

Original Article

Genome editing in K562 cells suggests a functional role for the XmnI Gγ polymorphism: a widely used genetic marker in β-thalassemia and sickle cell disease patients

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The XmnI Gγ -158 C/T polymorphism has been widely associated with fetal hemoglobin (HbF) levels, the severity of disease, and the response to the drug hydroxyurea (HU) in both β-thalassemia (β-thal) and sickle cell disease (SCD) patients. However, the functional significance of this single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) remains unclear. To gain insight, green fluorescence protein (GFP) cassettes harboring the XmnI C or T alleles in their left homology arms (i.e. Gγ promoters) were knocked into the Gγ gene(s) of K562 cells via CRISPR/Cas9. Subsequently, the GFP fluorescence levels were compared in the ensuing cell populations and isolated clones. In both instances, median fluorescence intensities (MFI) of the knockin cells having the inserted XmnI T allele were higher than those having the XmnI C allele. Our results suggest that the XmnI T allele can increase Gγ expression in K562 cells. The possible functional significance of the XmnI Gγ -158 C/T polymorphism provides a rationale for the aforementioned associations. Furthermore, the XmnI polymorphism as a functional SNP substantiates its importance as a prognostic marker.

Keywords: β-thalassemia; CRISPR/Cas9, Knockin, Sickle cell disorder, XmnI polymorphism.

1. Introduction

The hemoglobin molecule is composed of two α-globin chains and two β-like chains. In humans, the composition of the fetal hemoglobin (HbF) is $\alpha_2 \gamma_2$, whereas after birth, the main hemoglobin is the adult hemoglobin (HbA) or α₂ $β_2$. The hemoglobin disorders $β$ -thal and SCD are both caused by mutations in the β-globin gene. In β-thal, homozygous or compound heterozygous mutations (>300 identified to date) in the β-globin gene lead to the elimination or reduction in HbA levels [1]. The pathophysiology of the β-thal disorder is anemia, red blood cell (RBC) lysis, and iron overload in various bodily organs [2]. In SCD patients, a single mutation in the β-globin gene leads to expression of the sickled hemoglobin (HbS). The HbS polymerizes under low oxygen concentrations, causing the sickling of RBCs and clinical complications such as vasoocclusion and hemolytic anemia [3].

Increased HbF levels in adults can reduce the severity of the diseases caused by HbS production or a lack of HbA expression in SCD and β-thal patients, respectively. To date, three quantitative trait loci (OTLs) have been idenQTLs is a single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) residing in the promoter of the Gγ gene (-158 C/T) called the *XmnI* polymorphism (rs782144). In a genome-wide association study (GWAS), the *XmnI* polymorphism was identified as a key SNP associated with HbF levels in SCD patients [5]. These findings have been supported by numerous other studies, in which the *XmnI* T allele has been associated with higher HbF levels and the amelioration of disease severity in both β-thal and SCD patients [6-10]. It is important to note, however, that these associations have only been observed in patients with hemoglobin disorders, in which stress erythropoiesis causes a significant increase in the HbF-producing F-cells.

tified which associated with HbF levels [4]. One of these

The *XmnI* Gγ SNP may also act as a genetic marker for predicting the response of β-thal and SCD patients to the drug hydroxyurea (HU) [11]. HU acts by inducing HbF expression in the patients under treatment. However, only a subset of patients responds to HU i.e. a reduction in blood transfusions or painful crises in β-thal and SCD patients, respectively. In a number of association studies,

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the *XmnI* T allele has been correlated with the response to HU in both β-thal and SCD patients. As suggested, this correlation may be a consequence of higher baseline HbF levels being present in the HU-responder patients as compared to the non-responders [12].

Despite its wide use as a genetic marker, however, no function has been identified for the *XmnI* Gγ C/T SNP. As a result, it has been suggested that other variations in linkage disequilibrium (LD) with the *XmnI* polymorphism may be the functional SNPs influencing HbF expression [1]. Several such candidate SNPs have also been reported [13].

More recently, CRISPR/Cas9 genome editing studies in HUDEP-2 cells and hematopoietic stem/progenitor cells (HSPCs) isolated from SCD patients have shown a functional role for the γ-globin promoter -158 region [14]. In particular, insertions/deletions (indels) produced in this region have resulted in the induction of γ-globin (Gγ and Aγ) or HbF expression in the SCD HSPCs and HUDEP-2 cells post-differentiation. These results, however, do not directly assess the influence of the *XmnI* G -158 C/T polymorphism on expression.

To further investigate this premise, green fluorescent protein (GFP) cassettes bearing the -158 C or the T alleles in their left homology arms were knocked into the Gγ gene of K562 cells. Fluorescence levels of the resulting cell populations and isolated clones were then compared.

2. Material and methods

2.1. Cell culture

The K562 cells were a kind gift from Prof. Frank Grosveld (Erasmus MC, Rotterdam, Netherlands). The K562 cells were cultured in Roswell Park Memorial Institute Medium (RPMI), 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS), and 1% penicillin/streptomycin (Capricorn Scientific, Ebsdorfergrund, Germany) in a CO₂ incubator (Memmert, Büchenbach, Germany) at concentrations below 2×10^5 cells/ml. Single-cell cloning was performed by using the serial dilution method in 96-well plates. Cells were grown in 100 μl media containing RPMI, 10% FBS, and 30% conditioned media. After one week, wells containing a single cluster of cells were spotted and transferred to 12-well plates for further expansion.

2.2. Karyotyping

Culturing and harvesting of K562 cells and preparation of slides were performed according to standard cytogenetic procedures [15]. Slide preparations were allowed to age at 170°C for 16 hours. After Giemsa staining, chromosome analysis was performed on the G-banded metaphases. The karyotyping of metaphases was performed by using a Nikon Eclipse E400 microscope (Tokyo, Japan) and karyotyping software (Onyxlab, Tehran, Iran).

2.3. Plasmid constructs

The CRISPR plasmid was constructed by cloning the γ-globin-specific small guide RNA (sgRNA) template into the PX459 vector (Addgene, Cambridge, MA, USA), as previously described [16]. The previously constructed donor plasmid contains a GFP.(IRES).NeoR.pA cassette [16]. This cassette is flanked by an 822 nt. Gγ-specific left homology arm (LHA) with 91.97% sequence homology to Aγ, and an 857 nt. Aγ-specific right homology arm (RHA) with 98.02% homology to Gγ [GFP= green fluorescence protein; IRES=internal ribosome entry site; Neo^R=neomycin resistance gene; $pA=$ polyadenylation signal]. The γ-specific LHA and RHA fragments had been amplified by polymerase chain reactions (PCR) from K562 genomic DNA (gDNA), which contains the C allele at the Gγ -158 position (data not shown).

2.4. PCR mutagenesis by overlap extension

In order to create an analogous donor plasmid containing the *XmnI* T allele in the LHA, PCR mutagenesis by overlap extension was utilized by using the above donor plasmid as template [17,18]. The following primers were used for the overlap PCR reactions: Outer forward (OF) primer: 5'-TTTGAGCTCTCATCGGGTGCCTACATA-CATA-3′; Inner forward (IF) primer: 5′-GTCTGAAACG-GTTCCTGGCTA-3′; Inner reverse (IR) primer: 5′-TAGC-CAGGAACCGTTTCAGAC-3′; Outer reverse (OR) primer: 5′-TTTGAATTCGTCTGGACTAGGAGCTTAT-TGA-3′ [the underlined sequences in the OF and OR primers are SacI and EcoRI recognition sites, respectively; the underlined nucleotides (nt.) in the IF and IR primers constitute the *XmnI* T allele]. The final PCR product was digested with SacI and EcoRI. The LHA having the Gγ -158 C allele was removed from the original donor plasmid following SacI/EcoRI digestion, and the new LHA harboring the *XmnI* T allele was ligated and substituted. The composition of the new donor plasmid was verified by restriction enzyme mapping and Sanger sequencing.

2.5. Transfection and antibiotic selection

The CRISPR (PX459-sgRNA) and donor plasmids were co-transfected into K562 cells by using Lipofectamine 2000 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Cambridge, MA, USA). Transfection efficiency was monitored by transfecting, in parallel, the pSV-β-Galactosidase Control Vector (Promega, Madison, WI, USA) into K562 cells. The latter cells were then stained by using the β-Gal Staining Set (Roche Applied Science, Mannheim, Germany). Cells co-transfected with the CRISPR and donor vectors were selected by using a two-step selection process [16,19]. After 48 hours, the cells were put under puromycin selection (Puro^R is in the PX459 plasmid) for two days. Upon washing and expansion, the cells were put under G418 selection for three weeks (Neo^R is in the donor plasmid). Antibiotic levels were determined by using death curve analyses.

2.6. Screening for knock-ins

Genomic DNA was isolated from the edited cell populations by using the salting out method (Miller et al, 1988). Knock-in of the GFP cassettes into the Gγ DNA breaksite was verified by using PCR, with one primer falling in the transgene and the other outside of the homology arm (either LHA or RHA). The primers used for PCR were: P1: 5'-CCAATATGTCAGAAACAGCACTG-3'; P2: 5'-GTG-GTGCAGATGAACTTCAGG-3'; P3: 5'-CATCACGA-TGGCCGCAATAA-3'; and P4: 5'-CTGGACATACTT-TGCCCCCA-3'. Identity of the PCR products was verified by using Sanger sequencing.

2.7. Transgene copy number

The copy number of the integrated GFP cassettes was determined by using quantitative PCR (qPCR) and the $2^{\Delta Ct}$ calculation method. The *BCL11A* gene located on chromosome 2 was used as the internal control (i.e. three copies in K562 cells). The real-time PCR reactions were run in duplicate by using the RealQ Plus 2x Master Mix Green (Ampliqon, Odense, Denmark) on an Applied Biosystems 7500 platform.

2.8. Genomic edits

The frequencies of indels produced in the non-recombinant γ-globin (Aγ and Gγ) copies (i.e. those lacking an integrated cassette) were performed by using a polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (PAGE)-based genotyping assay, as previously described [20,21]. The presence of the 4.9 Kb Gγ-Aγ deletions was detected by using gap-PCR, with a forward primer binding to the Gγ upstream region and an Aγ-specific Amplification Refractory Mutation System (ARMS) reverse primer [22]. The frequency of indels was determined by using the ImageJ Gel Analysis software.

2.9. Flow cytometry

GFP fluorescence levels were detected by using a Partec PAS flow cytometry system (Sysmex Partec, Gorlitz, Germany). The data was analyzed by using the $FlowJo^{\circledR}$ v7.6 software (FlowJo, LLC, USA).

2.10. Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed by using Microsoft Excel (Microsoft, Bellevue, WA, USA). Significance was determined by using a two-tailed Student's t-test. *P*<0.05 was considered as significant.

3. Results

3.1. Strategy for assessing the functional significance of the XmnI polymorphism

K562 is an erythroleukemia cell line with high γ-globin expression levels. As such, it has been widely used as a model system for the HbF-producing F-cells [23]. K562 cells may have three normal copies of chromosome 11, where the β-locus is located $[15]$. In support, karyotyping of the K562 cell line at hand showed the presence of three normal copies of chromosome 11 (Fig. S1).

In order to evaluate the functional significance of the *XmnI* polymorphism, we sought to compare the fluorescence levels of K562 GFP→Gγ knockin cells having either the -158 C or the T allele in the left homology arms (LHA) of the inserted cassettes (i.e. in their Gγ promoters). We reasoned that such an approach would 1) overcome the need to edit all six copies of the γ-globin genes (3Gγ, 3Aγ), and 2) allow for assessing the effect of the -158 C/T SNP on Gγ expression only (Note: The Gγ and Aγ promoters diverge in their >200 bp distal region). Moreover, we postulated that by using this approach, indels produced in the γ-globin copies lacking an integrated cassette would not confound our results.

3.2. The GFP cassettes are inserted into the Gγ gene

Previously we had knocked-in a GFP cassette into the 5′-untranslated region (5′-UTR) of the Gγ gene in K562 cells by using the CRISPR/Cas9 system [16]. The utilized CRISPR plasmid expressed a sgRNA that created doublestrand (ds)-DNA breaks just upstream of the γ-globin start codon. Furthermore, the donor plasmid harbored a GFP. $(IRES).Neo^R.pA$ cassette. This cassette, designed with \sim 800 bp homology arms, is intended for insertion of the

cassette upstream of the Gγ gene start codon and expression of the GFP and Neo^R proteins (the GFP via its start codon and the Neo^R gene via the IRES) (Fig. 1). The homology arms had been amplified from K562 genomic DNA, which carries the C allele at the Gγ -158 position (data not shown). As a result, the edited cell population and isolated clones that were obtained contained the *XmnI* C allele upstream of the inserted GFP cassette.

Here, we sought to create an equivalent edited K562 cell population with a substituted *XmnI* T allele. To this end, an analogous donor plasmid having the -158 *XmnI* T allele in its left homology arm was first created via overlap PCR mutagenesis. Subsequently, the new donor plasmid and CRISPR vector were co-transfected into K562 cells. Following antibiotic selection of the cells, genomic DNA was extracted and knockin of the GFP.NeoR cassette into the Gγ gene was verified by PCR of either arm—with one primer falling in the transgene and the other outside of the homology arm (Fig. 2a). Sanger sequencing of the amplicons suggested that the $GFP.Neo^R$ cassette was inserted specifically into the Gγ 5′-UTR (Fig. 2b and Fig. S2). Moreover, the *XmnI* T allele was retained in the left homology arm post-recombination (Fig. 2c).

Next, we examined whether integration of the GFP cassette had resulted in a concurrent replacement of the Gγ-Aγ intergenic region in the edited cell populations. To this end, PCR reactions were deployed by using a transgenespecific forward primer and Gγ- or Aγ-specific reverse ARMS primers. The utilized ARMS primers had previously been validated for functionality and specificity [22].

Here, genomic replacements were detected in both the *XmnI* C and *XmnI* T KI populations (Fig. S3). We reasoned, however, that these replacements would not interfere with the transcriptional regulation of the GFP cassette mediated via the Gγ promoter and the locus control region (LCR)—given that no known transcriptional regulatory elements were deleted in the process [24].

Fig. 1. Schematic of the GFP knockin construct and its Gγ gene insertion site. The utilized sgRNA sequence is shown in blue and its protospacer adjacent motif (PAM) in red. The start codon (ATG) of the γ-globin gene is underlined. [LHA=left homology arm; GFP=green fluorescence protein; IRES=internal ribosome entry site; Neo^{R=}neomycin resistance gene; pA=polyadenylation signal sequence; RHA=right homology arm].

Fig. 2. Verifying knockin of the GFP/*XmnI* T cassette into the γ-globin gene(s) of K562 cells. (a) PCR reactions of the left and right homology arms (LHA, RHA) and (b) Sanger sequencing of the resulting amplicons confirmed insertion of the GFP cassette into the γ-globin gene. (c) Retention of the *XmnI* T allele post-recombination was also established via Sanger sequencing.

3.3. Validating the precision of insertions in cellular clones

The precision of the GFP \rightarrow Gγ knockin had previously been validated in cellular clones isolated from the Gγ -158 C KI population [16]. Besides one clone, the GFP cassette had been accurately inserted into the Gγ gene of K562 cells i.e. without any indels at the break junction.

In line, accuracy of the transgene insertions was hereby analyzed in cellular clones isolated from the Gγ -158 T KI population (Table 1). In 8/10 of the isolated clones, the GFP cassette was accurately inserted into the Gγ 5′-UTR. Furthermore, in all of the latter clones, the *XmnI* T allele was detected upstream of the transgene. In addition, a correlation between transgene copy number and fluorescence levels was not detected in cellular clones isolated from either population.

3.4. Genomic edits in the γ-globin copies lacking an integrated transgene

We assumed that genome edits in the non-recombinant

Fig. 3. Genomic edits in the γ-globin copies lacking an inserted GFP cassette. (a) Indels in the 5′-UTRs of the Aγ and Gγ genes were detected via PAGE-genotyping in the edited K562 cell populations. (b) Presence of the Gγ-Aγ 4.9 Kb deletion in these cell populations was detected by using gap-PCR. A control (CNT) PCR reaction was also carried out by using a Gγ promoter-specific F-primer and a Gγ-ARMS R-primer.

γ-globin copies (i.e. those lacking an integrated cassette) would not affect GFP expression levels in *cis* or in *trans*. Nevertheless, the nature and frequency of the genome edits in the non-recombinant γ-globin copies of the two populations were compared. In the *XmnI* C and T KI populations, indels were detected in 41% and 68% of the non-recombinant γ-globin (Gγ and Aγ) 5'-UTRs, respectively (Fig. 3a). Furthermore, presence of the 4.9 Kb Gγ-Aγ deletion, created by the simultaneous ds-DNA breaks in the Gγ and Aγ genes, was detected in both populations (Fig. 3b).

3.5. The XmnI polymorphism increases GFP expression

Subsequently, GFP fluorescence levels in the two edited cell populations were compared. In the Gγ -158 C and T KI populations, 82.8% and 99.3% of the cells were GFP⁺ , respectively (Fig. 4a). In the former population, the GFP- cells persisted even after prolonged antibiotic selection. Previously, two GFP- clones had been isolated from this population [16]. One turned out to be G418 sensitive (G418^s). The other seemed to have indels at the CRISPR/ Cas9 break entry site. Presumably, these indels had da-

Table 1. Data related to the *XmnI* T knock-in clones are summarized. In clone 10, the LHA and RHA could not be PCR amplified as described in Materials and Methods. In contrast, amplicons were obtained when using PCR primer sets within the GFP cassette (data not shown). Thus, in this clone, GFP expression had presumably resulted from the insertion of the cassette into a non-targeted locus.

EGFP clones	Relative fluorescence	Median fluorescence intensity (MFI)	Estimated GFP copy number	Precision in LHA junction	Precision in RHA junction	$G\gamma$ or $A\gamma$ 5'- UTR insertion	-158 C or $C>T$
K562	N/A	0.476	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
	Low	2.50		Yes	Yes	$G\gamma$	C>T
2	Low	2.59		Yes	Yes	$G\gamma$	C>T
3	Low	2.73	$\overline{2}$	Yes	Yes	$G\gamma$	C>T
4	Medium	4.10	3	Yes	Yes	$G\gamma$	C>T
5	Medium	4.71		Yes	Yes	$G\gamma$	C>T
6	High	5.05	3	Yes	Yes	$G\gamma$	C>T
7	High	5.20	3	Yes	Yes	$G\gamma$	C>T
8	High	5.80	$\overline{2}$	Yes	Yes	$G\gamma$	C>T
9	High	7.75	N/A	No	N ₀	N/A	N/A
10	High	14.0	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A

(N/A=not applicable).

maged the ribosome binding site of the GFP gene, but not the IRES of the Neo^R gene—resulting in the creation of a GFP⁻G418^R subpopulation. To gain insight, we sought to isolate additional GFP- clones from this population. Here, two more GFP- clones were isolated, both of which turned out to be G418^s.

In the GFP⁺ subpopulations, on the other hand, the median fluorescence intensities (MFI) of the Gγ -158 C and T-bearing GFP⁺ cells were 4.50 and 6.75, respectively. This was evident by a rightward shift in the fluorescence curve of the GFP⁺*XmnI* T population relative to that of the *XmnI* C population (Fig. 4a). As a result, 30% of the GFP⁺ cells having the *XmnI* T allele displayed higher fluorescence levels than those having the C allele.

The fluorescence intensities were also compared in cellular clones isolated from the two populations i.e. only those containing accurate transgene insertions. Here, the average MFI was increased from 2.60±1.31 in clones isolated from the *XmnI* C population to 4.09±1.31 in those isolated from the *XmnI* T population (*P*<0.05) (Fig. 4b). Collectively, these results suggest that presence of the *XmnI* T allele could upregulate Gγ expression levels in K562 cells.

4. Discussion

The *XmnI* polymorphism is a well-known genetic marker that has been widely associated with HbF levels, disease severity, and the response to HU in both β-thal and SCD patients. This SNP is associated strongly with the amelioration of disease severity in SCD and β-thal patients (i.e. β-thal major vs. β-thal intermedia). It also correlates with the blood transfusion intervals in transfusiondependent β-thal (TDT) patients [25,26]. As such, it is a valuable prognostic marker for predicting the course of the disease and its management in patients by clinicians. Furthermore, association of the XmnI polymorphism with the response to HU (a drug with adverse side effects) renders it a useful marker for personalized medicine.

To the best of our knowledge, however, no definitive function has been associated with this SNP. In earlier transient transfection assays performed in K562 cells, expression constructs containing the *XmnI* T allele had failed to increase reporter gene activity [27]. However, in those experiments, the effect of the *XmnI* T allele was not assayed in its genomic context. In this study, we took advantage of the CRISPR/Cas9 technology to assess the effect of the *XmnI* polymorphism in the context of the entire β-locus. In summary, our results suggest that the Gγ -158 C/T polymorphism may possibly be a functional SNP.

The current study was performed by using K562 cells—a cell line that is considered to be a model for Fcells. In support, association of the *XmnI* T allele with increased HbF levels has been reported exclusively in patients with hemoglobin disorders, in which F-cell numbers are amplified [1,28]. In that regard it would be interesting to replicate these experiments in cord blood (CB)-derived HSPCs which mainly produce γ-globin and HbF post-differentiation [29]. However, performing similar knockin experiments in CB-derived HSPCs may be technically challenging [30].

Our results in K562 cells suggest that the inducing effect of this SNP on γ-globin expression may be limited; since only 30% of the edited cells having the *XmnI* T allele in their KI cassettes showed higher GFP fluorescence

Fig. 4. Presence of the the *XmnI* T allele increases GFP fluorescence levels in the edited K562 cells. (a) Fluorescence levels were compared in the two edited cell populations and (b) the isolated GFP⁺ clones (*XmnI* C n=9; *XmnI* C>T n=8). The MFI mean \pm s.d. of the isolated clones is plotted (Two-tailed Student's t-test *P*<0.05).

levels than those having the C allele. This is consistent with a number of clinical data, in which the *XmnI* T/T, rather than the *XmnI* T/C, genotype had shown an association with the amelioration of disease severity in patients [28]. For example, in an earlier cohort study of 306 Iranian β-thal patients, we detected an association between the *XmnI* T/T genotype along with the *BCL11A* QTL with the milder β-thal intermedia disease-type [31]. Likewise, we detected a correlation between the *XmnI* T/T genotype with the response to HU in a cohort of 81 transfusion-dependent β-thal patients [32].

To date, a few potentially functional genetic determinants in LD with the *XmnI* polymorphism have been reported. In particular, an SNP in the LCR and another variation in the Gγ -588 region have been linked to the *XmnI* polymorphism in Iranian β-thal patients most of whom were homozygous for the IVS-II-1 (C>A) mutation [13,33]. Furthermore, a β -locus haplotype encompassing the *XmnI* T allele has been reported in Indian β-thal intermedia patients, most of whom had the IVS-I-5 (G>C) mutation [34]. In addition, GWAS fine-mapping has been used to identify an SNP in the β-locus which is associated more strongly than rs7482144-*XmnI* with HbF levels in African American SCD patients [35]. These associations, unlike those involving the *XmnI* polymorphism, have only been detected in singular cohorts. Nevertheless, the functional significance of these other β-locus SNPs cannot be ruled out.

The present results support those previously obtained by Weber *et al.*, which suggested a functional role for the γ-globin -158 region. There, disruption of the -158 site resulted in a slight upregulation of γ-globin levels in differentiated HUDEP-2 cells and HSPCs obtained from SCD patients. Likewise, it would be interesting to determine the effect of these indels in K562 cells.

Notably, the HUDEP-2 cells and SCD-HSPCs represent adult erythroid cells—whereas K562 cells represent endstage fetal-like erythroid cells (in that these cells express γ-globin but lack γ- to-β globin switching). As such, K562 cells serve as an alternative model for functional studies involving the XmnI polymorphism—especially in light of the fact that correlations of the XmnI polymorphism with HbF levels have only been detected in SCD and β-thal patients, in which F cell levels are amplified.

Weber et al. proposed that the -158 region may act as a binding site for a transcriptional repressor. However, to date, no such repressor has been identified. Therefore, the mechanism by which the -158 region, and more specifically the *XmnI* Gγ -158 C/T SNP, may act on γ-globin transcription in either fetal- or adult-like erythroid cells remains to be elucidated.

Abbreviation

GFP: green fluorescence protein; **HbA**: adult hemoglobin; **HbF**: fetal hemoglobin; **HU**: hydroxyurea; **IRES**: internal ribosome entry site; **LHA**: left homology arm; **MFI:** median fluorescence intensity; **Neo^R:** neomycin resistance gene; **pA**: polyadenylation signal; **QTL**: quantitative trait loci; **RHA**: right homology arm; **SCD**: sickle cell disease; **SNP**: single nucleotide polymorphism; **β-thal**: β-thalassemia

Conflict of interest

The authors report no conflicts of interest.

Consent for publications

All authors read and approved the final manuscript for publication.

Authors' contributions

AA: Investigation and formal analysis; NM: Investigation and formal analysis; MMT: Investigation and formal analysis; TD: Investigation and formal analysis; MSMM: Investigation; SB: Investigation; MB: Conceptualization, funding acquisition, formal analysis, supervision, and writing.

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