

Supporting Information

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SI Text

Photoreceptor Layer Topography. Optical coherence tomography scans were obtained with an ultra-high speed (26,000 A-scans per second) and high-resolution (5 μm axial, 15 μm lateral) Fourier-domain system (RTVue-100; Optovue). Two scanning patterns were used: line scans (4096 A-scans covering 4.5 mm) and raster scans (101 raster lines of 512 A-scans each covering 6×6 mm). Multiple overlapping line scans were used to obtain higher-resolution coverage along horizontal and vertical meridians up to 9 mm eccentricity from the fovea (1–4). Similarly multiple overlapping raster scans were used to sample an 18×12 mm rectangular region of the retina centered on the fovea (3, 5, 6). Postacquisition processing of data was performed with custom programs (MatLab 6.5; MathWorks). Lateral sampling density of the line scans were reduced by averaging groups of eight neighboring A-scans to increase signal-to-noise ratio, aligned using a dynamic cross-correlation algorithm (7), and digitally stitched along the horizontal and vertical meridians. Two nuclear layers, the ONL and the inner nuclear layer, were defined in regions of scans showing two parallel stereotypical hyporeflective layers sandwiched between the RPE and vitreoretinal interface, and extended laterally to regions with thinner ONL. The boundary of the outer hyporeflective layer corresponding to the ONL was defined by the minima/maxima of the signal slope. For topographic analysis, original raster sets were sub-sampled down to 21 lines after discarding artefactual lines corresponding to blinks and eye movements. The precise location and orientation of each raster line was determined relative to retinal features using video images of the fundus. A-scans were allotted to regularly spaced bins (0.3×0.3 mm) in a rectangular coordinate system centered at the fovea; the waveforms in each bin were aligned and averaged. ONL thickness was measured from averaged A-scans in each bin as described earlier. Missing data were interpolated bi-linearly, thickness values were mapped to a pseudocolor scale, and locations of blood vessels and optic nerve head were overlaid for reference.

Psychophysical Studies. Absolute visual sensitivity to stimuli under dark-adapted conditions was determined with a modified computerized perimeter (Humphrey Field Analyzer; Zeiss Meditec) as published (1, 8–11). The achromatic (white) stimulus was 1.7° in diameter and 200 ms in duration (maximum luminance, $3,180 \text{ cd}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$), presented along the vertical or horizontal meridians crossing fixation. Tests were performed at several pretreatment time points ranging from 3 to 24 months before surgery and at three posttreatment time points of day 30, 60, and 90. Retinal loci were typically sampled at 0.6 mm intervals up to 9 (vertical) or 18 (horizontal) mm eccentricity from the fixation. All extrafoveal loci were tested using a red fixation target with a variable intensity adjusted to be visible for each subject. Foveal sensitivities were determined while gazing at the center of four red lights forming a diamond. Sensitivity values were spatially smoothed using a three-point moving average; foveal sensitivities were reported without spatial averaging. Locus-by-locus differences were calculated between posttreatment and pretreatment results. The statistical significance of the difference calculated at each locus was defined by comparison to the maximum expected test–retest variability. To obtain the most conservative estimates, the best pretreatment sensitivity was used for defining loci with significant improvement and the worst pretreatment sensitivity was used for defining loci with significant deterioration. The maximum expected test–retest variability limit ($3 \text{ SD} = 0.80 \text{ log}$

units) was based on the range of sensitivities obtained in patients with RPE65-LCA ($n = 8$) who were each tested two or three times on consecutive days. For the variability estimates, if data were available from both eyes of a subject, the eye with the worse visual acuity was used. All locations with a zero sensitivity and their immediate neighbors were not included in this analysis to avoid artefactual reduction of variability that may occur in regions with severe vision loss as a result of the “floor effect,” whereby data are forced to the lowest number (i.e., highest light intensity) available by the instrument. Coincidentally, the test–retest limit calculated in patients with RPE65-LCA was similar to the limit (i.e., 3 SD) of interindividual variability (0.72 log units) observed in normal subjects.

In retinal regions with evident biological activity, dark adaptation testing was performed to define the rod and cone visual cycle kinetics (12–19). A yellow full field–adapting light exposure of $7 \text{ log scot}\cdot\text{td}\cdot\text{s}$ was delivered with a flash unit mounted at the top of a 150-mm-diameter sphere with a white inner coating and an opening for the subject’s eye. In a fully dark-adapted healthy eye, $\approx 60\%$ of the available rhodopsin molecules would be expected to absorb a primary quantum with this flash. The adapting flash was delivered under near-infrared (NIR) viewing of the subject’s pupil to avoid reduction in retinal exposure caused by partially closed eyelids. During testing, NIR LEDs illuminated the pupil and an NIR-sensitive camera allowed continuous monitoring of pupil position. The stimuli used were blue or red LEDs illuminating an opal diffuser (1.7° diameter); for testing healthy eyes, a three–log unit neutral density filter was intercalated between the blue LED and the diffuser to shift the whole dynamic range of the instrument to lower illuminances. Under software control, LEDs were driven with amplitude and pulse-width modulation to achieve a 5.8 log unit dynamic range. Thresholds to blue and red stimuli were determined using a staircase procedure before and at regular intervals after the adapting flash. Differences between the sensitivities to blue and red stimuli were used to determine the type of photoreceptor mediating vision. Log-linear segments of rod-mediated recovery were fit with lines to estimate exponential time constants.

In addition, two-color perimetry (blue, 500 nm; red, 650 nm) was performed during the cone-plateau period following the adapting flash and/or under standard (1–2 h) and extended (3–8 h) dark adaptation conditions to understand the retinal distribution of cone- and rod-mediated vision across the treated areas. Patient 1 could not perceive the highest intensity available with the standard-sized chromatic stimuli. Therefore, larger (4° diameter) blue (500 nm), orange (600 nm), and red (650 nm) stimuli were used posttreatment to estimate type of photoreceptor mediation within his region of biological activity. Pretreatment, one of the patients (patient 2) could perceive chromatic stimuli only to eccentricities $< 3 \text{ mm}$; the other two patients could not perceive the stimuli at any extrafoveal locus. Thus, pretreatment cone- and rod-mediated vision was estimated from achromatic sensitivities using the most conservative assumption that both rods and cones were contributing to this very low level of vision.

Fixation Location and Stability Studies. Preferred retinal locus used by patients with RPE65-LCA to fixate to a stationary target and the stability of fixation were determined by video imaging of the retina under NIR light and recording the movement of each video image obtained at a 25-Hz rate with respect to a reference image (MP1; Nidek Technologies America). Recordings were

monocular (eyes were tested sequentially) and performed during a fixation task involving visualization of a red target; the total length of recording was 45 seconds. The fixation light was ≈ 3 log units brighter than normal perceptual threshold, and all patients tested could see the target throughout the recording period. The movement of the retinal image with respect to the fovea was recorded as horizontal and vertical offset values as a function of time. A representative 10-s epoch was selected; horizontal and vertical offsets were converted to radial distances and the SD of these radial distances over the 10-s epoch was reported as a measure of fixation instability (2).

Pupillometry Studies. The direct transient pupillary light reflex (TPLR) was elicited and recorded (20, 21). TPLR luminance-response functions were derived from responses to increasing intensities (from -6.6 to 2.3 log scot-cd \cdot m $^{-2}$) of green stimuli with short duration (0.1 s) presented monocularly in the dark-adapted state. The light stimulated pupil was imaged with an infrared-sensitive video camera (LCL-903HS; Watec America) and images were digitized by two instruments simultaneously. A digital image processor (RK-706PCI, ver. 3.55; Iscan) sampled the horizontal pupil diameter at 60 Hz and a video digitizer (PIXCI SV4 board, ver. 2.1; Epix) produced a computer file of the video sequence. Records were 5.7 s long, with a 1-s pre-stimulus baseline. TPLR amplitude was defined as the difference between the pupil diameter at a fixed time (0.9 s) after the onset of the stimulus and the pre-stimulus baseline. TPLR response threshold was defined as the stimulus luminance that evoked a criterion (0.3 mm, limit of spontaneous oscillations in pupil diameter, ref. 20) contraction of the pupil diameter at the fixed time (0.9 s) considered.

Animal Studies. Naturally occurring *Rpe65*-mutant *rd12* mice ($n = 20$) were used. Procedures were conducted in accordance with the ARVO Statement for the Use of Animals in Ophthalmic and Visual Research and with institutional approval. Breeding, origins, maintenance before and after surgery, and surgical details have been described (22, 23). In the first set of experiments, a single 1- μ l subretinal injection of the rAAV2-CB^{SB}-hRPE65

vector, which remained in the syringe after each human surgery, was delivered subretinally to one eye of *rd12* mice (ages 17–52 d). The non-injected eyes of the same animals served as controls. ERG recordings were performed 25 to 37 days after the injection. In a second set of experiments, *rd12* mice were used to study early effects of unocular subretinal injection of rAAV2-CB^{SB}-hRPE65 vector ($n = 2$) and of BSS vehicle ($n = 2$). Non-injected eyes of the same animals served as controls. ERG recordings were performed at 10 days after the injections. In both experiments, full field bilateral ERGs were recorded as described (23). Animals were dark-adapted (>12 h) and anesthetized with intramuscular ketamine HCl (65 mg/kg) and xylazine (5 mg/kg); corneas were anesthetized with proparacaine HCl, and pupils dilated with tropicamide (1%) and phenylephrine (2.5%). Responses evoked by a 0.1 log scot-cd \cdot s \cdot m $^{-2}$ flash were amplified, filtered (-3 dB cutoff at 0.3 and 300 Hz) and digitized (2 kHz) with a 12-bit analog-to-digital converter. B-wave amplitudes were measured conventionally, from baseline or a-wave trough to positive peak, and vector-injected eyes were plotted against non-injected fellow eyes. Existence of a significant efficacy resulting from vector was defined in each animal by comparison to the expected variability (i.e., 3 SD) of interocular differences of this waveform amplitude in untreated *rd12* and WT eyes (23). To test for the possibility that preformed RPE65 protein—either contained within the vector capsid or adhering to its surface—was responsible for the rapid therapeutic response seen in these mice, we performed an hRPE65 ELISA on 10 μ l of undiluted test vector (1.4×10^{13} vector genomes per ml) diluted in 90 μ l of coating buffer containing 2% SDS, then boiled for 5 min before coating the ELISA plate. For the positive control, ELISA wells were coated with 0.5 μ g/well hRPE65 protein expressed from *Escherichia coli* and pretreated as for the test vector. Anti-RPE65 monoclonal antibody (1 mg/ml) (Chemicon, cat# MAB 5428) at a dilution of 1:640,000 was used to detect hRPE65 in all wells and to generate the highest point in a standard curve. No hRPE65 was detected in clinical vector samples or in similar preclinical vector within the limits of the assay (data not shown), suggesting that expression from the hRPE65 transgene after delivery to the RPE by vector most likely accounts for the rapid therapeutic response.

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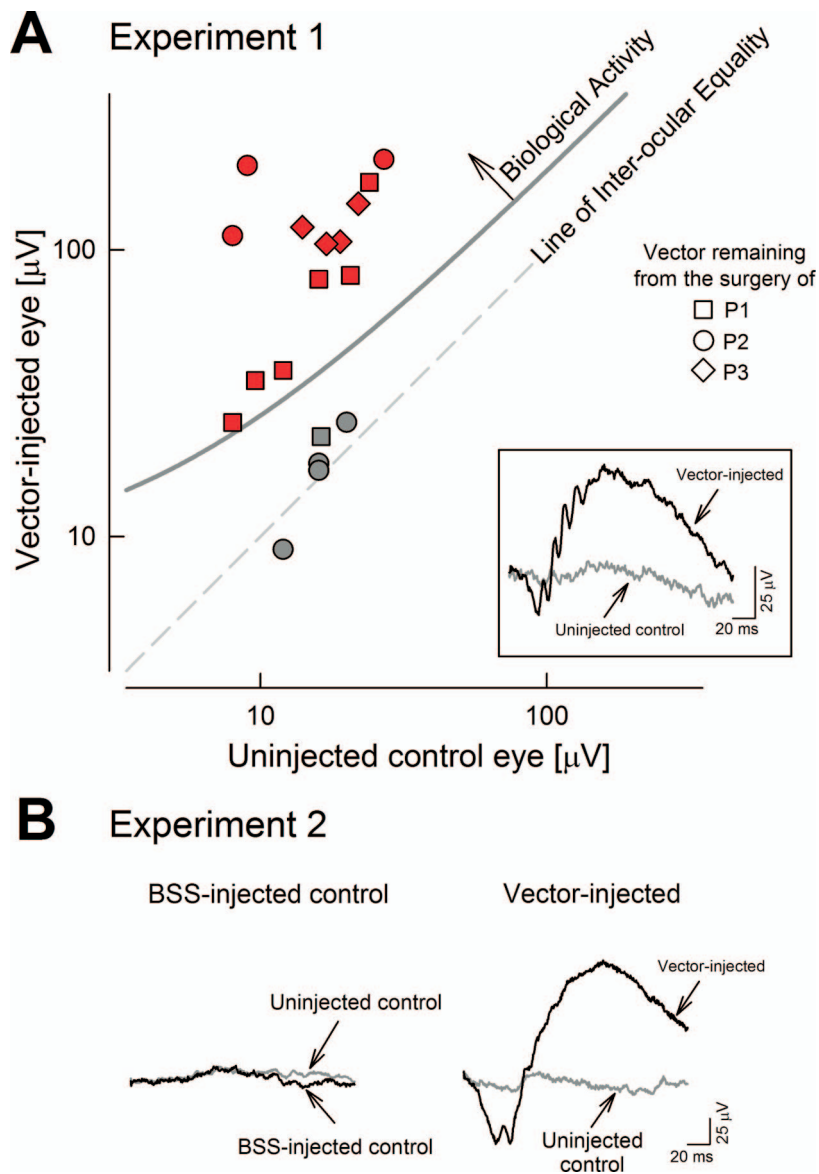


Fig. S1. Hypothesis testing regarding human results after treatment using the *rd12* mouse model of Rpe65 deficiency. (A) In experiment 1, *in vivo* bioassay of the gene therapy vector used in human surgery shows biological activity. Electroretinographic (ERG) b-wave amplitudes in vector-injected eyes versus non-injected control eyes of *rd12* mice. Vector ($1 \mu\text{l}$) is from the syringe used in the surgery of each *RPE65*-LCA subject (patient 1, squares; patient 2, circles; patient 3, diamonds). Dashed line of equality corresponds to no interocular difference in this ERG parameter. Solid line defines upper limit of significant interocular difference (3 SD) derived from untreated *rd12* and WT animals. Thirteen treated eyes (red symbols) showed a significant ERG improvement in the treated eyes, whereas five (gray symbols) did not. Significant ERG improvements provide evidence of the biologic activity of the vector used for each patient; small subset of failures are attributed to the surgical uncertainty of delivering vector unerringly to the subretinal space in the small mouse eye. (Inset) ERG waveform from a vector-injected (black trace) versus the non-injected control eye (gray trace) of an *rd12* mouse from this experiment. (B) In experiment 2, robust biological activity is observable as early as 10 days after injection. Representative ERG waveforms 10 days after subretinal injection of vector (Right; black traces) or vehicle (Left; black traces) compared with non-injected control eyes (gray traces). These results suggest that surgical detachment of the retina with a subretinal injection not containing vector does not cause an ERG improvement.

