

rectly contribute to and support primary production [2–4], exerting a direct coupling of the biogeochemical cycles of N and C [5,6].

One of the most intensively studied organismal models of unicellular cyanobacteria is *Cyanothece* sp. ATCC 51142 (hereafter *Cyanothece*), which also has a capability to fix dinitrogen (N_2) [7] to survive when bioavailable N, such as NH_4^+ or NO_3^- , is inaccessible. As in other photo-autotrophic, unicellular N_2 -fixing cyanobacteria (UCYN-B and -C), N_2 fixation in *Cyanothece* is temporally segregated from carbon fixation [8–10], an evolution enabling protection of the O_2 -sensitive, nitrogenase enzyme responsible for N_2 fixation [11]. Recent studies show that N_2 fixation by UCYN-B is facilitated by the inactivation of PSII [12,13], which may apply to *Cyanothece*. There are cases with in-complete temporal segregation depending on the light periodicity and cellular energy requirements, but the largest part of N_2 fixation tends to occur at night [9,14]. The temporal separation of photosynthesis and N_2 fixation imposes these strains to rely on fixed carbon stored within cells as polysaccharides and on their subsequent respiration, which support the energy costs of N_2 fixation. *Cyanothece* is not an obligate N_2 -fixer and grows well in the presence of bioavailable N, making it a relevant biological model of photo-autotrophic UCYN to investigate the cellular requirements imposed by N_2 fixation on the cellular carbon metabolism, in comparison to nitrate-supported growth. The cellular growth of *Cyanothece* and its resulting population dynamics thus closely depend on the metabolic pathways of photosynthesis, respiration, NO_3^- acquisition, and/or N_2 fixation. Similar to other phytoplankton, the growth of autotrophic cyanobacteria is limited by the availability of macronutrients (nitrogen and phosphorus), trace metals (iron, copper) [15,16], light, and temperature [17]. However, the effect of CO_2 on their growth has only been started to be investigated intensively [10].

The effects of increasing CO_2 on primary production are widely debated in the literature and motivated by the growing concern of ocean acidification [18–22]. Low DIC concentrations are likely to transiently occur [23] in areas with dense phytoplanktonic communities like the coastal regions, where *Cyanothece* are naturally present. Additionally, such low concentrations pose a potential, permanent risk in dense laboratory or industrial cultures and

photo-bioreactors running without CO_2 enrichment in the air supply. In the natural environment, we expect CO_2 limitation to be altered following the increasing temperatures the world ocean is facing globally, but how dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC: the sum of CO_2 , HCO_3^- and CO_3^{2-}) affects the growth of *Cyanothece* has not been analyzed in detail. Given the tight links between C and N metabolisms, what causes the growth difference between N_2 -fixing and NO_3^- assimilating conditions under DIC limitation [10]?

Here, we implement a simple, yet mechanistic model of *Cyanothece* (Cell Flux Model of *Cyanothece*: CFM-Cyano) and quantitatively simulate the growth of this model organism, focusing on the control that DIC exerts on carbon fixation and on the subsequent C metabolism (Fig. 1: see Methods). This coarse-grained approach has an advantage in predicting concentrations of each metabolite pool [24,25]. The flexibility and simplicity of CFM-Cyano allows the model to be adapted to different contexts (e.g., different datasets) and has provided intuitive overviews of cellular metabolism in unicellular N_2 -fixers [25–28]. The present modeling work builds upon an experimental study of DIC limitation in the UCYN *Cyanothece* ATCC 51142 grown in turbidostats, both under a non-limiting nitrate supply and under obligate N_2 -fixation [10]. This experimental approach addressed the additional energetic burden that cells face when growing with N_2 fixation compared to a NO_3^- -based growth. They also revealed how DIC limitation exerts a more severe control on N_2 -based growth compared with NO_3^- -supplied cultures. In this study, we provide a simple, mechanistic and quantitative representation of DIC limitation. Model results illustrate that resultant growth rates differ significantly between these metabolic modes, in relation to the intracellular allocation of fixed C.

2. Methods

2.1. Key equations

The applied mechanistic model, CFM-Cyano, is based on a simplified metabolic flux network based on mass balances (Fig. 1) sim-

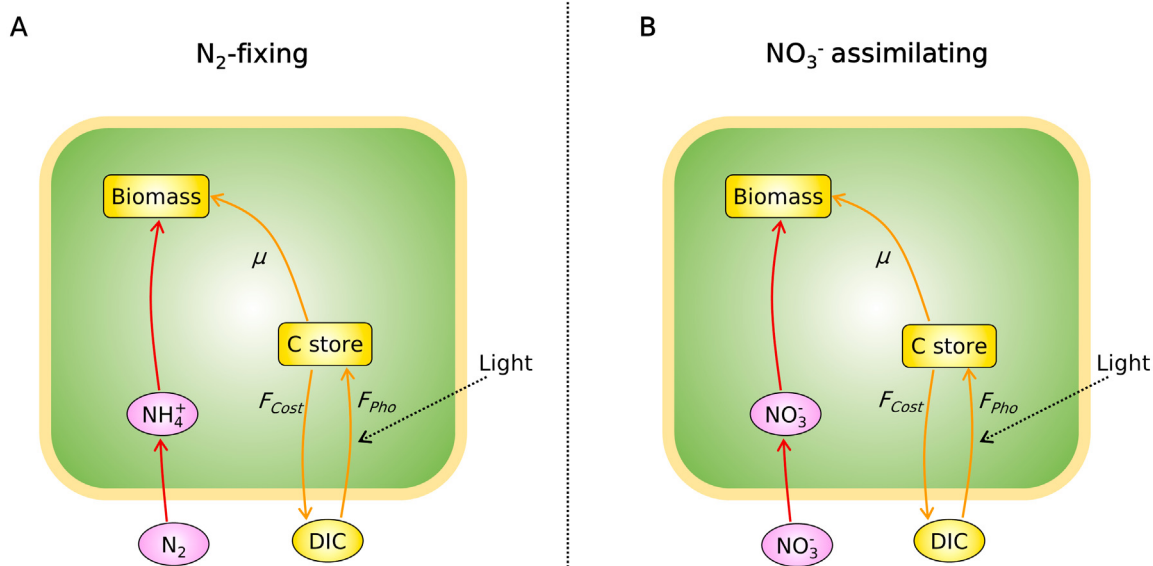


Fig. 1. Schematics of the cell flux model of *Cyanothece* (CFM-Cyano) in (A) N_2 -fixing cells and in (B) NO_3^- assimilating cells. The green boxes represent the cell. Ovals and rectangular boxes represent inorganic and organic molecules, respectively. Orange color represents C-dominant molecules and fluxes; while pink and red color represent N-dominant molecules and fluxes, respectively. F_{Pho} , C fixation rate; F_{Cost} , biosynthesis cost, which covers the electron and energy costs for biosynthesis, N_2 fixation and NO_3^- assimilation, thus differs between these two cases. See the definition in the main text below [eq. (7)].

ilar to previous CFMs [24,29,30] and earlier modeling on marine N_2 fixers [31–33]. Most of these studies are reviewed in a recent publication [6]. CFM-Cyano simulated two metabolic scenarios: 1. N_2 -fixing (diazotrophic) and 2. NO_3^- assimilating. Under the N_2 -fixing condition, N_2 fixation accounted for the total N source, whereas under NO_3^- assimilating condition, NO_3^- was the total N source. Parameter units and values are listed in Supplementary Material (Table S1, S2). In the CFM-Cyano model, we considered C as the main “currency” of cellular growth, and computed the rates of photosynthesis, C storage production, and growth (biosynthesis) for each time step. The developed model was calibrated to reproduce the experimental data (Fig. 2, Fig. 3 and Fig. 6).

Cellular C is fixed by photosynthesis, whose rate depends on external DIC concentration, following Monod kinetics [34]:

$$F_{Pho} = F_{Pho}^{max} \left(\frac{[DIC]}{[DIC] + K_{DIC}} \right) \quad (1)$$

where F_{Pho} is the rate of photosynthesis, F_{Pho}^{max} is the maximum rate of photosynthesis, $[DIC]$ is DIC concentration in the culture, and K_{DIC} is the half saturation constant of DIC uptake. F_{Pho} was assumed zero during the night. While the intracellular CO_2 concentration is the one that directly affects the rate of photosynthesis, the data for intracellular CO_2 are not available and here we consider external DIC as a proxy for intracellular CO_2 . This implicitly assumes a linear relationship between internal and external pools of DIC. More complex relationships could arise from the presence of a carbon concentrating mechanism, and could be easily be incorporated in the model if substantiated by more direct evidence.

Once we determined the rate of photosynthesis, we then computed the net rate of C storage production, F_{Csto} , based on the difference between maximum C storage capacity, C_{Sto}^{max} , and the current level of C storage, C_{Sto} , into starch-like molecules [35]:

$$F_{Csto} = \min \left\{ F_{Csto}^{max} \left(\frac{C_{Sto}^{max} - C_{Sto}}{C_{Sto}^{max}} \right), F_{Pho} \right\} \quad (2)$$

where the rate is proportional to F_{Csto}^{max} , a maximum rate of C storage production. We adapted this formation from the Cell Flux Model of *Crocospaera* (CFM-Croco) [30]. Since the storage production should not exceed the rate of photosynthesis, F_{Csto} was capped by F_{Pho} . Based on the mass balance, the rest of fixed C is used for growth. Thus, under N_2 fixing case:

$$\mu = \frac{F_{Pho} - F_{Csto}}{1 + E} \quad (3)$$

where μ is the net growth rate, and E is a constant factor for respiration for providing energy for biosynthesis [25,26,29]. In reality, it is possible that stored C is used for the growth. Thus, the term F_{Csto} instead represented the net C storage production: the difference between gross C storage production and the loss for the growth. Under NO_3^- assimilating case:

$$\mu = \frac{F_{Pho} - F_{Csto}(1 + E)}{1 + E - C_{Sto}E} \quad (4)$$

This formula counts the cost for NO_3^- assimilation, to keep the cellular C:N constant as suggested by experimental data (see the section “3.4. Cellular C:N and N assimilation”). The derivations for [eq. (3)] and [eq. (4)] are in Supplementary text.

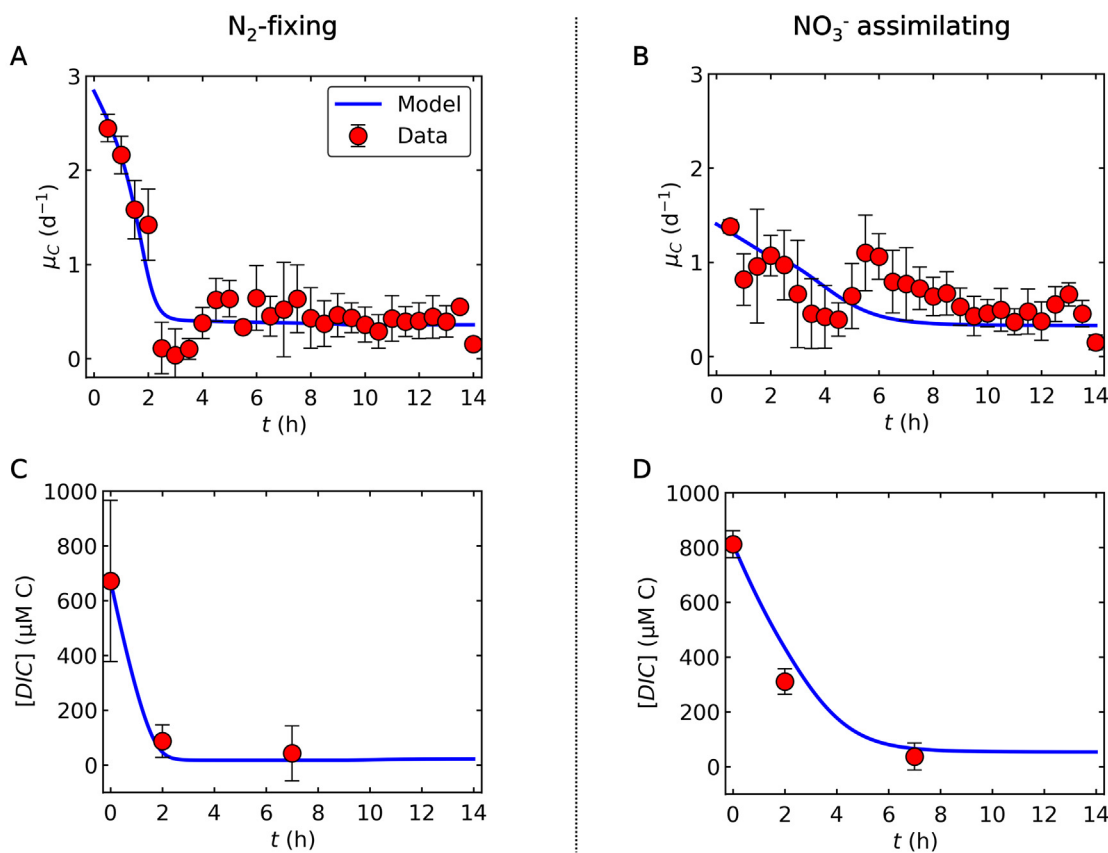


Fig. 2. Relations between C-based growth rate and DIC (dissolved inorganic carbon) concentrations during the light period. (A) and (B) C-based growth rate (μ_C) for N_2 -fixing and NO_3^- assimilating cells, respectively. (C) and (D) DIC concentrations for N_2 -fixing and NO_3^- assimilating cells, respectively. Blue curves are the results of model calculations, while red circles represent experimental data, deduced from growth rates determined by changes in OD_{720} . Error bars represent standard deviation. The constancy of the DIC after h7 during the light period is supported by the observed constant pH [10].

In this study, we simulated two types of *Cyanotheca* cells: N₂-fixing and non-N₂-fixing (Fig. 1). We provided different E values for the different N sources. Specifically, we followed the previously developed method, which computed E based on the mass, electron and energy balance [36]. Under NO₃⁻ added case, NO₃⁻ concentrations were abundant in the cultures (NO₃⁻ culture; 16.16–22.67 mM), allowing us to focus on the C limitation. When NO₃⁻ is not added, we assumed that there is sufficient N storage accumulated during the night to support biosynthesis. Since the data showed a decrease in biomass during the night, we allowed net cell growth only during the light periods ($\mu = 0$ at night), although we were aware that cell division may occur also in the dark. We considered any excretion of carbohydrates as a part of carbon storage.

2.2. Time variations and model solutions

We then applied these four equations [eq. (1)]–[eq. (4)] to equations for the time variation in the experimental system of turbidostat cultures [10]. Here, the time variation of the non-C-storage biomass concentration X increase based on the net growth rate [24]:

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = \mu X \quad (5)$$

here, the loss term was not included since we compared the model results to the cumulative optical density. We use the following equation for the time dependence of cellular C storage per non-C-storage biomass C_{Sto} :

$$\frac{dC_{Sto}}{dt} = F_{C_{Sto}} - \mu C_{Sto} - F_{C_{Sto}}^{N_2fix} \quad (6)$$

where C_{Sto} increases with C storage production, $F_{C_{Sto}}$, but decreases with cell growth (μC_{Sto}), as C_{Sto} is converted to new cells during the light period. Also, during the dark period under N₂-fixing conditions, C_{Sto} decreases with N₂ fixation $F_{C_{Sto}}^{N_2fix}$, which requires high consumption of C storage for intracellular O₂ management and ATP generation [26,29,30,33]. Under the NO₃⁻ based condition, $F_{C_{Sto}}^{N_2fix}$ is zero. Finally, the time dependence of culture DIC is represented as follows:

$$\frac{d[DIC]}{dt} = F_{DIC}^{Gas} - k_{DIC}^{Cell} (F_{Pho} - F_{Cost} - F_{C_{Sto}}^{N_2fix}) \quad (7)$$

which is determined by the rate of gas exchange F_{DIC}^{Gas} and the cellular DIC uptake (the second term). Here, F_{DIC}^{Gas} , is proportional to the DIC disequilibrium with a rate coefficient k_{DIC}^{Gas} : $F_{DIC}^{Gas} = ([DIC]_{Eq} - [DIC]) k_{DIC}^{Gas}$. $[DIC]_{Eq}$ is the equilibrium concentration of DIC in the environment, k_{DIC}^{Gas} is the gas exchange constant, and k_{DIC}^{Cell} is a constant factor for cellular DIC consumption, as a balance between photosynthesis, F_{Pho} , respiratory C cost, F_{Cost} ($= \mu E$ for N₂-based case, and $= E(F_{C_{Sto}} - \mu C_{Sto} + \mu)$ for NO₃⁻-based case: see Supplementary text), and C consumption for N₂ fixation during the dark period, $F_{C_{Sto}}^{N_2fix}$.

We solved [eq. (5)]–[eq. (7)] with a finite difference method with F_{Pho} , $F_{C_{Sto}}$ and μ computed for each time step from [eq. (1)]–[eq. (4)] with light:dark periods of 14 h:10 h, following the turbidostat experiment described in the companion paper [10]. We note that whereas a more detailed representation of C chemistry could be resolved [37], we chose to represent DIC as a pool for compatibility with the available data. Also, this way enabled us to keep our model simple with regard to extracellular carbonate chemistry and focus on a more detailed representation of intracellular carbon allocation over time. We assumed that influences of DIC speciation are relatively small compared to the large overall changes in DIC concentrations observed over the diel cycle.

Once we obtained the solutions for the time series, we computed cellular C content:

$$[C_{Cell}] = X(1 + C_{Sto}) \quad (8)$$

the relative value of which was compared with the values for optical density (OD₇₂₀). We also computed the C-based growth rate μ_C :

$$\mu_C = \frac{\mu + F_{C_{Sto}}}{1 + C_{Sto}} \quad (9)$$

μ_C is formulated based on the net carbon assimilation rate normalized by the cellular C. μ_C was compared with the growth rate obtained from photobioreactor data, based on the change in the cumulative OD₇₂₀ [10] (Fig. 3).

2.3. Obtaining N related values for N₂ fixing case during the light period

During the light period under the N₂-fixing condition, the rate of N₂ fixation is small and the predicted integrated rate of biosynthesis is relatively small compared to that of C storage accumulation (Fig. 5). Thus, we approximate the cellular C:N, assuming a constant N_{Cell} , the cellular N content per non-C-storage biomass C:

$$C : N = \frac{1 + C_{Sto}}{N_{Cell}} \quad (10)$$

2.4. Obtaining N related values for NO₃⁻ added case during the light period

During the light period, the data showed largely constant cellular C:N (see below). Thus, we assumed constant cellular C:N. This allowed the computation of N_{Cell} with the following equations:

$$N_{Cell} = \frac{1 + C_{Sto}}{C : N} \quad (11)$$

Also using $C : N$, assuming all the N source is NO₃⁻, we could compute the NO₃⁻ uptake rate V_{NO_3} :

$$V_{NO_3} = \frac{\mu_C}{C : N} \quad (12)$$

2.5. Laboratory measurements

We tested model solutions and constrained its unknown using time-dependent observations of the variation of intracellular C and N content, obtained during GAP 10th International meeting [10,38]. Transmission electron microscopic (TEM) samples were processed as described in [38].

3. Results and discussion

3.1. C assimilation rate and DIC

The overall trend captures the data for both μ_C (C assimilation rate) and DIC concentrations (Fig. 2). Under the N₂-fixing condition, the model predicted a sharp decrease in μ_C within ~ 2 h (Fig. 2A), as DIC became depleted (Fig. 2C). In between these phases, experimental data showed a minimum, virtually zero growth after about 3 h in the light (h3), which was not captured by the model (Fig. 2A, B). This drop in μ_C may indicate a lag phase [39–41] during which cells acclimate to a changed environment with low DIC by upregulating the activity of their CO₂ concentration mechanisms, such as expression and synthesis of CO₂ uptake systems and HCO₃⁻ transporters [42–48]. This observation highlights that DIC may become a limiting factor for growth even when

CO₂ is supplied by air bubbling. In natural systems, severe DIC draw-down, comparable to our experimental set-up, may develop in freshwater systems with dense cyanobacterial blooms with predicted steady-state DIC concentrations of 130 to 230 μmol L⁻¹ [37], in coastal regions [23], or within highly productive microenvironments such as cyanobacterial colonies in brackish water [49].

Under growth with NO₃⁻, the initial growth rate was much lower than with N₂-fixation. However, it remained relatively high after h2 until h6-h7 compared to N₂-fixing culture (Fig. 2B). This concurred with a relatively high DIC level during this period (Fig. 2D). Experimental data for NO₃⁻ assimilating cells also exhibited a significant drop in μ_C, not seen in the model curve, likely due to the energy demand of acclimation (e.g., introduction of carbon concentration mechanism) as suggested above. The major difference between the two growth regimes (N₂ vs. NO₃⁻) is the initial rate of photosynthesis, which is highlighted by a higher F_{Pho}^{max} for the N₂-fixing condition. This difference can be explained by the energy and electron cost for NO₃⁻ assimilation and intracellular C allocation (see 3.3. Fate of fixed C).

3.2. Carbon storage and cellular C concentration

Model simulations of C_{Sto} and [C_{Cell}] (Fig. 3) were comparable to cellular polysaccharide levels and OD₇₂₀, respectively, from cultures. The data-model consistency (Fig. 3) suggests that most of the C storage is in the form of polysaccharides, while OD₇₂₀ is a proxy for total cellular C content rather than cell number. During

the dark period under N₂-fixing conditions, OD₇₂₀ decreased drastically (Fig. 3C), reflecting the drop in polysaccharide content (Fig. 3A). At the beginning of the light period, C_{Sto} increased rapidly but the increase was moderated as the rate of photosynthesis decreased due to DIC limitation (Fig. 2C, 3A). The cellular level of C_{Sto} was higher for the N₂-fixing condition than for the NO₃⁻ supplementing treatment during the light period (Fig. 3A, B). However, the model predicts that C_{Sto} in both treatments reaches the similar level at the end of the dark period due to the high C requirement for N₂ fixation and O₂ management.

Interestingly, whilst the model closely predicted the OD₇₂₀ and the total biomass C concentration, at the end of the dark period, C_{Sto} must return back to the initial value in the semi-steady state condition. This discrepancy may suggest that some of the C stored as polysaccharides is transformed to other molecules during the dark period. It is possible that a fraction of polysaccharides is used for synthesizing cyanophycin (N storing molecules with C:N of 2:1 [25]) or amino acids [38] or used to build structural elements such as the cell wall. In fact, protein synthesis from polysaccharides was observed during the night [38]. Such conversion must take place with negligible C consumption (i.e., small C storage loss to DIC) because the dark OD₇₂₀ under NO₃⁻ availability is almost constant (Fig. 3D); high C loss would have appeared as in the N₂-fixing situation (Fig. 3C).

Transmission electron microscopic (TEM) images taken at the beginning of the light period (thus, the end of the dark period) (Fig. 4, S1) showed more polysaccharide granules in N₂-fixing cells

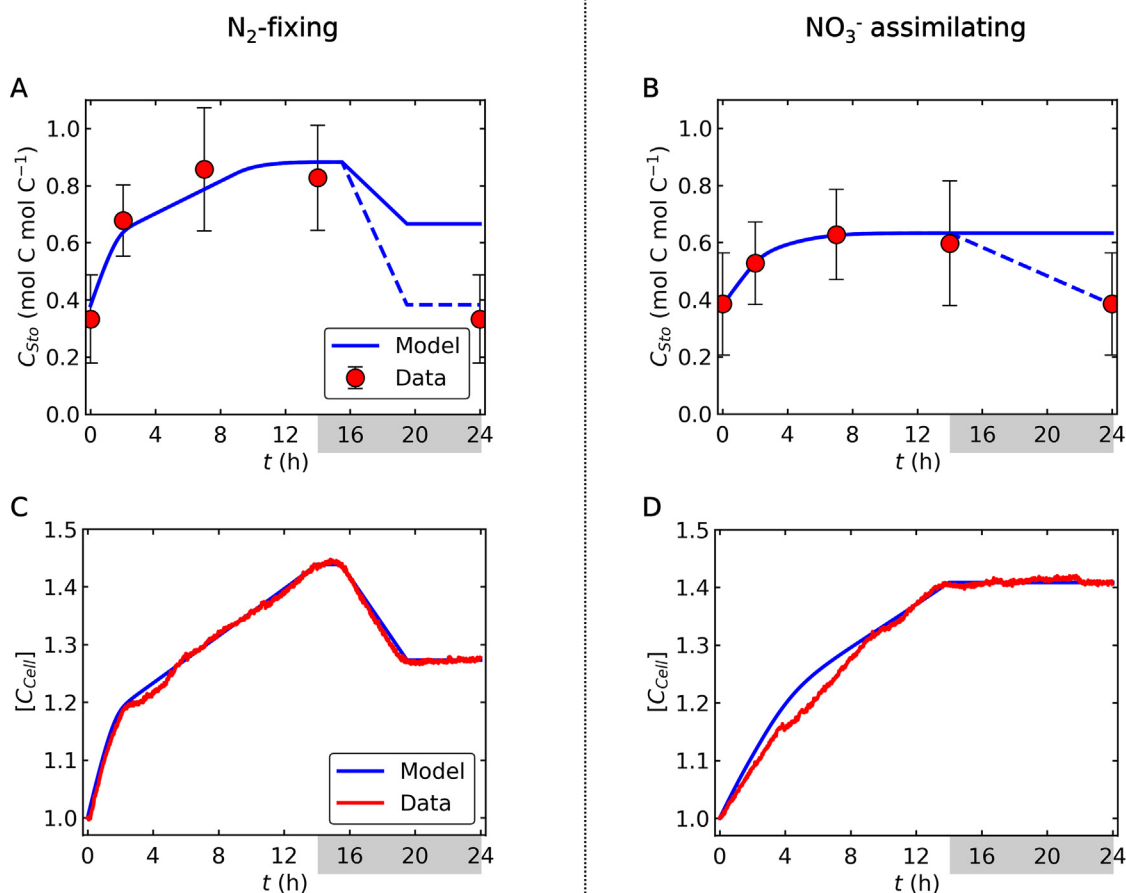


Fig. 3. C storage and biomass C in N₂-fixing and NO₃⁻ assimilating cells. Blue curves are model results, while red circles and curves represent experimental data. The data for (A) and (B) are cellular polysaccharide content and those for (C) and (D) are OD₇₂₀. The data of OD₇₂₀ are shown as a relative value to the initial state. The sudden change in the slope at h14 represent the onset of the dark period. Also, N₂ fixation is assumed between h14 and h20, which also causes the changes in the slope. In (A) and (B) error bars represent standard deviation and dashed lines shows the expected effect of C storage conversion to close the diurnal cycle.

than in the NO_3^- grown ones, in contrast to bulk measurements of carbohydrate, OD_{720} , and the modelled C_{Sto} (Fig. 3). This additional difference suggests that C, represented by C_{Sto} and detected by the bulk analysis of carbohydrate content, includes C forms that are not visible as polysaccharide granules by TEM. The other forms of C could possibly be precursors of starches/carbohydrates of lower molecular weight [50]. Following this hypothesis, under NO_3^- -based conditions, more of the C would be present in this lower molecular weight form in the morning, potentially indicating a faster turnover of C under these conditions. Conversely, in the middle of the light phase (h7, Fig. 4, S1), TEM images show an increased number of polysaccharide granules in NO_3^- assimilating cells, while bulk analysis of carbohydrate and modelled C_{Sto} are higher in N_2 fixing cells, indicating that degradation or turnover of carbon may be higher in N_2 fixers at this time of day.

3.3. Fate of fixed C

The fate of fixed C is predicted to differ between the N_2 -fixing and NO_3^- assimilating conditions (Fig. 5). Under N_2 -fixing condition, a significant fraction of C is initially channeled into C storage, leaving only a small fraction of newly fixed C for biosynthesis (cellular growth) (Fig. 5A). For non- N_2 -fixing cyanobacteria, it has been previously reported that biosynthesis is prioritized over C storage [38]. In contrast, our model suggests that N_2 -fixing unicellular cyanobacteria preferentially allocate fixed C to storage to support later N_2 fixation through respiration at night. Indeed, during the early half of the light period, the model predicted that within the N_2 -fixing cells virtually all newly fixed C is accumulated in storage, while new C is allocated to biosynthesis only after the C storage reaches a certain threshold level at around h9 (Fig. 3A and Fig. 5A).

Contrary to the N_2 -fixing condition, when NO_3^- is available, biosynthesis starts soon after the onset of the light period and continues up to the end of the light period (Fig. 5B). This occurs because the maximum level of C_{Sto} is small and reaches its maximum much faster during the early light period (Fig. 3B), costing

a significant amount of C. In the experiment, the total C fixation during the light period is similar between the two cases. However, given the high maximum rate of net C fixation under the N_2 -fixing conditions, if enough CO_2 were continuously added to the culture to prevent DIC limitation, the rate of C fixation in the N_2 -fixing case might exceed the NO_3^- assimilating case (Fig. S2). However, this simulation does not consider limitation by the availability of fixed N, which, in reality, would likely become limited under the N_2 -fixing case and constrain the rate of C fixation, since the N_2 fixation occurs mainly during the night.

3.4. Cellular C:N ratios and N assimilation

Based on the modeled C metabolisms and C:N data, we have simulated cellular C:N and cellular N per biomass C (without C storage) for both the N_2 fixing case and the NO_3^- added case (Fig. 6). The data and the model revealed quantitative differences in daytime N metabolisms between these two cases. In the N_2 fixing case, C:N of the cell increases (Fig. 6A) due to the accumulation of C storage (Fig. 3A). The cellular level of N is largely constant since N_2 fixation does not occur (or is small) during the light period (Fig. 6B).

On the other hand, when NO_3^- is added, the cellular C:N is largely constant (Fig. 6C) since the NO_3^- uptake occurs simultaneously with the accumulation of C storage. Especially, during the early light period, the cellular N is enriched (Fig. 6D) due to NO_3^- uptake (Fig. 6E). The model shows that the NO_3^- uptake is about 200% larger during the early light period than the later light period, consistent with NanoSIMS results from the same experiment [38].

Based on the rate of NO_3^- uptake and C fixation, we computed the ratio of electron use for these purposes (Fig. 6F). Despite the considerable rate of NO_3^- uptake and high electron requirement for NO_3^- reduction ($8e^-$) relative to net C fixation ($4e^-$) [36], the electron consumption for NO_3^- is relatively small ($\sim 1/2.57$) (Fig. 6F). Thus, the use of electrons for NO_3^- reduction is not sufficient to explain the difference in the rate of photosynthesis between the N_2 fixing case and the NO_3^- case during the light per-

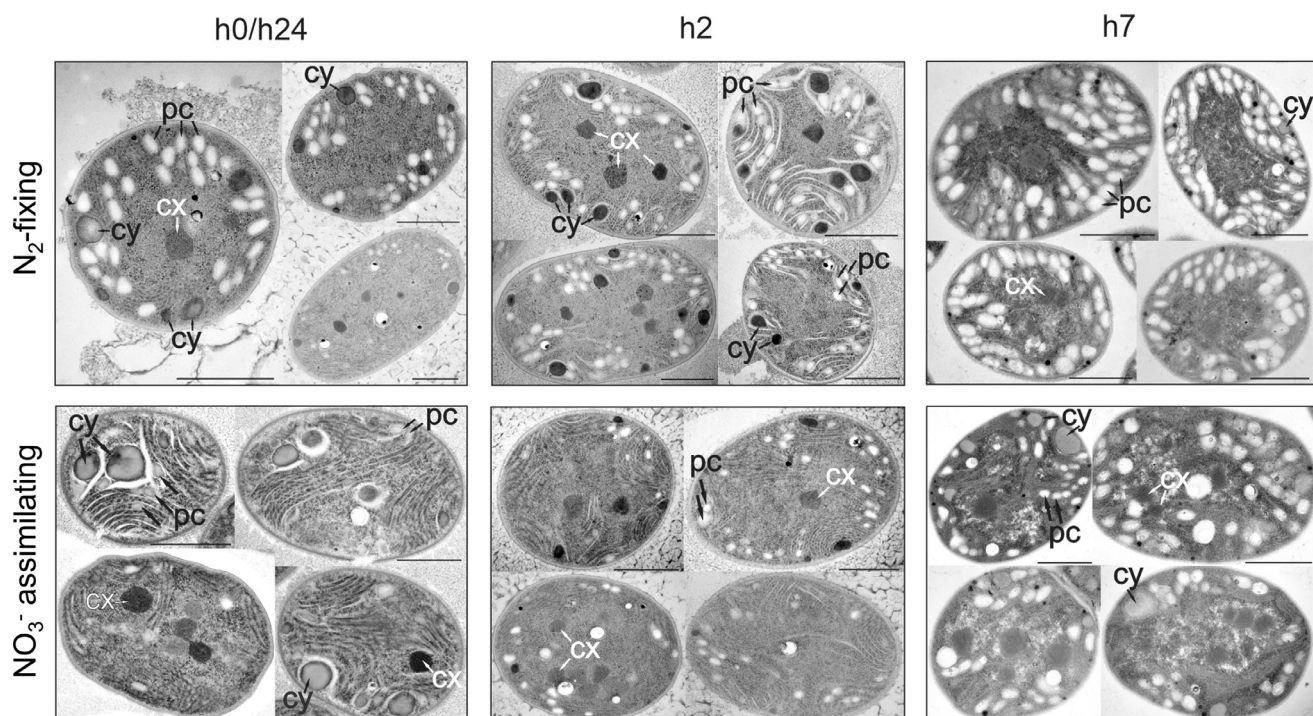


Fig. 4. Transmission electron microscopic images of *Cyanothece* cells harvested at h0/h24, h2 and h7 in the light period. Top row – N_2 -fixing conditions; Bottom row – NO_3^- assimilating conditions. pc; polysaccharide (C storage), cy; cyanophycin (N storage), and cx; carboxysome. Black bars show 1 μm . Additional images are available in Fig. S1.

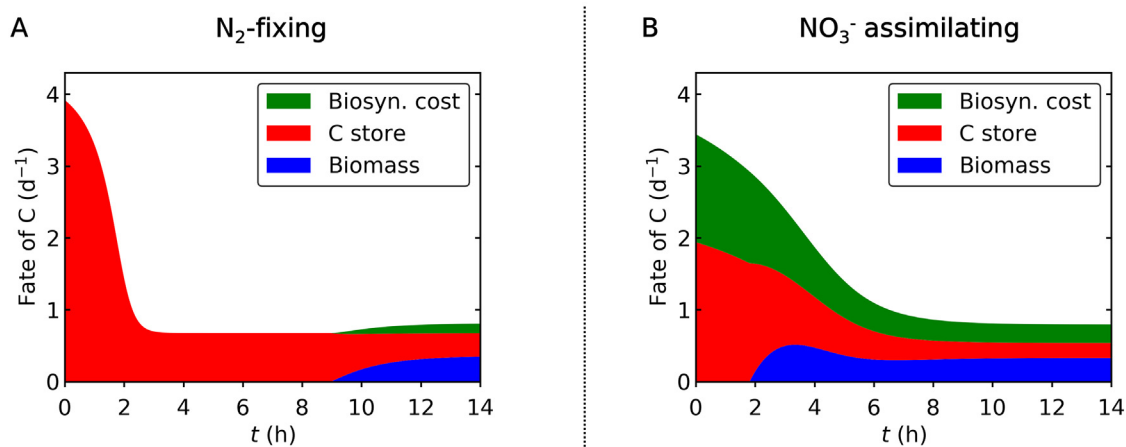


Fig. 5. Fate of newly fixed C during the light period. (A) N₂-fixing case. (B) NO₃⁻ assimilating case. Green: biosynthesis cost. Red: C storage. Blue: C for non-C-storage biomass. Total value represents C fixation rates. The biosynthesis cost represents the sum of synthesis of non-C-storage biomass and the NO₃⁻ assimilation.

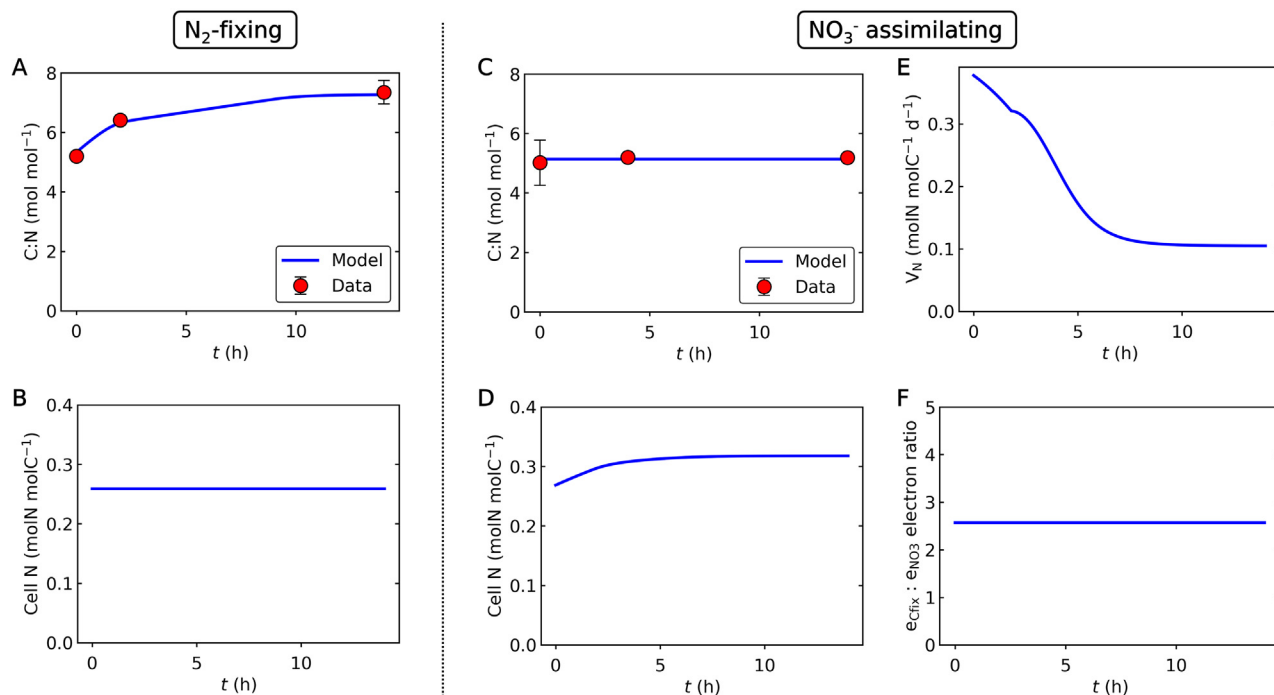


Fig. 6. Cellular C:N ratio, N assimilation and electron allocation. (A) and (B) are under N₂-fixing condition and (C) - (F) are under NO₃⁻ added case. (A)(C) Cellular C:N. (B)(D) Cellular N per biomass C (which excludes C storage). (E) NO₃⁻ uptake rate. (F) The ratio of electron used for C fixation to that for NO₃⁻ reduction.

iod, since the maximum rate of photosynthesis is about 100% higher for N₂ fixing case (Fig. 2). The remaining difference can be explained by the energy cost (not electron cost) for NO₃⁻ assimilation to biomass and the preferential allocation of C to C storage under the N₂-fixing condition (Fig. 5).

3.5. DIC and C-storage requirements co-limit fate of fixed C

Our model results highlight two major factors controlling cellular growth when the growth of *Cyanothece* is limited by inorganic C. Firstly, CO₂ (DIC) availability limits the rate of photosynthesis, and then, the storage requirement limits the portion of newly fixed C that is used for biosynthesis or growth (Fig. 7). Under N₂-fixing conditions, the maximum rate of C fixation (F_{Pho}^{max}) is higher. However, a large part of C is channeled into C storage, limiting the biosynthesis of new cells, thus limiting the growth rate. Secondly,

despite the high maximum rate of photosynthesis in the N₂-fixing condition, the photosynthesis rate rapidly decreases as it quickly depletes DIC. On the other hand, when NO₃⁻ is available, a large part of fixed C is channeled directly into biosynthesis, thus resulting in higher growth (Fig. 7). The lower maximum rate of photosynthesis works favorably under DIC limitation since it keeps ambient DIC relatively high. However, if limitation by DIC becomes less severe, due to the high photosynthetic capacity, the cells under N₂-fixing conditions might grow even faster, yielding a potential co-limitation of DIC and fixed N. This hypothesis needs to be tested with further experiments.

4. Conclusions

We have developed a simple, cellular model of *Cyanothece* (CFM-Cyano) focusing on DIC limitation. The model reproduced

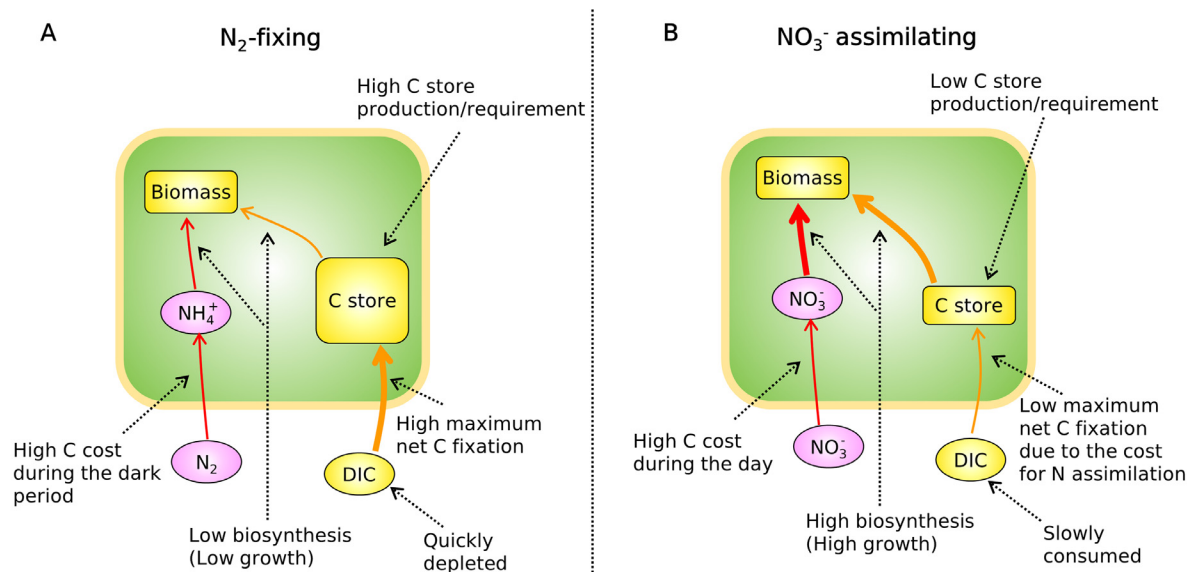


Fig. 7. Summary of this study: differences in metabolisms between N₂-fixing and NO₃⁻ assimilating situations. (A) N₂-fixing case. (B) NO₃⁻ assimilating case. Under DIC limitation, N₂-fixing cells have a lower growth rate despite the higher net maximum photosynthesis rate due to high C storage requirement.

laboratory data both for N₂-fixing and NO₃⁻ available conditions demonstrating that, under N₂-fixing conditions, C storage is prioritized during the early photoperiod to accumulate C in storage for N₂ fixation during the night, and later during the day, biosynthesis increases. This two-step growth limitation may apply to other photoautotrophic unicellular N₂-fixers, such as *Crocospheera watsonii*.

A recent study pinpointed the risk of significant biases brought by a lack of control of the DIC supply in cultures of *Cyanothece* [10]. Our study further emphasizes the potential for DIC limitation in laboratory studies, which may severely limit the growth rate of any photoautotrophs and may have been overlooked as a critical regulatory factor in previous studies. Our model is simple and efficient and can be incorporated into sophisticated ecological or physiological models to resolve intracellular carbon allocation, especially under conditions when DIC availability becomes limiting, such as dense cyanobacterial blooms or biotechnological mass cultures.

5. Model availability

CFM-Cyano is freely available from Zenodo at <https://zenodo.org/record/3740246> (DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.3740245).

Author contributions

KI developed and run the model with suggestions from TM, ME, SR and OP. KI, TM and OP administered the project. TM, ME, SR, TZ, JČ, MV, GB, PC, EK, SS, DJS, OP contributed to obtaining data. KI wrote the original manuscript, which is revised by KI, TM, ME, SR, TZ, MV, GB, GA, PC, EK, SS, DJS, CD, OP.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.csbj.2021.11.036>.

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