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## Step by Step, Cell by Cell: Quantification of the Bacterial Cell Cycle

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# Cell cycle, step by step, cell by cell

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## Abstract

The *Escherichia coli* cell cycle is a classic, but we are still missing some of its essential aspects. The reason is that our knowledge is mostly based on population data, and our grasp of the behavior of single cells is still very limited. Today, new dynamic single-cell data promise to overcome this barrier. Existing data from single cells already led to findings and hypotheses that challenge standard views, and opened questions that did not yet settle. Here, we review these recent developments and propose that a systematic exploration of the correlation patterns between cell cycle intervals defined by key molecular events measured in many single cells could lead to a quantitative characterization of the cell cycle as an interplay of stochastic and homeostatic events.

*Keywords:* Cell-cycle, Division Homeostasis, E. coli, Stochasticity, Key intervals, Replication initiation

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25 **1. The cell cycle is a feature of single cells.**

26 We might think that we know a great deal about the cell cycle of *E. coli*,  
27 and this is, to some extent, true. Certainly, the subject does not strike as  
28 new. The discovery of a key role of **replication initiation** (see Glossary)  
29 dates back to work from the late 1960s [1, 2], and already in the early 1990s  
30 the reviews arguably listed most of the molecular players that we consider  
31 relevant today [3].

32 However, it is not difficult to convince ourselves that we are missing some  
33 essential aspects of the problem. The reason is that most of the informa-  
34 tion in our possession comes from bulk **population measurements** and  
35 indirect inference. In this Opinion piece, we would like to argue that today  
36 it is the right moment to revisit the problem exploiting dynamic **single-**  
37 **cell measurements**. Such experiments require efficient imaging and cell  
38 segmentation-tracking methods, and are helped by microfluidic control of  
39 nutrient exchange. Used in combination with reporters of molecular events  
40 and protein expression, they may build a new basis for understanding the  
41 unraveling of the cell cycle. This data will be accessible in the coming years.  
42 And we are in for a few surprises.

43 We focus here on *E. coli* as a model organism, where, e.g. one can  
44 build on the large existing molecular biology knowledge, but the range of  
45 applicability of this approach can be broad, extending to the cell cycle control  
46 in eukaryotic species, where the same problem of identifying key determinants  
47 emerges [4, 5, 6].

## 48 2. The average cell is not the typical single cell

49 From the pioneers of quantitative bacterial physiology of the “Copen-  
50 hagen School” [7], empirical observations in terms of quantitative relations  
51 between physiology-related variables averaged over large populations have  
52 been used to infer specific control mechanisms of the cell cycle [8, 7]. The  
53 problem is that the average cell behaviour does not correspond necessarily to  
54 the typical behaviour of single cells. Therefore, models based on population  
55 averages have limitations, and must be revisited and tested with single-cell  
56 data. The classic example is the model proposed by Donachie [2] in the  
57 60s, stating that DNA replication is initiated at a critical mass per replica-  
58 tion origin. As we will discuss, although appealing and perfectly compatible  
59 with results from bulk growth, this model looks incompatible with recent  
60 single-cell measurements, supporting the assertion that multiple beliefs on  
61 the cell cycle ought to be re-studied on single cells. In other words, there are  
62 unique specific behaviors of single live cells that are obscured if we average  
63 everything (something to be careful about even when studying single cells).

64 For the cell cycle to progress, events related to DNA replication and **seg-**  
65 **regation**, metabolism, growth and cell division must occur in a specific time  
66 order for each cell, across many divisions, i.e., along lineages of cells [9, 10],  
67 despite considerable molecular noise and variability of parameters. As an ex-  
68 ample of this hierarchy and its long-term impact, a missed **septation** due to  
69 late segregation may lead to failure of cell division, formation of a filamentous  
70 cell and subsequent rescue, which can be accompanied by a non-symmetric  
71 division, with consequences on the balance of cell size, DNA amounts and  
72 cell-cycle regulators observable over several generations. However, this chain

73 of events could affect a small fraction of the population, and thus it could be  
74 clearly observable at the level of bulk growth only in severe and unrealisti-  
75 cally stressful conditions. Therefore, dissecting such a cascade of errors and  
76 controls would be impossible without a single-cell view, since the complex  
77 temporal interplay of several concurrent processes and the important role of  
78 **stochasticity** are hidden by population averages

### 79 **3. From phenomenological to mechanistic models**

80 A clear sign that the application of high-throughput single-cell techniques  
81 is effective comes from recent work, which has helped characterizing the  
82 growth-division cycle. Such measurements have already unveiled the stochas-  
83 tic nature of metabolism and resulting growth [11], intriguing universal prop-  
84 erties of the joint distribution of cell size and interdivision times [12, 13], as  
85 well as an effective principle where cells add, on average, a constant vol-  
86 ume to their initial one every cell division (sometimes called **adder mech-**  
87 **anism**) [14, 12, 15], which is consistent with long-term **homeostasis** of the  
88 cell-size distribution in a population. However, how the adder mechanism  
89 comes about molecularly remains unknown. Indeed, several phenomenologi-  
90 cal models can in principle reproduce the empirical observation of a constant  
91 average added size. For example, a “concerted” control of cell division based  
92 on cell size and on time [16, 13] as well as a completely different mechanism  
93 based on the ratio between cell surface and volume [17] can both reproduce  
94 this behaviour. Therefore, it is necessary to link more closely these available  
95 minimal phenomenological models to molecular mechanism in order to dis-  
96 criminate between the direct molecular controls and indirect results (which

97 may come, e.g., from physiological constraints or hidden optimization prin-  
 98 ciples).

99 **4. Cell cycle intervals**

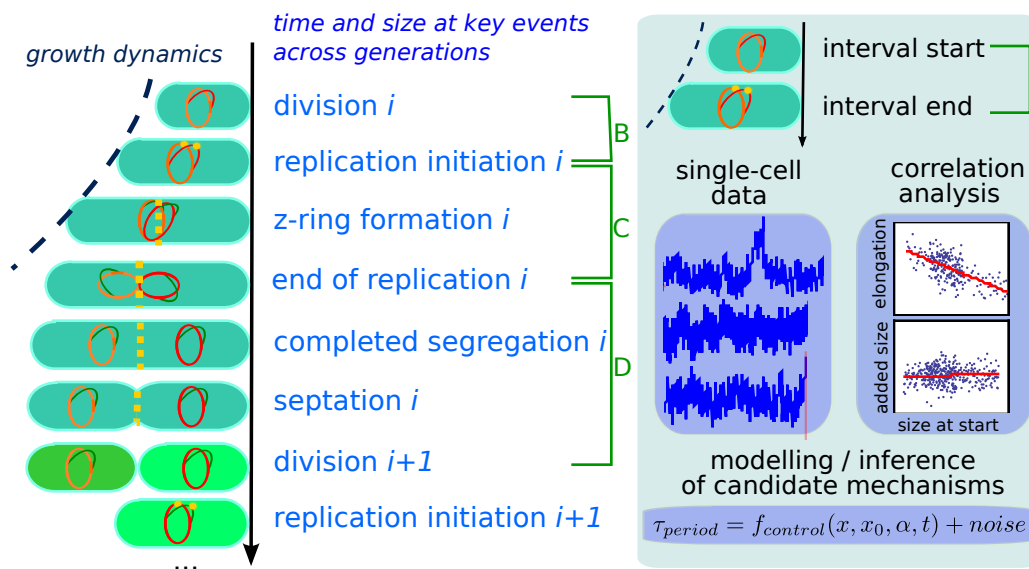


Figure 1: Key events in the *E. coli* cell cycle define cell-cycle intervals subject to stochastic variation and exerting homeostatic control. The drawing illustrates some of the key cellular events (replication cycle, Z ring formation, septation, segregation, etc.) which may be used to define intervals. Such events are stochastic due to intrinsic molecular noise and to cell-to-cell variability of cellular parameters. Homeostatic control can be exerted if completion of the interval is correlated with important events. Time-hierarchy (and eventually causality) between events can be inferred by accumulating a large statistics of cells and consecutive generations. Cell-cycle intervals may not span just the time between two cell divisions, but can be defined across consecutive generations. Correlation analysis and mathematical modeling can help linking intervals and molecular players to homeostasis of key parameters, such as cell size and cell content.

100 To move our mathematical descriptions towards more specific biological

101 mechanisms, a first step is to focus the analysis on specific cell cycle events  
102 that have been directly linked to molecular controls. Indeed, a common way  
103 to describe qualitatively the progression of the cell cycle [1, 18, 19] is to  
104 define **cell-cycle intervals** (Fig. 1), by key landmark events (e.g., replica-  
105 tion, formation of the Z-ring, septation, etc.), and establishing their rela-  
106 tive timing and connection with global observables such as cell growth rate,  
107 size, total protein concentration, as well as with concentration of selected  
108 metabolic or cell-cycle proteins (e.g., a reliable reporter of the initiator pro-  
109 tein DnaA [20, 21]).

110 Note that cell cycle intervals may span multiple consecutive generations,  
111 and are not necessarily defined within two consecutive divisions. For exam-  
112 ple, it might make sense to consider the events of completion of a successful  
113 segregation and onset of septation in one cycle, and link them to the event of  
114 replication initiation in the following one, or consider the period between ter-  
115 mination and initiation (typically in the next generation), where ATP-DnaA  
116 is supposed to increase [22, 23]. More trivially, it is well known that the  
117 timing of replication, the “C period”, can be longer than the interdivision  
118 time [1, 24], since fast-growing *E. coli* cells support multiple DNA replica-  
119 tion rounds at the same time, and thus the replication initiation in one cell  
120 cycle will lead to a complete chromosome in a subsequent cycle of a daughter  
121 or grand-daughter cell. Reporters of at least some of the key players of the  
122 cell-cycle are at hand, thanks to many previous studies characterizing several  
123 aspects of the *E. coli* cell cycle [25, 26, 27].

124 Each measured interval may effect decisions, meaning that its completion  
125 is conditional to some measurable parameters (say, cell size or growth rate),

126 but at the same time carries sources of errors due to molecular noise and  
127 cell-to-cell variability in key parameters such as concentrations of regulators  
128 or metabolic enzymes. Cells adjust cell-cycle intervals to respond to specific  
129 needs (e.g. conditioning division to successful nucleoid segregation), creating  
130 a structure of statistical correlations and conditional dependencies between  
131 interval durations and measurable parameters. These trends allow to detect  
132 both the (statistical) time hierarchy of cell-cycle events, and possible homeo-  
133 static controls effected during one interval. They also enable the production  
134 of testable quantitative mathematical descriptions of the cell cycle.

135 Note that this simplification needs to be handled with care. For example  
136 intervals might be hard to define for chromosome segregation, which is a  
137 multi-step process [28]. Equally, reporters of expression of cell-cycle proteins  
138 do not automatically define intervals, but they may be used to define them by  
139 their oscillations, spatial organization, or threshold values. More in general,  
140 protein expression and spatial distributions can be correlated with cell cycle  
141 progression along defined cell-cycle intervals.

## 142 **5. Studying single cells can challenge long-standing hypotheses.**

143 A number of recent studies have produced data that are already challeng-  
144 ing existing models, and highlight the importance of further investigations  
145 [30, 19, 29]. One example is the “licensing hypothesis” for replication initia-  
146 tion [19], which, based on observations on single cells, proposes that septation  
147 or occurrence of cell division may license (by activating the origin or releas-  
148 ing an inhibitory signal) the chromosomes for the next round of replication  
149 initiation (and unlicensed origins cannot initiate).



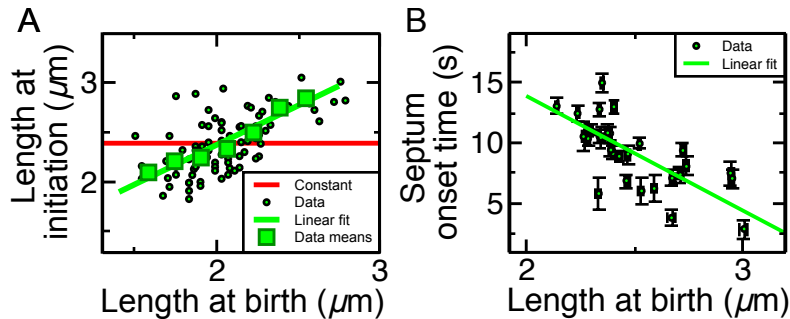


Figure 2: Examples of insights from correlation analysis of cell-cycle intervals. A: Available data for replication initiation in single cells contradict the hypothesis of initiation at a critical cell size (mass). The plot (data from ref. [29]) shows the cell size at replication initiation (estimated by the appearance of SeqA-GFP foci) versus the initial cell size (estimated by cell length, cell width being constant across cells). Each circle corresponds to a different cell cycle. A critical mass model (red line) would predict that the initiation size is the same regardless of size at birth. Instead, while there is some control on size, cells tend to be larger at initiation if they are born larger (green, squares are binned averages of data, solid line is a linear fit). B: Septum onset time enforces size homeostasis. The plot (data from ref.[30]) shows the septum onset time (measured by cell shape segmentation[31]) versus the initial cell size. A pure characteristic septation time would show no correlation with length at birth, but the existence of a correlation suggests a correction mechanism. A recent study on perturbations of volume and surface growth rates supports this observation [17].

150 Concerning the timing of replication initiation and cell division [29],  
151 Donachie [2], based on population data [32, 1], proposed that DNA repli-  
152 cation is initiated at a critical mass per replication origin. Notably, this  
153 author was very aware that the critical mass hypothesis is only a sufficient  
154 condition to comply to the constraints imposed by the behavior of popula-  
155 tion averages. Other mechanisms than a critical size (mass) at initiation are  
156 compatible with the same constraints on population averages. The lack of  
157 a precise critical initiation size may be consistent with models in which the  
158 initiation time is set by the relative levels of **DnaA** bound to ADP or to  
159 ATP [25, 22]. In fact, theoretical descriptions that do not comply with the  
160 critical mass hypothesis are present in the literature. For example, a recent  
161 modeling study [33] argues that initiation may occur after a constant size  
162 has been added between consecutive initiations.

163 Fluorescent labeling of replication forks has been used to start adresssing  
164 these questions in single cells [29, 34]. These studies indicate that the timing  
165 of initiation is indeed dependent on birth size, i.e., cells that are born larger  
166 than average initiate earlier. This supports a role for replication initiation  
167 in maintaining size homeostasis. A similar correlation with size size was  
168 observed for the D-period between termination and division [29]. Whether  
169 size compensation at initiation is due to a perfect critical size remains in-  
170 completely resolved. One study found indications that cells that are born  
171 larger than average initiate at sizes that are slightly larger than mean size at  
172 initiation across the population (Fig. 2), while the data of another study was  
173 found to be consistent with a constant initiation volume model [34], attribut-  
174 ing the observed correlation in Fig. 2A to the constraint that the initiation size

175 should be larger than the initial cell size. In comparing different studies, one  
176 must also consider possible effects of labelling schemes: one can for instance  
177 label all SeqA proteins [34], or only a fraction of them [29], or use different  
178 labels of the replication fork, such as DnaQ [34]. In this case, the data of  
179 these two studies appear consistent between them and susceptible to both  
180 interpretations, leaving the question open to new tests and measurements.

181 A second example of useful information from cell-cycle intervals at the  
182 single-cell level is the hypothesis of a role of septum formation in homeostasis.  
183 Single-cell analysis (Fig. 2) indicates that the cell cycle interval from cell  
184 birth to onset of septation (measured by cell segmentation) may be size-  
185 dependent (and hence may effect homeostasis) [30]. More recent and more  
186 extended results [17] have lead to speculate that septum formation may be the  
187 main (“rate limiting”) checkpoint in deciding cell division in most conditions.  
188 Conversely, the cell cycle interval defined by the timing between onset of  
189 septation and cell division fluctuates around a constant value, independent  
190 of the total interdivision time, much like the C period [30].

191 In conclusion, these studies illustrate the gap of knowledge on the cell  
192 cycle at the single-cell level, provide first answers, and indicate the potential  
193 of correlating events and processes in single cells.

## 194 **6. How do cell-cycle intervals add up to produce size homeostasis** 195 **and cell cycle control?**

196 Deeper knowledge of the most relevant cell-cycle intervals, reflecting key  
197 processes such as replication cycle and the triggering of Z-ring contraction,  
198 will help answering how different controls exerted during the cell cycle con-

199 tribute to achieving size homeostasis, a constant added size, and scaling  
200 properties of cell sizes and interdivision times. Clearly, from the biological  
201 viewpoint, characterizing the cell cycle is a broader aim than mere charac-  
202 terization of cell-size homeostasis, but understanding the link between cell-  
203 size distribution, metabolism and key molecular determinants may have im-  
204 portant implications. Taking the example of the observed constant added  
205 size [12, 14], one may link this behavior to a classic “initiator” model [35]  
206 where the key step (replication initiation) is triggered by the accumulation  
207 of an initiator protein to a constant copy number (not concentration), which  
208 is compatible with the observation that the total amount of active DnaA  
209 appears to be relevant for initiation timing in *E. coli* [25]. However, sev-  
210 eral processes may contribute to the decision to divide. Besides the process  
211 of replication initiation by DnaA [22, 23], the division triggering of the Z-  
212 ring [18, 36], conditioned on successful segregation [37], as well as metabolic  
213 cues [26, 38] and septum synthesis [17] have all been linked to cell division.

214 Analysis of the concerted action of these control mechanisms should show  
215 whether the decision to divide is based on a single “rate limiting” principle,  
216 whether different controls may be rate limiting in different conditions, or  
217 whether controls are active on overlapping time scales. Incidentally, none of  
218 the intervals defined by DNA replication appear to obey constant added size  
219 in slow-growing cells, but a model tuned on these cell cycle intervals does  
220 reproduce the overall constant added size behavior [29].

221 A (complementary) possibility to explore is that observations such as the  
222 constant added size or the scaling of size and doubling time fluctuations could  
223 be the result of external constraints, such as optimization principles (e.g.,

224 for global colony growth or lineage expansion) or avoidance of detrimental  
225 effects (e.g., waste accumulation) acting on top of the integration of cues from  
226 different sources leading to cell division. These constraints may be found in  
227 ecology [39, 13], where ubiquitous scaling laws linking e.g. cell (body) size  
228 and metabolism have been observed.

## 229 **7. Concluding remarks and future perspectives.**

230 Perhaps the most important feature of the investigation we propose is  
231 that it is fully quantitative. The current challenge is to produce quantitative  
232 measurement of the key players and their statistics, with the ultimate goal  
233 of summarizing them in a mathematical equations capturing all observed  
234 behaviors, able to predict phenotypes at the single-cell level. This theoretical  
235 description will need to be predictive, as well as incorporating the sources  
236 of variability across cells and the sources of error correction, linked with the  
237 key molecular players.

238 A quantification of cell cycle intervals in single cells can be complemented  
239 by their change in response to the external conditions, mutations, and other  
240 perturbations such as arresting replication, depleting DnaA, expressing un-  
241 necessary proteins, etc. [17, 40, 41]. For example, nutrient shifts were used  
242 classically to look at cell division dynamics [42, 43], but potentially can give a  
243 wealth of further information with contemporary techniques. A further chal-  
244 lenge will be to understand adaptation behavior in non-steady conditions  
245 and linking this dynamic behavior to the homeostatic strengths observed in  
246 fixed environments.

247 Finally, focusing on cell cycle intervals that are closely linked to molecu-

248 lar mechanisms would give us a minimal but fully mechanistic description of  
249 the available data. Importantly, there are limitations. First, the mathemati-  
250 cal/modeling tools for linking correlation analysis to quantitative models still  
251 need to be fully developed. Second, correlation does not necessarily reveal  
252 causality. However, we believe that such road, combined with molecular bi-  
253 ology and biochemistry, will bring us closer to a mechanism, in comparison  
254 to the descriptions available today, which lack almost any insight into the  
255 key molecular players [15, 14, 12, 16].

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## 260 **Outstanding Questions Box**

261 What are the key molecular events in the cell cycle of single *E. coli* cells  
262 and how do they compromise or promote homeostasis of basic parameters  
263 such as cell size, protein concentration, and DNA copy number?

264

265 How are metabolic signals and housekeeping events (replication, segrega-  
266 tion, etc.) integrated to decide when to divide?

267

268 Does the observed constant added size mechanism emerge from the inte-  
269 gration of multiple decisions or is it the result of a single process?

270

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271 **TRENDS BOX**

272 [900 characters / 3-5 bullet points]

273 The cell cycle is stochastic due to intrinsic cellular noise, affecting decision-  
274 making related to key steps (initiation of replication, chromosome segrega-  
275 tion, Z-ring contraction, septation ...)

276

277 Recent high-throughput single-cell measurements of growing *E. coli* show  
278 a constant average added size between consecutive cell divisions.

279

280 Similar measurements allowing the full stochastic unraveling of the *E. coli*  
281 cell cycle will likely become available in the coming years.

282

283 These data will open new perspectives and challenge classic views, start-  
284 ing from the long-standing hypothesis that a critical mass per origin triggers  
285 replication initiation.

286

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287 **GLOSSARY**

288 **Adder mechanism:** The hypothesized mechanism by which *E. coli* cells  
289 tend to add a constant volume or mass to the initial size to decide the moment  
290 of cell division. This mechanism enforces size homeostasis [14, 12]

291 **Cell-cycle interval:** Defined here as the period of time between two key  
292 events in the cell cycle (Fig. 1). For example, three cell-cycle intervals are  
293 classically defined with respect to DNA replication: the B,C,D sperated by  
294 replication initiation and the end of replication.

295 **DnaA:** ATP-ase protein that accumulates in its active ATP-bound form  
296 to a threshold value during the cell cycle inducing DNA melting by binding  
297 cooperatively to the origin(s) and thus triggering initiation of DNA replica-  
298 tion [22].

299 **Homeostasis:** The process through which single cells control key vari-  
300 ables (such as size, concentrations) in order to ensure their stability along  
301 lineages. There is, in general, a difference between homeostasis in fixed con-  
302 ditions and the average response to a perturbation.

303 **Population measurements:** Measurements of average quantities over  
304 large cell populations. Most of growth-related laws in bacterial physiology  
305 are based on such measurements [8], typically for exponentially growing pop-  
306 ulations. For example, the typical population estimate of the average cell size  
307 consists in a measurement of optical density divided by a cell count [7].

308 **Replication initiation:** The start of DNA replication, defining the  
309 end of the B period in bacteria, and corresponding to the G1/S transition in  
310 mammalian cells.

311 **Segregation:** The process of disentanglement and separation of dupli-



312 cated chromosomes necessary to ensure a chromosome copy to each daughter  
313 cell.

314 **Septation:** Formation of a cell wall that constricts the cell (approx-  
315 imately in the middle for symmetrically dividing bacteria like *E. coli*) and  
316 leads to new cell poles.

317 **Single-cell measurements:** Experiments following dynamically many  
318 cells with single-cell resolution, monitoring size, shape and fluorescent probes,  
319 and allowing to quantify the cell-to-cell variability and correlations.

320 **Stochasticity:** In the context of cell cycle events, represents the ten-  
321 dency of cell-cycle progression to be different in each individual cell, due to  
322 values of internal variables (e.g. key protein amounts or concentrations) and  
323 molecular noise. As a consequence, mathematical models have to describe  
324 the cell-cycle progression as a stochastic process, typically representing the  
325 interplay of cell-to-cell variability and homeostatic control.

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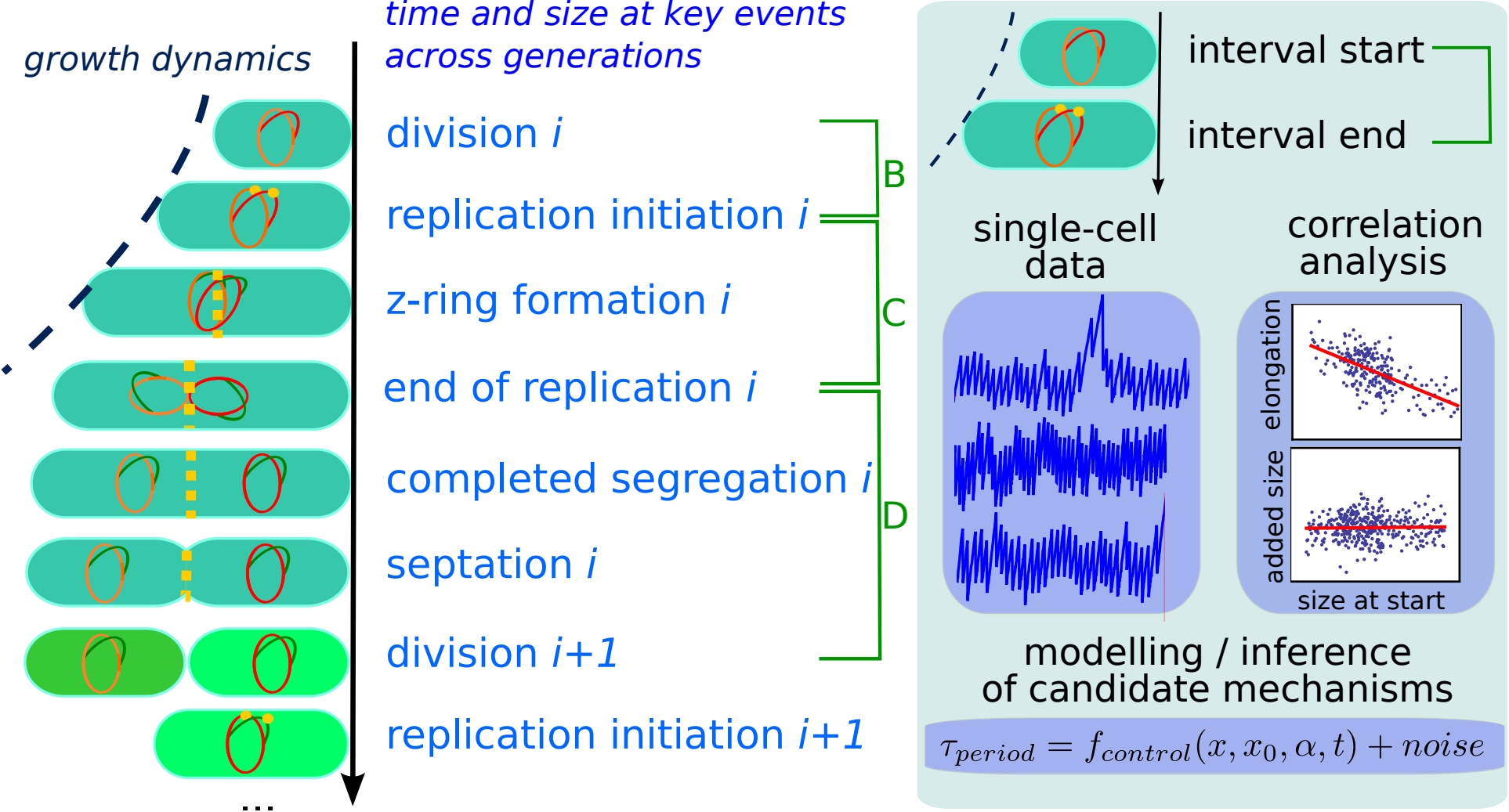
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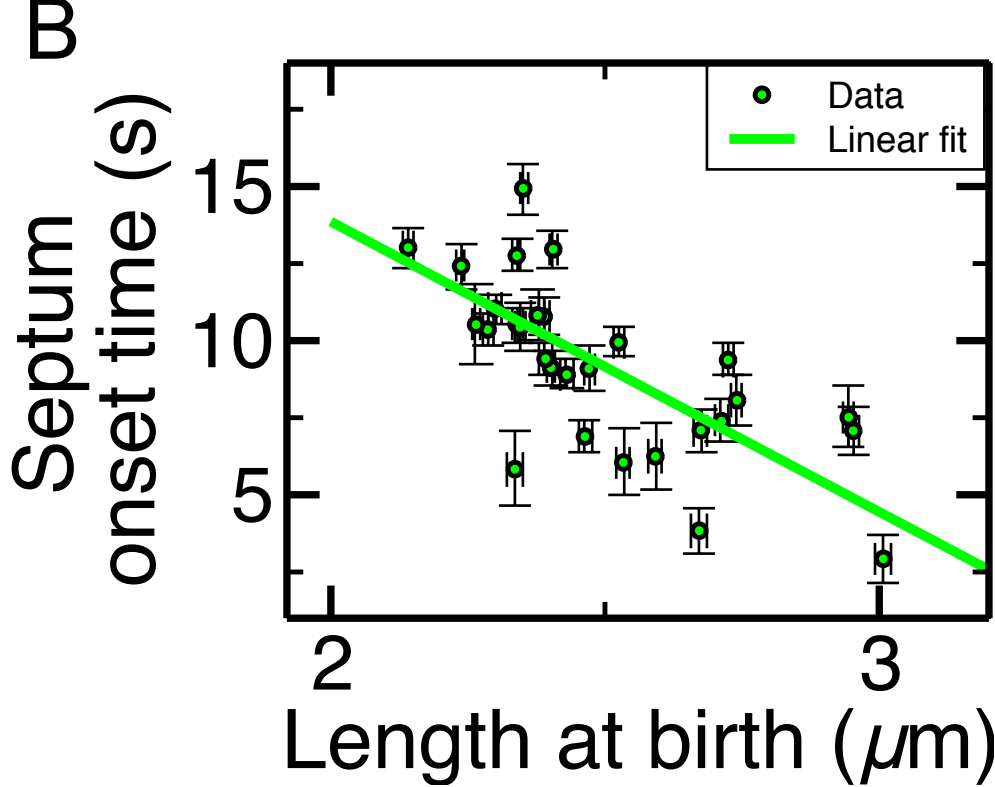
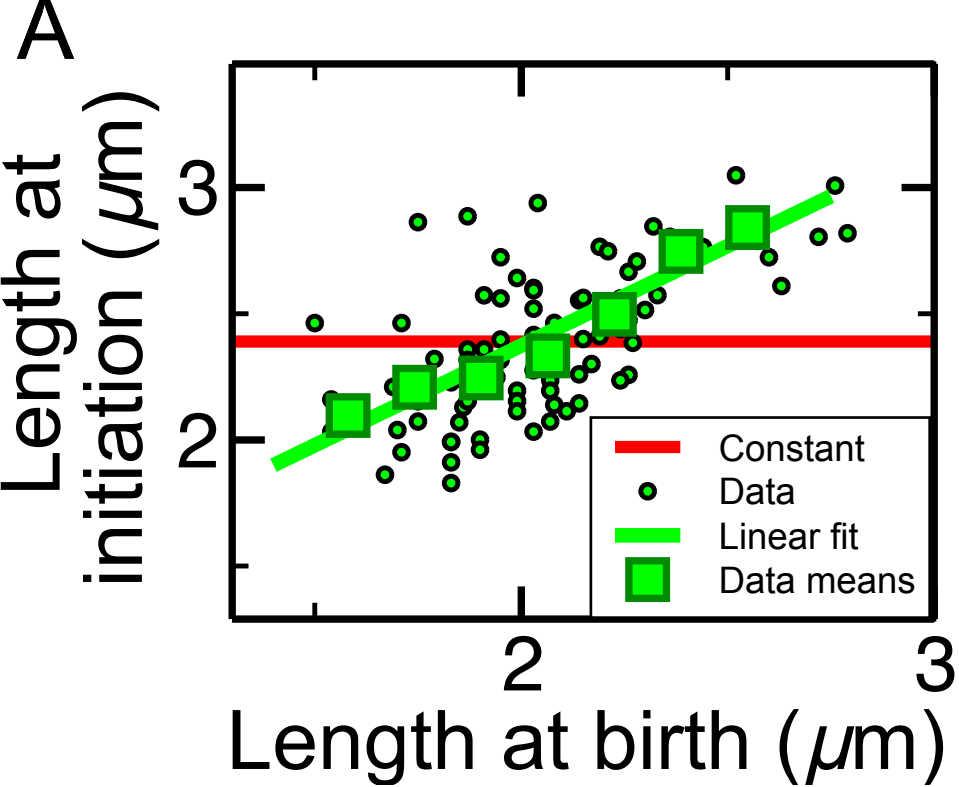
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## Outstanding Questions Box

- What are the key molecular events in the cell cycle of single *E. coli* cells and how do they compromise or promote homeostasis of basic parameters such as cell size, protein concentration, and DNA copy number?
- How are metabolic signals and housekeeping events (replication, segregation, etc.) integrated to decide when to divide?
- Does the observed constant added size mechanism emerge from the integration of multiple decisions or is it the result of a single process?







## Trends Box

- The cell cycle is stochastic due to intrinsic cellular noise, affecting decision-making related to key steps (initiation of replication, chromosome segregation, Z-ring contraction, septation ...)
- Recent high-throughput single-cell measurements of growing *E. coli* show a constant average added size between consecutive cell divisions.
- Similar measurements allowing the full stochastic unraveling of the *E. coli* cell cycle will likely become available in the coming years.
- These data will open new perspectives and challenge classic views, starting from the long-standing hypothesis that a critical mass per origin triggers replication initiation.