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CASE REPORT



Envisioning the development of a CRISPR-Cas mediated base editing strategy for a patient with a novel pathogenic *CRB1* single nucleotide variant

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ABSTRACT

Background: Inherited retinal degeneration (IRD) associated with mutations in the *Crumbs homolog 1* (*CRB1*) gene is associated with a severe, early-onset retinal degeneration for which no therapy currently exists. Base editing, with its capability to precisely catalyse permanent nucleobase conversion in a programmable manner, represents a novel therapeutic approach to targeting this autosomal recessive IRD, for which a gene supplementation is challenging due to the need to target three different retinal *CRB1* isoforms.

Purpose: To report and classify a novel *CRB1* variant and envision a possible therapeutic approach in form of base editing.

Methods: Case report.

Results: A 16-year-old male patient with a clinical diagnosis of early-onset retinitis pigmentosa (RP) and characteristic clinical findings of retinal thickening and coarse lamination was seen at the Oxford Eye Hospital. He was found to be compound heterozygous for two *CRB1* variants: a novel pathogenic nonsense variant in exon 9, c.2885T>A (p.Leu962Ter), and a likely pathogenic missense change in exon 6, c.2056C>T (p.Arg686Cys). While a base editing strategy for c.2885T>A would encompass a CRISPR-pass mediated “read-through” of the premature stop codon, the resulting missense changes were predicted to be “possibly damaging” in in-silico analysis. On the other hand, the transversion missense change, c.2056C>T, is amenable to transition editing with an adenine base editor (ABE) fused to a SaCas9-KKH with a negligible chance of bystander edits due to an absence of additional Adenines (As) in the editing window.

Conclusions: This case report records a novel pathogenic nonsense variant in *CRB1* and gives an example of thinking about a base editing strategy for a patient compound heterozygous for *CRB1* variants.

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Introduction

CRB1 gene

The *Crumbs homolog 1* (*CRB1*) gene is located in chromosomal region 1q31.3 and is expressed as a highly conserved transmembrane protein in retina and brain of humans and other mammals (1,2). The retinal function of *CRB1* has yet to be comprehensively understood, but it is considered to play an important role in both structural integrity and development of the retina: studies in *Drosophila* and humans point toward *CRB1* being integral for cell-to-cell adhesion and the establishment of cellular polarity as well as photoreceptor morphogenesis and retinal maturation (3–8). The phenotypic hallmark of *CRB1*-associated inherited retinal degeneration (IRD) supports the hypothesis of its key role in retinal development: much like an immature retina, the retina of a patient presenting with a biallelic *CRB1* mutations is grossly thickened and shows loss of distinct inner retinal lamination (9,10). These lamination defects in humans with pathogenic *CRB1* variants are also present in *CRB1* knockout mouse models (11).

Phenotype of *CRB1*-associated IRDs

Biallelic *CRB1* mutations have been linked to 3–9% of autosomal recessive retinitis pigmentosa (RP) cases and 7–17% of autosomal recessive Leber congenital amaurosis (LCA) cases (12–14). LCA presents at birth with severe visual impairment, absent responses on electroretinography and nystagmus and is considered to be one of the most severe forms of retinal dystrophy (15). RP can become symptomatic at different ages and is phenotypically heterogeneous, although most forms are characterised by a rod-cone pattern of photoreceptor degeneration, which causes night blindness and a concentric, progressive loss of visual fields (16). Both RP and LCA can be caused by a broad spectrum of pathogenic gene variants (17). The characteristic morphologic hallmark of *CRB1*-associated IRD is the above-mentioned thickening of the retina, which stands in contrast to other molecular forms of RP or LCA, in which the outer retina progressively thins due to photoreceptor loss (18). Other reported phenotypic hallmarks of *CRB1*-associated IRDs include cystoid macula edema, preservation of the para-arteriolar retinal pigment epithelium (RPE), nummular pigmentation, and Coats-like exudates (10,19).

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CRB1 isoforms

In the human retina, three isoforms of CRB1, CRB1-A, CRB1-B, and CRB1-C, are expressed at meaningful levels and differ enough in their sequence to encode a functional difference on a protein level (20) (Figure 1). In humans, CRB1-A has been shown to localise to photoreceptors and Müller Glia Cells (MGCs) (5,21). In mice, CRB1-B has been shown to localise exclusively to photoreceptors, while CRB1-A is found in MGCs (20). The protein's constitutive isoform, CRB1-A, has a large extracellular domain made up of 19 epidermal growth factor (EGF)-like and 3 laminin A-like domains, as well a highly conserved transmembrane domain followed by a short intracellular domain that contains FERM/PDZ binding motifs (12). The CRB1-B isoform is the most abundant retinal isoform and has a unique C- and N-terminus, but shares the transmembrane domain as well as a large part of the extracellular domain with CRB1-A (20).

Therapeutic options for CRB1-associated IRDs

Currently, there are no therapies available for CRB1-associated IRDs. Gene therapy utilizing Adeno Associated Viruses (AAVs) as vectors for retinal transgene delivery has established itself as a safe and efficacious treatment for autosomal and X-linked pathogenic mutations in humans (22–24) and proof of principle studies for the treatment of CRB1-induced retinal degeneration have focused on delivering CRB2 to rescue a CRB1-induced phenotype in murine models (5,25). A gene supplementation approach is inherently limited by its capability to only supplement one of the three CRB1 isoforms. By targeting the endogenous genomic sequence for correction rather than providing an exogenous cDNA template, CRISPR-Cas mediated base editing, with its ability to irreversibly correct point mutations by chemical modification of nucleobases, shows great promise in addressing mutations not amenable to gene supplementation, either due to AAV packaging constraints or the presence of multiple isoforms. In previous reports, CRB1 gene supplementation and subsequent overexpression resulted in reduced retinal function an ERG, no improvement of visual function and negatively affected retinal morphology (5,25), making gene editing a particularly attractive alternative for this gene.

Base editing with CRISPR-Cas

The field of genome engineering was revolutionised when it was shown that the class 2 type II CRISPR-Cas9 system, an RNA-guided DNA endonuclease utilised by select bacteria as an innate immune defence (26–28), could be harnessed to introduced programmed, targeted DNA cleavage in living eukaryotic cells with unprecedented ease and adaptability (29).

Base editing avoids backbone cleavage of DNA and utilises naturally occurring deaminases fused to a partially or fully deactivated Cas9 to introduce single nucleotide variants (SNVs) into the human genome by directly and irreversibly chemically modifying target nucleobases (30,31). Cytosine base editors (CBEs) take advantage of the cytidine deaminase enzyme rAPOBEC1 to deaminate Cytosine (C) to Uracil (U), which is read as a thymine (T) by the endogenous DNA mismatch repair machinery, therefore catalysing a C:G to T:A conversion (bold letters indicate nucleobases on the edited strand/directly edited nucleobases in bold) (30). Adenine base editors (ABEs) exploit the naturally occurring TadA deaminase of *Escherichia coli* (ecTadA) to catalyse A:T to G:C edits (31). Together, CBEs and ABEs are capable of targeting all four transition mutations.

Recent optimisations of base editors have focused on decreasing genome-wide DNA and RNA off-target editing events and bystander edits (32–35). Also, the targeting scope has been improved by using both SpCas9 variants with alternate PAM requirements (36–39) and SpCas9 homologues, such as SaCas9 and CjCas9 with relaxed PAM requirements into the BE architecture (40–42). More recently, glycosylase base editors (GBE) capable of targeting C:G to G:C transversion mutations have been reported (43–45). Base editing presents a promising therapeutic avenue for pathogenic CRB1 variants, since 62% of reported pathogenic SNVs are targetable with a base editor and of these, 87% of these have a suitable PAM site (46).

In this case report, we focus on envisioning a strategy of targeted single nucleotide alteration in genomic DNA via base editing as a treatment option for a patient compound heterozygous for pathogenic CRB1 variants.

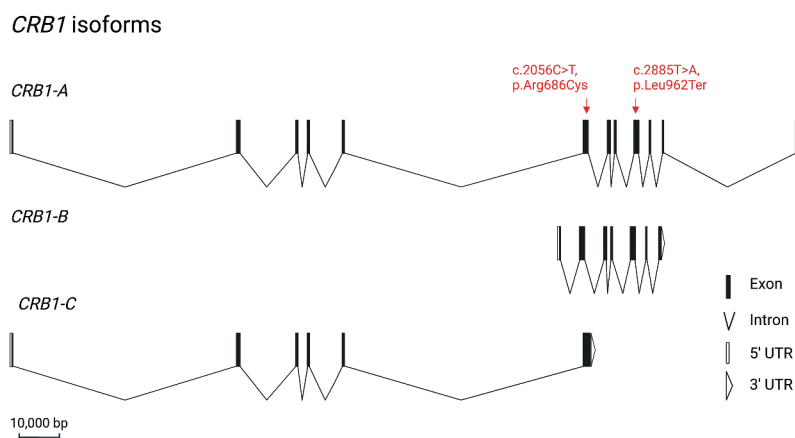


Figure 1. Overview of the three retinal isoforms of CRB1 and its location. All isoforms share exon 6. CRB1-B is the most abundant retinal isoform. It has a unique N- and C-terminus while sharing the transmembrane domain as well as a large part of the extracellular domain with CRB1-A. the patient's novel nonsense mutation affects CRB1-A and CRB1-B, while the missense mutation affects all retinal CRB1 isoforms. CRB1 is thought to play an important role in maintaining the integrity of the OLM.

Materials and methods

Infrared (IF) and autofluorescence (AF, Spectralis, Heidelberg Engineering Inc., Heidelberg, Germany) imaging as well as an optical coherence tomography (OCT, Heidelberg Engineering Inc., Heidelberg, Germany) were performed on a 16-year-old male patient. Based on the clinical diagnosis, informed consent for DNA blood sampling was taken from the patient and molecular genetic analysis for retinitis pigmentosa and RP-like phenotypes was undertaken by exome sequencing of 111 genes associated with RP and RP-like phenotypes (RP 111 gene panel) with next generation sequencing (NGS). Pathogenic variants were confirmed with Sanger sequencing. Geneious software (Version 11.0) was used to further investigate the identified mutations and their amino acid consequences as well as PAM site locations and potential guide RNA (gRNA) designs. The Leiden Open Variation Database (LOVD) and ClinVar database were used to search for previously reported *CRB1* variants. Computational evidence for functional in-silico prediction of variant effects was evaluated with the following tools: Polymorphism Phenotyping version 2 (PolyPhen2), Sorting Intolerant from Tolerant (SIFT) and Mutation Taster (47–49). Amino acid preservation between species was evaluated using Geneious (Version 11.0) and Mutation Taster software.

Results

Clinical results

The 16-year-old male presented with a visual acuity (VA) of 6/36 (20/125 or 0.8 LogMAR) in both eyes, which improved to 6/24 (20/80 or 0.6 LogMAR) in both eyes with pinhole. He reportedly experienced night vision problems since birth and was formally diagnosed with early-onset RP at the age of 7. No systemic changes indicative of a syndromic form of RP were noted. IF and AF imaging at 55 degrees as well as OCT showed symmetric changes in both eyes. Concentric atrophy in the perifoveal region seen on IF and OCT imaging corresponded to a perifoveal ring of hypofluorescence surrounded by a hyperfluorescent halo. The fluorescence outside the vascular arcades was dominated by hyperfluorescent spots (Figure 2a). On OCT, a central island of remaining photoreceptors could be identified in the fovea of both eyes with some residual ellipsoid zone (EZ) signal in the right eye (Figure 2b). In a characteristic fashion for a *CRB1*-associated RP, there was gross thickening of the retina (400 µm outside the foveal depression) with loss of a distinct retinal lamination pattern disrupted by intraretinal exudates. This prevented correct identification of the retinal layers by the automated segmentation algorithm and made the manual correction challenging. The choroid appeared normal beyond the Bruch's membrane (BM), while a prominent inner limiting membrane (ILM) faced a vitreous body with incomplete posterior vitreous detachment and vitreoschisis.

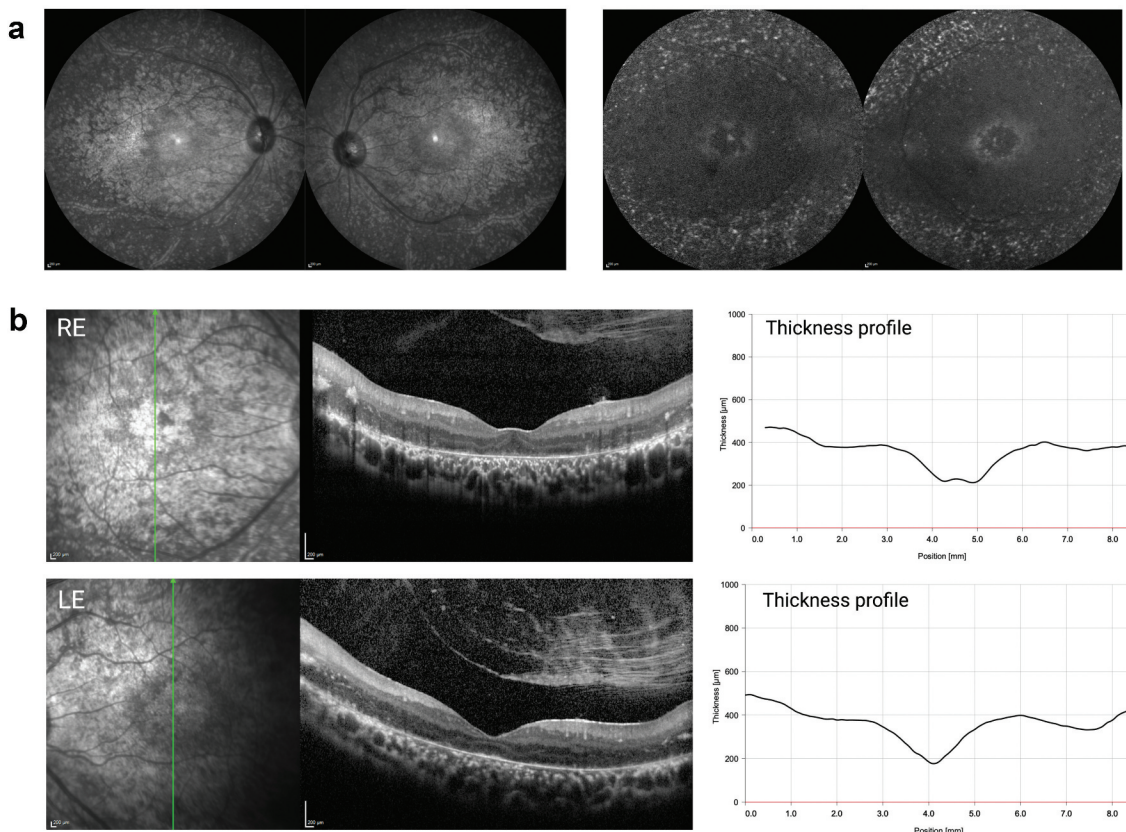


Figure 2. Clinical phenotype of patient with compound heterozygous for single nucleotide variants in *CRB1*. (a) Infrared (left) and autofluorescence (right) imaging shows atrophic changes in the central retina with hyperfluorescent spots outside the temporal arcades. (b) Characteristic for a *CRB1*-associated RP, both left and right eye show increased retinal thickness. the retinal lamination pattern is coarse, reminiscent of an immature retina and disrupted by intraretinal exudates.

Genetic testing results and ACMG classification

The exome sequencing panel revealed a novel nonsense variant, c.2885T>A (p.Leu962Ter), in exon 9 of *CRB1-A*. The location of the pathogenic variant corresponds to the Laminin A-like domain 3 in extracellular domain of *CRB1* and affects the two most abundant retinal *CRB1* isoforms, *CRB1-A*, and *CRB1-B*. A second missense change, c.2056C>T (p.Arg686Cys) was found in exon 6 of *CRB1*, which corresponds to a location in the extracellular EGF-like 12 domain of the *CRB1* protein. The very strong criteria of pathogenicity PVS1 can be applied to the novel nonsense variant c.2885T>A (p.Leu962Ter), since it is predicted to lead to nonsense mediated decay (NMD) and therefore loss of function (LOF) in *CRB1*. The nonsense variant is absent from the Genome Aggregation Database (gnomAD), the Exome Aggregation Consortium (ExAC) database as well as the 1000 Genes (1000 G) databases, which makes the PM2 criteria applicable. Further, supporting criteria for pathogenicity, PP4, can be applied to this variant: and the patient's phenotype of early onset RP with thickened retina is highly specific for a monogenetic, *CRB1*-associated retinal disease.

PP4 can also be applied to the missense variant c.2056C>T (p.Arg686Cys). This missense variant occurs with the novel pathogenic variant c.2885T>A (p.Leu962Ter). Paternal segregation analysis revealed the patient's father as carrier of this nonsense variant as well as an absence of the c.2056C>T in the paternal genome, but since segregation analysis could not be performed on the mother, phase is unknown. Wang *et al.* (50) and Liu *et al.* (51) describe a patient compound heterozygous for with the same missense variant c.2056C>T (p.Arg686Cys) and a pathogenic frameshift variant c.2540_2541delTC (p.Phe848Glnfs *60). Phase is unknown in this patient as well. Taking this evidence together, the PM3_Moderate criteria can be applied to this mutation. When entered into three computational predictive tools, PolyPhen2, SIFT, and Mutation Taster, the c.2056C>T variant was predicted to be "probably damaging" (0.92, Sensitivity = 0.68, Specificity = 0.90), "damaging" and "deleterious" for all protein-coding *CRB1* isoforms by the three respective algorithms. The high evolutionary conservation across a broad range of species further supports the PP3 evidence criteria. Importantly, a Cysteine has not been observed at the equivalent amino acid position in any species, indicating a low tolerance toward this amino acid. The missense variant has been reported a total of 9 times in the LOVD and ClinVar database, with conflicting interpretation. As mentioned above, both Wang *et al.* (50) and Liu *et al.* (51) describe the same patient compound heterozygous for a pathogenic frameshift variant and the c.2056C>T missense variant, which they label as "likely pathogenic", without detailing the criteria that led to this ACMG labeling (50,51). Conversely, all seven independent laboratory reports in the ClinVar database and 2 out of 4 reports in the LOVD label the missense change as a VUS. Due to this conflicting variant classification, as well as the recommendation that PP5 evidence criteria be removed from the ACMG classification guidelines (52), this evidence criteria could not be used to support pathogenicity. Two missense variants, c.2057 G>A (p.Arg686His) and c.2057 G>C (p.Arg686Pro), affecting the same Arginine amino acid at position

686 have been reported in ClinVar and in Gao *et al.* (2019), but neither of these have been classified as pathogenic, which precludes an application of the moderate pathogenicity criteria PM5 (53). Lastly, the missense variant c.2056C>T has not been reported in ExAC or 100 G databases and is reported as a single heterozygous occurrence in >250,000 alleles in gnomAD. This extremely low frequency is consistent with this variant being a rare recessive variant. PM2 can be applied in this instance. In summary, as per the ACMG guidelines, the missense variant c.2056C>T is labeled as a likely pathogenic variant. For a summary of the ACMG classification of the patient's *CRB1* variants, refer to Table 1.

In silico approach to a CRISPR-Cas mediated base editing strategy

Editing of a premature termination codon to a missense variant

Although the patient's novel nonsense mutation, c.2885T>A (p.Leu962Ter) is not amenable to correction with a currently available base editor, the premature termination stop codon (PTC) could be converted to a translatable codon by a base editor, thus allowing the production of a full-length protein. To this end, Lee *et al.* developed "CRISPR-pass", an ABE7.10 fused to the evolved SpCas9 variant xCas3.7 (54). By targeting the coding strand, the patient's PTC TAA would be converted to a TGG codon, which would be read as Tryptophan (Trp, W) by the cell's translational machinery. Alternatively, by targeting the first base of the codon on the non-coding strand (ATT>GTT), the novel nonsense mutation would be converted

Table 1. Classification of the novel *CRB1* c.2885T>A (p.Leu962Ter) and *CRB1* c.2056C>T (p.Arg686Cys) variant using ACMG standards and guidelines.

| <i>CRB1</i> c.2885T>A (p.Leu962Ter) | |
|-------------------------------------|---|
| Evidence of pathogenicity | Category |
| Very Strong | PVS1: nonsense variant predicted to lead to NMD and LOF in <i>CRB1</i> in two of the most abundant and important <i>CRB1</i> isoforms (<i>CRB1-A</i> and <i>CRB1-B</i>) |
| Moderate | PM2: the variant is absent from controls in gnomAD, ExAC and 1000 G databases |
| Supporting | PP4: patient's phenotype of early-onset RP with thickened retina is highly specific for a <i>CRB1</i> -associated IRD |
| → pathogenic variant | |
| <i>CRB1</i> c.2056C>T (p.Arg686Cys) | |
| Evidence of pathogenicity | Category |
| Moderate | PM3: this missense variant has been reported to occurs with pathogenic variants in this case report as well as in Wang <i>et al.</i> (50) and Liu <i>et al.</i> (51). In both instances, phase is unknown. PM2: a single heterozygous occurrence in >250,000 alleles in gnomAD. |
| Supporting | PP3: three lines of computational evidence (Polyphen2 and Mutation Taster) predict a deleterious effect of this missense variant located in the highly preserved Arginine at amino acid position 686 for all protein-coding <i>CRB1</i> isoforms. PP4: patient's phenotype of early-onset RP with thickened retina is highly specific for a <i>CRB1</i> -associated IRD. |
| → likely pathogenic variant | |

NMD: nonsense mediated decay; LOF: loss of function; gnomAD: Genome Aggregation Database; ExAC: Exome Aggregation Consortium; 1000 G: 1000 Genes; PolyPhen2: Polymorphism Phenotyping version 2; SIFT: Sorting Intolerant from Tolerant; RP: retinitis pigmentosa; IRD: inherited retinal disease.

to Glutamine (Gln,Q) (Figure 3). The evaluation of the functional effect of these induced missense changes is critical to assess therapeutic success. Both missense changes are predicted to be “possibly damaging” by Polyphen2, with a pathogenicity score of 0.99 (sensitivity = 0.68, specificity = 0.97) for Trp and a pathogenicity score of 0.98 (sensitivity 0.78, specificity 0.96) for Gln. While Leu is not strongly preserved across species, the closely related, aliphatic, nonpolar and hydrophobic isoleucine and valine—not Trp or Gln—are used in place of Leu at the equivalent position. Neither Gln nor Trp bear a strong structural resemblance to Leu. While the molecular weight (MW) of the amide Gln is 146 g/mol and similar to that of Leu’s (130 g/mol), Gln is polar and hydrophilic while Leu is nonpolar and hydrophobic. Trp shares its hydrophobicity with Leu but has a higher MW (204 g/mol) and differs from Leu’s structure due to an aromatic amino acid side chain. Trp and Gln in place of Leu at position 962 are absent from the variant database gnomAD. When assessing possible bystander editing, targeting the non-coding strand would be preferable, since additional As are absent in the editing window, whereas targeting the coding sequence could result in bystander editing due to the presence of an additional A in the base editing window: AATATAATTCAGAAGCAATG (editing window underlined, bystander editing in blue, mutation in red) (Figure 3) (55). In summary, while editing the non-coding strand is preferable due to a lower risk of accruing bystander edits, both missense changes would result in possibly damaging variants. Prime editing (PE), a more recently described form of genome editing, is unique in its capability of editing all 12 transversion and transition variants as well as small indels and could therefore also edit this patient’s novel pathogenic transversion variant.

PE uses a catalytically impaired Cas9 fused to a reverse transcriptase (RT) and a prime editing gRNA (pegRNA) that both specifies the target site and encodes the desired edit (56). Although PE has yet to be tested in a human clinical trial, it bears huge potential for editing pathogenic variants not targetable with traditional base editors.

An ABE-mediated correction of the missense change c.2056C>T

The second likely pathogenic variant present in this patient is a transition amenable to correction by an ABE targeting the non-coding strand and generating an A:T > G:C base correction (Figure 4). Apart from the target A on the non-coding strand, there are no additional As present in the editing window of the protospacer motif, virtually eliminating the chance of bystander editing. This would allow us the use of an eighth-generation ABE, ABE8, which demonstrate a 6-fold increase in on-target editing efficiency but also a higher processivity (57,58). While ABEs are less inclined to generate DNA off-target edits than CBEs, they do generate guide-dependent and guide-independent off-target RNA editing (59,60). Therefore, the variant ABE7.10TadA*(F148A) would be a promising choice, since it shows a reduction in off-target RNA SNVs but retains efficient on-target editing efficiency (61). A PAM site for the SpCas9 5'-NGG-3') and its variants as well as for the Cas9 homologue SaCas9-KKH 5'-NNNRRT-3') can be identified adjacent to the 3' end of the protospacer sequence. The SaCas9-KKH homologue would be the preferred Cas9 in this case, as it is small enough to fit into an AAV (3246 bp) and has already been shown to be

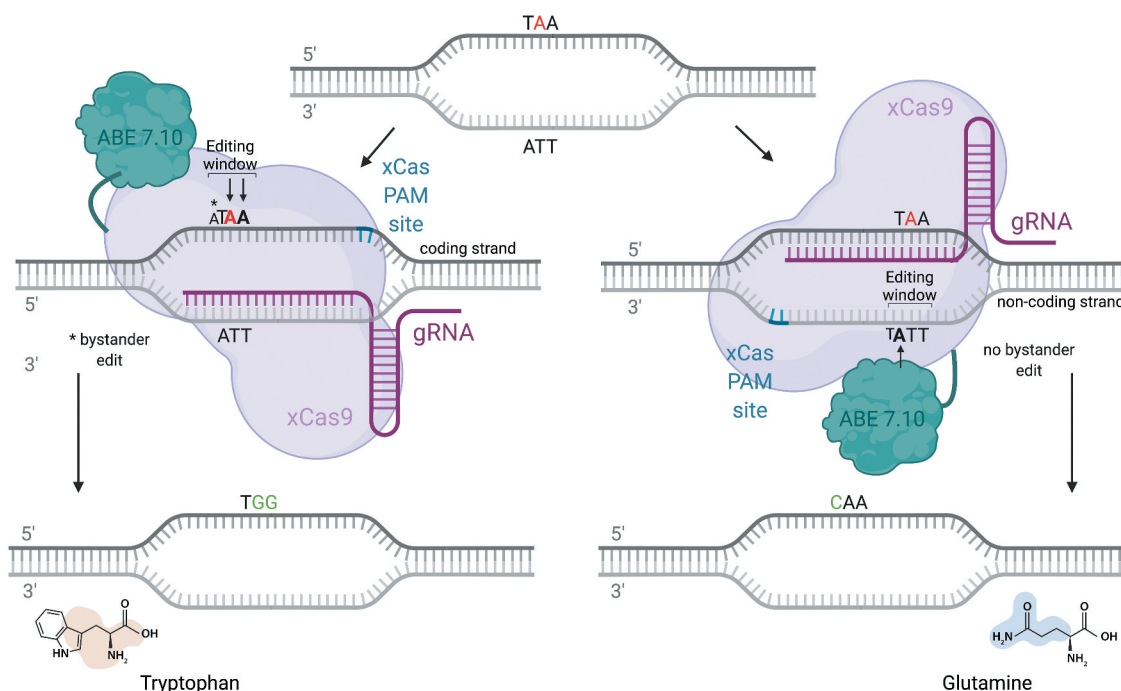


Figure 3. Therapeutic “read-through” approach mediated by CRISPR-pass. While base editing with CRISPR-pass does not allow a true ribosomal read-through, nonsense mutations not amenable to conventional base editing strategies can be turned into a missense change by using an ABE-xCas base editing construct (CRISPR-pass), targeting the coding or non-coding strand. In this case, a bystander mutation would occur when targeting the coding strand due to the presence of an additional A in the editing window. The tryptophan and glutamine missense changes resulting from CRISPR-pass mediated editing are predicted to be “possibly damaging” by the in-silico tool Polyphen 2, which evaluates the functional impact of missense changes.

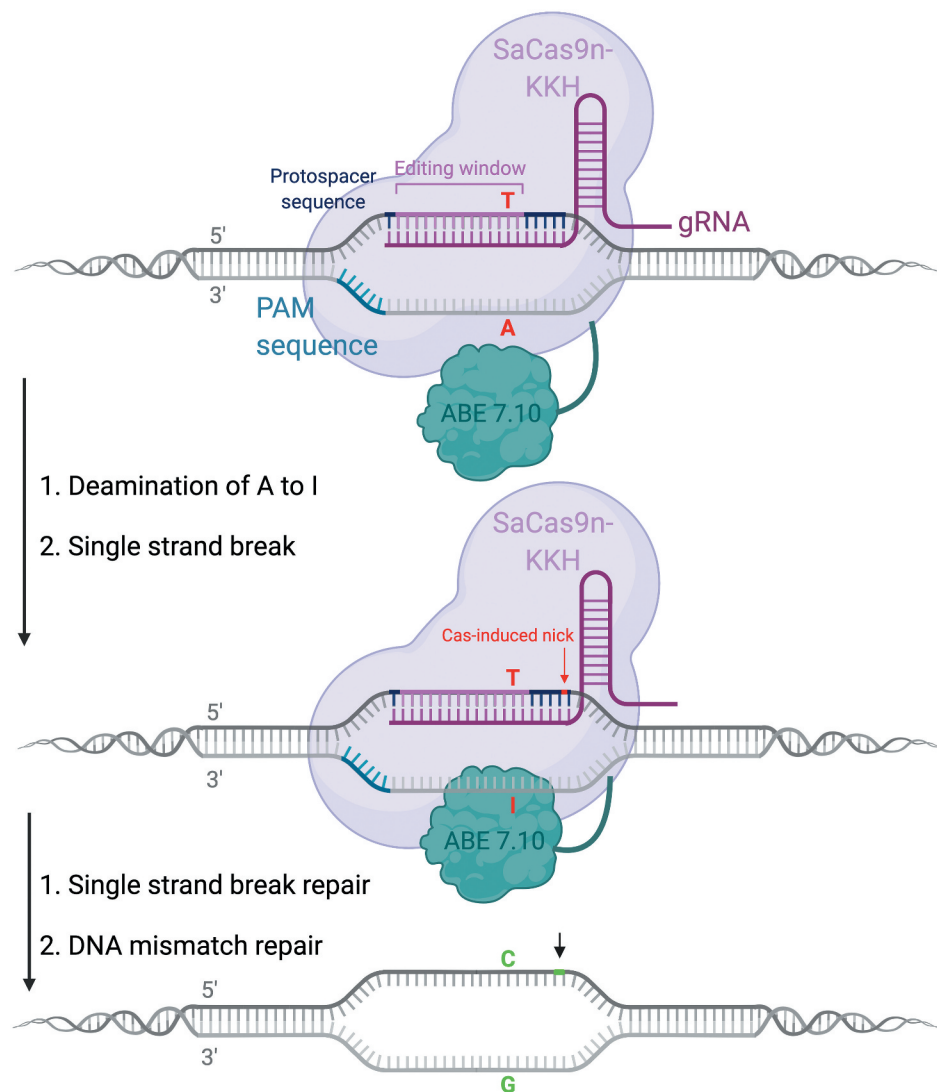


Figure 4. Overview of base editing strategy for a C>T transition mutation. the patient could be transferred to a carrier status by using an ABE7.10 or an ABE8 fused to a SaCas9-KKH, which displays a relaxed PAM site 5'-NNNRT-3' and an editing window within 2–15 nucleotides upstream of the PAM site. No additional A's are present in the editing window, greatly reducing the possibility of bystander mutations.

compatible both with the most recent generation of ABE, ABE8, as well as shown editing efficiency in rate and mouse embryos when paired with an ABE7.10 (62). In the present mutation, this PAM site 5'-CAAGGT-3') would place the mutation at position 14 within the editing window of SaKKH, which spans from position 2–15 of the gRNA, with the first nucleotide after the PAM site being counted as 1 (63).

To summarize, a base editing strategy for the missense change c.2056C>T would entail using an ABE, either ABE7.10, ABE7.10 Tada* (F148A) or an ABE8, fused with a SaCas9-KKH to target the non-coding strand. A summary of the process of designing a base editing strategy for this patient can be found in Figure 5. By correcting the c.2056C>T mutation, the patient would be transferred to a carrier status. In an autosomal recessive disease, such as *CRB1*-associated retinopathy, transferring the patient to a carrier status is presumed to be of therapeutic benefit.

Discussion

A 16-year-old patient with a clinical diagnosis of early-onset RP and thickened retina on OCT was found to be compound heterozygous for a novel nonsense variant, c.2885T>A (p. Leu962Ter), and a missense variant, c.2056C>T (p. Cys686Arg), in *CRB1*. The novel c.2885T>A nonsense variant is classified as pathogenic according to the ACMG criteria. After genetic testing as well as a database and literature review, the missense change fulfilled the ACMG evidence criteria to be labelled as likely pathogenic. Variants in this patient were determined by exome sequencing, which precludes the detection of possible structural variants. It should also be noted that only the canonical *CRB1*-A isoform was sequenced in this patient.

Correction of premature termination codons (PTCs) have long presented a challenge in genetic disease. In the treatment of IRDs, antisense oligonucleotide (ASOs)-mediated splicing modulation has shown promise. Translational read-through of PTCs has been achieved by using ASO to induce skipping of the *USH2A* exon 13 and has been reported to restore retinal

Decision-making tree to determine a base editing strategy for a compound heterozygous *CRB1* patient

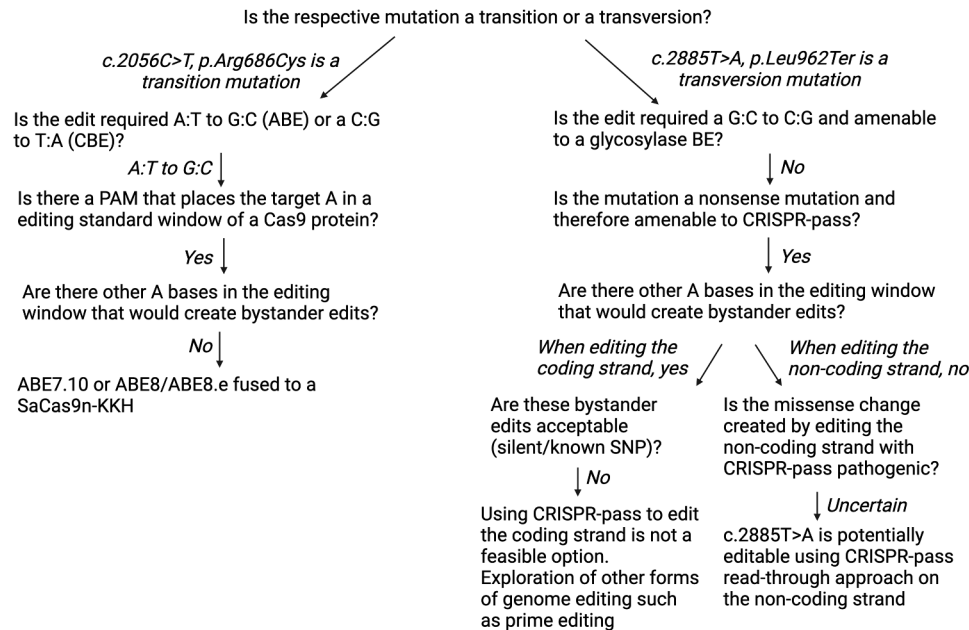


Figure 5. Decision making tree for developing a base editing strategy for a patient with compound heterozygous mutation in *CRB1*.

function in animal models (64). Sepofarsen, an ASO that corrects splicing in *CEP290*-mediated LCA, has shown significant improvement in VA as well as secondary endpoints in clinical trials (65,66). By comparison, base editing with CRISPR-pass does not allow a true ribosomal read-through by misreading of a PTC in the mRNA, but catalyses editing of a nonsense to a missense change, thus allowing translation of a full-length protein. In-silico prediction and functional evaluation of the resulting missense changes must proceed a therapeutic effort and PE should be considered as a possible gene editing option in the future.

While this paper focuses on designing a base editor construct, the delivery strategy of the optimal base editor to the target cell should also be considered. Traditionally, AAV-based vector delivery has been employed due to its proven safety profile, low immunogenicity, and the availability of many serotypes that provide cell-specific tropism (67,68). Due to packaging constraints of AAV as well as the residual immunogenicity that it does elicit, other non-viral nucleic acid delivery vehicles are being tested in preclinical trials (69,70). The benefits of these are the elimination of packaging constraints and the minimal risk of genomic integration. Traditionally, base editors have been delivered as plasmid DNA, but recently, mRNA delivery has been investigated to address a more immediate onset of transcription as well as a less prolonged expression of the base editing machinery (71).

Since *CRB1* is expressed in both the photoreceptors and the MCG, it raises the question which promoter could be used to target both cell types. Three common ubiquitous promoters, cytomegalovirus immediate-early promoter (CMV), human ubiquitin C promoter (UbiC), and chicken beta actin promoter (CAG), have showed a dose-dependent toxicity. This contrasts

with cell-specific promoters such as rhodopsin kinase (RK), which did not show toxicity, even at high doses (72). The lack of *CRB1* promoter flexibility and the resulting ectopic expression might also contribute to the deleterious effect of seen in pre-clinical *CRB1* gene supplementation (5,25). Finding a suitable, representative model for *CRB1*-based disease is equally important for modeling mutations and their treatment options. While several naturally occurring and engineered mouse models exist (20,73–76), none of these models are suitable for testing a base editing strategy. Due to the species-specific differences between humans and mice, as well as the mild phenotype of *Crb1* mutant mice, human induced pluripotent stem cells (hiPSC)-derived retinal organoids from *CRB1* patients may be good models for testing base and gene editing strategies, as they have been shown to have a phenotype (21) and would more accurately mimic *CRB1* localization and disease phenotype in humans.

In summary, since targeting the nonsense mutation c.2885T>A with the base editor construct CRISPR-pass would result in a potentially damaging missense variant, we propose transferring this patient to a carrier status by editing of the missense variant c.2056C>T (p.Arg686Cys) with an ABE fused to a SaCas9n-KKH. This variant results from hydrolytic C > T deamination and is representative of over half the recorded pathogenic SNPs (31,77). Since there are no known cases of autosomal dominant *CRB1* mutations, one healthy allele would confer haplosufficiency and therefore prevent or decelerate photoreceptor degeneration or even result in photoreceptor rescue, depending on the stage of degeneration.

Disclosure statement

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the author(s).

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