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

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Abstract

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The *Escherichia coli* cell cycle is a classic, but we are still missing some 12 of its essential aspects. The reason is that our knowledge is mostly based 13 on population data, and our grasp of the behavior of single cells is still very 14 limited. Today, new dynamic single-cell data promise to overcome this bar-15 rier. Existing data from single cells already led to findings and hypotheses 16 that challenge standard views, and opened questions that did not yet settle. 17 Here, we review these recent developments and propose that a systematic 18 exploration of the correlation patterns between cell cycle intervals defined 19 by key molecular events measured in many single cells could lead to a quan-20 titative characterization of the cell cycle as an interplay of stochastic and 21 homeostatic events. 22 Keywords: Cell-cycle, Division Homeostasis, E. coli, Stochasticity, Key 23

- intervals, Replication initiation 24

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

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

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

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

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

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

For the cell cycle to progress, events related to DNA replication and seg-64 regation, metabolism, growth and cell division must occur in a specific time 65 order for each cell, across many divisions, i.e., along lineages of cells [9, 10], 66 despite considerable molecular noise and variability of parameters. As an ex-67 ample of this hierarchy and its long-term impact, a missed **septation** due to 68 late segregation may lead to failure of cell division, formation of a filamentous 60 cell and subsequent rescue, which can be accompanied by a non-symmetric 70 division, with consequences on the balance of cell size, DNA amounts and 71 cell-cycle regulators observable over several generations. However, this chain 72

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

79 3. From phenomenological to mechanistic models

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

may come, e.g., from physiological constraints or hidden optimization principles).

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

A number of recent studies have produced data that are already challenging existing models, and highlight the importance of further investigations [30, 19, 29]. One example is the "licensing hypothesis" for replication initiation [19], which, based on observations on single cells, proposes that septation or occurrence of cell division may license (by activating the origin or releasing an inhibitory signal) the chromosomes for the next round of replication 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].

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

A (complementary) possibility to explore is that observations such as the constant added size or the scaling of size and doubling time fluctuations could be the result of external constraints, such as optimization principles (e.g., for global colony growth or lineage expansion) or avoidance of detrimental effects (e.g., waste accumulation) acting on top of the integration of cues from different sources leading to cell division. These constraints may be found in ecology [39, 13], where ubiquitous scaling laws linking e.g. cell (body) size and metabolism have been observed.

229 7. Concluding remarks and future perspectives.

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

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

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

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

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260 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?

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Does the observed constant added size mechanism emerge from the integration of multiple decisions or is it the result of a single process?

271 TRENDS BOX

²⁷² [900 characters / 3-5 bullet points]

The cell cycle is stochastic due to intrinsic cellular noise, affecting decisionmaking related to key steps (initiation of replication, chromosome segregation, Z-ring contraction, septation ...)

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

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

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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.

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287 GLOSSARY

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

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

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

Homeostasis: The process through which single cells control key variables (such as size, concentrations) in order to ensure their stability along lineages. There is, in general, a difference between homeostasis in fixed conditions and the average response to a perturbation.

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

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

311

Segregation: The process of disentanglement and separation of dupli-

cated chromosomes necessary to ensure a chromosome copy to each daughtercell.

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

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

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

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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?



time and size at key events across generations division *i* B replication initiation i z-ring formation i end of replication *i* completed segregation *i* septation *i* division *i*+1 replication initiation i+1



modelling / inference of candidate mechanisms

 $\tau_{period} = f_{control}(x, x_0, \alpha, t) + noise$



Trends Box

• The cell cycle is stochastic due to intrinsic cellular noise, affecting decisionmaking related to key steps (initiation of replication, chromosome segrega-tion, 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 longstanding hypothesis that a critical mass per origin triggers replication initiation.