Chromatin conformation dynamics during CD4+ T cell activation implicates

autoimmune disease-associated genes and regulatory elements

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ABSTRACT

Genome-wide association studies (GWAS) have identified hundreds of genetic signals

associated with autoimmune disease. The majority of these signals are located in non-coding

regions and likely impact *cis*-regulatory elements (cRE). Because cRE function is dynamic across

cell types and states, profiling the epigenetic status of cRE across physiological processes is

necessary to characterize the molecular mechanisms by which autoimmune variants contribute

to disease risk. We localized risk variants from 15 autoimmune GWAS to cRE active during TCR-

CD28 costimulation of naïve human CD4+ T cells. To characterize how dynamic changes in gene

expression correlate with cRE activity, we measured transcript levels, chromatin accessibility, and

promoter-cRE contacts across three phases of naive CD4+ T cell activation using RNA-seq,

ATAC-seq, and HiC. We identified ~1,200 protein-coding genes physically connected to

accessible disease-associated variants at 423 GWAS signals, at least one-third of which are

dynamically regulated by activation. From these maps, we functionally validated a novel stretch

of evolutionarily conserved intergenic enhancers whose activity is required for activation-induced

IL2 gene expression in human and mouse, and is influenced by autoimmune-associated genetic

variation. The set of genes implicated by this approach are enriched for genes controlling CD4+

T cell function and genes involved in human inborn errors of immunity, and we pharmacologically

validated eight implicated genes as novel regulators of T cell activation. These studies directly

show how autoimmune variants and the genes they regulate influence processes involved in

CD4+ T cell proliferation and activation.

INTRODUCTION

GWAS has linked hundreds of regions of the human genome to autoimmune disease susceptibility. The majority of GWAS variants are located in non-coding regions of the genome, and likely contribute to disease risk by modulating cis-regulatory element (cRE) activity to influence gene expression[1]. Identifying causal variants and effector genes molecularly responsible for increased disease risk is critical for identifying targets for downstream molecular study and therapeutic intervention. An understanding of how non-coding variants function is often limited by incomplete knowledge of the mechanism of action, *i.e.*, whether a variant is located in a cRE, in which cell types a cRE is active, and which genes are regulated by which cRE.

CD4+ T cells are key regulators of innate and adaptive immune responses that combat infection by orchestrating the activity of other immune cells. In their quiescent, naïve state, 'helper' T cells traffic between the blood and secondary lymphoid tissues as part of an immunosurveillance program maintained by transcription factors such as KLF2, TOB, and FOXO[2–4]. Upon encountering specific antigen, a cascade of signals activated through the TCR and costimulatory receptors results in large-scale changes in gene expression driven by factors like NFKB, NFAT, IRF4, and STATs, leading to proliferation and differentiation into specialized Th1, Th2, and Th17 subsets capable of participating in protective immunity[5,6]. CD4+ T cells are also key players in the induction and pathogenesis of autoimmunity. The cis-regulatory architecture of CD4+ T cells is enriched for autoimmune disease GWAS variants[7–14], and T cells from autoimmune patients harbor distinct epigenetic and transcriptomic signatures linking dysregulated gene expression with disease pathogenesis. Autoimmune variants may contribute to the breakdown of immune self-tolerance by shifting the balance between autoreactive conventional vs. regulatory CD4+ T cells, by altering cytokine production, or by promoting auto-antigen production[15,16].

Chromatin conformation assays allow for identification of putative target genes of autoimmune variant-containing cRE in close spatial proximity to gene promoters. Previous work using

promoter-capture HiC and HiC in combination with other epigenetic marks have implicated sets

of autoimmune variants and effector genes that may participate in T cell activation[17–19]. In addition

to chromatin conformation approaches, multiple complementary approaches have been

developed to link disease associated SNPs to their downstream effector genes. Expression

quantitative trait mapping (eQTL) and chromatin co-accessibility data can be used to implicate

effector genes through statistical association of genotypes with readouts of expression or other

molecular markers[20]. However, these approaches do not account for the relevant 3D structure of

the genome in the nucleus, and are highly susceptible to *trans*-effects and other confounding

factors.

In this study, we measured the impact of TCR-CD28 activation on the autoimmune-associated

cis-regulatory architecture of CD4+ helper T cells, and by comparing our data to those of several

orthogonal GWAS effector gene nomination studies, identify hundreds of effector genes not

implicated previously. We find that 3D chromatin-based approaches exhibit 2- to 10-fold higher

predictive sensitivity than eQTL and ABC statistical approaches when benchmarked against a

'gold standard set' of genes underlying inborn errors in immunity and tolerance. Our maps of

autoimmune SNP-gene contacts also predicted a stretch of evolutionarily conserved, intergenic

enhancers that we show are required for normal expression of the canonical T cell activation gene

IL2 in both human and mouse, whose activity is influenced by autoimmune risk variants. The set

of variant-connected effector genes defined by 3D physical proximity to autoimmune-associated

cRE is enriched for genes that regulate T cell activation, as validated pharmacologically in this

study and by CRISPR-based screens in orthogonal studies[21–23].

RESULTS

Gene expression dynamics as a function of naïve CD4+ T cell activation

To explore the universe of genes and cREs that are affected by and may contribute to CD4+

activation, we characterized the dynamics of gene expression, chromatin accessibility, and 3D

chromatin conformation in human CD4+CD62L^{hi}CD44^{lo} naïve T cells purified directly *ex vivo* and

in response to *in vitro* activation through the T cell receptor (TCR) and CD28 for 8 or 24 hours

using RNA-seq (N=3 donors), ATAC-seq (N=3 donors), and HiC (N=2 donors, **Figure 1A**). As

sequencing depth and restriction enzyme cutting frequency affects the resolution and reliability of

HiC experiments[24], we constructed libraries with two four-cutter restriction enzymes and

sequenced to a total of approximately 4 billion unique-valid reads per timepoint. We verified the

reproducibility of replicate ATAC-seq and RNA-seq libraries with principal component analysis

and HiC libraries using distance-controlled, stratum-adjusted correlation coefficient (SCC).

Replicate samples were highly correlated and clustered by activation stage (**Figure 1 - Figure**

Supplement 1A-C). As expected, quiescent naïve CD4+ T cells expressed high levels of *SELL,*

TCF7, CCR7, and *IL7R*, and rapidly upregulated *CD69, CD44, HLADR,* and *IL2RA* upon

stimulation (**Figure 1B, Supplementary File 1**). Genome-scale gene set variance analysis based

on MsigDB hallmark pathways showed that genes involved in KRAS and Hedgehog signaling are

actively enriched in quiescent naive CD4+ T cells, while stimulated cell transcriptomes are

enriched for genes involved in cell cycle, metabolism, and TNF-, IL-2/STAT5-, IFNg-, Notch-, and

MTORC1-mediated signaling pathways (**Supplementary File 2**).

To define global gene expression dynamics during the course of CD4+ T cell activation, we

performed pairwise comparisons and k-means clustering, identifying 4390 differentially expressed

genes after 8 hours of stimulation (3289 upregulated and 1101 downregulated) and 3611

differentially expressed genes between 8 hours and 24 hours (3015 upregulated and 596

downregulated, **Figure 1 - Figure Supplement 1D**) that could be further separated into five

clusters based on their distinct trajectories (**Figure 1C**, **Figure 1 - Figure Supplement 1E-G**,

Supplementary File 1). Genes upregulated early upon activation (cluster 1; n=1621 genes) are

enriched for pathways involved in the unfolded protein response, cytokine signaling, and

translation (*e.g.*, *IL2, IFNG, TNF, IL3, IL8, IL2RA, ICOS, CD40LG, FASLG, MYC, FOS, JUNB,*

REL, NFKB1, STAT5A, **Supplementary File 3**). Genes downregulated late (cluster 2; n=1600

genes) are moderately enriched for receptor tyrosine kinase signaling, cytokine signaling, and

extracellular matrix organization. Genes monotonically increasing (cluster 3; n=2676 genes) are

highly enriched for pathways involved in infectious disease and RNA stability, translation and

metabolism, and moderately enriched for pathways involved in the unfolded protein response,

cellular responses to stress, regulation of apoptosis, and DNA repair (*e.g.*, *TBX21, BHLHE40,*

IL12RB2, STAT1, CCND2, CDK4, PRMT1, ICAM1, EZH2, **Supplementary File 3**). Genes

downregulated early (cluster 4; n=1628 genes) are enriched for pathways involved in inositol

phosphate biosynthesis, neutrophil degranulation, and metabolism of nucleotides (*e.g.*, *KLF2,*

IL7R, RORA, IL10RA), and genes upregulated late (cluster 5; n=2154 genes) are highly enriched

for pathways involved in cell cycle, DNA unwinding, DNA repair, chromosomal maintenance, beta-

oxidation of octanoyl-CoA, and cellular response to stress (*e.g.*, *CDK2, E2F1, CDK1, CCNE1,*

CCNA2, PCNA, WEE1, CDC6, ORC1, MCM2). These patterns are consistent with known

changes in the cellular processes that operate during T cell activation, confirming that *in vitro*

stimulation of CD4+ T cells recapitulates gene expression programs known to be engaged during

a T cell immune response.

Dynamic changes in chromosomal architecture and genome accessibility during naïve

CD4+ T cell activation

To understand the *cis*-regulatory dynamics underlying the observed activation-induced

changes in gene expression, we examined CD4+ T cell nuclear chromosome conformation and

chromatin accessibility as a function of stimulation state using HiC and ATAC-seq. The human

genome consists of ~3 meters of DNA that is incorporated into chromatin and compacted into the

~500 cubic micron nucleus of a cell in a hierarchically ordered manner. This degree of compaction

results in only ~1% of genomic DNA being accessible to the machinery that regulates gene

transcription[25], therefore a map of open chromatin regions (OCR) in a cell represents its potential

gene regulatory landscape. Open chromatin mapping of human CD4+ T cells at all states

identified a consensus *cis*-regulatory landscape of 181,093 reproducible OCR (**Supplementary**

File 4). Of these, 14% (25,291) exhibited differential accessibility following 8 hours of stimulation

(FDR<0.05). Most differentially accessible regions (DAR) became more open (18,887), but some

DAR (6,629) showed reduced accessibility (**Figure 2A**, **Supplementary File 5**). The change in

accessibility over the next 16 hours of stimulation showed the opposite dynamic, with 6,629

regions exhibiting reduced accessibility, and only 4,417 DAR becoming more open (total of 11,046

DAR, **Figure 2A**, **Supplementary File 5**). These OCR represent the set of putative cRE with

dynamic activity during T cell activation.

The vast majority of putative cRE are located in intergenic or intronic regions of the genome

far from gene promoters, meaning that the specific impact of a given cRE on gene expression

cannot be properly interpreted from a one-dimensional map of genomic or epigenomic features.

To predict which cRE may regulate which genes in CD4+ T cells across different states of

activation, we created three-dimensional maps of cRE-gene proximity in the context of genome

structure. The highest order of 3D nuclear genome structure is represented by A/B compartments,

which are large chromosomal domains that self-associate into transcriptionally active (A) *vs*.

inactive (B) regions[26]. In agreement with prior studies, we find that OCR located in active A

compartments exhibit higher average accessibility than those OCR located in less active B

compartments (**Figure 2 – Figure Supplement 1A, Supplementary File 6**), a trend observed

across all cell states. Likewise, genes located in A compartments show higher average expression

than those located in B compartments (**Figure 2 – Figure Supplement 1B**). A quantitative

comparison across cell states showed that 94% of the CD4+ T cell genome remained stably

compartmentalized into A (42%) and B (52%), indicating that activation does not cause a major

shift in the large-scale organization of the genome within the nucleus (**Figure 2B**).

Within each A or B compartment, the genome is further organized into topologically

associating domains (TADs)[27]. These structures are defined by the fact that genomic regions

within them have the potential to interact with each other in 3D, but have low potential to interact

with regions outside the TAD. The location of TAD boundaries can influence gene expression by

limiting the access of cRE to specific, topologically associated genes. While ~80% of TAD

boundaries remained stable across all states, 20% of TAD boundaries (8925) changed as a

function of T cell activation (**Figure 2C**, **Figure 2 – Figure Supplement 1C-D**, **Supplemental**

File 7). TAD boundary dynamics were categorized and 2198 boundaries exhibited a change in

strength, 2030 boundaries shifted position, and 4697 boundaries exhibited more complex

changes such as loss of a boundary resulting in merger of two neighboring TAD, addition of a

boundary splitting one TAD into two, or a combination of any of these changes. Genes nearby

dynamic TAD boundaries are enriched for pathways involved in RNA metabolism, cellular

response to stress, and the activity of PTEN, p53, JAK/STAT, Runx and Hedgehog

(**Supplementary File 6**). We also detected chromatin stripes, which are TAD-like structures that

consist of a genomic anchor region that is brought into contact with a larger loop domain via an

active extrusion mechanism. Chromatin stripes are contained within and/or overlap TAD regions,

and are enriched for active enhancers and super-enhancers[28,29]. We identified 1526 chromatin

stripes in quiescent naïve CD4+ T cells, 1676 stripes in 8 hour stimulated cells, and 2028 stripes

at 24 hours post-stimulation (**Figure 2 - Figure Supplement 2A, Supplementary File 8**).

Consistent with prior studies in other cell types, chromatin stripes were preferentially located in A

compartments, and genes and OCR within stripe regions showed increased expression and

chromatin accessibility (**Figure 2 - Figure Supplement 2B-D**).

Within active topological structures, transcriptional enhancers can regulate the expression of

distant genes by looping to physically interact with gene promoters[30,31]. To identify potential

regulatory cRE-gene interactions, we identified high confidence loop contacts across all cell states using Fit-HiC (merged 1kb, 2kb, and 4kb resolutions, **Figure 2D**). This approach detected 933,755 loop contacts in quiescent naïve CD4+ T cells, 900,267 loop contacts in 8-hour stimulated cells, and 551,802 contacts in 24-hour stimulated cells (2,099,627 total unique loops). Approximately 23% of these loops involved a gene promoter at one end and an OCR at the other, and these promoter-interacting OCR were enriched for enhancer signatures based on flanking histone marks from CD4+ T cells in the epigenome roadmap database[32] (**Figure 2 - Figure Supplement 1E**). T cell activation resulted in significant reorganization of the open chromatin-promoter interactome, as 907 promoter-OCR exhibited increased contact and 1333 showed decreased contact following 8 hours of stimulation (**Figure 2E**). Continued stimulation over the next 16 hours was associated with an increase in the contact frequency of 41 promoter-OCR pairs, while only 4 pairs exhibited decreased contact (**Figure 2E**). Activation-induced changes in chromatin architecture and gene expression were highly correlated, as genomic regions exhibiting increased promoter connectivity became more accessible at early stages of stimulation, which was associated with increased gene transcription from connected promoters (**Figure 2F, Supplementary File 9**). The accessibility of promoter-connected OCR and the expression of their associated genes decreased globally from 8 to 24 hours of stimulation (**Figure 2F**). We compared these loop calls to a prior chromatin capture analysis in CD4+ T cells by Burren et al.[18] and found that roughly 40% of stable loops in both stimulated and unstimulated cells were identical in both studies, despite differing in approach (HiC vs. PCHiC), analysis (HiC vs. CHiCAGO), sample (naïve CD4+ vs. total CD4+), timepoint (8 vs. 4 hour), and donor individuals (**Figure 2 - Figure Supplement 1F**). As expected, unstimulated samples were more similar than activated samples.

We next focused on the 5 sets of genes with the dynamic expression patterns defined in **Figure 1D**, and identified 57,609 OCR that contact dynamic gene promoters in at least one stage. Most dynamic genes contacted between 1 and ~35 OCR, with a median of 10 OCR per gene, but a handful of dynamic genes were observed in contact with over 100 distinct open chromatin

regions (**Figure 2 - Figure Supplement 1G**). Similarly, most OCR were connected to a single

dynamic gene, but many contacted more than one gene (median 2 genes per OCR), suggesting

that most dynamic genes have a complex regulatory architecture. Increased gene expression

upon activation correlated with an increase in the accessibility and promoter contact frequency of

distant cRE (**Figure 2 - Figure Supplement 1H**), as exemplified by *GEM* and *IRF4* (**Figure 2 -**

Figure Supplement 3A,**B**). Conversely, the 3D regulatory architecture of genes like KLF2 and

DPEP2, which were downregulated following stimulation, exhibited decreased contact and

accessibility (**Figure 2 - Figure Supplement 3C**,**D**).

Transcription factor footprints enriched in dynamic open chromatin identify regulators of

T cell activation

To explore what factors drive dynamic changes in the regulatory architecture of the CD4+ T

cell genome during activation, we conducted a quantitative footprinting analysis at 1,173,159

transcription factor (TF) motifs located in the consensus CD4+ T cell open chromatin landscape

using the average accessibility of the region surrounding each motif as a measure of regulatory

activity (**Supplementary File 10**). Activation of naïve CD4+ T cells resulted in increased

chromatin accessibility around bZIP motifs at tens of thousands of genomic regions by 8 hours

post-stimulation (**Figure 3A** and **C**), which was associated with increased expression of Fos and

Jun family members constituting the AP-1 complex, as well as the bZIP factors BATF, BACH1,

and BACH2 (**Figure 3A**). The activity of NFE2 and SMAD was increased without increased

expression (**Figure 3A** and **C**), likely due to post-translational regulation of these factors by

phosphorylation[33]. Conversely, the motifs for a number of TF exhibited significantly reduced

accessibility early after stimulation, including those for EGR2 and FOXP3 that are known to

negatively regulate T cell activation[34,35] (**Figure 3A**). By 24 hours post-activation, bZIP activity

remained largely unchanged compared to 8 hours (**Figure 3B**), but a number of factors showed

decreased activity. These include several members of the Sp family, the Myc cofactor MAZ that

also cooperates with CTCF to regulate chromatin looping[36], KLF2, which controls genes involved

in naïve CD4+ T cell quiescence and homing[2,37], NRF1, a factor implicated in age-associated T

cell hypofunction[38], and EGR2 and 3, which are known to oppose T cell activation and promote

tolerance[34,39,40] (**Figure 3B** and **C**).

To explore how transcription factor activity may operate *via* the CD4+ T cell open chromatin

landscape to regulate distinct programs of dynamic gene expression during TCR/CD28-induced

activation, we focused on TF motifs enriched among those OCR specifically contacting promoters

of dynamic genes identified by our clustering analysis (**Figure 3 – Figure Supplement 1A**). The

set of OCR contacting dynamic gene promoters were enriched for the motifs of 89 expressed

(TPM>5) transcription factors, as compared to motifs present in the total open chromatin

landscape (**Figure 3D**). The majority of this TF activity was enriched in OCR connected to genes

highly upregulated at 24 hours post-activation (clusters 3 and 5, **Figure 3D**), with the exception

of CREB3, ELF1, ESRRA, GABPA, RELA, XPB1, ZNF384, and the transcriptional repressor

IKZF1 known as a strong negative regulator of T cell activation and differentiation[41–44].

Conversely, motifs for IKZF1, ZNF384, GABPA, ESRRA, and ELF1 were highly enriched in the

set of OCR contacting genes down-regulated early after activation (cluster 4, **Figure 3D**). Motifs

for KLF2 and the metabolic gene regulator SREBF1 were likewise enriched in OCR connected to

down-regulated genes. Open chromatin regions interacting with genes in cluster 2 are negatively

enriched for this set of TF except for CTCF (**Figure 3D**).

Finally, we integrated TF footprint, promoter connectome, and gene co-expression data to

construct TF-gene regulatory networks likely operating at each timepoint. The connections

between regulatory nodes are based on physical promoter-TF footprint interactions with

confidence weighted by gene co-expression (**Figure 3E**, **Supplementary File 11**). Highly co-

expressed genes at the core of the unstimulated CD4+ T cell regulatory network encode

transcription factors such as KLF2, ETS1, IKZF1, and TCF7[45–47] that are known to be involved in

T cell gene silencing, quiescence, homeostasis, and homing. Genes connected to the top factors

in this network were enriched for pathways involved in immune signaling, DNA replication and

repair, protein secretion, and programmed cell death (**Figure 3 – Figure Supplement 1B**).

Costimulation through the TCR and CD28 induced a set of core network genes active at both time

points with known roles in T cell activation and differentiation (*NFKB1, JUNB, MYC, IRF4, STAT5,*

STAT1, LEF1, ATF4). Also part of this set is *PLAGL2*, an oncogene in the Wnt pathway that

regulates hypoxia-induced genes[48] with no prior defined role in T cell activation. Additional nodes

specifically implicated at 8 hours post-activation are HIF1A, the major sensor of cellular hypoxia[49],

and XBP1, a major transcriptional mediator of the unfolded ER protein response with defined

roles in T cell activation, differentiation, and exhaustion[50,51]. Factors specifically implicated at 24

hours post-activation include E2F1, a transcriptional regulator of both cell cycle and apoptosis in

T cells[52,53], BHLHE40, a factor known to control multiple aspects of T cell metabolism and

differentiation[54], and the Myc cofactor MAZ that has not been previously studied in the context of

T cell function. Genes connected to factors in the activated T cell networks were enriched for

pathways involved in cytokine signaling, the interferon response, transcription, cell cycle, DNA

replication and repair, and programmed cell death (**Figure 3 – Figure Supplement 1B**).

Together, these data indicate that concurrent but separable stimulation-induced gene programs

are the result of the activity of distinct sets of DNA binding factors mobilized by antigen and

costimulatory receptor signaling in naïve CD4+ T cells.

Identification of autoimmune variants associated with CD4+ T cell cRE and predicted

effector genes

Following our established variant-to-gene (V2G) mapping approach to implicate functional

SNPs and their effector genes using the combination of GWAS and chromatin conformation

capture data[55–59], we intersected promoter-interacting OCR with autoimmune SNPs from the 95%

credible set derived from 15 autoimmune diseases (**Figure 4A**, **Supplementary Files 12** and **13**).

Constraining the GWAS SNPs in this way reduced the credible set size from an average of 14

variants per sentinel to 3 variants per sentinel. To determine whether open chromatin in physical

contact with dynamically regulated genes in CD4+ T cells is enriched for autoimmune disease

heritability, we performed a partitioned LD score regression analysis. This landscape was

enriched for variants associated with susceptibility to inflammatory bowel disease (IBD), ulcerative

colitis (UC), type I diabetes (T1D), lupus (SLE), celiac disease (CEL), allergy (ALG), eczema

(ECZ), and rheumatoid arthritis (RA), but not for variants associated with psoriasis (PSO) or

juvenile idiopathic arthritis (JIA) (**Figure 4B**, **Supplementary File 14**). The OCR connected to

genes upregulated early and/or progressively upon activation (clusters 1 and 3) were most

strongly enriched for ALG, CEL, IBD/UC, RA and T1D heritability, while SLE and ECZ heritability

was most enriched in OCR connected to genes upregulated later post-activation (clusters 3 and

5, **Figure 4B**). SLE was also the only disease (besides PSO and JIA) that was not enriched in

open chromatin connected to down-regulated genes (cluster 4, **Figure 4B**).

The promoter-connected open chromatin landscape for all CD4+ T cell states in this study

contains 2606 putatively causal variants linked to ~half of the sentinel signals (423) for the 15

diseases analyzed, and are in contact with a total of 1836 genes (**Supplementary File 13**). A

total of 1151 autoimmune variants localized to the promoters of 400 genes (-1500/+500bp from

the TSS, **Supplementary File 15**). These variants were on average 103 kb from the TSS of their

connected gene (**Figure 4C**), and each variant contacted an average of 5 genes (**Figure 4D**).

The majority of linked SNPs interact with genes in addition to the nearest gene, and ~half of linked

SNPs 'skip' the nearest gene to target only distant genes (**Figure 4E**). Approximately 60% of

connected genes were implicated across all timepoints (**Figure 4F**, **Supplementary File 13**),

while ~40% (753) are dynamically regulated (clusters 1-5) in response to TCR/CD28 co-

stimulation. Examples of SNP-genes pairs that exhibit dynamic accessibility, chromosome

contact, and expression in response to T cell activation are the *SIK1*, *PARK7*, *DUSP5*, *CLEC2D*,

TRIP10, *GPR108* and *IL2* loci (**Figure 4G**, **Supplementary File 13**). The *TRIP10* and *GPR108*

promoters were each captured in contact with a high confidence variant rs1077667 (PP>0.99),

which is located in an intron of *TNFSF14* and is associated with multiple sclerosis (**Figure 4H**).

The accessibility of this SNP and it's contact with *TRIP10* and *GPR108* increased following

activation (**Figure 4H**). Conversely, the allergy-associated SNP rs7380290 is accessible and

contacts the *SIK1* promoter in resting cells, but shows reduced accessibility and promoter

connectivity upon activation (**Figure 4I**). *TRIP10* encodes a cytoskeletal binding protein involved

in endocytosis that suppresses glucose uptake in response to insulin signaling[60], *GPR108*

encodes an orphan G-protein coupled receptor, and *SIK1* encodes a salt-inducible kinase with

roles in cancer, epilepsy, and myeloid signaling[61]. None of these genes have been previously

studied in the context of T cell activation.

Comparative predictive power against orthogonal variant-to-gene mapping approaches

In an attempt to gauge the predictive power of our approach relative to other V2G approaches,

we compared our chromatin capture-based autoimmune GWAS effector gene predictions to the

predictions of four other chromosome capture-based studies in human CD4+ T cells[17–19,62], four

single-cell eQTL studies in human CD4+ T cells[13,62–64], and a set of 449 genes that when mutated

in humans cause inborn errors of immunity[65]. As part of the comparison, we harmonized the

chromatin-based datasets using our chromatin loop calling approach and integrated with the

same 95% credible set of autoimmune variants to create comparable physical contact maps. A

total of 6936 unique genes were implicated by all studies. Our HiC-ATAC-seq approach in naïve

and activated human CD4+ implicated 1947 effector genes, 400 of which through proxies in open

promoters and 1836 through contacts with distal variants, of which 752 were dynamically

regulated throughout activation. The HiC dataset from Gate et al. implicated 110 genes, and the

capture-HiC datasets from Burren et al., Yang et al., and Javierre et al. implicated 1408, 2572,

and 2368 genes, respectively (**Supplementary File 16**). A total of 369 autoimmune GWAS

effector genes were predicted in common by our HiC approach and the pcHiC-based approaches.

The eQTL studies by Soskic et al., Gate et al., Ye et al., and Schmiedel et al. (DICE) implicated

171, 15, 15, and 221 genes, and the co-accessibility data from Gate et al. implicated 45 genes.

Concordance between our gene predictions and the pcHiC predictions ranged from 15-24%

(**Figure 5A**), while concordance between our predictions and the eQTL predictions was low

(0.6%~5%, **Figure 5A**), and concordance among eQTL studies was also low (1.6%-13%, **Figure**

5A). However, when we co-localized the Soskic variant-gene pairs with autoimmune GWAS

SNPs, 41 of these eQTL were also predicted by our study, representing a concordance 10-fold

higher than obtained by a random sampling of genes within 500 kb of autoimmune variants

(**Figure 5B**). A total of 1519 of the genes implicated in our study were not predicted by eQTL

approaches, while 644 genes from our CD4 T cell V2G data were not implicated by the other

chromatin-based datasets, and altogether 562 putative autoimmune effector genes were uniquely

predicted by our study. Potential sources of variation between the results of the studies are

outlined in the Discussion. A total of 17 genes were implicated by all CD4+ T cell-based

approaches that nominated at least 150 genes (APIP, BCL2L11, ERAP1, ERAP2, CD5, FIGNL1,

IL18R1, METTL21B, MRPL51, PPIF, PTGER4, PXK, RMI2, RNASET2, SERPINB1, TAPBPL,

VAMP1).

To measure the predictive power of the sets of genes implicated by each approach above, a

precision-recall analysis was performed against the 'gold standard' human inborn errors in

immunity gene set, based on the hypothesis that genes under the control of autoimmune-

associated variants would cause monogenic immune disease phenotypes if subjected to

deleterious coding mutations. The set of genes from our study with disease-associated SNPs

located in their open promoters overlapped with only 5% of the genes from the gold standard set

(**Supplementary File 16**, **Figure 5C**). However, leveraging our HiC data to include distal

autoimmune variants captured interacting with open gene promoters increased the sensitivity of

the approach 3-fold to 16% (71 overlapping genes, **Figure 5C**), confirming the relevance of long-

range promoter-cRE/SNP contacts. This level of sensitivity is comparable to that of other

chromosome capture-based datasets for predicting HIEI genes in CD4+ T cells (**Figure 5C**).

Conversely, the eQTL-based approaches were 3- to ~12-fold less sensitive than the chromatin-

constrained approaches in predicting HIEI genes, with most recalling 0-2.5% and the DICE eQTL

dataset recalling 6% (**Figure 5C**). Restricting our 3D chromatin V2G to only those genes

dynamically regulated during T cell activation reduced predictive power from 16% to 10%, but the

fraction of these genes in the HIEI gold standard set (precision) increased from ~4% to 6.2%

(**Figure 5C**), indicating that focusing the V2G set on those SNP-gene pairs that are dynamically

regulated by T cell activation reduces potential false positive predictions. The precision of our

dataset was superior to that of the other chromosome capture-based datasets except for the

Burren pcHiC dataset (**Figure 5C**). The eQTL approaches were comparable to the 3D chromatin-

based datasets in precision (~3-6%, **Figure 5C**).

We also analyzed the relative predictive power of a recently proposed 'activity-by-contact'

(ABC) model[66] that uses a multi-tissue averaged HiC dataset instead of cell type-matched 3D

chromatin-based data to link variants to genes. This model constrains the input data by removing

bidirectional, antisense, and small RNAs, and potentially underweights distal elements connected

to ubiquitously expressed genes due to stronger average activity scores near their promoters.

Also, while most human genes have multiple alternative transcriptional start sites (median = 3),

ABC only annotates only one promoter per gene. To apply the activity-by-contact gene nomination

model to our CD4+ T cell chromatin-based V2G data, we used our ATAC-seq data and publicly

available CD4+ T cell H3K27ac ChIP-seq data as input, and integrated this with GWAS and the

averaged HiC dataset from the original ABC study[66,67]. The ABC model nominated 650 genes

compared to 1836 genes using our cell type-matched HiC data and analysis pipeline. Only 357

genes were nominated by both approaches, while 1479 genes nominated by our approach were

not implicated by the ABC model, and 293 genes not implicated by our approach were newly

implicated by ABC. To measure the predictive power of the ABC approach, we re-ran the

precision-recall re-analysis with all datasets subjected to the ABC gene-promoter filter (**Fig. 5D**).

We found that applying the restricted ABC model promoter annotation to all datasets did not have

a large effect on recall, however, the precision of several of the datasets were affected. For

example, using the restricted promoter/gene set reduced the precision of our V2G approach and

artificially inflated the precision of the 'nearest gene to SNP' metric. The precision-recall analysis

also shows that the ABC score-based approach is only half as powerful at predicting HIEI genes

as the chromatin-based V2G approaches (**Fig. 5D**). This indicates that informing GWAS data with

cell type- and state-specific 3D chromatin-based data brings more target gene predictive power

than application of the multi-tissue-averaged HiC used by the ABC model. Together, these

analyses indicate that chromosome capture-based V2G is a more sensitive approach for

identifying 'true' effector genes than eQTL or ABC approaches, but comes with additional

predicted genes that represent either false positives or true effector genes for which monogenic

LOF/GOF mutations have not yet been characterized in humans.

Functional validation of novel autoimmune V2G-predicted enhancers at the *IL2* locus

Our 3D chromatin-based analysis specifically predicts dynamic, disease-associated

regulatory elements in intergenic space at the *IL2* locus. The *IL2* gene encodes a cytokine with

crucial, pleotropic roles in the immune system, and dysregulation of IL-2 and IL-2 receptor

signaling leads to immunodeficiency and autoimmune disorders in mice and humans[68–71].

Activation-induced transcription of *IL2* involves an upstream regulatory region (URR) ~375 bp

from the TSS that has served as a paradigm of tissue-specific, inducible gene transcription for

nearly four decades[72–74]. However, the presence of evolutionarily conserved non-coding

sequences (CNS) in the ~150 kb of intergenic space 46, 51, 80, 83, 85, 96, 122, and 128 kb

upstream of the TSS suggest that additional regulatory elements may have evolved to control

IL2[75] (**Figure 6A**). The -51 kb CNS contains a SNP linked to T1D, IBD, PSO, CEL and allergy

(rs72669153), while the -85 kb CNS contains a SNP linked to RA (rs6232750) and the -128 kb

CNS contains two SNPs linked to T1D, JIA, and SLE (rs1512973 and rs12504008, **Figure 6A**).

In TCR/CD28-stimulated naïve CD4+ T cells, these CNS are remodeled to become highly

accessible (**Figure 6A**), and they loop to interact physically with the *IL2* URR (**Figure 6B**) at both

time points. ChIP-seq analyses in human T cells[76] show that the URR and all distal CNS except

-85 are occupied by TF such as Jun/Fos (AP-1), NFAT, and NFkB that are known regulators of

IL2 (**Figure 6 – Figure Supplement 1**), and the -85, -122, and -128 CNS are occupied by

additional TF not previously thought to be direct regulators of *IL2*, such as MYC, BCL6, and

STAT5 (**Figure 6 – Figure Supplement 1**). Recombinant reporter assays in primary activated

human CD4+ T cells showed that the -46, -51, -83, and -128 CNS/OCR can enhance transcription

from the URR (**Figure 6C**). To determine whether the native elements contribute to the expression

of *IL2*, we targeted each CNS/OCR individually in primary human CD4+ T cells or Jurkat T cells

using CRISPR/CAS9 (**Figure 6D**) and measured IL-2 secretion following TCR/CD28 stimulation

(**Figure 6E**). Deletion of the -46, -51, -83, -85, -122, and -128 kb elements in primary human

CD4+ T cells each resulted in a ~50% reduction in IL-2 production, while deletion of the -80 kb

element had little effect. A very similar pattern of impact was observed when these elements were

deleted individually in Jurkat T cells (**Figure 6E**). The URR has a stronger contribution to IL-2

production than any individual intergenic element, as deletion of the URR almost completely

abrogated activation-induced IL-2 production by both primary CD4+ or Jurkat T cells (**Figure 6E**).

To determine whether these intergenic enhancers exist in synergistic epistasis[77] necessary for

IL2 transactivation, we generated Jurkat T cell clones in which the stretch of all 7 elements located

46 kb to 128 kb upstream of *IL2* was deleted using CRISPR/CAS9 (**Figure 6F**). Despite the URR

and 46 kb of upstream sequence being intact in these clones, loss of the 81.3 kb stretch of

intergenic enhancers renders these cells incapable of expressing *IL2* at both the mRNA and

protein level in response to stimulation (**Figure 6G**). These results show that the URR is not

sufficient for activation-induced expression of *IL2*, and that *IL2* has a previously unappreciated,

complex, and autoimmune disease-associated regulatory architecture that was accurately

predicted by our 3D epigenomic V2G approach. Importantly, we find that the distal *IL2* cRE are

highly accessible in quiescent memory T cell subsets (Th1, Th2, Th17, Th1-17, Th22) isolated

directly *ex vivo* from human blood, whereas naïve CD4+ T cells and non-IL-2-producing Treg

showed little accessibility at these elements (**Figure 6 – Figure Supplement 1D**). This suggests

that stable remodeling of distal *IL2* cRE can persist *in vivo* after TCR signals cease, and that this

epigenetic imprinting contributes to the immediate, activation-induced production of IL-2 exhibited

by memory, but not naïve or regulatory, CD4+ T cells[78–80].

Distal *IL2* enhancers are evolutionarily conserved and impact *in vivo* T cell-mediated

immunity in mice

The intergenic *IL2* enhancers defined above are conserved at the sequence level between

human and mouse (**Figure 7A**). To test whether enhancer function is likewise evolutionarily

conserved, we used zygotic CRISPR/CAS9 targeting to generate mice with a 583 bp deletion of

the ortholog of the -128 kb human enhancer CNS/OCR situated 83 kb upstream from mouse *Il2*

(*Il2*-83-cRE-ko, C57BL6 background). Deletion of this genomic region did not discernably affect

T lymphocyte development in *Il2*-83-cRE-ko mice. However, peripheral CD4^{+} T cells from *Il2*-83-

cRE-ko mice produced substantially less IL-2 at both the protein and mRNA level, and exhibited

reduced proliferation, in response to *in vitro* stimulation (**Figure 7B**), confirming that the enhancer

function of the orthologous -128 and -83 kb elements is conserved between human and mouse.

The *in vitro* induction of Foxp3+ regulatory T cells (Treg) from conventional CD4+ T cell precursors

in response to antigenic stimulation in the present of TGF-beta, a differentiation process highly

dependent upon IL-2, was reduced 4-fold in *Il2*-83-cRE-ko mice compared to wild-type mice

(**Figure 7C**), but could be rescued by addition of exogenous IL-2 to the culture (**Figure 7C**).

To test whether the distal -83 kb *Il2* enhancer contributes to physiologic immune responses

in vivo, we immunized wild-type and *Il2*-83-cRE-ko mice with the model antigen chicken

ovalbumin. *Il2*-83-cRE-ko animals showed a nominal increase in the differentiation of CD4+ T

cells into CXCR5+PD-1^{hi} follicular helper T cells (Tfh) in the spleen compared to wild-type animals

(**Figure 7D**), a process known to be antagonized by IL-2, and generated significantly elevated

levels of ovalbumin-specific IgG antibody following immunization (**Figure 7E**). To determine

whether the 83 kb *Il2* enhancer contributes to auto-inflammatory disease susceptibility *in vivo*, we

used an adoptive transfer model of IBD in which the development of colitis is determined by the

balance between conventional and regulatory CD4+ T cell activities[81,82]. Upon transfer into

lymphocyte-deficient Rag1-ko recipients, wild-type CD4+ T cells respond to microbiota in the gut

by inducing inflammatory colitis that leads to weight loss (**Figure 7F**, WT Tconv), while co-transfer

of wild-type Treg effectively controls inflammation (**Figure 7F**, WT Tconv + WT Treg). Transfer of

Il2-83-cRE-ko Tconv led to significantly less colitis (**Figure 7F**, *Il2*-83-cRE-ko Tconv), and was

associated with a nominal decrease in *Il2*-83-cRE-ko Tconv in the spleen, and a significant

decrease in the accumulation of *Il2*-83-cRE-ko Tconv in the mesenteric lymph nodes (MLN) that

drain the intestines (**Figure 7F** inset). Treg require IL-2 from Tconv for their function and

homeostasis[83], and despite their reduced numbers, *Il2*-83-cRE-ko Tconv were able to support the

homeostasis and function of co-transferred wild-type Treg (**Figure 7F**, *Il2*-83-cRE-ko Tconv + WT

Treg). That the -83 kb ortholog of the human -128 kb *IL2* enhancer contributes to physiologic

immune responses and inflammatory disease susceptibility *in vivo.*

Impact of autoimmune risk-associated genetic variation on *cis*-regulatory element activity

The chromatin conformation approach used here employs GWAS variants as 'signposts' to

identify disease-relevant regulatory elements and connect them to their target genes, but does

not *per se* determine the effect of disease-associated genetic variation on enhancer activity or

gene expression. We experimentally measured variant effects at the *IL2* locus, where the -128

enhancer defined above contains two SNPs linked to T1D, JIA, and SLE (rs1512973 and

rs12504008). Using a recombinant reporter assay in primary activated CD4+ T cells, we

confirmed that disease-associated genetic variation influences intergenic *IL2* enhancer activity at

the -128 kb element, in that the risk allele contributes significantly less transcriptional activity than

the reference allele (**Figure 8A**).

Autoimmune variants are likely to influence disease risk by altering the activity of *cis*-
regulatory elements in T cells. At genome scale, we identified over 1000 cRE likely impacted by
autoimmune disease-associated genetic variation, in that they contain autoimmune risk SNPs
that are predicted to decrease or increase transcription factor binding affinity. Overall, 1370
autoimmune risk variants in open chromatin were predicted to influence the activity of 495 DNA
binding factors (**Supplementary File 17**), including PLAG1, PRDM1, BACH2, MYC, TBX21,
BHLHE40, LEF1, TCF7, BCL6, IRF, p53, STAT (**Figure 8 – Figure Supplement 1A**), and
hundreds of NFkB, EGR, KLF, FKH/FOX, and FOS-JUN sites (**Figure 8B**). For example, the T1D
SNP rs3024505 (PP = 0.200) connected to the promoters of *IL9* and *FAIM3* (**Figure 8 – Figure
Supplement 1B**) and the celiac SNP rs13010713 (PP = 0.154) contacting the *ITGA4* promoter
(**Figure 8 – Figure Supplement 1C**) are predicted to disrupt binding sites for *MZF1* (**Figure 8 –
Figure Supplement 1D**) and SOX4 (**Figure 8 – Figure Supplement 1E**). Similarly, the MS SNP
rs1077667 contacting the promoters of *GPR108* and *TRIP10* (**Figure 4H**) is predicted to reduce
affinity for TP53, TP63, and OCT2/POU2F2 (**Figure 8 – Figure Supplement 1F**).
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Functional validation of chromosome capture-based V2G-implicated effector genes
To determine whether genes identified *via* their physical interaction with autoimmune variants
in CD4+ T cell chromatin contact maps tend to be directly involved in T cell activation and function,
we compared the set of autoimmune genes implicated by chromatin contacts in this study to sets
of genes identified in CRISPR-based screens that control aspects of CD4+ T cell activation like
proliferation and expression of the inflammatory genes *IFNG, CTLA4, IL2, IL2RA,* and *TNF*[21–23].
The set of all V2G-implicated genes was highly enriched for genes shown to regulate IL-2, IL-2
receptor, CTLA-4, and proliferation (**Figure 8C, Figure 8 – Figure Supplement 2A,
Supplementary File 18**). For example, 202 genes shown to regulate IL-2 production and 166
genes shown to regulate proliferation were also implicated in our autoimmune V2G set (**Figure 8
– Figure Supplement 2A, Supplementary File 16**). Genes implicated by V2G in activated CD4+

T cells were moderately enriched for genes known to control the production of IFN-G, but at the

individual disease level, only genes connected to CRO- and ATD-associated variants were

enriched for IFNG regulatory genes (**Figure 8C, Figure 8 – Figure Supplement 2A**). Genes

contacting CRO, PSO, RA, SLE, T1D and VIT variants were moderately enriched for TNF

regulatory genes, but the set of all V2G genes was not enriched for TNF genes. We also queried

the orthologs of our V2G-implicated genes from the international mouse phenotype consortium

(IMPC) database and identified 97 genes that when knocked out give an immune phenotype and

126 V2G genes that result in a hematopoietic phenotype (**Figure 8D**, **Figure 8 – Figure**

Supplement 2B, **Supplementary File 18**). This frequency of observed immune/hematopoietic

phenotypes represents a significant (adjP<0.05) ~30% enrichment over expected. This gene set

was also enriched for mortality, homeostasis/metabolism, growth/body size, skeleton, and

embryonic phenotypes (**Figure 8D**, **Supplementary File 18**).

An important application of this V2G approach is the identification of novel regulators of T cell

activation and their potential as drug targets, as nearly 20% of implicated genes have at least one

chemical modulator currently available (**Figure 8E**, **Supplementary File 19**). As shown above,

this approach validates genes that are well-studied regulators of T cell function, however, a

significant portion of implicated genes are not well-studied and are not currently known to regulate

T cell activation (**Figure 8F**). We observed a trend that genes expressed more highly in immune

tissues (GTEX) have in general been better investigated, and identified several less-studied

genes that could be novel targets, including the kinases GRK6, PTK6, SIK1, and MAP3K11, the

G protein-coupled receptors OXER1, GPR183, GPR18, and KISS1R, the acetylcholine receptor

CHRNB1, and the *de novo* purine pathway enzyme GART. To determine whether these V2G-

implicated genes are novel regulators of T cell activation, we used commercially available

pharmacologic modulators in dose-response assays of activation-induced T cell proliferation.

Stimulation of T cells in the presence of ligands for CHRNB1, KISS1R and OXER1 did not

significantly affect T cell proliferation, however, small molecules targeting GRK6, PTK6,

MAP3K11, GPR183, GART, and SIK1 inhibited T cell activation in the nanomolar to micromolar

range (**Figure 8G**). Together, these data show that maps of dynamic, 3D variant-gene chromatin

contacts in stimulated CD4+ T cells are able to identify genes with *bona fide* roles in T cell

activation.

DISCUSSION

By measuring dynamic changes in chromosome folding, chromatin accessibility, and gene

expression in naïve CD4+ T cells as a function of TCR-CD28 costimulation, we identified the

putative *cis*-regulatory landscape of autoimmune disease-associated genetic variation and

physically connected these elements to their putative effector genes. This and prior chromosome

capture-based studies show that most cRE and their variants interact with, and therefore have

the potential to regulate, more than one gene (median 5 in this study), supporting a scenario in

which multiple effector genes are operative at a GWAS locus. We validated a stretch of novel

distal elements predicted by our V2G approach as *bona fide* enhancers for the canonical immune

gene *IL2*, and showed that autoimmune-associated genetic variation at one of these elements

influences it's activity. We also conducted pharmacologic targeting experiments and compared

our results with CRISPR-based studies to validate sets of *bona fide* effector genes with a

confluence of multiple orthogonal lines of evidence supporting their role in CD4+ T cell activation.

We also observe that the vast majority (87-95%) of GWAS effector genes predicted by

chromosome capture-based approaches are not the genes nearest to the sentinel SNPs queried

in this study, while roughly one-third of eGenes predicted by eQTL approaches are the nearest to

a sentinel. This and the low concordance between 3D chromatin vs. eQTL eGene predictions is

consistent with the view that eQTL-based and GWAS-based approaches inherently implicate

different types of genes. While eQTLs cluster strongly near transcription start sites of genes with

simple regulatory structures and low enrichment for functional annotations, GWAS variants are

generally far from the TSS of genes with complex regulatory landscapes[84]. Moreover, eGene

discovery by eQTL studies using scRNA-seq approaches are significantly limited by the low gene

detection power inherent to these methods, particularly in rare cell types.

Our systematic comparison of 3D chromatin-based target gene nomination studies in human

CD4+ T cells revealed significant variability between datasets, with the highest concordance

exhibited by the Javierre and Burren datasets (37%) and the next highest exhibited by our V2G

and the Javierre dataset (24%). Although we harmonized the comparisons as much as possible

by subjecting each dataset to the same HiC loop calling and GWAS integration steps, there are

several potential sources for the observed discrepancy between the studies. The modes of

stimulation are largely comparable, but timepoints and donors varied, and ours was the only study

that sorted naïve CD4+ T cells prior to stimulation. The higher concordance among promoter-

capture datasets compared to our HiC dataset is likely due to their lower resolution compared to

our HiC and their greater sequencing depth focused at promoters compared to HiC. The lower

resolution of HindIII-based capture-HiC results in loops called to the wrong promoters[24], and will

miss distal SNP interactions at any promoters excluded from the capture set. While HiC is

unbiased in this regard, high resolution HiC will fail to call some SNP-promoter loops because the

sequencing depth is spread across the whole genome instead of focused at promoters. However,

despite variation between studies, the results show the clear value of tissue-matched chromatin

conformation maps compared to tissue-averaged HiC for understanding the complex genetic and

epigenetic mechanisms that regulate gene expression and for predicting autoimmune effector

genes.

Why do the V2G approaches not capture a larger proportion of genes from the human inborn

errors in immunity 'truth set'? Low recall/sensitivity could result from the fact that a substantial

portion of the mutations in the full HIEI gene set result in immunodeficiency but not autoimmune

phenotypes. However, restricting the HIEI truth set to only those disease gene mutations that

result in an autoimmune phenotype (143 genes) only increased recall from 16% to 17.5%,

suggesting that this is not a major factor reducing sensitivity. Also, our method uses GWAS

signals as an input, and unlike GWAS for height, BMI, blood traits, etc., most autoimmune GWAS

signals are likely not saturated, which limits discoverability. Another reason for reduced sensitivity

is the likelihood that many of the genes in the HIEI truth set operate in cells other than CD4+ T

cells, and consistent with this, when the Javierre pcHiC V2G is extended to all immune cell types

tested, recall increases from 17% to 27%. This observation emphasizes how limited inclusion cell

types and states in a study can significantly limit the power to detect autoimmune effector genes.

Why are so few of our 3D chromatin-based V2G genes present in the HIEI truth set? Low precision

could be due to false positives in the V2G gene set; *i.e.*, contacts between disease-associated

cRE and genes that are not in fact involved in disease susceptibility. This does not argue *per se*

against the biological relevance of the cRE or the gene, only that the linkage to disease

susceptibility is not relevant. Alternatively, the absence of chromatin-GWAS-implicated genes in

the truth set could be a false negative from the point of view of the truth set; *i.e.*, monogenic,

disease-causing mutations in these genes may exist in the human population, but have not yet

been discovered. For example, in the year 2000 approximately 100 monogenic mutations causing

human inborn errors of immunity were known, but this increased by ~11 disease mutations per

year until 300 human inborn errors of immunity had been identified by 2017. The advent of next-

generation exome/genome sequencing and the COVID-19 pandemic resulted in an increase in

the rate of HIEI discovery between 2018-2021 to ~40 per year to the current recognized HIEI of

~450. If we assume a conservative continued rate of HIEI discovery of 25 disease genes per year,

the next 10 years will show us an additional ~250 disease genes that are not currently contained

in the truth set.

Many of the genes identified in this 3D epigenomic V2G screen have known roles in T cell

activation and function. An example is *IL2*, and we used the resulting maps to identify and validate

a stretch of previously unknown distal enhancers whose activity is required for *IL2* expression and

is influenced by autoimmune genetic variation. Another example is the phosphatase DUSP5 that

regulates MAPK signaling during T cell activation[85,86]. However, roles for many of the genes

implicated here in T cell activation are not known. For example, one of the top implicated genes,

PARK7, is a deglycase studied in the context of Parkinson's disease, but has a recently been

shown to modulate regulatory T cell function[87]. The orphan G protein-coupled receptor GPR108

is another top gene uniquely implicated by our chromatin-based V2G that has not been studied

in T cells, but was identified in a recent CRISPR screen for genes affecting IL-2 levels[23]. Also co-

implicated by our study and recent CRISPR screens are the cannabidiol receptor GPR18[88] and

the purine biosynthetic enzyme GART[89]. The GPR18 agonist arachidonyl glycine inhibited CD4+

T cell activation above 10 uM, while the GPR18 antagonist O-1918 slightly enhanced T cell

activation. This GPR was implicated by both chromatin- and eQTL-based approaches.

Antagonism of GART, an enzyme we previous identified as a V2G effector gene in COVID19

severity[58], with the FDA-approved drug lometrexol inhibited T cell activation in the 10 nM range.

Antagonism of GRK6, a member of the G-coupled receptor kinase family associated with insulin

secretion and T2D susceptibility[90], and PTK6, an oncogenic kinase studied in the context of

cancer[91], led to inhibition of T cell activation in the nM to uM range. These targets were implicated

by the other chromatin-based approaches but not by eQTL. Inhibition of MAP3K11, a kinase that

facilitates signaling through JNK1 and IkappaB kinase in cancer[92,93] inhibited stimulation-induced

CD4+ T cell proliferation in the 100 nM range, as did 25-hydroxycholesterol, a ligand of the G

protein-coupled receptor GPR183 that was implicated by both chromatin- and eQTL-based

approaches. SIK1 is a member of the salt-inducible kinase family uniquely implicated in our study

that negatively regulates TORC activity[61], and a small molecule SIK1 inhibitor potently

antagonized stimulation-induced CD4+ T cell activation in the pM range.

Our integration of high-resolution Hi-C, ATAC-seq, RNA-seq and GWAS data in a single

immune cell type across multiple activation states identified hundreds of autoimmune variant-

gene pairs at ~half of all GWAS loci studied, and application of this technique to additional immune

cell types will likely identify effector genes at many of the remaining loci. This study highlights the

value of chromosome conformation data as a powerful biological constraint for focusing variant-

to-gene mapping efforts[94], and shows that dynamic changes in the spatial conformation of the

genome that accompany cell state transitions alter gene expression by exposing promoters to a

varying array of *cis*-regulatory elements, transcription factors, and genetic variants.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

<u>T cell isolation and *in vitro* stimulation</u>

Human primary CD4+ T cells were purified from the apheresis products obtained from healthy,

screened human donors through University of Pennsylvania Human Immunology Core (HIC).

Naïve CD4+ T cells were purified using EasySepTM human naïve CD4+ T cell isolation kit II

(STEM cells Technologies, cat#17555) by immunomagnetic negative selection as per

manufacturer's protocol. Isolated untouched, highly purified (93-98%) naïve human CD4 T cells

were activated using anti-CD3+anti-CD28 Dynabeads (1:1, Thermofisher scientific, cat # 11161D)

for 8-24 hours. Cells were then used to prepare sequencing libraries. The human leukemic T cell

line Jurkat was obtained from ATCC, cloned by limiting dilution, and clones with high activation-

induced secretion of IL-2 were selected for further study. Single-cell mouse lymphocyte

suspensions were prepared from spleen and lymph nodes isolated from 6-week-old female wild-

type or *Il2*-83cRE-ko mice (C57BL6 background). Mouse CD4+ T cells were purified by negative

selection using a CD4+ T cell isolation kit (Miltenyi Biotec, cat. # 130-104-454). For CD8 depletion,

CD8+ T cells were positively stained using CD8a (Ly-2) microbeads (Miltenyi Biotec, cat. # 130-

117-044) and the negative flow-through fraction was collected. Tregs were purified from the

mouse lymphocytes using a CD4+CD25+ regulatory T cell isolation kit (Miltenyi Biotec, cat. # 130-

091-041). The purity of the isolated cells was checked by flow cytometry, showing approximately

95% cell purity. For iTreg induction, CD4+ CD25- T cells (1x 10^6) were activated in a 24-well plate

pre-coated with anti-CD3 (1 µg/mL) and the cells were cultured for 72 hours in RPMI culture

medium with soluble anti-CD3 (0.5 µg/mL), IL-2 (25 units/mL), TGF-beta (3 ng/mL), anti-IFN-

gamma (5 µg/mL), and anti-IL-4 (5 µg/mL). iTreg induction cultures were also set up without

adding IL-2. iTreg cultures were harvested after 72 hours, and cells were stained for Foxp3

expression.

<u>*Il2-83-cRE ko* Mice</u>

The CRISPR/CAS method was employed to delete the intergenic -83 CNS sequence between *Il2*

and *Il21*. CRISPR guide RNAs were designed (two guide RNAs upstream of -83CNS) and one

guide RNA (downstream of -83CNS) using guide RNA design tools (http://crispr.mit.edu.guides).

The pX335 plasmid (Addgene #42335) was used to generate a DNA template for sgRNA *in vitro*

transcription. To *in vitro* transcribe the sgRNA, a T7 sequence was incorporated at the 5' end of

the guide RNA sequence, and a part of the sgRNA scaffold sequence from px335 was added at

the 3' end of the guide RNA. Oligonucleotide sequences containing the guide RNA (underlined)

along with these added sequences were synthesized by IDT. The oligonucleotide sequences

were as follows:

T7_guideRNA#1_scaffold#1:

TTAATACGACTCACTATAGGTTTTCCACGGATCTGCTCGGGTTTTAGAGCTAGAAATAGC

T7_guideRNA#1_scaffold#2:

TTAATACGACTCACTATAGGTGCTTTCTAGGTGAAGCCCCGTTTTAGAGCTAGAAATAGC

T7_guideRNA#1_scaffold#3:

TTAATACGACTCACTATAGGTCATTTGAGCCTAACTACTCGTTTTAGAGCTAGAAATAGC

Along with the above-cited sequences, a reverse primer sequence

(AGCACCGACTCGGTGCCACT) from PX335 was used to amplify a PCR-generated template

for sgRNA *in vitro* transcription. The PCR product (~ 117 bp) was verified on a 2% agarose gel

and then gel-purified using the QIAQuick gel extraction kit. The T7 sgRNA PCR product (500 ng)

was used as a template for *in vitro* transcription with the T7 High Yield RNA synthesis kit (NEB,

cat # E2040S). The reaction was incubated at 37°C for 4 hours, and then the sgRNA was purified

using the MEGAclear kit (Life Technologies, cat # AM1908) according to the kit protocol. The

sgRNA was eluted with elution buffer preheated to 95°C. The eluted sgRNA was centrifuged at

13,000 rpm for 20 minutes at 4°C, and the suspension was transferred into a new RNase-free

tube. The sgRNA quality was checked by a bioanalyzer using an RNA nano Chip. The sgRNA

was diluted to 500 ng/µl in injection buffer (sterile 10 mM Tris/0.1 mM EDTA, pH 7.5) and stored

in a -80°C freezer until use. An injection mixture (final volume 30 µl) was prepared in injection

buffer by mixing 500 ng/µl of each of the sgRNAs (left and right) with Cas9 mRNA (1 µg/µl, TriLink,

cat # L-6125). Fertilized eggs collected from B6/129 mice were microinjected at the CHOP

transgenic core and transferred into pseudo-pregnant B6 females. The pups were genotyped

using primers flanking the targeted sequence (Forward primer: TTAGGACCTCACCCATCACAA

and reverse primer: CATGCCCAGCTACTCTGACAT). The PCR product was cloned into the

Promega PGEM T Easy TA cloning vector, and plasmid DNA was Sanger sequenced to

determine the size of the deletion. The targeting resulted in mice with a 500 bp and 583 bp deletion

at the targeted -83 CNS site and these mutant mice showed same phenotype. The *Il2*-83-cRE

mutant heterozygous male mice were backcrossed with B6 females for 10 successive

generations.

ELISA

Cell culture supernatants collected at various time intervals *from in vitro* stimulated T cells of mice

or humans were analyzed for IL-2 by ELISA using kits purchased from ThermoFisher Scientific

(mouse IL-2 ELISA kit: cat # 88-7024-88) and human IL-2 ELISA kit, cat # 88-7025-76). IL-2

ELISA was performed following the protocol provided by the vendor.

In vivo ovalbumin immunization

Eight week-old female WT and Il2-CNS-83 KO mice were injected intraperitoneally with 50 µg of

ovalbumin (Sigma cat # A5503-5G) mixed with IFA (Sigma cat # F5506). Blood was collected

from the immunized mice after 10 days, and serum was separated. The level of ovalbumin-

specific IgG in the serum was determined by ELISA using an ovalbumin-specific IgG ELISA kit

purchased from MyBiosource (cat # MBS763696). The immunized mice were sacrificed on day

10 of immunization, and spleen and lymph nodes were collected. Splenocytes and lymph node

cells were stained with CD4 BV785, CD25 BV650, CD44 Percp Cy5.5, CD62L APC eFL780,

CXCR5 BV421, PD-1 APC, Bcl-6 PE antibodies. TFH frequency was determined by flow

cytometry analysis.

In vivo inflammatory colitis model

Conventional CD4+CD25-ve T cells and CD4+CD25+ Tregs were purified from spleens and

lymph nodes of male wild-type or Il2-CNS-83 ko mice (6-8 weeks of age). T cells were transferred

into Rag1-ko male mice (5 per group) by retro-orbital injection of 1 million wild-type or Il2-CNS-83

ko Tconv cells alone or along with (0.25 x 10^6) wild-type Tregs. Experimental Rag1-ko recipients

were weighed 3 times per week and scored for IBD-induced clinical symptoms. Mice were

sacrificed 72 days post-transfer, and spleen, mesenteric lymph nodes, and colon were collected.

Single-cell suspensions were prepared, cells were stained for CD4, CD8, CD25, CD44, and

Foxp3, and analyzed by flow cytometry. The absolute T cell count was estimated using cell count

and cell frequency derived from the flow cytometry analysis.

RNA-seq library generation and sequencing

RNA was isolated from ~ 1 million of each cell stage using Trizol Re- agent (Invitrogen), purified

using the Directzol RNA Miniprep Kit (Zymo Research), and depleted of contaminating genomic

DNA using DNAse I. Purified RNA was checked for quality on a Bioanlayzer 2100 using the Nano

RNA Chip and samples with RIN>7 were used for RNA-seq library preparation. RNA samples

were depleted of rRNA using QIAseq Fastselect RNA removal kit (Qiagen). Samples were then

processed for the preparation of libraries using the SMARTer Stranded Total RNA Sample Prep

Kit (Takara Bio USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, the purified first-strand

cDNA is amplified into RNA-seq libraries using SeqAmp DNA Polymerase and the Forward and

the Reverse PCR Primers from the Illumina Indexing Primer Set HT for Illumina. Quality and

quantity of the libraries was assessed using the Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer system and Qubit

fluorometer (Life Technologies). Sequencing was performed on the NovaSeq 6000 platform at

the CHOP Center for Spatial and Functional Genomics.

ATAC-seq library generation and sequencing

A total of 50,000 to 100,000 sorted cells were centrifuged at 550 g for 5 min at 4 °C. The cell pellet

was washed with cold PBS and resuspended in 50 μL cold lysis buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4,

10 mM NaCl, 3 mM MgCl2, 0.1% NP-40/IGEPAL CA-630) and immediately centrifuged at 550 g

for 10 min at 4 °C. Nuclei were resuspended in the Nextera transposition reaction mix (25 μL 2x

TD Buffer, 2.5 μL Nextera Tn5 transposase (Illumina Cat #FC-121-1030), and 22.5 μL nuclease

free H2O) on ice, then incubated for 45 min at 37 °C. The tagmented DNA was then purified using

the Qiagen MinElute kit eluted with 10.5 μL Elution Buffer (EB). Ten microliters of purified

tagmented DNA was PCR amplified using Nextera primers for 12 cycles to generate each library.

PCR reaction was subsequently cleaned up using 1.5x AMPureXP beads (Agencourt), and

concentrations were measured by Qubit. Libraries were paired-end sequenced on the Illumina

HiSeq 4000 platform (100 bp read length).

Hi-C library preparation

Hi-C library preparation on FACS-sorted CD4+ T cells was performed using the Arima-HiC kit

(Arima Genomics Inc), according to the manufacturer's protocols. Briefly, cells were crosslinked

using formaldehyde. Crosslinked cells were then subject to the Arima-HiC protocol, which utilizes

multiple restriction enzymes to digest chromatin. Arima-HiC sequencing libraries were prepared

by first shearing purified proximally-ligated DNA and then size-selecting 200-600 bp DNA

fragments using AmpureXP beads (Beckman Coulter). The size-selected fragments were then

enriched using Enrichment Beads (provided in the Arima-HiC kit), and then converted into

Illumina-compatible sequencing libraries with the Swift Accel-NGS 2SPlus DNA Library Kit (Swift,

21024) and Swift 2S Indexing Kit (Swift, 26148). The purified, PCR-amplified DNA underwent

standard QC (qPCR, Bioanalyzer, and KAPA Library Quantification [Roche, KK4824]) and was

sequenced with unique single indexes on the Illumina NovaSeq 6000 Sequencing System using

200 bp reads.

ATAC-seq data analysis

ATAC-seq peaks from libraries unstimulated and stimulated Naïve CD4+ T cells were called using

the ENCODE ATAC-seq pipeline (https://www.encodeproject.org/atac-seq/). Briefly, pair-end

reads from three biological replicates for each cell type were aligned to hg19 genome using

bowtie2[95], and duplicate reads were removed from the alignment. Narrow peaks were called

independently for each replicate using macs2[96] (-p 0.01 --nomodel --shift -75 --extsize 150 -B --

SPMR --keep-dup all --call-summits) and ENCODE blacklist regions (ENCSR636HFF) were

removed from peaks in individual replicates. Reproducible peaks, peaks called in at least two

replicates, were used to generate a consensus peakset. Signal peaks were normalized using

csaw[97] in 10kb bins background regions and low abundance peaks (CPM>1) were excluded from

the analysis. Tests for differential accessibility was conducted with the glmQLFit approach

implemented in edgeR[98] using the normalization factors calculated by csaw. OCRs with FDR <

0.05 and abs($\log_2$FC > 1) between stages were considered differentially accessible.

<u>Hi-C data analysis</u>

Paired-end reads from two replicates were pre-processed using the HICUP pipeline v0.7.4[99], with

bowtie as aligner and hg19 as the reference genome. The alignment .bam file were parsed to

.pairs format using pairtools v0.3.0 (https://github.com/open2c/pairtools) and pairix v0.3.7

(https://github.com/4dn-dcic/pairix), and eventually converted to pre-binned Hi-C matrix in .cool

format by cooler v0.8.10[100] with multiple resolutions (500bp, 1kbp, 2kbp, 2.5kbp, 4kbp, 5kbp,

10kbp, 25kbp, 40kbp, 50kbp, 100kbp, 250kbp, 500kbp, 1Mbp and 2.5Mbp) and normalized with

ICE method[101]. Replicate similarity was determined by HiCRep v1.12.2[100] at 10K resolution. For

each sample, eigenvectors were determined from an ICE balanced Hi-C matrix with 40kb

resolution using cooltools v0.3.2[102] and first principal components were used to determine A/B

compartments with GC% of genome region as reference track to determine the sign. Differential

TAD comparison was performed using TADcompare with the default settings for each

chromosome (v1.4.0)[103]. Finally, for each cell type, significant intra-chromosomal interaction loops

were determined under multiple resolutions (1kb, 2kb and 4kb) using the Hi-C loop caller Fit-Hi-

C2 v2.0.7[104] (FDR<1e-6) on merged replicates matrix. The consensus chromatin loops within

resolution were identified by combining all three stages. These sets of loops were used as

consensus for quantitative differential analysis explained below. The final consensus interaction

loops for visualization were collected by merging loops from all the resolutions with preference to

keep the highest resolution. Quantitative loop differential analysis across cell types was performed

on fast lasso normalized interaction frequency (IF) implemented in multiCompareHiC v1.8.0[105] for

each chromosome at resolution 1kb, 2kb and 4kb independently. The contacts with zero

interaction frequency (IF) among more than 80% of the samples and average IF less than 5 were

excluded from differential analysis. The QLF test based on a generalized linear model was

performed in cell type-pairwise comparisons, and p-values were corrected with FDR. The final

differential loops were identified by overlapping differential IF contacts with consensus interaction

loops.

<u>Bulk RNA-seq data analysis</u>

Bulk RNA-seq libraries were sequenced on an Illumina Novaseq 6000 instrument. The pair-end

fastq files were mapped to the genome assembly hg19 by STAR (v2.6.0c) independently for each

replicate. The GencodeV19 annotation was used for gene feature annotation and the raw read

count for gene feature was calculated by htseq-count (v0.6.1)[106] with parameter settings -f bam -

r pos -s yes -t exon -m union. The gene features localized on chrM or annotated as rRNAs, small

coding RNA, or pseudo genes were removed from the final sample-by-gene read count matrix.

Gene set variation analysis was performed using GSVA 1.42.0[107] with the MSigDB hallmark

geneset[108], with resulting scores analyzed using limma (limma_3.50.3)[109]. Low abundance peaks

(CPM>1) were excluded from the analysis. Testing for differential expression was conducted with

the glmQLFit approach implemented in edgeR[98]. Genes with FDR<0.05 and abs($\log_2$FC>1)

between stages were considered differentially expressed. Differential genes were then clustered

using k-means clustering. The number of clusters was determined using the elbow method on

the weighted sum of squares, where was set to k=5. Score for how similar each gene followed

the clusters expression pattern was determined by calculating pearson correlation coefficients

between each gene in the cluster and the cluster centroid.

Transcription factor footprinting and motif analysis

Transcription factor footprints were called using Regulatory Analysis Toolbox HINT-ATAC

(v0.13.0) with pooled ATAC-seq data for each stage and consensus peak calls[110]. The rgt-hint

footprinting was run with parameters –atac-seq, --paired-end, and organism=hg19 set. The output

footprint coordinates were subsequently matched using rgt-motifanalysis matching with

parameters --organism hg19 and –pseudocount 0.8 set. The JASPAR2020 position weight matrix

database was used to match footprints[111]. Differential analysis of TF binding across conditions

was performed using rgt-hint differential with parameters –organism hg19, --bc, --nc 24 using the

motif matched transcription factor footprints. An activity score is then calculated based on the

accessibility surrounding the footprint.

Partitioned heritability LD score regression enrichment analysis
864
Partitioned heritability LD score regression[112] (v1.0.0) was used to identify heritability enrichment

with GWAS summary statistics and open chromatin regions annotated to genes. The baseline

analysis   was   performed   using   LDSCORE   data

(https://data.broadinstitute.org/alkesgroup/LDSCORE) with LD scores, regression weights, and

allele frequencies from the 1000G phase 1 data. The summary statistics were obtained from

studies as described in **Supplementary File 14** and harmonized with the munge_sumstats.py

script. Annotations for Partitioned LD score regression were generated using the coordinates of

open chromatin regions that contact gene promoters through Hi-C loops for each cell type. Finally,

partitioned LD scores were compared to baseline LD scores to measure enrichment fold change

and enrichment p-values, which were adjusted with FDR across all comparisons.

Variant-to-gene mapping using HiC-derived promoter contacts

95% credible sets were determined as previously described[113]. Briefly, P values from GWAS

summary statistics were converted to Bayes factors. Posterior probabilities were then calculated

for each variant. The variants were ordered from highest to lowest posterior probabilities added

to the credible set until the cumulative sum of posterior probabilities reached 95%. Variants in the

95% credible set were then intersected with the CD4+ T cell promoter interacting region OCRs

from the three timepoints using the R package GenomicRanges (v1.46.1)[114].

<u>Genomic reference and visualizations</u>

All analyses were performed using the hg19 reference genome using gencodeV19 as the gene

reference. Genomic tracks were visualized with pyGenomeTracks v3.5[115]. HiC matrices depict

the log1p(balanced count) from the cooler count matrix. ATAC-seq tracks were generated from

bigwig files that were normalized using deeptools[116].

<u>ABC model predictions</u>

We used the ABC model (PMID: 31784727) using the our Tcell ATAC-seq data (unstimulated or

24 hours stimulated) generated from Naive CD4+ T cells merged acrossed replicates. For

H3K27ac we retrieved paired fastq files from H3K27ac MINT-ChIP data from ENCODE for resting

(unstimated) and activated (36hr stimulated) CD4 T cells derived from thymus. The deduplicated

bam files were used as signal files for the ABC model, the consensus peak set were used as the

input set of enhancers. The accession numbers for unstimulated cells are: ENCFF732NOS,

ENCFF658TLX,   ENCFF605OGN,   ENCFF012XYW,   ENCFF407QZP,   ENCFF556QWM,

ENCFF888IHV,   ENCFF260FUF,   ENCFF550EVW,   ENCFF747HGZ,   ENCFF067XWQ,

ENCFF939YBH,   ENCFF749LGW,   ENCFF788LWV,   ENCFF610FRB,   ENCFF538GQX,

ENCFF355PCA,   ENCFF040OMT,   ENCFF878SHZ,   ENCFF210WNQ,   ENCFF849ZJH,

ENCFF925ARM,   ENCFF112YNU,   ENCFF808JFV,   ENCFF448KHE,   ENCFF591BFV,

ENCFF366UTF,   ENCFF172EWR.   The   accession   numbers   for   stimulated   cells   are:

ENCFF442DFF,   ENCFF870ZYC,   ENCFF189UPS,   ENCFF725KSA,   ENCFF618YAV,

ENCFF765AJK,   ENCFF854QUS,   ENCFF180TKV,   ENCFF761RCK,   ENCFF449EAE,

ENCFF915VPK,   ENCFF575XFH,   ENCFF227AGX,   ENCFF810XFH,   ENCFF367OMH,

ENCFF114BBZ,   ENCFF855XPP,   ENCFF132AKN,   ENCFF663MHJ,   ENCFF244TPB,

ENCFF230RIJ,   ENCFF648FPC,   ENCFF797CIK,   ENCFF096JPW,   ENCFF704KMT,

ENCFF385POD,   ENCFF395RIG,   ENCFF043RRJ,   ENCFF027RNR,   ENCFF333RGD,

ENCFF048PMV,   ENCFF887XSA,   ENCFF188CNA,   ENCFF614IZY,   ENCFF984TTZ,

ENCFF977RDC,   ENCFF393EWO,   ENCFF781VQT,   ENCFF638UCZ,   ENCFF873QZH,

ENCFF553JPM,   ENCFF589HRL,   ENCFF721ZCN,   ENCFF496HYV,   ENCFF455WBD,

ENCFF679UTJ, ENCFF200MYN, ENCFF459ARH.

The retrieved files were trimmed/preprocessed using fastp with the default settings. Following

this, matched R1 and R2 files were concatenated to a single R1/R2 file pair. The reads were

aligned to hg19 and duplicates were removed as described for the ATAC-seq data analysis. The

deduplicated bam files were used as input to the ABC model. We ran the ABC model with the

default settings for hg19 and provided reference files for the blacklist, promoter annotation,

chromosome sizes reference, and set of ubiquitiously expressed genes. The HiC data used was

the KR normalized averaged HiC dataset that was derived from a set of cell lines (GM12878,

NHEK,   HMEC,   RPE1,   THP1,   IMR90,   HU-   VEC,   HCT116,   K562,   KBM7;

average_hic.v2.191020.tar.gz) at 5kb resolution then scaled by powerlaw distribution as

described in the original manuscript. The default threshold of 0.2 was used to link enhancers to

genes. The resulting elements were intersected with the credible set list used in this study for

precision-recall analyses.

<u>Precision-recall analyses against HIEI genes</u>

To benchmark our autoimmune effector gene predictions against prior eQTL and chromatin

capture studies, we curated a list of 449 expert curated genes from Human Errors in Inborn

Immunity 2022, where mutations have been reported to cause immune phenotypes in humans[65].

Most of these genes were identified through rare loss of function mutations in the coding region.

In addition to this we also took a subset of 145 genes reported to specifically result in autoimmune

phenotypes. These two sets of genes were treated as "gold standard" sets of genes to compare

different approaches to predict GWAS effector genes. We curated the results of several other

chromatin conformation or eQTL based methods of assigning variants to genes to compare with

our study. For the chromatin confirmation studies, we obtained loop calls from the associated

publications and intersected with the list variants in the 95% credible set from 15 GWAS used to

predict effector genes using GenomicRanges (v1.46.1)[114]. For eQTL studies, we obtained the

summary stats files and identified eGenes linked to any member of the credible set reported as

an eQTL in the transcriptome wide association analysis (TWAS; p-value < 1e-4). Precision was

calculated as the ratio of the number predicted genes in the truth set to the total number of

predicted genes, while recall was calculated as the ratio of the number predicted genes in the

truth set to the total number of genes in truth set.

Colocalized eQTL comparisons

In addition to comparisons with the eGenes identified by TWAS in the Soskic et al. study, we also

compared overlap of gene nominations in our study with the eQTLs that colocalized with an

autoimmune GWAS[13]. Enrichment of sentinel-gene assignments was conducted similarly as

described previously[56]. Briefly, a null distribution was constructed by randomly selecting genes

within 1 Mb of the sentinel compared to the set of colocalized cis-eQTL[13] found in through 10,000

iterations. The observed overlap reports the set of gene identified by both our HiC based approach

with the set of colocalized eQTLs. We report the empirical P value of the observed value relative

to null distribution.

International mouse phenotyping consortium comparisons

The set of HiC implicated genes were compared to the mouse international phenotyping

consortium set of genes with reported phenotypes[117]. We converted the list of V2G implicated

genes to mouse homologs using homologene. We tested for enrichment for each phenotype using

a one-sided proportion test implicated in R prop.test with type set to "upper".

Identification of pharmacological agents

We queried the Drug-Gene Interaction Database with the set of V2G implicated genes for

chemicals using rDGIdb (v1.20.0)[118]. To identify the number of papers for each gene with at least

one drug annotated to target it, we queried pubmed titles and abstracts using the R package

RISmed (v2.3.0) with each gene's name and either "autoimmune" and the list of autoimmune

diseases (**Supplementary File 17**). A score to approximate expression specificity was computed

using the sum GTEX median expression values (v8) for whole blood or spleen divided by other

tissues[119].

<u>Lentiviral-based CRISPR/CAS9 targeting in Jurkat cells</u>

LentiCRISPRv2-mCherry vectors encoding gRNA-CAS9 and the fluorescent reporter mCherry

were used for Jurkat targeting. CRISPR guide RNAs (sgRNA) targeting human IL-2-21 intergenic

-46, -51, -80, -83, -85, -122, -128 CNS regions were designed using http://crispr.tefor.net and

cloned into lentiCRISPRv2-mCherry. Empty vector without gRNA insert was used as a control.

Below is the list of CRISPR gRNA for causing deletion of human IL2-21 intergenic regions:

CNS region   CRISPR gRNA

-46 CNS   gRNA #1   AGGATGCCTACCTCCAAATG

969   gRNA # 2 AGGTGACAACATTTAGTCAG

970 -51 CNS   gRNA #1   GGCAACGAAATTCACTGTGA

971   gRNA # 2 ATTCTAACAGGAATCATTCG

972 -80 CNS   gRNA # 1 GTTCTACCTATGCCGCATTG

973   gRNA # 2 GAGATTTACTCAGTCCAATG

974 -83 CNS   gRNA # 1 GTGACAAGCATGACTCTACA

975   gRNA # 2 GTGATGGTGAATTAAGCTGA

976 -85 CNS   gRNA #1   AGGGTTTTCTAGTTACGAGA

977   gRNA # 2 ATGGTTAGTTAGCTCCCAAG

978 -96 CNS   gRNA#1   TGGGAAAAACATCTTACCTG

979   gRNA # 2 TGGCCCATGAACCATCAAAG

980 -122 CNS   gRNA# 1   GTTATTAATCTAAGCGGAGA

981   gRNA# 2   GGAAGTTAGGCAGTCAATCG

982 -128 CNS   gRNA#1   CTTCAATCATTGCATTCCAC

983   gRNA# 2   TGACACCACCCCTGCTTGAG

HEK 293T cells were grown in RPMI1640 complete medium (RPMI1640 + 1X P/S, 1x L-Glu, 10%

FBS), 37C, 7%CO2. 293T cells were transfected with 10 ug of lenti-CRISPR-V2-CRE construct

along with packaging plasmid 6 ug of PsPAX2 (Addgene, Cat #12260) and 3.5 ug of PmD2.G

(Addgene, Cat #12259) using Lipofectamine 2000 transfection reagent (Invitrogen cat #

11668019). After 6 hours, the transfection medium was replaced with complete culture medium.

Transfected cells were incubated at 37C for 48-72 hours in a cell culture incubator. and then the

Lentiviral supernatants were harvested and spun at 300g for 5 minutes to remove cellular debris.

Lentiviral supernatants were concentrated using Lenti-X^{TM} Concentrator (Takara Bio, Cat #

631232) and then centrifuged at 1500g for 30 minutes at 4°C and supernatant was discarded.

The lentiviral pellet was resuspended at a ratio of 1:20 of the original volume using RPMI media

and concentrated virus supernatant aliquots were prepared and stored until use at -80°C. To

achieve high transduction efficiency, the viral supernatant was titrated in Jurkat cells through

transduction using various dilutions of the viral supernatants and transduction efficiency was

determined by mcherry expression analyzed through flow cytometry. Jurkat cells were seeded in

a 24 well plate at 0.5 x106/well in culture media, viral supernatant with 8 ug/mL of polybrene was

added to each well. Spinfection was performed for 90 min. at 2500 rpm, and transduced cells

were equilibrated at 37C for ~6 hrs, followed by incubation at 37C 5%CO2 for ~72 hours culture.

Transduced Jurkat Cells were then harvested and stimulated using PMA (15 ng/mL) + Ionomycin

(1 uM) + human anti-CD28 (2 ug/ml), BioXcell cat # BE0248 in 96 well culture plates (TPP, cat #

92097) in triplicates. Cell culture supernatants were collected at the end of culture and analyzed

for IL-2 by ELISA using a kit (cat # 88-7025-76) purchased from Thermofisher Scientific.

gRNA-CAS9 RNP-based targeting in primary human CD4+ T cells

Primary Human CD4 T cells derived from 5 normal healthy donors were obtained from Human

Immunology core (University of Pennsylvania). Alt-R S.p. HiFi Cas9 Nuclease V3 cat # 1081061

CAS9 and following list of Alt-R® CRISPR-Cas9 sgRNA targeting IL-2-21 CRE were purchased

from Integrated DNA Technologies, USA.

Name	20nt gRNA Seq
46CNS-1	GACGTATATAGTCATCTGAT
46CNS-2	TCTGTGGAGCTGCTGCGTTA
46CNS-3	AGGATGCCTACCTCCAAATG
51CNS-1	ATTCTAACAGGAATCATTCG
51CNS-2	GAGTAAAAAGACGTGTTACC
51CNS-3	GGCAACGAAATTCACTGTGA
80CNS-1	AATGCGGCATAGGTAGAACT
80CNS-2	GAGATTTACTCAGTCCAATG
80CNS-3	TGGTTGTCACAGTAACTAGG
83CNS-1	GTGACAAGCATGACTCTACA
83CNS-2	GTGATGGTGAATTAAGCTGA
83CNS-3	TGGGCTCTGACTCACTTAGA
85CNS-1	GCTAACATTGACTTCTCTAC
85CNS-2	AATCTATGCAAGGGGTGAAT
85CNS-3	GCATCATGATGAAGCTTATC
122CNS-1	GTTATTAATCTAAGCGGAGA
122CNS-2	GGAAGTTAGGCAGTCAATCG
122CNS-3	CACTTTGTGCTCGGATGCTC
128CNS-1	CTTCAATCATTGCATTCCAC
128CNS-2	TCAAGCAGGGGTGGTGTCAA
128CNS-3	TGGTGATTCATCTTTAGCAT
IL-2URR-1	TCCATTCAGTCAGTCTTTGG

IL-2URR-2	TAGTGTCCCAGGTGATTTAG
IL-2URR-3	TAGAGCTATCACCTAAGTGT
B2m-1	GAGTAGCGCGAGCACAGCTA
B2m-2	CACGCGTTTAATATAAGTGG

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Primary Human CD4 T (5-10e6) were incubated with sgRNA and CAS9 protein complex and

electroporation was done using P3 Primary Cell 4D-Nucleofector™ X Kit L (Lonza, cat # V4XP-

3024) and Lonza 4D nucleofector system. B2M gene was CRISPR targeted as a positive control.

As per manufacturer's protocol cells were electroporated pulse code Fl-115 in 100ul cuvette

format. After nucleofection, cells were allowed to rest in the complete media for ~2 days. Cells

were then harvested, washed with PBS and aliquots of cells were used for further experimentation

such as flow staining and cell activation. Primary human CD4 T Cells (0.1e6/well) were seeded

in triplicates (for each experimental condition) in 96 well plate format in RPMI complete medium

and stimulated using ImmunoCult™ Human CD3/CD28 T Cell Activator (STEM cells

Technologies, cat # 10971). Cell culture supernatants were collected at 4h of stimulation and

stored at -80C until assayed. IL-2 ELISA was performed using Thermofisher Scientific IL-2 Human

Uncoated ELISA Kit with Plates, cat # 88-7025-76.

Recombinant reporter assays

The *IL2* URR was cloned into Xho I and Hind III sites of PGL4 Luc vector (Promega) and then

~500 bp individual sequence representing *IL2-IL21* intergenic CNS at -46, -51, -80, -83, -85, -128

were cloned upstream to IL-2 URR at the Xho I site of the pGL4 vector. Primary human CD4 T

cells obtained from 5 normal healthy donors were transfected with PGL4-cRE-URR constructs.

Briefly, primary human CD4 T cells were activated with anti-CD3+ anti-CD28 Dynabeads (1:1)

(Thermofisher scientific, cat # 11161D) + IL-2 overnight and then 1 million aliquots of cells

(triplicates) were electroporated using Nucleofector 2b, human T cell Nuclefactor kit (Lonza VPA

1002, program # T-020) with 2ug of PGL4 firefly vector constructs along with 0.2 ug of PGL4

Renilla vector; cells were allowed to rest ON in RPMI + IL-2 and then re-stimulated with plate-

bound anti-CD3+ anti-CD28 (2 ug/ml each) for 5 hrs. Dual luciferase assay was performed with

cell lysate prepared using Promega dual luciferase assay kit. Cell lysate was prepared in PLB as

per manufacturer's protocols and then firefly and renilla luciferase activities were analyzed by

spectramax ID5 (Molecular Devices). Firefly luciferase activity was normalized against the internal

control renilla luciferase activity.

<u>Pharmacologic validation of novel T cell activation regulatory genes</u>

The drugs lometrexol (GART antagonist), 25-hydroxycholesterol (GPR183 ligand), epinephrine &

norepinephrine (CHRNB agonists), and arachidonoyl glycine (GPR18 agonist) were purchased

from Sigma. The GPR18 antagonist O-1918 was purchased from ChemCruz. CEP1347

(MAP3K11 antagonist), kisspeptin 234 (KISSIR ligand) and the PTK6 antagonist tilfrinib were

purchased from Tocris. The GRK6 antagonist GRK-IN-1 was purchased from DC Chemicals. The

SIK1 antagonist HG-91-9-1 was purchased from Selleckchem. The OXER1 agonist 5-Oxo-ete

was purchased from Cayman chemicals. The drugs were dissolved in DMSO or ethanol as

suggested by the vendor and working stocking concentrations were prepared in RPMI1640

medium or PBS. The drug effect on T cell proliferation was assayed using murine lymphocytes

cultured under TCR and CD28 activation conditions. Spleen and lymph nodes were collected from

6-8 weeks old female C57BL/7 mice and single cell lymphocyte cell suspensions were prepared

in RPMI 1640 complete medium. 20 million lymphocytes were labeled with CFSE and re-

suspended in RPMI 1640 medium. Cells (0.5 million labeled cells/well) were loaded into 48 well

culture plate and activated with mouse anti-CD3 and anti-CD28 agonistic antibodies (1μg mL

each). Drugs at the indicated concentrations were added in the culture medium and both

untreated and drug treated cell cultures were incubated at 37°C for 72 hours in a cell culture

incubator. Cells were harvested after 3 days of culture, washed with PBS and then stained with

live-dead aqua dye. After washing with FACS buffer (PBS containing 2% FBS), cells were stained

with fluorochrome conjugated antibodies CD4-APC, CD8-PB, CD44-Percp Cy5.5 and CD25-

BV650. Stained cells were analyzed on a Beckman Coulter Cytoflex S flow cytometer. The

division profile of CD4+ CFSE+ T cells were gated on live populations. The flow data was

analyzed using Flowjo10 software and the number of divided CD4+ T cells were determined as

described previously[120].

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FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1: Defined gene expression dynamics throughout activation of naïve CD4+ T cells.

(**A**) Diagram of study design: RNA-seq, ATAC-seq, and HiC libraries were prepared from sorted

CD4+CD62L^{hi}CD44^{lo} naïve T cells (donor N=3) prior to or following 8hr or 24hr stimulation with

anti-CD3/28 beads. cREs are classified to genes allowing for interrogation of the pattern of

expression, accessibility, and chromatin structure changes of autoimmune-associated variants.

(**B**) Heatmap showing normalized expression of known markers of T cell activation. (**C**) K-means

clustering of differentially expressed genes into five groups using the elbow and within-cluster-

sum of squares methods to select the number of clusters. The centroid of the cluster is depicted

as a black line, and members of the cluster are depicted as colored lines. Color indicates the

Pearson's correlation coefficient between the gene and the cluster centroid, with red indicating

higher correlation, and blue lower correlation.

Figure 1 – Figure Supplement 1: Library sequencing reproducibility and expression

clustering. (A) PCA of RNA-seq libraries. (B) PCA of ATAC-seq libraries. (C) Stratified correlation

(SCC) of HiC libraries from two donors by stage of activation. (D) Volcano plot of RNA-seq data

for CD4+ T cells unstimulated vs. 8 hr stimulation (top) and 8 hr vs. 24 hr stimulation (number of

DEG indicated). (E) Elbow plot of the within group sum of squares used to determine optimal

cluster number. (F) Genes per expression cluster. (G) Centroids +/- standard deviation for each

cluster.

Figure 2: Chromatin accessibility and architecture changes across three stages of T cell activation. (**A**) Volcano plots depicting the $\log_2$ change in accessibility in all reproducible OCRs (present in 2 of the 3 replicates) compared to the $-\log_{10}$(FDR), significant points are indicated in red (FDR < 0.05; abs($\log_2$FC) > 1). (**B**) Genomic regions were classified by membership in A vs. B compartments at each time point. The pie chart depicts regions with differential A/B compartment assignment in response to activation. (**C**) TAD structure was determined at each time point, and regions exhibiting a shift, split/merge, change in strength, or more complex rearrangements are depicted in the pie chart. (**D**) Loop calls identified from HiC data for each timepoint called at three resolutions (1kb, 2kb, 4kb bins). (**E**) Differential loop-calls called across all resolutions. (**F**) Density plots of cRE accessibility and gene expression separated by whether contact frequency increased, decreased, or remained stable from the transition from unstimulated to 8 hour activation and 8 hour to 24 hour activation.

Figure 2 – Figure Supplement 1: Characterization of CD4+ T cell epigenomic data. (A) Accessibility of OCR and (B) expression of genes located in A vs. B compartments (log2 fkpm). Differential accessibility (C) and expression (D) of cRE-gene pairs in regions exhibiting differential TAD structure. (E) Enrichment of promoter interacting region OCR for annotated regulatory elements in CD4+ T cells from the epigenome roadmap project (E038_15). (F) Overlap of cRE-promoter loops defined in this study to loops defined by Burren et al. in a prior promoter capture Hi-C study. (G) Distribution of OCR contacted per gene (top, median = 8 OCRs per gene). Distribution of genes contacted per OCR (bottom, median = 3). (H) Differential promoter-OCR connectivity by HiC as a function of differential OCR accessibility (central bar = median, boxplot edges = 25-75 quantiles, whiskers = 1.5x inter-quantile range).

Figure 2 – Figure Supplement 2: Characterization of chromatin stripes during CD4+ T cell activation. (A) Stripes called per timepoint. (B) Proportion of SNPs annotated in A vs B compartments. Accessibility of OCR (C) and expression of genes (D) located in anchor (small more interactive region of stripe), stripe excluding the anchor (stripe), or outside stripes.

Figure 2 – Figure Supplement 3: Large-scale epigenetic changes at dynamically expressed

genes during CD4+ T cell activation. HiC contact frequency matrix (heatmap), chromatin

accessibility (grey), and loop calls (red) for (A) GEM, (B) IRF4, (C) KLF2, and (D) DPEP2. The

IRF4 matrix is truncated at by end of the chromosome annotation, and inset shows the expression

(TPM) at each time point for each gene.

Figure 3: Transcription factors prediction potential regulators of chromatin status and

expression changes. Footprints were annotated to each TF motif by sequence matching to the

JASPAR motif database, and the average accessibility of the region surrounding each motif was

used as a measure of activity at each time point. Scatterplots depict the change in accessibility

for each TF motif (activity score) and $\log_2$FC of TF gene expression between unstimulated and 8

hour activation (**A**) or 8 hour and 24 hour activation (**B**). TF were classified as differentially

expressed (orange), differentially active (brown), both (red), or neither (grey). Dot size indicates

the number of predicted footprints occupied by each motif. (**C**) Average accessibility (normalized

by depth and motif number) in a 200bp window surrounding motif footprints for FOSL2::JUNB,

Smad2::Smad3, MAZ, and KLF2 from three timepoints (unstim: green; 8hr: blue; 24hr: red). (**D**)

Z-score of TF motif enrichment for cRE connected to the five clusters compared to all OCR.

Lighter color indicates higher specificity of enrichment for that TF cluster. (**E**) Connections

between different TFs based on physical interactions and predicted regulation-based co-

expression determined by GENIE3 for the three timepoints. Node color indicates expression

(TPM; darker = higher expression, lighter = lower expression), edge color reflects confidence in

the interaction called by GENIE3 (darker higher confidence).

Figure 3 – Figure Supplement 1: Enrichment of transcription family members and gene

regulatory network construction. (A) -log10(P) enrichment of transcription factors annotated by

family for each expression cluster. (B) Top five pathways enriched for a subset of TF-regulated

gene expression.

Figure 4: Variant-to-gene mapping of autoimmune-associated loci implicates genetic

variants in the control of T cell activation. (**A**) Identification of genes in contact with open

chromatin regions harboring autoimmune-associated SNPs. Sentinel SNPs from 15 autoimmune

GWAS (**Table S11**) were used to identify the 95% credible set of proxy SNPs for each lead SNP.

SNP locations were integrated with ATAC-seq and HiC data to identify the 95% credible set of

accessible SNPs in physical contact with a gene promoter. Genes are further refined based on

expression dynamics over the time course of T cell activation. (**B**) Partitioned LD score regression

for autoimmune GWAS studies using the OCR in contact with the genes in the five clusters

defined by RNA-seq. Circle size = enrichment, color = significance, **FDR<0.01, ***FDR<0.001.

(**C**) Log distribution of the 1D distance between each proxy SNP and its interacting gene based

on 3D chromatin conformation (median=103 kbp). (**D**) Distribution of the number of genes

contacted by each accessible variant (median=5). (**E**) Fraction of open disease-associated

variants that interact with no gene promoters (grey), only with the nearest gene promoter (purple),

with the nearest gene and a distant gene(s) (orange), and with only a distant gene(s) (blue). (**F**)

Number of genes identified by variant-to-gene mapping at each time point. Black = shared in all

stages, blue = shared in two stages, red = specific to one stage. (**G**) Set of implicated proxy-genes

pairs that are both differentially expressed, display differential accessibility, and chromatin contact

across T cell activation. (**H**) Example MS variant rs1077667 (PP=1.0) exhibits increased

accessibility and contact with the promoters of the *GPR108* and *TRIP10* at 8 hours post activation*,*

which are increased in expression at this time point. (**I**) Example allergy variant rs7380290

interacts with the *SIK1* gene that is upregulated after activation.

Figure 5: **Comparative predictive power of orthogonal V2G approaches**. (**A**) Percent overlap

in predicted genes among chromatin-based and eQTL-based V2G approaches. (**B**) Physical

variant-gene associations (HiC) are enriched for statistical variant-gene associations (eQTL) in

activated CD4+ T cells. The histogram depicts the null distribution of shared variant-gene pairs

expected at random (~5) while the red line indicates the observed number of variant-gene pairs

(41) shared with the 127 eQTL identified by Soskic et al. in a similar CD4+ T cell activation system.

(**C**) Expression of the shared genes. (**D**) Precision-Recall analysis of V2G gene predictions

against the set of monogenic human inborn errors in immunity.

Figure 6: Functional validation of autoimmune V2G-implicated cRE at the *IL2* locus. (A) The

combination of evolutionary conservation (blue), open chromatin (red), and autoimmune disease-

associated SNPs at the *IL2* locus identify putative cRE in quiescent vs. 8-hour activated naïve

CD4+ T cells. (**B**) Activation-dependent TAD/sub-TAD structure (heatmaps), chromatin

remodeling (grey) and promoter-OCR interactions (red) at the *IL2* locus. (**C**) Recombinant reporter

assay showing transcriptional activity of the *IL2* URR (+35 to -500 from the TSS) in activated

primary CD4+ T cells (N= 7 donors) compared to a basal promoter (pGL4, left panel). The right

panel depicts transcriptional activity of the CNS regions indicated in **A** cloned upstream of the

URR. All regions except the -80 CNS show statistically significant activity relative to the URR

alone (N=7, P<0.05, line = median, box = 95/5% range). (**D**) Scheme of CRISPR/CAS9-based

deletion of individual *IL2* CNS using flanking gRNAs. (**E**) Activation-induced secretion of IL-2

protein by CRISPR-targeted primary CD4+ T cells (N=5 donors, left panel) or Jurkat cells (N=3

replicates, right panel) relative to untargeted control (CAS9, no gRNA) cells (****P<0.0001,

***P<0.001, **P<0.01, *P<0.05, line = median, box = 95/5% range). In primary cells, *B2M* gRNAs

served as an irrelevant targeted control. (**F**) Scheme of CRISPR/CAS9-based deletion of the 81.3

kb region containing all distal *IL2* cRE using flanking gRNAs in Jurkat cells. (**G**) Activation-induced

IL-2 protein (left panel) and mRNA (right panel) by control (black) vs. 81.3 kb deleted (red) Jurkat

cells (N=3 separate clones).

Figure 6 – Figure Supplement 1: TF occupancy and stability of distal IL2 cRE in CD4+ T

cell subsets. Evolutionary conservation (blue), open chromatin (red), and autoimmune disease-

associated SNPs at the IL2 locus in quiescent (A) and 8-hour activated (B) naïve CD4+ T cells.

(C) Curated TF occupancy at the IL2 URR and distal cRE from the ReMap atlas of regulatory

regions.

Figure 7: Distal *IL2* enhancers are evolutionarily conserved and impact *in vivo* T cell-mediated immunity in mice. (**A**) Map of the human and mouse *IL2* locus depicting mammalian conservation (dark blue), ATAC-seq from activated human and mouse CD4+ T cells (red), and orthologous non-coding sequences conserved between mouse and human (light blue). (**B**) IL-2 protein secretion (top left panel) and *Il2* mRNA expression (top right panel) by CD4+ T cells from wild-type or *Il2*-83 cRE ko mice in response to stimulation with plate-bound anti-CD3 and anti-CD28 Ab *in vitro*. Bottom panels show soluble anti-CD3-induced *in vitro* clonal expansion of wild-type or *Il2*-83 cRE ko CD4+ (left) and CD8+ (right) T cells measured by dye dilution[120]. (**C**) Foxp3 expression by murine CD4+CD25- Tconv stimulated with anti-CD3 Ab and TGF-beta in the absence (top panels) vs. presence (bottom panels) of exogenous IL-2. Wild-type or *Il2*-83 cRE ko mice (N=6) were immunized intraperitoneally with chicken ovalbumin in incomplete Freund's adjuvant. The frequency of CD4+PD1+CXCR5hi follicular helper T cells in the spleens of 3 animals was measured by flow cytometry at day 5 post-immunization (**D**), and levels of ovalbumin-specific IgG in the serum of 3 animals were measured at day 10 post-immunization (**E**). (**F**) In vivo IBD model. CD4+CD25- Tconv from wild-type (pink, red) or *Il2*-83 cRE ko (purple, blue) mice were transferred alone (purple, pink) or together with wild-type CD4+CD25+ Treg (red, blue) into RAG1-ko mice (N=5 per group). Animal weight was monitored for 40 days, and the number (in millions) of activated CD4+ Tconv in the spleens and mesenteric lymph nodes was measured by flow cytometry (inset). Statistical significance (*p<0.05) was measured by ANOVA or t-test.

Figure 8: Functional validation of autoimmune V2G-implicated genes. (**A**) Recombinant reporter assay in primary activated CD4+ T cells (N= 7 donors) showing transcriptional activity of the reference vs. risk alleles of the *IL2* -128 cRE relative to the URR alone (P<0.0001). (**B**) Prominent TF motifs predicted to be disrupted (blue) or stabilized (red) by promoter-connected autoimmune SNPs. (**C**) 3D chromatin-based V2G genes are enriched for CRISPR-implicated genes that regulate CD4+ T cell activation. Observed enrichment of genes regulating multiple aspects of CD4+ T cell activation (IL-2, IL-2 receptor, CTLA-4, IFNg, TNFa or proliferation) from

CRISPR screens by Freimer, Schmidt, and Shifrut among sets of 3D chromatin-implicated genes

among individual diseases (green, FDR<0.05) or all diseases (purple, FDR<0.05). (**D**) Enrichment

for 3D chromatin-based autoimmune V2G genes among genes with germline knock-out mouse

immune (red) and other (black) phenotypes (adjP<0.05, IMPC database). (**E**) Autoimmune V2G-

implicated genes with at least one pharmacologic modulator (rDGIdb). (**F**) Comparison of the

number of manuscripts retrieved from PubMed related to autoimmune disease for each V2G gene

with pharmaceutical agents available (x-axis) with an immune-specific expression score

computed using the sum GTEX median expression values (v8) for whole blood or spleen divided

by other tissues (y-axis). Genes highlighted in red were selected for functional validation in **G**. (**G**)

Dose-dependent impact of the indicated pharmacologic agents targeting the V2G-implicated

genes *KISS1R, CHRNB, OXER1, GPR18, GRK6, PTK6, MAP3K11, GPR183, GART,* and *SIK1*

on proliferation of anti-CD3/28 activated murine (left panel) or human (right panel) CD4+ T cells

in vitro (N=4).

Figure 8 – Figure Supplement 1: Predicted impact of autoimmune disease-associated genetic

variation at V2G-implicated loci. (A) Top 50 TF motifs impacted by autoimmune SNPs (see Table

S15). HiC contact frequency matrix (heatmap), chromatin accessibility (grey), and loop calls (blue-

IL19/ITGA4, red-FAIM3) at the T1D-rs3024505 locus (B) and the celiac- rs13010713 locus (C).

Dashed box indicates the SNP affected by allelic variation. Genetic variation at rs3024505 is

predicted to disrupt a MZF1 motif (D), and variation at rs13010713 is predicted to disrupt a SOX4

binding motif (E). (F) Variation at MS SNP rs1077667 is predicted to disrupt TP53, TP63, and

POU2F2 (OCT2) binding sites.

Figure 8 – Figure Supplement 2: Orthogonal validation of 3D chromatin-based V2G genes.

Expression (scaled TPM) of genes implicated by chromatin contacts in (A) prior CRISPRi/a

screens and (C) genes with known immune phenotypes in the international mouse phenotyping

consortium. Red = increased, blue = decreased.

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Supplemental Files

Supplementary File 1: Expression and clustering of differentially expressed genes.

Supplementary File 2: Pathway enrichment of differentially expressed RNA-seq genes

Supplementary File 3: Pathway enrichment of differentially expressed RNA-seq genes by cluster

Supplementary File 4: Accessible chromatin regions

Supplementary File 5: Differential accessible open chromatin regions

Supplementary File 6: A/B compartment calls

Supplementary File 7: Differential TAD boundaries

Supplementary File 8: Stripe calls

Supplementary File 9: Differential contact frequency

Supplementary File 10: Summary of TF footprinting

Supplementary File 11: TF target gene pathway enrichment

Supplementary File 12: List of all GWAS studies included

Supplementary File 13: Variant to gene mapping across all timepoints

Supplementary File 14: Partitioned LD score regression output

Supplementary File 15: Autoimmune variants in open gene promoters

Supplementary File 16: Comparison of V2G approaches

Supplementary File 17: Motifs predicted to disrupt transcription factor binding sites.

Supplementary File 18: V2G genes implicated by orthogonal data

Supplementary File 19: V2G target gene drug repurposing results

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1536
1537

Figure 1

Figure 2

A Chromatin accessibility dynamics (ATAC-seq)

Unstim vs. 8hr

8hr vs. 24hr

18,887

6,404

6,404 4,417

-log10(FDR)

OCR accessibility log2(FC)

B AB compartment

Dynamic
6.6%

B>B>A B>A>B B>A>A A>B>B A>B>A A>A>B

B stable
51.7%

A stable
41.7%

C Topologically
associating domains

Dynamic
20%

Stable TAD

80%

Merge
Complex
Strength
Split
Shifted

D Loop calls (HiC)

Number of loops

1,000k
750k
500k
250k
0

resolution
1kb
2kb
4kb

Unstim 8hr 24hr

E Differential loops (HiC)

Number of loops

Increasing
contact frequency

Decreasing
contact frequency

Unstim vs. 8hr   8hr vs. 24hr

F Integrated accessibility, connectivity,
and expression dynamics

Unstim vs. 8hr   8hr vs. 24hr

increased

stable

decreased

Contact frequency change

Expression fold change

Chromatin accessibility fold change (log2)

Density
0 0.1 0.2 0.3 0.4 0.5 0.6 0.7 0.8 0.9 1.0

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7

Figure 8

Figure S1: Library sequencing reproducibility and expression clustering. (A) PCA of RNA-seq libraries. (B) PCA of ATAC-seq libraries. (C) Stratified correlation (SCC) of HiC libraries from two donors by stage of activation. (D) Volcano plot of RNA-seq data for CD4+ T cells unstimulated vs. 8 hr stimulation (top) and 8 hr vs. 24 hr stimulation (number of DEG indicated). (E) Elbow plot of the within group sum of squares used to determine optimal cluster number. (F) Genes per expression cluster. (G) Centroids +/- standard deviation for each cluster.

Figure S2: Characterization of CD4+ T cell epigenomic data. (A) Accessibility of OCR and (B) expression of genes located in A vs. B compartments (log2 fkpm). Differential accessibility (C) and expression (D) of cRE-gene pairs in regions exhibiting differential TAD structure. (E) Enrichment of promoter interacting region OCR for annotated regulatory elements in CD4+ T cells from the epigenome roadmap project (E038_15). (F) Overlap of cRE-promoter loops defined in this study to loops defined by Burren et al. in a prior promoter capture Hi-C study. (G) Distribution of OCR contacted per gene (top, median = 8 OCRs per gene). Distribution of genes contacted per OCR (bottom, median = 3). (H) Differential promoter-OCR connectivity by HiC as a function of differential OCR accessibility (central bar = median, boxplot edges = 25-75 quantiles, whiskers = 1.5x inter-quantile range).

Figure S3: Characterization of chromatin stripes during CD4+ T cell activation. (A) Stripes called per timepoint. (B) Proportion of SNPs annotated in A vs B compartments. Accessibility of OCR (C) and expression of genes (D) located in anchor (small more interactive region of stripe), stripe excluding the anchor (stripe), or outside stripes.

Figure S4: Large-scale epigenetic changes at dynamically expressed genes during CD4+ T cell activation. HiC contact frequency matrix (heatmap), chromatin accessibility (grey), and loop calls (red) for (A) GEM, (B) IRF4, (C) KLF2, and (D) DPEP2. The IRF4 matrix is truncated at by end of the chromosome annotation, and inset shows the expression (TPM) at each time point for each gene.

Figure S5: Enrichment of transcription family members and gene regulatory network construction. (A) -log10(P) enrichment of transcription factors annotated by family for each expression cluster. (B) Top five pathways enriched for a subset of TF-regulated gene expression.

Figure S6: TF occupancy and stability of distal IL2 cRE in CD4+ T cell subsets. Evolutionary conservation (blue), open chromatin (red), and autoimmune disease-associated SNPs at the IL2 locus in quiescent (A) and 8-hour activated (B) naïve CD4+ T cells. (C) Curated TF occupancy at the IL2 URR and distal cRE from the ReMap atlas of regulatory regions.

Figure S7: Orthogonal validation of 3D chromatin-based V2G genes. Expression (scaled TPM) of genes implicated by chromatin contacts in (A) prior colocalized CD4+ T cell single-cell eQTL27, (B) prior CRISPRi/a screens, and (C) genes with known immune phenotypes in the international mouse phenotyping consortium. Red = increased, blue = decreased.

Figure S8: Predicted impact of autoimmune disease-associated genetic variation at V2G-implicated loci. (A) Top 50 TF motifs impacted by autoimmune SNPs (excerpted from Table S15). (B) Genetic variation at the MS rs1077667 SNP is predicted to disrupt TP53, TP63, and POU2F2 (OCT2) binding sites. Dashed box indicates the SNP affected by allelic variation. HiC contact frequency matrix (heatmap), chromatin accessibility (grey), loop calls (blue-IL19/ITGA4, red-FAIM3) and predicted TF motif disruption for the rs3024505-IL19-FAIM3 T1D locus (C) and the rs1301071-ITGA4 celiac locus (D). SNP rs3024505 is predicted to disrupt a MZF1 motif and rs13010713 is predicted to disrupt a SOX4 binding motif.