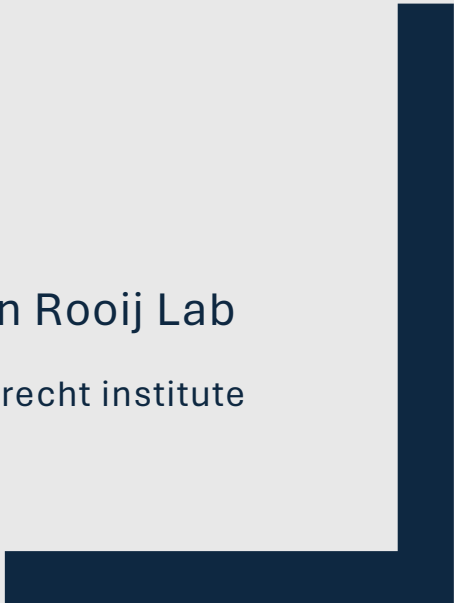


PREDICTIVE LITERATURE ANALYSIS AND IN VITRO EVALUATION OF ADENINE BASE EDITORS TARGETING THE LMNA-Q493X MUTATION IN MURINE FIBROBLASTS

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Abstract

Cardiac laminopathies (LMNA-DCM) are a LMNA-associated subgroup of dilated cardiomyopathy (DCM), and one of the most common types of familial DCM. LMNA is a gene coding for A-type lamins, which are proteins integral to the structure known as the nuclear lamina. They contribute to nuclear integrity, as well as mechanotransduction and genetic regulation. Currently, there is no cure available for cardiac laminopathies. Gene editing to correct LMNA-DCM causing mutations has provided an approach that could cure laminopathies. However, the heterogenous nature of LMNA mutations and limited data on the safety of targeting them, still poses a challenge. We therefore performed an in-depth literature analysis, collecting potential base editors for the treatment of cardiac laminopathies. We then used available data to predict the compatibility, efficiency, and safety of these editors in targeting the patient-derived LMNA-Q493X mutation. After selecting the editors predicted to be most safe and effective, we constructed them along with their sgRNAs, into lentiviral transfer vectors which we used to produce the lentiviral treatments. We subsequently treated primary murine liver fibroblasts from wildtype ($LMNA^{WT/WT}$), heterozygous- ($LMNA^{WT/Q493X}$) or homozygous mutant ($LMNA^{Q493X/Q493X}$) mice and evaluated the rate of transduction. Following this treatment, levels of *LMNA/C*, *LMNA* and *LMNC* transcripts were quantified. We found that lentiviral particles transduced the cell cultures with varying success, showing lower efficiency of transduction in highly dense cultures. We additionally showed that SpRYCas9-ABE9 with sgRNA3, as predicted by the data analysis, was most consistent in restoring the evaluated transcript levels *in vitro*.

Therefore, this study does not only contribute to the depth and quantity of available data on gene editing in cardiac laminopathies. It additionally sets a precedent for the use of predictive literature analyses in streamlining of the adaptation of gene therapy approaches. This facilitates the realization of gene therapy as a viable treatment option for all individuals suffering from cardiac laminopathies.

Layman's summary

LMNA is een gen dat codeert voor de eiwitten Lamin A en Lamin C. Deze eiwitten dragen bij aan de vorm en structurele integriteit van alle celkernen in het lichaam. Daarnaast kunnen ze ook een rol spelen in andere cel-processen zoals genetische regulatie en mechanotransductie. Mechanotransductie is het proces waarin een cel fysische krachten die op de cel uitgeoefend worden, om kan zetten in een biologische reactie. Zo kan een cel de stevigheid van zijn kern bijvoorbeeld aanpassen op toenemende krachten. Wanneer LMNA gemuteerd is, leidt het tot een groep aandoeningen, genaamd laminopathieën. Verschillende typen laminopathieën beïnvloeden verschillende organen. Een type laminopathie, namelijk de cardio-laminopathie, beïnvloedt de functie van het hart. Dit leidt vaak tot hartfalen, en hartritmestoornissen. Ondanks dat er therapieën beschikbaar zijn die de symptomen kunnen behandelen, is er op dit moment nog geen genezing voor cardio-laminopathieën.

Gentherapie zou een genezende behandeling kunnen vormen voor cardio-laminopathieën. Gentherapie is een verzamelnaam voor therapeutische middelen die een aandoening behandelen door de oorzakelijke mutatie te corrigeren. Een specifieke methode die valt onder 'gentherapie', is een groep enzymen genaamd '*base editors*' (BE). Deze BE's zijn ontworpen om één base aan te passen, en kunnen gebruikt worden wanneer de mutatie maar één nucleotidepaar omvat.

Echter, is het niet mogelijk om deze methoden op dit moment in de kliniek toe te passen. Deze uitdaging wordt veroorzaakt door het feit dat de enzymen die worden gebruikt om de mutatie te corrigeren, verschillend reageren in verschillende regio's van het DNA. De sequentie van het DNA om de mutatie heen, draagt dus bij aan het succes van zo'n BE. En omdat cardio-laminopathieën worden veroorzaakt door vele verschillende mutaties, is er niet genoeg informatie om te weten hoe een BE in al die verschillende regio's zal functioneren. Daarbij is er ook meer informatie nodig over de veiligheid van dit soort enzymen, en de kans dat zij een andere aanpassing aanbrengen dan de bedoelde correctie.

In deze studie, hebben wij een literatuuronderzoek uitgevoerd om te analyseren welke BE's het beste werken in veel genetische regio's. We hebben verschillende eigenschappen van deze BE's genoteerd en daarvan een overzicht gemaakt. Op basis van de eigenschappen die beschikbaar waren, hebben wij vervolgens een voorspelling gemaakt, met betrekking tot de BE's in de selectie die het meest efficiënt en veilig zijn in de regio van de patiënt-specifieke LMNA-Q493X mutatie (Glutamine positie 493 -> stop-codon). Deze mutatie introduceert een stop-codon, zo vroeg in het transcript, dat het mRNA dat hieruit volgt niet kan bijdragen aan een functioneel eiwit. Hierdoor is de concentratie van Lamin A en Lamin C in de cellen die deze mutatie dragen, veel lager dan in gezonde cellen. BE's maken gebruik van zogenaamde '*single-guide-RNAs*' (sgRNA). Dit zijn RNA strengen die complementair zijn aan de regio in het DNA die je wilt modificeren, en helpen met het begeleiden van de enzymen naar de juiste plek. Nadat we de beste sgRNA's hadden geselecteerd voor de genoemde BE's, hebben we ze samen ingepakt in lentivirale deeltjes. Deze virale deeltjes maken je niet ziek, maar kunnen er wel voor zorgen dat de BE's in de cellen terecht komen waar ze nodig zijn. Deze deeltjes hebben wij vervolgens gebruikt om cellen van muizen te behandelen. De cellen hebben we eerder geïsoleerd uit gezonde muizen, muizen die een heterozygote Q493X mutatie hadden, of muizen die een homozygote Q493X mutatie hadden. Om te bevestigen dat de deeltjes met de BE's ook daadwerkelijk in de cellen tot expressie komen, hebben we ook deeltjes gemaakt met de GFP (*green fluorescent protein*). Dit is een eiwit dat groen licht kan uitstralen wanneer het tot expressie komt. Vervolgens hebben we gekeken of de gezonde Lamin A en Lamin C coderende mRNA concentratie weer hersteld was.

We vonden in totaal 32 BE's die positieve kenmerken hadden en dus mogelijk te testen waren. Van die 32 BE's, waren er drie waarvan ook in de specifieke Q493X regio voorspeld werd dat zij het meest efficiënt en veilig waren. Dit bleken de volgende BE's te zijn: SpRYCas9-ABE8e, SpRYCas9-ABE9 en iABE-NGa. Na de behandeling van de geïsoleerde cellen, bleek dat de BE's niet in de cellen van elke muis even goed tot expressie kwamen. Wanneer de dichtheid van de cellen in het schaaltje waarin ze groeien te hoog was op de dag van de behandeling, kwamen de GFP-deeltjes

minder goed tot expressie. Verder blijkt uit ons onderzoek dat van de BE-sgRNA combinaties, de combinatie SpRYCas9-ABE9 met sgRNA 3 het meest consistent is in het herstellen van de mRNA concentratie. Dit is ook wat wij voorspelden op basis van de informatie die beschikbaar was uit andere studies.

Deze studie draagt dus bij aan de toename van informatie over BE's, met betrekking tot hun effectiviteit in het behandelen van cardio-laminopathie-gerelateerde mutaties. Bovendien laat het zien dat het meenemen van een voorspelling betreffende de efficiëntie en veiligheid van de BE's in de regio in het DNA die je wilt corrigeren, het makkelijker kan maken om deze methode aan te passen op de vele verschillende mutaties. Dit kan tijd en middelen besparen in het ontwikkelen van nieuwe gentherapieën voor cardio-laminopathieën. Kortom, door deze studie, zijn we een stap dichterbij het gebruik van genezende behandelingen voor cardio-laminopathieën.

Abbreviation list

8e.1	-	SpRY-ABE8e+sgRNA1
8e.2	-	SpRY-ABE8e+sgRNA2
8e.3	-	SpRY-ABE8e+sgRNA3
8e.4	-	SpRY-ABE8e+sgRNA4
9.3	-	SpRY-ABE9+sgRNA3
9.4	-	SpRY-ABE9+sgRNA4
A	-	Adenine
AAV	-	Adenovirus-associated virus
ABE	-	Adenine base editor
ACE	-	Angiotensin-converting enzyme
ANOVA	-	Analysis of variance
BE	-	Base editor
C	-	Cytosine
Cas	-	CRISPR-associated
CBE	-	Cytosine base editor
cDNA	-	Complementary DNA
CM	-	Cardiomyocyte
CO ₂	-	Carbon dioxide
CRISPR	-	Clustered regularly interspaced short palindromic repeats
D12f	-	nuclease deactivated Un1Cas12f1
DCM	-	Dilated cardiomyopathy
DMEM	-	Dulbecco's modified eagle medium
DNA	-	Deoxyribonucleic acid
EDMD	-	Emery-Dreifuss muscular dystrophy
FBS	-	Foetal bovine serum
G	-	Guanine
GFP	-	Green fluorescent protein
H ₂ O	-	Hydrogen dioxide
HEK	-	Human embryonic kidney
HEPES	-	2-(4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazinyl)-ethane sulfonic acid
HET	-	Heterozygous mutant
HGPS	-	Hutchinson-Gilford progeria syndrome
hiPSC	-	Human induced pluripotent stem cells
hiPSC-CM	-	hiPSC derived cardiomyocytes
HOM	-	Homozygous mutant
iABE-NGa	-	miniABE-SpCas9-NGa
ICD	-	Implantable cardioverter-defibrillator
iNGa.4	-	iABE-NGa+sgRNA4
LAD	-	Lamina-associated domain
LINC	-	Linker of nucleoskeleton and cytoskeleton
LMNA	-	Lamin A/C (gene)
<i>LMNA</i>	-	Lamin A transcript
LMNA-DCM	-	Cardio-laminopathy
<i>LMNA/C</i>	-	Lamin A/C transcripts
<i>LMNC</i>	-	Lamin C transcript
LV	-	Lentivirus

MAPK	-	Mitogen-activated protein kinase
mRNA	-	Messenger RNA
mTOR	-	Mammalian target of rapamycin
nTPM	-	Normalized transcripts per million
PAM	-	Protospacer adjacent motif
PCR	-	Polymerase chain reaction
POLR2A	-	RNA polymerase II subunit A
qPCR	-	Quantitative PCR
RNA	-	Ribonucleic acid
s.e.m.	-	Standard error of mean
sgRNA	-	single guide RNA
ssDNA	-	Single strand DNA
SUN1	-	SUN domain-containing protein 1
T	-	Tyrosine
TadA	-	Transfer RNA deaminase
WT	-	Wildtype

Introduction

Cardiac laminopathies (LMNA-DCM) are a subgroup of dilated cardiomyopathies (DCM) that are caused by a pathological mutation in the LMNA gene (1). Of the estimated 1 in every 250 individuals that experience DCM, up to 50% has a genetic cause. Of the number of patients with familial DCM, up to 8% is a result of a LMNA mutation, making it one of the most common genetic DCM causes (2,3). All individuals carrying such a mutation, experience symptoms by the age of 60 indicating an age-related full penetrance (1). DCM characteristically portrays left ventricular dilation and dysfunction in the heart. With cardiac laminopathies in particular, these signs are accompanied by cardiac conduction defects, and skeletal muscle deficits(1). Interestingly, the heterogeneity seen in the clinical presentation of this disease, both in age of onset and symptoms, is vast (4). Upon onset, the prognosis is poor in comparison to other types of familial DCM, with LMNA mutation carrying DCM patients having an increased rate of mortality, transplantation, and occurrence of major cardiac events compared to non-LMNA mutation carrying DCM patients (5). Apart from that, the mortality rate of cardiac laminopathy patients is up to 4 times as high as the standard population (6).

The LMNA gene codes for A-type lamins. A-type lamins are filamentous proteins that contribute to, and reinforce, the structural integrity of the nuclear lamina. The nuclear lamina is part of the nuclear envelope, a structure that encompasses the nuclear contents (7). A-type lamins typically have a genetic structure that can be divided into a head-, coil-, and tail domain.

Lamin A and Lamin C are the two isoforms that can be produced from transcripts of the LMNA gene(8). The distinction between these isoforms can be made based on their tail domain. Lamin A, through alternative splicing, includes exons 11 and 12, which are absent in Lamin C. This leads to Lamin A containing a longer tail domain that includes a C-terminal CaaX motif. This motif enables the post-translational processing of Lamin A (9). Lamins A and C self-assemble to form the nuclear lamina (10,11).

In addition to the reinforcement of the nuclear envelope, Lamins A and C impact both mechanotransduction- and genetic regulatory pathways. Mechanotransduction entails the adaptation of cellular processes in response to mechanical stresses that act on the cell (12). The nuclear lamina can relay signals from outside the cell through the linker of nucleoskeleton and cytoskeleton (LINC) complex (13), and use them to regulate durability (14), cellular identity (15), and other features of cellular function. This process can be facilitated by the regulation of gene expression (12). A-type lamins can for example bind to lamina associated domains (LADs) in the chromatin to rearrange it or restrict its movement (16,17). Additionally, they can bind proteins to enact DNA-protective and DNA-regulatory features (18,19). In summary, A-type lamins are a group of proteins essential for cellular durability and adaptability to mechanical stresses.

Mutations in this gene therefore affect many different cellular processes, primary related to structural integrity, mechanotransduction, and gene regulation. Mutations in LMNA can for instance result in nuclear deformity and disruption leading to an increase in apoptosis and desmin mislocalization, as described by Nikolova et al. (20). Additionally, LMNA mutation leads to altered mechanotransduction. Chen et al. reported that LMNA mutations can impact levels of the LINC complex protein SUN1 leading to its accumulation and disruption of nuclear functions (21). Furthermore, as described by Mounkes et al., mutations in the LMNA gene can cause mislocalization of connexins, which normally assemble to form gap junctions essential for electrical signal conduction in the heart (22). This is potentially a consequence of disturbed cytoskeletal dynamics, as shown in a study conducted by Macquart et al (23). Moreover, as described by multiple studies, LMNA mutations influence the localization of the earlier mentioned LADs in a mutation-specific manner. This feature not only influences genetic expression directly, but also rewrites the epigenetic profile of certain regions of the genome (24–26). Other ways in which LMNA mutation influences genetic expression, are through the

interactions with gene regulatory proteins, and proteins from numerous signaling cascades, including the MAPK and mTOR signaling pathways (27–30).

Currently, standard practice in the treatment of cardiac laminopathies focuses on managing symptoms. In addition to drugs like ACE inhibitors and beta blockers, the implantation of an implantable cardioverter defibrillator (ICD) can be considered. However, while heart transplantation is the only resolving treatment type, it is not curative (4). All of these treatment options carry considerable risks ranging from bradycardia, to graft failure and mortality (4,31,32). Novel treatment options target signaling pathways affected by LMNA mutations, such as mTOR and MAPK signaling cascades, which are hyperactivated upon LMNA mutation (28,33,34). The aim of these therapies is to reverse the hyperactivation and alleviate or manage symptoms (34,35). Recently, a promising variant of this type of pharmacological therapy, had been ARRY-371797 (a selective p38alpha MAPK inhibitor), as it showed improvements of functional capacity in phase 2 trials (36). However, the phase 3 REALM-DCM trial was terminated early after failure to produce a significant effect (37). A potential reason for the lack of clinical success for this type of treatment, could be the fact that a singular process is being targeted, while LMNA mutation alters a significant range of processes. To combat the many facets of LMNA-DCM, there is therefore a dire need for a curative approach to cardiac laminopathies, that targets the issue at the source.

A potential approach that accomplishes this, is the application of gene editing. There is, however, limited data concerning gene editing therapies in cardiac laminopathies. The types of mutations found in LMNA-DCM can be very heterogenous leading to a vast diversity of potential gene therapy approaches. A few examples that have been studied, are the direct classical CRISPR-Cas approach to mutation as shown in the study conducted by Salvarani et al (38). Additionally, the replenishing of Lamin A/C levels through transgenic expression in a knockout model of LMNA has been studied(39). Furthermore, exon skipping is an approach with considerable potential in combatting missense mutations, by skipping the exon with the pathological mutation (40). Most of these attempts have had a set-up in which a proof-of-concept had been achieved, but few formed a solid basis to develop treatments. For this to be feasible, there needs to be more data on the safety profile of genetic editing approaches in the LMNA context, when trying to edit LMNA-DCM specific mutations *in vivo*. This is essential to prevent the unintended introduction of a potentially pathological mutation. The limited data currently available predominantly focuses on the efficiency of editing and to a smaller degree on the restoration of cellular- and cardiac function, though data on these topics is scarce as well.

There have however been numerous reports of gene editing, specifically base editing, of other inherited cardiomyopathies, including other DCM mutations. These reports do include an analysis into off-target effects and delivery (41–45). Adenine base editing (ABE) is a type of gene editing that modifies a single nucleotide from an adenine (A) to a guanine (G), changing the base pair from an A-T to a G-C basepair (46). The group of ABEs were developed, inspired by the mechanism of the already existing cytosine base editors (CBEs). As a single stranded DNA (ssDNA) adenine deaminase does not naturally occur, directed evolution of a transfer RNA deaminase (TadA) was used to develop ABE 7.10 as reported by Gaudelli et al. in 2017 (47).

Since 2017, ABE7.10 has been improved upon several times. Different Cas9 and deaminase variants have been combined and modified over the past 6-7 years to develop base editors with more favorable properties. On top of that, deep learning based computational tools have been developed, that can predict the suitability of different base editors and guide RNAs for a specific locus. These tools, such as DeepABE, facilitate the characterization of the adenine base editing landscape around a target locus, using fewer experiments (48). Recently a study reported by Yang et al. described a murine model in which they used DeepABE to predict the efficiency of multiple single guide RNAs in restoring a point mutation through adenine base editing in LMNA, with low rates of bystander editing. Then, they compared a small selection of different deaminases, Cas9 variants and delivery systems, in their impact on *in vivo* editing efficiencies. The predicted degree

of editing in the target adenine compared to the bystander adenines, correlated considerably with the *in vivo* measured pattern of efficiencies. With this, they underlined the potential within the LMNA locus, of predictive analytics and their use in the development of a base editing approach (49).

Experiments performed in the lab prior to this study, showed a haploinsufficiency of both *LMNA* and *LMNC* transcripts in Q493X heterozygous mutant ($LMNA^{WT/Q493X}$) human induced pluripotent stem cell derived cardiomyocytes (hiPSC-CMs) (Fig. 1a, b). Additionally, reduced Lamin A and Lamin C protein levels were shown (Fig. 1c) and nuclear roundness, a measure for normal nuclear morphology, was reduced in these mutant hiPSC-CMs (Fig. 1d). Upon treatment with an adenine base editor (iABE-NGa), evidence of a degree of editing was found (Fig. 1e), and the samples portrayed a recovery in *LMNA* and *LMNC* transcript levels (Fig. 1e).

In this study, we aim to analyze, select, and predict the most suitable and safe combinations of adenine base editors and their associated guides. We selected base editors and guides that are effective, with a low chance of bystander editing. We then aimed to determine which of the selected combinations is most effective in restoring baseline *LMNA/C* transcription levels in primary murine fibroblasts. We hypothesize that at least one of the selected combinations will restore this feature significantly more effectively than the other combinations. To this end, we treat cultured murine liver fibroblasts from wildtype ($LMNA^{WT/WT}$), heterozygous mutant ($LMNA^{WT/Q493X}$), and homozygous mutant ($LMNA^{Q493X/Q493X}$) mice with all the selected base editor constructs, and we analyze *LMNA/C*, *LMNA* and *LMNC* mRNA levels in the isolated RNA using quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) analysis. In this study, the restoration of the level of these transcripts is taken as a readout measure for editing efficiency. We found that base editors SpRYCas9-ABE8e, SpRYCas9-ABE9 and iABE-NGa were predicted to be most efficient in editing the mutation while minimizing bystander editing based on previous data. We were able to design respectively four, two and one sgRNAs that fulfilled those requirements. Finally, we found that of the combinations of base editors with guides, SpRYCas9-ABE9 with sgRNA 3 was most effective in consistently restoring *LMNA/C*, *LMNA* and *LMNC* expression levels.

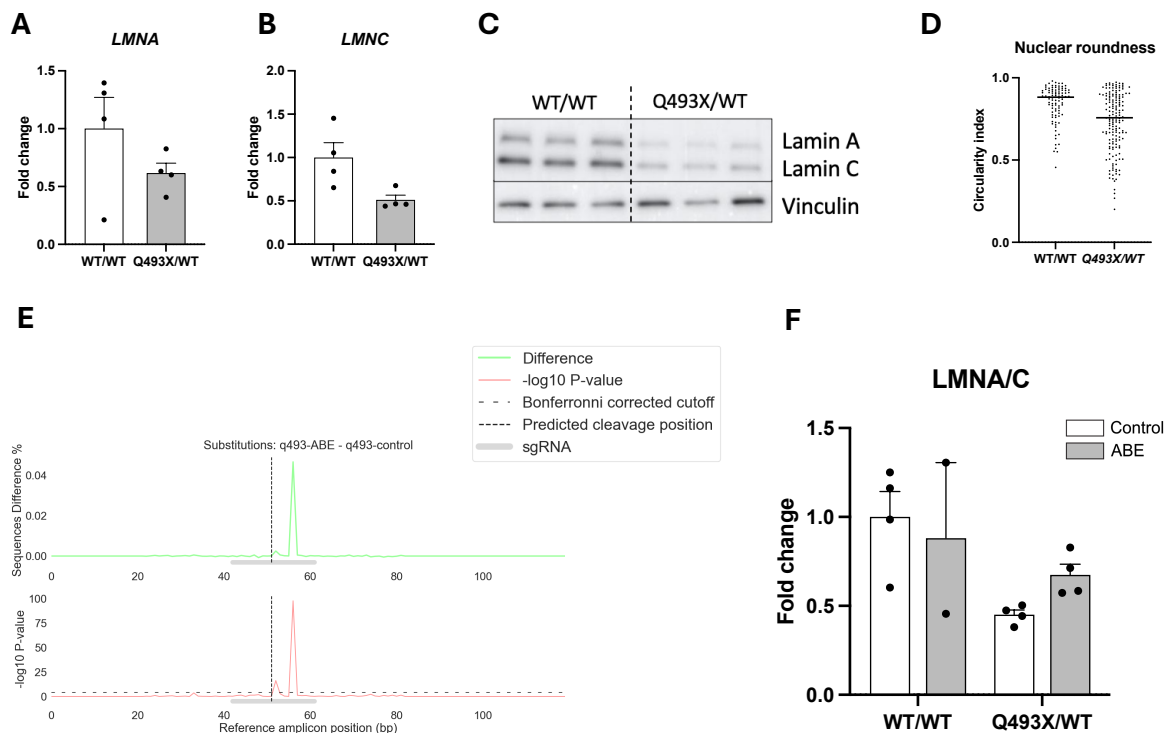


Figure 1 iABE-NGa base editing of LMNA to restore the LMNA/C mRNA levels in Q493X mutant hiPSC-CMs. A) LMNA mRNA transcript levels in wildtype (WT/WT) and heterozygous mutant (Q493X/WT) hiPSC-CMs. B) LMNC mRNA transcript levels in WT/WT and Q493X/WT hiPSC-CMs. C) Lamin A and C protein levels in WT/WT and Q493X/WT hiPSC-CMs. D) Nuclear circularity in WT/WT and Q493X/WT hiPSC-CMs. E) Graph illustrating the percentage in sequence difference between an untreated and iABE-NGa treated sample of mutant (Q493X/WT) hiPSC-CMs, at different positions in a selected amplicon. This difference indicates the degree of modification of the target base. F) LMNA/C total mRNA transcript levels WT/WT and Q493X/WT hiPSC-CMs, treated with either a control. or with iABE-NGa.

Materials and methods

Restriction enzyme cloning

To produce iABE-NGa c-terminal and n-terminal intein lentiviral transfer plasmids, the base editor constructs were PCR amplified from their original plasmids (appendix 1 and 2; as present in the lab) using primers that contained overhangs compatible with AgeI and XhoI restriction enzymes (Supp. Table 1). These PCR amplicons were subsequently restricted using AgeI (NEB R3552) and XhoI (NEB R0146) restriction enzymes and ligated into (AgeI and XhoI) restricted lentiviral transfer vector backbones (pLVX-) using T4 DNA ligase (NEB M0202). This resulted in the lentiviral transfer vectors pLVX-iABE-NGa-C-term and pLVX-iABE-NGa-N-term.

pLVX-SpRY-Cas9- C-term, pLVX-SpRY-Cas9-ABE8e- N-term and pLVX-SpRY-Cas9-ABE9-N-term inteins were available from our inventory and produced in previous experiments.

Subsequently, sgRNAs were cloned into all lentiviral transfer plasmids through T4 DNA ligation between BsmBI-v2 (NEB R0739) restricted transfer plasmid backbones and sgRNA-oligo's containing compatible overhangs. The plasmid maps can be found in appendix 3 to 7.

All ligations were transformed into DH5 α competent cells, and DNA was extracted and purified using a Purelink Quick Plasmid Miniprep Kit (Invitrogen: K210011). Samples were sent for Sanger sequencing to confirm successful cloning of sgRNA's (Supp. Fig.2), and to confirm sequence alignment to desired constructs (sequencing primers: Supp. Table 3).

Lentiviral production and titer determination

Human embryonic kidney (HEK)293T cells were seeded in 100mm dishes and passaged 24hrs before lipofectamine 3000 (CAT: L3000015) transfection. Six hours after transfection, the medium was refreshed. 48 hours after transfection, the virus containing medium was collected and filtered (Carl Roth, 0.45um (KH55.1)) and subsequently stored at -80°C. To produce the different lentiviral particles, 7ug of the transfer plasmid (appendix 3-7) was combined with 3ug of a lentiviral envelope plasmid (pMD2G: appendix 8) and 8ug of a lentiviral packaging plasmid (psPAX2: appendix 9). This resulted in experimental lentiviral particles (LV) containing pLVX-SpRY-Cas9-C-term intein with sgRNA 1, 2, 3 or 4, pLVX-SpRY-Cas9-ABE8e-N-term intein with sgRNA 1, 2, 3 or 4, pLVX-SpRY-Cas9-ABE9-N-term intein with sgRNA 3 or 4, pLVX-iABE-NGa-C-term intein with sgRNA 4 and pLVX-iABE-NGa-N-term intein with sgRNA4. Additionally, a reporter lentivirus (LV-GFP) was produced.

Lentiviral titer was determined using Lenti-X qRT-PCR titration kit (TAKARA Bio: 631235) after isolation using Nucleospin Viral RNA isolation (Macherey-Nagel: 740956.50) (supp. Table 4).

Fibroblast isolation

Murine liver tissue was dissected from wildtype (LMNA^{WT/WT}), heterozygous mutant (LMNA^{WT/Q493X}) and homozygous mutant (LMNA^{Q493X/Q493X}) BL6N mice and homogenized. Samples were digested in DMEM (Gibco:11965092) supplemented with 1% HEPES (Sigma:12103C), 10% Liberase TL (Roche: 54401020001) and 2% DNase (Worthington: LK003172) using a dissociator (gentleMACS). The cells are subsequently strained (GBO, 70 um (542070)). Cells were then neutralized, washed and resuspended with DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS.

Cell culture

HEK293T cells were cultured in DMEM and transferred to Opti-MEM (Gibco: 11058021) for lipofectamine 3000 transfection.

Primary murine fibroblasts were cultured in DMEM supplemented with 5% FBS and 0,2% primocin (invivogen: ant-pm-1). All cells were cultured at 37°C in a humidified environment with 5% CO₂.

Lentiviral transduction and reporting

Primary murine liver fibroblasts were counted using a cell counter and 40,000 cells were seeded per well on 12-well plates. Samples from every individual mouse were seeded on a separate plate. One well per plate was subjected to LV-GFP reporter lentivirus for further transduction analysis. The remaining wells were subjected to one of the treatment options at a dose of 1000 viral genomes per cell. This includes the combination LV-SpRY-Cas9-Cterm+LV-SpRY-Cas9-ABE8e-Nterm (1000 viral genomes per intein per cell) with sgRNAs 1, 2, 3, or 4, as well as the combination LV-SpRY-Cas9-Cterm+LV-SpRY-Cas9-ABE9-Nterm (1000 viral genomes per intein per cell) with sgRNAs 3 or 4, and the combination LV-iABE-NGa-Cterm+ LV-iABE-NGa-Nterm (1000 viral genomes per intein per cell) with sgRNA 4. The remaining 4 wells were used as untreated control samples. Virus particles were suspended in DMEM supplemented with 5% FBS and 0,2% primocin. Cells were refreshed every 48 hours with DMEM supplemented with 5% FBS and 0,2% primocin. Cells were incubated at 37°C in a humidified environment with 5% CO₂. On days 0, 3 and 7 images were taken to indicate cell density prior to treatment using the brightfield channel and rate of transduction using the GFP channel (life technologies EVOS-FL: 12-563-460).

RNA isolation and quantitative polymerase chain reaction analysis

On day 7 of treatment, total RNA was extracted from samples using TRIzol reagent (Invitrogen: 15569-026/018). Chloroform (BOOM: 76025322.2500) was used to separate RNA containing aqueous phase from DNA and organic material. Isopropyl alcohol (Macron fine chemicals: 15518744) was used to precipitate RNA, which was subsequently washed with 70% ethanol (BOOM: 84010059.500). RNA samples were then resuspended in RNase free H₂O (Macherey-Nagel: 740378.1000) and concentration was measured using a microvolume spectrophotometer (NanoDrop-2000). Following this the single stranded RNA samples are used to synthesize cDNA using an iscript cDNA synthesis kit (Bio-Rad: 1708891).

Quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) analysis was performed using iQ SYBR Green supermix (Bio-Rad:1708885), and analyzed using a CFX384 Touch Real-Time PCR System (Bio-Rad:1855484). LMNA/C total, LMNA and LMNC specific primers were used to target these transcripts (supp.Table.2). RNA Polymerase II subunit A (*POLR2A*) was used as a housekeeping gene to normalize cDNA content between samples. *LMNA/C* total, *LMNA* and *LMNC* relative expression for each condition was normalized to the relative expression shown in the wildtype samples subjected to the same experimental condition.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using PRISM (GraphPad Version 10.2.3). Data is presented as mean +/- s.e.m. ($n \leq 3$). Data was transformed using $\sin(Y)$ (*LMNA/C* tot relative expression), \sqrt{Y} (*LMNA* relative expression) and $\log(Y)$ (*LMNC* relative expression) transformations, to improve normality and homoscedasticity of residuals and allow appropriate statistical tests (Supp. Fig. 1). An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to test statistical significance. The threshold for statistical significance was $\alpha=0,05$.

Deaminase	Cas-enzyme	PAM sequence	Editing window	Optimal protospacer length	Optimisation (In comparison to SpCas9-ABE7.10)	Delivery method <i>in vivo</i>	Model in original article		Source
							<i>In vitro</i> :	<i>in vivo</i> :	
ABE7.10	SpCas9	NGG	4-7	20	-	-	HEK293T cells		(47)
ABE7.10	xCas9	NG, GAA, GAT	4-8	20	Improved PAM applicability	-	HEK293T cells		(50)
ABE7.10	KKH-SaCas9	NNNR RT R= purines	3-14 (highly active 8-13)	20	Improved PAM applicability, reduced size	RNA mixture injected into zygote	HEK293T cells	Mouse /Rat embryos	(51,52)
ABE7.10	VQR-Cas9	NGA	~3-8*	20	Improved PAM applicability	RNA mixture injected into zygote	HEK293T cells	Mouse/ Rat embryos, Zebrafish	(51,53)
ABEmax	SpCas9	NGG	4-7	20	Improved efficiency	-	HEK293T cells, patient derived fibroblasts, N2A cells		(54)
ABEmax	exCas9	NGG, NGA, NGT		20	Improved efficiency regardless of genomic site	RNA mixture injected into zygote		Rabbit embryos	(55)
ABEmax-AW	SpCas9	NGG	4-8	20	Reduced off target editing	-	HEK293T cells/ HeLa cells		(56)
ABE7.10-F148A	SpCas9	NGG	~4-6*	20	Reduced off target editing	-	HEK293T cells		(57)
SECURE-ABE's	SpCas9	NGG	4-7	20	Reduced RNA off target editing, reduced size	-	HEK293T cells/ HepG2 cells		(58)
ABE8e	SpCas9	NGG	4-8	20	Reduced size, Improved Cas enzyme applicability, Improved efficiency	-	HEK293T cells		(59)
ABE8e	SaCas9	NNRR T	3-14	22	Reduced size, Improved PAM applicability	-	HEK293T cells		(59)
ABE8e	dLbCas12a	TTTV V=A,C,G	4-18	23	Improved PAM applicability (wider range)	-	HEK293T cells		(59)
ABE8e	KKH-SaCas9	NNNR RT	3-14 (optimal 8-13)	22	Reduced size, Improved PAM applicability	Single vector system using AAV8 (60)	HEK293T cells	Mouse (60)	(59)
ABEmax	SpRYCas9	NRN>N YN	~3-9	20	PAM-less	-	HEK293T cells		(61)
ABE8e	SpRYCas9	NRN>N YN	~3-11	20	PAM-less	-	HEK293T cells, HeLa cells		(62)
ABE8e-WQ	SpCas9	NGG	4-8*	20	Reduced cytosine activity, reduced RNA off-target editing	-	HEK293T cells		(63)
TaC9ABE	SpCas9	NGG	5-6 (6bp spacer)	20	'Eliminate' Cas9 dependent off target editing	-	HEK293T, HeLa & U2OS cells		(64)
ABE8e	Nme2Cas9	NNNN CC	2-19 (optimal 6-17)	24	Reduced size	Single vector system using AAV9 (65)	HEK293T cells, N2A cells	Mouse (65)	(60)
ABE8e	SauriCas9	NNGG	3-16	21	Reduced size	Single vector system using AAV8	HEK293T cells, N2A cells	Mouse	(60)
ABE8e	CJCas9	NNNV RYAC	2-18 (optimal 3-15)	23	Reduced size	Single vector system, no AAV specified (66)	HEK293T cells, N2A cells	Mouse (66)	(60)
ABE9	SpCas9	NGG	5-6	20	Reduced editing window, reduced bystander editing	RNA mixture injected into zygote	HEK293T cells, HeLa cells	Rodents	(67)
ABE8e-V106W	denLbCas12a	NTTN, TYCN, TRTV	8-12	23	Improved PAM applicability, Improved efficiency, reduced off target effects	-	HEK293T cells		(68)
ABE8e (monomer)	d12f (nuclease deactivated Un1Cas12f1)	TTTR	N** - 2-4 DS*** - 4-6 CL**** - complex window	20	Improved PAM applicability, reduced size, relatively modest efficiency	-	HEK293T cells		(69)
ABE8.17	SpRYCas9	NRN>N YN	3-8	20	LMNA context incorporated, improved efficiency, PAM-less.	RNA mixture injected into zygote		Mouse /Rabbit embryo's, Rabbit	(70)
ABE8.17-NL	SpCas9	NGG	2-4	20	LMNA context incorporated, improved specificity.	RNA mixture injected into embryo		Rabbit	(70)
ABE8e	eNme2-T.1 Cas9	NNNN TN	7-12	23/24	Improved PAM applicability, at comparable or improved efficiency and off-target effects to SpRYCas9	Not tested <i>in vivo</i> here, should fit in an AAV	HEK293T, HUH7, and U2OS cells		(71)
ABE8e	eNme2-T.2 Cas9	NNNN TN	7-12	23	Improved PAM applicability, at comparable or improved efficiency and off-target effects to SpRYCas9	Not tested <i>in vivo</i> here, should fit in an AAV	HEK293T, HUH7, and U2OS cells		(71)
ABE8e	eNme2-C Cas9	NNNN CN	9-16	23/24	Improved PAM applicability, at comparable or improved efficiency and off-target effects to SpRYCas9	Not tested <i>in vivo</i> here, should fit in an AAV	HEK293T, HUH7, and U2OS cells		(71)
ABE8e	Nme2Cas9 (i1)	NNNN CN	1-17	24	Improved PAM applicability, improved activity, reduced size	Single vector system using AAV9	N2A cells, HEK293T cells,	Mouse	(72)
miniA BE-GG	SpCas9-NGa	NG	4-8	20	Increasing precision: high on target editing, lower off target	Split intein dual-AAV system, using AAV9	HEK293T cells, N2A cells	Mouse	(73)
ABE8e	SpGCas9	NGN	4-8	20	Improved PAM applicability	Split intein dual AAV-system, using AAV9	HEK293T cells	Mouse	(74,75)

Table 1 - Overview of adenine base editor properties.

Extensive analysis on adenine base editors and their properties. This includes descriptive properties, such as the enzymatic effector (deaminase) and CRISPR associated protein (Cas-) component of these editors, as well as the preferred protospacer adjacent motif (PAM) sequence, editing window, and protospacer length. Additionally, the optimizations of the base editor in comparison to SpCas9-ABE7.10 are mentioned, as well as whether the packaging of the editor in Adeno-associated virus (AAV) vectors was achieved. Lastly, the model the editor was studied in, whether that be *in vitro* or *in vivo*, was described.

* Editing window deduced from provided figure; ** N-terminal docking of ABE8e monomer; *** internal docking site ABE8e monomer; **** C-terminal docking of ABE8e monomer.

Results

An in-depth literature evaluation revealed 32 possible base editor constructs with advantageous features

In preparation for the selection of the base editors, we performed an extensive literature analysis compiling and comparing data to aid in the prediction of safety, efficiency, and applicability of these editors, in our study (Table 1). Several different factors impact these traits.

To start, we were interested in the protospacer adjacent motif (PAM) sequence of each base editor. The PAM is a conserved sequence, the presence of which is required in the genetic context adjacent to the intended protospacer, to enable hybridization. This motif is located at the 3' end of the protospacer (often positions 21-24). The PAM sequence is dictated and unique to each Cas enzyme. The restrictions imposed by the PAM sequence impact the applicability of the base editor to the genetic context of interest (76). This poses a problem for hard to target genetic loci, that do not contain specific PAM sequences. As a potential solution to this problem, Cas enzymes with increasing flexibility in PAM compatibility were designed. This includes the genetically engineered SpRYCas9 enzyme in particular, as base editors carrying this enzyme are virtually PAM-less. They accommodate both NRN and NYN PAMs, although the NRN PAMs seem to lead to more efficient editing (61).

Another feature, essential for the base editor's efficiency and safety, is the editing window. This is the range within the protospacer in which the deaminase can modify bases. Within the genetic context of interest, the requirement for this window is, that it is wide enough to contain the mutation, in case of a restrictive PAM. Optimally, the mutation is positioned at the site in the active window with the highest editing efficiency. Additionally, the editing window must be narrow enough, to avoid the introduction of bystander edits in adjacent adenines (46). An example of a deaminase that has been engineered to contain a narrow editing window, is ABE9. This deaminase has an editing window spanning from position 5 to 6 in the protospacer, while upholding an average editing efficiency of ~75% at position 5, and ~65% at position 6 (67).

An additional characteristic that is relevant in the search for an appropriate base editor, is the protospacer length. As the editing window is annotated in reference to the first nucleotide in the protospacer, and the PAM sequence encompasses the last few nucleotides in the protospacer, a longer protospacer length increases the distance between the PAM and the active window. This influences the applicability of the editor in the genetic context of interest, give the requirement that the editing window contains the mutation (46). Overall, this length seems to be ~20 bases long, with exceptions up to around 24 bases (Table 1).

Moreover, the specific optimizations attributed to the base editors, as noted in Table 1, are included in our analysis. Every time a new base editor was developed, a feature of that editor was preferable to their predecessor. First, reducing the size of the base editor constructs is a key optimization. This reduction in size will in time lead to a more effective delivery of base editors, for instance by increasing the likelihood that the editor meets the size requirement for certain single-vector delivery systems. This reduction in size can be achieved by swapping out the traditional SpCas9 enzyme with a smaller Cas9 variant, such as SauriCas9(60). In addition, the size can be reduced by replacing the standard dimer TadA deaminase with a monomer TadA deaminase such as with the 'SECURE-ABEs', which therefore fall under the category of 'miniABE's'(58).

Second, an optimization that has been implemented in newly developed base editors is the narrowing of the editing window in an attempt to eliminate bystander editing. In addition to the ABE9 deaminase mentioned prior (67), other examples are TaC9ABE (A5-A6; specifically, with a 6bp spacer) (64) and ABE8.17-NL (A2-A4) deaminases (70).

Third, the PAM applicability of Cas enzymes is another feature that has been improved upon. Partly by swapping out the traditional SpCas9 (PAM: NGG) (47) with other Cas orthologs such as the pyrimidine-rich-PAM targeting Nme2Cas9 enzyme (PAM: N₄CC)(60), and partly by genetically engineering existing Cas enzymes to accept a wider range of PAM sequences, such as in the case of SpRYCas9(61) or KKH-SaCas9(52).

Fourth, an essential feature of a base editor is the efficiency in editing the target nucleotide. This indicates the number of copies of a gene in a sample, that are effectively modified. Which could in turn give an estimation of the fraction of cells in the sample in which the mutation was effectively restored. ABE_{max} (54) and ABE8e deaminases are examples of deaminases with increasing on-target editing efficiency (59).

Lastly, an optimization that was applied to a number of editors, is the reduction of off-target editing. Off target base editing can be defined as the deamination of nucleotides outside of the loci of interest. This can be harmful as it could potentially introduce mutations (46). This can include RNA off-target editing, which is significantly reduced in ABE8e-WQ (63) and Cas9 dependent off-target editing, which is reduced in TAC9ABE(64).

In later stages of our research, the most efficient editor identified *in vitro* will be evaluated for its efficacy and safety *in vivo*. This is necessary, to determine the impact of the rate of delivery to the heart, and to analyse potential off-target effects. To target delivery of the constructs to the heart specifically, the base editors need to meet the requirements for targeted vector-mediated delivery to the necessary cells and tissues in the animal model (60). Currently, adeno-associated-virus (AAV) vectors are frequently used for the *in vivo* delivery of gene therapy elements to the heart. This gene delivery method is preferred over other viral and non-viral delivery methods, due to multiple factors. Overall, viral vectors are superior to non-viral vectors in their transduction efficiency, and long-term transgene expression (77–79). Within the group of possible viral vectors, AAVs stand out through their ability to transduce non-dividing cells such as cardiomyocytes, and their low immunogenicity (80–82). Moreover, they pose a low risk of insertional mutagenesis, given their expression from episomes (83). The availability of serotypes with cardiac-specific tropism, and cardiac specific promoters, further improves efficiency and prevents the unintended delivery to, and expression in, other organs (84–86). However, AAVs are limited in the size of the construct that they can express (~4.7kb), leading to the inability of certain base editors to meet the size requirements necessary for single-AAV-mediated delivery(77). To include this restriction in our analysis, we registered for each editor whether it had been tested *in vivo*, and whether AAV's were used to deliver the editor to the target tissue. Among the base editors that were tested *in vivo*, three different methods of delivery were reported.

First, the size-optimized editors such as editors carrying SauriCas9, Nme2Cas9, and CjCas9, met the size requirements, and the packaging of these editors in single-vector-AAV systems was tested (60).

Second, other editors such as SpCas9-ABE9 were tested *in vivo*, however this was originally accomplished through the injection of an RNA mixture (mRNA of the construct with sgRNA) into the zygote of the animal model, and the delivery was therefore not targeted to a specific tissue(67).

Lastly, for some larger constructs, a split-intein dual-AAV system was used. This system allows a base editor that does not meet the size requirements for single-AAV delivery, to be delivered to a tissue in two components: a C-terminal section, and an N-terminal section. These sections both contain an intein and are delivered in separate AAV particles. After translation, inteins are removed and the protein segments are reattached to form a full functioning editor. Both SpCas9-NGa- miniABE(GG)(73) and SpG-Cas9-ABE8e have been tested *in vivo* using this system (74).

In addition to this literature-based selection, we decided to add another base editor combination to the list. Namely, SpRYCas9-ABE9. To our knowledge, an analysis on this specific construct has not been published yet. However, given the favourable properties of both the SpRYCas9 variant

(near-limitless PAM applicability), and the ABE9 deaminase (minimal bystander editing), along with the fact that this construct had already been developed within our lab, we decided to include it in our analysis. The PAM sequence was deduced to be the same as other SpRYCas9 carrying constructs, and the editing window was assumed to be the same as other ABE9 deaminase carrying constructs (61,67).

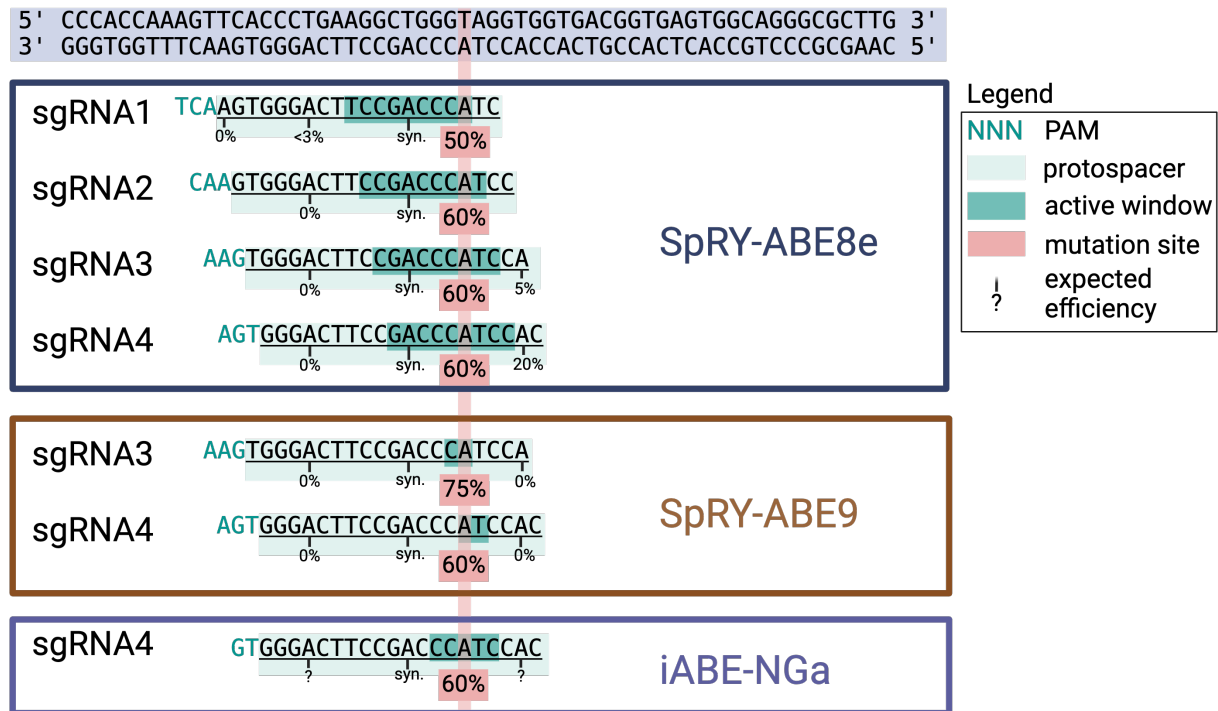


Figure 2 - overview single guide RNA design.

The sequence for 'sgRNA3' and 'sgRNA4' were applicable to multiple base editor constructs. Annotated are the percentages representing the expected editing efficiencies of the editor at that site in the protospacer. The efficiencies were quantified in mammalian cell lines (HEK293T for SpRYCas9-ABE8e and SpRYCas9-ABE9 and N2A for iABE-NGa). A smaller chance of bystander edits is indicated by lower percentages for the adenines in the protospacer apart from the mutation site. Higher on-target editing efficiency is indicated by higher percentages at the mutation site adenine. This range of guides was selected based on high on-target and low bystander editing rates compared to other applicable guides.

Base editors SpRY-ABE9, SpRY-ABE8e and iABE-NGa are most compatible with the genetic context containing the LMNA-Q493X mutation

Upon completion of the literature overview, we proceeded to the design of appropriate single guide RNA molecules to target the mutation of interest (LMNA-Q493X). Optimal guide RNA properties are necessary to properly target a gene locus and position the base editor over the region of interest (46). During this process, all guides were designed by first selecting an appropriate PAM sequence and lining out the protospacer. Then, the active window was highlighted and predicted editing efficiencies were annotated for each adenine in the protospacer.

During the process of guide design, a feature to consider is the aforementioned PAM applicability. If a base editor is compatible with a PAM that is not present in the genetic context, the base editor cannot properly hybridize to the target locus and is therefore removed from further analyses. Given that there is no NGG-PAM located in the sequence adjacent to the possible protospacers,

all base editors that are limited to an NGG-PAM were removed (Table 1). Editors carrying CjCas9 or Nme2Cas9 enzymes, and both base editors denLbCas12a-ABE8e-V106W and d12f (nuclease deactivated Un1Cas12f1)- ABE8e (monomer) were additionally removed due to lacking PAM applicability.

Another feature, essential for proper guide design, is the predicted editing efficiency of the adenines within the protospacer. This includes both the target adenine, as well as other non-synonymous adenines in the protospacer. Adenines that, when modified, result in a synonymous mutation were not considered as they do not induce an amino acid change in the protein, and are not predicted to affect splicing. The aim is a high on-target editing efficiency and low or negligible editing efficiency of other adenines. This ensures effective editing of the target, without inducing bystander edits (46). The thresholds we adhered to, were an on-target editing efficiency of >50%, and a bystander editing efficiency of <20%.

Based on that requirement, a number of possible base editors is not applicable in this genetic context. KKH-SaCas9-ABE7.10, SaCas9-ABE8e, KKH-SaCas9-ABE8e, SauriCas9-ABE8e and SpRYCas9-ABE8.17 are removed based on the high chance of bystander edits (51,59,60,70). SpRYCas9-ABEmax is removed based on its low on-target editing efficiency (61). Guides applicable to dLbCas12a-ABE8e and Nme2Cas9 (i1) (domain in-laid 1) are removed based on both those features (59,72). Furthermore, xCas9-ABE7.10, VQR-Cas9-ABE7.10, and SpGCas9-ABE8e are eliminated based on the fact that there is missing data on their editing efficiency, at the specific sites in the protospacer that house an adenine in our genetic context. In the original analysis, several sites were selected to analyse, and it so happens that the sites that we are interested in, were not analysed(50,53,74). Lastly, exCas9-ABEmax was removed because the editing window of this editor is poorly defined (55).

Regarding the eNme2's (eNme2-T.1Cas9-ABE8e/ eNme2-T.2Cas9-ABE8e/eNme2-CCas9-ABE8e), the constructs were included as potential treatment options *in vitro* due to their PAM applicability, moderately defined editing efficiencies, and their eligibility to be delivered in single-AAV vectors. However, these constructs ultimately did not result in a treatment option to be tested *in vitro*, owing to challenges in the molecular cloning process (71).

After filtering out the ineligible base editor constructs and guides, we are left with seven treatment options to analyse *in vitro*. This includes SpRYCas9-ABE8e with four accompanying sgRNAs, SpRYCas9-ABE9 with two different sgRNAs and miniABE-SpCas9-NGa (henceforth referred to as iABE-NGa) with one sgRNA. All of the mentioned guides were selected based on high on-target and low bystander editing rates compared to other sgRNAs (Fig. 2).

All three of the listed constructs will be used in a split-intein system, to allow for dual-AAV delivery *in vivo*, in later stages of this research. Despite the fact that for the guide associated with iABE-NGa, two non-synonymous adenines in the protospacer have undefined editing efficiencies, we still decided to include them in the analysis. In part because the trend in editing rates seen with this construct moved towards 0% for sites above A11 (73), and in part because pilot studies had been performed in the lab prior to this analysis using this base editor in this genetic context (Fig. 1).

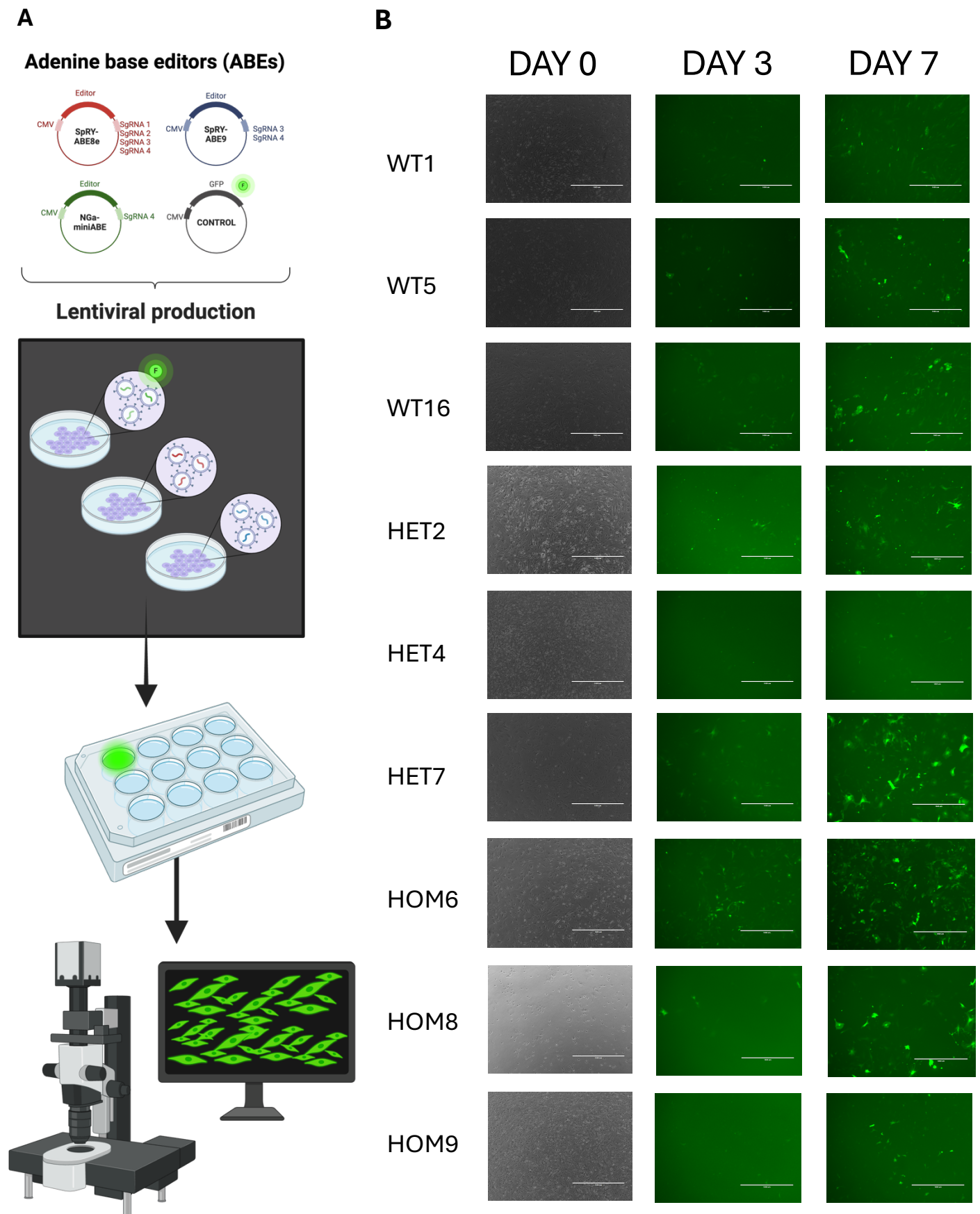


Figure 3- murine fibroblast transduction with lentiviral base editor treatment. A) schematic overview of procedural set-up: One of the lentiviruses produced and used for treatment, contained a GFP reporter. Upon expression this reporter causes a green, fluorescent signal to be emitted from transduced cells. This signal is used to indicate the rate of transduction in a cell line. B) Microscopic images of treated cell lines. For every distinct cell line, images were recorded on the day of treatment (day 0), three days after treatment (day 3) and a week after treatment (day 7). Day 0 images were recorded in the brightfield channel, while day 3 and 7 images were recorded in the GFP fluorescence channel.

Lentiviral particles carrying the selected base editors transduced murine fibroblasts and led to moderate but heterogenous expression

After selecting the most suitable construct-sgRNA combinations based on a predictive analysis, these combinations were tested *in vitro*. The combinations were packaged into lentiviral particles and used to treat primary murine fibroblasts with either a wildtype (LMNA^{WT/WT}), heterozygous mutant (LMNA^{WT/Q493X}), or homozygous mutant (LMNA^{Q493X/Q493X}) genotype. For every genotype, three biological replicates were used (n=3).

As a reporter for the rate of transduction in each distinct cell line, we included a lentiviral transfer vector expressing green fluorescent protein (pLVX-GFP). One sample per cell line was subjected to the GFP expressing lentivirus. On day 3 and day 7 after transduction, microscopic images were obtained in the GFP channel, to provide an estimate of GFP expression in each cell line. This expression is used as an indication of the rate of transduction in that cell line. An image was additionally taken before transduction, on the same day, to visualize the cell morphology and density prior to the treatment (Fig. 3A).

Overall, the intensity of the signal emitted by this GFP reporter protein, increases from the 3-day timepoint to the 7-day timepoint (Fig. 3B, Fig S3). This could either be a result GFP accumulation over time, or of the increased transduction of cells through prolonged exposure to the treatment. Additionally, certain cell lines portray a more intense expression of GFP, than others. Seemingly, this coincides with cell lines that show a moderate-to-low cell-density (HET7; HOM6; HOM8). Cell lines with seemingly more dense cell diffusion (WT1; HET4; HOM9) seem to also express lower levels of GFP (Fig. 3B, Fig S3).

SpRYCas9-ABE9 with sgRNA 3 restores the LMNA/C mRNA levels in primary murine fibroblasts most consistently

To investigate the efficiency with which the selected base editors contribute to the restoration of LMNA/C expression, primary murine fibroblasts of wildtype (LMNA^{WT/WT}), heterozygous mutant (LMNA^{WT/Q493X}), or homozygous mutant (LMNA^{Q493X/Q493X}) mice were treated with one of the seven previously described treatment options (1000 viral genomes/cell). After seven days of exposure to these treatments the RNA was isolated from the 108 different samples and subjected to quantitative polymerase chain reaction analysis for LMNA/C, LMNA specific, and LMNC specific mRNA levels (Fig. 4A).

As expected, LMNA/C mRNA levels, as well as LMNA and LMNC specific mRNA levels are significantly reduced in the heterozygous cell lines, and further reduced in the homozygous cell lines, when left untreated (Fig. 4). This remains true for every experimental condition. On average, heterozygous samples show a decrease in LMNA/C expression levels of approximately 50%, and homozygous samples show a ~85% decrease. LMNA specific levels show a ~61% decrease in heterozygous samples and a ~91% decrease in homozygous samples. Lastly, LMNC specific expression shows an average reduction of ~51% in heterozygous samples, and ~70% in homozygous samples.

Additionally, a restoration of LMNA/C mRNA levels is seen in certain experimental conditions. In Heterozygous samples, SpRY-ABE8e with sgRNA3 (8e.3) shows the largest increase in LMNA/C mRNA levels, improving them with ~56% from the untreated baseline. Other treatment options that showed a sizable increase in LMNA/C expression, are SpRY-ABE9 with sgRNA3 or sgRNA 4 (9.3/9.4), which respectively increased them by ~40% and ~41% (Fig. 4B/E). In homozygous samples, editor combination 9.3 shows the greatest restoration of LMNA/C levels, increasing them ~116% from the untreated baseline (Fig. 4B/F).

Along with LMNA/C total mRNA levels, LMNA specific mRNA levels also show an increase in certain experimental conditions. This specifically entails homozygous samples. Both SpRY-ABE8e with sgRNA 1 (8e.1) and 9.3 show the largest increase of LMNA specific expression levels in homozygous samples, leading to a respective ~78% and ~96% increase of LMNA mRNA levels compared to untreated baseline levels (Fig. 4C). Regarding LMNC specific expression, treatment 9.3 results in the largest increase, with a ~133% increase in heterozygous samples, and a 144% increase in homozygous samples compared to

untreated controls (Fig. 4D). In conclusion, the combination SpRYCas9-ABE9 with sgRNA shows the most consistent restoration of LMNA/C, LMNA and LMNC transcript levels.

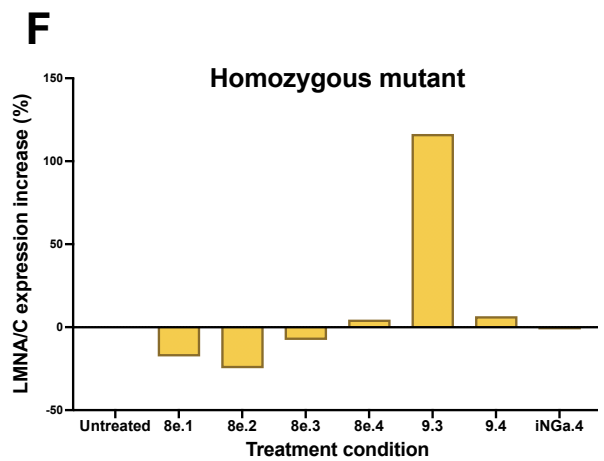
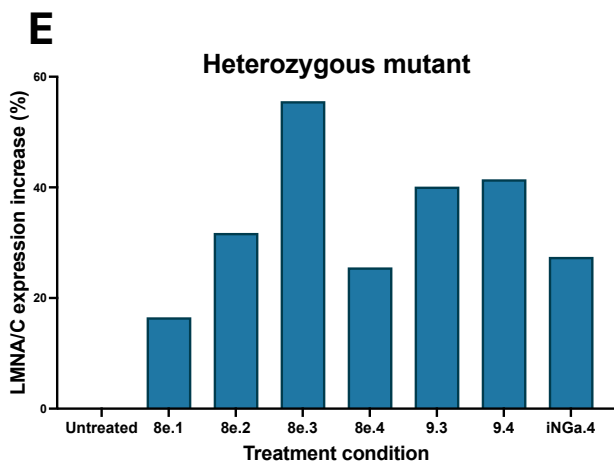
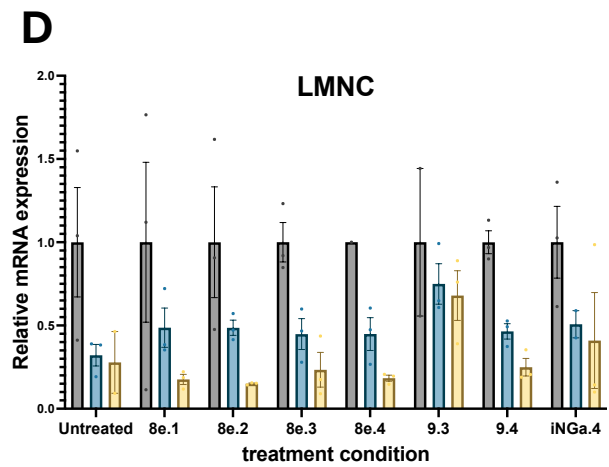
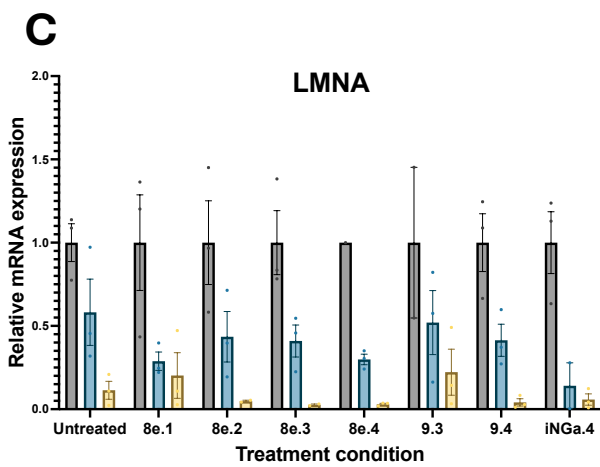
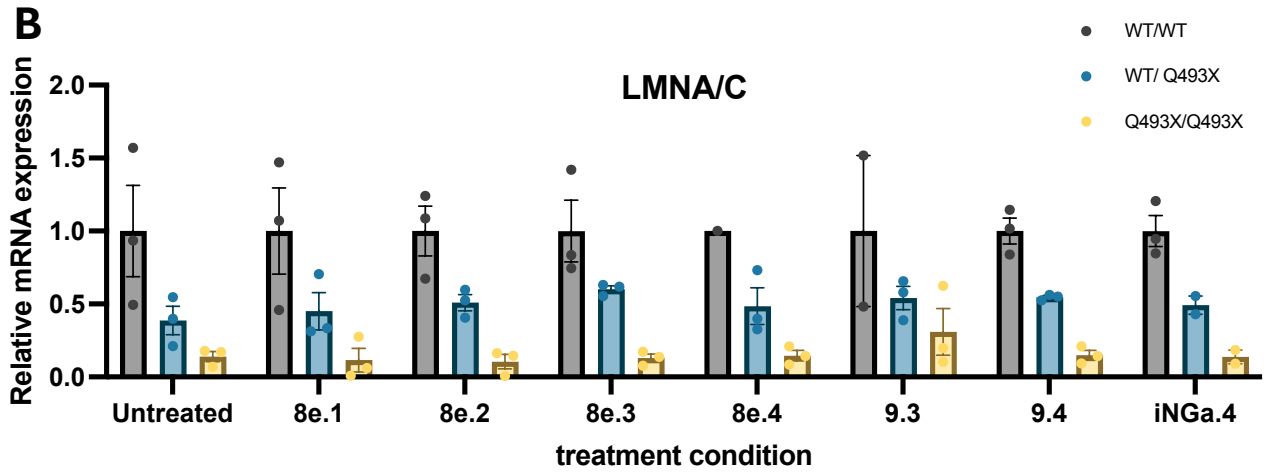
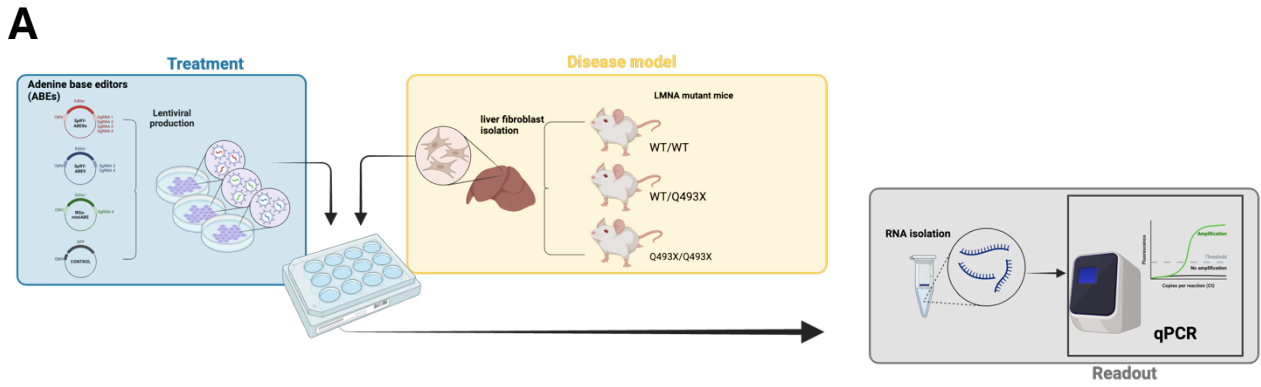


Figure 4 there is a trend in LMNA/C total and LMNC levels that favours base editor combination SpRY-ABE9+sgRNA3 in this analysis. A) Schematic overview of experimental setup. Primary fibroblast isolated from wildtype (WT/WT), heterozygous (WT/Q493X) or homozygous (Q493X/Q493X) mutant mice were treated with lentivirus particles containing one of the base editor treatments. RNA was isolated from these samples and subjected to quantitative polymerase chain reaction analysis. **B)** Quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) data of LMNA/C total mRNA levels in WT/WT, WT/Q493X and Q493X/Q493X mutant mouse fibroblast samples treated with one of the base editor treatments: pLVX-SpRY-ABE8e+ sgRNA 1, 2, 3, or 4 (8e.1, 8e.2, 8e.3, 8e.4), pLVX-SpRY-ABE9+ sgRNA 3 or 4 (9.3, 9.4), pLVX-iABE-NGa +sgRNA 4 (iNGa.4). All WT/Q493X and Q493X/Q493X measurements in this figure are normalized to the wildtype sample under the same condition. Values and error bars indicate mean +/- s.e.m. Significance for comparison was analyzed with two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) where Genotype factor has a significance of ****P<0,0001, both treatment factor and interaction between factors is non-significant (ns.) (n=3) **C)** qPCR analysis of LMNA specific mRNA levels in WT/WT, WT/Q493X and Q493X/Q493X mutant mouse fibroblast samples under one of the selected treatment conditions. Values and error bars indicate mean +/- s.e.m. significance for comparison was analyzed with two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) where Genotype factor has a significance of ****P<0,0001, both treatment factor and interaction between factors is non-significant (n=3) **D)** qPCR analysis of LMNC specific mRNA levels in WT/WT, WT/Q493X and Q493X/Q493X mutant mouse fibroblast samples under one of the selected treatment conditions. Data are mean +/- s.e.m. Significance for comparison was analyzed with two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) where Genotype factor has a significance of ****P<0,0001, both treatment factor and interaction between factors is non-significant (n=3) **E)** Percentual increase of LMNA/C mRNA levels in heterozygous mutant samples in comparison to the untreated heterozygous sample (ns.). **F)** Percentual increase of LMNA/C mRNA levels in homozygous mutant samples in comparison to the untreated homozygous sample (ns.).

Discussion

Cardiac laminopathies affect up to 8% of patients with familial DCM, making it one of the most prominent causes of familial DCM (3). Additionally, these mutations contribute to full penetrance from the age of 60, thereby eventually affecting every individual carrying them (1). Patients with LMNA-DCM additionally face a higher rate of mortality, transplantation and major cardiac events compared to DCM patients with other mutations (5). Aside from a limited number of symptomatic treatments, there is no cure available for patients suffering from this disease (4,34,35). Gene therapy could provide a potential path for curative treatment options. However, data on these approaches is limited within this disease context.

Studies investigating these approaches are not comprehensive enough to warrant considerable treatment options in humans. The study conducted by Salvarani et al. for instance, reported the correction of the cardiac specific LMNA-K219T mutation in hiPSC derived cardiomyocytes. Instead of an administered treatment however, the correction was achieved through the selection and isolation of a corrected clone. This resulted in a lack of information considering dose-dependency and transduction efficiency of the required vector (38). Another study, conducted by Frock et al. analyzed the potential of LMNA overexpression to enact functional improvement in a LMNA knockout mouse model. This study is limited in its translatability considering the fact that a full knockout has not been reported in a living patient and is likely not compatible with life in humans. Moreover, the functional recovery and extension of lifespan in mice, is described as 'modest' in the paper, indicating a lack of robustness (39). Scharner et al. reported an alternative approach to gene therapy for laminopathies. This study analyzes the potential of exon-skipping to exclude the mutation from the translated transcript. However, little was discussed about the safety of the treatment and potential aspecific oligo binding was not evaluated (40). None of the listed studies included a safety analysis evaluating off-target effects. Some of them, did not incorporate an *in vivo* element to begin with (38–40).

When looking for a curative approach to cardiac laminopathies, it is essential that the safety profile is well defined. When treating already compromised individuals it is imperative that introduction of additional potentially harmful changes in the DNA, or changes in organs other than the target organ, are prevented. There is therefore a need for additional studies that include therapeutic safety in their analysis, along with evaluations on efficiency and functional recovery, before clinical potential can be realized.

Studies including a safety overview have been reported for non-cardiac LMNA mutations before, such as for Hutchinson-Gilford progeria syndrome (HGPS). Liu et al. for instance have reported the efficient correction of HGPS associated LMNA mutations with unobserved genetic and epigenetic abnormalities (87). Additionally, Koblan et al. described efficient base editing of HGPS related mutations along with an off-target DNA and RNA editing analysis to determine safety. Such data considering cardiac laminopathies however, are limited (88). In addition to *in vitro* and *in vivo* experiments, a potential tool to facilitate the evaluation of off-target effects attributable to the different genetic therapies, is a computational analysis to predict these features. This has been applied in the study reported by Yang et al., in which they predicted the safest single guide RNA sequences in the targeting of adenine base editor constructs to edit a LMNA mutation (49).

In this study, we performed a thorough predictive analysis selecting the most suitable and safe base editors to treat a patient-specific LMNA mutation (Q493X), which we subsequently tested *in vitro*. We predicted that within the LMNA-Q493X genetic context, base editors SpRYCas9-ABE8e, SpRYCas9-ABE9 and SpCas9NGa-miniABE-GG (iABE-NGa) would most efficiently modify the mutation, while leaving bystander adenines mostly unedited. We were then able to design four applicable sgRNAs for SpRYCas9-ABE8e, two sgRNAs for SpRYCas9-ABE9 and one for SpCas9NGa-miniABE-GG (Fig. 2). Finally, we found that SpRYCas9-ABE9 with single guide RNA 3 most efficiently and consistently restored the expression levels of both *LMNA* and *LMNC* transcripts in primary murine liver fibroblasts.

Initially, we compiled a selection of 31 different base editors as potential treatment options for this study. Of these constructs, 14 were removed based on lacking PAM applicability in the genetic context of the mutation. SpRYCas9-ABE9 that has not been published yet, was added, based on its availability in the lab, and features of this editor were inferred from separate articles. From the 18 remaining editors, seven more were removed based on unclear or missing data, that was necessary to properly evaluate potential sgRNAs. Finally, eight additional editors were removed from the selection, either due to inefficient on-target editing, a high risk of bystander editing, or both.

The three remaining base editors, SpRYCas9-ABE8e, SpRYCas9-ABE9 and SpCas9NGa-miniABE-GG, were selected for further analysis. First, we used restriction cloning to produce lentiviral transfer plasmids with the selected base editors. We then designed eligible sgRNAs and used restriction cloning to insert them into the respective lentiviral transfer plasmids. We subsequently produced lentiviral particles containing the editors with their guides and used them to treat primary murine liver fibroblasts (Fig. 4).

Upon treatment of murine liver fibroblasts from wildtype ($LMNA^{WT/WT}$), heterozygous mutant ($LMNA^{Q493X/WT}$) or homozygous mutant ($LMNA^{Q493X/Q493X}$) mice, the degree of transduction indicated by GFP reporter expression, was heterogenous. This heterogeneity seems to correlate with cell density (Fig. S3).

Using the samples derived from this 7-day treatment, RNA was isolated for further molecular analysis. Quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) analysis of *LMNA/C* transcripts showed that overall, the $LMNA^{WT/WT}$, $LMNA^{Q493X/WT}$ and $LMNA^{Q493X/Q493X}$ cell lines were significantly different from each other in *LMNA/C*, *LMNA* and *LMNC* transcript levels (**** $p < 0.0001$). This is expected, since the LMNA-Q493X mutation causes a haploinsufficiency in the allele carrying the mutation. We expect 50% of the mRNA transcript levels seen in the $LMNA^{WT/WT}$ samples, to be present in $LMNA^{Q493X/WT}$ samples, while we expect no *LMNA/C* mRNA transcript in the $LMNA^{Q493X/Q493X}$ samples. This is reflected in the mRNA levels as seen in figure 4. Similar findings are shown for both *LMNA* and *LMNC* specific mRNA levels.

We compared treated samples with the untreated controls and found no statistically significant differences. However, the data shows a trend supporting the use of SpRYCas9-ABE9 with sgRNA 3. This combination repeatedly resulted in the most effective restoration of *LMNA/C* total, *LMNA* and *LMNC* specific mRNA transcript levels.

It is noteworthy that *LMNA* and *LMNC* mRNA transcript levels do not follow the same pattern of restoration, in the same sample, indicating a possible change in the ratio between *LMNA* and *LMNC* abundance. A similar feature was reported in an earlier study, investigating a distinct nonsense mutation. In this study, Lamin A levels were reduced more severely than Lamin C levels were. This was a consequence of a lower level of the wildtype Lamin A protein (89). Other reports have shown additional shifts in the ratio between Lamin A and C expression, upon disease. This was reported in HGPS by Reunert et. al. and in Emery-Dreifuss muscular dystrophy (EDMD) by Niebroj-Dobosz et. al. (90,91). It is suggested that lower levels of Lamin A influence the stability and resilience of the healthy LMNA allele and its expression (92). It is therefore possible, that diminished Lamin A levels, influence the ability of the isoform to be restored in expression, upon correction of the mutation.

A considerable limitation of this study is the lack of statistical power in our conclusions. The statistical power of experimental results in an analysis of variance (ANOVA) are dependent on, among other factors, sample size, effect size, and error variance (or unexplained variance)(93). In this study, the variation within the experimental group, or the unexplained variance was large in certain groups, when compared to the variance between sample means.

This could be a result of the fact that the samples used, were derived from primary murine cell cultures, which can be heterogenous in their genetic expression. The heterogeneity in primary cultures can be influenced through three different factors. Firstly, due to technical limitations it is

difficult to accurately obtain a pure population of fibroblasts, from tissue samples. Contaminations of other cell types might cause a shift in the bulk measured expression of certain genes (94). This includes LMNA, as this gene can have cell-type specific expression levels. With the many distinct cell-types present in the liver, expression levels range from 16.9 (in residing T-cells) to 306.5 (in smooth muscle cells) transcripts per million (nTPM) (95). Contaminations with cells especially high or low in LMNA expression could therefore influence the bulk expression of LMNA in murine fibroblast samples. Next, the donor heterogeneity between mice of the same inbred strain can contribute to the unexplained variance seen between samples in the same experimental group. Though inbred strains are categorically standardized in their genetic information, features such as genetic drift and unique epigenetic patterns can contribute to differences in expression (96,97). Lastly, fibroblasts are cells that react to changing external factors by changing their functional and phenotypic features. Either through signals derived from the cellular microenvironment, or in this case due to cell culture related conditions, adaptations in individual fibroblasts might influence variation in genetic expression and cellular identity (98,99)

In addition to the heterogenous cell model, a contributor to the variation seen in the different samples, could be efficiency of transduction, which was shown to be heterogenous through expression of the GFP reporter (Fig. 3). Previously, Wang et al. showed that moderate cell density is optimal to facilitate gene transfection and that high and low cell density impair it. In future experiments, this variation could be prevented by including a standardization of cell density, such as through the use of micropatterned surfaces to control this feature, prior to treatment. This could homogenize the rate of transduction, and therefore diminish that additional variable (100).

Another feature of this study that potentially leads to the lacking statistical power, is the relatively small sample size. Every experimental group, that both shared the same genotype and the same treatment condition, consisted of three biological replicates. There were no technical replicates available. This can be explained by the fact that murine livers are limited in the cell number that can be derived from them, as they weigh on average 2-3 grams (101). Furthermore, fibroblasts are not the most abundant cell-type in murine livers. Fibrogenic cell types make up less than 8% of the hepatic tissue in healthy mice, explaining the limited yield (102). Primary cell cultures are additionally limited in their proliferation and life span, which would make adequate expansion difficult (103). Considering the number of treatment options we included, more technical replicates were therefore not available per condition. An approach to take to improve this sample size in future endeavors, is to use a cell-source, from which more technical replicates can be derived. An example of such a cell source, is an immortalized cell line which can be grown and expanded for longer (104). Furthermore, instead of using every cell culture well as a singular bulk sample, it is worth looking into single-cell approaches, that vastly increase your sample size, as well as the depth of the data that you derive from the approach. This increase in sample size improves the statistical power (105).

As the aim of this study, was to determine the safest, as well as the most efficient treatment option, it is worth mentioning that in this study the safety of these base editors was not evaluated in an *in vitro* experiment. However, we did use the data available on the properties of the editor constructs to infer the likelihood of harmful effects, due to bystander editing. In following studies, an *in vitro* experiment should be included to quantify editing rates of the target, as well as bystander adenines directly. This can be achieved through amplicon sequencing which is often used to evaluate newly developed base editors for bystander editing (67,106,107). This method facilitates the targeted and sensitive sequencing of a specific genetic locus, using its amplification (108). It might be advantageous to additionally, include an assessment of other types of off-target effects.

The goal of this particular study was not to achieve optimal translatability. The objective was rather, to identify the most effective and safe option *in vitro*. However, in future studies, the potential for translation is an important element to factor in when moving towards clinical practice. To achieve the translation of this treatment approach to the human body, a transition would need to be made into a cardiomyocyte-or at least muscle-specific cell type, as the symptoms related to cardiac laminopathies are mainly focused on these tissues (109). Later, the introduction of *in vivo* studies should be considered, to better analyze the systemic effects connected to delivery and targeting of the cardiac tissue (35). To enhance this, it might be necessary to include size-optimized base editors to the study, that can be packaged in a single-AAV delivery system. This enables the use of lower doses, to achieve similar editing efficiencies (60). Additionally, to target the cardiac cells more efficiently, and prevent off-target effects in other tissues, the use of cardiac-specific promoters, enhancers, or viral vector serotypes might be included. This diminishes the expression of the base editors in non-cardiac tissues, preventing them from exerting their editing effects undesirably (45,84–86).

SpRY-Cas9-ABE9 with sgRNA 3 seemingly is the most efficient base editor combination to restore the reported LMNA-Q493X mutation *in vitro*. Looking back at the predictive analysis (Fig. 2), this exact combination was expected to yield the most efficient on target editing efficiency (~75%) of all the treatment options. Together, these findings provide evidence for the potential of literature-based predictions in the customization of gene editing approaches. Variation between gene editing target-loci poses a challenge in the development of one effective treatment option for all genetic mutations causing the same condition (111). Therefore, the personalization of gene editing approaches can vastly improve the efficiency and safety of these approaches on an individual basis. The use of a literature based predictive analysis to pre-select suitable editors and single guide RNAs, can significantly cut down on the required resources and time needed for this personalization (49). Numerous computational and AI driven tools have been developed to aid in this process. These tools enable scientists to easily design editing approaches, while considering many factors including genetic context and predicted off-target effects. This concept could further facilitate the high-throughput customization of genetic treatments, which is essential in the development of curative therapies to correct all cardiac laminopathies (112–115). This study, therefore, does not only provide insights into the restoration of haploinsufficiency caused by LMNA-Q493X mutation. It additionally sets a precedent in the use of a selective prediction to streamline the development of new and case-specific gene therapies.

Supplementary materials

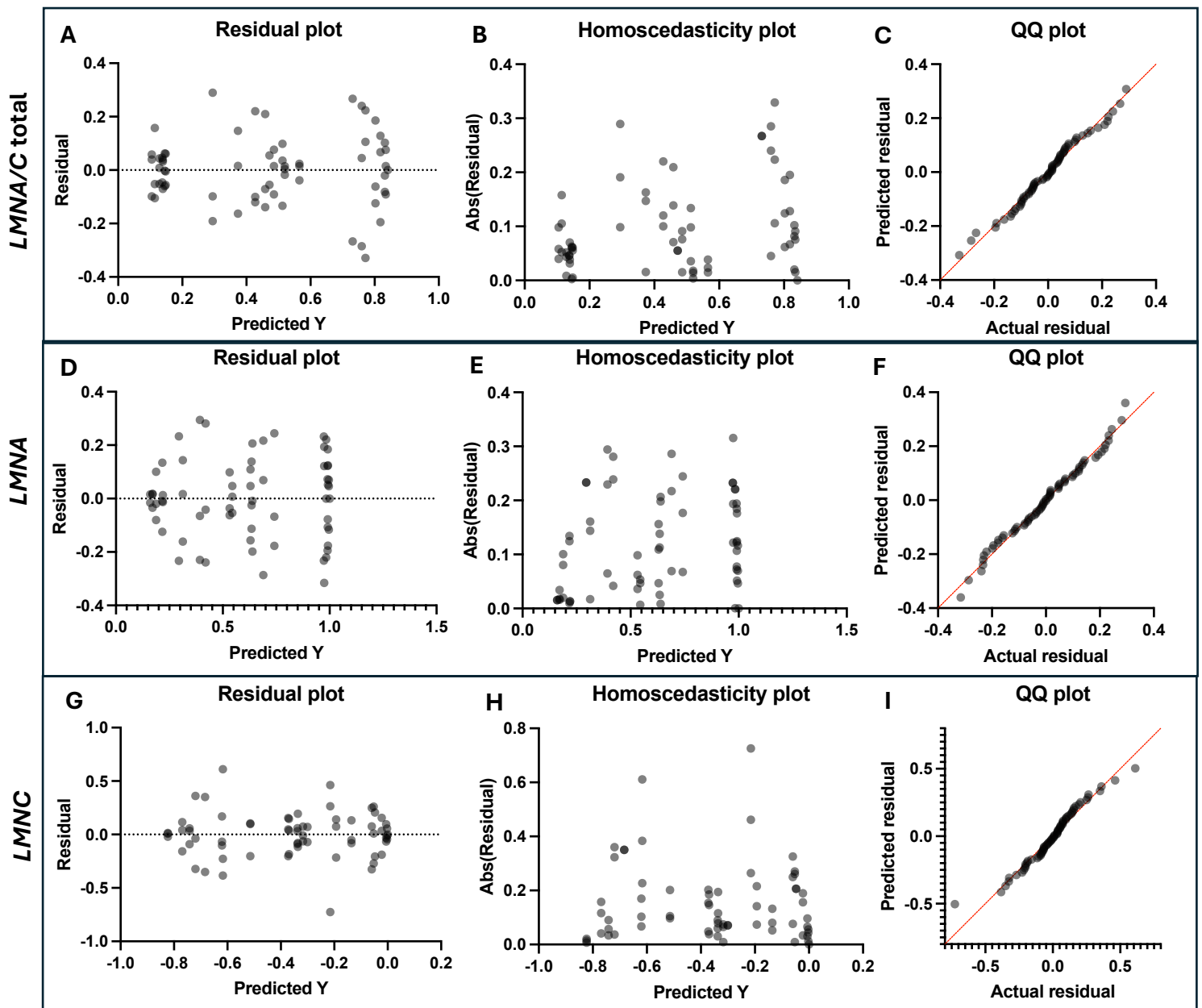
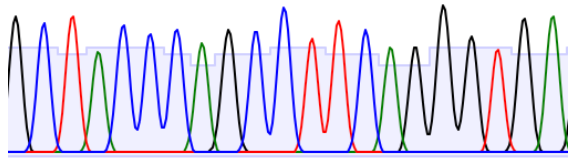


Figure S1 residual graphs of qPCR data A-C) shows plots visualizing both homoscedasticity and normality of the LMNA/C total quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) data. Data were $\sin(Y)$ transformed to improve normality and homoscedasticity. Transformed data were used for further statistical analysis. D-F) Residual graphs for LMNA qPCR data. Data were \sqrt{Y} transformed. Transformed data were used for further statistical analysis. G-I) Residual graphs for LMNC qPCR data. Data were $\log(Y)$ transformed. Transformed data were used for further statistical analysis.

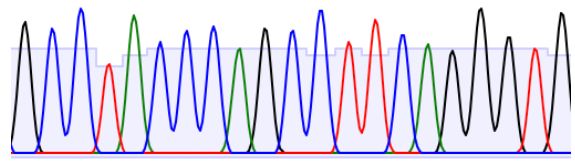
SpRYCas9-Cterm + sgRNA 1

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



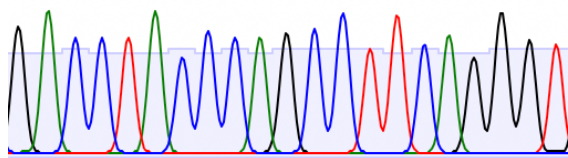
SpRYCas9-Cterm + sgRNA 2

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



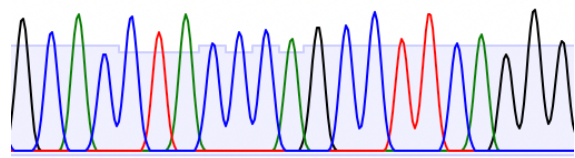
SpRYCas9-Cterm + sgRNA 3

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



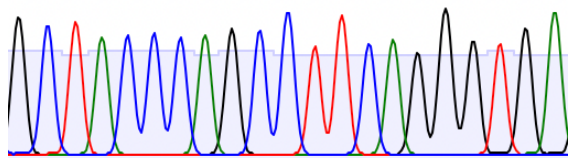
SpRYCas9-Cterm + sgRNA 4

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



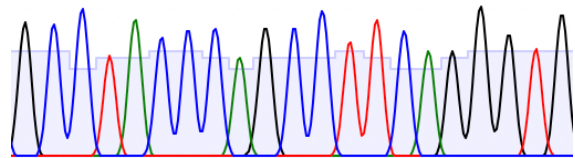
SpRYCas9-ABE8e-Nterm + sgRNA 1

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



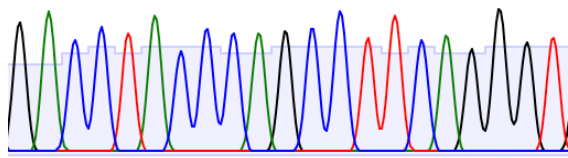
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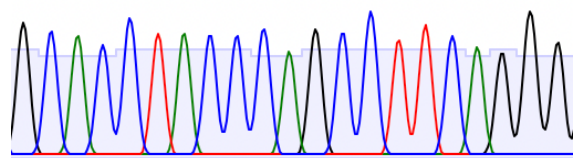
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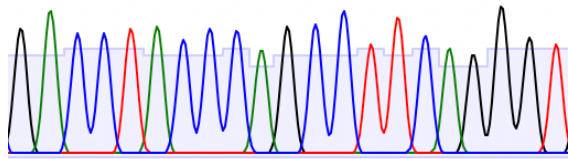
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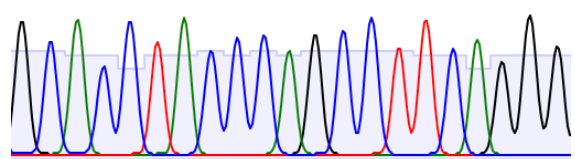
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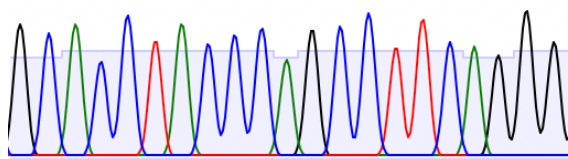
SpRYCas9-ABE9-Nterm + sgRNA 4

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



iABE-NGa-Nterm + sgRNA 4

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



iABE-NGa-Cterm + sgRNA 4

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

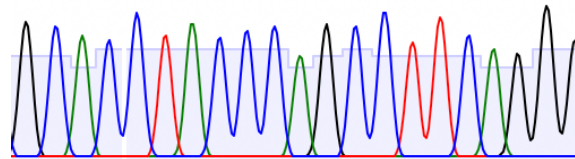


Figure S2 sequencing data sgRNA cloning. Sequence reads confirming sgRNA insertion into base editor plasmids. Reads were obtained through Sanger sequencing using a U6 forward primer.

GFP intensity

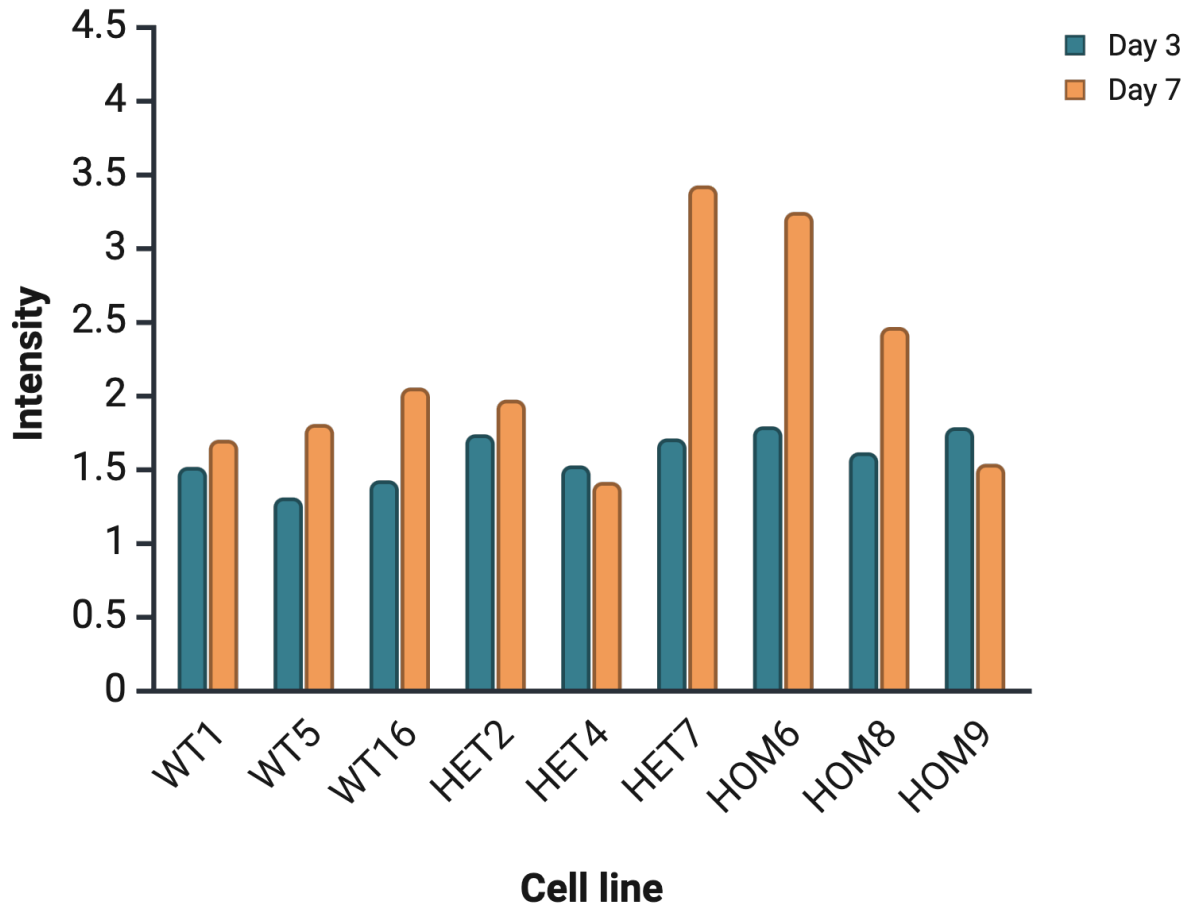


Figure S3 Quantification of GFP intensity captured from individual cell lines on day 3 and 7. The background signal was removed using the rolling ball method in ImageJ prior to measurement of GFP signal in ImageJ.

Supp. Table 1. Overhang PCR primers

PCR-product	Forward primer	Reverse primer
iABE-Nga Nterm	TCCACCGGTTCGACGGAAGC GAGTTCGAGTCACC	AGGCTCGAGGTACCTCCCCAGCATGC CTGCTAT
iABE-Nga Cterm	AGGACCGGTGCCTGCTAAAA ATAACCCTGT	AGGCTCGAGGTACCTCCCCAGCATGC CTGCTAT

Supp. Table 2. Murine qPCR primers

qPCR-target	Forward primer	Reverse primer
<i>LMNA/C</i> total	TCGAATCCGCATTGACAGCC	CTCCAGGTCACGCAGCTTTG
<i>LMNA</i>	GACCCCGCTGAGTACAACCTG	GCGGAAGCTTCGAGTGACTG
<i>LMNC</i>	CGACGAGGATGGAGAAGAGC	AGACTTTGGCATGGAGGTGG

Supp. Table 3. Sanger sequencing primers

Table S3 An overview of sequencing primers used to confirm the cloning of base editor constructs, based on alignment to predesigned plasmid maps (appendix 1-5). Fw: Forward primer. Rv: Reverse primer. CMV: cytomegalovirus promoter. U6: U6 promoter. SC: SpRY-Cas9-Cterm. 8e/9: SpRY-Cas9-ABE8e-Nterm/SpRY-Cas9-ABE9-Nterm. iN: iABE-NGa-Nterm. iC: iABE-NGa-Cterm. M: referring to a primer designed in the middle of the construct.

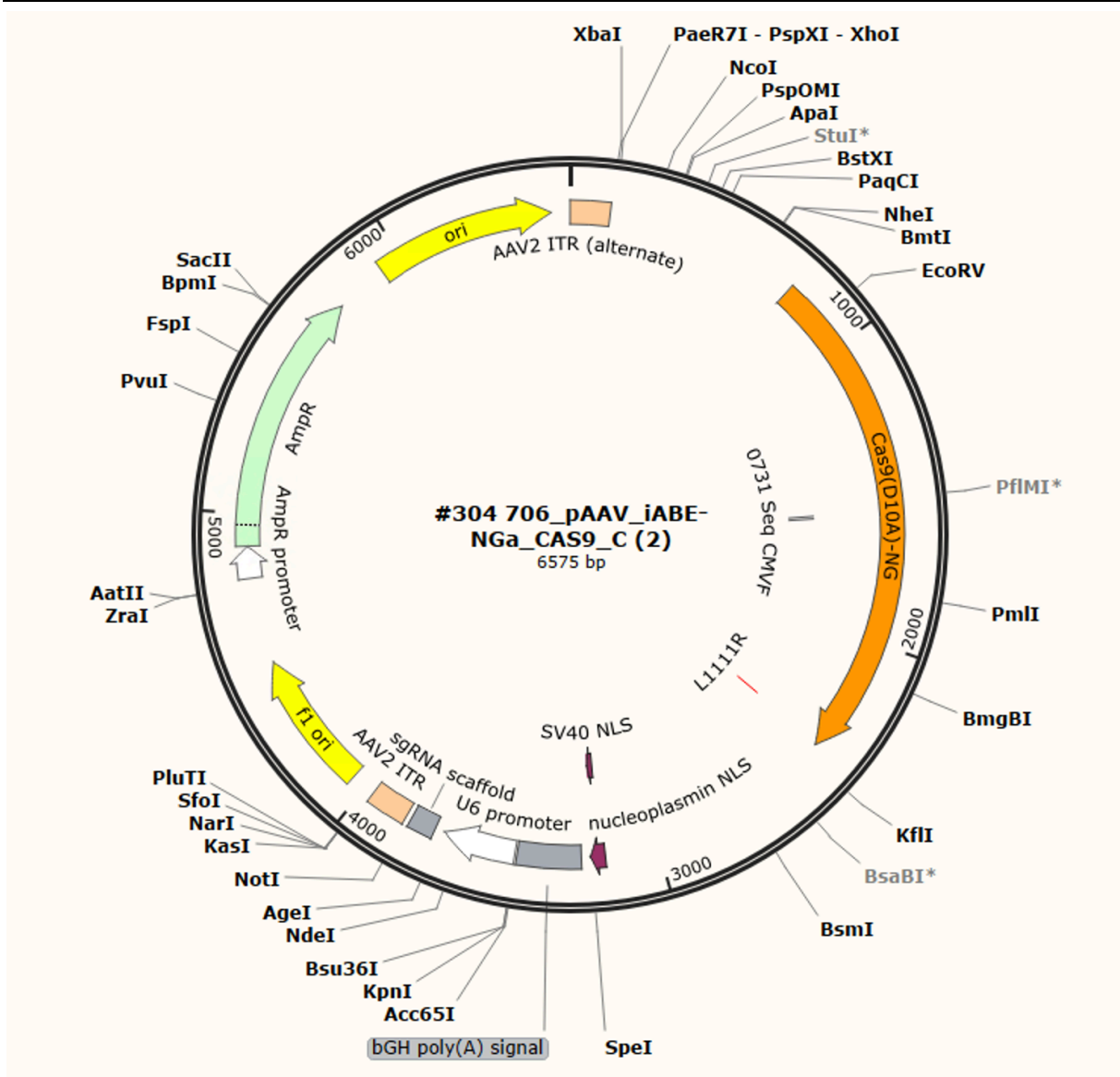
Sequencing primers	Sequence
CMV-Fw	CGCAAATGGGCGGTAGGCGTG
U6-Rv	AATCATGGGAAATAGGCCCTC
U6-Fw	GAGGGCCTATTTCCCATGATTC
SC Rv into CMV	GGTGTATCTCCGCCGCTTCA
8e/9 Rv into CMV	AGTTCAGCACGTTTCATCAGGGA
iN Rv into CMV	GTGATTCATGCCGGGGTAGTGC
iC Rv into CMV	CCACTGACTTCTATGTCTATAAGCT
SC Fw M	GCCGGCTTCATCAAGAGACAGCT
8e/9 Fw M	CTGACCCCAACTTCAAGAGCA
iN Fw M	GCCTGTTCCGAAACCTGATTGCC
iC Fw M	GCCAGATCCTGAAAGAACACCCCG
SC Rv M	GCCTTATCCAGTTCGCTCAGGC
8e/9 Rv M	GTGATCTCGGTGTTCACTCTCAGGAT
iN Rv M	CACCAGCTGGATGAACAGCTTGCCAC
iC Rv M	GCTGGGTGTTTTCCACGGGGTGTT

Supp. Table 4. Titer determination results

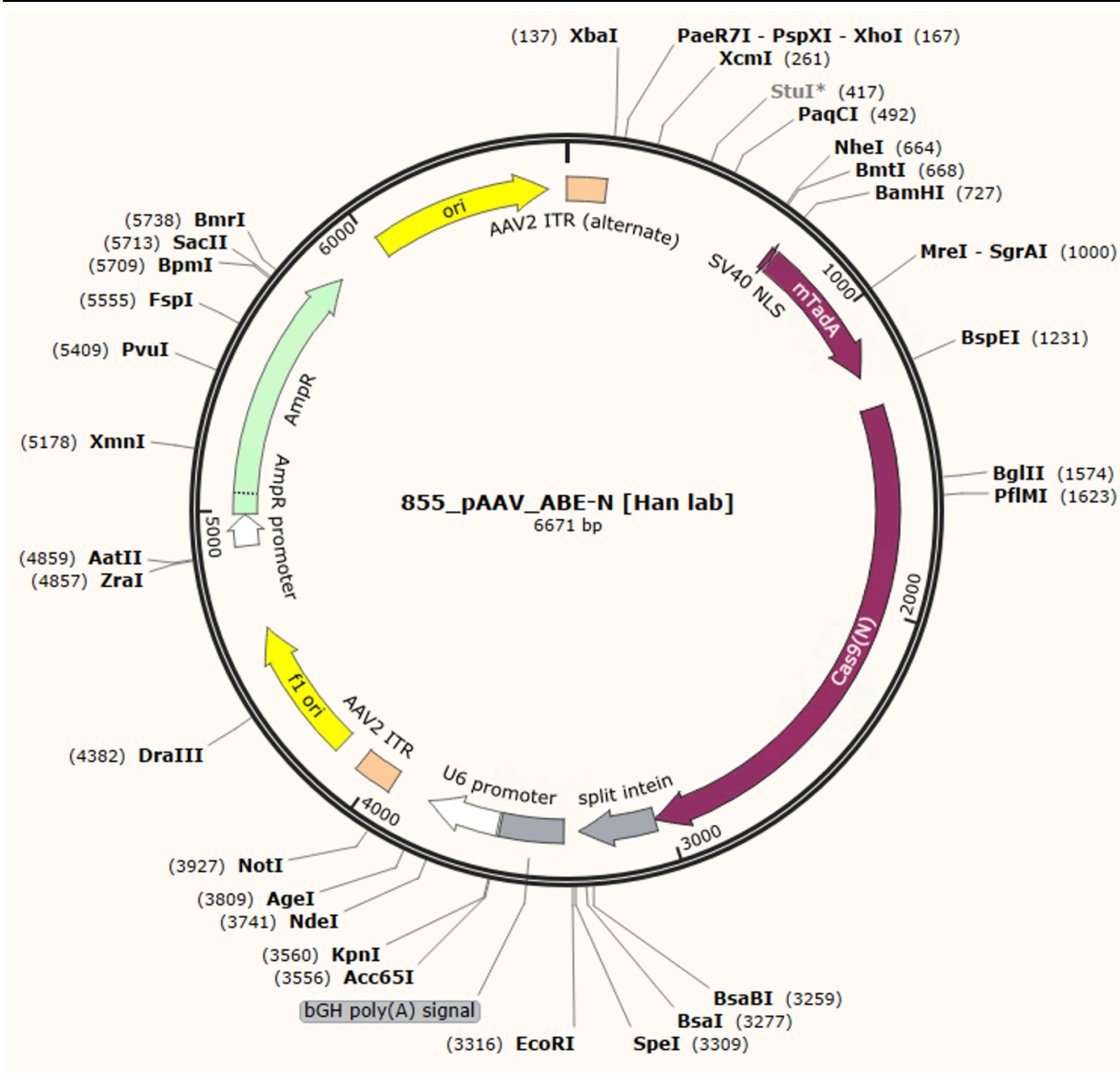
Table S4 Titer determination results of the produced lentiviral treatments expressed in viral genomes per mL.

Virus	Concentration (vg/mL)
LV-GFP	$6,62 \cdot 10^8$
LV-SpRY C-term guide 1	$7,95 \cdot 10^8$
LV-SpRY C-term guide 2	$5,92 \cdot 10^8$
LV-SpRY C-term guide 3	$7,34 \cdot 10^8$
LV-SpRY C-term guide 4	$6,45 \cdot 10^8$
LV-SpRY ABE8e N-term guide 1	$8,08 \cdot 10^8$
LV-SpRY ABE8e N-term guide 2	$8,79 \cdot 10^8$
LV-SpRY ABE8e N-term guide 3	$3,09 \cdot 10^9$
LV-SpRY ABE8e N-term guide 4	$1,71 \cdot 10^9$
LV-SpRY ABE9 N-term guide 3	$1,67 \cdot 10^9$
LV-SpRY ABE9 N-term guide 4	$5,70 \cdot 10^8$

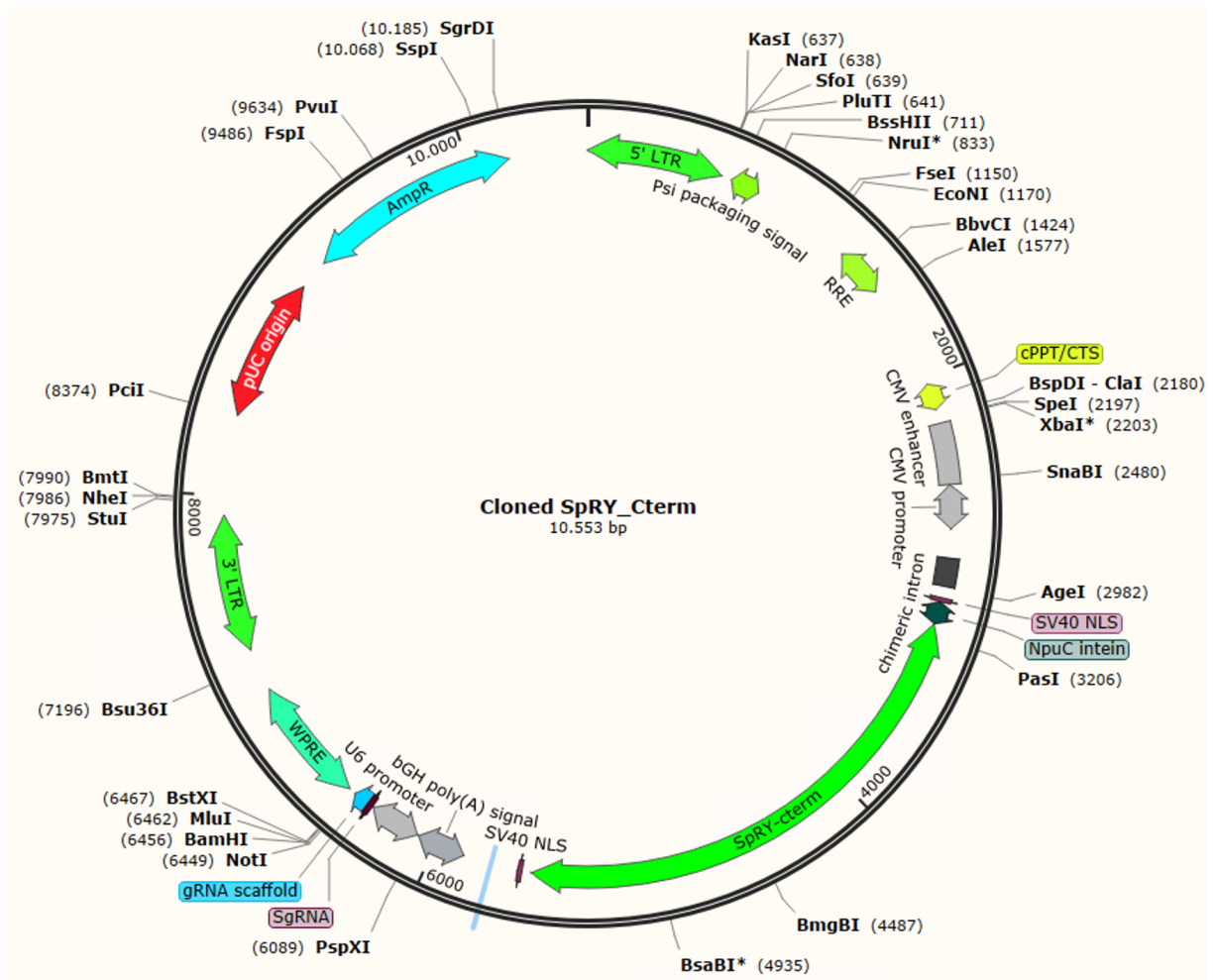
Appendix 1: #304 706_pAAV_iABE-NGa_CAS9_Cterm



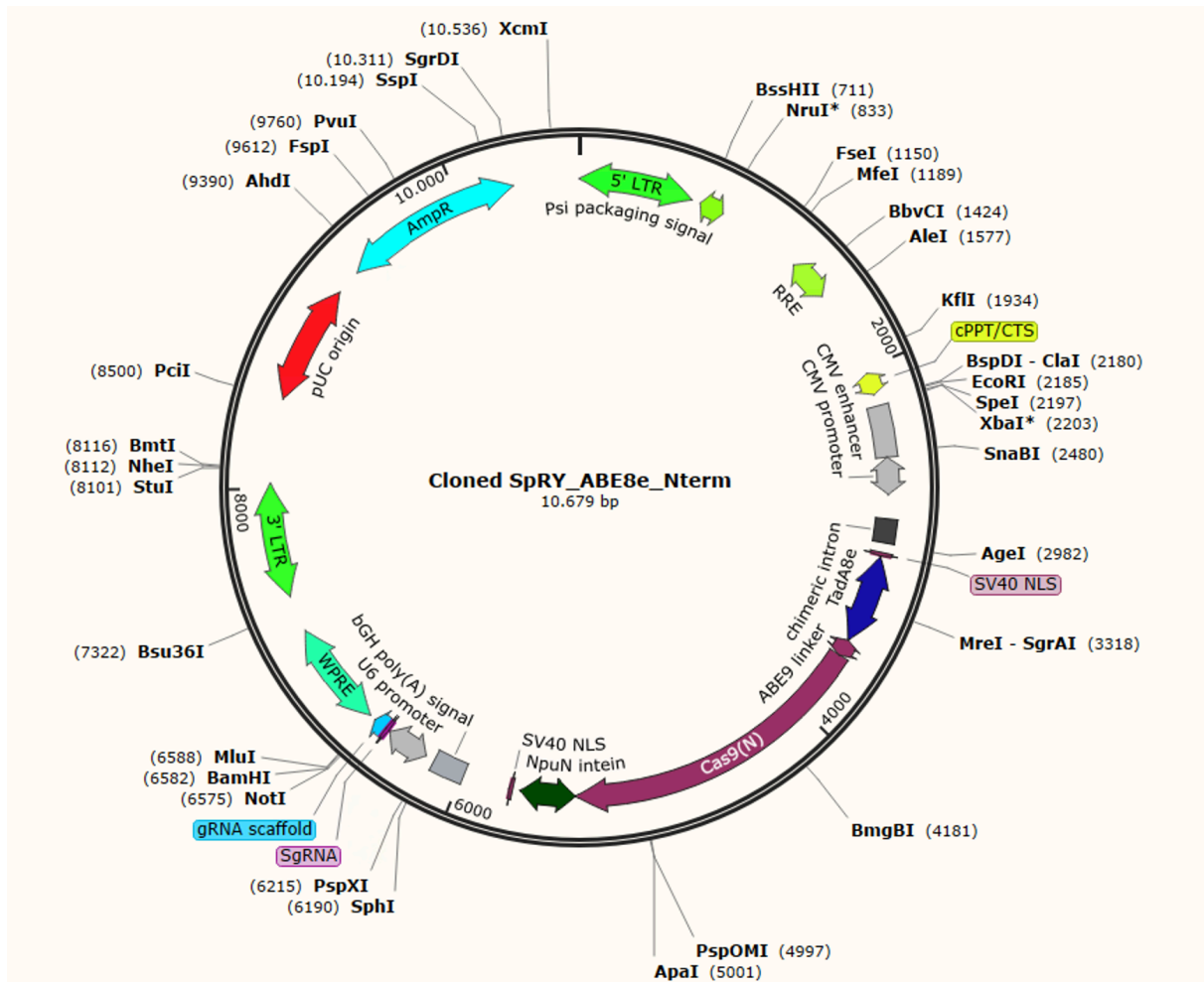
Appendix 2: #305 855_pAAV_iABE-NGa_CAS9_Nterm



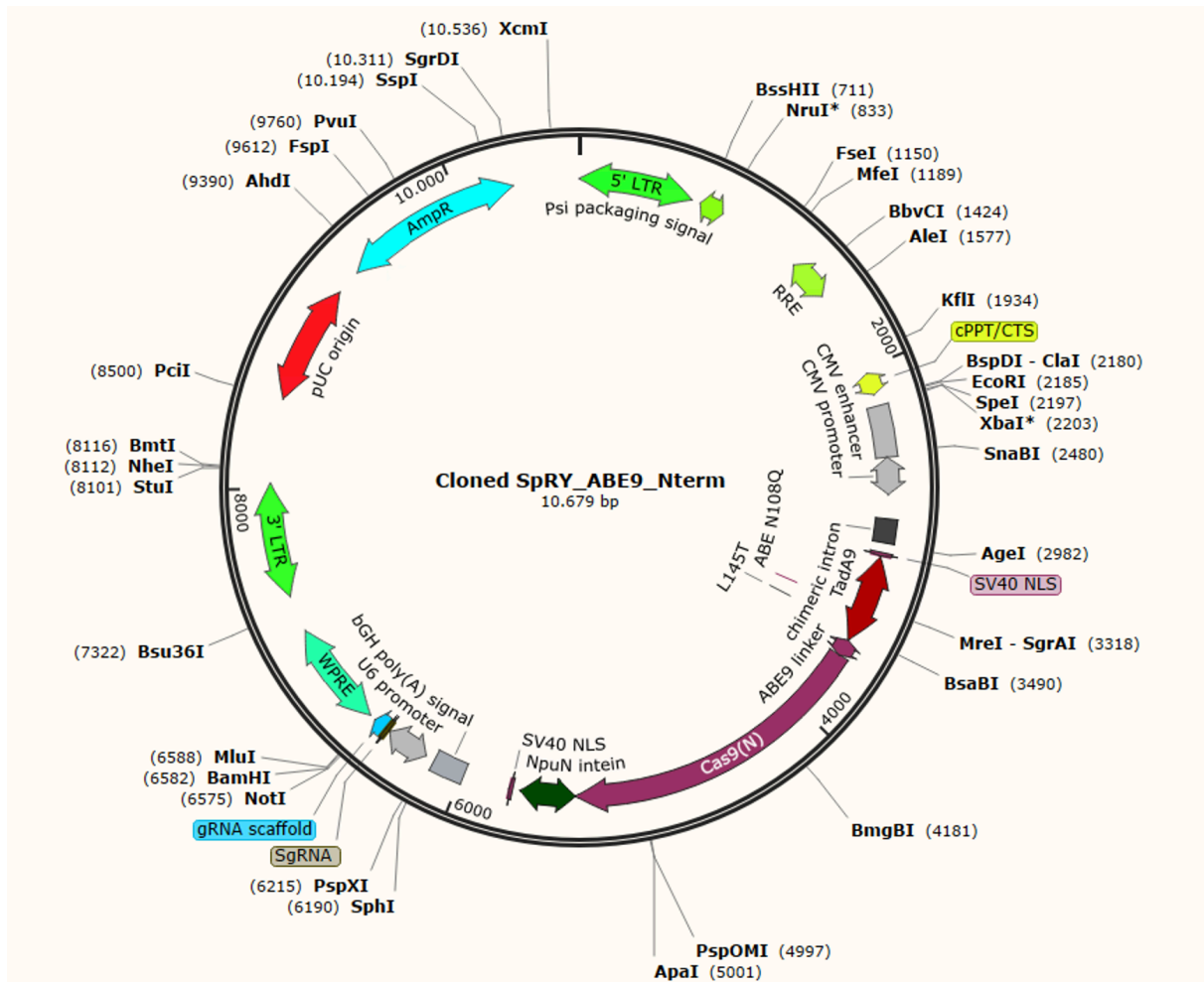
Appendix 3: SpRY-Cas9-Cterm plasmid map



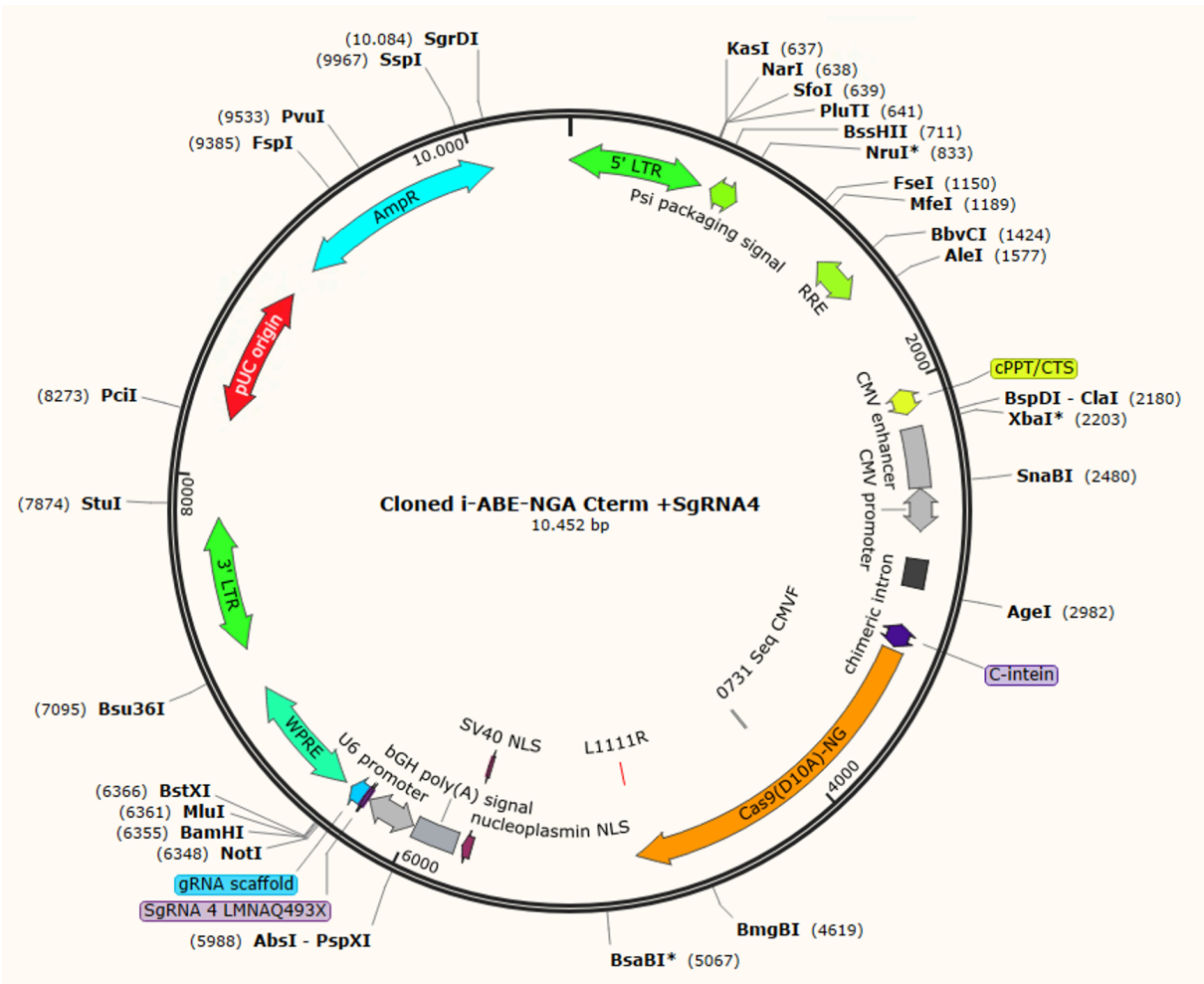
Appendix 4: SpRY-Cas9-ABE8e-Nterm plasmid map



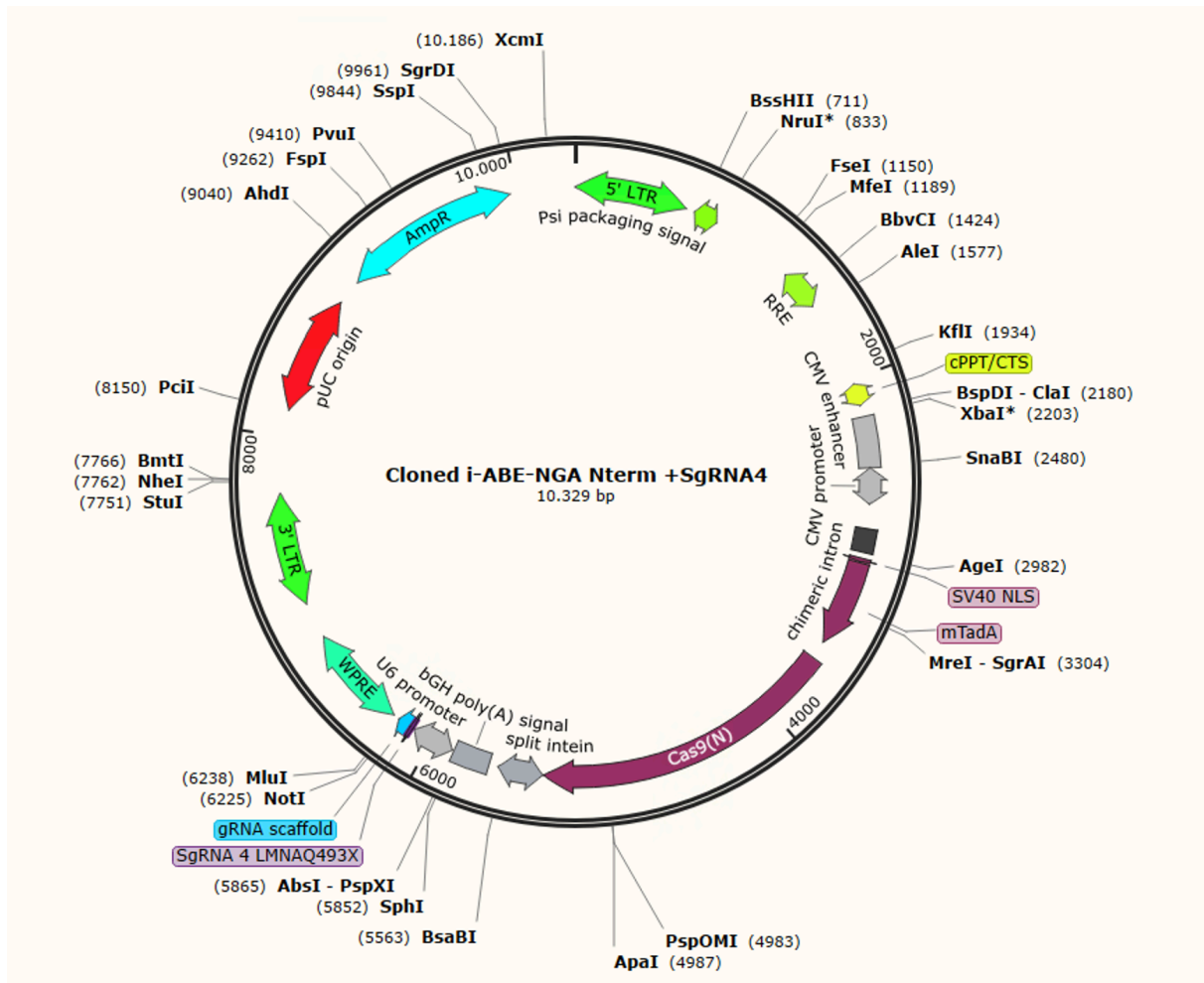
Appendix 5: SpRY-Cas9-ABE9-Nterm plasmid map



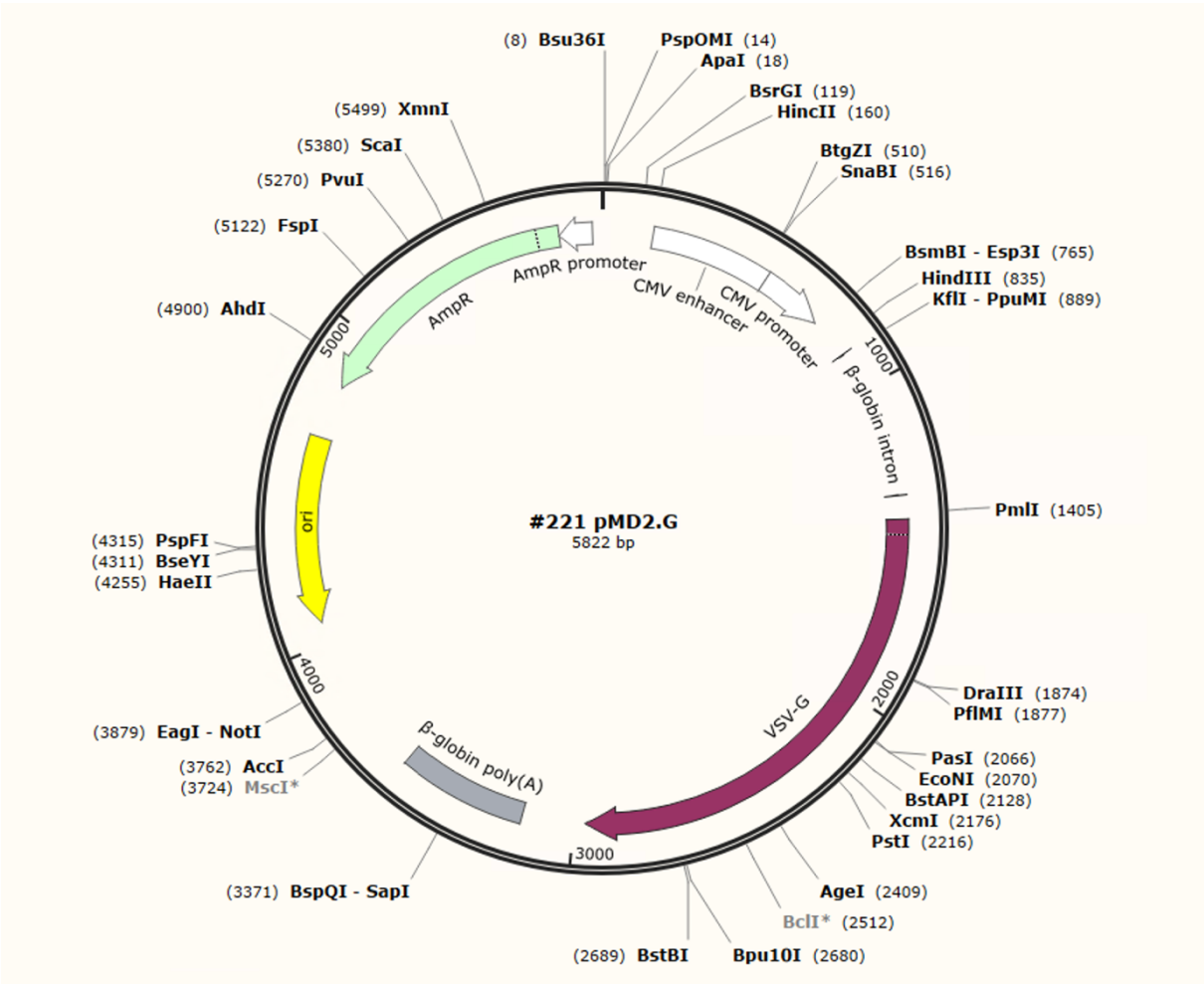
Appendix 6: iABE-NGa-Cterm plasmid map (including sgRNA)



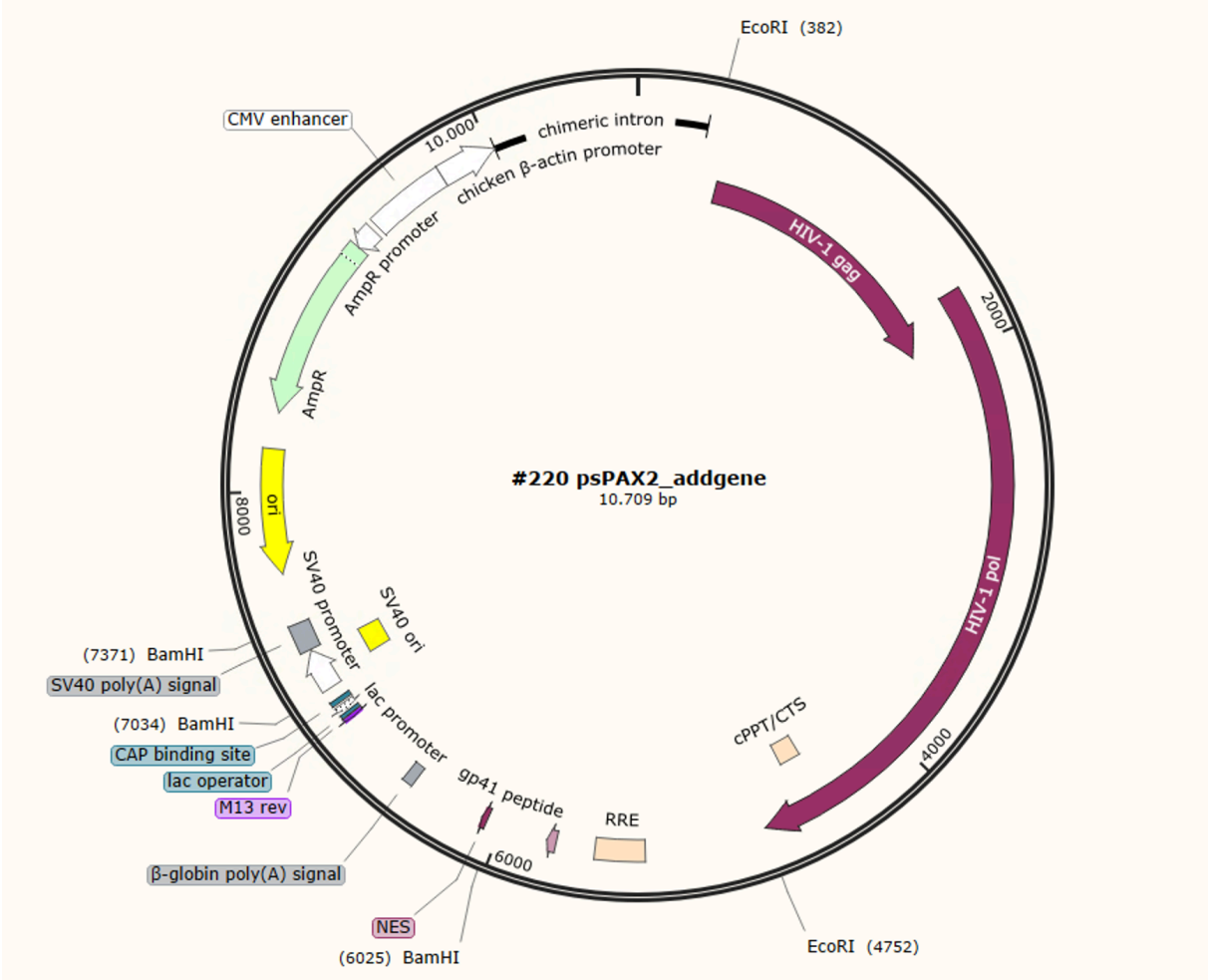
Appendix 7: iABE-NGa-Nterm plasmid map (including sgRNA)



Appendix 8: pMD2.G plasmid map



Appendix 9: psPAX2 plasmid map



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