Visualizing the metazoan proliferation-terminal differentiation decision *in vivo*

Abraham Q. Kohrman,[1,7] Rebecca C. Adikes,[1,7] Michael A. Q. Martinez,[1] Nicholas J. Palmisano,[1] Jayson J. Smith,[1] Taylor N. Medwig-Kinney,[1] Mingwei Min,[2] Maria D. Sallee,[3] Ononnah B. Ahmed,[1] Nuri Kim,[1] Simeiyun Liu,[1,4] Robert D. Morabito,[1] Nicholas Weeks,[1] Qinyun Zhao,[1] Wan Zhang,[1] Jessica L. Feldman,[3] Michalis Barkoulas,[5] Ariel M. Pani,[6] Sabrina L. Spencer,[2] Benjamin L. Martin,[1] and David Q. Matus[1,8,*]

[1]Department of Biochemistry and Cell Biology, Stony Brook University, Stony Brook, NY 11794, USA
[2]Department of Biochemistry and BioFrontiers Institute, University of Colorado Boulder, Boulder, CO 80303, USA.
[3]Department of Biology, Stanford University, Stanford, CA 94305, USA.
[4]Current address: Molecular, Cell and Developmental Biology, University of California Santa Cruz, Santa Cruz, CA 95064, USA
[5]Department of Life Sciences, Imperial College, London SW7 2AZ, UK.
[6]Department of Biology, University of Virginia, Charlottesville, VA 22903, USA.
[7]These authors contributed equally
[8]Lead Contact
*Correspondence: david.matus@stonybrook.edu

SUMMARY

Cell proliferation and terminal differentiation are intimately coordinated during metazoan development. Here, we adapt a cyclin-dependent kinase (CDK) sensor to uncouple these cell cycle-associated events live in *C. elegans* and zebrafish. The CDK sensor consists of a fluorescently tagged CDK substrate that steadily translocates from the nucleus to the cytoplasm in response to increasing CDK activity and consequent sensor phosphorylation. We show that the CDK sensor can distinguish cycling cells in G_1 from terminally differentiated cells in G_0, revealing a commitment point and a cryptic stochasticity in an otherwise invariant *C. elegans* cell lineage. We also derive a predictive model of future proliferation behavior in *C. elegans* and zebrafish based on a snapshot of CDK activity in newly born cells. Thus, we introduce a live-cell imaging tool to facilitate *in vivo* studies of cell cycle control in a wide-range of developmental contexts.

KEYWORDS

cell cycle, proliferation, terminal differentiation, CDK sensor, *C. elegans*, Zebrafish, G_1/G_0

INTRODUCTION

Organismal development requires a delicate balance between cell proliferation and cell cycle arrest. In early embryos, the emphasis is placed on rapid cell proliferation, which is achieved by omitting gap phases (G_1 and G_2) and establishing a biphasic cell cycle that rapidly alternates between DNA synthesis (S phase) and mitosis (M phase) (Edgar and O'Farrell, 1989; Newport and Kirschner, 1982). After several rounds of embryonic cell division, the gap phases are introduced, coincident in many organisms with cell fate decisions and the execution of morphogenetic cell behaviors (Foe, 1989; Grosshans and Wieschaus, 2000). These gap phases are believed to function as commitment points for cell cycle progression decisions. The earliest point of commitment occurs during G_1, which is the focus of this study. Cells either engage in cell cycle progression and enter S phase, or they exit the cell cycle altogether and enter a cell cycle arrested state referred to as G_0 and undergo quiescence or terminal differentiation (Sun and Buttitta, 2017). Although the location of the G_1 commitment point in yeast (Start) and cultured mammalian cells (Restriction Point) has in large part been spatiotemporally mapped and molecularly characterized (Hartwell et al., 1974; Pardee, 1974; Spencer et al., 2013), when metazoan cells make this decision *in vivo* while integrating intrinsic and the extrinsic cues of their local microenvironment during development remains poorly understood. A cell cycle sensor that is amenable to such *in vivo* studies can shed new light on this four-decade-old biological phenomenon.

In 2008, Sakaue-Sawano and colleagues engineered a multicolor fluorescent ubiquitination-based cell cycle indicator (FUCCI) for mammalian cell culture (Sakaue-Sawano et al., 2008). FUCCI has since been adapted for many research organisms (Ozpolat et al., 2017; Zielke and Edgar, 2015). However, FUCCI on its own cannot distinguish between a cell residing in G_1 that will cycle again upon completing mitosis and a cell that is poised to enter G_0 (Oki et al., 2014). Separating G_1 from G_0 is essential to understanding mechanisms controlling cell cycle exit during quiescence or terminal differentiation. To distinguish G_1 from G_0 in mammalian cell culture, Hanh, Spencer and colleagues developed and implemented a single-color ratiometric sensor of cell cycle state comprised of a fragment of human DNA helicase B (DHB) fused to a fluorescent protein that is phosphorylated by CDKs (Hahn et al., 2009; Schwarz et al., 2018; Spencer et al., 2013). Notably, through quantitative measurements of CDK activity, this sensor provided new insights into the proliferation-quiescence decision in cultured mammalian cells by identifying cycling cells that exit mitosis in a CDK-increasing (CDK^{inc}) state and quiescent cells that exit

80   mitosis in a CDK-low (CDK^{low}) state (Spencer et al., 2013). Nonetheless, a DHB-based CDK
81   sensor has not been utilized to evaluate the proliferation-terminal differentiation decision.

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In this study, we investigate the proliferation-terminal differentiation decision in *C. elegans*
and zebrafish, two powerful *in vivo* systems with radically different modes of development. We
generate transgenic CDK sensor lines in each organism to examine this decision live at mitotic
exit. By quantifying CDK activity, or DHB ratios, at mitotic exit, we are able to predict future cell
behavior across several embryonic and post-embryonic lineages. Despite cells generally exiting
mitosis with decreased CDK activity levels, we reliably distinguish cycling cells that exit mitosis
into G_1, in a CDK^{inc} state, from terminally differentiated cells that exit mitosis into G_0, in a CDK^{low}
state. To gain insights into cell cycle progression commitment, we examine the activity of *C.*
elegans cki-1, a cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor (CKI) of the Cip/Kip family, demonstrating that
endogenous CKI-1 levels are anti-correlated with CDK activity during the proliferation-terminal
differentiation decision. We propose that integration of CKI-1 levels in the mother cell and the high
CKI-1/low CDK activity at mitotic exit mediate this decision. By utilizing the CDK sensor to predict
future cell behavior, we uncover a cryptic stochasticity that occurs in a temperature-dependent
fashion in the *C. elegans* vulva, an otherwise invariant and well-characterized lineage. Finally, we
reveal cell cycle dynamics in zebrafish, an organism that lacks a defined cell lineage,
demonstrating that differentiated embryonic tissues display DHB ratios that correlate with those
observed in terminally differentiated G_0 cells in *C. elegans*. Together, we present a tool for
visualizing G_1/G_0 dynamics *in vivo* during metazoan development that can be used to study the
interplay between cell proliferation and terminal differentiation.

102
103   **RESULTS**
104
Design and Characterization of a Live *C. elegans* CDK Sensor to Define Interphase States
We synthesized a codon-optimized fragment of human DHB comprised of amino acids 994–1087
(Hahn et al., 2009; Spencer et al., 2013). The fragment contains four serine sites that are
phosphorylated by CDKs in human cells (Moser et al., 2018; Spencer et al., 2013). These serine
sites flank a nuclear localization signal (NLS) situated next to a nuclear export signal (NES)
(**Figure 1A**). When CDK activity is low, the NLS is dominant over the NES and DHB localizes to
the nucleus. However, when CDK activity increases (i.e., during cell cycle entry), the NLS is
obstructed and DHB localizes to the cytoplasm (**Figure 1B**). Using this DHB fragment, we
generated two CDK sensors by fusing green fluorescent protein (GFP) or two copies of a red
fluorescent protein, mKate2 (2xmKate2), to the DHB C-terminus (**Figure 1A**). To visualize the

nucleus, we co-expressed *his-58*/histone H2B fused to 2xmKate2 or GFP, respectively*,* which is

separated from DHB by a P2A self-cleaving viral peptide (Ahier and Jarriault, 2014). We drove

the expression of each CDK sensor via a ubiquitous *rps-27* promoter (Ruijtenberg and van den

Heuvel, 2015).

To test both the GFP (**Figure 1C, 1D, S1A**) and 2xmKate2 (**Figure S1B-D)** versions of

our CDK sensor, we began by examining cell divisions in the *C. elegans* embryo and germline

(**Movie S1**). First, we visualized cells in the embryonic intestine, which is clonally derived from the

E blastomere, as these are the first cells in the embryo to have gap phases (Edgar and McGhee,

1988). The E blastomere goes through four rounds of divisions to give rise to 16 descendants

(E16 cells) about four hours after first cleavage. While 12 of the E16 cells have completed their

embryonic divisions at this stage (Leung et al., 1999), four cells called E16* star cells divide once

more to generate the 20-celled intestine (E20). Although all E16 cells polarize and show signs of

differentiation, the E16* star cells quickly reenter the cell cycle to divide again (Rasmussen et al.,

2013; Yang and Feldman, 2015). Thus, we wondered whether our CDK sensor could be used to

distinguish between cycling E16* star cells and quiescent E16 cells. To accomplish this, we

tracked E16* star cell division from the E16–E20 stage and observed that DHB::GFP localizes in

a cell cycle-dependent fashion during these divisions, with DHB::GFP translocating from the

nucleus to the cytoplasm and then re-locating to the nucleus at the completion of E16* star cell

division (**Figure 1C, S1A**). Consistent with our observations using the GFP version of our CDK

sensor in mid-embryogenesis, DHB::2xmKate2 also dynamically translocates from the nucleus to

the cytoplasm during cell divisions in the early embryo (**Figure S1B**). Second, we examined the

localization of DHB::GFP (**Figure 1D**) and DHB::2xmKate2 (**Figure S1C, S1D**) in the adult *C.*

elegans germline. Here we detected a gradient of live CDK activity, from high in the distal mitotic

progenitor zone to low in the proximal meiotic regions, as described with EdU incorporation and

phospho-histone H3 staining (Kocsisova et al., 2018). Together, these results demonstrate that

our CDK sensor is dynamic during cell cycle progression in the *C. elegans* embryo and germline.

The ability to distinguish cycling cells from quiescent cells in the embryo made us wonder

whether we could also distinguish cycling cells from terminally differentiated cells post-

embryogenesis. Therefore, we examined our CDK sensor in several post-embryonic somatic

lineages that undergo proliferation followed by terminal differentiation (Sulston and Horvitz, 1977).

Specifically, we selected the sex myoblasts (SM), the somatic sheath (SS) and ventral uterine

(VU) cells of the somatic gonad, and the vulval precursor cells (VPCs) (**Figure 1E and E'**). To

define each phase of the cell cycle while these lineages are proliferating, we combined static and

time-lapse imaging approaches to measure nuclear:cytoplasmic DHB ratios for G_1, S and G_2
(**Figure 1F-J, S1E-M**). First, we RNAi depleted the sole *C. elegans* CDK1 homolog, *cdk-1,* to
induce a penetrant G_2 phase arrest in the SM cells (**Figure 1F**). Quantification of DHB ratios
following *cdk-1* RNAi treatment showed a mean ratio of 1.00±0.28 and 2.36±0.70 in the GFP and
2xmKate2 versions of our CDK sensor, respectively (**Figure 1H**). Next, we quantified DHB ratios
following time-lapse of SM (**Figure 1F', 1H, S1G**), uterine (**Figure S1E, S1G**) and VPC (**Figure
S1F, S1G**) divisions to determine peak values of G_2 CDK activity (**Figure 1I, S1H, S1I**). All
lineages exhibited the same CDK sensor localization pattern during peak G_2—that is, maximal
nuclear exclusion. Next, for each lineage (**Figure 1F'', S1E', S1F'**), we quantified DHB ratios 20
minutes after anaphase from our time-lapses to determine a threshold for G1 phase CDK activity.
In G1, DHB::GFP and DHB::2xmKate2 were nuclear localized after mitotic exit with mean ratios
of 0.59±0.11 and 0.97±0.20 in SMs, 0.67±0.10 and 1.13±0.17 in uterine cells, and 0.35±0.14 and
0.58±0.32 in VPCs (**Figure 1H, 1I, S1G-I**). Finally, we paired DHB::2xmKate2 with a reporter for
S phase, fusing GFP to the sole *C. elegans* proliferating cell nuclear antigen (PCNA)
homolog, *pcn-1*, expressed under its own endogenous promoter at single copy. Although nuclear
localized throughout the cell cycle, PCNA forms sub-nuclear puncta solely in S (Brauchle et al.,
2003; Dwivedi et al., 2019; Strzyz et al., 2015; Zerjatke et al., 2017). Analysis of time-lapse data
found that punctate expression of PCN-1::GFP correlated with mean DHB::2xmKate2 ratios of
0.89±0.16 in SM (**Figure 1G, 1J, Movie S2**), 1.00±0.10 in uterine (**Figure S1J, S1K**) and
1.02±0.22 in VPC (**Figure S1J, S1K**) lineages. Despite individual lineages showing differences
in CDK activity (**Figure S1G**), primarily in G_1, we can establish DHB ratios for each interphase
state (G_1/S/G_2) across several post-embryonic somatic lineages using either CDK sensor and
recommend pairing with a PCNA reporter for precise determination of interphase state
boundaries. We next wondered if we could distinguish G_1 from G_0 as these somatic lineages exit
their final cell division; therefore, allowing us to visibly and quantitatively detect terminal
differentiation *in vivo*. We mainly chose the DHB::GFP version of our CDK sensor to conduct the
following experiments as it was more photostable.
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CDK^{low} Activity after Mitotic Exit is Predictive of Terminal Differentiation
In asynchronously dividing MCF10A epithelial cell lines, cells that exited mitosis into a CDK2^{low}
state had a high probability of staying in G_0 compared to cells that exited at a CDK2^{inc} state
(Spencer et al., 2013). We therefore wanted to determine whether the cytoplasmic:nuclear ratio
of DHB::GFP following an *in vivo* cell division could be used to predict if a cell will enter G_1 and
divide again or enter G_0 and terminally differentiate. Taking advantage of the predictable cell

lineage pattern of *C. elegans*, we quantitatively correlated DHB::GFP ratios with the decision to
proliferate or terminally differentiate. We first quantified DHB::GFP ratios from time-lapse
acquisitions of SM cell divisions. The SM cells undergo three rounds of cell division during the L3
and L4 larval stages before terminally differentiating into uterine and vulval muscle (**Figure 2A**)
(Sulston and Horvitz, 1977). Quantification of DHB::GFP in this lineage revealed that shortly after
the first and second divisions, CDK activity increases immediately after mitotic exit from an
intermediate level, which we designate as a CDK[inc] state (**Figure 2B, 2C, Movie S3**), Conversely,
CDK activity following the third and terminal division remains low, designated as a CDK[low] state.
Bootstrap analyses support a significant difference in DHB::GFP ratios between pre-terminal
(CDK[inc]) and terminal divisions, but not among pre-terminal divisions (**Figure S2A-C**). We then
quantified DHB::GFP ratios during the division of two somatic gonad lineages, the VU and SS
cells. They both undergo several rounds of division during the L3 larval stage and terminally
differentiate in the early L4 stage (**Figure 2D**) (Sulston and Horvitz, 1977). We quantified a pre-
terminal division and the subsequent division that leads to terminal differentiation. Similar to the
SM lineage, both somatic gonad lineages exit the round of cell division prior to their final division
into a CDK[inc] state and then exit into a CDK[low] state following their terminal differentiation (**Figure
2E, 2F, S2D-F, Movie S4**). Bootstrap analyses support a significant difference between
DHB::GFP ratios in pre-terminal versus terminal divisions in the developing somatic gonad
(**Figure S2D**).
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Next, we sought to determine how the CDK sensor behaves under conditions in which
cells are experimentally forced into G_0. To accomplish this, we generated a single copy transgenic
line of mTagBFP2-tagged CKI-1, the *C. elegans* homolog of p21[Cip1]/p27[Kip1], under an inducible
heat shock promoter (*hsp*), paired with a *rps-0*>DHB::mKate2 variant of the CDK sensor. Induced
expression of CKI-1 is expected to result in G_0 arrest (Hong et al., 1998; Matus et al., 2014; van
der Horst et al., 2019). Indeed, in the SM and uterine lineages, induced expression of CKI-1
resulted in cells entering a CDK[low] G_0 state, with mean DHB ratios of 0.10±0.05 and 0.12±0.05,
respectively (**Figure 2G**) as compared to control animals that lacked heat shock-induced
expression (SM: 0.99±0.82, uterine: 0.71±0.35) or lacked the inducible transgene (SM:
0.96±0.77, uterine: 1.00±0.37). Thus, induced G_0 arrest by ectopic expression of CKI-1 is
functionally equivalent, by CDK activity levels, to the G_0 arrest that occurs following mitotic exit in
an unperturbed cell destined to undergo terminal differentiation.
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We next examined the divisions of the 1°- and 2°-fated VPC lineage. The *C. elegans* vulva
is derived from three cells (P5.p–P7.p), which undergo three rounds of cell division during the L3

and early L4 larval stages (**Figure 3A, 3B**) (Katz et al., 1995; Sternberg and Horvitz, 1986; Sulston

and Horvitz, 1977). Rather than giving rise to 24 cells, the two D cells, the innermost

granddaughters of the 2°-fated P5.p and P7.p, terminally differentiate one round of cell division

early. This results in a total of 22 cells which comprise the adult vulva (Katz et al., 1995; Sulston

and Horvitz, 1977). Quantification of DHB::GFP ratios during VPC divisions yielded the expected

pattern. The daughters of P5.p–P7.p all exited their first division into a CDK^{inc} state (**Figure 3C,**

3D). After the next division, the 12 granddaughters of P5.p–P7.p (named A–F symmetrically) are

born, including the terminally differentiated D cell (Katz et al., 1995; Sulston and Horvitz, 1977).

At this division, the strong nuclear localization of DHB::GFP in the D cell was in stark contrast to

the remaining proliferating VPCs. The D cell exited into and remained in a CDK^{low} state, while the

remaining VPCs exited into a CDK^{inc} state and continued to progress through the cell cycle

(**Figure 3C, 3D, Movie S5**). All remaining VPCs exited into a CDK^{low} state at their terminal

division. Consistent with these results, bootstrap analyses (**Figure S2G-M**) support our qualitative

results, such that we can quantitatively distinguish between a cell that has completed mitosis and

will continue to cycle (CDK^{inc}) from a cell that exits mitosis and enters a terminally differentiated

G_0 state (CDK^{low}).

CKI-1 Levels Peak Prior to Terminal Differentiation

In mammalian cell culture, endogenous levels of $p21^{Cip1}$ during G_2 are predictive of whether a cell

will go on to divide or enter quiescence/senescence/terminal differentiation (Hsu et al., 2019;

Moser et al., 2018; Overton et al., 2014; Spencer et al., 2013). This raises the intriguing possibility

that endogenous levels of CKI-1 in *C. elegans* correlate with CDK^{low} or CDK^{inc} activity. To co-

visualize CKI-1 dynamics with our CDK sensor, we inserted a N-terminal GFP tag into the

endogenous locus of *cki-1* via CRISPR/Cas9 and introduced a DHB::2xmKate2 variant of the

sensor (devoid of histone H2B) into this genetic background. Since endogenous levels of

GFP::CKI-1 were too dim for time-lapse microscopy, likely due to its short half-life (Yang et al.,

2017), we collected a developmental time series of static images over the L3 and L4 larval stages

to characterize GFP::CKI-1 levels during pre-terminal and terminal divisions in the VPC lineage.

We detected generally low levels of GFP::CKI-1 at the Pn.p 2-cell stage (**Figure 4A, 4B, S3A-C**).

In their daughter cells, at the Pn.p 4-cell stage, we detected an increase in GFP::CKI-1 levels in

cycling cells prior to their next cell division, peaking in G_2 (**Figure 4A, 4C, S3A-C**). Notably, the D

cell, which becomes post-mitotic after this cell division, exits mitosis with higher levels of

GFP::CKI-1 than its CD mother (**Figure 4A and S3B**). This trend holds true for the remaining

VPCs during terminal differentiation at the Pn.p 6-cell and 8-cell stage, which show high levels of

GFP::CKI-1 that peak immediately after mitotic exit and remain high during the post-mitotic L4

stage (**Figure 4A, 4D, 4E, S4A-C**). We also observed increasing levels of GFP::CKI-1 in the G_2

phase of mother cells that peak in their terminal daughter cells in the uterine (**Figure S3D**) and

SM cell lineages (**Figure S3E**). Thus, levels of GFP::CKI-1 increase in mother cells prior to

terminal differentiation and remain high upon mitotic exit in daughter cells with CDK^{low} activity.

These results elucidate a proliferation-terminal differentiation decision process that is already

underway in G_2 of the previous cell cycle and is in part controlled by CKI-1 in the mother cell.

During our collection of static images of GFP::CKI-1 animals, we observed significant

deviations in the expected VPC lineage pattern in the early L4 larval stage. In particular, we noted

that many cells appeared to bypass their final division and undergo early terminal differentiation

with coincident high levels of GFP::CKI-1 and low DHB ratios. We hypothesized that the line we

generated could be behaving as a gain-of-function mutant, as GFP insertions at the N-terminus

could interfere with proteasome-mediated protein degradation of CKI-1 (Bloom et al., 2003). The

penetrance of this early terminal differentiation defect varied across VPC lineages. While the A

(2% of cases observed) and E (3% of cases observed) lineages showed a low penetrance of this

early terminal differentiation defect, the B (26% of cases observed) and F (58% of cases

observed) lineages showed a moderate penetrance (**Figure 4F, 4G**). We speculate that the A

and E lineages are largely insensitive to the gain-of-function mutant because CKI-2, an

understudied paralog of CKI-1, is the dominant CKI in these cells. The C cell, sister to the

terminally differentiated D cell, had a highly penetrant early terminal differentiation defect (98% of

cases observed; **Figure 4F, 4G**). Consistent with our finding that high levels of endogenous

GFP::CKI-1 can lead to early terminal differentiation, heat shock-induced CKI-1 expression

uniformly drove VPCs into a CDK^{low} G_0 state with mean DHB ratios of 0.11±0.05 (**Figure 4H**) as

compared to control animals that lacked heat shock-induced expression (0.46±0.87) or lacked the

inducible *cki-1* transgene (0.47±0.42). Together, these results demonstrate that cycling cells are

highly sensitive to levels of CKIs and that increased expression can induce a terminally

differentiated G_0 state.

CDK Activity Predicts a Cryptic Stochastic Fate Decision in an Invariant Cell Lineage

A strength of *C. elegans* is the organism's robust ability to buffer external and internal

perturbations to maintain its invariant cell lineage. However, not all cell divisions that give rise to

the 959 somatic cells are completely invariant. Studies have identified several lineages, including

the vulva, in *C. elegans* where environmental stressors, genetic mutations and/or genetic

divergence of wild isolates leads to stochastic changes in a highly invariant cell fate pattern

(Braendle and Felix, 2008; Hintze et al., 2020; Katsanos et al., 2017). Thus, we wondered if the

CDK sensor generated here could be utilized to visualize and predict stochastic lineage decisions

during *C. elegans* development.

The VPC lineage that gives rise to the adult vulva is invariant (**Figure 5A, S4A**) (Sulston

and Horvitz, 1977). However, at high temperatures it has been observed that the D cell, the inner-

most granddaughter of P5.p or P7.p, will go on to divide (**Figure 5A**) (Sternberg, 1984; Sternberg

and Horvitz, 1986). Unexpectedly, we noticed a rare occurrence of D cells expressing elevated

DHB ratios during the course of time-lapse analysis of VPC divisions captured under standard

laboratory conditions. To determine the penetrance of the cycling D cell phenotype, we inspected

each of our CDK sensor lines grown at 25°C, a high temperature that is still within normal range

for *C. elegans*. In both strains we observed a cycling D cell with a 2-10% penetrance (**Figure 5B,**

S4B). To test whether this cycling D cell phenotype resulted from the presence of the DHB

transgene or environmental stressors, such as temperature fluctuation, we examined the VPC

lineage in animals lacking the CDK sensor at 25°C and 28°C. At 25°C, we observed a low

penetrance (2%) of cycling D cells in a strain expressing an endogenously tagged DNA licensing

factor, CDT-1::GFP (**Figure 5B, S4B**), which is cytosolic in cycling cells (Matus et al., 2014;

Matus et al., 2015). From lineage analysis, L2 larvae, expressing a seam cell reporter (*scm*>GFP),

that were temperature shifted from 20°C to 28°C displayed approximately a 30% occurrence of

extra D cell divisions (**Figure S4C-E**). Lastly, we wanted to determine whether D cells that show

CDK^{inc} activity divide. To accomplish this, we collected time-lapses of DHB::GFP animals grown

at 25°C. These time-lapses revealed 10 occurrences of D cells born into a CDK^{inc} rather than a

CDK^{low} (**Figure 5C, 5D, Movie S6**). In all 10 cases, the CDK^{inc} D cell goes on to divide (**Figure**

S4A). Thus, we find that CDK activity shortly after mitosis is a strong predictor of future cell

behavior, even in rare stochastic cases of extra cell divisions in *C. elegans*, an organism with a

well-defined cell lineage.

Generation of Inducible CDK Sensor Transgenic Lines in Zebrafish

To investigate the predictive capability of DHB ratios in zebrafish, we generated two CDK sensor

lines with different fluorescent protein combinations, DHB-mNeonGreen (mNG) and DHB-

mScarlet (DHB-mSc) with H2B-mSc and H2B-miRFP670, respectively, to allow for flexibility with

imaging and experimental design (**Figure 6A**). Both transgenes are under the control of the

hsp70l heat shock-inducible promoter, which produces robust ubiquitous expression after shifting

the temperature from 28.5°C to 40°C for 30 minutes (Halloran et al., 2000; Shoji et al., 1998). We

also generated a transgenic line, *Tg(ubb:Lck-mNG)*, that ubiquitously labels the plasma

membrane with mNG, which we crossed into the HS:DHB-mSc-2A-H2B-miRFP670 line to
simultaneously visualize CDK activity (DHB-mSc), segment nuclei (H2B-miRFP670) and segment
the plasma membrane (LCK-mNG) (**Figure 6A**).

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To verify that both CDK sensor lines localize DHB in a cell cycle-dependent manner, we
first used time-lapse microscopy and quantified DHB ratios across cell divisions in the tailbud of
bud or 22 somite-stage embryos to determine peak G_2 and G_1 DHB ratios (**Figure 6B-D**). We
observed the expected localization pattern for both CDK sensor lines, with maximal nuclear
exclusion of the sensor shortly before mitosis in G2 (3.42±0.56 and 6.57±2.00) and low DHB
ratios (0.69±0.17 (mNG) and 0.51±0.21 (mSC)) representing nuclear accumulation of the sensor
shortly after mitosis in G1 (**Figure 6C, 6D**). Thus, we conclude that both CDK sensor lines localize
in a cell cycle-dependent fashion, and that quantitative measurements can be used to determine
interphase states.

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Next, using both DHB transgenic lines, we examined CDK activity in a number of defined
embryonic tissues. Imaging of the developing tailbud reveled cells in all phases of the cell cycle
with a mean DHB ratios of 1.95±1.74 (mNG) and 1.67±2.05 (mSC) (**Figure 6E, 6F**). The tailbud
of vertebrate embryos contain neuromesodermal progenitors (NMPs) (Martin, 2016), which in
zebrafish have been reported to be predominantly arrested in the G_2 phase of the cell cycle
(Bouldin et al., 2014). Consistent with this, we observed cells with high CDK activity in the tailbud
(**Figure 6E, S5A** orange arrows). This enrichment is eliminated when embryos are treated with
the CDK4/6 inhibitor palbociclib, leading to a significant increase of cells in the tailbud with low
CDK activity (0.58±0.31), similar in range to the G_1/G_0 values we measured during time-lapse
(0.69±0.17) (**Figure S5D-F**). Finally, we made the surprising observation that primitive red blood
cells in the intermediate cell mass of 24 hours post-fertilization (hpf) embryos, which are nucleated
in zebrafish, display high CDK activity (3.00±0.97) indicating that they are exclusively in the G_2
phase of the cell cycle (**Figure S5B**), suggesting that cell cycle regulation may be important for
hematopoiesis (Bronnimann et al., 2018; De La Garza et al., 2019)

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Visualization of Proliferation and Terminal Differentiation during Zebrafish Development
To examine differences between proliferating and terminally differentiated cells, we examined
CDK activity in the somites, which are segmental mesodermal structures that give rise to
terminally differentiated skeletal muscle cells and other cell types (Martin, 2016). In the most
recently formed somites at 24 hpf, cells can be observed in all phases of the cell cycle (**Figure
6G, 6H**). Consistent with what we observed in the NMPs in the tailbud, treatment with palbociclib

also caused somite cells to arrest with low CDK activity (0.33±0.42) in G_1/G_0 (**Figure S5D-F**).

Recently formed somites contain a subpopulation of cells called adaxial cells, which are

positioned at the medial edge of the somite next to the axial mesoderm. These are the slow

muscle precursors and are considered to be in a terminally differentiated state through the

cooperative action of Cdkn1ca (p57) and Myod (Osborn et al., 2011). As opposed to the majority

of cells in the lateral regions of recently formed somites, adaxial cells possess low CDK activity

(0.13±0.04 (mNG)) (**Figure S5C**). At later stages, the majority of cells in the lateral regions of the

somite will differentiate into fast skeletal muscles fibers, which are also considered to be in a

terminally differentiated state (Halevy et al., 1995). Examination of DHB ratios at 72 hpf skeletal

muscle fibers revealed they have low CDK activity (0.14±0.04 (mNG) and 0.13±0.04 (mSc)),

similar to the adaxial cells, but significantly different than the mean DHB ratios of undifferentiated

cells at 24 hours (0.82±0.70 (mNG) and 0.99±0.084 (mSc)) (**Figure 6A, 6C**). Thus, from our static

imaging, we can identify cell types with low CDK activity that are thought to be terminally

differentiated.

We next sought to determine if we can differentiate between the G_1 and G_0 state based

on ratiometric quantification of DHB. We compared the terminally differentiated muscle and

epidermal cells to notochord progenitor cells, which are held transiently in G_1/G_0 before re-

entering the cell cycle upon joining the notochord (Sugiyama et al., 2014; Sugiyama et al., 2009)

(**Figure 6I**). Notably, the mean DHB-mNG ratio of the notochord progenitors (0.32±0.08) is

significantly higher than the DHB-mNG ratio of the differentiated epidermis (0.13±0.03) (**Figure**

6J). This value is consistent in notochord progenitors at two other earlier developmental stages,

90% epiboly (0.28±0.08) and 18 somites (0.27±0.09) (**Figure 6J**)**.** The DHB-mSc ratio in the

notochord progenitors (0.33±0.08) is also significantly different than the differentiated epidermis

(0.09±0.04) (**Figure 6J**). Based on this difference in DHB ratios between notochord progenitors

and terminally differentiated cell types, including muscle (**Figure 6H**) and epidermis (**Figure 6J**),

and our knowledge of the normal biology of these cells, we conclude that the CDK sensor can

distinguish between a cycling G_1 state and a terminally differentiated G_0 state in the zebrafish.

A Bifurcation in CDK Activity at Mitosis is Conserved in *C. elegans* and Zebrafish

We next investigated whether zebrafish cells separate into G_1/CDK^{inc} and G_0/CDK^{low} populations

as they do in the nematode *C. elegans* and whether these CDK activity states are a general

predictor of future cell behavior in both animals. First, we plotted all of the time-lapse CDK sensor

data we collected in *C. elegans* (**Figure 7A, 7B**) and zebrafish (**Figure 7C, 7D**). For *C. elegans*,

plotting of all CDK sensor trace data, irrespective of lineage, demonstrated that cells entering a

CDK^{low} state after mitosis corresponded to terminally differentiated cells, while cells that exited

mitosis into a CDK^{inc} state corresponded to cells from pre-terminal divisions. For zebrafish, in a

lineage agnostic manner, we plotted all the traces from the tailbud and found that these data could

also be classified into CDK^{low} and CDK^{inc} populations.

As we were able to detect a rare stochastic lineage change in the *C. elegans* vulval lineage

(**Figure 5**), we selected all CDK sensor trace data from the *C. elegans* VPCs (**Figure S6A**) and

used this data to build a classifier to predict pre-terminal (G_1) vs terminal (G_0) cell fates based on

CDK activity after anaphase (**Figure S6A-C**). Cross-examining our modeling with the known cell

VPC lineage demonstrated that at 20 minutes after anaphase we had 85% accuracy in predictions

with near perfect prediction 60 minutes after anaphase (**Figure S6B**). To test the predictive power

of the classifier, we analyzed CDK trace data from the births of C and D cells, where some D cells

stochastically divide (**Figure 5**). Our classifier correctly predicted cell fate 92% of the time (**Figure**

S6). Together, these results demonstrate that during development, cycling cells encounter a

bifurcation in CDK activity following mitosis where they either: (1) increase in CDK activity and

become poised to cycle, or (2) exit into a a CDK^{low} state and undergo terminal differentiation

(**Figure 7E**). Thus, we suggest a model where cells from developing tissue in *C. elegans* and

zebrafish must cross an early commitment point in the cell cycle where these cells must make the

decision to divide or terminally differentiate. The decision to undergo terminal differentiation is

crucial to tissue integration and organization and is controlled by the activity of evolutionarily

conserved CKI(s) in the mother cell (**Figure 7E**) that control daughter cell CDK activity.

414
415 **DISCUSSION**
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A CDK Sensor for Live-Cell In Vivo Imaging of Interphase States and the G_1/G_0 Transition

We introduce here a CDK activity sensor to visually monitor interphase and the proliferation-

terminal differentiation decision in real-time and *in vivo* in two widely used research organisms,

C. elegans and zebrafish. This sensor, which reads out the phosphorylation of a DHB peptide by

CDKs (Hahn et al., 2009; Spencer et al., 2013), allows for quantitative assessment of cell cycle

state, including G_0. The use of FUCCI in zebrafish (Bouldin and Kimelman, 2014; Sugiyama et

al., 2009) and past iterations of a CDK sensor in *C. elegans* (Deng et al., 2020; Dwivedi et al.,

2019; van Rijnberk et al., 2017) and *Drosophila* (Hur et al., 2020) have been informative in

improving our understanding of cell cycle regulation of development, but have not addressed the

proliferation-terminal differentiation decision. The DHB transgenic lines generated in this study

will allow researchers to distinguish G_1 from G_0 shortly after a cell has divided and directly study

G$_0$-related cell behaviors, such as terminal differentiation, quiescence and senescence, in living
organisms.

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CDK sensors have been used previously to visualize the difference between proliferative
and quiescent cells in asynchronous mammalian cell culture populations (Arora et al., 2017;
Cappell et al., 2016; Gast et al., 2018; Gookin et al., 2017; Miller et al., 2018; Moser et al., 2018;
Overton et al., 2014; Spencer et al., 2013; Yang et al., 2015). As mammalian cells complete
mitosis, they are born into either a CDK2^{inc} state where they are more likely to divide again, or a
CDK2^{low} state where they remain quiescent for longer periods of time. Here we have examined
the CDK activity state of cells in an invertebrate with a well-defined and invariant lineage, *C.*
elegans, and a vertebrate that lacks a defined cell lineage, the zebrafish. In both contexts, we can
visually and quantitatively differentiate between cells that are in a CDK^{inc} state following cell
division and cells that are in a CDK^{low} state. Strikingly, in *C. elegans* these states precisely
correlate with the lineage pattern of the three post-embryonic tissues we examined: the SM cells,
uterine cells and VPCs. Cells born into a CDK^{inc} state represented pre-terminal divisions, whereas
cells born into a CDK^{low} state were terminally differentiated. By distinguishing these two states in
CDK activity, we were able to accurately identify shortly after cell birth a rare stochasticity that
was first described through careful end-point lineage analysis nearly 36 years ago in the *C.*
elegans vulval lineage (Sternberg, 1984; Sternberg and Horvitz, 1986). Further, statistical
modeling demonstrated that we could predict future cell behavior with >85% accuracy in *C.*
elegans just 20 minutes after anaphase and accurately categorized the few cases of stochastic
extra cell division we captured during our time-lapse recordings. In zebrafish, we found that we
could readily distinguish between CDK^{inc} cells in G$_1$, such as notochord progenitors which re-enter
the cell cycle after joining the notochord, and tissues that are terminally differentiated and contain
CDK^{low} cells in G$_0$, such as skeletal muscle and epidermis. Thus, in both organisms the CDK
sensor can be easily used to separate G$_1$ from G$_0$ without the need for multiple fluorescent
reporters (Bajar et al., 2016; Oki et al., 2014) or fixation and antibody staining for FACS analysis
(Tomura et al., 2013).

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In Vivo Evidence of a G$_2$ Commitment Point in the Metazoan Cell Cycle
The classic model of the Restriction Point, the point in G$_1$ at which cells in culture decide to commit
to the cell cycle and no longer require growth factors (e.g., mitogens), is that mammalian cells are
born uncommitted and that the cell cycle progression decision is not made until several hours
after mitosis (Jones and Kazlauskas, 2001; Pardee, 1974; Zetterberg and Larsson, 1985; Zwang
et al., 2011). An alternative model has been proposed in studies using single-cell measurements

of CDK2 activity in asynchronous populations of MCF10A cells (Spencer et al., 2013) and other

nontumorigenic as well as tumorigenic cell lines (Moser et al., 2018). This model extends the

classic Restriction Point model for cell cycle commitment. During the G_2 phase of the cell cycle,

the mother cell is influenced by levels of p21 and cyclin D and these levels affect the

phosphorylation state of Rb in CDK^{low} and CDK^{inc} daughter cells, respectively (Min et al., 2020;

Moser et al., 2018). In CDK^{low} daughter cells, phospho-Rb is low and these cells are still sensitive

to mitogens. Whether cells *in vivo* coordinate cell cycle commitment with levels of CKI and CDK

over this extended Restriction Point is poorly understood.

By first quantifying the cytoplasmic:nuclear ratio of the CDK sensor in time-lapse

recordings of cell divisions in *C. elegans* somatic lineages, we were able to use DHB ratios as a

proxy for CDK levels to distinguish two populations of daughter cells: the first being actively cycling

cells in a CDK^{inc} state (G_1), and the second being terminally differentiated cells in a CDK^{low} state

(G_0). We then quantified cytoplasmic:nuclear ratio of the CDK sensor in time-lapse recordings of

cell divisions in zebrafish and were also able to distinguish two populations of daughter cells. As

data from asynchronous cell culture studies suggest that the decision to commit to the cell cycle

is made by the mother cell as early as G_2 (Moser et al., 2018; Spencer et al., 2013), we wanted

to determine if this same phenomenon occurred *in vivo*. To accomplish this, we endogenously

tagged one of two CKIs in the *C. elegans* genome, *cki-1*, with GFP using CRISPR/Cas9. We

paired static live-cell imaging of GFP::CKI-1 with DHB::2xmKate2 during vulval development.

Similar to *in vitro* experiments (Moser et al., 2018; Spencer et al., 2013), we found that mother

cells whose daughters are born into a CDK^{inc} G_1 state will divide again, expressing low levels of

GFP::CKI-1. In contrast, mother cells of daughters that will differentiate express a peak of

GFP::CKI-1 in G_2 which increases as daughter cells are born into a CDK^{low} G_0 state. Thus, our

data demonstrate that an extended Restriction Point exists in the cell cycle of intact Metazoa, and

that the *in vivo* proliferation-terminal differentiation decision can be predicted in *C. elegans* by

CKI/CDK activity shortly after mitotic exit.

Conclusion

We demonstrate here that the CDK sensor functions in both *C. elegans* and zebrafish to read out

cell cycle state dynamically, and unlike other cell cycle sensors, can distinguish between

proliferative and terminally differentiated cells within an hour of cell birth. As nematodes and

vertebrates last shared a common ancestor over 500 million years ago, this suggests that the

CDK sensor is likely to function in a similar fashion across Metazoa. Thus, this broad functionality

will provide a powerful tool to examine fundamental questions such as the relationship between

cell cycle state and cell fate during normal development, cellular reprogramming and tissue
regeneration. Finally, as an increasing body of evidence suggests that cell cycle state impinges
on morphogenetic events ranging from gastrulation (Grosshans and Wieschaus, 2000; Murakami
et al., 2004), convergent extension (Leise and Mueller, 2004) and cellular invasion (Kohrman and
Matus, 2017; Matus et al., 2015; Medwig-Kinney et al., 2020), this CDK sensor will provide the
means to increase our understanding of the relationship between interphase states and
morphogenesis during normal development and diseases arising from cell cycle defects, such as
cancer.

506
507 **SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION**
508
509 Supplemental Information includes Extended Experimental Procedures, six figures, one table,
510 and seven movies, which can be found online with this article.
511

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513
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531
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533
Conceptualization, R.C.A., A.Q.K., M.A.Q.M., M.D.S., J.L.F., S.L.S., B.L.M. and D.Q.M.;
Methodology, R.C.A., A.Q.K., M.A.Q.M., N.J.P., J.J.S., T.N.M-K., S.L., R.D.M., W.Z., B.L.M., and
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542 **DECLARATION OF INTERESTS**
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544 The authors declare no competing interests.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

C. elegans **Strains**

C. elegans strains were cultured in standard conditions at 15-25°C on NGM plates with *E. coli* OP50. In the text and figures, we designate linkage to a promoter with a greater than symbol (>) and use a double colon (::) for linkages that fuse open reading frames (Ziel et al., 2009). See **Extended Experimental Procedures** and the **Key Resources Table** for details about alleles and transgenes generated in this study.

Zebrafish Lines

All zebrafish experiments and husbandry were performed with approval from the Stony Brook University Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee. See **Extended Experimental Procedures** and the **Key Resources Table** for details about the transgenic lines generated used in this study.

RNAi, Heat Shock Induction and Chemical Inhibitors

RNAi was delivered by feeding worms *E. coli* HT115(DE3) expressing double-stranded RNA (dsRNA) targeted against *control* (L4440) and *cdk-1*. Expression of *cki-1* was induced using a ubiquitous heat shock promoter. The inhibitor used in zebrafish was PD-0332991, a CDK4/6 inhibitor. See **Extended Experimental Procedures**.

Live-Cell Microscopy

For microscopes and imaging conditions, see **Extended Experimental Procedures**.

Image Processing and Statistical Analyses

Image processing was performed in Fiji and statistical analyses were performed in MATLAB. See **Extended Experimental Procedures**.

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Figure 1. Generation of a CDK sensor for live cell cycle visualization in *C. elegans*. (A) Schematic of CDK sensor fused to GFP (top) or two copies of mKate2 (bottom) and a nuclear mask (H2B::FP) separated by a self-cleaving peptide (P2A). Inset: nuclear-localization signal (NLS), nuclear export signal (NES), CDK consensus phosphorylation sites on serine (S). (B) Schematic of CDK sensor translocation during the cell cycle. (C) Quiescent E16 cells (blue arrows) versus the cycling E16* star cells (orange) arrows. (D-E) Confocal micrograph montage of CDK sensor in the *C. elegans* germline (D, orange dashed line) and L3 stage larvae (E). Three somatic tissues are highlighted (inset, dashed orange box) shown at higher magnification in E', with pseudo colored nuclei (magenta) depicting cells of interest. (F, G) Representative images of sensor expression in SM cells following *cdk-1* RNAi treatment; at peak G2 (F') and 20 minutes after anaphase during G1 (F'') in DHB::GFP (grey) and DHB::2xmKate2 (magenta) and DHB::2xmKate2 co-expressed with PCNA (*pcn-1*>PCN-1::GFP), inset highlights PCNA puncta in S phase. (H) Dot plot depicting dynamic ranges of the two CDK sensor variants, measured by the cytoplasmic:nuclear ratio of DHB mean fluorescent intensity, at the peak of G_2 and G_1 in the SMs ($n \geq 9$). (I) Plot of DHB cytoplasmic:nuclear ratio in SM cells during one round of cell division, measured every 5 minutes ($n=4$ per strain). Dotted line indicates time of anaphase. Error bars and shaded error bands depict mean±standard deviation. (J) Dot plot depicting range of G1 and S phase in DHB::2xmKate2 based on PCNA localization ($n \geq 7$ per strain). ** $p \leq 0.01$, ****$p \leq 0.0001$ Significance as determined by statistical simulation; exact *p*-values in **Table S1**. Scale bar = 10 µm except in (E; 20 µm and F; 5 µm).

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Figure 2. Sex myoblasts and somatic gonad cells exit terminal divisions into a CDK^{low} state.
SM (A) and uterine (D) lineage schematics. (B) Micrographs of a time-lapse movie showing SM
cells (B) and uterine cells (E) at G_1 in pre-terminal divisions and G_0 upon terminal differentiation.
Quantification of CDK sensor in SM cells (C; $n≥10$) and uterine cells (F; $n≥13$). (G) Quantification
of CDK sensor localization in SM cells and uterine cells following ectopic expression of CKI-1
(*hsp*>CKI-1::2xmTagBFP2) compared to non-heat shock controls and heat shock animals without
the inducible transgene ($n≥36$ per treatment). Scale bars = 10 µm. Pseudo colored nuclei
(magenta, B; cyan, E) indicate cells of interest. Dotted line indicates time of anaphase. Line and
shaded error bands depict mean ± standard deviation, time series measured every 5 minutes.
****$p≤0.0001$ Significance as determined by statistical simulations; *p*-values in **Table S1**.

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Figure 3. Vulval precursor cells exit terminal divisions into a CDK^{low} state. (A) Schematic of primary (1°) and secondary (2°) fated vulval precursor cells (VPCs). (B) All of the VPCs, with the exception of the D cells, divide to facilitate vulval morphogenesis. (C) Time series of CDK sensor localization in the 1° and 2° VPCs, as measured every 5 min. Note that the terminally differentiated D cells are born into a CDK^{low} state (*n*≥9). Dotted line indicates time of anaphase. Shaded error bands depict mean±standard deviation. (D) Representative images of CDK sensor localization in the VPCs from the P6.p 2-cell stage to 8-cell stage. Nuclei (H2B) are highlighted in magenta for non-D cell 1° and 2° VPCs and green for the D cells. Scale bar = 10 µm.

Figure 4. CKI-1 levels peak prior to terminal differentiation. (A) CDK sensor activity and CKI-1 levels across pseudo-time, DHB ratios for all VPCs (black line) and D cells (dark green line). GFP::CKI-1 fluorescence intensity in VPCs (grey line) and D cell (light green line). (B) Representative images of VPCs at the Pn.p 2-cell stage at G_1 and G_2 (white asterisk). (C) Representative images of VPCs at the Pn.p 4-cell stage at G_1 and G_2; early differentiated C cells (cyan arrows) with low levels of GFP::CKI-1. (D-E) Representative images of VPCs at the Pn.p 6-cell stage (D) and 8-cell stage (E); arrows show early differentiated C (cyan) and B cell (dark blue), F cell (magenta arrow), and A cell (purple arrow). (F) GFP::CKI-1 fluorescence intensity in each cell of the VPC lineage. (G) Percentage of cells of each lineage that showed early differentiation and did not undergo their final division. (H) Overexpression of CKI-1 via heat shock causes pre-terminally differentiated cells to enter G_0 state. Scale bar = 10 µm. *p≤0.05, ****p≤0.0001 Significance as determined by statistical simulations; *p*-values in **Table S1**.

Figure 5. CDK activity predicts a cryptic stochastic fate decision in an invariant cell lineage.
(A) Schematic of wild type vulva and vulva with a divided D cell. (B) Representative images at the
Pn.p 6 cell stage from CDK sensor strains (top, middle) and endogenous *cdt-1::GFP* (bottom),
showing wild type vulva on the left and vulva with a divided D cell on the right. Penetrance of each
phenotype for each strain is annotated on the DHB image. (C) Frames from a time-lapse with a
dividing D cell (left) (see Movie S5). Nuclei (H2B) are highlighted in green for the D cell and cyan
for the C cells. (D) DHB ratio for C cell, terminally differentiated D cell and dividing D cell. Dotted
line indicates time of anaphase. Line and shaded error bands depict mean±standard deviation.
Green asterisks or pseudo colored nuclei mark the D cell and cyan asterisks or pseudo colored
nuclei mark the C cell, scale bar = 10 µm. ** p≤0.01, *P* values determined Significance as
determined by statistical simulations; *p*-values in **Table S1**.
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Figure 6. Generation of inducible CDK sensor transgenic lines in the zebrafish. (A)
Schematics of inducible zebrafish variants of the CDK sensor fused to mNG (left) or mSc (middle)
and a nuclear mask (H2B::FP) separated by a self-cleaving peptide (P2A). Schematic of inducible
membrane marker (lck-mNG; right). (B-D) Frames (B), dot plot (C) and DHB ratio plot (D) from
time lapse of DHB-mNG (top, gray) and DHB-mSc (bottom, magenta) of peak G_2 through
anaphase and G_1 (n>10 examined for each). Dotted line indicates time of anaphase. (E-F)

Representative micrographs of CDK sensor (E, orange arrows and box inset highlights cytosolic
CDK sensor localization) and quantification of DHB ratio (F) in the tailbud. (G-J) Representative
micrographs (G, I) and quantification of DHB ratios (H, J) in cells of 24 hpf posterior somites and
terminally differentiated muscle at 72 hpf (G), notochord progenitors (NPCs) and epidermis at 72
hpf (I). Insets, orange box, Scale bar = 20 μm. Line and error bars depict mean±standard
deviation, numbers in **bold** are tissues in G_0. ** p≤0.01, ****p≤0.0001 *P* values determined by
statistical simulations, exact values reported in **Table S1**.
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Figure 7. A bifurcation in CDK activity at mitotic exit controls the proliferation-differentiation decision. (A-D) Single-cell traces of CDK activity for all quantified *C. elegans* (A-B) and zebrafish (C-D) cell births for CDK^{inc} cells (green) and CDK^{low} cells (black). DHB ratio of single-cell data (A, C) and mean±95% confidence interval (B, D) are plotted for each cell analyzed relative to anaphase. (E) A model for the metazoan commitment point argues that the G_1/G_0 decision is influenced by a maternal input of CKI activity and that CDK activity shortly after mitotic exit determines future cell fate.