

A monogenic and fast-responding Light-Inducible Cre recombinase as a novel optogenetic switch

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1	A monogenic and fast-responding Light-Inducible Cre recombinase as
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ABSTRACT

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37 Optogenetics enables genome manipulations with high spatiotemporal resolution, 38 opening exciting possibilities for fundamental and applied biological research. Here, we 39 report the development of LiCre, a novel light-inducible Cre recombinase. LiCre is made of a 40 single flavin-containing protein comprising the asLOV2 photoreceptor domain of Avena 41 sativa fused to a Cre variant carrying destabilizing mutations in its N-terminal and C-terminal 42 domains. LiCre can be activated within minutes of illumination with blue light, without the 43 need of additional chemicals. When compared to existing photoactivatable Cre recombinases 44 based on two split units, LiCre displayed faster and stronger activation by light as well as a 45 lower residual activity in the dark. LiCre was efficient both in yeast, where it allowed us to 46 control the production of β -carotene with light, and in human cells. Given its simplicity and 47 performances, LiCre is particularly suited for fundamental and biomedical research, as well as 48 for controlling industrial bioprocesses.

50 INTRODUCTION

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The wealth of knowledge currently available on the molecular regulations of living 52 53 systems - including humans - largely results from our ability to introduce genetic changes in 54 model organisms. Such manipulations have been extremely informative because they can 55 unambiguously demonstrate causal effects of molecules on phenotypes. The vast majority of 56 these manipulations were made by first establishing a mutant individual - or line of 57 individuals - and then studying it. This classic approach has two limitations. First, the 58 mutation is present in all cells of the individual. This complicates the analysis of the 59 contribution of specific cells or cell-types to the phenotypic alterations that are observed at the 60 whole-organism level. Second, when a mutation is introduced long before the phenotypic analysis, it is possible that the organism has "adapted" to it, either via compensatory 61 62 regulations or, in case of mutant lines maintained over multiple generations, by compensatory 63 mutations.

65 For these reasons, other approaches relying on site-specific recombinases were 66 developed to introduce specific mutations in a restricted number of cells of the organism, and at a specific time. For instance, the Cre/LoxP system^{1,2} consists of two manipulations: a stable 67 insertion, in all cells, of foreign 34-bp DNA sequences called LoxP, and the expression of the 68 69 Cre recombinase in some cells only, where it modifies the DNA by catalyzing recombination 70 between the LoxP sites. The result is a mosaic animal - or plant, or colony of cells - where 71 chromosomal DNA has been rearranged in some cells only. Cre is usually introduced via a 72 transgene that is only expressed in the cells to be mutated. The location and orientation of 73 LoxP sites can be chosen so that recombination generates either a deletion, an inversion or a 74 translocation. Similar systems were developed based on other recombinases/recognition targets, such as Flp/FRT³ or Dre-rox⁴. To control the timing of recombination, several 75 systems were made inducible. Tight control was obtained using recombinases that are inactive 76 77 unless a chemical ligand is provided to the cells. For example, the widely-used Cre-ERT chimeric protein can be activated by 4-hydroxy-tamoxifen⁵. Other inducible systems rely on 78 79 chemical-induced dimerization of two halves of the recombinase. For example, the FKBP-80 FRB split Cre system consists of two inactive proteins that can assemble in the presence of rapamycin to form a functional recombinase complex⁶. Similar systems were reported that 81 rendered dimerization of the split Cre fragments dependent on phytohormones⁷. Although 82 83 powerful, these systems present some caveats: ligands are not always neutral to cells and can

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therefore perturb the biological process under investigation; since they diffuse in tissues, the control of activation is sometimes not precise enough in space and/or time; and the cost or side-effects of chemical inducers can be prohibitive for industrial or biomedical applications.

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More recently, several authors modified these dimerizing split recombinases to make 88 89 them inducible by light instead of chemicals. This presents several advantages because i) light 90 can be used with extreme spatiotemporal precision and high reproducibility, ii) when applied 91 at low energy, it is neutral to many cell types, and iii) it is very cheap and therefore scalable to 92 industrial processes. The dimerization systems that were used come from developments made 93 in optogenetics, where various light, oxygen or voltage (LOV) protein domains have been used as photosensory modules to control transcription⁸, protein degradation⁹, dimerization^{10–12} 94 or subcellular relocalization^{13,14}. LOV domains belong to the Per-Arnt-Sim (PAS) 95 96 superfamily found in many sensors. They respond to light via a flavin cofactor located at their 97 center. In the *asLOV2* domain, blue light generates a covalent bond between a carbon atom of a flavin mononucleotide (FMN) cofactor and a cystein side chain of the PAS fold^{15,16}, 98 99 resulting in a conformational change including the unfolding of a large C-terminal α -helical region called the J α helix^{17,18}. Diverse optogenetics tools have been developed by fusing LOV 100 domains to functional proteins, in ways that made the J α folding/unfolding critical for 101 102 activity¹⁹. Among these tools are several photodimerizers that proved useful to control the activity of recombinases. Taslimi et al.²⁰ reported blue-light dependent heterodimerization of 103 104 a split Cre recombinase using the CIB1-CRY2 dimerizers from the plant Arabidopsis thaliana 105 and others successfully used the nMag/pMag dimerizers derived from Vivid (VVD), a protein of the fungus *Neurospora crassa*^{21,22}. A third system was based on dimerizers derived from 106 the chromophore-binding photoreceptor phytochrome B (PhyB) of A. thaliana and its 107 108 interacting factor PIF3. In this case, red light was used for stimulation instead of blue light, 109 but the system required the addition of an expensive chemical, the chromophore phycocyanobilin²³. 110

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An ideal inducible recombinase is one that ensures both low basal activity and high induced activity, that is simple to implement, cheap to use and fast to induce. All dimerizing split Cre systems have in common that two protein units must be assembled in order to form one functional Cre. Thus, the probability of forming a functional recombination synapse which normally requires four Cre molecules - is proportional to the product of the two units' cellular concentrations to the power of four. Split systems therefore strongly depend on the

efficient expression of their two different coding sequences, as previously reported²⁴. An inducible system based on a single protein may avoid this limitation. Its implementation by transgenesis would also be simpler, especially in vertebrates.

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122 We report here the development of LiCre, a novel Light-Inducible Cre recombinase 123 that is made of a single flavin-containing protein. LiCre can be activated within minutes of 124 illumination with blue light, without the need of additional chemicals, and it shows extremely 125 low background activity in absence of stimulation as well as high induced activity. Using the 126 production of carotenoids by yeast as a case example, we show that LiCre and blue light can 127 be combined to control metabolic switches that are relevant to the problem of metabolic 128 burden in bioprocesses. We also report that LiCre can be used efficiently in human cells, making it suitable for biomedical research. Since LiCre offers cheap and precise 129 130 spatiotemporal control of a genetic switch, it is amenable to numerous biotechnological 131 applications, even at industrial scales.

132 RESULTS

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The stabilizing N-ter and C-ter α-helices of the Cre recombinase are critical for its
activity

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A variety of optogenetic tools have been successfully developped based on LOV 137 domain proteins, which possess α -helices that change conformation in response to light²⁵. We 138 reasoned that fusing a LOV domain to a helical domain of Cre that is critical for its function 139 140 could generate a single protein with light-dependent recombinase activity. We searched for candidate α -helices by inspecting the structure of the four Cre units complexed with two LoxP 141 DNA targets^{26,27} (Fig. 1a-b). Each subunit folds in two domains that bind to DNA as a clamp. 142 Guo *et al.* initially reported that helices αA and αE of the amino-terminal domain, as well as 143 helix αN of the C-terminal domain participate to inter-units contacts²⁷. This role of helix αN 144 was later confirmed by Ennifar *et al*²⁶. Contacts between αA and αE associate all four amino-145 146 terminal domains (Fig. 1a) and contacts involving aN lock the four carboxy-terminal domains 147 in a cyclic manner (Fig. 1b). These helices were therefore good candidates for manipulating 148 Cre activity. We focused on αA and αN because their location at protein extremities was 149 convenient to design chimeric fusions.

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151 We tested the functional importance of helices αA and αN by gradually eroding them. 152 We evaluated the corresponding mutants by expressing them in yeast cells where an active 153 Cre can excise a repressive DNA element flanked by LoxP sites, and thereby switch ON the 154 expression of a Green Fluorescent Protein (GFP) (Fig. 1c). After inducing the expression of 155 Cre mutants with galactose, we counted by flow cytometry the proportion of cells that 156 expressed GFP and we used this measure to compare recombinase activities of the different 157 mutants (Fig. 1d). As a control, we observed that the wild-type Cre protein activated GFP expression in all cells under these conditions. Mutants lacking the last 2 or the last 3 carboxy-158 terminal residues displayed full activity. In contrast, mutants lacking 4 or more of the C-ter 159 160 residues were totally inactive. This was consistent with a previous observation that deletion of the last 12 residues completely suppressed activity²⁸. Our series of mutants showed that helix 161 aN is needed for activity and that its residue D341 is crucial. The role of this aspartic acid is 162 163 most likely to stabilize the complex: the tetramer structure indicates salt bridges between D341 and residue R139 of the adjacent unit (Fig. 1e). Interestingly, E340 might have a similar 164 165 role by interacting with R192, although this residue was not essential for activity.

Biomolecular simulations using a simplistic force-field model showed that the free-energy barrier for displacing the α N helix was much lower if E340 and D341 were replaced by alanines (Fig. 1f). Consistent with this prediction, we observed that a double mutant E340A D341A lost ~10% of activity (Fig. 1g). This mild (but reproducible) reduction of activity suggested that the double mutation E340A D341A led to a fragilized version of Cre where multimerization was suboptimal.

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173 We also tested the functional importance of α -helix A, either in a normal context 174 where the C-terminal part of Cre was intact or where it carried the destabilizing E340A 175 D341A mutation (Fig. 1g). Deletion of residues 2-37, which entirely ablated helix A, 176 eliminated enzymatic activity (Fig. 1g). Very interestingly, the effect of shorter deletions 177 depended on the C-terminal context. When the C-terminus was wild-type, removing residues 178 2-21 (immediately upstream of helix A) had no effect and removing residues 2-28 (partial 179 truncation of αA) decreased the activity by ~10%. When the C-terminus contained the E340A 180 D341A mutation, deletions 2-21 and 2-28 were much more severe, reducing the activity by 181 12% and 80%, respectively. This revealed genetic interactions between the extremities of the 182 protein, which is fully consistent with a cooperative role of helices αA and αN in stabilizing 183 an active tetramer complex. From these observations, we considered that photo-control of Cre 184 activity might be possible by fusing αA and αN helices to LOV domain photoreceptors.

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Fusions of LOV domains to monogenic Cre confer light-inducible activity

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188 Our first strategy was to fuse the aN carboxy-terminal helix of Cre to the aminoterminal cap of the LOV-domain of protein Vivid (VVD), a well-characterized photosensor 189 from Neurospora crassa^{12,29,30}. The resulting chimeric protein, which contained the full-190 191 length Cre connected to VVD via four amino-acids, did not display light-dependent 192 recombinase activity (Supplementary Fig. S1). Our next strategy was based on a modified 193 version of the asLOV2 domain from Avena sativa which had been optimized by Guntas et *al.*³¹. These authors used it to build an optogenetic dimerizer by fusing its J α C-ter helix to the 194 195 bacterial SsrA peptide. Instead, we fused J α to the α A amino-terminal helix of Cre. Using the 196 same GFP reporter system as described above for detecting *in-vivo* recombination in yeast, we 197 built a panel of constructs with various fusion positions and we directly quantified their 198 activity with and without blue-light illumination. All fusions displayed reduced activity in 199 both dark and light conditions as compared to wild-type Cre. Three constructs -

200 corresponding to fusions of asLOV2 to residues 19, 27 and 32 of Cre, respectively - displayed 201 higher activity after light stimulation. We recovered the corresponding plasmids from yeast, 202 amplified them in bacteria to verify their sequence and re-transformed them in yeast which 203 confirmed the differential activity between dark and light conditions for all three constructs 204 (Fig. 2a). Fusion at position 32 (named LOV2 Cre32) displayed the highest induction by 205 light, with activity increasing from 15% in dark condition to 50% after 30 minutes of 206 illumination. Although this induction was significant, a 15% activity of the non-induced form 207 remained too high for most applications. We therefore sought to reduce this residual activity, 208 which we did in two ways.

209

210 First, we randomized the residues located at the junction between asLOV2 and Cre. 211 We used degenerate primers and *in-vivo* recombination (see methods) to mutagenize 212 LOV2 Cre32 at these positions and we directly tested the activity of about 90 random clones. 213 Five of them showed evidence of low residual activity in the dark and we characterized them 214 further by sequencing and re-transformation. For all five clones, residual activity was indeed 215 reduced as compared to LOV2 Cre32, with the strongest reduction being achieved by an 216 isoleucine insertion at the junction position (Fig. 2b iv). However, this improvement was also 217 accompanied by a weaker induced activity and a larger variability between independent 218 assays.

219

As a complementary approach to reduce residual activity, we took advantage of the 220 221 above-described genetic interaction between N-ter truncations and C-ter mutations targeting 222 residues 340 and 341. We built another series of constructs where asLOV2 fusions to aA 223 helix were combined with the A340A341 double mutation. This approach yielded one 224 construct (LOV2 CreAA20), corresponding to fusion at position 20, which displayed a 225 residual activity that was undistinguishable from the negative control, and a highlyreproducible induced activity of ~25% (Fig. 2c). We called this construct LiCre (for 'Light-226 227 inducible Cre') and characterized it further.

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Efficiency and dynamics of LiCre photoactivation

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We placed LiCre under the expression of the P_{MET17} promoter and we tested various illumination intensities and durations on cells that were cultured to stationary phase in absence of methionine (full expression). Activity was very low without illumination and

increased with both the intensity and duration of light stimulation (Fig. 3a). The minimal intensity required for stimulation was comprised between 0.057 and 1.815 mW/cm². The highest activity (~65% of switched cells) was obtained with 90 minutes illumination at 36.3 mW/cm^2 . Extending illumination to 180 minutes did not further increase the fraction of switched cells. Remarkably, we observed that 2 minutes of illumination was enough to switch 5% of cells, and 5 minutes illumination generated 10% of switched cells (Fig. 3b).

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241 We compared these performances with those of two previous systems that were both 242 based on light-dependent complementation of a split Cre enzyme. We constructed plasmids coding for proteins CreN59-nMag and pMag-CreC60 described in Kawano et al.²¹ and 243 transformed them in our yeast reporter strain. Similarly, we constructed and tested plasmids 244 coding for the proteins CRY2^{L348F}-CreN and CIB1-CreC described in Taslimi et al.²⁰. All four 245 246 coding sequences were placed under the control of the yeast P_{MET17} promoter. We analyzed 247 the resulting strains as above after adapting light to match the intensity recommended by the authors (1.815 mW/cm² for nMag/pMag and 5.45 mW/cm² for CRY2^{L348F}/CIB1). As shown 248 249 in Fig. 3c, we validated the photoactivation of nMag/pMag split Cre in yeast, where activity 250 increased about 4-fold following 90 minutes of illumination, but we were not able to observe photoactivation of the CRY2^{L348F}/CIB1 split Cre system (Fig. 3d). In addition, the 251 252 photoactivation of nMag/pMag split Cre was not as fast as the one of LiCre, since 30 minutes 253 of illumination was needed to observe a significant increase of activity. This observation is 254 consistent with the fact that dimerization of split Cre, which is not required for LiCre, limits 255 the rate of formation of an active recombination synapse. Another difference was that, unlike 256 LiCre, nMag/pMag split Cre displayed a mild but significant background activity in absence 257 of illumination (~6% of switched cells) (Fig. 3c). Altogether, these results show that, at least 258 in the yeast cellular context, LiCre outperforms these two other systems in terms of 259 efficiency, rapidity and residual background activity.

260

To demonstrate the control of a biological activity by light, we built a reporter where Cre-mediated excision enabled the expression of the *HIS3* gene necessary for growth in absence of histidine. We cultured cells carrying this construct and expressing LiCre and we spotted them at various densities on two HIS⁻ selective plates. One plate was illuminated during 90 minutes while the other one was kept in the dark and both plates were then incubated for growth. After three days, colonies were abundant on the plate that had been

267 illuminated and very rare on the control plate (Fig. 3e). LiCre can therefore be used to trigger268 cell growth with light.

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We then sought to observe the switch in individual cells. To do so, we replaced GFP by mCherry in our reporter system, so that the excitation wavelength of the reporter did not overlap with stimulation of LiCre. We expressed and stimulated LiCre (90min at 3.63 mW/cm^2) in cells carrying this reporter and subsequently imaged them over time. As expected, we observed the progressive apparition of mCherry signal in a fraction of cells (Fig. 3f-g).

276

277 Although convenient for high-throughput quantifications, reporter systems based on 278 the *de novo* production and maturation of fluorescent proteins require a delay between the 279 time of DNA excision and the time of acquisition. We wished to bypass this limitation and 280 directly quantify DNA recombination. For this, we designed oligonucleotides outside of the 281 region flanked by LoxP sites. The hybridization sites of these primers are too distant for 282 efficient amplification of the non-edited DNA template but, after Cre-mediated excision of 283 the internal region, these sites become proximal and PCR amplification is efficient (Fig. 3h). 284 We mixed known amounts of edited and non-edited genomic DNA and performed real-time 285 gPCR to build a standard curve that could be used to infer the proportion of edited DNA from 286 qPCR signals. After this calibration, we applied this qPCR assay on genomic DNA extracted 287 from cells collected immediately after different durations of illumination at moderate intensity 288 (3.63 mW/cm2). Results were in full agreement with GFP-based quantifications (Fig. 3i). 289 Excision of the target DNA occurred in a significant fraction of cells after only 2 minutes of 290 illumination, and we estimated that excision occurred in about 30% and 40% of cells after 20 291 and 40 minutes of illumination, respectively. To determine if DNA excision continued to 292 occur after switching off the light, we re-incubated half of the cells for 90 minutes in the dark 293 prior to harvest and genomic DNA extraction. The estimated frequency of DNA excision was 294 strikingly similar to the one measured immediately after illumination (Fig. 3j). We conclude 295 that the reversal of activated LiCre to its inactive state is very rapid in the dark (within 296 minutes).

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The qPCR assay also allowed us to compare the efficiency of light-induced recombination between cell populations in exponential growth or in stationary phase. This revealed that LiCre photoactivation was about 4-fold more efficient in non-dividing cells (Fig.

301 3k). Although the reasons for this difference remain to be determined, this increase of LiCre 302 photoactivation at stationary phase makes it particularly suitable for bioproduction 303 applications, where metabolic switching is often desired after the growth phase (see 304 discussion).

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Model of LiCre photo-activation

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308 We built a structural model of LiCre to conceptualize its mode of activation (Fig. 4a). 309 We based this model on i) the available structure of the Cre tetramer complexed with its target DNA²⁷, ii) the available structure of asLOV2 in its dark state³¹ and iii) knowledge that the J α 310 helix of asLOV2 domains unfolds after light activation^{17,18}. From this model, we hypothesize 311 312 that LiCre photoactivation may occur via two synergistic effects. First, the domain asLOV2 313 likely prevents Cre tetramerization in the dark state simply because of its steric occupancy. 314 The unfolding of the J α helix in the light state may allow asLOV2 to liberate the 315 multimerizing interface. Second, because the J α helix of asLOV2 and the α A helix of Cre are 316 immediately adjacent, it is unlikely that both of them can fold simultaneously in their native 317 conformation. The unfolding of J α in the light state may therefore stimulate proper folding of 318 αA , and thereby allow αA to bind to the adjacent Cre unit. Structural *in vitro* studies of LiCre 319 itself will be needed to validate these predictions.

320

321 According to this model, there are two possible steps limiting the activation of LiCre 322 in any one individual cell: the conformational change of LiCre monomers and the assembly of 323 a functional recombination synapse. We sought to investigate whether one of these two steps 324 was predominantly limiting over the other. We did this by studying cells carrying both the 325 GFP (green) and the mCherry (red) reporters. If monomer activation is predominantly 326 limiting, then two populations of cells are expected in an illuminated culture: cells that have 327 activated enough LiCre molecules to form an active synapse will efficiently switch both reporters, and cells that have not activated enough LiCre monomers will leave both reporters 328 329 intact and display no fluorescence. Conversely, if assembly of a functional recombination 330 synapse is predominantly limiting, then the probability that a cell switches one reporter 331 should be independent on what happens at the other reporter and the population will then 332 contain a significant proportion of cells displaying fluorescence in only one color. After stimulation with 3.63 mW/cm2 blue light for 180 min, one third of the cells had switched 333 334 only one of the two reporters (fluorescence in only one of the channels), ruling out the

335 possibility that monomer activation is solely limiting (Fig. 4b). However, the probability that 336 a reporter had switched depended on whether the other reporter had also switched. For 337 example, the proportion of green cells in the whole population (marginal probability to switch 338 the green reporter) was $\sim 20\%$, but the proportion of green cells in the subpopulation of red cells (conditional probability) was over 30%. Similarly, red cells were more frequent in the 339 340 subpopulation of green cells than in the whole population (Fig. 4b). These observations ruled 341 out the possibility that formation of a functional LiCre:DNA synaptic complex was solely 342 limiting. We conclude that neither monomer activation nor synapse formation is the sole rate-343 limiting step in vivo.

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- LiCre provides a light-switch for carotenoid production
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LiCre offers a way to change the activities of cells without adding any chemical to their environment. This potentially makes it an interesting tool to address the limitations of metabolic burden in industrial bioproduction (see discussion). We therefore tested the possibility to use LiCre to control the production of a commercial compound with light.

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352 Carotenoids are pigments that can be used as vitamin A precursors, anti-oxydants or 353 coloring agents, making them valuable for the food, agriculture and cosmetics industries³². 354 Commercial carotenoids are generally produced by chemical synthesis or extraction from 355 vegetables, but alternative productions based on microbial fermentations offer remarkable 356 advantages, including the use of low-cost substrates and therefore a high potential for 357 financial gains. Bioproduction of carotenoids from microbes has therefore received an increasing interest. It can be based on microorganisms that naturally produce carotenoids³². It 358 359 is also possible to introduce recombinant biosynthesis pathways in host microorganisms, 360 which offers the advantage of a well-known physiology of the host and of optimizations by genetic engineering. For these reasons, strategies were previously developed to produce 361 362 carotenoids in the yeast S. cerevisiae. Expressing three enzymes (crtE, crtI and crtYB) from Xanthophyllomyces dendrorhous enabled S. cerevisiae to efficiently convert farnesyl 363 pyrophosphate (FPP) into β -carotene³³. FPP is naturally produced by S. cerevisiae from 364 Acetyl-CoA and serves as an intermediate metabolite, in particular for the production of 365 366 ergosterol which is essential for cellular viability (Fig. 5). Thus, and as for any bioproduction 367 consuming a cellular resource, this design is associated with a trade-off: redirecting FPP to β -368 carotene limits its availability for ergosterol biosynthesis and therefore impairs growth; and

369 its consumption by the host cell can limit the flux towards the recombinant pathway. A 370 promising way to deal with this trade-off would be to favor the flux towards ergosterol during 371 biomass expansion and, after enough producer cells are obtained, to switch the demand in 372 FPP towards β -carotene. We therefore explored if LiCre could offer this possibility.

373

374 First, we tested if LiCre could allow us to switch ON the exogenous production of 375 carotenoids with light. If so, one could use it to trigger production at the desired time of a 376 bioprocess. We constructed a S. cerevisiae strain expressing only two of the three enzymes 377 required for β -carotene production. Expression of the third enzyme, a bifunctional phytoene 378 synthase and lycopene cyclase, was blocked by the presence of a floxed terminator upstream 379 of the coding sequence of the *crtYB* gene (Fig. 5b). Excision of this terminator should restore 380 a fully-functional biosynthetic pathway. As expected, this strain formed white colonies on 381 agar plates, but it formed orange colonies after transformation with an expression plasmid 382 coding for Cre, indicating that β -carotene production was triggered (Fig. 5c). To test the 383 possible triggering by light, we transformed this strain with a plasmid encoding LiCre and 384 selected several transformants, which we cultured and exposed - or not - to blue light before 385 spotting them on agar plates. The illuminated cultures became orange while the non-386 illuminated ones remained white. Plating a dilution of the illuminated cell suspension yielded 387 a majority of orange colonies, indicating that LiCre triggered *crtYB* expression and β -carotene 388 production in a high proportion of plated cells (Fig. 5c). We quantified bioproduction by 389 dosing total carotenoids in cultures that had been illuminated or not. This revealed that 72 390 hours after the light switch the intracellular concentration of carotenoids had jumped from 391 background levels to nearly 200µg/g (Fig. 5d). Thus, LiCre allowed us to switch ON the 392 production of carotenoids by yeast using blue light.

393

394 We then tested if LiCre could allow us to switch OFF with light the endogenous 395 ergosterol pathway that competes with carotenoid production for FPP consumption. The first 396 step of this pathway is catalysed by the Erg9p squalene synthase. Given the importance of 397 FPP availability for the production of various compounds, strategies have been reported to 398 control the activity of this enzyme during bioprocesses, especially in order to reduce it after biomass expansion^{34–36}. These strategies were not based on light but derived from 399 400 transcriptional switches that naturally occur upon addition of inhibitors or when specific 401 nutrients are exhausted from the culture medium. To test if LiCre could offer a way to switch 402 ERG9 activity with light, we modified the *ERG9* chromosomal locus and replaced the coding

403 sequence by a synthetic construct comprising a floxed sequence coding for Erg9p and 404 containing a transcriptional terminator, followed by a sequence coding for the catalytic 405 domain of the 3-hydroxy3-methylglutaryl coenzyme A reductase (tHMG1) (Fig. 5e). This 406 design prepares *ERG9* for a Cre-mediated switch: before recombination, Erg9p is normally 407 expressed; after recombination, ERG9 is deleted and the tHMG1 sequence is expressed to 408 foster the mevalonate pathway. Given that ERG9 is essential for yeast viability in absence of ergosterol supplementation³⁷, occurrence of the switch can be evaluated by measuring the 409 fraction of viable yeast cells prior and after the induction of recombination. When doing so, 410 411 we observed that expression of Cre completely abolished viability, regardless of illumination. 412 In contrast, cultures expressing LiCre were highly susceptible to light: they were fully viable 413 in absence of illumination and lost $\sim 23\%$ of viable cells after light exposure (Fig. 5f). Thus, 414 LiCre offers the possibility to abolish the activity of the yeast squalene synthase by exposing 415 cells to light.

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LiCre switch in human cells

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419 Beyond yeast, LiCre may also have a large spectrum of applications on multicellular 420 organisms. Therefore, we tested its efficiency in human cells. For this, we constructed a 421 lentiviral vector derived from the simian immunodeficiency virus (SIV) and encoding a 422 human-optimized version of LiCre with a nuclear localization signal fused to its N-terminus. 423 To quantify the efficiency of this vector, we also constructed a stable reporter cell line where 424 expression of a membrane-located mCherry fluorescent protein could be switched ON by 425 Cre/Lox recombination. We obtained this line by Flp-mediated insertion of a single copy of 426 the reporter construct into the genome of Flp-In[™] 293 cells (Fig. 6a, see methods). Our assay 427 consisted of producing LiCre-encoding lentiviral particle, depositing them on reporter cells 428 for 24h, illuminating the infected cultures with blue light and, 28 hours later, observing cells 429 by fluorescence microscopy. As shown in Fig. 6b, mCherry expression was not detected in 430 non-infected reporter cells. In cultures that were infected but not illuminated, a few positive 431 cells were observed. In contrast, infected cultures that had been exposed to blue light 432 contained mostly positive cells. This demonstrated the efficiency of the vector and that LiCre was poorly active unless cells were illuminated. LiCre can therefore be used to switch genetic 433 434 activities in human cells with blue light.

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437 DISCUSSION

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439 By performing a mutational analysis of the Cre recombinase and testing the activity of 440 various chimeric proteins involving Cre variants and LOV-domains, we have developed a 441 novel, single-protein, light-inducible Cre recombinase (LiCre). As compared to two 442 previously-existing systems relying on light-dependent dimerization of split Cre fragments, 443 LiCre displayed lower background activity in the dark as well as faster and stronger activation 444 by light. LiCre enabled us to use blue light to switch ON the production of carotenoids by 445 yeast and to inactivate the yeast squalene synthase. Using a lentiviral vector and human 446 reporter cells, we also showed that LiCre could be used as an optogenetic switch in 447 mammalian systems. We discuss below the properties of LiCre as compared to previouslyreported photo-activatable recombinases and the potential of LiCre for applications in the 448 449 field of industrial bioproduction.

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LiCre versus other photo-activatable recombinases

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453 Several tools already exist for inducing site-specific recombination with light. They 454 fall in two groups: those that require the addition of a chemical and those that are fully 455 genetically-encoded. The first group includes the utilization of photocaged ligands instead of 456 4-hydroxy-tamoxifen to induce the activity of Cre-ERT. This pioneering approach was successful in cultured human cells³⁸ as well as fish³⁹ and mouse⁴⁰. Later, a more complex 457 strategy was developed that directly rendered the active site of Cre photoactivatable via the 458 incorporation of photocaged amino-acids⁴¹. In this case, cells were provided with non-natural 459 amino-acids, such as the photocaged tyrosine ONBY, and were genetically modified in order 460 461 to express three foreign entities: a specifically evolved pyrrolysyl tRNA synthetase, a 462 pyrrolysine tRNA_{CUA} and a mutant version of Cre where a critical amino-acid such as Y324 was replaced by a TAG stop codon. The tRNA synthetase/tRNA_{CUA} pair allowed the 463 464 incorporation of the synthetic amino-acid in place of the nonsense mutation and the resulting enzyme was inactive unless it was irradiated with violet or ultraviolet light. This strategy 465 successfully controlled recombination in cultured human cells⁴¹ and zebrafish embryos⁴². We 466 467 note that it presents several caveats: its combination of chemistry and transgenes is complex to implement, the presence of the tRNA synthetase/tRNA_{CUA} pair can generate off-target 468 artificial C-terminal tails in other proteins by bypassing natural stop codons, and 469 470 violet/ultraviolet light can be harmful to cells. More recently, a radically-different chemical

approach was proposed which consisted of tethering an active TAT-Cre recombinase to 471 hollow gold nanoshells⁴³. When delivered to cells in culture, these particles remained trapped 472 473 in intracellular endosomes. Near-infrared photostimulation triggered activity by releasing the 474 recombinase via nanobubble generation occurring on the particle surface. A fourth system is 475 based on the chromophore phycocyanobilin, which binds to the PhyB receptor of A. thaliana 476 and makes its interaction with PIF3 dependent on red light. Photostimulation of this interaction was used to assemble split Cre units into a functional complex in yeast²³. A major 477 interest of these last two systems is to offer the possibility to use red light, which is less 478 479 harmful to cells than blue or violet light and better penetrates tissues. However, all these 480 strategies require to efficiently deliver chemicals to the target cells at the appropriate time 481 before illumination; and their underlying chemistry can be expensive, especially for 482 applications in the context of large volumes such as industrial bioprocesses.

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484 Other systems, such as LiCre, do not need chemical additives because they are fully 485 genetically-encoded. To our knowledge, there are currently three such systems. One is based on the sequestration of Cre between two large photo-cleavable domains⁴⁴. The principle of 486 487 light-induced protein cleavage is very interesting but its application to Cre showed important 488 limitations: a moderate efficiency (~30% of ON cells after the switch), the dependence on a 489 cellular inhibitory chaperone, and the need of violet light. The two other systems are the 490 CRY2/CIB1 and nMag/pMag split Cre, where photo-inducible dimerizers bring together two halves of the Cre protein^{20,21}. An important advantage of LiCre over these systems is that it is 491 492 made of a single protein. The first benefit of this is simplicity. More efforts are needed to 493 establish transgenic organisms expressing two open reading frames (ORFs) as compared to a 494 single one. This is particularly true for vertebrate systems, where inserting several constructs 495 requires additional efforts for characterizing transgene insertion sites and conducting genetic 496 crosses. For this reason, in previous studies, the two ORFs of the split Cre system were combined in a single construct, where they were separated either by an internal ribosomal 497 entry site or by a sequence coding a self-cleaving peptide^{20,21,45}. Although helpful, these 498 499 solutions have important limits: with an IRES, the two ORFs are not expressed at the same 500 level; with a self-cleaving peptide, cleavage of the precursor protein can be incomplete, 501 generating uncleaved products with unknown activity. This was the case for nMag/pMag split 502 Cre in mammalian cells, where a non-cleaved form at ~72 kDa was reported and where 503 targeted modifications of the cleavage sequence increased both the abundance of this noncleaved form and the non-induced activity of the system⁴⁵. The second benefit of LiCre being 504

505 a single protein is to avoid problems of suboptimal stoichiometry between the two protein units, which was reported as a possible issue for CRY2/CIB1 split Cre²⁴. A third benefit is to 506 507 avoid possible intra-molecular recombination between the homologous parts of the two 508 coding sequences. Although not demonstrated, this undesired possibility was suspected for nMag/pMag split Cre because its two dimerizers derive from the same sequence⁴⁵. The other 509 advantages of LiCre are its performances. In the present study, we used a yeast-based assay to 510 511 compare LiCre with split Cre systems. Unexpectedly, although we used the improved version of the CRY2/CIB1 split Cre containing the CRY2-L348F mutation²⁰, it did not generate 512 photo-inducible recombination in our assay. This is unlikely due to specificities of the 513 514 budding yeast, such as improper protein expression or maturation, because the original authors reported activity in this $organism^{20}$. We do not explain this result but it is consistent 515 with the observations of Kawano et al.²¹ who detected extremely low photoactivation of the 516 original version of the CRY2/CIB1 split Cre, and with the observations of Morikawa et al.⁴⁵ 517 518 who reported that the induced activity of the CRY2-L348F/CIB1 system was low and highly 519 variable. In contrast, we validated the efficiency of nMag/pMag split Cre and so did other independent laboratories^{7,46,4745}. LiCre, however, displayed weaker residual activity than 520 521 nMag/pMag split Cre in the dark. Reducing non-induced activity is essential for many 522 applications where recombination is irreversible. Very recently, the nMag/pMag split Cre 523 system was expressed in mice as a transgene - dubbed PA-Cre3.0 - which comprised the 524 promoter sequence of the chicken beta actin gene (CAG) and synonymous modifications of 525 the original self-cleaving coding sequence. The authors reported that this strategy abolished residual activity, and they attributed this improvement to a reduction of the expression level 526 527 of the transgene⁴⁵. It will therefore be interesting to introduce LiCre in mice with a similar 528 expression system and compare it to PA-Cre3.0. Importantly, LiCre also displayed higher 529 induced activity and a faster response to light as compared to nMag/pMag split Cre. This 530 strong response probably results from its simplicity, since the activation of a single protein 531 involves fewer steps than the activation of two units that must then dimerize to become 532 functional. In conclusion, LiCre is simpler and more efficient than previously-existing photo-533 activatable recombinases.

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- LiCre and industrial bioproduction
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537 With their capability to convert low-cost substrates into valuable chemicals, cultured 538 cells have become essential actors of industrial production. However, although metabolic

539 pathways can be rewired in favor of the desired end-product, the yields of bioprocesses have 540 remained limited by a challenging and universal phenomenon called metabolic burden. This effect corresponds to the natural trade-off between the fitness of host cells and their efficiency 541 at producing exogenous compounds⁴⁸. Loss of cellular fitness is sometimes due to viability 542 issues - e.g. if the end-product is toxic to the producing cells - and sometimes simply to the 543 544 fact that resources are allocated to the exogenous pathway rather than to the cellular needs. 545 Reciprocally, satisfying the cellular demands can compromise the efficiency of exogenous 546 pathways. In the case of carotenoids production by yeast, metabolic burden was shown to be substantial⁴⁹ (μ_{max} reduced by ~12%). This growth defect presumably involves competition 547 for FPP, which is consumed to produce carotenoids but which is also crucially needed by 548 cells to synthesize ergosterol, a major constituent of their membranes⁵⁰. 549

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551 To avoid the limitations caused by metabolic burden, a desired solution is to 552 artificially control molecular activities so that they can first be chosen to maximize biomass 553 expansion and then be changed in favor of bioconversion. Technically, this can be achieved 554 by adding inducers or repressors of gene expression into the cell culture, such as lactose or 555 hormones, but these molecules are too expensive to be used at industrial scales. Current 556 solutions therefore rely on physiological changes in gene expression that occur in host cells during the course of fermentation, especially at the end of biomass expansion⁵¹. For example, 557 expression of human recombinant proteins under the yeast P_{MET17} promoter can be repressed 558 by extracellular methionine during the growth phase and triggered later after methionine is 559 consumed^{52,53}. Although useful, such strategies relying on endogenous molecular regulations 560 561 have two important caveats. Ensuring their robustness requires strict control of physiological 562 parameters; and each strategy is specific to the host organism and fermentation conditions and 563 is therefore not transferable. Such limitations would be alleviated if one could cheaply control 564 an artificial and generic metabolic switch.

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Using light as the inducer is attractive in this regard. It is physiologically neutral to most non-photosynthetic organisms, it is extremely cheap and it can be controlled in real-time with extreme accuracy and reproducibility. In addition, because algae are sometimes used as producers, engineers have already designed efficient ways to bring light to bioreactors of various scales^{54–56}. Placing metabolic activities of producing cells under optogenetic control is therefore a promising perspective and several developments have been made in this direction. Using the EL222 optogenetic expression system, Zhao *et al.* applied a two-regimes yeast

fermentation with a continuous illumination that maintained ethanol metabolism during the growth phase, followed by light pulses stimulating isobutanol production during the bioconversion phase⁵⁷. The potential of optogenetics was also illustrated by Milias-Argeitis *et al.* who designed a feedback control of *E. coli* growth and used it to stabilize fermentation performances against perturbations⁵⁸.

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579 We anticipate that LiCre can provide an alternative approach because it offers the 580 possibility to induce irreversible genetic changes by a transient exposure to light. Applying 581 light stimulation transiently on cells could be simpler to implement than continuously 582 controlling light conditions in a bioreactor. By constructing appropriate Lox-based circuits, 583 genetic changes can be designed beforehand to cause the desired switch of metabolic 584 activities. The first switch that can be beneficial is the triggering of bioproduction itself. In 585 principle, switching ON any artificially-designed bioproduction at the appropriate time after 586 biomass expansion can avoid the cell-growth delays caused by metabolic burden. In the 587 results above, we used carotenoids production as an example to illustrate how LiCre can be 588 used to trigger bioproduction by transient illumination. To explore the potential gains on 589 production yields, proof of concept experiments can now be made using LiCre in strains, 590 media and fermentative conditions that are relevant to industrial processes.

591 The other switch that is often desired after biomass expansion is a reduction of the 592 cellular demands for metabolites that are critical precursors of the product of interest. For 593 example, reducing the activity of the yeast Erg9p squalene synthase is beneficial when 594 producing terpenes - and in particular carotenoids - because more FPP becomes available for 595 the pathway of interest. Previous efforts could reduce this activity by mutagenesis⁵⁹, replacement of the native ERG9 promoter⁶⁰ or destabilization of the Erg9p protein⁶¹. In 596 597 addition, several laboratories were able to implement a dynamic switch of ERG9 activity 598 using conventional genetic rewiring. By placing expression of ERG9 under the control of the P_{MET3} promoter, Asadollahi *et al.*³⁴ and Amiri *et al.*⁶² could repress it by adding methionine to 599 600 the culture medium, thereby improving the production of sesquiterpenes and linalool, respectively. For the production of artemisinin, Paddon *et al.*⁶³ used the P_{CTR3} promoter and 601 CuSO₄, a cheaper inhibitor than methionine. Other studies placed the expression of *ERG9* 602 under the control of the P_{HXT1} promoter, which is repressed when glucose becomes naturally 603 exhausted from the medium^{35,36,64}. In the present study, LiCre enabled us to inactivate ERG9 604 by a transient illumination. Although full inactivation of *ERG9* causes cell death and is 605 606 therefore not appropriate for industrial applications, our results show that it is possible to

607 change ERG9 activity at a desired time and using an external stimulus that is cheaper than 608 inhibitors. Rather than full inactivation, other LiCre-based strategies can now be designed to 609 switch from a full activity to a reduced and viable activity. For example, one could insert a 610 weak *erg9* allele at another genomic locus of our *lox-ERG9-lox* strain, so that gene deletion is

611 partially complemented after recombination.

612 Given these considerations, optogenetic switches - and LiCre in particular - may allow 613 industries to address the issue of metabolic burden by integrating lighting devices in 614 bioreactors and by building switchable producer cells.

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In conclusion, LiCre provides a cheap, simple, low-background, highly-efficient and
fast-responding way to induce site-specific recombination with light. Given that it works in
both yeast and mammalian cells, it opens many perspectives from fundamental and
biomedical research to industrial applications.

621 METHODS

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623 **Strains and plasmids.** Plasmids, strains and oligonucleotides used in this study are 624 listed in Supplementary Tables S1, S2 and S3 respectively. LiCre plasmids are available from 625 the corresponding author upon request.

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627 Yeast reporter systems. We ordered the synthesis of sequence LoxLEULoxHIS 628 (Supplementary Text S1) from GeneCust who cloned the corresponding BamHI fragment in 629 plasmid pHO-poly-HO to produce plasmid pGY262. The P_{TEF}-loxP-KILEU2-STOP-loxP-630 spHIS5 construct can be excised from pGY262 by NotI digestion for integration at the yeast 631 HO locus. This way, we integrated it in a leu2 his3 strain, which could then switch from 632 LEU+ his- to leu- HIS+ after Cre-mediated recombination (Fig. 4e). To construct a GFP-633 based reporter, we ordered the synthesis of sequence LEULoxGreen (Supplementary Text S1) 634 from GeneCust who cloned the corresponding NheI-SacI fragment into pGY262 to obtain 635 pGY407. We generated strain GY984 by crossing BY4726 with FYC2-6B. We transformed 636 GY984 with the 4-Kb NotI insert of pGY407 and obtained strain GY1752. To remove the 637 ade2 marker, we crossed GY1752 with FYC2-6A and obtained strain GY1761. Plasmid 638 pGY537 targeting integration at the LYS2 locus was obtained by cloning the BamHI-EcoRI 639 fragment of pGY407 into the BamHI, EcoRI sites of pIS385. Plasmid pGY472 was produced 640 by GeneCust who synthesized sequence LEULoxmCherry (Supplementary Text S1) and 641 cloned the corresponding AgeI-EcoRI insert into the AgeI, EcoRI sites of pGY407. We 642 generated GY983 by crossing BY4725 with FYC2-6A. We obtained GY2033 by 643 transformation of FYC2-6B with a 4-Kb NotI fragment of pGY472. We obtained GY2207 by 644 transformation of GY983 with the same 4-Kb Notl fragment of pGY472. To generate 645 GY2206, we linearized pGY537 with NruI digestion, transformed in strain GY855 and 646 selected a LEU+ Lys- colony (pop-in), which we re-streaked on 5-FoA plates for vector excision by counter-selection of URA3 (pop-out)⁶⁵. Strain GY2214 was a diploid that we 647 648 obtained by mating GY2206 with GY2207.

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650 **Yeast expression plasmids.** Mutations E340A D341A were introduced by GeneCust 651 by site-directed mutagenesis of pSH63, yielding plasmid pGY372. We generated the N-652 terΔ21 mutant of Cre by PCR amplification of the P_{GAL1} promoter of pSH63 using primer 653 1L80 (forward) and mutagenic primer 1L71 (reverse), digestion of pSH63 by AgeI and co-654 transformation of this truncated plasmid and amplicon in a *trp1Δ63* yeast strain for

homologous recombination and plasmid rescue. We combined the N-ter $\Delta 21$ and the C-ter E340A D341A mutations similarly, but with pGY372 instead of pSH63. We generated Nter $\Delta 28$ and N-ter $\Delta 37$ mutants, combined or not with C-ter E340A D341A mutations, by the same procedure where we changed 1L71 by mutagenic primers 1L72 and 1L73, respectively.

659 To generate a Cre-VVD fusion, we designed sequence CreCVII (Supplementary Text S1) where the Cre sequence from GENBANK AAG34515.1 was fused to the VVD-660 M135IM165I sequence from Zoltowski et al.²⁹ via four additional residues (GGSG). We 661 ordered its synthesis from GeneCust, and we co-transformed it in yeast with pSH63 662 663 (previously digested by NdeI and SalI) for homologous recombination and plasmid rescue. 664 This generated pGY286. We then noticed an unfortunate error in AAG34515.1, which reads a 665 threonine instead of an asparagine at position 327. We cured this mutation from pGY286 by 666 site-directed mutagenesis using primers 1J47 and 1J48, which generated pGY339 which 667 codes for Cre-VVD described in Supplementary Fig. S1. We constructed mutant C-ter∆14 of 668 Cre by site-directed mutagenesis of pGY286 using primers 1J49 and 1J50 which 669 simultaneously cured the N327T mutation and introduced an early stop codon. Mutants C-670 ter $\Delta 2$, C-ter $\Delta 4$, C-ter $\Delta 6$, C-ter $\Delta 8$, C-ter $\Delta 10$, C-ter $\Delta 12$ of Cre were constructed by GeneCust 671 who introduced early stop codons in pGY339 by site-directed mutagenesis.

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To test LOV2 Cre fusions, we first designed sequence EcoRI-LovCre chimJa-BstBI 673 674 (Supplementary Text S1) corresponding to the fusion of asLOV2 with Cre via an artificial α-675 helix. This helix was partly identical to the J α helix of asLOV2 and partly identical to the αA 676 helix of Cre. This sequence was synthesized and cloned in the EcoRI and BstBI sites of 677 pSH63 by GeneCust, yielding pGY408. We then generated and directly tested a variety of 678 LOV2 Cre fusions. To do so, we digested pGY408 with BsiWI and MfeI and used this 679 fragment as a recipient vector; we amplified the Cre sequence from pSH63 using primer 680 1G42 as the reverse primer, and one of primers 1M42 to 1M53 as the forward primer (each 681 primer corresponding to a different fusion position); we co-transformed the resulting 682 amplicon and the recipient vector in strain GY1761, isolated independent transformants and 683 assayed them with the protocol of photoactivation and flow-cytometry described below. We 684 generated and tested a variety of LOV2 CreAA fusions by following the same procedure 685 where plasmid pGY372 was used as the PCR template instead of pSH63. A transformant 686 corresponding to LOV2 Cre32 and showing light-dependent activity was chosen for plasmid 687 rescue, vielding plasmid pGY415. A transformant corresponding to LOV2 CreAA20 was 688 chosen for plasmid rescue, yielding plasmid pGY416. Sanger sequencing revealed that the

fusion sequence present in pGY416 was QID instead of QIA at the peptide junction (position
149 on LiCre sequence of Supplementary Text S2). All further experiments on LiCre were
derived from the fusion protein coded by pGY416.

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693 To introduce random residues at the peptide junction of LOV2 Cre32 (Fig. 2b), we 694 first generated pGY417 using the same procedure as for the generation of pGY415 but with 695 pSH47 instead of pSH63 as the PCR template so that pGY417 has a URA3 marker instead of 696 TRP1. We then ordered primers 1N24, 1N25 and 1N26 containing degenerate sequences, we 697 used them with primer 1F14 to amplify the Cre sequence of pSH63, we co-transformed in 698 strain GY1761 the resulting amplicons together with a recipient vector made by digesting 699 plasmid pGY417 with NcoI and BsiWI, and we isolated and directly tested individual 700 transformants with the protocol of photoactivation and flow-cytometry described below. 701 Plasmids from transformants showing evidence of reduced background were rescued from 702 veast and sequenced, yielding pGY459 to pGY464.

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To replace the P_{GAL1} promoter of pGY416 by the P_{MET17} promoter, we digested it with SacI and SpeI, we PCR-amplified the P_{MET17} promoter of plasmid pGY8 with primers 1N95 and 1N96, and we co-transformed the two products in yeast for homologous recombination, yielding plasmid pGY466. We changed the promoter of pGY415 using exactly the same procedure, yielding plasmid pGY465. We changed the promoter of pSH63 similarly, using primer 1083 instead of 1N96, yielding plasmid pGY502.

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711 To express the nMag/pMag split Cre system in yeast, we designed sequence CreN-712 nMag-NLS-T2A-NLS-pMag-CreCpartly (Supplementary Text S1) and ordered its synthesis 713 from GeneCust. The corresponding BgIII fragment was co-transformed in yeast for 714 homologous recombination with pGY465 previously digested with BamHI (to remove 715 asLOV2 and part of Cre), yielding plasmid pGY488 that contained the full system. We then 716 derived two plasmids from pGY488, each one containing one half of the split system under 717 the control of the Met17 promoter. We obtained the first plasmid (pGY491, carrying the 718 TRP1 selection marker) by digestion of pGY488 with SfoI and SacII and co-transformation of 719 the resulting recipient vector with a PCR product amplified from pGY465 using primers 720 1080 and 1082. We obtained the second plasmid (pGY501, carrying the URA3 selection 721 marker) in two steps. We first removed the pMag-CreC part of pGY488 by digestion with 722 NdeI and SacII followed by Klenow fill-in and religation. We then changed the selection

marker by digestion with PfoI and KpnI and co-transformation in yeast with a PCR productamplified from pSH47 with primers 1077 and 1089.

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To express the CRY2^{L348F}/CIB1 split Cre system in yeast, we designed sequences CIB1CreCter and CRY2CreNter and ordered their synthesis from GeneCust, obtaining plasmids pGY526 and pGY527, respectively. To obtain pGY531, we extracted the synthetic insert of pGY527 by digestion with BglII and we co-transformed it in yeast with the NdeI-BamHI fragment of pGY466 for homologous recombination. To obtain pGY532, we extracted the synthetic insert of pGY526 by digestion with BglII and we co-transformed it in yeast with the SacI-BamHI fragment of pSH47 for homologous recombination.

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734 To build a switchable strain for carotene production, we modified EUROSCARF 735 strain Y41388 by integrating a LoxP-KILEU2-T_{ADH1}-LoxP cassette immediately upstream the 736 CrtYB coding sequence of the chromosomally-integrated expression cassette described by Verwaal et al.³³. This insertion was obtained by transforming Y41388 with a 6.6Kb BstBI 737 738 fragment from plasmid pGY559 and selecting a Leu+ transformant, yielding strain GY2247. 739 To obtain pGY559, we first deleted the crtE and crtI genes from YEplac195-YB E I^{33} by 740 MluI digestion and religation. We then linearized the resulting plasmid with SpeI and co-741 transformed it for recombination in a *leu2* Δ yeast strain with a PCR amplicon obtained with 742 primers 1P74 and 1P75 and template pGY407. After Leu+ selection, the plasmid was 743 recovered from yeast, amplified in bacteria and verified by restriction digestion and 744 sequencing.

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We used CRISPR/Cas9 to build a switchable strain for squalene synthase. We cloned the synthetic sequence gERG9 (Supplementary Text S1) in the BamHI-NheI sites of the pML104 plasmid⁶⁶ so that the resulting plasmid (pGY553) coded for a gRNA sequence targeting *ERG9*. This plasmid was transformed in GY2226 together with a repair-template corresponding to a 4.2-Kb EcoRI fragment of pGY547 that contained LoxP-synERG9-T_{ADH1}-LoxP with homologous flanking sequences. The resulting strain was then crossed with Y41388 to obtain GY2236.

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Yeast culture media. We used synthetic (S) media made of 6.7 g/L Difco Yeast Nitrogen Base without Amino Acids and 2 g/L of a powder which was previously prepared by mixing the following amino-acids and nucleotides: 1 g of Adenine, 2 g of Uracil, 2 g of

757 Alanine, 2 g of Arginine, 2 g of Aspartate, 2 g of Asparagine, 2 g of Cysteine, 2 g of 758 Glutamate, 2 g of Glutamine, 2 g of Glycine, 2 g of Histidine, 2 g of Isoleucine, 4 g of 759 Leucine, 2 g of Lysine, 2 g of Methionine, 2 g of Phenylalanine, 2 g of Proline, 2 g of Serine, 760 2 g of Threonine, 2 g of Tryptophane, 2 g of Tyrosine and 2 g of Valine. For growth in 761 glucose condition, the medium (SD) also contained 20 g/L of D-glucose. For growth in 762 galactose condition (induction of P_{GAL1} promoter), we added 2% final (20 g/L) raffinose and 763 2% final (20 g/L) galactose (SGalRaff medium). Media were adjusted to pH=5.8 by addition 764 of NaOH 1N before autoclaving at 0.5 Bar. For auxotrophic selections or P_{MET17} induction, 765 we used media where one or more of the amino-acids or nucleotides were omitted when 766 preparing S. For example, SD-W-M was made as SD but without any tryptophane or 767 methionine in the mix powder.

768

769 Photoactivation and flow-cytometry quantification of recombinase activity. 770 Unless mentioned otherwise, quantitative tests were done by flow-cytometry using yeast 771 reporter strain GY1761. For photoactivation, we used a PAUL apparatus from GenIUL equipped with 460 nm blue LEDs. Using a NovaII photometer (Ophir[®] Photonics), we 772 measured that a 100% intensity on this apparatus corresponded to an energy of 36.3 mW/cm². 773 774 We used Zomei ND filters when we needed to obtain intensities that were not tunable on the 775 device. The yeast reporter strain was transformed with the plasmid of interest, pre-cultured 776 overnight in selective medium corresponding to conditions of transcriptional activation of the 777 plasmid-borne Cre construct (SGalRaff-W for P_{GAL1} plasmids, SD-W-M for P_{MET17} plasmids, SD-W-U-M for split Cre systems) with no particular protection against ambient light. The 778 779 saturated culture was transferred to two 96-well polystyrene flat-bottom Falcon[®] sterile plates 780 (100 µl per well) and one plate was illuminated at the indicated intensities while the other 781 plate was kept in the dark. After the indicated duration of illumination, cells from the two 782 plates were transferred to a fresh medium allowing expression of GFP but not cell division 783 (SD-W-H or SD-W-U-H, strain GY1761 being auxotroph for histidine) and these cultures 784 were incubated at 30°C for 90 minutes. Cells were then either analyzed immediately by flow 785 cytometry, or blocked in PBS + 1mM sodium azide and analyzed the following day.

We acquired data for 10,000 events per sample using a FACSCalibur (BD Biosciences) or a MACSQuant VYB (Miltenyi Biotech) cytometer, after adjusting the concentration of cells in PBS. We analyzed raw data files in the R statistical environment (www.r-project.org) using custom-made scripts based on the flowCore package⁷⁰ from bioconductor (www.bioconductor.org). We gated cells automatically by computing a

perimeter of (FSC-H, SSC-H) values that contained 40% of events (using 2D-kernel density distributions). A threshold of fluorescent intensity (GFP or mCherry) was set to distinguish ON and OFF cells (*i.e.* expressing or not the reporter). To do this, we included in every experiment a negative control made of the reporter strain transformed with an empty vector, and we chose the 99.9th percentile of the corresponding 4,000 fluorescent values (gated cells) as the threshold.

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Quantification of fluorescence levels from microscopy images. For Fig. 3g, we segmented individual cells on bright field images using the ImageJ Lasso plugin. Then, we measured on the fluorescence images the mean gray value of pixels in each segmented area, providing single-cell measures of fluorescence. For each image, the background fluorescence level was quantified from eight random regions outside of cells and with areas similar to single cells. This background level was subtracted from the fluorescence level of each cell.

804

Quantification of carotenoids from yeast. We strictly followed the procedure described in Verwaal *et al.*³³, which consists of mechanical cell lysis using glass beads, addition of pyrogallol, KOH-based saponification, and extraction of carotenoids in hexane. Quantification was estimated by optical absorption at 449 nm using a Biowave spectrophotometer.

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811 Human reporter cell line. We built a reporter construct for Cre-mediated 812 recombination in human cells based on Addgene's plasmids 55779, containing a membraneaddressed mCherry sequence⁶⁷ (mCherry-Mem) and 51269, containing a zsGreen-based 813 reporter of Cre recombination⁶⁸. Re-sequencing revealed that 51269 did not contain three 814 815 terminator sequences but only one between the LoxP sites. We applied a multi-steps 816 procedure to i) restore three terminators, ii) replace zsGreen with mCherry-Mem and iii) have 817 the final reporter in a vector suitable for targeted single-site insertion. First, we inserted a 818 LoxP site between restriction sites NheI and HindIII of pCDNA5/FRT (Invitrogen) by 819 annealing oligonucleotides 1098 and 1099, digesting and cloning this adaptor with NheI and 820 HindIII, which yielded plasmid pGY519. Second, we replaced in two different ways the 821 zsGreen sequence of 51269 by the mCherry-Mem sequence of 55779: either by cloning a 822 SmaI-NotI insert from 55779 into EcoRV-NotI of 51269, yielding plasmid pGY520, or by 823 cloning a EcoRI-NotI from 55779 into EcoRI-NotI of 51269, yielding plasmid pGY521. 824 Third, we inserted the HindIII-NotI cassette of pGY520 into the HindIII-NotI sites of pGY519, yielding plasmid pGY523. Fourth, we inserted the HindIII-NotI cassette of pGY521 into the HindIII-NotI sites of pGY519, yielding plasmid pGY524. Fifth, a HindIII-BamHI fragment of pGY523 containing one terminator, and a BgIII-EcoRI fragment of pGY524 containing another terminator were simultaneously cloned as consecutive inserts in the BgIII-EcoRI sites of 51269. Finally, the resulting plasmid was digested with HindIII and BamHI to produce a fragment that was cloned into the HindIII-BgIII sites of pGY524 to produce 831 pGY525.

To establish stable cell lines, Flp-InTM T-RExTM 293 cells were purchased from Invitrogen (ThermoFisher) and transfected with both the Flp recombinase vector (pOG44, Invitrogen) and pGY525. Selection of clonal cells was first performed in medium containing 300 μ g hygromycin (Sigma). After two weeks, we identified foci of cell clusters, which we individualized by transferring them to fresh wells. One of these clones was cultured for three additional weeks with high concentrations of hygromycin (up to 400 μ g) to remove potentially contaminating negative cells. The resulting cell line was named T4-2PURE.

839

Lentivirus construct and production. A synthetic sequence was ordered from 840 841 Genecust and cloned in the HindIII-NotI sites of pCDNA3.1 (Invitrogen[™] V79020). This 842 insert contained an unrelated additional sequence that we removed by digestion with BamHI 843 and XbaI followed by blunt-ending with Klenow fill-in. The resulting plasmid (pGY561) 844 encoded LiCre optimized for mammalian codon usage, in-frame with a N-ter located SV40-845 NLS signal. This NLS-LiCre sequence was amplified from pGY561 using primers Sauci and 846 Flard (Table S3), and the resulting amplicon was cloned in the AgeI-HindIII sites of the GAE0 Self-Inactivating Vector⁶⁹, yielding pGY577. Lentiviral particles were produced in 847 Gesicle Producer 293T cells (TAKARA ref 632617) transiently transfected by pGY577 (40% 848 of total DNA), an HIV-1 helper plasmid (45% of total DNA) and a plasmid encoding the 849 VSV-g envelope (15%) as previously described⁶⁹. Particle-containing supernatants were 850 851 clarified, filtered through a 0.45-µm membrane and concentrated by ultracentrifugation at 852 40,000 g before resuspension in 1xPBS (100 fold concentration).

853

LiCre assay in human cells. About 3×10^5 cells of cell line T4-2PURE were plated in two 6-well plates. After 24 h, 100 µl of viral particules were added to each well. After another 24 h, one plate was illuminated with blue-light (460 nm) using the PAUL apparatus installed in a 37°C incubator, while the other plate was kept in the dark. For illumination, we applied a sequence of 20 min ON, 20 min OFF under CO₂ atmosphere, 20 min ON where ON

corresponded to 3.63 mW/cm2 illumination. Plates were then returned to the incubator and,
after 28 hours, were imaged on an Axiovert135 inverted fluorescent microscope.

861

862 Calculation of potential mean force (PMF). We calculated the free-energy profile 863 (reported in Figure 1f) for the unbinding of the C-terminal α -helix in the tetrameric Crerecombinase complex²⁶ (PDB Entry 1NZB) as follows. The software we used were: the 864 CHARMM-GUI server⁷¹ to generate initial input files; CHARMM version c39b1⁷² to setup 865 the structural models and subsequent umbrella sampling by molecular dynamics; WHAM, 866 867 version 2.0.9 (http://membrane.urmc.rochester.edu/content/wham/) to extract the PMF; and VMD, version $1.9.2^{73}$ to visualize structures. To achieve sufficient sampling by molecular 868 dynamics, we worked with a structurally reduced model system. We focused thereby only on 869 870 the unbinding of the C-terminal α -helix of subunit A (residues 334:340) from subunit F. Residues that did not have at least one atom within 25 Å from residues 333 to 343 of subunit 871 872 A were removed including the DNA fragments. Residues with at least one atom within 10 Å 873 were allowed to move freely in the following simulations; the remaining residues were fixed 874 to their positions in the crystal structure. For the calculation of the double mutant A340A341 875 the corresponding residues were replaced by alanine residues. The systems were simulated 876 with the CHARMM22 force field (GBSW & CMAP parameter file) and the implicit solvation model FACTS⁷⁴ with recommended settings for param22 (*i.e.*, cutoff of 12 Å for nonbonded 877 878 interactions). Langevin dynamics were carried out with an integration time-step of 2 fs and a friction coefficient of 4 ps⁻¹ for non-hydrogen atoms. The temperature of the heat bath was set 879 to 310 K. The hydrogen bonds were constrained to their parameter values with SHAKE⁷⁵. 880

881 The PMF was calculated for the distance between the center of mass of the α -helix (residues 334:340 of subunit A) and the center of mass of its environment (all residues that 882 have at least one atom within 5 Å of this helix). Umbrella sampling⁷⁶ was performed with 13 883 independent molecular dynamics simulations where the system was restrained to different 884 values of the reaction coordinate (equally spaced from 4 to 10 Å) using a harmonic biasing 885 potential with a spring constant of 20 kcal $mol^{-1} Å^{-1}$ (GEO/MMFP module of CHARMM). 886 887 Note that this module uses a pre-factor of $\frac{1}{2}$ for the harmonic potential (as in the case of the 888 program WHAM).

For each simulation the value of the reaction coordinate was saved at every time-step for 30 ns. After an equilibration phase of 5ns, we calculated for blocks of 5 ns the PMF and the probability distribution function along the reaction coordinate using the weighted histogram analysis method⁷⁷. A total of 13 bins were used with lower and upper boundaries at 3.75 and 10.25 Å, respectively, and a convergence tolerance of 0.01 kcal/mol. Finally, we determined for each bin its relative free energy $F_i = -kT \ln(\bar{p}_i)$ where *k* was the Boltzmann constant, *T* the temperature (310 K) and \bar{p}_i the mean value of the probability of bin *i* when averaged over the five blocks. The error in the F_i estimate was calculated with $\sigma_{F_i} =$ $kT \sigma_{\bar{p}_i}/\bar{p}_i$ where $\sigma_{\bar{p}_i}$ was twice the standard error of the mean of the probability. An offset was applied to the final PMF so that its lowest value was located at zero.

899

900 **qPCR** quantification of recombinase activity. We grew ten colonies of strain 901 GY1761 carrying plasmid pGY466 overnight at 30°C in SD-L-W-M liquid cultures. The 902 following day, we used these starter cultures to inoculate 12 ml of SD-W-M medium at OD_{600} 903 = 0.2. When monitoring growth by optical density measurements, we observed that it was fully exponential after 4 hours and until at least 8.5 hours. At 6.5 hours of growth, for each 904 905 culture, we dispatched 0.1 ml in 96-well plate duplicates using one column (8 wells) per 906 colony, we stored aliquots by centrifuging 1 ml of the cell suspension at 3300 g and freezing 907 the cell pellet at -20°C ('Exponential' negative control) and we re-incubated the remaining of 908 the culture at 30°C for later analysis at stationary phase. We exposed one plate (Fig. 4j 'Exponential' cyan samples) to blue light (PAUL apparatus, 460 nm, 3.63 mW/cm² intensity) 909 910 for 40 min while the replicate plate was kept in the dark (Fig. 4j 'Exponential' grey samples). 911 We pooled cells of the same column and stored them by centrifugation and freezing as above. 912 The following day, we collected 1 ml of each saturated, froze and stored cells as above 913 ('Stationary' negative control). We dispatched the remaining of the cultures in a series of 96well plates (0.1 ml/well, two columns per colony) and we exposed these plates to blue light 914 (PAUL apparatus, 460 nm, 3.63 mW/cm² intensity) for the indicated time (0, 2, 5, 10, 20 or 915 916 40 min). For each plate, following illumination, we collected and froze cells from 6 columns 917 (Fig. 4h samples) and we reincubated the plate in the dark for 90 min before collecting and 918 freezing the remaining 6 columns (Fig. 4i, x-axis samples). For genomic DNA extraction, we 919 pooled cells from 6 wells of the same colony (1 column), we centrifuged and resuspended 920 them in 280 µl in 50 mM EDTA, we added 20 µl of a 2 mg/ml Zymolyase stock solution 921 (SEIKAGAKU, 20 U/mg) to the cell suspension and incubated it for 1h at 37°C for cell wall 922 digestion. We then processed the digested cells with the Wizard Genomic DNA Purification 923 Kit from Promega. We quantified DNA on a Nanodrop spectrophotometer and used ~100,000 924 copies of genomic DNA as template for qPCR, with primers 1P57 and 1P58 to amplify the

925 edited target and with primers 1B12, 1C22 to amplify a control HMLalpha region that we used for normalization. We ran these reactions on a Rotorgene thermocycler (Qiagen). This 926 927 allowed us to quantify the rate of excision of the floxed region as N_{Lox} / N_{Total}, where N_{Lox} 928 was the number of edited molecules and N_{Total} the total number of DNA template molecules. 929 To estimate N_{Lox}, we prepared mixtures of edited and non-edited genomic DNAs, at known 930 ratios of 0%, 0.5%, 1%, 5%, 10%, 50%, 70%, 90%, 100% and we applied (1P57,1P58) qPCR 931 using these mixtures as templates. This provided us with a standard curve that we then used to 932 convert Ct values of the samples of interest into NLox values. To estimate NTotal, we qPCR-933 amplified the HMLalpha control region from templates made of increasing concentrations of 934 genomic DNA. We then used the corresponding standard curve to convert the Ct value of 935 HMLalpha amplification obtained from the samples of interest into N_{Total} values.

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- 937

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939

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947

948 AUTHORS CONTRIBUTIONS

949

950 Constructed plasmids and strains, performed flow cytometry and yeast experiments:

951 H.D-B.

952 Performed qPCR and human cell experiments: G.T.

953 Performed PMF computations: M.S.

954	Designed and produced lentiviral vector: P.M., G.T.
955	Conceived, designed and supervised the study, analysed flow-cytometry data: G.Y.
956	Wrote the paper: GY.
957	Contributed material: C.P., F.V., T.O.
958	
959	COMPETING INTERESTS
960	
961	The authors declare the following competing interest: A patent application covering
962	LiCre and its potential applications has been filed. Patent applicant: CNRS; inventors: Hélène
963	Duplus-Bottin, Martin Spichty and Gaël Yvert.

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- 1150

1151 FIGURE LEGENDS

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1154	Figure 1. N-ter and C-ter α-helices of Cre are critical for activity. a-b) Structure of
1155	the Cre tetramer complexed with DNA (PDB: 1NZB). The four N-ter domains (a) interact via
1156	contacts between α -helices A (green) and E (orange) and the four C-ter domains (b) interact
1157	via α -helices N (magenta). c) Yeast reporter system to quantify Cre efficiency. The STOP
1158	element includes a selectable marker and a terminator sequence which prevents expression of
1159	the downstream GFP sequence. d) Activity of wild-type and C-ter mutants of Cre measured
1160	as the fraction of cells expressing GFP (mean +/- s.e.m, $n = 3$ independent transformants).
1161	Numbers denote the number of residues deleted from the C-ter extremity. 'Vect': expression
1162	plasmid with no insert. e) Blow-up of αN helix. f) Energetics of αN displacing (see
1163	methods). PMF: Potential of Mean Force (\pm error defined as σ_{F_i} in Methods). g) Activity of
1164	Cre mutants lacking N-terminal residues 2 to X, combined or not with the A340 A341 C-
1165	terminal mutation (mean +/- s.e.m, $n = 3$ independent transformants). X was 21, 28 or 37 as
1166	indicated. Arrows, significantly different from WT at $p < 0.05$ (<i>t</i> -test). <i>ns</i> , non significant.
1167	
1168	Figure 2. Monogenic LOV2-Cre fusions display photoactivatable recombinase
1169	activity. a) Fusions with wild-type Cre. b) Variants of LOV2_Cre32 carrying the indicated
1170	mutations at the peptide junction. c) Fusion with Cre carrying the A340A341 double
1171	mutation. a - c) Numbers indicate the positions on the Cre peptidic sequence where asLOV2
1172	was fused. All bar plots show recombinase activity measured by flow-cytometry (mean \pm sem
1173	of the proportion of switched cells, $n = 5$ independent transformants) after galactose-induced
1174	expression of the fusion protein, followed (cyan) or not (grey) by illumination at 460 nm, 36.3
1175	mW/cm ² , for 30 minutes. *, ** and ***: significantly different between dark and light

1176 conditions at p < 0.05, p < 0.01 and p < 0.001, respectively (*t*-test). *n.s.*, non significant (p > 0.05).

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1179 Figure 3. Functional properties of LiCre. a-b) Energy and time dependence. Yeast 1180 cells carrying the reporter system of Fig. 1c and expressing LiCre were grown to stationary 1181 phase and illuminated with blue light (460 nm, see methods) at indicated intensities, then 1182 incubated in non-dividing conditions and processed by flow cytometry (mean \pm sem, strain 1183 GY1761 transformed with pGY466); n = 4 and 3 colonies in (a) and (b), respectively. 1184 Illumination conditions varied either in intensity (a) or duration (b). p: significance from t-1185 test (*n*=3). The fraction of ON cells observed at 0 min was not significantly higher than the 1186 fraction of ON GY1761 cells transformed with empty vector pRS314 (p>0.05). c) Yeast strain 1187 GY1761 was transformed with plasmids pGY491 and pGY501 to express the two proteins of the nMag/pMag split Cre system of Kawano et al.²¹. Cells were processed as in (b) with a 1188 light intensity that matched authors recommendations (1.815 mW/cm²). Neg: no illumination, 1189 1190 cells containing empty vectors only. p: significance from t-tests (n=4). d) Yeast strain 1191 GY1761 was transformed with plasmids pGY531 and pGY532 to express the two proteins of the CRY2^{L348F}/CIB1 split Cre system of Taslimi *et al.*²⁰. Cells were processed as in (b) with 1192 1193 or without illumination for 90 min at an intensity matching authors recommendations (5.45 1194 mW/cm²). Neg: no illumination, cells containing empty vectors only. e) Yeast cells 1195 expressing LiCre from plasmid pGY466 and carrying an integrated reporter confering 1196 prototrophy to histidine were spotted on two His- plates at decreasing densities. Prior to incubation at 30°C, one plate (right) was illuminated for 90 minutes at 3.63 mW/cm² 1197 1198 intensity. f) Time-lapse imaging of yeast cells expressing LiCre and carrying a similar 1199 reporter as Fig. 1c but where GFP was replaced by mCherry (strain GY2033 with plasmid pGY466). Cells were grown to stationary phase, illuminated for 90 min at 3.63 mW/cm² 1200

1201 intensity, immobilized on bottom-glass wells in dividing condition and imaged at the 1202 indicated time. Bar: 10 um, g) Ouantification of intra-cellular mCherry fluorescence from (f). 1203 n = 22 cells. h) Design of qPCR assay allowing to quantify recombination efficiency. i) Ouantification of excision by qPCR immediately after illumination at 3.63 mW/cm² intensity 1204 1205 (stationary phase, strain GY1761 transformed with pGY466). j) DNA excision does not occur 1206 after illumination. X-axis: same data as shown on Y-axis in (i). Y-axis: same experiment but 1207 after illumination, cells were incubated for 90 minutes in dark and non-dividing condition 1208 prior to harvest and qPCR. k) Quantification of DNA excision by qPCR on exponentially-1209 growing or stationary-phase cells (strain GY1761 transformed with pGY466) illuminated at 3.63 mW/cm² intensity. Grey: no illumination. Bars in (i-k): s.e.m. (*n*=10 colonies). 1210 1211 1212 Figure 4. Model of LiCre activation. a) The model was built using PDB structures 1213 1NZB (Cre) and 4WF0 (asLOV2). Green: residues of αA helix from Cre. Blue: residues of J α 1214 helix from asLOV2. b) Two-colors switch assay. Yeast cells carrying LiCre and both GFP 1215 and mCherry reporters (strain GY2214 with plasmid pGY466) were grown to stationary 1216 phase in SD-M-W and illuminated for 180 min at 3.63 mW/cm² intensity. Cells were then 1217 incubated in the dark in non-dividing conditions and processed by flow-cytometry. Density 1218 plot (middle): fluorescent intensities for one sample. Barplot (right): mean \pm s.e.m. (n=31219 colonies) fraction of switched cells in the whole population (Green, Red, Red and green) or in 1220 the subpopulation of cells that also switched the other reporter (Green among red, Red among 1221 green). Grey bars: controls without illumination. 1222 1223 Figure 5. Switching ON carotenoid production with light. a) β -carotene

1224 biosynthetic pathway. Exogeneous genes from *X. dendrorhous* are printed in red. FPP,

1225 farnesyl pyrophosphate; GGPP, geranylgeranyl pyrophosphate. **b**) Scheme of the switchable

1226 locus of yeast GY2247. c) Photoswitchable bioproduction. Strain GY2247 was transformed 1227 with either pRS314 (Vect.), pGY466 (LiCre) or pGY502 (CreWT). Cells were cultured 1228 overnight in SD-M-W and the cultures were illuminated (460 nm, 90 min, 36.3 mW/cm²) or 1229 not and then spotted on agar plates. A and B correspond to two independent transformants of 1230 the LiCre plasmid. Colonies on the right originate from the illuminated LiCre (A) culture. d) 1231 Quantification of carotenoids production. Three colonies of strain GY2247 transformed with 1232 LiCre plasmid pGY466 were cultured overnight in SD-W-M. The following day, 10 ml of 1233 each culture were illuminated as in c), while another 10 ml was kept in the dark. These 1234 cultures were then incubated for 72 h at 30°C. Cells were pelleted (colors of the cell pelets are shown on picture) and processed for quantification (see methods). Units are micrograms of 1235 1236 total carotenoids per gram of biomass dry weight. Bars: mean +/- s.e.m, n = 3. e) Scheme of 1237 the switchable locus of yeast GY2236. f) Light-induced deletion of squalene synthase gene. 1238 Strain GY2236 was transformed with either pRS314 (Vect), pGY502 (Cre) or pGY466 1239 (LiCre). Cells were cultured overnight in 4ml of SD-M-W. A 100-µl aliquot of each culture 1240 was illuminated (as in c) while another 100- μ l aliquot was kept in the dark. A dilution at ~1 1241 cell/µl was then plated on SD-W. Colonies were counted after 3 days. *cfu*: colony forming 1242 units (mean +/- sem, $n \ge 3$ plates). **: p < 0.01 (t-test).

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Figure 6. LiCre photoactivation in human cells. a) Left: Lentiviral SIN vector for
LiCre expression (plasmid pGY577). *P_{CMV}*, early cytomegalovirus promoter; SIN, LTR
regions of Simian Immunodeficiency Virus comprising a partially-deleted 3' U3 region
followed by the R and U5 regions; *psi*, retroviral psi RNA packaging element; *cPPT* and *PPT*,
central and 3' polypurine tracks, respectively; *RRE*, Rev/Rev-responsive element; *SA*, SIV
Rev/Tat splice acceptor; *NLS*, nuclear localization signal; *WPRE*, woodchuck hepatitis virus
regulatory element; *Helper*, plasmid coding for *gag*, *pol*, *tat* and *rev*; *VSV-g*, plasmid

1251	encoding the envelope of the vesicular stomatitis virus. Co-transfection in HEK293T cells
1252	produces pseudotyped particles. These particles are deposited on T4-2PURE reporter cells
1253	which are then illuminated and imaged. Right, genomic reporter locus of T4-2PURE cells.
1254	P_{SV40} , Promoter from SV40; <i>FRT</i> , FLP recognition targets; Hyg^R , hygromycin resistance; <i>pA</i> ,
1255	poly-adenylation signal from SV40; Zeo ^R , zeomycin resistance. Recombination between LoxP
1256	sites switches ON the expression of mCherry by removing three pA terminators. b)
1257	Microscopy images of T4-2PURE cells following the assay. Bars, 150 μ m. All three
1258	fluorescent frames were acquired at the same intensity and exposure time. Illumination
1259	corresponded to two 20 min exposures at 3.63 mW/cm2, separated by 20 minutes without
1260	illumination.

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Figure 1



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Figure 2



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Figure 3



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1277 Figure 5



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Figure 6

a

P_{CMV} P_{CMV} Reporter cPPT PPT P_{SV40} pА SIN LiCre SIN RRE WPRE SA NLS Zeo mCherry-Mem FRT FRT LiCre Helper VSV-g T4-2PURE cells HEK293 cells b Non-infected Infected Infected and illuminated **Bright field** mCherry