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A total synthetic approach to CRISPR/Cas9 genome editing and homology

directed repair

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ABSTRACT

CRISPR/Cas9 has become a powerful tool for genome editing in zebrafish that permits the rapid generation of loss of function mutations and the knock-in of specific alleles using DNA templates and homology directed repair (HDR). We compared synthetic, chemically modified sgRNAs to in vitro transcribed sgRNAs and demonstrate the increased activity of synthetic sgRNAs in combination with recombinant Cas9 protein. We developed an in vivo genetic assay to measure HDR efficiency and we utilized this assay to optimize the design of synthetic DNA templates to promote HDR. Utilizing these principles, we successfully performed knock-in of fluorophores at multiple genomic loci and demonstrate transmission through the germline at high efficiency. We demonstrate that synthetic HDR templates can be used to knock-in bacterial nitroreductase (*ntr*) to facilitate lineage ablation of specific cell types. Collectively, our data demonstrate the utility of combining synthetic sgRNAs and dsDNA templates to perform homology directed repair and genome editing in vivo.

INTRODUCTION

CRISPR/Cas9 has been used for a wide range of experimental applications, and zebrafish has been a key model organism to test and validate strategies for genome editing {Jao, 2013 #1}{Shah, 2015 #3}. Repair of CRISPR-generated double-stranded breaks (DSBs) by non-homologous end joining (NHEJ) leads to insertions and deletions (indels) which may result in loss of function of the targeted gene product. By supplying an exogenous DNA template, DSBs can be repaired through homology directed repair (HDR), allowing for precision genome editing, including base pair changes and insertion of protein tags. Prior studies reporting genome editing in zebrafish have used single-stranded donor oligonucleotides (ssODN) to knock-in short DNA sequences {Hruscha, 2013 #34}{Burg, 2018 #35}{Irion, 2014 #7}{Hwang, 2013 #42} or plasmid-based donor vectors to knock-in fluorophores {Auer, 2014 #6}{Hisano, 2015 #36}{Hoshijima, 2016 #9}{Ota, 2016 #38}{Kimura, 2014 #11}. The efficiency of transmitting fluorophore

knock-in through the germline has varied widely. We reasoned that the use of synthetic

reagents could permit a comparison of approaches and rational optimization.

Reports have described an increased efficiency of CRISPR/Cas9 targeting in human

cells using chemically modified synthetic sgRNAs {Hendel, 2015 #12}{Rahdar, 2015

#13}. We evaluated synthetic sgRNAs and found that they outperform conventional in

vitro transcribed (IVT) sgRNAs. We used these sgRNAs in combination with synthetic

DNA templates and we developed an assay for HDR in zebrafish utilizing an *mitfa*

mutant, b692. This assay allowed us to quantitatively compare multiple templates for

HDR and correlate phenotypic and molecular efficiency. We performed precise genomic

editing and generated in-frame gene fusions with fluorophores using synthetic reagents,

including linear dsDNA templates. Knock-in alleles were transmitted through the

germline at efficiencies of 14–25%. Finally, we used HDR to target bacterial

nitroreductase (*ntr*) to the liver-specific gene *fabp10a* to perform lineage ablation of

hepatocytes. These results demonstrate that the combination of synthetic sgRNAs and

dsDNA templates result in efficient genome editing in zebrafish.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

sgRNA and HDR template sequence selection

Gene-specific sgRNAs sequences were selected using a combination of prediction tools

including sgRNA Scorer 1.0 and 2.0{Chari, 2015 #14}{Chari, 2017 #15},

GuideScan{Perez, 2017 #16}, or CRISPRz{Varshney, 2016 #17}. We selected sgRNA

sequences with zero predicted off targets with one base pair mismatch. Design

principles for HDR templates included a mutated sgRNA recognition sequence,

incorporation of barcoded nucleotides, homology arms, and incorporation of

heterologous DNA sequence encoding EGFP or mScarlet. HDR templates were

ordered as gBlock Gene Fragments (Integrated DNA Technologies [IDT]). For single

stranded DNA templates Ultramer DNA Oligonucleotides (IDT) were used. gBlocks

were resuspended in nuclease-free water to a concentration of 50 ηg/μL and stored at -

20°C.

Preparation of sgRNAs

Synthesis of IVT sgRNAs was performed from dsDNA templates (gBlock, IDT) using the

SureGuide gRNA Synthesis Kit (Agilent, 5190-7719). Templates contained a T7

promoter and GG dinucleotide to promote transcription (TAATACGACTCACTATAGG),

a 20bp target site without PAM site, and a composite crRNA/tracrRNA single guide RNA

sequence (sgRNA)

(GTTTTAGAGCTAGAAATAGCAAGTTAAAATAAGGCTAGTCCGTTATCAACTTGAAA

AAGTGGCACCGAGTCGGTGCTTTT). 50ηg of dsDNA template (10ηg/μL) was in vitro

transcribed in a 25μL reaction and incubated at 37°C for 3–4 hours. Following DNAse

digestion sgRNAs were column-purified and eluted in H_2O per the manufacturer's

(Agilent) instructions. Concentration was determined using a Nanodrop

spectrophotometer and 200ηg of the sgRNA was visualized on an agarose gel for

quality control.

Gene-specific crRNAs were synthesized by IDT as Alt-R® CRISPR-Cas9 crRNAs. A

bipartite synthetic sgRNA was heteroduplexed using gene-specific crRNAs and a

tracrRNA according to manufacturer recommendations. For simplicity the bipartite

synthetic sgRNA is referred to as a synthetic sgRNA throughout the manuscript.

Microinjection

For global editing with a single sgRNA, 250ρg sgRNA and 500ρg recombinant Cas9

protein (rCas9, PNA Bio CP01) were injected into the yolk of one-cell stage embryos.

Cas9 nickase (D10A Cas9 nickase protein with NLS, PNABio CN01) was purchased

from PNA Bio. To generate deletions, 250ρg sgRNA 1, 250ρg sgRNA 2, and 500ρg

rCas9 were injected into the yolk of one-cell stage embryos. For HDR injections, 250ρg

sgRNA, 500ρg rCas9, and 37.5ρg HDR template were injected into one-cell stage

embryos. Throughout the manuscript rCas9 refers to recombinant Cas9 protein.

Assessment of gene editing efficiency

Genomic DNA was isolated from individual embryos (24–48 hours post fertilization [hpf])

using DirectPCR Lysis Reagent (Viagen, 102-T) supplemented with Proteinase K at

20μg/mL (Qiagen, 158920). Samples were incubated at 55°C for 60 min followed by

85°C for 45 min. Genomic DNA was PCR amplified using specified primers

(Supplementary Table). 8 μL of PCR product was mixed with 1.6μL NEB Buffer 2 and

6.4μL of water and was incubated at 95°C for 5 minutes followed by cooling from 95°C–

85°C at -2°C/second and 85–25°C at -0.1°C/second. Following hybridization, the DNA

was subject to T7 endonuclease (T7EI) digestion with 2U of T7EI endonuclease (New

England BioLabs [NEB], M0302) and 1 hour incubation at 37°C. The reaction product

was visualized on a 2% agarose gel.

For clonal analysis, the PCR product was cloned into pCRII-TOPO (Invitrogen,

K460001) and Sanger sequenced (Genewiz). Sequences were compared to reference

genome and non-targeting controls to identify indels using CrispRVariants{Lindsay,

2016 #18} and MacVector (Version 15.5).

For CRISPR-STAT analysis, sperm samples from potential founders were collected with

10μL capillary tubes as previously described, and then followed the HOTShot method

with 25μL alkaline lysis buffer to prepare DNA templates{Draper, 2009 #19}{Meeker,

2007 #20}. Tail clips were prepared similarly. The CRISPR-STAT protocol was used to

perform fluorescence-based genotyping{Carrington, 2015 #21}. Primers sequences

used for the CRISPR-STAT assay were *slc6a15* FOR,

tgtaaaacgacggccagtGGCCACGACCTACTACTGGTAT, which includes (lowercase)

M13 tag for binding to a fluorescent-labeled M13 primer; and *slc6a15* REV,

gtgtcttTATAGATGCTGCGTCACGTTTC, which include the (lowercase) 'PIG tail' tag

that helps ensure uniform product size, via Taq adenylation{Holleley, 2009 #22}.

Relative amounts of each uniquely sized PCR product (>100 bp and >100 peak height)

were calculated with area under the curve measurements using Applied Biosystems

Peak Scanner software.

For assessment of deletions, genomic DNA was PCR amplified using primers that

flanked the deletion sgRNAs. PCR products were purified (Qiagen, 28104), Sanger

sequenced, and compared to the reference genome.

Analysis of HDR efficiency by next-generation sequencing

For analysis of HDR efficiency by next-generation DNA sequencing, 50ηg of PCR

amplicon was converted into blunt ends using T4 DNA polymerase (New England

Biolabs, NEB) and *E. coli* DNA polymerase I Klenow fragment (NEB). Libraries were

prepared using the Kapa LTP Library Preparation Kit (Roche). Multiple indexing

adapters were ligated to the ends of the DNA fragments. Ligation reaction products

were purified by AMPure XP beads (NEB) to remove unligated adapters and quantified

using Qubit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and Bioanalyzer DNA chip (Agilent). Indexed

sample libraries were normalized, pooled, and sequenced using the Illumina HiSeq4000

sequencer at 2x50 cycles. Reads were aligned to the zebrafish genome (GRCz10)

using the Star aligner{Dobin, 2013 #23} and visualized using Integrative Genome

Browser (IGV) {Thorvaldsdottir, 2013 #24}{Robinson, 2011 #25}.

Imaging

Micrographs of whole embryos and larval animals were taken with a Zeiss Discovery V8

stereomicroscope (Zeiss) equipped with epifluorescence and appropriate filters. Live

imaging of fluorescent larvae was acquired with a Zeiss LSM800 laser scanning

confocal microscope (Zeiss). For melanocyte counting, 48hpf embryos were visualized

under the stereoscope and binned into 4 categories (WT, >101, 51–100, or 0–50

melanocytes). Individuals scoring embryos were blinded to the experimental conditions.

Hepatocyte ablation

HDR injection mixes were made as described above. Approximately 2 ηL of mix was

injected into the cell of one-cell stage wild-type (Tu) embryos. At 4–6 days post

fertilization (dpf), embryos were screened by confocal microscopy for mosaic mScarlet

expression localized to the liver, and positive larvae were raised to adulthood. F_0 adults

were outcrossed with wild-type (TL) fish, and the F_1 embryos were screened by confocal

microscopy for mScarlet positive livers. Positive larvae were divided and treated with

either 0.2% dimethylsufoxide (DMSO; Sigma Aldrich) or 10 μM metronidazole (Mtz;

Sigma Aldrich 443-48-1) in egg water. After 24 hours, the larvae were washed,

anesthetized with 0.16 mg/mL tricaine-S (MS 222; Western Chemical, Inc.), and

immobilized in 0.8% low melt point agarose (Invitrogen) on glass-bottom dishes

(MatTek). Imaging was performed using a Nikon Ti2 inverted microscope equipped with

a Yokogawa CSU-W1 spinning disk confocal unit and a Zyla 4.2 PLUS sCMOS camera

(Andor), using CFI Plan Apochromat Lambda 10x NA 0.45 and 20x NA 0.8 objectives.

Larvae were recovered from the agarose, allowed to recover in the absence of drug for

48 hours, and imaged again.

Zebrafish husbandry

Zebrafish strains were maintained according to established guidelines{Westerfield, 2007

#33}. Wild-type animals were from the AB background except when indicated.

Experiments were performed in accordance with the recommendations in the Guide for

the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals of the National Institutes of Health. All of the

animals were handled according to approved institutional animal care and use

committee (IACUC) protocols of the respective institutions.

RESULTS

Synthetic sgRNAs lead to highly efficient induction of indels

In order to directly compare editing efficiencies generated by synthetic sgRNA versus IVT sgRNA), we targeted tyrosinase (*tyr*), a gene required for melanin synthesis. Wild-type zebrafish embryos were microinjected at the one-cell stage with recombinant Cas9 protein (rCas9) complexed with either synthetic sgRNA (IDT, Alt-R®) or with laboratory-synthesized IVT sgRNA. Embryos were scored for melanocyte number at 48 hours post fertilization (hpf) and divided into phenotypic categories representing the degree of gene editing (Figure 1A). We find that the synthetic sgRNA leads to a significantly increased fraction of embryos with fewer melanocytes than the IVT sgRNA (Figure 1B). Higher doses of synthetic sgRNA produce an increase in the fraction of phenotypically edited embryos. Only synthetic sgRNAs were capable of producing large numbers of embryos with high phenotype. In order to characterize the molecular alterations of synthetic sgRNA injected embryos, we performed a clonal analysis. We find that 10/10 clones from a synthetic sgRNA injected high-phenotype embryo contain indels, as compared with 7/10 clones from an IVT sgRNA injected high-phenotype embryo; we also observe significant differences in the indel spectrum (Figure 1C). We found comparable differences between synthetic and IVT sgRNAs at two additional loci, *slc24a5* and *slc45a2* (Supplementary Figure 1). Injection of synthetic sgRNAs leads to highly penetrant phenotypes in F_0 larvae that develop into adults that phenocopy established germline mutants{Sheets, 2007 #26} (Supplementary Figure 2). We find that pairs of synthetic sgRNAs are able to induce deletions spanning up to 124kB in genomic DNA and that the efficiency of generating deletions varies with size (Supplementary Figure 3). Taken together, these data indicate that combined use of rCas9 protein with synthetic sgRNAs leads to penetrant phenotypes and a broad spectrum of gene-specific edits.

To assess the extent of germline transmission of edited alleles, we applied CRISPR-
STAT fluorescence-based genotyping to F_0 founders and progeny{Carrington, 2015
#21}. Sperm samples were collected from F_0 founders injected with rCas9 and synthetic
sgRNA targeting *slc6a15* at the one-cell stage. Results reveal mutant alleles containing
indels as the major peaks, with additional minor peaks corresponding to wild-type and
mutant alleles, indicating a high efficiency of CRISPR-induced mutagenesis in the
germline (Supplementary Figure 4). We identified five distinct alleles that were
transmitted to F_1 progeny (Supplementary Figure 4B-F). The frequencies of observed
CRISPR-induced indels in F_1 progeny were similar to those found in the sperm of the F_0
founder (Supplementary Figure 4G). These findings are consistent with high levels of
somatic mosaicism and confirm that F_0 sperm samples accurately predict the specific
mutations transmitted to F_1 progeny. These data demonstrate that CRISPR-induced
indels created with synthetic sgRNAs are found in the germline of founders and are
efficiently transmitted to F_1 progeny.

A genetic assay for homology-directed repair

To develop a quantitative assay for optimizing HDR in zebrafish, we sought to target a
locus that could provide phenotypic and molecular data on allele conversion. We initially
examined the widely used *mitfa*(w2) mutant, which lacks melanocytes{Lister, 1999 #27}.
Unexpectedly, injection of rCas9 complexed with a synthetic sgRNA targeting the
mutation site in w2 resulted in restoration of pigmented melanocytes (Supplementary
Figure 5). We presume that indels caused by targeting the *mitfa*(w2) mutation site
(Q113Stop) lead to in-frame deletions and restore protein function since this region of
the protein is relatively unstructured. We next examined the *mitfa*(b692) mutant, which
lacks melanocytes and harbors a mutation leading to a Ile215Ser substitution{Lister,
2001 #28}. We find that a synthetic sgRNA targeting the *mitfa*(b692) mutation site does
not restore pigmented melanocytes (Supplementary Figure 5). Therefore, we used
mitfa(b692) to develop a quantitative phenotypic and molecular assay for optimizing
HDR.

Using the b692-HDR assay we examined a range of synthetic templates to optimize

HDR efficiency. *mitfa*(b692) embryos were microinjected with rCas9, synthetic sgRNA,

and synthetic DNA templates designed to restore the wild-type *mitfa* sequence and

gene function. Microinjected embryos were scored at 48hpf for phenotypic evidence of

melanocytes, indicative of allele conversion and mitfa function (Figure 2A). Melanocytes

were not identified in uninjected embryos or in embryos injected with non-targeting

sgRNA. HDR templates were designed to feature multiple barcoded nucleotides and

mutated sgRNA recognition sequence, enabling unambiguous detection by sequencing

and prevention of re-cleavage by rCas9. We found that a 951bp, double-stranded linear

DNA template with an asymmetric sgRNA site located at the 3' end leads to a

reproducible 9% rate of phenotypic rescue in *mitfa*(b692) embryos (Figure 2B).

Melanocyte-positive embryos were subject to allele-specific PCR and Sanger

sequencing to confirm precise HDR (Figure 2C-D).

We examined DNA templates that differ in length, single vs. double stranded DNA,

linear vs. circular templates, and the symmetry of the sgRNA position within the

template (Figure 2E). We find that both longer (2kB) and shorter (318bp, 76bp) DNA

templates led to a decrease in HDR efficiency. Asymmetric positioning of sgRNA sites

led to higher efficiency than symmetric positioning. We tested an IVT sgRNA in

combination with rCas9 and the optimal 951bp linear dsDNA template and found no

appreciable HDR. Our data indicates that HDR efficiency is maximal with dsDNA

templates and synthetic sgRNA and that HDR is sensitive to template length and

sgRNA site symmetry within the HDR template.

Using the b692 assay we examined multiple reagents and conditions reported to

improve HDR efficiency in other model systems (Figure 2E). The addition of a second

sgRNA site in the optimal 951bp template reduced HDR efficiency to < 1%. We cloned

the 951bp template into a TopoTA plasmid vector and microinjected a circular plasmid

into zebrafish. This plasmid-based template also failed to lead to measurable HDR in

b692 embryos. In light of prior studies reporting increased HDR efficiency with the use

of catalytically-mutated Cas9 (nickase Cas9) {Richardson, 2016 #29}, we altered the

951bp DNA template to allow us to test this approach. Microinjection of paired sgRNAs

and recombinant nickase Cas9 failed to lead to measurable HDR in b692 embryos.

Based on reports that small molecule inhibitors of poly (ADP-ribose) polymerase

(PARP) stimulate HDR efficiency {Anantha, 2017 #32}, we performed microinjection of

the 951bp template and a PARP inhibitor, but did not observe any measurable HDR

efficiency. Finally, we examined the effect of cleaving the ends of the linear 951bp

template with a restriction enzyme (ISce-I), but we did not observe measurable HDR

under this condition.

Melanocyte restoration in b692 assay correlates with molecular efficiency

Using the b692-HDR assay we sought to measure the molecular efficiency of genome

editing and correlate DNA template integration with melanocyte number. To this end, we

performed single-cell injections in a large cohort of b692 embryos using the optimized

reagents described: rCas9, synthetic b692 sgRNA, and 951bp linear dsDNA template.

Embryos were scored for the presence of melanocytes at 48hpf and binned by

phenotype into four categories: high-, medium-, low-, and no-editing. Uninjected

embryos were included as a negative control. Genomic DNA was extracted from pools

of five embryos in each category, and exon 7 was amplified by PCR. Amplicons from

each group were subjected to next-generation sequencing. We find that that the

efficiency of genome editing as determined by next-generation sequencing correlates

with phenotype in b692 edited embryos. In high-rescued embryos, we find that 17% of

reads (106428 edited/641281 total) harbor an edited codon restoring Ser215 to Ile,

consistent with template integration. Analysis of aligned reads at exon 7 reveals the

uniform presence of barcoded nucleotides from the HDR template across the sgRNA

target site (Figure 3A). Phenotypic rescue in medium and low categories revealed

molecular efficiency of approximately 3% (14810/575344 and 17566/622068 reads,

respectively). Injected embryos with no phenotypic evidence of HDR had molecular

efficiency of <0.3%. Alignment of reads demonstrates a mutually exclusive pattern of

either HDR with template integration or indels at the sgRNA site (Figure 3A), consistent

with highly efficient dsDNA cleavage. We analyzed the molecular efficiency across all

phenotypes and plotted the fraction of reads harboring barcoded nucleotides from the

HDR template (Figure 3B-E). These data confirm the sensitivity of the b692-HDR assay

to read out the molecular efficiency of HDR in vivo.

Genome editing using synthetic reagents leads to efficient fluorophore knock-in

and germline transmission

To determine the feasibility of using synthetic reagents to knock-in a fluorophore by

HDR, we targeted *tyrp1b*, a melanocyte-specific gene. Using albino embryos

(pigmentless due to a null mutation in *slc45a2*) we performed microinjection of rCas9

with a synthetic sgRNA and a synthetic linear dsDNA template designed to knock EGFP

in frame with the terminal *tyrp1b* exon (Figure 4A). We identified 7/153 (5%) embryos

with EGFP-positive melanocytes at 48hpf (Figure 4B). Allele-specific PCR was

performed from injected embryos with EGFP-positive melanocytes (Figure 4C). Sanger

sequencing revealed the presence of multiple barcoded nucleotides encoded by the

HDR template, consistent with template integration (Figures 4D). Confocal imaging

revealed the presence of an EGFP-positive melanocyte with characteristic stellate

morphology (Figure 4D).

To determine the generalizability of this approach across multiple loci, we targeted

h3f3a, one of several genes encoding histone H3.3. We designed a linear dsDNA

template to knock EGFP in frame with *h3f3a*, creating a C-terminal fusion (Figure 4F).

We microinjected rCas9 with a synthetic sgRNA targeting *h3f3a* and a synthetic dsDNA

template into wild type embryos. We identified 12/152 (8%) embryos with EGFP-positive

cells at 48hpf (Figure 4G). Allele-specific PCR and Sanger sequencing performed on

EGFP positive embryos revealed precise template integration (Figure 4H,I). Confocal

imaging revealed the presence of cells with a nuclear EGFP-positive signal

characteristic of chromatin (Figure 6J). We raised mosaic F_0 embryos to adulthood and

assayed the rate of germline transmission. Of the 14 adult fish that mated, 2 (14%)

produced EGFP+ F_1 embryos (Figure 4K,L). Taken together, these data demonstrate

the ability of synthetic sgRNAs and dsDNA templates to knock-in allele-specific

fluorophores at several genomic loci and to transmit these edited alleles through the

germline.

To expand the applications of genome editing using synthetic DNA templates, we

targeted the liver-specific gene *fabp10a* using a linear dsDNA template that knocks in

mScarlet and bacterial nitroreductase (*ntr*) to facilitate hepatocyte ablation studies

(Figure 5A). The zebrafish liver is capable of regeneration after injury {Cox, 2015 #40},

and expression of *ntr* has been used in combination with metronidazole (Mtz) to cause

cellular injury {Curado, 2008 #41}. We injected embryos with rCas9, sgRNA targeting

fabp10a, and the HDR template and raised mScarlet+ F_0 embryos to adulthood. Of

adult fish that mated, 2/8 (25%) produced mScarlet+ F_1 embryos. We characterized the

recovered *fabp10a* allele in F_1 animals using allele-specific PCR and confirmed

integration of the template in mScarlet+ embryos (Figure 5B). Molecular analysis

indicated that the 5' end of the HDR template resulted in an in-frame fusion between

exon 4 and mScarlet. At the 3' end of the recovered allele, we identified a fragment of

exon 4 distal to the sgRNA recognition sequence, likely resulting from ligation to the

template. We treated transgenic F_1 embryos with Mtz to examine whether an fab10a-ntr

fusion was functional and could leave to liver-specific cytotoxicity. Exposing fabp10a-

mScarlet-NTR larvae to Mtz from 96–120 hpf resulted in a dramatic reduction in the

mScarlet fluorescent signal, signifying hepatocyte ablation without obvious damage to

other tissues (Figure 5C,D). Remnants of the ablated hepatocytes were observed

circulating in the vasculature. After a recovery period of 48 hours in the absence of Mtz,

mScarlet signal was observed in the liver of the Mtz-treated larvae, consistent with liver

regeneration (Figure 5E,F).

DISCUSSION

Here we describe the development and application of genome editing in zebrafish using synthetic reagents. We demonstrate that the combined use of synthetic sgRNAs with rCas9 protein leads to highly efficient indels. The improved efficiency of commercial sgRNAs may result from chemical modifications that protect sgRNAs from degradation. In order to optimize the efficiency of homology-directed repair we developed a genetic assay using *mitfa*(b692) mutant zebrafish. Our data demonstrate that the b692-HDR assay permits correlation between phenotype and HDR allele conversion (genotype). Using this assay, we systematically tested multiple template designs to determine which parameters are optimal for efficient knock-in by HDR. We find that the optimal template is a linear, dsDNA template with an asymmetric sgRNA site. Using these design principles, we knock-in fluorophores at *tyrp1b*, *h3f3a* and *fabp10a*; we achieved germline transmission rates of 14–25% at two loci. At *fabp10a* the HDR template included an *ntr* cassette to facilitate lineage ablation studies, and application of metronidazole resulted in hepatocyte ablation in transgenic F_1 larvae. These germline transmission rates are among the highest reported for knock-in of gene cassettes in zebrafish, and this is the first report of CRISPR-mediated *ntr* knock-in and lineage ablation.

A total synthetic approach has the unique advantage that sgRNA and HDR templates can be designed in silico and commercially manufactured in a short time frame. Design and precision genome editing with a synthetic dsDNA template can be performed within 2–3 weeks. The use of synthetic reagents may reduce experimental variability between labs. The use of sgRNAs produced by commercial solid phase synthesis raises the possibility of incorporating degeneracy in the sgRNA sequence to permit a single sgRNA to target multiple related genes. The synthesis of linear dsDNA templates may allow investigators to rapidly test sequence requirements for HDR. We unexpectedly found significant differences in HDR efficiency between templates with minor design differences. These observations suggest that empiric optimization of donor templates may be required to achieve knock-in at some loci. As new recombinant Cas9 proteins

become available, the ability to perform base editing and other enzyme modifications may be possible. Finally, the b692-HDR assay may be used as a screening platform to identify chemical and genetic modifiers of HDR efficiency to make further improvements in efficiency.

The use of CRISPR/Cas9 to generate loss of function mutations in zebrafish and other model organisms makes it a uniquely valuable resource for forward genetics. To our knowledge, this is the first study to develop a genetic assay for HDR in zebrafish and to optimize HDR templates. Our studies offer insight into the relative efficiency of HDR and provide investigators with a workflow for generating knock-in alleles. Our approach to genome editing should allow investigators to pursue a broad range of in vivo applications, including tissue-restricted lineage ablation, fluorophore and epitope knock-in, and generation of conditional alleles. Future improvements in HDR efficiency may occur with new variations in Cas9 protein and molecular and chemical tools to further enhance the efficiency of homology directed repair.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

We are grateful to members of the Houvras laboratory for critical discussion and manuscript review. We thank the Weill Cornell Genomics Resources Core Facility for next generation sequencing.

FUNDING

This work was supported by the Department of Surgery, Weill Cornell Medical College (YH); National Institutes of Health/National Cancer Institute pre-doctoral fellowship F31CA192813 (SED); National Institutes of Health/National Cancer Institute pre-doctoral fellowship F31CA213997 (RM); the Medical Scientist Training Program of General Medical Sciences of the NIH (T32GM007739) to the Weill

Cornell/Rockefeller/Sloan-Kettering Tri-Institutional MD-PhD Program (RM); the

National Center for Advancing Translational Sciences of the NIH (TL1-TR000459)

(CKG); the American Liver Foundation (PJW); the National Institutes of Health post-

doctoral fellowship F32AA025271 (PJW); the National Institutes of Health

R01DK090311 (WG), R01DK105198 (WG), R24OD017870 (WG), and the Claudia

Adams Barr Program in Innovative Basic Cancer Research (WG). Wolfram Goessling is

a Pew Scholar in the Biomedical Sciences. The content is solely the responsibility of the

authors and does not necessarily represent the official views of the National Institutes of

Health.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST
The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Synthetic sgRNAs outperform laboratory synthesized *in vitro* transcribed sgRNAs**.** (**A**) Dose-response comparison of editing in embryos injected with rCas9 and either an *in vitro* synthesized or synthetic sgRNA targeting *tyr*. Embryos were scored for melanocyte dropout at 48hpf and binned into 4 categories. The percentage of embryos in each condition is plotted. At the 1000pg sgRNA/2000pg rCas9 dose, there is a statistically significant increase in the editing observed with the synthetic sgRNA (p=<0.001, Chi-square). (**B**) Light microscopic images of representative embryos in each category. (**C**) CrisprVariants {Lindsay, 2016 #18} plot of indels in clones isolated from embryos injected with either synthetic or *in vitro* transcribed sgRNAs. 10/10 clones isolated from individual embryos injected with synthetic from sgRNAs contained indels and 7/10 clones isolated from embryos injected with IVT sgRNAs contained indels.

Figure 2. A genetic assay for optimizing homology-directed repair using b692 mutant zebrafish. (**A**) *mitfa*(b692) embryos uninjected (top), injected with rCas9, 951bp DNA template, and non-targeting sgRNA (middle) or *mitfa* sgRNA (bottom). All embryos shown at 48hpf. (**B**) Schematic depicting *mitfa* gene structure and location of the mutation in exon 7 in b692 mutants. The sgRNA location is indicated. Primers used for allele-specific PCR are displayed as orange arrows. A linear 951bp dsDNA template encodes a wild-type Ile codon at position 215 and additional nucleotide changes to prevent re-cleavage at the sgRNA recognition site (red). (**C**) Allele-specific PCR was performed on rescued embryos after microinjection with 951bp template and compared with uninjected embryos. (**D**) Sanger sequencing results of allele-specific PCR products from a phenotypically rescued embryo. The sequence read spans the template-genome junction and includes template specific barcoded nucleotides. (**E**) Chart depicting attributes of DNA template (left), a description of the template (middle) and observed rate of rescue in the b692-HDR assay (right).

Figure 3. Quantitative assessment of genome editing efficiency by next-generation sequencing. (**A**) Alignment of next generation sequencing reads from b692 genome edited embryos from the high rescue phenotype. Exon 7 of *mitfa* is displayed. The sgRNA sequence is highlighted in yellow. b692 mutants have a T>G mutation leading to an isoleucine to serine substitution at codon 215(*). The 951bp dsDNA template restores the wild-type isoleucine codon (ATC) and encodes nine additional barcoded nucleotides as indicated. Indels in sequencing reads are represented as gapped regions in black. (**B-E**) The fraction of reads at each barcoded nucleotide in the HDR template is plotted for each phenotype category.

Figure 4. Genome editing leads to precise fluorophore knock-in. (**A**) Schematic depicting *tyrp1b* locus. A linear, dsDNA template designed to lead to an in-frame EGFP knock-in is shown. (**B**) albino(b4) embryo injected with rCas9, *tyrp1b* synthetic sgRNA, and dsDNA template is photographed with light (top panel) or fluorescence (bottom panel) microscopy at 48hpf. (**C**) Allele-specific PCR was performed on uninjected or

HDR edited/GFP+ embryos at 48hpf. Only HDR-edited/EGFP-positive embryos had a
PCR amplicon. (**D**) Sanger sequencing from allele-specific PCR to detect template
integration. The sequence was aligned to reference (top). Barcoded nucleotides at the
sgRNA binding site consistent with template integration were identified. A representative
chromatogram is shown. (**E**) Confocal imaging reveals the presence of stellate EGFP-
positive melanocytes. (**F**) Schematic depicting *h3f3a* locus. A linear, dsDNA template
designed to lead to an in-frame EGFP knock-in is shown. (**G**) Wild-type embryo injected
with rCas9, *h3f3a* sgRNA, and dsDNA template is photographed with light (top panel) or
fluorescence (bottom panel) microscopy (48hpf). (**H**) Allele-specific PCR was performed
on uninjected or HDR edited/GFP+ embryos at 48hpf. Only HDR-edited/EGFP-positive
embryos had a PCR amplicon. (**I**) Sanger sequencing was performed from allele-
specific PCR to detect template integration. The sequence was aligned to reference
(top). Barcoded nucleotides at the sgRNA binding site, consistent with template
integration were identified. A representative chromatogram is shown. (**J**) Confocal
imaging reveals the presence of an EGFP-positive nuclei. (K-L) Immunofluorescent
images of F1 progeny showing transmission of EGFP from h3f3a-EGFP founder.
607
Figure 5. Knock-in of a synthetic dsDNA template encoding a fluorophore and bacterial
nitroreductase enables tissue-specific ablation. (**A**) Schematic outlining HDR template
design at the *fabp10a* locus. A 2.0kB template was designed to insert mScarlet-NTR as
a C-terminal fusion to the *fabp10a* gene, which has hepatocyte-specific expression. The
recovered allele from F_1 progeny confirms integration of mScarlet after the last coding
exon of *fabp10a*. (**B**) Allele-specific PCR was performed to confirm integration of the
template in mScarlet+ (mS+) embryos. (**C-F**) Mtz exposure induced hepatocyte injury in
fabp10a-mScarlet-NTR larvae. (**C**) Confocal imaging revealed loss of fluorescence in
the liver (outlined) of Mtz-treated but not DMSO-treated larvae. Remnants of ablated
hepatocytes were found distributed throughout the vasculature (arrowhead). **(D)**
Confocal imaging of liver in DMSO- and Mtz-treated larvae after injury. (**E**) At 48 hours
post injury (hpi), mScarlet signal was observed in the liver (outlined) of the Mtz-treated
larvae, demonstrating liver regeneration. **(F)** Confocal imaging of liver in DMSO and Mtz
treated larvae at 48 hpi. Scale bars are 200 μm (C,E) and 30 μm (D,F).
622
Supplementary Figure 1. Synthetic sgRNAs outperform *in vitro* synthesized sgRNA in
targeting *slc25a2* (golden) and *slc45a2* (albino). (**A**) Comparison of Alt-R® synthetic
sgRNA preparation and *in vitro* synthesis of sgRNAs. Left, Alt-R® synthetic sgRNAs are
prepared by duplexing a gene specific crRNA with a common tracrRNA. Right, IVT
sgRNAs are transcribed from a DNA template using RNA polymerase and purified. Both
sgRNAs are used with rCas9 and microinjected into embryos at the one-cell stage. (**B**)
Light microscopic images of representative embryos in each phenotypic category. (**C**)
Dose-response comparison of editing in embryos injected with rCas9 and either an *in*
vitro synthesized or synthetic sgRNA targeting *slc25a2*. Embryos were scored for
melanocyte dropout at 48hpf and binned into 4 categories. The percentage of embryos
in each condition is plotted. (D) Embryos injected with either IVT or synthetic sgRNA
targeting slc45a2 (albino). Representative embryos are shown. IVT sgRNA was

ineffective in inducing a mutant phenotype. Synthetic sgRNA induced a mutant
phenotype in virtually all injected embryos. (E) A clonal analysis was performed and
analyzed using CrisprVariants. IVT injected embryos showed no evidence of indels
(0/10 clones) and a synthetic sgRNA induced indels in 10/10 clones.
639
Supplementary Figure 2. Synthetic sgRNAs produce highly penetrant phenotypes in
F_0 injected animals. Wild-type (AB) embryos were injected with rCas9 and synthetic
sgRNA targeting *mlpha*. Uninjected larval animals (top) have normal stripe pattern.
Juvenile zebrafish (7 weeks post fertilization) injected with rCas9 and a synthetic
sgRNA targeting *mlpha* show reduced pigmentation and phenocopies an established
mutant.
646
Supplementary Figure 3. Synthetic sgRNA pairs induce deletions in genomic DNA. (**A**)
Schematic of a 126kB genomic region targeted for deletions. Guide locations are
marked in purple, and primers used for PCR are displayed as orange arrows. Guide
pairs were co-injected into 1-cell stage embryos. (**B**) Table of predicted PCR product
size after inducing deletions and observed deletion frequency in individual F_0 injected
embryos. (**C-F**) PCR amplicons from individual embryos were subjected to Sanger
sequencing and analysis. The observed deletion size is indicated.
654
Supplementary Figure 4. Germline transmission of edited alleles is achieved using
synthetic sgRNAs. (**A**) Sperm samples were collected from a CRISPR-injected potential
F_0 founder and assayed using CRISPR-STAT fluorescence-based genotyping. (**B-F**)
CRISPR-STAT results for tail clips from representative F_1 progeny, each carrying one of
the distinct alleles with specific insertions and deletions (del3, del4, del7, del11), as well
as the wild-type (WT) allele, transmitted from the F_0 founder. The number of F_1 offspring
identified with each genotype is identified in the bottom right of each panel. Relative
fluorescence levels (y-axis) are shown against fragment size in base pairs (x-axis) for
each genotyping assay. PCR products consistent with predicted wild type amplicon size
are indicated by red asterisks. (**G**) Indels in F_0 sperm predict alleles transmitted to the
germline. Percentages shown are calculated as area under the curve for each peak in
the indicated tissue from the F_0 founder. The frequencies of each mutation in the F_1
progeny were calculated from a total of 17 siblings from a cross between the F_0 male
parent and a WT female.
Supplementary Figure 5. Comparison of melanocyte phenotypes in mitfa mutants after
targeting *mitfa* using CRISPR/Cas9. (**A**) *mitfa*(w2) embryos were injected with rCas9
and a specific sgRNA near the mutation site. Ten representative embryos at 24hpf are
shown. Melanocyte rescue occurs in a significant fraction of embryos. (**B**)
CrispRVariants plot from *mitfa*(w2) embryos injected with rCas9 and nacre gRNA. A
majority of embryos harbor indels. (**C**) mitfa(b692) embryos were injected with rCas9
and a synthetic sgRNA near the b692 mutation site (b692 sgRNA). Uninjected wild-type
(AB) embryos (top, left) have pigmented melanocytes at 48hpf. Wild-type embryos
injected with rCas9 and b692 sgRNA (bottom, left) have a highly penetrant loss of
melanocytes. Uninjected *mitfa*(b692) embryos (top, right) lack pigmentation because of

the b692 mutation. *mitfa*(b692) embryos injected with rCas9 and the b692 sgRNA
(bottom, right) have no evidence of melanocyte rescue.
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682   **Supplementary Table 1.** sgRNA sequences. Sequences of sgRNA sequences are
683   noted with the PAM sequence in parentheses.
684
685   **Supplementary Table 2.** Primer sequences are listed for PCR reactions noted in the
686   text.
687
688

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Supplementary Figure 1

Uninjected AB

rCas9 + mlpha sgRNA

Supplementary Figure 2

A

chr5:34397610-34600530

foxd1   *fch02*

20kb

B

sgRNAs	Predicted deletion size	Observed deletion frequency
sgRNA1+2	0.45kb	5/10 (50%)
sgRNA3+4	4.3kb	7/24 (29%)
sgRNA2+4	52kb	3/8 (38%)
sgRNA1+5	124kb	2/23 (9%)

C

rCas9 + sgRNA1 + sgRNA2

5' sequence	3' sequence

T T G T T G C C A T C C G A A A G T T T T A T T T G T G C T C T T T G A A G G C C G T T T C C C A C A T T T A T C T C G C T A A T A G C T A C T C A G C G A C A G C

427bp deletion

D

rCas9 + sgRNA3 + sgRNA4

5' sequence	3' sequence

T T A A G A G A T C T G G G A T G G G A T C A T A A G T G C T G A A C A C T T T G C A G G G C C A C G C T G C A C C T T A A C C T A C A A T A A T A A A G C A A

4309bp deletion

E

rCas9 + sgRNA2 + sgRNA4

5' sequence	3' sequence

C A G A C A A C A G A T G C A A T G A T G T T G G A T C T T C A T C A G G G C C A C G C T G C A C C T T A A G C T A C A A T A A T A A A G C A A G C T G C C G T T

52,262bp deletion

F

rCas9 + sgRNA1 + sgRNA5

5' sequence		3' sequence

T G T T G C C A T C C G A A A G T T T T A T T T G T G C T C T T T G A A G G C A A C G A C T T A A A T A T A A A T C T T T A A G T C G T T A C T T C A C C A A A A A A G T G T

123,847bp deletion + 9bp insertion

Supplementary Figure 3

	F0 Sperm	F1 Progeny
del11	7.4%	5.9%
del7	58.9%	41.2%
del4	<5%	5.9%
del3	33.7%	23.5%
WT	<5%	23.5%
Total	100.0%	100.0%

Supplementary Figure 4

A

mitfa(w2)

B

C

AB

mitfa(b692)

Uninjected

rCas9 + b692 sgRNA

Supplementary Figure 5

Supplementary Table 1

sgRNA name	sgRNA Sequence
tyr	TGAAAGTTACAACCTCCGCG(AGG)
slc24a5 (golden)	GGTCTCTCGCAGGATGTTGC(TGG)
mitfa(w2)	AGGACTTCAAATGACAAACA(CGG)
mitfa(b692)	ATGACAGAATTAAGGAGCTG(GGG)
tyrp1b	CACTATCGCTATAGTTGCAG(TGG)
mlpha	AATGACCTCCCACACATGCT(TGG)
h3f3a	CAAGGATATCCAGCTTGCA(AGG)
non-targeting	TGCTGATGTCTTGGTTGAAT(TGG)
deletion_1	TGTGCTCTTTGAAGGCCATG(AGG)
deletion_2	TGTGGGAAACGGCATATATG(AGG)
deletion_3	AATCACCGAGAAATTGGAG(AGG)
deletion_4	CAGGCAGGATCAAAGAAGGC(AGG)
deletion_5	AATAGCTCATAAAGACGGTG(AGG)
slc6a15	GACTCCATCTCAGAGGGTGG(AGG)
fabp10a	GTGCAGACGCTGACAGTCGG(AGG)
slc45a2 (albino)	AAGGTTGATTATGCACGGGT(CGG)
wee1	TGATACCCCCCACACCCCAA(AGG)

Supplementary Table 2

Primer Name	Primer Sequence
tyr gRNA validation (F)	AATGTCGTTCACTCTGCTGTTG
tyr gRNA validation (R)	GTGACCGTGCTGTTGTACCTT
gol gRNA validation (F)	TGCTGGATGCCCTTGTCAAT
gol gRNA validation (R)	AAAGTAGGCGACACTGACGG
mitfa(w2) gRNA validation (F)	GTGGATTGAGGTTCCCTTCA
mitfa(w2) gRNA validation (R)	CGGATAATTCCCTTTTGACG
mitfa(b692) gRNA validation (F)	CAGAGCCCTGGCAAAAGAGA
mitfa(b692) gRNA validation (R)	TGTGTGCCTGCTGGGATTTA
mitfa_next_gen (F)	GCAGTTATTAATGATAATGTCTCG
mitfa_next_gen (R)	GGACTTAAGTAAATCAAGAAGTAGATC
tyrp1b gRNA validation (F)	ATGGAGCAGTTGAGGCTGTC
typ1b gRNA validation (R)	ATCCTCTGAGTAGCGCCTGA
mlpha gRNA validation (F)	CATTCAGTCTTTAAACATGG
mlpha gRNA validation (R)	AGTGTTAGACGATGTTAAA
h3f3a gRNA validation (F)	TCTTAGCGGAAGTGGTGCAA
h3f3a gRNA validation (R)	AACAGTTCCGGGCCTGAAAT
downstream_foxd1_deletion_1 (F)	TCACTGAGGCCTCTGACAGA
downstream_foxd1_deletion_2 (R)	TACTCCTTTGGACAGGGCCA
downstream_foxd1_deletion_3 (F)	CTCTGTGGTCTATTTCTCTCC
downstream_foxd1_deletion_4 (R)	CAGAAGGTGAAGCAGCCTCA
downstream_foxd1_deletion_5 (R)	ACCACGTCTTCAAGGGCTTC
fabp10a gRNA validation (F)	ATGGAGGAAAGCTGGTCTGC
fabp10a gRNA validation (R)	TGCTCTTCCTGATCATGGTGG
albino gRNA validation (F)	CGGCTGTTTTTGGAGTGGTG
albino gRNA validation (R)	ACCTTCACCCACCTGTTGTG
wee1 gRNA validation (F)	TGGACTCTCCAGTACCTTTGC
wee1 gRNA validation (R)	GCTCATCCACTAGGTAATGC
mitfa_HDR_detection (F)	GCTACAGTGATGACATTCTTGG
mitfa_HDR_detection (R)	GCATGATTGCTGTACATATCAAGCAAA
tyrp1b_HDR_detection (F)	CGACTGGCCTACAAGGTGAT
typ1b_HDR_detection (R)	CGCCGTCCAGCTCGACCA
h3f3a_HDR_detection (F)	AGGACACGTGCATGAAGTTT
h3f3a_HDR_detection (R)	GAACTTCAGGGTCAGCTTGC
fabp10a_HDR_detection_1 (F)	GGAAGGGCGTGGTCAAGTAT
fabp10a_HDR_detection_1 (R)	GAACTGAGGGGACAGGATG
fabp10a_HDR_detection_2 (F)	GCGAACGATAAAGGTCGCAAG
fabp10a_HDR_detection_2 (R)	CTCTGATGAATAAATACGGC