Improved Double-Nicking Strategies for COL7A1-Editing by Homologous Recombination

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Current gene-editing approaches for treatment of recessive dystrophic epidermolysis bullosa (RDEB), an inherited, severe form of blistering skin disease, suffer from low efficiencies and safety concerns that complicate implementation in clinical settings. We present a strategy for efficient and precise repair of RDEB-associated mutations in the COL7A1 gene. We compared the efficacy of double-strand breaks (induced by CRISPR/Cas9), single nicks, or double nicks (induced by Cas9n) in mediating repair of a COL7A1 splice-site mutation in exon 3 by homologous recombination (HR). We accomplished remarkably high HR frequencies of 89% with double nicking while at the same time keeping unwanted repair outcomes, such as non-homologous end joining (NHEJ), at a minimum (11%). We also investigated the effects of subtle differences in repair template design on HR rates and found that strategic template-nicking can enhance COL7A1-editing efficiency. In RDEB patient keratinocytes, application of double-nicking led to restoration and subsequent secretion of type VII collagen at high efficiency. Comprehensive analysis of 25 putative off-target sites revealed no off-target activity for double-nicking, while usage of Cas9 resulted in 54% modified alleles at one site. Taken together, our work provides a framework for efficient, precise, and safe repair of COL7A1, which lies at the heart of a future curative therapy of RDEB.

INTRODUCTION

Recessive dystrophic epidermolysis bullosa (RDEB) is a devastating inherited skin disease that causes severe blistering of the skin and mucous membranes upon minor mechanical stress. RDEB is caused by loss-of-function mutations in the anchoring filaments forming COL7A1. The severity of RDEB depends on the type of the mutation and its location within the COL7A1 (NCBI Nucleotide: NM_000094) gene.1 RDEB is typically associated with additional severe clinical complications like aggressive squamous cell carcinoma that arise in early adulthood and are the main cause of mortality in these patients.2 So far, clinical approaches to treat RDEB mainly focus on ameliorating the symptoms rather than a cure of the disease. Different therapeutic strategies for reverting the loss of COL7A1 have been envisioned and applied, with varying success, in clinical studies.3–6 Gene therapy, using retro- or lentiviral vectors for reconstitution of functional COL7A1 in keratinocytes or fibroblasts, is a promising candidate curative therapy but appears to face several severe obstacles. These include low transduction efficiencies due to the large size of COL7A1 (cDNA 9.3 kb), random integration of the transgene flanked by viral sequences, and unwanted recombination of repetitive gene regions.4,7

Direct gene-editing of mutant patient cells, potentially even in vivo, is a highly attractive avenue. The introduction of powerful CRISPR/Cas-based technologies has significantly boosted the popularity of gene editing. Moreover, gene-editing offers the possibility to treat dominant-negative forms of the disease that are eluding conventional gene replacement strategies. The first bacterial CRISPR system to be repurposed for gene editing in human cells was the type II system from Streptococcus pyogenes.8,9 Since its inception, the CRISPR gene-editing toolbox has gone through a dramatic expansion, including the discovery of other targeting nucleases, most prominently Cas12a,10 the repurposing of Streptococcus pyogenes Cas9 (from here on Cas9) for transcriptional modulation,11 or the development of high-fidelity versions of Cas9 for improved targeting precision.12

Precise, sequence-specific editing relies on simultaneous delivery of a single-guide RNA (sgRNA) and the targeting Cas nuclease.13 CRISPR/Cas-mediated site-specific DNA cleavage activates endogenous cell DNA-repair pathways. Depending on cell type, cell-cycle stage, and

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Off-target mutagenesis.21 (Cas9n or D10A), can significantly reduce the risk of undesired off-target mutations in RDEB. Whereas Cas9 generates blunt DNA double-strand breaks (DSBs), Cas9n introduces a single-strand break. In addition, a pair of accordingly designed sgRNAs that positions two nickase molecules in close proximity and in the right orientation allows simultaneous generation of two nicks (staggered DSB) at the target locus. Aside from increased targeting specificity and safety profiles, paired nickases or double-nicking can mediate improved HR outcomes, though efficiency may vary depending on the cell type.13

Different approaches for CRISPR/Cas9-based correction of RDEB have been described,15–20 but they either suffer from low correction efficiencies or rely on the deletion of exonic sequences. Furthermore, some repair strategies entailed the introduction of short exogenous DNA sequences and can, therefore, not be considered traceless.16

Clearly, CRISPR/Cas-mediated HR needs optimization in order to achieve precise correction of COL7A1 mutations at therapeutically relevant efficiencies.

The use of a catalytically modified version of Cas9, Cas9 nickase (Cas9n or D10A), can significantly reduce the risk of undesired off-target mutagenesis.21–23 Whereas Cas9 generates blunt DNA double-strand breaks (DSBs), Cas9n introduces a single-strand break. In addition, a pair of accordingly designed sgRNAs that positions two nickase molecules in close proximity and in the right orientation allows simultaneous generation of two nicks (staggered DSB) at the target locus. Aside from increased targeting specificity and safety profiles, paired nickases or double-nicking can mediate improved HR outcomes, though efficiency may vary depending on the cell type.13

Here, we describe a double-nicking strategy for HR-mediated correction of a splice-site mutation in exon 3 of COL7A1. This particular point mutation in exon 3 (c.425A > G) falls into the 5' splice site and consequently leads to aberrant processing of exon 3. The ensuing production of faulty mRNAs leads to a shift of the open reading frame and generation of premature termination codons.24 We compared HR efficiencies mediated by Cas9, single-nicking, or double-nicking approaches and found that double-nicking consistently outperforms all other approaches. We also investigated the effects of subtle template modifications and determined that strategic nicking of templates can further improve HR efficiencies. Next-generation sequencing (NGS) of potential off-target regions revealed no detectable nickase-mediated genome toxicity, underscoring the higher safety of using Cas9n compared to Cas9.

In conclusion, our work lays the foundation for efficient, safe, and precise correction of COL7A1 mutations in RDEB.

**RESULTS**

**Selection and Functional Validation of Specific sgRNA Pairs for HR-Mediated Correction of COL7A1**

Initially, we sought to compare gene-editing characteristics (NHEJ versus HR) of Cas9 and Cas9n. The use of a Cas9n in combination with paired sgRNAs was described previously as an appealing strategy for efficient gene-editing with reduced off-target activity.22,23 Co-delivery of plasmids encoding Cas9 or Cas9n with a donor plasmid (DP) carrying the homologous COL7A1 sequence for HR is predicted to lead to DNA cleavage at the COL7A1 target locus and subsequent DNA repair (Figure 1). Upon DNA cleavage, two distinct repair pathways, HR and NHEJ, can be initiated. Whereas HR can lead to precise repair of the mutation, NHEJ generally leads to induction of indels that do not correct the mutation. The desired outcome is that the
We first assessed proper function of different sgRNAs by delivering combinations of plasmids encoding Cas9/sgRNA or Cas9n/sgRNA into HEK293 cells and performing a T7 endonuclease I (T7EI) assay on the PCR-amplified COL7A1 on-target region (Figure S2). T7EI digestions confirmed that all selected sgRNAs direct Cas9 to the COL7A1 target region for DSB induction (Figures S2A and S2B). When co-delivering sgRNA1 and 2, sgRNA3 and 4, or sgRNA3 and 5 in combination with Cas9n into HEK293 cells (double-nicking approach), we observed comparable levels of T7EI-mediated cleavage (Figures S2A and S2B). As expected, HEK293 cells transfected with respective Cas9n/sgRNA plasmids (single-nicking) did not show any digestion pattern upon T7EI treatment (Figures S2A and S2B). Although sgRNA4 was expected to exclusively direct the cleavage of mutant COL7A1, it also directed the cleavage of wild-type COL7A1 by Cas9 in HEK293 cells, most likely based on usage of an alternative PAM (NAG instead of NGG) (Figure S2B). An alternative explanation may be that a bulge might allow sgRNA4 to cut wild-type COL7A1.27 The unspecific band in Figure S2B most likely is the result of heteroduplex formation during the initial PCR.28

**HR-Mediated COL7A1 Repair Using Double-Nicking and Donor Plasmids**

For HR-mediated correction of the causal splice-site mutation (c.425A > G) in immortalized RDEB keratinocytes, either homozygous (RDEB het.) or homozygous (RDEB hom.) for the respective mutation, we first used a DP that carries a homologous donor sequence ranging from exon 2 to intron 7 of COL7A1, an EcoRI restriction site within intron 3, elongation factor 1 (EF1)-GFP, and an internal ribosomal entry site (IRES)-blasticidin selection cassette (DP01) (Figure 2A).

We first tested the feasibility of our double-nicking approach by cotransfection of DP01 and a combination of intron 3-specific Cas9n/sgRNA1 and Cas9n/sgRNA2 expression plasmids into immortalized wild-type keratinocytes (hKcs). After 2 weeks of blasticidin selection, we observed almost 100% GFP+ cells (Figure S3A), which were further analyzed regarding gene-editing efficiency. To this end, we performed a nested PCR on the COL7A1 on-target region. Subsequent EcoRI digestion of the resulting PCR products indicated high HR efficiency (Figures S3B and S3C). Untransfected hKcs served as negative controls.

Next, we tested our constructs in RDEB het. keratinocytes and compared Cas9, Cas9n single-nicking, and double-nicking in directing HR-mediated repair of COL7A1. Untransfected RDEB het. keratinocytes (no antibiotic selection) and RDEB het. keratinocytes transfected with DP01 only (blasticidin-selected) served as negative controls. To exclude the potential impact of variable transfection
efficiencies and to maintain a homogeneous cell population harboring the transfected plasmids, the target cell population was pre-selected with blasticidin. In general, we achieved a transfection efficiency of ~30% in immortalized RDEB het. keratinocytes as estimated by the analysis of GFP expression via flow cytometry (Figure S4A). As expected, following 2 weeks of blasticidin selection, ~99% of RDEB het. keratinocytes were GFP⁺ (Figure S4B).

At this point, cells were harvested, genomic DNA was extracted, and the target region was PCR-amplified using a primer pair binding to intron 1 and exon 5 of COL7A1, thereby excluding possible amplification of persisting DP (Table S2). A nested PCR was performed, and fragments were sub-cloned and analyzed by Sanger sequencing. Highest HR efficiency (89%) was found in cells treated with Cas9n/sgRNA4 and 80% (Cas9n/sgRNA3 and Cas9n/sgRNA5) were respectively (Figure 3B). The percentages are in good accordance with our efficiencies described above.

We also compared HR efficiencies induced by intron 3 targeting sgRNAs (sgRNA1, sgRNA2) to those induced by combinations of sgRNAs targeting exon 3 (sgRNA3, sgRNA4, sgRNA5). We found that sgRNAs targeting exon 3 were slightly less efficient in inducing HR. Specifically, HR efficiencies of 63% (Cas9n/sgRNA3 and Cas9n/sgRNA4) and 80% (Cas9n/sgRNA3 and Cas9n/sgRNA5) were observed for the sgRNA combinations targeting exon 3 (Figure S5C).

Kinetic studies in RDEB het. keratinocytes treated with intron 3-specific double-nicking constructs (Cas9n/sgRNA1 and 2) and DP01 highlighted the impact of blasticidin selection on general HR efficiency. One day after transfection, HR was already detectable at about 5%, but increased to almost 13% 4 days after treatment and 2 days of selection (Figure 2C). We assume that at this point, nearly all cells harbored the DP01 due to selection pressure. Eleven days after transfection and 9 days of blasticidin selection, NHEJ was detected in 40% of all analyzed sequences and was, therefore, still more prominent than HR, which increased to 19%. After 2 weeks of selection, however, HR efficiency increased to 78%, whereas NHEJ decreased to 16% (Figure 2C). To test whether the increase in HR efficiency is due to persisting Cas9 expression in bulk-selected cells, Cas9 protein levels were monitored at different time points after transfection into RDEB het. keratinocytes by western blot analysis. As expected, Cas9 expression levels significantly decreased within the first 7 days after transfection (Figure S6).

Restoration of Type VII Collagen Expression in RDEB Keratinocytes

To test if HR-mediated repair of COL7A1 correlated with restoration of type VII collagen (C7⁺) expression in RDEB keratinocytes, we transfected the intron 3-specific Cas9n/sgRNA combination (sgRNA1+2) (Figure 2A) along with DP01 into an immortalized RDEB hom. keratinocyte cell line. Ensuing DNA cleavage and precise HR between DP01 and endogenous COL7A1 led to the correction of the mutation and thus to restoration of C7 expression in treated cells, as shown by immunofluorescence microscopy (Figure 3A). No C7 expression was detectable in untreated RDEB keratinocytes. Quantification of C7⁺-expressing cells by cell counting revealed an encouraging 32% and 77% of C7⁺ cells after 1 and 2 weeks of blasticidin selection, respectively (Figure 3B). The percentages are in good accordance with our genomic analysis of HR efficiencies described above.

Western blot analysis of cell lysates and cell culture supernatants from treated RDEB hom. keratinocytes. Proteins were revealed using antibodies against C7 and β-tubulin (β-tub). Wild-type keratinocytes and untreated RDEB hom. keratinocytes served as positive and negative control, respectively. Densiometric analysis of the C7 bands was performed, and relative values are indicated. Numbering of lanes [1], [2], [3], and [4] corresponds to sample descriptions in (A) and (B).
of HR efficiencies in RDEB patient keratinocytes heterozygous for splice site mutation (RDEB het.). Combinations of Cas9n/sgRNA-encoding plasmids were delivered with indicated DPs (DP03 or DP04). HR efficiencies were analyzed after 7 and 14 days of blasticidin selection and are presented as heatmaps (dark blue colors correspond to higher HR efficiencies). Percentages of gene-editing outcomes are shown in Table S5.

Paired Double-Nicking Improves HR Efficiencies

Recently, Chen et al.\textsuperscript{29} showed that flanking the homologous donor sequence with additional Cas9n target sites (TSs, including the PAMs) can further improve knockin (HR) efficiencies in pluripotent stem cells. Therefore, we designed different DPs (DP05-12) with inactivated PAM sites within the homologous arms and added different constellations of flanking sgRNA TSs (TS3 or TS4/5) (Figure S9A). We co-transfected a total of nine different DPs together with Cas9n/sgRNA5, Cas9n/sgRNA3, or Cas9n/sgRNA3+5-expressing plasmids (Figure S9B) into RDEB het. patient keratinocytes and started blasticidin selection 2 days post-transfection for 2, 5, and 10 days, each. Analogous to the findings of Chen et al.,\textsuperscript{29} we observed increased HR efficiencies for paired nicking (samples e–g and i–k) with up to 9% HR rate compared to single-nicking (Figure S9C, samples d and h), with up to 1.6% HR rate after 10 days of selection. In addition, on-target double-nicking induced significantly higher HR rates in general (samples a–c, up to 25.5% HR rate) compared to the single-nicking samples (samples d–k, up to 9% HR rate). Double-nicking in combination with donor template double-nicking (paired double-nicking, samples b and c) additionally improved HR rates from 18% up to 25.5% after 10 days of selection (Figure S9C).

To assess whether one flanking or two flanking TSs are required for improved HR efficiencies upon double-nicking, we co-transfected all different DPs (DP02, DP05–12) together with the Cas9n/sgRNA3+5 pair into RDEB het. patient keratinocytes and selected them 2 days after transfection for 1 week with blasticidin. NGS analysis revealed improved HR rates (8% up to 11%) for all samples treated with repair templates containing flanking TSs (DP05–DP12) compared to HR (5%) achieved with the original donor template (DP02). The most efficient repair templates showed an HR increase of up to 2-fold at the genomic level (Figure S10A).

Finally, we co-transfected all generated DPs along with the Cas9n/sgRNA3+5 pair (double-nicking) into the RDEB hom. patient keratinocyte cell line to ascertain that HR rates observed by NGS correlate with correction and restoration of C7 protein. We started blasticidin selection of treated bulk populations 2 days post-transfection for 5 days and analyzed restoration of C7 expression via immunofluorescence microscopy. Our immunofluorescence data confirmed NGS
results, showing that the addition of Ts flanking the homologous arms on the repair templates can further improve HR efficiency, resulting in the correction of the targeted mutation and thereby restoring C7 in treated patient keratinocytes (Figures S10B and S10C).

**Off-Target Analysis Reveals Superior Safety Profile of Double-Nicking Approach**

Future clinical implementation of gene-editing therapies needs to address safety concerns originating from potential off-target activity of Cas9. RNA-guided engineered nucleases not only cleave on-target locations but may also cleave off-target sites that differ by several nucleotides from the on-target sites, causing unwanted off-target mutations. Cas9 originated from *Streptococcus pyogenes* recognizes 5'-NGG-3' PAM sequences but also, to a lesser extent, 5'-NRC-3'. In addition, Lin et al. could show that CRISPR/Cas9 systems can tolerate an extra base (DNA bulge) or a missing base (sgRNA bulge) at various locations compared with the corresponding RNA guide strand. We predicted several different off-target loci using the CRISPR RGEN tool (Cas-OFFinder) and performed NGS on genomic DNA isolated from Cas9/sgRNA1, Cas9/sgRNA2, and Cas9/sgRNA1+2-treated and blasticidin-selected RDEB het. keratinocyte bulk populations. We analyzed 26 different sgRNA off-target sites, 12 for sgRNA1 and 14 for sgRNA2 (Table 1), and compared the off-target activity of Cas9 and Cas9n. NGS analysis revealed considerable off-target activity of Cas9 and the induction of deletions at the sgRNA1 off-target locus 9 (OT9) (Figure 5A). Importantly, no such off-target activity was detected in cells treated with Cas9n, emphasizing the improved safety profile of double-nicking (Figure 5A). We confirmed our NGS findings by performing a T7EI assay on the PCR-amplified OT9 (Figure 5B). Analysis of the deletion profile at OT9 revealed the prevalence of certain deletions, which account for more than 80% of all observed modifications (Figure 5C).

### Table 1. Predicted Off-Target Regions within the Human Genome

| Name | Bulge Type | Target Site | PAM | Chr. | Position | Dir. | Mism. | Bulge Size |
|------|------------|-------------|-----|------|----------|------|-------|------------|
| sgRNA1 | X | DNA: 5'-TGGAGGCCATGGTACGGGTTGGG-3' | GGG | Chr.3 | 48593508 | + | 0 | 0 |
| OT1 | X | DNA: 5'-gGGAAGGCGATGGTACGGGTTGGG-3' | GGG | Chr.7 | 12806174 | - | 3 | 0 |
| OT2 | X | DNA: 5'-TGAGGATSGTGATGAGGTTGGG-3' | AAG | Chr.6 | 115600821 | + | 3 | 0 |
| OT3 | X | DNA: 5'-TGGAGGCCATGGTACGGGTTGGG-3' | GAG | Chr.2 | 27052809 | - | 2 | 0 |
| OT4 | X | DNA: 5'-TGGAGGCCATGGTACGGGTTGGG-3' | GAG | Chr.12 | 103181813 | - | 3 | 0 |
| OT5 | X | DNA: 5'-TGGAGGCCATGGTACGGGTTGGG-3' | GAG | Chr.7 | 49864974 | + | 3 | 0 |
| OT6 | X | DNA: 5'-TGGAGGCCATGGTACGGGTTGGG-3' | AAG | Chr.15 | 69967776 | - | 3 | 0 |
| OT7 | X | DNA: 5'-TGGAGGCCATGGTACGGGTTGGG-3' | AAG | Chr.17 | 53017784 | - | 3 | 0 |
| OT8 | X | DNA: 5'-TGGAGGCCATGGTACGGGTTGGG-3' | AAG | Chr.6 | 143390635 | - | 3 | 0 |
| OT9 | RNA | DNA: 3'-TGGAGGCCATGGTACGGGTTGGG-3' | AAG | Chr.7 | 49312556 | + | 1 | 1 |
| OT10 | RNA | DNA: 5'-TGGAGGCCATGGTACGGGTTGGG-3' | GGG | Chr.16 | 57973429 | + | 1 | 1 |
| OT11 | DNA | DNA: 5'-TGGAGGCCATGGTACGGGTTGGG-3' | AAG | Chr.20 | 18188729 | - | 1 | 1 |
| OT12 | DNA | DNA: 5'-TGGAGGCCATGGTACGGGTTGGG-3' | AAG | Chr.19 | 4567778 | - | 1 | 1 |
| sgRNA2 | X | DNA: 5'-TGGAGGCCATGGTACGGGTTGGG-3' | AAG | Chr.3 | 48593482 | - | 0 | 0 |
| OT1 | X | DNA: 5'-TGGAGGCCATGGTACGGGTTGGG-3' | TGG | Chr.4 | 144749916 | + | 3 | 0 |
| OT2 | X | DNA: 5'-TGGAGGCCATGGTACGGGTTGGG-3' | GGG | Chr.7 | 151453441 | - | 3 | 0 |
| OT3 | X | DNA: 5'-TGGAGGCCATGGTACGGGTTGGG-3' | TGG | Chr.4 | 10203476 | - | 3 | 0 |
| OT4 | X | DNA: 5'-TGGAGGCCATGGTACGGGTTGGG-3' | GAG | Chr.14 | 91551688 | - | 3 | 0 |
| OT5 | DNA | DNA: 5'-TGGAGGCCATGGTACGGGTTGGG-3' | AAG | Chr.5 | 41656495 | - | 1 | 1 |
| OT6 | RNA | DNA: 5'-TGGAGGCCATGGTACGGGTTGGG-3' | TGG | Chr.8 | 10173126 | - | 2 | 1 |
| OT7 | RNA | DNA: 5'-TGGAGGCCATGGTACGGGTTGGG-3' | TGG | Chr.7 | 67323816 | - | 2 | 1 |
| OT8 | RNA | DNA: 5'-TGGAGGCCATGGTACGGGTTGGG-3' | AAG | Chr.4 | 176645058 | - | 2 | 1 |
| OT9 | RNA | DNA: 5'-TGGAGGCCATGGTACGGGTTGGG-3' | CAG | Chr.13 | 111220093 | + | 2 | 1 |
| OT10 | RNA | DNA: 5'-TGGAGGCCATGGTACGGGTTGGG-3' | CAG | Chr.19 | 17264712 | - | 2 | 1 |
| OT11 | RNA | DNA: 5'-TGGAGGCCATGGTACGGGTTGGG-3' | CAG | Chr.14 | 75842876 | - | 2 | 1 |
| OT12 | DNA | DNA: 5'-TGGAGGCCATGGTACGGGTTGGG-3' | TAG | Chr.10 | 53956749 | - | 1 | 1 |
| OT13 | RNA | DNA: 5'-TGGAGGCCATGGTACGGGTTGGG-3' | AAG | Chr.10 | 11321645 | + | 1 | 1 |
| OT14 | RNA | DNA: 5'-TGGAGGCCATGGTACGGGTTGGG-3' | CAG | Chr.X | 89080746 | - | 1 | 1 |

Chr., Chromosome; Dir., Direction; Mism., Mismatches.

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DISCUSSION
In the work presented here, we describe an improved selection-based strategy for highly efficient repair of RDEB-associated mutations in COL7A1. Specifically, we compared the efficiencies of DSBs (induced by Cas9), single nicks, or double nicks (induced by Cas9n) in driving HR-mediated repair of COL7A1 (c.425A > G splice-site mutation in exon 3) and found that double-nicking consistently yields superior repair outcomes.

For double-nicking, we tested exon- as well as intron-targeting pairs of sgRNAs and found comparable HR efficiencies. Considering the lower risk of inducing unwanted open reading frame mutations, we opted for the intron-targeting pair of sgRNAs in subsequent experiments. After 2 weeks of antibiotic selection, we found remarkable HR efficiencies of up to 89%. Importantly, only about 11% of all analyzed clones displayed signs of undesired NHEJ (indels). In RDEB patient keratinocytes homozygous for the splice-site mutation, application of our double-nicking strategy led to restoration of C7 expression at high efficiency. A potential caveat of using intron-specific sgRNAs might be the increased frequency of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in patient introns that demands careful consideration during sgRNA design.

A significant concern is that our selection-based strategy may lead to targeted or random integration of the entire DP or large parts thereof, thereby skewing the accurate measurement of HR efficiency. Indeed, we obtained data that point to the existence of targeted integration of parts of the DP, including the DP backbone. However, ensuing semi-quantitative experiments indicate that only a minority of HR events are actually due to targeted integration of large portions of the DP (Figure S7). On the other hand, random integration or persisting plasmid would not be amplified by our PCR strategy and, therefore, not falsely be quantified as HR. Although our selection-based system demands careful interpretation of absolute HR efficiencies, we believe that it is an excellent system for directly comparing different DSB, single-nicking, and double-nicking strategies in driving HR and precise repair of disease-causing mutations. Our results, consequently, provide a rationale for further development of the double-nicking strategy.

In addition, we evaluated the safety of our COL7A1 intron 3 double-nicking strategy by NGS analysis. We investigated off-target activities of Cas9 and Cas9n at 26 different predicted sites and found pronounced Cas9-induced modifications at one locus (OT9). At this site, Cas9 allowed one RNA bulge and one mismatch, compared to the sgRNA1 on-target region for cutting. Importantly, no off-target activity was detectable at any site for Cas9n double-nicking.

A variety of strategies have been tried or envisioned to ease the burden of the RDEB, but a complete cure remains an ambitious future goal. The ability to genetically modify patient cells with high efficiency is a critical prerequisite toward this goal. Although the most desirable treatment option for RDEB, and many other inherited diseases for that matter, is correction of causative mutations in vivo, strategies toward this end are still far from application in clinical settings. Concerns regarding efficient and safe delivery of gene-editing reagents still persist. Consequently, cutaneous ex vivo gene therapy, the transplantation of genetically modified keratinocyte stem cells, remains at the center of RDEB research up to this date.
In general, ex vivo gene therapy relies on either gene replacement, where a full copy of the wild-type gene is introduced into patient-derived cells, or gene-editing, where the mutated gene is reverted to wild-type by DNA-modifying reagents, such as CRISPR/Cas9. Whereas gene replacement approaches have been successful for other forms of EB, such as the substitution of \( \text{LAMB3} \) in cells from patients with junctional epidermolysis bullosa,\textsuperscript{32–34} efforts to replace mutant \( \text{COL7A1} \) in cells from RDEB patients have yielded limited therapeutic applicability so far.

Several groups successfully attempted gene-editing of \( \text{COL7A1} \) in cells derived from RDEB patients.\textsuperscript{15–20,35} Chamorro et al.\textsuperscript{35} introduced a transcription activator-like effector nuclease (TALEN)-based strategy for correction of the c.6527insC mutation in \( \text{COL7A1} \). They combined adeno-associated virus (AAV)-mediated delivery of repair template with adenovirus (AV)-mediated delivery of TALENs and observed restoration of the \( \text{COL7A1} \) reading frame by both HR and NHEJ in clones of keratinocytes.\textsuperscript{35}

Other approaches used the combination of gene-editing and induced pluripotent stem cell (iPSC) technologies as a potential treatment of RDEB.\textsuperscript{15} Here, patient-derived primary fibroblasts were initially modified and subsequently used to obtain iPSCs. These iPSCs were later re-differentiated into different cell types, including keratinocytes. Owing to low editing efficiency, the protocol included an antibiotic selection step of cells in bulk, limited dilution, clonal selection, single-cell expansion, and screening of individual clones. For antibiotic selection, a puromycin cassette flanked by loxp sites was employed that, after Cre-mediated removal, leaves a loxp footprint in the targeted intron.

For dominant-negative mutations, reading-frame disruption offers an interesting alternative to HR-based approaches. Shinkuma et al.\textsuperscript{36} targeted the c.8068_8084delinsGA mutation in exon 109 of \( \text{COL7A1} \) associated with dominant-negative dystrophic epidermolysis bullosa (DDEB). Mutation site-specific NHEJ was induced by CRISPR/Cas9-based gene-editing in iPSCs generated from patient-derived fibroblasts, leading to knockout of the mutant-specific allele while leaving the wild-type allele intact. A caveat with the approach is the dependence on a complex mutation (17-bp deletion with a GA insert) that allows the design of a mutant allele-specific sgRNA that is absent in the wild-type allele. Furthermore, prediction of repair outcomes was described only recently\textsuperscript{37–39} and was, therefore, not considered for sgRNA design. Consequently, only a small number of modified cells showed the desired phenotype of uninterrupted C7 trimer formation.

Clearly, improved HR efficiencies and predictable repair outcomes are pivotal for advancing experimental gene therapies into clinical settings. Based on previous studies, a correction efficiency of 35% is estimated to be sufficient for complete phenotypic recovery in vitro and in vivo.\textsuperscript{40,41} Numerous aspects have an influence on HR efficiencies, including delivery and modus operandi of DNA-modifying agents, the nature of the repair template, or cell type and cell cycle stage. High efficiency, high precision, and seamless repair all need to be carefully balanced in future ex vivo therapies to circumvent the need for antibiotic selection and clonal expansion of corrected cells. Although Cas9 is highly efficient in inducing DNA DSBs and ensuing DNA repair, subtle modifications in experimental design can significantly alter the outcome of such efforts. Furthermore, CRISPR/Cas approaches require at this point a transfection of target cells that might alter the proliferative capacity of edited cells. Specifically, keratinocytes might lose their potential to proliferate.

An increasing number of reports describe successful \( \text{COL7A1} \)-editing in immortalized and primary cells.\textsuperscript{15–20,35,36,42} We previously described HR-based correction of a \( \text{COL7A1} \) hotspot mutation in exon 80.\textsuperscript{15} While NGS analysis revealed an on-target cutting efficiency of up to 30% and no detectable-off-target events, relatively low HR efficiencies made the use of a selection-based system and expansion of corrected single-cells clones mandatory. Consequently, subsequent removal of the selection system left a 116 nucleotide insert at the target locus and could, therefore, not be considered traceless repair.

Recently, Cas9/sgRNA ribonucleoproteins (RNPs) have been shown to provide increased targeting efficiency compared to plasmid transfection.\textsuperscript{43} Higher rates of editing and shorter persistence in the nucleus combine for a larger number of edited cells and reduced off-target activity.\textsuperscript{43,44} RNPs have been tested ex vivo and in vivo for correction of RDEB-associated \( \text{COL7A1} \) mutations in exon 80.\textsuperscript{19,42} Excision of exon 80 resulted in restoration of C7 and functional correction in RDEB keratinocytes without noticeable toxicity.\textsuperscript{19}

Going forward, we believe that combining RNP delivery with double nicking and optimized repair templates will offer the best option for correction of \( \text{COL7A1} \) mutations in terms of efficiency and precision.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

**Design and Cloning of sgRNA Specific for Exon 3 and Intron 3 of \( \text{COL7A1} \)**

Putative sgRNA target sites within exon 3 and intron 3 of the \( \text{COL7A1} \) gene were predicted using the online prediction platform CHOPCHOP.\textsuperscript{24,26} sgRNA4 was rationally designed to preferentially target the mutant allele, since the splice-site mutation in exon 3 in the patient cell lines creates a new PAM site not present in human wild-type keratinocytes. sgRNA1 and 2 were designed to target intron 3, while sgRNA3, 4, and 5 were designed to target exon 3 of \( \text{COL7A1} \) and cloned as double-stranded oligonucleotides (Table S1) into either the CMV-T7-hspsCas9-T2A-GFP-H1-gRNA CAS740G-1 linearized SmartNuclease vector or the CMV-T7-hspsCas9-nickase-T2A-GFP-H1-gRNA CAS790G-1 linearized SmartNickase vector (System Bioscience, Palo Alto, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer’s protocol.

**Generation of Donor Plasmid (DP01) for Intron 3 Targeting**

The \( \text{COL7A1} \) HR DP for intron 3 targeting (sgRNA1 and sgRNA2) was PCR-amplified and cloned into the MN511A-1 vector (System
Bioscience, Palo Alto, CA, USA), harboring an EF1-GFP and an IRES-blasticidin selection cassette integrated via the Sall restriction site. PCR amplification of the 5′ homologous COL7A1 sequence fragment was performed using genomic DNA from a healthy donor as template. The PCR product was generated using an exon 2-specific forward primer (P11) and an intron 3-specific reverse primer (P12) and subsequently cloned into the MN511A-1-MC vector via SmaI and EcoRI restriction sites. The resulting 1,054-bp PCR fragment includes silent mutations to inactivate the PAM next to the sgRNA1 binding site within intron 3. The second PCR fragment (1,051 bp) was amplified using an intron 3-specific forward primer (P13), including two silent mutations to inactivate the PAM next to the sgRNA2 binding site within intron 3, and an intron 7-specific reverse primer (P14) and was subsequently cloned using the restriction sites EcoRI and BamHI into the target vector. Sanger sequencing primer (P14) and was subsequently cloned using the restriction sgRNA2 binding site within intron 3, and an intron 7-specific reverse sites EcoRI and BamHI into the target vector. Sanger sequencing confirmed all resulting plasmid sequences. The final homology donor template encompasses the entire COL7A1 region spanning from exon 2 to intron 7 and includes an EcoRI site within intron 3 for convenient HR detection. The IRES-blasticidin cassette was cloned downstream of an EF1-GFP cassette according to Peking et al.\textsuperscript{14} (see Table S1 for primer sequences).

**Generation of the Donor Plasmids Harboring Intact (DP03) or Mutated PAM Sites (DP04) for Exon and Intron 3 Targeting**

To create DPs with either four intact (DP03) or four mutated PAM sites (DP04), we performed mutagenesis using the Q5 site-directed mutagenesis kit (New England Biolabs, Frankfurt am Main, Germany) according the manufacturer’s protocol. Site-directed mutagenesis on the DP for intron 3 targeting, which harbors the inactivated PAM sites for sgRNA1 and sgRNA2, created one repair template with intact PAMs (DP03) and one template with mutated PAMs (DP04) for all five sgRNA binding sites used in our experiments. The resulting homology donor templates encompasses the entire COL7A1 region spanning from exon 2 to intron 7 and incorporates EcoRI restriction site within intron 3, facilitating HR detection (see Table S1 for primer sequences).

**Generation of Different Donor Plasmids Used for Exon 3 Targeting (DP02, DP05–12)**

The 5′ and 3′ homologous COL7A1 arms for exon 3 targeting (sgRNA3, sgRNA4, and sgRNA5) were PCR-amplified and sequentially cloned into the MN511A-1 vector. The 5′ homologous arm (818 bp) was PCR-amplified using an intron 2-specific forward primer (P15) and an exon 3-specific reverse primer (P16) incorporating two silent mutations in exon 3, one resulting in a Nhel restriction site and the second resulting in the inactivation of the PAM site next to the sgRNA3 binding site. The PCR fragment was cloned into the MN511A-1 vector via the restriction sites SmaI and Nhel. The 3′ homologous arm (868 bp) was PCR-amplified using an exon 3-specific forward primer (P17), which incorporates six silent mutations, five of them preventing binding of sgRNA4 and sgRNA5 and one resulting in a Nhel restriction site within exon 3, and an intron 6-specific reverse primer (P18). The resulting PCR fragment was cloned into the 5′ HA containing MN511A-1 vector via Nhel and BamHI. Sanger sequencing validated all constructs. The resulting homology donor template (DP02) encompasses the entire COL7A1 region from intron 2 to intron 6 and incorporates a Nhel site within exon 3, thereby not changing the amino acid code and facilitating HR detection.

Subsequently, six different PCR fragments were PCR-amplified from the original donor template (DP02) using either intron 2-specific forward primer (P27, P29), which includes flanking sgRNA3 and sgRNA4 binding sites with intact PAMs, and/or intron 6-specific reverse primer (P28, P30), which includes flanking sgRNA3 and sgRNA4 binding sites with intact PAMs. The resulting PCR fragments were cloned into the MN511A-1 vector via the SmaI and BamHI sites, concurrently excising the cytomegalovirus (CMV) promoter. The resulting homology donor templates (DP05–10) encompass the entire COL7A1 region spanning from intron 2 to intron 6 and incorporate a Nhel site within exon 3 for HR detection. In addition, these donor templates encompass either 5′-flanking Ts for sgRNA3 or sgRNA4, 3′-flanking Ts for sgRNA3 or sgRNA4, or both.

Donor templates (DP11 and DP12) encompassing 5′ and 3′ sgRNA3 Ts or 5′ and 3′ sgRNA4 Ts were created using primers for Q5 mutagenesis and the pre-existing donor templates DP05 and DP07 (see Table S1 for primer sequences).

**Transient Transfection of Donor Plasmids**

The embryonic kidney cell line HEK293 (Stratagene, La Jolla, CA, USA) was cultivated in DMEM supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and 100 U/mL penicillin/100 μg/mL streptomycin (Biochrom, Berlin, Germany). RDEB keratinocytes were obtained via skin biopsies of two patients (RDEB16 and RDEB223) carrying a homozygous splice-site mutation in COL7A1 exon 3 (c.425A > G / c.425A > G) and one patient (RDEB03) carrying combined heterozygous mutations (c.425A > G / c.5440C > T) in exon 3 and exon 63 of COL7A1, upon received written informed consent. The immortalized RDEB keratinocyte cell lines were termed RDEB het. and RDEB hom. throughout the manuscript. Immortalized RDEB keratinocytes and normal human keratinocytes (hKc) were cultivated in keratinocyte serum-free media (SFM) medium (Gibco, Invitrogen, Paisley, UK) supplemented with bovine pituitary extract (BPE), epidermal growth factor (EGF) according to manufacture’s protocol, and 100 U/mL penicillin/100 μg/mL streptomycin. All cell lines were maintained at 37°C and 5% CO₂ in a humidified incubator.

Transient transfections of HEK293AD cells were performed using jetPEI reagent (Polyplus-transfection, Strasbourg, France), whereas transient transfections of RDEB patient keratinocytes were performed using Xfect transfection reagent (Takara Bio Europe, Saint-Germain-en-Laye, France) according to the manufacturer’s protocol. HEK293AD cells were cultivated in 60-mm plates and transfected with the respective Cas9/sgRNA-expressing plasmids (5 μg). Human RDEB keratinocytes were transfected with the respective Cas9/sgRNA-expressing plasmids and the minicircle DP (MC-DP) donor template in a ratio of 1:1 (1.2 μg DP and 1.2 μg sgRNA) or in case...
of double-nicking in a ratio of 1:1:1 (1.2 μg DP and 1.2 μg of each sgRNA). Antibiotic selection of transfected RDEB keratinocytes was applied when cells reached 60%–80% confluency by supplementing the medium with 5 μg/mL blasticidin (Invivogene, San Diego, CA, USA). Untransfected RDEB keratinocyte cells were used as a negative control.

**T7 Endonuclease I (T7EI) Assay**
Mismatches upon Cas9/sgRNA-mediated DSB induction and subsequent NHEJ at the desired genomic locus in HEK293AD cells were evaluated via T7EI assays23 (New England Biolabs, Frankfurt, Germany) on genomic DNA. Using a COL7A1 exon 2-specific forward primer and a COL7A1 exon 5-specific reverse primer, a 1,386-bp fragment of the COL7A1 target locus was PCR-amplified. Digest of the resulting PCR fragment was performed according to the manufacturer’s protocol (see Table S2 for primer sequences).

**Flow Cytometric Analysis and Fluorescence-Activated Cell Sorting (FACS)**
Transfection efficiency was evaluated 24 h–48 h post-transfection and 14 days post-selection by flow cytometric analysis using a Beckman Coulter FC500 FACS analyzer (Beckman Coulter, Brea, CA, USA). GFP (expressed from Cas9/sgRNA vector and DP vector)-expressing cells were analyzed using the Kaluza flow cytometry analysis software (Beckman Coulter).

**Protein Isolation and Western Blot Analysis**
2.5 × 10⁷ RDEB keratinocytes were cultivated in keratinocyte SFM medium (Gibco, Invitrogen, Paisley, UK). Whole-cell lysates were generated by lysing the cell pellet in radioimmunoprecipitation assay buffer (RIPA buffer) (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Heidelberg, Germany). Whole-cell lysates were centrifuged at full speed at 4°C for 20 min, and supernatant was frozen at −20°C until usage. For analysis of secreted C7, keratinocytes were grown to confluence and proteins were precipitated from cell culture supernatants as described previously.46

Protein samples were denatured for 5 min at 95°C in 4× loading buffer (0.25 M Tris-HCl; 8% SDS; 30% glycerol; 0.02% bromphenol blue; 0.3 M β-mercaptoethanol [pH 6.8]). Western blotting was performed as previously described.45,46 Ponceau red (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) staining of the nitrocellulose membrane was performed after electroblotting. Nitrocellulose membrane was blocked with blocking reagent (Roche Diagnostics, Mannheim, Germany) diluted 1:10 in Tris-buffered saline with 0.2% Tween (TBS-T) for 1 h at room temperature (RT). For detection of Cas9 protein, a monoclonal antibody raised against the N terminus of the Cas9 nuclease (C51200229) (Diagenode, Seraing, Belgium) diluted 1:1,000 in TBS-T and blocking reagent was used and incubated at 4°C overnight. For detection of C7, a rabbit anti-type VII collagen antibody (kindly provided by Dr. Alexander Nyström, Freiburg, Germany) was used at a dilution of 1:1,000. A polyclonal β-tubulin antibody (ab60664) (Abcam, Cambridge, UK) served as loading control, diluted 1:500 in TBS-T and blocking reagent. As secondary antibodies, either the horseradish peroxidase (HRP) Envision+ labeled anti-mouse or anti-rabbit antibody (Dako, Santa Clara, CA, USA) diluted 1:300 in TBS-T were used. Nitrocellulose membrane was incubated for 1 h at RT. Protein bands were visualized using the Immobilon western chemiluminescent HRP substrate (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) and the ChemilDoc XRS imager (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA).

**Immunofluorescence Staining of Type VII Collagen**
1 × 10⁵ RDEB keratinocytes were seeded into μ-Slide 8-well chamber slides (Ibidi, Gräfelfing, Germany) and grown to 70%–100% confluency. Cells were fixed with 4% formaldehyde solution (SAV Liquid Production, Flintsbach am Inn, Germany) for 10 min at RT. Permeabilization and staining of cells was performed in a single step. A rabbit anti-type VII collagen antibody (kindly provided by Dr. Alexander Nyström, Freiburg, Germany) was used in a 1:1,000 dilution, diluted in 0.3% Triton-X, blocking reagent (1:10), and TBS-T. The primary antibody was applied for 3 h at RT. After two cycles of TBS-T wash, cells were stained with an Alexa Fluor 594 goat anti-rabbit immunoglobulin G (IgG) heavy and light chain (H+L) secondary antibody (Invitrogen, Paisley, UK) (1:300 in TBS-T) for 1 h at RT. Cell nuclei were stained with DAPI (1:4,000 in TBS-T) for 10 min at RT. Finally, cells were analyzed for C7 expression, using an inverted microscope system, which includes the laser scanning confocal microscope Zeiss LSM 700 and the Axio Observer. Z1 (Carl Zeiss, Oberkochen, Germany). For cell counting and quantification of C7-positive cells, a tile scan (3 × 3 areas merged) of approximately 1,000 μm × 1,000 μm was performed.

**HR Efficiency Analysis by Sub-cloning and Sanger Sequencing**
For estimation of HR efficiency, we PCR-amplified the COL7A1 target region using a forward primer binding to endogenous COL7A1 intron 1 and a reverse primer binding to exon 5 of the COL7A1 gene, resulting in a PCR product of 1,912 bp, which was subsequently digested with fast digest (FD) EcoRI restriction enzyme (Thermo Scientific, Vienna, Austria). To minimize the size of the PCR product and facilitate sub-cloning, a nested PCR using a forward primer binding to intron 2 and a reverse primer binding to exon 5 was performed, resulting in a PCR product of 576 bp. For sub-cloning of the PCR product, the Stratagene PCR cloning kit (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA) was used according to the manufacturer’s protocol. Single clones were analyzed by Sanger sequencing. ≥ 98 clones were analyzed for kinetic studies. ≥ 47 clones were analyzed for quantification of editing outcomes in RDEB keratinocytes. For detection of distinct on-target HR events, we PCR-amplified the COL7A1 target region using three different primer sets. For all three PCRs, a forward primer binding to endogenous COL7A1 intron 1 was used to exclude amplification of persisting DP (see Table S2 for primer sequences).

**Off-Target Prediction**
Off-target prediction was performed using the CRISPR RGEN Tool (Cas-OFFinder) (http://www.rgenome.net/cas-offinder).48 Both sgRNAs targeting intron 3 of COL7A1 were aligned to the human target genome (GRCh38/hg38) to identify potential off-target loci (Table 1).
Next-Generation Sequencing (NGS): On-Target Region

For estimation of HR efficiency, we PCR-amplified the COL7A1 on-target region using a forward primer binding to endogenous COL7A1 intron 1 and a reverse primer binding to exon 5 of the COL7A1 gene, resulting in a PCR product of 1,912 bp. To minimize the size of the PCR product for NGS analysis and to exclude amplification of the DP, a nested PCR using a forward primer binding to exon 3 and a reverse primer binding to exon 4 was performed, resulting in a PCR product of about 300 bp. NGS was performed on the Ion Torrent personal platform using the personal genome machine (PGM). Analysis of genome-editing outcomes from deep-sequencing data was implemented on the integrative genome viewer (IGV). We attained a mean coverage of about 5,000 reads per sample for the RDEB het. cell line.

Off-Target Analysis

We designed single amplicons for each off-target region (Table S2) to perform NGS analysis on the Ion Torrent PGM. A setup of 26 PCR fragments with approximately 300 bp was chosen to cover the cutting sites of the sgRNA constructs within the predicted off-target regions; predicted off-targets are listed in Table 1. The library preparation, template preparation, and the sequencing run were performed according to manufacturer’s protocols (Thermo Fisher Scientific/Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA, USA). Analysis of genome-editing outcomes from deep-sequencing data was either performed via the CRISPResso2 online platform48 or on the IGV. We attained a mean coverage of about 5,400 reads per amplicon for the RDEB het. cell line.

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Supplemental Information can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.omtn.2019.09.011.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Conceptualization, T.K., U.K.; Methodology, T.K., R.N.W., U.K.; Investigation, T.K., R.N.W.; Validation, A.K.; Writing – Original Draft, T.K., R.N.W., U.K.; Writing – Review & Editing, J.R., J.W.B.; Resources, S.H., C.G.-G., A.K.; Supervision, U.K.

CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

The authors declare no competing interests.

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