

1 **Single AAV-mediated scarless genome editing in dysfunctional retinal neurons**

2 **mediates robust visual restoration in mice**

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4 Short title: Single AAV scarless genome editing

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20 **The most versatile treatment for inherited disorders is to precisely replace a**
21 **mutated sequence with its wildtype counterpart, thereby “normalizing” the genome.**

22 **We developed a single AAV platform that allows this in retinal neurons with**
23 **combined CRISPR-Cas9 and micro-homology-mediated end-joining. In blind mice,**
24 **the platform rescued ~10% of the retinal neurons, resulting in an incredible**
25 **~10,000-fold improvement in light sensitivity, equivalent to the restoration**
26 **mediated by conventional gene augmentation therapy.**

27

28 Gene supplementation of wildtype copies of functionally defective genes (gene
29 augmentation) mediated by adeno associated virus (AAV) have shown remarkable success
30 in clinical trials for inherited neural disorders.^{1,2} However, its application is restricted to
31 limited genes within the capacity (~5,000 bps) of AAV.³ CRISPR-Cas9-mediated allele
32 knock-out based on error-prone non-homologous end joining (NHEJ) can correct gain-of-
33 function mutations with AAV.⁴⁻⁷ However, many loss-of-function mutations in larger genes
34 still require local replacement with a wildtype sequence (scarless genome editing).

35 Here, we used micro-homology-mediated end-joining (MMEJ) to integrate a donor
36 template with micro-homology arms of 20 bp⁸ as the basis for a new single-AAV platform

37 for scarless genome editing. First, we generated mutants of the preexisting retina-specific
38 promoters and conducted *in vivo* AAV reporter assays (Fig. S1a-c, Table S1). The smallest
39 promoter that maintained neural retina-specific transcription was a 93-bp mutant GRK1
40 promoter that allowed reporter expression in 65.5% of the photoreceptors (Fig. S1b-e). This
41 was used to drive SaCas9 (3.2 Kb) expression.

42 We tested our single-AAV vector platform in *Gnat1*^{IRD2/IRD2}/*Pde6c*^{cpfl1/cpfl1} mice
43 (double-mutant mice); the *Gnat1* and *Pde6c* defects caused functional lack of rod and cone
44 photoreceptors,⁹ respectively. The mice were essentially blind from birth and thus allowed
45 clear delineation of therapeutic effects.¹⁰ We used our platform to correct *IRD2* mutations in
46 *Gnat1*; these mutations constitute a homozygous 59-bp deletion in intron 4, preventing
47 protein expression in the rod photoreceptors¹¹, which comprise ~75% of the murine retinal
48 cells.¹² Six guide RNAs (gRNAs) designed flanking the mutation were assessed with a T7
49 Endonuclease 1 (T7E1) assay (Fig. S2). A gRNA pair (1+4) that excised the mutation most
50 efficiently was selected. The constructed single-AAV vector (Fig. 1a) was then injected sub-
51 retinally in 6-month-old double-mutant mice. Five weeks later, histology showed scattered
52 GNAT1-positive photoreceptors, indicating successful genome editing (Fig. 1b). T7E1
53 assay (Fig. 1c) and RT-PCR (Fig. 1d) of the whole retina revealed absolute editing
54 efficacies of 8.6% and 12.7% among the rod photoreceptors, respectively. Furthermore,

55 electroretinogram (ERG), which reflects the number of functional photoreceptors, revealed
56 6-Hz flicker responses, averaging 11.4% of the control mice (Fig. 1e). These results are
57 consistent with a ~10% rescue of the rod photoreceptors by genome editing.

58 Next, light sensitivity in the visual cortex was assessed with flash visually evoked
59 potentials (fVEPs). Surprisingly, cortical responses contralateral to the treated eye revealed
60 a ~10,000-fold (range: 1,000 – 100,000-fold) improvement in light sensitivity, equivalent to
61 gene augmentation in ~70% of the photoreceptors (Fig. 1f and g, S1e, S3).¹⁰ This was
62 reflected by changes in light-induced behavior (fear conditioning, Fig. 1h). Furthermore,
63 contralateral cortical responses to phase-reversal gratings, i.e., the pattern VEP (pVEP),
64 were detected in higher resolution gratings with larger amplitudes following the treatment,
65 indicating improved visual acuity (Fig. 1i). Threshold assessment by measuring optokinetic
66 responses to rotating gratings showed visual acuity restoration in the treated mice to 59.1%
67 of the control mice. (Fig. 1j).

68 On-target analysis of retinal genomic DNA with sequencing revealed an absolute
69 indel rate of 36.4% (Table S3), somewhat higher than previous reports^{13,14}. Three sites
70 predicted to have the highest off-target probabilities for each gRNA showed no detectable
71 mutation events in the retinal genomic DNA (Fig. S4) by the T7E1 assay. Further
72 sequencing of these sites found no mutations (Fig. S4).

73 We also used our AAV vector to treat 2-month-old *Gnat1*^{IRD2/IRD2} mice, which retain
74 cone function and serve as a model of human retinal dystrophy.¹⁵ In the early course of the
75 disease, patients suffer from severe loss of light sensitivity with preserved visual acuity.¹⁵ A
76 histological analysis showed scattered GNAT1-positive photoreceptors in the treated mice
77 (Fig. 2a). T7E1 assay and RT-PCR measured absolute genome editing efficacy at 7.5%
78 and 7.2%, respectively (Fig. S5a,b). fVEP showed a ~1,000-fold increase in light sensitivity
79 (Fig. 2b). This was confirmed behaviorally with fear conditioning (Fig. 2c). However, the
80 improvement in retinal function could not be isolated from preexisting cone function with
81 ERG and visual acuity remained unchanged with pVEP, or OKR (Fig. S5c-e). These results
82 show that our platform had therapeutic effects also in a human disease model.

83 This study shows that scarless genome editing allows a striking improvement in
84 light sensitivity, the major biomarker adopted in the seminal clinical trials for retinal
85 dystrophy.² Moreover, the effect was equivalent to that of conventional gene augmentation
86 therapy¹⁰, a platform that is already in clinical use,¹⁶ and was achieved with a single AAV
87 vector. This is a major step forward from the dual vector system used in previous studies on
88 donor-based *in vivo* genome editing in post-mitotic cells, which generally yielded an
89 absolute editing efficiency of less than ~5%^{13,14,17,18}, compared to ~10% shown herein.
90 Additional important advantages of scarless genome editing include physiological and

91 uniform expression of the target gene, neither of which is possible with gene augmentation.

92 This may be critically important to avoid dose-related toxicity caused by both gene over-

93 expression¹⁹ and under-expression²⁰, especially during long-term treatment in humans.

94 As a proof of concept, our platform for single AAV-mediated scarless genome

95 editing demonstrates amelioration of key features of dysfunctional neurons. This paves the

96 way to treat inherited neural disorders caused by loss-of-function mutations in larger genes,

97 for which conventional gene augmentation therapy or NHEJ-based genome editing

98 strategies are not currently feasible.

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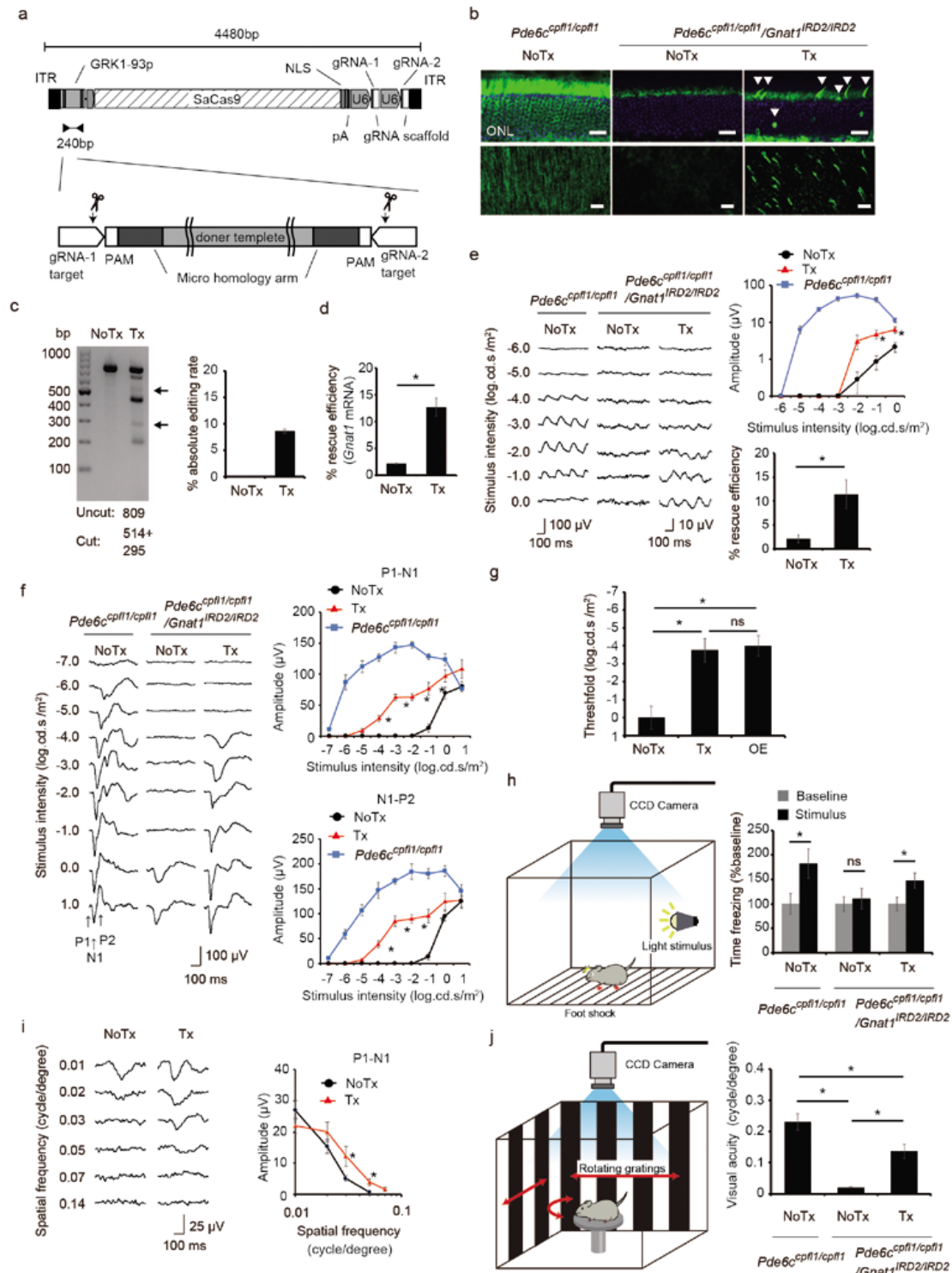
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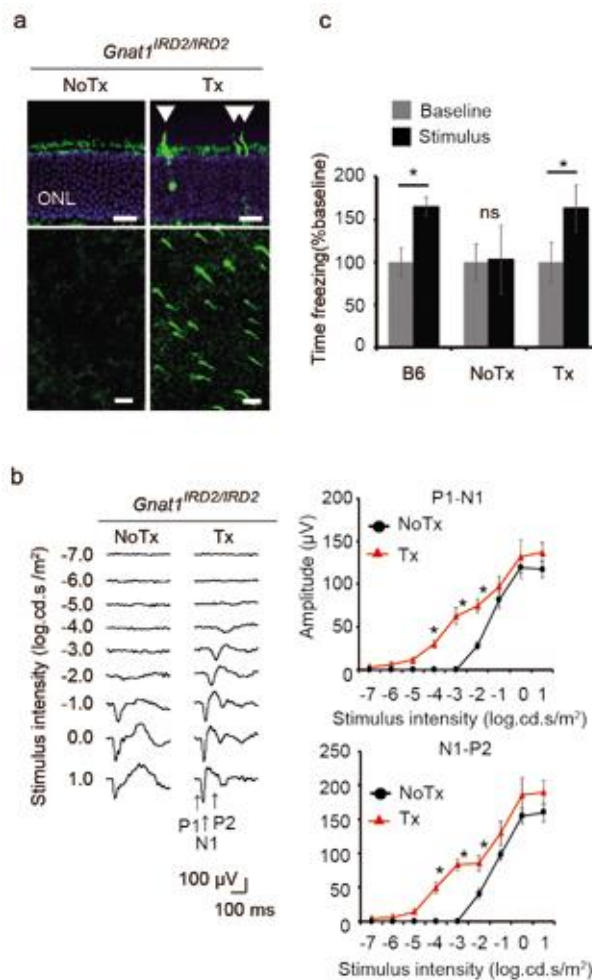


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123 **Fig 1. In vivo scarless genome editing and visual restoration in blind mice**

124 **a.** Design of the all-in-one vector with an enlarged map of the donor sequence. ITR,
125 inverted terminal repeat; NLS, nuclear localizing signal; pA, ploy A; PAM, protospacer
126 adjacent motif. **b.** GNAT1-positive photoreceptors (arrowhead) following genome editing in
127 a retinal section (top) and a flat mount (bottom). Scale bar: 20 μ m. **c.** T7E1 assay.
128 Representative image (left) and stats (right, N = 4). Arrows: size of cleaved fragments (also
129 indicated below). **d.** RT-PCR (N = 4). **e.** 6-Hz flicker ERGs in treated and untreated eyes of
130 the same *Pde6c^{cpfl1/cpfl1}Gnat1^{IRD2/IRD2}* mice (N = 6) and control *Pde6c^{cpfl1/cpfl1}* mice (N = 5). **f.**
131 fVEPs recorded from contralateral visual cortices of treated and untreated eyes of
132 *Pde6c^{cpfl1/cpfl1}Gnat1^{IRD2/IRD2}* mice (N = 9) and control *Pde6c^{cpfl1/cpfl1}* mice (N = 5). **g.**
133 Thresholds of fVEP. *Pde6c^{cpfl1/cpfl1}Gnat1^{IRD2/IRD2}* mice were treated either with genome
134 editing (N = 9) or *GNAT1* over-expression (OE, N = 6) or left untreated (N = 9). **h.** Fear
135 conditioning test. Freezing time before (Baseline) and during (Stimulus) presentation of
136 fear-conditioned light cue (N = 6 each). **i.** pVEPs from treated (N = 9) and untreated (N = 5)
137 *Pde6c^{cpfl1/cpfl1}Gnat1^{IRD2/IRD2}* mice. **j.** Optokinetic response in the treated (N = 10) and
138 untreated (N = 4) *Pde6c^{cpfl1/cpfl1}Gnat1^{IRD2/IRD2}* mice and untreated *Pde6c^{cpfl1/cpfl1}* mice (N =
139 6). Data represent the mean \pm S.E.M.; *P < 0.05; Tx, treated; NoTx untreated; OE, over-
140 expression; nd, non-detectable; ns, not significant.

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142

143 **Fig 2. In vivo scarless genome editing in a mouse model of retinal degeneration**

144 **a.** GNAT1-positive photoreceptors (arrowhead) following treatment of *Gnat1^{IRD2/IRD2}* mice

145 shown in a retinal section (top) and a flatmount (bottom). Scale bar: 20 µm. **b.** fVEPs

146 recorded from contralateral visual cortices in treated and untreated eyes of the same mice.

147 (N = 7). **c.** Fear conditioning test, showing freezing time before (Baseline) and during

148 (Stimulus) presentation of fear-conditioned light cue. Treated (Tx, N = 7) and untreated

149 (NoTx, N = 6) *Gnat1^{IRD2/IRD2}* mice and CL57B6 mice (B6, N = 6). Data represent the mean ±

150 S.E.M.; *P < 0.05; ONL, outer nuclear layer. ns, not significant.

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157

158 **Author contributions**

159 KMN conceived and designed the experiments. KMN and KF performed the experiments and
160 analyzed the data. SK helped in vitro experiments and gave critical advice. KMN and TN
161 wrote the manuscript and obtained the funding.

162

163 **Competing financial interests**

164 KMN, KF, and TN are listed as inventors in a patent application related to this work. The
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171 **Data availability**

172 The datasets generated during and/or analyzed during the current study are available from

173 the corresponding author on reasonable request.

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