 2010; Gérard *et al.*, 2013; Bundeleva *et al.*, 2014). CaCO₃ biomineralization by cyanobacteria is usually believed to result from their photosynthetic activity (Merz, 1992). More precisely,

cyanobacteria actively import inorganic carbon, mostly as HCO₃- (Miller & Colman, 1980). 50 Intracellular conversion of HCO₃⁻ to CO₂ by carbonic anhydrases followed by CO₂ fixation by 51 Ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase (RuBisCO) and the associated import of H⁺ 52 to regulate intracellular pH result in the increase of extracellular pH, which favors extracellular 53 CaCO₃ precipitation (Verrecchia et al., 1995; Badger & Price, 2003; Riding, 2006). The crucial 54 role of carbonic anhydrases in carbonate biomineralization has been repeatedly noticed, not 55 only for cyanobacteria but also for other calcifying organisms (e.g. in sponges, Jackson et al., 56 2007). At least in some cyanobacteria, Ca²⁺/H⁺ transmembrane exchangers regulate the 57 intracellular concentration of Ca²⁺ at low levels by exporting Ca extracellularly, favoring 58 further CaCO₃ biomineralization (Jiang et al., 2013). Therefore, for many years, CaCO₃ 59 biomineralization by cyanobacteria has been considered as exclusively extracellular and 60 dependent on the chemical conditions prevailing in the extracellular environments of 61 cyanobacterial cells. However, several species of cyanobacteria forming intracellular CaCO₃ 62 granules were recently discovered (Couradeau et al., 2012; Benzerara et al., 2014; Moreira et 63 al., 2017). Couradeau et al. (2012) tentatively suggested that these CaCO3 granules may serve 64 as ballasts increasing cell density and favoring a benthic mode of life. Alternatively, CaCO₃ 65 granules may buffer intracellular pH. Finally, the formation of intracellular carbonates may 66 have no biological function and may just be a byproduct of photosynthesis in cyanobacteria that 67 do not regulate well intracellular pH and/or Ca²⁺ concentrations. Cyanobacteria forming 68 intracellular CaCO₃ were found in various environments, including lakes, soils, karstic ponds 69 and hydrothermal settings across the world (Benzerara et al., 2014; Ragon et al., 2014; Saghaï 70 et al., 2015). This suggests that diverse environmental conditions may allow intracellular 71 calcification but these have yet to be explored further. Moreover, it raises the question of 72 whether ancient cyanobacteria used to induce calcium carbonate precipitation intracellularly or 73 extracellularly. This is important in order to figure out what fossil traces of these 74

microorganisms may be expected in the geological record (Riding, 2012). Indeed, 75 cyanobacteria favoring extracellular carbonatogenesis can get encrusted by the resulting 76 minerals under some conditions, forming calcimicrobes (e.g., Arp et al., 2001; Couradeau et 77 al., 2013). In contrast, this may not be the case for cyanobacteria forming carbonates 78 intracellularly (Riding, 2012). 79 At least two different mechanisms of intracellular biomineralization may exist based on the 80 observation of two different distribution patterns of the intracellular CaCO₃ granules in cells 81 (Li et al., 2016): 1) in one clade of cyanobacteria, CaCO₃ granules are mostly located at the 82 poles of the cells and nucleate at the division septum where cells divide. In this case, the 83 involvement of division proteins in the nucleation of ACC has been speculated. 2) In other 84 clades, CaCO₃ granules do not show this polar distribution and are scattered or form chains 85 within the cytoplasm (Li et al., 2016). In all clades, granules are composed of amorphous 86 calcium carbonates (ACC) as determined by transmission electron microscopy selected area 87 electron diffraction (Benzerara et al., 2014). How these mineral phases with a relatively high 88 solubility form in the cytoplasm, supposedly undersaturated with ACC, remains enigmatic 89 (Cam et al., 2015). It has been speculated that unlike cyanobacteria forming extracellular 90 carbonates, intracellularly calcifying cyanobacteria may decrease the saturation of the 91 extracellular solution with respect to CaCO₃ phases or at least not affect it at all (Couradeau et 92 al., 2012). However, this assumption lacks experimental evidence. Moreover, it is not clear how 93 the different species of intracellularly calcifying cyanobacteria, especially those showing 94 different biomineralization patterns, may affect the supersaturation of their environment. 95 Here, we followed the changes with time of the chemical composition of the culture media of 96 three strains of cyanobacteria forming intracellular carbonates: Gloeomargarita lithophora 97 strain C7, Thermosynechococcus elongatus strain BP-1 and Cyanothece sp. strain PCC 7425 98 and one strain not forming intracellular carbonates: Gloeocapsa sp. strain PCC 73106. CaCO₃ 99

granules are scattered within the cytoplasm in *G. lithophora* and *Cyanothece sp.* while they are located at cell poles in *T. elongatus*. We measured cell growth and chemical parameters such as concentrations of dissolved Ca²⁺ and HCO₃⁻ and pH to assess the saturation of the extracellular solution with various CaCO₃ phases. Moreover, we analyzed the intracellular distribution of Ca by electron microscopy analyses. This allows defining the environmental conditions necessary for intracellular calcification and how intracellularly calcifying cyanobacteria may affect their local environments.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cyanobacterial strains and culture conditions

Four cyanobacterial strains were cultured. Three strains encompassing most of the phylogenetic diversity of cyanobacteria that have been shown to form intracellular Ca-carbonates (Benzerara et al., 2014) were studied: Gloeomargarita lithophora strain C7 enriched from an alkaline crater lake in Mexico as described by Moreira et al. (2017) and showing CaCO3 granules scattered in the cytoplasm; the axenic strains Cyanothece sp. strain PCC 7425 isolated from a rice field in Senegal, described by (Rippka et al., 1979) and (Porta et al., 1999) and showing CaCO3 granules scattered in the cytoplasm; the axenic strain Thermosynechococcus elongatus strain BP-1 isolated from a hot spring in Japan, described by Yamaoka et al. (1978) and Nakamura et al. (2002) and showing CaCO3 granules at the poles. One strain not forming intracellular carbonates (Benzerara et al., 2014) was used as a comparison for Ca uptake: the axenic strain Gloeocapsa sp. strain PCC 73106 isolated from a Sphagnum bog in Switzerland and described by (Rippka et al., 1979). The choice of this strain as a control was motivated by the fact that Gloeocapsa was previously studied for its capabilities to induce extracellular carbonatogenesis (Bundeleva et al., 2014) and Gloeocapsa sp. strain PCC 73106 can be cultured in the same medium as the three strains forming intracellular carbonates. It should be noted that

the BG11 medium used in the present study, in particular with much higher initial concentrations of dissolved Ca: 5-10 mM in Bundeleva et al. (2014) *vs*. 250 μM, here. Strains were cultured in triplicates in medium BG-11 (Rippka *et al.*, 1979), under continuous light (5-10 μmol.m².s⁻¹) at 45 °C for *T. elongatus* and 30 °C for *G. lithophora, Cyanothece sp.* and *Gloeocapsa sp.* BG-11 is classically used to culture freshwater cyanobacterial strains. Its composition is available on http://cyanobacteria.web.pasteur.fr/. It mostly contains Na⁺ and NO₃⁻ with ~180 μM of orthophosphates and ~250 μM of calcium. Evaporation was compensated by daily addition of sterile milli-Q water. The optical density (OD) of the cultures was measured at 730 nm to assess cell growth. The combined measurement of OD and cell counting on one sample allowed to derive the relationships between OD and cell density as 9 x10⁻, 3 x10⁻, 2.5 x10⁻ and 6.4 x10⁻ cells.mL⁻¹.OD unit⁻¹ for *G. lithophora, Cyanothece* sp., *T. elongatus* and *Gloeocapsa* sp., respectively. Similarly, the relationships between OD and cell dry mass were 3.6 x10⁻⁴, 2.4 x10⁻⁴ and 3.2 x10⁻⁴ g.mL⁻¹.OD unit⁻¹ for *G. lithophora, Cyanothece sp.* and *T. elongatus*, respectively.

extracellular CaCO₃ precipitation by Gloeocapsa sp. was observed in solutions different from

Bulk chemical analyses of solutions

For chemical analyses, culture samples were centrifuged at 5,000 g for 10 min. The pH was measured in the supernatants. Variations of pH in non-inoculated sterile controls were less than 0.1. Supernatants were systematically filtered at 0.22 µm.

The concentration of dissolved calcium in filtered supernatants was measured by colorimetry based on the method described by (Moorehead & Biggs, 1974). Twenty-five microliters of filtered sample were added to 1 mL of a mix solution containing o-cresolphtalein complexone, hydrocholic acid, 8-hydroxyquinoline and 2-amino-2-methyl-1-propanol. The OD of the resulting solution was measured at 570 nm. Standard solutions of calcium at 1, 0.5, 0.25, 0.125,

0.1 and 0.05 mM were used for calibration. The detection limit for colorimetry measurements was 0.02 mM. Uptake rates normalized by the number of cells were determined for each time step as followed:

$$\frac{[Ca^{2+}]_{t-1} - [Ca^{2+}]_t}{average\ cell\ density\ between\ t_{-1}\ and\ t}/(t-t_{-1})$$

Where t and t_{-1} were consecutive sampling times, and the average density between t_{-1} and t was obtained as the arithmetic average of cell density derived from OD measurements. An alternative approach to measuring removal of dissolved Ca from the solution, would have been to measure Ca in the cells. This would involve an additional step of chemical extraction of Ca from the cells. We tested that these two approaches provide similar result (data not shown). The total alkalinity is a form of mass-conservation relationship for hydrogen ion and is defined as: "the number of moles of hydrogen ion equivalent to the excess of proton acceptors (bases formed from weak acids with a dissociation constant $K \le 10^{-4.5}$, at 25°C and zero ionic strength) over proton donors (acids with $K > 10^{-4.5}$) in one kilogram of sample" (Sarazin *et al.*, 1999). Here, alkalinity (Alk) was defined as:

- 164 Alk = $[HCO_3^-]+2[CO_3^2-]+[HPO_4^2-]+2[PO_4^3-]+[NH_3]+[OH^-]$
- Alkalinity was measured by colorimetry. Five hundred microliters of filtered sample were added to 500 μL of a solution composed of formic acid at 3.5 mM and bromothymol blue at 30 mg.L⁻¹. The OD of the solution was measured at 590 nm and was related to the alkalinity by a second order relation (Sarazin *et al.*, 1999). The calibration was performed using standard NaHCO₃ solutions with concentrations between 0.5 and 3.5 mM with steps of 0.25.
 - Dissolved inorganic phosphorus (DIP) and ammonium (ΣNH₃) concentrations were measured by continuous flow colorimetry on a QuAAtro Axflow (Seal Analytical). Concentrations of dissolved chloride, sulfate, nitrite and nitrate were measured by ion-exchange chromatography using an ICS1100 Thermofisher on a Ionpac thermo AS14 column with an eluant composed of 3.5 mM of Na₂CO₃ and 1 mM of NaHCO₃ with a flow rate of 1.2 mL.min⁻¹. Nitrites and nitrates

were measured using a UVD340U detector. Concentrations of HCO₃- were deduced from pH, alkalinity, dissolved phosphorus and ammonium measurements.

Concentrations of major dissolved cations, including Ca were measured using a Thermo ScientificTM iCAPTM 6200 inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectrometer (ICP-AES) equipped with a Cetac ASX-520 autosampler. For ICP-AES analyzes, 300 µL of filtered

supernatants were acidified with 10 mL of 2 % HNO3. Measurements of Ca concentrations by

ICP-AES and colorimetry were correlated along a 1:1 line with consistency better than 85 %

(r^2 for the regression) above 50 μ M.

Speciation and saturation indices calculations

The Visual MINTEQ (3.0) software (Gustafsson, 2013) with the Davies method (Davies *et al.*, 1962) was used to calculate the concentrations of species in the culture medium based on bulk chemical analyses. The cultures were supposed to be in free exchange with the atmosphere with a partial CO₂ pressure of 380 ppm following the procedure by (Siong and Asaeda, 2009). The saturation index was defined as:

189
$$SI = -log[(CO_3^{2-})(Ca^{2+})/Ks]$$

Where () denotes the activity and Ks the solubility of a given phase. Saturation indices were calculated for all Ca-carbonate phases reported in the Visual MINTEQ database as well as for ACC using a Ks of 2.32 x10⁻⁸ (Kellermeier *et al.*, 2014).

Scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM) and energy dispersive x-ray spectrometry (EDXS) analyses

For microscopy analyses, cell pellets obtained by centrifugation were washed three times with milli-Q water before resuspension in 500 μ L of milli-Q water and deposition of 3 μ L on carbon-coated 200-mesh copper grids. Washing was necessary to avoid precipitation of salts upon drying. This sample preparation procedure was repeatedly used and tested in past studies on

cyanobacteria forming intracellular carbonates (Benzerara *et al.*, 2014; Li *et al.*, 2016). Although it may induce some alterations of the morphology of the cells (e.g., collapse), it allows the preservation of intracellular CaCO3 inclusions on the contrary to procedures using chemical fixatives (Li *et al.*, 2016). The same procedure was also successfully used to study extracellular Ca-phosphate precipitates formed by bacterial cells (e.g., Cosmidis *et al.*, 2015). In the present study, only STEM analyses of CaCO3 inclusions are discussed, not cell morphological features. STEM analyses were performed in the High Angle Annular Dark Field (HAADF) mode using a JEOL 2100F operating at 200 kV and equipped with a field emission gun, a high-resolution UHR pole piece, and a JEOL EDXS detector with an ultrathin window allowing detection of light elements. Semi-quantitative analyses of EDXS spectra was done using the JEOL Analysis Station software following the procedure by (Li *et al.*, 2016). This was based on the use of K-factors. After subtracting out the background noise in the EDXS spectrum, the software performed a Gaussian fit of selected elemental peaks and calculated the area under the peaks. From this, the atomic percentage of selected element was assessed: Ca, Mg in the carbonates; Ca, Mg, K and P in polyphosphates.

RESULTS

Cell growth and temporal changes of chemical parameters in growth medium

All strains grew in BG-11 at different rates (Fig. 1 and Fig. S1). During the exponential growth, generation times were 108 ± 2 h, 46 ± 1 h, 23 ± 2 h and 163 ± 19 h for *G. lithophora*, *Cyanothece* sp., *T. elongatus*, and *Gloeocapsa* sp., respectively (Fig. S1). In parallel, pH increased at different rates and reached different values for the different strains, starting from 7.5 up to 8.8, 9.2, 9.8 and 9.7 for *G. lithophora*, *Cyanothece* sp., *T. elongatus* and *Gloeocapsa* sp., respectively (Fig. 1). In contrast, the pH, optical density at 730 nm (OD) and

dissolved [Ca] remained constant over the duration of the experiment in a non-inoculated 224 control BG-11 medium (Fig. S2). 225 The time evolution of dissolved extracellular Ca was significantly different for strains forming 226 intracellular carbonates vs. Gloeocapsa sp., which does not form intracellular Ca-carbonates. 227 Calcium concentration decreased dramatically from ~250 μ M down to 2.75 \pm 0.54, 5.9 \pm 1.3 228 and $12.8 \pm 3.6 \,\mu\text{M}$ (n=3) for G. lithophora, Cyanothece sp. and T. elongatus, respectively 229 (Table S1). For G. lithophora and T. elongatus, the decrease of Ca concentration varied in the 230 opposite way to the OD and was linear with time at rates of 0.47 ± 0.06 and 0.79 ± 0.07 µM of 231 Ca per hour. For Cyanothece sp., the decrease of Ca concentration also varied oppositely to OD 232 but there was a short transient phase during which the concentration of dissolved Ca stopped 233 decreasing and OD stopped increasing. This transient phase was not systematically observed in 234 cultures of Cyanothece sp. Overall, when normalized to the number of cells, the Ca uptake rates 235 varied in time and between strains from 0.07 to 0.01 fmol.h⁻¹.cell⁻¹, 0.11 to 0.001 fmol.h⁻¹.cell⁻¹ 236 and 0.42 to 0.01 fmol.h⁻¹.cell⁻¹ for G. lithophora, Cyanothece sp. and T. elongatus, respectively 237 (Fig. S3). In contrast to what was observed for strains forming intracellular carbonates, 238 dissolved Ca concentration remained relatively constant for Gloeocapsa sp. cultures with only 239 a slight decrease down to 183 µM. 240 The concentration of extracellular dissolved orthophosphates (here mostly HPO₄²⁻) was 241 measured in cultures where Ca concentration decreased significantly, i.e. cultures of strains 242 forming intracellular Ca-carbonates, in order to test some potential correlation between these 243 two parameters. There was some uptake of Ca and orthophosphates by the cells. Thereafter, 244 what was incorporated by the cells is called the "fraction removed from the solution". From the 245 measurements of dissolved Ca and orthophosphate at different times, it was possible to calculate 246 the Ca/P of this fraction: it corresponds to the ratio between the amount of Ca and the amount 247 of P removed from the solution between two consecutive time points (Fig. 2). Different 248

temporal evolutions were observed depending on the strains. For G. lithophora, the concentration of dissolved orthophosphates decreased with time but not in a constant ratio with Ca (Fig. 2). Indeed, the Ca/P ratio of the fraction removed from the solution decreased continuously from more than 2 down to around 0 when the concentration of dissolved Ca leveled down at 2.75 µM. For Cyanothece sp., there was only a slight decrease of dissolved orthophosphates from 170 down to 100 µM with a Ca/P of the fraction removed from the solution varying between 4 and 8 (Fig. 2). Finally, there was almost no variation of dissolved orthophosphates in T. elongatus cultures. Therefore, no correlation was observed overall between the temporal evolutions of dissolved Ca²⁺ and HPO₄²⁻ concentrations. In all cultures, alkalinity (mostly [HCO₃-]) increased continuously up to 3204, 4093 and 3591 µM for G. lithophora, Cyanothece sp. and T. elongatus, respectively (Fig. S4). This was due to the dissolution of atmospheric CO₂ which increased at increasing pH in BG11. Alkalinity was almost equal to [HCO₃-] in G. lithophora cultures. Some differences between alkalinity and [HCO₃-] (20 to 33 %, i.e., 0.8 to 1.2 mM) were observed in the late stages of the cultures of Cyanothece sp. and T. elongatus, due mostly to elevated concentrations of OH- and CO₃²- present in the solution (Fig. S4). Moreover, Mg and S concentrations decreased while an increase of NO₂⁻ concentration was observed (Table S2-4). The measurement of all these concentrations allowed to calculate the speciation of elements in the extracellular solutions and their saturation indices (SI) with respect to different mineral phases, including Ca-carbonate and Ca-phosphate phases (Fig. 3; Table S5-7). For G. lithophora, the culture medium was constantly undersaturated with all Ca-carbonate phases, including ACC (Fig. 3). In contrast, the solution was supersaturated with hydroxyapatite at least until 650 h with SI values varying between 4.9 and 6.9 (Table S5). It became undersaturated with this phase after 650 h. For Cyanothece sp., solutions were always undersaturated with ACC and slightly supersaturated with calcite at two time points only (114

249

250

251

252

253

254

255

256

257

258

259

260

261

262

263

264

265

266

267

268

269

270

271

272

and 282 h; SI of around 1 and 0.2; Table S6). For *Thermosynechococcus elongatus*, solutions were slightly supersaturated with ACC at 162 and 234 h (SI of around 0.4 and 0.25, respectively; Table S7).

The mass of incorporated Ca normalized to the total cell dry mass was estimated from bulk

277

278

279

280

281

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

289

290

291

292

293

294

295

296

297

298

274

275

276

Intracellular distribution of Ca

measurements for G. lithophora, Cyanothece sp. and T. elongatus cells (Fig. S5). Two processes impacted oppositely the time variation of this parameter: on the one hand, Ca uptake increased the normalized Ca mass content; on the other hand, cell division decreased it. The normalized mass of Ca at ~700 h amounted to 26 ± 3 , 13 ± 2 and 15 ± 3 mg/g for G. lithophora, Cvanothece sp. and T. elongatus, respectively (Fig. S5). A slight decrease of the cellular mass proportion of Ca was observed for each strain after the time when extracellular dissolved Ca reached its minimum. This can be explained by the fact that cellular division was still continuing, while there was only little Ca left in the solutions. Standard deviations were too high to infer precisely the evolution of the cellular mass proportion of Ca in the first stages of growth. In parallel, STEM observations were performed on cells pelleted at different stages of the culture (Fig. 4-6; Table S8-10). No extracellular Ca-containing precipitate was observed in the pellets. In contrast, most of G. lithophora (Fig. 4), Cyanothece sp. (Fig. 5) and T. elongatus cells (Fig. 6) contained intracellular granules with Ca. EDXS maps showed the presence of two different types of Ca-containing granules: 1) Ca-carbonates and 2) polyphosphates containing Mg and K and some Ca. Cells of the inoculum (t=0 h) appeared similar to cells observed by TEM at other stages and contained Ca-carbonates and polyphosphates as well (Table S8-10). Gloeocapsa sp. cells only contained polyphosphate granules with a little amount of Ca (Fig. S6).

Gloeomargarita lithophora cells contained a relatively constant number and volume of Cacarbonates upon time, i.e., 7.8 ± 4.1 inclusions/cell and 0.058 ± 0.045 µm³/cell, respectively (Table S8). Averages were calculated based on the number of observed cells, excluding cells which did not contain any intracellular granule. These cells with no intracellular granule represented 6 to 22 % of the total number of cells. The Mg/(Ca+Mg) ratio in the intracellular carbonates formed by G. lithophora was relatively constant between 9.8 and 14.8 % during most of the culture with one exception at 954 h when Mg/(Ca+Mg) ratios of 39 ± 18 % were measured. Considering the cellular mass proportion of Ca and a density of 2.18 g.cm⁻³ for ACC (Fernandez-Martinez et al., 2013), Ca contained in carbonate granules as observed by STEM represented between few percents and up to half of the total Ca bioaccumulated by G. lithophora cells. Since the measurements of cellular mass proportion of Ca by bulk analyses (ICP-AES) and STEM were independent and each was affected by relatively high uncertainties, the proportion of Ca contained by carbonates has to be considered as a very rough first order estimate. Cyanothece sp. cells contained a relatively lower number of inclusions per cell (4.8 ± 2.8) but with larger diameters, representing a larger volume on average (Table S9). Between 8 and 36 % of the observed cells did not contain any inclusions in Cyanothece sp. cultures. Mg/(Ca+Mg) ratios of the carbonate granules were constant at around 4 %. Overall, Ca contained in carbonates represented between 16 and 76 % of total Ca in the cells. Finally, T. elongatus cells contained a more variable number of inclusions, between 4 and 23, per cell (Table S10). The proportion of empty cells varied between 2 % and 21 %. Similarly to Cyanothece sp. cells, Mg/(Ca+Mg) ratios were constant at a low value (~4 %) except at 525 h, when they were slightly higher. Ca contained in carbonates represented a lower proportion (1.5-29 %) than what was estimated on average for G. lithophora and Cyanothece sp.

299

300

301

302

303

304

305

306

307

308

309

310

311

312

313

314

315

316

317

318

319

320

321

Overall, the different strains forming intracellular carbonates accumulated Ca with high affinity down to concentrations of few μM in the solutions, whatever their growth temperature and growth rate (Table S1). Moreover, it appears that the average number of CaCO3 inclusions per cell and their diameter did not vary much with incubation time in a given strain. Therefore, it was not possible to infer the formation of CaCO3 inclusions by observing single cells by TEM only (Table S8-10). However, with incubation time, there was an increasing number of cells with a constant number of inclusions per cell, i.e., an increasing total number of CaCO3 inclusions in the cultures, attesting intracellular precipitation of ACC in cultures.

DISCUSSION

Changes of dissolved Ca concentrations are due to high cellular uptakes by intracellularly calcifying cyanobacteria

The concentration of dissolved Ca decreased significantly in the culture media of intracellularly calcifying cyanobacteria down to a few micromoles per liter. Several previous studies interpreted a similar decrease as the result of cellular uptake, although they sometimes used Ca concentrations of several millimolar, i.e., higher than in our study and therefore corresponding to a high supersaturation with respect to Ca-containing phases (Singh & Mishra, 2014). However, it has to be noticed that such a decrease of dissolved Ca concentrations may have two different origins: 1) extracellular precipitation of a Ca-rich phase and/or 2) uptake by the cells which includes sorption at their surface and accumulation within the cells. Here, culture media were supersaturated only with hydroxyapatite (SI= 0.9 to 10.1) at several time points for different strains. Therefore, Ca-phosphate precipitation may theoretically have occurred. However, several observations, when considered altogether, suggest that if Ca-phosphate

precipitation occurred, the decrease of dissolved Ca²⁺ was clearly not due to this process only and cellular uptake and intracellular CaCO₃ precipitation were significant in all cases:

- 1) Sterile BG-11 was supersaturated with hydroxyapatite but no Ca decrease was observed with time in non-inoculated controls. While this control is different in terms of pH and the absence of possibly nucleating cell surfaces, it shows that supersaturation does not imply effective precipitation.
- 2) Ca/P ratios of the fractions removed from the solutions were not constant over time, and were very different between the cultures of different strains (Fig. 2). Therefore, the fractions removed from the solution could not be a Ca-phosphate phase only, which would have been characterized by a relatively constant Ca/P ratio. Moreover, Ca/P ratios of the fractions removed from the solutions were most of the time not equal to the Ca/P ratio of usual Ca-phosphates, which are comprised between 0.5 and 2 (Cosmidis *et al.*, 2015).
- 3) No extracellular Ca-phosphate precipitate was detected by STEM observations in all the cultures.
- 4) Although extracellular solutions were supersaturated with hydroxyapatite at several time points for *T. elongatus* cultures with a SI level up to 10.1 (the highest SI value measured in all cultures), no significant decrease of dissolved P was observed. This suggests that no significant precipitation of hydroxyapatite occurs at the SI values measured in all these cultures. Under these conditions, despite the presence of cell surfaces and high supersaturation, no Ca-phosphate precipitation occured.
- 5) For *G. lithophora* cultures, extracellular solutions became undersaturated with hydroxyapatite and other Ca-phosphate phases after 450 h, indicating that Ca-phosphates did not control the solubility of Ca in these cultures, hence the concentration of extracellular dissolved Ca, in these experiments. Ca-phosphate phases may have in

turn precipitated within cells similarly to what was observed for amorphous CaCO3 but 372 such precipitates were not observed by TEM. 373 In contrast, the formation of polyphosphates, which were observed by STEM within cells of 374 Cyanothece sp. and G. lithophora but very rarely in T. elongatus cells may better explain the 375 observed decrease of dissolved P concentration in the cultures of G. lithophora and 376 Cyanothece sp. 377 It is known that cyanobacterial surfaces sorb Ca^{2+} , at values of ~ 0.8 to 1.2 mg of calcium per g 378 of dry matter for the cyanobacterium Gloeocapsa sp. (Bundeleva et al., 2014) and this 379 sometimes results in the precipitation of Ca-carbonates when extracellular solutions are 380 supersaturated (Schultze-Lam et al., 1992; Dittrich & Sibler, 2006; Obst et al., 2009). It is also 381 known that some Ca can also be complexed by intracellular proteins in bacteria (Gilabert, 2012; 382 Domínguez et al., 2015). Here, analyses by transmission electron microscopy on whole cells 383 could not discriminate between these two pools of Ca. However, discriminating between these 384 two pools is not crucial here since under the conditions used in the present study, most of the 385 Ca was sequestered by polyphosphate and carbonate granules in cyanobacteria forming 386 intracellular carbonates. This was shown by STEM analyses and the fact that amounts of Ca 387 sorbed by Gloeocapsa sp. cells were small compared to total amounts of Ca accumulated by 388 intracellularly calcifying strains. The mass of Ca in CaCO3 inclusions was roughly assessed by 389 TEM measurements, by counting the number of CaCO₃ inclusions per cell, measuring their 390 volume, assessing their Mg/(Mg+Ca) ratios and taking into account the number of empty cells 391 (Table S8-10). The comparison with the total Ca content in cells as measured by ICP-AES, 392 suggested that Ca in CaCO₃ amounted 19-31 % in G. lithophora, 16-76 % in Cyanothece sp. 393 and 1.5-29 % in T. elongatus. Considering all the uncertainties associated with these 394 measurements and the difficulty to compare robustly TEM with ICP-AES measurements, we 395

consider that these numbers are consistent with the idea that ACC are important Ca reservoirs 396 in these cells. 397 The three strains of cyanobacteria forming intracellular carbonates that were studied here 398 accumulated calcium up to 20-40 mg per g of dry matter (2-4 % in mass). In comparison, E. 399 coli cells accumulate a total of 0.19 mg of calcium per g of dry matter independently of the 400 extracellular calcium concentration (Gangola and Rosen, 1987). Bundeleva et al. (2014) 401 determined a maximum uptake of 0.8-1.2 mg of calcium per g of dry matter for the 402 cyanobacterium Gloeocapsa sp. Spores of Bacillus cereus and Bacillus megaterium, which are 403 notorious for being highly enriched in Ca, accumulate 14-23 mg/g of Ca (Foerster & Foster, 404 1966; Shibata et al., 1992). Overall, this suggests that strains of intracellular carbonate-forming 405 cyanobacteria tend to accumulate Ca to a larger extent than other strains, although this should 406 be measured systematically for many other cyanobacterial strains. As a consequence, they also 407 tend to buffer the extracellular dissolved calcium to a low concentration between 3 to 13 μM in 408 batch cultures. 409 One implication of this high Ca uptake capability by cyanobacteria forming intracellular 410 carbonates can be tentatively discussed. The high affinity of these cyanobacteria for Ca may 411 decrease at least locally the concentration of dissolved Ca in the extracellular environment to 412 low values, especially in cases when the local dissolved Ca pool is not replenished as fast as it 413 is consumed by cells. In our batch experiments, where there is no replenishment of dissolved 414 Ca, this decrease lowered saturation of the solutions with respect to Ca-containing phases, such 415 as calcite or hydroxyapatite and therefore inhibited the precipitation of these mineral phases. In 416 nature, if this uptake remains significant, even in supersaturated solutions, this may also inhibit 417 or decrease the kinetics of CaCO₃ precipitation due to the lowering of the saturation index, at 418 least locally around the cells. The formation of intracellular carbonates may therefore decrease 419 the risk of cell encrustation by minerals, which is lethal in many cases (Couradeau et al., 2013; 420

Miot *et al.*, 2015). Interestingly, different strategies have been developed by diverse microorganisms, all allowing to avoid cell encrustation. This is the case for 1) some iron-oxidizing bacteria, which induce a local decrease of pH (Hegler *et al.*, 2010) and/or produce templating extracellular polymers (Chan *et al.*, 2011) and 2) some cyanobacteria forming extracellular carbonates on a proteinaceous template (S layers) which can be shed from time to time (Schultze-Lam *et al.*, 1992). It is also interesting to note that such a lowering of solution saturation by active uptake of Ca inducing Ca-carbonate dissolution has been shown for some cyanobacterial euendoliths (Ramirez-Reinat and Garcia-Pichel, 2012).

Intracellular biomineralization is an active process: evidence and origin of the energy cost Formation of intracellular ACC granules in the extracellular solutions undersaturated with Cacarbonate suggests that at least locally around the granules, the intracellular solution was supersaturated with ACC, i.e., cellular activity maintained an intracellular chemical composition allowing precipitation of ACC and therefore different from that prevailing in the extracellular solution. Therefore, intracellular CaCO₃ biomineralization is an active process, i.e., it involves some energy cost to maintain a supersaturated environment in a globally undersaturated solution. The origin of this energy cost can be discussed. Parameters controlling CaCO₃ precipitation are the activities of Ca²⁺ and CO₃²⁻. The latter depends on the activity of HCO₃⁻ and pH. Many cyanobacteria actively import HCO₃⁻ using CO₂ concentrating mechanisms (CCM). This results in high intracellular HCO₃⁻ concentrations up to 30 mM as measured in *Synechococcus* sp. Nageli (strain RRIMP N1) and in Chlorogloeopsis sp. (strain ATCC 27193) (Badger & Andrews, 1982; Skleryk et al., 1997). Active uptake of bicarbonates may therefore account, at least partly, for the energy cost necessary to intracellular CaCO3 biomineralization. It would be interesting to measure the δ^{13} C composition of intracellular ACC in the future as a way to better assess the potential source of C for these precipitates. However, while many cyanobacteria show CCM capabilities, many do not form intracellular ACC (Benzerara et al., 2014). The specificity of cyanobacteria forming intracellular CaCO₃ may therefore rely on another process. The intracellular pH in cyanobacteria is regulated, between 6.8 and 7.9 based on measurements performed on strains Arthrospira platensis and Synechocystis sp. PCC 6803 (Belkin & Boussiba, 1991; Jiang et al., 2013). This is however less than the extracellular pH measured here and therefore intracellular pH regulation does not favor intracellular CaCO3 biomineralization. Only regulation of pH within vesicles at a value higher than in the extracellular solution may favor intracellular CaCO3 granule biomineralization with a cost of energy. Finally, the intracellular concentration of free calcium has been shown to be regulated within cells at very low values, around 100-200 nM with some possible increase up to 2.6 μM in Anabaena sp. PCC 7120 (Torrecilla et al., 2000; Barrán-Berdón et al., 2011). This strain does not form intracellular CaCO₃ granules (Benzerara et al., 2014). The maintenance of a low Ca concentration also costs energy but does not favor CaCO₃ biomineralization. In contrast, in cyanobacteria forming intracellular CaCO3, it is possible that the high Ca uptake that we observed accounts for some of the energy cost. The pH and/or inorganic carbon and Ca concentrations required for CaCO₃ precipitation can be calculated, considering the approximation that the volume in which biomineralization occurs is filled with water containing Ca²⁺ and inorganic carbon only. At a Ca²⁺ concentration of 2.6 μM (i.e., maximum intracellular Ca concentration reported in the literature), this solution would be undersaturated with ACC even at a pH of 13 and 450 mM of inorganic carbon (SI=-1). Therefore, Ca²⁺ concentration is most likely higher at least locally where CaCO₃ granules form. The pH of the solution where ACC forms, possibly within submicrometer-scale compartments, might be locally high. This will be important to determine whether such intracellular pH heterogeneities exist in future studies despite the challenge of measuring such local variations in cells. Considering a pH of

446

447

448

449

450

451

452

453

454

455

456

457

458

459

460

461

462

463

464

465

466

467

468

469

7.9, and an inorganic carbon concentration of 30 mM, which are the maxima reported in the literature for the cytoplasm of cyanobacteria, the solution would be saturated with ACC for a Ca²⁺ concentration higher than 441 μM, i.e., higher than the initial Ca concentration in BG-11 and much higher than the extracellular dissolved Ca concentrations down to which G. lithophora ([Ca]_{min}=2.75 μ M \pm 0.54), T. elongatus ([Ca]_{min}=12.8 μ M \pm 3.6) and Cyanothece sp. ([Ca]_{min}=5.9 μ M \pm 1.3) accumulate Ca. Even if intracellular solutions are not pure water and solubility of ACC might be modified by the presence of organics (Giuffre et al., 2013), this suggests that some active concentration of Ca may operate in intracellularly calcifying cyanobacteria involving some energy cost. Accordingly, cyanobacteria forming intracellular carbonates seem to accumulate Ca up to high levels as discussed above. This may appear surprising considering that such high cytoplasmic concentrations of Ca have been suggested to be toxic (e.g., Verhratsky and Parpura, 2014). It will be useful that future studies manage to measure intracellular free Ca²⁺ in cyanobacteria forming intracellular CaCO₃ and compare these concentrations with those measured in cyanobacteria not forming intracellular CaCO₃. However, one possibility is that intracellularly calcifying cyanobacteria regulate the cytoplasmic concentration of Ca at a low value around 100-200 nM as observed in all other bacteria and form intracellular compartments with a higher Ca concentration, in which Cacarbonates precipitate (Fig. 7). This would require an active import of Ca from the cytosol to this compartment. The measured Ca uptake rates per cell, which vary with culture age and between species from 0.001 up to 0.42 fmol.h⁻¹.cell⁻¹, may depend on the physiological state of the cells as well as the efficiency of the transport systems of the different species. Despite relatively large error bars, uptake rates normalized by cell numbers and measured in the present study under these specific conditions will be interesting to compare with rates measured under varying conditions and other strains in future studies. The presence of a compartment would also mean that intracellular CaCO3 formation by cyanobacteria is a controlled biomineralization

471

472

473

474

475

476

477

478

479

480

481

482

483

484

485

486

487

488

489

490

491

492

493

494

process involving specific cellular structures. Recent attempts to prepare ultramicrotomy thin sections for TEM investigations, preserving ACC granules have been unsuccessful (Li et al., 2016). Therefore, the existence of membranes delimitating potential compartments enclosing ACC granules remains speculative. Future cryo-microscopy observations may help to test further that hypothesis (Li et al., 2016). The selective advantage provided by such an active accumulation of Ca will also need clarification in the future, whether it may serve as a Cadetoxification or a storage mechanism. Based on the recognition that high Ca²⁺ concentrations can be toxic (Degens and Ittekkot, 1986) and the observation of intracellular Ca-containing amorphous granules in a phylogenetically broad range of animals (Simkiss, 1977), it has been previously suggested that Ca-detoxification is a widespread process. Whatever the origin of the energy cost for intracellular CaCO₃ biomineralization, the present observations have another implication regarding the preservation of fossil traces of this biomineralization capability. Once cells die, if the intracellular and extracellular solutions equilibrate and if the extracellular solution is undersaturated with ACC, ACC granules may dissolve and therefore may not be easily preserved as fossils. This might also explain the observation of cells with no ACC granules here (up to 36 % in Cyanothece sp. cultures after 623 h), which may be dead or inactive but this will require further analyses to determine the number of live/dead cells. In contrast, how these ACC granules may possibly transform to crystalline granules or may remain preserved in dead cells when the extracellular solution is supersaturated will be an interesting issue to investigate in order to better assess the fossilization potential of these cyanobacteria in the geological record.

517

496

497

498

499

500

501

502

503

504

505

506

507

508

509

510

511

512

513

514

515

516

518

519

Acknowledgments

Nithavong Cam salary was supported by French state funds managed by the ANR within the Investissements d'Avenir programme under reference ANR-11-IDEX-0004-02, and more specifically within the framework of the Cluster of Excellence MATISSE. Karim Benzerara has been supported by funding from the European Research Council under the European Community's Seventh Framework Programme (FP7/2007-2013 Grant Agreement no.307110 - ERC CALCYAN). The TEM facility at IMPMC was purchased owing to a support by Region Ile-de-France grant SESAME 2000 E 1435.

527

528

520

521

522

523

524

525

526

Supplementary information is available at (journal name)'s website

529

530

References

- 1. Arp G, Reimer A, Reitner J (2001) Photosynthesis-induced biofilm calcification and calcium concentrations in Phanerozoic oceans. *Science* **292**, 1701-1704.
- 2. Badger MR, Andrews TJ (1982) Photosynthesis and Inorganic Carbon Usage by the Marine Cyanobacterium, *Synechococcus sp. Plant Physiology* **70**, 517–523.
- 3. Badger MR, Price GD (2003) CO₂ concentrating mechanisms in cyanobacteria: molecular components, their diversity and evolution. *Journal of Experimental Botany* 54, 609–622.
- 4. Barrán-Berdón AL, Rodea-Palomares I, Leganés, F, Fernández-Piñas F (2011) Free
 Ca²⁺ as an early intracellular biomarker of exposure of cyanobacteria to environmental
 pollution. *Analytical and Bioanalytical Chemistry* **400**, 1015–1029.
- 5. Belkin S, Boussiba S (1991) High internal pH conveys ammonia resistance in *Spirulina*platensis. Bioresource Technology **38**, 167–169.

- 6. Benzerara K, Skouri-Panet, F, Li J, Férard, C, Gugger M, Laurent T, et al. (2014) Intracellular Ca-carbonate biomineralization is widespread in cyanobacteria.

 Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the USA 111, 10933–10938.
- 7. Bundeleva IA, Shirokova LS, Pokrovsky OS, Bénézeth P, Ménez B, Gérard E, et al. (2014) Experimental modeling of calcium carbonate precipitation by cyanobacterium *Gloeocapsa sp. Chemical Geology* **374–375**, 44–60.
- 8. Cam N, Georgelin T, Jaber M, Lambert J-F, Benzerara K (2015) In vitro synthesis of amorphous Mg-, Ca-, Sr- and Ba-carbonates: What do we learn about intracellular calcification by cyanobacteria? *Geochimica Cosmochimica Acta* **161**, 36–49.
- 9. Chan CS, Fakra SC, Emerson D, Fleming EJ, Edwards KJ (2011) Lithotrophic ironoxidizing bacteria produce organic stalks to control mineral growth: implications for biosignature formation. *ISME Journal* **5**, 717–727.
- 10. Cosmidis J, Benzerara K, Guyot F, Skouri-Panet F, Duprat E, Férard C, et al. (2015)

 Calcium-phosphate biomineralization induced by alkaline phosphatase activity in

 Escherichia coli: localization, kinetics, and potential signatures in the fossil record.

 Frontiers in Earth Science 3, article 84.
- 11. Couradeau E, Benzerara K, Gérard E, Estève I, Moreira D, Tavera R et al. (2013)

 Cyanobacterial calcification in modern microbialites at the submicrometer scale.

 Biogeosciences 10, 5255–5266.
- 12. Couradeau E, Benzerara K, Gerard E, Moreira D, Bernard S, Brown GE et al. (2012)

 An early-branching microbialite cyanobacterium forms intracellular carbonates.

 Science 336, 459–462.
- 13. Davies CW (1962) Ion Association. Butterworths London.
- 14. Degens ET, Ittekkot V (1986) Ca²⁺-stress, biological response and particle aggregation
 in the aquatic habitat. *Netherlands Journal of Sea Research* 20, 109-116.

- 15. Dittrich M, Sibler S (2006) Influence of H⁺ and Calcium Ions on Surface Functional

 Groups of *Synechococcus* PCC 7942 Cells. *Langmuir* 22, 5435–5442.
- 16. Domínguez DC, Guragain M, Patrauchan M (2015) Calcium binding proteins and calcium signaling in prokaryotes. *Cell Calcium* **57**, 151–165.
- 17. Fernandez-Martinez A, Kalkan B, Clark SM, Waychunas GA (2013) Pressure-induced polyamorphism and formation of "aragonitic" amorphous calcium carbonate.

 Angewandte Chemie International Edition 52, 8354–8357.
- 18. Foerster HF, Foster JW (1966) Endotrophic calcium, strontium, and barium spores of *Bacillus megaterium* and *Bacillus cereus*. *Journal of Bacteriology* **91**, 1333–1345.
- 19. Gangola P, Rosen BP (1987) Maintenance of intracellular calcium in *Escherichia coli*.
 Journal of Biological Chemistry 262, 12570–12574.
- 579 20. Gérard E, Ménez B, Couradeau E, Moreira D, Benzerara K, Tavera R et al. (2013) 580 Specific carbonate-microbe interactions in the modern microbialites of Lake Alchichica 581 (Mexico). *ISME Journal* 7, 1997–2009.
- 21. Gilabert JA (2012) Cytoplasmic calcium buffering In *Calcium Signaling* (ed Islam MS).
 Springer Science & Business Media, Dordrecht, pp. 483-498.
- 22. Giuffre AJ, Hamm LM, Han N, Yoreo JJD, Dove PM (2013) Polysaccharide chemistry
 regulates kinetics of calcite nucleation through competition of interfacial energies.
 Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the USA 110, 9261–9266.
- 23. Gustafsson JP (2013) Visual MINTEQ version 3.1, http://vminteq.lwr.kth.se/
- 24. Hegler F, Schmidt C, Schwarz H, Kappler A (2010) Does a low-pH microenvironment
 around phototrophic FeII-oxidizing bacteria prevent cell encrustation by FeIII minerals?
 FEMS Microbiology Ecology 74, 592–600.
- 591 25. Jackson DJ, Macis L, Reitner J, Degnan BM, Worheide G (2007) Sponge 592 paleogenomics reveals an ancient role for carbonic anhydrase in skeletogenesis. *Science* 593 **316**, 1893-1895.

- 26. Jansson C, Northen T (2010) Calcifying cyanobacteria—the potential of biomineralization for carbon capture and storage. *Current Opinion in Biotechnology* **21**, 365–371.
- 597 27. Jiang H-B, Cheng H-M, Gao K-S, Qiu B-S (2013) Inactivation of Ca²⁺/H⁺ Exchanger 598 in *Synechocystis sp.* Strain PCC 6803 promotes cyanobacterial calcification by 599 upregulating CO₂-concentrating mechanisms. *Applied and Environmental* 600 *Microbiology* **79**, 4048–4055.
- 28. Kellermeier M, Picker A, Kempter A, Cölfen H, Gebauer D (2014) A straightforward treatment of activity in aqueous CaCO₃ solutions and the consequences for nucleation Theory. *Advanced Materials* **26**, 752–757.
- 29. Li J, Margaret Oliver I, Cam N, Boudier T, Blondeau M, Leroy E, et al. (2016) biomineralization patterns of intracellular carbonatogenesis in cyanobacteria: molecular hypotheses. *Minerals* **6**, 10.
- 30. Merz MU (1992) The biology of carbonate precipitation by cyanobacteria. *Facies* **26**, 81–101.
- 31. Miller AG, Colman B (1980) Evidence for HCO₃- transport by the blue-green alga (Cyanobacterium) *Coccochloris peniocystis. Plant Physiology* **65**, 397–402.
- 32. Miot J, Remusat L, Duprat E, Gonzalez A, Pont S, Poinsot M (2015) Fe biomineralization mirrors individual metabolic activity in a nitrate-dependent Fe(II)oxidizer. Frontiers in Microbiology 6,
- 33. Moorehead WR, Biggs HG (1974) 2-Amino-2-methyl-1-propanol as the alkalizing agent in an improved continuous-flow cresolphthalein complexone procedure for calcium in serum. *Clinical Chemistry* **20**, 1458–1460.
- 34. Moreira D, Tavera R, Benzerara K, Skouri-Panet F, Couradeau E, Gérard E, Loussert Fonta C, Novelo E, Zivanovic Y, López-García P (2017) Description of

- 619 Gloeomargarita lithophora gen. nov., sp. nov., a thylakoid-bearing basal branching
- cyanobacterium with intracellular carbonates, and proposal for Gloeomargaritales ord.
- 621 nov. International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology, in press
- 35. Nakamura Y, Kaneko T, Sato S, Ikeuchi M, Katoh H, Sasamoto S, et al. (2002)
- 623 Complete genome structure of the thermophilic cyanobacterium *Thermosynechococcus*
- *elongatus* BP-1. *DNA Research* **9**, 123–130.
- 36. Obst M, Wehrli B, Dittrich M (2009) CaCO₃ nucleation by cyanobacteria: laboratory
- evidence for a passive, surface-induced mechanism. *Geobiology* 7, 324–347.
- 37. Porta D, Rippka R, Hernández-Mariné M (1999) Unusual ultrastructural features in
- three strains of Cyanothece (cyanobacteria). *Archives in Microbiology* **173**, 154–163.
- 38. Ragon M, Benzerara K, Moreira D, Tavera R, López-García P (2014) 16S rDNA-based
- analysis reveals cosmopolitan occurrence but limited diversity of two cyanobacterial
- lineages with contrasted patterns of intracellular carbonate mineralization. Frontiers in
- 632 *Microbiology* **5**, 331.
- 39. Ramírez-Reinat EL and Garcia-Pichel F (2012) Prevalence of Ca²⁺-ATPase-mediated
- carbonate dissolution among cyanobacterial euendoliths. Applied and Environmental
- 635 *Microbiology* **78**, 7-13.
- 40. Riding R (2006) Cyanobacterial calcification, carbon dioxide concentrating
- mechanisms, and Proterozoic/Cambrian changes in atmospheric composition.
- 638 *Geobiology* **4**, 299–316.
- 41. Riding R (2000) Microbial carbonates: the geological record of calcified bacterial—algal
- mats and biofilms. *Sedimentology* **47**, 179–214.
- 42. Riding R (2012) A hard life for cyanobacteria. *Science* **336**, 427-428.

- 43. Rippka R, Deruelles J, Waterbury JB, Herdman M, Stanier RY (1979) Generic assignments, strain histories and properties of pure cultures of Cyanobacteria. *Journal*of General Microbiology 111, 1–61.
- 44. Saghaï A, Zivanovic Y, Zeyen N, Moreira D, Benzerara K, Deschamps P, et al. (2015)
 Metagenome-based diversity analyses suggest a significant contribution of non cyanobacterial lineages to carbonate precipitation in modern microbialites. *Frontiers in Microbiology* 6, 797.
- 45. Sarazin G, Michard G, Prevot F (1999) A rapid and accurate spectroscopic method for alkalinity measurements in sea water samples. *Water Research* **33**, 290–294.
- 46. Schultze-Lam S, Harauz G, Beveridge TJ (1992) Participation of a cyanobacterial S layer in fine-grain mineral formation. *Journal of Bacteriology* **174**, 7971–7981.
- 47. Shibata H, Miyoshi S, Osato T, Tani I, Hashimoto T (1992) Involvement of calcium in germination of coat-modified spores of *Bacillus cereus* T. *Microbiology and Immunology* **36**, 935–946.
- 48. Simkiss K (1977) Biomineralization and detoxification. *Calcified Tissue Research* **24**, 199.
- 49. Singh S, Mishra AK (2014) Regulation of calcium ion and its effect on growth and developmental behavior in wild type and ntcA mutant of *Anabaena sp.* PCC 7120 under varied levels of CaCl₂. *Microbiology* **83**, 235–246.
- 50. Siong K, Asaeda T (2009) Calcite encrustation in macro-algae *Chara* and its implication to the formation of carbonate-bound cadmium. *Journal of Hazardous Materials* **167**, 1237–1241.
- 51. Skleryk RS, Tyrrell PN, Espie GS (1997) Photosynthesis and inorganic carbon acquisition in the cyanobacterium *Chlorogloeopsis sp.* ATCC 27193. *Physiologia Plantarum* 99, 81–88.

- 52. Torrecilla I, Leganés F, Bonilla I, Fernández-Piñas F (2000) Use of recombinant aequorin to study calcium homeostasis and monitor calcium transients in response to heat and cold shock in cyanobacteria. *Plant Physiology* **123**, 161–176.
- 53. Verkhratsky A, Parpura V (2014) Calcium signaling and calcium channels: Evolution and general principles. *European Journal of Pharmacology* **739**, 1-3.
- 54. Verrecchia EP, Freytet P, Verrecchia KE, Dumont J-L (1995) Spherulites in calcrete laminar crusts: biogenic CaCO₃ precipitation as a major contributor to crust formation.

 Journal of Sedimentary Research 65A, 690–700.
- 55. Yamaoka T, Satoh K, Katoh S (1978) Photosynthetic activities of a thermophilic bluegreen alga. *Plant Cell Physiology* **19**, 943–954.

677

Figure legends

measurements.

Fig. 1. Time evolution of pH (open squares), optical density at 730 nm (closed circles) and dissolved Ca (closed triangles). The pH and OD were measured in cultures of *G. lithophora*(A), *Cyanothece* sp. (B), *Thermosynechococcus elongatus* (C) and *Gloeocapsa* sp. (D).
Dissolved Ca concentrations are shown separately for cultures of *G. lithophora* (E), *Cyanothece*sp. (F), *Thermosynechococcus elongatus* (G) and *Gloeocapsa* sp. (H). Error bars were calculated based on variations in triplicates and the precision of calcium concentration

Fig. 2. Time evolution of the concentration of DIP ([HPO4²⁻]) and the Ca/P ratio of the fraction incorporated by the cells. A, B and C correspond to DIP in cultures of *Gloeomargarita lithophora* (A), *Cyanothece* sp. (B) and *Thermosynechococcus elongatus* (C). For all three strains, error bars were calculated based on variations in triplicate cultures. When not visible, error bars are smaller than the size of the symbols. Ca/P ratios of the fraction incorporated by the cells are shown separately for cultures of *Gloeomargarita lithophora* (D), *Cyanothece* sp. (E) and *Thermosynechococcus elongatus* (F). For these graphs, the three replicates are represented by the different symbols (circle for replicate 1, triangle for replicate 2 and square for replicate 3).

Fig. 3. Time evolution of the saturation index (SI) of solutions with calcite (filled circles) and amorphous calcium carbonate (filled triangles) in cultures of *Gloeomargarita lithophora* (A), *Cyanothece* sp. (B) and *Thermosynechococcus elongatus* (C). Error bars were calculated based on variations in triplicates.

Fig. 4. STEM-EDXS analyses of *Gloeomargarita lithophora* cells collected after 186 h (A, B and C), and 645 h (D, E and F). (A and D) STEM-HAADF images showing bright carbonates (red circles) and light grey polyphosphate (green circles) granules. (B and E) Corresponding EDXS maps of carbon (blue), phosphorus (green) and calcium (red). (C and F) EDXS spectra of P-granules (green) and the Ca-granules (red) shown in A and D. Time points at which cells were collected are reported on the growth curve.

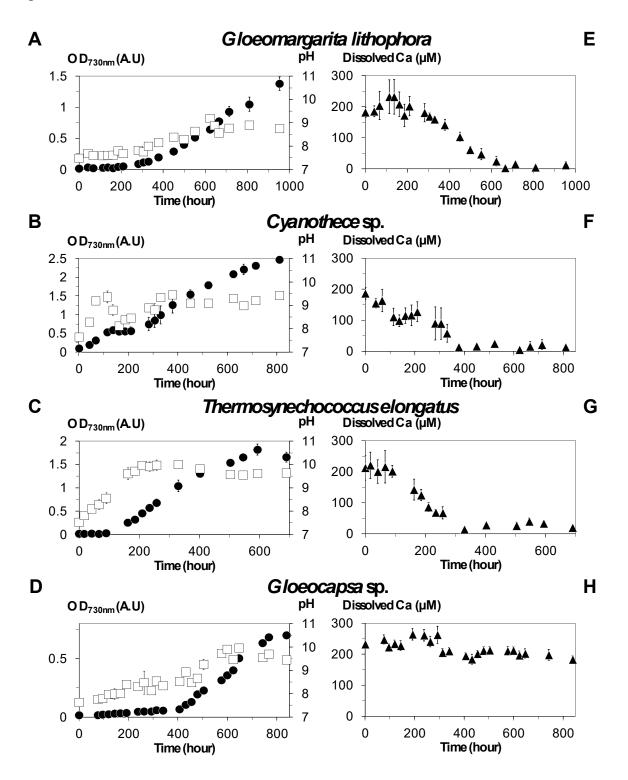
Fig. 5. STEM-EDXS analyses of *Cyanothece sp.* cells collected after 114 h (A, B and C) and 624 h (D, E and F) of culture. (A and D) STEM-HAADF images showing bright carbonates (red circles) and light grey polyphosphate (green circles) granules. (B and E) Corresponding EDXS maps of carbon (blue), phosphorus (green) and calcium (red). (C and F) EDXS spectra of P-granules (green), Ca-granules (red) and cell zone without granules shown in A and D. Time points at which cells were collected are reported on the growth curve.

Fig. 6. STEM-EDXS analyses of *Thermosynechococcus elongatus* cells collected after 162 h (A, C, D and E) and 525 h (B, F, G and H) of culture. (A, B, C and F) STEM-HAADF images showing bright carbonates (red circles) and light grey polyphosphate (green circles) granules. (D and G) Corresponding EDXS maps of carbon (blue), phosphorus (green) and calcium (red). (E and H) EDXS spectra of P-granules (green) and Ca-granules (red) shown in C and F. Time points at which cells were collected are reported on the growth curve.

Fig. 7. Scheme showing one hypothesis for the formation of intracellular carbonate inclusions. In this scenario, calcium exchanges between the cytoplasm and the extracellular medium follow the classical scheme as described in the literature, i.e., calcium is passively transported inwards and actively exported outwards. Moreover, Ca is actively transported from the cytoplasm to a

- putative intracellular compartment where Ca-carbonate granules form. The thin and thick arrows correspond to passive and active transport of calcium, respectively.

Figure 1



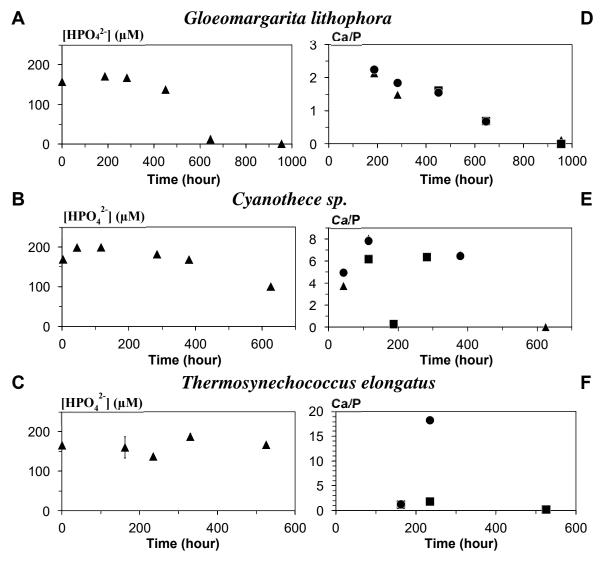
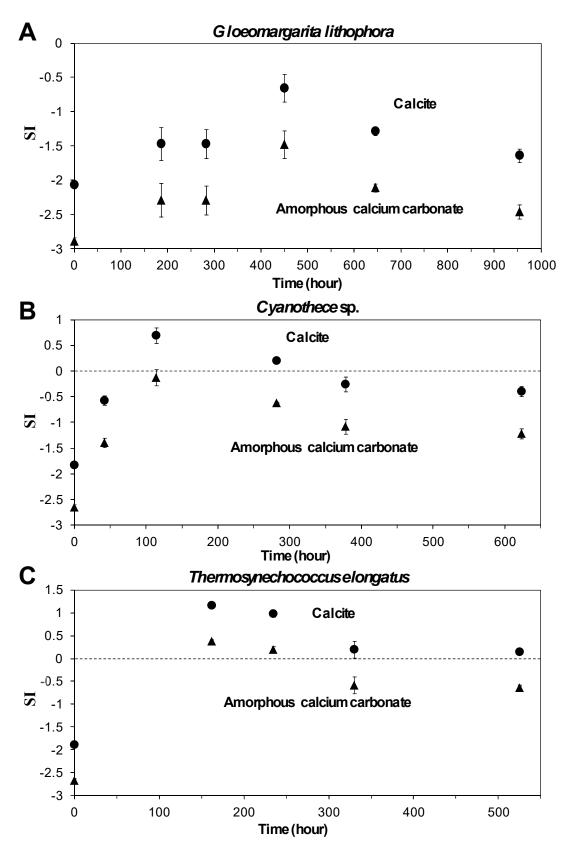
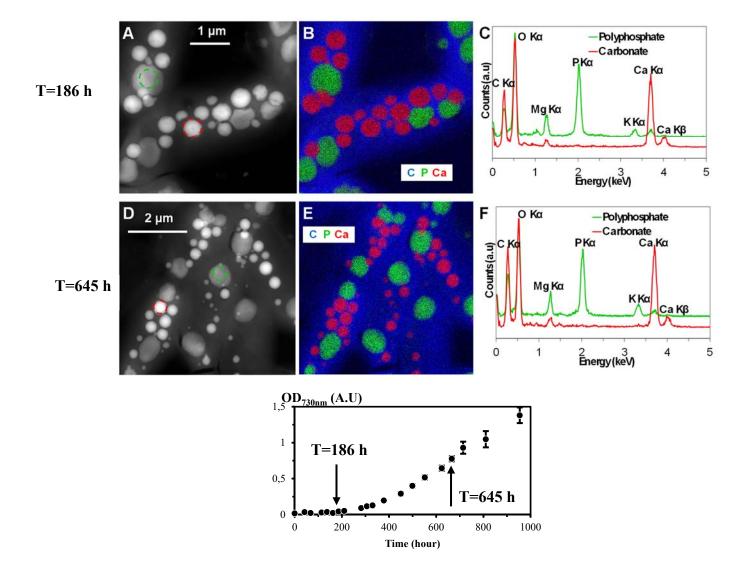
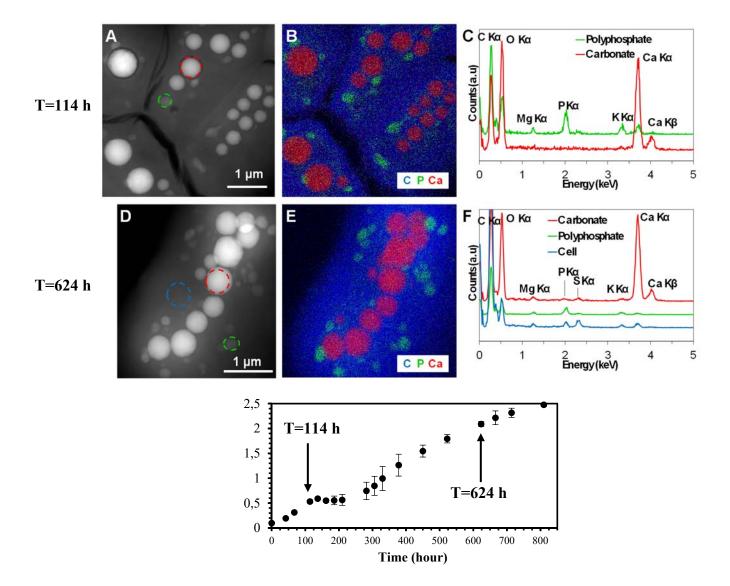


Figure 3







1 Figure 6

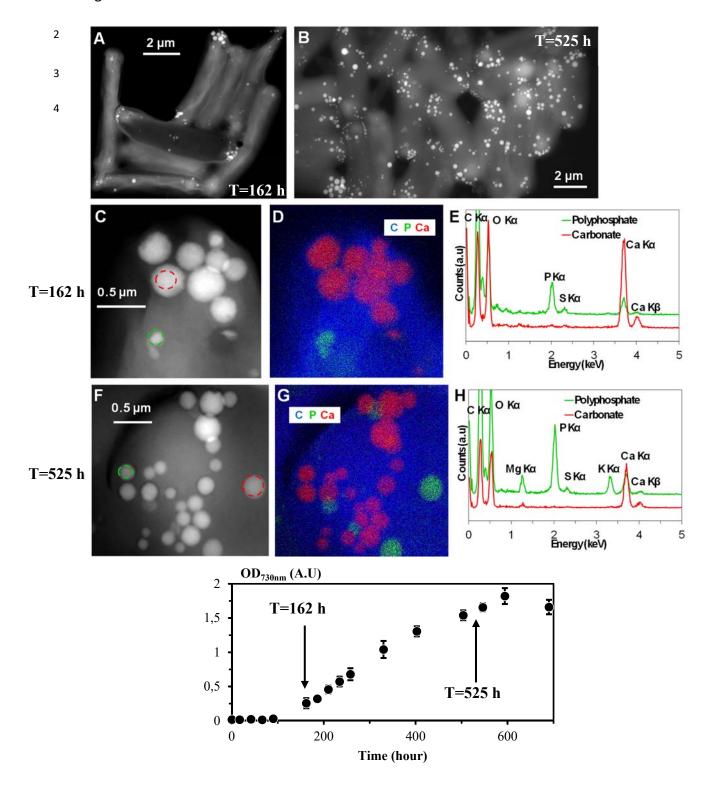
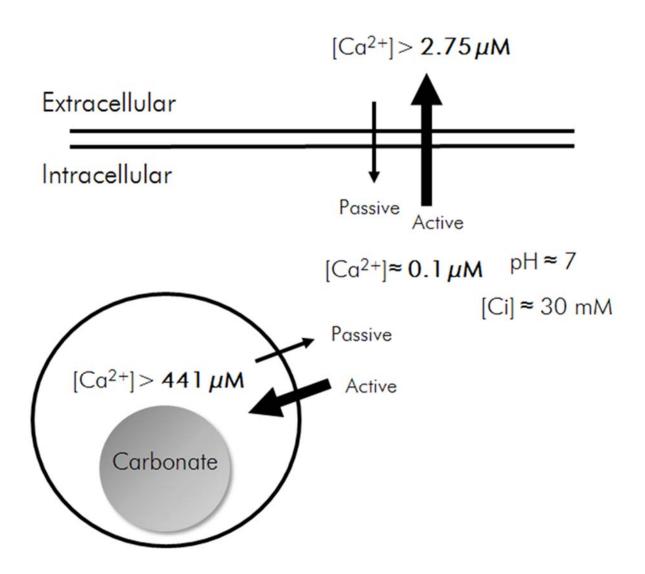


Figure 7



Supplementary material includes 6 figures and 10 tables



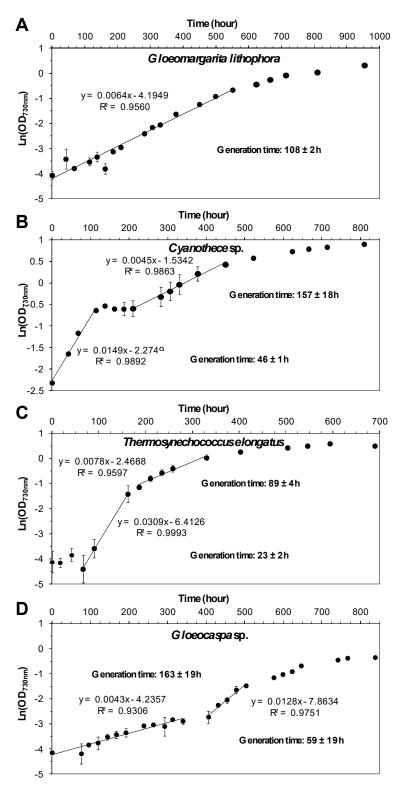


Figure S1: Growth of cultures of *Gloeomargarita lithophora* (A), *Cyanothece* sp. (B), *Thermosynechococcus elongatus* (C) and *Gloeocapsa* sp. (D) inoculated in BG-11.Several phases are discriminated in these graphs, marked by different generation times, i.e., slopes. Error bars were calculated based on variations in triplicates.

Non-inoculated BG-11

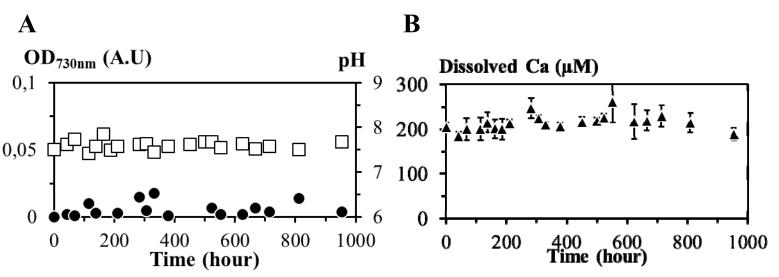
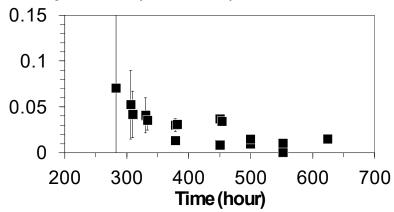


Figure S2: Time evolution of pH (open squares) and OD (closed circles) in (A) and dissolved Ca (closed triangles) in (B) in non-inoculated sterile BG-11 incubated at 30 °C under continuous light.

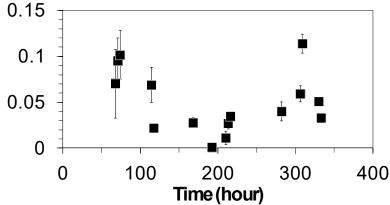
A Gloeomargarita lithophora

Ca uptake rate (fmol/h/cell)



B Cyanothece sp.

Ca uptake rate (fmol/h/cell)



C Thermosynechococcus elongatus

Ca uptake rate (fmol/ h/ cell)

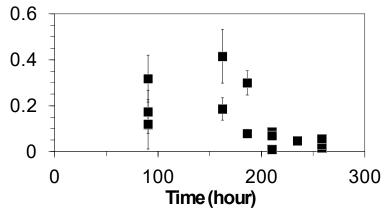


Figure S3: Uptake rate of Ca per cell versus time during the Ca uptake phase in cultures of *Gloeomargarita lithophora* (A), *Cyanothece* sp. (B) and *Thermosynechococcus elongatus* (C). Error bars were calculated based on instrumental precision. Values for the different replicates are reported in the graphs.

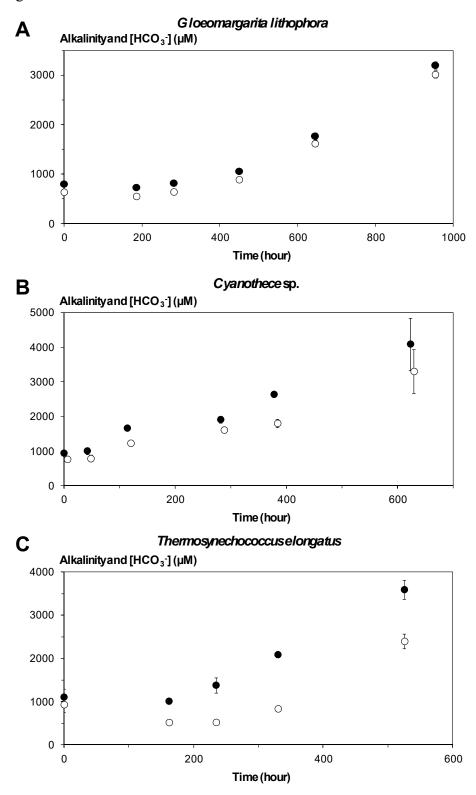


Figure S4: Time evolution of alkalinity (filled circles) and HCO₃⁻ (open circles) in extracellular solutions of *Gloeomargarita lithophora* (A), *Cyanothece* sp. (B) and *Thermosynechococcus elongatus* (C) cultures. Error bars were calculated based on variations in triplicates.

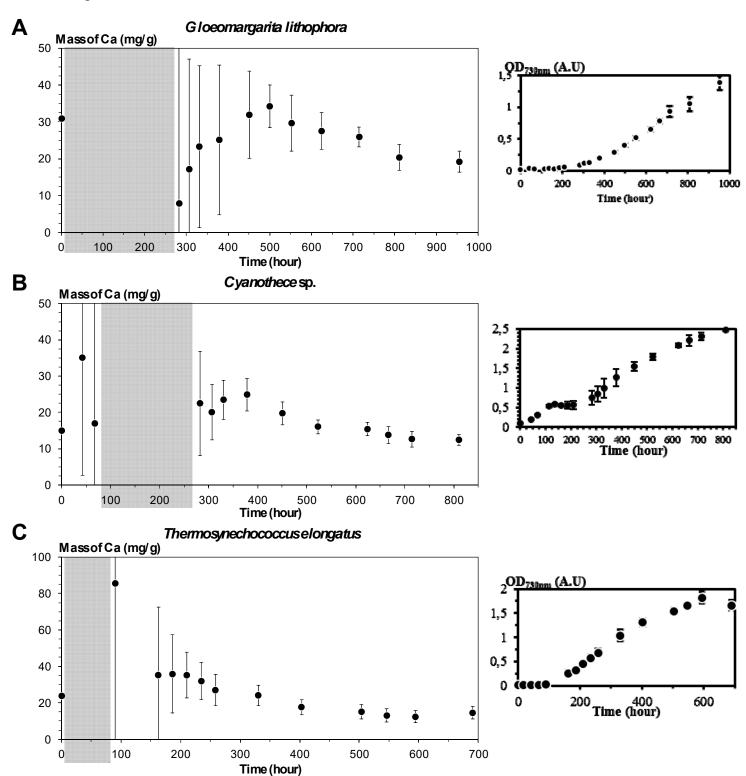


Fig. S5. Time evolution of the cellular mass proportion of Ca in cultures of *Gloeomargarita lithophora* (A), *Cyanothece* sp. (B) and *Thermosynechococcus elongatus* (C). The mass proportion of Ca was not calculated when no significant culture growth was observed. Standard deviations were calculated based on variations in triplicates and the precision of calcium concentration measurements. The grey areas correspond to lag phases and the transient phase with no growth for *Cyanothece sp.* culture. The same growth curves as in figure 1 are shown on the right.

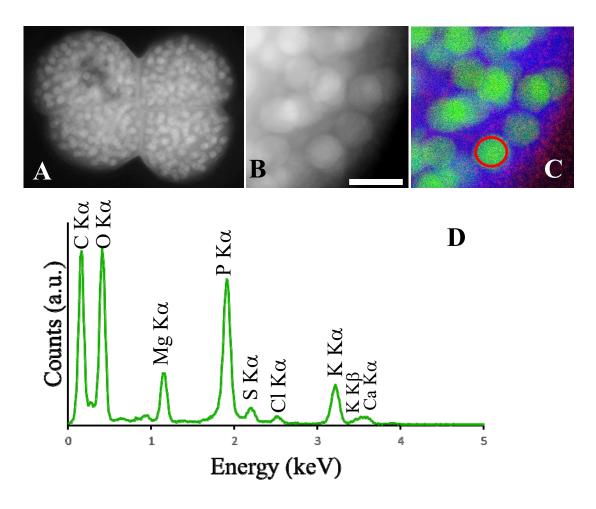


Figure S6: STEM-EDXS analyses of *Gloeocapsa sp.* cells. (A and B) STEM-HAADF images showing polyphosphate granules. (C) Corresponding EDXS maps of carbon (blue), phosphorus (green) and calcium (red). (D) EDXS spectrum of a P granule shown in C.

Table S1: Ca uptake rates, Ca affinities and cellular mass of Ca in cyanobacteria forming intracellular Ca-carbonates

Features	Gloeomargarita lithophora	Cyanothece sp.	Thermosynechococcus elongatus		
Temperature (°C)	30	30	45		
Final dissolved Ca (μM)	2.75 ± 0.54	5.9 ± 1.3	12.8 ± 3.6		
Range of Ca uptake rate (fmol/cell/h)	0.01 - 0.07	0.001 - 0.11	0.01 - 0.42		
Maximum measured cellular Ca mass ratio (mg/g of dry matter)	40	45	185		

Time (h)		0	186	282	450	645	954
	repl. 1	439	432	462	434	392	370
К	repl. 2	395	437	445	426	402	380
	repl. 3	458	441	441	422	424	372
	repl. 1	323	293	288	263	193	106
Mg	repl. 2	287	292	284	260	199	105
	repl. 3	317	293	278	269	182	101
	repl. 1	18827	19788	19587	19018	19362	19165
Na	repl. 2	16813	19445	19519	18974	19819	19437
	repl. 3	18493	19652	19610	19706	19713	19261
	repl. 1	20	14	23	15	23	36
N (NH ₄ ⁺ and NH ₃)	repl. 2	17	15	13	13	14	37
	repl. 3	26	10	23	20	20	33
	repl. 1	4	14	15	31	157	838
N (NO₂⁻)	repl. 2	4	12	16	37	134	845
	repl. 3	4	13	16	34	199	988
	repl. 1	20181	19955	19895	23132	22926	20902
N (NO ₃ -)	repl. 2	20522	18887	19707	23492	23325	20603
	repl. 3	20486	19813	19846	23685	23037	20272
	repl. 1	507	529	533	542	515	523
Cl	repl. 2	507	546	533	588	513	536
	repl. 3	508	531	537	543	513	518
	repl. 1	377	380	384	374	318	262
S	repl. 2	378	394	382	403	320	262
	repl. 3	379	383	384	375	313	256

Table S2: Chemical analyses of K, Mg, Na, S, Cl and N species as a function of time in ${\it Gloeomargarita\ lithophora\ cultures}$. Measurements were performed on triplicate cultures (3 lines per element). Concentrations are in $\mu mol/L$.

Table S3

Time (h)		0	42	114	186	282	378	623
	repl. 1	438	451	452	1	445	420	412
К	repl. 2	466	457	453	-	446	373	444
	repl. 3	449	464	441	425	424	-	421
	repl. 1	314	295	281	1	279	258	234
Mg	repl. 2	322	292	285	-	281	234	238
	repl. 3	320	290	282	281	267	-	238
	repl. 1	18675	19453	19436	-	19527	19469	19754
Na	repl. 2	18875	19683	19623	-	19762	17700	19984
	repl. 3	18833	19585	19538	19841	20076	-	19886
	repl. 1	27	10	14	-	15	12	16
N (NH ₄ + and NH ₃)	repl. 2	31	10	16	-	23	10	20
	repl. 3	24	-	21	7	15	-	24
	repl. 1	13	20	29	-	58	78	361
N (NO ₂ -)	repl. 2	16	21	36	-	65	88	354
	repl. 3	13	-	29	50	61	-	279
	repl. 1	19685	19749	19194	-	18830	17570	19032
N(NO₃⁻)	repl. 2	19800	19801	19141	-	18905	17520	19033
	repl. 3	19805	-	19128	19146	17955	-	19344
	repl. 1	512	519	527	-	535	542	527
Cl	repl. 2	524	526	533	-	541	579	535
	repl. 3	515	525	537	533	540	-	534
	repl. 1	375	369	356	-	333	290	208
S	repl. 2	382	368	355	-	331	307	197
	repl. 3	375	371	358	337	310	-	190

Table S3: Chemical analyses of K, Mg, Na, S, Cl and N species as a function of time in *Cyanothece* sp. cultures. Measurements were performed on triplicate cultures. Concentrations are in µmol/L.

Table S4

Time (h)		0	162	234	330	525
	repl. 1	454	463	-	436	424
К	repl. 2	458	474	369	432	427
	repl. 3	464	455	430	426	428
	repl. 1	297	269	-	164	109
Mg	repl. 2	298	265	225	232	167
	repl. 3	305	281	266	250	195
	repl. 1	19625	20495	-	20553	19934
Na	repl. 2	19961	20527	16338	20226	19864
	repl. 3	19777	19673	18712	19946	19028
	repl. 1	50	35	-	33	45
N (NH₄⁺ and NH₃)	repl. 2	48	33	30	34	33
	repl. 3	49	33	35	38	35
	repl. 1	3	31	-	62	105
N (NO ₂ -)	repl. 2	3	32	47	69	143
	repl. 3	3	20	37	59	114
	repl. 1	20052	19794	-	21996	20699
N(NO ₃ -)	repl. 2	19590	19460	18872	21706	20906
	repl. 3	20466	19423	18814	21683	20156
	repl. 1	523	542	560	562	541
CI	repl. 2	520	542	564	550	527
	repl. 3	522	529	535	550	515
	repl. 1	434	416	399	346	246
S	repl. 2	432	414	402	348	255
	repl. 3	439	418	397	364	258

Table S4: Chemical analyses of K, Mg, Na, S, Cl and N species as a function of time in *Thermosynechococcus elongatus* cultures. Measurements were performed on triplicate cultures. Concentrations are in μ mol/L.

Table S5

ACC	325 3292 342 342 309 302 302 368
-2.95 -2.444 -1.99 -1.291 -2.185 -2.4 -2.223 -1.262 -1.783 -0.704 -1.411 -1.6 -2.223 -1.262 -1.783 -0.704 -1.411 -1.6 -2.266 -1.76 -1.306 -0.608 -1.501 -1.8 -2.082 -1.122 -1.642 -0.564 -1.271 -1.5 -2.082 -1.122 -1.642 -0.564 -1.271 -1.5 -2.126 -1.62 -1.166 -0.468 -1.361 -1.6 -2.126 -1.62 -1.166 -0.468 -1.361 -1.6 -2.636 -1.675 -2.196 -1.117 -1.825 -2.6 -2.636 -1.675 -2.196 -1.117 -1.825 -2.6 -2.679 -2.174 -1.719 -1.021 -1.914 -2.2 -4.341 -2.417 -3.431 -0.959 -1.036 -14.44 -3.415 -2.468 -0.847 -1.059 -24.901 6.835 5.631 6.304 -2.02 -6.3 -4.901 6.835 5.631 6.304 -2.02 -6.3 -4.901 6.835 5.631 6.304 -2.02 -6.3 -4.927 5.86 6.571 6.885 -6.836 -7.3 -4.173 -3.203 -3.833 -3.744 -9.057 -124.173 -3.203 -3.833 -3.744 -9.057 -124.141 -3.687 -3.364 -3.388 -12.238 -121.443 -0.473 -1.103 -1.014 -6.328 -9.4	92 642 642 609 602 668
Aragonite	642 642 609 602 602 668
Aragonite	642 609 602 602 668
-2.266 -1.76 -1.306 -0.608 -1.501 -1.8 -2.082 -1.122 -1.642 -0.564 -1.271 -1.9 -2.082 -1.122 -1.642 -0.564 -1.271 -1.9 -2.126 -1.62 -1.166 -0.468 -1.361 -1.6 -2.636 -1.675 -2.196 -1.117 -1.825 -2.0 -2.636 -1.675 -2.196 -1.117 -1.825 -2.0 -2.679 -2.174 -1.719 -1.021 -1.914 -2.2 -4.341 -2.417 -3.431 -0.959 -1.036 -14.341 -2.417 -3.431 -0.959 -1.036 -14.44 -3.415 -2.468 -0.847 -1.059 -24.901 6.835 5.631 6.304 -2.02 -6.3 -4.901 6.835 5.631 6.304 -2.02 -6.3 -4.927 5.86 6.571 6.885 -6.836 -7.3 -4.173 -3.203 -3.833 -3.744 -9.057 -124.173 -3.203 -3.833 -3.744 -9.057 -124.141 -3.687 -3.364 -3.388 -12.238 -121.443 -0.473 -1.103 -1.014 -6.328 -9.4	309 302 302 368
Calcite	502 502 568
Calcite	602 668
-2.126 -1.62 -1.166 -0.468 -1.361 -1.60 -2.636 -1.675 -2.196 -1.117 -1.825 -2.00 -2.679 -2.174 -1.719 -1.021 -1.914 -2.20 -2.679 -2.174 -1.719 -1.021 -1.914 -2.20 -4.341 -2.417 -3.431 -0.959 -1.036	68
Vaterite -2.636 -1.675 -2.196 -1.117 -1.825 -2.0 -2.636 -1.675 -2.196 -1.117 -1.825 -2.0 -2.679 -2.174 -1.719 -1.021 -1.914 -2.2 -4.341 -2.417 -3.431 -0.959 -1.036 -14.341 -2.417 -3.431 -0.959 -1.036 -14.44 -3.415 -2.468 -0.847 -1.059 -2. 4.901 6.835 5.631 6.304 -2.02 -6.7 4.901 6.835 5.631 6.304 -2.02 -6.7 4.927 5.86 6.571 6.885 -6.836 -7.3 -4.173 -3.203 -3.833 -3.744 -9.057 -124.173 -3.203 -3.833 -3.744 -9.057 -124.141 -3.687 -3.364 -3.388 -12.238 -124.141 -3.687 -3.364 -3.388 -12.238 -12.	
Vaterite	55
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	
Dolomite	55
Dolomite -4.341 -2.417 -3.431 -0.959 -1.036 -14.44 -3.415 -2.468 -0.847 -1.059 -2. 4.901 6.835 5.631 6.304 -2.02 -6.7 Hydroxyapatite 4.901 6.835 5.631 6.304 -2.02 -6.7 4.927 5.86 6.571 6.885 -6.836 -7.3 -4.173 -3.203 -3.833 -3.744 -9.057 -12. Ca ₃ (PO ₄) ₂ (am1) -4.173 -3.203 -3.833 -3.744 -9.057 -124.141 -3.687 -3.364 -3.388 -12.238 -121.443 -0.473 -1.103 -1.014 -6.328 -9.4	22
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	74
Hydroxyapatite $egin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	74
Hydroxyapatite 4.901 6.835 5.631 6.304 -2.02 -6.7 4.927 5.86 6.571 6.885 -6.836 -7.3 -4.173 -3.203 -3.833 -3.744 -9.057 -12.	02
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	93
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	
$\text{Ca}_3(\text{PO}_4)_2 \text{ (am1)} \qquad -4.173 \qquad -3.203 \qquad -3.833 \qquad -3.744 \qquad -9.057 \qquad -12.033 \qquad -3.364 \qquad -3.388 \qquad -12.238 \qquad $	
$\text{Ca}_3(\text{PO}_4)_2 \text{ (am1)} \qquad -4.173 \qquad -3.203 \qquad -3.833 \qquad -3.744 \qquad -9.057 \qquad -12.033 \qquad -3.364 \qquad -3.388 \qquad -12.238 \qquad $	162
-4.141 -3.687 -3.364 -3.388 -12.238 -12. -1.443 -0.473 -1.103 -1.014 -6.328 -9.4	
	446
$Ca_3(PO_4)_2$ (am2) -1.443 -0.473 -1.103 -1.014 -6.328 -9.4	32
	32
-1.411 -0.957 -0.635 -0.658 -9.508 -9.7	16
-1.18 -0.211 -0.84 -0.751 -6.065 -9.	17
Ca ₃ (PO ₄) ₂ (beta) -1.18 -0.211 -0.84 -0.751 -6.065 -9.	17
-1.149 -0.695 -0.372 -0.396 -9.245 -9.4	54
-2.148 -1.174 -1.857 -2.263 -9.88 -14.	422
$Ca_4H(PO_4)_3:3H_2O(s)$ -2.148 -1.174 -1.857 -2.263 -9.88 -14.	422
-2.078 -1.65 -1.393 -1.778 -14.606 -14.	765
-3.405 -2.445 -2.965 -1.887 -2.594 -2.8	25
CaCO ₃ xH ₂ O(s) -3.405 -2.445 -2.965 -1.887 -2.594 -2.8	25
-3.449 -2.943 -2.489 -1.791 -2.684 -2.9	91
-1.271 -1.267 -1.321 -1.816 -4.119 -5.5	
CaHPO ₄ (s) -1.271 -1.267 -1.321 -1.816 -4.119 -5.5	56
-1.234 -1.259 -1.325 -1.686 -5.664 -5.6	
-1.528 -1.524 -1.578 -2.073 -4.376 -5.8	56
CaHPO ₄ :2H ₂ O(s) -1.528 -1.524 -1.578 -2.073 -4.376 -5.8	556 515
-1.49 -1.516 -1.582 -1.943 -5.921 -5.8	556 515 513

Table S5: Saturation indices as a function of time of the extracellular solution of *Gloeomargarita lithophora* cultures with diverse carbonate and Ca-phosphate phases. Calculations were performed for triplicate cultures (3 lines per mineral phase).

Table S6

Time (h)	0	42	114	186	282	378	623
	-2.698	-1.483	-0.279		-0.627	-0.936	-1.31
ACC	-2.604	-1.303	0.027		-0.61	-1.218	-1.122
	-2.43		0.202	-1.336	-1.49		-1.133
	-2.015	-0.799	0.404		0.057	-0.252	-0.627
Aragonite	-1.92	-0.62	0.711		0.074	-0.534	-0.439
	-1.746		0.885	-0.653	-0.806		-0.449
	-1.874	-0.659	0.545		0.197	-0.112	-0.487
Calcite	-1.78	-0.48	0.851	0 = 40	0.214	-0.394	-0.298
	-1.606		1.026	-0.512	-0.666		-0.309
	-2.428	-1.212	-0.009		-0.356	-0.665	-1.04
Vaterite	-2.333	-1.033	0.297		-0.339	-0.947	-0.852
	-2.159		0.472	-1.066	-1.219		-0.862
	-3.913	-1.437	1.269		0.459	1.255	0.527
Dolomite	-3.728	-1.066	2.042	0.70	0.551	0.834	0.737
	-3.378		2.487	-0.79	0.079		0.699
	5.429	7.739	8.852		8.595	1.916	1.374
Hydroxyapatite	5.68	8.042	8.397	0.744	8.411	1.242	2.105
	6.049		7.218	6.711	2.455		2.401
0 (70) (4)	-3.89	-2.755	-2.414		-2.47	-6.819	-7.056
$Ca_3(PO_4)_2$ (am1)	-3.754	-2.613	-2.82	0.40	-2.598	-7.175	-6.631
	-3.566		-3.664	-3.49	-6.275		-6.431
0 (50) (0)	-1.16	-0.025	0.316		0.26	-4.09	-4.326
$Ca_3(PO_4)_2$ (am2)	-1.024	0.117	-0.09	0.76	0.132	-4.445	-3.901
	-0.837		-0.934	-0.76	-3.545		-3.701
Co (DO) (boto)	-0.897	0.237	0.578		0.523	-3.827	-4.064
$Ca_3(PO_4)_2$ (beta)	-0.762 -0.574	0.379	0.173 -0.671	-0.497	0.394 -3.283	-4.182	-3.639 -3.438
		0.700		-0.431		7.400	
Ca ₄ H(PO ₄) ₃ :3H ₂ O(s)	-1.827 -1.671	-0.733 -0.609	-0.823 -1.584		-0.733 -0.933	-7.103	-7.27 -6.727
Ca41 I(1 O 4/3.51 12O (5)	-1.476	-0.009	-2.938	-1.908	-0.933 -6.01	-7.495	-6.421
		-1.982		1.500		1 125	
CaCO ₃ xH ₂ O(s)	-3.197 -3.103	-1.962 -1.802	-0.778 -0.472		-1.126 -1.109	-1.435 -1.717	-1.81 -1.621
0000 3×1 120 (3)	-2.929	-1.002	-0.472	-1.835	-1.109	-1.7 17	-1.632
	-1.234	-1.274	-1.705		-1.559	-3.58	-3.511
CaHPO ₄ (s)	-1.23 4 -1.213	-1.274 -1.293	-1.705 -2.061		-1.632	-3.616	-3.392
Sa. 11 S 4(0)	-1.216	1.200	-2.571	-1.715	-3.031	0.010	-3.287
	-1.491	-1.531	-1.962		-1.816	-3.837	-3.767
CaHPO ₄ :2H ₂ O(s)	-1.491 -1.47	-1.55 -1.55	-2.318		-1.889	-3.873	-3.649
·· - 4· - · · <u>2</u> • (3)	-1.463		-2.828	-1.971	-3.288	0.070	-3.544

Table S6: Saturation indices as a function of time of the extracellular solution of *Cyanothece* sp. cultures with diverse carbonate and Ca-phosphate phases. Calculations were performed for triplicate cultures.

Table S7

Time (h)	0	162	234	330	525
	-2.663	0.393		-0.819	-0.722
ACC	-2.624	0.406	0.126	-0.562	-0.617
	-2.73	0.34	0.268	-0.375	-0.577
	-2.006	1.05		-0.162	-0.065
Aragonite	-1.967	1.063	0.783	0.096	0.04
	-2.073	0.997	0.925	0.282	0.08
	-1.876	1.18		-0.031	0.065
Calcite	-1.837	1.193	0.913	0.226	0.171
	-1.942	1.128	1.055	0.412	0.21
	-2.392	0.663		-0.548	-0.452
Vaterite	-2.354	0.676	0.396	-0.291	-0.346
	-2.459	0.611	0.539	-0.105	-0.306
	-3.806	2.823		1.539	1.224
Dolomite	-3.745	2.905	2.659	1.914	1.549
20.00	-3.941	2.409	2.736	2.132	1.581
	5.549	7.261		-1.103	2.721
Hydroxyapatite	5.675	6.02	2.491	0.884	3.049
Пустолуараше	5.423	10.149	5.989	1.742	3.049
			5.909		
Co (DO) (ama1)	-3.014	-2.891	5.000	-8.064	-5.546
$Ca_3(PO_4)_2$ (am1)	-2.943	-3.723	-5.983	-6.825	-5.363
	-3.076	-0.949	-3.698	-6.314	-4.799
	-0.341	-0.219		-5.391	-2.873
$Ca_3(PO_4)_2$ (am2)	-0.27	-1.05	-3.31	-4.152	-2.69
	-0.403	1.724	-1.025	-3.642	-2.126
	-1.224	-1.101		-6.274	-3.756
$Ca_3(PO_4)_2$ (beta)	-1.153	-1.933	-4.193	-5.035	-3.573
	-1.286	0.841	-1.908	-4.524	-3.009
	-0.757	-2.102		-9.254	-5.526
$Ca_4H(PO_4)_3:3H_2O(s)$	-0.671	-3.355	-6.605	-7.524	-5.304
	-0.817	0.839	-3.249	-6.852	-4.479
	-3.126	-0.07		-1.282	-1.185
CaCO ₃ xH ₂ O(s)	-3.087	-0.057	-0.337	-1.024	-1.08
. , ,	-3.193	-0.123	-0.195	-0.838	-1.04
	-1.381	-2.848		-4.828	-3.618
CaHPO ₄ (s)	-1.365	-3.27	-4.26	-4.337	-3.579
7(/	-1.379	-1.85	-3.188	-4.175	-3.317
	-1.573	-3.04		-5.02	-3.809
CaHPO ₄ :2H ₂ O(s)	-1.573 -1.557	-3.462	-4.452	-5.02 -4.529	-3.771
CaHPO ₄ :2H ₂ O(s)					
	-1.571	-2.042	-3.38	-4.367	-3.509

Table S7: Saturation indices as a function of time of the extracellular solution of *Thermosynechococcus elongatus* cultures with respect to diverse carbonate and Ca-phosphate phases. Calculations were performed for triplicate cultures.

Gloeomargarita lithophora

					S	TEM (HAADF)				
	Number cells	of an	alyzed		aCO nules cell		CaCO dia	3 grai imete			e of (er ce	CaCO3 ll
Time (h)	(empty cells)		onates anules				((nm)			(µm³))
0	31 (2)		219	7.6	\pm	3.0	218	\pm	82	0.059	土	0.033
186	54 (12)		369	8.8	\pm	5.9	221	\pm	89	0.076	\pm	0.071
282	116 (23)	,	765	8.2	\pm	4.3	201	\pm	86	0.055	\pm	0.046
450	83 (16)	:	520	7.8	\pm	4.7	211	\pm	80	0.056	\pm	0.040
645	86 (8)	:	508	6.5	\pm	2.8	204	\pm	82	0.045	\pm	0.037
954	-	4	411		-		197	\pm	68		-	
	EDXS			STE	M-EI	OXS	IC	P-AE	S			
	Ma	N /I 4*			Mass of Ca in					Part of cellular Ca		
	_	g ratio		C	CaCO ₃			Ca in	cells	in CaC	O_3 g	ranules
	(Mg/I	vigt	$\cup a_j$	gr	anul	es						
Time (b)				(mg	/g of	dry	(mg/g of dry				(%)	
Time (h)				m	natter	.)	m	atter)			(70)	
0	10.4	土	1.9	9.6	\pm	5.6	31			31	\pm	18
186	9.8	\pm	2.0	12	\pm	12	45	\pm	29	27	\pm	32
282	10.1	\pm	2.1	9.0	\pm	7.7	45	\pm	16	20	\pm	19
450	11.6	\pm	2.6	9.0	\pm	6.7	46.7	\pm	2.5	19	\pm	14
645	14.8	\pm	5.1	7.0	\pm	6.2	33.3	\pm	0.7	21	\pm	19
954	39	±	18		-		17.3	±	2.1		-	

Table S8. Time evolution of intracellular carbonates in *Gloeomargarita lithophora*. The total number of analyzed cells (with and without granules) The number of cells containing carbonate granules is indicated. Empty cells (i.e., with no detected carbonate granule) are indicated in brackets. Numbers of analyzed carbonate granules, number of carbonate granule per cell, their diameters and their volume were estimated from on STEM-HAADF measurements. The Mg/(Mg+Ca) ratios in CaCO3 granules were determined by EDXS analyses. The mass of Ca in CaCO3 granules was determined by multiplying the volume of CaCO3 per cell by the density of ACC (2.18 from Fernandez-Martinez *et al.*, 2013) taking into account the mass proportion of Ca per CaCO3 granule. The mass of total Ca in cells was the difference between the initial concentration of Ca in BG-11 minus the concentration of dissolved Ca at a given time, divided by the number of cells at the same time. The percent of Ca in CaCO3 granules was the mass of Ca in CaCO3 granules by the total mass of Ca in cells.

Cyanothece sp.

		STEM (HAADF)												
	Number cells	cells granules per cell			CaCO ₃ granules diameter			Volume of CaCO ₃ per cell						
Time (h)	(empty cells) carbonates granules						(nm)		((μm ³))		
0	16 (4)		82	6.8	\pm	3.4	277	\pm	126	0.128	\pm	0.092		
42	47 (7)		145	3.6	\pm	2.1	279	\pm	139	0.075	\pm	0.055		
114	132 (10)	:	555	4.5	\pm	2.0	317	\pm	122	0.113	\pm	0.070		
282	85 (18)		316	4.7	\pm	3.6	282	\pm	109	0.083	\pm	0.074		
623	97 (35)	,	280	4.5	\pm	2.9	300	\pm	151	0.117	\pm	0.125		
	EDXS			STE	M-EI	OXS	ICI	P-AE	S					
	N/I-	4.	_	Mass of Ca in						Part of cellular Ca				
	_	g ratio		C	CaCO ₃			Ca in	cells	in CaC	O_3 g	ranules		
	(Mg/I	vig+	∠a)	gr	anul	es								
Time (b)				(mg	g of	dry	(mg/	dry		(0/)				
Time (h)				m	atter)	m	atter)			(%)			
0	4.0	\pm	2.2	11	\pm	11	15			76	\pm	70		
42	4.4	\pm	2.2	6.7	\pm	5.9	42.3	\pm	4.9	16	\pm	14		
114	3.0	\pm	1.7	10.2	\pm	8.5	42.9	\pm	1.5	24	土	20		
282	4.8	\pm	2.2	7.4	\pm	7.4	30.1*	\pm	1.2*	25*	\pm	25*		
623	3.2	±	0.9	11	土	12	17.9*	±	0.1*	60*	土	66*		

Table S9. Time evolution of intracellular carbonates in *Cyanothece* sp. * indicates that measurements were performed on two replicates only, while all other measurements were obtained from three replicates.

Thermosynechococcus elongatus

				S	TEM (HAADF)				
	Number (Number of analyzed CaCO ₃ granules per cell			CaCO ₃ granules diameter			Volume of CaCO ₃ per cell			
Time (h)	cells (empty cells)				(nm)			(μm^3)			
0	44 (6)	152	4.0	\pm	2.6	111	\pm	66	0.006	\pm	0.006
234	85 (3)	596	7.3	\pm	4.7	129	\pm	62	0.015	\pm	0.020
330	103 (2)	565	5.6	\pm	2.6	131	\pm	72	0.014	\pm	0.017
525	92 (19)	1656	22.7	土	9.6	172	±	64	0.087	±	0.045
	EI	STEM-EDXS			ICP-AES						
	Mg (Mg/N	Mass of Ca in CaCO ₃ granules			Total Ca in cells					ılar Ca ranules	
Time (h)			` _	g of natter	•	(mg/g of dry matter)		•	(%)		
0	4.1	\pm 1.5	0.4	\pm	0.4	24	Í		1.5	\pm	1.5
234	3.7	± 1.2	0.8	\pm	1.1	35.6*	\pm	0.9*	2.3*	\pm	3.2*
330	3.7	± 1.8	0.8	\pm	1.0	25.6	\pm	2.6	3.1	\pm	4.1
525	7.6	± 2.4	4.7	\pm	2.8	16.4	\pm	0.6	29	\pm	17

Table S10. Time evolution of intracellular carbonates in *Thermosynechococcus elongatus*.

* indicates that measurements were performed on two replicates only while all other performed on two replicates only the performance of the perform

^{*} indicates that measurements were performed on two replicates only, while all other measurements were obtained from three replicates.