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Regulation of transcription elongation anticipates alternative gene expression strategies across the cell cycle

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Short title: Regulation of transcription elongation across the cell cycle.

Abstract

A growing body of evidence supports the idea that RNA polymerase II (RNAP II) activity

during transcription elongation can be regulated to control transcription rates. Using

genomic run-on and RNAP II chromatin immunoprecipitation, we measured both active

and total RNAP II across the bodies of genes at three different stages of the mitotic cell

cycle in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*: G1, S, and G2/M. Comparison of active and total

RNAP II levels at these stages revealed distinct patterns of transcription elongation

control throughout the cell cycle. Previously characterized cycling genes were associated

with some of these elongation patterns. A cluster of genes with highly divergent genomic

run-on and RNAP II chromatin immunoprecipitation patterns was notably enriched in

genes related to ribosome biogenesis and the structural components of the ribosome.

We confirmed that the expression of ribosome biogenesis mRNAs increases after G1 but

decreases following mitosis. Finally, we analyzed the contribution of mRNA stability to

each cluster and found that a coordinated regulation of RNAP II activity and mRNA decay

is necessary to fully understand the alternative strategies of gene expression across the

cell cycle.

Introduction

Phenotypic plasticity in living organisms is driven by the regulation of genome

expression. This regulation occurs at all levels of the gene expression pathway, from gene

transcription to protein degradation (reviewed in [1]). Transcription is the most highly

regulated step in most organisms and under most conditions [2–4], although other steps

also play significant roles during physiological dynamic changes [5].

Protein-coding gene transcription is carried out by RNA polymerase II (RNAP II), which

initiates at gene promoters, elongates pre-mRNAs along gene bodies, and terminates

once pre-mRNAs are cleaved and polyadenylated. Historically, most of our

understanding of transcriptional regulation has focused on the initiation phase.

However, in recent decades, it has become clear that post-initiation regulation is a crucial

component of genome expression control [6,7].

In higher eukaryotes, transcriptional elongation is primarily regulated through promoter-

proximal pausing. In the budding yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, this mechanism does

not occur. However, other forms of elongation regulation are present across the yeast

genome [8], which contains all the necessary factors, including chromatin remodeling

complexes, histone chaperones, and histone-modifying enzymes, that govern eukaryotic

transcription elongation [9,10].

During elongation, RNAP II can backtrack on its DNA template, stably blocking mRNA

elongation [11]. Backtracked RNAP II requires RNA cleavage to resume transcription [12],

a process stimulated by TFIIS [11]. Using RNAP II chromatin immunoprecipitation (RNAp

ChIP) and genomic run-on (GRO) assays to compare total and catalytically active

elongating polymerases, respectively, we previously demonstrated that certain gene

regulons, such as those related to ribosomal proteins, ribosome biogenesis, and

mitochondria, are regulated at the elongation level during carbon source changes.

Notably, ribosomal protein genes are particularly susceptible to backtracking [8].

The *S. cerevisiae* genome undergoes substantial changes in gene expression throughout

the cell cycle. Approximately 10% of its mRNAs exhibit cell-cycle periodicity [13]. Some

reports suggest this proportion may be as high as 29%, with 37% of the proteome being

regulated in a cell-cycle-dependent manner [14], though other studies challenge these

findings (reviewed in [15]; see also [16]).

In this study, we investigated whether regulation of RNAP II elongation activity plays a

role in genome-wide control of gene expression across the cell cycle. Our results show

that this regulation is indeed present in a significant portion of the genome. Genes

encoding ribosome biogenesis factors appear to be particularly subject to elongation

regulation and tend to increase the proportion of active RNAP II molecules just before

the onset of mitosis. Furthermore, we found that distinct groups of genes with regulated

RNAP II elongation activity also exhibit concomitant control of mRNA stability

throughout the cell cycle, suggesting a potential link between these two components of

gene regulation.

Materials and methods

Cell cycle synchronization.

BY4741 S. cerevisiae cells, transformed with plasmid pRS316 to become Ura+, were

grown to mid-log phase (OD_{600} = 0.25) in minimal complete (SC) medium and

synchronized at G1 (START) with 1 μg/ml of alpha factor. At this stage, the percentage

of unbudded cells in all three experiments was greater than 90%. The cultures were then

washed in fresh media to remove the pheromone and released into new media. Samples

for total RNAP II (RNAp ChIP), active RNAP II (GRO), FACS, and microscopy were taken at

0, 30, and 60 minutes.

To determine which cell cycle stage was enriched at each time point, we first performed

flow cytometry and budding index analysis. The combination of these two analyses

revealed that, at time 0, most cells remained in G1 (unbudded cells with or without

shmoo formation and a 1C DNA content), with very few having completed mitosis by 60

minutes (indicated by two differentiated nuclear masses). These two analyses are useful

for distinguishing the G1 (no bud or shmoo) and mid-late M phase (where the nucleus

has started to split) populations, but they are less effective at differentiating between S,

G2, and early M phases. Median levels of total and active RNAP II at each time point,

based on well-established cell cycle genes [17,18], were used to more accurately infer

which cell cycle stages were enriched at each time point analyzed (Fig 1A, C).

Genomic Run-On

Genomic run-on (GRO) was performed as described in [19] and modified in [20]. Briefly,

GRO detects genome-wide, actively elongating RNAP II by macroarray hybridization,

with the density of RNAP II per gene used as a measure of its synthesis rate. The protocol

also allows for the measurement of mRNA levels for all genes. mRNA half-lives are

calculated by dividing the mRNA amount by the synthesis rate, assuming steady-state

conditions for the transcriptome. The total synthesis rate was determined by summing

the individual gene synthesis rates.

For the procedure, 5 x 10^8 exponentially growing cells were permeabilized by washing

twice with 0.5% N-lauryl sarcosine sodium sulfate (sarkosyl), followed by recovery

through low-speed centrifugation. In vivo transcription was then carried out in a solution

containing 120 µL of 2.5X transcription buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.7, 500 mM KCl, 80

mM MgCl2), 16 µL of AGC mix (10 mM each of CTP, ATP, and GTP), 6 µL of DTT (0.1 M),

16 µL of [α33P] UTP (3000 Ci/mmol, 10 µCi/µL), and distilled water up to 300 µL. The

mixture was incubated for 5 minutes at 30ºC to facilitate transcription elongation and

was subsequently halted by adding 1 mL of cold distilled water. Non-incorporated

radioactive nucleotides were removed by two centrifugation wash cycles.

Total RNA was extracted using the Fast-Prep (Bio101 Inc.) device. Cells were

resuspended in 500 µL of LETS buffer (0.1 M LiCl, 10 mM EDTA, 0.2% SDS, 10 mM Tris-

HCl, pH 7.4), along with 200 µL of glass beads and 500 µL of water-saturated acid phenol.

Contaminants were removed by chloroform extraction, and labeled RNA was

precipitated with 0.1 volume of 5 M LiCl and 2.5 volumes of cold ethanol for a minimum

of 2 hours at -20ºC. The labeled RNA, obtained after centrifugation and washing, was

quantified spectrophotometrically. All in vivo labeled RNA was used for hybridization

(0.35–3.5 x 10^7 dpm).

Chromatin immunoprecipitation of RNA polymerase II (RNAp ChIP)

RNAp ChIP was performed as described in [21]. 5×10^8 cells were crosslinked with

formaldehyde (FC 1%) for 15 minutes at room temperature. Cross-link was quenched

with glycine (FC 125 mM) and washed 4 times with 30 mL ice-cold TBS buffer (20mM

Tris-HCl, 140 mM NaCl, pH 7.5) and frozen. Cells were thawed on ice and resuspended

in 300 µL lysis buffer [50 mM HEPES-KOH pH 7.5, 140 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 1% Triton

X-100, 0.1% sodium deoxycholate, 1 mM PMSF (Phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride), 1 mM

benzamidine and 1 pill of protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche Diagnostics, Mannheim,

Germany) dissolved in every 50 ml of buffer)]. The equivalent of 0.3 ml of frozen glass

beads (425-600 mm; Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, MO, USA) Cell lysis was carried out in a

Fast-Prep (Bio101 Inc.) device by 2 cycles of 30 seconds. Samples were cooled down 5

minutes in ice between cycles. Samples were then sonicated in ice-cold water using a

Bioruptor (Diagenode SA, Liège, Belgium) with 15´ pulses at High output (200W) during

2 cycles of 15 minutes. DNA fragments obtained ranged from 200 and 500 bp. Cell debris

was removed by centrifugation at 12,000 rpm at 4°C for 5 minutes. An aliquot of 10 µL

of this whole cell extract (WCE) was kept as positive control. 50 µL of Dynabeads Protein

G (Dynal Invitrogen Corp., Carlsbad, CA, USA) were washed with 5 mg/ml bovine serum

albumin (BSA) in PBS buffer (140 mM NaCl, 2.7 mM KCl, 10 mM Na2HPO4, 1.8 mM

KH2PO4, pH 7,4) and incubated with anti-Rpb3 antibodies (ab81859; Abcam). Beads

were washed with PBS/BSA to remove unbound antibody and incubated for 1.5-2 hours

in agitation to enrich the samples in the DNA fragments specifically cross-linked to the

RNAP II. Beads were washed twice with lysis buffer, twice with 360 mM NaCl lysis buffer,

twice with wash buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 250 mM LiCl, 0.5% Nonidet P-40, 0.5%

sodium deoxycholate, 1 mM EDTA pH 8.0, 1 mM PMSF, 1 mM benzamidine and 1 pill of

protease inhibitor cocktail/25 mL (Roche), and once with TE (10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 1

mM EDTA). Two successive washes were performed with 30 µL of elution buffer (50 mM

Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 10 mM EDTA, 1% SDS) by incubating for 10 minutes at 65°C each time.

The final volume of all the samples (IP, NA and WCE) was raised to 300 µL with TE and

treated overnight at 65°C to reverse the cross-linking. Proteins were degraded by

adding 150 µg of proteinase K for 1h 30 min at 37°C. DNA was purified using QIAquick

PCR purification columns (Qiagen Inc., Valencia, CA, USA). Ligation Mediated PCR [3] was

used for DNA amplification. Briefly, DNA was blunted by T4 phage DNA polymerase in a

reaction volume of 124 µL (T4 DNA Pol buffer, 40 µg/µL BSA, 80 µM dNTPs, 0.6 U T4

DNA Polymerase (Roche, Basel, Switzerland). The reaction was allowed to proceed for

20 minutes at 12°C. After phenol/chloroform/isoamylic alcohol extraction, DNA was

ethanol-precipitated in the presence of 12 µg of glycogen and was ligated in a final

volume of 50 µL with the annealed linkers oJW102 and oJW103 (1.5 µM of each primer).

The reaction was carried out overnight at 16°C and ligated DNA was precipitated and

resuspended in 25 µL milliQ water. The ligated DNA was dissolved in a final volume of

40 µL (1x DNA pol buffer: 2 mM MgCl2, 0.25 mM dNTPs, 1.25 µM oligonucleotide

oJW102). The reaction was started by incubating for 2 minutes at 55°C, then pausing to

add 10 µL of the reaction mix (1x DNA pol buffer, 2 mM MgCl2 and 5 U DNA polymerase

from Biotools, Madrid, Spain). The program was resumed for 5 minutes at 72°C, 2

minutes at 95°C and 33 cycles of 30 s at 95°C, 30 s at 55°C and 2 minutes at 72°C. DNA

was precipitated overnight and resuspended in 50 µL of milliQ water. A 5 µL DNA aliquot

of the LM-PCR was analyzed on a 1.2% agarose gel to check the size (average size of 300-

400 bp) and PCR efficiency. The PCR product was used as a template for the radioactive

labelling reaction. The reaction mixture contained 5-15 µL of amplified DNA in 50 µL (1x

DNA pol buffer, 2 mM MgCl2, 0.2 mM dATP, dTTP and dGTP, 25 µM dCTP, 1 µM oJW102,

0.8 μCi/μL α-33P-dCTP and 5 U DNA polymerase). The mix was denatured for 5 minutes

at 95°C, annealed 5 minutes at 50°C, and amplified for 30 minutes at 72°C. The reaction

product was purified through a ProbeQuant G-50 column (Amersham Biosciences,

Piscataway, NJ, USA) to remove unincorporated 33P-dCTP and oligonucleotides.

Total mRNA extraction

Total RNA isolated from budding yeast cells was prepared as described [22], but using a

multiple-sample automated device (Fast-Prep®) to break cells.

Hybridisation, image analysis and data normalization

Nylon filters were made using PCR-amplified whole ORF sequences as probes. After pre-

hybridizing nylon membranes for 1 h in 5X SSC, 5X Denhart's, 0.5% SDS, 100 μg/mL

salmon sperm DNA, hybridizations were performed using 3-5 mL of the same solution

containing labelled RNA. Hybridizations were conducted during 40-44 h in a roller oven

at 65°C. After hybridization, filters were washed once in 2X SSC, 0.1% SDS for 30 min,

and twice in 0.2X SSC, 0.1% SDS for 30 min. Filters were exposed for up to 7 days to an

imaging plate (BAS-MP, FujiFilm) which was read at 50 μm resolution in a

phosphorimager scanner (FLA-3000, FujiFilm). Both GRO and RNAp ChIP experiments

were performed in triplicate by swapping the filters in each replicate among the

different sampling times, as described in [20] Images were quantified by using the

ArrayVision 7.0 software (Imaging Research, Inc.). The signal intensity for each spot was

the background subtracted ARM Density (Artifact Removed Median). Only those values

that were 1.35 times above the corresponding background were taken as valid

measurements. To compare the RNAp ChIP data between experiments, the median

binding ratio of the 32 rDNA spots were arbitrarily set as background. Reproducibility of

the replicates was checked using the ArrayStat software (Imaging Research, Inc.).

Normalization between conditions was done using the global median method for RNAp

ChIP and for GRO experiments. The ratio between immunoprecipitated (IP) and whole

cell extract (WCE) in each experiment (or No-Ab and WCE) after normalization was taken

as the binding ratio.

Data analyses

The changes in RNAp ChIP and GRO data for all genes were evaluated using cluster

analysis of log2-transformed and z-score normalized values. The cluster composition

was analyzed with WebMeV (Multiple Experiment Viewer) [35], employing the SOTA

clustering procedure [23]. Expression data from [17] was averaged across two cycles and

z-score normalized. Decay rates from the same source were averaged across samples,

log-transformed, and scaled to z-scores. The relationship between GRO and RNAp ChIP

was modeled using a linear model without an intercept term. Values for gene categories

or cell cycle phases were summarized by the mean, with error bars representing the 95%

confidence interval as estimated by 1,000 bootstrap resamples.

Results

Elongating RNA polymerase II is highly dynamic during the cell cycle

To determine if the activity of elongating RNAP II undergoes changes throughout the cell cycle, we used alpha-factor to synchronize *S. cerevisiae* populations at START, the decision point within G1 in which cells commit to a new round of cell division [24]. We then released cells from the arrest and took samples for total RNAP II (ChIP) or active RNAP II (Genomic run-on) at 0, 30 and 60 minutes (see scheme in Fig 1A). FACS profile and budding index were used to estimate the average cell cycle stage of each sample (S1 Fig). Almost all cells from samples at time 0 were in G1, whereas most cells in the 60 min samples were in G2/M. Cells from the 30 min samples were in between, with at least one third of them exhibiting the characteristic small bud of S phase, indicating a clear enrichment in this phase.

Figure 1: Distribution of Total and Active RNA Polymerase II at Genes During the Transition from G1 to G2. A) Schematic representation of the time points and samples taken for the analysis of total and active RNAP II. B) Plot representing total (RNAp ChIP) and active RNAP II (GRO) present at each gene at each time point analyzed. Black line: Overall tendency. Dashed blue line: Cycling genes. C) Behavior of total (RNAp ChIP) and active RNAP II (GRO) of cyclically expressed genes, classified according to the phase of maximal expression (G1, G1/S, S, S/G2, G2/M, and M) using CycleBase 3.0 as a reference (S1 Table). Total mRNA expression and mRNA decay values from Eser et al. [17] are also shown.

First analyses revealed many genes in which the levels of active and total RNAP II change

during the cell cycle (S2A Fig). As shown in Fig 1B, global correlation between total RNAP

II (ChIP) and active RNAP II (GRO) was significant and oscillated across the cell cycle,

showing a maximum Pearson correlation coefficient (R^2) of 0.41 at the 30 min timepoint

after START. When we focused in the subset of genes with significant periodic regulation

across the cell cycle [18], correlation between total and active RNAP II was slightly higher

in G1 (R^2 value of 0.38 versus 0.31 in all genes) and in S-G2 (R^2 value of 0.44 versus 0.41)

(Fig 1B).

We analyzed RNAP II behavior in the different categories of cyclic genes, according to its

phase of maximal expression (S1 Table). We found rather parallel RNAP II ChIP and GRO

average profiles (Fig 1C). Using the previously published data from Cramer's lab [17], we

also found that these transcriptional patterns were similar to their corresponding mRNA

profiles, and symmetrical to those of mRNA decay (Fig 1C, see later).

This parallelism between total and active RNAP II patterns in cyclic genes supports the

technical consistency of our experimental data. However, some subtle differences

between the RNAP II ChIP and GRO average profiles were detected, particularly in the

G1-S and M genes (Fig 1C). Moreover, the modest global correlation of RNAP II ChIP and

GRO across the genome (Fig 1B) seemed to indicate that the control of elongation

dynamics might contribute to cell cycle regulation. We hypothesized that changes in

gene expression during the cell cycle may result from a variety of strategies in which

transcription would be regulated, not only by increasing or decreasing the number of

RNAP II molecules engaged on a gene, but also by changing their catalytic activity during

elongation.

Some cycling genes are transcriptionally regulated at the elongation step

To uncover these putative regulatory strategies, we clustered all genes according to their

RNAP II ChIP and GRO profiles along the cell cycle. We followed the SOTA procedure [23],

using the linear correlation coefficient as the distance metric between genes and a

variability threshold of 40% as training conditions (S2B Fig). This resulted in ten distinct

clusters, named A to J, which divided the gene set into consistent groups (Fig 2A, S1

Table). Average GRO and RNAP II ChIP signals for each cluster are shown in Fig 2B,

alongside mRNA expression and decay data from [17] (see later).

**Figure 2: Clustering analysis of total and active RNAP II at genes during the transition
from G1 to G2.** A) Overview of the different clusters identified through SOTA analysis.
B) Behavior of total RNAP II (RNAp ChIP) and active RNAP II (GRO) in each identified
cluster. mRNA expression and mRNA decay data from Eser et al. [17] are also presented.
Genes included in each cluster, along with all transcriptomic data, are listed in S1 Table.
To determine the proportion of active polymerases, we performed a linear regression
analysis using GRO as the dependent variable and RNAp ChIP as the predictor, without
an intercept term. The resulting regression coefficient represents the fraction of RNA
polymerases actively engaged in transcription. By interpreting this coefficient as the
efficiency of polymerase engagement, we estimate the percentage of active
polymerases relative to the total chromatin-bound population. C) Distribution of cell
cycle genes according to their peak of maximal expression (CellCycleBase 3.0) [18] in
each of the clusters identified. Green arrows indicate groups in which the enrichment

or depletion of cell cycle genes is statistically significant (logistic regression with

Benjamini-Hochberg correction). D) Transcription factors known to regulate genes

belonging to the clusters described in A. Only transcription factors significantly enriched

in one or two clusters (Yeastrack [25], hypergeometric test $p < 10^{-5}$), according to DNA

binding or expression evidence, are shown. Other transcription factors significantly

enriched in three or more clusters include: Bas1, Cst6, Tec1, Gat1, Cbf1, Met28, Pdr1,

Gcn4, Met31, Met32, Pdr3, Rpn4, and Yap1.

Some clusters exhibited parallel profiles for total (ChIP) and active RNAP II (GRO). For

instance, cluster C showed significant decreases in both RNAP II ChIP and GRO signals at

the 30-minute time point, followed by a minimal change at 60 minutes (Fig 2B). A

similarly simple regulation was observed in cluster G, which displayed a sustained

increase in both RNAP II ChIP and GRO signals after G1 (Fig 2B). Finally, cluster J exhibited

peaks of both RNAP II ChIP and GRO at the 30-minute time point (Fig 2B). In all three of

these clusters, regulation is likely exerted by controlling RNAP II recruitment, with little

or no modulation of its elongation activity.

In contrast, the other seven clusters exhibited different patterns of average RNAP II ChIP

and GRO signals, with some of them showing completely dissimilar profiles (Fig 2B). For

example, cluster B displayed a marked decrease in RNAP II ChIP at 60 minutes after G1,

while showing a peak in GRO at 30 minutes (Fig 2B). Cluster H showed increased RNAP

II ChIP signals at both 30 and 60 minutes, but a flat pattern in GRO (Fig 2B). The opposite

was observed in cluster F, where RNAP II ChIP signals increased slightly at 30 minutes,

whereas GRO signals dropped at this time point and remained low at 60 minutes (Fig

2B). Cluster A also exhibited a distinct pattern: a flat RNAP II ChIP profile with a strong

increase in GRO after G1, peaking at the 30-minute time point (Fig 2B). Unparallel

profiles were also observed in clusters D and I, where RNAP II ChIP signals decreased and

increased, respectively, 30 minutes after G1, without comparable changes in their GRO

profiles (Fig 2B).

We next examined whether these alternative patterns of RNAP II elongation were

significant for the expression of cycling genes in the ten clusters, as defined by Cyclebase

[18]. We found significant enrichment, either positive or negative, in most clusters.

Positive enrichments were particularly clear in clusters D and E (G1 genes), G (M genes),

I (S/G2 and G2/M genes), and J (S, S/G2, and G2/M genes) (Fig 2C). Additionally, when

we examined the presence of our clusters within previously defined cycling gene

subgroups, we found significant enrichment of clusters D, E, and F in G1 genes, and of

cluster G in M genes (S3 Fig). Interestingly, we also observed significant exclusion of all

clusters except B, G, I, and J from G2/M genes (S3 Fig). Furthermore, clusters D, E, and F

were significantly excluded from S/G2 genes (S3 Fig).

Notably, some clusters displaying dissimilar RNAP II ChIP and GRO profiles across the cell

cycle, such as D, F and I, were associated with cycling genes in the analyses mentioned

above. GRO and RNAp ChIP profiles of several G1-expressed genes belonging to cluster

D are shown in S4A Fig. Examples of G1- and G1/S-expressed genes from cluster F, and

S/G2- and G2/M genes from cluster I are also shown (S4B-C Fig). These results suggest

that regulation of RNAP II activity during transcription elongation is compatible with cell

cycle control of gene expression, establishing a link between transcription elongation

dynamics and cell cycle regulation.

We also investigated whether the genes within each cluster shared specific

transcriptional activators or repressors, based on previous experimental evidence. We

used the "Rank by TF" tool from the Yeastrack database [25]. We found that most clusters

were significantly enriched in genes regulated by specific activators or repressors (Fig

2D). For instance, cluster G was enriched in genes regulated by Spt10, Spt2, and Hif1, all

of which are known to control histone gene transcription in S phase [26], as well as by

Thi2, an activator of thiamine pyrophosphate biosynthesis genes, which are upregulated

during mitosis [16] (Fig 2D).

Regulation of RNA polymerase II elongation explains the cycling pattern

of ribosome biogenesis genes.

We wondered whether the genes in each cluster, in addition to sharing common

transcriptional regulation, also exhibited functional similarities. Gene ontology (GO)

analysis confirmed that this was indeed the case (S2 Table).

For example, cluster A was enriched in terms related to ribosome biogenesis and the

structural constituents of ribosomes (ribosomal proteins) (Fig 3A). These categories

correspond to the so-called "RiBi" and "RP" regulons, respectively [17]. Consistent with

these findings, we observed that cluster A genes were enriched in the global activator

Gcr1, known to act as a coactivator of Rap1 in the regulation of ribosomal protein genes

[27] (Fig 2D). A significant proportion of cluster A genes also appeared to be targets of

Sfp1 and Rph1 (Fig 2D). These two regulators mediate the control of ribosomal protein

genes in response to nutrient and stress signaling [28,29], and their molecular functions

are connected to transcription elongation. Sfp1 promotes RNA pol II backtracking in its

target genes [30,31], while Rph1, a histone H3-K36 demethylase, is linked to chromatin

dynamics in the context of RNAP II elongation [32].

Figure 3: Cell cycle and functional analysis of total and active RNAP II across the cell

cycle. A) Gene ontology analysis with gProfiler for genes in cluster A. B) Similar analysis

for genes in cluster D. C) Distribution of identified clusters and logistic regression

analyses within the RIBI regulon and subcategories (upper section) and within the RP

regulon and subcategories (lower section). D) Representation of total RNAP II (RNAp

ChIP) and active RNAP II (GRO) in RiBi and RP genes. mRNA expression and mRNA decay

data from Eser et al. [17] are also represented. E) Normalized values for all genes (grey),

RiBi regulon (red), and RP regulon (green) for total RNAP II (RNAp ChIP) and active RNA

Pol II (GRO). The proportion of active polymerases was calculated as described in Figure

1B.

Cluster D was enriched in a wide set of categories related to respiration and metabolic

pathways localized to mitochondria (Fig 3B). Interestingly, genes in cluster D were also

enriched in specific targets of Sfp1 and Rph1 (Fig 2D).

Given the high significance of their GO categories, we focused on cluster A and the

ribosome biogenesis genes, whose regulation is critical for cell growth (reviewed in [33];

see also [34]). We analyzed the cluster distribution of the 207 genes from the RiBi

regulon present in our dataset and found that more than 50% belonged to cluster A,

confirming the significance of this enrichment. In contrast, most other clusters were

either not enriched or significantly depleted of this regulon (Fig 3C). All RiBi regulon

subgroups, including genes involved in nucleotide metabolism, translation factors, and

tRNA synthetases, were highly represented in cluster A (Fig 3C).

We also examined the average GRO and RNAp ChIP profiles of the entire RiBi regulon.

As in cluster A, between the 0 and 30-minute time points, the GRO signal increased more

than the RNAp ChIP signal (Fig 3D). For the RP regulon, less dissimilar average profiles of

total and active RNAP II were observed (Fig 3D). This difference from the cluster A

average can be explained by the fact that ribosomal protein genes were not only

enriched in cluster A but also in cluster G (Fig 3C), which shows a similar GRO profile to

cluster A but with a parallel RNAp ChIP profile (Fig 2B). Ribosomal protein genes in

cluster G mainly encode components of the large ribosomal subunit (Fig 3C). The

significance of this finding is unclear, but it may reflect the existence of different

regulatory mechanisms for the synthesis of each ribosomal subunit.

Moreover, the differences between the RP and RiBi regulons are consistent with the

overall correlation between GRO and RNAp ChIP signals for these gene groups across the

cell cycle. While ribosomal protein genes exhibited very high R^2 values at all three time

points (between 0.89 and 0.94), RiBi genes showed a drastic increase in correlation from

0 (R^2 = 0.40) to 30 minutes (R^2 = 0.70) (Fig 3E).

Ribosome-related mRNAs have not been systematically described as undergoing cyclic

regulation [18], although a recent study supports the periodic regulation of genes

related to rRNA synthesis, cytoplasmic translation, and ribosome biogenesis at the

proteomic level [14]. We analyzed mRNA expression of a subset of eight genes from the

RiBi and RP regulons by RT-PCR in alpha factor-synchronized cells. All analyzed RiBi genes

exhibited peaks of expression 20 minutes after release from alpha factor (S5 Fig). This

cycling pattern was not as clear in the three ribosomal protein genes analyzed (S5 Fig).

We conclude that most genes of the RiBi regulon control their expression across the cell

cycle by altering RNAP II activity during transcription elongation.

RNA polymerase II elongation patterns define alternative gene expression

strategies during the cell cycle

The RiBi regulon is a good example where GRO profiles anticipated mRNA expression patterns better than RNAP II ChIP (Fig 3D). To extend this perspective, we represented the average mRNA levels of these clusters, using the accurate transcriptomic quantification of synchronized cells after START performed by Eser et al. [17]. We confirmed that, in most cases, mRNA expression profiles followed GRO values more closely than RNAP II ChIP (compare the RNAP II ChIP, GRO, and mRNA expression panels in Fig 2B).

However, two clear exceptions were detected. Clusters D and I, which are enriched in G1-expressed genes and S/G2/M genes, respectively (Fig 2C), showed a closer parallelism of mRNA expression profiles to RNAP II ChIP than to GRO (Fig 2B). These two cases were puzzling, since RNAP II activity measured by GRO should be a better proxy for transcription than total RNAP II present on genes, as the latter includes both backtracked RNAP II molecules and actively elongating ones [8,31,35,36].

To understand these cases, we incorporated mRNA decay values along the cell cycle, which were obtained by Cramer's laboratory [17] using a metabolic labeling approach. As previously described, this additional information aids in understanding the regulatory behavior of cycling genes. For example, the decrease in mRNA expression of G1/S genes at the 30-minute time point is better explained by increased mRNA decay than by the relatively flat profile of transcriptional activity measured by GRO (Fig 1C).

This additional layer of information allowed us to explain the divergence between GRO

and mRNA expression profiles detected in clusters D and I. We found that average mRNA

decay values in cluster D were maximal at 30 minutes (Fig 2B). Therefore, the

combination of a mild decrease in transcriptional activity (GRO) with a marked increase

in mRNA decay explains the strong downregulation of mRNA expression levels for this

group of genes at the 30-minute time point (Fig 2B).

In contrast, cluster I showed a mild increase in transcriptional activity (GRO) combined

with a slight decrease in mRNA decay, which explains the comparatively higher increase

in mRNA expression at 30 minutes (Fig 2B). In fact, comparing clusters I and J, which

showed nearly identical mRNA expression profiles, is illustrative of two alternative

strategies that result in the same average mRNA expression pattern. In cluster I, mRNA

expression regulation is achieved by comparable changes in RNAP II activity and mRNA

decay, whereas in cluster J, regulation of RNAP II activity was much more pronounced

(Fig 2B). This difference is likely due to the overall higher stability (lower decay) of mRNAs

in cluster J compared to cluster I (Fig 2B). As expected, transcriptional regulation of

stable mRNAs involves more intense changes in transcriptional activity than for unstable

mRNAs. GRO changes also triggered stronger alterations of mRNA expression in

ribosome biogenesis genes than in ribosomal protein genes, which exhibited much more

stable mRNAs (Fig 3D).

The comparison of clusters D and E is also very informative. These two sets of genes

shared similar overall mRNA stabilities, intermediate between those of clusters I and J

(Fig 2B). In this context, the stronger regulation of transcriptional activity shown by

cluster E was insufficient to match the regulatory effect in mRNA levels observed in

cluster D, which combined milder control of transcription activity with a more

pronounced change in mRNA stability (Fig 2B).

A similar conclusion was reached when comparing clusters A (stable mRNAs) and H (very

unstable mRNAs). In this case, drastic upregulation of transcriptional activity with no

regulation of mRNA decay (cluster A) produced the same average mRNA expression

pattern as no change in transcriptional activity combined with slight downregulation of

decay (cluster H).

The synergistic effect produced by the combined control of transcription and decay was

also evident when we compared clusters A and G, both of which express stable mRNAs.

These two clusters exhibited upregulated GRO profiles after START; however, in the case

of cluster G, its combination with mRNA decay downregulation led to stronger

upregulation of mRNA levels than in cluster A, where no significant change in decay was

detected (Fig 2B). Thus, in all ranges of mRNA stability, the most pronounced regulation

of mRNA levels was achieved by concerted control of RNAP II activity and mRNA decay.

Discussion

The comparison of total RNAP II occupancy on gene bodies, as measured by ChIP (RNAP

II ChIP), with transcriptional activity assessed by genomic run-on (GRO) allowed us to

test whether the regulation of transcription elongation plays a significant role in gene

expression across the cell cycle. Only 21% of the 4,764 analyzed genes were classified

into clusters that exhibited parallel RNAp ChIP and GRO profiles after alpha factor

release (Fig 2B and S2 Fig), indicating that most budding yeast genes undergo some form

of regulation at the RNAP II activity level.

Several gene clusters were significantly enriched in genes previously shown to exhibit a

cyclic pattern of mRNA expression. This was the case for cluster G, which is associated

with M-specific genes and their transcription regulators (Fig 2C-D), and which displayed

parallel RNAp ChIP, GRO, and mRNA expression profiles (Fig 2B). No alterations in

transcriptional activity during elongation are required to explain the regulatory behavior

of these genes.

In contrast, clusters D (enriched in G1-specific genes) and I (enriched in S-G2-M genes)

displayed dissimilar RNAp ChIP and GRO profiles (Fig 2B, S4 Fig), indicating that some

alterations in RNAP II activity must occur during transcription elongation, likely through

RNAP II backtracking. In these two cases, GRO profiles alone did not explain the mRNA

expression patterns, unless mRNA decay was also considered (Fig 2B, see later).

Interestingly, cluster A, which also exhibited non-parallel RNAp ChIP and GRO average

profiles, contained more than 50% of the RiBi regulon (Fig 3A). Although these genes

were not previously described as periodic [18], we confirmed this regulation for some

examples through RT-PCR (S5 Fig) and found a regulated mRNA expression pattern for

the entire ribosome biogenesis group in the cell-cycle expression dataset produced by

Eser et al. [17] (Fig 3D).

RNAP II activity in ribosomal protein and ribosome biogenesis genes has previously been

shown to be regulated during elongation in response to environmental stimuli mediated

by protein kinase A [8]. Interestingly, another regulon capable of modulating its

elongating RNAP II activity in response to these conditions is composed of genes related

to respiration and other mitochondrial functions [8]. GO analyses revealed significant

enrichment of this type of genes in cluster D (Fig 3B).

We have previously described that these regulons change their expression in response

to cell growth in opposite directions: mRNA concentrations of ribosomal protein and

ribosome biogenesis genes increase with the growth rate, whereas mRNA

concentrations of mitochondria-related genes decrease, in line with the low respiratory

activity of fast-growing yeast cultures [37]. These controls occur through different

mechanisms: ribosomal protein and ribosome biogenesis genes upregulate

transcription with cell growth without overall changes in mRNA stability, while

mitochondria-related genes decrease mRNA stability with increasing growth rate,

without significant alterations in transcription rates [37,38]. In agreement with this, the

regulation of mRNA levels in cluster A, and more specifically in ribosome biogenesis and

ribosomal protein genes, appears to be primarily transcriptional (Figs 2B and 3E),

whereas the mRNA expression in cluster D across the cell cycle requires mRNA decay to

be considered (Fig 2B).

The decreased expression of mitochondria-related genes at the 30-minute time point,

when at least one third of the cells were in S phase, aligns with published evidence

suggesting that DNA replication occurs during the reductive phase of the *S. cerevisiae*

metabolic cycle [39,40]. The increased expression of ribosome biogenesis genes at this

time point is likely related to the S-phase, as nucleolus biogenesis is coupled with rDNA

replication [41]. Moreover, the synthesis of a complete set of new RNA polymerase I

and ribosome components, particularly biogenesis factors, is required before the

complete nucleolar reorganization that occurs in mitosis [42].

As discussed earlier, D and I are the two clusters where: i) alterations in RNAP II activity,

likely due to backtracking, are occurring, and ii) mRNA stability is playing a significant

role in regulation. The fact that genes clustered according to elongating RNAP II activity

features (RNAp ChIP/GRO profiles) show distinct mRNA decay profiles underscores the

importance of transcriptional elongation dynamics in gene expression across the cell

cycle. This was especially evident when comparing clusters I and J, which display

identical average mRNA expression profiles but differ in mRNA stabilities (Figs 2B).

A molecular connection between RNAP II elongation dynamics and the stability of

transcribed mRNA was recently described by us for genes controlled by the transcription

factor Sfp1 [30]. During transcription of these genes, Sfp1 promotes RNAP II

backtracking until late elongation, when it is transferred from the polymerase to the

nascent mRNA, which then becomes imprinted for higher stability [30]. It is tempting to

hypothesize that a similar mechanism could be operating in the genes of clusters D and

I. In fact, genes in cluster D are significantly enriched in targets of Sfp1 (Fig 2D). In this

regard, the mRNA stability of mitochondria-related genes (enriched in cluster D, Fig 2B)

is controlled by Puf3, a factor that has been proposed to bind its targets co-

transcriptionally [43].

In addition to Puf3-regulated ones, other genes whose mRNAs are targeted by RNA

binding proteins that control their stability also exhibit transcriptional

activation/repression, indicating the existence of specific mechanisms of crosstalk,

which sum up effects on synthesis and decay rates as a way to enhance regulation [44].

These mechanisms of crosstalk may involve complex interactions between

transcriptional regulators and RNA-binding proteins that are dynamically modulated

across the cell cycle. Such interactions not only influence gene expression but also fine-

tune the stability of the mRNA transcripts, contributing to the precise regulation

required for cellular processes such as growth and division. Indeed, the balance between

transcriptional activity and mRNA decay is crucial for maintaining the appropriate levels

of gene products at different stages of the cell cycle.

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Supporting information

722 **S1 Fig. Cell cycle distribution in assessed samples.** Representative example of the

723 budding index and the FACS profile of samples in which stages in which active and total

724 RNA pol II were analysed.

726 **S2 Fig. Distribution of total RNA polymerase II (RNAp ChIP) and active RNA polymerase**

727 **II (GRO) at genes during the transition from G1 to G2. A**) Plot representing total RNA

pol II and active RNA pol II present in each gene at each time point analysed. **B**) Plot

representing clusters identified with SOTA.

S3 Fig. Distribution of identified clusters within the different categories of cell cycle

genes according to their peak of maximal accumulation (CellCycle Base 3.0). Green

arrows represent groups in which the enrichment or depletion of clusters is statistically

significant (logistic regression with BF correction).

S4 Fig. Some periodically expressed genes exhibit dissimilar GRO and RNAp ChIP

profiles along the cell cycle. A) Examples of G1-expressed genes (*AMS1, ARA1, CHS1,*

GPD1, TPS1 and *YDL023C*) belonging to cluster D. **B)** Examples of G1- (*ALD4*, *HXT4* and

HXT5) and G1/S-expressed genes (*IDH2*, *HEM15* and *YLR327C*) from cluster F. **C)**

Examples of S/G2- (*ARP10*) and G2/M-expressed genes (*FKH2, STB5, TUB2, YOR246C* and

YTH1) from cluster I.

S5 Fig. Cell cycle regulation of RiBi and RP genes. Gene ontology analysis highlights a

strong enrichment of cluster A in RP and RIBI genes. Manual validation of mRNA levels

obtained for selected RiBi and RP genes in synchronized cells released from a G1 arrest

with alpha factor (10 minutes interval sampling).

S1 Table. Experimental data. GRO, RNAp ChIP, mRNA expression and mRNA decay data

for all genes, indicating the cluster where each genes is located, whether the gene has

been previously described as cell-cycle regulated, and whether it belongs to RiBi or RP

regulons. mRNA expression and decay data are from Cramer´s lab [17].

S2 Table. Gene ontology analyses. Results of the gene ontology analyses performed

with each gene cluster.

A.

B.

C.

A.

B.

C.

D.

A.

Term ID	Term Name	p_adj (query_1) ↑
GO:0042254	ribosome biogenesis	3.879×10^{-34}
GO:0032991	protein-containing complex	4.802×10^{-29}
GO:0005488	binding	4.464×10^{-20}
GO:0043412	macromolecule modification	1.560×10^{-10}
GO:0003735	structural constituent of ribosome	6.916×10^{-5}
GO:0140098	catalytic activity, acting on RNA	1.510×10^{-4}
GO:0071042	nuclear polyadenylation-dependent mRNA cat...	6.064×10^{-3}
GO:0071051	polyadenylation-dependent snoRNA 3'-end pr...	6.064×10^{-3}
GO:0009156	ribonucleoside monophosphate biosynthetic pr...	6.605×10^{-3}
GO:0008170	N-methyltransferase activity	8.650×10^{-3}
GO:0004298	threonine-type endopeptidase activity	9.054×10^{-3}
GO:0043021	ribonucleoprotein complex binding	1.107×10^{-2}
GO:0051028	mRNA transport	2.655×10^{-2}
GO:0006450	regulation of translational fidelity	2.829×10^{-2}
GO:0051664	nuclear pore localization	3.334×10^{-2}
GO:0010494	cytoplasmic stress granule	4.081×10^{-2}

B.

Term ID	Term Name	p_adj (query_1)
GO:0016491	oxidoreductase activity	3.892×10^{-3}
GO:0016743	carboxyl- or carbamoyltransferase activity	1.291×10^{-2}
GO:0009055	electron transfer activity	4.596×10^{-2}
GO:0008652	amino acid biosynthetic process	3.904×10^{-4}
GO:0009084	glutamine family amino acid biosynthetic proce...	1.663×10^{-3}
GO:0009987	cellular process	1.006×10^{-2}
GO:0042773	ATP synthesis coupled electron transport	1.210×10^{-2}
GO:0098798	mitochondrial protein-containing complex	1.416×10^{-4}
GO:0005759	mitochondrial matrix	2.736×10^{-3}
GO:0005622	intracellular anatomical structure	5.570×10^{-3}
GO:0005750	mitochondrial respiratory chain complex III	2.516×10^{-2}
GO:0031090	organelle membrane	2.919×10^{-2}
GO:0070469	respirasome	4.943×10^{-2}

C.

D.

E.