Comprehensive deletion scan of anti-CRISPR AcrIIA4 reveals essential and

dispensable domains for Cas9 inhibition

Authors

Annette B Iturralde[1,2], Cory A Weller[1,3], Meru J Sadhu[1]

[1] Center for Genomics and Data Science Research, National Human Genome

Research Institute, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, Maryland, USA

[2] Present address: Biomedical Sciences Graduate Program, University of Virginia,

Charlottesville, Virginia, USA

[3] Present address: Center for Alzheimer's and Related Dementias, National Institute

on Aging and National Institute of Neurological Disorders and Stroke, National Institutes

of Health, Bethesda, Maryland, USA

Email: meru.sadhu@nih.gov

Running title

Systematic deletion scan of AcrIIA4

Abstract

Delineating a protein's essential and dispensable domains provides critical insight into

how it carries out its function. Here, we developed a high-throughput method to

synthesize and test the functionality of all possible in-frame and continuous deletions in

a gene of interest, enabling rapid and unbiased determination of protein domain

importance. Our approach generates precise deletions using a CRISPR library

framework that is free from constraints of gRNA target site availability and efficacy. We

applied our method to AcrIIA4, a phage-encoded anti-CRISPR protein that robustly

inhibits SpCas9. Extensive structural characterization has shown that AcrIIA4 physically

occupies the DNA-binding interfaces of several SpCas9 domains; nonetheless, the

importance of each AcrIIA4 interaction for SpCas9 inhibition is unknown. We used our

approach to determine the essential and dispensable regions of AcrIIA4. Surprisingly,

not all contacts with SpCas9 were required, and in particular, we found that the AcrIIA4

loop that inserts into SpCas9's RuvC catalytic domain can be deleted. Our results show

that AcrIIA4 inhibits SpCas9 primarily by blocking PAM binding, and that its interaction

with the SpCas9 catalytic domain is inessential.

Keywords

AcrIIA4 / anti-CRISPR / deletion / MAVE / SpCas9

Introduction

CRISPR systems consist of RNA-guided endonucleases that cleave nucleic acid

sequences specified by the variable spacer sequence of a bound guide RNA (gRNA)

(1). CRISPR systems are widespread in bacteria and archaea, where they can provide

adaptive immunity against viruses, plasmids, and other mobile genetic elements

(MGEs) through gRNAs that recognize foreign DNA or RNA and target their cleavage.

The adaptability of CRISPR endonucleases to cleave specific DNA sequences or

otherwise recruit proteins to specific genomic sites is used in myriad ways in molecular

biology research, predominantly featuring the type IIA Cas9 protein from *Streptococcus*

pyogenes, referred to as SpCas9. gRNA-bound SpCas9 cleaves double-stranded DNA

if its sequence matches the gRNA's 20-nucleotide (nt) spacer sequence followed by the

protospacer motif (PAM) sequence of NGG.

To counter the native role of CRISPR in host defense, MGEs encode a variety of

anti-CRISPR proteins, or Acrs (2). Acrs have diverse strategies to block CRISPR

cleavage, including through disruption of gRNA function, DNA binding, or DNA

cleavage. Acrs have been repurposed technologically to regulate CRISPR, including to

restrict CRISPR activity to a particular tissue type or to reduce cytotoxicity associated

with CRISPR (3, 4). One of the most well-characterized Acrs is AcrIIA4, a potent

inhibitor of SpCas9 identified from a *Listeria monocytogenes* prophage (5). AcrIIA4 is a

compact 87-amino acid protein composed of a central three-stranded β-sheet flanked

by three α-helices (6–8), as well as a 3_{10} helix in the β1-β2 loop that deforms upon

SpCas9 binding (9). AcrIIA4 occupies the DNA-binding interfaces of several domains of

SpCas9 (Fig. 1A). AcrIIA4 binds the SpCas9 C-terminal domain (CTD), which binds the

PAM sequence of target DNA, using its β3 strand, α3 helix, and β2-β3, β3-α2, and α2-

α3 loops. Residues in AcrIIA4's α1-β1 and β2-β3 loops interact with the SpCas9

topoisomerase-homology (TOPO) domain, which aids in PAM binding. Finally, the β1-

β2 loop of AcrIIA4 occupies the active site of SpCas9's RuvC domain, which cleaves

the nontarget DNA strand. However, the individual importance of these interactions to

SpCas9 inhibition has not been determined.

71   To precisely determine which domains of AcrIIA4 are essential for anti-CRISPR

function, we generated nearly all possible in-frame deletions of all sizes in AcrIIA4 and

tested their impact on SpCas9 inhibition. Functional domains of proteins have been

mapped for decades by determining the effects of deleting segments of the protein (10).

Augmenting such approaches to assay all possible in-frame deletions enables full and

precise delineation of a protein's essential and dispensable domains in an unbiased

fashion (11), but creating all possible sizes of deletions across a gene scales

quadratically with gene size and quickly amounts to thousands of deletions,

necessitating a high-throughput approach. CRISPR technology can be used for high-

throughput genetic interrogation, by synthesizing a library of DNA molecules encoding

gRNAs and/or repair templates and using it to generate genetic variants in a pool of

cells that contains CRISPR machinery (12–14). Here, we developed a high-throughput

pooled CRISPR approach to comprehensively determine the effects of deletions in a

protein and applied it to AcrIIA4. We find that the AcrIIA4 regions responsible for

blocking the PAM-interacting domains of SpCas9 are essential, whereas the segment

involved in blocking the RuvC catalytic domain is dispensable.

Results

We developed an approach for comprehensive deletion mutagenesis that uses

CRISPR in the budding yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (Fig 1B). We used

synonymous variants to generate two alleles of *acrIIA4* with maximum DNA sequence

divergence while reflecting yeast codon usage, resulting in 61% DNA identity. We

inserted the two *acrIIA4* alleles in tandem into the yeast genome at the *HO* locus,

placing them after a galactose-inducible promoter and placing a synthetic Cas9 target

site and the *URA3* gene from *Kluyveromyces lactis* between them. To generate an

acrIIA4 allele carrying a deletion between any pair of codons n_1 and n_2, we direct

CRISPR cleavage at the synthetic target site between the *acrIIA4* copies and provide a

repair template with homology to the first acrIIA4 copy up to codon n_1, followed by

homology to the second copy starting from codon n_2. Thus, the use of this repair

template during homology-directed repair produces a single fusion *acrIIA4* gene that

has the region from codon n_1 to codon n_2 deleted. The fusion event also deletes the

CRISPR target site and *URA3*, precluding further cutting and allowing for the selection

of cells with successful deletions through their ability to grow on media containing 5-

fluoroorotic acid (5-FOA), which is toxic to *S. cerevisiae* cells expressing *URA3* (15).

There are 3,741 possible unique in-frame *acrIIA4* deletions. To generate a

comprehensive library of deletions we used large-scale array-based synthesis to

synthesize a pool of all possible deletion-directing repair templates, composed of 100 nt

matching the first *acrIIA4* copy followed by 100 nt matching the second. We cloned the

repair template oligos into three replicate 2-micron plasmid libraries for high-copy

maintenance in yeast cells. Massively parallel sequencing of the repair templates from

two of the resulting plasmid libraries revealed 3,573 (95%) repair templates were

represented in at least one of the replicate plasmid pools. The plasmid pools also

encoded a gRNA targeting the novel sequence inserted between the *acrIIA4* genes,

which was designed to have at least six mismatches with any other SpCas9 target site

in the *S. cerevisiae* genome. Note that as the gRNA target site is constant, this

approach is not constrained by the density of gRNA target sites in the *acrIIA4* gene, nor

is there any aspect of variability in gRNA efficacy.

We transformed the repair template library into the *acrIIA4-URA3-acrIIA4* yeast

strain. The strain also carried two copies of SpCas9, one under a *MAL62* promoter and

the other under a *GAL*L promoter, allowing SpCas9 to be activated by either maltose or

galactose (16–18). Both promoters are repressed by glucose. Transformed cells were

selected on glucose plates and then re-plated on maltose to induce the maltose-

responsive SpCas9 to generate deletion-carrying *acrIIA4* alleles. Resulting colonies

were then grown on 5-FOA plates to select cells that had deleted *URA3* and thus were

carrying the designed *acrIIA4* deletion alleles.

We sequenced the *acrIIA4* alleles present in the 5-FOA-resistant population by

massively parallel sequencing. We recovered 3,305 distinct programmed deletions

across the three replicates, 88% of the total possible deletions (Fig. 2). Deletions were

recovered across the entire range of sizes.

Next, we determined the ability of the *acrIIA4* deletion alleles to inhibit SpCas9

activity. We generated a plasmid expressing a gRNA that robustly targets the essential

gene *ARB1* (14); usage of this gRNA for CRISPR cutting is lethal. To identify *acrIIA4*

deletion alleles that maintained anti-CRISPR function, we transformed the *ARB1-*

targeting gRNA plasmid into our pool of cells with programmed *acrIIA4* deletions and

induced SpCas9 and *acrIIA4* expression on galactose plates. Approximately 30% as

many colonies survived CRISPR induction compared to glucose plates without CRISPR

expression. We used massively parallel sequencing of the *acrIIA4* genomic locus to

identify the *acrIIA4* alleles present in survivors. Read counts were normalized against

the count of each allele from the uninduced glucose condition (Fig. 3A).

We observed three distinct clusters of AcrIIA4 deletions that maintain function, in the

β1-β2 loop, the β3-α2 loop, and the end of the α3 helix (Fig. 3A, Supplementary Fig. 1).

Given the contacts between the β1-β2 loop and the catalytic site of the RuvC domain,

the loop's tolerance of deletions was notable. The loop is eight amino acids long; we

found that AcrIIA4 retained anti-CRISPR function even when six of these amino acids

were deleted (Fig. 3B). As this comprises the major RuvC-interacting surface, we

propose that RuvC binding is dispensable for AcrIIA4's anti-CRISPR function.

AcrIIA4 makes contacts with the SpCas9 CTD through residues in the β3 strand, α3

helix, and β2-β3, β3-α2, and α2-α3 loops. In CRISPR targeting, arginines Arg1333 and

Arg1335 of the SpCas9 CTD engage the two guanines in the NGG PAM sequence.

Residues 67-70 in the α2-α3 loop and α3 helix of AcrIIA4, which includes three

negatively charged residues, interact with the positively charged arginines (6).

Interestingly, this segment of AcrIIA4 tolerated single amino-acid deletions, but not any

larger deletions (Fig. 3C). We propose that this interaction is required for SpCas9

inhibition and can tolerate the removal of a single negative charge from AcrIIA4, but no

more. Supporting the importance of this interaction, we see that Asn39 in the β2-β3

loop, which also contacts Arg1335, was not dispensable. In contrast, the β3-α2 loop,

which contacts a distal component of the SpCas9 CTD, was a hotspot for tolerated

deletions and could be shortened by up to four amino acids (Fig. 3D). This suggests

that the critical CTD contacts are precisely the ones at the PAM-interacting interface.

AcrIIA4 makes relatively fewer contacts to SpCas9's TOPO domain, which is also

involved in PAM binding. TOPO residues that interact with the PAM are contacted by

the AcrIIA4 residues Asp14 and Asn36 (6), both of which were partially dispensable

(Fig. 3E). We noted that Asn36 is adjacent to Asn35 in the β2-β3 loop, and while each

asparagine was individually partially dispensable, simultaneous deletion of both was not

tolerated. Thus, binding of TOPO by AcrIIA4 appears to be important for AcrIIA4

function, with functional redundancy buffering the loss of individual contacts.

We observed a large number of tolerated deletions towards the end of the C-

terminal helix α3 (Fig. 3E), with up to six terminal residues being dispensable. This

segment does not make any contacts with SpCas9 and is largely separate from the rest

of AcrIIA4. Consistent with the C-terminus being mutable, a C-terminal GFP fusion does

not disrupt anti-CRISPR activity (19). In contrast, deletions of seven or more terminal

residues were not tolerated. These deletions remove Ile80, which contributes to the

hydrophobic core of AcrIIA4 along with Leu6, Ile10, and Phe55. Intriguingly, we

observed that three six-residue deletions encompassing Ile80 retained partial function in

all three replicates: Δ78-83, Δ79-84, and Δ80-85 (Supplementary Fig. 2). These

deletions move Leu86 to position 80, which we propose partially reconstitutes Ile80's

role in AcrIIA4 stability.

We were curious whether the dispensable segments we identified in AcrIIA4 were

ever absent in naturally occurring AcrIIA4 homologs. We identified 124 homologs of

AcrIIA4 through a BLASTp search of the NCBI sequence database (20). Aligning these

to AcrIIA4 revealed that 48 had gaps relative to AcrIIA4, falling into six unique patterns

(Fig. 4A). Strikingly, most observed alignment gaps were found in regions we identified

as dispensable. These included gaps in the β1-β2 and β3-α2 loops and truncations of

the C-terminus. The largest gap was seen in several homologs that had a β1-β2 loop

five amino acids shorter than in AcrIIA4, consistent with our observation that the AcrIIA4

β1-β2 loop could be shortened by up to six amino acids while maintaining anti-CRISPR

function.

One alignment gap was present in a non-dispensable segment in the AcrIIA4

homolog from *Listeria innocua* (NCBI ID WP_185342258.1, hereafter referred to as

AcrIIA4$_{Lin}$), which appeared to have a one-amino acid shortening of the indispensable

C-terminal end of the β2 strand, in addition to a five-amino acid shortening of the

dispensable β1-β2 loop. We generated an Alphafold model of the AcrIIA4$_{Lin}$ protein

structure (Fig. 4B) and found that the β2 strand in the model was five amino acids long,

the same length as in AcrIIA4, while the modeled β1-β2 loop in AcrIIA4$_{Lin}$ was a full six

amino acids shorter than in AcrIIA4, consistent with our observed deletion tolerances.

Discussion

AcrIIA4 is a robust inhibitor of SpCas9. It physically interacts with SpCas9 through

an extensive interface that involves several distinct SpCas9 domains, including domains

involved in PAM recognition (CTD and TOPO) and DNA cleavage (RuvC), though the

importance of each individual interaction to SpCas9 inhibition was unknown. To

elucidate the mechanism of AcrIIA4 inhibition of SpCas9, we comprehensively deleted

segments of AcrIIA4 and assayed their function. We found that the interaction with the

RuvC domain, mediated by the β1-β2 loop of AcrIIA4, is dispensable, as this eight-

amino acid loop could be shortened by up to six amino acids without loss of anti-

CRISPR activity. Our finding that AcrIIA4 does not need to occupy the RuvC active site

to inhibit SpCas9 is consistent with the fact that AcrIIA4 robustly inhibits dCas9 from

binding DNA, which necessarily precedes DNA cleavage (8). Still, it remained possible

that AcrIIA4 binding to the RuvC domain contributed to the binding energy required to

block DNA binding. Based on our findings, binding to Cas9's PAM-interacting domains

is sufficient.

Though the physical interactions between AcrIIA4 and SpCas9 are largely mediated

by the loops between secondary structural elements, we observed that none of the α

helices and β strands of AcrIIA4 were fully dispensable. This likely reflects

intramolecular interactions necessary for AcrIIA4 stability, matching the observation that

evolutionarily observed indels rarely occur in α helices and β strands (21). Consistent

with this hypothesis, we observed that partial deletions of helices α1 and α3 were

tolerated. These helices are at the very start and end of the protein, and the tolerated

deletions were not near the AcrIIA4 core, so deletion of these segments would not be

predicted to disrupt AcrIIA4's structure. Deletion scans of other proteins have similarly

found higher tolerance for deletions at the N- and C-termini of domains (22)..

Interestingly, we found several segments that could not be deleted despite being

composed of smaller dispensable segments, as has been observed previously in other

proteins (23). This could occur through functional redundancy, as we propose for amino

acids 67-70, which has several negatively charged residues and can tolerate single

amino acid deletions, but no further. Alternatively, a segment could have no direct role

in protein function, but could link functional components that need to be a minimum

distance apart. For instance, while multiple deletions of six amino acids were tolerated

in the eight-amino acid β1-β2 loop, deletions of seven amino acids were not;

presumably such deletions disrupt the relative positioning of strands β1 and β2. The

ubiquity of non-additive deletion effects highlights the utility of comprehensively testing

deletions, which can reveal functional redundancy and dispensable segments that could

be missed with a low-throughput approach.

Comprehensive scanning of deletion effects has many applications in addition to

mapping proteins' essential and dispensable segments. It can also be used in genetic

engineering to produce improved or novel protein function, as indels have been shown

to have larger effects on protein function than missense variants (24). Similarly,

deletions are an important source of evolutionary novelty (25, 26), so deletion scanning

is useful to understand evolutionary trajectories. Deletion scanning can also be used in

clinical genetics to characterize potential disease-causing deletion alleles.

Understanding the effects of deletion variants is essential for interpreting the risk of

genetic disease from genome sequences: after single-nucleotide variants, deletions are

the most common type of variant on ClinVar (27), and each individual person is

predicted to harbor approximately 200 in-frame insertions or deletions relative to the

human reference genome (28).

Our strategy for deletion scanning involved chimerizing two copies of *acrIIA4*

following CRISPR cutting between them. A previous study used CRISPR to generate

cuts within a single copy of yeast *SGS1*, which were repaired using repair templates

that directed 20-amino acid deletions across the gene body (29). By cutting between

two copies of our target gene, we did not require PAM sequences close to the regions

being deleted, allowing us to comprehensively characterize deletions of small to large

size. In addition, our strategy uses a constant gRNA, which avoids issues arising from

variable gRNA targeting efficiency. Finally, by concurrently deleting a *URA3* gene

between the target gene copies, we could select for cells carrying deletion alleles.

Deletion scans have also been carried out using non-CRISPR approaches. One

strategy is to use oligonucleotide synthesis technology to directly generate deletion

alleles, rather than to generate repair templates that direct deletions following CRISPR

cutting. As oligonucleotides synthesized at large scale are currently limited to lengths of

300 nt or fewer, to date this approach has been applied to short genes, segments of

genes, or small deletions within larger genes (11, 22, 23, 26). Another strategy is to

introduce restriction sites into the gene of interest, cleave, and then self-anneal to

produce truncated gene products. For deletion scanning methods that use this

framework (24, 30), a challenge is that novel sequences are inserted at the deletion

junction for most or all of the deletion alleles.

An inherent challenge to the concept of deletion scanning is that the number of

potential deletions scales quadratically with the size of the protein, which could

theoretically be impractical for a large gene even when using a high-throughput

approach. We note that oligonucleotide library synthesis currently can produce up to

244,000 sequences in a single order. With our approach, that would allow

comprehensive deletion scans of proteins up to 700 residues, encompassing most

proteins. More importantly, our approach allows specific deletions to be programmed,

such as deletions under a certain size or deletions within predicted domains or

secondary structure elements. Screening select deletions would lead to a linear scaling

with protein length and thus prevent the number of tested deletions from becoming

unmanageable.

For applications other than mapping essential domains, such as determining the

evolutionary or pathogenic potential of genetic variants, it can be interesting to test

insertions as well as deletions (11, 26). Our method could be easily adapted to

additionally generate internal duplicated segments, which are the most common form of

naturally occurring insertion mutations (31), by having repair templates in which the start

point in the second gene copy comes before the end point of the first copy.

Homologous proteins often have divergent functions, and chimeras between

them can map the causative sequence differences. For instance, the yeast GTPases

Sec4 and Ypt1 have different functions in the secretory pathway that were mapped to

differences in loops 2 and 7 (32, 33). Chimeras have also been used to study orthologs

between species, such as the human and macaque homologs of the innate immune

protein TRIM5α, whose differences in HIV restriction were mapped to a loop in the

SPRY domain (34–37). Our method could be readily adapted to generate chimeras

between two different genes, rather than to make deletions. Generating and

characterizing chimeras in high throughput would enable rapid fine-resolution

determination of specific amino acids causing functional differences between homologs.

References

1. M. Jinek, *et al.*, Structures of Cas9 Endonucleases Reveal *RNA*-Mediated

Conformational Activation. *Science* **343**, 1247997 (2014).

2. A. R. Davidson, et al., Anti-CRISPRs: Protein Inhibitors of CRISPR-Cas Systems.

Annu. Rev. Biochem. **89**, 1–24 (2020).

3. J. Lee, et al., Tissue-restricted genome editing in vivo specified by microRNA-

repressible anti-CRISPR proteins. RNA 1421–1431 (2019).

4. C. Li, et al., HDAd5/35++ Adenovirus Vector Expressing Anti-CRISPR Peptides

Decreases CRISPR/Cas9 Toxicity in Human Hematopoietic Stem *Cell*s. *Mol. Ther. -*

Methods Clin. Dev. **9**, 390–401 (2018).

5. B. J. Rauch, et al., Inhibition of CRISPR-Cas9 with Bacteriophage Proteins. Cell **168**,

150-158.e10 (2017).

6. D. Dong, et al., Structural basis of CRISPR–SpyCas9 inhibition by an anti-CRISPR

protein. *Nature* **546**, 436–439 (2017).

7. H. Yang, D. J. Patel, Inhibition Mechanism of an Anti-CRISPR Suppressor AcrIIA4

Targeting SpyCas9. *Mol. Cell* **67**, 117-127.e5 (2017).

8. J. Shin, et al., Disabling Cas9 by an anti-CRISPR DNA mimic. *Sci. Adv.* **3**, e1701620

(2017).

9. I. Kim, et al., Solution structure and dynamics of anti-CRISPR AcrIIA4, the Cas9

inhibitor. *Sci. Rep.* **8**, 3883 (2018).

10. S. Munro, H. R. B. Pelham, Use of peptide tagging to detect proteins expressed

from cloned genes: deletion mapping functional domains of Drosophila hsp70. *The*

EMBO Journal **3**, 3087–3093 (1984).

11. M. Seuma, B. Lehner, B. Bolognesi, An atlas of amyloid aggregation: the impact of

substitutions, insertions, deletions and truncations on amyloid beta fibril nucleation. *Nat.*

Commun. **13**, 7084 (2022).

12. O. Shalem, et al., Genome-Scale CRISPR-Cas9 Knockout Screening in Human

Cells. Science 343, 84–87 (2014).

13. G. M. Findlay, et al., Accurate classification of BRCA1 variants with saturation

genome editing. Nature **562**, 217–222 (2018).

14. M. J. Sadhu, et al., Highly parallel genome variant engineering with CRISPR–Cas9.

Nat. Genet. **50**, 510–514 (2018).

15. J. D. Boeke, F. L. Croute, G. R. Fink, A positive selection for mutants lacking

orotidine-5′-phosphate decarboxylase activity in yeast: 5-fluoro-orotic acid resistance.

Mol. Gen. Genet. MGG **197**, 345–346 (1984).

16. A. W. Gibson, et al., Constitutive Mutations of the Saccharomyces cerevisiae MAL-

Activator Genes MAL23, MAL43, MAL63, and mal64. *Genetics* **146**, 1287–1298 (1997).

17. R. L. Finley, H. Zhang, J. Zhong, C. A. Stanyon, Regulated expression of proteins

in yeast using the MAL61–62 promoter and a mating scheme to increase dynamic

range. Gene **285**, 49–57 (2002).

18. C. A. Weller, et al., Highly complete long-read genomes reveal pangenomic

variation underlying yeast phenotypic diversity. *Genome Res* gr.277515.122 (2023).

https://doi.org/10.**11**01/gr.277515.122.

19. E. M. Basgall, et al., Gene drive inhibition by the anti-CRISPR proteins AcrIIA2 and

AcrIIA4 in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. *Microbiology+* **164**, 464–474 (2018).

20. E. W. Sayers, et al., Database resources of the National Center for Biotechnology

Information. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **52**, D33–D43 (2023).

21. S. Pascarella, P. Argos, Analysis of insertions/deletions in protein structures. *J.*

Mol. Biol. **224**, 461–471 (1992).

22. M. Topolska, A. Beltran, B. Lehner, Deep indel mutagenesis reveals the impact of

insertions and deletions on protein stability and function. *bioRxiv* 2023.10.06.561180

(2023). https://doi.org/10.1101/2023.10.06.561180.

23. C. B. Macdonald, et al., DIMPLE: deep insertion, deletion, and missense mutation

libraries for exploring protein variation in evolution, disease, and biology. *Genome Biol.*

24, 36 (2023).

24. S. Emond, et al., Accessing unexplored regions of sequence space in directed

enzyme evolution via insertion/deletion mutagenesis. Nat. Commun. 11, 3469 (2020).

25. K. R. McCarthy, et al., Recurrent deletions in the SARS-CoV-2 spike glycoprotein

drive antibody escape. Science **371**, 1139–1142 (2021).

26. J. Tenthorey, et al., Indels allow antiviral proteins to evolve functional novelty

inaccessible by missense mutations. (2024).

https://doi.org/10.1101/2024.05.07.592993.

27. M. J. Landrum, et al., ClinVar: improving access to variant interpretations and

supporting evidence. *Nucleic acids Res.* **46**, D1062–D1067 (2017).

28. R. M. Durbin, et al., A map of human genome variation from population-scale

sequencing. Nature **467**, 1061–1073 (2010).

29. X. Guo, et al., High-throughput creation and functional profiling of DNA sequence

variant libraries using CRISPR–Cas9 in yeast. *Nat Biotechnol* **36**, 540–546 (2018).

30. A. Shams, et al., Comprehensive deletion landscape of CRISPR-Cas9 identifies

minimal RNA-guided DNA-binding modules. Nat. Commun. 12, 5664 (2021).

31. S. B. Montgomery, et al., The origin, evolution, and functional impact of short

insertion–deletion variants identified in 179 human genomes. *Genome Res.* **23**, 749–

761 (2013).

32. B. Dunn, T. Stearns, D. Botstein, Specificity domains distinguish the Ras-related

GTPases Ypt1 and Sec4. Nature **362**, 563–565 (1993).

33. P. Brennwald, P. Novick, Interactions of three domains distinguishing the Ras-

related GTP-binding proteins Ypt1 and Sec4. Nature 362, 560–563 (1993).

34. M. Stremlau, M. Perron, S. Welikala, J. Sodroski, Species-Specific Variation in the

B30.2(SPRY) Domain of TRIM5α Determines the Potency of Human Immunodeficiency

Virus Restriction. *J. Virol.* **79**, 3139–3145 (2005).

35. M. W. Yap, S. Nisole, J. P. Stoye, A Single Amino Acid Change in the SPRY

Domain of Human Trim5α Leads to HIV-1 Restriction. *Curr. Biol.* **15**, 73–78 (2005).

36. S. L. Sawyer, L. I. Wu, M. Emerman, H. S. Malik, Positive selection of primate

TRIM5α identifies a critical species-specific retroviral restriction domain. *Proc National

Acad Sci* **102**, 2832–2837 (2005).

37. D. Perez-Caballero, T. Hatziioannou, A. Yang, S. Cowan, P. D. Bieniasz, Human

Tripartite Motif 5α Domains Responsible for Retrovirus Restriction Activity and

Specificity. J. Virol. 79, 8969–8978 (2005).

38. D. M. Becker, V. Lundblad, Introduction of DNA into yeast cells. *Curr. Protoc. Mol.*

Biol. **Chapter 13**, Unit13.7 (2001).

39. D. Mumberg, R. Muller, M. Funk, Regulatable promoters of Saccharomyces

cerevisiae: comparison of transcriptional activity and their use for heterologous

expression. Nucleic Acids Res 22, 5767–5768 (1994).

40. K. A. Curran, et al., Short Synthetic Terminators for Improved Heterologous Gene

Expression in Yeast. *Acs Synth Biol* **4**, 824–832 (2015).

41. M. Valencia, et al., NEJ1 controls non-homologous end joining in Saccharomyces

cerevisiae. Nature **414**, 666–9 (2001).

42. J. Jumper, et al., Highly accurate protein structure prediction with AlphaFold.

Nature **596**, 583–589 (2021).

43. E. C. Meng, et al., UCSF ChimeraX : Tools for structure building and analysis.

Protein Sci. **32**, e4792 (2023).

Methods

Generation of base strains and plasmids

All strains, plasmids, primers, and oligonucleotides are included in Supplementary

tables 1-5.

All plasmids were transformed into NEB 5-alpha Competent *Escherichia coli* cells (New

England Biolabs) and purified using Qiaprep Spin Miniprep Kits or Plasmid Plus Maxi

Kits for plasmid libraries (QIAGEN). All PCR products were purified using QIAquick

PCR Purification Kits or MinElute PCR Purification Kits (QIAGEN). Plasmid and

genomic sequences were verified through Sanger sequencing (Eurofins Genomics,

Louisville, KY, USA). All yeast transformations were done according to standard lithium

acetate transformation procedures (38).

A plasmid carrying the two *acrIIA4* alleles was synthesized by Genewiz (MSp513). The

sequence of the second *acrIIA4* allele matched the sequence used by Basgall, et al.

(19). The sequence of the first *acrIIA4* allele was generated using custom python scripts

in which each codon was selected to share as few bases as possible with the

corresponding codon of the second *acrIIA4* allele. When multiple codons met that

criterion, the codon was randomly selected from the available codons with weights

matching codon usage in the *S. cerevisiae* genome. The first *acrIIA4* allele was

preceded by the *GAL*L promoter (39) and the second was followed by the T_{synth8}

terminator (40). The *acrIIA4* genes were flanked by 120-bp homology arms to the *HO*

locus. This Acr construct was amplified using PfuUltraII fusion HS DNA Polymerase

(Agilent Technologies) with the primers ANx87 and ANx88 and was transformed into

strain MS262 (MSy15), which had *NEJ1* deleted to eliminate non-homologous end-

joining as a repair pathways for DSBs (41) in favor of homology-directed repair

(Supplementary Table 1). To increase transformation efficiency, during the

transformation we directed a double-stranded DNA break at the *HO* locus by co-

transforming the Acr construct with a plasmid constitutively expressing SpCas9 from the

TEF promoter, acquired from Addgene (plasmid #: 162606; designated MSp181 in

Supplementary Table 2), and a PCR construct encoding a gRNA targeting the yeast *HO*

locus. The gRNA construct was generated by amplifying the targeting sequence from

pMS58 (MSp20) with primers ANx84 and ANx85 (Supplementary Table 3). Positive

transformants of the *acrIIA4* construct into the *HO* locus were selected by growth on

plates lacking uracil and leucine (CSM -Ura -Leu; Sunrise Science Products) and

confirmed by Sanger sequencing. A sequence-verified clone, in which MSp181 had

been spontaneously lost, was designated MSy261.

MSy261 was used to perform the first deletion scan replicate experiment, as described

in the section "Creation of acrIIA4 deletion alleles". However, plasmids in the repair-

template plasmid library (whose generation is described in the section "Design of repair

templates") that contained the sequence of codons 26-35 of the first copy of *acrIIA4*

were strongly depleted from the plasmid library for unclear reasons, presumably related

to that sequence posing a challenge either for oligonucleotide synthesis or library

cloning. We thus generated a second strain with these codons re-coded, MSy262,

which was used for the second and third deletion scan replicate experiments

(Supplementary Fig. 3). This was done by amplifying two segments of the *acrIIA4*

construct on MSy261, upstream and downstream of codons 26-35, using Herculase II

Fusion DNA Polymerase (Agilent) and introducing the alternate sequence by including it

in the primers used for amplification (ANx80-83). To make MSy262, the two amplicons

were transformed into MSy14, which carries a galactose-inducible SpCas9 plasmid,

with the *HO*-targeting gRNA described above, and immediately plated onto CSM -Leu -

Ura galactose plates.

Our strategy of introducing deletions into *acrIIA4* involved cutting with SpCas9 between

the *acrIIA4* copies. For that step, we generated a maltose-inducible SpCas9 plasmid to

induce SpCas9 expression while maintaining repression of the galactose-inducible

acrIIA4, to prevent the anti-CRISPR activity of acrIIA4 from inhibiting the generation of

deletions. We inserted a DNA construct containing the *MAL63* transcription factor gene,

MAL61 maltose transporter gene, and *MAL62* promoter sequence, ordered from

Genewiz (MSp514), upstream of the SpCas9 gene on MSp14. We named the resulting

plasmid MSp500. The sequence of the *MAL* genes was taken from the genome

sequence of YJM145 (MSY28) (18). Amplification of the *MAL* locus sequence was done

with KAPA Hi-Fi Hotstart DNA Polymerase (and primers ANx16.5 and 17.5), and

inserted into MSp14 via Gibson assembly (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA, USA)

following a digestion of the plasmid with SpeI-HF (New England Biolabs).

MSy261 was transformed with a plasmid carrying a galactose-inducible SpCas9, p415-

GalL-Cas9-CYC1t (Addgene plasmid #:107922; MSp6) and transformants were

selected on CSM -Ura -Leu glucose plates. One colony was picked and transformed

with MSp500, with transformants selected on CSM -Ura -Leu + clonNAT (100ug/mL)

glucose plates (MSy263). MSy262, already carrying a galactose-inducible SpCas9, was

also transformed with MSp500 and plated on CSM -Ura -Leu + clonNAT (100ug/mL)

glucose plates to produce MSy264.

Design of repair templates

Custom python scripts were used to generate repair template sequences for directing all

possible in-frame deletions within *acrIIA4*. In brief, to generate the repair template for

the deletion from the *m*th to the *n*th codon, we appended the 100 nt up to the *m*th codon

of the first *acrIIA4* allele to the 100 nt after the *n*th codon of the second *acrIIA4* allele.

For deletions close to the start of *acrIIA4*, their repair templates included sequence from

the *GAL*L promoter preceding the first copy, and for deletions close to the end, their

repair templates included the *acrIIA4* terminator and the sequence of the *HO* locus

flanking the insertion site. We included the start codon and stop codon as deletable

codons. We also designed repair templates that generated a clean chimera of the two

acrIIA4 alleles into a single *acrIIA4* without deletion, for 85 repair templates. Once all

sequences were created, 15-nt primer sites were added to the beginning and end of the

strings, making all sequences 230 characters long. Sequences were then ordered as an

oligonucleotide pool through Agilent (Santa Clara, California, USA). This process was

performed once to generate the repair templates used for replicate 1, and then again

with the modified sequence of the first *acrIIA4* allele to generate the repair templates

used for replicates 2 and 3 (Supplementary tables 4 and 5). For the purpose of this

experiment, we proceeded with data analysis of 3,741 sequences, excluding deletions

of the start or stop codons, as well as repair templates that generated clean chimeras.

MSp218 was used as the backbone of the three replicate repair template plasmid pools,

and was generated from pMEL16 (MSp50), a *HIS3* SpCas9 gRNA plasmid acquired

from Jean-Marc Daran (Addgene plasmid #:107922). For cloning in the repair

templates, we engineered EcoRI and BamHI sites downstream of the gRNA gene. In

addition to carrying the repair templates, we designed MSp218 to encode a gRNA

sequence targeting a sequence inserted between the two *acrIIA4* alleles,

ACGTATCGGTACATGCGCAT. This sequence was picked to have equal

representation of each of the four bases, as well as to have at least six mismatches to

any other SpCas9 target sites in the yeast genome.

We amplified the repair template oligonucleotide pools using primers that additionally

added 12 nt of random DNA on each end to serve as barcodes as well as homology

arms for Gibson assembly (ANx23 and 24); PCR was performed with PfuUltra II Fusion

High-fidelity DNA Polymerase for 15 cycles. MSp218 was double digested using EcoRI-

HF and BamHI-HF (New England Biolabs) on the cloning site, and the oligo amplicons

were inserted via Gibson assembly. 50uL of Gibson assembly were transformed into

1000uL of 5-alpha competent *E. coli* cells for each replicate (New England Biolabs).

Replicate 1 produced 100,000 colonies, Replicate 2 produced 100,000 colonies, and

Replicate 3 produced 80,000 colonies. Colonies were washed off plates and plasmid

libraries were isolated with the Qiagen Plasmid Plus Maxi kit.

Creation of *acrIIA4* deletion alleles

The repair template plasmid pools were transformed en masse (2.05 µg of Replicate 1;

3.5 µg of Replicates 2 and 3) into approximately 10^9 cells of MSy263 or MSy264 as

appropriate, and plated on CSM -Ura -Leu -His +clonNAT glucose plates. Replicate 1

produced 260,000 colonies, Replicate 2 produced 300,000 colonies, and Replicate 3

produced 250,000 colonies. Cells were then harvested by washing the plate with

glucose -H,L,U +clonNAT liquid media, and a 100-mL culture of these cells was then

started at an optical density (OD_{600}) of 0.002 using the same media. The culture was left

to grow overnight at 30ºC until it reached an OD_{600} of 1. Approximately 2×10^9 cells

were then plated over multiple CSM Maltose -His -Leu +cloNAT plates to induce

SpCas9 from MSp500, resulting in 77,000 colonies for Replicate 1, 66,000 colonies for

Replicate 2, and 80,000 colonies for Replicate 3. Cells were harvested by washing

plates with YPD, and approximately 4×10^7 cells were replated onto 5-fluoroorotic acid

(5-FOA) -Leu -His plates. On 5-FOA plates, Replicate 1 produced 1.6×10^6 colonies,

Replicate 2 produced 1×10^6 colonies, and Replicate 3 produced 1×10^6 colonies.

Characterization of *acrIIA4* deletion allele function

We generated a plasmid carrying a gRNA that directs CRISPR cleavage of the essential

gene *ARB1* by inserting an *ARB1*-targeting gRNA sequence into pLK88 (MSp11), a

URA3 high-copy plasmid from Leonid Kruglyak. An oligonucleotide containing the gRNA

sequence was ordered from Integrated DNA Technologies (ANx86) and inserted by

Gibson assembly into MSp11 following a double digestion with SphI-HF and BstEII-HF

(New England Biolabs). This plasmid was named MSp501.

Yeast cells with *acrIIA4* deletion alleles were washed off 5-FOA plates using CSM -Leu

-His glucose liquid media. A 50-mL culture was started at OD_{600} of 0.01 using the same

liquid media, and it was left to grow overnight at 30ºC. Once grown overnight, the

culture was used to start a new culture in YPD starting at OD_{600} of 0.125, allowed to

double twice, and then transformed with MSp501. In Replicate 1, 1.5 µg of MSp501 was

transformed into approximately 10^9 cells; in Replicates 2 and 3, 2 µg were transformed

into approximately 10^9 cells. Transformations were plated on CSM -Leu -His -Ura

glucose plates, producing 300,000 colonies in Replicate 1, 600,000 colonies in

Replicate 2, and 800,000 colonies in Replicate 3. Plates were then scraped once more

and 1×10^6 cells were plated on CSM -Leu -His -Ura galactose plates to simultaneously

induce the *acrIIA4* deletion alleles and SpCas9 to target *ARB1*. An equal number of

cells were plated on CSM -Leu -His -Ura glucose plates as controls. On glucose,

Replicate 1 produced 1×10^6 colonies, Replicate 2 produced 900,000 colonies, and

Replicate 3 produced 1×10^6 colonies. On galactose, Replicate 1 produced 300,000

colonies, Replicate 2 produced 280,000 colonies, and Replicate 3 produced 370,000

colonies.

Data collection and sequencing

Yeast genomic DNA was extracted from 4×10^7 cells (per library) harvested off of the 5-

FOA plates, galactose plates, and final glucose plates using the DNeasy Blood & Tissue

Kit (QIAGEN). We then amplified the chimeric *acrIIA4* locus from the genomic DNA,

using primers containing overhangs for attaching Illumina adapters. The forward primers

for the genomic DNA annealed upstream of the first *acrIIA4* allele and the reverse

primers annealed downstream of the second allele, such that they would amplify all

chimeric *acrIIA4* alleles. Additionally, yeast plasmid DNA was extracted from 5×10^7 cells

harvested off of galactose and final glucose plates of replicates 2 and 3 using Qiaprep

Spin Miniprep Kit (QIAGEN). We amplified the 200-bp repair template region from the

initial *E. coli* plasmid pools of replicates 1 and 2 and the yeast plasmid extractions from

replicates 2 and 3. Genomic primers (ANx25-34) and plasmid primers (ANx35-44) were

staggered to maintain sequence diversity on the Illumina flow cell. All PCRs were

performed using KAPA HiFi Hotstart ReadyMix DNA Polymerase for 20 cycles. A

second PCR was performed to attach the Nextera adapter index primers using KAPA

HiFi Hotstart ReadyMix DNA Polymerase for 10 cycles, after which samples were

prepared for sequencing according to Illumina Miseq sequencing protocols.

For all three replicates, we sequenced the *acrIIA4* alleles from genomic DNA of cells

isolated from glucose or galactose following introduction of the *ARB1*-targeting gRNA,

and from cells isolated after the 5-FOA selection. For Replicates 1 and 2, we

additionally sequenced the repair templates from plasmid DNA following cloning of the

repair template libraries, while for Replicates 2 and 3 we sequenced the repair

templates from yeast plasmid DNA following selection on galactose and glucose. Each

of these pools were sequenced as unique Illumina libraries using Illumina Miseq 500

cycle V2 kits. In total, four Miseq runs were performed: once for sequencing the

genomic reads and *E. coli* plasmid pool of replicate 1, once for sequencing the *E. coli*

plasmid pool of replicate 2, and once for sequencing the genomic and plasmid reads of

replicates 2 and 3.

Data analysis

PEAR software (Version 0.9.8) was used to process and align forward and reverse

Miseq reads. Custom python and bash scripts were used to match Miseq sequencing

reads of the genomic and plasmid DNA amplicons to the possible *acrIIA4* deletion

alleles and generate read counts of perfectly matched reads to each deletion in each

library. For the individual glucose and galactose genomic libraries, counts were first

normalized by dividing the number of reads corresponding to a specific deletion by the

total amount of reads in that library. We then divided all galactose values by their

corresponding glucose value to calculate the enrichment of *acrIIA4* deletions in cells

performing a lethal CRISPR edit. To merge the data from the three replicates for display

in Fig. 3, we took the median of the galactose/glucose read count values for a given

deletion across the replicates, in order to minimize the effects of escaper mutants that

avoided SpCas9 lethality through means other than anti-CRISPR activity. A deletion

was only counted as observed in a given replicate if it had at least five reads in glucose.

If a deletion was not observed in one replicate, the lower of the remaining two values

was taken. If there were no counts recorded for a given deletion in all three replicates, it

was represented by a blank pixel on the heat map. For comparison, we also took the

mean of the galactose/glucose read count values across replicates, and found that the

dispensability of each analyzed domain was unaffected (Supplementary Fig. 4). We

also found that repair templates were enriched following CRISPR induction that

generated AcrIIA4 deletions we found to maintain anti-CRISPR function (Supplementary

Fig. 5). Custom R scripts were used to generate heatmaps using R package ggplot2

(Version 4.2.2).

To determine the statistical significance of the domains that appeared to be dispensable

(β1-β2 loop, β3-α2 loop, and the end of the α3 helix), we calculated the mean of the

functional scores in the smallest triangular area encompassing the entirety of each

domain, for each replicate. We then acquired the mean of an equal number of randomly

selected data points as were contained in each triangular area and repeated this 1000

times (Supplementary Fig. 1) for comparison by the Monte Carlo method.

To find naturally occurring AcrIIA4 homologs with deletions relative to the canonical

AcrIIA4, we performed a BLASTp search on the NCBI BLASTp server using standard

parameters. We used custom R scripts to identify homologs with deletions, and

manually verified that the deletions did not result from incomplete sequencing.

All statistical measurements and visualizations were done through RStudio (Version

4.2.2) and ggplot2 (Version 3.4.3). Crystal structure visualizations were generated with

the PyMOL molecular visualization system, Version 2.5.0 and Version 3.0.0 Open-

Source, Schrödinger, LLC. Alphafold was used to generate the models of AcrIIA4

homologs (42) through ChimeraX (43).

Data Availability

● Python and R scripts:

620   https://github.com/annetteig/AcrIIA4-Functional-Domains

Acknowledgements

We thank Bryan Thurtle-Schmidt, Elena Zehr, Simone Giovanetti, and all other

members of the Sadhu lab for helpful discussion. We thank Jean-Marc Daran, Lars

Steinmetz, and Leonid Kruglyak for strains and plasmids. This work was supported by

the Intramural Research Program of the National Human Genome Research Institute,

NIH (1ZIAHG200401).

Author contributions

630 A.B.I., C.A.W., and M.J.S. designed research; A.B.I. performed formal analysis; A.B.I.

631 performed investigation; A.B.I., C.A.W., and M.J.S. developed methodology; C.A.W.

632 and M.J.S. performed supervision; A.B.I. and M.J.S. prepared visualizations; and A.B.I.

633 and M.J.S. wrote the paper. All authors read and revised the paper.

Disclosure and competing interest statement

636 The authors declare no competing interests.

Figure 1. Comprehensive generation of in-frame deletions in AcrIIA4, an inhibitor of

SpCas9. (A) Structure of AcrIIA4 bound to SpCas9 (PDB 5VW1) (7). AcrIIA4 (cyan)

binds SpCas9's CTD (green), TOPO (lavender), and RuvC (pink) domains. The inset

shows the AcrIIA4-RuvC binding interface, which is largely obscured in the larger view

by CTD. (B) Strategy for generating all possible in-frame deletions in AcrIIA4 in yeast.

CRISPR cleavage using a constant gRNA is followed by repair directed by one of 3,741

deletion-generating repair templates.

647 **Figure 2.** High-throughput sequencing of AcrIIA4 alleles following deletion introduction

648 identified 87% of the possible in-frame deletions, spanning the range of possible

649 deletion sizes.

Figure 3. Functional characterization of AcrIIA4 deletion alleles. (A) Functionality of

AcrIIA4 deletion alleles, determined by their read counts in CRISPR$_{ON}$ conditions

normalized against CRISPR$_{OFF}$ read counts. Deletions are colored by their median

value across three replicate experiments to minimize the effects of outlier escaper

mutants; alleles only present in two replicates are represented by the lower of the two

values. Residues in the AcrIIA4 crystal structure (right) are colored by the maximum

functionality of deletions encompassing that residue (six-residue deletions or shorter).

(B-E) Dashed boxes demarcate the largest tolerated AcrIIA4 deletion in the view. (B)

Large dispensable regions within the RuvC-interacting β1-β2 loop. (C) AcrIIA4 residues

67-70, which interact with Arg1333 and Arg1335, are tolerant of single amino acid

deletions. Asn39, which interacts with Arg1335, is not dispensable. (D) Large

dispensable regions within the CTD-interacting β3-α2 loop. (E) Asp14 and Asn36,

TOPO-interacting residues, are partially dispensable. The end of the C-terminal helix α3

is dispensable; note that the final two amino acids are not resolved in the crystal

structure but were also dispensable.

Figure 4. Deletions in naturally observed homologs of AcrIIA4 occur in experimentally

determined dispensable segments. (A) Alignment of six AcrIIA4 homologs representing

the identified deletion patterns. Yellow dashes signify deletions relative to AcrIIA4, while

purple triangles demarcate the positions of insertions. The positions of select segments

identified as dispensable in Fig. 3 are illustrated with green lines above the AcrIIA4

sequence. From top to bottom, the AcrIIA4 homolog NCBI IDs and source are

EAD0751510.1 isolated from *L. monocytogenes*; MBC1462049.1 from *L. welshimeri*,

WP_185587529.1 from *L. cossartiae*, WP_185342258.1 from *L. innocua*,

YP_010843666.1 from phage WIL-1, and YP_009045111.1 from phage LP-114. (B) The

Alphafold-predicted structure of AcrIIA4_Lin has a full-length β2 strand.

678