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

adeno-associated virus vectors

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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 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

siRNA knockdown of SETDB1 and MORC3 prior to viral vector administration enhanced transgene

expression, providing a strategy for the improvement of gene therapy applications.

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: (1) Large-scale manufacturing of rAAV for high dose administration ($>10^{14}$ viral particles per patient), is expensive and difficult; (2) 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; (3) hepatic and neuronal genotoxicity has been observed in a number of high-dose administrations; (4) 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.

To address this knowledge gap, we performed genome-wide CRISPR knockout (KO) and

interference (CRISPRi) screens to identify cellular factors that restrict transgene expression from

rAAV vectors. These identified several factors involved in DNA repair and chromatin regulation,

most prominently the Fanconi Anemia (FA) pathway, components of the Human Silencing Hub

(HUSH) complex and the gyrase, Hsp90, histidine kinase and MutL (GHKL)-type ATPase MORC3.

Follow-up studies demonstrated that genetic deletion of FANCA, the HUSH-associated

methyltransferase SETDB1 and MORC3 led to increased transgene expression from rAAV vectors.

SETDB1 and MORC3 were also shown to inhibit transgene expression from other virus-based

vectors such as Lentivirus and Adenovirus, suggesting that they represent a broad restriction

mechanism against foreign DNA elements. Finally, we demonstrated that treatment with siRNAs

against SETDB1 and MORC3 prior to rAAV or Lentivirus transduction led to increased transgene

expression in human cells, indicating that this strategy should be explored further for the

potential enhancement of viral vector-based gene therapy regimens.

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 KO in A549 human alveolar basal epithelial cells and CRISPRi in K562 myeloid lymphoblast

cells. We used a non-saturating multiplicity of infection (moi) so that knockout/knockdown of a

repressor would lead to increased expression of a fluorescent reporter transgene. Based on rAAV

serotype 2 (AAV2) 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 for CRISPR screen analysis, 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 1B and 1C, Supplemental Table 1). 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 S1B). We

performed STRING analysis on the top 100 hits from both screens, which identified functional

gene clusters and cellular pathways, such as the FA pathway, the HUSH complex, the SMC5-SMC6

complex, the CCR4-NOT complex, and genes linked to DNA damage repair and chromatin

regulation (Figure 1D, Supplemental Table 2). Comparison of the enrichment scores from the

A549 and K562 CRISPR screens highlighted that a subset of the FA genes, the histone

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

1 (SIMC1), the DNA damage response gene ATM and other genes (SMCHD1, MTF1, DCLRE1A,

DAXX, FAM208A, ZRANB2) were significantly enriched in both datasets (Figure 1E and S1C).

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]. During this process, the FA core complex first recognizes the

DNA lesion before a nucleolytic incision occurs and the lesion is repaired through homologous

recombination. 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 1E). Another DNA damage repair factor, the

serine/threonine protein kinase 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]. Several additional

DNA damage repair factors and components of the SMC5-SMC6 complex, which is involved in

genome stability and DNA repair, were strong hits only in the K562 screen (Figure 1E)[10].

Besides DNA damage response, many factors were linked to chromatin regulation (Figure

1E). 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[11,12].

Other associated factors (MORC2, ZNF638 and ATF7IP) required for recruitment and full

epigenetic silencing activity were also enriched in both screens[13–15]. Finally, MORC3 is a nuclear

matrix protein with ATPase activity and has been linked to gene silencing, including of viral

pathogens[16–18].

Overall, the screens identified numerous candidate restriction factors for rAAV transgene

repression, which have canonical roles in DNA damage repair and chromatin regulation. For

subsequent validation studies, we focused on the FA pathway due to the strongest phenotype

across both screens as well as SETDB1 and MORC3 due to their described function in silencing

certain viral pathogens.

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, which were kindly provided by the Fanconi Anemia Research Fund at Oregon Health & Science University. 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[19]. Complementation with FANCA cDNA led to a substantial decrease of rAAV transgene expression relative to the FA patient derived 974 cells (Figure 2E and 2F). Together, these data support that the FA pathway plays a role in the AAV life cycle and inhibits transgene expression from rAAV vectors.

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[11,15,17,18]. 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 directly 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). Finally, 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). This observation suggests

that a large fraction of rAAV genomes are readily silenced in WT cells and that inhibition of

MORC3 or SETDB1 activity could potentially decrease the amount of rAAV that is required for

therapeutic outcomes in gene replacement therapies.

As different rAAV serotypes are used in research and clinical applications, often

depending on the target cell type or tissue, we 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 to be self-complementary (scAAV). These 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 factors affect steps in the viral life cycle

downstream of second-strand synthesis (Figure 4C and 4D). Indeed, rAAV transgene mRNA levels

were moderately increased by 10-30% in MORC3 KO cells and by >100% in SETDB1 KO cells

(Figure S4A). In sum, we showed that MORC3 and SETDB1 negatively affect transgene expression

from different rAAV vectors by transcriptional silencing.

Transgene expression from lentiviral and adenoviral vectors is also inhibited by MORC3 and

SETDB1

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

gene delivery applications[20]. Interestingly, several recent studies suggested that MORC3 and

SETDB1 can suppress expression of retroviral elements[11,18,21]. Consistent with previous studies,

both MORC3 and SETDB1 KO increased lentivirus transduction rates and MFI of GFP transgene

expression 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 (~12x increase in MFI at 1:3 lentivirus dilution) than deletion

of SETDB1 (~8x increase in MFI). Real-time quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR) of lentiviral mRNAs

showed that de-repression of transgene expression levels was higher than for rAAV2 (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). By contrast, expression of a fluorescent protein from mRNA-liposomes was

unchanged in KO relative to WT cells (Figure 5E and 5F). Together, these data suggest MORC3

and SETDB1 broadly silence foreign DNA elements, such as viral vectors, regardless of whether

viral genomes are episomal or integrated in host genomic DNA.

MORC3 and SETDB1 knockdown prior to viral vector delivery leads to increased transgene

expression

To explore whether manipulation of MORC3 and/or SETDB1 activity could be harnessed

in a translational setting to improve transgene expression from viral vectors, we performed siRNA

knockdown prior to transduction of target cells. siRNAs have been clinically approved, e.g. for

several liver diseases, and could thus be used in conjunction with viral vectors to improve certain

gene therapy outcomes[22]. Transfection with MORC3 or SETDB1 siRNAs prior to rAAV2-tdTomato

transduction increased the percentage and MFI of tdTomato+ cells (Figure 6A and 6B).

Importantly, the combination of both siRNAs led to a synergistic effect increasing the MFI by ~3x

relative to a non-targeting siRNA (compared to 1.4x for MORC3 siRNA and 1.5x for SETDB1 siRNA

alone). Similarly, the use of siRNAs against MORC3 and SETDB1 increased the percentage and

MFI of transgene expression from a lentiviral vector (increase of MFI: 1.9x for MORC3, 1.7x for

SETDB1 and 4.8x for MORC3+SETDB1) (Figure 6C and 6D). In summary, knockdown (or possibly

pharmacological inhibition) of cellular restriction factors prior to viral vector administration can

enhance transgene expression in human cells.

DISCUSSION

Our genome-wide CRISPR screens provide a comprehensive picture of the cellular factors

that counteract 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 AAV 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]. Future studies are warranted to mechanistically investigate

how the FA pathway interferes with the AAV life cycle and whether FA components directly bind

to the AAV genome.

Moreover, we found that knockout of the histone methyltransferase SETDB1 substantially

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

adenovirus. SETDB1 is recruited by the HUSH complex to regulate heterochromatin in

mammalian cells and has been described to mediate silencing of human immunodeficiency virus

(HIV) and other retroviral sequences by depositing repressive H3K9me3 histone marks[11,12,15,27,28].

Importantly, SETDB1 is able to silence both integrated and unintegrated retroviral DNA[11,15]. rAAV

genomes typically exist as unintegrated episomes and are thought to be bound by histones,

which can undergo hypermethylation leading to reduced gene expression[29]. SETDB1 and the

HUSH complex may thus be major contributors to rAAV chromatinization and silencing. Other

factors associated with HUSH recruitment and regulation of its activity were also enriched in our

screens. For example, ATF7IP interacts with SETDB1 and protects it from proteasomal

degradation in the nucleus, thereby maintaining SETDB1-mediated H3K9 trimethylation

activity[14]. The DNA-binding protein ZNF638 (also known as NP220) was shown to be responsible

for recruitment of the HUSH complex to unintegrated retroviral DNA and may also facilitate

recruitment to AAV genomes[15]. MORC2 was shown to be recruited by the HUSH complex to

heterochromatic sites, where its ATPase activity is required to mediate transgene silencing and

maintain chromatin compactness[13]. 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[30]. Together, the findings

provide compelling evidence that the HUSH machinery silences rAAV genomes in a similar

manner as previously demonstrated for retroviral DNA elements.

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[16,31]. Previously, MORC3 was

shown to restrict herpesviruses and endogenous retroviruses (ERVs)[17,18]. 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[18]. 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[18,32,33]. 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[34,35]. 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[36],

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[37–40]. 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[41]. 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[42]. 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[43,44]. Thus, our work corroborates some previously identified candidate restriction

factors and expands the network of cellular factors that interfere with rAAV transgene

expression.

Finally, several studies have demonstrated viral countermeasures to some of the cellular

restriction mechanism described above. For example, both the HIV-1 protein Vpr and the

hepatitis B virus X protein antagonize SMC5-SMC6 activity[39,40]; HIV-2 Vpx counteracts HUSH

components[45]; and the HSV-1 protein ICP0 degrades MORC3[17]. As rAAV vectors lack any viral

proteins, they are likely to be more vulnerable to antiviral silencing mechanisms. A deeper

understanding of the key players and processes can thus provide new strategies to avoid cellular

sensing of AAV genomes and repression of viral transcription. Together with other approaches,

such as capsid engineering and the design of synthetic enhancers/promoters[46], the modulation

and evasion of host cell restriction factors has the potential to enhance viral vector gene therapy

applications.

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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.

DATA AVAILABILITY

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

under the BioProject ID PRJNA852611.

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.

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)[47] 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)[48] 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 Supplemental

Table 3.

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[49]. For STRING analysis[50],

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[51] 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 Supplemental Table 3.

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.

RT-qPCR

AAV- or lentivirus infected cells were then 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.

QPCR primer sequences can be found in Supplemental Table 3.

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.

Cells were plated in 96-wells at ~70% confluency. The next day, siRNAs were complexed with

Lipofectamine RNAiMAX Transfection Reagent (Invitrogen) by mixing 25 µl OptiMEM (Gibco) with

1.5 µl RNAiMAX reagent and 25 µl OptiMEM with 0.5 µl siRNA (10 µM) per 96-well before

combining. After a 5 min incubation, the transfection mix was added to the cells. 2 days later the

siRNA transfection was repeated. After 4h the media was removed and cells were infected with

AAV or lentivirus.

 FIGURE 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 lung epithelial cells or

CRISPRi in K562 lymphoblast cells. Cells were transduced with rAAV2 expressing a fluorescent

reporter gene (GFP or tdTomato) and the top 10-20% fluorescent cells were sorted by FACS.

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 analysis of A549 CRISPR KO screen. Genes with -log10 (enrichment

score) > 5 are highlighted in blue.

(C) MaGeCK gene enrichment analysis of K562 CRISPRi screen. Genes with -log10 (enrichment

score) > 5 are highlighted in blue.

(D) 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.

(E) 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.

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

an unpaired t-test 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.

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

(G-H). P-values were determined by an unpaired t-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

an unpaired t-test 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 and adenoviral

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 in-vitro

transcribed RFP mRNA and analyzed by flow cytometry 24 hpi.

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

Figure 6. siRNA knockdown of MORC3 and SETDB1 prior to viral vector treatment enhances

transgene expression.

(A) Percentage or (B) MFI of rAAV2-tdTomato positive A549 cells that were transfected with a

non-target siRNA or siRNAs against MORC3 and SETDB1 48h and again 4h prior to infection.

Cells were measured by flow cytometry 48hpi.

(C) Percentage or (D) MFI of lentiviral GFP expression levels in A549 cells that were transfected

with a non-target siRNA or siRNAs against MORC3 and SETDB1 48h and again 4h prior to

infection. Cells were measured by flow cytometry 48hpi.

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

an ordinary one-way ANOVA test and are defined as follows: ns: non-significant; *: <0.05; **:

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

SUPPLEMENTAL FIGURES AND TABLES:

Figure S1. rAAV CRISPR screen optimization and analysis.

(A) Moi titration of rAAV2-GFP on A549 and K562 cells. Infection rate was measured by flow

cytometry 24hpi.

(B) Log-fold changes (LFC) of individual gRNAs of the top 15 scoring genes from the A549 and

K562 CRISPR screens.

(C) Comparison of CRISPR screen enrichment scores from A549 and K562 screen.

Figure S2. Characterization of MORC3 and SETDB1 KO cell lines.

(A) Genotyping data of clonal MORC3 and SETDB1 KO cell lines. gRNA-targeted genomic loci

were amplified by PCR, products were Sanger-sequenced, and reads were aligned to

reference sequences.

(B) Cell proliferation of WT and clonal KO cell lines. Cells were harvested at each timepoint and

cell proliferation was measured by Cell Titer Glo assay. Data is displayed as mean ± s.d. from

biological triplicates.

Figure S3. Representative flow cytometry data for rAAV2-tdTomato infection of WT, MORC3

KO and SETDB1 KO A549 cells. Cells were infected with tdTomato-expressing rAAV2

(moi=10,000) and measured by flow cytometry at 3dpi. Each panel represents one biological

replicate. Summary data are displayed in Figure 3A and 3B.

Figure S4. Knockout of MORC3 and SETDB1 increases transgene mRNA levels from rAAV and

lentiviral vectors.

(A) rAAV2 tdTomato transgene mRNA levels in WT, MORC3 KO or SETDB1 KO A549 cells

normalized to 18S ribosomal RNA levels.

(B) Lentiviral GFP transgene mRNA levels in WT, MORC3 KO or SETDB1 KO A549 cells

normalized to 18S ribosomal RNA levels.

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

by an ordinary one-way ANOVA test and are defined as follows: ns: non-significant; *: <0.05; **:

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

Supplemental Table 1: MaGeCK analysis of A549 CRISPR KO and K562 CRISPRi screens for

increased AAV2 transgene expression.

Supplemental Table 2: Functional enrichment analysis for biological processes, molecular

function and cellular components of the STRING network containing the top 100 genes from

the A549 and K562 CRISPR screens.

Supplemental Table 3: DNA oligos used in this study.

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure S1

Figure S2

A

B

Figure S3

Figure S4

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