- 1 CRISPRa-induced upregulation of human LAMA1 compensates for LAMA2-deficiency in
- 2 Merosin-deficient congenital muscular dystrophy
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Abstract

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Merosin-deficient congenital muscular dystrophy (MDC1A) is an autosomal recessive disorder caused by mutations in the LAMA2 gene, resulting in a defective form of the extracellular matrix protein laminin-α2 (LAMA2). Individuals diagnosed with MDC1A exhibit progressive muscle wasting and declining neuromuscular functions. No treatments for this disorder are currently available. We previously showed that postnatal Lama1 upregulation, achieved through CRISPR activation (CRISPRa), compensates for Lama2 deficiency and prevents neuromuscular pathophysiology in a mouse model of MDC1A. In this study, we assessed the feasibility of upregulating human LAMA1 as a potential therapeutic strategy for individuals with MDC1A, regardless of their mutations. We hypothesized that CRISPRa-mediated upregulation of human LAMA1 would compensate for the lack of LAMA2 and rescue cellular abnormalities in MDC1A fibroblasts. Global transcriptomic and pathway enrichment analyses of fibroblasts collected from individuals carrying pathogenic LAMA2 mutations, compared with healthy controls, indicated higher expression of transcripts encoding proteins that contribute to wound healing, including Transforming Growth Factor-β (TGF-β) and Fibroblast Growth Factor (FGF). These findings were supported by wound-healing assays indicating that MDC1A fibroblasts migrated significantly more rapidly than the controls. Subsequently, we treated the MDC1A fibroblasts with SadCas9-2XVP64 and sqRNAs targeting the LAMA1 promoter. We observed robust LAMA1 expression, which was accompanied by significant decreases in cell migration and expression of FGFR2, TGF-\(\beta\)2, and ACTA2, which are involved in the wound-healing mechanism in MDC1A fibroblasts. Collectively, our data suggest that CRISPRa-mediated LAMA1 upregulation may be a feasible mutation-independent therapeutic approach for MDC1A. This strategy might be adapted to

address other neuromuscular diseases and inherited conditions in which strong compensatory mechanisms have been identified.

Introduction

Merosin-deficient congenital muscular dystrophy (MDC1A; MIM:607855) is the most common form of congenital muscular dystrophy accounting for 30% of cases in Europe¹⁻⁵. MDC1A is caused by mutations in *LAMA2*⁶, the gene encoding the laminin-α2 (LAMA2) chain, an extracellular membrane protein subunit expressed in skeletal muscle and Schwann cells. The laminin-α2 chain combines with the β1 and γ1 chains to generate Laminin-211⁷⁻⁹, which is a triple helical protein that stabilizes the basement membrane and promotes myotube formation and Schwann cell migration. The absence of functional LAMA2 results in hypotonia, fibrosis, progressive muscle wasting, and white matter abnormalities characteristic of MDC1A¹⁰⁻¹⁵. Despite extensive research aimed at understanding the pathophysiology of MDC1A, no cure or specific therapeutic intervention is currently available to treat this disease. Current treatment strategies focus on managing symptoms but do not rectify the underlying cause.

MDC1A and its dystrophic features might be addressed with an appropriate gene therapy approach. However, direct gene targeting may not be feasible for this disorder, because the large size (9.5kb) of *LAMA2* exceeds the packaging capacity of adeno-associated viral vectors (AAVs)^{16,17}. Furthermore, efforts to miniaturize the *LAMA2* gene have been hampered by the lack of functionally redundant domains in the LAMA2 protein. Indeed, micro-laminin gene therapy, *i.e.*, AAV9 carrying shortened *LAMA2* encoding only the five globular domains of the protein, resulted in partial restoration of the phenotypes in mice, thus indicating that such

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truncated protein was inadequate to achieve proper function 18. Correction of the Lama2 mutation with the CRISPR-Cas9 genome editing system resulted in improved neuromuscular histopathology and function in MDC1A mice¹⁹. However, this strategy might be translationally challenging due to the heterogeneity of mutations in patient populations ^{3,20-25}. As an alternative, several groups have investigated the upregulation of LAMA1, a disease modifier in MDC1A. Gawlik et al. have demonstrated that transgenic overexpression of Lama1 in an MDC1A model decreases fibrosis and paralysis²⁶⁻³⁰. However, postnatal expression of LAMA1 may not be feasible in humans, primarily because the large size of the LAMA1 transcript exceeds the AAV packaging capacity. To circumvent this problem, we induced endogenous expression of Lama1 in an MDC1A mouse model using the CRISPR activation (CRISPRa) system, which features deactivated Cas9 (dCas9) devoid of endonuclease activity, VP64 transcriptional activators, and sqRNA targeting the proximal promoter of Lama1. We showed that MDC1A mice treated with AAV9 carrying the CRISPRa components exhibited robust expression of Lama1 and an overall decrease in dystrophic features, including reduced fibrosis and hindlimb paralysis³¹. In this study, we aimed to translate this strategy to achieve upregulation of human LAMA1 by using CRISPRa to compensate for the lack of LAMA2 in fibroblasts from MDC1A individuals. Our findings indicated that the lack of extracellular matrix protein LAMA2 manifests as overactive migration of MDC1A fibroblasts. In addition, we demonstrated that upregulation of human LAMA1 normalizes the overactive migration and transcriptional profile in MDC1A-derived fibroblasts, thereby providing a foundation for future therapeutic interventions.

Results

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Transcriptomic profiling identifies dysfunctional cellular processes in MDC1A 86 fibroblasts 87 88 Our study features primary fibroblasts from three independent donors (M1, M2, and M3) and two healthy controls (C1 and C2). Each of the MDC1A fibroblasts carried a different LAMA2 89 gene mutation (Table 1) and exhibited varied levels of LAMA2 protein expression (Figure 1A). 90 Relative expression of LAMA2 was evaluated quantitatively by comparison of the 91 transcriptomes of the MDC1A fibroblasts with those of the control cells. In agreement with the 92 protein levels, we detected a log₂ fold-change in LAMA2 expression of -0.05 for the M1 versus 93 controls (C1 + C2) transcriptomes (Supplementary Figure 1A). In contrast, LAMA2 94 expression was downregulated in both the M2 and M3 MDC1A cells compared to the controls, 95 with log₂ fold changes of -5.06 and -5.14, respectively (**Supplementary Figure 1B-C**). 96 97 Likewise, the transcriptome of the combined M2 and M3 MDC1A cells, compared to that of controls, indicated downregulation of LAMA2 with a log₂ fold-change of -5.1 (Figure 1B), which 98 99 we validated further by qPCR (Figure 1C). We identified 452 differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in MDC1A fibroblasts with absolute log₂ fold-change > 2 and false-discovery rate (FDR) 100 < 0.05. Of these 452 genes, 450 (i.e., 258 downregulated and 192 upregulated genes 101 102 (Supplementary table 1)) were mapped by the Ingenuity Pathway Analysis (IPA) database to be associated with fibrosis and/or wound healing signaling pathway, with a positive z-score of 103 0.5 and -log(p-value) of 4.55 (Figures 1D-E). Collectively, the unbiased transcriptomic profiling 104 indicated activation of the wound healing process as one of the molecular mechanisms that 105

transpires upon LAMA2-deficiency and could be explored further as functional assay.

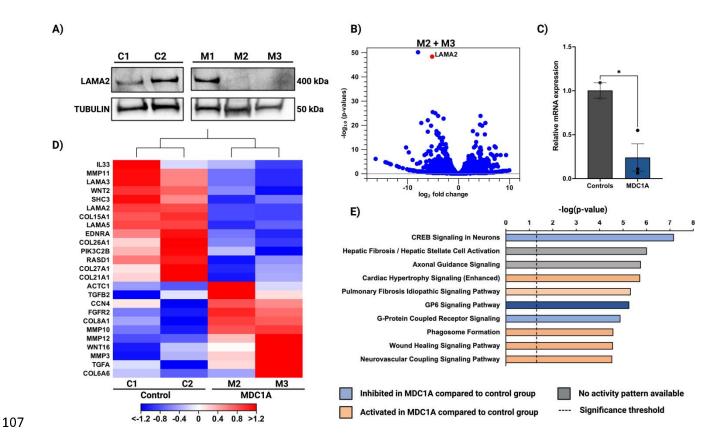


Figure 1. Molecular profiles of MDC1A and control cells. (A) Western blot depicting homeostatic levels of LAMA2 protein in MDC1A and healthy control cells. β -TUBULIN was included as the loading control. (B) Volcano plots providing m visual documentation of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) between MDC1A and control cells. The x-axis represents the log₂ fold-change, and the y-axis represents the false discovery rate (FDR) pvalue for each DEG (blue dots); LAMA2 is indicated by a red dot. (C) qPCR analysis in control and MDC1A fibroblasts. Data are presented as fold-change relative to GAPDH. The fold change is assessed using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta ct}$ method. The results are expressed as mean + s.e. from n = 3 technical replicates. (D) Heatmap of the DEGs involved in wound healing and fibrosis pathways. Downregulated genes are indicated in blue, and upregulated genes are indicated in red. (E) Canonical pathways identified by IPA. The x-axis represents the individual pathways. and the y-axis represents the IPA z-score. A negative z-score indicates pathway inhibition, while a positive z-score indicates pathway activation in MDC1A cells. Gray bars indicate that no activity pattern is available. The specific pathways highlighted were based on our analysis of 450 DEGs identified in a comparison of MDC1A and control fibroblasts. C1-2, control cells; M1-3, MDC1A cells.

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Table 1. Mutations in MDC1A individuals

MDC1A	Genomic location	Coding region	Consequence
M1	c.9212-1G->A	Exon 64	Abnormal splicing due to mutation at the splice acceptor site of exon 65
M2	c.2049_2050delAG	Exon 14	Frameshift and premature stop codon in exon 15
МЗ	1st allele: c.4714_4715delGT	Exon 32	Frameshift with a premature stop codon in exon 33
	2nd allele: 3 bp deletion in 3' UTR		Possible mRNA instability

MDC1A fibroblasts demonstrate overactive migration consistent with upregulation of genes involved in wound healing signaling pathway

We performed migration assays³³ by creating wounds in MDC1A and control cell monolayers, and monitoring their closure in real-time using IncuCyte. Relative wound density was used as a marker of cell migration into the wounded region and was measured every 2 hours in a 24-hour period (**Supplemental Figure 2**). Statistical analyses were performed on data collected at the 14- and 24-hour time points. Our findings revealed an overall trend in which the wounds created in the MDC1A cell monolayers closed more rapidly than those in the control groups (**Figure 2A**). At 14 hours (**Figure 2B**), the M1 and M2 MDC1A cells exhibited a relative wound density that was significantly higher than that achieved by control cells, with the exception of M3 that shows an increased trend albeit not reaching significance (P = 0.17) when compared to C1 cells. At 24 hours (**Figure 2C**), the M1 and M3 cell monolayers maintained relative wound densities higher than those in C1 with P values of 0.01 and 0.05, respectively; whereas increased in wound density exhibited by M2 was slightly below statistical significance (P = 0.07). Compared to the C2 cells, all M1, M2, and M3 cells exhibited significantly higher relative wound densities with P values of 0.002, 0.002, and 0.02, respectively at 14 hours and with P

values of 0.002, 0.007, and 0.005, respectively at 24 hours. These results suggested that MDC1A cells show more rapid wound closure than healthy controls.

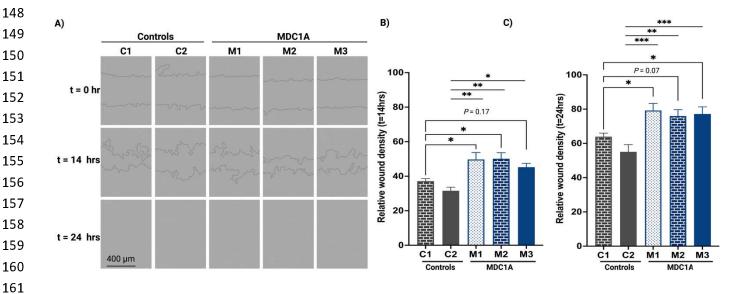


Figure 2. MDC1A cells migrate and close wounds more rapidly than control cells. (A) The upper panel shows scratch wounds made in control and MDC1A monolayers at t = 0. The middle and bottom panels show the areas covered by these cells at t = 14 hours and t = 24 hours, respectively. (B-C) Quantification of relative wound density at t = 14 hours and t = 24 hours, respectively. Statistical comparisons were made between MDC1A and control cells to capture the inter-individual variations. C1-2, control cells; M1-3, MDC1A cells. Data are presented as mean \pm standard error (s.e.); n = 5-6 replicates per condition; $*P \le 0.05$, $**P \le 0.01$, $***P \le 0.001$

Design and validation of the CRISPR activation system to upregulate human LAMA1

The aforementioned molecular and functional assays revealed that the *LAMA2* mutations resulting in either absence or misfunctioning LAMA2 enable the MDC1A cells to migrate and repair scratch wounds in monolayer cultures more rapidly than LAMA2-positive control cells. We subsequently asked whether increasing endogenous expression of LAMA1 using CRISPRa might compensate for the lack of LAMA2 and affect the migration. Here, we used the CRISPRa system comprising single guide RNAs (sgRNAs) designed to target the proximal

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promoter region of LAMA1, VP64 transcriptional activators, and dCas9 derived from Staphylococcus aureus (Figure 3A). We identified a 600 nucleotide (chr18:6,941,742-7,118,397; RefSeg NM 005559) upstream of the start codon of the human LAMA1 gene from the UCSC Genome Browser build hg38, and screened for the presence of SadCas9 protospacer adjacent motifs (PAMs: NNGRRT)³⁴. We identified 17 PAM sequences in this region, and sgRNAs of 20-21 nucleotides upstream of the PAM sequences were selected. The target sequences of sqRNA and their locations in the human LAMA1 promoter region are shown in Figure 3B and Table 2. The 17 sqRNAs designed to direct SadCas9 to the human LAMA1 promoter region are shown in Figure 3C. Subsequently, we sought to identify the combinations of sgRNAs that were most effective in upregulating human LAMA1. Results from previous studies using CRISPRa systems to activate gene expression have revealed that combinations of three to four sgRNAs are typically more effective than one sgRNA alone ^{31,35,36}. Therefore, we combined 17 sgRNAs into six groups of three (i.e., 1+2+3, 4+5+6, 7+8+9, 10+11+12, 13+14+15, and 15+16+17). HEK 293T cells were transfected with 2XVP64-SadCas9 with either no or three sgRNAs, and untransfected cells served as an additional control. At 72 hours post-transfection, LAMA1 expression was assessed by western blot (Figure 3D). Higher levels of LAMA1 were detected in the groups transfected with all tested sqRNA combinations than in the groups transfected with 2XVP64-SadCas9 alone and the untransfected controls. The combination of sqRNAs 10+11+12 generated the highest level of LAMA1 expression among all combinations tested and yielded 5.7-fold higher expression than that in the untransfected group. Transfection with the sgRNA triplets 1+2+3 and 4+5+6 resulted in moderate levels of expression at 3.3- and 3.0-fold over the controls, respectively. Transfection with the sqRNA

triplets 7+8+9, 13+14+15, and 15+16+17 resulted in comparatively small increases in LAMA1 expression at 1.9-, 2.8-, and 1.5-fold change over controls, respectively (**Figure 3E**). Based on these results, we selected sgRNAs 10+11+12 as the combination that was most effective in

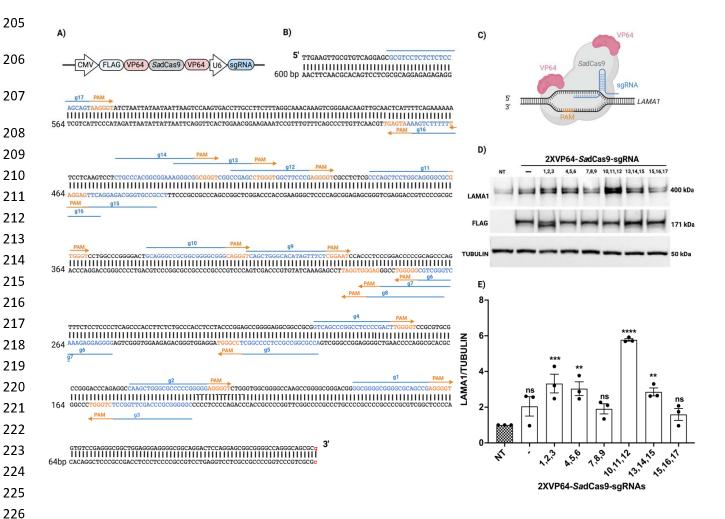


Figure 3. Design and validation of the CRISPR activation system. (A) Illustration of sgRNAs in the CRISPR activation construct. The promoters are depicted with an arrowhead. **(B)** Sequences and locations of the 17 sgRNAs (g1-g17) proximal to the human *LAMA1* promoter region. The sgRNAs (blue) are upstream of the PAM (orange) sequences. The arrowhead indicates the direction of the sgRNA. The transcription start site (TSS) is indicated with a red lowercase letter. **(C)** Mechanism of the CRISPR activation construct. **(D-E)** Western blot analysis of the combination of optimal sgRNAs for LAMA1 expression in HEK 293T cells. NT, non-transfected. '-' 2XVP64-*Sa*dCas9 with no guides. β-TUBULIN was used as the loading control, and quantification was determined as fold change in expression relative to that of β-

TUBULIN. Data are represented as mean \pm s.e from n=3 samples. * $P \le 0.05$, ** $P \le 0.01$, *** $P \le 0.001$; one-way ANOVA.

Table 2. Sequences of sgRNAs

sgRNA	Forward sequence (5' to 3')	Reverse sequence (5' to 3')
number		110101000041101100 (0 10 0)
1	GGCGGGGCGCAGCCG	CGGCTGCGCCCCGCC
2	CAAGCTGGGCGCCCCCGGGGG	CCCCGGGGGCGCCCAGCTTG
3	AGGCCAAGCTGGGCGCCCCCG	CGGGGCCCCAGCTTGGCCT
4	GTCAGCCCGGCCTCCCCGACT	AGTCGGGGAGGCCGGGCTGAC
5	AGCCGGGGAGGCGGCCGCGT	ACCGCGGCCGCCTCCCCGGCT
6	GCAGCCCAGTTTCTCCTCCCC	GGGGAGGAGAACTGGGCTGC
7	CCGGACCCCGCAGCCCAGTT	AACTGGGCTGCGGGGGTCCGG
8	CCTCCCGGACCCCGCAGCCC	GGGCTGCGGGGGTCCGGGAGG
9	TCAGCTGGGCACATAGTTTCT	AGAAACTATGTGCCCAGCTGA
10	GCAGGCCGCGGGGGGGG	CCCGCCCGCCGCGCCCTGC
11	CCCAGCTCCTGGCAGGGGCGC	GCGCCCTGCCAGGAGCTGGG
12	CCGAGCCTGGGTGGCTTCCCG	CGGGAAGCCACCCAGGCTCGG
13	AGGGCGGCGGGTCGGCCGAGC	TCCCGCCGCCCAGCCGGCTCG
14	CTGCCCACGGCGGAAAGGGCG	CGCCCTTTCCGCCGTGGGCAG
15	AAGTCCTCTGCCCACGGCGGA	TCCGCCGTGGGCAGAGGACTT
16	TTTCAGAAAAAATCCTCAAGT	ACTTGAGGATTTTTTCTGAAA
17	GCGTCCTCTCTCCAGCAGT	ACTGCTGGAGAGAGGACGC

LAMA1 upregulation rescues fibroblast migration

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Subsequently, we tested whether the designed CRISPR activation system might induce increased expression of human LAMA1 in MDC1A fibroblasts and assessed its effects on cellular migration. We electroporated the three sets of MDC1A cells (M1, M2, M3) with 2XVP64-SadCas9 only or in conjunctions with the sgRNAs 10+11+12; the latter resulted in robust LAMA1 expression at 96 hours post-transfection (Figure 4A). When coupled to migration assay, LAMA1 upregulation significantly decreased wound closure in all MDC1A fibroblasts (Figure 4B). LAMA1 upregulated M1 cells have a significant reduction in wound closure (P = 0.001) and comparable wound density to healthy control. The migration assay also revealed a significant decreased in wound density in the M2 cells following LAMA1 upregulation (P = 0.01) to a comparable level at the healthy control. Comparison of the effect of 2XVP64-SadCas9 only or in conjunctions with the sqRNAs 10+11+12 in the M3 cells also revealed a significant reduction in wound closure (P < 0.0001) towards the level exhibited by the healthy controls, albeit did not reach to similar migration level in healthy control. Collectively, our findings revealed that CRISPRa-mediated LAMA1 upregulation reduced the overactive migration in MDC1A fibroblasts (Figure 4C; Supplemental Figures 3A-C).

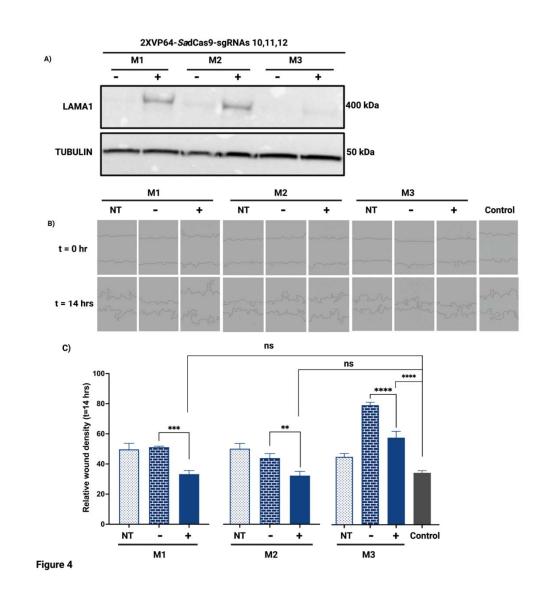


Figure 4. LAMA1 upregulation decreases migration of MDC1A fibroblasts (A) Western blot analysis of LAMA1 expression in control and MDC1A fibroblasts at 96 hours post-transfection. β-TUBULIN was used as the loading control, and quantification was determined as a fold change in LAMA1 expression relative to the β-TUBULIN. (B). The upper panel shows the migration of the cells at the beginning of the wound (0 hour) and at 14 hours in MDC1A and control groups. (C) The bottom panel shows the quantification of relative wound density measured at 14 hours. The control cell lines were combined, and statistical comparisons were made with reference to the control group and to the group with no guides. C1-2, control cell lines. M1-3, MDC1A cell lines. NT, non-transfected. '-' 2XVP64-SadCas9 with no guides. '+' 2XVP64-SadCas9 with three guides. Data are represented as mean \pm s.e from n = 5-6 replicates per cell line. * $P \le 0.05$, ** $P \le 0.01$, *** $P \le 0.001$; one-way ANOVA.

LAMA1 contributes to the wound-healing signaling mechanism

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Next, we analyzed the transcriptomes of MDC1A fibroblasts to identify changes in global gene expression patterns in response to CRISPRa-mediated activation of LAMA1. We compared the transcriptomes of two of the MDC1A fibroblasts (M2 and M3) transfected with 2XVP64-SadCas9 alone (Figure 5A), or with sgRNAs 10+11+12 (Figure 5B) and the transcriptomes of the M2 and M3 cells that were left untreated. As anticipated, LAMA1 was upregulated (log₂) fold-change of 2.06, P = 2.66E-06) in the CRISPRa-targeted cells (**Figure 5B**), but not in the M2 and M3 cells transfected with the 2XVP64-SadCas9 alone (Figure 5A). Collectively, these results suggested that CRISPRa specifically upregulated *LAMA1* in target MDC1A fibroblasts. We then performed a pathway analysis focused on the set of genes that were differentially expressed in untreated M2 and M3 cells vs. those transfected with 2XVP64-SadCas9 and three sqRNAs (10+11+12). We selected 512 genes with an absolute log₂ fold-change > 1 and g < 0.05. Of these, 255 downregulated and 286 upregulated genes were mapped by IPA. The full list of DEGs between these groups is shown in Supplementary table 2. Pathway analysis revealed that the fibrosis and wound healing pathways exhibited negative z scores (-2 and -0.6, respectively), thus predicting their overall inhibition (Figure 5C). The heatmap shown in Figure 5D and Supplementary Tables 3-4 include a full list of DEGs involved in the fibrosis and wound healing signaling pathways. Among others, they include genes encoding fibroblast growth factor receptor 2 (*FGFR*2), transforming growth factor beta 2 (*TGF\beta*2), and actin alpha 2, smooth muscle (ACTA2). RT-qPCR analysis revealed greater expression of FGFR2, $TGF\beta 2$, and ACTA2 in the MDC1A fibroblasts than the healthy cells. Importantly, the expression of FGFR2, TGFβ-2, and ACTA2 were reduced in LAMA1-upregulated cells (i.e., electroporated with 2XVP64-SadCas9 and sqRNAs 10+11+12; Figure 5E). Based on these

observations, we postulate a model to mechanistically explain the overly exuberant wound-healing phenotype observed in MDC1A fibroblasts and how *LAMA1* upregulation abrogates this phenotype (**Figure 5F**). As demonstrated by our findings, MDC1A cells have more pronounced gene expression of *FGFR2*, *TGF\beta-2*, and *ACTA2* compared to the control group, resulting in overactive migration. Transcriptomic and subsequent pathway analyses suggest that these effects are likely to be achieved via myofibroblast differentiation and its associated wound contraction and -closure mechanisms, which is rescued upon *LAMA1* upregulation.

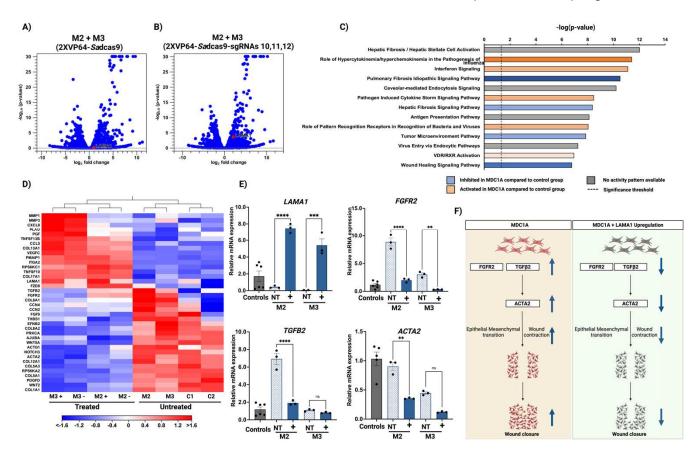


Figure 5. Transcriptomics in MDC1A fibroblasts after CRISPR activation (A-B) Volcano plots showing DEGs in MDC1A versus control fibroblasts. Values on the x-axis are the log₂ fold-change, and those on y-axis are the FDR *p*-values. Each gene is indicated by a blue dot; red dots indicate *LAMA1*. **(C)** Canonical pathways identified by IPA based on the identification of 541 DEGs in MDC1A versus control fibroblasts. **(D)** Heatmap of the DEGs involved in the wound healing and fibrosis processes. The downregulated genes are indicated in blue while the upregulated genes are indicated in red. **(E)** qPCR analysis in control and MDC1A

fibroblasts. Data are presented as fold-change relative to *GAPDH*. The fold change is assessed using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta ct}$ method. The results are expressed as mean \pm s.e. and each dot denotes individual measurements. **(F)** The left panel illustrates the migration of MDC1A fibroblasts. These cells express high levels of *FGFR2* and *TGFβ2*, which in turn interact with *ACTA2* and facilitate increased migration and wound contraction. The right panel shows the signaling mechanisms that are downregulated in response to the upregulation of *LAMA1*, thereby decreasing migration. C1, C2, control fibroblasts. M1, M2, M3, MDC1A fibroblasts; \pm , cells transfected with 2XVP64-*Sa*dCas9 and three sgRNAs (10+11+12). *LAMA2*, Lamininalpha-2; *LAMA1*, Laminin-alpha-1; *FGFR2*, Fibroblast growth factor receptor 2; *TGFB2*, Transforming growth factor beta-2; *ACTA2*, actin alpha 2, smooth muscle, *GAPDH*, Glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase. * $P \le 0.05$, two-tailed t-test.

Discussion

The results of our study highlight the efficacy of CRISPRa in upregulating a critical disease-modifying gene, e.g., *LAMA1*, in MDC1A cells, regardless of the specific nature of the *LAMA2* mutation. To the best of our knowledge, our study reports the first use of this approach to target human *LAMA1* in cells derived from individuals diagnosed with MDC1A.

MDC1A can result from any one of several heterogenous mutations in the *LAMA2* gene^{21,37}. This heterogeneity was somewhat reflected in MDC1A fibroblasts presented in this study, whereby M1 cells carrying an abnormal splicing in the final exon of *LAMA2* ^{38,39} lead to detectable LAMA2 protein expression. Although not examined in this study, the position of this mutation might have led to the expression of sufficiently stable transcript and protein in M1 cells. In contrast, the M2 and M3 cells had minimal to no expression of *LAMA2*. Nevertheless, all MDC1A cells exhibited overactive migration, thereby indicating a uniformed functional impairment and providing a justification that an ideal therapeutic approach for this disease would be mutation-independent and thus universally effective.

How does LAMA2 affect cellular migration? We postulate that, as an essential component of the extracellular matrix (ECM), LAMA2 serves as an anchor that provides stability and restricts aberrant migration. Anchoring activity disappears in the absence of LAMA2, thereby triggering a cell-signaling response that increases migration. Our transcriptomic analysis revealed that MDC1A fibroblasts express high levels of *FGFR2*, $TGF\beta2$, and ACTA2 – all of which have been implicated in wound healing processes^{40,41-44}.

Several studies of tumor-associated responses have highlighted cell migration mediated by LAMA2, although this aspect is underexplored in the context of MDC1A. For example, Liang et al. reported *LAMA2* downregulation in lung adenocarcinoma cells, and have found that

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LAMA2 knockdown in these cell lines also promotes migration⁴⁵. Similarly, Wang et al. have reported that overexpression or demethylation of LAMA2 suppresses the invasiveness of pituitary adenoma cells⁴⁶. Others have reported that LAMA2 acts as a tumor suppressor gene⁴⁷ and that inactivation of *LAMA2* may lead to tumor progression⁴⁸⁴⁹⁻⁵³. Finally, Chermula et al. have reported a role of LAMA2 in porcine oocyte migration⁵⁴. Collectively, these findings provide strong evidence of the contributions of LAMA2 to the cellular migration process and are consistent with our findings in the context of muscular dystrophy. When we upregulated LAMA1 using CRISPRa in MDC1A fibroblasts, the overactive migration was attenuated, and the expression of FGFR2, $TGF\beta2$, and ACTA2 was decreased. Our working model thus centers on the ability of LAMA1 to also anchor the ECM and decrease aberrant migration, similar to LAMA2, thereby expanding the scope of potential compensatory mechanisms between these two proteins. Furthermore, we show that cellular migration is a phenomenon that can be exploited as a functional outcome in development of therapeutic for MDC1A, and potentially translate to other muscular dystrophy subtypes that are associated with aberrance of the extracellular matrix components.

Our study has several limitations. First, we compared the transcriptomes of cells transfected with 2XVP64-SadCas9 with three sgRNAs and those of untransfected cells, rather than (ideally) cells transfected with 2XVP64-SadCas9 with no sgRNA. This comparison was chosen because our objective was to use the CRISPRa method to increase the endogenous expression of only one gene (i.e., LAMA1). The MDC1A fibroblast genomes are overall very similar to one another; thus, our efforts to identify DEGs between these groups did not yield statistically significant results. Inclusion of several additional MDC1A fibroblasts would increase the power of the study and strengthen the transcriptomic analyses.

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Second, we recognize that treatment of disease at the genomic level must contend with significant inter-individual natural genetic variation. The presence of single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) in a population underrepresented in the human reference genomes could lead to disruption of the targeted sequence or cause unintended genome modifications/offtargets^{55,56}. Recently, Cancellieri et al. have developed a computational method to predict the impact of SNP and off-target sequences across diverse human populations; this method is aptly termed CRISPRme ⁵⁷. However, it is currently limited to the prediction of S. pyogenesderived Cas9 targets, and the recognition sequence of S. aureus-derived Cas9 was not yet included at the time of preparation of this manuscript. In the future, variant-aware target assessments are expected to become integral to therapeutic genome editing evaluation, including the CRISPRa-modulation of gene expression presented here. Finally, the combination of tandem VP64 activators and three sgRNAs used in this study was adapted from our previous work on Lama1 upregulation in an MDC1A mouse model31. Future clinical application would require the use of dual AAVs to package the necessary CRISPRa components. Therefore, technological improvements would involve miniaturization of the CRISPRa components to decrease the number of AAV, or utilization of alternative delivery modalities with no size constraints. In summary, our study demonstrates the feasibility of CRISPRa-mediated upregulation of human LAMA1 in MDC1A cells, and simultaneously highlights the compensatory mechanism between these two genes. This strategy might be adapted to address other neuromuscular diseases and inherited conditions in which strong compensatory mechanisms have been identified⁵⁸⁻⁶⁰. Finally, the application of migration assay as a functional outcome measure in fibroblasts from affected individuals also illustrates a robust and scalable pipeline in drug

discovery and screening in MDC1A, and potentially other ECM-associated muscular dystrophies.

Materials and Methods

Cell lines and culture conditions

Fibroblasts from de-identified MDC1A donors were obtained under Research Ethics Board-approved protocol 1000052878 at the Hospital for Sick Children, Toronto, and the University of Pittsburgh Institutional Review Board-approved STUDY220100142. Skin-derived fibroblasts were de-identified, cultured, and banked at the Hospital for Sick Children, Toronto and shipped as frozen cultures to the University of Pittsburgh. In addition, healthy human fibroblasts (PCS-201-01-80825173 and PCS-201-01-70004547, referred to as C1 and C2, respectively) were purchased from the American Type Culture Collection (ATCC, Manassas, VA, USA). Fibroblasts were cultured in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM) (cat. 10013CM, Corning, VA, USA), supplemented with 15% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS) (cat. 10082-147, Gibco, MA, USA), 1% L-glutamine (cat. 15140-122, Gibco, MA, USA), 1% penicillin/streptomycin (cat. 15140-122, Gibco, MA, USA). The culture flasks were incubated at 37°C in a 5% CO₂ atmosphere.

Design of the CRISPR activation system

We used the 3XFLAG-VP64-SadCas9-NLS-VP64-containing plasmid (Addgene cat # 135338), in which each sgRNA was annealed and inserted by Bsal directional cloning as described previously³¹. The nucleotide sequences and directionality of the inserts were verified by Sanger sequencing.

Transfection of HEK 293T cells

HEK 293T cells were transfected with Lipofectamine[™] 3000 (Thermo Fisher, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Cells were seeded at density of 5 x10⁵/well in a 12-well plate. Plasmid DNA was introduced at 500 ng per transfection. The cell culture medium was changed at 24- and 72 hours post-transfection before the cells were harvested for protein analyses.

Transfection of fibroblasts

Electroporation was performed using the NeonTM Transfection system (MPK5000, Thermo Fisher, CA, USA) and NeonTM 100 μl kit (MPK10096, Thermo Fisher, CA, USA). Cells were suspended in Neon Resuspension Buffer R before transfection. Each electroporation included a mixture of 2 x 10⁶ cells and 15μg of DNA prepared in a sterile microcentrifuge tube. Untreated cells were electroporated without plasmid DNA. The vector-alone control cells were electroporated with 15μg of SadCas9-2XVP64 plasmid. Cells in the treatment group were electroporated with 5μg of SadCas9-2XVP64-sgRNA10, 5μg of SadCas9-2XVP64-sgRNA11, and 5μg of SadCas9-2XVP64-sgRNA12, resulting in 15μg of total DNA. The cell-DNA mixture was aspirated without air bubbles using the 100 μl Neon tip and inserted into a Neon tube containing the Neon Electrolytic Buffer E in the Neon Pipette station. Each set of fibroblasts was pulsed under different conditions to achieve high transfection efficiency, i.e., 1400 volts, 30ms, and 1 pulse for control fibroblasts; 1300 volts, 20ms, 2 pulses for M1; 1200 volts, 15ms, and 2 pulses for M2 and 1600 volts, 20ms and 1 pulse for M3 fibroblast.

The cells were then transferred into 10 ml of the aforementioned growth medium (without antibiotics) in a 10cm petri dish and incubated at 37°C in a 5% CO₂ atmosphere. The antibiotic-free media was replaced with full growth media 24 hours post-transfection and the cells were harvested for RNA and protein analyses at 96 hours post-transfection.

RNA isolation and RT-PCR

Total RNA was isolated from the cultured cells using the Nucleospin RNA Plus kit (cat. 740984, Macherey-Nagel, CA, USA) as per the manufacturer's instructions. The RNA concentration and purity were assessed using a Qubit fluorometer (Invitrogen, CA, USA). RNA samples with an RNA Integrity number (RIN) above 9 were selected for further analyses. 500μg of RNA from each sample were reverse-transcribed using iScript Reverse Transcription Supermix (cat. 1708840, BioRad) as per the manufacturer's protocol. The qPCR was performed with Power Track SYBR Green Master Mix (cat. A46109, Applied Biosystems) using a QuantStudio 5 Real-Time PCR system with *GAPDH* as an internal control. Fold change between treatment groups was evaluated using the 2^{-ΔΔCt} method. All primers used for qPCR were synthesized by Integrated DNA Technologies and are listed in Table 3.

Table 3. Primers used for RT-qPCR

Gene	Forward primer	Reverse primer
GAPDH	GTCTCCTCTGACTTCAACAGCG	ACCACCCTGTTGCTGTAGCCAA
LAMA2	TGCTGTCCTGAATCTTGCTTC	AGCATTTGTAATCGGGTGTCTC

LAMA1	GTCAGCGACTCAGAGTGTTTG	CTTGGGTGAAAGATCGTCAGC
TGFB2	CAGCACACTCGATATGGACCA	CCTCGGGCTCAGGATAGTCT
FGFR2	AGCACCATACTGGACCAACAC	GGCAGCGAAACTTGACAGTG
ACTA2	GTGTTGCCCCTGAAGAGCAT	GCTGGGACATTGAAAGTCTCA

RNA-sequencing analyses

RNA sequencing was performed by the Health Sciences Sequencing core at UPMC Children's Hospital of Pittsburgh using Illumina NextSeq2000 system based on 202-bp paired ends. Raw FASTQ reads were aligned to the GRCh38 human genome using CLC Genomics Workbench version 22.0.2 software (Qiagen, USA). Differential gene expression was determined using the built-in tool in CLC Genomics workbench. Pathway enrichment was determined using Ingenuity Pathway Analysis (Qiagen, USA).

Protein harvesting and quantification

Cells were harvested and extracted in RIPA lysis buffer (cat. 20-188, Millipore, MA, USA) containing Pierce protease inhibitor mini tablets (cat. A32953, Thermo Fisher Scientific, IL, USA) and PhosStopTM tablets (cat. 04906845001, Roche Diagnostics, Manheim, Germany). Cell extracts were centrifuged for 20 minutes at 14,000 x *g* 4°C. The supernatants were collected, and total protein concentration was estimated using Pierce Bicinchoninic Acid (BCA) protein assay kit according to the manufacturer's protocol (cat. 23225, Thermo Fisher Scientific, IL, USA).

Western blot

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Twenty µg protein samples were loaded into lanes of a 3-8% Tris-acetate gel (cat. EA0378BOX, NuPAGETM, Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher Scientific, CA, USA) and subjected to electrophoresis. Separated proteins were transferred onto a nitrocellulose membrane using an iBlot™2 Gel transfer device (cat. IB21001, Thermo Fisher Scientific, IL, USA). Non-specific protein binding to the membranes was blocked with 5% non-fat dry milk (cat. M0841, Lab Scientific, MA, USA) for one hour at 4°C. The membranes were then washed four times with Tris-buffered saline containing 0.1 % Tween 20 (TBST; cat. J77500-K2, Thermo Fisher Scientific, NJ, USA) for 5 minutes and then incubated with primary antibodies, including anti-LAMA2 (1:300 dilution, cat. MA524656, Invitrogen), anti-LAMA1 (1:500 dilution, cat. MA531381, Invitrogen), anti-FLAG (1:1000 dilution, cat. F1804, Sigma-Aldrich), anti-Betatubulin (1:2000 dilution, cat. ab108342, Abcam) or anti-Vinculin (1:10,000, cat. ab129002, Abcam) on a shaker at 4°C overnight. After four washes with TBST, the membranes were then incubated with secondary antibodies, including HRP conjugated goat anti-mouse IgG (cat. 1706516, BioRad) at 1:1000, 1:2000, and 1:4000 dilutions to detect bound anti-LAMA2, anti-LAMA1, and anti-FLAG, respectively, and HRP conjugated goat anti-rabbit IgG (cat. 1706515, BioRad) at 1:4000, and 1:5000 dilutions to detect bound anti-beta-tubulin, and anti-Vinculin, respectively. Signals were detected by chemiluminescence using SuperSignal[™] west Femto maximum sensitivity substrate (cat. 34095, Thermo Scientific, CA, USA). The blot was imaged using a ChemiDoc Touch Imaging System (BioRad Laboratories, Hercules, CA, USA).

Migration assay

Fibroblasts were seeded on an IncuCyte Imagelock 96-well plate (cat. 4856, Essen Bioscience, MI, USA) at a density of 10,000 cells per well. The culture plates were incubated overnight at 37° C in a 5% CO_2 atmosphere. One day later (t = 0) a wound of uniform width was created in the monolayer using the IncuCyte 96-well wound maker (cat. no, 4563, Essen Bioscience, MI, USA) according to the manufacturer's protocol. The plate was monitored in real-time by IncuCyte until the end of the experiment at t = 24 hrs. The analyses were done using the IncuCyte scratch wound analysis software module (cat. 9600-0012, Essen Bioscience, MI, USA)

Statistical Analyses

- Statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism 9 (GraphPad, San Diego, CA, USA). Results were evaluated by one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's multiple comparison
- test with statistical significance defined as P < 0.05.

Declaration of interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Web Resources

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- 562 UCSC Genome Browser, http://genome.ucsc.edu
- 563 FANTOM5 https://fantom.gsc.riken.jp/5/
- 564 dbGAP accession number: in process

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