



FRISO (v1.0): A physiological carbon flux model for simulating algal ^{13}C -fractionation

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Abstract. The CO_2 -dependancy of stable carbon isotope fractionation (ϵ_p) during marine algal carbon acquisition is widely used as a proxy for past atmospheric $p\text{CO}_2$. However, a mechanistic model linking ϵ_p and $p\text{CO}_2$ that explains observations in the modern ocean, culture experiments and across Pleistocene glacial-interglacial cycles is still lacking. Here, we present a multi-compartment model of an algal cell that simulates environmental control on passive CO_2 diffusion, active HCO_3^- transport, and ^{13}C fractionation during C-fixation. Relative to previous models, our main new implementations include light-sensitive HCO_3^- acquisition and calcification, and daylength-dependent pyrenoid permeability, based on physiological expectations. The model is fitted to and tested with culture data of multiple dinoflagellate species and the coccolithophore *Gephyrocapsa huxleyi*. This shows robust performance across a wide range of parameter values from culture experiments, implying an appropriate representation of the mechanistic control of ^{13}C -fractionation in algal organic matter, potentially paving the way for sedimentary work.

1 Introduction

Reconstructions of the past partial pressure of carbon dioxide ($p\text{CO}_2$) in the atmosphere are essential for understanding and quantifying the relation between Earth's climate and global carbon cycling (IPCC, 2021). Beyond the reach of direct measurements on air bubbles enclosed in Antarctic ice (~ 1.5 Ma), proxies are applied. One important line of proxies is based on the CO_2 -dependency of the preferential incorporation of ^{12}C over ^{13}C during carbon assimilation in marine phytoplankton relative to the surrounding dissolved CO_2 pool, termed ^{13}C -fractionation (Freeman & Hayes, 1992). Stable carbon isotope fractionation (ϵ_p) increases with higher dissolved CO_2 concentrations in most, if not all, algae (Bidigare et al., 1997; Brandenburg et al., 2022; Rost et al., 2002). Because ϵ_p and its CO_2 -dependency are strongly type- and species-specific, taxon-specific approaches to describe and quantify the ϵ_p - CO_2 relationship are needed to accurately translate ϵ_p values into CO_2 reconstructions (Brandenburg et al., 2022). This might include biomarkers such as alkenones produced by specific coccolithophores, and dinoflagellate cysts (dinocysts) (e.g., Bidigare et al., 1997; Frieling et al., 2023; Hoins et al., 2015; Phelps et al., 2021).



30 Conventionally, the ϵ_p -CO₂ proxy is based on a diffusive model of ϵ_p (Farquhar et al., 1982; Francois et al., 1993), where CO₂ is assumed to passively diffuse into (and out of) the cell, where it is fixed by the enzyme rubulose-1,5-biphosphate carboxylase (Rubisco). Under higher CO₂ concentrations, more CO₂ passes through the cell, resulting in more ventilation (also referred to as leakage) of the internal inorganic carbon pool (Rost et al. 2002). This way, ¹³C-fractionation during acquisition is closer to the maximally possible fractionation, which is determined by Rubisco. However, the simple diffusive model cannot explain culture and surface sediment alkenone-based ϵ_p values (Phelps et al., 2021) or ice core-based p CO₂ records over Pleistocene glacial cycles (Badger et al., 2019; Stoll et al., 2019). Clearly, it does not take the full complexity of algal ¹³C-fractionation into account. Notably, in addition to CO₂, algae may use HCO₃⁻ as an inorganic carbon source (Burns & Beardall, 1987), which has a ~10 ‰ higher $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ than CO₂ (Mook et al., 1974). Along with Rubisco and leakage, this determines ϵ_p (Sharkey and Berry, 1985). In turn, environmental and physiological factors including growth rate, temperature, cell size, and shape, may impact leakage and HCO₃⁻ use (e.g., Cassar et al., 2006; Laws et al., 1997; Phelps et al., 2021; Popp, Laws, et al., 1998; Wilkes & Pearson, 2019).

Hitherto no mechanistic models exist that accurately simulate ϵ_p based solely on diffusion of CO₂, active uptake of HCO₃⁻, and fixation by Rubisco. In addition, no model accurately simulates the effect of continuous light versus light/day cycles, and light intensity in general, on ϵ_p , without the need of other enzymes that induce additional isotope fractionation (Wilkes and Pearson, 2019), or *post hoc* parameterizations of “effective” fractionation (Holtz et al., 2017). Besides Wilkes and Pearson (2019) and Holtz et al. (2017), most multi-compartment flux-based approaches (Cassar et al., 2006; Holtz et al., 2015; Hopkinson, 2014; McClelland et al., 2017) do not explicitly incorporate light-dependent HCO₃⁻ transport. However, because HCO₃⁻ is a charged ion, its uptake requires active transport through the cell membrane and is therefore expected to depend on adenine triphosphate (ATP) produced during light-dependent photophosphorylation (Checchetto et al., 2012, 2013; Tester & Blatt, 1989). Indeed, light effects on ϵ_p have been recorded in coccolithophore culture experiments and alkenone surface sediment data (Phelps et al., 2021; Rost et al., 2002), and to a lesser extent in dinoflagellates (Hoins, Eberlein, Großmann, et al., 2016).

In this study, we build upon the vast collection of modeling, culture and core-top studies that aim to constrain the mechanisms driving ϵ_p , to develop a four-compartment mechanistic model of ¹³C-fractionation. The model simulates CO₂ diffusion, light-induced active uptake of HCO₃⁻, and Rubisco-associated carbon fixation. We compare the newly developed model with published culture data on dinoflagellates, and the coccolithophore *Gephyrocapsa huxleyi*, and assess the various environmental parameters and physiological conditions that influence ¹³C-fractionation. We show that this conceptually simple carbon uptake model, as first proposed by Sharkey and Berry (1985), accurately explains culture ϵ_p data.

2 Methods

2.1 The carbon flux and isotope fractionation model

60 The goal of our model – termed Fractionation of carbon isotopes In Simulated algal Organic matter (FRISO) – is to simulate ϵ_p values in bulk algal tissue. The formulation of ϵ_p is generally expressed as:



$$\varepsilon_p = \frac{\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{CO}_2} - \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{algae}}}{1 + \left(\frac{\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{algae}}}{1000} \right)} \quad (1)$$

This is algebraically derived from the fractionation factor alpha (α , Eq. 2), the delta notation of carbon isotopes ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in ‰, versus the Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite standard) and the epsilon formulation of isotopic fractionation ($\varepsilon = [\alpha - 1] \times 1000$).

65

$$\alpha = \frac{\left(\frac{^{13}\text{C}}{^{12}\text{C}} \right)_{\text{CO}_2}}{\left(\frac{^{13}\text{C}}{^{12}\text{C}} \right)_{\text{algae}}} \quad (2)$$

This formulation of ε_p approaches the difference between $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{CO}_2}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{algae}}$ ($\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{CO}_2\text{-algae}}$).

To simulate ε_p , we devised a model in R (R Core Team, 2023) consisting of four compartments (cf., Hopkinson, 2014; Wilkes & Pearson, 2019), which represent the cytosol (*c*), chloroplast (*ch*), thylakoid (*t*) and pyrenoid (*p*) of an alga (Fig. 1). The fluxes and interactions of the DIC species CO_2 and HCO_3^- between and within these compartments are modeled using a system of ordinary differential equations (Eq. 7 - 22). Carbonate ion (CO_3^{2-}) fluxes are disregarded because of their negligible role in photosynthesis, and because CO_3^{2-} can implicitly be treated as part of the HCO_3^- pool due their relatively quick interconversion (Hopkinson, 2014; Zeebe & Wolf-Gladrow, 2001). The concentrations of CO_2 and HCO_3^- in the four compartments (*c*, *ch*, *t* and *p*) are referred to as *C* for CO_2 , and *H* for HCO_3^- (e.g., *C_p*, *H_p*). CO_2 is fixed in the pyrenoid by Rubisco. All concentrations and rates of concentration changes within compartments are given in mol cm^{-3} and $\text{mol cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$, respectively. Carbonate chemistry within the model simulations is constrained using the *seacarb* package (Gattuso et al., 2023). For conversions from mol kg^{-1} to mol cm^{-3} , a water density of 1.025 kg L^{-1} is used. The model is fitted to culture data of dinoflagellates and *G. huxleyi* (Sect. 2.2.).

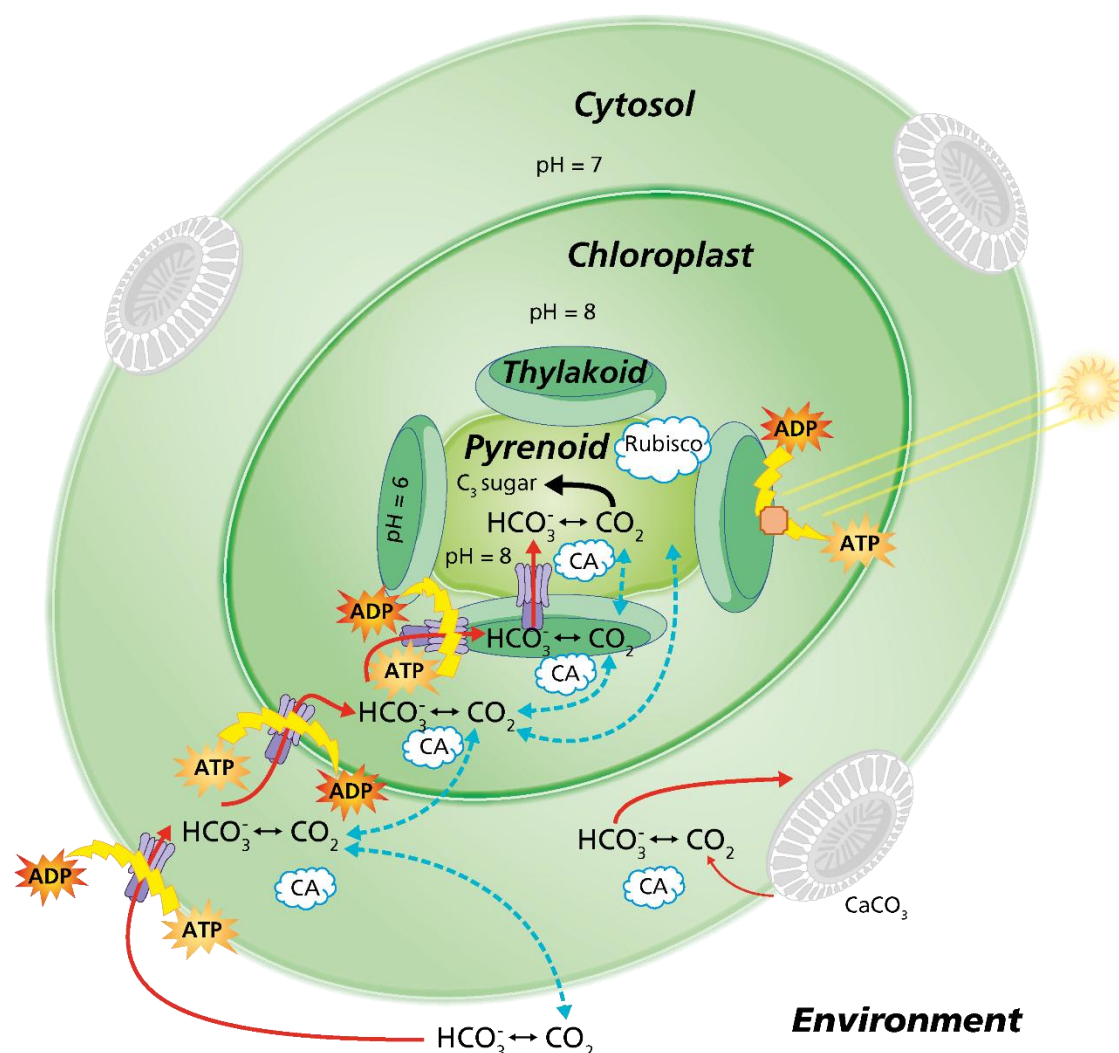


Figure 1: HCO_3^- and CO_2 fluxes in a conceptual four-compartment model (not to scale). HCO_3^- is actively taken up (red arrows) by membrane-bound transporters (purple channels) from the environment into the cytosol, from the cytosol into the chloroplast and from the chloroplast into the thylakoid. These membrane-bound transporters are driven by ATP, which is produced under the influence of light (photophosphorylation). CO_2 passively diffuses (blue dotted arrows) between the environment, cytosol, chloroplast, thylakoid and pyrenoid. Within the compartments, HCO_3^- and CO_2 are interconverted under the influence of carbonic anhydrase (CA). Within the pyrenoid, CO_2 is fixed by ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase oxygenase (Rubisco). In calcifying algae, HCO_3^- is removed from the cytosol to form CaCO_3 and CO_2 is produced. The pH of each compartment is displayed, where the pH of the pyrenoid is assumed to be equal to that of the chloroplast.

2.1.1 Acquisition of CO_2 and HCO_3^-

CO_2 diffuses between the external environment (*e*) and the cytosol (*c*), between the cytosol and the chloroplast stroma (*ch*),
80 between the chloroplast stroma and pyrenoid (*p*), and between the thylakoid lumen (*t*) and the pyrenoid (Fig. 1). The passive



transport of CO_2 between compartments (Eq. 1) depends on the concentration gradient ($C_x - C_y$), the compartment specific membrane permeability (p_m , in cm s^{-1}), the surface area (SA , in cm^2) of the membrane through which CO_2 diffuses, and the volume of the compartment (V , in cm^3) from or towards which CO_2 diffuses.

$$\text{CO}_2 \text{ transport}_{x \rightarrow y} \text{ (mol cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}) = \frac{SA_y}{V_y} p_m (C_x - C_y) \quad (3)$$

85 HCO_3^- is actively taken up (Eq. 2) from the seawater into the cytosol, out of the cytosol into the chloroplast, and from the chloroplast into the thylakoid, by membrane-bound transporter enzymes, with a rate following Michaelis-Menten kinetics. Considering HCO_3^- uptake occurs across the compartment membranes, the uptake rate is scaled to surface area and volumes of the respective compartments.

$$\text{HCO}_3^- \text{ uptake}_{x \rightarrow y} \text{ (mol cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}) = \frac{u_{\max} \cdot H_x \cdot SA_y}{K_n + H_x} \frac{1}{V_x}$$

where, $u_{\max} \text{ (mol cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}) = u_b + f_{\text{PFD}} \cdot \text{PFD}$ (4)

90 Here, K_n is the Michaelis (i.e., half-saturation) constant (in mol cm^{-3}), which likely varies between species (Rost, Riebesell, et al., 2006). We assume $u_{\max}$ to depend on light intensity (photon flux density, PFD) (Eq. 4), as light-induced ATP production (photophosphorylation) enhances membrane-bound transporter enzyme functioning (Sect. 2.1.2.) (Nakajima et al., 2013; Omata et al., 1999). For simplicity, we assume $u_{\max}$ to linearly depend on PFD, with factor f_{PFD} and base (no light) HCO_3^- uptake rate u_b . The unit of PFD is $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$, which is conventionally written as $\mu\text{E m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$.

95 We add a simple calcification term ($calc$, in s^{-1}) in the HCO_3^- equation of the cytosol compartment (Eq. 6), which represents the rate at which HCO_3^- is removed from the cytosol for calcification. This calcification rate also depends on light/daylength (Grubb et al., 2024; Zhang & Gao, 2021) and is set to 0 for the non-calcifying dinoflagellates. Net calcification results in the removal of 0.85 units of HCO_3^- from the cytosol and the addition of 0.35 units of CO_2 to the cytosol (Middelburg, 2019).

2.1.2 Light-dependent C-acquisition

100 The influence of light intensity and daylength on ε_p observed in culture studies has been attributed to processes that concentrate inorganic carbon near Rubisco (e.g., Hoins, Eberlein, Großmann, et al., 2016; Wilkes & Pearson, 2019). We include two generic light-dependent parameterizations. Firstly, we assume that the HCO_3^- uptake rate ($u_{\max}$) depends on light intensity, i.e., photon flux density (PFD). Under the influence of light, excitation of the thylakoid membrane-bound photosystems results in ATP-production and pumping of protons (H^+) into the thylakoid lumen (photophosphorylation). Through an interplay of H^+
105 pumping and ATP-stimulated co-transport of ions such as Cl^- , Mg^{2+} , K^+ and HCO_3^- , cell compartments manage to control their pH and create a proton motive force necessary for, e.g., ATP production (Barber et al., 1974; Checchetto et al., 2012, 2013; Pottosin & Schönknecht, 1995; Tester & Blatt, 1989). Indeed, the rate of photophosphorylation in algae is closely linked to combined availability of light and HCO_3^- (Cohen & Jagendorf, 1974; Zolotareva et al., 2013). Moreover, the relative electron



transport rate in *G. huxleyi* is known to be forced by light (Grubb et al., 2024; Zhang & Gao, 2021). Resolving the biochemical
110 complexity of the interactions between light and proton/ion exchange is beyond the scope of this model, so the light-dependent
stimulation of HCO_3^- uptake is parameterized linearly (Eq. 4).

Secondly, in dinoflagellates specifically, concentration of Rubisco in pyrenoid structures tends to occur during the day around
the cell center, whereas this disappears during the night, implying there is a diurnal forcing on pyrenoid configuration
(Nassoury et al., 2001). In haptophytes (*Phaeocystis antarctica* specifically), pyrenoids become less condensed – and thus
115 more diffuse – with light intensity (Moisan et al., 2006). To generically implement this in the model, we parameterized the
pyrenoid permeability (p_p) as follows:

$$p_p = p_m \cdot f_{pd} \text{ where } f_{pd} \propto \text{daylength} \quad (5)$$

Where the pyrenoid membrane permeability factor (f_{pd}) scales normal membrane permeability (p_m), influenced by daylength
120 with factor f_p .

2.1.3 Interconversion between HCO_3^- and CO_2

Within the four compartments, HCO_3^- and CO_2 are interconverted according to the acid dissociation constant (K_1)
corresponding to the interconversion reaction $\text{HCO}_3^- + \text{H}^+ \leftrightarrow \text{CO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$. K_1 is constrained using the *seacarb* package in R
(Gattuso et al., 2023; $K_1 = 1.17 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mol L}^{-1}$). The forward reaction rate (k_f) is represented by $\frac{10^{-\text{pH}}}{K_1} \cdot 10^6$ and the reverse
125 reaction rate (k_r) is represented by $\frac{K_1}{10^{-\text{pH}}} \cdot 10^6$. The pH of the cytosol, chloroplast, thylakoid and pyrenoid are set to 7, 8, 6 and
8, respectively (cf. Wilkes & Pearson, 2019). We assume the interconversion between HCO_3^- and CO_2 to happen quasi-
instantaneously because it is catalyzed by the enzyme carbonic anhydrase (CA), and therefore we multiply the reaction rates
by a generic large number (10^6). The system is insensitive to the choice of this number, as long as it is not a limiting factor,
and an order of magnitude bigger than 10^2 . Consequently, smaller values result in reduced ϵ_p as the interconversion rate
130 becomes a limiting factor.

2.1.4 Carbon fixation in the pyrenoid

Within the pyrenoid compartment, CO_2 (C_{ch}) is fixed into biomass under the influence of Rubisco with carbon fixation rate r_f .
The fixation rate (r_f , in $\text{mol cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$) is constrained similarly to Wilkes and Pearson (2019), by multiplying average particulate
organic carbon (POC, in mol) content with instantaneous growth rate (μ_i , in s^{-1}), scaled (i.e., divided) to cell volume (in cm^3),
135 for cultured algal cells.

Here, μ_i is the instantaneous growth rate, which is the growth rate (μ) corrected for the duration of the photoperiod:

$$\mu_i = \frac{\mu \cdot (L+D)}{L-D \cdot \text{resp}} \quad (6)$$



Where, L and D are the length of the light and dark period, and $resp$ represents dark respiratory carbon loss, which is assumed to be 15% (Rost et al., 2002; Laws and Bannister, 1980).

140 V_{ch} was based on V_{cell} (Table A1), which was approximated from POC (cf. Wilkes and Pearson, 2019) according to the equation from Menden-Deuer and Lessard (2000) for phototrophic dinoflagellates, and Popp et al. (1998) for *G. huxleyi*. Following Wilkes and Pearson (2019), the volumes and surface area of each compartment were then determined by assuming a spherical shape; $V_c = 0.847V_{cell}$, $V_{ch} = 0.09V_{cell}$, $V_t = 0.06V_{cell}$, and $V_p = 0.003V_{cell}$.

2.1.5 System of ODEs for carbon isotope dynamics

145 The abovementioned processes and parameterizations are incorporated into a system of ordinary differential equations (ODE) (Eq. 7-14) that simulate the inorganic carbon dynamics and carbon fixation. The model is run to steady state (i.e., the inorganic carbon fluxes are in equilibrium) using the *grind.R* R script for solving ODEs (De Boer, 2024).

$$\frac{dC_c}{dt} = k_{f1}H_c - k_{r1}C_c + \frac{SA_{cyt}}{V_{cyt}}p_c(C_e - C_c) - \frac{SA_{ch}}{V_{cyt}}p_{ch}(C_c - C_{ch}) + 0.35 \cdot calc \cdot H_c \quad (7)$$

$$\frac{dC_{ch}}{dt} = k_{f2}H_{ch} - k_{r2}C_{ch} + \frac{SA_{ch}}{V_{ch}}p_{ch}(C_c - C_{ch}) - \frac{SA_p}{V_{ch}}p_p(C_{ch} - C_p) \quad (8)$$

150 $\frac{dH_c}{dt} = k_{r1}C_c - k_{f1}H_c - \frac{u_{CH_c}}{(K_n + H_c)} \frac{SA_{ch}}{V_{cyt}} + \frac{u_{EHe}}{(K_n + H_e)} \frac{SA_{cyt}}{V_{cyt}} - 0.85 \cdot calc \cdot H_c \quad (9)$

$$\frac{dH_{ch}}{dt} = k_{r2}C_{ch} - k_{f2}H_{ch} + \frac{u_{CH_c}}{(K_n + H_c)} \frac{SA_{ch}}{V_{ch}} - \frac{u_{CHH_{ch}}}{(K_n + H_{ch})} \frac{SA_t}{V_{ch}} \quad (10)$$

$$\frac{dC_t}{dt} = k_{f3}H_t - k_{r3}C_t - \frac{SA_p}{V_t}p_T(C_t - C_p) \quad (11)$$

$$\frac{dH_t}{dt} = k_{r3}C_t - k_{f3}H_t + \frac{u_{CHH_{ch}}}{(K_n + H_{ch})} \frac{SA_t}{V_t} \quad (12)$$

$$\frac{dC_p}{dt} = \frac{SA_p}{V_p}p_p(C_{ch} - C_p) + \frac{SA_p}{V_p}p_T(C_t - C_p) - r_1 + k_{f4}H_p - k_{r4}C_p \quad (13)$$

155 $\frac{dH_p}{dt} = k_{r4}C_p - k_{f4}H_p \quad (14)$

Using the steady state values of C_c , C_{ch} , C_t , C_p , H_c , H_{ch} , H_t and H_p , stable carbon isotope dynamics and fractionation terms are added to the system of ODEs (Eq. 15-22), with the assumption that the stable carbon isotope dynamics are in steady state. Included fractionation terms are associated with CA-mediated hydration of CO_2 to HCO_3^- (ϵ_{CH}), the CA-mediated dehydration of HCO_3^- to CO_2 (ϵ_{HC}), and the fractionation associated with Rubisco ($\epsilon_{Rubisco}$), which is set to 24‰ for dinoflagellates (form II Rubisco) (Guy, 1993; McNevin et al., 2007; Robinson et al., 2003), and 11.1‰ for *G. huxleyi* (Boller et al., 2011). Although



the $\epsilon_{\text{Rubisco}}$ value of *G. huxleyi* is relatively low, this has recently been confirmed by Wijker et al. (2026), who found a $\epsilon_{\text{Rubisco}}$ value of $\sim 13\text{‰}$ for *G. oceanica*.

The $\epsilon_{\text{Rubisco}}$ value for dinoflagellates falls within the range (19 – 24‰) found for the type II Rubisco associated with dinoflagellates (Guy, 1993; McNevin et al., 2007; Robinson et al., 2003). However, these values are based on the analysis of purified Rubisco from α -proteobacteria (*Rhodospirillum rubrum*) and γ -proteobacteria (endosymbiont of *Riftia pachyptila* tubeworms), with a relatively large range of values between and within these taxa. Therefore, it could be possible that dinoflagellate Rubisco fractionates with a different value. For example, the highest ϵ_p value found for cultured *A. tamarense* ($\sim 27\text{‰}$) can only be reached if $\epsilon_{\text{Rubisco}}$ is set to a higher value. The correct $\epsilon_{\text{Rubisco}}$ value of dinoflagellate Rubisco fractionation remains uncertain and are important topics for future research.

Lastly, in the surrounding environment, we implement a temperature dependence of the kinetic carbon isotope fractionation associated with the CA-mediated interconversion of HCO_3^- and CO_2 , similar to that of the non-enzymatic equilibrium fractionation (Mook et al., 1974). This is based on the observation that the rate-limiting step in the CA-mediated conversion of HCO_3^- to CO_2 is the actual dehydration of HCO_3^- to CO_2 , instead of e.g. substrate binding (to Zn^{2+} within the enzyme) or product (CO_2) release, resulting in the observed CA-associated isotope fractionation to be very similar to the non-enzymatic fractionation (Paneth & O’Leary, 1985). Considering specifically this rate-limiting dehydration step is associated with a temperature dependent isotope effect (Mook et al., 1974), we implemented this into the model as such.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d(\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Cc}})}{dt} = & k_{f1}H_c(\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Hc}} - \epsilon_{\text{HC}}) - k_{r1}C_c(\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Cc}} - \epsilon_{\text{CH}}) + \frac{SA_{\text{cyt}}}{V_{\text{cyt}}}p_c(C_e\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Ce}} - C_c\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Cc}}) \\ & - \frac{SA_{\text{ch}}}{V_{\text{cyt}}}p_{\text{ch}}(C_c\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Cc}} - C_{\text{ch}}\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Cch}}) + 0.35 \cdot \text{calc} \cdot H_c \cdot (\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Hc}} - \epsilon_{\text{calc}}) \end{aligned} \quad (15)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d(\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Cch}})}{dt} = & k_{f2}H_{\text{ch}}(\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Hch}} - \epsilon_{\text{HC}}) - k_{r2}C_{\text{ch}}(\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Cch}} - \epsilon_{\text{CH}}) \\ & + \frac{SA_{\text{ch}}}{V_{\text{ch}}}p_{\text{ch}}(C_c\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Cc}} - C_{\text{ch}}\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Cch}}) + \frac{SA_p}{V_{\text{ch}}}p_p(C_p\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Cp}} - C_{\text{ch}}\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Cch}}) \end{aligned} \quad (16)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d(\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Hc}})}{dt} = & k_{r1}C_c(\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Cc}} - \epsilon_{\text{CH}}) - k_{f1}H_c(\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Hc}} - \epsilon_{\text{HC}}) \\ & - \frac{u_c H_c \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Hc}}}{(K_n + H_c)} \frac{SA_{\text{ch}}}{V_{\text{cyt}}} + \frac{u_e H_e \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{He}}}{(K_n + H_e)} \frac{SA_{\text{cyt}}}{V_{\text{cyt}}} - 0.85 \cdot \text{calc} \cdot H_c \cdot (\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Hc}} + \epsilon_{\text{calc}}) \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d(\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Hch}})}{dt} = & k_{r2}C_{\text{ch}}(\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Cch}} - \epsilon_{\text{CH}}) - k_{f2}H_{\text{ch}}(\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Hch}} - \epsilon_{\text{HC}}) \\ & + \frac{u_c H_c \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Hc}}}{(K_n + H_c)} \frac{SA_{\text{ch}}}{V_{\text{ch}}} - \frac{u_{\text{CH}} H_{\text{ch}} \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Hch}}}{(K_n + H_{\text{ch}})} \frac{SA_t}{V_{\text{ch}}} \end{aligned} \quad (18)$$



$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d(\delta^{13}C_{Ct})}{dt} &= k_{f3}H_t(\delta^{13}C_{Ht} - \varepsilon_{HC}) - k_{r3}C_t(\delta^{13}C_{Ct} - \varepsilon_{CH}) \\ &+ \frac{SA_p}{V_t}p_T(C_p\delta^{13}C_{Cp} - C_t\delta^{13}C_{Ct}) + \frac{SA_p}{V_t}p_T(C_p\delta^{13}C_{Cp} - C_t\delta^{13}C_{Ct}) \end{aligned} \quad (19)$$

$$\frac{d(\delta^{13}C_{Ht})}{dt} = k_{r3}C_t(\delta^{13}C_{Ct} - \varepsilon_{CH}) - k_{f3}H_t(\delta^{13}C_{Ht} - \varepsilon_{HC}) + \frac{u_{CH}H_{ch}\delta^{13}C_{Hch}}{(K_n + H_{ch})} \frac{SA_t}{V_t} \quad (20)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d(\delta^{13}C_{Cp})}{dt} &= \frac{SA_p}{V_p}p_P(C_{ch}\delta^{13}C_{Cch} - C_p\delta^{13}C_{Cp}) + \frac{SA_p}{V_p}p_T(C_t\delta^{13}C_{Ct} - C_p\delta^{13}C_{Cp}) \\ &- r_1(\delta^{13}C_{Cp} - \varepsilon_{RuBP}) + k_{f4}H_p(\delta^{13}C_{Hp} - \varepsilon_{HC}) - k_{r4}C_p(\delta^{13}C_{Cp} - \varepsilon_{CH}) \end{aligned} \quad (21)$$

$$\frac{d(\delta^{13}C_{Hp})}{dt} = k_{r4}C_p(\delta^{13}C_{Cp} - \varepsilon_{CH}) - k_{f4}H_p(\delta^{13}C_{Hp} - \varepsilon_{HC}) \quad (22)$$

185 2.1.6 Determining ε_p

Rubisco fixes CO_2 into sugar in the pyrenoid, and therefore the $\delta^{13}C$ of the assimilated carbon ($\delta^{13}C_{sugar}$) is determined from $\delta^{13}C_{Cp} - \varepsilon_{Rubisco}$. Net stable carbon isotopic fractionation of the cell (ε_p) against the surrounding CO_2 pool (C_e) is then determined from $\delta^{13}C_{Ce} - \delta^{13}C_{sugar} + 2\text{‰}$. Here, the 2‰ represents a general $\delta^{13}C$ offset ($\varepsilon_{bulk-sugar}$) between bulk biomass and glucose in marine algae (Teece & Fogel, 2007).

190 2.2 Model behavior and culture fit

We investigated the general behavior of the model by simulating ε_p as a response to varying key parameters, notably temperature, the Michaelis-Menten parameterization of HCO_3^- uptake, cell size, pyrenoid permeability, membrane permeability, calcification, carbon fixation rate, and $\varepsilon_{Rubisco}$.

Subsequently, three unconstrained parameters were used to fit modeled ε_p to measured ε_p of controlled growth experiments. Culture data of dinoflagellates (*Alexandrium tamarense*, *Gonyaulax spinifera*, *Protoceratium reticulatum* and *Scrippsiella trochoidea*) and *Gephyrocapsa huxleyi* (only calcifying diploid strains) were obtained from the literature (Bidigare et al., 1997; Hoins et al., 2015; Hoins, Eberlein, Großmann, et al., 2016; Pearson et al., 2025; Riebesell et al., 2000; Rost et al., 2002; Wilkes et al., 2017) (Table 1). The tunable parameters represent the maximal enzymatic uptake rate of HCO_3^- (u_{max}), the uptake rate of HCO_3^- from the cytosol into the coccolith vesicle (referred to as the calcification rate, *calc*), and the pyrenoid permeability scaling factor (f_{pd}) (Table 1). All other parameters for the model are constrained based on empirical data and relations (Table 1 and A1). Optimal model-data fits are assessed using the root mean square error (RMSE) between simulations and observations.



Considering the value for the Michaelis parameter (K_n), for the specific dinoflagellate species used in this study the value is unconstrained, particularly for the individual compartments, which might have distinct Michaelis-Menten behavior and hence would need specific parameterizations. Therefore, for simplicity, K_n is set to 0 for dinoflagellates, which means there is a constant HCO_3^- uptake, equal to the maximal HCO_3^- uptake rate u_{max} (in mol s^{-1}). For *G. huxleyi*, K_n is set to $2 \cdot 10^{-7} \text{ mol cm}^{-3}$ ($200 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$), which is the maximal value observed for *G. huxleyi* (Rost, Riebesell, et al., 2006) (see section 3.3 for a discussion on this value). Setting the K_n value to $200 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ means that at a HCO_3^- concentration of $200 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ the HCO_3^- uptake rate is half-maximal.

2.3 Validation of fitted model

To test the validity of the model fitted to culture data, *post hoc* model performance was evaluated by comparing simulations of three key processes with measurements from culture studies (Hoins, Eberlein, Van De Waal, et al., 2016b; Rost et al., 2002, 2003, 2006) that are not used as constrained parameters in the model. These processes are the relative HCO_3^- uptake (Eq. 23), CO_2 leakage (Eq. 24), and carbon isotope fractionation of particulate inorganic carbon (PIC) relative to CO_2 (ϵ_{PIC}) (Eq. 25 – 27).

Relative HCO_3^- uptake is determined according to the gross HCO_3^- uptake rate and total C_i uptake rate:

$$\text{HCO}_3^- : \text{total C}_i \text{ uptake} = \frac{\frac{u_{max} \cdot H_e}{K_n + H_e}}{p_c(C_e - C_c) + \frac{u_{max} \cdot H_e}{K_n + H_e}} \quad (23)$$

CO_2 leakage is calculated according to the CO_2 efflux ($p_c \times C_c$) and influx ($p_c \times C_e$) rate:

$$\text{CO}_2 \text{ leakage} = \frac{p_c(C_c)}{p_c(C_c) + p_c(C_e)} \quad (24)$$

ϵ_{PIC} is calculated as follows:

$$\epsilon_{\text{PIC}} = \frac{\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Ce}} - \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{PIC}}}{1 + \frac{\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{PIC}}}{1000}} \quad (25)$$

For this, $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{PIC}}$ is determined using ODEs for PIC production and isotopic fluxes, with a carbon isotopic fractionation between HCO_3^- and PIC (ϵ_{calc}) of 1‰ (Zeebe & Wolf-Gladrow, 2001):

$$\frac{d\text{PIC}}{dt} = 0.85 \cdot \text{calc} \cdot H_c \quad (26)$$

$$\frac{d(\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{PIC}})}{dt} = 0.85 \cdot \text{calc} \cdot H_c \cdot (\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Hc}} - \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{PIC}} + \epsilon_{\text{calc}}) \quad (27)$$



All data analyses are done in R (R Core Team, 2023), using packages *seacarb* (Gattuso et al., 2023), *dplyr* (Wickham et al., 2014), *readxl* (Wickham and Bryan, 2015) and *ggplot2* (Wickham, 2016). For all parameters descriptions, see Table 1.

Table 1. Constrained and tunable parameters used in FRISO. Taxon-specific (i.e., dinoflagellate species and *G. huxleyi*) empirically constrained parameters and unconstrained tunable parameters are used to fit the model to culture data (see Table A1).

Parameter	Description
Constrained	
p_m	Membrane permeability (cm s^{-1}). Likely relates to temperature (Blanco-Ameijeiras et al., 2020).
pH_c	Cytosol pH
pH_{ch}	Chloroplast pH
pH_t	Thylakoid pH
pH_p	Pyrenoid pH
POC	Particulate organic carbon, organic carbon content of cultured cells (pg cell^{-1})
V_{cell}	Cell volume (cm^3)
V_c	Cytosol volume (cm^3)
V_{ch}	Chloroplast volume (cm^3)
V_t	Thylakoid volume (cm^3)
V_p	Pyrenoid volume (cm^3)
SA_{cell}	Cell surface area (cm^2)
SA_c	Cytosol surface area (cm^2)
SA_{ch}	Chloroplast surface area (cm^2)
SA_t	Thylakoid surface area (cm^2)
SA_p	Pyrenoid surface area (cm^2)
$\varepsilon_{Rubisco}$	Rubisco associated stable carbon isotope fractionation (‰)
ε_{CH}	CA-mediated stable carbon isotope fractionation of $\text{CO}_2 \rightarrow \text{HCO}_3^-$ (‰)



ε_{HC}	CA-mediated stable carbon isotope fractionation of $\text{HCO}_3^- \rightarrow \text{CO}_2$ (‰)
ε_{eq}	Non-enzymatic equilibrium fractionation of $\text{HCO}_3^- \leftrightarrow \text{CO}_2$ (‰)
ε_{calc}	Stable carbon isotope fractionation of $\text{HCO}_3^- \rightarrow \text{CaCO}_3$
$\varepsilon_{bulk-sugar}$	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ offset between bulk biomass and glucose in marine algae
$resp$	Respiratory carbon loss (%)
μ	Growth rate (s^{-1})
μ_i	Instantaneous growth rate (s^{-1})
r_I	Carbon fixation rate ($\text{mol cm}^{-3} \text{s}^{-1}$)
K_m	Half-saturation (Michaelis) parameter of carbon fixation rate (mol cm^{-3})
K_I	Acid dissociation constant of $\text{HCO}_3^- \leftrightarrow \text{CO}_2$ (M)
k_{f1}	Forward reaction rate ($\text{HCO}_3^- \rightarrow \text{CO}_2$) in cytosol (s^{-1})
k_{r1}	Reverse reaction rate ($\text{CO}_2 \rightarrow \text{HCO}_3^-$) in cytosol (s^{-1})
k_{f2}	Forward reaction rate ($\text{HCO}_3^- \rightarrow \text{CO}_2$) in chloroplast (s^{-1})
k_{r2}	Reverse reaction rate ($\text{CO}_2 \rightarrow \text{HCO}_3^-$) in chloroplast (s^{-1})
k_{f3}	Forward reaction rate ($\text{HCO}_3^- \rightarrow \text{CO}_2$) in thylakoid (s^{-1})
k_{r3}	Reverse reaction rate ($\text{CO}_2 \rightarrow \text{HCO}_3^-$) in thylakoid (s^{-1})
k_{f4}	Forward reaction rate ($\text{HCO}_3^- \rightarrow \text{CO}_2$) in pyrenoid (s^{-1})
k_{r4}	Reverse reaction rate ($\text{CO}_2 \rightarrow \text{HCO}_3^-$) in pyrenoid (s^{-1})
Tunable	
u_{max}	Maximal HCO_3^- uptake rate by membrane-bound transporters. Can depend on light intensity (PFD) ($\text{mol cm}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)
f_{pd}	Unitless scaling factor for the pyrenoid permeability (P_p). $P_p = f_{pd} \cdot p_m$. Depends on daylength.
$calc$	Calcification rate (s^{-1})



3 Results and discussion

3.1 General model behavior

- 230 The general behavior of the model was investigated under a range of parameter settings (Fig. 2). The findings of this are:
- Modeled ϵ_p increases with $[\text{CO}_2(\text{aq})]$ because it forces the influx of fresh CO_2 , which reduces the accumulation of ^{13}C -enriched CO_2 in the cell.
 - The carbon isotope fractionation of the modeled Rubisco enzyme ($\epsilon_{\text{Rubisco}}$) fundamentally determines the upper limit of ϵ_p . However, the 2‰ $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ offset between bulk biomass and the sugar produced by photosynthesis ($\epsilon_{\text{bulk-sugar}}$) (Sect. 2.1.6.) means maximum ϵ_p is higher than $\epsilon_{\text{Rubisco}}$. Furthermore, calcification (*calc*) can force ϵ_p to even further exceed $\epsilon_{\text{Rubisco}}$, as this removes relatively ^{13}C -enriched HCO_3^- from the cytosol, allowing accumulation of ^{12}C within the cell (Fig. 5).
 - Increasing membrane permeability (p_m), and specifically the pyrenoid permeability (i.e., f_{pd}), causes higher ϵ_p , as it enhances inter-compartmental ventilation and higher influx of fresh CO_2 (Fig. 3).
 - Modeled ϵ_p decreases with HCO_3^- uptake rate (u_{max}), as this enhances the uptake of relatively ^{13}C -enriched HCO_3^- .
 - An increase in cell size (V_{cell}) forces a decrease in ϵ_p . This is because both CO_2 diffusion and HCO_3^- uptake are scaled to surface area and volume of the compartments (Eq. 3, 4). Bigger cell volumes result in lower surface area-to-volume ratios, which decreases CO_2 ventilation and thus reduces the influx of fresh CO_2 relative to the cell content (Fig. 3). However, the effect of V_{cell} on ϵ_p is small as compared to the other parameters.
 - The Michaelis parameter of HCO_3^- uptake (K_h ; the half-saturation HCO_3^- concentration) and temperature positively affect modeled ϵ_p in the lower range of $[\text{CO}_2(\text{aq})]$ (0 – 10 μM), but the overall effect is small compared to the other parameters. However, considering that culture experiments show temperature to force an increase in membrane permeability (in our model p_m), temperature likely substantially forces an increase in ϵ_p (Blanco-Ameijeiras et al., 2020).
 - Lastly, higher fixation rates (r_I) force a decrease in ϵ_p as it increases carbon demand and ^{12}C -depletion (Fig. 3).
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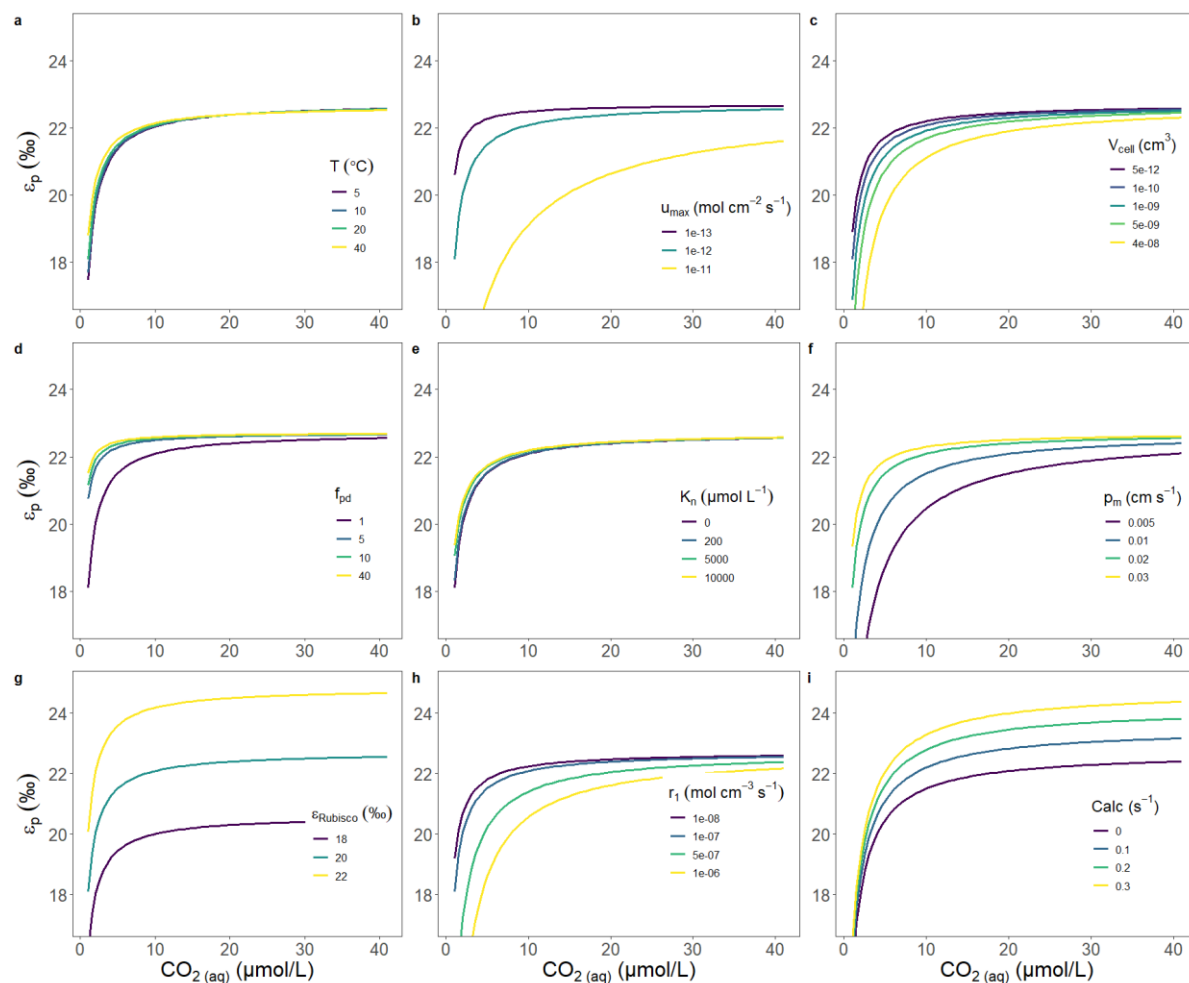


Figure 2: General model behavior. The effect of environmental and physiological factors on ϵ_p . (a) temperature (T), (b) maximal HCO_3^- uptake rate (u_{max}), (c) cell volume (V_{cell}), (d) pyrenoid permeability factor (f_{pd}), (e) Michaelis parameter of HCO_3^- uptake (K_m), (f) membrane permeability (p_m), (g) $\epsilon_{\text{Rubisco}}$, (h) carbon fixation rate (r_1), and (i) calcification rate (calc). If not the varying parameter, the default settings are: $r_1 = 1 \times 10^{-7}$ mol cm⁻³ s⁻¹, calc = 0 s⁻¹, $V_{\text{cell}} = 1 \times 10^{-10}$ cm³, T = 20 °C, $p_m = 0.02$ cm s⁻¹, $f_{\text{pd}} = 1$ (unitless), $u_b = 1 \times 10^{-12}$ mol cm⁻² s⁻¹, $\epsilon_{\text{Rubisco}} = 20\%$.

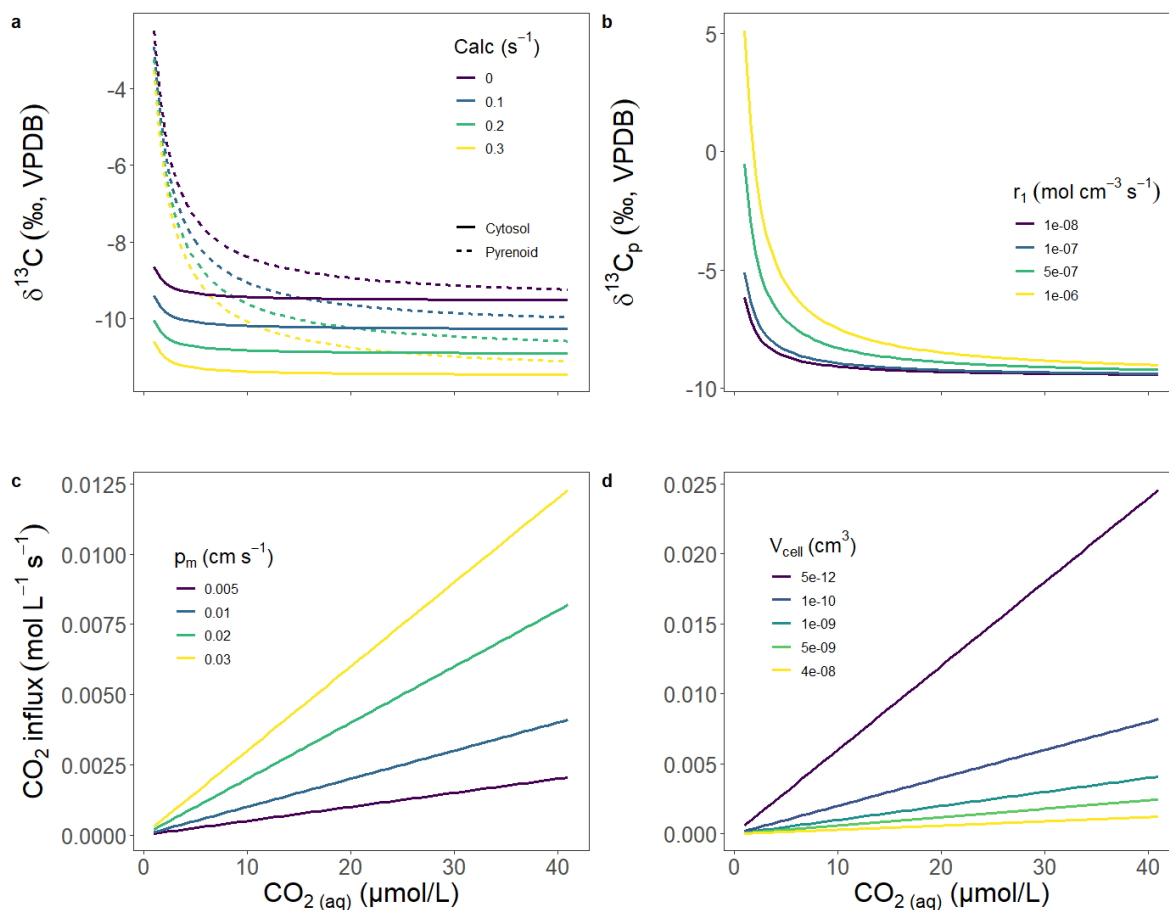


Figure 3: General model behavior (continued). a) The effect of calcification (calc) on $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of CO_2 in the cytosol and pyrenoid, b) the effect of carbon fixation rate on $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of CO_2 in the pyrenoid, c) the effect of membrane permeability (p_m) on CO_2 influx rate, and d) the effect of cell volume (V_{cell}) on CO_2 influx rate. If not the varying parameter, the default settings are: $r_1 = 1 \times 10^{-7} \text{ mol cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$, $\text{calc} = 0 \text{ s}^{-1}$, $V_{\text{cell}} = 1 \times 10^{-10} \text{ cm}^3$, $T = 20^\circ\text{C}$, $p_m = 0.02 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$, $f_{\text{pd}} = 1$ (unitless), $u_b = 1 \times 10^{-12} \text{ mol cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$, $\varepsilon_{\text{Rubisco}} = 20\text{‰}$. CO_2 influx rate = $p_m \cdot C_e \cdot \text{SA}_{\text{cell}}/V_{\text{cell}}$ (in $\text{mol L}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$).

3.2 Fitting model to culture data

To obtain the tunable model parameters u_{max} , f_{pd} , and calc , we fitted the model to culture data of dinoflagellates and *G. huxleyi* (Bidigare et al., 1997; Hoins et al., 2015; Hoins, Eberlein, Großmann, et al., 2016; Pearson et al., 2025; Riebesell et al., 2000; Rost et al., 2002; Wilkes et al., 2017) (Fig. 4; see Table A1 for parameter values).

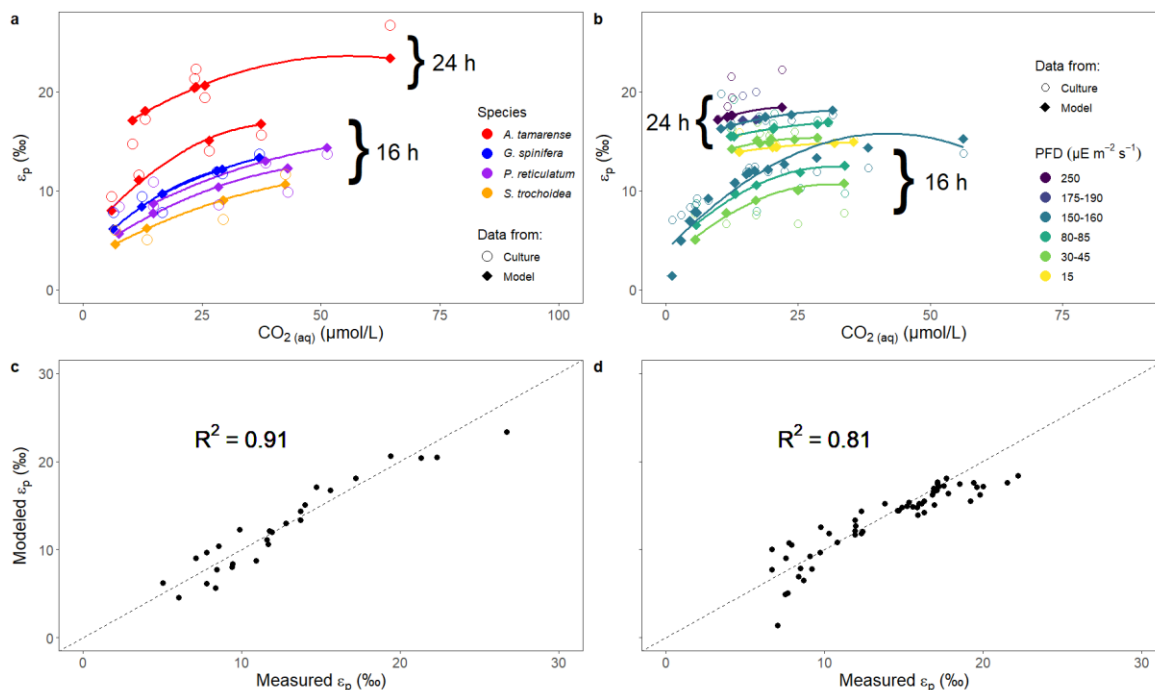


Figure 4: Model and culture data fit. Modeled (filled symbols and polynomial fit) versus corresponding culture (open symbols) ε_p values in dinoflagellates (Hoins et al., 2015; Hoins, Eberlein, Großmann, et al., 2016; Wilkes et al., 2017) (a) and *G. huxleyi* (Bidigare et al., 1997; Pearson et al., 2025; Riebesell et al., 2000; Rost et al., 2002) (b) conducted under 16 and 24 h photoperiod conditions. In a) the colors represent the different dinoflagellate species, in b) the colors represent light intensity (PFD). In a) for *G. spinifera* and *P. reticulatum*, the two different lines represent culture experiments and model simulations run with a PFD of 250 and 55 $\mu\text{E m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. Panels c) and d) show correlations between culture and model results of a) and b), respectively. Dashed black lines are the 1:1 lines.

3.2.1 Dinoflagellate culture fit

For dinoflagellates, we used culture experiments with *Scrippsiella trochoidea*, *Alexandrium tamarense*, *Gonyaulax spinifera* and *Protoceratium reticulatum* (Hoins et al., 2015; Hoins, Eberlein, Großmann, et al., 2016; Wilkes et al., 2017). The latter two were grown under low and high light conditions (photon flux density (PFD) of 55 and 250 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, respectively). This allows us to constrain the effect of light on HCO_3^- uptake (u_{max}) and ε_p , which should be light-dependent (Fig. 2). Accordingly, for *P. reticulatum*, u_{max} depends linearly on light intensity in our model (Eq. 4). As a result, ε_p decreases slightly with increasing light for this species (Fig. 4) – consistent with culture data (Hoins, Eberlein, Großmann, et al., 2016). In contrast, *G. spinifera* ε_p seems to be insensitive to light, consistent with our model, for which the model-data fit is not improved with a light-dependent u_{max} .

The parameter f_{pd} (pyrenoid permeability) reflects changes in pyrenoid structure influenced by daylength, as reported in dinoflagellate literature (Nassoury et al., 2001). Therefore, f_{pd} depends on daylength in our model (Sect. 2.1.2), which makes the model consistent with ε_p values recorded in *A. tamarense* cultures exposed to both continuous light and a 16:8 h light/dark



cycle (Hoins et al., 2015; Wilkes et al., 2017). In total, the model explains 91% of the variance in ε_p across all cultured dinoflagellate data ($R^2 = 0.91$, RMSE = 1.56 ‰, Fig. 4c).

270 3.2.2 *G. huxleyi* culture fit

Since light-dependent uptake of HCO_3^- should lower ε_p , the positive correlation between ε_p and light found in *G. huxleyi* culture experiments (Pearson et al., 2025; Rost et al., 2002) may be surprising. However, this result illustrates that the effect of light on ε_p is primarily determined by light- and daylength-dependent calcification (Grubb et al., 2024; Nimer & Merrett, 1993), which increases ε_p by removing HCO_3^- (Fig. 2). Accordingly, we model the calcification rate to increase linearly with both
275 PFD and daylength (Sect. 2.1.1.) – implying that daylength has a synergistic effect on calcification, in addition to PFD. Together with the daylength-dependent spatial configuration of the pyrenoid structure (i.e., f_{pd}) (cf. dinoflagellates), the model can fit the data of both 24 h and 16 h *G. huxleyi* culture experiments conducted under a range of PFD conditions. In total, the model explains 81% of the cultured *G. huxleyi* ε_p variance ($R^2 = 0.81$, RMSE = 1.88 ‰, Fig. 4d).

Intriguingly, the model accurately simulates observed ε_p values which are substantially higher than the $\varepsilon_{\text{Rubisco}}$ value of 11.1‰.
280 This is due to the interplay of the implemented light-dependent calcification and daylength-dependent pyrenoid permeability, which allow for accumulation of ^{12}C in the cell, specifically in the pyrenoid, which results in an effective (observed) ε_p far exceeding the apparent maximum carbon isotope fractionation set by $\varepsilon_{\text{Rubisco}}$ (Fig. 5).

Evidently, the effect of light on ε_p of calcifying *G. huxleyi* is substantially larger than the effect of light on ε_p of non-calcifying dinoflagellates (Fig. 6).

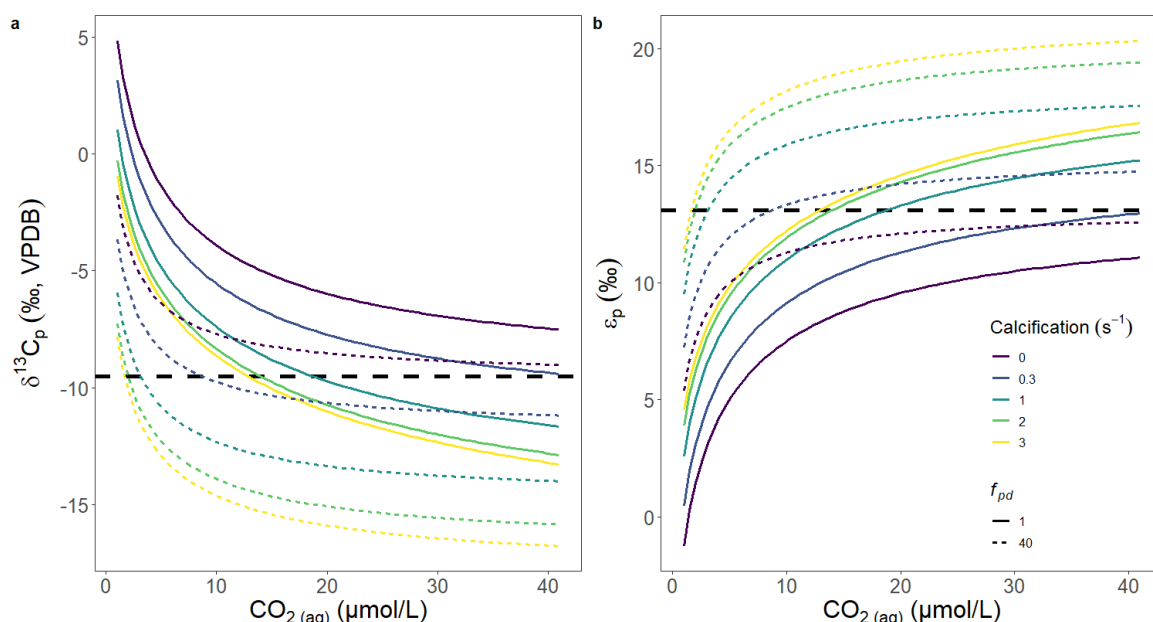


Figure 5: The effect of calcification and pyrenoid permeability (expressed using the pyrenoid permeability factor f_{pd} (Sect. 2.1.2)) on (a) $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of the CO_2 in the pyrenoid ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_p$), and (b) ε_p , using *G. huxleyi* model settings. These



simulations use $\epsilon_{\text{Rubisco}} = 11.1\text{‰}$, $u_{\text{max}} = 1.1 \cdot 10^{-11} \text{ mol cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$, $p_m = 0.01 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$, $V_{\text{cell}} = 1 \cdot 10^{-10} \text{ cm}^3$. The thick dashed horizontal line in (a) represents the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of the external (ambient) CO_2 pool ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Ce}}$), which is the asymptote the simulated $\delta^{13}\text{C}_p$ approaches with increasing $[\text{CO}_2(\text{aq})]$ in the case of non-calcifying simulations ($\text{calc} = 0$). Similarly, in (b) the thick horizontal line represents the maximally possible ϵ_p value without calcification, which is determined by $\epsilon_{\text{Rubisco}} + \epsilon_{\text{bulk-sugar}}$ (i.e., $11.1 + 2 = 13.1\text{‰}$). Evidently, calcification allows for lowering $\delta^{13}\text{C}_p$ beyond $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Ce}}$, as calcification removes relatively ^{13}C -enriched HCO_3^- from the internal cellular environment. This allows for ϵ_p values exceeding 13.1‰ . Note, f_{pd} of 1 and 40 correspond to daylengths of 16 and 24 hours respectively (Eq. 5).

285 3.3 Post hoc evaluation of model performance

The parameter settings as determined from the culture fit show that the environmental factors $[\text{CO}_2(\text{aq})]$ and light availability (PFD) have a substantial effect on modeled ϵ_p (Fig. 6) – a result consistent with surface sediment measurements associated with a wide range of natural light availability conditions (Phelps et al., 2021). Algal dimensions and physiological factors, including cell size and carbon fixation rate/growth rate, also affect modeled ϵ_p (Fig. 2). Culture studies in which all these
290 parameters and processes are synergistically assessed are currently lacking. Therefore, *post hoc* model output is compared to various culture measurements, notably net cellular CO_2 leakage, relative HCO_3^- uptake, and ϵ_{PIC} , to evaluate if the model fit to culture results is forced by the correct underlying mechanisms. Lastly, we investigate the influence of total alkalinity (TA) on HCO_3^- uptake and ϵ_p values.

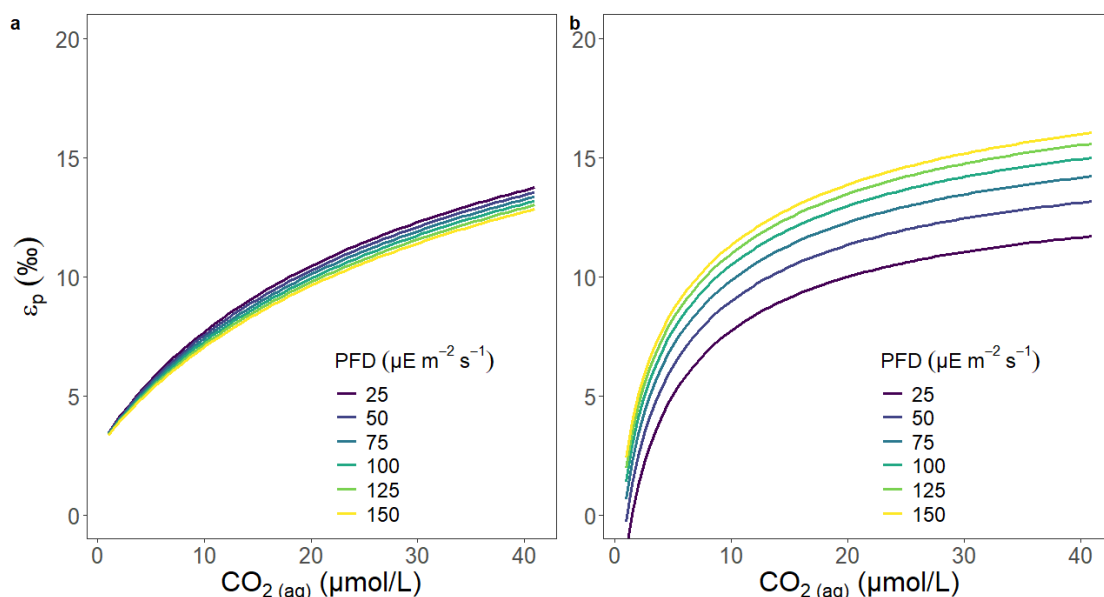


Figure 6: Model sensitivity to light availability (PFD) of dinoflagellate *P. reticulatum* (a) and *G. huxleyi* (b), using the parameter settings of the model fitted to respective culture data (Table A1). For *P. reticulatum* maximal HCO_3^- uptake rate (u_{max}) depends linearly on PFD ($u_{\text{max}} = 9 \cdot 10^{-13} \cdot \text{PFD} + 5 \cdot 10^{-10}$). For *G. huxleyi*, u_{max} is constant ($1.1 \cdot 10^{-11} \text{ mol cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$), while calcification rate (calc) depends linearly on PFD and daylength ($\text{calc} = 0.07 \cdot \text{daylength} + 0.01 \cdot \text{PFD} - 1.3$). In this example, daylength is set to 16 h.



3.3.1 CO₂ leakage and relative HCO₃⁻ uptake

295 The model accurately simulates mean relative HCO₃⁻ uptake and CO₂ leakage for the dinoflagellates *A. tamarense*, *P. reticulatum* and *S. trochoidea*. However, relative HCO₃⁻ uptake is generally overestimated for *G. spinifera*. For *G. huxleyi*, the model accurately simulates mean CO₂ leakage and the [CO_{2(aq)}]-dependency of CO₂ leakage (Fig. 7). The model also correctly simulates the [CO_{2(aq)}]-dependency of relative HCO₃⁻ uptake (Fig. 7).

300 Nevertheless, although the model performs generally well, some discrepancies with experimental data emerge. Firstly, the model generally underestimates mean relative HCO₃⁻ uptake in *G. huxleyi* (Fig. 7). In dinoflagellates, the [CO_{2(aq)}]-dependency of the relative HCO₃⁻ uptake and leakage in the model (Fig. 7) is not observed in experiments (Hoins, Eberlein, Van De Waal, et al., 2016).

Such model-culture discrepancies could reflect issues with the modelling approach. However, it is argued (e.g. Badger et al., 1994; Hoins, Eberlein, Van De Waal, et al., 2016; Rost et al., 2003) that the membrane inlet mass spectrometry method used
305 for assaying HCO₃⁻ uptake and cellular leakage in cultured algae (see Burkhardt et al. [2001] for a full description of the method) systematically underestimates leakage, as this is determined immediately after the light period when CO₂ is likely still being fixed. Furthermore, the method may well overestimate HCO₃⁻ uptake (Burkhardt et al., 2001). The HCO₃⁻ uptake assays are performed in a buffered medium with a constant pH of 8.0, possibly resulting in a higher HCO₃⁻ contribution than in the actual culturing conditions. Furthermore, assays are performed under PFD conditions of 300 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹, which likely
310 also results in higher apparent HCO₃⁻ uptake rates due the light-dependence of the associated membrane bound transporters. This could be the reason why there was not a consistent relationship observed between [CO_{2(aq)}] and leakage/relative HCO₃⁻ uptake for dinoflagellates, even though this is suggested by our model results.

Alternatively, some of the underlying assumptions of our model could be inaccurate. For example, discrepancies between modeled and cultured relative HCO₃⁻ uptake and CO₂ leakage values might be due to other DIC transport processes within the
315 algal cell, such as active CO₂ uptake (Rotatore et al., 1992), with or without CA-mediated conversion to HCO₃⁻ (cf. Wilkes and Pearson, 2019). Internal pumping of CO₂ allows for compartmental accumulation of CO₂, resulting in reduced passive diffusion from the environment into the cytosol (and thus higher relative HCO₃⁻ uptake). Furthermore, a ¹⁴C isotopic disequilibrium study showed HCO₃⁻ uptake was [CO_{2(aq)}]-dependent, irrespective of light conditions (Kottmeier et al., 2014). Furthermore, genes associated with HCO₃⁻ transport are upregulated under low DIC conditions (Bach et al., 2013). This could
320 suggest the Michaelis-Menten parameterization of HCO₃⁻ uptake in *G. huxleyi*, should also rely on [CO_{2(aq)}]. However, our simple approach, in which HCO₃⁻ uptake solely relies on [HCO₃⁻], accurately simulates the CO₂-dependency of HCO₃⁻ uptake (Fig. 7). This is because, per definition, relative HCO₃⁻ uptake increases when [CO_{2(aq)}] decreases, as this reduces the passive influx of CO₂ into the cell, and thus increases the proportion of active HCO₃⁻ uptake.

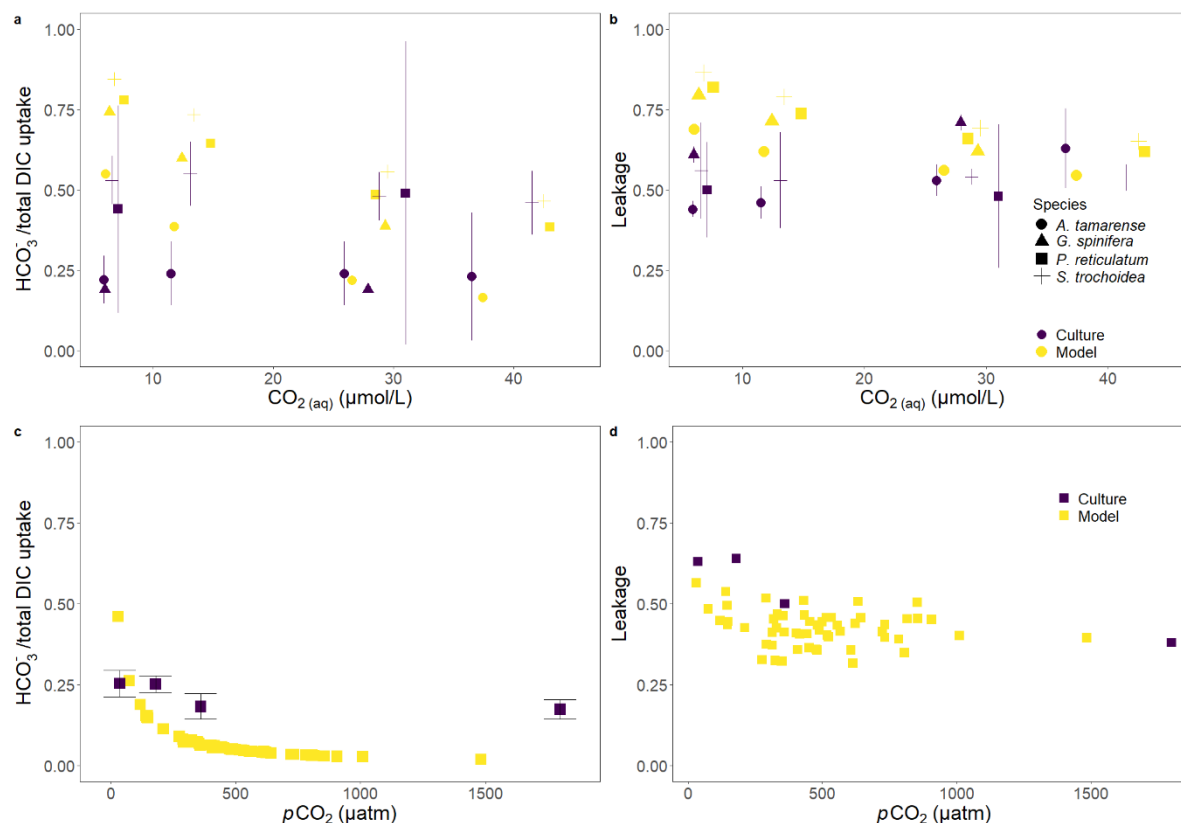


Figure 7: Modeled relative HCO_3^- uptake and CO_2 leakage. (a) and (b) for dinoflagellates under a 16 h photoperiod compared to culture measurements of Hoins et al. (2016). (c) and (d) for *G. huxleyi* compared to culture measurements of Rost et al. (2003; 2006). Plots (c) and (d) are plotted as a function of $p\text{CO}_2$ because $[\text{CO}_2(\text{aq})]$ data was lacking (Rost et al., 2003; 2006). Error bars represent 95% CI of culture measurements.

3.3.2 Simulated ϵ_{PIC} values in *G. huxleyi*

325 The model generally simulates ϵ_{PIC} values in line with culture measurements (Fig. 8). A t -test comparing modeled and measured ϵ_{PIC} values shows no significant difference ($t(65) = -1.56$, $p > 0.05$). However, in our model simulations, ϵ_{PIC} increases with light intensity (Fig. 8) whereas the culture study of Rost et al. (2002) shows a decrease. This likely relates to our simplified implementation of calcification, which assumes direct uptake of HCO_3^- and precipitation of CaCO_3 in the cytosol. In reality, the coccolith vesicle is a highly controlled environment in which ion fluxes are precisely regulated for

330 CaCO_3 crystallization (e.g., Kadan et al., 2021; McClelland et al., 2017). Considering the scope of our model is to accurately simulate the mechanisms behind organic – and not inorganic – carbon isotope fractionation, our relatively simple incorporation of calcification, which on average simulates ϵ_{PIC} values in line with culture data, suffices for this application.

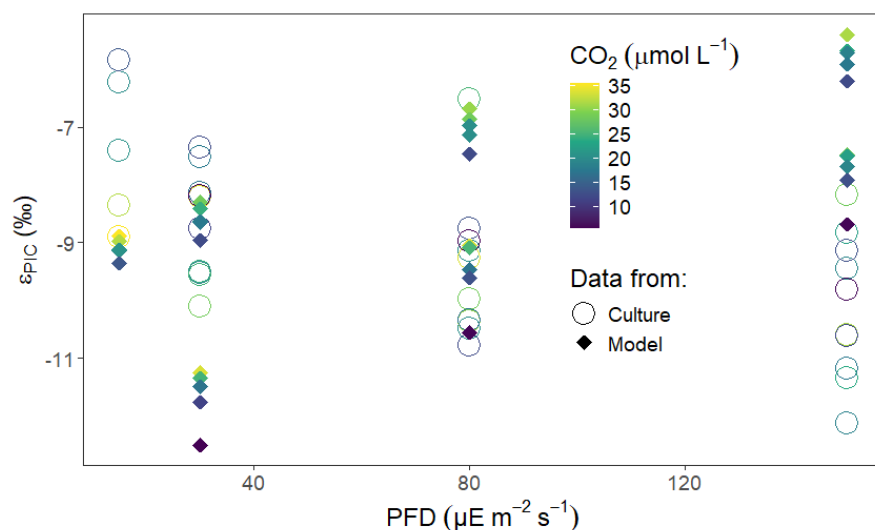


Figure 8: Simulated ϵ_{PIC} values as compared to culture measurements from Rost et al. (2002), as a function of PFD and $[CO_2(aq)]$.

3.3.3 The influence of alkalinity and the haploid stage

For dinoflagellates, we assumed a constant HCO_3^- uptake rate, by setting the Michaelis constant (K_n) to zero, even though for certain dinoflagellate species (i.e., *Protocentrum minimum* and *Heterocapsa triquetra*) HCO_3^- uptake depends on $[HCO_3^-]_{(aq)}$ (Rost, Richter, et al., 2006). Yet, for the dinoflagellate species used in this model the value of K_n is unconstrained. Importantly, setting K_n to 400 μM – as found maximally for dinoflagellates and *G. huxleyi* (Rost, Richter, et al., 2006) – does not affect the model fit ($R^2 = 0.9$, RMSE = 1.6 ‰). Also, the model response of relative uptake of HCO_3^- to changes in total alkalinity (TA) is not substantially affected by K_n . This results in ϵ_p to be rather insensitive to changes in TA – and thus $[HCO_3^-]_{(aq)}$ – when

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340 K_n is set to 400 μM (Fig. 9).

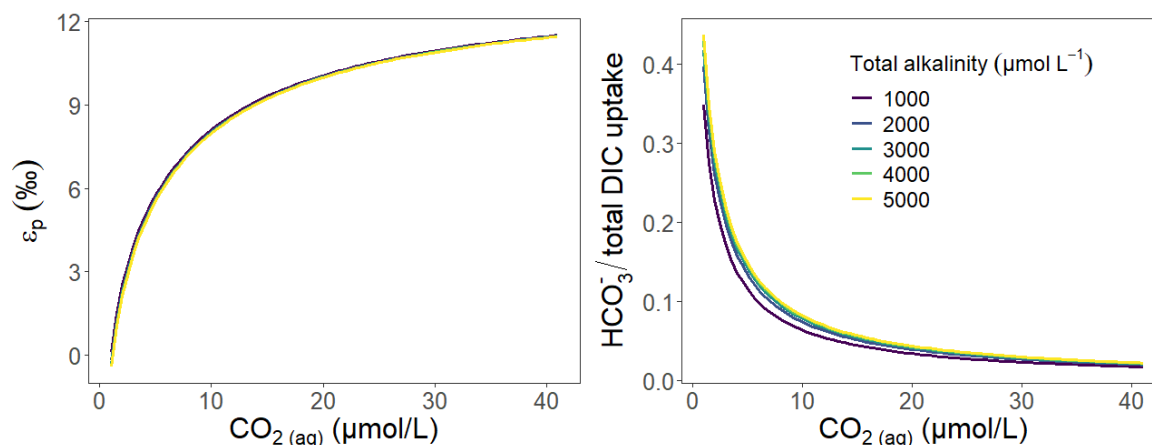


Figure 9: Model response to total alkalinity (TA). These simulations use *G. huxleyi* model parameter settings, ($\epsilon_{\text{Rubisco}} = 11.1\text{‰}$, $u_{\text{max}} = 1.1 \times 10^{-11} \text{ mol cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$, $p_m = 0.01 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$, $V_{\text{cell}} = 1 \times 10^{-10} \text{ cm}^3$) and $K_n = 400 \text{ μM}$.

Lastly, Bidigare et al. (1997) found similar ϵ_p values between the diploid calcifying and haploid non-calcifying *G. huxleyi*, which suggests no effect of calcification on ϵ_p , using a chemostat culturing setup with a constant washout rate. However, this method has been criticized for producing ϵ_p values that may not reflect natural conditions, as the dilution rate may be too high to allow the DIC pool in the culture medium to reach isotopic equilibrium (Zhang et al., 2022). Therefore, their result may be affected by these disequilibrium conditions. In our model, calcification substantially impacts ϵ_p (Fig. 2), and we argue that calcification should affect ϵ_p as it draws from the cytosolic HCO_3^- pool, thereby affecting internal carbonate chemistry of the alga, and also the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of the internal DIC pool. The latter is reflected in calcification rate-dependent $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{calcite}}$ values of cultured *G. huxleyi* (Grubb et al., 2024). Future controlled batch cultures on calcifying and non-calcifying *G. huxleyi* strains might provide additional constraints on the influence of calcification on carbon isotope fractionation.

3.4 Considerations for future research

Overall, our results demonstrate that the model of ^{13}C -fractionation based on diffusion of CO_2 and active HCO_3^- transport (Sharkey & Berry, 1985), modulated by environmental and physiological factors, accurately explains experimental data from cultured dinoflagellates and *G. huxleyi*. The mechanistic model explains a dominant part of the variability in culture experiments by simulating the impact of carbonate chemistry and light availability on the resulting inorganic carbon fluxes. It is positively evaluated by correspondence with culture-constrained physiological properties that emerge from the model. Importantly, the model can realistically simulate ϵ_p values exceeding $\epsilon_{\text{Rubisco}}$, by means of compartmentalized accumulation of ^{12}C .

Our approach does not require statistical corrections (Stoll et al., 2019) or hypothetical enzymes that induce fractionation (Wilkes and Pearson, 2019). Instead, it describes light and carbonate system-dependent processes evident from culture studies.



360 That is, passive influx of CO_2 , the diurnal forcing of the pyrenoid structure (Nassoury et al., 2001), and light-dependent active transport of HCO_3^- (Nakajima et al., 2013; Omata et al., 1999) and calcification (Grubb et al., 2024; Nimer & Merrett, 1993).

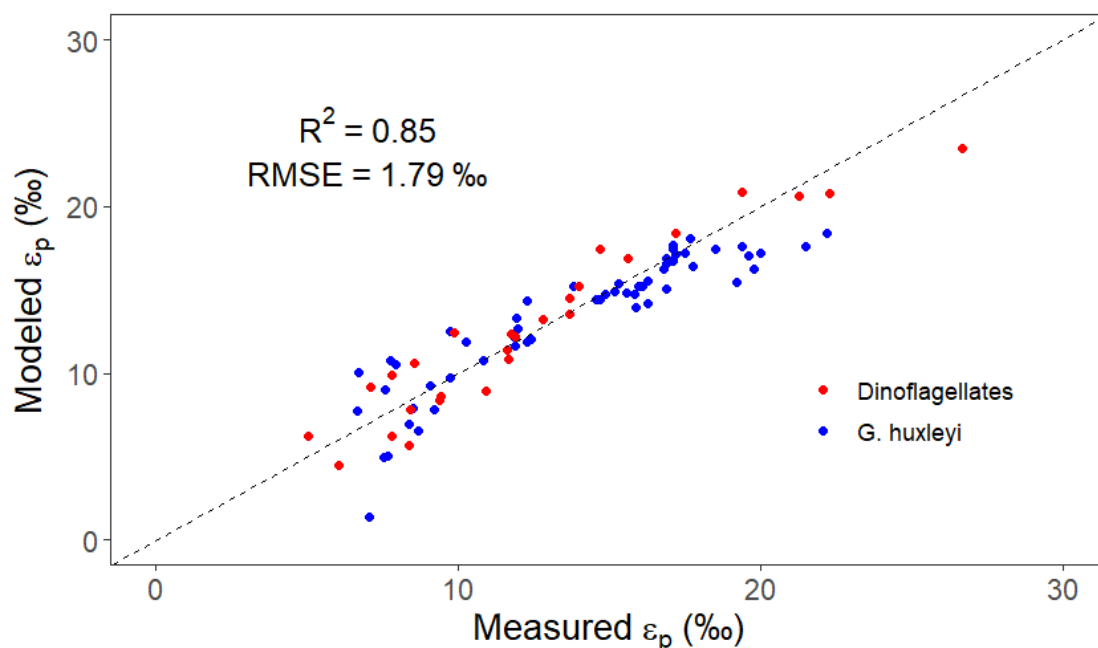


Figure 10: Total model fit. Correlation between culture and modeled ϵ_p . Dashed black lines is the 1:1 line.

Our fitted model can potentially be used for reconstructions of past CO_2 concentrations, based on sedimentary measurements of fossilized dinoflagellate cysts and *Gephyrocapsa*-derived alkenones (Frieling et al., 2023; Phelps et al., 2021). For this, all other parameters that force ϵ_p must be constrained. These are cell size, carbon fixation rate, temperature, daylength, and light availability (PFD).

370 Firstly, the size of dinoflagellate cysts directly relates to the size of the dinoflagellate that produced them (Finkel et al., 2007). For alkenones, size measurements of fossil coccoliths can be used to determine the size of the alkenone-producer (Hendriks & Pagani, 2007). Secondly, considering open ocean conditions generally result in algal growth rates far below laboratory conditions (Phelps et al., 2021), it is reasonable to assume carbon fixation rates (r_f in our model) are generally always below $1 \cdot 10^{-7} \text{ mol cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$, which is above the maximum value found for culture studies. This implies carbon fixation rates will have a negligible effect on ϵ_p (Fig. 2). Thirdly, temperature can be constrained using conventional seawater temperature proxies, as has been practice for this line of proxies for decades. Fourthly, daylength can be estimated based on (paleo-)latitude. Finally, light availability (PFD) remains extremely difficult to constrain, although some avenues could be explored based on thermocline- and habitat-depth reconstructions (e.g., Spero et al., 2003). Alternatively, a large range of possible PFD values can be used as input in the model to evaluate uncertainty. A subsequent bootstrapping approach (cf. Wubben et al., 2026) can give $[\text{CO}_2(\text{aq})]$ reconstructions with intrinsic uncertainties.



380 Lastly, although in our model temperature has only a small effect on ϵ_p , we might expect the effect of temperature to be larger. Culture experiments have shown that membrane permeability is significantly affected by temperature (Blanco-Ameijeiras et al., 2020). Since membrane permeability (p_m in our model) has a substantial influence on ϵ_p , this should affect ϵ_p accordingly. 385 Culture studies have not explored this effect in detail; the cited culture studies have used temperatures between 15 and 18 °C. However, sedimentary studies of both dinoflagellate cysts and alkenones, and marine particulate organic matter in general (Frieling et al., 2023; Liu et al. 2022; Phelps et al., 2021), indeed show a significant relationship between ϵ_p and temperature. Therefore, when using this model for the investigation of surface sediment measurements or reconstructions, a temperature-dependent membrane permeability (p_m), for example based on measurements of Blanco-Ameijeiras et al. (2020), should be taken into account.

4 Conclusion

Our model (FRISO) of ^{13}C -fractionation in algae, based on CO_2 diffusion and active HCO_3^- uptake, accurately simulates inorganic carbon fluxes and ϵ_p in algal cells during controlled growth experiments of multiple species, including coccolithophores and dinoflagellates. The model shows that, in addition to external $[\text{CO}_2(\text{aq})]$, the influence of light on HCO_3^- 390 transport is an important driver of ϵ_p . Therefore, we advise future culturing studies to put extra emphasis on studying the effects of light on cellular HCO_3^- uptake and calcification. This could improve mechanistic models such as FRISO, and hence reconstructions of past $p\text{CO}_2$.

Appendix A

Table A1. Parameter settings of the model fit to culture data of dinoflagellates (*A. tamarense*, *S. trochoidea*, *G. spinifera* and *P. reticulatum*) and *G. huxleyi*.

Parameter	Dinoflagellates	<i>G. huxleyi</i>	Reference/notes
Taxon specific			
p_m	0.027	0.01	Hopkinson et al. (2011), Wilkes & Pearson (2019), Blanco-Ameijeiras et al. (2020)
pH_c	7	7	Cf. Wilkes & Pearson (2019)
pH_{ch}	8	8	Cf. Wilkes & Pearson (2019)
pH_t	6	6	Cf. Wilkes & Pearson (2019)



pH_p	8	8	Cf. Wilkes & Pearson (2019)
V_{cell}	$1.24 \cdot POC^{1.22} \cdot 10^{-12}$	$3.51 \cdot POC^{1.14} \cdot 10^{-12}$	Menden-Deuer and Lessard (2000); Popp et al. (1998)
V_c	$0.847 \cdot V_{cell}$	$0.847 \cdot V_{cell}$	Wilkes and Pearson (2019)
V_{ch}	$0.09 \cdot V_{cell}$	$0.09 \cdot V_{cell}$	Hopkinson et al. (2011), van de Meene et al. (2012), Wilkes & Pearson (2019)
V_t	$0.06 \cdot V_{cell}$	$0.06 \cdot V_{cell}$	Hopkinson et al. (2011), van de Meene et al. (2012); Wilkes & Pearson (2019)
V_p	$0.003 \cdot V_{cell}$	$0.003 \cdot V_{cell}$	Hopkinson et al. (2011), van de Meene et al. (2012), Wilkes & Pearson (2019)
SA_{cell}	Derived from V_{cell}	Derived from V_{cell}	Assuming spherical shape
SA_c	Derived from V_c	Derived from V_c	Assuming spherical shape
SA_{ch}	Derived from V_{ch}	Derived from V_{ch}	Assuming spherical shape
SA_t	Derived from V_t	Derived from V_t	Assuming spherical shape
SA_p	Derived from V_p	Derived from V_p	Assuming spherical shape
$\varepsilon_{Rubisco}$	24	11.1	Guy (1993), McNevin et al. (2007), Robinson et al. (2003), Boller et al. (2011)
ε_{HC}	$9.866 \cdot \frac{1000}{T + 273.15} - 24.12$	$9.866 \cdot \frac{1000}{T + 273.15} - 24.12$	Mook et al. (1974), Paneth & O'Leary, (1985). T in °C
ε_{CH}	0	0	
ε_{eq}	$9.866 \cdot \frac{1000}{T + 273.15} - 24.12$	$9.866 \cdot \frac{1000}{T + 273.15} - 24.12$	Mook et al. (1974), Paneth & O'Leary (1985). T in °C
ε_{calc}	1	1	Zeebe & Wolf-Gladrow (2001)
$\varepsilon_{bulk-sugar}$	2	2	Teece & Fogel (2007)
$resp$	15%	15%	Rost et al. (2002), Laws and Bannister (1980)
μ_i	$\frac{\mu \cdot (L + D)}{L - D \cdot resp}$	$\frac{\mu \cdot (L + D)}{L - D \cdot resp}$	Rost et al. (2002), Laws and Bannister (1980). L and D are durations of light (L) and dark (D) period.



r_l	$\text{POC} \cdot \mu_i$	$\text{POC} \cdot \mu_i$	
K_l	First dissociation constant of carbonic acid	First dissociation constant of carbonic acid	<i>seacarb</i> in R, Gattuso et al., 2023
k_{f1}	$\frac{10^{-pH_c}}{K_1} \cdot 10^6$	$\frac{10^{-pH_c}}{K_1} \cdot 10^6$	Assumed to occur quasi-instantaneously (i.e. multiplied by 10^6)
k_{r1}	$\frac{K_1}{10^{-pH_c}} \cdot 10^6$	$\frac{K_1}{10^{-pH_c}} \cdot 10^6$	Assumed to occur quasi-instantaneously (i.e. multiplied by 10^6)
k_{f2}	$\frac{10^{-pH_{ch}}}{K_1} \cdot 10^6$	$\frac{10^{-pH_{ch}}}{K_1} \cdot 10^6$	Assumed to occur quasi-instantaneously (i.e. multiplied by 10^6)
k_{r2}	$\frac{K_1}{10^{-pH_{ch}}} \cdot 10^6$	$\frac{K_1}{10^{-pH_{ch}}} \cdot 10^6$	Assumed to occur quasi-instantaneously (i.e. multiplied by 10^6)
k_{f3}	$\frac{10^{-pH_t}}{K_1} \cdot 10^6$	$\frac{10^{-pH_t}}{K_1} \cdot 10^6$	Assumed to occur quasi-instantaneously (i.e. multiplied by 10^6)
k_{r3}	$\frac{K_1}{10^{-pH_t}} \cdot 10^6$	$\frac{K_1}{10^{-pH_t}} \cdot 10^6$	Assumed to occur quasi-instantaneously (i.e. multiplied by 10^6)
k_{f4}	$\frac{10^{-pH_p}}{K_1} \cdot 10^6$	$\frac{10^{-pH_p}}{K_1} \cdot 10^6$	Assumed to occur quasi-instantaneously (i.e. multiplied by 10^6)
k_{r4}	$\frac{K_1}{10^{-pH_p}} \cdot 10^6$	$\frac{K_1}{10^{-pH_p}} \cdot 10^6$	Assumed to occur quasi-instantaneously (i.e. multiplied by 10^6)
Tunable			
	2×10^{-10} for <i>A. tamarensis</i>		Relationship with PFD only found for <i>P. reticulatum</i> (Hoins et al., 2016)
	5×10^{-10} for <i>S. trochoidea</i>		
u_{max}	1×10^{-9} for <i>G. spinifera</i>	1.1×10^{-11}	
	$9 \times 10^{-13} + 5 \times 10^{-10} \cdot \text{PFD}$ for <i>P. reticulatum</i>		
f_{pd}	$= \begin{cases} 10, & \text{if daylength} = 24 \\ 1, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$	$= \begin{cases} 40, & \text{if daylength} = 24 \\ 1, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$	f_{pd} scaled to daylength, only for photoperiod range used in culture studies
p_p	$p_m \cdot f_{pd}$	$p_m \cdot f_{pd}$	Scaling of the regular membrane permeability p_m
$calc$	0	$0.07 \cdot \text{daylight} + 0.007 \cdot \text{PFD} - 1.3$	Linearly scaled to daylength and PFD



395 **Code and data availability**

The R scripts, underlying research data, and user manual for the model are publicly available (under the MIT license) and have been deposited in a Zenodo repository at <https://doi.org/10.5281/ZENODO.20812734> (Bats et al., 2026). This repository is permanently archived and linked to the active development version maintained on GitHub at <https://github.com/yfbats/FRISO-Physiological-model-for-algal-13C-fractionation>.

400 **Author contributions**

YFB: Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Methodology, Software, Validation, Visualization, Writing – original draft. **AS:** Conceptualization, Funding acquisition, Project administration, Supervision, Validation, Writing – review & editing. **GJR:** Conceptualization, Funding acquisition, Project administration, Supervision, Validation, Writing – review & editing.

405 **Competing interests**

The authors declare there are no competing interests.

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Acknowledgements

YFB thanks the organizers of the alkenone CO₂ pre-conference workshop (Goldschmidt 2025, Prague) for covering travel costs to their inspiring workshop, which resulted in fruitful discussions on the alkenone CO₂ proxy.

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Financial support

This work was funded by an award of the Ammodo Foundation to AS, for unfettered research. This work was also supported by EMBRACER (Summit grant no. SUMMIT.1.034), financed by the Netherlands Organization for Scientific Research (NWO).

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