

Cyanobacterial formation of intracellular Ca-carbonates in undersaturated solutions

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¹ Cyanobacterial formation of intracellular Ca-carbonates

² in undersaturated solutions

3 Running title: Cyanobacterial carbonatogenesis in undersaturated solutions

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25 Abstract

Cyanobacteria have long been thought to induce the formation of Ca-carbonates as secondary 26 byproducts of their metabolic activity, by shifting the chemical composition of their 27 extracellular environment to conditions favoring mineral precipitation. Some cyanobacterial 28 species forming Ca-carbonates intracellularly were recently discovered. However, the 29 environmental conditions under which this intracellular biomineralization process can occur 30 and the impact of cyanobacterial species forming Ca-carbonates intracellularly on extracellular 31 carbonatogenesis are not known. Here, we show that these cyanobacteria can form Ca-32 carbonates intracellularly while growing in extracellular solutions undersaturated with respect 33 to all Ca-carbonate phases, i.e., conditions thermodynamically unfavorable to mineral 34 precipitation. This shows that intracellular Ca-carbonate biomineralization is an active process, 35 i.e., it costs energy provided by the cells. The cost of energy may be due to the active 36 accumulation of Ca intracellularly. Moreover, unlike cyanobacterial strains that have been 37 usually considered before by studies on Ca-carbonate biomineralization, cyanobacteria forming 38 intracellular carbonates may slow down or hamper extracellular carbonatogenesis, by 39 decreasing the saturation index of their extracellular solution following the buffering of the 40 concentration of extracellular calcium to low levels. 41

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44 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, Ca^{2+}/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, cyanobacteria favoring extracellular carbonatogenesis can get encrusted by the resulting minerals under some conditions, forming calcimicrobes (e.g., Arp et al., 2001; Couradeau *et al.*, 2013). In contrast, this may not be the case for cyanobacteria forming carbonates intracellularly (Riding, 2012).

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
three strains of cyanobacteria forming intracellular carbonates: *Gloeomargarita lithophora*strain C7, *Thermosynechococcus elongatus* strain BP-1 and *Cyanothece sp.* strain PCC 7425
and one strain not forming intracellular carbonates: *Gloeocapsa* sp. strain PCC 73106. CaCO₃

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 Ca^{2+} and HCO_3^- and pH to assess the saturation of the extracellular solution with various $CaCO_3$ 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.

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108 MATERIALS AND METHODS

109 Cyanobacterial strains and culture conditions

Four cyanobacterial strains were cultured. Three strains encompassing most of the phylogenetic 110 diversity of cyanobacteria that have been shown to form intracellular Ca-carbonates (Benzerara 111 et al., 2014) were studied: Gloeomargarita lithophora strain C7 enriched from an alkaline crater 112 lake in Mexico as described by Moreira et al. (2017) and showing CaCO₃ granules scattered in 113 the cytoplasm; the axenic strains Cyanothece sp. strain PCC 7425 isolated from a rice field in 114 Senegal, described by (Rippka et al., 1979) and (Porta et al., 1999) and showing CaCO₃ 115 granules scattered in the cytoplasm; the axenic strain Thermosynechococcus elongatus strain 116 BP-1 isolated from a hot spring in Japan, described by Yamaoka et al. (1978) and Nakamura et 117 al. (2002) and showing CaCO₃ granules at the poles. One strain not forming intracellular 118 carbonates (Benzerara et al., 2014) was used as a comparison for Ca uptake: the axenic strain 119 Gloeocapsa sp. strain PCC 73106 isolated from a Sphagnum bog in Switzerland and described 120 by (Rippka et al., 1979). The choice of this strain as a control was motivated by the fact that 121 Gloeocapsa was previously studied for its capabilities to induce extracellular carbonatogenesis 122 (Bundeleva et al., 2014) and Gloeocapsa sp. strain PCC 73106 can be cultured in the same 123 medium as the three strains forming intracellular carbonates. It should be noted that 124

extracellular CaCO₃ precipitation by *Gloeocapsa sp.* was observed in solutions different from 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 μ M, here.

Strains were cultured in triplicates in medium BG-11 (Rippka et al., 1979), under continuous 128 light (5-10 µmol.m².s⁻¹) at 45 °C for *T. elongatus* and 30 °C for *G. lithophora, Cyanothece sp.* 129 and Gloeocapsa sp. BG-11 is classically used to culture freshwater cyanobacterial strains. Its 130 composition is available on http://cyanobacteria.web.pasteur.fr/. It mostly contains Na⁺ and 131 NO_3^- with ~180 µM of orthophosphates and ~250 µM of calcium. Evaporation was 132 compensated by daily addition of sterile milli-Q water. The optical density (OD) of the cultures 133 was measured at 730 nm to assess cell growth. The combined measurement of OD and cell 134 counting on one sample allowed to derive the relationships between OD and cell density as 135 9×10^7 , 3×10^7 , 2.5×10^7 and 6.4×10^7 cells.mL⁻¹.OD unit⁻¹ for *G. lithophora*, *Cyanothece* sp., 136 T. elongatus and Gloeocapsa sp., respectively. Similarly, the relationships between OD and cell 137 dry mass were 3.6×10^{-4} , 2.4×10^{-4} and 3.2×10^{-4} g.mL⁻¹.OD unit⁻¹ for *G. lithophora*, 138 Cyanothece sp. and T. elongatus, respectively. 139

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141 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:

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

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 \leq 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 μ L 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 (Σ NH₃) 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.

177 Concentrations of major dissolved cations, including Ca were measured using a Thermo 178 ScientificTM iCAPTM 6200 inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectrometer (ICP-179 AES) equipped with a Cetac ASX-520 autosampler. For ICP-AES analyzes, 300 μ L of filtered 180 supernatants were acidified with 10 mL of 2 % HNO₃. Measurements of Ca concentrations by 181 ICP-AES and colorimetry were correlated along a 1:1 line with consistency better than 85 % 182 (r² for the regression) above 50 μ M.

183 Speciation and saturation indices calculations

The Visual MINTEQ (3.0) software (Gustafsson, 2013) with the Davies method (Davies *et al.*, 185 1962) was used to calculate the concentrations of species in the culture medium based on bulk 186 chemical analyses. The cultures were supposed to be in free exchange with the atmosphere with 187 a partial CO₂ pressure of 380 ppm following the procedure by (Siong and Asaeda, 2009). The 188 saturation index was defined as:

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

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 2.32×10^{-8} (Kellermeier *et al.*, 2014).

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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 carboncoated 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). 200 Although it may induce some alterations of the morphology of the cells (e.g., collapse), it allows 201 the preservation of intracellular CaCO₃ inclusions on the contrary to procedures using chemical 202 fixatives (Li et al., 2016). The same procedure was also successfully used to study extracellular 203 Ca-phosphate precipitates formed by bacterial cells (e.g., Cosmidis et al., 2015). In the present 204 study, only STEM analyses of CaCO₃ inclusions are discussed, not cell morphological features. 205 STEM analyses were performed in the High Angle Annular Dark Field (HAADF) mode using 206 a JEOL 2100F operating at 200 kV and equipped with a field emission gun, a high-resolution 207 UHR pole piece, and a JEOL EDXS detector with an ultrathin window allowing detection of 208 light elements. Semi-quantitative analyses of EDXS spectra was done using the JEOL Analysis 209 Station software following the procedure by (Li et al., 2016). This was based on the use of K-210 factors. After subtracting out the background noise in the EDXS spectrum, the software 211 performed a Gaussian fit of selected elemental peaks and calculated the area under the peaks. 212 From this, the atomic percentage of selected element was assessed: Ca, Mg in the carbonates; 213 Ca, Mg, K and P in polyphosphates. 214

215

216 **RESULTS**

217 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 control BG-11 medium (Fig. S2).

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 $0.79 \pm 0.07 \mu$ M 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 183μ M. 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 249 concentration of dissolved orthophosphates decreased with time but not in a constant ratio with 250 Ca (Fig. 2). Indeed, the Ca/P ratio of the fraction removed from the solution decreased 251 continuously from more than 2 down to around 0 when the concentration of dissolved Ca 252 leveled down at 2.75 µM. For Cyanothece sp., there was only a slight decrease of dissolved 253 orthophosphates from 170 down to 100 µM with a Ca/P of the fraction removed from the 254 solution varying between 4 and 8 (Fig. 2). Finally, there was almost no variation of dissolved 255 orthophosphates in T. elongatus cultures. Therefore, no correlation was observed overall 256 between the temporal evolutions of dissolved Ca²⁺ and HPO₄²⁻ concentrations. 257

In all cultures, alkalinity (mostly [HCO₃⁻]) increased continuously up to 3204, 4093 and 3591 μ M 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 265 observed (Table S2-4). The measurement of all these concentrations allowed to calculate the 266 speciation of elements in the extracellular solutions and their saturation indices (SI) with respect 267 to different mineral phases, including Ca-carbonate and Ca-phosphate phases (Fig. 3; 268 Table S5-7). For G. lithophora, the culture medium was constantly undersaturated with all 269 Ca-carbonate phases, including ACC (Fig. 3). In contrast, the solution was supersaturated with 270 hydroxyapatite at least until 650 h with SI values varying between 4.9 and 6.9 (Table S5). It 271 became undersaturated with this phase after 650 h. For Cyanothece sp., solutions were always 272 undersaturated with ACC and slightly supersaturated with calcite at two time points only (114 273

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).

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278 Intracellular distribution of Ca

The mass of incorporated Ca normalized to the total cell dry mass was estimated from bulk 279 measurements for G. lithophora, Cyanothece sp. and T. elongatus cells (Fig. S5). Two 280 processes impacted oppositely the time variation of this parameter: on the one hand, Ca uptake 281 increased the normalized Ca mass content; on the other hand, cell division decreased it. The 282 normalized mass of Ca at ~700 h amounted to 26 ± 3 , 13 ± 2 and 15 ± 3 mg/g for G. lithophora, 283 Cvanothece sp. and T. elongatus, respectively (Fig. S5). A slight decrease of the cellular mass 284 proportion of Ca was observed for each strain after the time when extracellular dissolved Ca 285 reached its minimum. This can be explained by the fact that cellular division was still 286 continuing, while there was only little Ca left in the solutions. Standard deviations were too 287 high to infer precisely the evolution of the cellular mass proportion of Ca in the first stages of 288 growth. 289

In parallel, STEM observations were performed on cells pelleted at different stages of the 290 culture (Fig. 4-6; Table S8-10). No extracellular Ca-containing precipitate was observed in the 291 pellets. In contrast, most of G. lithophora (Fig. 4), Cyanothece sp. (Fig. 5) and T. elongatus 292 cells (Fig. 6) contained intracellular granules with Ca. EDXS maps showed the presence of two 293 different types of Ca-containing granules: 1) Ca-carbonates and 2) polyphosphates containing 294 Mg and K and some Ca. Cells of the inoculum (t=0 h) appeared similar to cells observed by 295 TEM at other stages and contained Ca-carbonates and polyphosphates as well (Table S8-10). 296 Gloeocapsa sp. cells only contained polyphosphate granules with a little amount of Ca (Fig. 297 S6). 298

Gloeomargarita lithophora cells contained a relatively constant number and volume of Ca-299 carbonates upon time, i.e., 7.8 ± 4.1 inclusions/cell and $0.058 \pm 0.045 \ \mu m^3$ /cell, respectively 300 (Table S8). Averages were calculated based on the number of observed cells, excluding cells 301 which did not contain any intracellular granule. These cells with no intracellular granule 302 represented 6 to 22 % of the total number of cells. The Mg/(Ca+Mg) ratio in the intracellular 303 carbonates formed by G. lithophora was relatively constant between 9.8 and 14.8 % during 304 most of the culture with one exception at 954 h when Mg/(Ca+Mg) ratios of 39 ± 18 % were 305 measured. Considering the cellular mass proportion of Ca and a density of 2.18 g.cm⁻³ for ACC 306 (Fernandez-Martinez et al., 2013), Ca contained in carbonate granules as observed by STEM 307 represented between few percents and up to half of the total Ca bioaccumulated by 308 G. lithophora cells. Since the measurements of cellular mass proportion of Ca by bulk analyses 309 (ICP-AES) and STEM were independent and each was affected by relatively high uncertainties, 310 the proportion of Ca contained by carbonates has to be considered as a very rough first order 311 estimate. 312

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.*

Overall, the different strains forming intracellular carbonates accumulated Ca with high affinity 323 down to concentrations of few µM in the solutions, whatever their growth temperature and 324 growth rate (Table S1). Moreover, it appears that the average number of CaCO₃ inclusions per 325 cell and their diameter did not vary much with incubation time in a given strain. Therefore, it 326 was not possible to infer the formation of CaCO₃ inclusions by observing single cells by TEM 327 only (Table S8-10). However, with incubation time, there was an increasing number of cells 328 with a constant number of inclusions per cell, i.e., an increasing total number of CaCO₃ 329 inclusions in the cultures, attesting intracellular precipitation of ACC in cultures. 330

331

332 **DISCUSSION**

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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 336 calcifying cyanobacteria down to a few micromoles per liter. Several previous studies 337 interpreted a similar decrease as the result of cellular uptake, although they sometimes used Ca 338 concentrations of several millimolar, i.e., higher than in our study and therefore corresponding 339 to a high supersaturation with respect to Ca-containing phases (Singh & Mishra, 2014). 340 However, it has to be noticed that such a decrease of dissolved Ca concentrations may have two 341 different origins: 1) extracellular precipitation of a Ca-rich phase and/or 2) uptake by the cells 342 which includes sorption at their surface and accumulation within the cells. Here, culture media 343 were supersaturated only with hydroxyapatite (SI= 0.9 to 10.1) at several time points for 344 different strains. Therefore, Ca-phosphate precipitation may theoretically have occurred. 345 However, several observations, when considered altogether, suggest that if Ca-phosphate 346

precipitation occurred, the decrease of dissolved Ca^{2+} was clearly not due to this process only and cellular uptake and intracellular CaCO₃ precipitation were significant in all cases:

- 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 Caphosphates 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

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turn precipitated within cells similarly to what was observed for amorphous CaCO₃ but such precipitates were not observed by TEM.

In contrast, the formation of polyphosphates, which were observed by STEM within cells of *Cyanothece sp.* and *G. lithophora* but very rarely in *T. elongatus* cells may better explain the observed decrease of dissolved P concentration in the cultures of *G. lithophora* and *Cyanothece sp.*

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 reservoirsin these cells.

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 μ M 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 421 microorganisms, all allowing to avoid cell encrustation. This is the case for 1) some iron-422 oxidizing bacteria, which induce a local decrease of pH (Hegler et al., 2010) and/or produce 423 templating extracellular polymers (Chan et al., 2011) and 2) some cyanobacteria forming 424 extracellular carbonates on a proteinaceous template (S layers) which can be shed from time to 425 time (Schultze-Lam et al., 1992). It is also interesting to note that such a lowering of solution 426 saturation by active uptake of Ca inducing Ca-carbonate dissolution has been shown for some 427 cyanobacterial euendoliths (Ramirez-Reinat and Garcia-Pichel, 2012). 428

429

Intracellular biomineralization is an active process: evidence and origin of the energy cost 430 Formation of intracellular ACC granules in the extracellular solutions undersaturated with Ca-431 carbonate suggests that at least locally around the granules, the intracellular solution was 432 supersaturated with ACC, i.e., cellular activity maintained an intracellular chemical 433 composition allowing precipitation of ACC and therefore different from that prevailing in the 434 extracellular solution. Therefore, intracellular CaCO₃ biomineralization is an active process, 435 i.e., it involves some energy cost to maintain a supersaturated environment in a globally 436 undersaturated solution. 437

The origin of this energy cost can be discussed. Parameters controlling CaCO₃ precipitation are 438 the activities of Ca^{2+} and CO_3^{2-} . The latter depends on the activity of HCO_3^{-} and pH. Many 439 cyanobacteria actively import HCO3⁻ using CO2 concentrating mechanisms (CCM). This results 440 in high intracellular HCO₃⁻ concentrations up to 30 mM as measured in Synechococcus sp. 441 Nageli (strain RRIMP N1) and in Chlorogloeopsis sp. (strain ATCC 27193) (Badger & 442 Andrews, 1982; Skleryk et al., 1997). Active uptake of bicarbonates may therefore account, at 443 least partly, for the energy cost necessary to intracellular CaCO₃ biomineralization. It would be 444 interesting to measure the δ^{13} C composition of intracellular ACC in the future as a way to better 445

assess the potential source of C for these precipitates. However, while many cyanobacteria 446 show CCM capabilities, many do not form intracellular ACC (Benzerara et al., 2014). The 447 specificity of cyanobacteria forming intracellular CaCO₃ may therefore rely on another process. 448 The intracellular pH in cyanobacteria is regulated, between 6.8 and 7.9 based on measurements 449 performed on strains Arthrospira platensis and Synechocystis sp. PCC 6803 (Belkin & 450 Boussiba, 1991; Jiang et al., 2013). This is however less than the extracellular pH measured 451 here and therefore intracellular pH regulation does not favor intracellular CaCO3 452 biomineralization. Only regulation of pH within vesicles at a value higher than in the 453 extracellular solution may favor intracellular CaCO3 granule biomineralization with a cost of 454 energy. Finally, the intracellular concentration of free calcium has been shown to be regulated 455 within cells at very low values, around 100-200 nM with some possible increase up to 2.6 µM 456 in Anabaena sp. PCC 7120 (Torrecilla et al., 2000; Barrán-Berdón et al., 2011). This strain 457 does not form intracellular CaCO₃ granules (Benzerara et al., 2014). The maintenance of a low 458 Ca concentration also costs energy but does not favor CaCO₃ biomineralization. In contrast, in 459 cyanobacteria forming intracellular CaCO₃, it is possible that the high Ca uptake that we 460 observed accounts for some of the energy cost. The pH and/or inorganic carbon and Ca 461 concentrations required for CaCO₃ precipitation can be calculated, considering the 462 approximation that the volume in which biomineralization occurs is filled with water containing 463 Ca²⁺ and inorganic carbon only. At a Ca²⁺ concentration of 2.6 µM (i.e., maximum intracellular 464 Ca concentration reported in the literature), this solution would be undersaturated with ACC 465 even at a pH of 13 and 450 mM of inorganic carbon (SI=-1). Therefore, Ca²⁺ concentration is 466 most likely higher at least locally where CaCO₃ granules form. The pH of the solution where 467 ACC forms, possibly within submicrometer-scale compartments, might be locally high. This 468 will be important to determine whether such intracellular pH heterogeneities exist in future 469 studies despite the challenge of measuring such local variations in cells. Considering a pH of 470

7.9, and an inorganic carbon concentration of 30 mM, which are the maxima reported in the 471 literature for the cytoplasm of cyanobacteria, the solution would be saturated with ACC for a 472 Ca^{2+} concentration higher than 441 μ M, i.e., higher than the initial Ca concentration in BG-11 473 and much higher than the extracellular dissolved Ca concentrations down to which G. 474 lithophora ([Ca]_{min}=2.75 μ M ± 0.54), T. elongatus ([Ca]_{min}=12.8 μ M ± 3.6) and Cyanothece 475 sp. ([Ca]_{min}=5.9 μ M ± 1.3) accumulate Ca. Even if intracellular solutions are not pure water 476 and solubility of ACC might be modified by the presence of organics (Giuffre et al., 2013), this 477 suggests that some active concentration of Ca may operate in intracellularly calcifying 478 cyanobacteria involving some energy cost. Accordingly, cyanobacteria forming intracellular 479 carbonates seem to accumulate Ca up to high levels as discussed above. This may appear 480 surprising considering that such high cytoplasmic concentrations of Ca have been suggested to 481 be toxic (e.g., Verhratsky and Parpura, 2014). It will be useful that future studies manage to 482 measure intracellular free Ca²⁺ in cyanobacteria forming intracellular CaCO₃ and compare these 483 concentrations with those measured in cyanobacteria not forming intracellular CaCO₃. 484 However, one possibility is that intracellularly calcifying cyanobacteria regulate the 485 cytoplasmic concentration of Ca at a low value around 100-200 nM as observed in all other 486 bacteria and form intracellular compartments with a higher Ca concentration, in which Ca-487 carbonates precipitate (Fig. 7). This would require an active import of Ca from the cytosol to 488 this compartment. The measured Ca uptake rates per cell, which vary with culture age and 489 between species from 0.001 up to 0.42 fmol.h⁻¹.cell⁻¹, may depend on the physiological state of 490 the cells as well as the efficiency of the transport systems of the different species. Despite 491 relatively large error bars, uptake rates normalized by cell numbers and measured in the present 492 study under these specific conditions will be interesting to compare with rates measured under 493 varying conditions and other strains in future studies. The presence of a compartment would 494 also mean that intracellular CaCO₃ formation by cyanobacteria is a controlled biomineralization 495

process involving specific cellular structures. Recent attempts to prepare ultramicrotomy thin 496 sections for TEM investigations, preserving ACC granules have been unsuccessful (Li et al., 497 2016). Therefore, the existence of membranes delimitating potential compartments enclosing 498 ACC granules remains speculative. Future cryo-microscopy observations may help to test 499 further that hypothesis (Li et al., 2016). The selective advantage provided by such an active 500 accumulation of Ca will also need clarification in the future, whether it may serve as a Ca-501 detoxification or a storage mechanism. Based on the recognition that high Ca²⁺ concentrations 502 can be toxic (Degens and Ittekkot, 1986) and the observation of intracellular Ca-containing 503 amorphous granules in a phylogenetically broad range of animals (Simkiss, 1977), it has been 504 previously suggested that Ca-detoxification is a widespread process. Whatever the origin of the 505 energy cost for intracellular CaCO₃ biomineralization, the present observations have another 506 implication regarding the preservation of fossil traces of this biomineralization capability. Once 507 cells die, if the intracellular and extracellular solutions equilibrate and if the extracellular 508 solution is undersaturated with ACC, ACC granules may dissolve and therefore may not be 509 easily preserved as fossils. This might also explain the observation of cells with no ACC 510 granules here (up to 36 % in Cyanothece sp. cultures after 623 h), which may be dead or inactive 511 but this will require further analyses to determine the number of live/dead cells. In contrast, 512 how these ACC granules may possibly transform to crystalline granules or may remain 513 preserved in dead cells when the extracellular solution is supersaturated will be an interesting 514 issue to investigate in order to better assess the fossilization potential of these cyanobacteria in 515 the geological record. 516

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518

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677	

680 Figure legends

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 measurements.

688

Fig. 2. Time evolution of the concentration of DIP ([HPO4²⁻]) and the Ca/P ratio of the fraction 689 incorporated by the cells. A, B and C correspond to DIP in cultures of Gloeomargarita 690 lithophora (A), Cyanothece sp. (B) and Thermosynechococcus elongatus (C). For all three 691 strains, error bars were calculated based on variations in triplicate cultures. When not visible, 692 error bars are smaller than the size of the symbols. Ca/P ratios of the fraction incorporated by 693 the cells are shown separately for cultures of *Gloeomargarita lithophora* (D), *Cyanothece* sp. 694 (E) and Thermosynechococcus elongatus (F). For these graphs, the three replicates are 695 represented by the different symbols (circle for replicate 1, triangle for replicate 2 and square 696 for replicate 3). 697

698

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.

710

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.

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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.

724

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 4



T=186 h

T=645 h





1 Figure 6



Figure 7



Supplementary material includes 6 figures and 10 tables

Figure S1



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.





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.



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



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.

Features	Gloeomargarita lithophora	<i>Cyanothece</i> sp.	Thermosynechococcus elongatus	
Temperature (°C)	30	30	45	
-inal 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	

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

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 (NH₄ ⁺ and NH₃)	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 (NO ₂ -)	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 (NO₃⁻)	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 *Gloeomargarita lithophora* cultures. Measurements were performed on triplicate cultures (3 lines per element). Concentrations are in µmol/L.

Table	S3
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Time (h)		0	42	114	186	282	378	623
	repl. 1	438	451	452	-	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	-	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 (NO₂⁻)	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
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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 (NH ₄ $^+$ and NH ₃)	repl. 2	48	33	30	34	33
	repl. 3	49	33	35	38	35
	repl. 1	3	31	-	62	105
N (NO₂⁻)	repl. 2	3	32	47	69	143
	repl. 3	3	20	37	59	114
	repl. 1	20052	19794	-	21996	20699
N(NO₃⁻)	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 µmol/L.

Table S	55
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Time (h)	0	186	282	450	645	954
	-2.906	-1.946	-2.466	-1.387	-2.095	-2.325
ACC	-2.906	-1.946	-2.466	-1.387	-2.095	-2.325
	-2.95	-2.444	-1.99	-1.291	-2.185	-2.492
	-2.223	-1.262	-1.783	-0.704	-1.411	-1.642
Aragonite	-2.223	-1.262	-1.783	-0.704	-1.411	-1.642
	-2.266	-1.76	-1.306	-0.608	-1.501	-1.809
	-2.082	-1.122	-1.642	-0.564	-1.271	-1.502
Calcite	-2.082	-1.122	-1.642	-0.564	-1.271	-1.502
	-2.126	-1.62	-1.166	-0.468	-1.361	-1.668
	-2.636	-1.675	-2.196	-1.117	-1.825	-2.055
Vaterite	-2.636	-1.675	-2.196	-1.117	-1.825	-2.055
	-2.679	-2.174	-1.719	-1.021	-1.914	-2.222
	-4.341	-2.417	-3.431	-0.959	-1.036	-1.74
Dolomite	-4.341	-2.417	-3.431	-0.959	-1.036	-1.74
	-4.44	-3.415	-2.468	-0.847	-1.059	-2.02
	4.901	6.835	5.631	6.304	-2.02	-6.793
Hydroxyapatite	4.901	6.835	5.631	6.304	-2.02	-6.793
	4.927	5.86	6.571	6.885	-6.836	-7.302
	-4 173	-3 203	-3 833	-3 744	-9 057	-12 162
$Ca_3(PO_4)_2$ (am1)	-4.173	-3.203	-3.833	-3.744	-9.057	-12.162
	-4.141	-3.687	-3.364	-3.388	-12.238	-12.446
	-1.443	-0.473	-1.103	-1.014	-6.328	-9.432
$Ca_{3}(PO_{4})_{2}$ (am2)	-1.443	-0.473	-1.103	-1.014	-6.328	-9.432
	-1.411	-0.957	-0.635	-0.658	-9.508	-9.716
	-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	-9.454
	-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	-2.825
$CaCO_3xH_2O(s)$	-3.405	-2.445	-2.965	-1.887	-2.594	-2.825
	-3.449	-2.943	-2.489	-1.791	-2.684	-2.991
	-1.271	-1.267	-1.321	-1.816	-4.119	-5.556
CaHPO₄(s)	-1.271	-1.267	-1.321	-1.816	-4.119	-5.556
	-1.234	-1.259	-1.325	-1.686	-5.664	-5.615
	-1.528	-1.524	-1.578	-2.073	-4.376	-5.813
$CaHPO_4:2H_2O(s)$	-1.528	-1.524	-1.578	-2.073	-4.376	-5.813
	-1.49	-1.516	-1.582	-1.943	-5.921	-5.872

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).

	Tabl	le	S	6
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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		0.214	-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		0.551	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		8.411	1.242	2.105
5 5 1	6.049		7.218	6.711	2.455		2.401
Ca₃(PO₄)₂ (am1)	-3.89	-2.755	-2.414		-2.47	-6.819	-7.056
	-3.754	-2.613	-2.82		-2.598	-7.175	-6.631
	-3.566		-3.664	-3.49	-6.275		-6.431
	-1.16	-0.025	0.316		0.26	-4.09	-4.326
Ca ₃ (PO ₄) ₂ (am2)	-1.024	0.117	-0.09		0.132	-4.445	-3.901
	-0.837		-0.934	-0.76	-3.545		-3.701
	-0.897	0.237	0.578		0.523	-3.827	-4.064
$Ca_3(PO_4)_2$ (beta)	-0.762	0.379	0.173		0.394	-4.182	-3.639
	-0.574		-0.671	-0.497	-3.283		-3.438
	-1.827	-0.733	-0.823		-0.733	-7.103	-7.27
Ca ₄ H(PO ₄) ₃ :3H ₂ O(s)	-1.671	-0.609	-1.584		-0.933	-7.495	-6.727
	-1.476		-2.938	-1.908	-6.01		-6.421
	-3.197	-1.982	-0.778		-1.126	-1.435	-1.81
$CaCO_3xH_2O(s)$	-3.103	-1.802	-0.472		-1.109	-1.717	-1.621
	-2.929		-0.297	-1.835	-1.989		-1.632
	-1.234	-1.274	-1.705		-1.559	-3.58	-3.511
CaHPO ₄ (s)	-1.213	-1.293	-2.061		-1.632	-3.616	-3.392
	-1.206		-2.571	-1.715	-3.031		-3.287
	-1.491	-1.531	-1.962		-1.816	-3.837	-3.767
CaHPO ₄ :2H ₂ O(s)	-1.47	-1.55	-2.318		-1.889	-3.873	-3.649
	-1.463		-2.828	-1.971	-3.288		-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 S	7
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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	
Valonto	-2.004	0.611	0.539	-0.201	-0.306	
	2.900	0.011	0.000	1 520	1.004	
Dolomite	-3.000 2.715	2.023	2650	1.039	1.224	
Doionnite	-3.745	2.900	2.009	1.914	1.549	
	-3.941	2.409	2.730	2.132	1.501	
	5.549	7.261		-1.103	2.721	
Hydroxyapatite	5.675	6.02	2.491	0.884	3.049	
	5.423	10.149	5.989	1.742	3.914	
	-3.014	-2.891		-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	
$Ca_4 H(PO_4)_{\circ} \cdot 3H_{\circ}O(s)$	-0.671	-3 355	-6 605	-7 524	-5.304	
	-0.817	0.839	-3.249	-6.852	-4.479	
	2 4 9 6	0.07	0.210	1 000	1 105	
	-3.120 2.007	-0.07	0 227	-1.202	-1.100	
0a003xn20(S)	-3.U0/ 2.102	-0.00/ 0.400	-0.331	-1.UZ4	-1.00	
	-3.193	-0.123	-0.195	-0.030	-1.04	
	-1.381	-2.848		-4.828	-3.618	
CaHPO ₄ (s)	-1.365	-3.27	-4.26	-4.337	-3.579	
	-1.379	-1.85	-3.188	-4.175	-3.317	
	-1.573	-3.04		-5.02	-3.809	
$CaHPO_4:2H_2O(s)$	-1.557	-3.462	-4.452	-4.529	-3.771	
	-1.571	-2.042	-3.38	-4.367	-3.509	г

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.

					5	IEM (HAADF)					
	Number	of an	alyzed	C gran	'aCO iules cell)3 per	CaCO ₃ granules diameter			Volume of CaCO ₃ per cell			
	cells (empty	carb	onates										
Time (h)	cells)	cells) granules					((nm)			(μm^3)		
0	31 (2)		219	7.6	\pm	3.0	218	±	82	0.059	±	0.033	
186	54 (12)		369	8.8	±	5.9	221	\pm	89	0.076	\pm	0.071	
282	116 (23)		765	8.2	±	4.3	201	\pm	86	0.055	\pm	0.046	
450	83 (16)		520	7.8	±	4.7	211	\pm	80	0.056	±	0.040	
645	86 (8)		508	6.5	±	2.8	204	\pm	82	0.045	±	0.037	
954	-	4	411		-		197	\pm	68		-		
	E	EDXS			STEM-EDXS			P-AE	S				
	М		_	Mass of Ca in						Part of cellular Ca			
		g ratio) 7-)	С	CaCO ₃			Total Ca in cells			in CaCO ₃ granules		
	(Mg/)	vig+(_a)	gr	anul	es					U		
T: (b -)				(mg	/g of	dry	(mg/	/g of d	lry		(0/)		
Time (n)				n	natter	·)	matter)				(%)		
0	10.4	±	1.9	9.6	±	5.6	31	Í		31	±	18	
186	9.8	±	2.0	12	\pm	12	45	\pm	29	27	±	32	
282	10.1	±	2.1	9.0	\pm	7.7	45	\pm	16	20	±	19	
450	11.6	±	2.6	9.0	±	6.7	46.7	\pm	2.5	19	±	14	
645	14.8	±	5.1	7.0	±	6.2	33.3	±	0.7	21	±	19	
954	39	±	18		-		17.3	±	2.1		-		

Gloeomargarita lithophora

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 Ca in CaCO₃ granules was the mass of Ca in CaCO₃ granules by the total mass of Ca in cells.

	Cyanothece sp.											
					S	TEM (HAADF)				
	Number	C gran	aCO nules cell	3 per	CaCO dia	3 gra 1mete	nules er	Volum p	e of (er ce	CaCO3 II		
Time (h)	cells carbonates (empty granules)						(nm)			(µm ³)		
0	16 (4)		82	6.8	\pm	3.4	277	\pm	126	0.128	±	0.092
42	47 (7)	1	45	3.6	\pm	2.1	279	\pm	139	0.075	\pm	0.055
114	132 (10)	4	555	4.5	±	2.0	317	±	122	0.113	±	0.070
282	85 (18)		316	4.7	±	3.6	282	\pm	109	0.083	±	0.074
623	97 (35)	2	280	4.5	±	2.9	300	\pm	151	0.117	±	0.125
	E	DXS		STE	M-EI	DXS	ICP-AES					
	М	Mass	s of C	Ca in				Part of	f cellu	ılar Ca		
	Mag Mar	rauo)]	С	CaCO ₃		Total Ca in cells			in CaCO ₃ granules		
	(IVIg/I	vig+C	<i>_a)</i>	gr	anul	es						
Time (h)				(mg n	/g of natter	dry)	(mg/ m	g of of atter)	dry		(%)	
0	4.0	±	2.2	11	±	11	15	,		76	±	70
42	4.4	±	2.2	6.7	±	5.9	42.3	±	4.9	16	±	14
114	3.0	±	1.7	10.2	±	8.5	42.9	±	1.5	24	±	20
282	4.8	±	2.2	7.4	±	7.4	30.1*	±	1.2*	25*	±	25*
623	3.2	±	0.9	11	±	12	17.9*	\pm	0.1*	60*	\pm	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.

		STEM (HAADF)											
	Number	of analyzed	C gran	CaCO nules cell	3 per	CaCO dia	3 gra amete	nules er	Volum p	e of er ce	CaCO3 II		
Time (h)	cells (empty cells)	carbonate granules				((nm)			(µm ³))		
0	44 (6)	152	4.0	\pm	2.6	111	\pm	66	0.006	±	0.006		
234	85 (3)	596	7.3	±	4.7	129	±	62	0.015	\pm	0.020		
330	103 (2)	565	5.6	±	2.6	131	±	72	0.014	\pm	0.017		
525	92 (19)	1656	22.7	±	9.6	172	\pm	64	0.087	±	0.045		
	EI	DXS	STE	STEM-EDXS			ICP-AES						
	Mg (Mg/N	ratio ⁄Ig+Ca)	Mass C gr	Mass of Ca in CaCO3 granules			Ca in	cells	Part of in CaC	f cellu O3 g	ılar Ca ranules		
Time (h)			(mg n	/g of natter	dry)	(mg/g of dry matter)		dry)	(%)				
0	4.1	± 1.5	0.4	±	0.4	24			1.5	±	1.5		
234	3.7	± 1.2	0.8	±	1.1	35.6*	\pm	0.9*	2.3*	±	3.2*		
330	3.7	\pm 1.8	0.8	±	1.0	25.6	\pm	2.6	3.1	±	4.1		
525	7.6	± 2.4	4.7	±	2.8	16.4	±	0.6	29	±	17		

Thermosynechococcus elongatus

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

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