Multi-Omics Atlas-Assisted Discovery of Transcription Factors for Selective T Cell State Programming

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Transcription factors (TFs) regulate the differentiation of T cells into diverse states with distinct functionalities. To precisely program desired T cell states in viral infections and cancers, we generated a comprehensive transcriptional and epigenetic atlas of nine CD8$^+$ T cell differentiation states for TF activity prediction. Our analysis catalogued TF activity fingerprints of each state, uncovering new regulatory mechanisms that govern selective cell state differentiation. Leveraging this platform, we focused on two critical T cell states in tumor and virus control: terminally exhausted T cells (TEX$_{term}$), which are dysfunctional, and tissue-resident memory T cells (T$_{RM}$), which are protective. Despite their functional differences, these states share significant transcriptional and anatomical similarities, making it both challenging and essential to engineer T cells that avoid TEX$_{term}$ differentiation while preserving beneficial T$_{RM}$ characteristics. Through *in vivo* CRISPR screening combined with single-cell RNA sequencing (Perturb-seq), we validated the specific TFs driving the TEX$_{term}$ state and confirmed the accuracy of TF specificity predictions. Importantly, we discovered novel TEX$_{term}$-specific TFs such as ZSCAN20, JDP2, and ZFP324. The deletion of these TEX$_{term}$-specific TFs in T cells enhanced tumor control and synergized with immune checkpoint blockade. Additionally, this study identified multi-state TFs like HIC1 and GFI1, which are vital for both TEX$_{term}$ and T$_{RM}$ states. Furthermore, our global TF community analysis and Perturb-seq experiments revealed how TFs differentially regulate key processes in T$_{RM}$ and TEX$_{term}$ cells, uncovering new biological pathways like protein catabolism that are specifically linked to TEX$_{term}$ differentiation. In summary, our platform systematically identifies TF programs across diverse T cell states, facilitating the engineering of specific T cell states to improve tumor control and providing insights into the cellular mechanisms underlying their functional disparities.

Introduction

Cell states can be described as the range of cellular phenotypes arising from a defined cell type's interaction with its environment. Within the immune system, T cells possess multiple differentiation states, particularly as naive T cells differentiate into diverse states with different functionality and trafficking patterns in various immune environments, such as tumors and virus infections[1–4]. As transcription factors (TFs) govern cell state differentiation[5,6], understanding the mechanisms by which TFs influence cell states is vital for programming beneficial cell states for therapeutic applications[7,8]. One promising clinical application of cell state engineering is the enhancement of CD8$^+$ cell-based therapies, such as TIL or CAR-

T adoptive transfer therapy. However, identifying the crucial TFs that control different CD8^{+} T cell states

is challenging due to the significant heterogeneity among these states and the similarities in their

transcriptomes and gene regulatory networks, even when these cell states are functionally distinct.

The transcriptional similarity between cell states with differing functionalities is exemplified by two key

CD8^{+} T cell states involved in controlling solid tumors and viruses: the beneficial tissue-resident memory

(T_{RM}) cell state and the dysfunctional terminally exhausted (TEX_{term}) cell state. Many studies have shown

that tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes (TILs) with T_{RM} characteristics correlate with better survival in solid

tumor patients[9–13]. Conversely, during persistent antigen stimulation scenarios such as chronic virus

infection (e.g. HIV) or tumor, T cells progressively express diverse inhibitory receptors such as PD1, lose

memory potential, and eventually effector functions. This process is known as T cell exhaustion (TEX)[14–

17], and cells in this trajectory eventually adopt the TEX_{term} cell state. TEX_{term} cells express higher and more

diverse inhibitory receptors (e.g., TIM3, and CD101), lack effector and proliferation capacity, and do not

respond to immune checkpoint blockade (ICB) such as anti-PD1 antibody treatment[18–20]. Consequently,

the expression of TEX_{term} markers is often associated with poor survival of solid tumor patients[21–24].

Despite their distinct functional impact on cancer outcomes, TEX_{term} and T_{RM} cells both preferentially

reside in tissues[1,3] and display remarkable similarities in their transcriptional profiles, including key

regulatory TFs such as BLIMP1[14,25–27], BHLHE40[28,29], and NR4A2[9,30,31](Fig. 1a,b, Extended Data Fig.

1a-c). These two cell states even exhibit highly correlated open chromatin regions (Extended data Fig. 1d),

complicating the precise identification of TFs whose disruption may selectively inhibit TEX_{term} while

preserving T_{RM} cell development. Given that many TFs are commonly expressed across different CD8^{+} T

cell states and differentiation trajectories, a sophisticated and precise bioinformatics approach is crucial

to pinpoint the bona fide cell-state-specifying TFs essential for T cell programming.

We hypothesized that the challenges of identifying key TFs in control of selective CD8^{+} T cell

differentiation states can be effectively addressed through a systematic comparison of TF activity across

the T cell differentiation landscape. Two considerations were postulated for accurate TF activity

prediction: first, TF activity is not always proportional to the TF expression level as it is influenced by

post-translational modifications, co-factors, and target accessibility[32]. Second, the effect of a TF on target

genes propagates over the genetic network, and thus, the global impact of the TF activity needs to be

assessed at the systems level. To address these considerations, a multi-omics atlas-assisted platform was developed, integrating transcriptomic and chromatin data of nine major CD8+ T cell states. This platform analyzes transcriptional networks and genome-wide, "global" influencers in each cell state and identifies cell-state "*selective*" or "*shared*" TFs. Our platform also enables integrative analysis of TF communities and TF target genes (referred to as "regulatees"), providing insight into how the milieu of TFs in each cell state collectively guides specific differentiation states.

Transcriptional and epigenetic atlas generated a transcription factor catalogue predicts to specify certain T cell states

Elucidating the TFs and their regulatory networks that govern each cell state is crucial for accurately programming specific cellular states of interest. Our initial objective was to create a comprehensive catalogue of TF activity across diverse CD8+ T cell states by integrating our TF activity analysis pipeline, Taiji[33–35], with comparative statistical analysis. Taiji builds gene regulatory networks (GRN) in each cell state by linking TF binding sites to target genes utilizing chromatin accessibility and gene expression data where genes and interactions are defined as "node" and "edge", respectively[33,34]. The personalized PageRank algorithm[36] assesses the global influences of TFs, which naturally considers the impact of upstream regulators and downstream target genes, including the feedback, in an iterative manner. In this study, the node weights were determined by gene expression levels, allocating higher ranks to the TFs that regulate more differentially expressed genes. The edge weights were set proportional to the expression levels and binding strength of TFs and open chromatin intensity (Fig. 1c).

Our goal was to calculate global influence of TFs using a personalized PageRank algorithm in each and every cell state, allowing for the identification of TFs that are differentially important across various cell states. Thus, we first generated ATAC-seq and RNA-seq data from 121 CD8+ T cell samples across nine states, derived from well-defined acute and chronic lymphocytic choriomeningitis virus (LCMV) infections (Extended Data Fig. 2). In mice infected with the acute LCMV-Armstrong strain, memory precursor (MP), terminal effector (TE), effector memory (T_{EM}), central memory (T_{CM}), and tissue-resident memory (T_{RM}) are found. In chronic LCMV-Clone 13 infected mice, heterogenous exhaustion cell states are observed such as progenitors of exhaustion (TEX_{prog}), effector-like exhaustion (TEX_{eff}), and terminal exhaustion (TEX_{term}).

Next, we conducted an unbiased comparative analysis using statistical filtering to understand the specificity of TF activity across the major nine CD8$^+$ T cell states (Extended Data Fig. 3a, Extended Data Table 1). A total of 136 TFs were identified as "single-state-specific", with each cell state selectively containing ~12-19 unique TFs (Fig. 1d, Extended Data Fig. 3b). This category included many novel TFs such as *Hoxa7* in Naïve, *Snai1* in T$_{RM}$, *Hey1* in TEX$_{prog}$, *Sox8* in TEX$_{eff}$, and *Zscan20* in TEX$_{term}$ cells. On the other hand, 119 TFs were identified as key regulators in more than one cell state, termed "multi-state TFs" (Fig. 1e). These include TFs, such as TCF-1 and T-bet. TCF-1 is a known driver of Naive-, MP-, and TEX$_{prog}$ states, all of which are multipotent and have high proliferative capacity[3,20]. MP and TE cells share T-bet as well as an additional 22 key TFs that program early activation (40% of TE or MP TFs). Multi-state TFs like *Vax2*, *Batf*, *Irf8,* and *Stat1* were more enriched within the set of exhaustion-associated cell states (TEX$_{prog}$, TEX$_{eff}$, and TEX$_{term}$). This analysis of TF specificity also shows that T$_{RM}$ shares the most TFs with TEX$_{term}$ compared to other cell states (e.g., *Egr2*, *Crem*, *Prdm1*, Extended Data Fig. 3c) in agreement with their high degree of transcriptional and epigenetic similarity (Fig. 1b; Extended Data Fig 1b-d).

Comparative analysis of TFs in TEX$_{term}$ and T$_{RM}$ identifies candidate TFs for state-selective T cell programming

Despite the transcriptional overlap between these two cell states, our Taiji pipeline possesses the predictive power to generate a catalogue of TFs that are specifically active in TEX$_{term}$ cells but not in T$_{RM}$ cells. This may aid in developing better antitumor or antiviral immunotherapies wherein one can engineer T cells away from T cell exhaustion and toward functional effector cell states without negatively impacting their ability to form into T$_{RM}$ cells in tissues and tumors. To this end, we identified 20 and 34 state-specific TFs of T$_{RM}$ or TEX$_{term}$ cells, respectively, and 30 multi-state TFs active in both cell states (Fig. 1f-h; Extended Data Fig. 3a gray boxes; Extended Data Table 2). TEX$_{term}$-specific TFs included many previously unreported TFs such as *Zscan20*, *Jdp2*, *Zfp324*, *Zfp143*, *Zbtb49*, and *Arid3a* (Fig. 1f). T$_{RM}$-specific TFs included *Fosb*, *Zfp692*, *Atf4*, *Pbx4*, *Junb*, *Nr4a1,* and *Klf6* (Fig. 1g). Of the TEX$_{term}$ and T$_{RM}$ multi-state TFs, some were well-known to function in the development of *both* cell states, such as *Nr4a2*[12], *Bhlhe40*[28], *Prdm1*[27,37], whereas others such as *Hic1*[38] and *Gfi1*[39] were not, identifying them as new multi-state TFs to consider (Fig. 1h).

To evaluate the predicted TFs governing specific T cell differentiation pathways, we identified dynamic activity patterns of TF groups, termed "TF waves" (Extended Data Fig. 4). Seven TF waves associated with distinctive biological pathways were identified. For example, the T_{RM} TF wave (Fig. 1i) includes several members of the AP-1 family (e.g. *Atf3*, *Fosb*, *Fosl2*, and *Jun*), which aligns well with a recent report of their roles in T_{RM} formation[40]. This wave was uniquely linked to the transforming growth factor beta (TGFβ) response pathway (Extended Data Fig. 4e). Conversely, the TEX TF wave (including TEX_{prog}, TEX_{eff}, and TEX_{term}) was characterized by a distinct set of TFs, such as *Irf8*, *Jdp2*, *Nfatc1,* and *Vax2*, among others, that correlated with pathways related to PD1 and senescence (Fig. 1j, Extended Data Fig. 4e).

TF community analysis reveals biological processes selectively associated with T_{RM} and TEX_{term} cell states

Having cataloged state-specific and multi-state TFs, we next aimed to test the hypothesis that, despite the significant overlap in TF activity between T_{RM} and TEX_{term} cells, distinct TF collaborations regulate specific biological pathways and functions that decide the cell state. Thus, we first constructed TF-TF association network in each cell state and the adjacency matrix based on their shared regulatees (Fig. 2a), i.e. as TFs share a greater number of regulatees, the cooperativity index between two TFs is larger. Although multi-state TFs like HIC1 (Fig. 2b), PRDM1, FLI1, and GFI1 (Extended Data Fig. 5a-c) were predicted to be active in both T_{RM} and TEX_{term} cells, they appeared to associate with distinct sets of TFs in different cell states, suggesting a mechanism for their divergent network in T_{RM} and TEX_{term} cells. Another observation was that some TEX_{term}-specific TFs, including ZFP324, JDP2, and ZSCAN20, were predicted to cooperate with distinct sets of TFs within the TEX_{term} cells, suggesting they control unique cellular processes in TEX_{term} cells (compare Fig. 2c with Extended Data Fig. 5d,e).

Next, the TF-TF association networks were further grouped into distinct "TF neighbor communities" in TEX_{term} and T_{RM} cells, respectively, which are linked to different biological processes (Fig. 2a, Extended Data Table 4). The overall topology of these communities was influenced by multi-state TFs active in both cell states, while cell state-specific TFs created unique interaction patterns between the communities (Fig. 2d-f). Pathway analysis of the regulatees in each community suggested that T_{RM}- or TEX_{term}-specific

TFs within each community controlled different biological processes (Fig. 2g,h). For example, in T_{RM}

cells, community 3 was associated with cell-cell adhesion and response to TGFβ, and community 1 was

associated with RNA metabolism, but in TEX_{term} cells, community 3 was linked to apoptosis, and

community 1 was coupled to catabolism, proteolysis, ubiquitin-proteasome, and autophagy.

The integrative TF network analysis identifies new TEX_{term}-specific pathways

Given that protein degradation and proteasome pathway came out as a strong yet previously

uncharacterized biological program in TEX_{term} cells, we investigated the proteasome activity in the

terminally exhausted cells. A higher KEGG proteasome gene set score was noted in the $CD8^+$ T cells in

TEX_{term} clusters of Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer (NSCLC) patients[41] and murine TILs from MCA-205

sarcomas (Extended Data Figs. 6d,e). Consistent with mRNA enrichment, TEX_{term} $CD8^+$ T cells from two

well-established *in vivo* models of T cell exhaustion—chronic LCMV-Clone 13 infection (Fig. 2i) and

MCA-205 sarcomas (Fig. 2j)—exhibited the highest proteasome activity. This was monitored by the

fluorescent intensity of a proteasome activity probe that we have previously validated in T cells[42]. This

heightened proteasome activity was in part by antigen-recognition, as shown by comparing proteasome

activity between bystander (OT-1) and tumor-specific (P14) $CD8^+$ T cells, which recognize the LCMV

GP33-41 epitope expressed by B16-GP33 tumors (Fig. 2k).

To test whether the increased proteasome activity correlated with T cell dysfunction, TILs with high and

low intensities of fluorescent proteasome activity probe were sorted from donor tumor-bearing mice and

adoptively transferred into recipient mice with tumors. Proteasome^{high} $CD8^+$ TILs exhibited reduced tumor

control compared to proteasome^{low} counterparts (Fig. 2l). This *in vivo* validation demonstrated the

accuracy and applicability of the TF-designated communities in defining biological processes predicted

to be more active in one cell state over another. In summary, our global TF analysis uncovered differences

in biological pathways between TEX_{term} and T_{RM} cells, including some less recognized ones, such as the

ubiquitin-proteasome pathway.

Systematic validation of TEX_{term}-driving TF via *in vivo* CRISPR screening coupled with scRNA-seq

The Taiji pipeline enabled comparative analysis of TF activity and curated state-specific TFs for T_{RM} *vs.*

TEX_{term} cells (Fig. 1f-h). To evaluate its accuracy, Perturb-seq, which combines *in vivo* CRISPR screening

with single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq), was conducted in separate infectious environments that

promote the differentiation of TEX_{term} and T_{RM} cells, namely chronic and acute LCMV infection (Fig. 3a).

Our Perturb-seq guide RNA (gRNA) library targeted 19 TFs, including seven multi-state TFs predicted to

impair both TEX_{term} and T_{RM} differentiation and 12 TEX_{term}-specific TFs expected to selectively affect

TEX_{term} differentiation. The TEX_{term}-specific TFs included one known TF, *Nfatc1*, and 11 others that had

high specificity scores but were not previously linked to TEX_{term} differentiation (gray boxes Fig. 1f,h).

The multi-state TFs included two positive controls (*Nr4a2*, *Prdm1*) and five unvalidated multi-state TFs

(*Nfil3*, *Hic1*, *Gfi1*, *Ikzf3*, *Stat3*). To ensure comprehensive screening, four gRNAs per target were

expressed in two dual-gRNA retroviral (RV) vectors (Extended Data Fig. 7a), along with two control

vectors expressing scramble gRNAs (gScramble). This resulted in a library of 40 dual-gRNA vectors,

with 72 gRNAs targeting TFs and 4 gScramble controls (Extended Data Table 5). To initiate the screening,

$Cas9^+$ P14 $CD8^+$ T cells were transduced with this RV-gRNA library and adoptively transferred into mice

infected with LCMV-Clone 13, a model of chronic infection and $CD8^+$ T cell exhaustion. Droplet-based

sequencing was performed 18+ days post-transfer to assess sgRNA and transcriptomes of each spleen-

derived donor $Cas9^+$ P14 cell (Fig. 3a), analyzing 17,257 cells with unique gene perturbations.

To determine which TFs impaired TEX_{term} cell differentiation, we first employed uniform manifold

approximation and projection (UMAP) to visualize single-cell transcriptomes. Four primary clusters were

identified consisting of TEX_{prog}, TEX_{eff}, and TEX_{term} cells and those in cell cycle (Fig. 3b; Extended Data

Fig. 7b). All cell clusters expressed *Tox* and *Pdcd1*, key exhaustion markers, and TEX_{prog} cells were

identified by *Tcf7*, *Slamf6*, and *Sell* expression. TEX_{eff} cells expressed effector markers, including *Cx3cr1*,

Klrd1, *Klrk1*, *Klf2*, and *Zeb2*[2], while TEX_{term} cells exhibited high expression of inhibitory receptors and

well-established exhaustion markers like *Cd101*, *Cd7*, *Cd38*, *Cd39*, *Cxcr6*, and *Nr4a2*. Lastly, the cell

cluster was noted for its expression of *Birc5, Mki67, Stmn1*, and *Tuba1b*.

Next, the impact of TF-depletion was evaluated by analyzing the distribution of each gRNA-positive cell

cluster (Fig. 3c,d). CRISPR knockouts (KOs) of all 19 TEX_{term}-specific TFs resulted in a reduced

frequency of TEX_{term} cells. Specifically, KOs of multi-state TFs such as *Hic1*, *Stat3*, *Prdm1*, *Ikzf3* (which

encodes AIOLOS) reduced TEX_{term} differentiation by 92% to 89%. Notably, depletion of novel TEX_{term}-

specific TFs, including *Zfp324, Zscan20*, and *Jdp2* (Fig. 3d bold), significantly prevented TEX_{term}

differentiation by 78%, 54%, and 43% respectively. Other novel TEX$_{term}$-specific TFs, such as *Etv5*,

Arid3a, *Zfp410*, *Foxd2*, and *Prdm4*, also reduced cell TEX$_{term}$ formation between 25-40%. This Perturb-

seq analysis demonstrated the platform's robust ability to identify cell-state-specific TFs, with all tested

TFs influencing TEX$_{term}$ state differentiation to some extent, including many TFs previously unknown to

promote T cell exhaustion.

To understand how TEX$_{term}$-specific TF KOs affect CD8$^+$ T cell exhaustion, we used flow cytometry and

scRNA-seq to analyze TF KO cells during LCMV-Clone 13 infection (Fig. 3e-i). We tested nine TF KOs,

including two known controls (*Prdm1* and *Nfatc1*) and seven newly identified TFs (*Zscan20*, *Nfil3*, *Jdp2*,

Zfp324, *Ikzf3*, *Stat3*, *Hic1*) that impaired TEX$_{term}$ state differentiation in Perturb-seq. Disrupting these TFs

reduced TEX$_{term}$ cell (PD1$^+$ CX3CR1$^-$ SLAMF6$^-$) frequency by 40-75% (Fig. 3f) and decreased expression

of inhibitory receptors such as CD101, CD39, and CD38 (Extended Data Fig. 7c,d). All 19 TEX$_{term}$-TF

KOs exhibited a marked decrease in TEX$_{term}$-signature genes[43], including *Cd7*, *Cxcr6*, *Nr4a2*, and

Entpd1(Fig. 3i).

Lastly, the TEX$_{term}$-specific TF KOs were classified into two groups based on their effects on TEX$_{prog}$

(PD1$^+$ CX3CR1$^-$ SLAMF6$^+$, Fig. 3g) or TEX$_{eff}$ (PD1$^+$ CX3CR1$^+$ SLAMF6$^-$, Fig. 3h) state differentiation

markers. Loss of *Hic1*, *Stat3*, *Nfatc1*, *Zfp324*, or *Zscan20* increased both TEX$_{prog}$- and TEX$_{eff}$ cell

frequencies and signature gene expression, while *Jdp2*, *Ikzf3*, or *Nfil3* mainly increased TEX$_{eff}$ frequencies

(Fig. 3g-i). *Prdm1* KO significantly elevated PD1^{low} virus-specific cells (Extended Data Fig. 7e).

Importantly, except *Stat3*, depleting TEX$_{term}$-driving TFs that upregulated TEX$_{eff}$ signatures led to the

enrichment of genes upregulated in effector versus naïve T cells, enhanced effector functions (IFNγ and

TNFα production), and lowered viral loads in recipient mice (Fig. 3j-l).

262 TEX$_{term}$-specific TFs do not disrupt T$_{RM}$ cell differentiation

Our main goal was to identify TFs that specifically regulate TEX$_{term}$ cell differentiation without affecting

T$_{RM}$ differentiation, thereby enabling precise programming of CD8$^+$ T cell states. Since nearly all the

predicted TEX$_{term}$-specific TFs impaired TEX$_{term}$ differentiation to some degree (Fig. 3), the next step was

to evaluate their effects on T$_{RM}$ differentiation to confirm their selective activity. We used the same

Perturb-seq library as before, but this time included only the eight TEX$_{term}$-specific and six multi-state

TFs that impaired TEX$_{term}$ state development by more than 25% in chronic LCMV infection (Fig. 4a). To

assess their impact on memory CD8$^+$ T cell development, we isolated RV-transduced Cas9$^+$ P14 CD8$^+$ T

cells from the spleen and small intestine of mice 18 days after acute LCMV-Armstrong infection. We then

used 15,211 cells from scRNA-seq to evaluate their impact on the formation of intestinal T$_{RM}$ cells and

circulating splenic T$_{CM}$ and T$_{EM}$ cells (Fig. 4a).

The UMAP analysis identified four primary clusters containing cells with features of T$_{CM}$ (*Sell* and *Tcf7),*

T$_{EM}$ (*Cx3cr1*, *Klrg1,* and *Klf2*), and T$_{RM}$ cells (*Cd69, Cd160, and Itgae* (encoding CD103)) as well as a

small T$_{RM}$ cell population with lower *Itgae*, but higher *Ifng* and *Irf1* expression designated T$_{RM}$ *Itgae*^{low}

(Fig. 4b,c; Extended Data Fig. 8a,b)[27,44]. Examination of the gRNA-positive cells revealed that none of

the eight TEX$_{term}$-specific TF KOs (*Zfp324*, *Irf7*, *Zfp410*, *Nfatc1*, *Zscan20*, *Jdp2*, *Arid3a*, and *Etv5)*

negatively affected T$_{RM}$ formation significantly (Fig. 4d,e). In fact, KO of *Etv5* tended to increase the

frequency of T$_{RM}$ cells. To evaluate the specificity of the TEX$_{term}$-specific TFs, we also examined the

expression of the T$_{RM}$ gene signatures[9,37] in entire gRNA-positive cells of each TF (Fig. 4f). With the

exception of *Etv5* and *Arid3a*, which increased T$_{RM}$-signature gene expression, perturbation of the

TEX$_{term}$-specific TFs did not substantially alter T$_{RM}$-signature gene expression. The platform also

predicted novel multi-state TFs, including *Hic1* and *Gfi1*. Disruption of these newly identified TFs

significantly reduced T$_{RM}$ cell frequency (Fig. 4e) and T$_{RM}$-signature gene expression (Fig. 4f), mirroring

the effects of *Prdm1*, a known T$_{RM}$ TF driver.

To further validate the Perturb-seq data, we individually depleted the TEX$_{term}$-specific TFs *Zscan20* and

Jdp2 and multi-state TF *Prdm1* in Cas9$^+$ P14 CD8$^+$ T cells, adoptively transferred them into LCMV-

Armstrong infected animals, and assessed their differentiation into T$_{CM}$, T$_{EM}$, and T$_{RM}$ cells using flow

cytometry (Fig. 4g-j). Deletion of *Zscan20* and *Jdp2* did not alter the formation of any memory cell

subtypes, while perturbation of *Prdm1* significantly reduced T$_{RM}$ and increased T$_{CM}$ formation, as

expected. Altogether, this multi-omics pipeline predicted TEX$_{term}$-specific TFs that drive TEX$_{term}$

differentiation without affecting T$_{RM}$ cell formation and multi-state TFs that influence both cell states.

These results demonstrate the accuracy and predictive power of our approach for pinpointing cell-state-

specific and multi-state TFs.

Dual-context Perturb-seq reveals TF regulation switching

To better understand how the same multi-state TFs function differently in TEX$_{term}$- and T$_{RM}$ cells, we analyzed their predicted effects (gene activation *vs*. repression) on target genes by integrating gene regulation network data with differential gene expression scores from Perturb-seq (Fig. 4k). This revealed that TFs like HIC1 and PRDM1 appear to reverse their regulatory roles depending on the type of infection (Fig. 4l,m; Extended Data Fig. 8 c,d). In acute infections, these TFs were predicted to activate genes linked to T$_{RM}$ or memory cell states (e.g., *Junb*, *Myc*, *Nr4a3*, *Irf4*), while in chronic infections, they repressed the same genes. Consistent with prior reports of the PRDM1's role switching in non-T cells[45,46–48], our report suggests that the reversal of regulatory direction of the "multi-tasker TFs" possibly explains how the same TF enables context-dependent regulation of T cell states.

Disruption of novel TEX$_{term}$-specific TFs enhances tumor control and synergy with ICB

The above work demonstrated the ability to predict cell-state-specific TF activity and identified TEX$_{term}$-specific TFs as key targets for engineering T cells to prevent exhaustion while preserving effector and memory cell differentiation, offering a strategy for more effective immunotherapies. Given that T$_{RM}$ cells are associated with better clinical outcomes in solid tumors[9–12,49], we hypothesized that knocking out exhaustion-specific TFs like *Zscan20* or *Zfp324* could be more effective than targeting T$_{RM}$ and TEX$_{term}$ multi-state TFs like *Hic1* (Fig. 4e,f). Utilizing an adoptive therapy model, TF gRNA RV-transduced Cas9$^+$ P14 CD8$^+$ T cells were transferred into mice with established melanoma tumors expressing GP33-41 (Fig. 5a). While disruption of the dual-specific TF *Hic1* failed to control solid tumors, depleting the TEX$_{term}$-specific TFs, *Zscan20* and *Zfp324* resulted in improved tumor control (Fig. 5b,c). Moreover, *Zscan20* and *Zfp324* gRNA-positive cells more readily became progenitors rather than terminally exhausted TIM3-positive populations (Fig. 5d-f), and their depletion upregulated effector markers (Fig. 5g), consistent with enhanced cytotoxicity observed in chronic infection (Fig. 3k,i).

Tumors with high TEX$_{term}$ cell infiltration often respond poorly to ICB[50]. We tested if P14 CD8$^+$ T cells lacking TEX$_{term}$ -specific TFs (*Zscan20*, *Zfp324* or *Jdp2*) would show improved responsiveness to ICB in B16-GP33 tumor-bearing animals (Extended Data Fig. 9a). Indeed, the combination of *Zscan20*-depletion and ICB (anti-PD1 antibody) synergized to decrease tumor burden (Fig. 5h-j) and enhance mice survival (Extended Data Fig. 9b). Similar synergistic effects were observed when depleting *Zfp324* or *Jdp2* along

328 with ICB treatment (Fig. 5k-m and Extended Data Fig. 9c). In summary, targeting TFs that selectively
329 regulate TEX$_{term}$ state differentiation is a promising strategy to enhance adoptive T cell therapy by
330 avoiding dysfunctional states while maintaining beneficial ones. This precise pipeline for identifying cell
331 state-specifying TFs can also be adapted to program other cell types for better cell therapy outcomes.
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Discussion

Our study introduces a powerful platform for identifying TFs that are pivotal in guiding the differentiation
of specific CD8$^+$ T cell states during viral infections and tumor progression. This platform has
transformative potential for engineering desirable cell states, which can significantly advance T cell-based
therapies, including adoptive cell therapies. By constructing a comprehensive transcriptional and
epigenetic atlas from 121 experiments spanning nine distinct CD8$^+$ T cell states, we developed a detailed
map of TF activity. This allowed us to predict TF functions within each state, essentially creating a unique
TF fingerprint for each cellular context.

Focusing on two critical cell states TEX$_{term}$ (dysfunctional terminally exhausted) and T$_{RM}$ (functional,
tissue-resident memory) T cells, we examined similarities and differences of TF activity and their
networks in both states and engineered T cells to resist exhaustion while retaining functionality of T$_{RM}$
cells. Using *in vivo* Perturb-seq, we validated TF activity for TEX$_{term}$ and T$_{RM}$ cells in both acute and
chronic infection models. While recent CRISPR screenings in CD8$^+$ T cells have identified important TFs
in cytotoxicity, memory formation[51–54], cell enrichment[55], and exhaustion[56], a systematic and context-
dependent understanding of TF roles across multiple contexts has been lacking. Our study addresses this
gap by generating an accurate catalogue of CD8$^+$ T cell state-defining TFs, enabling cost-effective
validation of predicted TF activity and selectivity via Perturb-seq. Furthermore, our study offers broader
and new insight into context-dependent TF regulation. Previously, differential TF cooperation in different
contexts was reported[30,54,57–59]. We extend this by analyzing global TF associations across cell states,
revealing how TF communities regulate T cell-specific pathways, including protein catabolism in T cell
exhaustion, which aligns with prior research on protein homeostasis[42,60–62]. These TF networks reveal how
various cellular processes are differentially controlled between T$_{RM}$ and TEX$_{term}$ cells providing rationale
for their different functional capabilities within tissues.

12

One of the most significant outcomes was the identification of novel TFs driving the TEX$_{term}$ state, such as ZSCAN20, JDP2, and ZFP324, and the discovery of new roles for multi-state TFs like HIC1 and GFI1. Perturbing these TEX$_{term}$-specific TFs not only prevented T cell exhaustion but also preserved the ability of these cells to differentiate into effector and memory states. This led to significant improvements in tumor control and enhanced synergy with ICB therapy, suggesting a promising strategy for refining antitumor immunity through precise cell-state programming.

Our TF analysis platform effectively addressed critical challenges in the field: preventing T cell exhaustion while preserving the therapeutic benefits of T$_{RM}$ cells for solid tumors and virus control. Depletion of TEX$_{term}$-specific TFs improved tumor control while perturbing TEX$_{term}$ and T$_{RM}$ multi-state TF reduced it. Our pipeline enhances T cell programming by offering optimized 'recipes' of combinatorial TF perturbations to precisely guide T cell differentiation. In summary, while our study primarily focuses on CD8^{+} TEX$_{term}$ and T$_{RM}$ cell differentiation, the precise pipeline we developed for identifying cell state-specific TFs can be adapted to program other cell types, ultimately improving the effectiveness of cell therapy across various applications. These findings enhance our understanding of T cell differentiation and suggest potential strategies for boosting antitumor immunity and combating chronic infections.

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Figure 1

Fig. 1|Transcription and epigenomic atlas of CD8+ T cell differentiation states and cell state-specific TFs identification pipeline. a, The diagram outlines several CD8+ T cell state trajectories in acute and chronic infection/tumor where various memory and exhaustion states are acquired. Parallel differentiation of T_{RM} and TEX_{term} cells and their similarity in the anatomical location. **b**, Pearson correlation matrix of batch effect corrected RNA-seq. Color and size are both proportional to correlation values, with red being the highest correlation. **c**, Pipeline of our integrative analysis. The matched RNA-seq and ATAC-seq data were used as input for Taiji algorithm to construct a regulatory network and output PageRank score matrix representing the activity of transcription factors (TFs). The downstream analysis included the identification of cell state-specific TFs, as well as the construction of transcriptional waves and TF networks. **d-h**, TFs

in rows (z-normalized), samples in columns, and the colors of the cell in the matrix indicate the normalized PageRank scores. Each column represents different data sets. **d**, PageRank scores of 136 single-state-specific TFs. **e**, 173 multi-state TFs. Bubble plots of PageRank scores and expression of TFs that are selectively active in TEX_{term}-(**f**), T_{RM}-(**g**), and multi-state-specific TFs that are active in both TEX_{term} and T_{RM} cells (**h**). TEX_{term}-specific TFs are in bold. Color represents the normalized PageRank score with red displaying high values, and circle size represents the logarithm of gene expression across 5 different data sets. TFs are ordered based on the p-value. **i-j**, Transcription factor waves associated with exhaustion (**i**) or T_{RM} (**j**). Sample numbers for each cell state and the statistics used to curate the TF catalogue are provided in Extended Data Fig. 2a and Extended Data Fig. 3a, respectively.

Figure 2

Fig. 2| Global analysis of TF networks in TEXterm and TRM cell states.
a, TF network analysis in TRM and TEXterm cells encompasses both of TF-TF correlation (blue, Fig. 2b-g) and comparative TF-regulatee interaction (gray, Extended Data Fig.6). **b-c,** TF-TF association network plots focus on multi-state TFs like HIC1 (b) and TEXterm-specific TFs like ZFP324 (c) and show unique and shared TF-TF interactions in TRM (green) or TEXterm (brown) cells. **d-f,** TF-TF association clustering generates five TF communities between TRM and TEXterm cells. The overall community topology is shaped by shared TFs (gray) in both TRM and TEXterm cells **(d)**. Specific TF-TF association in TRM **(e)** and TEXterm **(f)**. *Legend continued on the next page.*

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g, Summary of the shared and unique pathways enriched in each community in T$_{RM}$ and TEX$_{term}$ cells based on regulatee gene expression. The thickness of the lines reflects p-value. (Genesets: Extended Data Table. 6). **h**, GSEA of TEX$_{term}$ *vs.* T$_{RM}$ in batch-effect corrected LCMV bulk-RNA-seq[3,9,20,37] and pan-cancer scRNA-seq data sets. In both data sets, catabolism and proteolysis are more enriched in TEX$_{term}$ transcriptomes than in T$_{RM}$. TEX$_{term}$ cells show the highest proteasome activity probe staining in LCMV-Clone 13 infected mice (**i**), or MCA-205 tumor (**j**). **k**, Dual transfer of GP33-41 antigen-specific (P14) and bystander (OT-1) CD8$^+$ T cells in B16-GP33 tumor bearing mice. Proteasome activity probe staining of MCA-205 CD8$^+$ TILs is linked to antigen-specific T cell activation. **l**, Tumor growth of Rag2$^{-/-}$ mice bearing MCA-205 sarcomas infused with proteasome^{high} or proteasome^{low} CD8$^+$ TILs isolated from C57BL/6 mice bearing MCA-205 tumors. **i-l**, Data are presented as the mean ± s.e.m. Ordinary one-way ANOVA (**i-k**) and two-way ANOVA Tukey's multiple comparison test (**l**) were performed. ****$P<0.0001$, ***$P<0.001$, **$P<0.01$, *$P<0.05$.

Figure 3

Fig. 3| *in vivo* Perturb-seq validation of TEX_term-specific and multi-state driving TFs. a, Schematic of the *in vivo* Perturb-seq strategy. Dual Cas9^{+} and TCR transgenic (tg) P14 CD8^{+} T cells that recognize LCMV epitope GP33-41 were transduced with gRNA library expressing retrovirus (RV) and adoptively transferred into mice previously infected one day earlier with LCMV-Clone 13. 18-23 days later, splenic T cells were analyzed by scRNA-seq. **b**, UMAP showing TEX_prog, TEX_eff, TEX_term, and cell cycle clusters. Feature plots of the cluster marker expression are in Extended Data Fig. 7b. **c**, Cells expressing gRNAs for KO of specific genes are denoted on UMAPs and yellow indicates increased cell density. **d**, Cluster distribution of cells with each gRNA KO. TEX_term-specific TFs are in bold letters. **e-h**, Individual phenotyping of the TF KOs in LCMV-Clone 13 infected mice based on flow cytometry **(e)**. Quantification of the frequency of TEX subsets: TEX_term (PD1^{+} SLAMF6^{-} CX3CR1^{-}) **(f)**,

TEX_prog (PD1^{+} SLAMF6^{+} CX3CR1^{-}) **(g)**, and TEX_eff (PD1^{+} SLAMF6^{-} CX3CR1^{+}) **(h)** P14 CD8^{+} T cells. **i**, TEX_term, TEX_prog, and TEX_eff gene signature analysis in each gRNA KO compared to gScramble. Gene signatures were generated from ref. 46 (Extended Data Table 6). **j**, GSEA of effector-associated gene sets between each TF KOs *vs*. control. **k**, Donor P14 cells with gRNA KO of several TEX_term-specific TFs in LCMV-Clone 13 were assessed for IFNγ and TNF production. **i**, TEX_term-specific TFs, *Zscan20* KO and *Jdp2* KO group showed lower serum virus levels. Data are presented as the mean ± s.e.m. ****P<0.0001, ***P<0.001, **P<0.01, *P<0.05. Two-way ANOVA with Fisher's LSD test. Pooled five biological replicates from three independent experiments **(d)**. Data include more than two biological replicates, n ≥ 5. Ordinary one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparison test **(f-h, k-l)**.

Figure 4

Fig. 4| TEX_term-specific TFs do not affect T_RM cell formation. *Legend on the next page.*

Fig. 4| TEX_term-specific TFs do not affect T_RM cell formation. a, Schematic of *in vivo* Perturb-seq screening in memory CD8$^+$ T cells during acute LCMV-Armstrong infection. Cas9$^+$ P14 CD8$^+$ T cells were transduced with the TF gRNA library and then transferred into mice previously infected with LCMV-Armstrong one day earlier. The donor cells were then analyzed for T_RM cells in the small intestine (SI) and T_CM and T_EM cells in the spleen. **b**, UMAP showing T_CM, T_EM, T_RM and T_RM-*Itgae^low* clusters. The cluster marker expression is in Extended Data Fig. 8a. **c**, Differential clustering of cells from different tissue origins. **d**, gRNA KO positive cell density on UMAP. The color bar indicates cell density. **e**, Cluster distribution of cells with each gRNA KO. TEX_term-specific TFs are in bold letters. **f**, Normalized expression score of T_RM "up and down" gene-signatures[9,37] in cells with each gRNA KO compared to gScramble positive cells. **g-j**, Individual phenotyping of the TF KOs in LCMV-Armstrong infected mice based on flow cytometry. **h**, The ratio of gRNA KO cells in SI:spleens. The frequency of splenic T_CM (CD62L$^+$ KLRG1$^-$) (**i**) and T_EM (CD62L$^-$KLRG1$^+$) cells (**j**). **k-m**, Calculation of the apparent regulatory direction by integrating TF-regulated networks with Perturb-seq; blue and red lines represent suppressive and activatory regulation, respectively (**k**). Regulatory maps of T_RM and TEX_term multi-state-specific TFs, HIC1 (**l**) and PDRM1 (**m**). The green nodes represent regulatees in T_RM cells, while brown nodes represent those in TEX_term cells. Split-colored nodes with red and blue edges indicate predicted opposing regulation of the same regulatee in two cell states. Data are presented as the mean ± s.e.m. ***P<0.001, ** P <0.01, * P <0.05. Two-way ANOVA with Fisher's LSD test. Pooled three biological replicates (**e**). Ordinary one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparison test. Data include more than two biological replicates, n ≥ 6 (**h-j**).

Figure 5

Fig. 5| Disruption of TEX_term-specific TFs enhances virus and tumor control. a-c, Experimental design **(a)** of gRNA KOs of TEX_term-specific TFs (*Zscan20* and *Zfp324*) or the TEX_term and T_RM multi-state-specific TF (*Hic1*) and control P14 CD8+ T cells were adoptively transferred to melanoma-bearing mice and tumor sizes **(b)** and tumor weights **(c)** were measured. **d,** Representative flow plots of control and gRNA KO PD1+ P14 cells stained with antibodies to SLAMF6 and TIM3. **e-f,** bar graphs of control and gRNA KO cells showing frequency of TEX_prog (PD1+ SLAMF6+ TIM3-) **(e)** and TEX_term cells (PD1+ SLAMF6- TIM3+) **(f)**. **g,** Frequency of effector marker KLRG1+ cells. **h,** Experiment setup to test the combination of TF KO and anti-PD1 treatment. Day 7 of B16-GP33

s.c. implantation (5x10^5), Cas9+ P14 were adoptively transferred followed by by anti-PD1 or isotype IgG2a control treatment. Tumor growth curve **(i)** and tumor weight **(j)** of *Zscan20* KO. Tumor growth curve **(k)** and tumor weight **(l)** of *Jdp2* KO. **m,** Day 7 of B16-GP33 s.c. implantation (3x10^5), Cas9+ P14 of *Zfp324 KO* were adoptively transferred followed by anti-PD1 or isotype IgG2a control treatment. Tumor growth curves were measured. All data include more than three biological replicates, n ≥ 9. Tumor growth statistical analysis was performed using two-way ANOVA Tukey's multiple comparison test. All other comparisons were performed by pair-wise t-test. Data are presented as the mean ± s.e.m. ****$P<0.0001$, ***$P<0.001$, **$P<0.01$, *$P<0.05$.

Figure Legends

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18

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independent experiments. (d). Data include more than two biological replicates, n ≥ 5. Ordinary one-way

ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparison test (**f-h, k-l**).

Fig. 4| TEX$_{term}$-specific TFs do not affect T$_{RM}$ cell formation. a, Schematic of *in vivo* Perturb-seq screening in memory CD8$^+$ T cells during acute LCMV-Armstrong infection. Cas9$^+$ P14 CD8$^+$ T cells were transduced with the TF gRNA library and then transferred into mice previously infected with LCMV-Armstrong one day earlier. The donor cells were then analyzed for T$_{RM}$ cells in the small intestine (SI) and T$_{CM}$ and T$_{EM}$ cells in the spleen. **b**, UMAP showing T$_{CM}$, T$_{EM}$, T$_{RM}$ and T$_{RM}$-*Itgae^{low}* clusters. The cluster marker expression is in Extended Data Fig. 8a. **c**, Differential clustering of cells from different tissue origins. **d**, gRNA KO positive cell density on UMAP. The color bar indicates cell density. **e**, Cluster distribution of cells with each gRNA KO. TEX$_{term}$-specific TFs are in bold letters. **f**, Normalized expression score of T$_{RM}$ "up and down" gene-signatures[9,37] in cells with each gRNA KO compared to gScramble positive cells. **g-j**, Individual phenotyping of the TF KOs in LCMV-Armstrong infected mice based on flow cytometry. **h**, The ratio of gRNA KO cells in SI:spleens. The frequency of splenic T$_{CM}$ (CD62L$^+$ KLRG1$^-$) (**i**) and T$_{EM}$ (CD62L$^-$ KLRG1$^+$) cells (**j**). **k-m**, Calculation of the apparent regulatory direction by integrating TF-regulated networks with Perturb-seq; blue and red lines represent suppressive and activatory regulation, respectively **(k)**. Regulatory maps of T$_{RM}$ and TEX$_{term}$ multi-state-specific TFs, HIC1 **(l)** and PDRM1 **(m)**. The green nodes represent regulatees in T$_{RM}$ cells, while brown nodes represent those in TEX$_{term}$ cells. Split-colored nodes with red and blue edges indicate predicted opposing regulation of the same regulatee in two cell states. Data are presented as the mean ± s.e.m. ***P<0.001, ** *P* <0.01, * *P* <0.05. Two-way ANOVA with Fisher's LSD test. Pooled three biological replicates (**e**). Ordinary one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparison test. Data include more than two biological replicates, n ≥ 6 (**h-j**).

Fig. 5| Disruption of TEX$_{term}$-specific TFs enhances virus and tumor control. a-c, Experimental design **(a)** of gRNA KOs of TEX$_{term}$-specific TFs (*Zscan20* and *Zfp324*) or the TEX$_{term}$ and T$_{RM}$ multi-state-specific TF (*Hic1*) and control P14 CD8$^+$ T cells were adoptively transferred to melanoma-bearing mice and tumor sizes (**b**) and tumor weights (**c**) were measured. **d**, Representative flow plots of control and gRNA KO PD1$^+$ P14 cells stained with antibodies to SLAMF6 and TIM3. **e-f**, bar graphs of control and gRNA KO cells showing frequency of TEX$_{prog}$ (PD1$^+$ SLAMF6$^+$ TIM3$^-$) (**e**) and TEX$_{term}$ cells (PD1$^+$ SLAMF6$^-$ TIM3$^+$) (**f**). **g**, Frequency of effector marker KLRG1$^+$ cells. **h**, Experiment setup to test the

combination of TF KO and anti-PD1 treatment. Day 7 of B16-GP33 s.c. implantation (5×10^5), Cas9$^+$ P14

were adoptively transferred followed by by anti-PD1 or isotype IgG2a control treatment. Tumor growth

curve (**i**) and tumor weight (**j**) of *Zscan20* KO. Tumor growth curve (**k**) and tumor weight (**l**) of *Jdp2* KO.

m, Day 7 of B16-GP33 s.c. implantation (3×10^5), Cas9$^+$ P14 of *Zfp324 KO* were adoptively transferred

followed by anti-PD1 or isotype IgG2a control treatment. Tumor growth curves were measured. All data

include more than three biological replicates, $n \geq 9$. Tumor growth statistical analysis was performed using

two-way ANOVA Tukey's multiple comparison test. All other comparisons were performed by pair-wise

t-test. Data are presented as the mean $\pm$ s.e.m. ****P<0.0001, ***P<0.001, **P<0.01, *P<0.05.

Methods

Dataset acquisition: The analyzed CD8^{+} T cell samples were collected from ten datasets, including this study (Extended Data Fig. 2). In total, 121 experiments, including 52 ATAC-seq and 69 RNA-seq were harnessed to generate the paired samples and used as input for the Taiji pipeline. The CD8^{+} T cell samples span nine subtypes: naive cells (Naive), terminal effector cells (TE), memory precursor cells (MP), tissue-resident memory cells (T_{RM}), effector memory cells (T_{EM}), central memory cells (T_{CM}), progenitor exhausted cells (TEX_{prog}), intermediate exhausted cells (TEX_{eff}) and terminal exhausted cells (TEX_{term}).

TF regulatory networks construction and visualization: To perform integrative analysis of RNA-seq and ATAC-seq data, we developed Taiji v2.0. which allows visualization of several downstream analysis-TF wave, TF-TF association, TF community analysis. Epitensor was used for the prediction of chromatin interactions. Putative TF binding motifs were curated from the latest CIS-BP database[63]. In this analysis, 695 TFs were identified as having binding sites centered around ATAC-seq peak summits. The average number of nodes (genes) and edges (interactions) of the genetic regulatory networks across CD8^{+} T cell states were 15,845 and 1,325,694, respectively, including 695 (4.38%) TF nodes. On average, each TF regulated 1,907 genes, and each gene was regulated by 22 TFs.

Identification of cell-state-specific/non-specific TFs: We first identified universal TFs with mean PageRank across 9 cell states ranked as top 10% and Coefficients of variation (CV) less than 0.5. In total, 54 universal TFs were identified and shown in Extended Data Table 1. The remaining 641 TFs were candidate TFs for cell-state-specific TFs. To identify cell-state-specific TFs, we divided the samples into two groups: target group and background group. Target group included all the samples belonging to the cell state of interest and the background group comprised the remaining samples. We then performed the normality test using Shapiro-Wilk's method to determine whether the two groups were normally distributed, and we found that the PageRank scores of most samples (90%) follow a log-normal distribution. Based on the log-normality assumption, an unpaired t-test was used to calculate the P-value. A P-value cutoff of 0.05 and log2 fold change cutoff of 0.5 were used for calling lineage-specific TFs In total, 255 specific TFs were identified (Extended Data Table 1). Depending on whether the TF appeared in multiple cell states, they could be further divided into multi-state specific TFs (Extended Data Table 1, Fig 1e) and 136 single-state exclusive TFs (Extended Data Table 1, Fig. 1d). Out of 255 specific TFs, 84

TFs appear in TEX_{term} or T_{RM}. To identify the truly distinctive TFs between TEX_{term} and T_{RM}, we

performed a second round of unpaired t-test only between TEX_{term} and T_{RM} (Extended Data Table 2). The

same cut-offs, i.e. P-value of 0.05 and log2 fold change of 0.5, were applied to select TEX_{term} single-

taskers and T_{RM} single-taskers. Thirty out of 84 TFs that did not pass the cut-off were identified as TEX_{term}

and T_{RM} multi-taskers. The full workflow was summarized in Extended Data Fig. 3a.

Identification of transcriptional waves: To identify the TFs which show similar temporal activity

patterns, we clustered the TFs based on the normalized PageRank scores across samples. First, we

performed principal component analysis (PCA) for dimensionality reduction of the TF score matrix. We

retained the first 10 principal components for further clustering analysis, which explained more than 70%

variance (Extended Data Fig. 4b; left panel). We used the k-means algorithm for clustering analysis. To

find the optimal number of clusters and similarity metric, we performed the Silhouette analysis to evaluate

the clustering quality using five distance metrics: Euclidean distance, Manhattan distance, Kendall

correlation, Pearson correlation, and Spearman correlation (Extended Data Fig. 4b; right panel). Pearson

correlation was the most appropriate distance metric since the average Silhouette width was the highest

among all five-distance metrics. Based on these analyses, we identified 7 distinct dynamic patterns of TF

activity during immune cell development. We further performed functional enrichment analysis to identify

GO terms for these clusters.

Regulatee-TF interaction in TEX_{term} and T_{RM} context: Taiji's outputs cell state-specific network

between TFs and their targets. We first combined the cell state-important TFs (PageRank mean is top 20%

in each cell state, Extended Data Table 3) and cell state-specific TFs (Extended Data Table 2) in TEX_{term}

and T_{RM} respectively. In total, 159 TFs for TEX_{term} and 170 TFs for T_{RM} were selected. We then combined

TEX_{term}/T_{RM} samples' network by taking the mean value of edge weight for each TF-regulatee pair. Next,

the top 500 regulatees per TF based on edge weight were kept for the following analysis. Then we took

the union of the regulatees from TEX_{term} and T_{RM}. The absent edge weight of TF-regulatee pairs were set

to 0. Thus, we calculated the log2 fold change of edge weight between TEX and T_{RM} with the 1e-5 as the

pseudo number to avoid the zero division. In total, 17,483 regulatees, 192 TFs were included. We used

the k-means algorithm for clustering regulatees. To find the optimal number of clusters and similarity

metric, we performed similar Silhouette analysis as mentioned above. We selected K as 16 considering

23

both silhouette width and balanced gene set size. Pheatmap function in R was used for visualization in

Extended Data Fig. 6.

TF community construction and visualization: Inspired by DBPNet[64], which is a framework to identify

cooperations between DNA-binding proteins using Chromatin immunoprecipitation followed by

sequencing (ChIP-seq) and Hi-C data, we constructed TF interaction network based on Taiji's output,

which is a TF-regulatee network. For each context, we first combined the cell state-important TFs and cell

state-specific TFs. In total, 159 TFs for TEX$_{term}$ and 170 TFs for T$_{RM}$ were selected. We then combined

TEX$_{term}$/T$_{RM}$ samples' network by taking the mean value of edge weight for each TF-regulatee pair. Next,

regulatees with low variation across TFs (standard deviation <= 1) were removed, then correlation matrix

between TFs is calculated by taking account of the SpeArmstrongan's correlation of edge weight for each

TF-regulatee pair. R package "huge"[65] is used to build a graphical model and construct the graph. We

employed the Graphical lasso algorithm and the shrunken ECDF (empirical cumulative distribution

function) estimator. We used a lasso penalty parameter lambda equal to 0.052 to control the regularization.

We chose this value based on the local minimum point on the sparsity-lambda curve. When lambda = 0.05,

around 15% of TF-TF pairs are considered as connected in the network. To estimate the false discovery

rate, we generated a null model by random shuffling the edge weight of TF-regulatee pair across TFs.

When the same algorithm is applied to this dataset, the chosen cutoff identifies zero interaction, suggesting

that the method with cutoff equal to 0.05 has a very low false discovery rate. Communities were detected

using Leiden algorithm[66] with modularity as objective function and resolution as 0.9   since it reached

the highest clustering modularity. In total, we identified 5 communities for each context. Network

visualization was performed by graph with Fruchterman-Reingold layout algorithm[67].

Pathway enrichment analysis: The enriched functional terms in this study were analyzed by the R

package clusterProfiler 4.0.5. We used GO, KEGG, MSigDb databases for annotation. For gene set

enrichment analysis (GSEA), the genes were first ranked by the mean edge weight in corresponding

samples and H, C5, C6, and C7 collections from MSigDb were used for annotation. A cutoff of P-value

< 0.05 was used to select the significantly enriched GO terms and KEGG pathways.

Heuristic score calculation via the integration of TF regulatory network and Perturb-seq:

24

We reasoned that (1) log2FC change in expression due to TF knockout, and (2) TF-gene regulatory edge

weights could be combined to provide heuristic scores for a TF's regulatory effect on a target gene. For

each guide RNA knockout, Seurat's FindMarkers() function was used to quantify log2FC of gene's

expression with respect to the gScramble condition. Heuristic scores were calculated for each TF-gene

pair by multiplying the gene log2FC with the corresponding edge weight from the Taiji analysis.

Regulatees of a TF were annotated as high-confidence if the magnitude log2FC of the regulate exceeded

0.58 (corresponding to a fold-change of 1.5 or its reciprocal) and if the edge weight belonged to the upper

quantile of all edge weights attributed to the TF. The sign of the log2FC was used to determine if the TF

activated or repressed each target gene.

Mice and Infections: C57BL/6/J, OT-1 (C57BL/6-Tg(TcraTcrb)1100Mjb/J), B6.Cg-*Rag2^{tm1.1Cgn}*/J,

CD45.1 (B6.SJL-*PtprcaPepcb*/BoyJ) mice were purchased from Jackson Laboratories. P14 mice (Pircher

et al., 1987) mice have been previously described. Cas9 P14 mice were generated by crossing P14 mice

with B6(C)-Gt(ROSA)26Sorem1.1(CAG-cas9*,-EGFP)Rsky/J (Jackson Laboratories). Animals were

housed in specific-pathogen-free facilities at the Salk Institute and University and at the University of

North Carolina at Chapel Hill. All animal experiments were approved by the Institutional Animal Care

and Use Committee (IACUC). Mice were infected with $2x10^5$ PFU LCMV-Armstrong by intraperitoneal

injection or $2x10^6$ PFU LCMV-Clone13 by retro-orbital injection under anesthesia.

Viral titers: LCMV Fluorescence Focus Unit titration was performed seeding Vero cells at a density of

30k cells/100μl in a 96 well flat bottom plate in DMEM + 10% FBS + 2% HEPES + 1% Pen/Strep. On

the next day, tissues were homogenized on ice, spun down at 1000g for 5 min at 4°C and supernatants or

serum were diluted in 10-fold steps. Diluted samples were added to Vero cells and incubated at 37°C, 5%

CO_2 for ~20h. Subsequently, inocula were aspirated and wells were incubated with 4% PFA for 30 min at

RT before washing with PBS. VL-4 antibody (BioXCell) was conjugated using the Invitrogen AF488

conjugation kit and added to the wells in dilution buffer containing 3% BSA and 0.3% Triton (Thermo

Fisher Scientific) in PBS). Cells were incubated at 4°C overnight before washing with PBS and counting

foci under the microscope. FFU was calculated per this formula: FFU/ml=Number of plaques/

(dilution× volume of diluted virus added to the plate).

Cell Isolation: Spleens were mechanically dissociated with 1mL syringe plungers over a 70um nylon

strainer. Spleens were incubated in ammonium chloride potassium (ACK) buffer for 5 minutes. For

isolation of small intestinal IEL, Peyer's patches were first removed by dissection. Intestines were

longitudinally cut and then cut into 1cm pieces and washed in PBS. Pieces were incubated in 30mL HBSS

with 10% FBS, 10mM HEPES, and 1mM dithioerythritol with vigorous shaking at 37C for 30 minutes.

Supernatants were collected, washed, and further isolated using a 40/67% discontinuous percoll density

centrifugation for 20 minutes at room temp with no brakes.

Cell lines and *in vitro* cultures: B16-GP33 melanoma cell line was cultured in DMEM (Invitrogen) with

10% fetal bovine serum, 1% penicillin-streptomycin and 250 µg/ml G418 (Invitrogen #10131027). MCA-

205 (Sigma) tumor line was maintained in RPMI supplemented with 10% FBS, 300 mg/L L-glutamine,

100 units/mL penicillin, 100 µg/mL streptomycin, 1mM sodium pyruvate, 100µM NEAA, 1mM HEPES,

55µM 2-mercaptoethanol, and 0.2% Plasmocin mycoplasma prophylactic (InvivoGen). All the tumor cell

lines were used for experiments when in exponential growth phase. For *in vitro* T cell culture, P14

splenocytes were activated in RPMI 1640 medium (Invitrogen) containing 10% fetal bovine serum and

1% penicillin-streptomycin, 2mM L-glutamine, 0.1 mg/ml GP33, beta-mercaptoethanol 50 mM and 10

U/ml IL-2.

Tumor engraftment and treatment of tumor-bearing mice: For tumor engraftment, 5×10^5 B16-GP33

tumor cells (Fig. 6h-l) and 3×10^5 B16-GP33 tumor cells (Fig. 6a-c,m) were injected subcutaneously in

100 µl PBS. Tumors were measured every 2-3 days post-tumor engraftment for indicated treatments and

calculated. Tumor volume was calculated by volume = (length × width^2)/2. For antibody-based treatment,

tumor-bearing mice were treated with anti-PD1 antibody (200 µg per injection, clone RMP1-14, BioXcell)

twice per week from day 7 post-tumor implantation. All experiments were conducted according to the

Salk Institute and University of North Carolina Animal Care and Use Committee.

Tumor digestion and cell isolation for Fig. 4: Tumors were minced into small pieces in RPMI containing

2% FBS, DNase I (0.5 µg/ml, Sigma-Aldrich), and collagenase (0.5 mg/ml, Sigma-Aldrich) and kept for

digestion for 30 min at 37˚C, followed by filtration with 70 µm cell strainers (VWR). Filtered cells were

incubated with ACK lysis buffer (Invitrogen) to lyse red blood cells, mixed with excessive RPMI 1640

26

medium (Invitrogen) containing 10% fetal bovine serum and 1% penicillin-streptomycin, and centrifuged

at 400g for 5 min to obtain single-cell suspension.

Proteasome activity analysis: For experiments involving the Proteasome Activity Probe (R&D systems),

cells of interest were incubated with the probe at concentration of 2.5mM for 2 hours at 37C in PBS.

Samples were washed and then stained with Zombie NIR viability dye (Biolegend) in PBS at 4C for 15

minutes. Samples were then stained with some variation of the following antibodies for 30 minutes in

FACS Buffer on ice: CD45-BV510 (BD Biosciences), CD45.2-BV510 (Biolegend), CD45.1-PE-Cy7

(Invitrogen), CD4-APC Fire 810 (Biolegend), CD11b-Alexa Fluor 532 (Invitrogen), CD8-Spark NIR 685

(Biolegend), CD44-Brilliant Violet 785 (Biolegend), CD62L-BV421 (BD Biosciences), PD1-BB700 (BD

Biosciences), TIM-3-BV711 (Biolegend), LAG-3-APC-eFluor 780 (Invitrogen), SlamF6-APC

(Invitrogen), CD39-Superbright 436 (Invitrogen), CX3CR1-PE/Fire 640 (Biolegend), CD69-PE-Cy5

(Biolegend), GITR-BV650 (BD Biosciences), CD27-BV750 (BD Biosciences). Samples were collected

on a Cytek Northern Lights and analyzed via Cytek SpectraFlo software.

Tumor experiment for proteasome assay: MCA-205 fibrosarcomas (2.5×10^5) were established via

subcutaneous injection into the right flank of C57BL/6 mice. After 12-14 days of tumor growth, spleens,

draining lymph nodes, and tumors from groups of mice were harvested and tumors were processed using

the Mouse Tumor Dissociation Kit and gentleMACS dissociator (Miltenyi Biotec) according to

manufacturer's protocol. For purification experiments, samples were pre-enriched using the EasySep

Mouse CD8$^+$ T Cell Isolation Kit (Stemcell Technologies) according to manufacturer's protocol and

stained with Live-or-Dye PE Fixable Viability Stain (Biotium) and CD8a-APC (Invitrogen) and live CD8$^+$

cells were sorted using the FACSAria II cell sorter. CD8$^+$ spleen and pooled TIL samples were washed in

PBS and frozen for RNA-seq analysis. For adoptive cellular therapy experiments, B16-GP33 melanomas

were established subcutaneously by injecting 5.0×10^5 cells into the right flank of CD45.1 pepboy mice

and tumor-bearing hosts were irradiated with 5 Gy 24 hours prior to T cell transfer. After 7 days of tumor

growth, 1.5×10^6 CD45.2 OT-1 T cells and 1.5×10^6 CD45.1/CD45.2 P14 T cells were infused in 100 μL

PBS via tail vein into tumor bearing mice. Tumors were harvested 14 days after adoptive cell transfer and

CD8 TILs were analyzed for proteasome activity. All experiments were conducted according to the

University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill Animal Care and Use Committee.

Proteasome^{high}/Proteasome^{low} T cell adoptive transfer experiment: MCA-205 fibrosarcomas (2.5 x 10^5) were established via subcutaneous injection into the right flank of C57BL/6 mice. After 14 days of tumor growth, Live CD45$^+$ CD8$^+$ CD44$^+$ PD1$^+$ T cells were sorted from tumors based on proteasome activity (high vs low) using the FACSAria II cell sorter. 2.5 x 10^4 cells were then injected into the 2 day MCA-205 bearing RAG2-/- hosts (n=5 per group) and tumor growth was monitored every other day starting on day 4. Tumor growth was measured every other day with calipers, and survival was monitored with an experimental endpoint of tumor growth > 300 mm^2. All experiments were conducted according to the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill Animal Care and Use Committee.

Retrovirus transduction and adoptive transfer: For gRNA retrovirus vector over-expression, 293T cells were transfected with Eco-helper and MSCV gRNA vectors. 48 h and 72 h later, supernatant containing retroviral particles was ready for transduction. P14 donor splenocytes were *in vitro* activated by 0.1 mg/ml GP33 and 10 U/ml IL-2 at 37°C for 24h, then spin-transduced (1500 g) with fresh RV supernatant from 293T cells for 90 min at 30°C in the presence of 5 μg/ml polybrene. Right after viral transduction 0.5-10^6 Cas9 expressing GP33-specific P14 TCR transgenic CD8+ T cells were transferred into C57BL/6 mice (retro orbital) that were implanted with 5 x 10^5 B16-GP33 cells 7-8 days ago or were infected with either LCMV-Clone 13 or Armstrong 1 day ago.

Flow cytometry, cell sorting, and antibodies: Both single cell suspensions were incubated with Fc receptor-blocking anti-CD16/32 (BioLegend) on ice for 10 min before staining. Cell suspensions were first stained with Red Dead Cell Stain Kit (ThermoFisher) for 10 min on ice. Surface proteins were then stained in FACS buffer (PBS containing 2% FBS and 0.1% sodium azide) for 30 min at 4˚C. To detect cytokine production *ex-vivo*, cell suspensions were re-suspended in RPMI 1640 containing 10% FBS, stimulated by 50 ng/ml PMA and 3 μM Ionomycin in the presence 2.5 μg/ml Brefeldin A (BioLegend #420601) for 4 h at 37°C. Cells were processed for surface marker staining as described above. For intracellular cytokine staining, cells were fixed in BD Cytofix/Cytoperm (BD #554714) for 30 min at 4 °C, then washed with 1× Permeabilization buffer (Invitrogen #00-8333-56). For transcription factor staining, cells were fixed in Foxp3 / Transcription Factor Fixation/Permeabilization buffer (Invitrogen #00-5521-00) for 30 min at 4 °C, then washed with 1× Permeabilization buffer. Cells were then stained with

28

intraceulluar antibodies for 30 min at 4 °C. Samples were processed on LSR-II flow cytometer (BD

Biosciences) and data were analyzed with FlowJo V10 (TreeStar). Cells were sorted either on

FACSAria™ III sorter or Fusion sorter (BD Biosciences). The following antibodies against mouse

proteins were used: anti-CD8a (53-6.7), anti-PD1 (29F.1A12), anti-CX3CR1 (SA011F11), anti-SLAMF6

(13G3), anti-CD38 (90), anti-CD39 (24DMS1), anti-CD101 (Moushi101), anti-KRLG1 (2F1), anti-CD69

(H1.2F3), anti-CD103 (M290), anti-CD62L(MEL-14), anti-Tim3 (RMT3-23), anti-Ly5.1 (A20), anti-

Ly5.2 (104), anti-IFN-γ (XMG1.2), anti-TNF-α (MP6-XT22). These antibodies were purchased from

Invitrogen, Biolegend, Cell Signaling, or eBiosciences.

Perturb seq screening using the retroviral transcriptional factor library:

Dual-guide direct-capture retroviral sgRNA vector. To generate dual-guide sgRNA vector (MSCV-hU6-

mU6-SV40-EGFP), we replaced the hU6 RNA scaffold region of the previously described retroviral

sgRNA vector MG-guide[68] with an additional scaffold[69] and murine U6 promoter.

Dual-guide direct-capture retroviral library construction. For the curated gene list containing 21 TFs, a

total of four gRNA sequences distributed on two individual constructs were designed for each gene. To

construct the library, a customized double-strand DNA fragment pool containing 80 oligonucleotides

targeting those 19 TFs and 4 scramble gRNAs (each oligonucleotide contains two guides targeting the

same gene) (Extended Data Table 5) was ordered from IDT. The dual-guide library was generated using

an In-Fusion (Takara) reaction. In brief, the gRNA containing DNA fragment pool was combined in MG-

guide vector linearized with BpiI (Thermo Fisher). The construct was then transformed into Stellar

competent cells (Takara) and amplified, and the resulting intermediate, individual construct was assessed

for quality using Sanger sequencing. Then, individual dual-gRNA vectors were combined. For quality

control, sgRNA skewing was measured using the MAGeCKFlute[70] to monitor how closely sgRNAs are

represented in a library.

*In vivo screening.*Retrovirus was produced by co-transfecting the dual-guide, direct-capture retroviral

library with pCL-Eco in HEK293 cells. At 48 h and 72 h after transfection, the supernatant was collected

and frozen at −80 °C. Cas9-expressing P14 cells were transduced to achieve 20–30% transduction

efficiency. Transduced cells were sorted based on the expression of EGFP, and an aliquot of 1×10^6

transduced P14 cells was saved as input. Transduced P14 cells (5×10^4) were then transferred

intravenously to either LCMV-Clone 13 or LCMV-Armstrong strain infected C57BL/6 PuroR Cas9

expressing recipient mice at day 1 post-infection. 25 LCMV Clone13 strain infected recipient mice were

used for 5 biological replicates, and ten LCMV-Armstrong strain infected recipient mice were used for

three biological replicates. 18+ days or later, donor-derived total P14 cells were sorted and pooled for

Perturb-seq analysis. Sorted EGFP$^+$ P14 cells were resuspended and diluted in 10% FBS RPMI at a

concentration of 1×10^6 cells per ml. Both the gene expression library and the CRISPR screening library

were prepared using a Chromium Next GEM Single Cell 5′ kit with Feature Barcode technology for

CRISPR Screening (10x Genomics). In brief, the single-cell suspensions were loaded onto the Chromium

Controller according to their respective cell counts to generate 10,000 single-cell gel beads in emulsion

per sample. Each sample was loaded into four separate channels. Chromium Next GEM Single Cell 5' Kit

v2, PN-1000263, Chromium 5' Feature Barcode Kit, PN-1000541, 5' CRISPR Kit, PN-1000451,

Chromium Next GEM Chip K Single Cell Kit, PN-1000287, Dual Index Kit TT Set A, PN-1000215, Dual

Index Kit TN Set A, PN-1000250 (10x Genomics) in total were used for each reaction. The resulting

libraries were quantified and quality checked using TapeStation (Agilent). Samples were diluted and

loaded onto a NovaSeq (Illumina) using 100 cycle kit to obtain a minimum of 20,000 paired-end reads

(26x91 bp) per cell for the gene expression library and 5,000 paired-end reads per cell for the CRISPR

screening library, yielding an average of 42639, 36739, and 53413 reads aligned from cells from *in vivo*

LCMV-Clone 13, *in vivo* LCMV-Armstrong infection, and *in vitro* donor respectively.

Data analysis. Alignments and count aggregation of gene expression and sgRNA reads were completed

using Cell Ranger (v.7.0.1). Gene expression and sgRNA reads were aligned using the cell Ranger multi

count command with default settings. Gene expression reads were aligned to the mouse genome (mm10

from ENSEMBL GRCm38 loaded from 10x Genomics). The median average of 4, 2, and 33 unique

molecular identifiers (UMIs) were detected from cells from *in vivo* LCMV-Clone 13 and LCMV-

Armstrong infection, and *in vitro* donor respectively. Droplets with sgRNA UMI passing of default Cell

Ranger CRISPR analysis Protospacer UMI threshold were used in further analysis. The filtered feature

matrices were imported into Seurat (v.4.3.0)[71] to create assays for a Seurat object containing both gene

expression and CRISPR guide capture matrices. Cells detected with sgRNAs targeting two or more genes

were then removed to avoid interference from multi-sgRNA-transduced cells. Low-quality cells with <200

detected genes, >10% mitochondrial reads, and <5% ribosomal reads were discarded. A total of 17,257

cells (Clone 13) and 15,211 cells (Armstrong) were passed quality filtering and were used for downstream

analysis. Count data was normalized by a global-scaling normalization method and linear transformed.[72]

Cluster-specific genes were identified using the FindAllMarkers function of Seurat. We utilized

Nebulosa[73] to recover signals from sparse features in single-cell data and made gRNA density plots with

scCustomize[74] based on kernel density estimation. In each biological replicate (Clone 13 n=5 and

Armstrong =3), the percent cluster distribution of cells with each TF gRNA vector was calculated. Among

two gRNA vectors per target TF, the gRNA vector with higher TEX_{term} reduction was shown in Fig. 3d

and utilized for Perturb-seq in LCMV-Armstrong infection (Extended Data Table 5). Two-way ANOVA

with Fisher's LSD test was performed to determine statistical significance. DEG was calculated using the

MAST model[75], the results were then used as inputs for GSEA to evaluate the effect on selected pathways.

Genes with p-value < 0.05 were considered as DEG.

ATAC-Seq library preparation and sequencing: ATAC-seq was performed as previously described[76].

Briefly, 5,000-50,000 viable cells were washed with cold PBS, collected by centrifugation, then lysed in

resuspension buffer (RSB) (10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4, 10 mM NaCl, 3 mM MgCl2) supplemented with

0.1% NP40, 0.1% Tween-20, and 0.01% digitonin. Samples were incubated on ice for 3 min, then washed

out with 1 ml RSB containing 0.1% Tween-20. Nuclei were pelleted by centrifugation at 500g for 10 min

at 4°C then resuspended in 50 ul transposition mix (25ul 2x TD buffer, 2.5 ul transposase (100 nM final),

16.5 ul PBS, 0.5 ul 1% digitonin, 0.5 ul 10% Tween-20, 5 ul H2O) and incubated at 37°C for 30 min in a

thermomixer with 1000 RPM mixing. DNA was purified using a Qiagen MinElute PCR cleanup kit, then

PCR amplified using indexed oligos. The optimal number of amplification cycles for each sample was

determined by qPCR. Libraries were size selected using AmpureXP beads and sequenced using an

Illumina NextSeq500 for 75bp paired-end reads.

ATAC-Seq analysis: Paired-end 42-bp, or paired-end 75-bp reads were aligned to the M. musculus mm10

genome using BWA[77,78]with parameters "bwa mem -M -k 32". ATAC-seq peaks were called using

MACS2[79] program using parameters "callpeaks -qvalue 5.0e-2 –shift -100 –extsize 200". Differentially

accessible regions were identified using DESeq2[80] . Batch effect was removed using limma[81]. Heatmap

visualization of ATAC-seq data was performed using pheatmap.

Single-cell RNA sequencing metadata analysis: Analysis was primarily performed in R (v 3.6.1) using the package Seurat (v 3.1)[71,82], with the package tidyverse (v 1.2.1)[83] used to organize data and the package ggplot2 (v 3.2.1) used to generate figures. scRNA-seq data from GSE10898, GSE99254, GSE98638, GSE199565, and GSE181785 were filtered to keep cells with a low percentage of mitochondrial genes in the transcriptome (< 5%) and between 200 and 3000 unique genes to exclude poor quality reads and doublets. Cell cycle scores were regressed when scaling gene expression values and T cell receptor genes were regressed during the clustering process, which was performed with the Louvain algorithm within Seurat and visualized with UMAP. To quantify the gene expression patterns, we used Seurat's module score feature to score each cluster based on its per cell expression of TFs.

To obtain Extended Data Fig. 6d, raw single-cell count data and cell annotation data was downloaded from NCBI GEO (GSE99254)[41]. Count data was normalized and transformed by derivation of the residuals from a regularized negative binomial regression model for each gene (SCT normalization method in Seurat[87], v4.1.1), with 5000 variable features retained for downstream dimensionality reduction techniques. Integration of data was performed on the patient level with Canonical Correlation Analysis as the dimension reduction technique[84]. Principal component analysis and UMAP dimension reduction were performed, with the first 50 PCs utilized in UMAP generation. Cells were clustered utilizing the Louvain algorithm with multi-level refinement. The data was subset to CD8+ T cells, which were identified utilizing the labels provided by Guo et al[66]. Cell type labels were confirmed via 1) SingleR[85] (v1.8.1) annotation utilizing the ImmGen[86] database obtained via celda(1.10), 2) cluster marker identification, and 3) cell type annotation with the ProjecTILs T cell atlas[7] (v2.2.1). After sub-setting to CD8+ T cells, cells were again normalized utilizing SCT normalization, with 3000 variable features retained for dimension reduction. Due to the low number of cells on the per-patient level, HArmstrongony[87](v1.0) was utilized to integrate the data at the patient level, rather than Seurat. PCA and UMAP dimensionality reduction were performed as above.

Statistical analyses: Statistical tests for flow cytometry data were performed using Graphpad Prism 10. *p-values* were calculated using either two-tailed unpaired Student's t-tests, one-way ANOVA or two-way ANOVA as indicated in each figure. Linear regressions were performed using the ordinary least squares

921 method in R (v 3.6.1). All data were presented as the mean ± s.e.m. The P values were represented as

922 follows: ****P < 0.0001, ***P < 0.001, **P < 0.01, and *P < 0.05.

Data availability

925 ATAC-sequencing data from this paper will be deposited in the GEO database (GSE279498). Taiji v2.0

926 output of this study (TF activity atlas, TF-TF interaction maps, and TF activity on genome browser view)

927 will be available at our CD8^{+} T cell TF atlas portal (https://wangweilab.shinyapps.io/Tcellstates/). All

928 other raw data are available from the corresponding author upon request.

Code availability

931 All scripts and Taiji v2.0 package will be uploaded at GitHub (https://github.com/Wang-lab-

932 UCSD/Taiji2).

Methods references

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Acknowledgments

We thank members of the Kaech and Wang laboratory for their advice and assistance with experiments. We thank Dr. Justin Milner (University of North Carolina Chapel Hill) for helpful discussions, reagents, and LCMV-infected mice. This work was supported by NIH grants to S.M.K. R37AI066232, R01AI123864, R21AI151986, and R01CA240909, to W.W. R01AI150282, R01HG009626 (in part) to H.K.C K01EB034321, to J.E.T R01CA248359 and R01CA244361, to D.C.H AI151123, to Y.W. EB029122 and GM140929, and to L.L. K01EB035649. H.K.C. is a Damon Runyon Fellow supported by Damon Runyon Cancer Research Foundation grant [DRG-2374-19].

Author contributions

H.K.C., S.M.K., and W.W. conceptualized, designed, and supervised the study. H.K.C. designed and performed experiments. H.K.C, C.L., A.J., and M.S. analyzed the data. B.P.R. and J.E.T. performed proteasome activity experiments, provided resources, and reviewed the manuscripts. E.C., B.M. D.C., B.C., Q.Y., F.H., T.H.M., S.K.V., V.T., U.H.C., and J.H. assist experiments. J.W., B.M., M.S., Y.H., L.H., U.H.C., J. M., and A.W. contribute to bioinformatics data analysis. J.H. and D.H. provided resources and training for ATAC-sequencing. H.K.C, and C.L. wrote the manuscript. H.K.C., W.W., and S.M.K. edited and revised the manuscript.

Competing interests

S.M.K. is SAB member for Pfizer, EvolveImmune Therapeutics, Arvinas and Affini-T, advisor for Barer Institute of Raphael Holdings and Academic Editor at Journal of Experimental Medicine. The remaining authors declare no conflict of interest.

Additional information

Supplementary Information is available for this paper. Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to Susan M. Kaech (skaech@salk.edu) and Wei Wang (wei-wang@ucsd.edu).

Extended Data Fig. 1 | Parallel differentiation of T_{RM} and TEX_{term} and their transactional and epigenetic similarity. a, UMAP from scRNA-seq data of T cells from blood, tumor, and normal tissues of CRC, NSCLC, and HCC patients. Unbiased clustering identified several T cell states previously reported in LCMV infection and tumors. **b**, T_{RM} markers show higher expression in TEX_{term} cluster from Pan-cancer scRNA-seq in a. **c**, Exhaustion[17] and T_{RM}-signature genes[37] are upregulated in both T_{RM} and TEX_{term} clusters. **d**, Pearson correlation matrix of batch-corrected ATAC-seq. Color and size are both proportional to correlation values.

a

10 datasets | 9 subsets | 121 experiments | 52 ATAC-seq | 69 RNA-seq

Dataset	Accession	# of experiments	Subsets
Milner(2017)	GSE107281	2 RNA + 2 ATAC	T_{RM}
Milner(2020.Apr)	GSE147080	2 RNA	T_{RM}
Milner(2020.Aug)	GSE157072	12 RNA	Naïve, MP, TE, T_{CM}, T_{EM}
Kaech(2018)	GSE111902	9 RNA + 9 ATAC	Naïve, TE, MP
Scott(2016)	GSE88987	4 RNA + 11 ATAC	Naïve, TE, MP
Mackay(2016)	GSE70813	10 RNA	Naïve, T_{CM}, T_{EM}, T_{RM}
Renkema(2020)	GSE152841	9 RNA	Naïve, T_{CM}, T_{EM}
Hudson(2019)	PRJNA497086	9 RNA	TEX_{prog}, TEX_{eff}, TEX_{term}
Beltra(2020)	GSE149876	12 RNA + 11 ATAC	TEX_{prog}, TEX_{eff}, TEX_{term}
Chung(2024)	This study	19 ATAC	Naïve, TE, MP, T_{CM}, T_{EM}, T_{RM}, TEX_{prog}, TEX_{eff}, TEX_{term}

b

Extended Data Figure 2 | Composition of multi-omic atlas. **a**, A total of 121 experiments across multiple data sets were utilized to generate an epigenetic and transcriptional atlas of CD8^{+} T cells under chronic and acute antigen exposure. **b**, Batch-effect corrected ATAC-seq across 9 CD8^{+} T cell states.

a

Extended Data Fig. 3 | Cataloging key TFs in 9 different CD8+ T cell states. **a**, Logic flow of the unbiased PageRank comparison to catalogue cell-state-specific/non-specific TFs. **b**, The number of TFs catalogued in each cell state. **c**, Venn Diagrams showing TFs shared with the T_{RM} cell state.

Extended Data Fig. 4 | TF wave analysis. a, Schematic of the analysis pipeline. **b**, Selection of algorithms and parameters for TF wave analysis. The Pearson correlation was chosen for the distance metric, with k=7 chosen as the optimal cluster number. **c**, The seven TF waves. Circles represent specific cell states. Red color indicates normalized PageRank scores. **d**, List of TF members in each wave **e**, Heatmap of biological pathways enriched in each TF wave, with a red-blue color scale indicating the p-value.

Extended Data Fig. 5 | TF-TF association in T$_{RM}$ or TEX$_{term}$ a-e, PRDM1(**a**), FLI1(**b**), GFI1 (**c**), ZSCAN20 (**d**) and JDP2 (**e**) and TF association networks. Line color indicates interaction specificity to T$_{RM}$ (green) or TEX$_{term}$ (brown), and line thickness represents interaction intensity.

Extended Data Fig. 6 | Global TF-TF and TF-regulatees analysis revealed biological pathways unique in T_RM or TEX_term. **a**, Pipeline of a comparative analysis of the TF-regulatee interaction intensity between T_RM or TEX_term. **b**, Heatmap of the log2 fold-change (log2FC) of edge weight (TF-regulatee interaction) between TEX_term and T_RM. Rows represent regulatee clusters, and columns represent TFs. The brown color denotes the edge weight in TEX_term than T_RM cells. The green color indicates the converse. **c**, Pathway enrichment in each K-means cluster of regulatees. **d**, Retrospective pseudotime analysis of CD8+ TIL scRNA-seq data categorized by differentiation status, showing correlation of the KEGG proteasome gene score (M10680) with exhaustion. Data from non-small cell lung cancer patients (n=14). **e**, Proteasome-mediated ubiquitin-dependent protein catabolic process gene set (GO:0043161) enrichment analysis of RNA-seq from CD8+ splenocytes (black) or TILs (purple), n=3/3.

Extended Data Fig. 7 | *in vivo* **Perturb-seq and individual validation identified several novel TFs for TEX_term differentiation. a,** Retroviral dual-gRNA vector design and validation. **b,** Feature plot of differentiation markers (Pan-exhaustion: red, TEX_prog: pink, TEX_eff: blue, Cell cycle: purple, TEX_term: brown). **c-e,** Quantification of the frequency of PD1$^+$ SLAFM6$^-$ CD101$^+$ P14 CD8$^+$ cells (**c**),

Inhibitory receptors CD38$^+$ CD39$^+$ double positive P14 CD8$^+$ cells (**d**), PD1$^-$ P14 CD8$^+$ cells (**e**). Ordinary one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparison test. Data are from more than two biological replicates, n ≥ 5. *********P*<0.0001, ********P*<0.001, *******P*<0.01, ******P*<0.05. Data are presented as the mean ± s.e.m.

Extended Data Fig. 8 | Perturb-seq and TF regulation switching in T_{RM} and TEX_{term}. a, Feature plots of differentiation markers (T_{CM}: red, T_{EM}: blue, T_{RM}-*Itgae*[low]: navy, T_{RM}: green). **b,** Heatmap of differentially expressed genes between T_{RM}-*Itgae*[low] and T_{RM} clusters. **c,** A heatmap of the heuristic scores for TF and regulatee interactions, representing the intensity of TF activation and the direction of regulation (Activatory: red, Repressive: blue). **d,** RNA expression levels of target genes regulated by TFs.

Extended Data Fig. 9 | Tumor control by TEX$_{term}$-specific TF deficient T cells. **a,** Model illustrating the synergy between TEX$_{term}$ driver TF deficiency and immune checkpoint therapy. **b,** Survival of melanoma-bearing mice receiving *Zscan20* KO or control P14 cells, followed by anti-PD1 or isotype IgG2a treatment. Mice were implanted with 5 X 10^5 B16-GP33 cells. **c,** Survival of tumor-bearing mice with *Jdp2* KO P14 transfer.

Extended Data Figure Legends

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Extended Data Tables

Extended Data Note

The comparative landscape of TF and regulatee interaction in T_{RM} and TEX_{term}

Our global TF community analysis reveals several biological pathways that are differentially associated with either T_{RM} or TEX_{term} cell states (Fig. 2f-h). Interestingly, many core pathways are jointly regulated by more than one TF community. For example, the ubiquitin-proteasome pathway is associated with communities 1 and 4 of TEX_{term}. We postulated that this is due to shared regulatees across different communities and thus sought to profile the global landscape of TF and regulatee interaction strength in T_{RM} or TEX_{term} contexts. Unbiased K-means clustering based on the TF and its regulatee interaction (Taiji edge-weights) in TEX_{term} and T_{RM} identified 16 clusters of genes with distinctive comparative interaction patterns (Extended Data Fig. 6a,b). Regulatees in k-8, 9, and 12, "$TEX_{term} < T_{RM}$ group", interact more strongly with TFs in T_{RM} than TEX_{term}. Genes in the $TEX_{term} < T_{RM}$ group (k-8) are enriched in cell-cell adhesion and actin filament-based processes (Extended Data Fig. 6c), which promote intraepithelial migration and the subsequent formation of CD8^{+} T_{RM} cells in the epithelium[31,88–90]. Conversely, regulatees in k-7,11,16, 3, and 5 clusters, "$TEX_{term} > T_{RM}$ group", have higher edge-weights in TEX_{term} than T_{RM}. The $TEX_{term} > T_{RM}$ group (k-11 and k-7) associated with signatures related to proteostasis such as protein deubiquitination, polyubiquitination, endoplasmic reticulum-associated protein degradation (ERAD), and autophagy (Extended Data Fig. 6c), which are also reported in TF community analysis (Fig. 2g).