A yeast mating platform for multiplex screening of fungal GPCR-ligand interactions

Giovanni Schiesaro,[1] Melani Mariscal,[4] Mathias Jönsson,[1] Ricardo Tenente,[3] Mathies B. Sørensen,[2]

Marcus Wäneskog,[1] María Victoria Aguilar-Pontes,[4] Agustina Undabarrena,[1] Marcus Deichmann,[1]

Emma E. Hoch-Schneider,[1] Viji Kandasamy,[1] Thomas M. Frimurer,[3] Antonio Di Pietro,[4] Line

Clemmensen,[2] Michael K. Jensen,[1] Emil D. Jensen[1*]

[1] Novo Nordisk Foundation Center for Biosustainability, Technical University of Denmark, Kgs.

Lyngby, 2800, Denmark

[2] Technical University of Denmark, Department of Applied Mathematics and Computer Science, Kgs.

Lyngby, 2800, Denmark

[3] Novo Nordisk Foundation Center for Basic Metabolic Research, Faculty of Health and Medical

Sciences, University of Copenhagen, Copenhagen, Denmark

[4] Departamento de Genética, Campus de Excelencia Internacional Agroalimentario ceiA3,

Universidad de Córdoba, 14014 Córdoba, Spain

* To whom correspondence should be addressed:

Emil D. Jensen, e-mail: emdaje@biosustain.dtu.dk

Abstract

Fungi are essential members across ecosystems, yet phytopathogenic fungi pose an

increasing risk to crop yields. Despite their ecologic importance, cell-cell communication in

fungi is underexplored, partly due to the lack of high-throughput techniques. Here we

developed a Yeast Mating Platform (YeMaP) to investigate the interaction between fungal G

protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs) and pheromone peptides. We used YeMaP for high-

throughput screening of 8,000 pheromone sequences and identified new peptides with

improved agonism or antagonism action. We found that these peptides can be applied in a

native fungal system such as the plant pathogen *Fusarium oxysporum*, to control hyphal

chemotropism and reduce plant root penetration. Additionally, we utilized YeMaP in a one-

pot assay to investigate how abiotic factors influence the communication of multiple

pheromone-GPCR combinations and found that the cell-cell communication mediated by the

GPCR Ste2 from *F. oxysporum* signalled robustly across different abiotic factors, while other

fungal GPCR-pheromone interactions were more sensitive to changes. Taken together,

YeMaP accelerates the identification of fungal GPCR-peptide interactions by enabling one-

pot assays, and serves as model system for studying fungal cell-cell communication.

Introduction

Fungi are indispensable for fundamental processes of global ecosystems such as the cycling

of carbon, nitrogen, and phosphorus, all of which are critical for the survival of plants and

animals[1]. At the same time, pathogenic fungi pose an increasing threat to global food

security[2]. As climate change intensifies, the available data and simulation models indicate

that plant disease pressures are likely to rise substantially in the near future[3].

To address these emerging challenges, we need a greater understanding of how intra- and

interspecies communication occurs in fungal consortia. G protein-coupled receptors

(GPCRs) are master switches that convert external stimuli into an internally coordinated

cellular response[4]. Through GPCRs, fungi can detect a variety of chemical signals including

pheromones, nutrients, ions, hydrophobic surfaces, or light, allowing them to regulate their

development, metabolism, and virulence[5]. However, our current understanding of the role of

fungal GPCRs is limited[5], and interactions between GPCRs and potential ligands are often

poorly understood, thus hindering the development of new antifungal drugs and sustainable

pest management systems for agriculture[6,7].

The model yeast organism *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* encodes three GPCRs, two of which

are mating receptors, *STE2* and *STE3* expressed in *MAT**a*** and *MAT*α cells, respectively[8]. To

form diploid cells, haploid *MAT*α cells communicate through an unmodified short peptide (α-

factor) to *MAT**a*** cells, which respond with a post-translationally modified peptide (**a**-factor)[9].

In contrast, in the asexual plant pathogen *Fusarium oxysporum (Fo),* autocrine pheromone

communication regulates conidial germination[10], and the *Fo STE2* homolog is required for

hyphal chemotropism toward plant roots[11]. A similar mechanism has recently been shown in

Fusarium graminearum[12], pointing towards a conserved mechanism of plant recognition

across the ascomycota phylum. Fungal mating receptors have been expressed in

Saccharomyces cerevisiae for pathogen detection[13] or to establish orthogonal

communication[14] in biosensor strains. However, cell-cell communication between GPCRs

and pheromones has never been explored in multiplex assays to mimick the presence of

multiple fungal organisms, although such a setup would better reflect the complexity of real-

world interactions[15]. Additionally, fungal pheromones are partly conserved among closely

related species[16] and thus could function in interspecies communication[17]. This suggests

that the yeast mating system could serve as a tool to study fungal cell-cell communication.

Unlike GPCR-based biosensors[18], successful yeast mating requires the secretion and

detection of pheromones along with the downstream activation of a developmental program

for cell and nuclear fusion[19]. Here, we established a yeast mating platform (YeMaP) for

analyzing interactions between fungal GPCRs and pheromone variants. We used YeMaP to

study fungal cell-cell communication from four different perspectives: i) the interaction

between a fungal GPCR and a pheromone, ii) screening of a library of peptide variants for

identification of a synthetic pheromone with higher potency on the *F. oxysporum* Ste2

GPCR, iii) modeling cell-cell communication within fungal consortia, and iv) assessing the

effects of external factors such as pH, nitrogen source, plant peroxidases, or different

pheromone supplementations, on a network of library-on-library interactions. We further

validate that both natural and artificial pheromones selected from YeMaP screening also

confer function in the native fungal pathogen *F. oxysporum,* demonstrating that they trigger

strong hyphal chemotropism while interfering with fungal penetration of plant roots.

Altogether, YeMaP accelerates functional analysis of isolated fungal GPCRs, enabling large-

scale exploration of GPCR-targeted pest management strategies.

Results

Engineering yeast mating to study fungal GPCR-pheromone interactions (One-on-One)

To define the best design for establishing a synthetic mating platform to study network

interactions among multiple fungal GPCRs, we initially focused on the Ste2 GPCRs from

Candida albicans (*Ca*) and *Fusarium graminearum* (*Fg*), which had previously been

expressed in yeast[14,20,21] (Fig. 1A). Since asymmetry in sexual pheromones is not required

between yeast mating pairs[22], we first sought to identify which combination of mating-types

was more suitable for heterologous GPCR expression and alpha pheromone secretion[23]. To

this aim, we co-cultured two yeast strains of opposite mating-types expressing either a

fungal GPCR or a cognate pheromone, followed by growth-based diploid selection on

plates[22,24]. We found that the substitution of the native *STE3,* with the heterologous GPCR,

in *MAT*α cells and the production of the cognate alpha pheromone in *MAT***a** cells resulted in

the highest diploid frequencies. Specifically, for the *Ca* GPCR-pheromone pair this setup

yielded a 33-fold higher diploid frequency than the opposite combination (p<0.0001) (Fig.

1B), corroborating a previous study by Huberman *et al.*[24].

Next we asked if mimicking increased pheromone expression during native yeast mating is

an essential feature[9,20]. This was done by comparing diploid frequencies from strains

showing either constitutive or inducible expression of the cognate heterologous pheromone.

Higher diploid frequencies were obtained when the heterologous pheromones were

expressed from the inducible *MFA2* promoter[25] compared to the strong constitutive *TDH3*

promoter[26], although the difference was only statistically significant when the strains were

deleted for both **a**-factor genes, *MFA1* and *MFA2* (p=0.039 with *Ca*.Ste2 and p=0.005 with

Fg.Ste2) (Fig. 1C). Importantly, no diploid formation was observed when a given GPCR-

expressing strain was co-cultured with strain expressing a non-cognate pheromone (Fig.

1C).

Once the optimal strain design had been established, we evaluated the specificity of the

YeMaP by performing a "One-on-One" mating matrix with strains expressing 8 different

fungal GPCR and strains secreting 8 different pheromones. The native *Sc* system and an

empty construct were added as positive and negative controls, respectively (Fig. 1D). Here

we observed promiscuity of the *Beauveria bassiana* (*Bb*) GPCR (*Bb*.Ste2) towards

pheromones from other species such as *F. oxysporum (Fo)* or *Hypocrea jecorina* (*Hj*).

Furthermore, *Fo* pheromone induced diploid formation upon co-culture with cells expressing

the GPCRs *Fg*.Ste2, *Fo*.Ste2, or *Bb*.Ste2 (Fig. 1D).

We performed further validation in the biosensor assay[14] with four selected GPCRs

(*Fg*.Ste2, *Fo*.Ste2, *Bb*.Ste2, and *Botrytis cinerea* (*Bc*) *Bc*.Ste2) and their chemically

synthesized cognate pheromones. Biosensor assays[14] were performed using a Green

Fluorescent Protein (yEGFP) reporter as readout (Fig. 1E), while in parallel comparing the

results to the mating-based selection assay in culture tubes, to evaluate which of the two

approaches yielded the highest resolution (Fig. 1F). We observed a binary (on/off) behavior

for the biosensors, with *Bb*.Ste2 showing almost full activation in response to *Fg* pheromone,

and *Fo*.Ste2 exhibiting a strong activation when exposed to either *Bb* or *Fg* pheromones

(Fig. 1E). However, these three strong heterologous GPCR-ligand responses did not

correlate with diploid formation rate in the Yeast Mating Platform (YeMaP), which were lower

in comparison to the corresponding cognate pheromone interactions (Fig. 1F). The observed

differences between mating pathway activation in the biosensor assay and diploid formation

in YeMaP suggests that pheromone-induced signaling alone is not sufficient to trigger the

much more complex mating response. Validation of the mating matrix in culture tubes

recapitulated the same trends as shown in Fig. 1D, yet with a higher diploid frequency in this

condition (Fig. 1F).

To further explore on the observed cross-reactivity between *Bb*.Ste2 and *Fo* pheromone

detected in the YeMaP assay, along with the documented protective effect of *Bb* against *Fo*

on crops[27,28], we investigated if the species *Bb* is able to sense and respond to *Fo*

pheromone. Indeed, either *Bb* or *Fo* pheromone induced a significant chemotropic response

in *Bb* germ tubes ($p < 0.05$) at a concentration of 378 µM, whereas a scrambled version of the

Fo pheromone did not (Supplementary Fig. 1).

Taken together, these results demonstrated that the YeMaP assay provides a superior

resolution in deciphering GPCR-pheromone interactions than the previously reported yeast

biosensor assay. We therefore asked if YeMaP, unlike biosensors, is able to scale

investigations by enabling mating-based selection of pheromone-GPCR interactions in a

multiplex setup.

Fig. 1. YeMaP correctly identifies fungal GPCR-pheromone interactions. **A** The One-on-One setting involves

co-culturing two yeast strains in which half of the mating communication system has been replaced with

heterologous fungal components; one cell expresses a given fungal Ste2 GPCR homolog while a second cell

secretes a given fungal alpha pheromone. After successful mating, diploid cells are formed and selected. **B**

Comparison of co-cultures expressing *Candida albicans* (*Ca*) or *Fusarium graminearum* (*Fg*) components under

the following conditions: *MAT**a*** cells expressing either the *Ca* or *Fg* alpha pheromone from the *MFA2* promoter

(*Ca*: GEN29, *Fg*: GEN35) and *MAT*α cells expressing either the *Ca* or *Fg* Ste2 GPCR (*Ca*: GEN36, *Fg*: GEN37);

or *MAT***a** cells expressing the fungal GPCR (*Ca*: GEN100, *Fg*: GEN78) and *MAT*α cells expressing the *Ca* or *Fg*

alpha pheromone from the *MFα1* promoter (*Ca*: GEN76, *Fg*: GEN77). *MFA2* and *MFα1* promoters were selected

as the strongest inducible pheromone promoters based on previous studies[20,29]. **C** Diploid frequency comparison

between different designs. From left to right: GEN18 and GEN27 were co-cultured as a positive control (Wild

type); GEN36 (*Ca*.Ste2) co-cultured with GEN28 (P$_{TDH3}$-*Ca*.P); with GEN29 (P$_{MFA2}$-*Ca*.P); or with GEN55 (P$_{MFA2}$-

Ca.P, *mfa1Δ*, *mfa2Δ*). GEN37 (*Fg*.Ste2) co-cultured with GEN34 (P$_{TDH3}$-*Fg*.P); with GEN35 (P$_{MFA2}$-*Fg*.P); or with

GEN58 (P$_{MFA2}$-*Fg*.P, *mfa1Δ*, *mfa2Δ*); and GPCRs combined with non-cognate pheromone GEN55 + GEN37; and

GEN58 + GEN36. **D** Yeast mating matrix with *MAT*α strains individually expressing 8 different fungal Ste2

GPCRs (columns), co-cultured with either of 8 alpha pheromone-secreting *MAT***a** strains (rows). As positive and

negative controls, respectively, strains expressing either *Sc* Ste2 or alpha pheromone, or strains lacking a GPCR

or a pheromone were used. Blue gradient is set to a maximum of 3% of diploid frequency, with values >3%

colored in black. Complete list of organisms and pheromone sequences is in Supplementary Table 1. **E**

Activation levels of *Fg*.Ste2 (CPK366), *Fo*.Ste2 (GEN70), *Bb*.Ste2 (GEN71) and *Bc*.Ste2 (GEN128) biosensors

(columns), incubated with 10 µM alpha pheromone from *Fg*, *Fo*, *Bb*, or *Bc* (rows). The fluorescent signal was

normalized to the yEGFP background value (receptor without pheromone). **F** Validation of the mating matrix in

culture tubes. Strains individually expressing the 4 indicated GPCRs (columns) were co-cultured with those

secreting the indicated alpha pheromone (rows). Blue gradient is set to a maximum of 30% of diploid frequency,

with values >30% colored in black. Plating was performed in three technical triplicates in **D**. Co-cultures were

performed in three biological replicates and three technical replicates in **B**, **C,** and **F**. Experiments were

conducted in four biological replicates in **E**. Statistical significance was determined in **B** through two-way analysis

of variance (ANOVA) with Tukey's multiple comparisons (✱p ≤ 0.05, ✱✱✱p ≤ 0.001); and in **C** with one-way

ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons tests in GraphPad Prism (✱p ≤ 0.05, ✱✱p ≤ 0.01).

Screening a library of pheromone variants on a fungal GPCR to identify improved

pheromone agonists (Library-on-One).

We next asked whether the YeMaP assay could be used to screen for improved alpha

pheromone agonists. Several *Sordariomycetes* with relevant ecological roles have alpha

pheromones sharing a similar backbone[16,30]. Given this natural resemblance, and building on

the deciphered interactions shown above (Fig. 1F), we constructed an alpha pheromone

library (named YPL1) encoding 8,000 pheromone peptide variants to reach saturation of

three internal residues in the sequence WCXXXGQPCW (where X is any possible amino

acid in position 3, 4, and 5), while preserving the two essential residues Gly6-Gln7

responsible for maintaining the three-dimensional structure of the *Fo* alpha pheromone[31]. By

adapting a recently established state-of-the-art yeast transformation method[32], we

transformed over 1.8×10^6 yeast cells, obtaining a 6.9-fold coverage of our DNA-encoded

pheromone library (8,000 peptides = 262,144 nucleotide variants), with each individual cell

expressing a single alpha pheromone variant.

To search for pheromone agonists in a multiplex pool, we co-cultured the YPL1 library with

cells individually expressing Ste2 GPCRs from the plant pathogens *Fg*, *Fo*, or *Bc*, or from

the insect pathogen *Bb*. The culture was sequentially enriched for diploid cells before the

DNA was extracted from the pool and analyzed by Next-Generation Sequencing (NGS) (Fig.

2A). After normalizing the counts in Reads Per Million (RPM) and subtracting the reads of

the library before the co-cultures, we observed a specific and exclusive enrichment for the

Bb alpha pheromone in the *Bb*.Ste2 co-cultures (+307 RPM) and for the *Fg* alpha

pheromone in the *Fg*.Ste2 co-cultures (+807 RPM). Strikingly, the *Fo* alpha pheromone was

by far the most highly enriched sequence for the four Ste2 receptors tested in our screen

(>340,000 RPM per sample).

To validate the YeMaP results, we performed dose-response curves with chemically

synthesized versions of 10 different alpha pheromone sequences selected among the top 20

most abundant pheromone sequences obtained from both biological replicates for each

GPCR (Supplementary Fig. 2 and Supplementary Table 2). When incubated with the Ste2

GPCR for which they were originally enriched, seven out of the ten selected peptides

induced strong activation (≥150-fold increase over background) of the pheromone response

pathway (Fig. 2B-E), while two out of the remaining three pheromones induced a low

activation (≥1.5-fold increase over background) (Supplementary Fig. 3A).

The *Bb* and *Fo* alpha pheromones, which previously produced similar diploid frequencies

(Fig. 1D), displayed two distinct half-maximal effective concentration (EC_{50}) values in the

Bb.Ste2 biosensor strain (Fig. 2E). The EC_{50} of the *Fo* pheromone was 3,910-fold higher

than that of the Bb pheromone (Fo_EC$_{50}$ = 9.58 x 10^{-7} M and Bb_EC$_{50}$ = 2.45 x 10^{-10} M). We

further noted that the alpha pheromone Agonist 1 (A1), which contains a conserved Arg4

residue preceded by Leu3 and followed by Pro5, a combination not found in any known

organism (Supplementary Fig. 2), exhibited a potency similar to that of the Bb pheromone

(A1_EC$_{50}$ = 4.82 x 10^{-10} M). Furthermore, our screening identified two other agonist

pheromones, A4 and A5, both carrying a conserved Trp4, whose EC$_{50}$ for Fo.Ste2 was at

least 13-fold lower than that of the native Fo alpha pheromone (A4_EC$_{50}$ = 5.16 x 10^{-10} M,

A5_EC$_{50}$ = 2.31 x 10^{-9} M, compared to Fo_EC$_{50}$ = 2.92 x 10^{-8} M). While the A5 sequence

was present in the Fo alpha factor pro-sequence (Supplementary Table 4)$,$ the A4 agonist

contains an Ala5, representing a novel synthetic alpha pheromone with significantly

increased potency, which requires 57 times less pheromone to achieve the same EC$_{50}$ as

the native Fo alpha pheromone (Fig. 2D).

Molecular dynamic (MD) simulations suggested that Fo pheromone, A5, and A4 share the

same binding pose within the orthosteric pocket of Fo.Ste2, in which the carboxylic acid

functional group of Trp10 forms salt bridges with Arg84 and Arg187 (Supplementary Fig. 4).

We further noted that A4 had the most stable conformation from residues 5-10, especially in

Trp10, which is the anchoring residue to the bottom of the orthosteric binding pocket

(Supplementary Fig. 4B).

Next, we asked if our YeMaP dataset could also detect potential alpha pheromone

antagonists. By searching for underrepresented sequences in our analysis, we noted that a

peptide encoded in the alpha factor pro-sequences of the entomopathogenic fungi

Cordyceps militaris and *Beauveria asiatica* (Supplementary Table 4) was consistently

lacking in the Fg.Ste2, Fo.Ste2, and Bc.Ste2 post mating enrichments, while its enrichment

was observed for Bb.Ste2 (+7,508 RPM). Therefore, we speculated that this alpha

pheromone (named Cm) could function as a potential GPCR antagonist that inhibits diploid

formation. To test this idea, we obtained the chemically synthesized Cm pheromone and

found that it triggered the activation of Bb.Ste2 and Fo.Ste2, but not of Fg.Ste2 or Bc.Ste2.

When co-incubated with the lowest pheromone concentration capable of inducing GPCR

activation, the *Cm* pheromone showed an antagonistic effect on *Bc*.Ste2 (Supplementary

Fig. 3B), with a half-maximal inhibitory concentration (IC_{50}) of 1 µM (Fig. 2F). This IC_{50} was

reached with a 2,000-fold excess of the antagonist compared to the agonist. A similar

antagonistic effect was detected for the *Bb* pheromone during co-incubation with *Bc*.Ste2,

while no such effect was observed with the *Fo* pheromone (Fig. 2G). Interestingly, the two

antagonistic pheromones *Cm* and *Bb* share eight out of nine residues with the *Bc*

pheromone. Furthermore, the antagonistic effect was only observed when the two residues

Arg4 and Pro5 (not present in *Fo* pheromone) were preceded by either Leu3 or Met3 instead

of Gly3, combined with the presence of an additional Trp10 residue, which is lacking in the

nine-residues *Bc* pheromone (Supplementary Tables 1-2). The antagonistic effect of the *Cm*

pheromone was further confirmed in a mating assay. When a co-culture consisting of strains

expressing *Bc* GPCR and *Bc* pheromone was incubated with 50 µM of *Cm,* a 2-fold

reduction in diploid formation (p=0.0071) was detected compared to the same co-culture

incubated with 50 µM of scrambled peptide (Supplementary Fig. 3D).

In conclusion, by using a straightforward "Library-on-One" YeMaP assay we identified novel

alpha pheromone agonists as well as an antagonist, by choosing the most or least enriched

sequences, respectively, followed by simple validation assays.

Fig. 2. Identification of agonists and an antagonist by screening a library of pheromone variants. A A library of 8,000 alpha pheromone variants expressed in yeast (YPL1) was co-cultured with yeast strains expressing GPCRs *Bb*.Ste2 (GEN88), *Fg*.Ste2 (GEN87), *Fo*.Ste2 (GEN90) or *Bc*.Ste2 (GEN89) for 20 h in shake flasks (2 flasks per GPCR). After 2 days of enrichment for diploid cells, gDNA was extracted and used for sequencing on NextSeq 500. **B-E** Dose-response curves of the most enriched pheromones in combination with **B** *Bb*.Ste2 (*Fo*, A1 and A2); **C** *Fg*.Ste2 (*Fo* and A3); **D** *Fo*.Ste2 (*Fo*, A4, and A5); and **E** *Bc*.Ste2 (*Fo* and A6) were compared with the cognate pheromone of each GPCR (*Bb*, *Fg*, *Fo*, and *Bc*, respectively). **F** Inhibition curve of *Bc*.Ste2 (GEN128) co-cultured with 0.0005 µM of cognate *Bc* pheromone and increasing concentrations of *Cm* pheromone. **G** Fold change activation of *Bc*.Ste2 over non-treated control upon addition of 0.0005 µM *Bc* pheromone alone or in combination with 10 µM of either Scrambled (negative control), *Bb*, *Cm* or *Fo* pheromone. 10 µM of Scrambled peptide alone was used as negative control. Note that *Bc* + Scrambled and *Bc* + *Fo* do not differ significantly from *Bc* alone, and that activation by *Bc* was completely abolished in the presence of *Bb* or *Cm* pheromones. Means represent four biological replicates. Statistical significance was determined using one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparison test in GraphPad Prism ($****p < 0.0001$).

Abiotic and external factors shape the interaction networks between multiple fungal

pheromone-GPCR signalling components (Library-on-Library).

External parameters such as pH or nitrogen source act as potent regulators of fungal growth,

development, and pathogenicity[33]. Here we analyzed the effect of such abiotic factors on

fungal GPCR-based cell-cell communication in multiplex (Fig. 3A). To this aim, we

introduced a barcode system based on the Cre-lox recombinase[34], which allows to

genetically detect the occurrence of mating between two yeast strains, each expressing a

given Ste2 GPCR or an alpha pheromone. In brief, each haploid cell contains a conserved

region flanked by a unique barcode of 20 bp, a spacer, and a Lox site (Table 5). After

successful mating, a unidirectional recombination event positions the two barcodes on the

same chromosome[35] (Fig. 3A). Quantitative PCR (qPCR) was used to detect the two

barcodes and reveal the association between any given pheromone and GPCR, allowing us

to estimate the relative abundances of diploid cell type in a pool. The relative abundance of a

diploid combination was compared with the abundance of all diploids containing the

conserved regions (R1 + R3) flanking the two barcodes (see Methods section).

We first tested the specificity of the system by running 4 different co-cultures and

combinations of these co-cultures in consortia, by assessing whether the two barcode sites

were on the same chromosome (Supplementary Fig. 5). The strains lacking constructs

(no_Pheromone, no_GPCR) were capable of forming diploids in co-culture (Fig. 1D and

Supplementary Fig. 5), but were not detected in consortia with other strains (Supplementary

Fig. 5). Introduction of barcodes in the remaining strains expressing pheromones or GPCRs

allowed specific amplification and quantification of diploids by qPCR. From all co-cultures

tested, the relative abundance of diploids detected with each set of primers was comparable

(Supplementary Fig. 6 and Supplementary Data 3).

To mimic the presence of multiple fungal organisms of ecological interest, we performed

consortia combining yeast strains expressing either *Fg*, *Fo*, *Hj*, *Bb* Ste2 GPCRs with strains

individually secreting the respective cognate alpha pheromones, as well as the two negative

controls (empty strains). These 10 different strains were combined into pre-culture tubes

under different conditions, including three different pHs (unbuffered, pH=6, or pH=7), or in

the presence of Horse Radish Peroxidase (pH=6 + HRP) to mimic a plant root

environment[11]. Interestingly, the *Fo* pheromone-GPCR system was the most robust and

consequently more effective in the formation of diploid cells in all the conditions tested (Fig.

3B-E). Conversely, in the *Fg* pheromone-GPCR system which had the second most

abundant diploid formation in unbuffered media or in media buffered at pH=6 or pH=7, the

presence of HRP significantly reduced the formation of diploid cells (p=0.023,

Supplementary Fig. 7A).

Overall, with the exception of *Fo* GPCR and *Fo* pheromone-expressing strains, a reduction

in diploid formation was observed at increasing pH values or in the presence of HRP

(Supplementary Fig. 7A). Importantly, the results of this library-on-library approach were

consistent with those from individual co-cultures (one-on-one) containing only one strain

expressing a given GPCR and another secreting a given alpha pheromone from *Fg*, *Fo*, *Bb*,

or *Hj* (Supplementary Fig. 7B).

In contrast to the above approach, the yeast biosensor assay failed to detect a difference in

signaling behaviour between *Fo*.Ste2 and the remaining GPCRs when exposed to HRP. We

observed activation of the control strain lacking a GPCR in unbuffered Synthetic Complete

(SC) media supplemented with 2 µM HRP, as well as a general activation (≈1.5 fold increase

in yEGFP fluorescence) at pH=6 with 2 µM HRP, both in the control strain and in all the

biosensors tested (Supplementary Fig. 8A-B).

Taken together, these results demonstrate that a synthetic mating platform can be used to

simultaneously study the effect of abiotic factors on cell-cell communication between fungal

GPCRs and alpha pheromones. Furthermore, we found that a library-on-library approach

leads to similar results as a one-vs-one approach, and that *Fo* GPCR-pheromone

communication was not affected by the different external factors tested.

Fig. 3. Abiotic and external factors govern fungal cell-cell communication mediated by GPCR-pheromone

interactions. A Schematic illustration of the barcode system. *MAT***a** and *MAT*α cells contain a barcode flanked

by a conserved region and a Cre-Lox recombination site on chromosome X. After successful mating the two

barcodes can recombine and become located on the same chromosome. **B-E** Chord diagrams of consortia

combining yeast strains expressing either *F. graminearum* (*Fg*), *F. oxysporum* (*Fo*), *H. jecorina* (*Hj*), *B. bassiana*

(*Bb*) Ste2 GPCRs with strains individually secreting the respective cognate alpha pheromones, as well as the two

negative controls (empty strains) in the following media: **B** Unbuffered pH=5.6; **C** buffered at pH=6; **D** buffered at

pH=7; and **E** buffered at pH=6 supplemented with 1 µM Horse Radish peroxidase (HRP). Dark color represents

the GPCR-expressing strain while the lighter version represents the strain secreting the cognate alpha

pheromone. Orange=*Fo*, Blue=*Fg*, Green=*Bb*, Red=*Hj*, Violet=negative control with empty constructs. Arcs

represent the connection between a GPCR and a pheromone-expressing strain. The size of an arc reflects the

average relative abundance of a diploid cell. Relative quantification was done by comparing the cycle threshold

(Ct) value of every possible combination of two barcodes with the Ct value of the conserved region flanking all

barcodes. All experiments were conducted in three biological replicates.

External pheromone supplementation alters the cell-cell communication of phytopathogen

GPCRs in a fungal consortium.

After using the YeMaP platform to determine the effect of abiotic factors on four different

fungal GPCR-pheromone pairs and showing the robustness of the *Fo* signalling

components, we next explored if external addition of a pheromone could reshape a network

of pheromone-GPCR interactions. With the goal of limiting the pheromone-GPCR systems

from the two plant pathogens *Fo* and *Fg*[36] and promoting those from the non-

pathogenic/commensal fungi *Bb* and *Hj*[37,38] we tested the effect of supplementing either

scrambled, *Cm*, or A4 peptide.

In SC media without external pheromone supplementation or containing 10 µM of scrambled

peptide, almost all diploids detected were formed from the *Fo*.Ste2 + *Fo*.Pheromone or

Fg.Ste2 + *Fg*.Pheromone pairs (Fig. 4A-B). By contrast, external supplementation of *Cm*

pheromone resulted in a 0.2-fold decline in diploids containing *Fo*.Ste2 (p=0.001)

concomitant with a 2.2-fold increase in diploids containing *Fg*.Ste2 (p=0.015), while addition

of A4 peptide triggered an 8.7-fold or 12.1-fold increase in formation of diploids containing

Bb.Ste2 (p=0.004) or *Hj*.Hpr2, respectively (p=0.001), together with a 19-fold increase in the

negative control lacking a GPCR (p=0.013) (Fig. 4C-D).

Fig. 4. GPCR-mediated cell-cell communication in a consortium can be controlled by external pheromone supplementation. Starting from a consortium in SC media without external supplementation of pheromone in **A**, we added 10 µM of either scrambled peptide (negative control) **B**, *Cm* pheromone **C**, or A4 pheromone **D**. On the left, in the chord diagrams a dark color represents the GPCR-expressing strain while the lighter version represents the strain secreting the cognate pheromone. Orange=*F. oxysporum* (*Fo*), Blue=*F. graminearum* (*Fg*), Green=*B. bassiana* (*Bb*), Red= *H. jecorina (Hj)*, Violet=negative control with empty constructs. Every arc

represents the connection between a GPCR and a pheromone strain. The size of an arc reflects the average

relative abundance of a diploid cell. Relative quantification was done by comparing the Ct value of every possible

combination of two barcodes with the Ct value of the conserved region flanking all barcodes. On the right, the bar

plots represent the distribution of pheromone secreting strains that have successfully mated with each of the five

GPCR-expressing strains. All experiments were conducted in three biological replicates.

A4 peptide supplementation reduced the presence of diploids with *Fo*.Ste2 by 0.2-fold

(p=0.001), without increasing the presence of diploids containing *Fg*.Ste2. *Fg*.Ste2 and

Fg.Pheromone interaction was reduced by 0.3-fold, however, *Fo*.Pheromone strain

compensated for the final amount of diploids containing *Fg*.Ste2 (Supplementary Fig. 9A).

Furthermore, media with different nitrogen sources, which are commonly used as fertilizers,

affected the relative distribution of diploid abundances. Compared to SC media with

ammonium sulfate alone (SC), SC media supplemented both with ammonium sulfate and

Urea (SC-AS/Urea) led to a 4-fold and 20-fold increase of diploids containing *Bb*.Ste2 and

Hj.Hpr2, respectively (Supplementary Fig. 9B). By contrast, the presence of urea did not

affect the abundance of diploids with *Fo*.Ste2 or the control strain with no_GPCR, but led to

a 0.8-fold decrease in the abundance of diploids with *Fg*.Ste2 (Supplementary Fig. 9B).

In summary, YeMaP reconstructed a network of interactions between different fungal alpha

pheromones and GPCRs, enabling us to test how external pheromone supplementation

could interfere with GPCR-mediated cell-cell communication in fungal pathogens.

YeMaP findings are reproduced in vivo in the phytopathogen F. oxysporum.

To validate our YeMaP findings in an *in vivo* fungal system, we tested how external

pheromone supplementation affects GPCR-dependent functions in the plant pathogen *F.*

oxysporum. As previously reported[10] we found that exogenous addition of 400 µM alpha

pheromone from *Fo* or *Bb*, or of the synthetic agonist A4, caused a significant reduction of *F.*

oxysporum microconidia germination (Supplementary Fig. 10). We next tested the

chemoattractant activity of the different pheromones using an established chemotropism

assay[11]. Interestingly, *Fo* and A4, the two peptides selected in the mating enrichment screen

with the YeMaP platform (see Library-on-One section), induced a significant chemotropic

response in *F. oxysporum* germ tubes, whereas the *Bb* pheromone and the scrambled

peptide did not (Fig. 5A). Furthermore, when *F. oxysporum* microconidia were exposed to

two competing chemoattractant gradients, A4 fully abolished hyphal chemotropism towards

Fo pheromone, while *Bb* pheromone only achieved a partial reduction (Fig. 5B). Both A4 and

Fo pheromone were able to invert directional growth of *F. oxysporum* germ tubes towards

tomato root exudate (RE), while *Bb* pheromone annulled the RE response and scrambled

peptide had no significant effect (Fig. 5C).

Given their strong chemoattractant effect, we hypothesized that *Fo* and A4 pheromone could

interfere with *F. oxysporum* infection in tomato roots. While exogenous addition of *Fo* or A4

pheromone led to increased adhesion of the *F. oxysporum* germ tubes, either among

themselves or to tomato roots (Supplementary Fig. 12, Fig. 5D), after careful washing of the

root surface (Supplementary Fig. 11A-B) a significant reduction in fungal biomass was

detected in inoculated roots treated with *Fo* or A4 pheromone compared to the untreated

infected roots (Fig. 5E). Despite this short term reduction in fungal biomass within the root,

no significant difference in plant survival between the treatments were observed after 50

days (Fig. 5F).

Fig. 5. YeMaP-selected pheromones trigger *F. oxysporum* hyphal chemotropism and interfere with plant root penetration.

Directed growth of *F. oxysporum* (*Fo*) germ tubes embedded in water-agar after 13⎵h exposure to gradients of the indicated compounds. **A** Directed growth towards gradients of 400 μM of the following pheromones: scrambled peptide (neg. control), *B. bassiana* (*Bb*), *Fo*, or A4 (Agonist 4). All pheromones were tested against the solvent (50% methanol). **B** Simultaneous exposure to competing gradients of 400 μM *Fo* pheromone, opposed to either solvent or 400 μM scrambled peptide, *Bb* pheromone or A4. **C** Simultaneous exposure to competing gradients of tomato root exudate (RE), opposed to either solvent or 400 μM scrambled peptide, *Bb* or *Fo* pheromone, or A4 peptide. **D** Fluorescence microscopy of tomato roots subjected to the indicated treatments, 3 days after inoculation with microconidia of *F. oxysporum*. Fungal cell walls were stained with WGA-Alexa Fluor 488 (green) while plant cell walls were stained with propidium iodide (red). Scale bar, 50 μm. **E** Fungal DNA in inoculated tomato roots was measured by qPCR of the *Fol4287*-specific *actine* gene using total DNA extracted 3 days after inoculation. Fungal burden was calculated using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method and normalized to the tomato *gapdh* gene. **F** Kaplan-Meier plot showing survival of groups of 10 tomato plants (cv. Momotaro) inoculated by pipetting on top of the roots a suspension of 3.2 x 10^6 microconidia/ml supplemented either with the solvent (infected), or with the indicated pheromone (infected + Fo phero, infected + A4 phero). Water without microconidia was used as negative control (uninfected). Data shown are from one representative experiment. The experiment was performed twice with similar results.

In **A**, **B**, **C** and **E**, means represent three biological replicates. Statistical significance was determined using one-

way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparison test in GraphPad Prism (✱:✱:p ≤ 0.01, ✱✱✱p⌐≤⌐0.001,

✱✱✱✱*p* ≤ 0.0001).

In conclusion, the *in vivo* experiments confirmed the utility of the YeMaP in the identification

of bioactive pheromones and in particular an artificial agonist with improved properties on

chemoattraction of *F. oxysporum* germ tubes and in reduction of fungal root penetration

during early stages of infection.

Discussion

Fungal hyphae can sense a variety of chemical cues, allowing them to grow towards nutrient

sources, mating partners, or host organisms[39]. Here we established YeMaP, a synthetic

yeast mating platform able to decipher fungal GPCR-pheromone interactions. We used the

platform to investigate how such interactions are affected by external factors or can be

manipulated through exogenous pheromone supplementation.

YeMaP exhibited an increased resolution compared to the standard designs for yeast

biosensors[13,40,41](Fig 1E-F). This improvement can be attributed to the well-documented role

of the Sst2 protein in suppressing signaling noise and GPCR activation[42–44]. Accordingly,

GPCR signaling did not always translate to a comparable mating efficiency. For example,

from the pheromone library screen (see Library-on-One), one of the most enriched

pheromones (A4) and one of the least enriched pheromones (*Cm*) for *Fo*.Ste2, resulted in

being agonists for *Fo*.Ste2 (Fig. 2D and Supplementary Fig. 3C) and consequently affected

Fo.Ste2 activity in Library-on-Library interaction networks (Fig. 4C-D).

We used YeMaP to successfully screen a library of 8,000 pheromone variants in a single

test tube, and identified the *Fo* pheromone as the most enriched for the four different Ste2

GPCRs tested. Even though we observed enrichment for the cognate pheromones, the

presence of a mixture of different pheromones and synthetic peptide sequences could have

led to an advantage for those with higher EC_{50} values (*Fo*, A1, and A2 in *Bb*.Ste2, *Fo* in

Fg.Ste2) or almost no effect such as A3 in *Fg*.Ste2 (Fig. 2 and Supplementary Fig. 3A). For

B. cinerea Ste2, a GPCR that has evolved to sense a pheromone with 9 residues instead of

10, we detected the antagonistic effect of two alpha pheromones from two different fungi, *C.*

militaris and *B. bassiana* (Fig. 2F-G). However, to reach an IC_{50} the antagonist pheromones

needed to be added in 2,000-fold excess compared to the agonist (Fig. 2F), a situation that

may not be present in natural settings. The necessity for such high concentrations of

antagonist pheromone could be partially explained by the type of assay used to test the

antagonist effect on a yeast biosensor. The standard yeast biosensor strain[40] has high

expression levels of the fungal GPCR and Gα subunit, besides carrying several gene

knockouts (in particular *sst2Δ*) to create a highly sensitive system suitable to detect low

concentrations of agonist. Such a setting may not be ideal to screen for potential pheromone

antagonists. Second, the antagonistic effect of *Cm* pheromone was maintained in the mating

assay (Supplementary Fig. 3D**),** but only at high concentrations (50 µM), suggesting that it is

a weak antagonist of *Bc*.Ste2. Future studies are required to improve the selection of

pheromone antagonists and validate their effect in different fungal systems.

YeMaP successfully captured the complexity of multiple GPCR-pheromone interactions and

detected the effect of different environmental factors such as pH, nitrogen sources or plant

peroxidase on cell-cell communication (see Library-on-Library section). This allowed us to

detected the superior robustness of the *Fo*.Ste2-alpha pheromone interaction compared to

those from *Fg*, *Bb*, or *Hj* (Fig. 3). This finding may be of biological relevance, since *F.*

oxysporum was shown to secrete alkalinizing peptides during plant infection, thereby actively

reshaping the extracellular pH and enhancing plant root colonization[45]. At the same time,

plant peroxidases trigger germ tube chemotropism via *Fo*.Ste2[11], a GPCR which also

controls microconidia germination[10] and fusaric acid production[46]. We speculate that *F.*

oxysporum may have evolved a GPCR-pheromone system that remains functional across

the different environments encountered during plant infection (Fig. 3, Supplementary Fig.

7A-B, Supplementary Fig. 9B). Although both *F. oxysporum* and *F. graminearum* can sense

plant roots[11] or plant exudates[47] through their mating receptors, our results indicate that the

underlying mechanisms may be functionally different. In the presence of HRP, yeast strains

expressing *Fo* components were able to maintain the GPCR-pheromone communication,

while those expressing *Fg* components were not (Supplementary Fig. 7A-B).

Importantly, YeMaP results with the *Fo*.GPCR correlated with real hyphal chemotropism in

F. oxysporum. Two of the best hits selected from the YeMaP pheromone enrichment

experiment against *Fo*.Ste2, *Fo* alpha pheromone and the synthetic agonist A4, exhibited a

strong chemoattractant effect towards germ tubes of *F. oxysporum* (Fig. 5A-C). In contrast to

YeMaP the yeast biosensor assay was not able to discriminate between pheromones

capable of inducing a strong (*Fo* and A4) or a weak chemotropic effect (*Bb*) in *F. oxysporum*

(Fig. 5A-C and Fig. 1E). At the same time, in the One-vs-One YeMaP experiment, we

observed the promiscuity of *Bb*.Ste2 GPCR, particularly towards the *Fo* pheromone (Fig. 1C

and 1E). Moreover our results indicate that *Fo* pheromone can induce germ tube

chemotropism in *B. bassiana* (Supplementary Fig. 1). Previous studies have described a role

of *B. bassiana* in controlling *F. oxysporum* infection, increasing tomato plant survival rate[48,49].

Further investigations are needed to determine if this mechanism could contribute to the

biocontrol activity of *B. bassiana* against *F. oxysporum*.

We used YeMaP to test if external addition of pheromone interferes with signalling through a

GPCR-pheromone pair of interest. Our results were in accordance with previous studies

highlighting the importance of the pheromone gradient for successful mating in yeast[29,50,51].

Furthermore, YeMaP allowed us for the first time to test in a single tube the specific effect of

a supplemented pheromone against four different GPCRs that all recognize pheromones

with a similar backbone (Fig. 4). External pheromone supplementation in the YeMaP led to a

significant reduction of diploids containing *Fo*.Ste2, indicating that it interfered with

communication between a yeast cell secreting *Fo* alpha pheromone and its mating partner

expressing the GPCR (Fig. 4C-D). Similarly, supplementation of Fo pheromone or A4

peptide to *F. oxysporum* microconidia enhanced hyphal adhesion (Fig. 5D), but reduced the

ability of the pathogen to penetrate tomato roots (Fig. 5E). These results indicate that alpha

pheromone could be secreted by *F. oxysporum* during early stage of germination[10] and

subsequently be degraded actively after plant recognition. In support of this hypothesis,

analysis of previously published transcriptomics data from early infection stages of *F.*

oxysporum[52] detected upregulation of genes functioning in the pheromone response and the

cell wall integrity (CWI) MAPK cascades (Supplementary Fig. 13). Additionally, the aspartyl

protease Bar1, which specifically degrades *F. oxysporum* alpha pheromone[10], was

significantly upregulated ($|Log_2$ fold change| $\geq$ 2.5, $p \leq$ 0.0001), while the pheromone genes

did not show significant changes in transcript levels during plant infection (Supplementary

Fig. 13). While external pheromone addition significantly reduced fungal entry into tomato

roots, we did not observe a clear effect on plant mortality (Fig. 5F). This could be due to the

fact that external pheromone was only supplemented once during initial root inoculation, and

its stability and consequently action was not sufficient to provide protection during the entire

duration of the infection assay (50 days).

In the future, we envision using YeMaP as a model for studying how different soil

compositions and fertilizers influence cell-cell communication within fungal consortia and for

developing new molecules to control fungal pathogen virulence by perturbing their natural

ability to engage in cell-cell communication.

Online Methods

Molecular cloning for yeast engineering

Gene blocks and DNA parts

Gene blocks (Integrated DNA Technologies - IDT) gDOG1 to gDOG10 (Supplementary Data

1) were codon optimized for *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* with the IDT Codon Optimization

tool. All oligos and gene blocks were purchased from IDT, and coding sequences were

immediately preceded by a transcriptional enhancer sequence (AAAACA).

PCR and DNA handling

Plasmids were assembled with USER cloning[53] to be compatible with the EasyClone-

MarkerFree system for CRISPR/Cas9 engineering[54] and adapted to the MAD-cloning

strategy[55]. All plasmids, oligos, gBlocks, and parts are listed in the Supplementary Data 1.

Bacterial handling for plasmid construction and propagation

Plasmids were transformed (heat-shocked) in *E.coli* DH5☐ strain. The competent cells were

stored in glycerol at -70°C and cultivated in Terrific Broth with ampicillin (100 mg/L) at 37°C

in liquid media at 300 r.p.m. or on agar plates for 16-20 hrs.

Strains, media, and transformation

Strains

Strain CEN.PK2-1C and BY4741 (EUROSCARF) were used as yeast background strains.

All yeast strains can be found in the Supplementary Data 1. *Beauveria bassiana* (DSM

62075) strain was obtained from the Leibniz Institute DSMZ-German Collection of

Microorganisms and Cell Cultures. All the experiments with *F. oxysporum* were conducted

using *Fusarium oxysporum* f. sp. *lycopersici* 4287 (*Fol4287*).

Media

Yeast strains were grown in Synthetic Complete (SC) media with 2% (w/v) glucose with a

pH=5.6 or in a buffered media with ammonium sulfate, urea, and the citrate phosphate buffer

system (0.1 x) following Prins *et al.* protocol[56].

For *F. oxysporum* microconidia production, the wild type strain was grown for 3–4 d in liquid

potato dextrose broth (PDB) at 28 □C and 170 rpm. Germination media[10] was used for

assesing the spore germination.

Root exudate was prepared by carefully removing 2-weeks-old tomato plants from

vermiculite and washing the roots to remove any adhering substrates[11]. The plants were

placed in sterile water and kept at 25°C for 30h. The collected root exudate was filtered

through a 0.22-μm Millipore membrane and stored at −20°C until use.

Transformation

Except for the Yeast pheromone library (YPL1, see below), all strains were generated using

the LiAc/ssDNA/PEG method[57]. All genetic cassettes were integrated into the genome of

strains harboring pEDJ391 to express CRISPR-Cas9[58]. Genomic integration was achieved

with the co-transformation of a *NotI* linearized fragment with homology arms and a gRNA

helper vector targeting the desired EasyClone site[54]. About 1–2□μg for each plasmid or

fragment of DNA was used in all chemical transformations of *S. cerevisiae.* The strain was

selected in SC with 2% (w/v) glucose media lacking the appropriate amino acid or with the

addition of 100 mg/L nourseothricin (Jena Bioscience, Cat.#AB-101).

Yeast Pheromone Library (YPL1)

YPL1 was generated by PCR amplifying two fragments F1 (of 1978 bp generated with XI-3

UP FW + DOG105) and F2 (of 961 bp generated with DOG106 + XI-3 RV) with 129 bp of

homology between each other. The plasmid pDOG44 was used as a template

(Supplementary Table 3). Electroporation was conducted as described by Wäneskog et al.[32]

with few modifications. The strain GEN74 was streaked on a SC-leu plate. A colony was

inoculated in 60 ml of YPD and incubated at 30°C with vigorous aeration for 24 h. 40 mL of

the stationary yeast culture was added to 400 ml (1/10 dilution) of fresh YPD and incubated

for 3h at 30°C with vigorous aeration. 400 ml of the yeast culture were centrifuged at 4000xg

for 5 minutes by first aliquoting the yeast culture in 8 falcon tubes. The YPD supernatant was

discarded, and the yeast cell pellets were pooled into 1 falcon by resuspending them in a

total of 50ml pre-chilled (4°C) Milli-Q H_2O twice. The yeast cells were pelleted by

centrifugation at 4000xg for 5 minutes before resuspending in 50 ml of a 1M sorbitol and 1

mM $CaCl_2$ solution. The osmotically shocked yeast cells were pelleted at 4000xg for 5

minutes, and the yeast cells were resuspended in 50 ml of a 100 mM Lithium Acetate (LiAc)

and 10 mM Dithiothreitol (DTT) solution. The cells in LiAc and DTT solution were incubated

at 30°C with vigorous aeration for 1h, pelleted at 4000xg for 5 minutes, resuspended in 50

ml of a 1 M sorbitol and 1 mM $CaCl_2$ solution, followed by another final pelleting at 4000xg

for 5 minutes. The volume of the yeast cell solution was then adjusted to the total volume of

4ml, by adding the necessary volume of a 1 M sorbitol and 1 mM $CaCl_2$ solution. An aliquot

of the yeast solution is removed, and serial diluted by a 10-fold serial dilution. 100 µl of this

diluted cell solution from dilutions 10^{-5} and 10^{-6} was plated on a YPD 2% (w/v) agar plate that

was then incubated at 30°C for 48 hours before the concentration of cells (CFU/ml) in the

transformation solution was enumerated via colony count. 400 µl of the yeast solution was

used per transformation reaction by mixing the cell suspension with 5 µg of plasmid DNA (or

any other DNA to be transformed), 5 µg of F1, 5 µg of F2, 5 µg of pESC_URA_gRNA_XI-3

plasmid and 10µl (100µg) of boiled single-stranded salmon sperm carrier DNA (ssDNA) in

an Eppendorf tube. The yeast, DNA, and ssDNA mix were then transferred to an

electroporation cuvette (2mm gap), and the solution was electroporated at 2.0 kV, 200 Ohm,

and 25 µFD. Surviving cells and transformed cells were enumerated by serial diluting the

recovered cell suspension and then plating each dilution on YPD (surviving cells) or SC -leu

-ura (transformed cells). The library was expanded in SC -leu -ura for 48 hours and aliquots

were stored in glycerol stock at -70°C. We avoid the introduction of a second pheromone

sequence in the diploid cells, due to the potential presence of the Cas9 and gRNA plasmids,

by introducing a mutation in the XI-3 site of the GPCR strains.

Experimental procedures

Mating trials

One-on-One in a tube. MATa and MATα strains were inoculated from a cryo stock into a

culture tube with 1 ml of SC -leu and SC -his respectively (30 °C, 250 RPM, overnight).

Reaching a final OD=0.1 with a 1:1 ratio around 5 µl from a saturated MATa culture and 5 µl

from a saturated MATα culture were combined into a culture tube with 1 ml of SC media and

for 20 hours (30 °C, 250 RPM). The haploids were plated in SC -leu (MATa strains) and SC

-his (MATα strains) in 3 plates per strain. After 20 hours the diploid cells were appropriately

diluted and plated in SC -leu -his plates. The colonies on plates were enumerated after 4

days of incubation at 30 °C using the Count This app installed on an iPhone.

One-on-One in a deep well plate. Similarly to the One-on-One in tube assay 2 µl from a

saturated MATa culture and 2 µl from a saturated MATα culture were combined into 250 ml

of SC media and incubated at 30 °C in a shaking incubator for 20 hours (30 °C, 250 RPM).

Enumeration of haploid and diploid cells was conducted in the same way.

Library-on-One- GPCR against the yeast pheromone library

Two full cryotubes of the yeast pheromone library (YPL1) were inoculated into a flask

containing 50 ml of SC -leu. GEN87 (*Fg*.Ste2), GEN88 (*Bb*.Ste2), GEN89 (*Bc*.Ste2), and

GEN90 (*Fo*.Ste2) were inoculated from the cryostock in 4 different tubes containing 4 ml of

SC -his (30 °C, 250 RPM). YPL1 was co-cultured with each single receptor in a shake flask

with 50 ml of SC in two biological replicates with a final OD=0.2 and a ratio of MATa 1:1

MATα. After 20 hours 1 ml of the co-culture was washed twice with Milli-Q water and

transferred into a flask with 50 ml of SC -his -leu (30 °C, 250 RPM). The culture was left

growing for 48 hours (30 °C, 250 RPM) and 5 ml of it was used to perform a genome

extraction using the yeast DNA extraction kit (ThermoFisher).

Library-on-Library - consortia of strains with fungal pheromones and GPCRs

MATa and MATα strains were individually inoculated from a cryo stock into culture tubes

with 1 ml of SC -leu and SC -his respectively (30 °C, 250 RPM, overnight). All MATa and

MATα strains were mixed in two different tubes by adding the same amount of volume from

the starting tubes. 50 μl of MATa cells and 50 μl of MATα cells were combined in culture

tube to reach a final volume of 5 ml (SC media) and incubated at 30 °C in a shaking

incubator for 20 hours (30 °C, 250 RPM). 50 μl of the SC culture were transferred to a

culture tube containing SC-his-leu reaching a final volume of 5 ml. After 48 hours, genomic

DNA was extracted from the SC-his-leu using the Yeast DNA extraction kit (ThermoFisher).

qPCR protocol - Yeast Library-on-Library

From the *Library-on-Library* experiments, 50 ng of genomic DNA was used as a template to

detect the relative abundance of diploid formation. Each condition was tested in 3 biological

replicates. All qPCR reactions were performed using SYBR Master Mix (ThermoFisher) on

the QuantStudio 5 system.

Handling of synthetic pheromones

Synthetic peptides (Supplementary Table 2) were purchased by GenScript Biotech (4 mg,

≥95% purity) and dissolved in 100% DMSO to a concentration of 1000 μM, then tenfold

diluted in SC media to 1000 μM (10% DMSO). A serial dilution in SC + 10% DMSO was

made to achieve a concentration of 1×10^{-11}, 1×10^{-10}, 5×10^{-10}, 1×10^{-9}, 5×10^{-9}, 1×10^{-8}, 5×10^{-8}

^{8}, 1×10^{-7}, 1×10^{-6}, 1×10^{-5} M for the dose-response curve.

For the *B. bassiana* and *F. oxysporum* chemotropism assay and plant infection assays the

pheromones were dissolved in 50% (v/v) MeOH to reach a concentration of 4000 µM.

Horse Raddish peroxidase preparation (HRP)

Horse radish peroxidase (Sigma P-8375) was resuspended in phosphate-buffered saline

buffer (PBS) at a concentration of 200 µM.

Dose-response curves and flow cytometry

Characterization of the fungal pheromones was done by conducting dose-response analyses

following Jensen *et al.* protocol[20]. The same procedure was followed for studying the

antagonist effect of a pheromone with one exception. The biosensor strains were first

incubated with the candidate antagonist pheromone (priming), followed by the addition of the

agonist pheromone after 15 minutes (competition). All data were acquired with the NovoCyte

Quanteon™ (Agilent) flow cytometer. For each condition tested, four biological replicates

were analyzed, with a threshold of 10,000 events per replicate.

Quantification of B. bassiana chemotropism

B. bassiana chemotropism assays were conducted as previously described with a few

modifications[11]. *B. bassiana* was revived in Oat Meal Agar (OMA) for a week. Spores were

collected with water/glycerol 50% and stored at 4 °C. Spores were counted using a

Neubauer chamber and dissolved to reach a concentration of 10^6 spores/ml. On the side

glass microscope slides were sterilized and 3 lines were drawn on the back side of each

slide: a scoring line in blue, a solvent line in blue, and a test compound in red. On the front

side, 500 µl of water agar was added to create a thin layer in which 10 µl of test compound

(378 µM of pheromone or water) and 10 µl of solvent (50% v/v methanol) were added in their

respective lines. 15 µl of spores were added on the scoring line and spread with a cover

glass slide. After 20 hours the germination was assessed on a Leica DM4000 B microscope

(Leica Microsystems) equipped with a DFC300 FX camera (Leica Microsystems).

Quantification of F. oxysporum chemotropism

F. oxysporum chemotropism was conducted as previously described[11]. For each compound

or combination of compounds tested, 300 hyphal tips were scored. All experiments were

performed in three biological replicates.

Tomato plant growth conditions

Tomato seeds (*Solanum lycopersicum* cv. Moneymaker from EELM-CSIC; susceptible to *F.*

oxysporum f. sp. lycopersici race 2) were surface- sterilized by immersion in 20% bleach

(v/v) for 30 min and sown in moist vermiculite. The seeds and plants were maintained in a

growth chamber under the following conditions: 28 ☐C, 40–70% relative humidity and a

photoperiod of 14 h of 36 W white light and 10 h of darkness. Plants in vermiculite were

irrigated with tap water.

Tomato root inoculation and fluorescence microscopy of infected roots

For microscopic observation of *F. oxysporum* during tomato root infection, roots of 2-week-

old tomato seedlings were inoculated with *F. oxysporum* microconidia. Freshly obtained

microconidia were resuspended in sterile water at a concentration of 3.2×10^6

microconidia/mL were mixed in Eppendorf tubes and mixed either with the pheromone of

interest at the desired concentration or with the solvent treatment in a volume ratio 9

microconida:1 pheromone volume. For each condition tested, 3 tomato plants were placed

on a water agar plate, and 5 µl of the microconidia suspension were applied on 10 different

spots on each tomato root (in total 50 µl per root). After 30 minutes at room temperature the

roots were dried on a paper towel, transferred to a new water agar plate and incubated 3

days at 28ºC. Then the roots of 3 plants were pooled together and stained (Supplementary

Fig. 11A) with 20 µg/ml propidium iodide (PI) (Sigma-Aldrich) and 10 µg/ml WGA-Alexa

Fluor 488 (Invitrogen) as previously described[59]. Wide-field fluorescence imaging was

performed with a Zeiss Axio Imager M2 microscope equipped with a Photometrics Evolve

EMCCD camera, using the 40X oil objective.

Quantification of fungal DNA in tomato roots.

Tomato roots inoculated with *F. oxysporum* microconidia and incubated 3 days as described

above. Roots were washed 3 times using a water washing bottle with Driplok vapor venting

(Supplementary Fig. 11B). Total DNA was extracted from tomato roots, and *F. oxysporum*

biomass was measured by qPCR as previously described[60] using primers specific for the *F.*

oxysporum actin gene. For each biological replicate, roots from 3 plants were pooled for

DNA extraction. Relative fungal biomass was calculated using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method, with

primers for the *Fol4287 actin* gene (FOXG_01569) normalized to the tomato *gadph* gene.

Tomato plant mortality assay

Tomato plant infection assays were performed as described[61] with the following

modifications. Freshly obtained microconidia were resuspended in sterile water at a

concentration of 3.2×10^6/mL in Eppendorf tubes and mixed either with the pheromone of

interest at the desired concentration or with solvent in ratio 9:1 (v/v). For each condition

tested, 3 tomato plants were placed on a water agar plate, and 10 µl of the microconidia

suspension were applied onto 5 different root spots on each tomato root (in total 50 µl per

root). After 30 minutes incubation at 28⁰C, the plant roots were dried on a paper towel and

planted into minipots with moist vermiculite. Plants were transferred to a growth chamber at

the conditions described above, and plant survival was recorded daily for 50 days. Plant

death was diagnosed as a complete collapse of the stem, without any green parts left,

accompanied by visible proliferation of the fungal mycelium on the dead tissue. The Kaplan-

Meier test was used to assess statistical significance of differences in survival among groups

using the log-rank test in GraphPad Prism. The infection experiment was conducted 2 times

with 10 plants per condition.

Illumina

Illumina Yeast Library Preparation pre and post enrichments

Following Illumina's recommendation protocol, 50 ng of high-quality gDNA was used for a

two-step PCR. PCR1 was set with 2.5 µl of gDNA, 5 µl of DOG129 (1µM), 5 µl of DOG130

(1µM), and 12.5 µl of 2x KAPA HiFi HotStart ReadyMix. A PCR clean-up was performed with

AMPure XP beads (1.8 ratio) and EtOH 80%. Before performing PCR2, 1 µl of each reaction

was run on a bioanalyzer DNA 1000 chip to verify the size of 395 bp. PCR2 was performed

with 5 µl of DNA, 5 µl of Nextera XT Index Primer 1 (i701, i702, i703, i704, i705, i706, i707,

i708, or i709), 5 µl of Nextera XT Index Primer 2 (i501), 2x KAPA HiFi HotStart ReadyMix 25

µl and 10 µl of Milli-Q water. A second PCR clean-up was performed with AMPure XP beads

(1.8 ratio) and EtOH 80%. Library size validation (427 bp) was performed on a bioanalyzer

DNA 1000 chip and DNA concentration was measured using Qubit 2.0. A pool of all samples

was conducted to achieve a final DNA concentration of 10 nM with a proportion of 55 %

YLP1 pre-enrichment and the remaining 45% with the equimolar concentration of all the

remaining enriched samples.

Illumina Data Processing Yeast Library Preparation pre and post enrichments

The sample was sequenced with NextSeq 500 Mid Output 150 cycles with 4 technical

replicates. Amplicon analysis was conducted with the standardized workflow Natrix[62]. In

brief, FastQC (v0.11.9) was used to quality control the reads, and low-quality tails were

removed from the reads using PRINSEQ[63] (v0.20.4). Trimmed reads with an average Phred

score of less than 25 were discarded. DADA2[64] (v1.18.0) was used to count the number of

amplicon sequence variants (ASVs) and chimera detection was done by VSEARCH[65]

(v2.15.2). DESeq2[66] (v1.26.0) was used for variance-stabilizing transformation (VST) to

normalize the read counts, and PCA and hierarchical clustering were used to detect any

outliers. Since no outliers were detected, we combined the raw reads of the technical

replicates and performed reads per million (RPM) normalization. Furthermore, we subtracted

the RPM counts of the control starting library to allow for a better sample comparison. The

data processing and ASV count analysis were done in Jupyter notebooks which can be

found at https://github.com/Synthetic-Biology-Tools-for-Yeast/Yeast-Mating-Platform.

RNA sequencing analysis during plant infection (F. oxysporum)

Data acquisition was conducted and described in detail in a previous publication[52]. RNA-seq

data have been deposited in the Gene Expression Omnibus database[67] (Accession No.

GSE243247).

Molecular dynamics (MD) simulation

GPCR and ligand complexes were predicted with AlphaFold2 Multimer[68] using ColabFold[69].

Receptor-ligand complexes predicted in a similar pose to *Sc.*Ste2 receptor-ligand

complexes[70] were selected. Protein preparation and minimization, system setup, MD

simulations, and data analysis were performed using Maestro (Schrödinger Release 2024-

1). GPCRs were restricted to residues in the N-terminal and the transmembrane domains (1-

291). The force field of the ligands was generated with LigPrep. GPCR-ligand complexes

were prepared with the Protein Preparation Wizard[71] at pH 5.6, which included capping

GPCR chain termini with neutral acetyl and methylamide groups, assignment of histidine

protonation states, and whole structure minimization. *F. oxysporum* pheromone does not

establish intramolecular disulfide bonds[31], therefore the intramolecular disulfide bond was

reduced for all ligands. The System Builder module was used to prepare the orthorhombic

simulation box (10x10x10 Å), with the prepared GPCR-ligand complex embedded in a pre-

equilibrated membrane (300K) palmitoyl-oleoyl-phosphatidylcholine (POPC) bilayer aligned

with PPM3.0 of the OPM database alignment[72], TIP3 solvent neutralized with 0.15 Na+/Cl-

ions, and the OPLS4 force field[73]. Membrane model system default relaxation was used to

minimize the system, and the final snapshot was used to run five independent production

runs with random seeds for each GPCR-ligand complex using Desmond[74]. Simulations were

run at 300 K for 300 ns and snapshots were stored at every 500-ps interval. Aggregated MD

data was analyzed with Jupyter Notebook and structural images were acquired with PyMol

Molecular Graphics System version 2.5.0.

Data analysis and statistical analysis

Flow cytometry data and gating

All flow cytometry data were extracted as FCS files and gated in FlowLogic™ v8.3 (Inivai

Technologies). For the biosensors assays P*FUS1*-yEGFP-based two gates were performed.

The first on alive cells, and the second to exclude a small fraction (≈ 1%) of not responding

cells[20]. Fluorescence data points were derived from gated populations' median values and

median yEGFP fluorescence intensities. Normalized yEGFP intensity was obtained by

normalizing it to the mean of the background.

Diploid frequency on plates

After the quantification of the haploid strains and diploids, the limiting haploid A was

determined, and Eq. (1) was applied.

Diploid frequency = (Diploids)/(HaploidA+Diploids)∗100   *(1)*

qPCR - diploid frequency library-on-library

The relative quantification of diploids was performed by comparing the cycle threshold (Ct)

value of the conserved regions (R1 and R3) flanking the barcodes and the Ct value of the

amplicon generated with two barcodes. All possible combinations of barcodes plus 3

technical replicates of the control (DOG77 + DOG78) were tested. The relative quantification

was calculated using △Ct method[75,76].

$2^{-\Delta CT}$ *(2)*

Where $\Delta CT = CT$ (barcodes) – CT (conserved region).

Data and statistical analysis

Data analysis, statistical analysis, and graphing were done in GraphPad Prism v10

(GraphPad Software), FlowLogic™ v8.3 (Inivai Technologies), and Jupyter Notebook.

Sigmoidal dose-response curve fits were computed using nonlinear regression by the

variable slope (four parameters) model in GraphPad Prism v10 (GraphPad Software), using

default settings (Supplementary Data 3). The significance of the experiments was assessed

by one-way or two-way ANOVA multivariate test and post-hoc analysis by Dunnett's or

Tukey's multiple comparison test, respectively (Supplementary Data 3). All statistical tests

were done in GraphPad Prism v10 (GraphPad Software) with a default 95% confidence

interval ($\alpha = 0.05$) applied and multiplicity-adjusted *p* values were reported to account for

all multiple comparisons within tests.

Flow cytometry settings

NovoCyte Quanteon™ (Agilent) settings

Excitation was done with a blue 488 nm laser for yEGFP. yEGFP emission was detected

with a 530/30 nm BP filter (471 V), while FSC and SSC were detected with a 561/14 nm

BP filter (400 V). The machine ran with a core diameter of 10.1 µm (24 µl/min), two

mixing cycles every well (1500 g, Acc. = 1 s, Dur. = 10 s), one rinse cycle every well,

and a threshold for event detection at >150,000 FSC-H. NovoFlow Solution (Agilent) was

used and the machine was calibrated with NovoCyte QC Particles (Agilent).

Acknowledgements

This study is supported by grants from the Villum Foundation (00050095) to L.C. and M.K.J., the Novo Nordisk Foundation (NNF20CC0035580) (core grant), the Wenner-Gren Foundations to M.W., the Novo Nordisk Foundation (NNF23SA0084103) to T.M.F., and the Novo Nordisk Foundation Bioscience Ph.D. Program (NNF0078230) to R.T. Work in the A.D.P. lab was supported by grants PLEC2021-007777, TED2021-130262B-I00, PDC2022-133749-I00 and PID2022-140187OB-I00 from the Spanish Ministry of Science and Innovation/State Research Agency (MICIU/AEI). M.V.A.P was supported by the PP2F_L1_01 grant co-funded by the Andalusian government and FEDER Andalucia 2021-2027.

We thank Dr. Alvaro De Obeso-Fernández del Valle, Dr. José Mario González-Meljem, and Kinga Dulak for their technical support on the plating and the creation of the One-on-One matrix. We thank Keyan Liu for the technical support on the Illumina sequencing and Philip Tinggaard Thomsen for providing the plasmid pCfB10291. We thank Sara Lestani for the scientific discussion. Schematic figure illustrations were created with BioRender.com.

Author contributions

GS, EDJ, LC, and MKJ conceived the study. GS led the investigation. GS designed and constructed all yeast strains and plasmids of this study. GS and AU performed the *B. bassiana* experiments. MM and GS performed the experiments with *F. oxysporum*. VK supported the sequencing library design. GS and MW generated the yeast pheromone library, while MJ and GS conducted the data analysis of the Illumina libraries. RT performed the Molecular Dynamics simulations. MVAP conducted transcriptomic data analysis on *F. oxysporum* during plant infection. MBS, EEHS and MD supported the investigation. GS conducted all the remaining experiments and data analysis. GS, MKJ, EDJ, and ADP wrote the manuscript. MKJ, LC, TMF, RT, MW, VK, ADP and EDJ provided the funding to enable this research.

896 **Conflict of Interest Statement**

References

1.   Taylor, D. L. & Bhatnagar, J. M. Chapter 4 - Fungi in soil: a rich community with diverse

functions. in *Soil Microbiology, Ecology and Biochemistry (Fifth Edition)* (eds. Paul, E. A.

& Frey, S. D.) 75–129 (Elsevier, 2024).

2.   Stukenbrock, E. & Gurr, S. Address the growing urgency of fungal disease in crops.

Nature **617**, 31–34 (2023).

3.   Singh, B. K. *et al.* Climate change impacts on plant pathogens, food security and paths

forward. *Nat. Rev. Microbiol.* **21**, 640–656 (2023).

4.   Xue, C., Hsueh, Y.-P. & Heitman, J. Magnificent seven: roles of G protein-coupled

receptors in extracellular sensing in fungi. *FEMS Microbiol. Rev.* **32**, 1010–1032 (2008).

5.   Brown, N. A., Schrevens, S., van Dijck, P. & Goldman, G. H. Fungal G-protein-coupled

receptors: mediators of pathogenesis and targets for disease control. *Nat Microbiol* **3**,

402–414 (2018).

6.   Velazhahan, V., McCann, B. L., Bignell, E. & Tate, C. G. Developing novel antifungals:

lessons from G protein-coupled receptors. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.* **44**, 162–174 (2023).

7.   Surendra K, D. The new integrated pest management paradigm for the modern age. *J.*

Integr. Pest Manag. **10**, (2019).

8.   Bardwell, L. A walk-through of the yeast mating pheromone response pathway.

Peptides **26**, 339–350 (2005).

9.   Sieber, B., Coronas-Serna, J. M. & Martin, S. G. A focus on yeast mating: From

pheromone signaling to cell-cell fusion. *Semin. Cell Dev. Biol.* **133**, 83–95 (2023).

10. Vitale, S., Di Pietro, A. & Turrà, D. Autocrine pheromone signalling regulates community

behaviour in the fungal pathogen Fusarium oxysporum. *Nat Microbiol* **4**, 1443–1449

(2019).

11. Turrà, D., El Ghalid, M., Rossi, F. & Di Pietro, A. Fungal pathogen uses sex pheromone

receptor for chemotropic sensing of host plant signals. *Nature* **527**, 521–524 (2015).

12. Sridhar, P. S. *et al.* Ste2 receptor-mediated chemotropism of Fusarium graminearum

contributes to its pathogenicity against wheat. *Sci. Rep.* **10**, 10770 (2020).

13. Ostrov, N. *et al.* A modular yeast biosensor for low-cost point-of-care pathogen

detection. *Sci Adv* **3**, e1603221 (2017).

14. Billerbeck, S. *et al.* A scalable peptide-GPCR language for engineering multicellular

communication. *Nat. Commun.* **9**, 5057 (2018).

15. Bahram, M. & Netherway, T. Fungi as mediators linking organisms and ecosystems.

FEMS Microbiol. Rev. **46**, fuab058 (2022).

16. Martin, S. H., Wingfield, B. D., Wingfield, M. J. & Steenkamp, E. T. Causes and

consequences of variability in peptide mating pheromones of ascomycete fungi. *Mol.*

Biol. Evol. **28**, 1987–2003 (2011).

17. Vangalis, V. *et al.* Components of TOR and MAP kinase signaling control chemotropism

and pathogenicity in the fungal pathogen Verticillium dahliae. *Microbiol. Res.* **271**,

127361 (2023).

18. Lengger, B. & Jensen, M. K. Engineering G protein-coupled receptor signalling in yeast

for biotechnological and medical purposes. *FEMS Yeast Res.* **20**, (2020).

19. Yashiroda, Y. & Yoshida, M. Intraspecies cell-cell communication in yeast. *FEMS Yeast*

Res. **19**, (2019).

20. Jensen, E. D. *et al.* Engineered cell differentiation and sexual reproduction in probiotic

and mating yeasts. *Nat. Commun.* **13**, 6201 (2022).

21. Janiak, A. M. *et al.* Functional expression of the Candida albicans α-factor receptor in

Saccharomyces cerevisiae. *Fungal Genet. Biol.* **42**, 328–338 (2005).

22. Gonçalves-Sá, J. & Murray, A. Asymmetry in sexual pheromones is not required for

ascomycete mating. *Curr. Biol.* **21**, 1337–1346 (2011).

23. Anders, A., Colin, R., Banderas, A. & Sourjik, V. Asymmetric mating behavior of

isogamous budding yeast. *Sci. Adv.* **7**, eabf8404 (2021).

24. Huberman, L. B. & Murray, A. W. Genetically engineered transvestites reveal novel

mating genes in budding yeast. *Genetics* **195**, 1277–1290 (2013).

25. Michaelis, S. & Barrowman, J. Biogenesis of the Saccharomyces cerevisiae pheromone

954  a-factor, from yeast mating to human disease. *Microbiol. Mol. Biol. Rev.* **76**, 626–651

955  (2012).

956 26. McAlister, L. & Holland, M. J. Differential expression of the three yeast glyceraldehyde-

957  3-phosphate dehydrogenase genes. *J. Biol. Chem.* **260**, 15019–15027 (1985).

958 27. Nishi, O., Sushida, H., Higashi, Y. & Iida, Y. Epiphytic and endophytic colonisation of

959  tomato plants by the entomopathogenic fungus Beauveria bassiana strain GHA.

960  *Mycology* **12**, 39–47 (2020).

961 28. Gupta, R. *et al.* The entomopathogenic fungi Metarhizium brunneum and Beauveria

962  bassiana promote systemic immunity and confer resistance to a broad range of pests

963  and pathogens in tomato. *Phytopathology* **112**, 784–793 (2022).

964 29. Jacobs, K. C., Gorman, O. & Lew, D. J. Mechanism of commitment to a mating partner

965  in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. *Mol. Biol. Cell* **33**, ar112 (2022).

966 30. Le Marquer, M., San Clemente, H., Roux, C., Savelli, B. & Frei Dit Frey, N. Identification

967  of new signalling peptides through a genome-wide survey of 250 fungal secretomes.

968  *BMC Genomics* **20**, 64 (2019).

969 31. Vitale, S. *et al.* Structure-activity relationship of α mating pheromone from the fungal

970  pathogen Fusarium oxysporum. *J. Biol. Chem.* **292**, 3591–3602 (2017).

971 32. Wäneskog, M. *et al.* Heat pre-treatment reduces multiplicity of plasmid transformations

972  in yeast during electroporation, without diminishing the transformation efficiency. *bioRxiv*

973  2024.07.03.601847 (2024) doi:10.1101/2024.07.03.601847.

974 33. Vylkova, S. Environmental pH modulation by pathogenic fungi as a strategy to conquer

975  the host. *PLoS Pathog.* **13**, e1006149 (2017).

976 34. Araki, K., Araki, M. & Yamamura, K.-I. Site-directed integration of the cre gene mediated

977  by Cre recombinase using a combination of mutant lox sites. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **30**,

978  e103 (2002).

979 35. Younger, D., Berger, S., Baker, D. & Klavins, E. High-throughput characterization of

980  protein–protein interactions by reprogramming yeast mating. *Proceedings of the*

981  *National Academy of Sciences* **114**, 12166–12171 (2017).

36. Dean, R. *et al.* The Top 10 fungal pathogens in molecular plant pathology. *Mol. Plant*

Pathol. **13**, 414–430 (2012).

37. Schmoll, M. Trichoderma reesei. *Trends Microbiol.* **30**, 403–404 (2022).

38. Ownley, B. H. *et al.* Beauveria bassiana: endophytic colonization and plant disease

control. *J. Invertebr. Pathol.* **98**, 267–270 (2008).

39. Brand, A. & Gow, N. A. R. Mechanisms of hypha orientation of fungi. *Curr. Opin.*

Microbiol. **12**, 350–357 (2009).

40. Shaw, W. M. *et al.* Engineering a model cell for rational tuning of GPCR signaling. *Cell*

177, 782–796.e27 (2019).

41. Crnković, T., Bokor, B. J., Lockwood, M. E. & Cornish, V. W. Peptide Variant Detection

by a Living Yeast Biosensor via an Epitope-Selective Protease. *BioDesign Res* **5**,

(2023).

42. Dixit, G., Kelley, J. B., Houser, J. R., Elston, T. C. & Dohlman, H. G. Cellular noise

suppression by the regulator of G protein signaling Sst2. *Mol. Cell* **55**, 85–96 (2014).

43. Dohlman, H. G., Song, J., Ma, D., Courchesne, W. E. & Thorner, J. Sst2, a negative

regulator of pheromone signaling in the yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae: expression,

localization, and genetic interaction and physical association with Gpa1 (the G-protein

alpha subunit). *Mol. Cell. Biol.* **16**, 5194–5209 (1996).

44. Bush, A. *et al.* Yeast GPCR signaling reflects the fraction of occupied receptors, not the

number. *Mol. Syst. Biol.* **12**, 898 (2016).

45. Masachis, S. *et al.* A fungal pathogen secretes plant alkalinizing peptides to increase

infection. *Nat. Microbiol.* **1**, 16043 (2016).

46. Staropoli, A. *et al.* Repression of autocrine pheromone signaling leads to fusaric acid

over-production. *Nat. Prod. Res.* **38**, 1967–1971 (2024).

47. Sridhar, P. S., Vasquez, V., Monteil-Rivera, F., Allingham, J. S. & Loewen, M. C. A

peroxidase-derived ligand that induces Fusarium graminearum Ste2 receptor-

dependent chemotropism. *Front. Cell. Infect. Microbiol.* **13**, 1287418 (2023).

48. Nchu, F. *et al.* Endophytic Beauveria bassiana induces oxidative stress and enhances

the growth of Fusarium oxysporum-infected tomato plants. *Plants* **11**, 3182 (2022).

49. Ranesi, M. *et al.* Field isolates of Beauveria bassiana exhibit biological heterogeneity in

multitrophic interactions of agricultural importance. *Microbiol. Res.* **286**, 127819 (2024).

50. Chen, W., Nie, Q., Yi, T.-M. & Chou, C.-S. Modelling of yeast mating reveals robustness

strategies for cell-cell interactions. *PLoS Comput. Biol.* **12**, e1004988 (2016).

51. Merlini, L., Dudin, O. & Martin, S. G. Mate and fuse: how yeast cells do it. *Open Biol.* **3**,

130008 (2013).

52. Palos-Fernández, R. *et al.* Copper acquisition is essential for plant colonization and

virulence in a root-infecting vascular wilt fungus. *PLoS Pathog.* **20**, e1012671 (2024).

53. Bitinaite, J. *et al.* USER^TM friendly DNA engineering and cloning method by uracil

excision. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **35**, 1992–2002 (2007).

54. Jessop-Fabre, M. M. *et al.* EasyClone-MarkerFree: A vector toolkit for marker-less

integration of genes into Saccharomyces cerevisiae via CRISPR-Cas9. *Biotechnol. J.*

11, 1110–1117 (2016).

55. Deichmann, M. *et al.* Engineered yeast cells simulating CD19+ cancers to control CAR

T cell activation. *bioRxiv* 2023.10.25.563929 (2023) doi:10.1101/2023.10.25.563929.

56. Prins, R. C. & Billerbeck, S. A buffered media system for yeast batch culture growth.

BMC Microbiol. **21**, 127 (2021).

57. Gietz, R. D. & Schiestl, R. H. Quick and easy yeast transformation using the LiAc/SS

carrier DNA/PEG method. *Nat. Protoc.* **2**, 35–37 (2007).

58. Jensen, E. D. *et al.* A synthetic RNA-mediated evolution system in yeast. *Nucleic Acids*

Res. **49**, e88 (2021).

59. Martínez-Soto, D., Yu, H., Allen, K. S. & Ma, L.-J. Differential colonization of the plant

vasculature between endophytic versus pathogenic Fusarium oxysporum strains. *Mol.*

Plant. Microbe. Interact. **36**, 4–13 (2023).

60. Areja-Jaime, Y., Martin-Urdiroz, M., Roncero, M. I., Gonzalez-Reyes, J. A. & Ruiz-

Roldan, M. C. Chitin synthase deficient mutant of Fusarium oxysporum elicits tomato

plant defence response and protects against wild type infection. *Mol Plant Pathol*

(2010).

61. Di Pietro, A. & Roncero, M. I. Cloning, expression, and role in pathogenicity of pg1
    encoding the major extracellular endopolygalacturonase of the vascular wilt pathogen
    Fusarium oxysporum. *Mol. Plant. Microbe. Interact.* **11**, 91–98 (1998).

62. Welzel, M. *et al.* Natrix: a Snakemake-based workflow for processing, clustering, and
    taxonomically assigning amplicon sequencing reads. *BMC Bioinformatics* **21**, 526
    (2020).

63. Schmieder, R. & Edwards, R. Quality control and preprocessing of metagenomic
    datasets. *Bioinformatics* **27**, 863–864 (2011).

64. Callahan, B. J. *et al.* DADA2: High-resolution sample inference from Illumina amplicon
    data. *Nat. Methods* **13**, 581–583 (2016).

65. Rognes, T., Flouri, T., Nichols, B., Quince, C. & Mahé, F. VSEARCH: a versatile open
    source tool for metagenomics. *PeerJ* (2016) doi:10.7287/peerj.preprints.2409.

66. Love, M. I., Huber, W. & Anders, S. Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion
    for RNA-seq data with DESeq2. *Genome Biol.* **15**, 550 (2014).

67. Edgar, R., Domrachev, M. & Lash, A. E. Gene Expression Omnibus: NCBI gene
    expression and hybridization array data repository. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **30**, 207–210
    (2002).

68. Evans, R. *et al.* Protein complex prediction with AlphaFold-Multimer. *bioRxiv*
    2021.10.04.463034 (2021) doi:10.1101/2021.10.04.463034.

69. Mirdita, M. *et al.* ColabFold: making protein folding accessible to all. *Nat. Methods* **19**,
    679–682 (2022).

70. Velazhahan, V., Ma, N., Vaidehi, N. & Tate, C. G. Activation mechanism of the class D
    fungal GPCR dimer Ste2. *Nature* **603**, 743–748 (2022).

71. Sastry, G. M., Adzhigirey, M., Day, T., Annabhimoju, R. & Sherman, W. Protein and
    ligand preparation: parameters, protocols, and influence on virtual screening
    enrichments. *J. Comput. Aided Mol. Des.* **27**, 221–234 (2013).

72. Lomize, A. L., Todd, S. C. & Pogozheva, I. D. Spatial arrangement of proteins in planar

and curved membranes by PPM 3.0. *Protein Sci.* **31**, 209–220 (2022).

73. Lu, C. *et al.* OPLS4: Improving force field accuracy on challenging regimes of chemical

space. *J. Chem. Theory Comput.* **17**, 4291–4300 (2021).

74. Bowers, K. J. *et al.* Scalable algorithms for molecular dynamics simulations on

commodity clusters. in *ACM/IEEE SC 2006 Conference (SC'06)* 43–43 (IEEE, 2006).

75. Harshitha, R. & Arunraj, D. R. Real-time quantitative PCR: A tool for absolute and

relative quantification. *Biochem. Mol. Biol. Educ.* **49**, 800–812 (2021).

76. Schmittgen, T. D. & Livak, K. J. Analyzing real-time PCR data by the comparative CT

method. *Nat. Protoc.* **3**, 1101–1108 (2008).