

UCLA

UCLA Previously Published Works

Title

DropSynth 2.0: high-fidelity multiplexed gene synthesis in emulsions

Permalink

<https://escholarship.org/uc/item/0n30k47j>

Journal

Nucleic Acids Research, 48(16)

ISSN

0305-1048

Authors

Sidore, Angus M
Plesa, Calin
Samson, Joyce A
et al.

Publication Date

2020-09-18

DOI

10.1093/nar/gkaa600

Peer reviewed

DropSynth 2.0: high-fidelity multiplexed gene synthesis in emulsions

Angus M. Sidore^{1,†}, Calin Plesa^{2,†}, Joyce A. Samson², Nathan B. Lubock² and Sriram Kosuri^{2,3,*}

¹Department of Chemical and Biomolecular Engineering, University of California, Los Angeles, Los Angeles, CA 90095, USA, ²Department of Chemistry and Biochemistry, University of California, Los Angeles, Los Angeles, CA 90095, USA and ³UCLA-DOE Institute for Genomics and Proteomics, Molecular Biology Institute, Quantitative and Computational Biology Institute, Eli and Edythe Broad Center of Regenerative Medicine and Stem Cell Research, Jonsson Comprehensive Cancer Center, University of California, Los Angeles, Los Angeles, CA 90095, USA

Received November 18, 2019; Revised June 13, 2020; Editorial Decision July 02, 2020; Accepted July 11, 2020

ABSTRACT

Multiplexed assays allow functional testing of large synthetic libraries of genetic elements, but are limited by the designability, length, fidelity and scale of the input DNA. Here, we improve DropSynth, a low-cost, multiplexed method that builds gene libraries by compartmentalizing and assembling microarray-derived oligonucleotides in vortexed emulsions. By optimizing enzyme choice, adding enzymatic error correction and increasing scale, we show that DropSynth can build thousands of gene-length fragments at >20% fidelity.

INTRODUCTION

Multiplexed functional assays link gene function or regulation to activities that can be read by next-generation sequencing such as through enrichment screens [cellular growth (1), cell sorting (2,3) and binding (4,5)] or transcriptional reporters (6). Multiplexed assays can functionally assess thousands of different sequences in a single pooled experiment, and are thus powerful approaches for understanding how sequence affects function (7). The DNA sequences to test are produced by genome fragmentation (8), mutagenesis of existing sequences (9) or direct synthesis of oligonucleotides (oligos) (10). Direct oligo synthesis allows for testing controlled hypotheses against one another without the constraints of natural variation or mutagenesis. However, individual oligos are generally shorter than 200 nucleotides (nt), limiting potential applications. Gene synthesis from oligo libraries can be used to extend these lengths (11,12), but the high cost of individual assembly and processing becomes prohibitive for large gene libraries.

To address these concerns, we previously developed a low-cost, multiplexed method termed DropSynth, which is capable of building large gene libraries from microarray-derived oligo library synthesis (OLS) pools (13). DropSynth works by assembling genes through the isolation and assembly of microarray-derived oligos in droplets (Figure 1A). First, genes are bioinformatically split into several oligos and flanked with restriction sites, priming sequences and a 12-nt microbead barcode sequence that is common to all oligos needed to assemble a given gene (Supplementary Figure S1). Oligos are synthesized as a microarray-derived pool, amplified and nicked using a nicking endonuclease, exposing each 12-nt microbead barcode as a single-stranded overhang. Nicked oligos are hybridized to a pool of bar-coded microbeads that contain complementary 12-nt microbead barcode sequences, such that each bead pulls down all oligos for a particular assembly. Bound beads are then encapsulated in droplets, where sequences are cleaved from the bead using a type IIS restriction enzyme and assembled into genes using a high-fidelity polymerase. Following assembly, the emulsion is broken and gene libraries are recovered.

Several alternative methods for multiplexed gene synthesis have demonstrated the assembly of hundreds to thousands of short (<800 bp) fragments (14–16). However, these methods do not successfully isolate individual assemblies from one another, which becomes essential for longer sequences at appreciable scales (17). DropSynth overcomes these pitfalls by isolating individual assemblies in droplets, thus enabling unbiased assembly of large libraries of long genes.

However, DropSynth is limited by the resulting fidelity of the gene libraries and the scalability of the method. For example, in our original work, only 1.9–3.9% of assemblies corresponded to the designed protein sequence, and each

*To whom correspondence should be addressed. Tel: +1 310 825 8931; Email: sri@ucla.edu

†The authors wish it to be known that, in their opinion, the first two authors should be regarded as Joint First Authors.

Present address: Calin Plesa, Phil and Penny Knight Campus for Accelerating Scientific Impact, University of Oregon, Eugene, OR 97403, USA.

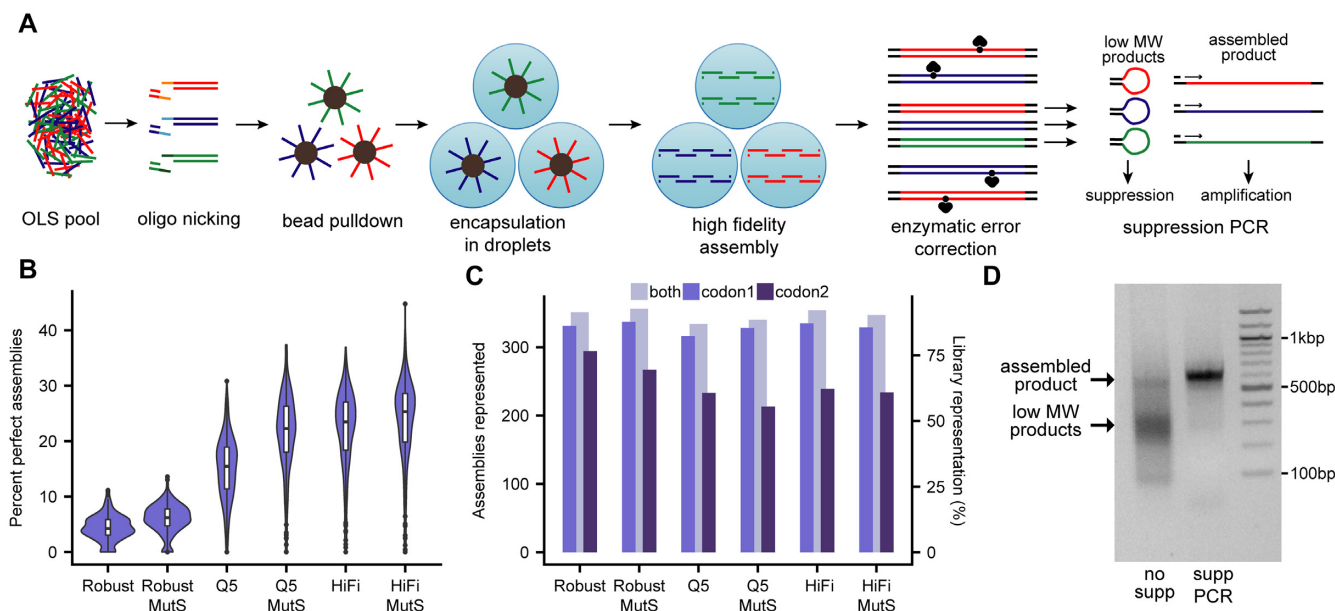


Figure 1. DropSynth 2.0: high-fidelity multiplexed gene synthesis in emulsions. (A) Schematic of DropSynth 2.0. (B) Comparison of percent perfect assemblies (minimum 100 assembly barcodes) of a 384-gene library assembled using DropSynth with three different polymerases (KAPA Robust, NEB Q5 or KAPA HiFi) with or without MutS-based enzymatic error correction. (C) Comparison of total assemblies represented with at least one assembly barcode for all conditions. Two codon versions of the 384-gene library were assembled for each condition, and representation is improved when combining across both codon usages. (D) A 2% agarose gel of 384-gene assembly product following bulk amplification with standard PCR or using single-primer suppression PCR; yield of assembled product is noticeably higher using single-primer suppression PCR.

assembly was limited to 384 designs per library (13). This error rate and small scale inhibit broader applicability, but also limit its use as a broader gene synthesis method. Here, we present DropSynth 2.0, an optimized protocol for multiplexed gene synthesis. We optimized enzyme choice, oligo design and assembly protocols, added enzymatic error correction and increased scale, which together result in a substantially superior method for gene library synthesis.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Oligo design

The software used to split a given amino acid sequence into oligos with overlaps was derived from Eroshenko *et al.* (18) and is available at <https://github.com/KosuriLab/>. Amino acid sequences were first converted to nucleic acid sequences by assigning codons randomly weighted based on their frequency in the *Escherichia coli* genome, while also preventing formation of four restriction sites used in cloning and processing (NdeI, KpnI, BtsI-v2 and BspQI). Next, the coding regions were flanked with restriction sites for cloning (NdeI, KpnI) and the forward and reverse assembly primers used in the emulsion polymerase cycling assembly. The sequences were then split into oligos with overlap regions that satisfy certain parameters, including predicted melting temperature range using the nearest-neighbor method (19,20), mean overlap size and predicted secondary structure using the hybrid-ss-min function in UNAFold (21). Sequences that failed to meet these parameters were assigned new codons until a successful split was generated. Split oligo

sequences were then flanked with BtsI-v2 sites used to release the oligos inside each droplet. In order to maintain the same length across all oligos, padding sequence consisting of ATGC repeats was added to the region upstream of the 5' BtsI-v2 site. Next, a Nt.BspQI sequence, 12-nt gene-specific barcode sequence (referred to as the 'microbead barcode') and another Nt.BspQI sequence were prepended to the 5' end of each oligo. Nt.BspQI was used to nick the top strand on the 5' end of the barcode and the bottom strand on the 3' end of the barcode sequence, exposing it as a 12-nt top-strand overhang. This barcode allows all oligos contributing to a given gene to be localized on the same bead. Oligos were next flanked with 15-nt amplification primers unique to a given library subpool. BLAT (22) was run to verify that amplification primer sequences did not possess homologies >10 base pairs (bp) to the designed oligos. Prior to synthesis, final oligo sequences were screened for the presence of all required components and against all illegal restriction sites.

Using the above oligo design, we synthesized a microarray-derived OLS pool of 33 792 230mer oligos from Agilent Technologies. This pool contained several variations of two codon versions of a 384-member dihydrofolate reductase (DHFR) library derived from our original work (13). For our control libraries, which were used for all biological optimizations, we used an overlap melting temperature range of 58–62°C, mean overlap size of 20 bp and an overlap secondary structure cutoff of –4 kcal/mol. We also generated identical amino acid libraries using alternative overlap parameters, including a longer

overlap size of 25 bp and a more stringent secondary structure cutoff of -2 kcal/mol. Another set of amino acid libraries contained alternative IIS restriction sites to BtsI-v2, including BsmAI and BsrDI. This OLS pool also contained two codon usages of a single 1536-member DHFR library derived from four libraries from Plesa *et al.* (13).

Microbead barcode design

In order to generate distinct 12mer barcode sequences, we took 2000 20mer primer sequences derived from Eroshenko *et al.* (18), removed all sequences containing NdeI, KpnI, BtsI-v2, BspQI, EcoRI, XhoI, SpeI and NotI, and generated all possible 12mer subset sequences. We next screened for self-dimers, GC content between 45% and 55%, and a melting temperature between 40 and 42°C. We further filtered sequences to have a minimum modified Levenshtein distance of 3 between selected barcodes (23). We then selected the first 384 sequences to be used in oligo designs, with complementary sequences being used to generate the beads. For the 1536-plex barcode design, we performed identical screens except for a relaxed melting temperature screen between 38 and 44°C. The first 1536 sequences were used in our 1536-plex oligo libraries, with complementary sequences being used to generate the beads.

Barcoded beads protocol

A detailed protocol for barcoded bead preparation is available in the Supplementary Protocols. Three oligos are required to generate each DropSynth barcoded bead, two of which are common to all beads (anchor and ligation oligos) (Supplementary Table S1). The anchor oligo, which has 5' double biotin modification, contains sequences complementary to the ligation oligo and part of the barcode oligo. The ligation oligo, which contains 3' biotin modification and 5' phosphate modification, is fully complementary to the anchor oligo and allows for the ligation of the barcode oligo. The barcode oligo, which has no modifications, contains a common sequence on the 3' end that hybridizes to the anchor oligo and a unique 12-nt sequence that acts as a 5' overhang. This setup minimizes cost, as only the common oligos (anchor and ligation) require expensive modifications (Supplementary Table S2). The anchor and ligation oligos were purchased in bulk at >1 μmol , while the barcode oligos were purchased as a single 384-well plate from Integrated DNA Technologies.

The three oligos required for each barcoded bead were individually mixed, ligated and phosphorylated in individual wells of a 384-well plate using a Liquidator 96 (Mettler-Toledo Rainin, Oakland, CA). Next, magnetic Streptavidin M270 Dynabeads (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) were added to each well, and plates were incubated overnight at room temperature while shaking >2000 rpm. The individual wells were then washed >5 times using $2\times$ Bind & Wash Buffer and a 384-Well Post Magnetic Plate (Permagen Labware, Peabody, MA). After washing, individual bound beads were resuspended in 5 μl of $2\times$ Bind & Wash Buffer and pooled together. For the 1536-plex barcoded bead pool, four plate pools of 384 barcoded beads were combined in equal volumes.

Oligo amplification and processing

A detailed protocol for oligo amplification, processing, assembly, mismatch binding by MutS and suppression PCR is available in the Supplementary Protocols. All components and their current costs are depicted in Supplementary Table S3. Upon receipt of the oligo pool, individual oligo libraries were PCR amplified using 15-nt amplification primers (Supplementary Table S4) with Q5 High-Fidelity 2X Master Mix (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA), and number of cycles determined by qPCR. Amplifications were stopped several cycles prior to plateauing to prevent overamplification. Oligo subpools were then diluted to 0.02 $\text{ng}/\mu\text{l}$ and bulk amplified using a biotinylated forward amplification primer and unmodified reverse amplification primer with Q5 High-Fidelity 2X Master Mix for 20 cycles. For each library, eight PCRs were run in parallel, pooled and column cleaned using a Clean & Concentrator (Zymo Research, Irvine, CA). Oligo subpools were then nicked overnight using the nicking endonuclease Nt.BspQI, exposing gene-specific 12-nt barcode overhangs. The short biotinylated fragment cleaved following nicking was removed by binding to Streptavidin M270 Dynabeads (Invitrogen), and the remaining processed oligos were column cleaned. A total of 1.3 μg of each processed oligo subpool was added to 20 μl of barcoded beads (~ 5 million beads) and Taq ligase. The mixture was slowly annealed overnight from 50 to 10°C , allowing the 12-nt overhang on the processed oligos to hybridize to complementary 12-nt overhangs on barcoded beads.

Emulsion assembly

Loaded beads were mixed with a polymerase master mix, KAPA2G Robust HotStart ReadyMix (KAPA Biosystems, Wilmington, MA), KAPA HiFi HotStart ReadyMix (KAPA Biosystems) or Q5 High-Fidelity 2X Master Mix (New England Biolabs), 60-nt primer sequences containing 20-nt amplification primer sequences and 40-nt inverted terminal repeats (ITRs) to be used during bulk suppression PCR (Supplementary Table S5), bovine serum albumin and BtsI-v2. Immediately after adding BtsI-v2, the mixture was added to 600 μl of BioRad Droplet Generation Oil and vortexed for 3 min using a Vortex Genie 2 (Scientific Industries, Bohemia, NY), resulting in compartmentalization of beads in <5 μm droplets. After vortexing, samples were aliquoted into PCR strips and incubated at 55°C for 90 min, allowing BtsI-v2 to cleave oligo sequences off the beads. Samples were heated to 94°C for 2 min, and then thermocycled for 60 cycles with the following conditions: 94°C for 15 s, 57°C for 20 s, 72°C for 45 s, followed by a final 5 min extension at 72°C . Following assembly, emulsions were broken by adding 100 μl perfluoro-1-octanol (Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, MO), and the aqueous phase was extracted and column cleaned. Assembled products were then run on a 2% agarose gel and bands were extracted at the correct assembly length.

Mismatch binding by MutS

Following gel extraction of assembly products, 10 μl of M2B2 magnetic beads (US Biological, Salem, MA) was

added to each library and incubated for 2 h at room temperature while shaking using a Thermomixer C (Eppendorf, Hamburg, Germany). M2B2 beads (US Biological) contain immobilized MutS and thus bind to and magnetically separate DNA containing mismatch-generated heteroduplexes. Following incubation, error-depleted libraries were column cleaned using a Clean & Concentrator (Zymo Research). In order to verify filtration of DNA, libraries were bulk amplified on a qPCR using assembly primers before and after M2B2 treatment and ΔCq was quantified.

Bulk suppression PCR

Gene libraries assembled during DropSynth assembly contain external 40-nt ITRs lacking homology to any library sequences. Following recovery of assembled DropSynth libraries, a bulk PCR was carried out using a single 20-nt primer complementary to the proximal region of the 5' ITR (Supplementary Table S5). Due to their close physical proximity, the ITRs of shorter DNA fragments tend to self-anneal, creating hairpin-like structures with suppressed amplification. In contrast, the ITRs of longer DNA fragments are less likely to anneal to one another, allowing for primer annealing and effective amplification. In this case, libraries were amplified using Q5 High-Fidelity 2X Master Mix (New England Biolabs), a final primer concentration of 0.8 μ M, T_m of 58°C and number of cycles determined by qPCR. Amplifications were stopped several cycles prior to plateauing to prevent overamplification. Following amplification, samples were run on a 2% agarose gel and assembly bands were extracted.

pEVBC plasmid construction

The plasmid used to barcode unique assemblies is derived from our previous work (13). pEVBC is a pUC19 derivative containing a pLac-UV5 promoter, NdeI and KpnI restriction sites for cloning, an in-frame stop codon and 20mer random assembly barcode sequences. The plasmid was constructed by digesting pUC19 with AatII and BspQI, gel extracting the larger fragment and ligating in a gBlock DNA fragment containing the promoter, several restriction sites and chloramphenicol acetyltransferase in frame before the stop codon. The resulting plasmid was then double digested with NcoI and KpnI and the 2209-bp fragment was gel extracted. Using this fragment as a template, an around-the-horn PCR was carried out using the forward primer pEVBC.FWD containing an NdeI site and reverse primer pEVBC.REV1 containing KpnI and a 20-nt random assembly barcode sequence with the following conditions: 95°C for 3 min, followed by five cycles of 98°C for 30 s, 59°C for 15 s and 72°C for 3 min. The PCR product was then further amplified using pEVBC.FWD and pEVBC_amp.FWD for 15 cycles. The resulting amplicon was then column purified, digested with NdeI and KpnI, treated with rSAP and size selected.

Barcoded library in pEVBC

Following bulk suppression PCR of assembly products, gene libraries were double digested with NdeI and

KpnI, and column purified. Gene libraries were then ligated to digested NdeI + KpnI pEVBC plasmid using a 3:1 insert-to-vector molar ratio, column purified and eluted in a volume of 15 μ l. Ligation products were directly PCR amplified with sequencing primers mi3.FWD and mi3_N7###_REV to add p5, p7 and indexes (designated by 7###) for Illumina sequencing.

Assembly barcode sequencing and analysis

Assembly barcoded libraries were sequenced on a total of five Illumina MiSeq paired-end 600-cycle runs. Following PCR amplification with sequencing primers mi3.FWD and mi3_N7###_REV, amplicons were gel extracted and quantified using an Agilent 2200 TapeStation. Samples were then pooled and sequenced on a MiSeq using custom primers mi3_R1, mi3_R2 and mi3_index, and fastqs were generated for each sample following demultiplexing. In order to eliminate biases in coverage following sequencing, individual fastqs were randomly downsampled to 1 880 288 reads (number of reads of the sample with the lowest read depth). All fastq files were trimmed of adapter sequences with bbduk, and paired-end reads were merged with bbmerge (from BBTools package). Reads were next concatenated and piped into a custom python script, used in our previous work. This script splits reads into variants and 20-nt assembly barcodes, generating a dictionary containing each assembly barcode and the variants mapped to it. Assembly barcodes that map to multiple variants were removed by calculating the pairwise Levenshtein distance of every variant associated with a given assembly barcode. If at least 5% of assembly barcodes have a Levenshtein distance > 10, the assembly barcode is considered contaminated and dropped from the analysis. Next, a consensus sequence is generated by taking the majority base call at each position, and translated until the first stop codon. Variants and their mapped barcodes were then imported into R, where they were analyzed for coverage and fidelity. For coverage analyses, the term 'assemblies represented' refers to the total number of assemblies corresponding to a perfect amino acid sequence represented by at least one assembly barcode. For fidelity analyses, the term 'percent perfect assemblies' is defined as the median percent perfect sequences at the amino acid level determined by using constructs with at least 100 assembly barcodes.

RESULTS

Increasing the percentage of perfect assemblies using a high-fidelity polymerase and suppression PCR

The error profiles of previous DropSynth assemblies had many more transition mismatches than single-base deletions, the dominant error type of the oligos. This mutational signature was indicative of errors introduced by KAPA Robust polymerase, which was initially chosen for assembly performance (13,24). We thus optimized two high-fidelity polymerases, KAPA HiFi and NEB Q5, with order-of-magnitude lower error rates (25) to work with DropSynth. We assembled two codon versions of a 384-member library of DHFR homologs using KAPA Robust and the

two high-fidelity polymerases. We found the high-fidelity polymerases produced less assembled product, and thus made cloning and size selection difficult. To address this, we amplified the resultant assemblies using single-primer suppression PCR. In this technique, primer annealing competes with the self-annealing of ITRs flanking the assembled genes (16,26). Shorter by-products tend to self-anneal, while correct assembly products anneal to the primer, resulting in proper amplification. Following suppression PCR, we ligated the libraries into a plasmid containing a 20-bp assembly barcode sequence, cloned and sequenced them, allowing us to link assembled genes with unique barcodes.

Among genes with at least 100 assembly barcodes, we found a median of 4.2% perfect assemblies at the amino acid level for KAPA Robust (Figure 1B), which is consistent with our previous work (13). Using high-fidelity polymerases for assembly resulted in a statistically significant several-fold improvement in the median percent perfect assemblies, with 15.5% using NEB Q5 and 23.5% using KAPA HiFi (Figure 1B, Supplementary Table S6). A similar trend in percent perfect assemblies was observed from the second codon version assembled (Supplementary Figure S2, Supplementary Table S6). At the nucleotide level, similar trends in percent perfect assemblies were observed, with KAPA HiFi performing the best (14.6% for codon 1), followed by NEB Q5 (10.0%) and KAPA Robust (1.6%) (Supplementary Figure S3). When analyzing the total number of constructs represented with at least one assembly barcode, we found consistently high representation across all polymerases (86% for KAPA Robust, 87% for KAPA HiFi and 82% for NEB Q5) for codon 1 (Figure 1C). Codon 2 had lower library representation, particularly for NEB Q5 and KAPA HiFi (77% for KAPA Robust, 62% for KAPA HiFi 61% for NEB Q5). Though differences in coverage existed between codon usages, combining across codon usages improved the total protein library representation (91% for KAPA Robust, 92% for KAPA HiFi and 87% for NEB Q5) (Figure 1C). Thus, by using multiple codon usages per gene, we improved our ability to achieve greater library coverage. Finally, we observed that using single-primer suppression PCR after assembly significantly improved the quantity of the correctly assembled product, while minimizing the presence of lower molecular weight by-products (Figure 1D).

Algorithmic optimizations

We next set out to improve library representation by optimizing the algorithms that determine how oligos are split. Several factors can contribute to incomplete library representation, including oligo synthesis failure, processing failure and assembly failure. One cause of assembly failure is the inability of oligos to overlap and assemble properly. In order to investigate this further, we created multiple iterations of the same two codon versions of our 384-member DHFR library using different parameters for where oligos overlapped, including overlap length and secondary structure (18). We found that 20-bp overlaps, which were used in our original work, had higher library representa-

tion than 25-bp overlaps (Supplementary Figure S4). Furthermore, modifying the overlap location to minimize secondary structure had minimal effect on library representation (Supplementary Figure S4).

Restriction enzyme optimization

Assembly failure can also be attributed to incompatibilities between the polymerase buffer and the IIS restriction enzyme used to cleave oligos off the beads. In particular, NEB Q5 buffer inhibits several IIS restriction enzymes (27), which can cause incomplete library representation by preventing the cleavage of oligos from the surface of the microbead within the droplet (Figure 1C). To investigate this further, we designed multiple iterations of the same two codon usages of our 384-member DHFR library with three different IIS restriction sites (BtsI-v2, BsmAI and BsrDI) and assembled them using NEB Q5. Though differences in library representation exist across codon versions, we found that assemblies using BsrDI had poor representation when compared to assemblies with BtsI-v2 and BsmAI (Supplementary Figure S5).

Enzymatic error correction using MutS

Experimental improvements to the workflow allowed us to test enzymatic mismatch correction techniques. Genes possessing mismatches or single-base insertions or deletions contain heteroduplexes after emulsion assembly, which can then be recognized and bound by the bacterial enzyme MutS (28,29). Magnetic beads containing immobilized MutS capture these sequences, thus allowing for the enrichment of perfect genes. Though MutS appeared to marginally improve fidelity in assemblies using KAPA Robust and NEB Q5, it did not have a statistically significant effect on assemblies using KAPA HiFi (Figure 1B, Supplementary Figure S2 and Supplementary Table S6).

Increasing the reaction scale to 1536 genes

Finally, the scale per DropSynth assembly reaction was limited to 384 genes. In an effort to overcome this limitation, we designed and created a new barcoded bead pool containing 1536 unique microbead barcode sequences. This bead pool was constructed using similar procedures to the 384-plex bead pool (Supplementary Figure S6, Supplementary Protocols). In order to demonstrate the efficacy of the new bead pool, we designed and assembled two codon versions of a 1536-member library of DHFR homologs. Each library member contains one of 1536 unique microbead barcode sequences that can be hybridized to one of 1536 beads with complementary barcode sequences. We assembled these libraries using our best-performing polymerase, KAPA HiFi, and ligated them into a barcoded expression plasmid. Following sequencing, we observed 1048/1536 (codon 1) and 904/1536 (codon 2) constructs represented with at least one assembly barcode (Figure 2A). When combining across codon usages, we found a total of 1208 constructs represented, approaching 80% total protein library coverage (Figure 2A). Among genes with at least 100 assembly barcodes, we found a median of 27.6% perfect assemblies for

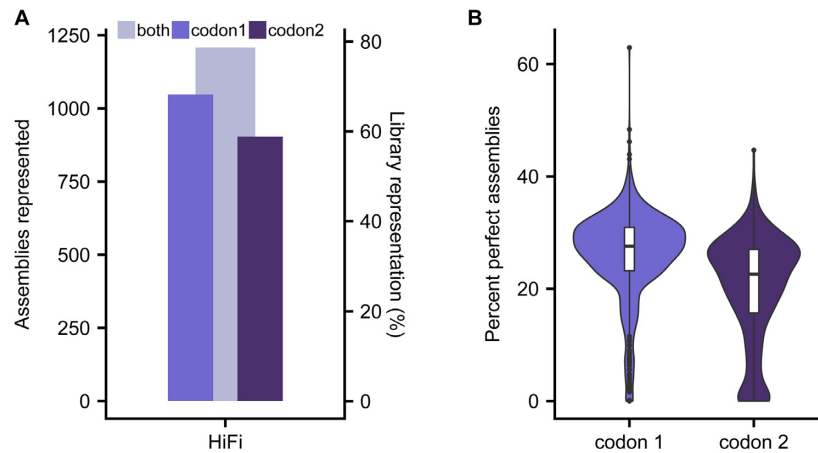


Figure 2. A scaled-up barcoded bead pool allows for the one-pot assembly of up to 1536 genes. **(A)** Two codon versions of a 1536-gene library were assembled using KAPA HiFi; when combining across both codon usages, 1208/1536 genes have at least one assembly barcode. **(B)** Comparison of percent perfect assemblies (minimum 100 assembly barcodes) of both codon versions of each 1536-gene library.

codon 1 and 22.6% for codon 2, suggesting that the new bead pool can assemble large libraries at high fidelity (Figure 2B).

DISCUSSION

DropSynth 2.0 combines improvements in fidelity and scale, significantly enhancing our ability to build large, accurate gene libraries. By improving fidelity, gene libraries enriched with perfect assemblies enable clearer hypothesis testing using multiplexed functional assays. In addition, improvements in fidelity allow for the assembly of longer genes using more oligos. Increasing the frequency of perfect assemblies enables simpler individual gene retrieval using molecular cloning or dial-out PCR (30). By improving scale, larger gene libraries reduce the cost per assembly reaction and enable more data to be generated on desired hypotheses. Combining these improvements creates a much more powerful workflow for the synthesis of large gene libraries.

SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

Supplementary Data are available at NAR Online.

FUNDING

Human Frontier Science Program [LT000068/2016 to C.P.]; Netherlands Organisation for Scientific Research [to C.P.]; National Science Foundation [2016211460 to A.M.S.]; National Institutes of Health [DP2GM114829 to S.K.]; Searle Scholars Program [to S.K.]; Department of Energy [DE-FC02-02ER63421 to S.K.]; UCLA; Linda and Fred Wudl; Burroughs Wellcome Fund [to C.P.]. Funding for open access charge: UCLA.

Conflict of interest statement. S.K. is a named inventor on a patent for the DropSynth method (US10202628B2).

REFERENCES

- Hietpas, R.T., Jensen, J.D. and Bolon, D.N.A. (2011) Experimental illumination of a fitness landscape. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. U.S.A.*, **108**, 7896–7901.
- Kinney, J.B., Murugan, A., Callan, C.G. Jr and Cox, E.C. (2010) Using deep sequencing to characterize the biophysical mechanism of a transcriptional regulatory sequence. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. U.S.A.*, **107**, 9158–9163.
- Sharon, E., Kalma, Y., Sharp, A., Raveh-Sadka, T., Levo, M., Zeevi, D., Keren, L., Yakhini, Z., Weinberger, A. and Segal, E. (2012) Inferring gene regulatory logic from high-throughput measurements of thousands of systematically designed promoters. *Nat. Biotechnol.*, **30**, 521–530.
- Starita, L.M., Young, D.L., Islam, M., Kitzman, J.O., Gullingsrud, J., Hause, R.J., Fowler, D.M., Parvin, J.D., Shendure, J. and Fields, S. (2015) Massively parallel functional analysis of BRCA1 RING domain variants. *Genetics*, **200**, 413–422.
- Doolan, K.M. and Colby, D.W. (2015) Conformation-dependent epitopes recognized by prion protein antibodies probed using mutational scanning and deep sequencing. *J. Mol. Biol.*, **427**, 328–340.
- Patwardhan, R.P., Lee, C., Litvin, O., Young, D.L., Pe'er, D. and Shendure, J. (2009) High-resolution analysis of DNA regulatory elements by synthetic saturation mutagenesis. *Nat. Biotechnol.*, **27**, 1173–1175.
- Gasparini, M., Starita, L. and Shendure, J. (2016) The power of multiplexed functional analysis of genetic variants. *Nat. Protoc.*, **11**, 1782–1787.
- Arnold, C.D., Gerlach, D., Stelzer, C., Boryn, E.M., Rath, M. and Stark, A. (2013) Genome-wide quantitative enhancer activity maps identified by STARR-seq. *Science*, **339**, 1074–1077.
- Sarkisyan, K.S., Bolotin, D.A., Meer, M.V., Usmanova, D.R., Mishin, A.S., Sharonov, G.V., Ivankov, D.N., Bozhanova, N.G., Baranov, M.S., Soylemez, O. *et al.* (2016) Local fitness landscape of the green fluorescent protein. *Nature*, **533**, 397–401.
- Rocklin, G.J., Chidyausiku, T.M., Goresnik, I., Ford, A., Houlston, S., Lemak, A., Carter, L., Ravichandran, R., Mulligan, V.K., Chevalier, A. *et al.* (2017) Global analysis of protein folding using massively parallel design, synthesis, and testing. *Science*, **357**, 168–175.
- Quan, J., Saaem, L., Tang, N., Ma, S., Negre, N., Gong, H., White, K.P. and Tian, J. (2011) Parallel on-chip gene synthesis and application to optimization of protein expression. *Nat. Biotechnol.*, **29**, 449–452.
- Kosuri, S., Eroshenko, N., Leproust, E.M., Super, M., Way, J., Li, J.B. and Church, G.M. (2010) Scalable gene synthesis by selective amplification of DNA pools from high-fidelity microchips. *Nat. Biotechnol.*, **28**, 1295–1299.
- Plesa, C., Sidore, A.M., Lubock, N.B., Zhang, D. and Kosuri, S. (2018) Multiplexed gene synthesis in emulsions for exploring protein functional landscapes. *Science*, **359**, 343–347.
- Klein, J.C., Lajoie, M.J., Schwartz, J.J., Strauch, E.M., Nelson, J., Baker, D. and Shendure, J. (2015) Multiplex pairwise assembly of array-derived DNA oligonucleotides. *Nucleic Acids Res.*, **44**, e43.

15. Kim,H., Han,H., Ahn,J., Lee,J., Cho,N., Jang,H., Kim,H., Kwon,S. and Bang,D. (2012) 'Shotgun DNA synthesis' for the high-throughput construction of large DNA molecules. *Nucleic Acids Res.*, **40**, e40.
16. Hsiau,T.H.-C., Sukovich,D., Elms,P., Prince,R.N., Stritmatter,T., Ruan,P., Curry,B., Anderson,P., Sampson,J. and Christopher Anderson,J. (2015) A method for multiplex gene synthesis employing error correction based on expression. *PLoS One*, **10**, e0119927.
17. Borovkov,A.Y., Loskutov,A.V., Robida,M.D., Day,K.M., Cano,J.A., Le Olson,T., Patel,H., Brown,K., Hunter,P.D. and Sykes,K.F. (2010) High-quality gene assembly directly from unpurified mixtures of microarray-synthesized oligonucleotides. *Nucleic Acids Res.*, **38**, e180.
18. Eroshenko,N., Kosuri,S., Marblestone,A.H., Conway,N. and Church,G.M. (2012) Gene assembly from chip-synthesized oligonucleotides. *Curr. Protoc. Chem. Biol.*, **2012**, ch110190.
19. SantaLucia,J. Jr (1998) A unified view of polymer, dumbbell, and oligonucleotide DNA nearest-neighbor thermodynamics. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. U.S.A.*, **95**, 1460–1465.
20. SantaLucia,J. and Hicks,D. (2004) The thermodynamics of DNA structural motifs. *Annu. Rev. Biophys. Biomol. Struct.*, **33**, 415–440.
21. Markham,N.R. and Zuker,M. (2008) UNAFold: software for nucleic acid folding and hybridization. *Methods Mol. Biol.*, **453**, 3–31.
22. Kent,W.J. (2002) BLAT—the BLAST-like alignment tool. *Genome Res.*, **12**, 656–664.
23. Buschmann,T. and Bystrykh,L.V. (2013) Levenshtein error-correcting barcodes for multiplexed DNA sequencing. *BMC Bioinformatics*, **14**, 272.
24. Lubock,N.B., Zhang,D., Sidore,A.M., Church,G.M. and Kosuri,S. (2017) A systematic comparison of error correction enzymes by next-generation sequencing. *Nucleic Acids Res.*, **45**, 9206–9217.
25. Potapov,V. and Ong,J.L. (2017) Examining sources of error in PCR by single-molecule sequencing. *PLoS One*, **12**, e0169774.
26. Shagin,D. (1999) Regulation of average length of complex PCR product. *Nucleic Acids Res.*, **27**, e23.
27. New England Biolabs (2020) Activity of restriction enzymes in PCR buffers. *NEB*. <https://www.neb.com/tools-and-resources/usage-guidelines/activity-of-restriction-enzymes-in-pcr-buffers>.
28. Smith,J. and Modrich,P. (1997) Removal of polymerase-produced mutant sequences from PCR products. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. U.S.A.*, **94**, 6847–6850.
29. Carr,P.A., Park,J.S., Lee,Y.-J., Yu,T., Zhang,S. and Jacobson,J.M. (2004) Protein-mediated error correction for *de novo* DNA synthesis. *Nucleic Acids Res.*, **32**, e162.
30. Schwartz,J.J., Lee,C. and Shendure,J. (2012) Accurate gene synthesis with tag-directed retrieval of sequence-verified DNA molecules. *Nat. Methods*, **9**, 913–915.