

Evidence of high Ca uptake by cyanobacteria forming intracellular CaCO3 and impact on their growth

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1 2	Evidence of high Ca uptake by cyanobacteria forming intracellular CaCO ₃ and impact on their growth
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33 Abstract

Several species of cyanobacteria biomineralizing intracellular amorphous calcium carbonates 34 35 (ACC) were recently discovered. However, the mechanisms involved in this biomineralization process and the determinants discriminating species forming intracellular ACC from those not 36 forming intracellular ACC, remain unknown. Recently, it was hypothesized that the intensity 37 38 of Ca uptake (i.e., how much Ca was scavenged from the extracellular solution) might be a major parameter controlling the capability of a cyanobacterium to form intracellular ACC. 39 Here, we tested this hypothesis by systematically measuring the Ca uptake by a set of 52 40 cyanobacterial strains cultured in the same growth medium. The results evidenced a dichotomy 41 among cyanobacteria regarding Ca sequestration capabilities, with all strains forming 42 intracellular ACC incorporating significantly more calcium than strains not forming ACC. 43 Moreover, Ca provided at a concentration of 50 µM in BG-11 was shown to be limiting for the 44 growth of some of the strains forming intracellular ACC, suggesting an overlooked quantitative 45 role of Ca for these strains. All cyanobacteria forming intracellular ACC contained at least one 46 gene coding for a mechanosensitive channel which might be involved in Ca in-flux as well as 47 at least one gene coding for a Ca^{2+}/H^+ exchanger and membrane proteins of the UPF0016 family 48 which might be involved in active Ca transport either from the cytosol to the extracellular 49 solution or the cytosol towards an intracellular compartment. Overall, massive Ca sequestration 50 may have an indirect role by allowing the formation of intracellular ACC. The latter may be 51 beneficial to the growth of the cells as a storage of inorganic C and/or a buffer of intracellular 52 53 pH. Moreover, high Ca scavenging by cyanobacteria biomineralizing intracellular ACC, a trait shared with endolithic cyanobacteria, suggests that these cyanobacteria should be considered 54 55 as potentially significant geochemical reservoirs of Ca.

56

1. Introduction

Cyanobacteria have played an important role in mediating the formation of carbonate 59 sedimentary deposits such as stromatolites for billions of years (Golubic & Lee, 1999; 60 61 Altermann, Kazmierczak, Oren, & Wright, 2006). It has been usually suggested that this occurs through extracellular carbonatogenesis (e.g., Lee, Apel, & Walton, 2004; Riding, 2006; 62 Kamennaya, Ajo-Franklin, Northen, & Jansson, 2012; Bundeleva et al., 2014). This process 63 64 may be associated with CO₂-concentrating mechanisms, which comprises a set of diverse molecular mechanisms contributing to the concentration of inorganic carbon within cells 65 (Riding, 2006; Jansson & Northern, 2010; Jiang, Cheng, Gao, & Qiu, 2013). More specifically, 66 67 bicarbonates (HCO₃⁻) are incorporated actively and transformed into CO₂ within carboxysomes for fixation by ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase (Price, Maeda, Omata, & 68 Badger, 2002). This transformation releases OH⁻ which are balanced by the import of H⁺ so that 69 the intracellular pH of the cells keeps regulated at a near neutral value (e.g., Belkin & Boussiba, 70 1991; Jiang, Cheng, Gao, & Qiu, 2013). This locally raises the extracellular pH, inducing 71 CaCO₃ precipitation (Merz, 1992). Moreover, the intracellular import of H⁺ is associated with 72 an export of Ca²⁺ in some cyanobacteria, which also favors extracellular CaCO₃ precipitation 73 (Waditee et al., 2004). Overall, biomineralization of CaCO₃ by cyanobacteria has been 74 75 traditionally considered as a non-controlled and extracellular process (Riding, 2006).

However, this dogma has been recently challenged by the discovery of several cyanobacterial species forming intracellular amorphous calcium carbonates (ACC) (Couradeau et al., 2012; Benzerara et al., 2014). These cyanobacteria were found in diverse environments all around the world (Ragon, Benzerara, Moreira, Tavera, & Lopez-Garcia, 2014). This ACC formation capability is a synapomorphy at least in some cyanobacterial groups and may have appeared several hundred million years ago (Benzerara et al., 2014). Interestingly, *Gloeomargarita lithophora*, which forms intracellular ACC, is the closest modern relative of

plastid and bears information on the evolution of photosynthesis in eukaryotes by 83 endosymbiosis of a cyanobacterium sometimes during the Proterozoic (Ponce-Toledo et al., 84 2017). Yet, the formation of intracellular ACC in these cyanobacteria is surprising. Indeed, 85 considering the pH and the concentrations of HCO₃⁻ and Ca²⁺ in the cytoplasm of cyanobacterial 86 cells (Badger & Andrews, 1982; Belkin & Boussiba, 1991; Barrán-Berdón, Rodea-Palomares, 87 Leganes, & Fernandez-Pinas, 2011), precipitation is not thermodynamically possible (Cam, 88 Georgelin, Jaber, Lambert, & Benzerara, 2015). Based on the size distribution and spatial 89 location of intracellular Ca-carbonates in diverse strains, several nucleation sites have been 90 suggested for these precipitates, including 1) carboxysomes for cyanobacteria showing ACC 91 inclusions throughout their cells or 2) cytoskeletal proteins for cyanobacteria with ACC 92 inclusions located at their septum and their poles (Li et al., 2016). Blondeau et al. (2018a) 93 showed by using cryo-electron microscopy of vitreous sections, that intracellular ACC were 94 95 systematically enclosed within an envelope which could be a protein shell or a lipid monolayer, suggesting that chemical conditions (e.g., Ca^{2+} concentration) within these vesicles might be 96 97 different from those in the cytosol and more suitable to ACC precipitation.

However, differences in ability to manage Ca between cyanobacterial strains forming 98 intracellular ACC and other strains of cyanobacteria are still unclear. Calcium is notoriously 99 100 essential for all eukaryotes or prokaryotes as it fills multiple biological roles, including cellular signaling for cell structure maintenance, gene expression, cell cycle and cell differentiation 101 processes, such as the development of heterocysts in cyanobacteria (e.g., Dominguez, 2004). In 102 microalgae, Ca is also an essential co-factor of the oxygen-evolving complex of photosystem 103 104 II (Debus, 1992). In contrast, Ca may be toxic at high cytosolic concentrations (Clapham, 2007). Overall, the current view is that the intracellular concentration of dissolved Ca²⁺ is regulated in 105 106 a tight and very low concentration range (~100 nM), involving buffers usually composed of proteins with high Ca binding-affinities, which can release or trap Ca^{2+} (e.g., Gilabert, 2012; 107

Dominguez et al., 2015). Intracellular ACC may serve as an additional overlooked inorganic 108 Ca-buffer. It has been demonstrated that *Gloeomargarita lithophora* C7, *Cyanothece* sp. PCC 109 7425 and Thermosynechococcus elongatus BP-1, three cyanobacteria forming ACC inclusions, 110 strongly incorporate dissolved Ca^{2+} , whereas *Gloeocapsa* sp. PCC 73106, which does not form 111 intracellular ACC, incorporates only limited amounts of Ca intracellularly (Cam et al., 2018). 112 Based on these results, Cam et al. (2018) hypothesized that the ability to strongly incorporate 113 Ca might be a specificity of cyanobacterial strains forming CaCO₃ inclusions and that 114 differences in Ca homeostasis may therefore explain why some cyanobacteria form intracellular 115 ACC while others do not. Here, we tested that hypothesis by surveying the uptake of dissolved 116 Ca by a much larger set of cyanobacterial strains, including some forming intracellular ACC 117 and other not forming intracellular ACC. Moreover, we searched whether cyanobacteria 118 forming intracellular ACC need higher amounts of Ca for growth. Last, we searched in the 119 genomes of these cyanobacteria potentially shared genes coding proteins involved in Ca 120 transport. 121

122

2. Material & Methods

123 2.1. Strains and culture conditions

Fifty-two cyanobacterial strains scattered throughout the phylogenetic tree of cyanobacteria 124 (Fig. S1) were tested for their capability to sequester Ca (Table S1). Here, we will refer to 125 strains forming intracellular ACC as ACC+ strains and strains not forming intracellular ACC 126 127 as ACC- strains. Six of the ACC+ strains were previously studied: Synechococcus sp. PCC 6312, Synechococcus lividus PCC 6716 and PCC 6717, Cyanothece sp. PCC 7425, 128 Chroococcidiopsis thermalis PCC 7203, and G. lithophora C7 (Benzerara et al., 2014). These 129 130 strains were isolated from very diverse environments including mesophilic alkaline lakes, hot springs at a temperature up to 53 °C and soils (Benzerara et al., 2014). Ten additional strains 131

phylogenetically close to these ACC+ strains were tested for their capability to form 132 intracellular ACC: Cyanothece sp. PCC 8303 (isolated from a thermal resort in the Vosges, 133 France), PCC 8955 (isolated from JB Bokassa's swimming pool in Central African Republic) 134 and PCC 9308, Synechococcus sp. PCC 6603 (isolated from a freshwater pond in California) 135 and PCC 6715 (isolated from a hot spring in Yellowstone), Chroococcidiopsis sp. PCC 7432 136 (isolated from a water spring in Pinar del Rio, Cuba), PCC 7433 (isolated from a dried pool in 137 Cuba), PCC 7434 (isolated from a pool in a botanical garden in Havana, Cuba), PCC 7439 138 (isolated from a sand beach in Romania) and PCC 9819 (Table S1). Finally, 36 strains were 139 previously shown to not form intracellular ACC (Benzerara et al., 2014). Fifty-one strains 140 141 named PCC were axenic and were available from the Pasteur culture collection of cyanobacteria (PCC). G. lithophora was isolated from Lake Alchichica (Couradeau et al., 2012) and was not 142 axenic but co-cultured with a single alphaproteobacterium closely related to the genus 143 Sandarakinorhabdus (Moreira et al., 2017). All cultures were inoculated at 1/6th, starting from 144 liquid pre-cultures in the stationary phase. They were grown to the stationary growth phase in 145 40 mL of liquid BG-11 (Rippka, Deruelles, Waterbury, Herdman, & Stanier, 1979), without 146 agitation and under continuous light (8 µmol photon. m⁻². s⁻¹). The composition of the BG-11 147 medium was (in g.L⁻¹): NaNO₃: 1.5; K₂HPO₄.3H₂O: 0.04; MgSO₄.7H₂O: 0.075; CaCl₂.2H₂O: 148 0.036; citric acid: 0.006; ferric ammonium citrate: 0.006; EDTA (disodium magnesium salt): 149 0.001; Na₂CO₃: 0.02; trace metal mix A5+Co: 1 ml.L-1; vitamin B12: 10 pg. L-1. Trace metal 150 mix A5+Co contained (in g.L-1): H₃BO₃: 2.86; MnCI₂.4H₂0: 1.81; ZnSO₄.7H₂O: 0.222; 151 Na2MoO4.2H2O: 0.390; CuSO4.5H2O: 0,0.079; Co(N03)2.6H2O: 0.0494. Most cultures were 152 grown at 22°C except Cyanobacterium aponinum PCC 10605, grown at 25°C, and the 153 thermophilic strains such as Synechococcus lividus PCC 6716 and PCC 6717 as well as 154 Fischerella sp. PCC 9431, which were grown at 37°C. 155

In parallel to the survey of Ca uptake by these 52 cyanobacterial strains, the growth of 3 156 planktonic ACC+ strains (G. lithophora C7, Cyanothece sp. PCC 7425 and Synechococcus sp. 157 PCC 6312) and 2 planktonic ACC- strains (Synechococcus elongatus PCC 7942 and 158 Synechocystis sp. PCC 6803) were monitored in duplicates with a higher temporal precision at 159 two different Ca²⁺ initial concentrations: 50 µM and 250 µM. Both concentrations are 160 environmentally relevant and typical of Ca concentrations encountered in alkaline/soda lakes 161 162 such as Lake Alchichica, where G. lithophora was first found (e.g., Zeyen et al., 2019; Boros and Kolpakova, 2018). The standard Ca concentration in BG-11 is 250 µM. The concentration 163 of 50 µM corresponds to the standard Ca concentration in BG-11 divided by 5 and allows to 164 keep a concentration high enough so that it can be simply monitored over time. 165

166 Cultures were grown at 30°C, under continuous light (5 - 10 μ mol photon. m⁻². s⁻¹) and 167 continuous agitation (120 rpm) for all strains, except *G. lithophora* C7 which was grown under 168 lower light intensity (2.5 - 5 μ mol photon. m⁻². s⁻¹). In one experiment, cultures of these 5 strains 169 grown at an initial Ca concentration of 50 μ M were split in half after 22 days of cultures. 170 Calcium was subsequently added to half of these subcultures at a concentration of 200 μ M to 171 complement the initial deficit of Ca compared to the 250 μ M of Ca in standard BG-11. No Ca 172 was added to the other half of the cultures.

173 *2.2. Growth measurements*

For comparison of Ca uptake by the fifty-two strains, growth was assessed by dry weight measurements since some of the strains tended to form aggregates and could not be simply numbered by optical density (OD) measurements. For this purpose, 200 μ L of cultures were deposited on 0.22 μ m GTTP filters (Millipore) weighed beforehand using an XP6 ultra microbalance (Mettler-Toledo). The GTTP filters were weighed after one week of drying at 45°C. The difference between the weight before and after filtering of the cultures provided the mass of dry matter in g.L⁻¹. Measured cell masses in 200 μ L of culture amounted between 18 and 848 μ g depending on the strains. The precision on this measurement was 1 μ g. Cell growth of the five planktonic strains cultured with 50 and 250 μ M of Ca was compared by measuring optical density at 730 nm (OD₇₃₀) every 2 to 3 days. The instrumental precision on OD measurements was 0.005.

185 *2.3. Chemical analyses*

The concentration of dissolved Ca and the pH of the cultures were systematically measured at 186 the stationary phase for all fifty-two strains. Solution pH was measured on 0.5 µL of non-187 188 filtered culture samples using a combined pH microelectrode (Fisherbrand). The accuracy of pH measurements was estimated at ~0.01 units. The dissolved Ca concentrations were 189 measured by inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectrometry (ICP-AES), using a 190 191 Thermo Scientific iCAP 6200 ICP emission spectrometer. For this purpose, cultures were filtered at 0.22 µm. Depending on samples, from 200 to 400 µL of the filtrate were diluted in 192 193 10 mL of 2% HNO₃. Three measurements were performed for each sample. The 2% HNO₃ solution was analyzed as a control to assess the contamination of the HNO₃ reagent by Ca²⁺. 194 The Ca contamination was always lower than 6 ppb. 195

196 2.4. Transmission electron microscopy

197 Transmission electron microscopy analyses were performed on the ten PCC strains not tested 198 before for their capability to form intracellular ACC. Moreover, six ACC– strains were 199 analyzed to determine the chemical composition of their polyphosphate granules. For these 200 analyses, 0.5 mL of the cultures were centrifuged at 5000 g for 10 min. The cell pellets were 201 washed three times with milli-Q water and resuspended in 0.5 mL of milliQ water for analyzis 202 by scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM). Washing was necessary to avoid the

precipitation of salts upon drying but did not alter intracellular ACC as shown by Blondeau et 203 al. (2018b). After washing, 3 µL of the cell suspensions were deposited on 200 mesh FormvarTM 204 carbon coated copper grids and dried at room temperature. The grids were made hydrophilic 205 206 beforehand by glow discharge, i.e. exposition for 30 s to an Ar⁺ plasma. STEM analyses were performed using a JEOL 2100F microscope equipped with a field emission gun and operating 207 at 200 kV. STEM images were acquired in the high angle annular dark field (HAADF) mode 208 with a probe size of 0.7 to 1 nm. Elemental mapping was performed based on energy dispersive 209 x-ray spectrometry (EDXS) analyses using the JEOL Analysis Station software. Semi-210 quantitative analyses of EDXS spectra were processed to assess the Ca/Mg ratios of the 211 polyphosphate in the cells following the procedure by Li et al. (2016) based on the use of K 212 factors which provide the relationship between peak intensity and the element quantity. The 213 hypothesis that Ca/Mg ratios of the polyphosphate granules were significantly different 214 215 between ten ACC+ strains (number of polyphosphate granules, n=136) and six ACC- strains (n=133) was tested by a statistical non-parametric Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney procedure, which 216 217 does not require the assumption of normal distributions. This analysis was performed using the 218 software R version 3.2.0 (Team, 2013).

219 2.5. Search of Ca-related transport genes in the genomes of cyanobacteria forming 220 intracellular ACC

Several families of Ca-related transport proteins have been described in the literature. Three hundred and thirty-nine reference sequences of known proteins involved in Ca transport were retrieved from the transporter classification database (TCDB, Saier et al., 2015) by using the substrate search tool (with Ca as requested substrate). Their homologs were searched in all the available genomes of cyanobacteria forming intracellular ACC (Table 1) by BLAST with an evalue threshold of 1e-05, resulting in 4280 sequences. Each sequence was further searched for

similarity with known domain profiles using CD-search (Marchler-Bauer et al., 2016; CDD 227 database, version 3.6). The best specific hit (according to the hit classification provided by CD-228 search) was kept to validate the functional annotation of the sequences and their specific 229 implication in Ca transport. As the genomes of PCC 6716 and PCC 6717 have not been 230 231 structurally annotated yet, their genomic sequences were explored using tBLASTn in order to search for homologs of the Ca-related proteins previously found in the five other genomes. The 232 hits were further validated with CD-search. Transport proteins shared by ACC+ strains were 233 234 also searched in the available genomes of ACC- strains.

Transport type	Function	specific hit (CDD profile)	G. lithophora C7	<i>S</i> . sp. PCC 6312	S. lividus PCC 6715	S. lividus PCC 6716	S. lividus PCC 6717	<i>C. thermalis</i> PCC 7203	C. sp. PCC 7425	Reference
		prome)	NZ_CP017675.1	NC_019680.1	NZ_CP01809 2.1	Unpublished		NC_019695.1	NC_011884.1	
Active transport	Ca ²⁺ ATPase	cd02089	0	0	0	0	0	AFY89136.1, AFY89473.1	ACL44608.1	Berkelman, Garret- Engele, & Hoffman, 1994
	apnhaP (K ⁺ /H ⁺ antiporter, Ca ²⁺ /H ⁺ antiporter at alkaline pH)	COG0025	APB33279.1	AFY60943.1, AFY61477.1, AFY62329.1	ATS18144.1	1	1	AFY86316.1, AFY86773.1, AFY88512.1, AFY89267.1, AFY89685.1	ACL43274.1, ACL45641.1, ACL45953.1, ACL47119.1	Waditee et al., 2001
	UPF0016 (Putative Ca ²⁺ /cation antiporter)	COG2119, pfam01169	APB33251.1, APB33252.1	AFY59528.1, AFY61632.1, AFY62270.1	ATS18363.1, ATS18364.1	1	1	AFY86178.1, AFY86627.1, AFY86628.1	ACL43789.1, ACL46990.1, ACL46991.1	Demaegd et al., 2014
	Ca ²⁺ /H ⁺ antiporter	COG0387	APB32733.1	AFY62574.1	ATS17843.1	1	1	AFY88666.1, AFY88667.1	ACL43313.1, ACL45336.1	
	Ca ²⁺ /Na ⁺ antiporter	pfam01699	APB34699.1	0	ATS18027.1	0	1	AFY89133.1	ACL44147.1, ACL45335.1	
Passive transport	Mechanosensitive channel	COG0668	APB35048.1	AFY61749.1	0	0	0	AFY88096.1, AFY88215.1, AFY89282.1, AFY89283.1	0	Domínguez, Guragain, & Patrauchan, 2015
		pfam00924	APB33494.1, APB33956.1, APB32821.1, APB32856.1	AFY60788.1, AFY59468.1, AFY62613.1	ATS17940.1, ATS18073.1	3	2	AFY88498.1	ACL43383.1, ACL43916.1, ACL44170.1, ACL46737.1, ACL47385.1	
	hBI-1(pH sensitive channel)	pfam01027	0	AFY61003.1	ATS17502.1	1	1	AFY90919.1	ACL43777.1	Chang <i>et al.</i> , 2014
	Pit (CaHPO ₄ /H ⁺ symport)	pfam01384, COG0306	0	0	ATS18407.1	1	1	AFY87346.1	ACL43457.1	Domínguez, Guragain, & Patrauchan, 2015

237	Table 1 . Proteins involved in Ca^{2+} transport detected in seven cyanobacterial strains forming
238	intracellular ACC. Protein sequence identifiers (Genbank accessions) are reported.

239 2.6. *Phylogenetic analyses*

The 16S rRNA gene sequences were retrieved from genomes and aligned using CLUSTAL_W (Thompson, Higgins, & Gibson, 1997). One thousand four hundred and fifteen conserved positions in the sequences were considered in order to compute a phylogenetic tree using PHYML (Guindon et al., 2003) and applying the Gamma Time Reversible model. One hundred bootstrap replicates were performed to assess the statistical support of each node and the ones with a value greater than 70% were kept. The sequences were retrieved from GenBank under the accession numbers MK484706 to MK484714.

3. Results

248 *3.1. Assessing the capability of cyanobacterial strains to form intracellular ACC*

249 Among the fifty-two cyanobacterial strains studied here, six strains (Synechococcus sp. PCC 250 6312, PCC 6716 and PCC 6717, Cyanothece sp. PCC 7425, Chroococcidiopsis sp. PCC 7203, and G. lithophora C7) were already known to form intracellular ACC (Benzerara et al., 2014). 251 Additionally, ten strains phylogenetically close to some of these ACC+ strains were tested for 252 253 their capability to form intracellular ACC (Table S1) : Cyanothece sp. PCC 8303, PCC 8905 and PCC 9308 were close relatives of Cyanothece sp. PCC 7425; Synechococcus lividus PCC 254 6715 and Synechococcus sp. PCC 6603 were close relatives of S. lividus PCC 6716 and PCC 255 6717 and Synechococcus sp. PCC 6312, respectively; Chroococcidiopsis sp. PCC 7432, PCC 256 7433, PCC 7434, PCC 7439 and PCC 9819 were close relatives of Chroococcidiopsis thermalis 257 PCC 7203 (Fig. S1). STEM-EDXS analyses showed that these ten strains were also capable to 258 form intracellular ACC in BG-11 (Fig. 1). Cells of Synechococcus sp. PCC 6715 and PCC 6603 259 showed ACC inclusions mostly located at their poles as in *Synechococcus* sp. PCC 6312 and *S*. 260

lividus PCC 6716 and 6717. In contrast, the cells of all other ACC+ strains showed inclusions
scattered throughout the cells similarly to *Cyanothece thermalis* PCC 7425 and *Chroococcidiopsis* sp. PCC 7203. Overall, among the 52 analyzed strains, 16 strains formed
intracellular ACC, while 36 did not form intracellular ACC.



Figure 1. STEM HAADF-EDXS analyses of the 10 strains tested for their capability to form intracellular ACC.
(A) and (B): STEM-HAADF image and EDXS map of *Synechococcus* sp. PCC 6715. (C) and (D): *Synechococcus*sp. PCC 6603. (E) and (F): *Cyanothece* sp. PCC 8303. (G) and (H) *Cyanothece* sp. PCC 8955. (I) and (J) *Cyanothece* sp. PCC 9308. (K) and (L) *Chroococcidiopsis* sp. PCC 7432. (M) and (N) *Chroococcidiopsis* sp. PCC

270 7433. (O) and (P) Chroococcidiopsis sp. PCC 7434. (Q) and (R) Chroococcidiopsis sp. PCC 7439. (S) and (T)

271 *Chroococcidiopsis* sp. PCC 9819. For all EDXS maps, calcium is in green, phosphorus in red and carbon in blue.

 $\label{eq:action} 272 \qquad \text{As a result, Ca-carbonates appear in green and PolyP granules in red. All scale bars represent 2 \,\mu\text{m}.}$

As evidenced by EDXS maps, Ca was mostly contained in intracellular ACC inclusions for 273 these ten strains similarly to their ACC+ relatives. Some Ca was also detected by STEM-EDXS 274 275 in association with the polyphosphate granules in these strains, which mostly contained Mg as a counter-cation (Fig. 2 and Fig. S2). Interestingly, some Ca was also detected in the 276 polyphosphate inclusions of some of the six strains not forming intracellular CaCO₃ that were 277 278 analyzed in this study (Gloeocapsa sp. PCC 7428, Synechocystis sp. PCC 6803, Oscillatoria sp. PCC 6304, Cyanobium gracile PCC 6307, Synechococcus sp. PCC 6301, Leptolyngbya sp. 279 PCC 7104). Based on a Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney statistical analysis, the Ca/Mg ratio of 280 polyphosphates was shown to be significantly higher in ACC+ strains than in ACC- strains 281 (Fig. 2). In one ACC- strain, Gloeocapsa sp. PCC 7428, STEM observations showed that a 282 significant amount of Ca was localized on/in the cell wall of the cells, in association with K, 283 Mg and S (Fig. S3). 284



Figure 2. Ca/Mg atomic ratio of polyphosphates in strains forming intracellular ACC (left) vs. strains not forming intracellular ACC (right). The dataset includes the Ca/Mg ratios of 136 polyphosphates from ten strains forming intracellular ACC and 133 polyphosphates from six strains not forming intracellular ACC. The Ca/Mg values of the polyphosphates were calculated based on STEM-EDX analyses. The bold lines indicate the median values; the boxes span the second and third quartiles; the vertical dashed lines span 1.5 times the extent of the boxes. Open circles are outliers. The Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney statistical analysis shows that the difference between the two groups is significant *** p <0.001.

293 *3.2. Assessment of the Ca uptake by the 52 cyanobacterial strains*

285

The 52 cyanobacterial strains analyzed in this study were cultured in the same BG-11 medium (Table S1). The initial concentration of dissolved Ca²⁺ was measured at 281 μ M (±6). The final concentration of dissolved Ca²⁺ was measured after 40 to 61 days of incubation depending on the strains. This final concentration widely varied between strains (Fig. 3). Many strains (36 out of 52) showed little to no Ca uptake, i.e. less than 22% of the initial Ca stock available in the solution. *Gloeocapsa* sp. PCC 7428 showed an intermediate uptake of ~38% of the initial 300 Ca^{2+} concentration. Sixteen strains showed a high Ca uptake, i.e. higher than 58% of the initial 301 Ca stock and up to ~98% for *G. lithophora* C7. The very high Ca uptake correlated with the 302 capability of the strain to form intracellular ACC: all 16 ACC+ strains showed a Ca uptake 303 higher than ACC- strains (Fig. 3). Significance of this difference was supported by a Wilcoxon-304 Mann-Whitney statistical analysis with p <0.001.



305

Figure 3. Plot of the concentrations of dissolved calcium remaining after 40 - 61 days of incubation for the 52 tested strains. In red: strains forming intracellular calcium carbonates; in black: strains not forming intracellular carbonates. The dashed line represents the initial concentration of dissolved calcium in the culture medium (BG-11). The grey area corresponds to error bars around this value. Error bars were calculated based on the precision of ICP-AES.

Since parameters other than the capability of the cells to form intracellular ACC such as pH,
the final dry mass and incubation duration may *a priori* impact the observed variability of Ca

uptake, we tested potential correlations between Ca uptake and these parameters. While the 314 315 initial pH of the BG-11 medium was 7.5, it systematically increased upon cell growth, reaching a final value between 8 and 11 depending on the strains. No correlation was detected between 316 317 the final pH and Ca uptake (Fig. S4). Similarly, different strains showed different final dry masses, but dry masses were not correlated with Ca uptake (Fig. S5). Last, we tested the 318 influence of an incubation time of 40 vs 60 days on Ca uptake for three ACC+ strains and two 319 ACC- strains (Fig. S6). Although we observed that uptake increased from 53% to 92% between 320 40 and 60 days for Synechococcus sp. PCC 6312, the ranking of the strains in terms of Ca 321 uptake did not vary over this time range. This is also consistent with the analyses by Cam et al 322 323 (2018), who showed that Ca uptake rate was higher in the first hours of cultures of several ACC+ strains. Overall, these tests supported the conclusion that cultures of ACC+ strains 324 intrinsically showed a higher Ca uptake than ACC- strains regardless of their dry masses, the 325 326 duration of incubation (40 or 60 days) and/or extracellular pH.

327 3.3. Impact of the initial concentration of dissolved Ca²⁺ on the growth of cyanobacteria 328 forming intracellular ACC

329 We selected a subset of three strains representing the two types of intracellular ACC distributions: scattered through the cell, i.e. G. lithophora C7 and Cyanothece sp. PCC 7425, 330 and at the cell poles: Synechococcus sp. PCC 6312. Their growth was compared with that of 331 two ACC- strains: Synechococcus elongatus PCC 7942 and Synechocystis sp. PCC 6803. The 332 growth of these three ACC+ strains and two ACC- strains was measured in BG-11 at two initial 333 Ca²⁺ concentrations: 50 µM and 250 µM. G. lithophora C7 and Cyanothece sp. PCC 7425 334 showed significantly higher growth rates when grown with an initial Ca concentration of 250 335 336 µM compared to 50 µM (Fig. 4). In contrast, growth was only slightly higher for Synechococcus sp. PCC 6312 at an initial Ca concentration of 250 µM (compared to 50 µM) and not 337 significantly different between the two Ca concentrations for Synechocystis sp. PCC 6803 and 338

S. elongatus PCC 7942. The pH showed similar differences between cultures at 50 and 250 μM,
reaching significantly higher values at 250 μM for *G. lithophora* C7 and *Cyanothece* sp. PCC
7425 but similar values at 50 and 250 μM for *Synechococcus* sp. PCC 6312, *S. elongatus* PCC
7942 and *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 (Fig. S7).



343

Figure 4. Time evolution of OD_{730nm} for cultures in a BG-11 medium with an initial dissolved Ca concentration of 250 μ M (open symbols) and 50 μ M (closed symbols). (A) *G. lithophora* C7; (B) *Cyanothece* sp. PCC 7425; (C) *Synechococcus* sp. PCC 6312; (D) *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803; (E) and

S. elongatus PCC 7942. Error bars represent standard deviations calculated based on variations between
 duplicates.

349 To further test the growth dependence on the Ca content of the growth medium, cultures with 50 µM of Ca were split in half after 527 hours. Calcium was subsequently added to half of these 350 351 subcultures at a concentration of 200 µM to complement the initial deficit of Ca compared to the 250 µM of Ca in standard BG-11. No Ca was added to the other half of the cultures. For G. 352 *lithophora*, the culture was still growing at the time of Ca addition (Fig. 5). Yet, 300 h after Ca 353 addition, the Ca-supplemented subcultures reached an OD₇₃₀ significantly higher than the 354 subcultures with no Ca addition. The difference was even larger for *Cyanothece* sp. PCC 7425. 355 These differences could also be observed on the time evolution of pH (Fig. S8). In contrast, the 356 OD₇₃₀ of the Ca-supplemented subculture of Synechococcus sp. PCC 6312 was slightly lower 357 than that with no Ca addition (Fig. 5). The time evolution of the pH was similar for the two 358 subcultures (Fig. S8). For Synechocystis sp. PCC 6803 and S. elongatus PCC 7942, subcultures 359 with no Ca addition reached significantly higher OD₇₃₀ than Ca-supplemented subcultures (Fig. 360 5). 361

362 3.4. Genome analyses

Genes coding for proteins possibly involved in passive and active transport of Ca were searched 363 and quantified in the annotated genomes of seven ACC+ strains (Table 1). Regarding active 364 transport, all genomes contained at least one copy (e.g., two for Cyanothece sp. PCC 7425 and 365 *Chroococcidiopsis thermalis* PCC 7203) of a gene coding for a Ca^{2+}/H^+ exchanger and between 366 one and three copies of the UPF0016 gene coding for a putative calcium/cation exchanger 367 (Demaegd, Colinet, Deschamps, & Morsomme, 2014). All these genomes also encoded a 368 homolog of a Na⁺/H⁺ antiporter (apnhaP) that has been reported to have a high Ca^{2+}/H^+ antiport 369 activity at alkaline pH (Waditee et al, 2001). In contrast, homologs of other genes coding for 370

transporters possibly involved in Ca transport (Ca²⁺ ATPase, Pit, Ca²⁺/Na⁺ antiporter) were found in some but not all these 7 genomes. Regarding passive transport, at least one copy of a gene coding for a mechanosensitive channel was found in all genomes. A homolog of a pHsensitive Ca leak channel (Human Bax1 inhibitor) found in some intracellular membranes (Chang et al., 2014) was detected in all genomes but the one of *G. lithophora*.

4. Discussion

377 *4.1. Cyanobacteria forming intracellular CaCO₃ show a very strong Ca uptake*

Several previous studies have assessed cell Ca uptake by measuring the temporal 378 changes of dissolved extracellular Ca²⁺ concentration (Singh & Mishra, 2014; Cam et al., 2016; 379 Blondeau et al., 2018b). Yet, changes in dissolved Ca concentrations can *a priori* be due to i) 380 extracellular precipitation of Ca-containing mineral phases, ii) adsorption at the cell surfaces 381 382 and/or by surface EPS and/or iii) Ca uptake within cells. Here, Ca uptake within cells is argued to be the most important process responsible for the observed differences in the decrease of 383 extracellular dissolved Ca concentration between cultures of ACC+ and ACC- cyanobacterial 384 strains. This conclusion relies on several lines of evidence. First, cultures with higher solution 385 pH should experience higher rates of extracellular Ca-mineral precipitation and/or cell surface 386 adsorption (Bundeleva et al., 2014; Lee, Apel, & Walton, 2004). However, no correlation was 387 detected between pH and the decrease of dissolved Ca concentrations, i.e. the pH in the culture 388 media of ACC+ strains increased to diverse values with no systematic differences with ACC-389 390 strains. In some cultures, where pH increased to high values (e.g., pH = 10.56 for Synechococcus sp. PCC 6301), only a slight decrease of dissolved Ca concentration was 391 observed ($\Delta([Ca^{2+}]) = 49.56 \mu M$). Moreover, STEM observations clearly showed that Ca was 392 393 mostly contained within intracellular ACC inclusions in ACC+ strains and to a lesser extent within polyphosphates. Overall, this supports the conclusion that the variations observed in the 394

decrease of dissolved Ca concentration was primarily dependent on the capability of the strains to form intracellular ACC. Consistently, Cam et al. (2018) showed that BG-11 remained mostly undersaturated with Ca-carbonate phases in the cultures of three ACC+ strains and that the decrease of dissolved Ca concentrations in these cultures was primarily due to Ca uptake within cells. Overall, the present study, based on the comparison between 52 strains, generalizes the hypothesis formulated by Cam et al. (2018) based on only 4 strains, that cyanobacteria forming intracellular ACC show a Ca uptake systematically higher than other cyanobacteria.

Although it is difficult to definitely demonstrate that ACC- strains never form ACC 402 (since this would require to culture them under an infinite number of diverse conditions), it can 403 404 be concluded that they do not form ACC at least under the specific conditions used here in the present study. Moreover, it should be noted that some of them (e.g., PCC 6803, PCC7942) have 405 been scrutinized at different time points, therefore providing a much more extensive sampling 406 407 of diverse conditions. Last, we note that under the specific culture conditions we used, there is a relationship between forming/not forming iACC and phylogeny (Fig. S1). This suggests that 408 409 this trait may be a synapomorphy for the Chroococcidiopsis and the Cyanothece sp PCC 7425 clusters as already mentioned for the Synechococcus sp. PCC 6312 cluster by Benzerara et al. 410 (2014) and that it is likely more controlled by genetics than environmental conditions. 411

412 *4.2. Relatively high Ca adsorption by Gloeocapsa* sp. PCC 7428

Although *Gloeocapsa* sp. PCC 7428 showed an affinity for Ca lower than ACC+ cyanobacteria, it was significantly higher than other ACC– cyanobacteria. STEM analyses showed that Ca was clearly associated with the cell walls of *Gloeocapsa* sp. PCC 7428. Cell walls of *Gloeocapsa* sp. PCC 7428 have been shown to be composed of a thick extracellular sheath of mucopolysaccharides (Gonzalez-Esquer *et al.*, 2016), which may therefore be responsible for this relatively high Ca sorption capability. Whether this is due to a high surface

Ca adsorption capacity of the strain and/or precipitation of extracellular Ca-mineral phases 419 could not be determined here but it is known that there is a continuum between surface 420 adsorption and extracellular mineral precipitation (Warren & Ferris, 1998). Consistently, 421 422 several studies have stressed on the significant calcification potential of the genus Gloeocapsa (Pokrovsky, Martinez, Golubev, Kompantseva, & Shirokova, 2008; Bundeleva et al., 2014). 423 Moreover, cyanobacteria of the Chroococcales order, to which Gloeocapsa sp. PCC 7428 424 belong, have been proposed more generally to be particularly efficient at precipitating Ca-425 carbonates (e.g., Saghai et al., 2015). Overall, the present survey of a large number of 426 cyanobacterial strains supports the idea that *Gloeocapsa* sp. PCC 7428 may be particularly 427 428 prone among cyanobacteria at inducing the precipitation of extracellular Ca-mineral phases.

429

430 4.3. Comparison of the Ca content of ACC+ cyanobacterial strains with other known
431 bacteria

Here, we normalized the Ca uptake by ACC+ strains to their dry weight and compared 432 433 them with similar data found in the literature for other bacteria (Table 2). As discussed by Cam et al. (2018), these values did not represent the maximum values that may be achieved by these 434 435 strains as Ca input was limited to 250 µM in these batch cultures. Yet, the cell-normalized Ca contents measured on cyanobacteria forming intracellular ACC are among the highest content 436 reported in the literature. As a comparison, more classically studied bacteria such as 437 Escherichia coli, Vibrio cholera or Acetobacter aceti contain two orders of magnitude less Ca. 438 In contrast, there are few other bacteria accumulating Ca to a high extent. For example, 439 440 Achromatium spp., a gammaproteobacterium forming intracellular calcite is to our knowledge the strongest Ca-accumulating bacterium that has been reported so far, with a Ca content of 441 65400 fmol of Ca per cell (Gray, 2006). Assuming that the mass of C represents 50% of dry 442 weight, a carbon-to-volume conversion of 0.1 pgC/µm³ for bacteria (Norland, Heldal, & Tumyr, 443

- 444 1987) and a cell volume of $3x10^4 \mu m^3$ (Gray, 2006), this equals to 436 mg of Ca per gram of
- dry matter, i.e. an order of magnitude higher than for cyanobacteria forming intracellular ACC.
- 446 *Bacillus cereus* spores also sequester high amounts of Ca on the same order of magnitude as
- 447 cyanobacteria forming intracellular ACC but with a different speciation, i.e. as Ca^{2+} -dipicolinic
- 448 acid chelates, incorporated in the spore cores (Steward, 1980).

	Turne of Ca uptake		9			
Name	organism	[HC1]mg/g of dry matter	fmol/cell	Notes	Reference	
	Archaea					
Haloferax volcanii		0.36			Novoselov et al., 2017	
Natrialba magadii		0.31			Novoselov et al., 2017	
	Bacteria					
	Actinobacteria					
Micrococcus roseus		0.08			Rouf, 1964	
Nesterenkonia lacusekhoensis	D	0.06			Novoselov et al., 2017	
	Firmicute	0.20			November et al. 2017	
Alleyclobaculus actaolerrestris		0.39			Rouf 1064	
Bacillus cereus (vegetative cetts)		0.5 28.00 to 30.00			Steward et al. 1980	
Baculus cereus (spores)	Proteobacteria	28.00 10 50.00			Steward et al., 1980	
Acetobacter aceti	Tioteobaeteria	0.07			Novoselov et al., 2017	
Achromatium spn.		436	65400	intracellular calcite	Grav. 2006	
Alcaligenes marinus		0.09			Jones, Royle, & Murray, 1979	
Escherichia coli		3.21			Novoselov et al., 2017	
		1.10			Lawford & Rousseau, 1995;	
		1.10			Demain & Solomon 1981	
		0.11			Novoselov et al., 2017	
		0.11			Novoselov et al., 2017	
		0.07			Novoselov et al., 2017	
		0.06			Novoselov et al., 2017	
		0.06			BioMagnetech Corporation, 1990	
		0.02			Rouf, 1964	
Sphaerotilus natans		0.18			Rouf, 1964	
Vibrio cholerae		0.09			Novoselov et al., 2017	
	Cyanobacteria	0.00				
Chroococcidiopsis sp. PCC 7432		8.88		intracellular ACC	This study	
Chroococcialopsis sp. PCC 7433		11.09		intracellular ACC	This study	
Chroococcidionsis sp. PCC 7434		12.55		intracellular ACC	This study	
Chrococcidionsis sp. PCC 9819		8 36		intracellular ACC	This study	
Chroococcidionsis thermalis PCC		0.50			This study	
7203		6.58		intracellular ACC	This study	
Cyanothece sp. PCC 7425		17.92	5.4	intracellular ACC	This study	
		13.00	3.9	intracellular ACC	Cam et al., 2018	
Cyanothece sp. PCC 8303		17.13		intracellular ACC	This study	
Cyanothece sp. PCC 8955		22.57		intracellular ACC	This study	
Cyanothece sp. PCC 9308		37.69		intracellular ACC	This study	
Gloeocapsa sp. PCC 7428		8.34		adsorption/ precipitation	This study	
Gloeomargarita lithophora C7		31.41	2.7	intracellular ACC	This study	
0		26.00	1.7	intracellular ACC	Cam et al., 2018	
Mastigocoleus testarum		20.00	100	calcicyte	Guida & Garcia-Pichel, 2016	
Microcystis aeruginosa Kützing		0.44			Krivtsov, Bellinger, & Sigee, 2005	
Synechococcus sp. PCC 6312		29.13		intracellular ACC	This study	
Synechococcus sp. PCC 6603		42.82		intracellular ACC	This study	
Synechococcus lividus sp. PCC 6715		25.46		intracellular ACC	This study	
Synechococcus lividus sp. PCC 6716		15.15		intracellular ACC	This study	
Synechococcus lividus sp. PCC 6717		33.99		intracellular ACC	This study	
Thermosynechococcus elongatus BP-1		15.00	4.8	intracellular ACC	Cam et al., 2018	

450 **Table 2**. Ca uptake by diverse prokaryotes compiled from the literature and our data.

Among cyanobacteria, the differentiated cells called calcicytes, observed in the 451 filamentous euendolithic cyanobacterium Mastigocoleus testarum have been measured to 452 contain 100 fmol of Ca per cell, which measured $\sim 1 \times 10^3 \,\mu\text{m}^3$ (Guida & Garcia-Pichel, 2016). 453 454 This represents 20 mg of Ca per g of dry weight, a value similar to that estimated for cyanobacteria forming intracellular ACC (Table 2). The speciation of Ca in calcicytes has not 455 been determined so far and the possibility that it is mostly contained in intracellular ACC has 456 457 not been yet explored to our knowledge. Moreover, Cam et al. (2018) noted that since some cyanobacteria forming intracellular ACC tend to decrease the extracellular concentration of 458 dissolved Ca²⁺, they may favor the dissolution of extracellular Ca-carbonates. This conclusion 459 can be generalized to all cyanobacteria forming intracellular ACC and future studies should 460 investigate their capabilities to bore into calcium carbonate crystals. 461

462 *4.4. Molecular mechanisms of high Ca sequestration*

463

Whether cyanobacteria forming intracellular ACC may share Ca-sequestering molecular pathways that are similar and possibly homologous to those of *Mastigocoleus testarum*, would be interesting to test in future studies. Since Ca uptake involves Ca transport proteins in any case, we searched genes that might be shared by the seven genomes available for the divergent strains forming intracellular ACC.

The influx (from the extracellular solution to the cytosol) of Ca is usually assumed to occur passively through channels, which show little ionic specificity for most of them (Domínguez, Guragain, & Patrauchan, 2015). Here, a mechanosensitive channel was shown to be present in all the ACC+ cyanobacteria. However, it should be noted that mechanosensitive channels can also be found in ACC- cyanobacteria, such as *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 (Nazarenko, Andreev, Lyukevich, Pisareva, & Los, 2003). Interestingly, inorganic phosphate transport systems (PitB in *E. coli*) also seem able to transfer divalent cation-HPO₄ neutral
complexes intracellularly under some conditions (van Veen, Abee, Kortstee, Konings, &
Zehnder, 1994). This could connect Ca uptake with P sequestration which results in the
formation of polyphosphate granules in some of these cyanobacteria (e.g., Cam et al., 2018;
Blondeau et al., 2018a). However, these transport systems were detected in only some of the
ACC+ cyanobacteria.

481 The out-flux of Ca is usually assumed to occur actively through transporters. Out-flux may proceed from the cytosol towards the extracellular solution or from the cytosol towards an 482 intracellular compartment as the one delimitating intracellular ACC (Blondeau et al., 2018a). 483 Here, we identified in all ACC+ cyanobacteria at least one gene coding for a Ca²⁺/H⁺ 484 transporter, and at least one gene coding for a putative calcium exchanger of the UPF0016 485 family. Again, it should be noted that Ca^{2+}/H^+ antiports and membrane proteins of the UPF0016 486 487 family have been identified in numerous other bacteria (Domínguez, Guragain, & Patrauchan, 2015). Identifying their localization, in the plasma membrane or in intracellular compartments 488 489 would help deciphering if they are involved in Ca export extracellularly or within an 490 intracellular compartment. Mansor, Hamilton, Fantle, and Macalady (2015) identified in Achromatium a Ca²⁺-ATPase and noted that they could also be found in *C. thermalis* PCC 7203, 491 Cyanothece sp. PCC 7425 and Thermosynechoccus elongatus BP-1. Here, we confirm that a 492 Ca^{2+} -ATPase is indeed present in the genomes of C. thermalis and Cvanothece sp. but it is 493 absent from the genomes of the five other ACC+ strains. Garcia-Pichel, Ramírez-Reinat, and 494 Gao (2010) also detected a Ca²⁺-ATPase in Mastigocoleus testarum, an endolithic 495 cyanobacterium but stressed that this pump extrudes Ca^{2+} outside of the cell, confirming that it 496 is not likely involved in Ca sequestration within cells. 497

498 Overall, this analysis provides some indications about possible actors involved in Ca 499 homeostasis but it should be noted that this clearly does not provide definitive clues about the 500 mechanisms involved in ACC formation since: 1) similar genes might be found in ACC-501 cyanobacteria; 2) the diverse cyanobacteria forming intracellular ACC may use different 502 biomineralization mechanisms involving different sets of genes; 3) formation of intracellular 503 ACC likely involves other processes than in- and out-fluxes of Ca. Only future genetic studies 504 targeting and deleting such candidate genes will provide definitive answers about their possible 505 role in the future.

506

507

4.5. Cause for a high Ca demand by cyanobacteria forming intracellular ACC

Calcium at a concentration of 50 µM in BG-11 was shown to be limiting for the growth 508 of Cyanothece sp. PCC 7425 and G. lithophora C7. In contrast, Ca was not limiting at this 509 concentration for the growth of Synechococcus sp. PCC 6312. Ca accumulation seems therefore 510 511 to be more essential for Cyanothece sp. PCC 7425 and G. lithophora C7 than for Synechococcus 512 sp. PCC 6312. Additional differences can be noted between Synechococcus sp. PCC 6312 and the two other ACC+ strains: while Synechococcus sp. PCC 6312 forms intracellular ACC 513 granules in connection with cell division and between the cytoplasmic membrane and the 514 outermost thylakoids, the two other strains form ACC granules in the center of the cells with 515 no apparent connection with cell division (Benzerara et al., 2014; Blondeau et al., 2018a). 516 Overall, intracellular carbonatogenesis likely follows different pathways in the clade of 517 Synechococcus sp. PCC 6312 compared to other cyanobacteria and may have different 518 519 functions. Li et al. (2016) suggested that in the clade of Synechococcus sp. PCC 6312, ACC may form by nucleating on cell division proteins such as FtsZ, which require relatively high 520 Ca²⁺ for polymerization (e.g., Yu & Margolin 1997). If true, this needed amount of Ca may still 521 522 remain relatively modest compared with the one required by other ACC+ cyanobacteria. Thereafter, we tentatively discussed potential causes for a higher demand in Ca observed for 523

Cyanothece sp. PCC 7425 and G. lithophora C7. Calcium may either be directly needed for 524 525 some biochemical processes and/or it may have a more indirect role through its involvement in the formation of intracellular ACC which themselves fill a biological function. Calcium is 526 527 notoriously essential for bacteria (e.g., Dominguez, 2004). In particular, Ca is a co-factor for cyanobacteria in the water-splitting in photosystem II complex (Debus, 1992). However, since 528 this need is shared by all cyanobacteria, it does not explain the observed higher requirement of 529 530 some of the ACC+ strains . Few studies have shown a similar need by other bacteria for relatively high Ca concentrations. For example, Webb (1988) reported that the filamentous 531 bacterium, Haliscomenobacter hydrossis, grew better at Ca concentrations ≥ 0.69 mM and 532 533 suggested that relatively high concentrations of Ca may have been needed for the formation of sheath by these bacteria. Shuttleworth and Unz (1991) showed that four strains of the 534 gammaproteobacterium Thiothrix sp. and one strain of the betaproteobacterium Zoogloea 535 536 ramigera need relatively high Ca concentrations for the formation of their sheath and mitigation of the toxicity of heavy metals present in the culture media. However, since heavy metals were 537 only at trace concentrations in BG-11 and Cyanothece sp. PCC 7425, and G. lithophora C7 are 538 not filamentous, none of these functions apply to explain the differences in Ca requirements 539 between cyanobacterial strains forming intracellular ACC. 540

Similarly, high amounts of Ca are needed by sporulating bacteria (Stewart 1980)for 541 resistance of spores to wet heat (e.g., Kochan et al., 2018). Again, there is no obvious 542 connection with the cyanobacteria studied here, since they do not sporulate. Last, calcicytes in 543 the filamentous cyanobacterium Mastigocoleus testarum also accumulate large amounts of Ca 544 545 but this accumulation in a few cells has been proposed as a way to keep Ca concentration low in the other cells, which does not apply to unicellular cyanobacteria such as the ones considered 546 547 here. Moreover, it has been suggested that the significant alkalization of the cytoplasm involved by the presence of Ca^{2+} might be detrimental to the photosynthetic capacity of these cells. 548

Overall, unless a presently unknown biochemical process requiring high amounts of Ca 549 550 exists in cyanobacteria forming intracellular ACC only, it is possible that ACC+ strains require high amounts of Ca so that they can form significant amounts of intracellular ACC, which are 551 552 beneficial to their growth. Several biological functions have been suggested for these ACC granules in cyanobacteria by Couradeau et al. (2012) or for intracellular calcite in A. oxaliferum 553 (Gray & Head, 2014): 1) they may serve as ballasts for the cells as an adaptation to a benthic 554 form of life. However, this sounds unlikely since Cyanothece sp. PCC 7425, and G. lithophora 555 556 C7 were grown in the present study as planktonic cells. 2) Intracellular Ca-carbonates may buffer intracellular pH and balance the formation of hydroxide by conversion of HCO₃⁻ to CO₂ 557 upon carbon fixation. 3) Alternatively, they may serve as a storage form of inorganic carbon 558 available to the cells upon C-limited periods. Only future genetics studies providing mutants 559 impeded in their capability to form Ca-carbonates may help answering this question. Culturing 560 561 under C-limited conditions coupled with measurements of calcium carbonate dissolution may be helpful too. 562

Whatever their cause, the observed differences in Ca requirement for growth between 563 cyanobacterial strains call for special care when attempting to culture and/or enrich these strains 564 from the environment. The BG-11 medium has proved to be a particularly useful generic growth 565 medium to culture a broad diversity of cyanobacterial strains (Rippka, Deruelles, Waterbury, 566 Herdman, & Stanier, 1979). Here, it is confirmed that 250 µM as a standard Ca concentration 567 provides a good compromise, allowing significant growth of strains forming intracellular 568 CaCO₃ and not being detrimental to strains not forming intracellular CaCO₃. However, for 569 enrichment cultures, which are performed over extended durations, strains not limited by Ca²⁺ 570 may be favored over time if Ca^{2+} has been consumed by those forming intracellular CaCO₃. 571 572 The use of BG-11 alone may therefore hinder the enrichment of the latter. Interestingly, it can be noted that G. lithophora was successfully enriched by adding fragments of rocks containing 573

574 Ca-carbonates, which likely buffered the dissolved $[Ca^{2+}]$ by constant Ca^{2+} input over 575 prolonged periods (Couradeau et al., 2012). Therefore, this strategy should be useful for future 576 studies aiming at enriching ACC+ cyanobacteria.

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578

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830 Table S1. List of the studied cyanobacterial strains together with the main chemical data measured831 after their incubation in BG11.

Strains	Species	Final dissolved [Ca] (µM)	Uptake [Ca] (µM)	Dry weight (g/L)(± 1µg)	Final pH (± 0.01)	Incubation time (days)	Presence of intracellular ACC (yes/no)
C7	Gloeomargarita lithophora	6.3 ± 0.1	274.3	0.35	9.50	60	Yes
PCC 6301	Synechococcus elongatus	231.1 ± 1.6	49.6	0.49	10.56	40	No
PCC 6304	Oscillatoria sp.	209.6 ± 1.6	71.0	0.08	9.73	40	No
PCC 6306	Leptolyngbya sp.	257.2 ± 2.0	23.4	0.44	10.35	40	No
PCC 6307	Cyanobium gracile	217.5 ± 3.7	63.2	0.20	9.83	40	No
PCC 6308	Geminocystis herdmanii	229.0 ± 1.6	51.7	0.50	11.07	40	No
PCC 6312	Synechococcus sp.	29.9 ± 0.1	250.8	0.35	9.92	60	Yes
PCC 6506	Kamptonema sp.	257.3 ± 2.0	23.3	0.63	10.57	40	No
PCC 6603	Synechococcus sp.	12.7 ± 0.1	268.0	0.26	10.52	61	Yes
PCC 6605	Chamaesiphon minutus	207.3 ± 2.0	73.4	0.54	9.40	40	No
PCC 6712	Chroococcidiopsis sp.	210.9 ± 1.9	69.8	0.70	10.03	40	No
PCC 6715	Synechococcus lividus	7.4 ± 0.1	273.2	0.43	9.00	61	Yes
PCC 6716	Synechococcus lividus	40.6 ± 0.1	240.0	0.64	9.22	61	Yes
PCC 6717	Synechococcus lividus	77.1 ± 0.1	203.6	0.24	8.90	61	Yes
PCC 6802	Pseudanabaena sp.	237.6 ± 1.1	43.1	0.50	7.96	40	No
PCC 6803	Synechocystis sp.	203.0 ± 1.8	77.7	0.52	10.05	60	No
PCC 6903	Pseudanabaena sp.	240.4 ± 1.4	40.2	0.33	10.47	54	No
PCC 7103	Calothrix sp.	219.9 ± 3.3	60.8	0.88	10.42	47	No
PCC 7104	Leptolyngbya sp.	232.1 ± 3.4	48.6	1.03	10.70	40	No
PCC 7107	Nostoc sp.	240.0 ± 3.6	40.6	0.42	10.17	47	No
PCC 7113	Microcoleus sp.	267.2 ± 3.2	13.5	0.68	9.36	47	No
PCC 7120	Nostoc sp.	240.4 ± 2.9	40.3	0.41	9.71	47	No
PCC 7122	Anabaena aequalis	250.7 ± 2.6	29.9	0.40	9.14	54	No
PCC 7203	Chroococcidiopsis thermalis	112.5 ± 0.7	168.2	1.03	9.99	61	Yes
PCC 7327	Pleurocapsa sp.	249.5 ± 1.9	31.2	0.39	9.21	54	No
PCC 7407	Geitlerinema sp.	245.3 ± 1.7	35.3	0.09	8.95	54	No

PCC 7408	Pseudanabaena catenata	297.8 ± 0.7	0.0	1.19	10.04	54	No
PCC 7417	Cylindrospermum stagnale	250.5 ± 1.0	30.1	1.26	9.71	40	No
PCC 7424	Cyanothece sp.	214.6 ± 1.3	66.0	0.56	9.77	54	No
PCC 7425	Cyanothece sp.	28.1 ± 0.1	252.6	0.57	9.37	60	Yes
PCC 7428	Gloeocapsa sp.	173.4 ± 0.8	107.2	0.52	9.48	54	No
PCC 7429	Pseudanabaena sp.	241.4 ± 1.7	39.2	0.30	10.07	54	No
PCC 7432	Chroococcidiopsis sp.	42.6 ± 0.1	238.1	1.08	10.25	61	Yes
PCC 7433	Chroococcidiopsis sp.	59.3 ± 0.3	221.4	0.80	10.25	61	Yes
PCC 7434	Chroococcidiopsis sp.	50.4 ± 0.2	230.2	0.74	10.2	61	Yes
PCC 7437	Stanieria cyanosphaera	239.5 ± 1.3	41.2	0.82	9.51	54	No
PCC 7439	Chroococcidiopsis sp.	106.3 ± 0.8	174.3	0.63	9.95	61	Yes
PCC 7507	Calothrix	270.5 ± 5.0	10.1	1.17	9.99	54	No
PCC 7509	Synechocystis sp.	261.0 ± 1.4	19.6	0.36	9.92	54	No
PCC 7524	Nostoc sp.	227.0 ± 0.7	53.6	0.72	9.41	40	No
PCC 7942	Synechococcus elongatus	305.9 ± 1.0	0.0	0.67	9.83	40	No
PCC 8303	Cyanothece sp.	116.1 ± 0.8	164.5	0.39	10.7	61	Yes
PCC 8801	Cyanothece sp.	264.7 ± 0.9	15.9	0.40	9.79	47	No
PCC 8955	Cyanothece sp.	61.0 ± 0.2	219.7	0.39	8.73	61	Yes
PCC 9009	Tolypothrix sp.	253.9 ± 2.0	26.7	0.26	10.14	47	No
PCC 9308	Cyanothece sp.	12.6 ± 0.1	268.0	0.29	8.74	61	Yes
PCC 9431	Fischerella sp.	233.9 ± 0.6	46.8	1.19	9.01	47	No
PCC 9819	Chroococcidiopsis sp.	39.7 ± 0.1	240.9	1.16	9.35	61	Yes
PCC 10605	Cyanobacterium aponinum	252.5 ± 1.8	28.2	0.43	9.48	47	No
PCC 10802	Oscillatoria princeps	254.2 ± 2.2	26.5	4.24	10.08	47	No
PCC 73102	Nostoc punctiforme	263.4 ± 0.6	17.2	0.34	9.59	47	No
PCC 73106	Gloeocapsa sp.	256.7 ± 2.1	24.0	0.20	8.88	47	No





Figure S1. PhyML phylogenetic tree of the 52 tested strains based on the 16S rRNA gene. Nodes
supported at 70% or more are indicated by a black dot. The ACC+ strains are outlined by a red square
for granules scattered throughout the cells and a blue square for cells with granules located at cell poles
and septa. The ACC+ strains described by Benzerara et al. (2014) are highlighted in bold.





Figure S2. STEM-EDXS analyses of the ACC+ *Cyanothece* sp. PCC 9308 and the ACC-*Synechococcus elongatus* PCC 6301 strains grown in BG-11. (A) STEM-EDXS map of a cell of *Cyanothece* sp. PCC 9308. (B) STEM-EDXS map of a cell of *Synechococcus elongatus* PCC 6301. (C)
EDXS spectrum of the PolyP inclusion of *Cyanothece* sp. PCC 9308 outlined by a white circle in (A).
(D) EDXS spectrum of the PolyP inclusion of *Synechococcus elongatus* PCC 6301 outlined by a white
circle in (B). For all EDXS maps, calcium is in green, phosphorus in red and carbon in blue. As a result,
Ca-carbonates appear in green and PolyP granules in red.





Figure S3. STEM analyses of *Gloeocapsa* sp. PCC 7428 cells grown in BG-11. (A) STEM-HAADF
 image. (B) STEM-EDXS maps of phosphorus. (C) STEM-EDXS map of sulfur. (D) STEM-EDXS map

- 863 of calcium. (E) EDXS spectrum of the cell wall of the cells. The scale bar represents $2 \,\mu m$.



Figure S4. Calcium uptake (obtained by subtracting the dissolved Ca concentration left after cell
incubation from the initial dissolved Ca concentration in the culture medium) vs pH for the 52
cyanobacterial strains. In red: strains producing intracellular ACC; in black: strains not forming
intracellular ACC.



Figure S5. Calcium uptake (obtained by subtracting the dissolved Ca concentration left after cell incubation from the initial dissolved Ca concentration in the culture medium) vs dry mass for the 52
cyanobacterial strains of cyanobacterial. In red: strains producing intracellular ACC; in black: strains
not forming intracellular ACC.



Figure S6. Final dissolved calcium concentration for cultures grown in sterile BG-11 after 40 (green)
and 60 (blue) days of incubation. Strains forming intracellular ACC (*G. lithophora, Synechococcus* sp.
PCC 6312, *Cyanothece* sp. PCC 7425) are indicated in red, and strains without ACC (*Synechococcus* elongatus PCC 7942, *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803) are indicated in black. Error bars were calculated
based on the precision of ICP-AES measurements.



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Figure S7. Time variations of pH in cultures with an initial Ca concentration of 50 μM (closed symbols)
and 250 μM (open symbols). (A) *G. lithophora* C7; (B): *Cyanothece* sp. PCC 7425; (C): *Synechococcus*sp. PCC 6312; (D): *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803; (E): *Synechococcus elongatus* PCC 7942. Error bars
represent standard deviations calculated based on variations between duplicates.



Figure S8. Time evolution of pH measured in subcultures first grown in BG-11 with 50 µM of Ca, then
supplemented (open symbols) or not (closed symbols) with 200 µM of Ca. Addition of 200 µM of Ca
was done at t=0. (A) *G. lithophora* C7; (B) *Cyanothece* sp. PCC 7425; (C) *Synechococcus* sp. PCC
6312; (D) *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803; (E) *Synechococcus elongatus* PCC 7942. Error bars represent
standard deviations calculated based on variations between duplicates.