1	Running head:	Genome-scale model	for Anabaena sp.	PCC 7120
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- 14 A comprehensively curated genome-scale two-cell model for the heterocystous
 15 cyanobacterium *Anabaena* sp. PCC 7120
- 16
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- 23 The genome-scale metabolic model of a nitrogen-fixing filamentous cyanobacterium helps to
- 24 understand inter- and intra-cellular metabolic interactions and contributes to engineering
- 25 strategies.
- 26

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37 Abstract

38

39 Anabaena sp. PCC 7120 is a nitrogen-fixing filamentous cyanobacterium. Under nitrogen 40 limiting conditions, a fraction of the vegetative cells in each filament terminally differentiate 41 to non-growing heterocysts. Heterocysts are metabolically and structurally specialized to 42 enable O₂-sensitive nitrogen fixation. The functionality of the filament, as an association of 43 vegetative cells and heterocysts, is postulated to depend on metabolic exchange of electrons, 44 carbon and fixed nitrogen. In the present work, we compile and evaluate a comprehensive 45 curated stoichiometric model of this two-cell system, with the objective function based on the growth of the filament under diazotrophic conditions. The predicted growth rate under 46 47 nitrogen replete and deplete conditions, as well as the effect of external carbon and nitrogen 48 sources, was thereafter verified. Furthermore, the model was utilized to comprehensively 49 evaluate the optimality of putative metabolic exchange reactions between heterocysts and 50 vegetative cells. The model suggested that optimal growth requires at least four exchange 51 metabolites. Several combinations of exchange metabolites resulted in predicted growth rates 52 that are higher than growth rates achieved by only considering exchange of metabolites 53 previously suggested in the literature. The curated model of the metabolic network of 54 Anabaena sp. PCC 7120 enhances our ability to understand the metabolic organization of 55 multi-cellular cyanobacteria and provides a platform for further study and engineering of their 56 metabolism.

57

58 Introduction

59 Cyanobacteria are ubiquitous photosynthetic organisms found in almost every habitat on 60 Earth, including hot springs and Antarctic rocks, as well as the fur of some sloths (Aiello, 61 1985). Cyanobacteria are highly diverse in terms of morphology: some species are 62 filamentous, others are unicellular or can form aggregates, several species are capable of 63 nitrogen fixation in differentiated heterocysts, and some form motile hormogonia or spore-64 like akinetes (Flores and Herrero, 2010; Singh and Montgomery, 2011). In their natural 65 environment, cyanobacteria are often an integral part of complex ecosystems with other 66 species from all three domains of life (Stewart et al., 1983; Adams, 2000; Adams and 67 Duggan, 2008). Several species build up thick microbial mats in extreme environments 68 (Reysenbach et al., 1994), or composite with fungal filaments to form lichens (Rikkinen et al., 69 2002), while others live inside their symbiotic plant hosts (Adams, 2000). In case of the 70 aquatic Azolla caroliniana, a small water fern, a filamentous, heterocyst-forming 71 cyanobacterium is found within the ovoid cavities in the plant's leaves, maintaining a 72 mutually beneficial symbiotic relationship with the plant. This symbiont, Anabaena azollae 73 provides fixed nitrogen to the fern and, in return, receives carbon sources and a protected 74 environment from Azolla (Hill, 1977; Lechno-Yossef and Nierzwicki-Bauer, 2002). The 75 highly-productive Azolla-Anabaena symbiosis has long been recognized as a cheap and 76 effective biofertilizer of tropical rice paddies, and more recently it has been successfully 77 applied in temperate climate as well (Wagner, 1997; Bocchi and Malgioglio, 2010). Outside 78 of its plant host, the free-living form of Anabaena azollae has significant contribution to the 79 carbon and nitrogen economy of tropical soils as well, forming microbial communities with 80 other nitrogen-fixing cyanobacteria (Singh, 1950). When living freely, however, Anabaena 81 azollae only develops 5 to 10% of its cell to heterocysts. This frequency increases up to 25 to 82 30%, when the symbiosis is extended to also include rice. This higher rate of nitrogen-fixation 83 is the result of an adjustment to provide sufficient nitrogen for all three species, i.e. the 84 cyanobacterium, the fern and the co-cultivated rice (de Macale and Vlek, 2004). Anabaena sp. 85 PCC 7120 strain, an isolated and sequenced form of Anabaena azollae, shows the same 86 developmental pattern of a single heterocyst for every 10 to 20 vegetative cells (Kumar et al., 87 2010; Ehira, 2013), and acts as a representative model organism of the free-living 88 cyanobacterium. To mimic the productivity of the symbiotic form, Anabaena sp. PCC 7120 89 has recently been modified to increase the expression of the HetR protein controlling 90 heterocyst frequency and thus to enhance the organism's potential as a nitrogen biofertilizer. 91 The resulting mutant strain has been reported for its ability to cater rice seedlings with

beneficial levels of nitrogen in short-term hydroponic experiments (Chaurasia and Apte,
2011). In order to utilize such biochemical traits in designed applied processes, it becomes
important to understand community behaviour and metabolic interactions in natural and
simple ecosystems where these feature.

96 In fact, Anabaena sp. PCC 7120 can alone be argued to form such a very simple yet 97 incompletely understood "community" of cells with multiple metabolic states and 98 interdependent metabolic exchange. Under diazotrophic conditions, approximately every 99 tenth vegetative cell irreversibly transforms into a heterocyst to provide a low-oxygen 100 environment for the nitrogenase enzyme to function (Golden and Yoon, 2003). This enzyme 101 is responsible for the conversion of atmospheric molecular nitrogen into ammonia in a highly 102 energy-expensive reaction, consuming chemical energy stored in 16 molecules of ATP and 8 103 electrons carried by ferredoxin molecules for every molecule of nitrogen assimilated. 104 Furthermore, the nitrogenase is irreversibly inactivated by oxygen which makes oxygenic 105 photosynthesis and nitrogen fixation incompatible processes (Fay, 1992). Therefore, these 106 specialized heterocyst cells undergo a series of changes to minimize the level of internal 107 oxygen, including the deposition of two additional envelope layers around the cell and the 108 degradation of photosystem II and carboxysomes (Wolk et al., 2004; Nicolaisen et al., 2009; 109 Awai et al., 2010). As a result, heterocysts are dependent on vegetative cells as a source of 110 electrons and carbon (Kumar et al., 2010). In return, vegetative cells obtain fixed nitrogen 111 (Meeks and Elhai, 2002). Heterocysts and vegetative cells are therefore mutually 112 interdependent, showing the features of a very simple "ecosystem". This "ecosystem" is a 113 suitable and simple model to simulate and elucidate community metabolism. In the present 114 study, our aim was to understand the metabolic interactions between the two cell types within 115 the filament of Anabaena sp. PCC 7120 and to reveal the underlying reaction network 116 enabling such a relationship. We therefore reconstructed a genome-scale metabolic network 117 of Anabaena sp. PCC 7120 incorporating both cell types. The metabolic reconstruction 118 allowed us to perform an exhaustive computational analysis of possible exchange metabolites 119 and to rank exchange metabolites according to evolutionary optimality criteria, in particular 120 growth yield of the filament. To benchmark our reconstruction, we compared growth states of 121 Anabaena sp. PCC 7120 under both photoautotrophic and mixotrophic conditions, either 122 consuming a combined nitrogen source or growing diazotrophically. Our stoichiometric 123 model is represented using the systems biology markup language (Hucka et al., 2003) and is 124 being analysed by a constraint-based optimisation approach (Price et al., 2003; Steuer et al., 125 2012). To our best knowledge, this reconstruction is the first extensively curated, genomescale model for Anabaena sp. PCC 7120. It is also the first complete reconstruction for 126

127 heterocyst metabolism and among the first attempts to simulate a simple multicellular

128 organism at genome-scale.

129 **Results and discussion**

130 A manually curated stoichiometric model of Anabaena sp. PCC 7120

131 The reconstruction process follows the protocol of (Thiele and Palsson, 2010) and is detailed 132 in the Materials and Methods. In brief, based on the available genome annotation (Kaneko et 133 al., 2001; Peterson et al., 2001) and reaction databases (Kanehisa et al., 2004; Caspi et al., 134 2012), gene-protein-reaction (GPR) relationships were established. Elementally balanced 135 biochemical reactions were sorted into six intracellular compartments (cytosol, thylakoid 136 lumen, carboxysome, cytoplasmic membrane, thylakoid membrane and periplasmic space) in 137 order to simulate the growth of vegetative cells on a combined nitrogen source (single-cell 138 model).

139 The single cell reconstruction contains a total of 777 metabolites interconnected via 804 140 enzymatic and 14 spontaneous reactions, as well as 79 transport reactions between 141 intracellular compartments or the external space (Figure 1). Ninety-nine of the unique 142 metabolic reactions have not previously been reported in databases for Anabaena sp. PCC 143 7120 (Kanehisa et al., 2004; Caspi et al., 2012), but were acquired from the primary literature 144 for this organism. In addition, 60 reactions were associated with their gene candidates here for 145 the first time following a BLAST-based homology search. However, no candidate genes 146 could be identified for a total of 36 reactions of which 24 are essential for growth (see 147 Materials and Methods for more details).

148 The reconstruction was examined for orphan reactions, that is, reactions that are disconnected 149 from the remaining reactions. Such reactions (or reaction subsets) indicate misannotation or 150 insufficiently known pathways. Orphan reactions cannot carry metabolic flux and therefore 151 can either be kept or removed from the reconstruction without any observable impact on the 152 FBA solution. Here, a total of 98 orphan reactions were identified and moved to a separate 153 file for later analysis (Supplemental File S5), all being more than two reaction steps away 154 from the closest element within the network. Gaps that span two or less reaction steps were 155 resolved by finding gene associations to the missing steps, wherever possible. The gap-filling 156 process is detailed in the Materials and Methods section.

Along with the reconstructed biomass objective function (see below), biosynthesis routes for the different carotenoids that accumulate in *Anabaena* sp. PCC 7120 were updated based on literature (Albrecht et al., 1996; Takaichi et al., 2005; Takaichi and Mochimaru, 2007;



Figure 1. Compartments considered in the two-cell model. The filamentous structure of *Anabaena* sp. PCC 7120 under diazotrophic conditions is represented by two super-compartments (a vegetative cell and a heterocyst) sharing certain metabolites via exchange reactions (red dashed line). Black arrows and numbers in italic indicate main fluxes of diazotrophic growth. Super-compartments are divided into (sub)-compartments: both cells contain a cytosol (light yellow body), a thylakoid lumen (green bands), a thylakoid membrane (dark green dashes) and a cytoplasmic membrane (blue dashes) and share a contiguous periplasmic space (white space delimited by the cytoplasmic and outer membranes). The vegetative cell also carries carboxysomes (orange hexagon). The brown body in the heterocyst is the nitrogen storage cyanophycin, not a separate compartment on its own. Numbers in parentheses indicate the number of reactions (including transport) associated with that compartment. Cell types and compartments are not to scale.

160 Mochimaru et al., 2008; Graham and Bryant, 2009). The currently incomplete pathways for 161 the synthesis of phycobilin, thiamine and molybdopterin in KEGG (Kanehisa et al., 2004) 162 were also revised (Schluchter and Glazer, 1997; Gutzke et al., 2001; Ruiz et al., 2010; Biswas, 163 2011). In addition, the sucrose metabolism of Anabaena sp. PCC 7120 was extended as 164 compared to current database entries for this organism (Cumino et al., 2007; Marcozzi et al., 165 2009: Du et al., 2013). The reconstruction also includes a proposed pathway for the iron (III)-166 siderophore schizokinen based on the biosynthesis route of a similar siderophore, rhizobactin, 167 from Shinorhizobium meliloti 1021 (Lynch et al., 2001; Nicolaisen et al., 2008; Malatinszky 168 and Jones, unpublished). In order to aid the analysis of the model, a visual representation of 169 the metabolic network was created (Supplemental File S6 and S7) using the software package 170 Cytoscape (Shannon et al., 2003).

171

172 **Two-cell model and biomass composition**

173 In a separate model, the single-cell model is transformed into two super-compartments (Table

174 I) to reflect the multicellular structure of the Anabaena sp. PCC 7120 filament under

175 diazotrophic conditions (two-cell model). The two-cell model contains a total of 1797 176 reactions including exchange between the two super compartments (see Figure 1 and Table I 177 for selected modifications to the heterocyst super-compartment). Transport reactions across 178 compartments and exchange between super compartments are assumed bidirectional, 179 independent of ATP and unconstrained in contrast to transport reactions to the external space 180 which are defined as ATP-driven, unless evidence for a different driving mechanism was 181 found in the literature (rows 1, 3 and 8 in Supplemental File S8).

182

183 The vast majority of the reactions exist in both the vegetative cell and the heterocyst, although 184 there are characteristic differences between the two super-compartments. Most importantly, 185 only the vegetative cell is able to perform oxygenic photosynthesis via linear 186 photophosphorylation, whereas only the heterocyst is capable of performing nitrogen fixation, 187 using cyclic photophosphorylation on photosystem I. Reactions responsible for oxygen 188 evolution in photosystem II were therefore deleted from the heterocyst super-compartment. 189 Similarly, the inactive RuBisCo-dependent carbon fixation was removed from the heterocyst, 190 although other carbon fixation mechanisms may still be active (see below). In addition, 191 nitrogen metabolism in the heterocyst lacks the expression of the GOGAT enzyme, but it may 192 have an active nitrogenase in place. The physiological differences between the two super-193 compartments are listed in Table I, whilst the resulting differences in active reactions are 194 described in Supplemental File S5.

195 The terminally differentiated heterocyst does not grow or undergo cell division; therefore, the 196 objective function of the two-cell model is defined as the growth of the vegetative cell (row 5 197 in Supplemental File S8). To account for macromolecular turnover in the heterocyst (row 6 in 198 Supplemental File S8), the biomass reaction in this super-compartment is constrained to a 199 lower bound equal to 10% of the maximum biomass production in the vegetative cell (van 200 Bodegom, 2007). Moreover, both super-compartments include an artificial ATP hydrolysis 201 reaction to account for the energy requirement of growth-independent cell maintenance at a 202 fixed flux rate (row 7 in Supplemental File S8). This flux rate is equal to 10% of total ATP 203 consumption at maximum growth rate, similar to previous stoichiometric models (Feist et al., 204 2007; Nogales et al., 2012; Knoop et al., 2013). In the initial two-cell model, the two super-205 compartments are allowed to exchange four metabolites: sucrose (Schilling and Ehrnsperger, 206 1985; Cumino et al., 2007; Nürnberg et al., 2015), glutamine (Wolk et al., 1976; Thomas et 207 al., 1977; Picossi et al., 2005), glutamate (Martin-Figueroa et al., 2000) and 2-oxoglutarate 208 (Böhme, 1998) (row 12, Supplemental File S8). The transport reactions for these metabolites 209 are unconstrained, bidirectional and provide direct exchange between super-compartments

210 without the involvement of other compartments or the external space. In addition, any dilution 211 occurring due to the size difference of the two cell types is not taken into account (rows 2 and 212 9 in Supplemental File S8). At optimal growth, the heterocyst super-compartment was found 213 to supply sufficient fixed nitrogen for the growth of exactly 7.6 new vegetative cells, based on 214 the nitrogen content of the vegetative cell in the biomass equation. This calculation 215 determines the maximum number of growing vegetative cells a single heterocyst can support. 216 However, already existing vegetative cells adjacent to the heterocyst require less nitrogen to 217 remain functional, increasing this ratio to the range observed experimentally (i.e. ten to 218 twenty vegetative cells per heterocyst). At such ratios the predicted growth rate drops 219 gradually, reaching about 46% of the maximal rate when a single heterocyst sustains exactly 220 twenty vegetative cells. It is worth noting that the growth rate predicted by the model does not 221 predict actual cell number, but biomass accumulation rate. Therefore, in our reconstruction we 222 represented the Anabaena sp PCC 7120 filament as a single vegetative super-compartment 223 and a single heterocyst super-compartment, denoted as the two-cell model in the following (Figure 1 and row 4 in Supplemental File S8). 224

225 Figure 1 summarizes the main metabolic fluxes concerning carbon and nitrogen metabolism 226 in the two-cell model under diazotrophic growth conditions. The vegetative cell fixes carbon 227 via the Calvin cycle driven by photosynthesis and produces an excess of sucrose from 228 glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate and an excess of glutamate synthesized by the GOGAT enzyme. 229 The primary source of glutamate is internally recycled 2-oxoglutarate and glutamine of 230 heterocyst origin. The excess sucrose and glutamate are exchanged for glutamine and 2-231 oxoglutarate from the heterocyst. Glutamine is derived from glutamate by incorporating 232 ammonia from heterocystous nitrogen fixation to glutamate from the vegetative cell. Energy 233 (ATP) and electron (reduced ferredoxin) requirements of the nitrogenase reaction are mainly 234 covered by cyclic photophosphorylation at photosystem I. The rest of the energy is provided 235 by degrading sucrose from the vegetative cell, and spending its carbon content on cellular 236 maintenance (Figure 1).

237

Table I. Major differences between the two super-compartments (cell types) in the Anabaena sp. PCC 7120 model

vegetative cell	heterocyst
photosynthesis (PSI and PSII) ^a	cyclic photophosphorylation (PSI only) ^a (Wolk et al., 2004)
carboxysomes and RuBisCO ^b	neither carboxysomes nor an active RuBisCO ^b (Madan and Nierzwicki-Bauer, 1993; Valladares et al., 2007)
no nitrogen fixation	nitrogen fixation (nitrogenase)
GS-GOGAT cycle ^c	Fd-GOGAT missing ^c (Martin-Figueroa et al., 2000)
FNR at PSI produces NADPH ^d	FNR produces red. FdxH for nitrogenase ^d (Razquin et al., 1996)
<i>cox1</i> cytochrome c oxidase	contains cox2 and cox3 only (Valladares et al., 2003)

^a PSI: photosystem I; PSII: photosystem II

^b RuBisCO: ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase

241 242 ^c GS: glutamine synthetase; GOGAT: glutamine-oxoglutarate aminotransferase; Fd-: Ferredoxin-dependent

^d FNR: ferredoxin-NADP+ reductase; FdxH: heterocyst-specific ferredoxin

243

244	There is very little information on the exact composition of Anabaena sp. PCC 7120 biomass
245	in the literature (Table II). Therefore, the biomass equation constructed for Synechocystis sp.
246	PCC 6803 by (Nogales et al., 2012) and adjusted by (Knoop et al., 2013) was used here and
247	adapted to Anabaena sp. PCC 7120, complemented by sparsely available analytical data
248	(Table II). Vegetative cells and heterocysts were assumed to share the same fractional
249	composition comprising DNA, RNA, proteins, pigments, lipids, cell wall, inorganic ions and
250	the metabolic pool (row 10, Supplemental File S8). The fractional composition given in
251	(Nogales et al., 2012) was left unchanged; however, some of the fractions were recalculated if
252	data was available (Table II, row 11 in Supplemental File S8). The impact of variation in the
253	biomass composition on the predicted growth rate was simulated and the results are shown in
254	Supplementary Figure S9. Even a +/- 20% variation in any one component did not influence
255	the predicted growth rate by more than $+/-3\%$.

256

257 Table II. Biomass composition used in the model. Fractional composition was adopted from the Synechocystis sp. PCC 258 6803 model developed by (Nogales et al., 2012; Knoop et al., 2013). The definition and the reaction formula of the different 259 fractions were adapted for Anabaena sp. PCC 7120, wherever specific analysis data was available.

Fraction	Source of data and reference
Pigments	Analysis of carotenoid composition (Takaichi et al., 2005; Takaichi and Mochimaru, 2007;
1 ignicitis	Mochimaru et al., 2008; Graham and Bryant, 2009)
DNA	Base abundance calculated from the genome sequence (Kaneko et al., 2001)
DNA	Base abundance calculated for annotated genes and weighted by RNAseq abundance
NNA	(Kaneko et al., 2001; Flaherty et al., 2011)
Protoins	Amino acid abundance calculated and weighted by RNAseq abundance (Kaneko et al.,
Troteins	2001; Flaherty et al., 2011)
Lipids	Adopted from Synechocystis sp. PCC 6803 (Nogales et al., 2012; Knoop et al., 2013)
Cell wall	Adopted from Synechocystis sp. PCC 6803
Inorganic ions	Adopted from Synechocystis sp. PCC 6803
Pool fraction	Adopted from Synechocystis sp. PCC 6803°

- ^e No genes could be identified for the biosynthesis of spermidine (Jantaro et al., 2003; Incharoensakdi et al., 2010). 260
- 261

262 Computational characterization of the reconstructed metabolic model

263 Simulations were run using the two-cell model under photodiazotrophic conditions with 264 glutamate, glutamine, 2-oxoglutarate and sucrose as possible exchange metabolites, and bicarbonate, molecular dinitrogen and light as only external substrates. The uptake of the 265 external substrates was constrained to upper bounds of 10 mmol g dry weight $(DW)^{-1} h^{-1}$ each. 266 267 Figure 2 shows the relationship between light intensity and bicarbonate uptake. The maximal growth rate is reached at 10 mmol g DW⁻¹ h⁻¹ photon flux (the upper bound) and the 268

bicarbonate uptake rate of 0.68 mmol g DW⁻¹ h⁻¹. 269



Figure 2. Predicted optimal growth rates of *An abaena* sp. PCC 7120 as a function of light and bicarbonate. Darker colours represent higher growth rates (see legend on the right). Photon requirement of cell maintenance is represented by a white area on the left side of the contour plot.

270

To obtain insight into the properties of the two-cell model, and to test to what extent modelbased predictions coincide with known metabolic exchange fluxes, we evaluated the two-cell

- 273 model under photodiazotrophic conditions (Figure 3).
- 274

275 The minimum photon requirement to cover non-growth associated maintenance costs without 276 supporting growth (x-intercept) is shown in Figure 3A. This requirement is equal to a photon flux of 6 mmol g DW⁻¹ h⁻¹, when light is harvested by the vegetative cell only (solid blue 277 line). At the upper bound of the vegetative cell's photon uptake (10 mmol g $DW^{-1} h^{-1}$) the 278 growth rate is 0.006 h⁻¹ (Figure 3A, solid blue line and y-intercept on panel B) that increases 279 up to the maximum (0.0144 h⁻¹) by the heterocyst's contribution to light harvesting. In the 280 281 case when both super-compartments harvest light (dotted red line) the energy contribution by the heterocyst lowers the requirement from the vegetative cell by about 2.3 mmol g DW⁻¹ h⁻¹. 282 This contribution by the heterocyst via cyclic photophosphorylation saturates at approx. 4.2 283 mmol g DW⁻¹ h⁻¹, over which the proton gradient through the thylakoid membrane is 284 285 replenished by secondary reactions in the electron transport chain without the synthesis of 286 additional ATP (Figure 3B). In contrast, light or carbon uptake by the heterocyst alone cannot



Figure 3. Growth rates predicted as a function of different transport reactions under diazotrophic conditions. (A) Impact of light availability on growth rate when both cell types (dotted red line) or only the vegetative cell (solid blue line) harvest photons. **(B)** Photon uptake by the heterocyst in combination with optimal light harvesting in the vegetative cell. **(C)** Bicarbonate uptake by the two transport reactions (sodium symport, solid blue line; active transport, dotted red line) in the vegetative cell. **(D)** Bicarbonate uptake by the heterocyst. **(E)** Exchange of sucrose if the glutamine-to-glutamate ratio is unbound (red dotted line) or fixed to 1 (black dashed line). **(F)** Exchange of glutamate and glutamine at ratios fixed to 1 (black dashed line) or left unbound (solid blue and dotted red lines). Red double arrows on E and F show the direction of exchange. VC: vegetative cell; HC: heterocyst.

287 support growth of the vegetative cell (data not shown). On the other hand, any of the two 288 bicarbonate transporters in the vegetative cell can provide sufficient carbon for growth, 289 although the maximum rate is lower for the ATP-driven transport (Figure 3C, dotted red line). 290 Forcing bicarbonate uptake over the optimum, however, both transport reactions have a 291 negative effect on growth as light becomes limiting (Figure 3C, both lines). According to 292 Figure 3D, maximal growth can be achieved even at zero bicarbonate uptake by the 293 heterocyst, suggesting that the vegetative cell alone can fix sufficient amount of carbon (via 294 RuBisCO in the carboxysome) to reach maximum growth rate. Moreover, if bicarbonate 295 uptake in the heterocyst is enforced (Figure 3D, both curves), the carbon is not utilized for growth (straight horizontal lines on the left side of each curve), but rather recycled via the C₄ 296 297 dicarboxylic acid cycle and released as carbon dioxide (not shown here). The recycling 298 capacity depletes around 1.8 and 2.6 mmol g DW⁻¹ h⁻¹ bicarbonate over the active transport and the symport, respectively. Nonetheless, it is still unclear whether in reality heterocysts 299 300 utilize this C_4 route to fix their own carbon (Popa et al., 2007); although cyanobacteria have 301 been described to assimilate about 20% of the total fixed CO_2 in the form of C_4 acids 302 (Owttrim and Colman, 1988; Luinenburg and Coleman, 1992, 1993). Notably, experimental

303 evidence suggests that the main source of carbon for heterocysts is likely to be sucrose 304 (Böhme, 1998; Martin-Figueroa et al., 2000; Kumar et al., 2010; Nürnberg et al., 2015). In 305 contrast, the model predicts a very low flux for sucrose at the optimal growth rate (Figure 3E, 306 red dotted line). In the same simulation, glutamate is transferred to the heterocyst at a two-307 fold higher rate than that of glutamine, moving in the reverse direction. This is possible 308 because glutamine and glutamate exchange were optimized as independent reactions and 309 suggests that glutamate is partially utilized as a carbon source in the heterocyst. However, 310 sucrose becomes the primary source of carbon in the heterocyst (also increasing its flux by 4-311 times), if the glutamine-glutamate exchange ratio is fixed to 1, while the growth optimum 312 decreases by only about 7% (Figure 3E and F, dashed black lines; row 13 in Supplemental 313 File S8). Further tests of the model comparing growth rates on different carbon and nitrogen 314 sources can be found in Supplemental File S10.

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- 316

317 Experimental evaluation of model predictions on carbon source utilisation by the 318 single-cell model

319 Experimental and predicted mixotrophic growth rates on a variety of carbon sources were 320 compared relative to autotrophic growth on bicarbonate, using nitrate as the sole nitrogen 321 source. In the presence of nitrate no heterocysts are expected to form, the following growth 322 rate calculations were therefore performed using the single-cell model. Tested carbon sources 323 included bicarbonate, urea, sugars (glucose, fructose, sucrose and maltose), a sugar alcohol 324 (glycerol), fermentation products (pyruvate and acetate), amino acids (glutamate, glutamine 325 and proline) and a polyamine (putrescine). For comparative reasons, each uptake reaction was 326 assumed to hydrolyse one molecule of ATP and was constrained to transport equal moles of carbon with each substrate (row 14 in Supplemental File S8). Light harvesting, bicarbonate 327 and nitrate uptake were constrained to an upper bound of 10 mmol g DW⁻¹ h⁻¹. The two 328 329 datasets of relative growth rates in exponential phase are shown in Figure 4.

330

Most data points show a good fit to the trend, except for glycerol, some sugars and glutamine. The latter amino acid supported the second highest growth rate in the experiments, exceeded only by glucose. In contrast, simulated growth rate on glutamine was just above the control bicarbonate. Interestingly, the model predicted the same growth rate for glutamine and glutamate when ammonia excretion was allowed, resulting in a 2.6-fold increase of growth rate on glutamine. This suggests that the two-fold higher molar nitrogen content of glutamine



Figure 4. Correlation between experimental and predicted mixotrophic growth rates in the exponential phase on twelve different carbon sources, relative to autotrophic growth on bicarbonate. The pink cross and dotted arrow show the shift in predicted growth rate on glutamine if ammonia is being excreted. The black dashed line highlights the correlation between experimental and computational datasets. Error bars depict \pm standard deviation of three biological replicates.

337 makes this amino acid a stoichiometrically unfavoured substrate compared to glutamate, 338 which can only be overcome by the removal of excess nitrogen. By excreting nitrogen the 339 model compensates for the suboptimal C/N ratio of glutamine and shifts the intracellular C/N 340 ratio to the same level as with glutamate (Figure S3 in Supplemental File S10, green squares). 341 The adjustment via addition of ammonia excretion only brings predicted glutamine halfway to 342 experimental levels and the contrasting difference between the two datasets therefore remains 343 incompletely explained. In addition, excretion of ammonia under diazotrophic conditions has 344 not vet been observed experimentally. However, it may be possible that the excess nitrogen is 345 being deposited to nitrogen storage (i.e. cyanophycin), rather than being lost via excretion.

346 Among the sugar compounds, datasets for glucose and sucrose showed good correlation, 347 whilst fructose and maltose underperformed in wet-lab experiments. In fact, the four sugars 348 showed essentially the same growth rate in simulations, due to high stoichiometric similarities 349 between the metabolic pathways of these substrates (further discussed for Figure S1 in 350 Supplemental File S10). In silico, growth on glycerol resulted in the highest growth rate, 351 whereas experimentally growth on glucose achieved the highest rate. Glucose and glycerol are 352 both metabolised to glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate (GA3P), but via two different pathways. We 353 note that sub-optimal growth on glycerol as sole carbon source, as compared to predictions 354 using an FBA-based model, was also previously observed for Escherichia coli K-12 (Ibarra et 355 al., 2002). For *E. coli*, adaptive evolution resulted in an increased growth rate on glycerol, in 356 good agreement with model-predicted values (Ibarra et al., 2002). For the present model, a 357 variety of reasons might be responsible for the discrepancy, such as the thermodynamic 358 properties of the dehydrogenation step to dihydroxyacetone phosphate, or lack of appropriate 359 NAD(P)(H) balancing. Nonetheless, the results in Figure 4 show that the constraint-based 360 model provides a reasonable prediction of mixotrophic growth rates on different carbon 361 sources, thereby justifying the use of the stoichiometric model to evaluate the feasibility and 362 optimality of potential exchange reactions in more detail.

363

364

Stoichiometric evaluation of metabolite exchange within the filament

366 Following the characterization of the curated single-cell model, we sought to obtain insight 367 into the stoichiometric optimality of the metabolic exchange between vegetative cells and 368 heterocysts. Notably, a systematic analysis of the stoichiometric and energetic implications of 369 different metabolites in intra-species cellular exchange is challenging to carry out 370 experimentally, whilst being feasible in silico. From previous studies, sucrose was proposed 371 to act as the sole source of electrons and carbon for heterocysts (Curatti et al., 2002; Golden 372 and Yoon, 2003; Cumino et al., 2007) and glutamine was suggested to serve as a nitrogen 373 carrier and glutamate as carbon skeleton for ammonia incorporation (Flores and Herrero, 374 2010; Kumar et al., 2010). In addition, the lack of glutamine oxoglutarate aminotransferase 375 (GOGAT) in heterocysts was postulated to result in the accumulation and subsequent 376 transport of 2-oxoglutarate into the vegetative cells (Böhme, 1998; Martin-Figueroa et al., 377 2000). These compounds and other central carbon metabolites including some amino acids 378 that may be involved in intercellular nitrogen exchange (Montesinos et al., 1995) were 379 included as potential exchange metabolites in the two-cell model. In addition to amino acids, 380 ammonia was also investigated as an alternative carrier of nitrogen. Therefore, in total, twelve 381 different metabolites were considered as exchange metabolites and all possible combinations 382 were comprehensively evaluated with respect to the predicted maximal growth rate, resulting 383 in 4096 combinations. Earlier simulations suggested that the ratio of glutamine and glutamate 384 exchange may be constrained to unity (Figure 3) and therefore this case (as an additional 385 constraint) was also included. Results were plotted as a distribution chart against the number 386 of exchange reactions involved in each solution (Figure 5A). Selected exchange metabolite 387 combinations (Figure 5B) showing the highest growth rates by involving the least number of



Figure 5. Predicted growth rates in response to the number of intercellular exchange reactions. (A) Each coloured area represents the distribution of non-zero solutions with a different set of exchange reactions. In case of yellow and green glutamine to glutamate ratio was fixed to 1. The ratio was unbound for cases red and teal. Yellow and red areas evaluate the effect of ammonia exchange. Blue and purple areas highlight solutions where sucrose was consumed by the heterocyst. The growth rate for the four exchange metabolites suggested in the literature (i.e. sucrose, 2-oxoglutarate, glutamate and glutamine) is highlighted by a red circle (glutamine to glutamate ratio unbound) and a blue square (ratio fixed to 1). All simulations were performed using the two-cell model. Abbreviations: suc: sucrose, nh3: ammonia, gln: L-glutamine, glu: L-glutamate, 20g: 2-oxoglutarate, fru: fructose, glc: glucose, pyr: pyruvate, ala: L-alanine, his: L-histidine, orn: L-ornithine and cyp: cyanophycin monomer. (**B**) Zoomed-in section from panel A showing growth rates for selected exchange metabolite combinations. Letters refer to cases on panel C and the corresponding panels on Figure 6 and 7. (**C**) Combination of a maximum of four reactions exchanging sucrose (Suc), glutamine (Gln), glutamate (Glu) or 2-oxoglutarate (2OG). Arrows indicate the metabolites exchanged and the direction of the exchange (uptake by the vegetative cell and the heterocyst is represented by green and beige colours, respectively). Black bars show growth rate in each case.

388 exchange metabolites are further evaluated on Figure 6 and Figure 7, highlighting the major

- 389 metabolic pathways and reactions involved in the solution.
- 390



Figure 6. Main metabolic fluxes connecting exchange metabolites sucrose, glutamine, glutamate and 2-oxoglutarate. Panels are labelled according to cases on Figure 5B (blue dots) and C, and show increasing growth rates from (A) to (J). Exchange reactions are as follows: (A) +Suc –Glu; (G) +Glu –Gln; (I) +Glu –Gln –2-og; (J) +Suc +Glu –Gln –2-og. Ratio of Glu to Gln was unbound. Compounds in red indicate a sink or uptake of an external metabolite. Orange arrows in the heterocyst highlight reactions providing electrons (NADPH) for nitrogenase. BM_G: biomass (growth), BM_M: biomass (maintenance). Enzyme names are highlighted in yellow. Upper cells: heterocysts, lower cells: vegetative cells.

391 None of the exchange metabolites investigated here, including ammonia and glutamine, was 392 able to individually allow growth of the filament (Figure 1). Any combination of two 393 exchange metabolites did not result in maximal growth rates. As the best-ranked combination 394 of two exchange reactions, export of ammonia and import of alanine (from the heterocysts



Figure 7. Main metabolic fluxes connecting exchange metabolites sucrose, fructose, alanine and ammonia. Panels are labelled according to cases on Figure 5B (red dots), and show increasing growth rates from (K) to (N). Exchange reactions are as follows: (K) +Fru $-NH_3$. (L) +Ala $-NH_3$. (M) +Fru $-Suc -NH_3$. (N) +Ala $-Suc -NH_3$. Ratio of Glu to Gln was unbound. Compounds in red indicate a sink or uptake of an external metabolite. Orange arrows in the heterocyst highlight reactions providing electrons (NADPH) for nitrogenase. BM_G: biomass (growth), BM_M: biomass (maintenance). Enzyme names are highlighted in yellow. Upper cells: heterocysts, lower cells: vegetative cells.

395 perspective) resulted in 70% of the maximal growth rate (Figure 5B, case L). Moreover, 396 although a total of twelve metabolites were allowed to exchange, no more than ten were ever 397 chosen in any combination by the model to provide a feasible solution and non-zero growth. 398 The maximal growth rate was reached by combinations of seven reactions with only slight improvements over the combinations of four reactions. Flux distributions were, to variableextent, different in each case.

401 At maximal growth rates, regardless of the number of exchange reactions involved or the 402 glutamine-glutamate ratio, alanine was consumed by the heterocyst and nitrogen was 403 transferred as ammonia. Furthermore, sucrose was produced and excreted, rather than being 404 consumed, by the heterocyst. When sucrose was consumed (blue and purple areas), 405 glutamine, glutamate and 2-oxoglutarate were transported as suggested by literature. 406 However, the growth rate was on average 30% higher if sucrose was exported, independent of the glutamine-glutamate ratio. Ammonia was favoured over glutamine for the transfer of 407 nitrogen throughout the simulation, increasing growth rates by 5–7% when the glutamine to 408 409 glutamate ratio was fixed (Figure 5A, yellow area) and by 3–7% when it was unbound (red 410 area). When only four reactions were allowed, inclusion of ammonia increased growth rate by 411 38% over the reference (blue square) if glutamine to glutamate ratio was fixed and by 34% 412 over the reference (red circle) if unbound. Those four exchange metabolites suggested in 413 literature, i.e. sucrose (Suc), glutamine (Gln), glutamate (Glu) and 2-oxoglutarate (2-og) were 414 evaluated in more detail by looking at the flux distribution of each possible combination 415 individually (Figure 5B blue line and C). Only ten out of the sixteen exchange combinations 416 allowed growth, with +Suc and -Glu giving the lowest growth rate (in the following, + and -417 signs preceding metabolite names denote uptake and excretion by the heterocyst, 418 respectively). In this case (Figure 6 case A) an incomplete TCA cycle is driven by sucrose 419 originated from the vegetative cell to produce 2-oxoglutarate by isocitrate dehydrogenase 420 (IDH) and then convert it to glutamate by glutamate dehydrogenase (GDH), incorporating 421 ammonia fixed by nitrogenase. Eventually, electrons required by nitrogenase are also derived 422 partially from sucrose via pyruvate. The glutamate produced is transferred back to the 423 vegetative cell to serve as a source of assimilable nitrogen. This nitrogen is directly 424 incorporated into different amino acids and finally, biomass (Figure 6 case A). Growth rate 425 increases in ascending order when -Glu +2-og (Figure 5C case B), +Suc -Gln (case C) and -426 Gln +2-og (case D) are combined. Interestingly, pairing glutamine with glutamate (-Gln 427 +Glu, case G) improves growth rate the most significantly among all the combinations of two 428 reactions. About 78% of glutamate is used to incorporate ammonia into glutamate by 429 glutamine synthetase (GS) and is sent back to the vegetative cell as glutamine. The rest of the 430 glutamate fuels the second half of the TCA cycle via aspartate transaminase (AAT). In the 431 vegetative cell GOGAT instead of GS becomes active and produces Glu for filament growth 432 and for the heterocyst. The 2-og required by GOGAT is the product of a broken TCA cycle 433 and AAT converting oxaloacetate to aspartate in the vegetative cell (Figure 6 case G).

434 Addition of 2-og exchange increases growth rate by another 7% (Figure 5C) allowing the 435 heterocyst to recycle some of the glutamate and return it to the vegetative cell as 2-og, 436 independent of the exchange of nitrogen (Figure 6 case I). This carbon transfer from the 437 heterocyst in the form of 2-og becomes higher if Suc is also allowed to exchange (case J). In 438 this case, sucrose is used to run only the second half of the TCA cycle without consuming any 439 2-og in the pathway and sending the majority of 2-og to the vegetative cell. In the absence of 440 an active first half of the TCA cycle the primary source of electrons for nitrogenase becomes 441 malate dehydrogenase, also involving transhydrogenase (Figure 6 case J, orange arrow in the 442 upper cell). Transhydrogenase shuffles electrons from NADH produced in the malate dehydrogenase reaction to NADPH. In all cases discussed above (Figure 6 case A, G, I and J), 443 the main provider of reduced ferredoxin for nitrogenase is ferredoxin-NADP⁺ reductase 444 445 (FNR) transferring electrons from NADPH to ferredoxin.

446

447 The highest increase in growth rate due to the addition of one more reaction occurred from 448 two to three (Figure 5B, red line and circles) using ammonia as the carrier of fixed nitrogen. 449 The lowest growth rate among those with only two reactions was achieved when ammonia 450 exchanged for fructose (Fru, Figure 7 case K). Ammonia in the vegetative cell is assimilated 451 solely by GS and the resulting Gln is incorporated to other amino acids and biomass. The 452 source of Fru is the Calvin cycle and Fru is converted to pyruvate in the heterocyst. Pyruvate 453 eventually forms oxaloacetate to maintain the TCA cycle providing NADPH for the reverse 454 reaction at FNR producing reduced ferredoxin for nitrogenase (Figure 7 case K). As discussed 455 above, exchange of ammonia for alanine (Figure 7 case L) gave the highest growth rate 456 among all the combinations of only two reactions. Ammonia in this case is assimilated by 457 both GS and GDH in the vegetative cell with significantly higher contribution from the first 458 enzyme, while GOGAT remains inactive. In addition, ammonia is also incorporated to 459 pyruvate forming alanine that is then transferred back to the heterocyst. The nitrogen carried 460 by alanine is converted eventually back to ammonia via aspartate and adenosine.

461 Allowing exchange of sucrose, growth rate improves by about 30% (case M, Figure 5B) 462 compared to the case when only +Fru and -NH₃ were exchanging (case K). Also, the model 463 increases Fru exchange 100-times and sets Suc flux accordingly. In other words, Fru and Suc 464 exchange fluxes are closely equivalent for carbon content, except for some Fru consumed by 465 the heterocyst to run the TCA cycle. Stoichiometrically, the net outcome of this cycling of Fru 466 to Suc in the heterocyst and Suc to Fru in the vegetative cell is ultimately one mole of ATP 467 for every mole of Fru by the reverse reaction of fructokinase in the vegetative cell. It is unclear, however, if such metabolite concentrations to shift the fructokinase reaction kinetics 468

469 to the direction of ATP generation can ever occur in a vegetative cell. It is also worth noting, 470 in most cases the model favoured, when available, exchange of carbon sources other than 471 sucrose, or transported sucrose towards the vegetative cell. In case of the fastest growing 472 among those using only three reactions (case N), the increase in growth rate due to the 473 addition of Suc exchange is about 36% compared to case L (Figure 5B), which uses only two 474 reactions (+Ala –NH₃). Similar to that, case N has no active GOGAT in the vegetative cell 475 while actively assimilating ammonia via GS, GDH and alanine dehydrogenase producing 476 alanine. The higher exchange rate of alanine compared to case L increases the flux over the 477 second half of the TCA cycle as well (generating more reducing equivalents), allowing higher 478 nitrogen fixation rate and ultimately, more vegetative cell biomass. The carbon content of Ala 479 is recycled through pyruvate and fructose 6-phosphate, and sent back to the vegetative cell in 480 the form of sucrose.

481

482 **Conclusion**

As yet, stoichiometric reconstructions of cyanobacterial metabolism have mainly focused on unicellular non-diazotrophs (Saha et al., 2012; Knoop et al., 2013) or non-heterocystous diazotrophs (Resendis-Antonio et al., 2007; Saha et al., 2012; Vu et al., 2012). Here, we presented a curated genome-scale stoichiometric model of a filamentous heterocystous nitrogen-fixing cyanobacterium with two distinct cell-types.

488 During the reconstruction process sixty genes and proteins have been newly annotated and 489 associated with a metabolic function based on sequence homology and, in a few cases, 490 experimental observations. In addition, a total of thirty-six gene candidates have been 491 proposed to fill essential and non-essential metabolic gaps in the biochemical network of 492 Anabaena sp. PCC 7120. Moreover, the extensive manual curation of every reaction in the 493 reconstruction and the design of a detailed interactive network map (Supplemental File S6) 494 allowed us to identify and eliminate inconsistent reactions that represented roughly 30% of 495 the total reactions found in current metabolic databases for this organism.

The model correctly predicted the vegetative cell to heterocyst ratio under diazotrophic conditions showing that the heterocyst super-compartment (a single heterocyst) can supply the formation of 7.6 vegetative cells at maximum growth rate. This ratio was increased at the expense of vegetative cell growth rate, decreasing growth rate to 46% percent of the maximum to sustain twenty vegetative cells by a single heterocyst. Nitrogen uptake rate in the heterocyst was not limited by the upper bound of its current constraint (i.e. 10 mmol g DW⁻¹ h⁻¹) or by light, but instead, it was limited by the amount of carbon skeleton (glutamate) the 503 vegetative cell was able to provide for the incorporation of ammonia. From a stoichiometric 504 point of view, the heterocyst can be forced to produce even more fixed nitrogen from more 505 glutamate, at the expense of vegetative cell growth rate.

506 Growth simulations on thirteen different carbon sources suggested that glucose and sucrose 507 are among the highest yielding substrates, followed by pyruvate, proline, acetate and 508 glutamate. These results were confirmed by growth rate experiments which showed a good 509 overall correlation between the two datasets.

510 Based on these results, all possible combinations of twelve potential exchange metabolites 511 were evaluated in the two-cell model with respect to stoichiometric optimality. Within the 512 simulations, no more than ten exchange reactions were active simultaneously, and the 513 maximum growth rate was achieved by the combination of only seven exchange reactions. A 514 minimum of two exchange metabolites were always required for growth, and the exchange of 515 two metabolites already results in 70% of the maximum growth rate. The best-ranked two 516 metabolite scenario was exchange of ammonia for alanine in the heterocyst. In general, when 517 ammonia was transferred, growth rates were consistently higher by about 3-7% than the 518 growth rates obtained using glutamine as the nitrogen carrier. In case of four reactions 519 inclusion of ammonia increased growth rate by 34–38%, while sucrose was excreted by the 520 heterocyst rather than being consumed. When the heterocyst utilized sucrose as a source of 521 electrons and carbon, however, glutamine, glutamate and 2-oxoglutarate were selected by the 522 model as the best combination for growth, in a good agreement with the literature (Wolk et 523 al., 1976; Thomas et al., 1977; Schilling and Ehrnsperger, 1985; Böhme, 1998; Martin-524 Figueroa et al., 2000; Picossi et al., 2005; Cumino et al., 2007). Notably, the rate of sucrose 525 transport was closer to reported figures (Nürnberg et al., 2015) when the exchange of 526 glutamine to glutamate was fixed to a 1:1 ratio. The model correctly predicted the importance 527 of sucrose in the vegetative cell-heterocyst system, when glutamine, glutamate and 2-528 oxoglutarate were also exchanged. However, in many cases higher growth rates were 529 achieved when sucrose was transferred back to the vegetative cell rather than being consumed 530 by the heterocyst, suggesting that stoichiometrically this direction of sucrose exchange is 531 more optimal. In other cases combining the exchange of fructose and sucrose (among other 532 metabolites) the model found a way to ultimately transfer ATP from the heterocyst to the 533 vegetative cell. This transfer utilizing the reverse reaction of fructokinase may be 534 thermodynamically feasible at product concentrations 100-times higher than that of fructose, 535 although there is no evidence that such concentrations occur in a living cell. Nevertheless, it is 536 important to evaluate the consequences of different exchange metabolite combinations, even 537 if the results do not match all experimental observations. In fact, only a model can provide

exact answers to stoichiometric optimality, which may be a key in understanding anorganism's complex metabolic network.

540 Our model not only provides a comprehensively curated blueprint for the genome-scale 541 metabolic network of *Anabaena* sp. PCC 7120, but also serves as an important computational 542 tool that may allow the design of engineering strategies for the most studied nitrogen-fixing 543 cyanobacterium. Even though *Anabaena* sp. PCC 7120 may primarily be suitable for 544 laboratory research, it is a highly suited first target organism to assess proof-of-principle 545 engineering strategies towards the sustainable production of combined nitrogen (Chaurasia 546 and Apte, 2011) or other important bio-products (Heyer and Krumbein, 1991).

In future work, the model would greatly benefit from the inclusion of a more precise biomass equation, specific for *Anabaena* sp. PCC 7120 both under diazotrophic and non-diazotrophic conditions. Such an update of the current biomass equation to reflect the actual elemental composition of the organism's biomass may resolve the discrepancy between the computationally predicted and experimentally observed growth with glutamine.

552 Materials and Methods

553 Metabolic reconstruction of Anabaena sp. PCC 7120

A comprehensive protocol for the generation of high quality genome-scale models was followed here (Thiele and Palsson, 2010) to reconstruct the metabolic network of *Anabaena* sp. PCC 7120. Assumptions made during the reconstruction process are collected in Supplemental File S8.

558 The complete genome sequence and gene annotation of Anabaena sp. PCC 7120 are available 559 in several databases (Kaneko et al., 2001; Kanehisa et al., 2004; Nakao et al., 2010). The most 560 commonly used annotation was acquired from the curated RefSeq Genome Database of the 561 National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) (Tatusova et al., 2014) and 562 juxtaposed to a recent independent annotation from the J. Craig Venter Institute (JCVI) (Peterson et al., 2001) to pair a meaningful function and a protein product to as many genes as 563 564 possible. The metabolic function of proteins derived from genomic data was collected from 565 biochemical repositories (Kanehisa et al., 2004; Magrane and Consortium, 2011; Caspi et al., 566 2012) and primary literature (Supplemental File S3). A systematic, automated algorithm to 567 predict novel gene-protein-reaction (GPR) associations for cyanobacteria was also considered 568 (Krishnakumar et al., 2013) but not used here due to the large number of contradictions to the 569 other sources and experimental data.

570 All the information gathered above was mapped onto general metabolic pathways drawn for 571 the Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) database (Kanehisa et al., 2004) and 572 compared with the data therein. The most recent metabolic reconstruction of the unicellular 573 cyanobacterium Synechocystis sp. PCC 6803 (Knoop et al., 2013) was also mapped for 574 comparison and to serve as a template during the identification of critical metabolic functions 575 and gaps. The majority of these gaps were resolved either by finding genes in primary 576 literature or by identifying novel gene/protein candidates based on sequence homology (light 577 and dark pink bands on Figure 8, respectively). Homology-based searches were performed 578 using the BLASTX engine (Altschul et al., 1990) on the NCBI Anabaena sp. PCC 7120 579 proteome against gene sequences of reviewed protein entries from the UniProt 580 Knowledgebase (Magrane and Consortium, 2011) to identify best hits. The best hits were 581 verified by BLASTX search against NCBI RefSeq protein database filtered for cyanobacterial 582 entries (Supplemental File S4). A few gaps, otherwise unresolved, were resolved by 583 artificially adding the corresponding metabolic reaction to the model to allow the biosynthesis 584 of key metabolites (e.g. L-methionine and L-asparagine, light green bands on Figure 8) or complete missing steps of close-to-compete pathways (dark green bands). Gaps with over two 585 586 missing reaction steps were treated differently. In most cases such gaps indicate orphan reactions, and appear in sparsely represented pathways due to misannotation. Lacking any 587 588 connection to the rest of the network these orphan reactions do not carry metabolic flux in an 589 FBA solution, and were therefore removed from the reconstruction (dark grey bands on 590 Figure 8). Dead-end metabolites not consumed by any reaction in the network were resolved 591 by sink reactions artificially added to the model (yellow bands on Figure 8, also including the 592 biomass equations).

593

594 The equations for each metabolic reaction were adopted either from public databases 595 (Kanehisa et al., 2004; Caspi et al., 2012) or from the Synechocystis sp. PCC 6803 model 596 (Knoop et al., 2013). Reaction thermodynamics, in terms of reaction directionality, were 597 either acquired from the MetaCyC database (Caspi et al., 2012) or calculated using 598 eQuilibrator, an online calculator to estimate reactions' Gibbs free energy change (Flamholz 599 et al., 2012). Also, every reaction was evaluated for mass and charge balance using 600 eQuilibrator and adjusted if necessary. Those reactions not found in public resources were set bidirectional. Coenzyme dependencies (NAD⁺, NADP⁺ and quinones) in the KEGG database 601 602 were adapted for Anabaena sp. PCC 7120 wherever primary biochemical evidence was 603 available in the literature or left unchanged (light grey band on Figure 8).



Figure 8. Comparison between *An abaena* sp. PCC 7120 and *Synechocystis* sp. PCC 6803 (Knoop et al., 2013) stoichiometric models and their improvement over the KEGG database (Kanchisa et al., 2004). Metabolic gaps were resolved by either adapting reactions from literature (light pink bands) or by identifying new gene candidates (dark pink bands). A number of gaps could not be associated with any gene in *Anabaena* sp. PCC 7120 (light and dark green bands). Some reactions in the KEGG database were omitted due to inconsistent coenzyme usage or incomplete reaction formula (light grey band), or due to the lack of connection to the rest of the network (orphan reactions, dark grey band).

604 The stoichiometric model for Anabaena sp. PCC 7120 was generated in two formats: as a 605 single-cell model including photosynthesis and carbon-concentrating reactions for non-606 diazotrophic growth in a vegetative cell (Supplemental File S2), and as a two-cell model 607 setting every reaction to the right super-compartment (either a heterocyst or a vegetative cell) 608 under diazotrophic conditions (Supplemental File 1). Simulations described in the Results 609 section, unless otherwise noted, were performed on the two-cell model considering six 610 intracellular compartments (cytoplasm, cytoplasmic membrane, thylakoid lumen, thylakoid 611 membrane, carboxysome and periplasmic space) and the external medium (Figure 1).

612

613 Stoichiometric simulations and model evaluation

614 All simulations were run using the COBRA toolbox version 2 with Gurobi Optimizer 5.6.0 as 615 the solver in MATLAB R2103b environment (MATLAB, 2011; Schellenberger et al., 2011; 616 Gurobi Optimization, 2013). All FBA optimizations were calculated using a parameter setting 617 to minimize the taxicab norm. In addition, bicarbonate uptake rate was constrained to an upper bound of 10 mmol g DW⁻¹ h⁻¹ in phototrophic conditions for both cell types. 618 Simulations with the single-cell model were run on nitrate as the nitrogen source up to 10 619 mmol g DW⁻¹ h⁻¹, unless otherwise noted. The two-cell model was set to the uptake of 620 molecular nitrogen with an upper limit of 10 mmol g DW⁻¹ h⁻¹. When comparing single-cell 621 622 growth on combined nitrogen to the two-cell model under diazotrophic conditions both models were constrained for an equivalent total photon uptake of 10 mmol g DW⁻¹ h⁻¹. The 623 optimal distribution of the 10 mmol g DW⁻¹ h⁻¹ photons among the two super-compartments 624 was 7 and 3 mmol g DW^{-1} h⁻¹ in the vegetative cell and the heterocyst, respectively. In all 625 other simulations using the two-cell model photon uptake in both super-compartments was 626 constrained to 10 mmol g DW⁻¹ h⁻¹. For the evaluation of exchange metabolites between the 627 628 heterocyst and the vegetative cell unconstrained bidirectional diffusion was included to the 629 model for each metabolite.

630 ATP-driven transport reactions have been added to the single-cell model for each carbon and nitrogen source except for molecular nitrogen and ammonia that were exchanged via simple 631 diffusion. In case of mixo- and heterotrophic simulations nitrogen was supplied solely by 632 633 nitrate, whereas nitrogen sources were compared on bicarbonate in autotrophic conditions. In 634 heterotrophic simulations both photon and bicarbonate uptake rates were set to zero. Under 635 mixotrophic conditions photon and bicarbonate uptake reactions were constrained to 10 mmol g DW⁻¹ h⁻¹ (millimoles per gram dry cell weight per hour). Both carbon and nitrogen uptake 636 fluxes have been constrained to carry a maximum of 10 mmol g DW⁻¹ h⁻¹ carbon and nitrogen 637 source, respectively. For example, upper bound of the bicarbonate transport reaction (a single 638 carbon atom) was set to 10 mmol g DW⁻¹ h⁻¹, whereas glutamine uptake was set to 2 mmol g 639 DW⁻¹ h⁻¹ (five carbon atoms). 640

641

642 **Growth rate experiments**

643 Wild-type Anabaena sp. strain PCC 7120 was grown in triplicates at 30°C, with continuous 644 illumination from cool white LED lamps at 60 μ E m⁻² s⁻¹, on a rotary shaker at 200 rpm and in 645 sterile 100-ml Erlenmeyer flasks containing 30 ml BG-11 medium (Rippka et al., 1979) until 646 approx. OD730 = 1 measured in a 1-cm cuvette. Culture health was evaluated by reading the 647 absorbance spectrum between 300 and 800 nm. The spectra indicated no differences in 648 pigment composition of the biological replicates. The three replicates were then mixed to 649 minimize biological variation. Cells from the mixed wild-type culture were harvested by 650 centrifugation at 3000 g, washed in fresh BG-11, and resuspended to the original volume in 651 fresh BG-11.

652 Each of the $BG-11_{C}$ media containing one of the organic carbon sources were prepared from 653 the same BG-11 standard medium described elsewhere (Rippka et al., 1979), by replacing 654 bicarbonate for the corresponding organic substrate encapsulating equimolar carbon with 5 655 mM glucose, and filter sterilized. For example, fructose (six carbon atoms per molecule) and 656 glycerol (three carbon atoms per molecule) were set to a final concentration of 5 mM and 10 657 mM, respectively. The washed and resuspended cyanobacterial culture was diluted 10-times 658 in 3 ml of each BG-11_C media and dispensed into 3 wells of untreated 6-well flat-bottom 659 microtiter plates in a pre-randomized fashion. Plates were covered with a sterile lid, wrapped 660 into Parafilm and incubated under the same conditions as the original shake flask cultures. 661 Cyanobacterial growth and health was observed for up to 8 days by optical density measurements in a Tecan M200 Pro plate reader at 730 nm for culture density and 440 nm 662 (absorbance maximum of chlorophyll a) for cellular health. The two sets of growth curves 663 664 acquired at the different wavelengths showed good correlation, and therefore only readings at 665 730 nm were evaluated thereafter. Growth rates were determined for the exponential phase 666 from the growth curves provided on Figure S2 in Supplemental File S10.

667

668 Supplemental Material

669

670 Supplemental File S1. The reconstructed network of Anabaena sp. PCC 7120 under

671 diazotrophic conditions (two-cell model) in a COBRA-compatible SBML format (XML).

672 Supplemental File S2. The reconstructed network of Anabaena sp. PCC 7120 under non-

673 diazotrophic conditions (single-cell model) in a COBRA-compatible SBML format (XML).

674 Supplemental File S3. List of genes, reactions and reconstruction data for both the single-cell

and the two-cell model of *Anabaena* sp. PCC 7120 (XLSX).

676 Supplemental File S4. List of genes and reactions annotated here for *Anabaena* sp. PCC677 7120 (XLSX).

678 Supplemental File S5. Reactions different in the two super-compartments; orphan reactions

and KEGG reaction entries omitted from the working reconstruction (XLSX).

- 680 Supplemental File S6. Interactive metabolic map of the reconstruction in Cytoscape 2.8.3
- 681 format (CYS).
- 682 Supplemental File S7. Matlab script and map definition files to export COBRA flux
- 683 distributions and overlay onto the Cytoscape map (ZIP).
- 684 Supplemental File S8. An exhaustive list of assumptions made during the reconstruction
- 685 process (XLSX).
- 686 Supplemental File S9. Robustness of the model to changes in biomass composition.
- 687 Supplemental File S10. Growth rate comparisons on different carbon and nitrogen sources
- 688 (PDF).
- 689

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