Spatio-temporal Coordination of Transcription During the Cell Growth Cycle in Budding Yeast.

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Abstract Metabolic self-synchronization in yeast cultures highlights significant gaps in our understanding of fundamental cellular processes. The oscillation percolates throughout cellular physiology, and the transcriptome oscillates between expression of genes encoding for biosynthesis and growth, and for catabolism and stress-response. However, long protein half-lives dampen this oscillation of transcript abundances, and putative functions remain elusive. We analyze an RNA-seq time series over 2.5 cycles of a short period respiratory oscillation (≈ 36 min, strain IFO 0233), preceding a distinct bifurcation of system dynamics. An integrative analysis of metabolic dynamics and co-expression cohorts identifies CO₂ and carbonic anhydrase as putative players in oscillation and culture synchronization *via* a feedforward from catabolic to anabolic metabolism. Differential modulation of the relative duration of biosynthetic and catabolic protein cohort transcription precedes the bifurcation, compatible with a causative role in growth rate-dependent cellular resource allocation. The temporal program of protein-coding transcripts encodes the spatial structure of the cell. We suggest a function of periodic transcription in subcellular pattern formation of the growing cell.

Introduction

When yeast cultures are grown to a high cell density they tend to show collective metabolic dynamics. Numerous studies on continuously grown yeast have shown that stable oscillatory dynamics propagate throughout the metabolome, transcriptome and impinge on chromatin organization. The cycle period is dependent on growth conditions and the strain employed. However, under equivalent growth conditions cycle period can be categorized into long ($\tau = 4$ h–5 h) or short period cycles ($\tau = 0.7$ h–1 h; peculiar to the diploid strain IFO 0233). The cell division cycle (CDC) is tightly or loosely coupled with the long or short period cycles, respectively. The phenomenon is considered a model system for circadian cell biology in the absence of a circadian clock (Causton *et al.*, 2015;

41 *Mellor, 2016*), or more generally, for multi-scale coherence of cellular processes (*Sonnleitner et al.,*
42 *1997; Lloyd and Murray, 2007; Aon et al., 2008*).

43 A key feature of long period oscillation that is often ignored or misinterpreted in current
44 literature, is that the phase of low oxygen consumption (LOC) is not (respiro-)fermentative but
45 purely respiratory. This is indicated by the respiratory quotient (RQ), the ratio of carbon dioxide
46 production and oxygen consumption, and $RQ = \frac{q_{CO_2}}{q_{O_2}} \approx 1$ in LOC (*Küenzi and Fiechter, 1969; von*
47 *Meyenburg, 1969b; Strässle et al., 1988*). LOC is a phase of volume growth and build-up of glycogen
48 and trehalose at intermediate catabolic rates, in other words: the G1 phase of the CDC (*Münch et al.,*
49 *1992*). The phase of high oxygen consumption (HOC) then marks the budding phase (S, G2), fueled
50 by rapid mobilization of glycogen, leading to saturation of the respiratory capacity and a short phase
51 of overflow metabolism with ethanol secretion (*Sonnleitner and Kappeli, 1986; Sonnleitner et al.,*
52 *1997; Futcher, 2006*). DNA replication (S-phase) is initiated at maximal respiration rate (*Burnetti*
53 *et al., 2016*) and followed by the transition to LOC and cell division (*Münch et al., 1992*). The period
54 is lower than the average culture doubling time due to the asymmetric nature of budding yeast
55 division, and corresponds to the division time of mother cells. The smaller offspring cells (buds)
56 traverse two or more cycles until large enough for division (*Bellgardt, 1994a; Hjortso and Nielsen,*
57 *1995; Duboc and von Stockar, 2000*).

58 However, periods longer or much shorter than the average culture doubling time can be
59 observed in the same strains, depending on experimental conditions (*von Meyenburg, 1969b;*
60 *Heinze et al., 1983; Porro et al., 1988; Bellgardt, 1994b*). As *Beuse et al. (1998)* put it: "*the scatter*
61 *of the data contrasted with the convincing clarity of the theoretical model*". The group of Kuriyama
62 discovered stable short period oscillation in the strain IFO 0233 (*Satroudinov et al., 1992; Keulers*
63 *et al., 1996*). Here, HOC and LOC phases appear contracted and several processes are phase-shifted.
64 Fermentation ($RQ > 1$) and glycogen mobilization occur in LOC, $RQ < 1$ in HOC, and no phase at
65 $RQ \approx 1$ is observed. Cell division is only partially synchronized, reflected by an initiation of S-phase
66 in 8%–10% of cells at the transition from HOC to LOC phase (*Klevecz et al., 2004; Sasidharan et al.,*
67 *2012b*). A biosynthetic pulse occurs at this transition, and many core carbon intermediates and
68 amino acids peak in concentration (*Murray et al., 2007*). Population synchronization is lost at higher
69 aeration rates, suggesting that gaseous substances act as synchronizers. Specifically, CO_2 but not
70 O_2 (*Keulers et al., 1996*); H_2S , a costly intermediate of the sulfate uptake pathway (*Wolf et al., 2001;*
71 *Murray et al., 2003*); and the overflow metabolite acetaldehyde (*Sohn et al., 2000; Murray et al.,*
72 *2003*) are key suspects.

73 Despite these differences, a similar temporal program of gene expression is observed in both
74 short period (IFO 0233) and long period experimental systems (*Machné and Murray, 2012*). Both
75 show maxima and minima of the cellular ATP/ADP ratio during the HOC and early LOC phases, re-
76 spectively (*von Meyenburg, 1969b; Satroudinov et al., 1992; Xu et al., 2004; Müller, 2006; Machné*
77 *and Murray, 2012; Amariei et al., 2014*). Global remodeling of promoter and gene body nucleo-
78 some organization occurs during the late LOC phase (*Amariei et al., 2014; Nocetti and Whitehouse,*
79 *2016*). During HOC, transcription progresses from a ribosome biogenesis cohort (Ribi) and cy-
80 toplasmic ribosomal protein genes (RP), to amino acid synthesis genes (AA) and mitochondrial
81 ribosomal protein genes (mtRP) at the transition to LOC. During the LOC phase, transcripts of a
82 large group of stress-response and catabolic proteins (S/C) peak. In IFO 0233, the latter overlaps
83 with expression of the mtRP cohort, while in long period systems these are separated (*Machné*
84 *and Murray, 2012*). Several hypotheses on putative functions of the temporal program have been
85 suggested. The functional profiles of co-expressed cohorts matches metabolic activity, and the
86 initial hypothesis was a "just-in-time" model of gene expression (H1), where enzymes are expressed
87 when required within the metabolic cycle (*Klevecz et al., 2004; Tu et al., 2005; Murray et al., 2007*).
88 However, protein half-lives in yeast are now thought to be much shorter (*Christiano et al., 2014*)
89 than initially reported (*Belle et al., 2006*). This would strongly dampen periodic transcription on
90 protein level (*Lück et al., 2014*). Indeed recent proteomic studies found no (*Feltham et al., 2019*)

or only few (*O' Neill et al., 2020*) periodic proteins in long period systems. Thus, *Feltham et al. (2019)* suggest a null hypothesis (H0) where periodic mRNA production and degradation produce no significant costs and are a side-effect of the metabolic states the cells traverse. *Slavov and Botstein (2011)* and *Burnetti et al. (2016)* suggested an alternative hypothesis, based on the observation that the relative duration of the LOC phase varies strongly while HOC duration only subtly changes with growth rate. This would result in different absolute levels of the proteins from HOC- and LOC-specific co-expression cohorts and could underlie growth rate-dependent cellular resource allocation (*Maaløe, 1979; Molenaar et al., 2009*). Due to the obvious analogy we refer to this hypothesis as the "pulse-width-modulation" model (H2). More recently, *O' Neill et al. (2020)* suggested that a main function of the cycle lies in protein homeostasis, where ionic composition changes over the cycle and proteins aggregate and are degraded (autophagy) in LOC. Notably, these hypotheses are not mutually exclusive and each could contribute to a more comprehensive picture of this fascinating experimental system and of cell biology in general.

Despite numerous transcriptome studies in different strains and at different periods (*Klevecz et al., 2004; Tu et al., 2005; Li and Klevecz, 2006; Slavov et al., 2011; Chin et al., 2012; Kuang et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2015*), no analysis of the putative contributions of noncoding transcription during the cycle has yet been presented.

Thus, we performed strand-specific RNA-sequencing in high temporal resolution over 2.5 cycles of the short period oscillation of the strain IFO 0233, and preceding a period-lengthening bifurcation of system dynamics. Global system variables, such as ATP flux and proton export, oscillated, confirming the cell-wide nature of the cycle. The protein coding transcriptome followed the conserved program but a pronounced shift from HOC-specific to LOC-specific transcript abundance peaks occurred within just two cycles. We systematically tested aforementioned hypotheses on putative functions of the temporal program of protein coding transcription, and report a pronounced enrichment of noncoding transcript abundance in LOC phase.

Results and Discussion

Multi-generational Dynamics and a Bifurcation to Longer Period

We studied short period oscillatory transcriptome dynamics in a continuous culture of the budding yeast strain IFO 0233. The culture traversed complex dynamic transients instead of the more commonly studied stable oscillation (*Figure 1A* and *S4*). The multi-generational transients spanned 30 h–40 h and appeared twice, with highly similar trajectories.

During these transients the oscillation followed the typical pattern observed for this strain and conditions, with period τ of 0.6 h–0.7 h (*Figure 1B–C*): the culture cycled between a phase of low oxygen consumption (LOC, here: $-q_{O_2} < 3.5 \text{ mmol/h/g}_{DCW}$) with additional fermentation (respiratory quotient $RQ = \frac{q_{CO_2}}{-q_{O_2}} > 1$), and a phase of high oxygen consumption (HOC). During HOC, RQ decreased below the $\frac{2}{3}$ stoichiometry of ethanol oxidation (*Figure 1D*). This is consistent with re-uptake of ethanol (*Satroudinov et al., 1992*) but could indicate further unknown contributions to CO_2 turnover. Proton export (q_{H^+} , *Figure 1C* and *E*) peaked in early HOC phase, consistent with a higher intracellular pH during HOC (*Keulers et al., 1996*). The temporal mean $\overline{RQ} > 1$ (*Figure 1A*) indicates net fermentation during the dynamic state, but stoichiometric estimation of ATP production rates q_{ATP} suggests that fermentation did not contribute significantly to overall ATP turnover (*Figure 1D*). The estimated ATP turnover rates are in phase with previously measured ATP/ADP ratio and energy charge, peaking in early to mid HOC phase (*Machné and Murray, 2012; Amariei et al., 2014*). The concentration of H_2S peaked at $\approx 3 \mu M$ with a sharp increase upon transition to LOC (*Figure 1C* and *E*), consistent with its release during amino acid biosynthesis in this transition phase (*Murray et al., 2007*) and its suggested role in population synchronization (*Murray et al., 2003*). During LOC, metabolic heat dissipation ($\Delta Q'$) fell to minima equal to that of the starving culture before onset of continuous feeding (*Fig. S4*).

Both multi-generational transients were characterized by gradual amplitude and period drifts.

Figure 1. A Transient Oscillation & the RNA-seq Experiment. **A:** Metabolic dynamics during continuous culture of the budding yeast strain IFO 0233. Dissolved O₂ (DO) measurement from the start of continuous feeding (dilution rate $\phi = 0.089 \text{ h}^{-1}$). Line colors are derived from the respiratory quotient RQ (panel D) and indicate phases of high O₂ consumption (HOC: red) and low O₂ consumption (LOC: blue). The cyan line and right axis show the temporal mean $\overline{RQ}$, a moving average over ca. 10 h. Bullet points P1–P7 on the x-axis are discussed in the text and used in (B–E). **B:** The oscillation periods for the dynamic transients were derived from a Wavelet transform of the DO signal and the phase lengths are the time spans of each cycle where oxygen uptake ($-q_{O_2}$) stayed below (red) or above (blue) $3.5 \text{ mmol/h/g}_{DCW}$. **C:** zoom on P3–P6 for measured metabolic rates and concentrations. The gray background indicates dissolved O₂ as shown in (A); q_{O_2} , q_{CO_2} and H_2S were measured in the offgas of the reactor, corrected for the measurement delay and H_2S concentration was derived via its solubility. Proton export (q_{H^+}) was calculated from the NaOH addition rate. **D:** zoom on P4–P5 for calculated rates. The respiratory quotient (RQ) and ATP production rates by respiration ($q_{ATP_{ox}}$) or by fermentation ($q_{ATP_{ferm}}$) were calculated from q_{O_2} and q_{CO_2} ; ranges of q_{ATP} show values for pure glucose oxidation and fermentation, or pure fermentation of glucose and oxidation of only ethanol. The RQ color gradient serves as a reference in panel A and Figure S6. **E:** one-hour snapshots of typical dynamics at different phases of the transient (bullet points).

The overall period and LOC phase duration decreased while maximal oxygen uptake and HOC phase duration increased (bullet points P2–P3, **Figure 1A, B, S4**). As periods reached a minimum of $\tau \approx 0.6 \text{ h}$, the plateau of q_{CO_2} was split into two distinct peaks flanking the HOC phase (P3–P4, **Figure 1C** and E). The first q_{CO_2} peak vanished and a sharper high amplitude peak remained at the transition to LOC, immediately preceding a distinct bifurcation of system dynamics. An additional phase first appeared at this bifurcation: metabolism was respiratory ($RQ \approx 1$) and all parameters remained at intermediate values for about one full oscillation cycle (P4–P5, **Figure 1C, D** and S5). A delayed H_2S peak then preceded a long and pronounced LOC phase. The system then fell back to a shorter period, but q_{CO_2} remained phase-delayed and with higher amplitude (P5, **Figure 1C** and E). Finally, the period suddenly increased to $\tau \approx 1 \text{ h}$, and the pause between HOC and LOC phases re-appeared as a short plateau or shoulder, again at $RQ \approx 1$, and flanked by pulses of CO₂ and H_2S release (P6, **Figure 1C, E, S6**).

In summary, we confirmed that the oscillation is a cell-wide phenomenon where global variables such as ATP flux, proton export or metabolic heat dissipation oscillate at high amplitude. Here, a gradual uncoupling of CO₂ release from respiratory activity preceded a bifurcation of system dynamics to longer periods and a biphasic LOC. A new phase appeared at the transition from HOC to LOC, characterized by purely respiratory metabolism. Low but purely respiratory activity

at $RQ \approx 1$ is characteristic of the LOC phase in long period oscillations where glycogen is built up instead of degraded (Münch *et al.*, 1992). In our experiment this phase was preceded by a novel pulse of CO_2 release and the H_2S pulse was delayed and invariantly accompanied the transition to LOC. These observations are compatible with the suggested roles of both CO_2 (Keulers *et al.*, 1996) and H_2S (Murray *et al.*, 2003) in population synchronization and suggest that they act *via* different metabolic or signaling targets. H_2S is released during sulfate uptake and amino acid synthesis at the transition to LOC (Murray *et al.*, 2007). CO_2 is increasingly recognized as a substrate of biosynthesis *via* carbonic anhydrase and bicarbonate HCO_3^- , including gluconeogenesis (Aguilera *et al.*, 2005; Martin *et al.*, 2017). Tentatively, the bifurcation of system dynamics may result from an imbalance between the storage carbohydrate cycle and the biosynthetic pulse at the transition to LOC. The increase in period indicates a transition to a lower growth rate and/or a stronger coupling to the cell division cycle. A down-shift of dilution rate may have stabilized these dynamics.

RNA-seq in High Temporal Resolution: Non-coding Expression In LOC Phase

Similarity-Based Segmentation of RNA-seq Time Series Data.

Numerous time series of the protein-coding transcriptome have revealed a constant temporal program of transcription cohorts which is unfolded at strongly varying periods from 40 min to 7.5 h (Machné, 2017; Mellor, 2016). Neither the effect of transient states of the oscillation nor non-coding transcription have been studied yet. We thus took 24 samples for RNA-seq analysis in high temporal resolution (4 min) over the last 2.5 cycles before the intermediate pause at $RQ \approx 1$ (P4 and top axis ticks in Figure 1). The strand-specific sequencing reads were mapped to the reference genome (strain S288C, R64-1-1), yielding reads for 76 % of the genome (Fig. S8A). 17 % of all genome positions oscillated at $p_{DFT} < 0.05$ (Fig. S8B). The read-count phase distribution was bimodal with peaks in mid HOC and late LOC phases (Fig. S8C). We previously developed a similarity-based segmentation algorithm (Machné *et al.*, 2017) to reduce read-count data to ca. 37,000 segments, each a putative individual transcript (Figure 2A, B and S8D). Of these, 6344 segments (17 %) oscillated ($p_{rain} < 0.05$, Figure 2C & S8E-F), confirming that a large fraction of the transcriptome undergoes periodic changes in abundance.

Next, we analyzed the overlap of our segments with annotated genome features and previously published transcript data sets (Fig. S9). 4489 segments were classified as protein-coding transcripts (Figure 2D). These coding segments reproduced the previously established transcriptome program (Machné and Murray, 2012), while periodically expressed non-coding and antisense transcripts predominantly peaked in the LOC phase (Figure 2E).

Clustering Analysis.

Very short and lowly expressed segments (26k with $p_{rain} \geq 0.85$) were removed from further analyses, and the remaining 11k segments (Fig. S8G-I) were clustered into ten co-expressed cohorts. Clusters were sorted, re-labeled and colored by their mean peak phase (Fig. S10-S12). These ten cohorts can be further classified (Fig. S10C) into two groups of five clusters each. The high amplitude clusters (Figure 3 and S11) are characterized by long segments, and 61 %–91 % of segments assigned to a protein-coding gene. Low amplitude clusters (Figure 4 and S12) contain shorter and weakly expressed segments, with 21 %–91 % non-coding and spanning LOC phase. Thus, the clustering analysis confirms both observations: coding gene co-expression cohorts traverse the known temporal program while non-coding transcripts are predominantly expressed in LOC phase.

A Conserved but Adaptable Temporal Program of Transcription

The temporal sequence of transcript abundance peaks of the five protein-coding gene cohorts (Figure 3A: clusters 1–3, 7 & 8) and their Gene Ontology enrichment profiles (Figure 3B and S13) recapitulate previous results (Klavec *et al.*, 2004; Machné and Murray, 2012): the RiBi regulon of ribosomal biogenesis genes (Jorgensen *et al.*, 2004) peaks in early to mid HOC phase (cluster 1: RiBi), followed by clusters encoding for cytoplasmic ribosomal proteins (cluster 2: cRP), and

Figure 2. RNA-seq Data Structure and Segmentation. **A:** RNA-seq time series data at the SRG1/SER3 locus in a genome browser plot. Forward strand data is shown in the top rows and reverse strand in the bottom rows in reverse order. From top to bottom for forward strand data: annotated genome features as arrows; “total” RNA-seq signal as red-scale heatmap (red: high); read-count time series (“RC”, in RPM) from bottom to top as a gray-scale heatmap (dark: high); the oscillation p-value (“osci. p.”) as red-scale heatmap (red: low p-value); “Segments” as colored arrows. **B:** time series of the segments mapping to SRG1 (blue) and SER3 (red). The horizontal lines are the temporal medians, and the thicker bars indicate the peak widths W in the first and second full cycle. **C:** mean read-counts (RC, in RPM) vs. oscillation phase of 6344 segments with $p_{\text{rain}} < 0.05$ as a 2D histogram (red: high and blue: low local density). The gray background indicates the dissolved O_2 concentration averaged over the first two cycles of the experiment. The oscillation statistics (phase and p-value) were calculated only for the first cycles of the experiments. **D:** J-R plot (see Methods) of individual overlapping pairs of segments (query Q) with annotated coding genes (target T) as a 2D histogram (red: high and blue: low local density). R is the length ratio and J is the Jaccard index of an overlapping pair. The total number of overlapping and tested genes are indicated above the plot. The 4489 genes with $J > 0.5$ were classified as coding gene transcripts in further analyses. **E:** phase-ordered heatmap of the time-courses of oscillatory segments (same as in C)). The dissolved O_2 (DO, %) is shown as a heatmap (black: high DO) on the top axis. Left and right panels show local densities (circles moving average of counts over 1/10 of the total number) of segments overlapping with previously defined (Machné and Murray, 2012) classes of coding genes (left: Ribi, ribosomal biogenesis and cytoplasmic ribosomal proteins; AA: amino acid synthesis; mRibi: mitochondrial genes, incl. ribosomal proteins; stress: catabolic and protein homeostasis genes), or non-coding segments (right: AS, overlapping with an ORF in antisense; NC, no overlap in sense or antisense).

amino acid biosynthetic pathways (cluster 3: AA) at the transition to LOC. During the LOC phase, mitochondrial proteins, including mitochondrial ribosomal proteins (cluster 7: mRP) are co-expressed with a stress response (Gasch et al., 2000; Brauer et al., 2005) or G1 phase (O’Duibhir et al., 2014) regulon, comprising proteins of the general stress response (chaperones) and of carbohydrate, fatty acid and protein catabolism (cluster 8: S/C).

Transcriptome Meta-Analysis: Different Periods - Same Program.

Similar observations were described in transcriptome analyses from different strains and conditions, with periods ranging from 40 min to 7.5 h (Li and Klevecz, 2006; Tu et al., 2005; Chin et al., 2012; Kuang et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2015; Slavov et al., 2011). We used our clustering into five protein-coding co-expression cohorts to analyze seven data sets from five previous publications (Fig. S14–

S16). This meta-analysis emphasizes the universality and adaptability of the co-expression cohorts: firstly, a temporally constrained program (0.5 h–2 h) leads from Ribi/cRP via AA to mRP, ending with the transition from HOC to LOC (left panels in Fig. S15). Secondly, the HOC- and LOC-specific cohorts are always anti-correlated. In long period systems, the duration of S/C expression increases with increasing duration of the LOC phase, while Ribi forms sharp peaks. Thirdly, the mRP and AA cohorts always peak at the transition from HOC to LOC but show variable timing between experiments (right panels in Fig. S15–S16). Interestingly, very similar temporal patterns can be observed in six distinct cell cycle arrest & release experiments (Fig. S17) (Orlando et al., 2008; Bristow et al., 2014).

Next, we tested three hypotheses on putative functions of this universal yet adaptable “functional-temporal” expression program.

CO₂, Carbonic Anhydrase and the Glyoxylate Cycle: Novel Feedback Candidates. The temporal order of mRNA abundances makes intuitive sense as a just-in-time functional program (H1) coordinated with metabolic dynamics (von Meyenburg, 1969b; Klevecz et al., 2004; Tu et al., 2005; Murray et al., 2007; Machné and Murray, 2012). However, the effect of periodic mRNA on protein levels depends on protein half-lives. Thus, we estimated relative protein amplitudes from

our RNA abundance profiles and protein half-life data (*Christiano et al., 2014*) using a mathematical model of periodic gene expression (*Lück et al., 2014*). The majority of proteins are predicted to vary by only 0.5 %–1 % of their mean (*Figure 3D* and S18). Only 21 proteins have relative protein amplitudes of $\geq 10\%$, most from the Rib1 and AA cohorts. The top 100 list of our predicted oscillators contains many cell wall proteins, nutrient transporters, transcription factors, and a few metabolic enzymes (Fig. S18, Tab. S3 and Dataset S3). Several proteins of the sulfate uptake pathway (MET genes) are expressed in Rib1, peaking prior to the pathway intermediate H_2S at the HOC/LOC transition (*Figure 1*). The carbonic anhydrase (NCE103, in Rib1) catalyzes the interconversion of carbon dioxide and bicarbonate ($CO_2 + H_2O \leftrightarrow HCO_3^- + H^+$). The early downregulation of the Rib1 cohort (*Figure 3A* and E) in the second sampled cycle correlates with the appearance of the CO_2 pulse at transition to LOC (*Figure 1E*). In short period oscillations, population synchronization likely occurs *via* a gaseous substance, and evidence for both, CO_2 and H_2S , have been previously presented (*Keulers et al., 1996; Murray et al., 2003*). Both are substrates of biosynthetic metabolism (anabolism) and several key enzymes of biosynthesis are among our top predicted protein oscillators, notably three enzymes of the glyoxylate cycle (ICL1, CIT2, MDH2); all expressed with the AA cohort. In summary, several short-lived proteins with high RNA amplitudes are involved in the transition from energy generation (catabolism) during HOC to a biosynthetic pulse (anabolism) at the transition to LOC. In the Discussion, we will outline putative feedforward and feedback interactions behind this switch from HOC to LOC phase.

Resource Allocation by Pulse-Width Modulation.

The majority of proteins appear too stable to be affected by periodic transcript abundance. An alternative interpretation of the periodic transcription cohorts has been suggested (*Brauer et al., 2005; Slavov and Botstein, 2011; Burnetti et al., 2016*). Growth rate is directly proportional to the (cytoplasmic) ribosome fraction of the proteome, and the relative expression of different protein classes is adjusted to the given growth conditions (*Maaløe, 1979; Molenaar et al., 2009*). Variation of the relative times spent in HOC- and LOC-specific transcription states could serve to tune relative proteome fractions (H2). Shorter relative duration of the HOC phase and HOC-specific transcription would lead to a lower fraction of ribosome-associated proteins (Rib1 and RP cohorts). Indeed, a pronounced shift to LOC-specific expression (S/C) with decreasing growth rate is seen in dilution rate shift experiments (Fig. S16D) (*Chin et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2015*). The heatmap (*Figure 2E*) and cluster average time-courses (*Figure 3A*) indicate a shift of relative times spent with HOC- or LOC-specific expression within just two cycles of the oscillation. To quantify this observation we calculated the peak widths W_1 and W_2 (*Figure 2B* & S20) of the first and second fully traversed expression cycle and calculated peak width changes $\Delta W = W_2 - W_1$. The S/C cohort gains on average about 8 min over the Rib1 cohort ($\Delta\Delta W$, *Figure 3E*), 22 % of a full cycle, all within just two cycles of the oscillation. Thus, a pronounced shift to expression of the S/C cohort, indicative of a lengthened LOC and decreased growth rate, directly preceded the bifurcation in system dynamics to longer periods and a biphasic LOC (*Figure 1*).

The Temporal Program Reflects the Spatial Structure.

The resource allocation model can account for the observed relations to growth rate, and the model holds for different periods. However, it offers no interpretation of the temporal program, the fixed sequence of co-expression cohorts. Recent insights into the intricate spatio-temporal organization of protein homeostasis (*Langdon et al., 2018; Shiber et al., 2018; Schwarz and Beck, 2019*) offer a novel and complementary perspective. The Gene Ontology (GO) analysis by “cellular component” maps the temporal program onto the spatial organization of cell structures (*Figure 3B*): from nucleolus (Rib1), to nucleus (Rib1/RP), to cytosol, to plasma membrane (AA); followed by mitochondria (mRP), then large cytosolic structures, such as the endoplasmic reticulum (ER), proteasomes and lipid droplets (S/C). Thus, the protein products of the temporally co-expressed genes also tend to co-localize at their final subcellular locations. Analysis of the CYC2008 protein

complex annotation (*Pu et al., 2009*) confirms that many protein complexes are co-expressed within a cluster (*Figure 3C*). Large complexes (>10 proteins) involved in basal cellular functions are co-expressed in either HOC or LOC, while complexes with regulatory function are comprised of differentially expressed subunits (Fig. S21B). In a growing cell, fresh ribosomes are constantly built and loaded with the current set of mRNA. A temporal expression program would lead to spatially structured layers of loaded ribosomes (**H3**) which can then be further sorted by specific peptide or mRNA motif-based mechanisms (*Niessing et al., 2018*).

We conjecture that the biosynthetic phase at the transition to LOC (*Murray et al., 2007*) may be directly followed by a global pulse of protein translation. This translation pulse would act on all cohorts, but their temporal expression sequence may have contributed to a spatial pre-ordering of ribosomes loaded with fresh mRNA cohorts. The subsequent low energy state during LOC could then be a phase of self-assembly of macromolecular complexes, including repair or removal of damaged complexes and protein aggregates (*O' Neill et al., 2020*).

Antisense and Non-Coding Transcription.

Most antisense and non-coding transcript abundances peak in LOC phase (*Figure 2E*). How are non-coding transcripts related to the conserved temporal program of the coding transcriptome, and are they involved in its re-modeling at the bifurcation of system dynamics? Five low amplitude co-expression cohorts, clusters 4, 5, 6, 9 and 10 (*Figure 4A*), contain mostly non-coding transcripts (Fig. S12). Transcript abundance peaks of clusters 5, 6 and 9 span the LOC phase. Cluster 4 transcript abundances show an additional peak during the second HOC phase and a steep increase in the third LOC phase of our experiments. Cluster 10 peaks shift from late to early HOC phase.

Antisense & Promoter-Associated Transcripts: Response to Metabolic Transition.

We analyzed the local neighborhood of segments and segment clusters. Non-coding RNA transcription can interfere with, and thereby regulate, coding genes in *cis*, either as antisense or as promoter-associated RNA (PAR) transcripts (*Martens et al., 2004; Thompson and Parker, 2007; Servant et al., 2012; Nguyen et al., 2014; Ellison et al., 2019*). Segment permutation tests show that all low amplitude clusters, except cluster 4, overlap with previously characterized classes of non-coding transcripts (*Figure 4B, S22A*). Antisense transcripts are less frequently found at Rib1 and RP cohorts (Fig. S22B), but we find no systematic patterns between clusters (Fig. S22D). Various configurations of upstream, downstream and antisense transcripts can be observed at previously characterized antisense loci (Fig. S23). In contrast, clusters 4 and 10 are enriched within 500 bp upstream of protein-coding transcripts (*Figure 4C*). Cluster 4 transcripts are enriched upstream of the RP, AA and mRP cohorts, and cluster 10 transcripts are enriched upstream of S/C. A direct comparison of the time-courses of such upstream:coding-pairs reveals an anti-correlation between expression of the upstream and downstream transcripts. During the last sampled cycle, abundances of cluster 4 PAR increase while their putative downstream targets decrease (*Figure 4E*). Cluster 10 PARs decrease as S/C transcripts increase (*Figure 4F*). Inspection of individual loci (*Figure 4E and F*, and all 4:7 and 10:8 pairs in Fig. S24, S25) shows that cluster 4 segments often extend into the coding region. Cluster 10 transcripts are often found upstream of ORF transcripts and originate from tandem-oriented genes. Functional analysis of the target coding genes at the yeastmine webserver (*Balakrishnan et al., 2012*) shows enrichment for transcription regulation and DNA-binding (cluster 7), and for catabolic processes, ion membrane transport, oxidoreductase activity, plasma membrane-bound and mitochondrial membrane-bound proteins (cluster 8), respectively (Table S4).

Complex Local Configurations and Genome Evolution.

Visual inspection reveals highly individual configurations of upstream and antisense transcription that escaped the segmentation algorithm or cluster enrichment tests. For example, the seven alcohol dehydrogenase isozymes are associated with various pronounced noncoding antisense and PAR transcripts, all mostly in LOC phase (Fig. S26). ADH1 and ADH2 preferably catalyze formation

Figure 4. Non-coding clusters. **A:** time series for the cohorts 4, 5, 6, 9, 10, which comprise mostly segments without or little overlap with coding regions; plotted as described for Figure 3A. **B-D:** Cluster enrichment profiles of overlaps with experimentally characterized non-coding transcripts (B: SUT, CUT (Xu et al., 2009); XUT: (van Dijk et al., 2011); manually curated (ASm) and putative antisense transcripts (ASP): (Yassour et al., 2010)), with the 500 bp upstream of the 4489 coding segments (C), and with annotated long terminal repeats (D). Background and text colors indicate p-values from a segment overlap permutation test with $n = 1000$ permutations (dark blue: $p \leq 0.001$; white text: $p \leq 0.05$). The rows (segments) were the permuted query set Q in the enrichment tests. Numbers are the counts of overlapping segment pairs. Figure S22 provides results for all clusters. **E:** Time series of all 42 upstream/coding segment pairs from the middle panel of (B), with cluster 4 segments upstream of cluster 7 segments and the KGD1 gene as a typical example (Fig. S24 shows all examples). **F:** As (E) but for pairs with cluster 10 upstream of cluster 8 segments and example COX4 (Fig. S25 shows all, two downstream targets have two cluster 10 upstream transcripts). **G-I:** Promoter-proximal transcription at the predicted protein oscillators (Figure 3D) NCE103, ICL1 and CIT2.

and uptake of ethanol, respectively, and show opposite relations to an upstream transcript. The ADH2 ORF transcript and the ADH1 upstream transcript both increase in the last sampled cycle of the experiment, suggesting a coordinated regulation during the bifurcation of system dynamics. Various PAR and upstream transcripts are observed at HOC-specific anabolic genes, including the predicted high-amplitude protein oscillators CIT2, ICL1 and the carbonic anhydrase NCE103 (Figure 4H-I and S27). These three genes and both isozymes of aconitase (ACO1, ACO2) are also flanked by long terminal repeats (LTR), recombination sites that flank LTR retrotransposons and often remained in the genome as solo-LTRs after loss of the transposon (Hani and Feldmann, 1998; Bleykasten-Grosshans et al., 2013). In each case, the LTRs are associated with short, non-coding transcripts from LOC clusters. Specifically, clusters 6 and 9 are enriched with annotated LTR elements (Figure 4D).

These observations highlight the wide diversity and complexity of transcription at each locus and emphasize that a broader chromosomal context needs to be considered for a more comprehensive understanding of non-coding transcription in LOC phase.

Conclusion

Self-organized metabolic dynamics in yeast have been studied with basically constant culturing conditions since the seminal works of the Fiechter group on cell division cycle-coupled (long period) oscillations (Küenzi and Fiechter, 1969; von Meyenburg, 1969b,a; Futcher, 2006) and the Kuriyama group's discovery of the short period oscillation of the strain IFO 0233 (Satroutdinov et al., 1992; Keulers and Kuriyama, 1998; Sonnleitner et al., 1997; Lloyd and Murray, 2007). Specifically the latter system reveals time-scales of cellular self-organization below the cell division cycle.

Here, we characterized long multi-generational transients over 30 h–40 h in the IFO 0233 strain. Both, LOC duration and overall period became progressively shorter until a bifurcation to unstable oscillations at longer periods occurred (Figure 1, S6). We sampled for RNA-seq analysis at a minimum period, where both LOC and HOC phases took 0.3 h, and shortly before the bifurcation. Within the 2.5 sampled cycles (1.5 h), transcript abundance peak widths and amplitudes shifted significantly (Figure 2E, Figure 3E). The cytoplasmic ribosome cohorts (Ribi/RP) were expressed for a shorter duration and the stress and catabolic cohort (S/C) was expressed for a longer duration. The mitochondrial cohort (mRP) was down-regulated and phase-advanced. And transcripts of the biosynthetic cohort (AA) diversified in both peak phase and peak duration. All of these relative expression changes were also observed in direct comparison between different previously published data sets, and specifically also in shifts to a lower growth rate (Fig. S14–S16). To understand these observations, we quantified the metabolic activity of the culture and systematically tested hypotheses on putative functions of periodic gene expression in the context of the transient dynamics. Figure 5 summarizes our main observations and interpretations.

Figure 5. Data Summary & Models. **A:** Summary of the main results. The top two panels show the mean normalized transcript abundances of the major co-expression cohorts (Figure 3), the bottom panels shows the CO₂ and H₂S pulses at the transition to HOC phase (Figure 1). **B:** Putative feedback and feedforward interactions between catabolism and anabolism during the HOC to LOC transition mediated by H₂S and CO₂ which may also participate in synchronization of the culture. Gaseous substances are lost through the aeration system (aer.). Oxidation of carbohydrates (COH) occurs mostly in HOC phase (red arrow). A biosynthetic pulse (yellow/blue gradient arrow), catalyzed by enzymes from the AA cohort (yellow arrows), occurs at the transition to LOC phase, where several pathways require HCO₃⁻ (A). **C:** The protein products of the co-expression cohorts are also co-localized in the cell, here indicated by the color scheme from Figure 3. Pulse-width modulation (PWM) of expression phases may adapt protein abundances to different growth conditions (Slavov and Botstein, 2011; Burnett et al., 2016), and the temporal program could support spatial assembly of translating ribosomes as a first step of proteome sorting and transport.

A Feedforward Gate at the HOC/LOC Transition.

At the transition from HOC to LOC a biosynthetic pulse occurs, where many amino acids and carbon intermediates reach their maximal concentration (Murray et al., 2007) as ATP is rapidly consumed (Machné and Murray, 2012; Amariei et al., 2014). Respiro-fermentative metabolism and glycogen degradation are initiated (Satroudinov et al., 1992), and 8 %–10% of cells enter S-phase (Klevecz et al., 2004; Sasidharan et al., 2012b). In our experiment a new phase appeared at this transition, with respiratory metabolism ($RQ \approx 1$) and at intermediate absolute rates; reminiscent of metabolic features of the LOC phase in long period systems, where glycogen is synthesized at $RQ \approx 1$ (Küenzi and Fiechter, 1969; Münch et al., 1992; O' Neill et al., 2020).

The $RQ \approx 1$ phase was preceded by a novel pulse of CO_2 release and followed by a phase-delayed H_2S pulse, which still marked the transition to LOC. Both gases have previously been suggested to participate in population synchronization (Keulers et al., 1996; Sohn et al., 2000; Murray et al., 2003). Several short-lived proteins with high mRNA amplitude from the Rib1 and AA cohorts (Figure 3D and Tab. S2) are involved in their turnover and could thus mediate feedback between transcription and metabolism (H1, Figure 5B). H_2S is a costly intermediate of the sulfate uptake pathway (MET genes in Rib1), which inhibits respiratory complex IV and could mediate a negative feedback from biosynthesis to oxidative catabolism (Wolf et al., 2001; Murray et al., 2007). Perhaps surprisingly, CO_2 can be limiting in aerated cultures (Aguilera et al., 2005). Carbonic anhydrase (NCE103, Rib1) is required to shuffle CO_2 to HCO_3^- , which is a substrate of the first and/or rate-limiting reactions (Fig. S28) of nucleotide and fatty acid biosynthesis and for oxaloacetate synthesis by pyruvate carboxylase. The increase of intracellular pH (Keulers et al., 1996) and proton export during HOC (Figure 1E) would further support CO_2 sequestration by NCE103. Similar observations, pH increase in HOC and protein abundance oscillation of NCE103, were recently reported from a long period oscillation in the CEN.PK113-7D strain (O' Neill et al., 2020). The biosynthetic enzymes downstream of NCE103 are mostly expressed with the AA cohort which comprises several short-lived enzymes, e.g. those of the auto-catalytic glyoxylate cycle. In summary, these observations delineate a putative feedforward gate from catabolic to anabolic flux, where CO_2 and ATP from respiration are both required to initiate the biosynthetic pulse (Figure 5B). In our experiment an imbalance between catabolic and anabolic flux may have blocked this gate and delayed the biosynthetic pulse. Such interactions would be in line with the just-in-time interpretation of the temporal expression program (H1), where transcription of short-lived enzymes can immediately affect metabolic dynamics.

Pulse-Width Modulation and Subcellular Pattern Formation.

However, given the long half-lives of most yeast proteins, periodic mRNA abundances should have only negligible effects on protein abundances (Figure 3D). Indeed, no or only few proteins were found to oscillate in abundance in two recent studies of long period systems (Feltham et al., 2019; O' Neill et al., 2020). An alternative hypothesis (H2) has been suggested (Brauer et al., 2005; Slavov and Botstein, 2011; Burnetti et al., 2016). The co-expression cohorts peak preferentially during specific metabolic states, such as HOC, LOC or the transition phase. If a given phase lasts longer, e.g. due to some metabolic imbalance, more of the phase-specific genes will be translated to proteins. In this way, discrete on/off states of gene expression could be translated to continuous variation of the abundances of their protein products. Metaphors from electrical engineering appear apt: the oscillation could act as a digital-to-analog converter by pulse-width-modulation (PWM). Slow growing cells spend a lower fraction of the cycle in HOC (Fig. S16) (Slavov et al., 2014; Burnetti et al., 2016) which should lead to lower relative abundance of proteins from the ribosomal cohorts. Thus the PWM model of periodic gene transcription qualifies as a putative mechanism behind the old observation of a correlation between growth-rate and macromolecular cell composition (Maaløe, 1979; Molenaar et al., 2009).

During the multi-generational transients we observed a decreasing total cycle period and decreasing duration of LOC. According to the PWM model, this should have resulted in a slow increase of the ribosomal proteome fraction. Towards the bifurcation of system dynamics to longer

periods this putative trend was reversed. Peak widths and amplitudes of the Rib_i/RP, the mRP and S/C cohorts all changed differentially within just 2.5 cycles (**Figure 5A**). Rib_i/RP peak widths and mRP amplitudes decrease, while S/C transcript abundances increase in both peak width and amplitude. After this remodeling of the transcriptome, the period and LOC duration were longer. A down-shift of dilution rate may have stabilized the oscillation at this longer period and lower growth rate. Our purely correlational data and the short snap-shot of the transcriptome do not allow definitive conclusions, but these relative shifts of the major co-expression cohorts are fully compatible with **H2**. Furthermore, we noted that the cohorts are strongly enriched for cellular co-localization of their products and for large protein complexes (**Figure 3B, C, Figure 5C**). It is increasingly recognized that many protein complexes assemble co-translationally, and artificial separation of subunit translation in space or time results in misfolding (**Shiber et al., 2018; Schwarz and Beck, 2019**). The temporal co-expression could ensure spatial pre-sorting of freshly loaded ribosomes in growing cells (**H3**), as a basis for more specific sorting mechanisms *via* mRNA- and peptide-motifs (**Niessing et al., 2018**). This interpretation is an extension of the PWM model and is perfectly compatible with the recently suggested role of the cycle in protein homeostasis (**O' Neill et al., 2020**).

Outlook: A Cell Growth Cycle?

Periodic gene expression underlies several pattern formation phenomena in multi-cellular organisms (**Moreno-Risueno and Benfey, 2011**); in yeast it may help to structure colonies (**Palkova et al., 2002**). Here, we suggest that the temporal gene expression program underpins pattern formation even within the growing cell. In this integrative perspective, the cycle would reflect a fundamentally pulse-like growth behavior, where at each HOC to LOC transition a protein translation pulse, reflected in increased uptake of the nitrogen source (**von Meyenburg, 1969b**), generates new structured layers in the growing cell. Cell density increased in single yeast cells just before the G1/S transition, likely due to a pulse of protein translation (**Bryan et al., 2010**). Multiple growth pulses throughout the cell cycle have recently been observed in mammalian single cell studies (**Liu et al., 2020**), emphasizing the potential generality of such a model of cell growth. The LOC phase would be a low-energy macromolecular self-assembly phase where damaged cell structures and misfolded proteins are sequestered and degraded, potentially supported by increased protein aggregation (**O' Neill et al., 2020**) at low ATP (**Mandl et al., 1952; Patel et al., 2017**). Overall such a cell growth cycle would act as a global cell structural proofreading loop.

Finally, we observed a large diversity of differentially transcribed promoter-associated transcripts, but with no generalizable phase relations to their downstream coding genes. Locally individual configurations dominate the picture but we suggested a few examples, enriched at the LOC-specific coding cohorts (**Figure 4E, F, S24, S25**), for further experimental investigation of promoter-associated transcriptional interference dynamics. Antisense and non-coding transcript abundances were largely biased to LOC phase. Pervasive and weakly defined non-coding and LOC-specific transcription loci were enriched at Long Terminal Repeats of former retro-transposition events. These elements shape the evolution of the eukaryotic genomes (**McClintock, 1950; Curcio et al., 2015; Moller et al., 2015**). The chromosomal organization of the temporal expression program and the contributions of non-coding transcription in LOC phase will be analyzed in more detail in a subsequent publication.

Materials and Methods

Strain History

Kuriyama's lab first reported oscillations in continuous culture of the *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* strain IFO 0233 (**Satroudinov et al., 1992**). The strain number is from the Japanese culture collection NBRC and is identified there as "Distillery yeast Rasse II", "accepted" in 1941, and as ATCC 560 in the US American culture collection. These strains can be traced back to the "Brennerhefe, Rasse II" isolated as "Hefe 128" axenic culture by Paul Lindner at the Berlin Institut für Gärungsgewerbe in 1889 from samples of a distillery in Gronowo (West Prussia, now Poland) which obtained their yeast

from a dry yeast supplier in the city Thorn (now Toruń, Poland) (*Lindner, 1895*). The strain and its descendant “Rasse XII” became commercially successful distillery strains within hybrid formulations (“Rasse M”), and was at the time an intensively studied strain in basic research, *e.g.*, in the search for the nature of “bios” (*Lindner, 1919*).

Continuous Culture

Pre-Culture

Saccharomyces cerevisiae (strain IFO 0233) were maintained on yeast nitrogen base agar plates (2 % glucose, 1.5 % agar; Difco, Japan) at 4 °C, sub-cultured from frozen stock cultures (-80 °C; 1 mL; 15 % glycerol; 5×10^8 cells). Pre-cultures were inoculated into Yeast Extract Peptone Dextrose media (10 mL; 1 % yeast extract, 2 % peptone, 2 % glucose) and grown at 30 °C in an orbital incubator (200 rpm) for 24 h.

Continuous Culture Medium & Inoculation

The culture medium consisted of D-glucose (20 g L⁻¹), (NH₄)₂SO₄ (5 g L⁻¹), KH₂PO₄ (2 g L⁻¹), MgSO₄·7H₂O (0.5 g L⁻¹), CaCl₂·2H₂O (0.1 g L⁻¹), FeSO₄·7H₂O (20 mg L⁻¹), ZnSO₄·7H₂O (10 mg L⁻¹), CuSO₄·5H₂O (5 mg L⁻¹), MnCl₂·4H₂O (1 mg L⁻¹), 70 % H₂SO₄, (1 mL L⁻¹), Difco yeast extract (1 g L⁻¹) and Sigma Antifoam A (0.2 mL L⁻¹). All chemicals were supplied by Wako Pure Chemical Industries Ltd., Japan. The medium prepared with this recipe has a pH of ca. 2.5 which allows for autoclaving of media with both sugar and ammonium without browning (caramelization) and further avoids precipitation of salts in feed medium bottles during continuous culture.

A custom-built bioreactor as outlined below was filled with 0.635 L of medium and autoclaved (121 °C; 15 min). Aeration (0.15 L min⁻¹), agitation (750 rpm), and temperature (30 °C) and pH (3.4) control were switched on, until the system was equilibrated. Then, the dissolved oxygen probe was 2-point calibrated by flushing with pure nitrogen (0 %) and switching back to air (100 %).

The equilibrated and fully calibrated reactor was inoculated with $\approx 1 \times 10^9$ pre-culture yeast cells. A batch phase continued for ≈ 40 h until the cells had reached stationary phase, indicated by a sharp decrease in respiratory activity. Then continuous culture, *i.e.*, feeding with fresh medium, was initiated (at 44.5 h in *Figure 1*).

Culture Control & Monitoring

Continuous culture was performed in a custom-built bioreactor. The culture vessel was a jar fermentor (Eyela, Japan) with a total volume of 2.667 L. Culture volume was measured using a balance (SB16001, Mettler Toledo, Japan), and continuous dilution with fresh medium was performed using a peristaltic pump (AC2110, ATTA, Japan) with a six roller planetary design which minimizes pulsing during rotation (about 10 rpm), and medium was pumped through 1 mm tubing (inner diameter; Masterflex, Cole Palmer, USA) and a 23 gauge steel needle. This ensured that the media was introduced in a stream of <20 µL droplets and just under a droplet per second at the operating dilution rate. Feed medium bottle weight was monitored by a balance (PMK-16, Mettler Toledo, Japan), set up to read from unstable environments and shielded from direct breezes.

The culture was agitated at 750 rpm and aerated at 0.150 L min⁻¹ by a mass flow controller (B.E. Marubishi, Japan). Dissolved oxygen was measured using an InPro 6800 sensor and pH with an InPro 3030 (both: Mettler Toledo, Japan).

Culture pH was maintained at 3.4 by the automatic addition of 2.5 mol L⁻¹ NaOH, and the weight of the NaOH bottle was monitored on a balance (PM400). Local control of agitation and pH was carried out by Labo controllers (B.E. Marubishi, Japan). The reactor pressure was monitored by a manometer (DM-760, Comfix, Japan) installed on a split outlet flow stream. The culture temperature was controlled at 30 °C by an external sensor connected to a circulating water bath (F25-ME, Julabo, Japan).

Partial pressure of oxygen and carbon dioxide in the off-gas were measured by an Enoki-III gas analyzer (Figaro engineering, Japan). The partial pressure of hydrogen sulfide in the off-gas was

measured using an electrode based gas monitor (HSC-1050HL, GASTEC, Japan). Instruments were calibrated as per manufacturer's instruction.

Reactor Data Acquisition and Calculation of Metabolic Rates

Data were acquired *via* the in-house *FERMtastic* software at 0.1 Hz. Metabolic rates were calculated as described previously (*von Meyenburg, 1969a; Heinzle, 1987; Verduyn et al., 1991; Marison et al., 1998; Murray et al., 2007*) from the online recorded data. Details and all equations are provided in Appendix A of the supporting information. All data were processed in the script *samplingSeq_2019.R* of the *yeastSeq2016* git repository. All calculated rates are provided in Dataset S1.

RNA Sequencing & Read Mapping

Sampling, RNA Extraction & Sequencing Library Generation

Total RNA was extracted as previously described (*Sasidharan et al., 2012a*) from 24 samples taken every 4 min, covering ca. 2.5 cycles of the respiratory oscillation.

Culture samples were immediately quenched in ethanol and disrupted using acid-washed zirconia/silica beads (0.5 mm; Tomy Seiko Co., Ltd., Japan) with sodium acetate buffer (250 μ L; sodium acetate 300 mM, Na₂-EDTA 10 mM, pH 4.5–5.0) and one volume of TE-saturated phenol (Nacalai Tesque) equilibrated with sodium acetate buffer (250 μ L).

The samples were then centrifuged (12 000 g, 15 min, 4 °C) and the aqueous phase transferred to fresh 1.5 mL microcentrifuge tubes. Back-extraction was performed by adding sodium acetate buffer (125 μ L) to the bead-beat tubes, vortex (10 s), centrifuging (12 000 g, 15 min, 4 °C) and adding the aqueous phase to the first aqueous phase. 2.5 volumes ice-cold 99.5 % ethanol were added to the aqueous phase and RNA/DNA precipitated at –20 °C overnight. The samples were then centrifuged (12 000 g, 30 min, 4 °C), the supernatant removed by aspiration, and pellets washed 3x in 500 μ L 70 % ethanol and air-dried (10 min, room temperature). DNA was removed (RNase-Free DNase Set; Qiagen, Japan) and RNA recovered by column purification (QIAquick PCR Purification Kit; Qiagen, Japan) in 50 μ L UltraPure water, and stored at –80 °C prior to analysis. Total RNA had an RNA integrity number >7 and 260nm:230nm and 260nm:230nm ratios >2.14. All cDNA libraries were then generated and sequenced by the Beijing Genome Institute (BGI), China. Strand specific cDNA libraries were created using the “dUTP method” (*Parkhomchuk et al., 2009; Levin et al., 2010*) and sequencing was carried out on an Illumina 1G sequencer.

RNA-seq Read Mapping

RNA-seq reads were mapped against the yeast reference genome (strain S288C, release R64-1-1) using *segemehl* (version 0.1.4) (*Hoffmann et al., 2014*) with default parameters and spliced read mapping enabled. Initially unmatched reads were mapped again using the remapping tool from the *segemehl* package and the resulting files were merged. Coverage (read-counts per nucleotide) was normalized for total library size to reads-per-million (RPM) and RPM values were stored in a bedgraph file for further analysis.

RNA-seq Time Series Analysis

Analysis Strategy and R Packages

All analyses were performed with bash and R. The full analysis pipeline is available in a git repository at <https://gitlab.com/raim/yeastSeq2016>. Analysis and plotting tools developed for this work are available in an git repository with scripts and an R package available at <https://github.com/raim/segmenTools>. RNA-seq segmentation was performed with the *segmenTier* R package (*Machné et al., 2017*), available at <https://cran.r-project.org/package=segmenTier>. Scripts for genome-wide data collections and mapping to the yeast S288C reference genome (release R64-1-1) as well as the *genomeBrowser* plots are available at the git repository <https://gitlab.com/raim/genomeBrowser>.

Additional Data Sources

Genome annotations including Gene Ontology terms were taken directly from the gff genome file from the *Saccharomyces* genome database (SGD, release R64-1-1, 2011-02-08, same as for RNA-seq mapping). Published transcript data sets (XUT, SUT, etc.) were also obtained from SGD for the same genome release. Protein complex annotation CYC2008 (Pu et al., 2009) was downloaded from http://wodaklab.org/cyc2008/resources/CYC2008_complex.tab on 2019-06-04.

Discrete Fourier Transform.

A time series of N measurements $x = \{x_0, \dots, x_{N-1}\}$, taken at equally spaced time points $\{t_0, \dots, t_{N-1}\}$, can be transformed to frequency-space by the Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT):

$$X_k = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x_n e^{-2\pi i \frac{kn}{N}}, \quad k = \{0, \dots, N-1\} \quad (1)$$

where X_k is a vector of complex numbers representing the decomposition of the original time series into a constant (mean) component (at $k = 0$) and a series of harmonic oscillations around this mean with periods P_k , amplitudes A_k and phase angles ϕ_k :

$$\begin{aligned} P_k &= (t_{N-1} - t_0)/k, \\ A_k &= |X_k|/N, \\ \phi_k &= -\text{atan2}(\text{Im}(X_k), \text{Re}(X_k)). \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

All DFT were performed with R's `fft` function.

For DFT-based clustering and segmentation analysis, it proved useful to scale DFT components by the mean amplitude of all other components $k > 0$:

$$X'_{k>0} = \frac{X_{k>0}}{|X|_{k \neq \{0,k\}}}, \quad (3)$$

and the constant component ($k = 0$) by the `arcsinh` transformation:

$$X'_0 = \ln \left(|X_0| + \sqrt{X_0^2 + 1} \right). \quad (4)$$

For analysis of read-count data x_n were the raw read-counts, for analysis of segments x_n were the mean of all read-counts of the segment.

The index k corresponds to the number of full cycles with period P_k in the time series. Only the first 19 time points, covering two full cycles of the oscillation were used for the calculation of phases and p-values, such that $k = 2$ reflects the main oscillation. For all plots, phases were shifted such that $\phi_2 = 0$ corresponds to the transition from LOC to HOC (see x-axis in Fig. **Figure 2B**).

Oscillation p-Values

For calculation of oscillation p-values p_{DFT} on read-count level the time series were permuted $N_p = 10,000$ times, and random amplitude $\hat{A}_2$ calculated. The p-value was estimated as the fraction of permutations for which the random amplitude was larger than the observed amplitude A_2 (eqn. 2). This analysis was performed with the script `genomeOscillation.R` from the `segmentTools` git repository. Oscillation p-values p_{rain} on segment level were calculated with the R package `rain` (Thaben and Westermarck, 2014) using period $P = 0.65$ h and time step $\delta t = 4$ min. This analysis was done with the script `segmentDynamics.R` from the `segmentTools` git repository.

Segmentation of RNA-seq Read-Counts

The data were pre-segmented into expressed and weakly expressed chromosomal domains by a previously described heuristic (*Machné et al., 2017*) with a minor correction that splits pre-segments at chromosome ends. Pre-segmentation was done with the script `presegment.R` from the `segmentTools` script collection; Figure S7 provides pre-segment length distributions and run parameters. Pre-segments were then individually split into non-overlapping segments with coherent temporal expression profiles by the `segmentTier` algorithm, using optimized parameters from our previous study (*Machné et al., 2017*). Shortly, the `arcsinh`-transformed read-count data was Fourier-transformed (eq. 1); the first component ($k = 0$), reflecting the mean expression level, was `arcsinh`-transformed (eq. 4); and all other ($k > 0$) components were amplitude-scaled (eq. 3). The real and imaginary parts of the scaled DFT components $X'_{k=0,\dots,6}$ were then clustered into 12 groups with R's implementation of `k-means` (using the `Hartigan-Wong` method or if that failed, the `MacQueen` method). This clustering then provided the anchors for the similarity-based segmentation by the `segmentTier`, where we used the `icor` scoring function with exponent $\epsilon = 2$, length penalty $M = 150$, nuisance cluster penalty $M_0 = 100$, and nuisance cluster exponent $\nu = 3$. This combination of parameters is achieved by arguments `-trafo "ash" -dc.trafo "ash" -dft.range 1,2,3,4,5,6,7 -K 12 -Mn 100 -scores "icor" -scales 2 -M 150 -nui.cr 3` to the `runSegmentTier.R` script in the `segmentTools/scripts` collection. All segments are provided in Dataset S2.

Segment Clustering

The means of read-counts covered by a segment were taken as segment time series. Periodic expression was analyzed by permutation analysis and DFT and by the R package `rain`. 11,248 segments with $p_{\text{rain}} < 0.85$ were chosen for further analysis (Fig. S8E-F). The DFT of the segment time series was amplitude-scaled (eq. 3, Fig. S10A) and the first (constant) component ($k = 0$) was `arcsinh`-transformed (eq. 4). Real and imaginary parts of the scaled DFT components $X'_{k=0,\dots,6}$ were then clustered with the `flowClust` algorithm (*Lo et al., 2009*) for cluster numbers $K = 2, \dots, 16$. The clustering with the maximal Bayesian Information Criterion, as reported by `flowClust` (Fig. S10B), was selected for further analysis. Clustering was performed by `clusterTimeseries2` function of `segmentTools` via the `segmentDynamics.R` script). The resulting clustering was sorted, re-labeled and colored automatically based on the means of their segments' expression phases (eq. 2). The clustering was further sub-divided into high-amplitude clusters enriched for coding genes and low-amplitude clusters (compare Fig. S11 and S12).

Relative Protein Amplitudes

3,174 segments overlapping with a coding region with Jaccard index $J > 0.5$ and protein half-live ($\tau_{1/2}$) annotation in (*Christiano et al., 2014*) were considered. The relative mRNA amplitudes were calculated from the DFT X_k (eq. 1-2) of the first 19 time points (2 full cycles) of the RNA-seq read count time series as $A_{\text{mRNA}} = X_2/X_0$, i.e., the ratio of the amplitudes of the 2nd component X_2 (2 cycles) over the 0th component X_0 (corresponds to the mean over all time points) of the DFT. Relative protein amplitudes A_{protein} were then calculated with the analytical solution to an ordinary differential equation of rhythmic production, after equation S8 of (*Lück et al., 2014*), as

$$A_{\text{protein}} = A_{\text{mRNA}} \frac{\gamma}{\sqrt{\gamma^2 + \omega^2}}, \quad (5)$$

with oscillation frequency $\omega = \frac{1}{0.67} \text{h}^{-1}$ and total protein degradation rate $\gamma = \delta + \phi$, where the actual protein degradation rates δ were taken from (*Christiano et al., 2014*) and dilution by growth is the chemostat dilution rate $\phi = 0.089 \text{h}^{-1}$. In this model, the relative amplitude A_{mRNA} is assumed to directly reflect periodic production, i.e., translational activity. Total amounts or translation rates are not required, and only a relative amplitude of protein amount can be calculated. Predicted protein amplitudes are provided in Dataset S3.

Peak Width Analysis

For each high-amplitude segment ($p_{\text{rain}} < 0.0001$) the time series was interpolated to 1° resolution (0.105 min), and the oscillation phase ϕ_2 (eq. 2) was used to scan the times spent above the temporal median $\bar{x}$ during the first (C_1) and the second (C_2) full cycle in the data set (horizontal arrows in **Figure 2B**). These times were recorded as the peak widths W_1 and W_2 . The peak width change is the difference $\Delta W = W_2 - W_1$, and $\Delta\Delta W$ was calculated as the difference of the medians of ΔW of two distinct segment clusters. See Figure S20A for details.

Cluster and Segment Enrichment Analyses

Segment Overlap Analysis: J-R Plots

To analyze overlaps between two distinct genome segmentations, a query set **Q** and a target set **T**, we scanned each target segment for overlapping query segments, calculated Jaccard indices $J = |Q \cap T| / |Q \cup T|$ and length ratios $R = |Q| / |T|$ for all overlapping pairs of segments:

where $|x|$ denotes the length of a segment x . Only the query segment Q_i with the highest $J_{i,m}$ for a given target T_m was considered, resulting in J and R values for each target segment. Herein, we used our segmentation as the query set and various genome annotations and previously published transcript data sets as target sets.

While the distribution of J values provides a measure how well query and target sets overlap overall, the distribution of length ratios R additionally indicates systematic length differences. Plotting the 2D distributions of individual J and R values for overlapping query and target pairs then provides an overview of how two segmentations relate to each other (J-R plots). For symmetry, the J-R plots (**Figure 2D**, S9A-D) are mirrored at $R = 1$, such that R is plotted for $R < 1$ and $\frac{1}{R}$ is plotted for $R > 1$. Enrichment at $R < 1$ then indicates that the target set tends to contain longer segments than the query set, and *vice versa*. For example, when comparing our segments (query) with annotated Open Reading Frames (target), the enrichment of values close to $J = 1$ and at $R > 0$ (**Figure 2D**) indicates that, as expected, transcribed segments tend to be longer than the ORF they cover. J-R plots are implemented in the `jrp1ot` function of the `segmentTools` package.

Segment Overlap Enrichment Tests

Global enrichments of overlaps between two distinct sets of genomic intervals (**Figure 4B-D** and S22) were calculated by a segment permutation analysis with $n = 1000$ permutations, and counting the number of permutations p_h which reached the same or higher total Jaccard Index $J_{\text{tot}} = \frac{I}{U}$ between all segments of the query and target sets and calculated the p-value $p = p_h / n$. Specifically, the function `segmentJaccard` of the `segmentTools` package analyses multiple segment classes (e.g. co-expression cohort clusters) in both, query and target set, in one step. For the permutation test, the order of all query segments and inter-segments is permuted, which conserves the length distribution. J and p are calculated for each combination of segment classes in the query and target sets. The total counts of overlapping pairs and p-values are stored ("enrichment tables") for informative plots ("Enrichment Profiles").

Cluster-Cluster Enrichment Tests

Categorical enrichments, e.g. coding gene co-expression cohorts vs. gene annotations, were analyzed by cumulative hypergeometric distribution tests (R's `phyper`) using `segmentTools`'s `clusterCluster` function and the `clusterAnnotation` wrapper for GO and protein complex analysis, which compares overlaps of each pair of two distinct classifications into multiple classes, and stores overlap counts and p-values ("enrichment tables") for informative plots (see "Enrichment Profiles").

We considered segments that overlapped with an ORF with a Jaccard index $J > 0.5$ in gene-wise cluster enrichment analyses, except for the analysis of protein complex analysis, where all segments that overlap with a gene $J > 0$, and the one with maximal J if several segments overlap, were considered to comprehensively capture complex co-expression and differential expression.

Enrichment Profiles

The results of multi-class enrichment tests (segment overlaps or cluster-cluster categorical overlaps) were visualized as colored table plots, e.g. **Figure 3B**), using `segmentTools`' function `plotOverlaps`. The total counts of overlapping pairs are plotted as text, where the text color is selected based on a p-value cutoff p_{txt} (as indicated). The background color gray level of each field scales with $\log_2(p)$, such that fields with a minimal p-value p_{min} (as indicated) are black.

For intuitively informative plots the enrichment tables (see Cluster-Cluster Enrichment Tests) were sorted. Table rows were sorted along the other dimension (table columns) such that all categories enriched above a certain threshold p_{sort} in the first column cluster are moved to the top, and, within, sorted by increasing p-values. Next, the same sorting is applied to all remaining row clusters for the second column cluster, and so on until the last column cluster. Remaining row clusters are either plotted unsorted below a red line or removed. This is especially useful to visualize enrichment of functional categories along the temporal program of co-expression cohorts, e.g., **Figure 3B** and E. This sorting is implemented in `segmentTools`' function `sortOverlaps`.

Supporting Data

Dataset S1:

Reactor data, including all calculated rates and RNA-seq samples IDs.

Dataset S2:

All 36,928 segments reported by `segmentTier`, incl. genome coordinates, cluster labels, read-counts, oscillation values (amplitude A_2 , phase ϕ_2 , p-value p_{rain}), coding gene and SUT overlaps, and all time points, using the sampling IDs (2–25) indicated in the reactor data.

Dataset S3:

Predicted relative protein amplitudes for 3,174 coding genes that overlap with a segment with $J > 0$ and for which protein half-life data was available in (*Christiano et al., 2014*), incl. segment ID (as in Dataset S1), the calculated relative RNA amplitudes, the cluster assignment of the segment, and GO terms associated with the protein.

Author Contributions

DBM designed and performed the experiment, SHB performed the RNA-seq read mapping, RM and PFS developed the segmentation algorithm. RM and IMA analyzed the time series data. All authors contributed to data interpretation and to writing of the manuscript.

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