Cross-regulation between CDK and MAPK control cellular fate

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Abstract

Commitment to a new cell cycle is controlled by a number of cellular signals. Mitogen-Activated Protein Kinase pathways, which transduce multiple extracellular cues, have been shown to be interconnected with the cell cycle. Using budding yeast as a model system, we have quantified in hundreds of live single cells the interplay between the MAPK regulating the mating response and the Cyclin-Dependent Kinase controlling cell cycle progression. Different patterns of MAPK activity dynamics could be identified by clustering cells based on their CDK activity, denoting the tight relationship between these two cellular signals. In mating mixtures, we have verified that the interplay between CDK and MAPK activities allows cells to select their fate, preventing them from being blocked in an undesirable cellular program.

1   Introduction

Cells have developed complex signal transduction pathways to respond to changes in their

environment. Plasma membrane sensors detect extracellular stimuli and relay this information

inside the cell via signaling cascades. These protein networks can integrate multiple information

to launch the appropriate cellular response. For instance, Mitogen-Activated Protein Kinase

(MAPK) pathways are central nodes in the signaling network of eukaryotic cells, because they

relay extracellular cues such as growth factors or stresses (Roux and Blenis, 2004; Chen and

Thorner, 2007). The metabolic state, the cellular morphology or the cell cycle phase of

individual cells can be integrated by the MAPK cascade to finely tune the cellular response

(Strickfaden *et al.*, 2007; Nagiec and Dohlman, 2012; Clement *et al.*, 2013). However, the

molecular mechanisms that allow these signal integrations are generally unknown.

The simplified settings offered by *S. cerevisiae* provide an ideal platform to study these complex

mechanisms. The budding yeast MAPK network is composed of four main pathways active in

haploid cells (Saito, 2010). Multiple instances of signal integration have been documented in this

model system: the cross-inhibition between two MAPK pathways (Nagiec and Dohlman, 2012),

the limitation of signal transmission in low nutrient conditions (Clement *et al.*, 2013; Sharifian *et*

al., 2015) and the tight coupling between cell cycle regulation and MAPK activity (Oehlen and

Cross, 1994; Peter and Herskowitz, 1994; Wassmann and Ammerer, 1997; Escoté *et al.*, 2004;

Clotet and Posas, 2007; Strickfaden *et al.*, 2007). In this study, we were interested in the

interplay between the cell cycle and the mating pathway.

Haploid budding yeasts exist in two mating types: *MAT***a** and *MAT*α. They produce pheromones

(respectively a-factor and α-factor) that can be sensed by a mating partner. Activation of a G-

protein-coupled receptor by the pheromone leads to the activation of the MAPKs Fus3 and Kss1,

via a three-tier kinase cascade recruited to the plasma membrane by the scaffold protein Ste5

(Bardwell, 2005; Atay and Skotheim, 2017). The two MAPKs initiate a mating program that

includes the transcription of hundreds of genes, the arrest of the cell cycle in G1, the formation

of a mating projection and which culminates in the fusion of the two partners.

In order to guarantee that each cell that undergoes fusion possesses a single copy of its genome,

active Fus3 phosphorylates the Cyclin Kinase Inhibitor (CKI) Far1 which arrests the cells in G1

(Peter *et al.*, 1993; Peter and Herskowitz, 1994). In addition, during division, signaling in the

mating pathway is dampened by the action of the Cyclin Dependent Kinase (CDK) Cdc28.

Cdc28, the only CDK in *S. cerevisiae*, associates with the different cyclins to ensure the proper

progression through the cell cycle. Inhibition of the mating pathway is made possible by the

association between the CDK and the late-G1 cyclins Cln1 and Cln2. The Cln1/2-Cdc28

complex has been shown to phosphorylate the scaffold protein Ste5, thereby preventing its

recruitment to the plasma membrane and thereby preventing the transduction of the signal from

the receptor to the MAPK cascade (Strickfaden *et al.*, 2007).

Most of the knowledge on the mating-induced cell cycle arrest in G1 and the inhibition of the

mating pathway during division has been obtained from population-level measurements, relying

on artificial synchronizations of the cell cycle using temperature sensitive mutants, chemical

inhibitors or by overexpression of cyclins (McKinney *et al.*, 1993; Peter *et al.*, 1993; Wassmann

and Ammerer, 1997; Strickfaden *et al.*, 2007). More recent studies have used single cell

measurements to monitor this cross-inhibition, but focused either on Ste5 relocation (Repetto *et*

al., 2018) MAPK activity (Durandau *et al.*, 2015; Conlon *et al.*, 2016) or on CDK activity

(Doncic *et al.*, 2015).

In this study, we have developed a sensitive assay enabling to quantify in parallel MAPK and

CDK activity in non-synchronized live single cells using fluorescent biosensors. By exploiting

the natural diversity present in the population, we have been able to cluster cells based on their

cell cycle position and monitored their MAPK activity pattern. We could confirm the key role of

Far1 for the G1 arrest. However, our data suggest that an additional mechanism working in

parallel with the Ste5 phosphorylation is required to limit signaling during S-phase. Furthermore,

we highlight the importance of the cross-inhibition between MAPK and CDK for cell-fate

decision in the mating process. The interplay between these two activities will determine whether

cells induce a mating response or commit to a new cell cycle round.

Results

Quantifying MAPK activity

In order to quantify mating MAPK activity, we have developed a Synthetic Kinase Activity

Relocation Sensor (SKARS). This probe was engineered by combining a specific MAPK

docking site, a phosphorylatable Nuclear Localization Signal (NLS) and a Fluorescent Protein

(FP) (Durandau *et al.*, 2015). The docking site consists in the first 33 amino acids from the

MAP2K Ste7, which confers specificity towards both Fus3 and Kss1 (Reményi *et al.*, 2005).

Under normal growth conditions, the NLS promotes the enrichment of the sensor in the nucleus.

Upon activation of the MAPK, specific residues neighboring the NLS are phosphorylated by the

targeted MAPK, leading to a decrease in the import rate of the sensor in the nucleus. The

presence of the FP allows monitoring nuclear-to-cytoplasmic partitioning of the sensor as

function of time (Figure 1A). We use two bright field images and a fluorescence image of the

nucleus (Hta2-tdiRFP) to segment the nuclear and cytoplasmic areas in each cell and measure the

fluorescence intensity in the other fluorescent images acquired (Pelet *et al.*, 2012). The ratio of

mean fluorescence intensities between these two compartments in the RFP channel provides a

dynamic measure of MAPK signaling activity in each single cell.

One experimental difficulty associated with this sensing strategy is the fact that each cell has a

distinct inherent capacity to import the sensor in the nucleus. Therefore, the read-out provided

for each cell includes an additional undesired component. In order to correct for this

experimental variability, we introduced, in parallel to the functional sensor present in the RFP

channel, a non-functional sensor in the CFP channel based on a version of the reporter that

cannot bind the kinase (non-docking sensor, $Ste7_{ND}$-SKARS, Figure 1B). We define the MAPK

activity as the ratio of cytoplasmic-to-nuclear fluorescence of the functional sensor over the ratio

of cytoplasmic-to-nuclear fluorescence of the non-docking corrector (Supplementary Figure 1

and Methods). This metric provides a relative measure of the combined Fus3 and Kss1 activity

independently of the nuclear import capacity of each cell.

We have performed time-lapse experiments where cells are stimulated with synthetic pheromone

at saturating concentration (1000nM α-factor) directly under the microscope. The dynamics of

activation of the mating pathway in single cells can be quantified (Figure 1C). In comparison

with a signaling dead mutant (*ste5Δ*), we observe a clear increase in the median MAPK activity

of the population within 5 minutes after the stimulus. However, the few single cell traces plotted

in this figure display strikingly different dynamic behaviors, demonstrating well the great

heterogeneity in the signaling capacity of individual cells.

Monitoring CDK activity

Because it has been established for a long time that the cell cycle can influence mating signaling

competence, we decided to monitor in the same cells both MAPK and CDK activities to

overcome the need for population average measurement and artificial cell cycle synchronization.

In order to follow cell cycle progression in an automated and robust manner, we used a

fluorescently tagged Whi5, which has been used in many studies as an endogenous relocation

probe for the G1 state (Bean *et al.*, 2006; Doncic *et al.*, 2011). Whi5 is enriched in the nucleus of

the cells in G1 to repress the expression of specific cell cycle genes. Phosphorylation by the

Cln3-CDK complex relieves this repression by promoting the nuclear export of Whi5 (Costanzo

et al., 2004; de Bruin *et al.*, 2004) (Figure 1D and E). Whi5 will only shuttle back into the

nucleus as cells re-enter in G1. Thus, in addition to the SKARS and its corrector, we tagged

Whi5 with mCitrine and measured the cytoplasmic to nuclear fluorescence intensity in the YFP

channel as a proxy for CDK activity (Figure 1F). Note that during the division process,

fluctuation in CDK activity levels cannot be quantified using this approach, but the Whi5 probe

allows us to precisely monitor the exit from G1 and the entry into G1. In the dataset of a two-

hour time-lapse movie, we collected single cell traces that displayed a transient nuclear

accumulation of Whi5. The rapid accumulation of Whi5 in the nucleus, which corresponds to the

sharp decrease in CDK activity occurring at the onset of G1, was used to synchronize

computationally the single cell traces (Figure 1F and Supplementary Figure 2). The alignment of

the single-cell responses reveals two additional CDK activity drops taking place roughly 90

minutes before or after the central trough. This timing matches the expected cell cycle length in

these conditions (Charvin *et al.*, 2008). To sum up, this reporter strain allows us to monitor in

parallel CDK and mating MAPK activities in single cells, thereby providing an assay to

disentangle their interactions.

Cell cycle stage clustering

In a naturally cycling population of budding yeast cells, all cell cycle stages are represented at a

given time point. Therefore, when this population is stimulated with α-factor, in a single

experiment, we can observe the entire diversity of responses present in the population generated

by this extrinsic variability. In a typical time-lapse experiment of 45 minutes, cells are imaged

every 3 min and the pheromone is added before the third time point. From such a microscopy

dataset, several hundreds of single cells are tracked and pass through a quality control filter. Note

that unless stated otherwise, all following experiments with exogenous pheromone stimulation

are performed in a *bar1Δ* background, to maintain a constant extracellular concentration of α-

factor in the medium surrounding the cells and were performed in at least three independent

experiments.

The single cell traces are clustered *in silico* based on their CDK activity pattern to identify the

different cell-cycle stage populations (see Methods). The first cluster consists of cells with low

CDK activity throughout the time lapse (*G1*, 20% of the population). These *G1* cells are MAPK

signaling competent and display a strong and sustained response of the SKARS upon addition of

pheromone (Figure 2A). A second cluster is made of cells with a high CDK activity during the

45 minutes of the time lapse (*Out-of-G1*, 35%). These cells display a fast response to the mating

pheromone but with a low amplitude. Previous reports have shown, by overexpression of cyclins,

that the activity of the CDK can abolish or strongly reduce the activity of the mating pathway

(Oehlen and Cross, 1994; Wassmann and Ammerer, 1997). Under physiological conditions, our

data show that dividing cells are none-the-less able to activate the MAPK pathway, but only

weakly compared to the *G1* cells.

In addition, our dynamic measurements can reveal interesting signaling patterns by focusing our

analysis on cells that transition between these two strong and weak signaling states (*G1* and *Out-

of-G1*, respectively). A third cluster was thus defined with cells that start with a low CDK

activity and end with high CDK activity. These cells are thus exiting G1 and enter S-phase at

some point during the time lapse (*G1-exit* 11%, Figure 2C). Interestingly, these cells respond

strongly to the pheromone stimulus, but display a transient MAPK activation behavior. When

pheromone is added, the mating pathway is first rapidly activated. However, when the CDK

activity builds up in the cell, an inhibition of the MAPK pathway sets in, leading to a return of

the MAPK activity to a low level roughly 15 min after the stimulus.

The fourth cluster consists in cells that enter in G1 during the time lapse (*G1-entry*, 31%). These

cells start with high CDK activity and end the time lapse with low CDK activity. This transition

can happen at any time point during the experiment. The median MAPK activity in this sub-

population increases gradually with time, while the individual traces display sharp transitions

from a low signaling to a high-signaling state (Supplementary Figure 3A). Using the Whi5

reporter, the single cell traces were temporally aligned based on the time of G1 entry. As a result,

a synchronous increase in MAPK activity is observed when CDK activity stabilizes to low

values, corresponding to the G1-phase (Figure 2D and Supplementary Figure 3B). Finally, a fifth

cluster was identified with cells that cycle briefly in G1 during the time lapse (*Through-G1*, 3%).

No specific behavior in MAPK activity was observed in these cells even when traces are aligned

relative to the time of G1 entry (Supplementary Figure 4).

Figure 2E allows a direct comparison of the MAPK activity measured with the SKARS in

different cell cycle stages. The mean response of the population (thick blue line) is not

representative of the behavior of individual cells which can display strikingly different behavior.

However, because CDK plays a major role in controlling the signaling output of the mating

pathway, clustering based on the CDK activity pattern allows to group together cells that display

similar MAPK activity dynamics. Thus, we observe four types of behaviors: strong and sustained

activity for *G1* cells, weak and sustained activity in *Out-of-G1* cells, strong but transient activity

in the *G1-exit* cluster and delayed activation (depending on the timing of CDK activity drop)

present in the *G1-entry* cells.

Comparison with other reporters

In order to compare the results obtained with the SKARS, we performed a similar analysis with

two different assays that report on mating pathway activity. Using a fluorescently tagged Kss1

(Kss1-mScarlett), the relocation of the MAPK from the nucleus to the cytoplasm upon

pheromone stimulus has been monitored in a strain carrying Whi5-mCitrine. This change in

cellular compartments of Kss1 has been shown to be a consequence of the disassembly of a

complex formed between Dig1/Dig2, Ste12 and Kss1, upon phosphorylation by Fus3 and/or

Kss1 (Pelet, 2017) (Supplementary Figure 5 A and B). When comparing the response of the cells

in different cell-cycle stages, a similar pattern can be observed between this assay and the

SKARS reporter (Supplementary Figure 6). The major difference can be observed in the *G1-*

entry cluster where a gradual increase in signaling activity can be seen upon entry into G1

(Supplementary Figure 6D), compared to the sharper dynamics of the SKARS reporter in the

same cell cycle stage (Figure 2D). In addition, when comparing the Kss1 relocation of *G1* and

G1-entry cells relative to the time of pheromone addition (Supplementary Figure 6E), we see that

they are almost identical. This suggests that cells late in the division process have fully recovered

their signaling ability.

The second assay is based on the dPSTR (dynamic Protein Synthesis Translocation Reporter)

system which allows to monitor the dynamics of induction of a promoter of interest (Aymoz *et*

al., 2016). This promoter drives the expression of a small peptide that promotes the relocation of

a fluorescent protein in the nucleus of the cell. We use the previously published p*AGA1*-dPSTR

to monitor the dynamics of mating gene induction. AGA1 has been shown to be strongly induced

by α-factor in a MAPK dependent manner (Roy *et al.*, 1991; Oehlen *et al.*, 1996; Aymoz *et al.*,

2018). Clustering of the gene expression data based on cell-cycle stage demonstrates a strong

expression in *G1* and *G1-entry* clusters, while clusters for *Out-of-G1* and *G1-exit* cells display an

attenuated and delayed response (Supplementary Figure 7).

The global outcome that can be obtained by comparing these three types of reporters is that full

signal competence is observed in the *G1* cluster*,* while *Out-of-G1* cells have a reduced ability to

signal. In addition, cells exiting G1 will only transiently activate the MAPK. Interestingly, this

transient activation is not sufficient to drive gene expression as protein production in the *G1-exit*

cluster is delayed by 20 to 30 minutes.

MAPK activity in the G1-entry cluster

The comparison between the SKARS, the Kss1 relocation and the pAGA1-dPSTR also

highlights a discrepancy for the *G1-entry* cluster. While the two latter assays display a signaling

ability that is comparable to the one present in *G1* cells for the *G1-entry* cluster, the SKARS

measurements suggest that the MAPK activity is only recovered when CDK activity has

dropped, as cells enter in G1.

The influence of the cell cycle on the nuclear enrichment of the SKARS could potentially

explain this observation. Indeed, a lower enrichment of the corrector can be observed in *Out-of-*

G1 cells compared to *G1* cells (Supplementary Figure 8A and B). In the *G1-entry* cluster, this

results in a slow transition from a low to a high nuclear to cytoplasmic ratio (N/C) of the

corrector around the time of entry into G1. In signaling dead cells, the exact same behavior is

observed for the functional sensor (Supplementary Figure 1B). However, the dynamic of this

transition is strikingly different from the dynamic of MAPK activity measured upon *G1-entry*.

While the corrector slowly rises from -10 to +10 min, the MAPK activity shift takes place

between +5 and +10 min after the CDK activity drop. Thus, the fact that these two events are not

synchronous, strongly suggests that the sharp increase in MAPK activity is not an artifact from a

reduced sensitivity during the division of the cells.

Because, in each individual cell, the sensor and corrector nuclear enrichment are highly

correlated (Supplementary Figure 8C), we performed an additional verification and separately

analyzed cells with low and high nuclear enrichment of the corrector (Supplementary Figure 8D

and E). If the G1-entry behavior was an artifact due to a poor enrichment of the sensor, we would

expect that cells with a relatively high nuclear enrichment would not display this behavior or at

least to a lower extent. On the contrary, we observe that *G1-entry* cells which keep a high N/C of

the corrector throughout the time-lapse display a stronger change in MAPK activity 10 minutes

after G1 entry.

In agreement with the Kss1 and dPSTR assays, previous works (Oehlen and Cross, 1994;

Wassmann and Ammerer, 1997; Strickfaden *et al.*, 2007; Conlon *et al.*, 2016), have shown that

CDK inhibition of the mating pathway is limited to the S-phase and full signaling competence is

recovered in G2-M. The dynamics observed with the SKARS are therefore unexpected. This

behavior could be explained by the action of phosphatases acting on the phosphorylated residues

present on the SKARS. For instance, the Cdc14 phosphatase leaves the nucleus during mitotic

exit to dephosphorylate cyclin-dependent targets (Shou *et al.*, 1999; Visintin *et al.*, 1999; Mohl *et*

al., 2009). If this hypothesis is true, we can envision that other substrates of the MAPK might be

the target of phosphatases upon G1-entry and restrict their activity to the G1 phase.

Pheromone dose response

In order to test how the MAPK signaling behavior changes as function of input strength, time-

lapse movies were recorded with various concentrations of pheromone. The same cell cycle

clustering approach was used for all the dataset. As expected, the amplitude of the MAPK

activity decreases with lower pheromone concentrations (Figure 3 A-C). However, other changes

can also be observed between the different concentrations. In the G1-phase, a sustained MAPK

activity is observed at high doses of pheromone, while the signaling activity declines at lower α-

factor doses (Figure 3A). This behavior suggests an interplay between positive and negative

feedback loops. Multiple regulatory mechanisms have been identified in the mating pathway

(Hao *et al.*, 2003; Bhattacharyya *et al.*, 2006; Yu *et al.*, 2008; Nagiec *et al.*, 2015). None-the-

less, it remains difficult to estimate their relative influence on the signaling outcome. Our data

suggest that at low α-factor concentrations, negative feedbacks are prevalent and contribute to

the deactivation of the pathway. At high pheromone concentrations, however, the positive

feedbacks stabilize the system in a high activity state for a long time. Similar experiments were

performed in *BAR1+* cells, where the presence of the pheromone protease adds another layer of

regulation to the system and leads to a faster decline in signaling activity at all concentrations but

the highest one, which remains sustained over the course of the time lapse experiment

(Supplementary Figure 9).

It is well-established that treatment with pheromone prevents cells from entering a new cell cycle

round (Hartwell *et al.*, 1974), therefore one expects a difference in the proportion of G1 cells at

the end of the experiment between α-factor treated and mock treated cells (Figure 3D).

Interestingly, we noticed a gradual increase in the fraction of cells retained in G1 as function of

pheromone concentration. If we focus on the population of cells starting in G1 (*G1* and *G1-exit*

clusters, which roughly represent one third of the population), in the untreated situation 20% will

exit G1, while 9% remain in G1 for the entire time lapse. Note that these measured percentages

are specific to our 45 min the time lapse. For the sample stimulated with pheromone, this

proportion gradually increases to reach 20% of cells that remain in G1 at 1000nM versus 10%

that can still escape G1 arrest. A similar behavior is observed for cells that are dividing at the

onset of the time lapse (*Out-of-G1* and *G1-entry*). The proportion of the cells that enter and stay

in G1 (*G1-entry*) evolves from 12% to 30% as pheromone concentration increases. Thus, the

stronger MAPK activity measured at high concentrations promotes a larger accumulation of cells

in G1 at the end of the time-lapse movie. These experiments clearly illustrate the fact that the

level of MAPK activity influences the ability of the cells to initiate division.

START as a signal integration point

The START event in the cell cycle has been operationally defined as the time when cells become

insensitive to a pheromone stimulus and are committed to a new cell cycle round (Hartwell *et al.*,

1974). Multiple cellular events are coordinated around this decision point. Activity of the G1

cyclin Cln3 increases. It triggers the exit of Whi5 out of the nucleus, thereby allowing the

transcription of Cln1 and Cln2. These two cyclins will in turn drive the transcription of

downstream S-phase genes (Dirick *et al.*, 1995; Costanzo *et al.*, 2004; de Bruin *et al.*, 2004). We

have shown that the number of cells that are blocked in G1 or commit to a new cell cycle round

is dependent on the pheromone concentration and thus on the MAPK activity. In parallel, we

observed that the CDK activity, estimated from the Whi5 nuclear enrichment levels, gradually

increases for cells that commit to a new cell cycle round (*G1-exit* cluster, Figure 4 A-D). At low

pheromone concentration, cells can often override the mating signal and enter the cell cycle.

However, at high concentrations of α-factor only cells that have already reached a sufficient

CDK activity will be able to counterbalance the mating signal. In these cells, the CDK promotes

the entry in a new division round. Interestingly, at saturating α-factor concentrations, some cells

display a transient activation of the CDK, suggesting that the addition of the pheromone

inhibited the progression of the cell cycle (Figure 4E). A behavior that has been previously

characterized by Doncic et al. (Doncic *et al.*, 2011). Taken together these results comfort the idea

that START is a signal integration point where the cells balance the relative MAPK and CDK

activities to determine their fate: division or mating.

Hence, the cross-inhibition between the MAPK and CDK plays a central role in the decision to

mate or divide. The molecular mechanisms regulating the interplay between mating and cell

cycle have been extensively studied. Phosphorylation and expression of Far1 upon α-factor

stimulus inhibit the Cln1/2-Cdc28 complex to prevent cell cycle progression into S-phase (Chang

and Herskowitz, 1990; Tyers and Futcher, 1993; Peter and Herskowitz, 1994). Deletion of FAR1

does not affect the MAPK signaling activity of *G1* nor of *Out-of-G1* cells (Supplementary Figure

10A). However, the fraction of cells found in G1 at the end of the time-lapse experiment is

increasing from 25% to 50% for WT cells when changing the pheromone concentration to 1μM,

while it remains below 30% in *far1Δ* (Supplementary Figure 10B). These results confirm the

important role played by Far1 in the G1-arrest during the mating response.

Modulating Cdc28 activity

We have shown above that the efficiency of the cell cycle arrest depends on the level of MAPK

activity. We next want to verify how the CDK activity influence the MAPK signal transduction.

In budding yeast, a single Cyclin Dependent Kinase, Cdc28, associates with the different cyclins

throughout the cell cycle to orchestrate the division of the cell. While Cdc28 is an essential

protein, it is none-the-less possible to acutely inhibit its kinase activity by using an analog

sensitive allele (*cdc28-as* (Bishop *et al.*, 2000)). The inhibitor NAPP1 was added to the cells 6

minutes after the pheromone stimulus. Upon NAPP1 treatment, *Out-of-G1* cells show a rapid

relocation of Whi5 in the nucleus, attesting the fact that CDK activity is blocked. In parallel, the

MAPK activity, that is low during division, increases to a level comparable to the one observed

in cells stimulated in G1 (Figure 5A).

Additionally, this experiment allows to verify that the transient MAPK activation observed in the

G1-exit cluster is shaped by the rising CDK activity. Cells with an increasing CDK activity after

pheromone stimulus were clustered. In the DMSO control experiment, this sub-population

displays the expected fast activation of the MAPK upon α-factor addition followed by a decay to

basal activity as CDK activity rises. In the inhibitor treated cells, the MAPK activity decay is

blocked upon NAPP1 addition and the MAPK signal rises to reach full activity (Figure 5B).

These experiments demonstrate that the activity of Cdc28 directly and quickly regulates the level

of MAPK activity present in the cell.

Ste5 inhibition by the CDK

One mechanism of inhibition of the mating pathway by the CDK has been shown to consist in

the direct phosphorylation of the scaffold Ste5 by the Cln1/2-Cdc28 complex (Strickfaden *et al.*,

2007). Eight consensus phosphorylation sites in the vicinity of a plasma membrane binding

domain (PM) in Ste5 are targeted by the CDK to alter the charge of this peptide. This

phosphorylation prevents the association of Ste5 to the membrane, thereby blocking the signal

flow in the pathway. In *ste5Δ* cells, we reintroduced three different alleles of Ste5 at the

endogenous locus: the WT copy, the $Ste5_{8A}$ mutant (where all putative phosphorylatable residues

were mutated to alanine (Strickfaden *et al.*, 2007)) or a $Ste5_{CND}$ (where the docking motif of

Cln1/2 on Ste5 has been mutated (Bhaduri and Pryciak, 2011)) (Figure 6A). We monitored the

response of the mating pathway for these three alleles with the SKARS, the relocation of Kss1

and the p*AGA1*-dPSTR at 10 and 100 nM α-factor (Figure 6B, C and D). The wild-type *STE5*

behaved similarly to the WT parental strains, demonstrating the functionality of the

complementation. As expected, signaling activity in *G1* cells is minimally influenced by either

mutation in Ste5 because the CDK is inactive. In the *G1-exit* cluster, the inhibition following the

transient activation of the pathway is less pronounced in the two Ste5 mutants than for the wild-

type allele. Generally, the behavior is more pronounced at 10nM than at 100nM α-factor and the

$Ste5_{8A}$ mutant displays a weaker inhibition by the CDK than the $Ste5_{CND}$ mutant.

A recent report has demonstrated that the combined action of Fus3 and Cdc28 is required to

phosphorylate the eight residues Ste5 in the vicinity of the PM domain (Repetto *et al.*, 2018).

However, our data suggest that an additional mechanism might contribute to limit the signal
transduction of the mating pathway in the early stage of the division process. This phenomenon
is best observed at low concentrations of pheromone where the activity of the MAPK cascade is
weaker. This behavior has not been detected previously, probably because most experiments
have been performed at saturating levels of pheromone. However, in mating mixture where
pheromone concentration is low, this mechanism could contribute to the cell fate decision. In
order to identify other potential targets of the CDK, we have tested various alleles of Ste20
because it has often been suggested as a potential target for this regulation (Oehlen and Cross,
1998; Wu *et al.*, 1998; Oda *et al.*, 1999) (Supplementary Figure 11A and C) and we have also
tested the influence of phosphorylation sites on Ste7 without measuring any detectable changes
in signaling activity between mutants (Supplementary Figure 11B and D).

To summarize, START is the integration point where MAPK and CDK activities are compared
to engage in a specific cellular fate. Far1 and Cdc28 are key players in this cross-inhibition of the
two pathways. *far1Δ* cells cannot arrest their cell cycle at START. None-the less, a number of
Far1-independent mechanisms for cell cycle arrest have been documented (Tyers, 1996; Oehlen
et al., 1998; Cherkasova *et al.*, 1999). Cdc28 is solely responsible for the inhibition of the mating
pathway by the cell cycle and, up to now, only a single target, Ste5, has been convincingly
shown to regulate this process. Our data indicate that other mechanisms, that remain to be
identified, contribute to the repression of MAPK activity in dividing cells.

MAPK activity in mating

After studying the response of cells stimulated by exogenous pheromone, we next wanted to
understand how the cell cycle and the mating pathway were regulated during mating and how
this cross-inhibition allowed an efficient cell-fate selection in these physiological conditions. In
order to achieve this, we have imaged the *MAT***a** cells bearing the SKARS, the corrector and the
Whi5 marker in presence of a *MAT*α partner expressing constitutively a cytosolic CFP at high
levels. In Figure 7A, thumbnails of such an experiment are displayed. The fusion events (arrow
heads) can be detected by observing a sudden increase in CFP signal in the *MAT***a** cells. In the
frame preceding the two fusion events displayed in Figure 7A, we observe that the *MAT***a** cells of
interest are in G1 (nuclear Whi5) and display a high MAPK activity (nuclear depletion of the
SKARS).

The dynamic measurements of the mating process allowed us to monitor how cells reach this
state. Using our automated image analysis pipeline, we have detected more than one hundred
fusion events and curated them manually to remove any artifacts due to a mis-segmentation of
the cells. The single cell traces of these events have been computationally aligned relative to the
fusion time. Time zero corresponds to the last frame before the increase in CFP intensity,
because it is the last time point where MAPK activity can be reliably quantified (Figure 7B). As
a reference, the median MAPK activity of cells imaged under the same conditions but in absence
of a mating partner is plotted. In the fusing cell, a gradual increase in MAPK activity starts 40 to
60 minutes prior to fusion. In parallel, we observe that the median CDK activity is low for all
time-points. However, the 75 percentile stabilizes to a low value 40 minutes prior to fusion,
denoting that a fraction of the population enters in G1 within the hour preceding the fusion.

From the analysis of these fusion events, it becomes clear that the enrichment in G1 state prior to
fusion occurs in cells that experience a low level of MAPK activity, or, in other words, when
cells are surrounded by a low concentration of mating pheromone. In the exogenous stimulation
experiments, we have shown that at low pheromone concentrations, a fraction of the cells do not
commit to the mating response and keep proliferating. We verified if in the mating mixtures non-
fusing cells were influenced by the presence of the mating partners. To achieve this, we
monitored the CDK activity in cells that were cycling through G1. Interestingly, we observe that
the G1 state of these cells is prolonged and displays a great variability (Figure 7C). In these
cycling cells, the CDK activity remains lower in cells in mating mixtures compared to the same
cells imaged alone (Figure 7D). In parallel, a weak activation of the mating pathway can be
observed during the G1 phase (Figure 7E). *ste5Δ* cells imaged in presence of a mating partner
display a fast cycling through G1 compared to the WT cells because they remain insensitive to
the presence of the partners. In this background, the deletion of the scaffold Ste5 leads to an
absence of activity of the MAPK Fus3 and Kss1 which cannot counteract the rise of the CDK
activity at START.

Discussion

In this study, we performed dynamic single cell measurements with live-cell imaging. These
time lapse movies were automatically quantified, allowing the clustering and *in silico*
synchronization of hundreds of single cell traces. The ability to follow the response of individual

cells in a population of naturally cycling cells has enabled us to monitor the influence of the cell
cycle on the mating process with minimal perturbations. Importantly, the correlation of multiple
signaling activities within the same cell by combining fluorescent reporters for CDK and MAPK
activities allowed us to identify different MAPK signaling patterns, which demonstrates the
ability of the MAPK cascade to integrate the CDK activity to deliver the required signaling
output. The molecular mechanisms of some of these integrations have been identified previously,
but our quantitative measurements suggest that additional mechanisms contribute to the interplay
between MAPK and CDK.

We have verified with exogenous stimulation experiments performed with various
concentrations of pheromone that START is a central integration point where cells compare the
relative levels of MAPK and CDK activities to decide on their cellular fate: proliferation or
mating. It remains to be precisely determined which molecular mechanisms control this decision.
On the MAPK side, our data agree with the numerous previous studies that demonstrated that the
MAPK activity controls the CDK via the protein Far1 (Peter *et al.*, 1993; Peter and Herskowitz,
1994). The mating pathway regulates both the level of Far1 and its phosphorylation status. What
remains to be understood is how each one of these changes influence the decision made by the
cell.

On the CDK side, Cdc28 kinase activity is directly regulating the signal flow in the MAPK
pathway. Blocking Cdc28 activity relieves this inhibition allowing recovering full MAPK
activity, within minutes after addition of the chemical inhibitor (Figure 5). This suggests a very
direct mechanism of action on the mating pathway. The primary candidate for this process has
been Ste5. However, our quantitative measurements speak for an additional mechanism
detectable mostly at low pheromone concentrations. Other potential candidate targets of Cdc28
could be the G-protein and the receptor, or other proteins in the MAPK signal transduction
cascades.

The experiments performed with mating mixtures also illustrate that the interplay between the
CDK and the MAPK are central elements in the cell fate selected by the cells. Our data indicate
that the commitment to the mating program is taking place at low levels of MAPK signaling
activity, where we have shown with exogenous pheromone stimulation, that the CDK can
frequently override the MAPK arrest. The sensing of the pheromone secreted by nearby mating
partners triggers a low level of MAPK activity, including the activation of positive and negative

feedback regulation mechanisms (Figure 8). In the cells that will successfully mate, we observe

that the MAPK activity is progressively rising and thereby preventing an activation of the CDK

that would promote an entry in the cell cycle. The polarized secretion of pheromones by both

partners contributes further to this increase in MAPK activity that reaches its maximum shortly

before the fusion of the two cells. Cells which are at some distance from a potential partner

experience lower levels of pheromone. Internal feedback loops together with the secretion of the

Bar1 protease contribute to dampen the MAPK activity thus when cells reach the cell-cycle

commitment point the CDK can override this low mating signaling activity and promote a new

cell cycle round.

Throughout all eukaryotes, MAPK signaling and the cell cycle are highly conserved cellular

processes. The homolog of Fus3 in mammalian cells is ERK. ERK is probably best known for its

implication in cell growth and division in somatic cells (Meloche and Pouysségur, 2007) and

hyperactivating mutation in the ERK pathway are found in numerous cancers (Davies *et al.*,

2002). However, the ERK pathway can also inhibit cell cycle progression. One well-known

example is the stimulation of PC-12 cells with NGF, which results in a prolonged activation of

ERK, promoting a cell cycle arrest and differentiation into neuronal cells (Marshall, 1995;

Pumiglia and Decker, 1997). More generally, during development MAPK pathways play a

central role in the commitment of cells into specific lineage and this is often performed in tight

correlation with the cell cycle (Orford and Scadden, 2008). Correlating dynamic measurements

of CDK and MAPK activities in these cells could reveal the underlying mechanisms that allow

the MAPK to integrate cell cycle cues to modulate the signaling outcome.

Materials and Methods

Strains and plasmids

Yeast strains and plasmids are listed in Supplementary Tables 1 and 2. SKARS plasmids were

constructed by cloning the different sensors from Durandau et al (Durandau *et al.*, 2015) into a

pSIV vector backbone (Wosika *et al.*, 2016). The sensor and the corrector were assembled by

cloning the *STE7$_{1-33}$-NLS-NLS-mCherry* or the *STE7$_{ND}$-NLS-NLS-CFP* (HindIII-KpnI)

sequences downstream the p*RPS6B* promoter into the pSIV-URA (SacI-KpnI). The plasmid

pED141 containing both sensor and corrector was obtained by cloning the p*RPS6B* -*STE7$_{ND}$* -

NLS-NLS-CFP into the second MCS of pED92 (AatII-SphI). Plasmids were transformed in yeast

of W303 background expressing the Hta2-iRFP (yED136) or the Hta2-tdiRFP (yED152). Whi5

was tagged with mCitrine using pGTT-mCitrine plasmid (Wosika *et al.*, 2016). Kss1 was tagged

with mScarlet (pGTL-mScarlet). p*AGA1* induction was monitored by integrating the p*AGA1*-

dPSTR^R in the URA3 locus (Aymoz *et al.*, 2018).

Genomic deletions were constructed in cells bearing the sensors using KAN or NAT resistance

cassettes (Longtine *et al.*, 1998; Goldstein and McCusker, 1999). Plasmids containing the coding

sequence of Ste5, Ste20 and Ste7 were obtained by amplification of a chromosome fragment

spanning from -100bp (into the promoter) to the end of the ORF and cloned using PacI-NheI

sites into the pGTH-CFP (replacing the fluorescent protein). Mutated variants were then obtained

by replacing a portion of the plasmid DNA coding sequence by a synthetic double-stranded DNA

fragment bearing the desired mutations. Plasmids were integrated into the genome of yeast by

replacing the NAT or KAN cassettes used to delete the native gene using homology regions in

the promoter of the gene and in the TEF terminator of the deletion cassette, which is also present

on the pGTH vector.

Sample preparation

The cells were grown to saturation in overnight cultures at 30°C in synthetic medium (YNB:

CYN3801, CSM: DCS0031, ForMedium). They were diluted in the morning to OD_{600}=0.05 and

grown for at least four hours before starting the experiments. For experiments in wells, 96-well

plates (MGB096-1-2LG, Matrical Bioscience) were coated with a filtered solution of

Concanavalin A (0.5 mg/ml, 17-0450-01, GE Healthcare) for 30min, rinsed with H_2O, and dried

for at least 2 hours. Before the experiment, the cultures were diluted to an OD_{600} of 0.05, and

briefly sonicated. A volume of 200µl of culture was loaded into each well. Cells were left

settling 30–45 minutes before imaging. To stimulate the cells, 100µl of inducing solution was

added to the wells. For α-factor stimulation, final concentration is indicated into the figure

legend. To inhibit the *cdc28-as*, a 25mM stock solution of NAPP1 (A603004, Toronto Research

Chemical) in DMSO was diluted in SD-medium and added to the wells. The final working

concentration is indicated in the figure legend. For control experiments, cells were treated with

DMSO 0.16% in SD-full.

For mating assay experiments, log phase cultures of *MAT**a*** and *MATα* (ySP694) were diluted to

OD 0.1 in 500µl SD-full. Cells were spun down for 2min at 3000rpm. The supernatant was

removed from the cultures and *MATα* cells were resuspended in 10µl of SD-full. These 10µl

were then used to resuspend the *MAT**a*** cells. 1µl of this mating mixture was placed on an agar

pad. The pad was then placed upside down into the well of a 96-well plate. To prepare the pad, a

2% agarose mixture in SD-full was heated for 5 min at 95°. 150µl liquid was placed in a home-

made aluminum frame. After cooling down, the 7 mm square pad was gently extracted from the

frame. Typically, 6 to 8 mating pads were prepared and imaged in parallel.

Microscopy

Images were acquired with a fully automated inverted epi-fluorescence microscope (Ti-Eclipse,

Nikon), controlled by Micromanager software (Edelstein *et al.*, 2010) and placed in an

incubation chamber set at 30 °C, with a 40X oil objective and appropriate excitation and

emission filters. The excitation was provided by a solid-state light source (SpectraX, Lumencor).

The images were recorded with a sCMOS camera (Flash4.0, Hamamatsu). A motorized XY-

stage allowed recording multiple fields at every time points. Cy5p5 (200ms), CFP (100ms), RFP

(100ms), YFP (300ms) and two brightfield (10ms) images were recorded at time intervals of 3 or

5 minutes.

Data analysis

Time-lapse movies were analyzed with the YeastQuant platform (Pelet *et al.*, 2012). The cell

nuclei were segmented by thresholding from Cy5p5 images. The contour of the cell around each

identified nucleus was detected using both brightfield images. The cytoplasm object was

obtained by removing the nucleus object expanded by two pixels from the cell object. The nuclei

were tracked across all the frames of the movie. Multiple features of each object were quantified.

Note that for mating pad experiments, the *MATα* cells were not segmented as they do not express

the Hta2-iRFP. Dedicated scripts were written in Matlab R2016b (The Mathworks) to further

analyze the data. Except for Figure 7, only cells tracked from the beginning to the end of the

movie were taken into consideration. In addition, a quality control was applied on each trace and

only the traces with low variability in nuclear and cell area, and Cy5p5 nuclear fluorescence

were kept for further analysis. On average, 65% of the cells tracked from the beginning to the

end of the time lapse passed the quality control.

For each cell, the average nuclear intensity in the fluorescent channel corresponding to the

SKARS, the Corrector and Whi5-mCitrine were divided by the average intensity in the

cytoplasm for every time point (ratio N/C). To quantify the MAPK activity, the Adjusted ratio

for each individual cell was obtained by dividing the ratio N/C of the Corrector by the ratio N/C

of the SKARS. The CDK activity of each cell was defined as the inverse of the Whi5-mCitrine

N/C ratio. The initial CDK activity was defined as the average of three time-points before the

stimulus (3–6 minutes before α-factor stimulus). All these quantities are unitless numbers, since

they are ratios between fluorescence intensities obtained from the microscope camera. We used

the symbol [–] to represent this lack of units.

CDK activity-based clustering and synchronization

When plotting a histogram using the Whi5 ratio N/C (Nuclear intensity over Cytoplamsic

intensity) of all cells at all time points, we identified two populations. To properly distinguish

between ratios corresponding to nuclear Whi5 versus ratios corresponding to cytoplasmic Whi5,

we first separated ratio values using a fixed threshold (threshold=2). However, this value

overestimated the limit of what could be considered as nuclear Whi5. We then identified cells

with ratios below this threshold at all time points and replotted a histogram of all Whi5 ratio N/C

values from this sub-population. This method enables to enrich the sample with low N/C ratio.

This second histogram presented a clearer overview of the values corresponding to cytoplasmic

Whi5. We then calculated the derivative of the histogram and identified the position of fifth-

lowest derivative value. The corresponding Whi5 ratio N/C was used as a final threshold to

separate nuclear to cytoplasmic Whi5 values. This procedure enables to correct for slight

differences between experiments mostly due to the chosen experimental settings (96 well-plate

or pad experiments). Globally, the procedure adjusted the threshold between 2 and 1.7. If the

Whi5 ratio N/C was above the threshold, corresponding to a low CDK activity value (C/N) and

thus the cell was considered in G1. On the opposite, values below the threshold indicate that the

cell was *Out-of-G1*. *G1* cells sub-population was defined by single cell traces which remained

above the threshold for the entire duration of the time lapse. Conversely, *Out-of-G1* cells cluster

was defined by traces that stay below this threshold. The other single cell traces are scanned for

G1-entry and G1-exit events. If a pattern of two values below the threshold followed by two

values above the threshold was found, we considered that the cell belonged to the *G1-entry*

cluster. The same strategy was used to identify the *G1-exit* sub-population, using a pattern of two

values above the threshold followed by two values below the threshold. Cells in the *G1-entry*

cluster were defined as having a single event of G1-entry. Cells in the *G1-exit* cluster were

selected as having only one event of G1-exit. Finally, the *Through-G1* cluster is made of cells

that display a G1-entry event followed by a G1-exit event. Because the duration of the time-lapse

experiments is much shorter than the cell cycle of the yeast (45 min vs. 90 min), we considered

that the number of events cannot exceed two. Cells which do not follow this criterion were

rejected from the analysis. Depending on the experiment, we rejected a maximum of 5% of the

total population. The position of the G1-entry was used to create new time vectors for

synchronization of the *G1-entry* and the *Through-G1* single cell traces. We extracted the

individual time vector for each cell and subtracted the time at which the G1-entry event occurred.

Detection of fusion events in mating assays

*MAT*α cells express the CFP fluorescent protein under the control of a strong promoter. When

*MAT***a** and *MAT*α cells fuse the CFP from the *MAT*α cell diffuses into the partner leading to a

rise of the fluorescence into the segmented *MAT***a**. Fusing *MAT***a** cells were first detected

bioinformatically by identifying a sudden increase of the CFP intensity in the nucleus object. We

chose the nucleus object rather than the whole cell to avoid that mis-segmentation triggers a

misleading increase in CFP intensity not linked to a fusion event. Fusion event time was defined

as the time point at which the difference in the CFP nuclear signal between two consecutive time

points exceed 200, while remaining below 700. Traces of fusing cells were selected as they

contain a single detected fusion event. We filtered out cells with aberrant absolute and derivative

nuclear CFP fluorescence signal or tracked for less than 15 min prior or after the fusion time.

CFP images corresponding to selected cells were checked manually to reject false positives that

could not be detected during the bioinformatics analysis. The position of the fusion event into the

time vectors of individual fusing cells was used as a time reference to align temporally the

MAPK activity and CDK (Figure 7).

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Author contributions

570   ED and SP conceived and study and wrote the manuscript. ED constructed the strains and
571   performed the experiments with exogenous stimulation of pheromone. SP performed the mating
572   assay experiments. ED analyzed the single cell data.
573   The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

Figure Legends

Figure 1: Dynamic MAPK and CDK activity measurements in live single cells.

A. Schematic representation of the Synthetic Kinase Activity Relocation Sensor (SKARS).

B. Epi-fluorescence microscopy images of WT cells expressing a Hta2-tdiRFP (nucleus), a Ste7$_{DS}$-SKARS-mCherry (MAPK activity sensor), a Ste7$_{ND}$-SKARS-CFP (Corrector), and a Whi5-mCitrine (CDK activity). Log-phase cells were placed in a microscopy well-plate. During the time lapse, cells were stimulated with 1 μM α-factor (time 0).

C. MAPK activity was quantified from time-lapse movies acquired with a WT strain (red, Nc = 191) and a mating signaling dead mutant (*ste5 Δ*, blue, Nc = 437) (See Methods and Supplementary Figure 1). For all similar graphs, the solid line represents the median of the population, the shaded area delimits the 25 and 75 percentiles of the population. Dashed lines display the response of a few single cells. Nc represents the number of single-cell traces analyzed.

D. Schematic representation of the CDK activity sensor (Whi5-mCitrine).

E. Microscopy images of the same strain presented in B. The thumbnails are extracted from a 120 min time-lapse movie of unstimulated cells dividing under normal growth conditions.

F. CDK activity reported as function of time relative to G1. Single cell traces that exhibit at least one trough of CDK activity were selected (Nc = 70). The traces were synchronized relative to the time at which the CDK activity reaches its minimum value (see Supplementary Figure 2).

Figure 2: Dynamics of MAPK activity monitored by the SKARS in different cell cycle phases.

A-D. MAPK activity was quantified for cells in an asynchronously growing culture stimulated with 1 μM α-factor at time 0. 738 single cell traces were clustered by comparing the CDK activity prior and after stimulation (see Methods). *G1* cells (A, Nc =143) retain a low CDK activity throughout the time lapse, while *Out-of-G1* cells (B, Nc =256) maintain a high CDK activity. *G1-exit* cells (C, Nc =76) start with low and finish with high CDK activity. Conversely, *G1-entry* cells (D, Nc =249) start with high and finish with low CDK activity. In this sub-population, the traces are aligned relative to the time of G1-entry. The median (solid line) MAPK activity (red) and CDK activity (green) and the 25–75 percentiles (shaded area) of each sub-population are plotted.

E. Summary of the various dynamic MAPK activities observed upon addition of 1 μM α-factor at time 0 in the four main cell cycle clusters. Each line corresponds to the mean of the medians of 5 biological replicates. Error bars represent the standard deviations of the medians. The percentages in the legend indicate the relative proportion of each cluster in the population.

Figure 3: Commitment to cell cycle is pheromone dose-dependent.

A-C. Pheromone dose-dependent dynamic MAPK activity in different phases of the cell cycle. Experiments and clustering analysis were performed as in Figure 2. Different α-factor concentrations were used to stimulate cells. Median MAPK activity from at least five replicates were averaged for each curve. The error bars represent the standard deviations between the replicates.

D. Fractions of cells in each sub-population as function of the pheromone concentration for our 45 min time lapse. The prevalence of each cluster is calculated from the means of at least three replicates.

Figure 4: Level of MAPK activity at START controls cell cycle commitment.

A-C. Dynamic CDK activity of cells exiting G1 at various pheromone concentrations. Single cell traces (dashed lines) and the median of the sub-population (solid line) are presented in each graph. Note the decreased variability in CDK activity patterns as pheromone concentration increases.

D. Initial CDK activity (mean of the three points before stimulus) measured in the *G1-exit* cluster for different α-factor concentrations. The distribution of the initial CDK of *G1-exit* cells for one replicate for each concentration is presented as a boxplot. The dots correspond to the median initial CDK activity of additional replicates.

E. CDK activity of cells attempting to exit G1. The dynamic CDK activity of G1 cells from multiple 1000nM α-factor experiments were pooled. The Attempt G1-exit sub-population (red) contains cells with an initial CDK activity above 0.35. Four single cell traces from the Attempt G1-exit sub-population (dashed lines) that display a transient peak in CDK activity around the time of pheromone addition are plotted. The median CDK activity for the *G1* (blue) and *G1-exit* (green) clusters from Figure 2 are plotted for comparison.

Figure 5: Regulation of MAPK signal transduction by the CDK.

A-B. Dynamic CDK and MAPK activities after *cdc28-as* chemical inhibition. Cells expressing an analog sensitive allele of Cdc28 (*cdc28-as*) are imaged every two minutes for 50 minutes. Cells are stimulated with 100nM α-factor at time 0. Six minutes later either NAPP1 (10 μM, solid line and shaded area) or DMSO (0.04% v/v, dashed line) is added. MAPK and CDK activities of cells starting *Out-of-G1* (mean $CDK_{t<0}$ >0.5, A, NAPP1: Nc = 448, DMSO: Nc = 381), or exiting G1 upon pheromone addition (mean $CDK_{t<0}$ <0.5 and mean $CDK_{0<t<6}$ >0.5, B, NAPPI: Nc = 39, DMSO: Nc = 16) are plotted.

Figure 6: Dynamic MAPK activity of cells expressing non-phosphorylatable Ste5 alleles.

A. Schematic representation of the wild-type Ste5 scaffold protein structure compared to the Ste5$_{8A}$ mutant with 8 non-phosphorylatable residues in the vicinity of the plasma membrane domain and the Ste5$_{CND}$ variant with point mutations in the Cln1/2 docking motif.

B-D. Dynamics of mating pathway activity in *G1* (solid line) and *G1-exit* cells (dashed line) measured by the SKARS (B), Kss1 relocation (cytoplasmic over nuclear intensity, C) and p*AGA1*-dPSTR^R nuclear accumulation (nucleus minus cytoplasmic intensity, D). Cells expressing either the Ste5$_{WT}$ (blue), Ste5$_{8A}$ (red), or Ste5$_{CND}$ allele (yellow) were treated with 10nM (left) and 100nM (right) pheromone. Cell cycle clustering was performed as in Figure 2. Median MAPK activity from at least three replicates were averaged for each curve. The error bars represent the standard deviations between the replicates.

Figure 7: CDK and MAPK cross-regulation in mating conditions

A. Microscopy time-lapse images of two fusion events between *MAT***a** cells expressing the various sensors mixed with *MAT*α strain expressing a cytoplasmic CFP. The fusion can be detected when the CFP from the *MAT*α diffuses in the *MAT***a** partner (White arrows). The indicated time is relative to the last time point preceding the second fusion event.

B. Dynamic MAPK and CDK activities in *MAT***a** cells undergoing fusion detected by a sharp increase in CFP intensity (blue) (See Method). MAPK (red) and CDK (green) activities of the fusing cells were synchronized relative to the last time point before the fusion occurs (Nc=127). The dashed orange line and the shaded area around it correspond to the median and 25–75 percentiles (averaged across multiple time points) of the MAPK activity in *MAT***a** cells in absence of mating partners, but imaged in the same conditions.

C-D. Duration of the G1 phase of non-fusing cells. Non-fusing cells transiting through G1 were identified as previously (Figure 3C and Methods). **C.** The time separating the G1 entry and G1 exit is calculated from each single cell trace ($\Delta t_{exit-entry}$) and averaged. The means $\Delta t_{exit-entry}$ from at least three replicates are plotted as boxplot. **D.** The dynamic CDK activity from single cells are synchronized relative to the G1 entry. Error bars are standard deviation of at least three medians replicates.

E. MAPK activity in non-fusing *MAT***a** cells transiting through G1. Single cell traces are synchronized relative to the G1 entry and averaged as in Figure 2D. Error bars are standard deviation of at least three medians replicates.

In these mating experiments, all strains are BAR1.

Figure 8: Scheme of the interplay between CDK and MAPK during mating

*MAT***a** cells respond to a pheromone gradient secreted by a *MAT*α mating partner. The strength of the MAPK activity will depend on the level of α-factor sensed by the cells and the contribution of positive and negative feedback. At START, relative CDK and MAPK activities will be compared in order for the cell to select a fate: division or mating.

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Supplementary Material:

Supporting Information Legends

Supplementary Figures 1 to 11
Supplementary Tables 1 and 2

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7

Figure 8