

1 **Comparison of CRISPR/Cas9-mediated megabase-scale genome deletion**

2 **methods in mouse embryonic stem cells**

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12 methods

13 14 **SUMMARY**

15 The genome contains large functional units ranging in size from hundreds of kilobases
16 to megabases, such as gene clusters, promoter-enhancer loops, and topologically
17 associating domains. To analyze these large functional units, the technique of deleting
18 the entire functional unit is effective. However, deletion of such large regions is less
19 efficient than conventional genome editing, especially in cultured cells, and a method
20 that can ensure success is anticipated. Here, we compared methods to delete the
21 2.5-Mb Krüppel-associated box zinc finger protein (KRAB-ZFP) gene cluster on
22 chromosome 4 in mouse embryonic stem cells using CRISPR/Cas9. Three methods
23 were used: first, deletion by non-homologous end joining (NHEJ); second,

24 homology-directed repair (HDR) using a single-stranded oligodeoxynucleotide
25 (ssODN) with 70-bp homology arms; and third, HDR employing targeting vectors
26 with a selectable marker and 1-kb homology arms. NHEJ-mediated deletion was
27 achieved in 9% of the transfected cells. The deletion frequency of NHEJ and HDR
28 was found to be comparable when the ssODN was transfected. Deletion frequency
29 was highest when targeting vectors were introduced, with deletions occurring in
30 31–63% of the drug-resistant clones. Biallelic deletion was observed when targeting
31 vectors were used. This study will serve as a benchmark for the introduction of large
32 deletions into the genome.

33

34 INTRODUCTION

35 Recent progress in genome science has revealed large functional units in the
36 genome— such as gene clusters, promoter-enhancer loops, and topologically
37 associating domains—which range from several hundred kilobases to megabases in
38 length (Merkenschlager & Nora, 2016). Dysregulation of these functional units can
39 lead to human diseases (Hnisz *et al*, 2016). To understand the genome from the
40 perspective of such large functional units, technologies that can reliably modify large
41 genomic regions are required. For this purpose, megabase-scale genome modifications
42 using CRISPR/Cas9 have been reported by either microinjection of Cas9 and gRNAs
43 into zygotes (Boroviak *et al*, 2016; Kato *et al*, 2017; Korablev *et al*, 2017; Mizuno *et*
44 *al*, 2015) or by transfection of cultured cells (Eleveld *et al*, 2021; Essletzbichler *et al*,
45 2014; Wolf *et al*, 2020). However, the efficiency of megabase-genome modification is
46 inferior in cultured cells compared to zygote microinjection. Biallelic megabase-scale

47 deletion is even more challenging in cultured cells but is unquestionably required to
48 conduct phenotype analysis in cultured cells. Genome modification in cultured cells is
49 particularly important in the study of human biology and diseases. This is because
50 zygote microinjection to create genetically modified living organisms is ethically
51 prohibited in humans; hence, cultured cells must be used for analysis. Therefore, we
52 anticipate the establishment of an efficient protocol for megabase-scale genome
53 modifications in cultured cells.

54 The distal region of mouse chromosome 4 contains a 2.5-Mb region within
55 which a gene cluster of Krüppel-associated box zinc finger protein (KRAB-ZFP)
56 genes resides (Wolf *et al.*, 2020). KRAB-ZFP genes are known to be transcriptional
57 repressors of retrotransposons (Ecco *et al.*, 2017). The retrotransposons and
58 KRAB-ZFP genes have diversified in both nucleotide sequence and copy number as a
59 result of their arms race. The diversified KRAB-ZFP genes also function as regulators
60 of endogenous genes (Ecco *et al.*, 2017). We considered the deletion of this 2.5-Mb
61 KRAB-ZFP gene cluster as an experimental model for megabase-scale genomic
62 deletion in cultured cells and compared three methods employing the CRISPR/Cas9
63 system: (1) non-homologous end joining (NHEJ), (2) homology-directed repair
64 (HDR) using an ssODN donor, and (3) HDR using double-stranded targeting vectors.
65 The results will serve as a benchmark for megabase-scale genomic deletion methods
66 in cultured cells.

67

68 **RESULTS**

69 **Overview of the methods for deleting the 2.5-Mb genomic region**

70 Figure 1 shows the 2.5-Mb genomic region of the KRAB-ZFP gene cluster located on
71 the distal side of mouse chromosome 4. We attempted to delete this entire region in
72 mouse embryonic stem cells (ESCs) by cleaving the upstream and downstream sites
73 with single guide RNAs (sgRNAs).

74 We compared three methods (Fig. 2A). In all methods, the plasmid vector
75 pX330 (Cong *et al*, 2013) was used to express Cas9 and sgRNAs, and the TransFast
76 transfection reagent, which employs lipid-mediated gene transfer, was utilized to
77 introduce DNA into ESCs. In Method 1, repair template DNA was not transfected.
78 Therefore, cleaved sites were repaired by NHEJ. In Method 2, a 146-base ssODN
79 containing 70-base 5' and 3' homology arms (Fig. 2B) was co-transfected as a repair
80 template for HDR. We introduced an EcoRI site between the homology arms (Fig. 2B)
81 to facilitate the identification of HDR events. It was expected that NHEJ would still be
82 observed in Method 2 in case the ssODN was not utilized during repair. To enrich
83 transfected ESCs, we co-transfected a puromycin resistance gene expression vector in
84 Methods 1 and 2 (Fig. 2A) and selected ESCs using puromycin between 24 h and 72 h
85 after transfection (Fig. 2C, left). The ESCs were then sparsely plated on mitomycin
86 C-treated mouse embryonic fibroblast (MEF) feeder cells. After 8 days of culture,
87 colonies were picked and analyzed by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) (Fig. 2C, left).
88 In Method 3, we transfected two double-stranded targeting vectors together with the
89 Cas9/sgRNA expression vector (Fig. 2A, 2B). Each targeting vector contained the
90 hygromycin resistance (*hyg*) gene and the neomycin resistance (*neo*) gene,
91 respectively. Both vectors contained the same 1-kb homology arms corresponding to
92 the upstream and downstream regions of the genomic cleavage sites. We expected that

93 co-transfection of two targeting vectors and selection for hygromycin/G418
94 double-resistance would increase the efficiency of identifying biallelic deletions. One
95 day after transfection, ESCs were split and selected with both hygromycin and G418,
96 hygromycin only, and G418 only (Fig. 2C, right). Nine days after selection,
97 drug-resistant colonies were picked and analyzed by PCR.

98

99 **Comparison of genomic deletions with and without the ssODN**

100 We compared Method 1, in which no repair template was introduced, and Method 2,
101 in which an ssODN was introduced as a repair template. Single-cell-derived colonies
102 were isolated according to the protocol in Figure 2C, and genomic deletions were
103 detected by PCR as shown in Figure 3A. Both HDR and NHEJ were expected to
104 occur in Method 2. We distinguished them by digesting the PCR products with EcoRI
105 (Fig. 3A, right).

106 In both Method 1 and Method 2, four out of 46 colonies (9%) were
107 PCR-positive (Fig. 3B, C). In Method 1, two bands of similar size were observed in
108 one lane (A40 in Fig. 3B). To exclude the possibility that two clones were fused
109 during ESC colony formation, PCR was conducted after recloning (Fig. 3D). However,
110 the two bands were observed even after recloning. Therefore, we concluded that these
111 two bands derive from a single clone. Their presence suggests the possibility that
112 deletions occurred in both alleles. We address this point later in Figure 5.

113 To compare the efficiency of HDR and NHEJ in Method 2, the four PCR
114 products obtained in Figure 3C were digested by EcoRI. EcoRI cleavage was
115 observed in two of the products (Fig. 3E), indicating that the efficiency of HDR and

116 NHEJ was comparable. To further assess this observation, we purified genomic DNA
117 from the bulk cell population (Fig. 2C), conducted PCR to amplify deletion junctions,
118 and digested the PCR products with EcoRI (Fig. 3E). As expected, the PCR product
119 obtained by Method 1 was not cleaved by EcoRI. On the other hand, EcoRI-cleaved
120 bands were observed in the products derived by Method 2, and the density of cleaved
121 and uncleaved bands was similar. Thus, as in the analysis of cloned cells, the
122 efficiency of HDR and NHEJ was considered comparable.

123 To confirm that the PCR amplification represented the deletion of the targeted
124 gene cluster, we sequenced the PCR products (Fig. 3F). Two clones derived by both
125 Method 1 and Method 2 were analyzed, and the results confirmed that all PCR
126 products represented the deletion of the targeted gene cluster. Both PCR products
127 from Method 2 were cleaved with EcoRI (Fig. 3E), suggesting that the deletion was
128 completed in a precise manner. However, sequence analysis revealed that one of the
129 PCR products had a single base deletion of a guanine nucleotide upstream of the
130 EcoRI site (B34 in Fig. 3F). Since oligonucleotide synthesis is not perfectly accurate,
131 we speculate that this deletion may have been pre-existing in the ssODN.

132

133 **Genomic deletions using targeting vectors**

134 Next, we attempted genomic deletion by Method 3, which involves the transfection of
135 hyg- and neo-targeting vectors for HDR. Following transfection, ESCs were selected
136 with both hygromycin and G418, hygromycin only, or G418 only (Fig. 2C).
137 Drug-resistant clones were analyzed by PCR using two primer pairs that detect HDR
138 in the upstream and downstream regions (Fig. 4A).

139 First, we analyzed hygromycin-resistant clones. Out of the 19 clones analyzed,
140 the expected recombination was observed in both upstream and downstream regions
141 in 12 clones (63%; Fig. 4B). Next, we analyzed 13 G418-resistant clones and
142 observed the expected recombination in both upstream and downstream regions in 4
143 clones (31%; Fig. 4C). Thus, the mean deletion efficiency of HDR using targeting
144 vectors was 47%, which is 5 times higher than that of NHEJ or ssODN-mediated
145 HDR. Finally, we analyzed hygromycin/G418 double-resistant clones to investigate
146 whether they harbor a biallelic mutation. We obtained much fewer colonies via
147 hygromycin/G418 double-selection compared to the single selections. We analyzed 3
148 double-resistant clones by PCR using 4 primer sets for each clone; however, the
149 expected recombination was not observed with at least one of the primer sets (Fig.
150 4D), suggesting that biallelic deletion is not a frequent event.

151

152 **Comparison of biallelic deletion frequency between the three methods**

153 To analyze the phenotypes caused by genomic deletions, it is often necessary to
154 introduce deletions in both alleles. However, the results of the analysis of
155 hygromycin/G418 double-resistant clones suggested that biallelic deletion is not
156 frequent (Fig. 4D). Therefore, we systematically compared the frequency of biallelic
157 deletion among the three methods by analyzing the PCR-positive clones shown in
158 Figures 3 and 4.

159 We set up two pairs of PCR primers within the deleted region (Fig. 5A). If both
160 alleles were deleted, no amplification should be detected. For Method 1 and 2, we
161 analyzed all clones that showed deletion in Figure 3. PCR amplification was observed

162 in all clones (Fig. 5B), suggesting that biallelic deletion did not occur. This includes
163 the clone A40, which showed two bands in Figures 3B and 3D. The clone A40 could
164 be aneuploid and have, for example, three copies of chromosome 4, two having
165 undergone deletion and one being retained intact. For Method 3, we analyzed 12
166 hygromycin-resistant clones in which the predicted recombination was observed in
167 both upstream and downstream regions (Fig. 4B). No amplification was observed in
168 three clones (H4, H11, H19; Fig. 5C), suggesting that both alleles were deleted in
169 these clones. To investigate whether biallelic deletion accompanied NHEJ, which does
170 not involve the recombination of the targeting vector as observed in Method 1, we
171 conducted the same PCR analysis performed in Figure 3B. No amplification was
172 detected (Fig. 5D), suggesting that either the NHEJ observed in Method 1 did not
173 occur or that NHEJ with the deletion of the binding site of the PCR primer occurred.
174 To examine the possibility that biallelic deletion involved HDR by the neo-targeting
175 vector, we conducted the same PCR analysis shown in Figure 4C. No amplification
176 was detected in two of the three biallelic mutants (Fig. 5E). Although PCR
177 amplification was detected in one of the mutants in the analysis of the upstream region
178 (clone H11), the band size was different from the expected one and no amplification
179 was detected in the downstream region (Fig. 5E), suggesting that HDR by the
180 neo-targeting vector did not occur. On the basis of the results of Figures 5D and 5E,
181 we speculate that biallelic deletion was introduced through biallelic HDR by the
182 hyg-targeting vector or through the combination of single allele HDR by the
183 hyg-targeting vector and NHEJ accompanied by the deletion of the PCR primer
184 binding site.

185

186 **RNA-seq analysis of deletion mutants**

187 Although the absence of PCR amplification within the deletion target site
188 supports biallelic deletion in the three clones H4, H11, and H19 (Fig. 5C), we could
189 not clarify the deletion junction by PCR analysis (Fig. 5D, E). To determine whether
190 the biallelic deletion was confined to the expected region, we performed RNA-seq in
191 the following four cell lines—wild-type ESCs, the clone H14 with single-allele
192 deletion, and the clones H4 and H19 with biallelic deletion— and compared the gene
193 expression at the deletion target site (Fig. 6, Supplementary Table 1). In the
194 single-allele deletion clone (H14), the expression of the gene cluster within the
195 deletion target site was reduced by approximately two fold compared with wild-type
196 ESCs, as predicted (Fig. 6A, left). By contrast, in the biallelic deletion clones (H4 and
197 H19), the expression of the gene cluster was almost undetectable (Fig. 6A, middle and
198 right), confirming the biallelic deletion of the 2.5-Mb gene cluster. We then analyzed
199 the gene expression around the upstream (Fig. 6B) and the downstream (Fig. 6C)
200 deletion junctions. The gene expression was detectable outside the deletion target site
201 in both biallelic mutants (Fig. 6B, C), indicating that the deletion was confined to the
202 expected region. These results demonstrate that the biallelic deletion of the 2.5-Mb
203 gene cluster was achieved using the targeting vectors.

204

205 **DISCUSSION**

206 In this study, we compared three megabase-scale genomic deletion methods in mouse
207 ESCs: Method 1 using Cas9/sgRNA only, Method 2 using Cas9/sgRNA and ssODN,

208 and Method 3 using Cas9/sgRNA and targeting vectors. The results showed that all
209 methods are feasible at least for monoallelic deletion. On the other hand, the three
210 methods differed in the simplicity of the experimental design and the efficiency of
211 deletion. Therefore, the choice of method depends on the purpose of the experiment.
212 In the following section, we compare the three methods and discuss some
213 considerations to further improve deletion efficiency.

214 The deletion efficiency in Methods 1, 2, and 3 were 9%, 9%, and 31–63%,
215 respectively. Furthermore, biallelic deletion was observed only in Method 3. This
216 indicates that Method 3, which uses a targeting vector, is superior to the others when
217 considering only the efficiency of deletion. However, there are some drawbacks to
218 using targeting vectors. First, generating a targeting vector is time-consuming. Second,
219 setting up experimental conditions for PCR screening of the deletion clones may take
220 time compared to Methods 1 and 2 because a longer PCR amplification is required.
221 Therefore, Methods 1 and 2, which are straightforward in their experimental design,
222 may be sufficiently effective if the number of clones to be screened by PCR is
223 manageable. In fact, a recent report demonstrated biallelic deletion of the same
224 KRAB-ZFP gene cluster by a procedure similar to Method 2 (Wolf *et al.*, 2020).
225 Although the efficiency of biallelic deletion is not described in this report, the results
226 suggest that sufficient deletion efficiency may be achieved without using a targeting
227 vector by optimizing experimental conditions.

228 Several possible improvements can be made to increase the efficiency of
229 megabase-scale genomic deletion. The first is to use a ribonucleoprotein (RNP)
230 complex consisting of Cas9 and sgRNA. A recent report demonstrated that

231 transfection of a Cas9/sgRNA RNP complex was more efficient in cleaving the
232 genome than transfection of Cas9/sgRNA expression vectors. The authors argue that
233 the intracellular assembly of Cas9 and sgRNAs expressed from transfected vectors is
234 hampered by the competitive binding of mRNA to Cas9 (Kagita *et al.*, 2021). Second,
235 optimization of transfection conditions may significantly affect the deletion efficiency.
236 In the same report described above, two electroporators, MaxCyte and
237 4D-Nucleofector, were compared for the introduction of mutations into human iPSCs
238 by ssODNs (Kagita *et al.*, 2021). The results showed that MaxCyte was superior to
239 4D-Nucleofector in terms of mutagenesis efficiency. In our study, cationic lipid-based
240 transfection reagents were used. The use of other transfection methods may improve
241 the efficiency of megabase-scale genomic deletions. Third, the use of single-stranded
242 targeting vectors may be useful. Previous studies in zygote microinjection have
243 suggested that long single-stranded DNA donors are efficient templates for HDR
244 (Codner *et al.*, 2018; Miura *et al.*, 2015; Quadros *et al.*, 2017). However, targeting
245 vectors used in cultured cells are usually several kb in length because of the presence
246 of a selection marker cassette, and the preparation of such a long single-stranded DNA
247 of high quality is labor-intensive. Recently, it has become possible to synthesize long
248 single-stranded DNA commercially, which may apply to megabase-scale deletion.

249 Taken together, the results of this study will serve as a benchmark for selecting
250 methods to introduce megabase-scale genomic deletions.

251

252 **METHODS**

253 **Cell line and cell culture**

254 The REC24-3 mouse ESC line, a derivative of the V6.5 mouse ESC line (Eggan *et al*,
255 2001), was used in this study. REC24-3 contains the ERT2-iCre-ERT2 cassette
256 (Casanova *et al*, 2002) at the Rosa26 locus (Zambrowicz *et al*, 1997), which was
257 introduced by the same procedure described previously (Horie *et al*, 2011). The
258 presence of the ERT2-iCre-ERT2 cassette is irrelevant to the purpose of this study.
259 ESCs were cultured in a serum-containing medium composed of KnockOut DMEM
260 (Thermo Fisher Scientific) supplemented with 20% fetal bovine serum (FBS),
261 non-essential amino acids, 0.1 mM 2-mercaptoethanol and 1,000 U/ml leukemia
262 inhibitory factor (LIF; Millipore). Mitomycin C (MMC)-treated MEFs were used as
263 feeder cells.

264

265 **Construction of the Cas9/sgRNA expression vectors**

266 Cas9 and sgRNAs were expressed using pX330 (Cong *et al.*, 2013). Complementary
267 oligonucleotides for each sgRNA (Supplementary Table 2) were annealed and cloned
268 into the BbsI site of pX330.

269

270 **Construction of the targeting vectors**

271 The targeting vectors were constructed using the primers listed in Supplementary
272 Table 2 as follows. A 1-kb genomic fragment upstream of the cleavage site of gRNA1
273 was PCR-amplified from C57BL/6J genomic DNA using the primers
274 Zfp600-5HR1-F1 and Zfp600-5HR1-R1. The fragment was digested with KpnI and
275 HindIII and cloned into the KpnI-HindIII site of pPGKneo-F2F (gift from Dr. K.
276 Yusa) adjacent to the neo selection cassette, resulting in pPGKneoF2F-Zfp600-5HR.

277 Next, a 1-kb genomic fragment downstream of the cleavage site of gRNA2 was
278 PCR-amplified from C57BL/6J genomic DNA using primers Zfp600-3HR1-F1 and
279 Zfp600-3HR1-R1. The fragment was digested with NotI and SacII and cloned into the
280 NotI-SacII site of the pPGKneoF2F-Zfp600-5HR, which is located opposite to the
281 first cloning site of the neo selection cassette, resulting in the neo-targeting vector
282 pZfp600-DEL-TV1-Neo. The HindIII-NotI neo cassette of pZfp600-DEL-TV1 was
283 replaced with the HindIII-NotI hyg cassette of pPGKhyg-F2F (gift from Dr. K. Yusa),
284 resulting in the hyg-targeting vector pZfp600-DEL-TV1-Hyg.

285

286 **Transfection**

287 The TransFast transfection reagent (Promega) was used in all transfections. ESCs (2.5
288 $\times 10^5$) were mixed with 2.5 μg of DNA and 15 μl of TransFast in serum-containing
289 medium in a total volume of 500 μl and plated onto one well of a 24-well plate seeded
290 with MMC-treated MEFs. After 1 h, 1 ml of medium was added to the well, and the
291 medium was replaced with fresh medium 10 h after transfection. After this step,
292 different culture protocols were utilized depending on the purpose of the experiment
293 as described below.

294

295 **Comparison of the deletion protocols**

296 **Method 1:** On Day 0, ESCs (2.5×10^5) were transfected with 1.125 μg of
297 pX330-gRNA1, 1.125 μg of pX330-gRNA2, and 0.25 μg of the puromycin resistance
298 gene expression vector (pPGKpuro). ESCs were selected by 1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ of puromycin
299 from Day 1 to Day 3 to enrich transfected cells. After completing puromycin selection

300 on Day 3, ESCs were dissociated with trypsin/EDTA and plated sparsely on MEFs
301 without puromycin for single-cell cloning; the remaining cells were subjected to
302 genomic DNA purification as a bulk control. On Day 11, ESC colonies were picked
303 and divided into two groups: one for PCR analysis and the other for continuous
304 culture to make frozen stocks.

305 **Method 2:** On Day 0, ESCs (2.5×10^5) were transfected with 0.75 μg of
306 pX330-gRNA1, 0.75 μg of pX330-gRNA2, 0.75 μg of ssODN, and 0.25 μg of
307 pPGKpuro. The remaining procedure is the same as in Method 1.

308 **Method 3:** On Day 0, ESCs (2.5×10^5) were transfected with 0.625 μg of
309 pX330-gRNA1, pX330-gRNA2, pZfp600-DEL-TV1-Hyg, and
310 pZfp600-DEL-TV1-Neo. On Day 1, ESCs were dissociated with trypsin/EDTA,
311 plated onto 6-cm dishes, and subjected to three different drug selections: G418 only,
312 hygromycin only, and G418 plus hygromycin. On Day 9, ESC colonies were picked
313 and divided into two groups: one for lysate preparation for PCR analysis of the
314 deletion events and the other for cell culture to make frozen stocks.

315

316 **RNA-seq**

317 The total RNA was extracted with RNeasy Plus Mini Kit (Qiagen). MEF feeder cells
318 were removed from ESC culture before RNA extraction by plating cells on a
319 gelatin-coated dish for 30 min during the passaging and expanding unattached cells in
320 a new dish. Library preparation was performed using the TruSeq stranded mRNA
321 sample prep kit (Illumina) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Sequencing
322 was performed on the Illumina NovaSeq 6000 platform in a 100 bp paired-end mode.

323 Sequenced reads were mapped to the mouse reference genome sequences (mm10)
324 using TopHat v2.0.13 (Trapnell *et al*, 2009) in combination with Bowtie2 ver. 2.2.3
325 (Langmead & Salzberg, 2012) and SAMtools ver. 0.1.19 (Li *et al*, 2009). The
326 fragments per kilobase of exon per million mapped fragments (FPKM) was
327 calculated using Cufflinks version 2.2.1 (Trapnell *et al*, 2010) (Supplementary Table
328 1).

329

330 **Data availability**

331 The RNA-seq data are available in the DNA Data Bank of Japan (DDBJ) Sequencing
332 Read Archive under the accession numbers DRA013360.

333

334 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

335 Conceptualization, K.H.; Methodology, K.H.; Investigation, M.M., J.Y., I.T., K.H.;

336 Writing the original draft, K.H., M.M.; Resources, K.H.; Supervision, K.H.; Project

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350

351 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

352 **Figure 1. Genomic view of the KRAB-ZFP gene cluster on chromosome 4.**

353 UCSC genome browser view of the KRAB-ZFP gene cluster and the position of the

354 sgRNAs used for genomic deletion.

355

356 **Figure 2. Protocols for inducing genomic deletion.**

357 (A) Summary of the three methods compared in this study. (B) Schematic of the
358 vector structures. U6, U6 promoter; CBh, truncated CBA hybrid promoter; PGK,
359 phosphoglycerate kinase-1 promoter; pA, polyadenylation signal. (C, D) Time course
360 of Methods 1, 2, and 3.

361

362 **Figure 3. Genomic deletion induced by Method 1 and Method 2.**

363 (A) Predicted scheme of genomic deletions induced by NHEJ (left) and
364 ssODN-mediated HDR (right). (B, C) PCR screening of genomic deletions in Method
365 1 (B) and Method 2 (C). A magnified view of clone A40 is shown to depict the two
366 bands that are close in size. M, 100-bp size marker. (D) Schematic diagram showing
367 the procedure for subcloning A40 and the result of the PCR analysis. (E) EcoRI
368 digestion of PCR products obtained in Method 2. (F) Representative results of the
369 sequence analysis of the PCR products obtained in Method 1 (left) and Method 2
370 (right). Dashed lines indicate nucleotide deletions from the Cas9/sgRNA-mediated
371 cleavage site.

372

373 **Figure 4. Genomic deletion induced by Method 3.**

374 (A) Predicted scheme of genomic deletions induced by HDR following transfection of
375 targeting vectors. Two targeting vectors, each containing the hyg and the neo cassette,
376 were co-transfected. (B-D) PCR screening of genomic deletions in
377 hygromycin-resistant clones (B), G418-resistant clones (C), and hygromycin/G418
378 double-resistant clones (D). M, 1-kb size marker.

379

380 **Figure 5. Identification of biallelic deletion events.**

381 (A) Location of the PCR primers for the screening of biallelic deletion. (B, C) PCR
382 screening for biallelic deletion of the candidate clones obtained by Method 1 and
383 Method 2 (B) and Method 3 (C). (D) Screening for NHEJ-mediated genomic deletion.
384 The same PCR protocol as in Figure 3B was performed. Clone A20, which was
385 PCR-positive in Figure 3B, was used as a positive control as indicated (Pos cnt). (E)
386 Screening for HDR mediated by the neo-targeting vector. The same PCR protocol as
387 in Figure 4C was performed. Clone G2, which was PCR-positive in Figure 4C, was
388 used as a positive control (Pos cnt).

389

390 **Figure 6. RNA-seq analysis of deletion mutants.**

391 (A) Expression analysis of the KRAB-ZFP gene cluster. The gene expressions of the
392 single-allele deletion mutant (H14) and biallelic deletion mutants (H4 and H19) were
393 compared with wild-type ESCs (Wt). Red dots indicate the expression of the
394 KRAB-ZFP gene cluster under study. Data are shown in FPKM. (B, C) Gene
395 expression at the upstream (B) and downstream (C) deletion junctions. Note that the
396 gene expression outside the deletion target site was detectable in both biallelic
397 deletion mutants (H4 and H19), indicating that biallelic deletion was confined to the
398 predicted region.

399

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Chromosome 4/KRAB-ZFP locus

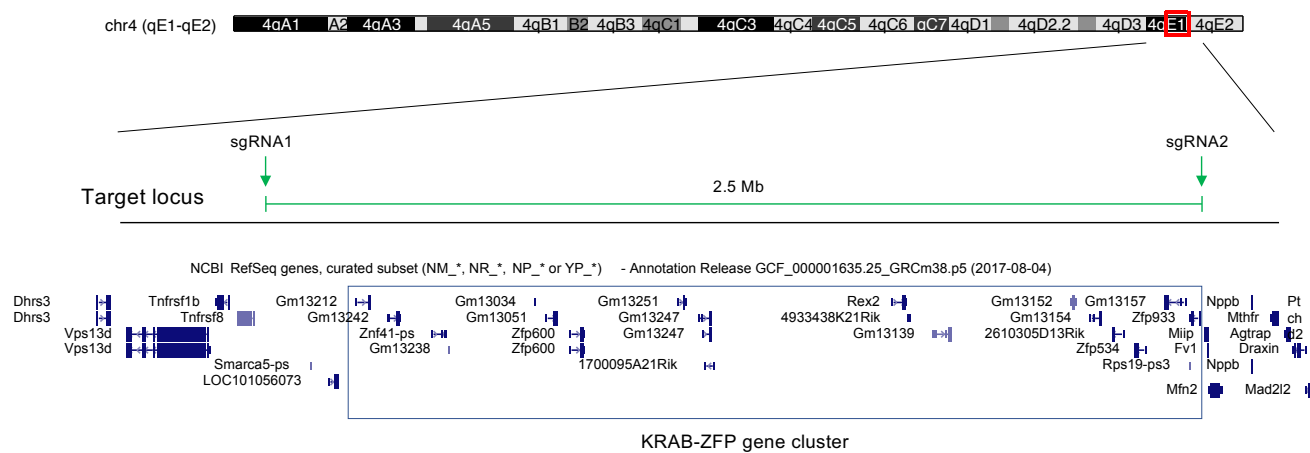
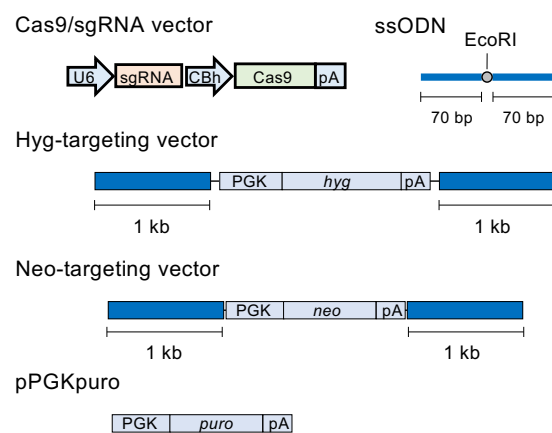


Fig. 1

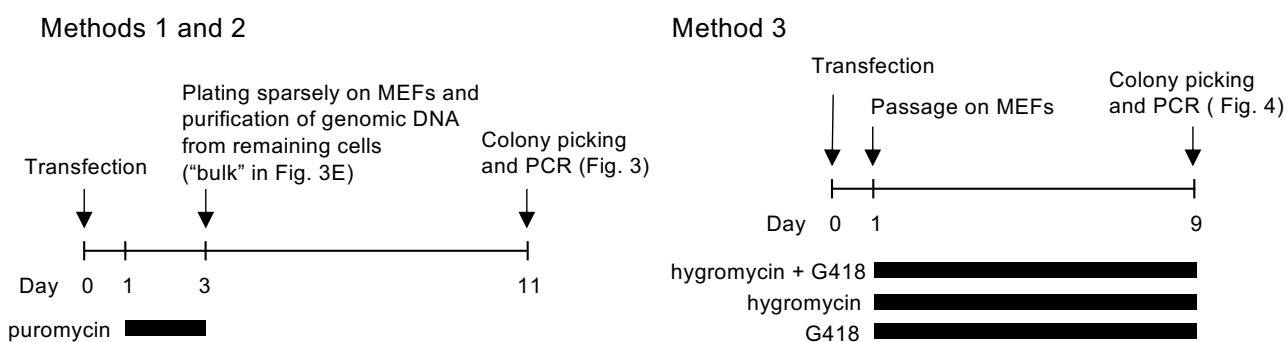
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Method	Transfection	Repair pathway
1	Cas9/sgRNA + pPGKpuro	NHEJ
2	Cas9/sgRNA + ssODN + pPGKpuro	HDR
3	Cas9/sgRNA + targeting vectors	HDR

B



C



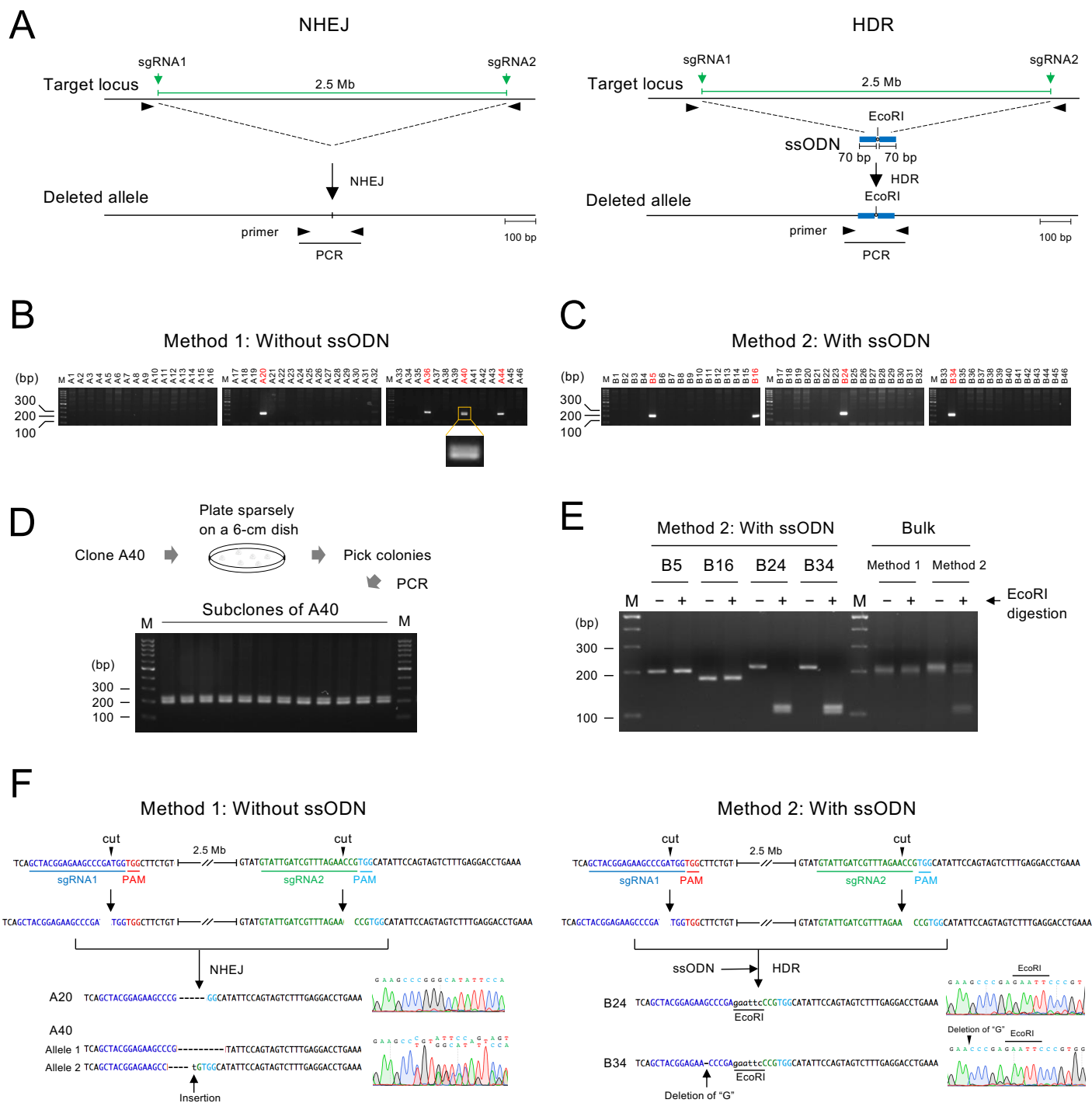
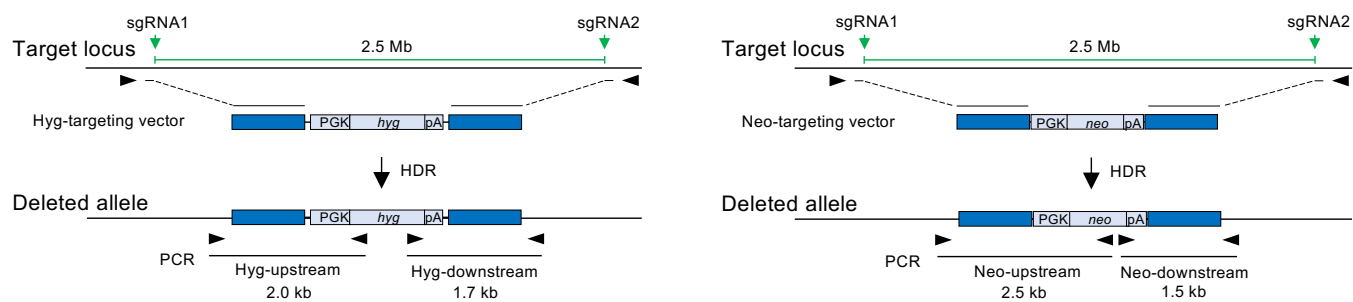
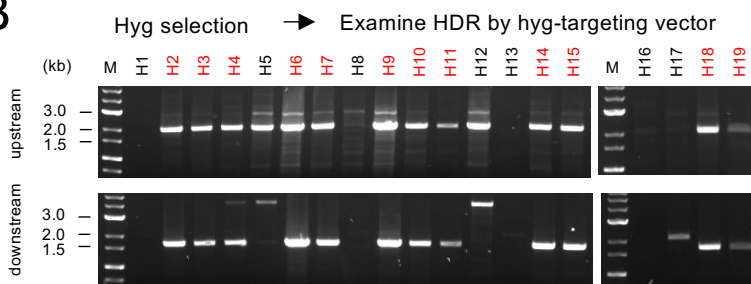


Fig. 3

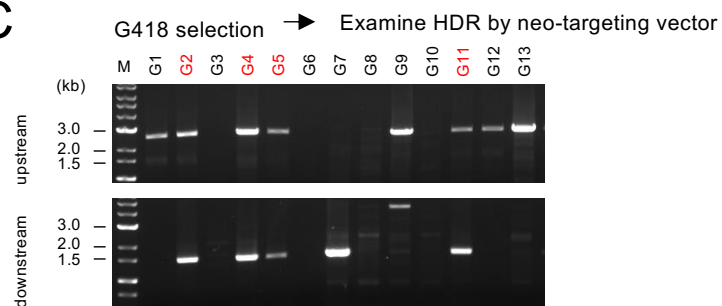
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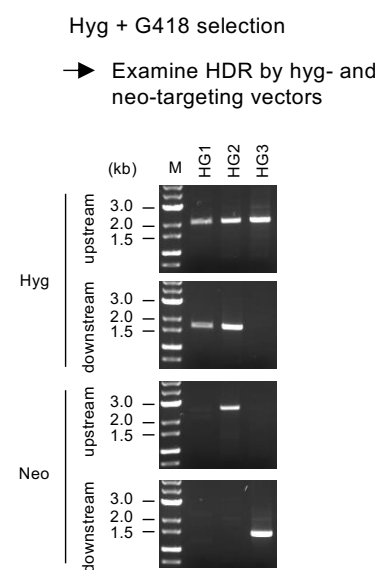
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C



D



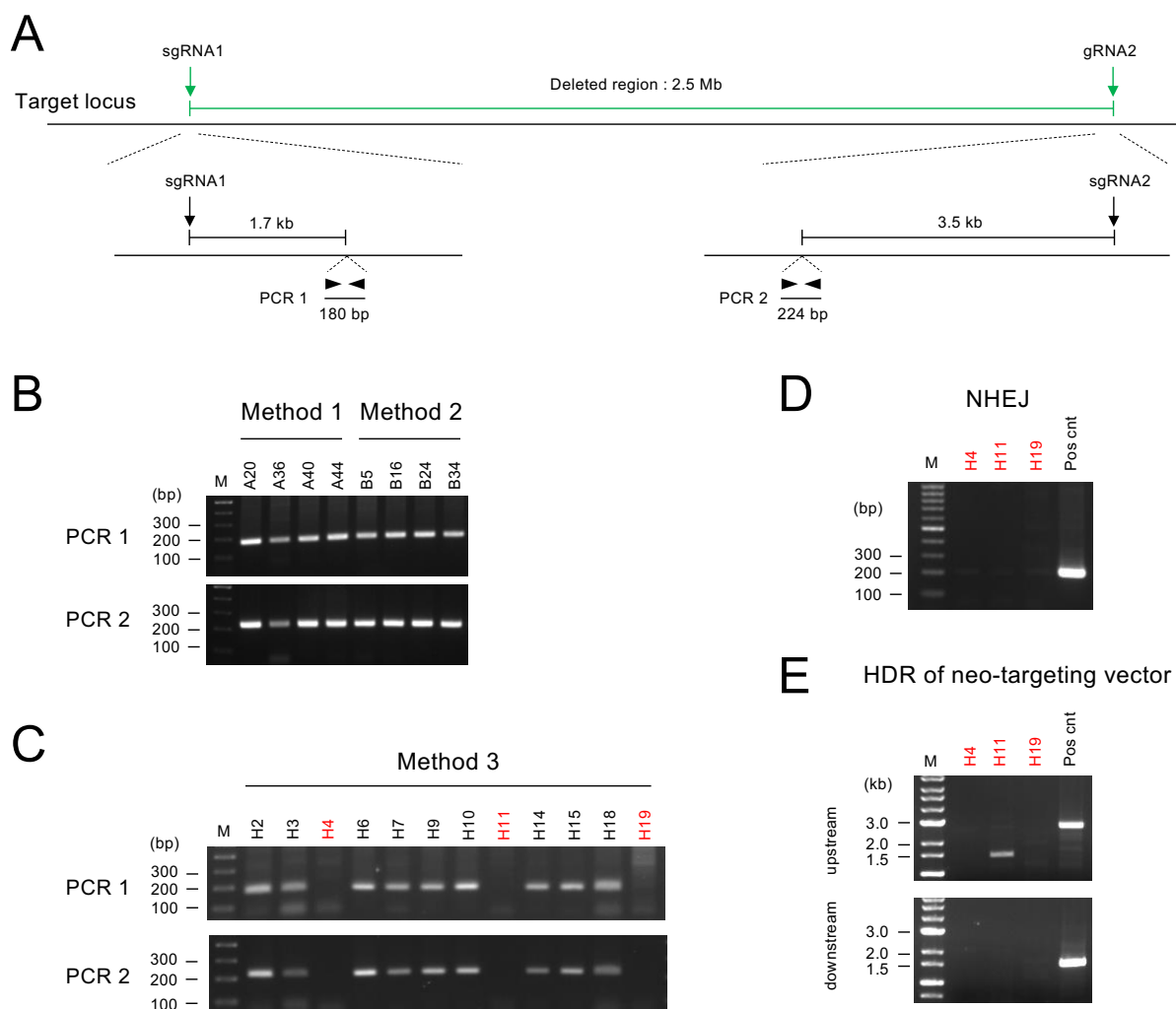


Fig. 5

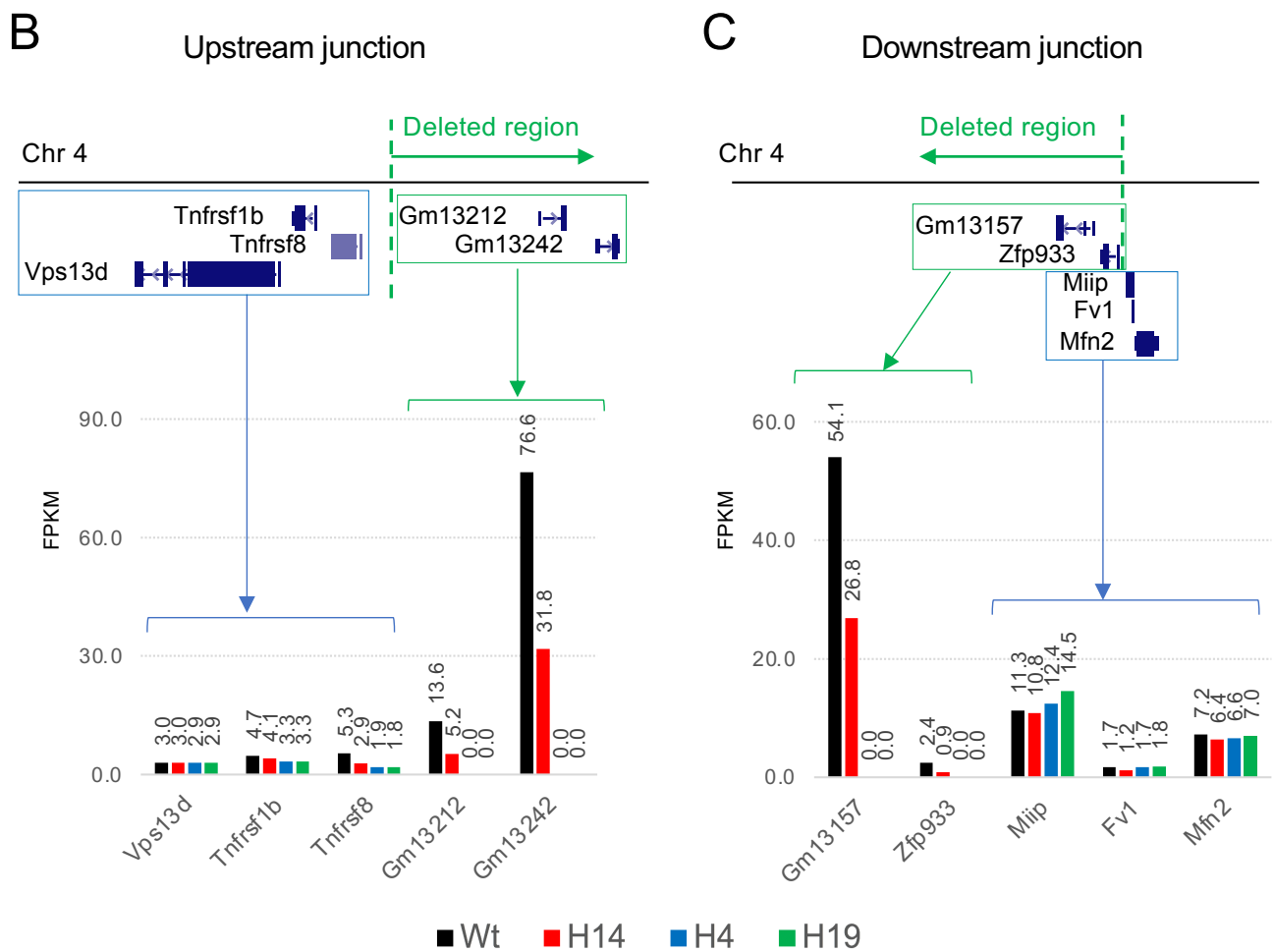
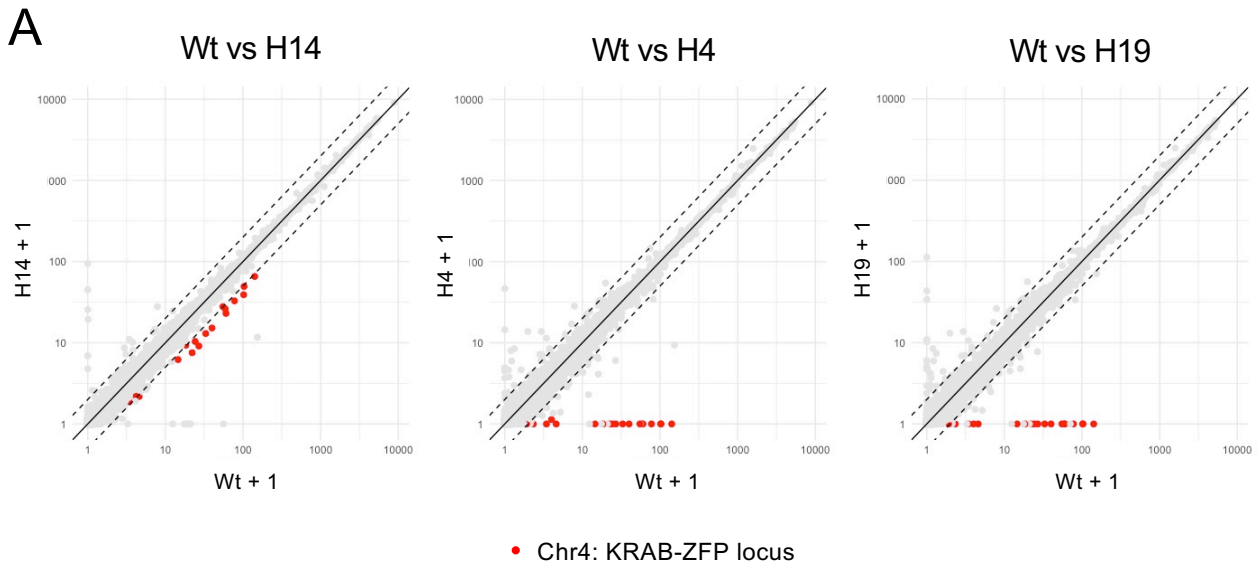


Fig. 6