Dynamic chromatin architecture identifies new autoimmune-associated enhancers for *IL2* and novel genes regulating CD4+ T cell activation

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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 shown by high-throughput CRISPR screens to control CD4+ T cell proliferation and function, and we pharmacologically validated 8 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 physical 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, identifying hundreds of effector genes not

implicated by prior studies and leading to the discovery of a stretch of evolutionarily conserved

enhancers required for normal expression of the canonical T cell activation gene *IL2* 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, **Fig. 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 (**Fig. S1A-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 (**Fig 1B, Table S1**). 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 (**Table S2**).

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, **Fig. S1D**) that could be further separated into five clusters based on their distinct trajectories (**Fig. 1C**, **Fig. S1E-G**, **Table S1**). 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, **Table S3**). 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, **Table S3**). 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,* **Table**

S3), 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, **Table S3**). 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 (**Table S4**). 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 (**Fig. 2A**, **Table S5**). 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, **Fig. 2A**,

Table S5). 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 (**Fig S2A; Table S6**), a trend observed across all cell states. Likewise, genes

located in A compartments show higher average expression than those located in B

compartments (**Fig S2B**). 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.

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 (**Fig. 2C**, **Fig. S2C** and **D**, **Table S7**). 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 (**Table S6**).   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 (**Fig S3A, Table S8**). 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 (**Fig. S3B-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, **Fig. 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] (**Fig. S2E**). 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 (**Fig. 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 (**Fig. 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 (**Fig. 2F, Table S9**). The accessibility of promoter-

connected OCR and the expression of their associated genes decreased globally from 8 to 24

hours of stimulation (**Fig. 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 (**Fig. S2F**). 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 **Fig.**

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

(**Fig. S2G**). 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 (**Fig**. **S2H**), as

exemplified by *GEM* and *IRF4* (**Fig. S4A**,**B**). Conversely, the 3D regulatory architecture of genes

like KLF2 and DPEP2, which were downregulated following stimulation, exhibited decreased

contact and accessibility (**Fig. S4C**,**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 (**Table S10**). 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 (**Fig. 3A**

and **C**, **Table S10**), 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

(**Fig. 3A**). The activity of NFE2 and SMAD was increased without increased expression (**Fig. 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] (**Fig. 3A**). By 24 hours post-activation, bZIP activity remained largely unchanged

compared to 8 hours (**Fig. 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] (**Fig.**

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 (**Fig. S5A**). 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 (**Fig. 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, **Fig. 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, **Fig. 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 (**Fig. 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 (**Fig. 3E**, **Table S11**). 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 (**Fig S5B**). 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 (**Fig S5B**). 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 (**Fig. 4A**, **Tables S12** and **S13**). 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) (**Fig. 4B**, **Table S14**). 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, **Fig. 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, **Fig. 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 (**Table S13**). A total of 1151

autoimmune variants localized to the promoters of 400 genes (-1500/+500bp from the TSS, **Table**

S15). These variants were on average 103 kb from the TSS of their connected gene (**Fig. 4C**),

and each variant contacted an average of 5 genes (**Fig. 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 (**Fig. 4E**). Approximately 60% of connected genes were implicated

across all timepoints (**Fig. 4F**, **Table S13**), 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 (**Fig. 4G**, **Table S13**). 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

(**Fig. 4H**). The accessibility of this SNP and it's contact with *TRIP10* and *GPR108* increased

following activation (**Fig. 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 (**Fig. 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 measure the predictive power of this approach relative to other V2G

approaches, we compared our chromatin capture-based autoimmune GWAS effector gene

predictions to the predictions of three other chromosome capture-based studies in human CD4+

T cells[17–19], two single-cell eQTL studies in human CD4+ T cells[13,62], and a set of 449 genes that

when mutated in humans cause inborn errors of immunity[63]. We integrated the chromatin-based

datasets with the same 95% credible set of autoimmune variants to create comparable physical

contact maps. 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 capture-HiC

datasets from Burren et al., Yang et al., and Javierre et al. implicated 1408, 2572, and 2368

genes, respectively, and a total of 369 autoimmune GWAS effector genes were predicted in

common by all 3D chromatin-based approaches (**Fig. S6A**, **Table S16**). The scRNA-seq eQTL

studies by Soskic et al. and Schmiedel et al. implicated 171 and 221 genes, with 51 eGenes in

common (**Fig. S6A**). The Soskic variant-gene pairs were further co-localized with autoimmune

GWAS SNPs, and 41 of these eQTL were also predicted by our study (**Fig. S6B**). This

concordance is 10-fold higher than obtained by a random sampling of genes within 500 kb of

autoimmune variants (**Fig. S6C**). However, 1665 of the genes implicated in our study were not

identified in these statistical approaches. A total of 12 genes were implicated by all CD4+ T cell-

based approaches queried (APIP, ERAP2, FIGNL1, IL18R1, METTL21B, MRPL51, PPIF, PXK,

RMI2, RNASET2, SERPINB1, VAMP1). We find that 809 genes from our CD4 T cell V2G data

were not implicated by these other chromatin-based datasets, and altogether, 729 autoimmune

effector genes were uniquely predicted by our study.

To measure the predictive power and sensitivity of the sets of genes implicated by each

approach above, a precision-recall analysis was performed against the human inborn errors in

immunity (HIEI) 'gold standard' gene set. The set of genes from our study with disease-associated

SNPs located in their open promoters overlapped with 5% of the genes from the HIEI truth set

(**Fig. S6D**). However, including distal autoimmune variants captured interacting with gene

promoters from our HiC data increased the sensitivity of the approach 3-fold to 16% (**Fig. S6D**),

confirming the predictive value of long-range promoter-cRE/SNP contacts. This level of sensitivity

is comparable to that of other chromosome capture-based approaches for connecting SNPs to

genes using in CD4+ T cells (**Fig. S6D**). Conversely, the eQTL-based approaches were 3- to 4-

fold less sensitive than the chromatin-constrained approaches in predicting HIEI genes (**Fig.

S6D**).

The fraction of HIEI genes among the set of genes implicated by our CD4 V2G study is ~3.5%,

a predictive power greater than that of the Yang (2.5%) and Javierre (3%) approaches, but less

than that of Burren (**Fig. S6D**). While inclusion of variants in distal cRE improves sensitivity over

proximal cRE alone, it reduces precision, as the predictive power of only genes from our study

with accessible disease-associated SNPs in their promoters is 6%. The predictive power of our

activated CD4+ T cell V2G approach is comparable to that of the DICE eQTL approach (3.5%),

but less precise than the Soskic eQTL (**Fig. S6D**). The proportion of total HIEI genes predicted

by our dynamically regulated CD4 V2G gene set drops from 16% to 10%, but the precision of this

set doubled to ~6.2% (**Fig. S6D**), indicating that focusing the V2G set on those SNP-gene pairs

that are dynamically regulated by T cell activation increases predictive power. These analyses

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

effector genes than eQTL 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

This analysis specifically implicated potential 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[64–67]. 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[68–70].

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*[71] (**Fig. 5A**). 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, **Fig. 5A**). In TCR/CD28-stimulated naïve CD4+ T cells,

these CNS are remodeled to become highly accessible (**Fig. 5A**), and they loop to interact

physically with the *IL2* URR (**Fig. 5B**) at both time points. ChIP-seq analyses in human T cells[72]

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* (**Fig. S7**), 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 (**Fig. S7**). 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

(**Fig. 5C**). 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 (**Fig. 5D**) and measured IL-2 secretion following TCR/CD28 stimulation (**Fig. 5E**).

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 (**Fig. 5E**). 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 (**Fig. 5E**). To determine

whether these intergenic enhancers exist in synergistic epistasis[73] 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 (**Fig. 5F**). 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 (**Fig. 5G**). 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 (**Fig. S7**). 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[74–76].

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 (**Fig. 6A**). 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 (**Fig. 6B**), 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 (**Fig.**

6C), but could be rescued by addition of exogenous IL-2 to the culture (**Fig. 6C**).

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

(**Fig. 6D**), a process known to be antagonized by IL-2, and generated significantly elevated levels

of ovalbumin-specific IgG antibody following immunization (**Fig. 6E**). 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[77,78]. 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 (**Fig. 6F**, WT Tconv), while co-transfer of wild-type

Treg effectively controls inflammation (**Fig. 6F**, WT Tconv + WT Treg). Transfer of *Il2*-83-cRE-ko

Tconv led to significantly less colitis (**Fig. 6F**, *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 (**Fig. 6F** inset). Treg require IL-2 from Tconv for their function and homeostasis[79], and

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

function of co-transferred wild-type Treg (**Fig. 6F**, *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 (**Fig. 7A**).

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 (**Table S17**), including PLAG1, PRDM1, BACH2, MYC, TBX21, BHLHE40, LEF1,

TCF7, BCL6, IRF, p53, STAT (**Fig. S8A**), and hundreds of NFkB, EGR, KLF, FKH/FOX, and FOS-

JUN sites (**Fig. 7B**). For example, the T1D SNP rs3024505 (PP = 0.200) connected to the

promoters of *IL9* and *FAIM3* (**Fig. S8B**) and the celiac SNP rs13010713 (PP = 0.154) contacting

the *ITGA4* promoter (**Fig. S8C**) are predicted to disrupt binding sites for *MZF1* (**Fig. S8D**) and

SOX4 (**Fig. S8E**). Similarly, the MS SNP rs1077667 contacting the promoters of *GPR108* and

TRIP10 (**Fig. 4H**) is predicted to reduce affinity for TP53, TP63, and OCT2/POU2F2 (**Fig. S8F**).

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 (**Fig. 7C, Fig. S9A, Table S18**). 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 (**Fig. S9A, Table S16**). 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 (**Fig. 7C, Fig. S9A**). 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 (**Fig. 7D**, **Fig. S9B**, **Table S18**). 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 (**Fig. 7D**, **Table S18**).

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 (**Fig 7E**, **Table S19**). 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

(**Fig. 7F**). 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 (**Fig. 7G**). 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. We conducted

pharmacologic targeting experiments and compared our results with orthogonal eQTL and

CRISPR-based studies to validate sets of effector genes with a confluence of evidence supporting

their role in CD4+ T cell activation. 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 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 614

sentinel SNPs queried in this study, while roughly one-third of eGenes predicted by eQTL

approaches are the nearest to a sentinel. Of the roughly 2000 total genes implicated by both

eQTL and our chromatin/GWAS-based V2G, only 41 were predicted by both approaches, which

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[80]. 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. Chromatin conformation

mapping in disease-relevant cell types therefore brings a crucial added dimension to 1D GWAS

data and eQTL findings for understanding the complex genetic and epigenetic mechanisms that

regulate gene expression and for predicting novel therapeutic targets.

Why did our V2G approach 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 449 HIEI gene set contains disease genes that do not result in

an autoimmune phenotype. 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 V2G genes present in the HIEI truth set? Low precision or

predictive power 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 true. 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[81,82]. 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[83]. 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[84] and

the purine biosynthetic enzyme GART[85]. 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[86], and PTK6, an oncogenic kinase studied in the context of

cancer[87], 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[88,89] 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[90], 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

T cell isolation and *in vitro* stimulation

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.

Il2-83-cRE ko Mice

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#:

TTAATACGACTCACTATAGG<u>TTTTCCACGGATCTGCTCGGG</u>GTTTTAGAGCTAGAAATAGC

T7_guideRNA#2_scaffold#:

TTAATACGACTCACTATAGG<u>TGCTTTCTAGGTGAAGCCCC</u>GTTTTAGAGCTAGAAATAGC

T7_guideRNA#3_scaffold#:

TTAATACGACTCACTATAGGT<u>CATTTGAGCCTAACTACTC</u>GTTTTAGAGCTAGAAATAGC

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.

<u>ELISA</u>

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 (0.25×10^6) 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[91], and duplicate reads were removed from the alignment. Narrow peaks were called

independently for each replicate using macs2[92] (-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[93] 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[94] using the normalization factors calculated by csaw. OCRs with FDR <

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

Hi-C data analysis

Paired-end reads from two replicates were pre-processed using the HICUP pipeline v0.7.4[95], 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[96] 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[97]. Replicate similarity was determined by HiCRep v1.12.2[96] at 10K resolution. For

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

resolution using cooltools v0.3.2[98] 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)[99]. 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[100] (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[101] 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.

Bulk RNA-seq data analysis

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)[102] 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[103] with the MSigDB hallmark

geneset[104], with resulting scores analyzed using limma (limma_3.50.3)[105]. Low abundance peaks

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

the glmQLFit approach implemented in edgeR[94]. 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.

<u>Transcription factor footprinting and motif analysis</u>

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[106]. 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[107]. 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.

818
819 <u>Partitioned heritability LD score regression enrichment analysis</u>
820
Partitioned heritability LD score regression[108] (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 Table S14 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.

<u>Variant-to-gene mapping using HiC-derived promoter contacts</u>

95% credible sets were determined as previously described[109]. 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)[110].

<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[111]. 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[112].

<u>Precision-recall analyses of 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[63].

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)[110]. 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.

<u>Colocalized eQTL comparisons</u>

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.

<u>International mouse phenotyping consortium comparisons</u>

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

consortium set of genes with reported phenotypes[113]. 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)[114]. 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 (**Table S17**). 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[115].

Lentiviral-based CRISPR/CAS9 targeting in Jurkat cells

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

gRNA # 2 AGGTGACAACATTTAGTCAG

-51 CNS   gRNA #1   GGCAACGAAATTCACTGTGA

898   gRNA # 2 ATTCTAACAGGAATCATTCG

-80 CNS   gRNA # 1 GTTCTACCTATGCCGCATTG

gRNA # 2 GAGATTTACTCAGTCCAATG

-83 CNS   gRNA # 1 GTGACAAGCATGACTCTACA

gRNA # 2 GTGATGGTGAATTAAGCTGA

-85 CNS   gRNA #1   AGGGTTTTCTAGTTACGAGA

gRNA # 2   ATGGTTAGTTAGCTCCCAAG

-96 CNS   gRNA#1   TGGGAAAAACATCTTACCTG

gRNA # 2   TGGCCCATGAACCATCAAAG

-122 CNS   gRNA# 1   GTTATTAATCTAAGCGGAGA

gRNA# 2   GGAAGTTAGGCAGTCAATCG

-128 CNS   gRNA#1   CTTCAATCATTGCATTCCAC

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

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.

 Pharmacologic validation of novel T cell activation regulatory genes

 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[116].

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 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 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, ligher = lower expression), edge color reflects confidence in

the interaction called by GENIE3 (darker higher confidence).

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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.

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Figure 5: 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).

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Figure 6: 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[116]. (**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+CXCR5^{hi} 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.

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Figure 7: 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 CD4+ T cells *in vitro* (N=4).

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Supplemental Tables

Supplemental Tables

Table S1: Expression and clustering of differentially expressed genes.

Table S2: Pathway enrichment of differentially expressed RNA-seq genes

Table S3: Pathway enrichment of differentially expressed RNA-seq genes by cluster

Table S4: Accessible chromatin regions

Table S5: Differential accessible open chromatin regions

Table S6: A/B compartment calls

Table S7: Differential TAD boundaries

Table S8: Stripe calls

Table S9: Differential contact frequency

Table S10: Summary of TF footprinting

Table S11: TF target gene pathway enrichment

Table S12: List of all GWAS studies included

Table S13: Variant to gene mapping across all timepoints

Table S14: Partitioned LD score regression output

Table S15: Autoimmune variants in open gene promoters

Table S16: Comparison of V2G approaches

Table S17: Motifs predicted to disrupt transcription factor binding sites.

Table S18: V2G genes implicated by orthogonal data

Table S19: V2G target gene drug repurposing results

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Figure 1

Figure 2

A Chromatin accessibility dynamics (ATAC-seq)

B AB compartment

C Topologically associating domains

D Loop calls (HiC)

E Differential loops (HiC)

F Integrated accessibility, connectivity, and expression dynamics

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 7

A

Luciferase activity (fold over URR)

p<0.0001
***

-128 OCR NON-RISK SNP
-128 OCR RISK SNP

B

TF affinity

# of SNPs

higher
lower

TF motif: NFKB KLF FOS::JUN EGR FKH

C

V2G geneset enrichment for CRISPR-validated targets

IL2 | CTLA4 | IL2RA | IFNG | proliferation | TNF

Any GWAS, ALG, AS, ATD, CEL, CRO, ECZ, IBD, JIA, MS, PSO, RA, SLE, T1D, UC, VIT

Enriched
not significant

Enrichment −log10(P value)

D

Reported Mouse Phenotypes

V2G implicated genes (−log10 Pvalue)

Reported phenotype: muscle, pigmentation, respiratory system, adipose tissue, liver/biliary system, renal/urinary system, hearing/vestibular/ear, edocrine/exocrine, cardiovascular system, reproductive system, nervous system, digestive/alimentary, vision/eye, craniofacial, limbs/digits/tail, integument, immune system, hematopoietic system, embryo, skeleton, behivor/neurological, growth/size/body region, homeostasis/metabolism, mortality/aging

E

chemical available
19.7%
80.3%
chemical not available

F

immune specificity score

LTB
IL1R2
LST1
CD244
RAC2
ELANE PTPRC CCR2
CD247 FASLG
TNFRSF9
IKZF1 CD6
CD5
ICOS
CD27
CCR4 CD28
TXK INPP5D CCR6 CCR5
IL2RB
CD84
TNF
O XER1
MAP3K11
GPR183
GPR18
GRK6

log2(pubmed_count + 1)

G

mouse | human

% max. CD4+ T cell activation

nM uM mM

log [drug] uM

GPR18 (O-1918)
KISS1R (kisspeptin)
CHRNB (epinephrine)
CHRNB (norepinephrine)
OXER1 (5-oxo-ETE)
GPR18 (Arachidonylglycine)
GRK6 (GRK-IN-1)
PTK6 (Tilfrinib)
MAP3K11 (CEP-1347)
GPR183 (25-HC)
GART (lometrexol)
SIK1 (HG-91-9-1)

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: Comparative predictive power of various V2G approaches. (**A**) Percent overlap in predicted genes among chromatin-based and eQTL-based V2G approaches. (**B**) Expression (scaled TPM) of genes implicated by both eQTL (Soskic et al.) and HiC. (**C**) 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**) Precision-Recall analysis of V2G gene predictions against the set of monogenic human inborn errors in immunity.

Figure S7: 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 S8: 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 S9: 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.