Potassium channels, megapolarization, and water pore formation are key determinants for cationic cell-penetrating peptide translocation into cells

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Summary

Cell-penetrating peptides (CPPs) allow intracellular delivery of cargo molecules. CPPs provide efficient methodology to transfer bioactive molecules in cells, in particular in conditions when transcription or translation of cargo-encoding sequences is not desirable or achievable. The mechanisms allowing CPPs to enter cells are ill-defined and controversial. This work identifies potassium channels as key regulators of cationic CPP translocation. Using a CRISPR/Cas9-based screening, we discovered that KCNQ5, KCNN4, and KCNK5 positively modulate CPP cellular direct translocation by reducing transmembrane potential (V_m). Cationic CPPs further decrease the V_m to megapolarization values (about -150 mV) leading to the formation of ~2 nm-wide water pores used by CPPs to access the cell's cytoplasm. Pharmacological manipulation to lower transmembrane potential boosted CPPs cellular uptake in zebrafish and mouse models. Besides identifying the first genes that regulate CPP translocation, this work characterizes key mechanistic steps used by CPPs to cross cellular membrane. This opens the ground for pharmacological strategies augmenting the susceptibility of cells to capture CPP-linked cargos *in vitro* and *in vivo*.

Introduction

Cell-penetrating peptides (CPPs) are non-toxic molecules of 5-30 amino acids that can translocate into living cells. CPPs can be hooked to a variety of cargos (siRNAs, DNA, polypeptides, liposomes, nanoparticles, etc.) to allow their transport into cells for therapeutic or experimental purposes (*1-10*). The origin of CPPs is diverse. For example, TAT_{48-57} is a 10 amino-acid fragment derived from the trans-activator of transcription (TAT) HIV-1 protein (*11, 12*), penetratin is a 16 amino-acid peptide derived from the Antennapedia *Drosophila melanogaster* protein (*13*), and MAP (model amphipatic peptide) is a synthetic alanine/leucine/lysine-rich peptide (*14*). The vast majority of CPPs are cationic (*1, 3, 6, 7*).

How CPPs enter cells is debated and not fully characterized at the molecular level (reviewed in (*1-8*)). Due to this knowledge gap, it is difficult to ameliorate CPP cellular entry and this slows down development of CPP-based interventions. Two main modes of CPP entry have been described: endocytosis and direct translocation(*1-8*). Endocytosed CPPs gain cytosolic access by escaping endosomes. Direct translocation has been proposed to occur through transient pore formation or membrane destabilization. Endocytosis and direct translocation are not mutually exclusive. Several entry routes can be followed simultaneously by a given CPP in a given cell line (*9, 10*).

Here, we used CRISPR/Cas9-screenings to identify proteins required for the cellular uptake of CPPs. This approach identified three potassium channels as mandatory for the direct translocation of CPPs into various cell types. Further, we highlighted the requirement of an appropriate membrane potential to generate a 2 nm-wide water pores through which CPP translocation occurred. This allowed the establishment of

protocols to rationally manipulate the transmembrane potential of cells to render them

more permeable to specific CPPs *in vitro* and *in vivo*.

Results

TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ enters cells via endocytosis and direct translocation, but only

direct translocation mediates its biological activity

In the present work, we have used TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ as a model compound to

investigate the molecular basis of CPP cellular uptake. This peptide is made up of the

CPP TAT$_{48-57}$ and a 10 amino-acid sequence derived from the SH3 domain of p120

RasGAP (*15*). TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ sensitizes cancer cells to chemo-, radio- and

photodynamic therapies (*16-19*) and prevents cell migration and invasion (*20, 21*).

Some cancer cell lines, such as Raji (Burkitt's lymphoma), SKW6.4 (transformed B-

lymphocytes) and HeLa (cervix carcinoma), are directly killed by this peptide (*22*). To

characterize the mode of entry of TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$, Raji, SKW6.4 and HeLa cells

were incubated with a FITC-labelled version of the peptide and visualized over time.

Peptide-cell interaction and internalization occurred through the following pattern:

binding to the plasma membrane (Movie S1), uptake leading to vesicular staining

and/or diffuse cytoplasmic staining, and eventually cell death characterized by

membrane disruption (Fig. 1A-B, S1A and Movie S1). Only in a minority of Raji and

SKW6.4 cells, was the peptide found in vesicular structures (Fig. 1A-B). Most of the

cells acquired the peptide rapidly in their cytoplasm without any detectable presence

of labelled vesicles (Fig. 1A-B and Movie S1-2). Even though labelled vesicles might

be masked by the intense cytoplasmic staining (when present), resulting in an

underestimation of the percentage of cells with mixed staining, these results

nevertheless demonstrate that, quantitatively, the main mode of entry of TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ in Raji and SKW6.4 cell lines occurs via a non-vesicular direct plasma membrane translocation mechanism. In HeLa cells, direct translocation and the vesicular mode of entry appeared to occur equally frequently for TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ (Fig. 1A-B and Movie S3). Direct translocation across the cell membrane often seemed to originate from specific areas of the cells (Fig. S1B-C), suggesting discrete structures on the plasma membrane involved in CPP entry. Laser illumination-induced damage to cell integrity (23-26) was ruled out as a mechanism of fluorescent dye-labelled CPP cellular uptake (Fig. S1D). Cells were able to concentrate the CPP in their cytoplasm (Fig. S1E). TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ uptake was found to be temperature-dependent (Fig. S1F). The contribution of the peptide surface binding to the overall cell-associated signal only accounted to about 20% (Fig. S1G-H); hence, the majority of the cell-associated peptide signal comes from within cells. Despite the intensity difference, the kinetics of appearance of the two populations with vesicular and diffuse cytoplasmic staining was similar (Fig. 1C-D). There was an almost perfect correspondence between i) the percentage of cells with low intensity peptide fluorescence and the percentage of cells with vesicular staining (Fig. 1E), ii) the percentage of cells with high intensity peptide fluorescence and the percentage of cells with diffuse staining (Fig. 1F). Cell death induced by TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ was mostly recorded in cells from the high-intensity fluorescent population (Fig. 1G), which can only be achieved through direct translocation of the peptide through the cell membrane as cell death was not seen in cells where only vesicular CPP entry had occurred. Hence, direct translocation of the peptide into cells is what allows TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ to kill HeLa cells. In Raji and SKW6.4 cells incubated with TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$, only one fluorescence intensity peak was observed at a given time point that progressively shifted towards higher

fluorescence intensities (Fig. 1H). As little vesicular staining was detected in Raji and

SKW6.4 cells incubated with TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ (Fig. 1A-B), the peak seen in Fig. 1H

mostly corresponds to cells that have acquired the peptide through direct translocation.

As in HeLa cells therefore, it is the direct translocation of the peptide in Raji and

SKW6.4 cells that eventually induces their death. Together these results show that

even though two modes of entry can be used by TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ to penetrate cells,

it is direct translocation that is necessary for its biological activity.

Identification of potassium channels as mediators of the direct translocation of CPPs into cells

The mode of CPP cellular entry is currently debated and no molecular proteins have

been identified that regulate this process. Interaction with acid sphingomyelinase (*27*),

local membrane deformation (*28*), as well as calcium influxes (*29*) have been

suggested to play a role in CPP direct translocation into cells. To screen for genes that

control the uptake of CPPs, we performed a CRISPR/Cas9 screen using TAT-

RasGAP$_{317-326}$ as a selective agent (Fig. S2A). In Raji and SKW6.4 cell lines, among

the most highly significantly differentially modulated genes were specific potassium

channels or genes coding for proteins known to regulate such channels indirectly (e.g.

PIP5K1A (*30*)) (Fig. 2A and S2B). KCNQ5, identified in Raji cells, is a voltage-

dependent potassium channel. KCNN4 and KCNK5, identified in SKW6.4 cells, are

calcium-activated channels and belong to the two-pore (voltage-independent)

potassium channel family (*31*), respectively.

These potassium channels were pharmacologically or genetically inactivated (Fig. 2B

and S3A-C) to validate their involvement in TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ cellular uptake and the

resulting death induction. The KCNQ family inhibitor, XE-991 (*32*), fully blocked peptide

uptake in Raji cells and protected them from the killing activity of the peptide (Fig. 2B).

Knocking out KCNQ5 (Fig. S3A) in these cells produced the same effect as XE-991

(Fig. 2B and S3D). SKW6.4 cells individually lacking KCNN4 or KCNK5 (Fig. S3B), or

SKW6.4 cells treated with TRAM-34, a KCNN4 inhibitor (*33, 34*) were impaired in their

ability to take up the peptide and were partially protected against its cytotoxic activity

(Fig. 2B and S3D). Inhibition of KCNN4 activity with TRAM-34 in KCNK5 knock-out

cells did not further protect the cells against TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$-induced death. In

HeLa cells, TRAM-34, but not XE-991, inhibited TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ uptake and

subsequent death (Fig. 2B). Thus in HeLa cells KCNN4 channels participate in the

cellular uptake of the peptide. This was confirmed by knocking out KCNN4 in these

cells (Fig. 2B and S3C). Resistance to TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$-induced death in KCNQ5

knock-out Raji cells and KCNN4 knock-out SKW6.4 or HeLa cells was restored through

ectopic expression of the corresponding FLAG- or V5-tagged channels (Fig. S3E-F

and S4), ruling out off-target effects.

To determine if the identified potassium channels affected the biological activity of

TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ once inside cells, incubation with the peptide was performed in the

presence of pyrene butyrate, a counter anion that, through electrostatic interaction with

arginine residues, and in the absence of serum, promotes quick and efficient

translocation of CPPs (*35*). As serum removal sensitized cells to TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$-

induced death (Fig. S5A), the peptide concentrations had to be adapted to perform the

experiments in the presence of pyrene butyrate (Fig. S5B). Pyrene butyrate was not

toxic at the concentrations used (Fig. S5C). Potassium channel knock-out Raji and

HeLa cells incubated with both pyrene butyrate and TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ were no longer

resistant against the peptide-induced death (Fig. S5D). These results demonstrate that

specific potassium channels play a crucial role in the cellular entry of TAT-RasGAP$_{317-}$

$_{326}$ but that they are not involved in the killing activity of the peptide if it is already in

cells.

We next determined whether vesicular uptake or direct translocation were affected in

cells with impaired potassium channel activities. Compared to their respective wild-

type controls, the percentage of cells with diffuse cytoplasmic location of FITC-TAT-

RasGAP$_{317-326}$ was drastically diminished in KCNQ5 knock-out Raji cells (Fig. 2C) and

in KCNN4 and KCNK5 knock-out SKW6.4 cells (Fig. S6A). The effect was similar in

the case of KCNN4 knock-out HeLa cells, albeit to a lesser extent (Fig. S6B). This was

mirrored by an increase in the percentage of knock-out cells with vesicular staining

(Fig. 2C and S6A-B). To confirm that cytoplasmic peptide accumulation is due to direct

translocation and not endosomal escape, FITC-TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ uptake was

quantitated over time in a condition where the peptide was allowed to enter cells by

endocytosis but then removed from the medium. Figure S6C (left) shows that diffuse

cytoplasmic uptake of the peptide occurred when the peptide was present in the

medium (see also left panel of Movie S4). However, no significant increase in the

cytoplasmic signal was observed in washed out cells containing peptide-labelled

endosomes (Fig. S6C, middle and Movie S4, right panel). We could nevertheless

detect an increase in cytoplasmic fluorescence when endosomal escape was induced

by LLOME (*36*). This confirms that in live cell conditions the diffuse cytoplasmic CPP

signal originates from direct translocation and not endosomal escape (Fig. S6C). The

invalidation of potassium channels did not affect transferrin uptake into cells,

substantiating the non-involvement of these channels in endocytosis pathways (Fig.

S6D).

One possibility to explain the above-mentioned results is that the absence of potassium

channels prevents the peptide binding to cells. At a 20 μM concentration, TAT-

RasGAP$_{317-326}$ is readily taken up by wild-type Raji cells but not by KCNQ5 knock-out

cells. At this concentration, peptide binding was slightly lower in knock-out than in wild-

type cells (Fig. S6E). However, augmenting the peptide concentrations in the

extracellular medium of KCNQ5 knock-out cells to reach surface binding signals

equivalent or higher than what was obtained in wild-type cells incubated with a 20 μM

peptide concentration still did not result in peptide cellular uptake (Fig. S6E). These

data show that differences in peptide binding do not explain the inability of the knock-

out cells to take up the peptide.

We assessed whether the role of potassium channels in cellular uptake also applied

to TAT cargos other than RasGAP$_{317-326}$. TAT-PNA is an oligonucleotide covalently

bound to TAT, which can correct a splicing mutation within the luciferase-coding

sequence (*37, 38*). This can only occur if TAT-PNA reaches the cytosol. The luciferase

activity triggered by TAT-PNA was diminished in the presence of potassium channel

inhibitors and in potassium channel knock-out cell lines (Fig. S7A). Cytosolic access

of TAT-Cre, which can recombine a loxP-RFP-STOP-loxP-GFP (*39, 40*) gene

construct, was then assessed. Switch from red to green fluorescence occurs only when

TAT-Cre reaches the nucleus. This took place in wild-type Raji cells but not in the

KCNQ5 knock-out cells (Fig. S7B). We finally tested a clinical phase III therapeutic D-

JNKI1 compound (*1, 2*) used in the context of hearing loss and intraocular

inflammation. The uptake of this peptide was completely blocked in Raji cells lacking

KCNQ5 (Fig. S7C, left). D-JNKI1 uptake was also diminished in SKW6.4 cells lacking

KCNN4 and KCNK5 channels, as well as in HeLa cells lacking KCNN4 potassium

channel (Fig. S7C, middle and right panels). These data demonstrate that the absence

of specific potassium channels diminishes or even blocks the entry of various TAT-bound cargos.

Potassium channels maintain plasma membrane polarization that is required for CPP entry into cells

Potassium gradients are critically involved in setting the plasma membrane potential. The potassium channels identified in the CRISPR/Cas9 screen could therefore control cell membrane potential. Figure 3A shows that genetic disruption or pharmacological inhibition of KCNQ5 in Raji cells led to an increase in their membrane potential (from -26 mV to -15 mV, validated with electrophysiological recordings; see Fig. S8A). In SKW6.4 and HeLa cells, plasma membrane potential measurement was much more variable than in Raji cells. Nevertheless, a trend of increased membrane potential was observed when KCNN4 or KCNK5 were invalidated genetically or pharmacologically (Fig. 3A).

If the reason why invalidation of the KCNQ5, KCNN4, and KCNK5 potassium channels inhibits TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ cellular entry is cell depolarization, a similar response should be obtained by chemically inducing membrane depolarization. Figure 3B shows that depolarizing cells with gramicidin (*41*) (making non-specific 0.4 nm pores (*42*) within cell membranes) or by increasing the extracellular concentration of potassium (dissipating the potassium gradient) totally blocked peptide entry into the three studied cell lines. Hence, cellular depolarization in itself inhibits TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ cellular uptake. Next, we determined whether hyperpolarization could reverse the inability of potassium channel knock-out cells to take up TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$. Cells were either incubated in the presence of valinomycin (*43*), which leads to formation of potassium-

like channels, or transfected with KCNJ2 channel that also provokes potassium efflux and membrane hyperpolarization (*44*). Valinomycin was used in the absence of serum as the latter is expected to interfere with the drug (*43*) but serum-removal did not affect membrane potential (Fig. S8B). Figure 3B shows that in Raji cells, treatment with valinomycin was able to hyperpolarize KCNQ5 knock-out cells to a plasma membrane potential value similar to the one found in wild-type cells. This fully restored peptide uptake in the KCNQ5 knock-out cells. Hyperpolarization in SKW6.4 and HeLa cells was achieved through KCNJ2 ectopic expression. This reversed the poor capacity of the KCNN4 and KCNK5 knock-out SKW6.4 cells, as well as KCNN4 knock-out HeLa cells, to take up TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ (Fig. 3B). Moreover, hyperpolarization increased peptide uptake in wild-type cells (Fig. 3B). Altogether these results demonstrate that uptake of TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ in various cell lines can be manipulated through cellular depolarization to block uptake and through hyperpolarization to increase it, confirming earlier results obtained for R8 peptide in Jurkat cells (*45*).

Next, we assessed whether the entry of different classes of CPPs was also regulated by the membrane potential. The most commonly used CPPs in biology and medicine, TAT, nanomeric arginine peptide (R9), Penetratin, MAP, and Transportan were tested in depolarized and hyperpolarized conditions. The cytoplasmic signal of these CPPs in HeLa cells appeared to originate from both vesicular and diffuse cytoplasmic staining (Fig. S8C-D). With the apparent exception of Transportan, depolarization led to decreased uptake of all CPPs, while hyperpolarization favored their uptake (Fig. 3C). Transportan, unlike other tested CPPs, enters cells predominantly through endocytosis (Fig. S8C), which could explain the difference in response to membrane potential modulation. Next, we assessed if modulating membrane potential through changes in potassium concentrations in the extracellular medium (Fig. S8E) impacted the uptake.

Although the extent of the response varied from one CPP to another, the global

observation was that the more depolarized the cells are, the less able they are to take

up CPPs (Fig. 3D). CPP membrane binding was only minimally affected by

depolarization (Fig. S8F). The reason why depolarized cells do no take up CPPs is

therefore not a consequence of reduced CPP binding to cells. The plasma membrane

potential also controlled peptide uptake in non-transformed rat primary cortical neurons

(Fig. S8G). Together these results show that CPP uptake can be modulated *in vitro* by

varying the membrane potential of cells.

Extracellular pH might regulate CPP uptake (*46*). However, in our experimental

system, cellular uptake of TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ was unaffected by varying the

extracellular pH, whether or not membrane potential modulators were used (Fig. S8H).

278 Hyperpolarization favors the formation of ~2 nm-wide water pores used by CPP

279 to translocate into cells

To further study the mechanism of CPP cellular entry through direct translocation, we

took advantage of coarse-grained molecular dynamics technique and MARTINI force

field (*47, 48*). Specifically, asymmetric multi-component physiological membrane (*49*)

was constructed and subjected to a constant electric field (Fig. S9A), following a widely

applied computational procedure (*50-58*). In our simulations we have used a

physiological plasma cell membrane-like composition (for both inner and outer leaflet)

while earlier studies have employed simpler membrane composition (*50, 59-63*). The

application of transmembrane potential triggered the following molecular events. First,

protrusions of a few water molecules, often as a single-file column, on either side of

the bilayer were observed (Fig. S9B and Movie S5). The protrusion then extended into

the bilayer interior and expanded at the base, forming a conical structure which eventually bridged the membrane, leading to increased radius of the transmembrane water pore up to ~2 nm (Fig. S9B and Movie S5). The process was finalized by considerable reorientation of lipid head groups towards the membrane interior. Polar lipid head groups migrated from the membrane-water interface (*51, 64-67*) to the interior of the bilayer, stabilizing the water pore.

CPPs strongly increased the kinetics of water pore formation in plasma membranes (Fig. S9C), indicating that they play an active role in the generation of water pores. CPP entry decreased as the temperature in the simulations was lowered to 12°C (Fig. S9D), consistent with the data obtained in cells (Fig. S1F). As the membrane potential of cells was unaffected by temperature changes (Fig. S9E), the delayed water pore formation at low temperature is therefore a likely consequence of altered physico-chemical properties of membranes such as diminished fluidity (*68*).

We next performed Molecular Dynamics simulations in the presence or in the absence of a membrane potential generated by setting an ion imbalance (*50, 69-71*) to determine the behavior of CPPs and their potential ability to move across membranes (Fig. S9F). Membrane hyperpolarization was achieved through a net charge difference of 30 positive ions between the intracellular and extracellular space. This protocol allowed us to observe water pore formation (Fig. 4A) and its closure dynamics, as the hyperpolarization process was reversed by ion transport across the membrane, leading to depolarization and resealing of the water pore (Fig. 4A). In the presence of hyperpolarization, but not in its absence, CPP penetration and translocation through the plasma membrane was observed for all the tested CPPs (Fig. 4A-B, Movie S6-7). Previous observations reporting a role for the plasma membrane potential in CPP

penetration into or through bilipidic membranes (*50, 59-63*) support these findings. However, note that translocation of single CPP molecules had not been observed before the present work.

To evaluate the structural characteristics of the water pores triggered by CPPs *in vitro*, cells were co-incubated with FITC-labelled CPPs and molecules of different sizes: propidium iodide (PI), with a diameter of 0.8-1.5 nm (*72*), or 3 kDa, 10 kDa, and 40 kDa dextrans with diameters of 2.3 ±0.38 nm (*73*), 4.5 nm and 8.6 nm (size estimation provided by Thermofisher), respectively. While PI efficiently co-entered cells with the CPPs, there was only marginal co-entry of the dextrans (Fig. 4C and S10A-B). CPPs did not bind to PI (Fig. S10C) and thus PI entry and accumulation within cells was not the result of CPP carry over. The marginal co-entry of dextrans was inversely correlated with their size (inset in the third panel of Fig. 4C). These data indicate that water pores triggered by CPPs allow molecules up to ~2 nm to efficiently enter cells. Molecules in the 2-5 nm diameter range can still use this entry route to a limited extent (of note the Cre recombinase with a diameter of 5 nm, estimated from crystal structure (NDB:PD0003), can translocate into cells when hooked to TAT; see Fig. S7B) but molecules with larger diameters are mostly prevented to do so.

Despite identical net positive charges (Fig. S8D), K9 was less capable of translocating into cells compared to R9 (Fig. 4C and S8C) (*74*). This may be due to the deprotonation of K9 once in the plasma membrane (see discussion). However, in the limited cases cells have taken up K9, PI co-entered as well (Fig. 4C). This indicates that K9 has a reduced capacity compared to R9 to trigger water pore formation but when they do, PI can efficiently translocate through the pores.

PI staining is commonly used to assess cell membrane integrity, frequently associated

with cell death (see for example Fig. 1G and 2B). This dye poorly fluoresces in solution

(Fig. S10D). However, the PI intensity values in dead permeabilized cells are several

orders of magnitude higher than those recorded after cell hyperpolarization (compare

the left and right panels of Fig. 4D). Cell viability was not affected by transient treatment

with the indicated CPPs, membrane potential modulating agents and PI (Fig. S10E).

These results indicate that water pore formation does not compromise cell survival.

Modelling experiments indicate that water pores are created in membranes subjected

to sufficiently high (absolute values) membrane potentials. We therefore tested

whether the mere hyperpolarization of cells (i.e. in the absence of CPPs) could trigger

the translocation of PI into cells, indicative of water pore formation. Figure 4D (left)

shows that the hyperpolarizing drug valinomycin significantly increased PI cell

permeability. In contrast, depolarization, mediated by gramicidin, reduced PI uptake

(Figure 4D, left). Cells incubated with CPPs took up PI to an even greater extent than

when cells were treated with valinomycin (Fig. 4D, left).

Figure 4E shows the correlation between cytoplasmic PI uptake and membrane

potential. Based on this correlation, we estimated the membrane potential of cells

incubated with a CPP to be in the order of -150 mV (Fig. 4F). In accordance with the

modelling experiments, these data indicate i) that water pore formation in cells is

favored by cell hyperpolarization and inhibited by depolarization and ii) that CPPs

themselves (*75, 76*) contribute to the establishment of a strong hyperpolarized plasma

membrane environment that we coin megapolarization.

Hyperpolarization improves CPP uptake *in vivo*

We investigated whether it was possible to experimentally manipulate the membrane

potential to favor CPP uptake in *in vivo* situations. Systemic exposure of zebrafish

embryos to valinomycin led to cell hyperpolarization (Fig. S11A) and improved uptake

of a TAT-based CPP (Fig. S11A-B). This systemic treatment, while not acutely toxic,

halted development (Fig. S11C-E). However, local valinomycin injection did not affect

long-term viability (Fig. S11F) and efficiently increased CPP cellular uptake (Fig. 5A).

Subcutaneous injections of valinomycin in mice induced tissue hyperpolarization (Fig.

S11G) and boosted the CPP delivery in skin cells (Fig. 5B). These results demonstrate

that hyperpolarizing drugs can be used to ameliorate CPP uptake in animal tissues.

Discussion

Multiple models, mostly inferred from artificial experimental paradigms, have been

proposed in literature to explain CPP direct translocation. These include the formation

of pores made of CPPs for their own entry, the formation of inverted micelles in the

plasma membrane that translocate CPP, or diffusion of the CPPs across the plasma

membrane (*1, 3-5, 8*). Our simulation and cellular data, while providing no evidence for

such models, demonstrate that CPP cellular uptake is potassium channel- and

membrane potential-dependent *in vitro* and *in vivo*. Potassium channels are required

to establish a basal low V_m, subsequently permissive for CPP direct translocation.

Hyperpolarizing drugs, such as valinomycin, enhance permissiveness. When CPPs

come into contact with the plasma membrane, they decrease even more the

membrane potential, resulting in a local megapolarized membrane. This increases

dramatically the likelihood of formation of water pores that the CPPs then use to

penetrate cells according to their electrochemical gradient (Fig. S12). Water pores are

created by a combination of lipid head group reorientation coupled to intrusion of a

column of water in the membrane bilayer. Water movement plays therefore an active

role in the formation of the pore and is not merely occurring once the pores are formed.

The movement of the positive charges carried by the CPPs into the cell dissipates the

V_m, resulting in the collapse of the water pores and sealing of the plasma membrane.

CPP-mediated formation of water pores is therefore transient and does not affect cell

viability. Multiple rounds of CPP-driven water pore formation and CPP translocation

into cells can lead to intracellular accumulation of the CPP to concentrations higher

than found outside cells (Fig. S1E).

Our model posits that the number of positively charged amino acids influence the ability

of CPPs to hyperpolarize cells and hence to form water pores that they take to

translocate into cells. There is indeed a good correlation in the simulation experiments

between the net positive charge of a CPP and the speed at which it triggers the

formation of a water pore (Fig. S9C). CPP hydropathy strongly correlates with

penetration of water molecules in the lipid bilayer, thus supporting the hypothesis that

the amount of water each CPP can route inside the membrane is modulated by the

hydrophobic and hydrophilic character of the peptide (77). The nature of cationic

amino acids in peptides determines their translocation abilities. It is known for example

that peptides made of 9 lysines (K9) poorly enter cells (Fig. 4C and S1I) and replacing

arginine by lysine in Penetratin significantly diminishes its uptake(*74, 78*). According to

our model, K9 should induce mega hyperpolarization, formation of water pores that

should then allow their translocation into cells. However, it has been determined that,

once embedded into membranes, lysine residues have a tendency to loose protons(*79,*

80). This will thus dissipate the strong membrane potential required for the formation

of water pores and leave the lysine-containing CPPs stuck with the phospholipids of

the membrane. In contrast, arginine residues are not deprotonated in membranes and

water pores can therefore be maintained allowing the arginine-rich CPPs to be taken

up by cells. CPPs can also enter cells through endocytosis, a mode of entry that is not

inhibited by cell depolarization (Fig. S6). The differences between CPPs in terms of

how efficiently uptake is modulated by membrane potential (Fig. 3C-D) could be

explained by how much they rely on direct translocation or endocytosis to penetrate

cells. The more positively charged a CPP is, the more it will enter cells through direct

translocation and consequently the more sensitive it will be to cell depolarization (Fig.

3C-D). On the other hand, when endocytosis is the predominant type of entry, CPP

uptake will be less affected by both hyperpolarization and depolarization, which has

been observed for Transportan.

We propose, based on the work described here, that hyperpolarization induced by

drugs such as valinomycin represents a simple alternative or parallel approach to

optimize CPP uptake. However hyperpolarizing drugs may be toxic when systemically

applied. For example, valinomycin at the concentrations used to induce

hyperpolarization (10 μM) would be lethal if systemically injected in mice (LD50 in the

low micromolar (*81*)). On the other hand, local administration of valinomycin is far less

toxic (*82, 83*) as confirmed here in zebrafish and mice. Hyperpolarizing agents may

therefore be preferentially used for local or topical applications, which is incidentally

the case for the clinically approved CPPs (*1, 2*).

Strategies to improve CPP delivery are becoming increasingly complex through the

use of nanoparticles (*84*), double-coated nanoparticles (*85*), liposome-polycation-DNA

complexes (*86*), branched peptides (*87*), etc. Our data provides a characterization at

molecular level that can be taken advantage of to i) improve or optimize old CPPs, ii)

design new CPPs, or iii) help explain the behaviors of newly discovered CPPs (*88-90*).

The present work indicates that the impact on megapolarization should be evaluated

when chemical modifications are performed on cationic CPPs to augment their delivery

capacities.

Author contributions

Conception and design of study: ET, GG, MH, NC, AD and CW

Acquisition of data: ET, GG, MH, NC, GD, YA, MS, SM and FO

Analysis and/or interpretation of data: ET, GG, MH, NC, MAD, MS, SM, GV, FO, JP, FA, AL, AD and CW

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Competing interests

Author declare no competing financial and non-financial interests.

Figure legends

Fig. 1. TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ enters cells via endocytosis and direct translocation, but only direct translocation mediates its biological activity.

(A) Depiction of the different modes of CPP entry into cells. Confocal microscopy was performed on cells incubated for one hour with 40 μM (Raji and SKW6.4) and 80 μM (HeLa) FITC-TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ in RPMI with 10% FBS. Cells were washed with PBS prior to visualization. Vesicular staining is indicative of CPP endocytosis while diffuse staining is a consequence of CPP direct translocation into cells. Scale bar: 10 μm.

(B) Quantitation of staining types in function of time (FITC-TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ continually present in the media). Types of staining were visually quantitated (n>150 cells per condition). Results correspond to the average of three independent experiments.

(C) Representative flow cytometry histogram of HeLa cells incubated with 80 μM FITC-TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ in RPMI, 10% FBS for 60 minutes. The dotted line represents cellular auto-fluorescence.

(D) Variation over time of the low and high intensity peak values. Peptide uptake was assessed by flow cytometry. The results correspond to three independent experiments.

(E) Quantitation of the pattern of appearance of cells with low intensity peptide fluorescence and vesicular staining. Peptide uptake was assessed by flow cytometry. The percentage of cells with low and high CPP fluorescence was visually quantitated (n>150 cells per condition). The results correspond to three independent experiments.

(F) Quantitation of the pattern of appearance of cells with high intensity peptide fluorescence and diffuse staining. Peptide uptake was assessed by flow cytometry. The percentage of cells with low and high CPP fluorescence was visually quantitated (n>150 cells per condition). The results correspond to three independent experiments.

(G) Kinetics of FITC-TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$-induced death in the two populations described in panel D. Cell death was assessed by propidium iodide (PI) staining. The results correspond to one of three independent experiments.

(H) Representative flow cytometry histograms of Raji (left) or SKW6.4 (right) cells incubated with 40 μM FITC-TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ for different period of time. The results correspond to one of three independent experiments.

Fig. 2. Identification of potassium channels as mediators of direct translocation of CPPs into cells.

(A) Identification of genes implicated in TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ uptake in Raji cells (upper panel) and SKW6.4 cells (lower panel). The graphs depict the p-value (calculated using the MAGeCK procedure; see Materials and Methods) for the difference in sgRNA expression between peptide-treated and control cells for the ~20'000 genes targeted by the CRISPR/Cas9 library.

(B) Quantitation of TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ entry (top), and induced death (bottom) in wild-type (WT) and knock-out (KO) cells. The WT and the corresponding potassium channel KO versions of the indicated cell lines were pretreated or not for 30 minutes with XE-991 or with TRAM-34 and then incubated (still in the presence of the inhibitors when initially added) with, or without 40 μM (Raji and SKW6.4 cells) or 80 μM (HeLa cells) TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$. Uptake was recorded after one hour and cell death after 16 hours (Raji and SKW6.4) or 24 hours (HeLa). Results correspond to the average of three independent experiments.

(C) Quantitation of the modalities of TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ entry in wild-type and KCNQ5 knock-out Raji cells. Cells were incubated with FITC-TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ for various periods of time and peptide staining was visually quantitated on confocal images (n>150 cells for each time-point). The increased percentage of cells with vesicular staining in the KO cells is likely the result of unmasking from the disappearance of strong diffuse staining. The results correspond to the average of three experiments.

Fig. 3. Potassium channels maintain plasma membrane polarization that is required for CPP entry into cells.

(A) Assessment of the resting plasma membrane potential in the indicated cell lines and the corresponding potassium channel knock-out (KO) clones in the presence or in the absence of XE-991 or TRAM-34. The grey and white zones correspond to non-treated cells and inhibitor-treated cells, respectively. NT, not treated. The p-values correspond to the assessment of the significance of the differences with the control wild-type condition using ANOVA multiple comparison analysis. Each dot in a given condition represents an independent experiment.

(B) Effect of cellular depolarization (left of the grey zone) and hyperpolarization (right of the grey zone) on peptide uptake. The indicated cell lines and the corresponding channel knock-out (KO) clones were pretreated or not with depolarization agents (2 μg/ml gramicidin for 5 minutes or high extracellular potassium buffer for 30 minutes) or with hyperpolarization inducer (10 μM valinomycin), followed by the addition of TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ for one hour. Alternatively, hyperpolarization was achieved by ectopic expression of the KCNJ2 potassium channel. Membrane potential and peptide uptake were then determined. The p-values correspond to the assessment of the significance of the differences with the control wild-type condition using ANOVA multiple comparison analysis. Each dot in a given condition represents an independent experiment.

(C) Quantitation of CPP uptake in Raji cells by flow cytometry in depolarizing (top) or hyperpolarizing (bottom) conditions. Data from a given independent experiment are connected by lines. Comparison between two conditions was done using two-tailed paired t-test.

(D) Uptake of various CPPs in the presence of different concentrations of potassium chloride in the media. The thick grey lines correspond to the average of 3-5 independent experiments. Data for a given experiment are linked with thin blue lines.

Fig. 4. Hyperpolarization favors the formation of ~2 nm-wide water pores used by CPP to translocate into cells.

(A) Visualization of *in silico* modelled, time dependent, TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ penetration and subsequent translocation across cellular membrane through a water pore. Water molecules within membranes are depicted by red spheres (and by red dots outside the membrane).

(B) Quantitation of CPP localization in hyperpolarized or depolarized conditions based on coarse-grained molecular dynamics simulations. Membrane hyperpolarization was achieved through a net charge difference of 30 positive ions between intracellular and extracellular space in a double bilayer system (*50, 69-71*) obtaining a transmembrane potential of 2.2 V.

(C) Quantitation of the percentage of cells with cytoplasmic staining after the indicated treatment. The indicated compounds (32 μg/ml PI, 200 μg/ml dextran, 40 μM CPP, except MAP, which was used at 20 μM) were incubated for 30 minutes on HeLa cells.

Depolarization was induced with 2 μg/ml gramicidin. The percentage of cells displaying cytoplasmic uptake of the indicated molecules was then determined on confocal images (n>200 cells; see Fig. S10B). Inset corresponds to an enlargement of the percentage of cells positive for dextran in the presence of R9. The results correspond to at least three independent experiments.

(D) Left: quantitation of PI uptake in wild type HeLa cells after 30 minutes of incubation in normal, depolarizing (2 μg/ml gramicidin) or hyperpolarizing (10 μM valinomycin) conditions in the presence or in the absence of 40 μM FITC-R9. Cytoplasmic uptake was quantitated from confocal images using ImageJ (n>300 cells; see the methods). Right: as in left panel, but using lower laser power to avoid saturation of the signal obtained in saponin permeabilized cells. The p-values correspond to the assessment of the significance of the differences with the not treated (NT) control condition using ANOVA multiple comparison analysis. The results correspond to three independent experiments.

(E) Relation between cytoplasmic PI uptake and membrane potential measured with DiBac4(3) in HeLa cells. Each dot represents an independent experiment.

(F) The relation between PI uptake and membrane potential from panel E, was used to calculate membrane potential based on PI fluorescence in HeLa cells. Each dot in a given condition represents an independent experiment.

Fig. 5.

Hyperpolarization improves CPP uptake *in vivo*.

(A) Assessment of CPP *in vivo* uptake in zebrafish embryos in normal and hyperpolarized conditions. Forty-eight hour post fertilization, zebrafish embryos were injected with 3.12 μM FITC-TAT-RasGAP$_{317\text{-}326}$(W317A) with or without 10 μM valinomycin. Scale bar: 200 μm. Comparison between conditions in the presence or in the absence of valinomycin was done using two-tailed paired t-test. The results correspond to three independent experiments.

(B) Assessment of CPP *in vivo* uptake in C57BL/6N mice in normal and hyperpolarized conditions. Mice were injected with 5 μM FITC-TAT-RasGAP$_{317\text{-}326}$(W317A) with or without 10 μM valinomycin (n=11 injections per condition). Comparison between conditions in the presence or in the absence of valinomycin was done using two-tailed paired t-test.

Fig. S1. Related to Fig. 1. Characteristics of CPP uptake.

(A) Visual attribution of the various types of staining associated with FITC-CPP uptake in wild-type Hela cells. Cells 1-4 display diffuse cytoplasmic staining; cells 5-9 mixed staining of both vesicular and diffuse; cells 10-15 have acquired FITC-TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ in vesicles. Scale bar: 20 μm.

(B) Representative confocal images of focal and homogenous entry of FITC-TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ direct translocation patterns in HeLa cells.

(C) Quantitation in Raji and HeLa cells of the patterns described in panel B. An apparent homogenous type of entry could be focal if the entry point is outside of the confocal plane. Focal diffusion is likely therefore to be underestimated. The results correspond to three independent experiments.

(D) Quantitation of the cytosolic fluorescence intensity (left) and the percentage of cells with cytosolic fluorescence (right). HeLa cells were incubated with 80 μM FITC-TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ for 30 minutes with the indicated frequency of laser exposures (n>130 cells per condition). FITC-TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ translocation into cells occurred similarly after 30 minutes whether the cells were illuminated once or 60 times over the 30 minutes period. Even if one argues that one illumination is sufficient to cause the uptake seen after a 30 minute incubation period with CPP, then the uptake should be the same whether the illumination is performed at 1 minute or at 30 minutes. This is not what is observed: the uptake of the FITC-labelled CPP increases overtime independently of the number of times the cells are illuminated. The results correspond to three independent experiments.

(E) Quantitation of FITC-TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ fluorescence within cells that had acquired CPPs through direct translocation. The dotted line represents the fluorescence in the cell culture media (i.e. outside of the cells).

(F) Quantitation of FITC-TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ uptake at the indicated temperatures. Cells were incubated on a thermoblock for one hour. Peptide uptake was measured by flow cytometry. The results for each cell line correspond to three independent experiments. The data was normalized to the fluorescence at 37°C.

(G) Quantitation, in the absence of cells, of the emitted FITC fluorescence at 525 nm (excitation at 488 nm) of FITC-TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ at indicated concentrations in PBS

in the presence or in the absence of 0.2% trypan blue. Fluorescence was recorded in 96 well plates using a CYTATION3 apparatus.

(H) Assessment of the contribution of surface bound FITC-TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ to overall cell-acquired fluorescence. HeLa cells were incubated with FITC-TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ for 60 minutes in 24 well plates in 0.5 ml RPMI, 10% FBS. Then, cells were washed once with PBS (1 ml), trypsinized, and resuspended in 0.5 ml PBS containing or not 0.2% trypan blue. Cell-associated fluorescence was recorded by flow cytometry. Data were normalized to the fluorescence values of cells incubated with FITC-TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ in the absence of trypan blue. The results correspond to the average of three independent experiments.

Fig. S2. Related to Fig. 2. CRISPR/Cas9 screen and target gene identification.

(A) Scheme of the CRISPR/Cas9 screening strategy to identify genes involved in TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ cellular entry. Raji and SKW6.4 cells were infected with a single guide RNA (sgRNA) CRISPR/Cas9 lentiviral library in conditions favoring the expression of only one specific sgRNA per cell (which is indicated by differentially colored cells). The infected cells were then incubated in the presence or in the absence of 40 μM TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ for 8 days (Raji) or 17 days (SKW6.4). The expression of sgRNAs in both populations was assessed by massive parallel sequencing to determine the enrichment or depletion in specific sgRNAs in the peptide-treated population.

(B) Scatter-plot depicting the changes in sgRNA expression between the control and treated cell populations. The most significantly modulated sgRNA sets are color-coded.

Fig. S3. Related to Fig. 2. Validation of genes involved in the TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ uptake identified through CRISPR/Cas9 screening.

(A-C) Sequencing of the regions targeted by the sgRNAs disrupting KCNQ5, KCNK5 and KCNN4 potassium channels in Raji (panel A), SKW6.4 (panel B) or HeLa cells (panel C). Mutations, insertions and deletions induced by the CRISPR/Cas9 system are shown in red. Except the cases mentioned below, these mutations induce a frame shift and early termination of the open reading frame. The sequences targeted by the sgRNAs are highlighted in yellow. The sgRNA-induced mutations in the first allele of clone Q5-2, in the first allele of SKW6.4 cells clone N4-2, and in the first allele of clone K5-2 do not induce a frame-shift but are located in critical domains necessary for

potassium channel activity, such as the pore-forming region of KCNK5 (uniprot accession number:O95279), region adjacent to the pore of KCNQ5 (uniprot accession number: Q9NR82) or calcium recognition domain of KCNN4 (uniprot accession number: O15554). Hence, these alleles presumably encode non-functional channels. Clones Q5-1 in Raji, N4-1 and K5-1 in SKW6.4, and N4-1 in HeLa cells were those that were used in subsequent experiments. The blue nucleotides correspond to silent changes, aimed at reducing sgRNA-targeting, introduced in the KCNQ5-encoding lentiviral vector (see panel E). PAM (protospacer adjacent motif) sequences are italicized.

(D) The indicated wild-type (WT) and knock-out (KO) cells were tested for their ability to be killed by TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$. Cell death was assessed after 16 hours. The results correspond to the average of three independent experiments.

(E) Wild-type or KCNQ5 knock-out Raji cells were infected or not with a sgRNA-resistant FLAG-KCNQ5-encoding lentivirus and treated with 40µTAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ for 16 hours. The results correspond to three independent experiments. Expression of FLAG-KCNQ5 construct was detected by western blot using an anti-FLAG antibody.

(F) KCNN4 knock-out (KO) SKW6.4 and HeLa cells were infected or not with a KCNN4-expressing lentivirus and then treated with TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ for 16 hours (SKW6.4) or 24 hours (HeLa). Expression of KCNN4-V5 construct was detected by western blot using an anti-V5 antibody. Note that the Raji, SKW6.4 and HeLa knock-out cell lines still express Cas9 and the sgRNAs targeting the potassium channels. Hence, the ectopically expressed wild-type channel-encoding cDNAs can be targeted by the CRISPR/Cas9 system but this nevertheless allows for a detectable expression of the FLAG- or V5-tagged constructs although to much lower levels than in similarly infected wild-type cells lacking Cas9 and sgRNAs (see Fig. S4). In Raji cells, the re-expressed KCNQ5 channel contained 5 silent changes in the sgRNA recognition site (see panel A) but this proved insufficient to allow for a strong ectopic expression (see Fig. S4A, last two lanes). Cell death was assessed by flow cytometry of PI-stained cells. The results correspond to the average of three independent experiments.

Fig. S4. Related to Fig. 2 and S3. Uncropped western blots assessing the expression of tagged potassium channels through lentiviral expression.

(A) Wild-type and KCNQ5 knock-out Raji cells infected or not with FLAG-tagged KCNQ5.

(B) Wild-type and KCNN4 knock-out SKW6.4 cells infected or not with V5-tagged KCNN4.

(C) Wild-type and KCNN4 knock-out HeLa cells infected or not with V5-tagged KCNN4. Dotted line corresponds to the cropped images shown in Fig. S3E-F.

Fig. S5. Related to Fig. 2. Potassium channels modulate TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ entry, but not the peptide-induced death.

(A) Quantitation of concentration-dependent TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ induced death in Raji, SKW6.4 and HeLa wild-type cells in the presence or in the absence of serum. The results correspond to the median three independent experiments.

(B) Quantitation of wild-type (WT) and knock-out (KO) cell death after incubation for 16 hours (Raji and SKW6.4) or 24 hours (HeLa) in serum-free RPMI media in the presence of increasing concentrations of TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$. Arrows indicate the chosen peptide concentration for experiments performed in the absence of serum. The results correspond to the median three independent experiments.

(C) Cell death assessment in wild-type (WT) and knock-out (KO) Raji and HeLa cells incubated in RPMI without serum, treated (+ pyrene butyrate) or not (NT) with 50 μM pyrene butyrate for the indicated periods of time. DMSO (0.25% vol:vol) was used as a vehicle control for the condition in the absence of pyrene butyrate. The results correspond to the median of three independent experiments. The scheme on the right depicts the structure of pyrene butyrate and how the molecule interacts with arginine residues found in CPPs.

(D) Assessment of peptide-induced death at different time points in pyrene butyrate-treated cells lacking or not specific potassium channel. Cells were incubated with 5μM (Raji) or 10 μM (HeLa) of TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$, pre-incubated or not with 50 μM pyrene butyrate for 30 minutes (in RPMI without serum). The results correspond to the median of three independent experiments.

Fig. S6. Related to Fig. 2. Potassium channels modulate direct CPP translocation, but not endocytosis.

(A) Same as Fig. 2C, but for wild-type and KCNN4 and KCNK5 SKW6.4 knock-out cells. The results correspond to the average of three independent experiments.

(B) As in panel A, but for wild-type and KCNN4 knock-out HeLa cells. The results correspond to the average of three independent experiments.

(C) Quantitation of TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ cytosolic access resulting from direct translocation (left, n=19) and endosomal escape (middle, n=16 and right. n=22) in the presence or in the absence of 1 mM LLOME, a endosome/lysosome disruptor(*36*). In direct translocation condition, the peptide was continuously present in the media, while it was washed out after 30 minutes to assess endosomal escape. LLOME was used to show that our experimental setup allows for the detection of cytoplasmic CPPs if they are released from cellular vesicles. The results correspond to three independent experiments.

(D) Quantitation by flow cytometry of 20 μg/ml AlexaFluor488-transferrin uptake in the wild-type (WT) cell lines and the corresponding knock-out (KO) cells, pretreated or not for 30 minutes with the XE-991 (10 μM) or TRAM-34 (10 μM) potassium channel inhibitors. Transferrin uptake was allowed to proceed for 60 minutes (still in the presence of inhibitors when these were used in the 30 minute pre-incubation period). To quench membrane bound transferrin fluorescence, cells were incubated with 0.2% trypan blue prior to flow cytometry analysis (see Fig. S1F-G). The independent experiment replicates are color-coded.

(E) Assessment of FITC-TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ binding to cellular membrane of wild-type and KCNQ5 knock-out Raji cells after 60 seconds of incubation (top), as well as associated peptide uptake after one hour of treatment (bottom). The results correspond to at least five independent experiments.

Fig. S7. Related to Fig. 2. Potassium channels regulate the cellular uptake of various TAT-bound cargos.

(A) TAT-PNA-induced luciferase activity in the indicated cell lines pretreated or not with potassium channel inhibitors (XE-991 or TRAM-34) or genetically invalidated for specific potassium channels. Results are normalized to non-stimulated cells (dashed lines). The independent experiment replicates are color-coded. The p-values correspond to the assessment of the significance of the differences with the control wild-type condition using ANOVA multiple comparison analysis.

(B) Representative microscopy images of wild-type and KCNQ5 knock-out Raji cells expressing loxP-RFP-STOP-loxP-GFP and treated or not with 20 μM TAT-Cre for 48 hours. The results correspond to one of three independent experiments.

(C) Uptake of FITC-D-JNKI1 in the indicated cell lines genetically invalidated (KO) or not (WT) for specific potassium channels. The results correspond to the median of three independent experiments.

Fig. S8. Related to Fig. 3. Membrane potential modulation and CPP uptake.

(A) Membrane potential measurement validation. Membrane potential of wild-type and KCNQ5 knockout (KO) Raji cells was measured using DiBac4(3), a fluorescent membrane potential sensor, or by performing perforated patch electrophysiology recordings. Each dot in the figures reporting DiBac4(3) measurements corresponds to the median of 10'000 cell recording. For perforated patch, each dot in the figures corresponds to the membrane potential of one cell.

(B) Membrane potential measurement in wild-type Raji cells performed in the presence or in the absence of serum. Membrane potential was assessed using DiBac4(3).

(C) Confocal microscopy quantitation of HeLa cells displaying the indicated types of CPP uptake. The CPPs (40 μM, except for MAP 20 μM) were continuously present in the media during the course of the experiment. The results correspond to the average of three independent experiments.

(D) Sequences of the indicated CPPs and their net charge. Positively charged amino acids (arginine and lysine) are color-coded.

(E) Setting membrane potential by varying extracellular potassium concentrations. Assessment of membrane potential changes in Raji cells incubated in RPMI medium containing the indicated concentrations of potassium chloride (isotonicity was maintained by adapting the sodium chloride concentrations; see methods). Membrane potential was measured with DiBac4(3). The results correspond to the median of 4-6 independent experiments.

(F) Assessment of FITC-CPP binding to cellular membrane of wild-type Raji cells in normal or depolarized conditions after 60 seconds of incubation (top), as well as associated peptide uptake after one hour of treatment with CPP (bottom). Cells were preincubated for 30 minutes in the presence of RPMI-media containing 5.2 or 91.9 mM potassium chloride and then treated with 40 μM of the indicated CPPs. The results

correspond to at least six independent experiments. Comparison between non-treated or depolarized conditions was done using two-tailed paired t-test.

(G) Assessment of membrane potential (top) and FITC-TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ uptake (bottom) in control, depolarized (TEA-treated), and hyperpolarized (valinomycin-treated) primary rat cortical neurons. The results correspond to the median of at least three independent experiments.

(H) Quantitation of TMR-labelled TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ uptake in wild-type Raji cells at the indicated pH in depolarizing and hyperpolarizing conditions. These experiments were performed in the presence of 10% FBS as acidification or alkalization were toxic for the cells. Inset corresponds to TMR-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ uptake in cells incubated in media at physiological pH 7.5. Cells were preincubated in media at the indicated pH in presence or in the absence of 2 μg/ml gramicidin or 10 μM valinomycin, prior to addition of 40 μM TMR-TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ for one hour. Points linked by lines correspond to independent experiments.

Fig. S9. Related to Fig. 4. Visualization of water pore formation within physiological cellular membrane.

(A) Visual inspection of the molecular systems to estimate the water pore formation kinetics. The static electric field (E_{ext}) ha s been highlighted with a green arrow.

(B) Water pore formation within polarized physiological cell membrane and closure due to ion movement and progressive depolarization.

C) Assessment of the time necessary for water pore formation in the presence or in the absence of the indicated CPPs at 37°C based on *in silico* modeling experiments. The Pearson correlation coefficients of the fitting curves are R_{R9}=0.85, $R_{Penetratin}$=0.95, R_{MAP}=0.92, $R_{TATRasGAP}$=0.91, $R_{Transportant}$=0.80, R_{NoCPP}=0.87.

(D) Assessment of the time necessary for water pore formation in presence of R9 at 37°C and 12°C. The Pearson correlation coefficients of the fitting curves are R_{R9-37C}=0.85, and R_{R9-12C}=0.93.

(E) *In vitro* membrane potential measurement at the indicated temperatures in wild-type Raji and SKW6.4 cells using DiBac4(3). The results correspond to the median of three independent experiments.

(F) Schematic description of the double-bilayer molecular system. The localization of the CPPs (extracellular, penetration, and translocation) has been defined based on the distance between each CPP and the membrane. The CPP is highlighted in yellow.

Fig. S10. Related to Fig. 4. Water pore formation in cells occurs in hyperpolarized membranes and is promoted by CPPs.

(A) Representative images related to Fig. 4C. Wild-type HeLa cells were incubated in the presence of 32 μg/ml in the presence or in the absence of 40 μM FITC-R9, or left untreated for 30 minutes at 37°C in RPMI with 10% FBS. Depolarization was induced with 2 μg/ml gramicidin. Images were obtained by confocal microscopy. As shown below in panel D, the fluorescence produced by 32 μg/ml of PI is under the threshold of detection. Hence, when PI fluorescence is detected in cells (see the example in panel A), the corresponding PI concentration is higher than 32 μg/ml (see panel D). In other words, cellular PI fluorescence is detected in cells because the cells are able to concentrate this cationic dye in their cytoplasm, as they are able to do with cationic CPP (see Fig. S1D).

(B) An example of visual quantitation performed in Fig. 4C, based on images in panel A of this figure in wild-type HeLa cells. The percentage of cells positive for PI and cells that have acquired FITC-R9 through direct translocation, have been assessed as follows. Cells 1, 3-7 are considered as positive for PI (left) and cells 1-6 are counted as those where direct translocation has occurred (right). The rest of the cells were considered as negative. Scale bar: 20 μm.

(C) PI does not interact with R9. The potential binding between PI (6 mM) and R9 (0.6 mM) at 37°C was assessed by isothermal titration calorimetry. Representative power and heat of injection are shown. This experiment was repeated three times with similar results.

(D) PI fluorescence detection in media in the absence of cells. Wells containing the indicated PI concentrations in RPMI were illuminated using the same settings as in Fig. 4C and D (left). Fluorescence intensity within the full region of the obtained images was quantitated using ImageJ. The arrow indicates the PI concentration used for water pore-related experiments (32 μg/ml).

(E) Assessment of colony formation potential after transient CPP and membrane potential treatments. DMSO was used as a vehicle for gramicidin and valinomycin.

Wild type HeLa cells were incubated for one hour with the indicated treatment, washed and plated on 10 cm dishes. Number of colonies were counted at day 14 after Giemsa staining.

Fig. S11. Related to Fig. 5. Zebrafish and mouse membrane potential modulation.

(A) Eighteen hours post fertilization zebrafish embryos were incubated 40 minutes with the indicated concentrations of valinomycin with 950 nM DiBac4(3). DiBac4(3) fluorescence was then recorded and normalized to the non-treated control. The decrease in DiBac4(3) fluorescence indicates membrane hyperpolarization. Membrane potential values could not be calculated, as a standard curve would have to be performed in zebrafish. DiBac4(3) uptake was assessed from confocal images of the fish tail region.

(B) Eighteen hours post fertilization zebrafish embryos were incubated with or without 3.12 μM TAT-RasGAP$_{317\text{-}326}$ (W317A), a mutant version that is not toxic to cells, in the presence of the indicated concentrations of valinomycin. Peptide uptake was assessed from confocal images of the fish tail region.

(C-D) Eighteen hours post fertilization zebrafish embryos were incubated 1 hour with the indicated concentrations of valinomycin, in the absence (panel C) or in the presence (panel D) of 3.12 μM TAT-RasGAP$_{317\text{-}326}$ (W317A), then washed, and incubated in Egg water. The viability of each fish was assessed over 52 hours at the indicated time points.

(E) Representative images of zebrafish treated as described in panel C and D, washed, and further incubated in Egg water. Images were taken with a CYTATION3 apparatus at a 4x magnification.

(F) Survival of 48 hours post fertilization zebrafish embryos following intramuscular injection of 3.12 μM TAT-RasGAP$_{317\text{-}326}$ (W317A) peptide in the presence or in the absence of 10 μM valinomycin. Survival was visually assessed under a binocular microscope by taking into consideration the embryo transparency (as dead embryos appear opaque), development characteristics and motility.

(G) Mice were intradermally injected with DiBac4(3) in the presence or in the absence of 10 μM valinomycin. DiBac4(3) fluorescence was then recorded and normalized to the mean of non-treated (NT) control. DiBac4(3) fluorescence was assessed as in panel A.

Fig. S12. Related to Fig. 3-5. Model of CPP direct translocation through water pores.

Cationic CPP translocation across cellular membranes is favored by the opening of potassium channels or by hyperpolarizing drugs, such as valinomycin. This sets a sufficiently low membrane potential permissive for CPP direct translocation. When positively charged CPPs bind to the membrane, they induce megapolarization (i.e. a membrane potential of about -150 mV). This leads to the formation of water pores that are then used by CPPs to enter cells.

Movie S1. Related to Fig. 1. TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ uptake in Raji cells over a 16-hour period.

Representative time-lapse recording of wild-type Raji cells incubated with 5 μM TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ for 16 hours in RPMI in the absence of serum. For the first 30 minutes of the recording, images were taken every 30 seconds, then until the end of the recording, images were taken every five minutes. Peptide was present in the media throughout the recording. Yellow and pink arrows indicate cells experiencing direct translocation and endocytosis, respectively. Cyan arrows point towards labelled endosomes and green asterisks to dead cells. Scale bar: 20 μM. Time is displayed in hours:minutes.

Movie S2. Related to Fig. 1. Early peptide entry in wild-type Raji cells.

Time-lapse recording of Raji cells incubated with 40 μM TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ for 30 minutes in RPMI, 10% FBS. Peptide was present in the media throughout the recording and images were taken for 30 minutes at 10 second intervals. Scale bar: 10 μM. In this Movie, only the central right cell acquires the peptide. Time is displayed in minutes:seconds.

Movie S3. Related to Fig. 1. Early peptide entry in wild-type HeLa cells.

Time-lapse recording of HeLa cells incubated with 80 μM FITC-TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ in RPMI, 10% FBS. Yellow and pink arrows indicate cells experiencing direct translocation and endocytosis, respectively. Images were taken for 30 minutes at 10 second intervals. Scale bar: 20 μM. Time is displayed in minutes:seconds.

Movie S4. Related to Fig. 1 and S6C. Distinction between endosomal escape and direct translocation.

Wild-type HeLa cells were preincubated with 80 μM FITC-TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ for 30 minutes in RPMI, 10% FBS and then imaged every 5 minutes for 4 hours at 37°C, 5% CO_2. Movie on the left was recorded in the continuous presence of the peptide. Movie on the right was recorded after the peptide was washed three times with RPMI, 10% FBS. Scale bar: 10 μM. Time is displayed in hours:minutes.

Movie S5. Related to Fig. 4. *In silico* visualization of water pore formation in the presence of constant electrical field across a membrane bilayer.

This Movie shows water pore formation in an asymmetric multi-component bilayer in the presence of a membrane potential. This *in silico* simulation was performed with externally applied electric field using molecular dynamics MARTINI coarse-grained approach.

Movie S6. Related to Fig. 4. *In silico* visualization water pore formation in the presence of the indicated CPPs across a polarized membrane bilayer.

This Movie shows the translocation of the indicated CPPs across a plasma membrane in the presence of a membrane potential. This simulation was performed by molecular dynamics MARTINI coarse-grained approach using an asymmetric multi-component bilayer in the presence of ion-imbalance to polarize the membrane.

Movie S7. Related to Fig. 4. *In silico* visualization water pore formation in the presence of the indicated CPPs across a non-polarized membrane bilayer.

This Movie shows the translocation of the indicated CPPs across a plasma membrane in the absence of a membrane potential. This simulation was performed by molecular

945   dynamics MARTINI coarse-grained approach using an asymmetric multi-component

946   bilayer in the absence of ion-imbalance.

Materials and Methods

Chemicals

Puromycin 10 mg/ml (Thermo Fisher, ref. no. A11138-02) was aliquoted and stored at -20 °C. Blasticidin (Applichem, ref. no. A3784) was dissolved at 1 mg/mL in water and stored at -20 °C. XE-991 and TRAM-34 (Alomone labs, ref. no. X-100 and T-105 respectively) was dissolved in DMSO at 100 mM and stored at -20 °C. Cells were preincubated with 10 μM of these inhibitors for 30 minutes and then kept throughout the experiments. Pyrene butyrate (Sigma, ref. no. 257354) was dissolved in DMSO at 20 mM and stored at -20 °C. Live Hoechst 33342 (Sigma, ref. no. CDS023389) was aliquoted and stored at -20°C. Trypan Blue 0.4% (Life technologies, ref. no. 15250061) was stored at room temperature. AlexaFluor488-labeled human transferrin was dissolved in PBS 5 at mg/ml and stored at 4°C (Thermo Fisher, ref. no. 13342). TexasRed-labelled neutral 3'000 and 40'000 Da dextran was dissolved in PBS at 10 mg/ml and stored at -20°C (Thermo Fisher, ref. no. D3329 and D1829, respectively). TMR-labelled 10'000 neutral dextran was dissolved in PBS at 10 mg/ml and stored at -20°C (Thermo Fisher, ref. no. D1816).

Antibodies

The rabbit polyclonal anti-V5 (Bethyl, ref. no. A190-A120), mouse monoclonal anti-FLAG antibody was from Sigma-Aldrich (ref. no. F1804), rabbit monoclonal anti-actin (Cell signaling, ref. no. 4970) and rat monoclonal anti-γ-tubulin (Santa Cruz, ref. no. sc-51715) antibodies were used for Western blotting.

Cell lines

All cell lines were culture in 5 % CO_2 at 37°C. Raji (kind gift from the laboratory of Aimable Nahimana, ATCC: CCL-86), SKW6.4 (kind gift from the laboratory of Pascal Schneider, ATCC: TIB-215) and HeLa (ATCC: CCL-2) cells were cultured in RPMI (Invitrogen, Cat# 61870) supplemented with 10 % heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS; Invitrogen, Cat# 10270-106). All cell lines were authenticated via Microsynth cell authentication service.

Zebrafish

Zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) from AB line were bred and maintained in our animal facility under standard conditions (*91*), more specifically at 28.5°C and on a 14:10 hours light:dark cycle at the Zebrafish facility of the School of Biology and Medicine (cantonal veterinary approval VD-H21). Zebrafish of 20 hours post fertilization were collected and treated with 0.2 mM phenylthiourea (PTU, Sigma, St. Louis, MO) to suppress pigmentation. Embryos were raised at 28.5°C in Eggwater (0.3 g sea salt/L reverse osmosis water) until the age of 4 days post fertilization.

Mice

C57BL/6NCrl were acquired from Charles River laboratories, which were then housed and bred in our animal facility. All experiments were performed according to the principles of laboratory animal care and Swiss legislation under ethical approval (Swiss Animal Protection Ordinance; permit number VD3374.a).

Primary cortical neuronal culture

Sprague-Dawley rat pups (from Janvier, France) were euthanized in accordance with the Swiss Laws for the protection of animals, and the procedures were approved by

the Vaud Cantonal Veterinary Office. Primary neuronal cultures from cortices of 2-day-old rats were prepared and maintained at 37 °C with a 5% CO_2-containing atmosphere in neurobasal medium (Life Technologies, 21103-049) supplemented with 2% B27 (Invitrogen, 17504044), 0.5 mM glutamine (Sigma, G7513) and 100 µg/ml penicillin-streptomycin (Invitrogen, 15140122) as described previously (*92*). Neurons were plated at a density of ~3 × 10^5 cells on 12-mm glass coverslips coated with 0.01% poly-L-lysine (Sigma, P4832). Half of the medium was changed every 3-4 days and experiments were performed at 12–13 days *in vitro*.

Confocal microscopy

Confocal microscopy experiments were done on live cells. Cells were seeded onto glass bottom culture dishes (MatTek, corporation Cat# P35G-1.5-14-C) and treated as described in the Fig.s. For nuclear staining, 10 µg/ml live Hoechst 33342 (Molecular probes, Cat# H21492) was added in the culture medium 5 minutes before washing cells twice with PBS. After washing, cells were examined with a plan Apochromat 63x oil immersion objective mounted on a Zeiss LSM 780 laser scanning fluorescence confocal microscope equipped with gallium arsenide phosphide detectors and three lasers (a 405 nm diode laser, a 458-476-488-514 nm argon laser, and a 561 nm diode-pumped solid state laser). Time-lapse experiments were done using an incubation chamber set at 37°C, 5% CO_2 and visualized with a Zeiss LSM710 Quasar laser scanning fluorescence confocal microscope equipped with either Neofluar 63x, 1.2 numerical aperture (NA) or plan Neofluar 100x, 1.3 NA plan oil immersion objective (and the same lasers as above). Visual segregation of cells based on type of CPP entry, associated either with vesicular or diffuse staining, was performed as shown in Fig. S1A.

1022

1023 **Flow cytometry**

1024 Flow cytometry experiments were performed using a Beckman Coulter FC500

1025 instrument. Cells were centrifuged and resuspended in PBS prior to flow cytometry.

1026 Data analysis was done with Kaluza Version 1.3 software (Beckman Coulter).

1027

Cell death and CPP uptake measurements

With the exception of neurons, cell death was quantitated with 8 μg/ml propidium iodide

(Sigma, Cat# 81845). Unless otherwise indicated, cell death was assessed after 16

hours of continuous incubation in Raji and SKW6.4 cells and 24 hours in HeLa cells.

Cell death and peptide uptake were analyzed by flow cytometry. Uptake

measurements were done after one hour of incubation. Peptide uptake in primary

cortical neurons was assessed by confocal microscopy with LSM780. Cell-associated

fluorescence was quantitated with ImageJ.

1036

1037 **Lentivirus production**

1038 Recombinant lentiviruses were produced as described (*93, 94*) with the following

1039 modification: the envelope plasmid pMD.G and the packaging vector pCMVΔR8.91

1040 were replaced by pMD2.G and psPAX2, respectively.

1041

1042 **Membrane potential measurements *in vitro***

1043 Two methods were used to assess cellular membrane potential *in vitro*. With the first

1044 method, the membrane potential was determined by incubating the cells for 40 minutes

1045 with 100 nM of the fluorescent probe DiBAC4(3) (Thermofisher, Cat# B438) and the

median fluorescence intensity was then assessed by flow cytometry. Calculation of the

actual membrane potential in mV based on the DiBAC4(3) signals was performed as

described earlier(*95, 96*). The second method relied on electrophysiology recordings.

To perform these, the bath solution composition was (in mM): 103.9 NaCl, 23.9

$NaHCO_3$, 2 $CaCl_2$, 1.2 $MgCl_2$, 5.2 KCl, 1.2 NaH_2PO_4, 2 glucose and 1.7 ascorbic acid.

The pipet solution was composed of (in mM): 140 $KMeSO_4$, 10 HEPES, 10 KCl, 0.1

EGTA, 10 phosphocreatine and 4 MgATP. The patch pipets had a resistance of 2.4-

3.6 MΩ. Perforated patch recordings were performed as previously described (*97*).

Briefly, freshly prepared gramicidin D (Sigma, Cat# G5002), at 2.8 μM final

concentration, was added to prefiltered patch pipet solution and then sonicated for

three consecutive times during 10 seconds. Cell-attached configuration was achieved

by applying negative pressure on patch pipet until seal resistance of over one Giga

Ohm was reached. After gaining cell access through gramicidin created pores,

membrane potential measurements were done in current clamp at 0 pA for at least

three minutes. Since primary rat neurons are killed following full depolarization induced

by gramicidin, the standard curve from membrane potential calculations (*95, 96*) were

performed using gramicidin-treated Raji cells incubated with increasing concentrations

of DiBac4(3) for 40 minutes. Images of the cells were then taken using a LSM780

confocal microscope and the cell-associated fluorescence quantitated with ImageJ.

Relative membrane potential assessment *in vivo*

Zebrafish embryos in Egg water (see Zebrafish section) were incubated for 40 minutes

in the presence or in the absence of various concentrations of valinomycin together

with 950 nM DiBac4(3). The embryos were then fixed and visualized under a confocal

LSM710 microscope (*98*). DiBac4(3)-associated fluorescence of a region of interest of

about 0.0125 mm^2 in the tail region was quantitated with ImageJ. The values were

normalized to the control condition (i.e. in the absence of valinomycin). Mice were

intradermally injected with 10 μl of a 950 nM DiBac4(3) PBS solution containing or not

10 μM valinomycin and sacrificed one hour later. The skin was excised, fixed in 4%

formalin, paraffin-embedded and used to prepare serial histological slices. Pictures of

the slices were taken with a CYTATION3 apparatus. The DiBac4(3)-associated

fluorescence in the whole slice was quantitated with ImageJ. The slice in the series of

slices prepared from a given skin sample displaying the highest fluorescence signal

was considered as the one nearest to the injection site. The signals from such slices

are those reported in the Fig.s.

1081

Experimental modulation of the plasma membrane potential

Raji, SKW6.4 or HeLa cells: two hundred thousand cells were plated on non-coated

plates to avoid cell adherence in 500 μl RPMI, 10% FBS. Cellular depolarization was

induced by preincubating the cells at 37°C with 2 μg/ml gramicidin for 5 minutes and/or

by placing them in potassium-rich buffer (28) for 30 minutes (40 mM KCl, 100 mM

potassium glutamate, 1 mM MgCl$_2$, 1 mM CaCl$_2$, 5 mM glucose, 20 mM HEPES,

pH7.4). Cells were then treated with 40 μM of the indicated CPPs for one hour when

peptide uptake is recorded or with 100 nM DiBac4(3) for 40 minutes when membrane

potential is to be measured. Hyperpolarization in Raji cells was performed by treating

the cells with 10 μM valinomycin for 20 minutes in RPMI without serum. Cells were

then treated with 5 μM of the indicated CPPs for one hour or 100 nM DiBac4(3) for 40

minutes. In the case of SKW6.4 and HeLa cells, hyperpolarization was induced by

infection with a viral construct expressing KCNJ2 (see "virus production" section). Cells

were then treated with 40 μM of indicated CPP for one hour or 100 nM DiBac4(3) for

40 minutes.

Neurons (12 days post-isolation) were preincubated 30 minutes with 5 mM TEA

(tetraethylammonium, Sigma Aldrich, Cat#T2265; gramicidin is toxic in these neurons;

see section "Membrane potential measurements *in vitro*") to induce depolarization or

10 μM valinomycin to induce hyperpolarization in bicarbonate-buffered saline solution

(116 mM NaCl, 5.4 mM KCl, 0.8 mM $MgSO_4$, 1 mM NaH_2PO4, 26.2 mM NaHCO3,

0.01 mM glycine, 1.8 mM CaCl2, 4.5 mg/mL glucose) in a 37°C, 5% CO_2 incubator.

The cells were then incubated one hour with 2 μM of FITC-labeled TAT-RasGAP$_{317-}$

$_{326}$. The cells were finally washed thrice with PBS and images were acquired using a

LSM780 confocal microscope. Cell-associated peptide fluorescence was quantitated

using ImageJ.

Setting membrane potential by changing potassium concentrations in the media

RPMI-like media made without potassium chloride and without sodium chloride was

from Biowest (Table S1). Varying concentrations of potassium chloride were added to

this medium containing 10% FBS. Sodium chloride was also added so that the sum of

potassium and sodium chloride equaled 119 mM (taking into account the

concentrations of sodium and potassium in FBS). Cells were preincubated in the media

containing different concentrations of potassium for 20 minutes, then different CPPs at

a 40 μM concentration were added and cells were incubated for one hour at 37°C in

5% CO2. Cells were washed once in PBS and CPP uptake was measured by flow

cytometry. The corresponding membrane potential was measured with DiBac4(3).

Table S1: Media composition

CAS Number	Components	Quantity in g/l

13477-34-4	Calcium Nitrate Tetrahydrate	0.10000000
7487-88-9	Magnesium Sulfate Anhydrous	0.04884000
50-99-7	D-Glucose Anhydrous	2.00000000
56-40-6	Glycine	0.01000000
39537-23-0	L-Alanyl-L-Glutamine	0.44600000
74-79-3	L-Arginine Free Base	0.20000000
70-47-3	L-Asparagine Anhydrous	0.05000000
56-84-8	L-Aspartic acid	0.02000000
30925-07-6	L-Cystine Dihydrochloride	0.06520000
56-86-0	L-Glutamic Acid	0.02000000
71-00-1	L-Histidine	0.01500000
51-35-4	L-Hydroxy-L-Proline	0.02000000
73-32-5	L-Isoleucine	0.05000000
61-90-5	L-Leucine	0.05000000
657-27-2	L-Lysine Monohydrochloride	0.04000000
63-68-3	L-Methionine	0.01500000
63-91-2	L-Phenylalanine	0.01500000
147-85-3	L-Proline	0.02000000
56-45-1	L-Serine	0.03000000
72-19-5	L-Threonine	0.02000000
73-22-3	L-Tryptophan	0.00500000
69847-45-6	L-Tyrosine Disodium Salt Dihydrate	0.02883000
72-18-4	L-Valine	0.02000000
67-48-1	Choline Chloride	0.00300000
58-85-5	D-Biotin	0.00020000
137-08-6	D-Ca Pantothenate	0.00025000
59-30-3	Folic Acid	0.00100000
87-89-8	Myo-Inositol	0.03500000
98-92-0	Nicotinamide (Nicotinic acid amide)	0.00100000
150-13-0	P-Aminobenzoic Acid (PABA)	0.00100000
58-56-0	Pyridoxine Hydrochloride	0.00100000
83-88-5	Riboflavin	0.00020000
67-03-8	Thiamine Hydrochloride	0.00100000
68-19-9	Vitamine B12	0.00000500
70-18-8	L-Glutathione Reduced	0.00100000
34487-61-1	Phenol Red Sodium Salt	0.00530000
WATER		996.66117500

1120

In silico pore formation kinetics though MARTINI coarse-grained simulations

The water pore formation kinetics has been investigated in this study by applying a

constant electrostatic potential to the molecular system (*50-58*). An asymmetric multi-

component membrane was constructed and solvated using CHARMM-GUI (*99, 100*).

Each layer contained 100 lipids (Table S2), in a previously described composition (*49*).

The membrane was solvated with 13500 water molecules, obtaining a molecular

system of 45000 particles. The MARTINI (*101, 102*) force field was used to define

phospholipids' topology through a coarse-grained (CG) approach. The polarizable

water model has been used to assess the water topology (*103*). The CPP models have

been obtained by PEPFOLD-3 server (*104*) , as done in previous studies in the field

(*77, 105*) . The elastic network ELNEDYN (*106*) has been applied to reproduce the

structural and dynamic properties of the CPPs.

Table S2. Phospholipid composition considered in the present study

	Inner membrane		Outer membrane	
type	Number of lipids	%	Number of lipids	%
POPC	18	18	39	39
POPE	27	27	6	6
PSM	10	10	21	21
POPS	11	11	-	-
POPI	5	5	-	-
CHOL	29	29	34	34
total	100	100	100	100

For each molecular system, one CPP was positioned 3 nm far from the membrane

outer leaflet, in the water environment corresponding to the extracellular space. Then,

the system was equilibrated through four MD simulations of 100ps, 200ps, 500 ps, and

100 ns under the NPT ensemble. Position restraints were applied during the first three

molecular dynamics (MD) simulations and gradually removed, from 200 kJ/mol*nm^2 to

10 kJ/mol*nm^2. Velocity rescaling (*107*) temperature coupling algorithm and time

constant of 1.0 ps were applied to keep the temperature at 310.00 K. Berendsen (*108*)

semi-isotropic pressure coupling algorithm with reference pressure equal to 1 bar and

time constant 5.0 ps was employed. Then, all systems were simulated for the

production run in the NPT ensemble with the time step of 20 fs. Electrostatic

interactions were calculated by applying the particle-mesh Ewald (PME) (*109*) method

and van der Waals interactions were defined within a cut-off of 1.2 nm. Periodic

boundary conditions were applied in all directions. Trajectories were collected every

10 ps and the Visual Molecular Dynamics (VMD) (*110*) package was employed to

visually inspect the simulated systems. GROMACS 2018 was used for simulations and

data analysis (*111*). The relatively small size of the molecular system and the

application of Coarse-Grained Martini forcefield, allowed us to study the pore formation

kinetics, requiring many simulations at varying field strengths. In detail, 25 simulations

were performed for each molecular system at different external electric field strengths

from 0.0055 V/nm to 0.090 V/nm. In the MD simulations, an external electric field E_{ext}

was applied parallel to the membrane normal z, i.e., perpendicular to the bilayer

surface. This was achieved by including additional forces $F_i = q*E_{ext}$ acting on all

charged particles i. All the MD simulations were performed until the water pore

formation event was observed. In order to determine the effective electric field in

simulations, we applied a computational procedure reported in literature, that has

demonstrated to provide computational estimation of water pore formation kinetics in

line with experimental results (*53*). It is worth mentioning that molecular simulations

have been performed to elucidate the impact of CPPs' physico-chemical properties on

the pore formation kinetics, as this will have a more general meaning than the absolute

poration time, which is not easily predictable by MARTINI coarse-grained forcefield

(*48*).

1165

***In silico* cell membrane hyperpolarization modeling through ion-imbalance in**

MARTINI coarse-grained simulations

The translocation mechanism of each CPP has been studied by ion-imbalance in a

double bilayer system (*50, 69-71*). The same asymmetric membrane considered to

perform the single-bilayer simulations (Table S2) was used to build up the double-

bilayer system. The double-membrane system was solvated with 4300 water

molecules, obtaining a molecular system of 20000 particles. The MARTINI (*101, 102*)

force field was used to define phospholipids' topology through a coarse-grained (CG)

approach. The polarizable water model has been used to model the water topology

(*103*). The elastic network ELNEDYN (*106*) has been applied to reproduce the

structural and dynamic properties of the CPPs.

For each molecular system, one CPP was positioned in the middle of the double bilayer

system, 2nm far from the membrane outer leaflets, in the water environment

corresponding to the extracellular space. Then, the system was equilibrated through

four MD simulations of 100ps, 200ps, 500 ps, and 100 ns under the NPT ensemble.

Position restraints were applied during the first three MD simulations ang gradually

removed, from 200 kJ/mol*nm^2 to 10 kJ/mol*nm^2. Velocity rescaling (*107*) temperature

coupling algorithm and time constant of 1.0 ps were applied to keep the temperature

at 310.00 K. Berendsen (*108*) semi-isotropic pressure coupling algorithm with

reference pressure equal to 1 bar and time constant 5.0 ps was employed. Then, all

systems were simulated for the production run in the NPT ensemble with the time step

of 20 fs with Parrinello-Rahman pressure coupling (*112*). Membrane hyperpolarization

was achieved through a net charge difference of 30 positive ions between intracellular

and extracellular space, taking into account all charged ions of the system and fulfilling

the full system electroneutrality. Ten different replicas of each molecular simulation

have been performed until the water pore formation and closure events have been

observed. The visual inspection of the simulated molecular systems is reported in Fig.

S9F.

Electrostatic interactions were calculated by applying the particle-mesh Ewald (PME)

(*109*) method and van der Waals interactions were defined within a cut-off of 1.2 nm.

Periodic boundary conditions were applied in all directions. Trajectories were collected

every 1 ps and the Visual Molecular Dynamics (VMD) (*110*) package was employed to

visually inspect the simulated systems. GROMACS 2018 was used for simulations and

data analysis (*111*).

To analyse whether the CPPs were able to cross the membrane and reach the

intracellular compartment, their trajectories were studied in the last five nanoseconds

of each simulation replica. Considering the CPP position with respect the membrane

bilayers, three different compartments were defined: intracellular space, lipid bilayer

(cell membrane) and extracellular space. The radius of the water pores within the

membrane was calculated as previously done in literature (*69, 113*). We assumed that

the central part of the cylindrical water pore contains N water molecules at the same

density as outside of the water flux.

1208

***In vitro* assessment of water pores**

Three hundred thousand wild-type HeLa cells were incubated with 32 ug/ml PI (0.8-

1.5 nm diameter (*72*)) or 200 μg/ml dextran of different size in the presence or in the

absence of indicated CPP in normal, depolarizing (2 μg/ml gramicidin) or

hyperpolarizing (10 μM valinomycin) conditions. Time-lapse images were acquired by

confocal microscopy every 10 seconds. The percentage of cells where direct CPP

translocation has occurred, as well as the percentage of cells positively stained for PI,

were manually quantitated using ImageJ based on snap shot images taken after 30

minutes of incubation, as shown in Fig. S10B. Quantitation of cell percentage was not

selective in terms of fluorescence intensity.   Cytoplasmic PI fluorescence was

assessed with ImageJ, by selecting a region within the cell cytoplasm devoid of

endosomes. Saponin 0.1% (Sigma, Cat# 4706, diluted in PBS weight:volume) was

used as a permeabilizing agent that leads to cell death to differentiate signal intensity

between live cells with water pores and dead cells. As, the signal of PI uptake in

saponin treated cells was saturated, lower laser settings were used to look at dead

cells than at cells with water pores. Three fitting models were obtained: exponential

decline: $y = 2568.704351e^{-\frac{x}{54.2680}}$, exponential $y = 2568.7044e^{-0.01842x}$ and modified

power $y = 2568.70443 * 0.98142^x$, yielding virtually identical results. In Fig. 4F the

exponential decline formula was used.

1228

Zebrafish viability

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FITC-TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$(W317A) uptake in zebrafish was assessed either by adding

the peptide directly in Egg water or by injection. Experiments in which the peptide was

added in the water were performed on fish between four and 24 hours post fertilization.

Viability assays were done on embryos of four, six and 24 hours post fertilization to

determine a maximal nonlethal dose of the peptide that can be used. Different

concentrations of the peptide were added to 500 µl water per well in 24-well plate, with

between eight and eleven embryo per well. Fish viability was visually assessed at 20

hours post incubation with the peptide. Hyperpolarization associated viability was

visually assessed at different time points in presence or in the absence of the peptide

and in presence or in the absence of different concentration of valinomycin. Zebrafish

were visualized with binocular microscope and CYTATION3 apparatus. Survival was

visually assessed under a binocular microscope by taking into consideration the

embryo transparency (as dead embryos appear opaque), general development

characteristics and motility.

1244

CPP uptake *in vivo*

To assess peptide uptake in zebrafish, two methods were used: 1) addition of the peptide directly in 500 μl of Egg water in 24-well plates containing between eight and twelve embryos per well or 2) intramuscular injections. In the case of the first method, after the indicated treatments, zebrafish were washed, fixed in 4% PFA/PBS for one hour at room temperature. Whole embryos were mounted on slides with Fluoromount-G (cBioscience, Cat# 00-4958-02). Zebrafish were then visualized under a LSM710 confocal microscope. Experiments where the peptide was added directly to the water were performed on zebrafish at 18 hours post fertilization to limit cuticle development that would hinder peptide access to the cells. In the case of the second method, 8 nl injections (containing the various combinations of peptide and valinomycin and 0.05 % (vol:vol) phenol red as an injection site labelling agent) were done on 48 hours post fertilization embryos into the tail muscle around the extremity of yolk extension, after chorion removal and anesthesia with 0.02% (w:vol) tricaine (*114*) buffered in sodium bicarbonate to pH7.3. At this age, zebrafish already have well developed tissues that can be easily visually distinguished. Injections were done with an Eppendorf Microinjections FemtoJet 4i apparatus. After the indicated treatments, embryos were fixed in 4% PFA/PBS and visualized under a confocal microscope. Some embryos were kept alive for viability evaluation post injection until the age of 4 days.

Experiments with mice were performed in 10-14 weeks old C57BL/6NCrl mice anaesthetized with ketasol/xylasol (9.09 mg/ml ketasol and 1.82 mg/ml xylasol in water; injection: 10 μl per g of body weight). The back of the mice was shaved and intradermic injections were performed (a total of 10 μl was injected). Mice were kept under anesthesia for one hour and Artificial tears (Lacryvisc) were used to avoid eye dryness. Mice were then sacrificed by CO_2 inhalation, skin was cut at injection sites,

1270 fixed in 4% formalin and paraffin embedded for histology analysis. For each sample,

1271 10 to 15 slides were prepared and peptide uptake was visualized with a CYTATION3

1272 apparatus. Fluorescence intensity was quantitated with ImageJ. The slices displaying

1273 the highest fluorescence signal were considered as those nearest to the injection site

1274 and the fluorescent values from these slides were used in Fig. 5B.

1275

Temperature dependent uptake

Two hundred thousand cells were incubated with 40 μM (Raji and SKW6.4) or 80 μM

(HeLa) of FITC-labelled TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ for one hour in Eppendorf tubes in RPMI

media supplemented with 10% serum and 10 mM Hepes on a thermoblock at different

temperatures. Peptide uptake was measured by flow cytometry after PBS wash and

addition of 0.2% trypan blue (in PBS) to quench extracellular fluorescence.

1282

1283 **Pyrene butyrate treatment**

1284 Cells were washed twice with serum-free medium and treated for 10 minutes with 50

1285 μM pyrene butyrate or 0.25% (vol:vol) DMSO as vehicle control at 37°C in 5% CO_2.

1286 Then cells were treated with TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ for the indicated period of time.

1287

Assessment of endosomal escape and direct translocation

Quantitation of cytoplasmic fluorescence was performed within live HeLa cells pre-

incubated with 80 μM TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ for 30 minutes at 37°C and then incubated

for the indicated periods of time in the presence (i.e. no wash after the pre-incubation)

or in the absence (i.e. following three consecutive washes with RPMI supplemented

with 10% FBS) of extracellular labelled peptide. Endosomal escape from lysosomes

was induced in presence of 1 mM LLOME (L-Leucyl-L-Leucine methyl ester) (*36*),

added in the media 30 minutes after CPP was washed out and persisted throughout

the experiment). Confocal images were taken every five minutes after the 30-minute

pre-incubation. For each cell, the fluorescence intensity of one region of interest (ROI)

devoid of labelled endosomes throughout the experiment was quantitated over time

using ImageJ Time Series Analyzer V3. The surface of the ROI was identical for all

cells. Only cells displaying labelled endosomes after the 30-minute pre-incubation

were analyzed. Note that the washing steps, for reasons unclear at this time, induced

a slightly higher initial ROI intensity signal.

Transferrin uptake quantitation

HeLa wild-type cells were plated in 12-well plates (200'000 cells per well) for 16 hours

in 1 ml RPMI (Invitrogen, Cat# 61870), supplemented with 10 % heat-inactivated fetal

bovine serum (FBS; Invitrogen, Cat# 10270-106). Cells were then incubated in

presence of 20 μg/ml AlexaFluor-488 conjugated transferrin for 20 minutes at 37°C in

5% CO_2. Cells were washed with PBS and pelleted after trypsinization. To quench

membrane bound transferrin fluorescence, cells were resuspended in 0.2% trypan blue

diluted in PBS. Transferrin uptake was quantified by flow cytometry using Beckman

Coulter FC500 instrument. Data analysis was done with Kaluza Version 1.3 software

(Beckman Coulter).

TAT-PNA-induced luciferase activity

The LeGOiG2-LUC705 lentiviral construct encodes a luciferase gene interrupted by a

mutated human beta globin intron 2. This mutation creates a new aberrant splicing site

at position 705 that when used produced an mRNA that encodes a truncated non-

functional luciferase. In the presence of the TAT-peptide nucleic acid (TAT-PNA) CPP described below, the aberrant splice site is masked allowing the production of a functional luciferase enzyme. Lentiviruses produced using this construct were employed to infect cells. The doses used resulted in >90% cells infected (based on GFP expression from the lentiviral vector). The infected cells (200'000 cells in 12 well plates containing 1 ml of RPMI, 10% FBS) were treated or not with 5 µM TAT-PNA (GRKKRRQRRR-CCTCCTACCTCAGTTACA). TAT-PNA is made of TAT_{48-57} and an an oligonucleotide complimentary to a sequence containing the aberrant splice site. After 16 hours incubation, cells were washed twice in HKR buffer (119 mM NaCl, 2.5 mM KCl, 1 mM NaH_2PO_4, 2.5 mM $CaCl_2$, 1.3 mM $MgCl_2$, 20 mM HEPES, 11 mM dextrose, pH 7.4) and lysed in 40 µl HKR containing 0.1 % Triton X-100 for 15 minutes at room temperature. Luciferase activity was measured with a GLOMAXTM 96 Microplate Luminometer (Promega) using a Dual-Luciferase Reporter Assay (Promega) and normalized to the protein content. Results are displayed as the ratio between the protein-normalized luciferase signal obtained in TAT-PNA-treated cells and the signal obtained in control untreated cells.

TAT-Cre recombinase production, purification and recombination assay

Raji cells were infected with a lentivirus encoding a Cre-reporter gene construct (*39*). TAT-Cre recombinase was produced as described (*40*). Briefly, *E. coli* BL21 transformed with the pTAT-Cre plasmid were grown for 16 hours in LB containing 100 µg/mL kanamycin. Protein production was induced at OD_{600} of 0.6 with 500 µM IPTG (isopropyl β-D-1-thiogalactopyranoside) for three hours. Bacteria were collected by centrifugation at 5000 x g and kept at -20°C. Purification was performed on Äkta prime (GE, Healthcare, USA) equipped with a 1 ml HisTrap FF column equilibrated with

binding buffer (20 mM sodium phosphate, 500 mM NaCl, 5 mM imidazole pH 7.4). The

day of the purification, bacterial pellet was resuspended in lysis buffer (binding buffer

with protease inhibitors (Roche, Cat# 4693132001; one tablet per 50 ml), 0.025 mg/ml

DNase I (Roche, Cat# 04716728001), and 2 mg/ml lysozyme (Roche, Cat# 10 837 059

001) and sonicated six times for 30 seconds. After 20 minutes centrifugation at 5'000

x g, the supernatant was filtered through Steriflip 0.45 μm and loaded on the column.

Elution buffer (20 mM sodium phosphate, 500 mM NaCl, 500 mM imidazole pH 7.4)

was used to detach His-tagged proteins from the column. Imidazole was removed from

collected fractions by overnight dialysis using 10K MWCO cassette (Thermo Scientific,

Cat# 66807) in PBS. Raji cells encoding the Cre-reporter were treated for 48 hours

with 20 µM TAT-Cre-recombinase. Fluorescence was imaged using a Nikon Eclipse

TS100 microscope.

1356

Extracellular pH manipulation

Two hundred thousand wild-type Raji cells were incubated in 500 μl RPMI media,

supplemented with 10% FBS, set at the indicated pH for 20 minutes at 37°C in 5%

CO_2, with or without 10 μM valinomycin or 2 μg/ml gramicidin to induce

hyperpolarization or depolarization respectively. Changes to the extracellular pH were

done by adding NaOH or HCl to the RMPI media. The pH was measured with a pH

meter (Metrohm, 744 pH Meter). TMR-TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ 40 μM was then added to

cells for one hour. Peptide uptake was assessed by flow cytometry. These experiments

were performed in the presence of FBS because in its absence, cells are too sensitive

to acidification or alkalization. In addition, TMR-labelled peptide was used to avoid

FITC-quenching at acidic pH.

1368

Assessment of CPP binding to plasma membranes

Two hundred thousand cells were incubated for 60 seconds in RPMI supplemented with 10% FBS and 10 mM HEPES in Eppendorf tubes at 37°C in the presence of increasing concentrations of FITC-TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$. Half of the cells were then immediately placed on ice, pelleted at 4°C, and resuspended in one ml of ice-cold PBS and then split into two tubes, one of which receiving a final concentration of 0.2% (w:w) trypan blue to quench surface-associated FITC signals. The cells (still kept at 4°C) were then analyzed by flow cytometry. The surface associated peptide signal was calculated by subtracting total fluorescence measured in PBS and fluorescence measured after trypan blue quenching. The other half of the cells after the 60 second peptide incubation was incubated at 37°C for one hour at which time the cellular uptake of the labelled peptide was assessed by flow cytometry.

Transient calcium phosphate transfection in HeLa

Calcium phosphate based transfection of HeLa cells was performed as previously described(*115*). Briefly, cells were plated overnight in DMEM (Invitrogen, Cat# 61965) medium supplemented with 10 % heat-inactivated FBS (Invitrogen, Cat# 10270-106), 2.5 ug of total plasmid DNA of interest was diluted in water, CaCl$_2$ was added and the mixture was incubated in presence of HEPES 2x for 60 seconds before adding the total mixture drop by drop to the cells. Media was changed 10 hours after.

Isothermal titration calorimetry (ITC)

ITC was performed using MicroCal ITC200 (Malvern Panalytical) at 37°C with 600 μM FITC-R9 in the cell (total volume 300 μl) and consecutive injections (2.5 μl/injection, except for the first injection of 0.4 μl) of 6 mM PI from the syringe (total volume 40 μl)

with 2 minutes delay between injections and 800 rotations/minute rotation speed. Differential power was set to 7, as we had no prior knowledge of the expected reaction thermodynamics.

Colony formation assay

Wild-type HeLa cells were plated overnight in RPMI with 10% FBS in 12-well plates. Cells were then treated for one hour in the presence of indicated concentrations of CPP, PI and membrane potential modulating agents (gramicidin or valinomycin). As control, cells were either left untreated or incubated in presence of DMSO used as vehicle for gramicidin and valinomycin. Cells were then washed, trypsinized and plated on 10 cm dishes at a density of 300 cells per condition. Colonies were counted at day 14 after 100% ethanol fixation for 10 minutes and Giemsa staining. Washes were done with PBS.

Genome-scale CRISPR/Cas9 Knockout screening

The human GeCKO v2 library (2 plasmid system) (Addgene plasmid #1000000049) was amplified by electroporation using a Bio-Rad Gene Pulser II electroporation apparatus (Bio-Rad #165-2105) and the Lucigen Endura bacteria (Lucigen Cat# 60242). Cells were plated on LB Agar plates containing 100 µg/mL ampicillin. After 14 hours at 32°C, colonies were scrapped and plasmids recovered with the Plasmid Maxi kit (Qiagen, Cat# 12162). To produced lentivirus library, 12 T-225 flasks were seeded with 12×10^6 HEK293T cells per flask in 40 ml DMEM, 10% FBS. The day after, 10 µg pMD2.G, 30 µg psPAX2 and 25 µg GeCKO plasmid library in 1.8 ml H_2O were mixed with 0.2 ml 2.5 M $CaCl_2$ (final calcium concentration: 250 mM). This solution was mixed (v/v) with 2x HEPES buffer (280 mM NaCl, 10 mM KCl, 1.5 mM Na_2HPO_4, 12 mM D-

glucose, 50 mM HEPES), incubated for one minute at room temperature, added to the culture medium, and the cells placed back in a 37°C, 5% CO_2 incubator for seven hours. The culture medium was then removed and replaced by DMEM supplemented with 10 % FBS containing 100 U/ml penicillin and 100 µg/ml streptomycin. Forty eight hours later, the medium was collected and centrifuged 5 min at 2'000 g to pellet the cells. The remaining cell-free medium (12 x 40 ml) was then filtered through a 0.45 µm HV/PVDF (Millipore, Cat# SE1M003M00) and concentrated ~100 times by resuspending the viral pellet obtained by ultracentrifugation at 70'000 g for two hours at 4°C in ~5 ml ice-cold PBS. The concentrated viruses were aliquoted in 500 µl samples and stored at -80°C.

To express the Cas9 endonuclease, cells (e.g. Raji or SKW6.4) were infected with Cas9 expressing viruses that were produced in HEK293T cells transfected with the lentiCas9-Blast (#849, Addgene plasmid #52962), pMD2.G, and psPAX2 plasmids as described in the main method under "Lentivirus production". The infected cells were selected with 10 µg/mL blasticidin for a week. The multiplicity of infection (MOI) of the GeCKO virus library was determined as follow. Different volumes of the virus library were added to $3x10^6$ Cas9-expressing cells plated in 12-well plates. Twenty four hours later, the cells were split in two wells of 12-well plates. One well per pair was treated with 10 µg/mL puromycin for 3 days (the other cultured in normal medium). Cell viability was determined by trypan blue exclusion and MOI was calculated as the number of cells in the well treated with puromycin divided by the number of cells in the control well. The virus volume yielding to a MOI ~0.4 was chosen to perform large-scale infection of $12x10^7$ cells that was carried out in 12-well plates with $3x10^6$ cells per well. After 24 hours, the infected cells were collected and pooled in a T-225 flask and selected with 10 µg/mL puromycin for a week. Thirty millions of these were frozen

(control untreated cells) and 60 million others were treated with 40 µM TAT-

RasGAP$_{317-326}$ for 8 days (Raji) or for 17 days (SKW6.4) with a medium and peptide

renewal every 2-3 days. Thirty millions of the peptide-treated cells were then also

frozen. Genomic DNA was extracted from the control and the peptide-treated frozen

cells using the Blood & Cell Culture DNA Midi Kit according to manufacturer's

instructions (Qiagen, Cat# 13343). A first PCR was performed to amplify the

lentiCRISPR sgRNA region using the following primers:

F1: 5'-AATGGACTATCATATGCTTACCGTAACTTGAAAGTATTTCG-3'

R1: 5'-CTTTAGTTTGTATGTCTGTTGCTATTATGTCTACTATTCTTTCC-3

A second PCR (see Table S3 for the primers used) was performed on 5 µl of the first

PCR reaction to attach Illumina adaptors with barcodes (nucleotides highlighted in

green) and to increase library complexity (using the sequences highlighted in red) to

prevent signal saturation when the sequencing is performed. The blue sequences are

complementary to the extremities of the first PCR fragments.

Table S3. Primer sequences for the second PCR

F2a	AATGATACGGCGACCACCGAGATCTACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTTCTTGTGGAAAGGACGAAACACCG
F2b	AATGATACGGCGACCACCGAGATCTACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTAGCTCTTGTGGAAAGGACGAAACACCG
F2c	AATGATACGGCGACCACCGAGATCTACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTCGAGCTCTTGTGGAAAGGACGAAACACCG
F2d	AATGATACGGCGACCACCGAGATCTACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTCATAACCTCTTGTGGAAAGGACGAAACACCG
F2e	AATGATACGGCGACCACCGAGATCTACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTGTGCTAACGTCTTGTGGAAAGGACGAAACACCG
R2_iC_26	CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGATGCTCATGTGACTGGAGTTCAGACGTGTGCTCTTCCGATCTTCTACTATTCTTTCCCCTGCACTGT
R2_iA_12	CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGATTACAAGGTGACTGGAGTTCAGACGTGTGCTCTTCCGATCTTCTACTATTCTTTCCCCTGCACTGT

1459

Both PCRs were performed in 100 µl with the 2 µl of the Herculase II Fusion DNA

Polymerase from Agilent (Cat# 600675) according the manufacturer's instructions.

Amplicons were gel extracted, quantitated, mixed and sequenced with a MiSeq

(Illumina). Raw FASTQ files were demultiplexed and processed to contain only unique

sgRNA sequences. The number of reads of each sgRNA was normalized as

described(*116*). The MAGeCK algorithm(*117*) was used to rank screening hits by the

consistent enrichment among multiple sgRNAs targeting the same gene.

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CRISPR/Cas9-based genome editing

Single guide RNAs targeting the early exon of the protein of interest were chosen in

the sgRNA library(*116*) and are listed in table I below (Table S4). LentiCRISPR

plasmids specific for a gene were created according to the provided instructions(*118*).

Briefly, oligos were designed as follow: Forward 5'-CACCGnnnnnnnnnnnnnnnnnnnn-

3'; Reverse-3'-CnnnnnnnnnnnnnnnnnnnnnCAA-5', where nnnnnnnnnnnnnnnnnnnn in

the forward oligo corresponds to the 20 bp sgRNA. Oligos were synthetized, then

phosphorylated and annealed to form oligo complex. LentiCRISPR vector was BsmBI

digested and dephosphorylated. Linearized vector was purified and gel extracted and

ligated to oligo complex. The lentiCRISPR vector containing the sgRNA was then used

for virus production. Recombinant lentiviruses were produced as described (*94*) with

the following modification: pMD.G and pCMVDR8.91 were replaced by pMD2.G and

psPAX2 respectively. Cells were infected and selected with the appropriate dose of

puromycin (2 µg/ml for HeLa). Clone isolation was performed by limiting dilution in 96

well-plate.

Table S4. List of sgRNAs used to disrupt target genes

Target gene	sgRNA name	sgRNA sequence
KCNN4	sgKCNN4.1	CTGCCCGAGTGCTACAAGAA
KCNN4	sgKCNN4.2	CATGGTGCCCGGCACCACGT
KCNK5	sgKCNK5.1	ATGGTGGTAATGACGGTCGC
KCNK5	sgKCNK5.2	CTCTGCCTGACGTGGATCAG
KCNQ5	sgKCNQ5.1	TCTAGGAATTAATTCACAGC

KCNQ5	sgKCNQ5.2	ACAGATCCTCCGCATGGTCG

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TA cloning

TA cloning kit (Life technologies, Cat# K202020) was used according to manufacturer's

instructions to sequence DNA fragment containing the region where Cas9 was guided

by a sgRNA.

Plasmid constructs

The hKCNN4-V5.lti (#953) lentiviral plasmid encoding a V5-labeled version of the

KCNN4 potassium channel was from DNASU (ref. n° HsCD00441560). The hKCNK5-

FLAG.dn3 (#979) plasmid encoding the human KCNK5 potassium channel (NCBI

reference sequence NM_003740.3), Flag-tagged at the C-terminus, was purchased

from GenScript (ref. n° OHu13506). The Myc-mKCNJ2-T2A-IRES-tdTomato.lti (#978)

lentiviral vector encoding the mouse Kir2.1 (KCNJ2) potassium channel and tdTomato

(separated by an IRES) was generated by subcloning myc-mKCNJ2-T2A-

Tomato.pCAG plasmid (#974), a gift from Dr. Massimo Scanziani**(44)** (Addgene

plasmid #60598) into a lentiviral backbone LeGo-iT2 (#809), a gift from Boris Fehse

(Addgene plasmid #27343), through ligation of both plasmids after digestion with

BamHI (NEB, reg. no. R313614). The pMD2.G plasmid (#554, Addgene plasmid

#12259) encodes the envelope of lentivirus. The psPAX2 plasmid (#842, Addgene

plasmid #12260) encodes the packaging system. Both pMD2.G and psPAX2 plasmids

were used for lentiviral production. The Flag-hKCNQ5(G278S)-IRES-NeoR plasmid

(#938) codes for the N-terminal Flag-tagged G278S human KCNQ5 inactive mutant

and a neomycin resistant gene separated by an IRES sequence. It was generated by

subcloning a BamHI/XmaI digested PCR fragment obtained by amplification of

pShuttle-Flag-hKCNQ5(G278S)-IRES-hrGFP2 (#937, kind gift from Dr. Kenneth L. Byron) using forward primer #1397 (CAT CGG GAT CCG CTA TAC CGG CCA CCA TGG ATT ACA AGG A) and reverse primer #1398 (CAT CGC CCG GGG CTA TAC CGT ACC GTC GAC TGC AGA ATT C) into the lentiviral vector TRIP-PGK-IRES-Neo (#350) opened with the same enzyme. The Flag-hKCNQ5(SM,G278S)-IRES-Neo (#939) plasmid is identical to Flag-hKCNQ5(G278S)-IRES-NeoR except that the sequence targeted by the sgKCNQ5.1 sgRNA (Table S4) was mutated with the aim to decrease Cas9-mediated degradation. Silent mutations (SM), at the protein level, were introduced using the QuikChange II XL Site-Directed Mutagenesis Kit (Cat# 200522) according to manufacturer's instructions using forward primer #1460 (AAA TAA GAA CCA AAA ATC CTA TGT ACC ATG CCG TTA TCA GCT CCT TGC TGT GAG CAT AAA CCA CTG AAC CCA G) and reverse primer #1461 (CTG GGT TCA GTG GTT TAT GCT CAC AGC AAG GAG CTG ATA ACG GCA TGG TAC ATA GGA TTT TTG GTT CTT ATT T).

The Flag-hKCNQ5(SM)-IRES-NeoR (#940) lentiviral construct codes for a Flag-tagged wild-type version of human KCNQ5. It was made by reverting the G278S mutation in Flag-hKCNQ5(SM,G278S)-IRES-Neo (#939) using the QuikChange II XL Site-Directed Mutagenesis Kit with the #1462 forward primer (TTT TGT CTC CAT AGC CAA TAG TTG TCA ATG TAA TTG TGC CCC) and the #1463 reverse primer (GGG GCA CAA TTA CAT TGA CAA CTA TTG GCT ATG GAG ACA AAA). The pLUC705(*37*) (#876, gift from Dr. Bing Yang) plasmid encodes a luciferase gene interrupted by a mutated human beta globin intron 2. This mutation creates a new aberrant splicing site at position 705 that when used produced an mRNA that encodes a truncated non-functional luciferase(*37*). To introduce this construct into a lentiviral vector, the pLUC705 plasmid was digested with HindIII/XhoI, blunted with T4 DNA

polymerase, and ligated into StuI-digested and dephosphorylated LeGO-iG2 (#807, Addgene plasmid #27341), resulting in plasmid pLUC705.LeGO-iG2 (#875). The pTAT-Cre (#917, Addgene plasmid #35619) bacterial plasmid encodes a histidine-tagged TAT-Cre recombinase. The Cre reporter lentiviral vector (#918, Addgene plasmid #62732) encodes a LOXP-RFP-STOP-LOXP-GFP gene construct. Cells expressing this plasmid appear red but once recombination has occurred when TAT-Cre is translocated into cells the RFP-STOP fragment will be excised, GFP but not RFP will now be produced, and cells will appear green.

Peptides

TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ is a retro-inverso peptide (i.e. synthesized with D-amino-acids in the opposite direction compared to the natural sequence) labeled or not with FITC or TMR. The TAT moiety corresponds to amino-acids 48–57 of the HIV TAT protein (RRRQRRKKRG) and the RasGAP$_{317-326}$ moiety corresponds to amino-acids from 317 to 326 of the human RasGAP protein (DTRLNTVWMW). These two moieties are separated by two glycine linker residues in the TAT-Ras-GAP$_{317-326}$ peptide. FITC-bound peptides without cargo: TAT, MAP (KLALKLALKALKAALKLA), Penetratin (RQIKWFQNRRMKWKK), Transportan (GWTLNSAGYLLGKINLKALAALAKKIL), R9 (RRRRRRRRR), K9 (KKKKKKKKK) and (RE)9 (RERERERERERERERERE) were synthesized in D-amino-acid conformation. All peptides were synthesized in retro-inverso conformation (over the years different suppliers were used with routine checks for activity of TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ derived peptides, see Key Resources Table) and resuspended to 1 mM in water.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed on non-normalized data, using GraphPad Prism 7.

ANOVA multiple comparison analysis to wild-type condition was done using Dunnett's

correction for analyses related to membrane potential measurements in Fig. 3B and PI

uptake in Fig. 4D, as well as TAT-PNA uptake in Fig. S7. Comparison between two

conditions was done using two-tailed paired t-tests for the CPP uptake experiments

described in Fig. 3C, Fig. 5A-B and Fig. S8F. All measurements were from biological

replicates. Unless otherwise stated, the horizontal bars in the graph represent the

median, the height of columns correspond to averages, and the dots in the Figures

correspond to values derived from independent experiments.

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1567 **Data availability**

1568 DNA sequencing data from the CRISPR/Cas9-based screens are available through

1569 the following link: https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sra/SRP161445.

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1852

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

A

Intracellular space

2 nm

CPP

Exracellular space

CPP extracellular | CPP penetration | CPP translocation

B

Hyperpolarized membrane

% CPP localization

Extracellular
Penetration
Translocation

TAT-RasGAP $_{317-326}$, TAT, R9, Penetratin, MAP, Transportan

Depolarized membrane

TAT-RasGAP $_{317-326}$, TAT, R9, Penetratin, MAP, Transportan

C

CPP staining

% cells with cytoplasmic staining

CPP treated

FITC-CPP
PI
Dextran
* depolarized

TAT, R9, R9*, K9, Penetratin, MAP, Transportan, unlabelled TAT | PI

No CPP

CPP treated

PI, PI*, 3 kDa, 10 kDa, 40 kDa

CPP positive cells

CPP treated

PI, 3 kDa / TAT
3 kDa, 10 kDa, 40 kDa / R9
PI, PI / K9, MAP
PI, 3 kDa / Penetratin
PI, 3 kDa / Transportan

CPP negative cells

CPP treated

PI, 3 kDa / TAT
3 kDa, 10 kDa, 40 kDa / R9
PI, PI / K9, MAP
PI, 3 kDa / Penetratin
PI, 3 kDa / Transportan

D

Cytoplasmic PI fluorescence (a.u.)

p<0.001
p<0.001

saturated signal

gramicidin, NT, valinomycin, CPP, saponin 0.1%, without PI

NT, valinomycin, CPP, saponin 0.1%

E

Cytoplasmic PI fluorescence (a.u.)

$y = 2568.704351e^{\frac{x}{54.2680}}$

Membrane potential (mV)

F

Membrane potential (mV)

HeLa WT | KCNN4 KO

calculated
measured

NT, gramicidin, CPP, NT

Figure 5

Figure S1

Figure S2

Figure S3

A Raji clone # Q5-1, KCNQ5 sequence

```
                GC  G   A  G
WT        TATCTAGGAATTAATCACA-GCT TGGTACATAGGTTTT
Allele 1  TATCTAGGAATTAATCACAAGCTTGGTACATAGGTTTT      +1   bp
Allele 2  TATCTAGGAATTAAT-------------------TTT       -20  bp
```

Raji clone # Q5-2, KCNQ5 sequence

```
WT        TATCTAGGAATTAATCACA-GCT TGGTACATAGGTTTT
Allele 1  TATCTAGGAATTAATCACA---GCTTGGTACATAGGTTTT    -3   bp
Allele 2  TATCTAGGAATTAATCACAAGCTTGGTACATAGGTTTT      +1   bp
```

C HeLa clone # N4-1, KCNN4 sequence

```
WT        TTCTTGTAGCACTCGGGCAGC GGACTCCTTCATCTGGGGGT
Allele 1  TTCTTGTAGCACTCGG-----------TCTGGGGGT          -16 bp
Allele 2  TTCTTGTAGC----------GGACTCCTTCATCTGGGGGT      -11 bp
```

B SKW6.4 clone # N4-1, KCNN4 sequence

```
WT        GAACATCCAGGCTTCTTGTAGCACTCGGGCAGCGGACTCCTT
Allele1   GAACATCCAGGCTTCTTGTAGC------------ACTCCTT    -13 bp
Allele2   GAACATCCAGGCTTCTTGTAGC------------ACTCCTT    -13 bp
```

SKW6.4 clone # N4-2, KCNN4 sequence

```
WT        GAACATCCAGGCTTCTTGTAGCACTCGGGCAGCGGACTCCTT
Allele1   GAACATCCAGGCTTCTTGTAGCACTCCGT-----ACTCCTT    -6 bp
Allele2   GAACATCCAGGCTTCTTGTAGCACTCCTT-----ACTCCTT    -6 bp
```

SKW6.4 clone # K5-1, KCNK5 sequence

```
WT        CACTGATCCACGTCAGGCAGAGCGGCACCCCGAAGAGACCAT
Allele_1  CACTGATCCACGTCAGGCA-----CCCCGAAGAGACCAT      -8 bp
Allele_2  CACTGATCCACGTCAGGCA-----CCCCGAAGAGACCAT      -8 bp
```

SKW6.4 clone # K5-2, KCNK5 sequence

```
WT        TTTTGCAGCGACCGTCATTACCACCAT TGGTAAGTCTTCTGG
Allele_1  TTTTGCAGCGACCGTCATTACCA---TTGGTAAGTCTTCTGG   -3 bp
Allele_2  TTTTGCAGCGACCGTCATTAC--CCATTA-----CTTCTGG    -8 bp
```

D

Raji
Cell death (% PI-positive cells)
- ■ WT
- ■ KCNQ5 KO (clone Q5-1)
- □ KCNQ5 KO (clone Q5-2)

TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ (µM): 0, 40

SKW6.4
Cell death (% PI-positive cells)
- ■ WT
- ■ KCNN4 KO (clone N4-1)
- □ KCNN4 KO (clone N4-2)
- ■ KCNK5 KO (clone K5-1)
- ■ KCNK5 KO (clone K5-2)

TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ (µM): 0, 40

E

Raji
Cell death (% PI-positive cells)
- ■ KCNQ5 KO
- ■ KCNQ5 KO + Flag-KCNQ5

TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ (µM): 0, 40

KCNQ5 KO / KCNQ5 KO + Flag-KCNQ5
◀ Flag
◀ Actin

F

SKW6.4
Cell death (% PI-positive cells)
- ■ KCNN4 KO
- ■ KCNN4 KO + KCNN4-V5

TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ (µM): 0, 40

KCNN4 KO / KCNN4 KO + KCNN4-V5
◀ V5
◀ γ-tubulin

HeLa
Cell death (% PI-positive cells)
- ■ KCNN4 KO
- ■ KCNN4 KO + KCNN4-V5

TAT-RasGAP$_{317-326}$ (µM): 0, 80

KCNN4 KO / KCNN4 KO + KCNN4-V5
◀ V5
◀ γ-tubulin

Figure S4

A

Raji

anti-FLAG antibody

B

SKW6.4

anti-V5 antibody

anti-α-tubilin antibody

C

HeLa

anti-V5 antibody

anti-α-tubilin antibody

Figure S5

Figure S6

Figure S7

A

Raji — SKW6.4 — HeLa (Luciferase activity bar graphs)

Raji: WT, XE-991 (p=0.0247), KCNQ5 KO (p=0.0289)

SKW6.4: WT, TRAM-34 (p=0.0247), KCNN4 KO (p=0.1002), KCNK5 KO (p=0.1614)

HeLa: WT, TRAM-34 (p=0.0017)

B

Cre reporter | Cre reporter + TAT-Cre

Raji WT

KCNQ5 KO

C

Raji — SKW6.4 — HeLa (Uptake (a.u.) vs FITC-D-JNKI1 [μM])

Raji: WT, KCNQ5 KO

SKW6.4: WT, KCNN4 KO, KCNK5 KO

HeLa: WT, KCNN4 KO

Figure S8

Figure S9

Figure S10

A

Dextran
3 kDa ~ 2.3 nm
10 kDa ~ 4.5 nm
40 kDa ~ 8.6 nm

α-1,6 + α-1,3

α-1,6

Propidium Iodide
~ 0.8-1.5 nm

32 µg/ml PI — PI — 30 min — R9

FITC-R9 — PI — 30 min — R9

PI (depolarized) — PI — 30 min

PI+CPP (depolarized) — PI — 30 min — R9

PI + CPP

PI — 30 sec / 2 min / 3 min / 5 min / 10 min / 30 min

R9

B

Propidium iodide

FITC-R9

C

6 mM PI; 0.6 mM R9

Power (µcal/s) vs time (s)

heat of injection (kcal/mol) vs molar ratio

D

Fluorescence (a.u.) vs PI [µg/ml]

E

Vehicle — Number of colonies vs DMSO (vol:vol %)

CPP — R9 / TAT — FITC-CPP [µM]

Depolarization — Gramicidin [µM]

Hyperpolarization — Valinomycin [µM]

PI — NT / CPP — PI [ug/ml]

Figure S12

Potassium ions

Cationic CPP

Potassium channels

Water pore