**Graphical Abstract**

- Scalable Cas9 system for human pluripotent stem cells
- 90K sgRNAs
- Genome-scale CRISPR hPSC library
- 1. Identifying fitness genes
- 2. Identifying suppressors of dissociation-induced death
- OCT4 high
- OCT4 low
- 3. Identifying pluripotency regulators
- Minus ROCK inhibitor
- Decreased
- Increased
- Time

**Highlights**

- A universal and scalable genetic platform in hPSCs for general use across all lineages
- Robust knockout efficiencies translate into high-performance screening at genome scale
- Stem cell-specific components of TP53 and OCT4 genetic networks in hPSCs are identified
- Validation of PMAIP1 and PAWR function in sensitivity to DNA damage or dissociation

**Authors**

Robert J. Ihry, Max R. Salick, Daniel J. Ho, ..., Gregory R. Hoffman, Ricardo Dolmetsch, Ajamete Kaykas

**Correspondence**

robert.ihry@novartis.com (R.J.I.), akaykas@gmail.com (A.K.)

**In Brief**

Ihry et al. develop a CRISPR/Cas9 genetic screening platform for hPSCs that enables unbiased genome-scale genetic screening. The platform exhibits high performance and accurately detects the dropout of essential genes. Furthermore, proof-of-concept screens exploit hPSC-specific phenotypes to identify regulators of fitness, survival after single-cell dissociation, and pluripotency.
Genome-Scale CRISPR Screens Identify Human Pluripotency-Specific Genes

Robert J. Ihry,1,4 Max R. Salick,1,7 Daniel J. Ho,1 Marie Sondey,1,3 Sravya Kommineni,1,8 Steven Paula,2 Joe Raymond,1 Beata Henry,1 Elizabeth Frias,1 Qiong Wang,2 Kathleen A. Woringer,1 Chaoyang Ye,1,4 Carsten Russ,2 John S. Reece-Hoyes,2 Robert C. Altshuler,1 Ranjit Randhawa,1,2 Zinger Yang,2,6 Gregory McAllister,2,9 Gregory R. Hoffman,2,9 Ricardo Dolmetsch,1 and Ajamete Kaykas1,7,10,*

1Department of Neuroscience, Novartis Institutes for Biomedical Research, Cambridge, MA 02139, USA
2Department of Chemical Biology and Therapeutics, Novartis Institutes for Biomedical Research, Cambridge, MA 02139, USA
3Abbvie, Cambridge, MA 02139, USA
4Blueprint Medicines, Cambridge, MA 02139, USA
5Axcella Health, Cambridge, MA 02139, USA
6University of Massachusetts Medical School, Worcester, MA 01655, USA
7Insitro, South San Francisco, CA 94080, USA
8Casma Therapeutics, Cambridge, MA 02139, USA
9Sana Biotechnology, Cambridge, MA 02139, USA
10Lead Contact
*Correspondence: robert.ihry@novartis.com (R.J.I.), akaykas@gmail.com (A.K.)
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.celrep.2019.03.043

SUMMARY

Human pluripotent stem cells (hPSCs) generate a variety of disease-relevant cells that can be used to improve the translation of preclinical research. Despite the potential of hPSCs, their use for genetic screening has been limited by technical challenges. We developed a scalable and renewable Cas9 and sgRNA-hPSC library in which loss-of-function mutations can be induced at will. Our inducible mutant hPSC library can be used for multiple genome-wide CRISPR screens in a variety of hPSC-induced cell types. As proof of concept, we performed three screens for regulators of properties fundamental to hPSCs: their ability to self-renew and/or survive (fitness), their inability to survive as single-cell clones, and their capacity to differentiate. We identified the majority of known genes and pathways involved in these processes, as well as a plethora of genes with unidentified roles. This resource will increase the understanding of human development and genetics. This approach will be a powerful tool to identify disease-modifying genes and pathways.

INTRODUCTION

Human pluripotent stem cells (hPSCs) can be used to generate a wide variety of disease-relevant cell types and have the potential to improve the translation of preclinical research by enhancing disease models. Despite the huge potential, genetic screening using hPSCs has been limited by their expensive and tedious cell culture requirements (Chen et al., 2011) and reduced genetic manipulation efficiencies (Ihry et al., 2018). Only a few short hairpin RNA (shRNA) screens have been conducted in hPSCs (Chia et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2013), but shRNAs have a high level of off targets and do not cause a complete loss of function, which is difficult to interpret (DasGupta et al., 2005; Echeverri et al., 2006; Kampmann et al., 2015; McDonald et al., 2017). Currently, the CRISPR/Cas9 system is the genetic screening tool of choice because it can efficiently cause loss-of-function alleles (Jinek et al., 2012; Cong et al., 2013; Mali et al., 2013). Hundreds of genome-scale pooled CRISPR screens have been performed in immortalized human cell lines (Hart et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2015; Meyers et al., 2017). However, in hPSCs the CRISPR/Cas9 system has been used primarily for small-scale genome engineering (Merkle et al., 2013). In genetically intact hPSCs, the only genome-scale CRISPR screen to date used methods developed for cancer cells, suffered from technical issues, had poor performance, and identified few developmentally relevant genes (Hart et al., 2014; Shalem et al., 2014). We addressed these technical issues by systematically tailoring the CRISPR/Cas9 system for hPSCs (Ihry et al., 2018). We developed a doxycycline (dox)-inducible Cas9 (iCas9) hPSC line and stably infected it with a genome-scale single guide RNA (sgRNA) library. We banked and expanded the CRISPR-infected hPSC library in the absence of editing (–dox), which enabled us to generate a renewable stem cell pool with stable but inactive sgRNAs. This allowed us to conduct multiple independent screens with the same cell library.

In the first screen, we identified genes that suppress or enhance hPSC fitness over long-term culture. Although previous screens have generated gold-standard gene lists of core-essential genes that reduce cell survival when mutated, little is known about the mutations that enhance survival and proliferation. Unlike core-essential genes, these enhancing mutations appear to be cell type specific, and no consistent lists exist for this type of gene (Hart et al., 2014). In hPSCs, karyotypic analysis has detected recurrent copy number variations (CNVs) that confer a growth advantage (Amps et al., 2011; Laurent et al., 2011); however, these studies lack gene level resolution. Recently, next-generation
RESULTS

The iCas9 System Is a Self-Renewing Resource Enabling Successive Genome-wide Genetic Screens in hPSCs

We set out to develop a high-throughput CRISPR/Cas9 platform for hPSCs that would enable successive rounds of screening from a stable library of lentivirally infected hPSCs (Figures 1A and S1). Generating a genome-scale lentiviral hPSC library would enable both the rigorous testing of CRISPR screen performance and the identification of cell type-specific regulators of the pluripotent state. In our previous work, we developed an all-in-one iCas9 transgene that was inactive in the absence of dox (Ihry et al., 2018). The tight control over Cas9 expression allowed us to transduce cells with lentiviruses expressing sgRNAs (lentiCRISPRs) in the absence of dox without causing on-target indels. We tested if it was possible to bank a genome-scale lentiCRISPR-infected cell library (~5 sgRNAs per gene, 91,725 total sgRNAs) prior to Cas9 mutagenesis (~dox). After one freeze-thaw cycle, next-generation sequencing (NGS) analysis revealed no bottlenecking of the library demonstrating the feasibility of banking a large lentiCRISPR hPSC library for repeated screens (Figure 1B).

Evaluating the Performance of CRISPR Screening in iCas9 hPSCs

Next, we performed a fitness screen to evaluate the global performance of the system (Figure 1C). We benchmarked the performance of the screen by using annotated lists of core-essential genes. Core-essential genes are required for the survival of all cells; the corresponding CRISPR knockout causes the sgRNAs to be depleted (Hart et al., 2014, 2015). Genome-scale CRISPR screening in hPSCs has been challenging (Hart et al., 2014; Shaleem et al., 2014). hPSCs have a strong DNA damage response (DDR), and Cas9-induced double-strand breaks (DSBs) cause a significant cell loss (Ihry et al., 2018). Failure to account for Cas9-induced cell loss is problematic for pooled screening, because it is critical to maintain representation of each sgRNA-barcode cell. Our previous work demonstrated a range of Cas9-induced cell loss between 3- and 10-fold across many sgRNAs (Ihry et al., 2018). To reduce the bottlenecking of the sgRNA library caused by Cas9-induced toxicity, we started the screen in hPSCs at an average of 1,200 cells per sgRNA (a total of 110 million infected cells). By doing this we maintained about 4-fold more cells than a typical cancer screen (Hart et al., 2015). During the fitness screen, DNA was sampled before and after dox exposure at days 0, 8, 14, and 18 (Figure S1). To provide a qualitative measurement of screen performance, we plotted the p values calculated by the redundant small interfering RNA (siRNA) activity (RSA) test against Q1 based Z scores for a set of core-essential and non-essential genes (König et al., 2007; Hart et al., 2014). Before dox treatment the non-essential and core-essential genes are randomly distributed within a tight cluster (Figure 1D). After 18 days of Cas9 treatment, the distribution spreads, and the essential genes significantly drop out while the non-essential genes remain constant (Figure 1D; Tables S1 and S2).

To quantify performance, we used the Bayesian analysis of gene essentiality (BAGEL) algorithm, which calculates a Bayes
A Self-Renewing Dox-Inducible CAS9 Genome-wide sgRNA Cell Library Enables Multiple High-Performance CRISPR Screens in Human Pluripotent Stem Cells

(A) Diagram depicting the iCas9 platform for genome-scale CRISPR screening in hPSCs. The iCas9 platform consists of a dox-inducible Cas9 transgene knocked in the AAVS1 locus of H1-hESCs and lentiviral delivery of constitutively expressed sgRNAs. iCas9 hPSCs were transduced (.5 MOI) at scale. After 1 week of expansion and selection for lentiCRISPRs, iCas9 hPSCs were either banked or subjected to Cas9 mutagenesis for screening.

(B) Correlation of normalized sgRNA counts reveals that freeze and thaw expanded samples (−dox) have high correlation with the plasmid library and the starting pool of infected iCas9 hPSCs at day 0 of the screen. Day 18 samples have been exposed to dox (+Cas9). R² values were calculated on the basis of the normalized count values.

(C) Diagram depicting three categories of genes that enrich (enhance), deplete (suppress), or remain constant during a fitness screen.

(D) Scatterplot depicting gene level results for core-essential (pink) and non-essential (blue) genes. Without Cas9 treatment (−dox), cells expressing sgRNAs targeting core-essential and non-essential genes are interspersed and have an RSA > −2.75 (marked by dashed line). After 18 days of exposure to Cas9 (+dox), sgRNAs targeting essential genes drop out to less than RSA −2.75. The y axis is RSA value, and the x axis marks the Z score (Q1). Non-essential and core-essential gene list from Hart et al. (2014).

(E) Precision recall (PR) analysis of genome-scale CRISPR screening data in H1-hESCs. Cas9-expressing cells (purple) exhibit a PR curve that gradually slopes off, whereas cells without Cas9 (green) exhibit a PR curve that immediately decreases.

(F) Fitness gene calculation on the basis of 5% false discovery rate (FDR) on the y axis. Each condition labeled on the x axis.

(G) Venn diagram comparing 770 depleted genes in hPSCs with 1,580 core-essential genes identified by screening cancer cell lines (Hart et al., 2015). 405 of the hPSCs depleted genes overlap, while the remaining 365 are specifically depleted in pluripotent stem cells.

(H) Genes that dropout in CRISPR screen are abundantly expressed. The y axis depicts the log₂ transformation of average TPM values from 20 independent RNA-seq experiments in H1-hESCs. In blue are non-essential genes from Hart et al. (2014), in pink are 405 core-essential genes, in purple are 365 stem cell-specific essential genes, and in gray are the remaining unannotated genes. See also Figure S1.
factor for each gene by determining the probability that the observed fold change for a given gene matches that of known essential genes (Hart and Moffat, 2016). This generates a ranked list of Bayes factors for each gene, which can then be used to quantify screen performance by precision versus recall analysis. In a high-performance screen, essential genes have high Bayes factor scores, and the precision versus recall curve gradually drops off as analysis of the ranked list is completed. In contrast, a poor-performing screen has a precision versus recall curve that rapidly drops off, indicating many false positives (non-essential genes) with high Bayes factor scores. The sample without dox exposure (untreated) has a randomly ranked Bayes factor list with non-essential and essential genes interspersed and exhibits a poor precision versus recall curve (Figure 1E). In the day 18 Cas9 (+dox) treated samples, essential genes and non-essential genes segregate from each other and generates a high-performing precision versus recall curve that gradually drops off (Figure 1E; Table S3).

After 18 days of Cas9 exposure, we identified 770 fitness genes at a 5% false discovery rate on the basis of the precision calculation (Figure 1F; Table S4). Comparing the set of 770 hPSC fitness genes with 1,580 core-essential genes from cancer lines revealed an overlap of 405 genes (Figure 1G) (Hart et al., 2015). The remaining 365 specifically dropped out in hPSCs. Both the core and hPSC-specific essential genes are abundantly expressed in hPSCs, further supporting that they are required to maintain hPSCs in culture (Figure 1H). Our fitness screen in hPSCs correctly identifies the dropout of core-essential genes with accuracy that is on par with CRISPR screens conducted in cancer cell lines. This demonstrates that cancer cells and stem cells share a common set of core-essential genes that can be used to benchmark performance. By accounting for cell loss caused by Cas9 activity, we limited the effects of Cas9-induced toxicity that have thwarted previous attempts at genome-scale screening in hPSCs (Hart et al., 2014; Shalem et al., 2014). This demonstrates that it is possible to conduct an effective genome-scale CRISPR screen in hPSCs using the methods described here.

**TP53 Pathway Mutations Specifically Enrich during CRISPR Fitness Screen in hPSCs**

Curated lists of genes that enhance fitness during a CRISPR screen do not exist, making it difficult to benchmark the enrichment results (Hart et al., 2015). By comparing the top ~1,000 depleted (RSA-down < −2.25; Table S2) and enriched (RSA-up < −2.25; Table S5) genes, we observed that 31.8% (301 of 946) of the enriched genes were located on the X and Y chromosomes (H1-human embryonic stem cells [hESCs] XY; Figure S3). In contrast, the depleted genes were evenly distributed across all chromosomes. It became apparent that allosome-targeting sgRNAs were behaving similarly to non-targeting controls, which enrich during a CRISPR screen in hPSCs (Ihry et al., 2018). We observed that sgRNAs causing a single DSB on the X chromosome are less toxic relative to sgRNAs inducing two DSBs at the MAPT locus despite being able to efficiently induce indels (Figure S2). sgRNAs targeting genomic amplifications in cancer cell lines exhibit a strong depletion irrespective of the gene targets (Aguirre et al., 2016; Munoz et al., 2016; Meyers et al., 2017). Unlike cancer cell lines, H1-hESCs with a normal diploid karyotype are very sensitive to DNA damage, making the difference between one and two DSBs significant. After recognizing that the enrichment of sgRNAs on the X and Y chromosomes was related to DSB sensitivity and copy number differences in male H1-hESCs, we focused on autosomal genes. In the remaining list of 645 autosomal genes that were enriched (RSA-up < −2.25), we identified 41 tumor suppressor genes (Zhao et al., 2016).

The second most enriched gene was TP53, which confirms the selective pressure imposed by Cas9-induced DSBs in hPSCs during a CRISPR screen (Figure 2A). Consistent with this TP53 mutants are able to suppress cell loss induced by Cas9 activity (Ihry et al., 2018). Throughout the 18-day screen, the representation of sgRNAs targeting TP53 (chromosome [Chr.] 17), the checkpoint kinase CHEK2 (Chr. 22), and the pro-apoptotic regulator PMAIP1 (Chr. 18) increased in a time-dependent manner (Figure 2B). Database mining for associations with TP53 among the enriched genes identified 20 genes with direct connections to TP53 (Figure 2C; Table S6), 19 of which are expressed in H1-hESC and are on autosomal chromosomes. Although EDA2R is on the X chromosome, it was included because its mRNA increases in response to DNA damage in hPSCs (Ihry et al., 2016). We hypothesized that these genes could include additional regulators responsible for the extreme sensitivity to DNA damage in hPSCs.

PMAIP1 was the most enriched gene in the screen. PMAIP1 has been implicated in TP53-dependent cell death and functions by sensitizing cells to apoptosis by antagonizing the anti-apoptotic protein MCL1 at the mitochondria (Kim et al., 2006; Ploner et al., 2008; Pericarville et al., 2012). PMAIP1 is highly expressed in hPSCs, and its expression marks the pluripotent state (Mallon et al., 2013). We confirmed this by examining PMAIP1 expression in two induced pluripotent stem cell (iPSC) and two hESC lines. Analysis of RNA sequencing (RNA-seq) experiments confirmed that PMAIP1 was highly expressed during the pluripotent state and drops during neuronal differentiation using the NGN2 transgene (Figure 3A). Additionally, Genotype-Tissue Expression (GTEx) data revealed that PMAIP1 has a highly restricted expression pattern and is not expressed in most tissues (GTEx Analysis Release V7). Although it has been demonstrated that PMAIP1 expression is maintained by OCT4 in testicular germ cell tumors (Gutekunst et al., 2013), no functional connection has been made in hPSCs. We tested if PMAIP1 expression was maintained by the pluripotency network by differentiating cells or knocking out OCT4. Under these conditions qPCR detected a significant decrease in PMAIP1 mRNA (Figure 3B). In thymocytes, PMAIP1 mRNA is induced by TP53 (Khandanpour et al., 2013). We knocked out TP53 in hPSCs but did not detect a reduction in PMAIP1 mRNA (Figure 3B). hPSCs constitutively express high levels of PMAIP1, and DNA damage does not increase PMAIP1 expression, further supporting PMAIP1 mRNA as pluripotency dependent and TP53 independent (Ihry et al., 2018).

Prior work demonstrated that cancer cell lines have a reduced DDR relative to hPSCs (Ihry et al., 2018). Consistent with this, we did not observe an enrichment of PMAIP1 sgRNAs in 14 independent CRISPR screens conducted in cancer cell lines despite...
using libraries containing the same PMAIP1-targeting sgRNAs (Figure 3C). This suggested that PMAIP1 is responsible for making hPSCs sensitive to DNA damage. To test the functional consequences of PMAIP1 mutations, we knocked out PMAIP1 in the iCas9 cell line using transient exposure to synthetic crRNAs (Figure S3). We tested if PMAIP1 mutants were resistant to DSB-induced death by using lentICRISPRs to deliver a sgRNA targeting MAPT, a neuronal gene not expressed in hPSCs. In the absence of Cas9 (−dox), both control and PMAIP1 mutant iCas9 cells grow at a similar rate while expressing an sgRNA. In the presence of Cas9 (+dox) and a sgRNA, control cells die, while PMAIP1 mutants are able to survive despite efficient DSB induction (Figures 3D, S3, and S4E). qPCR analysis of the TP53-targeted genes P21 and FAS detected an elevated expression in PMAIP1 mutants compared with controls (Figure 3E). Despite having an active TP53, PMAIP1 mutants survive. This indicates PMAIP1 is downstream of TP53 activation and is consistent with its known role as a sensitizer to apoptosis (Ploner et al., 2008). In hPSCs, cell death is the predominant response to DNA damage. Unlike PMAIP1 mutants, P21 mutants (>80% indels) are unable to suppress DSB-induced toxicity (Figure S4E), and P21 sgRNAs did not enrich in H1-hESCs. In contrast, in a genome-scale screen in retinal pigment epithelial cells, where Cas9 activity causes TP53-dependent cell-cycle arrest rather than apoptosis, sgRNAs targeting TP53 and P21/CDKN1A were enriched, while PMAIP1 sgRNAs were not (Table S5) (Haapaniemi et al., 2017).

Overall, these results indicate that PMAIP1 plays a role in the sensitivity of hPSCs to DNA damage and highlight the ability of genome-scale CRISPR screens to identify cell type-specific genes important for the fitness of pluripotent stem cells.

**Genetic Screen for Suppressors of Dissociation-Induced Death**

We next tested our ability to identify phenotypic regulators of human developmental processes. Human PSCs, unlike mouse PSCs, are very sensitive to dissociation and die in the absence of ROCK inhibitors (Ohgushi et al., 2010). During dissociation of hPSCs, Rho and ROCK become activated. This leads to the phosphorylation of myosin, which causes membrane blebbing and cell death. To promote survival, inhibitors that target ROCK (Y-27632 or thiazovivin) or myosin (blebbistatin) are used routinely during hPSC passaging (Watanabe et al., 2007; Chen et al., 2010). Very few cells survive dissociation in the absence of ROCK inhibitors. Importantly, this phenotype is developmentally rooted. hPSCs are epiblast-like, and cells that fail to incorporate into the polarized epithelium of the epiblast undergo cell death in the embryo (Ohgushi et al., 2010). To gain a deeper understanding of the genes involved, we screened for suppressors of dissociation-induced death.

To ensure complete Cas9 mutagenesis, we waited till the day 14 passage of the fitness screen to plate an additional replicate of the genome-scale mutant cell library in the absence of thiazovivin (Figures 4A and S1). The majority of the mutant cells died during this process, and the surviving cells were maintained for 2 weeks until large colonies were visible, at which point DNA was isolated and sgRNAs sequences were recovered by NGS. We identified 76 genes with two or more independent sgRNAs present in cells that survived dissociation without thiazovivin...
Figure 3. PMAIP1 Confers Sensitivity to DNA Damage in hPSCs

(A) PMAIP1 is highly expressed in hESCs and iPSCs. The y axis represents expression in transcripts per kilobase million (TPM). H1-hESCs (n = 1), H9-hESCs (n = 3), 8402-iPSCs (n = 3), and HDFn-iPSCs (n = 4). The x axis represents days after induction of a doxycycline-inducible NGN2 expression cassette. Day 0 = hPSCs.

(B) qPCR confirms that PMAIP1 mRNA is dependent on the pluripotent state. The y axis is relative expression, and each bar represents mean relative expression. The x axis is each condition. Control, hPSCs in E8 media; +FBS, 3 days’ exposure to 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and DMEM; +NGN2, 3 days’ exposure to NGN2; OCT4 KO, mutant pool after 6 days’ exposure to iCas9 and sgRNA targeting OCT4; PMAIP1−/−, complete knockout cell line; TP53−/−, complete knockout cell line. n = 3 independent mRNA samples per sgRNA, error bars indicate ±1 SD. *p < 0.05 and **p < 0.01 (unpaired two-tailed t test, equal variances).

(C) PMAIP1-targeting sgRNAs specifically enrich during CRISPR screen in hESC but not cancer cell lines. The x axis plots CRISPR screens conducted in (Figure 4C; Table S7). As expected, multiple sgRNAs targeting ROCK1 and MYH9, the genetic targets of ROCK inhibitors and blebbistatin, were recovered. Myosin is a hexameric motor protein that is composed of six subunits with three subtypes. The screen recovered three sgRNAs for MYH9, a myosin heavy chain, five sgRNAs for MYL6, a non-phosphorylated myosin light chain, and two sgRNAs for the ROCK target MYL9/MLC2, a phosphorylated myosin light chain. There are many myosin proteins, but our screen identified three of five of the most abundantly expressed in hPSCs (Figure 4B). This reiterates the importance of myosin activation in membrane blebbing and dissociation-induced death. A number of additional genes have roles in the actin and myosin network or cytoskeleton, including DAPK3, PAWR, OPN1L, FLII, and KIF3A (Figure 4D).

Overall STRINGdb analysis detected a connected set of genes with ties to the actin and myosin regulatory network (Figure 4D). In general members of this network did not enrich during the fitness screen, suggesting that they specifically regulate dissociation-induced death and not fitness (Figure 4E).

PAWR is Required for Dissociation-Induced Death

For follow-up studies, we focused on the strongest hit from the screen, the pro-apoptotic regulator PAWR (Hebbar et al., 2012). PAWR has no known biological role in the early embryo or during dissociation-induced death of hPSCs. The screen recovered all five sgRNAs targeting PAWR in the genome-scale library, and the barcode reads were highly abundant (Figure 4C). Unlike sgRNAs for the TP53 pathway that enrich throughout the CRISPR screen, PAWR and MYL6 have no effect on fitness in the presence of thiazovivin (Figure 4E). We repeated the results using three independent lentCRISPRs to knock out PAWR in iCas9 expressing H1-hESC cells. PAWR mutants are able to survive without thiazovivin, while control cells do not (Figure S4). To independently validate these results, we used CRISPR-mediating interference (CRISPRi) to knock down the expression of PAWR mRNA without causing DNA damage or genetic mutations (Data S1) (Qi et al., 2013). By using a h1-hESC line constitutively expressing cCas9 fused to a KRAB domain and sgRNAs targeting PAWR promoter, we also detected an increase in the survival of dissociated cells in the absence of thiazovivin (Figure S4).

H1-hESC lines and 14 additional transformed lines. Five independent sgRNAs marked by dots. The y axis represents log(fold change).

(D) PMAIP1 mutant hPSCs are insensitive to DNA damage. Live imaging of cleavage in MAPT sgRNA expressing iCas9 cells + DSB (+dox/Cas9) in control or PMAIP1−/− knockout cell line. Unlike DSB-treated control cells, the PMAIP1−/− mutants survive in the presence of DSBs. Black lines indicate survival of dissociated cells in the absence of thiazovivin (Figure S4).

(E) qPCR of TP53 target genes indicates PMAIP1 functions downstream of TP53. P21 and FAS mRNA is induced by MAPT targeting sgRNAs in iCas9 control cells 2 days after dox treatment, PMAIP1−/− mutants exhibit increased levels of P21 and FAS mRNA, which is absent in TP53−/− mutants. The y axis is relative expression is calculated by comparing the mRNA of each point represents mean (four images per well, n = 3 wells). Error bars indicate ±1 SD. The x axis depicts time in days of treatment.

See also Figures S1, S3, and S5.
Figure 4. Genetic Screen for Suppressors of Dissociation-Induced Death

(A) Diagram depicting screen shows the dissociation and replating of the genome-scale mutant cell library without thiazovivin (a ROCK inhibitor). Most cells did not survive the treatment; however, at the end of 2 weeks, some large colonies were recovered for DNA isolation and NGS analysis.

(B) The screen recovered three of six subunits of the hexameric myosin motor protein that regulates blebbing in hPSCs. The y axis depicts average TPM in H1-hESCs. The x axis depicts myosin genes expressed >1 TPM in H1-hESCs. Myosin genes recovered by screen in pink. Genes that were not detected by screen are in blue.

(C) Heatmap depicting number of sgRNAs recovered on the y axis and each gene on the x axis. Colors indicate the abundance of each sgRNA recovered. Pink marks greater than 90th percentile, and purple marks less than 10th percentile.

(D) STRINGdb analysis highlights actin and myosin gene network among mutations that allow cells to survive dissociation in the absence of ROCK inhibitors. Hits from screen marked in green.

(E) MYL6 and PAWR specifically regulate survival after dissociation and do not enrich during CRISPR screen. Each dot represents five independent sgRNAs per gene, and NGS quantifies representation of lentiCRISPRs infected cells. Samples were normalized to the day 0 population and y axis represents log2(fold change). Day 0 data shown is from freeze and thaw samples maintained at 2,700x. The x axis plots each condition over time. Cas9+ samples were treated with dox to induce Cas9 expression.

See also Figures S1, S4, and S6.
To conduct detailed analysis of PAWR mutants, we exposed cells to Cas9 and sgRNAs targeting PAWR and generated a knockout cell line with a normal karyotype (Figure S4). The suppression of dissociation-induced death is specific to PAWR mutants, as PMAIP1 mutants are unable to survive passaging without thiazovivin (Figures 5A and 5B). Conversely, PAWR mutants are unable to survive DSB-induced toxicity, further demonstrating the specificity of the respective phenotypes (Figure S4E). We next examined how PAWR mutants survive by time-lapse microscopy. After single-cell dissociation, control cells without thiazovivin exhibit membrane blebbing and subsequently die (Figure 5C). Conversely, PAWR mutants without thiazovivin have greatly reduced blebbing and survive as single cells by extending cell projections, which promote attachment and survival (Figure 5C). We further examined cytoskeletal organization using phalloidin to stain filamentous (F) actin. The thiazovivin-treated cells have an increased surface area, a fanned-out shape with actin stress fibers, and a large circular adhesion belt-like structure (Figure 5C). In the absence of thiazovivin, control cells have many small actin rings that mark membrane blebs. PAWR mutants without thiazovivin exhibit reduced membrane blebbing and small actin rings (Figure 5C).

Moleculary, PAWR has dual roles as a transcriptional repressor that causes cell death and as an actin-binding protein that regulates contractility (Johnstone et al., 1996; Burikhanov et al., 2009; Vetterkind and Morgan, 2009). Despite having abundant PAWR mRNA, PAWR protein is post-translationally regulated and induced by dissociation in hPSCs (Figures S4 and S5). Immunofluorescence did not detect PAWR protein in the nucleus; however, we did observe localization of PAWR with F-actin in both thiazovivin-treated and untreated cells (Figure 5D). PAWR localized to adhesion belt-like structures in the presence of thiazovivin and to membrane blebs in the untreated cells after dissociation. Additional hits from the screen, PRKCZ and SCRIB, also localized to membrane blebs (Figure S6). Both PRKCZ and SCRIB are expressed in the early mouse embryo and exhibit a ROCK-dependent cell polarity (Kono et al., 2014). Cumulatively, we have identified a role for PAWR in dissociation-induced death. PAWR mutants survive dissociation without ROCK inhibitors because of a failure to initiate membrane blebbing and downstream caspase activation (Figure S5) (Ogushi et al., 2010).

Furthermore, PAWR is a known pro-apoptotic factor, and we have demonstrated that PAWR protein is induced upon dissociation and colocalizes with the actin network that is responsible for initiating membrane blebbing and subsequent cell death.

**FACS-Based Screen for Regulators of Pluripotency**

Although our fitness screen detected a significant hPSC-specific dropout of OCT4, other critical regulators of pluripotency such as NANOG did not affect fitness (Figure 1E; Table S4). A genome-scale fitness screen in mouse embryonic stem cells (mESCs) had similar results and reported the dropout of only three genes regulating blastocyst development (Koike-Yusa et al., 2014). Pluripotency and cellular fitness of hPSCs may not be related, and this indicates that some differentiated cell types may not exhibit changes in fitness when cultured in the pluripotent media. To specifically identify regulators of human pluripotency, we conducted a FACS-based pooled screen using an OCT4 antibody. One year after conducting the first screen, we thawed a genome-scale CRISPR cell library (~dox) and expanded the cells prior to conducting the screen (Figure S1). The cells were mutagenized with Cas9 for 8 days prior to FACS to collect cells with high (OCT4HIGH) and low (OCT4LOW) OCT4 expression (Figure 6A). Log2(fold change) was calculated by comparing the OCT4LOW group with the OCT4HIGH group. We plotted the p values calculated by the RSA test against Q1- and Q3-based Z scores for OCT4LOW and OCT4HIGH, respectively (Figure 7B; Table S8). Importantly, we detected a significant enrichment of OCT4 and NANOG targeting sgRNAs in the OCT4LOW group. We also detected an enrichment of TGFBR1/2 genes required to maintain the culture of hPSCs and the chromatin regulators EP300 and SMARCA4/BRG1, which regulate OCT4 expression and function in hPSCs (Singhal et al., 2010; Chen et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2012; King and Klose, 2017). Using STRINGdb, we identified a core network of genes connected to OCT4 in the OCT4LOW group (Figure 6C). This highlights the ability of phenotypic CRISPR screening to identify relevant gene networks. Additionally, the OCT4HIGH group identified factors that promote differentiation, such as HAND1, KDM5B, and EIF4G2 (Table S8) (Yamanaka et al., 2000; Hough et al., 2006; Kidder et al., 2013). Many of the genes in these lists have published roles in regulating pluripotency, reprogramming or embryonic development, and further investigation of the less studied genes will reveal insights into the human pluripotent state (Tables S8 and S9).
Identification of hPSC-Specific Fitness and Pluripotency Gene Networks

Extensive CRISPR screening in cancer cell lines has provided a wealth of knowledge about their genetic dependencies. However, the static state of these cells has revealed less about genes with developmental functions (Hart et al., 2015). To compare hPSC results to cancer cell lines, we conducted pairwise Pearson correlation coefficients using Bayes factor distributions (cancer data from Hart et al., 2015). The analysis revealed that hPSCs formed a distinct cluster (Figure 7A) and is consistent with the partial overlap between core-essential genes in cancer and fitness genes in hPSCs (52%; Figure 1E). To focus on gene networks specific to hPSCs, we conducted bioinformatics analysis comparing 829 core-essential cancer genes (essential for five of five cell lines; Hart et al., 2015) with hPSC-specific gene sets identified by our screens. A total of 661 hPSC-specific genes were obtained from the fitness screen (365 depleted and 20 enriched p53-related genes), dissociation-induced death screen (76), and the OCT4 FACS screen (212) (Table S10). The gene lists were analyzed using the PANTHER classification system (pantherdb.org). PANTHER pathway analysis identified a greater diversity of 92 enriched pathways in hPSCs and only 38 in the cancer lines (Figure 7B). In accordance with this, we also detected an increase in the number of genes with receptor and signal-transducer activity molecular functions (Figure 7C). The hPSC-enriched pathways included several expected regulators: FGF, TGF-beta, and WNT (Figure 7B). FGF2 and TGFβ are critical components of E8 media and are required to maintain
pluripotency *in vitro* (Chen et al., 2011), WNT signaling regulates both differentiation and pluripotency in ESCs (Sokol, 2011). Activation of EGF, PDGF, and VEGF is also important for the maintenance of the pluripotent state (Figure 7B) (Grill et al., 2009). P53 and CCKR/Rho GTPases pathways, which regulate apoptosis and have critical roles in determining the sensitivity of hPSCs to DNA damage and enzymatic dissociation, were also enriched (Figure 7B). Examination of the biological processes’ gene ontology revealed an increase in the number of development and multicellular organism genes (Figure 7C). Furthermore, sub-dividing the developmental process category revealed enrichment of genes regulating cell death, differentiation, and early developmental stages (Figure 7C). Globally these results highlight the identification of cell type-specific genes regulating different aspects of the pluripotent state. By screening for regulators of three fundamental processes governing the culture of hPSCs, we have successfully identified known regulators in addition to a plethora of genes involved in stem cell biology.
(Figure 7D). These genes are a blueprint for human pluripotency and will serve as a useful resource for the human development and stem cell communities.

**DISCUSSION**

The use of hPSCs in large-scale functional genomics studies has been limited by technical constraints. Prior to our study, it was unclear that genome-scale CRISPR screens were possible in hPSCs, as the first attempts had poor performance (Hart et al., 2014; Shalem et al., 2014). We overcame this by building a high-performance two-component CRISPR/CAS9 system for hPSCs. The performance, across many sgRNAs, made the platform amenable to high-throughput screening. Using iCas9 in hPSCs it is possible to perturb hundreds of genes in arrayed format or the entire genome in pooled format. The system is renewable, and a pool of stem cells with sgRNAs to the entire genome can be banked, distributed, and used for successive screens in hPSCs and their differentiated progeny. Beyond technical proficiency, we identified genes that regulate fundamental stem cell processes such as self-renewal, their inherent sensitivity to DNA damage, single-cell cloning, pluripotency, and differentiation.

First, we identified 770 genes required for the self-renewal of hPSC. A majority of these genes have established roles in fitness, while 365 of these genes are specific to hPSCs. This set of genes could be used to inform a systematic approach to improve the consistency, robustness, and user-friendliness of hPSC culture conditions. During the fitness screen, we also determined that Cas9 activity imposes selective pressure on DNA damage-sensitive hPSCs. This caused the enrichment of 20 genes that are connected to TP53. Consistent with this, dominant-negative TP53 mutations and deletions recurrently occur and provide a selective advantage during the culture of hPSCs (Amir et al., 2017; Merkle et al., 2017). In addition to TP53, we identified a hPSC-specific role for 

Second, we identified 76 genes that enhance the survival of hPSCs during single-cell dissociation. Collectively, the screen uncovered an actin and myosin network required for membrane blebbing and cell death caused by dissociation. We identified a role for PAWR, a pro-apoptotic regulator that is induced upon dissociation. PAWR is required for membrane blebbing and subsequent death of dissociated hPSCs in the absence of ROCK inhibitors. Importantly, the results are developmentally relevant, and we also identified SCRIB and PRKCZ, which are known regulators of cell polarity in the early mouse embryo (Kono et al., 2014). PAWR has been shown to physically interact with PRKCZ and suggests a potential link between cell polarity and dissociation-induced death (Diaz-Meco et al., 1996). These hits appear to be related to the polarized epiblast-like state of primed hPSCs.

In the final screen, by subjecting our hPSC CRISPR library to FACS sorting on OCT4 protein, we identified 113 genes that are required to maintain pluripotency and 99 genes that potentially regulate differentiation. Overall, the screen identified an entire network of genes related to OCT4. Nineteen of these genes have previously indicated roles in pluripotency, embryo development, and reprogramming (Table S9). Future studies on the genes in the list will yield new insights about the genetic control of pluripotency and differentiation. These gene sets could guide rational improvements to protocols for the maintenance, differentiation, and reprogramming of hPSCs.

Overall, the results highlight the ability of unbiased genome-scale screens to identify critical and regulators of hPSC biology. Importantly, some of the strongest hits, such as PAWR and PMAIP1, were also identified in haploid hPSC screens (Yilmaz et al., 2018). Future investigation into the genes provided by these screens will be a step toward the genetic dissection of the human pluripotent state. Herein we provide simple and scalable work flows that will lower the entry barrier for additional labs to conduct large-scale CRISPR screens in hPSCs. The scalable and bankable platform described here is a renewable resource that will allow successive screens and the distribution of CRISPR-infected hPSC libraries. We anticipate that the use of CRISPRi will improve the performance. Reducing Cas9-induced toxicity will limit artifacts and reduce need for high library coverage and costs to enable systematic screening in many independent hPSC lines and differentiated cell types. The platform could potentially be used to improve the generation, culture, and differentiation capacity of hPSCs. It can be applied to the study of development and disease in wide variety of differentiated cell types. Established protocols for neurons, astrocytes, cardiomyocytes, hepatocytes, and beta cells can be exploited to dissect the genetic nature of development and homeostasis in disease-relevant cell types. This resource opens the door for the systematic genetic dissection of disease-relevant human cells in a way that was only before possible in model organisms.
AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

R.J.I. and A.K. designed all experiments and wrote the manuscript. M.R.S., K.A.W., and R.D. revised the manuscript. R.J.I. conducted live cell imaging, immunofluorescence, qPCR, and western blotting. S.K. and K.A.W. generated Ngm2-inducible cell lines and differentiated them into Ngm2 neurons. M.S. helped with genome-scale hPSC culture, packaged lentiviral sgRNAs, and generated CRISPRi lines. B.H. conducted pooled screening results in cancer cell lines. We thank Jason Moffat and Barbara Mair for the open discussion related to this research. All research was funded by the Novartis Institutes for Biomedical Research.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We would like to thank R. Maher, J. Alford, S. An, and D. Shkoza for their support with sgRNA cloning. We would like to thank Arti Patel for help with western blotting. We would like to thank F. Cong, W. Forrester, and L. Murphy for access to PMAiP1 pooled screening results in cancer cell lines. We thank Jason Moffat and Barbara Mair for the open discussion related to this research. All research was funded by the Novartis Institutes for Biomedical Research.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

All authors were employees of the Novartis Institutes for Biomedical Research at the time this research was conducted. R.J.I. and A.K. are inventors on patent applications related to this work.

Accepted: March 13, 2019
Published: April 9, 2019

REFERENCES

Aguirre, A.J., Meyers, R.M., Weir, B.A., Vazquez, F., Zhang, C.-Z., Ben-David, U., Cook, A., Ha, G., Harrington, W.F., Doshi, M.B., et al. (2016). Genomic copy number dictates a gene-independent cell response to CRISPR-Cas9 targeting. Cancer Discov. 6, 914–929.

Amir, H., Touboul, T., Sabatini, K., Chhabra, D., Garaitanandia, I., Loring, J.F., Morey, R., and Laurent, L.C. (2017). Spontaneous single-copy loss of TP53 in human embryonic stem cells markedly increases cell proliferation and survival. Stem Cells 35, 872–885.

Amps, K., Andrews, P.W., Anyfantis, G., Armstrong, L., Avery, S., Baharvand, H., Baker, J., Baker, D., Munoz, M.B., Beil, S., et al.; International Stem Cell Initiative (2011). Screening ethnically diverse human embryonic stem cells identifies a chromosome 20 minimal ampiclon conferring growth advantage. Nat. Biotechnol. 29, 1132–1144.

Anders, S., Pyl, P.T., and Huber, W. (2015). HTSeq—a Python framework to work with high-throughput sequencing data. Bioinformatics 31, 166–169.

Bidinosti, M., Botta, P., Kruttn, S., Proenca, C.C., Stoehr, N., Bernhard, M., Fruh, I., Mueller, M., Bonenfant, D., Voshal, H., et al. (2016). CLK2 inhibition ameliorates autistic features associated with SHANK3 deficiency. Science 351, 1199–1203.

Brill, L.M., Xiong, W., Lee, K.-B., Ficaro, S.B., Crain, A., Xu, Y., Terskikh, A., Snyder, E.Y., and Ding, S. (2009). Phosphoproteomic analysis of human embryonic stem cells. Cell Stem Cell 5, 204–213.

Burikhanov, R., Zhao, Y., Goswami, A., QiU, S., Schwarze, S.R., and Rangekar, V.M. (2009). The tumor suppressor Par-4 activates an extrinsic pathway for apoptosis. Cell 138, 377–388.

Chambers, I., Silva, J., Colby, D., Nichols, J., Nijmeijer, B., Robertson, M., Vrana, J., Jones, K., Grotewold, L., and Smith, A. (2007). Nanog safeguards pluripotency and mediates germline development. Nature 450, 1230–1234.

Chen, G., Hou, Z., Gulbranson, D.R., and Thomson, J.A. (2010). Actin-myosin contractility is responsible for the reduced viability of dissociated human embryonic stem cells. Cell Stem Cell 7, 240–248.

Chen, G., Gulbranson, D.R., Hou, Z., Bolin, J.M., Ruotti, V., Probasco, M.D., Smuga-Otto, K., Howden, S.E., Diol, N.R., Propson, N.E., et al. (2011). Chemically defined conditions for human iPSC derivation and culture. Nat. Methods 8, 424–429.

Chia, N.Y., Chan, Y.S., Feng, B., Lu, X., Orlov, Y.L., Moreau, D., Kumar, P., Yang, L., Jiang, J., Lau, M.S., et al. (2010). A genome-wide RNAi screen reveals determinants of human embryonic stem cell identity. Nature 468, 316–320.

Cong, L., Ran, F.A., Cox, D., Lin, S., Barretto, R., Habib, N., Hsu, P.D., Wu, X., Jiang, W., Marraffini, L.A., and Zhang, F. (2013). Multiplex genome engineering using CRISPR/Cas systems. Science 339, 819–823.

DasGupta, R., Kaykas, A., Moon, R., and Perrimon, N. (2005). Functional genomic analysis of the Wnt-wingless signaling pathway. Science 308, 826–833.

DeJesus, R., Moretti, F., McAllister, G., Wang, Z., Bergman, P., Liu, S., Frias, E., Alford, J., Reece-Hoyes, J.S., Lindeman, A., et al. (2016). Functional CRISPR screening identifies the ufmylation pathway as a regulator of SQSTM1/p62. Elife 5, e17290.

Diaz-Meco, M.T., Municio, M.M., Frutos, S., Sanchez, P., Lozano, J., Sanz, L., and Moscat, J. (1996). The product of par-4, a gene induced during apoptosis, interacts selectively with the atypical isoforms of protein kinase C. Cell 86, 777–786.

Dobin, A., Davis, C.A., Schlesinger, F., Drenkow, J., Zaleski, C., Jha, S., Batut, P., Chaisson, M., and Gingeras, T.R. (2013). STAR: ultrafast universal RNA-seq aligner. Bioinformatics 29, 15–21.

Echeverri, C.J., Beachy, P.A., Baum, B., Boutros, M., Buchholz, F., Chanda, S.K., Downward, J., Ellenberg, J., Fraser, A.G., Hacohen, N., et al. (2006). Minimizing the risk of reporting false positives in large-scale RNAi screens. Nat. Methods 3, 777–779.
Gutikunst, M., Mueller, T., Weibacher, A., Dengler, M.A., Bedke, J., Kruck, S., Oren, M., Aulitzky, W.E., and van der Kuip, H. (2013). Cisplatin hypersensitivity of testicular germ cell tumors is determined by high constitutive Noxa levels mediated by Oct-4. Cancer Res. 73, 1460–1469.

Haapaniemi, E., Botla, S., Persson, J., Schmierer, B., and Taipale, J. (2017). Inhibition of p53 improves CRISPR-Cas-mediated precision editing. Main text. bioRxiv. https://doi.org/10.1101/180943.

Hart, T., and Moffat, J. (2016). BAGEL: a computational framework for identifying essential genes from pooled library screens. BMC Bioinformatics 17, 164.

Hart, T., Brown, K.R., Siricouloumb, F., Rottapel, R., and Moffat, J. (2014). Measuring error rates in genome perturbation screens: gold standards for human functional genomics. Mol. Syst. Biol. 10, 733.

Hart, T., Chandrashekar, M., Aregger, M., Bedke, J., Dengler, M.A., Merkle, F.T., Neuhausser, W.M., Santos, D., Schier, A.F., and Eggan, K. (2015). Efficient CRISPR-Cas9-mediated generation of knockin human pluripotent stem cells. Nat. Cell Biol. 9, 625–635.

Hoffman, G.R., Belur, D., Castelletti, D., Frias, E., Gampa, K., et al. (2017). Project DRIVE: a compendium of cancer dependencies and synthetic lethal relationships uncovered by large-scale, deep RNAi screening. Cell 170, 577–592.e10.

Li, B., and Dewey, C.N. (2011). RSEM: accurate transcript quantifications from RNA-Seq data with or without a reference genome. BMC Bioinformatics 12, 323.

Love, M.I., Huber, W., and Anders, S. (2014). Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion for RNA-seq data with DESeq2. Genome Biol. 15, 550.

Mali, P., Yang, L., Esvett, K.M., Aach, J., Guell, M., DiCarlo, J.E., Norville, J.E., and Church, G.M. (2013). RNA-guided human genome engineering via Cas9. Science 339, 823–826.

Mallon, B.S., Chenoweth, J.G., Johnson, K.R., Hamilton, R.S., Tesar, P.J., Yah-vatkar, A.S., Tyson, L.J., Park, K., Chen, K.G., Fann, Y.C., and McKay, R.D.G. (2013). StemCellDB: the human pluripotent stem cell database at the National Institutes of Health. Stem Cell Res. (Amst.) 10, 57–66.

Masui, S., Nakatake, Y., Toyooka, Y., Shimosato, D., Yagi, R., Takahashi, K., Okochi, H., Okuda, A., Matoba, R., Sharov, A.A., et al. (2007). Pluripotency governed by Sox2 via regulation of Oct3/4 expression in mouse embryonic stem cells. Nat. Cell Biol. 9, 650–655.

McDonald, E.R., 3rd, de Weck, A., Schlabach, M.R., Bly, E., Makrvaks, K.J., Hoffman, G.R., Belur, D., Castelletti, D., Frias, E., Gampa, K., et al. (2017). Project DRIVE: a compendium of cancer dependencies and synthetic lethal relationships uncovered by large-scale, deep RNAi screening. Cell 170, 577–592.e10.

Merkle, F.T., Neuhausser, W.M., Santos, D., Valen, E., Gagnon, J.A., Maas, K., Sandoe, J., Schier, A.F., and Eggan, K. (2015). Efficient CRISPR-Cas9-mediated generation of knockin human pluripotent stem cells lacking undesired mutations at the targeted locus. Cell Rep. 11, 875–883.

Merkle, F.T., Ghosh, S., Kamitaki, N., Mitchell, J., Avior, Y., Mello, C., Kashin, S., Mekhoubad, S., Ilic, D., Chartlon, M., et al. (2017). Human pluripotent stem cells recurrently acquire and expand dominant negative P53 mutations. Nature 545, 229–233.

Meyers, R.M., Bryan, J.G., McFarland, J.M., Weir, B.A., Szemere, A.E., Xu, H., Dharia, N.V., Montgomery, P.G., Cowley, G.S., Pantel, S., et al. (2017). Computational correction of copy number effect improves specificity of CRISPR-Cas9 essentiality screens in cancer cells. Nat. Genet. 49, 1779–1784.

Munoz, D.M., Cassiani, P.J., Li, L., Billy, E., Korn, J.M., Jones, M.D., Golji, J., Ruddy, D.A., Yu, K., McAllister, G., et al. (2016). CRISPR screens provide a comprehensive assessment of cancer vulnerabilities but generate false-positive hits for highly amplified genomic regions. Cancer Disc. 6, 900–913.

Nichols, J., Zevnik, B., Anastassiadis, K., Niwa, H., Kieu-Nebenius, D., Chambers, I., Scholer, H., and Smith, A. (1998). Formation of pluripotent stem cells in the mammalian embryo depends on the POU transcription factor Oct4. Cell 95, 379–391.

Oghoshi, M., Matsumura, M., Eiraku, M., Murakami, K., Aramaki, T., Nishiyama, A., Muguruma, K., Nakano, T., Suga, H., Ueno, M., et al. (2010). Molecular pathway and cell state responsible for dissociation-induced apoptosis in human pluripotent stem cells. Cell Stem Cell 7, 225–239.

Percivalle, R.M., Stewart, D.P., Koss, B., Lynch, J., Milasta, S., Bathina, M., Temirov, J., Cleland, M.M., Pelletier, S., Schuetz, J.D., et al. (2012). Anti-apoptotic MCL-1 localizes to the mitochondrial matrix and couples mitochondrial fusion to respiration. Nat. Cell Biol. 14, 575–583.

Ploner, C., Kofler, R., and Villunger, A. (2008). Noxa: at the tip of the balance between life and death. Oncogene 27 (Suppl 1), S84–S92.

Qi, L.S., Larson, M.H., Gilbert, L.A., Weissman, J.S., Arkin, A.P., and Doudna, J.A. (2013). Repurposing CRISPR as an RNA-guided platform for sequence-specific control of gene expression. Cell 151, 1515–1526.

Kono, K., Tamashiro, D.A.A., and Alarcon, V.B. (2014). Inhibition of ROCK signaling enhances ICM and suppresses TE characteristics through activation of Hippo signaling in the mouse blastocyst. Dev. Biol. 394, 142–155.

Laurent, L.C., Ulltisy, I., Slavin, I., Tran, H., Schork, A., Morey, R., Lynch, C., Harness, J.V., Lee, S., Barrero, M.J., et al. (2011). Dynamic changes in the copy number of pluripotency and cell proliferation genes in human ESCs and iPS cells during reprogramming and time in culture. Cell Stem Cell 8, 106–118.
Singhal, N., Graumann, J., Wu, G., Araúzo-Bravo, M.J., Han, D.W., Greber, B., Gentle, L., Mann, M., and Schöler, H.R. (2010). Chromatin-remodeling components of the baf complex facilitate reprogramming. Cell 141, 943–955.

Sokol, S.Y. (2011). Maintaining embryonic stem cell pluripotency with Wnt signaling. Development 138, 4341–4350.

Sun, Y., Paçca, S.P., Portmann, T., Goold, C., Worringer, K.A., Guan, W., Chan, K.C., Gai, H., Vogt, D., Chen, Y.J.J., et al. (2016). A deleterious Nav1.1 mutation selectively impairs telencephalic inhibitory neurons derived from Dravet Syndrome patients. eLife 5, e1307.

Takahashi, K., and Yamanaka, S. (2006). Induction of pluripotent stem cells from mouse embryonic and adult fibroblast cultures by defined factors. Cell 126, 663–676.

Takahashi, K., Tanabe, K., Ohnuki, M., Narita, M., Ichisaka, T., Tomoda, K., and Yamanaka, S. (2007). Induction of pluripotent stem cells from adult human fibroblasts by defined factors. Cell 131, 861–872.

Takashima, Y., Guo, G., Loos, R., Nichols, J., Ficz, G., Krueger, F., Oxley, D., Santos, F., Clarke, J., Mansfield, W., et al. (2015). Erratum: resetting transcription factor control circuitry toward ground-state pluripotency in human (Cell (2014) 158 (1254–1269)). Cell 162, 452–453.

Vetterkind, S., and Morgan, K.G. (2009). The pro-apoptotic protein Par-4 facilitates vascular contractility by cytoskeletal targeting of ZIPK. J. Cell. Mol. Med. 13, 887–895.

Wang, W.P., Tzeng, T.Y., Wang, J.Y., Lee, D.C., Lin, Y.H., Wu, P.C., Chen, Y.P., Chiu, I.M., and Chi, Y.H. (2012). The EP300, KDM5A, KDM6A and KDM6B chromatin regulators cooperate with KLF4 in the transcriptional activation of POU5F1. PLoS ONE 7, e52556.

Yilmaz, A., Peretz, M., Aharony, A., Sagii., and Benvenisty, N. (2018). Defining essential genes for human pluripotent stem cells by CRISPR-Cas9 screening in haploid cells. Nat. Cell Biol. 20, 610–619.

Yu, J., Vodyanik, M.A., Smuga-Otto, K., Antosiewicz-Bourget, J., Frane, J.L., Tian, S., Nie, J., Jonsdottir, G.A., Ruotti, V., Stewart, R., et al. (2007). Induced pluripotent stem cell lines derived from human somatic cells. Science 318, 1917–1920.

Zhang, Y., Schulz, V.P., Reed, B.D., Wang, Z., Pan, X., Mariani, J., Euskirchen, G., Snyder, M.P., Vaccarino, F.M., Ivanova, N., et al. (2013). Functional genomic screen of human stem cell differentiation reveals pathways involved in neurodevelopment and neurodegeneration. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U S A 110, 12361–12366.

Zhao, M., Kim, P., Mitra, R., Zhao, J., and Zhao, Z. (2016). TSGene 2.0: an updated literature-based knowledgebase for tumor suppressor genes. Nucleic Acids Res. 44 (D1), D1023–D1031.
### STAR★METHODS

#### KEY RESOURCES TABLE

| REAGENT or RESOURCE | SOURCE | IDENTIFIER |
|---------------------|--------|------------|
| **Antibodies**      |        |            |
| Conjugated (AF488) Rabbit anti-OCT4 (C30A3) | Cell Signaling Technologies | CST-5177; RRID:AB_10693303 |
| Phalloidin-647       | ThermoFisher Scientific | A22287; RRID:AB_2620155 |
| Rabbit anti-scribble (SCRIB) | Abcam | ab36708; RRID:AB_777865 |
| Rabbit anti-PKC zeta (PRKCZ) | Abcam | ab59364; RRID:AB_944858 |
| Rabbit anti-PAR-4 (PAWR) | Cell Signaling Technologies | CST-2328; RRID:AB_561235 |
| Rabbit anti-Cleaved Caspase-3 Asp175 (CC3) | Cell Signaling Technologies | CST-9661; RRID:AB_2341188 |
| Mouse anti-GAPDH (ID4) | Enzo | ADI-CSA-335-E; RRID:AB_2093148 |
| IRDye 800CW anti-rabbit | LiCOR | 926-32211; RRID:AB_621843 |
| IRDye 680RD anti-mouse | LiCOR | 926-68070; RRID:AB_10956588 |
| **Chemicals, Peptides, and Recombinant Proteins** | | |
| thiazovivin | Selleckchem | S1459 |
| **Experimental Models: Cell Lines** | | |
| Human: H1-hESCs, NIHhESC-10-0043, WA01 (XY) | WiCell | H1-hESCs |
| Human: H9-hESCs, NIHhESC-10-0062, WA09 (XX) | WiCell | H9-hESCs |
| Human: 8402-iPSCs (XY) | Coriell Institute – Fibroblasts | 8402-iPSCs |
| Human: hDFN-iPSCs (XY) | ThermoFisher; Human Dermal Fibroblasts neonatal (HDFn) | hDFN-iPSCs |
| Human: transgenic H1-hESCs + dox inducible (i) Cas9 | Ihry et al., 2018 | H1-iCas9 |
| Human: transgenic H1-hESCs + CAG-dCAS9-KRAB | This paper | HI-hESC CRISPRi |
| Human: transgenic hDFN-iPSCs + CAG-dCAS9-KRAB | This paper | HI-hDFN CRISPRi |
| HEK293T | ATCC | CRL-3216 |
| **Oligonucleotides** | | |
| Spacer Sequence for synthetic crRNA: PMAIP1 crRNA 3 TCGAGTGTGCTACTCAACTC | Alt-R® CRISPR-Cas9 crRNA, 2 nmol - IDT | N/A |
| Spacer Sequence for synthetic crRNA: PAWR crRNA 5 CGAGCTCAACAAACACTCC | Alt-R® CRISPR-Cas9 crRNA, 2 nmol - IDT | N/A |
| Spacer Sequence for synthetic crRNA: TP53 crRNA 1 GAAGGGACAGAAGATGACAG | Alt-R® CRISPR-Cas9 crRNA, 2 nmol - IDT | N/A |
| Spacer Sequence for synthetic crRNA: TP53 crRNA 2 GAAGGGACAGAAGATGACAG | Alt-R® CRISPR-Cas9 crRNA, 2 nmol - IDT | N/A |
| Spacer Sequence for synthetic crRNA: TP53 crRNA 4 GAGCGCTGCTCAGATACCC | Alt-R® CRISPR-Cas9 crRNA, 2 nmol - IDT | N/A |
| Spacer Sequence for synthetic crRNA: P21 crRNA 1 AATGCGCCGGTGCGATCGAG | Alt-R® CRISPR-Cas9 crRNA, 2 nmol - IDT | N/A |
| Spacer Sequence for synthetic crRNA: P21 crRNA 4 TCCACTGCGCCGAAGGCGG | Alt-R® CRISPR-Cas9 crRNA, 2 nmol - IDT | N/A |
| Spacer Sequence for synthetic crRNA: P21 crRNA 6 GGCGCCATGCTGAGAACCAGCC | Alt-R® CRISPR-Cas9 crRNA, 2 nmol - IDT | N/A |
| **Recombinant DNA** | | |
| LentiCRISPR - Lentiviral backbone for CRISPR nuclease interference spacer sequences cloning | pNGx-LV-g003 Plasmid backbone from DeJesus et al., 2016 | pNGx-LV-g003 |
| LentiCRISPR - Lentiviral backbone for CRISPR Genome-wide sgRNA library | pRS16 lentiviral plasmid (Cellelecta, Mountain View, CA) Described by DeJesus et al., 2016 | N/A |
| pAAVS1-CAG-dCAS9-KRAB | This paper | Data S1 |

(Continued on next page)
CONTACT FOR REAGENT AND RESOURCE SHARING

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the Lead Contact, Robert Ihry (robert.ihry@novartis.com). Certain terms in existing license agreements may restrict our ability to transfer CRISPR/Cas9-related reagents.

EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS

Human Pluripotent Stem Cell lines
H1-hESCs (XY) (WA01-NIHhESC-10-0043) and H9-hESCs (XX) (NIHhESC-10-0062) were obtained from WiCell. The following cell line was obtained from the NIGMS Human Genetic Cell Repository at the Coriell Institute for Medical Research: GM08402. 8402-iPSCs (XY) originated from GM08402 fibroblasts reprogrammed as described by Sun et al. (2016). hDFN-iPSCs (XY) were generated as described by Bidinosti et al. (2016). hPSC lines were free of Mycoplasma and tested using the Mycoalert Detection kit (Lonza). SNP fingerprinting confirmed the identity of hPSC lines used. Karyotyping was performed by Cell Line Genetics (Madison, WI).

Large-scale culture of hPSCs
H1-hESCs with AAVS1 knock in of the iCas9 transgene were generated and cultured in TeSR-E8 media (STEMCELL TECH.-05940) on vitronectin (GIBCO-A14700) coated plates as described by Ihry et al. (2018). Pilot studies with a sub-genome sgRNA library used a total of 40 individual T225 flasks and was cumbersome (Ihry et al., 2018). Daily feeding and passaging in which multiple flask needed to be pooled was time consuming and increased the risk for contamination. To minimize the manipulation required during feeding and passaging we used 5-layer CellSTACKs. The vessels are large enough to contain an entire 45,000 sgRNA library at > 1000x coverage per sgRNA at a seeding density of 21,000 cells/cm² (Seed 66 million cells for /C24 1400x). In practical terms only 4 to 8 5-layer CellSTACKs were growing at a given time during the month-long genome-scale CRISPR screen (Figure S1). Given the expense of E8 media Penicillin-Streptomycin (pen/strep) at 100 U/mL was added as an additional insurance policy for the first screen at scale. After running a lengthy genome-scale screen and becoming experienced with large-scale hPSC culture it is possible to run future screens without pen/strep.

METHOD DETAILS

Genome Engineering
H1-hESCs expressing dox inducible (i) iCas9 were generated by Ihry et al. (2018). Dox treated H1-iCas9 cells were subjected to three successive rounds of RNAiMax delivery of the two-component synthetic crRNA/tracrRNA (IDT) pairs targeting PMAIP1, PAWR, P21 (CDKN1A) and TP53 as described by Ihry et al. (2018). PMAIP1, and PAWR were transfected with a single sgRNA while TP53 and P21 were co-transfected with 3 crRNAs. CRISPR indel analysis detected efficient gene disruption for all three genes and was performed as described by Ihry et al. (2018).
lentiCRISPR packaging
For a one-layer CellSTACK 42 million HEK293T (66,000 cells/cm²) were plated in 100 mL of media (DMEM +10% FBS + 1x NEAA, no pen/strep). One day after seeding, cells were transfected with single lentiCRISPR plasmids in 6-well plates or pooled lentiCRISPR plasmids in CellSTACKs. For a one-layer CellSTACK 102 uL of room temp TransIT (Mirus MIR 2700) and 3680 uL Opti-MEM (Invitrogen 11058021) were mixed incubated in a glass bottle for 5 minutes at room temp. 94.5 ug of Lentiviral Packaging Plasmid Mix (Cellecta CPCP-K2A) and 75.6 ug of the lentiCRISPR plasmid library was added to the transfection mix and incubated for 15 minutes at room temp. After incubation, the mix was added to 100 mL of fresh media and the cells were fed. The next day the transfected cells received 100 mL fresh media. After 3 days of viral production supernatants were filtered (.45uM corning 430516) and aliquoted in 1ml tubes for storage at −80 C.

Large-scale transduction of hPSCs
We conducted a genome-scale CRISPR screen using a 91,726 sgRNA library (~5 sgRNAs per gene, split into two sgRNA sub-pools (DeJesus et al., 2016). We desired > 1000x coverage of each sgRNA to offset cell loss from double strand break (DSB)-induced toxicity (Ihry et al., 2018). To screen a sufficient number of cells we infected hPSCs with lentiCRISPRs in 5-layer CellSTACKs. Cells were infected at 0.5 MOI to ensure each cell was infected with no more than a single sgRNA. After puromycin selection cells were expanded for one week without dox to be pelleted for DNA, banked or screened (Figures 1A and S1).

Pooled CRISPR screens rely on cells being efficiently transduced at less than or equal to 0.5 MOI. We developed a reverse transfection method for hPSCs without polybrene that resulted in an efficient transduction with low volume exposure to HEK293T lentiviral supernatants. LentiCRISPR plasmids expressed a constitutive RFP and puromycin resistance to mark and select for infected cells respectively. Viral titer of the two ~45,000 sgRNA libraries expressing RFP in 6-well plates determined that less than 25 uL in 1.5mL of media was required for 0.5 MOI. These calculations scaled appropriately in 5-layer cell stacks with 500 mL of media and approximately 50% of the cells were RFP positive in the absence of puromycin.

A genome-scale lentiCRISPR library targeting each gene 5 times has been split into ~45,000 sub-pools (pool 1 and 2). To screen at > 1000x per sgRNA, 264 million hPSCs are infected in 4x 5-layer CellSTACKS (12,720 cm², 21,000 cells/ cm²). 2 stacks equal one replicate. Cells are infected at 0.5 MOI to ensure only one sgRNA is expressed per cell (+sgRNA/puroR/RFP). After puromycin selection cells are expanded until confluent (4-6 days). At this point 40 million cells (10 million/ml) can be banked in 5ml cryovials for use at a later date.

Banking lentiCRISPR infected hPSC library
One 5-layer cell stack was treated with 200 mL accutase that was evenly distributed among layers. After incubation at 37 C for 10 minutes, accutase (GIBCO-A1110501) was neutralized with 200 mL E8 media. Cells were counted and pelleted to be resuspended at a concentration of 10 million cells per ml in a solution of 40% Tet-free FBS (Seradigm #1500-500) and 10% DMSO (Sigma D2650) and 50% E8 media. 4 mL aliquots were placed in 5 mL cryovials and frozen in a Mr. Frosty (Thermo Scientific 5100-0050) at −80 C overnight before long-term storage in liquid nitrogen. Thawing of cells banked in 5ml cryovials showed an average viability around 85% for both lentiCRISPR pools. Viability was assayed using a Nexcelom Cellometer Auto 2000 and AO/PI (Nexcelom CS2-0106) staining solution.

We tested the effect of freezing and thawing on the representation of the sgRNAs in the library by thawing the cell library at 2700x (120 million cells per 45k sub-pool) cells per sgRNA. Cells were thawed in a 37 C water bath and transferred to a 50 mL conical with E8 media and centrifuged at 300 g for 3 minutes. Pelleted cells were resuspended in E8 media and replated at a density of 40,000 to 60,000 cells/cm². 3 cryovials with 120 million cells was thawed and plated on a 5-layer cell stack (120,000,000 /45,000 = 2700x).

After thawing and feeding the cells for two days, DNA was isolated and analyzed by NGS to measure the representation of each sgRNA in the pool. Both day zero and freeze/thaw samples had an over 87% alignment of sequencing reads and fewer than 25 missing barcodes per replicate. Pearson correlation analysis allowed us to demonstrate that there was a high correlation between the day zero samples and the freeze/thaw samples. Calculating normalized sgRNA counts revealed a strong correlation between the cell library before (day 0) or after one freeze/thaw cycle (Figure 1B).

Pooled Mutagenesis (CRISPR nuclease/interference)
H1-hESCs expressing a constitutive (c) Cas9-KRAB knocked-in to the AAVS1 locus were generated as described by Ihry et al. (2018). The following lentiCRISPR were used to transduce iCas9 or cCas9-KRAB cells to generate mutant cell pools.
CRISPR nuclease

PAWR sgRNA 1 TTTGGGAATATGGCGACCGG
PAWR sgRNA 2 GGTGGCTACCGGACCAGCAG
PAWR sgRNA 5 CGAGCTCAACAACAACCTCC
MAPT sgRNA 1 GAAGTGATGGAAGATCACGC
ACSL4 sgRNA TGGTAGTGGACTCACTGCAC
ARSH sgRNA GCAGCACCGTGGCTACCGCA
BMX sgRNA ATGAAGAGAGCCGAAGTCAG
BTK sgRNA GGAATCTGTCTTTCTGGAGG
GABRA3 sgRNA AAGGACTGACCTCCAAGCCC
GK sgRNA TAGAAAGCTGGGGCCTTGGA
NRK sgRNA CCGCTTCTCTATTCAGGTAA
TLR7 sgRNA CAGTCTGTGAAGACCGCTG

CRISPR interference

Control-2 GACCGGAACGATCTCGCGTA
PAWR sgRNA 1 GCCGCCTCTCGAGCACCTCAA
PAWR sgRNA 2 GTTGCAGGGTGGGGAACCCGG
PAWR sgRNA 3 GCTGGCCGGTAGTGACTGGT
PAWR sgRNA 5 GGCTGCTGGCCGGTAGTGAC

OCT4 FACS-BASED screen
Cells were dissociated using accutase for 10 min at 37 C to create a single-cell suspension which was strained using a 40-micron filter and was counted. After removing accutase, pelleted cells were resuspended in a volume of 1 million cells/mL for the staining protocol. For each replicate 55 million unsorted cells were frozen down prior to fixation. The remaining cells were fixed in 4% PFA in PBS for 10 minutes at room temperature on a rocker. Cells were spun down at 300 RCF for 3 min between each subsequent solution change. Cells were washed with 0.1% Triton-X in PBS after fixation and blocked in 2% goat serum, 0.01% BSA and 0.1% triton X in PBS for 1 hr at room temperature. Conjugated (AF488) primary antibodies specific to OCT4 (CST 5177) were diluted in blocking solution (1:200) and incubated with cells on a rocker overnight at 4 C. Prior to FACS analysis cells were resuspended in PBS at a concentration of 30 million cells/mL. A total of 1.2 billion cells (both replicates) were sorted into OCT4low (50 million cells) and OCT4high (61 million cells) populations using an ARIA III (BD).

DNA isolation and NGS libraries
For each replicate, 55 million cells (~1200x) were pelleted and genomic DNA was isolated using QIAamp DNA Blood Maxi Kit (QIAGEN 51194) as directed by manufacturer. Isolating genomic DNA from 4% PFA fixed cells was performed by utilizing phenol chloroform extraction. Cells were resuspended in 500ul TNES (10mM Tris-Cl ph 8.0, 100mM NaCL, 1mM EDTA, 1% SDS) and incubated overnight at 65 C. After allowing the samples to cool, 10ul of RNase A (QIAGEN 19101) and samples were incubated at 37 C for 30 minutes. Next, 10ul of protease K (QIAGEN 19133) and incubated for 1 hour at 45 C. Add 500ul of PCIA (Phenol;Cholorform; Isoamyl alcohol ph 8) (Thermo 17908) and vortex. Spin samples in a centrifuge at max speed for 2 minutes. Transfer the aqueous phase to 500ul of PCIA and vortex. Spin at max speed for 2 minutes. Transfer the aqueous phase to 450ul of chloroform and vortex. Spin at max speed for 2 minutes. Transfer aqueous phase to 40ul of 3M NaAcO ph 5.2. Add 1 mL of 100% ethanol, mix and precipitate DNA for 1 hour on ice. Spin at max speed for 2 minutes. Decant and wash with 1ml 70% ethanol. Spin at max speed for 1 minutes. Decant and air dry the pellet. Resuspend in 50ul of nuclease free H2O. PCR was performed using lentiCRISPR specific primers and library construction and sequencing was performed as described by DeJesus et al. (2016).

mRNA expression
qPCR and RNA-seq analysis were performed as described by Ihry et al. (2018). Median TPM values for H1-hESCs are available upon request. RNA-seq data for 4 iPSC control lines subjected to NGN2 differentiation is available upon request but is restricted to the expression for PAWR and PMAIP1.

Assaying sensitivity to DNA damage
Control and mutant iCas9 H1-hESCs expressing a MAPT targeting sgRNA were monitored daily post-media change using an IncuCyte zoom (Essen Biosciences). At the onset of the experiment the cells were plated at density of 10,500 to 21,000 cells/cm[2] and cultured plus or minus dox for the duration. Confluence was calculated using the processing analysis tool (IncuCyte Zoom Software).
Assaying survival without ROCK inhibitor
Control and mutant iCas9 H1-hESCs were dissociated with accutase for 10 minutes. Flowmi 40-micron cell strainers (BEL-ART H13680-0040) were used to ensure a uniform single-cell suspension prior to replating cells. Cells were plated at a density of 10,500 to 21,000 cells/cm² plus or minus thiazovivin (ROCK inhibitor, Selleckchem, S1459). Timelapse images were taken in 3 hr intervals using IncuCyte zoom (Essen Biosciences). The confluence processing analysis tool (IncuCyte Zoom Software) calculated confluence for each sample.

Immunofluorescence and Western Blotting
Immunofluorescence staining of fixed cells was performed as described by Ihry et al. (2018). Protein lysates were made by vortexing cell pellets in RIPA buffer (Thermo Scientific 89901) supplemented with Halt protease inhibitor cocktail (Thermo Scientific 78430) and phosphatase inhibitors (Thermo Scientific 1862495). Samples were incubated at 4°C for 10 minutes before centrifugation at 14,000 x g for 10 minutes at 4°C. Supernatants were transferred to new tubes and quantified using the BCA protein assay kit (Thermo Scientific 23225) and a SpectraMax Paradigm (Molecular Devices) plate reader. Samples were prepared with NuPAGE LDS sample buffer 4x (Invitrogen NP0008) and NuPAGE sample reducing agent (Invitrogen NP0009) and heated for 10 minutes at 70°C. Chameleon Duo Pre-stained Protein Ladder (LiCOR P/N 928-60000) was loaded alongside 10 µg of protein per sample on a NuPAGE 4%–12% Bis-Tris Protein Gels, 1.5 mm, 10-well (Invitrogen NP0335BOX). Gel electrophoresis was performed at 150 V for 1hr in NuPAGE MOPS SDS Running buffer (20X) (Invitrogen NP0001) using a XCell SureLock Mini-Cell (Thermo Scientific EI0002). Transfer was performed using an iBlot 2 dry blotting system (Thermo IB21002 and IB23002) as described by manufacturer. Blots were blocked in TBS blocking buffer (LiCOR 927-50000) for 1 hour at room temperature. The blots were then incubated with primary antibodies diluted in TBS overnight at 4°C. Blots were washed 3X in PBST and incubated with secondary antibodies diluted in TBS for 2 hours at room temperature. Blots were imaged using an Odyssey CLx (LiCOR).

Primary antibodies
- Phalloidin-647 (ThermoFisher Scientific A22287) - 1:40
- SCRIB (Abcam ab36708) - 1:100 (IF)
- PRKCZ (Abcam ab59364) - 1:100 (IF)
- PAWR/PAR-4 (CST-2328) - 1:100 (IF)
- Cleaved Caspase-3 Asp175 (CST-9661) - 1:200 (IF) 1:1000 (WB)
- GAPDH (Enzo ADI-CSA-335-E) - 1:1000 (WB)

Secondary Antibodies
- IRDye 800CW anti-rabbit (LiCOR 926-32211) - 1:5000
- IRDye 680RD anti-mouse (LiCOR 926-68070) - 1:5000
- AF488 conjugate Goat anti-Rabbit IgG (H+L) (ThermoFisher-A-11008) - 1:500

QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Figures 1B and 7A
The scatterplot in 1B depicts the average normalized count values (n = 2 replicates) for sgRNA barcodes (~91,000 sgRNAs) in two conditions marked by the X- and y axis. The heatmap in 7A depicts Pearson correlation coefficients calculated using average normalized sgRNA counts from Hart et al. (2015) and this study. 1B: The r-square values were calculated as the square of standard correlation in R 7A: The r-square values were calculated as the square of standard correlation in R.

Figures 1D, 2A, and 6B
Redundant siRNA activity (RSA) analysis is a statistical method used to calculate a p values based on the activity ranked distribution of all sgRNAs targeting a single gene (König et al., 2007) (https://admin-ext.gnf.org/publications/RSA/, https://admin-ext.gnf.org/publications/RSA/RSA_tutorial.pdf). This probability-based method favors genes with multiple active sgRNAs over a single but very active sgRNA. RSA scores each gene by identifying a bias in the distribution of sgRNAs targeting that gene. Two replicates per condition were sequenced and the raw sgRNA counts for the genome-wide library (~91,000 sgRNAs) were used to calculate log2(fold change) by DESeq2 (Love, Huber and Anders, 2014). Log2(fold changes) for the entire sgRNA library were used as the ranked distribution for RSA analysis. In this study two independent replicates with high coverage (~1000 cells per sgRNA) were chosen because hPSC media is prohibitively expensive at genome-scale for the month-long screen.

Figure 1E
The BAGEL statistical model was used to calculate Bayes Factor scores and Precision Recall analysis (http://bagel-for-knockout-screens.sourceforge.net/). Log2(Fold Change) of raw sgRNA counts were used as input to for BAGEL analysis.
**Figures 3B and 3E**
Statistical analysis of relative expression values generated by qPCR for PMAIP1 (3B), P21 (3E) and FAS (3E) mRNAs was conducted using PRISM software (version 7.0c). Relative expression values for control and treated samples were tested for statistical differences by conducting an ordinary unpaired two tailed t test with equal variance. n = 3 for control and treated mRNA samples isolated from 3 independent wells are plotted as individual dots. Bars indicate mean and error bars depict standard deviation. *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, ****p < 0.0001.

**Figure 3A and S4F**
Differential gene expression was performed in R with DESeq2 which is suitable for studies with three replicates (n = 3), and maintains high precision and sensitivity (Love, Huber and Anders, 2014). Gene counts are normalized for library size using the geometric mean and modeled with a negative binomial distribution. RNA was isolated from 1-4 independent samples for both control and Ngn2 neuronal samples in different hPSC backgrounds (H1-hESCs (n = 1), H9-hESCs (n = 3), 8402-iPSCs (n = 3) and HDFn-iPSCs (n = 4)).

**DATA AND SOFTWARE AVAILABILITY**
RNaseq data in hPSCs and Ngn2 neurons is limited to the expression of PMAIP1 and PAWR and is available upon request. Normalized sgRNA counts, Log2(fold changes) and RSA analysis for pooled CRISPR screens in H1-hESCs are available in Tables S1, S2, S3, S5 and S8. Pooled CRISPR screening data in cancer cell lines is limited to Log2(fold changes) for PMAIP1 sgRNAs and is available upon request. RNA-seq data processing and pooled CRISPR NGS were conducted using open source software as indicated in the key resources table.