

Manipulating the Mouse Genome Using Recombineering

Fatemah Riaz

Islamic Azad University, Iran

Abstract

Hereditarily built mouse models are imperative for understanding the organic capacity of qualities, understanding the hereditary premise of human maladies, and for preclinical testing of novel treatments. Age of such mouse models has been conceivable in light of our capacity to control the mouse genome. Recombineering is a profoundly proficient, recombination-based technique for hereditary building that has altered our capacity to create mouse models. Since recombineering innovation isn't reliant on the accessibility of limitation catalyst acknowledgment locales, it permits us to adjust the genome with extraordinary accuracy. It requires homology arms as short as 40 bases for recombination, which makes it moderately simple to create focusing on develops to embed, change, or erase either a solitary nucleotide or on the other hand a DNA piece a few kb in size; embed selectable markers or correspondent qualities; or add epitope labels to any quality of intrigue. In this survey, we center around the improvement of recombineering innovation and its application to the age of hereditarily built mouse models. High-throughput age of quality focusing on vectors, used to develop knockout alleles in mouse early stage undifferentiated cells, is currently practical on account of this innovation. The test currently is to utilize these "planner" mice to create novel treatments to forestall, fix, or adequately deal with some the most incapacitating human illnesses.

Keywords: Mouse models; Embryonic stem (ES) cell; Knockout mice; Gene targeting; Recombineering; Bacterial artificial chromosome (BAC); Transgenic mice

Introduction

Creature models are routinely used to comprehend the etiology of human hereditary issues, just as to create preclinical models to test the adequacy of novel treatments. In spite of the fact that there are species-specific varieties dependent on quality capacity contemplates, the mouse is the generally dependable and ordinarily utilized model framework, primarily in light of the fact that of its hereditary and physiological comparability to people. Furthermore, headways in genome control and early stage stem (ES) cell advancements in the course of recent decades have made it conceivable to create modern hereditarily built mouse models. It is presently possible to produce freak mice in which inactivation, erasure, or on the other hand ectopic articulation of any quality of intrigue can be spatially and transiently managed.

Historical landmarks in the development of genetically engineered mouse models

Advancement of techniques to produce mice with a focused on change in a quality of intrigue required the arrangement of two fundamental issues: how to focus on the ideal change in mammalian cells what's more, how to move the controlled cells into the mouse germline. The answer for the main issue came in 1985, when Smithies et al. indicated homologous recombination between an endogenous quality what's more, a fake focusing on vector in mammalian cells [1]. Segregation of pluripotent ES cells from mouse blastocysts, which are capable and their ability to colonize the germ line of illusory mice when infused into blastocysts, tackled the second issue [2-4]. These milestone accomplishments prompted the age of the first hereditarily altered mouse, in which the hypoxanthine phosphoribosyl transferase (HPRT) locus was disturbed [5,6]. Be that as it may, disconnection of accurately directed ES cells was encouraged for this situation by the way that solitary a solitary duplicate of this quality is available in a XY-ES cell and that HPRT-lacking cells can be emphatically chosen in

Correspondence to: R Fatemah, Islamic Azad University, Iran,

Copyright: © 2020 Withanage SR, et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

media containing 6-thioguanine. Ensuing utilization of a negative choice marker, alongside a positive determination marker in the focusing on builds, permitted improvement of cells experiencing homologous recombination, which caused it conceivable to target even to non selectable qualities [7,8]. This methodology has since been used to produce focused on transformations in several qualities.

A significant restriction to the age of mouse models with wanted transformations in their genomes was a reliance on the utilization of ordinary hereditary building strategies to produce complex focusing on develops. Regularly, appropriate limitation chemical acknowledgment locales are missing or control of enormous DNA pieces is required to produce fitting focusing on builds, the two of which limit the utilization of standard sub-atomic science procedures. Control of the mouse genome has been extraordinarily best in class by the accessibility of *Escherichia coli*-based cloning frameworks that permit development of genomic libraries with enormous DNA embeds [9]. These builds, called bacterial fake chromosomes (BACs), are equipped for keeping up embeds as extensive as 300 kb in size. Moreover, the improvement of recombineering innovation, a recombination-based strategy for hereditary designing, has offered energizing new chances to control the genome. Here, we will talk about a portion of the ongoing progressions in recombineering innovation and portray its application in the age of inventive mouse models of human ailments and novel models to contemplate quality capacity.

Genetic engineering using homologous recombination in yeast and bacteria

Homologous recombination-based genome control was first showed in yeast by Baudin et al. [10]. The yeast homologous recombination-based strategy has in this way been utilized to produce focusing on vectors for mouse knockouts [11-13]. Albeit homologous recombination in yeast is exceptionally effective, utilization of yeast-based methodologies for control of mouse DNA has been negligible, for the most part due to age of undesired genomic revisions.

In contrast to yeast, *E. coli* debases remote direct DNA with its RecBCD exonuclease [14]. Thus, any hereditary control by homologous recombination utilizing a straight focusing on develops isn't plausible in *E. coli*. In any case, advancement of a RecBCD exonuclease deficient *E. coli* strain conquered this obstacle and was utilized as one of the first in vivo cloning frameworks [15]. This framework has been utilized to clone PCR sections into plasmid vectors with homologous finishes, bringing drug-selectable markers into the *E. coli* chromosome, and for different applications [15-19]. The significant constraints of this framework are that it relies upon constitutively communicated recombination apparatus, requires long homology arms, and creates a low recurrence of recombinants [20].

Use of phage recombination machinery and development of recombineering

A progressively managed phage-encoded recombination framework has been created in *E. coli* that permits direct control of

the bacterial chromosome, just as any DNA embed cloned into a plasmid or BAC vector [19,21]. This innovation is called recombineering and it utilizes the homologous recombination frameworks from bacteriophage in *E. coli* to control DNA parts in vivo. It doesn't require the utilization of limitation catalysts and DNA ligase. This incredible framework can be utilized to sub-clone a part as extensive as 80 kb from BACs into standard plasmid vectors [22]. This innovation has points of interest over all different past recombination-based quality control frameworks, as talked about underneath.

Recombineering started in 1998, when Dr. Francis Stewart's research facility utilized a phage-encoded recombination framework for in vivo hereditary control, utilizing PCR-enhanced, direct, twofold abandoned DNA flanked by short (42 bp) homology arms [23]. This strategy, known as ET cloning, depends on the elements of the recE and recT proteins of the λ prophage in an *E. coli* recBC silencer freak. The recE protein gives 5' to 3' exonuclease movement, and the recT protein ties to single-abandoned (ss) DNA and advances strand strengthening [23]. Further, this strategy was additionally utilized in recBC+ *E. coli* strains by using the gam protein of λ bacteriophages to suppress lambda (recBCD) work. To permit the utilization of the ET cloning framework in any bacterial strain, a plasmid-based portable framework that communicates gam alongside recE and recT (called pBAD-ET λ) was created, with recE articulation heavily influenced by an inducible advertiser and articulation of the recT and gam qualities heavily influenced by constitutive advertisers [23].

Another, comparative, framework, which uses the λ Red phage homologous recombination hardware, was first announced by Kenan Murphy and associates [24]. The Red recombination λ phage framework of incorporates two qualities: exo (red α) and waga (red β), in which exo is like recE and waga is comparable to recT. The Red framework fills in as proficiently as the ET framework [25]. In this way, a replication-damaged λ prophage-based framework was created in which the declaration of exo, waga, and gam is the heavily influenced by their local administrative components [26]. In the λ phage genome, these qualities are situated straightaway to one another in an operon (pL), and their demeanor is coordinately constrained by a repressor (CI) and interpretation end. Effective articulation of these qualities from the pL advertiser requires the evacuation of the CI repressor just as the capacity of the counter translation eliminator N protein. The N protein, likewise communicated from the pL operon, forestalls RNA polymerase end of pL transcripts λ .

In the prophage-based framework, the Red recombination qualities are present in single duplicates in the bacterial genome, and their demeanor is firmly constrained by the temperature-delicate λ CI857 repressor. This repressor is inactivated at 42°C, which turns on the advertiser, permitting facilitated articulation of every one of the three qualities [26]. To encourage BAC building, this λ prophage-based framework has been presented into a BAC have *E. coli* strain (DH10B) and has been proficiently used to engineer BACs [22,27].

Because of incongruence between some BACs and the deficient

phage framework, increasingly adaptable phage-based frameworks (scaled down λ and pSIM vectors) are presently accessible that can be brought into any *E. coli* strain [28,29]. These versatile frameworks utilize endogenous Red recombination qualities and administrative components. Scaled down λ can incorporate into the host genome, however can λ be effortlessly extracted through λ -connection locales. Likewise, the extracted smaller than expected λ can shape round DNA that can be handily filtered utilizing standard plasmid filtration conventions. The pSIM vectors are accessible with an assortment of opposition markers and require medication determination to be kept up in the host strains. They depend on low-duplicate number plasmids, and their replicons are temperature touchy, which permits simple restoring of the plasmids after recombineering is finished.

A one of a kind cross breed recombineering framework utilizes both RecA and Red-intervened recombination. This methodology uses the Red framework to incorporate a DNA succession ("fly in") utilizing a selectable marker. In the subsequent stage, RecA, which is embedded alongside the selectable marker in the initial step, is utilized for the evacuation of the vector DNA grouping ("jump out") [30].

Another high-throughput recombineering framework has been built up that can be done in a 96-well plate and can be applied to adjust a whole BAC library. This high-throughput recombineering depends on effectively conveying the recombination hardware into a whole BAC library utilizing a high-titer lysate of a recombination-inadequate λ phage that conveys a selectable marker to select the transduced clones. When the phage is coordinated into the genome, it tends to be steadily kept up in the host strain [31].

Applications of recombineering in mouse genome manipulation

Throughout the years, as recombineering innovation has gotten more productive and easy to use, it has become an important device for hereditary control. Recombineering-based techniques are by and large routinely utilized for mutagenesis and subcloning of genomic parts cloned in BACs. Together, BACs and recombineering have given novel ways to deal with study quality capacity and create devices for hereditary control. BAC-based transgenic mouse models have become a helpful and incredible transgenic model framework. In 1997, King et al. [32] were the first to utilize a BAC transgenic mouse to show the hereditary complementation of the mouse Clock change. From that point forward, BAC transgenic mice have been utilized in a few investigations to supplement mouse transformations [33-35]. This framework functions admirably because of the way that the enormous addition size contains a large portion of the administrative components required to summarize the endogenous quality articulation. What's more, the huge addition size dispenses with the position impacts that ordinarily result in the transgene articulation fluctuation saw in most cDNA-based transgene builds.

By utilizing recombineering, any selectable marker can be without any problem embedded into a BAC clone basically by producing a focusing on build containing the selectable quality

flanked by the homology arms (40-80 bases each) containing groupings from the area where the marker should be focused on. Such focusing on develops can be quickly produced by PCR utilizing illusory preliminaries that have 20 bases corresponding to the selectable quality and 40-80 bases comparing to the district of homology. Within the sight of the recombineering proteins, the selectable quality can be embedded at the objective site and recombinant clones can be chosen for the nearness of the selectable creator. The equivalent approach can likewise be utilized to embed any non-selectable DNA piece. In such cases a selectable marker, similar to any anti-toxin opposition quality is included close to the non-selectable quality in the focusing on develop. The selectable marker can be thusly expelled from the BAC by flanking it with two loxP or FRT locales. The selectable marker can be extracted within the sight of Cre or Flp recombinase. For consistent inclusion of a non-selectable marker, a two-advance methodology of choice/ counter-determination can be utilized as portrayed underneath in subsection 7 (Age of hypomorphic alleles for useful dismemberment). These approaches have excessively improved age of BAC transgene develops that can be utilized for age of columnist lines, articulation of epitope-labeled proteins, age of refined mouse model to examine distinctive human sicknesses or articulation of site-explicit recombinases to produce restrictive knockout mouse models. These applications are depicted in detail beneath.

Generation of Reporter Lines

The likelihood that most cis-administrative components of any quality are available inside a BAC clone has made it a helpful instrument to produce correspondent mouse lines that precisely reflect endogenous quality articulation [36]. Correspondent qualities, for example, LacZ (β -galactosidase) and GFP (green fluorescent protein) can be effectively embedded in the BAC by recombineering [37-41]. As of late, recombineering innovation has been utilized to truly connect together different qualities, alongside their particular correspondent qualities [42]. The age of a multi-journalist BAC develop depends on recombineering-interceded BAC connecting technique Connecting of BACs is reliant on the utilization of areas of homology, one of which is available in the vector spine and the other regular to both genomic embeds. These homology locales flank the selectable marker that permits the determination of an ideal connected clone subsequent to connecting [43]. To create a multi-correspondent BAC develop, Maye et al. [42] first subcloned qualities of enthusiasm into BAC connecting vectors, embedded the ideal columnist qualities into separate qualities, and afterward connected the distinctive BACs containing the columnist qualities. Utilizing this technique, they effectively connected three qualities and produced a multireporter mouse line[44].

Expression of Epitope-Tagged Proteins

Finding a decent counter acting agent against a protein of decision is regularly a significant obstacle in any proteomic research. This can be evaded by the utilization of a labeled (FLAG, HA, c-myc, and so on) rendition of the protein. To communicate the labeled protein at physiological levels in mice, knockin mouse

models have been created in which the tag is focused to the endogenous quality by homologous recombination in ES cells. This process, in any case, is very arduous and tedious. Labeling the qualities in a BAC clone with any ideal tag can bypass these issues. These BACs can be utilized to create transgenic mice that express the labeled quality at physiological levels in tissues where it is typically communicated. Utilizing recombineering, qualities present in a BAC clone can be productively labeled with any epitope [45]. In 2008, Poser et al. [46] built up a proficient, conventional, and high-throughput approach for protein labeling and BAC transgenesis in mammalian cells. This methodology can be utilized to examine the confinement, protein-protein, and/or then again protein-DNA associations of any protein.

Generation of Knockout Mouse

A knockout mouse is a freak mouse strain in which the quality of intrigue is taken out by erasure or by supplanting with an exogenous DNA part, rendering the quality nonfunctional. Knockout mice have demonstrated to be an important apparatus for comprehension the natural elements of mouse qualities. Knockout mice have too been utilized to display different human infections, for example, malignant growth, heftiness, coronary illness, diabetes, joint pain, substance misuse, nervousness, maturing, and Parkinson's ailment (PD) [44,47-54]. These models are additionally utilized for creating and testing new medications [55-57].

Age of knockout mice includes development of a focusing on vector that can be utilized to disturb the quality of enthusiasm for ES cells. A average focusing on vector comprises of two homology arms flanking a positive determination marker and a negative choice marker [e.g. thymidine kinase (TK) or diphtheria poison (DT)] close to one of the homology arms. The positive choice marker is embedded with the end goal that it replaces a portion of the key exons, rendering the quality nonfunctional. Next, the focusing on vector is electroporated into ES cells and, by homologous recombination, one allele of the objective quality is supplanted by the successions cloned into the focusing on vector. Accurately focused on ES cells are separated by sedate determination, affirmed by Southern investigation or on the other hand PCR-based strategies, and afterward microinjected into blastocysts what's more, embedded into pseudo-pregnant females to create delusions. Fabrications with the ES cell commitment in their germline will transmit the freak allele when reared to wild-type mice. Posterity acquiring the freak allele are heterozygous for the transformation and when these are intercrossed homozygous posterity coming up short on any practical duplicate of the quality are gotten. In the event that the quality is basic for feasibility, such amazing embryogenesis. Phenotypic portrayal of homozygous mice or incipient organisms gives signs to the natural capacity of the focused on quality.

Construction of targeting vectors

A significant and tedious advance in the age of a knockout mouse model is the development of quality focusing on vectors that are utilized to erase or change qualities by homologous recombination in mouse ES cells. Advances in recombineering innovation

and expanded accessibility of BAC clones have enormously improved the process, particularly two key advances: a) recovery, or subcloning a huge part of DNA (utilized as homology arms) from a BAC clone into a plasmid vector, and b) inclusion of a selectable marker into the recovered part.

Retrieval of genomic DNA from a BAC clone:

Recovery, or subcloning of a DNA section from a BAC clone into a plasmid DNA by recombineering, requires a recovery vector. The fundamental components of a recovery vector are a plasmid spine grouping that incorporates an cause of replication and a selectable marker, for example, an ampicillin or kanamycin obstruction quality, flanked by 50 bases homologous to the 5' and 3' ends of the DNA to be subcloned. The recovery vector can be quickly blended by PCR utilizing two illusory preliminaries (at the 5' end, 50 nucleotides of every groundwork are homologous to the two closures of the DNA to be subcloned and, at the 3' end, 20 nucleotides are homologous to the plasmid DNA) and the straight plasmid DNA as a layout (Figure 2). Once electroporated into bacterial cells communicating the recombineering proteins, the direct vector experiences homologous recombination with the BAC DNA and, by the procedure of hole fix, circularizes the direct plasmid DNA, permitting it to duplicate in *E. coli*. The nearness of an anti-toxin opposition quality chooses for the round plasmid. The plasmid used to create a recovery vector moreover contains a negative determination marker (a DT or TK quality) [58].

Insertion of selectable markers:

After the recovery of the genomic DNA, the following stage is the evacuation of practically significant exons and addition of a selectable marker (qualities that permit opposition to anti-toxins, for example, blasticidin, neomycin, or hygromycin, and work in both eukaryotic and prokaryotic cells). The selectable creators are heavily influenced by a prokaryotic (for example Tn5, EM7) and a eukaryotic (for example PGK) advertiser. Such double advertisers permit the utilization of the equivalent selectable producer in both bacterial (for recombineering) what's more, mammalian cells (for quality focusing in ES cells). These selectable markers can be embedded into the plasmid utilizing a focusing on develop containing a selectable marker flanked by areas homologous to the target site. These develops can be set up by PCR utilizing illusory groundworks, as portrayed previously.

Construction of Conditional Knockout Vectors

A significant confinement of the knockout mouse innovation is that a lossof-work change in most practically significant qualities results in undeveloped lethality. This makes it hard to dissect the capacity of the quality in grown-up mice, which is pertinent to most human malady qualities. This issue is dodged by the advancement of the restrictive knockout methodology, in which the cancellation of the quality can be managed spatially, just as transiently. Tissue-or cell-explicit cancellation of any quality assumes a significant job in uncovering the elements of qualities basic for advancement and for contemplating the connection

between quality changes and malady improvement in grown-up mice. Restrictive quality erasures have been accomplished by presenting bacteriophage and yeast-inferred, site-explicit recombination (SSR) frameworks into the mouse. Bacteriophage P1-determined, site-explicit recombinase Cre (causes recombination) and yeast-determined recombinase FLP (flippase) perceive the 34-base-pair DNA groupings for loxP (locus of hybrid in phage P1) and FRT (flippase acknowledgment target), individually [59].

Contingent upon the direction of the objective destinations as for one another, recombinases can extract, incorporate, or reverse DNA successions. Contingent erasure of any quality is accomplished by flanking the basic exons of the quality with two loxP or FRT destinations (making a contingent allele). Ensuing articulation of the recombinases in a cell containing the restrictive allele of a quality permits either the whole quality or the basic exons to be erased, rendering the quality nonfunctional [60,61]. Until recombineering innovation opened up, age of restrictive knockout vectors was viewed as a protracted assignment. Utilizing recombineering, restrictive knockout focusing on vectors can be quickly produced by presenting loxP or FRT (or both) destinations, along with a positive determination marker, into the BAC DNA [58].

Transgenic Mice Expressing Cre or FLP Recombinase

Contingent cancellation of any quality depends on the focused on articulation of Cre or FLP recombinase in the cell or tissue of intrigue. In most cases, the administrative components, including the enhancer groupings that drive tissue-explicit articulation of a quality, are not all around described. Without such data, it is increasingly helpful to utilize BAC-based transgenic mice to communicate Cre or FLP recombinase. This is advantageously accomplished by utilizing recombineering to embed the Cre or FLP cDNA after the beginning codon of a quality cloned in a BAC vector. This guarantees that the recombinase is communicated heavily influenced by the administrative components of this quality, which is communicated in the tissue or cell type(s) where the contingent allele must be erased. The Cre or FLP containing BAC clones would then be able to be utilized to produce transgenic mice. This methodology has significantly encouraged the age of tissue-specific Cre transgenic mouse lines. A few Cre lines for restrictive articulation of recombinases have been created, and some of them are recorded in Table 1. Data on extra transgenic mouse lines that express Cre can be gotten from The Jackson Laboratory (<http://www.jax.org/search/Main.jsp?qt=cre+mice&x=0&y=0>), just as from the CREATE (coordination of assets for contingent articulation of changed mouse alleles) consortium (<http://www.creline.org/eucommtools>). To transiently manage the statement of Cre protein in cells, a tamoxifen-inducible Cre-estrogen receptor (ER) combination protein can be utilized [62]. This Cre-ER protein is practical just in the nearness of tamoxifen, which can be infused into mice at the ideal time.

References

1. Smithies O, Gregg RG, Boggs SS, Koralewski MA, Kucherlapati RS (1985) Insertion of DNA sequences into the human chromosomal beta-globin locus by homologous recombination. *Nature* 317: 230-234.
2. Evans MJ, Kaufman MH (1981) Establishment in culture of pluripotential cells from mouse embryos. *Nature* 292: 154-156.
3. Martin GR (1981) Isolation of a pluripotent cell line from early mouse embryos cultured in medium conditioned by teratocarcinoma stem cells. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 78: 7634-7638.
4. Bradley A, Evans M, Kaufman MH, Robertson E (1984) Formation of germline chimaeras from embryo-derived teratocarcinoma cell lines. *Nature* 309: 255-256.
5. Doetschman T, Gregg RG, Maeda N, Hooper ML, Melton DW, et al. (1987) Targeted correction of a mutant HPRT gene in mouse embryonic stem cells. *Nature* 330: 576-578.
6. Thomas KR, Capecchi MR (1987) Site-directed mutagenesis by genotargeting in mouse embryo-derived stem cells. *Cell* 51: 503-512.
7. Mansour SL, Thomas KR, Capecchi MR (1988) Disruption of the protooncogene int-2 in mouse embryo-derived stem cells: a general strategy for targeting mutations to non-selectable genes. *Nature* 336: 348-352.
8. Schwartzberg PL, Goff SP, Robertson EJ (1989) Germ-line transmission of a c-abl mutation produced by targeted gene disruption in ES cells. *Science* 246: 799-803.
9. Shizuya H, Birren B, Kim UJ, Mancino V, Slepak T, et al. (1992) Cloning and stable maintenance of 300-kilobase-pair fragments of human DNA in *Escherichia coli* using an F-factor-based vector. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 89: 8794-8797.
10. Baudin A, Ozier-Kalogeropoulos O, Denouel A, Lacroute F, Cullin C (1993) A simple and efficient method for direct gene deletion in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *Nucleic Acids Res* 21: 3329-3330.
11. Storck T, Krüth U, Kolhekar R, Sprengel R, Seeburg PH (1996) Rapid construction in yeast of complex targeting vectors for gene manipulation in the mouse. *Nucleic Acids Res* 24: 4594-4596.
12. Wilson SM, Toth PT, Oh SB, Gillard SE, Volsen S, et al. (2000) The status of voltage-dependent calcium channels in alpha 1E knock-out mice. *J Neurosci* 20: 8566-8571.
13. Wattler S, Kelly M, Nehls M (1999) Construction of gene targeting vectors from lambda KOS genomic libraries. *Bio-techniques* 26: 1150-1156, 1158, 1160.
14. Wackernagel W (1973) Genetic transformation in *E. coli*: the

- inhibitory role of the recBC DNase. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 51: 306-311.
15. Jasin M, Schimmel P (1984) Deletion of an essential gene in *Escherichia coli* by site-specific recombination with linear DNA fragments. *J Bacteriol* 159: 783-786.
16. Winans SC, Elledge SJ, Krueger JH, Walker GC (1985) Site-directed insertion and deletion mutagenesis with cloned fragments in *Escherichia coli*. *J Bacteriol* 161: 1219-1221.
17. Bubeck P, Winkler M, Bartsch W (1993) Rapid cloning by homologous recombination in vivo. *Nucleic Acids Res* 21: 3601-3602.
18. Oliner JD, Kinzler KW, Vogelstein B (1993) In vivo cloning of PCR products in *E. coli*. *Nucleic Acids Res* 21: 5192-5197.
19. Copeland NG, Jenkins NA, Court DL (2001) Recombineering: a powerful new tool for mouse functional genomics. *Nat Rev Genet* 2: 769-779.
20. Court DL, Sawitzke JA, Thomason LC (2002) Genetic engineering using homologous recombination. *Annu Rev Genet* 36: 361-388.
21. Muirers JP, Zhang Y, Stewart AF (2001) Techniques: Recombinogenic engineering—new options for cloning and manipulating DNA. *Trends Biochem Sci* 26: 325-331.
22. Lee EC, Yu D, Martinez de Velasco J, Tessarollo L, Swing DA, et al. (2001) A highly efficient *Escherichia coli*-based chromosome engineering system adapted for recombinogenic targeting and subcloning of BAC DNA. *Genomics* 73: 56-65.
23. Zhang Y, Buchholz F, Muirers JP, Stewart AF (1998) A new logic for DNA engineering using recombination in *Escherichia coli*. *Nat Genet* 20: 123-128.
24. Murphy KC (1998) Use of bacteriophage lambda recombination functions to promote gene replacement in *Escherichia coli*. *J Bacteriol* 180: 2063-2071.
25. Muirers JP, Zhang Y, Testa G, Stewart AF (1999) Rapid modification of bacterial artificial chromosomes by ET-recombination. *Nucleic Acids Res* 27: 1555-1557.
26. Yu D, Ellis HM, Lee EC, Jenkins NA, Copeland NG, et al. (2000) An efficient recombination system for chromosome engineering in *Escherichia coli*. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 97: 5978-5983.
27. Warming S, Costantino N, Court DL, Jenkins NA, Copeland NG (2005) Simple and highly efficient BAC recombineering using galK selection. *Nucleic Acids Res* 33: e36.
28. Court DL, Swaminathan S, Yu D, Wilson H, Baker T, et al. (2003) Mini-lambda: a tractable system for chromosome and BAC engineering. *Gene* 315: 63-69.
29. Datta S, Costantino N, Court DL (2006) A set of recombineering plasmids for gram-negative bacteria. *Gene* 379: 109-115.
30. Sopher BL, La Spada AR (2006) Efficient recombination-based methods for bacterial artificial chromosome fusion and mutagenesis. *Gene* 371: 136-143.
31. Chan W, Costantino N, Li R, Lee SC, Su Q, et al. (2007) A recombineering-based approach for high-throughput conditional knockout targeting vector construction. *Nucleic Acids Res* 35: e64.
32. King DP, Zhao Y, Sangoram AM, Wilsbacher LD, Tanaka M, et al. (1997) Positional cloning of the mouse circadian clock gene. *Cell* 89: 641-653.
33. Matesic LE, Yip R, Reuss AE, Swing DA, O'Sullivan TN, et al. (2001) Mutations in *Mrph*, encoding a member of the Rab effector family, cause the melanosome transport defects observed in leucism mice. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 98: 10238-10243.
34. Means GD, Boyd Y, Willis CR, Derry JM (2001) Transgenic rescue of the tattered phenotype by using a BAC encoding *Ebp*. *Mamm Genome* 12: 323-325.
35. Wilson SM, Yip R, Swing DA, O'Sullivan TN, Zhang Y, et al. (2000) A mutation in *Rab27a* causes the vesicle transport defects observed in ashken mice. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 97: 7933-7938.
36. Gong S, Zheng C, Doughty ML, Losos K, Didkovsky N, et al. (2003) A gene expression atlas of the central nervous system based on bacterial artificial chromosomes. *Nature* 425: 917-925.
37. Mortlock DP, Guenther C, Kingsley DM (2003) A general approach for identifying distant regulatory elements applied to the *Gdf6* gene. *Genome Res* 13: 2069-2081.
38. Sutherland MJ, Wang S, Quinn ME, Haaning A, Ware SM (2013) *Zic3* is required in the migrating primitive streak for node morphogenesis and left-right patterning. *Hum Mol Genet* 22: 1913-1923.
39. Liao S, Bentley K, Lebrun M, Lesslauer W, Ruddle FH, et al. (2007) Transgenic LacZ under control of Hec-6 promoter regulatory sequences recapitulates endogenous gene expression on high endothelial venules. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 104: 4577-4582.
40. Hansen C, Björklund T, Petit GH, Lundblad M, Murmu RP, et al. (2013) A novel α -synuclein-GFP mouse model displays progressive motor impairment, olfactory dysfunction and accumulation of α -synuclein-GFP. *Neurobiol Dis* 56: 145-155.
41. Ishitobi H, Matsumoto K, Azami T, Itoh F, Itoh S, et al. (2010) Flk1-GFP BAC transgenic mice: an animal model for the

- study of blood vessel development. *Exp Anim* 59: 615-622.
42. Maye P, Stover ML, Liu Y, Rowe DW, Gong S, et al. (2009) A BAC-bacterial recombination method to generate physically linked multiple gene reporter DNA constructs. *BMC Biotechnol* 9: 20.
43. Kotzamanis G, Huxley C (2004) Recombining overlapping BACs into a single larger BAC. *BMC Biotechnol* 4: 1.
44. Parks CL, Robinson PS, Sibille E, Shenk T, Toth M (1998) Increased anxiety of mice lacking the serotonin 1A receptor. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 95: 10734-10739.
45. Ciotta G, Hofmeister H, Maresca M, Fu J, Sarov M, et al. (2011) Recombineering BAC transgenes for protein tagging. *Methods* 53: 113-119.
46. Poser I, Sarov M, Hutchins JR, Hériché JK, Toyoda Y, et al. (2008) BAC Transgene Omics: a high-throughput method for exploration of protein function in mammals. *Nat Methods* 5: 409-415.
47. Wang IT, Allen M, Goffin D, Zhu X, Fairless AH, et al. (2012) Loss of CDKL5 disrupts kinome profile and event-related potentials leading to autistic-like phenotypes in mice. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 109: 21516-21521.
48. Hua G, Kolesnick R (2013) Using AS Mase Knockout Mice to Model Human Diseases. *Handb Exp Pharmacol* 216: 29-54.
49. Lee Y, Dawson VL, Dawson TM (2012) Animal models of Parkinson's disease: vertebrate genetics. *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Med* 2.
50. McMurray F, Moir L, Cox RD (2012) From mice to humans. *Curr Diab Rep* 12: 651-658.
51. Fowler CD, Kenny PJ (2012) Utility of genetically modified mice for understanding the neurobiology of substance use disorders. *Hum Genet* 131: 941-957.
52. Chen Q (2008) Mouse models and new therapeutic targets for OA. *J Musculoskelet Neuronal Interact* 8: 311-312.
53. Diaz-Cruz ES, Cabrera MC, Nakles R, Rutstein BH, Furth PA (2010) BRCA1 deficient mouse models to study pathogenesis and therapy of triple negative breast cancer. *Breast Dis* 32: 85-97.
54. Ding Y, Cravero JD, Adrian K, Grippo P (2010) Modeling pancreatic cancer in vivo: from xenograft and carcinogen-induced systems to genetically engineered mice. *Pancreas* 39: 283-292.
55. Davis HR Jr, Lowe RS, Neff DR (2011) Effects of ezetimibe on atherosclerosis in preclinical models. *Atherosclerosis* 215: 266-278.
56. Gopinathan A, Tuveson DA (2008) The use of GEM models for experimental cancer therapeutics. *Dis Model Mech* 1: 83-86.
57. Glasson SS (2007) In vivo osteoarthritis target validation utilizing genetically modified mice. *Curr Drug Targets* 8: 367-376.
58. Liu P, Jenkins NA, Copeland NG (2003) A highly efficient recombineering based method for generating conditional knockout mutations. *Genome Res* 13: 476-484.
59. Turan S, Galla M, Ernst E, Qiao J, Voelkel C, et al. (2011) Recombinase mediated cassette exchange (RMCE): traditional concepts and current challenges. *J Mol Biol* 407: 193-221.
60. Gu H, Marth JD, Orban PC, Mossmann H, Rajewsky K (1994) Deletion of a DNA polymerase beta gene segment in T cells using cell type-specific gene targeting. *Science* 265: 103-106.
61. Lewandoski M (2001) Conditional control of gene expression in the mouse. *Nat Rev Genet* 2: 743-755.
62. Schwenk F, Kuhn R, Angrand PO, Rajewsky K, Stewart AF (1998) Temporally and spatially regulated somatic mutagenesis in mice. *Nucleic Acids Res* 26: 1427-1432.
63. Valenzuela DM, Murphy AJ, Frendewey D, Gale NW, Economides AN, et al. (2003) High-throughput engineering of the mouse genome coupled with high resolution expression analysis. *Nat Biotechnol* 21: 652-659.
64. Skarnes WC, Rosen B, West AP, Koutsourakis M, Bushell W, et al. (2011) A conditional knockout resource for the genome-wide study of mouse gene function. *Nature* 474: 337-342.
65. Bradley A, Anastassiadis K, Ayadi A, Battey JF, Bell C, et al. (2012) The mammalian gene function resource: the International Knockout Mouse Consortium. *Mamm Genome* 23: 580-586.
66. Chen Y, Yee D, Dains K, Chatterjee A, Cavalcoli J, et al. (2000) Genotype based screen for ENU-induced mutations in mouse embryonic stem cells. *Nat Genet* 24: 314-317.
67. Vivian JL, Chen Y, Yee D, Schneider E, Magnuson T (2002) An allelic series of mutations in Smad2 and Smad4 identified in a genotype-based screen of N-ethyl-N-nitrosourea-mutagenized mouse embryonic stem cells. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 99: 15542-15547.
68. Rajaraman S, Davis WS, Mahakali-Zama A, Evans HK, Russell LB, et al. (2002) An allelic series of mutations in the kit ligand gene of mice. I. Identification of point mutations in seven ethylnitrosourea-induced Kitl(Steel) alleles. *Genetics* 162: 331-340.
69. Muirers JP, Zhang Y, Benes V, Testa G, Ansorge W, et al. (2000) Point mutation of bacterial artificial chromosomes by ET recombination. *EMBO Rep* 1: 239-243.
70. Westenberg M, Soedling HM, Mann DA, Nicholson LJ, Dolphin CT (2010) Counter-selection recombineering of the baculovirus genome: a strategy for seamless modification of repeat-containing BACs. *Nucleic Acids Res* 38: e166.

71. Bird AW, Erler A, Fu J, Hériché JK, Maresca M, et al. (2011) High-efficiency counterselection recombineering for site-directed mutagenesis in bacterial artificial chromosomes. *Nat Methods* 9: 103-109.
72. Ellis HM, Yu D, DiTizio T, Court DL (2001) High efficiency mutagenesis, repair, and engineering of chromosomal DNA using single-stranded oligonucleotides. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 98: 6742-6746.
73. Swaminathan S, Ellis HM, Waters LS, Yu D, Lee EC, et al. (2001) Rapid engineering of bacterial artificial chromosomes using oligonucleotides. *Genesis* 29: 14-21.
74. Cha RS, Zarbl H, Keohavong P, Thilly WG (1992) Mismatch amplification mutation assay (MAMA): application to the c-H-ras gene. *PCR Methods Appl* 2: 14-20.
75. Yang Y, Sharan SK (2003) A simple two-step, 'hit and fix' method to generate subtle mutations in BACs using short denatured PCR fragments. *Nucleic Acids Res* 31: e80.
76. Kuznetsov SG, Liu P, Sharan SK (2008) Mouse embryonic stem cell-based functional assay to evaluate mutations in BRCA2. *Nat Med* 14: 875-881.
77. Chang S, Biswas K, Martin BK, Stauffer S, Sharan SK (2009) Expression of human BRCA1 variants in mouse ES cells allows functional analysis of BRCA1 mutations. *J Clin Invest* 119: 3160-3171.
78. Testa G, Zhang Y, Vintersten K, Benes V, Pijnappel WW, et al. (2003) Engineering the mouse genome with bacterial artificial chromosomes to create multipurpose alleles. *Nat Biotechnol* 21: 443-447.
79. Mouse Genome Sequencing Consortium, Waterston RH, Lindblad-Toh K, Birney E, Rogers J, et al. (2002) Initial sequencing and comparative analysis of the mouse genome. *Nature* 420: 520-562.
80. Yang Y, Swaminathan S, Martin BK, Sharan SK (2003) Aberrant splicing induced by missense mutations in BRCA1: clues from a humanized mouse model. *Hum Mol Genet* 12: 2121-2131.
81. Senatorov V, Malyukova I, Fariss R, Wawrousek EF, Swaminathan S, et al. (2006) Expression of mutated mouse myocilin induces open-angle glaucoma in transgenic mice. *J Neurosci* 26: 11903-11914.
82. Difilippantonio S, Celeste A, Fernandez-Capetillo O, Chen HT, Reina SanMartin B, et al. (2005) Role of Nbs1 in the activation of the Atm kinase revealed in humanized mouse models. *Nat Cell Biol* 7: 675-685.
83. Li Y, Liu W, Oo TF, Wang L, Tang Y, et al. (2009) Mutant LRRK2(R1441G) BAC transgenic mice recapitulate cardinal features of Parkinson's disease. *Nat Neurosci* 12: 826-828.
84. Schmouth JF, Bonaguro RJ, Corso-Diaz X, Simpson EM (2012) Modelling human regulatory variation in mouse: finding the function in genomewide association studies and whole-genome sequencing. *PLoS Genet* 8: e1002544.
85. Wallace HA, Marques-Kranc F, Richardson M, Luna-Crespo F, Sharpe JA, et al. (2007) Manipulating the mouse genome to engineer precise functional syntenic replacements with human sequence. *Cell* 128: 197-209.
86. Lu XH, Fleming SM, Meurers B, Ackerson LC, Mortazavi F, et al. (2009) Bacterial artificial chromosome transgenic mice expressing a truncated mutant parkin exhibit age-dependent hypokinetic motor deficits, dopaminergic neuron degeneration, and accumulation of proteinase K-resistant α -synuclein. *J Neurosci* 29: 1962-1976.
87. Yamakado H, Moriwaki Y, Yamasaki N, Miyakawa T, Kurisu J, et al. (2012)
88. Gray M, Shirasaki DI, Cepeda C, André VM, Wilburn B, et al. (2008) Full-length human mutant huntingtin with a stable polyglutamine repeat can elicit progressive and selective neuropathogenesis in BACHD mice. *J Neurosci* 28: 6182-6195.
89. Zhou Y, Grinchuk O, Tomarev SI (2008) Transgenic mice expressing the Tyr437His mutant of human myocilin protein develop glaucoma. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 49: 1932-1939.
90. Gu A, Zhang Z, Zhang N, Tsark W, Shively JE (2010) Generation of human CEACAM1 transgenic mice and binding of *Neisseria* Opa protein to their neutrophils. *PLoS One* 5: e10067.
91. Michailidou K, Hall P, Gonzalez-Neira A, Ghoussaini M, Dennis J, et al. (2013) Large-scale genotyping identifies 41 new loci associated with breast cancer risk. *Nat Genet* 45: 353-361.
92. Pharoah PD, Tsai YY, Ramus SJ, Phelan CM, Goode EL, et al. (2013) GWAS meta-analysis and replication identifies three new susceptibility loci for ovarian cancer. *Nat Genet* 45: 362-370.
93. Burton H, Chowdhury S, Dent T, Hall A, Pashayan N, et al. (2013) Public health implications from COGS and potential for risk stratification and screening. *Nat Genet* 45: 349-351.
94. Sakoda LC, Jorgenson E, Witte JS (2013) Turning of COGS moves forward findings for hormonally mediated cancers. *Nat Genet* 45: 345-348.
95. Eeles RA, Olama AA, Benlloch S, Saunders EJ, Leongamornlert DA, et al. (2013) Identification of 23 new prostate cancer susceptibility loci using the COGS custom genotyping array. *Nat Genet* 45: 385-391, 391e1-2.
96. Garcia-Closas M, Couch FJ, Lindstrom S, Michailidou K, Schmidt MK, et al. (2013) Genome-wide association studies

- identify four ER negative-specific breast cancer risk loci. *Nat Genet* 45: 392-398, 398e1-2.
97. Bojesen SE, Pooley KA, Johnatty SE, Beesley J, Michailidou K, et al. (2013) Multiple independent variants at the TERT locus are associated with telomere length and risks of breast and ovarian cancer. *Nat Genet* 45: 371-384, 384e1-2.
98. Schonhoff SE, Giel-Moloney M, Leiter AB (2004) Neurogenin 3-expressing progenitor cells in the gastrointestinal tract differentiate into both endocrine and non-endocrine cell types. *Dev Biol* 270: 443-454.
99. Zhang XM, Ng AH, Tanner JA, Wu WT, Copeland NG, et al. (2004) Highly restricted expression of Cre recombinase in cerebellar Purkinje cells. *Genesis* 40: 45-51.
100. Ohyama T, Groves AK (2004) Generation of Pax2-Cre mice by modification of a Pax2 bacterial artificial chromosome. *Genesis* 38: 195-199.
101. Tian Y, Li M, Fritsch B, Zuo J (2004) Creation of a transgenic mouse for hair-cell gene targeting by using a modified bacterial artificial chromosome containing Prestin. *Dev Dyn* 231: 199-203.
102. Mukherjee A, Soyal SM, Wheeler DA, Fernandez-Valdivia R, Nguyen J, et al. (2006) Targeting iCre expression to murine progesterone receptor cell lineages using bacterial artificial chromosome transgenesis. *Genesis* 44: 601-610.
103. Bingham NC, Verma-Kurvari S, Parada LF, Parker KL (2006) Development of a steroidogenic factor 1/Cre transgenic mouse line. *Genesis* 44: 419-424.
104. Sackett SD, Fulmer JT, Friedman JR, Kaestner KH (2007) Foxl1-Cre BAC transgenic mice: a new tool for gene ablation in the gastrointestinal mesenchyme. *Genesis* 45: 518-522.
105. Sato S, Inoue T, Terada K, Matsuo I, Aizawa S, et al. (2007) Dkk3-Cre BAC transgenic mouse line: a tool for highly efficient gene deletion in retinal progenitor cells. *Genesis* 45: 502-507.
106. Sahly I, Fabre V, Vyas S, Milet A, Rouzeau JD, et al. (2007) 5-HT1A-iCre, a new transgenic mouse line for genetic analyses of the serotonergic pathway. *Mol Cell Neurosci* 36: 27-35.
107. Tiedt R, Schomber T, Hao-Shen H, Skoda RC (2007) Pf4-Cre transgenic mice allow the generation of lineage-restricted gene knockouts for studying megakaryocyte and platelet function in vivo. *Blood* 109: 1503-1506.
108. Gebhard S, Hattori T, Bauer E, Schlund B, Bösl MR, et al. (2008) Specific expression of Cre recombinase in hypertrophic cartilage under the control of a BAC-Col10a1 promoter. *Matrix Biol* 27: 693-699.
109. Ji B, Song J, Tsou L, Bi Y, Gaiser S, et al. (2008) Robust acinar cell transgene expression of CreErT via BAC recombineering. *Genesis* 46: 390-395.
110. Qiu HY, Guo C, Cheng XW, Huang Y, Xiong ZQ, et al. (2008) Pitx3-CreER mice showing restricted Cre expression in developing ocular lens and skeletal muscles. *Genesis* 46: 324-328.
111. Alizadeh A, Fitch KR, Niswender CM, McKnight GS, Barsh GS (2008) Melanocyte-lineage expression of Cre recombinase using Mitf regulatory elements. *Pigment Cell Melanoma Res* 21: 63-69.
112. Boyle S, Misfeldt A, Chandler KJ, Deal KK, Southard-Smith EM, et al. (2008) Fate mapping using Cited1-CreERT2 mice demonstrates that the cap mesenchyme contains self-renewing progenitor cells and gives rise exclusively to nephronic epithelia. *Dev Biol* 313: 234-245.
113. Xu Q, Tam M, Anderson SA (2008) Fate mapping Nkx2.1-lineage cells in the mouse telencephalon. *J Comp Neurol* 506: 16-29.
114. Scholten J, Hartmann K, Gerbault A, Krieg T, Müller W, et al. (2008) Mast cell-specific Cre/loxP-mediated recombination in vivo. *Transgenic Res* 17: 307-315.
115. Kawashima H, Hirakawa J, Tobisawa Y, Fukuda M, Saga Y (2009) Conditional gene targeting in mouse high endothelial venules. *J Immunol* 182: 5461-5468.
116. Birbach A, Casanova E, Schmid JA (2009) A Probasin-MerCreMer BAC allows inducible recombination in the mouse prostate. *Genesis* 47: 757-764.
117. Boross P, Breukel C, van Loo PF, van der Kaa J, Claassens JW, et al. (2009) Highly B lymphocyte-specific tamoxifen-inducible transgene expression of CreER T2 by using the LC-1 locus BAC vector. *Genesis* 47: 729-735.
118. Wang Y, Tripathi P, Guo Q, Coussens M, Ma L, et al. (2009) Cre/lox recombination in the lower urinary tract. *Genesis* 47: 409-413.
119. Repass JF, Laurent MN, Carter C, Reizis B, Bedford MT, et al. (2009) IL7-hCD25 and IL7-Cre BAC transgenic mouse lines: new tools for analysis of IL-7 expressing cells. *Genesis* 47: 281-287.
120. Wendling O, Bornert JM, Chambon P, Metzger D (2009) Efficient temporally controlled targeted mutagenesis in smooth muscle cells of the adult mouse. *Genesis* 47: 14-18.
121. Sassmann A, Offermanns S, Wettschureck N (2010) Tamoxifen-inducible Cre-mediated recombination in adipocytes.

- Genesis 48: 618-625.
122. Li S, Misra K, Xiang M (2010) A Cre transgenic line for studying V2 neuronal lineages and functions in the spinal cord. *Genesis* 48: 667-672.
123. Grabner B, Blaas L, Musteanu M, Hoffmann T, Birbach A, et al. (2010) A mouse tool for conditional mutagenesis in ovarian granulosa cells. *Genesis* 48: 612-617.
124. Quante M, Marrache F, Goldenring JR, Wang TC (2010) TFF2 mRNA transcript expression marks a gland progenitor cell of the gastric oxyntic mucosa. *Gastroenterology* 139: 2018-2027.
125. Borgius L, Restrepo CE, Leao RN, Saleh N, Kiehn O (2010) A transgenic mouse line for molecular genetic analysis of excitatory glutamatergic neurons. *Mol Cell Neurosci* 45: 245-257.
126. Ishihara N, Armsen W, Papadopoulos T, Betz H, Eulenburg V (2010) Generation of a mouse line expressing Cre recombinase in glycinergic interneurons. *Genesis* 48: 437-445.
127. Lang MF, Salinin S, Ridder DA, Kleesiek J, Hroudova J, et al. (2011) A transgenic approach to identify thyroxine transporter-expressing structures in brain development. *J Neuroendocrinol* 23: 1194-1203.
128. Lau J, Minett MS, Zhao J, Dennehy U, Wang F, et al. (2011) Temporal control of gene deletion in sensory ganglia using a tamoxifen-inducible Advillin-CreERT2 recombinase mouse. *Mol Pain* 7: 100.
129. Pellegrini M, Claps G, Orlova VV, Barrios F, Dolci S, et al. (2011) Targeted JAM-C deletion in germ cells by Spo11-controlled Cre recombinase. *J Cell Sci* 124: 91-99.
130. Arnolds DE, Moskowitz IP (2011) Inducible recombination in the cardiac conduction system of minK: CreERT² BAC transgenic mice. *Genesis* 49: 878-884.
131. Kim EJ, Hori K, Wyckoff A, Dickel LK, Koundakjian EJ, et al. (2011) Spatiotemporal fate map of neurogenin1 (Neurog1) lineages in the mouse central nervous system. *J Comp Neurol* 519: 1355-1370.
132. Aydin IT, Beermann F (2011) A *mart-1::Cre* transgenic line induces recombination in melanocytes and retinal pigment epithelium. *Genesis* 49: 403-409.
133. Cheng X, Li Y, Huang Y, Feng X, Feng G, et al. (2011) Pulse labeling and long-term tracing of newborn neurons in the adult subgranular zone. *Cell Res* 21: 338-349.
134. Shen TH, Gladoun N, Castillo-Martin M, Bonal D, Domingo-Domenech J, et al. (2012) A BAC-based transgenic mouse specifically expresses an inducible Cre in the urothelium. *PLoS One* 7: e35243.
135. Kang W, Hébert JM (2012) A Sox2 BAC transgenic approach for targeting adult neural stem cells. *PLoS One* 7: e49038.
136. Tarchini B, Jolicœur C, Cayouette M (2012) In vivo evidence for unbiased Ikaros retinal lineages using an Ikaros-Cre mouse line driving clonal recombination. *Dev Dyn* 241: 1973-1985.
137. Zhou X, Jeker LT, Fife BT, Zhu S, Anderson MS, et al. (2008) Selective miRNA disruption in T reg cells leads to uncontrolled autoimmunity. *J Exp Med* 205: 1983-1991.
138. Wang Y, Guo Q, Casey A, Lin C, Chen F (2012) A new tool for conditional gene manipulation in a subset of keratin-expressing epithelia. *Genesis* 50: 899-907.
139. Hu ZL, Huang Y, Tao XR, Qi ZH, Chen JY, et al. (2012) Inducible *Prrxl1-CreER(T2)* recombination activity in the somatosensory afferent pathway. *Genesis* 50: 552-560.
140. Simon C, Lickert H, Götz M, Dimou L (2012) Sox10-iCreERT2: a mouse line to inducibly trace the neural crest and oligodendrocyte lineage. *Genesis* 50: 506-515.
141. Wong QN, Ng VC, Lin MC, Kung HF, Chan D, et al. (2005) Efficient and seamless DNA recombineering using a thymidylate synthase A selection system in *Escherichia coli*. *Nucleic Acids Res* 33: e59.
142. Wang S, Zhao Y, Leiby M, Zhu J (2009) A new positive/negative selection scheme for precise BAC recombineering. *Mol Biotechnol* 42: 110-111.