1 **ENHANCED EFFICIENCY OF RNA-GUIDED CAS12a VERSUS CAS9 TRANSGENE KNOCK-IN AND**

2 **ACTIVITY AT A *SCHISTOSOMA MANSONI* GENOME SAFE HARBOR**

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ABSTRACT

Recently, we reported programmed Cas9 mediated insertion of a reporter gene into a gene safe harbor site, GSH1,

of *Schistosoma mansoni* via homology-directed repair (HDR) using overlapping guide RNAs. Here, we report

efficient and precise CRISPR/Cas12a-mediated homology directed insertion (knockin, KI) of a 5' C6-PEG10-

modified double-stranded transgene bearing microhomology arms, 50 nt in length, at GSH1. At the outset, we

undertook bioinformatic and computational analysis following by experimental verification of the regulatory

activity of endogenous schistosome ubiquitin (SmUbi) promoter and terminator, to drive strong reporter gene

expression. Green fluorescent protein activity driven by SmUbi followed electroporation-mediated transfection of

schistosome eggs. HDR induced by RNA-guided CRISPR/Cas12a, which releases overhanging DNA strands of 18-

24, delivered more efficient KI than CRISPR/Cas9. In this non-model pathogen, programmed KI facilitated precise

chromosomal integration of the reporter-gene with at GSH1. The approach advances schistosome transgenesis field

and may also advance functional genomics and transfection methods in related parasitic and non-parasitic

helminths, which hitherto lack these tools.

Keywords

Schistosome; functional genomics; Cas12; CRISPR/Cas; ubiquitin; promoter; genome safe harbor

Author summary

Genome editing (CRISPR) technology is revolutionizing advances in biology, medicine, and agriculture.

Transgenesis approaches are integral in diverse applications including gene therapy, biotherapeutics, deciphering

host-pathogen interactions, and enhancements in agricultural production. Parasitic worms that are responsible for

infectious diseases including neglected tropical diseases (NTDs), which cause substantial morbidity and mortality.

NTDs mainly occur in the Global South, and they are responsible for a disease burden that exceeds that caused by

malaria and tuberculosis. Infections with parasitic helminths also are responsible for immense economic burden in

the agriculture. Tools for functional genomics in parasitic helminths are limited. Access to CRISPR-based

approaches can be expected to hasten development of drug and/or vaccine targets for these diseases. Here, we

focused on the helminth *Schistosoma mansoni*, a water borne parasite of humans, and which is endemic in Africa,

and northeastern South America. To advance the state of the art in laboratory techniques currently used to study the

biology and pathogenesis of this and related pathogens, we evaluated a spectrum of technological approaches aimed

at improved current lab practice in this field. The findings demonstrated that specific technical and chemical

modifications, including deploying a DNA cutting enzyme termed Cas12a along with a transgene with chemically

modified short flanking sequences (homology arms) provided improved gene editing efficiency for this

schistosome.

INTRODUCTION

Schistosoma mansoni, a blood-dwelling parasite of humans and animals, is the cause of the infectious disease

schistosomiasis. As with all trematodes, *S. mansoni* and related species exhibit complex life cycles including an

invertebrate snail host and a vertebrate final host. Schistosomiasis treatment relies on a single drug, praziquantel

(PZQ) (1). Due to the fear of upcoming PZQ resistance (2), there is the urgent need for the development of

alternative treatment strategies. For this, and to understand parasite biology as such, it is inevitable to characterize

the function of target genes and their potential role(s) in, for example, parasite development and homeostasis.

Substantial effort has been exerted to decipher the *S. mansoni* genome (3-5). In addition, ongoing efforts have

aimed at deciphering the *S. mansoni* transcriptome of the adult as well further developmental stages (6-16). Now, in

the rising post-genomic/transcriptomic era of *S. mansoni* research, new tools are needed for the functional

characterization of genes of interest (GOI). Until now, RNA interference (RNAi) has been proven as the most

suitable method for functional gene characterization. However, RNAi efficiency varies, and it can lead to ectopic

effects (17-20). To study GOI, knock-out (KO) models are common for various model organisms, but not yet

established for trematodes or other helminths. Towards this end, a recent breakthrough achieved CRISPR/Cas9

transgene KI into a schistosome genome safe harbor site (21).

CRISPR/Cas-mediated genome editing has revolutionized, or soon will, research in biomedicine and the life

sciences generally (22, 23). An increasing repertoire of Cas homologues, in addition to Cas9, possessing divergent

programmed nuclease activity including alternative PAMs, selectivity for diverse nucleic acid substrates, and

sensitivity to metal ions, to temperature, and other characteristics have been reported (24, 25). Cas12a is

enzymatically active in eggs of *S. mansoni* where a Cas12a orthologue from *Acidaminococcus* (AsCas12a) more

efficiently edited the *omega-1* locus than Cas9 (26). CRISPR/Cas9 RNPs are assembled with two components -

guide RNA (gRNA) and Cas9 nuclease (27-29). This nuclease induces blunt end-DSBs (double stranded breaks)

within a programmed target, which can be repaired by genome maintenance mechanisms including non-

homologous end joining (NHEJ) and homology-directed repair (HDR). CRISPR/Cas12a components consist of a

crRNA and a Cas12a nuclease that releases overhanging strands at the programmed site (30). CRISPR/Cas9

recognizes the NGG protospacer adjacent motif (PAM) to catalyze the DSB upstream of PAM whereas

CRISPR/Cas12a recognizes a T-rich PAM, TTTV, with the DSB downstream of the PAM (31). Both nucleases

have utility for gene editing in discrete genomic contexts; Cas9 may have advantages for editing GC-rich regions,

Cas12a may be better suited for editing AT-rich regions (32-34).

Transgene insertion in the genome can negatively impact the host cell function or the cell may silence the transgene

due to chromatin structure. To surmount these potential problems, the gene therapy field developed the concept of

the genome safe harbor (GSH) (35). An ideal GSH has been defined as a region that does not overlap functional

genomic elements and that lacks heterochromatic marks that could impede transcription. We have predicted

several GSHs in *S. mansoni* using criteria that included a location in euchromatin to avoid transgene silencing, a

unique genome-target sequence to minimize off-target events, avoidance of long noncoding RNA-encoding genes,

and the presence of histone marks for open chromatin structure and, conversely, the absence of epigenetic marks

indicating heterochromatin (21). We reported the Cas9-mediated integration of an exogenous DNA sequence into

GSH1 (genome safe harbor number 1) of *S. mansoni*. Programmed cleavage improved when three overlapping

guide RNAs complexed with the Cas9 nuclease from *Streptococcus pyogenes* (21) were used in unison. As

biological targets, we used liver-stage *S. mansoni* eggs (LE), which represent a heterogenous population at different

stages of development. LE comprise newly laid eggs, intermediate, and mature eggs (from stages 1 through 8 of the

staging system of Jurberg and coworkers (36)), and they were transfected with Cas9 or Cas12 ribonuclear protein

complexes (RNPs). Gene knock-in (KI) was achieved in the presence of a donor repair template encoding enhanced

green fluorescent protein (EGFP) bearing 5'-phosphorothioate-modified terminus HA of 300-600 bp in length. The

transgene was 4,551 bp in length. The use of triple, overlapping gRNAs induced higher levels of precise transgene

knock-in (KI) in comparison to single and double gRNAs. Nonetheless, further optimization aiming for simpler,

less expensive, and enhanced levels of efficacy likely can be achieved.

To this end, here we evaluated the editing efficiencies of Cas9 versus Cas12a. In addition, we deployed a single

gRNA in tandem with short, 5´-modified homology arms of the repair template, and finally investigated whether

also newly laid eggs (NLE)| were amenable to transfection. This latter manipulation could ensure biologically

standardized editing approaches compared to LE. We observed that both nucleases, Cas9 and Cas12a, induced on-

target insertions and deletions (InDels). Notably, the editing efficiency of Cas12a significantly exceeded that of

Cas9. Furthermore, with 5´-C6 amine-PEG10-modified donor template and minimal length HA of 50 bp flanking

the donor transgene, we observed transgene KI at GSH1 as well as by the expression of the transgene EGFP. This

hitherto unprecedented efficiency of transgene KI in schistosomes advance genome-editing approaches for

Schistosoma mansoni.

RESULTS

Promoter elements of the schistosome ubiquitin gene

Access to a selectable marker gene under the control of regulatory elements, which are active in the desired way,

would likely hasten the establishment of chromosomally modified schistosomes. Also desirable in some contexts is

stage-independent reporter-gene activity. With these longer-term goals in mind, here we sought appropriate

candidate genes, the regulatory elements of which could ensure constitutive and robust transgene expression in *S.*

mansoni. Based on transcriptomics data (6), we became attentive to Smp_335990, a gene that appears to be

strongly, ubiquitously (8), and stage-independently expressed (Supplementary Figure S1). Annotation in

WormBase ParaSite (37) identifies Smp_335990 as a ubiquitin-like domain-containing protein (A0A5K4F9I1;

UniProt). Protein structure prediction by Phyre2 (38) supported the annotation and identification as orthologous to

UBB, human ubiquitin B (39-41) (Supplementary Figure S2). A 2,056 bp region upstream of the coding sequence

of Sm*ubi* was scanned for the presence of hallmark promoter motifs (Figure 1A). Archetypal promoter and

enhancer elements were identified (Supplementary Table S1). Promoter analysis using |the Neural Network

Promoter Prediction tool (42) predicted two core promoters: at position 1,981 to 2,030 bp, promoter rank 1

(Supplementary Tables S1, S2) and 156 to 205 bp, promoter rank 2 (Supplementary Table S3). Next, , these regions

were analyzed in more detail with AliBaba2.1 (43), TRANSFAC 4.0 (44), YAPP eukaryotic core promoter

predictor (45-48), and by comparison with known consensus promoter elements (49-51) (Supplementary Tables S2,

S3). In the core promoter rank 1, typical sequence elements required for transcription initiation were present

including TATA- and CAAT-boxes, the B recognition element (BRE, the transcription initiator element (INR), and

the downstream promoter element (DPE). Consensus sequences of enhancer elements including Fushi tarazu (FTz

and CAAT/enhancer-binding sites (C/EBPalp) were present as were binding sites for the serum response factor

(SRF), hepatocyte nuclear factor 1 binding element (HNF-1), heat shock transcription factor 1 (HSF), and octamer-

binding transcription factor 1 (Oct-1). The start-codon containing Kozak sequence, necessary or ribosome binding

and initiation of translation (52) was identified *in silico* by comparing the potential Kozak sequences of *S. mansoni*

genes known to be abundantly transcribed and sharing comparable transcription strengths (53, 54) and expression

patterns (6, 54) to that of Sm*ubi*. For these genes, we predicted the consensus sequence 5´-

NNT/CA/GNA/G/TATGNC/AN-3´ 6 bp downstream and 5 bp upstream of the translation start (Supplementary

Table S2).

We surveyed the potential terminator sequences including the 3´UTR (3, 5) of Sm*ubi* (Figure 1A; Supplementary

Table S3). Applying the DNAFSMiner prediction tool for the analysis of functional sites in DNA sequences (55), a

polyadenylation signal within the Sm*ubi* 3´UTR was apparent. RNA secondary structure prediction by RNAfold

(56) revealed several stemloop structures that are typical for transcription termination (57).

Schistosome ubiquitin promoter drives episomal EGFP

Next, to empirically test promoter activity of SmUbi-EGFP-SmUbi, adult male schistosomes were transfected with

the plasmid construct by particle bombardment (PB) (Figures 1B, 1C and 1D), a ballistic gene-transfer method

suitable for the transient transformation of adult and larval schistosomes (58, 59). Green fluorescing regions were

apparent by 48 hours (Figure 1B, C, D) and EGFP transcription in these worms confirmed by RT-PCR (DNase I-

treated RNA). (Figure 1E).

Programmed KO at GSH1 in the schistosome egg

The *S. mansoni* GSH1 is AT rich (66%), which potentially constrains the value of the GC-content dependent Cas9

for programmed genome editing at this location. Cas12a is better suited than Cas9 for editing AT-rich regions.

Furthermore, we showed previously that overlapping of three gRNAs combined with Cas9 cleaved the target DNA

with resultant staggered (overhanging rather than blunt ended) strands (3, 21, 26). This outcome in turn led to

marked increase of ~70% of donor transgene integration and chromosomal repair by HDR in the schistosome egg.

Accordingly, we hypothesized that DNA cleavage by Cas12a combined with a single crRNA, with releases

staggered strands at cleavage, should enhance the efficiency of programmed gene editing. To address the

hypothesis, we designed gRNAs for Cas12a and for Cas9 to cleave at the same target position (Figure 2A). These

gRNAs also shared a similar predicted CRISPR/Cas-efficiency and absence of predicted off-target activity.

To establish genome editing in schistosomes by chromosomally integrated reporter genes, a suitable life stage(s) of

the parasite should be targeted, a compatible method to introduce gRNAs, replacement constructs in case of KI

experiments, and the optimal enzyme to efficiently edit the target region. To this end, the egg stage was used, given

its suitability for electroporation-mediated transformation. First, the accessibility of LEs by RNPs of both enzymes

was determined using an RNP-tracking approach, where fluorescence-labelled RNPs were introduced into LEs by

electroporation. Each guide RNA - sgRNA of Cas9, crRNA of Cas12a) was labeled with CX-rhodamine before to

assembly of RNP complexes with *Streptococcus pyogenes* Cas9 (SpCas9) and *Acidaminococcus* sp. Cas12a

(AsCas12a) nucleases (26, 60, 61). LE were transfected with the RNPs by square-wave electroporation. Confocal

laser scanning microscopy (CLSM) was used to monitor entry of RNPs into the eggs; by 24 hours, entry of the

RNPs of Cas9 and of Cas12a was confirmed in the larval tissues of the schistosome egg, which colocalized with

Hoechst 33342-stained nuclei (Figure 2B). With Cas12a, RNPs had penetrated the eggshell and were detected in or

near larval cells. With Cas9-RNP, while the majority of Cas9-RNP traversed the eggshell as with Cas12a RNPs,

comparatively less labeled Cas9 RNP was evident in larval cells. Based on these micrographs, we conclude that

electroporation propelled both RNPs formed into the egg, but that Cas9 RNPs accumulated proximal to the eggshell

whereas Cas12 RNPs were more widely distributed through the developing larva within the eggshell.

Next, after establishing that RNPs of both Cas nucleases entered the schistosome egg, LEs were transfected with

unlabeled RNPs to examine the accessibility of GSH1 and the performance these two RNP types. The eggs were

collected 10 days after transfection, gDNA extracted, and PCRs performed using the gDNAs as template. TIDE

analysis was undertaken on Sanger sequence reads (26, 62), of nine independent biological replicates (replicates 1-

9). TIDE revealed programmed KO efficiency of 2.2±0.9% and 3.0±0.9% for Cas9-RNP and Cas12a-RNP,

respectively (Figure 2C). The wild type (untreated), the electroporation control (mock), and LEs treated with RNPs

assembled with a scrambled sequence crRNA, GCACTACCAGAGCTAACTCA (63) were included to assess

natural sequence variation and CRISPR/Cas off-target activity at GSH1. To normalize for the background artefacts

of the sequencing procedure, we subtracted the editing efficiency of the experimental groups (RNP treatment) with

the values for wild type and mock controls (~0.1%). The mutation rate in LEs treated with RNPs with the

scrambled (irrelevant) crRNA was 1.4±0.7%, significantly lower than Cas9 ($P < 0.05$) and Cas12a ($P < 0.001$)

programmed to cleave GSH1 (Figure 2C).

Next, we combined gDNAs (after TIDE analysis) from sample numbers 1-3, 4-6 and 8-9 for target amplicon NGS

sequencing. NGS paired-reads (~100,000 reads for each sample) from these three independent NGS libraries were

analyzed using CRISPRessV2 and using Rgen Tools confirmed the precise, on-target editing catalyzed by both

enzymes (Figure 2D and 2E) (64-66). Nucleotide deletion assessment on expected cleavage site showed alleles with

deletions of 1, 7 and 13 nt in length by Cas12a, and 1, 11 and 13 nt by Cas9 (Figure 2D, 2E). These allele

genotypes were similar in all three NGS libraries.

A similar programmed KO outcome was seen for Cas12a at GSH1 in adult stage paired female and male

schistosomes, although here significantly higher editing efficiency was observed with Cas12a compared to Cas9-

treated worms ($P < 0.01$; Supplementary Figure S3A). The size of deleted DNA fragments of GSH1 ranged from 9-

18 nt in the Cas12a-treated group, with 1 nt deleted by Cas9 (Supplementary Figure S3B, S3C). In review, these

findings confirmed programmed KO with both Cas nucleases in *S. mansoni* eggs and in adults, but they

convincingly confirmed significantly higher editing efficiency of Cas12a over Cas9 at GSH1.

Programmed KI using a transgene flanked by microhomology arms as the repair template

We investigated whether Cas9 and Cas12a equally efficiently insert the transgene into GSH1 at programmed

CRISPR catalyzed HDR. Given that 5' C6 amine-PEG10(C6-PEG10)-modified donors (with ~50 nt HA) enhance

HDR efficiency in HEK293 cells (60, 61), we likewise tested chemically modified double-stranded DNA donor as

the template for HDR insertion into GSH1, specifically amine C6 with PEGylation (PEG 10 kDa) at 5' termini of

the donor bearing minimal length (micro)homology arms each of 50 nt in length. PCR amplicons of the SmUbi-

EGFP-SmUbi transgene were employed as the donor template. RNPs assembled with Cas9 and Cas12a were used

and compared in this assay. For both nucleases, transgene integration at GSH1 was achieved at ratios of 1:1:1

(w:w:w) of enzyme: Cas9 sgRNA or Cas12a crRNA: donor EGFP in each case. The 5' HA of the donor template

contained the Cas12a PAM recognition site (TTTC) and a part of the Cas12a target sequence, one base of the

Cas12a PAM TTTC was altered to T<u>C</u>TC to eliminate the Cas12a specific PAM (Figure 3A). This was undertaken

to impede donor DNA cleavage by Cas12a. In addition, the design of the gRNAs and selection of the cognate PAM

recognition site of both Cas9 and Cas12a were aimed at ensuring programmed KI by using the identical

microbiology arms, targeting GSH1, on the donor DNA amplicons. This experimental design was achieved by

selecting predicted and near-identical cleavage sites of the nucleases at GSH1 (Figure 3A).

We co-electroporated RNPs and this donor DNA template into LEs of *S. mansoni*. Mock electroporated wildtype

LEs served as a transfection control; LEs transfected with the donor template in absence of the RNP. Ten days after

transfection, the eggs were collected, gDNA isolated, and investigated for transgene integration. We designed two

primer pairs that, firstly, amplify the 5′-integration site (5'-KI) including sequences within the GSH1, i.e., the

SmUbi-promoter region of the transgene (799 bp, Figure 3B) and, and secondly, 3′-KI including the 3′-portion of

EGFP and GSH1 (1,290 bp, Figure 3B). Using this strategy, we amplified 5'-KI and 3'-KI integration fragments

and thereby demonstrated GSH1 editing and KI by both nucleases (Figure 3C). Amplicon band intensity of 5'-KI

amplicons in the Cas9 group was less intense than for Cas12a-treated LE (Figure 3C).

Nonetheless, alignment analyses using Sanger sequence reads, obtained from the purified 5'-KI and 3'-KI

amplicons, confirmed programmed transgene KI into GSH1 (Figure 3D). As expected, 5'-KI and 3'-KI fragments

were not amplified using DNA from the control groups. A 1,466 bp fragment of the non-edited GSH1, amplified in

all experimental groups, served as a PCR control. Next, we quantified the copy number of SmUbi-EGFP-SmUbi

transgenes integrated into the genome in edited LEs compared to LEs, which were transfected only with the donor

template in the absence of RNPs (Figure 3E). For this, the external standard curve design was employed to estimate

integrated-EGFP in gDNA of the schistosome eggs (n = 3) as described (26). The standard curve is based on linear

regression (y = 3.3857x+35.093, R^2 = 0.9979) established by a logarithm (20)-transformed initial DNA input, the

pJCR53.2-SmUbi-EGFP-SmUbi plasmid was used as the dependent and the Ct value from the qPCRs as the

independent variation (not shown). We estimated the EGFP transgene copy number in GSH1 by converting the

observed Ct values to the logarithmic copy numbers using the equations obtained from the standard curve. There

were 6.594±0.196 and 7.235±0.458 EGFP copies in ~10 ng DNA resulting from Cas9 and Cas12a, respectively (*P*

< 0.01). The control group (donor template only) showed 0.516±0.082 copies (10 ng of gDNA), which probably

reflected residual non-integrated SmUbi-EGFP-SmUbi donor DNA. Together with this finding, EGFP transcripts

were not detected by RT-PCR of the RNA/cDNA of the control groups, and only found in KI in DNase I-treated

RNA samples (Figure 3F). In summary, the copy number of integrated SmUbi-EGFP-SmUbi was significantly

higher with Cas12a than Cas9 catalyzed KI.

EGFP expression in the miracidium

CLSM was employed to evaluate reporter gene expression in eggs/miracidia following programmed KI at days 5

and 10 after transfection. Emission spectra were analyzed as described (21), which revealed EGFP fluorescence in

cells of eggs that contained a miracidium. Fluorescence intensity of eggs emitted at 509 nm was quantified, which

revealed significantly more EGFP-positive eggs in the Cas12a group than the Cas9 group at days 5 and 10 after

electroporation (Figure 4A). For this analysis, eggs were scored as EGFP-positive if they included a miracidium

with >50% EGFP expression in the investigated section plane (two dimensions). From six biological replicates, the

percentages of EGFP-positive eggs were 43.6 ±19.9% and 26.3±7.2% of eggs were EGFP-positive in the Cas12a

group and 20.2±10.1% and 21±16.2% of eggs of the Cas9 group were EGFP-positive at days 5 and 10 ($P < 0.01$ to

0.001) (Figure 4B). Differences in growth and survival were not noted between transfected eggs and eggs from the

control groups. Viability of treated eggs was confirmed by hatching of miracidia (not shown).

A weak EGFP signal at 509 nm was detected in LEs transfected only with the donor only (Figure 4B). Subsequent

RT-PCR analyses with egg RNA/cDNA of all groups confirmed EGFP transcripts in the treatment groups but not in

the control groups, except a weak EGFP background signal in LEs transfected with the donor template in the

absence of RNPs (Figure 3C).

The EGFP intensity at 509 nm, the peak emission wavelength for this reporter in miracidia was determined at day

10 days after electroporation. One hundred eggs in each treatment group were investigated for EGFP signal-

intensity of the viable miracidium within the eggs, using a formula that subtracted autofluorescence signals (21).

The EGFP-specific signal intensities from the eggs, which resulted from SmUbi-EGFP-SmUbi integration, were

significantly different between the CRISPR-Cas9 and -Cas12 groups with mean ± SD intensities of

6548.71±941.11 a.u. and 6,897.25±1,169.31 a.u., respectively (Ordinary one way ANOVA, P value 0.0079). EGFP

signals were not detected in the control groups; donor only, and mock transfections; these groups exhibited minimal

fluorescence at 1333.84±235.38 a.u. and 1331.12±232.35 a.u., respectively (Figure 4D).

DISCUSSION

Neglected tropical diseases afflict more than one billion people, frequently residents of in some of the world's most

impoverished communities and regions. Despite the devastating health consequences, these diseases receive too

little attention from global funding agencies, pharmaceutical companies and biotech research and development.

They can be challenging to study given many are not laboratory-accessible, they can have multiple developmental

hosts in the life cycle, they may hypoxic or other non-standard physicochemical culture constraints, and they

possess complex diploid genomes (67-70). These impediments, notwithstanding, to continue to advance functional

genomics of helminths (71-73), here we report progress in genome editing at the genome safe harbor site GSH1 in

S. mansoni (21) by comparing the editing capacities of Cas9 and Cas12a, and optimized RNP delivery conditions

and donor transgene structure. We observed efficient integration of a reporter gene into GSH1 using 5´-C6-PEG10

modified 50 bp microhomology arms by programmed CRISPR-Cas9/Cas12a-induced HDR repair, as confirmed by

amplicon sequencing as well as fluorescence reporter gene activity.

Knockout models are widely used for functional studies of gene(s) of interest. However, in the *omics* era of

schistosome and other helminth research, facile protocols for stable transformation are not readily available.

CRISPR/Cas gene editing is now the state of the art for genome manipulation (74), and there are reports involving

CRISPR gene editing in trematodes (26, 71, 75, 76). Genome editing was limited to eggs, and genome

manipulation probably accessed the outer cell layers during embryogenesis (36, 77, 78). Yet, to establish stably

transformed lines, approaches need optimize germline transgenesis. We had established a protocol for RNA-

programmed Cas9-catalysed editing at GSH1 in *S. mansoni* that used multiple, overlapping guide RNAs, after

computational prediction of the genome coordinates for this GSH based on genome annotation, chromosome

structure, and experimental validation (21). Here, we boosted both this method and enhanced gene-editing

efficiency using a single gRNA-programmed Cas12a in the presence of a donor repair template bearing chemically

modified, microhomology arms, which, in combination, enhanced programmed KI of the transgene.

Both egg and adult stages of *S. mansoni* were transfected by electroporation of Cas-containing RNPs. Treatment of

adult schistosomes with RNPs transferred by electroporation failed to achieve a penetration and distribution RNPs

in all tissues (75). Indeed, exposure of adult stage schistosomes to CRISPR by electroporation can be expected to

result in genetic mosaicism. Our findings conformed with earlier reports of deletion mutations at CRISPR targets in

LE, schistosomula, and adult schistosomes (26, 71, 75, 79, 80). Nonetheless, the outcome can be informative for

proof-of-principle of genome editing or as an alternative for RNA interference of genes transcribed in the

(sub)tegument.

To overcome these problems and to establish a genetically homogeneously modified multicellular parasite, it is

necessary to target life stages with a limited number of cells, or a stage rich in stem/germinal cells such as the

schistosomulum (9), or at an early developmental stage such as the zygote (36). For this purpose, we aimed to

introduce RNPs into LEs, isolated from livers of infected rodents, and which consisted of egg subpopulations

representing a spectrum of developmental stages. Notably, this LE population includes non-embryonated eggs,

consisting of the zygote and a few vitelline cells (36). Confocal microscopy of LEs transfected with RNPs, which

incorporated rhodamine-labelled Cas9-gRNAs (75) or Cas12a-gRNAs, demonstrated the suitability of this

approach to permeate the eggshell, and where Cas12a RNPs showed a higher efficiency to access embryonic cells.

Moreover, transfection of the zygotes at an early developmental stage was visualized by RNP-tracking experiments

(Supplemental Figure S5). The higher efficiency might reasonably be explained by the size difference of RNPs

given that the Cas12a-RNP complex (Cas12a: 150.9 kDa) was smaller than Cas9-RNP complex (Cas9: 161.3 kDa)

(30), likely enabling a comparatively better uptake of through the pores in the egg (81). Moreover, Cas12a gRNA at

41-44 nt is shorter than the Cas9 gRNA (100 nt) (30). RNPs of both nucleases were detected in numerous cells of

the eggs but a limitation of this approach was that not every cell appeared positive for the RNPs. To optimize this,

alternative transfection methods such as lipid nanoparticles (82) and other methods (59, 83-87) could be tested.

Alternatively, one could envisage targeting other larval stages such as the sporocysts to enhance transfection

efficiency (75).

In addition to these differences in the efficiency of eggshell penetration, analysis of the deletion frequencies of

GSH1 revealed a significantly higher editing efficiency of Cas12a over Cas9 in eggs and adult schistosomes.

Indeed, the editing efficiency of Cas12a with a single gRNA was comparable to the efficiency of Cas9 with two to

three gRNAs (21). The differences might result from i) the efficiency bias of Cas12a for penetration of the eggshell,

ii) differences in the cleavage profiles of the nucleases (Cas9, blunt ends; Cas12a, overhanging ends) (30), iii)

divergent efficiency of NHEJ, which relies on the gRNA sequence and cell-cycle stage of the cells (88-90), and/or

iv) combinations of these factors.

Intriguingly, the deletion patterns of Cas12a and Cas9 differed between the egg and adult suggesting that DNA

repair preferences differ during development in this schistosome. The egg in utero is comprised mostly of S4

vitelline cells (91), the fertilized oocyte in the early phase, and the miracidium with surrounding acellular and

cellular layers - Reynolds' layer and von Lichtenberg's envelope, respectively (92) at a late stage (36, 93). We

speculate that DNA repair profiles differs among these cell types and developmental stages. Findings in other

metazoan species support the conjecture (94-97). Aiming to buttress support for this hypothesis, we performed a

first i*n silico* approach to identify orthologs in *S. mansoni* of genes participating in double stranded DNA break

repair, NHEJ and HDR, in *S. mansoni* based on data available for the model nematodes, *Caenorhabditis elegans*

and *Pristionchus pacificus* (Supplementary Table S5, Supplementary Figure S5) (98-103). (Notably, schistosome

proteins predicted to participate double-stranded break (DSB) repair did not exhibit marked identity to mammalian

DSB-repair pathway members (90, 104).) Expression patterns of *S. mansoni* protein-coding genes, predicted to be

involved in DSB repair (7, 53, 54) showed clear differences from the tissue-preferential transcript profiles of genes

attributable to NHEJ (e.g., SmCKU70, SmCKU80) or HDR (e.g., SmHIM6, SmRAD51, SmRPA). NHEJ-

associated genes were transcribed throughout the schistosome tissues whereas HDR-associated proteins were

preferentially transcribed in the gonads (7, 97, 105). Genes predicted to be involved in HDR, including SmRAD51,

SmRPA and SmBRC1, were not transcribed in S4 vitellocytes (54). These variations likely underlie the divergent

mutation rates and alleles between the egg and adult stages. In addition, HDR is the prominent repair pathway

expected to operate in proliferating cells including embryonic cells (90), and where indels are not expected to

accompany perfect DSB repair (95). Correspondingly, increased transcript levels of HDR-associated genes might

be anticipated in the parasitic stages of the developmental cycle including the sporocyst, which undergo intense

cellular proliferation (53, 106). By contrast, terminally differentiated cells such as the S4 vitelline cell likely rely on

NHEJ (90, 104) for DNA repair (88, 94).

We also confirmed the utility of microhomology (50 nt) arms for CRISPR-Cas-induced HDR repair, as

demonstrated by constitutive reporter gene expression in the embryonating miracidium. Cas9 and Cas12a were each

introduced into NLE the presence of a 5'C6-PEG10-modified donor template coding for EGFP under control of the

endogenous ubiquitin promoter of *S. mansoni* (21). We analyzed this promoter in detail and identified several core

promoter elements (49, 51, 107-109), including a schistosomal Kozak sequence (52). The promoter elements may

contribute to the constitutive transcriptional activity of the cognate ubiquitin gene in the developmental cycle (53).

Constraints on transgene cargo size delivered by HDR are well known (21, 110, 111). However, the use of minimal

length homology arms of 50 bp in length flanking the transgene, i.e., *microhomology* arms as deployed here, can

facilitate insertion of transgene cargo up to 9 kb in length (61, 112-114).

For reporter gene integration, we used a chemically modified (5´-C6-PEG10) donor DNA template, modifications

aimed at preventing DNA degeneration by endogenous nucleases and also known to enhance HDR in human cell

lines (HCT116, HEK293T, H1, and WTC G3) (61). Superior KI performance has been reported for the donor

template in some human cell lines when the template combined 5'C6-PEG10 modification and short HAs (60, 61).

Transgene insertion into GSH1 using this adapted approach for schistosomes represents a significant optimization

over our original protocol (21) as both HAs were substantially shorter and dsDNA could be used instead of a

single-stranded DNA donor. Likewise, with an RNP assembled with Cas12a and a single crRNA, we achieved

comparable and higher integration rates with the modified donor template compared with Cas9 and up to three

gRNAs (21). Notably, Cas12a looks to be well-suited for *S. mansoni*, given its AT-rich genome (3), and given that

Cas12a has a T-rich specific PAM, 5´-TTTN-3´ (30). In overview, Cas12a exhibits a divergent flexibility to Cas9,

which is constrained in its target sequence range in the schistosome genome due to its CG-rich PAM, 5´-NGG-3´.

Optimized genome editing for schistosomes can be expected to hasten research progress in functional genomics of

these helminths. Our recent report defining a panel of genome safe harbors in *S. mansoni* provided a salient

innovation for CRISPR-based functional genomics and transgenesis in *S. mansoni* (21). Now, we have also

overcome other earlier limitations through deployment of Cas12a as the RNA-guided nuclease and the modification

of the donor transgene with chemically protected, diminutive length (micro)homology arms. Along with loss-of-

function mutation, these improvements will allow gain-of-function approaches by, for example, integrating

selectable marker genes into a GSH as an alternative for, or in addition to, fluorescence reporters. This would

enable maintenance of transgenic lines with drug selection pressure. Indeed, oxamniquine showed selectivity for

sporocysts and adult schistosomes (75). Beyond that, this model should be useful during development of new

interventions for schistosomiasis and other similar neglected tropical diseases. This method also opens the way for

studying genes inaccessible to RNA interference (17, 19, 115). Last, we posit that this new workflow provides a

blueprint for the design of advanced, tissue-stage investigation and contribute to deciphering the complex biology

of schistosomes, which in turn, provides a role model for platyhelminths generally.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Maintenance and isolation of *S. mansoni* developmental stages

Mice (female, Swiss Webster) exposed to ~180 cercariae of *S. mansoni* were provided by the Schistosomiasis

Resource Center, Biomedical Research Institute, Rockville, MD. The mice were housed at the Animal Research

Facility of George Washington University (GWU), which is accredited by the American Association for

Accreditation of Laboratory Animal Care (AAALAC no. 000347) and has the Animal Welfare Assurance on file

with the National Institutes of Health, Office of Laboratory Animal Welfare, OLAW assurance number A3205. All

procedures employed were consistent with the Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals. The Institutional

Animal Care and Use Committee at GWU approved the protocol used for mice in this study. Mice were euthanized

at about day 49 following infection. Schistosomes were recovered by hepatic portal vein perfusion with 150 mM

sodium chloride, 15 mM sodium citrate, pH 7. Thereafter, the worms were washed with $1\times$ phosphate buffer saline

(PBS), pH 7.4, 2% penicillin/streptomycin/fungizone (PSF) and maintained thereafter in DMEM, 10% heat

inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS) (Corning Life Sciences, Corning, NY) supplemented with 2%

antibiotic/antimycotic (Corning) in the atmosphere of 5% CO_2, 37°C incubator (Panasonic, Newark, NJ) (116).

Adult schistosomes were processed within 24 h following recovery from the mice. To prepare *S. mansoni* eggs,

mouse livers were rinsed in 70% ethanol, then twice washed with $1\times$ PBS, 2% PSF, and finally homogenized in $1\times$

PBS, 2% PSF in a mechanical blender. The homogenate was incubated with clostridial collagenase (0.7 mg/ml) at

37°C for 18 h, after which cellular debris was removed using sieves of 250 μm and 125 μm mesh (Gilson,

Middleton, WI). Sequentially, followed by sucrose/Percoll gradient centrifugation, eggs were recovered (117). The

eggs, termed "liver eggs" (LE), were maintained at 37°C in 20% FBS/ 2% PSF/ DMEM, and electroporated with

CRISPR/Cas materials with or without donor (below) within 24 h.

In silico **analyses of the ubiquitin regulatory promoter elements**

Enhanced green fluorescent protein, EGFP (118), under the control of the promotor and terminator sequences of

Smp_335990 (119), an abundantly transcribed ubiquitin gene of *S. mansoni* (Sm*ubi*) (Supplementary Table S1,

Supplementary Figures S1, S2) was used as a reporter for transfection/transformation analyses. Nucleotide

sequences of upstream and downstream untranslated regions (UTRs) of Smp_335990 were retrieved from

WormBase ParaSite (37, 119), version 7 of the draft genome of *S. mansoni* (3, 5). To confirm this annotation, we

used the protein homology/analogy recognition engine Phyre2 with the protein structure modelling mode,

http://www.sbg.bio.ic.ac.uk/~phyre2/html/page.cgi?id=index (43). To predict the promoter region of Sm*ubi*,

adjacent sequences up to the three kb upstream of the start codon were scanned. Promoter elements were identified

by the Berkeley *Drosophila* Genome Project Neural Network Promoter Prediction Tool, using a minimum promoter

score of 0.8 for eukaryotic promoters (44), https://www.fruitfly.org/seq_tools/promoter.html. In addition, we used

the AliBaba2.1 TRANSFAC 4.0 transcription factor binding site prediction tool, http://gene-

regulation.com/pub/programs/alibaba2/ (45) to identify potential transcription factor binding sites. We analyzed

potential promoter sequences also by AliBaba2.1 TRANSFAC (46), applying the following parameters: the Pairsim

function was set to 50, the matrix width set to 10 bp, a minimum number of overlapping predicted transcription

factor binding sites was limited to a total of four for each site with a minimum sequence conversation of 75%

coverage, and the factor class was set to 4.

In addition, the sequence was analyzed for canonical core promotor elements by the YAPP eukaryotic core

promoter predictor using a cut-off score of 0.8. To conduct the promoter analysis, the sequence including the

predicted core promoter fused with the sequence of EGFP (717 bp) was used to analyze potential transcription start

sites (TSS). Subsequently, TSS prediction was performed by YAPP (48, 50). To identify the schistosomal Kozak

consensus sequence, we performed a comparative analysis applying the AGAT software-package to determine also

potential Kozak sequences of other genes in the *S. mansoni* genome version 9. To this end, ubiquitously and

abundantly transcribed genes were screened for the presence of potential Kozak sequences and patterns like Sm*ubi*

(54). Specifically, the sequences of Smp_009580, Smp_106930, Smp_042160, Smp_056970, Smp_054160,

Smp_182890, Smp_099870, Smp_179300, Smp_111340, Smp_090120, Smp_072330, Smp_003770, Smp_017430,

Smp_040130, Smp_155060 and Smp_335990 were compared (120).

In addition, the 3´UTR of Sm*ubi* defined by WormBase ParaSite (37, 119), version 7 of the draft genome of *S.*

mansoni (3, 5), was analyzed. To identify the polyadenylation signal, 600 bp downstream from the stop codon were

analyzed with the DNAFSMiner-DNA Functional Site Miner polyadenylation side prediction tool (55).

Subsequently, the RNA secondary structure of the predicted 3´UTR was calculated, including the stop codon and

predicted rank 1 (highest) polyadenylation site within *in silico* added poly-adenosine tail (10 adenosines). The

investigation of potential RNA secondary structures characteristic for translation terminator-loops was done using

the RNAfold Webserver Vienna tool, which calculates secondary structures by applying the minimum free energy

(MFE) model and activated partition function, while the model avoids RNA folding with isolated base pairs,

http://rna.tbi.univie.ac.at (55, 121).

Reporter gene

Based on pJC53.2 (plasmid no. 26536, Addgene repository) (122), we cloned the reporter gene construct consisting

of EGFP and the promoter and terminator sequences of Sm*ubi* (Figures 1A to 1D; Supplementary Table S1). One

µg pJC53.2 was digested with *Ahd* I (New England Biolabs (NEB), Ipswich, MA) in 50 µl 1× CutSmart buffer

(NEB), 120 min at 37°C, DNA fragments released (two fragments) were separated by agarose gel electrophoresis,

and the 3,240 bp fragment recovered from the gel (Monarch Gel Extraction Kit, NEB, Ipswich, MA). Components

of the transgene construct, i.e., the full-length EGFP coding region, putative promoter (5´Ubi) and terminator

(3´Ubi) of schistosome ubiquitin were amplified by PCR (primers in Supplementary Table S4). Primers for the

amplification of the 5´Ubi and 3´Ubi were designed according to data base information of WormBase ParaSite V7

for Smp_335990 (37, 119). Amplicons were synthesized in 20 µl reaction volume with either 100 ng gDNA or 10

ng pET-30a_SmDHFR-EGFP (the EGFP-DNA fragment kindly gifted by Dr. Jim Collins) as template for the

reporter gene EGFP (717 bp). Expected sizes of the fragments for 5´Ubi and 3´Ubi were 2,056 bp and 580 bp,

respectively. PCRs were undertaken using the Q5 High-Fidelity Polymerase kit (NEB) and thermocycling

conditions of 98°C, 3 min, 35 cycles of 95°C, 30s, 55°C, 30s, 72°C, 75s. Products were visualized in ethidium-

stained agarose gels following electrophoresis and recovered as above. This step was followed by an additional

PCR to add homology arms (HA) to flank the reporter transgene using Gibson assembly (123). Primers were

designed with HAs of 20 to 26 bp at both the promoter and the terminator sequences surrounding the EGFP coding

sequence in the pJC53.2 backbone. Amplification of the promoter sequence was carried out using primers for

Gibson assembly (Supplementary Table S4). A two-step PCR protocol was employed, in which the template DNA

was first denatured at 98°C for 5 min, followed by 10 cycles of 95°C for 30s, 54°C for 30s, 72°C for 75s, before 25

cycles followed with 62°C for 30s, and 5 min at 72°C. The pJC53.2_SmUbi-EGFP-SmUbi construct was

assembled using the NEBuilder Hifi DNA Assembly Cloning Kit (NEB). Competent *Escherichia coli* DH5α (NEB)

were transformed with the ligation products, plated on LB agar supplemented with kanamycin and ampicillin

(Sigma Aldrich, Darmstadt, Germany) for 18 h at 37°C, and plasmids with correct insert confirmed by Sanger

sequencing (Microsynth SeqLab, Göttingen, Germany).

Particle bombardment

Particle bombardment (PB) was carried out using the stationary PDS 1000/He system (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA) (58,

124) to assess the activity of the SmUbi-EGFP-SmUbi transgene construct (Figure 1D). Plasmid DNA was isolated

by the PureLink Expi Endotoxin-Free Maxi Plasmid Purification Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA),

and precipitated onto gold particles (0.6 µm) using $CaCl_2$, spermidine, and ethanol (124); 5 µg DNA/600 ng gold.

Most of the culture medium was removed, and male worms were positioned centrally in a petri dish; 10 male

schistosomes were included in each biological replicate (n=5). The ballistic parameters were helium gas at 1,550

psi, 3 cm target distance (platform stage 1), 15 in Hg (381 mm Hg) atmosphere, and 23°C. After PB, the worms

were immersed in culture medium to recover, and maintained for 48 h before downstream analysis. For

microscopic analyses, schistosome nuclei of the worms were counterstained with Hoechst 33342 (Invitrogen,

Waltham, MA) for 120 min before fluorescence microscopy (IX71 Inverted Fluorescence Microscope Pred IX73,

Olympus) and confocal laser scanning microscopy (CLSM; TCS SP5 vis confocal laser scanning microscope, Leica

Microsystems GmbH, Wetzlar, Germany). Captured images were analyzed with the cellSens software (Olympus)

and LAS X software (Leica), respectively. Worms exhibiting EGFP fluorescence were washed in 1× PBS,

transferred to 50 µl DNA/RNA protection buffer (Monarch Total RNA Miniprep Kit, NEB), and stored in liquid

N_2. Total RNA was isolated from worms, and its concentration and integrity assessed on electropherograms (RNA

6000 Nano Chips, Bioanalyzer 2100 System, Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA). Reverse transcription of 100

ng total RNA from each sample to cDNA was accomplished with the QuantiTect Reverse Transcription Kit

(Qiagen) at 42°C, 30 min, and the reaction terminated at 95°C, 3 min. PCRs using these cDNAs were performed in

25 µl reaction volumes with 200 µM dNTPs, 0.5 µM each primer, 1 µl cDNA, and FIREPol® DNA Polymerase

(Solis BioDyne, Tartu, Estonia). The EGFP transcript of 717 nt was amplified (Figure 1E) using the primers

EGFP_fw and EGFP_rev (Supplementary Table S4), and thermocycling at 98°C, 30s, 35 cycles of 98°C for 30s,

55°C for 30s, and 72°C for 60s. Ten ng pJC53.2_ SmUbi-EGFP-SmUbi plasmid-DNA served as a positive PCR

control.

Ribonucleoprotein complexes

To prepare CRISPR/Cas-mediated editing of the AT-rich GSH1 (66% AT), target protospacer adjacent motifs

(PAM) and adjacent sequences for both Cas9 and Cas12a were predicted using CHOPCHOP (65, 125, 126),

applying the default function against the *S. mansoni* genome. To compare the CRISPR/Cas efficiency between

these two programmable endonucleases in the absence of cleavage site-specific bias, we identified guide RNA

(gRNA) sites for Cas9 and Cas12a predicted to exhibit similar CRISPR efficiency (~50%), absence of off-targets,

and notably, programmed cleavages at near identical target in GSH1. Both Cas9 and Cas12a CRISPR/Cas target

sites without any predicted-off-targets on the *S. mansoni* genome were used (Figure 2A). We purchased the

customer-defined single CRISPR RNA (crRNA) of Cas9; sgRNA with both crRNA and tracrRNA and crRNA of

Cas12a modified chemically to protect against degradation by cellular RNases (Alt-R™ system, IDT, Coralville,

IA). The customer-defined crRNA sequences for Cas9 and Cas12a were 5'-GAGAUCAAUUAUCUGACAAU-3'

and 5'-GAGAUCAAUUAUCUGACAAUGGAA-3', respectively (Supplemental Table S4) (127, 128).

The Cas9-sgRNA and Cas12a-crRNA were labeled with CX-rhodamine (Label IT® Nucleic Acid Labeling

Reagents Rhodamine Kit, Mirus Bio, Madison, WI) (75, 121), after which RNPs of Cas12a were assembled by

mixing of 1:1 (w/w, gRNA:enzyme) Alt-R AsCas12a V3 with purified, labeled and purified crRNA; and Alt-R™

SpCas9 Nuclease V3 with labeled, purified sgRNA (121). Ten µg Cas9 and 10 µg sgRNA were mixed by pipetting

in a final volume of 100 µl Opti-MEM (Gibco, Thermo Fisher) and incubated 15 min, at 23°C in the dark. Before

transfection by RNPs, ~10,000 eggs were exposed to 0.25% trypsin in EDTA at 37°C for 5 min, aiming to remove

the protein lining the pores of the egg (92, 129), washed twice in 1x PBS, resuspended in 100 µl Opti-MEM in an

electroporation cuvette (4 mm) (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA) and 100 µl labeled RNPs were added. These eggs were

subjected square-wave electroporation (one pulse of 125 volts, 20 ms duration (Gene Pulser Xcell Electroporation

System, Bio-Rad or the BTX, ECM 830 Electro Square Porator, Holliston, MA) (26, 63). Thereafter, the eggs were

maintained in complete medium as above before counterstaining for 30 min in Hoechst 333420 (H3570, Invitrogen,

Waltham, MA). RNP entry into the LE were monitored under using fluorescence microscopy. CX rhodamine-

specific fluorescence signals were localized by CLSM at 576 nm excitation (TCS SP5 vis confocal laser scanning

microscope, Leica) (121), and images processed using LAS X software (Leica). Control groups included eggs not

subjected to electroporation, eggs that were electroporated in Opti-MEM without CRISPR materials (mock

treatment), and eggs transfected with an irrelevant (scramble) guide RNA/RNP complex (63).

Donor repair template

The donor DNA template consisting of 3,351 bp of Sm*ubi* promoter (2,056 bp), EGFP (717 bp) and Sm*ubi*

terminator (578 bp), and flanked by HAs of 50 bp each, were prepared by PCR using 5' C6-PEG10-modified

primers with 50 bp GSH1 (Supplementary Table S4). Yu et al. proved that DNA donor containing microhomology

arms of 50 bp with 5' modifications including an amine group, a C6 linker (AmC6) and polyethylene glycol

(PEG10) treatment improve the efficient gene knock-in of a EGFP reporter gene using the CRISPR/Cas9 system

(60). Here, we prepared a DNA donor template by PCR using primers specific to Sm*ubi* promoter and terminator

including 50 nt of HA (Supplementary Table S4), which 5´ends were PEG10-AmC6-modified (60, 61). Briefly, 10

µM of 5'amine C6 primers (IDT, Coralville, IA) were incubated with 1 mM Bis-PEG10-NHS ester (BroadPharm,

San Diego, CA) in borate buffer (Thermo Fisher) at 23°C for 18 h. Primers were desalted and dissolved in Tris-

buffer using Bio-Spin 30 column (Bio-Rad) for use in PCR. The PEG10-5´AmC6-modified primers were used for

the amplification of the donor template using GoTaq® Green Master Mix DNA polymerase (Promega). The SmUbi-

EGFP-SmUbi construct with the 600 bp HA sequence (21) targeting GSH1 served as template DNA, with

thermocycling of 98°C, 5 min, 6 cycles of 95°C, 20 s, 56°C 30 s, and 72°C 3:35 min, which was followed by 25

cycles of 95°C, 20s, 68°C 3:35 min, and 72°C 3:35 min. The presence of an amplicon of 3,451 bp in length, the

expected size, was confirmed following agarose gel electrophoresis, and isolated as described above.

Programmed editing at GSH1

Genomic DNAs were recovered from LE as described (21, 26). In brief, the eggs were homogenized in DNAzol®

(Molecular Research Center, Inc., Cincinnati, OH) using a motorized pestle (Kimble Chase, Thermo Fisher or

PowerMasher II Nippi, Funakoshi, Tokyo, Japan), and concentration and purity assessed using a

spectrophotometer. The PCR fragment flanking the expected CRISPR/Cas cut site on target GSH1 locus (~808 bp)

was amplified by GSH1 specific primers (Supplementary Table S4) with thermocycling of 98°C for 3 min, 35

cycles of 95°C for 20s, 60°C for 30s and 72°C for 60s. Amplicons were sized in gels (as above) and bands of

interest isolated using the NucleoSpin Gel and PCR Clean-up kit (Takara Bio Inc., San Jose, CA). Sanger Direct

Sequencing was performed at Azenta Life Sciences (South Plainfield, NJ) or Microsynth Seqlab (Göttingen,

Germany). The CRISPR efficiency catalyzed by the Cas9 and Cas12a nucleases was estimated by Tracking of

InDels by Decomposition (TIDE) (62) comparing with the control groups (mock and/or wild type).

To reveal the positions and frequencies of insertion-deletions (InDel) around the target GSH1 site, a fragment-

harboring target GSH1 CRISPR/Cas cleavage site was amplified by specific primers containing partial Illumina

adaptor sequences (Supplementary Table S4). Generated amplicons were suitable for the AmEZ service for next

generation sequencing (NGS) (Azenta Life Sciences). PCR was carried out by following thermal cycling program:

98°C 3 min, 10 cycles of 95°C 20s, 55°C 30s, 72°C for 35s, and 25 cycles of 95°C 20s, 62°C 30s, and 72°C 35s.

The profile of InDels at and proximal to the programmed cleavage site in GSH1 was revealed using >100,000 NGS

paired reads using the CRISPREssoV2, RGEN Tool, and Cas-Analyzer (64, 66). The CRISPResso2 analysis was

evaluated using NGS reads as paired end reads, using the optimal parameters: minimum homology for alignment on

amplicon, 60%, base editing target base C and result base T, quantification window size to 5. The quantification

window was set to -3, and the plot window size to 30. The TruSeq2PE adapter-trimming setting was used. With

CRISPR RGEN, both sense and antisense reads of the sequence reads were used. In addition, the RGEN Tool was

used to investigate the nuclease detection mode was set to single nuclease. All data were tested against the wild

type reference, the comparison range was set to 70, the wild type marker was set to 5, and minimum frequency was

set to 1.

Transgene integration

After electroporation, LE of experimental or control groups were harvested at 5- and 10-days post transfection.

Genomic DNA (gDNA) of each sample was analyzed by PCR for 5'- and 3' transgene integration into the GSH1.

To check the 5´terminus, we used a primer pair spanning 799 nt of the upstream region of GSH1 and part of the

ubiquitin promoter (Figures 3B, 3C; Supplementary Table S4). For the 3´terminus, primers spanning 1,290 nt of the

targeted mutation, specifically a chimeric primer spanning the EGFP coding sequence, and the terminator paired

with a primer for the GSH1were used (Supplementary Table S4). For KI investigation, we designed specific

primers amplifying the GSH1 located in a significant distance away from HAs of the donor DNA template

combined. These primers were each combined with primers specific for the donor DNA to investigate the success

of transgene integration (Figure. 3B, additional information also found in Supplementary Table S4). Both PCRs

were performed by using the GoTaq® Master Mix DNA polymerase (Promega, Madison, WI), 10 ng of gDNA and

in a 10 µl reaction volume, as follows. PCR conditions were 98°C 5 min, 38 cycles of 95°C 30 s, 60°C 30 s, and

72°C, 80 s. Ten biological replicates were examined. The internal control for the PCR was performed by

amplifying a 1,466 bp fragment using the GSH1 specific primers (Figure 3B, see also Supplementary Table S4).

The PCR conditions did not allow amplification of the 4,732 bp fragment representing the complete reporter gene

integrated into GSH1.

Quantitative PCR (qPCR) was performed by analyzing 10 ng gDNA (in triplicate) in 10 µL total volume of SYBR

green PCR master mix (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA) using the Bio-Rad real-time system using 400 nM of EGFP-

specific primers (Supplementary Table S4). The pJC53.2_SmUbi-EGFP-SmUbi plasmid served as template for

qPCR to generate an external and logarithmic standard curve based on the EGFP copy numbers, which ranged from

2.7 to 1.17×10^7 copies. Copy number of integrated EGFP sequences were estimated using qPCR values obtained

from 100 ng gDNA from eggs and interpolation from the standard curve (26, 130).

Transgene integration analysis

EGFP expression was assessed using CLSM (Zeiss Examiner.Z1 AX10; Camera, Carl Zeiss AxioCam MRc) with

an inverse objective at 20× magnification (Zeiss W Plan-Apochromat 20x/1.0 DIC (UV) VIS-IR 421402-9800), an

approach that enabled imaging of the eggs in culture (20% FBS in DMEM) at 509 nm excitation (21). Images were

analyzed with the ZEN 2011 (Zeiss) at days 5 and 10 following transfection using ~3,000 LE per replicate.

Subsequently, either egg hatching was induced, or eggs were lysed for recovery of DNA and RNA (above).

Transcripts of the transgene were amplified by RT-PCR. At day 10 following transfection, 3,000 LEs of each

biological replicate were transferred to 50 µl RNAzol RT (Molecular Research Center, Inc., Cincinnati, OH),

homogenized using a motorized pestle, and RNA isolated and quantified. Synthesis of cDNA from 30 µg total

RNA per sample was carried out using the Maxima First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit with DNase I (Thermo Fisher)

and employed as template to confirm the presence of transgene transcripts using EGFP-specific primers. The

SmGAPDH gene served as the reference control (Figure 3F, Supplementary Table S4) and 10 ng donor dsDNA as

the positive control. PCR reaction volumes of 25 µl, with 3 µl cDNA, 1 µM each primer and GoTaq polymerase

reagent (Promega, Madison, WI, USA) were subjected to thermal cycling, 98°C 3 min, 40 cycles of 95°C 30 s,

55°C 30 s, 72°C 60 s, and products assessed as above.

DATA AVAILABILITY

Nucleotide sequence reads are available at the NIH Sequence Read Archive, BioProject PRJNA950942, accessions

SRR24034375 to 24035409. All other data are provided in the text and the supplementary information.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Max F. Moescheid: Methodology, Formal Analysis, Validation, Writing-original draft, Writing-review & editing.

Prapakorn Wisitpongpun: Methodology, Formal Analysis. Victoria H. Mann: Methodology. Thomas Quack:

Methodology. Christoph Grunau: GSH1 identification, Writing-review & editing. Christoph G. Grevelding:

Conceptualization, Supervision, Writing-review & editing. Wannaporn Ittiprasert: Conceptualization, Supervision,

Formal Analysis, Validation, Writing-original draft, Writing-review & editing. Paul J. Brindley: Conceptualization,

Supervision, Writing-review & editing.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST

All authors declare they have no competing interests.

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Bioinformatic prediction and experimental verification of the regulatory activity of *S. mansoni* ubiquitin

(Sm*ubi*) promoter and terminator. **(A)** Overview of Sm*ubi* (Smp_335990) promotor and terminator elements (see

Supplementary Tables S1, S2). The elements were identified using Berkeley *Drosophila* Genome Project Neural

Network PromoterPrediction Tool, AliBaba2.1 TRANSFAC 4.0 (44), and YAPP eukaryotic core promoter

predictor (45-48), respectively. Two core promoters were predicted (brown box and arrow) containing a CCAAT

enhancer-binding site (light blue arrow), hepatocyte nuclear factor 1 binding element (NHF-1), B recognition

element (BRE), TATA-Box-containing region (TBP), transcription initiator element (INR), serum response factor

(SRF), and downstream promoter element (DPE). The presumptive terminator region included three terminator

stem-loop structures and the polyadenylation signal, as predicted with the RNAfold Webserver Vienna tools (56)

and the DNAFSMiner-DNA Functional Site Miner polyadenylation side prediction tool (55), respectively. Sm*ubi*

promoter-induced EGFP reporter-gene expression was monitored in adult male *S. mansoni* worms, which had been

transiently transfected by particle bombardment (PB) (86) with the pJC53.2_SmUbi-EGFP-SmUbi construct.

Following cloning of the SmUbi-EGFP-SmUbi reporter-gene construct (using the rank 1 core promoter sequence)

into the plasmid vector pJC53.2 (122), adult male schistosomes were transfected by PB. After 48 h, transfected and

control worms were counterstained with Hoechst33342 (blue) and examined using CLSM **(Panels (B) and (C))**.

Green fluorescing regions were seen while EGFP signals were not seen in control worms. Brightfield microscopy

confirmed the presence of clusters of gold particles in the tissue (white arrows, **Panel (D)**). EGFP signals

colocalized with the gold particles (green arrows, **Panel (D)**). **(E)** RT-PCR confirmed the presence of EGFP

transcripts in transfected worms. No EGFP transcripts occurred in wild type (WT) worms (control) or in a control

without template. +ve = positive RT-PCR control; H_2O, control RT-PCR without template. Abbreviations: CLSM,

confocal laser scanning microscopy; EGFP, enhanced green fluorescent protein.

Figure 2. Comparison of CRISPR programmed gene knockout at genome safe harbor 1 (GSH1) in the egg stage

Schistosoma mansoni by Cas12a versus Cas9. **(A)** Schematic overview of the GSH1 (SM_V7_Chr3; 13380432-

13381848; 1,416 bp) target sites for Cas9 (blue arrow) and Cas12a (red arrow). Cas9 cleavage releases blunt ended

DNA strands whereas Cas12a releases overhanging strands. Cleavage at GSH1 was predicted on the non-target

DNA at the position illustrated. GSH1 regions highlighted in magenta represent the short homology arms, 50 nt, of

the donor template. **(B)** LEs were subjected to electroporation in the presence of CX rhodamine labeled RNPs (red),

after which they were counterstained with Hoechst33342 (blue) and examined 24 hours later by CLSM. A majority

of Cas9 RNPs accumulated just below the eggshell, a dissimilar pattern to the Cas12a RNP-treated LEs, where

signals were also evident in the deeper tissues of the egg. **(C)** Editing efficiency (InDel abundance) of Cas9 and

Cas12a RNPs at GSH1 as assessed by TIDE (62). The editing efficiencies of GSH1-targeting RNPs normalized to

the wild-type sequence (KO-Cas9, dark blue bar; KO-Cas12a, red bar) and RNPs non-specific to the *S. mansoni*

genome (scramble-Cas9, purple bar; scramble-Cas12a, orange bar), respectively, are shown. The editing efficiency

of LEs transfected with RNPs was significantly higher to transfection with scramble control PNPs (*P < 0.05, **P

< 0.01, ***P < 0.001; *t* test, *n* = 9). Compared with Cas9-RNPs, Cas12a-RNPs (red) induced significantly more

efficient programmed KO. **(D)**, Representative NGS reads for Cas12a and Cas9, respectively, of alleles with

frequently seen indel profiles at the programmed cleavage position (red arrows) (n = 3). Abbreviations: CLSM,

confocal laser scanning microscopy; KO, knock-out, ns, not significant; wt, wild type.

Figure 3. RNP-mediated chromosomal integration of the SmUbi-EGFP-SmUbi transgene. **(A)** Schematic

representation of the transgene construct: the *S. mansoni* ubiquitin promoter (SmUbi, 2,056 bp) and terminator

(Smubi, 302 bp) shown in orange flank the EGFP reporter (green; 717 bp). The terminal microhomology arms -

HAL and HAR, 50 nt each in length, are indicated in pink. Chemical (5´-C6 amine-PEG10) modifications to

protect the transgene from cellular degradation ((60) are indicated. Last, to avoid Cas12a-mediated cleavage of the

SmUbi-EGFP-SmUbi donor template, the 5'-TTTV-3' Cas12a PAM within the microhomology arms was altered to

5'-TCTV'3' (red letters). **(B)** Schematic depiction of the GSH1 locus before and after KI of the SmUbi-EGFP-

SmUbi (orange and green) reporter construct, with the position of the PAM indicated (red) and showing the primer

binding sites for the KI analyses. **(C)** The success of the chromosomal integration of the SmUbi-EGFP-SmUbi

donor template was demonstrated by PCR amplicons that span the 3'- and 5'-integration sites. The wild type GSH1

locus served as a control, whereas the complete transgene integration region was not expected to be amplified due

to limitations of the PCR. DNA fragments specific for the 5´and 3´ integrations of the donor template were obtained

by PCR and amplicons sequence reads obtained with by Sanger direct sequencing. **(D)** For both Cas9 and Cas12a,

alignment analyses of reads of these integration region amplicons confirmed the integration of the transgene

(yellow and green) into GSH1 (grey), as indicated by red bars. **(E)** Estimation of EGFP transgene copy number in

gDNA (at day 10 after transfection) obtained by interpolation from the external standard curve plotted for plasmid

DNA, as described (26). Transgene copy numbers in the Cas9 and Cas12a groups were significantly higher than

LEs transfected with the donor template only (no RNP). KI analysis of the Cas9 group showed a broad range of

EGFP copy numbers compared to the Cas12a group (2Way ANOVA, ***P = 0.0001, **** P< 0.0001).

Significantly fewer copies of residual (episomal) donor DNA were present in the donor-only control; grey violin

plot). (**F**) RNA/cDNA of eggs of were analyzed by RT-PCR to monitor EGFP transcription, which demonstrated

EGFP transcripts (236 bp) in LEs of the KI treatment groups using Cas12a and Cas9. DNase I treated-RNA served

as a control for the RT-PCR to eliminate the contaminated DNA and/or remaining donor. Lanes b1 and b2 indicate

the outcome from two independent biological replicates. EGFP transcripts were not detected in the controls (top

panel). The SmGAPDH gene GAPDH (Smp_0569701, 285 bp, bottom panel) served as the reference control for

cDNA synthesis and RT-PCR.

Figure 4. CRISPR/Cas12a more efficiently catalyzed transgene KI than Cas9. (**A**) CLSM micrographs of miracidia

with green fluorescence within the eggshell at days 5 and 10 days. Orange color indicates autofluorescence. Scale

bar: 50 µm. (**B**) The proportion of EGFP-positive eggs in the groups was assessed by CLSM at 5 and 10 days:

~10,000 eggs of each biological replicate (n = 6). Cas12a (red) displayed higher EGFP-positive rates than Cas9

(blue) after both days 5 and 10. Both Cas12a- and Cas9 transfected eggs contained significantly more fluorescing

larvae (miracidia) than the donor only control group (grey). EGFP fluorescence was not seen in control, untreated

eggs (*P<0.05, **P<0.01, ***P<0.001; t test). **Panels (C) and (D)** Verification of EGFP signals in LEs transfected

with Cas12a RNPs after 5 days. Using the Zeiss Zen blue 3.4 software, different positions of the fluorescence

spectrum were sampled to distinguish EGFP fluorescence from the background autofluorescence (orange). The

typical EGFP spectrum (left part; blue and green lines) was evident in the larvae (right panel, green and blue +

signs) and was distinct from the autofluorescence spectrum (right panel, red + sign) of the egg, which mainly

localized in the eggshell (red + sign). The EGFP-positive miracidium from donor only and mock treatment groups

showed fluorescent intensities of ~1333.84±235.38 a.u. and 1331.12±1169.35 a.u., respectively. The EGFP-KI

mediated by Cas12a exhibited higher signal intensity than Cas9: 6897.25±1169.31 a.u. and 6548.71±941.11 a.u.,

respectively (one-way ANOVA ****P< 0.0001, **P = 0.0079, n = 100). The spectral intensity of the

autofluorescence in donor only (without RNPs) and mock electroporated eggs were not significant different.

Abbreviations: auto fl., auto fluorescence; CLSM, confocal laser scanning microscopy; CTRL, control; HA,

homology arms; KI, knock-in; LE, liver eggs; primer fw, forward primer; primer rev, reverse primer.

SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION

Supplementary Figure S1. Protein structure modeling and sequence analysis confirmed Smp_335990 (SmUbi) as

an orthologue of human ubiquitin. **(A)** The protein structure of SmUbi was calculated by Phyre2

(https://doi.org/10.1016/j.retram.2022.103333) based on previously known structures of orthologous ubiquitin

proteins (39, 40). **(B)** The amino acid sequence of SmUbi was compared to tetra-ubiquitin orthologues from model

organisms, including *Homo sapiens*, using Phyre2. SmUbi is an orthologue of human ubiquitin (UBB).

Supplementary Figure S2. Transcriptomics data for Smp_335990 (Smubi) revealed its ubiquitous transcription

patterns in both sexes and all cell types of adults and in developmental stages of *S. mansoni.* Compilation of

expression data for Smp_335990 (Smubi) based on RNAseq data sets that comprised **(Panel (A))** transcript levels

in adult schistosomes and their gonads (6). **(B)** The transcript levels across all life stages of (paired (top) and

unpaired (bottom) *S. mansoni*, and the cell type-independent transcript profile of Smp_335990 as disclosed in the

single-cell atlas of *S. mansoni* (8). Abbreviations: bM, bisex male (pairing experienced male); sM, single-sex males

(pairing unexperienced male), bT, testes of bM; sT, testes of sM; bF, bisex female (pairing experienced female); sF,

single-sex (pairing unexperienced female); bO, ovary of bF; sO, ovary of sF.

Supplementary Figure S3. Insertions and deletions (InDels) after programmed editing of *S. mansoni* GSH1. **(A)**

CRISPR/Cas efficiencies of Cas9- and Cas12a-mediated KO as determined by TIDE-analysis of adult schistosome

DNA after normalization with sequencing results from the treated and control (untreated) worms. Gene editing

efficiencies of the LEs, KO-Cas9 (dark blue bar), scramble-Cas9 (purple bar), scramble-Cas12a (orange bar), and

KO-Cas12a (red bar) groups are presented. The programmed CRISPR mutation efficiency was significantly higher

in the GSH-targeted groups than in the scramble groups (*P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001; t test, $n = 8$). Finally,

Cas12a RNPs (red) showed significantly higher CRISPR efficiency than Cas9 RNPs. **(Panels (B) and (C))**

Summary of the major InDels found at the programmed cleavage sites (red arrows) of Cas12a and Cas9,

respectively, based on deep sequencing reads from three biological replicates. Abbreviations: CTRL, control; KO,

knockout; ns, not significant

Supplementary Figure S4. Transfection of newly laid eggs (NLE, 0 – 24 hours) with labeled CRISPR/Cas12a

RNPs. **(A)** CLSM micrographs of NLE after transfection with RNPs that included rhodamine-labeled Cas12a-

gRNAs. Control NLEs were subjected to electroporation in the absence of RNPs. Autofluorescence at or proximal

to the eggshell was evident in the control group. By contrast, in the rhodamine labeled RNPs transfected group, red

fluorescence was evident in cells of the developing larva within the egg as well as at the eggshell of many of the

eggs. **(B)** Micrograph of NLEs transfected with rhodamine-labelled Cas12a-RNPs at 60 min after electroporation.

Delivery of CRISPR/Cas-material (arrows) into numerous cells of the eggs was apparent. Fluorescence spectra

were collected using a Leica TCS SP5 vis confocal laser scanning microscope with Leica LasX software. Scale

bars: 50 µm. Abbreviations: auto fl., auto fluorescence; CLSM, confocal laser scanning microscopy; Ctr, control;

Zy, Zygote.

Supplementary Figure S5. Predicted DSB-repair pathways in *S. mansoni.* Bioinformatic identification of the DNA

repair machinery and cognate genes including *S. mansoni* orthologues, Smp_335990 (37, 119), as described for

several model nematodes. Orthologues of the key actors of the double-stranded break (DSB)-repair pathway, as

described for *Caenorhabditis elegans* (98, 99) were identified in *S. mansoni* including orthologues essential for

NHEJ and for HDR. Protein sequences of DSB repair proteins from *Caenorhabditis elegans* and *Pristionchus*

pacificus were analyzed using BLAST against the proteome of *S. mansoni* (parasite.wormbase.org, genome V10).

Sequence coverage and domain structures were compared using the SMART Domain analyzer [smart.embl-

heidelberg.de,) and orthologues annotated as described (131) . See also Supplementary Table S5.

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1035

A

HNF-1

CCAAT Box

BRE

TBP
TATA-Box

INR
SRF

DPE   Kozak

GTAAGTAACAATCACCTCGACGAATACCTTGTTTTACTGCCCTGAATTGAAGGTAGCGCTAAATAAACGTAGTATAGACTATATATAGCCAGCAAAATCGAAAGGCTGCCATACTTGTTCGTTAGTGTAAACGATAGACCTTACGATGGT

rank 1

rank2   rank 1   transgene-F

S. mansoni ubiquitin; Smp_335990 promoter   Core promoter   EGFP   3'UTR   ubiquitin terminator

transgene-R

Poly-A

AAGTGAGAGGTTAACTTTAATTTTGTTCATTTAACTTAATAAACGTTTAATTTAACTTATTAAAATGTTTTCTTCCTAAATTTGTAGCAAAA...

TL1   TL2   TL3   TL3   TL2

B

control   transfected worm

50 μm   50 μm

Hoechst 33342   EGFP

C   control   transfected worm

D   brightfield   fluorescence

200 μm   200 μm

E

bp   M

800 –
600 –
400 –   ← EGFP transcript

H₂O
+ve control
wt worm
transfected-worm

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

A

Predicted protein structure of Smp_335990

N → C

B

Alignment coverage with reference c5b83A (tetra ubiquitin, *Homo sapiens*)

Supplementary Figure S2

Supplementary Figure S4

Non-Homologous End Joining (NHEJ)

active throughout the cell cycle, especially in G-phases

SmDNA-PKCs
Smp_122910

SmCKU80
Smp_083780

Nuclease?

SmCKU70
Smp_211060

DNA-Polymerase λ
Smp_161380

?

DNA Ligase IV
Smp_148660

!

successfully joined DNA ends;
high risk of indels

CRISPR/Cas

DNA double strand break

Homology-directed DSB repair (HDR)

active exclusively in the S-/M-phases

SmMRE11
Smp_068110

Nuclease?

SmCom1
Smp_343550

SmRAD50
Smp_127050

Nuclease?

SmHIM6
Smp_127490

SmEXO1
Smp_012480

5′

3′

SmDNA2
Smp_197880

SmRPA
Smp_121800

precise DNA-damage
repair by HDR

5′

3′

SmRAD51
Smp_124230

SmRFS
Smp_001090

SmHELQ1
Smp_019760

5′

3′

SmBRC1
Smp_342670

5′

3′

SmRTEL1
Smp_136280

template DNA

Supplementary Figure S5

Supplementary Table 1

Plasmid card of the reporter-gene construct

pJC53.2_UbiProm-EGFP-UbiTer (6554 bp; AmpR; KanR)

benchling.com

Sequences of the reporter-gene construct

Ubiquitin (Smp_335990) promoter 5´-3´

CCTTTCCAGATTGTCTCCGATTGATTTCACTTATCTCAATCACCACCAGATTGTGTCTTCTCACTTGGACACGATCTGAACGGTCCTCAATTGTGTGCGAACACTTCA
CTTTCCGATATTGGCTGCCATTCTGGTCATTGTGAAGGTCTACGTTTTTGTGGCTCATAAAAAGTCCCAGCTTTCGGCACAAGTAATTGTAAGACTGCCAAACTACC
AAGGAAGAGGTTAAATGACTTATCTGGTAAGTGTTTTTCGGAAATATTTTGCTGTATGGAGTCACTAACCACACACGACCTGTTTTCTCTACTCGAGCTTGAGAAAG
TCACTAACCCAAGAAAATTGAAGCCTGTAATGTTCGTCATCCCTTCTCTTAGCGTTTATCAAGCCCACGAATACGTCCAGCCAAAAGAGAATTATTGCTGCCGGAAT
AGCGGAGGTGAGTGCTTCTAAGTCACTGAGGTTGTCAACATGGTCAATGTAAGGAAACTTCTGACTGTTCCTTCTCTCAGAATCGAGGTAGATAATATGTGGACCA
AGAAATGTGTTTTGTAGACAGCGTATTTTCTGGTGTGTTAGCCTCGTACATAAGCTAACATCAGAGATTCATGGGAAACCGGTGTTGATGTTATCACTAGTGTGAA
TACTAGGGAATGATCTGGGGTTTGGAAAGTATTAGTTGGTCCCATCATTATTCTTCACACTCGGAGCATCAGGGCTTGATGACTTGAAAACGCCATCTTGTGTCTCC
GTGTAAGTGGAAATATAACATAAAATAAGCTTTTTACGTTCGAGACACATATCGACCAGCTTAGTTGGGCAATGAATGCAATCTTCTCTTTGGGATTCAGTCTAGG
AATTTCCCATTTTTAAAGGAGAAAGTTCCTTTAAAATCTTTTTAAGAGTCTAATTTCGAGAAACTACATTAAACAGTGTGCGATTTTATCCTCATGTGTTCGATGAAG
GAGCTAGAAAAACATTACTCGGCAGTCATCCTTCCGCAAAGAAACCATAGTGAGAGGTTGTTGGCGAAAACGTTTTTGCCAGTAAAGATATAATATTAGCAGACCT
GTGACTGGATGCTGATCCCACATTGCAGAATAACTTGACTTCTCCGGACTTGAATTGTCCCTATTAATGAACTCATCTCCTCCACTATATGTGTTCTGAAAAATTAAC
CTAGAAAATATTCAAATATCTTCAGGCTATAATATGAAGTTTCATAGTCTAAGAAAAGAGATTATTCCATCCAAAACCAGATTTTCACGCTCAATTTCAGAACCGTA
GTTCTTGTCAACATTTCTGATGAGTGCTAGTTAGTTTCTGACAAATTGAAGTGATAAGAAAGTAAGAAGTGATGTCGGAAAAGAAGATGAGGGTGGTGACAAGCAG
TCGAAATCCAGGAGTCACGGCTAATCCAATGGTCGCACCACTTTGTAAGTCGGAATTCTTATAACCTTCGTGGACAGTCGTGTTATTTTCACGCTCAATTGTTGTGA
ACTGGGTCTTCCAATTTAGCGTCTGCAGAAGTATCTGAACGTCTCTTACTCGCTTAAGTCAGAGACAAACTAGTGAGACATTTTCAAGGTCTTCACAATTGTTTTCT
GTTGATTTAGATGTGAAAAATCATTCATATGATGCACTTGGAGATGTTTAAGTTCCGATCTAACGAAGCATATCTCCAACAGTTAACTGCTCTAATAAATTGATGAC
TTCACGTGAACTAAAACCCATAAAGATAAAATGGCAAACTTTATTTTACATTATTACCTAAACTTTTGTCATCTTGAAACTCGAAAAATGTGGCACTTGAATGAGAA
GTTGCTGACTAACAAAAACGTTTCATAATGAATTAGGAGGTTCAGACTGTAACAAGTTATTTTCTGAAAGTAAATGTGACTAGAATGTGGTTTGAGTAAGTAACAA
TCACCTCGACGAATACCTTGTTTTACTGCCCTGAATTGAAGGTAGCGCTAAATAAACGTAGTATAGACTATATATAGCCAGCAAAATCGAAAGGCTGCCATACTTG
TTCGTTAGTGTAAACGATAGACCTTACG

EGFP-reporter gene 5´-3´

ATGGTGAGCAAGGGCGAGGAGCTGTTCACCGGGGTGGTGCCCATCCTGGTCGAGCTGGACGGCGACGTAAACGGCCACAAGTTCAGCGTGTCCGGCGAGGGCG
AGGGCGATGCCACCTACGGCAAGCTGACCCTGAAGTTCATCTGCACCACCGGCAAGCTGCCCGTGCCCTGGCCCACCCTCGTGACCACCCTGACCTACGGCGTGC
AGTGCTTCAGCCGCTACCCCGACCACATGAAGCAGCACGACTTCTTCAAGTCCGCCATGCCCGAAGGCTACGTCCAGGAGCGCACCATCTTCTTCAAGGACGACG
GCAACTACAAGACCCGCGCCGAGGTGAAGTTCGAGGGCGACACCCTGGTGAACCGCATCGAGCTGAAGGGCATCGACTTCAAGGAGGACGGCAACATCCTGGG
GCACAAGCTGGAGTACAACTACAACAGCCACAACGTCTATATCATGGCCGACAAGCAGAAGAACGGCATCAAGGTGAACTTCAAGATCCGCCACAACATCGAGG
ACGGCAGCGTGCAGCTCGCCGACCACTACCAGCAGAACACCCCCATCGGCGACGGCCCCGTGCTGCTGCCCGACAACCACTACCTGAGCACCCAGTCCGCCCTGA
GCAAAGACCCCAACGAGAAGCGCGATCACATGGTCCTGCTGGAGTTCGTGACCGCCGCCGGGATCACTCTCGGCATGGACGAGCTGTACAAGTG

Ubiquitin (Smp_335990) terminator 5´-3´

GAGGTTAACTTTAATTTTGTTCATTTAACTTAATAAACGTTTAATTTAACTTATTAAAATGTTTTCTTCCTAATTTGTAGCGTATCTTAGTGTAACTGTGCTTCCTATTA
GATTGAAATTCTATCGTAATCTGCAATTAGGCTCATGGGGATATGTTATGCCAATTTTCCGAAAATTGTTAGCACTTAGGTTTCGGTGTTTTTTTACTAGGATGTCAT
GTTTTATTCATATTTGCGTCCTTGCTCTTGTGTGTGGTATGCGTCGCTATGGTCTCAGCTTTGGGCTGCATTGTTAAGTTTGAG

Predicted promoter element	Abbreviation	5' to 3' sequence	Position	Sources
Promoter Rank 1	**Prom rank 1**	TAGTATAGACTATATATAG CCAGCAAAATCGAAAGGC TGCCATACTTGTT	1981 - 2030 bp	Berkeley Drosophila Genome Project: Neural Network Promoter Prediction
Core Promoter	**Core Prom**	GTAAGTAACAATCACCTC GACGAATACCTTGTTTTAC TGCCCTGAATTGAAGGTA GCGCTAAATAAACGTAGT ATAGACTATATATAGCCA GCAAAATCGAAAGGCTGC CATACTTGTTCGTTAGTGT AAACGATAGACC	1912 – 2051 bp	Butler and Kadonaga 2002
Enhancer Box	**E-Box**	CACGTG	1712 – 1717 bp	Chaudhary and Skinner 1999
CCAAT/enhancer-binding protein binding site	**C/EBPalp**	ACTTTATTTT	1747 – 1756 bp	Kovács *et al*., 2003; AliBaba2.1 TRANSFAC 4.0
Octamer-Binding Transcription Factor 1	**Oct-1**	TATTTTACAT	1751 – 1760 bp	Roberts *et al.,* 1991; AliBaba2.1 TRANSFAC 4.0
CCAAT/enhancer-binding binding site	**C/EBPalp**	TATTACCTAAA	1761 – 1771 bp	Kovács *et al.,* 2003; AliBaba2.1 TRANSFAC 4.0
Heat Shock Transcription Factor 1	**HSF**	GAGAAGTTGCTG	1812 – 1823 bp	The Human Gene Database genecards.org; AliBaba2.1 TRANSFAC 4.0
Activator protein 1	**AP-1**	TGCTGACTAA	1819 – 1828 bp	Hess *et al.,* 2004; AliBaba2.1 TRANSFAC 4.0
Transcription Factor SP-1	**SP1**	TAGGAGGTTCA	1850 -1860 bp	The Human Gene Database genecards.org; AliBaba2.1 TRANSFAC 4.0
Fushi Tarazu element	**FTz**	AAATGTGACTA	1888 – 1898 bp	Ohtsuki *et al.,* 1998; AliBaba2.1 TRANSFAC 4.0
GATA-binding factor 1	**GATA-1**	ACTAGAATGT	1895 – 1904 bp	AliBaba2.1 TRANSFAC 4.0
CAAT-Box like sequence	**CAAT-Box**	GTAAGTAACAATC	1912 – 1924 bp	Busek *et al.,* 2002; Juven-Gershon *et al.,* 2010; Godbey 2021
Hepatocyte nuclear factor 1 binding element	**HNF-1**	AACAATCACCT	1918 – 1928 bp	Au *et al.,* 2008; AliBaba2.1 TRANSFAC 4.0
B recognition element	**BRE**	TTGTTTT	1940 – 1946 bp	Ohler *et al.,* 2002; Juven-Gershon *et al.,* 2010; Godbey 2021; YAPP eukaryotic core promoter predictor
TATA-Box containing region	**TATA-Box**	TATAGACTATATATAGCCA	1984 – 2002 bp	Godbey 2021; YAPP eukaryotic core promoter predictor
TATA-Box binding protein	**TBP**	GACTATATATAG	1988 – 1999 bp	AliBaba2.1 TRANSFAC 4.0
CCAAT/enhancer-binding protein binding site	**C/EBPalp**	CAAAATCGAA	2004 – 2003 bp	AliBaba2.1 TRANSFAC 4.0
Serum response factor	**SRF**	GCCATACTTG	2019 – 2028 bp	AliBaba2.1 TRANSFAC 4.0
Transcription Initiator Element	**INR**	CCATACT	2020 – 2026 bp	Godbey 2021; YAPP eukaryotic core promoter predictor
downstream promoter element	**DPE**	AGACC	2047 – 2051 bp	YAPP eukaryotic core promoter predictor
Kozak-Sequence	**Kozak**	CTTACGATG GT Consensus: [N N (T/C) (A/G) N (A/G/T) ATG N (C/A/T) N)]	2051 – 2061 bp	Kozak 1987, Seeber *et al.,* 1997; WEBLOGO tool

Supplementary Table 3

Predicted promoter element	Abbreviation	*S. mansoni* Sequence 5´- 3	Position in construct	Source
Promoter rank 2	**Prom rank 2**	TTGTGGCTCATAAAAAGTCCCAGCTTTCGGCA CAAGTAATTGTAAGACTG	156 – 205 bp	Berkeley Drosophila Genome Project: Neural Network Promoter Prediction
Transcription Factor SP-1	**SP-1**	GTCTCCGAT	13 – 21 bp	AliBaba2.1 TRANSFAC 4.0
Octamer-Binding Transcription Factor 1	**Oct-1**	TGATTTCACT	22 -31 bp	AliBaba2.1 TRANSFAC 4.0
GATA-binding factor 1	**GATA-1**	TTATCTCAAT	31-40 bp	AliBaba2.1 TRANSFAC 4.0
CCAAT/enhancer-binding site	**C/EBPalp**	CACGATCTGA	70 – 79 bp	AliBaba2.1 TRANSFAC 4.0
putative TATA-Box containing region	**TATA-Box**	CTCATAAAAGT	162 – 173 bp	YAPP eukaryotic core promoter predictor
CCAAT/enhancer-binding site	**C/EBPalp**	AAGTAATTGT	189 – 198 bp	AliBaba2.1 TRANSFAC 4.0
downstream promoter element	**DPE**	GGTT	224 – 227 bp	YAPP eukaryotic core promoter predictor
CCAAT/enhancer-binding site	**C/EBPgam**	TTTCGGAAAT	251 – 260 bp	AliBaba2.1 TRANSFAC 4.0
Activator protein 1	**AP-1**	AGTCACTAAC	275 – 284 bp	Hess *et al.,* 2004; AliBaba2.1 TRANSFAC 4.0
CAAT-Box like sequence	**CAAT-Box**	GGTCAATGT	471 – 479 bp	Godbey 2021; AliBaba2.1 TRANSFAC 4.0

Predicted terminator element	Abbreviation	*S. mansoni* Sequence 5´- 3	Position in construct	Source
mRNA 3´Untranslated Region	**3´UTR**	GAGGTTAACTTTAATTTTGTTCATTTAACTTAA TAAACGTTTAATTTAACTTATTAAAATGTTTTCT TCCTAATTTGTAGC	2777 – 2857 bp	Berriman *et al.,* 2009; Protasio *et al.,* 2012
Polyadenylation signal	**Poly(A)**	TGA (52 bp) ATTAAA (21 bp) GC	2774 – 2857 bp	DNAFSMiner-DNA Functional Site Miner polyadenylation side prediction too
Terminator Stem-loop 1	**TL1**	AGAG	2776 – 2779 bp	RNAfold Webserver: Vienna tools
Terminator Stem-loop 1	**TL1**	CUUU	2785 – 2788 bp	RNAfold Webserver: Vienna tools
Terminator Stem-loop 2	**TL2**	UUUUGUUCA	2791 – 2799 bp	RNAfold Webserver: Vienna tools
Terminator Stem-loop 3	**TL3**	AAACGUUUAAU	2811 – 2821 bp	RNAfold Webserver: Vienna tools
Terminator Stem-loop 3	**TL3**	AUU	2829 – 1831 bp	RNAfold Webserver: Vienna tools
Terminator Stem-loop 3	**TL3**	AAAUGUUU	2833 – 2840 bp	RNAfold Webserver: Vienna tools
Terminator Stem-loop 2	**TL2**	UGUAGCAAAA	2852 – 2857 bp	RNAfold Webserver: Vienna tools

Supplemental Table S4. Compilation of primers used for cloning procedure, PCR, RT-PCR analysis amd crRNAs

Methods Chapter in which the primers were used	Primer name	Primer sequence	Primer purpose
Construction of the EGFP reporter gene	SmUbi_promoter_fw	5´-CCT TTC CAG ATT GTC TCC GA-3´	cloning pJC53.2_SmUbi-EGFP-SmUbi, initial amplification of Sm*ubi* promoter squence
Construction of the EGFP reporter gene	SmUbi _promoter_rev	5´-CGT AAG GTC TAT CGT TTA CAC T-3´	cloning pJC53.2_SmUbi-EGFP-SmUbi, initial amplification of Smubi promoter squence
Construction of the EGFP reporter gene	SmUbi _terminator_fw	5´- TGG AGG TTA ACT TTA ATT TTG-3´	cloning pJC53.2_SmUbi-EGFP-SmUbi, initial amplification of Smubi terminator squence
Construction of the EGFP reporter gene	SmUbi _terminator_rev	5´- CCA AAG GTA TTG CGA ACT -3´	cloning pJC53.2_SmUbi-EGFP-SmUbi, initial amplification of Smubi terminator squence
Construction of the EGFP reporter gene, Particle bombardment	EGFP_fw	5´- ATG GTG AGC AAG GGC GAG -3´	cloning pJC53.2_SmUbi-EGFP-SmUbi, Gibson assembly, validation of EGFP transcription after particle bombardment
Construction of the EGFP reporter gene, Particle bombardment	EGFP_rev	5´ CTT GTA CAG CTC GTC CAT-3´	cloning pJC53.2_SmUbi-EGFP-SmUbi, Gibson assembly, validation of EGFP transcription after particle bombardment
Construction of the EGFP reporter gene	SmUbi_promoter_gibson_fw	5´-GGA GAA TTA ACC CTC ACT AAA GGG AGA CCT TCC TTT CCA GAT TGT CTC CGA-3´	cloning pJC53.2_SmUbi-EGFP-SmUbi, Gibson assembly
Construction of the EGFP reporter gene	SmUbi_promoter_gibson_rev	5´- GGA GAA TTA ACC CTC ACT AAA GGG AGA CCT TCC TTT CCA GAT TGT CTC CGA-3	cloning pJC53.2_SmUbi-EGFP-SmUbi, Gibson assembly
Construction of the EGFP reporter gene	SmUbi_terminator_gibson_fw	5´-GCA TGG ACG AGC TGT ACA AGT GGA GGT TAA CTT TAA TTT TG 3´	cloning pJC53.2_SmUbi-EGFP-SmUbi, Gibson assembly
Construction of the EGFP reporter gene	SmUbi_terminator_gibson_rev	5´-GGG AGA TTT AGG TGA CAC TAT AGA AGT GAC CTT CCA AAG GTA TTG CGA ACT AC-3´	cloning pJC53.2_SmUbi-EGFP-SmUbi, Gibson assembly
Donor template synthesis	50HA_GSH1_Donor_fw	5´Amine-ATG CCA CAA GTG TTT ACA AGG AAA ATG ATA CCT CGA GAT CAA TTA TCT Gac ctt tcc aga ttg tct ccg-3´	Synthesis of SmUbi-EGFP-SmUbi dsDNA donor template
Donor template synthesis	50HA_GSH1_Donor_rev	5´Amine-ACA CCA TCC CAA TTC CAG CTA TTGA ACC AGC CTT CAT CTA CCG AGT TCC Acc aaa ggt att gcg aac tac-3´	Synthesis of SmUbi-EGFP-SmUbi dsDNA donor template
Editing of GSH1 and determination of indel frequencies	GSH1-Tide_fw	5´-GAT GAG TGC ATC GAT CGA TTA CTA AGG AAT TG-3´	Library prediction for determination of editing efficiency by TIDE-analysis
Editing of GSH1 and determination of indel frequencies	GSH1-Tide_rev	5´- GAC TCC TGA TTG AGG GTT GCA GGT G -3´	Library prediction for determination of editing efficiency by TIDE-analysis
Editing of GSH1 and determination of indel frequencies	GSH1-NGS_fw	5´- ACA CTC TTT CCC TAC ACG ACG CTC TTC CGA TCT CCT TTA GTT ATG GCT AAT TTT TAA CAA CCG-3´	NGS library for pricise analysis of indels after Cas induced editing of GSH1, including Illumina adapters
Editing of GSH1 and determination of indel frequencies	GSH1-NGS_rev	5´- GAC TGG AGT TCA GAC GTG TGC TCT TCC GAT CTT GTA TTT AAT TTT GAG GTA GTA GGT CAA AC	NGS library for pricise analysis of indels after Cas induced editing of GSH1, including Illumina adapters
Precise transgene integration	5´-KI_GSH1 primer fw	5´-GTGTATTTCCTATGCTATGAAAATACCT-3´	amplification of 5´-integration site of SmUbi-EGFP-SmUbi at GSH1, amplification wildetyp GSH1
Precise transgene integration	5´-KI_Ubi-Prom HA left rev	5´- att gag gac cgt tca gat cgt gtc-3	amplification of 5´-integration site of SmUbi-EGFP-SmUbi at GSH1
Precise transgene integration	3´-KI_EGFP-Ubi-Ter fw	5´- CAT GGA CGA GCT GTA CAA GTG GAG GT-3	amplification of 3´-integration site of SmUbi-EGFP-SmUbi at GSH1
Precise transgene integration	3´-KI_GSH1 primer rev	5´- GGT TCC ATA CTA TGC AGT TTC CTT AAA C-3´	amplification of 3´-integration site of SmUbi-EGFP-SmUbi at GSH1, amplification of wildetype GSH1
Determination of transgene activity	RT-PCR_EGFP_fw	5´-GAC TGG GTG CTC AGG TAG TG-3´	RT-PCR, validation of transgene activity after auccessful integration
Determination of transgene activity	RT-PCR_EGFP_rev	5´-CAA GGA CGA CGG CAA ATA CA-3´	RT-PCR, validation of transgene activity after auccessful integration
Determination of transgene activity	RT-PCR_SmGAPDH_fw	5´-ATG GGA CAT TTC CAG GCG AG-3´	amplification of RT-PCR control transcript
Determination of transgene activity	RT-PCR_SmGAPDH_rev	5´-CCA ACA ACG AAC ATG GGT-3´	amplification of RT-PCR control transcript

Enzyme	Name	Target locus	Sequence
Sp Cas9	crRNA_Cas9_GSH1	GSH1	5´- GAG AUC AAU UAU CUG ACA AU-3
As Cas12a	crRNA_Cas12a_GSH1	GSH1	5´ GAG AUC AAU UAU CUG ACA AUG GAA 3´

Supplemental Table 55. Annotation and transcriptional profiles of predicted *S. mansoni* double-strand break repair machinery (NHEJ and HDR).
Orthologues were predicted according to known proteins involved in DSB repair of *Caenorhabditis elegans* (Lemmens and Tijsterman 2011, Martin et al. 2005) and *Pristionchus pacificus* (Rillo-Bohn and Ashland et al. 2015, Dietrich et al. 2018)

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