Light-directed evolution of dynamic, multi-state, and computational protein functionalities

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Abstract

Directed evolution is a powerful method in biological engineering. Current approaches draw on time-invariant selection mechanisms, ideal for evolving steady-state properties such as enzymatic activity or fluorescence intensity. A fundamental problem remains how to continuously evolve dynamic, multi-state, or computational functionalities, e.g., on-off kinetics, state-specific activity, stimulus-responsiveness, or switching and logic capabilities. These require selection pressure on all of the states of a protein of interest (POI) and the transitions between them. We realized that optogenetics and cell cycle oscillations could be leveraged for a novel directed evolution paradigm ('optovolution') that is germane for this need: We designed a signaling cascade in budding yeast where optogenetic input switches the POI between off (0) and on (1) states. In turn, the POI controls a Cdk1 cyclin, which in the re-engineered cell cycle system is essential for one cell cycle stage but poisonous for another. Thus, the cyclin must oscillate (1-0-1-0…) for cell proliferation. In this system, evolution can act efficiently on the dynamics, transient states, and input-output relations of the POI in every cell cycle. Further, controlling the pacemaker, light, directs and tunes selection pressures. Optovolution is *in vivo*, continuous, self-selecting, and efficient. We first evolved two optogenetic systems, which relay 0/1 input to 0/1 output: We obtained 25 new variants of the widely used LOV transcription factor EI222 that were stronger, less leaky, or green- and red-responsive. The latter was conjectured to be impossible for LOV domains but is needed for multiplexing and lowering phototoxicity. Evolving the PhyB-Pif3 optogenetic system, we discovered that loss of *YOR1* makes supplementing the expensive and unstable chromophore phycocyanobilin (PCB) unnecessary. Finally, we demonstrate the generality of the method by evolving a destabilized rtTA transcription factor, which performs an AND operation between transcriptional and doxycycline input. Optovolution makes coveted, difficult-to-change protein functionalities continuously evolvable.

Introduction

Directed evolution has been critical to improving and diversifying many of the molecular tools currently used in research and industry such as enzymes[1–5], fluorescent proteins[6,7], and antibodies[8,9]. The method relies on mutations from global or targeted mutagenesis[10–12] to diversify genetically encoded molecules. These are then screened for a desired function. The mutation-screen cycle is generally repeated to bring the molecules' functionalities closer to the desired goal.[13]

A key innovation in the field has been to couple a molecule of interest's functionality to organismal fitness obviating external intervention and screening. Such 'continuous' directed evolution methods rely on *in vivo* self-selection, which substantially simplifies and speeds up experiments, facilitating scale-up.[1,14–18] Current continuous directed evolution methods, however, use time-invariant selection mechanisms based on, for example, the strength of binding or of transcriptional activation, which are steady-state functionalities. These mechanisms can be combined to achieve complex but non-dynamic functionalities by simultaneously selecting for and against different goals[19–27] (see **Supplementary Note 1** for a partial list of previous continuous multiple-goal directed evolution experiments).

Thus, existing continuous directed evolution paradigms are poorly suited for the many natural and synthetic biological molecules that can be in different states and can dynamically switch between them. In fact, all signal transduction, control, and computation necessarily involve changes between states, usually, on (1) or off (0). For example, many transcription factors and kinases are controlled by upstream signals. In addition to relaying signals, proteins and circuits often integrate multiple inputs for cellular decisions, e.g., the amount of DNA damage and arrest times jointly determine the DNA damage checkpoint override decision.[28] Such computational capabilities are highly desirable. Building cells with more sophisticated decision-making capabilities needs logic gating, which has been created by rational design.[29–33] Evolving such proteins requires, in principle, that selection pressure is simultaneously applied on all of the computations, that is, all input-output relationships of the POI. Otherwise, if directed evolution is performed for only one state, the other states or the ability to switch to them can be corrupted.[34] For example, long-term directed evolution of GPCRs under constant ligand concentrations reduces ligand responsiveness.[35]

To address this need, researchers have developed non-continuous directed evolution methods, in which time-invariant selection mechanisms are alternated to screen each POI state sequentially[36–70] (see **Supplementary Note 2** for a partial list of past alternating selection/counterselection experiments). In these methods, two steps are typically repeated: an assay for on (1) activity is performed under inducing conditions, then an assay for off (0) activity under non-inducing conditions. In practice, selection and counterselection are performed with alternating media

conditions, e.g., -uracil and +5-fluoroorotic acid[71], or changing fluorescence-activated cell sorting
(FACS) gates. While creative, these approaches require interventions involving labor or specialized
instrumentation or both. Furthermore, one cycle of selection and counterselection based on
media switches and cell proliferation took 8-64 hrs with bacteria or 2-5 days with yeast. This
timescale determines the selection pressure placed specifically on the kinetics of the POI switch
cycle, which is typically desired to be much shorter.

The ability to perform directed evolution that is both continuous and germane for dynamic, multi-
state, and computational protein functionalities would advance biological engineering. Here, we
present the first such paradigm, which we name 'optovolution'. In contrast to previous
approaches, optovolution was designed with a mechanism to evolve all input-output relationships
of a POI as well as switches among them continuously. Two conceptual advances, explained in
more detail below, underlie optovolution: By engineering a POI to control a cell cycle regulator
that is essential for one step of cell proliferation but toxic to another, the POI must evolve or
maintain the ability to switch between 0 and 1 outputs rapidly, twice in each cell cycle. The
selection mechanism is inherently dynamic. Secondly, by controlling the input to the POI with light
and optogenetics, the selection pressure is shaped by an external signal that is also dynamic at the
timescale of a cell cycle.

We apply optovolution to three systems, the optogenetic transcriptional system El222 and the
optogenetic protein-protein interaction system PhyB-Pif3, which relay light input by switching on
(1) or off (0), and an AND gate, in which a degron-tagged rtTA transcription factor is controlled by
transcription and doxycycline. The dynamic, multi-state properties of these proteins make them
unsuitable for existing continuous directed evolution paradigms:

1)   LOV domains make up the core of most non-ion-channel optogenetic systems[72–80,80–86],
presumably because they are small, reliable, and do not need exogenous chromophores. Interest
in LOV domains has spurred past diversification work[54,87–89]. The LOV transcription factor El222, in
particular, is widely used in many biological models from cell-free systems[90], to bacteria[91],
yeast[92,93], mammalian cell lines[94,95], and zebrafish[96]. (See **Supplementary Note 3** for additional
information regarding El222.) In comparison to other inducible transcriptional systems, El222
controlling the standard *light-inducible promoter* (*LIP*) has both more off-state leakiness and lower
on-state strength than, for example, the *GAL1* promoter, demonstrating potential room for
improvement.[88] Less leaky or more light-sensitive variants are desirable for different applications:
Low leakiness is necessary when controlling toxic genes such as endonucleases; higher output
under less light allows reducing phototoxicity.[88] Further, all existing LOV systems are only
activated by blue light, which has several drawbacks: First, blue light is more phototoxic than
longer-wavelength light.[88,97] Secondly, blue light penetrates skin poorly.[98] Thirdly, the advantages
of LOV domains cannot be leveraged to control different optogenetic systems independently in an
organism. Ideally, one could build optogenetic systems based on LOV domains, change their color
responsiveness by mutation, and thus straightforwardly combine different systems. Instead, for

multiplexing with LOV domains, other light-sensitive domains have to be used as well, each
representing a challenging endeavor to combine with other proteins.[99–102] In fact, substantially
changing the color responsiveness of LOV domains was conjectured to be "likely impossible"
based on the lack of such known natural or engineered examples and physicochemical
considerations.[103] Previous work to shift the absorption spectrum of LOV domains with targeted
mutations achieved a maximal shift of 8 nm further toward UV in the absorption peak *in vitro*[104].
Shifts in the emission spectrum for use as fluorescent proteins have also been attained.[105] Using
optovolution, we evolved 25 new variants of El222, including more light sensitive, less leaky, or
green- and red-responsive mutants, paving the way for new applications.

2)   In the widely used PhyB-Pif3 system, PhyB and Pif3 dimerize in response to red light and
dissociate with far red light. The system is often used to change the intracellular localization of
proteins by fusing them to PhyB or Pif3 and anchoring the other dimerization partner to a specific
intracellular compartment[106,107]. (See **Supplementary Note 4** for additional information regarding
the PhyB-Pif3 system.) For transcriptional induction, PhyB and Pif3 are fused to the Gal4
transcriptional activation domain (AD) and the Gal4 DNA binding domain (DBD), respectively.[108–110]
For use in yeast, *Caenorhabditis elegans*, and mammalian cells, the chromophore PCB has to be
supplemented.[106,108,111] The co-factor is expensive as well as light- and temperature-sensitive,
complicating experiments. In previous work, a biochemical pathway to convert heme to PCB was
introduced in different organisms.[111–114] This involved substantial genetic manipulation of the host
genome: Several transgenes had to be introduced, some of which needed to be targeted to
mitochondria, their expression levels needed to be optimized, and, in certain cases, endogenous
genes needed to be deleted. It is unclear whether there are pathways in cells that could be
modified for PhyB-Pif3 to work without supplemental PCB. Using optovolution, we found that loss
of function of *YOR1* makes PCB unnecessary in budding yeast. The use of *yor1Δ* substantially
simplifies applications and further directed evolution experiments.

3)   While optovolution leverages light for directing evolution, we demonstrate the more
general applicability of optovolution by evolving a non-optogenetic logic gate POI. It is often
desirable to condition the activity of molecules on two inputs. This requires AND logic, which is
relatively difficult to create in biological systems. To construct such a system, we used the
doxycyclin-controlled transcription factor rtTA[115] and fused it to a PEST degron[116]. (See
Supplementary Note 5 for additional information regarding rtTA.) This double-lock control
represents an AND gate function between transcriptional and doxycycline input. Without the
degron, rtTA protein would be stable and thus, after translation, only controlled by doxycycline;
responsiveness to further transcriptional input could only happen in proliferating cells at the
relatively slow timescale of dilution. However, the PEST-rtTA fusion protein initially produced very
weak output. With optovolution, we evolved two mutants that conferred substantial output from
the *tetO* promoter while maintaining minimal leakiness.

Optovolution is the first continuous directed evolution paradigm for dynamic, multi-state, and
computational functionalities. We demonstrate its usefulness by uncovering unexpected and
useful mutations improving three different important molecular tools.

Results

Conceptual requirements for evolving dynamic, multi-state, and computational properties

We started with a general theoretical analysis. We considered how to evolve a POI with one or
more inputs and one output, each of which can be in the 0 or 1 state (Fig. 1 A). The POI needs to
fulfill the basic requirement for computational capability: each of the two output states can be
produced by certain inputs, at least, by the end of directed evolution. This exclude the possibility
of evolving proteins that switch purely stochastically between states, without input, or whose
inputs and outputs are practically inaccessible (**Discussion**).

As in electrical engineering, 0 and 1 are useful abstractions, which here represent molecular
activity. Characterizing a POI in terms of input-output relationships simplifies the description of a
wide range of directed evolution goals. These may include increasing, lowering, or changing the
nature of the activity of outputs for specific inputs, or modifying the kinetics of switching between
outputs. 0 or 1 need not refer to absolute zero or the maximally attainable activity. We considered
that there can be a single input i to the POI, for example, transcriptional induction of the POI, or a
complex input $i=(i_1,...,i_n)$ such as specific phosphorylation patterns at n residues of the POI.

For such a set of possible inputs and outputs, the main conceptual challenge was to find a
mechanism to perform selection on each input-output relationship of the POI and the kinetics of
the transitions. We suppose that the inputs are labeled i_a, i_b, i_c, i_d, ... and correspond to desired POI
outputs 1, 0, 1, 0, ... We realized that we could perform continuous directed evolution on this
system if we made the POI fully control a cellular regulator that was essential for one step in cell
proliferation but poisonous for another (Fig. 1 B, C). In such a system, if the POI switches between
1-0-1-0-... outputs, driven by repeated cycles of inputs i_a-i_b-i_c-i_d-..., then cells will proliferate
maximally (Fig. 1 D). Any error, either in switching speed or state, e.g., POI output sequence 1-1-1-
0-..., causes skipped cell cycles, incurring a substantial fitness penalty and giving an advantage to
mutants with better fidelity to the desired input-output relationships. There is freedom in devising
protocols for the i_a-i_b-i_c-i_d-... inputs. How to sequence the inputs optimally represents an
interesting mathematical problem, which we solved for time-independent protocols in
Supplementary Mathematical Analysis.

Figure 1. Conceptualization of optovolution. A: The POI has one or multiple inputs and one output. Inputs and output are idealized as having two states, on (1) or off (0). B. In optovolution, the POI controls a cellular regulator that is essential for one step in cellular proliferation but poisonous for another. The inputs to the POI are most conveniently controlled by light, mediated by optogenetic systems, which are not shown. C. By cycling the inputs to the POI, the POI switches output states and drives cycles of cellular proliferation. D. Cells only proliferate with repeated 1-0-1-0-… output pulses of the POI, not continuously on (1) or off (0) output, in a mutationally robust manner.

Practical requirements on the input and output of the POI

The inputs to the POI must be exogenously controllable. Optogenetic control of the POI inputs is compatible with continuous directed evolution since administering light, even for weeks, is

precise, fast, easily tunable, cheap, straightforward, and scalable. For control of non-optogenetic POIs, light input can in principle be indirectly mediated through the rapidly expanding optogenetics toolkit, which includes light-sensitive transcription factors, localization signals, degrons, and kinases, acting on the POI.[117–122] Chemical-controlled POIs can in some instances be converted to light control by swapping the relevant domains[121,123–126]. Light control has also been built into POIs specifically to be used for screening for improved protein functionality.[37] Nevertheless, the power of optogenetics for directing evolution has hitherto generally not been recognized. While we focus on optogenetic control of the inputs to leverage the advantages of continuous directed evolution, the cell cycle-coupled selection mechanism at the heart of our method is in principle also compatible with chemically controlled POI inputs (**Discussion**).

Another requirement of our theoretical considerations is that the POI produces an output that controls a regulator of cell proliferation. In principle, this control can occur in different ways but we will demonstrate optovolution with systems whose output is ultimately coupled to the transcription of the regulator (**Discussion**).

Requirements on the selection mechanism

To implement the above considerations, it was critical to make cell proliferation fully dependent on the POI's 1-0-1-0-… output. The key idea was to find a regulator of cell proliferation, which would be required for one step in proliferation but block another (Fig. 1 B-D). By engineering the POI to fully control this regulator, the POI would drive one cell cycle for each 1-0 output oscillation of the POI.

The overall system needed to satisfy stringent requirements:

1.   Tight coupling: Each proliferation step must be tightly dependent on the switching of the POI. Mutations that turn the POI constantly on (1) or off (0) should block cell proliferation (Fig. 1 D).

2.   Mutational robustness: No (known) mutations should break the tight coupling of the POI and cell proliferation. Such mutations would otherwise allow bypassing the selection pressure.

3.   Reliability: A brief period of the POI's 1 output should trigger one step in cell proliferation in most cells, and switching to 0 should allow the completion of the rest of a proliferative cycle. Repetitive 1-0 switches at the right times should drive cells through consecutive growth-division cycles.

4.   Tolerance to poor initial performance: POIs may work too poorly to drive the system initially. Genetic constructs, which we call 'training wheel plasmids', should support cell proliferation initially and should be cleanly removable early in the directed evolution campaign.

5.   Usability: Any POI with the same type of output, e.g., transcription, should be easily insertable and evolvable in the same strains for directed evolution.

220 6.   Stability: Over long periods of directed evolution, cells should maintain a stable genome
221 and not polyploidize, which makes genetic analyses difficult.

Implementation in budding yeast

We engineered the system in budding yeast because it has a relatively fast cell cycle ($\approx$ 90 min
period in glucose medium), which has been researched extensively. A short generation time is
important since it sets the maximum speed with which selection pressure can be exerted on POI
state switching.

In search of a gene that is essential for one proliferative step but poisonous for another, one might
consider cell cycle control regulators that oscillate once per cell cycle. However, it is not obvious
which to choose since the cell cycle control system is remarkably robust. For example, constitutive
expression of *CLN2* and *CLB2* in the absence of all other Cdk1 cyclins (*cln1-3Δ clb1-6Δ*) suffices for
cell cycles[127]. Even in such a highly stripped-down cell cycle control system, the remaining two
Cdk1 cyclins do not need to oscillate transcriptionally.

However, past experiments showing that constant transcriptional induction suffices for cell
proliferation were often performed with relatively weak promoters such as *GALL*[88]. Thus, we
pursued a strategy in which we re-examined elements of cell cycle control for being essential for
one part of the cell cycle but poisonous for another, at least, when over-expressed. Once found,
we could engineer cells to be even more sensitive to both the need for the cell cycle regulator at
one cell cycle stage and poisonous for the other.

For our search, we used the relatively strong blue-light-induced LOV transcription factor El222 and
the El222-controlled *LIP* (**Supplementary Note 3**). This system allowed us to test rapid switches in
glucose medium, where proliferation is relatively fast. We transformed yeast with constructs, in
which *LIP* controlled the transcription of cell cycle regulators we wished to test (Table 1, column
1). In these cells, we had deleted endogenous cell cycle control genes whose absence makes the
corresponding inducible cell cycle gene essential. Further, cells were kept viable before our tests
by inducible transcriptional constructs that could be shut off for the test (Table 1, column 2). For
more details on cell cycle regulation in budding yeast generally and in our final strain, see
Supplementary Note 6.

Candidate cell cycle regulator controlled by El222/*LIP*	Genetic background for tests	Result
CLB2	*clb1,2Δ* *GALL-CLB2*	Constitutive overexpression failed to arrest cell cycle
CLB2kd	*clb1-6Δ swe1Δ* *GALL-CLB2*	Pulsatile expression regime could not be found for continuous cell cycles
CDC20	*cdc20Δ, cdh1Δ* *MET3pr-CDC20*	Constitutive overexpression failed to arrest cell cycle

CLN2	cln1-3Δ MET3pr-CLN2	Constitutive overexpression failed to arrest cell cycle
CLB5	cln1-3Δ MET3pr-CLN2	Oscillatory induction needed for cell cycles
CLB5	cln1-3Δ clb3,4,6Δ MET3pr-CLN2	Oscillatory induction needed for cell cycles

Table 1: Tests to identify cell cycle regulators which are needed for one part of the cell cycle but toxic for another in
specially engineered genetic backgrounds. During the tests, we turned off the chemical-responsive promoters *MET3pr*
and *GALL*.

We tested for three different properties: inviability given continuous off (0) or on (1) expression as
well as proliferation under periodic expression. We started with the key components of the core
cyclin-Cdk/APC negative feedback loop of the cell cycle (Table 1, Fig. 2 A). First, we tested
optogenetic control of *CLB2*, the major M cyclin in budding yeast[128], in a *clb1,2Δ* background. As
expected, in darkness, the lack of *CLB1* and *CLB2* caused cells to arrest before mitosis. However,
continuous expression of *LIP-CLB2* did not prevent cells from cycling in glucose medium. Since Clb2
activity has to be reduced for cell cycle exit, we next tested whether Clb2kd, an undegradable
variant of Clb2 was more suitable. Clb2kd continued to be needed for entry into mitosis and
anaphase in a *clb1,2Δ* background. However, we could not find a regime of pulsing light under
which cells performed continuous cell cycles. After a few cell cycles, Clb2kd blocked mitotic exit
nearly permanently presumably because Sic1 inhibition and dilution did not reduce Clb2kd activity
sufficiently. In previous work, budding yeast cells had been shown to be very sensitive to the
duration and period of joint Start cyclin and *GAL1pr-CLB2kd* pulsing over only a few cell cycles,
which was interpreted as a signature of an artificial incoherent feedback loop which had been
incorporated into cell cycle control[129]. Next, testing the B-type cyclin inhibitor *CDC20*, whose
deletion leads to metaphase arrest, we found that it was similarly not suitable since *LIP-CDC20*
overexpression did not arrest cells.

Figure 2. Engineering budding yeast strains for optovolution. A: Initial tests of different cell cycle regulators with
respect to three properties: essential for proliferation (cells inviable when regulator is off), sufficient for proliferation
when pulsed (5 light pulses of 30 sec on, 30 sec off administered every 100 min, except for *cln1-3Δ clb3,4,6Δ* we used
30 such light pulses), and lethal when expressed continuously (30 sec on, 30 sec off). All cells expressed *EL222*, which
induces *LIP*. Spot tests were performed with ten-fold dilutions. (Note that panel F shows tests for the Dajbog1 strain,
which has been improved with respect to these desired properties.) B: Efficiency of cell cycle initiation (budding) when
different light-inducible cell cycle regulators are activated, assessed by timelapse microscopy. Error bars show 5-95%
confidence intervals. Number of scored cells are given in Supplementary Table 3. C: Schematic of cell cycle regulators
in Dajbog strains. A subset of key cell cycle elements is shown only. Cln2 and Sic1 were omitted for clarity. D:
Illustration of cell cycle states of the Dajbog strains when the POI output is on (1) or off (0). E: Timelapse recording of
Dajbog1 strain, exposed to diascopic microscope light every 120 min for 15 min. Cells carry the red fluorescent nuclear
marker Htb2-mCherry. Scale bar: 5 μm. F: Spot test of Dajbog1 strain under different light pulse regimes, revealing 5
times 30 sec on, 30 sec off every 100 min to be optimal among the conditions tested. Spot tests were performed with
ten-fold dilutions. To keep cells proliferating before the tests, cells carried chromosomal constructs with chemical
inducible *MET3pr-CLN2* (*), *GALL-CLB2* (‡), or *MET3pr-CDC20* (§), which were shut off during the tests by glucose or
methionine in the agar plates.

The cell cycle regulators discussed thus far control mitotic transitions, where arrest and release
often induce aneuploidy. We next shifted our focus to cyclins which control the G1-to-Start
transition, which is less perilous for genomic stability. Parameters and response signatures of *CLN2*
pulsing were extensively tested in ref.[129] However, again, constitutive over-expression of the G1/S
cyclin *CLN2* from El222/*LIP* in the *cln1-3Δ* background, where *CLN2* is essential, did not kill cells.
Thus, we turned to the S-phase cyclin *CLB5*. We first tested *LIP-CLB5* in a *cln1-3Δ* strain since *CLB5*
expression is known to override a *cln1-3Δ* G1 arrest, although with lower efficiency than G1/S
cyclin *CLN2*. In darkness, cells were arrested in G1. Light pulses with a 90 min period led to
repeated cell cycles. Fortuitously, we found that constitutive *CLB5* expression by El222/*LIP* was
lethal. (In contrast, *GAL1pr-CLB5* overexpression in galactose medium, as opposed to glucose
medium, where cell cycles are substantially slower, is tolerated.) Thus, *CLB5* was a promising
candidate for creating a tight coupling between the POI and the cell cycle. The system fulfilled
requirement 1.

Next, we engineered the system for mutational robustness (requirement 2). To further increase
the cells' dependence on *LIP-CLB5* expression, we deleted the four chromosomal *CLB3,4,5,6* genes,
which can be functionally redundant with light-induced *CLB5*[130,131]. No mutations are known that
can by-pass the requirement for Clb5 in a *cln1-3Δ clb3-6Δ* background.[132]

By deleting *CLB3-6* to make the strain even more strongly depend on *LIP-CLB5* induction, we could
next also make the strain less tolerant to continuous *LIP-CLB5* expression. This would further
increase the need for Clb5 to oscillate on and off for proliferation. We accomplished this by
deleting *SIC1*, a B-type cyclin inhibitor. *SIC1* is part of a circuit that can oscillate when cyclin levels
are constant and can rescue such cell cycles[127]. When *SIC1* is deleted, the *cln1-3Δ* arrest becomes

leaky[133]. However, we found that this depends on at least one of the *CLB3-6* genes being present.
cln1-3Δ clb3-6Δ sic1Δ cells continued to be tightly blocked in darkness.

The reliability of cell cycle initiation in response to a *LIP-CLB5* pulse was low (Fig. 2 B), violating
requirement 3. Only 30% of *cln1-3Δ* cells budded in response to a LIP-CLB5 pulse. In *cln1-3Δ*
clb3,4,6Δ cells, light-induced *LIP-CLB5* led to budding in even fewer (15%) G1-arrested cells. This
fraction was much higher (>90%) for *cln1-3Δ* cells with *LIP-CLN2*. Increasing the duration of the
light pulse did not change the fraction of *cln1-3Δ* cells that committed to the cell cycle. Guided by
these results, we sought to increase the reliability of the response to light pulses by adding a *LIP-*
CLN2 construct. This does not undermine the dependence on *LIP-CLB5*, which continues to be
essential for S phase and triggering entry into mitosis in the *cln1-3Δ clb3-6Δ* background.
Simultaneous expression of *LIP-CLN2* and *LIP-CLB5* in the *cln1-3Δ clb3,4,6Δ* background led to a
more reliable >70% of cells budding in response to a 20 min pulse of light, satisfying requirement
3.

To enable routine propagation of these cells prior to directed evolution campaigns, we created a
'training-wheel plasmid' (requirement 4). This plasmid allowed cells to grow without exogenously
induced Clb5 oscillations, and the directed evolution campaign begins with counter-selection
against this plasmid. This increases the method's tolerance for POIs that initially cannot control
CLB5 sufficiently well (requirement 5). We used a *URA3*-marked CEN/ARS plasmid, which can be
selected against with 5-FOA, containing a *CLB5* copy and *MET3pr-CLN2*. Finally, to increase the
mutation rate for directed evolution, we introduced the *pol3-L523D*[134–136] mutation that is
reported to increase the global mutation rate about one-hundred fold.

In summary, we achieved tight coupling of the cell cycle machinery to externally applied periodic
on-off light signals using Clb5 (aided by Cln2) in a *cln1-3Δ clb3-6Δ SIC1/sic1Δ* background (Fig. 2 C-
F). Clb5 triggered Start, S phase, and mitotic entry (Fig. 2 D). Simultaneously induced Cln2
substantially increased the fraction of cells initiating a cell cycle in response to a pulse of light.
Once Clb5 and Cln2 are no longer induced, they are degraded and diluted, allowing completion of
each cycle and resetting the cell state for a new cycle. In darkness or low light, cells arrested in G1.
Under constant light, cells could not proliferate as expected due to Clb5 blocking origin of
replication relicensing[137,138]. The poisonous effect of Clb5 can be enhanced by the *SIC1* deletion[139].
We further increased the mutation rate globally with the *pol3-L523D* mutation. Also, we allowed
the strain to proliferate without Clb5 oscillations using a training wheel plasmid until the start of
each directed evolution campaign. In principle, any POI controlling *CLB5* can be inserted for
directed evolution (requirement 5). In our tests, we never found strains to polyploidize, allowing
straightforward genetic analysis if needed (requirement 6). The strain fulfilled the requirements
for the continuous evolution of dynamic, multi-state, and computational protein functionalities.
We named the strain Dajbog2, and also used a variant with wild-type *SIC1* when more tolerance to
POI leakiness was required, which we named Dajbog1.[140]

Overview of directed evolution experiments

We performed five directed evolution campaigns with the Dajbog strains, in which we inserted different POI genes to control cell-cycle progression. Cells initially proliferated on solid agar growth medium plates under a permissive light pulse regime (Fig. 2). Then, for the start of the directed evolution, cells were either spread on agar plates or suspended in liquid growth medium, depending on the campaign. The desired selection pressure was imposed by changing to a restrictive light pulse pattern under which the initial cells could not proliferate. We chose both initial and final light pulse patterns without fine-tuning: Starting with the light pulse regime where cells clearly proliferated well during strain construction, we chose a very different regime in which cells obviously died. The frequency of mutations from standing variation, error-prone DNA replication, and additional exposure to 10 sec of UV sufficed to find desired mutations in every campaign (**Supplementary Table 4**).

On agar plates, mutant colonies emerged after 2 days and were then analyzed. At the end of the liquid culture evolution experiment, we analyzed the bulk cell culture. Because optovolution requires no changes in medium, cells remained on the same agar plate or, for the liquid culture experiments, were diluted twice per day into fresh medium to maintain log phase.

Validation of mutants

We functionally validated the mutations *in vivo*: We cloned all mutations that emerged and introduced them in wild-type budding yeast cells where the POI drove the transcription of the bright, yeast-optimized *yEVenus* or *ymScarletI* fluorescent protein genes (**Methods**). We followed the characterization procedure of ref.[88], using degron-destabilized fluorescent proteins for dynamic timecourse measurements, fluorescence microscopy for relatively high accuracy, and unbiased neural network-based image processing[141]. All fluorescence levels are expressed in maxGAL1 units, an intuitive, easy-to-communicate unit for transcription.

Crucially, potential mutations elsewhere in the genome of the Dajbog cells, which could have emerged in the directed evolution campaign, could not affect our characterizations of the mutations. We thus established the causal effects of the evolved mutations independently of their ability to support proliferation under the restrictive light pulsing regime in the Dajbog strains.

Directed evolution of a LOV-transcription factor

We first applied the method to optogenetic systems, i.e., the POI itself was light sensitive. Optogenetic systems relay external on (1) or off (0) light states to on (1) or off (0) cellular activity, i.e., they have two input-output relationships. Optogenetic systems have been challenging to evolve, requiring repeated, sequential campaigns for the on (1) and off (0) output states since mutations improving one output state may destroy the other.[142] Given that El222 is itself widely used and that LOV domains are of broad interest, we chose to evolve El222 in three different

directions, toward i) greater light sensitivity, ii) less leakiness, or iii) different excitation spectra for
multiplexing and reduced phototoxicity.

Figure 3. Directed evolution campaigns 1-3 with LOV-transcription factor El222 as POI. A. Schematic of the wiring
diagram for El222 evolution. *CLN2* and other cell cycle regulators omitted for clarity. AD, activation domain; LOV, LOV
domain; Jα, Jα helix; DBD, DNA binding domain. B. Schematic of three directed evolution campaigns. The initial light
pulse pattern was switched to 1) very brief pulses, 2) long pulses with additional ambient light, or 3) green and red
light pulses. Under each final light pulse regime, wild-type Dajbog cells did not proliferate.

We used the Dajbog strains with El222 directly controlling *CLN2* and *CLB5* transcription in the
same configuration as for testing and developing our method (Fig. 3 A). Cells initially proliferated
under a permissive light pulse regime (5 times 25 sec on, 35 sec off every 100 min). Then, we
changed the light pulse regime to apply one of three specific selection pressures, in which cells
with wild-type El222 could not proliferate (Fig. 3 B). (See Supplementary Fig. 1 for the excitation
and imaging light spectra.)

In the first directed evolution campaign, we sought to enhance the 1-output (on) state of El222.
This would allow higher output under low light conditions. To evolve more light-sensitive mutants,
we exposed cells to very brief light pulses (1 sec on every 100 min, Fig. 3 B), which was insufficient
for viability of the Dajbog cells initially. In the colonies that grew under these conditions (Fig. 4 A),
we found 11 different El222 mutations (Fig. 4 B). Remarkably, using Dajbog2 (with *sic1Δ*) we
observed 96% (n = 247) of colonies had a mutation in *EL222* while Dajbog1 (with *SIC1*) permitted
mutations elsewhere in the genome to rescue cells (10% in *EL222*, n = 816). Evaluating the new
El222 variants cloned into our reporter strain, we found that they showed improved light
sensitivity, with levels of transcription under low-intensity light up to 16 times higher than with
wild-type *EL222* (Fig. 4 B). Several variants were comparable or more light sensitive than the most
sensitive El222 mutant to date, strongLOV, which we had engineered previously[88].

To characterize the dynamic properties of the evolved El222 variants, we monitored their activity
by fluorescence timelapse microscopy where we induced them with diascopic light for 3.5 h (Fig. 4
C). All tested variants showed increased activity compared to wild-type El222 when using a

constant light source of 8.4 mW/cm^2. For most variants, we observed a trade-off between strength and turn-off dynamics, similar to strongLOV[88]. However, remarkably, the highly light-sensitive variant A157V, containing a mutation in the Jα helix, showed turn-off dynamics comparable to wt-El222. (All references to mutant residue numbers in El222 are conventionally given with respect to bacterial El222 to match the numbering used in previous work[88,143,144]).

This mutant is further interesting because it is the only one outside the LOV domain of El222 (Fig. 4 D). Within the LOV domain, the Fα helix, which is adjacent to the chromophore, was particularly enriched for light-sensitizing mutations.

Figure 4. Results of three directed evolution campaigns of El222. Directed evolution for higher light sensitivity (A-D), lower leakiness (E-H), and color shift (I-L). Panels A, E, I represent spot tests for the wild-type Dajbog strain (ancestor) and typical mutants (evolved) that emerged in the different campaigns. Spot tests were performed with ten-fold dilutions. Panels B, F, J show *in vivo* steady-state expression levels of the transcriptional fluorescent reporter *LIP-yEVenus* under different light exposure conditions, driven by mutant *EL222*, which has been cloned from the Dajbog strains and introduced into the reporter strain. All values are in maxGAL1 units[88]. In panel B, we included AQTrip[144] for reference. C, G, K show timecourses of some of the El222 mutants we characterized, driving a destabilized fluorescent transcriptional reporter with PEST degron. The optogenetic systems were induced from 0 h to 3.5 h by diascopic light (C, G) or with an additional green filter inserted into the light path (K) as indicated by the highlighted regions[88]. Error bars show the standard error of the mean around each timepoint. Panels D, H, L depict the locations of the mutations

(red) in the dark-state 3D structure of El222 (PDB ID: 3P7N)[143]. M: Positions of mutations in the domain diagram of

El222. N: Histogram of the frequency with which the mutations from our three campaigns are found in putative LOV

domains identified in ref.[145]. O: Searching for the mutations from our three campaigns in LOV domains with

characterized dark-reversion kinetics[89] (FKF1 from *Arabidopsis thaliana*, VVD from *Neurospora crassa*, YtvA from

Bacillus subtilis, and the LOV2 domain of phot1 from *Avena sativa*) identifies the light-sensitizing V121M and

strongLOV (E84D) mutations (blue arrows) and the mutations K99E and V139L (yellow arrows), which reduce

leakiness. All references to mutant residue numbers in El222 are given with respect to bacterial El222 to match the

numbering used previously[88,143,144]. B, C, F, G, J, K: Numbers of analyzed cells are given in Supplementary Tables 5-8. All

measured characteristics of the new El222 mutants have been added to the Inducible Transcriptional Systems

Database (https://promoter-benchmark.epfl.ch/)[88].

In the next campaign, we sought to reduce the leakiness of El222, that is, suppress activity in the

0-output (off) state. This is particularly important for applications where baseline expression needs

to be minimized, e.g., when controlling toxic genes. We exposed cells to very long duration pulses

of light (40 times 30 sec on, 30 sec off every 100 min, Fig. 3 B) in addition to continuous, dim

background light (Fig 4 E-H). This condition was lethal to Dajbog strains with wt-El222 (Fig. 4 E). In

a preliminary run, we found many mutations in *LIP-CLB5*, which presumably maintained Clb5

function but with reduced activity that blunted the selection pressure. Thus, we introduced

additional copies of *LIP-CLB5* to block this evolutionary avenue (**Discussion**). Among the mutant

colonies that emerged in this campaign, the frequency of mutations in the *EL222* ORF was 36% (n

= 44).

We identified five new mutations whose leakiness was nearly indistinguishable from baseline

transcription from *LIP* in the absence of El222 (Fig. 4 F, Supplementary Fig. 2). As expected, they

were also overall less strongly induced by light. One of the colonies that emerged had fixed two

mutations in the LOV domain (D31Y, V139L). To understand their individual contributions to the

phenotype, we tested them separately. The mutations contributed independently and about

equally under high blue LED light. We also measured the on-off dynamics of low-leakiness mutants

by fluorescence microscopy. Using continuous light of 8.4 mW/cm^2 as in the case for light-

sensitized mutants led to no observable activity in the low-leakiness mutants (not shown). Under

stronger light (97 mW/cm^2), the mutants responded at 20% of wt-El222 output (Fig. 4 G). The low-

leakiness mutations were both in the LOV domain as well as the DNA binding domain (Fig. 4 H).

In our third campaign, we sought to modify the nature of the 1-output state with respect to color

responsiveness. After proliferating Dajbog cells under blue light pulses, we evolved them under

green, orange, and red light combined (40 times 30 sec on, 30 sec off every 100 min). (Figs. 3 B, 4

I-L, Supplementary Fig. 1 for details regarding light sources). Among the mutant colonies that

emerged, we discovered numerous mutations in *EL222* that allowed cells to proliferate under

green-to-red light pulses. Optovolution was highly efficient: 96% (n=247) of mutations were in the

EL222 ORF when Dajbog2 (with *sic1Δ*) was used and 10% (n = 816) with Dajbog1 (with *SIC1*).

Again, we validated the mutations functionally by cloning the evolved *EL222* genes into the reporter strain. Since the green LEDs that we used for directed evolution had an emission spectrum that extended below 500 nm (Supplementary Fig. 1), which overlaps with the excitation spectrum of wt-El222[143], we excluded merely light-sensitized mutants with a 514 nm laser. Ten El222 mutants activated the transcriptional reporter substantially when excited by a 514 nm laser (Supplementary Fig. 3). We focused only on these mutants and disregarded the others. To measure the *in vivo* action spectrum of the mutant El222s, that is, the relationship between the wavelength of excitation light and the level of activity, we used additionally blue 488 nm, yellow 561 nm, and red 651 nm lasers (Fig. 4 J). To detect the sensitivity to each wavelength and not saturate the on (1) state of the transcription factors, we set the lasers to relatively low average power (3.5 mW/cm^2 delivered over 6 h), which was enough to induce all of the color-shifted mutants. We also included as a reference the blue LED light used for characterization of the previously described sensitized and low-leakiness variants (Fig. 4 B, F). The measurements showed that the mutated El222 variants were not only responsive to green but also to red light (Fig. 4 J). In fact, red 651 nm laser light generated comparable or even stronger responses from our color-shifted El222 variants. Some of the variants responded to red light much more strongly than wild-type El222 to blue light but were also more leaky. The largest dynamic range we observed was 7.5x for the G136S mutant. Surprisingly, under blue light of high intensity, some of the mutants (C75R, G136S, L87P, and V41F) showed a lower level of activity compared to blue or red laser light of low intensity. We characterized the dynamics of one red-responsive *EL222* mutant using fluorescence timelapse microscopy and the *LIP-ymScarletI-PEST* reporter (Fig. 4 K).

Unlike for the light-sensitized and low-leakiness variants, the red-shifting mutations clustered tightly around the chromophore (Fig. 4 L). Interestingly, one of the red-responsive variants had an arginine residue instead of the critical Cys-75 residue that forms a covalent bond with the chromophore after exposure to blue light[146]. In *in vitro* experiments, LOV domains without this strictly conserved cysteine were previously shown to incorporate a partially reduced flavin chromophore[147], pointing to one potential explanation for our color-shifted El222 mutants.

In total, we discovered 25 mutations, mostly in the LOV domain, one in the Jα helix, and two in the DNA binding domain (Fig. 4 M). The analysis of the mutation spectrum in the first three campaigns showed that we observed transitions and transversions with about equal probability (**Supplementary Table 4**).

LOV domain proteins such as El222 are ubiquitous across the tree of life and control a variety of cellular processes. Most approaches to altering LOV-optogenetic tools have involved introducing mutations from other known natural LOV domains, which were faster or slower cycling[87,89,144]. To gauge how realistic it would have been to discover our evolved mutants rationally, we first quantified the novelty of our mutants by searching a catalog of 7000 known and putative LOV-domains (Fig. 4 N) as well as by aligning their sequences with the well-studied LOV-domain proteins FKF1 from *Arabidopsis thaliana*, VVD from *Neurospora crassa*, YtvA from *Bacillus subtilis*,

and the LOV2 domain of phot1 from *Avena sativa* (Fig. 4 O). We discovered that the majority of
the mutations (21/25) were rare (≤10%) in putative LOV domains, and 4 are present in LOV
domains whose kinetics had previously been characterized. V121M found in VVD is part of the
rationally-designed El222 variant AQTrip[144]. Similarly, another mutation (E84D) was used to
construct the more light-sensitive strongLOV mutant protein by us recently (Fig. 4 O, blue
triangle)[88]. Interestingly, the other two mutations, K99E and V139L (Fig. 4 O, yellow triangles),
would have been expected to lead to more stable light-adapted states based on previously
measured off-kinetics[87]. We found them, instead, to lead to lower leakiness and overall weaker
responses. These results further underscore the power of directed evolution to uncover functional
mutations with specific desired properties.

Long-term optovolution of light-sensitized LOV domains

The directed evolution campaigns described thus far were unbiased by design: Any El222 mutant
which emerged and which could switch on and off repeatedly for ≈2 days under the respective
selection pressure would generate a colony and be detected by us. Next, we wished to test
whether optovolution could be used for directed evolution over longer periods of time in liquid
culture, where mutations could compound and compete against one another. The fittest mutant
would take over the cell culture.

We again sought to boost the 1-output activity of El222, this time over one week (**Methods**). We
evolved the Dajbog2 strain under 5 sec of light, administered every 100 min. We observed two
mutations that won in two different long-term experiments, E84D and V121M, which we had
already discovered using the previous unbiased approach.

Directed evolution of the PhyB-Pif3 system independent of exogenous chromophore

In our next evolutionary campaign, we wished to improve the usability of the red-/far-red-light
controlled optogenetic switch PhyB-Pif3. For this purpose, we put *CLN2* and *CLB5* under the
control of the *GAL1* promoter and introduced *ADH1pr-PHYB-GAL4BD* and *ADH1pr-GAL4AD-PIF3*
constructs. (Fig. 5 A). We screened for mutations allowing cell proliferation without supplementing
PCB (Fig. 5 B). In three out of three mutants sequenced, we found mutations in the *YOR1* (also
known as *YCF1*) gene, two of which were early nonsense mutations (Q64*, E421K, E1318*). Yor1 is
a plasma membrane exporter[148], a homolog of human cystic fibrosis transmembrane receptor
(CFTR)[149].

We validated that a *YOR1* deletion suffices to remove the need to supplement PCB for PhyB-Pif3
function in two reporter strains from other laboratories. We deleted *YOR1* in a strain from ref.[110],
in which PhyB-Pif3 drives the transcription of a fluorescent reporter (Fig. 5 C). In the absence of
PCB, the fluorescent reporter in the strain with *YOR1* deletion responded similarly as with PCB in
the presence of *YOR1*. Leakiness was comparable with and without *YOR1*. Since PhyB-Pif3 is

frequently used to control localization of proteins to different cellular compartments, we tested

that *yor1Δ* sufficed to replace supplemental PCB for this purpose as well. We deleted *YOR1* in a

yeast strain from ref.[150] in which PhyB is anchored to mitochondria, labeled with mCherry, and Pif3

is fused to a yellow fluorescent protein and Bem1 (PhyB-mCherry-Tom7, Bem1-mCitrine-Pif3).

Exposing the *yor1Δ* version of this strain to red light led to colocalization of PhyB and Pif3,

indicating their interaction (average per-cell Pearson correlation for yellow and red fluorescence r

= 0.60, N_cells = 21). As a control, we tested the colocalization of PhyB and Pif3 in the *yor1Δ* strain

with PCB, which led to r = 0.73 (N_cells = 32). In wt-*YOR1* cells, we observed low colocalization (r =

0.25, N_cells = 17), while the addition of PCB showed localization comparable to *yor1Δ* without

PCB (r = 0.78, N_cells = 31).

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Figure 5. Directed evolution campaign 4 to lose the dependence of PhyB-Pif3 on supplemental PCB. A: Schematic of
the wiring diagram relevant for the campaign. (*CLN2* and other cell cycle regulators omitted for clarity.) AD, activation
domain; DBD, DNA binding domain. B: Schematic of the campaign. C: *GAL1pr-yEVenus* induction with or without *YOR1*
deletion, which was identified in this campaign. Error bars represent standard error of the mean. Numbers of analyzed
cells are given in Supplementary Table 9. D: Test of co-localization of Pif3 to mitochondrially anchored PhyB with or
without *YOR1*. The PCB concentration was 10 μM where supplemented. The measured characteristics of PhyB-Pif3
with and without *YOR1* have been added to the Inducible Transcriptional Systems Database (https://promoter-
benchmark.epfl.ch/)[88].

Directed evolution of a light- and doxycycline- inducible AND gate

In our fifth evolutionary campaign, we applied optovolution to a non-optogenetic system. First, we engineered an AND gate based on the transcription factor rtTA, which is controlled by doxycycline. To make rtTA dynamically sensitive to transcriptional input, we destabilized it by fusing its N-terminus with a PEST degron. When *PEST-rtTA* was transcribed under the control of the El222/*LIP* system, transcription from the rtTA-controlled promoter *tetOpr* was very weak.

We wished to evolve variants of the logic gate with stronger on (1) state activity. So, we introduced *tetOpr-CLN2* and *tetOpr-CLB5* into the Dajbog1 strain (Fig. 6 A). We then evolved the system by exposing cells to short pulses of blue light, 2 sec on every 100 min, under which they could not proliferate (Fig. 6 B). Before evolution, light pulsing 30 times 30 sec on, 30 sec off every 100 min and doxycycline allowed cell proliferation, confirming the AND gate functionality prior to directed evolution (Fig. 6 C). However, the *tetO* promoter is very leaky in budding yeast (*tetOpr-yEVenus* expression was at 2% maxGAL1 without *rtTA*) so that even in darkness and without doxycycline, Dajbog1 proliferated, albeit much more slowly. This is why we used the more leakiness-tolerant Dajbog1 strain in this campaign and screened for mutants as soon as small colonies emerged under 2 sec light pulses every 100 min.

In principle, mutations in any part of the system could lead to the increased activity. Given that we have already extensively characterized the mutations that boost the activity of the El222/*LIP* optogenetic system, we now focused on screening for mutations in *PEST-rtTA* (**Discussion**). We discovered two mutations, F67C and R253H (numbering is with respect to +1 methionine in rtTA).

To characterize the *PEST-rtTA* mutants, we cloned and introduced them as single-copy constructs driven by *PGK1pr* into a reporter strain with a single copy of *tetOpr-yEVenus-PEST* (Fig. 6 D). Both mutations showed increased activity in the presence of doxycycline. The mutated residues are located between the DNA binding domain and the rtTA core domain or in the VP16 transcriptional activation domain, respectively (Fig. 6 E). Relatedly, in previous directed evolution experiments of rtTA, F67S was identified as increasing the sensitivity of rtTA (without a degron) to doxycycline[151].

These results demonstrate how the light-driven selection pressure in optovolution can be leveraged for the evolution of non-optogenetic proteins with dynamic, multi-state, and computational properties.

Figure 6. Directed evolution campaign 5 to improve the AND logic gate function of PEST-rtTA. A: Schematic of wiring diagram relevant for campaign. TX, transcription; DOX, doxycycline. B: Schematic of the campaign. C: Spot test for wild-type Dajbog1 strain with PEST-rtTA system with ten-fold dilutions. D: Expression level of *tetOpr-yEVenus-PEST* under the control of the original or evolved PEST-rtTA in maxGAL1 units. For lowering experimental variability, the original and mutant *PEST-rtTA* were expressed from the *PGK1* promoter. Residue numbers are with respect to +1 methionine of rtTA. Numbers of analyzed cells are given in the Supplementary Table 10. E: Positions of mutations in domain diagram of PEST-rtTA.

Discussion

Two key ideas underlying optovolution

The primary advance of our directed evolution paradigm is the coupling of the POI output to an element of cell cycle control that has to oscillate for cellular replication in the specially engineered Dajbog genetic background. This obviates interventions needed to screen phenotypes or to switch between selection mechanisms after each round of evolution. Instead, both 0-to-1 and 1-to-0 switching of the POI are effectively screened every ≈90 min by the cell cycle control machinery *in vivo*. In addition, the coupling of the desired POI properties to organismal fitness automatically ensures that the evolved variants are functional *in vivo*. Additional *in vitro* screening is not needed.

These advantages of our method arise from leveraging cell cycle control, to our knowledge, for the
first time for directed evolution.

Secondarily, we use optogenetics to cycle through the inputs of the POI. Fundamentally, light
control is powerful for directed evolution because it allows communicating with cells rapidly,
conveniently, and for extended periods. Thus, new kinds of selection pressures can be created,
which require dynamic interaction with cells. As far as we know, this is the first time that
optogenetics has been leveraged for continuous directed evolution.

Light control also allows straightforwardly shaping the fitness landscape of the POI by tuning the
selection pressure. Different evolutionary outcomes can be achieved depending on the light
exposure protocol. Input-output relationships can be challenged by administering light input that
is too weak or too strong. Directed evolution can be expected then to improve the input-output by
mutational adaptations. Similarly, engaging and releasing the POI early or late forces adaptations
toward improved POI kinetics. We used the same strain, with EI222 directly controlling *CLB5* and
CLN2, for three different directed evolution campaigns: enhancement of the 1-output activity of
EI222, suppression of the 0-output activity, or changing the excitation color. However, we only
used relatively simple light pulse patterns in this work, that is, we only modified the duration or
color of the light pulses (Figs. 3 B, 6 B). By tuning the light pulse parameters further or even
combining different pulse types, e.g., long-short-long-short-... light pulses, one may evolve yet
more variants of POIs, toward other desirable goals.

Tolerance toward poor initial POI functionality

A general challenge is that a POI may be so poor with respect to a desired function that the
directed evolution campaign cannot even be initiated. This is mitigated in two key ways in our
method: The selection pressure can be easily tuned by changing the light pulse regime, e.g.,
shorter, longer, dimmer, or brighter light pulses. In contrast, tuning of the selection pressure is not
straightforward in some continuous directed evolution approaches. Furthermore, the training
wheel plasmid allows proliferation in the absence of any POI function, so that directed evolution
of the POI can be initiated concomitantly with selection for loss of the training wheel plasmid on 5-
FOA.

Efficiency and targeted mutagenesis

Mutations in the POI gene evolved efficiently and by-pass mutations were either rarely observed
in Dajbog2 (*sic1Δ*) or were reasonable in number to quickly find the mutation of interest with
Dajbog1 (wt-*SIC1*). The strains can in principle be further optimized to suppress mutations in the
budding yeast genome. After identifying such by-pass mutations, one can effectively prevent them
by inserting additional copies of the gene. This strategy takes advantage of the tolerance of yeast
toward multiple copies of most of its genes[152,153] and the extremely low likelihood of mutations
occurring in different copies of the same gene. We demonstrated this strategy with multiple *LIP-*

CLB5 copies in our second directed evolution campaign, also see **Extendibility of optovolution**.
Should by-pass mutations occur in non-essential genes, one can in principle simply prevent them
by deleting the gene.

The deep literature on cell cycle control can be used to guide future improvements of
optovolution. We leveraged the extensive genetic screens for suppressors of cell cycle arrest
performed in the past to create a genetically robust platform. Screens have only revealed *sic1Δ* to
by-pass *cln1-3Δ* arrest.[133] This by-pass relies on *CLB3-6*, which are absent in the Dajbog strains. (It
should be noted that *cln1-3Δsic1Δ* cells proliferate poorly, suggesting that by-pass mutations do
not necessarily affect directed evolution experiment in practice.) By-pass mutations in Cdk1 can be
practically ruled out since at least five mutations are required to run the cell cycle oscillator in a
cln1-3Δ clb5,6Δ background.[132] It is unknown whether even quintuply mutated Cdk1 could run the
Dajbog strains, which have additional deletions of *CLB3,4*.

Another potential way to increase the efficiency of our method is to take advantage of the
orthogonal advances that have been made to increase mutation rates specifically in genes of
interest. These are especially needed when mutations elsewhere in the genome can readily bypass
the desired POI functionality. However, Dajbog2 was genetically tight, so it was not necessary to
target mutations to the POI gene to achieve our goals. Furthermore, our campaigns succeeded
with 1-2 mutations, obviating or reducing the need to disentangle driver from passenger
mutations. Using *pol3-L523D*, we expected to increase the genome-wide mutation rate to 0.5×10^{-7}
per base-pair per generation. This means that in tens of milliliters of log-phase yeast population,
about all single mutants of the POI gene should have been present. Straightforward ways to
increase the mutation rates further globally involve the use of DNA damaging radiation and
chemicals, although not all nucleotide mutations can be attained in this manner. Another common
method to achieve very high rates of targeted mutations is to introduce the POI on mutagenized
plasmid libraries. Our method will also presumably benefit from combining with targeted *in vivo*
mutagenesis systems such as OrthoRep[10], MutaT7[12,154], or Cas9-[155] or transposon-mediated
systems[17].

Extendibility of optovolution

In addition to incorporating targeted mutagenesis, optovolution can be adapted for different
directed evolution goals using standard methods of yeast genetics and decades of research in
growth, metabolism, and cell cycle control:

1.   The carbon source can be varied to slow down the cell cycle and growth to match POIs that
switch poorly. The carbon source can then be changed for faster cycling as the POI switching
kinetics improves during directed evolution.

2.   Restoring *SIC1*, which makes the system less sensitive to residual Clb5, allows POIs to be
evolved that are initially more leaky.

3.   In principle, POIs can be elements of multi-step signaling cascades (optogenetics → POI →
Clb5,Cln2) involving mediators and transducers as we showed for PEST-rtTA. Undesired mutations
can occur in this cascade outside the POI gene, irrespective of the genetic robustness of the
Dajbog strains. These outcomes can be suppressed similar to potential genomic by-pass
mutations. All elements of the pathway can straightforwardly be introduced in multiple copies.
(Whether the POI gene should be inserted in single or multiple copies depends on the goal.) We
used this method in campaign 2 to suppress by-pass mutations in *LIP-CLB5*. We would have
utilized it in campaign 5 if mutations in *EL222* would have overwhelmed new mutations in *PEST-*
rtTA, which was not the case in our experiments.

4.   A number of degrons can be added to reduce the activity of a POI[156].

5.   Given that control of Clb5 is the key element of optovolution, the method is in principle
extendable to POIs that control Clb5 activity in other ways than transcription. However, we did not
specifically demonstrate this possibility here. Use of the more stable destruction-box deficient
Clb5db opens up additional such options[139,157,158].

6.   Chemically controlled POIs that can regulate Clb5 activity are in principle fully compatible
with the Dajbog strains. In fact, past non-continuous directed evolution methods used
transcriptional POI output for selection/counterselection cycles, which suits well the need to
control *CLB5* and *CLN2* in the Dajbog strains. For chemical POI inputs, cell culture media generally
would have to be switched to cycle through different inputs, making evolution non-continuous. By
using the Dajbog strains, cell cycle control would continue to be the dynamic selection mechanism,
which is the essential novelty of our method. Thus, the chemicals otherwise needed for
selection/counter-selection, e.g., -uracil versus +5-FOA, would not need to be exchanged. This may
facilitate speed-up of selection/counterselection cycles to ≈1.5 hrs versus 2 to 5 days in past
campaigns with yeast – if the media exchanges can be performed sufficiently quickly.

Limitations of optovolution

Limitations on types of POI input: Our directed evolution of PEST-rtTA demonstrated that the POI
itself need not be light sensitive. Options for light control of the POI are diverse and rapidly
expanding, including light-controlled transcriptional input (used for PEST-rtTA), light-controlled
protein-protein interaction (used for PhyB-Pif3), light-controlled degrons, kinases, and mRNA
targeting systems. POIs that can only be controlled with chemicals are compatible with our
platform but would require intervention, albeit only to cycle through the POI inputs.

Limitations on types of POI output: We demonstrated optovolution by evolving POIs that control
the transcription of *CLB5*: two transcription factors, El222 and PEST-rtTA, and an inducible protein-
protein interaction system, PhyB-Pif3, which was repurposed to control transcription using the
yeast two-hybrid system. Many existing continuous directed evolution methods[14,34,35] were
similarly initially applied to POIs that control transcription, presumably because transcriptional

control can be created in a multitude of ways: The well-established two-hybrid method, which the
PhyB-Pif3 transcriptional system is based on, converts protein-protein interactions into
transcriptional output[159]. CRISPR-Cas systems were in many cases evolved by blunting the
endonuclease activity of Cas proteins and coupling to transcriptional output.[25,26,160,161] GPCRs were
similarly screened by coupling downstream signaling to transcription.[162–164] Thus, transcriptional
control of *CLB5* does not limit the POI to transcription factors. Furthermore, the crucial element of
our method is control of Clb5 activity, which can in principle be coupled to POI activity in other
ways.

Limitations on targeting POIs: Even if the cell cycle-coupled selection mechanism is genetically
robust, genomic mutations can emerge that are in cellular pathways affecting POI function. An
example in our study is *YOR1*, whose mutations allowed PhyB-Pif3 to respond to red light in the
absence of PCB. We considered the mutations in *YOR1* to be sufficiently surprising and useful to
report in their own right as an endpoint of that campaign, instead of seeking to suppress them.

Requirement of minimal computational functionalities: Optovolution is fundamentally not suited
for proteins whose state switching cannot be controlled even by way of intermediates, or for
proteins that cannot control Clb5 activity. Essentially, the POI must meet the minimum
requirements for computational functionality: controllable inputs and an output that can be read
out, specifically, by coupling to Clb5. For example, proteins that stochastically switch between
states without input or that are not coupled to an activity that could ultimately control Clb5 are
not evolvable with optovolution.

Outlook for evolving computational functionalities

Given the appropriate selection pressure, directed evolution can solve challenging engineering
problems and uncover unexpected solutions -- such as red-responsive EI222 mutants or PCB
independence conferred by *yor1Δ*. Here, we present the first method for continuous directed
evolution of dynamic, multi-state, and computational protein functionalities. Such capabilities are
fundamental to signal transduction -- and thus to life. While much of cellular biochemistry
computes decisions, it had been unclear how continuous directed evolution could be adapted to
such capabilities. Apart from interest in this as a fundamental problem, a solution is also needed
for biological engineering since dynamic, multi-state, and computational properties are of intense
current interest, especially, in protein design[165–169].

More advanced computational capabilities involve more inputs for more complex input-output
relationships. Using optovolution, different colors (UV[170,171], blue[103], green[172], red[108,173]) and
optogenetic systems allow administering different inputs to the POI and cycling through input
combinations during evolution.[99–102,172,174,175] The number of optogenetic effectors is steadily
increasing, enabling different kinds of input to the POIs[176]. Single-protein computers would have
numerous advantages over multi-gene circuits, including simpler genetic introduction into cells
and presumably faster kinetics. However, rational engineering of proteins often leads to poorly

performing molecules, e.g., the initially engineered AND gate PEST-rtTA in this work, underscoring
the need for directed evolution approaches.

Optovolution is particularly timely for the revolution that is currently taking place in artificial
intelligence-based protein design, in which there is substantial interest in dynamic, multi-state,
and computational properties[29,177–179]. Prototypes that have been computationally designed can
be screened and improved in a high-throughput manner with optovolution. Additionally, machine-
learning guided methods will keep relying on experimentally validated training sets, which can be
further enriched through directed evolution. We expect optovolution to provide solutions to
previously intractable engineering problems and pave the way for more sophisticated proteins.

Methods

Media

We used synthetic complete media[180] (SCD) with methionine (+Met) or without methionine (-Met) and supplemented with 2% (w/v) glucose. For preparing solid SC plates, we used 2% agar. For experiments with 5-FOA, we used a standard recipe with 0.1% 5-FOA[71,181]. For controlling and evolving the transcriptionally and doxycycline-regulated AND gate (PEST-rtTA), we used 30 µM doxycycline diluted from a 1000x stock in water (Sigma, USA). For characterization of the PEST-rtTA variants, we used 10 µM doxycycline. For experiments with PhyB-Pif3, we used 10 µM PCB, diluted from a 1000x DMSO stock (Sychem, Germany) when supplying exogenous PCB.

Plasmid construction

Cloning was performed using restriction enzyme digestion and ligation with T4 ligase (New England Biolabs) or Gibson assembly (New England Biolabs). Plasmids were propagated in DH5alpha *E. coli* in LB medium supplemented with ampicillin. See Supplementary Table 1 for a list of the plasmids.

Strain construction and preparation for directed evolution

Transformations of budding yeast were performed using the high-efficiency LiAc/DNA carrier/PEG (polyethylene glycol) protocol[182]. All strains are derivatives of W303 (*leu2-3,112 trp1-1 can1-100 ura3-1 ade2-1 his3-11,15*). A list of strains is provided in Supplementary Table 2.

The Dajbog1 (*cln1-3Δ clb3-6Δ*) and Dajbog2 (*cln1-3Δ clb3-6Δ sic1Δ*) strains proliferated in the absence of light pulses in SCD-Met medium plates due to the presence of the *URA3*-marked training wheel plasmid pRD-TW1 (*MET3pr-CLN2, CLB5pr-CLB5, CEN/ARS*), which was built using pRS416[183]. (Lack of methionine induces *MET3pr-CLN2*.) For the different directed evolution campaigns, we built additional strains starting with the Dajbog strains. To evolve *EL222* (first three campaigns), we transformed the strains with *LIP-CLB5*, *LIP-CLN2*, and *PGK1pr-EL222* constructs. For the evolution of the PhyB-Pif3 system (fourth campaign), we transformed them with *ADH1pr-PHYB-GALBD*, *ADH1pr-GAL4AD-PIF3*, *GAL1pr-CLN2*, and *GAL1pr-CLB5* constructs. Lastly, for evolving the AND gate (fifth campaign), we transformed the strains with *PGK1pr-EL222*, *LIP-PEST-rtTA*, *tetOpr-CLN2*, and *tetOpr-CLB5*. We confirmed transformations by PCR.

To prepare the strains for directed evolution experiments, we selected for the loss of the training wheel plasmid as follows: First, cells were spread on fresh SCD+Met plates and placed under pulsing light. Methionine shuts off *MET3pr*, reducing any advantage that the training wheel may confer and thus increasing the fraction of cells that lose the training wheel plasmid. Then, we transferred cells to SCD+Met+5-FOA plates under the same pulsing light regime, so only cells that had lost the training wheel plasmid could proliferate. We picked isolated colonies in which we

confirmed the loss of the training wheel plasmid by the lack of growth in darkness on plates
lacking methionine. From then on, the strains were propagated under pulsing light.

After directed evolution, we characterized the evolved POIs by cloning the mutated POI genes into
a backbone for single-copy integration. A W303 strain was transformed with these plasmids as
well as plasmids for single-copy integration of constructs in which the transcription of a
fluorescent protein was driven by *LIP* (in case of El222) or *tetOpr* (PEST-rtTA). Integration of single
copies was confirmed by PCR in all transformants. For measuring the transcriptional rate of PhyB-
Pif3 as a split Gal4 system, we used the strain from ref.[110]

Light conditions

Throughout, we handled cells sensitive to blue light under red light and red-responsive cells as
well as PCB under green light. Plates were otherwise always wrapped in aluminum foil.

For administering blue light to induce El222, we used commercial blue light LED panels (HQRP,
USA). The panels were placed inside incubators at a distance of 20 cm above the agar plates or a
spinning wheel of liquid cell culture tubes. For evolving color-shifted El222 variants, we used LEDs
with peaks around green (525 nm), yellow (575 nm), orange (615 nm), and red (660 nm) (Mouser,
Switzerland). For characterizing color-shifted El222 variants, we used 488 nm (JDSU, China), 514
nm (Oxxius, France), 561 nm (CrystaLaser, USA), and 641 nm (Coherent, USA) lasers. For inducing
optogenetics during microscopy, we used diascopic light and placed a green interference filter in
the optical path (Nikon, Switzerland) when needed. For administering red and far-red light that
switches PhyB-Pif3, we used red light panels (Amats, China) with a peak around 650 nm and
custom-made printed circuit boards with 750 nm far-red LEDs (Roithner Lasertechnik, Austria).

The spectral characteristics of the light sources, measured using an ST-VIS-25 spectrometer (Ocean
Insight, USA) are shown in Supplementary Fig. 1.

To control the LEDs or lasers, we used an NI USB 6501 (Texas Instruments, USA) I/O device. The
system was run using a custom Matlab script (**Code availability**). The regime of pulsing light could
be adjusted with a precision of less than one second.

Quantification of the transition from *cln1-3Δ* arrest with optogenetic cell-cycle control

827
828

To score the portion of cells that bud in response to a pulse of light (Fig. 2 B), we tested *cln1-3Δ*
MET3pr-CLN2 and *cln1-3Δ clb3-6Δ pRD-TW1* cells with additional *EL222* and LIP-controlled Cdk1
cyclins, as indicated. After loading cells into a microfluidic chip and growing them for 4-5 hrs, we
supplied methionine, which shuts off *MET3pr*. Two hours after methionine had been added, cells
were large and unbudded (G1 arrest). Different optogenetic constructs (*LIP-CLB5* and *LIP-CLN2*)
were activated by using diascopic light from the microscope set to 80% of maximal intensity for 20
min or 40 min, depending on the experiment. Cells were imaged every 10 min.

Optovolution experiments on agar plates

Prior to evolution, cells were propagated under the light pulsing regime that allowed proliferation on SCD agar plates until growth saturation. To increase the mutational diversity of the population, cells were then mutagenized by exposing them for 10 sec to UV light with 254 nm emission peak (model G30T8, Sankyo Denki, Japan). We scraped cells from one plate and resuspended them in 1 mL of liquid SCD medium prewarmed to 30°C. Then, we plated 100-200 μL of cell culture on fresh agar plates and chose the desired selection pressure by adjusting the light pulse regime. After three days of growth, we replica-plated the cells to provide fresh nutrients. After another two days of growth, we picked isolated colonies by restreaking them on fresh SCD plates, and allowed them to grow for another two days. Finally, we identified the mutations by Sanger sequencing the POI gene. The whole process took about seven days per screen.

Long-term continuous optovolution in liquid medium

As in the agar plate experiments, cells were propagated on SCD plates and UV-mutagenized. We scraped cells from one plate and resuspended them in 1 mL of liquid SCD medium. We added 200 μL from this suspension to 100 mL of liquid SCD medium. We used transparent 250 mL Erlenmeyer flasks (VWR, Switzerland). Cell cultures were grown in an incubator shaker (Infors HT, Switzerland) set at 250 rotations per minute and 30°C. For administering pulsing light, we used panels of blue LEDs mounted on a custom rack inside the incubator.

To prevent the cultures from reaching saturation, we diluted them in warm SCD medium to a final OD (660 nm) of 0.04 every 12 hrs. We performed the experiment for a week, after which we proceeded to Sanger sequencing bulk culture genomic DNA for the POI gene.

Mutation identification

To screen for mutations in the genes of interest, we performed Sanger sequencing (Microsynth AG, Switzerland) using primers that span the coding sequence of interest. The identified mutations were confirmed by sequencing the plasmids after cloning the POI gene.

For identifying mutations in the genome, we performed paired-end whole genome sequencing of the evolved and ancestral genomes. The sequencing was performed using 150 bp long reads on the DNBseq platform with a total data output of 1 Gb. The ancestral and the evolved reads were then mapped onto the W303 reference genome using Bowtie 2. For variant calling, we used BCFtools. The mutations were called if they appeared in the evolved but not the ancestral genome, and if they were sequenced with a depth of at least 10.

Variant characterization

In all cases, strains were grown to saturation for 18-20 h, diluted, and then allowed to reach log phase. Transcriptional activities were scaled to the maxGAL1 unit, where 1 maxGAL1 corresponds

to the steady-state expression of *GAL1pr* in synthetic complete medium containing 3% raffinose

(w/v) and 2% galactose (w/v)[88].

For characterizing the light-sensitized and color-shifted El222 variants, we cloned mutant *EL222*

into plasmids that inserted as single copies into the budding yeast genome, and transformed a

strain that contained a single-copy *LIP-ymScarletl* reporter with the plasmids. While *LIP-ymScarletl*

was the reporter of choice for characterizing light-sensitized variants to avoid excitation light

inducing the mutant El222, it has a comparatively lower sensitivity than a *yEVenus* reporter.

Hence, for carefully characterizing the leakiness of wt-El222 and low-leakiness variants, we

introduced them into a strain containing a single-copy *LIP-yEVenus* reporter. All variants were

induced in log phase in liquid culture for 6 h. The light-sensitized or low-leakiness variants were

tested under two different light pulse regimes, high or low time-averaged LED intensity (Fig. 4 B, F,

J). The low LED regime corresponds to the blue LEDs (Supplementary Fig. 1) pulsed for 10 sec

every 5 min. The high LED regime corresponds to 30 sec on, 30 sec off every minute. The color-

shifted variants were induced under the presence of laser light of different wavelengths

(Supplementary Fig. 1). For characterizing the dynamics of the evolved variants with timelapse

fluorescence microscopy, we used variants of the reporters in which the corresponding

fluorescent proteins are fused to the PEST degron, reducing the half-life of the reporters. From the

measured fluorescence values, we subtracted the fluorescence levels of cells containing only the

corresponding *LIP*-based reporter, which showed elevated fluorescence levels compared to wild-

type (no-reporter) cells (Supplementary Fig. 2).

For characterizing the effect of *yor1Δ* in combination with the PhyB-Pif3 system, we used a strain

from ref. [110] with a *GAL1pr-Venus* reporter. In case PCB was used, cells were incubated with it in

darkness for 1 hr before exposure to red light. We used 30 sec on, 30 sec off red light with an

emission peak around 650 nm delivered for 6 h to cells grown in SCD liquid medium tubes on a

spinning wheel. After that, the level of expression was measured using fluorescence microscopy.

Previous measurements of *GAL1pr* activity in glucose showed that it does not exhibit leakiness

that is distinguishable from wild-type cells without a reporter[88]. Hence, from the measured values,

we subtracted the background fluorescence of a wild-type strain. To convert the expression levels

to maxGAL1 units, we measured the steady-state expression level of *GAL1pr-Venus* in the same

strain by growing it in SC medium with 3% raffinose (w/v) and 2% galactose medium (w/v).

For quantifying the activity of PEST-rtTA mutants, we introduced them into strains with a *tetOpr-*

yEVenus-PEST reporter. We grew the strains with or without doxycycline for 6 hrs and then imaged

them by fluorescence microscopy. From the measured values, we subtracted the corresponding

background fluorescence values of the strain containing only a *tetOpr-yEVenus-PEST* reporter in

the corresponding medium.

Microscopy and image analysis

Images were recorded using a Nikon Ti2-E (Nikon, Switzerland) microscope equipped with a 60x oil, N.A. 1.40 objective and a Hamamatsu Orca-Flash 4.0 camera (Hamamatsu, Japan). The microscope was controlled using NIS-Elements software and the Nikon Perfect Focus System. When performing timelapse microscopy to monitor the dynamic properties of El222, we induced with diascopic light, as described previously. To not induce El222 while observing cells under the microscope, we used a band-pass green interference filter (Nikon, Switzerland) placed between the diascopic light and the sample. The characteristics of this light are presented in Supplementary Fig. 1. The diascopic light was set to either 80% of maximal intensity, when inducing low-leakiness variants (Fig. 4 G), to 20% of maximal intensity when inducing light-sensitized variants (Fig. 4 C), or to 80% of maximal intensity with a green interference filter when inducing color-shifted variants (Fig. 4 K). Image analysis was performed using YeaZ[141], a deep neural network for analyzing images of yeast cells.

Statistics and reproducibility

No statistical method was used to predetermine sample size. The values in the heatmaps in Figs. 4 and 6 are rounded based on the first significant digit of the standard error of the mean.

Data and material availability

The characteristics of the systems measured in this study have been added to the Inducible Transcriptional Systems Database (https://promoter-benchmark.epfl.ch/)[88]. Any additional data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon request.

Code availability

The Matlab code for controlling the light pulses is available at:

https://github.com/rahi-lab/optogenetic_controller_script/.

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Author contributions

VG and SJR designed the experiments and analyzed the data. VG constructed the strains used for evolution. VG performed the directed evolution experiments. VG and ML characterized the evolved variants by fluorescence microscopy. VG and SJR wrote the manuscript. SJR supervised the work and acquired funding.

Competing interests

VG and SJR have filed a provisional patent application for the method reported in this manuscript through EPFL.

Supplementary Material

Supplementary Note 1: List of previous multiple-goal continuous

directed evolution campaigns

Publication	Molecular target	Details	Host	Ref.
Continuous directed evolution of DNA-binding proteins to improve TALEN specificity Hubbard et al., 2015	TALENs	Based on the PACE platform[14] Positive selection: DNA binding domain of TALENs coupled to phage propagation by way of bacterial RNA polymerase Negative selection: Promiscuous phage activity coupled to pIII-neg that inhibits phage propagation	*E. coli*	[19]
Evolution of a split RNA polymerase as a versatile biosensor platform Pu et al., 2017	T7 RNAP	Based on the PACE platform[14] Positive selection: Desired interaction between the halves of RNAP linked to phage propagation Negative selection: Interaction with alternative domains counterselected by linking promiscuous activity to dominant negative pIII-neg	*E. coli*	[20]
Contingency and chance erase necessity in the experimental evolution of ancestral proteins Xie et al., 2021	BCL-2 coregulators	Based on the PACE platform[14] Positive selection: The interaction of interest drives the expression of pIII necessary for phage propagation Negative selection: Unwanted interaction is counterselected by linking its activity to dominant negative pIII-neg	*E. coli*	[21]
Directed Evolution and Substrate Specificity Profile of Homing Endonuclease I-SceI Doyon et al., 2006	I-SceI	Positive selection: Endonuclease activity of I-SceI rescues the host cell by digesting a plasmid with a toxic gene (*ccdB*) Negative selection: Promiscuous substrate recognition suppressed using an antibiotic-resistance plasmid that must not be cut by I-SceI	*E. coli*	[22]
Engineered CRISPR-Cas9 nucleases with altered PAM specificities Kleinstiver et al., 2015	Cas9	Positive selection: Survival requires Cas9-mediated cleavage of a plasmid harboring a toxic gene Negative selection: Unwanted recognition of PAM sequences is suppressed using an antibiotic resistance plasmid whose cleavage by Cas9 leads to cell death	*E. coli*	[23]
Directed evolution of CRISPR-Cas9 to increase its specificity Lee et al., 2018	Cas9	Positive selection: Survival requires Cas9-mediated cleavage of a plasmid harboring a toxic gene Negative selection: Off-target cleavage is suppressed by introducing potential recognition sequences into *E. coli* genome that if cut lead to cell death	*E. coli*	[24]
A bacterial dual positive and negative selection system for dCas9 activity	Cas9	Positive selection: dCas9- and LacI-mediated derepression of antibiotic resistance genes Negative selection: dCas9-mediated repression of essential genes	*E. coli*	[25]

Spisak et al., 2022				
Engineered dual selection for directed evolution of SpCas9 PAM specificity Goldberg et al., 2021	Cas9	Positive selection: dCas9-mediated expression of *HIS3* auxotrophic gene, essential in media without histidine Negative selection: off-target binding leads to repression of *HIS3*	*E. coli*	[26]
A highly specific SpCas9 variant is identified by in vivo screening in yeast Casini et al., 2018	Cas9	Positive selection: On-target cleavage leads to reconstitution of functional auxotrophic marker *TRP1* Negative selection: Off-target cleavage leads to reconstitution of *ADE2*, which causes color change of yeast colony	Budding yeast	[27]

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Supplementary Note 2: List of previous selection/counterselection directed evolution campaigns

Publication	Molecular target	Selection mechanism	Organism	Timing of selection cycles	Mutagenesis	Selection environment	Ref.
Robust and flexible platform for directed evolution of yeast genetic switches Tominaga et al., 2021	Tet-ON system and biosensors for DAPG and Camphor	Positive selection: *BLE* expression (Zeocin resistance) Negative selection: hsvTK activity in the presence of specific substrates leads to toxic products	Budding yeast	24 h of negative selection followed by 24 h induction and final positive selection for 24 h	Error-prone PCR	Liquid	[38]
Ribozyme-Based Aminoglycoside Switches of Gene Expression Engineered by Genetic Selection in *S. cerevisiae* Klauser et al., 2015	RNA switches	Positive selection: *HIS3* auxotrophic marker expression Negative selection: *URA3* expression in medium with 5-fluoroorotic acid (5-FOA)	Budding yeast	Not specified	Randomized library	Solid	[39]
Engineering prokaryotic transcriptional activators as metabolite biosensors in yeast Skjoedt et al., 2016	Transcriptional biosensor based on LTTR family of proteins	FACS (Fluorescence activated cell sorting)-based screening	Budding yeast	Cells grown for 24 h without inducer were subjected to negative selection followed by a 24 h induction and positive selection	Error-prone PCR	Liquid	[40]
Evolution-guided engineering of small-molecule biosensors Snoek et al., 2020	Transcriptional sensors for *cis,cis*-muconic acid	FACS-based screening	Budding yeast	Single round of FACS-selection for desired phenotype with cells grown under inducing or non-inducing conditions for 22 h	Error-prone PCR	Liquid	[41]

Photo-sensitive degron variants for tuning protein stability by light Usherenko et al., 2014	Photosensitive degron	Manual screen for different fluorescence in darkness/light	Budding yeast	Replicas of colonies screened under inducing and non-inducing conditions separately after 24 h of growth	Error-prone PCR	Solid	42
A Yeast System for Discovering Optogenetic Inhibitors of Eukaryotic Translation Initiation Lu et al., 2019	Optogenetic inhibitors of translation	Positive selection based on translation inhibition	Budding yeast	Replicas of colonies screened under inducing and non-inducing conditions separately after 2 days of growth	Error-prone PCR	Solid	43
A light- and calcium-gated transcription factor for imaging and manipulating activated neurons Wang et al., 2017	Light- and calcium-gated transcription factor	FACS-based screen	Budding yeast	Six rounds of alternating positive and negative selection with 2-3 days of growth between each round	Error-prone PCR	Liquid	44
Yeast Two-Hybrid Screening of Photoswitchable Protein–Protein Interaction Libraries Woloschuk et al., 2020	Proteins that interact with photoswitcha-ble proteins	Positive selection based on yeast-two-hybrid driven expression of *HIS3* auxotrophic marker	Budding yeast	Positive selection for 72 h after the transformation followed by separate screens of replicas under inducing and non-inducing conditions grown for 48 h	Site-directed mutagenesis	Solid	45
Optimized second-generation CRY2-CIB dimerizers and photoactivatable Cre recombinase Taslimi et al., 2016	CRY2	Dual selection based on yeast-two-hybrid driven expression of *URA3* gene on -uracil (positive) or +5-FOA plates (negative)	Budding yeast	For identifying light-sensitized variants, cells were subjected to low light on -uracil plates and then replica-plated in darkness onto 5-FOA plates. For identifying low-leakiness variants, cells were subjected to selection under low light on 5-FOA plates and then replica-plated onto -uracil plates under a high-light regime. Timing not fully specified.	Error-prone PCR	Solid	46
Creating Red Light-Switchable Protein Dimerization Systems as Genetically Encoded Actuators with High Specificity Huang et al., 2020	Binders of bacterial phytochrome	The library enriched by phage display was further screened in budding yeast using the yeast two-hybrid method	Budding yeast	Growth of budding yeast under positive selection conditions for 4-5 days followed by separate screening of replica colonies under inducing and non-inducing conditions for 24 h to exclude constitutively active mutants	Randomized library	Solid	47
Engineering an	LOV domains	Positive selection:	Phage	Four rounds of the	Rationally	*Ex vivo*	48

improved light-induced dimer (iLID) for controlling the localization and activity of signaling proteins Guntas et al., 2015		binding under light Negative selection: elution in darkness	display	following steps: 1 h light induction, selection, 10 min in darkness, and counter-selection	designed library	
Discovering Selective Binders for Photoswitchable Proteins Using Phage Display Reis et al., 2018	Binders of PYP and LOV2	Selection for binding of either darkness- or light-adapted form of the protein, with washouts designed to reduce constitutive binding	Phage display E. coli (used for protein expres-sion)	Three rounds of selection and counterselection with 1 h exposure to light or 1 h in darkness for proteins to adopt their light- or dark-states, respectively.	Site-directed mutagenesis	Ex vivo [49]
LOVTRAP: an optogenetic system for photoinduced protein dissociation Wang et al., 2016	LOV domains	mRNA display (Selection for binding in darkness with washouts designed to reduce constitutive binding)	E. coli (used for protein expressio n)	12 rounds of selection. Timing not specified.	Randomized library	Ex vivo [50]
Fluorescence Imaging-Based High-Throughput Screening of Fast- and Slow-Cycling LOV Proteins Kawano et al., 2013	LOV domains	Manual screen of mutant colonies	E. coli	Transient induction followed by timelapse imaging of bacterial colonies for three hours	Site-directed mutageneis	Solid [51]
Directed evolution of a genetic circuit Yokobayashi et al., 2002	Logic gate based on constitutive bacterial regulators	Manual screen of colonies	E. coli	Not specified	Error-prone PCR	Solid [52]
Evolving Orthogonal Suppressor tRNAs To Incorporate Modified Amino Acids Maranhao and Ellington, 2017	tRNA	Positive selection: compartmentalized partnered replication (CPR) Negative selection: incorporation of toxic p-Cl-phenylalanine (p-Cl-Phe)	E. coli	Three rounds of CPR, each including 3 h of growth, then 4 h of incubation with p-Cl-Phe for negative selection, followed by a final round of CPR	Randomized library	Liquid [53]
Enhancing the performance of Magnets photosensors through directed evolution Baumschlager et al., 2022	LOV domains	FACS-based selection	E. coli	For each selection step, cells were grown in inducing or non-inducing conditions for 4 h. Three rounds of selection in total: two positive with one negative in-between	Error-prone PCR	Liquid [54]
Escherichia coli "Marionette" strains with 12 highly optimized small-molecule sensors Meyer et al., 2019	12 prokaryotic chemically-responsive biosensors	Positive selection: expression of DNA Polymerase for compartmentalized partnered replication Negative selection:	E. coli	Alternating negative selection for 12-16 h, followed by positive selection for 4 h, with 4-23 total rounds of selection	Randomized library of biosensors with intermittent library shuffling	Liquid [55]

		incorporation of lethal *p*-Cl-phenylalanine (p-Cl-Phe)					
A nucleoside kinase as a dual selector for genetic switches and circuits Tashiro et al., 2011	Logic gate protein circuits	Positive and negative selection based on activity of *hsvTK* gene	*E. coli*	12-15 h of positive selection followed by 12 h of negative selection	N/A	Liquid and solid	56
Engineering an allosteric transcription factor to respond to new ligands Taylor et al., 2016	LacI	Positive selection: FACS of fluorescently labeled cells Negative selection: Expression of the toxin importer *tolC* gene	*E. coli*	Overnight negative selection followed by a FACS-based positive selection	Rationally designed mutation library combined with error-prone PCR	Liquid	57
AraC Regulatory Protein Mutants with Altered Effector Specificity Tang et al., 2008	AraC	FACS-based selection	*E. coli*	Positive selection after overnight induction followed by negative selection (no timing specified for negative selection)	Error-prone PCR	Liquid	58
Directed evolution of AraC for improved compatibility of arabinose- and lactose-inducible promoters Lee et al., 2007	AraC	FACS-based positive selection	*E. coli*	Only positive selection with FACS after 6 h of induction	Error-prone PCR	Liquid	59
Directed Evolution of the Quorum-Sensing Regulator EsaR for Increased Signal Sensitivity Shong et al., 2013	EsaR	Semi-automated screen using pin replicator and luminescence measurements	*E. coli*	24 h of incubation under non-inducing conditions, then negative selection, followed by overnight incubation under inducing conditions and positive selection for 24 h	Error-prone PCR	Solid	60
Dual selection of a genetic switch by a single selection marker Nomura and Yokobayashi, 2007	*lac* promoter	Proof of principle that a single selection marker (*tetA*) can be used for both positive and negative selection. *tetA* is essential for tetracycline resistance but renders cells more sensitive to NiCl$_2$	*E. coli*	20-24 h in NiCl$_2$, followed by a 1.5 h incubation period and 17-24 h of selection by tetracycline	N/A	Solid	61
An efficient platform for genetic selection and screening of gene switches in *Escherichia coli* Muranaka et al., 2009	Thiamine riboswitches	Positive and negative selection based on *tetA* expression	*E. coli*	8 h of induction, then 24 h of positive selection, followed by washout, 8 h of growth under non-inducing conditions and 24 h of negative selection	Randomized library	Liquid	62
Engineering Complex	Theophylline	Positive and negative	*E. coli*	Two cycles of	Rationally	Solid	63

Riboswitch Regulation by Dual Genetic Selection Sharma et al., 2008	and Thiamine riboswitches	selection based on *tetA* expression		selection for each of the input combinations. Each selection step lasted 24 h	constructed library		
Engineering of temperature- and light-switchable Cas9 variants Ritches et al., 2013	dCas9	FACS-based selection	*E. coli*	Positive selection followed by negative selection with induction time dependent on the temperature (4-19 h)	Rationally designed library	Liquid	[64]
Rapid and Liquid-Based Selection of Genetic Switches Using Nucleoside Kinase Fused with Aminoglycoside Phosphotransferase Tominaga et al., 2015	Lux promoter variants	Positive selection based on two different antibiotic resistance genes Negative selection based on *hsvTK* gene	*E. coli*	Negative selection overnight followed by a washout and 4-6 h of positive selection in the presence of the inducer	Site-directed mutagenesis	Liquid	[65]
Rapid Diversification of BetI-Based Transcriptional Switches for the Control of Biosynthetic Pathways and Genetic Circuits Saeki et al., 2016	Choline-inducible transcription factor BetI	Positive selection based on two different antibiotic resistance genes Negative selection based on *hsvTK* gene	*E. coli*	1 h of incubation, then 3 h of negative selection followed by 1 h of incubation and 3 h of positive selection. Depending on the desired outcome, the inducer was added during the incubation time, either before positive or negative selection	Error-prone PCR	Liquid	[66]
Evolutionary Design of Choline-Inducible and -Repressible T7-Based Induction Systems Ike et al., 2015	Choline-inducible transcription factor BetI	Screen for and against fluorescence under inducing and non-inducing conditions	*E. coli*	Selection of colonies that fluoresce under inducible conditions followed by a screen of liquid culture replicates separately under inducing and non-inducing conditions to exclude constitutive variants. Each incubation step was performed overnight.	Error-prone PCR	Solid	[67]
Directed evolution of protein switches and their application to the creation of ligand-binding proteins Guntas et al., 2005	Beta-lactamase	Selection of cells that survive under maltose and beta-lactamase antibiotic targets	*E. coli*	Cells selected for survival on plates containing maltose and ampicillin were further screened for maltose-dependence. Timing not specified.	Random domain insertion and random circular permutation	Solid	[68]
Directed evolution of the autoinducer selectivity of *Vibrio fischeri* LuxR Tashiro et al., 2016	LuxR	Dual selection based on the *hsvTK* gene	*E. coli*	2 h of negative selection, followed by a washout, induction of 6 h and positive selection of 20 h	Site-directed mutagenesis	Liquid	[69]

Directed evolution of a synthetic phylogeny of programmable Trp repressors Ellefson et al., 2018	TrpR	Dual selection based on compartmentalized partnered replication	*E. coli*	Variants obtained from the first CPR round of positive selection were cloned into another plasmid that allowed negative CPR selection. Before each CPR, cells were grown for 1 h, followed by 4 h of growth in inducing conditions	Randomized library	Liquid	70
Engineered systems of inducible anti-repressors for the next generation of biological programming Groseclose et al., 2020	Several classes of antirepressors	FACS-based selection	*E. coli*	Positive selection followed by negative selection. Timing not specified.	Error-prone PCR	Liquid	36

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Supplementary Note 3: El222 optogenetic system

El222 is a transcription factor from marine bacterium *Erythrobacter litoralis*.[144] El222 has been adapted for use in eukaryotes by way of a tandem fusion of the prokaryotic El222 transcription factor, a nuclear localization signal, and the VP16 transcriptional activation domain. In darkness, the interaction of the helix-turn-helix (HTH) DNA binding domain with DNA is sterically hindered by the light-sensing LOV-domain[143]. Upon blue light illumination, a covalent bond is formed between the Cys-75 residue and the flavin chromophore[146]. (All references to mutant residue numbers in El222 are given with respect to bacterial El222 to match the numbering used in previous work[88,143,144].) This leads to a conformational change, which dislocates the Jα helix of the LOV domain. Subsequently, the protein forms a homodimer and binds to the DNA substrate using its exposed HTH domain. In the absence of blue light, the protein reverts to its ground state. For brevity, we refer to the promoter consisting of 5 El222 binding sites[184] upstream of a minimal eukaryotic promoter as *LIP*.

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Supplementary Note 4: PhyB-Pif3 optogenetic system

Phytochromes are photosensors in plants, bacteria, and fungi[185]. Phytochrome B and its interaction partner Pif3 are used by plants to adapt gene expression to environmental light conditions[186].

The light-inducible PhyB-Pif3 interaction has been extensively used in organisms other than plants[106–109]. By fusing one protein to PhyB and another to Pif3, one can induce protein-protein interactions in a temporarily and spatially precise manner, for example, in order to sequester proteins to specific cellular compartments[107]. In the yeast two-hybrid version of the system, it is used for light-inducible transcriptional control in budding yeast.[108,187] Typically, PhyB and Pif3 are fused to the Gal4 DNA binding domain and the Gal4 transcriptional activation domain, respectively.[108] When bound to its chromophore and activated by red light (≈650 nm), PhyB binds Pif3, thereby, bringing the transcriptional activation and DNA binding domains close together, which leads to the expression of the *GAL* family of genes. In the presence of far-red light (≈ 740 nm) or prolonged darkness, PhyB changes conformation again and dissociates from Pif3.

The photoreceptive core of the PhyB protein contains a linear tetrapyrrole chromophore.[188] In plants, this chromophore is phytochromobilin. However, phytochromobilin is not produced in many model organisms. Thus, to use PhyB-Pif3, one adds phycocyanobilin (PCB), which is a precursor of phytochromobilin in plants and a chromophore in algal phytochromes, to the incubation medium prior to optogenetic experiments. It has been shown that bacterial and fungal phytochromes can carry biliverdin, another tetrapyrrole molecule, as a chromophore.[188]

Supplementary Note 5: Tetracycline-regulated gene expression systems

Tetracycline-responsive systems, originally identified in bacteria as part of a feedback loop that
mediates resistance to the antibiotic tetracycline, are widely used for controlling transcription. The
system is made up of the tTA regulator, which binds the *tetO* DNA sequence. In its original form,
tTA is part of the Tet-Off system that is inhibited by tetracycline or the closely related molecule
doxycycline[189]. Mutations that reverse tTA activity with respect to the inducer have been used to
construct rtTA.[115] To function as a transcriptional activator in eukaryotes, rtTA is typically fused to
the VP16 transactivation domain. To construct an inducible eukaryotic promoter, the binding sites
for rtTA, *tetO*, are placed next to a minimal promoter. However, this system, called the Tet-On
system, exhibits high basal activity in the absence of the inducer. To circumvent this, we fused the
PEST degron to rtTA, which leads to increased degradation of rtTA.

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Supplementary Note 6: Summary of cell cycle biology relevant to optovolution

Wild-type cell cycle control

In this note, we briefly summarize the wild-type model of cell cycle control in budding yeast.[131] In the next section, we focus on how the cell cycle runs in the Dajbog strains.

At the biochemical level, the rhythm of the cell-cycle oscillator is predominantly generated by a negative feedback loop[129]. In this loop, cyclin-dependent kinase (CDK) and the anaphase-promoting complex/cyclosome (APC/C) alternate in activity and drive cell cycle progression.

In budding yeast, there is a single cyclin-dependent kinase, Cdk1 (also known as Cdc28). Processes that Cdk1 controls include the transcription of hundreds of cell cycle-periodic genes, DNA replication, spindle pole body duplication, and spindle formation. Activity and specificity of Cdk1 towards different substrates is mainly regulated through its interaction with regulatory proteins called cyclins. Different cyclins generally promote distinct cell-cycle events and are expressed at different stages of the cell cycle. In *S. cerevisiae*, cyclins are commonly classified into four groups: G1, G1/S, S, and M cyclins. Each cyclin-Cdk complex promotes the activation of the next group of cyclins.

The G1 cyclin Cln3 activates G1/S cyclins Cln1 and Cln2 and has a role in cell-cycle entry in response to growth. Cln1-3 are responsible for the initiation of formation of the daughter cell and expression of the 100s of genes of the Start regulon. At the onset of S phase, levels of S cyclins Clb5 and Clb6 rise. Their association with Cdk1 is primarily responsible for the initiation of DNA replication by triggering the activation of origins of replication. Approaching mitosis, the concentrations of the remaining B-type cyclins increase. In budding yeast, there are four such cyclins, Clb1, Clb2, Clb3, and Clb4. Their association with Cdk1 enables assembly of the mitotic spindle and attachment of chromosomes to the spindle.

In order to enable mitotic exit and reset the state of the cell for new cell cycles, cyclins have to be inactivated. While the activity G1/S cyclins is brought down by degradation and inhibition of the transcription factor SBF, S and M phase cyclins are not degraded until anaphase. At least two different mechanisms help repress Clb cyclin activity. The first one is through the activation of APC/C by the proteins Cdc20 and Cdh1. APC/C is a ubiquitin ligase complex that marks cyclins for degradation by the proteasome. The second mechanism is through the protein Sic1, which stoichiometrically inhibits Cdk1-Clb complexes, thereby effectively reducing their activity.

Rewired cell cycle control in the Dajbog strains

Although cyclins are specialized for certain phases of the cell cycle, the functions of some cyclins overlap. For example, when overexpressed, S phase cyclin Clb5 can initiate budding in a *cln1-3Δ*

block[190]. Similarly, the M-phase cyclins Clb1[191]or Clb2[127]can assume the roles of all other Clb

cyclins in a *clb1-6Δ* background. Endogenous *CLB3-6* genes also suffice for cell cycle start when the

Clb-cyclin inhibitor *SIC1* is deleted, rendering *cln1-3Δ sic1Δ* cells viable[133].

While G1/S cyclin and S cyclin expression initiates at about the same time under the control of

transcription factors Sbf and Mbf[131], respectively, S cyclins are inactive until G1/S cyclins have

sufficiently degraded Sic1 and Cdh1. Thus, in wild-type cells, although *CLN2* and *CLB5* are

simultaneously transcriptionally activated, there is a delay between G1/S-Cdk and S-Cdk

activity[131,192]. We expect this delay to persist in Dajbog1 cells. Deleting *SIC1* in Dajbog2 cells is

expected to cause an increase in chromosomal rearrangements due to premature S-Cdk activity[193]

but this did not noticeably interfere with our directed evolution experiments.

Clb5-Cdk1 leads to the firing of origins of replication in S phase. Overexpression of destruction box

deficient Clb5db in galactose medium arrests the cell cycle by inhibiting the formation of pre-

replicative origins, a process known as origin of replication relicensing[137–139]. This represents the

expected mechanism for the lethality of *CLB5* overexpression in glucose medium. This observation

led us to further sensitize Dajbog1 cells to continuous Clb5 activity by deleting *SIC1*, resulting in

Dajbog2 strains.

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Supplementary Figures

Supplementary Fig. 1. Emission spectra of light sources used. All reported intensities are total intensities and are for
the location of the agar plates. A: Blue LED panel used for evolving and inducing EI222 and its variants (light intensity
8.3 mW/cm^2). B: LEDs used to evolve color-shifted EI222 variants from left to right: 24 mW/cm^2, 0.12 mW/cm^2, 2.6
mW/cm^2, 0.46 mW/cm^2. C: Diascopic LED light used for inducing EI222 and its variants for microscopy. The black plot
represents the spectrum of the brightfield (BF) light and the green plot is the spectrum of the same light filtered using
a green interference filter (GIF). BF with GIF is used for inducing color-shifted mutants of EI222 for timelapse
microscopy. The intensities of the light are: 8.4 mW/cm^2 for BF set to 20% of the maximal power, 97 mW/cm^2 for BF
set to 80% of maximal power, and 26 mW/cm^2 for BF 80% with GIF. D: Lasers used for characterizing color-shifted
variants of EI222. The effective light intensity of the lasers was adjusted to be the same across lasers using neutral

density filters and by adjusting the duty-cycle regime of the pulsing laser light. The power intensity was 3.5 mW/cm^2

for all lasers. E: Red and far-red LEDs used for switching the PhyB-Pif3 system. Light intensity of the red LEDs is 36

mW/cm^2, and the light intensity of the far-red LEDs is 26 mW/cm^2.

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Supplementary Fig. 2. Baseline leakiness of the reporter sets the minimum leakiness attainable in optovolution.
Comparison of fluorescence in no-reporter (WT), reporter-only (*LIP-yEVenus*), and reporter plus El222 strains (*LIP-*
yEVenus + EL222) in darkness. Cells that contain a transcriptional reporter for El222 (*LIP-yEVenus*) but not the
transcription factor (e.g., *PGK1pr-EL222*) showed elevated fluorescence compared to wild-type budding yeast cells.
This suggests that other transcription factors might weakly drive the transcription from *LIP* and set the lower bound
for leakiness of *LIP*. The leakiness reported for all El222 variants is the difference between the reporter-only and the
reporter plus variant strains. Numbers of analyzed cells are given in the Supplementary Table 11.

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	WT EL222	P114R	C75R	E104G	I105V	G136S	P114L	T88P	V41F	V121L	L87P	D89Y	V103I	E84G	T83A	Y108H	G80R	V103F	strongLOV	E84K
Darkness	0.154	0.34	1.4	0.9	0.21	1.8	-0.017	1.6	5	0.7	10.9	0.032	0.04	14.5	0.58	0.17	0.43	3.4	0.14	8.2
λ = 514 nm	0.27	0.2	4.9	3.9	0.43	11.6	0.13	4.9	13.5	2.1	10	0.05	0.11	27	1.32	0.14	0.79	5.4	0.33	11.4
LEDs	0.47	1.1	2	2.3	2.9	3.3	4	4.2	5.1	5.8	6.4	10.1	11.6	20.6	23.5	25.4	32	35	37.6	39.6

Supplementary Fig. 3. Level of activity of El222 mutants obtained in the color-shift campaign in darkness, activated by a 514 nm laser (second row), or in the presence of the green-to-red LEDs used for the campaign (third row). These measurements showed that only some of the mutants are responsive to 514 nm light. Other mutants may merely have evolved to be more sensitive to the small-wavelength tail of our green LEDs, which is why we excluded them from further analysis. We only further characterized the mutants that are substantially activated by 514 nm light. In addition, we included the L87P mutant which showed unexpected behavior by turning off in the presence of the LEDs. The values are given in percentages of 1 maxGAL1[88]. Numbers of analyzed cells are given in Supplementary Table 12.

Supplementary Tables

 Supplementary Table 1. Plasmids used in the study

Plasmid name	Insert	Type of plasmid	Yeast selection marker	Bacterial selection marker	Source of the plasmid
EZL105	PGK1pr-EL222	For integration in a single copy	CgHIS3	AmpR	Ref. [93]
pVG117	PGK1pr-EL222 (Asp18Tyr, Val139Leu)	For integration in a single copy	CgHIS3	AmpR	This study
pVG118	PGK1pr-EL222 (Asp18Tyr)	For integration in a single copy	CgHIS3	AmpR	This study
pVG119	PGK1pr-EL222 (Val139Leu)	For integration in a single copy	CgHIS3	AmpR	This study
pVG135	PGK1pr-EL222 (Lys99Glu)	For integration in a single copy	CgHIS3	AmpR	This study
pVG136	PGK1pr-EL222 (Pro165Ser)	For integration in a single copy	CgHIS3	AmpR	This study
pVG137	PGK1pr-EL222 (Val201Leu)	For integration in a single copy	CgHIS3	AmpR	This study
pVG120	PGK1pr-EL222 (Asp89Tyr)	For integration in a single copy	CgHIS3	AmpR	This study
pVG147	PGK1pr-EL222 (Gly94Cys)	For integration in a single copy	CgHIS3	AmpR	This study
pVG122	PGK1pr-strongLOV	For integration in a single copy	CgHIS3	AmpR	Ref. [88]
pVG143	PGK1pr-EL222 (Leu87Ile)	For integration in a single copy	CgHIS3	AmpR	This study
pVG123	PGK1pr-EL222 (Ala157Val)	For integration in a single copy	CgHIS3	AmpR	This study
pVG286	PGK1pr-EL222 (Gly80Glu)	For integration in a single copy	CgHIS3	AmpR	This study
pVG121	PGK1pr-EL222 (Gly82Val)	For integration in a single copy	CgHIS3	AmpR	This study
pVG124	PGK1pr-EL222 (Thr83Ser)	For integration in a single copy	CgHIS3	AmpR	This study
pVG310	PGK1pr-AQTrip (yeast codon-optimized)	For integration in a single copy	CgHIS3	AmpR	This study
pVG150	PGK1pr-EL222	For integration in a	CgHIS3	AmpR	This study

	(Ser137Asn)	single copy			
pVG144	PGK1pr-EL222 (Val121Met)	For integration in a single copy	CgHIS3	AmpR	This study
pVG178	PGK1pr-EL222 (Glu84Lys)	For integration in a single copy	CgHIS3	AmpR	This study
pVG298	PGK1pr-EL222 (Thr83Ala)	For integration in a single copy	CgHIS3	AmpR	This study
pVG131	PGK1pr-EL222 (Glu104Gly)	For integration in a single copy	CgHIS3	AmpR	This study
pVG142	PGK1pr-EL222 (Cys75Arg)	For integration in a single copy	CgHIS3	AmpR	This study
pVG132	PGK1pr-EL222 (Thr88Pro)	For integration in a single copy	CgHIS3	AmpR	This study
pVG138	PGK1pr-EL222 (Gly136Ser)	For integration in a single copy	CgHIS3	AmpR	This study
pVG126	PGK1pr-EL222 (Val103Phe)	For integration in a single copy	CgHIS3	AmpR	This study
pVG139	PGK1pr-EL222 (Val41Phe)	For integration in a single copy	CgHIS3	AmpR	This study
pVG252	PGK1pr-EL222 (Leu87Pro)	For integration in a single copy	CgHIS3	AmpR	This study
pVG134	PGK1pr-EL222 (Glu84Gly)	For integration in a single copy	CgHIS3	AmpR	This study
pVG101	PGK1pr-EL222, LIP-CLN2, LIP-CLB5	For integration	NatMX	AmpR	This study
pVG104	ADH1pr-PHYB, ADH1pr-PIF3, GAL1-CLB5	For integration	NatMX	AmpR	This study
pVG329	YOR1 3'UTR and YOR1 5'UTR	For ORF replacement	HphMX	AmpR	This study
pVG84	GAL1pr-CLN2	For integration	PatMX	AmpR	This study
pVG48	GAL1pr-yEVenus-PEST	For integration in a single copy	URA3	AmpR	Ref. [88]
pVG9	LIP-yEVenus-PEST	For integration in a single copy	URA3	AmpR	Ref. [88]
pVG175	LIP-ymScarletI	For integration in a single copy	URA3	AmpR	This study
pVG176	LIP-ymScarletI-PEST	For integration in a single copy	URA3	AmpR	This study
pVG295	PGK1pr-EL222, LIP-PEST-rtTA, tetOpr-CLN2	For integration	NatMX	AmpR	This study

pRD-TW1 (pRD13)	*MET3pr-CLN2, CLB5pr-CLB5*	*CEN/ARS*	*URA3*	*AmpR*	This study
pRD70	*tetOpr-CLB5*	For integration	*PatMX*	*AmpR*	This study
pVG336	*PGK1pr-PEST-rtTA*	For integration in a single copy	*HIS3*	*AmpR*	This study
pVG337	*PGK1pr-PEST-rtTA (Phe67Cys)*	For integration in a single copy	*HIS3*	*AmpR*	This study
pVG338	*PGK1pr-PEST-rtTA (Arg253His)*	For integration in a single copy	*HIS3*	*AmpR*	This study
pVG188	*PGK1pr-EL222, LIP-CLN2*	For integration in a single copy	*NatMX*	*AmpR*	This study
pVG189	*PGK1pr-EL222, LIP-CLB5*	For integration in a single copy	*NatMX*	*AmpR*	This study
pVG70	*PGK1pr-EL222, LIP-CDC20*	For integration	*NatMX*	*AmpR*	This study
pVG15k	*PGK1pr-EL222, LIP-CLB2kd*	For integration	*NatMX*	*AmpR*	This study
pVG47	*tetOpr-yEVenus-PEST*	For integration in a single copy	*URA3*	*AmpR*	Ref. [88]

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 Supplementary Table 2. Strains used in the study

Strain name	Genotype	Source
yVG602	*cln1,3Δ cln2Δ::MET3pr-CLN2 clb1Δ clb2Δ::GALL-CLB2::URA3 HTB2::HTB2-mCherry::HIS3 PGK1pr::PGK1pr-EL222, LIP-CLB2::NatMX*	This study
yVG173	*clb1Δ clb2Δ::GALL-CLB2::URA3 clb3Δ::TRP1 clb4Δ::his3::kanMX clb5Δ::kanMX clb6Δ::kanMX swe1Δ::TRP1 PGK1pr::PGK1pr-EL222, LIP-CLB2kd::NatMX ADE2*	This study
yVG604	*cdh1Δ::LEU2 cdc20Δ::MET3pr-CDC20::TRP1 CLN2pr-GFP-CLN2pest::HIS3 PGK1pr::PGK1pr-EL222, LIP-CDC20::NatMX*	This study
yVG152	*cln1Δ cln2Δ::CLN2pr-Venus::TRP1 cln3Δ::LEU2 trp1Δ::MET3-CLN2::TRP1 clb3Δ::TRP1 clb4Δ::his3::KanMX clb6Δ::KanMX HTB2::HTB2-mCherry::HIS5 PGK1pr::PGK1pr-EL222, LIP-CLB5::NatMX*	This study
yVG2371	*cln1Δ cln2Δ cln3Δ::LEU2 trp1Δ::MET3pr::CLN2 ycr051wΔ::PGL1pr-EL222, LIP-CLN2::NatMX*	This study
yVG2374	*cln1Δ cln2Δ cln3Δ::LEU2 trp1Δ::MET3pr::CLN2 ycr051wΔ::PGL1pr-EL222, LIP-CLB5::NatMX*	This study
yVG2390	*cln1Δ cln2Δ cln3Δ::LEU2 clb3Δ::TRP1 clb4Δ::his3::KanMX clb5Δ::HIS3 clb6Δ::KanMX HTB2::HTB2-mCherry::HIS5 POL3::POL3 (Leu523Asp)::hphMX EFB1pr::PGK1pr-EL222, LIP-CLB5::NatMX pRD-TW1 (CEN/ARS)*	This study
yVG1247	*cln1Δ cln2Δ cln3Δ::LEU2 clb3Δ::TRP1 clb4Δ::his3::KanMX clb5Δ::HIS3 clb6Δ::KanMX HTB2::HTB2-mCherry::HIS5 POL3::POL3 (Leu523Asp)::hphMX EFB1pr::PGK1pr-EL222, LIP-CLN2, LIP-CLB5::NatMX (single copy)*	This study
yVG1358	*cln1Δ cln2Δ cln3Δ::LEU2 clb3Δ::TRP1 clb4Δ::his3Δ::KanMX clb5Δ::HIS3 clb6Δ::KanMX HTB2::HTB2-mCherry::HIS5 POL3::POL3 (Leu523Asp)::hphMX sic1Δ::URA3 EFB1pr::PGK1pr-EL222, LIP-CLN2, LIP-CLB5::NatMX (single copy)*	This study
yVG1623	*ura3Δ::LIP-yEVenus::KanMX (single copy)*	Ref. [88]
yVG2840	*ycr051wΔ::LIP-ymScarletI::URA3 (single copy)*	This study
yVG2842	*his3Δ::PGK1pr-EL222::HIS3 (single copy)*	This study

	ycr051wΔ::LIP-ymScarletI-PEST::URA3 (single copy)	
yVG1637	his3Δ::PGK1pr-EL222::HIS3 (single copy) ura3Δ::LIP-yEVenus::KanMX (single copy)	Ref. [88]
yVG2844	his3Δ::PGK1pr-EL222 (Asp18Tyr, Val139Leu)::HIS3 (single copy) ura3Δ::LIP-yEVenus::KanMX (single copy)	This study
yVG2846	his3Δ::PGK1pr-EL222 (Asp18Tyr)::HIS3 (single copy) ura3Δ::LIP-yEVenus::KanMX (single copy)	This study
yVG2848	his3Δ::PGK1pr-EL222 (Val139Leu)::HIS3 (single copy) ura3Δ::LIP-yEVenus::KanMX (single copy)	This study
yVG2850	his3Δ::PGK1pr-EL222 (Lys99Glu)::HIS3 (single copy) ura3Δ::LIP-yEVenus::KanMX (single copy)	This study
yVG2852	his3Δ::PGK1pr-EL222 (Pro165Ser)::HIS3 (single copy) ura3Δ::LIP-yEVenus::KanMX (single copy)	This study
yVG2854	his3Δ::PGK1pr-EL222 (Val201Leu)::HIS3 (single copy) ura3Δ::LIP-yEVenus::KanMX (single copy)	This study
yVG2701	his3Δ::PGK1pr-EL222 (Asp89Tyr)::HIS3 (single copy) ycr051wΔ::LIP-ymScarletI::URA3 (single copy)	This study
yVG2750	his3Δ::PGK1pr-EL222 (Gly94Cys)::HIS3 (single copy) ycr051wΔ::LIP-ymScarletI::URA3 (single copy)	This study
yVG2704	his3Δ::PGK1pr-strongLOV::HIS3 (single copy) ycr051wΔ::LIP-ymScarletI::URA3 (single copy)	This study
yVG2726	his3Δ::PGK1pr-EL222 (Leu87Ile)::HIS3 (single copy) ycr051wΔ::LIP-ymScarletI::URA3 (single copy)	This study
yVG1645	his3Δ::PGK1pr-EL222 (Ala157Val)::HIS3 (single copy) ura3Δ::LIP-yEVenus::KanMX (single copy)	This study
yVG2759	his3Δ::PGK1pr-EL222 (Gly80Glu)::HIS3 (single copy) ycr051wΔ::LIP-ymScarletI::URA3 (single copy)	This study
yVG2703	his3Δ::PGK1pr-EL222 (Gly82Val)::HIS3 (single copy) ycr051wΔ::LIP-ymScarletI::URA3 (single copy)	This study
yVG2706	his3Δ::PGK1pr-EL222 (Thr83Ser)::HIS3 (single copy) ycr051wΔ::LIP-ymScarletI::URA3 (single copy)	This study
yVG2761	his3Δ::PGK1pr-AQTrip (yeast codon optimized)::HIS3 (single copy)	This study

	ycr051wΔ::LIP-ymScarletI::URA3 (single copy)	
yVG2752	his3Δ::PGK1pr-EL222 (Ser137Asn)::HIS3 (single copy) ycr051wΔ::LIP-ymScarletI::URA3 (single copy)	This study
yVG2727	his3Δ::PGK1pr-EL222 (Val121Met)::HIS3 (single copy) ycr051wΔ::LIP-ymScarletI::URA3 (single copy)	This study
yVG2753	his3Δ::PGK1pr-EL222 (Glu84Lys)::HIS3 (single copy) ycr051wΔ::LIP-ymScarletI::URA3 (single copy)	This study
yVG2699	his3Δ::PGK1pr-EL222 (Thr83Ala)::HIS3 (single copy) ycr051wΔ::LIP-ymScarletI::URA3 (single copy)	This study
yVG2714	his3Δ::PGK1pr-EL222 (Glu104Gly)::HIS3 (single copy) ycr051wΔ::LIP-ymScarletI::URA3 (single copy)	This study
yVG2725	his3Δ::PGK1pr-EL222 (Cys75Arg)::HIS3 (single copy) ycr051wΔ::LIP-ymScarletI::URA3 (single copy)	This study
yVG2715	his3Δ::PGK1pr-EL222 (Thr88Pro)::HIS3 (single copy) ycr051wΔ::LIP-ymScarletI::URA3 (single copy)	This study
yVG2721	his3Δ::PGK1pr-EL222 (Gly136Ser)::HIS3 (single copy) ycr051wΔ::LIP-ymScarletI::URA3 (single copy)	This study
yVG2709	his3Δ::PGK1pr-EL222 (Val103Phe)::HIS3 (single copy) ycr051wΔ::LIP-ymScarletI::URA3 (single copy)	This study
yVG1031	ura3Δ::GAL1pr-yEVenus::KanMX	Ref. [88]
yVG301	ura3Δ::GAL1pr-yEVenus-PEST::URA3	Ref. [88]
yVG151	PHYB-mCherry-Tom7::LEU2; Bem1-mCitrine-PIF::HIS3	Ref. [150]
yVG2839	PHYB-mCherry-Tom7::LEU2; Bem1-mCitrine-PIF::HIS3 yor1::hphMX	This study
yVG2837	leu2Δ::ADH1pr-GADPIF3::LEU2, trp1::ADH1pr-PHYB-GDBD::TRP1, his3Δ::GAL1pr-YFP::HIS3, ade2::ADE2	Ref. [110]
yVG2838	leu2Δ::ADH1pr-GADPIF3::LEU2, trp1::ADH1pr-PHYB-GDBD::TRP1, his3Δ::GAL1pr-YFP::HIS3, ade2::ADE2 yor1::hphMX	This study
yVG2691	cln1Δ cln2Δ cln3Δ::LEU2 clb3::TRP1 clb4Δ::his3Δ::KanMX clb5Δ::HIS3 clb6Δ::KanMX HTB2::HTB2-mCherry::HIS5 ycr051wΔ::PGK1pr-EL222, LIP-PEST-rtTA, tetOpr-CLN2::NatMX	This study

	BUD23::tetOpr-CLB5::PatMX	
yVG2856	*his3Δ::PGK1pr-PEST-rtTA::HIS3* (single copy)	This study
	ura3Δ::tetOpr-yEVenus-PEST::URA3 (single copy)	
yVG2857	*his3Δ::PGK1pr-PEST-rtTA (Phe67Cys)::HIS3* (single copy)	This study
	ura3Δ::tetOpr-yEVenus-PEST::URA3 (single copy)	
yVG2858	*his3Δ::PGK1pr-PEST-rtTA (Arg253Hys)::HIS3* (single copy)	This study
	ura3Δ::tetOpr-yEVenus-PEST::URA3 (single copy)	

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1528   Supplementary Table 3. Number of cells analyzed in Figure 2 B

Experiment	Number of scored cells
LIP-CLB5 cln1-3Δ 20 min pulse	53
LIP-CLB5 cln1-3Δ 40 min pulse	30
LIP-CLN2 cln1-3Δ 20 min pulse	27
LIP-CLN2 cln1-3Δ 40 min pulse	20
LIP-CLB5 cln1-3Δ clb3-6Δ pRD-TW1 20 min	129
LIP-CLB5 LIP-CLN2 cln1-3Δ clb3-6Δ pRD-TW1 40 min	42

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1531   Supplementary Table 4. Distribution of mutation types across campaigns 1-3 for *EL222* compared

1532   to the WT budding yeast mutation spectrum from ref.[194]

Mutation	Count	Percentage	WT budding yeast mutation spectrum[194]
T>C	6	22%	14%
T>A	2	7%	6%
T>G	3	11%	11%
C>A	8	30%	18%
C>G	0	0%	15%
C>T	8	30%	35%
Total transitions	14	52%	49%
Total transversions	13	48%	51%

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1537   Supplementary Table 5. Number of cells analyzed in Figure 4 B

	WT EL222	G94C	V121M	A157V	S137N	G80E	D89Y	AQTrip	T83S	E84K	strongLOV	G82V	L87I
Darkness	246	234	424	144	206	341	341	275	126	227	478	239	248
Low blue LED	329	48	344	155	76	117	151	58	107	81	84	93	93
High blue LED	374	60	320	283	67	58	88	83	95	274	100	43	57

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1541   Supplementary Table 6. Number of cells analyzed in Figure 4 C, G, and K

Figure	mutant	N at 3.5 h
4 C	*wt-EL222*	267
4 C	T83S	105
4 C	G82V	77
4 C	L87I	119
4 C	G80R	79
4 C	A157V	92
4 G	*wt-EL222*	93
4 G	K99E	68
4 G	V201L	31
4 K	*wt-EL222*	121
4 K	T83A	40

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1544   Supplementary Table 7. Number of cells analyzed in Figure 4 F

	V201L	D31Y, V139L	K99E	P165S	D31Y	V139L	WT EL222
Darkness	112	479	188	238	208	362	246
Low blue LED	325	203	330	81	419	209	329
High blue LED	209	382	321	98	466	441	374

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1548   Supplementary Table 8. Number of cells analyzed in Figure 4 J

	WT EL222	E104G	T83A	C75R	V103F	T88P	G136S	E84K	L87P	V41F	E84G
Darkness	246	142	65	135	262	80	141	227	386	149	175
High blue LED	374	107	539	158	558	486	70	274	328	220	96
$\lambda = 488$ nm	438	119	219	326	160	241	303	615	270	193	685
$\lambda = 514$ nm	244	166	256	313	230	261	187	264	420	126	180
$\lambda = 561$ nm	177	267	175	141	204	182	188	204	197	156	101
$\lambda = 651$ nm	202	237	113	232	191	189	183	269	275	278	206

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1552   Supplementary Table 9. Number of cells analyzed in Figure 5 C

	Darkness, no PCB	Darkness, PCB	Light, no PCB	Light, PCB
yor1Δ	133	75	143	71
YOR1	186	83	181	190

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1556   Supplementary Table 10. Number of cells analyzed in Figure 6 D

	WT	F67C	R253H
+ Dox	220	506	467
- Dox	178	273	321

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1560 Supplementary Table 11. Number of cells analyzed in Supplementary Figure 2.

Darkness	229	433	246

AX42 LIP-yEVenus / WT EL222

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1564   Supplementary Table 12. Number of cells analyzed in Supplementary Figure 3.

Darkness	341	183	110	133	217	246	478	114	240	65	198	142	80	135	262	386	227	141	149	175
514 nm	198	331	230	272	324	244	502	105	365	256	127	166	261	313	230	420	264	187	126	180
	D89Y	V103I	P114L	Y108H	P114R	WT EL222	strongLOV	I105V	G80R	T83A	V121L	E104G	T88P	C75R	V103F	L87P	E84K	G136S	V41F	E84G

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