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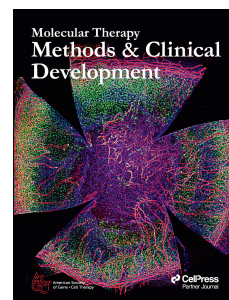
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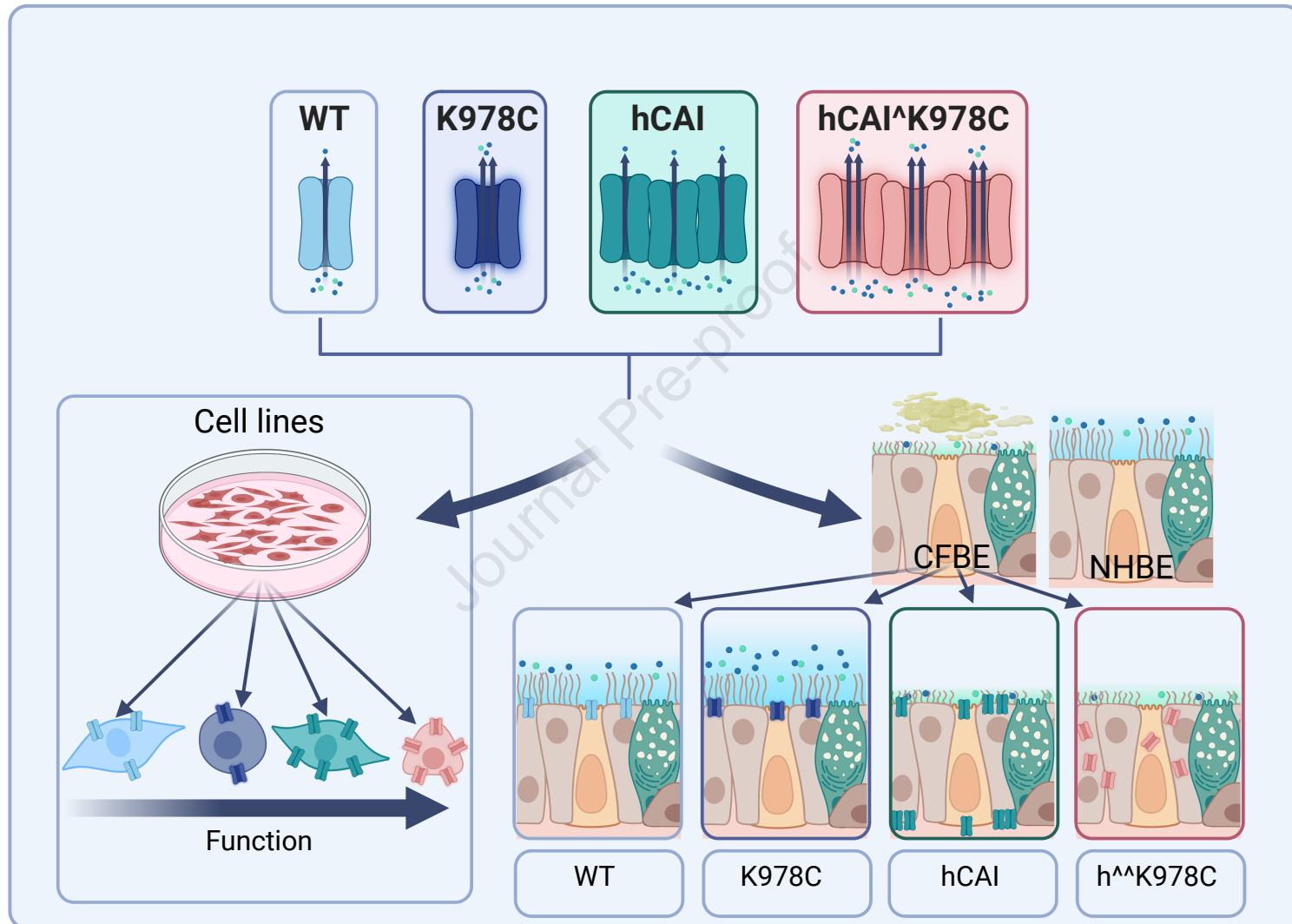
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Gain-of-function CFTR restores essential epithelial function with greater efficacy than wildtype or codon optimized CFTR when expressed in cystic fibrosis airway cells.

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## Abstract

Class Ia/b cystic fibrosis transmembrane regulator (CFTR) variants cause severe lung disease in 10% of cystic fibrosis (CF) patients and are untreatable with small molecule pharmaceuticals. Genetic replacement of CFTR offers a cure, but its effectiveness is limited *in vivo*. We hypothesized that enhancing protein levels (using codon optimisation) and/or activity (using gain-of-function variants) of CFTR would more effectively restore function to CF bronchial epithelial cells. Three different variants of the CFTR protein were tested: codon optimized (hCAI), a gain-of-function (GOF) variant (K978C), and a combination of both (h<sup>K978C</sup>). In human embryonic kidney cells (HEK293T), initial results showed that hCAI and h<sup>K978C</sup> produced >10-fold more CFTR protein and displayed ~4-fold greater activity than WT-CFTR. However, functionality was profoundly different in CF bronchial epithelial cells. Here, K978C-CFTR more potently restored essential epithelial functions (anion transport, airway surface liquid height and pH) than WT CFTR. hCAI and h<sup>K978C</sup>-CFTRs had limited impact due to mis-localization in the cell. These data provide proof of principle that GOF variants may be more effective than codon optimised forms of CFTR for CF gene therapy.

## Introduction

Precision medicine, through pharmacotherapy, has revolutionized the treatment of cystic fibrosis transmembrane regulator (CFTR) variants that exhibit recoverable CFTR protein. Nevertheless, class Ia (no mRNA) and class Ib (no protein) mutations, which are responsible for about 10% of all CF-causing CFTR variants, remain untreatable<sup>1</sup>. Gene therapy and gene editing techniques, whilst still in their infancy, hold immense promise as a potential cure for all forms of CF, including class-I mutations. Proof-of-concept studies have established feasibility of genetic therapies, but the limited success of CF gene therapy clinical trials highlights the need for further development and understanding of these techniques.

The estimated level of functional endogenous CFTR required to ameliorate severe pulmonary disease *in vivo*, range from 5% and 16%<sup>2-6</sup>, a level yet to be achieved in clinical trials. *In vivo* delivery of airway-targeted genetic therapies faces significant challenges due to natural airway barriers, which hinder the delivery and overall potency of genetic therapy formulations<sup>5,7,8</sup>. *In vitro*, where it is easier to manipulate target cells, the presence of 10-60% endogenous expression of CFTR was required to recapitulate normal anion transport function<sup>9-11</sup> whereas transduction of only 6-25% CF cells with exogenous wild type (WT) CFTR cDNA, generated Cl<sup>-</sup> transport properties similar to non-CF cultures<sup>12,13</sup>. However, none of the above studies considered the

55 impact of the CF luminal environment on CFTR and epithelial function, therefore these estimates  
56 may not translate *in vivo*.

57  
58 Several innovative strategies are being developed to enhance the potency of gene therapy for CF.  
59 For instance, codon optimization of CFTR has been employed to reduce the immunogenicity of  
60 the DNA used in gene therapy by depleting cytosine-phosphorothioate-guanine (CpG) motifs,  
61 which stimulate the toll-like receptor 9 (TLR9) inflammatory pathway<sup>14–16</sup>. Codon optimization  
62 also enhances the translation of mRNA into protein by substituting rare codons (triplets of DNA  
63 bases that code for amino acids less frequently within a specific organism) which can decelerate  
64 or even halt the translation process<sup>17,18</sup>. The replacement of the rare codons in WT-CFTR  
65 increased protein production and function dramatically (>10 fold) when expressed in Fisher Rat  
66 Thyroid cells<sup>18</sup>. However, research into codon-optimized CFTR function in human airway cells is  
67 relatively nascent, with current findings mostly reporting mild changes in CFTR-mediated anion  
68 transport and no data on airway surface liquid (ASL) rehydration is yet available<sup>19</sup>. The potential  
69 of using gain-of-function (GOF) CFTR mutants as a strategy for improving CF gene therapy  
70 remains largely unexplored. Study of CFTR structure and function relationships identified several  
71 such mutations<sup>20,21</sup>. One mutation, K978C-CFTR, demonstrated >2-fold higher open probability  
72 ( $P_o$ ) in excised patch-clamp studies than WT-CFTR<sup>21–23</sup>. Studies of GOF CFTRs have so far been  
73 limited to functional testing in cell lines. However, CF bronchial epithelial cells (CFBE) grown at

the air-liquid-interface are considered the gold standard for preclinical airway model systems<sup>24,25</sup>. In these cells, the function and effectiveness of GOF CFTRs such as K978C-CFTR for genetic therapy practices is uncharted. K978C was selected over other GOF variants for the unique characteristics of an increased  $P_o$  while retaining regulation by cAMP/PKA<sup>21</sup>.

We hypothesised that the use of a codon-optimized form of CFTR, K978C-CFTR, or codon-optimized K978C-CFTR could improve the performance of CF gene therapy in a physiologically relevant model. We first investigated protein production and function of our CFTR constructs in HEK293T cells. This provided us with a basic understanding of construct behavior in a reproducible cell line environment. Next, we transitioned our research to primary airway epithelial cells, using non-CF (NHBE) and CF Class 1 (W1282X/R1162X) and F508del genotypes (CFBE). We introduced and examined the protein production and localisation of the exogenously expressed, CFTR constructs each controlled by a high-activity promoter. In the final stage, we analyzed the function of CFTR constructs in differentiated CFBE cells and compared them to the function of endogenous CFTR from mixed cultures of NHBE and CFBE. Importantly, the functional tests were performed in the presence of CF sputum as our previous research indicated that CF sputum inhibits CFTR function and disrupted normal ASL hydration compared to normal lung sputum<sup>26</sup>. Our objective was to identify the transduction efficiency required to restore CFTR-dependent

anion transport and ASL hydration to that of NHBE in the presence of normal lung sputum as a criteria for therapeutic success<sup>26</sup>.

## Results

### Expression and function of CFTR cDNAs in HEK293T cells

All CFTR constructs (Fig. 1Ai), were transfected into human embryonic kidney HEK293T cells to investigate expression and function (Fig. 2Aii). All CFTR variants produced protein, visible as the mature, complex glycosylated ~170kDa protein (band C), and immature core glycosylated ~140 kDa protein (band B) by western blot (Fig. 1B). The halide-sensitive YFP (HS-YFP) protein in co-transfected HEK293T cells was observed at ~22 kDa. Transfection of HEK293T with codon optimised hCAI- and h<sup>K978C</sup>-CFTR resulted in >10-fold more CFTR protein than WT-CFTR (14.37±2.2 and 11.21±1.50 fold respectively p<0.05; n=3) (Fig. 1C). There was no significant difference in abundance of K978C- compared to WT-CFTR protein. A HS-YFP fluorescence quenching assay was employed to determine the anion transport function of CFTRs with increased abundance (Fig. 1D-F). There was little decrease of HS-YFP fluorescence in the presence of DMSO (vehicle), providing evidence that the K978C GOF mutation did not result in constitutive activity (Fig. 1D). Addition of CFTR activator forskolin to WT-, hCAI-CFTR and h<sup>K978C</sup>-CFTRs transfected HEK293T cells produced a decrease in HS-YFP fluorescence (Fig. 1E). h<sup>K978C</sup>-CFTR displayed significantly greater maximal rate of I<sup>-</sup> entry compared to hCAI-CFTR



(0.3 mM/s and 0.23 mM/s, respectively;  $p < 0.05$ ;  $n = 3$ ), and WT-CFTR (0.06 mM/s,  $p < 0.001$ ,  $n = 3$ ) (Fig. 1G, Fig. S1). Prior exposure of hCAI-CFTR to potentiator VX770 increased quenching of HS-YFP fluorescence ( $n = 3$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) producing a similar maximal rate of  $I^-$  entry to h<sup>K978C</sup>-CFTR (Fig. 1F and G). WT maximal rate of iodide entry was also increased >2-fold ( $0.057 \pm 0.011$  mM/s to  $0.15 \pm 0.012$  mM/s,  $p < 0.01$ ;  $n = 3$ ) (S1) though this remained lower than hCAI-CFTR or h<sup>K978C</sup>-CFTR (0.15 mM/s, 0.30 mM/s and 0.32 mM/s respectively,  $p < 0.05$ ;  $n = 3$ ) (Fig. 2G) (Fig. S1).

#### **Protein expression and localisation of CFTR cDNAs in CFBE.**

Transduction of CFBE with all CFTR cDNAs produced distinct CFTR proteins, mature (band C ~170kDa), immature (band B ~140kDa) (Fig. 2A). As expected, hCAI-CFTR produced the most CFTR protein per transduced cell ( $p < 0.001$ ,  $n = 5-7$  from 3 donors). However, h<sup>K978C</sup>-CFTR produced less CFTR protein than WT ( $p < 0.05$ ,  $n = 4-7$  from 3 donors). The abundance of band C was more than 5-fold higher than that of band B, (ratio: 5.1-5.2) across all forms of CFTR ( $p < 0.05$ ,  $n = 4-7$  from 3 donors) except for h<sup>K978C</sup>-CFTR (Fig. 2B). To address potential protein aggregation often associated with high protein yields, we employed two strategies on the h<sup>K978C</sup> transduced cells: we raised the denaturation temperature of the protein lysate to 80°C from 37°C (Fig. S2B) and tested the Triton-X100 insoluble fraction with a stronger detergent, SDS, to detect any trapped protein (Fig. S2). These modifications resulted in further reduction in CFTR band

intensity, suggesting that the protein was not sequestered in aggregates but indeed expressed at a lower level. The amount of GFP in the cell broadly followed the same pattern except that GFP for codon optimized h<sup>K978C</sup>-CFTR was higher than for K978C-CFTR ( $p < 0.05$ ,  $n = 4-7$  from 3 donors) (Fig. S2D).

We then employed CFTR constructs with GFP fused to the CFTR N-terminus to further investigate protein localisation in F508del/F508del CFBE transduced with BMI-1 (CFBE BMI-1). CFBE BMI-1 are functionally similar to primary CFBE but have extended proliferative capacity<sup>27</sup>. This enabled reproducible acquisition of fluorescent images and fluorescence recovery after photobleaching (FRAP) data across cell passages. WT and K978C-CFTR GFP fluorescence were clearly localised to the periphery of the cell, consistent with membrane localisation (Fig. S2E). hCAI-CFTR exhibited increased membrane and intracellular fluorescence (Fig 2C, Fig. S2E). h<sup>K978C</sup>-CFTR was identified throughout the cell and blebbing, a characteristic marker of cell apoptosis was also observed (white arrows: Fig. 2C)<sup>28</sup>. FRAP was used to determine if the GFP-linked proteins displayed increased free, rapid diffusion characteristic of a non-membrane bound protein (Fig. 2D, Fig. S2F). h<sup>K978C</sup>-CFTR displayed the characteristics of a non-membrane bound protein unlike WT-, K978C- and hCAI-CFTRs ( $p < 0.001$ ,  $n = 8-10$ ), (Fig. 2E and F, Fig. S2F).

**Definition of models used to investigate CFTR function in primary CF bronchial epithelial cells.**

Male (XY) or female (XX) donor CFBE or NHBE were isolated from bronchial regions of CF and non-CF lungs, counted and mixed at 10%, 20%, 50% and 75% (NHBE:CFBE) as represented (Fig. 3A). Markers of epithelial differentiation including cilia ( $\alpha$ -tubulin) and F-actin structure associated with tight junctions, visualized by phalloidin, were present in all mixed-cultures (only data from 50:50 mix is shown in Fig. 3B). The final percentage of NHBE:CFBE in the co-cultures, as analyzed by droplet digital PCR for AMEL-X or AMEL-Y, was different to the original seeding percentage. This appeared to be donor-specific and independent of the CF mutation or whether the donor was male or female (Fig. 3C).

The CFTR variants were introduced into CF cells, specifically W1282X/R1162X or F508del, using a lentiviral vector. These CFTR variants were positioned upstream of a Green Fluorescent Protein (GFP) and were separated by a self-cleaving T2A peptide. This setup allowed for an efficient analysis of the transduction process (Figure 3D). Transduced CFBE maintained CFTR transgene expression for 3-4 weeks and differentiated ciliated cells were present (Fig. 3E). However, the % final transduced cells were reduced from the % seeded transduced cells, indicating a loss of transgene expression over time or a selective pressure against transduced cell

survival/proliferation compared to non-transduced cells (Fig. 3F). All downstream functional analyses were measured against the final NHBE percentage in mixed cultures and the final percentage of CFTR-transduced CFBE.

**CFTR-dependent anion transport is associated with CFTR in NHBE:CFBE co-cultures and with K978C-CFTR, but not codon-optimized forms of CFTR in transduced CFBE.**

We investigated bioelectric properties of NHBE:CFBE co-cultures and transduced CFBE cells in the presence of CF sputum (Fig. 4A and B). Responses to amiloride, forskolin, CFTR<sub>inh</sub>172 and UTP provided evidence that functional epithelial Na<sup>+</sup> channels (ENaC), CFTR and calcium-activated chloride channels (CaCC) were present. The summarised data from all donors and transductions showed that short circuit current ( $\Delta I_{sc}$ ) in response to CFTR<sub>inh</sub>172 increased in a linear fashion with % of NHBE in the co-culture ( $R^2=0.91$ ;  $P<0.0001$ ), and with % CF cell transduction of K978C-CFTR, WT-CFTR and hCAI-CFTRs in transduced CFBE (Slopes -1.56, -0.75 and -0.12,  $R^2=0.95$ , 0.93 and 0.57,  $P<0.0001$ ,  $n=8-12$  from 3 donors respectively) (Fig. 4C). Regression analysis indicated that 9.8% transduction of K978C-CFTR and 20.4% of WT-CFTR would be sufficient to restore CFTR mediated  $I_{sc}$  to that of NHBE in the presence of CF sputum ( $17 \mu A/cm^2$ ) (Fig. 4C). However, 16.7% for K978C-CFTR and 34.7% for WT-CFTR would be required to achieve  $I_{sc}$  in NHBE exposed to normal sputum ( $27.6 \mu A/cm^2$ ) (indicative of fully restored function as shown by the dotted lines in Fig. 4C and Fig. S3A). Similar correlations were

observed with basal and forskolin-sensitive  $I_{sc}$  (Fig. S4A and C). However, % final transduction with h<sup>K978C</sup>-CFTR was poorly correlated with these measurements. Further analysis demonstrated that transduction of K978C-CFTR amplified CFTR<sub>inh172</sub>  $\Delta I_{sc}$  >2-fold when compared to WT-CFTR (Fig. 4D). hCAI and h<sup>K978C</sup> did not significantly increase CFTR<sub>inh172</sub>  $\Delta I_{sc}$  compared to GFP-only transduced CFBE (Fig. 4D). Amiloride-sensitive  $I_{sc}$  and UTP stimulated  $I_{sc}$  did not correlate with % NHBE (Fig. S3C and E) or % final transduction with any variants of CFTR in CFBE (Fig. S4B and D), suggesting that this effect was specific to CFTR.

The lack of function associated with hCAI-CFTR was counterintuitive considering the increased abundance of membrane localized protein generated in both HEK293T and CFBE cells compared to WT-CFTR. However, there is evidence that overexpression of CFTR can result in basolateral expression of CFTR, reducing transepithelial electrical resistance (TEER) and impeding vectorial ion transport in physiological conditions <sup>11</sup>. Consistent with this hypothesis, transduction with hCAI-CFTR caused a significant decrease in TEER compared to WT-CFTR ( $p < 0.05$ ,  $n = 8-12$  from 3 CF donors) (Fig. 4E and Fig. S4E). Furthermore, we implemented an artificial basolateral to apical  $Cl^-$  gradient in the Ussing chamber to assess if hCAI-CFTR transduced CFBE were able to facilitate  $Cl^-$  movement. In the presence of the  $Cl^-$  gradient, activation of CFTR by addition of forskolin produced a  $\Delta I_{sc}$  surpassing that of WT-CFTR (~5.8 fold) and this current was CFTR dependent as it was fully inhibited by CFTR<sub>inh172</sub> (Fig. 4F).

### **K978C-CFTR more effectively restored ASL hydration in CFBE than WT-CFTR.**

A crucial aim of CF therapy is to restore hydration to the CF airway. Therefore, we carried out the well described ASL height assay across the mixed-cultures and transduced CF cells in the presence of CF sputum<sup>26</sup>. As a benchmark for the successful restoration of CFTR function, we once again referred to the results obtained from NHBE cells in the presence of normal lung sputum.

ASL height increased with the % transduction of CFBE with either K978C-CFTR or WT-CFTR ( $1.31 \pm 0.53 \mu\text{m}/\%$  final transduced and  $0.93 \pm 0.50 \mu\text{m}/\%$  final transduced) ( $p < 0.05$ ,  $n = 6-8$  from 3 CF donors respectively) (Figures 5A, 5B, Fig. S5A and Videos S2-6). ASL height did not increase with transduction of codon-optimised forms of CFTR the presence of CF sputum (hCAI:  $0.17 \pm 0.22 \mu\text{m}/\%$  final transduced, h<sup>K978C</sup>:  $0.04 \pm 0.06 \mu\text{m}/\%$  final transduced). Interestingly, in the presence of CF sputum % NHBE of the co-cultures also had no effect on ASL height:  $0.08 \pm 0.07 \mu\text{m}/\%$  final) (Fig. 5B).

The change in ASL height was greatest with transduction of K978C-CFTR at ~1.6 fold more than WT-CFTR (Fig. 5C). While we observed a trend towards an increase in ASL height following the stimulation of CFTR with VIP, this increase did not reach statistical significance under any condition when CF sputum was present (see Figure 5D and Figure S5B)<sup>26</sup>. Only NHBE in the

presence of normal lung sputum produced a significant increase in ASL height following VIP stimulation (from  $8.51 \pm 3.27 \mu\text{m}$  to  $16.51 \pm 9.41 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ;  $n = 9$ ).

ASL pH levels were restored to physiological levels (7.35) in a similar manner with 13.0% final transduction of K978C-CFTR ( $n = 8$  from 3 donors) and 18.7% WT-CFTR ( $n = 11$  from 3 donors) (Fig. 5E and Fig. S5C and D) suggesting  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  secretion through CFTR was also facilitated. Interestingly, hCAI-CFTR and h<sup>K978C</sup>-CFTR also appeared to increase ASL pH compared to GFP only transduced CFBE, albeit less effectively than K978C- or WT CFTR.

## Discussion

The aim of this research was to determine if use of codon optimized or GOF forms of CFTR could improve the efficacy of CF gene therapy in a physiologically relevant airway model that included CF sputum.

As previously reported, in HEK293T cells, CFTR protein abundance from codon optimised cDNAs was greatly increased compared to WT-CFTR<sup>18</sup>. The replacement of lysine to cysteine in both K978C-CFTR and h<sup>K978C</sup>-CFTR decreased protein expression, similar to that reported for G551D/K978C compared to G551D expression in HEK293T cells<sup>21</sup>. The decreased CFTR expression in K978C-CFTR and h<sup>K978C</sup>-CFTR may be linked to altered cellular homeostasis

due to their enhanced activity, potentially impacting protein synthesis or degradation. Dysregulated ion transport or protein folding can induce cellular stress and alter protein levels<sup>28–30</sup>. Further research is needed to clarify this relationship. The halide transport function of the CFTR variants correlated with protein abundance and the presence of the K978C mutation. K978C is hypothesised to destabilise the inactive state of CFTR and lead to a 2-fold increase in open probability ( $P_o$ ) of the channel<sup>21,31</sup>. Interestingly, pre-treatment of hCAI-CFTR with the CFTR activator VX770 increased activity to the same level as h<sup>K978C</sup>-CFTR. VX770 is predicted to induce a conformational change to stabilise the open state of CFTR<sup>23,32</sup> increasing  $P_o$  of WT-CFTR by ~2 fold<sup>33,34</sup>, a phenomenon that we replicated using the HS-YFP quenching assay<sup>35</sup>. Thus, our results support that K978C-CFTR produces a similar outcome to that of CFTR potentiation by VX770.

In CFBE and in the presence of CF sputum, K978C-CFTR was much more effective than other forms of CFTR we studied. K978C-CFTR produced the largest CFTR<sub>inh172</sub> sensitive  $I_{sc}$ , increased ASL height and more effectively restored normal ASL pH than WT-CFTR implying that K978C-CFTR better facilitated  $Cl^-$  and  $HCO_3^-$  secretion from airway cells. Most notably we show that K978C-CFTR transduction of CFBE in the presence of CF sputum restored ASL heights to those observed in NHBE in the presence of normal lung sputum, a desirable aim for genetic therapy research.



In our study, we used a lentiviral load designed to transduce less than 40% of cells, thereby maximizing the likelihood of single transgene incorporation per transduced cell. This allowed for a more effective comparison of the CFTR variants under consideration in our study. We did not measure mRNA levels thus, variations in transgene expression might exist depending on the site of genomic integration. However, this effect appears to be limited as evidenced by the tight correlation of functional activity with the increase in the percentage of transduced cells.

We provide evidence to support the importance of considering the use of CF sputum in pre-clinical models for CF genetic therapy. In the presence of CF sputum there was a tight linear relationship between CFTR<sub>inh172</sub>-sensitive  $I_{sc}$  and % NHBE (endogenous CFTR expression) using the more accurate ddPCR methodology as opposed to initial seeding density. These data contrast to findings where CFTR mediated  $Cl^-$  secretion plateaued with  $\leq 50-75\%$  CFTR expression in other mixed culture methods, interpreted as being limited by transporter driven basolateral  $Cl^-$  entry<sup>9-11</sup>. We previously showed that the presence of CF sputum compared to normal sputum lowered CFTR-dependent  $I_{sc}$  in NHBE cultures<sup>26</sup>. Thus, CFTR<sub>inh172</sub>-sensitive  $I_{sc}$  may not be limited by basolateral  $Cl^-$  in this circumstance. Our previous work also showed that exposure to CF sputum abrogated hydration of the ASL and responses to VIP compared to normal lung sputum<sup>26</sup>. The lack of change in ASL height with % NHBE suggests that endogenous CFTR function alone may not be sufficient to efficiently rehydrate the ASL in the CF luminal environment.

Our data demonstrates that in the presence of CF sputum, approximately 10% final transduction of cells with K978C-CFTR was sufficient to restore ASL hydration to normal levels (NHBE in the presence of normal sputum). This is approximately half that required for WT-CFTR, in line with the previously reported difference in  $P_o$ <sup>9</sup>. Full restoration of 'normal function' *in vitro* has been described with <25% transduction of cells with WT-CFTR<sup>12,13</sup>. It is important to highlight, however, that these estimates and interpretation of 'normal' function apply to airway epithelial cells that were not exposed to sputum.

In the context of *in vivo* studies, it is suggested that only 10% of fully functional CFTR transcripts might be enough to prevent development of lung disease<sup>2</sup>. While there are limitations in accurately modelling both endogenous and exogenous CFTR expression *in vitro*, our data suggests a promising potential to achieve desired levels of CFTR function in a CF scenario with K978C-CFTR.

Our evidence indicated that protein expression and localisation of codon optimised CFTR in CFBE was disrupted leading to a lack of vectorial  $Cl^-$  transport. FRAP can be used to determine the rates of local protein turnover, identify mobile fractions, and demonstrate exchange between cellular compartments or lack thereof in live cells<sup>36</sup>. In this assay, h<sup>K978C</sup>-CFTR displayed free, rapid diffusion, providing evidence that the protein was not membrane bound. hCAI-CFTR was present

in a membrane-associated state, but likely mislocalised as evidenced by a reduction in TEER and the requirement of an artificial  $\text{Cl}^-$  gradient to demonstrate function. Such overexpression of CFTR was shown to perturb polarisation of epithelial cells, localisation of membrane proteins and membrane potential, all of which compromise vectorial  $\text{Cl}^-$  transport<sup>37,38</sup>. For example, CFTR under control of a CMV promoter generated basolateral CFTR<sup>11</sup>. Furthermore, codon optimisation can affect subsequent mRNA secondary structure, co-translational protein folding and interaction with noncoding RNAs which are involved in regulation of CFTR gene expression, none of which were explored in this study<sup>39-41</sup>. Interestingly, the codon optimised variants of CFTR did restore ASL pH but at higher % cellular transduction rates than WT or K978C, a phenomenon also captured in other work<sup>19</sup>. Explanations for this include increased paracellular basolateral to apical movement of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ , due to decreased TEER or increased  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  secretion via other channels that interact with CFTR, for example, SLC26 transporters<sup>19,42</sup>. The exclusive use of a high activity viral SSFV promoter is a notable constraint of our study. As a result, further investigation is required to discern whether the use of lower activity promoters, that are translatable to *in vivo* study, might improve the ability of hCAI-CFTR and h<sup>K978C</sup>-CFTR to restore critical epithelial characteristics in CFBE cells. These include the phosphoglycerate kinase (PGK) and elongation factor 1 $\alpha$  (EF1 $\alpha$ ) promoters, both of which have been employed to drive the expression of codon-optimized CFTR in CFBE with some success<sup>19</sup>.

While this study provided evidence of CFTR expression in transduced cells (Figure 3E), we did not focus on which cell-types expressed the CFTRs. Lentiviral transduction does not impede the differentiation of airway progenitor cells, and all differentiated airway cell types are capable of expressing the introduced transgene<sup>43</sup>. Ciliated and secretory cells are the most numerous cells in NHBE/CFBE. Ionocytes are rare (0.5-1.0%) but express the highest levels of CFTR although the relative contribution of each cell type to epithelial anion transport is still under debate<sup>44,45-47</sup>. Given the cellular transduction efficiencies we observed, functional restoration is likely driven by cell types other than ionocytes. How individual cell transduction modifies CFTR function is a compelling direction for future research to refine genetic therapy strategies for CF.

In conclusion, we have provided proof of principle that GOF variant K978C-CFTR was more effective at restoring anion secretion, ASL hydration and pH to CFBE than WT-CFTR. However, we found that increasing CFTR protein using codon optimisation did not translate to better function in CFBE. Importantly, K987C-CFTR was able to restore function to CFBE even in the presence of CF sputum. These data provide proof of principle that GOF variants may be more effective than codon optimised forms of CFTR for CF gene therapy.

## Materials and Methods

### **Primary Human Bronchial Epithelial Cell Culture**

CFBE and non-CF primary human bronchial epithelial cells (NHBE) were obtained with ethical approval from the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill Biomedical Review Board (protocol #03 1396). Cells were cultured on permeable supports and maintained at air-liquid interface (ALI) in a modified bronchial epithelial growth medium for 21-28 days<sup>48</sup>. Co-cultures were generated by mixing NHBE and CFBE of different sex (XX or XY) at 10%, 25%, 50% and 75% (non-CF:CF). Cultures were incubated with 20 µl apically applied CF sputum 4 hrs prior to functional experimentation as described<sup>26</sup>. Donor demographics are provided in Table S1. BMI-1 transduced Cystic fibrosis (F508del/F508del) bronchial epithelial cells (CFBE BMI-1) were generously supplied by Professor Stephen Hart (UCL, Institute of Child Health)<sup>27</sup>.

### **Sputum preparation**

Airway sputum samples were obtained as described in University of North Carolina protocol<sup>49</sup>. An ultrasonic nebuliser was filled with 30 ml of 5% hypertonic saline for a 12-min inhalation period. After the 12-min inhalation period subjects underwent a cleansing procedure: gargle and rinse the mouth with water, scrape and clear the back of the throat (to avoid the inclusion of non-airway fluid samples) and blow nose. The subjects were asked to deliver a chesty cough and expectorated the secretions into a sterile specimen jar. This was capped and placed on ice and

stored at -80°C. Donor demographics of induced sputum donors are provided in Table S2 and are reported in Woodall et al., 2021.

For each experiment un-refined sputum samples were thawed on ice and centrifuged at 4000 x g for 20 minutes to remove cells, bacteria and macromolecules. The supernatants were pooled for all downstream experimentation.

### **Droplet Digital PCR**

ddPCR using primers for amelogenin-X isoform (AMELX) and amelogenin- Y isoform (AMELY) and probes with FAM and VIC reporters, respectively (AB-Bioscience, UK), were performed as previously described<sup>50</sup>. Primer sequences are provided in Table S6. FAM and VIC positive (+ve) droplets from each well of the PCR plate were measured and analysed using associated software QuantaSoft. These data are presented normalised with exclusively male cultures (n=10) set at 0% and female (n=10) set at 100%.

### **Immunohistochemistry**

ALI cultures were fixed in 4% PFA, permeabilized (0.1% Triton X-100 in PBS) and blocked with blocking buffer (Table S5), prior to overnight incubation at 4°C with primary antisera ( $\alpha$ -tubulin, GFP) followed by visualization with Alexa Fluor 568 or Alexa Fluor 488. Membranes were

counterstained with phalloidin (4  $\mu\text{g/mL}$ ) and DAPI (2  $\mu\text{g/mL}$ ) for 30 minutes at room temperature. Images were captured using a Leica SP8 confocal microscope with LAS AF (Leica) acquisition software (antisera and fluorophore dilutions and catalogue numbers: Table S3, S4).

### **Electrophysiological measurement**

Transepithelial ion transport was measured using the Ussing chamber technique using symmetrical buffers (Table S5) and the following drugs: amiloride (apical, 100  $\mu\text{M}$ ) to inhibit the epithelial sodium channel (ENaC); forskolin (bilaterally, 10  $\mu\text{M}$ ) to stimulate CFTR; CFTR<sub>inh</sub>172 (apical, 10  $\mu\text{M}$ ) to inhibit CFTR; and UTP (apical, 100  $\mu\text{M}$ ) to stimulate calcium-activated chloride channels, as previously described<sup>26</sup>. For  $\text{Cl}^-$  gradient studies the apical chamber was replaced with  $\text{Cl}^-$  free Ussing Buffer (Table S5). Data were analysed using Acquire and Analysis (version 1.2) software (Physiologic Instruments). All drugs/chemicals were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich.

### **Airway surface liquid (ASL) height /pH measurements**

ASL exposed to CF sputum (CFS) or normal lung sputum (normal lung sputum, 20  $\mu\text{l}$ ) were labelled with 0.5 mg/ml of 10 kDa dextran-tetramethylrhodamine (Life Technologies, USA). Images were obtained before and 60 minutes after addition of basolateral VIP (100nM) to induce CFTR mediated secretion by using a Leica SP8 confocal microscope with a  $\times 63/1.3$  numerical aperture (NA) glycerol immersion lens in XZ-scanning mode as described<sup>26,51</sup>. ASL pH was

measured using Alexa 647 dextran (10  $\mu$ M) and pH-sensitive pHrodo red dextran (10  $\mu$ M) in 20  $\mu$ l CF sputum. After 60-minute incubation at 37 °C in air + 5% CO<sub>2</sub> excitation/emission at 562/592nm and 650/668nm was measured. Apical pH was calculated as the fluorescence ratio pHrodo red dextran: Alexa 647 dextran less background fluorescence from non-labelled ASL and results aligned to a standard curve generated from controls of known pH 6.0-7.5) as described by<sup>52</sup>.

### **CFTR codon optimisation**

The WT-CFTR construct, generously supplied by Stephen Hart, contained the native codons derived from a cDNA clone (GenBank, M28668.1) encoding human CFTR. The Codon optimized versions of CFTR were generously supplied by David Mueller, in which the codons were nearly entirely derived using codons with high codon adaptation index<sup>53</sup> (CAI) values (from [www.jcat.de](http://www.jcat.de)) and named hCAI by the laboratory team that designed it (Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, Rosalind Franklin University)<sup>18</sup>.

### **Site-directed mutagenesis**

Primers containing the nucleotide sequence to alter WT CFTR with the K978C mutation (K978C), hCAI with the K978C mutation (h<sup>K</sup>978C) or for T2A mutagenesis were designed using SnapGene software (Table S6) and synthesised by Sigma Aldrich.



Site directed mutagenesis was carried out on an Eppendorf® Mastercycler® Pro Thermal Cycler using Phusion™ Hot Start II High-Fidelity PCR Master Mix, following manufacturer's protocol. The PCR amplified DNA products were confirmed by sequencing (GENEWIZ®, <https://www.genewiz.com>).

#### **Lentivirus construction and cell transduction**

Second generation lentiviral transfer constructs containing the SFFV promoter upstream of GFP and CFTR. In some constructs, the transgene was separated by a self-cleaving T2A peptide. The construct, packaging plasmid (pMD2.G) and envelop plasmid (pCMVR8.74) were packaged into HEK293T cells via co-transfection with lipofectamine 2000 (Thermofisher)<sup>54</sup>. The day before transduction,  $2.5 \times 10^5$  target cells were seeded onto a collagen coated 6-well plate. Opti-MEM™ supplemented with 8 µg polybrene was mixed with desired volume of harvested lentivirus per well. For viral titre definition, volumes of either 10 µl, 5 µl, 2.5 µl and 1.25 µl of lentiviral suspension were added to this mix. Cells were washed 1x with PBS prior to addition of the transduction mixture. Cells were incubated for 6 hours after which the transduction mix was aspirated and replaced with 2 ml of growth media. Viral titre was measured by quantifying GFP positive cells with flow cytometry on an Attune NxT 2 and analysed with FlowJo software.

Following the methodology suggested by Charrier et al., 2011<sup>55</sup> we employed viral suspensions that transduced fewer than 40% of CFBE cells from each donor (MOI <0.4). This approach was chosen to ensure the integration of a single vector copy per cell, translating to the incorporation of one transgene per cell.

#### **Titre and quantification of transduction efficiency**

For definition of the final % of cells expressing the transgene (% final transduced), cultures were analysed 4 hours prior to functional assays. Cultures were first washed 3x with PBS to remove residual phenol red in growth medium and submerged in Ussing buffer for duration of microscopy analysis. At least 10 images were taken from each well with a Cytation™ 5 - Cell Imaging Multi-Mode Reader at 4x magnification.

Both fluorescent signal and transmitted light were taken for each well. Images were subject to analysis on Image-J with a macro designed specifically for the purpose of quantifying the fluorescent:non-fluorescent cell percentage. The macro converted transmitted light images and fluorescence images from the same XY position to binary masks and allowed for accurate identification of fluorescent signal and non-fluorescent cells. Dead cells were discarded by a size and granulation threshold. Transduction efficiency was calculated with the following equation, where n is the number of images taken per well:

$$\% \text{ Final} = \sum \left( \frac{(\text{GFP positive pixels})}{(\text{GFP positive pixels}) + (\text{total pixels within all cell regions})} \right) \div (0.01n)$$

The results produced from this method were initially verified by flow cytometry analysis of a  $1.5 \times 10^5$  cell sample from their respective wells.

#### **Halide-sensitive yellow fluorescent protein quenching assay**

HEK293T cells were transfected with 100ng pcDNA3.1\_YFP-H148Q/I152L (HS-YFP)<sup>56</sup> and CFTR cDNAs (WT, K978C, hCAI and h<sup>Δ</sup>K978C) (Fig. 2A) using lipofectamine (Thermofisher). At 24 hours post transfection, the medium was replaced with 100  $\mu$ l Standard buffer (Table S5). HS-YFP fluorescence inside the cells was measured using ImageXpress as described in<sup>57</sup>, with a 20 $\times$  objective, and 472/520 nm excitation / emission filters at 28°C. Images were acquired every 2 seconds for 150 seconds. At 20 seconds  $\text{I}^-$  in standard buffer was automatically dispensed into the extracellular medium so that the final concentration of  $\text{I}^-$  in the extracellular medium was 100 mM. At 40 seconds, forskolin was added at a final concentration of 10  $\mu$ M while keeping the concentrations of the other components unchanged. Images were analysed using ImageJ (<http://rsbweb.nih.gov/ij/>). Iodide binding to HS-YFP decreases fluorescence (F), thus  $F/F_{\text{max}}$  (f) is used to quantify  $\text{I}^-$  entry, where the concentration of iodide inside the cells was defined as  $[\text{I}^-]_{\text{in}} = K_{\text{I}} ((1-f) / f)$ <sup>35,57,58</sup>. The binding affinity of  $\text{I}^-$  to HS-YFP,  $K_{\text{I}}$ , was set to 1.9 mM<sup>35,56-58</sup>. CFTR activity was quantified as the maximal rate of  $\text{I}^-$  entry into cells (mM/s)<sup>57,59</sup>

466

**467 Western blot**

468 Cells were lysed in NP-40 Lysis Buffer (Table S5), incubated on ice for 20 minutes then  
469 centrifuged at 15,000g for 20 minutes. Protein concentration was determined by Pierce™ BCA  
470 Protein Assay Kit and 20 µg protein was denatured with 2.5 µl LDS sample buffer and 1 µl  
471 reducing agent (NuPAGE) at 37°C for 30 minutes. Samples were resolved on NuPAGE 4-12%  
472 Bis-Tris Protein Gels with mass standards 10-250 kDa (LI-COR). Proteins were transferred to  
473 Immobilon®-FL PVDF membrane (Millipore). Membranes were blocked in Odyssey® Blocking  
474 Buffer (LI-COR), immunostained with anti-CFTR or anti-α Tubulin followed by IRDye® 800CW  
475 Goat anti-Mouse IgG (LI-COR), visualised and quantified on an Odyssey IR imager (LI-COR)  
476 (Tables S3 and S4)

477

**478 Fluorescence recovery after photobleaching**

479 GFP linked CFTR transduced CFBE BMI-1 were imaged on a Leica SP5 inverted confocal  
480 microscope 63X/1.3 glycerol as described<sup>60</sup>. Regions of interest (ROIs) of 20 pixels were selected  
481 as the point of highest fluorescence of individual cells. The mean fluorescence of 3 scan iterations  
482 (~1 second per iteration) were acquired. ROIs were using 100% transmission of the 488-nm-  
483 wavelength laser and fluorescence recovery after photobleaching (FRAP) was measured for ~70  
484 scan iterations. The fluorescence values were normalised to the initial pre-bleach value (1) and the

value immediately post-bleach (0). The Mobile Fraction ( $M_f$ ) was calculated using the equation:

$$M_f = \left( \frac{F_{end} - F_{post}}{F_{pre} - F_{post}} \right)$$

Pre-FRAP images were used to obtain mean fluorescence values from the intracellular region of the cell. At least 10 regions of interest (ROI) were measured for each cell. Ratio of mean intracellular to mean peripheral (2.5  $\mu$ m from and including the most distal point of fluorescence of each cell) fluorescence (RFU) were obtained using NIS-Elements software (Figure S2C).

## Statistics

Normally distributed data were analysed using ANOVA followed by Tukey's test or unpaired t-test with Welch's correction. Paired t tests were applied to samples from the same donor but subject to different treatments. Non-parametric equivalents (Mann-Whitney test, Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's multiple comparisons test) were used when data were not normally distributed. Data are shown as individual points and/or mean  $\pm$  standard deviation. For linear regression, the coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ) and whether the slope significantly differed from zero are presented. ns: no significant difference. Significant differences are indicated with \*:  $p < 0.05$ ; \*\*:  $p < 0.01$ ; \*\*\*:  $p < 0.001$ . Data analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism v9.1.0 (GraphPad Software).

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## **Keywords**

Cystic fibrosis, gene therapy, CFTR, airway epithelium

## **Author Contributions**

DB and MW conceived the idea. MW and HA carried out the experimental work. RT and RL provided resources and supervised MW. SP, PV and JC provided resources and helped perform

assays. DB/SH supervised MW and edited manuscript. DB and MW carried out analyses, wrote and edited the manuscript.

#### **Declaration of Interests**

The authors have no conflicts of interests to declare

#### **Data Availability Statement**

The experimental data that support the findings of this study are available in Figshare with the identifiers <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.23915565.v1>, <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.23907711.v1>, <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.23907726.v1>. Additional image sets are available on request from the corresponding author.

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## Figure legends

**Figure 1. Impact of CFTR cDNAs on protein production and function in transfected HEK293T cells.** (A)(i) Illustrations representing each CFTR variant: wild type (blue), K978C mutation (purple), high codon adaptation index CFTR (cyan; hCAI), and hCAI carrying the K978C mutation (pink; h<sup>K978C</sup>). (A)(ii) Schematic representation of halide-sensitive YFP (HS-YFP) quenching assay: HEK293T cells co-transfected with HS-YFP and CFTR variants. CFTR activators induce facilitated anion movement through CFTR channels, leading to HS-YFP fluorescence quenching. (B) Western blot of protein extracts from HEK293T cells co-transfected with HS-YFP and CFTR cDNAs. CFTR bands C and B (green) and HS-YFP (red) are indicated. Molecular weight markers (red) are displayed on the left side of the blot. (C) Quantification of CFTR protein abundance, expressed as the mean of (CFTR (bands C + B)/ HS-YFP) normalized to WT for standardization between blots. Data are represented as mean  $\pm$  SD. Differences were compared by one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post hoc tests. Significantly different \*:  $p < 0.05$ ; \*\*:  $p < 0.01$ ;  $n = 3$ . (D) HS-YFP fluorescence quenching over time in HEK293 cells transfected with HS-YFP alone or co-transfected with CFTR cDNAs under different conditions: DMSO (vehicle) (D), Forskolin (FSK) (E), and FSK plus the CFTR potentiator VX770 (FSK+VX770) (F), all added at timepoint 0. The maximal rate of I<sup>-</sup> influx ( $\Delta[I^-]/\Delta t$ ) is

summarized for CFTR cDNA and conditions in (G). Data are represented as mean  $\pm$  SD along with individual data points. CFTR function was compared by two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post hoc tests. Significantly different \*:  $p < 0.05$ ; \*\*:  $p < 0.01$ ; \*\*\*:  $p < 0.001$ ,  $n = 3$ .

**Figure 2. CFTR protein expression and localization in CFBE.** (A) Representative western blot of soluble protein fraction from differentiated CFBE cultures transduced with CFTR cDNAs or GFP alone (as labeled). Blots are probed with anti-CFTR (CFTR 596) and anti-GFP. CFTR bands C and B (green), GFP (red), and molecular weight markers (red) are displayed. (B) Summary of the relative fluorescence units (RFU) for CFTR bands C and B in relation to the % final transduction, normalized to WT for each CFTR cDNA. Data are shown as mean  $\pm$  SD with individual data points ( $n = 4-7$  from 3 donors). Treatments were compared by two-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc analyses; Significantly different \*\*:  $p < 0.01$ ; \*\*\*:  $p < 0.001$ . RFU ratio of bands B:C are displayed below the graph. (C) Representative confocal live images (x60, excitation 488 nm/emission 507 nm) of CFBE BMI-1 cells transduced with GFP linked to CFTR cDNAs or GFP alone. Cell blebbing is indicated with white arrows, with a 50  $\mu\text{m}$  scale bar displayed. (D) Schematic detailing FRAP protocol, indicating stages of Pre-bleach, Post-bleach, and End within the region of interest (ROI), represented by the white square. (E) Kinetic plot showcasing fluorescence (F) change over time within an ROI on the cell periphery. The bleach point is marked with an arrow. (F) Summary of the mobile fraction (Mf) ratio for different GFP linked CFTRs.

Data are shown as mean  $\pm$  SD with individual data points. Treatments were compared by one-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc analyses; Significantly different \*\*:  $p < 0.01$ ; \*\*\*:  $p < 0.001$ . (n=8-13 from 1 CFBE BMI-1 donor: F508del/F508del)

**Figure 3. Characterisation of primary differentiated NHBE:CFBE mixed culture and CFBE cell models.** (A) Schematic diagram of the NHBE:CFBE mixed culture model. CFBE and NHBE from male (XY) or female (XX) donors were combined in ratios of 10%, 25%, 50% and 75% NHBE:CFBE and seeded onto semipermeable membranes. (B) Confocal microscope images (Maximal projection) of a representative 50% NHBE:CFBE, stained with phalloidin (red; F-actin), Anti- $\beta$ -tubulin (yellow; cilia), DAPI (blue; nuclei) and composite image. Scale bars are depicted in the bottom right-hand corner. (C) Relative proportions of AMELX and AMELY regions in genomic DNA from three different mixes of male (M) and female (F) NHBE or CF donors post-functional analysis, as determined via droplet digital PCR. Data were normalised to values from 100% male or 100% female cultures, samples were run in duplicate (n=28). Each data point represents the mean  $\pm$  SD (some error bars are smaller than the symbol height). (D) Schematic diagram of the lentiviral constructs used for CFTR transduction. (E) Confocal microscope images of GFP CFTR transduced CFBE cultures, immunostained with phalloidin (F-actin; red), anti- $\beta$ -tubulin (cilia; yellow), GFP (transduced cells; green) and composite image with DAPI (blue). (F) Relationship between % seeded transduced cells and % final transduced (4 hours prior to

functional testing) for the different CFTR cDNAs. The ratio of % final transduced to % seeded transduced (% T/% S) for each CFTR is given in a table below the graph.

**Figure 4. CFTR function in primary differentiated NHBE:CFBE mixed culture and CFBE cell models.** (A) Example  $I_{sc}$  traces from NHBE:CFBE and (B) from transduced CFBE (% final transduction for individual CFTR variants are given) after incubation with CF Sputum and addition of specific activators and inhibitors of ion transport (as below).  $\Delta I_{sc}$  plotted against % Final NHBE after addition of (C) CFTR<sub>inh</sub>172 (10  $\mu$ M) and summarised in (D) as  $\Delta I_{sc}$  per % final NHBE or % transduced cells in the culture ( $\Delta I_{sc}/\%$  Final). The dotted horizontal lines in C marks ASL height in 100% NHBE cells in the presence of normal lung sputum (Healthy) or presence of CF sputum. (E) TEER/% final transduced for WT-CFTR and hCAI-CFTR. Treatments were compared by unpaired t test; Significantly different \*  $p < 0.05$  (n=8-12 from 3 CF donors). (F)  $I_{sc}$  traces from CFBE transduced with WT- or hCAI-CFTRs or GFP alone before and after addition of a basolateral to apical  $Cl^-$  gradient and specific activators and inhibitors of ion transport, amiloride (10  $\mu$ M), forskolin (10  $\mu$ M), CFTR<sub>inh</sub>172 (10  $\mu$ M), and UTP (10  $\mu$ M). All drugs were added apically with exception of forskolin which was added bilaterally. Direction of chloride concentration gradients (using physiological  $Cl^-$  and  $Cl^-$  free buffers) are indicated and the duration of application are presented as grey bars.  $\Delta I_{sc}/\%$  final transduced for in response to forskolin and CFTR<sub>inh</sub>172 are given in a table below the graph.

**Figure 5. K978C-CFTR more efficiently restores ASL height and pH to differentiated CFBE than WT CFTR**

(A) Representative XZ images of airway surface liquid (ASL) labelled with dextran (red layer) overlying transduced CFBE following incubation with CF sputum. Transduced cells express cytosolic GFP (green). (B) ASL height, after exposure to CF sputum and stimulation with vasoactive intestinal peptide (VIP), plotted against % final NHBE or % final transduced CFBE for CFTR variants. Dotted lines show linear regression for each CFTR variant (n=8-11 from 3 CF donors). The dotted horizontal line marks ASL height in 100% NHBE cells in the presence of normal lung sputum. Labelled arrows show % final transduction of K978C-CFTR required to reach this value. (C) Summary of ASL height in  $\mu\text{m}$  per % final NHBE or % final transduced CFBE in culture ( $\mu\text{m}/\% \text{Final}$ ) after exposure to CF sputum and VIP. Data are shown as mean  $\pm$  SD with individual data points (n=6-13 from 3 CF donors and 6 non-CF donors). (D) ASL height measured exposed to CF sputum or NHBE exposed to normal lung sputum before (-) or after (+) treatment with VIP. Data are shown as mean  $\pm$  SD with individual data points (n=6-15 from 3 CF donors and 6 non-CF donors). Mixed-effects analysis with Sidak's post hoc analyses was used to compare -VIP to +VIP, significantly different  $^{\dagger\dagger\dagger}$ :  $p < 0.001$ . (E) ASL pH per final % of NHBE or CFTR transduction in culture ( $\Delta\text{pH}/\% \text{Final}$ ). Data are shown as mean  $\pm$  SD with individual data points for n=8-11 from 3 CF donors. Treatments were compared by two-way ANOVA with

817 Tukey's post hoc analyses; significantly increased as compared to CFBE are shown \*:  $p < 0.05$ . \*:  $p < 0.05$ ; \*\*:  $p < 0.01$ ; \*\*\*:  $p < 0.001$

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Figure 1

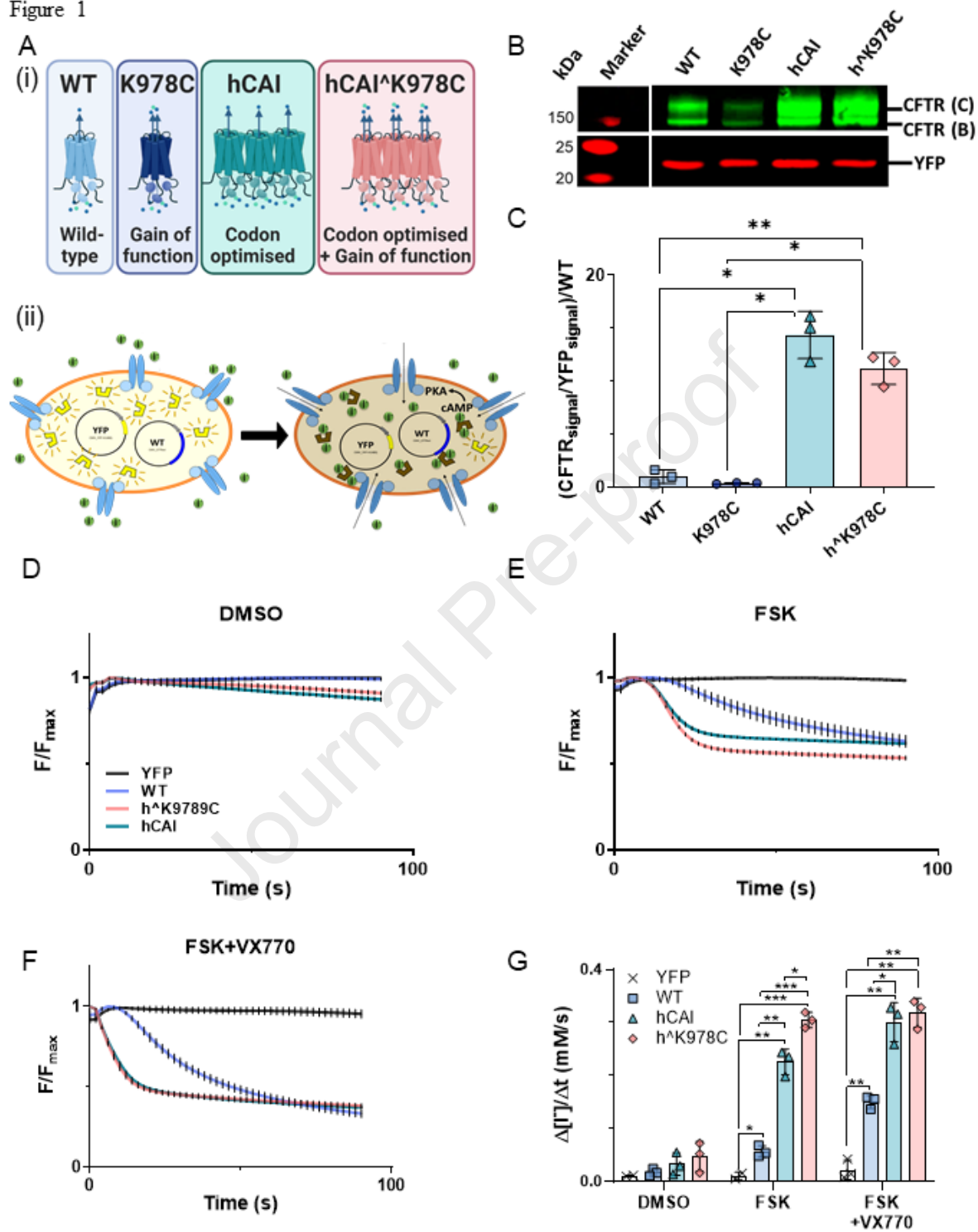




Figure 2

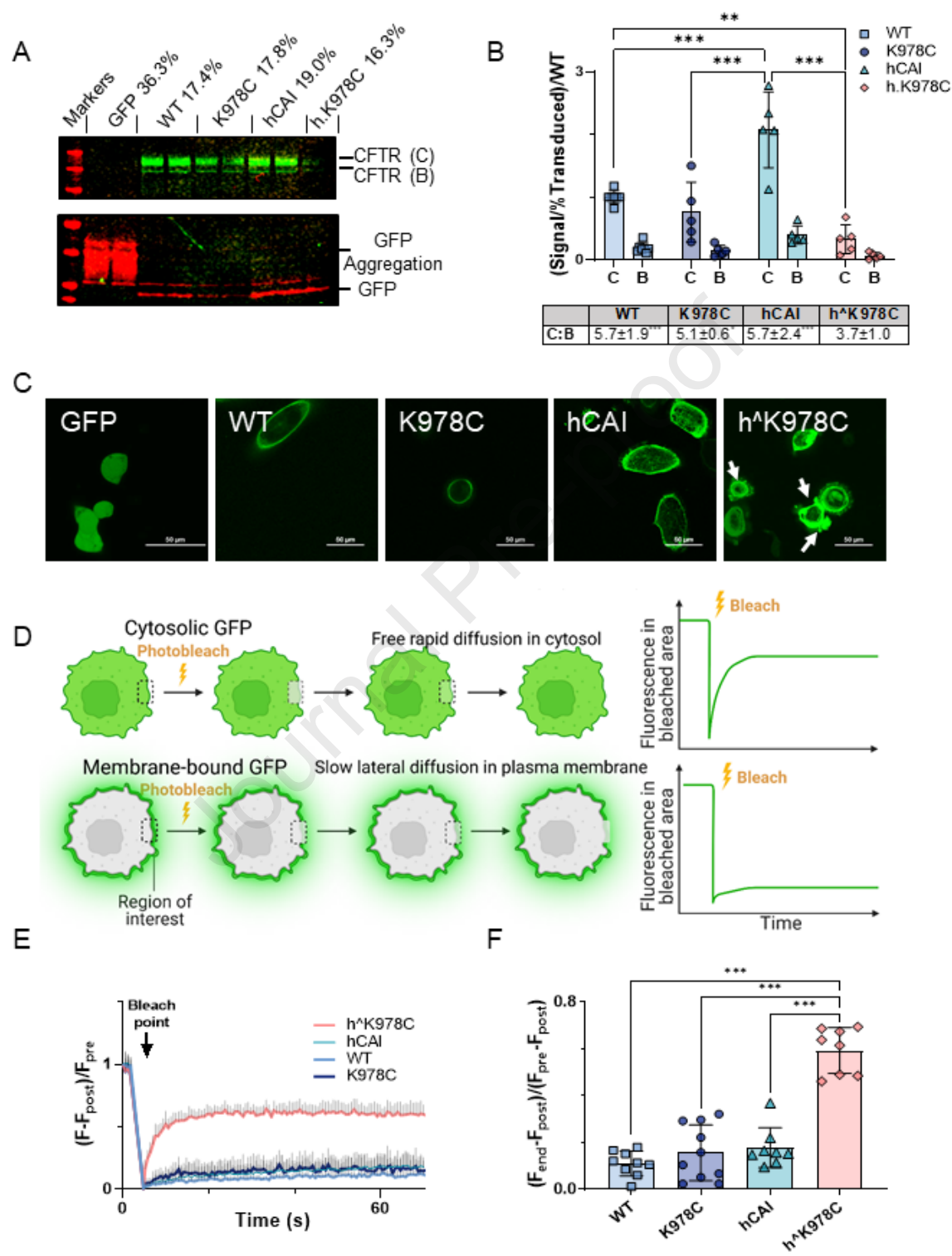


Figure 3

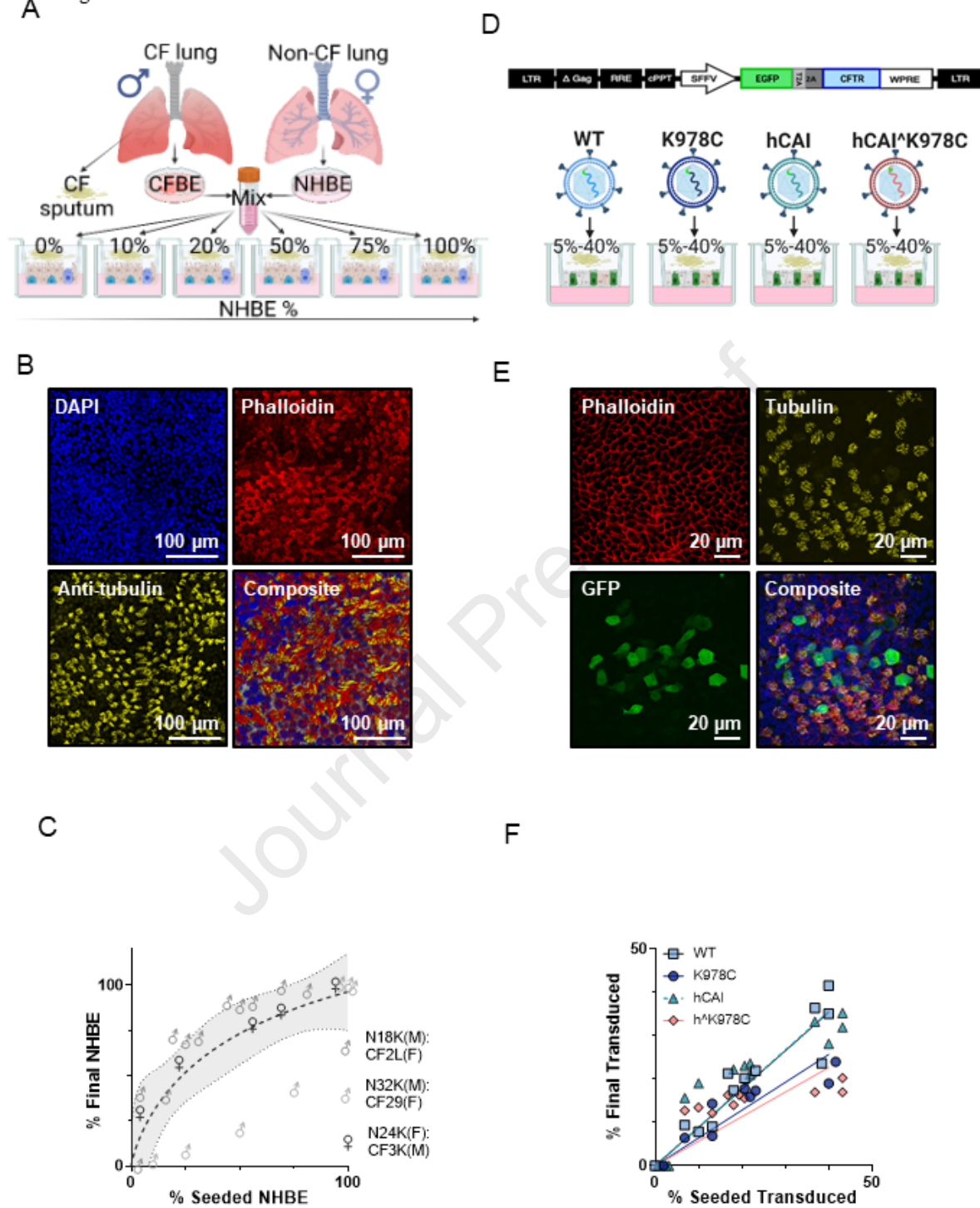


Figure 4

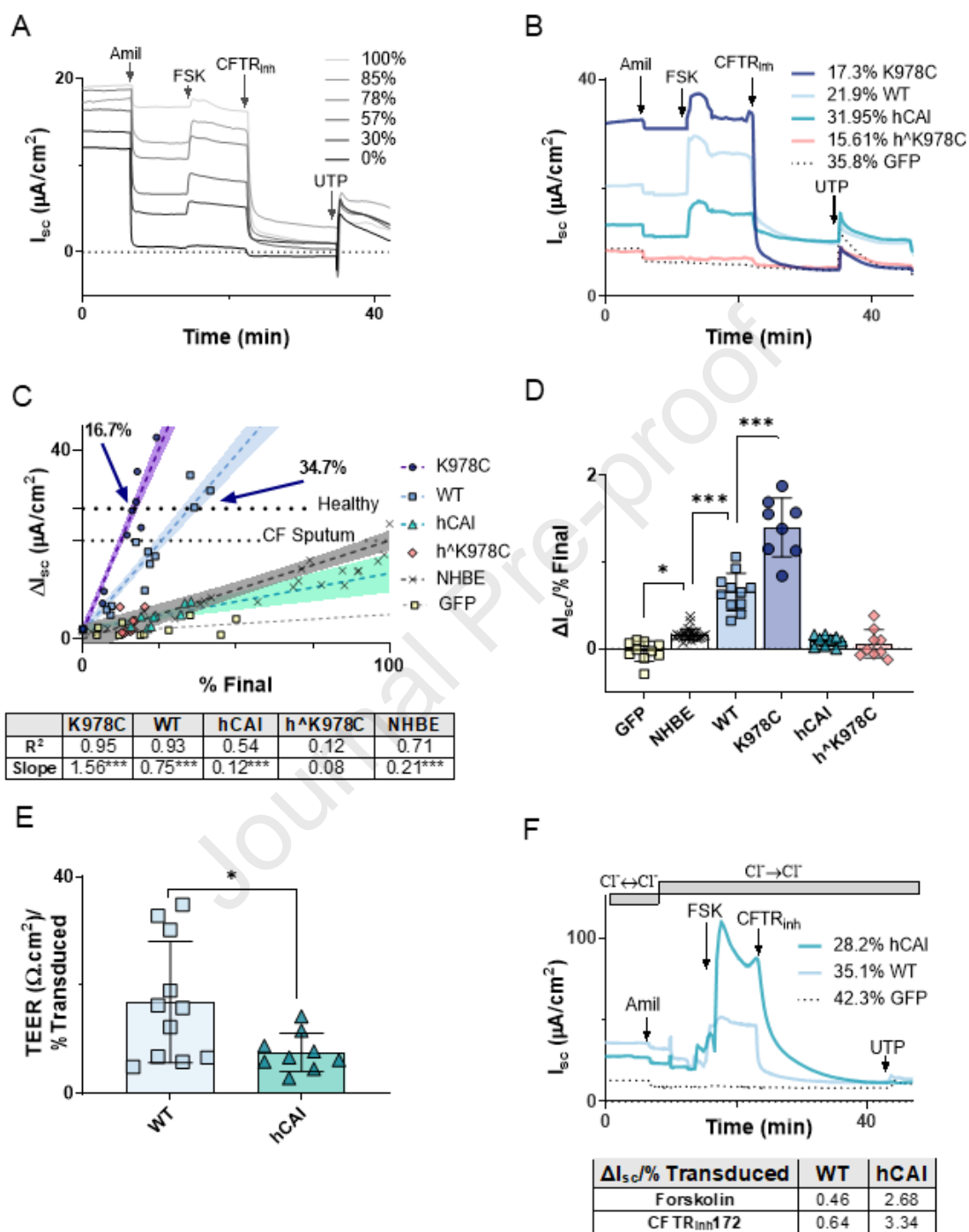
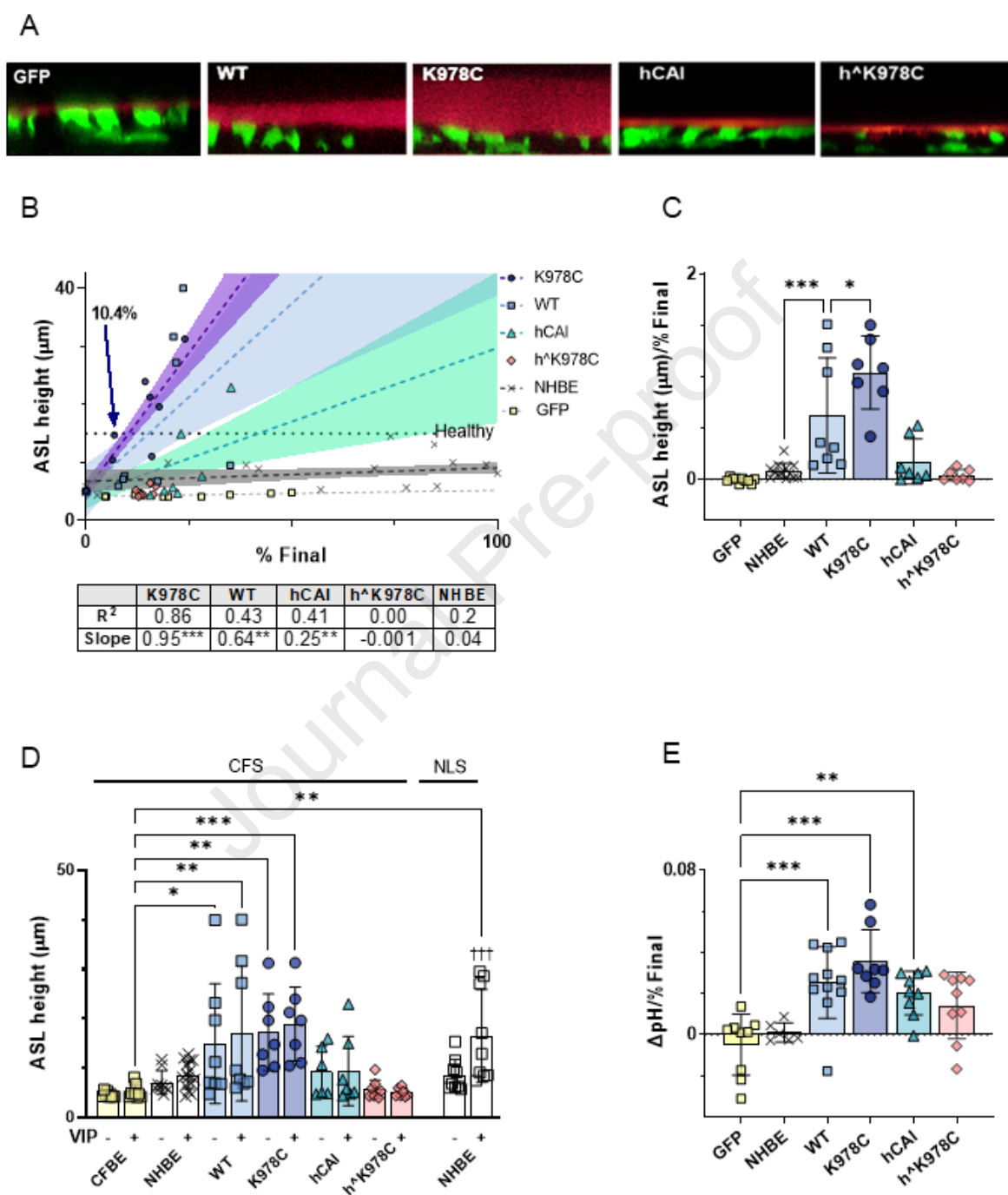


Figure 5



Baines and colleagues show that viral delivery of cystic fibrosis transmembrane regulator (CFTR) gain of function variant cDNA (K978C-CFTR) to cystic fibrosis bronchial epithelial cells (CFBE), in the presence of CF sputum, was more effective at restoring anion secretion, ASL hydration and pH than wild type CFTR.