# Decoding m⁶Am by simultaneous transcription-start mapping and methylation quantification

Jianheng Fox Liu[1], Ben R. Hawley[1,2], Luke S. Nicholson[1], and Samie R. Jaffrey[1,*]

[1]Department of Pharmacology, Weill Cornell Medicine, Cornell University, New York, NY 10065, USA
[2]Present address: Engage Bio, San Carlos, CA, USA

*Correspondence should be addressed to S.R.J. (srj2003@med.cornell.edu)

## ABSTRACT

$N^6$,2'-$O$-dimethyladenosine (m⁶Am) is a modified nucleotide located at the first transcribed position in mRNA and snRNA that is essential for diverse physiological processes. m⁶Am mapping methods assume each gene uses a single start nucleotide. However, gene transcription usually involves multiple start sites, generating numerous 5' isoforms. Thus, gene levels annotations cannot capture the diversity of m⁶Am modification in the transcriptome. Here we describe CROWN-seq, which simultaneously identifies transcription-start nucleotides and quantifies m⁶Am stoichiometry for each 5' isoform that initiates with adenosine. Using CROWN-seq, we map the m⁶Am landscape in nine human cell lines. Our findings reveal that m⁶Am is nearly always a high stoichiometry modification, with only a small subset of cellular mRNAs showing lower m⁶Am stoichiometry. We find that m⁶Am is associated with increased transcript expression and provide evidence that m⁶Am may be linked to transcription initiation associated with specific promoter sequences and initiation mechanisms. These data suggest a potential new function for m⁶Am in influencing transcription.

## INTRODUCTION

m⁶Am ($N^6$,2'-$O$-dimethyladenosine) is the most common modified nucleotide in mRNA. m⁶Am is found specifically at the first transcribed position of mRNAs, termed the transcription-start nucleotide (TSN), which reflects the transcription-start site (TSS) in DNA. During transcription, the TSN typically acquires a 2'-$O$-methyl modification[1,2], which is deposited by CMTR1 (Cap-specific mRNA nucleoside-2'-$O$-methyltransferase 1)[3]. In the case of mRNAs that use adenosine as the TSN, the initial 2'-$O$-methyladenosine (Am) can be further methylated on the $N^6$ position of the adenine nucleobase to form m⁶Am by PCIF1 (Phosphorylated CTD Interacting Factor 1)[4].

Studies using PCIF1 depletion (i.e., m⁶Am depletion) have revealed that m⁶Am has important roles in cell physiology. In normal cells, PCIF1 depletion does not appear to affect cell growth or viability[4]. However, in oxidative stress conditions, PCIF1 deficiency leads to impaired cell growth[4]. In cancer cells, PCIF1 depletion markedly enhances cell death during anti-PD1 therapy[5]. During viral infection, PCIF1 depletion results in increased HIV replication[6], impaired

SARS-Cov-2 infection[7], and increased VSV immunogenicity[8]. These studies indicate that m6Am
has important roles in diverse cellular contexts.

A major goal has been to identify and characterize the m6Am- and Am-containing mRNAs. Initial
chromatographic studies in the 1970s demonstrated that cellular mRNAs can exist in m6Am and
Am forms, with the Am form being more predominant[9]. To map m6Am modified genes, several
antibody-based methods were developed, including miCLIP[10], m6Am-seq[11], m6ACE-seq[12], and
m6Am-exo-seq[13]. These methods can identify m6Am sites (miCLIP and m6ACE-seq), m6Am
peaks (m6Am-seq), or m6Am containing genes (m6Am-exo-seq). Am genes were identified
when m6Am was not detected but the reported TSN in publicly available datasets was A. The
remaining genes were annotated as Gm, Cm, or Um based on public TSS annotations.

However, despite these transcriptome-wide m6Am maps, the effect of m6Am on mRNA is
unclear. By examining m6Am genes, along with the change in mRNA stability and translation,
small and inconsistent effects have been observed from different labs[4,13-15].

We considered the possibility that the difficulty in establishing m6Am function may be due to
flaws in the way that genes are designated as m6Am genes. Previous m6Am mapping studies
treated m6Am like other modified nucleotides, which are internal. In studies of internal
nucleotides, such as m6A, isoform diversity is generally not considered since these different
isoforms rarely impact the detection of the nucleotide. In contrast, m6Am is highly affected by
isoform diversity since it is located at the 5' end. Most genes generate multiple transcript 5'
isoforms that each use a different TSSs[16]. However, previous m6Am mapping studies assumed
that each gene has a single TSN, whose identity was based on existing gene annotations.
Therefore, existing m6Am maps that assign a specific start nucleotide to each gene cannot be
accurate, since most genes produce a range of transcripts, with possibly multiple start
nucleotides. For this reason, m6Am mapping and functional studies of m6Am need to be
performed in a way that considers the 5' isoform diversity of most genes.

Another concern is that the existing m6Am mapping studies designated each gene as either
m6Am or Am. However, it is possible that m6Am levels can be variable, with only a fraction of
transcripts containing m6Am and the remainder containing Am. Stoichiometric maps of m6Am
can potentially reveal the degree to which a transcript would be influenced by m6Am-dependent
pathways.

Quantitative m6Am mapping is especially important for small nuclear RNAs (snRNAs), which
also contain m6Am at their TSN. Initial biochemical characterization of snRNAs revealed that
the first nucleotide was Am[17], but subsequent studies showed that nearly half of all snRNAs are
initially methylated to m6Am, and then demethylated by FTO to Am[10,12]. Thus, m6Am is a
transient intermediate in snRNA biogenesis. Notably, m6Am levels can be highly regulated in
snRNAs[10], however, current m6Am mapping methods are unable to quantify changes in m6Am
stoichiometry.

To understand the transcriptome-wide distribution of m$^6$Am, we developed CROWN-seq
(**C**onversion **R**esistance detection **O**n **W**hole-transcriptomic transcription-start **_N_**$^6$,2'-*O*-
dimethyladenosine by **seq**uencing), an antibody-free quantitative m$^6$Am mapping method.
Using CROWN-seq, we define the overall repertoire of 5' isoforms for each gene, and the
specific isoforms that use m$^6$Am as the TSN across nine different cell lines. We find that
annotations of genes based on a single start nucleotide do not capture the diversity of 5'
transcript isoforms for most genes. Instead, m$^6$Am is more accurately assessed for each 5'
isoform separately. Nearly all A-initiated transcript isoforms have very high m$^6$Am stoichiometry,
and that transcripts containing Am as the TSN are relatively rare. Transcript isoforms that
contain m$^6$Am are more highly expressed, and loss of m$^6$Am due to depletion of PCIF1 leads to
reduced expression of transcript isoforms containing m$^6$Am. However, we find that this effect is
not due to decreased mRNA stability. Instead, the depletion of PCIF1 affects transcripts based
on upstream core promoter elements. Our data suggest that transcription mechanisms that
utilize specific core promoter sequences achieve high expression, which might be linked to a
transcription-promoting effect of m$^6$Am. Overall, our quantitative transcriptome-wide
transcription-start nucleotide m$^6$Am maps reveal a markedly distinct m$^6$Am profile than
previously measured, show that m$^6$Am is the predominant modified nucleotide relative to Am in
mRNA, and suggest roles of m$^6$Am in transcription.
105
106 **RESULTS**
107
108 **ReCappable-seq reveals high transcript isoform diversity at the 5' end**
109
In previous m$^6$Am mapping studies, genes were annotated to be m$^6$Am, Am, Gm, Cm, or Um
[4,10,13,14], based on the assumption that each gene has one major transcription-start nucleotide.
To determine how often genes are characterized by a single major TSS we used ReCappable-
seq[18], a method for quantitative measurement of transcription-start sites. ReCappable-seq is
similar to traditional TSS-seq methods which involve ligation of an oligonucleotide to the 5' end
of mRNAs[19], thus precisely marking the TSN. However, ReCappable-seq adds an enrichment
step for capped mRNA fragments to significantly reduce background signals from internal sites
that are derived from RNA cleavage. Thus, ReCappable-seq provides a highly sensitive and
precise mapping of TSNs at single-nucleotide resolution (**Note S1**, "The comparison of
transcription-start mapping methods").
120
121 By analyzing ReCappable-seq data in HEK293T cells, we found that protein-coding genes tend
122 to have multiple TSNs. Among the 9,199 genes analyzed, we identified 87,624 TSNs (see
123 **Methods**). On average, a gene uses 9.5±9 (mean and s.d., hereafter) TSNs (**Figure 1A**). Only
124 ~9% of genes contain a single TSN (**Figure 1A**). Thus, most genes cannot be characterized by
125 a single start nucleotide.
126
127 As an example, *SRSF1*, which was previously classified as a m$^6$Am gene, has ~37 different 5'
128 isoforms in HEK293T cells, of which ~41.5% do not use an A-TSN (**Figure 1B**). As another
129 example, *ADAR* was previously classified as a Gm gene, but ~71.0% of transcripts use A-TSNs

130    (**Figure 1C**).  These observations are not artifacts of ReCappable-seq because similar results
131    were also found using other TSN mapping methods (**Figure S1A, S1B**).
132
Conceivably m[6]Am genes produce multiple 5' isoforms, but the isoforms predominantly use A-
TSNs.  If this were the case, then the gene could indeed be considered an m[6]Am gene if all the
A-TSNs were methylated to m[6]Am.  We considered a gene to be predominantly composed of A-
TSNs if >80% of transcripts start with A.  Using this criterion, we found that only ~24% of m[6]Am
genes determined by miCLIP[14] are primarily composed of A-TSNs (**Figure 1D**). Similar
observations were also found in other m[6]Am mapping methods[4,13] (**Figure S1C, D**).
139
Our ReCappable-seq analysis also suggested that previous m[6]Am mapping methods may not
have detected the diversity of m[6]Am in the transcriptome.  ReCappable-seq identified many
more A-TSNs than the total number of previously mapped m[6]Am sites.  For example, in both
*SRSF1* and *ADAR*, many A-TSNs are seen using ReCappable-seq, however, m[6]Am signals
were only found at a few of these A-TSNs by either miCLIP[14], m[6]Am-seq[11], or m6ACE-seq[12]
(**Figure 1B, C**).  This might suggest that only a few A-TSNs are m[6]Am modified.  However, it is
also possible that the antibody-based mapping methods do not have the resolution or sensitivity
to distinguish between m[6]Am at different 5' isoforms.  Notably, previous m[6]Am mapping studies
exhibited very low overlap with each other.  miCLIP[14], m[6]Am-seq[11] and m6ACE-seq[12] together
identified 7,480 m[6]Am sites in HEK293T cells (**Figure S1E** and **Table S1**).  Among these sites,
only 1.1% (84) are found in all three methods and 9.7% (728) are found in at least two studies
(**Figure S1E** and **Table S1**).  Taken together, these data demonstrate a variety of concerns
about existing m[6]Am mapping studies.
153
154    **CROWN-seq integrates TSN mapping and m[6]Am quantification**
155
To understand the distribution of m[6]Am in the transcriptome, we sought to develop a method to
identify the entire repertoire of TSNs among all the 5' transcript isoforms for each gene.  In this
way, we can identify the specific 5' isoforms for each gene that contain m[6]Am.  Additionally, we
wanted a quantitative method rather than the qualitative assessment provided by previous
antibody-based methods.  Recently, chemical methods using sodium nitrite were developed for
m[6]A analysis[20-22].  This method identifies m[6]A by chemically deaminating ("converting")
unmethylated A's into inosines (I's), while leaving m[6]A's intact.  During sequencing, the A-to-I
conversions are readily detected because I's are reverse transcribed into G's. This approach
leads to precise and robust m[6]A quantification[20].  Because of the chemical similarity between
m[6]Am and Am, we explored the potential use of sodium nitrite conversion to map and quantify
m[6]Am.
167
We first asked if Am is susceptible to deamination by sodium nitrite.  To test this, we performed
sodium nitrite conversion on a m[7]G-ppp-Am-initiated transcript (see **Methods**).  We applied the
sodium nitrite conversion protocol used in GLORI, which includes glyoxal treatment to prevent
modification of guanosine residues[20].   After sodium nitrite treatment, the RNA was reverse
transcribed and sequenced.  The conversion rate of Am was quantified by counting A or G
reads at the first nucleotide position.  In this assay, Am was completely converted (**Figure S2A**),

indicating that sodium nitrite efficiently converts Am and thus can be used for m⁶Am

174   indicating that sodium nitrite efficiently converts Am and thus can be used for $m^6$Am
175   quantification.
176
We considered the possibility that GLORI data[20] could be mined to measure $m^6$Am
stoichiometry at previously mapped $m^6$Am sites[14]. We noticed that many A's at these TSNs
were highly converted in GLORI (**Figure S2B**), suggesting prevalent Am. This is inconsistent
with mass spectrometry analysis of mRNA cap structures from us[1] and others[2,4], which has
suggested that $m^6$Am is very prevalent while Am is relatively rare in mRNA. A potential cause
of the high level of Am at TSNs predicted by GLORI could be the extensive RNA fragmentation
that occurs with sodium nitrite treatment. RNA fragments that have 5' ends that align to the
TSNs of overlapping transcript isoforms can confound the measurement of $m^6$Am stoichiometry
(**Figure S2C, S2D**). Thus, GLORI cannot distinguish between true TSNs and internal bases
that are found at the 5' end of RNA fragments. To overcome this limitation, we sought to
develop a method that selectively analyzes A-TSNs and thereby removes the confounding
effect of overlapping transcripts.
189
We developed CROWN-seq, which selectively analyzes TSNs throughout the transcriptome
(**Figure 2A**). In this method, Am residues in mRNA are converted to Im using sodium nitrite.
Next, we specifically isolate the 5' ends of mRNA by replacing the $m^7$G cap with a desthiobiotin
affinity tag using a decapping-and-recapping strategy[18]. By enriching the $m^7$G-proximal
sequence, we can simultaneously sequence the TSN of all transcripts, including both $m^6$Am and
non-$m^6$Am TSNs. This is conceptually different from existing $m^6$Am mapping methods which
only examine the $m^6$Am transcripts. For A-TSNs, $m^6$Am stoichiometry can be quantified by
counting the number of A reads (reflecting $m^6$Am) or G reads (reflecting Am). In this way, we
not only obtain TSN locations but also $m^6$Am stoichiometry in the same RNA molecule.
199
200   To increase the accuracy of $m^6$Am quantification, we made several optimizations to the
201   ReCappable-seq protocol to markedly increase the read depth of TSNs. These include steps
202   for on-bead adapter ligation and the introduction of unique molecular identifiers (UMIs) in the
203   library preparation (see **Methods**).
204
205   **Benchmarking CROWN-seq using m⁶Am-modified standards**
206
207   To test TSN enrichment in CROWN-seq, we used a $m^7$G-ppp-$m^6$Am standard spiked into
208   cellular mRNA. Among three replicates, we observed that ~93% of the reads mapped to the
209   TSN (**Figure 2B**), confirming the enrichment of TSN. To further assess the enrichment of TSNs,
210   we performed GLORI on the same sample. However, in GLORI only a few reads map to the
211   TSN (**Figure S2C**). Thus, the decapping-and-recapping approach markedly enriches for TSNs.
212
We next wanted to determine the quantitative accuracy of CROWN-seq. To test this, we
performed CROWN-seq on a mixture of RNA standards with predefined ratios of $m^6$Am and Am
(see **Methods** and **Table S2**). We found a highly linear correlation between the expected $m^6$Am
levels and the observed non-conversion rates measured by CROWN-seq across three

replicates (Pearson's r = 0.992, **Figure 2C**).  Taken together, CROWN-seq achieves both
precise TSS mapping and m$^6$Am quantification in m$^6$Am standards.
219
220    **CROWN-seq markedly expands the number of mapped m$^6$Am sites**
221
To assess the ability of CROWN-seq to map and quantify m$^6$Am throughout the transcriptome,
we performed CROWN-seq on poly(A)-selected RNA from HEK293T.  In total, we identified
219,195 high-confidence TSNs, of which 92,278 were A-TSNs **(Note S2**, "Selection of m$^6$Am
identification cutoffs").  These TSNs were highly reproducible across biological and technical
replicates (**Figure S2E**).  Among the A-TSNs, 89,898 were from protein-coding genes, and 219
were from snRNA or snoRNA.  Notably, among the mRNA A-TSNs, nearly all had high non-
conversion rates (**Figure S2F**), indicating that nearly all A-TSNs contain high stoichiometry
m$^6$Am.
230
In contrast to previous m$^6$Am mapping methods, CROWN-Seq reveals the diversity of TSNs
among all the transcript isoforms for each gene.  For example, in the case of *SRSF1*, m$^6$Am is
readily visible along with multiple other TSNs comprising Gm, Cm, or Um (**Figure 2D**).
CROWN-seq also shows that A-TSNs can have intermediate m$^6$Am stoichiometry. For example,
*JUN* expresses a 5' transcript isoform with an A-TSN, of which ~75% of transcript copies are
m$^6$Am modified (**Figure 2E**). Overall, CROWN-seq provides a comprehensive assessment of all
TSNs in a gene and reveals the fraction of each A-TSN that is m$^6$Am.
238
To confirm the accuracy of the mapped m$^6$Am TSNs, we examined the 7,480 m$^6$Am sites
reported by miCLIP[14], m$^6$Am-seq[11], or m6ACE-seq[12].  Among these sites, the vast majority
(~82.8%, 6,196 of 7,480) were also found among the high-confidence A-TSNs in CROWN-seq
(**Figure 2F**).  For the remaining 1,284 sites, 811 are also found in CROWN-seq, but in lower
sequencing depth; 319 were located far away (>100 nt) from any known TSSs and thus may be
artifacts. Thus, CROWN-seq is highly reliable in detecting known m$^6$Am sites.  The low
consistency between previous m$^6$Am mapping studies likely reflects incomplete m$^6$Am mapping
in previous methods.
247
CROWN-seq clearly identified vastly more A-TSNs than all the other m$^6$Am mapping methods
combined (12.3-fold, 92,278 vs. 7,480).  Notably, only ~12.2% of the newly found A-TSNs in
CROWN-seq are annotated in Gencode v45 (**Figure 2G, S2G**), which primarily relies on CAGE
data (see gene annotation guidelines by HAVANA[23]).  Notably, the newly identified TSNs with
high coverage tend to overlap with or locate proximally to known TSSs, while the ones with low
coverage tend to locate further to the known TSSs (**Figure S2G**). The newly identified A-TSNs
could be artifacts or could be actual TSNs that were undetected by previous TSS-mapping
studies.  We suspect that these are true A-TSNs for two reasons: First, as part of the mapping
criteria, a minimum of 20 independent reads across all replicates was required for TSN
identification.  Second, if these sites were RNA fragments, they would not contain m$^6$Am.
However, these A-TSNs show high stoichiometry of m$^6$Am (i.e., non-conversion) in CROWN-
seq (**Figure 2H, S2F**) which is lost in *PCIF1* knockout cells (**Figure 2H**), except for some
outliers such as TSNs of *S100A6, IFI27,* and *ALDH1A1* (see **Table S3**).  Thus, the marked

increase in the number of m$^6$Am sites revealed by CROWN-seq reflects the preferential
enrichment for mRNA 5' ends, which leads to high sensitivity and read depth at TSNs
transcriptome-wide.
264
In contrast to m$^6$Am sites identified in CROWN-seq, m$^6$Am that were identified in previous m$^6$Am
mapping methods tended to derive from high abundance transcripts or high abundance TSNs
(**Figure 2I**).  Because of the high read depth at TSNs, CROWN-seq enables the detection of
m$^6$Am at more m$^6$Am sites than previous methods (**Figure 2J**, **Figure S2H**).  Although we used
a 20-read cutoff for mapping m$^6$Am, m$^6$Am sites identified with fewer reads are also likely to
represent true TSNs.  These m$^6$Am TSNs typically show high non-conversion (e.g., 2 or 3 reads
among a total of 3 reads) in HEK293T cells but zero non-conversions in *PCIF1* knockout cells
(**Figure S2I**).  The PCIF1 dependence of these sites is consistent with a true m$^6$Am TSN and
further highlights the sensitivity of CROWN-seq for mapping m$^6$Am at TSNs.
274
275 **CROWN-seq reveals consistently high m$^6$Am stoichiometry in mRNA across diverse**
276 **human cell lines**
277
278 Although our data showed that m$^6$Am in mRNA generally exhibits very high stoichiometry
279 (**Figure S2F**), we considered the possibility that these results were unique to HEK293T cells.
280 Several studies have shown that PCIF1 expression can vary considerably in different cell
281 lines[5,24], which may indicate that m$^6$Am stoichiometry is dependent on the cell line. We therefore
282 wanted to determine the m$^6$Am landscape across cell lines with varying levels of PCIF1.
283
We selected several cell lines for this analysis.  First, we chose HEK293T, A549, HepG2, and
K562 cells, which have also been characterized using multiple orthogonal datasets[25]. Second,
we selected colorectal cancer cells (i.e., HT-29 and HCT-116), since PCIF1 depletion in these
cells affects their migration and sensitivity to immunotherapy[5].  These colorectal cancer cells
have high PCIF1 expression based on western blotting and RT-qPCR, while the non-cancerous
colon cell line CCD841 CoN has very low PCIF1 expression[5].  Third, we selected cells with very
low CTBP2 expression, a proposed coactivator of PCIF1[24].  These cells, which include Jurkat
E6.1 and Huh-7, as well as the previously mentioned K562 and HepG2 cells, would be expected
to have low m$^6$Am levels based on their low CTBP2 expression[24] (**Figure S3A**).
293
294 For each cell line, we performed CROWN-seq using two to four replicates.  In total, we obtained
295 514 million aligned reads (**Table S3**). In each cell line, 14,650 to 58,768 mRNA A-TSNs with at
296 least 50 reads were analyzed (**Table S3**).  The 50-read threshold provides highly consistent
297 quantification of m$^6$Am stoichiometry between replicates (**Figure S3B** and **Note S2**).
298
Quantification of m$^6$Am across all TSNs showed that mRNA m$^6$Am stoichiometry is generally
high.  For most of the cells, the average m$^6$Am stoichiometry is 0.895±0.03 (**Figure 3A**),
indicating high overall mRNA m$^6$Am levels.  Some cell lines, for example, Jurkat E6.1, HT-29,
and Huh-7 cells show very high and less variable m$^6$Am levels (0.933±0.1, 0.924±0.1, and
0.916±0.1, respectively); while other cell lines such as CCD841 CoN, HCT-116, and K-562 have
relatively low and more variable m$^6$Am levels (0.825±0.2, 0.877±0.1, and 0.891±0.1,

respectively). It should be noted that in all cell lines, the m$^6$Am stoichiometry is still high
compared with other mRNA modifications[20].
307
We considered the possibility that the high m$^6$Am stoichiometry might be caused by RNA
structure that blocks access to sodium nitrite leading to non-conversion. However, essentially
complete conversion was seen in *PCIF1* knockout HEK293T cells, which makes it likely that
m$^6$Am is the cause of non-conversions. Also, we found that A-TSNs completely converted in 5'
ends predicted to be highly structured, suggesting that RNA structure does not impair
conversion in CROWN-seq (**Figure S3C**).
314
The differences in m$^6$Am stoichiometry are related to PCIF1 expression (**Figure 3B, S3D**). For
example, CCD841 CoN cells, which have very low PCIF1 expression based on our
measurements (**Figure 3B, S3D**) and previous measurements[5], exhibit the lowest median
m$^6$Am stoichiometry at ~0.878. However, even this stoichiometry is still relatively high. Thus,
m$^6$Am levels are affected by PCIF1 expression, but m$^6$Am can be considered as a high
stoichiometry modification across all tested cell lines. On the other hand, the proposed PCIF1
coactivator CTBP2, exhibited a weak correlation to mRNA m$^6$Am (**Figure 3C**).
322
323  **Several mRNAs show low m$^6$Am stoichiometry**
324
Although most A-TSNs in mRNA exhibit high m$^6$Am stoichiometry, some exhibit stoichiometry
below 0.8, and even below 0.5 (**Figure 3A** and **Table S3**). To identify A-TSNs with low m$^6$Am,
we examined each A-TSN and calculated its average stoichiometry across all cell lines (**Figure
3D**). For each A-TSN we also assessed its variability by calculating the range of m$^6$Am levels
measured across cell lines (**Figure 3D**). This analysis demonstrates that a significant subset of
A-TSNs have low stoichiometry, with some showing variability depending on the cell type. For
example, *JUN* contains a lowly methylated A-TSN, as shown above in HEK293T cells (**Figure
2E**), and also exhibits low stoichiometry in many other cell lines (**Figure 3E**). In addition, *ENO1*,
*MYC*, and *ACTB* also show low m$^6$Am stoichiometry in some of their A-TSNs (**Figure 3E**).
334
We next used Gene Ontology (GO) analysis to determine if the low m$^6$Am A-TSNs are
associated with specific cellular functions. The GO analysis of Cellular Component categories
showed a marked enrichment of genes linked to cellular respiration, ribosomal subunits,
spliceosome, and nucleosome (which are mostly histone genes) (**Figure 3F**, **Table S4**). Similar
results were found in the Biological Processes GO analysis (**Table S4**). In addition to these
genes, we also noticed HOX genes contain lowly methylated A-TSNs (**Figure S3E**).
341
Among all different gene categories, histone genes exhibited the lowest overall m$^6$Am
stoichiometry (**Figure 3G**). Notably, histone genes have unique mechanisms of gene
expression. Many histone genes are located in gene clusters (i.e., clusters 6p22.1-2 and
1q21.1-2) and transcribed in histone locus bodies[26]. These clustered histone genes tend to
contain upstream TATA-box and downstream T-rich sequences (**Figure S3F**). In contrast, non-
clustered histone genes tend to have high m$^6$Am stoichiometry (**Figure 3G**) and show different

promoter sequence contexts (**Figure S3F**).  This data suggests that transcription mechanisms
might be important for determining m$^6$Am stoichiometry.
350
351    **m$^6$Am stoichiometry is linked to the sequence of core promoter**
352
The differential methylation in histone genes based on their transcription mechanisms raises the
possibility that transcription initiation mechanisms might affect m$^6$Am stoichiometry.  Because
m$^6$Am is the first nucleotide in mRNA, its deposition may be highly influenced by early
transcription events.  Notably, PCIF1 binds to RNA polymerase II[27] and is enriched in promoter
regions[28], which may be important for methylation of the 5' end of mRNAs.  We therefore
considered the possibility that different transcription mechanisms may be linked to different
levels of m$^6$Am.
360
As a first test, we examined whether nucleotide preferences upstream (which would reflect
sequences involved in transcription initiation) or downstream of the A-TSN are linked to m$^6$Am
stoichiometry.  We binned A-TSNs based on the m$^6$Am stoichiometry and examined nucleotide
preferences at each position.  Using this approach, we found that the nucleotides upstream of
the A-TSN were markedly different for A-TSNs with low vs. high m$^6$Am stoichiometry (**Figure
S4A**).  For example, at positions -4 and -1, there was a clear positive correlation between the
use of C and m$^6$Am stoichiometry (**Figure 4A**).  The correlation of these nucleotide positions
that lie in the promoter region to m$^6$Am stoichiometry suggests that transcriptional mechanisms
might influence m$^6$Am stoichiometry.
370
371    We also observed strong nucleotide preferences at positions downstream of the A-TSN.  These
372    include nucleotide preferences at +2 (**Figure 4A**).  These could reflect sequence preferences
373    for PCIF1; however, this position is also part of transcription-initiation motifs (see below), and
374    thus the contribution of transcription mechanisms and direct sequence preferences of PCIF1 are
375    difficult to deconvolve.
376
To more directly determine specific transcription mechanisms linked to m$^6$Am, we examined
how specific sequence motifs around A-TSNs correlate with m$^6$Am stoichiometry.  We found
markedly different sequence motifs surrounding highly methylated A-TSNs compared to lowly
methylated A-TSNs (**Figure 4B**).  A-TSNs with the highest m$^6$Am stoichiometry (top 5th-
percentile, 0.991 average stoichiometry) are enriched in an SSCA$_{+1}$GC (S=C/G) motif, which is
similar but distinct from the well-known BBCA$_{+1}$BW (B=C/G/T, W=A/T) transcription initiator
motif[29], largely because of the C at the +3 position (**Figure 4B**).  In contrast, the A-TSNs with
the lowest m$^6$Am stoichiometry (bottom 5th-percentile, 0.435 average stoichiometry) were
enriched in an unconventional VA$_{+1}$RR (V=A/C/G, R=A/G) motif (**Figure 4B**).
386
We next classified each A-TSN based on whether they use the SSCA$_{+1}$GC or VA$_{+1}$RR motifs, or
if they contain the conventional BBCA$_{+1}$BW and BA$_{+1}$ Inr-like motifs (**Figure S4B**).  This plot
shows that BBCA$_{+1}$BW and BA$_{+1}$ motifs exhibit intermediate m$^6$Am stoichiometry (**Figure 4C**).
Overall, these data indicate that m$^6$Am stoichiometry is strongly related to the TSS motif in the
core promoter, which implies that m$^6$Am formation is linked to the transcription initiation process.

Because transcription initiation is also affected by other elements in the core promoter[29], we

also asked whether these transcription-related elements, such as TATA-box and transcription

factor-binding sites, are associated with higher or lower $m^6Am$ stoichiometry. We first analyzed

the relationship between $m^6Am$ and elements including the TATA-box, BREu, BREd, and DCE[29].

In this analysis, A-TSNs from promoters containing TATA-box exhibited lower $m^6Am$

stoichiometry, especially those of histone genes (**Figure 4D**). On the other hand, other elements,

such as BREu and BREd, which are motifs for recruitment of TFIIB[29], and DCE, which binds by

TAF1[29], showed little correlation with $m^6Am$ stoichiometry (**Figure S4C**). Thus, the presence of

the TATA box exhibited the strongest effect and predicted lower $m^6Am$ stoichiometry.

We next analyzed the relationship between $m^6Am$ and transcription factor-binding sites (TFBS).

To test this, we screened A-TSNs for the presence of 401 transcription-factor binding sites and

examined the relationship between the binding sites and $m^6Am$ stoichiometry (see **Methods**).

Several TFBSs, such as those for NANOG and FOXJ3, exhibited a slight negative correlation to

$m^6Am$ (**Figure S4D**); while other TFBS, such as SP2 and KLF4, exhibited a slight positive

correlation to $m^6Am$ (**Figure S4E**). Overall, no specific TFBS exhibited a strong effect on $m^6Am$

stoichiometry (**Figure S4F**).

Taken together, our data show a linkage between transcriptional mechanisms and $m^6Am$

stoichiometry.

**$m^6Am$ does not substantially influence mRNA stability or translation**

Previous studies sought to determine the effect of $m^6Am$ on mRNA stability and translation

based on gene-level annotations of the starting nucleotide[4,14,15,30]. However, the gene level

annotations do not take into account the potential for many transcription-start nucleotides

(**Figure S5**). Rather than using a binary metric of $m^6Am$ or non-$m^6Am$, we developed a metric

that reports the fraction of all TSNs for each gene that contain $m^6Am$. This "$m^6Am$ gene index"

is the ratio of $m^6Am$ TSNs over all TSNs, as measured by CROWN-seq, for each gene. Using

the $m^6Am$ gene index, we reanalyzed the previously published translation efficiency[4,14] and RNA

stability[14] data in HEK293T cells. We found that genes with low or high $m^6Am$ gene index do

not show differences in translation (**Figure S6A, S6B**) or RNA stability (**Figure S6C**) in *PCIF1*

knockout cells compared to wild-type.

**$m^6Am$ is involved in efficient transcription of A-initiated transcripts**

We next wanted to examine other potential functions of $m^6Am$. Although we found no clear

effect of $m^6Am$ on mRNA stability, we asked if $m^6Am$ influences transcript expression levels. To

test this, we quantified the abundance of each A-TSN isoform in HEK293T and A549 cells. For

these experiments, we added a mixture of pre-capped ERCC spike-ins (see **Methods**) to the

RNA samples before performing TSN expression quantification by ReCappable-seq. This

ERCC spike-in mixture calibrates sequencing results and increases TSN expression

quantification accuracy (see **Methods**).

In this analysis, we binned A-TSNs into percentiles based on their m$^6$Am stoichiometry. Here we
could see that transcripts with the highest levels of m$^6$Am also exhibited the highest overall
expression levels (**Figure 5A**, **S6D**, and **Table S5**).  This suggests that m$^6$Am is associated with
higher transcript expression.

To determine if m$^6$Am causes the increased expression of A-TSN transcripts, we measured the
expression change for each A-TSN in wild-type and *PCIF1* knockout HEK293T and A549 cells
(**Table S5**).  We found that A-TSNs with higher m$^6$Am stoichiometry exhibit significantly reduced
expression in *PCIF1* knockout, while A-TSNs with the lowest m$^6$Am stoichiometry were almost
unchanged (**Figure 5B, S6E**).  In contrast, G-TSNs were slightly increased in *PCIF1* knockout
cells (**Figure 5C, S6F**).  These data suggest that m$^6$Am promotes the expression of A-TSN
transcripts.

We were surprised that PCIF1 depletion leads to a selective decrease in the expression of A-
TSN transcripts in the highest percentile bin but had little to no effect in the other bins.  Each bin
has very high m$^6$Am stoichiometry (~0.77 in the lowest bin and ~0.98 in the highest bin in
HEK293T) (**Figure 5B, S6E**).  Thus, if m$^6$Am is a stabilizing mark, we should see reduced
expression in all bins.  We therefore considered other possibilities that might explain why PCIF1
depletion affects transcript levels in some bins but not others.

An important difference between A-TSN in different bins is that they tend to use different TSS
motifs (see **Figure 4C**).  We therefore asked if the effect of m$^6$Am depletion is linked to the TSS
motifs.  For this analysis, we classified A-TSNs based on the presence of SSCA$_{+1}$GC, VA$_{+1}$RR,
or other TSS motifs (i.e., BBCA$_{+1}$GC and BA$_{+1}$).  Here we found that the identity of the TSS motif
was highly associated with the degree of transcript reduction in *PCIF1* knockout cells (**Figure
5D, S6G**).  Notably, transcripts that use the SSCA$_{+1}$GC motif showed the largest drop in
expression.  In contrast, A-TSNs that use the VA$_{+1}$RR TSS motif showed almost no change in
expression in *PCIF1* knockout cells (**Figure 5D, S6G**).

Taken together, these data suggest that the effect of m$^6$Am is not related to mRNA stability but
instead is related to transcription.  Our data suggest that certain transcription initiation
complexes, such as those that use the SSCA$_{+1}$GC motif, rely on m$^6$Am for efficient expression.
However, other TSS motifs do not rely as strongly on m$^6$Am to achieve efficient expression.
These data suggest that m$^6$Am may have important roles in the transcription processes.

**CROWN-seq reveals diverse m$^6$Am stoichiometry in snRNA and snoRNA**

In addition to mRNAs, m$^6$Am is also found on snRNAs and snoRNA[10,12].  However, the
stoichiometry and dynamics of m$^6$Am in these RNAs are unknown.  Using CROWN-seq we
quantified m$^6$Am stoichiometry in several snRNAs, including U1, U2, U4, U4ATAC, U5, U7, U11,
and U12.  These snRNAs are transcribed by RNA polymerase II[31], are capped, and use A-
TSNs[10].  Among these snRNAs, we identified 51 m$^6$Am sites, of which 29 were unannotated 5'
variants located close to the annotated TSNs (**Table S6**).

Compared with mRNA, m$^6$Am in snRNA exhibited a very different distribution of stoichiometry
(**Figure S2F**).  First, snRNA m$^6$Am sites exhibited generally low m$^6$Am stoichiometry, typically
below 0.3. Second, m$^6$Am stoichiometry between different snRNA genes was much more
variable than in mRNA (**Figure 6A**).  Third, some snRNA genes show highly variable
stoichiometry in different cell lines.

For example, among U1 snRNA genes, *U1.22* exhibited relatively high m$^6$Am levels (~0.47-0.80)
in all cell lines, while *RNU1-3* and *RNU1-4* show relatively low m$^6$Am levels (~0.09-0.45, **Figure**
**6A** and **Table S6**).  U5 snRNAs have the highest variability m$^6$Am stoichiometry between cell
types (**Figure 6A**). The U5 snRNA isoform *RNU5E-1* varies 31.6-fold in the m$^6$Am level between
HEK293T (0.0185) and Jurkat E6.1 cells (0.586).  In contrast, m$^6$Am in U2 and U7 snRNA are
generally high (at 0.35-0.76 and 0.48-0.89, respectively) and not variable between cell lines
(**Figure 6A**).

In addition to snRNA, we also examined 17 A-TSNs in C/D box snoRNA including U3, U8, and
U13.  These snoRNAs are involved in rRNA 2'-*O*-methylation during pre-rRNA processing[32].
m$^6$Am stoichiometry in snoRNA is highly related to snoRNA species and snoRNA isoform. For
example, among different U3 snoRNA isoforms, A-TSNs of *U3.18* have much higher m$^6$Am
stoichiometry than others (e.g., *SNORD3A*) (**Figure 6B**).  These data indicate that snoRNA also
has highly variable m$^6$Am stoichiometry.

**FTO specifically controls m$^6$Am stoichiometry in snRNA and snoRNA**

We next sought to understand why m$^6$Am stoichiometry is low in snRNA and snoRNA.  We
considered the possibility that the overall m$^6$Am stoichiometry in snRNA is correlated with PCIF1
expression, as we saw with mRNA (**Figure 3B**).  However, we found a poor correlation of
overall m$^6$Am stoichiometry in snRNA with PCIF1 expression (Pearson's r = 0.204, P-
value=0.597, **Figure 6C**).

We next considered FTO, a highly efficient demethylase for m$^6$Am in snRNA[10,12]. In contrast to
PCIF1, FTO expression exhibited a strong negative correlation with snRNA methylation levels
(Pearson's r = -0.773, P-value=0.014, **Figure 6D**).  Notably, HEK293T cells, which were tested
in our previous study[10], exhibited the highest FTO expression and the lowest snRNA m$^6$Am
stoichiometry (**Figure 6D**).  Some other cell lines, such as Huh-7, have lower FTO expression
and thus have relatively higher m$^6$Am stoichiometry in snRNAs (**Figure 6D**).

We next wanted to determine how FTO affects m$^6$Am stoichiometry in snRNAs. Using CROWN-
seq on *FTO* knockout HEK293T cells, we observed prominent m$^6$Am level increases in nearly
all snRNA and snoRNA (**Figure 6E**).  Most of the snRNA isoforms exhibited an overall increase
in m$^6$Am stoichiometry by ~0.2 upon *FTO* knockout.  However, a notable subset of snRNAs
were not affected by FTO depletion.  For example, the *RNVU1-8* isoform has little change in
m$^6$Am stoichiometry.  *RNVU1-8* has an unusually high m$^6$Am stoichiometry at ~0.47 compared
to other U1 snRNA isoforms in wild-type cells (**Figure 6E**).

524
525    Notably, FTO depletion does not increase m$^6$Am levels in snRNA and snoRNA to the levels
526    seen in mRNA (i.e. >0.9 stoichiometry).  This suggests that the low m$^6$Am levels in snRNA and
527    snoRNA are not solely due to FTO-mediated demethylation.  Instead, these snRNAs are likely
528    to be inefficiently methylated by PCIF1 and are then demethylated by FTO in order to achieve
529    their overall low m$^6$Am stoichiometry.
530
We also found FTO demethylates m$^6$Am in snRNA pseudogenes.  Overall, we mapped 69 A-
TSNs in annotated snRNA/snoRNA pseudogenes. These pseudogenes exhibited increased
methylation upon *FTO* knockout (**Figure 6F** and **Table S6**). We also identified 202
snRNA/snoRNA pseudogene-like transcripts (see **Table S6**). These transcripts exhibited very
high similarity to the annotated snRNA/snoRNA pseudogenes, and therefore likely reflect
previously unannotated pseudogenes (see **Methods**).  Upon *FTO* knockout, A-TSNs in these
unannotated pseudogenes also exhibited increased m$^6$Am levels (**Figure 6F**).
538
539    **FTO has minimal effects on m$^6$Am and m$^6$A at 5' ends of mRNA**
540
541    We next asked whether FTO levels affect m$^6$Am levels in mRNA.  To address this question, we
542    compared FTO RNA expression and median mRNA m$^6$Am stoichiometry in all nine cell lines.
543    This analysis shows a weak negative correlation between FTO expression and mRNA m$^6$Am
544    (Pearson's r = -0.239, P-value=0.535, **Figure S7A**).
545
546    To further assess whether FTO affects m$^6$Am levels in mRNA, we quantified m$^6$Am level
547    changes in mRNA in wild-type and *FTO* knockout HEK293T cells.  Overall, we observed a very
548    small increase in mRNA m$^6$Am with only a few m$^6$Am sites having notably increased methylation
549    level upon *FTO* knockout (**Figure S7B**).  Thus, only select m$^6$Am sites in mRNA are efficiently
550    demethylated by FTO.
551
Although CROWN-seq focuses on m$^6$Am measurements, the reads in CROWN-seq can contain
internal m$^6$A sites if they are close to the TSN.  m$^6$A sites are readily detected because they do
not undergo conversion with sodium nitrite.  We therefore examined the stoichiometry of these
5'-proximal m$^6$A sites in *FTO* knockout HEK293T cells.  We identified internal m$^6$A sites that
were mapped with at least 50 reads in both wild-type and *FTO* knockout cells and had a non-
conversion rate of ≥0.2 in either genotype. In total, we identified 235 high-confidence m$^6$A sites
which were found by both CROWN-seq and GLORI[20](**Table S6**).  These m$^6$A sites exhibited the
expected DRm$^6$ACU motif (**Figure S7C**).  However, these sites only showed small changes in
non-conversion rates (P-value=0.00037, paired t-test) (**Figure S7D** and **Figure S7E**).  It should
be noted that our conclusion about the effect of FTO on internal m$^6$A is restricted to specific m$^6$A
sites around 5' ends since most internal m$^6$A sites are not found in the 5' fragments examined in
CROWN-seq.
564
565    Taken together, FTO has a strong preference for demethylating m$^6$Am in snRNA, snoRNA, and
566    their pseudogenes, compared to mRNA.  FTO is a major determinant of the overall m$^6$Am levels
567    of these transcripts in different cell lines.

568
## 569 DISCUSSION
570

Functional studies of m$^6$Am require highly accurate transcriptome-wide maps. However, m$^6$Am
mapping studies have relied on the assumption that each gene can be considered to have a
single start nucleotide. To overcome this, we developed CROWN-seq, which maps the TSNs
for all 5' transcript isoforms, and measures the exact stoichiometry of m$^6$Am at all A-TSNs.
CROWN-seq reveals a markedly distinct distribution of m$^6$Am than previously recognized,
largely due to inaccuracies in previous maps, and the problem with assigning each gene to a
single start nucleotide. In addition, the quantitative measurements of m$^6$Am in CROWN-seq
show that the earlier idea that many mRNAs contain transcription-start nucleotide Am is largely
incorrect since nearly all A-TSNs exhibit high stoichiometry m$^6$Am. Overall, this study
establishes the first quantitative, transcript isoform-specific m$^6$Am map in mammalian cells. The
m$^6$Am maps reveal that m$^6$Am is associated with increased transcript abundance, with functions
of m$^6$Am more correlated with transcription initiation than stability.

By selectively capturing and examining only 5' ends, CROWN-seq achieves exceptional read
depth at the TSN, enabling highly accurate identification and quantification of m$^6$Am. Notably,
CROWN-seq is an antibody-free method and thus avoids the problem of immunoprecipitation of
both m$^6$Am- and m$^6$A-containing fragments. This dual-specificity of antibodies creates
ambiguities in m$^6$Am mapping. Additionally, antibody binding cannot provide quantitative
measurements of m$^6$Am. In contrast, CROWN-seq uses a sodium nitrite-based chemical
method for m$^6$Am identification, which we show fully converts Am to Im, but leaves m$^6$Am intact.
Thus, the fraction of A-TSNs that contain m$^6$Am or Am can be readily determined by sequencing,
where all Am nucleotides are read as G. The exceptional read depth of CROWN-seq enables
quantification of m$^6$Am at single-nucleotide resolution, resulting in vastly more m$^6$Am sites than
all previous m$^6$Am mapping methods combined. Although CROWN-seq involves many
chemical and enzymatic steps, m$^6$Am quantification by CROWN-seq is very accurate and robust,
which was examined by m$^6$Am standards, consistency across different replicates, and *PCIF1*
knockout data. Notably, chemical conversion-based methods tend to have artifacts in regions
with stable RNA secondary structures[33,34], where the nucleotides cannot efficiently interact with
the chemical reagent. However, we found that CROWN-seq is very reliable even for highly
structured 5' ends (**Figure S3C**), which might be due to the high accessibility of the TSN, the
high stringency of the conversion steps[20], or RNA denaturation due to glyoxal[35].

It is worth mentioning that there is no golden standard for transcription-start nucleotide (site)
mapping accuracy estimation. For CROWN-seq, we first tested the mapping accuracy by *in*
*vitro* transcribed RNA oligos, which shows that ~93% of the 5' ends can be mapped correctly.
However, in practice, *in vitro* transcription might initiate at non-specific TSSs, resulting in 5' ends
not overlapping with the desired TSSs[36,37]. Thus, the mapping accuracy can be underestimated
in this assay. Since mRNA A-TSNs in the cells are known to be highly methylated by PCIF1[1,4],
we considered that the presence or absence of m$^6$Am at mapped A-TSNs can be used to
assess the accuracy of TSN identification. True A-TSNs should have m$^6$Am. In CROWN-seq
essentially all previously annotated A-TSNs and newly found A-TSNs exhibited high non-

conversion rates. These A-TSNs were well converted upon *PCIF1* knockout. This indicates
very high TSN mapping accuracy, even at the many previously unannotated TSNs described
here. These previously unannotated TSNs were likely missed because traditional transcription-
start mapping methods and pipelines lack the sensitivity to discover them. These unannotated
TSNs might have specific molecular functions. Future studies might focus on the biology of
these unannotated TSNs, for example, whether these unannotated TSNs, compared to major
TSNs, are associated with different mRNA processing events, such as alternative splicing.
619
We performed CROWN-seq in nine different cell types with the goal of understanding common
principles that guide m$^6$Am formation in mRNA. In all cell types, m$^6$Am was a very high
stoichiometry modification, with some exceptions. We found a correlation between PCIF1
expression and m$^6$Am stoichiometry, but even cells with very low PCIF1 expression exhibited
high m$^6$Am stoichiometry. The CROWN-seq data is highly consistent with recent mass
spectrometry analysis of mRNA caps by us[1] and others[2,4]. These mass spectrometry studies
purified the entire cap structure comprising the m$^7$G, the triphosphate linker, and the first
nucleotide. In these studies, m$^7$G-ppp-m$^6$Am was highly prevalent while m$^7$G-ppp-Am
abundance was typically 1/10 as m$^7$G-ppp-m$^6$Am in nearly all cell lines[1,2]. This mass
spectrometry data was the first suggestion that transcription-start nucleotide Am was not a
prevalent modification in mRNA, as had been suggested by early chromatography studies[9]. We
suspect that the high levels of Am seen in these early analyses of mRNA can be explained by
contaminating snRNA or rRNA fragments, which are highly difficult to remove, even with
multiple rounds of poly(A) purification[38]. It remains possible that there are cell types or cellular
contexts that remain to be discovered with low m$^6$Am (i.e., high Am) levels. However, it is clear
that high m$^6$Am stoichiometry is a general feature of most or all cell types in this study.
636
The initial m$^6$Am maps relied on published TSN annotations. In the first m$^6$Am map, annotations
were based on FANTOM5[16], which primarily uses CAGE datasets to define the start nucleotide.
However, these annotations selected a single start nucleotide even if multiple TSS signals from
CAGE peaks were detected for a gene[4,14]. It should be noted that some genes may primarily
use m$^6$Am for all 5' transcript isoforms. These genes would therefore have a high m$^6$Am gene
index. Genes with a high m$^6$Am gene index are likely to be preferentially affected by PCIF1
depletion or pathways that affect m$^6$Am.
644
Based on the small range of m$^6$Am stoichiometry in A-initiated mRNAs, it is unlikely that the
variability in stoichiometry has functional significance for most mRNAs. Instead, our data
suggest that mRNAs initiate with either Gm, Cm, Um, or Am, where Am is highly m$^6$Am modified.
mRNAs that initiate with m$^6$Am may have shared regulatory mechanisms that distinguish them
from mRNAs that initiate with Gm, Cm, and Um. Additionally, genes that primarily initiate with
m$^6$Am, either because they have only one major transcription-start site, or because all their
transcription-start nucleotides are A, would be highly influenced by m$^6$Am-dependent regulatory
mechanisms. Currently, cellular pathways that target m$^6$Am-initiated mRNAs are not well known.
653
Our study revealed a link between m$^6$Am and transcription. This effect was detectable because
of the highly quantitative nature of m$^6$Am measurement in CROWN-seq. Although all A-TSNs

show high stoichiometry, there are differences in the overall m⁶Am stoichiometry between
transcripts, e.g., ~0.85 stoichiometry vs. 0.95 stoichiometry which can readily be detected by
CROWN-seq. We found that these differences are often related to the specific TSS motif. For
example, the Inr-like SSCA$_{+1}$GC TSS motif was associated with the highest m⁶Am stoichiometry,
while transcripts using the VA$_{+1}$RR TSS motif exhibited relatively lower m⁶Am stoichiometry.
This finding highlights that the major role of m⁶Am might be linked to transcription regulation,
which is supported by a recent study by An et al.[39].
663
We then examined the effects of PCIF1 depletion on m⁶Am transcript abundance. We found
that transcripts with higher methylation in wild-type cells tend to have a larger reduction in RNA
expression level upon *PCIF1* knockout. Further analysis showed that transcripts that use the
SSCA$_{+1}$GC TSS motif exhibited significantly reduced expression in *PCIF1* knockout cells. In
contrast, transcripts that use the VA$_{+1}$RR TSS motif were largely unaffected. Notably, transcripts
normally have small differences in methylation (i.e., methylation level at 0.9 vs 0.98). Thus,
m⁶Am is unlikely to be a general stabilization mark in mRNA since it only affects transcripts
based on promoter sequences. Instead, these different stoichiometries of m⁶Am are likely to be
the consequence of different transcription mechanisms. Thus, it will be important to assess how
these different transcription mechanisms use m⁶Am for gene expression.
674
PCIF1 is known to be associated with RNA polymerase II and is recruited to promoter regions
during transcription[28]. Thus, PCIF1 is ideally positioned to regulate transcription processes. It
is interesting to speculate that m⁶Am may provide a mark that enhances subsequent elongation
and thus maintains high overall expression for transcription initiation complexes that assemble
on the SSCA$_{+1}$GC TSS motif. Other transcription initiation complexes, such as those using the
VA$_{+1}$RR TSS motif, may not need this mechanism. However, our data cannot provide further
details on whether the loss of m⁶Am is related to exact mechanisms such as transcription
initiation selection, elongation, or premature termination. Notably, the recent study by An et al.[39]
suggested that the loss of m⁶Am is related to enhanced premature termination and therefore
leads to reduced RNA 5' end expression. An et al. proposed that m⁶Am can sequester PCF11, a
m⁶Am reader, and thereby promote transcription by reducing premature transcription
termination[39]. However, it is still unclear whether the transcripts from the SSCA$_{+1}$GC TSS motif
are indeed more preferentially bound by PCF11. To better understand how PCIF1 regulates
transcription, assays with transcription-start nucleotide resolution will be required.
689
Although m⁶Am and m⁶A are chemically similar, these two modifications appear to have very
different biological functions. It is well known that m⁶A is a mark for RNA instability through the
recruitment of YTHDF proteins[40]. However, we find no correlation between m⁶Am and RNA
instability. Additionally, our previous YTHDF1, YTHDF2, and YTHDF3 iCLIP studies did not
show binding at mRNAs 5' ends[41], which suggests that YTHDF proteins do not bind m⁶Am.
Thus, specific m⁶Am-binding proteins might enable its unique functions in transcription.
696
Although most studies of m⁶Am and PCIF1 focus on mRNAs, we find that m⁶Am in snRNAs
exhibit substantially higher variability and regulation than that in mRNA. Early biochemical
studies of snRNA composition demonstrated that the first nucleotide was generally Am in all Pol

II-derived snRNAs[10]. CROWN-seq generally supports this finding since most snRNAs have low
m⁶Am stoichiometry.  However, the previous study mainly focused on HEK293T cells[10], which
have very low m⁶Am in snRNA.  In this study, nine different cell types were sequenced. These
cell lines showed highly variable m⁶Am in snRNA.  In some cases, several snRNAs can reach
m⁶Am stoichiometry up to 0.70-0.89.  These data raise the possibility that m⁶Am may affect
snRNA functions, such as splicing and gene transcription[12,42], and *PCIF1* knockout phenotypes
may be due to altered snRNA.
707
Notably, m⁶Am in snRNA is highly regulated by FTO, which is consistent with our earlier
findings[10].  However, the previous study did not have transcript isoform level resolution in
analyzing the effect of FTO demethylation.  With CROWN-seq, we find that FTO has markedly
different effects on different snRNAs, where some snRNAs appear highly demethylated by FTO
while others are insensitive to FTO.  Some snoRNA, and snRNA/snoRNA pseudogenes are
also demethylated by FTO.  Notably, FTO depletion affects numerous aspects of cell function[43].
Our results thus raise the possibility that FTO-depletion phenotypes may result from increased
m⁶Am levels in snRNAs, snoRNAs, or their pseudogenes.
716

**Limitations of the study**
One limitation of CROWN-seq is that it can be difficult to align sequencing reads to the genome.
Unlike normal reads, which contain A, G, C, and U, most reads in CROWN-seq comprise only G,
C, and U due to the conversion of A's.  This makes it difficult to align reads to highly similar
genes, such as snRNA isoforms and pseudogenes which have very similar 5' ends.  For this
reason, only a small fraction of reads from snRNA and pseudogenes were uniquely mapped to
one genomic location and were used in this analysis.  To better understand m⁶Am in these 5'
ends with similar sequences, future optimization is desired to increase the read lengths, which
can help distinguish these sequences from each other.  This requires technical innovations in
reducing RNA fragmentation during sodium nitrite conversion, which comes from acid-catalyzed
depurination and backbone cleavage[21].
728

In this study, we quantified m⁶Am in nine different cell lines, which cover a wide range of PCIF1
expression levels.  Although we found high m⁶Am stoichiometries in all cell lines, it is possible
that some cells or tissues have more variable m⁶Am levels.  In our previous study, mass
spectrometry showed that the CCRF-SB cell line has relatively low m⁶Am stoichiometry at
~67.6%[1].  However, these cells exhibit very slow growth as reported previously[1].  As a result,
we were unable to obtain enough amounts of mRNA needed for CROWN-seq.  Future
CROWN-seq studies may lead to the identification of cell types or contexts with dynamic m⁶Am
landscapes.
737

738    The last limitation of this study is that the focus of this study was to quantify m⁶Am and to predict
739    potential functions using *PCIF1* knockout cells. However, it is possible that PCIF1 has non-
740    catalytic functions that may contribute to the *PCIF1* knockout phenotype. Future experiments
741    using catalytic-dead PCIF1 can be useful to distinguish between the catalytic and non-catalytic
742    functions of PCIF1.
743

744   **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**
745   We thank members of the Jaffrey lab for their comments and suggestions throughout the
746   duration of this project.  We thank members of the Genomics core facility at Weill Cornell
747   Medicine.  This work is supported by NIH grants R35 NS111631, S10 OD030335, RM1
748   HG011563, and MH121072 (S.R.J.).
749   
750   **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**
751   J.F.L., B.R.H., and S.R.J. designed the experiments.  J.F.L., B.R.H., and L.N. performed
752   experiments. J.F.L. and B.R.H. analyzed experimental data.  J.F.L and S.R.J. wrote the
753   manuscript.
754   
755   **DECLARATION OF INTERESTS**
756   S.R.J is a scientific founder of, advisor to, and/or owns equity in Chimerna Therapeutics,
757   Lucerna Technologies, and 858 Therapeutics.
758   
759   **FIGURE LEGENDS**
760   
761   **Figure 1. Many m6Am genes are mistakenly annotated.**
762   
763   **(A)** Genes tend to have multiple TSSs.  Shown is a histogram displaying the number of TSSs
764   per protein-coding gene in HEK293T cells. TSSs (87,624 TSSs from 9,199 genes) were
765   mapped using ReCappable-seq.  These TSSs have expression levels ≥1 TPM (transcription-
766   start nucleotide per million).
767   
**(B)** and **(C)** Examples of genes that were mistakenly classified by previous studies[14].  *SRSF1*
**(B)** was previously designated as m6Am because of the miCLIP signals overlapping with A-
TSSs.  However, based on ReCappable-seq, ~41.5% of the reads are mapped to non-A-TSSs
in *SRSF1*. Notably, one of the most expressed m6Am A-TSS (chr17:58,007,228) was mistakenly
considered as internal m6A because this position was not previously annotated as a TSS[44].
*ADAR* **(C)** was previously classified as Gm. There is no m6Am signal based on miCLIP[14], m6Am-
seq[11], or m6ACE-seq[12] mapped to *ADAR*.  However, ~71% of the transcripts from *ADAR* are A-
initiated.
776   
777   **(D)** Previously classified m6Am genes express considerable levels of non-A-initiated transcripts.
778   Each column represents a gene previously classified as m6Am gene by miCLIP[14].  For each
779   gene, the percentage of transcript isoforms starting with m6Am/Am (in green) or Gm/Cm/Um (in
780   gray) are shown. The percentage was calculated by weighting each transcript isoform by its
781   expression level.  The TSN frequencies were obtained using ReCappable-seq in HEK293T cells.
782   
783   **Figure 2. CROWN-seq correctly maps and quantifies m6Am.**
784   
**(A)** Schematic of CROWN-seq. RNAs are firstly treated with sodium nitrite, which causes Am at
the transcription-start position to be converted to Im. To isolate the TSN, m7G caps are replaced
with 3'-desthiobiotin (DTB) caps. These DTB caps are enriched on streptavidin beads, while

uncapped background RNA fragments are uncapped and washed away.  After washing, an
enriched pool of transcript 5' ends is released from the beads by cleaving the triphosphate
bridge, leaving 5' monophosphate ends that are ligated to an adapter. After adapter ligation,
cDNA was synthesized and amplified for Illumina sequencing.  During sequencing, the
converted sequences were aligned to a reference genome. The TSNs can be determined as the
first base immediately after the 5' adapter sequence. To quantify m$^6$Am stoichiometry, we count
the number of A (m$^6$Am) and G (Am) bases at the TSN position.
795
796    **(B)** CROWN-seq enriches reads that contain the TSN.  The relative coverage of reads mapped
797    to the TSS and non-TSS regions across the m$^7$G-ppp-Am-initiated RNA standard was
798    calculated.  The average relative coverage of reads that map to the TSS and to non-TSS
799    positions are shown for three replicates. The 95% CI of the relative coverages is shown using
800    error bars.
801
**(C)** CROWN-seq exhibits high quantitative accuracy for measuring m$^6$Am stoichiometry.  RNA
standards (**Table S2**) were prepared with 0%, 25%, 50%, 75%, and 100% m$^6$Am stoichiometry.
To make m$^6$Am standards in different m$^6$Am levels, we generated both Am transcripts and
m$^6$Am transcripts by *in vitro* transcription with cap analogs m$^7$G-ppp-Am and m$^7$G-ppp-m$^6$Am.
Five transcripts were made in the Am and m6Am form and mixed to achieve the indicated m$^6$Am
stoichiometry. These transcripts have identical 5' ends and different barcodes (**Table S2**).
Linear least-squares regression was performed to calculate the correlation between expected
non-conversion rates and the observed average non-conversion rates for each standard. All
TSNs shown in this plot have high sequencing coverage, ranging from 656 to 21,545 reads.
811
812    **(D)** CROWN-seq results for *SRSF1*.  CROWN-seq shows that 54.0% of *SRSF1* transcripts
813    initiate with A. Among the A-initiated transcripts, 93.4% were resistant to conversion (A's, shown
814    in green), and therefore m$^6$Am.  As a result, *SRSF1* has 50.4% m$^6$Am transcripts, 3.6% Am
815    transcripts, and 46.0% non-A-initiated transcripts. Notably, a previous miCLIP study identified
816    an internal m$^6$A site[44] which we found was m$^6$Am at the TSN based on CROWN-seq.
817
818    **(E)** CROWN-seq results for *JUN*. CROWN-seq shows that ~58% of *JUN* transcripts initiate with
819    A.  Unlike *SRSF1* which A-TSNs are highly methylated, *JUN* A-TSNs are only ~75% methylated.
820    As a result, *JUN* has 43.5% m$^6$Am transcripts, 14.5% Am transcripts, and 42% non-A-initiated
821    transcripts.
822
**(F)** CROWN-seq identifies most m$^6$Am sites identified in previous studies. 7,480 m$^6$Am sites in
HEK293T cells found either by miCLIP[14], m$^6$Am-seq[11], or m6ACE-seq[12] were analyzed.  The
high-confidence sites in CROWN-seq were defined as A-TSN with ≥20 unique mapped reads.
The results shown are from HEK293T cells, which is the same cell line used in all previous
studies.  Among the 1,284 sites uniquely found in other studies, 811 sites are also mapped by
CROWN-seq but at lower coverage (1-19 reads); 319 sites are mapped very far (>100 nt) away
from any TSS annotation and thus can be considered as false positives; the remaining 154 sites
are mapped very closely to known TSSs and may be false negative results in CROWN-seq.
831

**(G)** Many A-TSNs identified in CROWN-seq in HEK293T cells are not annotated. In this analysis, A-TSSs in **(F)** were intersected with the TSS annotation in Gencode v45. Only 12.2% of A-TSSs found by CROWN-seq are previously annotated.

**(H)** CROWN-seq exhibits high accuracy in TSN discovery. In this analysis, we compared the non-conversion of A-TSNs between wild-type and *PCIF1* knockout cells. For the 6,457 A-TSNs annotated by Gencode v45, most of them have high non-conversion rates in wild-type cells and very low non-conversion rates in *PCIF1* knockout cells, indicating correct TSN mapping. Similar to the annotated TSNs, 25,435 newly found A-TSNs were also found to have differential m$^6$Am between wild-type and *PCIF1* knockout. Thus, these newly found A-TSNs were also mostly true positives. In this analysis, only A-TSNs mapped by at least 20 reads in both wild-type and *PCIF1* knockout HEK293T cells were used. The details of these sites can be found in **Table S3**.

**(I)** The previously identified m$^6$Am sites are biasedly in higher expression and higher m$^6$Am stoichiometry. Shown are the sequencing coverage (left) and non-conversion rates (right) of different sets of m$^6$Am sites in HEK293T CROWN-seq data. In total, 98,147 sites found by CROWN-seq, 2,129 sites found by miCLIP[14], 3,693 sites found by m6ACE-seq[12], and 1,610 sites found by m$^6$Am-seq[11] are shown.

**(J)** CROWN-seq has much higher sensitivity in m$^6$Am discovery than all existing m$^6$Am mapping methods. In this analysis, sensitivity is defined as m$^6$Am/A-TSN found per million mapped reads. For CROWN-seq, sensitivity was defined as the slope of linear regression result between sequencing depth and A-TSN number among different samples in this study (see **Figure S2G**). For other methods, sensitivity was defined as the number of reported m$^6$Am sites over the number of reads in all libraries required for m$^6$Am identification.

**Figure 3. CROWN-seq reveals m$^6$Am landscape in mRNA.**

**(A)** Boxplot showing the overall mRNA m$^6$Am levels (i.e., m$^6$Am stoichiometry) among different cell lines. The exact m$^6$Am levels of the mRNA m$^6$Am sites in this analysis can be found in **Table S3**. Only m$^6$Am sites with $\geq$50 reads mapped in at least one cell line were analyzed.

**(B)** mRNA m$^6$Am stoichiometry is positively correlated with PCIF1 expression. In this plot, *PCIF1* expression was estimated by the number of reads mapped to *PCIF1* TSSs. The read counts were normalized into transcription-start nucleotide per million (TPM) for gene expression comparison. Three cell lines (CCD841 CoN, HCT-116, and HT-29) whose *PCIF1* expression was estimated by western blots and RT-qPCR by Wang *et al.* [5] are highlighted. Pearson's r and p-value in this analysis were obtained by linear regression.

**(C)** Overall mRNA m$^6$Am stoichiometry is not correlated with CTBP2 expression. Similar to **(B)**, *CTBP2* expression was estimated by CROWN-seq. Four cell lines with very low *CTBP2* expression are highlighted.

875    **(D)** Some A-TSNs have relatively low and more variable m$^6$Am stoichiometry among cell lines.
876    In this plot, the variability of the m$^6$Am stoichiometry of a site, which is defined as the maximum
877    m$^6$Am subtracted by the minimum m$^6$Am stoichiometry among all cell lines is shown on the X-
878    axis; the average m$^6$Am level of a site among all cell lines is shown on the Y-axis. Several
879    example genes are indicated in different colors.
880
881    **(E)** Boxplots and dotplots showing the m$^6$Am levels of different A-TSNs in *JUN*, *ENO1*, *MYC*,
882    and *ACTB*. These genes contain A-TSNs with relatively low m$^6$Am stoichiometry. In this plot, the
883    exact m$^6$Am levels of individual A-TSNs are shown in dots, while the median and IQR of the
884    m$^6$Am levels are shown in boxplots. Only m$^6$Am sites with ≥50 reads mapped were analyzed.
885
886    **(F)** Gene Ontology enrichment (Cellular Components) of genes containing lowly methylated
887    m$^6$Am sites.  The full Gene Ontology results can be found in **Table S4**.
888
889    **(G)** A-TSNs in histone genes tend to have relatively low m$^6$Am stoichiometry.  In this plot,
890    histone genes are categorized by their genomic localizations.  Histone gene cluster 6p22.1-2
891    and 1q21.1-2 are the two major histone gene clusters.  For histone gene cluster 6p22.1-2, 55 to
892    173 A-TSNs are shown in different cell lines; for histone gene cluster 1q21.1-2, 9 to 14 A-TSNs
893    are shown; for other histone genes, 24 to 109 A-TSNs are shown.
894
895    **Figure 4. m$^6$Am stoichiometry is related to core promoter sequence.**
896
**(A)** m$^6$Am stoichiometry is related to base composition in both upstream and downstream of A-
TSNs.  In these plots, 58,723 A-TSNs are grouped into twenty 5-percentile bins (X-axis).  For
each bin, the frequency of A, T, C, and G bases at each position relative to the A-TSN are
plotted on the Y-axis.  Among different positions in the promoter region, C's in -4, -1, and +3, as
well as G's in +2 are positively correlated with high m$^6$Am; while A's in +2 are negatively
correlated with high m$^6$Am.  Results for other promoter positions can be found in **Figure S4A**.
903
904    **(B)** Motif analysis of A-TSNs with the lowest 5% m$^6$Am stoichiometry (upper) and the A-TSNs
905    with the highest 5% m$^6$Am stoichiometry (lower).  The core promoter region (-40 to +41) was
906    screened for enriched motifs.  The lowest 5% A-TSNs exhibited a VA$_{+1}$RR TSS (V=A/C/G,
907    R=A/G) motif, while the highest 5% A-TSNs exhibited a SSCA$_{+1}$GC (S=C/G) motif. The
908    sequence contexts for all A-TSNs are shown in **Figure S3E**.
909
**(C)** A-TSNs expressed from different core promoters exhibit different m$^6$Am stoichiometry.  Core
promoters containing the VA$_{+1}$RR motif produce transcripts with relatively low m$^6$Am
stoichiometry. Transcripts using the SSCA$_{+1}$GC motif exhibited relatively high m$^6$Am
stoichiometry.  In comparison, the m$^6$Am stoichiometry in conventional A-TSNs from either
BBCA$_{+1}$BW or BA$_{+1}$ is also shown and exhibits intermediate m6Am stoichiometry.  In this
analysis, 14,788, 7,981, 34,578, and 1,376 A-TSNs were used for each of the four motifs.  P-
values, Student's t-test, two-sided.
917

**(D)** TATA-box containing core promoters exhibit relatively low m⁶Am stoichiometry.  For this
analysis, the TATA-box is defined as TATAWAWR[29].  Because many TATA-boxes found in our
A-TSN dataset are outside the classic -31 to -24 region, we extended the region for the TATA-
box search to -36 to -19.  Since histone genes preferentially contain TATA box, we separately
plotted TATA-box-containing histone genes (N=155) and TATA-box-containing non-histone
genes (N=28).  58,540 A-TSNs without TATA-box are also shown.  P-values, Student's t-test,
two-sided.
925
926    **Figure 5. *PCIF1* knockout leads to m⁶Am and TSS motif-related A-TSN expression**
927    **changes.**
928
**(A)** m⁶Am stoichiometry is positively related to A-TSN expression in wild-type HEK293T cells. In
this cumulative distribution plot, the expression of each A-TSN was quantified by ReCappable-
seq, for all A-TSNs in each indicated m⁶Am stoichiometry bin.  A-TSNs (n=58,723) were
grouped into five bins based on m⁶Am stoichiometry quantified by CROWN-seq. In total, 5,125,
6,962, 7,991, 8,368, and 8,009 A-TSNs are shown in each bin (from low m⁶Am to high m⁶Am).
These A-TSNs have an average TPM ≥1 in two ReCappable-seq replicates and coverage ≥50
in CROWN-seq. P-values, Student's t-test for TPM (log-transformed), two-sided.
936
**(B)** The expression level of high m⁶Am stoichiometry A-TSNs is reduced in *PCIF1* knockout.
Shown is a cumulative distribution plot of A-TSN expression change in HEK293T cells upon
*PCIF1* knockout.  The differential expression of A-TSN was calculated by DESeq2[45]. Similar to
**(A)**, the A-TSNs were binned based on the m⁶Am stoichiometry. In total, 3,269, 2,272, 3,218,
3,813, and 3,369 A-TSNs are shown in each bin (from low m⁶Am to high m⁶Am). A-TSNs with a
baseMean (i.e., the average of the normalized count among replicates) ≥100 were used in the
differential expression test (two replicates were used for both wild-type and *PCIF1* knockout)
and coverage ≥50 reads in CROWN-seq. P-values, Student's t-test, two-sided.
945
946    **(C)** Shown are cumulative distribution plots of expression changes of A-TSNs and G-TSNs after
947    PCIF1 depletion.  14,516 A-TSNs and 9,667 G-TSNs with expression levels quantified by
948    ReCappable-seq are shown. These A-TSNs and G-TSNs have baseMean ≥100 during the
949    differential expression test. P-values, Student's t-test, two-sided.
950
951    **(D)** Similar to **(B)**, A-TSNs that use different TSS motifs exhibit different changes in expression
952    upon *PCIF1* knockout. In total, 352 A-TSNs using SSCA₊₁GC, 7,928 A-TSNs using BA₊₁, 2,958
953    A-TSNs using BBCA₊₁BW, and 2,760 A-TSNs using VA₊₁RR are shown.  These A-TSNs have
954    baseMean≥100 during differential expression test (2 replicates for both wild-type and *PCIF1*
955    knockout) and coverage ≥50 reads in CROWN-seq. P-values, Student's t-test, two-sided.
956
957    **Figure 6. CROWN-seq reveals m⁶Am landscape in snRNA and snoRNA.**
958
**(A)** Heatmaps showing m⁶Am stoichiometry in different snRNA gene families and isoforms. Cell
lines in the column are ranked by the overall mRNA m⁶Am stoichiometry. The name of each
snRNA isoform is shown on the right.  A-TSNs already annotated in Gencode v45 are

highlighted in bold.  For newly found A-TSNs, the relative distance between the new A-TSN and
the nearest annotated A-TSN is showed in brackets.  Note that Gencode v45 contains snRNA
annotation from different databases.  For example, *RNU1-4* and *U1.22* are both U1 snRNA,
however, *RNU1-4* is from the HGNC database and *U1.22* is from the RFAM database.

**(B)** Similar to **(A)**, Heatmaps show the m$^6$Am stoichiometry in different snoRNA isoforms.

**(C)** and **(D)**, snRNA methylation levels are not well correlated with *PCIF1* expression, but
negatively correlated with *FTO* expression.  The RNA expression levels of *PCIF1* and *FTO* were
estimated by reading counts in CROWN-seq, which were converted into TPM to normalize the
sequencing depth.  Linear regressions were performed to obtain Pearson's r and p-value of the
correlations.

**(E)** FTO depletion leads to increased m$^6$Am level (i.e., m$^6$Am stoichiometry) in many kinds of
snRNA and snoRNA. In this plot, the difference in m$^6$Am levels between wild-type and *FTO*
knockout cells is shown in the first row.  The exact m$^6$Am levels in *FTO* knockout and wild-type
cells are shown in the second and third rows. Different kinds of snRNA and snoRNA are shown
in different colors.

**(F)** FTO depletion leads to increased m$^6$Am stoichiometry in snRNA and snoRNA pseudogenes.
In this plot, shown are the annotated pseudogenes of U1, U2, U4, U5, and 7SK, as well as the
newly identified snRNA/snoRNA pseudogenes in intronic and intergenic regions. Several
mRNAs exhibited 5' ends resembling snRNA pseudogenes.  However, these snRNA-like mRNA
5' ends showed high and stable m$^6$Am stoichiometry in both wild-type and *FTO* knockout cells.

**SUPPLEMENTAL TABLES**

**Table S1.** Comparison of m$^6$Am mapping methods.

**Table S2.** The design of m$^6$Am standards.

**Table S3.** mRNA m$^6$Am stoichiometry in different cell lines.

**Table S4.** Gene Ontology enrichment of genes with relatively low m$^6$Am sites.

**Table S5.** Comparing A-transcription-start nucleotide expression between wild-type and *PCIF1*
knockout cells.

**Table S6.** m$^6$Am stoichiometry of A-TSN in snRNA, snoRNA, and pseudogenes.

1001

1002  **Table S7.** Oligos used in this study.

1003

1004  **METHODS**

1005

**EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS**

**Cell lines**

HEK293T (wild-type, *PCIF1* knockout, and FTO knockout cells), A549 (wild-type and *PCIF1* knockout), HCT-116, Huh-7, and HT-29 cells were maintained in DMEM (Gibco #11995065). HepG2 and CCD841 CoN cells were maintained in EMEM (ATCC #30-2003). K562 and Jurkat E6.1 cells were maintained in RPMI1640 (Gibco #11875093). All media was supplemented with 10% FBS and 1X penicillin-streptomycin (Gibco #15140148). Cells were grown at 37 °C with 5% $CO_2$. We followed the instructions from the manufacturer to maintain the cells.

**METHODS DETAILS**

**RNA extraction and mRNA purification**

Cellular total RNA in TRIzol LS (ThermoFisher #10296028) was extracted by Direct-zol RNA Miniprep kit (Zymo #R2070) or by Phenol Chloroform extraction. mRNA was purified by NEBNext Oligo d(T)25 Beads (NEB #E7499) or Dynabeads Oligo (dT)25 (Ambion #61002) based on mRNA purification from total RNA protocol of Dynabeads Oligo (dT)25 (Ambion #61002).

**m⁶Am standard preparation**

We used *in vitro* transcription to prepare m⁷G capped m⁶Am- or Am-initiated transcripts, which are based on HiScribe® T7 mRNA Kit with CleanCap® Reagent AG (NEB #E2080S). We first obtained DNA templates from IDT gBlock. In total, five DNA templates which are identical expect for the 6-nt long barcode 42-nt downstream to the TSS were used (**Table S2**). The DNA templates contain 5'-TAATACGACTCACTATAAG-3' T7 promoter for *in vitro* transcription. We used CleanCap® Reagent AG (3' OMe) (TriLink #N-7413), which is included in NEB #E2080S, to generate m⁷G-ppp-Am modified transcripts. We used CleanCap® Reagent M6 (TriLink #N-7453) to generate the m⁷G-ppp-m⁶Am modified transcripts. The RNAs made by *in vitro* transcription were DNase I treated, purified, and then quantified by both Agilent TapeStation (RNA high sensitivity assay). We then mixed the Am and m⁶Am modified oligos to generate m⁶Am standards with expected m⁶Am stoichiometry at 0%, 25%, 50%, 75%, and 100% m⁶Am stoichiometry. Notably, the guaranteed purity of the CleanCap® Reagent M6 is >95%. The CleanCap® Reagent M6 can contain m⁷G-ppp-AmG analog, which results in the reduced non-conversion rate in CROWN-seq.

**Genomic assembly and annotations**

The genomic sequence and annotations of Gencode v45 primary assembly were used in this study.

**GLORI experiment**

To validate whether sodium nitrite conversion can convert Am into Im, we spiked ~0.01 ng Am transcripts (ERCC-00057-1-TCGTCG) into ~250 ng poly(A) selected mRNA for GLORI assay. Ligation-based GLORI protocol was used in this study. Notably, the Am transcripts were decapped by mRNA Decapping Enzyme (NEB #M0608S) in advance. We first fragmentized the

input RNA into ~200 nt long fragments (NEBNext Magnesium RNA Fragmentation Module (NEB
#E6150S), 94°C, 2 minutes). The fragmentized RNAs were then A-to-I converted based on the
GLORI protocol[20]: we converted the glyoxal-protected RNA by 750 mM $NaNO_2$ at 16°C for 8
hours and 4°C overnight. The RNA was then deprecated in a deprotection buffer at 95°C for 10
minutes. The deprotected RNA was then T4 PNK (NEB #M0210S) treated and processed to
ligation-based small RNA-seq library preparation[46]. Notably, the 5' adapter in library preparation
contains an 11 nt UMI sequence (see **Table S7**).
1057

**GLORI data processing**
GLORI libraries were analyzed based on a modified mRNA bisulfite sequencing pipeline[47]. The
first 10 bases in GLORI libraries made with eCLIP protocol were first extracted by a customized
script. GLORI reads were first quality trimmed by Cutadapt[48]. For the GLORI library generated
by eCLIP protocol, the parameters are --max-n 0 --trimmed-only -a
AGATCGGAAGAGCGTCGTG -e 0.1 -q 30 -m 40 --trim-n; for GLORI library prepared by ligation
based protocol generated in this study, the parameters are -m 32 -j 4 -q 20 -e 0.25 -a
AGATCGGAAGAGCACACGTC -A ATATNNNNNNNNNNNAGATCGGAAGAGCGTCGTG. After
pre-processing, the reads were firstly A-to-G converted and aligned to A-to-G (positive strand)
and T-to-C (negative strand) converted reference genome and transcriptome by Hisat2-2.1.0[49].
Parameters in alignment: -k 5 –fr –rna-strandness FR –no-temp-splicesite –no-mixed. Only
unique alignments were used. After alignment, the base information in sequences was restored
so that $m^6Am$ signals can be reflected by the A-to-G mismatches. No further transcriptome
alignment was performed on the unmapped reads. After alignment, a customized script based
on Pysam[50] was used to pileup every single base to obtain the A, C, G, and U counts. Every
single base was assigned to a transcript isoform if possible (order: mRNA > lncRNA > functional
RNAs > pseudogenes). Non-conversion rate is defined as the number of A counts against the
sum of A count and G count. Filters were applied to obtain high-quality non-converted A
($m^6A/m^6Am$) signals in a gene-specific manner: (1) only genes with at least 1000 counts were
analyzed; (2) gene-specific non-conversion rates were computed for Binomial test on the
frequency of non-conversion and sites with Binomial test P-value < 0.05 were used; (3) reads
with more than 3 non-converted As were considered as noise and discarded; (4) sites with more
than 5% signals were discarded due to the site may fall in a conversion-resistant region; (5)
Only sites with no less than 20 reads covered and non-conversion rates over 0.1 were
considered as $m^6A/m^6Am$ sites. (6) Non-conversion rates of the same site from different
replicates were averaged. Details of this pipeline can be found at
https://github.com/jhfoxliu/GLORI_pipeline.
1085

**ReCappable-seq library preparation**
A modified ReCappable-seq protocol[18] was developed to reduce background, reduce material
loss, and increase the utility of mapped reads. Several steps of library construction are now
performed while the 5' desthiobiotinylated cap is bound to streptavidin beads. This reduces the
opportunity for carry-through of random fragmentation products to occur that would previously
result in non-cap-derived 5' ends to be ligated. Next, 5' adapters with unique molecular indexes
(UMIs) are used to permit robust PCR duplicate removal. Finally, ~160 spike-in mRNAs from
SIRV-ERCC Spike-in mixture (Lexogen #051.03) with single defined 5' termini are used, which

are used during analysis to build a dynamic thresholding pipeline that exclude false positive
start sites. A complete step-by-step protocol as performed here will be available on the
accompanying GitHub page (see **Data and Code Availability**).
1097
5 µg total RNA was used as input for all experiments. RNA was denatured at 65 °C for 2
minutes before reaction mixes were added. First, 5'-phosphorylated RNAs were
dephosphorylated using 25 U Quick CIP (NEB #M0525L) in a 50 µL reaction for 30 minutes at
37 °C. The reaction was cleaned using a Zymo RCC-5 column following the manufacturer's
>200 nt protocol and eluted with 20 µL water. $m^7G$ capped RNAs were then decapped using
200 U yDcpS (NEB #M0463S) for 1 hour at 37 °C. This unique decapping enzyme liberates
$m^7GMP$, resulting in mRNAs with a 5'-diphosphate. The reaction was cleaned and eluted as
before. Next, the 5'-diphosphorylated mRNAs were recapped with desthiobiotin-GTP (DTB-
GTP) using vaccinia capping enzyme (5 µL VCE buffer, 0.5 µL inorganic pyrophosphatase
(NEB #M0361S), 5 µL DTB-GTP (5 mM; NEB #N0761S), 50 U VCE (#M2080S)) for 45 minutes
at 37 °C. The reaction was clean as before, however, a total of 4 washes were performed to
ensure the complete removal of excess DTB-GTP. RNA was then fragmented by incubating at
95 °C for 2.5 minutes in a 25 µL reaction containing 100 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0 and 2 mM $MgCl_2$.
Fragmented RNA was placed on ice and brought to 30 µL with water. Streptavidin beads (NEB
#S1421S) were washed in a high salt wash buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 2 M NaCl, 1 mM
EDTA) and resuspended in the high salt buffer at 4 mg/mL. 30 µL beads were added to 30 µL
fragmented RNA and incubated for 45 minutes at room temperature with agitation. Beads were
washed twice in a high salt buffer, twice in a lower salt buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 250 mM
NaCl, 1 mM EDTA), and twice in PNK wash buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 10 mM $MgCl_2$, 0.2%
Tween). Beads were next resuspended in 40 µL PNK reaction mix (8 µL 5X pH 6.5 PNK buffer
(350 mM Tris-HCl pH 6.5, 50 mM $MgCl_2$, 5 mM DTT), 1 µL T4 PNK (NEB #M0201S), 1 µL
RNaseOUT (ThermoFisher #10777019) and incubated at 37 °C for 30 minutes with agitation to
remove 3' phosphates resulting from the fragmentation. Beads were washed once in PNK wash,
once in the high salt wash, then twice again in PNK wash. Next, a 3' adapter (see **Table S7**)
was added to RNA by resuspending beads in 40 µL 3' ligation reaction mix (4 µL T4 RNA ligase
buffer, 2 µL T4 RNA ligase 2 truncated KQ (NEB #M0373L), 1 µL RNaseOUT, 2 µL L7 adapter
(20 µM stock, see **Table S7**), 16 µL of 50% PEG-8000) and incubated at 25 °C for 2 hours. The
beads were washed once in PNK wash, once in high salt wash, twice in lower salt wash, then
resuspended in 30 µL lower salt wash containing 1 mM biotin (ThermoFisher #B20656) to elute
DTB-capped RNA fragments. The eluted RNA was cleaned by ethanol-AMPure XP (1.8
volumes AMPure XP, then 1.5 volumes 100% ethanol). To increase stringency, the streptavidin
bead enrichment was repeated omitting enzymatic steps and instead washing three times with
high salt and then three times with lower salt wash, and the eluate was cleaned again by
ethanol-AMPure XP. The DTB-GTP cap was removed using 0.5 U/µl RppH (NEB #M0356S) in
1X ThermoPol buffer (NEB #M0356S) and incubating at 37 °C for 1 hour. The resulting 5'-
monophosphate RNA fragments were purified by ethanol-AMPure XP. 30 pmol of a 5' adapter
was ligated for 3 hours at 25 °C with 2 U/µL T4 RNA ligase 1 (NEB #M0437M). This RNA
adapter contains an 11 nt UMI followed by a fixed sequence (AUAU) at its 3' end. The UMI
allows robust duplicate removal, and the fixed sequence provides an anchor point to correctly
identify the first nucleotide of the mRNA. The ligation reaction was inactivated by heating at 65

°C for 10 minutes and then immediately used in a reverse transcription reaction. 3 pmol of
ReCappable-seq RT primer was annealed to the 3' adapter of RNA fragments by heating to 65
°C for 5 minutes and cooling to 25 °C at a rate of 0.1 °C/sec. Reverse transcription was carried
out at 55 °C for 45 minutes in a reaction containing 0.5 mM dNTPs, 5 mM DTT, 20 U
RNaseOUT, 50 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.3, 75 mM KCl, and 300 U SuperScript III (ThermoFisher
#18080044). Following heat inactivation, the reaction was cleaned using ethanol-AMPure XP
and cDNA was resuspended in 21 µL. The final PCR was performed using 8 µL cDNA in a 40
µL reaction containing 1X Phusion HF master mix (NEB #M0531L) and 4 µL each of a unique i5
and i7 barcoded primer combination for each sample (NEB #E7600S). Cycling conditions were
typically 98 °C 2 minutes, then 11-13 cycles of 98 °C 15 seconds, 65 °C 30 seconds, 72 °C 30
seconds, with a final 5 minute 72 °C extension. The optimal number of cycles for each library
was determined by performing a set of test cycles using 1 µL cDNA in a 20 µL reaction. PCR
libraries were purified with 2 rounds of bead clean-up using 0.9X volume SPRIselect beads.
Libraries were pooled at equimolar concentrations and sequenced in paired-end mode with 50-
150 bp reads depending on the library on either an Illumina NovaSeq, NextSeq, or HiSeq
(please refer to GEO accession for specific details for each library).
1154
**ReCappable-seq analysis**
The beginning of read 1 is the UMI plus an ATAT spacer sequence, and the nucleotide directly
following this is the TSS. Reads were first filtered to identify pairs with the correct UMI+ATAT
sequence, then the UMI was added to FASTQ headers using UMI-tools v1.1.1[51]. ATAT
sequence discarded. Adapters were trimmed using Cutadapt v3.4[48]. Next, reads mapping to
ribosomal RNA and small non-coding RNAs were filtered away by aligning to these sequences
using bowtie2 v2.4.2[52]. Reads were then aligned to GRCh38 and $m^6Am$ standard sequences
using HISAT2[49]. The alignment results were deduplicated by UMI-tools (--paired --chimeric-
pairs=discard --unpaired-reads=discard --method=unique). Only reads without 5' softclipping
were used. A customized script based on Pysam[50] was used to extract the 5' ends from the
BAM file. To annotate the sites by a gene, the 5' ends were firstly annotated by the nearest TSS
within the 100 bp region. If multiple annotations were found, the annotation was selected by the
priority of snRNA > snoRNA > mRNA > lncRNA > others. BEDtools v2.27.1[53] was used to find
the nearest annotation. To more accurately estimate the expression levels of each TSN, we
normalized the read counts using the "RUVg" function in RUVSeq pacakge[54]. To calculate the
expression levels of TSNs in wide-type cells, we calculated the TPM values based on the
normalized read counts. To calculate the differential expression between wild-type and *PCIF1*
knockout cells, the normalized read counts were proceeded by DESeq2[45].
1173
**CROWN-seq library preparation**
CROWN-seq uses the glyoxal-based guanosine protection protocol from GLORI[20] and a TSN
enrichment protocol that is modified from ReCappable-seq[18]. In CROWN-seq, glyoxal protection
is very important to prevent both internal G's from being converted into xanthosine, which can
interrupt base pairing and cause mutations during reverse transcription[55]. Because N7-methyl
does not interrupt the interaction between glyoxal and N1 and N2 positions of guanosines,
glyoxal protection is also very useful to prevent $m^7G$ from being converted, which can help 5'
end enrichment. After glyoxal protection, A bases are deaminated into inosines by sodium nitrite.

After deamination, the 5' end RNA fragments with a m$^7$G cap were enriched by ReCappable-

seq workflow, where the m$^7$G caps were replaced by a 5' desthio-biotinylated cap for

enrichment by streptavidin beads. 3' adapter and 5' adapter (with unique molecular indexes

(UMIs)) were ligated to the enriched 5' RNA fragments, so that the library can be made by

reverse transcription followed by indexing PCR. Detailed workflow is described below.

1187

Conversion. 0.8-2.5 µg oligo(dT) selected RNA was used as input. RNA was first diluted in 14 µl

water. To perform glyoxal protection, 6 µl 8.8 M glyoxal and 20 µl DMSO were then added to the

diluted RNA and well mixed. The 40 µl mix was first incubated at 50 ºC for 30 minutes, then 10

µl boric acid was added to the mix. The 50 µl mix was then incubated for an additional 30

minutes at 50 ºC. After protection, the 50 µl protected RNA was mixed with 50 µl deamination

buffer (25 µl 1500 mM NaNO$_2$, 4 µl 500 mM MES, pH 6.0, 10 µl 8.8 M glyoxal, and 11 µl water).

The deamination reaction was performed at 16 ºC for 8 hours. After deamination, the RNA was

recovered by ethanol precipitation. To remove the glyoxal adduct from the RNA, the RNA pallet

was dissolved in 50 µl deprotection buffer (500 mM TEAA pH=8.6, 47.5% deionized formamide)

and was incubated at 95 ºC for 10 minutes. After incubation, the reaction was brought to 250 µl

with water. Converted RNA was purified by ethanol precipitation and eluted in 39 µl water for 5'

end enrichment. The converted RNA was stored at -80 ºC before 5' end enrichment.

1200

Recapping. To eliminate the contamination of RNA with 5'-triphosphate and 5'-monophosphate,

5 µl 10X CutSmart buffer, 5 µl Quick CIP (5 U/µl) (NEB #M0525L), and 1 µl SUPERase·In

RNase inhibitor (ThermoFisher #AM2696) were added to the 39 µl converted RNA to set up a

dephosphorylation reaction. The dephosphorylation reaction was performed at 37 °C for 30

minutes. The reaction was cleaned up using Zymo RCC-5 column and the RNA was eluted in

42 µl water. To decap the m$^7$G capped RNA, a 50 µl decapping reaction was set up by adding 5

µl 10X yDcpS buffer, 2 µl (200 U) yDcpS (NEB #M0463S), and 1 µl SUPERase·In to the 42 µl

dephosphorylated RNA. The decapping reaction was performed at 37 ºC for 1 hour. This unique

decapping enzyme liberates m$^7$GMP, resulting in mRNAs with a 5'-diphosphate. The reaction

was cleaned and eluted as before. The reaction was cleaned up using Zymo RCC-5 column and

the RNA was eluted in 33.5 µl water. The 5'-diphosphorylated mRNAs were recapped with

desthiobiotin-GTP (DTB-GTP, NEB #N0761S) using vaccinia capping enzyme (VCE, NEB

#M2080S) (5 µL VCE buffer, 0.5 µL inorganic pyrophosphatase (NEB #M0361S), 5 µL DTB-

GTP (5 mM), 50 U VCE, 1 µl SUPERase·In) at 37 °C for 1 hour. The reaction was cleaned up

using Zymo RCC-5 column and the RNA was eluted in 30 µl water. Now the RNA is ready for

streptavidin enrichment.

1217

5' enrichment. Streptavidin beads (NEB #S1421S) were washed in a high salt wash buffer (10

mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 2 M NaCl, 1 mM EDTA) and resuspended in the high salt buffer at 4

mg/mL. To enrich the RNA and tag the 5' and 3' end by the specific adapter, the 30 µl recapped

RNA was first mixed with 30 µl streptavidin beads and incubated at room temperature for 45

minutes with agitation. Beads were washed twice in high salt buffer, twice in a lower salt buffer

(10 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 250 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA), and twice in PNK wash buffer (20 mM

Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 10 mM MgCl$_2$, 0.2% Tween). To remove 3' phosphates resulting from

fragmentation during conversion, beads were resuspended in 50 µl PNK reaction without ATP

(5 µl 10X PNK buffer, 1 µl T4 PNK (#M0201S), 1 µl SUPERase·In, 43 µl water), and incubate at
37 °C for 30 minutes with agitation. The beads were then washed once in PNK wash buffer,
once in 2 M NaCl wash, and twice in PNK wash. Next, RNA was ligated to a 74 nt-long 3'
adapter (**see Table S7**) in the following 40 µl 3' ligation mix: 4 µL T4 RNA ligase buffer, 2 µl T4
RNA ligase 2 truncated KQ (NEB #M0373L), 1 µl SUPERase·In, 2 µl extended-L7 adapter (20
µM stock), 16 µl of 50% PEG-8000) and incubated at 25 °C for 2 hours. After incubation, the
reaction buffer was removed by washing once with high salt buffer and twice with PNK wash
buffer. To remove the exceeded adapter, the beads were incubated in 50 µl adapter digestion
reaction (40 µl water, 5 µl 10X RNA ligase buffer, 1 µl RecJf (NEB #M0264S), 1 5' Deadenylase
(NEB #M0331S), 1 µl SUPERase·In) at 30 °C for 15 minutes then at 37 °C for 15 minutes. The
beads were washed once with PNK wash, once with high salt buffer, and twice with low salt
buffer. To elute the DTB labeled RNA, beads were then suspended with 30 µl low salt wash
buffer containing 1 mM free D-biotin (ThermoFisher #B20656) and incubate at room
temperature for 1 hour. The DTB-labeled RNA was purified with ethanol-AMPure XP
(RNA:beads:ethanol=1:2:3) and eluted in 30 µl water. To increase stringency, the streptavidin
bead enrichment was repeated omitting enzymatic steps and instead washing three times with
high salt and then three times with lower salt wash, and the eluate was cleaned again by
ethanol-AMPure XP.

5' adapter addition. The DTB-GTP cap was removed using 0.5 U/µl RppH (NEB #M0356S) in
1X ThermoPol buffer (NEB #M0356S) and incubating at 37 °C for 1 hour. The resulting 5'-
monophosphate RNA fragments were purified by ethanol-AMPure XP and eluted in 10 µl water.
1 µl (10 pmol) reverse transcription primer (see **Table S7**) was pre-annealed to the templates by
heating up to 75 °C for 5 minutes, then 37 °C for 15 minutes, 25 °C for 15 minutes, and chilled
at 4 °C. 10 pmol of a 5' adapter (see **Table S7**) was ligated for 3 hours at 25 °C with 2 U/µl T4
RNA ligase 1 (NEB #M0437M). This RNA adapter contains an 8 nt- or 11 nt-long UMI followed
by a fixed sequence (AUAU) at its 3' end. The UMI allows robust duplicate removal, and the
fixed sequence provides an anchor point to correctly identify the first nucleotide of the mRNA.
40 µl ligation product was used.

cDNA synthesis and PCR. Reverse transcription was carried out at 50 °C for 45 minutes in a 50
µl reaction containing 0.5 mM dNTPs, 5 mM DTT, 20 U RNaseOUT, 50 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.3, 75
mM KCl, and 300 U SuperScript III. To perform indexing PCR, 40 µl Phusion master mix (NEB #
M0532L) was added to the reverse transcription product, along with 5 µl i5 indexing primer and
5 µl i7 indexing primer (NEB #E7600S). Cycling conditions were typically 98 °C 2 minutes, then
16 cycles of 98 °C 15 seconds, 65 °C 30 seconds, 72 °C 30 seconds, with a final 5 minute 72
°C extension. Two rounds of 0.9X AMPureXP bead purifications were performed to remove
primers. Normally ~10 ng indexed library was obtained for each library. The libraries were mixed
and sequenced by NovaSeq 6000 or NovaSeqX.

**CROWN-seq data processing**
The read pairs were firstly quality trimmed by Cutadapt[48]: -m 32 -q 20 -e 0.25 -a
AGATCGGAAGAGCACACGTC. For the 8 nt-long 5' adapter, -A
ATATNNNNNNNNAGATCGGAAGAGCGTCGTG was used; for the 11 nt-long adapter, -A

ATATNNNNNNNNNNNNAGATCGGAAGAGCGTCGTG was used. Then the UMI along with the
fixed ATAT spacer sequences were extracted by UMI-tools[51]. The alignment process was
modified from the previous RNA bisulfite alignment strategy[47]. In brief, *in silico* converted read
pairs (read1 A-to-G, read2 T-to-C) were aligned by HISAT2[49] against A-to-G converted (for
positive strand) and T-to-C converted (for negative strand) reference genome and transcriptome
first (key options: -k 5 –fr –rna-strandness FR –no-temp-splicesite –no-mixed).  Then the unique
alignments were extracted and the *in silico* converted reads were inverse-transformed to the
original format. Since two sequences after conversion can be easily confused, we require the
best alignment results can be well distinguished from the secondary alignments. Here, the
alignment scores (AS tag in Hisat2 alignments, higher is better) of the best alignments should
be higher than -10. Meanwhile, the difference between the best alignments and secondary
alignments should be larger than 9. For paired-end alignments, the alignment scores of read1
and read2 were summed. Only read1 was used in the 5' end analysis. Only read1 reads without
5' end softclips were used. Pileup was performed to obtain the read coverages of every 5' end
in the transcriptome. Non-conversion rates of the transcription start nucleotides were calculated
by A counts over A and G counts.
1286
To annotate the TSNs mapped in CROWN-seq, we used the TSSs in Gencode v45 as the
reference TSS positions. We first calculated the distance between the mapped TSNs and the
annotated TSSs by BEDtools[53]. We then tried to assign a TSN to a gene if there was an
annotated TSS <100 nt away. Because there can be multiple annotations available, we used
the following priority in selecting gene annotations: snRNA > snoRNA > protein-coding >
lncRNA > others. We also annotated TSNs which come from RNA highly similar to snRNA,
snoRNA, or their pseudogenes. To do so, we first built a BLASTn database containing all
snRNA, snoRNA, and their pseudogene sequences from Gencode v45. We then performed
BLASTn (BLAST 2.9.0+[56]) on the A-TSNs along with the first 50 nt downstream sequences to
examine the similarity to the known snRNA, snoRNA, and pseudogenes.  The following
parameter was used: -qcov_hsp_perc 50 -perc_identity 50 -word_size 10.  Sequences with
bitscore ≥50 were considered as snRNA/snoRNA-like. We also annotated uORF and IRES
elements based on ORFdb[57] and IRES atlas[58], respectively.
1300
1301 The related pipeline and scripts are available at https://github.com/jhfoxliu/CROWN-seq.
1302
**RT-qPCR**
1 µg total RNA was used as input. The RNA was then mixed with 1 µl Oligo dT(18) (100 pmoles)
(ThermoFisher #SO131), and 1 µl dNTP in 14.5 µl total volume. The mix was incubated at 65 °C
for 5 minutes, then on ice for >30 seconds. After the incubation, 4 µl 5X RT mix (Maxima H-
buffer, ThermoFisher #EP0751), 0.5 µl RNaseOUT (ThermoFisher #10777019), and 1 µl
Maxima H- RTase were added to the mix. Reverse transcription was performed at 25 °C for 10
minutes, then 50 °C for 30 minutes.  After reverse transcription, 1 µl cDNA was used for qPCR.
In addition to the cDNA input, the qPCR buffer contains 10 µl Power SYBR Green PCR Master
Mix (ThermoFisher #368577), 0.5 µl forward primer, 0.5 µl reverse primer, and 8 µl water. qPCR
was performed based on the standard quantification program in QuantStudio™ 5 System.
1313
1314 **Gene ontology analysis**

Gene ontology analyses were performed with R package ClusterProfiler[59]. P-value cutoffs were set to 0.05 and q-value cutoffs were set to 0.1. "Cellular Components" and "Biological Process" terms were analyzed. Importantly, corresponding gene sets, rather than all genes, were used as the backgrounds in term enrichment computation. Since the output terms were normally redundant, terms were de-redundancy by the "simplify" function in R package GOSemSim[60] (cutoff=0.7, by="p.adjust", select_fun=min).

**Motif analysis**

To search for the potential motifs for elements related to transcription initiation, we used "re" package in Python to match specific motifs, which are indicated in the figure legends.

To search for the transcription factor binding sites, we used FIMO[61] to scan for motifs in HOCOMOCO v11 core motifs database[62].

**RNA secondary prediction and minimal free energy calculation**

ViennaRNA package (version 2.5.1) was used to perform RNA secondary structure prediction[63]. The RNAfold Python API "RNA" was used in the analysis. The folding temperature was set to 37°C. The minimum free energy of the predicted structure was used.

**QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS**

Quantitative and statistical methods are described above and in figure legends according to their respective technologies and analytic approaches. Statistical analysis and visualization were mainly performed with Python (version 3.8.7). R (version 4.2.2) was used in differential gene expression analysis and Gene Ontology analysis.

Versions of key Python packages: numpy (1.23.5); pandas (1.5.2); scipy (1.9.3); matplotlib (3.6.2); seaborn (0.12.1); matplotlib-venn (0.11.9).

Versions of key R packages: DESeq2 (1.38.1); clusterProfiler (4.6.0); enrichplot (1.18.3); GOSemSim (2.24.0); org.Hs.eg.db (3.16.0).

All boxplots and violin plot summary statistics show the median and IQR of the underlying data. Statistical tests are described in the appropriate figure legends. Student's t-test was applied for two sample non-paired comparisons. One-sided or two-sided testing was performed according to figure legends. If possible, we omitted significance "stars" from figures; p-values (or equivalent) are instead reported.

**DATA AND CODE AVAILABILITY**

All sequencing data can be accessed from NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus: GSE188510 for ReCappable-seq; GSE233655 for CROWN-seq data.

Because of the size limit of supplemental tables, several large tables (e.g., the table for all mRNA m$^6$Am sites quantified in this study) were not directly included in the **Supplemental**

**Tables**. These large supplemental tables have been uploaded to Zenodo: https://zenodo.org/records/12760731 (DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.12760731).

All original code has been deposited on GitHub:
- ReCappable-seq analysis: https://github.com/jhfoxliu/ReCappable-seq
- GLORI analysis: https://github.com/jhfoxliu/GLORI_pipeline
- CROWN-seq analysis: https://github.com/jhfoxliu/CROWN-seq

Any additional information required to reanalyze the data reported in this paper is available from the lead contact upon request.

## MATERIALS AVAILABILITY

This study did not generate new unique reagents.

## REFERENCES

1.  Wang, J., Alvin Chew, B.L., Lai, Y., Dong, H., Xu, L., Balamkundu, S., Cai, W.M., Cui, L., Liu, C.F., Fu, X.Y., Lin, Z., Shi, P.Y., Lu, T.K., Luo, D., Jaffrey, S.R., and Dedon, P.C. (2019). Quantifying the RNA cap epitranscriptome reveals novel caps in cellular and viral RNA. Nucleic Acids Res *47*, e130. 10.1093/nar/gkz751.

2.  Galloway, A., Atrih, A., Grzela, R., Darzynkiewicz, E., Ferguson, M.A.J., and Cowling, V.H. (2020). CAP-MAP: cap analysis protocol with minimal analyte processing, a rapid and sensitive approach to analysing mRNA cap structures. Open Biol *10*, 190306. 10.1098/rsob.190306.

3.  Bélanger, F., Stepinski, J., Darzynkiewicz, E., and Pelletier, J. (2010). Characterization of hMTr1, a human Cap1 2′-O-ribose methyltransferase. Journal of Biological Chemistry *285*, 33037-33044.

4.  Akichika, S., Hirano, S., Shichino, Y., Suzuki, T., Nishimasu, H., Ishitani, R., Sugita, A., Hirose, Y., Iwasaki, S., Nureki, O., and Suzuki, T. (2019). Cap-specific terminal N (6)-methylation of RNA by an RNA polymerase II-associated methyltransferase. Science *363*, eaav0080. 10.1126/science.aav0080.

5.  Wang, L., Wu, L., Zhu, Z., Zhang, Q., Li, W., Gonzalez, G.M., Wang, Y., and Rana, T.M. (2023). Role of PCIF1‐mediated 5′‐cap N6‐methyladeonsine mRNA methylation in colorectal cancer and anti‐PD‐1 immunotherapy. The EMBO Journal *42*, e111673.

6.  Zhang, Q., Kang, Y., Wang, S., Gonzalez, G.M., Li, W., Hui, H., Wang, Y., and Rana, T.M. (2021). HIV reprograms host m(6)Am RNA methylome by viral Vpr protein-mediated degradation of PCIF1. Nat Commun *12*, 5543. 10.1038/s41467-021-25683-4.

7.  Wang, L., Wang, S., Wu, L., Li, W., Bray, W., Clark, A.E., Gonzalez, G.M., Wang, Y., Carlin, A.F., and Rana, T.M. (2023). PCIF1-mediated deposition of 5'-cap N(6),2'-O-dimethyladenosine in ACE2 and TMPRSS2 mRNA regulates susceptibility to SARS-

CoV-2 infection. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A *120*, e2210361120.
10.1073/pnas.2210361120.

8.     Tartell, M.A., Boulias, K., Hoffmann, G.B., Bloyet, L.M., Greer, E.L., and Whelan, S.P.J.
(2021). Methylation of viral mRNA cap structures by PCIF1 attenuates the antiviral
activity of interferon-beta. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A *118*, e2025769118.
10.1073/pnas.2025769118.

9.     Wei, C.M., Gershowitz, A., and Moss, B. (1975). Methylated nucleotides block 5'
terminus of HeLa cell messenger RNA. Cell *4*, 379-386. 10.1016/0092-8674(75)90158-
0.

10.    Mauer, J., Sindelar, M., Despic, V., Guez, T., Hawley, B.R., Vasseur, J.-J., Rentmeister,
A., Gross, S.S., Pellizzoni, L., and Debart, F. (2019). FTO controls reversible m6Am
RNA methylation during snRNA biogenesis. Nature chemical biology *15*, 340-347.

11.    Sun, H., Li, K., Zhang, X., Liu, J.e., Zhang, M., Meng, H., and Yi, C. (2021). m6Am-seq
reveals the dynamic m6Am methylation in the human transcriptome. Nature
Communications *12*, 4778.

12.    Koh, C.W., Goh, Y.T., and Goh, W.S. (2019). Atlas of quantitative single-base-resolution
N 6-methyl-adenine methylomes. Nature communications *10*, 5636.

13.    Sendinc, E., Valle-Garcia, D., Dhall, A., Chen, H., Henriques, T., Navarrete-Perea, J.,
Sheng, W., Gygi, S.P., Adelman, K., and Shi, Y. (2019). PCIF1 Catalyzes m6Am mRNA
Methylation to Regulate Gene Expression. Mol Cell *75*, 620-630 e629.
10.1016/j.molcel.2019.05.030.

14.    Boulias, K., Toczydlowska-Socha, D., Hawley, B.R., Liberman, N., Takashima, K.,
Zaccara, S., Guez, T., Vasseur, J.J., Debart, F., Aravind, L., Jaffrey, S.R., and Greer,
E.L. (2019). Identification of the m(6)Am Methyltransferase PCIF1 Reveals the Location
and Functions of m(6)Am in the Transcriptome. Mol Cell *75*, 631-643 e638.
10.1016/j.molcel.2019.06.006.

15.    Mauer, J., Luo, X., Blanjoie, A., Jiao, X., Grozhik, A.V., Patil, D.P., Linder, B., Pickering,
B.F., Vasseur, J.-J., and Chen, Q. (2017). Reversible methylation of m6Am in the 5′
cap controls mRNA stability. Nature *541*, 371-375.

16.    Noguchi, S., Arakawa, T., Fukuda, S., Furuno, M., Hasegawa, A., Hori, F., Ishikawa-
Kato, S., Kaida, K., Kaiho, A., and Kanamori-Katayama, M. (2017). FANTOM5 CAGE
profiles of human and mouse samples. Scientific data *4*, 1-10.

17.    Dönmez, G., Hartmuth, K., and Lührmann, R. (2004). Modified nucleotides at the 5′
end of human U2 snRNA are required for spliceosomal E-complex formation. Rna *10*,
1925-1933.

18.    Yan, B., Tzertzinis, G., Schildkraut, I., and Ettwiller, L. (2022). Comprehensive
determination of transcription start sites derived from all RNA polymerases using
ReCappable-seq. Genome Research *32*, 162-174.

19.   Yamashita, R., Sathira, N.P., Kanai, A., Tanimoto, K., Arauchi, T., Tanaka, Y.,
Hashimoto, S.-i., Sugano, S., Nakai, K., and Suzuki, Y. (2011). Genome-wide
characterization of transcriptional start sites in humans by integrative transcriptome
analysis. Genome research *21*, 775-789.

20.   Liu, C., Sun, H., Yi, Y., Shen, W., Li, K., Xiao, Y., Li, F., Li, Y., Hou, Y., Lu, B., Liu, W.,
Meng, H., Peng, J., Yi, C., and Wang, J. (2023). Absolute quantification of single-base
m(6)A methylation in the mammalian transcriptome using GLORI. Nat Biotechnol *41*,
355-366. 10.1038/s41587-022-01487-9.

21.   Mahdavi-Amiri, Y., Chung, K.C.K., and Hili, R. (2021). Single-nucleotide resolution of N
6-adenine methylation sites in DNA and RNA by nitrite sequencing. Chemical science
*12*, 606-612.

22.   Werner, S., Galliot, A., Pichot, F., Kemmer, T., Marchand, V., Sednev, M.V., Lence, T.,
Roignant, J.-Y., König, J., and Höbartner, C. (2021). NOseq: amplicon sequencing
evaluation method for RNA m6A sites after chemical deamination. Nucleic Acids
Research *49*, e23-e23.

23.   HAVANA gene annotation guildelines. https://www.sanger.ac.uk/project/manual-
annotation/.

24.   Li, K., Chen, J., Zhang, C., Cheng, M., Chen, S., Song, W., Yang, C., Ling, R., Chen, Z.,
and Wang, X. (2023). The CTBP2-PCIF1 complex regulates m 6 Am modification of
mRNA in head and neck squamous cell carcinoma. The Journal of Clinical Investigation
*133*.

25.   Djebali, S., Davis, C.A., Merkel, A., Dobin, A., Lassmann, T., Mortazavi, A., Tanzer, A.,
Lagarde, J., Lin, W., and Schlesinger, F. (2012). Landscape of transcription in human
cells. Nature *489*, 101-108.

26.   Marzluff, W.F., and Koreski, K.P. (2017). Birth and Death of Histone mRNAs. Trends
Genet *33*, 745-759. 10.1016/j.tig.2017.07.014.

27.   Fan, H., Sakuraba, K., Komuro, A., Kato, S., Harada, F., and Hirose, Y. (2003). PCIF1, a
novel human WW domain-containing protein, interacts with the phosphorylated RNA
polymerase II. Biochemical and biophysical research communications *301*, 378-385.

28.   Sugita, A., Kuruma, S., Yanagisawa, N., Ishiguro, H., Kano, R., Ohkuma, Y., and Hirose,
Y. (2021). The cap-specific m6A methyltransferase, PCIF1/CAPAM, is dynamically
recruited to the gene promoter in a transcription-dependent manner. The journal of
biochemistry *170*, 203-213.

29.   Haberle, V., and Stark, A. (2018). Eukaryotic core promoters and the functional basis of
transcription initiation. Nature reviews Molecular cell biology *19*, 621-637.

30.   Zhang, Z., Chen, L.-Q., Zhao, Y.-L., Yang, C.-G., Roundtree, I.A., Zhang, Z., Ren, J.,
Xie, W., He, C., and Luo, G.-Z. (2019). Single-base mapping of m6A by an antibody-
independent method. Science advances *5*, eaax0250.

31. Kiss, T. (2004). Biogenesis of small nuclear RNPs. Journal of cell science *117*, 5949-
5951.

32. Huang, Z.-h., Du, Y.-p., Wen, J.-t., Lu, B.-f., and Zhao, Y. (2022). snoRNAs: functions
and mechanisms in biological processes, and roles in tumor pathophysiology. Cell Death
Discovery *8*, 259.

33. Huang, T., Chen, W., Liu, J., Gu, N., and Zhang, R. (2019). Genome-wide identification
of mRNA 5-methylcytosine in mammals. Nature structural & molecular biology *26*, 380-
388.

34. Zhang, Z., Chen, T., Chen, H.-X., Xie, Y.-Y., Chen, L.-Q., Zhao, Y.-L., Liu, B.-D., Jin, L.,
Zhang, W., and Liu, C. (2021). Systematic calibration of epitranscriptomic maps using a
synthetic modification-free RNA library. Nature Methods *18*, 1213-1222.

35. Knutson, S.D., Sanford, A.A., Swenson, C.S., Korn, M.M., Manuel, B.A., and Heemstra,
J.M. (2020). Thermoreversible control of nucleic acid structure and function with glyoxal
caging. Journal of the American Chemical Society *142*, 17766-17781.

36. Rong, M., He, B., McAllister, W.T., and Durbin, R.K. (1998). Promoter specificity
determinants of T7 RNA polymerase. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences
*95*, 515-519.

37. Dousis, A., Ravichandran, K., Hobert, E.M., Moore, M.J., and Rabideau, A.E. (2023). An
engineered T7 RNA polymerase that produces mRNA free of immunostimulatory
byproducts. Nature biotechnology *41*, 560-568.

38. Legrand, C., Tuorto, F., Hartmann, M., Liebers, R., Jacob, D., Helm, M., and Lyko, F.
(2017). Statistically robust methylation calling for whole-transcriptome bisulfite
sequencing reveals distinct methylation patterns for mouse RNAs. Genome research *27*,
1589-1596.

39. An, H., Hong, Y., Goh, Y.T., Koh, C.W., Kanwal, S., Zhang, Y., Lu, Z., Yap, P.M., Neo,
S.P., and Wong, C.-M. (2024). m6Am sequesters PCF11 to suppress premature
termination and drive neuroblastoma differentiation. Molecular Cell *84*, 4142-4157.
e4114.

40. Wang, X., Lu, Z., Gomez, A., Hon, G.C., Yue, Y., Han, D., Fu, Y., Parisien, M., Dai, Q.,
and Jia, G. (2014). N 6-methyladenosine-dependent regulation of messenger RNA
stability. Nature *505*, 117-120.

41. Patil, D.P., Chen, C.-K., Pickering, B.F., Chow, A., Jackson, C., Guttman, M., and
Jaffrey, S.R. (2016). m6A RNA methylation promotes XIST-mediated transcriptional
repression. Nature *537*, 369-373.

42. Mimoso, C.A., and Adelman, K. (2023). U1 snRNP increases RNA Pol II elongation rate
to enable synthesis of long genes. Molecular cell *83*, 1264-1279. e1210.

43. Mauer, J., and Jaffrey, S.R. (2018). FTO, m6Am, and the hypothesis of reversible
epitranscriptomic mRNA modifications. FEBS letters *592*, 2012-2022.

44.    Linder, B., Grozhik, A.V., Olarerin-George, A.O., Meydan, C., Mason, C.E., and Jaffrey,
1516            S.R. (2015). Single-nucleotide-resolution mapping of m6A and m6Am throughout the
1517            transcriptome. Nature methods *12*, 767-772.

1518    45.    Love, M.I., Huber, W., and Anders, S. (2014). Moderated estimation of fold change and
1519            dispersion for RNA-seq data with DESeq2. Genome biology *15*, 1-21.

1520    46.    Vigneault, F., Ter‐Ovanesyan, D., Alon, S., Eminaga, S., C. Christodoulou, D.,
1521            Seidman, J., Eisenberg, E., and M. Church, G. (2012). High‐throughput multiplex
1522            sequencing of miRNA. Current Protocols in Human Genetics *73*, 11.12. 11-11.12. 10.

1523    47.    Huang, T., Chen, W., Liu, J., Gu, N., and Zhang, R. (2019). Genome-wide identification
1524            of mRNA 5-methylcytosine in mammals. Nat Struct Mol Biol *26*, 380-388.
1525            10.1038/s41594-019-0218-x.

1526    48.    Martin, M. (2011). Cutadapt removes adapter sequences from high-throughput
1527            sequencing reads. EMBnet. journal *17*, 10-12.

1528    49.    Kim, D., Paggi, J.M., Park, C., Bennett, C., and Salzberg, S.L. (2019). Graph-based
1529            genome alignment and genotyping with HISAT2 and HISAT-genotype. Nat Biotechnol
1530            *37*, 907-915. 10.1038/s41587-019-0201-4.

1531    50.    Li, H., Handsaker, B., Wysoker, A., Fennell, T., Ruan, J., Homer, N., Marth, G.,
1532            Abecasis, G., Durbin, R., and Genome Project Data Processing, S. (2009). The
1533            Sequence Alignment/Map format and SAMtools. Bioinformatics *25*, 2078-2079.
1534            10.1093/bioinformatics/btp352.

1535    51.    Smith, T., Heger, A., and Sudbery, I. (2017). UMI-tools: modeling sequencing errors in
1536            Unique Molecular Identifiers to improve quantification accuracy. Genome Res *27*, 491-
1537            499. 10.1101/gr.209601.116.

1538    52.    Langmead, B., and Salzberg, S.L. (2012). Fast gapped-read alignment with Bowtie 2.
1539            Nat Methods *9*, 357-359. 10.1038/nmeth.1923.

1540    53.    Quinlan, A.R., and Hall, I.M. (2010). BEDTools: a flexible suite of utilities for comparing
1541            genomic features. Bioinformatics *26*, 841-842. 10.1093/bioinformatics/btq033.

1542    54.    Risso, D., Ngai, J., Speed, T.P., and Dudoit, S. (2014). Normalization of RNA-seq data
1543            using factor analysis of control genes or samples. Nature biotechnology *32*, 896-902.

1544    55.    Mair, S., Erharter, K., Renard, E., Brillet, K., Brunner, M., Lusser, A., Kreutz, C., Ennifar,
1545            E., and Micura, R. (2022). Towards a comprehensive understanding of RNA
1546            deamination: synthesis and properties of xanthosine-modified RNA. Nucleic Acids
1547            Research *50*, 6038-6051.

1548    56.    Camacho, C., Coulouris, G., Avagyan, V., Ma, N., Papadopoulos, J., Bealer, K., and
1549            Madden, T.L. (2009). BLAST+: architecture and applications. BMC bioinformatics *10*, 1-
1550            9.

1551    57.    Manske, F., Ogoniak, L., Jürgens, L., Grundmann, N., Makałowski, W., and Wethmar, K.
1552            (2023). The new uORFdb: integrating literature, sequence, and variation data in a
1553            central hub for uORF research. Nucleic Acids Research *51*, D328-D336.

1554    58.    Yang, T.-H., Wang, C.-Y., Tsai, H.-C., and Liu, C.-T. (2021). Human IRES Atlas: an
1555            integrative platform for studying IRES-driven translational regulation in humans.
1556            Database *2021*, baab025.

1557    59.    Yu, G., Wang, L.-G., Han, Y., and He, Q.-Y. (2012). clusterProfiler: an R package for
1558            comparing biological themes among gene clusters. Omics: a journal of integrative
1559            biology *16*, 284-287.

1560    60.    Yu, G., Li, F., Qin, Y., Bo, X., Wu, Y., and Wang, S. (2010). GOSemSim: an R package
1561            for measuring semantic similarity among GO terms and gene products. Bioinformatics
1562            *26*, 976-978.

1563    61.    Grant, C.E., Bailey, T.L., and Noble, W.S. (2011). FIMO: scanning for occurrences of a
1564            given motif. Bioinformatics *27*, 1017-1018.

1565    62.    Kulakovskiy, I.V., Vorontsov, I.E., Yevshin, I.S., Sharipov, R.N., Fedorova, A.D.,
1566            Rumynskiy, E.I., Medvedeva, Y.A., Magana-Mora, A., Bajic, V.B., and Papatsenko, D.A.
1567            (2018). HOCOMOCO: towards a complete collection of transcription factor binding
1568            models for human and mouse via large-scale ChIP-Seq analysis. Nucleic acids research
1569            *46*, D252-D259.

1570    63.    Lorenz, R., Bernhart, S.H., Höner zu Siederdissen, C., Tafer, H., Flamm, C., Stadler,
1571            P.F., and Hofacker, I.L. (2011). ViennaRNA Package 2.0. Algorithms for molecular
1572            biology *6*, 1-14.
1573
1574

# Figure 1

# Figure 2

Figure 3

# Figure 4

# Figure 5

# Figure 6