

Kinetics-based Inference of Environment-Dependent Microbial Interactions and Their Dynamic Variation

Hyun-Seob Song^{1,2†*}, Na-Rae Lee^{3†}, Aimee K. Kessell¹, Seo-Young Park⁴, Kang Zhou⁵, and Dong-Yup Lee^{4*}

¹Department of Biological Systems Engineering, University of Nebraska-Lincoln, Lincoln, NE 68583

²Department of Food Science and Technology, Nebraska Food for Health Center, University of Nebraska-Lincoln, Lincoln, NE 68588

³Department of Bioscience and Biotechnology, Konkuk University, Seoul 05029, Republic of Korea

⁴School of Chemical Engineering, Sungkyunkwan University, Suwon-si, Gyeonggi-do 16419, Republic of Korea

⁵Department of Chemical and Biomolecular Engineering, National University of Singapore, 4 Engineering Drive 4, Singapore 117585, Singapore

†Both authors contributed equally.

*Correspondence: hsong5@unl.edu (H.-S.S.); dongyuplee@skku.edu (D.-Y.L.)

1 **ABSTRACT:** Microbial communities in nature are dynamically evolving as member species
2 change their interactions subject to environmental variations. Accounting for such context-
3 dependent dynamic variations in interspecies interactions is critical for predictive ecological
4 modeling. However, we lack a fundamental understanding of how microbial interactions are driven
5 by environmental factors due to the absence of generalizable theoretical foundations, significantly
6 limiting our capability to predict and engineer community dynamics and function. To address this
7 issue, we propose a novel theoretical framework that allows us to represent interspecies
8 interactions as an explicit function of environmental variables (such as substrate concentrations)
9 by combining growth kinetics and a generalized Lotka-Volterra model. A synergistic integration
10 of these two complementary models leads to the prediction of alterations in interspecies
11 interactions as the outcome of dynamic balances between positive and negative influences of
12 microbial species in mixed relationships. This unique capability of our approach was
13 experimentally demonstrated using a synthetic consortium of two *Escherichia coli* mutants that
14 are metabolically dependent (due to an inability to synthesize essential amino acids), but
15 competitively growing on a shared substrate. The analysis of the *E. coli* binary consortium using
16 our model not only showed how interactions between the two amino acid auxotrophic mutants are
17 controlled by the dynamic shifts in limiting substrates, but also enabled quantifying previously
18 uncharacterizable complex aspects of microbial interactions such as asymmetry in interactions.
19 Our approach can be extended to other related ecological systems to model their environment-
20 dependent interspecies interactions from growth kinetics.

21

22 **IMPORTANCE:** Modeling of environment-controlled interspecies interactions through separate
23 identification of positive and negative influences of microbes in mixed relationships is a new

24 capability that can significantly improve our ability to understand, predict, and engineer complex
25 dynamics of microbial communities. Moreover, robust prediction of microbial interactions as a
26 function of environmental variables can serve as valuable benchmark data to validate modeling
27 and network inference tools in microbial ecology, the development of which has often been
28 impeded due to the lack of ground truth information on interactions. While demonstrated against
29 microbial data, the theory developed in this work is readily applicable to general community
30 ecology to predict interactions among microorganisms such as plants and animals, as well as
31 microorganisms.

32

33 **KEYWORDS:** Microbial communities; competition; cooperation; context dependence; kinetic
34 models; Lotka-Volterra models

35

36

37 INTRODUCTION

38 Microbial communities play pivotal roles in maintaining human and animal health, plant
39 productivity, and ecosystem services (1-4). Increasing efforts are being dedicated towards
40 maximizing their beneficial roles in natural systems or creating new industrial applications (5).
41 However, control and design of microbial community dynamics and function is a challenging task,
42 primarily due to higher-order or emergent properties that are not observable from individual
43 species in isolation but arise through nonlinear interspecies interactions (6, 7). Therefore, rational
44 design of microbial communities or consortia requires a fundamental knowledge of microbial
45 interactions as a mechanistic linkage between the environment and the community compositions
46 and function, necessitating the employment of predictive mathematical models as indispensable
47 tools (8-14).

48 Development of accurate models of microbial communities that are commonly subject to
49 environmental variations is truly complicated by the following intrinsic ecological aspects. First,
50 microorganisms in a community build *dynamic* interactions that cannot effectively be represented
51 by a rigid network with fixed structure (15, 16). Rather, microbial communities keep reorganizing
52 interaction networks in response to biotic or abiotic perturbations or through adaptation to long-
53 lasting environmental changes. Second, microorganisms often build *mixed* relationships by
54 exerting *both* promotive and inhibitive impacts on the growth of their partners/neighbors (17, 18).
55 Individual identification of these simultaneously acting positive and negative interactions is critical
56 because community dynamics is mainly driven by the balances between all counteracting impacts
57 among member species (19). The lack of capability to account for these key properties of microbial
58 interactions limits our ability to predict and engineer microbial community dynamics and functions.

59 Despite rapid progress in microbiome science, we still do not know how to identify
60 environment-controlled dynamic variation in interspecies interactions addressed above. Three
61 major branches of microbial interaction modeling include (20, 21): (i) network inference, (ii)
62 metabolic network modeling, and (iii) kinetic modeling. Network inference is widely used for
63 modeling microbial interactions to identify interaction networks based on correlative relationships
64 among microbial populations (22-25), parameter identification through regression (26-28), or a
65 prescribed set of rules or hypotheses (21). The resulting networks represent interspecies
66 interactions as single constant metrics, therefore being unable to describe dynamic variations in
67 interactions nor identify the balances among counteracting individual impacts in mixed
68 relationships. Recently, we developed the method termed MIIA (Minimal Interspecies Interaction
69 Adjustment) (15, 16) to predict context-dependent interactions due to the changes in memberships,
70 which however has not been extended to address the environmental impacts. In contrast with
71 network inference, metabolic network and kinetic modeling can account for both positive and
72 negative interactions based on cross-feeding of small molecules (essential for growth) or
73 competition for shared substrates/nutrients among species; in theory, kinetic models can
74 additionally simulate their dynamic variations. While more mechanistic than network inference,
75 these methods cannot quantify the magnitude or even the sign of net interactions.

76 In this work, we fill these gaps by proposing a novel theoretical framework that enables a
77 quantifiable, mechanistic representation of the dynamic linkage between microbial interactions
78 and the environment. For this purpose, we synergistically integrate two complementary modeling
79 frameworks to overcome their own limitations: a generalized Lotka-Volterra (gLV) model (29)
80 and population growth kinetics. Like other network inference approaches, a typical gLV model
81 with a focus on pairwise interactions is constructed based on an implicit assumption of constant

82 interactions. We relax this assumption by representing interaction coefficients in the gLV model
83 as a function of environmental variables (i.e., concentrations of cross-fed metabolites and shared
84 substrates) described in microbial growth kinetics, which is termed here kinetics-based inference
85 of dynamic variation in microbial interactions (KIDI). The resulting functional representation of
86 interactions by KIDI enables not only quantifying their dynamic variation as environmental
87 conditions change, but also individually identifying negative and positive influences among
88 species in mixed relationships. The prediction of KIDI was demonstrated accurate through a
89 coordinated design of experiments using a binary consortium composed of tyrosine and tryptophan
90 auxotrophic mutants of *Escherichia coli* (30) so that they both compete and/or cooperate
91 depending on environmental conditions.

92

93 **RESULTS**

94 **Formulation of a conceptual model for understanding environment-dependent interactions**

95 For illustration of the concept of KIDI, we consider a hypothetical consortium composed of two
96 members where species 1 (X_1) and species 2 (X_2) cooperate by cross-feeding S_1^+ and S_2^+ each other
97 but compete for the shared metabolite S^- (the center circle in **Fig. 1**). Growth kinetics for the i^{th}
98 species (X_i) (that requires two substrates S_i^+ and S^- for growth) can be represented, e.g., using a
99 double Michaelis-Menten equation as follows:

$$100 \quad \mu_i = \mu_i^{\max} \frac{s_i^+}{(K_i^+ + s_i^+)} \frac{s^-}{(K_i^- + s^-)}, \quad i = 1, 2 \quad (1)$$

101 where μ_i [1/h] is the specific growth rate of X_i , μ_i^{\max} is the maximal specific growth rate, s_i^+ and
102 s^- [g/l] are the concentrations of S_i^+ and S^- , and K_i^+ and K_i^- [g/l] are half-saturation constants
103 associated with the consumption of S_i^+ and S^- , respectively. As inferable from growth kinetics in

104 Eq. (1), the mixed relationship (i.e., competition and cooperation) between X_1 and X_2 when both
105 substrates are limiting can turn into diverse forms of interactions as environmental conditions
106 change. When S^- is present in excess (therefore, no competition is necessary) but S_1^+ and S_2^+ are
107 limiting, for example, their relationship is predominantly cooperative (where $\mu_i \approx \frac{\mu_i^{\max} s_i^+}{K_i^+ + s_i^+}$). As the
108 opposite case, if both S_1^+ and S_2^+ are excessive in the environment (so no partners are needed to
109 acquire them) while S^- is limiting, their relationship is governed by competition (where $\mu_i \approx$
110 $\frac{\mu_i^{\max} s^-}{K_i^- + s^-}$). Likewise, one can assume many other different scenarios where their relationships turn
111 into competition, cooperation, amensalism, commensalism and even neutrality, as illustrated in
112 **Fig. 1.**

113

114 **Representation of interaction parameters as a function of environmental variables**

115 To model such environment-dependent microbial relationships, we derived a general form of
116 interaction coefficients as a function of environmental variables by integrating growth kinetics and
117 a gLV model. As described in detail in **Materials and Methods**, our formula (KIDI) represents
118 interaction coefficients of species in the mixed relationship as a sum of positive and negative parts,
119 i.e.,

120
$$a_{i,j}(s_i^+, s^-) = a_{i,j}^+(s_i^+, s^-) + a_{i,j}^-(s_i^+, s^-), \quad (i, j) = (1, 2) \text{ or } (2, 1) \quad (2)$$

121 where $a_{i,j}^+$ and $a_{i,j}^-$ denote the positive and negative influence of X_j on the growth rate of X_i , which
122 are defined as follows:

123
$$a_{i,j}^+(s_i^+, s^-) \equiv \frac{\partial}{\partial s_i^+} [\mu_i(s_i^+, s^-)] \cdot \frac{\partial s_i^+}{\partial x_j} \quad (3)$$

$$124 \quad a_{i,j}^-(s_i^+, s^-) \equiv \frac{\partial}{\partial s^-} \left[\mu_i(s_i^+, s^-) \right] \cdot \frac{\partial s^-}{\partial x_j} \quad (4)$$

125 The positive influence of X_j on the growth rate of X_i (i.e., $a_{i,j}^+$) is represented by the two
 126 subsequent terms on the right-hand side of Eq. (3): (i) the impact of the change in the population
 127 size of X_j on the concentration of the cross-fed substrate S_i^+ (as denoted by $\partial s_i^+ / \partial x_j$) and (2) the
 128 subsequent impact of the change in S_i^+ on the growth rate of the i^{th} species (i.e., μ_i) (as denoted
 129 by $\partial[\mu_i(s^-, s_i^+)] / \partial s_i^+$). The negative impact of X_j on the growth rate of X_i ($a_{i,j}^-$) in Eq. (4) can be
 130 interpreted in a similar fashion.

131 The derivative terms on the right-hand side of Eqs. (3) and (4) are fully identifiable from
 132 reaction stoichiometry and kinetics. In the case of using a double Monod kinetics, for example,
 133 incorporation of Eq. (1) into Eqs. (3) and (4) yields $a_{i,j}^+$ and $a_{i,j}^-$ as follows:

$$134 \quad a_{i,j}^+ (s_i^+, s^-) = \left[\mu_i^{\max} \frac{K_i^+}{(K_i^+ + s_i^+)^2} \frac{s^-}{(K_i^- + s^-)} \right] \cdot Y_{S_i^+/X_j} \quad (5)$$

$$135 \quad a_{i,j}^-(s_i^+, s^-) = \left[\mu_i^{\max} \frac{s_i^+}{(K_i^+ + s_i^+)} \frac{K_i^-}{(K_i^- + s^-)^2} \right] \cdot \left(-Y_{S^- / X_j} \right) \quad (6)$$

136 where $Y_{S_i^+/X_j}$ and Y_{S^-/X_j} denote the stoichiometric relationships between the changes in substrate
 137 and biomass concentrations associated with X_j , i.e., $Y_{S_i^+/X_j} = |\Delta s_i^+ / \Delta x_j|$ and $Y_{S^-/X_j} = |\Delta s^- / \Delta x_j|$
 138 (see **Materials and Methods**).

139 To identify net interactions between two species with mixed relationships, we further
 140 defined a universal interaction parameter $\gamma_{i,j}$ as follows:

$$141 \quad \gamma_{i,j} \equiv \frac{a_{i,j}^+ + a_{i,j}^-}{a_{i,j}^+ - a_{i,j}^-}, \quad (i,j) = (1,2) \text{ or } (2,1) \quad (7)$$

142 The parameter $\gamma_{i,j}$ ranges from -1 to 1 to represent positive influences of species j on species i
143 when greater than 0 and negative impacts when less than 0, respectively, consequently allowing
144 us to conveniently quantify the relative dominance of inhibition vs. promotion in mixed
145 interactions. The parameter $\gamma_{i,j}$ complements $a_{i,j}$, rather than replaces it, in that the magnitude of
146 interactions cannot be determined by $\gamma_{i,j}$, but by the original interaction parameter, $a_{i,j}$. Along
147 with $a_{i,j}$ defined in Eqs. (2) to (4), $\gamma_{i,j}$ completely characterizes the dynamic variation of
148 interactions between X_1 and X_2 based on co-culture growth data as demonstrated in the following
149 sections.

150

151 **Identification of kinetics and stoichiometry via data fit**

152 For experimental demonstration of the mathematical formulation derived in the previous section,
153 we constructed a synthetic consortium composed of two *E. coli* auxotrophic mutants that
154 cooperatively cross-feed tryptophan and tyrosine, respectively, while competitively growing on
155 glucose (31). This consortium is therefore an ideal, simplest model system for studying
156 environment-dependent dynamic variations in microbial interactions. Due to its exact
157 correspondence to the hypothetical consortium in **Fig. 1**, we denote two *E. coli* mutant strains
158 ΔtrpC and ΔtyrA by X_1 and X_2 ; glucose, tryptophan, and tyrosine by S^- , S_1^+ , and S_2^+ , respectively.

159 Using these two strains, we performed growth experiments under diverse culture
160 conditions: two individual batch experiments using X_1 (**Fig. 2A**) and X_2 (**Fig. 2B**), respectively,
161 and two sets of co-culture experiments (**Figs. 2C** and **2D**). The top panels in **Figs. 2C** and **2D**
162 denote co-growth experiments in batch cultures, while the middle and bottom panels denote semi-
163 batch modes, where we added glucose feedbeads (FBs) at time 7.5 and 10 hours, respectively, to
164 induce dramatic changes in interspecies interactions during co-growth. Other differences in co-

165 culture conditions in **Figs. 2C** and **2D** include initial concentrations of S^- , S_1^+ , and S_2^+ , and the
166 number of added FBs (see **Supp Datasheet**). The optical density profiles in **Fig. 2D** denote the
167 combined population change of both strains, i.e., $X_1 + X_2$.

168 Based on the four datasets in **Fig. 2**, we constructed a dynamic co-growth model of X_1 and
169 X_2 to determine associated kinetics and stoichiometry, key information required for quantifying
170 interspecies interactions parameters ($a_{i,j}$ and $\gamma_{i,j}$) in Eqs. (2) to (7). The dynamic co-growth model
171 is composed of five mass balance equations for X_1 , X_2 , S^- , S_1^+ , and S_2^+ . We determined
172 stoichiometric and kinetic parameters using three subsets of data in **Figs. 2A – 2C** and validated
173 the model against the remaining one (in **Fig. 2D**) that was not used for model identification. The
174 robust consistency between simulated and measured data in **Fig. 2D**, as well as those in **Figs. 2A**
175 – **2C**, indicates the acceptability of using the identified model parameters in inferring interaction
176 coefficients. We provide the full list of model equations with parameter values in **Table 1**; the
177 culture conditions in **Table S1**.

178

179 **Variation in microbial interactions driven by the switch in limiting substrates in batch**
180 **cultures**

181 Based on the stoichiometric and kinetic parameters determined through data fit in **Table 1**, we were
182 able to determine microbial interactions and their variations as a function of environmental
183 conditions using KIDI. We first analyzed various co-culture scenarios in batch modes (**Fig. 3**). In
184 **Fig. 3A**, we considered the growth of X_1 and X_2 on relatively high and low initial concentrations
185 of S^- (2 g/l) and S_1^+ and S_2^+ (i.e., 0.4 mg/l for both) as a reference condition. As shown in the top
186 two panels of **Fig. 3A**, S^- was depleted around 22.5 hours, after which no further microbial growth
187 is observed for both X_1 and X_2 . In the present setting, the initial relationship between X_1 and X_2 is

188 expected to be cooperative (because S^- is excessive in the beginning), which however turns into
189 competition as the level of S^- gradually decreases. Interaction coefficients extracted by KIDI
190 correctly captured this transition as indicated by the dramatic changes in the values of normalized
191 universal interaction parameters ($\gamma_{1,2}$ and $\gamma_{2,1}$) from 1 to -1 around the time when glucose is
192 depleted. Actual values of interaction coefficients can be seen from $a_{i,j}$, $a_{i,j}^+$, and $a_{i,j}^-$ (three bottom
193 panels of **Fig. 3A**, which also showed that the level of initial cooperation was moderate or small
194 (as indicated by small magnitudes of $a_{i,j}^+ < 2 \times 10^{-3}$), partly due to the availability of S_1^+ and S_2^+
195 in the environment from the beginning. Interestingly, the values of $a_{i,j}^+$ dropped to zero after the
196 depletion of S^- despite that the initially added S_1^+ and S_2^+ might be completely consumed by that
197 time and consequently metabolic dependence between X_1 and X_2 should increase. The reason for
198 zero values of $a_{i,j}^+$ is due to that the exchange of S_1^+ and S_2^+ is not occurring when species cannot
199 grow any more due to carbon limitation after the depletion of S^- .

200 For comparison, we analyzed two additional conditions. (1) with a lower initial
201 concentration of S^- (i.e., 0.5 g/l) and (2) with lower and higher initial concentrations of S^- (0.5
202 g/l) and S_1^+ and S_2^+ (i.e., 4 mg/l for both), respectively. In both cases, KIDI successfully captured
203 the expected changes in interspecies interactions. In the case of lowering the initial concentration
204 of S^- (**Fig. 3B**), KIDI showed that the level of initial competition increases (due to the limited
205 availability of S^-) as indicated by relatively lower values of $\gamma_{1,2}$ and $\gamma_{2,1}$ compared to the case of
206 **Fig. 3A**. Notably, $\gamma_{2,1}$ showed negative value throughout the co-growth (indicating the dominance
207 of negative influence of X_1 on the growth of X_2). In the case of increasing the initial concentrations
208 of S_1^+ and S_2^+ in addition to lowering S^- (**Fig. 3C**), the relationship between the two strains became
209 even more negative, which was also an expected outcome because metabolic dependence between

210 X_1 and X_2 will accordingly reduce when they can acquire what they need from the environment,
211 rather than from partners.

212 In all three cases above (including the reference condition), the relations between the two
213 *E. coli* strains were shown asymmetric, i.e., $\gamma_{1,2} \neq \gamma_{2,1}$, $a_{1,2} \neq a_{2,1}$, $a_{1,2}^- \neq a_{2,1}^-$, and $a_{1,2}^+ \neq a_{2,1}^+$.
214 Interestingly, KIDI consistently predicted $\gamma_{1,2} > \gamma_{2,1}$ and $a_{1,2} > a_{2,1}$, while the reasons may vary
215 across conditions. In the reference condition (**Fig. 3A**) where glucose is excessive (so $a_{i,j}^-$'s are
216 negligible), it is mostly due to $a_{1,2}^+ > a_{2,1}^+$ (i.e., X_1 has a higher comparative advantage in
217 exchanging amino acids with X_2 than the other way around) that leads $\gamma_{1,2} > \gamma_{2,1}$ (as well as
218 $a_{1,2} > a_{2,1}$) (see **Fig. S1A** for a zoom-in view). In contrast, in the case in **Fig. 3C** where the glucose
219 level is low while amino acids are abundant (so $a_{i,j}^+$'s are negligible), X_1 has the comparative
220 growth advantage because $a_{1,2}^- > a_{2,1}^-$ (i.e., the growth of X_1 is less inhibited by X_2 than the other
221 way around) (**Fig. S1C**). Lastly, both $a_{i,j}^+$'s and $a_{i,j}^-$'s contribute to the outcome in the case in **Fig.**
222 **3B** where all substrates (glucose and amino acids) are limitedly available in the environment (**Fig.**
223 **S1B**).

224

225 **Dynamic response of microbial interactions to environmental perturbations during growth**
226 We extend our analysis to semi-batch cultures that are perturbed by the addition of glucose FBs
227 during growth and therefore are expected to show more dramatic changes in interspecies
228 interactions and community dynamics. In contrast with the batch cultures considered in the
229 previous section where no further growth is possible after the depletion of the initially added S^- ,
230 the two strains continue to grow in semi-batch cultures due to slow but continual provision of S^-
231 from the added FBs. Despite a general expectation that the competition level between the two
232 strains will be mitigated at least at the moment of FB addition, it is uncertain: (1) to what degree

233 this will occur under different environmental conditions, and (2) how governing microbial
234 interactions will shift (between competition and cooperation), particularly in a later phase when
235 the growth of the two strains is limited by both S^- and S_i^+ . To answer these questions, we
236 applied KIDI to the following three cases. For simplicity, we set the initial conditions to be the
237 same as before.

238 First, we considered the initial concentrations of 2 g/l for S^- and 0.4 mg/l for S_1^+ and S_2^+
239 and added 3 FBs of S^- at around 7.5 hours (**Fig. 4A**). Due to the relatively high concentration of
240 S^- , the impact of adding 3 FBs of S^- was minimal, i.e., showing no appreciable qualitative
241 changes (in glucose concentration, population size, and interaction parameters) from the batch case
242 with the same initial conditions in **Fig. 3A**. By contrast, when the initial concentration of S^- was
243 low (i.e., 0.5 g/l) (**Fig. 4B**), KIDI identified the significant impact of adding FBs on both glucose
244 concentration and microbial interactions, as indicated by sudden increases in S^- , $\gamma_{1,2}$ and $\gamma_{2,1}$.
245 More interestingly, when additionally increasing the initial concentration of S_1^+ and S_2^+ (**Fig. 4C**)
246 (therefore the level of competition becomes even more significant), we found no appreciable
247 impacts on microbial interactions ($\gamma_{1,2}$ and $\gamma_{2,1}$), while the glucose (S^-) profile was significantly
248 perturbed by adding FBs. As observed in the previous section, the *net* interaction parameters ($a_{i,j}$
249 and $\gamma_{i,j}$) are governed by $a_{i,j}^+$ and/or $a_{i,j}^-$ depending on the environmental contexts: $a_{i,j}^+$ and $a_{i,j}^-$
250 are major determinants of the net interaction for the cases in **Figs. 4A** and **4C**, respectively, while
251 the effects of $a_{i,j}^+$ and $a_{i,j}^-$ are comparable for the case in **Fig. 4B** (see zoom-in views in **Fig. S2**).
252 In all three cases, the interactions between the two strains were eventually governed by competition
253 in the later phase as indicated by the negative values of $\gamma_{1,2}$ and $\gamma_{2,1}$ close to -1. However,
254 governing interactions in the early phase depended on initial conditions, i.e., cooperation and
255 competition were dominant in the first and third cases (**Figs. 4A** and **4C**), respectively, while the

256 second case (**Fig.4B**) showed a balance between them. Similar interpretations can be made for
257 other scenarios of perturbations where the number of added FBs and the timing of addition were
258 subject to variation (**Fig. S3**).

259 Interactions between X_1 and X_2 were also identified asymmetric. Similar to the previous
260 batch cases, X_1 has the comparative advantage over X_2 throughout the entire growth period by
261 being more helped from X_2 (than X_2 is being helped from X_1) (i.e., $a_{1,2}^+ > a_{2,1}^+$) before the
262 exhaustion of initially added S^- , and by being less inhibited by X_1 than X_2 is being inhibited by
263 X_1 (i.e., $a_{1,2}^- < a_{2,1}^-$) afterwards.

264

265 **DISCUSSION**

266 In this study, we proposed a novel computational method (KIDI) that enables quantitatively
267 identifying environment-dependent interspecies interactions in microbial communities. By
268 integrating growth kinetics into a gLV model, we derived an analytical form of interaction
269 coefficients as a function of environmental variables (i.e., concentrations of chemical substrates
270 that affect interactions), the results of which were subsequently validated through a coordinated
271 design of co-culture experiments.

272 Our theoretical development significantly extends the current scope of microbial ecological
273 modeling by completely relaxing the typical assumption of constant interactions among species.
274 The gLV model, for example, has been widely used as a basic ecological modeling template for
275 simulation of population dynamics and inference of interspecies interactions in microbial
276 communities (26-28). Due to the constant interaction assumption, however, the application of the
277 gLV model is often confined to a narrow range of conditions where interspecies interactions are
278 expected to remain largely constant. KIDI addresses this limitation by representing interaction

279 coefficients as an explicit function of limiting substrates. As an exception, a previous study by
280 Momeni et al. (32) showed that pairwise interaction (i.e., gLV) models are derivable from
281 mechanistic (i.e., kinetic) models through empirical manipulation of equations, which is however
282 limited to special forms of kinetics and therefore cannot be generalizable (32). By contrast, our
283 chain rule-based formulation allows us to handle any complex forms of kinetic equations with no
284 such constraints. Consequently, KIDI enables incorporation any forms of kinetic equations as
285 demonstrated using a double Michaelis-Menten kinetics as a demonstration example.

286 Dynamic variations in microbial interactions inferred by KIDI were experimentally
287 validated using a synthetic binary consortium of two metabolically engineered auxotrophic *E. coli*
288 mutants that cross-feed amino acids they cannot synthesize (i.e., tryptophane and tyrosine). A
289 coordinated design of experiments provided multiple sets of data required for determining kinetic
290 and stoichiometric parameters in the mechanistic model along with substrate concentrations, which
291 are key inputs for quantifying environment-dependent interactions. Despite diverse culture
292 conditions including axenic and binary growth in batch and semi-batch modes, our model with a
293 *single* set of parameters showed satisfactory fit to the three training datasets and provided
294 consistency with the validation dataset set aside in advance. Such a fair goodness of fit indicates
295 the acceptability of model parameters and therefore the subsequent inference of microbial
296 interactions.

297 Our kinetic model also shows consistency with the analysis of energetic cost of
298 synthesizing amino acids in the literature. Mee et al. (30) estimated the energetic cost for the
299 synthesis of 14 individual amino acids based the amounts of extracellularly supplemented amino
300 acid and the observed growth yield of *E. coli* auxotrophic mutants. From the linear relationships
301 between these two variables, they calculated the supplemented amounts of amino acids *per cell*,

302 which were 1.5×10^7 and 3.7×10^7 for the tryptophane and tyrosine auxotrophic *E. coli* mutants,
303 respectively. These two quantities correspond to the stoichiometric coefficients $Y_{S_i^+ / X_i}$ ($i = 1, 2$)
304 in our kinetic model, which were determined to be 0.0845 ($= Y_{S_1^+ / X_1}$) and 0.133 ($= Y_{S_2^+ / X_2}$)
305 [mg/OD] through data fit (**Table 2**). As the direct one-to-one matching between them might not
306 be feasible, e.g., due to different units of biomass (i.e., cell number in Mee et al. (30) vs. OD in
307 this work), we compared the ratios, which showed consistency between the two studies, i.e.,
308 $\frac{1.5 \times 10^7}{3.7 \times 10^7} \approx 0.41$ vs. $\frac{0.0845}{0.133} \approx 0.64$. Both results imply that compared to tyrosine, the synthesis of
309 tryptophane is more costly. In support of this, Mee et al. (30) estimated the biosynthetic cost for
310 tryptophane is about 43% higher than that for tyrosine.

311 The formulation of KIDI is valid regardless of the complexity of microbial communities.
312 A challenge exists, however, in accurately quantifying input parameters (i.e., kinetic and
313 stoichiometric parameters of the kinetic model), because it requires robust measurements of
314 temporal profiles of substrate concentrations. In particular, the levels of metabolites that are
315 exchanged among member species are often quite low and sometimes below the detection limit
316 due to immediate consumption after being produced. This difficulty would be relieved to a degree
317 by performing axenic growth experiments (as we did in this work) but extracting isolates from
318 natural communities may not be always possible. Under these constraints, our demonstration was
319 focused on relatively simple consortia that facilitate to collect experimental data (temporal profiles
320 of substrate concentrations and population densities) required to determine the parameters in the
321 mechanistic model. In this regard, KIDI can serve as a valuable modeling tool for synthetic
322 consortia designed for engineering applications and/or model consortia derived from natural
323 communities to gain a better understanding of complex ecological systems (33, 34).

324 Despite this challenge, we highlight that inferring environment-dependent interactions and
325 their dynamic variations is a critical capability uniquely associated with KIDI. Even in a simple
326 binary consortium considered in this work, KIDI provides new insights into interspecies
327 interactions such as asymmetry between the two amino acid autotrophs, which might not be
328 obtainable otherwise. In perturbed growth experiments with glucose FBs, for example, KIDI
329 identified that (1) $a_{1,2}^+ > a_{2,1}^+$ while the shared substrate (glucose) is abundant, implying that the
330 tryptophane auxotroph (X_1) does not support the growth of the tyrosine auxotroph (X_2) as much
331 as X_2 does for X_1 ; (2) $a_{1,2}^- < a_{2,1}^-$ after the completion of initially added glucose, implying that less
332 favorable supporters during cooperation become worse enemies when the relationship turned into
333 competition. As another critical utility, KIDI can significantly facilitate the development of
334 network inference techniques because the validation process of new algorithms for predicting
335 microbial interactions has often been hampered due to the lack of benchmark data.

336 Beyond microbial ecology, KIDI is applicable in broad areas of community ecology
337 because context dependency is not a property associated only with microorganisms, but with
338 macro-organisms such as plants and animals. We hope that KIDI will serve as a useful tool for
339 understanding and engineering context-dependent microbial interactions in a wide range of
340 applications.

341

342 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

343 **Mathematical definition of interaction coefficients**

344 The dynamic change in population i in a community can be formulated in a general form as follows:

$$345 \quad \frac{1}{x_i} \frac{dx_i}{dt} = f_i(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N), \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N \quad (8)$$

346 where x_i is the population density of species i , the left-hand side defines a specific growth rate of
347 species i (hereafter denoted by $\mu_i \equiv d(\ln x_i)/dt$), and the function $f_i(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N)$ represents a
348 nonlinear dependence of μ_i on population densities of other species that affect the growth of
349 species i .

350 Using a Taylor expansion, the right-hand side of Eq. (8) can be represented as a series of
351 polynomial terms, i.e.,

$$352 \quad \mu_i = f_{i,0} + \sum_{j=1}^N \left(\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j} \right)_0 x_j + H.O.T., \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N \quad (9)$$

353 where the subscript 0 denotes a chosen reference condition, *H.O.T.* is higher-order terms.
354 Neglecting the *H.O.T.* in Eq. (9), a gLV equation describes specific growth of species i using a
355 linear equation, i.e.,

$$356 \quad \mu_i(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N) = \mu_{i,0} + \sum_{j=1}^N a_{i,j} x_j, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N \quad (10)$$

357 where interaction coefficient $a_{i,j}$ denotes the effect of species population j on the specific growth
358 of species i . For a binary community, Eq. (10) reduces to

$$359 \quad \mu_i(x_i, x_j) = \mu_{i,0} + a_{i,i} x_i + a_{i,j} x_j, \quad i = 1, 2 \quad (11)$$

360 where $\mu_{i,0}$ is the basal growth rate, $a_{i,i}$ is the intra-specific interaction coefficient, and $a_{i,j}$ is the
361 inter-specific interaction coefficient.

362 From Eq. (11), binary interaction coefficients in gLV are defined as follows:

$$363 \quad a_{i,j} \equiv \frac{\partial \mu_i(x_i, x_j)}{\partial x_j} \quad (12)$$

364 The gLV model assumes that $a_{i,j}$ is constant, which however leads the gLV model to fail to capture
365 delicate dynamics of microbial interactions. Indeed, $a_{i,j}$ is a dynamic parameter that changes its
366 value in varying environmental conditions as shown in the next section.

367

368 **Formulation of interaction coefficients as function of environmental variables**

369 Specific growth rates can also be kinetically represented as a function of nutrient concentrations
370 in the environment. In the circumstance considered in **Fig. 1**,

371
$$\mu_i = \mu_i(s_i^+, s^-) \quad (13)$$

372 where s_i^+ is the nutrient (such as Trp or Tyr) that species i needs to get either from its partner or
373 the environment, and s^- represents the shared nutrient (i.e., glucose) that two species compete for.

374 Based on the chain rule, we formulate $a_{i,j}$ as a function of nutrient concentrations by
375 plugging Eq. (13) into (12), i.e.,

376
$$\begin{aligned} a_{i,j} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} [\mu_i(s_i^+, s^-)] \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial s_i^+} [\mu_i(s_i^+, s^-)] \frac{\partial s_i^+}{\partial x_j} + \frac{\partial}{\partial s^-} [\mu_i(s_i^+, s^-)] \frac{\partial s^-}{\partial x_j} \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

377 Note that the two terms on the R.H.S. of Eq. (14) represent the positive and negative effects of
378 species j on i through environmental variables, i.e., $a_{i,j}^+$ and $a_{i,j}^-$ as defined below

379
$$a_{i,j}^+ \equiv \frac{\partial}{\partial s_i^+} [\mu_i(s_i^+, s^-)] \frac{\partial s_i^+}{\partial x_j} \quad (15)$$

380
$$a_{i,j}^- \equiv \frac{\partial}{\partial s^-} [\mu_i(s_i^+, s^-)] \frac{\partial s^-}{\partial x_j} \quad (16)$$

381 In a similar fashion, we can formulate intra-specific interaction coefficients as functions of
382 environmental variables, i.e.,

383

$$\begin{aligned} a_{i,i} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left[\mu_i(s_i^+, s^-) \right] \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial s_i^+} \left[\mu_i(s_i^+, s^-) \right] \frac{\partial s_i^+}{\partial x_i} + \frac{\partial}{\partial s^-} \left[\mu_i(s_i^+, s^-) \right] \frac{\partial s^-}{\partial x_i} \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

384 Final forms of $a_{i,j}$ ($a_{i,j}^+$ and $a_{i,j}^-$) and $a_{i,i}$ depend on specific kinetics for $\mu_i(s^-, s_i^+)$.

385

386 **Microorganisms and culture conditions**

387 Tyrsoine (Tyr) and Trptophan (Trp) auxotrophic *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*) strains were purchased
388 from *E. coli* Genetic Stock Center (CGSC) at Yale University (<http://cgsc2.biology.yale.edu/>).

389 Each strain was incubated overnight at 37°C and 225 rpm in 50 ml of Falcon tube containing 5 ml
390 of Lysogeny broth (LB) supplemented with 33 µg/l kanamycin. Culture cells were collected and
391 centrifuged them at 16,000 g, 4°C for 1.5 min. The cell pellets were washed with K3 basal medium
392 to remove residual amino acids in the samples. The washed cells were resuspended and transferred
393 to 150 ml flasks carrying 25 ml of K3 defined minimal medium (5) containing glucose and 33 µg/l
394 kanamycin, and cultivated at 37°C and 225 rpm. An initial absorbance at 600 nm (OD 600) was
395 0.04 with equivalent cell ratio. For batch mode, 4.5 g/l glucose was supplied in the culture medium.
396 For the fed-batch mode, 0.5 g/l of an initial glucose concentration was used to shorten the lag phase
397 and 3 or 5 glucose FeedBeads (Kühner, Basel, Switzerland), releasing glucose at constant rate,
398 were added when OD 600 reached 0.2. We collected 500 ul of culture medium from each flask
399 and centrifuged them at 16,000 g for 1.5 min. The supernatant and pellets were stored at -20°C
400 until further analysis.

401

402 **Analysis of glucose concentration in the culture medium**

403 The concentration of glucose was analyzed by a high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC)
404 system (Agilent, Santa Ciara, CA) equipped with a 1260 refractive index detector (RID) and an
405 Aminex HPX-87H column (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA). Five microliter of filtered supernatants were
406 injected. Analytes were separated isocratically using 5 mM sulfuric acid at a flow rate of 0.7
407 ml/min.

408

409 **Analysis of amino acids concentration in the culture medium**

410 The amino acids in 10 µl of filtered supernatants were analyzed using a ultra-performance liquid
411 chromatography (UPLC) (Waters, Milford, MA) coupled with a micrOTOF II mass spectrometry
412 (TOF-MS) system (Bruker, Bremen, Germany). Analytes were measured using a tunable UV
413 detector at 210 and 397 nm. The amino acids were separated by an Agilent Poroshell 120 EC-C18
414 column at 30°C. The 1 % (v/v) of formic acid in water (mobile phase A) and 1 % (v/v) of formic
415 acid in acetonitrile (mobile phase B) were used, respectively. The amino acids separation was
416 obtained at a flow rate of 0.3 ml/min with a gradient program that allowed 100% of mobile phase
417 A until 2.1 min followed by increasing mobile phase B to 40% for 2 min and then equilibrated at
418 0% of eluent B in a total analysis time of 6 min. Analysis of the amino acids was performed using
419 electrospray ionization (ESI) and full-scan TOF-MS spectra (50 - 650 m/z) with 500 V end plate
420 voltage and 4.5 kV capillary voltage. Nebulizer gas and drying gas were supplied in 1.8 bar and 8
421 ml/min, respectively. The dry temperature was kept at 220°C.

422

423 **Quantification of cell ratio in microbial consortium**

424 Quantitative PCR (qPCR) was carried out in a 96-well plate by using a CFX96 Real-Time
425 Detection System (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA). The pellets were resuspended in ultra-pure

426 water to make consistent concentration ($\text{OD}_{600} = 0.4$) and then, the 200 μl solution was transferred
427 to a 250 μl PCR tube. The solutions were incubated at 98°C for 10 min for cell disruption using a
428 T100 Thermal Cycler (Bio-Rad). The lysed cells were transferred to 1.5 ml of tubes and
429 centrifuged at 20,000 $\times g$ for 2 min. The supernatants were analyzed by qPCR. The qPCR mixture
430 was composed as follows: 3 μl of 10X Xtensa® buffer, 0.3 μl of primer mix (50 μM for each),
431 0.15 μl of i-Taq (i-DNA Biotechnology, Singapore), 3 μl of 25 mM MgCl₂, 5 μl of purified cell
432 lysate, and 18.55 μl of ultra-pure water. The thermal cycling was programmed as follows: 95°C
433 for 1 min and 30 cycles of (95°C for 20 sec, 55°C for 20 sec, 68°C for 40 sec). The primers for
434 qPCR analysis to quantify the different *E. coli* strains were provided in **Table S3**. The qPCR
435 analysis was performed in triplicate for each sample.

436

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443

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535
536

537 **Table captions**

538

539 **Table 1.** Model equations with kinetic parameters and stoichiometric coefficients determined
540 through the model fit to experimental data collected under various limiting conditions. R_i is the
541 stoichiometric growth reaction for X_i , and Y_{S^-/X_i} , $Y_{S_i^+/X_i}$, and $Y_{S_j^+/X_i}$ denote the stoichiometric
542 coefficients for S^- , S_i^+ , and S_j^+ associated with the growth of X_i . s^- , s_i^+ , and s_j^+ respectively
543 denote concentrations of S^- , S_i^+ , and S_j^+ , x_i is the population density of X_i , μ_i is the specific
544 growth rate of X_i , $k_{d,i}$ is the death rate of X_i , and q_{s^-} is the substrate releasing rate from FBs in
545 glucose-limited semi-batch cultures (i.e., $q_{s^-} = 0$ in a batch mode). μ_i^{max} is the maximal growth
546 rate, and K_i^- and K_i^+ are half-saturation constants associated with the consumption of S^- and S_i^+ .

547

548 **Figure captions**

549 **Fig. 1.** Conceptual illustration of context-dependent microbial interactions in a binary
550 consortium dictated by the environmental contexts. Two species X_1 and X_2 compete for the
551 substrate S^- but cooperate by cross-feeding metabolite S_1^+ and S_2^+ (center panel). This mixed
552 relationship between X_1 and X_2 diverge into six different types of interactions by excessive
553 addition of specific substrates S_1^+ , S_2^+ , and/or S^- . Symbols next to the arrows denote the
554 substrate(s) excessively added to the environment. (c) Model microbial consortium using
555 tyrosine or tryptophan auxotrophic *E. coli* strains. Glucose is sole carbon source for both *E. coli*
556 strains. GLC, Tyr and Trp denote glucose, tyrosine, and tryptophan, respectively.

557

558 **Fig. 2.** Experimental data and model simulations for the growth of two *E. coli* mutant strains in
559 axenic and binary culture conditions: **A** and **B** are cultures of Trp auxotrophic and Tyr
560 auxotrophic *E. coli* mutants (X_1 and X_2), respectively; **C** and **D** are co-cultures with two
561 auxotrophs in batch and semi-batch cultures. Detailed culture conditions for the twelve panels
562 are provided in **Table S2**. Circles and lines denote the experimentally measured values and
563 simulation results, respectively. Black line denotes simulation results for glucose concentration
564 (S^-), and the lines in blue, red, and purple are simulated population densities of X_1 , X_2 , and $X_1 +$
565 X_2 . **Figs. A, B, and C** show data fitting to determine model parameters, while the results in **Fig.**
566 **D** validate model predictions.

567

568 **Fig. 3.** Inference of dynamic variations of interaction parameters ($\gamma_{i,j}$, $a_{i,j}$, $a_{i,j}^+$, and $a_{i,j}^-$) for the
569 two *E. coli* mutants (X_1 and X_2) co-growing in three batch cultures: **A.** initial substrate
570 concentrations of 2 g/l glucose and 0.4 mg/l Trp & Tyr; **B.** initial substrate concentrations of 0.5

571 g/l glucose and 0.4 mg/l Trp & Tyr; and **C.** initial substrate concentrations of 0.5 g/l glucose and
572 4 mg/l Trp & Tyr. Black line denotes simulated glucose concentration (S^-); the lines in blue and
573 red indicate the variables and parameters associated with X_1 and X_2 , respectively.

574

575 **Fig. 4.** Inference of dynamic variations of interaction parameters ($\gamma_{i,j}$, $a_{i,j}$, $a_{i,j}^+$, and $a_{i,j}^-$) for the
576 two *E. coli* mutants (X_1 and X_2) co-growing in three semi-batch cultures: **A.** initial substrate
577 concentrations of 2 g/l glucose and 0.4 mg/l Trp & Tyr, and 3 FBs added at 7.5 hours; **B.** initial
578 substrate concentrations of 0.5 g/l glucose and 0.4 mg/l Trp & Tyr, and 3 FBs added at 7.5 hours;
579 and **C.** initial substrate concentrations of 0.5 g/l glucose and 4 mg/l Trp & Tyr, and 3 FBs added
580 at 7.5 hours. Black line denotes simulated glucose concentration (S^-); the lines in blue and red
581 indicate the variables and parameters associated with X_1 and X_2 , respectively.

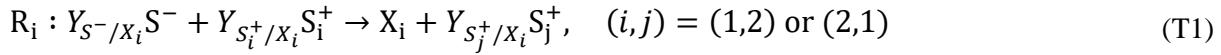
582

583

584

585 Table 1
586

Stoichiometric equation (R_i) for growth of X_i :



Dynamic mass balances:

$$\frac{dx_i}{dt} = \mu_i x_i - k_{d,i} x_i, \quad i = 1,2 \quad (\text{T2})$$

$$\frac{ds^-}{dt} = -Y_{S^-/X_1} \mu_1 x_1 - Y_{S^-/X_2} \mu_2 x_2 (+q_{S^-}) \quad (\text{T3})$$

$$\frac{ds_i^+}{dt} = -Y_{S_i^+/X_i} \mu_i x_i + Y_{S_j^+/X_i} \mu_j x_j, \quad (i,j) = (1,2) \text{ or } (2,1) \quad (\text{T4})$$

Double Monod kinetics:

$$\mu_i = \mu_i^{\max} \frac{s_i^+}{(K_i^+ + s_i^+)} \frac{s^-}{(K_i^- + s^-)}, \quad i = 1,2 \quad (\text{T5})$$

Kinetic parameters and stoichiometric coefficients determined through data fit:

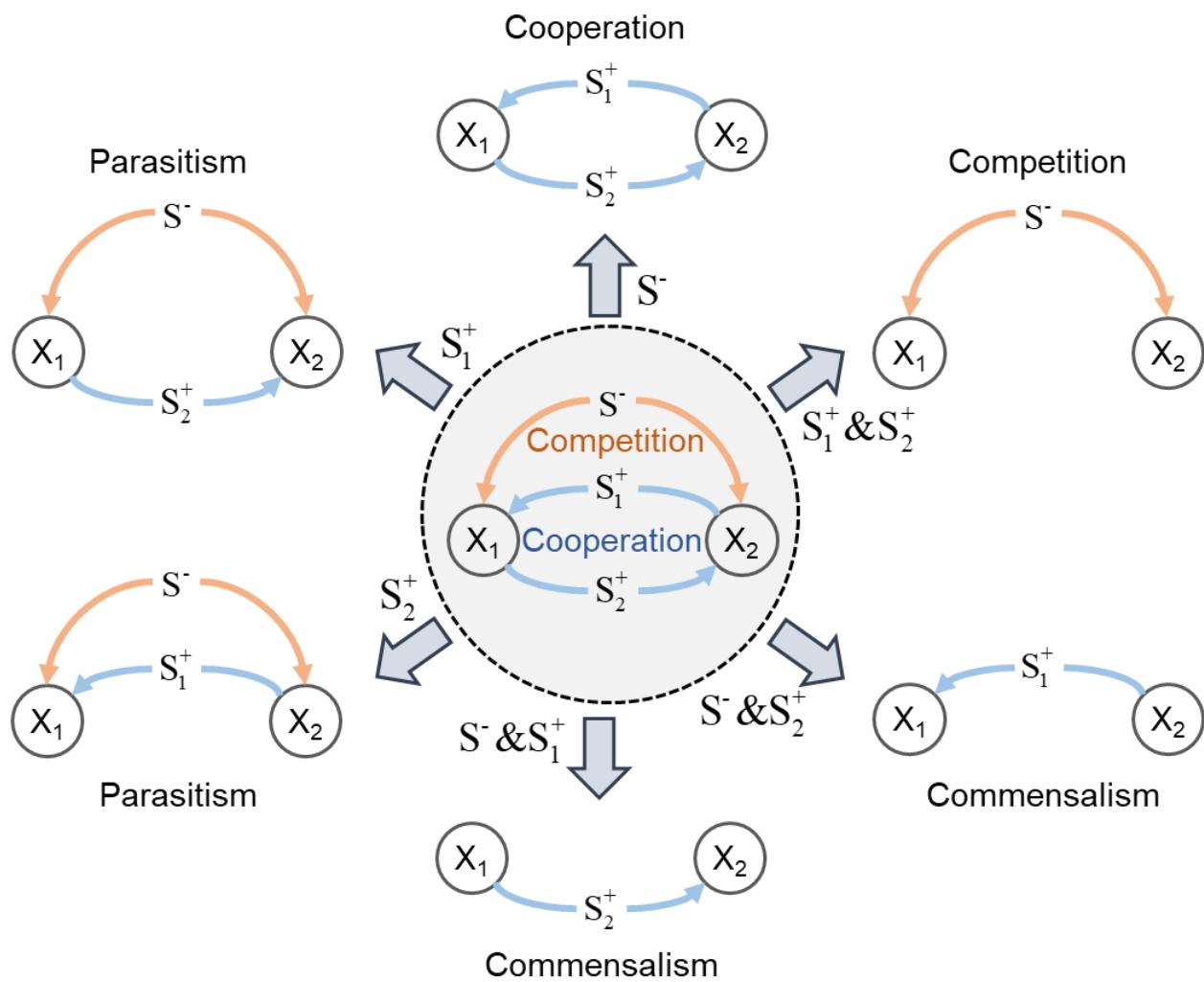
Parameter	Value	Parameter	Value
μ_1^{\max} [1/h]	0.297	Y_{S^-/X_1} [g/OD]	1.26
μ_2^{\max} [1/h]	0.173	Y_{S^-/X_2} [g/OD]	1.47
K_1^- [g/l]	3.95×10^{-4}	$Y_{S_1^+/X_1}$ [mg/OD]	8.45×10^{-2}
K_2^- [g/l]	1.16×10^{-3}	$Y_{S_2^+/X_1}$ [mg/OD]	9.10×10^{-3}
K_1^+ [mg/l]	0.165	$Y_{S_1^+/X_2}$ [mg/OD]	0.107
K_2^+ [mg/l]	5.85×10^{-3}	$Y_{S_2^+/X_2}$ [mg/OD]	0.133
$k_{d,1}$ [1/h]	3.06×10^{-3}	q_{S^-} (for 3 FBs) [g/l/h]	4.80×10^{-2}
$k_{d,2}$ [1/h]	9.76×10^{-4}	q_{S^-} (for 5 FBs) [g/l/h]	8.01×10^{-2}

587

588

589 Figure 1

590



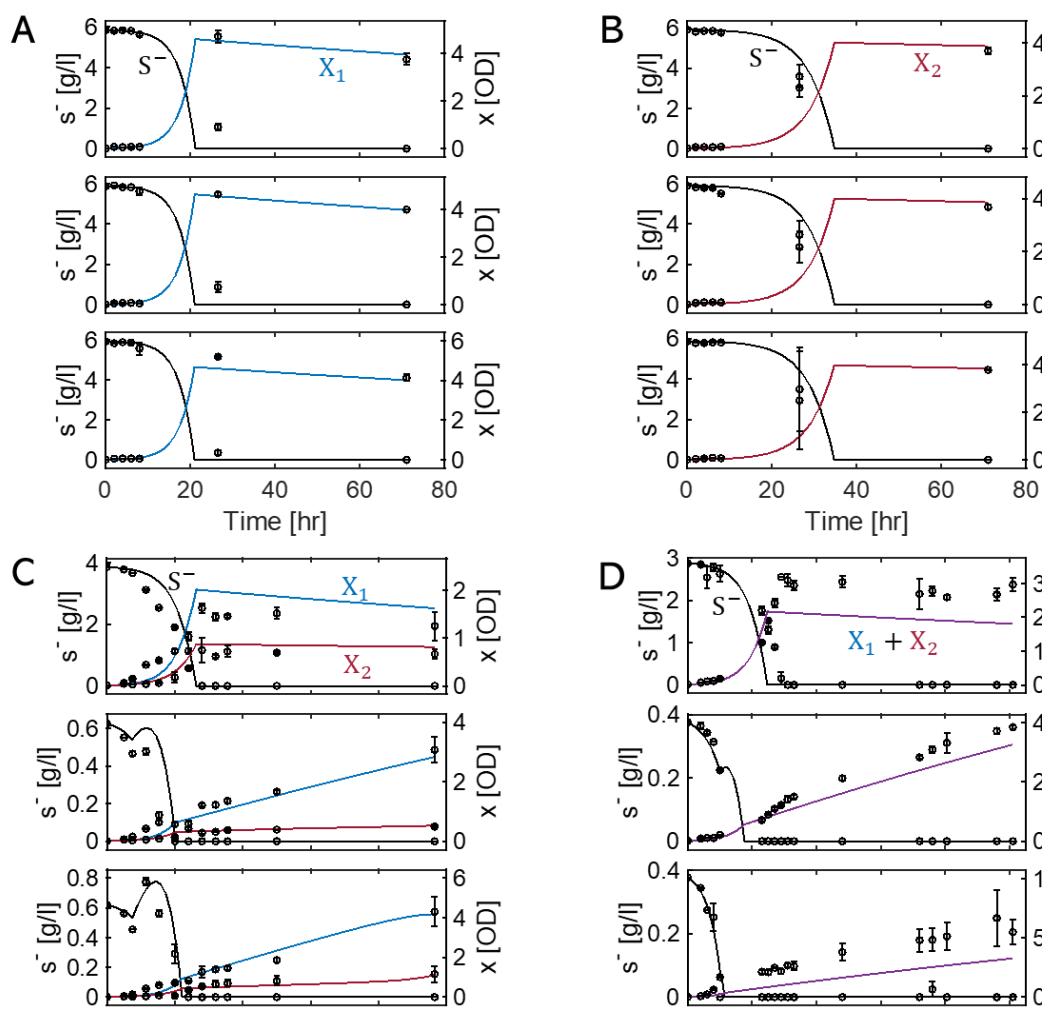
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593

594 Figure 2

595

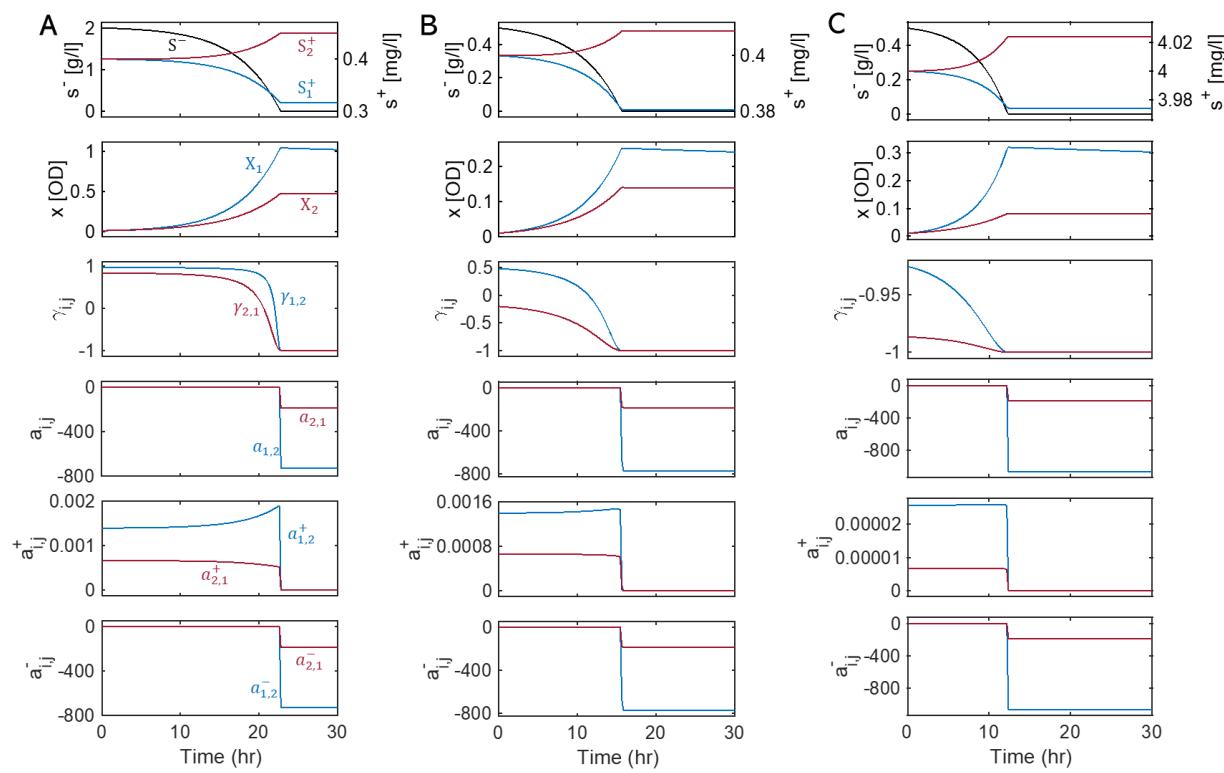


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598 Figure 3

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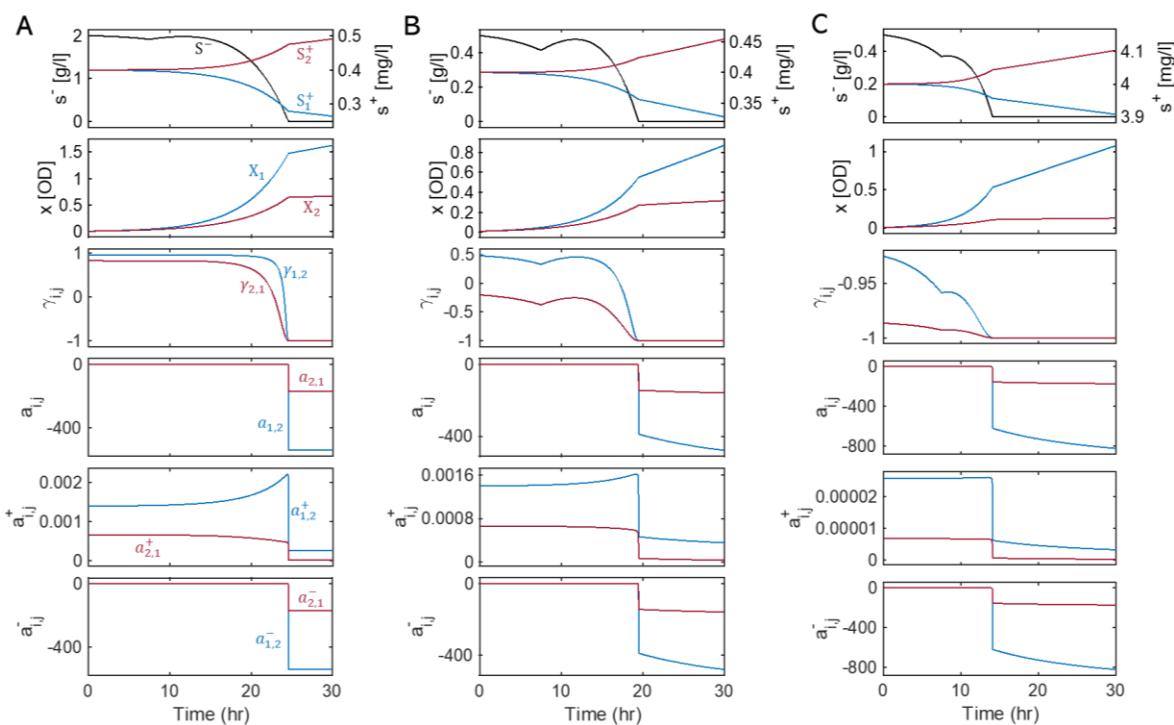


600

601

602 Figure 4

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604

605

606

SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES AND FIGURES

607

608

Table S1. Initial culture conditions for experimental data displayed in Fig. 2.

609

Exp #	Corresponding figures	Initial inoculum size (OD)	Glucose (mg/l)	Tryptophan (mg/l)	Tyrosine (mg/l)	# of FBs added	Time FBs added (hr)
1	Fig. 2A (top panel)	ΔTrp only: 0.01	5.838	10	-	-	-
2	Fig. 2A (middle panel)	ΔTrp only: 0.01	5.870	20	-	-	-
3	Fig. 2A (bottom panel)	ΔTrp only: 0.01	5.936	40	-	-	-
4	Fig. 2B (top panel)	ΔTyr only: 0.01	5.920	-	10	-	-
5	Fig. 2B (middle panel)	ΔTyr only: 0.01	5.909	-	20	-	-
6	Fig. 2B (bottom panel)	ΔTyr only: 0.01	5.863	-	40	-	-
7	Fig. 2C (top panel)	ΔTrp: 0.01 ΔTyr: 0.01	3.851	0.4	0.4	-	-
8	Fig. 2C (middle panel)	ΔTrp: 0.01 ΔTyr: 0.01	0.626	0.4	0.4	3	7.5
9	Fig. 2C (bottom panel)	ΔTrp: 0.01 ΔTyr: 0.01	0.620	0.4	0.4	5	7.5
10	Fig. 2D (top panel)	ΔTrp: 0.01 ΔTyr: 0.01	2.878	0.4	0.4	-	-
11	Fig. 2D (middle panel)	ΔTrp: 0.01 ΔTyr: 0.01	0.375	0.4	0.4	3	10
12	Fig. 2D (bottom panel)	ΔTrp: 0.01 ΔTyr: 0.01	0.377	200	200	3	10

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611

612

Table S2. Sequence of the primers used in the qPCR analysis.

613

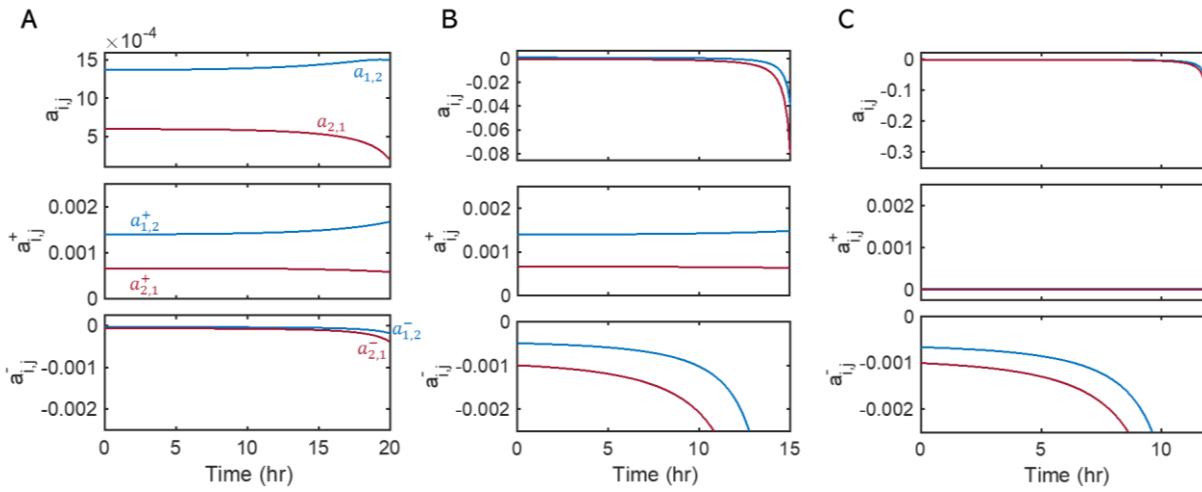
Primer	Sequence
Trp F	GCCGATGCCTGCTTATT
Trp R	GCTCCTGTTCCCTTTCAT
Tyr F	CATTATGTCGTCAAGAGCG
Tyr R	CCTTGCGGAAACTGTCAA

614

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616

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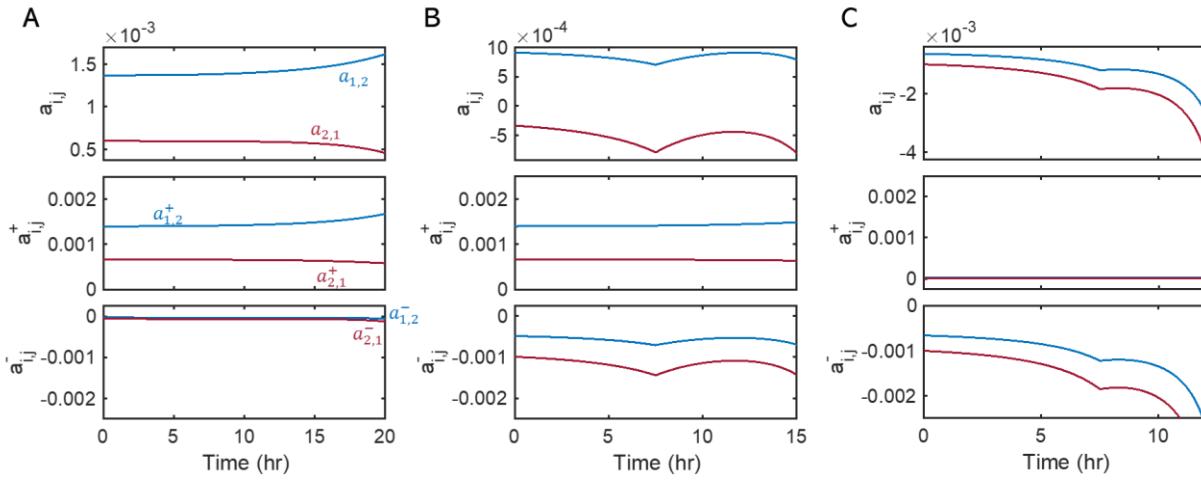


619 **Figure S1.** Zoom-in views of interaction parameters, $a_{i,j}$, $a_{i,j}^+$, and $a_{i,j}^-$ in **Figs. 3A, 3B, and**
620 **3C**, respectively. The color scheme is the same as in **Fig. 3**.

621

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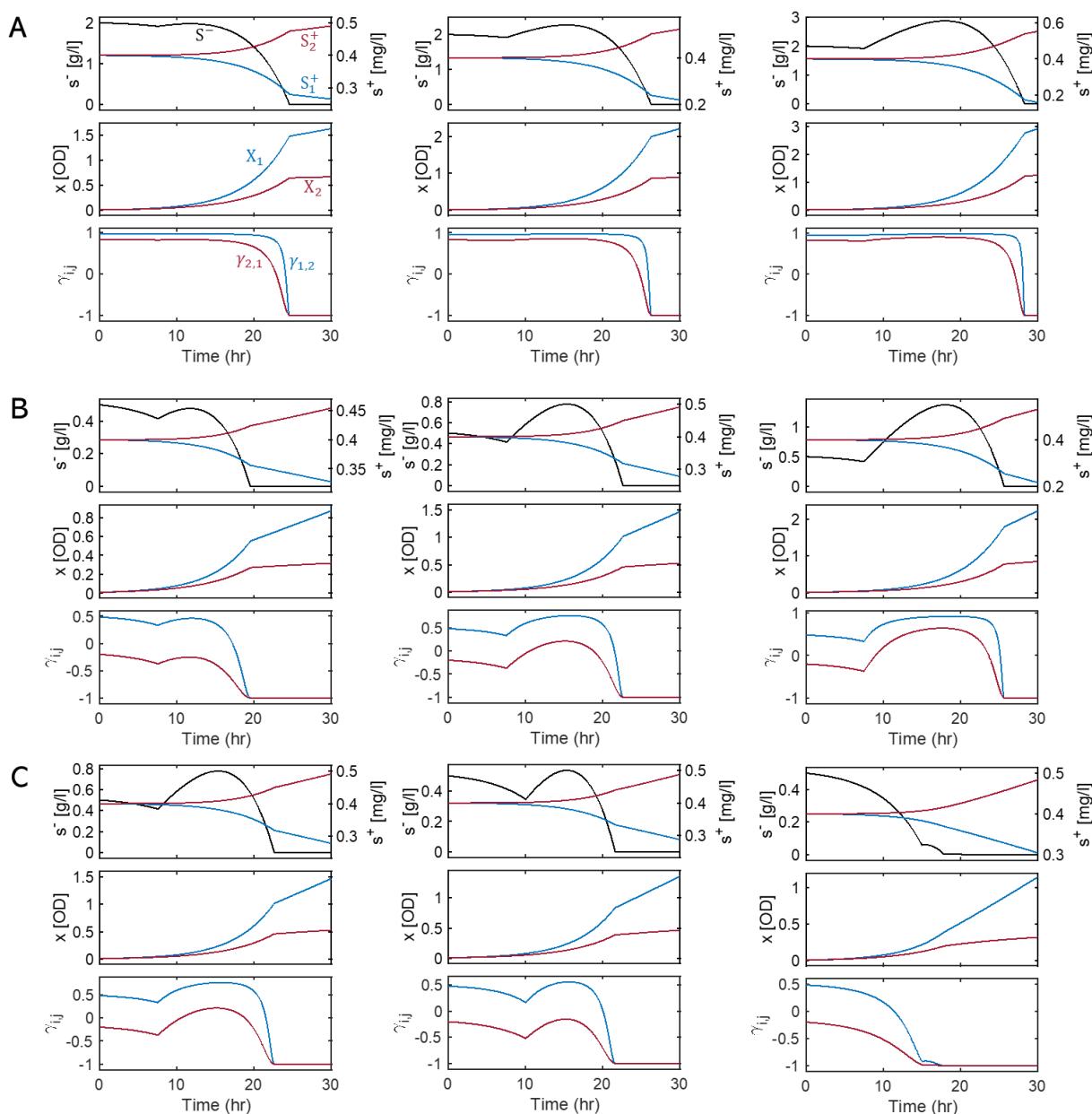
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625 **Figure S2.** Zoom-in views of interaction parameters, $a_{i,j}$, $a_{i,j}^+$, and $a_{i,j}^-$ in **Figs. 4A, 4B, and**
626 **4C**, respectively. The color scheme is the same as in **Fig. 4**.

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Figure S3. The predicted impacts of the numbers and timings of added FBs on the substrate profile (S^-), the population dynamics (X_1 and X_2), and the interaction parameter ($\gamma_{i,j}$): **A.** initial substrate concentrations of 2 g/l glucose and 0.4 mg/l Trp & Tyr with 3 FBs (left), 6 FBs (middle) and 10 FBs (right) added at 7.5 hours; **B.** initial substrate concentrations of 0.5 g/l glucose and 0.4 mg/l Trp & Tyr with 3 FBs (left), 6 FBs (middle) and 10 FBs (right) added at 7.5 hours; and **C.** initial substrate concentrations of 0.5 g/l glucose and 4 mg/l Trp & Tyr, with 6 FBs added at 7.5 hours (left), 10 hours (middle) and 15 hours (right). The color scheme is the same as Fig. 4.