Deep-mutational scanning libraries using tiled-region exchange mutagenesis

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ABSTRACT

The analysis of gene function frequently requires the generation of mutants. Deep-mutational scanning (DMS) has emerged as a powerful tool to decipher important functional residues within genes and proteins. However, methods for performing DMS tend to be complex or laborious. Here, we introduce Tiled-Region Exchange (T-REx) Mutagenesis, which is a multiplexed modification of the EMPIRIC mutagenesis approach. Self-encoded removal fragments are cloned in parallel in non-overlapping gene locations and pooled. In a one-pot reaction, oligonucleotides are then swapped with their corresponding self-encoded removal fragments in bulk using a single Golden Gate reaction. To aid in downstream phenotyping, the library is then fused with unique DNA barcodes using the Bxb1 recombinase. We demonstrate this approach and its optimizations, to show that it is both easy to perform and efficient. This method offers simple and expedient means to create comprehensive mutagenesis libraries.

ARTICLE SUMMARY

Researchers in the field of molecular genetics frequently investigate protein function via mutations. Here, we present a rapid deep-mutational scanning methodology called Tiled-Region Exchange Mutagenesis that can comprehensively create mutant libraries. The approach is a multiplexed version of the established EMPIRIC mutagenesis approach and retains its simplicity. We show optimizations of the in vitro reactions to reduce cost and improve robustness. This method will be useful to researchers seeking to perform deep-mutational scanning on any gene of interest.

INTRODUCTION

In the field of genomics and proteomics, assessing the functional impacts of mutations has been a crucial area of research. Efficient strategies for site-directed mutagenesis have allowed improved understanding of catalytic enzymes(1), binding interfaces(2), and regulatory elements(3). Standard methods for site-directed mutagenesis frequently assess mutations at specific sites to specific residues and therefore only offer a small glimpse of possible mutations on a gene of interest(4). In proteins, a less biased method is alanine scanning(5), which aims to decipher the functional contribution of each native amino acid in a protein. More recently, alanine scanning has been supplanted by deep-mutational scanning (DMS) where the activity of each possible amino acid is compared at each position in a protein(6). These screens offer an extremely rich view of the functional and evolutionary constraints on proteins as amino acids of similar biochemical properties can be leveraged to obtain deeper insight on functional residues(6, 7). However, one major challenge with obtaining these improved mutagenesis screens is that deep-mutational scanning is far less accessible to current molecular biology labs due to cost and difficulty of production(8). This limitation has precluded the genome-scale analysis of variants.

To capture a complete set of comprehensive variants for a gene of interest, the DMS approach must be unbiased and provide a saturated library pool(9, 10). Ideally, every possible amino acid change across the target gene or region should be present, encompassing all variants identified through evolutionary comparisons or variant screening and large-scale sequencing efforts. Moreover, each variant created in the pool should be equally represented before having undergone any phenotypic assays. This approach must also have the capability of being performed in bulk, using high-throughput screening techniques, while being scalable to any desired gene size.

Several methods have been previously developed for generating variant libraries to assess mutations in bulk including parallel site-directed mutagenesis (SDM)(11), error-prone PCR (ep-PCR), Saturated Programmable Integration of Elements (SPINE)(12), and various oligonucleotide-based approaches (Kunkel(13), PFunkel(14), PALS(15), POPcode(16), and EMPIRIC(17)). These oligonucleotide-based approaches have become more popular in recent years due to the rapidly decreasing cost of oligo pool synthesis. While these methods all have their advantages, to our knowledge no existing method is both easy to perform and generates all possible single amino acid variants or missense mutations in a gene, while simultaneously ensuring that each plasmid copy contains only one single amino acid variant, and that the wildtype sequences are minimized in this library.

To address these current limitations, we have developed a simple, novel DMS approach that multiplexes the EMPIRIC methodology, called Tiled-Region Exchange (T-REx) Mutagenesis (Fig. 1). T-REx aims to achieve a high mutational efficiency while multiplexing the workflow within a streamlined one-pot reaction, such to create a library of evenly represented single amino acid mutations along a gene of interest. This approach also aims to increase throughput, while decreasing the off-target mutation rate, to improve scalability for variant effect mapping and functional interpretation. Here, we outline our novel approach, its advantages, and implications as an integral DMS approach that generates a variant library enriched in mutations which may inform biomedical research and be relevant to disease.

Figure 1: (A) The gene of interest (goi) is split into non-overlapping tiled regions with unique inward-facing BsaI sites. The native sequence is temporarily replaced with a *ccdB* negative selection cassette, and then swapped for the desired dsDNA mutagenic oligo containing NNK codons at each position in a Golden Gate reaction with 4-base overhangs. **(B)** The variant library and barcode plasmid library are fused in a Bxb1 recombinase reaction and can be sequenced to associate the mutation to their unique barcode. **(C)** To complete a selection assay on the variant library, variants can compete for growth and their relative fitness can be obtained by sequencing the abundance of each barcode before and after selection.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

In silico data-assisted design

To multiplex the EMPIRIC mutagenesis method, self-encoded removal fragments (SERFs) are cloned in non-overlapping locations (or tiles) in a gene in parallel, and then subsequently pooled followed by exchange with desired fragments using simultaneous Golden Gate assembly in a one pot reaction, where T4 ligase and BsaI restriction endonuclease work in tandem for scarless ligation reactions over non-palindromic overhangs. Reaction fidelity is ensured by the specific overhangs used in this Golden Gate reaction, but minimizing off-target ligations is still desirable by choosing tile locations that produce overhangs with minimal crosstalk.

To select these tile locations, we took inspiration from the Data-optimized Assembly Design process that was developed for simultaneous gene assembly of 52 fragments(18, 19). We begin by randomly choosing tile boundary locations and calculating an objective function, which scores the probability of on-target assembly, the probability of off-target assembly, the presence of palindromes, the presence of vector-only relegation, and the tile-size variance. Tile positions are then randomly moved in a local region and positions that maximize this objective function are maintained. After a few iterations, we obtain sets of tile locations with compatible overhangs that can be assembled in one-pot. A script implementing this algorithm can be obtained at: https://github.com/annb-lab/TRex.

Library generation and cloning

ccdB entry vector cloning

Tiled *ccdB*-containing plasmids were generated with parallel PCR reactions, where the *Escherichia*
coli plasmid containing a gene of interest was first amplified to exclude the tile region. Each of these
PCR reactions were performed separately, so that there was an amplified fragment for each tile. The
primers used for these PCRs contained a complementary overhang to the *ccdB* PCR fragment, which
were then cloned with Gibson Assembly[20] in a 10 ul reaction by combining equal amounts of the
ccdB fragment and backbone PCR fragment. Reactions were then incubated at 50 °C for 1 hour on
the thermocycler. 1 ul of this assembled product was transformed into *ccdB* Survival 2 competent
cells (Invitrogen), which allow for the otherwise toxic *ccdB* fragment to be propagated.

Oligo extension

Oligos were ordered from IDT (Integrated DNA Technologies) as standard desalted oligos, as
Ultramers, or as oPools (which use the Ultramer synthesis platform). They were then resuspended
in 10 mM Tris, 0.1 mM EDTA pH 8.0 to 10 µM. Conversion of the single-stranded oligonucleotide to
double-stranded DNA and preparation of the *E. coli* library was performed as in previously with small
modifications (which will be described in their respective sections)[21]. In some trials, gBlocks would
substitute for these Ultramers, with specific introduced mutations, for a site-directed mutagenesis
approach (three to four mutations in different tiles can be ordered as a single 500 bp gBlock) in a
more cost effective and simple manner.

NEBridge and transformation

Golden Gate assembly[22] was performed using a cycling method with a modified reaction buffer
that shows higher cloning efficiency. We usually used about 500 ng of *ccdB*-entry vector, and 1 ul of
purified dsDNA oligonucleotide in a 20 ul reaction. We used the following cycling protocol: 1) 37 °C
for 1 minute, 2) 16 °C for 1 minute, 3) GOTO 1, 60 times, 4) 50 °C for 5 minutes, 5) 12 °C for infinite
time. We used a 5x assembly buffer: 200 ul of 10x Cutsmart buffer, 20 ul of 100 mM ATP, 20 ul of 1 M
DTT, 60 ul of propylene diol, 100 mg of PEG 8000 and water to 400 ul. Our 20x enzyme mix was: 10 ul
T4 ligase (2000 U/ul), 30 ul BsaI-HFv2 (20 U/ul). The product of the cycling reaction can be directly
transformed into homemade chemical competent cells[23], and we routinely obtain 10^5-10^6 cfu.
from this transformation.

Bxb1-integrase fusion

To barcode the deep-mutational scanning library, barcodes were cloned in a plasmid containing
kanamycin resistance and an R6K origin of replication, which requires a strain containing the Pir
element for propagation[24]. Barcodes were cloned as in previously, except using strains BAN004
(DH10B, *uidA*::pir116) and BAN005 (ccdB Survival 2, *uidA*::pir116) for plasmid propagation. The
plasmid also contained a Bxb1 attP site, while the variant library, containing ampicillin resistance
and a pUC origin of replication, contained a Bxb1 attB site[25]. A Bxb1 fusion reaction was prepared
as follows: 400 ng of the plasmid containing the mutagenized library, 200 ng of the barcode library, 2
ul of 5x Bxb1 buffer (250 mM Tris pH 8, 250 mM KCl, 375 mM NaCl, 5 mM EDTA, 500 ug/mL BSA, 25%
PEG 8000), 1 ul of Bxb1 integrase enzyme (at approximately 0.5 mg/mL) and topped with water to 10
ul. The reaction was then incubated at 37°C for 2 hours in a thermocycler. Gel electrophoresis
verification of the fusion reaction indicated that the reaction is essentially complete within 2 hours
at 37 °C. The reaction was then transformed directly into chemical competent *E. coli* cells and
recovered in LB+Amp+Kan to select for cells that received the fused plasmid only.

Purification of Bxb1 integrase

Purification of the Bxb1 integrase was performed using a Bxb1 integrase construct that was C-terminally tagged with a 6xHis. This construct was expressed in BL21(DE3) *E. coli* cells that were grown in ZYM505 medium(26). The cultures were induced with IPTG at 0.25 mM at mid-log phase (OD_{600} ~ =0.4–0.8) and incubated overnight at 18°C with shaking. Cells were then harvested by centrifugation and resuspended in lysis buffer (20 mM Tris (pH 8), 1 M NaCl and 5% (v/v) glycerol). After cell lysis by sonication and centrifugation to remove cell debris, the clarified lysate was loaded into a nickel-nitrilotriacetic acid (Ni-NTA) resin column, which was pre-equilibrated with lysis buffer + 10mM Imidazole. The column was then washed with the same lysis buffer + 10mM Imidazole, to remove excess non-specific binders and outcompeting weakly bound proteins, before eluting the 6xHis-tagged Bxb1 integrase with lysis buffer + 250 mM Imidazole. The eluted protein then underwent a buffer exchange to completely remove the imidazole and concentrate the protein to 1 mg/ml. The purified protein was then diluted with equal volumes of glycerol (final 50% v/v glycerol), reaching a final concentration of ~8.5 uM and stored at –20 °C. We did not remove the 6xHis-tag from the Bxb1 integrase protein since the tag is small (~0.8 kDa) and has not been seen to interfere with the robust, high-yielding Bxb1 reaction efficiency.

Yeast transformations

After barcoding the library, the purified plasmid pools can be transfected into a model organism of choice. We used a standard Lithium Acetate (LiOAc) and 50% PEG protocol to transform our libraries into yeast(27). An overnight culture of the desired yeast strain was grown to saturation in YPD (2% peptone, 1% yeast extract, 2% (w/v) glucose), and 150-300 ul was transferred into 5 ml of fresh YPD and grown for 4.5-5 hours at 30 °C until an optimal OD600 of 0.4-0.6 was reached. The cells were then pelleted, washed, and the following were added on top of the cells: 240 ul of 50% PEG 3350, 36 ul of 1 M Lithium Acetate, 50 ul denatured Salmon Sperm DNA (2 mg/mL, boiled 5 min, snap cooled on ice), 10-20 ul of PmeI digested mutagenized barcoded library. The PmeI digestion was done to release the mutagenized fragment with regions of homology for integration in the yeast genome. It is specific to our experiment and other means of transfection are possible. The reaction was then vortexed until homogenized and left to incubate in a 42 °C heat bath for 1 hour. The cells were then pelleted, the supernatant was removed, and the pellet was resuspended in 1 ml of ddH$_2$O before being plated on standard dropout plates and incubated for 2-3 days at 30 °C.

Sequencing library preparation

gDNA extraction

After growing the transformed yeast pools to saturation, the genomic DNA was extracted using the following gDNA extraction protocol. 1-3 mL was spun down and the supernatant was removed. The cell pellet was resuspended in 100 ul of yeast lysis extraction buffer (5 mg/mL Zymolyase 20T (100 U/mL), 100 mM Sodium Phosphate buffer pH 7.4 (0.5 M Na2HPO4 and 0.5 M NaH2PO4), 10 mM EDTA, 0.5% SB3-14, 200 ug/mL Rnase A, 1 M Sorbitol, 20 mM DTT, stored at -20 °C) and placed at 37°C for 30 minutes or more until complete lysis. After lysis, 400 ul of lysis/binding buffer (100 mM MES pH 5, 4.125 M Guanidine thiocyanate, 25% isopropanol, 10 mM EDTA) was added to the tube, and vortexed until all precipitates were dissolved. The tube was spun down for 30 seconds if unlysed cells remained. The supernatant of the tube was passed onto a standard miniprep silica column and spun for 30 seconds to pass the supernatant through the column. 1x wash with 400 ul Wash buffer 1 (10% GuSCN, 25% Isopropanol, 10 mM EDTA) followed by 1x wash with 600 ul 10 mM Tris/80% Ethanol was performed and spun for 30 seconds after each wash. The column can then be dried by

spinning for 3 minutes at maximum speed. The gDNA was then eluted with 50 ul of elution buffer (10
mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.5), where the expected DNA concentration was around 20-30 ng/ul for a 1 mL
culture. Success of the extraction was verified by agarose gel electrophoresis.

PCR and sequencing

Unique barcodes linked with mutated codons can be sequenced using long-read sequencing or with
Illumina in the case of short libraries. This can be done with PCR (necessary for libraries integrated
inside model organisms), or by restriction digest followed by adapter ligations according to the
recommendations of the sequencing platforms. Our FKBP1a library was sequenced on a MiSeq v2
500-cycle kit using PCR protocols as previously described in a previous study(21).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Efficient and comprehensive deep-mutational scanning libraries using tiled Golden-Gate
assembly

There is no shortage of approaches for systematically mutagenizing genes of interest on a plasmid.
The conceptually simplest approach to do this is by performing standard site-directed mutagenesis
(SDM) at every desired position, however this is extremely laborious(11). Higher throughput methods
have used mutagenic oligonucleotides and a polymerase, or error-inducing enzymes (such as error-
prone PCR(28) or fusion of T7 RNA polymerase with AID(29)). All these approaches, however, require
fine-tuning the Poisson rate of introduced mutations and cannot guarantee that all constructs
contain a single mutation (and not zero or more than one). In contrast, the EMPIRIC (Extremely
Methodical and Parallel Investigation of Randomized Individual Codons) method is an
oligonucleotide-based approach that clones the designed oligonucleotides directly with the use of a
ligase (17) and thus falls into a different class of mutagenesis techniques that can guarantee the final
product. In EMPIRIC, plasmids receiving the oligonucleotide cassettes have a Self-Encoded Removal
Fragment (SERF) flanked by inverted BsaI restriction sites(17). As such, plasmids can be treated
enzymatically with BsaI to ligate oligo fragments flanked by sticky ends that have been designed to
ligate at the desired position in the target vector. Where the EMPIRIC method falls short is that it only
mutates a single region of a gene. However, it is trivial to imagine how the EMPIRIC approach can be
parallelized to mutagenize a complete gene.

In light of this, the theoretical ideal approach would generate one and only one mutation, with high
mutational efficiency in a one-pot reaction. This would allow the production of comprehensive
libraries of all possible missense variants in a gene of interest. To this end, we developed Tiled-Region
Exchange (T-REx) mutagenesis, which was greatly inspired by the EMPIRIC approach. Briefly, the
approach is a *multiplexed* version of EMPIRIC where all the SERFs (referred to as 'tiles') are replaced
with their corresponding oligonucleotides in a single reaction. The following four objectives were
prioritized prior to the development of this method: ease of use, generation of all possible single-
mutant variants, production of one and only one variant per clone, and minimization of unmutated
sequences in the library.

To multiplex EMPIRIC and decrease unmutated sequences in the library, we made two major
modifications to the protocol: 1) we include the toxic *ccdB* gene in the SERF, and 2) we use tiles that
are positioned such that they contain unique and optimized overhangs that can be used to clone
synthetic mutagenizing oligos in a single reaction. The addition of *ccdB* in the SERF virtually
guarantees that only cells that have undergone a successful tile-exchange will be viable(30), thus

decreasing the frequency of clones that maintain the WT, unmutated sequence. The unique
optimized overhangs enable the entire gene to be mutated in a single reaction vessel as these
minimize off-target ligations of oligonucleotides. Finally, to aid in downstream phenotyping of
mutants, we introduce an approach to add unique barcodes to the mutagenesis libraries using the
Bxb1 recombinase.

A brief overview of the workflow of T-REx is as follows: parallel cloning of SERFs in a gene of interest
on a plasmid, converting designed oligonucleotide pools to dsDNA, one-pot cloning of all the
oligonucleotides with a plasmid pool of SERF-containing genes (Fig. 1A), followed by one-pot fusion
with a unique barcode (Fig. 1B). The final library can be introduced in a model system of choice for
further phenotyping (Fig. 1C).

Automated and optimized design of tile locations

One critical component of T-REx is the initial insertion of SERFs. Simultaneous cloning of
oligonucleotides that potentially encode different tile sequences requires that their ligation and
exchange with corresponding SERF is highly specific. Here, a trade-off between the number of tiles
and the length of the cloning oligonucleotide must be considered, as longer oligonucleotides are
more costly and may have a higher rate of synthesis errors, while having more tiles increases the
complexity of the reaction (notwithstanding the increased number of SERFs that must be cloned in
parallel).

To explore these constraints, we first verified whether the length of mutagenic oligonucleotides is a
limiting factor in T-REx mutagenesis. We cloned SERFs inside regions of different lengths into the
eforRed pink-producing chromoprotein(31), and performed a single oligonucleotide exchange,
counting resulting colonies for cloning efficiency and yield. A successful reaction yields pink
colonies, while oligonucleotide synthesis errors (which are frequently indels) would yield a white
colony. Across a variety of overhangs and a large range of oligonucleotide sizes (from <60 bp to 200
bp), using standard desalted oligos or using Ultramers from IDT (for longer oligos), we found no
drastic difference in correct assembly or colony counts after *E. coli* transformation (results not
shown). Therefore, contrary to our original assumption, the length of the oligonucleotides or the
synthesis platform is not a limiting factor for EMPIRIC and the requirement for semi-accurate
synthesis on both 5' and 3' ends of the purchased oligo is sufficient to ensure high-efficiency cloning.
While shorter oligos may be more cost-effective and accessible, they do not influence the reaction
efficiency, and thus the trade-off for a comprehensive mutagenesis library is simply the cost of
oligonucleotides and the total number of SERFs. In a practical sense, the span of a tile can therefore
be about 50 amino acids.

To reduce cost, we further explored the number of bases needed for cleavage close to the end of DNA
fragments for the BsaI restriction endonuclease. According to NEB, BsaI can cleave fragments when
the recognition sequence is 1 bp from the end of a double-stranded fragment, but they recommend
6 base pair for Golden Gate assembly(32). We thus varied the number of bases from 0-20 bp past
one of the two BsaI site in the oligo (one site is necessarily longer due to the need for a primer during
conversion of ssDNA oligos to dsDNA, see Methods) and tested the efficiency of the reaction using
the same colorimetric assay as previously discussed except that we mutagenized a plasmid
containing the amilCP violet-producing chromoprotein. In our hands, 0 and 1 base lengths failed to
produce many colonies, while extensions of 2 bases or more, including 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 16, and 20 bp,
supported a robust assembly at high colony counts (Fig. 2A). We observed no notable difference in
colony counts past 2 base extensions, suggesting this as a minimum threshold to support the
reaction.

Upon testing many different overhangs, we encountered one case where an increase in white
colonies was observed and traced this to a case where overhangs differing by one base could
promote re-circularization of the plasmid without the oligonucleotide. While this is a common
occurrence in some restriction-endonuclease cloning workflows, it was not expected to occur based
on the measured fidelity of T4 DNA ligase (5-GGAA ligated to 3-CCCT was seen approximately 0.1%
of the time in NEB's screen(18)). Despite this, we observed about 25% white colonies in this reaction
(Fig. 2B). Thus, care must be taken when designing tile locations to minimize these off-target
ligations.

Figure 2: (A) Barplot depicting colony formation vs number of bases past the BsaI recognition
sequence with plate photographs indicating threshold number for reaction success. **(B)** Stacked
barplots indicating the overhang specificity and its impact on ligation accuracy. **(C)** Stacked bar
plot indicating colony counts grouped by chromoprotein identity (five chromoproteins, each
represented by a different colour) indicating variability in ligation efficiency. The white colonies
are incomplete reactions, represented at a very small frequency. **(D)** Representative agar plates
demonstrating i) the impact on the transformation of removing the blue plasmid backbone from
the pool of plasmids and ii) of removing the blue repair oligo from the reaction. No blue colonies
were observed on either plate and there was no increase in white colonies.

Our previous results suggest that T-REx could be used as a comprehensive mutagenesis technique
that can mutagenize whole genes with minimal constraints. Thus, to aid in developing this
methodology, we developed a script that can automate the cloning process and choose optimal tile
locations, inspiring ourselves from data-optimized assembly design. The efficiency and fidelity of T4
DNA ligation on all possible 4 bp overhangs was previously measured by NEB(18), and serves as a
guide for optimized tile locations. The number of tiles is chosen by the user (taking into account the
total cost of assembly), and all oligonucleotides, including mutagenic oligopools, are returned in a
simple output.

While it has been routine in synthetic biology labs to remove BsaI sites from genes for cloning
purposes(33), it is also necessary for deep-mutagenesis to consider that sets of random nucleotides
can generate a *de novo* BsaI restriction sequence within the mutagenized region. In our lab, we
usually perform degenerate NNK mutagenesis (though NNN or NNS is also possible) to randomly
generate all 20 amino acids at a single site, while reducing redundancy and the number of stop
codons. In certain instances (for example NNK CTC), a spurious BsaI site can be produced. In these
cases, the script automatically attempts to further mutagenize surrounding bases to preserve the
coding amino acid (for example NNK CTC to NNK CTT) or will resort to NNS mutagenesis. One
advantage of data-optimized assembly design is that it can easily incorporate further constraints in
the design, and so other restriction endonuclease sites can also be automatically screened and
removed in a similar manner.

Tiled-Region Exchange mutagenesis can be performed as a one-pot reaction

One strength of T-REx is that, by choosing unique overhangs where off-target ligations have been
minimized, the reaction might be performed in one-pot. Though not necessarily required for
successful and comprehensive mutagenesis, this may improve throughput and cost as long as the
reaction remains specific. For example, the list price for IDT oligo pools in small scale is 5 cents per
base, while it is 1 cent per base at very high scale(34). To showcase the specificity of this one-pot
reaction, we cloned SERFs into 5 different chromoproteins. Single-stranded oligos that 'repair' these
SERFs were ordered and pooled prior to conversion to dsDNA, and a one-pot Tiled-Region Exchange
mutagenesis reaction was performed. The tile locations were chosen such that incorrect assembly
(an oligo swapped with the wrong SERF) would yield an unpigmented colony. Under ideal conditions,
we would expect approximately equal cloning efficiencies for all five chromoproteins and thus
observe an equal proportion of colored colonies. The results of this experiment are shown in Fig. 2C,
suggesting that the reaction is highly efficient and specific, depicting <1% of colonies having been
incorrectly ligated and appearing white, with each colour appearing at a similar frequency.

To further highlight the specificity of this reaction, we performed the same experiment but this time
omitting either one plasmid entirely (and thus having too many 'repair oligos') or omitting one
swapping oligonucleotide (and thus having one plasmid with a SERF that cannot be successfully
cloned). In neither of these cases did we observe a detrimental effect. As shown in Fig. 2D, all 4 of
the other chromoproteins were properly ligated with their exchange oligos and there was no excess
of white colonies. As expected, no colonies produced the omitted intact chromoprotein.

Barcodes can be attached to the mutagenic library using recombinase-mediated fusion

In the EMPIRIC approach, the mutagenized fragment can be sequenced directly for phenotyping
purposes using standard short-read sequencing. However, when mutagenizing whole-genes in one-
pot reactions, this approach cannot be guaranteed to sequence the intended tile and long-read
sequencing typically do not offer the throughput required for phenotyping thousands of variants

effectively. Previously, it has been shown that short, unique DNA barcodes can be linked to variations
of interest and used to phenotype libraries effectively with short-read sequencing(35).

To do this, we designed our mutagenesis to be performed on a plasmid containing a Bxb1 attB(25)
(bacterial attachment) integration site and ampicillin resistance. On another plasmid, a barcode
library is cloned on an attP-containing (phage attachment) plasmid(25) with an R6K origin of
replication with kanamycin resistance(24). Bxb1 serine-integrase can thus fuse both plasmids *in vitro*
on the conserved "GA" dinucleotide sequence within the attachment sites, yielding a barcoded
deep-mutation scan library after transformation into standard DH5a cells and selecting on both
kanamycin and ampicillin. The linkage between the mutagenized variant and the unique barcode can
be determined by using any of the long-read sequencing technologies available and the use of Bxb1
integrase enables flexibility for downstream users that may wish to use the Gateway(36) system to
clone their library onto different backbones while preserving this linkage. Thus, this approach allows
the unique tagging, quantification, and identification of each variant in the sequencing analysis from
complex multiplexed mixtures.

In our workflow, we have optimized this Bxb1 fusion reaction through several parameters and
assessed these reactions on an agarose gel. We first tested a range of temperatures, 20°C, 25°C, 30°C,
and 37°C, where we noticed that the most complete fusion reaction occurred at 37°C (Fig. 3A). We
also tested various incubation times, at 37°C, by inactivating the reaction every 15-30 minutes until
complete fusion (results not shown). Fusion of plasmids by Bxb1 was essentially complete after two
hours. We also tested various salt concentration and additives (Spermidine, Bovine Serum Albumin
(BSA), propylene glycol, polyethylene glycol (PEG), etc.) to the fusion buffer, where the best fusion
results occurred in the presence of 75 mM NaCl (Fig. 3B), 50 mM KCl and incorporation of 5% PEG
8000 (Fig. 3C).

Figure 3: Optimization of Bxb1 integrase-mediated fusion between a linear R6K (oriγ) recipient vector and a donor fragment. A complete fusion reaction yields four diagnostic bands corresponding to the linear R6K backbone, the donor fragment, and the two recombination products and is consistent across each reaction. **(A)** Agarose gel of temperature series. Lane 1: DNA size ladder. Lanes 2-5: fusion reactions performed at 20 °C, 25 °C, 30 °C, and 37 °C, respectively for 2 hours. **(B)** Additive series. Lane 1: DNA ladder. Lanes 2-5: reactions supplemented with 2 mM spermidine, 200 μg/mL BSA, 5% PEG, and 10% propylene glycol, respectively. Reaction at 37 °C for 2 hours. **(C)** Salt tolerance series. Lane 1: DNA ladder. Lanes 2-5: reactions supplemented with 25 mM, 50 mM, 75 mM, and 100 mM NaCl, respectively. Reaction at 37 °C for 2 hours. **(D)** Validation of plasmid fusions using PmeI restriction endonuclease which confirms correct linearization of fragments. **Lane 1:** 10kb DNA ladder; **Lane 2:** PmeI digested barcode plasmid before Bxb1 fusion reaction; **Lane 3:** PmeI digested mutagenized plasmid before Bxb1 fusion reaction; **Lane 4:** PmeI digested fusion construct of barcode plasmid and mutagenized plasmid after Bxb1 fusion reaction. Band sizes are consistent with PmeI restriction site locations.

Deep-mutational scanning libraries produced by tiled-region exchange mutagenesis are comprehensive

To confirm that Tiled-Region Exchange mutagenesis can be used for the production of comprehensive single-variant libraries, we produced a mutant library for the human FKBP1a gene, whose protein product binds to TOR in the presence of rapamycin to inhibit cell growth(37). The

library was integrated into the yeast genome at the benign *ho* locus, which contains loss-of-function
mutations in the laboratory yeast strain(38). We then sequenced the barcoded library after yeast
integration and sought to obtain several quality metrics that could confirm successful mutagenesis.
The biological insights gained from performing comprehensive variant scanning on FKBP1a after
selection will be described elsewhere.

We first verified whether NNK mutagenesis ordered as oPools had a nucleotide bias, which would
result in a skewed amino acid representation. In standard desalted oligos, IDT offers 'hand-mixing' to
ensure equal base representation, but this cannot be done at the scale of oPools. We found a modest
synthesis bias with 30%G: 29%T: 24%A: 17%C. With NNK mutagenesis, this translated to an
overrepresentation of glycine amino acids, and a decrease in histidine and glutamines. While proline
was also reduced compared to expectations, there are more codons that code for proline than
histidine, and as such the absence of prolines in the final mutagenesis library was not very
pronounced. To rectify this bias, we suggest that oligos can be synthesized as both Cricks and
Watson strand (so as to have MNN as well), however this will double the cost of making such
mutagenesis libraries and it may be more cost-effective to transform the libraries at higher
multiplicity if possible.

Finally, to show that the library can produce variants at every position, we cumulated sequencing
reads with barcodes and their consensus mutations. We found on average 4.35 barcodes per
mutants, with the median being 3. Although we observed a slight mutational bias in the first tile (Fig.
4A), presumably due to uneven plasmid mixing or exchange efficiency, our mutational coverage was
94.66% and a heatmap indicating positions with the number of barcodes representing the mutation
is shown in Fig. 4B. Obtaining about 100 colony-forming units per mutational position appears
sufficient to ensure high coverage of all variants. These results suggest that T-REx mutagenesis can
be used for the production of comprehensive deep-mutational scanning libraries.

Figure 4: (A) Bar plot showing the number of barcodes per position along FKBP1A. The gene was divided into three tiles: Tile 1 (positions 2-29), Tile 2 (positions 30-70), and Tile 3 (positions 71-108) and a total of 13,062 barcodes were detected, distributed as follows: 6,279 in Tile 1, 3,743 in Tile 2, and 3,950 in Tile 3. Barcodes corresponding to variants without an identifiable mutation were excluded from this analysis. **(B)** Heatmap of barcode frequency per mutation. Wild-type positions are outlined in black boxes.

CONCLUSION

Tiled-Region Exchange (T-REx) mutagenesis combines the simplicity of the EMPIRIC approach and the throughput of other one-pot mutagenesis techniques. One caveat, however, is that the initial *ccdB* cloning stage must be done in parallel and can be laborious for large genes or for more systematic studies. Further, while T-REx can essentially guarantee one mutation per plasmid within the pool, it is often desirable to introduce multiple mutations per fragment. With T-REx, multiple variants can be introduced by designing oligonucleotides containing several mutations, however the user is constrained to a small region within a tile. In principle, this can be rectified by assembling several oligonucleotides simultaneously (in a three- or four-piece Golden Gate assembly), however

this can only produce combinatorial libraries. In cases where single variants must be observed under
different gene background, it may be preferable to combine T-REx with error-prone PCR or with other
mutagenic techniques.

During the writing of this manuscript, another study showcased a similar assembly technique for
deep-mutational scanning(39). Our approach differs in a few ways, namely by using *ccdB* during one
of the reaction steps, and by allowing pooling of the complete reaction during assembly. In contrast,
one particular strength of that assembly method is that barcodes are programmed during
mutagenesis, which avoids the need for long-read sequencing and can even bypass sequencing to
associate barcodes to mutations. Nevertheless, as deep-mutational scanning becomes more
accessible, there will be a rise of new methodologies that increase efficiency, cost, and ease of use.
New developments in this area will enable combining the strength of different established
methodologies to ultimately give flexibility to researchers in this field.

Despite the limitations of Tiled-Region Exchange mutagenesis, our lab has leveraged the relatively
straightforward methodology to train undergraduate students with minimal molecular biology
experience, and we anticipate that its ease of use will be useful for labs seeking to produce routine
comprehensive variant libraries without much trial and error.

DATA AVAILABILITY

403 Strains and plasmids are available upon request. Raw sequencing data has been submitted to
404 Sequence Read Archive. BioProject ID: PRJNA1316630. Code is available on
405 https://github.com/annb-lab/TRex.

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A

goi

ccdB tiling

NNK dsDNA oligos

★ NNK codon

4-base overhang

Pooled Golden-Gate reaction

ccdB   ccdB

B

Barcode library

Bxb1 recombination

Variant library

PacBIO sequencing

goi*

Barcoded variant library

C

Growth in media

Variants compete

Barcode deep sequencing

goi*

Variant frequency

wt

time

relative fitness

variants

Barcodes

Gene variant

goi*

Optional Gateway sites

Bxb1 Recombination site

A   Colony Formation vs Bases Past BsaI Recognition Sequence

B   Impact of BsaI Overhang Specificity on Ligation Accuracy

i) 1-base difference causes plasmid re-ligation

ii) 1-base difference on both sides causes 180-deg flipping

iii) 0-base mismatch causes near perfect ligation

Blue colonies

White colonies

C   Colony Counts by Colour

D   Impact of Removing One Tile or Plasmid from Pool

i) Transformation when blue plasmid omitted

ii) Transformation when blue dsDNA repair oligo omitted