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OPTIMAL BACTERIAL RESOURCE ALLOCATION STRATEGIES IN BATCH PROCESSING*

3 AGUSTÍN GABRIEL YABO[†], JEAN-BAPTISTE CAILLAU[‡], AND JEAN-LUC GOUZÉ[§]

Abstract. The study of living microorganisms using resource allocation models has been key 4 in elucidating natural behaviors of bacteria, by allowing allocation of microbial resources to be 5 6 represented through optimal control strategies. The approach can also be applied to research in microbial cell factories, to investigate the optimal production of value-added compounds regulated 8 by an external control. The latter is the subject of this paper, in which we study batch bioprocessing 9 from a resource allocation perspective. Based on previous works, we propose a simple bacterial growth model accounting for the dynamics of the bioreactor and intracellular composition, and we 10 analyze its asymptotic behavior and stability. Using optimization and optimal control theory, we 11 12 study the production of biomass and metabolites of interest for infinite- and finite-time horizons. The 13 resulting optimal control problems are studied using Pontryagin's Maximum Principle and numerical 14 methods, and the solutions found are characterized by the presence of Fuller phenomenon (producing an infinite set of switching points occurring in a finite-time window) at the junctions with a second-15 order singular arc. The approach, inspired in biotechnological engineering, aims to shed light upon 1617 the role of cellular composition and resource allocation during batch processing and, at the same 18 time, poses very interesting and challenging mathematical problems.

19 **Key words.** mathematical systems theory; nonlinear systems; mathematical cell model dynam-20 ics and control; industrial biotechnology; optimal control; bacterial resource allocation

21 MSC codes. 37N25, 49K15, 92C42

12

1. Introduction. The study of living microorganisms through resource allo-22 23cation models has become increasingly relevant for its capacity to elucidate natural behaviors of microbia through very simple dynamical models [7, 9, 12, 13, 21, 25]. The 24 core idea is to represent the distribution of cellular resources through optimal con-25trol strategies, based on the assumption that evolutionary processes have tuned these 26 27 endogenous allocation strategies to attain nearly-optimal levels [14]. Numerous problems arise in this context, one of them being the optimal production of metabolites 28 29 regulated by an external control capable of arresting bacterial growth [11]. Growth control has proven a key engineering method for several industrial applications, such 30 as in food preservation, biofuel production, and in combating antibiotics resistance 31 [10]. To this end, a resource allocation approach can help understand how to modify 32 33 the naturally-evolved allocation strategies so as to efficiently produce such chemical 34 compounds [6].

These biosynthetic strategies have been studied in different frameworks. The simplest case describes the interactions between intracellular proteins with minimal interplay with the environment [27, 5, 22]. The latter can be modelled by omitting the dynamics of the substrate in the medium, representing the case where bacterial exponential growth can be attained. Another relevant, more complex case is continuous bioreactors [23, 26], used extensively in industries and in cell biology research for its capacity to reach and maintain steady-state growth conditions. The latter is

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accomplished through an inflow of fresh medium rich in substrate and an outflow of 42 43 the culture at the same volumetric flow rate, which produce a constant volume of the culture in the device. In that case, optimization studies are mostly oriented to reach 44 such steady state in a cost-effective way. In fed-batch fermentation, the process starts 45with an initial volume of bacterial culture inside a bioreactor, which is progressively 46 filled up through an inflow of rich medium, increasing the volume of the culture until 47 it reaches a maximum level [24]. Once the maximum volume is attained, the culture 48 evolves as a closed process, known in the field as batch processing. As no mass comes 49 in or out of the device, the remainder of the nutrients in the medium are progressively consumed until the mass is entirely transformed into final products.

The latter is the subject of this paper, which tackles batch processing from a 52 resource allocation perspective. The novelty of the approach lies in the nature of the 53model that—in addition to the physical and chemical laws found in classical biore-54actor models—considers cellular composition, taking into account the intracellular components responsible for the main biological functions of bacteria. The problem 56has been first posed in [27], where a simpler mathematical model of resource alloca-58tion is studied through numerical optimal control. The study does not consider the dynamical aspects of the model, neither the theoretical specifics arising from the optimal control problem and its singular arcs. We extend these results from an analytical 60 perspective—both for the dynamical analysis and the optimal control study—and in-61 cluding the case with no metabolite synthesis as a starting point, which has not been 62 analyzed in previous works. Based on simpler bacterial growth models [7, 25] that 64 do not consider the dynamics of the substrate in the medium, a coarse-grained selfreplicator model is introduced, including a heterologous pathway for the production of 65 a value-added chemical compound [27, 22]. Additionally, the main biological assump-66 tions of the mechanistic bacterial model are revised, based on empirical studies of 67 exponentially growing E. coli cultures [16]. Specifically, we consider a class of growth 68 rate-independent proteins in the cellular composition that accounts for housekeeping 69 70 proteins and non-active ribosomes, known to take up more than 50% of the cell [17]. The inclusion of this class of proteins in previous models has shown considerable im-71 provement in the agreement between simulations and experimental data [25]. Using 72 mass conservation laws related to the closeness of the bioprocess, it is possible to 73analyze the asymptotic behavior and stability of the dynamical system, showing that, 74for every possible allocation strategy, all component of the system are transformed 75 76 either into proteins or into metabolites, a condition later defined as Full depletion. Then, two main studies are performed: the biomass maximization case, representing 77 the natural objective of wild-type (i.e not modified) microbial cultures; and the me-78 tabolite maximization case, using the full bacterial model that includes the pathway 7980 for metabolite synthesis for industrial purposes. Both problems are analyzed in infinite time and in finite time, the latter stated as OCPs (Optimal Control Problems), 81 which are investigated through the application of PMP (Pontryagin's Maximum Prin-82 ciple) [15]. While the finite-time case is suitable for representing bioprocesses with 83 predetermined duration, the analysis of the infinite-time case becomes crucial in un-84 85 derstanding the nature and asymptotic trend of the process. The solutions of the OCPs are characterized by the presence of Fuller's phenomenon [3], producing arcs 86 87 composed of an infinite set of switching points (*i.e.* bangs) over a finite-time window. These optimal solutions follow a Fuller-singular-Fuller structure, similar to the one 88 found in [25], described by a single second-order singular arc which is delimited by 89 two Fuller's arcs at the beginning and at the end of the process. In particular, the 90 solution of the biomass maximization case is thoroughly studied from an analytical 92 point of view, resulting in an explicit expression of the singular control in feedback 93 form. The results here presented are also confirmed by simulations obtained with 94 Bocop [18], an optimal control solver based on direct methods, and published in the

 $_{95}$ ct gallery¹ in order to guarantee the reproducibility of the numerical results.

The paper is organized as follows: in Section 2, the dynamical model is presented, and its dynamical behavior is studied in Section 3. The biomass and product maximization cases are introduced and investigated in Sections 4 and 5, respectively. Finally, the results are discussed in Section 6.

100 **2. Model definition.**

2.1. Self-replicator model. We define a self-replicator model describing the 101 dynamics of a microbial population growing inside a closed bioreactor. The bacterial 102culture has constant volume \mathcal{V}_e , measured in liters. At the beginning of the experience, 103104there is an initial mass of substrate S inside the bioreactor, that is gradually consumed 105 by the bacterial population, and transformed into precursor metabolites P. These precursors are intermediate metabolites used to produce proteins—such as ribosomes 106 and enzymes-responsible for specific cellular functions; and metabolites of interest 107 X which are excreted from the cell. The proteins forming bacterial cells are divided 108 into three classes M, R and Q, associated to the following cellular functions: 109

110 **Class M** Proteins of the metabolic machinery, responsible for the uptake of nutri-111 ents S from the medium, the production of precursor metabolites P, and the 112 synthesis of metabolites of interest X.

Class R Proteins of the gene expression machinery (such as ribosomes) actively in volved in protein biosynthesis (*i.e.* in the production of proteins of classes M,
 Q and R).

Class Q Growth rate-independent proteins, such as housekeeping proteins responsible for cell maintenance, and ribosomes not involved in protein synthesis
 [17] [17].

From a biological perspective, the production of proteins M, R and Q is catalyzed by 119 ribosomal proteins R, and the absorption of S and synthesis of X are both catalyzed 120 by the metabolic proteins M. This catalytic effect is represented in Figure 1 through 121dashed arrows. Intracellular proteins are produced at a synthesis rate V_R measured 122 in grams per hour. The synthesis rates of proteins M, R and Q are $r_{\max}(1-u)V_R$, 123 $r_{\max}uV_R$ and $(1-r_{\max})V_R$, respectively; where the parameter r_{\max} is a certain em-124pirical constant imposing a maximum threshold to the rate of production of proteins 125M and R. The proportion of precursors dedicated to the production of growth rate-126 independent proteins Q is fixed, while the balance between proteins M and R is 127decided by the allocation control u. The latter is modelled through a time-varying 128 function $u(t) \in [0, 1]$, where u = 0 means no production of ribosomal proteins R, and 129 u = 1 means no production of metabolic proteins M. Depending on the objective to 130be analyzed, the control u can represent different mechanisms. First, it can account 131for the natural allocation used by bacteria, as modelled in [7, 25], by assuming that 132the native regulatory mechanisms of bacterial cells have been tuned by the natural 133 134selection to maximize growth rate. On the other hand, it can represent the artificially modified allocation modelled in [27]. In a biotechnological setting, the latter 135 is accomplished by engineering a synthetic growth switch that allows to modify the 136 natural allocation through external compounds like IPTG². 137

¹ct.gitlabpages.inria.fr/gallery/substrate/depletion.html

²Isopropyl β -D-1-thiogalactopyranoside



FIG. 1. Self-replicator model of bacterial growth representing the intracellular micro-chemical reactions behind nutrient uptake, cell growth and metabolite synthesis. Solid arrows represent flow of resources resulting from the microchemical reactions, while dashed arrows indicate a catalyzing effect (i.e. the presence of a protein accelerating the synthesis of another protein).

138 **2.2. Dynamical system.** The dynamics of the self-replicator system are de-139 scribed by

140

$$\begin{cases} \dot{S} = -V_M, \\ \dot{P} = V_M - V_X - V_R, \\ \dot{R} = r_{\max} u V_R, \\ \dot{M} = r_{\max} (1-u) V_R, \\ \dot{Q} = (1 - r_{\max}) V_R, \\ \dot{X} = V_X, \end{cases}$$

141

where the variables S(t), P(t), R(t), M(t), Q(t) and X(t) represent the masses (in grams) of substrate, precursors metabolites, the gene expression machinery, the metabolic machinery, the growth rate-independent proteins and the metabolites of interest at time t measured in hours, respectively. $V_M(t)$, $V_R(t)$ and $V_X(t)$ are the reaction rates of the system (in grams per hour), and u(t) is the allocation control previously defined. We define the volume (in liters) of the bacterial population in the bacterial culture $\mathcal{V}(t)$ as

$$\overset{149}{150} (2.1) \qquad \qquad \mathcal{V} \doteq \beta(M+R+Q),$$

where β is a constant relating protein density and volume [2]. Definition (2.1) purposely neglects the mass of precursor metabolites P(t), which greatly simplifies the computations. The latter assumption is based on the fact that most of the mass in bacterial cells corresponds to proteins of classes M, R and Q, as confirmed in previous

studies [7]. This allows to define time-varying intracellular concentrations (in grams 155per liter) with respect to this volume 156

157 (2.2)
$$p \doteq \frac{P}{\mathcal{V}}, \quad r \doteq \frac{R}{\mathcal{V}}, \quad m \doteq \frac{M}{\mathcal{V}}, \quad q \doteq \frac{Q}{\mathcal{V}}$$

Likewise, we define the extracellular concentrations related to the external volume 159

$$s = \frac{S}{\mathcal{V}_e}, \quad x = \frac{X}{\mathcal{V}_e}.$$

We define the relative synthesis rates involved in the processes as increasing functions 162of the concentrations used in each reaction [17], and taking into account the catalytic 163effect previously described 164

$$v_M(s,m) \doteq \frac{V_M}{\mathcal{V}}, \quad v_R(p,r) \doteq \frac{V_R}{\mathcal{V}}, \quad v_X(p,m) \doteq \frac{V_X}{\mathcal{V}}.$$

From (2.1) and (2.2), we have that 167

168 (2.4)
$$m+r+q = \frac{1}{\beta},$$

which implies that the concentrations m, r and q cannot be bigger than $1/\beta$. We 170

define the growth rate of the bacterial culture μ as 171

$$\mu \doteq \frac{\mathcal{V}}{\mathcal{V}} = \beta v_R(p, r).$$

Then, the dynamical system can be expressed in terms of the concentrations as 174

$$\begin{cases} \dot{s} = -v_M(s,m)\frac{\mathcal{V}}{\mathcal{V}_e}, \\ \dot{p} = v_M(s,m) - v_X(p,m) - v_R(p,r)(\beta p+1), \\ \dot{r} = (r_{\max}u - \beta r)v_R(p,r), \\ \dot{m} = (r_{\max}(1-u) - \beta m)v_R(p,r), \\ \dot{q} = ((1-r_{\max}) - \beta q)v_R(p,r), \\ \dot{\mathcal{V}} = \beta v_R(p,r)\mathcal{V}, \\ \dot{x} = v_X(p,m)\frac{\mathcal{V}}{\mathcal{V}_e}. \end{cases}$$

175

177**2.3.** Kinetics definition. We model the kinetics of the system by supposing that both the synthesis rates of precursors v_M and metabolites v_X are linear in the 178concentration of metabolic proteins m, and the protein synthesis rate v_R is linear in 179the concentration of active ribosomal proteins r [16]. Thus, they can be expressed as 180

 $v_M(s,m) = w_M(s)m,$ 181

$$v_R(p,r) = w_R(p)r,$$

$$\frac{183}{184} \qquad \qquad v_X(p,m) = \gamma w_R(p)m,$$

where $\gamma > 0$ is a proportionality constant, which allows the metabolite synthesis 185 186rate to be expressed as $v_X(p,m) = \gamma v_R(p,r) m/r$. Such assumption implies that the bacterial cell has the same affinity to synthesize biomass and metabolites from 187 the precursors, even if the reactions do not consume P in the same proportion. In 188 the particular case of Michaelis-Menten kinetics, this feature is captured by the half-189 saturation constant [8]. The functions w_I are assumed to have the following properties: 190

- 191 Hypothesis 2.1. Function $w_I(x) : \mathbb{R}_+ \to \mathbb{R}_+$ is
- Continuously differentiable w.r.t. x, 192
- Null at the origin: $w_I(0) = 0$, 193
- 194
- Strictly monotonically increasing: w'_I(x) = ∂/∂x w_I(x) > 0, ∀x ≥ 0,
 Strictly concave downwards: w''_I(x) = ∂²/∂x² w_I(x) < 0, ∀x ≥ 0,
 Upper bounded: lim_{x→∞} w_I(x) = k_I > 0. 195
- 196

For numerical simulations, we resort to the particular case where the functions follow 197198 Michaelis-Menten kinetics. For that case, we define

199
200
$$w_R(p) \doteq k_R \frac{p}{K_R + p}, \quad w_X(p) \doteq k_X \frac{p}{K_X + p}, \quad w_M(s) \doteq k_M \frac{s}{K_M + s},$$

where the values of the constants k_R , K_R , k_X , K_X , k_M and K_M are based on the 201 literature [7, 27]. For the general case introduced in Hypothesis 2.1, we define 202

$$k_R \doteq \lim_{p \to \infty} w_R(p), \quad k_X \doteq \lim_{p \to \infty} w_X(p), \quad k_M \doteq \lim_{s \to \infty} w_M(s).$$

2052.4. Mass fraction formulation and non-dimensionalization. We define non-dimensional mass fractions 206

$$\begin{array}{l} _{207} \\ _{208} \end{array} (2.5) \qquad \hat{s} \doteq \beta s, \quad \hat{p} \doteq \beta p, \quad \hat{r} \doteq \frac{\beta}{r_{\max}} r, \quad \hat{m} \doteq \frac{\beta}{r_{\max}} m, \quad \hat{q} \doteq \beta q, \quad \hat{x} \doteq \beta x, \end{array}$$

where \hat{r} and \hat{m} are the mass fractions of the maximal ribosomal fraction r_{max} . Then, 209 210given that the transcription of housekeeping proteins in bacterial cells is internally auto-regulated [20], and that the mass fraction of non-translating ribosomal proteins 211 is constant [16], we assume that the mass fraction of growth rate-independent proteins 212 \hat{q} varies mildly compared to the remaining states, and thus we fix 213

$$\hat{q} = 1 - r_{\max},$$

which, replacing in (2.4), yields 216

$$\frac{217}{218}$$
 $m + r = 1$

The latter implies that the metabolic fraction can be expressed in terms of the riboso-219 mal fraction as $\hat{m} = 1 - \hat{r}$, and so the dynamical equation of \hat{m} can be removed from 220 the system. Additionally, we see that the quantity βr represents the mass fraction 221of translating ribosomal proteins in the cell which, using (2.4) and (2.6), has bounds 222 223 $[0, r_{\text{max}}]$. Thus, its upper bound is given by the difference between the maximal total ribosomal mass fraction and the constant non-translating ribosomal mass fraction. In 224the literature [25], such values are empirically fixed to 0.5 and 0.07, respectively, and 225226 so the parameter $r_{\rm max}$ is here set to 0.43 for the numerical calculations. The biomass fraction of the bacterial culture is defined as 227

$$\hat{\mathcal{V}} \doteq \frac{\mathcal{V}}{\mathcal{V}_e}.$$

We define the non-dimensional time $\hat{t} \doteq k_R r_{\max} t$ and the non-dimensional functions 230

$$\hat{w}_{R}(\hat{p}) = \frac{w_{R}(p)}{k_{R}}, \quad \hat{w}_{X}(\hat{p}) = \frac{w_{X}(p)}{k_{R}}, \quad \hat{w}_{M}(\hat{s}) = \frac{w_{M}(s)}{k_{R}}$$

so that $\lim_{\hat{p}\to\infty} \hat{w}_R(\hat{p}) = 1$. For the sake of simplicity, let us drop all hats from the 233 234 current notation. Thus, the system becomes

235 (S)

$$\begin{cases}
\dot{s} = -w_M(s)(1-r)\mathcal{V}, \\
\dot{p} = w_M(s)(1-r) - \gamma w_R(p)(1-r) - w_R(p)r(p+1), \\
\dot{r} = (u-r)w_R(p)r, \\
\dot{\mathcal{V}} = w_R(p)r\mathcal{V}, \\
\dot{x} = \gamma w_R(p)(1-r)\mathcal{V}.
\end{cases}$$

236

In this formulation, and using (2.2), (2.3), (2.4), (2.5) and (2.7), the total mass in the 237bioreactor can be expressed in terms of the concentrations as 238

239 (2.8)
$$S + P + M + R + Q + X = \frac{\mathcal{V}_e}{\beta} (s + (p+1)\mathcal{V} + x).$$

- 3. Model analysis. 241
- LEMMA 3.1. The set 242

$$\Gamma = \{(s, p, r, \mathcal{V}, x) \in \mathbb{R}^5 : s \ge 0, p \ge 0, 1 \ge r \ge 0, \mathcal{V} \ge 0, x \ge 0\}$$

is positively invariant for the initial value problem. 245

Proving Lemma 3.1 is standard and can be done by evaluating the vector field of 246247 (S) over the boundaries of Γ . Thus, we fix initial conditions

248 (IC)
$$s(0) = s_0 > 0, \quad p(0) = p_0 > 0, \quad x(0) = 0,$$

$$r(0) = r_0 \in (0,1), \quad \mathcal{V}(0) = \mathcal{V}_0 > 0$$

where the initial concentration of metabolites x(0) is set to 0 to represent the fact 250that, at the beginning of the bioprocess, no metabolite has been produced. Some 251relations are immediate from the dynamics: as $\dot{s} \leq 0$ and $\dot{\mathcal{V}} \geq 0$ for all t, we have 252

$$s(t) \le s_0, \quad \mathcal{V}(t) \ge \mathcal{V}_0,$$

representing the fact that the substrate can only be consumed (and not replenished), 255256and the biomass can only grow.

3.1. Total available mass. As typically occurs in batch processes, there is 257neither inflow nor outflow of mass in the bioreactor, which is reflected in the dynamics 258259 of the system though a mass conservation law. We define the constant

$$\Sigma \doteq s_0 + (p_0 + 1)\mathcal{V}_0,$$

representing the initial mass concentration in the system. It can be seen that the total mass concentration

$$z \doteq s + (p+1)\mathcal{V} + x$$

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262 is constant for all t (as $\dot{z} = 0$). This means that

$$363 \quad (3.2) \qquad \qquad s + (p+1)\mathcal{V} + x = \Sigma,$$

for all t. Thus, relation (2.8) and (3.2) show that the total mass in the system is constant and equal to $\mathcal{V}_e \Sigma / \beta$. Variables \mathcal{V} and x are maximal when the remaining variables are equal to 0, and so they are upper bounded. In particular, both $\mathcal{V}(t)$ and x(t) are decreasing w.r.t. s(t) and p(t). As neither s nor p can be negative, we have that

$$\begin{array}{l} 270\\ 271 \end{array} \quad (3.3) \qquad \qquad \mathcal{V}(t) + x(t) = \Sigma \end{array}$$

when s(t) = p(t) = 0. This condition means that all the available substrate and precursor metabolites have been depleted and transformed into biomass and metabolites, which is intuitively what one would expect from system (S) for t sufficiently large. Additionally, using (3.1) and (3.2), we can obtain the following result.

276 PROPOSITION 3.2. $\mathcal{V}(t) \in [\mathcal{V}_0, \Sigma], x(t) \in [0, \Sigma - \mathcal{V}_0] \text{ and } p(t) \in [0, p^+] \text{ for all } t,$ 277 with $p^+ = \Sigma/\mathcal{V}_0 - 1$.

3.2. Infinite-time full depletion. Dynamics (S) shows that, under initial conditions (IC), s(t) and p(t) can only vanish asymptotically, that is, when $t \to \infty$. The latter can be proved by seeing that the derivatives of s and p can be bounded by

$$\dot{s} \ge -w_M(s)\Sigma, \quad \dot{p} \ge -w_R(p)p^+(p^+ + 1 + \gamma),$$

which means that, at worst, s and p decay exponentially (as functions $w_i(x)$ can be upper bounded by linear functions $w_i(x) \leq c_i x$), so that s(t) = p(t) = 0 cannot be reached in finite time. Accordingly, we define the depletion of s and p in an infinitetime horizon.

DEFINITION 3.3. System (S) achieves Full depletion when all the substrate and the precursors are asymptotically depleted, i.e.

289 (Full depletion)
$$\lim_{t \to \infty} s(t) = \lim_{t \to \infty} p(t) = 0,$$

3.3. Asymptotic behaviour. Now, we study the system dynamics for an infinite time $t \to \infty$. First, the case with a constant allocation $u(t) = u^* \in (0, 1)$ for all t is analyzed, and then an extension to a general allocation function is proposed.

294 **3.3.1.** Constant allocation u^* .

THEOREM 3.4. For any trajectory of system (S) with initial conditions (IC) and constant allocation $u(t) = u^*$, it follows that

287 (3.4)
$$(u^* - r(t))\mathcal{V}(t) = (u^* - r_0)\mathcal{V}_0.$$

Proof. Under a constant allocation $u(t) = u^*$, the dynamics of r becomes

$$\dot{r} = (u^* - r)w_R(p)r.$$

Using dynamics (S), it is possible to see that both the total mass of proteins $R = r\mathcal{V}$ and the quantity $U = u^*\mathcal{V}$ have the same derivative

$$\dot{R} = \dot{U} = u^* w_R(p) r \mathcal{V},$$

which means that the difference of these two $R_u = U - R$ should be constant (as $\dot{R}_u = 0$), which yields (3.4).

301 **3.3.2. General allocation** u(t). Due to the boundedness of \mathcal{V} stated in Lemma 3.2, 302 and the relation between \mathcal{V} and r shown in (3.2), we can see that any constant control 303 u^* yields a bounded ribosomal fraction r. We extend this notion to any function u(t).

LEMMA 3.5. For any trajectory of system (S) with initial conditions (IC) and any control u(t), the ribosomal concentration has bounds $r(t) \in [r^-, r^+]$ for all t, with

$$r^{-} \doteq r_0 \frac{\mathcal{V}_0}{\Sigma} > 0, \qquad r^{+} \doteq 1 - (1 - r_0) \frac{\mathcal{V}_0}{\Sigma} < 1.$$

308 *Proof.* Let us extend system (S) by defining variables $r_{\text{low}}(t)$ and $r_{\text{up}}(t)$ with 309 dynamics

$$\dot{r}_{\text{low}} = -r_{\text{low}} w_R(p) r \le 0, \quad \dot{r}_{\text{up}} = (1 - r_{\text{up}}) w_R(p) r \ge 0,$$

$$r_{\text{low}}(0) = r_0, \qquad r_{\text{up}}(0) = r_0,$$

which correspond to the dynamics of r with u = 0 and u = 1 respectively, and which satisfy

$$r_{\rm low}(t) \le r(t) \le r_{\rm up}(t)$$

for all t. The latter can be easily proved by showing that the time-varying differences

$$\Delta_{\text{low}}(t) = r(t) - r_{\text{low}}(t), \quad \Delta_{\text{up}}(t) = r_{\text{up}}(t) - r(t)$$

with dynamics

$$\dot{\Delta}_{\text{low}} = (u - \Delta_{\text{low}})w_R(p)r, \quad \dot{\Delta}_{\text{up}} = (1 - u - \Delta_{\text{up}})w_R(p)r$$

are always non-negative: they satisfy $\Delta_{\text{low}}(0) = \Delta_{\text{up}}(0) = 0$ and are repulsive or

(at worst) invariant at 0. Then, based on the same principle used to obtain (3.4), we define the quantities $R_{\text{low}} = r_{\text{low}} \mathcal{V}$ and $R_{\text{up}} = (1 - r_{\text{up}})\mathcal{V}$ which are constant (as $\dot{R}_{\text{low}} = \dot{R}_{\text{up}} = 0$), and so

³¹⁶
₃₁₇
$$r_{\rm low}(t) = r_0 \frac{\mathcal{V}_0}{\mathcal{V}(t)}, \qquad r_{\rm up}(t) = 1 - (1 - r_0) \frac{\mathcal{V}_0}{\mathcal{V}(t)},$$

318 for all t. As $\mathcal{V}_0 \leq \mathcal{V}(t) \leq \Sigma$ for all t, we have

$$r_{\text{low}}(t) \in \left[r_0 \frac{\mathcal{V}_0}{\Sigma}, r_0\right], \qquad r_{\text{up}}(t) \in \left[r_0, 1 - (1 - r_0) \frac{\mathcal{V}_0}{\Sigma}\right]$$

321 which shows that $r^{-} \leq r(t) \leq r^{+}$ for all t.

Lemma 3.5 states that, for any control u(t), the ribosomal concentration never reaches the bounds r = 0 and r = 1, and thus neither the substrate intake nor the protein synthesis is arrested. Using this fact, it can be proved that any control u(t)produces (Full depletion).

THEOREM 3.6. Any trajectory of system (S) with initial conditions (IC) and any control u(t) achieves (Full depletion) when $t \to \infty$.

328 *Proof.* Using Lemma 3.5, it is easy to see that

$$\dot{s} \le -w_M(s)(1-r^+)\mathcal{V}_0,$$

which means that s(t) converges to 0 as $t \to \infty$. Then, this means that

$$\dot{p} \le -\gamma w_R(p)(1-r^+) - w_R(p)r^-,$$

and so p(t) also converges to 0 as $t \to \infty$.

335 4. The biomass maximization case. In this section, we write the problem of 336 maximizing the biomass both for infinite time and finite time in terms of the allocation parameter u. The latter is a mathematical representation of the naturally-evolved 337 resource allocation strategy used by bacteria in nature. Indeed, in biology it is very of-338 ten assumed that bacteria during exponential growth allocate their internal resources 339 to maximize their growth rate, thus maximizing long-term biomass production [7]. 340 For this particular problem, we assume that no metabolite is produced, as the path-341 way responsible for its production is artificially engineered, and thus not present in 342 wild-type bacteria. This is simply modeled through $\gamma = 0$. The resulting Wild-Type 343344 Bacterial Model is

345 (WTB-M)
346
$$\begin{cases}
\dot{s} = -w_M(s)(1-r)\mathcal{V}, \\
\dot{p} = w_M(s)(1-r) - w_R(p)r(p+1), \\
\dot{r} = (u-r)w_R(p)r, \\
\dot{\mathcal{V}} = w_R(p)r\mathcal{V},
\end{cases}$$

10

4.1. Infinite-time problem. 347

4.1.1. Problem formulation. We first write the biomass maximization prob-348 lem for an infinite-time horizon, a non-realistic scenario that can provide valuable 349 insight into the finite-time process. Indeed, in this section, we show that the max-351 imum attainable performance can only be achieved in infinite-time processes. The problem can be expressed as 352

$$\max_{354} \lim_{u(t)} \mathcal{V}(t)$$

Since $\mathcal{V} \in [\mathcal{V}_0, \Sigma]$, applying (Full depletion) in (3.2) yields the condition 355

$$\lim_{t \to \infty} \mathcal{V}(t) = \Sigma$$

meaning that, in infinite time, the biomass is maximized for every control u(t). We 358 359 formalize the latter in the following theorem.

THEOREM 4.1. For any trajectory of system (WTB-M) with initial conditions 360 (IC) and any control u(t), the volume $\mathcal{V}(t) \to \max \mathcal{V}(t) = \Sigma$ as $t \to \infty$. 361

As a consequence, using Theorem 3.4, we have the following result for constant 362 allocations. 363

COROLLARY 4.2. For any trajectory of system (WTB-M) with initial conditions 364 (IC) and constant control $u(t) = u^*$, 365

$$\lim_{t \to \infty} r(t) = u^* - (u^* - r_0) \frac{\nu_0}{\Sigma}$$

These results are illustrated by the numerical simulations shown in next section. 368

4.1.2. Numerical simulations. Examples of trajectories confirming the ana-369 lytical results are shown in Figure 2 and Figure 3, where we see that the system 370 approaches (Full depletion) asymptotically in every case, thus approaching the max-371372 imal biomass value $\mathcal{V}(t) = \Sigma$. Figure 2 shows the resulting trajectories associated to the same initial conditions, when varying the allocation parameter u. On the other hand, Figure 3 illustrates the trajectories for different values of r_0 . Indeed, as Σ does not depend on the resource allocation strategy, all the available mass is transformed

into biomass independently of the values of r_0 and u(t).



FIG. 2. Simulation of (WTB-M) with initial conditions $s_0 = 0.3$, $p_0 = 0.001$, $r_0 = 0.8$, $\mathcal{V}_0 = 0.003$, fixed final time $t_f = 50$ and different allocation functions u.



FIG. 3. Simulation of (WTB-M) with initial conditions $s_0 = 0.3$, $p_0 = 0.001$, $\mathcal{V}_0 = 0.003$, u = 0.5, fixed final time $t_f = 50$ and different values of r_0 .



4.2.1. Problem formulation. For the Biomass Maximization problem at final 378 379 time t_f , we write the OCP maximizing the final bacterial volume $\mathcal{V}(t_f)$ with initial conditions (IC): 380

$$381 \quad (BM-OCP)$$

$$381 \quad (BM-OCP)$$

$$382 \quad (BM-OCP)$$

$$382 \quad (BM-OCP)$$

$$382 \quad (D, u(\cdot) \in \mathcal{U}.$$

382

For this class of optimal control problem, with no terminal constraints, there are no 383 controllability issues. Additionally, the dynamics is affine in the control, with the 384 latter included in a compact and convex set (a closed interval), and it can be checked 385 that every finite-time trajectory remains bounded. Thus, existence of a solution is 386 guaranteed by Filippov's theorem [1]. Then, for a problem (BM-OCP) with state 387 388 $\varphi \in \mathbb{R}^n$, PMP ensures that there exists an absolutely continuous mapping $\lambda(\cdot)$: $[0, t_f] \to \mathbb{R}^n$ such that the extremal (φ, λ, u) satisfies the generalized Hamiltonian 389390 system

391 (PMP)

$$\begin{cases}
\dot{\varphi} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda} H(\varphi, \lambda, u), \\
\dot{\lambda} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial \varphi} H(\varphi, \lambda, u), \\
H(\varphi, \lambda, u) = \max_{u \in [0,1]} H(\varphi, \lambda, u)
\end{cases}$$

for almost every $t \in [0, t_f]$. We define the adjoint states for this particular case as 393 394 $\lambda = (\lambda_s, \lambda_p, \lambda_r, \lambda_{\mathcal{V}})$, and we write the Hamiltonian

395
$$H = -w_M(s)(1-r)\mathcal{V}\lambda_s + \left(w_M(s)(1-r) - w_R(p)r(p+1)\right)\lambda_p + w_R(p)r\mathcal{V}\lambda_{\mathcal{V}}$$

 $+(u-r)w_R(p)r\lambda_r,$ 399

and the adjoint system as 398

$$\begin{cases} \dot{\lambda}_s = w'_M(s)(1-r)\left(\mathcal{V}\lambda_s - \lambda_p\right), \\ \dot{\lambda}_p = \left(w'_R(p)r(p+1) + w_R(p)r\right)\lambda_p - w'_R(p)r\mathcal{V}\lambda_{\mathcal{V}} - (u-r)w'_R(p)r\lambda_r, \\ \dot{\lambda}_r = -w_M(s)(\mathcal{V}\lambda_s - \lambda_p) + w_R(p)((p+1)\lambda_p - \mathcal{V}\lambda_{\mathcal{V}}) - (u-2r)w_R(p)\lambda_r, \\ \dot{\lambda}_{\mathcal{V}} = w_M(s)(1-r)\lambda_s - w_R(p)r\lambda_{\mathcal{V}}. \end{cases}$$

400

401 Given that there are no terminal conditions on the state, the transversality conditions for the adjoint state are $\lambda(t_f) = (0, 0, 0, 1)$. Note that $\lambda_{\mathcal{V}}(t_f) = 1$ comes from the 402fact that the cost function is $\mathcal{V}(t_f)$ and there are no terminal conditions on the other 403 states (this prevents the so-called *abnormal* extremals with $\lambda_{\mathcal{V}}(t_f) = 0$). Since the 404(WTB-M) dynamics is single-input and control-affine, 405

406
$$\dot{\varphi} = F_0(\varphi) + uF_1(\varphi)$$

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12

407 with obvious definitions for the vector fields F_0 , F_1 , the Hamiltonian writes H =408 $H_0 + uH_1$. The Hamiltonian lifts $H_i := \langle \lambda, F_i \rangle$, i = 0, 1, of the two vector fields are

409
$$H_0 = -w_M(s)(1-r)\mathcal{V}\lambda_s + \left(w_M(s)(1-r) - w_R(p)r(p+1)\right)\lambda_p$$

410
$$+ w_R(p)r\mathcal{V}\lambda_{\mathcal{V}} - w_R(p)r^2\lambda_r$$

 $411 \qquad \qquad H_1 = w_R(p) r \lambda_r.$

The constrained optimal control u should maximize the Hamiltonian, so the solution of (BM-OCP) is

415 (4.1)
$$u(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } H_1 < 0, \\ 1 & \text{if } H_1 > 0, \end{cases}$$

417 while $u(t) = u_s(t)$ is called singular whenever H_1 vanishes on a whole subinterval of 418 $[0, t_f]$. This tells that an optimal control is a (possibly very complicated) concate-419 nation of bangs (u = 0 and u = 1) and singular arcs, depending on the sign of the 420 switching function H_1 . We see that, at final time, the dynamics of λ_r becomes

$$\lambda_r(t_f) = w_R(p(t_f))\mathcal{V}(t_f)\lambda_0 < 0$$

423 which, using the fact that $\lambda_r(t_f) = 0$, implies that $\lambda_r > 0$ for a period $[t_f - \varepsilon, t_f]$, 424 and thus $H_1 > 0$ for a period $[t_f - \varepsilon, t_f]$. As the control u should maximize the 425 Hamiltonian, we have the following result.

LEMMA 4.3. There exists ε such that the final bang arc of the optimal control solution of (BM-OCP) corresponds to u(t) = 0 for the time interval $[t_f - \varepsilon, t_f]$.

A more detailed analysis of the optimal control solution can be done by studying 428 the behavior of singular extremals. The latter is key in describing the structure of the 429 optimal control, as it is typically associated to intermediate values of the control u430(i.e. non-bang arcs). In the general case application of PMP, the singular control can 431 be expressed as a function of the state and the adjoint state $u_s(t) = f(\varphi, \lambda)$, where the 432explicit expression of f can be obtained by successively differentiating the switching 433 function H_1 until the singular control can be solved for. In the next section, we show 434for our problem that the singular optimal control is of order two, and that it can be 435 expressed in feedback form as $u_s(t) = u(\varphi(t))$. In control systems design, the latter is 436a particular case that allows for a straightforward closed-loop implementation of the 437 optimal control law, and that can provide further insight on the nature of the optimal 438trajectories. 439

440 **4.2.2. Singular arcs.** A singular arc occurs when H_1 vanishes (as well as its 441 successive derivatives w.r.t. time) on a subinterval $[t_1, t_2] \subset [0, t_f]$, and so

$$H_1 = w_R(p)r\lambda_r = 0,$$

444 As r is bounded and p cannot vanish in finite time, the condition becomes

$$445 \quad (4.2) \qquad \qquad \lambda_r = 0.$$

447 We differentiate H_1 , we evaluate the expression in (4.2), and we get

$$\dot{H}_1 = w_R(p)r\Big(-w_M(s)(\mathcal{V}\lambda_s - \lambda_p) + w_R(p)((p+1)\lambda_p - \mathcal{V}\lambda_{\mathcal{V}})\Big) = 0.$$

450 Then, the Hamiltonian can be expressed as

$$451 (4.3) H = -w_M(s)(\mathcal{V}\lambda_s - \lambda_p) - r\lambda_r + (u - r)H_1 = c$$

on the interval $[t_1, t_2]$, where c is a positive constant that, due to the constancy of the Hamiltonian, is equal to

$$c \doteq H(t_f) = w_R(p(t_f))r(t_f)\mathcal{V}(t_f) > 0.$$

453 Then, (4.3) implies that, over a singular arc,

$$455 \quad (4.4) \qquad \qquad w_M(s)(\mathcal{V}\lambda_s - \lambda_p) = w_R(p)((p+1)\lambda_p - \mathcal{V}\lambda_{\mathcal{V}}) = -c.$$

456 Differentiating \dot{H}_1 , and evaluating over $H_1 = \dot{H}_1 = 0$, yields

457
$$\ddot{H}_1 = w_R(p)r\Big(w_R'(p)((p+1)\lambda_p - \mathcal{V}\lambda_{\mathcal{V}})(w_M(s)(1-r) - w_R(p)r(p+1)) + w_R(p)r(p+1))\Big)$$

458
$$+ w_R(p)(w_M(s)(1-r) - w_R(p)r(p+1))\lambda_R$$

459
$$+ w_R(p)(p+1) \Big((w'_R(p)r(p+1) + w_R(p)r)\lambda_p - w'_R(p)r\mathcal{V}\lambda_{\mathcal{V}} \Big)$$

$$460 \qquad \qquad -w_R^2(p)r\mathcal{V}\lambda_{\mathcal{V}} - w_R(p)\mathcal{V}(w_M(s)(1-r)\lambda_s - w_R(p)r\lambda_{\mathcal{V}}) \bigg) = 0.$$

462 By simplifying terms and replacing with (4.4), we obtain

$$\ddot{H}_1 = cr(1-r)\left(w_R^2(p) - w_R'(p)w_M(s)\right) = 0.$$

465 which implies that

466 (4.5)
$$\frac{w_R^2(p)}{w_M(s)w_R'(p)} = 1.$$

468 The fact that u does not appear in \ddot{H}_1 shows that any singular arc is at least of 469 *local order two*, so that additional derivatives should be calculated in order to retrieve 470 an explicit expression of the optimal control. Here, some precisions are in order, 471 and we may first recall that the computation can also be performed in terms of 472 Poisson brackets³ since derivating along an extremal amounts to bracketing with the 473 Hamiltonian. In particular,

474 $\dot{H}_1 = \{H_0 + uH_1, H_1\},$

$$475 = \{H_0, H_1\} =: H_{01}.$$

477 Iterating, and with obvious notations $(H_{001} := \{H_0, \{H_0, H_1\}\}, etc.)$, one obtains

478
$$0 = \dot{H}_{01} = H_{001} + uH_{101}.$$

(Let us recall that H_{01} is also equal to the Hamiltonian lift of the Lie bracket (F_0, F_1] =: F_{01} , that H_{001} is the lift of [$F_0, [F_0, F_1$]] =: F_{001} , etc.) The previous computation shows that H_{101} is zero on the subset { $H_1 = H_{01} = 0$ } of the cotangent space. These two relations have indeed been used during the computation, while an

14

³In coordinates, if fg and g are two scalar valued functions of $(\varphi, \lambda) \in \mathbb{R}^{2n}$, $\{f, g\} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\partial f/\partial \lambda_i) (\partial g/\partial \varphi_i) - (\partial f/\partial \varphi_i) (\partial g/\partial \lambda_i)$.

explicit evaluation⁴ allows to verify that the bracket H_{101} is not identically zero on the whole cotangent space. In such a situation, the *local* (not *intrinsic*) order is said to be at least two; that is at least two more differentiations wrt. time are required to retrieve the singular control. We are actually in the following case (see also [4] for a similar analysis):

488 PROPOSITION 4.4. If the Lie bracket F_{101} belongs to the span of F_1 and F_{01} , then 489 singular extremals must be of (local) order at least two.

490 *Proof.* By assumption, if for some φ a covector λ is orthogonal to F_1 and F_{01} at 491 φ , it is also orthogonal to F_{101} at this point. So, along a singular extremal that must 492 belong to $\{H_1 = H_{01} = 0\}$, one has

493
$$0 \equiv H_{001} + u_s H_{101}$$

494 with H_{101} also vanishing. As a result, $0 \equiv H_{001}$ along the singular, and one can 495 differentiate again:

496
$$0 \equiv H_{0001} + u_s H_{1001}.$$

497 Now, by Leibniz rule

498

$$H_{1001} = \{H_1, \{H_0, H_{01}\}\} = \underbrace{\{-H_{01}, H_{01}\}}_{=0} + \{H_0, H_{101}\}$$

and there exist smooth functions a and b of φ such that $F_{101} = aF_1 + bF_{01}$ (and similarly for the associated Hamiltonian lifts). By Leibniz rule again, H_{1001} must vanish when $H_1 = H_{01} = H_{001} = 0$ as

502
$$\{H_0, aH_1 + bH_{01}\} = \{H_0, a\}H_1 + aH_{01} + \{H_0, b\}H_{01} + bH_{001},$$

so $H_{0001} \equiv 0$. So one has to differentiate at least once more to retrieve the control. It should moreover be noted that \ddot{H}_1 depends only on the state—and not on the adjoint state—which implies that its successive derivatives also depend only on the state, as the adjoint state does not appear in system (WTB-M). Additionally, and based on Hypothesis (2.1), the function $w_M(s)$ is invertible, which means that s can be expressed in terms of p through equation (4.5). Once again, we differentiate \ddot{H}_1 , we evaluate over $H_1 = \dot{H}_1 = \ddot{H}_1 = 0$, and we get

510
$$\ddot{H}_1 = c(1-r)r\Big(2w_R(p)w'_R(p)(w_M(s)(1-r) - w_R(p)r(p+1))\Big)$$

511
$$-w_R''(p)w_M(s)(w_M(s)(1-r) - w_R(p)r(p+1))$$

$$512_{513} + w'_R(p)w'_M(s)w_M(s)(1-r)\mathcal{V} = 0.$$

514 By rearranging the expression, we can express

$$\dot{\tilde{\Xi}}_{1} = c(1-r)r(\omega_0(p,\mathcal{V}) - \omega_1(p,\mathcal{V})r) = 0,$$

⁴Take for instance $k_R = 1.1$, $k_M = 1.2$, $K_R = 1.3$, $K_M = 1.4$, $\varphi = \lambda = (1, 1, 1, 1)$ and check that $H_{101}(\varphi, \lambda) \neq 0$.

16

517 with

518
$$\omega_0(p,\mathcal{V}) = w_M(s) \Big(2w_R(p)w_R'(p) - w_R''(p)w_M(s) + w_R'(p)w_M'(s)\mathcal{V} \Big) > 0,$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^{n} \omega_1(p, \mathcal{V}) = \omega_0(p, \mathcal{V}) + w_R(p)(p+1)(2w'_R(p)w_R(p) - w''_R(p)w_M(s)) > 0$$

where the positivity of functions ω_i is a consequence of Hypothesis 2.1. The latter shows that, along the singular arc, r can be expressed in terms of p and \mathcal{V} (as, using (4.5), s can be expressed in terms of p) as

$$r = \frac{\omega_0(p, \mathcal{V})}{\omega_1(p, \mathcal{V})}.$$

526 Then, computing the next derivative and evaluating over the obtained conditions 527 yields

528 (4.6)
$$\ddot{\ddot{H}}_1 = c(1-r)r(\dot{\omega}_0(p,\mathcal{V}) - \dot{\omega}_1(p,\mathcal{V})r - \omega_1(p,\mathcal{V})(u-r)w_R(p)r) = 0.$$

530 We can see that the factor of u in expression (4.6) satisfies

531 (4.7)
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial u} \ddot{H}_1 = -c(1-r)w_R(p)r^2\omega_1(p,s,\mathcal{V}) < 0$$

533 as $\omega_1 > 0$ for all t, which leads to the following result.

THEOREM 4.5. The singular optimal control is exactly of order two, and it can be expressed in feedback form, $u = u(p, \mathcal{V})$.

Proof. Since it has been already proven that the singular arc is at least of order two, it suffices to prove that it cannot be of greater order. This can be done by observing that (4.7) cannot vanish. Thus, the singular arc is exactly of order two. Additionally, solving for u in the same expression yields

540
541
$$u_s(p,\mathcal{V}) = \frac{\dot{\omega}_0(p,\mathcal{V}) - \dot{\omega}_1(p,\mathcal{V})r}{\omega_1(p,\mathcal{V})w_R(p)r} + r.$$

542 which shows that the control u can be expressed as a function of the state variables.

543 We note that the generalized Legendre-Clebsh condition, necessary for optimality of 544 the singular arc, is fulfilled in strict form by virtue of (4.7):

$$(-1)^k \frac{\partial}{\partial u} \left(\frac{d^{2k}}{dt^{2k}} H_1 \right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial u} \ddot{H}_1 < 0$$

4.2.3. Numerical simulations. The optimal trajectories were computed with 547 Bocop [18], which solves the OCP through a direct method. The time discretization 548 algorithm used is Lobato IIIC (implicit, 4-stage, order 6) with 2000 time steps. Figures 5494 and 5 show optimal trajectories for the same set of initial conditions and different values of t_f . Using the mass conservation law (3.2), the quantities are represented in the plots as fractions of the total mass in the bioreactor $\mathcal{V}_e \Sigma / \beta$. The optimal control 552553 u is characterized by the presence of chattering after and before the singular arc, as expected in singular arcs of order two. From a biological point of view, both allocation 554strategies prioritize the synthesis of proteins of the metabolic machinery M (red in 555both Figures): the singular arc takes rather small values, and a large proportion of 556the optimal control corresponds to a bang arc u = 0 at the end of the bioprocess.

The latter strategy promotes nutrient uptake, which results in a faster depletion of 558 the substrate. It is interesting to note that, in opposition to previous results in the 559literature [7, 25], the presence of the turnpike properties [19] is not assured. Intuitively, 560the turnpike phenomenon would cause the time interval corresponding to the singular 561 arc to increase as the final time t_f increases. However, a quick comparison between 562Figures 4 and 5 shows that this is not the case, as the increase of t_f only produces 563 a larger 0-bang arc at the end of the bioprocess. This suggests that the duration 564of the initial phase dedicating a fraction of the resources to ribosomal proteins is 565fixed and independent of the duration of the batch process. Figure 6 also shows an 566 optimal trajectory, but with a different initial ribosomal concentration. According 567 to multiple simulations, this change shows an impact on the initial Fuller arc, that 568 569becomes perceptively larger, but has no major effects on the remaining of the process. 570 Additionally, we note that the concentration of precursor metabolites in the bioreactor remains negligible in comparison with the other quantities, a result that matches the 571 biological assumptions done in the modelling section.



FIG. 4. Numerical simulation of (BM-OCP) with initial conditions $s_0 = 0.1$, $p_0 = 0.001$, $r_0 = 0.1$, $\mathcal{V}_0 = 0.003$ and $t_f = 30$. Quantities in the right plot are shown as fractions of the total mass in the bioreactor $\mathcal{V}_e \Sigma / \beta$. The final volume $\mathcal{V}(t_f)$ is at 95% of $\mathcal{V}_e \Sigma / \beta$.

572

573 Figure 7 illustrates optimal trajectories in the sp-plane for different final times (20, 25, 30 and 40). Each trajectory approaches the singular curve $\ddot{H}_1 = 0$ given 574by expression (4.5) (obtained from the singular surface) through a Fuller arc, slides 575along it during a certain time interval, and then follows a trajectory obtained from 576 577 the u = 0 arc that approaches asymptotically (Full depletion). Naturally, the longer the simulation of the process, the closer the final state to (Full depletion). These 578results also confirm the observations previously done: the duration in time of the 579 singular arc is not directly related to the final time t_f . In fact, all the singular 580arcs start at approximately the same time instant and finish around t = 18. The 581582independence of the initial phase from the duration of the bioprocess is coherent with the fact that bacteria allocate resources in terms of their cellular composition and the 583 584 environment [7] (which, in this case, is described by the concentration of substrate in the medium), independently of the man-made notion of duration of the bioprocess. It 585 is also noteworthy that, while the processes exit the singular surface at similar times, 586the trajectories differ significantly as they exit the singular arc from different initial 587conditions (not only in the (s, p) plane but also in the original \mathbb{R}^4 space). 588



FIG. 5. Numerical simulation of (BM-OCP) with initial conditions $s_0 = 0.1$, $p_0 = 0.001$, $r_0 = 0.1$, $\mathcal{V}_0 = 0.003$ and $t_f = 40$. Quantities in the right plot are shown as fractions of the total mass in the bioreactor $\mathcal{V}_e \Sigma / \beta$. The final volume $\mathcal{V}(t_f)$ is at 99.8% of $\mathcal{V}_e \Sigma / \beta$.



FIG. 6. Numerical simulation of (BM-OCP) with initial conditions $s_0 = 0.1$, $p_0 = 0.001$, $r_0 = 0.3$, $\mathcal{V}_0 = 0.003$ and $t_f = 40$. Quantities in the right plot are shown as fractions of the total mass in the bioreactor $\mathcal{V}_e \Sigma / \beta$. The final volume $\mathcal{V}(t_f)$ is at 99.8% of $\mathcal{V}_e \Sigma / \beta$.

4.2.4. Alternative approach: prescribed performance in minimum time. 589 590 As confirmed by the finite-time case studied in the last section, the associated op-591 timal control problem with fixed final time yields a final volume $\mathcal{V}(t_f)$ that can be viewed as a fraction (between 0 and 1) of the total mass concentration in the system 592 Σ . Indeed, Theorem 4.1 showed that \mathcal{V} can reach its maximum value Σ only when 593t goes to infinity. Thus, (BM-OCP) can be reformulated to achieve a minimal-time 594transfer between an initial state (IC) (with biomass $\mathcal{V}(0) = \mathcal{V}_0$) and a final state with 595596 terminal constraint

$$\frac{597}{597} \quad (\mathrm{TC}) \qquad \qquad \mathcal{V}(t_f) = \eta \Sigma,$$



FIG. 7. Numerical simulation of (BM-OCP) showing different trajectories in the sp-plane. Initial conditions are set to $s_0 = 0.1$, $p_0 = 0.001$, $r_0 = 0.1$, $\mathcal{V}_0 = 0.003$. In all cases, the state approaches the singular curve $\ddot{H}_1 = 0$ and slides along it.

for a certain performance parameter $\eta \in [\eta_{\min}, 1)$, where $\eta_{\min} \doteq \mathcal{V}_0 / \Sigma$. The reformulated minimal-time OCP with Prescribed Performance writes

$$601 \quad (PP-OCP) \qquad \begin{cases} minimize & t_f, \\ subject \ to & dynamics \ of \ (WTB-M), \\ initial \ conditions \ (IC), \\ terminal \ constraints \ (TC), \\ u(\cdot) \in \mathcal{U}. \end{cases}$$

(

A natural question arising from OCPs with terminal constraints is the existence of a 603 solution. In this case, Theorem 4.1 guarantees that any final volume $\mathcal{V}(t_f) = \eta \Sigma$ can 604 605be reached in finite time, as long as $\eta \in [\eta_{\min}, 1)$. The latter ensures the existence of the solution for any $\eta \in [\eta_{\min}, 1)$. The study of the solutions of (PP-OCP) can 606be performed through an analogous PMP approach, with the difference that the 607 Hamiltonian is null for every $t \in [0, t_f]$ due to the free final time t_f , and that there 608 is no terminal constraint on $\lambda_{\mathcal{V}}$ (*i.e.* $\lambda_{\mathcal{V}}(t_f)$ is free). Given the similarity with the 609 previously analyzed case, the computations of such optimal control solution are not 610 611 explicated here. A numerical solution of the problem is shown in Figure 8.

612 **5. The product maximization case.** As done in the previous section, we 613 approach the product maximization objective in infinite time and finite time using 614 the full model (S) where $\gamma \in \mathbb{R}^+$.

5.1. Infinite-time problem. The problem of maximizing the product concentration at infinite time is given by the expression

$$\max_{618} \lim_{u^*} u^*_{t \to \infty} x(t)$$



FIG. 8. Numerical simulation of (PP-OCP) with initial conditions $s_0 = 0.1$, $p_0 = 0.003$, $r_0 = 0.1$ and $\mathcal{V}_0 = 0.003$. The performance parameter is fixed to $\eta = 0.8$, which is achieved in $t_f = 25.1$. Quantities in the right plot are shown as fractions of the total mass in the bioreactor $\dot{\mathcal{V}}_e \Sigma / \beta$.

which, using (3.3), can be rewritten as 619

$$\lim_{u^*} \lim_{t \to \infty} \mathcal{V}(t)$$

indicating that maximizing the metabolite concentration at infinite time equates to 622 minimizing the biomass. While, in the previous section, the conditions (Full depletion) 623 and (3.2) were sufficient to determine the asymptotic behavior of the system, the pres-624 ence of x in this particular problem does not allow a similar resolution. An alternative 625 approach, in order to better understand the role of cellular composition in the final 626 627 objective, is to study a simplified version of the problem assuming cellular composition is at steady state (a common property of bacterial cells during exponential growth). 628 We then propose a reduced version of the dynamical system by fixing the ribosomal 629 concentration to a constant value r^* , which reduces the dimension of the model by 630 one. Thus, the metabolite maximization problem is solved in terms of the parameter 631 r^* , which represents a simpler analysis that can potentially provide an insight into 632 633 the original optimization problem.

5.1.1. Constant ribosomal concentration. The system with Constant Ribo-634 somal Concentration r^* writes 635

636 (CRC-M)
$$\begin{cases} \dot{s} = -w_M(s)(1-r^*)\mathcal{V}, \\ \dot{p} = w_M(s)(1-r^*) - \gamma w_R(p)(1-r^*) - w_R(p)r^*(p+1), \\ \dot{\mathcal{V}} = w_R(p)r^*\mathcal{V}. \end{cases}$$

It can be seen that the study of the asymptotic behavior of system (S) applies to 638 (CRC-M) as the latter is a particular case of the original one (S) with $r_0 = u^* = r^*$. 639 640 We then maximize the final product x^* in terms of the constant ribosomal concentration $r^* \in [r^-, r^+]$. The latter is given by the expression 641

$$\max_{643} \lim_{r^*} \lim_{t \to \infty} x(t).$$

We can see that the quantity

$$z = s + (p+1)\mathcal{V} + \gamma \frac{1-r^*}{r^*}\mathcal{V}$$

644 is constant. Thus,

 $645 \\ 646$

$$\mathcal{V}^* + \gamma \frac{1 - r^*}{r^*} (\mathcal{V}^* - \mathcal{V}_0) = \Sigma$$

which, using (3.3), yields 647

$$x^* = \gamma \frac{1 - r^*}{r^*} (\mathcal{V}^* - \mathcal{V}_0).$$

Using the fact that $\mathcal{V}^* + x^* = \Sigma$ from (3.3), we see that x^* is monotone decreasing w.r.t. 650 r^* , and so the ribosomal concentration maximizing the infinite-time metabolite mass 651 is $r^* = r^-$. This is what one would expect intuitively in an infinite-time horizon, as 652 $r^* = r^-$ favors the production of metabolic proteins M, which catalyzes the synthesis 653 of metabolites X without arresting the production of biomass (given by the case 654 $r^* = 0$, which cannot be attained in trajectories starting in Γ). However, this kind 655 656 of strategies might perform sub-optimally for the finite horizon case, as not having enough biomass can translate into a slow metabolite synthesis rate. Mathematically, 657 this is represented through the presence of \mathcal{V} in the dynamical equation of x. Similar 658 to previous results [27], a first phase dedicated to bacterial growth can also foster 659 the production of X, which depends directly on the concentration of bacteria in the 660 661 bioreactor.

5.2. Finite-time problem. 662

5.2.1. Problem formulation. In this section, we study the metabolite produc-663 tion objective in (S) for a time interval $[0, t_f]$, in which the final concentration of 664metabolite in the bioreactor $x(t_f)$ is maximized. While the biomass maximization 665 objective $\mathcal{V}(t_f)$ was already studied in model (WTB-M) (representing a wild-type 666 bacteria), it is likely that the presence of the heterologous pathway responsible for 667 the production of x might affect the results already obtained. Thus, the two objec-668 tives are compared in model (S) from a numerical perspective. Given a fixed final 669 time $t_f > 0$, the OCP maximizing $c\mathcal{V}(t_f) + (1-c)x(t_f)$ (with $c = \{0,1\}$ depending 670 on the objective) with initial conditions (IC) writes 671

672 (MP-OCP)
673 (MP-OCP)

$$\begin{cases}
maximize \quad c\mathcal{V}(t_f) + (1-c)x(t_f), \\
subject \ to \quad dynamics \ of \ (S), \\
initial \ conditions \ (IC), \\
and \quad u(\cdot) \in \mathcal{U},
\end{cases}$$

It should be noted that the OCP is only valid for c = 0 (representing the metabolite 674 675 production objective) and c = 1 (for the biomass maximization objective), and thus the intermediate values $c \in (0,1)$ are not considered. One can easily see that, given 676 the dynamics of the system, applying PMP would yield a Hamiltonian linear in the 677 control for both values of c, which means that the solution of (MP-OCP) is similar to 678 that of (BM-OCP), given by expression (4.1). However, (MP-OCP) has an additional 679

level of complexity in comparison with (BM-OCP), produced by the presence of x in the model, as well as the term $-\gamma w_R(p)(1-r)$ in \dot{p} responsible for the consumption of resources for metabolite production. Thus, it was not possible to perform a study of the OCP using PMP. A numerical analysis of these results is provided in the next section.

5.2.2. Numerical simulations. The optimal trajectories were obtained follow-685 ing the same procedure as in the biomass maximization case. Figures 9, 10 and 11 are 686 solutions of (MP-OCP) where the objective is the final-time product maximization 687 $x(t_f)$ (obtained by fixing c = 0) for different final times t_f (40, 60 and 80, respec-688 tively) and with the same set of initial conditions. The metabolite synthesis rate is 689 690 set to $\gamma = 0.5$. As expected, and similar to the results obtained for (BM-OCP), the optimal control takes the value u = 0 for most of the interval, representing an alloca-691 tion strategy that promotes the synthesis of proteins of the metabolic machinery M, 692 consequently catalyzing the absorption of nutrients from the medium and the produc-693 tion of x. Solutions are characterized by a short u = 1 bang arc at the beginning of 694 695 the process, followed by a marginal singular arc before the final u = 0 bang arc. The 696 latter suggests that a valid sub-optimal approximation of the optimal control could be a simple bang-bang (1-0) control law. In that case, the only degree of freedom 697 would be the switching time between bang arcs, that can be easily computed through 698 numerical optimization methods. Additionally, and as it can be seen across Figures 9, 699 10 and 11, these results do not depend on the final time t_f : the final bang u = 0 of the 700 701 optimal control is always predominant in the control strategy, and becomes larger as 702 t_f increases. The finite-time numerical results are consistent with the results obtained for the infinite-time case in Section 5.1.1, in which the ribosomal sector of the cell r703 should be minimized to maximize the production of x. Figure 12 shows an optimal 704 trajectory solution of (MP-OCP) with cost function $\mathcal{V}(t_f)$. In this case, the allocation 705 strategy is described by an initial bang u = 1 followed by a singular arc that takes up 706 707 most of the optimal solution, with values near to an intermediate strategy u = 0.5; and a short bang u = 0 at the end. Such strategy leads to a bacterial composition 708 much more balanced between ribosomal and enzymatic proteins, in opposition to the 709 metabolite production case (with c = 0 for (MP-OCP)), where most of the bacterial 710 proteins were dedicated to the metabolic machinery. The latter behavior illustrates 711 a natural trade-off between two opposed strategies: maximizing the number of ribo-712somes to prioritize the synthesis of macromolecules over the production of x and, at 713 the same time, maximizing the enzymatic activity in order to consume the substrate 714 in the medium as fast as possible, towards (Full depletion). 715

Under the hypothesis that the mechanisms behind the allocation of cellular re-716717 sources in bacteria have been optimized to outgrow competitors, it is coherent to 718 think that a genetically modified bacteria (e.g. able to synthesize the metabolite X) would also maximize biomass. Thus, these internal mechanisms would produce 719 a cellular composition profile similar to the one shown in Figure 12. Indeed, this is 720 expected to happen even for artificially engineered specimens, as, in microorganisms, 721 722 natural selection occurs very rapidly (even for time windows in the order of hours) due to the strong genetic variability of bacteria and their astonishingly high doubling 723 724 rate. Then, interfering with this strategy so as to obtain allocations maximizing the production of metabolites in the bioreactor (as the ones shown in Figures 9, 10 and 725 11) can be accomplished by externally shutting down the production of ribosomes at 726 a certain time instant, which can be triggered by well-known biotechnological control 727 728 techniques such as growth arrest [11].



FIG. 9. Solution of (MP-OCP) for the metabolite maximization case $x(t_f)$, with $s_0 = 0.1$, $p_0 = 0.001$, $r_0 = 0.1$, $\mathcal{V}_0 = 0.003$ and $t_f = 60$. The final product concentration $x(t_f)$ is at 35% of the total mass in the bioreactor $\mathcal{V}_e \Sigma / \beta$, while the final volume $\mathcal{V}(t_f)$ is only at 16%.



FIG. 10. Solution of (MP-OCP) for the metabolite maximization case $x(t_f)$, with $s_0 = 0.1$, $p_0 = 0.001$, $r_0 = 0.1$, $\mathcal{V}_0 = 0.003$ and $t_f = 60$. The final product concentration $x(t_f)$ is at 62% of the total mass in the bioreactor $\mathcal{V}_e \Sigma / \beta$, while the final volume $\mathcal{V}(t_f)$ is only at 23%.

729 6. Discussion. This paper presented a mathematical study of bacterial resource allocation in batch processing, and its applications to biomass and metabolite pro-730 duction. A dynamical model considering the production of a value-added chemical 731 732 compound is proposed, and a study of the asymptotic behavior of the system based on mass conservation laws shows that, under all possible resource allocation strategies, 733 734 all the substrate in the medium is consumed. Then, the particular case of a wild-type bacteria with no metabolite production is analyzed, showing that the optimal allo-735cation propitious for biomass maximization—and thus, competitors outgrowing—is 736 accomplished through a rather low value of the optimal control u, which yields a very 737 738 high m/r ratio (i.e. the ratio of enzymatic to ribosomal mass fractions) in the cell



FIG. 11. Solution of (MP-OCP) for the metabolite maximization case $x(t_f)$, with $s_0 = 0.1$, $p_0 = 0.001$, $r_0 = 0.1$, $\mathcal{V}_0 = 0.003$ and $t_f = 60$. The final product concentration $x(t_f)$ is at 74% of the total mass in the bioreactor $\mathcal{V}_e \Sigma / \beta$, while the final volume $\mathcal{V}(t_f)$ is only at 19%.



FIG. 12. Solution of (MP-OCP) for the biomass maximization case $\mathcal{V}(t_f)$, with $s_0 = 0.1$, $p_0 = 0.001$, $r_0 = 0.1$, $\mathcal{V}_0 = 0.003$ and $t_f = 60$. The final product concentration $x(t_f)$ is at 27% of the total mass in the bioreactor $\mathcal{V}_e \Sigma / \beta$, while the final volume $\mathcal{V}(t_f)$ is at 56%.

throughout the bioprocess. Paradoxically, for the metabolite production case, this 739 kind of strategies would rather maximize the production of x, while for maximizing 740741 the biomass under the presence of the heterologous pathway, a more balanced cellular composition is required. Overall, results show that optimal allocation can be 742 743 accomplished through a two-phase control: a first phase of pure bacterial growth dedicated to produce as many ribosomal proteins as possible; followed by a production 744phase where the remainder of the feedstock is used to synthesize the compound of 745interest. While the first phase matches the natural bacterial behavior, the second 746747 one requires human intervention to arrest the production of ribosomes (by externally

setting u = 0). The obtained two-phased external control profile is in close agreement with well-known metabolic engineering techniques used in microbial cell factory [27].

The analysis presented in this paper raises interesting questions both from math-750 ematical and biological points of view. For instance, it would be worthwhile to further 751 752 study the potential presence (or absence) of the turnpike phenomenon in the optimal control solutions. Depending on the complexity of the OCP, it is often possible to 753 obtain an analytical proof of the exponential convergence of the singular arc to the 754 solution of the static OCP [25], and to find an explicit link between the length of the 755 singular arc and the duration of the bioprocess. From a biological perspective, includ-756ing additional substrates could broaden the approach to represent other well-studied 757 phenomena observed in bacterial growth. For example, under the presence of differ-758 ent nutrients in the culture, bacteria tend to favor (i.e. consume first) those that are 759 760 easier to metabolize, which is a phenomenon known as diauxic growth. This behavior has been extensively studied from an optimal control viewpoint, but without taking 761 into consideration cellular composition. Formulating more comprehensive dynamical 762models and studying their associated OCPs can be instrumental in understanding 763 764 natural allocation strategies in microbial growth, and in engineering synthetic control 765 schemes targeting industrial objectives.

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