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# Proteome allocation and the evolution of metabolic cross-feeding

#### Florian J. F. Labourel<sup>1,2,3\,\,</sup>, Vincent Daubin<sup>1</sup>, Frédéric Menu<sup>1</sup>, Etienne Rajon<sup>1</sup>

- <sup>1</sup>Univ Lyon, Universite Lyon 1, CNRS, Laboratoire de Biometrie et Biologie Evolutive
- UMR5558, Villeurbanne, France; <sup>2</sup>Milner Centre for Evolution, University of Bath, Bath
- BA2 7AY, United Kingdom; <sup>3</sup>Department of Life Sciences, University of Bath, Bath BA2
- 7AY, United Kingdom 7

#### Abstract a

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Metabolic cross-feeding (MCF) is a widespread type of ecological interaction where organisms 10 share nutrients. In a common instance of MCF, an organism incompletely metabolises sugars and 11 releases metabolites that are used by another as a carbon source to produce energy. Why would 12 the former waste edible food, and why does this preferentially occur at specific locations in the 13 sugar metabolic pathway (acetate and glycerol are preferentially exchanged) have challenged evo-14 lutionary theory for decades. Addressing these questions requires to model the cellular features in-15 volved; to this end, we built an explicit model of metabolic reactions, including their enzyme-driven 16 catalysis and the cellular constraints acting on the proteome that may incur a cost to expressing 17 all enzymes along a pathway. After showing that cells should in principle prioritise upstream reac-18 tions when metabolites are restrained inside the cell, we investigate how the diffusivity of these 19 metabolites may trigger the emergence of MCF in a population. We find that the occurrence of 20 MCF is rare and requires that an intermediate metabolite be extremely diffusive: indeed, up to 21 high membrane permeability coefficients, the expected evolutionary outcome is not a diversifica-22 tion that resembles MCF but a single genotype that instead overexpresses downstream enzymes. 23 Only at very high levels of membrane permeability and under distinctive sets of parameters should 24 the population diversify and MCF evolve. These results help understand the origins of simple mi-25 crobial communities, and may later be extended to investigate how evolution has progressively 26 built up today's extremely diverse communities. 27

#### Introduction 29

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Genetic diversification [1, 2] may occur when different ecological niches are encountered [3–5], for 30 instance when different carbon sources are available in the environment [6, 7]. What may at first 31 glance sound puzzling – why not using all the available nutrients? – finds an explanation in physi-32 ological and environmental constraints or even absolute incompatibilities that make specialists of 33 each resource outperform generalists [8–13]. Even more bewildering is the observation that diver-34 sification occurs in the homogeneous presence of a single energetic resource [14–17]. One finds a 35 clear example in chemostats or controlled experimental systems in which glucose is continuously 36 injected, where glucose consumers may evolve that release metabolites for others to use as carbon 37 sources [14, 18, 19]. This unidirectional by-product process is a form of metabolite cross-feeding 38 [20, 21], and its evolutionary underpinnings are still blurry [20, 22]. 39

In particular, the reasons why specific metabolites are more likely involved in cross-feeding 40 remain unclear. Indeed, a large number of metabolites produced by a glucose-reliant organism may constitute viable single carbon sources for others [for example, a glucose-reliant strain of Es-

Key words: Metabolism | Specialisation | Proteome optimisation | Gene expression | Mechanistic fitness

Significance statement: Can two species thrive on a single energetic resource? While the competitive exclusion principle predicts that one in the pair should go extinct, it may occur that an organism releases partly metabolised molecules in the environment, securing an ecological niche for a second organism in a specialisation process called metabolic cross-feeding. Here we investigate how evolution may favor the waste of a useful resource using a model that considers how a cell packed with proteins may be less efficient, hence favoring a shortening of metabolic pathways in order to reduce cell packing. Our model indicates that such specialisation only occurs under restricted conditions. Incidentally, this makes the signatures of cross-feeding. such as which metabolites are preferentially involved, quite predictable.

**⊠** For correspondence: fjfl20@bath.ac.uk

Data availability: All the scripts generated for this project are available at: https://github.com/FloTuzoLab/ Scripts-Evolution-CFproteome-allocation.

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- cherichia coli can theoretically produce up to 58 useful metabolites, 22]. Yet only two metabolites 43
- are commonly reported from experiments as being traded in such cross-feeding interactions. 44
- namely acetate and glycerol [14, 19, 23, 24]. In line with the fact that some of these lineages may 45
- have been predisposed to use these metabolites [23]. San-Roman and Wagner [25] have hypothe-46
- sized that this preferential evolution could be due to shorter mutational paths. Accordingly, mod-47
- ifying the metabolic network to produce these interacting strains would require fewer and less
- destabilising mutations and could thence arise more readily. But their conclusion is that acetate
- or glycerol trades are no more likely than others to appear through mutation, making the mystery 50
- about their involvement and potential predispositions of strains in the evolution of metabolic 51
- cross-feeding even deeper. 52
- 53

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Adaptation is often incomprehensible without considering the ability of an organism to per-54 form a task as being dependent on internal constraints [26-29]. For example, fully expressing 55 all enzymes along a metabolic pathway may incur a fitness cost [30, 31], to such an extent that 56 sacrificing a part of a pathway becomes beneficial [32, 33]. Cells whose cytoplasm gets crowded 57 with proteins actually pay a two-fold cost [34]. First, producing enzymes incurs a direct energetic 58 expense, approximately proportional to the sum of enzyme concentrations in the cell [35–37]. Sec-50 ond, cell packing eventually compromises the diffusion of proteins, thereby hindering metabolic 60 efficiency [38, 39].

- In a previous study, we have shown that the evolution of enzyme kinetic parameters and con-62 centrations is contingent on their competition with other processes for their substrate [34]. One of 63 these competing processes may be leakage through the cell membrane, such that highly diffusive 64 metabolites should be processed by more efficient or concentrated enzymes. The combination 65 of this requirement for high concentrations, and the cost of an abundant proteome, could make 66 these metabolites the preferential breakpoints in a metabolic pathway. Very few metabolites can 67
- diffuse through membranes, either because of their size or due to their electronic properties [40]. 68 Such diffusion may be direct, as is the case for glycerol, or indirect when a non-diffusive metabolite 69
- 71

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can spontaneously transform into a diffusive one, as is the case with acetate [41, 42]. 70 In this work – see Figure 1 for an overview of the metabolic model – we first determine how cells 72 should allocate their proteome when metabolite diffusion is limited. We find that upstream reac-73

tions should be favored when selective pressures are similar along the pathway. We then assess 74

the hypothesis that cross-feeding evolves in response to the high diffusion rate of an intermediate 75 metabolite, due to the incurred selection on downstream enzymes. Indeed, a genotype produc-76

ing the diffusive metabolite must also be very efficient at metabolising it to prevent its loss, and

thus pays a high cost over-expressing downstream enzymes that, at some point, may become in-78 surmountable. Interestingly, a second genotype feeding on the intermediate metabolite and only 70

expressing downstream enzymes would thrive in this context where the metabolite has become 80

a resource. This is because, on top of saving on the expression of upstream enzymes, extensive 81 over-expression downstream is no longer a requirement as the high permeability coefficient of 82

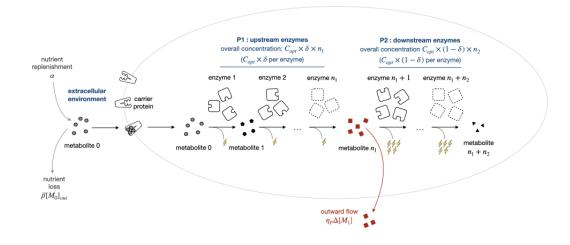
the metabolite actually helps its uptake. Yet, the overall evolutionary process must be continuous, 83

instead of the schematic two-steps sequence presented here, making it difficult to predict when 84 the evolution of cross-feeding should occur. 85

In order to embrace this continuity, we use Adaptive Dynamics [43, 44] to model the evolu-86 tion of the pattern of enzyme expression along the pathway. This framework is particularly suited 87 to model the complex ecological interactions that may arise as the genotype(s) composing the 88 population shape their environment [32, 45], by controlling the equilibrium frequencies of both 89 the nutrient and the diffusing metabolite. We find that MCF sometimes evolves, characterised by

- 90
- an evolutionary diversification giving rise to the coexistence between a genotype only expressing 91 the enzymes upstream the diffusing metabolite, and another one expressing the enzymes down-
- 92 stream. This occurs at very high membrane permeability levels of the diffusing metabolite, only

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**Figure 1.** Overview of the model: the pathway is initiated by a carrier protein and comprised of  $n_1$  upstream enzymes defining the sub-pathway  $P_1$  and  $n_2$  downstream enzymes defining the sub-pathway  $P_2$ . Allocation of the proteome is driven by two parameters: (i) C<sub>ant</sub> coincides with the adaptive proteome fraction dedicated to one of the reaction of the full pathway  $P_1 + P_2$  when all enzyme concentrations are identical (the case of no differential allocation – see section Optimal metabolic allocation); (ii) the parameter  $\delta$  (resp. 1 –  $\delta$ ) corresponds to the fraction dedicated to the first sub-pathway  $P_1$  (resp.  $P_2$ ). The extracellular dynamic of the nutrient (metabolite 0) is based on a constant replenishment-degradation process - see Materials and Methods section. Within the pathway, each reaction follows Briggs Haldane kinetics (with or without reversibility) where enzyme efficiency is constant and studied as a parameter. These reactions each provide a fitness yield, shown above as lightning, proportional to the amount of product produced and to the specific yield of energy gain set for reactions (1 energy unit per reaction per nutrient for upstream enzymes and 5 for downstream enzymes in the above example) – see section on overexpression. Fitness is simultaneously impeded by the cost of expression - production and crowding - and, depending on the subsection again, by the toxicity resulting from the total concentration of metabolites. The metabolite produced at the end of the upstream pathway  $P_1$  is susceptible to leak through the membrane according to a permeability  $\eta_P$  – studied as a parameter – and the gradient of concentration between the extra and intracellular environments. Once in the extracellular environment, it is available to other cells but may also be degraded (like metabolite 0)

compatible with diffusion rates reported for acetate or glycerol. We also find that MCF requires

- moderate to high levels regarding the intracellular selective constraints acting on metabolites along
- 96 the pathway.

#### 97 **Results**

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**Optimal metabolic allocation and cell constraints** 

#### Best States S

We first assume that all enzymes have an equal concentration and consider its evolution. Increas-100 ing concentration enhances the efficiency of catalysis and thus the production of energy, but with 101 diminishing returns [34, 46]. It also incurs costs, firstly due to the actual energy cost of making 102 proteins, and secondly because high protein concentrations in the cell decrease the efficiency of 103 reactions due to cell packing. The former is captured in our model by a linear cost inflicted to extra 104 production, and the latter through a penalty on  $k_{cl}$  whose effect has been estimated [39, 47] and 105 modelled in previous studies [38] - [see Model and 34]. 106 To approach the case of reactions involved in the carbon cycle [48], we consider a pathway 107 comprised of 40 reactions and initiated by facilitated diffusion through a transporter [49], where 108

- energy is produced at each step in the process see Figure 1 and assessed the effect of reaction vield – see SM Figure S3. Reactions follow irreversible Briggs-Haldane kinetics [50], with kinetic
- constants set by default half an order of magnitude higher than the median observed for enzymes
- involved in the central metabolism [51] ( $k_f = 10^{6.25} M^{-1} s^{-1}$ ,  $k_{cat} = 10^{2.25} s^{-1}$ ) see SM Table S2 for the

full set of parameters we used; besides, we also consider the case where reactions are reversible 113 - see SM Text S1.2. Setting these efficiencies above the average found for enzymes involved in 114 central carbon metabolism is conservative as it diminishes the selective pressure that promotes 115 higher enzyme expression, and thus ensures that we are not examining an implausible range of 116 values (eg. because the whole set would be biased by some enzymes that need not be efficient 11 due to specific metabolic features). The local context of reactions – including reaction reversibility 11 and metabolite toxicity – may also affect metabolic efficiency, as captured by a linear degradation 119 rate of each metabolite *n* in this instance of the model [34] – see SM Text S1.2 for more complex 120 selective pressures. Nutrients are added to the environment at a constant rate  $\alpha$  and degraded at 121 a linear rate  $\beta$  – the latter also applying to metabolites released by cells in the medium (see below) 122 whose levels are such that without cells, substrate concentration equilibriates at 1M. 123

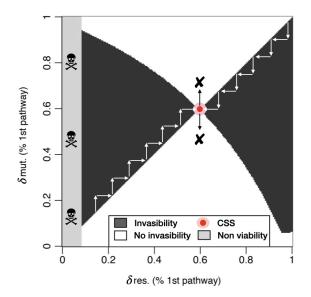
For all combinations of the parameters above considered, the evolutionarily expected concen-12/ trations of the 40 enzymes in the pathway sum up to 15 - 20 % of the whole proteome (see SM 125 section Text S1). As we have shown previously, adaptive outcomes depend on a complex inter-126 action between cell constraints, enzymes concentrations and kinetic efficiencies that cannot be 127 captured through the influence of classical experimenters' parameters (such as  $K_M$  or the activity 128 constant  $k_{ext}[E_{tot}]/K_{M}$  for instance) alone [34]. The highest fraction is self-evidently obtained in 120 conditions where selection for the rates of reactions is acute, such that increasing concentration 130 becomes beneficial, to a certain extent, despite amplifying intracellular crowding and production 131 costs. These predictions are consistent with estimates among unicellular species [48]: in most 132 cases, enzymes involved in the carbon cycle constitute approximately 20 % of the proteome. In 133 the remaining of this study, the overall concentration of enzymes in the pathway is considered 134 fixed at its evolutionary expectation by default, *i.e.* that obtained for the specific combination of 135 parameters studied when assuming an identical allocation all along the pathway. 136

#### <sup>137</sup> Overexpression in upstream reactions

<sup>138</sup> We then studied how cells should distribute enzyme expression along a pathway split into two <sup>139</sup> parts of equal lengths. This is a proteome allocation problem, since the overall concentration is <sup>140</sup> fixed to an (adaptive) optimum as just described; we study the evolution of the part of this over-<sup>141</sup> all concentration allocated to the first half  $P_1$  of the metabolic pathway,  $\delta$ , which we assume can <sup>142</sup> change by mutation in the range  $[0, 1] - \delta = 0$  coinciding with no investment in  $P_1$  such that all of <sup>143</sup> the resources are allocated to  $P_2$ , while  $\delta = 1$  corresponds to all resources being allocated to  $P_1$ <sup>144</sup> (and none to  $P_2$ ).

The evolution of  $\delta$  is modelled using adaptive dynamics [32, 43, 44], as is appropriate when the 145 fate of a mutant can depend on the environment shaped by one (or several) resident genotype(s). 146 Here the resident strategy may impact the equilibrium concentrations of the nutrient and of the 147 metabolites produced along the pathway. Nonetheless at this stage, each metabolite is considered 148 to be unable to diffuse across the membrane such that their concentration in the environment remains zero. Therefore in this case, the evolutionary outcome is always a single allocation strategy 150  $\delta_{i}$  as exemplified in Fig. 2. In this figure, whatever the initial resident strategy in place in the pop-151 ulation, evolutionary trajectories will converge to  $\delta \approx 0.6$ , and, once in place in the population (as 152 resident) this latter strategy will be stable against the invasion by mutants with any other  $\delta$ . These 153 features make an enhanced expression of upstream reactions – with  $\delta \approx 0.6$  – the evolutionarily 154 expected outcome, also described as a convergent stable strategy – CSS, hereafter, 155

In the presence of degradation, the adaptive investment in the first part of the pathway is generally above 0.5: remarkably,  $\delta$  evolves to more than 0.6 even at very low degradation rates where the resulting loss in metabolites is less than 1% along the pathway (see Table S3 of SM for an analysis of the influence of degradation on the loss of metabolites and Figure S5 of SM for more details). One factor that pushes upstream expression towards higher adaptive values is the selective pressure imposed by transporters – see Figure S5-B of SM for the influence of transporters. Yet, the process also holds when this influence is set apart. A plausible explanation is that within bioRxiv preprint doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/2021.12.17.473181; this version posted December 3, 2022. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder, who has granted bioRxiv a license to display the preprint in perpetuity. It is made available under aCC-BY-NC 4.0 International license.



**Figure 2.** Example of the outcome of Adaptive Dynamics shown through a pairwise invasibility plot – PIP, hereafter – where black (resp. white) areas stand for positive (resp.negative) invasive fitness. The grey area represents an area where no strategy is viable because it cannot produce enough energy to reach the level set as corresponding to the demographic steady-state even when only one individual is present. When a mutant arrives in the population of resident strategies, it takes the place of the resident strategy if its invasion fitness is positive, a process represented by the white arrows. Here, below the CSS, mutants with higher values (black area above the left lower corner to right upper corner bisector) than the resident invades and evolution pushes resident to converge towards the CSS, while above the CSS, it is the other way around. This PIP shows how cells should spread their content, according to the respective fractions  $\delta$  and  $1 - \delta$ , between upstream and downstream enzymes and exemplifies that under the specific set of parameters chosen, they should prioritise upstream reactions since  $\delta > 0.5$ , as was generally found – see text for more details.

an irreversible pathway as the one modelled, upstream enzymes not only concur to fitness di-163 rectly through the energy generated by their respective reaction, but also through their indirect 164 contributions to downstream reactions – see SM Text S2 and Figure S6 for the analysis of this phe-165 nomenon through a more tractable model showing that the optimal strategy should always be to 166 prioritise upstream reactions. This is also consistent with the fact that this unequal allocation holds 167 when downstream reactions produce far more energy than their upstream counterparts so that 168 upstream reactions contribute mostly indirectly to fitness (and is significantly heightened in the 169 opposite case); even when increasing the yield of the reactions in the second half of the pathway 170 tenfold as described for the carbon cycle [52],  $\delta$  remains close to 0.6. Besides, the irreversible loss 171 of metabolites caused by an increase in the degradation rate increases the asymmetry in fitness 172 contributions further and thereby tends to increase the adaptive ratio of upstream to downstream 173 enzyme expression – see Figures S5 and S15 of SM. 174 Such asymmetries in fitness contributions might help explain why enzymes catalysing reactions 175 more upstream tend to face stronger selection [53–55]. Overexpression of upstream enzymes can 176 nonetheless be - at least, partly - counteracted by selection for homogeneity in metabolite con-177 centrations, as is the case when toxicity is high (Figure S7-B of SM) and equally spread, and it also 178 depends on reactions reversibility, including that of the transporter, inasmuch as reversibility also 179 shifts the balance between direct and indirect contributions of each subpathway: if downstream 180 reactions are more reversible than upstream ones, cells should prioritise them, and vice versa -181 see Figure S7-A of SM. Be that as it may, considering realistic combinations of these pressures – 182 moderate toxicity and degradation rates as well as the average reversibility found in central carbon 183 metabolism [56] tends to corroborate the need for upstream overexpression, as shown in Section 184

- 185 Text S2.2 of SM. One constraint that can reshuffle the deck of cards is the permeability of the cell
- 186 membrane, which was hitherto not considered.

#### 187 Membrane permeability and cross-feeding

#### 188 Membrane permeability impacts proteome allocation

189 Membranes are only permeable to a few metabolites, owing to their unique chemical features

<sup>190</sup> [40]. In our model, we allowed the metabolite produced by the last reaction of the first half of <sup>191</sup> the metabolic pathway to diffuse – see the model overview in Figure 1 and the Model section for

- details with permeability rates ranging from  $P = 10^{-12}$  dm.s<sup>-1</sup> to  $10^{-4}$  dm.s<sup>-1</sup>, in line with empirical
- estimates [40]. Metabolites making their way across the membrane have two consequences. First,

they are lost for the cell that has produced them, which may act as a selective pressure for limiting

diffusion. Second, they may accumulate in the external environment and be available to other individuals as a resource.

A cell has little leverage to limit outward diffusion: the most obvious solution is to use the 197 metabolite before it is lost, which in our model is possible through an increase in the concentration 198 of enzymes acting on the second part of the pathway. This is indeed what happens: the optimal 199 allocation shifts from a higher concentration in the first part of the pathway – owing to the afore-200 mentioned factors – to a higher concentration in the second part as permeability increases, as shown for instance in Fig. 3 in the case of a low degradation rate (grey dots). The results presented 202 in Fig. 3 are for proteins with kinetic parameters being slightly higher than the median reported for 203 enzymes in the carbohydrate and energy pathway [51]. Higher efficiencies consistently produce a 204 gualitatively similar result of a downward shift in allocation to the first part of the metabolic path-205 way, P<sub>1</sub>, as permeability increases (see Figure S12 in SM). This outcome is also robust to the possible 206 existence of different energetic yields along a pathway – see Figure S8 for the influence of yield on 207 the optimal allocation – and most often holds when introducing other mechanistic constraints – 208 see Figures S13 and S14. 200

#### <sup>210</sup> High permeability coefficients can promote cross-feeding

The overinvestment in the second part of pathway,  $P_{0}$  limits the loss of the leaky metabolite. As 211 permeability increases, the investment in  $P_2$  must increase further, but this strategy becomes less 212 efficient such that the external concentration of the metabolite rises. This, in turn, may give a se-213 lective advantage to genotypes that give up preventing the metabolite's leakage by increasing their 214 contribution to the first or second part of the pathway. From that point on, a new ecological niche 215 may emerge, that can ultimately result in an evolutionary diversification between two genotypes. 216 These situations can be identified by a specific type of pairwise invasibility plots where the singular 217 strategy is convergent but evolutionarily unstable – as shown in Fig. 3-C for the case of a high degra-218 dation rate, the singular strategy at  $\delta \approx 0.65$  can be invaded by nearby mutants – called a branching 210 point. An adaptive diversification may occur at a branching point, requiring that we study the fate 220 of mutants invading a pair of coexisting strategies, instead of a single one, through trait evolution 221 plots (SM Figure S9). 222

Branching points indeed lead to an adaptive diversification as the diffusion of the intermediate 223 metabolite increases above  $10^{-6}$  dm.s<sup>-1</sup>, with the two most extreme strategies,  $\delta = 0$  and  $\delta = 1$ . 224 evolving and forming a stable coalition (see SM - Text S3.1.2). This is characteristic of a complete 225 metabolic cross-feeding, where a genotype transforms a nutrient into a metabolite released in 226 the environment, and a second genotype feeds exclusively on that metabolite. For moderately 227 high permeability rates – around  $P = 10^{-6} dm \cdot s^{-1}$  – the evolutionary outcome is more dubious as 228 invasion is only possible by distant mutants; the result, in this case, will depend on the distribution 229 of mutational effects and cannot be studied using classic adaptive dynamics methods. 230

It should be noted that the results in Figure 3 correspond to a metabolic pathway with unequal
 contributions of reactions to the energy needs of the cell (downstream reactions produce more

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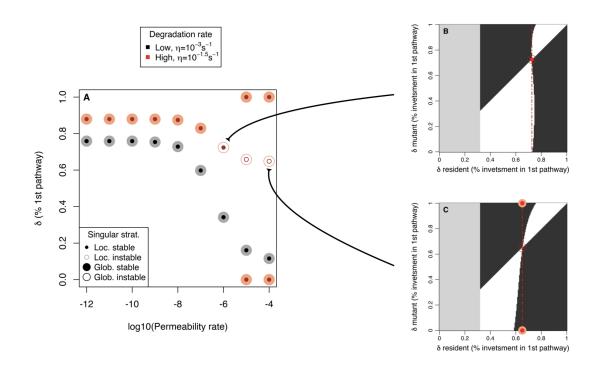


Figure 3. Permeability influences the evolution of strategies of enzyme allocations along a metabolic pathway, with the occurrence of cross-feeding at high permeability coefficients depending on the degradation rate. Two degradation rates are considered here (two other ones in Fig. S8 of SM) : low  $\eta = 10^{-3}$  s<sup>-1</sup> in grey and moderate  $\eta = 10^{-1.5}$  s<sup>-1</sup> in red. The enzymes catalysing reactions in either of two parts of the metabolic pathway, with their relative concentrations represented by  $\delta$  (% 1st pathway), have kinetic parameters typical of those intervening in the carbon cycle ( $k_f = 10^{6.25} \text{ M}^{-1}$ . s<sup>-1</sup> and  $k_{cat} = 10^{2.25} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ); we also assume here that reactions in the second part  $P_2$  of the pathway produce 10 times more energy than reactions in the first part  $P_1$ . For low permeability rates (below 10<sup>-6</sup> dm.s<sup>-1</sup>), the evolutionarily expected strategy is always globally and locally stable - as in Figure 2 - and consists in investing more in the first part of the pathway as discussed in the text - and described in further details through Fig. S5 and S15 (see the latter for the same enzyme efficiencies). Increasing permeability coefficients above  $10^{-7}$  dm.s<sup>-1</sup> results in a decrease in the investment in the first part of the pathway,  $\delta$ , with different consequences for low and high degradation rates. At low degradation rates (in grey on panel A), lowering  $\delta$ , *i.e.* increasing the investment in the second part, remains the most efficient strategy. At high degradation rates (in red on panel A), however, high permeability coefficients result in singular strategies that are both convergent (they evolve from any starting  $\delta$ ) and evolutionarily unstable (they can be invaded by mutants with close (locally unstable) or distant (globally unstable) allocation strategy  $\delta$  – see panel C). This can lead to adaptive diversification, resulting in a stable coalition of strategies, that is, a population made of coexisting genotypes with different values of  $\delta$ . The coalition can be determined (see SM - Figure S9) ; it is comprised of genotypes with  $\delta = 1$  (expressing only the first part of the pathway  $P_1$ ) and of genotypes with  $\delta = 0$  (expressing only the second part  $P_2$ ), corresponding to metabolic cross-feeding. Panel B represents a permeability  $P = 10^{-6}$  dm.s<sup>-1</sup> for which the singular strategy is globally instable but locally stable, so that the evolutionary outcome should be contingent to the mutational landscape.

than upstream ones, as observed on average in the carbon cycle). Equalling the energy contribu-233 tions of all reactions often prevents the occurrence of cross-feeding. Yet, cross-feeding emergence 234 was less sensitive to sub-pathway theoretical yields when we introduced the altogether realistic 235 possibility of transporters and upstream enzymes co-expression, as exemplified on Figure S11. 236 Reversibility and toxicity may also be involved in defining the critical point where cross-feeding 237 coalitions can appear – see Section Text S3.3. Overall, the tipping point of  $P = 10^{-6} \text{ dm} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$  seems 238 robust across all internal selective environments, albeit not being a sufficient condition as it also 239 depends on the specific combination of constraints associated with these environments. 240 More generally, the evolution of cross-feeding appears contingent on many factors. For in-241 stance, selection on the overall concentration of enzymes contributing to the pathway is impor-242

tant (eg. because it can reduce diffusive constraints), such that allowing higher concentrations 243 precludes the occurrence of cross feeding. This is because increasing downstream concentrations. 244 which may efficiently deal with metabolite diffusion, comes at a lower cost under these circum-245 stances. This illustrates that the occurrence of cross-feeding may critically depend on the other 246 tasks – and their contributions to fitness, which was not directly considered here, though the degra-247 dation rate may partly capture the behaviour – performed by cells and thereby on selection acting 248 on their dedicated proteome, as the global proteome concentration may only vary to a small extent [40]. No less important should be the size of cells since smaller ones mechanically come with 250 higher relative leakiness due to larger surface-to-volume ratios, which could in turn favor the occur-251 rence of cross-feeding. Cells can nonetheless adapt their size to their content, at least to a certain 252 extent [37], which may limit the costs incurred by an increase in concentration and prevent the 253 occurrence of cross-feeding. 25/

Finally, while in our model the efficiency of a reaction may only be changed through enzyme con-255 centrations, kinetic parameters may also evolve and thus represent a relevant alternative in some 256 specific parts of the metabolic network. The evolution of cross-feeding could thus also be con-257 tingent on the relative availability of mutations changing concentration versus kinetic parameters. 258 Therefore, while this model includes much of the available information about enzyme kinetics and 250 the selective constraints acting on the proteome, actually predicting how and when cross-feeding 260 should evolve will require more efforts to better understand the building of global epistasis along 261 metabolic networks and how critically this depends on the environment. 262

#### 263 Discussion

The fact that few metabolites – acetate and glycerol, noticeably – are more likely involved in the 264 evolution of cross-feeding has been a conundrum for as long as experiments have revealed this 265 phenomenon [25]. Here, we have put forward an explanation based on the necessity for a cell to 266 optimise its proteome allocation, accounting for incurred costs and physical constraints like the dif-267 ferential permeability of a cell's membrane to metabolites. Indeed, contrary to other metabolites. 268 acetate is in constant chemical equilibrium with the highly diffusive acetic acid [42], and glycerol 269 readily leaks towards the environment [40], which may predispose them to be involved in cross-270 feeding. 271

That metabolites rather upstream in a metabolic pathway – and therefore of potential use to 272 generate more energy – will create a novel ecological niche when released is straightforward. But 273 whether evolution will take this path when some genotypes have the potential to reduce the leak 274 is worthy of a careful examination. In a number of cases that we have considered and that fall into the realistic range of parameters, proteome allocation will evolve in such a way that it prevents, or 276 at least limits, the diffusion of the molecule. Only under some restricted conditions – that we have 277 shown to coincide with the features of the two aforementioned metabolites – will cross-feeding 278 evolve, characterised by a functional specialisation between a part of the population that trans-270 forms the nutrient into the diffusive metabolite, and another part that uses the metabolite as a 280 carbon source, echoing work on digital evolution that similarly pointed to the possible contingency 281 of cross-feeding [57, 58]. 282

283

Beyond the existence of intrinsic cellular leakiness, one process that may facilitate the emergence of cross-feeding, or that may be co-opted to foster its efficacy when it is in place, is the cheap uptake and secretion of metabolites (*eg.* through facilitated transport) [42, 59, 60]. Even a slight leakage may for instance be enough to sustain a cross-feeder with high affinity transporters such as the one reported in *E.coli* for acetate [61]. This metabolic strategy, where cells actively give up a metabolite even though it still has the potential to bring fitness contributions, is often known as overflow metabolism [62, 63] and also frequently involves acetate. We did not consider the

existence of a specific cost to the second part of the pathway, as has been documented in the past

- to explain overflow [64, 65]; nor did we account for other possible costs such as the existence of
- a localised toxicity [66] or the extra membrane occupancy involved in cellular respiration [67, 68].
- <sup>294</sup> These processes may promote the advent of cross-feeding, for they could bring extra fitness to an
- <sup>295</sup> organism expressing one or the other part of the pathway.

From a broader ecological perspective, nutrients are hardly ever constantly renewed in na-296 ture: they are subject at least to some stochasticity, and most often than not occur through unpredictable periods of feast and famine. Insight into how proteome allocation may evolve in this 298 context, and whether it should likely involve cross-feeding, can be gained from the existence of 299 so-called diauxic shifts, where the phenotype can switch from the production of acetate to its con-300 sumption when the medium is enriched in this nutrient [59, 69]. In this case, it appears that the 301 environment could be used to store intermediate metabolites, both increasing a genotype's ability 302 to uptake and use glucose when it is present, and its ability to await its renewal otherwise. Such 303 plasticity in expressing different parts of a metabolic pathway should prevent, to some extent, the 304 evolution of fixed specialists (as considered here) and further hinder the evolution of cross-feeding. 305 We thus postulate that cross-feeding might only evolve in environments stable enough to prevent 306 the evolution of plasticity. 307 Biology is actually teeping with interactions and emergent properties that complicate the big 308 picture [70]. And, if functional simplicity may exist at the ecological scale [71], the ultimate under-309

pinnings behind community assemblies are still blurred by the combination between a long and tu-310 multuous evolutionary history and the wide prevalence of high order interactions, both within and 311 between organisms, and in relation to the environment [57, 72, 73]. Addressing these community-312 level guestions cannot bypass the existence of lower level features such as the epistatic relation-313 ships stemming from the joint effect of enzyme kinetic parameters [74] and their expression along 314 pathways [75]; nor can we study metabolic evolution without a careful examination of their impact 315 on the cellular micro-environment. We believe that the present study, by accounting for these 316 interactions at a primordial ecological stage, will help explain how (some of) these communities 317 appeared in the first place and how this may have then fuelled the scaffolding process underlying 318 the building of microbial societies. 319

#### 320 Models

#### 321 Metabolic Model of fitness

Cell fitness results from the biomass and energy produced along a metabolic pathway (eg. ATP). 322 The pathway is initiated by carrier proteins with  $V_{Tm} = 1mM/s$  and  $K_T = 10mM$  (see SM Text S1 for 323 details and justification), passively transporting nutrients inside cells and whose features are based 324 on those for glucose in yeasts, as detailed elsewhere [34]. Nutrients are added (resp. eliminated) at 325 a constant rate  $\alpha$  (resp.  $\beta$ ) in the external environment. The metabolic pathway is linear, comprising 326  $N_{\rm e}$  (40 in the paper, but see SM for other values) reactions catalysed by enzymes whose levels of 327 expression may evolve. The product of the *i*<sup>ieth</sup> reaction is used as the substrate of the next one. 328 These metabolites are constantly degraded at a rate n or fuelling toxicity T according to processes 329 justified elsewhere [34] and also detailed at the beginning of the SM (introduction of section Text S1 330 and subsection Text S1.2). Each reaction (i) follows either reversible or irreversible Briggs Haldane kinetics [76]: 332

$$E_{j} + S_{j} \xrightarrow{k_{f,act,j}} ES_{j} \xrightarrow{k_{cat,j}} E_{j} + P_{j}$$
(1)

Irreversible reactions are modeled by setting  $k_{inh} = 0$  – in this simple setting, the system can be solved for each pair of successive reactions since they do not feedback on upstream reactions, so that one has to solve N quadratic equations of the form:

$$Vm_{j}\frac{[S_{j}]}{[S_{j}]+K_{M,j}} = Vm_{j+1}\frac{[S_{j+1}]}{[S_{j+1}]+K_{M,j+1}},$$
(2)

- <sup>333</sup> where  $V_m$  and  $K_M$  depends on microscopic parameters  $k_f$  and  $k_{cat}$ , as well as enzyme concentra-
- tions while  $\eta$  is the degradation rate (leakiness is modelled in a similar manner than the degrada-
- tion rate but depends on the gradient between internal and external concentrations so that it also impacts the environment through the latter). Otherwise, reversibility is spread equally between
- impacts the environment through the latter). Otherwise, reversibility is spread equally between backward parameters  $k_r$  and  $k_{inh,act}$  (eg. if  $K_{rev} = 1/9$ ,  $k_r = k_{cat}/3$  and  $k_{inh,act} = k_{f,act}/3$ ) and the system
- <sup>337</sup> Dackward parameters  $k_r$  and  $k_{inh,act}$  (eg. if  $K_{rev} = 1/9$ ,  $k_r = k_{cat}/3$  and  $k_{inh,act} = k_{f,act}/3$ ) and the system <sup>338</sup> of N equations is solved using Broyden's method [77]. The actual values for  $k_{inh,act}$  and  $k_{f,act}$  depend
- on the cellular constraints see next subsection of Model.
- Each reaction produces energy. This is a simplification as some reactions in the carbon cycle do
- not, unimportant as we consider the global expression of large portions of a pathway. We consider
- the case where contributions are equal along the pathway as well as other more realistic setups.

#### 343 Cellular constraints

- Cell proteomes face two intrinsic constraints: (i) the cost of protein expression and (ii) the burden entailed by molecular crowding. We model (i) through a cost linear with protein expression, proportional to constant c [36]. We considered values of c such that the whole cytoplasmic proteome – the enzymes in the pathway and other free enzymes – costs 5 to 50% of the whole cell budget. We
- model molecular crowding (ii) through a non-linear decrease of diffusion [38, 39] that changes the
- affinity constant  $k_{\rm f}$  to  $k_{\rm f,act}$  in the model with irreversible reactions, according to equation:

$$k_{\text{fact}} = k_{\text{f}} \cdot 10^{-([E_{\text{other}}] + \sum_{i=1}^{40} [E_{tot,i}])/[M_b]},\tag{3}$$

where  $[E_{tot,i}] = [E_i] + [ES_i], [M_b] = 3 \cdot 10^{-3} M$  represents the scaling factor for the effect of diffusion,

- while  $[E_{other}]$  denotes the sum of the concentrations of other cytoplasmic proteins than the 40
- under consideration. In the model with reversible reactions,  $k_{inh}$  is also affected by crowding, which is a conservative assumption as reverse reactions might be less sensitive to the diffusive process
- owing to the preexisting co-localisation between substrate molecules and enzymes. 354 Our model includes three processes involving the metabolites produced that select for the en-355 hancement of enzyme activity, drawing a complex trade-off on the coexpression of enzymes: (1) 356 metabolites can be lost, either because they are involved in parasitic reactions or because they are 357 subject to targeted degradation [78], modelled through a linear degradation rate n; (2) metabolites 358 can be toxic for the cell, for they engage in parasitic reactions, for instance through promiscuous in-350 teractions [79]: (3) highly reversible reactions within a pathway may also require efficient enzymes 360 to maintain a high net flux [80]. We considered these three processes in various instances of our 361 model, as described in SM Text S1; the results presented in the paper mainly comprise the action 362 of a linear degradation rate, which provides a good qualitative understanding of how processes 363 impacting the metabolites also impact selection on enzymes. Finally, the permeability of cell mem-364 brane to a given metabolite also acts as a constraint, which is introduced here by considering that 365
- one metabolite in the pathway diffuses passively at a rate  $\eta_d$  on Figure 1, we show where this process occurs.

#### 368 Ecological equilibria

As to perform the adaptive dynamics analysis, we need to determine the ecological equilibrium set 369 by a given genotype or coalition. To this aim, we first compute the value of the net flux (number 370 of energy units per individual per unit of time)  $\Phi_{net N}$  for a given population size N. As long as this 371 flux is lower (or higher) than an arbitrary value  $\Phi_{net} = 10^{-4} M \cdot s^{-1}$ , N is increased (or decreased) 372 at the next iteration (by one unit when the flux gets close enough from this value). The algorithm 373 is stopped, either when the difference between these fluxes is lower than  $10^{-6}\Phi_{reg}$ , or when it os-374 cillates between two neighbouring values ( $N_{eq}$  is then set to the average between these values). 375 The ecological equilibrium, is defined by the nutrient and metabolite concentrations in the envi-376 ronment at this demographic equilibrium. Fitness values of strategies are then calculated in these conditions of equilibrium. 378

#### 379 Adaptive Dynamics of enzyme expression

We use Adaptive Dynamics [32, 43, 44] to model the evolution of enzyme expression along the metabolic pathway. This framework consider rare mutations, such that a resident "strategy" – cor-381 responding to a given expression pattern – is assumed to have reached its demographic equilib-382 rium before a mutant strategy appears in the population. At this demographic equilibrium, births 383 compensate for deaths in the population, resulting in a concentration of nutrients specific of the 38/ resident (see previous section). The fitness of any mutant strategy is then determined for each 385 resident equilibrium, which enables the drawing of Pairwise Invasibility Plots (PIPs) representing 386 for each pair the ability of a rare mutant to invade the resident strategy, based on a comparison 387 between the growth rate of the mutant and that of the resident. These plots are used to identify 388 singular strategies and their properties, as defined in [43]. A particular type of singular strategies. 380 branching points, may be indicative of a diversification in the population, which we further study by 390 drawing areas of mutual invasibility (where both strategies invade when rare), before computing 391 the ecological equilibrium for each coalition – composed of two resident strategies instead of one 302 - in that space. We then calculate the growth rate of mutants nearby each strategy in the coalition 393 to identify coalitions that are stable (they cannot be invaded by any of the nearby mutants) and 394 convergent (there exist evolutionary trajectories towards them), hence identifying evolutionarily ex-395 pected communities after diversification has occurred [81, 82]. This latter process is summarised 396 on trait evolution plots – TEPs – that we have shown in SM. 397

PIPs were generally drawn for 250 strategies, unless lower resolution was sufficient to capture the trend. In order to determine the optimal allocation, we set the total proteome content to its optimal value as determined without the influence of permeability. An individual whose strategy is to invest as much in the first part of the pathway than in the second part corresponds precisely

to this case. Notice that, besides using a two step process, solving the systems to find nutrient and

metabolite concentrations required to use R package 'nlegsly' with Broyden's method [77].

#### 404 Settings for the models

- A list of the basic settings can be found at the end of section Text S1.1 SM. We varied them within
- their biological realistic ranges. This allowed us to identify key drivers of the diversification process
- that eventually result in cross-feeding, as discussed in the results section. The extensive analysis
- <sup>408</sup> of parameters can be found in SM, especially in Texts S1 and S3.

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- 412 Mikkel Roald-Arbøl.

#### 413 Author contributions

- FL, ER, FM and VD designed the research. FL and ER developed the models and analyzed the results.
- 415 FL and ER wrote the first draft while FM and VD contributed further improvements.

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