

Continuity of the thermal optimum in mesophilic  
and psychrophilic *Arthrobacter* species.  
A multimodel inference approach

Pablo Lechón Alonso

Imperial College London

Word count: 3570

## Abstract

We fit seven primary models to a data set of 285 bacterial growth curves and use model selection to address the question of which model performs best. Moreover, we examine the continuity of the thermal optimum (temperature ( $T$ ) at maximum growth rate ( $\hat{\mu}_{max}$ )) of seven mesophilic and psychrophilic species from the genus *Arthrobacter*, by fitting the data  $(T, \hat{\mu}_{max})$  with a thermal performance curve. To obtain  $\hat{\mu}_{max}$  we perform model averaging on the primary models that yield a maximum growth rate estimate. No discontinuity is found between the thermal optimum of psychrophilic and mesophilic bacteria.

# Contents

<b>1</b>	<b>Introduction</b>	<b>2</b>
<b>2</b>	<b>Methods</b>	<b>3</b>
2.1	Module 1 . . . . .	5
2.2	Module 2 . . . . .	8
2.3	Computing tools . . . . .	8
<b>3</b>	<b>Results</b>	<b>9</b>
<b>4</b>	<b>Discussion</b>	<b>11</b>
<b>5</b>	<b>Aknowledgements</b>	<b>15</b>
<b>6</b>	<b>Appendix</b>	<b>16</b>
6.1	Models . . . . .	16
6.2	Initial values calculation . . . . .	16
6.3	Non-linear least squares fitting . . . . .	17
6.4	Classifying a fit as <i>poor</i> . . . . .	18
6.5	Lactin-2 model . . . . .	19

# 1 Introduction

Bacterial growth modeling dates back to the 1950's [1]. Thus, many models have been conceived to try to capture the different growth/inactivation phases (figure 1). These models are referred to as primary models. Some of them are more phenomenological (Gompertz, polynomials) than others, which are widely considered as more 'mechanistic' (Logistic, Baranyi). In this work, seven models are being fitted (see table 6.1). Moreover, the models can be confronted with each other in different ways (null hypothesis testing, model selection) to determine which one fits the data best. In this work, we address this task via model selection and model averaging [2, 3].

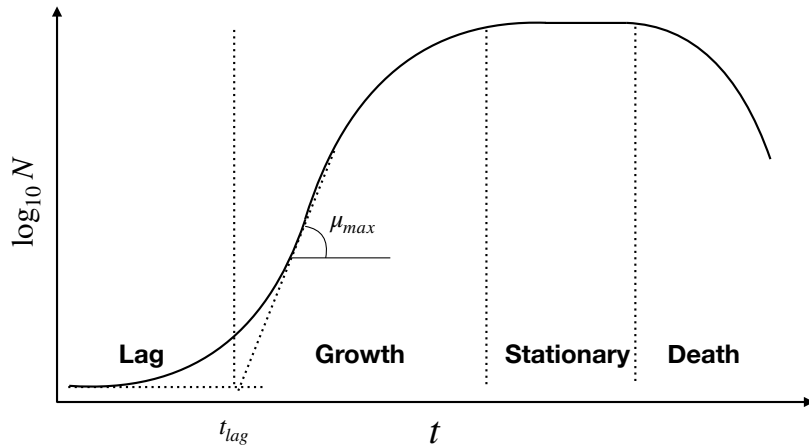


Figure 1: Typical growth curve showing the four phases: lag phase, exponential growth phase, stationary phase, and death phase. The geometrical interpretations of the growth rate and lag time are also shown.

Biological information can be extracted from the values of the parameters resulting from the model fits. Furthermore, the dependance of these parameters on external factors such as temperature  $T$ , water activity  $a_w$ , or pH can also be studied by using secondary models. Many studies have been conducted aiming to model the dependance of  $\mu_{max} \sim T$  [4–12]. A widely used group of secondary models that model this dependance are the thermal performance curves (TCP)

18 (see figure 2). In this work, the Lactin-2 model (see equation 17) is used to  
 19 model the dependance of  $\mu_{max}$  on  $T$  for seven species on the genus *Arthrobacter*.

We aim to address the continuity of psychrophilic and mesophilic growth char-

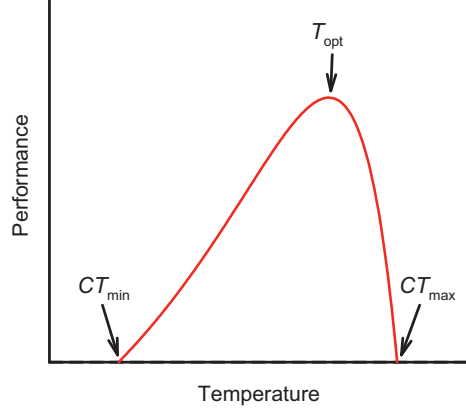


Figure 2: General shape of a thermal performance curve. The thermal optimum  $T_{opt}$  defines the temperature at maximum performance. The critical thermal minimum ( $CT_{min}$ ) and maximum ( $CT_{max}$ ) are temperatures with thermal performance zero; they define the limit of an organism’s thermal niche. The figure is taken from [13].

20

21 acteristics in the genus *Arthrobacter*. Previous work on this topic [14] reported:  
 22 ”[...] no sharp cutoff point between growth-temperature requirements of psy-  
 23 chrophilic and mesophilic bacteria”. Here, we rigorously show such experimental  
 24 observation by inspecting the distribution of fitted  $T_{opt}$  across species.

25

## 26 2 Methods

27 In this section, we explain the details of the data, present, and briefly discuss  
 28 the tested models, summarize the workflow of the mini-project code as a whole,  
 29 and motivate the use of each computing tool we employed.

30

31 The data comes from a collection of 10 papers written between 1962 and  
 32 2018 [5–7, 9, 14–19] where the population of 45 species of bacteria is measured

at different times (h), temperatures ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) and mediums. The populations are expressed in different units depending on the paper, i.e, optical density measured at 535 nm ( $\text{OD}_{535}$ ), number of bacteria (N), colony-forming unit (CFU) and dry weight (DryWeight). Grouping datasets of population versus time for each temperature, species and medium yields 301 bacterial growth curves to which we can fit our models.

After taking the  $\log_{10}$  of the population values, seven models are fit to the growth curves; exponential (which turns into linear after logging the population), quadratic, cubic, logistic [20,21], Gompertz [22], Baranyi [23] and Buchanan [24] (figure 3). Refer to section 6.1 to see the mathematical form of each model. As seen in figure 3, we are fitting four linear models (linear, quadratic, cubic, Buchanan) and three non-linear models (logistic, Gompertz, Baranyi).

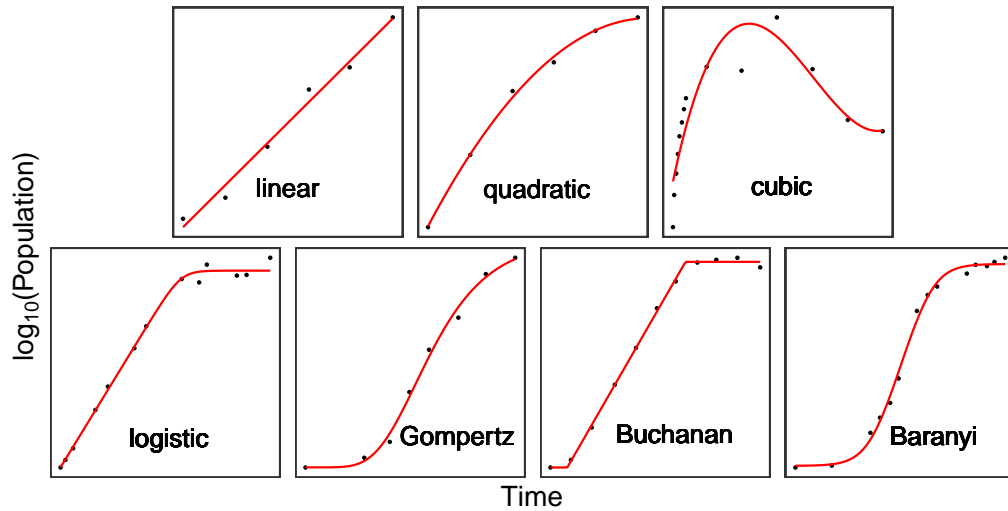


Figure 3: Overview of fit of each model to a growth curve where they perform best (they have the lowest AIC value of out of all models for that curve)

45

The general workflow of this project has two modules: Module 1 (fitting of all bacterial growth curves and model selection), and Module 2 (analysis of the biological question). Each module has 3 subdivisions: data preparation, fitting and storing results, and plotting. These modules, along with the  $\text{\LaTeX}$  code that

50 produces the present document are glued together in a script that coordinates  
51 all the tasks to run the mini-project smoothly

## 52 **2.1 Module 1**

53 This module concerns the fitting of all growth curves to all models and the model  
54 selection.

55 The first step in this module is the data preparation (`data_preparation_1.R`),  
56 in which we log the data, deal with bad quality data, and repeated measurements.  
57 First, we decide to log our data ( $N(t) \rightarrow y(t)$ ) because the fitting performance  
58 and number of iterations until convergence are enhanced. This is because tak-  
59 ing  $\log_{10}$  decreases the scale of population values, particularly those measured  
60 in N units, which can be  $\sim 10^{10}$ . The mathematical form of the models also  
61 changes when logging the populations. Second, we eliminate the outliers in the  
62 population data (only one value of -682) that don't have any biological mean-  
63 ing. Next, we deal with negative values closer to 0 by finding the minimum of  
64 those values and adding it to all population values. This assures that all ele-  
65 ments are positive without losing any data points, which are very valuable for  
66 the fits. Adding a constant to our population values will modify some of the  
67 fit parameter estimations, specifically all the coefficients from the second and  
68 third-order degree polynomials, but more importantly,  $y_0$  and  $y_{max}$  from the  
69 exponential, logistic, Gompertz, Baranyi and Buchanan models. However, that  
70 does not affect our model selection, or our biological question, because none of  
71 these analyses depend on the value of the affected parameters. Third, we ad-  
72 dress the repeated measurements, which are only present in the growth curves  
73 of the species *Tetraselmis tetrahele*. This data consists of repeated measures of  
74 the population at different times. However, the times at which the population is  
75 measured slightly differ among each repetition. To deal with this we create the  
76 function `binning` (stored in `data_preparation_functions.R`) that groups the  
77 slightly different times (within a threshold of 0.25) into averaged time groups,

78  $\overline{t_i}$ . We use the binning for the time vector to bin our population accordingly into  
79 a vector of averaged populations,  $\overline{y_i}$ . This procedure yields a unique averaged  
80 dataset  $(\overline{t_i}, \overline{y_i})$  that substitutes the repeated measurements of growth curves.  
81 This is the reason why we fit 285 growth curves instead of 305.

82  
83 The second step of module 1 is the model fitting and storing of results  
84 (`fit_store_models_1.py`). This process consists of (a) loading the data, (b)  
85 looping through each growth curve, (c) calculating initial values for all the mod-  
86 els, (d) fit each model to the  $i^{th}$  curve, and (e) storing results (parameter esti-  
87 mates, fit evaluations, AIC values, Akaike weights, and performance information)  
88 in a dictionary for later use in the analysis.

89 Steps a) and b) are trivial to perform. The initial values (step c) are set to 1 for  
90 the polynomial models. The convergence of the non-linear fits depends on the  
91 initial parameter values being reasonably close to the actual best-fit parameter  
92 values. Thus, the initial estimation for  $y_0$  and  $y_{max}$  are the maximum and the  
93 minimum of the population data being fitted. We determine  $\mu_{max}$  and  $t_{lag}$  by  
94 isolating the growth phase, and fitting a line to it. For a detailed explanation of  
95 how do we isolate the growth phase, and why fitting a line to it provides us with  
96 good initial parameter estimations, refer to section 6.2. Step d) is implemented  
97 using the non-linear least squares (NLLS) fitting method. For a brief discussion  
98 on the theory behind this method, refer to section 6.3. The AIC is calculated in  
99 step e. The expression for the AIC is

$$100 \quad AIC = -2\log(\mathcal{L}(\beta|x)) + 2p \quad (1)$$

101 where  $\mathcal{L}$  is the likelihood of the model, and  $p$  the number of parameters.  
102 Under the assumptions that (1) we are using least squares to minimize our



residuals, and (2) the errors are normally distributed, the following holds.

$$\log(\mathcal{L}(\beta|x)) = -\frac{n}{2} \log\left(\frac{S}{n}\right) \quad (2)$$

where  $n$  is the number of data and  $S$  the residual sum of squares. Substituting the latter in equation 1 one obtains the expression used to calculate our AIC values.

$$AIC = n + 2 + n \log\left(\frac{2\pi}{n}\right) + n \log S + 2p \quad (3)$$

The Akaike weights  $w_i$ , where  $i = (1, 2, \dots, R)$  is the number of models, are calculated for the Gompertz, Baranyi and Buchanan models in the following way. [2]

First, we calculate the AIC differences  $\Delta_i = AIC_i - AIC_{min}$  for each model. This allows us to calculate the likelihood of the model given the data as

$$\mathcal{L}(g_i|x) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\Delta_i\right) \quad (4)$$

Such likelihoods represent the relative strenght of evidence for each model. Finally, normalizing  $\mathcal{L}(g_i|x)$  gives us a set of positive Akaike weights for each model

$$w_i = \frac{\exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\Delta_i\right)}{\sum_{r=1}^R \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\Delta_r\right)} \quad (5)$$

The performance information (step e) provides the clasification *best*, *sucesful*, *poor*, *bad*, *fail* in figure 4. Classifying a fit as *best*, *success*, *bad*, or *fail* is trivial, and it is explained in figure 4. To understand how can a fit be classified as *poor*, refer to section 6.4.

The third step of the first module is the plotting phase (`plotting_1.R`). Using the results previously obtained we plot every growth curve in a different

figure and overlay the top four fits to it, according to the AIC. The intensity of the color of each fitting curve is also based on its AIC value (see figure 6). All these plots are saved to the results directory. A fitting performance map (figure 4) is also generated here.

## 2.2 Module 2

This module deals with the biological question stated in section 1. In the data preparation step (`data_preparation_2.R`), we select all the species of the genus *Arthrobacter* along with the temperature and the growth rate. Note that most of the fits to *Arthrobacter* species were flagged as *poor*. We perform model averaging to obtain model-averaged estimates of maximum growth rate for each species and temperature, ie

$$\hat{\mu}_{max} = \sum_{i=1}^R w_i \mu_{max,i} \quad (6)$$

In the end, we have a data frame with seven species, and five data points ( $T$ ,  $\hat{\mu}_{max}$ ) each.

Secondly, we perform NLLS fitting (`fit_store_models_2.py`) to each dataset using the thermal performance curve proposed by Lactin et al. in 1995 [10], which is a modification of the 1976 Logan-6 model [12]. For a brief discussion on the Lactin-2 model refer to section 6.5. In this case, the initial values for the fitting were taken from the literature [10].  $T_{opt}$  is calculated for each species according to equation 18.

Third, we plot the results (`plotting_2.R`) to generate figure 5.

## 2.3 Computing tools

Modules 1 and 2 are written using Python and R. The latter one is used to perform the fitting using the LMFIT Python package [25]. NumPy, Pandas [26] and ProgressBar packages are also used for creating the models, saving the

151 results, and implementing a progress bar, respectively. R is used to prepare data  
152 for analysis and plotting using ggplot2 [27]. RColorBrewer package is loaded to  
153 enable the YlOrRd and RdYlBu color palettes used in the fit plots and the fitting  
154 performance tilemap (figure 4). The packages grid, and gridExtra are loaded to  
155 arrange multiple plots in one panel (figure 3).

156 We choose to divide our work like this because Python is a faster language than  
157 R in general, so we use it to do the heavy lifting (fitting algorithms). However,  
158 R's flexibility and intuitive behavior when it comes to working with data frames  
159 are much better than Python's. Moreover, ggplot2 is the most powerful tool to  
160 generate publishable plots to our knowledge, which justifies using R for plotting  
161 instead of something else.

162 The bash script `run_MiniProject.sh` is used to glue all the scripts together in  
163 a working full version of the mini-project that runs in less than 90 seconds. We  
164 keep our work under version control with GitHub.

### 165 3 Results

166 Two categories of results are reported in this section: model selection and bio-  
167 logical question results.

168 Figure 4 summarizes the fitting performance and model selection results. The  
169 proportion of convergent fits decreases as the complexity of the model increases.  
170 Thus, all of the fits to the linear models converge. On the contrary, all the  
171 non-linear models fail once (logistic, Gompertz) or more times (Baranyi). Note  
172 that every time a non-linear fit fails, the best fit for that curve is not found  
173 among the other non-linear models, but instead in one of the linear models.  
174 The fits are generally better (in an AIC sense) in the non-linear models than in  
175 the linear ones. Particularly, the Gompertz model is the best most of the time  
176 (33%), followed by the Baranyi model (25%). The cubic model had a higher  
177 best model percent (18%) compared to the Buchanan (16%) and logistic (4%)

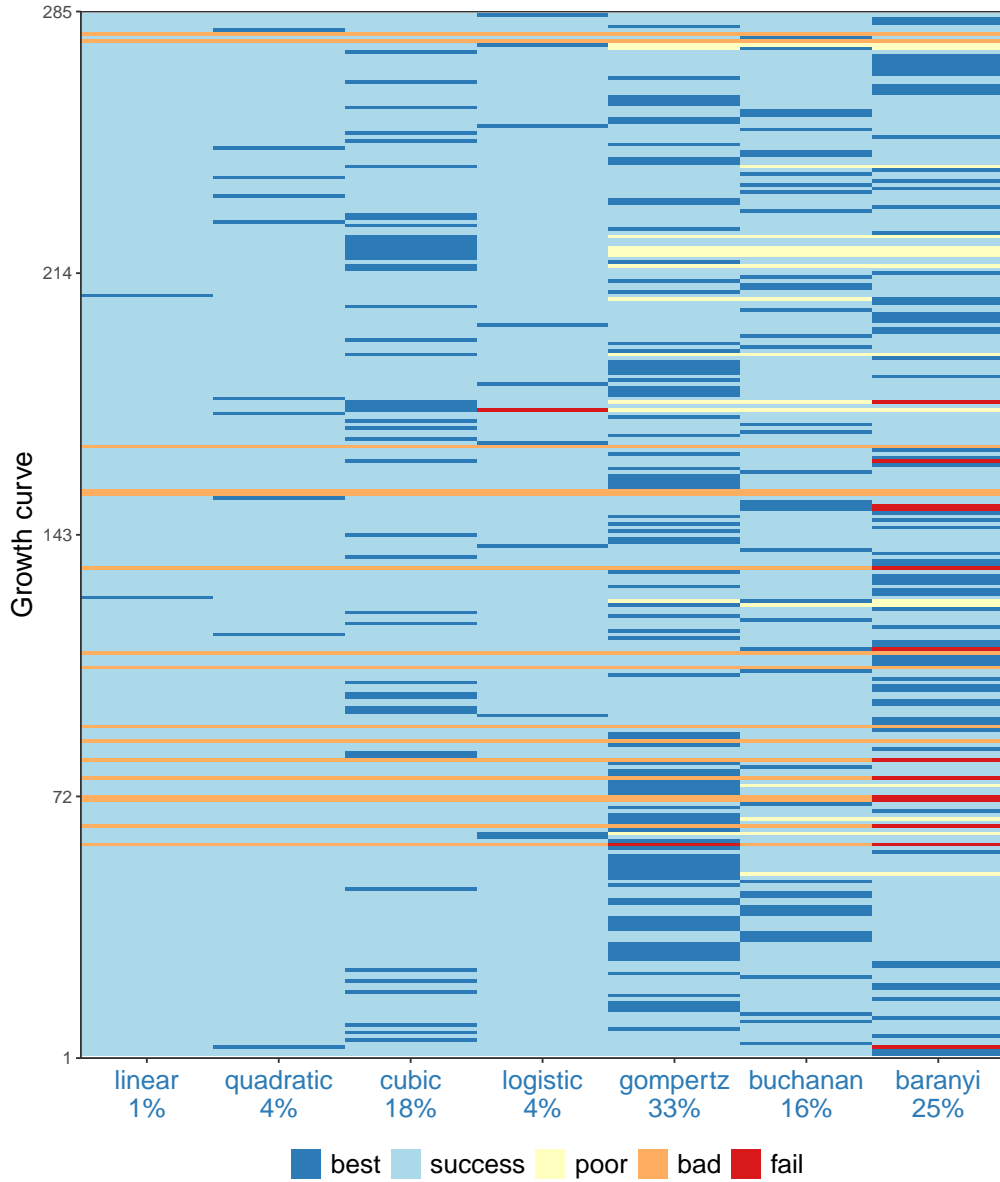


Figure 4: Tile map summarizing the fitting performance and model selection results. Best fits are determined by selecting the model with the lowest AIC value for each growth curve. The amount of times (%) that a model is the best candidate is specified in the x-axis. Success fits are convergent ones. Poor fits deal with data where the growth phase has  $\leq 1$  data points. Bad fits were deemed as such when no recognizable growth pattern was found upon visual inspection. Fail fits converge to a local minimum instead of the global one, or don't converge at all.

178 models. The linear (exponential) model was best the least amount of times (1%)  
 179 and the quadratic model was it 4% of the times. Finally, a small proportion of

the logistic, Gompertz, Buchanan and Baranyi fits are poor fits. Refer to section 6.4 to know how is this determined.

The model-averaged  $\mu_{max}$  estimations are calculated, and plotted against  $T$ .

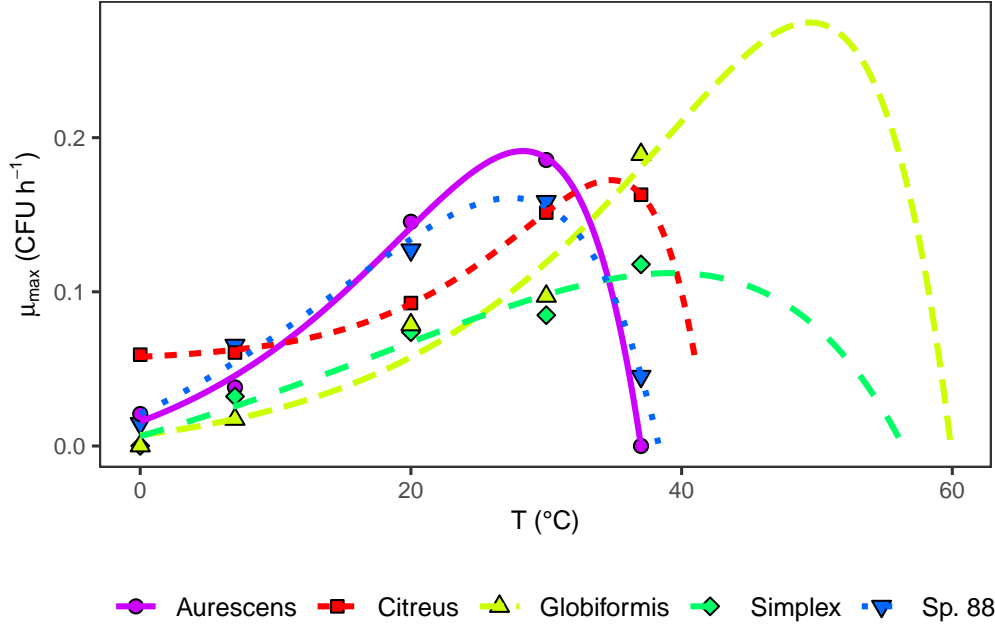


Figure 5: Fits of the Lactin-2 model to data from seven species of the genus *Arthrobacter*. Fits for species *Sp. 77* and *Sp. 62* have been omitted for clarity.

The Lactin-2 model is fitted for the data of each species (see figure 5). Calculating  $T_{opt}$  for each species gives 19.2°C for *Sp. 62*, 23.9°C for *Sp. 77*, 27.4 °C for *Sp. 88*, 28.3°C for *Arthrobacter Aurescens*, 34.8°C for *Arthrobacter Citreus*, 39.3°C for *Arthrobacter Simplex*, and 49.5°C for *Arthrobacter Globiformis*.

## 4 Discussion

If there were no phenomena which were independent of all but a manageably small set of conditions, modeling in biology would be impossible [28]. Many models, each one considering a different set of relevant conditions, can successfully explain a given phenomenon. To obtain the best estimates for the parameters of interest one can test competing models using model selection or null hypothesis

193 testing. We believe that model selection is a better procedure to test competing  
 194 hypotheses/models for several reasons. First, it allows for a comparison between  
 195 more than two models (seven are analyzed in this work). Second, model selec-  
 196 tion is likelihood-based (as opposed to frequentist statistics based). Therefore,  
 197 we can explicitly weigh the support for each model and even do model averaging  
 198 if there is no obvious best model. This is something that cannot be done when  
 199 using p-values to evaluate hypotheses because a p-value is not the probability  
 200 that the null hypothesis is true, but instead, the degree of compatibility between  
 201 a dataset and the null hypothesis [29, 30]. This implies that the winning hy-  
 202 pothesis is only implicitly accepted, by explicitly rejecting the null hypothesis.  
 203 Moreover, the rejection of the null hypothesis is based on an arbitrary threshold  
 204 of the p-value (0.05, 0.01). Overall, the model selection approach offers a more  
 205 robust, objective, and meaningful way to test several competing models, than  
 206 the conventional frequentist statistics method of calculating p-values.

207 There are several approaches to model selection [3], namely, maximizing the  
 208 quality of the fit, null hypothesis tests, and model selection criteria. The first  
 209 one lacks a way of accounting for the complexity of the model, and the second  
 210 one does not quantify the relative support among competing models, nor does  
 211 it allow for comparison between more than 2 models. These limitations are  
 212 overcome in model selection criteria. To determine the quality of the fits under  
 213 these criteria, the most commonly used method is to calculate AIC or BIC. In  
 214 this work, model selection was addressed using AIC. We chose to do so because  
 215 the calculation of BIC assumes (a) the existence of a true model, (b) that the  
 216 true model is within the examined pool of models, and (c) that each of the  
 217 modes has the same probability of being the true one [3]. We deny assumption  
 218 a), the existence of a true model, and consequently also assumptions b) and c)  
 219 because we argue that *"all models are wrong, but some are useful"* [31, 32]. A  
 220 true model, if attainable, would have to account for all the physical and biolog-  
 221 ical processes that take place in the studied phenomena. This would make the

222 model intractable due to its complexity. A good model should be simple enough  
223 to capture the behavior of the modeled process in an intuitive way, but not so  
224 simple to disregard essential mechanisms [33].

225 When we calculate AIC values for each fit and model, we surprisingly find that  
226 the cubic model performs better than the logistic and Buchanan models. This is  
227 because the logistic and Buchanan only model the first three phases of a growth  
228 curve (figure 1), and don't focus on a possible death phase. On the contrary, a  
229 third-degree polynomial can model decreasing populations after  $y_{max}$  has been  
230 reached. Fitting a growth model that accounts for a death phase [34, 35] would  
231 eliminate this anomalous effect. However, those models are scarce in the food  
232 microbiology literature because most foods become inedible even before the mor-  
233 tality phase is reached [36], so there is no scientific incentive to come up with  
234 models that account for this.

235 The logistic model has an unexpected very low *best fit* percent. This result is  
236 caused by logging the logistic model. When we do so, the exponential growth  
237 that could reproduce the  $t_{lag}$  shape transforms into a straight line, which is un-  
238 able to capture this pattern. From this point of view, it can be argued that  
239 fitting the logistic model in a linear scale is conceptually wrong since we are  
240 modeling a process of zero growth (lag phase), with slow exponential growth.  
241 Taking the logarithm of the data reveals this incongruence. To avoid it, some  
242 authors [22, 36] fit logged data with the linear logistic model. This is, in prin-  
243 ciple, a mistake, because when the data is rescaled the model must be rescaled  
244 too. However, the parameters of the logistic model can be recast to introduce  
245 a  $t_{lag}$  with no mechanistic interpretation [22]. The validity of this resides in  
246 how important it is to be able to mechanistically interpret the parameters of a  
247 model. This question is an ongoing debate. Some authors even question if any  
248 mechanistic insights can be grasped from the value of parameters obtained by  
249 curve fitting alone [36]. Being able to mechanistically interpret the parameters  
250 of a model depends on the purpose of your fitting. If it is merely for prediction,

the best model, (the Gompertz model in this work), should be the candidate of your choice. But what if there is no clear best model? A novel more robust method of obtaining parameter estimates for this purpose is model averaging. A discussion on why model averaging is used here is presented next, along with some remarks on the continuity of growth characteristics of some species in the genus *Arthrobacter*.

Most of the fits to *Arthrobacter* species are poor. As described in section 6.4, this implies that different models can perform well (have a high  $\mathcal{L}(g_i|x)$ ) and still yield very different values of the parameters. How do we choose which parameter value to use? The answer resides in performing model averaging. Moreover, this approach is consistent with our skepticism about the existence of a true model, since our parameter estimates are a mixture of the parameter estimates of the tested models, weighted with the amount of support that we have for each of the candidates.

The results from figure 5 point out the difficulty of establishing an arbitrary definition of a psychrophile. Among the seven members of the genus *Arthrobacter* studied, no cut off region is apparent between psychrophiles and mesophiles. While we can clearly state that *Sp 77*, *88* and *62* represent true mesophiles, according to the definition in [37] and our  $T_{opt}$  results. There can also be no doubt that *Simplex* and *Globiformis* are true psychrophiles. However, there *Citreus* and *Aurescens* occupy the middle region of the *Arthrobacter* temperature niche, and therefore, they cannot be categorized under any of the above categories.

The species *Simplex* and *Globiformis* didn't have data in the region  $T > T_{opt}$ . This caused the fit to yield parameters without biological meaning. To solve this problem, we impose for these two curves that  $T_{max}$  has to be no more than 60°C. No mesophile was found in the literature [38] which survives at higher temperatures than the imposed maximum.



## 280 **5 Acknowledgements**

281 We would like to thank Sam Turner for fruitful discussions regarding how to  
282 summarize the fitting performance and how to define poor fits. We also thank  
283 Hovig Artinian for his thoughtful thoughts on model averaging.

## 284 6 Appendix

### 285 6.1 Models

286 In this section, we provide all the explicit forms of the fitted models.

287 The linear, quadratic, and cubic models have the form

$$288 \quad y = y_0 + \mu_{max}t \quad , \quad y = a + bt + ct^2 \quad , \quad y = \hat{a} + \hat{b}t + \hat{c}t^2 + \hat{d}t^3 \quad (7)$$

289 The logistic model reads

$$290 \quad y = \log_{10} \left( \frac{y_0 y_{max}}{y_0 + (y_{max} - y_0) e^{-\mu_{max}t}} \right) \quad (8)$$

291 For the Gompertz model, we have

$$292 \quad y = y_0 + (y_{max} - y_0) \exp \left( - \exp \left( e^{\mu_{max}} \frac{(t_{lag} - t)}{\log_{10}(y_{max} - y_0)} + 1 \right) \right) \quad (9)$$

The Buchanan model can be expressed as

$$y = \begin{cases} y_0 & t < t_{lag} \\ y_{max} + \mu_{max}(t - t_{lag}) & t_{lag} \leq t \leq t_{max} \\ y_{max} & t \geq t_{max} \end{cases}$$

293 Finally, the Baranyi model has the form

$$294 \quad y_{max} + \log_{10} \left( \frac{-1 + e^{\mu_{max}t_{lag}} + e^{\mu_{max}t}}{e^{\mu_{max}t} - 1 + e^{\mu_{max}t_{lag}} 10^{y_{max}-y_0}} \right) \quad (10)$$

### 295 6.2 Initial values calculation

296 Given  $m$  data points  $D = \{(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_m, y_m)\}$  from a bacterial growth  
 297 curve, and a tolerance  $\epsilon$  we perform the following steps to calculate initial es-  
 298 timations for the parameters  $\mu_{max}$ ,  $t_{lag}$ . First, we calculate the  $m - 1$  dimen-  
 299 sional vector gradient between consecutive points as  $g_i = y_{i+1} - y_i$ . Second, we

300 find the maximum of that vector,  $g_{max}$ . Third, we isolate the growing phase,  
 301  $D_{grow} = \{(\tilde{x}_1, \tilde{y}_1), (\tilde{x}_2, \tilde{y}_2), \dots, (\tilde{x}_n, \tilde{y}_n)\}$  by selecting the datapoints in  $D$  which  
 302  $g_i \in [g_{max}(1 - \epsilon), g_{max}(1 + \epsilon)]$ , with  $\epsilon = 0.3$  by default.  
 303 Fitting a line to  $D_{grow}$  yields the intercept and slope  $b, m$  that can be used to  
 304 calculate the initial parameters. The growth rate can be expressed as the slope  
 305 of the growing phase scaled by a constant due to having logged the data,

$$306 \quad \mu_{max} = m \log(10) \quad (11)$$

307 The time lag has been traditionally defined as the intersection of the tangents  
 308 to the growth curve at the lag and exponential growth phases [36]. This can be  
 309 expressed mathematically, as

$$310 \quad t_{lag} = \frac{1}{m}(y_0 - b) \quad (12)$$

311 where  $y_0$  is determined as described in section 2.1

### 312 **6.3 Non-linear least squares fitting**

313 Consider  $m$  data points  $\{(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_m, y_m)\}$ , and a model

$$314 \quad y = f(x, \boldsymbol{\beta}) \quad (13)$$

315 where  $\boldsymbol{\beta} = (\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_n)$  and  $m \geq n$ . The aim is to find  $\boldsymbol{\beta}$  such as the model  
 316  $y$  fits best the given data points in the least square sense, i.e., the sum of squares

$$317 \quad S = \sum_{i=1}^m r_i^2 \quad (14)$$

318 is minimized, where the residuals  $r_i$  are given by

$$319 \quad r_i = y_i - f(x_i, \boldsymbol{\beta}) \quad (15)$$

320 Finding the minimum value of  $S$  is equivalent to solve  $n$  equations where the  
 321 partial derivative of  $S$  with respect the parameter  $\beta_j$ , where  $j = 1, \dots, n$  equals  
 322 0. Thus

$$323 \quad \frac{\partial S}{\partial \beta_j} = 0 \quad (16)$$

324 This yields a non-linear systems of equations that, in general, does not have a  
 325 closed solution. Consequently, initial values must be chosen for the parameters,  
 326 so that they can be iteratively minimized.

#### 327 6.4 Classifying a fit as *poor*

328 A fit to a bacterial growth curve with only 1 data point in the growing phase  
 329 will yield poorly constrained values  $\mu_{max}$  and  $t_{lag}$ , because significantly different  
 330 values of these parameters for different models will all define a good fit. To  
 illustrate this, see figure 6

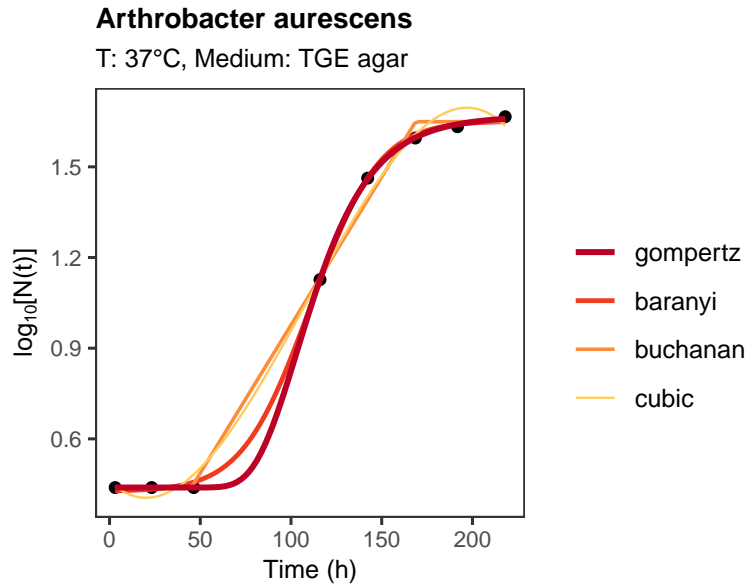


Figure 6: Example fit in which there is only 1 point in the growing phase, according to our method. The fit quality is very high ( $R^2 \geq 0.999$ ). However, the values of  $\mu_{max}$  and  $t_{lag}$  for Gompertz, Buchanan and Baranyi models are, respectively,  $[0.045, 0.022, 0.061]$  ( $\text{CFU h}^{-1}$ ) and  $[80.3, 45.1, 87.8]$  (h).

331

332 Given  $m$  data points  $D = \{(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_m, y_m)\}$  from a bacterial  
 333 growth curve, a tolerance  $\epsilon$  and a bacterial growth model fit to that data, we  
 334 flag it as *poor* if there are 1 or none data points in the growth phase. To do  
 335 this, we first isolate the growth phase and then count the elements in it. Given  
 336 the estimated parameters  $y_0$  and  $y_{max}$  from the fits, the growth phase  $D_{grow}$   
 337 contains points of the form  $(x_i, y_i)/y_i \in [y_0 + \epsilon |y_0|, y_{max} - \epsilon |y_{max}|]$ .

## 338 6.5 Lactin-2 model

339 The expression for the Lactin-2 model is

$$340 \quad \mu(T) = \exp(\rho T) - \exp\left(\rho T_{max} - \frac{T_{max} - T}{\Delta T}\right) + \lambda \quad (17)$$

341 The modifications respect to the Logan-6 model are; first, they omitted the  
 342 parameter  $\Psi$  which was originally defined as a physiological rate parameter at a  
 343 given base temperature. Second, they incorporated the intercept parameter  $\lambda$ ,  
 344 which forces the curve to intersect the abscissa at low temperatures and allows  
 345 the estimation of  $T_{min}$ .

346 To find  $T_{opt}$  one finds the maximum of equation 17. Solving  $\frac{d\mu}{dT} = 0$  yields the  
 347 expression

$$348 \quad T_{opt} = \frac{1}{\rho \Delta T - 1} \left[ \rho T_{max} \Delta T - T_{max} + \Delta T \log\left(\frac{1}{\rho \Delta T}\right) \right] \quad (18)$$

## References

- [1] Moselio Schaechter. A brief history of bacterial growth physiology. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, 2015.
- [2] Burnham & Anderson and David R. Anderson. *Model Selection and Inference: a Practical Information-theoretic Approach*. New York: Springer. 2nd edition, 2002.
- [3] Jerald B. Johnson and Kristian S. Omland. Model selection in ecology and evolution, 2004.
- [4] D. A. Ratkowsky, J. Olley, T. A. McMeekin, and A. Ball. Relationship between temperature and growth rate of bacterial cultures. *Journal of Bacteriology*, 1982.
- [5] J. D. Phillips and M. W. Griffiths. The relation between temperature and growth of bacteria in dairy products. *Food Microbiology*, 1987.
- [6] P.A.Gibbs C.J.Stannard, A.P.Williams. Temperature/growth relationships for psychrotrophic food-spoilage bacteria. *Food Microbiology*, Volume 2(Issue 2):115–122.
- [7] Ana Paula Rosa da Silva, Daniel Angelo Longhi, Francieli Dalcanton, and Gláucia Maria Falcão de Aragão. Modelling the growth of lactic acid bacteria at different temperatures. *Brazilian Archives of Biology and Technology*, 2018.
- [8] M. H. Zwietering, J. T. De Koos, B. E. Hasenack, J. C. De Wit, and K. Van ’t Riet. Modeling of bacterial growth as a function of temperature. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 1991.
- [9] Joey R. Bernhardt, Jennifer M. Sunday, and Mary I. O’connor. Metabolic theory and the temperature-size rule explain the temperature dependence of population carrying capacity. *American Naturalist*, 2018.

- [10] D. J. Lactin, N. J. Holliday, D. L. Johnson, and R. Craigen. Improved rate model of temperature-dependent development by arthropods. *Environmental Entomology*, 1995.
- [11] Āubomír Valík, Alžbeta Medvedřová, Michal Čiřniar, and Denisa Liptáková. Evaluation of temperature effect on growth rate of *Lactobacillus rhamnosus* GG in milk using secondary models. *Chemical Papers*, 2013.
- [12] J. A. Logan, D. J. Wollkind, S. C. Hoyt, and L. K. Tanigoshi. An analytic model for description of temperature dependent rate phenomena in arthropods. *Environmental Entomology*, 1976.
- [13] Sascha Krenek, Thomas U. Berendonk, and Thomas Petzoldt. Thermal performance curves of *Paramecium caudatum*: A model selection approach. *European Journal of Protistology*, 2011.
- [14] N G ROTH. WHEATON RB: Continuity of psychrophilic and mesophilic growth characteristics in the genus *Arthrobacter*. *Journal of bacteriology*, 1962.
- [15] Young Min Bae, Ling Zheng, Jeong Eun Hyun, Kyu Seok Jung, Sunggi Heu, and Sun Young Lee. Growth characteristics and biofilm formation of various spoilage bacteria isolated from fresh produce. *Journal of Food Science*, 2014.
- [16] Liane Aldrighi Galarz, Gustavo Graciano Fonseca, and Carlos Prentice. Predicting bacterial growth in raw, salted, and cooked chicken breast fillets during storage. *Food Science and Technology International*, 2016.
- [17] C. O. Gill and K. M. DeLacy. Growth of *Escherichia coli* and *Salmonella typhimurium* on high-pH beef packed under vacuum or carbon dioxide. *International Journal of Food Microbiology*, 1991.

- [18] K. Sivonen. Effects of light, temperature, nitrate, orthophosphate, and bacteria on growth of and hepatotoxin production by *Oscillatoria agardhii* strains. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 1990.
- [19] M. H. Zwietering, J. C. De Wit, H. G.A.M. Cuppers, and K. Van't Riet. Modeling of bacterial growth with shifts in temperature. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 1994.
- [20] R. Pearl and L. J. Reed. On the Rate of Growth of the Population of the United States since 1790 and Its Mathematical Representation. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 1920.
- [21] P F Verhulst. Notice sur la loi que la population suit dans son accroissement. *Correspondance Mathématique et Physique*, 1838.
- [22] M. H. Zwietering, I. Jongenburger, F. M. Rombouts, and K. Van't Riet. Modeling of the bacterial growth curve. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 1990.
- [23] József Baranyi and Terry A. Roberts. A dynamic approach to predicting bacterial growth in food. *International Journal of Food Microbiology*, 1994.
- [24] R. L. Buchanan, R. C. Whiting, and W. C. Damert. When is simple good enough: A comparison of the Gompertz, Baranyi, and three-phase linear models for fitting bacterial growth curves. *Food Microbiology*, 1997.
- [25] Matthew Newville, Antonino Ingargiola, Till Stensitzki, and Daniel B. Allen. LMFIT: Non-Linear Least-Square Minimization and Curve-Fitting for Python. *Zenodo*, 2014.
- [26] Pauli Virtanen, Ralf Gommers, Travis E. Oliphant, and Matt Haberland. SciPy 1.0: fundamental algorithms for scientific computing in Python. *Nature Methods*, 2020.



- [27] Hadley Wickham. *ggplot2 Elegant Graphics for Data Analysis*. 2016.
- [28] E. P. Wigner. The Unreasonable Effectiveness of Mathematics in the Natural Sciences. In *Philosophical Reflections and Syntheses*. 1995.
- [29] Ronald L. Wasserstein and Nicole A. Lazar. ASA Statement on Statistical Significance and P-Values: Context, Process, and Purpose. *The American Statistician*, 70(2):129–133, 2016.
- [30] Jeehyoung Kim and Heejung Bang. Three common misuses of P values, 2016.
- [31] George E.P. Box. Science and statistics. *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, 1976.
- [32] G.E.P. Box. Robustness in the Strategy of Scientific Model Building. In *Robustness in Statistics*. 1979.
- [33] Chris Chatfield. Model Uncertainty, Data Mining and Statistical Inference. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society. Series A (Statistics in Society)*, 1995.
- [34] Micha Peleg, Maria G. Corradini, and Mark D. Normand. Isothermal and non-isothermal kinetic models of chemical processes in foods governed by competing mechanisms. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 2009.
- [35] J. Baranyi, A. Jones, C. Walker, A. Kaloti, T. P. Robinson, and B. M. Mackey. A combined model for growth and subsequent thermal inactivation of *Brochothrix thermosphacta*. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 1996.
- [36] Peleg Micha and Maria G. Corradini. Microbial growth curves: What the models tell us and what they cannot, 2011.

- [37] J. L. INGRAHAM. Growth of psychrophilic bacteria. *Journal of bacteriology*, 1958.
- [38] Chiara Schiraldi and Mario De Rosa. Mesophilic Organisms. In *Encyclopedia of Membranes*. 2014.