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A dose-response model for statistical analysis of chemical genetic interactions in

CRISPRi screens

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Abstract

An important application of CRISPR interference (CRISPRi) technology is for identifying chemical-genetic interactions (CGIs). Discovery of genes that interact with exposure to antibiotics can yield insights to drug targets and mechanisms of action or resistance. The objective is to identify CRISPRi mutants whose relative abundance is suppressed (or enriched) in the presence of a drug when the target protein is depleted, reflecting synergistic behavior. Different sgRNAs for a given target can induce a wide range of protein depletion and differential effects on growth rate. The effect of sgRNA strength can be partially predicted based on sequence features. However, the actual growth phenotype depends on the sensitivity of cells to depletion of the target protein. For essential genes, sgRNA efficiency can be empirically measured by quantifying effects on growth rate. We observe that the most efficient sgRNAs are not always optimal for detecting synergies with drugs. sgRNA efficiency interacts in a non-linear way with drug sensitivity, producing an effect where the concentration-dependence is maximized for sgRNAs of intermediate strength (and less so for sgRNAs that induce too much or too little target depletion). To capture this interaction, we propose a novel statistical method called CRISPRi-DR (for Dose-Response model) that incorporates both sgRNA efficiencies and drug concentrations in a modified dose-response equation. We use CRISPRi-DR to re-analyze data from a recent CGI experiment in *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* to identify genes that interact with antibiotics. This approach can be generalized to non-CGI datasets, which we show via an CRISPRi dataset for *E. coli* growth on different carbon sources. The performance is competitive with the best of several related analytical methods. However, for noisier datasets, some of these methods generate far more significant interactions, likely including many false positives,

46   whereas CRISPRi-DR maintains higher precision, which we observed in both empirical and

47   simulated data.

49   **Author Summary**

CRISPRi technology is revolutionizing research in various areas of the life sciences,

including microbiology, affording the ability to partially deplete the expression of target proteins

in a specific and controlled way. Among the applications of CRISPRi, it can be used to construct

large (even genome-wide) libraries of knock-down mutants for profiling antibacterial inhibitors

and identifying chemical-genetic interactions (CGIs), which can yield insights on drug targets and

mechanisms of action and resistance. The data generated by these experiments (i.e., sgRNA

counts from high throughput sequencing) is voluminous and subject to various sources of noise.

The goal of statistical analysis of such data is to identify significant CGIs, which are genes whose

depletion sensitizes cells to an inhibitor. In this paper, we show how to incorporate both sgRNA

efficiency and drug concentration simultaneously in a model (CRISPRi-DR) based on an

extension of the classic dose-response (Hill) equation in enzymology. This model has advantages

over other analytical methods for CRISPRi, which we show using empirical and simulated data.

Introduction

CRISPR technology is becoming an increasingly important tool for genome-wide

identification of gene functions in various environmental conditions [1-3]. For example, several

different approaches have been devised to exploit CRISPR to induce depletion of target

proteins. In the earlier CRISPRko approaches, a nuclease-active form of CAS9 was used to

deactivate target genes by cutting the DNA at a target locus and induce DNA repair, which could

introduce indels causing frameshifts or inserting novel elements, abrogating their function

completely [1-3]. Another approach, CRISPRa, utilizes dCAS9 fusions with effectors that actively

enhance or suppress transcription through direct interaction with the RNA polymerase (such as

transcription factors that can activate transcription) [4].

In CRISPR interference (CRISPRi), a catalytically-dead CAS9 protein (dCAS9) is recruited to

a chromosomal locus by a single guide RNA (sgRNA) with a short (~20 bp) complimentary

sequence and physically blocks transcription [5]. dCAS9 nucleases from several different

organisms are available for CRISPRi (e.g. *S. pyogenes, S. thermophilus,* [6]) and different

promoters and chemicals have been used for dCAS9 induction. The degree of CRISPR

interference can be tuned by modulating the level of dCAS9 expression [7], varying the sgRNA

sequence with respect to its length, GC-content, targeting sequence complementarity, position

in the gene, or similarity of targeted PAM (protospacer adjacent motif) sequence, to consensus

for optimal dCAS9 recognition, [5, 6, 8-11]. While in mammalian systems, efficiency of sgRNAs

can vary among multiple cell types, [9], for simplicity, our focus is on studying single defined

lineages, as in bacterial strains. Tuning CRISPRi allows to deplete the targeted gene product to

intermediate levels [5], which allowed the introduction of the concept of gene 'vulnerability' as

describing the sensitivity of cells to partial depletion of individual proteins [12]. By this

definition, highly vulnerable genes are genes for which even small depletion of the encoded

protein causes growth impairment, which can be quantified efficiently on a genome-wide scale

using high-throughput sequencing [12]. The vulnerability of a gene can be both condition

dependent and strain or cell type dependent [12].

One interesting application of CRISPRi is to reveal targets of antibiotics or mechanisms of

resistance through chemical-genetic interactions (CGI) [7, 13]. CRISPRi libraries can be designed

to contain multiple sgRNAs targeting each gene, resulting in a set of thousands of individual

depletion mutants [12]. In this context, 'mutant' refers to a cell line transformed with a

integrative plasmid capable of expressing the dCAS9 protein and the unique targeting sgRNA,

even though it contains the wild-type gene sequence. The abundance of each mutant can be

quantified by amplifying the sgRNA targeting sequence which functions as a molecular barcode,

and then performing deep sequencing to count the number of barcodes for each sgRNA in a

treatment [6]. The analysis of such datasets is challenging, due to various sources of noise

which introduce variability in the counts.

There are several previously published methods for statistical analysis of CRISPR

datasets. One, called MAGeCK [14] (originally intended for CRISPRko screens), calculates a log-

fold-change (of mean counts) for each sgRNA between a treatment condition and a reference

condition (control), and uses a Gaussian distribution to estimate the significance of differences

in mean sgRNA abundance between treatments and controls (based on the implementation in

the source code, which differs from the description in the publication). To evaluate effects at

the gene level, individual sgRNAs are combined in MAGeCK using Robust Rank Aggregation

(RRA) to prioritize genes whose sgRNAs show greater enrichment or depletion on average than

other genes in the genome. MAGeCK has been used for evaluating chemical-genetic interactions

(CGI) with antibiotics [14]. A variant called MAGeCK-MLE [15] fits a Bayesian model by

Maximum Likelihood that captures changes in mean counts with increasing time or

concentration, along with effectiveness of each sgRNA through posterior probabilities of a

binary variable, to determine the overall probability that a gene interacts. Other approaches

such as CRISPhieRmix [16] use mixture models to separate effective from ineffective sgRNAs,

and thereby identify interacting genes as those containing a significant subset of effective

sgRNAs. DrugZ [17] identifies significant interactions by averaging together Z-scores (assuming a

Normal distribution) of log-fold-changes of sgRNAs at the gene level. DEBRA [18] utilizes

DeSeq, a method for transcriptomic analysis, which employs the Negative Binomial distribution

for counts and a more sophisticated method for modeling variance and using it to discriminate

genes displaying significant changes in mean counts.

However, most of these methods have one of two limitations when applied to identify

genes affecting drug potency. First, CGI experiments are ideally carried out with multiple drug

concentrations around the MIC (minimum-inhibitory concentration), since it is often difficult to

anticipate what concentration will stimulate the right amount of growth inhibition in

combination with CRISPRi-induced depletion of target proteins. However, many of the existing

methods analyze the data for each drug concentration independently (i.e. comparing each

concentration to a no-drug control). Since knock-down mutants might exhibit depletion at one

concentration but not others, results from multiple concentrations must be combined post-hoc.

As an example, the authors in [13] chose to combine results from analyzing different

concentrations of a given drug using MAGeCK-RRA by taking the union of significant interacting

genes at each individual concentration. Due to the noise in these CRISPRi experiments,

analyzing concentrations independently increases the risk of detecting false positives (in the

sense that non-interacting genes might be spuriously called as hits at different concentrations).

Second, many of the analytical methods do not explicitly take into account differences in

sgRNA efficiency (i.e. take sgRNA efficiencies as an input in the model). Different sgRNAs can

induce different degrees of depletion of their target genes, and this in turn causes different

effects on growth rate, depending on sensitivity of the cells to protein depletion [10]. This can

be quantified beforehand by evaluating the growth rate of individual CRISPRi mutants (with

unique sgRNAs) in a growth experiment and determining the actual fitness defect caused by

target knockdown [11, 12]. In highly vulnerable genes, the effect of protein depletion by sgRNAs

on cell growth rate (efficiency) can span a range from no effect to severe growth defect. Early

applications of CRISPR were primarily being used to fully inactivate genes (e.g. CRISPRko), rather

than to produce graded depletion effects. Therefore, at the time some of these methods were

developed, this information was often not used, as methods to quantify sgRNA efficiencies were

not well developed.   Even in MAGeCK, the Robust Rank Aggregation method treats all sgRNAs

in a gene as "equal" a priori, without differentiating them based on the expected effects due to

sgRNA efficiency. (Efficiency is not an input.) In contrast, it has been recognized that different

sgRNAs can have different efficiency, and several papers have investigated the factors that are

associated with stronger sgRNAs [19], especially sequence-based attributes such as similarity to

optimal PAM sequence, length and GC content of targeting sequence, mismatches, etc. [5, 8,

10]. Mathis, Otto and Reynolds (11) exploit this to synthetically create a diverse set of sgRNAs

with a range of efficiencies by mutating the guide RNA sequences, which they quantify by

empirically fitting growth curves for each modified sgRNA with a logistic equation. Interacting

genes are then found using differences in the fitted parameters that includes the quantified

growth rates and the Hill coefficient. Among all the existing CRISPR analytical methods,

MAGeCK-MLE [15] is the only other method that explicitly includes sgRNA efficiencies as an

input, which are used to set the prior probabilities that each sgRNA is effective or not (because

of their focus on CRISPRko) in the joint probability formula, to initialize for the Expectation

Maximization iterations.

In the application to CGI data, a regression model can be used to integrate data over

multiple drug concentrations [20]. The degree of a gene-drug interaction is reflected by the

coefficient (or slope) for the dependence of CRISPRi mutant abundance on drug concentration.

This regression approach was previously introduced in CGA-LMM for analysis of hypomorph

libraries (where there is typically just one mutant representing each gene) [20]. It was based on

the theory that depletion of the target of a drug should ideally synergize with increasing

concentrations of the drug. While exposure to an inhibitory compound will challenge the

growth of all the mutants in a hypomorph library, mutants with depletion of a gene that

interacts with a drug (e.g. prototypically, an essential gene that is the drug target) will exhibit

excess depletion relative to others in the library due to the combined effect of both the growth-

inhibition due to the drug treatment in conjunction with the growth-impairment due to knock-

down of an vulnerable gene, making these hypomorphic mutants even more sensitive to the

drug. For genes that genuinely interact with a given drug, this depletion effect should be

exacerbated at higher drug concentrations (i.e. be dose-dependent); thus, genes of greatest

relevance would be those that exhibit concentration-dependent effects. While the (log of)

abundance of a depletion mutant does not have to decrease perfectly linearly with the (log of)

drug concentration to obtain a significant negative coefficient (slope) in the regression, there

should be a general trend supporting that relative abundance decreases as concentration

increases.

One of the challenges in extending this prior regression approach (CGA-LMM) to CRISPRi

screens was incorporating information on sgRNA efficiency. Even in essential genes, some

sgRNAs may produce strong depletion of the target, while others might be almost completely

ineffective. While sgRNA strength can be partially predicted (with intermediate accuracy) from

sequence alone [9, 12], the actual growth phenotype depends on vulnerability of the target

gene (sensitivity of cells to depletion of the protein product), which is what is meant by sgRNA

efficiency. Even sgRNAs that are predicted to be strong might not cause a growth defect if they

are in a non-essential gene. sgRNA efficiency must be empirically quantified by measuring

growth rates in standard growth media (e.g. by fitting exponential growth curves based on

optical density, or using a reporter gene) with versus without induction of dCAS9, and then

calculating relative fitness defects [11]. An alternative approach is to fit the abundance of

depletion mutants to a piecewise linear model that allows for a preliminary lag phase, and then

extrapolating the model to predicted log-fold-change (LFC) at a fixed number of generations

[12]. Any such measure of sgRNA efficiency can be incorporated as a term in the CRISPRi-DR

model we present below. Although one could contemplate adding the efficiency of each sgRNA

into a simple regression model to predict abundances for each gene, a significant problem

(expanded upon below) is that sgRNAs of different efficiency can show different concentration

dependence, resulting in non-linear interactions among variables.

In this paper, we propose a modified regression approach for CRISRPi data (called

CRISPRi-DR) that incorporates both drug concentration and sgRNA efficiency. The approach is

based on the classic dose-response (DR) model for inhibition activity of drugs; the activity of a

target protein typically transitions from high to low in the shape of an S-curve as concentration

increases (on a log scale), which can be modeled with a Hill equation. The parameters of the Hill

equation for a given drug can be fit by performing a log-sigmoid transformation of the mutant

abundance data and then using ordinary least-squares regression. We show how sgRNA

efficiency can be incorporated into this model as a multiplicative term in the Hill equation,

which becomes an additive effect in the log-sigmoid transformed data. The benefit of this

model is that it decouples the concentration-dependence from the sgRNA efficiency, so they

can be fit as independent (non-interacting) terms in the regression, which ultimately amplifies

effects that may be apparent only for a subset of sgRNAs in an optimal efficiency range.

CRISPRi-DR is applicable to libraries where there are multiple sgRNAs representing each

gene with a range of efficiencies, which can be quantified empirically as an effect on growth rate

(fitness defect). The diversity of efficiencies is useful for identifying synergistic effects with

treatments/conditions. Thus, the main requirements for CRISPRi-DR are that: a) there are

multiple sgRNAs for each target in the library, b) the sgRNAs vary in predicted strength, and c)

the actual efficiencies of the sgRNAs (i.e. growth defects due to target depletion) have been

experimentally quantified in control conditions, as an input to the analysis method. The

primary use case we focus on is identification of chemical-genetic interactions, with drug

concentration as a covariate. We demonstrate the value of the CRISPRi-DR analysis method by

re-analyzing the data from a recent paper using CRISPRi for chemical-genetic interactions to

identify targets of antibiotics in *M. tuberculosis*. However, the approach can be generalized to

analyze experiments with other covariates, such as time-points of a treatment, where there is a

sigmoidal response in growth. We illustrate this by using CRISPRi-DR to analyze an *E. coli*

CRISPRi dataset from an experiment to determine genes differentially required for growth on

different carbon sources [11].

Methods

The CRISPRi-DR method applies to CRISPRi experiments that involve using high-

throughput sequencing to tabulate sgRNA counts representing abundance of individual CRISPRi

mutants in a population (pooled culture). Each mutant has an sgRNA (on a plasmid) mapping to

a target gene that can reduce its expression (e.g. with dCAS9 induction). In CGI applications, the

culture is treated with antibiotics or inhibitors at various concentrations, along with a no-drug

control, and DNA is extracted, PCR-amplified, and sequenced, producing counts representing

each sgRNA. If Y_{ijk} is the abundance (i.e. count) for an sgRNA i in a condition j for replicate k,

normalized abundance can be calculated by $Y'_{ijk} = \frac{Y_{ijk}}{\sum_{x=1}^{n} Y_{xjk}}$, where each count is divided by the

sum of counts of all the sgRNAs observed in a given condition and replicate. Let U'_i be the

normalized abundance of sgRNA i in the uninduced condition, then the normalized relative

abundances of an sgRNA i in all induced samples can be calculated as: $A_{ijk} = \frac{Y'_{ijk}}{U'_i}$, assuming

that the counts in the uninduced condition represents full abundance of each clone (normal

growth without target depletion).

CRISPRi Dose-Response Model

242   The CRISPRi-DR model for analyzing CRISPRi data from CGI experiments is an extension

243   of the basic dose-response model, extended to incorporate sgRNA efficiencies. The dose-

244   response effect of an inhibitor on the activity of an enzyme is traditionally modeled with the

245   Hill-Langmuir equation.

$$\theta = \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{K_A}{[L]}\right)^n} \tag{1}$$

247   where θ is the fraction of abundance (relative to no drug), [L] is the ligand concentration, K_A is

248   the concentration at which there is 50% activity and n is the Hill coefficient.

249   Applying Eq (1) to the CGI data, the relative abundance of sgRNAs A_{ijk} is used as the

250   predictor variable and $[D_j]$ is the concentration of drug j that the kth replicate count of sgRNA i

251   was extracted from,

$$A_{ijk} = \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{IC_{50}(D_j)}{[D_j]}\right)^{H_d}} \tag{2}$$

The unknown parameters are the IC_{50} value (inhibitory concentration that causes 50% growth

inhibition) and the Hill coefficient H_d. The plot of the concentration versus relative abundance

of an sgRNA (A_{ijk}) produces a sigmoidal curve, demonstrating how activity decreases as

concentration increases, with the IC$_{50}$, representing the mid-point of the transition.

The dose-response model seen in Eq 2 can be extended to account for sgRNA efficiency

by incorporating a multiplicative factor in the denominator:

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$$A_{ijk} = \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{IC_{50}(D_j)}{[D_j]}\right)^{H_d} \left(\frac{K_s}{S_i}\right)^{H_s}} \tag{3}$$

sgRNA efficiency, S_i, is an empirical measure of the degree of growth impairment resulting from

target depletion. This can be assessed in several ways, such as estimating change in exponential

growth rate in a reference condition in a growth experiment [21]. Alternatively, Bosch et al [12]

use estimated log-fold change of abundance (induced vs uninduced) at a fixed number of

generations of growth in-vitro in the absence of drug, extrapolated from a model fit to empirical

data (passaging experiment) that allows for a lag phase. K_s represents the unknown

intermediate sgRNA efficiency that causes 50% depletion of mutant abundance (half-way

between no depletion and full depletion), and the H_s is the unknown Hill coefficient that

represents how sensitive mutant abundance is to depletion of the target protein.

Relationship between drug concentration and gene depletion within

the CRISPRi-DR model

Abundance of mutants in a CRISPRi CGI experiment can be affected simultaneously by

both presence of an inhibitor and depletion of an interacting gene. However, the concentration-

dependent effect of a drug on mutant abundance can be different for sgRNAs of different

efficiency. Fig 1 illustrates the interaction between these two effects for *rpoB* (RNA polymerase

beta chain) in an *Mtb* CRISPRi library treated with rifampicin with 5 days pre-depletion. The

lines in Fig 1A are regression fits obtained for each sgRNA in *rpoB* using regression of log

abundances against log concentration of rifampicin, $\log(A_{ijk}) = C + B \cdot \log([D_j])$, where *C* is

in the intercept and *B* is the slope of the regression, representing concentration dependence,

and $\log(A_{ijk})$ are log relative abundances obtained as described above. The left-most side of

Fig 1A shows the range of abundances in the no-drug control (induced library in media without

rifampicin). These differences in abundances (dispersion along Y-axis) are due solely to the

growth impairment caused by depleting RpoB. As concentration of RIF increases, some of the

sgRNAs show very negative slopes, while other sgRNAs show slopes closer to 0. A parabolic-

type curve emerges in Fig 1B when the slopes B from the regressions are plotted against the

sgRNA efficiencies. Both the most efficient sgRNAs (colored red) and the least efficient sgRNAs

(purple) have slopes around 0 (no concentration dependence). Highly efficient sgRNAs (red) can

cause excessive depletion (even without drug), making it difficult to detect additional decreases

due to increasing drug concentration. Comparatively, sgRNAs with very low efficiency (purple)

might not induce enough depletion to synergize with the drug. The sgRNAs surrounding the

minimum point of the parabolic curve (dashed line) in Fig 1B reflect those of intermediate

efficiency where the ability to detect synergy with the drug is maximized. These are the sgRNAs

in Fig 1B that show the most negative slope with increasing concentration (dark green-indigo).

As Fig 1C shows, the efficiency where the slopes reach their extremes (most negative; or most

positive for those showing enrichment) can be different for each gene but tend to fall in an

intermediate region of sgRNA efficiency (0 to -5). The histogram shows that sgRNA efficiency at

which the most extreme (largest or smallest) concentration-dependent slope is achieved over

all interacting genes (236 for RIF D5). Hence, the sgRNAs that are optimal for detecting CGIs are

not necessarily the strongest (most efficient). The variability of concentration-dependence

(slope) with sgRNA efficiency suggests a possible non-linear interaction between the variables.

This nonlinearity is captured in the multiplicative terms of the dose-response model (Eq (3)).

Fig 1. Effect of sgRNA efficiency on concentration dependence for sgRNAs in *rpoB* in a

CRISPRi library treated with RIF (D5).

(A) Regression lines for log(relative abundance) against log(concentration) for all sgRNAs

in *rpoB* in a library treated with RIF for 5 days pre-depletion. The lines that reflect the

extremes of the sgRNA efficiency (red or purple), are flat and do not show much change

in abundance. Comparatively, intermediate sgRNA efficiency (dark green to indigo)

shows the most negative slopes, reflecting maximum synergy with drug. (B) Comparison

of sgRNA efficiency and slopes of the regressions seen in Panel A for each sgRNA. Each

point is an sgRNA colored by its efficiency. The most efficient sgRNAs (purple) and the

least efficient sgRNAs (red) show concentration slopes around 0. The dotted line reflects

the minimum of the parabolic curve. (C) Histogram of sgRNA efficiencies where the

slopes reach their most extreme (positive or negative) for 236 interacting genes in RIF

D5. The distribution shows that most of the extrema sgRNAs for interacting genes fall in

the range of -5 to 0 (note: not the strongest sgRNAs, which would have efficiencies

around -25).

Linearization and parameter estimation

320   The dose-response model Eq (3) can be linearized through a log-sigmoid transformation.

$$\text{Log}\left(\frac{A_{ijk}}{1 - A_{ijk}}\right) = H_d \cdot \log([D_j]) + H_s \cdot S_i + C$$

$$C = H_s \cdot \log(K_s) - H_d \cdot \log\left(IC_{50}(D_j)\right) \tag{4}$$

In this log-sigmoid transformed space, the concentration-dependence and effect of sgRNA

efficiency have been decoupled, appearing as independent linear terms with the Hill coefficients

(H_s and H_d) as the variables to solve for by a standard regression. The inflection parameters of

the sigmoid curve (K_s and IC_{50}) are combined in the intercept C in the model. Importantly, this

model implies that the effects of growth impairment due to the depletion of a vulnerable gene

and growth inhibition due to the drug on the overall (relative) abundance of a given mutant

become additive in this log-sigmoid-transformed space. To illustrate this, the CRISPRi-DR

equation is simulated by plotting idealized relative abundances (in Fig 2) using parameters

chosen to emulate what is seen in Fig 1A, the plot of slopes over a systematic range of sgRNA

efficiencies and drug concentrations for *rpoB*. In Fig 2A, the slopes of the concentrations are

plotted against abundances calculated using the dose-response model. The slopes vary as a

function of the starting depletion (left-hand side), which is due to sgRNA efficiency alone

(colored gradient based on sgRNA efficiency value). The slopes are most negative for

intermediate sgRNA efficiency, colored with a dark blue-green hue representing sgRNA

efficiency around -10. Fig 2B illustrates the result of the linearization (log-sigmoid

transformation) of the Hill equation. All the individual sgRNA regression lines over concentration

become parallel, eliminating the dependence on sgRNA efficiency, and allowing them to be fit

by a single common slope representing the concentration-dependence averaged over all the

sgRNAs.

Fig 2. The log-sigmoid transformation of abundances allows the CRISPRi-DR model to

factor in the non-linear effect of sgRNA strength on concentration dependence. (A)

Simulation of sgRNAs abundances for an ideal essential gene. Parameters used in

simulation: H_s = -4, IC_{50} = 0.25, K_s = -10 and H_d = -0.5 over a range of sgRNA efficiencies

and drug concentrations. (B) When the log-sigmoid transformation of the abundances is

applied, we see all the regression fits are parallel to one another, allowing to be fit by a

single common slope, representing the concentration dependence over all sgRNAs,

regardless of sgRNA efficiency.

Experimental data (i.e. counts from sequencing, converted to relative abundances for

mutants with each sgRNA) are fit on a gene-by-gene basis using ordinary least-square (OLS)

regression by the following formula:

$$\log\left(\frac{A_{ijk}}{1-A_{ijk}}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_c \cdot \log([D_j]) + \beta_s \cdot S_i \tag{5}$$

where A (relative abundance for each CRISPRi mutant at given drug concentration), S_i (sgRNA

efficiency) and $[D_j]$ (concentration of drugs) are columns of a melted matrix. To include the

control samples (no-drug, dCAS9-induced controls) in the regression, they are treated as one

two-fold dilution lower than the lowest available concentration tested for the drug (to avoid

taking the log of 0). Since the log-sigmoid transform of the relative abundances is taken, they

must be within the range of (0,1). Although relative abundances greater than 1.0 are possible in

treated conditions (relative to uninduced, no-drug controls), especially in cases where target

depletion confers a growth advantage and consequent enrichment, we use a squashing function

to ensure the relative abundances range between 0 and 1, which is required to take the log-

sigmoid transform.

$$A_{ijk} = \tau + \frac{(1-\tau)(1-e^{-2A_{ijk}})}{(1+e^{-2A_{ijk}})} \tag{6}$$

where $\tau=0.01$ is a pseudo count needed to make abundances non-zero for taking logarithms.

Relative abundances that are greater than 1.0 are mapped to just below 1.0, though the

mapping is monotonic, so the order among sgRNAs is still preserved (higher abundances

become exponentially closer to 1.0).

Significance Testing

The statistic that indicates the degree of interaction of each gene with a given drug is the

coefficient for the $log([D])$ term (i.e. slope) in the model. To determine whether the interaction

is statistically significant, a Wald test [22] is applied to calculate a P-value reflecting whether the

coefficient is significantly different than 0, adjusting for a target FDR (false discovery rate) of 5%

over the whole genome using the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure [23]. However, the Wald test

by itself yields many genes predicted to interact with the drug (often thousands) with adjusted

P-value < 0.05. The test selects genes with slopes that are technically different than 0, but not

necessarily large enough to be relevant to the drug mechanism. Our assumption is that most of

genes in the genome do not interact with a given drug (at least not directly involved in the

mechanism of action or resistance). Many genes have small positive and negative slopes,

possibly due to some source of noise in the experiment or generalized phenotypic interactions,

which should be filtered out. Therefore, genes are filtered based on the magnitude of the slopes

(analogous to the requirement of |LFC|>1 used by Li, Poulton (13) to filter significant genes by

MAGeCK). The distribution of slopes over all genes is assumed to be a Normal distribution, and

Z-scores are computed for every gene g: $Z_g = \frac{\beta_{c,g} - \mu(\beta_c)}{\sigma(\beta_c)}$, where $\sigma(\beta_c)$ is the standard

deviation of the slopes of log concentration dependence and $\mu(\beta_c)$ is the mean of the slopes.

Genes with $|Z_g| < 2.0$ are filtered out. This produces hits whose slopes are significant outliers

(>2σ) from the rest of the population (i.e. genes in the genome). There are two groups of hits,

corresponding to the two tails of the distribution: enriched hits where $Z_g > 2.0$, and depleted

hits, $Z_g < -2.0$.

Results

CRISPRi Dataset and Pre-processing

A chemical-genomics dataset was obtained from high-throughput sequencing of a

CRISPRi library of *M. tuberculosis* (*Mtb*) that had been treated with several antibiotics. The

library consists of 96,700 sgRNAs targeting all 4019 genes in the *Mtb* H37Rv genome [13]. This

library was intentionally constructed to focus on probing essential genes (based on prior TnSeq

analysis [24]), with a mean of 83 sgRNAs per essential gene, but there are some sgRNAs in each

non-essential gene too (mean of 10 sgRNAs per non-essential gene).

The library was individually treated with 9 anti-TB drugs (rifampicin, RIF; isoniazid, INH,

ethambutol, EMB; vancomycin, VAN; levofloxacin, LEVO; linezolid, LZD; streptomycin, STR;

clarithromycin, CLR; bedaquiline, BDQ) to evaluate and validate the CRISPRi system in

preparation for target identification for novel inhibitors (from high-throughput screens). These

drugs were selected because certain genes are expected to interact for each (based on known

mechanisms of action), although additional genes might also exhibit interactions, which could

extend our knowledge. We note that some drug targets are members of a complexes; although

a drug may bind directly to one subunit, other subunits in those complexes often show similar

CRISPRi phenotypes. RIF binds RpoB (RNA polymerase subunit) inhibiting transcription and

compensatory mutations are often found in *rpoC* [25], BDQ binds and inhibits AtpE (subunit of

the ATP synthase) [26] and *mmpL5* effluxes the drug [27], GyrA and GyrB (subunits of DNA

gyrase) would be expected to interact with fluoroquinolones like LEVO [28], EMB targets

embABC in the arabinogalactan pathway [29, 30], CLR, LZD and STR bind to the ribosome and

inhibit translation, which can be protected by rRNA methyltransferases [31-33], VAN binds to

peptidoglycan and is expected to interact with genes in the peptidoglycan synthesis pathways

[34, 35], and genes such as *inhA, katG, ahpC, ndh, mshA* and *cinA* are implicated in the

mechanism of action or resistance for isoniazid, an inhibitor of mycolic acid synthesis [36-39].

These define selected interactions that would be expected to be observed in a CRISPRi CGI

experiment.

Samples of the library (pooled cultures) were treated with each of the drugs, with

induction of the Sth1 dCAS9 by ATC (anhydrotetracycline), and were sequenced in triplicate at

several concentrations for each drug at 2-fold dilutions around the MIC, along with control

samples representing the no-drug samples (0 concentration). Three periods of pre-depletion

were evaluated: 1, 5, and 10 days (D1, D5, and D10), since it was initially unknown how many

days would be optimal for reducing protein expression after induction of CRISPRi. The

measurements reported in this experiment are observed counts of sgRNAs, representing the

relative proportion of each mutant in the population (pooled culture of CRISPRi mutants).

Abundance of a mutant increases or decreases if silencing of the targeted gene causes a change

in fitness. Although target proteins are knocked down by inhibiting transcription via CRISPRi,

intracellular protein levels are not directly measured in the experiment. Instead, unique

nucleotide barcodes representing each sgRNA are amplified from (integrated) plasmids in the

cells, sequenced, and counted. The counts reflect the relative abundance of each CRISPRi

mutant. Samples were normalized by dividing individual counts for each sgRNA by the sample

total (sum over all sgRNAs).

In this dataset, prior estimates of sgRNA efficiency were obtained from empirical data by

fitting a piecewise-linear equation to fitness over multiple generations, and then using the

model for to extrapolate the predicted log-fold change (LFC) each sgRNA at 25 generations [12].

The scale for these efficiencies ranged between -25 (highest depletion) and 0 (no depletion). To

determine the effect of depletion solely due to the sgRNA (without drug), uninduced samples

(in the absence of dCAS9 induction, -ATC) were also sequenced, to provide counts representing

mutant abundances in the absence of depletion of targets as an input to the model.

The CRISPRi-DR model accurately predicts sgRNA abundances from

sgRNA strength and drug concentration

The CRISPRi-DR model was fitted for all chemical-genetic interaction datasets from Li,

Poulton (13) , which included nine drugs tested at three different concentration levels (after 1,

5, and 10-days of pre-depletion without drug). The analyses by CRISPRi-DR found a range of

tens to hundreds of significant genes for each dataset. Table 1 show a more detailed account of

the significant genes founds in these CRISPRi screens by CRISPRi-DR, categorized into depleted

(mutant abundance decreases with drug concentration) and enriched (mutant abundance

increases with drug concentration).

Table 1. Number of Significant Genes found by CRISPRi-DR across the nine drugs CRISPRi

screen for each of pre-depletion days.

DRUG	D1		D5		D10	
	Depleted	Enriched	Depleted	Enriched	Depleted	Enriched
BDQ	89	99	121	48	116	37
CLR	182	23	75	89	79	71
EMB	15	160	6	161	51	130
INH	33	57	9	93	16	96
LEVO	80	47	50	50	19	4
LZD	45	123	44	140	54	65
RIF	117	65	165	57	146	53
STR	57	90	44	37	-	-
VAN	193	8	149	26	135	45

The significant genes identified by CRISPRi-DR generally have coefficients of concentration dependence that are outliers with respect to the rest of the genes. Fig 3 shows the distribution of the slopes calculated for genes in a library treated with EMB (one day of pre-depletion, D1). The threshold for this distribution where $|Z_g|>2.0$ and adjusted P-value < 0.05, is at slope = -0.37 and slope = 0.26 (vertical bars). The 164 total genes in the tails outside the vertical lines are significant genes. These genes include the targets of EMB: *embA, embB* and *embC* [29, 30], which have slopes -0.45, -0.43 and -0.32, respectively.

Fig 3. Coefficients of concentration-dependence from CRISPRi-DR model fitted for EMB

D1 (1 day of pre-depletion).

The distribution of the slopes of concentration dependence, extracted from the model

fit for each gene. The vertical lines are at slope = -0.37 and slope = 0.26. These are the

slopes adjusted P-value < 0.05 and the |Z-score|> 2.0. 164 genes have significant slope

values, i.e., 164 genes show a significant change in abundance with increasing EMB

concentration while accounting for sgRNA strength.

To evaluate the relative importance of the sgRNA efficiency and drug concentration

features to the CRISPRi-DR model, each gene was fit with two ablated models: M_d and M_s. The

M_d model contained only log concentration as a predictor: $\log\left(\frac{A_{ijk}}{1-A_{ijk}}\right) = B \cdot \log([D_j]) + C$ and

the M_s model only contained sgRNA efficiency as a predictor: $\log\left(\frac{A_{ijk}}{1-A_{ijk}}\right) = B \cdot S_i + C$. In the

EMB D1 experiment, the average r^2 (% variance explained) across all genes in full CRISPRi-DR

model is 0.43. Comparatively, the average r^2 is 0.29 for M_s and 0.13 for M_d. *embA* also appears

as one of the genes in the M_d set of significant interactors, but the other targets of the drug,

embB and *embC* do not appear in the sets of significant interactors for either of these ablated

models. As a measure of the model quality (goodness of fit), the Akaike Information Criterion

(AIC) for the full model in the EMB D1 experiment is 87.6, whereas the AIC of M_d is 300.7 and

AIC of M_s is 124.7. The full model has the lowest AIC, indicating it is the best fitting model of

the three. The AIC for the model incorporating only drug concentrations but not sgRNA

efficiency (M_d) is highest (worst), suggesting that sgRNA efficiency encodes critical information

needed for predicting mutant abundance. A Likelihood Ratio Test shows that the differences

between these models is highly significant (P-value << 0.05; χ^2 distribution using one degree of

freedom, since the ablated models each have one parameter less than full model). The r^2

values and results of the AIC-based likelihood comparison indicate that sgRNA efficiency

contributes strongly to accuracy of the model, and reinforces the importance of including sgRNA

efficiency as a term in the CRISPRi-DR model.

The improved performance of CRISPRi-DR over the reduced models for EMB extends to

the other drugs tested, as seen in Fig. S1. In all the experiments, the number of genes with fits

with $r^2 > 0.5$ is the greatest in the full CRISPRi-DR model, and the number of genes with fits that

have $r^2 > 0.5$ is greater in model M_s than M_d. This demonstrates that in all conditions, both

concentration and sgRNA strength are needed to make accurate estimates of mutant

abundance.

CRISPRi-DR and MAGeCK have a high concordance of predicted gene-drug interactions

Most of the significant CGIs identified by the CRISPRi-DR model were also identified by MAGeCK (MAGeCK-RRA) as reported in Li, Poulton (13), but MAGeCK often identifies many additional genes that are not detected as significant by the CRISPRi-DR model. Although there are some datasets where MAGeCK and CRISPRi-DR detect about the same number of significant interactions, as shown in Fig 4A and the Extended Figure S2 from Li, Poulton (13), there are quite a few datasets where MAGeCK finds substantially more hits than CRISPRi-DR, such as VAN D1, where MAGeCK finds over 1066 significantly depleted genes (even with the filter of |LFC|>1 applied), whereas CRISPRi-DR finds only 196 significant interactors. As seen in the Venn diagrams in Fig 4B, there is high overlap of calls made by the two methodologies (enriched and depleted combined). Across all the datasets, an average of 62.2% of genes identified as significant by CRISPRi-DR are also found to be significant by MAGeCK. In the depicted datasets in Panel B, nearly all the calls made by CRIPSRi-DR overlap with those made by MAGeCK. However, MAGeCK makes quite a substantial number of calls (significant interacting genes) that are not found by CRISPRi-DR. Additional details of the overlap of significant interacting genes in MAGeCK and CRISPRi-DR can be found in Table S3.

Fig 4. Comparison of significant interactions found by CRISPRi-DR and MAGeCK. (A) The

points in the plots are the analyses of CRISPRi screens by both MAGeCK and CRISPRi-DR,

colored by drug treatment. The left plot compares the depleted hits called by the two

methodologies and the right plot compares the enriched hits called by the two

methodologies. The number of hits (both enriched and depleted) are slightly greater in

MAGeCK than in the CRISPRi-DR model. (B) Venn Diagram of significant genes, both

depleted and enriched, found by CRISPRi-DR and MAGeCK for select drug-treated libraries.

The genes identified by CRISPRi-DR are primarily a subset of the hits found by MAGeCK.

CRISPRi-DR model correctly detects genes known to interact with anti-tubercular drugs.

When genes are ordered by coefficients of the slope representing the dependence of abundance on drug concentration from the CRISPRi-DR model, genes known to affect the potency of the anti-mycobacterial drug tested are ranked highly, as expected (Table 2). The more positive a gene's coefficient is, the higher the gene's enrichment ranking, and the more negative a gene's coefficient is, the higher it's depletion ranking.

Table 2: Ranking of Select Genes using the CRISPRi-DR model in 1 Day pre-depletion of treated libraries.

Drug	Gene	D1 Depletion Ranking	D1 Enrichment Ranking
BDQ	atpA	11	4022
BDQ	atpB	6	4027
BDQ	atpC	51	3982
BDQ	atpD	14	4019
BDQ	atpE	25	4008
BDQ	atpF	9	4024
BDQ	atpG	12	4021
BDQ	atpH	8	4025
BDQ	mmpL5	2	4031
CLR	RVBD3579c	40	3993
CLR	erm(37)	1	4021
EMB	embA	2	4031
EMB	embB	3	4030
EMB	embC	19	4014
INH	inhA	3	4030
INH	ahpC	2	4031
INH	cinA	5	4028
INH	katG	4031	2
INH	ndh	4028	5
INH	mshA	4025	8
LEVO	gyrA	4012	21
LEVO	gyrB	4021	12
LZD	erm(37)	3865	168
LZD	tsnR	4032	1
RIF	rpoB	94	3939
RIF	rpoC	147	3886
STR	RVBD2477c	4021	12
STR	gidB	4022	11

For each drug, the CRISPRi-DR model is run on each gene (using data from D1). The coefficient

for the slope of concentration dependence (β_c) is extracted from the fitted regression and used

to rank the genes both in increasing order (for depletion) and inversely (for enrichment). Green

reflects results consistent with expectations based on knowledge of known gene-drug

interactions

Genes that encode the target of a drug would typically be expected to have a high depletion

rank, i.e., show a negative slope, indicating that as concentration increases, abundance for the

given depletion-mutant decreases. This can be seen in S1 Table, in the ranking for genes using

the CRISPRi-DR model. These genes rank the highest in D1 and not as well in D10. This can be

attributed to the fact that, after 10 days of pre-depletion, these mutants are already quite

depleted, even at concentration 0, increasing noise, and making it difficult to pick up on

concentration-dependent signals (further depletion). Therefore, the ranking of relevant genes in

D1 was assessed in this analysis (Table 2).

For isoniazid (INH), there are multiple relevant genes identified by CRISRPi-DR, including

inhA, ahpC, ndh [40]*, and *katG* [41]. *inhA* (enoyl-ACP reductase) is an essential gene in mycolic

acid pathway that is the target of INH, and AhpC (alkyl hydroperoxide reductase) responds to

the oxidative effects of isonicotinic radicals in the cells, MshA is a protein involved in synthesis

of mycothiol, which helps maintain redox balance [39], and CinA is a NADH metabolizing protein

that can hydrolyze the isoniazid-NAD adduct [38]. Therefore, as dosage of the drug increases,

the abundances of the mutants of these genes should decrease. These genes are in the top 10

highest ranked depletion genes for INH (see Table 2). In contrast, *katG* and *ndh* are found

among the top 5 enriched hits, exhibiting increased survival when the proteins are depleted.

KatG (catalase) is the activator of INH, and the most common mutations in INH-resistant strains

occur in *katG*, decreasing activity [42]. *Ndh* (type II NADH reductase) mutants have also been

shown to decrease sensitivity to INH by shifting intracellular NADH levels (needed for INH-NADH

adduct formation), and mutations in *ndh* have been shown to be defective in target enzyme

(NdhII) activity [40], which is consistent with the observation in the CRISPRi data that depletion

of *ndh* leads to increase survival in the presence of INH. Similarly, *mshA* is highly enriched,

consistent with mutations found in resistant mutants.

For EMB, *embA, embB,* and *embC* (subunits of the arabinosyltransferase, target of

ethambutol, EMB) rank within the top 100 depleted genes for all three pre-depletion conditions

[29, 30]. However, interactions with the other genes in the arabinogalactan pathway, like *ubiA*

(which sometimes acquires resistance mutations [43]), were not observed.

In RIF, *rpoB* and *rpoC*, subunits of the core RNA polymerase, are ranked within the top 150

genes. Significant negative interacting genes for RIF also include many cell wall related genes

such as *ponA2, rodA, ripA, aftABCD, embABC,* etc., consistent with recent studies that show RIF

exposure (or mutations in *rpoB*) leads to various cell wall phenotypes [44-46]. Similarly, the

target of bedaquiline (BDQ), the F0F1 ATP synthase (which includes 8 subunits encoded by

atpA-atpH, of which AtpE is the one bound by BDQ) [26], and *mmpL5,* which can efflux the drug

[27]*,* are ranked within the top 40 depleted genes in BDQ.

The significantly interacting genes in vancomycin (VAN) involve many genes in the cell

wall/membrane/envelope biogenesis pathway (as defined by in COG pathways [47]) (adjusted P-

value for pathway enrichment = 0.0004 using Fisher's Exact Test). This follows previous studies

that show cell wall genes are targets of vancomycin [48, 49], which binds to peptidoglycan in

the cell wall.

In levofloxacin (LEVO), CRISPRi mutants of *gyrA* and *gyrB* (subunits of the DNA gyrase, the

target of fluoroquinolones) are also observed to be enriched. The reason that depletion of this

drug target leads to enrichment of mutants (hence a growth advantage, rather than the

expected growth impairment) is likely due to reduced generation of double-stranded breaks in

the DNA and other toxic intermediates as a side-effect of inhibiting the gyrase, an effect that has

been observed in *E. coli* [50].

For clarithromycin (CLR), an inhibitor of translation, *Rv3579c* and *erm(37)* are observed as

hits. *Erm(37)* adds a methyl group on the A2058/G2099 nucleotide in the 23S component of the

ribosome, the same site in which clarithromycin binds [51]. This natively increases tolerance to

CLR in *Mtb*. As this gene is depleted, CLR has greater opportunity to bind, reducing the cells'

natural tolerance to the drug. Consistent with this observation, e*rm(37)* has a depletion rank of

#1 in the CLR D1 condition. Rv3579c is another methyltransferase with a similar function that

ranks highly (#35) in CLR.

In contrast to methylation inhibiting the binding of CLR, there are ribosome

methyltransferases in *Mtb,* where methylation facilitates binding of a drug. Mutants for these

genes would be expected to show a high enrichment rank in presence of drug. For instance,

streptomycin (STR) interferes with ribosomal peptide/protein synthesis by binding near the

interaction of the large and small subunits of the ribosome [52]. Two relevant genes that

influence the binding of STR include *gidB* and *Rv2477c/ettA*. GidB is an rRNA methyltransferase

that methylates the ribosome at nucleotide G518 of the 16S rRNA, the position at which STR

interacts [33], increasing native affinity for STR. This is consistent with the observation that one

of the most common mutations in STR-resistant clinical isolates is loss of function mutations in

gidB [53]. Rv2477c is a ribosome accessory factor, also known as EttA, which is an ATPase that

enhances translation efficiency. It has also recently been shown to bind the ribosome near the

P-site (peptidyl transfer center), potentially interfering with binding of aminoglycosides [54],

and loss-of-function mutations observed in drug-resistant clinical isolates of *M. tuberculosis*

have shown to confer resistance to STR [13]. The ranking of both genes using the CRISPRi-DR

model are within the top 12 enriched genes in STR. For linezolid (LZD), relevant genes identified

are *erm(37)* and *tsnR.* TsnR is an rRNA methyltransferase, analogous to GidB, and results in

tolerance to LZD in a similar manner as GidB does for STR [13]*.* Following this expectation, *tsnR*

has an enrichment ranking of #1 in LZD. Whereas depletion of Erm(37) gives tolerance to CLR, it

increases sensitivity to LZD. The nucleotides that Erm(37) methylates in the 23S RNA are

proximal in 3D space to where mutations conferring LZD-resistance are found, which both lie in

the PTC (peptidyl-transfer center) of the ribosome [55].

The CRISPRi-DR model is less sensitive to noise than MAGeCK

A reason that the CRISPRi-DR model shows lower consistency with MAGeCK (RRA) in some

datasets could be due to different sensitivity to noise. There is some noise in these experiments

due to variability in sequencing sgRNA counts across multiple concentrations and replicates.

This can differentially affect the accuracy of predictions of gene-drug interaction made by these

models. Three replicate counts were collected for estimating the relative abundance of each

CRISPRi mutant (with a unique sgRNA) in the presence of a drug at a given concentration. The

coefficient of variation (CV) can be used to measure the relative consistency of measurements

across these observations, which in turn can be used to evaluate the sensitivities of CRISPRi-DR

and MAGeCK to noise in the raw data.

For each sgRNA s_i the coefficient of variation (CV) was calculated across the relative

abundances for the 3 replicates for each concentration (C) in drug (D) ($CV_{D,C,i} = \frac{\sigma(i)}{\mu(i)}$), where

$\sigma(i)$ is the standard deviation of the 3 relative abundances in concentration C and $\mu(i)$ is the

mean. In Fig 5A, the $CV_{D=DMSO,C=0,i}$ (C of abundances for a random subset of sgRNAs (~5%) in a

dCAS9-induced, no-drug condition (concentration 0) is compared to the average abundance. For

sgRNAs of medium to high relative abundance (i.e., less depletion), the CV is fairly constant at

approximately 10%. However, at low relative (to uninduced) abundances (i.e. higher depletion),

CV value increases substantially to over 100%. If a gene contains multiple such sgRNAs with high

CV values, then the variation may be misconstrued as a genetic interaction by a methodology

that is susceptible to noise.

Fig 5. CRISPRi-DR model shows less sensitivity to noise than MAGeCK. (A) Comparison of

average relative abundance and average CV across replicates in no-drug control samples for

a sample of sgRNAs: For each sgRNA, we looked at the average CV of sgRNAs in the 3 control

replicates against the average abundance of the sgRNA across those replicates. The lower

the average abundance, the greater the noise present for the sgRNA. (B) Distribution of

average CV of gene for significant genes in MAGeCK and significant genes in CRISPRi-DR in

RIF D10: The distribution of average CV of significant genes in CRISPRi-DR model is more

skewed and has a peak at CV ≈ 10%. Although most significant genes in MAGeCK show an

average CV around 15%, there are quite a few genes with higher average CVs not found

significant by the CRISPRi-DR model. (C) Coefficient of Variation (CV) of each sgRNA in two

genes with similar number of sgRNAs for a library treated with RIF D10: *Rv1410c* is

significant in both methodologies and *Rv0810c* significant in MAGeCK but not in CRISPRi-DR.

The majority of CV values for sgRNAs in *Rv1410c* is around 20%. Although both genes have

about 20 sgRNAs, *Rv0810c* shows 8 sgRNAs whose CV values exceed 60.5%, which is the

maximum CV present in *Rv1410c.* (D) Distribution of average CV for enriched and depleted

significant genes in MAGeCK and CRISPRi-DR in a RIF D10 library. This plot shows the

distribution plot of Panel B, separated by depletion, and enriched significant genes. The

average CV values for significant genes in the CRISPRi-DR model are low for both enriched

and depleted genes. As seen in Panel B, significant genes in MAGeCK show low average CV,

but they also show high average CV. Although there is a substantially lower number of

significantly enriched in MAGeCK, they still show a large amount of noise compared the

significantly enriched genes in CRISPRi-DR model.

The average noise in a gene g for a given drug D can be quantified as the average $CV_{D,C,i}$, for

all concentrations C and all sgRNA*s* in the gene ($\overline{CV_D}(g)$). Therefore, $\overline{CV_D}(g)$ reflects the

measure of overall noise present in a gene in a drug D. The distribution of $\overline{CV_D}(g)$ in RIF D10 for

the 215 total significant genes (enriched and depleted combined) in the CRISPRi-DR model and

in 218 total significant genes (enriched and depleted combined over all concentrations) in

MAGeCK can be seen in Fig 5B. The distributions for both methodologies share a peak at about

$\overline{CV_D}(g) \approx 10\%$. The distribution of $\overline{CV_D}(g)$ for significant genes in MAGeCK has a fatter tail than

the distribution of $\overline{CV_D}(g)$ for significant genes in the CRISPRi-DR model. Fig 5D also shows that

the average CV of significant genes found by MAGeCK is much higher than CRISPRi-DR (colored

by depleted and enriched) for the RIF D10 screen. In addition to lower CV for significant genes,

CRISPRi-DR makes more balanced calls between enriched and depleted, whereas MAGeCK calls

are more asymmetric (more depleted than enriched, for this drug). This trend of higher noise in

MAGeCK hits is seen not only in RIF D10, but across all the experiments conducted (See S2 Fig).

This indicates that although MAGeCK is identifying genes with low noise (like the CRISPRi-DR

model), it is also detecting many genes with high noise that the CRISPRi-DR model is not.

An example of such a gene is *Rv0810c*. The gene has 22 sgRNAs and has a $\overline{CV_D}(g)$ value

(average CV over sgRNAs in a gene) of 51.4%, one of the highest measures in the RIF D10

experiment. In RIF D10, it is reported to be significantly depleted only in MAGeCK and not in the

CRISPRi-DR model. The dispersion of the CV values of the sgRNAs in *Rv0810* are compared to

those of *Rv1410c* in Fig 5C. *Rv1410c* has 20 sgRNAs, an $\overline{CV_D}(g)$ of 16.3% and is reported to be

significantly depleted in both MAGeCK and the CRISPRi-DR model. Although both genes have

some sgRNAs with low CVs (below 40%), *Rv0810c* shows 8 sgRNAs with CVs of at least 60.5%,

which is the maximum CV of sgRNAs in *Rv1410c*. The CRISPRi-DR model considers the

abundances at all concentrations, whereas MAGeCK compares each concentration to the

baseline independently. Therefore, if sgRNAs have a high CV value at a particular concentration,

they can be picked up as a significant genetic interaction by MAGeCK. The average relative

abundance for the 3 replicates at concentration 0 for all sgRNAs in *Rv0810c* is 0.19, whereas the

average relative abundance in *Rv1410c* for the same is 1.08. As Fig 5A shows, *Rv0810c* falls in

the low abundance/high noise section of the graph, with an average sgRNA no-drug CV of

47.9%, whereas *Rv1410c* falls in the low noise section of the graph, with an average sgRNA no-

drug CV of 11.2%. This demonstrates that MAGeCK reports genes such as *Rv0810c* with low

abundances resulting in a large $\overline{CV_D}(g)$, which the CRISPRi-DR model does not, i.e., MAGeCK is

more suspectable to noise than the CRISPRi-DR model.

Effects of noise on model performance using simulated CRISPRi data

The sensitivity and accuracy of the CRISPRi-DR model, MAGeCK-RRA and MAGeCK-MLE

was assessed under different sources of noise using simulated sgRNA counts sampled from the

Negative Binomial distribution [56], with means at different concentrations determined by the

dose-response model (Eq (3)). sgRNAs with empirical efficiencies sampled from a uniform

distribution from -25 to 0 were used to simulate the combined effects of CRISPRi depletion and

exposure to a virtual inhibitor at four concentrations (1μM, 2μM, 4μM, and 8μM), with three

replicates each. The aim was to determine how noise within and between concentrations

affects the performance of each method. Detailed information on the simulation is provided in

the Supplementary File S1.

Nine datasets (LL, LM, LH, ML, MM, MH, HL, HM and HH) were simulated by varying two

noise parameters: variability of abundances *between* concentrations (σ_C), and variability among

replicates *within* a concentration (P_{nb}, probability parameter of the Negative Binomial

distribution), each with low (L), medium (M), and high (H) setting. A total of 1000 genes was

simulated with 20 sgRNAs each. The first 50 genes are chosen as true negative interactions (with

a virtual drug), the second 50 as positive interactions, and the last 50 as negative controls (for

MAGeCK-RRA and MAGeCK-MLE). For interacting genes, slopes are chosen from a Normal

distribution around +0.8 or -0.8, with a standard deviation of 0.2. For non-interacting genes,

slopes are chosen from a Normal distribution around 0, with a standard deviation of 0.2.

CRISPRi-DR, MAGeCK-RRA and MAGeCL-MLE were run ten times each on these 4 scenarios.

MAGeCK was run independently for each drug concentration (2uM, 4uM, 8uM, compared to a

no-drug control) and combined using Fisher's method post-hoc, while CRISPRi-DR and MAGeCK-

MLE were run on all four concentrations simultaneously.

In lowest noise scenario (LL = low noise between concentrations and low noise among

replicates), CRISPRi-DR identified 74% of the simulated interacting genes, MAGeCK-RRA

identifies 56.5% and MAGeCK-MLE identifies 99.9%. As noise increases, the recall rate of

MAGeCK-MLE remains quite high at 88.3% in the highest noise scenario (HH), and MAGeCK-RRA

increases to 87.5%. The recall rate of CRISPRi-DR drops down to 30.1%. However, the false

positive rate of CRISPRi-DR remains low at 2.2% in this HH scenario, and the false positive rates

of MAGeCK-MLE and MAGeCK increase substantially (MLE = 42.5%, RRA = 42.1%), diluting the

sets of predicted enriched and depleted genes with non-interacting genes (false positives).

Therefore, although CRISPRi-DR identifies less of the true interacting genes in higher noise, it

maintains its ability to keep the set of reported interacting genes from being diluted with non-

interacting. Across most of the 9 noise scenarios, CRISPRi-DR has higher F1-scores than the

other two methods, where $F1\ score\ =\ 2\ \times\ \frac{recall\ \times\ precision}{recall\ +\ precision}$, reflecting a better tradeoff

between recall and precision (see Supplemental for more details).

The effect of noise on the true and false positive calls made by the methods can be seen

in Fig 6, where number of significant genes is plotted for each of the adjusted noise parameters.

For MAGeCK-MLE, significant genes were identified as those with adjusted P-value (based on a

Wald test) less than 0.05. For MAGeCK-RRA, significant genes were identified as those with

adjusted combined P-value less than 0.05 and an |LFC| greater than 1. MAGeCK-RRA is more

affected by noise among replicates than between concentrations, as evident by the orange bar

for P_{nb}=0.1. This is likely a result of stochastic fluctuations of counts at individual drug

concentrations that are not necessarily supported at other concentrations. This could help

explain the poor performance of MAGeCK-RRA on certain drug-treated screens that may be

especially noisy, resulting in many hits, such as in the case of VAN at 1 day pre-depletion; many

of these hits could be false positives. Comparatively, CRISPRi-DR and MAGeCK-MLE seem to be

more affected by noise between concentrations than noise between replicates, showing lower

precision as σ_C increases. Since these methods rely more on increasing or decreasing trends in

abundance that must be (at least somewhat) consistent across concentrations, noise between

concentrations may make these trends more difficult to identify.

Fig 6 Average True Positives (TP) and False Positives (FP) found by CRIPSRi-DR,

MAGeCK-RRA and MAGeCK-MLE as Simulated Noise Increases. The horizonal dashed

line in both panels is the number of total simulated interacting genes (100 total). The

parameters in the x-axis are ordered to reflect increasing noise. The leftmost bars of the

two plots are the lowest noise and the rightmost bars are the highest noise. MAGeCK-

MLE produces a high false positive rate for all scenarios and MAGeCK-RRA is more

sensitive to noise among replicates as seen by the orange bar for P_{nb}=0.1.

To assess the impact of performing a CRISPRi screen at multiple drug concentrations on

the performance of CRISPRi-DR, MAGeCK and MAGeCK-RRA, we conducted the simulation

above with high-noise settings (HH) and varying numbers of drug concentrations (1, 2, or 3) for

10 iterations each. The recall of the methods held fairly constant as concentrations were added.

However, increasing the number of concentration points caused a significant increase in false

positive calls by MAGeCK-RRA from 200 to 400. While MAGeCK-RRA shows susceptibility to

false positives when evaluating only a single concentration point, this effect was amplified with

more concentrations. This accumulation of errors explains the decrease in precision with

additional concentration points. In contrast, CRISPRi-DR is more robust with respect to false-

positive errors. By incorporating data from all available concentrations and identifying

significant trends, CRISPRi-DR maintains higher precision that does not diminish with the

addition of more concentration points. Although MAGeCK-MLE makes many more calls,

including false positives, the number of false positives did not increase as concentrations were

added, because, like CRISPRi-DR, MAGeCK-MLE incorporates data from all available

concentrations.

Comparison of CRISPRi-DR to Alternative Methods for CRISPRi

Analysis

To understand how well CRISPRi-DR performs relative to other CRISPR analysis methods, we applied the following methods on the *M. tuberculosis* CGI data from [13] described above: CGA-LMM [20], MAGeCK-RRA [14], MAGeCK-MLE [15], DrugZ [17], DEBRA [18], and CRISPhieRmix [16]. Each method offers a unique approach to analyzing CRISPRi data. Some of these methods, such as CGA-LMM do not explicitly incorporate multiple sgRNAs per gene or account for differences in sgRNA strength. Other methods, such as DEBRA, MAGeCK-RRA and drugZ, do not explicitly account for different drug concentrations in a CGI experiment, and so they must be run independently on each concentration and the results combined. Only CRISPRi-DR and MAGeCK-MLE incorporate both of these factors in their statistical analysis.

The details of applying each method, including parameter settings, handling of negative controls, and merging of results, are described in the Supplement. Several of the methods, including MAGeCK-MLE, produced more significant interactions (in the thousands, in some cases), whereas other methods, like CRISPRi-DR, produced much more focused lists of significant hits for each drug (often less than 100) (see details in the Supplement).

To evaluate the accuracy of the predictions by each method, we ranked the genes by significance (usually based on P-value, for most methods) and then generated ROC (Receiver-Operator Characteristic) curves. To define a list of expected hits (i.e. interacting genes) for isoniazid (INH D1, with one day of pre-depletion), we obtained a list of 90 conditionally essential genes from a previously published TnSeq study of *M. tuberculosis* H37Rv exposed to sub-MIC

concentrations of antibiotics [35]. While changes in essentiality due to knock-out of a gene by

transposon insertion are not technically the same as fitness defects resulting from CRISPRi

depletion of a target gene, there is substantial overlap between essentiality and vulnerability

[12]. Many genes known to play a role in INH resistance (*fabG1, katG, ndh, ahpC, cinA,* etc.) are

highly interacting (enriched or depleted) in both experiments. Thus, the list of TnSeq

conditional essentials serves as a proxy for the genes that are expected to exhibit an interaction

effect in the CRISPRi screen (even though, admittedly, not all necessarily will). Importantly,

conditional essentiality in this context includes genes whose disruption causes either a growth

defect or growth advantage (hypothetically corresponding to depletion or enrichment in a

CRISPRi experiment). Similarly, to define a list of expected hits for rifampicin, we used a list of

75 conditionally essential genes based on exposure of the TnSeq library to rifampicin, which

does not include subunits of the RNA polymerase because they are essential, but includes

conditionally essential genes that might play a biological role in tolerating inhibition of

transcription [35]. For levofloxacin (LEVO), we used 83 genes in the DNA damage-response

pathway (based on the KEGG annotation [57]), plus *pafABC* (recently shown to be involved in

DNA damage signaling [58]). Levofloxacin binds to the DNA gyrase (*gyrAB*), which produces a

variety of types of damage to DNA, including double-stranded breaks, and requires several DNA

replication and repair mechanisms to survive, such as recombination and the SOS response [59,

60]. The genes that will exhibit a chemical-genetic interaction with LEVO are likely to overlap

substantially with some of the genes in this DNA damage-response pathway.

Each of the CRISPR analysis methods was evaluated using these approximate lists of

expected hits for each drug. Since some of the methods were not designed to integrate

information from multiple concentrations, the methods were initially evaluated by analyzing

each concentration (LOW, MED, HIGH) of a given drug independently. Unsurprisingly, the ROC

curves showed considerable dispersion of performance (Fig 7A), which was a consequence of

both the method and concentration used (expected interactions were often not well-detected

at low drug concentrations).   Therefore, to make fairer comparisons to methods like CRISPRi-

DR, CGA-LMM, and MAGeCK-MLE, we combined the results of each of the other methods over

multiple concentrations by using Fisher's method [61] to combine P-values of genes at each

concentration (by summing the logs of the P-values, which is similar to taking the geometric

mean) and using this to re-rank the genes. This strategy for combining results from multiple

concentrations produced more uniform ROC curves for all the methods, as illustrated in Fig 7B.

For methods which required a single set of counts per gene, like DEBRA and CGA-LMM, the

most efficient sgRNA was chosen per gene.

When the results for different concentrations were combined using Fisher's method,

many of the methods exhibited reasonably good performance, ranking expected hits highly (Figs

8b-d). For example, for INH, 50% of the expected interactions were ranked in roughly the top

20% of all genes by most of the methods, and for RIF, the identification of expected interactions

(based on TnSeq) was even better (producing higher rankings of expected hits). For LEVO, the

ROC curves show lower AUCs for all of the methods, probably due to the fact that not all the

genes in the DNA damage response pathway are required to tolerate exposure to

fluoroquinolones. Though there were some variations in performance from drug to drug,

indicating that differences in performance were drug-specific, the overall performance was

matched fairly well, as quantified by the AUC values in Table 3. In particular, the performance of

CRISPRi-DR, while not uniformly the best, was comparable to that of the other methods

evaluated. It is notable methods such as CGA-LMM and DEBRA that do account for multiple

sgRNAs often had the worst performance (lowest AUC values). The similarity in performance

suggests that genes that exhibited CGIs (enrichment or depletion, at least at some

concentration) in this experiment were easily detected by all the methods evaluated, despite

their different analytical frameworks. Although the AUC values for all the methods were

comparable, the other methods often reported many more false positives than CRISPRi-DR.

CRIPSRi-DR tends to have slightly lower recall but much higher precision than the other

methods (see Supplemental Table S2), suggesting it makes more conservative calls (see

Supplement). However, it has the highest F1-scores in nearly all drug screens evaluated, which

reflects the best tradeoff of recall and precision.

Fig 7 ROC Curves for RIF, INH and LEVO with 1 day pre-depletion. Using expected

interactions derived from TnSeq studies [35] (INH and RIF) and the DNA-damage

pathway (for LEVO), ROC Curves are plotted for CRISPRi-DR and 6 other CRISPR analysis

methods. A) For methods that do not take concentration into account (MAGeCK, drugZ,

DEBRA and CRISPhieRmix), each concentration (LOW, MED, HIGH) was analyzed

independently, producing distinct ROC curves. B-D). For methods that do not take

concentration into account, results of the 3 concentrations were combined using Fisher's

method for combining P-values.

861   **Table 3. AUC values for 7 CRISPR analysis methods, showing comparative performance**

862   **on 3 datasets (drug treatments, with 1 day of pre-depletion), based on the ROC curves**

863   **in Figure 7.**

	INH D1 AUCs	RIF D1 AUCs	LEVO D1 AUCs
Definition of Hits:	90 TnSeq conditional essentials (Xu et al, 2017)	75 TnSeq conditional essentials (Xu et al., 2017)	83 genes in DNA damage response pathway (KEGG)
CRISPRi-DR	0.767	0.850	0.669
CGA-LMM	0.641	0.765	0.638
MAGeCK-RRA	0.799	0.855	0.684
MAGeCK-MLE	0.683	0.865	0.629
drugZ	0.726	0.866	0.678
DEBRA	0.665	0.822	0.615
CRISPhieRmix	0.771	0.844	0.666

867   # Analysis of CRISPRi Data for *E. coli* Genes Required for Growth on

868   # Different Carbon Sources

869   To illustrate the application of the CRISPRi-DR method to other datasets, we re-analyzed

870 the data from a CRISPRi library in *E. coli* that was used to investigate differential requirements

871 for growth on glycerol versus glucose as a carbon source [11]. While this is not technically a

872 chemical-genetics experiment, the data included multiple time points. The growth curves of

873 CRISPRi knock-down mutants (depletion over time) follows sigmoidal behavior very analogous

874 to dose-response curves for antibiotic exposure (depletion with increasing concentration).

875 Furthermore, while only 88 genes were analyzed instead of a whole-genome screen, this

876 dataset is suitable for analysis by CRISPRi-DR because multiple unique sgRNAs were synthesized

877 for each gene (68 per gene on average), spanning a range of efficiencies (which were quantified

878 by fitting growth data to a logistic curve).

879   We ran CRISPRi-DR on this data for each carbon source independently (fitting the model

880 to 7 timepoints for glucose, 5 for glycerol) (see Supplemental Material for additional details).

881 Many genes exhibited significant depletion effects (reduced fitness), because many of the 88

882 genes were essential for growth (on either carbon source). However, when the coefficients of

883 the time parameter from the CRISPRi-DR analysis were plotted as a scatter plot between the

884 carbon sources, two genes stood out as being preferentially required for growth on glucose

885 (highlighted in orange in Fig 8, most divergent from the diagonal): *fbaA* (fructose bisphosphate

886 aldolase) and *pfkA* (phosphofructokinase). These genes are well-known examples required for

887 preliminary steps in glycolysis but not for incorporation of glycerol, and were identified in the

888 analysis by [11]. Additional metabolic genes needed for growth on both carbon sources are

889 observed to lie along the diagonal. This demonstrates that the CRISPRi-DR method can be

890 applied to other datasets, including those not explicitly designed for chemical-genetics. The

modified dose-response model nicely incorporates the simultaneous effects of time and the

variable efficiency of sgRNAs on mutant abundance.

Fig 8 Coefficients of time dependence from CRISPRi-DR models fit for glucose and

glycerol *E. coli* datasets. Each point in the scatterplot represents the coefficients of time

dependence of a gene from the fit of the two models (glucose and glycerol). Individually,

the gene show a range of growth defect over time, but the coefficients for most genes

are equally negative for both conditions, except for a few outliers. The genes colored

fuchsia are involved in both gluconeogenesis and glycolysis, hence, as expected, have

similar time dependence coefficients in both carbon sources. The points farther away

from this line, the orange labeled points (*pfkA* and *fbaA),* are genes involved in glycolysis

but not gluconeogenesis and, as expected, they have more negative coefficients in

glucose than in glycerol.

Discussion

There are a variety of ways to use CRISPRi technology for probing the biological roles of genes by modulating their expression levels in-situ. While early experiments utilized the intrinsic nuclease activity of the CAS9 to knock-out genes entirely [1-3], more recent approaches have enabled partial knock-down of targets, generally using an inactive CAS9 (dCAS9) to bind to target genes and block transcription [5]. One way of controlling the level of depletion is through manipulating the expression of the dCAS9 itself. However, a second approach to creating variability in levels of target depletion is to utilize multiple sgRNAs of different efficiency. The nucleotide sequence of both the PAM and target-specific parts of the guide RNA can impact the hybridization and recruitment of the dCAS9 [9, 10]. This variability can be useful for gauging or titrating phenotypic effects. Rather than all-or-none responses, one can look for genes whose level of depletion correlates with the phenotype of interest.

While CRISPRi libraries can be constructed with multiple sgRNAs per target, most CRISPR analytical methods do not explicitly handle such, and those that do (such as MAGeCK-RRA and CRISPhieRmix) are essentially designed to identify significant genes by focusing on a subset of apparently effective sgRNAs (i.e. allowing for ineffective sgRNAs, which are filtered out for each target). However, sgRNA efficiency can be quantified a priori, such as by running a growth experiment to determine the fitness effect of inducing the depletion of the target gene. If this information is available (collected beforehand), then it can be incorporated into the analysis as a "covariate", to enable comparison of the impact of treatment conditions on the expected

magnitude of the phenotypic effect. We note that sgRNA efficiency is different than predicted

strength, because it also depends on the vulnerability of the gene. In an essential gene, some

sgRNAs might be more efficient than others. In contrast, typically, all the sgRNAs targeting a

non-essential will turn out to be non-efficient (i.e. have 0 growth defect, or relative fitness of

around 1), at least under control conditions, since the cells are unaffected by depletion of these

proteins and continue to grow at the same rate. However, they might cause growth impairment

if expressed in certain stress conditions where they might play a role in survival/tolerance. In

fact, in chemical-genetic interaction experiments, variable sgRNA efficiency can be further

exploited to identify genes whose level of depletion synergizes with increasing drug

concentration. We developed the CRISPRi-DR model with this use case in mind, extending the

Hill equation, which quantifies dose-response behavior of a growth inhibitor, to incorporate an

extra term representing the relative efficiency of each of the sgRNAs targeting a gene. This

approach, however, is not limited to CGI experiments. It can be applied to other treatments

that induce a sigmoidal response. For example, in re-analysis of data from the Mathis, Otto and

Reynolds (11) paper, we showed the same equation could be adapted for modeling the effect of

E. coli cultures grown on medium with different carbon sources; the time parameter could be

substituted for the concentration, since depletion of essential genes caused a gradual killing

with an S-curve shape over time.

Therefore, the CRISPRi-DR approach we developed has 3 main requirements. First, the

CRISPRi library should contain multiple sgRNAs per target gene. Anecdotal evidence suggests

that at least 5 sgRNAs per gene are necessary to maintain overall sensitivity for detecting

expected interactions and maximizing AUC (based on experiments where we subsampled a

limited number of sgRNAs per screen; see Supplement). Fewer sgRNAs per gene reduced the

stability of the regression and increased variance of the fitted parameters (specifically the slope

of concentration dependence). Second, ideally, sgRNAs of differing strength should be included.

Strength can be predicted from sequence features using various types of trained models [9, 12].

This covers both essential and non-essential genes. For essential (or vulnerable) genes, sgRNA

efficiency correlates with predicted strength, so this is equivalent to choosing sgRNAs with a

range of efficiencies (that create varying growth defects). For non-essential genes, one could

choose a set of sgRNAs with a range of predicted strengths, even though they might all turn out

to be non- efficient experimentally in standard growth conditions. This diversity could be

created by selecting sgRNAs that deviate from the optimal PAM sequence [6], choosing

hybridizing sequences of different length or GC content [5, 8], or adding random nucleotide

substitutions [10]. Third, the actual efficiency of each sgRNA must be empirically quantified a

priori, such as by running a growth experiment and comparing growth rates with and without

induction of the dCAS9 (hence, with and without depletion of target genes). These quantities

become inputs to the model. The CRISPRi-DR method can be applied to any CRISPRi dataset

that meets these requirements. The methodology works best when treatment produces a

sigmoidal effect on mutant abundances.

Doench, Fusi (9) have proposed several systems for design/optimization of CRISPRi

libraries. These were more focused on minimizing off-target effects while maximizing

sensitivity for detecting of genuine interactions. They do not give a specific recommendation

about how many sgRNAs per gene to select. Their library design guidance is to prefer more

efficient sgRNAs (e.g. Rule Set 1 selects top 20% of sgRNAs by empirical efficiency and uses

these to build a model to predict sgRNA strength; Rule Set 2 extends this with a machine

learning model based on additional sequence features to predict sgRNA strength, and prefers

sgRNAs with highest score [9]). This contrasts with our approach, where we advocate selecting

sgRNAs with a diversity of efficiencies, since we observed that the sgRNAs that exhibited the

most synergy with drug treatments were not always the strongest or weakest, but somewhere

in the middle of the range.

For application to CGI experiments, the availability of CRISPRi data for multiple sgRNAs

of varying strengths for each target gene presents new challenges for statistical analysis. In

previous work [20], we showed that regressing the relative abundances of mutants in

hypomorph libraries over multiple concentrations of a drug (on log-scale) can be used to

improve detection of CGIs. This regression approach captured dose-dependent behavior, i.e.

genes whose decreased expression caused either suppressed or enhanced fitness that increases

in magnitude with drug concentration (i.e. exhibits a trend, which is important for statistical

robustness). The CRISPRi-DR method described in this paper extends this previous work by

showing how effects of both drug concentration and sgRNA efficiency can be accommodated in

the same model. Ideally, interacting genes would be expected to exhibit synergistic behavior

with a drug, where depletion of a target protein induces excess depletion (or enrichment) of

the mutants grown in the presence of an inhibitor, and this effect is concentration-dependent

(exhibits dose-response behavior).

In theory, both CRISPRi depletion of essential genes and exposure to antibiotics should

impair growth of CRISPRi mutants (at least for depletion of essential genes). One might expect

to observe a depletion effect due to either increasing sgRNA efficiency, or drug concentration,

each producing regression "slopes" (in log-transformed space), with slopes for sgRNAs targeting

non-essential genes being expected to be flat, regardless of predicted sgRNA strength.

However, we observed that sgRNA efficiency and concentration effects are not independent -

they interact in a non-linear way. sgRNAs that are too weak do not produce enough depletion

of a drug target to cause sensitization, and sgRNAs that are too strong deplete a mutant to such

low abundances that concentration-dependent effects are difficult to quantify. Often, there is a

"sweet spot", or an intermediate sgRNA strength which maximizes the concentration-

dependent effect (which could be different for each gene). Our CRISPRi-DR model incorporates

both sgRNA efficiency and drug concentration as parameters, and reproduces the non-linear

interaction between them, where the "slopes" for the effect of drug concentration on relative

abundance of mutants can be larger in magnitude for sgRNAs of intermediate strength, while

being flatter (slopes closer to 0) for sgRNAs of high or low strength. MAGeCK-MLE is the only

other analytical method that take sgRNA efficiencies as an input; in that method, the empirical

measures of efficiency are used to initialize the prior probability that each sgRNA is effective

(assuming each gene is represented by a subset of sgRNAs that are effective and others that are

not), which is combined with other conditional probabilities in a Bayesian framework to

determine the posterior probability of interaction for each gene. However, we observed that

MAGeCK-MLE often reports far more significant interactions that CRISPRi-DR or several other

methods and has lower precision.

In this paper, we showed that this non-linear interaction between sgRNA efficiency and

drug concentration can be modeled using an augmented dose-response equation, in which

terms for both effects are included. By fitting the parameters in this equation to CRISPRi data

from a CGI experiment (normalized mutant abundances from sgRNA counts), one can estimate

the degree to which depletion of a given gene sensitizes cells to an inhibitor, and thereby

identify CGIs. While various computational methods exist for fitting non-linear equations, such

as the Levenberg–Marquardt algorithm [62], we chose to linearize the modified Hill equation by

applying a log-sigmoid transform. The transformation enables us to express the equation in a

linear form, where the parameters (IC_{50}, Hill slopes, etc.) appear as coefficients of linear terms

or constants. Consequently, we can use ordinary least-squares regression (OLS) to fit the model

to the CRISPRi dataset.

Sometimes positive and/or negative controls are included in a CRISPRi experiment [8].

While negative controls can be used in methods like MAGeCK-RRA, CRISPRi-DR is not designed

to use controls explicitly in the statistical analysis of CGIs. Hypothetically, negative controls could

be used in the final filtering step to calculate Z-scores for each gene. Instead of basing the Z-

scores on the mean and standard deviation of slope coefficients in the whole set of genes, they

could be based on the distribution of slope coefficients from the negative controls. While we

tested this idea (using 1750 non-targeting sgRNAs included in the *Mtb* CRISPRi dataset as

negative controls), it resulted in many more genes being labeled as interactions (up to half the

genome). It appears that unrelated genes (not involved in the mechanism of action or

resistance to a drug) often have slightly positive or negative random slopes, due to some source

of noise in the experiment that is unaccounted for. Some genes could exhibit weak phenotypic

effects, conferring slight growth defects or advantages under antibiotic stress, even though they

do not play any direct role in the mechanism of action or resistance to the drug. This is the

reason that we advocate identifying genes that are outliers with respect to the rest of the

population of genes, achieved through the filtering step at the end (|Zscore|>2), instead of just

reporting all genes with slope coefficient statistically different from 0.

We compared CRISPRi-DR to several other analytical methods, including MAGeCK-RRA,

MAGeCK-MLE, DEBRA, CRISPhieRMix, CGA-LMM, and drugZ. Some of these methods

incorporate multiple drug concentrations, while other incorporate sgRNA efficiency as an input

to their models. However, only MAGeCK-MLE incorporates both types of input. The

importance of incorporating both inputs in CRISPRi-DR was demonstrated via an experiment

with ablated models; the model fits (AICs) for each gene were significantly worse for models

that regressed abundances against either drug concentration or sgRNA efficiency alone. For

those methods that do not explicitly combine data from multiple drug concentrations and must

be run on each concentration independently, we employed Fisher's method of combining P-

values to create a merged ranking of genes. Using ROC curves to comparing ranking of expected

interactions, CRISPRi-DR performed comparably to the best of these methods, though method

with the highest AUC differed depending on the drug. This evaluation was facilitated by using

lists of conditionally essential genes from TnSeq experiments (exposure to same drugs) to define

an objective list of expected interactions for each drug for making fair comparisons of

performance. However, a major difference observed among the methods was in the number of

significant interactions detected. Methods like CRISPRhieRMix, DEBRA, MAGeCK-RRA, and

MAGeCK-MLE produced hundreds to thousands of hits for each drug, whereas CRISPRi-DR

reported a more conservative list of typically less than a hundred interacting genes. It is likely

that many of the interactions detected by the former methods could be false positives. This was

borne out in simulation experiments, where MAGECK-RRA, and MAGeCK-MLE exhibited

substantially lower precision than CRISPRi-DR. In both the simulated data and real drug screen

datasets, CRISPRi-DR had the highest F1-scores, reflecting the best tradeoff between precision

and recall compared to other methods. Reducing false positives is important because

experimental validation of hits can be expensive, and follow-up is usually only applied to a

handful of top-ranked genes.   Furthermore, we used simulated datasets to explore how noise

within or between drug concentrations could affect both the recall and precision of CRISPRi-DR,

MAGECK-RRA, and MAGeCK-MLE. Both types of noise increasingly degrade the recall of all

methods, but noise within concentrations (i.e. sgRNA counts among replicates) seemed to cause

the greatest decrease in precision, especially for MAGeCK-RRA. The outlier analysis in CRISPRi-

DR (filtering by Z-score in the last step) partially helps to mitigate this, producing a more focused

list of candidate interactions, and hopefully eliminating genes with small random slopes of

concentration dependence that are not genuine interactions (i.e. false positives).

1069

1070   # Data and Code Availability

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1072   A python-based implementation of the CRISPRi-DR method for analyzing CRISPRi data is publicly

1073   available as part of Transit2: https://transit2.readthedocs.io/en/latest/

1074

1075   The output files from analyses of the *Mtb* CRISPRi CGI screens from Li, Poulton (13) using

1076   CRISPRi-DR are available for download at: https://orca1.tamu.edu/CRISPRi-DR/

1077

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Supporting Information

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Fig S1 Evaluation sgRNA strength and log concentration as predictors of CRISPRi-DR model

through comparison of distribution of r^2 values of full (CRISPRi-DR) and ablated (M$_s$ and M$_d$)

models for each gene in each experiment.

The horizontal line is where r^2 = 0.5. The average r^2 M$_s$ model for all genes across all the

experiments is 0.42, the average r^2 for the M$_d$ model is 0.07. This alongside the Log-likelihood

tests indicate sgRNA strength is the more significant predictor. However, the full CRISPRi-DR

1333   model outperforms both M_d and M_s (average r^2 is 0.50) indicating the inclusion of both sgRNA

1334   strength and log concentration is needed for accurate assessment of significant sgRNA depletion

1335   in a gene in a condition.

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Fig S2 Distribution of average CV of sgRNAs in significant genes (depleted and enriched) in the

CRISPRi-DR model and MAGeCK.

In this Fig, we see all the noise distributions for hits in MAGeCK and the CRISPRi-DR model for

all experiments. The dashed panel is that of RIF D10. The same distribution of noise of hits can

be seen in Fig 5. The trend seen with RIF D10 is present with all the experiments except LEVO

D10. We see that the CRISPRi-DR model is unimodal with a low CV as the mode, whereas

MAGeCK shows significant genes with low average CV values but also a significant amount of

genes with high average CV values. LEVO D10 was left out of this plot due to the low number of

hits in either model.

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Table S1. Ranking of Select Genes using the CRISPRi-DR model in 1 Day, 5 day and 10 Day pre-depletion of treated libraries.

An extended version of Table 2, where the CRISPRi-DR model is run on each gene for each drug and pre-depletion day. The coefficient for the slope of concentration dependence (β_c) is extracted from the fitted regressions and used to rank the genes in both increasing order (for depletion) and inversely (for enrichment). Green reflects results consistent with expectations based on knowledge of known gene-drug interactions.

Table S2. Comparison of significant interactions Identified by CRISPR analysis methods of EMB, INH, LEVO, VAN and RIF CRISPRi screens

For each drug and pre-depletion day of the selected datasets, all 7 CRIPSR methods were run. For methods that do not account for multiple concentrations, they were run separately for each concentration and the overall significant interactions are also addressed post-combination of the individual runs using Fisher's method. The comparison of the significant interactions identified by the models was evaluated using an objectively defined list of true positives. The genes identified by Xu, DeJesus (35) were used as the "ground truth" against which the other model's results were compared. For LEVO, genes in the DNA Damaging pathway are used. Recall, Precision and F1-score columns are colored such that higher values are more green.

Table S3. Matrices for comparison of significant interactions Identified by CRISPRi-DR and MAGeCK for each drug and pre-depletion day.

1369   The table presents the results of CRISPRi-DR and MAGeCK analyses for different drugs and pre-

1370   depletion days. Significant interactions are compared in matrix form. Cells with red font indicate

1371   low overlaps between the interactions found by the two models, while cells with green font

1372   represent high overlaps.

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Supplemental File S1

We expand on the following four topics from the main text in this document: 1) An assessment

of CRISPRi-DR, MAGeCK and MAGeCK-MLE on datasets with simulated noise, 2) Comparison of

CRISPRi-DR to other analysis methods using CGI datasets, 3) Analysis of *E. coli* CRISPRi screens

using CRISPRi-DR and, 4) The minimum number of sgRNAs recommended per gene in CRISPRi-

DR.

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