A Cas12a Toolbox for Rapid and Flexible

Group B *Streptococcus* Genomic Editing and CRISPRi

Hillebrand GH[1], Carlin SC[2], Giacobe EL[1], Stephenson HA[3], Collins J[4], Hooven TA[1,2,5,*]

Affiliations:

1. Program in Microbiology and Immunology, University of Pittsburgh School of

Medicine, Pittsburgh PA, USA

2. Department of Pediatrics, Division of Newborn Medicine, University of Pittsburgh

School of Medicine, Pittsburgh PA, USA

3. Dietrich School of Arts and Sciences, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh PA, USA

4. Department of Microbiology and Immunology, School of Medicine, University of

Louisville, Louisville KY, USA

5. RK Mellon Institute for Pediatric Research, Pittsburgh PA, USA

* Corresponding author:

Children's Hospital of Pittsburgh

Rangos Research Building

4401 Penn Ave., RRB #8128

Pittsburgh, PA 15224

thomas.hooven@chp.edu

Keywords: Group B *Streptococcus*, genome editing, Cas12a, CRISPRi

Abstract

Streptococcus agalactiae (group B *Streptococcus*; GBS) is a leading cause of neonatal sepsis and meningitis. Despite advances in molecular microbiology, GBS genome engineering remains laborious due to inefficient mutagenesis protocols. Here, we report a versatile and rapid Cas12a-based toolkit for GBS genetic manipulation. We developed two shuttle plasmids—pGBSedit for genome editing and pGBScrispri for inducible CRISPR interference—derived from an *Enterococcus faecium* system and optimized for GBS. Using these tools, we achieved targeted gene insertions, markerless deletions, and efficient, template-free mutagenesis via alternative end-joining repair. Furthermore, a catalytically inactive dCas12a variant enabled inducible gene silencing, with strand-specific targeting effects. The system demonstrated broad applicability across multiple GBS strains and minimal off-target activity, as confirmed by whole-genome sequencing. This Cas12a-based platform offers a rapid, flexible, and scalable approach to genetic studies in GBS, facilitating functional genomics and accelerating pathogenesis research.

Background:

Streptococcus agalactiae (group B *Streptococcus*; GBS) is a cause of severe infections, particularly among perinatal populations: pregnant women, newborns, and infants[1,2]. Genetic research is key to the development of GBS vaccines and targeted therapeutics[3–5].

Currently, most protocols for GBS mutagenesis are based on temperature-dependent shuttle plasmids[6,7]. The process for using a temperature-sensitive mutagenesis plasmid begins with recombinant insertion of an editing cassette with flanking GBS homologous sequences. After transformation into GBS, targeted plasmid integration into the circular chromosome can be promoted by transitioning the culture to a temperature that restricts extrachromosomal plasmid replication[6,8]. In a subsequent self-excision step, the targeted region of the chromosome undergoes a second recombination event in which the native sequence is replaced by the mutagenesis cassette originally introduced on the plasmid[7].

While temperature-sensitive plasmids have been used to generate many GBS mutants, successful use of these techniques remains time-consuming and laborious. One drawback is that—to propagate the mutagenesis plasmid during the initial cloning and transformant outgrowth steps—the cultures must be maintained at low temperature (usually 28°C), which slows bacterial growth and prolongs the experimental timeframe. Another problem is that the multiple passaging and outgrowth steps create opportunities for unintended recombination and spontaneous mutation to occur. The result is that, even when using a counterselection-optimized mutagenesis plasmid, it can take weeks or

months to create a single targeted GBS mutation. When unexpected problems arise, often

the only remedy is to return to the first step of the process, which delays progress.

Mutagenesis approaches based on the activity of clustered regularly interspaced

short palindromic repeats and CRISPR-associated protein (CRISPR/Cas) have

revolutionized genetic and molecular biology research[9–11]. Multiple CRISPR/Cas system

variants evolved in bacteria as defense mechanisms against exogenous, bacteriophage-

encoded DNA[12,13]. Bioengineered CRISPR/Cas systems have become useful as easily

programmable, targeted molecular effectors of numerous experimental functions

including flexible genome editing[14].

Techniques for using CRISPR/Cas for bacterial genome editing have proven

effective[15–18]. However, these efforts can be complicated by the presence of one or more

native CRISPR/Cas system encoded on the genome of the study species. In 2023, we

introduced a system for using a catalytically inactive dCas9 variant, encoded on the

chromosome of bioengineered mutant GBS strains, to downregulate gene expression

through CRISPR interference (CRISPRi)[19]. We also made multiple unreported, unsuccessful

efforts to use the native GBS CRISPR/Cas system to drive an effective genome editing

approach.

An alternative approach to bacterial genome editing is through introduction of non-

native bioengineered CRISPR/Cas systems. Cas12a (also referred to as Cpf1) is a type V-A

endonuclease found in class 2 CRISPR/Cas systems. Cas12a accepts a smaller guide RNA

(gRNA) than Cas9, and unlike the latter, Cas12a gRNA does not require presence of a trans-

activating CRISPR RNA (tracrRNA) for programmable targeting of specific DNA

sequences[18,20–23]. This allows for smaller, simpler plasmid-based platforms for Cas12a

introduction into new experimental systems. Cas12a requires a T-rich protospacer-

adjacent motif (PAM) to cleave a target sequence, which makes it an appealing choice for

use in low-GC organisms such as GBS[21].

Recent successful development of a Cas12a-based system for genome editing in

Enterococcus faecalis prompted us to examine its potential use in GBS[24]. Here we report

development, testing, and optimization of a single-plasmid Cas12a-based suite of GBS

genetic tools. We have used our Cas12a system for allelic exchange mutagenesis,

alternative end-joining mutagenesis, and targeted CRISPRi gene knockdown using a

catalytically deactivated Cas12a (dCas12a) variant. Our strategy is efficient. Using it, we

have made numerous mutants in an approximately one-week timeframe. Another

advantage over other GBS genetic tools (such as our dCas9-based CRISPRi technique) is

that it can be used across different GBS strain lineages with no requirement for preceding

alterations to the native chromosome. In summary, we find that using Cas12a for site-

directed GBS mutagenesis and genetic expression modulation is a significant improvement

over previously described techniques.

Results

Chromosomal insertion of an eGFP expression cassette using Cas12a and

homology-directed repair. **Figure 1** diagrams the design and potential uses of the two

plasmids that underpin our suite of Cas12a-based GBS genetic tools. pGBSedit is designed

for genome editing, while pGBScrispri is for CRISPRi. Both plasmids are modified versions

of the Cas12a-based shuttle plasmid pJC005, which was previously developed for *E.*

faecium genetic modification[24]. pGBSedit and pGBScrispri both encode conserved gram-

negative and gram-positive origins of replication so that CRISPR RNA (crRNA) and

homology arm cloning can be performed in *Escherichia coli* followed by electroporation

transformation of purified plasmid into GBS.

pGBSedit encodes WT *Acidaminococcus* Cas12a whereas pGBScrispri encodes a

modified, catalytically inactive (E993A) dCas12a that can be used for inducible, targeted

gene repression. In both versions of the plasmid, the *cas12a/dcas12a* gene is downstream

of a $P_{xyl/tet}$ inducible promoter bioengineered to maximize the dynamic range in response to

its anhydrotetracycline (aTC) inducer, with minimal expression in the uninduced state and

strong expression upon aTC exposure[25]. TetR, the promoter's repressor, is constitutively

expressed on the plasmid.

The crRNA cassette is identical in pGBSedit and pGBScripsri. Driven by a

constitutive P3 small RNA-optimized promoter, the crRNA region harbors a pair of apposed

Esp3I restriction enzyme cut sites that, when digested, yield incompatible sticky ends into

which a custom dsDNA spacer sequence be ligated to encode a functional crRNA-bearing

gRNA.

Once an active crRNA is cloned into place, with genomic target site

complementarity adjacent to a Cas12a PAM, aTC induction of WT *cas12a* from pGBSedit

leads to reliable selection against all GBS cells bearing the target sequence-PAM

combination. The only viable CFU are those that escaped selection by mutation of the

target site.

One experimentally useful mechanism of chromosomal repair is homologous

recombination with an editing template that can be cloned onto the pGBSedit plasmid at a

XhoI restriction enzyme recognition site downstream of the crRNA cassette. To

demonstrate the effectiveness of this approach, we created an editing template in which

the *eGFP* gene and a P23 constitutive promoter is flanked by approximately 500-nt

homology arms that direct it to an intergenic region conserved in CNCTC 10/84 and A909

GBS strains.

After cloning this editing template into pGBSedit, along with a targeting crRNA

directed to the intended genomic insertion site (generating pGBSedit:eGFP1, **Fig. 2A**), we

transformed WT CNCTC 10/84 and A909 with the targeting plasmid. In the uninduced state

without aTC, a liquid culture of the transformed GBS strain grew as an unselected lawn on

solid agar media (**Fig. 2B-C, left side**). However, when exposed to aTC added atop the agar

media, there is dramatic and reliable selection against the WT background that comprises

most of the lawn (**Fig. 2B-C, right side**). The only colonies that grew from the induced

CNCTC A909+pGBSedit:eGFP1 and 10/84+pGBSedit:eGFP1 populations expressed eGFP

genotypically (**Fig. 2D-E**) and phenotypically (**Fig. 2F-G**).

Markerless gene deletion using Cas12a homology-directed repair. An anticipated

use of the Cas12a tools in GBS is markerless gene (or other genomic region) deletion. To

demonstrate feasibility of this application and to quantify various possible Cas12a

selection endpoints, we created pGBSedit:Δ*covR1* to create a markerless deletion of the

covR gene. CovR is part of the two-component signaling system that regulates numerous

GBS genes[26,27] , including the *cyl* operon responsible for the biosynthetic pathway of β-

hemolysin/cytolysin (βHC), a pigmented, hemolytic GBS toxin[28,29]. We chose this target

gene because its deletion leads to *cyl* de-repression and an easily assayed

hyperpigmented, hyperhemolytic phenotype[30].

pGBSedit:Δ*covR1* has an anti-*covR* targeting crRNA directed to the target sequence

next to the 3'-TTTC PAM at nucleotide position 436 in the *covR* gene. In the pGBSedit *XhoI*

site, we cloned an approximately 1000-bp editing template composed of fused *CovR*

upstream and downstream homology arms (**Fig. 3A**).

After transformation of purified pGBSedit:Δ*covR1* into WT A909, we performed 14

independent aTC selection experiments during which we quantified the unselected

background CFU concentration and the aTC selection output. The mean rate of selection

escape across our 14 biological replicates was 1.1×10^{-4} (range 1×10^{-5} – 3.5×10^{-4}, **Fig.**

3B). We performed colony PCR on colonies from 8 independent biological replicates of the

transformation step. Among the 55 PCR reactions that generated an electrophoresis gel

band, 15 (27%) were of the expected size for the in-frame gene deletion, while the

remaining were consistent with wild type (**Fig. 3C**). Inspection of the 15 suspected

knockouts showed that all had the expected hyperpigmented appearance when grown in

liquid culture (**Fig. 3D**). To confirm that the knockout strain was hyperhemolytic, we

performed three biological replicates of hemolysis assays with one of the genotypic

knockouts from our experiment, which confirmed the expected phenotype (**Fig. 3E**).

CRISPR/Cas12a GBS mutagenesis by recombinant free end repair. To examine

whether Cas12a-mediated mutations at the genomic target site occur in the absence of

homologous recombination with an editing cassette, we generated *covR* and *eGFP*

targeting versions of pGBSedit without homology-based editing templates.

pGBSedit:*covR2* and pGBSedit:*eGFP2* target the *covR* and *eGFP* coding sequences,

respectively; pGBSedit:P23 targets the P23 promoter upstream of *eGFP* (**Fig. 4A-B**). We

transformed WT A909 with pGBSedit:*covR2* and A909 with chromosomal eGFP (A909eGFP)

with pGBSedit:*eGFP2* or pGBSedit:P23. After selection with aTC, we examined the surviving

colonies for phenotypic changes, noting that the majority of the WT A909+pGBSedit:*covR2*

colonies were hyperpigmented and hyperhemolytic and the A909eGFP+pGBSedit:*eGFP2*

and A909eGFP+pGBSedit:P23 colonies were not fluorescent. We performed colony PCR of

the genomic regions flanking the three Cas12a target sites, then Sanger sequenced the

resulting bands. This analysis identified two genomic deletions surrounding the Cas12a

targeted sites in the *covR* targeted colonies (**Fig. 4C**). One deletion was 2 bp in size and the

other was 60 bp. Sanger sequencing revealed one genomic deletion each for the P23

promoter and *eGFP* targeted strains (**Figs. 4D**). Predictably, mutations that delete

significant portions of the P23 promoter and coding sequence frameshift mutations lead to

loss of gene function in phenotypic testing (**Fig 4E-F**).

While the mutations that emerge from this template-less CRISPR editing approach

are unpredictably sized, we find that the speed and ease with which they can be generated

make this an attractive protocol for rapid creation of mutants in regions of interest. In our

benchmarking experiments, the full pipeline of crRNA cloning, GBS transformation and aTC

selection, and PCR/Sanger sequence confirmation could all be completed in a week.

Promising genomic changes made through this approach can then be more rigorously

verified by markerless deletion or allelic exchange with an editing template.

Whole-genome sequencing of Cas12a-edited GBS genomes does not indicate

substantial off-target activity. A persistent concern with CRISPR-based genomic editing is

the potential for off-target mutagenesis. Cas12 editing systems has been shown to have

promiscuous nickase activity[31] that could drive higher than baseline rates of mutation if

erroneous repair mechanisms were widely activated. To investigate this possibility, we

performed Illumina whole-genome sequencing of mutant strains recovered and tested in

the above experiments. After unbiased *de novo* alignment and contig scaffolding against a

reference GBS genome, we identified between 2 and 9 SNPs across our sequenced mutant

strain genomes. Additionally, a prophage resident in the A909 genome was observed to

have excised in one of our sequenced strains, which we have encountered in previous

studies unrelated to Cas12a mutagenesis[19]. Given estimated secular mutation rates in GBS

of approximately 10^{-9} mutations per bp per generation[32–35], or approximately 0.002

mutations per 2M-bp genome per generation, and roughly 20 generations per laboratory

outgrowth, 2-9 fixed SNPs in a strain that is 5-10 outgrowth steps from its progenitor roughly

matches expectations, and does not indicate widespread or biased off-site mutagenesis

activity by Cas12a.

Inducible gene silencing with dCas12a. To explore the potential of using dCas12a as

a tool for inducible gene silencing, we used crRNA targeting βHC biosynthetic enzymes

encoded by the *cyl* operon and crRNA targeting *covR* (**Fig. 5A**). Previous studies of

dCas12a-based gene silencing have demonstrated strand bias in which crRNA targeting

the template strand of the gene have a stronger silencing effect than crRNA targeting the

non-template strand[36]. This is the opposite of dCas9 gene silencing, which works best

when the non-template strand is targeted by the guide RNA (dCas9 template strand

targeting can actually increase gene expression in some cases)[19,37]. To examine this aspect

in our system, we used both template and non-template targeting crRNA.

We transformed CNCTC 10/84 with pGBScrispri:*cylx42* (template targeting) and

pGBScrispri:*cylx143* (non-template targeting). CNCTC 10/84 is a naturally

hyperpigmented/hyperhemolytic GBS strain, due to a SNP in the *covR* promoter that

results in constitutively low expression[38], so suppressing *cyl* in this background is expected

to reduce pigmentation and cytotoxicity. By qRT-PCR (**Fig. 5B**) and *in vitro* hemolysis assays

(**Fig. 5C**), we observed *cyl* downregulation in the presence of the aTC inducer and a

targeting crRNA. Addition of aTC without a targeting protospacer was noted to cause a

small but consistent upregulation of *cyl* expression, both by qRT-PCR and phenotypic

assay. As previously described, the template strand targeting pGBScrispri:*cylx42* plasmid

led to greater gene repression than the non-template targeting pGBScrispri:*cylx143* variant.

Silencing *covR* in A909, which is not a naturally hyperhemolytic strain, is expected to

cause *cyl* de-repression (**Fig. 5D**) and overexpression of the βHC toxin. Again, this expected

result was observed by qRT-PCR (**Fig. 5E**) and hemolysis assays (**Fig. 5F**), only in the

presence of the aTC inducer. (In contrast to CNCTC 10/84, aTC did not measurably increase

βHC expression in A909 when no *covR* targeting crRNA present, see **Fig. 5F** leftmost two

columns). Together, these results demonstrate the utility of inducible dCas12a as a rapid

and reliable tool for targeted gene expression knockdown in GBS.

Discussion

We have described a suite of Cas12a-based molecular tools to facilitate genetic

experiments in GBS. While Cas9-based platforms have dominated the first decade of

widespread CRISPR/Cas mediated biology, other Cas variants have been found to be

superior in some circumstances. The type V-A Cas12a enzyme, variants of which were first

characterized in *Acidaminococcus* spp. and *Lachnospiraceae* spp., generates staggered

DNA cleavage ends 18 nt (on the crRNA homologous strand) and 23 nt (on the crRNA

complementary strand) from the PAM[21]. This is different from Cas9, which generates blunt-

end double-stranded DNA cleavage[12]. Also distinct from Cas9 are the location and

sequence requirements of the Cas12a PAM. Whereas Cas9 uses a 5' PAM, which in most

Streptococci has a 5'-NGG sequence requirement, Cas12a recognizes 3'-TTTV upstream of

the target sequence.

Two major advantages of Cas12a-based technology for altering the GBS genome or

gene expression are that 1) the necessary Cas12a molecular components can be encoded

on a smaller plasmid than Cas9-based systems, making the cloning and GBS

transformation steps more likely to succeed; 2) because of significant structural

differences between Cas12a and Cas9, the native GBS CRISPR/Cas9 system has no

crosstalk with exogenously introduced Cas12a molecules. Leveraging these two important

advantages has allowed us to develop a set of efficient, inexpensive tools for rapid GBS

genetic experimentation. The resources described here should allow investigators to

choose from several complementary approaches for GBS chromosomal manipulation.

The dCas12a-based CRISPRi system is effective for inducible targeted gene

knockdown, as demonstrated by our successful downregulation of the *cyl* operon and the

covR gene that encodes a key transcriptional regulator of *cyl* and its expression of the

hemolytic toxin β/HC. In experiments with our recently published dCas9-based CRISPRi

system, we have shown that CRISPRi efficacy is variable[19]. Targeting dCas9 to the 5' end of

a protein-coding gene generally has a greater knockdown effect than targeting closer to the

3' gene terminus, but even different protospacers directing dCas9 to the first half of a

protein coding sequence can cause variable decreases in gene expression. We expect

similar findings with dCas12a-based CRISPRi and recommend that—whenever possible—

researchers examining gene function with dCas12a employ multiple different protospacers

targeting their gene of interest to boost the odds of maximizing the knockdown effect with

one of them.

The capabilities around direct chromosomal mutagenesis afforded by our system

open new possibilities in terms of speed and ease of generating new genetic variants. The

protocol for using a crRNA-only plasmid construct to generate variable end-joining

mutations at the target site can be completed in a week, which is a significant advance

over temperature-based plasmid selection/counter-selection systems. The recombinant

DNA mechanism underlying this end-joining mutagenesis phenomenon is not fully clear.

CRISPR/Cas-based genome editing in eukaryotic cells can make use of non-homologous

end-joining (NHEJ) mechanisms, but the enzymatic systems responsible for NHEJ are not

present in bacteria. Mechanistically simpler NHEJ processes, which depend on ATP-

dependent ligase-D and Ku enzymes, exist in *Mycobacteria* and *Bacillus* species, but are

not encoded by GBS[39–41].

A different bacterial double-stranded break repair pathway, known as alternative

end-joining (A-EJ) appears more likely to be functioning in the repair-driven mutagenesis we

observe in GBS following chromosomal Cas12a targeting[42,43]. A-EJ is a process of

microhomology-based DNA recombination. First described in *E. coli*, A-EJ of bacterial

chromosomal breaks is partially dependent on the RecBCD complex driving free end

degradation, leading eventually to exposure of compatible microhomologous sequences

(approximately 3-nt on average) that drive initial re-synapsis of apposing ends, followed by

gap repair. Because of the initial bidirectional free end degradation that underpins A-EJ, the

mutations left behind in the process reveal short or long sequence deletions eventually

resolved by stochastic microhomology-driven reannealing of the two free ends. Small

single-stranded gaps left over after microhomology synapsis are suspected to be repaired

by the essential enzyme LigA, followed by resolution of ssDNA flaps by 3' exonucleases or

SbcCD[44]. Because targeted Cas12a-initiated A-EJ creates variable, often frameshifted

chromosomal deletions, it can be harnessed as a tool for bioengineering experimental

mutations in GBS as we have shown here. A predicted mechanism for GBS A-EJ is

diagrammed in **Supplemental Fig. S1**.

Cas12a selection against WT chromosomal sequences can also be used to screen

for allelic exchange events generated by homology-driven recombination with an editing

template cloned into the same pGBSedit plasmid that carries the Cas12a and gRNA coding

sequences. This approach mirrors widely used CRISPR/Cas genome editing strategies that

have been effectively harnessed for studies on organisms across the tree of life. We have

successfully used Cas12a allelic exchange mutagenesis to replace genes with antibiotic

resistance markers, generate markerless gene deletions and SNPs, and insert new

sequences at specific sites on the chromosome.

This work highlights the value of flexible tool design when working in genetically

diverse species like GBS. The pGBSedit and pGBScrispri plasmids were constructed with

modular components that facilitate rapid adaptation to different experimental aims,

whether targeting chromosomal loci for allelic exchange or downregulating gene

expression through inducible repression. Because these tools do not rely on prior genomic

alterations, they are well-suited to applications across strain backgrounds and

experimental conditions.

Although this system streamlines many aspects of mutagenesis and gene regulation

in GBS, certain limitations remain. As with other CRISPR-based systems, off-target effects

cannot be entirely ruled out. Our tetracycline-inducible Cas12a system allows suppression

of the enzyme until a temporary exposure drives selection against the target (wild type)

genetic sequence, limiting the duration of susceptibility to Cas12a off-target effects.

Accordingly, our whole-genome sequencing results for the mutants we generated in this

study did not suggest indiscriminate mutagenesis from widespread Cas12a nickase

activity. However, the possibility of unintended mutations remains; whole-genome

sequencing or complementary genetic controls are therefore advisable when feasible. In

addition, while the ease of using end-joining mutagenesis is appealing, its reliance on

stochastic microhomology limits its precision, and it may not be appropriate for

applications requiring tightly defined genomic edits.

328   In summary, the Cas12a-based genetic toolkit presented here provides a set of

versatile, efficient alternatives to more cumbersome traditional methods for GBS

manipulation. By supporting targeted mutagenesis, promoter knockdown, and

recombination-driven genome editing, these tools may facilitate broader efforts to

interrogate GBS gene function and pathogenesis. We anticipate that their continued

refinement and use will help advance genetic research in this clinically important

organism.

Methods

338   *Ethics statement*: Whole blood collection by phlebotomy of healthy adult volunteers

339   was conducted in accordance with an approved University of Pittsburgh IRB protocol

340   (CR19110106-001). Following use of blood in GBS hemolysis assays, samples were

341   discarded and no further volunteer-level data were collected.

343   *Reagents*: LB liquid broth mix, LB agar, TS liquid broth mix, TS agar, erythromycin,

anhydrotetracycline, M17 liquid medium mix, glycine, *Esp3I*, T4 ligase, T4 polynucleotide

kinase, *XhoI*, Gibson assembly master mix, *DpnI*, Q5 Taq polymerase, Qiagen QIAprep Spin

Miniprep Kit, M17 broth, PEG6000

Bacterial strains and growth conditions: GBS strains A909 (serotype Ia, sequence

type 7) and CNCTC 10/84 (serotype V, sequence type 26), both of which were originally

isolated from infected neonates[38,45,46], and their derivatives were grown at 37°C under

stationary conditions in tryptic soy (TS) medium (Fisher Scientific cat. # DF0370-17-d). GBS

was supplemented with 5 μg/mL erythromycin as needed for selection. *E. coli* strain DH5α

was grown at 37°C with shaking in Luria-Bertani (LB) medium (Fisher Scientific cat. #

DF9446-07-5) supplemented with 300 μg/mL erythromycin as needed for selection.

Statistical analyses: Statistical analyses were performed with GraphPad Prism v.

10.2.3 for macOS.

Construction of pGBSedit and pGBScrispi: Plasmid backbone pJC005 was used as a

backbone for pGBSedit and pGBScrispri. A modular protospacer expression cassette with

a small RNA promoter (P3) driving the expression of the repeats and *Esp3I* editable sham

protospacer was added to both vectors. Digestion with *Esp3I* allows for complete removal

of the sham protospacer and ligation of new protospacers as annealed DNA oligos with

matching sticky ends. A unique *XhoI* cut site was also added at the end of this cassette for

linearization of the plasmid in use with Gibson Assembly addition of homology arms. This

modular cloning cassette was designed and ordered as a gene fragment from Twist

Bioscience added to both vectors via Gibson assembly.

Protospacer design and insertion: Cas12a-compatible GBS genomic target sites

with TTTV PAM sequences were identified with the aid of the CRISPick server hosted by the

Broad Institute[47]. Under the "CRISPRko/AsCas12a" settings, CRISPick generates a ranked

list of 23-nt sgRNA candidate sequences that interface correctly with our GBS Cas12a

tools. For dCas12a CRISPRi, sgRNA sequences complementary to the plus-strand should

be selected; for Cas12a mutagenesis, plus- or minus-strand sgRNA sequences are equally

effective.

After selecting a sgRNA target, the 23-nt sequence can be used to design custom

ssDNA protospacer sequences that can be annealed into a dsDNA cassette for cloning into

digested pGBSedit or pGBScrispri. The forward oligo is constructed as [TAGAT + sgRNA + A]

and the reverse oligo is constructed as [AAATT + reverse complement sgRNA + A]. These

ssDNA oligo constructs can be ordered separately from a synthetic DNA provider.

Purified pGBSedit (or pGBScrispri) plasmid, prepared from *E. coli* liquid culture is

digested with *Esp3I* according to manufacturer instructions, then the linearized plasmid is

gel extracted from an agarose electrophoresis gel.

The forward and reverse protospacer oligonucleotide samples are end-

phosphorylated then annealed as follows: rehydration of lyophilized samples to 100 μM

stocks then admixture of 1 μL forward oligo, 1 μL reverse oligo, 2.5 μL 10x T4 ligase buffer,

0.5 μL T4 Polynucleotide kinase, 20 μL ultrapure H_2O. Incubate at 37°C for 1 hour. After this

incubation, add 2.5 µL sterile 1 M NaCl, then heat the mixture to 95 °C in a heat block for 5

minutes. After this denaturation step, remove the heat block and allow it to cool slowly to

4°C with the oligo mixture tube remaining inserted in place.

Once phosphorylated and annealed, the dsDNA protospacer can be ligated into

Esp3I-digested, gel-purified pGBSedit/crispr plasmid in a 20 µL reaction containing 5 µL

Esp3I-digested plasmid; 2 µL phosphorylated/annealed protospacer; 2 µL 10x T4 ligase

buffer, 1 µL T4 ligase, 9 µL H_2O. Allow this reaction mixture to incubate at 16 °C for at least

two hours (overnight incubation is acceptable).

We use 5 µL of this ligation reaction to transform chemically competent *E. coli*.

Colony screening by PCR or sequencing-based methods can be used to confirm

appropriate protospacer insertion. We perform colony PCR using the forward ssDNA oligo

and pGBSedit_crRNA_Screen_R (GCTATCTTCGTCATAGTTACCT).

Editing template design and insertion: Editing templates included homology arms

with approximately 500 bp of overlap (on each end of the intended deletion or insertion).

The Cas12a target site, determined with the aid of CRISPick, was positioned roughly

equidistant from the homology arms. Editing constructs were ordered as synthesized gene

fragments but could alternatively be generated through recombinant techniques

depending on the intended end-use. We cloned the editing construct into linearized *XhoI-*

digested pGBSedit using Gibson assembly and used PCR and Sanger or whole-plasmid

sequencing techniques to verify the insert.

An alternative approach is to synthesize a gene fragment that contains the sgRNA

protospacer sequence and an editing template. Such a fragment can be quickly and fully

customized. For cloning of a gene fragment into pGBSedit, we use GeneFrag Insert Fwd

(GCAATAAAACTTATTCGGATCCGTCGTTTTACAACGTC) and GeneFrag Insert Rev

(AGCTGACGGTCAGAGAGAAAGGATTTCTCACATAAAATAGAGG) to linearize pGBSedit using

Q5 Taq polymerase. The PCR product can then be treated with *DpnI* to digest circular

plasmid, followed by gel or column purification of the PCR reaction mixture. We designed

custom gene fragments with homology arms that enable Gibson assembly insertion into

linearized pGBSedit, then confirmed proper cloning by whole-plasmid sequencing.

Plasmid purification and transformation into GBS: Once cloning products had been

sequence-confirmed in *E. coli*, plasmids were purified using the Qiagen QIAprep Spin

Miniprep Kit according to manufacturer instructions.

Electrocompetent GBS was prepared by seeding a 30 mL culture of M17 broth+

0.5% glucose (GM17) with a single colony from an overnight agar plate and allowing

overnight growth at 37 °C. The next morning, the overnight culture was added to 200 mL of

GM17 supplemented with 2% glycine and pre-warmed to 37 °C. The culture growing in

glycine-containing broth was monitored until it reached an $O.D._{600}=0.6$. The culture was

then pelleted and washed twice in ice-cold 10% polyethylene glycol (average molecular

weight=6000; PEG6000), then washed again and the entire pellet resuspended in 25 mL of

ice-cold PEG6000 wash solution containing supplemental 25% glycerol. 50 μL aliquots of

this suspension were then used for electroporation transformation of the purified shuttle

plasmid, followed by overnight outgrowth on selective agar plates, as previously described

[7].

Outgrowth and selection for homology-driven recombination mutants: Following

GBS transformation with an editing plasmid, a single colony was resuspended in 20 µL 1x

phosphate buffered saline (PBS). 2 µL of this resuspension was used as template for a

colony PCR reaction to confirm presence of the intended plasmid. Simultaneously, the

remaining 18 µL of the PBS-resuspended sample was seeded into a 10 mL

TS+erythromycin 5 µg/mL culture, which was allowed to grow stationary at 37 °C for 6-8

hours.

Following this 6-8-hour outgrowth, 1:10 and 1:100 dilutions of the culture were

prepared (dilute in TS+erythromycin). 150 µL of the following cultures were then plated on

separate TS+erythromycin 5 µg/mL agar plates: undiluted, 1:10, and 1:100, undiluted+aTC,

1:10+aTC, and 1:100+aTC. For the aTC-containing cultures for plating, we add 6 µL of a 2

mg/mL aTC stock to the 150 µL of sample being plated (for ease, the aTC stock can be

added directly into the pooled plating sample on the agar, then the mixture sterilely spread

across the surface).

These plates are then allowed to grow for 36 hours at 37 °C. A multiple-log fold

difference between colony counts on the aTC and non-aTC plates after growth is indicative

of successful Cas12a selection against wild-type GBS. At least 8 colonies are selected and

each resuspended in 20 µL 1x PBS. 2 µL of this resuspension is used in a colony PCR

reaction to access genotype. Simultaneously, the remaining 18 µL of the PBS-resuspended

sample was plated for single colonies on a TS+erythromycin 5 µg/mL plate. Colonies with

desired genotype by colony PCR are chosen. Using an isolated colony from the plate struck

for single colonies, resuspend a colony in 20 µL 1x PBS and use 2 µL of this resuspension in

a second confirmatory colony PCR of genotype. Once confirmed, purify PCR product from

gel for sanger sequencing and seed remain 18 µL of colony resuspension into a 40 mL TS

broth culture to begin plasmid curing.

Outgrowth and selection for free end joining mutants: To use pGBSedit, without an

editing cassette, to generate free end joining mutants, the same experimental procedures

are followed as with generation of a homology-driven recombination mutant. However,

because free end joining mutants can be the result of indels that are too small for easy

detection by comparing PCR bands on an electrophoresis gel, we first perform a colony

PCR screen on approximately 16 colonies, checking for the presence or absence of the wild

type Cas12a target (the sequence complementary to the pGBSedit protospacer). We use

the target site as the forward PCR primer and choose a reverse primer approximately 500

kB downstream. From this screen, we select candidate colonies that do not generate

bands. These are the candidate mutant strains. Then we perform a second colony PCR

reaction on the candidate mutant strains, using forward and reverse primers approximately

500 kB from the target site in each direction. Colonies that yield bands on this second

reaction can be genotyped using Sanger sequencing of the amplicon or whole genome

sequencing to identify and characterize free end joining mutations..

CFU quantification of Cas12 selective force (Fig 3B): 14 individual TS+5 µg/mL

erythromycin cultures were inoculated using GBS harboring the pGBSedit CovR Deletion

plasmid and grown for 8 hours. Serial dilutions and CFU plating on TS+5 µg/mL

erythromycin plates for each overnight culture were performed to access total viable

CFU/mL. Simultaneously, 100 µL of each overnight culture was plated onto TS+5 µg/mL

erythromycin+500 ng/mL aTC at both 1:10 or 1:100 dilutions. After 36 hours growth, CFU

counts on aTC plates were taken and compared to total number of viable CFU plated from

the starting culture

Measurement of Mutagenesis frequency (Fig 3C): pGBSedit CovR Deletion plasmid

was transformed into electrocompetent GBS in 6 biological replicates. 1 colony from each

transformation was grown and aTC selected per previously reported method. 16 colonies

from each of the 6 biological replicates were selected and screened for genotypes by NEB

OneTaq colony PCR (Cat. M0482L). Genotypes were counted based by 1% agarose gel

electrophoresis PCR band sizes (3048 bp WT and 2358 bp covR KO).

Colony PCR: Colony PCR reactions were performed using NEB OneTaq Master Mix

(Cat. M0482L) and custom-prepared ssDNA oligonucleotide primers. Wild type isogenic

GBS colonies were used as positive control samples; sterile water was used as template in

negative control samples. All templates for reactions are colonies that were first

resuspended in 1xPBS. Manufacturer instructions were followed, including proper

calculation of primer annealing temperatures and PCR extension time.

Outgrowth and induction of knockdown strains: GBS harboring the pGBScrispri

plasmid are grown in TS broth supplemented with 5 µg/mL erythromycin to maintenance

the plasmid. For phenotypic assays, induction of knockdown is achieved by the addition of

250 ng/mL anhydrotetracycline (stock 2 mg/mL in water) at inoculation. Cultures

inoculated from isolated single colonies. Cultures are grown stationary at 37°C for 18

hours.

pGBSedit plasmid curing from confirmed mutants: 40 mL TS broth cultures were

inoculated using an isolated colony that has been genotypically confirmed and grown

stationary at 37°C overnight. A second passage in 40 mL of TS broth is performed using 100

µL of previous culture as inoculum. 1:10,000 and 1:100,000 dilutions of the grown second

passage were plated on TS agar plates. 8 colonies selected were dual patched onto TS and

TS+5 µg/mL Erm agar plates to identify antibiotic sensitivity.

Fluorescence assay: 10 mL TS broth cultures were inoculated using an isolated

colony and grown overnight at 37°C shaking. Shaking cultures were used to ensure oxygen

is present during maturation of GFP chromophore formation. Overnight cultures were spun

at 4000rpm for 5 minutes and washed twice with PBS before being OD600 normalized to 1

in PBS. 10 mL of OD600 normalized cultures were spun down at 4000rpm for 5 minutes and

resuspended in 1 mL of PBS to 10x concentrate. 200 µL of each sample was loaded in

technical triplicate into a black optical bottom 96-well plate. GFP was excited at 488 nm

and emission was observed at 515 nm with a 515 nm filter.

RNA purification and qRT-PCR: 10 mL TS+5 µg/mL erythromycin broth cultures were

inoculated using an isolated colony and grown to mid-log (OD600 of 0.6) before being split

into two 5 mL cultures; not treated and 250 ng/mL anhydrotetracycline supplemented.

Cultures were incubated at 37°C for 1 hour post treatment before being spun down at

4000rpm for 5 minutes and resuspended in 1 mL of RNAprotect Bacterial Reagent (Qiagen

Catalogue: 76506). Bacteria were incubated in RNAprotect at room temperature for 5

minutes before being pelleted in microcentrifuge tubes at 15,000rpm for 2 minutes. Excess

RNAprotect was removed and pellets were frozen and held at -80°C until RNA extraction.

RNA protected pellets were thawed on ice and RNA was extracted using the Qiagen RNeasy

Kit (Cat. 74104) per manufacturer protocol. RNA was eluted with warmed (95°C)ultra-pure

water in place of elution buffer. DNA was removed with Invitrogen DNA-free Kit (Cat.

AM1906) per manufacturer protocol. cDNA was made with AppliedBiosytems High-

Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit (Cat. 4374966) per manufacturer protocol. cDNA

and reverse transcription negative were 1:10 diluted with ultra-pure water before 1 µL was

used as template in 10 µL qPCR reactions. Bio Rad SsoAdvanced Universal SYBR Green

Supermix (Cat. 1725272) was used for all qPCR reactions.

Hemolysis assays: 10 mL of human whole blood was donated, heparinized and

spun down for 10 minutes at 2000 rpm. Serum was removed with a serological pipette and

5 mL of Hanks buffers saline solution (HBSS) is added to the packed red blood cells via

inversion. Packed red blood cells (RBC) were spun for 10 minutes at 2000rpm and the

supernatant was removed with a serological pipette. 500uL of packed RBCs were added to

50 mL of HBSS to achieve a 1% packed RBC solution. 10 mL cultures of GBS harboring the

pGBScrispri plasmid were grown in TS broth supplemented with 5 µg/mL erythromycin and

either with or without 250 ng/mL of anhydrotetracycline. Cultures were grown stationary at

37°C for 18 hours. Cultures were pelleted at 4000rpm and resuspended in 10 mL of PBS to

wash. 10 mL PBS resuspensions were OD600 normalized to 1 using a cuvette. 10 mL of OD

normalized A909 cultures were concentrated 10x to an OD600 of 10 by pelleting and

resuspending in 1 mL of PBS. 10/84 cultures were 1:10 diluted in PBS after OD

normalization. Hemolysis assays were performed with 100 µL of 1% packed RBCs and 100

µL of bacterial suspension incubated at 37°C for either 15 minutes (10/84) or 1 hour (A909).

Hemolysis assays were performed in 96 well V-bottom plates and in technical triplicate.

After hemolysis, V-bottom plates were spun down at 2000rpm for 2 minutes and

supernatants (100 µL) were collected for each sample and absorbance at 415 nm was used

to measure released hemoglobin in the supernatant. Percent hemolysis is calculated

relative to a 1% triton control.

Whole-genome sequencing, scaffolding, and analysis. Genomic DNA samples were

prepared for whole-genome sequencing (WGS) using the Illumina DNA Prep tagmentation

kit with IDT for Illumina Unique Dual Indexes. Sequencing was performed on an Illumina

NextSeq2000 platform with a 300-cycle flow cell to generate paired-end reads (2x150 bp).

A 1-2% PhiX control library was included to ensure optimal base-calling accuracy. Initial

processing—including demultiplexing, read trimming, and analytics—was performed using

Illumina DRAGEN software (version 3.10.12)[48]. Quality control included FastQC metrics

evaluation.

Further processing and genomic assembly utilized a custom bioinformatics

pipeline. Reads underwent stringent quality filtering, trimming, and duplicate grouping

using BBTools. Filtered reads were aligned to the A909 GBS strain reference genome to

create a high-confidence consensus sequence, requiring a minimum depth of 10 reads at

consensus sites.

Reads were assembled into contigs using SPAdes[49] in careful mode. Contigs were

scaffolded onto the consensus reference using RagTag[50], followed by patching to resolve

scaffold gaps and inconsistencies. The primary scaffold from each assembly was extracted

and annotated using the Prokaryotic Genome Annotation Pipeline (PGAP)[51]. Pipeline scripts

and dependencies were managed within a custom conda environment and run locally.

Conflicts of interest: The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.

Acknowledgements: This work was supported by the National Institutes of Health (NIH)

R21AI178067, R01AI182835, and R01AI177991 (T.A.H.), a UPMC Children's Hospital of

Pittsburgh Research Advisory Council graduate student grant (G.H.H.), and Centers of

Biomedical Research Excellence (CoBRE) Grant P20GM125504 (J.C.). Figure panels

throughout were generated using BioRender.

<u>Figure Captions</u>

Figure 1. Design and workflow of the Cas12a-based GBS genetic toolkit. Plasmid maps

and workflows of the Cas12a-based genetic toolkit for Group B Streptococcus. The two

shuttle vectors—pGBSedit (encoding wild-type Cas12a) and pGBScrispri (encoding

catalytically inactive dCas12a)—carry a $P_{xyl/tet}$-inducible promoter upstream of the

cas12a/dcas12a gene, a constitutive TetR repressor, and an *Esp3I*-flanked protospacer

insertion site; pGBSedit also includes a unique *XhoI* site for cloning homology arms. Three

experimental protocols are illustrated: (1) homology-directed repair mutagenesis, in which

an editing template directs precise genomic insertions or deletions followed by

anhydrotetracycline (aTC) selection; (2) template-less mutagenesis, where Cas12a-

induced double-strand breaks are repaired via the native alternative end-joining pathway

to generate variable indels; and (3) inducible CRISPR interference, in which dCas12a

binding to the target locus upon aTC induction leads to targeted gene knockdown.

Figure 2. Cas12a-mediated insertion of eGFP into the GBS chromosome via homology-

directed repair.

(A) Diagram of pGBSedit:eGFP1, with ~500-nt upstream and downstream homology arms

flanking the *eGFP* coding sequence targeted to an intergenic locus conserved in A909 and

CNCTC 10/84.

(B & C) Representative agar plates of A909 (B) and CNCTC 10/84 (C) transformants on

erythromycin: without aTC (left) showing unselected background, and with 500 ng/mL aTC

(right) showing only *eGFP* integrants.

(D & E) Colony PCR of aTC-selected colonies: expected band sizes for WT (upper) and

eGFP insertion (lower) indicated.

(F & G) Fluorescence imaging under blue-light illumination confirming *eGFP* expression in

selected A909 (G) and CNCTC 10/84 resuspended colonies.

Figure 3. Markerless deletion of covR using Cas12a homology-directed repair.

(A) Design of pGBSedit:ΔcovR1, containing fused ~1 kb homology arms upstream and

downstream of the *covR* coding sequence.

(B) Selection escape frequency for ΔcovR1 across 14 independent aTC selections in A909;

each symbol represents one biological replicate, and the horizontal bar denotes the mean

(1.1×10^{-4}).

(C) Genotyping by colony PCR of 55 aTC-selected colonies from six biological replicates;

27% yielded the expected ΔcovR amplicon.

(D) Photograph of liquid cultures showing hyperpigmented phenotype of confirmed ΔcovR

mutants.

(E) Quantification of hemolytic activity for Δ*covR* versus WT, measured by released

hemoglobin absorbance (n = 3; mean ± SD).

Figure 4. CRISPR/Cas12a-mediated free end-joining mutagenesis in GBS.

(A & B) Plasmid designs for template-less mutagenesis: pGBSedit:covR2, pGBSedit:eGFP2,

626 and pGBSedit:P23, each encoding a protospacer targeting covR, chromosomal eGFP, or

627 the P23 promoter.

628 (C) Representative sequence alignments from covR2 mutants showing a 2-bp deletion and

629 a 60-bp deletion at the target site. Microhomology regions suspected to have served as loci

630 for alternative end-joining are boxed.

631 (D) Indel patterns at the P23 and eGFP protospacer sites in selected mutants.

632 Microhomology regions suspected to have served as loci for alternative end-joining are

633 boxed.

634 (E) Hyperhemolytic phenotype of *covR* mutants in a hemolysis assay (n=3; mean ± SD).

635 (F) Loss of eGFP fluorescence in *eGFP2* mutants and reduced P23 promoter activity in P23

636 mutants.

638 **Figure 5. Inducible gene silencing in GBS using dCas12a CRISPR interference.**

639 (A) Protospacer designs for dCas12a targeting: cylx42 (template strand) and cylx143 (non-

640 template strand) in the *cyl* operon, and a *covR*-targeting protospacer.

641 (B) qRT-PCR quantification of *cyl* expression in CNCTC 10/84 with (+ aTC) or without (–

642  aTC) induction (n = 3; mean ± SD), showing stronger knockdown with template-strand

643 targeting.

644 (C) Hemolysis assays of CNCTC 10/84 strains demonstrating reduced βHC activity upon

645 dCas12a targeting of *cyl* (mean ± SD; n = 3).

646 (D) qRT-PCR of *cyl* expression in A909 harboring *covR*-targeting dCas12a, showing de-

647 repression upon induction (n = 3; mean ± SD).

(E) Hemolysis assays of A909 *covR* knockdown strain confirming increased βHC activity

with aTC induction (mean ± SD; n = 3).

<u>Supplemental materials</u>

Supplemental Figure S1: Proposed mechanism of alternative end-joining in GBS.

Supplemental Extended Protocol: Detailed instructions for using pGBSedit and

pGBScrispri.

<u>Public resources availability</u>

The following plasmids for GBS Cas12a editing, CRISPRi, and complementation are

available at Addgene.

Addgene Plasmid Number	Plasmid Name
223200	pGBSedit Sham
223201	pGBScrispri Sham
223202	pGBScomp High

223203	pGBScomp Low

References

1. Lawn JE, Bianchi-Jassir F, Russell NJ, Kohli-Lynch M, Tann CJ, Hall J, Madrid L, Baker CJ, Bartlett L, Cutland C, Gravett MG, Heath PT, Ip M, Doare KL, Madhi SA, Rubens CE, Saha SK, Schrag S, Meulen AS ter, Vekemans J, Seale AC. Group B Streptococcal Disease Worldwide for Pregnant Women, Stillbirths, and Children: Why, What, and How to Undertake Estimates? Clin Infect Dis. 2017;65(suppl_2):S89–S99. PMID: 29117323

2. Gonçalves BP, Procter SR, Paul P, Chandna J, Lewin A, Seedat F, Koukounari A, Dangor Z, Leahy S, Santhanam S, John HB, Bramugy J, Bardají A, Abubakar A, Nasambu C, Libster R, Yanotti CS, Horváth-Puhó E, Sørensen HT, Beek D van de, Bijlsma MW, Gardner WM, Kassebaum N, Trotter C, Bassat Q, Madhi SA, Lambach P, Jit M, Lawn JE, outcomes GD and D collaborative group for long term, outcomes GL and MIC collaborative group for long term, sub-group GSAG epidemiological, team C, Søgaard KK, Kassel MN van, Snoek L, Gier B de, Ende A van der, Hahné SJM, Harden LM, Ghoor A, Mbatha S, Lowick S, Laughton B, Jaye T, Lala SG, Sithole P, Msayi J, Kumalo N, Msibi TN, Arumugam A, Murugesan N, Rajendraprasad N, Priya M, Mabrouk A, Katana PV, Mwangome E, Newton CR, Mucasse H, Aerts C, Massora S, Medina V, Rojas A, Amado D, Llapur CJ, Hossain AKMT, Rahman QS ur, Ip M, Seale A, Heath PT, Doare KL, Khalil A, Schrag SJ, Meulen AS ter, Mason E, Blau DM, Arifeen SE, Assefa N, Onyango D, Sow SO, Mandomando I, Ogbuanu I, Kotloff KL, Scott JAG, Gurley ES, Barr BAT, Mahtab S. Group B streptococcus infection during pregnancy and infancy: estimates of regional and global burden. Lancet Glob Heal. 2022;10(6):e807–e819. PMCID: PMC9090904

3. Patras KA, Nizet V. Group B Streptococcal Maternal Colonization and Neonatal Disease: Molecular Mechanisms and Preventative Approaches. Frontiers Pediatrics. 2018;6:27. PMCID: PMC5827363

4. Brokaw A, Furuta A, Dacanay M, Rajagopal L, Waldorf KMA. Bacterial and Host Determinants of Group B Streptococcal Vaginal Colonization and Ascending Infection in Pregnancy. Front Cell Infect Mi. 2021;11:720789.

5. Kobayashi M, Vekemans J, Baker CJ, Ratner AJ, Doare KL, Schrag SJ. Group B Streptococcus vaccine development: present status and future considerations, with emphasis on perspectives for low and middle income countries. F1000research. 2016;5:2355. PMID: 27803803

6. Yim HH, Rubens CE. Site-specific homologous recombination mutagenesis in group B streptococci. Methods Cell Sci. 1998;20(1–4):13–20.

7. Hooven TA, Bonakdar M, Chamby AB, Ratner AJ. A Counterselectable Sucrose Sensitivity Marker Permits Efficient and Flexible Mutagenesis in Streptococcus agalactiae. Appl Environ Microb. 2019;85(7). PMID: 30658970

8. Framson PE, Nittayajarn A, Merry J, Youngman P, Rubens CE. New genetic techniques for group B streptococci: high-efficiency transformation, maintenance of temperature-sensitive pWV01 plasmids, and mutagenesis with Tn917. Applied and environmental microbiology. 1997 Sep;63(9):3539 3547.

9. Mali P, Esvelt KM, Church GM. Cas9 as a versatile tool for engineering biology. Nat Methods. 2013;10(10):957–963. PMCID: PMC4051438

10. Doudna JA, Charpentier E. Genome editing. The new frontier of genome engineering with CRISPR-Cas9. Science. 2014 Nov 28;346(6213):1258096. PMID: 25430774

11. Jinek M, Chylinski K, Fonfara I, Hauer M, Doudna JA, Charpentier E. A Programmable Dual-RNA–Guided DNA Endonuclease in Adaptive Bacterial Immunity. Science. 2012;337(6096):816–821. PMID: 22745249

12. Chen JS, Doudna JA. The chemistry of Cas9 and its CRISPR colleagues. Nat Rev Chem. 2017;1(10):0078.

13. Murugan K, Babu K, Sundaresan R, Rajan R, Sashital DG. The Revolution Continues: Newly Discovered Systems Expand the CRISPR-Cas Toolkit. Mol Cell. 2017;68(1):15–25. PMCID: PMC5683099

14. Pickar-Oliver A, Gersbach CA. The next generation of CRISPR–Cas technologies and applications. Nat Rev Mol Cell Bio. 2019;20(8):490–507. PMCID: PMC7079207

15. Kurushima J, Tomita H. Advances of genetic engineering in streptococci and enterococci. Microbiol Immunol. 2022; PMID: 35703039

16. Choi KR, Lee SY. CRISPR technologies for bacterial systems: Current achievements and future directions. Biotechnol Adv. 2016 Nov 15;34(7):1180 1209. PMID: 27566508

17. Oh JH, Pijkeren JP van. CRISPR-Cas9-assisted recombineering in Lactobacillus reuteri. Nucleic Acids Res. 2014;42(17):e131 e131. PMCID: PMC4176153

18. Jiang Y, Qian F, Yang J, Liu Y, Dong F, Xu C, Sun B, Chen B, Xu X, Li Y, Wang R, Yang S. CRISPR-Cpf1 assisted genome editing of Corynebacterium glutamicum. Nat Commun. 2017 May 4;8:15179. PMID: 28469274

19. Gopalakrishna KP, Hillebrand GH, Bhavana VH, Elder JL, D'Mello A, Tettelin H, Hooven TA. Group B Streptococcus Cas9 variants provide insight into programmable gene repression and CRISPR-Cas transcriptional effects. Commun Biol. 2023;6(1):620. PMCID: PMC10256743

20. Senthilnathan R, Ilangovan I, Kunale M, Easwaran N, Ramamoorthy S, Veeramuthu A, Muthukaliannan GK. An update on CRISPR-Cas12 as a versatile tool in genome editing. Mol Biol Rep. 2023;50(3):2865–2881. PMID: 36641494

21. Zetsche B, Gootenberg JS, Abudayyeh OO, Slaymaker IM, Makarova KS, Essletzbichler P, Volz SE, Joung J, van der Oost J, Regev A, Koonin EV, Zhang F. Cpf1 Is a Single RNA-Guided Endonuclease of a Class 2 CRISPR-Cas System. Cell. 2015;163(3):759–771. PMCID: PMC4638220

22. Yan MY, Yan HQ, Ren GX, Zhao JP, Guo XP, Sun YC. CRISPR-Cas12a-Assisted Recombineering in Bacteria. Appl Environ Microbiol. 2017;83(17):e00947-17. PMCID: PMC5561284

23. Meliawati M, Schilling C, Schmid J. Recent advances of Cas12a applications in bacteria. Appl Microbiol Biotechnol. 2021;105(8):2981–2990. PMCID: PMC8053165

24. Chua MJ, Collins J. Rapid, Efficient, and Cost-Effective Gene Editing of Enterococcus faecium with CRISPR-Cas12a. Microbiol Spectr. 2022;10(1):e02427-21. PMCID: PMC8809335

25. Helle L, Kull M, Mayer S, Marincola G, Zelder ME, Goerke C, Wolz C, Bertram R. Vectors for improved Tet repressor-dependent gradual gene induction or silencing in Staphylococcus aureus. Microbiology+. 2011 Nov 30;157(12):3314–3323. PMID: 21921101

26. Mazzuoli MV, Daunesse M, Varet H, Rosinski-Chupin I, Legendre R, Sismeiro O, Gominet M, Kaminski PA, Glaser P, Chica C, Trieu-Cuot P, Firon A. The CovR regulatory network drives the evolution of Group B Streptococcus virulence. Plos Genet. 2021;17(9):e1009761. PMCID: PMC8448333

27. Claverie C, Coppolino F, Mazzuoli MV, Guyonnet C, Jacquemet E, Legendre R, Sismeiro O, Gaetano GVD, Teti G, Trieu-Cuot P, Tazi A, Beninati C, Firon A. Constitutive activation of two-component systems reveals regulatory network interactions in Streptococcus agalactiae. Nat Commun. 2024;15(1):9175. PMCID: PMC11502775

28. Armistead B, Whidbey C, Iyer LM, Herrero-Foncubierta P, Quach P, Haidour A, Aravind L, Cuerva JM, Jaspan HB, Rajagopal L. The cyl Genes Reveal the Biosynthetic and Evolutionary Origins of the Group B Streptococcus Hemolytic Lipid, Granadaene. Front Microbiol. 2020;10:3123. PMCID: PMC6985545

29. Randis TM, Gelber SE, Hooven TA, Abellar RG, Akabas LH, Lewis EL, Walker LB, Byland LM, Nizet V, Ratner AJ. Group B Streptococcus β-hemolysin/Cytolysin Breaches Maternal-Fetal Barriers to Cause Preterm Birth and Intrauterine Fetal Demise in Vivo. J Infect Dis. 2014 Jul 15;210(2):265 273. PMCID: PMC4092248

30. Lupo A, Ruppen C, Hemphill A, Spellerberg B, Sendi P. Phenotypic and molecular characterization of hyperpigmented group B Streptococci. Int J Med Microbiol. 2014 Jul;304(5–6):717–724. PMID: 24933304

31. Murugan K, Seetharam AS, Severin AJ, Sashital DG. CRISPR-Cas12a has widespread off-target and dsDNA-nicking effects EDITORS' PICK: Cas12a nickase activities. J Biol Chem. 2020;295(17):5538–5553. PMCID: PMC7186167

32. Drake JW, Charlesworth B, Charlesworth D, Crow JF. Rates of Spontaneous Mutation. Genetics [Internet]. 1998;148(4):1667–1686. Available from: https://www.genetics.org/content/148/4/1667

33. Cuny C, Barretto C, Rosinski-Chupin I, Cunha VD, Domelier AS, Glaser P. Evolutionary rates and emergence of human-associated GBS lineages. Microbial Genomics. 2021;7(8):000486.

34. Rosinski-Chupin I, Sauvage E, Mairey B, Mangenot S, Ma L, Cunha VD, Rusniok C, Bouchier C, Barbe V, Glaser P. Reductive evolution in Streptococcus agalactiae and the emergence of a host adapted lineage. Bmc Genomics. 2013;14(1):252. PMCID: PMC3637634

35. Sheppard SK, Lees JA, Taylor B, al. et. Population genomics of Group B Streptococcus: global structure and adaptive evolution. Nature Communications. 2018;9(1):2460.

36. Zhang X, Wang J, Cheng Q, Zheng X, Zhao G, Wang J. Multiplex gene regulation by CRISPR-ddCpf1. Cell Discov. 2017;3(1):17018. PMCID: PMC5460296

37. Qi LS, Larson MH, Gilbert LA, Doudna JA, Weissman JS, Arkin AP, Lim WA. Repurposing CRISPR as an RNA-Guided Platform for Sequence-Specific Control of Gene Expression. Cell. 2013 Feb 28;152(5):1173 1183. PMCID: PMC3664290

38. Zhu L, Beres SB, Yerramilli P, Pruitt L, Cantu CC, Olsen RJ, Musser JM. Genetic Basis Underlying the Hyperhemolytic Phenotype of Streptococcus agalactiae Strain CNCTC10/84. J Bacteriol. 2020;202(23). PMCID: PMC7648153

39. Della M, Palmbos PL, Tseng HM, Tonkin LM, Daley JM, Topper LM, Pitcher RS, Tomkinson AE, Wilson TE, Doherty AJ. Mycobacterial Ku and Ligase Proteins Constitute a Two-Component NHEJ Repair Machine. Science. 2004;306(5696):683–685. PMID: 15499016

40. Weller GR, Kysela B, Roy R, Tonkin LM, Scanlan E, Della M, Devine SK, Day JP, Wilkinson A, Fagagna F d'Adda di, Devine KM, Bowater RP, Jeggo PA, Jackson SP, Doherty AJ. Identification of a DNA Nonhomologous End-Joining Complex in Bacteria. Science. 2002;297(5587):1686–1689. PMID: 12215643

41. Shuman S, Glickman MS. Bacterial DNA repair by non-homologous end joining. Nat Rev Microbiol. 2007;5(11):852–861. PMID: 17938628

42. Chayot R, Montagne B, Mazel D, Ricchetti M. An end-joining repair mechanism in Escherichia coli. Proc Natl Acad Sci. 2010;107(5):2141–2146. PMCID: PMC2836643

43. Hou Z, Yu T, Yi Q, Du Y, Zhou L, Zhao Y, Wu Y, Wu L, Wang T, Bian P. High-complexity of DNA double-strand breaks is key for alternative end-joining choice. Commun Biol. 2024;7(1):936. PMCID: PMC11297215

44. Lee J, Jo I, Ahn J, Hong S, Jeong S, Kwon A, Ha NC. Crystal structure of the nuclease and capping domain of SbcD from Staphylococcus aureus. J Microbiol. 2021;59(6):584–589. PMID: 33877576

45. Nizet V, Gibson RL, Chi EY, Framson PE, Hulse M, Rubens CE. Group B streptococcal beta-hemolysin expression is associated with injury of lung epithelial cells. Infection and Immunity. 1996 Sep;64(9):3818 3826.

46. Lancefield RC, McCarty M, Everly WN. Multiple mouse-protective antibodies directed against group B streptococci. Special reference to antibodies effective against protein antigens. J Exp Medicine. 1975;142(1):165–179. PMID: 1097573

47. Pedrozo CNN, Peralta TM, Olea FD, Locatelli P, Crottogini AJ, Belaich MN, Cuniberti LA. In silico performance analysis of web tools for CRISPRa sgRNA design in human genes. Comput Struct Biotechnol J. 2022;20:3779–3782. PMCID: PMC9304428

48. Behera S, Catreux S, Rossi M, Truong S, Huang Z, Ruehle M, Visvanath A, Parnaby G, Roddey C, Onuchic V, Cameron DL, English A, Mehtalia S, Han J, Mehio R, Sedlazeck FJ. Comprehensive and accurate genome analysis at scale using DRAGEN accelerated algorithms. bioRxiv. 2024;2024.01.02.573821. PMCID: PMC10802302

49. Bankevich A, Nurk S, Antipov D, Gurevich AA, Dvorkin M, Kulikov AS, Lesin VM, Nikolenko SI, Pham S, Prjibelski AD, Pyshkin AV, Sirotkin AV, Vyahhi N, Tesler G, Alekseyev MA, Pevzner PA. SPAdes: A New Genome Assembly Algorithm and Its Applications to Single-Cell Sequencing. J Comput Biol. 2012;19(5):455–477. PMCID: PMC3342519

50. Alonge M, Lebeigle L, Kirsche M, Jenike K, Ou S, Aganezov S, Wang X, Lippman ZB, Schatz MC, Soyk S. Automated assembly scaffolding using RagTag elevates a new tomato system for high-throughput genome editing. Genome Biol. 2022;23(1):258. PMCID: PMC9753292

51. Tatusova T, DiCuccio M, Badretdin A, Chetvernin V, Nawrocki EP, Zaslavsky L, Lomsadze A, Pruitt KD, Borodovsky M, Ostell J. NCBI prokaryotic genome annotation pipeline. Nucleic Acids Res. 2016;44(14):6614–6624. PMCID: PMC5001611

A909

B. -aTC | +aTC

C. CNCTC 10/84 | -aTC | +aTC

A. pGBSedit:eGFP1

Chromosomal targeting crRNA · Upstream homology arm · P23 promoter · eGFP · P3 promoter · Repeats · Downstream homology arm · Erm · cas12a · Pxyl/tet promoter

D. WT | +GFP

E. WT | +GFP

F. Chromosomal GFP expression

GFP RFU

<0.0001   0.0011

A909+eGFP · A909 WT · 10/84+eGFP · 10/84 WT

G. 10μm

A.

covR targeting crRNA

P3 promoter

Repeats

ΔcovR forward homology arm

ΔcovR reverse homology arm

pGBSedit:ΔcovR1

Erm

Pxyl/tet promoter

cas12a

B.

Post-aTC selection colony counts

CFU counts per 100,000 CFU plated

CFU

C.

aTC resistant colony genotype

73%

27%

40 WT
15 ΔcovR

D.

WT   ΔcovR

E.

Hemolysis assay

0.0023

Percent Hemolysis

WT   ΔcovR   PBS   Triton

A. pGBSedit:P23 or *eGFP2*

B. pGBSedit:*covR2*

E. *covR* CRISPR KO hemolysis assay

C.

Δ*covR* 2bp

Predicted cas12 cut site
CovR crRNA target

Δ*covR* 60bp

Predicted cas12 cut site
CovR crRNA target

D.

ΔP23

Cas12 predicted cut site
P23 crRNA target

Δ*eGFP*

Cas12 predicted cut site
eGFP crRNA target

F. GFP fluorescence

A.

cylX or covR targeting crRNA

P3 promoter

Erm

pGBScrispri: *cylX* or *covR*

Pxyl/tet promoter

dcas12a

CNCTC 10/84
WT phenotype:
CovR^{low}/Cyl^{high}

A909
WT phenotype:
CovR^{high}/Cyl^{low}

B.

10/84 *cylX* inducible knockdown:
qPCR of *cylD*

Relative *cylD* mRNA

0.1403   0.0184   0.3592

Sham
Sham +aTC
cylX crRNA 42
cylX crRNA 42 +aTC
cylX crRNA 143 (NT)
cylX crRNA 143 (NT) +aTC

C.

10/84 *cylX* inducible knockdown:
hemolysis assay

Percent Hemolysis

0.0334   0.0060   0.1845

Sham
Sham +aTC
cylX crRNA 42
cylX crRNA 42 +aTC
cylX crRNA 143 (NT)
cylX crRNA 143 (NT) +aTC

D.

A909 *covR* inducible knockdown:
qPCR of *covR*

Relative *covR* mRNA

0.4367   0.0429   0.5089

Sham
Sham +aTC
covR crRNA 64
covR crRNA 64 +aTC
covR crRNA 398 (NT)
covR crRNA 398 (NT) +aTC

E.

A909 *covR* inducible knockdown:
hemolysis assay

Percent Hemolysis

0.0295   0.0015   0.6068

Sham
Sham +aTC
covR crRNA 64
covR crRNA 64 +aTC
covR crRNA 398 (NT)
covR crRNA 398 (NT) +aTC

Predicted CRISPR KO mechanism via microhomology mediated end joining