Make-or-break prime editing for bacterial genome engineering

Monica Rengifo-Gonzalez[1,#], Maria-Vittoria Mazzuoli[1,#], Axel B. Janssen[1,#], Anne-Stéphanie Rueff[1], Jessica Burnier[1], Xue Liu[2,*], Jan-Willem Veening[1,*]

[1]Department of Fundamental Microbiology, Faculty of Biology and Medicine, University of Lausanne, Biophore Building, CH-1015 Lausanne, Switzerland

[2] Department of Pathogen Biology, Base for International Science and Technology Cooperation: Carson Cancer Stem Cell Vaccines R&D Center，International Cancer Center，Shenzhen University Medical School, Shenzhen 518055, Guangdong, China.

[#]These authors contributed equally

*Correspondence to Xue Liu (xueliu@szu.edu.cn) or Jan-Willem Veening (Jan-Willem.Veening@unil.ch), tel: +41 (0)21 6925625

Abstract

CRISPR-Cas9 has revolutionized genome engineering by allowing precise introductions of DNA double-strand breaks (DSBs). However, genome engineering in bacteria is still a complex, multi-step process requiring a donor DNA template for repair of DSBs. Prime editing circumvents this need as the repair template is indirectly provided within the prime editing guide RNA (pegRNA). Here, we developed make-or-break Prime Editing (mbPE) that allows for precise and effective genetic engineering in the opportunistic human pathogen *Streptococcus pneumoniae*. In contrast to traditional prime editing in which a nicking Cas9 is employed, mbPE harnesses wild type Cas9 in combination with a pegRNA that destroys the seed region or protospacer adjacent motif. Since most bacteria poorly perform template-independent end joining, correctly genome-edited clones are selectively enriched during mbPE. We show that mbPE is RecA-independent and can be used to introduce point mutations, deletions and targeted insertions, including protein tags such as a split luciferase, at selection efficiencies of over 93%. mbPE enables sequential genome editing, is scalable, and can be used to generate pools of mutants in a high-throughput manner. The mbPE system and pegRNA design guidelines described here will ameliorate future bacterial genome editing endeavors.

Introduction

The use of CRISPR/Cas9 technology has facilitated genetic engineering for a wide range of bacteria, including difficult or laborious to transform species such as *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Clostridium* spp. and *Streptomyces* spp.[1–5]. The basis for CRISPR/Cas9-based bacterial genome editing is the selective enrichment of transformants by targeting *Streptococcus pyogenes* Cas9 to the genetic location of interest by a single guide RNA (sgRNA) followed by production of a double-stranded break (DSB)[6]. Thus, cells in which the donor template DNA has not been incorporated through homologous recombination, will be targeted thereby enriching for edited clones[1,7,8]. This is particularly efficient in bacteria, as most strains lack (or poorly perform) template-independent end joining mechanisms such as non-homologous end joining (NHEJ) or alternative end joining[2,9,10]. Thus, only clones edited at the DSB and thereby disrupting the protospacer adjacent motif (PAM) or sgRNA seed region will survive. The major drawback of CRISPR/Cas9-based genome editing in bacteria is that several steps are involved such as the cloning of a sgRNA and the production or cloning of a template DNA[1,11].

Recently, prime editors such as PE2 were described in which a Cas9 nickase is fused to an engineered reverse transcriptase[7,12]. PE2 has the advantage that it does not introduce DSBs, which, in eukaryotes typically leads to error-prone end-joining via NHEJ and has the risk of inducing

chromosomal rearrangements[7]. In addition, prime editing uses a pegRNA for both targeting of the PE2

complex as well as a template for DNA repair in which the desired mutation is encoded. The pegRNA

contains a spacer sequence to direct targeting of the prime editor to the PAM site, a primer binding site

(PBS) that facilitates the hybridization of the 3′-end of the nicked DNA strand to the pegRNA and

includes a reverse transcriptase template (RTT) that carries the intended genetic modification[12]. Because

of these advantages, prime editing has rapidly gained traction and has been successfully applied to

engineer the genomes in various eukaryotes including plants[13–16]. However, prime editing has not yet

been widely applied for bacterial genome editing, probably because of limitations in the selection

efficiency during the introduction of PE2-mediated mutations or due to the requirements of specific

genetic backgrounds[17,18]. For instance, by mutating three 3′→5′ DNA exonucleases, PE efficiencies in

Escherichia coli were improved 100-fold[18].

Here, we describe make-or-break prime editing (mbPE) as an efficient genome editing method

in the opportunistic human pathogen *Streptococcus pneumoniae*. mbPE is a nuclease-based prime

editing system that uses wild type *S. pyogenes* Cas9 fused to a bacterial codon-optimized reverse

transcriptase under inducible control. Similar nuclease-based PE strategies have been employed in

eukaryotic systems[19–21], but not yet in bacteria. Using mbPE, we were able to make point mutations,

deletions over 100 bps as well as insertions up to 52 bps in a targeted fashion at high selection

efficiencies. Using a pooled high-throughput approach, we established mbPE design rules and show

that an optimal pegRNA, to insert a single adenine base, consists of a PBS of 16 nt and a RTT of 15 nt.

We provide pegRNA vectors with different antibiotic selection markers allowing for sequential

pneumococcal genome edits. The mbPE system developed here will be of great value to the

pneumococcal research community and may function as a starting point for make-or-break genome

editing approaches in other bacteria.

Results

Prime editing in *S. pneumoniae*

Several Cas9-based tools have been developed for *S. pneumoniae*[22–26], but prime editing has not been

implemented yet. To establish a practical prime editing system for *S. pneumoniae*, we first focused on

the prime editing tool PE2. PE2 is a fusion of the *S. pyogenes* Cas9[H840A] nickase domain and an

engineered Moloney murine leukemia virus reverse transcriptase domain (MMLVRT)[12]. Previously,

we described tight inducible control by the addition of tetracycline-group molecules (including

anhydrotetracycline (aTc)) of a catalytically inactive Cas9 (dCas9: D10A, H840A) expressed as a single

copy from the non-essential chromosomal CEP locus (P*tet*-*dcas9*) for CRISPR interference (CRISPRi)

in *S. pneumoniae*[25]. In a first step to a functioning PE2 for *S. pneumoniae*, we mutated the alanine

residue at position 10 of the P_{tet}-*dcas9* construct back to an aspartic acid to create P_{tet}-*cas9*[H840A]. The

engineered MMLVRT domain and a linker domain from PE2 were codon optimized for optimal

expression in low GC-rich bacteria such as *S. pneumoniae* and cloned to the C-terminus of the Cas9

nickase resulting in strain VL4199 (P_{tet}-*cas9*[H840A]-MMLVRT or P_{tet}-PE2[S.pn]) (Fig. 1A).

88   Next, a pegRNA construction and *S. pneumoniae* integration vector was designed in which the

pegRNA is constitutively expressed from the constitutive P3 promoter including its +1 adenine

transcription start site to ensure that all cloned pegRNAs are efficiently transcribed and do not contain

undesirable uridines at the 5′ end[26–28]. For easy cloning, an *mCherry* cassette flanked by Esp3I

(isoschizomer of BsmBI) sites is present allowing for rapid, oligo-based, Golden Gate cloning of

pegRNAs (Fig. 1B). Sequence elements facilitating one-step library preparation for NGS were also

introduced[29] resulting in pegRNA cloning vectors pVL4132, pVL4133 and pVL4393 (carrying 7

thymine nucleotides, a *S. pneumoniae* terminator or a *S. pneumoniae tRNA-asp-1* after the extension

sequence, respectively). pegRNAs consist of four elements: 1) a 20 nt spacer sequence for targeting of

the prime editor, 2) a scaffold sequence for binding to Cas9, 3) a primer binding site (PBS) that allows

the 3′-end of the nicked DNA strand to hybridize to the pegRNA, and 4) a reverse transcriptase template

(RTT) containing the desired edit[12]. Since bacterial transcription termination leaves nucleotides at the

3′end of the pegRNA, which may interfere with efficient prime editing downstream, we cloned *S.*

pneumoniae tRNA-asp-1 directly following the pegRNA (Fig. 1B). This strategy has been previously

used to produce multiple individual sgRNAs from a single polycistronic operon as the endogenous

tRNA-processing system precisely cleaves both ends of the *tRNA-asp-1* precursor[30]. To test whether

the PE2[S.pn] is functional, we designed several pegRNAs using PrimeDesign[31] to introduce either a

premature stop codon in the firefly luciferase gene (*luc*) expressed in pneumococcal strain VL4200, or

to introduce a repairing mutation in strain VL4297 in which *luc* has a premature stop codon (Fig. 1C).

Interestingly, induction of PE2[S.pn] together with a targeting pegRNA did not result in significant growth

delay, suggesting that *S. pneumoniae* can tolerate and readily repair ssDNA breaks (Fig. S1A). As

shown in Fig. 1D, approximately 2% of clones in which PE2[S.pn] was induced demonstrated the desired

bioluminescence phenotype. Sanger sequencing of several individual clones confirmed the *luc*

expression observations, demonstrating that bioluminescence is a good proxy for DNA editing (Fig.

S1B and S1C).

113   Recently, it was shown that a structured 3′-end of a pegRNA increases stability and improves

114   editing efficiency in human cells[32]. In addition, a functional mismatch repair system was shown to

115   negatively affect editing efficiencies[33,34]. To test whether the addition of a structured RNA motif at the

116   3′-end would also improve PE2 editing efficiency in *S. pneumoniae*, we replaced the tRNA sequence

117   for the structured and highly efficient *S. pneumoniae rpsT* transcriptional terminator[35] (SpTer) or a

stretch of 7 thymine nucleotides (7 Ts) (Fig. 1E). As shown in Fig. 1D, luminescence data of both pegRNAs suggests improved efficiency of inserting a single A in *luc* (~3%) through PE2$^{S.pn}$-mediated editing, compared to the tRNA-Asp1 system. Sanger sequencing of several bioluminescent-negative clones confirmed the microtiter plate assay results (Fig. S1). Repairing an internal stop codon (TAA to GCT) in *luc* was approximately 3 times more efficient with the SpTer terminator compared to the tRNA-Asp1 construct (Fig. 1D). Deleting the pneumococcal mismatch repair gene *hexA*[36] further enhanced PE2$^{S.pn}$ editing efficiency in the constructs with either the 7T or SpTer terminators (Fig. 1F). These results demonstrate that prime editing using PE2$^{S.pn}$ in combination with a structured pegRNA works in *S. pneumoniae* and can be used to incorporate insertions and mutations, albeit at a relatively low selection efficiency.

Figure 1. Prime editing 2 (PE2) in *S. pneumoniae*. (**A**) Schematic overview of PE2$^{S.pn}$. (**B**) Schematic overview of the general cloning strategy of pegRNAs (shown is the *tRNA-asp-1* containing vector pVL4393 as backbone). (**C**) Editing strategy used to test efficiency of PE2$^{S.pn}$ in pneumococcal strains expressing either a functional luciferase (VL4200) or a *luc* gene interrupted by a premature stop codon (VL4297). Single colonies are picked

and grown in microtiter plates in the presence of luciferase substrate and bioluminescence is recorded. (**D**)

Induction of PE2$^{S.pn}$ by aTc in combination with expression of a pegRNA without 3′ leader, by processing of the

tRNA-asp-1, leads to accurate gene editing in approximately 2% of *S. pneumoniae* cells. Induction of PE2$^{S.pn}$ in

combination with 3′ extended pegRNAs provides an editing efficiency of approximately 3%. Each dot represents

a randomly picked clone grown in C+Y medium containing luciferin substrate. The maximal bioluminescence

(relative light units; RLU) reached, normalized by the optical density (OD), of each clone is shown (AU, arbitrary

units). RLU/OD values were normalized against the baseline level of medium luminescence obtained for each

experiment. A typical experiment is shown (repeated at least 3 times) with at least 90 colonies selected. (**E**)

Schematic overview of pegRNAs containing the *S. pneumoniae rpsT* terminator (SpTer) or a stretch of 7 Ts. (**F**)

Prime editing is slightly enhanced in the absence of mismatch repair (Δ*hexA*) in *S. pneumoniae*. Clones with either

an RLU/OD value below 2 x 10^2 (left), or an RLU/OD value above 7 x 10^6 (right), were considered to be edited

(as also validated by Sanger sequencing, Fig. S1).

Make-or-break prime editing (mbPE) in *S. pneumoniae*

Since prime editing depends on successful hybridization of the 3′end of the nicked DNA to the

pegRNA[12], we wondered if prime editing would also be functional when, instead of a nick of the PAM-

containing strand, a DSB is introduced. Recent work in human HEK293T cells showed efficient prime

editing utilizing Cas9-induced DSBs that largely depend on NHEJ[19–21]. To test if DSB-driven prime

editing (here after called make-or-break prime editing: mbPE) would also work in bacteria lacking

NHEJ, we first mutated the alanine residue at position 840 within the Cas9 nickase moiety of PE2$^{S.pn}$

back to a histidine. This led to full restoration of wild type Cas9, resulting in strain VL5149 (P_{tet}-*cas9*-

MMLVRT or mbPE$^{S.pn}$) (Fig. 2A-B). This construct was combined with *luc* expression (strain VL5155)

and the same set of pegRNAs containing the SpTer or 7 Ts as previously used to verify the efficiency

of the nickase-based PE2$^{S.pn}$ (Fig. 1E). All pegRNAs were designed to either disrupt the PAM or the

seed region within *luc*. Thus, only correctly edited bacteria are expected to survive the expression of

mbPE$^{S.pn}$, as unedited repairs will lead to continued DSBs, hence the name make-or-break prime editing.

Induction of mbPE$^{S.pn}$ with aTc, in the presence of a targeting pegRNA, caused severe growth defects

indicating that DSBs were formed (Fig. S2A). The system is tightly inducible as reported previously[37],

as we observed a similar number of colonies compared to a strain that contained a non-targeting

pegRNA plated in the absence of aTc (Fig. S2B), suggesting that DSBs are only generated in the

presence of inducer. Strikingly, surviving colonies (approximately 1 - 5%, depending on the pegRNA

and aTc concentration), predominantly displayed the correct luciferase phenotype (93% of selected

colonies) (Fig. 2C). Sanger sequencing demonstrated that the precise edit was made as encoded by the

pegRNA template (Fig. S2C-F). Colonies that did not display the correct *luc*-edit either had suppressor

mutations in the Cas9 domain, or deletions in the P_{tet} promoter driving the expression of mbPE$^{S.pn}$ (Fig.

S2G). When comparing an sgRNA targeting *luc* with a pegRNA encoding the same spacer sequence,

we observed an increase in recovered colonies when the pegRNA was used, in line with the editing
efficiencies observed with PE2 (Fig. S2B). Note that the reverse transcriptase domain was essential for
prime editing since we did not observe any correctly edited clones when only the Cas9 domain was
expressed (Fig. 2D). PacBio HiFi long read whole genome sequencing of four edited clones did not
reveal signs of off-target editing nor any genomic rearrangements (Fig. S3B, Fig. S3C) (SRA accession
number PRJNA1062582).

Figure 2. Make-or-break prime editing selectively enriches correctly edited clones. (**A**) Schematic overview
of mbPE$^{S.pn}$. Binding of the spacer sequence to the target region leads to formation of DSBs by the Cas9 domain.
The PBS can hybridize to its complementary sequence. The reverse transcriptase domain of mbPE$^{S.pn}$
subsequently synthesizes cDNA using the RTT as template. (**B**) Schematic depicting the mechanism leading to
selective survival of edited clones. The hybridization of the 3′-flap containing the edit is in equilibrium with the
unedited strand. Repair with the edited region will prevent repeated DSBs by Cas9. (**C**) Induction of mbPE$^{S.pn}$ by
aTc in combination with expression of a structured pegRNA leads to accurate gene editing. Approximately 93%
of surviving *S. pneumoniae* cells after induction are accurately edited. Cells were grown in C+Y medium
containing luciferin substrate. The maximal bioluminescence reached of each clone is shown (RLU: relative light
units. OD: optical density). In these experiments, clones with either an RLU/OD value below 2 x 10^3 (left), or an
RLU/OD value above 2 x 10^5 (right), were considered to be edited (as also validated by Sanger sequencing). D)
In the absence of reverse transcriptase (strain VL7598, P$_{tet}$-*cas9*), no induced clones were edited, as indicated by

the lack of bioluminescence. E) mbPE$^{S.pn}$ in *recA* strain showing that RecA-dependent homologous
recombination is not required for editing.

mbPE does not require RecA-dependent homologous recombination

In Fig. 2D we established that reverse transcription of the pegRNA is required for correct genome
editing. DNA insertion in bacteria can occur by specific bacteriophage recombinases but typically is
established by RecA-dependent homologous recombination[23,38]. However, RecA typically requires long
homology regions. To test whether RecA is indeed not required for make-or-break prime editing in *S.*
pneumoniae, in which only short regions of homology are presented within the pegRNA, we replaced
recA with an antibiotic resistance cassette in strain VL7487 (mbPE$^{S.pn}$, pegRNA-luc+SpTer). Note that,
we were not able to construct this strain at 37°C but could efficiently construct it at 30°C. After inducing
the mbPE system and picking 42 surviving colonies on aTc plates, all demonstrated the encoded *luc*
repair in the *recA* strain (Fig. 2E). This data is in line with the original model for prime editing[12] in
which a 5′→3′ ssDNA exonuclease (RecJ in *S. pneumoniae*) would excise the 5′ flap followed by gap
filling by DNA polymerase and subsequent ligation by DNA ligase (Fig. 2B), a process that would not
require RecA-dependent homologous recombination.

Scalable pooled pegRNA library construction shows efficient installment of base pair
substitutions

To explore the potential of mbPE$^{S.pn}$, we generated a pool of different pegRNAs targeting *luc* (Table
S1), followed by Golden Gate cloning (Fig. 3A). A total of 873 oligos were designed and synthesized
as a pool, containing different PBS and RTT sequences to introduce various genome edits. The pegRNA
pool was cloned into plasmid pVL4134 that already contains the *luc*-targeting spacer sequence. The
resulting pool was subsequently used to transform strain VL5155 carrying *luc* and the aTc-inducible
mbPE$^{S.pn}$ (see Methods). The library was plated on agar lacking or containing 20 ng/ml aTc to induce
mbPE$^{S.pn}$. Quadruplicate induced and uninduced experiments, each with a minimum of 40000 colonies,
were pooled, and their pegRNA contents and edited *luc* region were sequenced (Fig. 3A). In the
uninduced pool, all but 12 of the designed pegRNAs were present, and we did not observe some of the
pegRNAs encoding the longest insertions. Strikingly, most pegRNAs were also present in the induced
pool albeit at varying abundances. By counting and comparing the number of reads coming of each
pegRNA in both conditions, we could estimate a selection efficiency score for each pegRNA for a
specific mutation (Fig. 3A). By also sequencing the *luc* gene, we confirmed that most of the designed
edits were correctly made in the pool of mutants (see Methods). We note that while comparing the ratios

of reads of pegRNAs is useful to assess whether a certain edit is in principle possible, particularly when

the pegRNAs encode the same spacer and PBS, it does not quantitatively inform on editing efficiencies

as selection efficiencies will be very different depending on the level by which the pegRNA-encoded

mutation in the RTT affects targeting or editing. For instance, some pegRNAs might be less efficient at

cutting, potentially due to improper folding, which in turn might enhance editing efficiency since the

RT moiety has more time to produce the cDNA before a DSB is made.

First, we examined whether mbPE$^{S.pn}$ was able to install various substitutions (a>t, a>c, a>g, t>a, t>c,

t>g, c>a, c>t, c>g) of targets within a seed region. We designed pegRNAs that have the same 20 nt *luc*

spacer and 15 nt PBS, but varying RTTs encoding the different substitutions (and the necessary *luc* seed

disruptions) (Fig. 3B, Table S1). As shown in Fig. 3C, pegRNAs encoding all substitutions were present

at high frequencies under induced conditions. Next, we wondered if mbPE$^{S.pn}$ could introduce multiple

substitutions simultaneously. Indeed, all tested substitutions, up to the 6 adjacent substitutions tested

(CCTCTA> GGAGAT), were present in the induced library (Fig. 3D). For single base pair

substitutions, selection efficiency was more efficient when the edit was made to destroy the PAM and

less efficient when the edit was distal from the PAM (Fig. 4A).

Figure 3. mbPE$^{S.pn}$ is highly scalable and efficient in making base pair substitutions. (A) Cloning strategy to
produce a library of pegRNAs targeting *luc* from a ssDNA oligo pool. The oligo pool was amplified by PCR as
well as the backbone of pVL4134 that includes the *luc* spacer sequence and assembled by Golden Gate
digestion/ligation followed by transformation to *S. pneumoniae* containing *luc* and mbPE2$^{S.pn}$. Chromosomal
DNA was isolated from colonies grown in absence or presence of aTc (to induce mbPE2$^{S.pn}$) and PCR amplified

using staggered primers followed by illumina sequencing (see Methods). 2FAST2Q[39] was used to extract and
count pegRNAs and *luc* alleles. (**B**) Schematic overview of the pegRNA design encoding for different base pair
substitutions. (**C-D**) Single base pair substitutions and multiple base pair substitutions are installed with high
selection efficiency. (**C**) pegRNA abundance of - aTc samples (control) and + aTc samples (orange squares) are
shown. (**D**) The fraction of *luc* reads carrying the desired mutation over the total reads in that sample is shown for
induced (aTc treated) and non-induced (control) samples on the left Y-axis. The average fraction of pegRNA
reads for the substitutions is shown as dots on the right Y-axis.
249

Efficient DNA insertion and deletion with mbPE

After establishing that mbPE$^{S.pn}$ is highly effective at selecting clones containing point mutations, we
examined the capacity of mbPE$^{S.pn}$ for DNA insertions or deletions (Fig. 4A, 4C). To test DNA insertion
efficiencies, we designed 181 different insertion pegRNAs targeting *luc* with a constant 20 nt spacer, a
constant 15 nt PBS, a constant 17 nt RTT scaffold followed by an RTT insertion of varying length
(between 1 and 181 nt) that would insert in the *luc* seed region thereby preventing Cas9 retargeting (Fig.
4A, Table S1). We analyzed pegRNA abundances of uninduced and induced libraries, as well as
sequenced the *luc* genes in the pools. We observed insertions up to 52 bps, indicating that there is a
maximum length that can be installed through mbPE in *S. pneumoniae* (Fig. 4B). Note that longer
pegRNAs were less well represented in the insertion pegRNA pool likely because of reduced abundance
due to uneven synthesis and/or cloning efficiencies (Fig. 4B). This could have influenced our ability to
observe the mutations encoded in these larger pegRNAs.

A similar strategy was employed to assess deletion efficiency inside *luc*, and 200 deletion
pegRNAs were designed each containing a constant 20 nt *luc* spacer and constant 15 nt PBS. The RTT′s
were 15 nt long, each shifted by one base pair relative to each other to create varying deletion sizes in
luc whilst simultaneously disrupting the seed region (Fig. 4C). We observed a decrease in editing
efficiency as deletion length increased, with the longest deletion observed being 184 bp (Fig. 4D).
Indeed, we could readily obtain deletions at high selection efficiency when reconstructing a set of
deletion pegRNAs encoding the 10, 63 or 127 base pair deletion (ranging between 80-90% efficiency).
However, only 3 out of 28 tested clones showed reduced luciferase activity with the 184 bp deletion
pegRNA and Sanger sequencing indicated that these were not correctly edited at the 184 bp position
(Fig. 4E).

Figure 4. mbPE for DNA insertions and genome deletions. (**A**, **C**) Schematic overview of the approach used to test insertion and deletion efficiency in *luc* using mbPE. For pegRNAs encoding insertions, additional nucleotides were added between the RTT and PBS. For deletions, the RTT portion of the pegRNA was progressively moved within the *luc* gene, increasing deletion size, whilst the RTT remained constant. (**B**, **D**) Possibility of making insertions (**B**), and deletions (**D**) using mbPE. For each modification size, the fraction of *luc* reads carrying that mutation over the total reads in that sample, is displayed in bars on the left axis with bars, whilst the fraction of pegRNA reads from uninduced samples carrying the mutation is displayed with dots mapping to the right axis. (**E**) Verification of the ability to make deletions in *luc*, through targeted deletion of 10, 63, 127, or 184 bp. Clones with an RLU/OD value below 10^5 were considered to be edited (as also validated by Sanger sequencing).

pegRNA design rules for optimal mbPE

Previous work in human cells has shown that PE2 gene editing efficiencies highly depend on RTT and PBS length[12]. To determine the optimal RTT and PBS length for mbPE$^{S.pn}$ to introduce a single adenine nucleotide insertion in *S. pneumoniae*, we designed 336 pegRNAs, each encoding the same 20-nucleotide *luc* spacer sequence but varying in RTT length (6-26 nucleotides) and in PBS length (5-20 nucleotides). Each RTT contained the insertion of a single adenine nucleotide to disrupt the *luc* PAM, thereby preventing retargeting of Cas9 (Fig. 5A). Differential enrichment analysis of pegRNA abundance with and without mbPE$^{S.pn}$ inducer showed relatively more surviving clones with a PBS longer than 16 nts, and an RTT longer than 11. The most enriched pegRNAs for inserting a single adenine in *luc* contained a combination of a RTT length of 14 or 15 with a PBS length of 16 or 17 nts

(Fig. 5B). Together, these experiments provide guidelines for optimal pegRNA design and shows that mbPE is a versatile editing tool capable of introducing single point mutations, multiple simultaneous substitutions, insertions and deletions.

Figure 5. pegRNA design rules for mbPE$^{S.pn}$. (**A**) Schematic overview of the approach used to test mbPE$^{S.pn}$ efficiency at inserting a single adenine in *luc*. (**B**) Combinations of RTT and PBS with statistically significant differences in pegRNA abundance between uninduced vs induced are outlined and overrepresented combinations show higher log2 fold changes (log$_2$FC) and are colored bright yellow. Most overrepresented pegRNAs of the induced library compared to uninduced suggest that a 16 or 17 nts for the PBS and 14 or 15 nts for the RTT yield the highest editing efficiency. Statistical significance was defined as an |log$_2$FC| > 1, and an adjusted p-value < 0.05.

Exploring the editing distance from the seed region

The strategies employed in this study guide the Cas9 nuclease moiety of mbPE$^{S.pn}$ to cut within the seed region near the PAM motif or in the PAM as dictated by the spacer sequence, while the reverse transcriptase (RT) component of mbPE$^{S.pn}$ introduces the desired genome edit. This approach prevents Cas9 from retargeting the same location. The dependency on a PAM site is, however, a possible limitation of the mbPE system. For mbPE to be broadly applicable for the introduction of mutations, even in genomic regions without a nearby PAM sequence, editing should also be possible at sites distal

from the PAM. To determine the maximum distance from the Cas9 cut site at which a single nucleotide
substitution is possible, we designed a set of 100 pegRNAs with identical spacers. Each pegRNA
contained RTT sequences to mutate the PAM (preventing retargeting) while introducing a SNP at
varying distances from the PAM site (1-100 nts from the restriction site; Fig. 6A). As shown in Fig. 6B,
edits were observed as far as 91 bp from the PAM site.

Several pegRNAs were individually cloned, each with a mutation that destroys the PAM to
insert a silent mutation in *luc* and a substitution further from the PAM site. This showed that SNPs
could be efficiently introduced at a distance of 33 base pairs from the PAM (Fig. 6C). Editing was also
possible at further distances, but with increasingly reduced efficiency, similar to what was observed in
the pooled screen (Fig. 6B).

Figure 6. mbPE can introduce edits at sites distal from the PAM. (**A**) Schematic overview of the RTT design
strategy used to edit bases distal from the PAM site. Every pegRNA introduces a single PAM mutation (G to C)
and a second, purine to pyrimidine (or vice versa) transversion introduced at varying distances from the PAM
sequence. (**B**) Fraction of correctly edited *luc* alleles and pegRNA read counts over the total reads in that sample
of DNA extracted from cells grown in the absence (control) or presence of aTc. The average fraction of pegRNA
reads for the substitutions is shown as dots on the right Y-axis. Edits are observed up to 91 bp from the PAM site.
(**C**) Validation of the maximum editing distance through individually cloned pegRNAs. The mutations conferred
by the pegRNAs all encode the G to C PAM mutation and a second mutation at varying distances. The 33, and 45
bps substitutions from the PAM site, confer a premature stop codon, whilst the pegRNAs encoding mutation either
72 or 91 bps from the PAM site resulted in a glycine to cysteine (72 bps) or isoleucine to asparagine (91 bps)
substitution. The percentages indicate the fraction of clones that were phenotypically observed to be edited. Clones

with an RLU/OD value below 3 x 10^3 were considered to be edited. The mutation at 91 nts (*) could only be

confirmed by sequencing individual clones, as the amino acid change does not affect luciferase function. This

showed an editing efficiency of 4.8 % (1 out of 21 tested colonies) with the correct genome edit.

mbPE to introduce a split-*luc* tag for protein-protein interactions

Our pooled pegRNA assays indicated that DNA up to 52 bps can be inserted into the pneumococcal

genome using mbPE (Fig. 4B). To test whether mbPE could be used to introduce protein tags, we

considered the split luciferase tag. The use of split luciferase has emerged as a powerful approach to

identify protein-protein interactions in live bacterial cells in which the bait is fused to the large luciferase

component (LgBit) and the target to the small moiety (SmBit). When both parts of the split-luciferase

are in close proximity, luciferase activity is restored and light is produced in the presence of furimazine-

based (NanoLuc) substrate[40,41] (Fig. 7A). An outstanding question in the pneumococcal cell biology

field is whether the muramidase MpgA and the bifunctional class A penicillin binding protein PBP1a

are part of the so called elongasome[42–45], the machinery responsible for cell elongation. To address this

question, we fused RodZ, a known component of the elongasome, as well as MpgA, to the LgBit. We

designed a pegRNA to insert a sequence encoding a 2-amino acid flexible linker (SG), followed by the

SmBit fragment (VTGYRLFEEIL), at the C-terminus of PBP1a (Fig. 7B). Of the 12 clones tested after

selection on aTc, 1 contained the correct fusion, signifying a selection efficiency of 8% for introduction

of a 39 bps-long tag, in line with the *luc*-library sequencing results showing very few clones containing

insertions longer than 30 bps present in the pool (Fig. 4B). After transforming the mbPE*S.pn*-created

pbp1A-SmBit strain with *mpgA-LgBit* or *rodZ-LgBit*, respectively, cells were grown in microtiter plates

in the presence of NanoLuc luciferase substrate and bioluminescence recorded. The *pbp1A-SmBit* strain

was also transformed with *hu-LgBit* as a negative control since the highly expressed histone-like protein

HU is not expected to interact with PBP1a[40,46]. As shown in Fig. 7C, we could detect a strong and

reproducible signal for MpgA-LgBit and RodZ-LgBit but not for HU-LgBit, providing evidence that

PBP1a, MpgA and RodZ are in close proximity in space and time. To further substantiate these findings,

we constructed a double labelled strain in which PBP1a was tagged to a red fluorescent protein

(mScarlet-I-opt) on its N-terminus, under the control of its native promoter, while MpgA was tagged at

its N-terminus to the monomeric superfolder green fluorescent protein (GFP), also expressed from its

native promoter. Strain VL7454 (mScarlet-Pbp1a, GFP-MpgA) was grown in C+Y medium at 37°C

and mid-exponentially growing cells were imaged by epifluorescence microscopy.As shown in Fig. 7D,

clear co-localization between GFP-PBP1a and mScarlet-MpgA was observed, demonstrating that

PBP1a and MpgA are part of the same complex. Kymographs of individually GFP-tagged PBP1a and

MpgA also showed similar localization dynamics across the pneumococcal cell cycle (Fig. 7D). These

data are in line with recent work demonstrating that both PBP1a and MpgA interact with the PBP1a-

activating S protein and thus are likely part of the same protein complex[46].

Sequential genome editing with mbPE$^{S.pn}$

The ability to introduce several genome edits sequentially would greatly accelerate genetic engineering

projects in *S. pneumoniae*. To facilitate this, we constructed a second pegRNA cloning vector with

identical integration sites as plasmid pVL4133 but a different antibiotic resistance marker, conferring

resistance against chloramphenicol instead of spectinomycin (pVL7227) (Fig. 7E-F). In this way, after

the first genome edit has been made, the pegRNA can be replaced by transformation of the second

vector containing a different pegRNA. As a proof of concept, we first introduced a 63 bps deletion in

luc in strain VL6307 using pegRNA plasmid pVL6304, resulting in strain VL6926 (Δ63-*luc*). Next, we

designed and generated pegRNA constructs that would introduce stop mutations in either the capsule

gene *cps2A* or the major autolysin *lytA*. Both genes encode major pneumococcal virulence factors (Fig.

7E). By sequential transformation of strain VL6926 with plasmids pVL7230 (chloramphenicol

resistance, pegRNA-Δ*cps2A-stop*) and pVL5524 (spectinomycin resistance, pegRNA-Δ*lytA-stop*), we

could readily obtain strain VL7292 containing the three desired mutations (Δ63-*luc*, Δ*cps2A-stop*,

Δ*lytA-stop*) (Fig. 7F). Sanger sequencing verified the correct edits in two clones of the triple mutant

(Fig. S3A), whilst whole genome PacBio sequencing of two clones of the single mutant and two clones

of the triple mutant demonstrated the absence of off-target edits or genomic rearrangements (Fig. S3B

and S3C) (SRA accession number PRJNA1062582).

Figure 7. PBP1a is in a complex with MpgA and RodZ and sequential genome editing using mbPE. (A)
Schematic overview of the principle of the split *luc* system. (**B**) Schematic overview of the pegRNA used to fuse
a SmBit tag to *pbp1A* using mbPE. (**C**) PBP1a interacts with MpgA and RodZ. Each dot represents the average
of 15 measurements of a technical replicate, with the size of the dot representing the SEM. Control strains only
expressing *pbp1A-SmBit* (labeled as D39V) or *pbp1A-SmBit* together with the abundant DNA-binding protein
HU-LgBit did not demonstrate bioluminescence. (**D**) PBP1a and MpgA co-localize in space and time. Live cell
fluorescence microscopy of cells of strain VL7454 (mScarlet-PBP1a, GFP-MpgA) grown at 37°C in C+Y
medium. Scale bar: 2 mm. Demograph of exponentially growing cells of strains VL5532 (GFP-PBP1a) and
VL5816 (GFP-MpgA). (**E-F**) Sequential gene editing in *S. pneumoniae* using mbPE. Schematic overview of
cloning regime with the two alternative pegRNA vector backbones (pVL4133, *spec*; pVL7227, *cat*) to generate a
triple genome edited *S. pneumoniae* strain (Δ63-*luc*, Δ*cps2A-stop*, Δ*lytA-stop*) in a sequential manner.

Discussion

The principal contribution of this work is the development of make-or-break prime editing (mbPE), a highly effective bacterial genome editing system. In contrast to traditional prime editing in which a nickase is used, mbPE utilizes a Cas9 nuclease fused to a reverse transcriptase. Combined with the high recombinogenic potential of *S. pneumoniae*[23], the edit encoded within the pegRNA that also disrupts the PAM or seed region is integrated into the genome by a mechanism that does not require RecA (Fig. 2E). It is tempting to speculate that, in absence of RecA, a single strand annealing mechanism[47] or another kind of microhomology-mediated repair process[9], such as the RecBCD (RexAB in *S. pneumoniae*[48]) or RecFOR loader complexes[49] play a role in consolidating the edit encoded by the pegRNA during mbPE. RecJ may be a key enzyme to remove the 5′ flap and promote DNA repair (Fig. 2B). Since Cas9 cannot re-target correctly edited cells, as they would lack a PAM or seed region, they are efficiently selected, while unedited clones die due to repeated Cas9-induced DNA breaks. This model for mbPE implies that editing efficiencies might be further improved by reducing the efficiency of Cas9 cleavage to allow for enough time to install the edit, something also observed for traditional CRISPR gene editing in bacteria[8]. Since mbPE does not require homology-dependent recombination through RecA, it might also be an efficient method in other bacteria that are less recombinogenic compared to *S. pneumoniae*.

Recently developed nuclease-based prime editing systems in eukaryotic cells have also shown improved selection efficiencies[19–21,50–52]. However, these systems often produce more undesired by-products, such as insertions and deletions (indels), than the intended edits[53]. Probably because *S. pneumoniae* does not, or very poorly, performs template-independent end joining (like most other bacteria[2,9,10]), we have not observed off-target indels with mbPE$^{S.pn}$ when editing efficiencies were high. Bystander mutations, if present, were rather found near the Cas9 cleavage site that are typically also found during regular PE2 prime editing[7] or within mbPE$^{S.pn}$ itself (Fig. S2G). Long-read PacBio sequencing of triply sequential edited strains (Fig. 7, Fig. S3B and Fig S3C) also did not show evidence of genomic rearrangements or untargeted indels.

By screening pooled libraries containing a suite of pegRNAs with different RTT and PBS lengths to introduce point mutations at a specific site (*luc*), we established that ideal PBS and RTT lengths for a single adenine insertion in *luc* are 16 nts and 15 nts, respectively (Fig. 5). In addition, mbPE was able to make all 12 possible nucleotide substitutions as well as insertions up to 52 bps (Figs. 3-4, Fig. S4). As a proof of principle, we used mbPE to tag the important amoxicillin-resistance determinant PBP1A[54] with the SmBit split luciferase moiety and unequivocally showed that PBP1A is in close spatial and temporal proximity to MpgA and RodZ. Deletions up to 127 bps could also be efficiently introduced (Fig. 4C-E). By creating pegRNA vectors with various antibiotic resistance

markers, sequential genome editing is a straightforward procedure and after every consecutive edit the

pegRNA is simply replaced by the next (Fig. 7D-E). Together, this work demonstrates that mbPE is a

flexible, scalable and efficient genome editing tool for *S. pneumoniae.*

Limitations and perspectives of mbPE

Due to its natural competence, *S. pneumoniae* has been a cornerstone of molecular biology[55]. This

feature also enabled us to optimize mbPE for genome editing. It will now be interesting to test whether

mbPE is also effective in other bacteria, particularly in strains that are difficult to transform. By placing

both the prime editor and the pegRNA cloning cassette on a replicative plasmid with a temperature-

sensitive origin of replication, straightforward genome editing in hard-to-transform strains might be

enabled. Another advantage of *S. pneumoniae* is that its genome, which is 2.04 Mb in size in case of

strain D39V[35], contains 145,892 *S. pyogenes* PAM sites (NGG) distributed fairly evenly across its

sequence. This results in one PAM site every 14 base pairs on average. If a distance of 50 bp from a

PAM site is considered as the maximum distance to be efficiently edited by mbPE$^{S.pn}$ (Fig. 6B), 99.845%

of the D39V genome would be in range for efficient substitution editing through this system, leaving

only 3158 bp unavailable. Although SNPs can be efficiently introduced at locations near a PAM site,

the efficiency decreases as the distance from the PAM site increases (Fig. 6, Fig. S4). This is thus not a

major issue for *S. pneumoniae*, but could be problematic for other bacterial species, particularly those

with very low GC content. To obtain more genome editing flexibility, Cas9 variants with relaxed or

different PAM requirements[56] could be used as nuclease within the mbPE. For instance, highly

promising mbPE nucleases would be SpRY and SpRYc, which are engineered near-PAMless *S.*

pyogenes Cas9 variants[57,58].

While the *selection* efficiency of mbPE can potentially be greater than 93%, if the mutation

being introduced concerns a simple edit taking place at the PAM site (Fig. 2), the actual *editing*

efficiency is typically less than 5% (Fig. 1). This low editing efficiency thus hinders multiplex genome

editing to introduce multiple edits simultaneously as the chance that a cell made multiple edits before

being targeted by the nuclease domain is currently smaller than the selection of suppressor mutants.

Another limitation of prime editing are the restrictions in insertion as well as deletion lengths. Therefore,

future make-or-break prime editors would also benefit from improvements in reverse transcriptases and

pegRNA design driven by genetic screens, advances in machine learning and/or structural insights[59,60].

Removal of certain host factors, such as 3′→5′ DNA exonucleases and the mismatch repair system, may

also improve editing efficiencies[18,33,34]. Future optimized mbPEs with PAMless nucleases and efficient

reverse transcriptases with optimal pegRNA designs would enable multiplex editing of every base in a

genome. Dual pegRNA approaches may also increase the efficiency of large genomic deletions, and
facilitate the integration of larger DNA segments[61,62].

While not yet perfect, the here-described mbPE system still represents one of the most powerful
and versatile bacterial genome editor currently available due to its scalability, meaning the ability to
clone pools of pegRNAs to generate vast libraries of potential gene edits, and we foresee many exciting
and important applications, especially since the quality (and price) of oligo pools has significantly
improved in the last years. For instance, by designing a pool of pegRNAs, mbPE could be employed to
perform 'all codon scanning' on single genes of interest to gain new important insights into protein
function, protein interaction, or identify temperature-sensitive alleles. Another application could be to
examine gene essentiality at a genome-wide scale. Since mbPE can easily introduce mutations without
polar effects, large, genome-wide stop-codon or start-codon mutant libraries could be made.

Concluding Remarks

482   The here-described mbPE system will facilitate genome-editing approaches in the significant human
483   pathogen *S. pneumoniae* and may contribute to the discovery of new insights with regards to
484   pneumococcal cell biology as well as lead to innovative therapeutic approaches. The described methods
485   and approaches may serve as a roadmap to develop mbPE for other bacteria.

Methods

Bacterial strains, culture conditions and transformation

All strains, plasmids and primers used in this study are listed in Tables S2 and S3. Pneumococcal strains
in this study are derivate of *S. pneumoniae* D39V[30], unless specified otherwise, and are listed in Table
S2. Construction of strains is described in the Supplementary information. Strains were grown in liquid
semi-defined C+Y medium[55] (pH 6.8) or Columbia Agar Base (CAB) supplemented with 5% sheep
blood at 37°C. For transformation, pneumococci were grown in C+Y medium to an optical density
(OD_{595nm}) of 0.1. Competence was activated by adding 100 ng/mL (CSP-1) (synthetic competence-
stimulating peptide 1) for 12 minutes at 37°C. The donor DNA was added to the culture and incubated
20 minutes at 30°C. The cultures were then diluted 10 times in C+Y and incubated at 37°C for 1.5
hours. Transformants were selected in CAB containing 5% blood and the appropriate antibiotic. Re-
streaked and confirmed clones were grown in C+Y to an OD_{595nm} of 0.3 and stored at -80°C in C+Y
containing 17% glycerol.

E. coli Stbl3 (Thermofisher) was used for plasmid cloning. Strains were cultured in LB or LBA
with appropriate antibiotics.

Cloning of pegRNAs by Golden Gate Assembly

The pPEPZ_pegRNA vector was digested with Esp3I and purified from agarose gel to ensure removal of the *mCherry* fragment. The two oligonucleotides designed for the spacer, the scaffold and the extension sequences of each pegRNA were annealed in TEN buffer (10 mM Tris, 1 mM EDTA, 100 mM NaCl, pH 8) in a thermocycler at 95°C for 5 minutes and then slowly cooled down at 25°C. Equimolar ratios of each annealed pegRNA pieces were phosphorylated with T4 polynucleotide kinase (New England Biolabs). The annealed and phosphorylated pieces were ligated with the pPEPZ_pegRNA digested vector with T4 DNA ligase. The ligation products were transformed in *E. coli* Stbl3 and the transformants were selected on LBA plates with the appropriate antibiotic. Details about each pegRNA plasmid construction are indicated in Supplementary Information.

Induction of PE2 and mbPE$^{S.pn}$

Strains containing the PE2 nickase prime editor or the mbPE$^{S.pn}$ prime editor were grown in C+Y to an OD_{595nm} of 0.3 ($3x10^8$). Serial dilutions were prepared in C+Y medium and plated in CAB plates containing 5% blood and a range of aTc (between 2 - 50 ng/mL aTc) and incubated overnight at 37°C. A control without aTc was included to compare the colony number with and without inducer. Single colonies of plates in which approximately 10 to 50x fewer colonies were present than in the 0 aTc plates at the same dilution were picked and cultured in C+Y for further experiments. Typically, when >100X less colonies were present on the +aTc plates compared to the -aTc plates, editing was not efficient enough compared to cutting by the nuclease and a lower aTc concentration was used for induction.

Growth assays and luciferase activity assays

Single colonies from PE2 or mbPE induction plates were picked and pre-cultured in 200 µl of C+Y with no inducer and incubated at 37°C. After 2 hours of incubation, 50 µL of the colony suspension were transferred to white, clear bottom 96-well plates containing 250 µL of C+Y plus 0.12 mg/mL luciferin (final luciferin concentration, 0.1 mg/mL; BioSynth). For each assay D39V, uninduced colonies and media were included as controls in duplicates. Absorbance (OD_{595}) and luminescence (relative luminesce units, RLU) were measured for 20 hours with an interval time of 10 minutes, using a Tecan (Spark) plate reader. RLU/OD values were normalized against the baseline level of medium luminescence obtained for each experiment and data analyzed using GraphPad Prism.

Nano-Glo Dual-Luciferase assay

Strains were pre-cultured in C+Y to an OD_{595} of 0.3. Luminescence (relative luminesce units, RLU) and Absorbance (OD_{595}) of sample triplicates supplemented with NanoGlo Live Cell Assay System

(Promega) as recommended by the manufacturer, were monitored using a Tecan (Spark) plate reader

during 15 minutes without intervals.

pegRNA pool cloning

The backbone for the cloning of the pegRNA pool (pVL4134) was linearized by XbaI digestion. The

linearized vector was then amplified with primers OVL7743 and OVL7744 to introduce flanking Esp3I

cleavage sites. Template plasmid was removed by digestion with DpnI. The ssDNA pegRNA pool

(Table S1, Twist Bioscience) was amplified using primers OVL7966 and OVL6481 and the PCR

product was excised from a 2% agarose gel using the Monarch DNA cleanup and gel extraction kit

(NEB). One-step Golden Gate Assembly (GGA) was used to ligate the vector and the pegRNA pool

using Esp3I (molar ratio vector insert 1:10). The GGA product was transformed in *E. coli* Stbl3 and

transformants were selected on LBA plates containing 100 µg/mL spectinomycin. After overnight

incubation at 37°C, several single colonies were picked to check the cloning efficiency and the rest of

the colonies were scraped-off from the plates to prepare glycerol stocks with the suspension. The

plasmid pegRNA pool was purified and transformed into *S. pneumoniae* VL5155 and transformants

were plated on CAB plates supplemented with 5% blood and 100 µg/mL spectinomycin and incubated

overnight at 37°C. The cells were scraped-off the plates and the bacterial suspension was stored at -

80°C in C+Y containing 17% glycerol (pool name: VL5315).

pegRNA pool screening

To determine the best conditions for the pegRNA pool screening, a pilot mbPE induction experiment

was performed. 100 µL of VL5355 were resuspended in 4 mL of C+Y containing 100 µg/mL

spectinomycin, in triplicates. Starting OD_{595} was 0.17 and the cells were grown to an OD_{595} of 0.34.

Serial dilutions of the bacterial suspension (up to 10^{-5}) were prepared in C+Y containing 100 µg/mL

spectinomycin and plated onto 75 mL CAB + 5% blood plates with and without 50 ng/mL aTc and

incubated overnight at 37°C. The CFU were counted, and it was determined that the selection efficiency

was about 10%. The dilutions to be used for the screening were chosen to be 10^{-2} for the inducer

condition and 10^{-3} for the no inducer condition (single colonies could be still observed and the plates

had a good coverage). The pegRNA pool screening was performed in quadruplicates with the same

conditions previously tested in the pilot experiment. All colonies grown with and without inducer were

scraped-off using C+Y + spectinomycin and stored with 17% glycerol at -80°C. Chromosomal DNA

from the pegRNA pool screening samples was extracted for Illumina library preparation using the

Promega kit as described previously[40].

Targeted *luc* modification site sequencing and differential enrichment analysis

Custom oligonucleotide primers (Table S3) consisting of P5 or P7 Illumina sequencing adapters,

Illumina sequencing barcodes (N501-504/N701-704), read 1 or read 2 sequencing primer binding sites,

and portions binding to the chromosomally located *luc* were used to amplify the targeted *luc*

modification site using Phanta high-fidelity polymerase (Vazyme). Amplified fragments were purified

from gel and sequenced on an Illumina MiSeq, using a 2 x 300 (600 cycles) paired-end v3 sequencing

kit. Illumina sequencing reads were checked for quality using FastQC (v0.11.8, available from

https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/), and paired reads were merged using

PEAR (v0.9.6, available from https://www.h-its.org/software/pear-paired-end-read-merger/). PEAR

merged reads were subsequently used to count the number of occurrences of each pegRNA-encoded

mutation, using 2FAST2Q (v2.5.3)[39] in counter mode with consideration for the minimal Phred quality

score (all set to 20), and the mismatches allowed in upstream, downstream, and queried sequences (all

0). Counts from 2FAST2Q were imported into R, and normalized using DESeq2 (v1.40.2). DESeq2[63]

was subsequently used to perform the differential enrichment analysis between the control and aTc

induced samples. Statistical significance for differential presence was defined as an absolute

log2FoldChange > 1, and an adjusted p-value < 0.05. Full results of the *luc* mutation analysis can be

found in Table S4. Note that because of the high number of unedited, wild type *luc* alleles present in

the amplified pools, we were unable to accurately quantify the substitution identities and their editing

efficiencies for single base pair substitutions. Instead, we quantified the abundance of the pegRNAs in

presence and absence of aTc as a proxy for editing efficiency of single base pair substitutions.

Sequencing of pegRNA and differential enrichment analysis

Custom oligonucleotide primers (Table S3) consisting of P5 or P7 Illumina sequencing adapters,

Illumina sequencing barcodes (N501-504/N701-704), read 1 or read 2 sequencing primer binding sites,

and portions binding to the chromosomally integrated pegRNA expression were used to amplify the

pegRNAs using Phanta polymerase. Amplified fragments were purified and sequenced using an

Illumina MiniSeq instrument, with a 2 x 150 (300 cycles) paired-end mid output sequencing kit. Raw

Illumina sequencing reads were checked for quality using FastQC (v0.11.8, available from

https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/), and paired reads were merged using

PEAR (v0.9.6, available from https://www.h-its.org/software/pear-paired-end-read-merger/). PEAR

merged reads were subsequently used to count the number of occurrences of each pegRNA-encoded

mutation, using 2FAST2Q (v2.5.3)[39] in counter mode with consideration for the minimal Phred quality

score (all set to 20), and the mismatches allowed in upstream, downstream, and queried sequences (all

0). Counts from 2FAST2Q were imported into R, and normalized using DESeq2 (v1.40.2). DESeq2[63]

was subsequently used to perform the differential enrichment analysis between the control and aTc

induced samples. Statistical significance for differential presence was defined as an absolute
log2FoldChange > 1, and an adjusted p-value < 0.05. Full results of the pegRNA abundance analysis
can be found in Table S5.

Quantifications and statistical analysis

Data analysis was performed using R and Prism (Graphpad). Data shown are represented as mean of at
least three replicates ± SEM if data came from one experiment with replicated measurement, and ± SD
if data came from separate experiments.

Genome sequencing and analysis

Genome sequencing was performed using PacBio HiFi sequencing on a Pacbio sequel II machine.
PacBio HiFi reads were assembled into circular genomes using Flye[64]. Flye-produced assemblies were
rotated for *dnaA* using circlator[65]. Assemblies were assessed for structural rearrangements and large
indels through minimap2[66], by mapping them to an *in silico* constructed reference genome containing
the known mutations and insertions. Genome alignments were visualized using the dotPlotly R package.
For SNPs and small indel calling, the raw reads from the PacBio sequencing were mapped to the
synthetic genomes using minimap2[66], and filtered for secondary and split alignments. Resulting
alignments were sorted using SAMtools, and mutations were called using bcftools, hits were filtered
according to previously used methods[67]. Coverage at each position was assessed using SAMtools[68].

Data availability

Sequencing data from sequencing reactions of the luciferase gene and the pegRNAs, and the PacBio
sequencing, are available in the Sequence Read Archive under BioProject accession code
PRJNA1062582.

Acknowledgements

Work in the Veening lab is supported by the Swiss National Science Foundation (SNSF) (project grants
310030_192517, 310030_200792 and 'AntiResist' 51NF40_180541) and ERC consolidator grant
771534-PneumoCaTChER. A.B.J. is supported through a Postdoctoral Fellowship grant
(TMPFP3_210202) from the SNSF, and a Robert Austrian Research Award from the International
Society of Pneumonia and Pneumococcal Diseases. X.L. was supported by Shenzhen University 2035

Program for Excellent Research (86901-00000216). The funders had no role in study design, data
collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

640 Authors Contributions

641 J.W.V. wrote the paper with input from all authors. M.R.G.., M.V.M. A.B.J., A.S.R. and J.B. performed
642 the experiments. M.G.R., A.B.J., X.L., M.V.M., A.S.R., J.B., and J.W.V designed, analyzed and
643 interpreted the data. All authors reviewed and approved the final version of the manuscript.

645 Transparency declarations

M.R.G. : None

M.V.M. : None

A.B.J. : None

A.S.R. : None

J.B. : None

X.L. : None

J.W.V. is a scientific advisory board member at i-Seq Biotechnology.

654 ORCID and email addresses

Name	Email address	ORCID ID
Monica Rengifo-Gonzalez	Monica.Rengifo@unil.ch	
Maria Vittoria Mazzuoli	MariaVittoria.Mazzuoli@unil.ch	0000-0002-7071-1698
Axel B. Janssen	Absalom.Janssen@unil.ch	0000-0002-9865-447X
Anne-Stephanie Rueff	Anne-Stephanie.Rueff@unil.ch	
Jessica Burnier	Jessica.Burnier@unil.ch	0009-0006-6187-8126
Xue Liu	XueLiu@szu.edu.cn	0000-0001-6485-1865
Jan-Willem Veening	Jan-Willem.Veening@unil.ch	0000-0002-3162-6634

References

1. Ramachandran, G. & Bikard, D. Editing the microbiome the CRISPR way. *Philos. Trans. R. Soc. B Biol. Sci.* **374**, 20180103 (2019).

2. Shapiro, R. S., Chavez, A. & Collins, J. J. CRISPR-based genomic tools for the manipulation of genetically intractable microorganisms. *Nat. Rev. Microbiol.* **16**, 333–339 (2018).

3. Penewit, K. *et al.* Efficient and Scalable Precision Genome Editing in *Staphylococcus aureus* through Conditional Recombineering and CRISPR/Cas9-Mediated Counterselection. *mBio* **9**, e00067-18 (2018).

4. McAllister, K. N. & Sorg, J. A. CRISPR Genome Editing Systems in the Genus Clostridium: a Timely Advancement. *J. Bacteriol.* **201**, e00219-19 (2019).

5. Tong, Y. *et al.* CRISPR-Cas9, CRISPRi and CRISPR-BEST-mediated genetic manipulation in streptomycetes. *Nat. Protoc.* **15**, 2470–2502 (2020).

6. Jinek, M. *et al.* A programmable dual-RNA-guided DNA endonuclease in adaptive bacterial immunity. *Science* **337**, 816–821 (2012).

7. Anzalone, A. V., Koblan, L. W. & Liu, D. R. Genome editing with CRISPR-Cas nucleases, base editors, transposases and prime editors. *Nat. Biotechnol.* **38**, 824–844 (2020).

8. Collias, D. *et al.* Systematically attenuating DNA targeting enables CRISPR-driven editing in bacteria. *Nat. Commun.* **14**, 680 (2023).

9. Finger-Bou, M., Orsi, E., van der Oost, J. & Staals, R. H. J. CRISPR with a Happy Ending: Non-Templated DNA Repair for Prokaryotic Genome Engineering. *Biotechnol. J.* **15**, 1900404 (2020).

10. Shuman, S. & Glickman, M. S. Bacterial DNA repair by non-homologous end joining. *Nat. Rev. Microbiol.* **5**, 852–861 (2007).

11. Jiang, W. & Marraffini, L. A. CRISPR-Cas: New Tools for Genetic Manipulations from Bacterial Immunity Systems. *Annu. Rev. Microbiol.* **69**, 209–228 (2015).

12. Anzalone, A. V. *et al.* Search-and-replace genome editing without double-strand breaks or donor DNA. *Nature* **576**, 149–157 (2019).

13. Scholefield, J. & Harrison, P. T. Prime editing - an update on the field. *Gene Ther.* **28**, 396–401 (2021).

14. Hua, K., Han, P. & Zhu, J.-K. Improvement of base editors and prime editors advances precision genome engineering in plants. *Plant Physiol.* **188**, 1795–1810 (2022).

15. Villiger, L. *et al.* CRISPR technologies for genome, epigenome and transcriptome editing. *Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell Biol.* (2024) doi:10.1038/s41580-023-00697-6.

16. Zhao, Z., Shang, P., Mohanraju, P. & Geijsen, N. Prime editing: advances and therapeutic applications. *Trends Biotechnol.* **41**, 1000–1012 (2023).

17. Tong, Y., Jørgensen, T. S., Whitford, C. M., Weber, T. & Lee, S. Y. A versatile genetic engineering
toolkit for *E. coli* based on CRISPR-prime editing. *Nat. Commun.* **12**, 5206 (2021).

18. Zhang, H. *et al.* BacPE: a versatile prime-editing platform in bacteria by inhibiting DNA
exonucleases. *Nat. Commun.* **15**, 825 (2024).

19. Tao, R. *et al.* WT-PE: Prime editing with nuclease wild-type Cas9 enables versatile large-scale
genome editing. *Signal Transduct. Target. Ther.* **7**, 108 (2022).

20. Peterka, M. *et al.* Harnessing DSB repair to promote efficient homology-dependent and -
independent prime editing. *Nat. Commun.* **13**, 1240 (2022).

21. Adikusuma, F. *et al.* Optimized nickase- and nuclease-based prime editing in human and mouse
cells. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **49**, 10785–10795 (2021).

22. Bikard, D. *et al.* Programmable repression and activation of bacterial gene expression using an
engineered CRISPR-Cas system. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **41**, 7429–7437 (2013).

23. Jiang, W., Bikard, D., Cox, D., Zhang, F. & Marraffini, L. A. RNA-guided editing of bacterial
genomes using CRISPR-Cas systems. *Nat. Biotechnol.* **31**, 233–239 (2013).

24. Synefiaridou, D. & Veening, J.-W. Harnessing CRISPR-Cas9 for Genome Editing in *Streptococcus*
pneumoniae D39V. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **87**, e02762-20 (2021).

25. Liu, X. *et al.* Exploration of Bacterial Bottlenecks and *Streptococcus pneumoniae* Pathogenesis by
CRISPRi-Seq. *Cell Host Microbe* **29**, 107-120.e6 (2021).

26. Liu, X. *et al.* High-throughput CRISPRi phenotyping identifies new essential genes in
Streptococcus pneumoniae. *Mol. Syst. Biol.* **13**, 931 (2017).

27. Sorg, R. A., Kuipers, O. P. & Veening, J.-W. Gene expression platform for synthetic biology in the
human pathogen *Streptococcus pneumoniae*. *ACS Synth. Biol.* **4**, 228–239 (2015).

28. van Gestel, J., Hawkins, J. S., Todor, H. & Gross, C. A. Computational pipeline for designing guide
RNAs for mismatch-CRISPRi. *STAR Protoc.* **2**, 100521 (2021).

29. de Bakker, V., Liu, X., Bravo, A. M. & Veening, J.-W. CRISPRi-seq for genome-wide fitness
quantification in bacteria. *Nat. Protoc.* **17**, 252–281 (2022).

30. Xie, K., Minkenberg, B. & Yang, Y. Boosting CRISPR/Cas9 multiplex editing capability with the
endogenous tRNA-processing system. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* **112**, 3570–3575 (2015).

31. Hsu, J. Y. *et al.* PrimeDesign software for rapid and simplified design of prime editing guide RNAs.
Nat. Commun. **12**, 1034 (2021).

32. Nelson, J. W. *et al.* Engineered pegRNAs improve prime editing efficiency. *Nat. Biotechnol.* **40**,
402–410 (2022).

33. Chen, P. J. *et al.* Enhanced prime editing systems by manipulating cellular determinants of editing
outcomes. *Cell* **184**, 5635-5652.e29 (2021).

34. Ferreira da Silva, J. *et al.* Prime editing efficiency and fidelity are enhanced in the absence of
mismatch repair. *Nat. Commun.* **13**, 760 (2022).

35. Slager, J., Aprianto, R. & Veening, J.-W. Deep genome annotation of the opportunistic human
pathogen *Streptococcus pneumoniae* D39. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **46**, 9971–9989 (2018).

36. Martin, B., Prats, H. & Claverys, J. P. Cloning of the hexA mismatch-repair gene of *Streptococcus*
pneumoniae and identification of the product. *Gene* **34**, 293–303 (1985).

37. Sorg, R. A., Gallay, C., Van Maele, L., Sirard, J.-C. & Veening, J.-W. Synthetic gene-regulatory
networks in the opportunistic human pathogen *Streptococcus pneumoniae*. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.*
U. S. A. **117**, 27608–27619 (2020).

38. Cui, L. & Bikard, D. Consequences of Cas9 cleavage in the chromosome of *Escherichia coli.*
Nucleic Acids Res. **44**, 4243–4251 (2016).

39. Bravo, A. M., Typas, A. & Veening, J.-W. 2FAST2Q: a general-purpose sequence search and
counting program for FASTQ files. *PeerJ* **10**, e14041 (2022).

40. Gallay, C. *et al.* CcrZ is a pneumococcal spatiotemporal cell cycle regulator that interacts with FtsZ
and controls DNA replication by modulating the activity of DnaA. *Nat. Microbiol.* **6**, 1175–1187
(2021).

41. Oliveira Paiva, A. M. *et al.* The Bacterial Chromatin Protein HupA Can Remodel DNA and
Associates with the Nucleoid in *Clostridium difficile*. *J. Mol. Biol.* **431**, 653–672 (2019).

42. Perez, A. J. *et al.* Elongasome core proteins and class A PBP1a display zonal, processive movement
at the midcell of *Streptococcus pneumoniae*. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* **121**, e2401831121
(2024).

43. Gibson, P. S. & Veening, J.-W. Gaps in the wall: understanding cell wall biology to tackle
amoxicillin resistance in *Streptococcus pneumoniae*. *Curr. Opin. Microbiol.* **72**, 102261 (2023).

44. Straume, D., Piechowiak, K. W., Kjos, M. & Håvarstein, L. S. Class A PBPs: It is time to rethink
traditional paradigms. *Mol. Microbiol.* **116**, 41–52 (2021).

45. Lenoir, C. *et al.* The morphogenic protein CopD controls the spatio-temporal dynamics of PBP1a
and PBP2b in *Streptococcus pneumoniae*. *mBio* **14**, e0141123 (2023).

46. Burnier, J. *et al.* A bacterial cell wall repair and modification system to resist host antibacterial
factors. *bioRxiv.* 2024.11.08.622053 Preprint at https://doi.org/10.1101/2024.11.08.622053 (2024).

47. Vu, T. V., Das, S., Nguyen, C. C., Kim, J. & Kim, J.-Y. Single-strand annealing: Molecular
mechanisms and potential applications in CRISPR-Cas-based precision genome editing.
Biotechnol. J. **17**, e2100413 (2022).

48. Halpern, D., Gruss, A., Claverys, J.-P. & Karoui, M. E. *rexAB* mutants in *Streptococcus*
pneumoniae. *Microbiology* **150**, 2409–2414 (2004).

49. Johnston, C. *et al.* RecFOR Is Not Required for Pneumococcal Transformation but Together with
XerS for Resolution of Chromosome Dimers Frequently Formed in the Process. *PLOS Genet.* **11**,
e1004934 (2015).

50. Li, X. *et al.* Development of a versatile nuclease prime editor with upgraded precision. *Nat.*
Commun. **14**, 305 (2023).

51. Jiang, T., Zhang, X.-O., Weng, Z. & Xue, W. Deletion and replacement of long genomic sequences
using prime editing. *Nat. Biotechnol.* **40**, 227–234 (2022).

52. Kweon, J. *et al.* Targeted genomic translocations and inversions generated using a paired prime
editing strategy. *Mol. Ther. J. Am. Soc. Gene Ther.* **31**, 249–259 (2023).

53. Zeng, H. *et al.* Recent advances in prime editing technologies and their promises for therapeutic
applications. *Curr. Opin. Biotechnol.* **86**, 103071 (2024).

54. Gibson, P. S., Bexkens, E., Zuber, S., Cowley, L. A. & Veening, J.-W. The acquisition of clinically
relevant amoxicillin resistance in *Streptococcus pneumoniae* requires ordered horizontal gene
transfer of four loci. *PLoS Pathog.* **18**, e1010727 (2022).

55. Hiller, N. L. & Orihuela, C. J. Biological puzzles solved by using *Streptococcus pneumoniae*: a
historical review of the pneumococcal studies that have impacted medicine and shaped molecular
bacteriology. *J. Bacteriol.* **0**, e00059-24 (2024).

56. Collias, D. & Beisel, C. L. CRISPR technologies and the search for the PAM-free nuclease. *Nat.*
Commun. **12**, 555 (2021).

57. Walton, R. T., Christie, K. A., Whittaker, M. N. & Kleinstiver, B. P. Unconstrained genome
targeting with near-PAMless engineered CRISPR-Cas9 variants. *Science* **368**, 290–296 (2020).

58. Zhao, L. *et al.* PAM-flexible genome editing with an engineered chimeric Cas9. *Nat. Commun.* **14**,
6175 (2023).

59. Shuto, Y. *et al.* Structural basis for pegRNA-guided reverse transcription by a prime editor. *Nature*
(2024) doi:10.1038/s41586-024-07497-8.

60. Chen, P. J. & Liu, D. R. Prime editing for precise and highly versatile genome manipulation. *Nat.*
Rev. Genet. **24**, 161–177 (2023).

61. Anzalone, A. V. *et al.* Programmable deletion, replacement, integration and inversion of large DNA
sequences with twin prime editing. *Nat. Biotechnol.* **40**, 731–740 (2022).

62. Wang, J. *et al.* Efficient targeted insertion of large DNA fragments without DNA donors. *Nat.*
Methods **19**, 331–340 (2022).

63. Love, M. I., Huber, W. & Anders, S. Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion for RNA-
seq data with DESeq2. *Genome Biol.* **15**, 550 (2014).

64. Kolmogorov, M., Yuan, J., Lin, Y. & Pevzner, P. A. Assembly of long, error-prone reads using
repeat graphs. *Nat. Biotechnol.* **37**, 540–546 (2019).

65. Hunt, M. *et al.* Circlator: automated circularization of genome assemblies using long sequencing
reads. *Genome Biol.* **16**, 294 (2015).

66. Li, H. Minimap2: pairwise alignment for nucleotide sequences. *Bioinforma. Oxf. Engl.* **34**, 3094–
3100 (2018).

67. Janssen, A. B. *et al.* Evolution of Colistin Resistance in the *Klebsiella pneumoniae* Complex
Follows Multiple Evolutionary Trajectories with Variable Effects on Fitness and Virulence
Characteristics. *Antimicrob. Agents Chemother.* **65**, 10.1128/aac.01958-20 (2020).
68. Li, H. *et al.* The Sequence Alignment/Map format and SAMtools. *Bioinforma. Oxf. Engl.* **25**, 2078–
2079 (2009).
803