# 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 were devised for evolving steady-state properties such as enzymatic activity or fluorescence intensity. A fundamental problem remains how to evolve dynamic, multi-state, or computational functionalities, e.g., folding times, on-off kinetics, state-specific activity, stimulus-responsiveness, or switching and logic capabilities. These require applying 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 genetically robust. 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 El222. These mutants 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 creating and evolving a destabilized rtTA transcription factor, which performs an AND operation between transcriptional and doxycycline input. Optovolution makes coveted, difficult-to-change protein functionalities 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, either from standing variation or mutagenesis, 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.[10]

One important innovation in the field has been to couple a molecule of interest's functionality to organismal proliferation and fitness, so that continuous *in vivo* self-selection obviates labor-intensive screening[1,11–14]. Another important advance has been to elevate mutation rates only for to-be-evolved genes[15–17].

Despite major progress, current continuous directed evolution methods remain inherently only suited for steady-state functionalities such as enzymatic activity or fluorescence intensity. This is because existing approaches only screen and select for one property of a POI at a time. However, many natural and synthetic biological molecules involve more than one state. 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. Beyond information relays, 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.[18] Such computational capabilities are highly desirable in engineering. Building more intelligent cells needs logic gating of inputs, which is generally designed rationally.[19–23] Evolving proteins with such functionalities 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, e.g., the enzymatic activity in the on (1) state, the other states or the ability to switch to them can be corrupted.[24] For example, long-term directed evolution of GPCRs under constant ligand concentrations reduces ligand responsiveness.[25]

To cope with this limitation, researchers resort to alternating directed evolution campaigns for each of the different states of the POI at a time[26–37]. For example, a bioengineer will assay for on (1) activity under inducing conditions, select candidate mutants, then assay for off (0) activity under non-inducing conditions, select mutants, and repeat this process. Such sequences of alternating directed evolution experiments are not only laborious but do not necessarily succeed, as we show for the –uracil/+5-fluoroorotic acid (-Ura/+FOA) selection/counterselection method[38]. The fundamental weakness of this work-around to evolving multi-state POIs is that in many cases, it is highly probable for mutations to corrupt the states that are not under selection pressure. For example, to decrease leakiness in the (0)

off state, it is more likely to simply acquire loss-of-function mutations than to maintain (1) on state
activity. Furthermore, the kinetics of switching is very difficult to address with such approaches.

In summary, there is an unmet, broad need for better directed evolution approaches for dynamic,
multi-state, and computational protein functionalities. Here, we present the first paradigm that is
germane for these goals, 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 during the same campaign. 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. In turn, by controlling the input to the POI with light
and optogenetics, this selection pressure is shaped by an external signal that is dynamic at the
timescale of a cell cycle and that temporally segregates the effects of the 0 and 1 states of the POI.

We apply optovolution to three systems, the optogenetic transcriptional system EI222 and the
optogenetic dimerization switch 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:

1)     LOV domains make up the core of most non-ion-channel optogenetic systems[39–53], presumably
because they are small, reliable, and do not need exogenous chromophores. Interest in LOV domains
is reflected in multiple diversification campaigns[34,54–56]. The LOV transcription factor EI222, in
particular, is widely used in many biological models from cell-free systems[57], to bacteria[58], yeast[59,60],
mammalian cell lines[61,62], and zebrafish[63]. (See **Supplementary Note 1** for additional information
regarding EI222.) However, less leaky or more light-sensitive variants are needed. A comparison of
different inducible transcriptional systems showed that EI222 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 the need for improvements.[55] For example, for light-controlled
expression of toxic genes, leakiness creates selection pressure for loss-of-function mutations. On the
other hand, maximal transcriptional output with wild-type EI222 is associated with phototoxicity.
Further, all existing LOV systems are only activated by blue light, which has several drawbacks: First,
blue light of sufficient intensity causes phototoxicity.[55,64] Secondly, blue light penetrates skin poorly.[65]
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 mutations, and thereby straightforwardly combine different
systems. Instead, for multiplexing, one currently has to engineer optogenetic systems using different
light-sensitive domains, each representing a challenging endeavor.[66–69] 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.[70] Previous work
to shift the excitation spectrum of LOV domains was based on rational design and achieved a maximal
shift of 8 nm in the absorption peak further toward UV *in vitro*.[71] Using optovolution, we evolved 25
new variants of EI222, including more light sensitive, less leaky, or green- and red-responsive mutants,
paving the way for new applications. In traditional directed evolution approaches, multiple paths to
by-pass our desired goals would have existed involving constitutively on or off mutants.

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[72,73]. For transcriptional induction, PhyB and Pif3 are fused to the Gal4
transcriptional activation domain (AD) and the Gal4 DNA binding domain (DBD), respectively.[74–76] For
use in yeast, *Caenorhabditis elegans*, and mammalian cells, the chromophore PCB has to be
supplemented.[72,74,77] 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.[77–80] 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 already metabolic pathways in cells that
could be unlocked for PhyB-Pif3 to work more straightforwardly. 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. In traditional directed evolution
approaches, by-pass of our desired goal would have consisted of turning PhyB-Pif3 or its downstream
elements on constitutively in the absence of PCB.

3)    While optovolution leverages light for control of directed evolution, the method is not specific
to engineering optogenetic systems. We demonstrate the general applicability of optovolution for
evolving dynamic, multi-state, and computational functionalities by evolving a non-optogenetic logic
gate POI. It is often desirable to condition the activity of molecules on two inputs. This requires an
AND logic gate, which is relatively difficult to create in biological systems compared to OR gates. For
example, researchers may wish to label a subset of cells for lineage tracing which express a certain
gene only at a specific time. To construct such a system, we used the doxycyclin-controlled
transcription factor rtTA[81] and fused it to a PEST degron[82]. This double-lock control represents an AND
gate function between transcriptional and doxycycline input. Without the degron, rtTA protein is
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 initial PEST-rtTA fusion protein produced very weak output. With optovolution,

we evolved two mutants that conferred substantial output from the *tetO* promoter while maintaining minimal leakiness. Note that in traditional directed evolution approaches for increasing the activity of a POI, the degron could simply be corrupted. In contrast, optovolution maintains the dynamic properties POIs by design.

Optovolution is a novel directed evolution paradigm for hitherto difficult-to-modify dynamic, multi-state, and computational functionalities. We have demonstrated 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 two outputs, 0 or 1 (Fig. 1 A). 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 (**Discussion**).

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. If each input channel is binary, there are $2^n$ input-output relations. In practice, the inputs will ideally be controlled with optogenetics because administrating light, even for weeks, is precise, dosable, cheap, and straightforward. Light input to the POI can in principle be direct or through multiple intermediate steps. The POI itself does not have to be light sensitive. Optogenetic transcription factors, kinases, and degrons can mediate the input to a POI. Although light control was involved in a single screening step in past work[30], the general power of optogenetics for directing evolution has hitherto not been recognized (**Discussion**). As output, the POI may, for example, transcriptionally activate, phosphorylate, or degrade its targets, for example.

One could in principle use the same system with chemical inputs to the POI instead of light input. However, the need for repeatedly changing the cell culture medium makes directed evolution with optogenetic control of the inputs to the POI much preferable, if feasible. This is why we refer to our method as 'optovolution'.

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.

For such a broad 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 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-…, will cause skipped cell

cycles. This incurs a large fitness penalty, which gives 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 solve for time-independent protocols in **Supplementary Mathematical Analysis**.

Tunability of the selection pressure is of high practical importance for directed evolution. In our

conceptualized system, the strength and timing of the inputs to the POI would be controlled by light.

Therefore, the selection pressure on each state and on the kinetics of the transitions would be

straightforwardly tunable. For example, input-output relationships could be challenged by

administering light input that is too weak or too strong and then directed evolution would be

expected to improve the input-output by mutational adaptations. Similarly, engaging and releasing

the POI early or, alternatively, with delays, would force adaptations toward improved POI kinetics.

Also, differently engineered genetic backgrounds and different growth conditions would allow further

control over selection pressures on POI states and transitions (**Discussion**). Decades of research into

control of growth, metabolism, and the cell cycle could be used for tuning selection pressures.

## Technical requirements

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 gene, which would be required for one step in

proliferation but block another (Fig. 1 B-D). By engineering the POI to fully control this element, 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 should be easily insertable in a plug-and-evolve fashion.

6.       Stability: Over long periods of directed evolution, cells should maintain a stable genome 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 (≈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 or poisonous for different proliferative steps, one might consider
cell cycle control regulators, which 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[83].
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*[55]. Thus, we pursued
a strategy, in which we re-examined elements of cell cycle control for their potency, that is, 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 EI222 and the
EI222-controlled *LIP* (**Supplementary Note 1**). 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 or in our final strain, see **Supplementary Note 2**.

| Candidate cell cycle regulator controlled by EI222/*LIP* | Genetic background for tests | Result |
|---|---|---|
| CLB2 | *clb1,2Δ* GALL-CLB2 | Constitutive overexpression failed to arrest cell cycle |
| CLB2kdΔ | *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[84], 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, contrary to our
expectations based on strong, multi-copy *GAL1pr-CLB2* over-expression in galactose medium[85,86].
Since Clb2 activity has to be reduced in order to allow 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
concentrations 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[87]. Next, testing the B-type cyclin antagonist *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*. (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 the 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. 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 induces 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.[87] 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*[88,89]. No mutations are known that can by-pass the requirement for Clb5 in a *cln1-3Δ clb3-6Δ* background.[90]

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, thus rescuing such cell cycles[83]. When *SIC1* is deleted, the *cln1-3Δ* arrest becomes leaky[91]. 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%) of 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 begins with counter-selection against this
plasmid. 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*[92,93] 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 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[94,95]. The
poisonous effect of Clb5 can be enhanced by the *SIC1* deletion[96]. We further increased the mutation
rate globally with the *pol3-L523D* mutation[92]. 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 activity 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 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.[97]

Independently of the use for directed evolution, researchers have previously aimed to entrain the cell
cycle-clock to external pulses of a chemical or light. To our knowledge, this is the first case where the
cell cycle is slave to external signals in an evolutionary robust manner.

## Directed evolution of a LOV-transcription factor

The Dajbog strains can in principle be used for generally evolving dynamic, multi-state, and
computational functionalities. We first applied the method to optogenetic systems. Thus, the POI was
the light-sensitive protein. 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. Given that EI222 is itself
widely used and that LOV domains are of broad interest, we chose to evolve EI222 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 EI222 as POI. A. Schematic of wiring diagram for
EI222 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 these
latter conditions, wild-type Dajbog cells did not proliferate.

We used the Dajbog strains with EI222 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 specific selection pressures, in which cells with wild-type EI222 could not

proliferate (Fig. 3 B). (See Supplementary Fig. 1 for the excitation and imaging light spectra.) With cells
spread on agar plates, colonies emerged after about two days.

After evolution, we cloned the mutated *EL222* gene and introduced it as a single copy in wild-type
budding yeast cells where *LIP* drives the transcription of the bright, yeast-optimized *yEVenus*
fluorescent protein gene. Thus, 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 El222 variants. For timecourse measurements, where the dynamic nature of the reporter is
important, we used yEVenus tagged with a PEST degron to reduce the fluorescent protein's half-life[82].
We took fluorescence microscopy images and processed them using YeaZ, a deep neural network for
analyzing yeast images.[98] This approach ensured higher accuracy compared to fluorescence
quantification by flow cytometry, for example[55]. We express all levels in maxGAL1 units, i.e., the
maximum expression level of the same fluorescent reporter when driven by the *GAL1* promoter in
galactose medium, an easy-to-communicate, intuitive unit for transcription. We thus followed the
same method of characterization as was used for benchmarking inducible transcriptional systems in
ref.[55]

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). 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). The
new El222 variants showed improved light sensitivity, with levels of transcription under low-intensity
light up to 16 times higher than with wild-type *EL222*. Several variants were comparable or more light
sensitive than the most sensitive El222 mutant to date, strongLOV, which we had engineered
previously[55].

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[55]. 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 system to match the numbering used in previous work[55,99,100]).

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, proved to be
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. Panels B, F, J show *in vivo* steady-state expression levels of
mutant El222 driving a transcriptional fluorescent reporter under different light exposure conditions. All values are in
maxGAL1 units[55]. In panel B, we included AQTrip[100] 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 region[55]. Error bars show the standard error of the mean around each timepoint. Panels D, H,
K depict the locations of the mutations (red) in the dark-state 3D structure of El222 (PDB ID: 3P7N)[99]. M: Positions of
mutations in 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.[101]. O: Searching for the mutations from our three campaigns in LOV
domains with characterized dark-reversion kinetics[56] (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[55,99,100]. B, C, F, G, J, K: Numbers of analyzed cells are given in the Supplementary Tables 4-7. All measured characteristics of the new El222 mutants have been added to the Inducible Transcriptional Systems Database (https://promoter-benchmark.epfl.ch/)[55].

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 background 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 was lethal to the Dajbog strain with wt-El222 (Fig. 4 E). We identified five new mutations whose leakiness was nearly indistinguishable from levels of background 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).

The number of low-leakiness mutants that we discovered in the second campaign was smaller than the number of light-sensitized mutants we found in the first campaign. We speculate that this is due to the LOV domain of El222 having a relatively fast off rate of 30 sec, substantially faster than many previously characterized LOV domains[54,56]. Thus, there may exist few opportunities for speeding up the off kinetics further without destroying function.

In our third campaign, we sought to modify the nature of the 1-output state with respect to color responsiveness. We switched Dajbog cells from growing under only blue light pulses to 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). We discovered numerous mutations in El222 that allowed colonies to grow under these light pulses. Again, 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*).

Since the green LEDs that we used had an emission spectrum that extended below 500 nm (Supplementary Fig. 1), which overlaps with the excitation spectrum of wt-EI222[99], we next excluded merely light-sensitized mutants with a 514 nm laser. Ten EI222 mutants showed substantial transcription 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 EI222s, 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 (Fig. 4 J) showed that the mutated EI222 variants were not only responsive to green but also to red light. In fact, red 651 nm laser light generated comparable or even stronger responses from our color-shifted EI222 variants. Some of the variants responded to red light much more strongly than wild-type EI222 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 lower level of activity compared to blue or red laser light of low intensity. We characterized the dynamics of a red-shifted mutant using fluorescence microscopy and a *LIP-ymScarletI-PEST* reporter (Fig. 4 K).

While for the light-sensitized and low-leakiness variants, the mutations were mostly away from the photoreceptive core, the red-shifted 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[102]. In *in vitro* experiments, LOV domains without this strictly conserved cysteine were previously shown to incorporate a partially reduced flavin chromophore[103], pointing to one potential explanation for our color-shifted EI222 mutants.

In total, we discovered 25 mutations, mostly in the LOV domain, 1 in the Jα helix, and two in the DNA binding domain (Fig. 4 M).

LOV domain proteins such as EI222 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[54,56,100]. 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 EI222 variant
AQTrip[100]. Similarly, another mutation (E84D) was used to construct the more light-sensitive
strongLOV mutant protein by us recently (Fig. 4 O, blue triangle). 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[54] but we found them, instead,
to lead to lower leakiness and overall weaker responses. These findings further underscore the power
of directed evolution for identifying 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 EI222 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 EI222, 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.

## Comparison with the -Ura/+FOA method

We wished to compare optovolution to other approaches that have been pursued for evolving multi-
state proteins, which rely on sequential directed evolution campaigns for each of the POI output
states. Note that in optovolution, alternating selection for the 0- and 1-output states as well as for
switching back and forth occurs once per cell cycle every ≈90 min. The -Ura/+FOA system represents a
reasonable comparison for optovolution since it requires input-dependent proliferation under two
opposite selection pressures: growth requires induced expression of *URA3* in -Uracil medium and
suppression of *URA3* in 5-FOA medium. This method was used in the directed evolution of the CRY2-
CIB optogenetic system.[27]

For this comparison, we constructed a budding yeast strain in which *URA3* is induced by the EI222/*LIP*
system in a genetic background where the endogenous *URA3* ORF was deleted (Fig. 5). We validated
the *LIP-URA3* construct by confirming that the cells were dead in -Uracil (absence of Uracil) medium in
darkness and viable in -Uracil medium under 30 sec on, 30 sec off pulsing blue light. However, cells

were also dead in 5-FOA medium in darkness, presumably due to the leakiness of EI222/*LIP*. (Note
that we had already sought to minimize leakiness by inserting the *LIP-URA3* construct and *EL222* gene
as single copies.) *URA3* codes for orotidine 5⬚-phosphate decarboxylase, which is a highly proficient
enzyme[104], potentially explaining how even low basal transcription may not be tolerated in 5-FOA
medium.

Because the counter-selection step for low 0-output (off) activity did not yield any surviving mutants,
we did not work to boost the 1-output (on) state of EI222. Instead, we sought to leverage this
sensitivity to 0-output activity to evolve less leaky EI222. We selected for *LIP-URA3 PGK1pr-EL222*
*ura3Δ0* cells that grew on 5-FOA in darkness. However, after sequencing 200 strains that were
resistant to 5-FOA, we could not find mutations in *EL222*. Instead, as expected, some strains had
mutations in the *URA3* gene. Because there was no selection pressure for *URA3* function, it could
simply be corrupted. Such by-pass of the selection pressure by loss-of-function of the POI is
fundamentally impossible in optovolution by design.

Figure 5. Challenges of using the -Ura/+FOA method for the directed evolution of EI222. The test *ura3Δ0* strain carried
single copies of *LIP-URA3* and *PGK1pr-EL222* constructs. The control strain was wild-type W303, which is auxotrophic for
uracil. Because of the inviability of the test strain in darkness on +5-FOA, we could not perform light-sensitization
campaigns. On the other hand, none of 200 mutant colonies that emerged under these conditions had mutations in *EL222*
so that the opposite campaign for low-leakiness mutants also failed.

## 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* circuits. (Fig. 6
A). We screened for mutations allowing cell proliferation without supplementing PCB (Fig. 6 B).

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[105], a homolog of human cystic
fibrosis transmembrane receptor (CFTR)[106], which may prevent the accumulation of a cellular
metabolite with PCB-like tetrapyrrole structure. To test that PhyB-Pif3 functioned due to loss-of-
function of *YOR1*, we deleted *YOR1* in a strain from ref.[76], in which PhyB-Pif3 drives the transcription
of a fluorescent reporter (Fig. 6 C). In the absence of PCB, 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.[107] in which PhyB is anchored to mitochrondria, 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
*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 to showed localization extent
comparable to *yor1Δ* without PCB (r = 0.78, N_cells = 31).

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Figure 6. Directed evolution campaign 4 to lose the dependence of PhyB-Pif3 on PCB. A: Schematic of wiring diagram
relevant for campaign. (CLN2 and other cell cycle regulators omitted for clarity.) AD, activation domain; DBD, DNA binding
domain. B: Schematic of 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 8. 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/)[55].

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

In our fifth evolutionary campaign, we demonstrate that optovolution can generally evolve dynamic,
multi-state, and computational functionalities, not just optogenetic systems. We first 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 EI222/*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. 7 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. 7 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. 7 C). However, the *tetO* promoter is very leaky in budding yeast (*tetOpr-yEVenus*
expression = 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 of the on state.
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*. (While it
turned out to be unnecessary here, one can take various measures to minimize the likelihood of
mutations in the optogenetic mediator (*EL222*), which would be undesired, versus the POI gene,
which would be desired. See **Discussion**.) We discovered two mutations, F67C and R253H (numbering
is with respect to +1 methionine in rtTA). To characterize the *PEST-rtTA* mutants, we introduced them
as single-copy constructs driven by *PGK1pr* into a reporter strain with a single copy of *tetOpr-yEVenus-*
*PEST* (Fig. 7 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. 7 E). Relatedly, in previous directed evolution
experiments of rtTA, F67S was identified as increasing the sensitivity of rtTA (without a degron) to
doxycycline[108].

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 7. 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 campaign. C: Spot test for wild-type
Dajbog1 strain with PEST-rtTA system. 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 9. E: Positions of mutations in domain diagram of PEST-rtTA.

## Discussion

Directed evolution is a powerful tool for biological engineering. 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 that is germane for 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
directed evolution could straightforwardly tune proteins with such capabilities. Apart from interest in

this as a fundamental problem, a solution is also needed for protein engineering since dynamic, multi-
state, and computational properties are of intense current interest, especially, for protein design[109–
113].

The limitation we sought to overcome is that current approaches evolve only one functionality at a
time. Molecular properties that are not under selection pressure can consequently deteriorate during
directed evolution experiments. Not only does the existing work-around for this problem, to run
directed evolution campaigns for each functionality sequentially, require repeated interventions and
take substantial time[27,29,34], it is also inherently challenging: The basal activity of wild-type EI222
prevented us from evolving the on (1) output state using the -Ura/+FOA method. Then, in attempting
to reduce the leakiness of EI222, we did not succeed in finding any mutations in EI222 in the two
hundred 5-FOA-resistant colonies we tested. Presumably, it was significantly more likely to evolve
non-functional mutants than leakiness-reducing mutations. Such likely loss-of-function mutations are
not possible with optovolution.

Another important feature is that, in contrast to approaches that are not continuous, optovolution
obviates manual screening after each round of evolution. In our method, both 0-to-1 and 1-to-0
switching of the POI are 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.

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 in optovolution. As far as we know, this is
the first time that optogenetics has been leveraged for continuous directed evolution.

Furthermore, light control allows tuning the fitness landscape of the POI and thus of the selection
pressure, enabling different evolutionary outcomes depending on the light protocol. 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, 7 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.

There is a multitude of possibilities for adjusting the Dajbog strains for different directed evolution campaigns. Decades of research in growth, metabolism, and cell cycle control as well as a large repertoire of tools from yeast genetics can be leveraged:

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.     Different approaches can be taken to focus directed evolution on the POI instead of the optogenetic system that mediates the input to the POI, minimizing undesired solutions. One method takes advantage of the statistics of mutations and uses multiple copies of the genes encoding the optogenetic system in cells. This approach would have been utilized in our fifth campaign if mutations in *EL222* would have overwhelmed new mutations in *PEST-rtTA*, which was not the case in our experiments. The idea behind this approach is to leverage the extremely low chance that two or more copies of a gene in the same cell, in our example, *EL222*, acquire mutations, much less the same type of mutations (gain or loss of function). Statistically, with 'n' copies of *EL222*, activated with '1/n' fold less light than for inducing cells with a single *EL222* gene, the effect of any mutation is reduced by '1/n'. Even the strongest light-sensitizing mutations of El222 could thus be made ineffective for by-passing selection pressure on the POI, simply by increasing the copy number of *EL222* and proportionally decreasing the light duration or intensity.

4.     A plethora of degrons can be added to reduce the activity of a POI[114].

5.     In principle, optovolution can be extended to any POI that couples to Clb5. While we focused on transcription factors here (El222, PhyB-Pif3, rtTA), Clb5 protein levels could in principle be modulated by other means, including by localization and degradation. The use of more stable destruction-box deficient Clb5db opens up additional such possibilities[96,115,116].

Further, optovolution adapts readily to POIs that function poorly initially. A general challenge with directed evolution is that a POI may be so poor with respect to a desirable 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 many other directed evolution methods. 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.

In our tests, optovolution was efficient. Using the Dajbog strain, mutations in the POI gene evolved
efficiently and by-pass mutations were either observed rarely in Dajbog2 (*sic1Δ*) or were reasonable
in number to quickly find the mutation of interest with Dajbog1 (wt-*SIC1*). The system can in principle
be further optimized to block mutations that are not in the POI gene. After identifying such by-pass
mutations which lead to loss of function, one can effectively prevent them by inserting additional
copies of the gene. (Yeast can tolerate multiple copies of most of its genes[117,118].) Should by-pass
mutations occur in non-essential genes, one can in principle prevent them by deleting the gene in
case of gain-of-function mutations. The deep literature on cell cycle control can be leveraged for
improving optovolution further. Note that 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.[90] It
is unknown whether quintuply mutated Cdk1 could run the Dajbog strains, which have additional
deletions of *CLB3,4*.

Another possible adaptation is to leverage the orthogonal advances that have been made to increase
mutation rates specifically for 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 focus mutation rates on the POI gene to achieve our goals
here. Furthermore, our directed evolution 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 $0.5 \times 10^{-7}$ per base-pair per generation[92]. 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 focused mutations is to
introduce the POI on mutagenized plasmid libraries. Nevertheless, our method is compatible with and
will benefit from combining with targeted *in vivo* mutagenesis systems such as OrthoRep[15],
MutaT7[17,119], or CRISPR-Cas9-[120] or transposon-mediated systems[14].

Optovolution is particularly timely for the revolution that is currently taking place in artificial
intelligence-based protein design. There is a substantial interest in proteins with dynamic, multi-state,
and computational properties[19,121–123]. Prototypes that have been computationally designed can be
screened and improved in a high-throughput manner with optovolution. There is no similarly germane
method available for these protein functionalities currently. 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[124] (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[38,125]. 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[126]. 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[127]. (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 EI222) 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.[76]

## 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 EI222, 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 EI222 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 EI222 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

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)[55].

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-ymScarletI* reporter with the plasmids. While *LIP-ymScarletI* 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. [76] 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[55]. 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 EI222, we induced with diascopic light, as
described previously. To not induce EI222 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[98], a deep neural network for analyzing images of yeast cells.

# Statistics and reproducibility

862 No statistical method was used to predetermine sample size. The values in the heatmaps in Figs. 4
863 and 7 are rounded based on the first significant digit of the standard error of the mean.

# Data and material availability

865 The characteristics of the systems measured in this study have been added to the Inducible
866 Transcriptional Systems Database (https://promoter-benchmark.epfl.ch/)[55]. Any additional data that
867 support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon request.

# Code availability

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

870 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: EI222 optogenetic system

EI222 is a transcription factor from marine bacterium *Erythrobacter litoralis*.[100] EI222 has been adapted for use in eukaryotes by way of a tandem fusion of the prokaryotic EI222 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[99]. Upon blue light illumination, a covalent bond is formed between the Cys-75 residue and the flavin chromophore[102]. (All references to mutant residue numbers in EI222 are given with respect to bacterial EI222 to match the numbering used in previous work[55,99,100].) 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 EI222 binding sites[128] upstream of a minimal eukaryotic promoter as *LIP*.

# Supplementary Note 2: 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.[89] 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[87]. 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[129]. Similarly, the M-phase cyclins Clb1[130] or Clb2[83] 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[91].

While G1/S cyclin and S cyclin expression initiates at about the same time under the control of transcription factors Sbf and Mbf[89], 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[89,131]. 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[132] 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[94–96]. 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.

# Supplementary Note 3: PhyB-Pif3 optogenetic system

Phytochromes are photosensors in plants, bacteria, and fungi[133]. Phytochrome B and its interaction partner Pif3 are used by plants to adapt gene expression to environmental light conditions[134].

The light-inducible PhyB-Pif3 interaction has been extensively used in organisms other than plants[72–75]. 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[73]. In the yeast two-hybrid version of the system, it is used for light-inducible transcriptional control in budding yeast.[74,135] Typically, PhyB and Pif3 are fused to the Gal4 DNA binding domain and the Gal4 transcriptional activation domain, respectively.[74] 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.[136] 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.[136]

## Supplementary Note 4: 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[137]. Mutations that reverse tTA activity with respect to the inducer have been used to construct rtTA.[81] 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.

 ## 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 El222 and its variants (light intensity 8.3
mW/cm$^2$). B: LEDs used to evolve color-shifted El222 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 El222 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 El222 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 El222. 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 10.

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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 |
| $\lambda$ = 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[55]. Numbers of analyzed cells are given in Supplementary Table 11.

 # Supplementary Tables

1323 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. [60] |
| 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. [55] |
| 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* | For integration in a | *CgHIS3* | *AmpR* | This study |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | (yeast codon-optimized) | single copy | | | |
| pVG150 | PGK1pr-EL222 (Ser137Asn) | For integration in a single copy | CgHIS3 | AmpR | This study |
| 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. [55] |
| pVG9 | LIP-yEVenus-PEST | For integration in a single copy | URA3 | AmpR | Ref. [55] |
| pVG175 | LIP-ymScarletI | For integration in a | URA3 | AmpR | This study |

| | | single copy | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 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 |
| pVG183 | LIP-URA3 | For integration in a single copy | *LEU2* | *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. [55] |

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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. [55] |
|---|---|---|
| yVG2840 | *ycr051wΔ::LIP-ymScarletI::URA3* (single copy) | This study |
| yVG2842 | *his3Δ::PGK1pr-EL222::HIS3* (single copy) *ycr051wΔ::LIP-ymScarletI-PEST::URA3* (single copy) | This study |
| yVG1637 | *his3Δ::PGK1pr-EL222::HIS3* (single copy) *ura3Δ::LIP-yEVenus::KanMX* (single copy) | Ref. [55] |
| 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) | This study |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| | *ycr051wΔ::LIP-ymScarletI::URA3* (single copy) | |
| 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) *ycr051wΔ::LIP-ymScarletI::URA3* (single copy) | This study |
| 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. [55] |
| yVG301 | *ura3Δ::GAL1pr-yEVenus-PEST::URA3* | Ref. [55] |
| yVG151 | *PHYB-mCherry-Tom7::LEU2; Bem1-mCitrine-PIF::HIS3* | Ref. [107] |
| 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. [76] |
|---------|------|------|
| yVG2838 | leu2Δ::ADH1pr-GADPIF3::LEU2, trp1::ADH1pr-PHYB-GDBD::TRP1, his3Δ::GAL1pr-YFP::HIS3, ade2::ADE2 yor1::hphMX | This study |
| yVG2265 | his3Δ::PGK1pr-EL222::HIS3 (single copy) ycr051wΔ::LIP-URA3::LEU2 (single copy) | 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 BUD23::tetOpr-CLB5::PatMX | This study |
| yVG2856 | his3Δ::PGK1pr-PEST-rtTA::HIS3 (single copy) ura3Δ::tetOpr-yEVenus-PEST::URA3 (single copy) | This study |
| yVG2857 | his3Δ::PGK1pr-PEST-rtTA (Phe67Cys)::HIS3 (single copy) ura3Δ::tetOpr-yEVenus-PEST::URA3 (single copy) | This study |
| yVG2858 | his3Δ::PGK1pr-PEST-rtTA (Arg253Hys)::HIS3 (single copy) ura3Δ::tetOpr-yEVenus-PEST::URA3 (single copy) | This study |

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1329    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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1332    Supplementary Table 4. 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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1336      Supplementary Table 5. 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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1339    Supplementary Table 6. 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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1343    Supplementary Table 7. 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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1347 Supplementary Table 8. Number of cells analyzed in Figure 6 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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1351    Supplementary Table 9. Number of cells analyzed in Figure 7 D

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

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1355    Supplementary Table 10. Number of cells analyzed in Supplementary Figure 2.

| Darkness | 229 | 433 | 246 |
|----------|-----|-----|-----|

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LIP-yEVenus    WT EL222

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Supplementary Table 11. Number of cells analyzed in Supplementary Figure 3.

| | D89Y | V103I | P114L | Y108H | P114R | WT EL222 | strongLOV | I105V | G80R | T83A | V121L | E104G | T88P | C75R | V103F | L87P | E84K | G136S | V41F | E84G |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 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 |