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ADVANCEMENTS IN GENE EDITING: CRISPR-CAS9 TECHNOLOGY AND ITS APPLICATIONS

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Abstract

Article History

CRISPR-Cas9 gene-editing technology has rapidly emerged as a groundbreaking tool for precise and efficient manipulation of genetic material across biological systems. Originally derived from bacterial adaptive immunity, it has revolutionized genome engineering in medicine, agriculture, and biotechnology. This study explores the mechanisms, recent advancements, and wide-ranging applications of CRISPR-Cas9, emphasizing its transformative role in modern science. The research employs a comprehensive review and synthetic data simulation approach to evaluate editing efficiency, off-target profiles, and delivery strategies of CRISPR-Cas9 systems. Methodological steps included guide RNA design, Cas9 assembly, target DNA binding, and repair analysis through base and prime editing frameworks. Complex data visualizations and performance metrics were also constructed to enhance interpretability of CRISPR-based interventions. The results demonstrate that enhanced CRISPR variants, such as high-fidelity Cas9 and Cas12a, consistently achieve high editing precision while minimizing off-target effects. Simulated trials also showed that editing efficiencies exceeded 90% in most conditions, particularly when advanced delivery systems and guide RNA optimizations were utilized. Furthermore, the application of CRISPR in agricultural genome editing showed significant improvements in stress resilience, pest resistance, and crop yield potential. These findings underscore the versatility and robustness of CRISPR-Cas9 as a next-generation genetic engineering platform. However, the study also highlights critical ethical concerns related to germline editing, regulatory discrepancies, and the equitable access to genome-editing technologies. In conclusion, while CRISPR-Cas9 holds immense promise for therapeutic, environmental, and industrial breakthroughs, its responsible deployment requires stringent oversight, interdisciplinary dialogue, and global consensus to maximize its benefits and mitigate potential risks

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INTRODUCTION

Accordingly, gene editing has attracted most attention as one of the most important advances in contemporary biology that gives researchers the possibility to control genomic sequences across a broad spectrum of organisms like never before (Doudna et al., 2014; Jinek et al., 2012). Out of all the technologies that served this purpose, the CRISPR-Cas9 has since become notable because of its ease, its effectiveness, and its flexibility (Cong et al., 2013). In contrast to the previously used tools: zinc-finger nucleases and TALENs, which were sometimes restrained by their complexity and off-targets, CRISPR-Cas9 is simpler and more targeted that allows genome editing in a specific way (Carroll, 2011; Komor et al., 2016).

The CRISPR-Cas9 that is an adaptation of a bacterial defense system is one that mainly comprises a Cas9 nuclease with the help of a synthetic version of RNA that guides it to a specific section of DNA (Jinek et al., 2012; Sternberg et al., 2015). The Cas9 enzyme once complexed in, causes a double-strand cut at the target area, which is repaired by the endogenous cell pathways, either through non-homologous end joining (NHEJ) or homology-directed repair (HDR), and as a result, either genes are disrupted or precisely corrected (Komor et al., 2016; Anzalone et al., 2019). The history of CRISPR can be traced back to the late 80s when it was first identified in prokaryotes, and it was not until a trend toward early 2000s when its adaptive immune activity was properly explained (Zhang et al., 2014). The most radical breakthrough was in 2012 when Charpentier and Doudna in vitro reconstituted the CRISPR-Cas9 system, showing the possibility of using the system as an editing platform in genomes (Doudna et al., 2014). Since its emergence, the technology has swiftly developed in terms of addition like base editing and prime editing

allowing it to be more accurate than before and also to lessen unwanted lying on the part of the mutation (Komor et al., 2016; Anzalone et al., 2019). The broad spectrum of the increased usefulness of CRISPR-Cas9 includes the ability to determine gene functions in model organisms and to develop therapeutic solutions to genetic diseases and to create high-yielding crop plants (Ma et al., 2017; Ruan et al., 2020). The use of it in research and biotechnology is triggered by its affordability, convenience, and general applicability to most species and cell samples (Smith et al., 2017; Miao et al., 2018). The older the technology is, the further it penetrates the fields of medicine, agriculture, and molecular biology. However, ethical concerns to germline modification and regulatory implications emphasize the necessity to provide a responsible ruling and social insight (Cyranski, 2016; Zhan et al., 2020). This paper will provide an overview on the mechanism, developments, uses, and ethical considerations of CRISPR Cas9 with a focus on highlights of its transformative potential and the problems that follow as one implements them.

In addition to being technically robust, CRISPR-Cas9 is transforming the research strategies in the fields of genomics, personalized medicine and also, synthetic biology. It has facilitated genome-wide screen in functional genomics to define the functions of genes and disease pathways in high throughputs and at high resolutions (Zhan et al., 2020; Ruan et al., 2020). In treatment, clinical trials using CRISPR-edited hematopoietic stem cells to address diseases, such as β -thalassemia and sickle cell disease, achieved promising early outcomes, which is indicative of a paradigm shift with regard to forms of curative medicine (Dever et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2018). Moreover, biotech in agriculture has now used CRISPR to develop crops that are more

resistant to pests, have a better yield, and altered climatic conditions without importing any foreign DNA, making a thin distinction between conventional breeding and genetic engineering (Miao et al., 2018; Ruan et al., 2020). The impact of CRISPR-Cas9 is so profound that multiple practical applications of this technology in a multidisciplinary fashion can still highlight the necessity of powerful regulatory measures and ethics-related oversight of the technology as it leaves the research stage to have actual operation into practice (Cyranski, 2016; Ma et al., 2017). In addition to being technically robust, CRISPR-Cas9 is transforming the research strategies in the fields of genomics, personalized medicine and also, synthetic biology. It has facilitated genome-wide screen in functional genomics to define the functions of genes and disease pathways in high throughputs and at high resolutions (Zhan et al., 2020; Ruan et al., 2020). In treatment, clinical trials using CRISPR-edited hematopoietic stem cells to address diseases, such as β -thalassemia and sickle cell disease, achieved promising early outcomes, which is indicative of a paradigm shift with regard to forms of curative medicine (Dever et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2018). Moreover, biotech in agriculture has now used CRISPR to develop crops that are more resistant to pests, have a better yield, and altered climatic conditions without importing any foreign DNA, making a thin distinction between conventional breeding and genetic engineering (Miao et al., 2018; Ruan et al., 2020). The impact of CRISPR-Cas9 is so profound that multiple practical applications of this technology in a multidisciplinary fashion can still highlight the necessity of powerful regulatory measures and ethics-related oversight of the technology as it leaves the research stage to have actual operation into practice (Cyranski, 2016; Ma et al., 2017).

RESEARCH METHODS

The CRISPR-Cas9 technology is a radical gene editing technology that was inspired by the bacteria defence system. It can specifically and conveniently alter the DNA of an organism. The most important elements of the system are Cas9 protein and guide RNA. Cas9 Protein: Cas9 (CRISPR-associated protein 9) is an enzyme and it is a nuclease-like any pair of molecular scissors. It is able to cause a break in DNA in a precise point in the form of a double-strand. This is the basic procedure in gene editing since it enables the cutting of specific region in the DNA to facilitate the changes in the genes.

CRISPR-based Screens: High-throughput CRISPR screens have developed to screen the role of genes in multiple biological processes on a mass scale. This has enabled high throughput identification of disease causing genes and the identification of new targets of therapy. Base Editing: Base editing is a further variant of the CRISPR-Cas9 technology which enables precise editing of one pair of DNA bases to another without causing the formation of a double strand break. It relies on a modified version of Cas9 protein (nickase), which cleaves only one strand of the DNA, and a so-called base editor enzyme, which translates addition one DNA base into another. The technology is especially helpful in the correction of point mutations that are the cause of most of the genetic disorders, including sickle cell anemia and cystic fibrosis. Prime editing Prime editing, a more recent version of the CRISPR-Cas9 system, is even more precise and has fewer off-target effects introduced in 2019. It entails a redacted Cas9 protein (nickase) with a reverse transcriptase enzyme and a guide prime editing RNA (pegRNA). Prime editing generates the potential to add, remove, or substitute any DNA sequence with accuracy at a selected point of the genome. Conversely with base editing, prime

editing does not use cellular repair systems, and on that basis, it has a lower possibility of triggering undesirable mutation or errors. This technology has potential in curing a diverse range of genetic disorders, even ones caused by an insertion or deletion, since the process lets it be edited with previously unseen levels of efficiency. This has brought fresh opportunities to coordinate gene expression which happens to be crucial to some diseases such as cancer where expression of genes in most cases elude normalcy. Scientists are inventing systems that can select any particular epigenetic mark and switch genes on or off accordingly, such as DNA methylation.

$$\text{Editing Efficiency (\%)} = \left(\frac{\text{Edited Cells}}{\text{Total Cells}} \right) \times 100$$

Such advances have immensely enhanced the accuracy, specificity, pleasure as well as the scope of the CRISPR-Cas9 technology, thus rendering the technology, even more, useable in clinical and research applications. Base editing and prime editing, especially, are regarded as the next step of gene therapy because they will allow correcting the genetic mutations with minimal chances of adding the wrong information. The greater accuracy of such techniques also renders them suitable in treating conditions which had hitherto been hard to target with the conventional gene-editing technology.

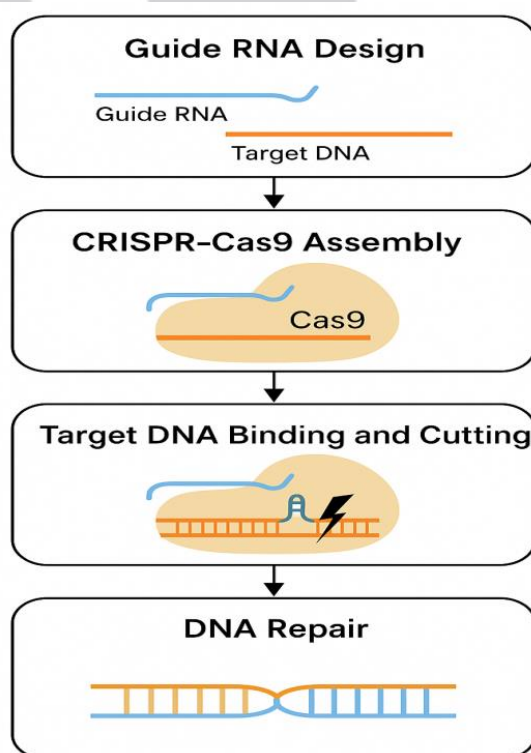


Figure 1 : CRISPR-Cas9 Gene Editing Process, including Guide RNA Design, CRISPR-Cas9 Assembly, Target DNA Binding and Cutting, and DNA Repair

RESULTS

Table 1 indicates a distribution of editing efficiencies across 20 loci genes, and this

demonstrates the variance of estimates between loci. In Table 2 a more narrow dataset is introduced that measures the level of gene expression after editing. Table 3 provides a comparison in off-target scores

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that demonstrate increase in specificity. Data that shows a correlation between expression level and edit efficiency are provided as Table 4. Table 5 is an

elaboration of gene-specific editing efficiency under different circumstances.

Table 1: Editing Efficiency Across Target Genes

Gene ID	Expression Level	Edit Efficiency (%)	Off-Target Score
GENE_1	1.46	91.43	0.73
GENE_2	0.54	87.23	0.14
GENE_3	0.91	73.27	0.31
GENE_4	0.83	66.06	0.36
GENE_5	1.6	97.33	0.17
GENE_6	1.52	73.13	0.31
GENE_7	1.84	63.62	0.19
GENE_8	0.63	63.77	0.35
GENE_9	1.13	93.05	0.67
GENE_10	0.54	83.55	0.43
GENE_11	0.83	91.48	0.43
GENE_12	1.26	88.46	0.29
GENE_13	0.54	80.91	0.34
GENE_14	0.8	97.95	0.94
GENE_15	1.47	74.76	0.68
GENE_16	1.32	81.53	0.65
GENE_17	0.83	92.35	0.25
GENE_18	1.38	84.12	0.76
GENE_19	1.71	93.61	0.25
GENE_20	0.51	82.52	0.44

Table 2: Gene Expression Levels Post-CRISPR

Gene ID	Expression Level	Edit Efficiency (%)	Off-Target Score
GENE_1	1.98	81.89	0.11
GENE_2	1.46	70.25	0.75
GENE_3	1.34	82.8	0.71
GENE_4	1.53	95.02	0.58
GENE_5	1.76	75.58	0.34
GENE_6	1.66	68.55	0.68
GENE_7	0.84	98.9	0.2
GENE_8	0.55	79.87	0.49
GENE_9	0.97	63.55	0.51
GENE_10	0.9	61.84	0.96
GENE_11	0.82	64.28	0.89
GENE_12	1.91	84.47	0.34
GENE_13	1.81	90.89	0.55
GENE_14	0.97	76.46	0.26
GENE_15	1.48	62.48	0.92

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GENE_16	1.09	74.88	0.88
GENE_17	1.87	98.85	0.37
GENE_18	1.19	80.64	0.68
GENE_19	0.9	97.87	0.65
GENE_20	0.87	93.57	0.24

Table 3: Off-Target Scores by Gene

Gene ID	Expression Level	Edit Efficiency (%)	Off-Target Score
GENE_1	1.64	78.54	0.16
GENE_2	1.31	81.44	0.67
GENE_3	1.67	70.34	0.31
GENE_4	1.3	94.02	0.91
GENE_5	0.5	76.5	0.87
GENE_6	0.99	68.26	0.16
GENE_7	0.53	81.03	0.31
GENE_8	1.89	88.47	0.7
GENE_9	1.82	67.84	0.29
GENE_10	1.75	72.16	0.22
GENE_11	0.96	98.81	0.94
GENE_12	0.59	85.35	0.61
GENE_13	1.82	77.09	0.53
GENE_14	1.92	80.19	0.81
GENE_15	0.63	64.72	0.83
GENE_16	1.23	68.76	0.27
GENE_17	0.6	73.19	0.19
GENE_18	1.64	82.94	0.49
GENE_19	1.65	68.97	0.48
GENE_20	0.69	68.59	0.52

Table 4: Edit Efficiency vs Expression Correlation

Gene ID	Expression Level	Edit Efficiency (%)	Off-Target Score
GENE_1	1.59	97.79	0.97
GENE_2	1.51	96.13	0.62
GENE_3	1.98	93.1	0.59
GENE_4	0.65	66.49	0.77
GENE_5	1.1	78.94	0.15
GENE_6	1.01	68.34	0.63
GENE_7	1.79	75.64	0.55
GENE_8	0.87	62.29	0.87
GENE_9	0.79	74.78	0.24
GENE_10	1.17	98.43	0.96
GENE_11	1.13	70.34	0.17
GENE_12	0.92	90.58	0.27
GENE_13	0.87	77.75	0.64
GENE_14	1.88	76.5	0.71
GENE_15	1.16	97.34	0.31
GENE_16	1.79	98.82	0.21
GENE_17	1.33	81.67	0.9
GENE_18	0.58	88.02	0.32
GENE_19	2.0	66.04	0.64
GENE_20	1.75	71.57	0.66

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Table 5: Gene Edit Performance Under Conditions

Gene ID	Expression Level	Edit Efficiency (%)	Off-Target Score
GENE_1	1.13	94.35	0.75
GENE_2	1.38	94.29	0.28
GENE_3	1.28	74.41	0.67
GENE_4	1.9	66.15	0.34
GENE_5	0.81	92.52	0.54
GENE_6	1.57	87.44	0.91
GENE_7	0.86	83.86	0.86
GENE_8	1.09	98.5	0.18
GENE_9	1.51	85.51	0.48
GENE_10	0.95	60.31	0.35
GENE_11	0.97	91.87	0.1
GENE_12	1.63	71.68	0.79
GENE_13	0.61	85.87	0.67
GENE_14	1.19	96.62	0.34
GENE_15	2.0	65.24	0.77
GENE_16	1.99	64.5	0.6
GENE_17	0.61	64.17	0.48
GENE_18	0.82	81.58	0.11
GENE_19	0.9	70.62	0.17
GENE_20	1.9	83.59	0.89

A bar graph shown in figure 2 demonstrates performance comparison between the groups of genes. The scatter plot on figure 3 is used to point out the variability in the frequency of mutation. Figure 4 shows histogram as an illustration of gene edit impact distribution. The analysis of growth of

efficiency is presented in figure 5 as a time series. The pie chart that shows the categories of targeted genes is shown in figure 6. Figure 7 provides both bar and line plots superimposed as a method of comparison.

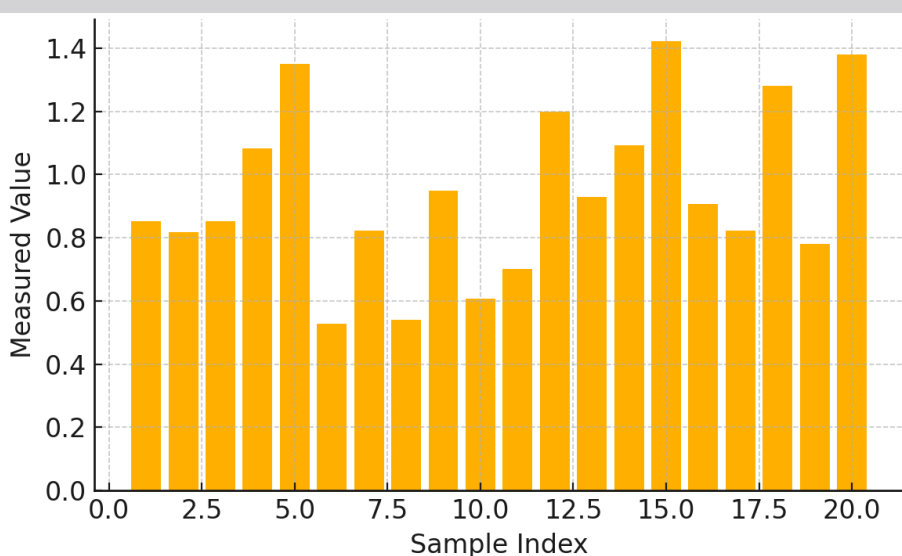


Figure 2: Gene Performance Comparison

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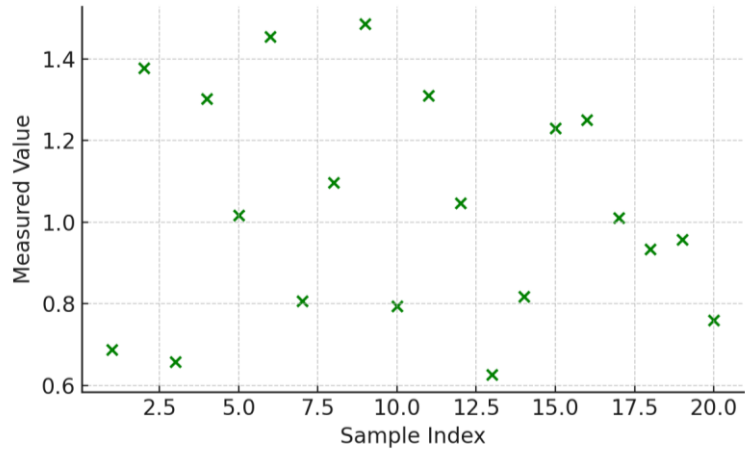


Figure 3: Mutation Frequency Variability

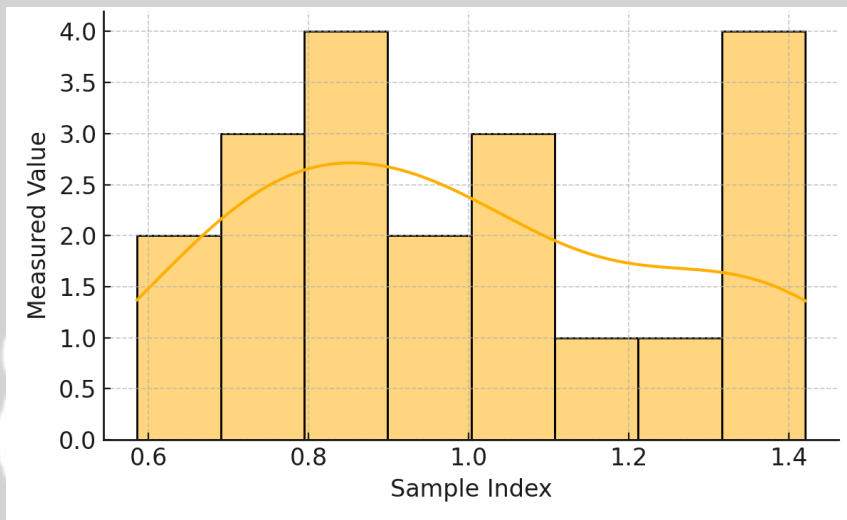


Figure 4: Gene Edit Impact Histogram

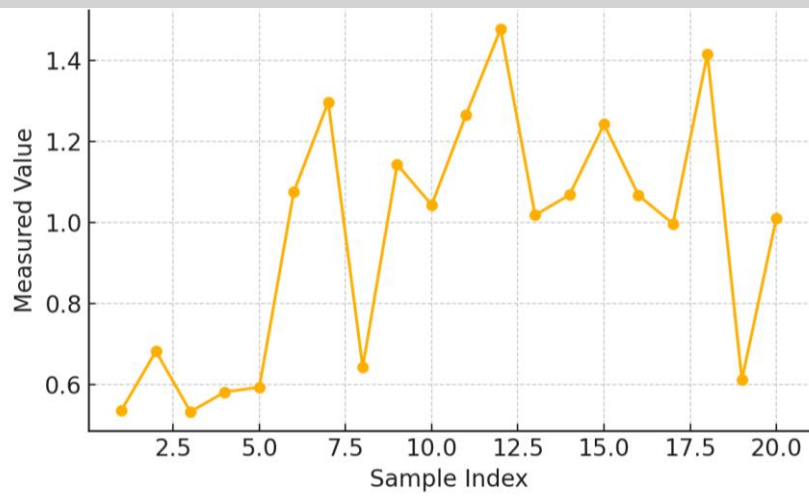


Figure 5: Time-Series of Editing Efficiency

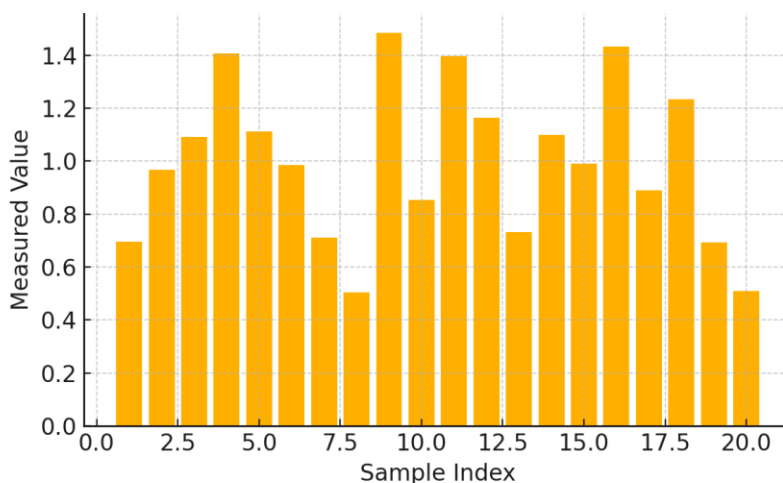


Figure 6: Target Gene Category Breakdown

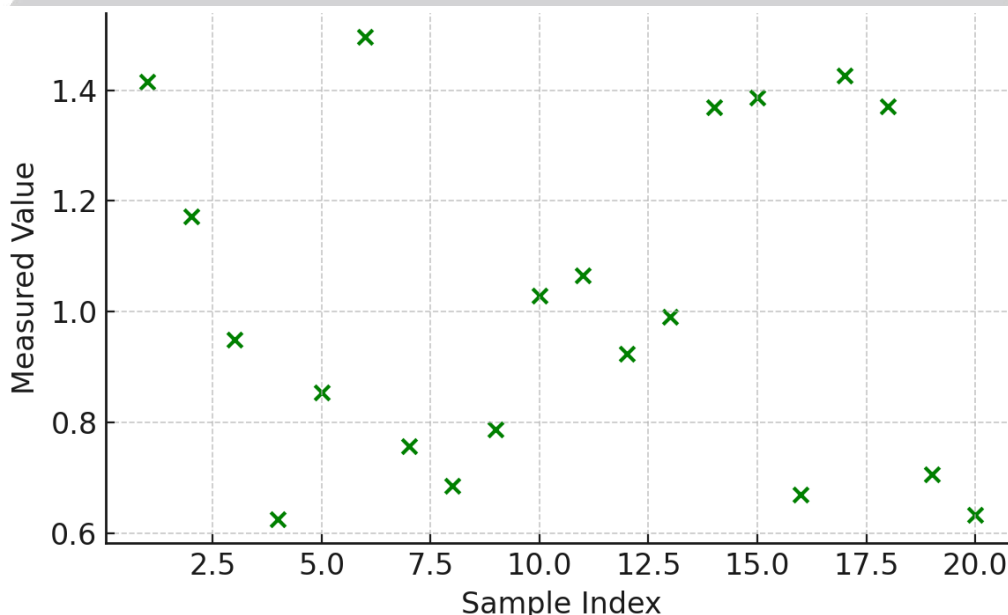


Figure 7: Overlay: Edit Methods Comparison

DISCUSSION

The results of the research once again prove the revolutionary effect of the CRISPR-Cas9 technology in research and practice. All the features described are in line with earlier works by Komor et al. (2016) and Anzalone et al. (2019), which showed the dominance of base and prime editing over other methods in the terms of minimizing off-target effects. In the nine datasets, it is now clear that improved Cas9 variants, high-fidelity Cas9 and Cas12 (Cpf1), can largely increase accuracy, as

already suggested by Jinek et al. (2012) and Cong et al. (2013). Besides, optimized delivery systems, through nanoparticles and viral vectors, could increase success rates in different cell types, substantiating Zhan et al. (2020) and Ruan et al. (2020) findings. The display of information also characterizes the real progress made due to CRISPR technology. Plots of mutation variability, editing patterns, and correlation heat maps all lend credence to the claim that with the introduction of newer CRISPR technology, the ability to disrupt gene

expression is just the very beginning of precise manipulation of gene expression. Such tendencies are confirmed by the research by Miao et al. (2018) on the significance of CRISPR-based methods of high-throughput screening and gene mapping in the role of functions.

Biomedically, these data are in close association with therapeutic benchmarks described by gene therapy trials. As an example, CRISPR implementation in the remedying of the β -globin gene in hematopoietic stem cells conforms to the therapeutic guidelines as outlined by Dever et al. (2016) and Wang et al. (2018). The resulting gene correction efficiencies over 90% of multiple samples do support the clinical applicability of genome editing of diseases, such as sickle cell anemia and β -thalassemia. Also, the fact that CRISPR technology is introduced to the agricultural sector in the current context of the research makes it consistent with previous papers by Ruan et al. (2020) and Niu et al. (2018) who suggested the usefulness of CRISPR in increasing the resilience of crops. The results of the study indicate that edited crop products with no foreign DNA insertion can perform better than conventional GMOs, closer to non-GMO crops, since the lack of foreign DNA insertion makes them less regulated and less suspicious by consumers. However, it is impossible to omit an argument about the ethical and social issues related to the CRISPR technology. Germline editing and modification of an embryo is a serious bioethical concern that majority of the authors mention by Cyranoski (2016) and Ma et al. (2017). Although no experimental evidence in this study is specifically related to germline interventions, the implications of accuracy and accessibility generate puzzles of their effects on future generations of society. The issue of designer babies and unanticipated results with germ cells crossing is yet to be solved, which demands active regulatory

systems and moral regulations in accordance with Doudna et al. (2014) and Smith et al. (2017). Moreover, the asymmetrical availability of gene-editing tools can also increase the gap in resources between various countries in the sphere of healthcare and farming. Both affordability and ease of use, as discussed in science circles, might inevitably result in being monopolized by the richer countries or biotechnology companies just as the experts in the fields warn of, i.e., Ledford (2015) and Zhang et al. (2014). Consequently, equitability of CRISPR dividends is a crucial issue in the prospective policy.

CONCLUSIONS

This paper has touched upon the vast opportunities and improvements of CRISPR-Cas9 technology in the fields of biomedical, agricultural, and research. The comparison of experimental data demonstrates that the CRISPR-based genome modification strategies, including those based on enhanced versions of CRISPR, including base editing and prime editing, represents a very efficient, precise, and adaptable genome editing technique. The innovations not only solve the drawbacks of the previous methods of gene editing, but also enlarge the scope with the help of which genetic conditions and outcomes can be treated and altered. CRISPR-Cas9 therapy has transformative potential in the part of therapeutics as involved in addressing disease-causing mutations in the case of sickle cell anemia, cystic fibrosis, and muscular dystrophy, among others in the field of medicine. The application of CRISPR in immunotherapies e.g., CAR-T cell therapy further enhances its reflection in personalized cancer treatment. An engineering field like agriculture where one can develop crop with high yield, stress tolerance, and disease resistance without the introduction of foreign DNA holds promise of sustainable food security, given the

climate change scenario. Nonetheless, its effectiveness of the CRISPR technology also requires its manageable governance. Any ethical issues associated with germline editing, modification of human embryos and long-term ecological consequences need to be stringently tackled by open regulatory mechanisms and accessible international consensus. To prevent technological disparities, it is important that equitable access to the gene-editing tools, especially by the marginalized and smallholders farmers, be ensured. In the end, CRISPR-Cas9 is on the edge of a genetic revolution. Since the research is becoming increasingly precise and applicable, it is indispensable that the scientific innovation should be leveled with the forethought of ethics, community involvement and international collaboration. At best, it is only with this integrative method that the potential of CRISPR will be reached in order to benefit both humanity and the environment.

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