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3	Switchable Cas9
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22 Abstract

23 Ever since its discovery, Cas9 from Streptococcus pyogenes has revolutionized biology by enabling 24 analysis and engineering of genomes with unprecedented precision and ease. To fine-tune on-target 25 effects and to mitigate adverse effects caused by untimely and off-target action of Cas9, strategies 26 have been developed to control its activity at the post-translational stage via external trigger signals. 27 Control is either achieved by modifying the Cas9 protein itself or its programmable RNA molecules. 28 To date, switchable Cas9 variants responding to small ligands, light or temperature have been 29 engineered. With these variants in hand, the regulation and modification of genomes can be 30 accomplished in graded and ever more precise manner.

31

32 Highlights

33 > diverse Cas9 variants have been engineered that are switchable by external signals
 34 > suitable signals include addition of small molecules, light and temperature changes
 35 > to achieve control, the Cas9 protein itself or its programmable RNAs are modified
 36 > switchable Cas9 variants are engineered as split or single-chain proteins
 37 > switchable variants mitigate effects caused by excessive and untimely Cas9 activity
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39 Introduction

The advent of the programmable DNA endonuclease Cas9 has revolutionized analysis, control and engineering of genomes [1]. The most widely used Cas9 from *Streptococcus pyogenes* originally forms part of the type II-A CRISPR-Cas (<u>c</u>lustered <u>r</u>egularly <u>i</u>nterspaced <u>short palindromic r</u>epeats-<u>CRISPSR associated</u>) adaptive immune system [2,3] and requires two non-coding RNA molecules, denoted crRNA (<u>CRISPR RNA</u>) and tracrRNA (<u>trans-activating crRNA</u>), for sequence-specific binding and cleavage of DNA double strands. Of key advantage, the Cas9 programmability to target a specific DNA sequence is encoded in the crRNA of the dual tracrRNA:crRNA, rather than in proteinaceous
components as in the alternative zinc finger or TALE (transcription activator-like effector) systems
[4]. Routinely, the crRNA and tracrRNA of Cas9 are covalently linked by a hairpin to yield a chimeric
RNA, termed single-guide RNA (sgRNA) [5•].

50 Biotechnological applications that harnesses the ability of the sgRNA to direct Cas9 to specific 51 DNA target sites fall into two general areas (Fig. 1): first, sequence-specific endonucleolytic cleavage 52 by Cas9 wild-type or variants introduces single-strand nicks or double-strand breaks (DSB) to trigger 53 cellular repair mechanisms, principally non-homologous end-joining and homologous 54 recombination [1]. Second, DNA cleavage is deliberately suspended in a Cas9 variant, termed dCas9, 55 which bears two mutations in its RuvC and HNH nuclease domains, respectively [6]. dCas9 hence 56 serves as a programmable sequence-specific DNA-binding protein. In the CRISPR interference 57 (CRISPRi) approach, dCas9 is directed to the promoter or 5' region of target genes, thereby 58 competes with RNA polymerase and represses transcription [7]. Alternatively, dCas9 is connected 59 to transcriptional activators, repressors and silencers to exert transcriptional regulation [8,9], or to 60 fluorescent reporters to mark certain genetic loci [10].

Both areas benefit from means of precisely controlling (d)Cas9 activity, preferably with spatial 61 62 and temporal resolution, and in reversible manner. In particular, off-target cleavage caused by 63 elevated Cas9 levels can be mitigated by adjusting overall activity and by turning off Cas9 at desired 64 times [11]. In principle, control can be achieved at the expression level, leading to changes in the 65 production of (d)Cas9, or at the post-translational level, leading to changes in (d)Cas9 activity, availability or stability. The latter of the two offers the advantages of faster response and of being 66 67 compatible with approaches where pre-assembled (d)Cas9 is injected into target cells as opposed 68 to being expressed in situ. Natural mechanisms that directly affect the activity of Cas9 [12•,13•] and 69 related CRISPR proteins [14] have only been discovered very recently and are so far limited to 70 inhibitory proteins. Against this backdrop, the past two years have witnessed the vigorous

development of synthetic strategies for controlling (d)Cas9 activity [11,15]. Here, we review recent
advances in the engineering of (d)Cas9 variants that can be modulated in their cellular availability
and activity by external stimuli.

74

75 Leverage Points for Interfering with Cas9 Activity

As illustrated by the high-resolution structure of the S. pyogenes holo enzyme [6], Cas9 is an 76 77 elaborate molecular machine that precisely mediates several reaction steps with several ligands 78 (Fig. 1). Although the mechanistic details await full elucidation, it is evident that for proper function 79 Cas9 needs to bind the dual tracrRNA:crRNA (or, the sgRNA) to locate the specific target site within 80 double-stranded DNA, to cleave both DNA strands and to eventually release the reaction products 81 [5•]. Potentially, each of these steps offers toeholds for interfering with Cas9 activity; if interference 82 proceeds in signal-dependent manner, the desired regulation of Cas9 is accomplished. Present 83 approaches for signal-dependent regulation of Cas9 activity rely on impeding assembly with its 84 programmable RNA and/or correct binding to the DNA target site, as opposed to affecting 85 nucleolytic cleavage per se. As a corollary, the regulatory approaches developed for the cleavage-86 competent Cas9 also hold for the cleavage-incompetent dCas9. The opposite is not necessarily true 87 as dCas9 is often used as an inert, RNA-guided, sequence-specific DNA-binding protein, to which 88 accessory effector modules are recruited that exert the desired biological activity. Regulation of this 89 activity can be achieved via signal-modulated recruitment of accessory effector units to dCas9.

90

91 Split Variants to Regulate Cas9 Activity

92 Precisely orchestrated interactions between proteins and nucleic acids underpin diverse natural 93 processes and are often subject to regulation by signals, e.g., small-molecule compounds. The 94 moieties mediating such signal-dependent interactions have long been coopted in the engineering of split proteins that regain function when dimerized, e.g., [16]. Several of these strategies have also
been applied in order to subject split Cas9 under the control of external triggers.

97 Cas9 has been divided into two fragments and linked to the two halves of a split intein [17,18•];
98 fragment combination allowed seamless *trans* splicing and yielded native, fully functional protein.
99 However, intein-based approaches suffer from being irreversible as reversible activation would
100 require non-covalent fragment assembly.

The dissection of Cas9 into recognition and nuclease lobes, which are inactive on their own but 101 regain activity when associating upon sgRNA binding, demonstrated the principal validity of the split 102 103 approach for Cas9 [19]. The combination of split Cas9 parts with the FKBP protein and the 104 rapamycin-binding domain of mTOR, respectively, yielded a system in which fragment assembly and 105 concomitant recovery of Cas9 activity are under control of rapalogs (i.e. rapamycin or analogs) [20•]. 106 To overcome the challenge posed by undesirable residual dimerization in the absence of rapalogs, 107 one fragment was directed to the nucleus and the other to the cytosol via appendage of suitable 108 localization signal peptides. Nguyen et al. later added an additional layer of control by linking both 109 Cas9 fragments with the ligand-binding domain (LBD) of the estrogen receptor ERT [21•]. This 110 domain interacts with the cytosolic chaperone Hsp90 and is thus sequestered from the nucleus. 111 Addition of the ligand 4-hydroxytamoxifen (4-HT) disrupts the Hsp90:ERT interaction and thereby 112 promotes nuclear translocation of ERT and the connected split fragments. Assembly in the nucleus 113 and resultant reconstitution of Cas9 activity either occurs spontaneously or, in enhanced fashion, 114 by rapalog addition.

Rather than by chemical means, split Cas9 fragments can also be functionally reconstituted via light-mediated dimerization. To this end, Cas9 fragments were linked to derivatives of the *Neurospora crassa* light-oxygen-voltage (LOV) photoreceptor Vivid, dubbed Magnets [22], that assemble into a heterodimer upon blue-light-exposure [23••]. In contrast to the above approaches, this light-regulated system benefits from higher spatiotemporal resolution and reversible activation.

120 At least some of the above approaches achieve external control of Cas9 activity with high 121 dynamic range, but they all require the use of two separate polypeptides. Although the two-122 component nature can be advantageous, e.g., enabling regulatory strategies and making for smaller 123 gene constructs (e.g., beneficial for viral transfection) [18•], at least under certain circumstances it 124 may also impart disadvantages, in particular a strong concentration dependence of the response 125 [24] and sensitivity to different expression levels of the individual compounds. Cas9 derivatives that 126 can be triggered by external signals yet are engineered as a single polypeptide thus represent viable 127 alternatives to the split systems.

128

129 Single-chain Variants to Regulate Cas9 Activity

130 Modification of a lysine residue nearby the crRNA binding site of Cas9 with a photolabile caging 131 group put RNA binding and catalytic activity under control of UV light [25•]. Notably, the 132 photocaging group was incorporated site-specifically as an unnatural amino acid (UAA) via *amber* suppression, and in its photocaged form, Cas9 showed negligible activity. However, after UV-133 134 induced deprotection unmodified, fully functional enzyme was obtained. Modification via *amber* 135 suppression of the same lysine with a different protecting group rendered uncaging and restoration 136 of Cas9 activity dependent on addition of a small-molecule compound [26•]. The requirement for 137 the heterologous machinery for UAA incorporation, and, in case of [25•], for irreversible activation by UV light, may limit the wider uptake of these systems. 138

In an approach similar to that of Nguyen *et al.* [21•], Liu *et al.* [27] sequestered Cas9 in the cytosol
 by flanking it N- and C-terminally with two copies each of the ERT LBD. Addition of the ligand 4-HT
 triggered nuclear localization and increase of Cas9 activity. (Interestingly, the underlying concept of
 this approach had already been demonstrated within the iGEM competition [28].) Conceptually

similar, optogenetic control of Cas9 activity might be achieved by resorting to systems for blue-lightmediated nuclear import and export [29,30].

Control over Cas9 activity has also been achieved by insertion of functional domains, in particular 145 146 inteins [31], LBDs [32••] and LOV photosensors [33•]. An engineered version of the RecA intein from 147 Mycobacterium tuberculosis whose splicing activity is regulated by 4-HT was inserted into different 148 surface-exposed sites of Cas9 and cleavage activity thus abrogated [31]. Addition of the ligand 4-HT 149 promoted splicing out of the intein and restored Cas9 activity, albeit in irreversible manner. In 150 another study, an inert PDZ domain was randomly placed throughout the Cas9 protein by 151 transposon mutagenesis to determine suitable insertion sites; ensuing high-throughput screening 152 identified permissive sites that still support Cas9 activity [32••]. Replacement of the PDZ domain by 153 the ERT LBD generated a Cas9 variant, called arCas9, that is allosterically regulated by 4-HT. The dynamic range of arCas9 could be further enhanced by combining allosteric activation with nuclear 154 155 localization induced by 4-HT, cf. above. In another approach, we inserted the dimeric LOV photoreceptor RsLOV from Rhodobacter sphaeroides [34] which undergoes blue-light-dependent 156 157 dissociation at candidate, surface-exposed sites of Cas9. We reasoned that Cas9 activity might thus 158 be repressed by forcing the enzyme into an unproductive dimeric complex and by restricting access 159 to its active site [33•]. High-throughput screening identified the variant paRC9 which was modestly 160 activated by blue light. In an unexpected twist, we discovered that insertion of RsLOV bestowed 161 temperature sensitivity on Cas9 activity. We isolated the variant tsRC9 which displayed robust 162 activity at 29°C but negligible one at 37°C.

While it is desirable to ramp up Cas9 activity by a certain signal, it is equally attractive to decrease activity at will once Cas9 has performed its duty, which could for example be accomplished with tsRC9 [33•]. An interesting alternative tactic is the targeting of Cas9 for destruction after successful cleavage events in a cell-cycle dependent manner [35]. A logical extension to this approach would

167 be the fusion of Cas9 with degrons that are inducible by small ligands, e.g., auxin [36], or by light168 [37,38].

169

170 Controlling sgRNA Availability to Regulate Cas9 Activity

171 As Cas9 must associate with its RNA ligands to exert its function, activity can also be regulated by modulating the availability, conformation, or interaction with other factors of the sgRNA (or, of the 172 173 dual tracrRNA:crRNA). These approaches offer advantages in terms of orthogonal regulation of 174 different on-target activities (as differently modified sgRNAs can be used in multiplexing scenarios) and potentially also in terms of better regulation dynamics, because the sgRNA usually shows much 175 176 faster cellular turnover than the Cas9 protein itself [39]. Liu et al. [40••] embedded riboswitches, 177 i.e. RNA aptamers that are responsive to binding of (usually) small-molecule ligands, into the sgRNA 178 at its 3' end to render the accessibility of the crRNA targeting region and the ability of Cas9 to bind 179 its DNA target dependent on the presence of ligands such as theophylline. In a different approach 180 [41••], the sgRNA was incapacitated by hybridization with a protector DNA olignucleotide; 181 photolabile linkers embedded in the protector DNA allowed its destruction by UV irradiation, resulting in release of the sgRNA and turning on of Cas9 activity. 182

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184 Transcriptional and Epigenetic Control with dCas9

In addition to the above approaches that afford control over Cas9 binding and cleavage activities, a number of strategies for regulating the activity of systems based on the cleavage-deficient dCas9 have been developed. All these strategies have in common that dCas9 is employed as an inert, RNAguided, sequence-specific DNA-binding protein to which effector components are recruited via signal-dependent interactions with the Cas9 protein or the RNA ligands. In two related studies [42,43•], the photoreceptor cryptochrome 2 from *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Cry2) which interacts with 191 the CIB1 protein under blue light [44] was combined with dCas9. CIB1 (or, its N-terminal part CIBN) 192 and Cry2 were fused to dCas9 and strong trans-activating effectors, e.g., VP64 or p65, respectively. 193 Blue light promoted the dimerization of Cry2:CIB1 thereby recruiting the transactivators to desired 194 sites in the genome targeted by dCas9. In this manner, expression from endogenous genetic loci 195 could be upregulated in light-dependent manner. Instead of Cry2:CIB1, different protein modules 196 that heterodimerize in the presence of rapalogs or the plant hormones abscisic acid and gibberellin, 197 respectively, have also been employed [45•,46]. Again, effector modules could be recruited to desired loci in signal-controlled fashion. Remarkably, logic gates and genetic circuits were 198 199 constructed that made the output dependent on the presence or absence of either or both of the 200 hormones, although this approach required parallel expression of two orthogonal Cas9 variants 201 outfitted with the respective interaction domains. As previously demonstrated [9], none of these 202 approaches [42,43•,45•,46] is restricted to activators but in principle they extend to other 203 transcriptional and epigenetic effectors, e.g., repressors and histone deacetylases, as well as 204 fluorescent reporters.

205 While the above approaches require covalent fusion of dCas9 with suitable interaction domains, 206 effectors can also be recruited via interactions with the RNA components. To this end, short RNA 207 aptamer sequences were embedded into or appended to the 3' end of the sgRNA [47–50]. The 208 aptamers specifically interact with cognate RNA-binding proteins, e.g., the coat protein of the 209 bacteriophage MS2, and can therefore be used to recruit desired effectors to the dCas9:sgRNA 210 complex. Strikingly, aptamer-based recruitment [47,48,50] afforded markedly improved 211 upregulation of endogenous loci compared to the above approaches. A recent investigation 212 demonstrates how control by external signals can be added to the aptamer-recruitment platform 213 [51•]. Here, the transactivating effectors were not only fused to RNA-binding domains but also to 214 destabilized protein domains that promote rapid proteasomal degradation. Addition of suitable 215 compounds stabilizes these domains and the attached RNA-binding effector complexes, thus

yielding a ligand-inducible dCas9 system. Notably, multiplexed regulation of several genes is readily
possible by parallel use of multiple sgRNAs and transactivating effectors, rather than requiring
expression of orthogonal Cas9 variants, cf. above [45•,46]. In a variation of the approach, the ligandsensitive destabilized domains were fused to the N and C termini of Cas9 to achieve ligand-induced
cleavage activity [51•].

221

222 Conclusions and Future Perspectives

223 Advances in the development of switchable (d)Cas9 variants have been nothing but tremendous. 224 Over the past two years, several options have arrived by which (d)Cas9 availability and activity can 225 be controlled at the post-translational stage (as opposed to regulating the expression of Cas9) in its 226 overall levels and spatiotemporal timing, thus affording enhanced control over the analysis, control 227 and engineering of genomes. The unrelenting progress in this field has to large extent benefited 228 from the adaption of established and previously successful concepts, e.g., in the design of split Cas9 229 variants and the recurring, creative deployment of the ERT:4-HT switch. Given the recent 230 developments, we expect additional Cas9 variants to become available that afford control by 231 different signals and with enhanced performance. Variants which could be activated by red light 232 appear of particular interest as they would facilitate optogenetic applications in living animals.

The choice of one particular variant among the various switchable Cas9 proteins will be governed by the needs and constraints of a given application. One consideration is the nature and compatibility of the trigger signal which at present can be either small ligands, light or temperature changes. The optogenetic approach, i.e. using light as the trigger, offers the advantage of better spatial control. Another aspect that may be required is reversibility of the response in at least two regards. First, can the trigger signal be readily removed or shut off? Changes in illumination and temperature appear to have the edge over small-molecule ligands which would need to be washed

240 out. Second, is the molecular mechanism leading to Cas9 activation reversible? Strategies that 241 involve the breaking or formation of covalent bonds, e.g., photo- and ligand-induced uncaging or 242 the intein-mediated methods, are not, whereas the others usually are. A subsidiary consideration is 243 the kinetics of the response; how fast can Cas9 activation be effected, how rapidly can activity be 244 shut off (if at all)? Specifically, Cas9 has been shown to have long DNA residence times, even post-245 cleavage which might interfere with desired double-strand break repair outcomes [52]. It remains 246 to be investigated whether any of the methods presented here can, upon signal removal or addition, increase dissociation rates of DNA-bound Cas9 (instead of decreasing association rates of the free 247 248 Cas9:RNA complex). Furthermore, the degree of regulation by signal and the leakiness of the 249 system, i.e. activity in the absence of signal, play important roles. Whereas many dCas9 applications 250 can arguably tolerate low leak activities, applications that employ Cas9 to effect irreversible genome 251 rearrangements usually cannot.

252 Finally, researchers interested in the generation of new and the improvement of existing Cas9 253 variants also need to consider how transferable the engineering strategies are between different 254 CRISPR systems [53]. For example, Cas9 from Staphylococcus aureus [54] is smaller in size, has 255 different requirements for the protospacer adjacent motif (PAM) sequence, and may be 256 advantageous in certain applications [45•], while Cpf1 [55] which cleaves its own gRNA has 257 advantages in multiplexing applications [55,56]. Moreover, additional CRISPR systems are being 258 discovered and mechanistically characterized at amazing pace [2,3], including such that act on RNA 259 rather than DNA [57]. We anticipate that modes of control that rely on appending interaction 260 domains to a CRISPR effector protein or aptamers to the sgRNA should be easily transferable, while 261 approaches that modify the core of the CRISPR effector itself (such as split constructs or insertions) 262 will be harder to engineer. Given the rapid development of diverse variants of S. pyogenes Cas9 263 which can be triggered by external cues and which we review here, we expect switchable variants of other CRISPR systems to become available shortly. Lastly, the existence of natural CRISPR-264

inhibitory proteins [12•,13•] hints at the possibility of developing small-molecule inhibitors of Cas9,

266 which would offer additional, complementary ways of regulating activity.

267

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- 462
- 463 Figures
- 464 Figure 1
- 465 Principal applications of RNA-guided Cas9 and leverage points for controlling its cellular activity.
- 466 Cleavage-competent Cas9 is used to introduce single-strand nicks or double-strand breaks at

467 specific, unique sites in genomes. The cleavage-deficient dCas9 serves as a sequence-specific DNAbinding protein and can be connected to effector modules that exert desired biological output, e.g., 468 up- or down-regulation of transcription. To fulfill its intended function, (d)Cas9 has to mediate 469 470 several steps, all of which potentially offer toeholds for interfering with (red symbols). Control can be exerted by regulating the availability of (d)Cas9 ((1)) and the sgRNA ((2)). (d)Cas9 then has to 471 bind a sgRNA (or, tracrRNA:crRNA) and find its PAM sequence and the adjacent, cognate DNA target 472 (③). Cas9 additionally has to cleave one or both DNA strands (④) and release the reaction 473 products afterwards ((5)). In case of dCas9, DNA effector units must be recruited ((6)). To turn off 474 (d)Cas9 activity, its cellular turnover can be regulated (7). 475

- 476
- 477 Figure 2

478 Select case studies of (d)Cas9 variants that are switchable by external trigger signals. (a, b) Split 479 Cas9 can be reconstituted and activity thus regained via fragment dimerization induced by light or 480 small-molecule ligands [20•,21•]. Spontaneous dimerization and leak activity can be minimized by 481 directing one fragment to the cytosol (panel b). (c) Modification of a lysine residue with a photolabile 482 caging group renders Cas9 inactive, presumably because of interference with RNA and DNA binding [25•]. UV light liberates the caging group and restores activity. (d) Terminal fusion with the ligand-483 binding domain (LBD) of the estrogen receptor ETR leads to sequestration of Cas9 in the cytosol 484 [27]; addition of 4-hydroxytamoxifen (4-HT) induces nuclear translocation. Insertion of the ETR-LBD 485 486 sketched here, rather than terminal fusion, additionally results in allosteric activation by 4-HT 487 [32••]. (e) Insertion of a dimeric light-oxygen-voltage (LOV) photosensor into Cas9 leads to 488 formation of a sterically hindered, inactive complex [33•]. Blue light raises Cas9 activity, presumably via dissociation of the LOV sensor. (f, g) dCas9 is used as a sequence-specific DNA-binding protein 489 to which effector modules are recruited in a signal-dependent manner [42,43•,48,51•]. Recruitment 490

- 491 is either achieved via covalent fusion of interaction domains to Cas9 (panel f) or via RNA aptamers
- 492 inserted into or appended to the sgRNA (panel g).





1 Highlights

2 > diverse Cas9 variants have been engineered that are switchable by external signals
3 > suitable signals include addition of small molecules, light and temperature changes
4 > to achieve control, the Cas9 protein itself or its programmable RNAs are modified
5 > switchable Cas9 variants are engineered as split or single-chain proteins
6 > switchable variants mitigate effects caused by excessive and untimely Cas9 activity

