Genome-wide screening reveals producer-cell modifications that

improve virus-like particle production and delivery potency

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Abstract

Engineered virus-like particles (eVLPs) are promising vehicles for transient delivery of gene editing agents. While extensive particle optimization has yielded efficient eVLPs, it remains underexplored whether engineering the cells used to produce eVLPs could further improve eVLP properties. We developed a genome-wide screening approach to systematically investigate how genetic perturbations in producer cells influence eVLP production, and we applied this approach to identify several genes that regulate eVLP cargo expression and loading into particles during the production process. Leveraging these insights, we engineered producer cells that support increased eVLP cargo packaging and a 2- to 9-fold increase in eVLP delivery potency across several cargo, particle, and target-cell types in cultured cells and in mice. Our findings suggest the potential of producer-cell engineering as a useful strategy for improving the utility of eVLPs and related delivery methods.

Methods for safely and efficiently delivering macromolecules into cells in culture (*in vitro*) and within the body (*in vivo*) are required for many therapeutic strategies, including gene editing therapies[1-5]. Recently, virus-like particles (VLPs) have emerged as promising vehicles for therapeutic macromolecule delivery that combine key advantages of canonical viral and non-viral delivery strategies[1,6]. In typical VLPs, viral scaffold proteins are used to package and deliver cargo proteins, ribonucleoproteins (RNPs), or mRNAs instead of viral genetic material, which leads to transient cargo delivery into recipient cells[1,6]. Several VLP-based delivery methods have proven particularly effective for gene editing applications[7-23] and offer an ideal combination of efficient on-target editing, minimal off-target editing, and programmable cell-type targeting capabilities. Current state-of-the-art VLPs, including engineered VLPs (eVLPs)[7,8,22], have achieved efficient *in vitro* gene editing in primary human cells and therapeutic *in vivo* gene editing in the mouse liver and retina, highlighting the utility of eVLP delivery for research and potential therapeutic applications.

While extensive engineering of eVLP components and particle architectures has afforded efficient eVLPs[7,8,22], further improvements to eVLP properties are still required to maximize their prospects for clinical translation. In particular, improving eVLP cargo packaging per particle or overall particle yield from the eVLP production process would enable more efficient gene editing with lower eVLP doses and simplify the production of eVLPs for large-scale studies. Standard methods for producing eVLPs involve the use of human producer cells to express eVLP components and assemble functional particles[7,8,22], suggesting that producer cells likely play an important role in the eVLP production process. However, previous studies have focused solely on particle engineering to improve eVLP properties, and none have explored whether producer-cell engineering could improve eVLP properties beyond what can be achieved through particle engineering alone. In this study, we systematically investigated how genetic perturbations in producer cells influence eVLP production and applied our findings to engineer producer cells that support improved eVLP production and delivery potency.

We began by developing an unbiased genome-wide screening approach to identify genetic perturbations in producer cells that influence eVLP production (Fig. 1a). We envisioned a general scheme in which eVLP production is initiated from a pool of

genetically perturbed producer cells. Each producer cell in this pool expresses a Cas9-
based genome modifying agent and a single copy of a guide RNA (sgRNA) that directs
the installation of a specific genetic perturbation into that particular cell (Fig. 1a). Because
eVLPs package Cas9-based cargos, the perturbation-inducing sgRNA expressed in a
given producer cell is also loaded into any particles produced by that particular cell (Fig.
1a). Therefore, the abundance of a particular sgRNA in eVLPs reflects how the
corresponding genetic perturbation influences eVLP production or cargo loading: sgRNAs
that are more abundant identify perturbations that increase eVLP production or cargo
loading, while sgRNAs that are less abundant identify perturbations that decrease eVLP
production or cargo loading (Fig. 1a).

We used this general approach to perform a genome-wide knockout screen for
cargo-loaded eVLP production in Gesicle 293T producer cells, a standard cell line used
for eVLP production[7,8,22]. We transduced producer cells at a low multiplicity of infection
(MOI) with a lentiviral sgRNA library containing 98,077 unique sgRNAs targeting 19,707
genes across the human genome[24] (Extended Data Fig. 1a). Each vector in the library
also encoded constitutive expression of Cas9 nuclease. After selecting for Cas9
expression and expanding the transduced cells to generate a pool of single-knockout
producer cells, we initiated fourth-generation (v4) base editor (BE)-eVLP production from
these cells (Extended Data Fig. 1a). Importantly, to initiate eVLP production, we only
transfected plasmids encoding the expression of adenine base editor (ABE8e)-packaging
v4-eVLP protein components: (1) the gag–ABE (capsid–cargo) fusion, (2) the Moloney
murine leukemia virus (MMLV) gag–pro–pol polyprotein, and (3) the vesicular stomatitis
virus G (VSV-G) envelope protein. No additional sgRNA-encoding plasmid was
transfected, ensuring that all eVLPs produced from a given producer cell packaged cargo
containing the specific knockout-inducing sgRNA that was already introduced into that
producer cell by lentiviral transduction (Fig. 1a and Extended Data Fig. 1a).

Following eVLP production, we isolated RNA from purified eVLPs and compared
this eVLP-packaged RNA to cellular RNA that was isolated from the single-knockout
producer-cell pool immediately prior to eVLP production (Fig. 1a and Extended Data Fig.
1a). To compare sgRNA abundances across both populations, we subjected both RNA
pools to template-switching reverse transcription[25], which enabled amplification and

sequencing of the spacer sequence at the 5' end of each sgRNA molecule (Extended
Data Fig. 1b). sgRNAs that are more abundant in the eVLP-packaged RNA compared to
the producer-cell RNA identify gene knockouts that increase eVLP production or cargo
loading, while sgRNAs that are less abundant identify gene knockouts that decrease
eVLP production or cargo loading (Fig. 1a and Extended Data Fig. 1a).

By aggregating the results for all sgRNAs targeting the same gene into gene-level
phenotypes, we determined the effect of each producer-cell gene knockout on eVLP
production or cargo loading (Fig. 1b and Extended Data Fig. 1c). We observed that the
majority of gene knockouts did not substantially impact eVLP production or cargo loading,
some knockouts decreased eVLP production or cargo loading, and very few knockouts
increased eVLP production or cargo loading (Fig. 1b). These results are consistent with
a model in which there are more genes in producer cells that positively regulate eVLP
production than genes that negatively regulate eVLP production. Taken together, the
results of this genome-wide knockout screen illuminate the producer-cell determinants of
eVLP production and nominate several gene knockouts ("hits") that appear to strongly
impact eVLP production or cargo loading (Fig. 1b).

Next, we sought to characterize the gene knockouts that most strongly decreased
eVLP production or cargo loading. The three strongest negative hits from our screen—
MPP8, *TASOR*, and *MORC2*—are all associated with the human silencing hub (HUSH)
complex, which is responsible for epigenetically silencing intronless transgenes, including
retroviral elements[26,27]. We first individually validated each negative hit by measuring the
relative sgRNA abundance in eVLPs produced from *MPP8*-, *TASOR*-, or *MORC2*-
knockout cells (hereafter collectively referred to as HUSH-knockout cells) compared to
eVLPs produced from standard producer cells. To independently generate each knockout
cell line, we mimicked the screen conditions and transduced Gesicle cells with a lentiviral
vector encoding constitutive expression of Cas9 nuclease and an appropriate targeting
sgRNA, selected cells for Cas9 expression, and isolated a polyclonal population of Cas9-
edited cells (Extended Data Fig. 2a). To control for the effects of Cas9 expression and
Cas9 nuclease-mediated indel generation on producer cells, we also applied the same
procedure to generate modified Gesicle cells using a sgRNA targeting *AAVS1*, a human
safe harbor locus[28]. After knockout generation, we initiated v4 BE-eVLP production from

each cell line by transfecting plasmids encoding the expression of all required
components, including a sgRNA targeting the human *BCL11A* +58 enhancer locus[29]
(Extended Data Fig. 2a). We detected by RT-qPCR a 1.5- to 3.8-fold decrease in sgRNA
abundance in BE-eVLPs produced from HUSH-knockout cells compared to BE-eVLPs
produced from *AAVS1*-knockout cells (Fig. 1c), confirming the results of our screen.
Additionally, when we transduced HEK293T cells with a range of doses of purified BE-
eVLPs and measured adenine base editing efficiencies at the *BCL11A* +58 enhancer
target locus via high-throughput sequencing (Extended Data Fig. 2a), we observed that
BE-eVLPs produced from HUSH-knockout cells exhibited a 2.3- to 4.4-fold decrease in
in vitro delivery potency (EC$_{50}$) compared to BE-eVLPs produced from *AAVS1*-knockout
cells (Fig. 2d). These results indicate that knockout of HUSH-associated genes *MPP8*,
TASOR, or *MORC2* in producer cells negatively impacts eVLP production or cargo
loading.

We hypothesized that these HUSH-associated genes might impact eVLP
production or cargo loading by modulating the expression of the lentivirally integrated
Cas9 nuclease that was used to generate the gene knockouts. To test this hypothesis,
we measured the relative abundance of Cas9 mRNA or protein in each knockout cell line
by RT-qPCR or Western blot respectively. We observed a 5.4- to 29-fold increase in
cellular Cas9 mRNA expression and a 10- to 14-fold increase in Cas9 protein expression
in HUSH-knockout cells compared to *AAVS1*-knockout cells (Fig. 1e, f and Extended Data
Fig. 3a). These results suggest a model in which HUSH-associated gene products
natively silence lentivirally integrated Cas9 expression in *AAVS1*-knockout producer cells,
but in HUSH-knockout cells, Cas9 is no longer efficiently silenced (Extended Data Fig.
3b). Therefore, during eVLP production, excess Cas9 protein in HUSH-knockout producer
cells likely competes for sgRNA binding and prevents sgRNA molecules from efficiently
binding to gag–ABE, which ultimately decreases both sgRNA packaging into eVLPs and
eVLP delivery potency (Extended Data Fig. 3b). To further investigate this phenomenon,
we used v4 Cas9-eVLP transduction instead of Cas9/sgRNA lentiviral transduction to
generate HUSH-knockout Gesicle cells that lacked any integrated Cas9 transgene
(Extended Data Fig. 2b). Notably, we did not detect any change in sgRNA abundance by
RT-qPCR in BE-eVLPs produced from these Cas9-free HUSH-knockout cells compared

to standard producer cells (Extended Data Fig. 4a). These results suggest that, consistent
with our model above, both lentivirally integrated Cas9 expression and knockout of
HUSH-associated genes are required to decrease sgRNA abundance in eVLPs.
Collectively, these data and our proposed model rationalize the negative performance of
HUSH-associated gene knockouts in our screen.

Interestingly, we noticed that BE-eVLPs produced from Cas9-free HUSH-knockout
cells still exhibited a 2.6- to 3.9-fold decrease in delivery potency compared to BE-eVLPs
produced from standard Gesicle cells (Extended Data Fig. 4b), suggesting that some
eVLP property other than sgRNA abundance was negatively impacted due to Cas9-free
HUSH-associated gene knockout. We hypothesized that these HUSH-associated genes
might also modulate the expression of eVLP components from plasmids transfected
during the eVLP production process. To investigate this possibility, we performed
Western blots to quantify eVLP cargo (gag–ABE) expression in producer cells following
transfection of eVLP production plasmids, which revealed a 2.1- to 4.4-fold increase in
gag–ABE protein expression in HUSH-knockout cells compared to Gesicle cells
(Extended Data Fig. 4c, d). We reasoned that this increase in eVLP cargo expression
might disrupt the optimal eVLP component stoichiometry (gag–ABE:gag–pro–pol ratio),
which was previously found to be an important determinant of eVLP potency[8]. Indeed,
reducing the transfected gag–ABE:gag–pro–pol plasmid ratio from 25:75 to 10:90 or 5:95
restored the potency of BE-eVLPs produced from *MORC2*-knockout cells back to
standard levels (Extended Data Fig. 4e). These results indicate that the increase in eVLP
cargo expression in HUSH-knockout producer cells and corresponding disruption of the
optimal eVLP component stoichiometry can be counteracted simply by reducing the
amount of transfected eVLP cargo plasmid, thereby effectively restoring the optimal
stoichiometry. Altogether, our results reveal a previously unknown role for HUSH-
associated genes in modulating eVLP cargo expression in producer cells and highlight
the importance of optimizing eVLP cargo expression and component stoichiometry to
maximize eVLP potency.

Next, we sought to characterize the gene knockouts from our screen that most
strongly increased eVLP production or cargo loading. The single strongest positive hit
from our screen was *MAF1*, a repressor of RNA Pol III transcription[30-32]. Because all

sgRNAs in our experiments were expressed from an RNA Pol III-transcribed U6 promoter,

we reasoned that knockout of *MAF1* in producer cells likely leads to increased sgRNA

transcription and loading into eVLP-packaged cargos (Fig. 2a). To test this hypothesis,

after generating *MAF1*-knockout Gesicle cells using v4 Cas9-eVLPs (Extended Data Fig.

2b), we initiated v4 BE-eVLP production from these cells by transfecting plasmids

encoding the expression of all required components. We detected by RT-qPCR a 2-fold

increase in sgRNA abundance in BE-eVLPs produced from *MAF1*-knockout cells

compared to BE-eVLPs produced from standard Gesicle cells (Fig. 2b). Additionally, we

observed that BE-eVLPs produced from *MAF1*-knockout cells were produced at similar

particle titers and packaged similar numbers of BE cargo proteins per particle compared

to BE-eVLPs produced from standard Gesicle cells (Fig. 2c and Extended Data Fig. 5a),

suggesting that the use of *MAF1*-knockout cells increases sgRNA packaging alone

without affecting protein packaging or particle yield. Collectively, these data confirm our

knockout screen results and indicate that *MAF1*-knockout producer cells support

increased sgRNA loading into eVLPs.

Because increased sgRNA loading leads to an increased number of active RNP

cargo molecules packaged into eVLPs (Fig. 2a), we reasoned that BE-eVLPs produced

from *MAF1*-knockout cells should exhibit increased delivery potency compared to BE-

eVLPs produced from standard Gesicle cells. Encouragingly, we observed that v4 BE-

eVLPs produced from *MAF1*-knockout cells exhibited a 2.5-fold increase in delivery

potency (EC_{50}) at the *BCL11A* +58 enhancer locus in HEK293T cells compared to v4 BE-

eVLPs produced from standard Gesicle cells (Fig. 2d). v4 BE-eVLPs produced from

MAF1-knockout cells also exhibited a 2.2- and 2.1-fold increase in delivery potency at the

GAPDH and *HIRA* genomic loci in HEK293T cells, respectively (Fig. 2e, f), indicating that

the eVLP potency improvement conferred by the use of *MAF1*-knockout producer cells is

not restricted to any particular sgRNA sequence or target genomic locus. Additionally, we

assessed whether the use of *MAF1*-knockout producer cells could also improve the

delivery potency of the more recently developed v5 BE-eVLPs, which use laboratory

evolved capsid proteins that were optimized to improve BE RNP cargo packaging[22]. We

observed that v5 BE-eVLPs produced from *MAF1*-knockout cells exhibited a 2.2- to 9.1-

fold increase in delivery potency compared to v5 BE-eVLPs produced from standard cells

across six distinct target genomic loci in mouse Neuro-2a cells (Fig. 2g–l). Together,
these results indicate that the increased sgRNA packaging in BE-eVLPs produced from
MAF1-knockout cells leads to corresponding improvements in eVLP delivery potency *in*
vitro.

To further explore the utility of *MAF1*-knockout producer cells, we investigated
whether their use could also improve *in vivo* eVLP delivery efficiencies. We produced v5
BE-eVLPs targeting the *Pcsk9* exon 1 splice donor[8,33] using either standard or *MAF1*-
knockout Gesicle cells, and we injected these BE-eVLPs retro-orbitally into adult mice at
a low, sub-saturating eVLP dose (Fig. 2m). We observed that v5 BE-eVLPs produced
from *MAF1*-knockout cells achieved 19.4% average *in vivo* base editing at the *Pcsk9*
locus in bulk liver tissue, while v5 BE-eVLPs produced from standard cells administered
at the same dose only achieved 12.6% bulk liver editing (Fig. 2m, P = 0.0365, two-sided
unpaired t test). Collectively, these data indicate that *MAF1*-knockout producer cells
support improved eVLP potency across different target genomic loci and target-cell types
both *in vitro* and *in vivo*, demonstrating the benefits of using *MAF1*-knockout cells instead
of standard cells for eVLP production.

We next sought to further evaluate the ability of *MAF1*-knockout producer cells to
support improved eVLP production and potency in other various contexts. First, we
assessed whether *MAF1*-knockout producer cells could improve the potency of eVLPs
that package different Cas9-based RNP cargos. We observed that v4 eVLPs packaging
either ABE8e-SpCas9-NG[34], TadCBEa[35], or Cas9 nuclease cargos exhibited a 2.0- to
2.5-fold improvement in potency in HEK293T cells when produced from *MAF1*-knockout
cells compared to Gesicle cells (Extended Data Fig. 5b–f). Second, we investigated
whether *MAF1*-knockout producer cells could also improve the performance of non-eVLP
delivery vehicles, such as the recently reported "engineered nucleocytosolic vehicles for
loading of programmable editors" (ENVLPE+)[10]. Interestingly, we observed that ABE8e-
packaging ENVLPE+ particles produced from *MAF1*-knockout cells also exhibited a 2.2-
fold increase in potency in HEK293T cells compared to the same particles produced from
Gesicle cells (Extended Data Fig. 5g). Notably, even though ENVLPE+ particles differ
substantially from eVLPs in their viral scaffold (HIV versus MMLV) and cargo loading
mechanism (aptamer-containing sgRNA loading versus gag–cargo fusion loading), both

ENVLPE[+] particles and eVLPs demonstrated nearly identical improvements in potency

when produced from *MAF1*-knockout cells compared to Gesicle cells (Extended Data Fig.

5g, h). Third, we explored whether knockout of *MAF1* could improve eVLP production

from HEK293T/17 cells, another cell line that is commonly used for viral vector

production[8,22,36]. Following the generation of *MAF1*-knockout HEK293T/17 cells using v4

Cas9-eVLPs, we observed that v4 BE-eVLPs produced from *MAF1*-knockout

HEK293T/17 cells exhibited a 2.5-fold increase in *in vitro* delivery potency compared to

those produced from unmodified HEK293T/17 cells (Fig. 2n). These results indicate that

the improvements conferred by *MAF1* knockout appear to be generalizable beyond the

specific cell line in which our knockout screen was conducted. Taken together, our

findings demonstrate that knockout of *MAF1* in producer cells yields remarkably general

and consistent improvements in VLP delivery potency across eVLP cargo types, particle

types, and producer-cell lines.

We anticipate that the use of *MAF1*-knockout cells instead of standard producer

cells will advance the utility of VLP delivery in several ways. For one, eVLPs produced

from *MAF1*-knockout cells exhibit increased sgRNA packaging and increased delivery

potency both in cell culture and in mice compared to standard eVLPs (Fig. 2), suggesting

that *MAF1*-knockout producer cells should be used when maximal editing efficiencies are

required. Additionally, the gene editing efficiencies at a given dose of eVLPs produced

from standard cells can in general be achieved using a 2- to 9-fold lower dose of eVLPs

produced from *MAF1*-knockout cells (Fig. 2d–l), suggesting that using *MAF1*-knockout

cells for eVLP production will be especially beneficial for applications that are constrained

by the maximum administrable eVLP dose. Furthermore, by minimizing the eVLP dose

required to achieve efficient editing, the use of *MAF1*-knockout producer cells would also

reduce the total volume of producer-cell culture required for eVLP production, which could

greatly simplify the application of eVLPs in large-scale studies. Importantly, given that

several previous studies have identified sgRNA loading into VLPs and related delivery

vehicles as a bottleneck that limits delivery potency[8,13,22,37], our discovery that *MAF1*-

knockout producer cells improve sgRNA loading into VLPs will likely be widely applicable

for RNP delivery using various cell-derived bioparticles.

Altogether, our study provides a general workflow for genetically engineering

producer cells for improved particle production. By applying a genome-wide knockout

screen to nominate genetic perturbations that influence eVLP production, we discovered

that several genes regulate protein and sgRNA expression in producer cells, both of

which proved to strongly impact eVLP cargo packaging and delivery potency. While

previous studies have applied CRISPR screens that use particle-packaged RNA as a way

to investigate the cellular determinants of extracellular vesicle production[38,39], our study

is the first to our knowledge that leverages insights from a producer-cell screen to improve

VLP production and delivery potency. Notably, our screen design is highly general and

can be applied to evaluate various genetic and epigenetic perturbations on a genome-

wide scale, including for CRISPR activation or base editing screens. We anticipate that

further improvements in particle production are likely possible by employing varied

producer-cell perturbations instead of single gene knockouts alone. Overall, while

iterative particle architecture engineering continues to improve VLP delivery potency and

cell-type targeting capabilities[10,13,22,40], our work establishes producer-cell genetic

engineering as a distinct and potentially powerful strategy for maximizing the utility of

VLP-based delivery modalities.

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Fig. 1 | Genome-wide screening reveals genetic perturbations that influence eVLP
production. a, Overview of the producer-cell screening approach. eVLP production is
initiated from a pool of genetically perturbed producer cells, and each eVLP packages
sgRNAs that identify the specific genetic perturbation in the cell that produced that
particular eVLP. The abundance of a particular sgRNA in eVLPs compared to producer
cells reflects how the corresponding genetic perturbation influences eVLP production or
cargo loading. **b**, Gene-level phenotypes from the genome-wide knockout screen for
cargo-loaded eVLP production. Each gene is represented as a single dot whose x-

coordinate reflects the median fold change in sgRNA abundance in eVLPs compared to
producer cells for all sgRNAs targeting that particular gene, and whose y-coordinate
reflects the MAGeCK RRA score associated with that particular gene (see Methods). Data
reflect n=2 screen replicates. See also Extended Data Fig. 1c and Supplementary Table
6. **c**, Fold change in eVLP-packaged sgRNA abundance measured by RT-qPCR,
normalized relative to sgRNA abundance in eVLPs produced from *AAVS1*-knockout cells.
Bars reflect the mean of n=3 replicates, and dots represent individual replicate values. **d**,
Comparison of v4 BE-eVLPs produced from *AAVS1*-knockout or HUSH-knockout cells
across a range of eVLP doses. Adenine base editing efficiencies at position A_7 of the
BCL11A +58 enhancer site in HEK293T cells are shown. Dots and error bars represent
mean ± s.d. of n=3 biological replicates. Data were fit to four-parameter logistic curves
using nonlinear regression. **e**, Fold change in producer-cell Cas9 mRNA abundance
measured by RT-qPCR, normalized relative to Cas9 mRNA abundance in *AAVS1*-
knockout cells. Bars reflect the mean of n=3 replicates, and dots represent individual
replicate values. **f**, Fold change in producer-cell Cas9 protein abundance measured by
Western blot, normalized relative to Cas9 protein abundance in *AAVS1*-knockout cells.
Bars reflect the mean of n=5 replicates, and dots represent individual replicate values.
See also Extended Data Fig. 3a.

Fig. 2 | *MAF1*-knockout producer cells improve eVLP sgRNA packaging and delivery potency. a, Schematic of standard producer cells versus *MAF1*-knockout producer cells. In standard cells, MAF1 represses RNA Pol III transcription, which limits producer-cell sgRNA expression. In *MAF1*-knockout producer cells, RNA Pol III is no longer subjected to MAF1-mediated repression, which increases sgRNA expression and loading into eVLP-packaged RNPs. **b**, Fold change in eVLP-packaged sgRNA abundance measured by RT-qPCR, normalized relative to sgRNA abundance in eVLPs produced from standard Gesicle cells. sgRNA-1 and sgRNA-2 denote two different packaged sgRNA sequences. **c**, Quantification of ABE molecules per eVLP by anti-Cas9 and anti-MLV p30 ELISA. In **b** and **c**, bars reflect the mean of n=3 replicates, and dots represent individual replicate values. **d–f**, Comparison of v4 BE-eVLPs produced from standard or *MAF1*-knockout Gesicle cells across a range of eVLP doses in HEK293T cells. Adenine base editing efficiencies are shown at position A_7 of the *BCL11A* +58 enhancer site (**d**), position A_7 of the *GAPDH* site (**e**), and position A_5 of the *HIRA* site (**f**). **g–l**, Comparison of v5 BE-eVLPs produced from standard or *MAF1*-knockout Gesicle cells across a range of eVLP doses in mouse Neuro-2a cells. Adenine base editing efficiencies are shown at position A_8 of the *Angptl3* exon 7 splice acceptor site (**g**), position A_4 of the *Rosa26* site (**h**), position A_9 of the *Dnmt1* site (**i**), position A_6 of the *Pcsk9* exon 4 splice acceptor site (**j**), position A_4 of the *Pcsk9* exon 6 splice donor site (**k**), and position A_8 of the *Pcsk9* exon 8 splice acceptor site (**l**). **m**, Schematic of mouse experiments and adenine base editing efficiencies at position A_6 of the *Pcsk9* exon 1 splice donor site in bulk mouse liver tissue. Each mouse was injected with 15 μL of 1500-fold concentrated purified eVLPs, corresponding to approximately 3×10^{11} eVLPs (see Methods). Bars reflect the mean of n=9 mice per condition, and dots represent individual mouse values. P-value was calculated using a two-sided unpaired t test. **n**, Comparison of v4 BE-eVLPs produced from standard or *MAF1*-knockout HEK293T/17 cells across a range of eVLP doses in HEK293T cells. Adenine base editing efficiencies at position A_7 of the *BCL11A* +58 enhancer site are shown. In **d–l** and **n**, dots and error bars represent mean ± s.d. of n=4 (**d**) or n=3 (**e–l**, **n**) biological replicates. Data were fit to four-parameter logistic curves using nonlinear regression.

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Extended Data Fig. 1 | Genome-wide knockout screening for cargo-loaded eVLP
production. a, Overview of the genome-wide knockout screening approach. Low-MOI
Cas9/sgRNA lentiviral transduction was used to introduce a genome-wide sgRNA library
into Gesicle producer cells, thereby generating a pool of single-knockout producer cells.
eVLP production was then initiated from this pool by transfecting expressing eVLP protein

components. No additional sgRNA-encoding plasmid was transfected, ensuring that all
eVLPs produced from a given producer cell packaged cargo containing the specific
knockout-inducing sgRNA that was already introduced into that producer cell by lentiviral
transduction. The abundance of a particular sgRNA in eVLPs compared to producer cells
reflects how the corresponding gene knockout influences eVLP production or cargo
loading. **b**, Schematic of the template-switching reverse transcription approach used for
direct-capture sgRNA spacer sequencing from both eVLP-packaged RNA and producer-
cell RNA. UMI=unique molecular identifier. **c**, Fold change in sgRNA abundance in eVLPs
compared to producer cells across replicates of the genome-wide knockout screen. Each
sgRNA in the library is represented as a single dot and reflects the values from n=2 screen
replicates. The y=x line is plotted in red. See also Supplementary Tables 3–5.

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Extended Data Fig. 2 | Generating and characterizing single-knockout producer cell
lines. a, Schematic of generating polyclonal single-knockout producer cells via
Cas9/sgRNA lentiviral transduction, followed by characterizing the resulting cell lines and
their use for eVLP production. **b**, Schematic of generating polyclonal single-knockout
producer cells via v4 Cas9-eVLP transduction, followed by characterizing the resulting
cell lines and their use for eVLP production.

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Extended Data Fig. 3 | HUSH-knockout producer cells exhibit increased lentiviral
Cas9 expression. a, Western blot analysis of producer-cell protein lysates. **b**, Proposed
model for *AAVS1*-knockout producer cells versus HUSH-knockout producer cells. In
AAVS1-knockout cells, HUSH-associated gene products silence lentivirally integrated
Cas9 expression over time. In HUSH-knockout producer cells, lack of HUSH-mediated
silencing leads to excess expression of lentivirally integrated Cas9, which interferes with
sgRNA loading into eVLPs and therefore reduces eVLP-packaged sgRNA abundance.

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Extended Data Fig. 4 | HUSH-knockout producer cells exhibit increased eVLP cargo
expression. a, Fold change in eVLP-packaged sgRNA abundance measured by RT-
qPCR, normalized relative to sgRNA abundance in eVLPs produced from Gesicle cells.
Bars reflect the mean of n=3 replicates, and dots represent individual replicate values. **b**,
Comparison of v4 BE-eVLPs produced from Gesicle or HUSH-knockout cells across a
range of eVLP doses. Adenine base editing efficiencies at position A_7 of the *BCL11A* +58
enhancer site in HEK293T cells are shown. Dots and error bars represent mean ± s.d. of
n=3 biological replicates. Data were fit to four-parameter logistic curves using nonlinear

regression. **c**, Western blot analysis of protein lysates from producer cells transfected
with eVLP production plasmids. The full-length gag–ABE fusion is ~247 kD and the
cleaved ABE (following viral protease-mediated cleavage) is ~184 kD. **d**, Fold change in
transfected-producer-cell ABE protein abundance measured by Western blot, normalized
relative to ABE protein abundance in transfected Gesicle cells. Bars reflect the mean of
n=3 replicates, and dots represent individual replicate values. **e**, Comparison of v4 BE-
eVLPs produced from Gesicle or *MORC2*-knockout cells across a range of eVLP doses
using different transfected eVLP plasmid stoichiometries. Values in parentheses reflect
the gag–ABE:gag–pro–pol plasmid ratio used for eVLP production. Adenine base editing
efficiencies at position A_7 of the *BCL11A* +58 enhancer site in HEK293T cells are shown.
Dots and error bars represent mean ± s.d. of n=3 biological replicates. Data were fit to
four-parameter logistic curves using nonlinear regression.

Extended Data Fig. 5 | *MAF1*-knockout producer cells improve eVLP delivery potency. a, Quantification of eVLP titer by anti-MLV p30 ELISA (see Methods). Bars reflect the mean of n=3 replicates, and dots represent individual replicate values. **b**, Comparison of v4 ABE8e-NG-eVLPs produced from standard or *MAF1*-knockout Gesicle cells across a range of eVLP doses. Adenine base editing efficiencies at position A_7 of the *BCL11A* +58 enhancer site in HEK293T cells are shown. **c**, Comparison of v4 TadCBEa-eVLPs produced from standard or *MAF1*-knockout Gesicle cells across a range of eVLP doses. Cytosine base editing efficiencies at position C_6 of the *BCL11A* +58 enhancer site in HEK293T cells are shown. **d–f**, Comparison of v4 Cas9-eVLPs produced from standard or *MAF1*-knockout Gesicle cells across a range of eVLP doses in HEK293T cells. Indel frequencies are shown at the *BCL11A* +58 enhancer site (**d**), *HEK2* site (**e**), and *EMX1* site (**f**). **g–h**, Comparison of ABE8e-packaging ENVLPE⁺ particles (**g**) or v4 ABE8e-eVLPs (**h**) produced from standard or *MAF1*-knockout Gesicle cells across a range of doses. Adenine base editing efficiencies at position A_7 of the *BCL11A* +58 enhancer site in HEK293T cells are shown. **b–h**, Dots and error bars represent mean ±

415   s.d. of n=3 biological replicates. Data were fit to four-parameter logistic curves using
416   nonlinear regression.
417

Methods

Cloning

Plasmids used in this study were cloned via Gibson cloning (NEBuilder® HiFi DNA Assembly; E2621X) or Golden Gate cloning. DNA was amplified via PCR using Phusion HotStart II polymerase (Thermo Fisher Scientific; F537L). Mach1 (Thermo Fisher Scientific; C862003) or NEB® Stable (New England Biolabs; C3040H) chemically competent *E. coli* were used for plasmid propagation. Plasmids were isolated using QIAGEN Plasmid Plus Midi (12945) or Maxi (12963) Kits according to the manufacturer's protocols.

Cell culture

HEK293T cells (ATCC; CRL-3216), Gesicle Producer 293T cells (Takara; 632617), HEK293T/17 cells (ATCC; CRL-11268), and Neuro-2a cells (ATCC; CCL-131) were maintained in DMEM + GlutaMAX (Life Technologies; 10569044) supplemented with 10% (v/v) fetal bovine serum (Gibco; A5670701). Cells were cultured at 37 °C with 5% carbon dioxide and were confirmed to be negative for mycoplasma by testing with MycoAlert (Lonza; LT07-318).

eVLP production and purification

eVLPs were produced as described previously[8,22]. Briefly, eVLPs were produced by transient transfection of Gesicle 293T cells, HEK293T/17 cells, or variants thereof as noted in the main text and figure legends. Producer cells were seeded in T-75 flasks at a density of 5×10^6 cells per flask. After 20–24 h, cells were transfected using the jetPRIME transfection reagent (Polyplus; 114-75) according to the manufacturer's protocols. For producing eVLPs, a mixture of plasmids expressing VSV-G (400 ng), MMLV gag-pro-pol (3,375 ng), gag–cargo (1,125 ng), and an sgRNA (4,400 ng) was co-transfected per T-75 flask.

40–48 h post-transfection, producer cell supernatant was harvested and centrifuged for 5 min at 500 g to remove cell debris. The clarified eVLP-containing supernatant was filtered through a 0.45-µm PVDF filter (Millipore; SE1M003M00). The filtered supernatant was concentrated 100-fold using PEG-it Virus Precipitation Solution (System Biosciences; LV825A-1) according to the manufacturer's protocols and resuspended in Opti-MEM serum-free media (Thermo Fisher Scientific; 31985070). For eVLPs prepared for protein or RNA quantification, or those that were injected into mice, the filtered supernatant was concentrated 1500-fold by ultracentrifugation using a cushion of 20% (w/v) sucrose in PBS. Ultracentrifugation was performed at 26,500 rpm (86,242 g) for 2 h (4ºC) using an SW32 Ti rotor in an Optima XE Ultracentrifuge (Beckman Coulter). Following ultracentrifugation, eVLP pellets were resuspended in cold PBS pH 7.4 (Gibco; 10010023) and centrifuged at 1,000 g for 5 min to remove debris. eVLPs were frozen at a rate of -1ºC/min and stored at -80ºC. eVLPs were thawed on ice immediately prior to use.

eVLP transduction and genomic DNA isolation

Cells were transduced with eVLPs as described previously[8,22] with a few modifications. Cells were plated for transduction in 96-well plates at a density of 16,000 cells per well.

After 20–24 h, eVLPs were added directly to the culture media in each well. In general,
eVLPs were serially diluted by 2-fold to generate dose titration curves, and a constant
volume of 5 µL of eVLP-containing solution was added to each well. 48–72 h post-
transduction, cellular genomic DNA was isolated. Media was aspirated from each well,
and 60 µL of lysis buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 0.05% SDS, 25 µg mL^{-1} Proteinase K
(Thermo Fisher Scientific; EO0492)) was added to each well. Lysis was achieved by
incubation at 37 ºC for 1–1.5 h followed by heat inactivation at 80ºC for 30 min.
471
High-throughput sequencing of genomic DNA
Genomic DNA was isolated as described above. Following genomic DNA isolation, 1 µL
of the isolated DNA (1–10 ng) was used as input for the first of two PCR reactions.
Genomic loci were amplified in PCR1 using Phusion U polymerase (Thermo Fisher
Scientific; F562L). PCR1 primers are listed in Supplementary Table 2 under the
HTS_forward and HTS_reverse columns. PCR1 was performed as follows: 95 ºC for 3
min; 30 cycles of 95 ºC for 15 s, 61 ºC for 20 s, and 72 ºC for 30s; 72ºC for 1 min. PCR1
products were confirmed on a 1% agarose gel. 1 µL of PCR1 was used as an input for
PCR2 to install Illumina barcodes. PCR2 was conducted for nine cycles of amplification
using Phusion HotStart II polymerase (Thermo Fisher Scientific; F537L). Following PCR2,
samples were pooled and gel purified in a 1% agarose gel using a QIAquick Gel
Extraction Kit (Qiagen; 28704). Library concentration was quantified using the Qubit High-
Sensitivity Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific; Q33230). Samples were sequenced on
an Illumina MiSeq instrument (paired-end read, read 1: 200–280 cycles, read 2: 0 cycles)
using an Illumina MiSeq 300 v2 Kit (Illumina).
487
High-throughput sequencing data analysis for base editing experiments
Sequencing reads were demultiplexed using the MiSeq Reporter software (v2.6) (Illumina)
and were analyzed using CRISPResso2 (ref. [41]) (v2.3.2) as previously described[8]. Batch
analysis mode (one batch for each unique amplicon and sgRNA combination analyzed)
was used in all cases. Reads were filtered by minimum average quality score (Q > 30)
prior to analysis. The following quantification window parameters were used: -w 20 -wc -
10. Base editing efficiencies are reported as the percentage of sequencing reads
containing a given base conversion at a specific position. Prism 10 (GraphPad) was used
to generate dot plots and bar plots.
497
Lentiviral vector production
Lentiviral vectors were constructed via Golden Gate cloning into the LentiCRISPRv2-Opti
backbone, a gift from the Whitehead Institute Functional Genomics Platform (Addgene
#163126). Plasmids were propagated in NEB® Stable (New England Biolabs; C3040H)
chemically competent *E. coli*. Prior to lentiviral vector production, HEK293T/17 cells were
maintained in antibiotic-free DMEM supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (v/v). On
day 1, 5×10^6 cells were plated in 10 mL of media in T-75 flasks. The following day, cells
were transfected with 6 µg of VSV-G envelope plasmid, 9 µg of psPAX2 (plasmid
encoding viral packaging proteins) and 9 µg of transfer vector plasmid diluted in 1,500 µL
Opti-MEM with 70 µL of FuGENE HD transfection reagent (Promega; E2312). Two days
after transfection, media was centrifuged at 500 *g* for 5 min to remove cell debris followed
by filtration using a 0.45-µm PVDF vacuum filter (Millipore; SE1M003M00). The filtered

supernatant was concentrated using PEG-it Virus Precipitation Solution (System
Biosciences; LV825A-1) according to the manufacturer's protocols and resuspended in
Opti-MEM serum-free media (Gibco; 31985070).
513
sgRNA library propagation
For the genome-wide knockout screen, a previously described human genome-wide
sgRNA library containing 98,077 unique sgRNAs targeting 19,707 genes across the
human genome[24] was obtained as a gift from the Whitehead Institute Functional
Genomics Platform. sgRNA sequences are listed in Supplementary Table 3. Vectors
contained pU6-sgRNA expression cassettes along with pEFS-Cas9-P2A-PuroR
(LentiCRISPRv2-Opti backbone, Addgene #163126). The plasmid library was
propagated as follows. First, electrocompetent cells were generated from NEB® Stable
(New England Biolabs; C3040H) chemically competent *E. coli* by growing single colonies
to mid-log phase in LB media containing 10 µg/mL tetracycline and 50 µg/mL
streptomycin, collecting cells by centrifugation at 5,000 g for 1 min at 4 ºC, washing with
cold 10% (v/v) glycerol, and repeating for a total of four washes. Freshly prepared
electrocompetent cells were transferred to a chilled 0.1 cm electroporation cuvette (Bio-
Rad; 1652089) and mixed with the purified, assembled library plasmids. Cells were
electroporated using a time-constant protocol with t = 5 ms at 1.5 kV. Electroporated cells
were recovered at 37 ºC for 25 min with shaking. Recovered cells were plated onto 500
cm^2 plates containing LB media + 1.5% agar supplemented with 100 µg/mL carbenicillin
and incubated for 16 h at 37 ºC. After overnight incubation, colonies were scraped into
LB media and cells were collected by centrifugation. Plasmids were purified using a
Plasmid Plus Maxi Kit (Qiagen; 12963) according to the manufacturer's protocols. sgRNA
representation in the propagated plasmid library was confirmed via targeted amplicon
sequencing.
536
Genome-wide knockout screen for cargo-loaded eVLP production
Lentiviral libraries were produced as described above and were concentrated ~66-fold by
PEG precipitation. Gesicle cells were seeded at a density of 1.5×10^7 cells per T-175 and
immediately transduced with 105 µL of concentrated lentivirus. A total of 2.4×10^8 Gesicle
cells were seeded for transduction. 24 h after transduction, cells were trypsinized and
reseeded at half the original density in media supplemented with 2 µg/mL puromycin.
Puromycin selection was continued for 7 days, during which time cell viability was
monitored and cells were expanded upon reaching confluency. The initial multiplicity of
infection (MOI) was inferred by counting surviving cells and assuming a doubling time of
24 h. Using this method, the MOI was calculated to be 0.28, corresponding to
approximately 660x coverage of the sgRNA library. A minimum of 1×10^8 cells were carried
forward each time the cells were passaged to retain overall coverage.
After cells were robustly surviving puromycin selection (~1 week), cells were
seeded for eVLP production in T-75 flasks at a density of 5×10^6 cells/flask. At this time,
1×10^8 cells were collected by centrifugation, and the cell pellet was frozen at -80ºC and
reserved for RNA extraction (see below). 24 h after seeding, cells were transfected using
the jetPRIME transfection reagent (Polyplus; 114-75) according to the manufacturer's
protocols. A mixture of pUC19 (4,400 ng), VSV-G (400 ng), MMLV gag-pro-pol (3,375 ng),
and MMLVgag–ABE8e (1,125) plasmids were co-transfected per T-75 flask. 42 h post

transfection, eVLPs were harvested and filtered as described above. The filtered
supernatant was concentrated by sucrose-cushion ultracentrifugation as described above.
Following ultracentrifugation, eVLP pellets were resuspended in cold PBS pH 7.4 (Gibco;
10010023). Purified eVLPs were treated with DNase (Qiagen; 79254) followed by RNA
extraction using the QIAmp Viral RNA Mini Kit (Qiagen; 52904) according to the
manufacturer's protocols. RNA was extracted from the producer-cell pellet using QIAzol
Lysis Reagent (Qiagen; 79306) according to the manufacturer's protocols. This entire
process of seeding single-knockout Gesicle cells followed by eVLP production and RNA
extractions was performed twice on different days for two screen replicates.

Following RNA extraction, both producer-cell and eVLP RNA were reverse
transcribed using the Maxima Reverse Transcriptase (Thermo Fisher Scientific; EP0742)
according to the manufacturer's protocols. Primers and other oligonucleotides used for
target-primed sgRNA reverse transcription are listed in Supplementary Table 1. The RT
primer was added at a final concentration of 1 µM in the RT reaction. Following incubation
at 50ºC for 20 min, the template-switching oligo (TSO) was spiked in to the reaction at a
final concentration of 1 µM. The reaction was incubated for a further 20 min at 50ºC, and
heat inactivated at 85ºC for 5 min. For producer-cell RNA only, the RT products were
further processed by hydrolyzing the RNA in 0.2 M NaOH (final concentration) and
heating at 90ºC for 10 min, cleaning up with the MinElute Reaction Cleanup Kit (Qiagen;
28104) according to the manufacturer's protocols, and left size selection using SPRIselect
(Beckman Coulter; B23317) at a 1.5x bead ratio to remove smaller products and residual
primers. Producer-cell cDNAs were subsequently amplified for sequencing with the KAPA
HiFi HotStart ReadyMix (Roche Diagnostics; 09420398001) using 2.5 µL of cDNA input
per 25 µL reaction and the following conditions: 95 ºC for 3 min; 20 cycles of 98 ºC for 20
s, 61 ºC for 20 s, and 72 ºC for 30s; 72ºC for 2 min. eVLP cDNAs were amplified for
sequencing with the KAPA HiFi HotStart ReadyMix using 2.5 µL of cDNA input per 25 µL
reaction and the following conditions: 95 ºC for 3 min; 14 cycles of 98 ºC for 20 s, 61 ºC
for 20 s, and 72 ºC for 30s; 72ºC for 2 min. Illumina barcodes were installed using KAPA
HiFi HotStart ReadyMix using 2 µL of PCR1 input per 25 µL reaction and the following
conditions: 95 ºC for 3 min; 9 cycles of 98 ºC for 20 s, 61 ºC for 20 s, and 72 ºC for 30s;
72ºC for 2 min. Following PCR2, samples were gel purified in a 1% agarose gel using a
QIAquick Gel Extraction Kit (Qiagen; 28704). Library concentration was quantified using
the Qubit High-Sensitivity Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific; Q33230). Samples were
sequenced on an Illumina NextSeq instrument (paired-end read, read 1: 76 cycles, read
2: 0 cycles) using an Illumina NextSeq 75-cycle High-Output v2.5 Kit (Illumina).

Genome-wide knockout screen analysis
Code used for processing sequencing reads from the genome-wide knockout screen is
provided in Supplementary Note 1. Briefly, sequencing reads were demultiplexed using
bcl2fastq (v2.20.0.422). Reads were trimmed using seqkit[42] (v2.6.1) to restrict analysis to
the UMI and sgRNA protospacer sequences only. Then, reads were UMI-deduplicated
using AmpUMI[43] and trimmed with seqkit to remove the UMI and restrict subsequent
analysis to the sgRNA protospacer sequences only. Processed reads were aligned to a
reference fasta file containing all sgRNA sequences using bowtie[44] (v1.3.1), and sgRNA
counts were generated from alignments as previously described[24]. Raw sgRNA counts
are provided in Supplementary Table 4. MAGeCK[45] (v0.5.9.5) was used to quantify gene-

level phenotypes from the sgRNA counts. Producer-cell samples were treated as "control"
samples and eVLP samples were treated as "treatment" samples for the purpose of
MAGeCK analysis. Median-normalized sgRNA read counts and fold changes are
provided in Supplementary Table 5, and gene-level phenotypes are provided in
Supplementary Table 6. For genes with a positive median $\log_2$ fold change, the positive
MAGeCK RRA score, p-value, and FDR were used, and for genes with a negative median
$\log_2$ fold change, the negative MAGeCK RRA score, p-value, and FDR were used. Prism
10 (GraphPad) was used to generate dot plots.
610
Generation of knockout cell lines
To generate knockout cell lines via Cas9/sgRNA lentiviral transduction, lentiviral vectors
were cloned and produced as described above. Cells were seeded in T-75 flasks at a
density of 5×10^6 cells/flask and immediately transduced with 50 µL of concentrated
lentivirus. 24 h after transduction, cells were trypsinized and reseeded in media
supplemented with 2 µg/mL puromycin. Puromycin selection was continued, during which
time cell viability was monitored and cells were expanded upon reaching confluency. After
cells were robustly surviving puromycin selection (~1 week), cells were harvested and
genotyped via targeted-amplicon high-throughput sequencing as described above to
confirm gene knockout. Cell lines were regularly genotyped over time to confirm
continued gene knockout.
To generate knockout cell lines via Cas9-eVLP transduction, v4 Cas9-eVLPs were
produced as described above. Cells were seeded in 96-well plates at a density of 16,000
cells per well. 24 h after seeding, cells were transduced with 5 µL of purified Cas9-eVLPs
per well. 72 h after eVLP transduction, cells were harvested and genotyped via targeted-
amplicon high-throughput sequencing as described above to confirm gene knockout.
Cells were expanded and regularly genotyped over time to confirm continued gene
knockout.
629
eVLP-packaged sgRNA extraction and RT-qPCR
eVLPs for RNA extraction were purified via sucrose-cushion ultracentrifugation as
described above. Purified eVLPs were treated with DNase (Qiagen; 79254) followed by
RNA extraction using the QIAmp Viral RNA Mini Kit (Qiagen; 52904) according to the
manufacturer's protocols. Extracted RNA was reverse transcribed using SuperScript™ III
First-Strand Synthesis SuperMix (Thermo Fisher Scientific; 18080400) and an sgRNA-
specific DNA primer (see Supplementary Table 1) according to the manufacturer's
protocols. qPCR analysis of the resulting cDNA was performed using a QuantStudio™ 3
Real-Time PCR System (Thermo Fisher Scientific) with SYBR green dye (Lonza; 50512).
The relative eVLP-packaged sgRNA abundance was calculated as $\log_2$[fold change] (ΔC_t)
relative to control eVLPs (i.e. those produced from standard or *AAVS1*-knockout cells).
641
Producer-cell RNA extraction and RT-qPCR
Cellular RNA was extracted using the RNeasy Plus Mini Kit (Qiagen; 74136) according
to the manufacturer's protocols. Extracted RNA was reverse transcribed using
SuperScript™ III First-Strand Synthesis SuperMix (Thermo Fisher Scientific; 18080400)
using random hexamer primers according to the manufacturer's protocols. qPCR analysis
of the resulting cDNA was performed using a QuantStudio™ 3 Real-Time PCR System

(Thermo Fisher Scientific) with SYBR green dye (Lonza; 50512). The relative Cas9
mRNA abundance across different producer cells was calculated via the $\Delta\Delta C_t$ method
using *ACTB* as the housekeeping gene. qPCR primers are listed in Supplementary Table
1.
652
Producer-cell protein extraction and Western blot analyses
For producer-cell protein extraction, 1×10^6 cells were collected by centrifugation at 500 g
for 5 min. Cell pellets were washed once with 1 mL of cold PBS and lysed using RIPA
buffer (Thermo Fisher Scientific; 89901) supplemented with cOmplete™ protease
inhibitor cocktail (Roche Diagnostics; 11836153001) according to the manufacturer's
protocols. Cells were lysed at 4ºC for 30 min with gentle agitation. The lysate was clarified
by centrifugation at 10,000 g for 20 min at 4ºC, and the clarified supernatant was
combined with 4x Laemmli Sample Buffer (Bio-Rad; 1610747) and heated at 95ºC for 10
min. Protein extracts were subsequently separated by electrophoresis at 150 V for 45 min
on a NuPAGE 3–8% Tris-Acetate gel (Thermo Fisher Scientific; EA0378BOX) in 1x
NuPAGE Tris-Acetate SDS running buffer (Thermo Fisher Scientific; LA0041). Transfer
to a PVDF membrane was performed using an iBlot 2 Gel Transfer Device (Thermo Fisher
Scientific) at 20 V for 7 min. The membrane was blocked for 1 h at room temperature with
rocking in blocking buffer: 1% bovine serum albumin (BSA) and 0.1% Tween-20 in TBS
(150 mM NaCl and 50 mM Tris-HCl). After blocking, the membrane was incubated
overnight at 4ºC with rocking with mouse anti-Cas9 (Cell Signaling Technology; 14697,
1:1000 dilution) and rabbit anti-actin (Cell Signaling Technology; 4970, 1:1000 dilution).
The membrane was washed three times with 1xTBST (150 mM NaCl, 0.5% Tween-20,
and 50 mM Tris-HCl) for 10 min each time at room temperature, then incubated with goat
anti-mouse secondary antibody (LI-COR IRDye 680RD; 926-68070, 1:10000 dilution in
blocking buffer) and goat anti-rabbit secondary antibody (LI-COR IRDye 800CW; 926-
32211, 1:10000 dilution in blocking buffer) for 1 h at room temperature with rocking. The
membrane was washed as before and imaged using an Odyssey Imaging System (LI-
COR). Protein abundances were quantified by densitometry using ImageJ (v2.14.0).
Cas9 abundances were normalized to the actin abundance within each sample, and
comparisons across samples were performed using these actin-normalized values.
For protein extraction from cells transfected with eVLP production plasmids, cells
were first seeded for eVLP production in T-75 flasks as described above. 24 h after
seeding, cells were transfected with all eVLP production plasmids except the VSV-G
plasmid. 48 h after transfection, cells were trypsinized and collected by centrifugation,
and were then processed as described above.
684
eVLP protein content quantification
eVLP protein content quantification was performed as described previously[8]. Briefly,
ultracentrifuge-purified eVLPs were lysed in dye-free Laemmli sample buffer (50 mM Tris-
HCl pH 7.0, 2% sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS), 10% (v/v) glycerol, 2 mM dithiothreitol
(DTT)) by heating at 95ºC for 15 min. The concentration of ABE protein in purified eVLPs
was quantified using the FastScan™ Cas9 (*S. pyogenes*) ELISA kit (Cell Signaling
Technology; 29666C) according to the manufacturer's protocols. Recombinant Cas9 (*S.
pyogenes*) nuclease protein (New England Biolabs; M0386) was used to generate the
standard curve for quantification. The concentration of MLV p30 protein in purified eVLPs

was quantified using the MuLV Core Antigen ELISA kit (Cell Biolabs; VPK-156) according
to the manufacturer's protocols. The number of ABE protein molecules per eVLP was
calculated by determining the ratio of Cas9 molecules to p30 molecules and assuming a
copy number of 1800 molecules of p30 per eVLP as previously described[8].
698
Animal experiments
All mouse experiments were compliant with relevant ethical regulations and were
approved by the MIT Committee on Animal Care (D16-00078; 2402000629). Wild-type 8-
week-old adult male C57BL/6J mice (000664) were purchased from the Jackson
Laboratory. All mice were housed in a room maintained on a 12 h light and dark cycle
with *ad libitum* access to standard rodent diet and water. Animals were randomly
assigned to various experimental groups.
Retro-orbital injections were performed as described previously[8] with a few
modifications. eVLPs for retro-orbital injections were purified via sucrose-cushion
ultracentrifugation as described above. Immediately prior to injection, eVLPs were
partially clarified by centrifugation at 1000 g for 5 min to remove debris. The eVLP-
containing supernatant was diluted with 0.9% NaCl (Hospira; 00409-4888-10), and a total
of 100 µL solution (containing 15 µL of 1500-fold concentrated purified eVLPs,
approximately 3×10^{11} eVLPs) was injected per mouse. Genomic DNA was purified from
bulk liver tissue using the Agencourt DNAdvance kit (Beckman Coulter; A48705)
according to the manufacturer's protocols. Purified genomic DNA was amplified for high-
throughput sequencing as described above, with 25 cycles of amplification during PCR1.
716
ENVLPE+ production
ENVLPE+ particles[10] were produced analogously to eVLPs. Producer cells were seeded
in T-75 flasks at a density of 5×10^6 cells per flask. After 20–24 h, cells were transfected
using the jetPRIME transfection reagent (Polyplus; 114-75) according to the
manufacturer's protocols. A mixture of plasmids expressing VSV-G (1550 ng), psPAX2-
D64V (1,149 ng; Addgene #63586, a gift from David Rawlings & Andrew Scharenberg),
pCMV_ENVLPE+ (665 ng; Addgene #232427, a gift from Gil Westmeyer),
pCMV_ABE8e_superNLS (1,023 ng; Addgene #232429, a gift from Gil Westmeyer), and
a *BCL11A*-targeting PP7-containing sgRNA (4,913 ng; cloned from Addgene #232432, a
gift from Gil Westmeyer) were co-transfected per T-75 flask. 40–48 h post-transfection,
producer cell supernatant was harvested and centrifuged for 5 min at 500 g to remove
cell debris. The clarified ENVLPE+-containing supernatant was filtered through a 0.45-µm
PVDF filter (Millipore; SE1M003M00). The filtered supernatant was concentrated 100-fold
using PEG-it Virus Precipitation Solution (System Biosciences; LV825A-1) according to
the manufacturer's protocols and resuspended in Opti-MEM serum-free media (Thermo
Fisher Scientific; 31985070).
733
Statistical analysis
735 Data are presented as mean and standard deviation (s.d.). No statistical methods were
736 used to predetermine sample size. Statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad
737 Prism software. Sample sizes are described in the figure legends.
738
Data availability

The high-throughput sequencing data generated during this study is being deposited at the NCBI Sequence Read Archive database under PRJNA1288558. Raw data from the genome-wide knockout screen is provided in Supplementary Tables 3–6. Key plasmids from this work will be deposited to Addgene for distribution. Other plasmids and cell lines are available from the corresponding author on request.

Code availability

The code used for analyzing base editing efficiencies are available at https://github.com/pinellolab/CRISPResso2. The code used for analyzing CRISPR screen results are available in Supplementary Note 1 and at https://sourceforge.net/p/mageck/wiki/Home/.

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Author contributions

A.R. conceived the project. D.L., H.J., A.G., A.S., and A.R. designed the research, performed experiments, and analyzed data. H.J. performed mouse experiments. A.R. wrote the manuscript, and all authors edited the manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare competing financial interests: D.L. and A.R. have filed a patent application on this work through the Whitehead Institute. The remaining authors declare no competing interests.

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