

# 1 A computational toolbox to investigate the metabolic potential and 2 resource allocation in fission yeast

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## 12 Abstract

13 The fission yeast *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* is a popular eukaryal model organism for cell division and  
14 cell cycle studies. With this extensive knowledge of its cell and molecular biology, *S. pombe* also holds  
15 promise for use in metabolism research and industrial applications. However, unlike the baker's yeast  
16 *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, a major workhorse in these areas, cell physiology and metabolism of *S. pombe*  
17 remain less explored. One way to advance understanding of organism-specific metabolism is construction  
18 of computational models and their use for hypothesis testing. To this end, we leverage existing knowledge  
19 of *S. cerevisiae* to generate a manually-curated high-quality reconstruction of *S. pombe*'s metabolic  
20 network, including a proteome-constrained version of the model. Using these models, we gain insights  
21 into the energy demands for growth, as well as ribosome kinetics in *S. pombe*. Furthermore, we predict  
22 proteome composition and identify growth-limiting constraints that determine optimal metabolic  
23 strategies under different glucose availability regimes, and reproduce experimentally determined  
24 metabolic profiles. Notably, we find similarities in metabolic and proteome predictions of *S. pombe* with  
25 *S. cerevisiae*, which indicate that similar cellular resource constraints operate to dictate metabolic  
26 organization. With these use cases, we show, on the one hand, how these models provide an efficient  
27 means to transfer metabolic knowledge from a well-studied to a lesser-studied organism, and on the  
28 other, how they can successfully be used to explore the metabolic behaviour and the role of resource  
29 allocation in driving different strategies in fission yeast.

## 30 Introduction

31 The fission yeast *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* is a popular eukaryal model organism for cell division and  
32 cell cycle studies. With this extensive knowledge of its cell and molecular biology, *S. pombe* also holds  
33 promise for use in metabolism research and industrial applications. However, unlike the baker's yeast  
34 *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, a major workhorse in these areas, cell physiology and metabolism of *S. pombe*  
35 remain much less explored. While these two yeasts share some similarities, distinct differences in e.g. cell  
36 cycle regulation (Forsburg and Nurse, 1991), mode of cell division (Hoffman et al., 2015), glucose transport  
37 (Hofer and Nassar, 1987) and utilizable carbon sources (de Jong-Gubbels et al., 1996) makes *S. pombe* a  
38 highly complementary model for studies into eukaryotic metabolism. A deeper understanding of *S. pombe*  
39 metabolism, therefore, offers opportunities to expand our knowledge of the larger eukaryal metabolic  
40 landscape. In this regard, computational approaches can provide a useful means to leverage the extensive  
41 metabolic knowledge from *S. cerevisiae* to explore *S. pombe* metabolism.

42 Computational approaches have become increasingly important to unravel and understand metabolism  
43 in diverse species, ranging from bacteria to humans. Arguably the most successful approaches in both  
44 applied and fundamental research are based on Genome-scale metabolic models (GEMs) (Fang et al.,  
45 2020). A GEM is a computable knowledge-base which is essentially a compendium of all reactions of an  
46 organism: its metabolic potential, based on the genome sequence. GEMs have successfully been applied  
47 in diverse settings, including the metabolic engineering of microorganisms (McAnulty et al., 2012; Mishra  
48 et al., 2018), studies of human diseases or disease causing pathogens (Beste et al., 2007; Branco dos  
49 Santos et al., 2017), drug development (Kim et al., 2011), and the investigation of interactions within  
50 microbial communities (Dukovski et al., 2021). Furthermore, by providing a general framework based on  
51 the genome sequence of an organism, GEMs allow for efficient transfer of metabolic knowledge between  
52 organisms.

53 GEMs of *S. pombe* have previously been constructed. However, several issues, including incompatibility  
54 with current Systems Biology Markup Language (SBML) standards (Pitkänen et al., 2014; Sohn et al., 2012),  
55 a lack of gene-protein-reaction (GPR)-associations, or automated reconstruction without additional  
56 curation (Lu et al., 2021; Pitkänen et al., 2014), significantly limited their utility. Furthermore, recent  
57 extensions of the GEM framework to include regulation and resource allocation dynamics now enable the  
58 exploration of complex metabolic behaviours such as the Crabtree-effect (analogous to the Warburg-  
59 effect seen in human cells) that cannot be explained with conventional GEMs.

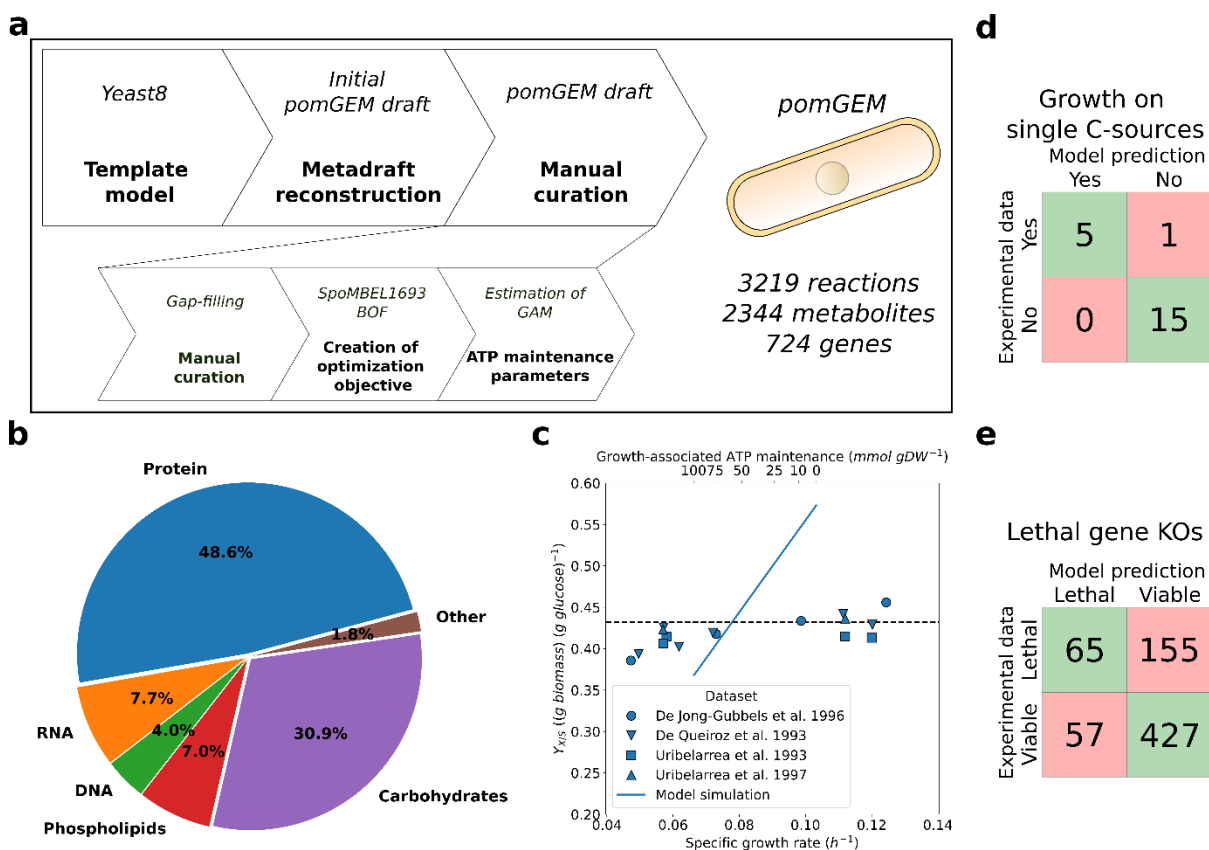
60 Thus in this study, we exploited the extensive metabolic knowledge and modelling toolset available for *S.*  
61 *cerevisiae* to generate an updated computational toolbox for *S. pombe*, consisting of a genome-scale  
62 metabolic model, *pomGEM*, and a resource allocation model, *pcPombe*. We manually curated and  
63 calibrated both models using published experimental data. We used the *pcPombe* model to identify  
64 proteome constraints that dictate the growth and metabolic strategy of *S. pombe* in glucose-limited  
65 chemostat cultures. We find that behaviour appears to be governed by constraints similar to those  
66 operating in *S. cerevisiae*. These models provide essential tools to further expand knowledge of *S. pombe*'s  
67 metabolism, specifically, and eukaryotic metabolism in general.

## 68 Results

### 69 Reconstruction of the *S. pombe* metabolic network

70 We first aimed to create a manually-curated, high-quality reconstruction of the *S. pombe* metabolic  
71 network. Therefore, we coupled automated reconstruction tools (using *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*  
72 metabolic reconstruction *Yeast8.3.3* (Lu et al., 2019) as a template) with thorough manual curation  
73 (**Methods**) in order to construct the *pomGEM*, a manually-curated GEM of *S. pombe* (**Figure 1a**) that meets  
74 current standards for annotation and reusability. Manual curation of newly-reconstructed GEMs is critical

75 for accurate prediction of metabolic phenotypes. For example, during the curation we removed the  
 76 reactions of glyoxylate cycle, a pathway that is active in *S. cerevisiae* but absent in *S. pombe* (de Jong-  
 77 Gubbels et al., 1996), and the reason why *S. pombe* cannot utilize two-carbon compounds for growth. In  
 78 addition, we replaced the biomass objective function (BOF) of the *Yeast8.3.3* model with the BOF, used in  
 79 the SpoMBEL1693 model (Sohn et al., 2012), which is based on experimental measurements of *S. pombe*  
 80 (Figure 1b).



**Figure 1. Reconstruction of the *pomGEM*, the genome-scale metabolic model of *S. pombe*** **a.** The workflow of the reconstruction. **b.** The composition of *S. pombe* biomass, defined in the *pomGEM*. **c.** Estimation of the GAM value. Glucose uptake flux was fixed to  $1.0\ mmol\ gDW^{-1}\ h^{-1}$  and the maximal specific growth rate  $\mu$  was predicted with varying GAM value. Growth yield on glucose  $Y_{X/S}$  was computed based on the predicted specific growth rate. The target yield on glucose ( $Y_{X/S} = 0.432\ g\ biomass\ (g\ glucose)^{-1}$ ) was computed as an average of experimentally determined  $Y_{X/S}$  from glucose-limited cultures with  $D > 0.1\ h^{-1}$  (de Jong-Gubbels et al., 1996; de Queiroz et al., 1993; Uribebarrea et al., 1997, 1993). **d-e.** Benchmarking of the *pomGEM* model: **d.** Prediction of growth on single carbon sources (experimental data from (Choi et al., 2010) and our measurements, see [Supplementary Table 1](#) for details); **e.** Prediction of the lethality of single gene KOs (experimental data from (Kim et al., 2010)). Abbreviations: BOF, biomass objective function; GAM, growth-associated maintenance; KO, knock-out.

82 Next, we looked at the energetic parameters. First, we confirmed that the P/O ratio (ATP produced per  
83 oxygen atom reduced) in the model is 1.28, consistent with experimental measurements (de Queiroz et  
84 al., 1993). In terms of ATP maintenance parameters, we kept the non-growth-associated ATP maintenance  
85 (NGAM) demand at  $0.7 \text{ mmol } gDW^{-1} h^{-1}$  from the *Yeast8.3.3*, in agreement with experimentally  
86 determined values for *S. pombe* ( $0.66 - 0.83 \text{ mmol } gDW^{-1} h^{-1}$ ) (de Queiroz et al., 1993). Furthermore,  
87 we estimated the growth-associated ATP maintenance (GAM) value (Figure 1c). We used published  
88 experimental measurements of growth yield on glucose ( $Y_{X/S}$ ) in fully-respiratory glucose-limited cultures  
89 of *S. pombe* and varied the GAM value to achieve the target yield  $Y_{X/S} =$   
90  $0.432 \text{ g biomass } (g \text{ glucose})^{-1}$ . The target  $Y_{X/S}$  corresponded to  $GAM = 58.3 \text{ mmol } gDW^{-1}$ ,  
91 comparable with  $55.3 \text{ mmol } gDW^{-1}$  in the *Yeast8.3.3*. The *pomGEM* model showed very good  
92 agreement for the predicted flux values in central carbon metabolism with measured fluxes in glucose-  
93 limited chemostat cultures at  $D = 0.1 h^{-1}$  (Klein et al., 2013) (Supplementary Figure 1).

94 We benchmarked the *pomGEM* model by predicting growth on a panel of 21 single carbon sources (Figure  
95 1d, Supplementary Table 1) and lethality of single-gene knock-outs (KOs, Figure 1e, Supplementary Table  
96 2). Predictions of growth on single carbon sources were correct for all carbon sources except one, ribose:  
97 (Choi et al., 2010) reported growth on ribose but *pomGEM* predicted no growth (false negative). It should  
98 be noted that the growth medium used for testing in (Choi et al., 2010) is not clearly defined, as such it  
99 cannot be unambiguously concluded that this strain can grow on D-ribose as sole carbon source. Of the  
100 predicted phenotypes, 69.9% of single-gene KOs were true predictions (match between model and  
101 experimental data) for the entire dataset, while false positives (viable only *in silico*) and false negatives  
102 (viable only *in vivo*) were 22.0% and 8.1% of the dataset, respectively. We, however, were not able to test  
103 the single-gene KOs on previously published reconstructions due to inherent technical issues with these  
104 models.

105 We also performed a check on the reaction essentiality to compare the prediction accuracy with the  
106 *SpoMBEL1693* model, where essentiality as assessed in terms of reactions rather than genes. We  
107 determined the essentiality (Methods) of 2017 model reactions with gene-protein-reaction (GPRs)  
108 associations, and mapped the GPRs with the individual genes in the dataset of gene KOs (Supplementary  
109 Table 3). *pomGEM* showed a true prediction rate of 74.7%, a good improvement (13.5%) on the true  
110 prediction rate achieved by *SpoMBEL1693* reconstruction (61.2%, (Sohn et al., 2012)).

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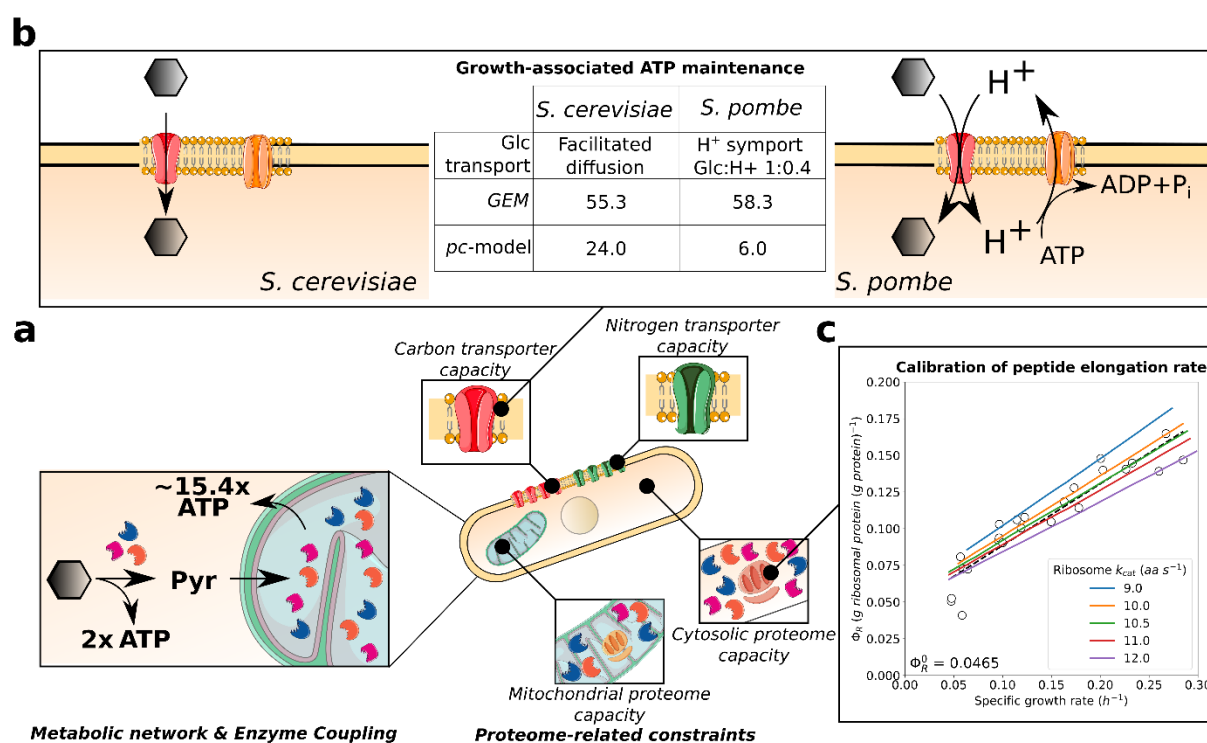
## 112 Development of the proteome-constrained model of *S. pombe*

113 FBA-based models are powerful tools to investigate the potential of metabolic networks, but the ground  
114 assumptions of the method limit the prediction of metabolic phenotypes. As a rule, FBA predictions will  
115 identify the metabolic strategy that leads to the highest biomass yield on the limiting nutrient. For  
116 instance, under glucose-limited conditions, a GEM of *S. cerevisiae* will always predict a high-yield ATP  
117 production strategy, complete respiration of glucose to  $CO_2$  and water, therefore. In reality, cells will  
118 switch to fermentation, a lower ATP-yield strategy, beyond a critical concentration of glucose. Thus,  
119 metabolic phenotypes which do not correspond to the highest-yield strategy cannot be predicted with  
120 FBA, unless additional constraints are added that reflect physiological constraints (de Groot et al., 2020).

121 An important constraint relates to the allocation of limited cellular resources. If metabolic reaction-  
122 associated protein costs are accounted for, different condition-dependent modes of growth, e.g. the  
123 switch between respiration and fermentation (Chen and Nielsen, 2019) can be reproduced. GEMs  
124 therefore can be improved by introducing the concept of resource allocation: optimal partitioning of the  
125 limited resources among the metabolic processes, based on the costs of energy and biosynthetic

126 resources (e.g. amino acids) needed for implementing each metabolic pathway. Over the last 15 years,  
 127 different extensions of GEMs were proposed in order to predict optimal resource allocation in different  
 128 microorganisms (De Becker et al., 2022). Recently, we introduced a proteome-constrained (*pc*-) model of  
 129 *S. cerevisiae* (*pcYeast*) (Elselman et al., 2022) that can accurately predict low and high biomass yield  
 130 strategies under different growth conditions. In a similar spirit, we constructed *pcPombe*, a proteome-  
 131 constrained model of *S. pombe*, on the basis of the *pomGEM* model (Figure 2a).

132 The *pcPombe* model (model explained in detail in Supplementary Notes) captures the interplay of  
 133 metabolism and cellular resource allocation by (i) coupling metabolic processes with respective protein  
 134 demand, and (ii) coupling protein abundance with compartment-specific proteome capacity constraints.  
 135 We thus first extended the metabolic model by introducing fine-grained descriptions of protein turnover  
 136 (reactions protein synthesis, folding, degradation, and dilution by growth). Then, we compiled data from  
 137 literature and/or specialized biological databases (Methods, Supplementary Notes) to parametrize the  
 138 *pcPombe* model (e.g.  $k_{cat}$  values, Supplementary Figure 2) and establish compartment-specific proteome  
 139 constraints with *pcYeast* as template (Elselman et al., 2022). We then further calibrated the *pcPombe*  
 140 model with available experimental data, as explained below.





## 142 Calibrating ATP maintenance and protein translation costs in *pcPombe*

143 A substantial amount (~40% in *S. cerevisiae* (Lahtvee et al., 2017)) of ATP maintenance costs can be  
144 explained by protein turnover processes. As these processes are now modelled explicitly in the *pcPombe*  
145 model, we used the measurements of biomass yield on glucose (Figure 1c), to determine the GAM value  
146 for the *pcPombe* model (Figure 2b). We first explicitly split the ATP maintenance into two components,  
147 cytosolic and mitochondrial ATP maintenance (GAM and mitoGAM, respectively). We base this decision  
148 on the fact that mitochondria are special organelles: they have a circular genome that stores a small  
149 number of protein-coding genes, and translate them, using a distinct mitochondrial pool of ribosomes. In  
150 the model, the exact number of mitochondria per cell is not specified, therefore a practical way to express  
151 the maintenance costs is mmol ATP per gram of mitochondrial protein.

152 Although protein turnover cost is a major determinant of GAM, other processes, which are often not  
153 explicitly modelled, can significantly influence this value. For example, in *S. cerevisiae*, glucose enters the  
154 cell via facilitated diffusion, while di- or oligosaccharides (maltose, maltotriose, raffinose, etc.) are  
155 imported into the cell through sugar:H<sup>+</sup> symport, leading to additional energetic costs of using these  
156 sugars for growth (Weusthuis et al., 1993). However, in *S. pombe*, glucose transporters are also sugar:H<sup>+</sup>  
157 symporters, with a stoichiometry of 1:0.4 for glucose and protons, respectively (Hofer and Nassar, 1987).  
158 The actual energetic costs here come from the fact that the protons, imported with the sugar, have to be  
159 pumped out of the cell by the plasma membrane H<sup>+</sup>-ATPases to maintain the proton balance in the cell. If  
160 this energetic cost of glucose transport is not accounted for, the growth rate will be significantly  
161 overestimated, especially during respiratory growth when the mitochondrion is used, and this is a  
162 consequence of two factors. First, by neglecting consumption of ATP by the H<sup>+</sup>-ATPase, more ATP will be  
163 available for growth; in the model, correctly predicting the growth yield will then require a much higher  
164 GAM value. Second, increased cytosolic proton availability in the model will drive increased mitochondrial  
165 ATP synthase activity, leading to a higher ATP yield, and hence a higher estimated GAM value. We  
166 therefore added an additional constraint to the *pcPombe* model that couples glucose import to H<sup>+</sup>-export  
167 through plasma membrane H<sup>+</sup>-ATPases (see discussion of this modelling step in [Supplementary Notes](#)  
168 [1.4](#)), thereby preventing incorrect use of these protons. With this additional constraint, we then estimated  
169 the ATP maintenance value.

170 While the GAM values for the metabolic models of *S. cerevisiae* and *S. pombe* were very similar,  
171 modification of the glucose transport mechanism resulted in a significant difference in the GAM values of  
172 the respective proteome-constrained models. In the end, we determined values of 6 mmol gDW<sup>-1</sup> and  
173 6 mmol (g mitochondrial protein)<sup>-1</sup> for GAM and mitoGAM, respectively (Figure 2b). The estimated  
174 GAM value for *pcPombe* is thus considerably smaller than the one for *pcYeast* (24 mmol gDW<sup>-1</sup>) once  
175 the additional energetic costs of glucose transport is accounted for, (Figure 2b). For mitoGAM, the same  
176 value (6 mmol (g mitochondrial protein)<sup>-1</sup>) was used in both *pcYeast* and *pcPombe*.

177 Next we assessed the peptide elongation rate of the cytosolic ribosomes and the fraction of proteome,  
178 occupied by “inactive” ribosomes  $\Phi_{R,0}$  (following (Metzl-Raz et al., 2017)), other key parameters, as  
179 shown for the *pcYeast* model (Elseman et al., 2022) (Figure 2c). We used quantitative proteomics data  
180 from turbidostat experiments in EMM2 media (2% glucose), supplemented with different single nitrogen  
181 sources (Kleijn et al., 2022). First, we computed the fraction of “inactive” ribosomes  $\Phi_{R,0} \approx$   
182 0.05 g (g protein)<sup>-1</sup> from the linear regression of the experimental data points (Figure 2c, black dashed  
183 line). Notably, the fraction of the “inactive” ribosomes is around 40% lower in *S. pombe* than in *S.*  
184 *cerevisiae* ( $\Phi_{R,0} \approx 0.08$ ) (Metzl-Raz et al., 2017). Following that, we estimated the peptide elongation rate  
185 in *S. pombe*, a parameter never reported in the literature (to the best of our knowledge). We thus ran a  
186 set of model simulations, where we varied the peptide elongation rate  $k_{cat,ribo}$  around the initial value  
187 of  $k_{cat,ribo} = 10.5 \text{ aa s}^{-1}$  from *S. cerevisiae* (Metzl-Raz et al., 2017) (Figure 2c). We concluded that the

188 value of  $10.5 \text{ aa s}^{-1}$  showed the best agreement with the experimental data. This suggests that although  
189 *S. cerevisiae* and *S. pombe* diverged in their evolutionary tracks relatively long time ago, their ribosomes  
190 seem to have remained highly functionally conserved.

191

### 192 Identifying growth-limiting proteome constraints in glucose-limited chemostats

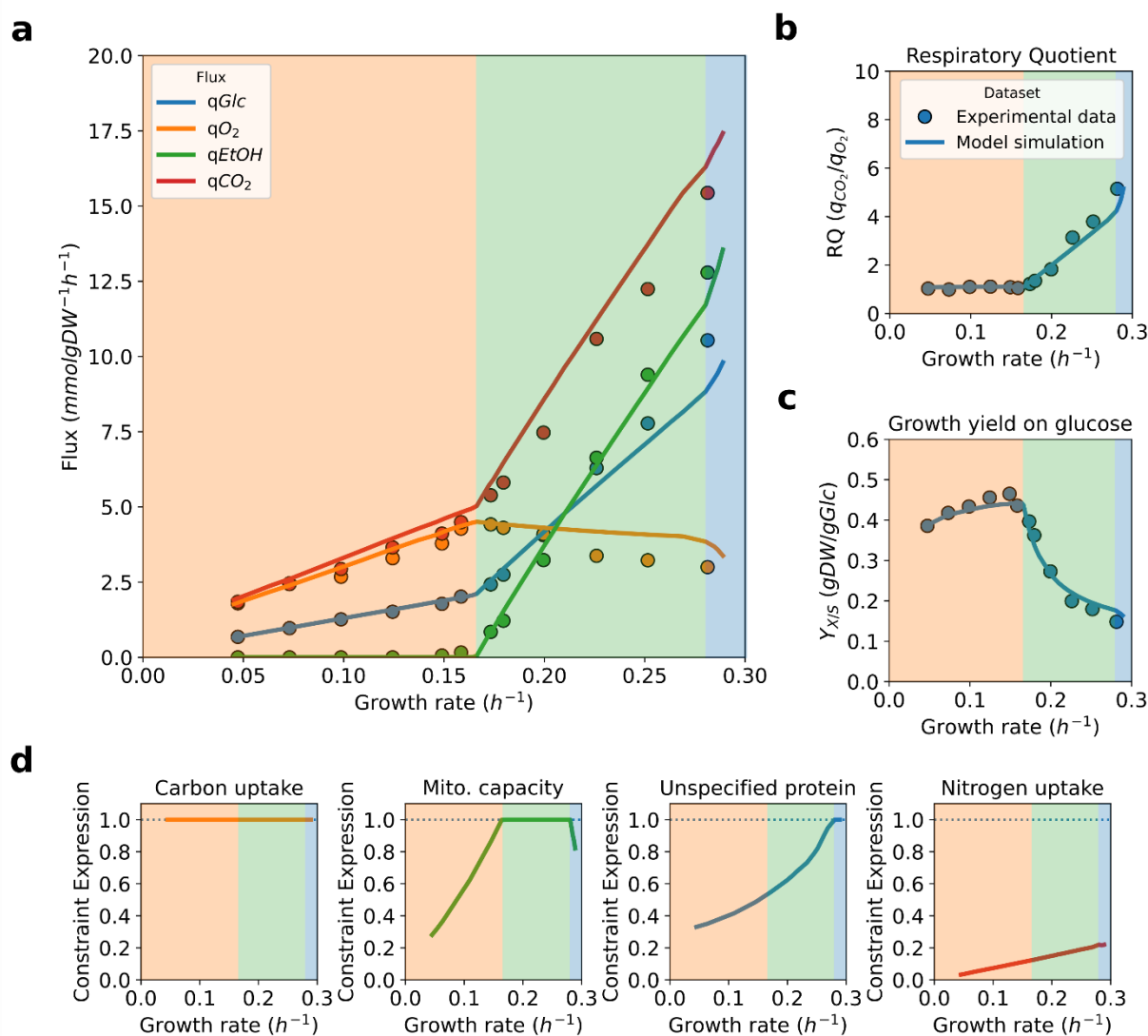
193 The key feature of the *pcPombe* model is the ability to predict multiple facets of microbial physiology: flux  
194 distributions, proteome composition, and, most importantly, compartment-specific proteome constraints  
195 that actively limit the maximal growth rate. Therefore, as a use case example, we used the *pcPombe* model  
196 to identify the active constraints that drive the physiology of *S. pombe* growing in glucose-limited  
197 chemostats at increasing dilution rate (Figure 3).

198 We mimicked different extracellular glucose concentrations in the model by varying the saturation factor  
199 of the glucose transporters (Supplementary Notes) and used binary search (Elseman et al., 2022) to find  
200 the maximal specific growth rate and corresponding flux distribution for every value of the saturation  
201 factor (Figure 3a). The predicted fluxes, based on external metabolites, were also used to compute the  
202 physiological parameters (yield on glucose and the respiratory quotient) of cell cultures (Figure 3b, 3c).

203 Based on the active compartment-specific proteome constraints (Figure 3d), we partition the simulation  
204 (along the predicted specific growth rate) into three parts (shading in all the panels of Figure 3): first, at  
205 very slow growth, the only active (i.e. the constraint expression equals 1 in Figure 3d) proteome constraint  
206 is carbon uptake (carbon transporter capacity). Carbon transporter capacity remains the only active  
207 proteome constraint before the onset of ethanol formation (critical growth rate  $\mu_{crit} = 0.16 \text{ h}^{-1}$ ), when  
208 a second active proteome constraint is encountered, the mitochondrial proteome capacity (see below).

209 As growth rate continues to increase, the active constraints change (blue shaded region in Figure 3), and  
210 so does the predicted metabolic behavior. At very fast growth rates, instead of mitochondrial proteome  
211 capacity, the unspecified protein (UP) fraction (a proxy for the cytosolic proteome capacity), starts to limit  
212 growth (UP mass fraction in the proteome reaches the minimal value we estimated on the basis of  
213 proteomics data (Kleijn et al., 2022)). As a result, any increase in growth has to be accompanied by trading  
214 in mitochondrial proteins for cytosolic ones (Figure 3d, panel “Mito. capacity”). Both the minimal UP  
215 fraction and the maximal mitochondrial proteome capacity (Supplementary Notes) are estimated  
216 parameters, due to lack of supporting experimental data. We, however, believe that the sequence of  
217 active proteome constraints (thus also the fitted parameter values) is supported by literature data, coming  
218 from both *S. cerevisiae* and *S. pombe*.

219 First, we addressed the mitochondrial capacity being the constraint behind the onset of ethanol  
220 formation. We tested our claims by increasing the minimal UP fraction to the level that sets the maximal  
221 growth rate to  $\mu_{max}^* = 0.16 \text{ h}^{-1}$  ( $= \mu_{crit}$ ) when the glucose transporters are fully saturated and  
222 mitochondrial capacity constraint was relaxed. The flux predictions we acquired were considerably  
223 different from the experimental data and therefore we discarded such scenario. Next, we considered the  
224 active constraint (UP minimum) for growth in glucose excess. Malina and colleagues (Malina et al.,  
225 2021) determined that both *S. cerevisiae* and *S. pombe* allocate a very similar fraction (and in both cases  
226 small, <5%) of the proteome to TCA cycle and oxidative phosphorylation proteins. This suggests that the  
227 same constraints limit growth in glucose excess, and we have previously shown that this constraint is the  
228 cytosolic proteome capacity (Elseman et al., 2022). Therefore, the active constraints at slower growth  
229 (onset of ethanol formation) must be of a different nature, and knowledge of *S. cerevisiae* again pointed  
230 to mitochondrial proteome capacity as the constraint limiting growth at that phase. Our speculation  
231 resulted in a good flux prediction, thus we argue that it is *the* active constraint under this growth regime.



**Figure 3. Fluxes, physiological parameters and active proteome constraints in glucose-limited growth of *S. pombe*.** **a.** Main predicted fluxes from glucose-limited chemostats. **b-c.** Physiological parameters of the growth in glucose-limited chemostats: **b.** Respiratory quotient, the ratio between the specific fluxes of carbon dioxide and oxygen; **c.** Growth yield on glucose, the ratio between growth rate and glucose uptake. Experimental data (points) in panels **a-c** from (de Jong-Gubbels et al., 1996). **d.** Active proteome constraints, predicted by the *pcPombe* model. Shading of different growth regimes in panels **a-d** corresponds to active proteome constraints, plotted in panel **d**.

232

233 When the predicted growth rate approaches the maximal predicted growth rate, growth is no longer  
 234 limited by carbon transporter capacity, and thus, only one constraint (minimal UP mass fraction) remains  
 235 active. In this state, excretion of additional overflow products (e.g. pyruvate) is predicted, consistent with  
 236 the behavior of *S. cerevisiae* at glucose excess conditions. It should be noted that the *predicted* maximal  
 237 growth rate in the minimal EMM2 medium ( $\mu_{max} = 0.29 \text{ h}^{-1}$ ) is dependent on the minimal UP fraction  
 238 in the proteome, a parameter we fit. However, we argue that our estimate is reasonable, since *pcPombe*



239 correctly predicts the maximal growth rate on the rich YES medium with the same parameter values  
240 ( $\mu_{max} = 0.34 h^{-1}$ ) (Durão et al., 2021). To summarize, here we used the *pcPombe* model together with  
241 the existing knowledge on *S. cerevisiae* to verify the identity of proteome constraints, which actively limit  
242 growth in a condition-dependent manner.

243

#### 244 Maximal growth rate of *S. pombe* is defined by limited proteome access

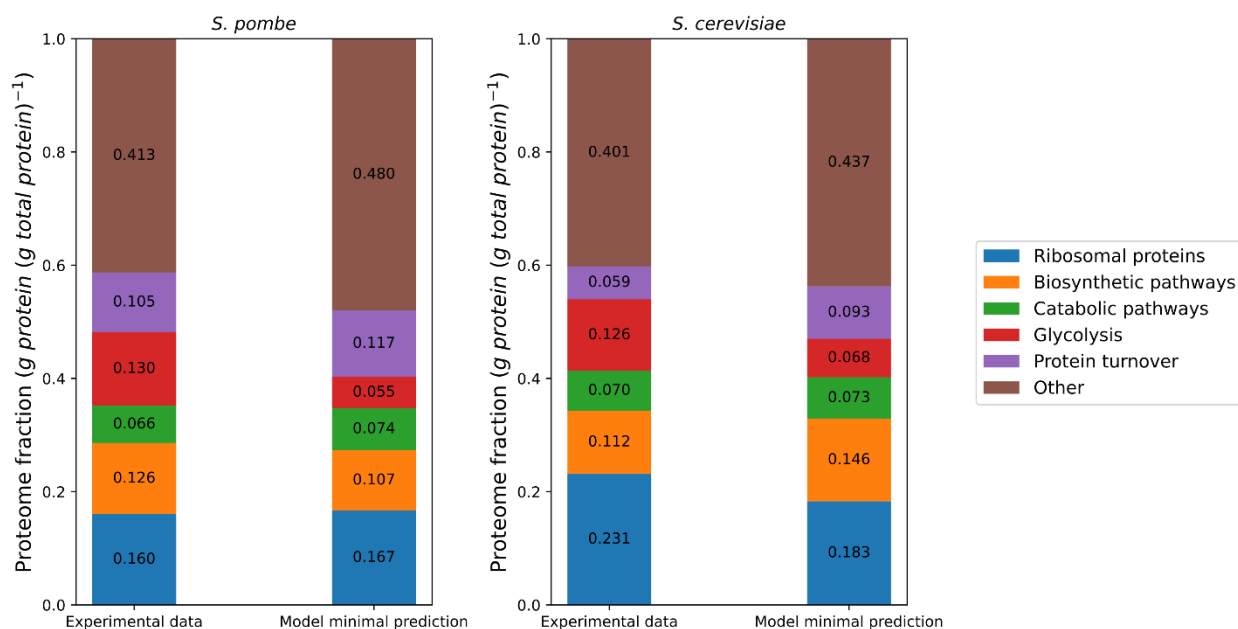
245 We observed that the maximal experimentally determined growth rate of *S. pombe* in a minimal medium  
246 ( $\mu_{max} = 0.30 h^{-1}$ ) is substantially lower than the maximal growth rate of *S. cerevisiae* CEN.PK strain  
247 (Verduyn medium (Verduyn et al., 1992) with glucose as carbon source,  $\mu_{max} = 0.40 h^{-1}$  (Elseman et  
248 al., 2022)). We speculate that the lower maximal growth rate is an outcome of lower protein density in *S.*  
249 *pombe* biomass, and *S. cerevisiae* has a “higher budget” to accommodate proteins, needed for faster  
250 growth. *S. pombe* exhibits a constant protein density of  $0.43 g (gDW)^{-1}$  (de Jong-Gubbels et al., 1996),  
251 while in *S. cerevisiae*, the respective value is growth rate-dependent and is reported to be  $0.505$   
252  $g (gDW)^{-1}$  at  $\mu = 0.375 h^{-1}$  (Canelas et al., 2011). Although different in absolute amounts, similar  
253 proteome partitioning at the maximal growth rate suggests that the maximal growth is limited by similar  
254 constraints.

255 The design of the *pc*-models allows for the inspection of proteome allocation in a fine-grained manner:  
256 for every enzyme that supports growth by catalysing a metabolic flux, a corresponding *minimal* protein  
257 demand can be computed for the (hypothetical) case that all proteins work at their maximal rate:  $v =$   
258  $[e_i] \times k_{cat,i}$ . At slow growth, with low metabolic fluxes, the minimal protein demand will be low. Typically,  
259 under these conditions cells express metabolic proteins at higher levels compared to the minimal  
260 predicted protein demand (Elseman et al., 2022; O’Brien et al., 2016). Yet, the difference decreases with  
261 increasing growth rate for *S. cerevisiae* (Elseman et al., 2022), with a major exception of ribosomal  
262 proteins (because ribosomal parameters are fitted explicitly, [Figure 2c](#)). To illustrate the predicted  
263 proteome partitioning, we looked into the predictions of *pcPombe* at the maximal predicted growth rate,  
264 and compared the minimal predicted protein demand with experimental data (Malina et al., 2021) ([Figure](#)  
265 [4](#)).

266 We used a manually-curated proteome annotation set ([Supplementary Table 3](#)) to map proteins to  
267 different functional groups or pathways. To avoid comparing >30 pathways with small proteome fractions,  
268 we grouped pathways into a handful of coarse-grained clusters ([Figure 4](#)), with an exception of glycolysis,  
269 which as directly compared as a single pathway instead of being lumped with the rest of the catabolic  
270 (pentose phosphate pathway, TCA cycle, and oxidative phosphorylation) proteins. For additional insights,  
271 we also considered the proteome composition of *S. cerevisiae* and compare this to that of *S. pombe*. For  
272 both model predicted and experimentally determined proteome fractions, most of these coarse-grained  
273 clusters occupy comparable sized proteome fractions in both organisms. Also the deviations between  
274 predicted minimal protein demand and experimental protein fraction have similar patterns in both  
275 organisms. When looking at predictions a significant deviation from experimental data is seen in the  
276 proteome fraction involved in the metabolism of carbohydrates. The experimentally determined fraction  
277 of glycolytic enzymes is 2-fold higher than the predicted minimal demand.

278 This result is not completely surprising, since we observed a similar result (ca. 2-fold) in previously  
279 published proteome data of *S. cerevisiae* cultures at the maximal growth rate in minimal medium (batch  
280 cultures with excess glucose) (Elseman et al., 2022). It appears therefore that both these yeasts have an  
281 overcapacity of glycolytic enzymes that is not needed to support the maximal growth rate; why this is the  
282 case, is currently not understood. Overall, we observed that the proteome partitioning at maximal growth  
283 is similar between *S. pombe* and *S. cerevisiae*. This supports the inference that the maximal growth under

284 nutrient excess is limited by a similar constraint in both organisms. Following the predictions of proteome-  
 285 constrained models, we suggest that this constraint is total proteome capacity.



**Figure 4. Proteome composition of *S. pombe* and *S. cerevisiae* at maximal growth rate.** Experimentally measured proteome composition (left bars) and predicted minimal protein level (right bars) represented as proteome mass fractions, in  $g (g \text{ protein})^{-1}$ . Experimental data for both *S. pombe* and *S. cerevisiae* were taken from (Malina et al., 2021), and model predictions for *S. cerevisiae* taken from (Elselman et al., 2022). Experimentally determined proteome composition in the Figure corresponds to the average of measurements reported in (Malina et al., 2021).

286

## 287 Discussion

288 In this study, we used metabolic modelling and data from the well-studied budding yeast, *S. cerevisiae*, to  
 289 gain insights into the metabolism and physiology of the distantly related fission yeast, *S. pombe*. As a  
 290 result, we presented a computational toolbox to investigate fission yeast metabolism at genome scale.  
 291 Two types of models, in our view, are required to cover this need: a genome-scale metabolic model  
 292 (metabolic potential) and a proteome-constrained (pc-) model (resource allocation).

293 Here we first developed a manually-curated and calibrated GEM, *pomGEM*, based on a metabolic model  
 294 of budding yeast *S. cerevisiae* (Lu et al., 2019) (Figure 1). As an outcome of the model calibration, in this  
 295 manuscript we provide for the first time a comprehensive and data-supported estimate of growth-  
 296 associated maintenance (GAM) costs of *S. pombe* (Figure 1c). An earlier proposed GAM value of  
 297  $17.37 \text{ mmol } gDW^{-1}$  (Sohn et al., 2012) corresponds to an unrealistically high yield of biomass on glucose  
 298 in aerobic settings, while our proposed value ( $58.3 \text{ mmol } gDW^{-1}$ ) corresponds well with existing  
 299 experimental data. Moreover, the GAM value we estimated is very close to that reported for *S. cerevisiae*  
 300 ( $55.3 \text{ mmol } gDW^{-1}$ ) (Famili et al., 2003), further supporting our estimate over previous estimates (Sohn  
 301 et al., 2012).

302 We benchmarked the *pomGEM* model by first predicting growth on single carbon sources (with only one  
 303 false-negative, Figure 1d), lethal single-gene KOs (Figure 1e), and single-reaction KOs (Supplementary

304 **Table 3**). For the latter, the fraction of true predictions was approximately 74%, a good improvement on  
305 the previously reported model (61.2%) (Sohn et al., 2012). However, in the same study, the authors of the  
306 *SpoMBEL1693* model reported an increase in the true prediction rate up to 82.7%, after significant manual  
307 curation. Here, the authors “reconciled” the false predictions which arise from, e.g. duplicate reactions  
308 present in other compartments, or dead-end pathways to achieve the higher true prediction rate.  
309 However, such *ad hoc* approach requires supporting experimental data to resolve every false prediction  
310 reliably. Nonetheless, following the evolution of true prediction rates of the *S. cerevisiae* models – in terms  
311 of genes – (90.3% in Yeast8 vs 83.6% in Yeast4 (Dobson et al., 2010)), or the latest GEM of *E. coli* (>90%,  
312 (Monk et al., 2017), it is anticipated that with more experimental data, future iterations of *pomGEM* will  
313 similarly lead to further improvements in the true prediction rate.

314 Then, on the basis of *pomGEM*, and with *pcYeast* as template (Elseman et al., 2022), we reconstructed  
315 (**Figure 2a**) and calibrated (**Figure 2b, 2c**) a proteome-constrained metabolic model of *S. pombe*, *pcPombe*.  
316 We first identified a major ATP maintenance component: plasma membrane H<sup>+</sup>-ATPase activity, required  
317 to export protons that are imported through glucose:H<sup>+</sup> symport (**Figure 2b**). We also estimated the  
318 peptide elongation rate of cytosolic ribosomes, and found this to be similar to the rate reported for *S.*  
319 *cerevisiae* (**Figure 2c**).

320 We used the *pcPombe* model to simulate the physiology of *S. pombe* in glucose-limited chemostats at  
321 different dilution rates (**Figure 3**) and identified proteome constraints that actively limit growth. Despite  
322 a large evolutionary distance, constraints similar to those recently described for *S. cerevisiae* (Elseman  
323 et al., 2022) were shown to dictate growth behaviours, with a mitochondrial proteome capacity limitation  
324 ultimately driving a switch from respiration to fermentation. Finally, we looked at the predicted minimal  
325 proteome demand at the maximal growth rate of *S. pombe* in minimal medium, and compared it to  
326 experimental measurements (**Figure 4**). For many coarse-grained proteome clusters, minimal predicted  
327 demands were comparable, and the prediction outcome was similar to that of *S. cerevisiae* at maximal  
328 growth rate in minimal medium. Such agreement suggests that the growth in nutrient excess is limited by  
329 similar constraints in both organisms, in this case, total proteome capacity constraint. A notable exception  
330 in predicted minimal demand vs. experimental data was seen for glycolysis, where an experimentally  
331 determined proteome fraction was 2-fold higher than the minimal predicted demand. This result  
332 suggests a large over-capacity of glycolytic enzymes, also found for *S. cerevisiae* (Elseman et al., 2022).  
333 However, the reason for this over-capacity remains to be resolved.

334 Quantitative differences in proteome composition, especially at individual protein level, between the  
335 model and experimental measurements (likewise large or small), can be influenced by several factors.  
336 First, we consider the minimal protein demand in the model. This assumption ignores any preparatory  
337 protein expression, and the predicted protein abundance is highly dependent on the  $k_{cat}$  values. The  
338 effects of other kinetic factors are also not accounted for, e.g. suboptimal saturation of enzymes and  
339 feedback effects (positive and negative alike) in the biochemical pathways. Therefore, protein  
340 “underutilization” (or “reserve capacity”) is a frequently-observed prediction of resource allocation  
341 models (Elseman et al., 2022; O’Brien et al., 2016). Second, GEMs consider only proteins with direct  
342 metabolic function (plus those directly related to protein turnover, in the *pcPombe* model). Thus, some  
343 proteins will be unaccounted for when mapping them to annotated pathways. Improved GPR annotations  
344 in future version(s) of *pomGEM* would reduce such “lost” mappings.

345 Throughout the manuscript, we considered very few applications of the computational toolbox, and only  
346 a handful of data sources. This is because the predictive power of current *pomGEM* and *pcPombe* models  
347 is severely hampered by a lack of consistent, high-quality experimental datasets in order to calibrate and  
348 validate the models. The hope is that our current effort to provide a computational tool to study *S.*

349 *pombe*'s metabolism will stimulate an iterative cycle of hypothesis generation, experimental testing and  
350 model refinement. For *S. cerevisiae*, its genome-scale model is already in its 8<sup>th</sup> iteration, with efforts  
351 beginning almost two decades ago (Famili et al., 2003). Throughout the years, essential modelling  
352 parameters, such as the GAM value (Famili et al., 2003), growth rate-dependent biomass composition  
353 (Canelas et al., 2011), ribosome peptide elongation rate (Metzl-Raz et al., 2017), and a large panel of  
354 kinetic parameters (used in e.g. (Lu et al., 2019; Nilsson and Nielsen, 2016)), were determined. Thus, by  
355 aggregating a vast amount of existing literature data, and acquiring new experimental datasets  
356 (physiological data and proteomics), a proteome-constrained model of *S. cerevisiae* (*pcYeast*) was created  
357 and could be successfully tested in a number of scenarios ((Elsemman et al., 2022), Grigaitis et al.,  
358 unpublished).

359 Existing experimental datasets of *S. pombe*, unfortunately, are not as comprehensive. Although many of  
360 the datasets are of high-quality, they consider only one aspect of cell growth, for instance, exometabolite  
361 fluxes (de Jong-Gubbels et al., 1996), or proteome composition (Kleijn et al., 2022). For modelling  
362 purposes, systemic experiments which cover several layers of information at once (e.g. sampling from the  
363 same cultures to quantify bulk biomass composition, exometabolite fluxes, and proteome composition),  
364 as well as testing current predictions on active proteome constraints by e.g. titrating expression of non-  
365 functional proteins targeted to specific cell compartments (e.g. cytoplasm, cell membrane etc.), as has  
366 been done for *E. coli* (Scott et al., (Scott et al., 2010)), or by testing optimal protein allocation with  
367 evolution experiments (as performed in e.g. *Lactococcus lactis* (Chen et al., 2021)) will be extremely useful.  
368 Performing such experiments and subsequent model refinements will have great influence on the  
369 predictive power of the *pomGEM* and *pcPombe* models and will pave the way towards deeper  
370 understanding of metabolism and resource allocation of fission yeast *Schizosaccharomyces pombe*.

371 Lastly, recent studies suggested *S. pombe* could find novel applications in biotechnology, including  
372 winemaking (Benito et al., 2016) and flavour formation during food fermentations (Du et al., 2021), but  
373 also as a possible cell factory (Madhavan et al., 2021). *S. pombe*'s ability to grow in environments with low  
374 water activity, high alcohol content, very low pH and a wide range of temperatures (Loira et al., 2018)  
375 make it an attractive, and perhaps underutilized, biotechnological tool. However, identifying metabolic  
376 engineering targets and predicting outcomes is a major challenge without a robust computational  
377 framework. The two models we present here, therefore, are powerful tools that can be used to efficiently  
378 explore, *in silico*, *S. pombe*'s metabolic potential, to identify metabolic engineering targets, to design and  
379 optimize medium for different applications, and to study metabolic and physiological determinants of  
380 growth behaviour under different growth conditions.

381

## 382 [Methods](#)

### 383 [Determination of growth on different carbon sources](#)

384 *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* strain CBS1042 (Westerdijk Fungal Biodiversity Institute, The Netherlands)  
385 was used to determine growth capacity on different individual carbon sources. Glycerol stocks were pre-  
386 pared from cells grown to saturation in YPD medium and stored at -80°C. All cultures were performed at  
387 30°C using EMM2 (Hagan et al., 2016) as a base medium. All carbon source concentrations are expressed  
388 as carbon mol (C-mM), and were added to a final concentration of 600 C-mM (e.g. 100 mM glucose, 50  
389 mM sucrose, 200 mM pyruvate etc.). Growth experiments were carried out using a SpectraMax Plus 384  
390 microplate reader (Molecular Devices, Silicon Valley, California). A standardized procedure was used for  
391 revival and inoculation of cultures. Briefly, glycerol stocks were revived by 100 times diluted inoculation  
392 into EMM2 with 600 C-mM glucose. After approximately 7 hrs, overnight cultures were again diluted and  
393 inoculated into EMM2 + glucose to a final OD<sub>600nm</sub> of 0.02. The next day, fresh media containing the carbon

394 sources to be tested (Table S1) were inoculated to a final OD<sub>600nm</sub> of 0.01. After 6 hrs, cultures were again  
395 diluted (final OD<sub>600nm</sub> of 0.01) using the same medium and transferred to 96-well microtitre plates. Per  
396 carbon source, 10 technical replicates were included (300 µl per well), along with 5 negative controls  
397 (growth medium with carbon source, no cells). Temperature was set to 30°C and double orbital shaking  
398 at 600 rpm was used. OD values were recorded at 5-minute intervals at 600 nm for approximately 80 hrs.  
399

#### 400 [Reconstruction of the metabolic network of \*Schizosaccharomyces pombe\*](#)

401 The metabolic network of *S. pombe* was reconstructed with CBMPy MetaDraft (Olivier et al., 2020), using  
402 the reference proteome sequence from PomBase (Lock et al., 2019) and Yeast8.3.3 (Lu et al., 2019) as the  
403 template model. Model simulations, as well as manual refinement and gap-filling were performed in  
404 CBMPy 0.8.2 (Olivier et al., 2021) under Python 3.9 environment with IBM ILOG CPLEX 20.10 as the linear  
405 program (LP) solver.

406

#### 407 [Mapping essential reactions to gene lethality](#)

408 Essential reactions in the model were determined by computing the predicted growth rate with a single  
409 reaction being blocked (lower and upper flux bounds set to 0.0) for all reactions in the model. If blocked  
410 flux through a reaction resulted in a predicted growth rate 90% or lower of the maximal (wild-type) growth  
411 rate, we considered such reaction essential; otherwise, the mutant is considered viable. Only reactions  
412 with existing gene-protein-reaction (GPR) associations were considered and compared with experimental  
413 data. For GPRs containing an “OR” clause, the experimentally determined essentiality has to match for  
414 all listed genes (or combinations of) to be assigned either “viable” or “essential”. For GPRs containing an  
415 “AND” clause, reaction is assigned “essential” if at least one of the genes is experimentally determined to  
416 be essential; “viable” is assigned the same way as for “OR” clauses. Conflicting results or missing  
417 essentiality experiments were labelled “ambiguous” and not considered further.

418

#### 419 [Reconstruction and simulations of the proteome-constrained model](#)

420 The detailed description of reconstruction of the proteome-constrained model of *S. pombe* is provided in  
421 the [Supplementary Notes](#). We used the reference proteome of *S. pombe* from UniProt (The UniProt  
422 Consortium et al., 2021). Proteomes and kinetic data (enzyme turnover values) were collected from the  
423 BRENDA database (Chang et al., 2021). 5'-UTR sequences and proteome annotations (composition of  
424 macromolecular complexes, Gene Ontology terms etc.) were collected from PomBase (Lock et al., 2019).  
425 The *pcPombe* model was simulated using CBMPy 0.8.2 (Olivier et al., 2021) under Python 3.9 environment  
426 with IBM ILOG CPLEX 20.10 and SoPlex 4.0 (Gleixner et al., 2018) as the low- and high-precision LP solver,  
427 respectively.

428

#### 429 [Acknowledgements](#)

430 We thank Istvan T. Kleijn (Imperial College London, the United Kingdom) for sharing unpublished  
431 transcriptomics and proteomics data and discussions, Brett G. Olivier for his help on the modelling  
432 software, and Julius Battjes for discussions. PG acknowledges support by Marie Skłodowska-Curie Actions  
433 ITN “SynCrop” (grant agreement No 764591). EvPK and BT acknowledge funding from the Netherlands  
434 Organisation for Scientific Research (grant No ALWTF.2015.4). We thank SURFsara for the HPC resources  
435 through access to the Lisa Compute Cluster.

436



#### 437 [Data and Code Availability](#)

438 Experimental data on growth of *S. pombe* on different carbon sources is provided in [Supplementary Table](#)  
439 [1](#). The *pomGEM* model, *pcPombe* model, and the materials to generate *pcPombe* model, together with  
440 information, required to generate the figures of this manuscript, are available on Zenodo  
441 [[10.5281/zenodo.6513463](https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.6513463)].

442

#### 443 [Author Contributions](#)

444 Conceptualization, funding acquisition and supervision: BT, JHvH; experimental data collection and  
445 analysis: PG, MI, GX, JHvH; computational modeling: PG, DG, EvPK; formal analysis and software: PG, DG,  
446 EvPK, SMF, JHvH; writing – original draft: PG; writing – editing: PG, EvPK, BT, JHvH. All authors have read  
447 and approved the manuscript.

448

#### 449 [Competing Interests Statement](#)

450 The project is partly organised by and executed under the auspices of TiFN, a public – private partnership  
451 on precompetitive research in food and nutrition. Among other sources declared, funding for this research  
452 (to EvPK and BT) was obtained from Friesland Campina, CSK Food Enrichment and the Netherlands  
453 Organisation for Scientific Research. The authors have declared that no competing interests exist in the  
454 writing of this publication.

455

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