Genome-scale analysis of cellular restriction factors that inhibit transgene expression from

adeno-associated virus vectors

Ashley M Ngo[1], Andreas S Puschnik[1,2]

[1] Chan Zuckerberg Biohub, San Francisco, CA, USA

[2] Correspondence should be addressed to A.S.P. (andreas.puschnik@czbiohub.org)

ABSTRACT

Adeno-associated virus (AAV) vectors are one of the leading platforms for gene delivery for the

treatment of human genetic diseases, but the antiviral cellular mechanisms that interfere with

optimal transgene expression are incompletely understood. Here, we performed two genome-

scale CRISPR screens to identify cellular factors that restrict transgene expression from

recombinant AAV vectors. Our screens revealed several components linked to DNA damage

response, chromatin remodeling and transcriptional regulation. Inactivation of the Fanconi

Anemia gene FANCA, the Human Silencing Hub (HUSH) associated methyltransferase SETDB1

and the gyrase, Hsp90, histidine kinase and MutL (GHKL)-type ATPase MORC3 led to increased

transgene expression. Moreover, SETDB1 and MORC3 knockout improved transgene levels of

several AAV serotypes as well as other viral vectors, such as lentivirus and adenovirus. Finally,

we demonstrated that inhibition of FANCA, SETDB1 or MORC3 also enhanced transgene

expression in human primary cells, suggesting that these could be physiologically relevant

pathways that restrict AAV transgene levels in therapeutic settings.

IMPORTANCE

Recombinant AAV (rAAV) vectors have been successfully developed for the treatment of

genetic diseases. The therapeutic strategy often involves the replacement of a defective gene

by expression of a functional copy from the rAAV vector genome. However, cells possess

antiviral mechanisms that recognize and silence foreign DNA elements thereby limiting

transgene expression and its therapeutic effect. Here, we utilize a functional genomics

approach to uncover a comprehensive set of cellular restriction factors that inhibit rAAV-based

transgene expression. Genetic inactivation of selected restriction factors increased rAAV

transgene expression. Hence, modulation of identified restriction factors has the potential to

enhance AAV gene replacement therapies.

KEYWORDS

Adeno-associated virus; AAV; viral vector; transgene silencing; HUSH complex; SETDB1; MORC3;

Fanconi Anemia; DNA damage; SMC5-SMC6; CRISPR screen; restriction factor; virus-host

interaction

INTRODUCTION

Adeno-associated virus (AAV) provides a powerful and versatile platform for gene

delivery to treat a variety of human genetic diseases. AAV is a small single-stranded DNA virus

with a genome size of ~4.7 kb from the *Parvoviridae* family. Its genome consists of two open

reading frames, *rep* and *cap*, which are flanked by inverted terminal repeat (ITR) sequences (1,

2). The ITRs are the only cis-acting elements required for genome packaging, which enables the

generation of recombinant AAV (rAAV) vectors containing a reporter or therapeutic transgene

in place of the endogenous *rep* and *cap* genes (3). rAAV vectors have been clinically approved

for the treatment of monogenic diseases, such as lipoprotein lipase deficiency, Leber congenital

amaurosis and spinal muscular atrophy, and there are over 150 ongoing clinical studies for

additional rAAV-based therapies (4).

Despite the recent clinical successes, rAAV-based gene therapies face several

challenges: (i) Large-scale manufacturing of rAAV for high dose administration ($>10^{14}$ viral

particles per patient), is expensive and difficult; (ii) immunological barriers such as the presence

of pre-existing neutralizing antibodies against AAV or the triggering of a robust humoral

immune response upon treatment prevent (repeated) administration; (iii) hepatic and neuronal

genotoxicity has been observed in a number of high-dose administrations; (iv) transgene

expression can be lost over time due to the clearance of transduced cells through a cytotoxic T

cell response and/or potential silencing of transgene expression (4–6). Increased efficiency in

rAAV transgene expression could therefore allow for a reduction in the therapeutic doses

needed, which consequently could decrease costs, elicit fewer neutralizing antibodies, reduce

the risk of genotoxicity, and lower AAV capsid-directed T lymphocyte-mediated cytotoxicity.

However, the precise host cellular pathways that restrict rAAV transgene expression are

incompletely understood.

RESULTS

Genome-wide CRISPR screens identify rAAV restriction factors

To identify cellular restriction factors of rAAV transgene expression that are likely to be

conserved across multiple cell types, we performed two parallel genome-wide screens using

CRISPR knockout (KO) in A549 human lung adenocarcinoma cells and CRISPR interference

(CRISPRi) in K562 myelogenous leukemia cells. We used a non-saturating multiplicity of

infection (moi) so that inhibition of a repressor would lead to an increase of expression of a

fluorescent reporter transgene. Based on rAAV serotype 2 (rAAV2) moi titrations, we used

10,000 viral genomes (vg)/cell for the A549 screen and 50,000 vg/cell for the K562 screen

(Figure S1A). We performed two rounds of rAAV transduction and FACS-based enrichment of

the top 10-20% fluorescent CRISPR library cells followed by analysis of the guide RNA (gRNA)

representation via next-generation sequencing (Figure 1A). Analysis with MaGeCK, a

computational tool that uses Robust Rank Aggregation (RRA) to identify positively or negatively

selected genes, resulted in significant enrichment of 20 genes in the A549 screen and of 88

genes in the K562 screens with a cutoff of -log(enrichment score) >5 (Figure S1B and S1C, Table

S1 and S2). Nearly all individual gRNAs were enriched for the top 15 genes of both screens,

suggesting that the increased transgene expression phenotypes resulting from the genetic

perturbations were robust (Figure S1D). Comparison of the enrichment scores from the A549

and K562 CRISPR screens highlighted that several Fanconi Anemia (FA) genes, the histone

methyltransferase SETDB1, the GHKL-type ATPase MORC3, the SUMO Interacting Motifs

Containing 1 (SIMC1), the DNA damage response gene ATM and additional genes (SMCHD1,

MTF1, DCLRE1A, DAXX, FAM208A, ZRANB2) were enriched in both datasets (Figure 1B). STRING

analysis on the top 100 hits from both screens, identified functional gene clusters and cellular

pathways, including the FA pathway, the Human Silencing Hub (HUSH) complex containing the

SETDB1 histone methyltransferase, the SMC5-SMC6 complex, the CCR4-NOT complex, and

genes linked to DNA damage repair and chromatin regulation (Figure 1C, Table S3).

The FA pathway is a biochemical network of 19 genes which are responsible for DNA

repair of interstrand crosslinks and stabilization of stalled replication forks, which can impede

DNA replication and transcription (7). Most FA core complex components (FANCA-FANCM),

which are responsible for lesion recognition and binding, were robustly enriched in both rAAV

screens, while the FA factors mediating lesion resolution downstream and the homologous

recombination machinery were not or only partially enriched (Figure 1D). Another DNA damage

repair factor that scored highly in both screens is the serine/threonine protein kinase ATM

(Figure 1B and 1D). ATM activates checkpoint signaling upon double strand breaks, apoptosis

and genotoxic stresses, thereby acting as a DNA damage sensor (8). Loss of the FA pathway and

ATM is synthetic lethal, suggesting closely linked cellular roles (9). Besides DNA damage

response genes, many factors were linked to chromatin and transcriptional regulation (Figure

1C and 1D). The histone methyltransferase SETDB1 is recruited by the HUSH complex,

composed of FAM208A (also known as TASOR), MPHOSPH8 and PPHLN1, to heterochromatic

loci and foreign DNA elements, such as retroviruses and transposons, to mediate transcriptional

repression (10, 11). Other HUSH associated factors (MORC2, ZNF638 and ATF7IP) required for

recruitment and full epigenetic silencing activity were also enriched in both screens (12–14).

The SMC5-SMC6 complex, highly ranked in the K562 screen, was previously shown to play a

role in silencing of extrachromosomal HBV DNA as well as unintegrated HIV-1 DNA (Figure 1C

and 1D) (15, 16). Finally, MORC3 is a nuclear matrix protein with ATPase activity and has been

linked to gene silencing, including of viral pathogens (17–19). Overall, the screens identified

numerous candidate restriction factors for rAAV transgene repression, which have canonical

roles in DNA damage repair and chromatin regulation.

The Fanconi Anemia pathway suppresses transgene expression from rAAV vectors

The FA pathway has to our knowledge not been functionally associated with the

regulation of AAV transgene expression. To validate the impact of the FA pathway on rAAV

transgene expression, we transduced three sets of FANCA expressing and matched FANCA

deficient cells. Dual gRNA/Cas9-mediated deletion of the N-terminus of FANCA in UM-SCC-01

cells significantly increased the percentage of rAAV2-tdTomato positive cells (rAAV2+) as well as

their median fluorescence intensity (MFI) relative to WT cells (Figure 2A and 2B). This effect was

reversed in FANCA transgene-complemented derivatives of the KO cells (Figure 2A and 2B).

Furthermore, transduction of mouse ear fibroblasts (MEFs) derived from WT or FANCA KO

129S4/SvJaeSor mice showed a similar increase of rAAV transgene expression in the FANCA-

deficient background (Figure 2C and 2D). Lastly, we obtained FA patient derived head and neck

squamous cell carcinoma cells ("974 cells"), which harbor a FANCA frameshift mutation, as well

as corresponding FA patient cells that were lentivirally complemented with an intact FANCA

cDNA copy (20). Complementation with FANCA cDNA led to a substantial decrease of rAAV

transgene expression relative to the unaltered FA patient derived 974 cells (Figure 2E and 2F).

As the FA pathway plays a role in DNA repair, we next tested whether mutations in FANCA

affect the stability of rAAV genomes in transduced cells. Quantitative PCR (qPCR) showed that

intracellular rAAV genome copy numbers were not significantly different in FANCA KO relative

to WT or FANCA trans-complemented UM-SCC1 cells (Figure 2G). Together, these data support

that the FA pathway plays a role in the transgene expression from rAAV vectors, independent

of rAAV genome stability.

Knockout of MORC3 and SETDB1 enhances rAAV transgene expression

Next, we sought to validate the impact of the (GHKL)-type ATPase MORC3 and the

histone methyltransferase SETDB1 on rAAV as previous reports have shown antiviral functions

for other DNA viruses (10, 14, 18, 19). We generated two clonal A549 KO cells per gene. The

MORC3 KO clones harbored frameshift mutations in exon 1, while the SETDB1 KO clones

contained a frameshift or large deletion (-21bp) in exon 2 (Figure S2A). The generated KO cell

lines did not show any growth defects (Figure S2B). Infection of KO cells with rAAV2-tdTomato

showed a substantial increase in rAAV2+ cells (by 16-19% in MORC3 KO and by 22-23% in

SETDB1 KO cells 3 days post-infection (dpi)) as well as in MFI (by 2.7-3.3x in MORC3 KO and by

5.4-6.8x in SETDB1 KO cells 3dpi) relative to WT cells (Figure 3A, 3B and S3). rAAV transgene

expression remained higher in KO vs WT cells over 8 days. Signal decreased in all conditions at

later timepoints likely due to the dilution of episomal rAAV DNA during cell proliferation.

Lentiviral complementation of MORC3 KO cells with MORC3 cDNA lowered the percentage of

rAAV+ cells and MFI to levels observed in WT cells (Figure 3C and 3D), supporting that rAAV

transgene expression is indeed modulated by MORC3 activity. Similarly, complementation of

SETDB1 KO cells with SETDB1 cDNA decreased both the percentage of tdTomato+ cells (albeit

to a lesser degree) and MFI (Figure 3E and 3F). Next, we tested whether deletion of MORC3 or

SETDB1 allowed for achieving comparable rAAV transduction rates with reduced rAAV moi.

Across a range of 100 to 100,000 vg/cell, MORC3 and SETDB1 KO cells exhibited significantly

higher transgene expression levels than WT cells, demonstrating that only ~one-tenth of the

rAAV amount was needed in KO cells to achieve similar transgene expression levels as in WT

cells (Figure 3G and 3H).

To explore whether the restriction factors act on rAAV genome stability or

transcriptional regulation, we measured whether rAAV genome copy numbers differed

between WT, MORC3 KO and SETDB1 KO cells using qPCR. While the rAAV2 genome copy

number was slightly lower in MORC3 KO cells 48h post-transduction, it was increased by 1.7x in

SETDB1 KO cells (Figure 3I). Additional quantification of transgene mRNA levels via RT-qPCR

showed that expression was moderately increased by 1.1-1.3x in MORC3 KO cells and by >2x in

SETDB1 KO cells (Figure S4A). Together, these data indicate that MORC3 likely modulates rAAV

transgene expression independently of affecting viral vector genome copies as MORC3 KO

exhibited higher tdTomato levels despite lower rAAV genome copies. By contrast, deletion of

the histone methyltransferase SETDB1 increased rAAV genome copies, which could largely

explain the increase in tdTomato fluorescent levels. However, SETDB1 KO led to an even larger

increase in transgene mRNA levels, which means that there could be additional restriction on

transcriptional level.

Different rAAV serotypes are used in research and clinical applications, often depending

on the target cell type or tissue. We therefore assessed whether MORC3 and SETDB1 also

affected transgene expression from different rAAV serotypes. We infected cells with rAAV1,

rAAV5 and rAAV6 vectors, which only lowly expressed GFP transgene in WT A549 cells. By

contrast, GFP expression was drastically increased in MORC3 and SETDB1 KO cells (Figure 4A

and 4B). Moreover, rAAV vector genomes can be single-stranded (ssAAV), which require

second-strand synthesis prior to gene expression (as were all rAAV vectors used above), or they

can be constructed with self-complementary genomes (scAAV). scAAV vectors form intra-

molecular dsDNA and thus do not require cell-mediated synthesis of the second strand. We

observed that presence of MORC3 and SETDB1 also restricted transgene expression from scAAV

genomes, similarly as for ssAAV vectors, which suggests that these cellular restriction factors do

not affect processes in the second-strand synthesis (Figure 4C and 4D).

Transgene expression from lentiviral, adenoviral and plasmid vectors is inhibited by MORC3

and SETDB1

In addition to rAAV, other viruses such as lentivirus and adenovirus are used for clinical

gene delivery applications (21). Interestingly, several recent studies suggested that MORC3 and

SETDB1 can suppress the expression of retroviral elements (10, 19, 22). Consistent with

previous studies, both MORC3 and SETDB1 KO increased lentivirus transduction rates and the

MFI of encoded GFP across multiple lentiviral dilutions (Figure 5A and 5B). This effect was

overall comparable as for rAAV, however, in contrast to rAAV, deletion of MORC3 had a

stronger effect on lentiviral transgene expression (e.g. ~12x increase in MFI at 1:3 lentivirus

dilution) than deletion of SETDB1 (~8x increase in MFI). RT-qPCR of lentiviral mRNAs showed

that transgene expression changes were higher than for rAAV2 in MORC3 KO and SETDB1 KO

cells suggesting stronger cellular restriction (Figure S4B). During infection with GFP-expressing

adenovirus 5 (AdV5-GFP), the percentage of GFP+ cells and the MFI of GFP were also increased

in MORC3 and SETDB1 KO relative to WT cells (Figure 5C and 5D). Moreover, transfection of a

GFP-expressing plasmid also led to an increased MFI in MORC3 and SETDB1 KO cells relative to

A549 WT cells, although the overall percentage of GFP+ cells did not change (Figure 5E and 5F).

By contrast, expression of a fluorescent protein from transfected mRNA-liposomes was

unchanged in MORC3 and SETDB1 KO relative to WT cells (Figure 5G and 5H). Together, these

data suggest MORC3 and SETDB1 broadly restrict foreign DNA elements, such as viral vectors

and plasmid DNA.

Knockdown of MORC3 and SETDB1 in primary human fibroblasts leads to increased transgene

expression

Finally, we explored whether inhibition of MORC3 or SETDB1 activity also affected rAAV

transgene expression in untransformed, primary human cells. For this purpose, we performed

siRNA knockdown in BJ fibroblasts. Transfection with MORC3 or SETDB1 siRNAs prior to rAAV2-

tdTomato transduction increased the percentage of tdTomato+ cells relative to cells

transfected with a non-targeting siRNA from 10% to 54% for MORC3 knockdown and to 18% for

SETDB1 knockdown (Figure 6A). RT-qPCR confirmed successful knockdown of MORC3 and

SETDB1 mRNA levels, although residual expression may still restrict rAAV transgene expression

to a certain degree (Figure 6B). Overall, this suggests that the rAAV restriction factors identified

in the genome-wide CRISPR screens could have a physiologically relevant function in inhibiting

rAAV-based therapies in clinical settings. Additional validation of screen hits beyond FANCA,

MORC3 and SETDB1 is needed as well as confirmation in additional primary cells and in vivo

models.

DISCUSSION

Our study provides a comprehensive picture of the cellular factors that limit gene

expression from AAV vectors in human cells. The majority of the identified host genes have

known functions in DNA damage sensing and repair, chromatin remodeling and transcriptional

regulation. The most prominent hit across both CRISPR screens was the FA pathway, which is

critical for the resolution of interstrand crosslinks or stalled replication forks (7). It is plausible

that the ITRs in the AAV genome mimic interstrand crosslinks or stalled replication forks and are

thus recognized by the FA machinery, which subsequently may impede second-strand synthesis

of or transcription from the rAAV genome. Interestingly, another study found that deletion of

FANCM led to enhanced AAV template-mediated homologous recombination (23). This further

supports that the FA machinery engages with AAV genomes to interfere with both transgene

expression as well as AAV template-mediated DNA repair. Other DNA damage response genes

enriched in our dataset, e.g. the ATM kinase and the MRN complex (consisting of

MRE11A/RAD50/NBN), have been shown to interact with the ITRs in the AAV genome and

suppress transgene expression (24–26). Interestingly, studies with other DNA viruses suggested

pro-viral effects for the FA pathway, which could be due to distinct differences in their genome

structure and life cycle (27–30). Future studies are warranted to mechanistically investigate

how the FA pathway interferes with the rAAV vectors and whether FA components directly bind

to the AAV genome.

Moreover, we found that knockout of the HUSH-associated histone methyltransferase

SETDB1 substantially increased transgene expression from rAAV and other viral vectors, such as

lentivirus and adenovirus. However, this effect may be partially or largely due to an increase of

intracellular rAAV genome copies. The exact mechanism how SETDB1 regulates rAAV genome

stability and whether it additionally regulates transcriptional activity from vector genomes need

to be studied further. In mammalian cells, SETDB1 is recruited by the HUSH complex to regulate

heterochromatin and has been described to mediate silencing of human immunodeficiency

virus (HIV) and other retroviral sequences by depositing repressive H3K9me3 histone marks (10,

11, 14, 31, 32). Importantly, SETDB1 is able to silence both integrated and unintegrated

retroviral DNA (10, 14). rAAV genomes typically exist as unintegrated episomes and are thought

to be bound by histones (33). Recently, it was also shown that the HUSH machinery recognizes

and silences a broad range of long, intronless transgenes (34). SETDB1 and the HUSH complex

may thus be major contributors to rAAV chromatinization and silencing, and potentially tagging

heterochromatinized episomes for degradation. The crucial role for SETDB1 and the HUSH

complex is further underscored by the enrichment of other factors in our screens. ATF7IP

interacts with SETDB1 and protects it from proteasomal degradation (13). The DNA-binding

protein ZNF638 (also known as NP220) is responsible for recruitment of the HUSH complex to

unintegrated murine retroviral DNA and may also act similarly on rAAV genomes (14). MORC2

was shown to to mediate transgene silencing and maintain chromatin compactness upon

recruitment by the HUSH complex (12). Finally, the role of the HUSH complex as a rAAV

restriction factor was also corroborated by a recent study. Consistent with our data, it showed

that knockout of HUSH components resulted in increased rAAV transgene levels and that

deletion of ZNF638 (NP220) decreased repressive H3K9me3 histone marks on AAV genomes

(35).

In addition to the HUSH-associated MORC2, MORC3, another Microchidia CW-type zinc

finger protein, was the top hit in the A549 screen and strongly enriched in the K562 screen.

MORC proteins are highly conserved, reside in the nucleus, contain a GHKL ATPase domain, and

have been linked to heterochromatin condensation and gene silencing (17, 36). Previously,

MORC3 was shown to restrict herpesviruses and endogenous retroviruses (ERVs) (18, 19).

Mechanistic studies revealed that MORC3 bound to ERV sequences and that knockout of

MORC3 resulted in ERV de-repression, reduced H3K9me3 levels and increased chromatin

accessibility (19). According to our results, we propose that MORC3 is a critical rAAV restriction

factor that silences rAAV genomes through possible chromatin regulation.

Additional screen hits have also been linked to chromatin regulation and gene silencing.

The ATRX/DAXX complex is responsible for deposition of H3.3 histones at heterochromatic

regions and has been shown to associate with both SETDB1 and MORC3 (19, 37, 38). Moreover,

the CHAF1 complex, together with the histone chaperon ASF1, delivers newly synthesized

H3/H4 dimers to replication forks and was recently shown to mediate silencing of unintegrated

HIV-1 DNA (39, 40). Overall, these chromatin modifiers with described roles in foreign DNA

silencing and may therefore also be involved in rAAV repression.

Lastly, the SMC5-SMC6 complex, which is critical for genome stability and DNA repair

(41), has emerged as a component of antiviral responses. It has recently been linked to

transcriptional restriction of numerous DNA viruses, such as hepatitis B virus, unintegrated

retroviral DNA, papillomavirus and Epstein-Barr virus (15, 16, 42, 43). Our data suggests that

SMC5-SMC6 can also potently inhibit rAAV vectors. During DNA repair, this complex is recruited

to DNA lesions by FAM178A (also known as SLF2) and SLF1 (44). A recent preprint

demonstrated that SIMC1, a top hit in both CRISPR screens and largely with unknown function,

forms a distinct complex with FAM178A to localize SMC5/SMC6 to viral replication centers (45).

Therefore, it is plausible that rAAV is repressed by recruitment of the SMC5-SMC6 complex via

FAM178A/SIMC1.

Overall, the identification of multiple components of specific cellular pathways in our

CRISPR screens indicates that these are high-confidence candidates for rAAV restriction factors.

Of note, two previous siRNA screens for regulators of rAAV transduction in HeLa cells showed

enrichment of a subset of the same restriction factors as in our CRISPR screens, including

ATF7IP, CHAF1A, DAXX, NPAT (a positive regulator of ATM) and MORC3 (previously named

ZCWCC3) in one study, as well as ATF71P, CHAF1A, SETDB1, NPAT and the transcription factor

MTF1 in another study (46, 47). Thus, our work corroborates some previously identified

candidate restriction factors and expands the network of cellular factors that interfere with

rAAV transgene expression.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Cell Culture

A549 and K562 were obtained from ATCC and cultured in DMEM (Gibco) supplemented with

10% fetal bovine serum (Omega Scientific), penicillin/streptomycin (Gibco), non-essential amino

acids (Gibco) and L-glutamine (Gibco) at 37C and 5% CO_2. HEK293ft cells were obtained from

Thermo Scientific and cultured as described above. WT, FANCA KO and trans-complemented

FANCA KO UM-SCC1 cells, WT and FANCA KO mouse ear fibroblasts, and FANCA-deficient

patient-derived 974 cells with and without FANCA complementation were kindly provided by

the Fanconi Anemia Research Fund at Oregon Health & Science University and cultured as

described above. Normal human BJ fibroblasts were obtained from ATCC (CRL-2522) and

cultured in Knockout DMEM (Gibco) supplemented with 15% fetal bovine serum, 16.5%

Medium 199 (Gibco), penicillin/streptomycin, and L-glutamine at 37C and 5% CO_2.

Viruses

The following rAAV vectors were obtained from the UNC School of Medicine Gene Therapy

Center Vector Core: AAV serotype 2 expressing GFP under a chimeric CMV–chicken ß–actin

(CBA) promoter (rAAV2-GFP), AAV serotype 2 expressing tdTomato under a CMV immediate

enhancer/β-actin (CAG) promoter (rAAV2-tdTomato), AAV serotype 1, 5 or 6 expressing GFP

under a CMV promoter (rAAV1/5/6-GFP), and self-complementary AAV serotype 2 expressing

GFP under a CMV promoter (scAAV2-GFP). Lentivirus expressing GFP was produced by co-

transfection of HEK293ft cells with the following plasmids: plenti-CMV-Puro-DEST (Addgene

#17452, gift from Eric Campeau & Paul Kaufman) where GFP cDNA was cloned into the EcoRV

site using NEBuilder HiFi DNA Assembly Master Mix; pCMV-dR8.2 dvpr (Addgene, #8455, gift

from Bob Weinberg); pCMV-VSV-G (Addgene, #8454, gift from Bob Weinberg); and pAdVAntage

(Promega). Supernatants were collected 48h post-transfection, filtered and stored at -80C until

use. Adenovirus Serotype 5, Clone Ad5-CMV-hACE2/RSV-eGFP (NR-52390) was kindly provided

through BEI Resources.

CRISPR screens

A549 cells were stably transduced with lentivirus from lentiCas9-Blast (Addgene #52962, gift

from Feng Zhang) and subsequently selected using blasticidin. Next, a total of 240 million A549-

Cas9 cells were transduced with the lentivirus of the human GeCKO v2 library (Addgene

#1000000049, gift from Feng Zhang) (48) at a moi of 0.4 and selected using puromycin for 7

days. 60 million cells of the A549 CRISPR KO library were collected for genomic DNA (gDNA)

extraction to assess the reference gRNA distribution. Another 60 million cells were transduced

with rAAV2-GFP at a moi of 10,000 vg/cell, which resulted in a ~45-50% transduction rate. The

top 10-15% GFP+ cells were sorted 3 dpi and replated. After 7 days, the A549 cells were re-

transduced with 10,000 vg/cell and the top 10-15% GFP+ cells were sorted again. A total of ~8

million cells was collected for gDNA extraction.

K562-dCas9-KRAB cells were a gift from Jonathan Weissman. 240 million cells were transduced

with lentivirus from the Human Genome-wide CRISPRi-v2 (Addgene #83969, also gift from

Jonathan Weissman) (49) at a moi of 0.4 using spin-inoculation (1000g, 33C, 2h) in 6-well plates.

Subsequently, cells were selected using Puromycin for 5 days. 100 million K562 CRISPRi library

cells were collected for gDNA extraction to assess the initial gRNA distribution. Another 60

million cells were spin-infected (1000g, 33C, 2h) with AAV2-GFP at a moi of 50,000 vg/cell. The

top 15-20% GFP+ cells (out of a total %GFP+ of 60%) were sorted and then continued to be

cultured. After 7 days, another round of spin-infection with AAV2-tdTomato and FACS of the

top 10-15% tdTomato+ cells were performed. A total of 16 million cells were collected for gDNA

extraction.

For both A549 and K562 cells, gDNA was isolated using the Qiagen DNA Blood Maxi kit (for

reference cells) or multiple QIAamp DNA Mini kit columns (for sorted cells). CRISPR gRNA

encoding DNA sequences were amplified in a two-step nested PCR using KAPA HiFi HotStart

ReadyMixPCR Kit (Kapa Biosystems). In the first PCR step, 36-48 reactions and 12 reactions

containing 6 µg gDNA were set up for the reference and sorted samples, respectively, and

amplified for 16 cycles. Reactions for each sample were pooled and mixed. In the second PCR

step, 4 reactions containing 5 µl PCR1 product were amplified for 12 cycles using indexed

primers. PCR products were gel purified using QIAquick Gel Extraction Kit and sequenced on an

Illumina NextSeq 500 using custom sequencing primers. Primers sequences are listed in Table

S4.

For analysis, demultiplexed FASTQ files were aligned to gRNA reference table and enrichment

of each gRNA was calculated by comparing the relative abundance in the selected and

unselected cell population. Gene enrichment analysis was performed using MaGeCK (50). For

STRING analysis (51), the top 100 enriched genes from each CRISPR screen were used as input

and gene interactions were computed using a STRING confidence score of 0.4. MaGeCK scores

were overlaid using Cytoscape 3.9.0 (52) and only the major gene network is displayed in Figure

1.

Generation of KO cell lines

DNA oligos (Integrated DNA Technologies) containing gRNA sequences complementary to

MORC3 or SETDB1 genomic loci were annealed and ligated into pX458 (Addgene #48138, gift

from Feng Zhang). A549 cells were transfected with pX458 constructs using Lipofectamine 3000

and two days later GFP-positive cells were single-cell sorted into 96-well plates containing

complete media. After several weeks, gDNA was isolated from obtained cell clones using

QuickExtract (Lucigen), the gRNA-targeted sites were PCR-amplified, PCR products Sanger-

sequenced and sequences aligned to reference sequences using Geneious Prime. A list of all

used gRNA oligo and genotyping primer sequences can be found in Table S4.

Lentiviral complementation of KO cells

For generation of trans-complemented cell lines, lentivirus was generated as described above

using plenti-CMV-Puro-DEST containing MORC3 (OriGene Technologies, RC210530) or SETDB1

(OriGene Technologies, RC226620) cDNA sequences. KO cells were transduced in presence of

polybrene and subsequently selected using Puromycin.

Flow cytometry

Cells were plated in 96-wells and infected the next day. At indicated timepoints, cells were

trypsinized and analyzed by flow cytometry using a Cytoflex S flow cytometer (Beckman

Coulter). At least 4,000 cells were recorded per sample and cells were gated based on FSC/SSC,

FSC-H/FSC-A (singlets) and finally PE (tdTomato) or FITC (GFP) to determine the percentage of

fluorescent (infected) cells using FlowJo 10. Moreover, the median fluorescence intensity (MFI)

of the fluorescent cells was determined using FlowJo 10. In all experiments, uninfected cells

served as negative control for gate setting.

Quantification of intracellular AAV genome copies

UM-SCC1 or A549 cell lines were plated in 12-well plates and transduced with rAAV2-tdTomato

at a moi of 10,000 vg/cell the next day. 48h post-transduction cells were washed with PBS 3

times, trypsinized and pelleted by centrifugation. Cellular and rAAV DNA was extracted from

cell pellet using the DNeasy Blood and Tissue kit (Qiagen). 2 µl of purified DNA was used as

input to quantify AAV genome copies via qPCR on a Bio-Rad CFX96 Touch system. AAV genomes

copies were determined by amplification with primers targeting the AAV2 ITR region and

normalized to the cellular RPPH1 locus copy number using IDT PrimeTime qPCR primers. QPCR

primer sequences can be found in Table S4.

RT-qPCR

For quantification of transgene expression, AAV- or lentivirus transduced cells were harvested

using the Power SYBR Green Cells-to-CT kit (Invitrogen). After reverse transcription,

quantitative PCR was performed on a Bio-Rad CFX96 Touch system and viral transgene levels

(GFP or tdTomato) were normalized to cellular 18S levels. For quantification of siRNA

knockdown of MORC3 and SETDB1 mRNA levels, cells were harvested 4 days post siRNA

transfection using the Power SYBR Green Cells-to-CT kit (Invitrogen). IDT PrimeTime qPCR

Primers for MORC3 and SETDB1 were used and expression levels were normalized to 18S. QPCR

primer sequences can be found in Table S4.

Cell proliferation assay

WT, MORC3 KO and SETDB1 KO cells were seeded in 96-wells at a density of 8,000 cells per

well. At 24, 48 and 72h post-plating Cell Titer Glo 2.0 solution (Promega) was added on top of

the cell media and incubated for 10min. After that, 100 µl were transferred to a white 96-well

microplate and luminescence was measured using on an EnVision plate reader (PerkinElmer).

siRNA transfection

ON-TARGETplus Non-targeting Control Pool, ON-TARGETplus Human MORC3 siRNA SMART

POOL and ON-TARGETplus Human SETDB1 siRNA SMART POOL were obtained from Horizon

Discovery.

10,000 BJ fibroblasts were plated in 96-wells to reach ~50% confluency by the next day. Then,

cells were transfected with siRNA pools using 0.3 µl RNAiMAX reagent (Invitrogen), 30 nM

siRNA and 20 µl OptiMEM (Gibco) per 96-well. 4 days post-transfection, cells were transduced

with rAAV and rAAV transgene expression was quantified by flow cytometry 36h post-

transduction. In parallel, transfected but untransduced cells were harvested for analysis of

mRNA knockdown.

DATA AVAILABILITY

The raw sequencing data for the A549 CRISPR KO and K562 CRISPRi screens are available on

NCBI under the BioProject ID PRJNA852611.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Drs. Nicole Paulk (UCSF), Jan Carette (Stanford University) and James Zengel

(Stanford University) for helpful discussions; the Biohub Genomics Platform for help with

sequencing of the CRISPR screen samples; the UNC Gene Therapy Center for providing rAAV

vectors; Drs. Jonathan Weissman (UCSF) and Feng Zhang (Broad Institute) for providing the

CRISPRi and CRISPR KO library plasmids; and Dr. Leslie Wakefield and the Fanconi Anemia

Research Fund at Oregon Health & Science University for providing FANCA KO and trans-

complemented cell lines.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

AMN and ASP performed all experiments and analyzed data. ASP designed the study and wrote

the manuscript.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

The authors have declared no competing interest.

REFERENCES

1. Srivastava A, Lusby EW, Berns KI. 1983. Nucleotide sequence and organization of the adeno-associated virus 2 genome. J Virol 45:555–564.

2. Samulski RJ, Muzyczka N. 2014. AAV-Mediated Gene Therapy for Research and Therapeutic Purposes. Annu Rev Virol 1:427–451.

3. McLaughlin SK, Collis P, Hermonat PL, Muzyczka N. 1988. Adeno-associated virus general transduction vectors: analysis of proviral structures. J Virol 62:1963–1973.

4. Wang D, Tai PWL, Gao G. 2019. Adeno-associated virus vector as a platform for gene therapy delivery. 5. Nat Rev Drug Discov 18:358–378.

5. Colella P, Ronzitti G, Mingozzi F. 2018. Emerging Issues in AAV-Mediated In Vivo Gene Therapy. Molecular Therapy - Methods & Clinical Development 8:87–104.

6. Greig JA, Breton C, Martins KM, Zhu Y, He Z, White J, Bell P, Wang L, Wilson JM. 2022. Loss of

transgene expression limits liver gene therapy in primates. bioRxiv

https://doi.org/10.1101/2022.03.24.485675.

7. Ceccaldi R, Sarangi P, D'Andrea AD. 2016. The Fanconi anaemia pathway: new players and

new functions. 6. Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol 17:337–349.

8. Maréchal A, Zou L. 2013. DNA Damage Sensing by the ATM and ATR Kinases. Cold Spring

Harb Perspect Biol 5:a012716.

9. Cai M-Y, Dunn CE, Chen W, Kochupurakkal BS, Nguyen H, Moreau LA, Shapiro GI, Parmar K,

Kozono D, D'Andrea AD. 2020. Cooperation of the ATM and Fanconi Anemia/BRCA

Pathways in Double-Strand Break End Resection. Cell Reports 30:2402-2415.e5.

10. Tchasovnikarova IA, Timms RT, Matheson NJ, Wals K, Antrobus R, Göttgens B, Dougan G,

Dawson MA, Lehner PJ. 2015. Epigenetic silencing by the HUSH complex mediates

position-effect variegation in human cells. Science 348:1481–1485.

11. Liu N, Lee CH, Swigut T, Grow E, Gu B, Bassik MC, Wysocka J. 2018. Selective silencing of

euchromatic L1s revealed by genome-wide screens for L1 regulators. Nature 553:228–232.

12. Tchasovnikarova IA, Timms RT, Douse CH, Roberts RC, Dougan G, Kingston RE, Modis Y,

Lehner PJ. 2017. Hyperactivation of HUSH complex function by Charcot-Marie-Tooth

disease mutation in MORC2. Nat Genet 49:1035–1044.

13. Timms RT, Tchasovnikarova IA, Antrobus R, Dougan G, Lehner PJ. 2016. ATF7IP-Mediated

Stabilization of the Histone Methyltransferase SETDB1 Is Essential for Heterochromatin

Formation by the HUSH Complex. Cell Rep 17:653–659.

14. Zhu Y, Wang GZ, Cingöz O, Goff SP. 2018. NP220 mediates silencing of unintegrated

retroviral DNA. 7735. Nature 564:278–282.

15. Decorsière A, Mueller H, van Breugel PC, Abdul F, Gerossier L, Beran RK, Livingston CM,

Niu C, Fletcher SP, Hantz O, Strubin M. 2016. Hepatitis B virus X protein identifies the

Smc5/6 complex as a host restriction factor. 7594. Nature 531:386–389.

16. Dupont L, Bloor S, Williamson JC, Cuesta SM, Shah R, Teixeira-Silva A, Naamati A,

Greenwood EJD, Sarafianos SG, Matheson NJ, Lehner PJ. 2021. The SMC5/6 complex

compacts and silences unintegrated HIV-1 DNA and is antagonized by Vpr. Cell Host

Microbe 29:792-805.e6.

17. Moissiard G, Cokus SJ, Cary J, Feng S, Billi AC, Stroud H, Husmann D, Zhan Y, Lajoie BR,

McCord RP, Hale CJ, Feng W, Michaels SD, Frand AR, Pellegrini M, Dekker J, Kim JK,

Jacobsen SE. 2012. MORC family ATPases required for heterochromatin condensation and

gene silencing. Science 336:1448–1451.

18. Sloan E, Orr A, Everett RD. 2016. MORC3, a Component of PML Nuclear Bodies, Has a Role

in Restricting Herpes Simplex Virus 1 and Human Cytomegalovirus. Journal of Virology

90:8621–8633.

19. Groh S, Milton AV, Marinelli LK, Sickinger CV, Russo A, Bollig H, de Almeida GP, Schmidt A,

Forné I, Imhof A, Schotta G. 2021. Morc3 silences endogenous retroviruses by enabling

Daxx-mediated histone H3.3 incorporation. Nat Commun 12:5996.

20. Webster ALH, Sanders MA, Patel K, Dietrich R, Noonan RJ, Lach FP, White RR, Goldfarb A,

Hadi K, Edwards MM, Donovan FX, Jung M, Sridhar S, Fedrigo O, Tian H, Rosiene J,

Heineman T, Kennedy JA, Bean L, Rosti O, Tryon R, Gonzalez A-M, Rosenberg A, Luo J-D,

Carrol T, Velleuer E, Rastatter JC, Wells SI, Surrallés J, Bagby G, MacMillan ML, Wagner JE,

Cancio M, Boulad F, Scognamiglio T, Vaughan R, Koren A, Imielinski M, Chandrasekharappa

S, Auerbach AD, Singh B, Kutler DI, Campbell PJ, Smogorzewska A. 2021. Fanconi Anemia

Pathway Deficiency Drives Copy Number Variation in Squamous Cell Carcinomas. bioRxiv

https://doi.org/10.1101/2021.08.14.456365.

21. Bulcha JT, Wang Y, Ma H, Tai PWL, Gao G. 2021. Viral vector platforms within the gene

therapy landscape. Sig Transduct Target Ther 6:1–24.

22. Collins PL, Kyle KE, Egawa T, Shinkai Y, Oltz EM. 2015. The histone methyltransferase

SETDB1 represses endogenous and exogenous retroviruses in B lymphocytes. Proceedings

of the National Academy of Sciences 112:8367–8372.

23. de Alencastro G, Puzzo F, Pavel-Dinu M, Zhang F, Pillay S, Majzoub K, Tiffany M, Jang H,

Sheikali A, Cromer MK, Meetei R, Carette JE, Porteus MH, Pekrun K, Kay MA. 2021.

Improved Genome Editing through Inhibition of FANCM and Members of the BTR

Dissolvase Complex. Mol Ther 29:1016–1027.

24. Zentilin L, Marcello A, Giacca M. 2001. Involvement of cellular double-stranded DNA break

binding proteins in processing of the recombinant adeno-associated virus genome. J Virol

75:12279–12287.

25. Schwartz RA, Palacios JA, Cassell GD, Adam S, Giacca M, Weitzman MD. 2007. The

Mre11/Rad50/Nbs1 complex limits adeno-associated virus transduction and replication. J

Virol 81:12936–12945.

26. Lentz TB, Samulski RJ. 2015. Insight into the mechanism of inhibition of adeno-associated

virus by the Mre11/Rad50/Nbs1 complex. J Virol 89:181–194.

27. Karttunen H, Savas JN, McKinney C, Chen Y-H, Yates JR, Hukkanen V, Huang TT, Mohr I.

2014. Co-opting the Fanconi anemia genomic stability pathway enables herpesvirus DNA

synthesis and productive growth. Mol Cell 55:111–122.

28. Cherubini G, Naim V, Caruso P, Burla R, Bogliolo M, Cundari E, Benihoud K, Saggio I,

Rosselli F. 2011. The FANC pathway is activated by adenovirus infection and promotes viral

replication-dependent recombination. Nucleic Acids Res 39:5459–5473.

29. Spriggs CC, Laimins LA. 2017. FANCD2 Binds Human Papillomavirus Genomes and

Associates with a Distinct Set of DNA Repair Proteins to Regulate Viral Replication. mBio

8:e02340-16.

30. Fu S, Phan AT, Mao D, Wang X, Gao G, Goff SP, Zhu Y. 2022. HIV-1 exploits the Fanconi

anemia pathway for viral DNA integration. Cell Rep 39:110840.

31. Robbez-Masson L, Tie CHC, Conde L, Tunbak H, Husovsky C, Tchasovnikarova IA, Timms RT,

Herrero J, Lehner PJ, Rowe HM. 2018. The HUSH complex cooperates with TRIM28 to

repress young retrotransposons and new genes. Genome Res 28:836–845.

32. Wang GZ, Goff SP. 2016. Transcriptional Silencing of Moloney Murine Leukemia Virus in

Human Embryonic Carcinoma Cells. J Virol 91:e02075-16.

33. Smith-Moore S, Neil SJD, Fraefel C, Linden RM, Bollen M, Rowe HM, Henckaerts E. 2018.

Adeno-associated virus Rep proteins antagonize phosphatase PP1 to counteract KAP1

repression of the latent viral genome. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences

115:E3529–E3538.

34. Seczynska M, Bloor S, Cuesta SM, Lehner PJ. 2022. Genome surveillance by HUSH-

mediated silencing of intronless mobile elements. 7893. Nature 601:440–445.

35. Das A, Vijayan M, Walton EM, Stafford VG, Fiflis DN, Asokan A. 2021. Epigenetic silencing

of recombinant AAV genomes by NP220 and the HUSH complex. J Virol JVI0203921.

36. Li D-Q, Nair SS, Kumar R. 2013. The MORC family. Epigenetics 8:685–693.

37. Xue Y, Gibbons R, Yan Z, Yang D, McDowell TL, Sechi S, Qin J, Zhou S, Higgs D, Wang W.

2003. The ATRX syndrome protein forms a chromatin-remodeling complex with Daxx and

localizes in promyelocytic leukemia nuclear bodies. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 100:10635–

10640.

38. Hoelper D, Huang H, Jain AY, Patel DJ, Lewis PW. 2017. Structural and mechanistic insights

into ATRX-dependent and -independent functions of the histone chaperone DAXX. Nat

Commun 8:1193.

39. Volk A, Crispino JD. 2015. The role of the chromatin assembly complex (CAF-1) and its p60

subunit (CHAF1b) in homeostasis and disease. Biochim Biophys Acta 1849:979–986.

40. Geis FK, Sabo Y, Chen X, Li Y, Lu C, Goff SP. 2022. CHAF1A/B mediate silencing of

unintegrated HIV-1 DNAs early in infection. Proceedings of the National Academy of

Sciences 119:e2116735119.

41. Uhlmann F. 2016. SMC complexes: from DNA to chromosomes. Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol

17:399–412.

42. Yiu SPT, Guo R, Zerbe C, Weekes MP, Gewurz BE. 2022. Epstein-Barr virus BNRF1

destabilizes SMC5/6 cohesin complexes to evade its restriction of replication

compartments. Cell Reports 38.

43. Bentley P, Tan MJA, McBride AA, White EA, Howley PM. 2018. The SMC5/6 Complex

Interacts with the Papillomavirus E2 Protein and Influences Maintenance of Viral Episomal

DNA. J Virol 92:e00356-18.

44. Räschle M, Smeenk G, Hansen RK, Temu T, Oka Y, Hein MY, Nagaraj N, Long DT, Walter JC,

Hofmann K, Storchova Z, Cox J, Bekker-Jensen S, Mailand N, Mann M. 2015. DNA repair.

Proteomics reveals dynamic assembly of repair complexes during bypass of DNA cross-

links. Science 348:1253671.

45.   Oravcová M, Nie M, Zilio N, Maeda S, Jami-Alahmadi Y, Lazzerini-Denchi E, Wohlschlegel

JA, Ulrich HD, Otomo T, Boddy MN. 2022. The Nse5/6-like SIMC1-SLF2 Complex Localizes

SMC5/6 to Viral Replication Centers. bioRxiv https://doi.org/10.1101/2022.05.17.492321.

46.   Hölscher C, Sonntag F, Henrich K, Chen Q, Beneke J, Matula P, Rohr K, Kaderali L, Beil N,

Erfle H, Kleinschmidt JA, Müller M. 2015. The SUMOylation Pathway Restricts Gene

Transduction by Adeno-Associated Viruses. PLOS Pathogens 11:e1005281.

47.   Mano M, Ippodrino R, Zentilin L, Zacchigna S, Giacca M. 2015. Genome-wide RNAi

screening identifies host restriction factors critical for in vivo AAV transduction.

Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 112:11276–11281.

48.   Sanjana NE, Shalem O, Zhang F. 2014. Improved vectors and genome-wide libraries for

CRISPR screening. Nat Methods 11:783–784.

49.   Horlbeck MA, Gilbert LA, Villalta JE, Adamson B, Pak RA, Chen Y, Fields AP, Park CY, Corn

JE, Kampmann M, Weissman JS. 2016. Compact and highly active next-generation libraries

for CRISPR-mediated gene repression and activation. Elife 5:e19760.

50.   Li W, Xu H, Xiao T, Cong L, Love MI, Zhang F, Irizarry RA, Liu JS, Brown M, Liu XS. 2014.

MAGeCK enables robust identification of essential genes from genome-scale CRISPR/Cas9

knockout screens. Genome Biol 15:554.

51.   Szklarczyk D, Gable AL, Nastou KC, Lyon D, Kirsch R, Pyysalo S, Doncheva NT, Legeay M,

Fang T, Bork P, Jensen LJ, von Mering C. 2021. The STRING database in 2021: customizable

protein-protein networks, and functional characterization of user-uploaded

gene/measurement sets. Nucleic Acids Res 49:D605–D612.

52.   Shannon P, Markiel A, Ozier O, Baliga NS, Wang JT, Ramage D, Amin N, Schwikowski B,

Ideker T. 2003. Cytoscape: a software environment for integrated models of biomolecular

interaction networks. Genome Res 13:2498–2504.

 MAIN FIGURES LEGENDS

Figure 1. CRISPR screens reveal cellular factors that restrict rAAV transgene expression.

(A) Schematic of genome-wide CRISPR screens using CRISPR KO in A549 human lung

adenocarcinoma cells and CRISPRi in K562 myelogenous leukemia cells. Cells were transduced

with rAAV2 expressing a fluorescent reporter gene (GFP or tdTomato) and the top 10-20%

fluorescent cells were sorted. After 5-7 days, a second round of transduction and sorting was

performed before cells were collected for analysis of sgRNA enrichment by next-generation

sequencing.

(B) MaGeCK gene enrichment scores of the A549 CRISPR KO screen (y-axis) vs. MaGeCK gene

enrichment scores of K562 CRISPRi screen (x-axis). Genes with -log10 (enrichment score) > 3 in

both screens are highlighted.

(C) STRING network for the top 100 hits from both the A549 and the K562 CRISPR screens.

Genes were clustered based on high-confidence interactions (STRING confidence cutoff 0.7)

and the major gene network is displayed. CRISPR screen enrichment scores for each gene are

shown using a color scale. Line thickness indicates confidence of interaction.

(D) Heatmap of gene rankings in A549 and K562 CRISPR screens for selected genes related to

DNA damage response and other cellular processes.

Figure 2. The Fanconi Anemia pathway represses rAAV transgene expression.

(A) rAAV2-tdTomato infection rate or (B) MFI of human WT, FANCA KO and KO UM-SCC1 cells

complemented with FANCA transgene (Tg). Cells were infected with rAAV2 (moi=10,000) for

48h and tdTomato expression was analyzed by flow cytometry.

(C) rAAV2-tdTomato infection rate or (D) MFI of mouse ear fibroblasts (MEF) derived from WT

or FANCA KO 129S4/SvJaeSor mice. Cells were infected with rAAV2 (moi=100,000) for 24h and

tdTomato expression was analyzed by flow cytometry.

(E) rAAV2-tdTomato infection rate or (F) MFI of FA patient-derived head and neck squamous

cell carcinoma cells (974 cells), which harbor a FANCA frameshift mutation, as well as of 974

cells that were complemented with FANCA transgene (Tg). Cells were infected with rAAV2

(moi=10,000) for 48h and tdTomato expression was analyzed by flow cytometry.

(G) Quantification of intracellular rAAV genome copies. Transduced cells (moi=10,000) were

harvested after 48h, DNA was extracted and AAV and cellular RPPH1 DNA copy numbers were

determined by qPCR. Data is combined from 2 independent experiments with 3 biological

replicates each.

All FACS data are shown as the mean ± s.d. from biological triplicates. P-values were

determined by ANOVA with post-hoc Tukey's test for (A)-(B) and unpaired t-test for (C)-(F), and

are defined as follows: ns: non-significant; *: <0.05; **: <0.01; ***: <0.001; ****: <0.0001.

Figure 3. Knockout of MORC3 and SETDB1 increases rAAV2 transgene expression.

(A) Percentage or (B) MFI of rAAV2-positive cells over time. WT, MORC3 KO or SETDB1 KO A549

cells were infected with tdTomato-expressing rAAV2 (moi=10,000) and cells were measured by

flow cytometry at day 1, 3, 6 and 8 post-infection.

(C) Percentage or (D) MFI of rAAV2-positive WT, MORC3 KO or cDNA-complemented MORC3

KO cells. Cells were infected with tdTomato-expressing rAAV2 (moi=10,000) and cells were

measured by flow cytometry 24 hpi.

(E) Percentage or (F) MFI of rAAV2-positive WT, SETDB1 KO or cDNA-complemented SETDB1 KO

cells. Cells were infected with tdTomato-expressing rAAV2 (moi=10,000) and cells were

measured by flow cytometry 24 hpi.

(G) Percentage or (H) MFI of rAAV2-positive WT, MORC3 KO or SETDB1 KO cells infected with

different multiplicities of infection (moi) and measured by flow cytometry 24 hpi.

(I) Quantification of intracellular rAAV genome copies in WT A549, MORC3 KO (clone 1) and

SETDB1 KO (clone 1). Transduced cells (moi=10,000) were harvested after 48h, DNA was

extracted and AAV and cellular RPPH1 DNA copy numbers were determined by qPCR. Data is

combined from 2 independent experiments with 3 biological replicates each.

FACS data are shown as the mean ± s.d. from biological triplicates (A-F) or from biological

duplicates (G-H). P-values were determined by ANOVA with post-hoc Tukey's test and are

defined as follows: ns: non-significant; *: <0.05; **: <0.01; ***: <0.001; ****: <0.0001.

Figure 4. MORC3 and SETDB1 restrict transgene expression from different rAAV serotypes as

well as self-complementary rAAV vectors.

(A) Percentage or (B) MFI of WT, MORC3 KO or SETDB1 KO A549 cells infected with rAAV

serotypes 1, 5 or 6 (moi=50,000) and analyzed by flow cytometry at 3 dpi.

(C) Percentage or (D) MFI of WT, MORC3 KO or SETDB1 KO A549 cells infected with scAAV

serotype 2 (moi=10,000) and analyzed by flow cytometry at 3 dpi.

All data are shown as the mean ± s.d. from biological triplicates. P-values were determined by

ANOVA with post-hoc Tukey's test for each rAAV and are defined as follows: ns: non-significant;

*: <0.05; **: <0.01; ***: <0.001; ****: <0.0001.

Figure 5. MORC3 and SETDB1 repress transgene expression from lentiviral, adenoviral and

plasmid vectors.

(A) Percentage or (B) MFI of WT, MORC3 KO or SETDB1 KO A549 cells transduced with different

dilutions of a GFP-expressing lentivirus. Fluorescent cells were measured by flow cytometry 3

days post-transduction.

(C) Percentage or (D) MFI of WT, MORC3 KO or SETDB1 KO A549 cells infected with different

moi of a GFP-expressing adenovirus 5 (AdV5-GFP) vector. Cells were analyzed by flow

cytometry at 24 hpi.

(E) Percentage or (F) MFI of WT, MORC3 KO or SETDB1 KO A549 cells transfected with a GFP

encoding plasmid and analyzed by flow cytometry 24h post-transfection.

(G) Percentage or (H) MFI of WT, MORC3 KO or SETDB1 KO A549 cells transfected with in-vitro

transcribed RFP mRNA and analyzed by flow cytometry 24h post-transfection.

All data are shown as the mean ± s.d. from biological triplicates.

Figure 6. Knockdown of MORC3 and SETDB1 in primary human fibroblasts increases rAAV

transgene expression

(A) Percentage of rAAV2-tdTomato positive BJ fibroblasts that were transfected with a non-

target siRNA (NT) or siRNAs against MORC3 and SETDB1 4 days prior to rAAV transduction. Cells

were analyzed by flow cytometry 36h post-transduction. Data are shown as the mean ± s.d.

from biological triplicates. P-values were determined by ANOVA with post-hoc Tukey's test and

are defined as follows: ns: non-significant; *: <0.05; **: <0.01; ***: <0.001; ****: <0.0001.

686   (B) Quantification of MORC3 and SETDB1 mRNA levels 4 days after siRNA transfection. Data are

687   shown as the mean ± s.e.m. from biological triplicates.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6