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Engineered bacteria detect tumor DNA

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Abstract

Synthetic biology has developed sophisticated cellular biosensors to detect and respond to human disease. However, biosensors have not yet been engineered to detect specific extracellular DNA sequences and mutations. Here, we engineered naturally competent *Acinetobacter baylyi* to detect donor DNA from the genomes of colorectal cancer (CRC) cells, organoids, and tumors. We characterized the functionality of the biosensors in vitro with co-culture assays and then validate in vivo with sensor bacteria delivered to mice harboring colorectal tumors. We observe horizontal gene transfer from the tumor to the sensor bacteria in our mouse model of CRC. This Cellular Assay for Targeted, CRISPR-discriminated Horizontal gene transfer (CATCH) enables the biodetection of specific cell-free DNA.

Main text

Bacterial engineering has allowed the development of living cell diagnostics and therapeutics (I-3), including microbes that respond to gut inflammation (4), intestinal bleeding (5), pathogens (6) and hypoxic tumors (7). Bacteria can access the entire gastrointestinal tract to produce outputs measured in stool (4) or urine (7). Cellular memory, such as bistable switches (4, 8, 9) or genomic rearrangements (10), enables bacteria to store information over time. Some bacteria are naturally competent for transformation and can sample extracellular DNA directly from their environment (11). Natural competence is one mechanism of horizontal gene transfer (HGT), the exchange of genetic material between organisms outside vertical, "parent to offspring", transmission (12). HGT is common between microbes (12). It may also occur from microbes into animals and plants (13) and, in the opposite direction, from eukaryotes to prokaryotes (14). The forward engineering of bacteria to detect and respond to mammalian DNA via HGT, however, has not been explored.

Acinetobacter baylyi is a highly competent and well-studied bacterium (15, 16) that is largely non-pathogenic in healthy humans (17), can colonize the murine gastrointestinal tract (18), and acquires unpurified, environmental DNA from lysed cells (19). Our CATCH strategy delivers bacterial biosensors to sample and genomically integrate target DNA (Fig. 1). To demonstrate this concept, we use the biosensor to detect engineered tumor cells. We then develop genetic circuits to detect natural, non-engineered tumor DNA sequences, discriminating oncogenic mutations at the single base level. Since the target sequence and output gene are modular, our approach can be generalized to detect arbitrary DNA sequences and respond in a programmable manner.

Results

Engineering cancer cell lines, organoids and sensor bacteria

To test the hypothesis that bacteria could detect specific mammalian DNA, we generated transgenic donor human cancer cells with a kanamycin resistance gene (*kanR*) inside *KRAS* homology arms (Figs. 1, 2A-C, S1, S2). *KRAS* is an important oncogene in human cancer, and

a driver mutation in *KRAS* often accompanies the progression of simple into advanced colorectal adenomas (20). Our technology is currently confined to the detection of specific sequences and thus for cancer detection is limited to hotspot mutations, such as *KRASG12D*. We stably transduced this donor cassette into 3 conventional human CRC cell lines with differing background genetic alterations (RKO is microsatellite instability high, MSI-H, *BRAFV600E*; LS174T is MSI-H, *KRASG12D*; SW620 is microsatellite stable, MSS, *KRASG12V*) and two human CRC organoid lines (RAH057T is MSS, *KRASG12D*; RAH038T is MSI-H, *BRAFV600E*) using a lentiviral vector. To construct the sensor bacteria, we inserted a complementary landing pad with *KRAS* homology arms into *A. baylyi*. We tested both a "large insert" design, where 2 kb of donor cassette must transfer (Fig. 2A & B, S2A, data file S1), and a "small insert" design where only 8 bp must transfer to repair 2 stop codons (Fig. 2C, S2B, supplementary materials and methods)(21). The initial biosensor output was growth on kanamycin plates (Fig. 2 and Fig S2).

Detection of cell-free DNA from cancer cell lines.

We tested these designs using various donor DNA sources, both in liquid culture and on solid agar (Fig. 2A). The "large insert" biosensors detected donor DNA from purified plasmids and genomic DNA both in liquid (Fig. 2D) and on agar (Fig. 2E). On agar, they also detected raw, unpurified lysate, albeit at just above the limit of detection (Fig. 2E). As expected (22), the "small insert" design improved detection efficiency approximately 10-fold, reliably detecting even raw lysate (Fig. 2F-G, Movie S1). Across conditions, detection on solid agar was more efficient than in liquid culture. Importantly, these experiments confirmed that the biosensors did not require DNA purification (19).

Mutations in codon 12 of *KRAS* occur in 27% of CRC (23), accounting for 72% of all CRC *KRAS* mutations (24), and are common in solid tumors generally (25). To test whether sensor bacteria could discriminate between wild-type and mutant *KRAS* (*KRASG12D*), we utilized *A. baylyi's* endogenous Type I-F CRISPR-Cas system (26). We stably transduced a donor RKO cell line with the *kanR-GFP* donor cassette flanked by wild-type *KRAS*, and a second line with *KRASG12D* flanking sequences. Next, we designed three CRISPR spacers targeting the wild-type *KRAS* sequence at the location of the *KRASG12D* mutation, using the *A. baylyi* protospacer-adjacent motif (PAM) (Fig. 2H). We inserted these as single-spacer arrays into a neutral locus in the "large insert" *A. baylyi* sensor genome.

The sensor bacteria should reject wild-type *KRAS* through CRISPR-mediated DNA degradation but allow integration of the *KRASG12D* sequence. Two of the three spacers blocked transformation by both wild-type and mutant DNA (Fig. 2I-J). However, spacer 2, for which the *KRASG12D* mutation eliminated the PAM site, selectively permitted only *KRASG12D* donor DNA (Fig. 2I-J). The other common mutations in codon 12 of *KRAS* all eliminate this PAM as well (23). Thus, sensor *A. baylyi* can be engineered to detect a mutational hotspot in the *KRAS* gene with single-base specificity.

Detection of cell-free DNA from tumorigenic organoid lines.

Next, we evaluated our sensor and donor constructs in organoid culture (Fig. 3A). We previously used CRISPR/Cas9 genome engineering to generate compound Braf^{V600E}; $Tgfbr2^{\Delta/\Delta}$; $Rnf43^{\Delta/\Delta}$; $Znrf3^{\Delta/\Delta}$; $p16Ink4a^{\Delta/\Delta}$ (BTRZI) mouse organoids that recapitulate serrated CRC when injected into the mouse colon (27). We transduced BTRZI organoids with the donor DNA construct to generate donor CRC organoids and incubated their lysate with the more efficient "small insert" A. baylyi biosensors. Using qPCR we confirmed that the BTRZI organoids we generated contained only 2 copies of the target donor DNA (Fig. S3). As with the CRC cell lines, the sensor A. baylyi incorporated DNA from donor organoid lysate, but not from control lysates from the parental organoids (Figs. 3B, S4 & S5A). Next, we co-cultured GFP-expressing sensor A. baylyi with parental or donor organoids for 24 hours on Matrigel. The GFP-expressing sensor bacteria enveloped the organoids (Fig. 3C). Following co-culture with donor, but not parental, organoids, the A. baylyi sensor bacteria acquired donor DNA via HGT (Figs. 3D, S5B & C). Finally, we estimated the detection limit of our biosensor for target DNA in stool. To achieve this, we added increasing amounts of donor plasmid to a defined mixture of biosensor and stool (5 \times 10⁷ biosensor mixed with 0.017 g/100 μ l stool slurry). The detection limit was 3 pg of plasmid or 2.7x10⁵ copies of target DNA, for a given incubation volume and time (Fig. S6).

Detection of cell-free tumor DNA in an orthotopic mouse model of colorectal cancer.

Given that cancer-to-bacterial HGT occurred in vitro, and in the presence of stool, we sought to test the CATCH system in vivo. We first confirmed that our BTRZI, orthotopic CRC model released tumoral DNA into the colorectal lumen. Engineered CRC organoids were injected orthotopically, by mouse colonoscopy, into the mouse colon to form colonic tumors, as previously described (27). Using digital droplet PCR, we measured *Braf* mutant tumor DNA in stools collected from tumor-bearing and control mice. The BTRZI model reliably released tumor DNA into the colorectal lumen (Fig. S7).

We next conducted an orthotopic CRC experiment (Fig. 3E). NSG mice were injected with donor or non-donor organoids, or neither. At week 5, once the tumors had grown into the lumen, sensor (or parental) *A. baylyi* bacteria were delivered twice via rectal enema. The mice were subsequently euthanized and the colorectum harvested with the luminal effluent plated for analysis. Serial dilutions were then plated on agar with different antibiotic combinations (Fig 3F).

HGT from tumors to biosensors was only detected in donor tumor-bearing mice that were administered sensor bacteria. There was no HGT detected in any control group (Fig. 3F). The resistant colonies were confirmed to be the engineered biosensor strain by antibiotic resistance, green fluorescence, 16S sequencing, and HGT-mediated *kanR* repair of individual colonies (Fig. S8). Thus, CATCH discriminated mice with and without CRC in our experimental model (Fig. 3G).

Detection of non-engineered DNA.

Finally, we designed living biosensors to detect and analyze non-engineered cancer DNA. The *tetR* repressor gene was inserted between the *KRAS* homology arms in the biosensor, and in a

second locus, we placed an output gene under control of the P_LtetO-1 promoter (28) (Fig. 4A). Here, the output gene was kanamycin resistance for ease of measurement, but the output gene is arbitrary and exchangeable.

In this design, expression of the output gene is constitutively repressed (Fig. 4A). Upon recombination with the *KRAS* target DNA, the repressor *tetR* is deleted from the genome. If the incoming *KRAS* sequence is wild type at the G12 locus, Cascade, the Type I-F CRISPR-Cas effector complex, detects and degrades it (Fig. 4B). However, if the G12 locus is mutated, the PAM site and therefore CRISPR-Cas targeting are eliminated, and expression from the output gene turns on (Fig. 4C).

We tested this natural DNA sensor design in vitro using PCR products from LS174T and RKO genomes as donor DNA. Natural DNA biosensors with a random CRISPR spacer detected DNA sequences from both cell lines (Fig. 4D), and biosensors with the *KRAS* spacer accurately detected only DNA sequence from LS174T cells, which contain the *KRASG12D* mutation (Fig. 4E), demonstrating biosensor detection and discrimination of natural target DNA.

Discussion

The sensor bacteria described here demonstrate that a living biosensor can detect specific mammalian DNA shed from CRC in vivo in the gut, with no sample preparation or processing. Engineered donor cassettes are not required for CATCH biosensors to detect, discriminate, and report on target sequences, although the final natural DNA biosensors will need an improved signal-to-background ratio to reliably detect sequences within whole genomic DNA. The homology arms and CRISPR spacers are modular, so this strategy could be readily adapted to detect and analyze arbitrary target sequences of interest.

Our technology is not yet ready for clinical application. This approach requires further development to ensure that future versions, at least those designed for gastrointestinal use, may be delivered orally and achieve sufficient luminal density to allow reliable detection by non-invasive sampling such as in stool or blood. As the technology advances towards clinical care, we will also need to more critically evaluate the performance of CATCH compared to other relevant disease-specific tests such as, in this case, colonoscopy and in vitro nucleic acid assays (29, 30). There is also further bioengineering required to limit the risk of biosensors escaping circuit-mediated cell death and to improve the efficiency of natural DNA detection. Finally, as our technology progresses, careful analysis is essential to ensure patient safety, to minimize the risk of spreading antibiotic resistance and to satisfy biocontainment concerns. These necessary next steps are being actively pursued and are important as CATCH is applied to additional preclinical models and before it is trialed in humans.

In vitro DNA analysis helps detect and manage important human diseases, including cancer and infection (31). However, in vitro sensing requires potentially invasive removal of samples, and many DNA diagnostics do not achieve clinically relevant sequence resolution, with more advanced techniques remaining too expensive for routine use in all settings (32). Direct

sampling of the gut in vivo may offer important advantages. The gastrointestinal tract contains marked DNase activity (33), which limits the lifetime of free DNA in both rodents and humans (18, 34, 35), and may thus reduce the information content of downstream fecal samples. Bacterial biosensors located in situ could capture and preserve DNA shortly after its release before degradation by local DNases. Perhaps the most exciting aspect of CATCH, however, is that unlike in vitro diagnostics, once target DNA is captured, it could be coupled to direct and genotype-complementary delivery of nanobodies, peptides, or other small molecules for the treatment of cancer or infection (36, 37). CATCH allows for the cellular detection of cell-free DNA and thus may prove useful in future synthetic biology applications, wherever, and whenever, DNA detection and analysis is important.

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Author contributions: RC, DW & JH conceived of the concept and study plan. RC, JW, JN, JG, NS, YL, MI, GR, FR, SK, ET, LV, SW, DW, & JH were all involved with data acquisition and or interpretation. RC, JW, RK, SW, DW, & JH were involved in writing and revising the final manuscript.

Competing interests: JH is a co-founder and board member of, and JH, DW and SW have equity in, GenCirq Inc, which focuses on cancer therapeutics. DW, JH and RC are inventors on a provisional patent application, "Detection of Cancer Mutations", filed by the University of California San Diego with the US Patent and Trademark Office (Application No. 63/239,100). All other authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Data and materials availability: All data are available in the manuscript or the supplementary materials. Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to:

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Supplementary Materials

Materials and Methods Figs. S1 to S8 References (38-43) Movie S1 Data file S1

Figure legends

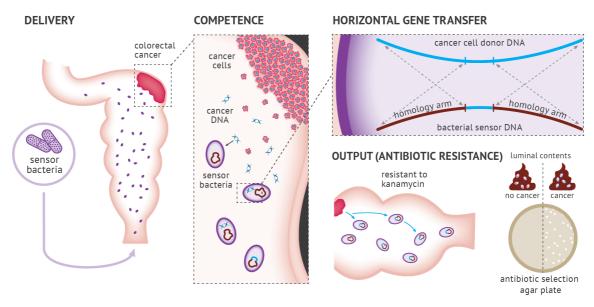


Figure 1. Engineered bacteria to detect tumor DNA. Engineered *A. baylyi* bacteria are delivered rectally in an orthotopic mouse model of CRC. The naturally competent *A. baylyi* take up tumor DNA shed into the colorectal lumen. The tumor donor DNA is engineered with a *kanR* cassette flanked by *KRAS* homology arms. The sensor bacteria are engineered with matching *KRAS* homology arms that promote homologous recombination. Sensor bacteria that undergo HGT from tumor DNA acquire kanamycin resistance and are quantified from luminal contents by serial dilution on antibiotic selection plates.

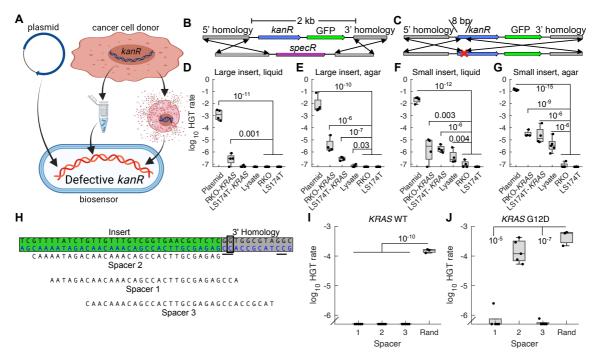


Figure 2: Sensing KRASG12D DNA in vitro. A, Donor DNA was derived from plasmid, purified cancer cell genomic DNA, or raw lysate (top) that recombined into biosensor A. baylyi cells (bottom). Horizontal gene transfer included either a large, 2 kb insert B, or a small, 8 bp insert to repair 2 stop codons C, in both cases conferring kanamycin resistance. D-G) A. baylyi biosensors were incubated with plasmid DNA, purified RKO-KRAS or LS174T-KRAS genomic DNA, or raw RKO-KRAS lysate, all containing the donor cassette, or purified RKO or LS174T genomic DNA as controls. Biosensor cells included either "large insert" (B, D & E) or "small insert" (C, F & G) designs, and transformations were performed in liquid culture (D & F) or on solid agar surfaces (E & G). Two sample t-tests compared data to RKO and LS174T genomic DNA controls under the same conditions. H, CRISPR spacers targeting the KRAS G12D mutation (boxed), using the underlined PAMs. Fraction of total biosensor cells expressing the indicated CRISPR spacers that were transformed by plasmid donor DNA with wild type (I) or mutant G12D (J) KRAS. Statistics were obtained using two sample, one-sided t-tests, with p-values displayed on the figures. Data points below detection are shown along the x-axis, at the limit of detection.

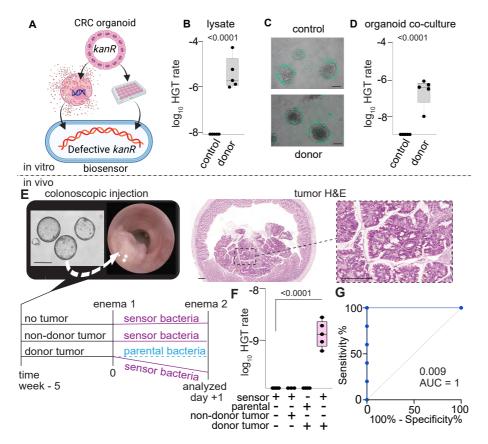


Figure 3: Detection of donor DNA from BTRZI-KRAS-kanR organoids in both an in vitro and an in vivo model of colorectal cancer.

A, Schema depicting in vitro co-culture of A. baylyi sensor bacteria with BTRZI-KRAS-kanR (CRC donor) organoid lysates or viable organoids to assess HGT repair of kanamycin resistance gene (kanR). B, Recombination with DNA from crude lysates enables growth of A. baylyi sensor on kanamycin. C, Representative images of GFP-tagged A. baylyi biosensor surrounding parental BTRZI (control) and BTRZI-KRAS-kanR donor organoids at 24h. Scale bar 100 µm. **D,** Co-culture of established CRC BTRZI-KRAS-kanR donor organoids with A. baylyi sensor enables growth of A. baylyi sensor on kanamycin. In **B & D**, n = 5 independent experiments each with 5 technical replicates, one sample t-test on transformed data was used for statistical analysis with p-values as indicated. E, Schema depicting in vivo HGT experiments: generation of BTRZI-KRAS-kanR (CRC donor) tumors in mice via colonoscopic injection, with tumor pathology validated by H&E histology, administration of biosensors, and analysis of luminal contents. Scale bars 200µm. F, rectal delivery of A. baylyi biosensor to mice bearing CRC donor tumors results in kanamycin resistant A. baylyi biosensor in luminal contents via HGT with transformation efficiency of 1.5x10⁻⁹ (limit of detection 1.25x10⁻¹⁰). HGT rate calculated from CFU on kanamycin/chloramphenicol/vancomycin (transformants) and chloramphenicol/vancomycin (total A. baylyi) selection plates, n=3-5 mice/group. Oneway ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc on log10 transformed data was used for statistical analysis. G, ROC curve analysis of HGT CFU following enema, AUC = 1, p = 0.009.

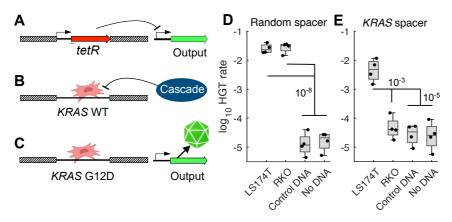


Figure 4: Detection of non-engineered DNA. A, *tetR* located between the homology arms on the *A. baylyi* genome represses expression of the output gene. **B,** Target DNA with wild-type *KRAS* sequence is recognized and degraded by the Type I-F CRISPR-Cas effector complex, Cascade. **C,** Target DNA with the *KRASG12D* mutation avoids degradation, replaces *tetR* in the biosensor genome, and relieves repression of the output gene. Fraction of biosensors with either a random CRISPR spacer **D,** or a spacer targeting wild type *KRAS* **E,** that detected donor DNA. Statistics were obtained via two sample t-tests and are displayed on the figure.

Supplementary Materials

Materials and Methods

Bacterial cell culture and cloning to generate biosensors

Acinetobacter baylyi ADP1 was obtained from the American Type Culture Collection (ATCC #33305) and propagated in standard LB medium at 30 or 37 °C. KRAS homology arms were inserted into a neutral genetic locus denoted Ntrl1, replacing the gene remnant ACIAD2826. For the "large insert" design, a spectinomycin resistance gene was placed between the KRAS homology arms. For the "small insert" design, two stop codons were placed near the beginning of the kanR gene of the donor cassette, and the broken cassette was inserted into A. baylyi. CRISPR arrays were inserted into a neutral locus used previously (38), replacing ACIAD2186, 2187, and part of 2185. Ectopic CRISPR arrays were driven by a promoter region that included 684 bp from upstream of the first repeat of the endogenous, 90-spacer array.

For natural DNA biosensors, a temperature-sensitive *tetR* repressor was placed between the *KRAS* homology arms. An output gene, either *kanR* or GFP, was placed under control of the P_LtetO-1 promoter in a second neutral locus denoted *Ntrl2*, replacing the gene remnants ACIAD1076-1077. Repeated attempts to clone wild type *tetR* into *A. baylyi* failed, but we fortuitously isolated a temperature sensitive mutant with two mutations: W75R and an additional 8 amino acids on the C terminus. This mutant *tetR* permitted growth at both 30 and 37 °C, but it only repressed its target at 30°C. The W75R mutant had been isolated previously in an intentional screen (*39*). We were able to clone wild-type *tetR* on the inducer aTc, but it was unable to grow without aTc at any temperature.

In vitro biosensor transformation experiments

A. baylyi were grown overnight in LB at 30 °C. Cells were then washed, resuspended in an equal volume of fresh LB, and mixed with donor DNA. For transformation in liquid, 50 μl cells were mixed with 250 ng donor DNA and incubated in a shaker at 30 °C for 2 hours or overnight. For transformation on agar, 2 μl cells were mixed with >50 ng donor DNA, spotted onto LB plates containing 2% wt/vol agar, and incubated at 30 °C overnight. Spots were cut out the next day and resuspended in 500 μl phosphate buffered saline solution (PBS). To count transformants, cells were 10-fold serially diluted 5 times, and 2 μl spots were deposited onto selective (30 ng/ml kanamycin) and non-selective 2% agar plates, with 3 measurement replicates at each dilution level. Larger volumes of undiluted samples were also spread onto agar plates to increase detection sensitivity (25 μl for liquid culture, 100 μl for resuspended agar spots). Colonies were counted at the lowest countable dilution level after overnight growth at 30 °C, and measurement replicates were averaged. Raw, unpurified lysate was produced by growing donor RKO cells in a culture dish until confluence, trypsinizing and harvesting cells, pelleting them in a 15 ml tube, resuspending them in 50 μl PBS, and placing the tube in a –20 °C freezer overnight to disrupt cell membranes.

In vitro statistics

Hypothesis testing was performed using two sample, one-sided t-tests in Matlab after taking base 10 logarithms, since serial dilutions produce log-scale data. Where data points were below

the limit of detection, they were replaced by the limit of detection as the most conservative way to include them in log-scale analysis. Comparisons between large vs small inserts or liquid vs solid agar culture were performed using paired t-tests, where data were matched for donor DNA and either culture type (liquid vs agar) or insert size, respectively. For Figure 2, D-G) n=4, I & J) n=5 except for random spacer n=3.

Creation of RKO, LS174T and SW620 donor cell lines

To create RKO donor and LS174T donor cell lines, lentiviral expression plasmid pD2119-FLuc2 KRasG12D donor was co-transfected with viral packaging vectors, psPAX2 (Addgene; plasmid; 12260) and MD2G (Addgene; plasmid; 12259), into HEK293T cells. At 48 and 72 h after transfection, viral supernatants were harvested, filtered through a 0.45-µm filter, and concentrated using Amicon Ultra Centrifugal Filters (Merck Millipore; UFC910024). Concentrated lentivirus particles were used for transduction. The viral supernatant generated was used to transduce RKO, LS174T and SW620 cells. 48 hours after transduction, stable transformants were selected with 4 µg/ml puromycin. Cell line identity was confirmed by STR analysis. KRAS status of RKO (KRAS wildtype), LS174T (KRAS G12D) and SW620 (KRAS G12V) cell lines was confirmed by amplification of a 220bp PCR fragment of the exon 2 KRAS including codons 12 13 with primers **KRAS** gene, and GGTGGAGTATTTGATAGTGTATTAACC and **KRAS** R: AGAATGGTCCTGCACCAGTAA. Sanger sequencing was conducted using the same primers.

Creation of CRC donor organoids

BTRZI ($Braf^{V600E}$; $Tgfbr2^{\Delta/\Delta}$; $Rnf43^{\Delta/\Delta}$; $Znf43^{\Delta/\Delta}$; $p16 Ink4a^{\Delta/\Delta}$) organoids were generated using CRISPR-Cas9 engineering and grown in 50 µl domes of GFR-Matrigel (Corning; 356231) in organoid medium: Advanced Dulbecco's modified Eagle medium/F12 (Gibco; 12634010) supplemented with 1x gentamicin/antimycotic/antibiotic (Gibco; 15710064, 15240062), 10mM HEPES (Gibco; 15630080), 2 mM GlutaMAX (Gibco; 35050061), 1x B27 (Gibco; 12504-044), 1x N2 (Gibco; 17502048), 50 ng/ml mouse recombinant EGF (Peprotech; 315-09), 10 ng/ml human recombinant TGF-β1 (Peprotech; 100-21) (40). Following each split, organoids were cultured in 10 µM Y-27632 (MedChemExpress; HY-10583), 3 µM iPSC (Calbiochem; 420220), 3 µM GSK-3 inhibitor (XVI, Calbiochem; 361559) for the first 3 days. Human colorectal tumor samples were obtained at the time of surgery for routine pathological analysis. All participants gave written informed consent and research was conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki, the NHMRC Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research, and institutional approval (HREC/16/SAC/344 SSA/18/CALHN/71). Tumor organoid lines were derived as previously described with minor modifications (41). Tissue samples were first minced and enzymatically digested in organoid digestion medium containing advanced DMEM-F12 (Gibco; 12634-010), Antibiotic-Antimycotic (Gibco; 15240-062), 50 μg/ml Gentamicin (Gibco; 15750-060), 1% FCS, Collagenase IV 75 U/ml (Gibco; 17104019), Dispase 125 μg/ml (Gibco; 17105-041), Hyaluronidase 20 μg/ml (Sigma; H3506), Y27632 (Sigma; Y0503) in a water bath at 37 °C for 10 minutes then a further 30 minutes shaking at 150 rpm in an orbital shaker at 37 °C. Samples were strained, washed and plated in domes of GFR-Matrigel (Corning; 356231). Human CRC organoids were cultured in colorectal cancer medium containing advanced DMEM/F12 (Gibco; 12634-010), Antibiotic-Antimycotic (Gibco; 15240-062), 50 μ g/ml Gentamicin (Gibco; 15750-060), 10 mM HEPES (Sigma; H0887), 1x glutamax (Gibco; 35050-061), 2x B27 (Gibco; 17504044), 500 nM A83–01 (Tocris; 2939), 50 ng/ml hEGF (Sigma; SRP3027), 1 nM [Leu15]-Gastrin 1 (Sigma; G9145), 1 mM N-Acetyl-Lcysteine (Sigma; A9165), 5 μ M SB202190 (Sigma; S7067), 10 μ M SB431542 (Sigma; S4317), and 10 μ M Y27632 (Sigma; Y0503). Colorectal cancer medium was changed twice weekly, with growth monitored until passaging was required.

To create CRC donor organoids, lentiviral expression plasmid pD2119-FLuc2 KRASG12D donor was co-transfected with viral packaging vectors, psPAX2 (Addgene; plasmid; 12260) and MD2G (Addgene; plasmid; 12259), into HEK293T cells. At 48 and 72 h after transfection, viral supernatants were harvested, filtered through a 0.45-µm filter, and concentrated using Amicon Ultra Centrifugal Filters (Merck Millipore; UFC910024). Concentrated lentivirus particles were used for transduction. The viral supernatant generated was used to transduce human CRC and BTRZI organoids by spinoculation. Briefly, organoids were dissociated to single cells using TrypLE. 1x10⁵ single cells were mixed with 250 µl organoid medium; 10 µM Y-27632; 250 μl concentrated viral supernatant and 4 μg/ml polybrene (Sigma; H9268) in a 48 well tray before centrifugation at 600g for 90 minutes at 32 °C. Meanwhile, 120 μl 50:50 ADMEM:Matrigel mixture was added to a cold 24-well tray before centrifugation of this bottom Matrigel layer for 40 minutes at 200g at room temperature, followed by solidifying the Matrigel by incubating at 37 °C for 30 minutes. After spinoculation, cells were scraped from the well and plated on top of the Matrigel monolayer with organoid medium. The following day, the medium was removed and the upper layer of Matrigel was set over the organoids by adding 120 µl 50:50 ADMEM:Matrigel and allowing to set for 30 minutes before adding organoid medium. 48 hours after transduction, BTRZI donor organoids were selected with 8 μg/ml puromycin (Sigma; P8833) for 1 week, then maintained in organoid medium with 4 μg/ml puromycin. Human CRC donor organoids were selected and maintained in 4 μg/ml puromycin.

Calculating number of copies of target DNA integrated into cell lines and organoids Genomic DNA (gDNA) was extracted from 5x10⁶ cells using Purelink genomic DNA minikit (Invitrogen; K18200). Primer/probe sets were designed to amplify the human KRAS homology arms within the donor construct. 5'KRAS homologyArm FWD 5'- CAG AAC AGC AGT CTG GCT ATT TA-3'; 5'KRAS homologyArm REV 5'- ACT GCA GAC GTG TAT CGT AAT G-3' and 5' KRAS homologyArm PRB 5'-/56-FAM/AGC GTC GAT /ZEN/GGA GGA GTT TGT AAA TGA/31ABkFQ/-3'. Quantitative PCR (qPCR) reactions were optimized with normal human gDNA (from PBMC), mouse gDNA (BTRZI parental organoid gDNA) and BTRZI donor gDNA to show that primer/probe sets amplify both endogenous human KRAS and the donor construct, but not mouse Kras. To enable calculation of copy number of each cell and organoid line, a standard curve was generated with normal human gDNA (2-fold serial dilution 100 ng to 3.125 ng per qPCR reaction). qPCR was conducted on 25 ng gDNA from organoids and cell lines. All qPCR reactions were normalized to 100 ng per qPCR reaction with mouse gDNA (BTRZI parental organoid gDNA) and used KAPA probe fast universal (Roche; KK4703).

Organoid lysate mixed with A. baylyi sensor bacteria

BTRZI (parental) and BTRZI donor organoids were grown for 5 days in 50 μl GFR-Matrigel domes. Organoids were dissociated to single cells with TrypLE, counted and 6x10⁵ single cells were collected in PBS and snap frozen. The CFU equivalence of exponentially growing *A. baylyi* sensor culture at OD₆₀₀ 0.35 was ascertained by serial dilution of 3 independent cultures with 5 technical replicates plated on 10 μg/ml chloramphenicol LB agar plate to be 2.4 x 10⁸ CFU per ml. *A. baylyi* sensor was grown in liquid culture with 10 μg/ml chloramphenicol to OD₆₀₀ 0.35 before mixing with organoid lysate at a 1:1 ratio and grow overnight on LB agar plates at 30 °C. All bacteria were scraped into 200 μl LB/20% glycerol before spotting 5x 5 μl spots onto kanamycin (Sigma; K1377) and chloramphenicol (Sigma; C0378) plates and grown overnight at 37 °C. Colonies were counted and the dilution factor was accounted for to calculate CFU per ml. Rate of HGT was calculated by dividing the CFU per ml of transformants (kanamycin plates) by the CFU per of total *A. baylyi* (chloramphenicol plates) for 5 independent experiments.

Coculture organoids with A. baylyi sensor bacteria

For co-culture experiments, 24-well trays were coated with Matrigel monolayers. Briefly, 200 μl 50:50 ADMEM:Matrigel mixture was added to a cold 24-well tray and centrifuged for 40 minutes at 200xg at room temperature, followed by a 30-minute incubation at 37 °C to solidify Matrigel. BTRZI (parental) and BTRZI donor organoids were dissociated into small clusters using TrypLE and grown for 5 days on a Matrigel monolayer in organoid medium without antibiotics before 50 μl OD₆₀₀ 0.35 *A. baylyi* sensor was added to each well. After 24 hours, organoids were photographed then collected and grown overnight on LB agar plates at 30 °C. All bacteria were scraped into 200 μl LB/20% glycerol before spotting 5x 5 μl spots onto kanamycin and chloramphenicol plates and grown overnight at 37 °C. Colonies were counted and the dilution factor was accounted for to calculate CFU per ml. Rate of HGT was calculated by dividing the CFU per ml of transformants (kanamycin plates) by the CFU per ml of total *A. baylyi* (chloramphenicol plates) for 5 independent experiments.

Horizontal gene transfer in vivo

BTRZI donor organoids were isolated from Matrigel and dissociated into small clusters using TrypLE. The cell clusters (equivalent to ~150 organoids per injection) were washed three times with cold PBS containing 10 μM Y-27632 and then resuspended in 20 μl 10% GFR Matrigel 1:1000 Indian ink, 10 μM Y-27632 in PBS and orthotopically injected into the mucosa of the proximal and distal colon of anaesthetized 10- to 13-week-old NSG mice (150 organoids per injection), as previously described (40). Briefly, a customized needle (Hamilton Inc. part number 7803-05, removable needle, 33 gauge, 12 inches long, point 4, 12° bevel) was used. In each mouse up to 2 injections of 20μl were performed. CRC donor tumor growth was monitored by colonoscopy for 5 weeks and the videos were viewed offline using QuickTime Player for analysis. Colonoscopy was performed using a Karl Storz Image 1 Camera System comprised of: Image1 HDTV HUB CCU; Cold Light Fountain LED Nova 150 light source; Full HD Image1 3 Chip H3-Z Camera Head; Hopkins Telescope, 1.9mm, 0 degrees. A sealed Luer Lock was placed on the working channel of the telescope sheath to ensure minimal air leakage (Coherent Scientific; 14034-40). Tumor growth of the largest tumor visualized was

scored as previously described using the Becker Scale (42). All study groups were housed in separate cages. A. baylyi sensor was grown in LB liquid culture with 6 µg/ml chloramphenicol to OD₆₀₀ 0.6. A. baylyi parental was grown in LB liquid culture to OD₆₀₀ 0.6. A. baylyi was washed twice with PBS before 13 mice received 4x10¹⁰ A. baylyi sensor via enema (5 mice without tumors; 3 mice with non-donor BTRZI CRC tumors and 5 mice with BTRZI CRC donor tumors), 4 mice received 4x10¹⁰ A. baylyi parental via enema. Enema was performed as per previous publication (43). Briefly, mice were anesthetized with isoflurane and colon flushed with 1 ml of room temperature sterile PBS to clear the colon cavity of any remaining stool. A P200 pipette tip coated with warm water was then inserted parallel into the lumen to deliver 50 µl of bacteria into the colon over the course of 30 seconds. After infusion, the anal verge was sealed with Vetbond Tissue Adhesive (3M; 1469SB) to prevent luminal contents from being immediately excreted. Animals were maintained on anesthesia for 5 minutes, and then allowed to recover on heat mat and anal canal inspected 6 hours after the procedure to make sure that the adhesive has been degraded. 24 hours after A. baylyi administration, mice received a second enema dosing. Mice were then euthanized; colons were removed and luminal contents were collected. Luminal contents were grown overnight at 37 °C on LB agar with 10 μg/ml vancomycin plates. All bacteria were collected into 250 μl LB/20% glycerol, vortexed and stored at -80 °C. 5x 5µl serial dilutions were spotted onto LB agar plates containing: 1, vancomycin (to detect total A. baylyi parental); 2, chloramphenicol; vancomycin (to detect total A. baylyi sensor) and 3, kanamycin; chloramphenicol; vancomycin (to detect recombined A. baylyi sensor). Colonies were counted and dilutions were factored to calculate CFU A. baylyi per mouse. For experiments analyzing A. baylyi in stool, BTRZI CRC donor tumors were established and monitored as described above. After 5 weeks of tumor growth, 9 mice received A. baylyi sensor enemas (5 mice without tumors; 4 mice with BTRZI CRC donor tumors) and 6 mice received A. baylyi parental enemas (3 mice without tumors and 3 mice with BTRZI CRC donor tumors). Stool was collected 24 hours after A. baylyi administration into 250 µl PBS/20% glycerol, vortexed and stored at -80 °C. Stool was analyzed on LB agar plates containing: 1, vancomycin (Sigma; PHR1732) (to detect total A. baylyi parental); 2, chloramphenicol; vancomycin (to detect total A. baylyi sensor) and 3, kanamycin; chloramphenicol; vancomycin (to detect recombined A. baylyi sensor). Colonies were counted and dilutions were factored to calculate CFU A. baylyi per mouse.

Sequencing gDNA from bacterial colonies grown on kanamycin plates

A. baylyi transformants were individually picked from kanamycin; vancomycin plates and grown in liquid culture LB supplemented with 25 μg/ml kanamycin, 10 μg/ml vancomycin and 6 μg/ml chloramphenicol. gDNA was extracted using purelink genomic DNA minikit (Invitrogen; K182001). Genomic regions of interest were amplified using Primestar Max DNA polymerase (Takara; R045A) and primers HGTpcrF: CAAAATCGGCTCCGTCGATACTA; HGTpcrR: TAGCATCACCTTCACCCTC and 16S 27Fa: AGAGTTTGATCATGGCTCAG; 16S 27Fc: AGAGTTTGATCCTGGCTCAG; 16S 1492R: CGGTTACCTTGTTACGACTT (16S 27Fa:16S 27Fc: 16S 1492R = 0.5:0.5:1). Sanger sequencing was conducted using the same primers.

Stools were collected from C57BL/6 mice bearing CRC tumors. A stool slurry was created by vortexing 10 mouse stools (average weight 0.017 g) in 830 μl LB/20% glycerol for each experiment, then 100 μl stool slurry could be added to each reaction containing the equivalent of 1 stool. Donor plasmid DNA was serially diluted (10-fold from 3 ng/μl to 30 fg/μl). *A. baylyi* sensor was grown in LB liquid culture with 6 μg/ml chloramphenicol to OD600 0.6. 5 x10⁷ *A. baylyi* sensor was mixed with 100 μl stool slurry or 100 μl LB/20% glycerol with or without serially diluted donor plasmid DNA. Reactions were incubated at 37°C for 4 hours before serially diluting (10-fold) and spotting 5x 5 μl spots onto 25 μg/ml kanamycin; 10 μg/ml vancomycin LB agar plates and 6 μg/ml chloramphenicol; 10 μg/ml vancomycin LB agar plates and grown overnight at 37 °C. Colonies were counted and the dilution factor was accounted for to calculate CFU per ml. Rate of HGT was calculated by dividing the CFU per ml of transformants (kanamycin plates) by the CFU per ml of total *A. baylyi* (chloramphenicol plates) for 5 independent experiments.

Supplementary figures

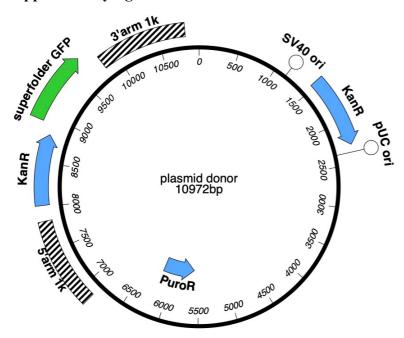


Figure S1: Engineered donor construct. Plasmid donor DNA used to transfect mammalian cell lines and as positive control donor DNA for in vitro experiments.

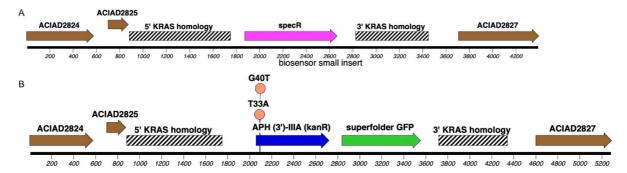


Figure S2: Engineered landing pad within the biosensor to receive target DNA. "Large insert" **A**, and "small insert" **B**, designs for the biosensors. *KRAS* homology arms are shown in striped, gray with surrounding genomic context outside them. Note that large and small inserts refer to the size of the donor DNA region that must transfer to confer kanamycin resistance, not to the size of the region between homology arms in the biosensor. Two single-base changes introducing nearby stop codons at the beginning of *kanR* are shown for the small insert design, **B**.

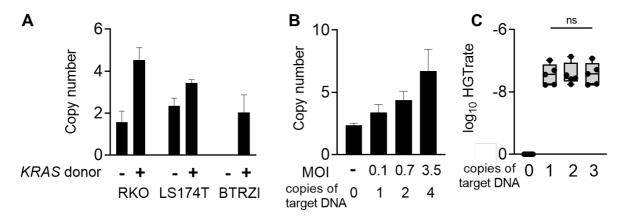


Figure S3: Copy number of target DNA within cancer cell and organoid lines. A, on average 1 to 3 copies of target donor DNA were integrated per cell into polyclonal donor cell and organoid lines. The number of copies of target donor DNA integrated per cell was quantitated using qPCR with primers designed to amplify the KRAS homology arms in the donor cassette, as well as endogenous human KRAS. Parental RKO and LS174T cell lines were diploid for human KRAS (2n), whereas human KRAS could not be amplified from parental BTRZI mouse organoid genomic DNA. Donor cells had endogenous KRAS locus (2n) as well as 2.5±0.6 (RKO) and 1.4±0.2 (LS174T) copies of target donor DNA. BTRZI donor organoids had 2.0±0.8 copies of target donor DNA (mouse endogenous KRAS locus not detectable by human specific primers). n=3 independent gDNA extractions per sample with each qPCR conducted in triplicate and compared to a standard curve generated with normal human gDNA. B, LS174T cells were transduced with different multiplicity of infection (MOI) and stable cell lines were selected with 2 µg/ml puromycin. Donor cells had endogenous KRAS locus (2n) and 1.4 (MOI0.1), 2.4 (MOI0.7) and 4.7 (MOI3.5) copies of target donor DNA. C, Recombination with donor DNA from crude lysates of LS174T donor cell lines, with different numbers of target donor DNA integrated per cell, enables growth of A. baylyi sensor on kanamycin plates. n=5 independent experiments each with 5 technical replicates. Paired ttest showed that there was no significant difference in recombination efficiency.

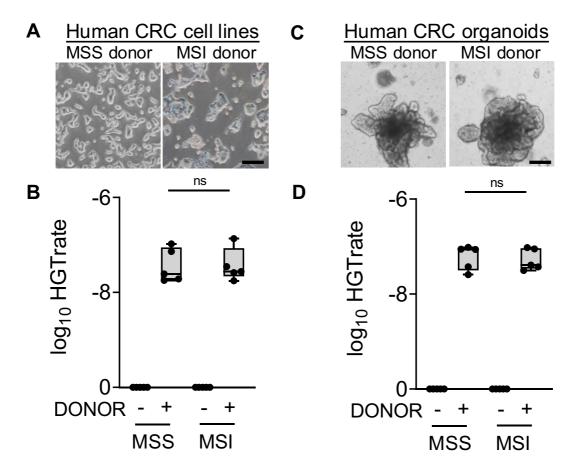


Figure S4: Detection of donor DNA from both MSS and MSI colorectal cell lines and human organoids. A, Images of human CRC cell lines, SW620 (MSS) and LS174T (MSI-H), with the donor cassette stably integrated into their genome. Scale bar 200 μm. **B**, Recombination with DNA from crude lysates of human CRC donor cell lines enables growth of *A. baylyi* sensor on kanamycin plates. **C**, Images of human CRC organoids established from patient surgical samples with the donor cassette stably integrated into their genome. Scale bar 200 μm. **D**, Recombination with DNA from crude lysates of human CRC donor organoid lines enables growth of *A. baylyi* sensor on kanamycin plates. In b and d, n=5 independent experiments each with 5 technical replicates. Paired t-test showed that there was no significant difference in recombination efficiency between MSS and MSI patient organoids.

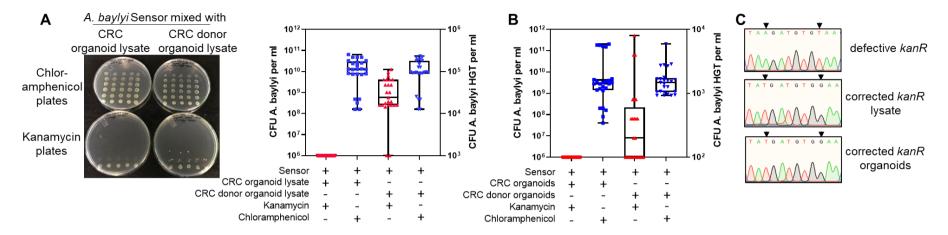


Figure S5: Sensor detection of donor DNA from BTRZI CRC organoids. *A. baylyi* sensor bacteria are constitutively chloramphenicol-resistant, hence *chlorR* CFUs provide a readout of total *A. baylyi* present. In contrast, kanamycin-resistant sensor bacteria rely on incorporation of donor DNA from CRC organoids to correct the defective *kanR* gene and enable growth on kanamycin selection plates. **A,** Recombination with lysate from CRC donor organoids enables growth of *A. baylyi* sensor on kanamycin plates. Shown here with representative plates and CFU analysis. **B,** after co-culturing established CRC donor organoids with *A. baylyi* sensor, recombination with donor DNA from CRC donor organoids enables growth of *A. baylyi* sensor on kanamycin plates. Shown here with representative images and CFU analysis. Scale bars 200 μm. **A & B,** Fig 3 contains the same data as shown here but presented as HGT rate (kanamycin resistant CFU *A. baylyi* per ml/chloramphenicol CFU *A. baylyi* per ml), n = 5 independent experiments each with 5 technical replicates. C Representative Sanger sequencing chromatograms of PCR amplicon covering the region of the *kanR* gene containing informative SNPs, to highlight the difference in sequence in gDNA isolated from parental *A. baylyi* sensor bacteria compared to *A. baylyi* colonies isolated from kanamycin plates following mixing with donor organoid lysates or viable organoids.

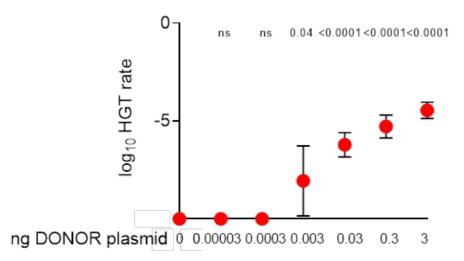


Figure S6: Detection of target DNA mixed with stool. *A. baylyi* sensor bacteria were mixed with serially diluted donor plasmid DNA in the presence of mouse stool collected from mice bearing CRC tumors (1 stool per reaction). After 3 hours of growth at 37 °C, serial dilutions of each reaction were plated onto kanamycin/vancomycin LB agar selection plates (*A. baylyi* sensor HGT) or chloramphenicol/vancomycin LB agar selection plates (total *A. baylyi* sensor). Rate of HGT was calculated (p-values calculated on log-transformed data using unpaired test). n=5 independent experiments, each with 5 technical replicates.

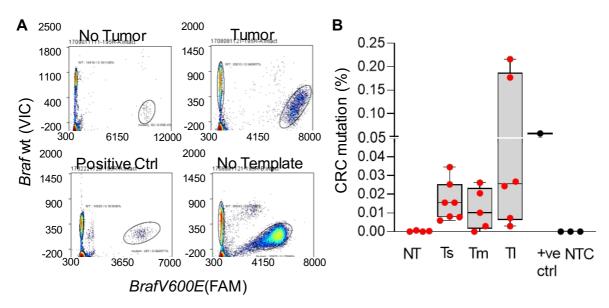


Figure S7: High sensitivity digital droplet PCR (ddPCR) detection of CRC mutation (BrafV600E) in stool DNA isolated from tumor-bearing animals. A, Representative images of ddPCR data. B, CRC mutation (BrafV600E) positive droplets as a % of total droplets. Analysis of no template negative control samples and stool DNA samples from non-tumor bearing animals was used to determine the sensitivity threshold of the assay. +ve ctrl = positive control samples that contains 10% BrafV600E gDNA spiked into stool DNA sample from a non-tumor bearing animal, NT = no tumor, Ts = small tumor, Tm = medium tumor, Tl = large tumor, NTC = no template PCR negative control (n=3-4 mice/group).

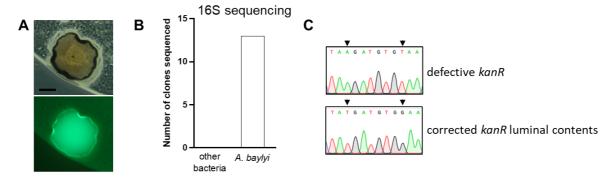


Figure S8: Horizontal gene transfer is detected in luminal contents from mice bearing BTRZI CRC donor tumors after rectal dosing of A. baylyi sensor bacteria. Recombined transformants were A, GFP positive and confirmed as A. baylyi by B, 16s sequencing on kanamycin/chloramphenicol/vancomycin selection plates, scale bar 500 µm. C, Representative Sanger sequencing chromatograms of PCR amplicon covering the region of the kanR gene containing informative SNPs to highlight the difference in sequencing DNA isolated from parental A. baylyi sensor bacteria compared to A. baylyi colonies isolated from kanamycin/chloramphenicol/vancomycin plates in luminal contents from mice bearing BTRZI CRC donor tumors after rectal dosing of A. baylyi sensor bacteria.

Movie S1: A. baylyi biosensors taking up plasmid donor DNA.

A. baylyi were grown overnight, washed into fresh LB, mixed with saturating pLenti-KRAS donor DNA, and sandwiched between an agar pad and a glass bottom dish. Images were taken every 10 minutes. GFP fluorescence indicates that the cells have taken up and genomically integrated the donor DNA cassette.

Supplementary Materials References

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