

1 Conceptualizing biogeochemical reactions with an Ohm's law analogy

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7 **Key Points:**

- 8 • Ohm's law is proposed to formulate biogeochemical reactions.
- 9 • Ohm's law successfully models multiple substrates co-limited growth.
- 10 • Ohm's law may help building unified biogeochemical models.
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Abstract: In studying problems like plant-soil-microbe interactions in environmental biogeochemistry and ecology, one usually has to quantify and model how substrates control the growth of, and interaction among, biological organisms. To address these substrate-consumer relationships, many substrate kinetics and growth rules have been developed, including the famous Monod kinetics for single substrate-based growth, Liebig's law of the minimum for multiple-nutrient co-limited growth, etc. However, the mechanistic basis that leads to these various concepts and mathematical formulations and the implications of their parameters are often quite uncertain. Here we show that an analogy based on Ohms' law in electric circuit theory is able to unify many of these different concepts and mathematical formulations. In this Ohm's law analogy, a resistor is defined by a combination of consumers' and substrates' kinetic traits. In particular, the resistance is equal to the mean first passage time that has been used by renewal theory to derive the Michaelis-Menten kinetics under substrate replete conditions for a single substrate as well as the predation rate of individual organisms. We further show that this analogy leads to important insights on various biogeochemical problems, such as (1) multiple-nutrient co-limited biological growth, (2) denitrification, (3) fermentation under aerobic conditions, (4) metabolic temperature sensitivity, and (5) the accuracy of Monod kinetics for describing bacterial growth. We expect our approach will help both modelers and non-modelers to better understand and formulate hypotheses when studying certain aspects of environmental biogeochemistry and ecology.

Plain Language Summary

Currently, scientists often use ad-hoc or empirical approaches to conceptualize and formulate biogeochemical processes encountered in environmental sciences. Here we propose that many biogeochemical processes can be coherently conceptualized and formulated using an analogy

based on the Ohm's law, a mathematical theory that is widely used to model electric circuits, and also the land-atmosphere exchange of water and energy. We show that this Ohm's law analogy is able to explain observations such as why microbial growth would follow the Monod kinetics, how sometimes fermentation could dominate aerobic respiration when glucose is in great supply, how plant and microbes grow under multiple substrates co-limitation, etc. Since this Ohm's law analogy unifies the mathematical foundation of biogeophysics and biogeochemistry, we believe it can potentially lead to more robust land ecosystem models for projecting the climate change.

1. Introduction

In earth system modeling, biogeochemistry strongly affects mass and energy exchanges between ecosystems and the physical climate system [Heinze *et al.*, 2019]. Morphologically, biogeochemistry has three pillars: biology, geophysics, and chemistry. In the context of mathematical modeling, geophysics and chemistry generally have much stronger theoretical foundations than biology [Brutsaert, 2005; Stumm and Morgan, 1996; Vallis, 2006], even though all three are macroscale responses that emerge from atomic interactions, which in an ideal (but impractical) scenario can be predicted by solving the Schrödinger equation of all atoms together (so that arguably they all are subtopics of physics) [Feynman *et al.*, 2011b].

In seeking a better understanding of ecological dynamics, e.g., competition and symbiosis, mathematical formulations of the consumer-substrate relationship are essential for both theoretical modeling and interpreting empirical experiments [Tilman, 1982]. In the past, three approaches have been used to obtain such relationships. The first approach is by fitting certain empirical response functions to observational data [e.g., Monod, 1949]. The second approach is based on an ad-hoc heuristic conceptualization of the problem, e.g., the logistic equation was derived by adding a quadratic term to dissipate the exponential growth of a

population when Pierre-Francois Verhulst (1804-1849) was helping his teacher Alphonse Quetelet (1775-1874) to model human population dynamics [Cramer, 2002]. The third approach is based on systematic applications of some theory, such as the law of mass action [Atkins *et al.*, 2016], statistical mechanics [Ma, 1985], and renewal theory [Doob, 1948]. Notably, Michaelis-Menten kinetics (and some of its extensions) can be derived by applying any of these theories (see reviews in [Kooijman, 1998; Swenson and Stadie, 2019; Tang and Riley, 2013; 2017]), with the renewal theory even being able to show that Michaelis-Menten kinetics is the statistical mean of the stochastic description of a single enzyme molecule processing the substrate molecules [English *et al.*, 2006; Reuveni *et al.*, 2014].

Compared to the empirically-based and ad-hoc approaches, which generally provide limited understanding of the processes implied by the parameters, theory-based approaches have the advantage of linking various related albeit fragmented knowledge (that is abstracted from a much wider range of observations compared to the limited amounts of observational data used by the empirically-based approaches), thereby enabling a deeper understanding of the processes and systems of interest. For instance, when law of mass action is used to derive the Michaelis-Menten kinetics, using the related theory of chemical reaction rates (e.g., Smoluchowski's diffusion model of chemical reaction [von Smoluchowski, 1917]), Tang and Riley [2019b] were able to upscale the microbially-enabled reactions from one permease to a single bacteria cell and then to a representative soil volume ($\sim O(1 \text{ cm}^3)$), and used the results to explain why substrate affinity parameters are highly variable in soil. Additionally, the theory-based approach has been used to derive the temperature response function of microbial activity [Ghosh and Dill, 2010], and to explain why Michaelis-Menten kinetics are more appropriate for microbial uptake of

small molecules, while reverse Michaelis-Menten kinetics are more appropriate for enzyme degradation of organic polymer particles [Tang and Riley, 2019a].

In this paper, we first introduce an analogy that uses the Ohms' law from electric circuit theory to interpret the resource-consumer relationship. Similar analogies have been widely used by land models to represent the physics of land-atmosphere exchanges of water, gases, and energy [e.g., Lawrence *et al.*, 2019; Riley *et al.*, 2011; Shuttleworth and Wallace, 1985; Wu *et al.*, 2009]. (So that in a certain sense, the Ohm's law is unifying all three aspects of biogeochemistry into physics.) We then exploit this analogy to explain several interesting biogeochemical phenomena that are observed in various context. We conclude the paper with recommendations of other potential applications of this analogy.

Although the example problems below are solved with the Ohm's law analogy, we note that they can all be solved using the more accurate Equilibrium Chemistry Approximation (ECA) kinetics [Tang and Riley, 2013] or the synthesizing unit plus ECA (SUPECA) kinetics [Tang and Riley, 2017]. However, the Ohms' law analogy proposed here is more intuitive and can provide an alternative to the ECA and SUPECA kinetics in formulating biogeochemical models.

2 Methods

2.1 A brief review of Ohm's law and circuit theory

We below briefly review Ohm's law and the theory of series and parallel resistor circuits. More detailed descriptions of circuit theory can be found in Feynman *et al.* [2011a].

Ohm's law describes the relationship between voltage (V), electric current (I), and resistor (r):

$$I = \frac{V}{r}. \tag{1}$$

113 To simplify the presentation, we assume that all variables are properly defined with their
114 international units.

115 For a series concatenation of resistors r_j , application of Ohm's law yields

$$I = \frac{V}{\sum_j r_j}. \quad (2)$$

116 For a parallel concatenation of resistors r_j , application of Ohm's law leads to

$$I = V \left(\sum_j \frac{1}{r_j} \right), \quad (3)$$

117 and the electric current through each resistor is

$$I_j = \frac{V}{r_j}. \quad (4)$$

118 From equations (3) and (4), we can further derive

$$\frac{I_j}{I} = \frac{1}{1 + \left(\sum_{l \neq j} \frac{r_j}{r_l} \right)}, \quad (5)$$

119 which states that when all other resistors are fixed, the fraction of current through r_j increases
120 with decreasing r_j . We will see later that this inference is very useful to explain shifts in
121 metabolic pathways in biological organisms.

122 **2.2. Michaelis-Menten kinetics interpreted with Ohm's law**

123 Michaelis-Menten kinetics represents the single-enzyme catalyzed single-substrate
124 reaction velocity v as

$$v = \frac{v_{max}ES}{K+S}, \quad (6)$$

125 where, in the original application by *Michaelis and Menten* [1913], v_{max} is the maximum
126 specific hydrolysis rate enabled by the invertase and E , S , and K are enzyme concentration,
127 substrate concentration, and half saturation coefficient, respectively. We note that, for enzymes,
128 K also includes contributions from the dissociation process [e.g., *Briggs and Haldane*, 1925].

By defining $k_f = v_{max}/K$, equation (6) can be rewritten as

$$v = \frac{E}{\frac{1}{v_{max}} + \frac{K}{v_{max}S}} = \frac{E}{\frac{1}{v_{max}} + \frac{1}{k_f S}}. \quad (7)$$

We then note that equations (7) and (1) are of the same form. Therefore, for Michaelis-Menten kinetics, if we apply the Ohm's law analogy by regarding E as voltage and v as current, the corresponding resistance is

$$r = \frac{1}{v_{max}} + \frac{1}{k_f S} = r_E + r_S, \quad (8)$$

where r_E represents the resistance as an intrinsic property (i.e., a kinetic trait) of the enzyme, and r_S represents the resistance introduced by the effective substrate delivery rate towards the enzyme. Further, r_E and r_S are of the unit of time, where (in the renewal theory [e.g., *Kooijman*, 1998]) r_E is the mean time for the enzyme to convert the enzyme-bound substrate molecules into product molecules and r_S is the mean time for the substrate molecules to approach the enzyme molecule and form enzyme-substrate complexes. Together, r is the mean first passage time of the stochastic description of how a single enzyme catalyzes the degradation of the substrate molecules [e.g., *Kooijman*, 1998; *Ninio*, 1987; *Qian*, 2008]. In particular, in many reactions, k_f is approximately proportional to the substrate diffusivity [*Alberty and Hammes*, 1958; *Chou and Jiang*, 1974], such that $k_f S$ is the diffusive substrate flux sensed by enzyme molecules. We then observe that r_S increases with the decrease of diffusive substrate flux, which can result from lower substrate concentration, or lower diffusivity (due to tortuosity, adsorption, or lower moisture in porous media like soil).

That the resistance r in equation (8) is of the time unit has also motivated some researchers to apply the time budget idea to derive predator-prey relationships [e.g., *Holling*, 1959; *Murdoch*, 1973], where r_E is referred as the mean time spent on handling the prey, and r_S

is the mean time for the predator to encounter the prey. However, few studies have pointed out the linkage between the time-budget analysis and Ohm's law, except that, based on a suggestion by *Thomsen et al.* [1994], *Almeida et al.* [1997] made an analogy of the membrane electron-transport chain to an electric circuit, and successfully used it to model denitrification. Recently, this method has been used by *Domingo-Felez and Smets* [2020] to build the Activated Sludge Model-Electron Competition (ASM-EC) model, which demonstrated the efficacy of this analogy in constructing robust biogeochemical models. Further, we noticed that the molecular biology of membrane electron transport chains and redox reactions are quite similar to the working principles of chemical batteries [Schmidt-Rohr, 2018], thereby motivating us to explore more extensively the applicability of Ohm's law analogy below.

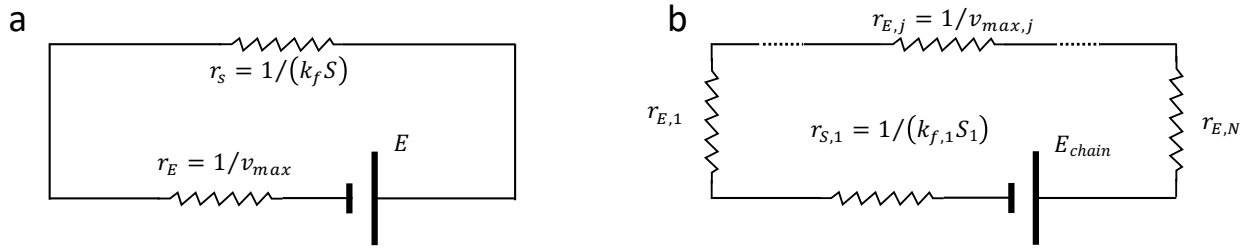


Figure 1. **a.** circuit schema for the Michaelis-Menten kinetics; **b.** series resistor-based schema for an enzyme chain and its reaction on substrate S_1 , where dotted lines indicate multiple resistors $r_{E,j}$ concatenated in series. Symbols are explained in the main text.

In the Ohm's law analogy, kinetic interactions between an enzyme and its substrate molecules can be summarized as the battery-resistor relationship shown in Figure 1a, where the battery potential is enzyme concentration E , and the battery's resistance is r_E , while the appliance (i.e., substrate) has resistance r_s . However, we note that this analogy is accurate only when the substrate is non-limiting for the enzymes (i.e., when MM kinetics are more appropriate [Tang and Riley, 2019a]). For cases when substrate is limiting, the reverse Michaelis-Menten kinetics are more appropriate [Tang, 2015], and the roles of substrate and enzyme in the analogy

are reversed (such as for enzyme hydrolysis of polymeric organic matter; [Tang and Riley, 2019a]). (We note that the ECA kinetics are able to more accurately handle the wide range of substrate abundances with respect to enzymes [Tang, 2015].) We next show how the Ohm's law analogy will help us formulate biogeochemical kinetics for various situations.

3. Applications

3.1 Series resistor circuit-based formulation of chain-like enzyme reactions

Many metabolic pathways consist of a chain of reactions. Such examples include the Calvin-cycle (in photosynthesis), membrane electron transport chain, glycolysis, citric acid cycle, etc., and note that most of these reaction pathways involve cofactors [Madigan *et al.*, 2009; Taiz and Zeiger, 2006]. Nonetheless, assuming that at each step the enzyme and its cofactor together form an integrated enzyme unit to process the substrate delivered from a prior step, and the whole chain of enzymatic reactions are in detailed balance (i.e., the whole chain is in steady state without overflow [Cao, 2011], an assumption that is often made in flux balance models [Orth *et al.*, 2010]), we can then use the series circuit analogy to calculate the overall enzyme kinetics straightforwardly. According to the schema for this configuration (Figure 1b), when the whole enzyme chain is taken as a catalysis unit, the abundance of enzyme at the first step represents the voltage of the battery, and the total resistance is

$$r_{chain} = \left(\sum_{j=1}^N r_{E,j} \right) + r_{S,1} = r_E + r_{S,1}, \quad (9)$$

where $r_{E,j} = v_{max,j}^{-1}$ such that the first right hand side term is the total resistance represented by the maximum catalysis rate of the overall enzyme chain, and $r_{S,1} = (k_{f,1}S_1)^{-1}$ is the resistance due to the incoming substrate flux to the first enzyme in the chain. For the overall chain, the specific reaction rate for substrate processing is then

$$\frac{v_{chain}}{E_{chain}} = \frac{1}{r_{chain}} = \frac{\left(\sum_{j=1}^N v_{max,j}^{-1}\right)^{-1} S_1}{\frac{K_1}{v_{max,1}\left(\sum_{j=1}^N v_{max,j}^{-1}\right)} + S_1}, \quad (10)$$

191 where $K_1 = v_{max,1}/k_{f,1}$. Equation (10) can be simplified as

$$\frac{v_{chain}}{E_{chain}} = \frac{v_{max,chain} S_1}{K_{chain} + S_1}, \quad (11)$$

192 with

$$v_{max,chain} = \left(\sum_{j=1}^N v_{max,j}^{-1}\right)^{-1} < \min_j \{v_{max,j}\}, \quad (12)$$

193 and

$$K_{chain} = \frac{K_1}{v_{max,1}\left(\sum_{j=1}^N v_{max,j}^{-1}\right)} = \frac{K_1}{1 + \sum_{j=2}^N v_{max,1}/v_{max,j}}. \quad (13)$$

194 From equation (10), we assert that an enzyme chain is equivalent to an enzyme unit with kinetic
 195 traits $v_{max,chain}$ and K_{chain} . Moreover, from equations (12) and (13), we infer that increasing the
 196 chain length decreases the overall reaction rate $v_{max,chain}$ (which is even slower than the
 197 slowest step) and the half saturation coefficient K_{chain} of the enzyme chain.

198 Several interesting inferences can be additionally drawn from equations (9)-(13). First,
 199 the second law of thermodynamics suggests that a thermal engine has higher thermodynamic
 200 efficiency when it runs slower (and the highest efficiency can only be achieved when the system
 201 is in thermodynamic equilibrium, i.e., not running at all [*Salamon et al.*, 2001]). Since a longer
 202 reaction chain slows down the overall transformation rate from a given substrate to its final
 203 product, (as an example,) application of the above equations to electron transport chains leads us
 204 to assert that a longer chain will likely be thermodynamically more efficient (this argument
 205 echoes the Ladder theorem in finite time thermodynamics; [*Salamon et al.*, 2017]). In contrast,
 206 shorter electron transport chains imply faster use of substrates even though they result in less
 207 efficient substrate use. Therefore, the length of electron transport chains can characterize the

tradeoff between substrate use rate and substrate use efficiency, an important selection factor for organisms during their evolution. Indeed, in one chemostat based study, *Chen et al.* [2017] found that Vibrionales bypass respiratory complex III to consume part of the oxygen using a cytochrome bd terminal oxidase to speed up growth, but the bioenergetic efficiency becomes ~32% as compared to ~80% for the longer canonical respiratory chain. Similarly, observations indicate that the less efficient fermentation pathway which has fewer enzymes involved is faster than the aerobic respiration pathway that has many more enzymes involved (thus is longer and more efficient; [Madigan et al., 2009]). We will later (in section 3.5) use the parallel circuit analogy to explain why such bypassing of more efficient pathways will occur under substrate abundant conditions.

The second inference to be made is about the temperature sensitivity of parameters $v_{max,chain}$ and K_{chain} . In the simplest one-step case, $v_{max,chain}$ equals $v_{max,1}$, and K_{chain} equals K_1 . According to transition state theory [e.g., Eyring, 1935], $v_{max,1}$ would have the following temperature dependence,

$$v_{max,1} = v_{max,1,ref} T \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{\Delta G_1}{RT}\right), \quad (14)$$

where $v_{max,1,ref}$ is some reference reaction rate, T is temperature, ΔG_1 is the Gibbs energy of activation, and R is the universal gas constant. Similarly, for a reaction pathway consisting of a chain of enzymes, each $v_{max,j}$ will have a temperature dependence similar to that in equation (14), that is

$$v_{max,j} = v_{max,j,ref} T \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{\Delta G_j}{RT}\right), \quad (15)$$

which when entered into equation (12), $v_{max,chain}$ will then be of the form

$$v_{max,chain} = \left[\sum_{j=1}^N \left(v_{max,j,ref}^{-1} \exp\left(\frac{\Delta G_j - \Delta G_1}{RT}\right) \right) \right]^{-1} T \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{\Delta G_1}{RT}\right). \quad (16)$$

227 Therefore, if $(\Delta G_j - \Delta G_1)/(RT) \ll 1$, the temperature dependence of $v_{max,chain}$ will be
228 approximately like that in equation (14).

229 The temperature dependence of K_1 is determined by the temperature dependencies of
230 $v_{max,1}$ and $k_{f,1}$. Inside the microbial cytoplasm and cell membrane (and also for whole microbial
231 cells in most natural environments), $k_{f,1}$ is closely related to diffusivity [Madigan *et al.*, 2009].
232 Thus, according to the Stokes-Einstein equation of diffusivity ($D = (k_B T)/(6\pi\eta a)$, where k_B is
233 the Boltzmann constant, η is the dynamic viscosity, and a is the radius of the spherical particle)
234 [Feynman *et al.*, 2011c], $k_{f,1}$ can be approximated with a linear dependence on temperature
235 divided by the temperature sensitivity of η (which is $\exp(B/(T - T_{VF}))$, where B and T_{VF} are
236 empirical parameters, according to the semi-empirical Vogel-Fulcher-Tamman-Hesse equation
237 [Garcia-Colin *et al.*, 1989]). When the temperature dependence of $k_{f,1}$ is combined with the
238 Eyring-type temperature dependence of $v_{max,1}$, the definition of $K_1 (= v_{max,1}/k_{f,1})$ suggests
239 that its temperature dependence is of the Arrhenius type (because $\exp(B/(T - T_{VF}))$ of the
240 viscosity is very similar to the Arrhenius equation, and the linear temperature dependence of $k_{f,1}$
241 cancels out the linear part of the temperature dependence of $v_{max,1}$). Once again, if
242 $(\Delta G_j - \Delta G_1)/(RT) \ll 1$, K_{chain} will probably have an Arrhenius-type temperature sensitivity as
243 well.

244 When the above inferences are put into equation (11), we can then infer the temperature
245 dependence of v_{chain} . From chemical thermodynamics, the temperature dependence of v_{chain}
246 depends on chemical kinetics (as characterized by the Michaelis-Menten term, i.e., $\frac{v_{max,chain}S_1}{K_{chain}+S_1}$ in
247 this example) and thermodynamics (as a function of the Gibbs free energy) of the enzyme
248 catalyzed reaction. However, because enzymes are proteins, their conformational states are also

249 temperature dependent [Murphy *et al.*, 1990]. Thermodynamically, the undenatured (aka
 250 catalytically active) fraction of an enzyme population of length n_x (as measured by the number
 251 of amino acid residues) can be described as [Murphy *et al.*, 1990]

$$f_{ax} = \frac{1}{1 + \exp\left(-\frac{n_x \Delta G_x}{RT}\right)}, \quad (17)$$

252 where

$$\Delta G_x = \Delta H^* - T\Delta S^* + \Delta C_p[(T - T_H^*) - T \ln(T/T_S^*)], \quad (18)$$

253 and

$$\Delta C_p = -46.0 + 30(1 - 1.54n_x^{-0.268})N_{CH,x}, \quad (19)$$

254 with heat capacity ΔC_p defined as the energy required to reorganize the water molecules
 255 surrounding the protein [Ratkowsky *et al.*, 2005]. ΔC_p increases with the non-polar accessible
 256 area of the molecule, as measured by $N_{CH,x}$, the average number of non-polar hydrogen atoms
 257 per amino acid residue. ΔC_p also measures the hydrophobic contribution, with higher values
 258 implying higher hydrophobicity (and notice that greater $N_{CH,x}$ implies higher hydrophobicity).
 259 Other parameters include ΔS^* as the enthalpy change at T_S^* (the convergence temperature for
 260 entropy) and ΔH^* as the enthalpy change at T_H^* (the convergence temperature for enthalpy),
 261 which can be considered to be constant under environmental conditions [e.g., Ratkowsky *et al.*,
 262 2005]. Assuming $N_{CH,x}$ and n_x can be obtained from proteomic data for each type of enzyme
 263 [e.g., Sawle and Ghosh, 2011], we can then calculate $f_{ax,j}$ for all enzymes involved in the chain.
 264 Therefore, putting together the kinetic, thermodynamic, and catalytically active enzyme fraction
 265 functions, we obtain

$$v_{chain} = \frac{v_{max,chain} S}{K_{chain} + S} F_T \prod_j f_{ax,j}, \quad (20)$$

266 where the thermodynamic temperature dependence of the reaction is

$$F_T = 1 - \exp\left(-\frac{\Delta G_{reac}}{RT}\right), \quad (21)$$

with ΔG_{reac} being the Gibbs free energy of the overall reaction being catalyzed, which is defined by the chemical activity of initial substrates and final products [e.g., *Jin and Bethke, 2007*].

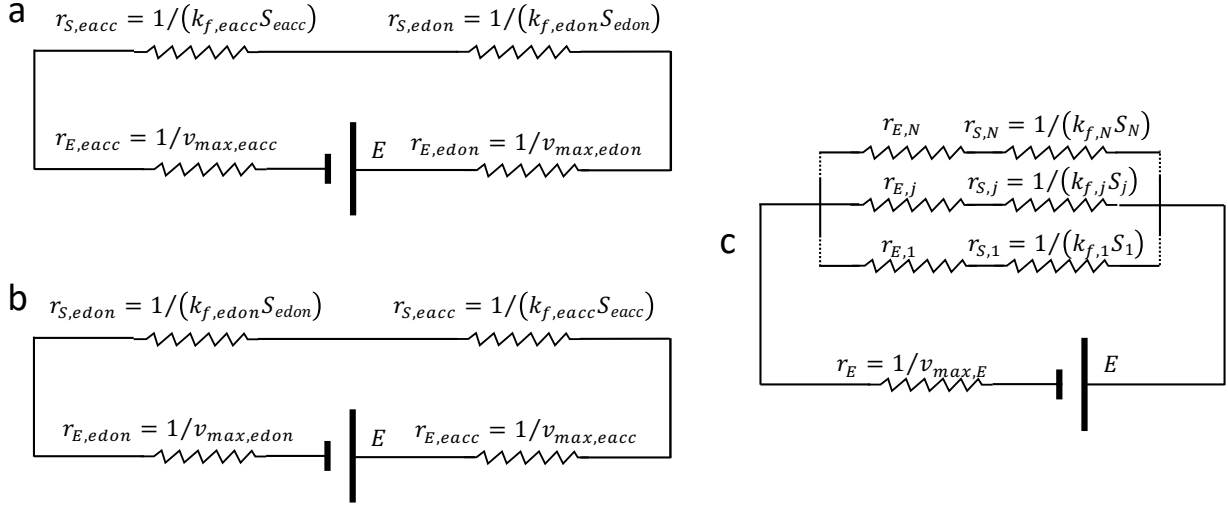


Figure 2. **a.** type-1 circuit schema for redox-type reaction; **b.** type-2 circuit schema for redox-type reaction; **c.** circuit schema for parallel resistor-based schema for competitive enzymatic reactions. Type-1 and Type-2 schema are equivalent, and are not differentiated in the Ohm's law analogy. Symbols are explained in the main text.

Unless equation (20) is applied to organisms capable of growing on alternative electron acceptors or donors, and the system is undergoing fast transition in redox status (e.g., at the depth of the soil water table), F_T is very close to 1, and can be ignored. Therefore, the temperature dependence of v_{chain} is dominated by the kinetic term (i.e., that of the Michaelis-Menten term) and the temperature dependent fraction of active enzymes ($\prod_j f_{ax,j}$). The kinetic term increases with temperature, while the fraction of active enzymes first increases, then decreases with temperature. The overall temperature sensitivity of the reaction chain will be of the form predicted by the macromolecular rate theory (MMRT) (with fine tuning from substrate availability through the kinetic term which MMRT does not consider) [*Arcus et al., 2016*; *Schipper et al., 2014*]. Therefore, for a population of cells that are not under substrate limitation

and steadily growing (so that one metabolic pathway dominates the metabolism), one should expect a MMRT type temperature dependence of the metabolic rates. This thus explains why *Ratkowsky et al.* [2005] was able to use the following equation to model bacterial growth rates under unlimited substrate supply:

$$g = \frac{cT \exp(-\Delta H_A/RT)}{1 + \exp\left(-\frac{n}{RT}(\Delta H^* - T\Delta S^* + \Delta C_p[(T - T_H^*) - T \ln(T/T_S^*)])\right)}, \quad (22)$$

where g is growth rate, c is an empirical constant, and ΔH_A is substrate dependent activation energy. However, unlike it was historically assumed that properties of some single control enzyme determine the overgrowth [Johnson and Lewin, 1946], here n and ΔC_p represent mean values of protein length and their thermal property, under possible influences from other molecules, such as phospholipids [e.g., Mansy and Szostak, 2008].

3.2 Series resistor-based formulation of enzyme catalyzed redox reactions

Many biogeochemical processes are of the redox type, including photosynthesis, aerobic respiration, nitrification, anaerobic denitrification, etc. [Madigan et al., 2009; Taiz and Zeiger, 2006]. Basically, enzyme catalyzed redox reactions facilitate electron transfers from electron donors to electron acceptors. This process can be summarized with the schema Figure 2a that has one resistor representing electron donors ($r_{s,edon}$), and the other resistor ($r_{s,eacc}$) representing electron acceptors, with the enzyme being the battery. By applying the Ohm's law analogy, the reaction rate is

$$v = \frac{E}{r_{eacc} + r_{edon}}, \quad (23)$$

where $r_{eacc} = \frac{1}{v_{max,eacc}} + \frac{1}{k_{f,eacc}S_{eacc}}$, and $r_{edon} = \frac{1}{v_{max,edon}} + \frac{1}{k_{f,edon}S_{edon}}$. When the two are combined, equation (23) can be rewritten as

$$v = \frac{E}{r_E + \frac{1}{k_{f,eacc}S_{eacc}} + \frac{1}{k_{f,edon}S_{edon}}}. \quad (24)$$

303 with $r_E = \frac{1}{v_{max,eacc}} + \frac{1}{v_{max,edon}}$, $r_{S,eacc} = \frac{1}{k_{f,eacc}S_{eacc}}$, and $r_{S,edon} = \frac{1}{k_{f,edon}S_{edon}}$. We note that in
 304 this series resistor-based formulation, the total resistance (or mean first passage time) does not
 305 include the discount resulting from the concurrent binding of electron donors and acceptors to
 306 the enzyme (i.e., configuration Figure 2b is as good as Figure 2a, and they have the same
 307 resistance). However, this discount can be incorporated by renewal theory (or law of mass
 308 action), which leads to the synthesizing unit (SU) model [Kooijman, 1998] below

$$v = \frac{E}{r_E + \frac{1}{k_{f,eacc}S_{eacc}} + \frac{1}{k_{f,edon}S_{edon}} - \frac{1}{k_{f,eacc}S_{eacc} + k_{f,edon}S_{edon}}}. \quad (25)$$

309 Compared to equation (24), the SU model (i.e., equation (25)) is numerically more
 310 accurate (in approximating the law of mass action, the standard method that deals with
 311 biogeochemical reactions [Koudriavstev *et al.*, 2001]). Equations (24) and (25) differ by the
 312 additional term $-1/(k_{f,eacc}S_{eacc} + k_{f,edon}S_{edon})$ that accounts for the co-existence of schemas
 313 in Figure 2a and Figure 2b.

314 Equation (24) was derived as early as in *Alberty* [1953], and is called the additive model.
 315 It was found as the superior formulation to model multiple nutrient limitations of microbial and
 316 plant growth in *O'Neill et al.* [1989] (where electron donors and acceptors are replaced with
 317 complementary nutrients, such as nitrogen and phosphorus). In particular, the additive model
 318 equation (24) can be extended to include arbitrary number of nutrients:

$$v = \frac{E}{r_E + \sum_j \frac{1}{k_{f,j}S_j}}. \quad (26)$$

319 where S_j can be essential nutrients including carbon, nitrogen, phosphorus, potassium,
 320 chloronium, etc. *Smith* [1976; 1979] used equation (26) to model plant growth and microbial

growth under carbon, nitrogen, phosphorus, and potassium co-limitation. Based on past successful applications [Franklin *et al.*, 2011; Kooijman, 1998], the SU model (i.e., equation (25)) may be argued as mathematically more rigorous than the series resistor-based additive model (i.e., equation (24) or (26)). However, given the usually significant uncertainty of ecological data, the series resistor-based additive model may be equally good. Indeed, when we applied both the SU model and the resistor-based additive model to the measured algal growth rates under various levels of phosphorus and vitamin B₁₂ additions [Droop, 1974], both models can be satisfyingly calibrated with respect to the growth data (Figure 3a and b). Further, when the normalized growth rates are contoured as a function of the normalized substrate fluxes, the SU and resistor-based additive models show very similar growth patterns (Figure 3c and d). The SU model and additive model also performed equally well for the plant growth data from Shaver and Melillo [1984] (Figure 4). Moreover, when the SU model and additive model are used to model aerobic heterotrophic respiration using the parameterization from Tang and Riley [2019b], we once again find the two models resulted in very similar goodness of fit with respect to the measurements (Figure 5). These lines of evidence suggest that one can probably use these two models alternatively. In particular, both can be a substitute for Liebig's law of the minimum that is used by most existing biogeochemical models [Achat *et al.*, 2016].

Additionally, we note that equation (26) can be extended into a photosynthesis model to replace the Farquhar or Collatz model that is formulated based on Liebig's law of the minimum, which has to arbitrarily smooth the abrupt transitions from one limiting process to another [e.g., Collatz *et al.*, 1990; Collatz *et al.*, 1992; Farquhar *et al.*, 1980; Kirschbaum and Farquhar, 1984]. In this context, we contend that it is possible to use the same kinetics to formulate models

of plant photosynthesis, microbial substrate dynamics, and biomass growth, a strategy that will likely enhance the mathematical coherence in modeling plant-soil-microbial interactions.

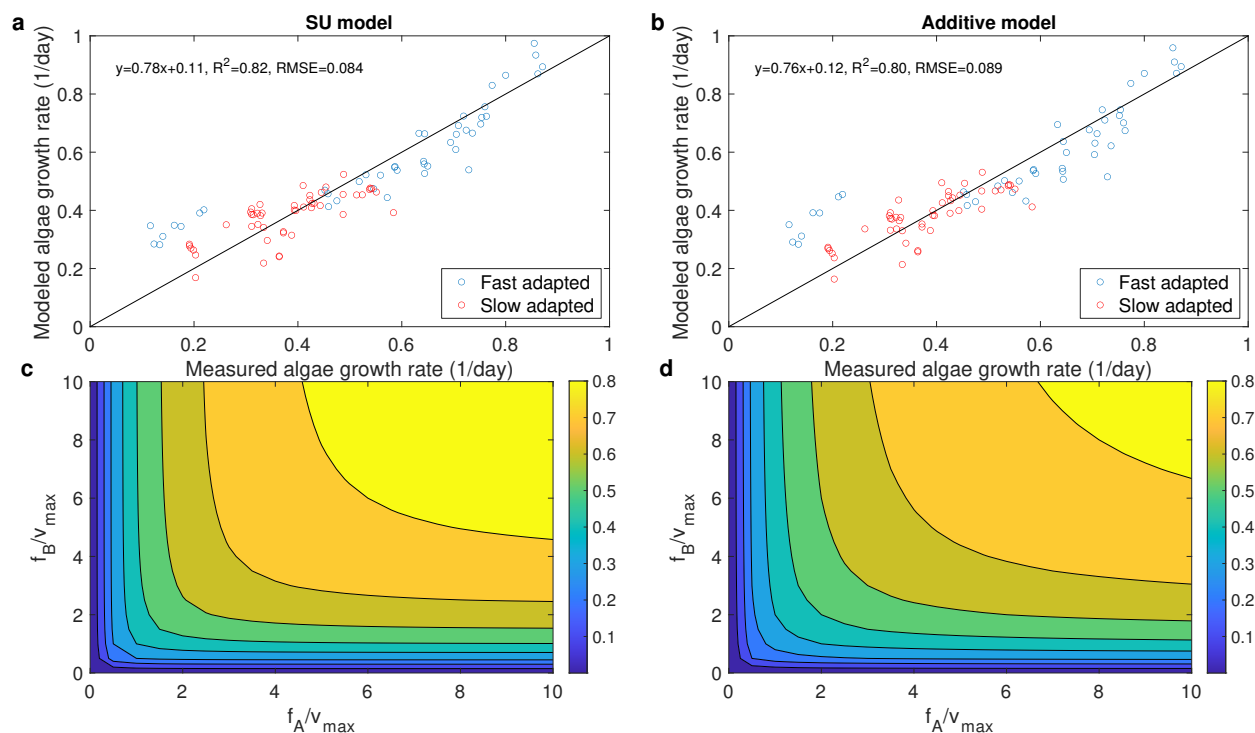


Figure 3 **a** comparison of the calibrated synthesizing unit (SU) model prediction for the algal growth rates data from *Droop* [1974]; **b** same as **a** but from the calibrated resistor-based additive model; **c** contour of normalized growth rate as a function of normalized fluxes of substrates A and B for the SU model; **d** same as **c** but for the resistor-based additive model. The additive model is presented as equation (24), and the SU model is presented as equation (25). Model parameters are in Table S1 of the supplemental material.

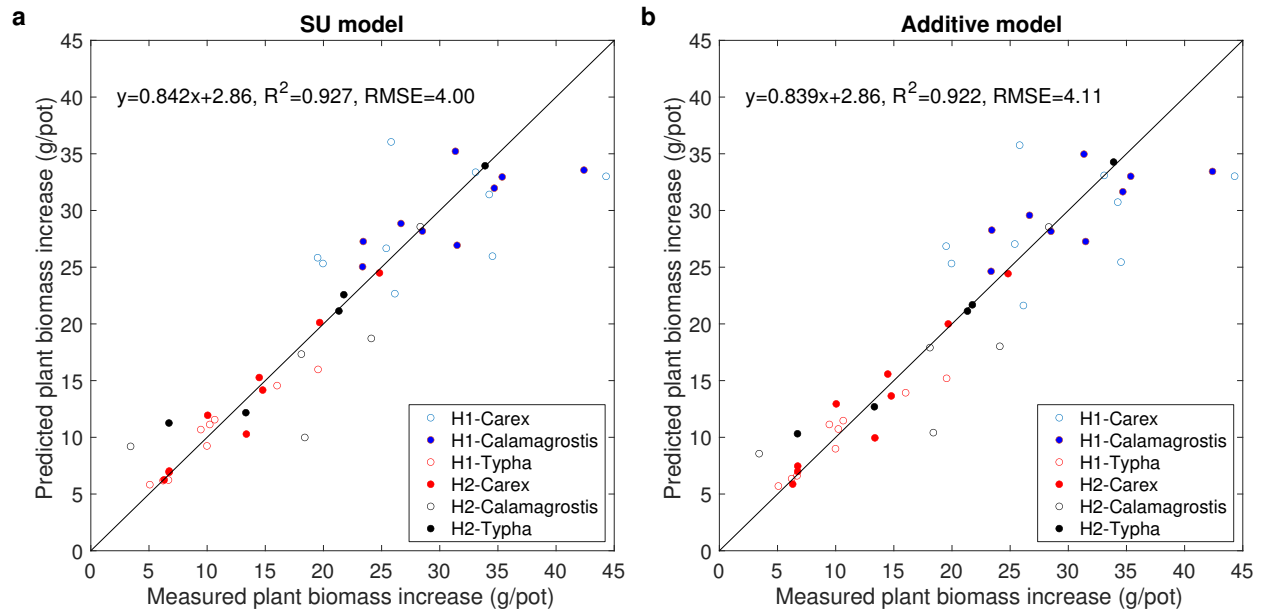


Figure 4 **a** SU model predicted vs measured plant growth; **b** Additive model predicted vs measured plant growth. The data is from *Shaver and Melillo* [1984]. Model parameters are in Table S1 of the supplemental material.

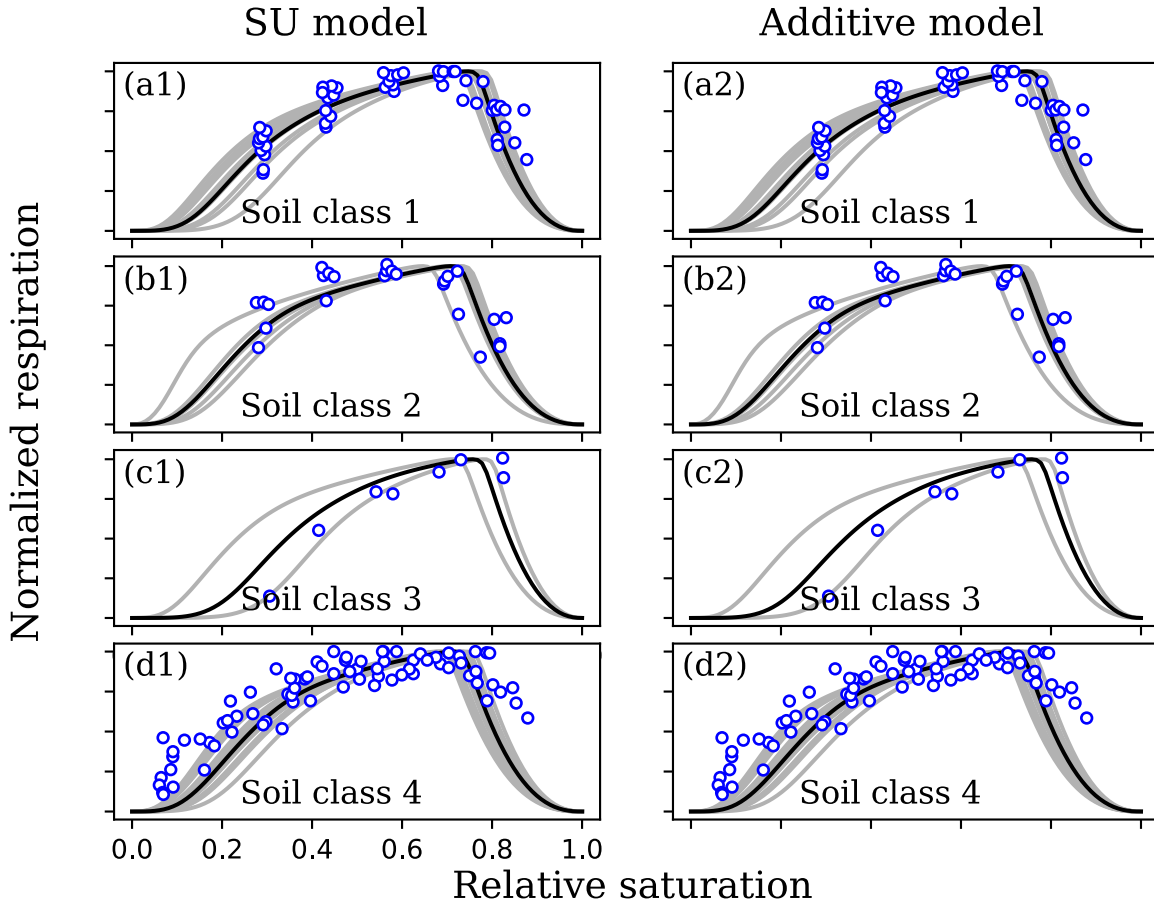


Figure 5. Left panels are SU model-based prediction of respiration-soil-moisture relationship; right panels are based on the resistor-based additive model. The two models used identical parameters, which are detailed in *Tang and Riley [2019b]*. The statistics for model-data fitting (in terms of linear regression and root mean square error) between two models are identical to 0.01 (see Table S2 of the supplemental material).

3.3 Parallel resistor-based formulation of competitive kinetics

Many microorganisms can feed on multiple substrates. For example, *E.coli* and yeasts are able to perform both aerobic and anaerobic respiration [e.g., *Dashko et al., 2014; Unden and Bongaerts, 1997*]. Meanwhile, some enzymes can react on different substrates, e.g., enzyme ribonuclease is able to degrade various RNA molecules [*Etienne et al., 2020*]. Thus, we next show that such problems can be formulated using the parallel circuit (plus one series resistor) analogy.

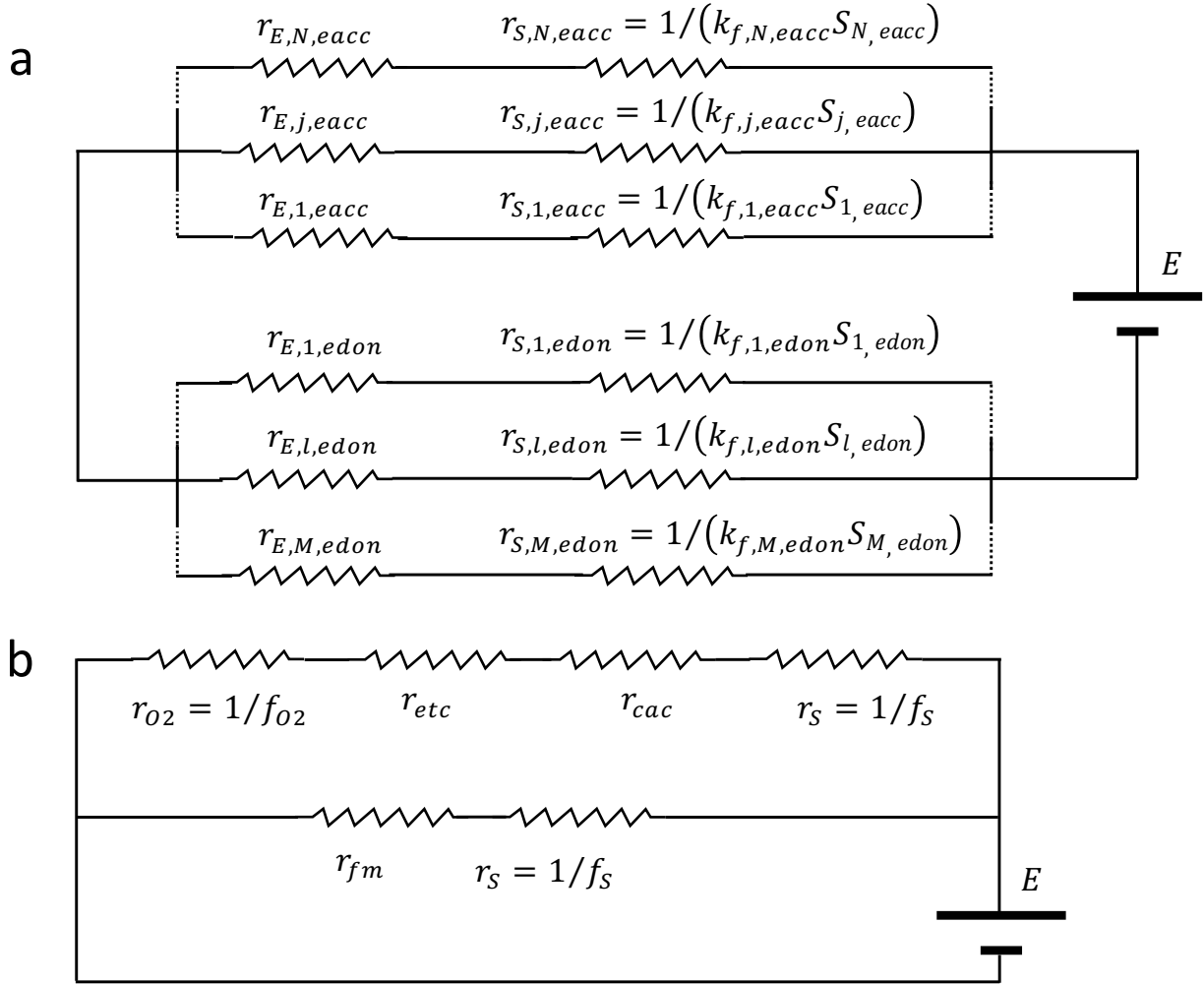


Figure 6. **a** mixed resistor circuit schema for redox reactions with alternative electron donors and acceptors; **b** circuit schema for the parallel fermentation and aerobic respiration pathways. Symbols are explained in the main text.

We first formulate the competitive Michaelis-Menten kinetics using the schema in Figure

2c. For this case, the total resistance is

$$r = r_E + r_S = r_E + \left(\sum_j (r_{E,j} + r_{S,j})^{-1} \right)^{-1}, \quad (27)$$

where $r_{S,j}^{-1} = k_{f,j} S_j$, and $r_{E,j}$ is the resistance due to preprocessing of substrate S_j before it is

handed to the central enzyme E (i.e., the enzyme that products of all substrates have to pass

through), and $r_E = 1/v_{max,E}$ is the resistance due to the maximum substrate processing rate of

the central enzyme (which for redox-reactions could be determined by the time spent on processing the electron donors if S_j here are electron acceptors). If $r_{E,j} = 0$, which is usually assumed for competitive Michaelis-Menten kinetics, the second term r_s becomes $(\sum_j k_{f,j} S_j)^{-1}$, and the reaction velocity is

$$v = \frac{E}{r} = \frac{E}{\frac{1}{v_{max}} + (\sum_j k_{f,j} S_j)^{-1}}, \quad (28)$$

and the corresponding flux through pathway j is

$$v_j = \frac{v r_s}{r_{s,j}} = v \frac{k_{f,j} S_j}{\sum_l k_{f,l} S_l} = E \cdot \frac{v_{max} S_j / K_j}{1 + \sum_l S_l / K_l}, \quad (29)$$

where $K_j = v_{max} / k_{f,j}$. It is easy to see that v_j is the reaction velocity computed from the competitive Michaelis-Menten kinetics. We note that equation (29) is meaningful only when pathway j produces new molecules. However, even for inhibitors, whose binding to enzymes does not produce new molecules, if we regard dissociation as a way of producing new molecules, then equation (29) is still mathematically meaningful.

3.4 Mixed series and parallel resistor-based formulation of redox reactions of alternative electron donors and acceptors

Many microorganisms (such as denitrifying bacteria; e.g., *Robertson and Groffman* [2015]) are able to grow on different electron donors and acceptors. Such problems can be solved using the SUPECA kinetics [*Tang and Riley*, 2017]. Below we formulate it using the schema of mixed series and parallel resistors.

Based on the schema in Figure 6a, the total resistance is

$$r = r_{edon} + r_{eacc} = (\sum_l r_{l,edon}^{-1})^{-1} + (\sum_j r_{j,eacc}^{-1})^{-1}, \quad (30)$$

where the resistance for electron donors is

$$r_{l,edon} = r_{E,l,eacc} + r_{S,l,eacc} = \frac{1}{v_{max,l,eacc}} + \frac{1}{k_{f,l}S_{l,eacc}}, \quad (31)$$

397 and the resistance for electron acceptors is

$$r_{j,eacc} = r_{E,j,edon} + r_{S,j,edon} = \frac{1}{v_{max,j,edon}} + \frac{1}{k_{f,j}S_{j,edon}}. \quad (32)$$

398 Accordingly, the corresponding reaction flux through electron donor j is

$$v_{j,edon} = \frac{E}{r} \frac{r_{edon}}{r_{j,edon}} = \frac{E}{r_{j,edon}} \frac{r_{edon}}{r_{edon} + r_{eacc}}, \quad (33)$$

399 while the corresponding reaction flux through electron acceptor j is

$$v_{j,eacc} = \frac{E}{r} \frac{r_{eacc}}{r_{j,eacc}} = \frac{E}{r_{j,eacc}} \frac{r_{eacc}}{r_{edon} + r_{eacc}}. \quad (34)$$

400 Now considering an application that involves two electron acceptors, e.g., nitrate and nitrite in

401 denitrification, we have

$$\frac{1}{r_{eacc}} = \frac{1}{r_{NO3}} + \frac{1}{r_{NO2}}, \quad (35)$$

402 which when combined with equation (34) leads to

$$v_{NO3} = \frac{E}{r_{NO3} + r_{edon} + r_{edon}r_{NO3}/r_{NO2}}, \quad (36)$$

403 and

$$v_{NO2} = \frac{E}{r_{NO2} + r_{edon} + r_{edon}r_{NO2}/r_{NO3}}, \quad (37)$$

404 which are just the equations (10) in *Almeida et al.* [1997] that have been successfully used to fit

405 the measurement of denitrification rates from *Almeida et al.* [1995]. With proper number of

406 resistors, the denitrifier model by *Domingo-Felez and Smets* [2020] can also be easily recovered

407 from equations (30)-(34).

408 3.5 Other potential applications of the Ohm's law analogy

409 Besides the applications described above, we below use the Ohm's law analogy to derive

410 some quite interesting results.

First, we will explain why fermentation can occur even when there is still oxygen to support the energetically more efficient aerobic respiration. Such a phenomenon is called the Warburg effect (i.e., lactate producing aerobic fermentation) in proliferating mammalian cells (a phenomenon important to the understanding of cancer development), or the Crabtree effect (i.e., ethanol fermentation) of unicellular yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* [e.g., *de Alencar et al.*, 2018]. *E. coli* have also been observed to shift to the seemingly less efficient yet faster metabolic pathways under high substrate concentrations [e.g., *Flamholz et al.*, 2013; *Labhsetwar et al.*, 2014]. Depending on the details to be represented, we acknowledge that there are multiple ways to model such phenomenon even with the circuit analogy. We next present one of these mathematical explanations to show that, under certain aerobic conditions, high glucose concentration makes fermentation more favorable.

According to the schema in Figure 6b, the specific ATP generation rate from the fermentation pathway is

$$v_{FM,ATP} = \frac{Y_{FM}}{\frac{1}{f_S} + r_{fm}}, \quad (38)$$

where f_S is the incoming flux of pyruvate (produced from glycolysis) sensed by the two metabolic pathways (which is proportional to the incoming glucose flux sensed by the organism under steady-state), r_{fm} is the resistance associated with the conversion of pyruvate into fermentation products (which could be lactate, ethanol, or acetate depending on the organism; [Madigan et al., 2009]), and Y_{FM} is the ATP yield of fermentation. Similarly, the specific ATP generation rate from the aerobic respiration pathway is

$$v_{AO,ATP} = \frac{Y_{AO}}{\frac{1}{f_S} + r_{cac} + r_{etc} + \frac{1}{f_{O_2}}}, \quad (39)$$

where r_{acc} and r_{etc} are resistance associated with the citric acid cycle, and the electron transport chain, respectively. f_{O_2} is the incoming oxygen flux, and Y_{AO} is the ATP yield of aerobic respiration. Because the citric acid cycle involves many more enzyme-catalyzed steps than fermentation, $r_{cac} > r_{fm}$. Meanwhile, Y_{AO} is about 20 times the value of Y_{fm} [Madigan *et al.*, 2009].

In a metabolically active organism, for fermentation to be more favorable than aerobic respiration, the following condition needs to be satisfied,

$$\frac{Y_{FM}}{Y_{AO}} > \frac{\frac{1}{f_S} + r_{fm}}{\frac{1}{f_S} + r_{cac} + r_{etc} + \frac{1}{f_{O_2}}} > \frac{r_{fm}}{r_{cac} + r_{etc} + \frac{1}{f_{O_2}}}, \quad (40)$$

where the term after the second “>” suggests that fermentation is more favorable only when oxygen is below a certain level of availability (note that f_{O_2} is approximately proportional to diffusion). When the oxygen availability is sufficiently low, higher substrate concentration (i.e., greater f_S) will make fermentation more effective in generating ATP. If we further consider that the fermentation pathway requires the organism to maintain a much smaller number of enzymes than required for the aerobic oxidation pathway (which is equivalent to increase the value of Y_{FM}/Y_{AO} , making the inequality (40) easier to be satisfied), we can expect fermentation to be preferred for high supply of glucose (i.e., greater f_S) even under certain aerobic conditions. (For anaerobic condition, f_{O_2} approaches zero, and the inequality (40) is easily satisfied). Given the significance of this problem in various contexts, including methane and hydrogen dynamics in environment and industrial biogeochemistry [Lu *et al.*, 2009; Madigan *et al.*, 2009], we expect to study this problem in a more quantitative and extensive way elsewhere.

Another very interesting application is to qualitatively explain why Monod kinetics can fit the substrate-growth rate relationship of an exponentially growing bacterial population

[*Monod*, 1949]. The argument goes like the following. For an exponentially growing bacterial population, the bacteria proteomes are in steady state. Meanwhile, from the Ohm's law analogy described here, we know that any functioning circuit-network can be equivalently represented by a bulk resistor. Therefore, we contend that however complex the circuit representation of a bacterial metabolism would be, it as a whole can be equivalently represented by a resistor r_E . When this r_E is combined with the resistance associated with the incoming substrate flux (see equation (7)), we say that the bacterial growth would very likely follow the Monod kinetics. However, when the bacteria are in transition from one metabolic state into another, extra resistors are introduced accompanying the change of proteomes, and Monod kinetics will fail for such situations [e.g., *Erickson et al.*, 2017]. This argument also explains why models based on flux balance analysis with proteomic constraints can simulate steadily growing *E. coli* and yeast realistically [*Labhsetwar et al.*, 2014; *Labhsetwar et al.*, 2017].

3.6 Limitations of the Ohm's law analogy

While the Ohm's law analogy can be used to model many challenging biogeochemical processes, it is not appropriate for all types of networks. For instance, it is not able to properly couple two or more consumers (i.e., two or more batteries) within a single circuit network, even though the electric-circuit theory itself does not forbid such a configuration to occur (which can be solved with the Kirchhoff's law of voltage and current [e.g., *Feynman et al.*, 2011a]). Rather, such coupling can only be done by first representing the substrate dynamics of each consumer separately, and then coupling them together by differential equations. Such coupling could be critical when many consumers are competing for a limited substrate, even though none of the consumers is substrate-limited when other consumers are excluded [e.g., *Etienne et al.*, 2020]. The equilibrium chemistry approximation (ECA) kinetics [*Tang and Riley*, 2013] and its progeny

474 SUPECA kinetics [*Tang and Riley, 2017*] are more capable of resolving such situations. In soil
 475 biogeochemistry, one such situation is to model the interaction of a substrate molecule (e.g.,
 476 ammonium, inorganic phosphorus, or dissolved organic carbon) that is simultaneously
 477 undergoing uptake by organisms and adsorption by mineral surfaces. Fortunately, a simple
 478 remedy is possible for the Ohm's law analogy from the ECA kinetics. In the ECA kinetics,
 479 microbial uptake of substrate S under the influence of adsorption by mineral surface M (with
 480 affinity parameter K_M) is

$$F = \frac{v_{max}SB}{K+S+MK/K_M+\alpha B}, \quad (41)$$

481 where K is the half saturation constant for the uptake of S by microbe B in the absence of M , and
 482 αB is the within-population competition effect introduced by ECA. *Tang and Riley [2019a]*
 483 showed that αB is negligible due to the large size contrast between microbes (and likewise fine
 484 roots) and substrate molecules. When αB is ignored, equation (41) becomes

$$F = \frac{B}{\frac{1}{v_{max}} + \frac{1}{k_f S} \left(1 + \frac{M}{K_M}\right)} = \frac{B}{\frac{1}{v_{max}} + \frac{1}{k_f^* S}}, \quad (42)$$

485 with

$$k_f^* = k_f / \left(1 + \frac{M}{K_M}\right). \quad (43)$$

486 Now the Ohm's law analogy will still work if $1/k_f^* S$ is used to defined the substrate dependent
 487 resistance. Moreover, equation (43) suggests that mineral surfaces may slow the microbial
 488 uptake of substrate S by effectively reducing the substrate delivery rate towards the microbes.
 489 However, when the sizes of substrates and competitors are similar (e.g., in some predator-prey
 490 relationships), the Ohm's law analogy will be too cumbersome to apply, and the ECA or
 491 SUPECA kinetics should be used. Nonetheless, it will be very interesting and helpful to

construct and compare models for the same system using both the Ohm's law analogy and ECA (or SUPECA) kinetics.

4 Conclusions

By applying the mathematical similarity between the Ohm's law and Michaelis-Menten kinetics, we show that the electric circuit analogy can be used to derive many interesting results of biogeochemical kinetics. We show this approach reproduces many successful applications in the literature, including aerobic heterotrophic respiration, multi-nutrient co-limited microbial (and plant) growth, denitrification dynamics, etc. This approach also sheds new insights on the Warburg and Crabtree effect in prokaryotes and eukaryotes, and conceptually explains why the Monod relationship accurately represents the kinetics of steadily-growing bacterial populations, and why flux balance modeling with proteomic constraints is able to accurately model microbial growth. Based on these results, we expect that the Ohm's law analogy will help build a unified kinetic modelling framework of microbial and plant biogeochemistry to make more robust predictions.

Data Availability Statement

Data is available through *Shaver and Melillo* [1984], *Droop* [1974], *Franzluebbers* [1999], and *Doran et al.* [1990].

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Author contributions

JYT conceived the idea and did the analysis; JYT, WJR, GLM and ELB discussed the analysis and wrote the paper.

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