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Identification and validation of novel human genomic safe harbor sites

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ERIK AZNAURYAN

M.A. in Biotechnology, Columbia University

born on 11.12.1990

citizen of Russian Federation

accepted on the recommendation of

Prof. Sai Reddy, examiner Prof. Randall Platt, co-examiner Prof. Michele De Palma, co-examiner

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"A ship in harbor is safe, but that is not what ships are built for."

John Augustus Shedd

Abstract

Numerous gene addition methods are gaining increasing popularity in the field of gene therapy, where replacement of the mutated copy of the gene is required, as well as in cell engineering, in which synthetic receptors can be introduced into a cell or a group of cells to create artificial gene circuits capable of eliciting therapeutic or tissue enhancing functions. Existing gene addition tools suffer from heterogeneity of transgene expression levels and may cause aberration to normal transcriptomic profile due to up- or down-regulation of both protein coding and non-protein coding genes. With the advent of targeted gene integration methods, the necessity for the identification of genomic loci, which would support durable and safe transgene expression – Genomic Safe Harbor (GSH) sites – became ever more urgent. In this dissertation I describe a pipeline for computational prediction and experimental validation of novel human GSH sites using existing as well as newly introduced genomic safety criteria.

In chapter 1 I explain the use of a rational approach to verify computationally predicted genomic sites by targeted integration of reporter as well as therapeutic genes into select computationally predicted locations. This approach yielded the identification of two candidate GSHs, which showed robust and durable expression in investigated cell lines and were later confirmed in primary human T cells and primary human dermal fibroblasts. The safety of transgene expression upon integration into these two sites was subsequently verified using bulk and single-cell transcriptomic analyses, which showed minimal changes in global RNA expression levels following transgene integration. Overall, these two newly identified GSH sites create a broad platform for safer and more reliable gene addition-based gene and cell therapies, facilitating their transition into clinical practice.

In chapter 2 I describe an attempt to implement a multiplexed experimental search of novel GSHs using high-throughput library-based approach. Specifically, described method would allow for a rapid screen of thousands GSH sites exploiting a library of guide RNAs targeting various computationally predicted GSH locations and a non-homologous end joining pathway to drive targeted insertion of a reporter transgene into a genomic locus determined by a guide RNA library member. Such pooled approach would allow to reveal a set of highly transcribed loci, allowing for their subsequent validation by individual transgene integration and transcriptomics assessment. This study, however, was associated with numerous experimental hurdles and was eventually discontinued with suggestions on further optimizations in the future.

To date, only three empirically validated sites in the human genome have been reported for durable expression in different cellular contexts. However, all three of them are located in gene dense regions surrounded by proven oncogenes, significantly increasing the risk of integration-induced tumorigenesis. Furthermore, they do not support the rapid pace of innovation in synthetic biology that enables multiple transgene integration and genetic circuits to rewire and reprogram cellular function. Two novel, computationally and experimentally validated GSH sites described in this thesis open new opportunities for safer and more predictable genome engineering of human cells, expanding the toolkit for diverse cell therapy and synthetic biology applications, from the treatment of inherited disorders by replacing mutated genes with their functional copies, to creating synthetic networks in immune cells to drive multi-input response, to augmenting properties of cells and tissues by safe addition of enhancing transgenes. Finally, thanks to long-term high levels of transgene expression, identified GSH sites can be used for large-scale therapeutic protein manufacturing in human hosts.

Zusammenfassung

Zahlreiche Methoden der Genaddition erfreuen sich zunehmender Beliebtheit im Bereich der Gentherapie, bei der die mutierte Kopie des Gens ersetzt werden muss, sowie im Bereich des Cell Engineering, bei dem synthetische Rezeptoren in eine Zelle oder eine Gruppe von Zellen eingeführt werden können, um künstliche Genschaltkreise zu schaffen, die in der Lage sind, therapeutische oder gewebeverstärkende Funktionen hervorzurufen. Bestehende Werkzeuge zur Genaddition leiden unter der Heterogenität der Transgenexpressionsniveaus und können aufgrund der Hoch- oder Herunterregulierung sowohl von proteinkodierenden als auch von nicht-proteinkodierenden Genen eine Abweichung vom normalen transkriptomischen Profil verursachen. Mit dem Aufkommen von Methoden zur gezielten Genintegration wurde die Notwendigkeit zur Identifizierung von genomischen Loci, die eine dauerhafte und sichere Transgenexpression unterstützen würden - Genomic Safe Harbor (GSH) Sites - immer dringlicher. In dieser Dissertation beschreibe ich eine Pipeline zur rechnerischen Vorhersage und experimentellen Validierung neuartiger humaner GSH-Stellen unter Verwendung bestehender sowie neu eingeführter genomischer Sicherheitskriterien.

In Kapitel 1 erkläre ich die Anwendung eines rationalen Ansatzes zur Verifizierung rechnerisch vorhergesagter genomischer Stellen durch gezielte Integration von Reporter- sowie therapeutischen Genen in ausgewählte rechnerisch vorhergesagte Stellen. Dieser Ansatz führte zur Identifizierung von zwei GSH-Kandidaten, die eine robuste und dauerhafte Expression in untersuchten Zelllinien zeigten und später in primären menschlichen T-Zellen und primären menschlichen Hautfibroblasten bestätigt wurden. Die Sicherheit der Transgenexpression nach Integration an diesen beiden Stellen wurde anschließend mit Hilfe von Bulk- und Einzelzell-Transkriptomanalysen verifiziert, die minimale Änderungen der globalen RNA-Expressionsniveaus nach Transgenintegration zeigten. Insgesamt schaffen diese beiden neu identifizierten GSH-Stellen eine breite Plattform für sicherere und zuverlässigere Genadditions-basierte Gen- und Zelltherapien und erleichtern deren Übergang in die klinische Praxis.

In Kapitel 2 beschreibe ich einen Versuch, eine multiplexe experimentelle Suche nach neuartigen GSHs mit Hilfe eines bibliotheksbasierten Hochdurchsatzansatzes zu implementieren. Insbesondere würde die beschriebene Methode ein schnelles Screening von Tausenden von GSH-Stellen ermöglichen, indem eine Bibliothek von Leit-RNAs, die auf verschiedene rechnerisch vorhergesagte GSH-Stellen abzielen, und ein nicht-homologer Endverbindungsweg genutzt werden, um die gezielte Einfügung eines Reporter-Transgens in einen genomischen Locus, der durch ein Mitglied der Leit-RNA-Bibliothek bestimmt wurde, zu steuern. Ein solcher gepoolter Ansatz würde es ermöglichen, eine Reihe von hoch transkribierten Loci aufzudecken, was deren anschließende Validierung durch individuelle Transgenintegration und Transkriptomik-Bewertung erlauben würde. Diese Studie war jedoch mit zahlreichen experimentellen Hürden verbunden und wurde schließlich mit Vorschlägen für weitere Optimierungen in der Zukunft abgebrochen.

Bislang wurden nur drei empirisch validierte Stellen im menschlichen Genom für eine dauerhafte Expression in verschiedenen zellulären Kontexten berichtet. Alle drei befinden sich jedoch in Gendichte-Regionen, die von nachgewiesenen Onkogenen umgeben sind, was das Risiko einer integrationsinduzierten Tumorgenese deutlich erhöht. Darüber hinaus unterstützen sie nicht das rasante Innovationstempo in der synthetischen Biologie, das die Integration mehrerer Transgene und genetischer Schaltkreise zur Neuverdrahtung und Umprogrammierung zellulärer Funktionen ermöglicht. Zwei neuartige, rechnerisch und experimentell validierte GSH-Stellen, die in dieser Arbeit beschrieben werden, eröffnen neue Möglichkeiten für ein sichereres und vorhersagbareres Genom-Engineering menschlicher Zellen und erweitern das Instrumentarium für verschiedene Anwendungen in der Zelltherapie und der synthetischen Biologie, von der Behandlung von Erbkrankheiten durch den Ersatz mutierter Gene durch ihre funktionalen Kopien über die Schaffung synthetischer Netzwerke in Immunzellen zur Steuerung von Multi-Input-Reaktionen bis hin zur Verbesserung der Eigenschaften von Zellen und Geweben durch die sichere Hinzufügung von verstärkenden Transgenen. Schließlich können die identifizierten GSH-Stellen dank der hohen Langzeitexpression von Transgenen für die Herstellung von therapeutischen Proteinen im großen Maßstab in menschlichen Wirten genutzt werden.

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Conducting a graduate research resembles trying to navigate a gigantic palace: every time you open one door there are at least five or ten more doors behind it. In order to be able to find the desired room one should simultaneously search in multiple directions and have at least a basic initial map of the building. I am therefore extremely grateful to my PhD advisor, Dr Sai Reddy, for allowing me to seek different research and career routes throughout my 4.5 years in his lab, and for numerous resources he and the lab provides to everyone who is fortunate to work there. The initial vector for my research that he established put me on a picturesque road to numerous exciting discoveries and opportunities, for which again I am incredibly thankful. One such opportunity led me to Dr George Church's lab, to whom I am also very thankful for allowing me to develop my research in an exciting and diverse environment of his group and for a few chances to share thoughts on potential applications of my work. In this context, I would also like to thank all my teachers and mentors, each of whom gave me a tiny piece of the map to navigate the labyrinths of graduate research palace. Additionally, I am very grateful to my committee members, Dr Randall Platt and Dr Michele De Palma, who played a key role in productively changing my research approach in the middle of PhD, which is precisely why having engaged committee members is so important. And I want to thank Dr Yaakov Benenson for his interest in this study and agreeing to chair my defense.

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Contributions to this dissertation

Elvira Kinzina helped with bioinformatic search of novel human genomic safe harbor sites based on the existing as well as new criteria (Chapter 2.3.1).

Dr Alexander Yermanos helped with bulk and single-cell RNA sequencing analysis following transgene integration into two novel human genomic safe harbor sites (Chapter 2.3.3 and 2.3.5).

Dr Denitsa Milanova supervised and helped with experimental design of the skin cell therapy work (Chapter 2.3.4)

Anna Devaux was involved in performing experiments for the inducible endogenous gRNA platform development in Jurkat T cells (Chapter 3.4.2).

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Abbreviations

List of abbreviations not defined in text

1 General introduction

1.1 Gene and cell therapy

Millions of people around the world suffer from inherited as well as acquired pathological mutations in the genome, which could lead to a variety of life-threatening diseases, from rare hereditary conditions to oncological tissue transformations. As researchers and clinicians attempt to tackle these pathological conditions, new fields of gene and cell therapy have arisen. These relatively young therapeutic approaches encompass a wide spectrum of methods that rely on changing the malfunctioning gene utilizing various genome editing tools, as well as on the introduction of novel non-mutated copies of disease-causing genes and adding completely new genes carrying therapeutic functions, either in vivo in tissues where the damaged gene is expressed, or ex vivo in cells that are extracted from the body, undergo genetic change and then transferred back.

The history of successful clinical implementation of gene therapy begins in 1990 with a fouryear-old girl Ashanthi DeSilva, who was suffering from severe combined immune deficiency (SCID) due to inherited mutation of Adenine Deaminase (ADA) gene¹. An integrative ex vivo transfer of *ADA* gene through retroviral vector resulted in a remarkable increase in T cell count, allowing the child to lead a normal life. The success of this first trial therapy produced a spur of new indications and applications for gene transfer-based gene therapies, with many laboratories and clinical centers around the globe embracing the idea of providing the ultimate "real" treatment to patients with inherited debilitating disorders, as opposed to continuous protein replacement therapies. One of the trials, however, conducted at the turn of the millennia resulted in a significant setback to the entire field. In 1999 Jesse Gelsinger, diagnosed with an inherited ornithine transcarbamylase (OTC) deficiency, was treated with Adenovirus delivered *OTC* gene's cDNA and suffered a severe systemic inflammatory response due to overwhelming viral titers, resulting in death four days after the gene therapy². This fatal outcome led to a major reorganization in the community, with stricter regulations and ethical controls introduced, diming the once bright light shining over clinic prospects of gene therapy³. The research in the field continued, however, and with advances in viral vector development gene therapy started to experience a renaissance in the second decade of the $21st$ century. One of the recent examples of successfully approved and marketed gene therapy drugs is Luxturna developed by Spark Therapeutics and marketed globally by Novartis⁴. Exploiting the AAV's DNA packaging capability, the company successfully manufactured a vector containing *RPE65* gene, mutations in which lead to Leber's congenital amaurosis. Subretinal injections of this vector results in restoration of enzymatic visual cycle and thus the

ability to distinguish light and shadows for patients, who were previously sentenced to complete blindness.

Some of the most exciting applications of gene and cell therapy have been introduced in the field of cancer immunotherapy by the development of CAR-T cell technology. CAR serves as a synthetic receptor capable of binding an extracellular antigen irrespective of MHC presentation. Such binding triggers an activation of CAR's intracellular domain leading to cytotoxic T cell response against the cell bearing the antigen⁵. CARs have demonstrated remarkable efficiency against liquid tumors such as acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL), however the effectiveness against solid tumors is yet to be achieved⁶. Currently approved CAR T cell therapies as well as the majority that are in clinical trials rely on random lentiviral integrations of CAR transgene, although targeted approaches are starting to be explored⁷.

All of the discussed gene and cell therapy examples exploit the gene addition approach, supplementing cells with functional copies of malfunctioning gene or completely new genetic constructs providing therapeutic effect. A range of natural and synthetic methods exist for the introduction of such exogenous genes into cells.

1.2 Approaches to therapeutic gene addition

1.2.1 Non-integrative gene addition: Viral

One of the oldest and most commonly used methods to deliver genes of interest into target cells without genomic integration relies on natural ability of different viruses to carry nucleic acid payloads and possessing tropism to tissues within the human body.

Adenoviruses (AdV) are non-enveloped dsDNA-bearing viruses that comprise an entire family, members of which – serotypes – mainly differ in the composition of capsid proteins, which in turn determine viral tropism. The capacity for gene inserts of AdVs spans from 8 to 36 kb, and they benefit from a broad tropism to different tissues, with the exception of blood cells. These features allow adenovirus transduction method to be used for delivery of large gene elements into almost all desired target cells with extremely high efficiency⁸. Additionally, the episomal nature of transgene expression (no integration into the cell's genome) following Ad transduction allows for targeting dividing as well as non-dividing cells, albeit the expression in the latter will be diluted over time due to cellular division. The drawback of AdV transduction approach, however, is a particularly potent immune response to proteins encoded in the viral genome. Presentation of the viral epitopes on the surface of targeted cells may result in a potent adaptive cellular immune response, rapidly eliminating virally transduced cells and leading to diminishing of therapeutic effects and life-threatening toxicity. Furthermore, an

immune response to the virus itself may limit the subsequent use of this vector due to the development of adaptive neutralizing antibody response⁹. Efforts have been made to genetically modify adenoviral DNA to avoid this disadvantage. Viral genes have sequentially been removed until the most recent helper-dependent adenovirus (HD AdV), missing almost the entire viral genome has been developed, dramatically reducing the chances of vector toxicity while maintaining transduction and expression efficiency of the wt AdV¹⁰.

Interestingly, one of the recent implementations of AdV vector for DNA delivery was in the realm of vaccines. SARS-CoV-2 virus outbreak resulted in a global pandemic in 2020 and forced a rapid development of vaccines against the new strain. Work on AdV-based vaccines was among the first ones to be initiated due to an overwhelming existing knowledge of this vector as well as ease of large-scale manufacturing. As with all AdV-based treatments, however, the issue of pre-existing immunity to the vector was a concern, so researchers focused on introducing genetic elements encoding SARS-CoV-2 epitopes into AdV serotypes that had low seroprevalence among the treated population¹¹.

A different example of a non-integrative viral approach uses Adeno-associated virus (AAV) – a ssDNA virus capable of bearing payloads of up to 5kb in length. AAVs are suitable for transduction into dividing as well as non-dividing cells, although AAV's mostly extrachromosomal expression pattern leads to a dilution of expression following cellular division. In rare cases, however, AAV's payload may be integrated into the genome, most frequently into the AAVS1 locus located in an intron of one of the phosphatase genes on chromosome 1912. Similar to Ad vector, AAVs possess a broad tropism to various tissues depending on the serotype of the AAV. Currently, more than twelve naturally existing AAV variants have been identified, and even more variants can be generated by directed evolution of capsid proteins, expanding AAV tissue-targeting potential. AAV is significantly less immunogenic and is known to be less toxic compared to $Ad¹³$.

In an effort to increase the packaging size and reduce immunogenicity and toxicity of the AAV vector, researchers have developed a version of the virus devoid of almost all viral genomic sequence – a recombinant AAV (rAAV). The only remaining viral components are T-shaped inverted terminal repeats (ITR) that flank the gene of interest and are needed for the second strand synthesis following delivery into cells. rAAVs are unable to replicate and assemble into a viral particle on their own and require additional elements, that are co-transfected into vectorproducing cell line during manufacturing process. Specifically, *rep* and *cap* genes encoding proteins responsible for replication and capsid formation, respectively, are provided on a separate *trans*-plasmid, while other genes involved in mRNA processing and translation and are naturally provided by AdV, are supplemented on a helper plasmid. The plasmid bearing

gene of interest flanked by ITRs, known as *cis*-plasmid, is co-transfected into manufacturing cell line, so that the DNA sequence of the gene of interest is incorporated into the assembling AAV vector¹⁴.

Over 150 clinical trials have been initiated to-date using rAAV as the delivery vehicle for the functional copy of the malfunctioning gene. In addition to recent success in the field of ophthalmological disorders, applications of AAVs are swiftly transitioning into gene therapy of central nervous system, with recent studies showing efficient crossing of the blood-brain barrier by certain AAV serotypes following intravenous injection¹⁵. Overall, rapid developments in the field of AAV vectors create a landscape for more successful treatments of inherited monogenic diseases.

1.2.2 Non-integrative gene addition: Non-viral

Non-viral methods of clinically relevant gene addition most commonly rely on the use of lipid nanoparticles (LNPs), which are utilized as a delivery method for gene therapy as well as for nucleic acid vaccines. LNPs are typically comprised of self-assembled cationic lipids, which, when formulated with nucleic acids, form spherical nucleic acid bearing compartments in the aqueous environment due to hydrophilic and hydrophobic interactions between head and tail of lipid molecules. The chemical nature of primary head group (single or multiple positive ions) and the structure of the tail group (length and saturation) of the lipid molecules determine the transfection efficiency as well as toxicity of this nucleic acid delivery modality. Positively charged head group of LNP is essential for the interaction with lipid bilayer of cell's plasma membrane composed of negatively charged phospholipids, while chemical and physical properties of the tail group with alkyl bonds in the middle (e.g. oleoyl lipids) allows for increased fluidity, which supports robust fusion between LNP and cell membranes¹⁶.

The toxicity associated with the cationic nature of the head group of the LNPs is a significant concern for therapeutic applications. Cytokine release syndrome is one of the most concerning manifestations of this cytotoxicity as an increased release of inflammokines, such as IL-6 and interferon-γ can lead to generalized inflammation and even death. Furthermore, compounds bearing large net positive charge are known to accumulate in the liver, lung and spleen when administered systemically, and might lead to inflammation in these organs¹⁷. Numerous optimization steps are being employed by researchers and clinicians in an effort to mitigate undesired toxic side-effects of LNP delivered gene therapy. One of the major advances was the development of LNPs using ionizable cationic lipids, which were shown to be less immunogenic than charged lipids while maintaining the same nucleic acid encapsulation and delivery properties 18 .

Currently, LNPs are being extensively used as mRNA vaccine delivery modalities to tackle SARS-CoV-2 pandemic. Specifically, an ionizable cationic LNP encapsulates and delivers spike-protein encoding nucleoside-modified mRNA molecule. Once administered, LNPs target membranes of both APCs as well as other cells, leading to the presentation of Spike epitopes and the development of adaptive cellular and humoral immunity through formation of neutralizing antibodies as well as antigen-specific CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells responses^{19,20}.

All non-integrative gene addition methods showed remarkable potential in cases when targeted cells are not dividing or when transient expression of introduced gene is sufficient for desired outcome (Fig. 1.1A,B). In cases when gene expression needs to be maintained in the dividing tissues, an integrative gene addition is required.

Figure 1.1. Non-integrative gene addition methods result in transient transgene expression. A) A schematic rendering of the use LNP or AAV as a delivery tool for non-integrative gene transfer into desired cells, resulting in an episomal transgene expression. B) The transient nature of such expression eventually leads to the dilution of transgene levels in dividing cells, diminishing the therapeutic effect of this gene addition approach.

1.2.3 Integrative gene addition: Non-targeted

A common approach for gene addition into dividing cells, such as HSCs or T cells, is via γretroviral or lentiviral delivery methods. Both of these viral genera are part of *Retroviridae* family that are generally characterized by RNA genome, which upon conversion to DNA is integrated into the genome of targeted cells. Specifically, once bound to the surface of target cells, mature virus fuses with cellular membrane or enters through endocytosis. In the cytoplasm viral RNA is eventually converted into dsDNA through a multi-step reverse transcription (RT) process, and produced DNA is then imported into the nucleus and integrated

into the cell's genome, helped by viral as well as host proteins^{21,22}. Retroviruses exhibit semirandom mode of genomic integration, with γ-retroviruses preferentially inserting its reverse transcribed genetic material close to transcriptional start site, CpG islands and DNaseI hypersensitive sites, while lentiviruses integrate inside whole transcriptional units²². Possessing the ability to actively translocate across nuclear pores, lentiviral DNA integration step doesn't rely on cell division and can occur in genomic regions located in spatial proximity to nuclear pores in non-dividing cells as well as in cells that yet not entered the cell cycle 23 . On the other hand, γ-retroviruses lack active nuclear import and rely on the breakdown of nuclear envelope during mitosis to integrate into the genome²⁴.

The most up-to-date approach for retroviral vector generation utilizes three separate plasmids encoding different proteins needed for viral assembly and function. *Gag* gene, responsible for structural properties of the virus, and *pol* gene, necessary for reverse transcription and integration of the viral genome, are encoded on one of the plasmids. The second plasmid bears *rev* gene which regulates viral protein expression, while the third plasmid contains *env* encoding glycoprotein of the viral envelop. These three plasmids are transfected together with the vector plasmid carrying the gene of interest surrounded by long terminal repeats (LTR), which are essential for viral transcription, RT and genomic integration, into a HEK293 cell line which serves as the most common producer of complete retroviral vectors for gene therapy²⁵.

The main advantage of the retroviral vectors is the size of the desired gene that can be introduced into targeted cells, which can reach 13kb. This enormous capacity places retroviral vectors in a unique position to be used for integrating full cDNA of very large genes driven by long promoters and containing enhancer sequences in dividing cells 26 . The downside of these vectors is related to the unpredictability of the insertion and expression patterns of genomically integrated transgene. In a considerable number of cases integration events happen in the vicinity of oncogenes or tumor suppressor genes, expression of which might be altered leading to malignant transformations of targeted cells (Fig. 1.2A,B). Known cases of such insertional oncogenesis have been described in X-linked severe combined immunodeficiency (SCID-X1) patients undergoing γ-retroviral gene therapy on CD34⁺ cells. Insertion of gene encoding the IL-2 receptor γ chain 35kb upstream of *LMO2* protooncogene resulted in the development of clonal T cell acute lymphoblastic leukemia $27,28$. Unintended consequences of retroviral integrations also include the development of genomic instability in targeted cells due to aberration in centrosome duplication^{29,30}. Although newer versions of retroviral gene therapy seem to reduce the risk of this major side effect, insertional oncogenesis is still a significant concern for the field 21 .

A

Figure 1.2. Retroviral vectors induce integrative gene addition into a random genomic locus. A) A schematic rendering of the use lentiviral vectors as a delivery tool for integrative gene transfer in desired cells, resulting in a genomic insertion of the gene of interest. B) Potential side effects of such genomic insertions involve upregulation of oncogenes or downregulation of tumor suppressor genes, all of which may result in tumorigenesis.

1.2.4 Integrative gene addition: Targeted

Last two decades has seen a spur of new technologies aimed at precise targeting of desired sites in the genome for generating genetic knockouts, modifying SNPs or integrating large transgenes for research as well as clinical applications.

Meganucleases are one of the earliest precise genome engineering tools initially identified in phages, bacteria, and certain eukaryotes. This large family of enzymes recognize specific DNA targets of 12-45 bp in length and are capable of eliciting a double-strand break (DSB) in the target sequence. Despite possessing high efficiency in producing targeted DSBs, this approach has a significant drawback: desired genomic target site needs to contain the precise cleavage sequence recognized by a given maganuclease. Thus, an initial introduction of such cleavage sequence in target genomic site of interest is required, making genome engineering using meganucleases a long and cumbersome process 31 . Various meganuclease engineering efforts attempted to expand the target sequence, but the challenge of targeting diverse range of genomic sites remained. A major breakthrough occurred with the development of zinc finger nucleases (ZFNs) – synthetic proteins possessing separate DNA-binding and DNA-cleavage domains. The DNA-binding domain is composed of modular zinc fingers – 30 amino acid units

that dictate specificity to target DNA region, with each zinc finger recognizing a triplet of nucleotides.³² Through protein engineering techniques researchers have developed zinc fingers for most triplet sequences, allowing to target a large portion of the genome. The DNAcleavage domain is most commonly composed of *Fok*I – a natural type IIS restriction enzyme with no apparent sequence specificity. *Fok*I enzyme has to dimerize in order to cleave DNA sequence determined by zinc fingers. This dimerization requirement implies a double DNA binding event by ZFNs, thus improving specificity of targeted DNA break.³³ The disadvantage of genome engineering using ZFNs is associated with a long and labor-intensive process of creating new ZFN proteins for each genomic target site. Additionally, some triplets cannot be recognized by zinc fingers limiting their use for certain genomic regions, and encouraging the development of target-specific nucleases with single nucleotide resolution³⁴. The latter concern was precisely addressed by the development of transcription activator-like effector nucleases (TALENs). Similar to ZFNs this genome engineering tool is composed of TAL effector domain responsible for binding to specific DNA sequence and a *Fok*I nuclease, which elicits sequence-unspecific DNA break. TAL effector domain possesses a repetitive region of 13-29 tandem repeats, each comprised of 34 amino acids 35 . These repeats differ by only 2 amino acid residues located at position 12 and 13, referred to as repeat variable di-residues (RVD). Each RVD encodes binding to specific base on the DNA sequence, thus allowing for one repeat-one nucleotide recognition and hence making TALENs more versatile in targeting virtually any genomic region³⁶. Despite being a significant improvement over ZFNs, the engineering of TALENs remains cumbersome and lengthy, with each new genomic target site requiring a new protein production step³⁴.

The most recent and by far the most widely adopted of the targeted genome engineering technologies is CRISPR – a method based on bacterial adaptive immunity system evolutionarily developed against invading bacteriophages and capable of incorporating parts of phage genome that penetrated bacterial cell into a specific locus of the bacterial chromosome. These incorporated pieces of DNA – protospacers – are composed of 20 bp and can then be transcribed together with repetitive sequences known as direct repeats, producing an array of phage derived protospacers and direct repeat sequences. The array is then processed by auxiliary CRISPR proteins producing crisprRNAs (crRNA, determined by the protospacer), which, when bound by separately transcribed tracerRNA (trRNA), associate with Cas9 enzyme and direct the latter to phage DNA upon subsequent invasions. Complementarity-based binding of cr-trRNA to the phage genome brings Cas9 – most commonly used nuclease – into close physical proximity to the invading DNA, and the enzyme then carries out a blunt-ended double-strand DNA break in a position 3-4 nucleotides upstream of the protospacer adjacent motif (PAM) – sequence of nucleotides immediately

following the protospacer sequence – which most frequently for Cas9 is NGG^{37} . Thus, change of the specificity of the CRISPR system is dictated by a change of 20 nucleotides in the crRNA sequence, which can be cheaply and rapidly chemically synthesized. Absence of protein engineering and purification steps needed for each new ZFN and TALEN experiment, make CRISPR-based genome engineering approaches easier and faster compared to the previous techniques¹.

Researchers learned to utilize double-strand break induced by described genome engineering tools for targeted genome editing and gene addition in human cells. Scientists realized that repair pathways that exist in the human cells to mitigate different types of DNA damage, including double-strand DNA break, can be exploited to elicit precise genome engineering events. One of these repair pathways which is most relevant for large gene additions is homology directed repair (HDR). This mechanism involves the use of the homologous DNA sequence on the second intact chromosome as a template for the repair of double-strand breaks. Specifically, after the break 5'-ended strands are resected, the broken sister chromatids form heteroduplexes, which are eventually resolved by synthesis of a complementary strand, thus filling the resected gap and nicking the double-strand break. If an exogenous DNA sequence bearing gene of interest flanked by homology arms to the target integration site is supplied during the generation of Cas9-induced break, this sequence can serve as a substrate for the HDR and result in targeted insertion of gene of interest into the desired locus $38-40$.

Despite incredible versatility, ease of use and low cost of the CRISPR system for targeted gene insertion, it is still associated with a few drawbacks. First, the HDR pathway only occurs in the mitotically active cells, since the sister chromatid may only be present in S and G2 phases. Thus, this approach might not be suitable for non-dividing cells, such as neurons. Methods to mitigate this exist in the genome engineering toolkit, e.g., using alternative repair pathways that operate in G0 and G1, such as non-homologous end-joining (NHEJ) or microhomology-mediated end joining (MMEJ), which unlike HDR are not scarless and may leave insertions, deletions or duplications at the target site (Fig 1.3)⁴¹. Furthermore, CRISPRbased cutting event do not always happen exclusively at the desired genomic targets, but frequently results in off-target events. These can be predicted with modern computational tools, albeit still frequently unavoidable 42 .

Figure 1.3. Overview of CRISPR/Cas9 genome engineering. After complexing with a gRNA molecule (crRNA:tracrRNA), Cas9 nuclease is guided to the DNA target site, where it creates a double-stranded DNA break. The cell reacts with endogenous DNA repair mechanisms (NHEJ, MMEJ, HDR), that can either generate indels for knockouts or the precise sequence substitution in the presence of a homologous sequence enabling targeted modifications or insertions of specific DNA sequences. Figure adapted from Kelton, Pesch $et al⁴³.$

1.3 Genomic safe harbor sites

Despite the advent of precise genome engineering methods, the target human genomic sites for safe and stable transgene integration and expression – genomic safe harbors (GSH) – are yet to be identified. Currently, three loci are used in the research setting for stable and robust transgene expression in a variety of cell types – AAVS1, CCR5 and human ROSA26 $(Fig.1.4A,B,C)^{44}$. Despite being able to support long-term expression of genes of interest without apparent detrimental effect to host cells, all three sites are located inside introns of functional genes, physiological roles of which are not clearly understood yet. Furthermore, these sites locate in close proximity with oncogenes, thus insertion of exogenous promoter sequences and active transcription of transgenes from all three sites may lead to oncogenesis^{45,46}. Recently, several research groups have attempted to identify novel GSH sites, focusing the search exclusively on sites predetermined by various genomic integration tools (e.g. lentiviral deliveries or cre-recombinase sites)^{47,48}. These methods, however, omit a vast number of potential GSH sites that are not targeted by these tools, which significantly

limits the search.

Figure 1.4. Currently used genomic sites for transgene integration. A) AAVS1 site is located in the first intron of *PPP1R12C* gene on the q arm of chromosome 19. It serves as the most common integration site for rare genomic integration events of AAV vector and is located in a gene dense region surrounded by genes (in black) and protooncogenes (in red). B) CCR5 site is located in the first intron of *CCR5* gene on the p arm of chromosome 3. CCR5 chemokine is thought to be dispensable for cells, although its full function has not been fully investigated yet. This site is also surrounded by genes and proto-oncogenes in a close linear proximity. C) ROSA26 site is located in the intron of *THUMPD3* gene, also on the p arm of chromosome 3. The function of *THUMPD3* gene is not wellunderstood yet. ROSA26, similar to the other two sites, is surrounded by genes and proto-oncogenes. Figure adapted from Sadelain et al⁴⁴.

Safety evaluation of the original three as well as newly identified genomic safe harbor sites revolved around the assessment of the transcription of genes located within short linear distance from the insertion site (around 300 kb). Despite absence of aberrations in the expression of the nearby genes, detrimental changes in gene expression following integration into these sites couldn't be excluded since the whole transcriptome profile of integrated cells was not assessed⁴⁹. RNA-sequencing of entire transcriptomes in engineered cells would provide a more complete picture of changes that occur in cells following transgene integrations in the genome. Additionally, recent developments in single-cell RNA-sequencing allow to infer gene expression perturbations on the level of individual cells, providing a deeper understanding of transcriptomic changes happening in cells⁵⁰. Utilizing this tool to verify safety of the investigated GSH site would thus be of particular relevance, as it would provide the most comprehensive assessment of the consequences of such genomic integrations, especially in the context of a genome-wide threat of insertional oncogenesis.

For a more technical discussion of GSH that are being investigated in the research and clinical gene therapy as well as recent approaches to GSH discovery, the reader should refer to Chapter 2 Introduction section.

1.4 Cell types for GSH-based genome engineering

A range of different cell types can be envisioned as primary beneficiaries of targeted gene integrations into GSH sites. Such approaches could be particularly advantageous for mitotically active cells, for which episomal transgene expression will lead to dilution following cellular division, while use of integrative viral vectors may lead to insertional oncogenesis $27,51$. One of the examples here is primary human T cell engineering, which can be conducted ex vivo and infused back into the patients to trigger targeted T cell response. Several T cell engineering approaches have been described and used in the clinical practice. The most successful of them are CAR-T cell therapies, which rely on genomic integration of synthetic antigen receptor for targeted triggering of cytotoxic response against malignant cells⁵². This technology relies on random viral-mediated transgene knock-ins – a method that can be substituted by targeted gene insertion into a verified genomic safe harbor site to avoid complications of insertional oncogenesis. Similarly, T cells bearing other engineered immune receptors, such as synNotch receptor capable of eliciting customizable T cell response against target antigens⁵³, will benefit significantly from stable and safe expression from a validated GSH, enabling its faster transition into clinics. In this context, studying Jurkat T cell line as a proxy for T cell engineering could be particularly useful⁵⁴. Experimentally validating novel genomic safe harbor sites for safety and durability of transgene expression in this cell line could be an important initial step before transitioning to primary T cells.

Engineering of other blood cells can also exploit the use of genomic safe harbors for targeted ex vivo gene knock-ins. Lentiviral based transgene integrations into hematopoietic stem cells (HSCs) for treatment of inherited immune deficiencies, hemoglobinopathies and metabolic disorders have seen particular success over the last years⁵⁵. However, these therapies can also be subject to side effects of semi-random transgene insertions. For instance, lentivirusdriven ex vivo integration of hemoglobin subunit beta gene into HSCs of patients suffering from transfusion-dependent β thalassemia has advanced into clinical trials, which were subsequently halted due to the development of acute myeloid leukemia (AML) and myelodysplastic syndrome (MDS) in two patients (clinicaltrials.gov – NCT04628585). Although other mechanisms beyond lentiviral integration may have caused this side effect, the risk of insertional oncogenesis is still preoccupying scientists and clinicians utilizing lentiviral cell therapies, and transition to GSH-based therapeutic gene integrations would be beneficial in alleviating these concerns.

Gene therapy of inherited skin disorders could be another exciting application for GSH sites. Mutations in keratinocytes and fibroblasts, which undergo continuous proliferation throughout life and during wound healing, respectively, result in severe pathologies that could eventually lead to patient death. Among such genetic diseases are over 30 types of epidemolysis bullosa – a debilitating condition manifested in blister formation due to mutations in genes responsible for structural integrity of skin layers⁵⁶. AAV-based gene therapy approaches to this group of diseases require repetitive administration due to constantly dividing nature of skin cells⁵⁷. On the other hand, targeted in vivo integration of functional copies of mutated genes into safe harbor sites in fibroblasts or epidermal stem cells could provide a lasting treatment. Additionally, ex vivo safe harbor-based engineering of skin grafts could be beneficial for people with burns, augmenting transplanted skin with regenerative factors⁵⁸.

Furthermore, gene expression from genomic safe harbor sites can be used for industry relevant protein manufacturing in human host cells, such as HEK293. Currently, plasmid based episomal expression is used by the majority of academic laboratories for the recombinant protein production purposes⁵⁹. Big biopharmaceutical companies however rely on proprietary target sites for gene insertion and cell banking. Identification of novel safe harbor sites that provide durable high-level transgene expression may be of significant utility for academic and industrial protein production.

Hypothesis and Objectives

Currently employed techniques in gene and cell therapies are either not suitable for mitotically active cells due to episomal nature of current non-integrative transgene expression, or may lead to a serious complication of insertional oncogenesis due to random integration of the transgene into the human genome using current integrative approaches. Possessing genomic sites that would allow for safe, durable and predictable transgene expression in a variety of cellular context could significantly enhance mammalian synthetic biology and serve as a useful tool for clinical cell therapy applications as well as industrial protein manufacturing. Several attempts to identify suitable genomic regions have been made by researchers, however all of them were limited to only those sites that were predetermined by the nature of the transgene insertion as well as lacked a comprehensive assessment of global transcriptomic changes following the integration and expression of desired transgenes.

In this thesis I attempt to identify regions in the human genome that would be suitable for safe and stable expression of genes of interest in various cell types – Genomic Safe Harbor sites. In order to identify such sites, existing safety criteria are used based on linear distance from functional genes and oncogenes described in the literature and additional criteria are added to avoid various regulatory elements, such as lncRNAs, tRNAs, and structural units of chromosomes – centromeres and telomeres. A bioinformatic search is conducted based on these criteria to predict putative GSH sites. A handful of the predicted sites are then selected and experimentally tested for the durability of reporter and therapeutic protein expression in different cell types. The safety of the sites that support durable transgene expression is validated by bulk and single-cell transcriptomics assays. Finally, a high-throughput approach is attempted to screen large number of putative GSHs using a library of sgRNAs targeting bioinformatically predicted genomic loci.

2 Discovery and validation of novel human genomic safe harbor sites for gene and cell therapies

This is an author-produced version of an article submitted for publication in *Cell Genomics***: [Erik Aznauryan, Alexander Yermanos, Elvira Kinzina, Anna Devaux, Edo Kapetanovic, Denitsa Milanova, George M. Church, Sai T. Reddy]**

E.A. and S.T.R designed the study; E.A., A.Y., E.Kap., D.M., G.M.C and S.T.R. contributed to experimental design; E.A. and A.D. performed experiments; E.Kin. developed the bioinformatic pipeline for GSH identification; E.A. and A.Y analyzed data; G.M.C. and S.T.R. supervised the work; E.A, A.Y. and S.T.R wrote the manuscript with input from authors.

ETH Zürich and Harvard University have filed for patent protection on the technology described herein, and E.A., D.M., S.T.R. and G.M.C are named as co-inventors on the patent.

2.1 Summary

Existing approaches for the integration and expression of genes of interest in a desired human cellular context are marred by the safety concerns related to either the random nature of viralmediated integration or unpredictable pattern of gene expression in currently employed targeted genomic integration sites. Disadvantages of these methods lead to their limited use in clinical practice, thus encouraging future research in identifying novel human genomic sites that allow for predictable and safe expression of genes of interest. We conducted a bioinformatic search followed by experimental validation of novel genomic sites and identified two that demonstrated stable expression of integrated reporter and therapeutic genes without detrimental changes to cellular transcriptome. The cell-type agnostic criteria used in our bioinformatic search suggest wide-scale applicability of our sites for engineering of a diverse range of tissues for therapeutic as well as enhancement purposes, including modified T-cells for cancer therapy and engineered skin to ameliorate inherited diseases and aging. Additionally, the stable and robust levels of gene expression from identified sites allow for their use in industry-scale biomanufacturing of desired proteins in human cells.

2.2 Introduction

Development of technologies for predictable, durable and safe expression of desired genetic constructs (i.e., transgenes) in human cells will contribute significantly to the improvement of gene and cell therapies^{60,61}, as well as for protein manufacturing⁶². One prominent beneficiary of such technologies are genetically engineered T-cell therapies, which requires genomic

integration of transgenes encoding novel immune receptors $63,64$; another example are gene therapies for highly proliferating tissues, such as inherited skin disorders, in which entire wildtype gene copies have to be integrated into epidermal stem cells $65,66$. Advances in genome editing using targeted integration tools 67 already allow precise genomic delivery and sustained expression of transgenes in certain cellular contexts, such as chimeric antigen receptors (CARs) integrated into the T cell receptor alpha chain locus in T-cells⁷, and coagulation factors delivered to hepatocytes using recombinant adeno-associated viral (rAAV) vectors⁶⁸. These applications, however, are limited to specific cell types and cause disruption to the endogenous genes, limiting the diversity of cellular engineering applications. Specific loci in the human genome that support stable and efficient transgene expression, without detrimentally altering cellular functions are known as Genomic Safe Harbor (GSH) sites. Thus, precise integration of functional genetic constructs into GSH sites greatly enhances genome engineering safety and efficacy for clinical and biotechnology applications.

Empirical studies have identified three sites that support long-term expression of transgenes: AAVS1, CCR5 and hRosa26 – all of which were established without any a-priori safety assessment of the genomic loci they reside in⁴⁶. The AAVS1 site, located in an intron of *PPP1R12C* gene region, has been observed to be a region for rare genomic integration events of the Adeno-associated virus's payload⁶⁹. Despite being successfully implemented for durable transgene expression in numerous cell types⁷⁰, the AAVS1 site location is in a genedense region, suggesting potential disruption of expression profiles of genes located in the vicinity of this loci⁴⁴. Additionally, studies indicated frequent transgene silencing and decrease in growth rate following transgene integration into AAVS1^{45,71}, which represents a liability for clinical gene therapy. The second site lies within the *CCR5* gene, which encodes a protein involved in chemotaxis and also serves as co-receptor for HIV cellular entry in T cells⁷². Serendipitously, researchers identified that the naturally occurring CCR5-delta-32 mutation present in people of Scandanavian-origin results in an HIV-resistant phenotype^{73}. This finding suggested disposability of this gene and applicability of CCR5 locus for targeted genome engineering, especially for T cell therapies^{74,75}. However, similar to AAVS1, the CCR5 locus is located in a gene-rich region, surrounded by tumor associated genes⁴⁴, thus severely limiting its safe use for therapeutic purposes. Additionally, *CCR5* expression has been associated with promoting functional recovery following stroke76, thus disrupting *CCR5* may be undesirable in clinical practice. The third site, human Rosa26 (hRosa26) locus, was computationally predicted by searching the human genome for orthologous sequences of mouse Rosa26 ($mRosa26$) locus⁷⁷. The $mRosa26$ was originally identified in mouse embryonic stem cells by using random integration by lentiviral-mediated delivery of gene trapping constructs consisting of promotorless transgenes (β -galactosidase and neomycin phosphotransferase), resulting in

sustainable expression of these transgenes throughout embryonic development^{78,79}. Similar to the other two currently employed GSH sites, hRosa26 is located in an intron of a coding gene *THUMPD3*77, the function of which is still not fully characterized. This site is also surrounded by proto-oncogenes in its immediate vicinity⁴⁴, which may be upregulated following transgene insertion, thus potentially limiting the use of hRosa26 in clinical settings.

Attempts have been made to identify new human GSH sites that would satisfy various safety criteria, thus avoiding the disadvantages of existing sites. One approach developed by Sadelain and colleagues used lentiviral transfection of beta-globin and green fluorescence protein (GFP) genes into induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs), followed by the assessment of the integration sites in terms of their linear distance from various coding and regulatory elements in the genome, such as cancer genes, miRNAs and ultraconserved regions⁴⁹. They discovered one lentiviral integration site that satisfied all of the proposed criteria, demonstrating sustainable expression upon erythroid differentiation of iPSCs. However, global transcriptome profile alterations of cells with transgenes integrated into this site were not assessed. A similar approach by Weiss and colleagues used lentiviral integration in Chinese hamster ovary (CHO) cells to identify sites supporting long-term protein expression for biotechnological applications (e.g., recombinant monoclonal antibody production)⁴⁸. Although this study led to the evaluation of multiple sites for durable, high-level transgene expression in CHO cells, no extrapolation to human genomic sites was determined. Another study aimed at identifying novel GSHs through bioinformatic search of mCrel sites residing in loci that satisfy GSH criteria⁴⁷. Similarly, to previous work, several stably expressing sites were identified and proposed for synthetic biology applications in humans. However, local and global gene expression profiling following integration events in these sites have not been carried out.

All of the potential new GSH sites possess a shared limitation of being narrowed by lentiviralor Cre-based integration mechanisms. Additionally, safety assessments of some of these newly identified sites, as well as previously established AAVS1, CCR5 and Rosa26, were carried out by evaluating the differential gene expression of genes located solely in the vicinity of these integration sites, without observing global transcriptomic changes following integration. A more comprehensive bioinformatic-guided and genome-wide search of GSH sites based on established criteria, followed by experimental assessment of transgene expression durability in various cell types and safety assessment using global transcriptome profiling would, thus, lead to the identification of a more reliable and clinically useful genomic region.

In this study, we used bioinformatic screening to rationally identify multiple sites that satisfy established as well as newly introduced GSH criteria. We then used CRISPR/Cas9 targeted genome editing to individually integrate a reporter gene into these sites to monitor long-term

expression of the transgene in HEK293T and Jurkat cells. This experimental evaluation in cell lines was followed by testing of two promising candidate sites in primary human T-cells and human dermal fibroblasts using reporter and therapeutic transgenes, respectively. Finally, bulk and single-cell RNA-sequencing experiments were performed to analyze the transcriptomic effects of such integrations into these two newly established GSH sites.

2.3 Results

2.3.1 Bioinformatic search of novel GSH sites

To identify novel sites that could serve as potential GSHs, we first conducted a genome-wide bioinformatic search based on previously established and widely accepted 44 as well as newly introduced criteria that would satisfy safe and stable gene expression (Fig. 2.1A,B). We started by eliminating gene-encoding sequences and their flanking regions of 50 kb to thus avoid disruption of functional regions of gene expression. We then identified oncogenes and eliminated regions of 300 kb upstream and downstream to prevent insertional oncogenesis, a common complication of lentiviral integrations that may arise through unintended upregulation of an oncogene in the vicinity of the integration site²⁸. We used oncogenes from both tier 1 (extensive evidence of association with cancer available) and tier 2 (strong indications of the association exist) to decrease the likelihood of oncogene activation upon integration. Additionally, genes can be substantially regulated by mircoRNAs, which cleave and decay mature transcripts as well as inhibit translation machinery, thus modulating protein abundance 80 . We, therefore, excluded miRNA-encoding regions and 300 kb long regions around them. Apart from promoters and microRNAs, gene expression may depend on the presence of enhancers that could be located kilobases away $81,82$. We therefore excluded enhancers as well 20 kb regions around them, which provides an overall distance of up to 70 kb from gene-enhancer units, decreasing the chance of altering physiological gene expression. Additionally, we excluded regions surrounding long non-coding RNAs and tRNAs as well as 150 kb around them as they are involved in differentiation and development programs determining cell fate and are essential for normal protein translation, respectively^{83–} ⁸⁵. Finally, we excluded centromeric and telomeric regions to prevent alterations in DNA replication, cellular division and normal aging 86 .

Based on our bioinformatic screening, we identified close to two thousand sites that satisfied all of our criteria (Sup. table 1). We chose five sites that varied significantly in size (GSH1, 2, 7, 8, GSH31), designed guide RNAs (gRNA) targeting these sites and possessing high onand off-target scores (high on-target and low off-target activities), and characterized the durability and safety of transgene expression at these sites experimentally (Fig. 2.1C,D).

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D

Figure 2.1. Bioinformatic identification of novel genomic safe harbor sites. A) Table shows GSH criteria, rationale and databases used to computationally predict GSH sites in the human genome. B) Schematic representation of candidate GSH sites, showing linear distances from different encoding and regulatory elements in the genome according to the established and newly introduced criteria. C) Chromosomal locations and lengths of five candidate GSH sites, which were subsequently experimentally tested. D) Chromosomal coordinates of five candidate GSH sites and the gRNA sequences used for subsequent CRISPR/Cas9 genome editing. See also Supplementary table 1 for the list of all computationally predicted sites.

2.3.2 Experimental validation of bioinformatically identified GSH sites by targeted transgene integration in human cell lines

In order to experimentally assess transgene expression from the five predicted novel GSH sites, we performed targeted integration of a gene construct encoding a red fluorescence reporter protein (mRuby) into two common human cell lines – HEK293T and Jurkat cells. HEK293 are commonly used for medium- to large-scale production of recombinant proteins⁵⁹. thus identifying GSH in HEK293 may be relevant for protein manufacturing. The Jurkat cell line was derived from T-cells of a pediatric patient with acute lymphoblastic leukemia⁵⁴ and has been used extensively used for assessing the functionality of engineered immune receptors, thus discovery of GSH in this cell line supports applications in T cell therapies $87,88$. For integration of mRuby, we employed a CRISPR/Cas9-based genome editing strategy that uses the Precise Integration into Target Chromosome (PITCh) method^{89,90}, assisted by microhomology-mediated end-joining (MMEJ) 91 . This approach utilizes a reporter-bearing plasmid possessing short microhomology sequences flanked by gRNA binding sites. Once inside the cell the reporter gene together with microhomologies directed against the candidate GSH site are liberated from the plasmid by Cas9-generated double-stranded breaks (DSB) at gRNA binding sites on the PITCh donor plasmid. A different gRNA-Cas9 pair generates DSBs at the candidate GSH locus, and the freed reporter gene with flanking micro-homologies is integrated by exploiting the MMEJ repair pathway (Fig. 2.2A,B). This PITCh MMEJ approach allowed us to rapidly generate donor plasmids targeted against different predicted safe harbor sites, in contrast to the more elaborate process of cloning long homology arms (i.e., >300 bp) required for homology-directed repair (HDR). The error-prone mechanism of MMEJ-mediated integration did not represent a substantial concern since the targeted sites are distanced from any identified coding or regulatory element and thus mutations arising following integration are unlikely to cause any detrimental changes.

Using the PITCh approach, we transfected mRuby transgene into the five candidate GSH sites using the best predicted gRNA sequence for each site (see Methods). We then conducted a pooled selection of mRuby-expressing HEK293T and Jurkat cells by fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS), followed by expansion for one week and single-cell sorting to produce monoclonal populations of mRuby-expressing cells. In order to determine sites that support long-term stable transgene expression, we monitored clones with homogenous and high mRuby expression levels by performing flow cytometry at day 30, 45, 60 and 90 after integration.

Out of five candidate GSH sites, four sites in HEK293T cells – GSH1, 2, 7 and 31 (Fig. 2.2C,G) – and two sites in Jurkat cells – GSH1 and 2 (Fig. 2.2D,H) – demonstrated stable mRuby

expression levels 90 days after integration. Interestingly, two sites in HEK293T cells – GSH1, GSH2 – allowed for over an order of magnitude higher transgene expression levels as compared to the commonly used AAVS1 site throughout the 90-day duration of cell culture (Fig. 2.2G). Transgene integration into these sites was confirmed by genotyping using primer pairs amplifying the junction between tested GSH and the transgene (Fig. 2.2E,F).

Figure 2.2. Experimental validation of candidate GSH sites by targeted genome editing in HEK293T and Jurkat cells. A) PITCh plasmid is generated by cloning an mRuby-bearing insert with micro-homologies against specific GSH into a backbone possessing PITCh gRNA target sites, needed for the liberation of the insert inside the engineered cell by Cas9. B) Once inside the cell, the mRuby insert is integrated into a desired site by the

MMEJpathway following a Cas9-induced double-stranded break of the targeted site. C, D) Flow cytometry demonstrating the isolation of clonal populations expressing the mRuby transgene from GSH1 locus in HEK293T cells and GSH2 locus in Jurkat cells using pooled and single-cell flow cytometry mediated sortings. The highest expressing GSH1-HEK293T clone and GSH2-Jurkat clone was expanded in cell culture and flow cytometry measurements at day 45, 60 and 90 demonstrated stable levels of transgene expression. E, F) Genotyping of the GSH1 site in HEK293T cells and GSH2 site in Jurkat cells using primers spanning the junction between integration site and the trangene show mRuby integration into the predicted locus. G) mRuby transgene integration into each of the tested GSH sites in HEK293T show stable expression from GSH1, GSH2, GSH7 and GSH 31. Data are represented as mean ± SEM, N=2. H) mRuby transgene integration into each of the tested GSH sites in Jurkat show stable expression from GSH1 and GSH2. Data are represented as mean ± SEM, N=2.

2.3.3 Transcriptome profiling of cell lines following targeted integration in GSH sites

In order to assess whether targeted integration into the candidate GSH sites resulted in aberration of the global transcriptome profiles, we performed a bulk RNA-sequencing and analysis. Following ninety days in culture the clone showing the highest GSH2-integrated mRuby levels was compared with untreated cells from the same culture for both HEK293T and Jurkat cells (Fig. 2.3A). Paired-end sequencing on Ilumina NextSeq500 with an average read length of 100 base-pairs and 30 million reads per sample was employed on two biological replicates of untreated and GSH2-mRuby cultures of HEK293T and Jurkat cells. We first performed a principal component analysis and visualized each sample in two-dimensions using the first two principal components. This immediately revealed transcriptional similarity within the integrated and wild-type samples of the same biological replicate for both cell lines (Fig. 2.3B). While biological variation was observed between the HEK293T samples, the Jurkat samples, both treated and untreated, maintained conserved transcriptional profiles. Performing differential gene expression analysis revealed minor differences between integrated and unintegrated samples for both cell lines relative to the differences between the two cell types (Fig. 2.3C). It was additionally promising that the most differentially expressed genes were not shared between Jurkat and HEK293T cell lines, further suggesting integration in GSH2 does not systematically alter gene expression. Interestingly, differentially expressed genes were scattered across different chromosomes, as opposed to being concentrated within the integrated chromosome where more local contacts exist, again pointing at biological variation (Figure 2.3D). Furthermore, performing gene ontology analysis revealed no significant enrichment of cancer associated genes or pathways in both HEK and Jurkat cells (Fig. S1, S2), again supporting the potential safety of the GSH2 site. We lastly quantified the differences in gene expression for both cell lines either across biological replicates without GSH2 integration versus within a biological replicate with or without GSH2 integration (Fig. 2.3E). Mirroring our principal component analysis (Fig. 2.3B), this analysis again supports that the differences in gene expression we observe arise from biological variation between clones
and not due to integration at GSH2.

Figure 2.3. RNA sequencing and transcriptome analysis of HEK293T and Jurkat cells following mRuby integration into GSH2. A) Pipeline of bulk RNA-seq experiment on GSH2 integrated and non-integrated HEK293T and Jurkat cells. B) PCA of two biological replicates of HEK293T and Jurkat cells with and without mRuby integration into GSH2. C) Differential expression of genes following GSH2 integration in HEK293T and Jurkat and comparison of HEK293T and Jurkat non-integrated cells. D) Chromosomal distribution of differentially expressed genes in HEK293T and Jurkat cells. Genes with an adjusted p-value of less than 0.05 were considered differentially expressed. E) Correlation of gene expression either between biological replicates without GSH2 integration or within a biological replicate with or without integration in GSH2. See also S1 and S2 for the functional classification

of differentially expressed genes in HEK and Jurkat, respectively.

2.3.4 Targeted integration in novel GSH sites in primary human T-cells and primary human dermal fibroblasts

We next sought to characterize targeted integration into GSH1 and GSH2 sites in primary human cells. One of the potential applications of targeted integration into novel GSH sites is for the ex-vivo engineering of human T-cells, which are being extensively explored for adoptive cell therapies in cancer and autoimmune disease. Thus, we first tested GSH1 and GSH2 in primary human T-cells isolated from peripheral blood of a healthy donor. This time we targeted these sites by employing an HDR-based integration approach using a linear double-stranded DNA donor template, which contained the mRuby transgene driven by a CMV promoter and with 300bp homology arms (Fig. 2.4A). Phosphorothioate bonds and biotin groups were also added to 5' and 3' ends of the HDR template to increase its stability and prevent concatemerization, respectively⁹². Nucleofection of Cas9-gRNA ribonucleoprotein (RNP) complexes and HDR templates into primary T-cells resulted in mRuby-positive expression in 1.3% of cells for GSH1 and 1.24% of cells for GSH2. These mRuby-expressing cells were isolated by FACS on day four, cultured for another seven days; a second round of sorting was performed on the mRuby-positive populations. Following these two rounds of pooled sorting, a highly enriched population of T cells stably expressing the mRuby transgene was isolated and cultured for the duration of T cell ex-vivo culture (up to day 20), with mRuby expression from GSH1 and GSH2 in 94.7% and 91.8% of cells, respectively (Fig. 2.4B). Correct integration into GSH1 and GSH2 was confirmed by genotyping and Sanger-sequencing using primers amplifying the junction between GSH1/GSH2 loci and the mRuby donor (Fig. 2.4C).

Another possible ex-vivo application of identified GSH sites includes engineering dermal fibroblasts and keratinocytes for autologous skin grafting in people with burns or inherited skin disorders. A group of genetic skin disorders named junctional epidermolysis bullosa (JEB) is associated primarily with mutations in a family of multi-subunit laminin proteins, which are involved in anchoring the epidermis layer of the skin to derma⁵⁶. Certain variants of JEB are specifically related to mutations in a beta subunit of laminin-5 protein, encoded by the *LAMB3* gene⁹³. Using a similar dsDNA HDR donor with 300bp homology arms possessing phosphorothioate bond and biotin, we used Cas9 HDR to integrate the *LAMB3* gene tagged with GFP (total insert size 5,409 bp) into GSH1 and GSH2 sites in primary human dermal fibroblasts isolated from neonatal skin (Fig. 2.4D). After lipofection of fibroblasts with Cas9 and HDR templates, expression of GFP, which is indicative of LAMB3 expression, was observed in 7.23% (GSH1) and 10.5% (GSH2) of cells. These cells were sorted at day three, cultured for seven days and the GFP-positive population – 3.45% for GSH1 and 1.19% for

GSH2 – was sorted again. Similar to T-cells, two rounds of pooled sorting led to over 92% enrichment of GFP-positive cells, with the expression of *LAMB3*-GFP transgene maintained for the duration of cell culture (over 25 days) (Fig. 2.4E). Genotyping and Sanger-sequencing confirmed successful integration into both loci by using primers amplifying the junction between GSH1/GSH2 and the LAMB3-GFP donor (Fig. 2.4F).

Figure 2.4. Targeted transgene integration into GSH1 and GSH2 in primary human cells. A) Targeted integration of mRuby into GSH1 and GSH2 in primary human T cells by Cas9 HDR. B) Flow cytometry plots demonstrating mRuby expression in both GSH1 and GSH2 in primary human T cells following two rounds of pooled sorting. C) PCR-based genotyping of GSH1 and GSH2 sites by using primers spanning the junction of targeted site and the inserted transgene indicate correct integration of mRuby in primary human T cells. D) Targeted integration of LAMB3-T2A-GFP into GSH1 and GSH2 in primary human dermal fibroblasts by Cas9 HDR. E) Flow cytometry plots demonstrating GFP expression in both GSH1 and GSH2 in primary human dermal fibroblasts

following two rounds of pooled sorting. F) PCR-based genotyping of GSH1 and GSH2 sites by using primers spanning the junction of targeted site and the inserted transgene indicate correct integration of LAMB3-T2A-GFP in primary human dermal fibroblasts. See also Supplementary table 2 for precise sequences of donor constructs.

2.3.5 Single-cell RNA sequencing and analysis of primary human T cells following transgene integration into a novel GSH site

Lastly, we assessed transcriptome-wide effects on a single-cell level following transgene integration into GSH1 in primary T-cells. We performed single-cell RNA sequencing using the 10X Genomics protocol, which consists of encapsulating cells in gel beads bearing reverse transcription (RT) reaction mix with unique cell primers. Following the RT reaction, the cDNA is pooled, and the library is amplified for subsequent next-generation sequencing.

This single-cell sequencing workflow was applied to human T cells expressing mRuby in GSH1 after 25 days in culture, wildtype (non-transfected) cells were used as a control. We also compared these cells with wild-type controls from a different donor to again compare whether GSH integration resulted in more variability in gene expression relative to a biological replicate (Fig. 2.5A). Performing differential gene expression analysis across the three samples revealed fewer up- or downregulated genes following GSH1 integration relative to the untreated, second patient sample (Fig. 2.5B). We performed uniform manifold approximation projection (UMAP) paired with an unbiased clustering based on global gene expression, which resulted in 13 distinct clusters (Fig. 2.5C). Many genes defining these clusters corresponded to typical T cell markers such as IL7R, ICOS, CD28, CCL5, CD74, and NKG7 (Fig. 2.5D). We subsequently quantified the proportion of cells per cluster for each sample, again demonstrating congruent gene expression signatures from cells arising from a single patient, regardless of whether integration in GSH1 occurred or not (Fig. 2.5E). Furthermore, similar to bulk RNA-sequencing results on cell lines, none of the most differentially expressed genes that were upregulated in cells with GSH1 transgene integration were associated with any cancer-related pathways (Fig. 2.5F). Interestingly, the expression of the Jun gene encoding the oncogenic c-Jun transcription factor is decreased in cells bearing transgene integration into GSH1. Taken together, both our single-cell and bulk RNAsequencing data suggest that the computationally determined and experimentally validated GSHs have minimal influences on global gene expression.

Figure 2.5. Single-cell RNA-seq of primary human T-cells following targeted transgene integration into GSH1 site. A) Pipeline of the RNA-seq experiment following Cas9 HDR targeted integration of mRuby into GSH1 (GSH1-mRuby cells) and T-cell activation. B) Number of differentially expressed genes GSH1-mRuby T-cells and WT T-cells (non-integrated) from donor 1 and GSH1-mRuby T-cells from donor 1 and WT T-cells from donor 2. C) UMAP analysis comparing transcriptional clusters of GSH1-mRuby and WT T-cells from donor 1 and WT T-cells from donor 2. Each point represents a unique cell barcode, and each color corresponds to cluster identity. D) Expression of genes determining the seven largest clusters. Intensity corresponds to normalized gene expression. E) Distribution of GSH1-mRuby-and WT T-cells from donor 1 and WT T-cells from donor 2 across different clusters.

F) Normalized expression for selected differentially expressed genes between GSH1mRuby and WT T-cells from donor 1.

2.4 Discussion

In this study we used bioinformatic screening to identify novel GSH sites and performed phenotypic validation by targeted transgene integration in human cell lines and primary cells, resulting in durable and stable transgene expression. The potential safety of GSH sites was confirmed by observing minimal changes in transcriptomic profiles following transgene integration. None of the upregulated transcripts following transgene integration were associated with any of the known cancer pathways. These findings make the newly identified sites potentially preferable to currently used AAVS1, CCR5 and hRosa26, which have the drawbacks of being located within functional genes, in gene-dense regions and surrounded by oncogenes⁴⁴. Although previous studies have also resulted in the discovery of sites capable of long-term expression of transgenes, they were limited by the integration mechanism researchers employed and changes to the entire transcriptome following integration events were not evaluated, as they were focused on differential expression of a handful of genes in the vicinity of the discovered site⁴⁹. Finally, generalizability of the criteria used to establish our new GSH sites suggests their possible applicability to different cell types, expanding the genome engineering toolkit for diverse cell therapy and synthetic biology applications⁹⁴.

The most immediate use of identified GSH sites may involve safe and predictable engineering of human T-cells for adoptive cell therapy applications⁹⁵. Copious endeavors to design, modify and augment functions of T-cells ex-vivo have been successfully initiated in research labs^{7,96}. However, most strategies have relied on viral-mediated delivery, which results in random transgene integration and is thus associated with the risk of insertional oncogenesis, potentially leading to cancerous transformations of engineered cells, and unpredictability of transgene expression levels associated with the nature of the integration locus and frequent silencing of the integrated construct. Performing targeted integration into GSH sites would enable long-term transgene expression in a safe manner and would support advanced efforts in engineered T cell therapies such as armored CAR-T cells, capable of overcoming hostile tumor microenviroments 97 as well as T cells bearing synthetic receptors that introduce logic gates into cell's behavior, allowing for safer and more effective treatments⁵³. Additionally, given the demonstrated efficiency in dermal fibroblasts, we envision a rapid application of the discovered sites to skin engineering, particularly in the context of treatment of the inherited skin disorders, wound healing as well as skin rejuvenation.

Another exciting aspect of the identified GSH sites is the level of transgene expression

observed, especially in HEK293T cells, which are known to be suitable for large-scale production of therapeutic proteins. We observed high levels of reporter gene expression from GSH1 and GSH2 in HEK293T that were sustained for over three months and exceeded expression levels from the AAVS1 site. This high expression level can theoretically be enhanced further by multiple biallelic integration events into identified loci and thus be exploited for durable large-scale production of commercially valuable proteins. Direct longterm comparison of the transgene expression from the identified sites and the expression following lentiviral integration will be needed to confirm the advantage of GSH expression for protein manufacturing.

In summary, two novel human genomic safe harbor sites identified and validated in this study may serve as a robust and safe platform for a variety of clinically and industrially relevant cell engineering approaches, culminating in safer and more reliable gene and cell therapies.

2.5 Methods

Computational search for GSH sites

Previously established criteria⁴⁴ as well as newly introduced ones were used to predict genomic locations of novel GSHs. Specifically, coordinates of all known genes were extracted from GENCODE gene annotation (Release 24). A set of tier 1 and tier 2 oncogenes was obtained from Cancer Gene Census. The miRNA coordinates were obtained from MirGeneDB 98 . Enhancer regions were obtained from the EnhancerAtlas 2.0 database 99 , coordinates were transposed into GRCh38/hg38 genome and union of enhancer sites was used. Genomic locations of sequences of tRNA and lncRNA were extracted from GENCODE gene annotation (Release 24). UCSC genome browser GRCh38/hg38 was used to get coordinates of telomeres and centromeres as well as unannotated regions. BEDTools¹⁰⁰ were used to determine flanking regions of each element of the criteria as well as to obtain union or difference between sets of coordinates. The custom source code developed for the computational identification of novel human genomic safe harbor sites is available at https://github.com/elvirakinzina/GSH.

Plasmids, guide RNA design and HDR donor generation

PITCh plasmids were generated through standard cloning methods. CMV-mRuby-bGH insert was amplified from pcDNA3-mRuby2 plasmid (Addgene, Plasmid #40260) with primers containing mircohomology sequences against specific GSHs and AAVS1 site with 10bp of overlapping ends for the pcDNA3 backbone. The pcDNA3 backbone was amplified with primers containing sequences of PITCh gRNA cut site (GCATCGTACGCGTACGTGTTTGG) on both 5' and 3' ends of the backbone. The insert and the backbone were assembled using Gibson Assembly Master Mix (New England Biolabs, #E2611L).

Guide RNA sequences for five tested GSH sites were predicted using Geneious gRNA design tool. Briefly, coordinates of the predicted GSH sites were pasted into UCSC Genome Browser GRCh38/hg38 and DNA sequences were extracted and transferred into Geneious. An internal gRNA design tool was used to identify gRNA sequences located in the predicted GSHs against the entire human genome. The evaluation of the efficacy of double-stranded break generation (on-target activity) was based on Doench et al., 2016^{101} , while the specificity of the gRNAinduced break (off-target activity) was assessed based on Hsu et al., 2013¹⁰². Guide RNAs with high on-target and off-target scores were used to target predicted GSHs.

Plasmids encoding CMV-mRuby-bGH flanked by GSH1/GSH2 300bp homology arms were ordered from Twist Biosciences in pENTR vector. HDR donors were amplified from these plasmids using biotinylated primers with phosphorothioate bonds between the first 5 nucleotides on both 5' and 3' ends. Plasmid encoding CMV-LAMB3-T2A-GFP-bGH was generated by overlap extension PCR of LAMB3 cDNA, purchased from Genscript (NM_000228.3) and GFP-bGH sequence from Addgene (Plasmid #11154). T2A sequence was added to 5'primer of GFP-bGH. Produced insert was cloned into the abovementioned pENTR vector from Twist Biosciences bearing GSH1 and GSH2 300bp homology arms as well as CMV promoter sequence using Gibson Assembly Master Mix (NEB, #E2611L). HDR donors were amplified from these plasmids using biotinylated primers with phosphorothioate bonds between the first 5 nucleotides on both 5' and 3' ends. HDR donors were then purified from PCR mix using SPRI beads (Beckman Coulter, #B23318) at 0.4X beads to PCR mix ratio.

HEK293T and Jurkat cell culture, transfection and sorting

HEK293T cells were obtained from the American Type Culture Collection (ATCC) (#CRL-3216); the Jurkat leukemia E6-1 T cell line was obtained from ATCC (#TIB152). HEK cells were cultured in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium (DMEM) (ATCC 30-2002) supplemented with 2mM L-glutamine (ATCC 30-2214). Jurkat cells were cultured in ATCCmodified RPMI-1640 (Thermo Fisher, #A1049101). All media were supplemented with 10% FBS, 50 U ml-1 penicillin and 50 μ g ml⁻¹ streptomycin. Detachment of HEK cells for passaging was performed using the TrypLE reagent (Thermo Fisher, #12605010). All cell lines were cultured at 37°C, 5% CO2 in a humidified atmosphere.

Prior to transfection of HEK293T and Jurkat gRNA molecules were assembled by mixing 4 μl

of custom Alt-R crRNA (200 μM, IDT) with 4 μL of Alt-R tracrRNA (200 μM, IDT, #1072534), incubating the mix at 95°C for 5 min and cooling it to room temperature. 2 μL of assembled gRNA molecules were mixed with 2 μL of recombinant SpCas9 (61 μM, IDT, #1081059) and incubated for > 10 min at room temperature to generate Cas9 RNP complexes.

For transfection of HEK cells 100 μL format SF Cell line kit (Lonza, V4XC-2012) and electroporation program CM-130 was used on the 4D-Nucleofector. $1x10^6$ HEK cells were transfected with 2 μg of PITCh donor, 2 μl of Cas9 RNP complex against specific GSH and 2 μl of Cas9 RNP complex against PITCh plasmid to liberate MMEJ insert.

For transfection of Jurkat cells 100 μL format SE Cell line kit (Lonza, V4XC-1012) and electroporation program CL-120 was used on the 4D-Nucleofector. $1x10^6$ Jurkat cells were transfected with 2 μg of PITCh donor, 2 μl of Cas9 RNP complex against specific GSH and 2 μl of Cas9 RNP complex against PITCh plasmid to liberate MMEJ insert.

Transfected HEK and Jurkat cells were bulk sorted on day 3 and single-cell sorted on day 10 following transfection using Sony SH800S sorter. Best expressing clone was selected on day 30, split into two wells and cultured for another 2 months. mRuby expression of the best expressing clone was analyzed on BD LSRFortessa Flow Cytometer on day 45, 60 and 90 following transfection.

Human T-cells culture, transfection and sorting

Human peripheral blood mononuclear cells were purchased from Stemcell Technologies (#70025) and T cells isolated using the EasySep Human T Cell Isolation kit (Stemcell Technologies, #17951). Primary human T cells were cultured for up to 20 days in ATCCmodified RPMI (Thermo Fisher, #A1049101) supplemented with 10% FBS, 10 mM nonessential amino acids, 50 μM 2-mercaptoethanol, 50 U ml-1 penicillin, 50 μg ml⁻⁶ streptomycin and freshly added 20 ng m⁻¹ recombinant human IL-2, (Peprotech, #200-02). T cells were cultured at 37°C, 5% CO2 in a humidified atmosphere. On day 1 of culture, transfection of primary T cells with Cas9 RNP complexes and GSH1/GSH2-mRuby HDR templates was performed using the 4D-Nucleofector and a 20 uL format P3 Primary Cell kit (Lonza, V4XP-3032). Briefly, gRNA molecules were assembled by mixing 4 μl of custom Alt-R crRNA (200) μM, IDT) with 4 μL of Alt-R tracrRNA (200 μM, IDT, #1072534), incubating the mix at 95°C for 5 min and cooling it to room temperature. 2 μL of assembled gRNA molecules were mixed with 2 μL of recombinant SpCas9 (61 μM, IDT, #1081059) and incubated for > 10 min at room temperature to generate Cas9 RNP complexes. $1x10^6$ primary T cells were transfected with 1 μg of HDR template, 1 μl of GHS1/GSH2 Cas9 RNP complex using the EO115 electroporation program. T cells were activated with Dynabeads™ Human T-Activator CD3/CD28 (Thermo

Fischer, #11161D) 3-4 hours following transfection. mRuby-positive T-cells were bulk sorted on day 4 using Sony SH800S sorter, re-activated with the new beads on day 8, sorted again on day 11 and analyzed on BD LSRFortessa Flow Cytometer on day 20.

Human dermal fibroblasts culture, transfection and sorting

Neonatal human dermal fibroblasts were purchased from Coriell Institute (Catalog ID GM03377). Primary fibroblasts were cultured for up to 25 days in Prime Fibroblast media (CELLNTEC, CnT-PR-F). Cells were passaged at 70% confluency using Accutase (CELLNTEC, CnT-Accutase-100). Detached cells were centrifuged for 5 min, 200 x g at room temperature and seeded at seeded at 2,000 cells per cm². Fibroblasts were cultured at 37°C, 5% CO2 in a humidified atmosphere. Fibroblasts were transfected using Lipofectamine™ CRISPRMAX™ Cas9 Transfection Reagent (ThermoFisher Scientific, CMAX00001). Briefly, cells were transfected at 50% confluency with 1:1 ratio of custom sgRNA (40 pmoles, Synthego) and SpCas9 (40pmoles, Synthego) and 2.5 μg of GSH1/GSH2 LAMB3-T2A-GFP HDR template. GFP-positive fibroblasts were bulk sorted on day 3 and 10 using Sony SH800S sorter and analyzed on BD LSRFortessa Flow Cytometer on day 25.

Genotypic analysis of GSH integration

Genomic DNA was extracted from $1x10^6$ cells using PureLink Genomic DNA extraction kit (ThermoFischer Scientific, #K1820-01). 5 μL of genomic DNA extract were then used as templates for 25 μL PCR reactions using a primer with one primer residing outside of the homology arm of the integrated sequence and the other primer inside the integrated sequence. Obtained bands were gel extracted using Zymoclean Gel DNA Recovery Kit (Zymo Research, #D4001), 4ul of eluted DNA was cloned into a TOPO-vector using Zero-blunt TOPO PCR Cloning Kit (ThermoFischer Scientific, #450245), incubated for 1 hour, transformed into NEB 5-alpha Competent E. coli cells (New England Biolabs, C2987H) and plated on agar plates containing kanamycin at 50 μg/ml. Produced clones were picked and inoculated for overnight culture in 5ml of liquid broth supplemented with kanamycin at 50 μg/ml. Liquid cultures were mini-prepped the following morning using ZR Plasmid Miniprep - Classic kit (Zymo Research, #D4015) and Sanger sequenced by Microsynth using M13-forward and M13-reverse standard primers.

Bulk RNA-sequencing of HEK293T and Jurkat cells GSH2 and WT

Following single-cell sort, the best expressing clone (GSH2) and wild-type (WT) of HEK293T

and Jurkat cells were split into 2 wells (1 and 2) and cultured for 80 days, after which total RNA was extracted using PureLink RNA Mini Kit (ThermoFischer Scientific, #12183018A). Extracted total RNA was depleted of rRNA using RiboCop rRNA Depletion Kit (Lexogen, #144), first and second strands of cDNA were generated with SuperScript Double-Stranded cDNA Synthesis Kit (ThermoFischer Scientific, #11917010) using random hexamers and flow cell adapters were ligated to the produced double-stranded cDNA. DNA fragments were enriched by PCR using Q5 High-Fidelity 2X Master Mix (New England Biolabs, #M0492S) and sequenced by the Illumina NextSeq 500 system in the Genomics Facility Basel. Sequencing reads were aligned to the human reference genome (GRCh38) using Subread (v1.6.2) using unique mapping¹⁰³. Expression levels were quantified using the feature Counts function in the Rpackage Rsubread at gene-level¹⁰⁴. Normalization across the samples was performed using default parameters in the Rpackage edge R^{105} . Differential expression analysis was performed using the exactTest function in the edgeR package. Gene ontology was performed by supplying those differentially expressed genes (adjusted p value \leq 0.05) to the goana function 106 .

Single-cell RNA sequencing of human T-cells

Single-cell RNA sequencing was conducted on day 20 of culture for Donor 1 WT (D1 WT) and Donor 1 GSH1 (D1 GSH1) and on day 5 for Donor 2 WT (D2 WT). Single cell 10X libraries were constructed from the isolated single cells following the Chromium Single Cell 3ʹ GEM, Library & Gel Bead Kit v3 (10X Genomics, PN-1000075). Briefly, single cells were coencapsulated with gel beads (10X Genomics, 2000059) in droplets using Chromium Single Cell B Chip (10X Genomics, 1000074). Final D1 WT, D1 GSH1 and D2 WT libraries were pooled and sequenced on the Illumina NovaSeq platform (26/8/0/93 cycles). Raw sequencing files were supplied to cellranger (v3.1.0) using the count argument under default parameters and the human reference genome (GRCh38-3.0.0). Filtering, normalization and transcriptome analysis was performed using a previously described pipeline in the R package Platypus¹⁰⁷. Briefly, filtered gene expression matrices from cellranger were supplied as input into the Read10x function in the R package Seurat¹⁰⁸. Cells containing more than 5% mitochondrial genes, or less than 150 unique genes detected were filtered out before using the RunPCA function and subsequent normalization using the function RunHarmony from the Harmony package under default parameters¹⁰⁹. Uniform manifold approximation projection was performed with Seurat's RunUMAP function using the first 20 dimensions and the previously computed Harmony reduction. Clustering was performed by the Seurat functions FindNeighbors and FindClusters using the Harmony reduction and first 20 principal components and the default cluster resolution of 0.5, respectively¹⁰⁸. Cluster-specific genes

were determined by Seurat's FindMarkers function for those genes expressed in at least 25% of cells in one of the two groups. Differential genes between samples were calculated using the FindMarkers function from Seurat using the default Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test with Bonferroni multiple hypothesis correction. The source code for the analysis of scRNA-seq data is available at https://github.com/alexyermanos/Platypus.

3. High throughput screening of novel genomic safe harbors sites using libraries of inducible endogenous guide RNAs

3.1 Summary

Use of gRNA libraries to simultaneously interrogate multiple genomic regions has found its numerous applications in gene knock out studies as well as in the investigation of the noncoding segments of the genome. We attempted to exploit endogenous expression of gRNA libraries from a specified genomic locus to generate a double-strand break in various positions across the human genome in a high-throughput manner. Induced DNA breaks would be followed by reporter transgene knock in via NHEJ repair pathway, thus allowing to assess the ability of targeted sites to support transgene expression. Cells positive for the reporter gene would be isolated and the gRNA locus would be sequenced to derive the integration site of the reporter gene, and hence identify potential safe harbor. This approach would thus link a fluorescent phenotypic readout with specific genomically encoded gRNA sequence, allowing for rapid multiplexed GSH identification.

3.2 Introduction

3.2.1 Genomic safe harbors

Targeted gene addition mandates safe and efficient expression of gene of interest from specific loci in the genome, referred to as Genomic Safe Harbor (GSH) sites. In the previous chapter we discussed how researchers have empirically identified three genomic sites capable of stable expression of introduced genes in a variety of cellular contexts. All three of these sites are located in the introns of protein-coding genes, functions of which are not fully investigated yet. These sites are also surrounded by oncogenes located in linear proximity to insertion locus. Thus, despite providing durable expression, integration into currently used genomic sites may lead to the disruption of functional genes as well as to insertional oncogenesis, preventing the use of these sites beyond research setting⁴⁴. In Chapter 2 we also described a rational validation approach for a handful of computationally predicted GSHs. In contrast to it, a large, multiplexed screening of all bioinformatically identified sites scattered across different positions in the human genome would allow to rapidly validate novel GSH loci for their capability to express inserted transgene. Successfully validated target sites can then undergo further characterization to verify safety and durability of transgene expression, similar to the one described in Chapter 2.

3.2.2 Criteria for novel genomic safe harbor sites

In order to support safe expression of the genes of interest in a range of cell types, an ideal GSH should satisfy a set of criteria. The aim of these criteria is to spatially separate the genomically introduced promoter and the transgene sequences from endogenous coding and regulatory elements of the genome in a cell type agnostic manner. The first genetic element to be avoided are annotated protein-coding sequences. There are around 20,000 currently identified protein-coding genes, transgene integration in the vicinity of which may lead to aberrant and misregulated endogenous gene expression 110 . Thus, newly identified GSH sites need to exclude any gene-encoding sequences as well as regions surrounding them. Annotated oncogenes and the regions around them also need to be avoided to minimize the risk of upregulation of oncogene expression following transgene insertion, a side-effect associated with lentiviral gene delivery method 27 . MicroRNAs, IncRNA, tRNAs and other nonprotein encoding RNA molecules are responsible for a wide range of regulatory and developmental roles in the cell $84,111$. Changes in their expression may lead to perturbations in cellular function and even cell death¹¹². For instance, *Xist* lncRNA is responsible for X chromosome inactivation in female cells by initiating the recruitment of the X chromosome to the periphery of the nucleus, where it is anchored to the nuclear lamina and deacetylated. In male cells *Xist* is silenced allowing for transcription of the genes from the only X chromosome83. However, if transgene addition results in an unintended upregulation of *Xist* expression in male cells, the inactivation of the entire X chromosome will be initiated, silencing all of its single copied genes, leading to cell death^{112}. To minimize the possibility of such events, all regulatory RNAs should be avoided, thus maintaining physiological regulatory machinery of the cells. Additionally, enhancer elements are essential for activating gene expression through the recruitment of transcription factors. These genomic elements can be located in close proximity to genes as well as tens and hundreds kilobases away and need to be avoided to prevent misregulation of gene transcription⁸¹. Finally, structural components of chromosomes – centromeres and telomeres – play critical role in successful cellular division. Centromeres serve as attachment points for kinetochores and are required for normal chromosomal segregation during mitosis. Abnormal separation of sister chromosomes and unequal chromosomal distribution following cellular division can be associated with cancer development⁸⁶. Telomeres are six nucleotide repeats spanning the ends of the chromosomes and protecting the coding portions of chromosomal ends from progressive degradation due to "end replication problem". Interfering with physiological regulation of telomere length may lead to premature cellular senescence¹¹³. Thus, both telomeric and centromeric regions on the chromosomes need to be excluded from an ideal GSH site.

3.2.3 Inducible endogenous guide RNA expression

In addition to efficient functioning when provided as plasmid encoded sequences or as exogenous in vitro generated molecules, recent research has demonstrated that guide RNA encoding sequences can be integrated into the host genome, endogenously expressed from an accessible genomic locus and capable of complexing with Cas9 enzyme to elicit a doublestrand break (Fig. 3.1A)¹¹⁴. Additionally, scientists have demonstrated the ability to introduce a library of protospacers targeted at different genomic sites into a locus containing U6 promoter, which is required for the RNA polymerase III dependent short RNA transcription, and sgRNA hairpin sequence, which once transcribed is essential for the Cas9 complexation $(Fia. 3.1B)^{114}$. Furthermore, the ability to control short non-coding RNA expression through a Tet-inducible U6 promoter system has also been described. Specifically, tet repressor (tetR) is capable of binding to tet operator (TetO) sequences surrounding the TATA-box of RNA polymerase III promoters, repressing the expression of short RNA. This repression can then be alleviated by the addition of tetracycline or doxycycline drugs, which bind to tetR and allow the polymerase to progress with the transcription (Fig. $3.1C$)^{115,116}. These studies collectively suggest the opportunity to create an inducible library-based gRNA expression platform transcribed from an accessible genomic locus to interrogate numerous genomic sites in a multiplexed format (Fig. 3.1D).

Figure 3.1. Generation endogenous inducible sgRNA expression using a library of protospacer sequences. A) Rajagopal et al. have demonstrated the possibility to use mouse ROSA26 locus to support endogenous sgRNA expression. B) They have also showed that a library of protospacers can be incorporated into this locus, allowing to target different regions of the cell's genome in a multiplexed format. Adapter from Rajagopal et al.¹¹⁴ C) Kappel et al.115 and Henriksen et al.116 have described an inducible expression of short hairpin RNA (shRNA) using a TetR system, in which TetO surround a TATA box of RNA polymerase III promoter, allowing the repressor to prevent sgRNA transcription. Once doxycycline is added and interacts with the repressor, the latter disassociates from the promoter and allows for the progression of sgRNA transcription. Adapted from Kappel et al.¹¹⁵ D) In our design, we envisioned to use genomically integrated inducible sgRNA expression platform complemented with a library of protospacer sequences, which after doxycycline induction should result in a functional sgRNA transcription. This temporally controlled sgRNA expression will be accompanied by transfection of NHEJ mRuby donor, which will be expressed in case of integration into a true GSH. Cells durably expressing mRuby will be sorted and protospacer locus will be sequenced to identify mRuby integration site.

3.2.4 NHEJ-based transgene knock-in

One of the approaches to introduce a desired transgene into specific genomic locus following a CRISPR-induced double-strand break is via a non-homologous end joining (NHEJ) repair pathway⁴¹. As opposed to HDR the NHEJ pathway doesn't rely on homologous recombination and thus the donor DNA doesn't need to be pre-designed to contain homology arms determined by the integration site. Additionally, the mechanism of NHEJ pathway allows it to occur in the absence of cellular division. NHEJ repair is initiated by the recognition of the double-strand break via a Ku protein complex, which then recruits enzymes necessary for DNA end processing and ligation. Due to its untemplated nature, NHEJ repair often results in small insertion and/or deletions at the site of the DNA break^{117–119}. Researchers managed to devise an approach that supports a robust and efficient transgene integration via this pathway – homology-independent targeted integration (HITI) – which relies on CRISPR-induced cutting of a circular donor inside the transfected cell followed by the genomic integration of the donor into the target region determined by a separate gRNA-Cas9 pair¹²⁰.

3.3 Project rationale

Identification of novel human genomic sites capable of durable and safe expression of genes of interest will significantly improve existing gene and cell therapies, reducing the risk associated with them. To augment computational search discussed in previous chapter and to rapidly validate large portions of the human genome for such suitable sites, a highthroughput method involving interrogation of hundreds of sites in a multiplexed manner needs to be devised. This chapter will describe an attempt to use CRISPR-based NHEJ-facilitated knock in of a reporter gene into various genomic locations guided by library of inducible endogenously expressed guide RNAs in human immortalized leukemic T-cell line. Jurkat cell were chosen due to an envisioned use of identified GSHs in T-cell engineering.

Firstly, we aimed to establish a cellular platform that would allow for such multiplexed GSH evaluation approach. This platform would consist of constitutively expressed Cas9 nuclease integrated into CCR5 locus. Cas9 encoding donor will also contain a GFP reporter gene, allowing to isolate cells that have undergone successful transgene integration. This initial genome engineering step will be followed by AAVS1-targeted insertion of a landing pad bearing Tet-inducible RNA polymerase III promoter, a dummy protospacer and a gRNA hairpin sequence – all required for an inducible guide RNA expression. TetR and mRuby will also be introduced into the same genomic location to keep sgRNA expression initially repressed and allow for isolation of successfully engineered cells, respectively. A library of protospacer sequences predicted by our computational search and targeted against potential GSH loci will be transfected in the form of single-stranded oligodeoxynucleotides into AAVS1 site of these engineered Jurkat cells, replacing the dummy protospacer. Finally, once the library is introduced, cells will be transfected with a DNA donor encoding a reporter gene and supplemented with doxycycline, allowing for an inducible expression of a full gRNA. This in presence of a constitutive Cas9 enzyme results in a targeted double-strand DNA break in a genomic location determined by a specific protospacer library member expressed in a given cell, allowing for a reporter gene on the DNA donor to be integrated into the protospacerdetermined site. If this reporter is integrated into a region that demonstrates high expression levels, the cell bearing it will be sorted using flow cytometry, resulting in a pool of cells possessing reporter sequences in potential GSHs. The AAVS1 site of these pooled cells will be genotyped using next-generation sequencing to determine their protospacer library members and, hence the sites, where the integration of the reporter gene occurred. These newly discovered sites will be additionally genotyped to verify the match between the protospacer in the inducible landing pad in AAVS1 locus and the actual integration site. Finally, the most robustly expressing sites will be evaluated separately for their safety and long-term stability of transgene expression.

3.4 Results

3.4.1 Generation of constitutive Cas9 expressing Jurkat T cells

In the first genome engineering step we generated a donor construct containing Cas9 enzyme expressed by a strong constitutive CMV promoter, followed by a GFP gene expressed by a separate promoter. This transgenic construct was flanked by homology arms sequences of 1000 bp against CCR5 locus to facilitate HDR-driven knock in following the double-strand break (Fig. 3.2A). This donor was transfected in the form of circular plasmid into Jurkat T cells together with CRISPR/Cas9 ribonucleoprotein complex (RNP) targeting CCR5 site. Transfected cells were pool-sorted using flow cytometry based on GFP expression, hence transgene integration, and then single-cell sorted to establish a clonal population of Jurkat cells constitutively expressing Cas9 nuclease (Fig. 3.2B). Precise integration of the Cas9-GFP transgene was confirmed by PCR genotyping using primers spanning the junction between CCR5 locus and the transgene, followed by Sanger sequencing (Fig. 3.2C). To test the activity of genomically integrated Cas9, we transfected Cas9 expressing clone with a synthetic sgRNA targeting GFP gene and observed a robust reduction of GFP expressing cells by flow cytometry, demonstrating the expected Cas9 function of cutting the GFP gene, repair of which results in frameshift and knock out (Fig. 3.2D). The constitutive expression of Cas9 in Jurkat cells was not a concern, as previous studies demonstrated absence of any pathological effects associated with such long-term nuclease expression.

Figure 3.2. Generation of constitutive Cas9-GFP Jurkat cell line. A) Schematic representation of targeted integration of Cas9 and GFP genes into CCR5 locus using HDR-based CRISPR knock in. B) The expression of Cas9-GFP cassette from CCR5 is verified by flow cytometry. C) PCR genotyping of the integrated Cas9-GFP cassette shows CCR5 specific integration. D) Functional activity of Cas9 is verified by supplementing Cas9 expressing clone with anti-GFP sgRNA leading to GFP knockout, confirmed by flow cytometry.

3.4.2 Generation of inducible endogenous gRNA expressing platform in Jurkat T cells

The second cellular platform engineering step involved creation of inducible endogenous gRNA landing pad for subsequent transfection of protospacer library. We tested several inducible gRNA expression transgenes that differed in the composition of the inducible RNA polymerase III promoter. We generated a truncated and a full version of a U6 promoter with its TATA box surrounded by tet operator (TetO) sequences needed for binding of TetR. We also constructed H1 promoter with the same TetO/TATA box layout. All of the constructed gRNA landing pads contained GFP targeting protospacer to test whether the GFP gene inserted into CCR5 locus is knocked out upon addition of doxycycline. Additionally, each of the tested transgenes contained 1000 bp homology arms targeting AAVS1 locus as well as a gene trap system bearing a splice acceptor and T2A self-cleaving peptide sequence followed by mRuby reporter gene. Finally, these AAVS1 targeting constructs encoded constitutively TetR gene to repress anti-GFP guide expression (Fig. 3.3A).

Similar to Cas9-GFP transgene, these inducible gRNA transgenes were transfected in the form of circular plasmid together with AAVS1 targeting synthetic sgRNA complex in Jurkat clones already bearing constitutive Cas9 gene. Clones with successful integration of gRNA landing pads were isolated based on mRuby expression using pooled and then single cell flow cytometry sorts. Integration was also verified by PCR genotyping using primers spanning the junction between AAVS1 locus and the transgene, followed by Sanger sequencing.

To test whether GFP knock out activity of these sgRNA platforms was only occurring after the induction with doxycycline, we measured mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) of GFP with and without the addition of this drug in our two stage-engineered cells. We observed a similar decrease in GFP MFI under both conditions suggesting the leakiness of the expression of sgRNA even when doxycycline is not added (Fig. 3.3B). We additionally confirmed this result using a T7E1 assay, which demonstrated a clear GFP cutting and NHEJ-based repair under both conditions (Fig. 3.3C).

Figure 3.3. Generation of inducible endogenous sgRNA expression platform. A) Schematic representation of targeted integration of inducible sgRNA expression platform bearing anti-GFP sgRNA and TetR using gene trap technology with mRuby into the AAVS1 locus. B) Flow cytometry plots showing successful GFP knockout with and without the addition of doxycycline. C) T7E1 assay demonstrating indel formation in GFP gene when targeted with in vitro transcribed sgRNA (+control) as well as via the inducible endogenous sgRNA platform with and without doxycycline.

3.5 Discussion

High-throughput novel GSH screen attempted in this project aimed at rapid interrogation of thousands of computationally predicted genetic sites in a multiplexed fashion. There are three limiting factors that can impede the GSH screen described in this project. The first is the efficiency of protospacer library incorporation, which is directly dependent on the HDR efficiency in investigated cells, Jurkat immortalized T cell in our case. Being able to augment HDR rates will significantly increase the diversity of the protospacer library members integrated into the endogenous genomic locus.

Secondly, the leakiness of the tet-inducible RNA Polymerase III promoter may result in the premature expression of gRNA and thus cutting of the target site leading to an indel-prone NHEJ repair and a loss of potential GSH site prior to transfection of the reporter gene. This was indeed observed in our study, when presence and absence of doxycycline inducer resulted in the same level of GFP cutting. One approach to mitigate this effect is to test other inducible RNA Polymerase III systems, not based on tetR. Specifically, Cre-recombinase has recently been shown as an efficient tool to elicit tightly inducible gRNA expression, with loxP sites surrounding the poly-T stretch located in the middle of sgRNA sequences, leading to premature transcription termination and degradation of the short transcript in the absence of cre-recombinase¹²¹. Alternatively, a tighter tetR system can be designed and tested by changing the positions of tet operators along the U6 or H1 promoter sequences, beyond TATA box, or experimenting with directed evolution approaches to identify sequences supporting tighter gRNA expression, using same flow cytometry-based readout.

Finally, NHEJ-based transgene knock in needs to be optimized to improve the efficiency of homology-independent reporter gene integration into potential GSH sites, pre-determined by the protospacer library member incorporated into the sgRNA landing pad. HITI could be one of the approaches, optimizations of which may result in an increased knock in efficiency. Specifically, testing various circular donor types, that are linearized upon transfection by donor-targeting sgRNAs complexed with Cas9, such as single-cut minicircle plasmids, singleor double-cut plasmids, may result in the identification of knock in strategies suitable for Jurkat transfections. Linear donors, such as ds or ssDNAs can also be tried to augment the efficiency of transgene integration.

Addressing all three of these limiting factors will allow to generate a robust cellular platform for multiplexed screening and identification of novel human GSH sites.

3.6 Methods

Cell culture

Jurkat cells were cultured in ATCC-modified RPMI-1640 (Thermo Fisher, #A1049101). All media were supplemented with 10% FBS, 50 U ml-1 penicillin and 50 μ g ml⁻¹ streptomycin. Detachment of HEK cells for passaging was performed using the TrypLE reagent (Thermo Fisher, #12605010). Cells were cultured at 37°C, 5% CO2 in a humidified atmosphere.

Jurkat T-cell transfection

Prior to transfection of Jurkat gRNA molecules were assembled by mixing 4 μl of custom Alt-R crRNA (200 μM, IDT) with 4 μL of Alt-R tracrRNA (200 μM, IDT, #1072534), incubating the mix at 95°C for 5 min and cooling it to room temperature. 2 μL of assembled gRNA molecules were mixed with 2 μL of recombinant SpCas9 (61 μM, IDT, #1081059) and incubated for > 10 min at room temperature to generate Cas9 RNP complexes.

CCR5-targeting gRNA sequence: TGACATCAATTATTATACAT.

AAVS1-targeting gRNA sequence: GGGGCCACTAGGGACAGGAT.

For transfection of Jurkat cells 100 μL format SE Cell line kit (Lonza, V4XC-1012) and electroporation program CL-120 was used on the 4D-Nucleofector. $1x10⁶$ Jurkat cells were transfected with 2 μg of donor plasmid, 2 μl of Cas9 RNP complex against target genomic site.

Inducible sgRNA expression

Plasmid encoding gene trap sequence for AAVS1 integration was purchased from Addgene (#22075) and engineered to contain mRuby sequence and full U6 promoter sequence with two Tet Operator elements surrounding the TATA-box followed by GFP targeting sgRNA sequence as well as Tet repressor gene. 2 μg of this donor plasmid were transfected together with AAVS1-targeting sgRNA into the AAVS1 locus of Cas9-GFP expressing Jurkat cells. Clonal mRuby⁺ GFP⁺ expressing population was subjected to 10 ng/mL of doxycycline. Cells were analyzed using Sony SH800S to observe the inducibility of endogenous sgRNA expression.

Flow cytometry

Transfected Jurkat cells were bulk sorted on day 3 and single-cell sorted on day 10 following transfection using Sony SH800S sorter. For selection of Cas9 transgene expressing clones, cells were isolated based on GFP expression. For selection of sgRNA landing pad transgene expressing clones, cells were isolated based on mRuby expression.

Genotyping

Genomic DNA was extracted from $1x10^6$ cells using PureLink Genomic DNA extraction kit (ThermoFischer Scientific, #K1820-01). 5 μL of genomic DNA extract were then used as templates for 25 μL PCR reactions using a primer with one primer residing outside of the homology arm of the integrated sequence and the other primer inside the integrated sequence. Obtained bands were gel extracted using Zymoclean Gel DNA Recovery Kit (Zymo Research, #D4001), 4ul of eluted DNA was cloned into a TOPO-vector using Zero-blunt TOPO PCR Cloning Kit (ThermoFischer Scientific, #450245), incubated for 1 hour, transformed into NEB 5-alpha Competent E. coli cells (New England Biolabs, C2987H) and plated on agar plates containing kanamycin at 50 μg/ml. Produced clones were picked and inoculated for overnight

culture in 5ml of liquid broth supplemented with kanamycin at 50 μg/ml. Liquid cultures were mini-prepped the following morning using ZR Plasmid Miniprep - Classic kit (Zymo Research, #D4015) and Sanger sequenced by Microsynth using M13-forward and M13-reverse standard primers.

T7E1 assay

Region in the GFP gene was PCR amplified in using the following primer set: Forward GGGCGAGGAGCTGTTCA, Reverse CAGCTCGTCCATGCCGAGAG. After running on the gel bands were extracted and mixed with NEBuffer2 (New England Biolabs) and annealed for 10 minutes, with temperature reduced at 0.3C increments per minute. PCR products were then digested with T7E1 enzyme for 40 minutes at 37C, followed by gel electrophoresis.

4. General discussion

Therapeutic integrative gene addition possesses significant value for gene and cell therapies, particularly in the context of mitotically active cells. Being able to sustain gene expression through genomic insertion in target cells and all of its progenies allows to prevent transgene diluting effects due to cellular division. Despite showing clinical success for certain disease indications, current approaches to integrative gene addition bear a significant disadvantage of random nature of transgene insertion. Development of novel genome engineering tools supporting precise genomic modifications now permits a targeted insertion of therapeutic transgenes in different cell types, dividing and non-dividing. However, absence of wellcharacterized genomic sites capable of sustaining safe and durable transgene expression still holds targeted transgene integration approaches from enteric into clinical practice. Additionally, various mammalian synthetic biology approaches rely on creation of genetic circuits containing large sets of coding and non-coding genes, expression of which needs to be predictable and not perturbing other cellular functions. Identification of novel GSH sites would thus introduce novel opportunities to the fields of cell engineering, gene therapy and synthetic biology improving safety, durability and predictability of their research and therapeutic applications.

In this dissertation I described a computational search based on existing as well new GSH criteria to predict sites safe for genomic insertion and transgene expression. This bioinformatic pipeline generated close to 2,000 integration sites in the human genome, each of which satisfied initial safety screen. I then discussed how these predicted sites can be investigated for their ability to provide high and stable transgene expression levels. First, a rational approach targeting several predicted sites individually was applied using CRISPR/Cas9 method and MMEJ-based integration. Best expressing sites were then investigated for their safety using single cell and bulk transcriptomics. This approach identified two genomic sites capable of stable expression of reporter and therapeutic genes of interest in cell lines as well as in primary human cells, paving way for their inclusion in future gene and cell therapy clinical trials. I also described an attempted alternative high-throughput approach, in which we sought to validate thousands of GSH sites simultaneously using libraries of inducible gRNAs targeting computationally predicted sites. This methodology, however, faced an experimental hurdle of leaky gRNA expression and was ultimately put on hold. Recently introduced technological advances in tight inducible gRNA expression could allow to restart this high-throughput approach, leading to identification of more GSH sites supporting even more robust transgene expression levels.

Although the safety of virally integrated gene therapies has markedly improved over the past

years and more regulatory approvals has been witnessed for lentivirus delivered transgenes²¹, the concern associated with perturbation of normal cellular function following semi-random lentiviral integration events still remains. For instance, initially successful clinical trials of Lentiglobin autologous cell therapy product, composed of ex vivo lentivirally engineered HSCs bearing a functional copy of hemoglobin subunit beta in patients with sickle cell disease, had to be halted due to oncogenic transformation of engineered cells. The causes of this event are currently unknown, and the insertional oncogenesis might not be the culprit in this particular case, however the unpredictable nature of transgene integration using lentiviruses remains a concern and other cell therapy trials may potentially result in similar complications.

Gene and cell therapies are the main beneficiaries of the newly identified GSH sites. New targets for safe and stable transgene integration can play a critical role in treatment of inherited genetic disorders in proliferating tissues, such as skin, blood cells, stem cells residing across the body, etc. With groundbreaking research occurring in the field of immunoengineering, exploiting safe harbors to introduce new receptors and response elements into immune cells can be particularly attractive. Stem cell engineering could also be an exciting application for the identified GSHs. Being able to safely introduce therapeutic genes into iPSCs followed by differentiation into desired tissues could be very valuable for allogeneic cell therapies⁷⁰. Additionally, recombinant protein production field is likely to benefit from having a long-term predictable expression from a GSH, allowing to create better stable cell banks of human protein producing cell lines. Finally, one particularly exciting application for the validated GSHs is integration of enhancing genes, providing novel beneficial properties to cells and tissues. An example of such approach includes aging reversal through integration of transcription factors associated with early developmental phenotype¹²². In this case, despite the epigenetic remodeling that the cell undergoes during development and aging, the expression of the rejuvenating transgene from GSH will be maintained. Another example could be knocking in of neurotrophic factors into the GSHs of adult neurons to promote neural regeneration¹²³. The opportunities for augmenting human cells are limitless and with the safety provided by safe harbor expression, they may start transitioning from research to therapies.

Creation of complex synthetic biology gene circuits in mammalian cells requires a predictable expression of multiple coding or regulatory genetic elements, which would have minimal interference with the function of the endogenous genes. This is particularly relevant for ex vivo engineered human cells that will be introduced into the patient to elicit a multi-component response to a range of different inputs for therapeutic and diagnostic applications, such as genetically reprogrammed T cells or hematopoietic stem cells. Multiple human genomic safe harbor sites could satisfy this necessity for predictable and safe expression of the components of synthetic gene networks. One of the most exciting applications of such technology could be

for tissue specific reprogramming of engineered pluripotent stem cells with different transcription factors integrated in GSHs and expressed in response to tissue specific stimuli resulting in desired differentiation patterns. This approach could be particularly relevant for the reconstitution of tissue residing stem cells that undergo aging-associated deficiencies.

Skin is one of the mitotically active organs which is easily accessible for genetic manipulation, making it a good a candidate for GSH-based gene integration for therapeutic and tissue enhancing purposes. One of the skin diseases that can potentially be treated with targeted knock-in of genes of interest is psoriasis – a common autoimmune condition associated with an immune cascade inducing faster keratinocyte proliferation¹²⁴. One approach to mitigating this recurring disease is to introduce an "antipsoriatic cytokine converter" described by Shukur et al. – a gene network that responds to an increased presence of proinflammatory cytokines TNF and IL22 resulting in production of anti-inflammatory cytokines IL4 and IL10¹²⁵. This is achieved by sequential activation of endogenous TNF alpha, followed by NF-kB driven expression of IL22 receptor, which when activated by IL22 cytokine induces STAT3-driven expression of secreted IL4 and IL10 capable of preventing or attenuating acute manifestation of psoriatic disease. Both of the genetic components used to create described gene network can be expressed from safe harbor regions in dermal fibroblasts to make this treatment modality safer. In addition, numerous inherited disorders of the skin can be addressed by targeted integration of therapeutic transgenes into safe harbor regions. Epidermolysis bullosa alone can be caused by mutations in around 30 different genes involved in structural integrity of the skin. Replacing this malfunctional genes with their wild-type copies expressed from a GSH site will result in durable and safe treatment⁵⁶. Finally, additional enhancing properties can be introduced into skin tissue using GSH-based genome engineering: wound or burn healing can be augmented by the introduction of platelet derived growth factor or epidermal growth factor into skin cells, damage-induced expression of which will result in faster fibroblast proliferation and angiogenesis 58 (Fig. 4.1).

Figure 4.1. GSH application to in vivo skin cell engineering. A schematic of GSH-based gene therapy applications to inherited skin disorders and wound healing. Targeting of therapeutic and enhancing genes to safe harbor site in epidermal stem cells may allow for continuous safe gene expression in proliferating cells of epidermis.

Integrations into novel GSH sites would have a significant impact on a rapidly evolving field of T cell engineering. Specifically, gene cassettes encoding synthetic receptors which target cancer cells can be integrated into novel GSHs ex vivo for safer expression once introduced into patients. As an example, synthetic Notch (synNotch) receptor described by Roybal et al., is capable of sensing a variety of orthogonal molecular inputs and drive the expression of customizable cytokines in primary human T cells, sidestepping the natural T cell activation⁸⁷. Cancer therapy could be one of the applications of this approach, when engagement of synNotch receptor by cancer cell antigens results in activation of introduced Tbet transcription factor, responsible for T_{h1} lineage skewing of CD4⁺ T cells. T_{h1} cells produce IFNy essential for the induction of innate immune mechanisms against tumor cells. Engineering of T cell bearing donors that encode such synthetic receptors as well as their response elements could be done in genomic safe harbor locus for safer clinical applications. In addition, GSH-based insertion of CARs as well as knock-out of endogenous TCR in iPSCs followed by the differentiation of the latter into T cells may provide a safer route for allogeneic off-the-shelf T cell therapies without inducing graft-versus-host disease¹²⁶.

Scientists can also employ other tools to make the expression from a genomic safe harbor safer. One such approach is the use of insulator elements, a relatively short DNA sequence operating as a binding site for insulating proteins. These proteins are isolating genomic sequences between them allowing for a separate regulation within this isolated region¹²⁷.

Adding such insulator sequences to transgene bearing HDR donor would further increase the safety profile of GSH engineered cells. Additionally, methods to increase integration efficiency in dividing and non-dividing cell should be explored, helping to achieve larger pools of GSH transgene integrated cells. In Chapter 2 I described the approach we used to GSH knock in transgenes into mitotically active primary cells using dsDNA donors and nucleofection and transfection approaches. Despite being able to isolate positive clones, the integration efficiency using such methods was low. One way to improve this is by using alternative donor types, for example HDR donors packaged into a AAV vector, or ssDNA donor delivered in an LNP.

Furthermore, additional methods to verify safety of transgene expression from identified loci can be used. One could envision assessing changes in chromosomal architecture following transgene insertion into an identified GSHs, which could be done by comparing HiC profiles of cells with and without GSH insertion^{128,129}. Additionally, using modern high-throughput mass spectrometry approaches, cellular metabolome could also be investigated in GSH integrated versus non-integrated cells to confirm stability of metabolic pathway following GSH integration 130 .

Finally, the experimental validation for novel genomic safe harbor sites can be expanded to all other computationally predicted regions that satisfy introduced safe harbor criteria using optimized high-throughput screening approaches for simultaneous interrogation of multiple putative GSHs. In chapter 3 I discussed an attempt to use inducible sgRNA expression for temporal regulation of DNA cutting in the presence of NHEJ donor. This inducible expression was based on Tet-repressor system, which demonstrated leakiness of the RNA polymerase III driven sgRNA expression. An alternative strategy for inducible sgRNA expression has been proposed by Chylinski et al., which is based on Cre-mediated recombination event resulting in the excision of polyT stretch placed in the middle of the sgRNA sequence¹²¹ (Fig. 4.2A). This event allows for the production of functional sgRNA molecule in the presence of Crerecombinase, thus capable of a very tight temporal control of the DNA cutting as compared to leaky U6/TetO system (Fig. 4.2B). Together with the endogenous sgRNA expression platform using libraries of protospacers described by Rajagopal et al., this approach would address the limitation of the study in chapter 3 and allow for inducible expression of libraries of sgRNAs, and thus interrogating multiple genomic sites in a high-throughput manner (Fig. 4.2C), eventually allowing to assess all computationally predicted safe harbor sites in a highthroughput manner.

Figure 4.2. Cre-recombinase inducible endogenous sgRNA expression platform. A) Chylinski et al. have reported a novel approach for temporally controlled sgRNA expression using Cre-mediated excision of polyT sequence located in the middle of sgRNA. This event prevents the premature sgRNA degradation and allows for the production of functional sgRNA. B) This method was compared with U6/TetO inducible sgRNA expression an showed very tight expression exclusively in the presence of Cre. As observed in Chapter 3, U6/TetO system demonstrated leaky sgRNA expression, unsuitable for on demand expression of sgRNAs. C) Similar to the design in chapter 3, genomically integrated inducible sgRNA expression platform can be used to express a library of sgRNA sequences targeting bioinformatically predicted GSHs following Cre-mediated recombination. This temporally controlled sgRNA expression will be accompanied by transfection of NHEJ mRuby donor, which will be expressed in case of integration into a true GSH. Cells durably expressing mRuby will be sorted and protospacer locus will be sequenced to identify mRuby integration site and hence the newly validated GSH.

Conclusion

Prior to this research, targeted insertion of therapeutic genes into human cells was limited to three serendipitously identified sites, which due to the unknown function of the genes they are located in as well as being surrounded by oncogenes, did not experience transition into clinical practice. In this dissertation I described computational prediction of novel genomic safe harbor sites based on existing and newly introduced criteria. From these predicted sites, two were validated for safe and stable expression of genes of interest in a range of different cell types. This discovery will help improve gene and cell therapies relying on gene addition as well as support the rapid pace of innovation in synthetic biology that enables multiple transgene integration and genetic circuits to rewire, reprogram and augment cellular function.

5. Appendices

S1. Gene ontology analysis of HEK293T cells following GSH2 mRuby integration

 $\overline{\mathbf{B}}$

 $\mathbf c$

S2. Gene ontology analysis of Jurkat cells following GSH2 mRuby integration

 \mathbf{A}

Table 1. Computationally predicted GSH sites.

Table 2. Donor constructs targeting GSH1 and GSH2 sites

ACCAGCTCAGGGACAGCCGGAGAGAGGCAGAGAGGCTGGTGCGGCAGGCGGGAGGAGGAGGAGGCACCGGCAGCC CCAAGCTTGTGGCCCTGAGGCTGGAGATGTCTTCGTTGCCTGACCTGACACCCACCTTCAACAAGCTCTGTGGCAACT CCAGGCAGATGGCTTGCACCCCAATATCATGCCCTGGTGAGCTATGTCCCCAAGACAATGGCACAGCCTGTGGCTCCC GCTGCAGGGGTGTCCTTCCCAGGGCCGGTGGGGCCTTCTTGATGGCGGGGCAGGTGGCTGAGCAGCTGCGGGGCTT CAATGCCCAGCTCCAGCGGACCAGGCAGATGATTAGGGCAGCCGAGGAATCTGCCTCACAGATTCAATCCAGTGCCC AGCGCTTGGAGACCCAGGTGAGCGCCAGCCGCTCCCAGATGGAGGAAGATGTCAGACGCACACGGCTCCTAATCCAG CAGGTCCGGGACTTCCTAACAGACCCCGACACTGATGCAGCCACTATCCAGGAGGTCAGCGAGGCCGTGCTGGCCCT GTGGCTGCCCACAGACTCAGCTACTGTTCTGCAGAAGATGAATGAGATCCAGGCCATTGCAGCCAGGCTCCCCAACGT GGACTTGGTGCTGTCCCAGACCAAGCAGGACATTGCGCGTGCCCGCCGGTTGCAGGCTGAGGCTGAGGAAGCCAGG AGCCGAGCCCATGCAGTGGAGGGCCAGGTGGAAGATGTGGTTGGGAACCTGCGGCAGGGGACAGTGGCACTGCAGG AAGCTCAGGACACCATGCAAGGCACCAGCCGCTCCCTTCGGCTTATCCAGGACAGGGTTGCTGAGGTTCAGCAGGTA CTGCGGCCAGCAGAAAAGCTGGTGACAAGCATGACCAAGCAGCTGGGTGACTTCTGGACACGGATGGAGGAGCTCCG CCACCAAGCCCGGCAGCAGGGGGCAGAGGCAGTCCAGGCCCAGCAGCTTGCGGAAGGTGCCAGCGAGCAGGCATT GAGTGCCCAAGAGGGATTTGAGAGAATAAAACAAAAGTATGCTGAGTTGAAGGACCGGTTGGGTCAGAGTTCCATGCT GGGTGAGCAGGGTGCCCGGATCCAGAGTGTGAAGACAGAGGCAGAGGAGCTGTTTGGGGAGACCATGGAGATGATG GACAGGATGAAAGACATGGAGTTGGAGCTGCTGCGGGGCAGCCAGGCCATCATGCTGCGCTCGGCGGACCTGACAG GACTGGAGAAGCGTGTGGAGCAGATCCGTGACCACATCAATGGGCGCGTGCTCTACTATGCCACCTGCAAGGAGGGC AGAGGAAGTCTTCTAACATGCGGTGACGTGGAGGAGAATCCCGGCCCTAGCATGGTGAGCAAGGGCGAGGAGCTGTT CACCGGGGTGGTGCCCATCCTGGTCGAGCTGGACGGCGACGTAAACGGCCACAAGTTCAGCGTGTCCGGCGAGGGC GAGGGCGATGCCACCTACGGCAAGCTGACCCTGAAGTTCATCTGCACCACCGGCAAGCTGCCCGTGCCCTGGCCCAC CCTCGTGACCACCCTGACCTACGGCGTGCAGTGCTTCAGCCGCTACCCCGACCACATGAAGCAGCACGACTTCTTCAA GTCCGCCATGCCCGAAGGCTACGTCCAGGAGCGCACCATCTTCTTCAAGGACGACGGCAACTACAAGACCCGCGCCG AGGTGAAGTTCGAGGGCGACACCCTGGTGAACCGCATCGAGCTGAAGGGCATCGACTTCAAGGAGGACGGCAACATC CTGGGGCACAAGCTGGAGTACAACTACAACAGCCACAACGTCTATATCATGGCCGACAAGCAGAAGAACGGCATCAAG GTGAACTTCAAGATCCGCCACAACATCGAGGACGGCAGCGTGCAGCTCGCCGACCACTACCAGCAGAACACCCCCAT CGGCGACGGCCCCGTGCTGCTGCCCGACAACCACTACCTGAGCACCCAGTCCGCCCTGAGCAAAGACCCCAACGAG AAGCGCGATCACATGGTCCTGCTGGAGTTCGTGACCGCCGCCGGGATCACTCTCGGCATGGACGAGCTGTACAAGTA AAGCGGACTAGTCTAGCAATCAACCTCTGGATTACAAAATTTGTGAAAGATTGACTGGTATTCTTAACTATGTTGCTCCT TTTACGCTATGTGGATACGCTGCTTTAATGCCTTTGTATCATGCTATTGCTTCCCGTATGGCTTTCATTTTCTCCTCCTTG TATAAATCCTGGTTAGTTCTTGCCACGGCGGAACTCATCGCCGCCTGCCTTGCCCGCTGCTGGACAGGGGCTCGGCTG TTGGGCACTGACAATTCCGTGGTGTTTATTTGTGAAATTTGTGATGCTATTGCTTTATTTGTAACCATTCTAGCTTTATTT GTGAAATTTGTGATGCTATTGCTTTATTTGTAACCATTATAAGCTGCAATAAACAAGTTAACAACAACAATTGCATTCATT TTATGTTTCAGGTTCAGGGGGAGATGTGGGAGGTTTTTTAAAGCCATGGCACTAGGACTAAAGGTTGGCCAAAGTACAA GATATTTGTCTTATCTGATGACAACTCTGTGTCCTGGACTCTCTTCCAGAATAAGACCTTTCCTGCAGCACTGCTTGAAC TCCTCTTAGCAAGAGGGAAACATGTGAAATGCTACCAAAATAGAATAGAAGTAAATTCTTATTATATTCCTTTGTTCACTC ATATCCTGAAGTGCATCAAATCAGGTTTTCTCACCTGTATAATGCTGTATTTTACTTGAGTTGGAATAATTTTGCTTAGAA ATAAATAAGTAAAACAGCACCTG

CCCAGGCTGCTCAGCAGGTCTCCGACAGCTCGCGCCTTTTGGACCAGCTCAGGGACAGCCGGAGAGAGGCAGAGAGG CTGGTGCGGCAGGCGGGAGGAGGAGGAGGCACCGGCAGCCCCAAGCTTGTGGCCCTGAGGCTGGAGATGTCTTCGTT GCCTGACCTGACACCCACCTTCAACAAGCTCTGTGGCAACTCCAGGCAGATGGCTTGCACCCCAATATCATGCCCTGGT GAGCTATGTCCCCAAGACAATGGCACAGCCTGTGGCTCCCGCTGCAGGGGTGTCCTTCCCAGGGCCGGTGGGGCCTT CTTGATGGCGGGGCAGGTGGCTGAGCAGCTGCGGGGCTTCAATGCCCAGCTCCAGCGGACCAGGCAGATGATTAGGG CAGCCGAGGAATCTGCCTCACAGATTCAATCCAGTGCCCAGCGCTTGGAGACCCAGGTGAGCGCCAGCCGCTCCCAGA TGGAGGAAGATGTCAGACGCACACGGCTCCTAATCCAGCAGGTCCGGGACTTCCTAACAGACCCCGACACTGATGCAG CCACTATCCAGGAGGTCAGCGAGGCCGTGCTGGCCCTGTGGCTGCCCACAGACTCAGCTACTGTTCTGCAGAAGATGA ATGAGATCCAGGCCATTGCAGCCAGGCTCCCCAACGTGGACTTGGTGCTGTCCCAGACCAAGCAGGACATTGCGCGTG CCCGCCGGTTGCAGGCTGAGGCTGAGGAAGCCAGGAGCCGAGCCCATGCAGTGGAGGGCCAGGTGGAAGATGTGGTT GGGAACCTGCGGCAGGGGACAGTGGCACTGCAGGAAGCTCAGGACACCATGCAAGGCACCAGCCGCTCCCTTCGGCT TATCCAGGACAGGGTTGCTGAGGTTCAGCAGGTACTGCGGCCAGCAGAAAAGCTGGTGACAAGCATGACCAAGCAGCT GGGTGACTTCTGGACACGGATGGAGGAGCTCCGCCACCAAGCCCGGCAGCAGGGGGCAGAGGCAGTCCAGGCCCAG CAGCTTGCGGAAGGTGCCAGCGAGCAGGCATTGAGTGCCCAAGAGGGATTTGAGAGAATAAAACAAAAGTATGCTGAG TTGAAGGACCGGTTGGGTCAGAGTTCCATGCTGGGTGAGCAGGGTGCCCGGATCCAGAGTGTGAAGACAGAGGCAGA GGAGCTGTTTGGGGAGACCATGGAGATGATGGACAGGATGAAAGACATGGAGTTGGAGCTGCTGCGGGGCAGCCAGG CCATCATGCTGCGCTCGGCGGACCTGACAGGACTGGAGAAGCGTGTGGAGCAGATCCGTGACCACATCAATGGGCGC GTGCTCTACTATGCCACCTGCAAGGAGGGCAGAGGAAGTCTTCTAACATGCGGTGACGTGGAGGAGAATCCCGGCCCT AGCATGGTGAGCAAGGGCGAGGAGCTGTTCACCGGGGTGGTGCCCATCCTGGTCGAGCTGGACGGCGACGTAAACGG CCACAAGTTCAGCGTGTCCGGCGAGGGCGAGGGCGATGCCACCTACGGCAAGCTGACCCTGAAGTTCATCTGCACCAC CGGCAAGCTGCCCGTGCCCTGGCCCACCCTCGTGACCACCCTGACCTACGGCGTGCAGTGCTTCAGCCGCTACCCCG ACCACATGAAGCAGCACGACTTCTTCAAGTCCGCCATGCCCGAAGGCTACGTCCAGGAGCGCACCATCTTCTTCAAGGA CGACGGCAACTACAAGACCCGCGCCGAGGTGAAGTTCGAGGGCGACACCCTGGTGAACCGCATCGAGCTGAAGGGCA TCGACTTCAAGGAGGACGGCAACATCCTGGGGCACAAGCTGGAGTACAACTACAACAGCCACAACGTCTATATCATGGC CGACAAGCAGAAGAACGGCATCAAGGTGAACTTCAAGATCCGCCACAACATCGAGGACGGCAGCGTGCAGCTCGCCGA CCACTACCAGCAGAACACCCCCATCGGCGACGGCCCCGTGCTGCTGCCCGACAACCACTACCTGAGCACCCAGTCCGC CCTGAGCAAAGACCCCAACGAGAAGCGCGATCACATGGTCCTGCTGGAGTTCGTGACCGCCGCCGGGATCACTCTCGG CATGGACGAGCTGTACAAGTAAAGCGGACTAGTCTAGCAATCAACCTCTGGATTACAAAATTTGTGAAAGATTGACTGGT ATTCTTAACTATGTTGCTCCTTTTACGCTATGTGGATACGCTGCTTTAATGCCTTTGTATCATGCTATTGCTTCCCGTATGG CTTTCATTTTCTCCTCCTTGTATAAATCCTGGTTAGTTCTTGCCACGGCGGAACTCATCGCCGCCTGCCTTGCCCGCTGC TGGACAGGGGCTCGGCTGTTGGGCACTGACAATTCCGTGGTGTTTATTTGTGAAATTTGTGATGCTATTGCTTTATTTGT AACCATTCTAGCTTTATTTGTGAAATTTGTGATGCTATTGCTTTATTTGTAACCATTATAAGCTGCAATAAACAAGTTAACA ACAACAATTGCATTCATTTTATGTTTCAGGTTCAGGGGGAGATGTGGGAGGTTTTTTAAAGCTGCTATCAAGTCTGATGTC AGTAATTTTTGGAGGAGACTGAAGTGCAGTGAGACTATCCAAAGTCAGACATGGGGAAAAGCAGAGTCATCCCTCCTAG GCTGCCAAAATCCTCCCCATCCAAGCTCATCCTTGAAGCCCTCACTTAAGACAAAGTTCCTCCCATCCCTTCTGCCTGCT CTGGCATGGTCTGAACCATTTGCCTATTAATTGCCCTGCCTGGTTTCATTTGTTCTTTTTGCTGTATTTAAACTGTGGGAA TTCTATTGTTAACCTTTTTCTTGCTCAACTGAACTGTGACA

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ERIK AZNAURYAN

Rosentalstrasse 17, Basel, Switzerland, 4058 +41 79 867 8060 • erik.aznauryan@bsse.ethz.ch

EDUCATION

EXPERIENCE

ETH Zürich, Switzerland 2016-2021

PhD candidate; Advisor: Dr Sai Reddy

Discovery and validation of novel human genomic safe harbor sites for gene and cell therapies

- Computationally predicted novel genomic safe harbor sites satisfying existing and newly introduced safety criteria.
- Experimentally validated predicted sites for durable expression of reporter and therapeutic genes of interest in various cellular contexts.
- Verified safety of newly identified safe harbor sites using bulk and single-cell transcriptomics.

Harvard University, MA, USA 2019-2020

Visiting graduate student; Advisor: Dr George Church Use of genomic safe harbor sites for gene therapy of skin disorders and anti-aging skin

therapy

- Developed ex-vivo gene therapy approach for inherited skin disorders using CRISPR/Cas9 technology and novel human genomic safe harbor sites.
- Phenotypically screened age-associated transcription factors to identify potential targets for skin anti-aging therapy.

Flagship Pioneering, MA, USA 2020

Flagship Pioneering Fellow Exploration and creation of scientifically novel platform technologies

- Worked in a team of fellows to ideate on new venture hypotheses revolving around medical, industrial and agricultural biotechnology.
- Presented our team's ideas to the leadership of the company for evaluation and potential company creation.

California Institute of Technology, CA, USA 2015-2016

Research assistant; Advisor: Dr Mitchell Guttman Role of Xist lncRNA and its associated proteins in X-chromosome inactivation

- Used genome engineering tools to create novel mammalian ES cell lines for elucidation of the X-chromosome inactivation mechanism by Xist lncRNA and its interacting proteins.
- Implemented genome engineering techniques to develop single-molecule lncRNA imaging methods.

Atlas Biomed, Russian Federation 2016

Summer intern; Advisor: Dr Vladislav Mileyko Genetic testing for inherited disorders

- Developed protocols for population-wide breast cancer screening using clinical and genetic diagnostics.

Columbia University, NY, USA 2014

Master's research project; Advisor: Dr Virginia Cornish Overproduction of terpenes in yeast *S. cerevisiae*

- Modified metabolic pathways in yeast *S. cerevisiae* by expressing synthetic enzymatic complexes in an effort to increase the production levels of terpenes.
- Developed fermentation and mass-spectrometry protocols for measuring overproduction of terpenes in yeast.

Newcastle University, UK 2013

Undergraduate research project; Advisor: Dr Robert Taylor Effects of novel mutations in *LRPPRC* gene in patients with Leigh Syndrome

- Characterized the structural composition of complex IV of electron transport chain in patients with novel mutations in *LRPPRC* gene.
- Studied consequences of novel *LRPPRC* mutations on functional parameters of mitochondria and cellular respiration.

Association of Pediatric Ophthalmology Clinics, Russian Federation 2011

Summer intern; Advisor: Dr Victoria Balasanyan Biomechanical formula for precise strabismus surgery dosage

- Participated in derivation of a biomechanical formula for precise and efficient dosage of surgical correction of strabismus.

PAPERS & PATENTS

Aznauryan, E., Yermanos, A., Kinzina, E., Kapetanovic, E., Milanova, D., Church, G., Reddy, S. (2021) Discovery and validation of novel human genomic safe harbor sites for gene and cell therapies. *Cell Genomics. In review.*

Aznauryan, E., Milanova, D., Reddy, S., Church, G. (2021) Use of novel genomic safe harbor sites for skin gene therapy. *Patent application filed.*

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LEADERSHIP & VOLUNTEER EXPERIENCE

SCHOLARSHIPS & AWARDS

REFERENCES

Sai Reddy, Ph.D.

Associate Professor of Systems and Synthetic Immunology Department of Biosystems Science and Engineering ETH Zürich sai.reddy@bsse.ethz.ch

George Church, Ph.D.

Robert Winthrop Professor of Genetics Harvard Medical School Harvard University gchurch@genetics.med.harvard.edu

Randall Platt, Ph.D.

Associate Professor of Biological Engineering Department of Biosystems Science and Engineering ETH Zürich rplatt@ethz.ch

Roger Hajjar, M.D.

Head of the Research and Development Ring Therapeutics Arthur & Janet C. Ross Professor of Medicine Mount Sinai School of Medicine rhajjar@flagshippioneering.com