

The oleic acid induction system model (latex version)

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Abstract

1 Mechanism

From the oleic acid induction mechanism, we can divide the expression of the FadR promoter into the following two scenarios, as shown in Figure 1:

- With oleic acid: \rightarrow acyl-CoA \rightarrow FadR protein departs from promoter PfadB \rightarrow gene expresses normally, β -oxidation initiates.
- Without oleic acid: \rightarrow FadR protein binds to promoter PfadB \rightarrow gene expression is inhibited.

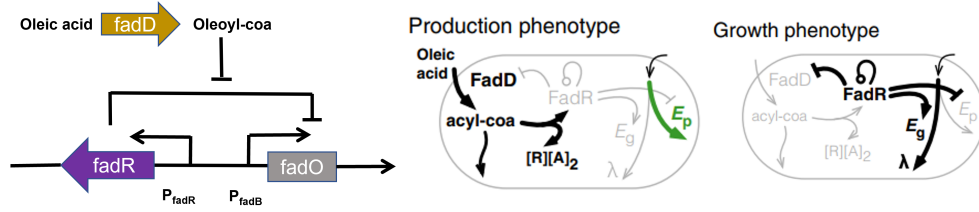


Figure 1: Model Mechanism

The balance of oleic acid synthesis metabolism and decomposition metabolism in microorganisms is controlled by the transcriptional regulatory factor FadR. In the absence of oleic acid, it's a Growth phenotype with native negative autoregulation (NAR). At this time, fatty acid synthesis metabolism is activated. FadR binds to the promoter p-fadB of the bacterial β -oxidation pathway gene fadO, inhibiting the expression of fadO, thereby inhibiting bacterial β -oxidation. In the presence of excess oleic acid, it's a Production phenotype with engineered positive autoregulation (PAR). Fatty acid degradation metabolism is activated. After FadR couples with oleic acid, it departs from the promoter p-fadB of fadO, allowing fadO expression, and bacterial β -oxidation is completed.

2 Model Assumptions

1. The activation state of the oleic acid inducer (corresponding to the presence/absence of oleic acid environment) can be determined by the concentration of the regulator FadR. The expression of the product synthesis enzyme and the synthesis of the product itself depend on the control factor FadR. Therefore, we only define the state of the oleic acid inducer by the concentration of FadR.
2. FadD expression is solely controlled by FadR. In native *E. coli*, the expression of FadD under aerobic conditions is co-regulated by FadR and the CRP-cAMP complex (EcoCyc). However, in the presence of common carbon sources like glucose, the expression level of CRP-cAMP is very low, so its effect can be neglected.

3. The expression rate of the enzyme in two oleic acid inducer states can be modeled in the form of a Hill function. Studies have shown that the expression of gene products takes the form of a Hill function [4], either as $P_T(T) = \frac{a \cdot (K \cdot T)^n}{1 + (K \cdot T)^n}$ for T -activated expression, or as $P_T(T) = \frac{a}{1 + (K \cdot T)^n}$ for T -inhibited expression, where a is the maximum expression rate, K is the affinity with which transcription factor T binds to the operator and controls expression, and n is the Hill coefficient.
4. The growth rate of engineered bacteria linearly depends on the growth-related enzyme E_g . According to research by Usui et al. [3], the cell growth rate decreases in an approximately linear fashion. We capture this phenomenon and define the growth rate of the cell using a linear function as follows: $\lambda(E_g) = E_g \cdot \lambda_{\min} + (\lambda_{\max} - \lambda_{\min})$. Where λ_{\min} and λ_{\max} represent the growth rates at zero and maximum expression of E_g , respectively.
5. Enzymes and transcription factors do not undergo active degradation. To our knowledge, proteins in the system we study are not actively degraded. Over the duration of cell doubling, protein dilution through cell growth and division is the main way proteins are lost from the system, so we model the decay of protein E as growth dilution $\lambda \cdot E$.

3 Model Establishment

Our endogenous system model is inspired by the model of Ahmad A. Mannan et al.[1] and the model of Hartline et al.[2], which models the expression rates of the transcription factor FadR, uptake enzyme FadD, and growth-related enzyme E_g [5] using Hill functions as $r_{x,R} = P_R(R)$, $r_{x,D} = P_D(D)$, $r_{x,E_g} = P_g(g)$.

$$r_{x,R} = b_R + P_R(R), \quad r_{x,D} = b_D + P_D(D), \quad r_{x,E_g} = P_g(g) \quad (1)$$

The reaction kinetics of FadD (r_D) and the reaction kinetics of the acyl-CoA-consuming reaction PIsB (r_B) are modeled as Michaelis-Menten equations, resulting in:

$$r_D = \frac{k_{\text{cat},D} \cdot \text{OA}}{K_{m,D} + \text{OA}} \cdot D, \quad r_B = \frac{k_{\text{cat},B} \cdot A}{K_{m,B} + A} \cdot B. \quad (2)$$

Here, the expression rate of FadR is either the native negative self-regulation (NAR) or the positive self-regulation (PAR) engineered in [2], while the expression rate of FadD remains negative self-regulation (NAR), and the E_g expression rate remains positive self-regulation (PAR):

$$\begin{aligned} \text{NAR} : P_R(R) &= \frac{a_R}{1 + K_R R}, \\ \text{PAR} : P_R(R) &= \frac{a_R K_R R}{1 + K_R R} \\ \text{NAR} : P_D(D) &= \frac{a_D}{1 + (K_D R)^2}, \\ \text{PAR} : P_g(g) &= \frac{a_g K_g R}{1 + K_g R}. \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

Additionally, we use the mass-action kinetics model to describe the rate of formation of $[R][A]_2$ due to the sequestration of FadR by two molecules of acyl-CoA, as given by the following equation:

$$r_{\text{seq}} = r_f - r_r = k_f A^2 R - k_r C \quad (4)$$

We now extend the model of Hartline and Mannan to simulate its application in oleic acid-inducible control over growth and production. The expression of product synthesis enzymes and the product itself does not provide feedback that affects the rest of the control system. Since it relies solely on FadR, we do not explicitly model production. Instead, using the same approach as in [1], we define the native production phenotype by a low set concentration value of FadR $R \leq \frac{1}{K_p} = 0.0033\mu\text{M}$. This implies that the growth phenotype of the engineered bacteria activated by the oleic acid inducer is defined as $R > \frac{1}{K_p} = 0.0033\mu\text{M}$.

During the experimental process, we added the gene of the fluorescent protein after the oleic acid inducer operator fadO. When FadR binds to the operator fadO, leading to the activation of the oleic acid inducer, the fluorescent protein gene is expressed. Therefore, by detecting the intensity of the green fluorescent protein F in the culture medium, we can assess the activation level of the oleic acid inducer, that is:

$$F = K_p \cdot \int_0^T r_f(t) dt + b_p \quad (5)$$

Now, we establish the ordinary differential equation model for the change rates of FadR(R), FadD (D), acyl-CoA (A), sequestered complex (C), growth-associated enzyme(Eg), and fluorescent protein(F):

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dR}{dt} &= r_{x,R} - r_{seq} - \lambda(E_g) R, \\ \frac{dD}{dt} &= r_{x,D} - \lambda(E_g) D, \\ \frac{dA}{dt} &= r_D - r_B - 2 \cdot r_{seq} - \lambda(E_g) A, \\ \frac{dC}{dt} &= r_{seq} - \lambda(E_g) C, \\ \frac{dE_g}{dt} &= r_{x,E_g} - \lambda(E_g) \cdot E_g, \\ \frac{dF}{dt} &= r_f. \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

4 Model Simulation

4.1 Comparison of oleic acid inducer with native circuit

We should first verify the sensitivity of the oleic acid inducer as a qualified biological switch. The best approach is to compare the oleic acid inducer with the metabolic process of the native circuit. We wrote the relevant model code in Matlab 2022A, simulating the continuous introduction of oleic acid (OA) and observing the differences and similarities between the two oleic acid metabolism modes. The selection of model parameters referred to the data in references [1,2]. We simulated the changes in each variable of the model over time under oleic acid in the natural circuit (red curve) and the engineered oleic acid inducer circuit (blue curve). Specifically, the first subplot compares the concentrations between FadR(R) and OA, with the black dashed line representing the activation threshold of the oleic acid inducer; the second subplot contrasts the relationship between Total FadR and the sequestered complex(C); the third subplot reflects the concentration changes of acyl-CoA(A) over time.

$$\text{Native circuit : } P_R(R) = \frac{a_R}{1 + K_R R} \quad (7)$$

$$\text{Oleic acid inducer : } P_R(R) = \begin{cases} \frac{a_R}{1 + K_R R}, & \text{for } R > \frac{1}{K_p} = 0.0033 \mu\text{M} \cdot \text{h}^{-1} \\ \frac{a_R K_R R}{1 + K_R R}, & \text{for } R \leq \frac{1}{K_p} = 0.0033 \mu\text{M} \cdot \text{h}^{-1} \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

From the plots, it is evident that, compared to the native circuit in Figure 2, the introduction of the oleic acid inducer in Figure 3 accelerates the decomposition of OA into acyl-CoA(A) and its binding process with FadR, allowing the FadR concentration to decrease more rapidly to the threshold where the P_{fadB} in the oleic acid inducer is normally initiated. On the other hand, maintaining the FadR concentration at the threshold position for an extended period ensures the continuous activation of the oleic acid inducer, allowing the gene downstream of the artificially added FadO to be continuously expressed. This proves the effectiveness of the oleic acid inducer as a biological switch.

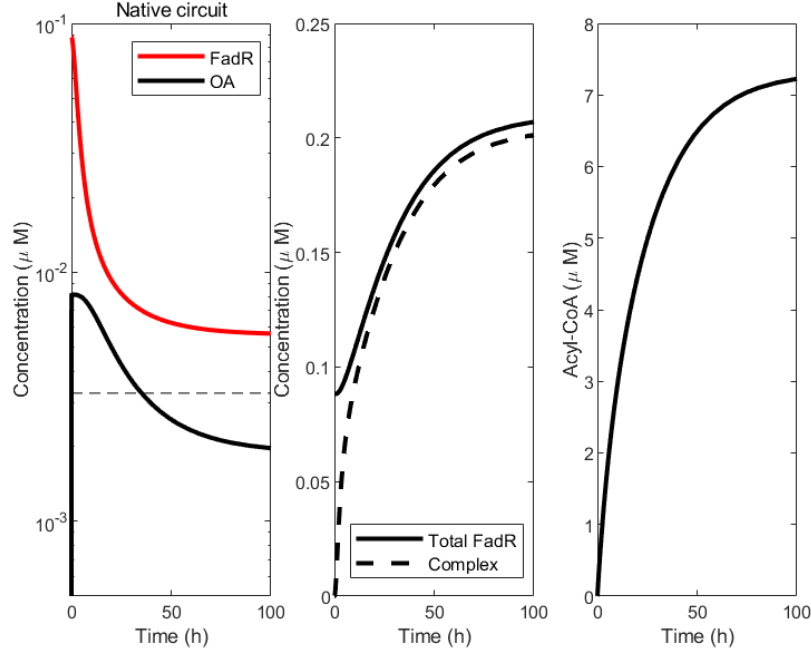


Figure 2: Model Simulation of native circuit

4.2 Model expansion with additional FadO operators

By modifying a segment of the FadO operator sequence in the promoter region, we can alter the oleic acid concentration threshold required to activate the promoter. Specifically, increasing the FadO operators raises the threshold of oleic acid needed for acyl-CoA to dissociate from FadR, allowing the P_{fadBPfadB} promoter to initiate transcription normally. This mechanism sets a higher bar for oleic acid inducer activation. With this approach, through quantitative experimentation and mathematical modeling, we can determine the appropriate induction initiation threshold range, which aligns with the oleic acid content defined in high-fat diets for various individual physiologies. Consequently, this allows us to design cholesterol-degrading bacterial strains based on the oleic acid inducer principle, tailored to fit the gut nutritional environment of different individuals.

Similarly, we conducted model simulations to verify the feasibility of the aforementioned operation. Specifically, we utilized an alternative approach, adjusting the affinity of FadR to inhibit Ep synthesis within our system, to emulate the effects of modifying the FadO operators. A higher affinity mimics the impact of having additional FadO operators, necessitating a higher oleic acid concentration to activate the promoter, and vice versa.

In the additional FadO model simulation Figure 5, we can observe that compared to the original oleic acid inducer, the new version with the added FadO not only slowed down the decomposition of OA but also shortened the time FadR remains at the activation threshold of the oleic acid inducer. Additionally, the activation threshold corresponding to FadR for the oleic acid inducer is lower. Given that the acyl-CoA (A) produced by the decomposition of oleic acid reacts with FadR and detaches from the FadO promoter p-fadB, this suggests that the inclusion of the FadO operator makes the oleic acid inducer harder to activate, consistent with our theoretical predictions. This validates that by introducing the FadO operator, we can precisely control the reaction threshold of the oleic acid inducer, making it adaptable to various scenarios.

4.3 Parameter estimation by measuring the fluorescence intensity

In the wet lab experiment, we introduced a fluorescent protein gene downstream of the oleic acid inducer operator fadO. When FadR binds to the operator fadO, it triggers the activation of the oleic acid inducer,

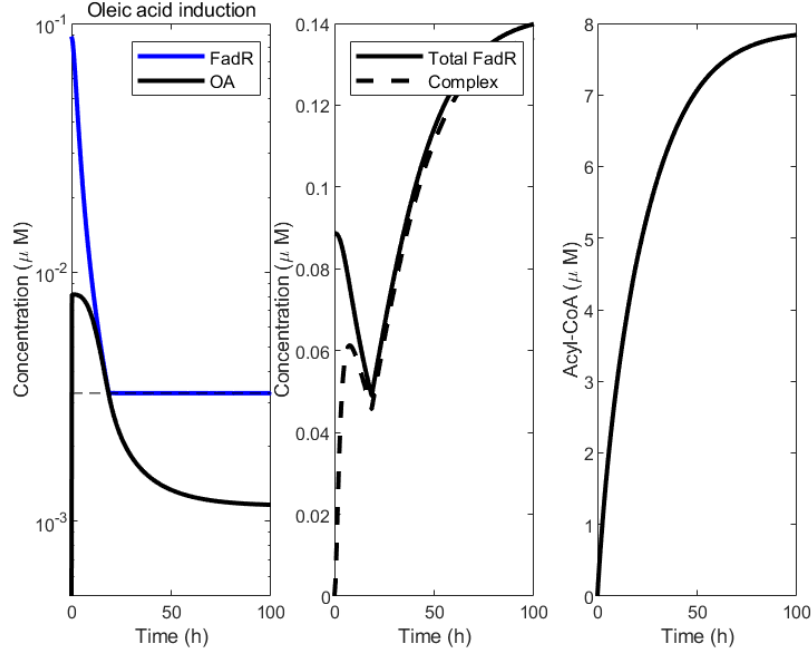


Figure 3: Model Simulation of oleic acid inducer system

leading to the expression of the fluorescent protein gene. Using this data, we can correlate the changes in the variables simulated in our original model with default parameters [1,2] to our actual experimental data. This allows us to better interpret the experimental data and provide guidance for subsequent experiments.

We tested the raw fluorescence intensity and OD600 (optical density at 600 nm) under three oleic acid concentrations: 5%, 10%, and 15%, in both aerobic and anaerobic conditions. For each type, we conducted tests on six sets of data. Subsequently, we organized and preprocessed the respective experimental data to assist in subsequent parameter estimation. The data preprocessing steps include outlier handling and imputation and calculating the absolute fluorescence intensity. In each part, we adopted reliable strategies. The specific data and processing flow can be referred to in Appendix A.

For the fluorescence intensity data, we roughly calculated the mean corrected absolute fluorescence intensity according to the following formulae. Below, we will briefly refer to it as Experiment(Exp) F to distinguish it from the fluorescence intensity F simulated in the model.

$$AFI = \frac{RFI}{OD600} \quad (9)$$

$$\text{Corrected } AFI_{n\%} = AFI_{n\%} - \text{Empty}$$

Next, we embark on the model simulation section. To align with our experimental setup, we did not introduce oleic acid midway during this simulation. Instead, we conducted quantitative computations based on the provision of initial oleic acid concentrations. We simulated how each variable in the model changes over time under three initial oleic acid concentrations: 5%, 10%, and 15%. Specifically, the first subplot compares the expected fluorescence protein intensity under these three initial oleic acid concentrations. The x-axis for the second and third subplots represents the fluorescence protein intensity as simulated by the model, while the y-axis shows the actual experimentally detected fluorescence protein intensity. We employed linear regression to derive reasonable model parameters, ensuring that the model can reflect the outcomes of real data.

$$\text{Exp } F_{n\%} = A \cdot AFI_{n\%} + B \quad (10)$$

From the figure, we can observe that higher oleic acid concentrations lead to longer activation times for the oleic acid inducer. Taking into account the initial degradation losses, the expression level of fluorescent

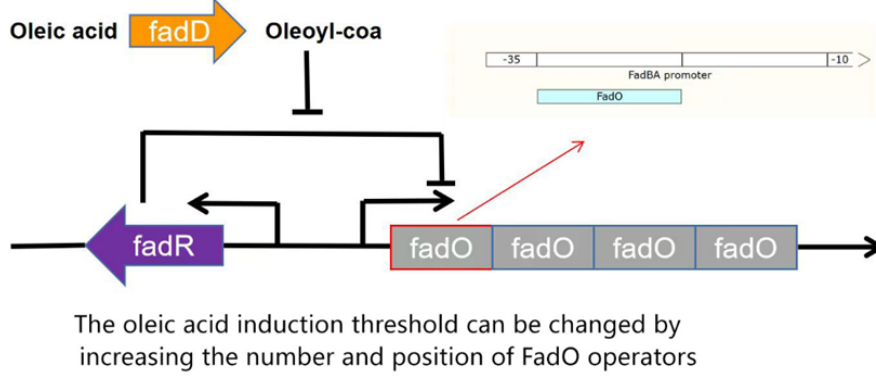


Figure 4: The principle of model with additional FadO operators

protein should increase faster than linearly with the growth of the initial oleic acid concentration. As for the fluorescence intensity simulated by the model compared to the actual experimental detection, we can see that the two are essentially in alignment, demonstrating the success of our experiment.

5 Model Analysis: Stability and Sensitivity

5.1 Model Stability

To describe the behavior of our oleic acid inducer control system, we examined the dose-response, that is, the system's steady state achieved at different oleic acid concentrations. Here, we detailed how to calculate the steady state and its stability for a given inducer concentration. Here, in order to simulate the steady-state calculation of the entire system, we added a linear decay term k for the fluorescence intensity F , which modifies the original equation to:

$$\frac{dF}{dt} = r_f - k \quad (11)$$

$$\text{Let } \frac{dF}{dt} = 0, \quad \text{then} \quad r_f = k = k_f A^2 R - k_r C$$

Also, let

$$\frac{dE_g}{dt} = 0, \quad \text{then } r_{x,E_g} = \lambda(E_g)E_g, \quad \lambda(E_g) = E_g \lambda_{\min} + \lambda_{\max} - \lambda_{\min}$$

Thus,

$$\frac{a_g K_g R}{1 + K_g R} = E_g^2 \lambda_{\min} + (\lambda_{\max} - \lambda_{\min}) E_g$$

From which we get:

$$E_g = \frac{-\lambda_{\min} + \sqrt{\lambda_{\min}^2 + \frac{\lambda_{\max} - \lambda_{\min}}{1 + K_g R^2} a_g k_g R}}{2(\lambda_{\max} - \lambda_{\min})} \quad (12)$$

Letting (1), (2), (3), and (4) equal 0, when $r_{\text{seq}} = k$, we obtain:

$$\begin{cases} R = \frac{r_{x,R} - k}{\lambda(E_g)} \\ D = \frac{r_{x,D}}{\lambda(E_g)} = \frac{b_D + \frac{a_D}{1 + \frac{K_0^2}{\lambda(E_g)^2} (b_R - k + F_R(R))^2}}{\lambda(E_g)} \\ A = \frac{r_D - r_B - 2k}{\lambda(E_g)} \\ C = \frac{K}{\lambda(E_g)} \end{cases} \quad (13)$$

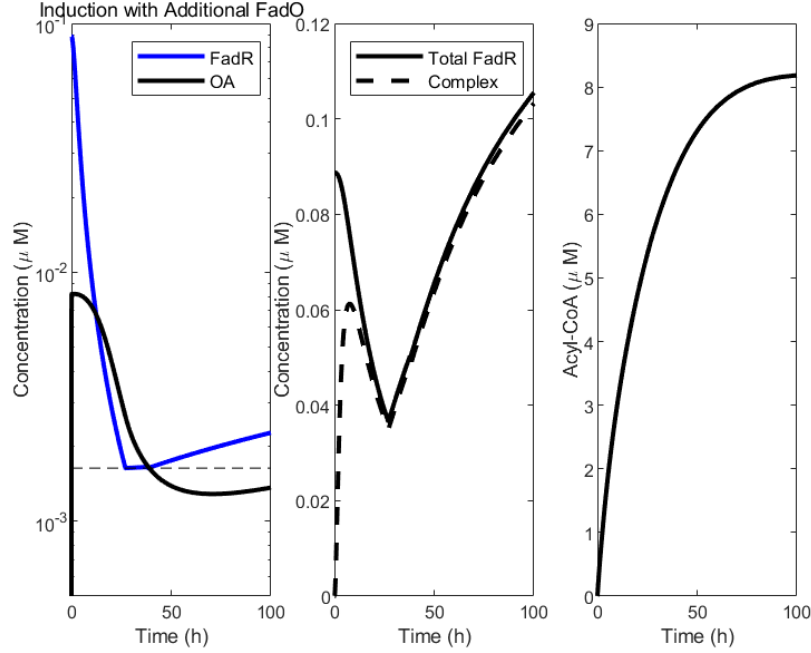


Figure 5: Model Simulation of oleic acid inducer system with additional FadO operators

Based on the analysis, we only need to solve for $\lambda(E_g)$ to determine the other coefficients. And since $\lambda(E_g)$ is related to R , by solving for R , we can derive the other quantities. Using the relation $R = \frac{r_{x,R} - k}{\lambda E_g}$ and substituting in $r_{x,R} = b_R + P_R(R)$, we get:

$$\frac{-\lambda_{min}^2 + \lambda_{min} \sqrt{\lambda_{min}^2 + \frac{4a_g k_g R}{1+4k_g R} (\lambda_{max} - \lambda_{min})}}{2(\lambda_{max} - \lambda_{min})} + \lambda_{max} - \lambda_{min} - \frac{a_R}{1+k_R} = b_R - k$$

After a series of simplifications, the final equation becomes a cubic equation in terms of s , where $s = t + c = \frac{a_R}{1+K_R R} + (b_2 + \lambda_{min} - \lambda_{max} - k)$. Solving this gives the analytical solutions for $R = \frac{a_R - t}{tk_R}$ and $\lambda(E_g)$.

Through the above analysis and derivation, we provide analytical solutions for the steady states of different components in this oleic acid inducer system, offering a valuable starting point for further research and experiments.

5.2 Model Sensitivity

In this section, we conducted a global and local sensitivity analysis of the dose-response to parameter variations in the oleic acid inducer system.

For the global sensitivity analysis, we employed the eFAST [6] method to visualize the average and standard deviation (error bars) of the first-order sensitivity indices, as well as their values found in 100 parameter sets (dots). eFAST was implemented in MATLAB R2022a and explored values of parameters $b_R; a_R; K_R; b_D; a_D; K_D; S_T$ ranging from 10% to 500% of their default parameters as mentioned in [1,2].

For the local sensitivity analysis, we constructed plots illustrating the dose-response changes when altering one parameter at a time [1]. Nine log-spaced values of several key parameters were sampled, ranging from 10% to the nominal value presented in Supplementary Table 2 by 1000%. The blue curve represents the nominal value.

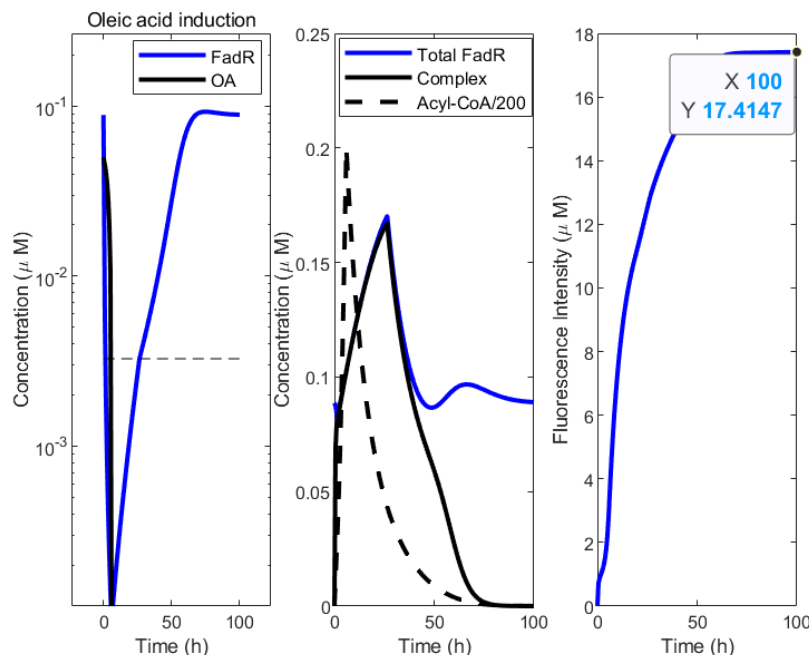


Figure 6: A visualization of fluorescence intensity F in the model

References

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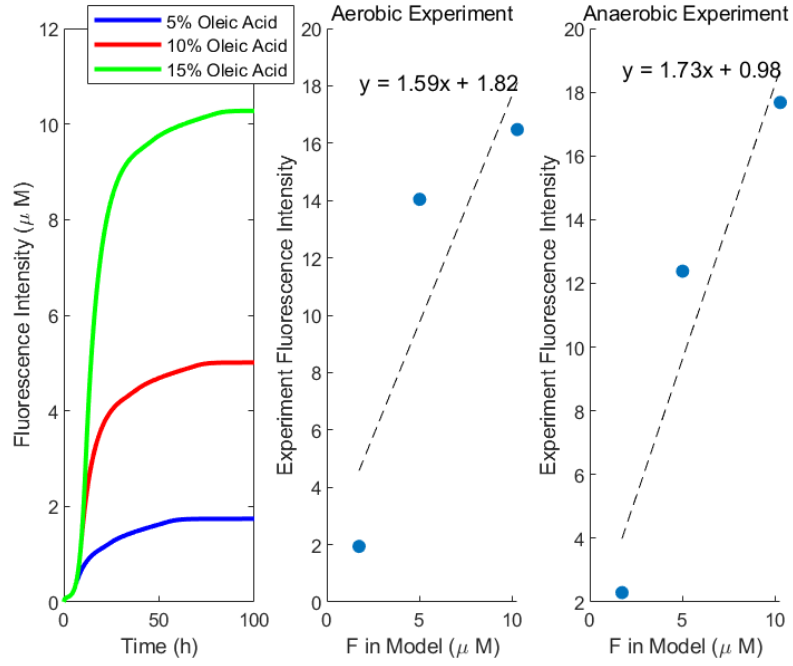


Figure 7: Parameter estimation by measuring the fluorescence intensity and fitting

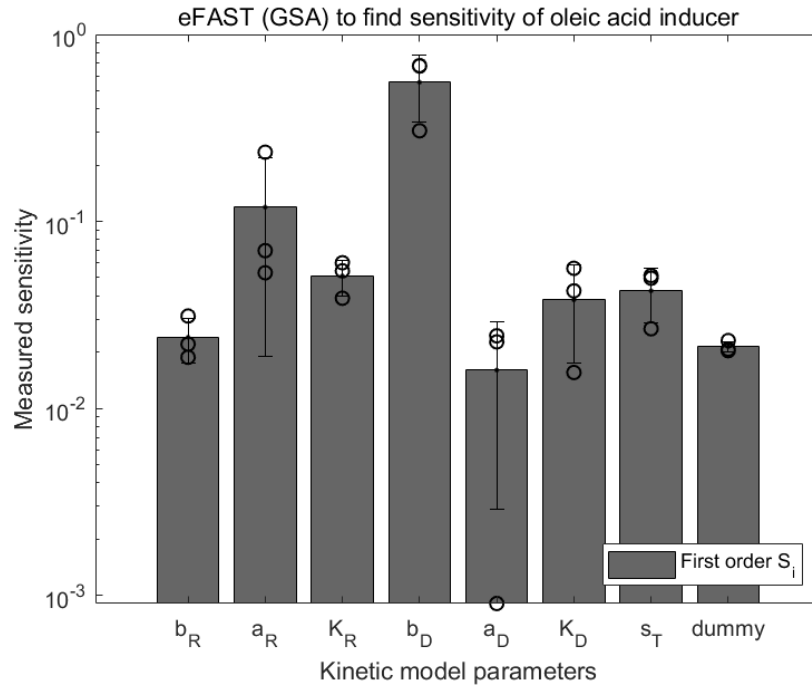


Figure 8: Plots of average and standard deviation (error bars) of first-order sensitivity indices

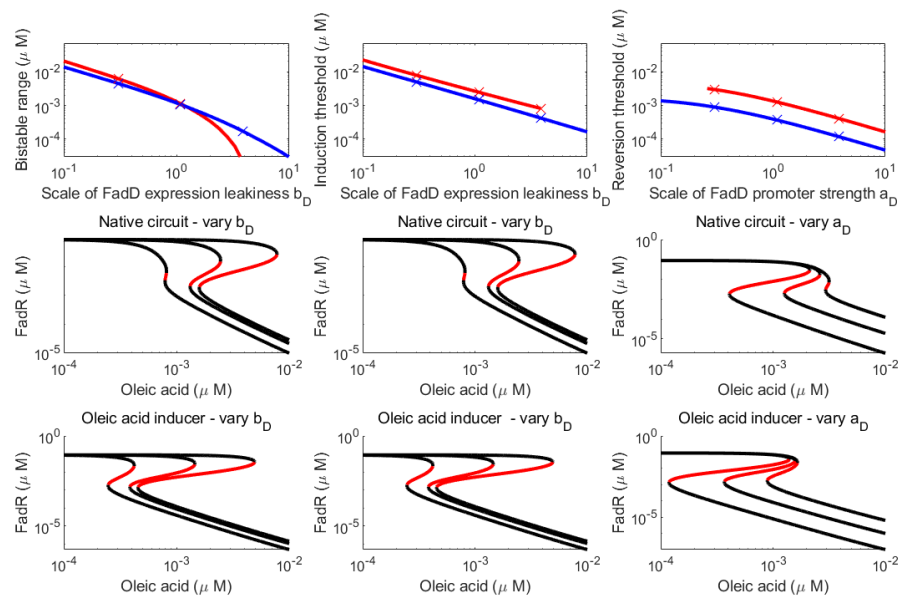


Figure 9: Plots of how dose-response changed for changes in one parameter at a time