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Standards for plant synthetic biology: A common syntax for exchange of DNA parts

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Viewpoints

Standards for plant synthetic biology: a common syntax for exchange of DNA parts

Summary

Inventors in the field of mechanical and electronic engineering can access multitudes of components and, thanks to standardization, parts from different manufacturers can be used in combination with each other. The introduction of BioBrick standards for the assembly of characterized DNA sequences was a landmark in microbial engineering, shaping the field of synthetic biology. Here, we describe a standard for Type IIS restriction endonuclease-mediated assembly, defining a common syntax of 12 fusion sites to enable the facile assembly of eukaryotic transcriptional units. This standard has been developed and agreed by representatives and leaders of the international plant science and synthetic biology communities, including inventors, developers and adopters of Type IIS cloning methods. Our vision is of an extensive catalogue of standardized, characterized DNA parts that will accelerate plant bioengineering.

Introduction

The World Bank estimates that almost 40% of land mass is used for cultivation of crop, pasture or forage plants (World Development Indicators, The World Bank 1960–2014). Plants also underpin production of building and packing materials, medicines, paper and decorations, as well as food and fuel. Plant synthetic biology offers the means and opportunity to engineer plants and algae for new roles in our environment, to produce therapeutic compounds and to address global problems such as food insecurity and the contamination of ecosystems with agrochemicals and macronutrients. The adoption of assembly standards will greatly accelerate the pathway from product design to market, enabling the full potential of plant synthetic biology to be realized.

The standardization of components, from screw threads to printed circuit boards, drives both the speed of innovation and the economy of production in mechanical and electronic engineering. Products as diverse as ink-jet printers and airplanes are designed and constructed from component parts and devices. Many of these components can be selected from libraries and catalogues of standard parts in which specifications and performance characteristics are described. The agreement and implementation of assembly standards that allow parts, even those from multiple

manufacturers, to be assembled together has underpinned invention in these fields.

This conceptual model is the basis of synthetic biology, with the same ideal being applied to biological parts (DNA fragments) for the engineering of biological systems. The first widely-adopted biological standard was the BioBrick, for which sequences and performance data are stored in the Registry of Standard Biological Parts (Knight, 2003). BioBrick assembly standard 10 (BBF RFC 10) was the first biological assembly standard to be introduced. Its key feature is that the assembly reactions are idempotent: each reaction retains the key structural elements of the constituent parts so that resulting assemblies can be used as input in identical assembly processes (Knight, 2003; Shetty *et al.*, 2008). Over the years, several other BioBrick assembly standards have been developed that diminish some of the limitations of standard 10 (Phillips & Silver, 2006; Anderson *et al.*, 2010). Additionally, several alternative technologies have been developed that confer the ability to assemble multiple parts in a single reaction (Engler *et al.*, 2008; Gibson *et al.*, 2009; Quan & Tian, 2009; Li & Elledge, 2012; Kok *et al.*, 2014).

While overlap-dependent methods are powerful and generally result in 'scarless' assemblies, their lack of idempotency and the requirement for custom oligonucleotides and amplification of even well characterized standard parts for each new assembly are considerable drawbacks (Ellis *et al.*, 2011; Liu *et al.*, 2013; Patron, 2014). Assembly methods based on Type IIS restriction enzymes, known widely as Golden Gate cloning, are founded on standard parts that can be characterized, exchanged and assembled cheaply, easily, and in an automatable way without proprietary tools and reagents (Engler *et al.*, 2009, 2014; Sarrion-Perdigones *et al.*, 2011; Werner *et al.*, 2012).

Type IIS assembly methods have been widely adopted in plant research laboratories with many commonly used sequences being adapted for Type IIS assembly and subsequently published and shared through public plasmid repositories such as AddGene (Sarrion-Perdigones *et al.*, 2011; Weber *et al.*, 2011; Emami *et al.*, 2013; Lampropoulos *et al.*, 2013; Binder *et al.*, 2014; Engler *et al.*, 2014; Vafaee *et al.*, 2014). Type IIS assembly systems have also been adopted for the engineering of fungi (Terfrüchte *et al.*, 2014) and 'IP-Free' host expression systems have been developed for bacteria, mammals and yeast (Whitman *et al.*, 2013).

To reap the benefits of the exponential increase in genomic information and DNA assembly technologies, bioengineers require assembly standards to be agreed for multicellular eukaryotes. A standard for plants must be applicable to the diverse taxa that comprise Archaeplastida and also be capable of retaining the features that minimize the need to reinvent common steps such as transferring genetic material into plant genomes. In this Viewpoint article, the authors of which include inventors, developers and

syntax bounded by an adjacent pair of adjacent fusion sites. However, when the full level of complexity is unnecessary, or if particular functional elements such as amino (N)- or carboxyl (C)-terminal tags are not required, standard parts can comprise sequences that span multiple fusion sites (Fig. 3).

The sequences that comprise the fusion sites have been selected both for maximum compatibility in the one-step digestion–ligation reaction and to maximize biological functionality. The 5' nontranscribed region is separated into core, proximal and distal promoter sequences, with the core region containing the transcriptional start site (TSS). The transcribed region is separated into coding parts and 5' and 3' untranslated parts. For maximum flexibility, an ATG codon for methionine is wholly or partially encoded into two fusion sites. The translated region, therefore, may be divided into three or four parts. The 3' nontranscribed region is followed by the 3' nontranscribed region, which contains the polyadenylation sequence (PAS). Amino acids coded by fusion sites within the coding region have been rationally selected: neutral, nonpolar amino acids, methionine and alanine, are encoded in the 3' overhangs of parts that may be used to house signal and transit peptides in order to prevent interference with recognition and cleavage. An alternative overhang, encoding a glycine, is also included to give greater flexibility for the fusion of noncleaved coding parts. Serine, a small amino acid commonly used to link peptide and reporter tags, is encoded in the overhang that will fuse C-terminal tag parts to coding sequences.

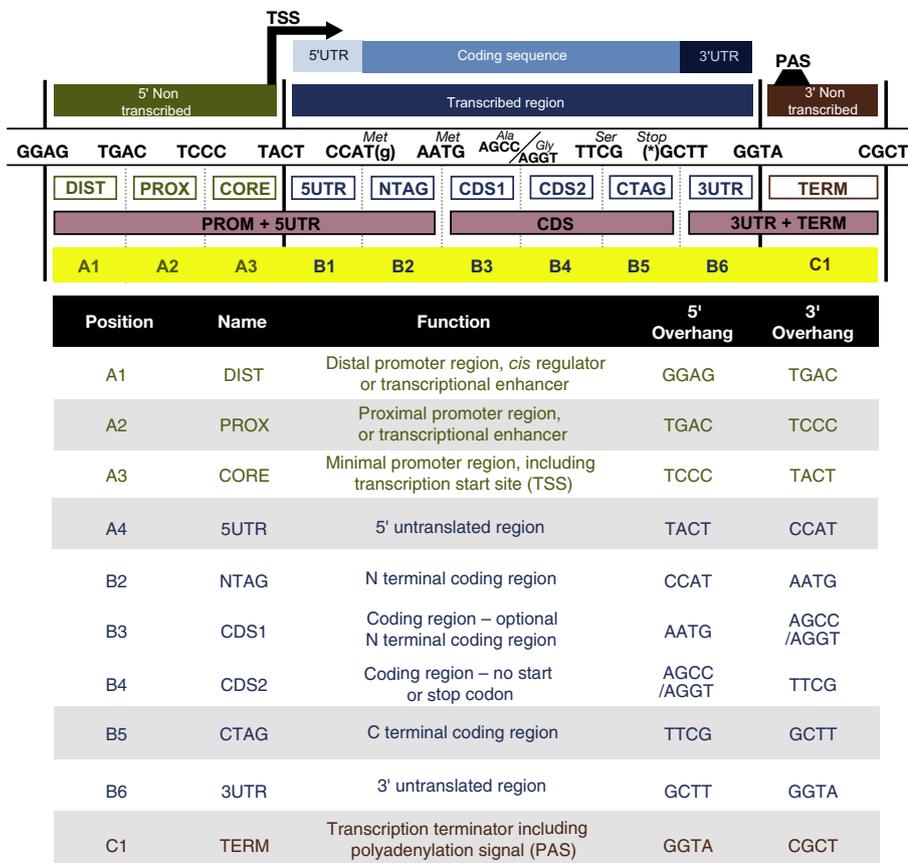


Fig. 3 Twelve fusion sites have been defined. These sites allow a multitude of standard parts to be generated. Standard parts comprise any portion of a gene cloned into a plasmid flanked by a convergent pair of *Bsa*I recognition sequences. Parts can comprise the region between an adjacent pair of adjacent fusion sites. Alternatively, to reduce complexity or when a particular functional element is not required, parts can span multiple fusion sites (examples in pink boxes).

Universal acceptor plasmids (UAPs)

Universal acceptor plasmids (UAPs) allow the conversion of any sequence to a standard part in a single step (Fig. 4). This is achieved by PCR amplification of desired sequences as a single fragment or, if restriction sites need to be domesticated, as multiple fragments (Fig. 4). The oligonucleotide primers used for amplification add 5' sequences to allow cloning into the UAP, add the standard fusion sites that the sequence will be flanked with when released from the UAP as a standard part with *Bsa*I and can also introduce mutations (Fig. 4). Two UAPs, pUPD2 (<https://gbclooning.org/feature/GB0307/>) and pUAP1 (AddGene no. 63674) can be used to create new standard parts in the chloramphenicol resistant pSB1C3 backbone, in which the majority of BioBricks housed at the Registry of Standard Parts are cloned. A spectinomycin resistant UAP, pAGM9121 has been published previously (AddGene no. 51833; Engler *et al.*, 2014).

Compatibility with multigene assembly systems

Standard parts are assembled into transcriptional units in plasmid vectors that contain the features and sequences required for delivery to the cell, for example Left border (LB) and Right border (RB) sequences and an origin of replication for *Agrobacterium*-mediated delivery. Subsequently, transcriptional units can be assembled into multigene constructs in plasmid acceptors that also contain these features. It is important that a standard Type IIS syntax be

compatible with the plasmid vector systems that are in common use such as GB2.0 and MoClo while also allowing space for further innovation in Type IIS-mediated multigene assembly methodologies and the development of plasmid vectors with features required for delivery to other species and by other delivery methods. The definition of a standard Type IIS syntax for plants is therefore timely and will allow the growing plant synthetic biology community access to an already large library of standard parts.

Conclusions

Synthetic biology aims to simplify the process of designing, constructing and modifying complex biological systems. Plants provide an ideal chassis for synthetic biology, are amenable to genetic engineering and have relatively simple requirements for growth (Cook *et al.*, 2014; Fesenko & Edwards, 2014). However, their eukaryotic gene structure and the methods commonly used for transferring DNA to their genomes demand specific plasmid vectors and a tailored assembly standard. Here, we have defined a

Type IIS genetic syntax that employs the principles of part reusability and standardization. The standard has also been submitted as a Request for Comments (BBF RFC 106) (Rutten *et al.*, 2015) at the BioBrick Foundation to facilitate iGEM teams working on plant chassis. Using the standards described here, new standard parts for plants can be produced and exchanged between laboratories enabling the facile construction of transcriptional units. We invite the plant science and synthetic biology communities to build on this work by adopting this standard to create a large repository of characterized standard parts for plants.

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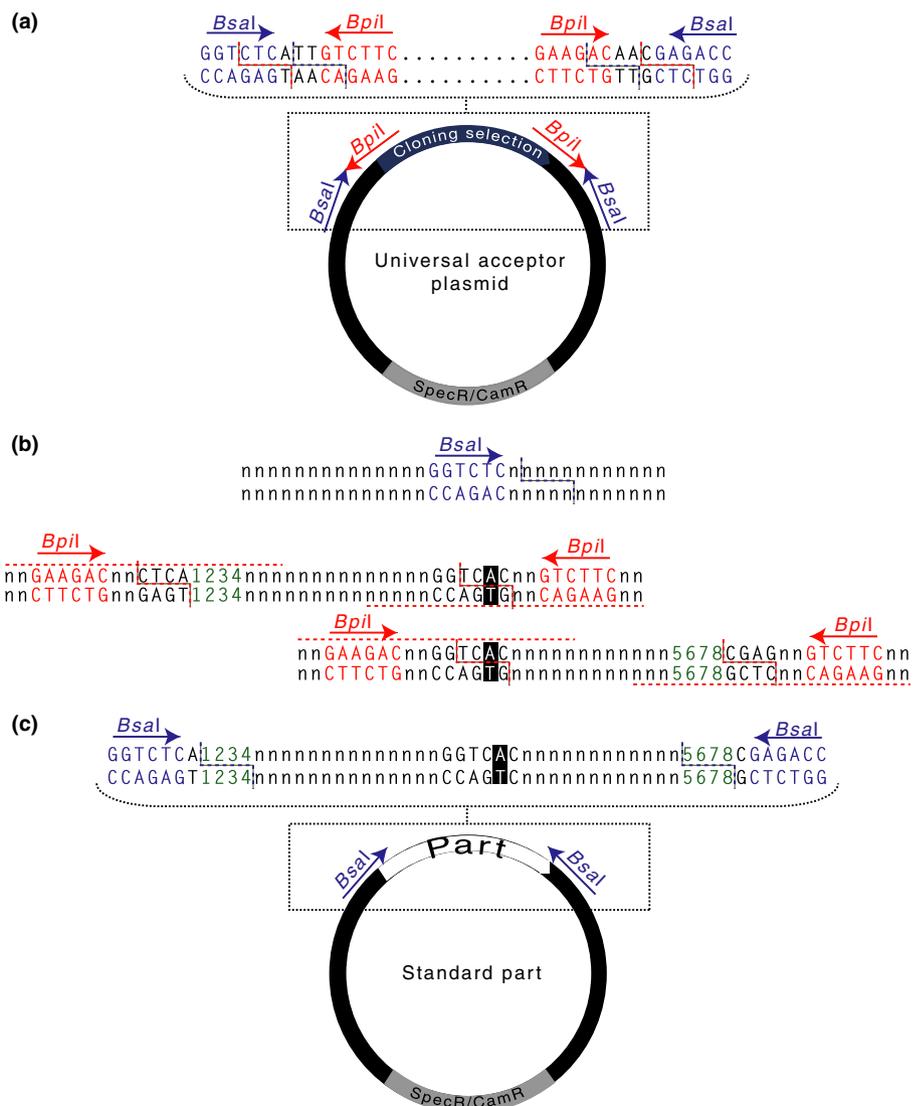


Fig. 4 (a) Universal acceptor plasmids (UAPs) comprise a small plasmid backbone conferring resistance to spectinomycin or chloramphenicol in bacteria. They contain a cloning site consisting of a pair of divergent Type IIS recognition sequences (e.g. *Bpil*, as depicted, or *BsmBI*) flanked by overlapping convergent *Bsal* recognition sequences. (b) A sequence containing an illegal *Bsal* recognition sequence can be amplified in two fragments using oligonucleotide primers with 5' overhangs (red dashed lines) that (i) introduce a mutation to destroy the illegal site (reversed type), (ii) add Type IIS recognition sequences (e.g. *Bpil*, as depicted, or *BsmBI*) and fusion sites to allow one step digestion–ligation into the universal acceptor, and (iii) add the desired fusion sites (green numbers) that will define the type of standard part and that will flank the part when rereleased from the backbone with *Bsal*. (c) When the resulting amplicons are cloned into a UAP, the new standard part will be flanked by a pair of convergent *Bsal* recognition sequences capable of releasing the part with the desired fusion sites (green numbers).

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