Optimized CRISPR Perturbation
Illuminates the Functions of RNA Modification Proteins

Ge Wei[1,#], Zhengyu Jing[1,#], Weikai Wang[2], Tian Chi[1,3]

[1]School of Life Science and Technology,

ShanghaiTech University, Shanghai 201210, China

[2]BGI Research, Shenzhen 518083, China

# Equal contributions

[3]Correspondence

Tian Chi

School of Life Science and Technology,

ShanghaiTech University,

393 Middle Huaxia Road, Pudong, 201210 Shanghai, China

chitian@shanghaitech.edu.cn

Abstract

A new frontier in functional genomics is to construct "Perturbation Atlas" that systematically profiles the effects of perturbation of all the mammalian genes across various cell types in health and disease. To this end, we have previously developed an *in situ* CRISPR screening platform in mice named iMAP, where Cas9 guides are "stored" in germline-transmitted transgenes but inducibly "released" (expressed) via Cre-mediated recombination. A major limitation of iMAP is a strong bias in guide representation following the recombination. We now report that this bias was effectively mitigated by eliminating a recombination hotspot at the transgene. We next profiled, across 46 tissues, the abundance of the guides targeting 71 (52%) genes encoding writers, readers and erasers of RNA modifications, revealing their context-specific functions. Furthermore, in a tumor model, we identified regulators of NK cell activation, which was validated in human NK cells, thus offering potential targets for improving cancer immunotherapy. Finally, a public database was established for accessing and analyzing iMAP data. Our study marks an important step toward the creation of the Perturbation Atlas.

Introduction

Decades after sequencing of the human genome, the context-specific functions of ~20000 protein-coding genes across hundreds of cell types in the human body in health and disease remain poorly defined. A pressing task in functional genomics research is to construct "Cell and Tissue Perturbation Atlas", which involves systematic disruption of mammalian genome and deciphering of the resulting phenotypes at the cellular and tissue levels in a high-throughput manner in both human and animal models (Rood et al., 2024). Such an atlas can reveal causal relationship between genetic circuits and cellular phenotypes, thus complementing various observational atlases and omics studies, such as the Human Cell Atlas aimed at profiling gene expression patterns of all human cell types (Regev et al., 2017; Rood et al., 2024, 2022). Importantly, with increasing amounts of perturbation data, artificial intelligence and machine learning can be deployed to predict gene function, thus enabling a Perturbation Atlas to serve as a generative causal foundation model, which will greatly empower our understanding of human biology in health and disease (Rood et al., 2024).

Pooled CRISPR screening is a standard and powerful high-throughput method for exploring gene functions in cell culture (Joung et al., 2017) and in transplanted immune cells (Shi et al., 2023), but its direct application to the cells *in situ* in mice remains challenging due to

inefficient/uneven delivery of viral sgRNA libraries to target cells in their complex native environment(Braun et al., 2022; Chow and Chen, 2018; Fallon and Knouse, 2025; Kuhn et al., 2021). As a result, *in situ* screening has only been reported sporadically for a few solid organs (Jin et al., 2020; Keys and Knouse, 2022; Noguchi et al., 2024; Rogers et al., 2018, 2017; Santinha et al., 2023; Wertz et al., 2020; Zheng et al., 2024). To eradicate the delivery problem inherent in viral libraries, thus achieving systematic *in situ* perturbation of diverse tissues throughout the whole mice, we have combined CRISPR-Cas9 and Cre-LoxP technologies into a virus-free platform named inducible mosaic animal for perturbation (iMAP) (Cai and Winslow, 2022; Liu et al., 2022; Sun et al., 2023). iMAP uses a novel germline-transmitted transgene comprising 100 individually floxed gRNA-coding units ("guides") linked together in tandem (Fig. 1A). The array of guides is placed under the control of a modified U6 promoter with a LoxP variant (Lox71) embedded. In mice carrying the transgene and also ubiquitously expressing CreER and Cas9, treatment of mice with Tamoxifen (TAM), which activates Cre, would trigger recombination between Lox71 and one of the downstream LoxP sites preceding each guide (LoxTC9), leading to the expression of all the guides in the mice, but only one of them per cell, thus converting the mice into mosaic organisms ready for phenotypic characterization. iMAP is advantageous over conventional pooled *in situ* CRISPR screens, in that CRISPR perturbation can be readily induced via simple TAM administration, allowing parallel analyses of diverse cell types and tissues throughout the mice, with the mouse lines recurrently accessible as they can be maintained, propagated and shared just as conventional transgenic mice. Importantly, while pooled CRISPR screens typically use multiple gRNAs per target gene, the "one guide/target" design proves acceptable for iMAP, partly because the system's noise, as defined by random variations in non-targeting guide abundance, is low enough to allow robust detection of even subtle (1.5x) changes in guide representations (Liu et al., 2022). With a single iMAP mouse line, and using gRNA representation as the readout, we have rapidly constructed a miniature version of the mammalian perturbation atlas cataloguing the effects of perturbations of 90 genes across 39 organs/tissues/cells ("tissues" hereafter), which is hardly achievable using other tools. However, a major weakness of iMAP is that the recombination between Lox71 and the series of downstream LoxTC9 sites is biased toward the proximal (mainly the first 11) sites, leading to the underrepresentation of the distal guides at P0 in the post-recombination library, which necessitates the use of more cells in order to cover the distal guides (Figure 1A) (Liu et al., 2022). The bias in recombination thus compromises assay sensitivity, hampering the profiling of rare cells in the body.

All known types of RNA, including mRNA, tRNA and rRNA, are subject to dynamic chemical

modifications, which impacts RNA stability, subcellular localization and/or interactions with other

biomolecules (Cui et al., 2022; Qiu et al., 2023; Yi and Yang, 2023). The modifications are

deposited and removed by the "writers" and "erasers", respectively, whereas the "readers" bind

the modification marks and recruit effector machinery to alter cell functions, thus translating the

modification signals into functional outputs. RNA modification has emerged as a crucial

regulator of gene expression in health and disease, and is attracting increasing attention. The

latest version of the Modomics Database documents 335 RNA modifications in nature and 137

modification factors (writers, erasers and readers) in humans (https://genesilico.pl/modomics/)

(Cappannini et al., 2024). Traditionally, RNA modification is investigated mostly in cell culture.

KO mice have also been described for some of the modification factors (see further), but the KO

often proves lethal, precluding in-depth characterization. Thus, the roles of the modification

factors in mice, especially in various cell types in adults, remain largely unexplored.

In this study, we substantially improved the uniformity of guide representation in iMAP, which is

now comparable to that in conventional lentiviral sgRNA libraries used in pooled CRISPR

screens. We then interrogated the functions of 71 RNA modification factors across 46

organs/tissues/cell types ("tissues" hereafter) in adult mice. Furthermore, we combined iMAP

and a tumor model to identify candidate genes for potentiating tumor-killing function of NK cells,

which was subsequently validated in human NK cells. Finally, we describe a public iMAP

database.

Results

iMAP optimization via elimination of recombination hotspot

The Lox71-TC9 recombination in the first-generation iMAP transgene is biased toward g1-11,

indicating that the region encompassing g1-11, about 1.8 kb in length, is a recombination "hot

spot" (Figure 1A). We reasoned that its replacement with a 1.8-kb inert "stuffer" sequence

lacking LoxP sites might force TC71 to skip the "hotspot" to reach out to and rearrange with the

downstream TC9 sites, thus mitigating the bias in recombination. To test this, we constructed a

91-guide transgene with a 1.8-kb stuffer inserted between g0 and g1 (Figure 1B; see further for

guide composition). In the ensuing transgenic mice, the U6 promoter was active, unmethylated

and the *91-guide* array intact (Figure S1A-C). We profiled P0 guides in adult *91-guide; Cre* mice

at various levels of TAM-induced recombination, and compared the profiles with that in *100-*

guide; Cre mice at similar levels of recombination. There is indeed substantial improvement in

recombination uniformity in the *91-guide* array at all levels of recombination (Figure 2A), which

is more obvious if the guides are analyzed as groups (Figure 2B-C). Specifically, for the *100-*

guide array, the group comprising g1-10 was predominant, constituting up to 49-72% of the total

recombined P0 guides (yellow bar, Figure 2C top), contrary to the distal groups especially g41-

99 (1-5%; last six bars, Figure 2C top). In contrast, in *91-guide; Cre* mice, g1-10 dropped to 26-

34% while g41-90 rose to 6-15% (yellow vs last five bars, Figure 2C bottom), indicating marked

reduction in recombination bias.

iMAP sensitivity is limited by the least abundant P0 guide generated after recombination. We

found that in representative samples from the two mouse lines, each with 76% recombination (a

level typically achieved in our routine experiments), such guides constituted 0.1% and 0.35% of

the total P0 guides for the 100- and 91-guide transgene, respectively (Figure 2D). Thus, the

stuffer led to ~3.5x increase in sensitivity.

For iMAP analysis of rare cells, it can be challenging to isolate enough cells to cover all the

guides in the library, particularly the underrepresented guides. We thus used mathematical

modeling to explore the relationship between the numbers of cells sampled and the % of the

guides detected. We assume a detected guide is represented by at least 100 cells, a depth we

previously found sufficient for iMAP analysis, and we express cell number in relative terms, as

"fold over the total guide number in the array" (e.g., a value of 1 for the *100-guide* array means

100 cells sampled). For *100-guide*, the model predicts that the cell number must be at least

1000 times the guide number (namely 100,000 in absolute number) to detect 100% of the

guides, and the value drops to 75% and 50% when the cell number drops 2x and 4x,

respectively (Figure 2E, line 1). In contrast, for *91-guide*, cells only 300 times the guide number

suffice to cover all the guides, reinforcing the notion that the stuffer led to 3x increase in iMAP

sensitivity (Figure 3E, line 2). This sensitivity is still 3x lower than the theoretical limit achieved if

the recombination becomes absolutely even (Figure 3E, line 3), but already surpasses that of

conventional lentiviral library, in that full coverage of the viral library requires cells 500 times the

gRNA number, contrary to only 300 times for *91-guide* (Figure 3E, line 4). However, for partial

coverage, the viral library is slightly more sensitive (Figure 3E, line 4). Thus, on balance, the two

platforms perform similarly.

We conclude that the stuffer led to 3.5x increase in iMAP sensitivity, making it comparable to

that of the classic lentiviral sgRNA library.

Overview of iMAP-91 phenotype

As depicted in Figure 1B, the *91-guide* transgene features 78 guides targeting 71 RNA modification genes (writers/erasers/readers), each gene targeted by one guide except that five genes (*Alkbh3, Fto, Mettl3, Ythdc1, Ythdf1*) are each covered by several guides. The array also carries a positive control targeting *Polr2a*, an essential gene whose perturbation causes cell death, and nine non-targeting guides (negative control, NC) spiked into the array to control for bias in recombination. We bred *91-guide; Ubc-CreER; CAG-Cas9* mice ("iMAP-91"), treated them with TAM around D10 and analyzed guide representation in diverse tissues 3-4 months thereafter in three females and three males. The mice were grossly normal except for atrophic testes (Figure 3A). We have profiled P0 guides in 46 tissues sampled from six mice, yielding 4,002 data points (87 important guides x46 tissues) each averaged from at least two (mostly 4-6) mice, the replicates being highly reproducible (Figure S2). Guide depletion events were predominant, constituting 49% of the 4,002 data points using fold >= 2 as the threshold (black lines) or 74% using gNC for comparison (green lines), contrary to only 0.1%–3% for the enrichment and 23%–50% for the unaltered (Figure 3B). Note that the nine gNCs formed a sharp peak, attesting to the low noise level of the system. We used simple bar graphs to display the enriched guides (Figure 3C), and a heatmap to display depletion where the enrichment is scored as "unaltered" to better visualize the depletion (Figure 3D).

Guide enrichment in iMAP-91

Enrichment was detected only for four guides (g63-*Rpusd4,* 15-*Trdmt1,* 48-*Snu13,* 62-*Trmu*) in only three tissues, all the guides except g63 impacting cerebellum (Figure 3C). RPUSD4 pseudouridylates pre-mRNA, TRMU and TRDMT1 both modify tRNAs, while SNU13 binds U4 snRNA in the spliceosome. Little is known about their functions in mice, except that *Trmu* KO is embryonic lethal (Wu et al., 2016) whereas *Trdmt1* KO less consequential (MGI:1274787), echoing the conspicuous depletion of g62-*Trmu* but not g15-*Trdmt1*.

Guide depletion in iMAP-91

In the heatmap that displays guide depletion, the guides and tissues clustered into five (I–V) and six (A–F) groups, respectively (Figure 3D). A caveat is that the guides were not pre-validated, and so their activities could vary, thus affecting the clustering. However, the variation in the cleavage rates of different targeting targets were quite moderate (60-80%) and not cluster-specific as assayed *in vitro*, indicating that it did not have a (major) impact on clustering (Figure 3E). Furthermore, we previously observed four salient features in the iMAP-100 heatmap that

strongly support the biological relevance of clustering (Liu et al., 2022). Importantly, these

features are all recapitulated in iMAP-91, as detailed below.

First, related guides tended to co-segregate. Thus, the eight gNC tightly co-segregated

(gCluster I), as were guides targeting different essential subunits of the same protein complexes,

including the following complexes: *Mettl3-Mettl14* (g53-56), *Iscu-Nfs1* (g83-84) , *Qtrt1-Qtr2*

(g27-28) and to some extents *Trmt6-Trmt61a* (g77,69) and *Mettl1-Wdr4* (g65-76) (Figure

3D)(Johannsson et al., 2018; Li et al., 2023; Schaffrath and Leidel, 2017; Schmucker et al.,

2011; Wang et al., 2016, 2021). Besides, the guides targeting four genes required for tRNA-U34

modifications (*Elp1*, *Elp3*, *Ctu1*, *Urm1*) tightly co-segregated (g42-45), although the guides

targeting two other genes in the pathway (g16-*Alkbh8* and g73-*Trmt112*) did not (Figure 3F; see

Discussion). Finally, different guides designed to inactivate the same genes, namely *Mettl3*

(g53-55), *Ythdc1* (g66-67), *Ythdf1*(g17-18) and *Alkbh3* (g24,26,31), all (tightly) clustered (Figure

S3A). On the other hand, guides predicted to impact the same genes but to different extents did

not co-segregate, as in the case of *Fto* (g21, 41) and *Gon7* (g29, 85), albeit with the caveat that

g85-*Gon7* additionally targets two unannotated genes related to *Gon7* (Figure S3B-C).

Second, relevant tissues tended to co-segregate just as relevant guides, including neural

tissues (T2–9), skin-related tissues (T16-17, 20, 23, 25), intestine-related tissues (T26–29),

lymphocyte subsets (T30–41), and male germ cell subsets (T42–46).

Third, guide depletion patterns in iMAP mice mirrored the phenotypes of conventional global

single-gene KO mice. Thus, ablation of gCluster IV-V genes is all lethal (18/18), gClustre III

mostly so (17/22) whereas gCluster I-II all viable except for two genes, *Mrm1* and *3* (2/12;

Figure 3G). *Mrm1* and *Mrm3,* together with *Mrm2,* each encode essential mitochondrial rRNA

methyltransferases whose KO each is lethal (Table S3), but g23-*Mrm1* and g14-*Mrm3* were only

mildly depleted, contrary to g59-*Mrm2,* suggesting that *Mrm* family members all impact cell

functions but only *Mrm2* markedly impact cell numbers.

Fourth, the genes generally required for cell survival in iMAP-91 were enriched with the ''core

essential genes'' (CEGs) generally required for human tumor cell survival/proliferation (Hart et

al., 2017). Specifically, of the 71 mouse genes targeted in iMAP-91, 12 were orthologous to

human CEGs, all except three (34-*Trmt5*, 48-*Snu13*, 58-*Dimt1*) distributed among the last 21

mouse genes (73-87) in the heatmap (Figure 3D, pink text). Of note, g34-*Trmt5* was hardly

depleted in most tissues, which was exceptional and of medical implications (see Discussion).

Collectively, these data highlight the robustness of the iMAP technology. We have begun to mine the heatmap, as detailed below.

Tissue Cluster A: uniqueness of cerebellum

In this group of tissues (brain, heart, and eyeball), guide depletion was undetectable/weak except for gCluster V (g76-87), which was clearly depleted in all tissues, suggesting that g76-87 had targeted CEGs. Guide alteration patterns were similar among various brain regions, but comparison of cerebral cortex vs cerebellar central part (Tissue 05 vs 02) revealed multiple guides with differential representations, which occurred due to different extents of depletion (g*Gon7-1, Bud23, Mett16, Mepce*) or more interestingly to "qualitative" differences in guide abundance (Figure 4A, top). Specifically, three guides (g48-*Snu13*, 15-*Trdmt1* and 62-*Trmu*) were enriched in the cerebellum (Tissue 02-03) but no other brain region (Tissue 04-09; Figure 4A) or body tissue (Figure 3D), whereas g70-*Tprkb* was unaltered in the cerebellum but generally depleted in other brain regions (Figure 4A) and body tissues (Figure 3D), exposing a unique aspect of the cerebellum.

Tissue Cluster B: brown vs white fat

Brown fat (bFAT) burns calories and is located primarily in the interscapular region, whereas white fat stores excess energy and is distributed widely, with perigonadal fat (pFAT) and mesenteric fat (mFAT) among the major white adipose tissues. Three guides (g58, 59, 72) were selectively depleted in pFAT and mFAT but not bFAT, suggesting that their target genes (*Dimt1*, *Mrm2* and *Txn1*) selectively promote white adipocyte survival/proliferation/development without impacting bFAT (Figure 4B).

Tissue Cluster D: small vs large intestine

Five guides were differentially represented in the epithelium of small vs large intestine, which remarkably include the "tetra-guides" targeting tRNA-U34 modification (g42-*Elp1*, 43-*Elp3*, 44-*Ctu1*, 45-*Urm1*; Figure 4C). Specifically, all the four guides were depleted clearly (2-4x) in the epithelium of large intestine, whereas in the small intestine epithelium, the depletion was marginal (~1.5x) and restricted to g*Ctu1/Urm1*, suggesting preferential requirement of tRNA-U34 modification for the large intestine. Paradoxically, conditional *Elp3* KO in the intestinal epithelium fails to produce overt phenotypes (Ladang et al., 2015). Perhaps the KO cells are intrinsically defective, but the defect can only be exposed in the mosaic iMAP mice where the KO cells tend to be surrounded by, and thus potentially in competition with, normal cells in the same niche.

Tissue Cluster E: Regulators of T cell development and activation

gCluster III–V guides were generally depleted across various immune cells but occasionally to different extents in pairs of closely related T cell subsets:

First, over a dozen guides were preferentially depleted in naïve CD4 T cells relative to Tregs, with the tetra-guides that target tRNA-U34 modification among the top candidates (Figure 4D, panel 1). The two T cell subsets develop from the same precursor (DP thymocytes), suggesting that this lineage bifurcation is impacted by tRNA-U34 mofication.

Second, the tetra-guides targeting tRNA-U34 modification were also the top preferentially depleted candidates in naïve relative to effector/memory(E/M) CD4 T cells (Figure 3D, panel 2). Thus, tRNA-U34 modification seems a prominent repressor of both Treg development and CD4 T cell activation/differentiation. This function is specific, being absent from CD8 T cells; instead, FTO, which erases N^6-methyladenosine (m^6A), emerged as a prominent repressor of CD8 differentiation into both E/M and central memory (CM) CD8 T cells (Figure 3D, panel 3-4). Of note, multiple other guides were also enriched in CM relative to naïve CD8 cells (Figure 3D, panel 4, red dots in the top plot), but these guides were severely depleted even in CM CD8 cells, making their relative enrichment in CM CD8 cells less interesting (not shown).

Tissue cluster F: Spermatogonia vulnerability

Our previous analysis of iMAP-100 mice reveals striking vulnerability of spermatogonia, which is recapitulated in iMAP-91:

First, spermatogonia were more vulnerable than their progeny (Figure 4E): out of the 79 targeting guides, only seven failed to impact spermatogenesis; the remaining 72 guides were depleted at least 2x in spermatogonia, and no further change was seen in the progeny except for g*Nsun2, Cmtr2* and *Elp1* (and to some extent g*Elp3*) whose depletion emerged in spermatogonia and exacerbated in P/D (for g*Nsun2*) or RS (for g*Elp1/Elp3/Cmtr2*; Figure 4E). In other words, 72 guides blocked spermatogonia survival/proliferation/renewal, but only three of them additionally impacted its progeny. Of note, for the four guides targeting tRNA-U34 modification, depletion in spermatogonia was moderate (2-4x) for g*Elp1/3* but dramatic (24-38x) for g*Urm1/Ctu1*, highlighting their functional dichotomy (see Discussion).

Second, spermatogonia were more vulnerable than somatic cells, in that gCluster II was preferentially depleted in spermatogonia relative to somatic cells (Fig. 3D). In particular, four

guides (27-*Qtrt1*, 28-*Qtrt2*, 29-*Gon7-2* and 30-*Alkbh5*) were depleted marginally in somatic cells

but severely (6-27x) in the germline (Figure 4F). QTRT1 and QTRT2 form the heterodimeric

tRNA guanine transglycosylase (TGT) that catalyzes the base-exchange of a wobble guanine

(G34) with queuine (Q) in some tRNAs, with QTRT1 being the catalytic subunit(Sievers et al.,

2024). The co-depletion of both *Qtrt* guides strongly argues for the essential and selective role

of TGT in spermatogenesis. In an apparent conflict, a gene-trap cassette that eliminates a 48-aa

region required for QTRT1 catalytic activity fails to compromise spermatogenesis, perhaps

because the trapped allele still expresses the remaining 90% of QTRT1 (aa1–104 and 151-403)

(Rakovich et al., 2011). Regarding *Gon7*, it encodes a subunit of the KEOPS complex that

introduces tRNA N6-threonylcarbamoyladenosine (t6A) modification(Srinivasan et al., 2011).

g29-*Gon7-2* is predicted to eliminate the C-terminal 13 residues of GON7, thus revealing the

selective and essential role of this tail in spermatogonia (Figure S3C). Finally, *Alkbh5* encodes

an m6A eraser, and its global KO induces germ cell apoptosis and male sterility, but the mice

seem otherwise normal, which dovetails with the iMAP data, except that the apoptosis in the

global KO mice emerges at the pachytene stage whereas g30-*Alkbh5* was able to impact

spermatogonia (Zheng et al., 2013). This discrepancy may be reconcilable because in iMAP

mice, *Alkbh5*-deficient spermatogonia can be more vulnerable due to competition from normal

spermatogonia in the mosaic environment.

In summary, these data highlight the vulnerability of spermatogonia, which has medical

implications (see Discussion).

Uncovering potential therapeutic targets in a disease model: proof of concept

Finally, in a proof-of-principle study, we applied iMAP to a disease model to identify potential

targets for cancer immune therapy. We focused on natural killer (NK) cells, which are potent

tumor killers but prone to inhibition in tumor microenvironment (TME) (Coënon et al., 2024;

Maskalenko et al., 2022). Intense efforts are underway to re-activate NK in TME, typically by

blocking their negative regulators, but with limited success (Coënon et al., 2024; Maskalenko et

al., 2022). Our approach is to search for novel, more effective negative regulators of NK in TME.

Release of cytotoxic granules (marked by CD107a expression) and production of TNFα are

among the most important mechanisms of NK-mediated killing (González-Flores et al., 2014;

Park et al., n.d.). We thus sought to identify genes whose KO could elevate CD107a and TNFα

expression in NK cells within TME. To this end, we inoculated iMAP-91 mice with mouse colon

cancer MC38 cells, administered TAM to induce recombination, isolated and compared two

pairs of tumor-infiltrating NK subsets: CD107a^{hi} vs CD107a$^{low/-}$ and TNFα^{hi} vs TNFα$^{low/-}$ (Figure

5A). We found g66-*Ythdc1*-2 and g28-*Qtrt2* enriched in the CD107a^{hi} relative to the CD107a^{low/-}

subset, with the same trend seen for g67-*Ythdc1*-1 but somehow not g14-*Qtrt1*, and g86-*Thg1l*

enriched in the TNFα^{hi} relative to the TNFα^{low/-} subset (Figure 5B). Thus, *Ythdc1* (an m6A reader)

and *Thg1l* (involved in tRNA maturation) likely repressed NK degranulation and TNFα

expression in TME, respectively. To explore their therapeutic potential, we knocked out

YTHDC1 and *THG1L* in human NK cells, co-cultured the KO cells with K562 human leukemia

cells for 6 hours, and analyzed both NK cells (for CD107a and TNFα expression) and K562 cells

(for lysis; Figure 5C). *YTHDC1* KO indeed substantially enhanced NK degranulation, with 3x

more cells expressing CD107a, but failed to boost K562 killing perhaps due to some

undesirable pleotropic effects of the KO (Figure 5D). On the other hand, *THG1L* KO enriched

TNFα in the culture media moderately (from 337 to 481 pg/ml), which was indeed concomitant

with increased K562 killing (from 39 to 65%; Figure 5E). *THG1L* KO did not enhance

degranulation as predicted, but unexpectedly, it failed to increase intracellular TNFα (Figure

S4A-B). After synthesis in the cytoplasm, TNFα is translocated to the plasma membrane and

subsequently released via cleavage by a protease. Perhaps in human NK cells *in vitro*, *THG1L*

KO increased TNFα production but also its release, thus canceling the increase in cellular TNFα

pool observed in iMAP-91 mice; the subtle discrepancy between the two systems might reflect

differences in the species (human vs mouse) and/or assay conditions (*in vitro* vs *in vivo*).

Finally, *THG1L* KO did not enhance perforin/granzyme B expression, reinforcing the role of

TNFα in increased killing (Figure S4C).

We conclude that iMAP is applicable to disease models for discovering potential drug targets.

iMAP website

We have constructed a public database for browsing, searching and analyzing iMAP data

(http://49.235.152.12/; Figure S5A). Four key modules are featured: "Heatmap", which displays

interactive *Guide x Tissue* atlases (Figure S5B); "Gene Search", which enables query for the

abundance of guides of interest across tissues (Figure S5C); "Network", which presents an

interactive network of the guides surrounding a guide of interest, with relevant information

indicated, such as fold-changes of the guides, the number of tissues impacted by a guide, the

distances among the guides and the total number of guides connected with a particular guide

(Figure S5D); and "Tissue comparison", which identifies the guides differentially represented

between a pair of selected tissues (Figure S5E). Future efforts should culminate in the creation

of the panoramic Perturbation Atlas covering all the genes across all the cell types at tissue and

single-cell levels.

Discussion

iMAP outperformed pooled *in situ* CRISPR screening

Genome-scale *in situ* CRISPR screening for essential genes using pooled lentiviral sgRNA

libraries have been applied to the mouse brain and liver, offering the opportunity to compare its

performance with that of iMAP. The pooled CRISPR screens uncovered 668 neuronal essential

genes (NEGs) and 661 hepatic essential genes (HEGs)(Keys and Knouse, 2022; Wertz et al.,

2020). Only one of the 668 NEGs was shared in iMAP-91, where the gene (*Thg1l*) was scored

as a CEG, with its guide severely and widely depleted in diverse tissues including the brain

(g86-*Thg1l* in gCluster V; Figure 3D). However, there were 11 other CEGS in iMAP-91, none of

them captured by the brain screen. The brain screen similarly hit only one of 12 CEGs identified

by iMAP-100, as reported before (Liu et al., 2022). Thus, between iMAP-91 and iMAP-100, a

total of 24 CEGs were identified, whose KO was lethal to the brain (and other tissues). However,

the lentiviral brain screen recovered only 8% (2/24) of these CEGs. The hepatic screen is

relatively more effective, recovering 50% (12/24) of the 24 CEGs (Figure 3D and data not

shown), but still misses many other hepatic essential genes identified by iMAP, including the 16

genes in gCluster IV (Figure 3D). In conclusion, iMAP seems substantially more sensitive than

pooled CRISPR screens. The mechanism is unclear. It is noteworthy that our experiments used

iMAP transgenic founder lines where the guide arrays were integrated into loci supportive of

robust gRNA expression (as detected by qRT-PCR). In contrast, in pooled CRISPR screens, the

lentiviral vectors are randomly integrated, presumably resulting in variable gRNA expression

whose levels might be overall below that in iMAP. In addition, iMAP mice were analyzed several

months after TAM administration, whereas the mice in pooled CRISPR screens were analyzed

3-4 weeks after lentiviral transduction, which may be insufficient for editing some target genes.

Complexity of RNA modification factors

Our study sheds light on context-dependent gene functions and also reveals their complexity.

Two issues are particularly noteworthy, each concerning tRNA modifications, as detailed below.

The first issue involves tRNA wobble uridine (U34), whose modification (mcm^5s^2) is important

for accurate translation of a subset of tRNAs(Schaffrath and Leidel, 2017). mcm^5s^2 comprises a

methoxycarbonylmethyl group at C5 position (mcm^5) introduced by ELP1-6 in conjunction with

ALKBH8 and TRMT112, and a thiol group at C2 position (s^2) subsequently introduced by URM1

in conjunction with CTU1/2, with mcm^5 being a prerequisite for s^2 (Figure 3F)(Rapino et al.,

2017). Of note, ELP1-6 forms the Elongator Complex, whose main function is U34 modification

rather than RNA polymerase elongation (Kolaj-Robin and Séraphin, 2017). iMAP-91 targets six

of the 11 factors in the modification pathway, namely *Elp1, Elp3, Ctu1, Urm1, Alkbh8* and

Trmt112. *Elp1/3* KO would eliminate all four modifications (cm^5, mcm^5, mcm^{5}s^2, ncm^5) present

on 11 tRNAs, whereas *Urm1/Ctu1* KO only mcm^{5}s^2 present on three (Figure 3F). Thus, one

might expect stronger phenotypes from *Elp1/3* KO. However, *Urm1/Ctu1* KO is each lethal

(MGI:1915455, 2385277), just like *Elp1/3* KO (MGI: 1914544, 1921445). In agreement with this,

g*Ctu1*/*Urm1* depletion was as severe as g*Elp1/3* across diverse tissues and even far more

severe in spermatogonia, suggesting that *Ctu1*/*Urm1* have functions beyond mcm^{5}s^2 writing. It is

also unusual that although *Alkbh8* is crucial for mcm^{5}s^2 just as *Urm1/Ctu1*, g16-*Alkbh8* was only

weakly depleted, and *Alkbh8* KO mice are alive with at most weak defects despite the complete

loss of mcm^{5}s^2 (Nakai et al., 2024; Songe-Møller et al., 2010). This is perhaps because in

Alkbh8 KO mice, (n)cm5 becomes highly abundant, which might compensate for the loss of

mcm^{5}s^2 (Songe-Møller et al., 2010). In apparent conflict with this speculation, g73-*Trmt112* was

severely depleted contrary to g*Alkbh8*, even though *Trmt112* acts in concert with *Alkbh8* in

writing mcm^5 . The data suggest that *Trmt112* has functions beyond mcm^5 writing and predict

that *Trmt112* KO, which has not been reported, would be lethal.

The second issue regards the KEOPS complex mediating the N6-threonylcarbamoyladenosine

(t6A) modification at A37 of a subset of tRNAs(Srinivasan et al., 2011). KEOPS consists of five

subunits (LAGE3, TPRKB, OSGEP, TRP53RK and GON7) each necessary for efficient t6A

modification, with mutations in human orthologs each lead to Galloway-Mowat syndrome

(GAMOS) characterized by organ anomalies and early death (Braun et al., 2017). However,

although *Tprkb* and *Osgep* KO lead to preweaning lethality reminiscent of GAMOS

(MGI:1917036,1913496), *Lage3* KO mice are viable with only a mild defect (neutrophil number

change) unrelated to GAMOS (MGI:6257568), dovetailing with g38-*Lage3* depletion being much

less conspicuous than g70-*Tprkb*/g79-*Osgep* depletion. Thus, in contrast to man, murine *Lage3*

might be dispensable for t6A, or t6A dispensable for survival, which underscores species-

specificity of KEOPS function. Of note, our study also bears on *Trp53rk* and *Gon7*, whose KO

have not been reported. Specifically, murine TRP53RK is encoded by two genes, *Trp53rka* and

Trp53rkb. g47-*Trp53rkb* (but not g20-*Trp53rka*) clusters with the guides whose target gene KO

is lethal, predicting that *Trp53rkb* (but not *Trp53rka*) KO would likely be lethal. For *Gon7*, two

guides were designed: g85-*Gon7-1* inactivates *Gon7* (together with two other genes), whereas

g29-*Gon7-2* deletes GON7 C-terminal tail (Figure S3C). Guide depletion was widespread for

g85-*Gon7*-1 but restricted to spermatogonia for g*Gon7*-2. Thus, *Gon7*/related genes are

essential for diverse tissues, but the GON7 C-terminus is largely dispensable except for

spermatogonia, highlighting the unusual vulnerability of this cell type.

Therapeutic targets

First, we demonstrated the potential of iMAP in identifying targets for improving human NK-

based therapy. Although the actual candidates emerging from the current screen of 71 RNA

modification factors are limited in both quantity (only two genes) and quality (no/mild

potentiation of NK-mediated killing), larger-scale screens might uncover better candidates,

which in turn necessitates the improvement in iMAP throughput. Our preliminary data suggest

that a 10x-increase in the throughput (from 100 to 1000 guides/mouse line) might be feasible

(not shown).

Second, our study, together with a previous report that global *Alkbh5* KO selectively impacts

spermatogenesis (Zheng et al., 2013), highlights *Qtrt1/2* and *Alkbh5* as appealing male

contraceptive targets.

Finally, our study bears on targeted cancer therapy. Guides targeting mouse orthologs of

human CEGs were in general severely and ubiquitously depleted as expected, but g34-*Trmt5*

was a striking exception, being hardly affected in most tissues (Fig. 3D). This could reflect an

evolutionary divergence in *Trmt5* function (i.e., essential for human but not mice), or more

interestingly, a dichotomy between cancer and normal cells (i.e., cancer but not normal cells is

addicted to *Trmt5*). In the latter scenario, *Trmt5* inhibitors could become cancer drugs that are

broad-spectrum yet safe. Such drugs would be transformative; indeed, eight CEGs have been

FDA-approved as cancer therapy targets, but all of them are indispensable for normal cells, and

their inhibitors are all highly toxic and of limited applications (Rudd, 2023).

Limitations of the study

First, static tissues especially the brain are relatively refractory to Cas9 cleavage and thus prone

to false negatives, which might be addressed using Cas13 which targets RNA. Second, the

editing efficiencies of the guides were not validated *in vitro* except for the representative ones

shown in Figure 3E. High-throughput screening for Cas9 guides, which has become available

(Kim et al., 2020), might address this caveat and improve iMAP performance. Third, the 91-

guide array was constructed years ago, covering all the mouse RNA modification factors known

at the time, but the number has almost doubled since then, necessitating the creation of new

iMAP lines to catch up with the rapid progress in the field.

Acknowledgments   We thank Dr. Kristin A. Knouse for advice, Drs Yong Cang and Peixiang

Ma/Guang Yang for reagents, the Molecular and Cell Biology Core Facility (MCBCF) and the

Molecular Imaging Core Facility (MICF) at the School of Life Science and Technology,

ShanghaiTech University for technical support. This study is supported by National Key R&D

Program of China (#2021YFA1100800, to T.C.) , Open Project of BGI-Shenzhen, Shenzhen

518000, China (#BGIRSZ20220001, to T.C.), and Shanghai Frontiers Science Center for

Biomacromolecules and Precision Medicine at ShanghaiTech University (to T.C.).

Declaration of interests   The authors declare no competing interests.

Data and code availability

All original code has been deposited as an R package at GitHub and can be accessed using the

following link https://github. com/Jing-Zhengyu/iMAP. Any additional information required to

reanalyze the data reported in this paper is available from the lead contact upon request. The

source data and the codes for their plotting, together with the plasmid maps, are available at

https:// github.com/Jing-Zhengyu/Data-of-iMAP.

Methods

Mice

91-guide array, the ensuing transgenic line and iMAP-91 mice were generated as described.

The transgene sequence is available at https://github.com/Jing-Zhengyu/Data-of-iMAP). Inverse

PCR revealed that the transgene was inserted at Chr6:69964770(+) (coordinates based on

Mouse mm 39). The target genes and their guides are listed in Table S1(sheet 1). PCR primers

for determining transgene integration sites, checking transgene integrity, genotyping and P0

guide expression are in Table S1(sheet 2). Animal experiments were approved by the Animal

Ethics Committee at ShanghaiTech, and performed in accordance with the institutional

guidelines.

Perturbation Atlas

TAM treatment, tissue harvesting and PCR-NGS profiling of P0 guide were performed as

described (Liu et al., 2022).

Analysis of gRNA efficiency in N2a cells

We co-transfected vectors expressing gRNA (150 ng) or Cas9 (350 ng) into the mouse neuroblastoma N2a cells cultured on 48-well plates. 72 h post-transfection, we extracted genomic DNA, amplified 500-900-bp regions encompassing the sites targeted by gRNAs using 50 ng genomic DNA as templates. The amplicons were then sequenced using the Sanger method and analyzed using ICE (https://www.synthego.com). PCR primers are listed in Table S1 (sheet 2).

Screens for potential therapeutic targets in tumor-infiltrating NK cells

MC38 mouse colon cancer cells, gift from Yong Cang (ShanghaiTech University), maintained in DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS and 1% penicillin-streptomycin, were detached using 0.25% trypsin, washed with PBS, resuspended at 1×10^6 cells per 100 μl PBS and injected the 100ul subcutaneously into the dorsal flank of 5-8 weeks-old iMAP-91 mice. Tamoxifen was administered via oral gavage (0.6 g/kg) on the day of tumor inoculation. Tumor growth was monitored every 2 days using calipers, and volumes calculated as $(L \times W^2)/2$, where L and W represent the longest and perpendicular diameters, respectively. Tumors were excised when reaching 1–1.5 cm³, which took 18-25 days, minced and digested in RPMI-1640 containing 1 mg/ml collagenase IV (Sigma-Aldrich) and 0.1 mg/ml DNase I (Sigma-Aldrich) for 20–30 minutes at 37°C with gentle agitation. The digested samples were filtered through a 70-μm strainer and cells pelleted by centrifugation at 400 ×g for 5 minutes (4°C). To identify genes controlling degranulation, the cells were stained with the following antibodies: CD45.2-BB700, CD3-PE-Cy7, NK1.1-APC and CD107a-APC-Cy7. $CD45.2^+CD3^-NK1.1^+$ NK cells were sorted into $CD107a^{high}$ (top 30%) and $CD107a^{low/-}$ (bottom 30%) populations using a BD FACS Aria III and analyzed by PCR-NGS. TNFa regulators were similarly identified, except that cells were first stained for CD45.2, CD3 and NK1.1, fixed with BD Cytofix/Cytoperm™ for 20 minutes at 4°C, washed with BD Perm/Wash™ and stained with TNFa-PE. $TNFa^{high}$ (top 30%) and $TNFa^{low/-}$ (bottom 30%) cells were then isolated for PCR-NGS.

Target validation in human NK cells

Human PBMCs (Rubei Biotechnology) were cultured in Corning ® Lymphocyte Serum-free Medium supplemented with 10% FBS, 1% penicillin-streptomycin and 200 U/ml recombinant IL-2 (Novoprotein). NK cells were expanded using an IL-21-based NK Expansion Kit (Zhongwin Biotech) with stimulation on days 0 and 7. NK cell purity (>90% $CD3^-CD56^+$) was confirmed by

flow cytometry on day 10. K562 leukemia cells stably expressing firefly luciferase (gift from
Guang Yang, ShanghaiTech) (Ma et al., 2021) were maintained in RPMI-1640 with 10% FBS
and 1% penicillin-streptomycin under standard conditions. RNP was assembled by incubating
40 pm each of recombinant Cas9 (Sino Biological) and sgRNA or non-targeting control (Table
S1 sheet 3) at 37°C for 15 min. RNP was mixed with $3×10^6$ NK cells resuspended in 20 μl P3
Primary Cell Solution (Lonza) before electroporation using a 4D-Nucleofector™ (program CM-
137). 48 h post-transfection, successful editing was confirmed by PCR-Sanger sequencing, and
NK ($0.2×10^6$ /well) were co-incubated with K562 ($0.4×10^6$ /well) cells for 4-6 h in 96-well plates
in PBMC culture media. To assess K562 lysis, cells were washed with PBS, resuspended in
media containing cell-permeable D-Luciferin potassium salt (150 μg/ml, Beyotime) and
incubated at 37℃ for 5 min before measuring luminescence using an Infinite M200 Pro plate
reader (Tecan) (Ma et al., 2021). The lysis rate was calculated as (1-X/N) %, where X is the
luminescence intensity of K562 cells co-cultured with electroporated NK cells, and N is that of
K562 cells never exposed to NK cells. CD107a and cellular TNFa were detected by FACS,
whereas TNFa secreted to the media by ELISA.

References

Braun, C.J., Adames, A.C., Saur, D., Rad, R., 2022. Tutorial: design and execution of CRISPR in vivo screens.
Nat Protoc 17, 1903—1925. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41596—022—00700—y

Braun, D.A., Rao, J., Mollet, G., Schapiro, D., Daugeron, M.–C., Tan, W., Gribouval, O., Boyer, O., Revy, P.,
Jobst–Schwan, T., Schmidt, J.M., Lawson, J.A., Schanze, D., Ashraf, S., Ullmann, J.F.P., Hoogstraten,
C.A., Boddaert, N., Collinet, B., Martin, G., Liger, D., Lovric, S., Furlano, M., Guerrera, I.C., Sanchez–
Ferras, O., Hu, J.F., Boschat, A.–C., Sanquer, S., Menten, B., Vergult, S., De Rocker, N., Airik, M.,
Hermle, T., Shril, S., Widmeier, E., Gee, H.Y., Choi, W.–I., Sadowski, C.E., Pabst, W.L., Warejko, J.K.,
Daga, A., Basta, T., Matejas, V., Scharmann, K., Kienast, S.D., Behnam, B., Beeson, B., Begtrup, A.,
Bruce, M., Ch'ng, G.–S., Lin, S.–P., Chang, J.–H., Chen, C.–H., Cho, M.T., Gaffney, P.M., Gipson, P.E.,
Hsu, C.–H., Kari, J.A., Ke, Y.–Y., Kiraly–Borri, C., Lai, W., Lemyre, E., Littlejohn, R.O., Masri, A.,
Moghtaderi, M., Nakamura, K., Ozaltin, F., Praet, M., Prasad, C., Prytula, A., Roeder, E.R., Rump, P.,
Schnur, R.E., Shiihara, T., Sinha, M.D., Soliman, N.A., Soulami, K., Sweetser, D.A., Tsai, W.–H., Tsai, J.–
D., Topaloglu, R., Vester, U., Viskochil, D.H., Vatanavicharn, N., Waxler, J.L., Wierenga, K.J., Wolf,
M.T.F., Wong, S.–N., Leidel, S.A., Truglio, G., Dedon, P.C., Poduri, A., Mane, S., Lifton, R.P., Bouchard,
M., Kannu, P., Chitayat, D., Magen, D., Callewaert, B., van Tilbeurgh, H., Zenker, M., Antignac, C.,
Hildebrandt, F., 2017. Mutations in KEOPS–complex genes cause nephrotic syndrome with primary
microcephaly. Nat Genet 49, 1529—1538. https://doi.org/10.1038/ng.3933

Cai, H., Winslow, M.M., 2022. A new system for multiplexed mosaic analysis of gene function in the mouse.
Cell Reports Methods 2, 100295. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.crmeth.2022.100295

Cappannini, A., Ray, A., Purta, E., Mukherjee, S., Boccaletto, P., Moafinejad, S.N., Lechner, A., Barchet, C.,
Klaholz, B.P., Stefaniak, F., Bujnicki, J.M., 2024. MODOMICS: a database of RNA modifications and
related information. 2023 update. Nucleic Acids Res 52, D239—D244.
https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkad1083

Chow, R.D., Chen, S., 2018. Cancer CRISPR screens in vivo. Trends Cancer 4, 349—358.
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trecan.2018.03.002

Coënon, L., Geindreau, M., Ghiringhelli, F., Villalba, M., Bruchard, M., 2024. Natural Killer cells at the frontline in
the fight against cancer. Cell Death Dis 15, 1—14. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41419—024—06976—0

Cui, L., Ma, R., Cai, J., Guo, C., Chen, Z., Yao, L., Wang, Y., Fan, R., Wang, X., Shi, Y., 2022. RNA modifications:
importance in immune cell biology and related diseases. Sig Transduct Target Ther 7, 1—26.
https://doi.org/10.1038/s41392—022—01175—9

Fallon, T.K., Knouse, K.A., 2025. A roadmap toward genome—wide CRISPR screening throughout the organism.
Cell Genom 5, 100777. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.xgen.2025.100777

González—Flores, D., Rodríguez, A.B., Pariente, J.A., 2014. TNFα—induced apoptosis in human myeloid cell lines
HL—60 and K562 is dependent of intracellular ROS generation. Mol Cell Biochem 390, 281—287.
https://doi.org/10.1007/s11010—014—1979—5

Hart, T., Tong, A.H.Y., Chan, K., Leeuwen, J.V., Seetharaman, A., Aregger, M., Chandrashekhar, M., Hustedt, N.,
Seth, S., Noonan, A., Habsid, A., Sizova, O., Nedyalkova, L., Climie, R., Tworzyanski, L., Lawson, K.,
Sartori, M.A., Alibeh, S., Tieu, D., Masud, S., Mero, P., Weiss, A., Brown, K.R., Usaj, M., Billmann, M.,
Rahman, M., Costanzo, M., Myers, C.L., Andrews, B.J., Boone, C., Durocher, D., Moffat, J., 2017.
Evaluation and Design of Genome—Wide CRISPR/SpCas9 Knockout Screens. G3: Genes, Genomes,
Genetics 7, 2719—2727. https://doi.org/10.1534/g3.117.041277

Jin, X., Simmons, S.K., Guo, A., Shetty, A.S., Ko, M., Nguyen, L., Jokhi, V., Robinson, E., Oyler, P., Curry, N.,
Deangeli, G., Lodato, S., Levin, J.Z., Regev, A., Zhang, F., Arlotta, P., 2020. In vivo Perturb—Seq reveals
neuronal and glial abnormalities associated with autism risk genes. Science 370.
https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aaz6063

Johannsson, S., Neumann, P., Ficner, R., 2018. Crystal Structure of the Human tRNA Guanine Transglycosylase
Catalytic Subunit QTRT1. Biomolecules 8, 81. https://doi.org/10.3390/biom8030081

Joung, J., Konermann, S., Gootenberg, J.S., Abudayyeh, O.O., Platt, R.J., Brigham, M.D., Sanjana, N.E., Zhang,
F., 2017. Genome—scale CRISPR—Cas9 knockout and transcriptional activation screening. Nature
Protocols 12, 828—863. https://doi.org/10.1038/nprot.2017.016

Keys, H.R., Knouse, K.A., 2022. Genome—scale CRISPR screening in a single mouse liver. Cell Genom 2, 100217.
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.xgen.2022.100217

Kim, H.K., Lee, S., Kim, Y., Park, J., Min, S., Choi, J.W., Huang, T.P., Yoon, S., Liu, D.R., Kim, H.H., 2020. High—
throughput analysis of the activities of xCas9, SpCas9—NG and SpCas9 at matched and mismatched
target sequences in human cells. Nat Biomed Eng 4, 111—124. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41551—019—
0505—1

Kolaj–Robin, O., Séraphin, B., 2017. Structures and Activities of the Elongator Complex and Its Cofactors.
Enzymes 41, 117—149. https://doi.org/10.1016/bs.enz.2017.03.001

Kuhn, M., Santinha, A.J., Platt, R.J., 2021. Moving from in vitro to in vivo CRISPR screens. Gene and Genome
Editing 2, 100008. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ggedit.2021.100008

Ladang, A., Rapino, F., Heukamp, L.C., Tharun, L., Shostak, K., Hermand, D., Delaunay, S., Klevernic, I., Jiang, Z.,
Jacques, N., Jamart, D., Migeot, V., Florin, A., Göktuna, S., Malgrange, B., Sansom, O.J., Nguyen, L.,
Büttner, R., Close, P., Chariot, A., 2015. Elp3 drives Wnt–dependent tumor initiation and regeneration
in the intestine. J Exp Med 212, 2057—2075. https://doi.org/10.1084/jem.20142288

Li, J., Wang, L., Hahn, Q., Nowak, R.P., Viennet, T., Orellana, E.A., Roy Burman, S.S., Yue, H., Hunkeler, M.,
Fontana, P., Wu, H., Arthanari, H., Fischer, E.S., Gregory, R.I., 2023. Structural basis of regulated m7G
tRNA modification by METTL1—WDR4. Nature 613, 391—397. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586–022–
05566–4

Liu, B., Jing, Z., Zhang, X., Chen, Y., Mao, S., Kaundal, R., Zou, Y., Wei, G., Zang, Y., Wang, X., Lin, W., Di, M.,
Sun, Y., Chen, Q., Li, Y., Xia, J., Sun, J., Lin, C.–P., Huang, X., Chi, T., 2022. Large–scale multiplexed
mosaic CRISPR perturbation in the whole organism. Cell 185, 3008–3024.e16.
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2022.06.039

Ma, P., Ren, P., Zhang, C., Tang, J., Yu, Z., Zhu, X., Fan, K., Li, G., Zhu, W., Sang, W., Min, C., Chen, W., Huang,
X., Yang, G., Lerner, R.A., 2021. Avidity-Based Selection of Tissue-Specific CAR-T Cells from a
Combinatorial Cellular Library of CARs. Adv Sci (Weinh) 8, 2003091.
https://doi.org/10.1002/advs.202003091

Maskalenko, N.A., Zhigarev, D., Campbell, K.S., 2022. Harnessing natural killer cells for cancer immunotherapy:
dispatching the first responders. Nat Rev Drug Discov 21, 559—577. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41573–
022–00413–7

Nakai, M., Hase, H., Zhao, Y., Okawa, K., Honda, K., Ikuma, K., Kitae, K., Tsujikawa, K., 2024. RNA–modifying
enzyme Alkbh8 is involved in mouse embryonic development. iScience 27, 110777.
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.isci.2024.110777

Noguchi, Y., Onodera, Y., Miyamoto, T., Maruoka, M., Kosako, H., Suzuki, J., 2024. In vivo CRISPR screening
directly targeting testicular cells. Cell Genom 4, 100510. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.xgen.2024.100510

Park, K.–H., Park, H., Kim, M., Kim, Y., Han, K., Oh, E.–J., n.d. Evaluation of NK Cell Function by
Flowcytometric Measurement and Impedance Based Assay Using Real-Time Cell Electronic Sensing
System. https://doi.org/10.1155/2013/210726

Qiu, L., Jing, Q., Li, Y., Han, J., 2023. RNA modification: mechanisms and therapeutic targets. Mol Biomed 4,
25. https://doi.org/10.1186/s43556–023–00139–x

Rakovich, T., Boland, C., Bernstein, I., Chikwana, V.M., Iwata–Reuyl, D., Kelly, V.P., 2011. Queuosine deficiency
in eukaryotes compromises tyrosine production through increased tetrahydrobiopterin oxidation. J Biol
Chem 286, 19354—19363. https://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.M111.219576

Rapino, F., Delaunay, S., Zhou, Z., Chariot, A., Close, P., 2017. tRNA Modification: Is Cancer Having a Wobble?
Trends Cancer 3, 249—252. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trecan.2017.02.004

Regev, A., Teichmann, S.A., Lander, E.S., Amit, I., Benoist, C., Birney, E., Bodenmiller, B., Campbell, P., Carninci,
P., Clatworthy, M., Clevers, H., Deplancke, B., Dunham, I., Eberwine, J., Eils, R., Enard, W., Farmer, A.,
Fugger, L., Göttgens, B., Hacohen, N., Haniffa, M., Hemberg, M., Kim, S., Klenerman, P., Kriegstein, A.,
Lein, E., Linnarsson, S., Lundberg, E., Lundeberg, J., Majumder, P., Marioni, J.C., Merad, M., Mhlanga,
M., Nawijn, M., Netea, M., Nolan, G., Pe'er, D., Phillipakis, A., Ponting, C.P., Quake, S., Reik, W.,
Rozenblatt–Rosen, O., Sanes, J., Satija, R., Schumacher, T.N., Shalek, A., Shapiro, E., Sharma, P., Shin,
J.W., Stegle, O., Stratton, M., Stubbington, M.J.T., Theis, F.J., Uhlen, M., van Oudenaarden, A., Wagner,
A., Watt, F., Weissman, J., Wold, B., Xavier, R., Yosef, N., Human Cell Atlas Meeting Participants, 2017.
The Human Cell Atlas. Elife 6, e27041. https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.27041
Rogers, Z.N., McFarland, C.D., Winters, I.P., Naranjo, S., Chuang, C.–H., Petrov, D., Winslow, M.M., 2017. A
quantitative and multiplexed approach to uncover the fitness landscape of tumor suppression in vivo.
Nat. Methods 14, 737–742. https://doi.org/10.1038/nmeth.4297
Rogers, Z.N., McFarland, C.D., Winters, I.P., Seoane, J.A., Brady, J.J., Yoon, S., Curtis, C., Petrov, D.A., Winslow,
M.M., 2018. Mapping the in vivo fitness landscape of lung adenocarcinoma tumor suppression in mice.
Nat. Genet. 50, 483–486. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41588–018–0083–2
Rood, J.E., Hupalowska, A., Regev, A., 2024. Toward a foundation model of causal cell and tissue biology with
a Perturbation Cell and Tissue Atlas. Cell 187, 4520–4545. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2024.07.035
Rood, J.E., Maartens, A., Hupalowska, A., Teichmann, S.A., Regev, A., 2022. Impact of the Human Cell Atlas on
medicine. Nat Med 28, 2486–2496. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41591–022–02104–7
Rudd, S.G., 2023. Targeting pan–essential pathways in cancer with cytotoxic chemotherapy: challenges and
opportunities. Cancer Chemother Pharmacol 92, 241–251. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00280–023–
04562–3
Santinha, A.J., Klingler, E., Kuhn, M., Farouni, R., Lagler, S., Kalamakis, G., Lischetti, U., Jabaudon, D., Platt,
R.J., 2023. Transcriptional linkage analysis with in vivo AAV–Perturb–seq. Nature 622, 367–375.
https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586–023–06570–y
Schaffrath, R., Leidel, S.A., 2017. Wobble uridine modifications–a reason to live, a reason to die?! RNA Biol 14,
1209–1222. https://doi.org/10.1080/15476286.2017.1295204
Schmucker, S., Martelli, A., Colin, F., Page, A., Wattenhofer–Donzé, M., Reutenauer, L., Puccio, H., 2011.
Mammalian Frataxin: An Essential Function for Cellular Viability through an Interaction with a
Preformed ISCU/NFS1/ISD11 Iron–Sulfur Assembly Complex. PLoS One 6, e16199.
https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0016199
Shi, H., Doench, J.G., Chi, H., 2023. CRISPR screens for functional interrogation of immunity. Nat Rev Immunol
23, 363–380. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41577–022–00802–4
Sievers, K., Neumann, P., Sušac, L., Da Vela, S., Graewert, M., Trowitzsch, S., Svergun, D., Tampé, R., Ficner, R.,
2024. Structural and functional insights into tRNA recognition by human tRNA guanine
transglycosylase. Structure 32, 316–327.e5. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.str.2023.12.006
Songe–Møller, L., van den Born, E., Leihne, V., Vågbø, C.B., Kristoffersen, T., Krokan, H.E., Kirpekar, F., Falnes,
P.Ø., Klungland, A., 2010. Mammalian ALKBH8 possesses tRNA methyltransferase activity required for

the biogenesis of multiple wobble uridine modifications implicated in translational decoding. Mol Cell

Biol 30, 1814–1827. https://doi.org/10.1128/MCB.01602–09

Srinivasan, M., Mehta, P., Yu, Y., Prugar, E., Koonin, E.V., Karzai, A.W., Sternglanz, R., 2011. The highly

conserved KEOPS/EKC complex is essential for a universal tRNA modification, t6A. EMBO J 30, 873–

881. https://doi.org/10.1038/emboj.2010.343

Sun, Y., Lin, W., Kaundal, R., Chi, T., 2023. iMAPping the Perturb–Atlas. Life Medicine 2, lnac057.

https://doi.org/10.1093/lifemedi/lnac057

Wang, P., Doxtader, K.A., Nam, Y., 2016. Structural Basis for Cooperative Function of Mettl3 and Mettl14

Methyltransferases. Mol Cell 63, 306–317. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.molcel.2016.05.041

Wang, Y., Wang, Jing, Li, X., Xiong, X., Wang, Jianyi, Zhou, Z., Zhu, X., Gu, Y., Dominissini, D., He, L., Tian, Y.,

Yi, C., Fan, Z., 2021. N1–methyladenosine methylation in tRNA drives liver tumourigenesis by regulating

cholesterol metabolism. Nat Commun 12, 6314. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467–021–26718–6

Wertz, M.H., Mitchem, M.R., Pineda, S.S., Hachigian, L.J., Lee, H., Lau, V., Powers, A., Kulicke, R., Madan, G.K.,

Colic, M., Therrien, M., Vernon, A., Beja–Glasser, V.F., Hegde, M., Gao, F., Kellis, M., Hart, T., Doench,

J.G., Heiman, M., 2020. Genome–wide In Vivo CNS Screening Identifies Genes that Modify CNS

Neuronal Survival and mHTT Toxicity. Neuron 106, 76–89.e8.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2020.01.004

Wu, Y., Wei, F.–Y., Kawarada, L., Suzuki, Takeo, Araki, K., Komohara, Y., Fujimura, A., Kaitsuka, T., Takeya, M.,

Oike, Y., Suzuki, Tsutomu, Tomizawa, K., 2016. Mtu1–Mediated Thiouridine Formation of Mitochondrial

tRNAs Is Required for Mitochondrial Translation and Is Involved in Reversible Infantile Liver Injury.

PLOS Genetics 12, e1006355. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgen.1006355

Yi, C., Yang, J., 2023. RNA Modifications and Epitranscriptomics. Genomics, Proteomics & Bioinformatics 21,

675–677. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gpb.2023.10.002

Zheng, G., Dahl, J.A., Niu, Y., Fedorcsak, P., Huang, C.–M., Li, C.J., Vågbø, C.B., Shi, Y., Wang, W.–L., Song, S.–

H., Lu, Z., Bosmans, R.P.G., Dai, Q., Hao, Y.–J., Yang, X., Zhao, W.–M., Tong, W.–M., Wang, X.–J.,

Bogdan, F., Furu, K., Fu, Y., Jia, G., Zhao, X., Liu, J., Krokan, H.E., Klungland, A., Yang, Y.–G., He, C.,

2013. ALKBH5 is a mammalian RNA demethylase that impacts RNA metabolism and mouse fertility.

Mol Cell 49, 18–29. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.molcel.2012.10.015

Zheng, X., Wu, B., Liu, Y., Simmons, S.K., Kim, K., Clarke, G.S., Ashiq, A., Park, J., Li, J., Wang, Z., Tong, L.,

Wang, Q., Rajamani, K.T., Muñoz–Castañeda, R., Mu, S., Qi, T., Zhang, Y., Ngiam, Z.C., Ohte, N.,

Hanashima, C., Wu, Z., Xu, X., Levin, J.Z., Jin, X., 2024. Massively parallel in vivo Perturb–seq reveals

cell–type–specific transcriptional networks in cortical development. Cell 187, 3236–3248.e21.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2024.04.050

Fig. 1

Figure 1. Strategy for minimizing recombination bias

(A) First-generation iMAP transgene. Lox71 and TC9 are LoxP variants embedded in the U6 promoter and precede each gRNA-coding gene ("guide"), respectively. The guide at Position 0 (P0) is g*Cd19* (not shown). The last guide (g*Cd47*) facilitates PCR-NGS quantification of recombined products. Following recombination between Lox71 and a LoxTC9 preceding a guide, the intervening sequence is deleted, re-locating the guide to P0 for transcription. The recombination between Lox71 and the series of LoxTC9 sites is biased toward the proximal LoxTC9 sites except the first site, perhaps due to steric hindrance created by the transcription machinery at U6 promoter.

(B) Optimized configuration. The "stuffer" harbors an expression cassette for monitoring U6 promoter activity, which proved unsuccessful (Figure S1D). The guide at Position 0(P0) is g*Cd19* (not shown). The target genes and gRNAs are listed in Table S1.

Figure 2. Improved guide representation in the optimized iMAP transgene
(A) P0 guide profiles as a function of recombination extents. *100-guide; Cre* (top) or *91-guide; Cre* (bottom) mice were treated with increasing doses of TAM before analysis of various organs, and samples with progressive recombination, as measured by *gCd19* deletion, are selected for display. Shown is the relative abundance of individual guide among all P0 guides, with each line representing a sample. The guides are arranged according to their positions on the array. An ID number is appended to each guide if several guides are designed for the same genes. Two identical non-targeting guides (50-NC5, 51-NC5) were inadvertently built into the *91-guide* array. The colored bar at the bottom specifies the groups of guides whose abundance is analyzed in B. Source data in Table S2.
(B) Same as A, but displays the guides as groups defined by the colored bar in A. The values above the pies indicate the extent of *gCd19* deletion; e.g., the third pie shows 70% of *gCd19* survived recombination, translating to 30% deletion. The upper and lower pie charts are paired.
(C) Same as B but displays guide abundance relative to all the re-arranged P0 guides (hence with *gCd19* excluded), which better exposes the bias in recombination. The dotted lines denote the theoretical guide abundance if the recombination is absolutely even.
(D) Same as A, but compares a pair of samples with 76% recombination from the two mouse lines. The inset displays the distal and hence low-abundance guides.
(E) Monte Carlo simulation of guide detectability as a function of number of the cells sampled. The simulation is based on actual guide representation after recombination (#1-2) or viral transduction (#4; data averaged from two lentiviral libraries reported in (Uijttewaal et al., 2024)).

Fig. 3

A Testis

Control 0.09g 0.10g
iMAP-91 0.05g 0.06g

B

49% 50% 0.1%
74% 23% 3.0%

Frequency(%)
log₂ Fold change

C

63-*Rpusd4* 15-*Trdmt1* 48-*Snu13* 62-*Trmu*

Fold change

Tissue code: 01 02 03 02 03 02 03

D

shRNA-brain(Wertz 2020)
CRISPR-brain(Wertz 2020)
CRISPR-liver(Keys 2022)
CEG2(human tumor, Hart 2017)

Fold change ≥1 ... 0

A:
01-Eyeball
02-Cerebellum(central part)
03-Cerebellum(flocculus)
04-Hippocampal formation
05-Cerebral cortex
06-Hypothalamus
07-Brain stem
08-Olfactory bulb
09-Optic nerve

B:
10-Heart
11-Muscle
12-Thyroid
13-Brown fat(bFat)
14-Mesenteric fat(mFat)
15-Salivary gland
16-Tail skin dermis
17-Ear lobe
18-Lung
19-Perigonadal fat(pFat)
20-Skin
21-Kidney
22-Liver

C:
23-Crude tail
24-Tongue
25-Tail epidermis

D:
26-Large intestine(basal layer)
27-Small intestine(basal layer)
28-Small intestine(epithelium)
29-Large intestine(epithelium)

E:
30-LN Treg
31-Spleen Treg
32-Spleen CD4 effector/memory(E/M)
33-LN NK
34-Spleen NK
35-LN
36-Spleen
37-Spleen CD8 central memory(CM)
38-Spleen CD8 effector/memory(E/M)
39-Whole blood
40-Spleen CD8 naive
41-Spleen CD4 naive

F:
42-Spermatogonia
43-Leptotene/Zygotene(L/Z)
44-Pachytene/Diplotene(P/D)
45-Meiosis II(MII)
46-Round spermatid(RS)

Clusters: I II III IV V

E

Indel(%)

09-Adat1, 12-Ftsj1, 21-Fto-2, 25-Trmt10b, 28-Qtrt2, 29-Gon7-2, 34-Trmt5, 40-Nsun2, 41-Fto-1, 48-Snu13, 58-Dimt1, 82-Polr2a, 87-Mettl16

F

U₃₄ → (ELP1-6) → cm⁵

cm⁵ → (ALKBH8 TRMT112) → mcm⁵ → (URM1 CTU1/2) → mcm⁵s²

tRNA #1-2 ... tRNA #9-11

cm⁵ → ? → ncm⁵ tRNA #3-8

tRNA
#1G(UCC), #2R(UCU), #3A(UGC)
#4L(UAA), #5P(UGG), #6S(UGA)
#7T(UGU), #8V(UAC), #9E(UUC)
#10K(UUU), #11Q(UUG)

G

%

Cluster: I II III IV V
alive / lethal
6 4 5 9 9
1 1 17

Figure 3. iMAP-91 characterization

(A) Atrophic testes.

(B) Frequency distribution of the fold-changes for the 79 targeting (pink) and eight NC (cyan) guides across 46 tissues. Black lines mark 2-fold changes, whereas the green lines indicate the 5th and 95th percentiles of gNC values.

(C) Guide enrichment. Tissue code 01, 02, 03 refers to eyeball, cerebellar central part and cerebellar flocculus, respectively, as specified in (D). Values are mean ± SD. *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p< 0.001, Student's t-test.

(D) Cluster analysis of guide depletion. Displayed are 87 guides comprising all the guides targeting the 71 RNA modification factors together with all the gNC except the inadvertently duplicated one. Essentiality of the 71 genes per literature is indicated at the top of the heatmap, where shRNA-brain and CRISPR-brain refer to, respectively, the shRNA- and sgRNA-based genomewide *in situ* screens for neuronal essential genes in the mouse striatum (Wertz et al., 2020), CRISPR-liver is a genomewide *in situ* screen for liver essential genes (Keys and Knouse, 2022), and CEG2 the core essential gene set identified in human tumor cell lines (Hart et al., 2017). CEG2 guides are colored pink. The data points are averaged from 2 to 6 (mostly 5-6) biological replicates.Source data in Table S3.

(E) Editing rates of representative gRNAs selected from iMAP-91. gRNAs and Cas9 were co-expressed in N2a cells in duplicates before indel quantification.

(F) Cascade reaction leading to tRNA-U34 modifications (Rapino et al., 2017b).

(G) Guide clustering coincides with the phenotypes of global single-gene KO mice. Analyzed are the genes whose KO phenotypes are available from MGI. The number of genes in each category is indicated. Source data in Table S3 (sheet 2).

Figure 4. Mining the heatmap data
(A-D) Comparing tissue pairs. Shown are differentially represented guides (top) and their absolute abundance normalized to *91-guide; Cre* control mice (bottom). Red and green dots within the top plots indicate significant enrichment and depletion, respectively (fold-change> 2, p<0.05).
(E) Guide depletion during spermatogenesis. Same as A-D, but focusing on the male germline.
(F) Germline-specific guide depletion. Values are mean ± SD, n = 15–227, each data point being a guide -tissue-replicate combination. ****p < 0.0001.

Figure 5. Screening and validation of NK regulators

(A-B) Genetic screens for NK regulators in tumor-bearing iMAP-91 mice. Tumor-infiltrating cells were stained for CD45.2, CD3 and NK1.1 together with CD107a (top plot) or intracellular TNFα (bottom plot) before indicated NK subsets were isolated by flow cytometry and analyzed by NGS. Source data in Table S3 (sheet 3).

(C) Workflow for target validation in human NK cells *in vitro*.

(D-E) Successful editing and its effects on NK function for *YTHDC1* (D) and *THG1L* (E). The data are from a single experiment, with a biological replicate shown in Figure S4D. *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p< 0.001, Student's t-test.

Figure S1. Basic features of the *91-guide* transgenic line, related to Figure 2

(A) qRT-PCR quantification of *gCd19* expression in two transgenic lines. Line #1 was selected for further experiments.

(B) Little U6 promoter CpG methylation at the U6 promoter. The *31-guide* transgene inserted into the H11 locus (red) serves as a positive control (Liu et al., 2022).

(C) PCR analysis of transgene integrity. The three overlapping amplicons are diagrammed. The mice were *91-guide; Cas9* of the F14 generation.

(D) FACS analysis showing mScarlet and BFP expression in peripheral blood cells. The two reporter proteins were expressed from the H1 promoter in the stuffer and the CAG promoter downstream of the *91-guide* transgene, respectively. Both promoters are driven by RNA Pol II, contrary to the RNA Pol III-dependent U6 promoter. Together with the fact that U6 promoter was active in this line (Figure S1A), the data reinforce the dichotomy in chromatin environment requirements for Pol II versus Pol III promoters (Liu et al., 2022).

(E) P0 guide composition of all the *91-guide; Cas9* samples, a subset of them used in Figure 2A (bottom). Source data in Table S2 (sheet 3).

Figure S2. High replicate reproducibility of the NGS data in Figure 3
A total of 46 tissues, each with 2–6 (mostly 5-6) replicates, were sampled from six mice for profiling the targeting (pink) and NC (cyan) guides. The scatter plots and the histograms display pairwise comparisons and frequency distribution of the data points, respectively. Source data in Table S3 (sheet 1).

Figure S3. Analyzing different guides targeting the same genes, related to Figure 3D.
(A) Consistent depletion patterns of different guides designed to create null alleles of the same target genes. Of note, the two guides targeting *Ythdf1* (g17-18) closely co-segregated except that in the male germ cells (Tissue #42-46, pink), g17 (but not g16) was mildly enriched (<1.5x relative to NC). The discrepancy suggests off-target effects, reminiscent of the mild enrichment of g*Polr2a* in the testis in iMAP-61 line (Liu et al., 2022).
(B) Distinct depletion patterns of guides creating hypomorphic vs null *Fto* allele. FTO is 502-aa protein encoded by 9 exons. g41-*Fto*-1 is predicted to truncate FTO at ~aa128 to fully inactivate the protein, whereas g21-*Fto*-2 would likely cause Exon2-skipping by destroying its splicing donor, thus creating a partially active FTO mutant lacking the 26-aa fragment.
(C) Distinct depletion patterns of guides creating hypomorphic vs null *Gon7* allele. GON7 is 98-aa protein encoded by two exons, the first shared with two related genes (Gm20604, 28051). g85-*Gon7*-1 is predicted to fully inactivate *Gon7* together with the two related genes, whereas g29-*Gon7*-2 would likely create a partially active mutant lacking a~13-aa tail. g29-*Gon7*-2 was selectively depleted in male germ cells (Tissue #42-46, pink).

Figure S4. Target validation in human NK cells, related to Figure 5E
(A-C) Additional data from the experiment in Figure 5E.
(D) A biological replicate of the experiment in Figure 5D-E, showing the same trend.

Fig. S5

Figure S5. Snapshots of the iMAP database
(A) Home page.
(B) Heatmap view, displaying guide abundance across tissues. Actual fold-changes can be displayed by clicking on data points. One can also select a region of interest and zoom in.
(C) Search result for the abundance of guides of interest across diverse tissues.
(D) Search result for the network of guides surrounding a guide of interest. Each dot represents a guide. The color and size signify fold-change and the numbers of tissues affected, respectively. Additional information can be displayed by clicking on the guides and the lines connecting the guides.
(E) Search result for differentially represented guides between a pair of tissues.