The CDK8 inhibitor DCA promotes a tolerogenic chemical immunophenotype in CD4^{+} T cells via a novel CDK8-GATA3-FOXP3 pathway.

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Running Head: T cell differentiation regulated by CDK8-GATA3-FOXP3

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Abstract

Immune health requires innate and adaptive immune cells to engage precisely balanced pro- and

anti-inflammatory forces. We employ the concept of chemical immunophenotypes to classify

small molecules functionally or mechanistically according to their patterns of effects on primary

innate and adaptive immune cells. The high-specificity, low-toxicity cyclin dependent kinase 8

(CDK8) inhibitor DCA exerts a distinct tolerogenic profile in both innate and adaptive immune

cells. DCA promotes T_{reg} and Th2 differentiation, while inhibiting Th1 and Th17 differentiation,

in both murine and human cells. This unique chemical immunophenotype led to mechanistic

studies showing that DCA promotes T_{reg} differentiation in part by regulating a previously

undescribed CDK8-GATA3-FOXP3 pathway that regulates early pathways of Foxp3 expression.

These results highlight previously unappreciated links between T_{reg} and Th2 differentiation and

extend our understanding of the transcription factors that regulate T_{reg} differentiation and their

temporal sequencing. These findings have significant implications for future mechanistic and

translational studies of CDK8 and CDK8 inhibitors.

43
44

MAIN TEXT

Introduction

The immune system comprises innate and adaptive immune cells whose collaborative and

coordinated responses maintain the healthy state. Each cell type can exert either pro- or anti-

inflammatory forces. For example, innate immune cells can secrete either pro- (e.g. IFNγ) or anti-

(e.g. IL-10) inflammatory cytokines; similarly, $CD4^+$ T cells can differentiate into either pro- (e.g.

Th1, Th17) or anti- (T_{reg}) inflammatory subsets (1-5). These pro- and anti- inflammatory forces

must be precisely balanced; dysregulation of this balance can predispose to autoimmunity,

infection or cancer (3, 6).

We have previously demonstrated how small molecules can highlight novel pathways of

immunoregulation in primary immune cells. For example, we showed that small molecule

inhibition of the dual-specificity tyrosine phosphorylation-regulated kinase 1A (DYRK1A)

promotes differentiation of murine and human $CD4^+$ T cells into T_{reg}s (7). We also showed that

small molecule inhibition of salt-induced kinases (SIKs) enhanced production of IL-10 by murine

and human myeloid cells (8). However, a comprehensive understanding of how both innate and

adaptive immune cell function is modulated remains lacking for most small molecules.

Here, we investigate the effect of the natural product-derived small molecule dihydro-

cortistatin A (DCA) on murine and human $CD4^+$ T cells. Recent studies pointing to DCA as the

CDK8 inhibitor with highest specificity and lowest toxicity highlight DCA as a CDK8 inhibitor

of critical interest (*9*). CDK8 is an essential component of the CDK8 submodule of the Mediator

coactivator complex, which regulates RNA polymerase II activity (*10*, *11*). The CDK8 submodule

facultatively binds the Mediator complex, phosphorylates transcription factors and regulates

specific pathways (*11-13*). CDK8 phosphorylates several immune-relevant transcription factors,

including STAT1^{Ser727}, STAT3^{Ser727}, STAT5^{Ser730}, c-Jun^{Ser243} and Notch (*14-19*). CDK8 regulates

both innate and adaptive immune responses and CDK8 inhibition typically exerts tolerogenic

effects. We previously found that DCA promotes production of IL-10 in myeloid cells by

inhibiting cyclin-dependent kinase 8 (CDK8) (*20-22*). Additionally, CDK8 deletion in innate

immune NK cells improves tumor surveillance while in adaptive immune cells, CDK8/19

inhibitors promote T$_{reg}$ differentiation (*18, 22-25*). Recent findings that CDK8 inhibition

promotes Th17 differentiation suggest the first pro-inflammatory sequelae (*26*). How CDK8

regulates differentiation to other T cell lineages (Th1 and Th2) remains less clear. Furthermore,

much of the mechanistic work in T cells has focused on CDK8 phosphorylation of STAT5 and

STAT3. The possibility of additional CDK8-regulated pathways in the context of T cell biology is

suggested by our findings that CDK8 regulates myeloid cells by c-Jun^{Ser243} phosphorylation;

however, the identity of these pathways remains incompletely elucidated (*22*). Understanding

these pathways is essential to identify the patients who might most benefit from CDK8 inhibition

therapy.

We demonstrate that DCA exerts a unique pattern of immunomodulation (i.e. chemical

immunophenotype) compared to other known immunomodulatory small molecules. Using both

small molecule inhibitors and CRISPR/Cas9 knockdown, we find that DCA inhibits CDK8 to

promote the differentiation of both T$_{reg}$ and Th2 cells while suppressing the differentiation of pro-

inflammatory Th1 and Th17 subsets. We show that DCA-driven T$_{reg}$s are fully suppressive in the

absence of concomitant tolerogenic effects on innate immune cells. Mechanistically, CDK8

inhibition by DCA regulates T$_{reg}$/Th17/Th1 differentiation independent of effects on

STAT1/STAT3 Ser727 phosphorylation. Notably, DCA's unusual chemical immunophenotype

directly leads us to find that DCA uniquely drives early temporal expression of *FOXP3* at least in

part via a CDK8-GATA3-FOXP3 pathway not previously described to regulate T$_{reg}$

differentiation. These findings further our mechanistic understanding of an emerging role for

DCA as an immunomodulator that broadly drives tolerogenic programs in both innate and

adaptive immune cells. These findings are discussed in the context of implications to future

therapeutic use of CDK8 inhibitors.

Results

DCA exerts tolerogenic effects on murine and human CD4$^+$ T cell differentiation

Given our previous observation that DCA promotes tolerogenic IL-10 production in innate immune cells, we determined whether DCA exerts tolerogenic effects on CD4$^+$ T cell differentiation (22). We tested the effect of DCA on naïve murine CD4$^+$ T cells cultured in suboptimal pro-T$_{reg}$ or -Th2 conditions (T$_{reg}$^{low} and Th2^{low}, respectively) as we previously described (7). DCA enhanced differentiation of both T$_{reg}$ and Th2 cells (Fig. 1A). DCA increased T$_{reg}$s specifically in cultures of FACS-sorted naïve CD4$^+$ T cells, but not sorted T$_{reg}$s, further demonstrating that the increase in T$_{reg}$s is due to enhanced differentiation of T$_{reg}$s rather than expansion of existing T$_{reg}$s (Fig. S1A). To examine if these tolerogenic effects extended to inhibiting differentiation of pro-inflammatory T cell lineages, we added DCA to murine T cells cultured in near-optimal pro-Th1 and -Th17 conditions (Th1^{hi} and Th17^{hi}, respectively). DCA significantly inhibited differentiation of Th1 and Th17 cells (Fig. 1B). Notably, DCA promoted differentiation of T$_{reg}$ and Th2 cells even in near-optimal Th17^{hi} and Th1^{hi} conditions respectively (Fig. 1B, FACS plots). In the context of non-polarizing Th0 conditions, DCA significantly, albeit modestly, enhanced murine T$_{reg}$ and Th2 differentiation (Fig. 1C). Th1 differentiation was slightly reduced below the level of statistical significance and Th17 cells were too infrequent to accurately assess (Fig. 1C). These results suggest that DCA can enhance T$_{reg}$/Th2 differentiation in the absence of exogenous cytokines. Therefore, DCA exerts powerful and broad tolerogenic effects on murine T cell differentiation.

We next investigated whether DCA similarly affects human T$_{reg}$ and Th2 differentiation by culturing human CD4$^+$ T cells in (human-specific) suboptimal T$_{reg}$^{low} and Th2^{low} conditions respectively. DCA treatment enhanced both T$_{reg}$ and Th2 differentiation in human CD4$^+$ T cells, pointing to concordant regulation in human and murine cells (Fig. 1D-F). We benchmarked the

pro-T_{reg} effect of DCA against the well-described T_{reg} enhancers all-trans retinoic acid (ATRA)

and rapamycin (RAPA) (*27-33*). In murine and human CD4$^+$ T cells cultured in suboptimal T_{reg}^{low}

conditions, DCA treatment enhanced the total number of T_{reg}s significantly higher than either

ATRA or rapamycin (Fig. 1D). In addition, DCA enhanced the percentage of T_{reg}s to a level

similar to ATRA and rapamycin (Fig. 1E). These results highlight that DCA potently enhances

T_{reg} differentiation in both murine and human T cells and reflect in part the lower cytotoxicity of

DCA compared to ATRA and rapamycin (Fig. S1B).

DCA identifies a novel CDK8 inhibition-driven chemical immunophenotype

We compared DCA's profile of tolerogenic effects against that of other tolerogenic

compounds. We investigated the dose-response of murine CD4$^+$ T cells to DCA and two other

tolerogenic small molecules in the context of suboptimal pro-T_{reg}, Th2, Th1 and Th17 conditions

(T_{reg}^{low}, Th2^{low}, Th1^{low} and Th17^{low}, respectively) (7). These experiments showed that DCA

enhanced differentiation of both murine T_{reg} and Th2 cells with identical EC$_{50}$ (dose exerting half-

maximal effect), supporting the involvement of a common mechanistic target (Fig. 2A). We

wanted to understand if DCA's ability to enhance T_{reg} and Th2 differentiation and myeloid IL-10

production represent a pattern common to many tolerogenic small molecules. We tested harmine,

which we previously identified as a potent enhancer of T_{reg} differentiation, and found that

harmine enhanced the differentiation of T_{reg}, but not Th2, cells (Fig. 2A) (7). We also tested HG-

9-91-01, which we previously showed enhances myeloid cell production of IL-10 production by

inhibiting salt-inducible kinase (SIK) 1-3, and found that HG-9-91-01 enhanced neither T_{reg} nor

Th2 differentiation (Fig. 2A) (8). Therefore, DCA, HG-9-91-01 and harmine exert distinct

immune phenotypic profiles, which we term chemical immunophenotypes, reflecting engagement

of distinct pathways regulating tolerogenicity in innate and adaptive immune cells.

We and others have previously shown immunomodulatory effects of DCA and other

CDK8 inhibitors (*18, 22-25*). We used two different approaches to validate CDK8 as the T_{reg}-

relevant mechanistic target of DCA. Firstly, we tested DCA alongside a structurally distinct small

molecule CDK8 inhibitor, BRD-6989 (*22*). In T_{reg}^{low} conditions, both CDK8 inhibitors showed

concentration-dependent enhancement of murine T_{reg} differentiation with EC_{50} for each

compound similar to that observed for enhancing IL-10 production in BMDCs (Fig. 2B) (*22*). The

EC_{50} of DCA was much lower than of BRD-6989, driving its subsequent preferential use (Fig.

2B). Notably, DCA and BRD-6989 both exhibited low cytotoxicity, even less than that observed

with harmine, which we previously identified as one of the least cytotoxic T_{reg} enhancers (Fig.

2B) (*7*). Secondly, we used CRISPR/Cas9 to knock out *CDK8* in primary human $CD4^+$ T cells.

Efficient editing of CDK8 led to enhanced T_{reg} differentiation comparable to levels observed

using DCA treatment (Fig. 1E and 2C). These results indicate that DCA enhances murine and

human T_{reg} differentiation at least in part by inhibiting CDK8.

DCA-driven T_{reg}s are fully tolerogenic in the absence of DCA-innate immune tolerogenic

effects

We next interrogated the suppressive capacity of DCA-driven T_{reg} cells both in vitro and

in vivo. Using a standard in vitro suppression assay, we observed no significant differences in the

ability of T_{reg}^{hi}- or $T_{reg}^{low+DCA}$-driven murine T_{reg} cells to suppress proliferation of co-cultured

responder $CD4^+$ T cells (Fig. 3A, red and blue lines respectively). We tested the capacity of DCA-

driven T_{reg}s to inhibit inflammation in vivo in two murine T_{reg}-transfer models in order to exclude

confounding effects of systemically-delivered DCA on endogenous innate immune cells. In an

established model of type 1 diabetes, transfer of NOD-*BDC2.5*$^+$ $CD4^+$ T cells, specific for an

epitope derived from the islet antigen chromogranin A, into NOD-*scid* recipients results in islet β-

cell destruction and onset of diabetes about 10 days later (Fig. 3B, black line) (*34, 35*). Co-

injection of antigen-specific T_{reg} cells, generated from naïve NOD-*BDC2.5.Foxp3*[IRES-GFP] CD4^{+} T

cells using either $T_{reg}^{low+DCA}$ or T_{reg}^{hi} conditions, significantly delayed onset of diabetes to a

similar degree (Fig. 3B, blue and red lines respectively) (7). We observed similar results in a

murine model of intestinal inflammation where transfer of CD45RB^{hi}CD4^{+} T cells into

B10.RAG2^{-/-} recipients results in expansion of donor T cells and inflammation most prominent in

the colon about 4 weeks later (Fig. 3C, black) (36, 37). Co-transfer of T_{reg} cells, generated from

naïve wild-type C57Bl/6 CD4^{+} T cells using either $T_{reg}^{low+DCA}$ or T_{reg}^{hi} conditions, resulted in

significant and similar attenuation of intestinal inflammation (Fig. 3C, blue and red respectively)

(38). Together, these results demonstrate that DCA-driven T_{reg} cells are fully functional and

equivalent to T_{reg}^{hi}-generated T_{reg} cells (an adoptive cellular therapy-relevant gold standard

comparison) both in vitro and in vivo, using model systems employing different genetic

backgrounds and T cell specificities. Importantly, these experiments demonstrate that DCA exerts

a strong T_{reg}-intrinsic tolerogenic effect in the absence of concomitant effects on the innate

immune compartment.

DCA exerts tolerogenic effects on T cell differentiation independent of regulating

STAT1^{Ser727}, STAT3^{Ser727} and c-Jun^{Ser243} phosphorylation

We investigated key candidates that might account for DCA's tolerogenic effects in CD4^{+}

T cells. CDK8 phosphorylates STAT1^{Ser727} and STAT3^{Ser727} in several cell types (39-42).

Although the role of Ser727 phosphorylation in Th1/Th17/T_{reg} differentiation is unclear, potential

contribution is suggested by the central role of STAT1^{Tyr701} and STAT3^{Tyr705} tyrosine

phosphorylation in Th1 and Th17 differentiation respectively (43-45). Recent studies argue that

inhibition of CDK8 promotes Th17 differentiation by attenuating STAT3^{Ser727} phosphorylation,

emphasizing the importance of investigating this pathway (26). DCA reduced IL-6-induced

STAT3^{Ser727} phosphorylation in murine CD4^{+} T cells, but did not reduce either STAT3^{Tyr705}

phosphorylation or expression of the hallmark Th17 transcription factor RORγt in cells cultured in Th17^{hi} conditions; total STAT3 was slightly decreased (Fig. 4A-C). Primary CD4$^+$ T cells from *Stat3^{Ser727Ala}* mice, in which Ser727Ala mutation abrogates STAT3^{Ser727} phosphorylation, showed reduced Th17 differentiation, highlighting a previously unappreciated role of STAT3^{Ser727} phosphorylation in this process (Fig. 4D) (*40*). However, DCA suppressed Th17 and enhanced T$_{reg}$ differentiation in both *Stat3^{Ser727Ala}* and wild-type CD4$^+$ T cells, demonstrating that DCA regulates T$_{reg}$ and Th17 differentiation via mechanisms independent of STAT3^{Ser727} phosphorylation (Fig. 4D-E).

We also showed that DCA reduced IFNγ-induced phospho-STAT1^{Ser727} but not of phospho-STAT1^{Tyr701} or total STAT1 in cells cultured in Th1^{hi} conditions (Fig. 4F-G). Expression of the hallmark Th1 transcription factor Tbet in Th1^{hi} cultures was also unaltered by DCA except at day 4, arguing against altered regulation by STAT1^{Ser727} (Fig. 4H). Primary CD4$^+$ T cells from *Stat1^{Ser727Ala}* mice, in which Ser727Ala mutation abrogates STAT1^{Ser727} phosphorylation, showed reduced Th1 differentiation, highlighting a previously unappreciated role of STAT1^{Ser727} phosphorylation in this process (Fig. 4I) (*41*). However, DCA suppressed Th1 and enhanced T$_{reg}$ differentiation in both *Stat1^{Ser727Ala}* and wild-type CD4$^+$ T cells, demonstrating that DCA regulates T$_{reg}$ and Th1 differentiation via mechanisms independent of STAT1^{Ser727} phosphorylation (Fig. 4I-J).

Consistent with previously published findings, we also found that treatment with DCA inhibited IL-2-induced phosphorylation of STAT5b^{Ser730} (Fig. S2A) (*18*). We were unable to find *Stat5b^{Ser730Ala}* mice to perform similar studies as with STAT1 and STAT3 above.

We next investigated the overlap between characterized CDK8-regulated pathways in

innate and adaptive immune cells. Similar to our findings in myeloid cells, T cells cultured in

either T_{reg}^{low} or T_{reg}^{hi} conditions showed increased phosphorylation of both c-Jun^{Ser243} and c-

Jun^{Ser63}; DCA specifically inhibited phosphorylation on the inhibitory site c-Jun^{Ser243} (Fig. S2B)

(*22*). Unlike in myeloid cells, DCA's tolerogenic pro-T_{reg} effect in T cells was neither attenuated

by the AP-1 inhibitor T-5224 nor enhanced by overexpression of multiple c-Jun family members

(c-Jun, JunB or JunD) (Fig. S2C-D). Together, these results indicate that DCA regulation of AP-1

transcription factors drives tolerogenicity in myeloid, but not CD4$^+$ T, cells.

DCA enhances Foxp3 expression by engaging GATA3

Temporal flow cytometric analysis of FOXP3 expression throughout the period of culture

revealed indistinguishable kinetics between murine CD4$^+$ T cells cultured in T_{reg}^{low} and T_{reg}^{hi}

conditions until day 2, with FOXP3$^+$ cells increasing in T_{reg}^{hi} conditions and decreasing in T_{reg}^{low}

conditions thereafter (Fig. 5A) (7). Notably, DCA treatment significantly increased FOXP3$^+$ cells,

as well as *Foxp3* expression, at early time points (days 1 and 2) compared to either T_{reg}^{low} or T_{reg}^{hi}

conditions (Fig. 5A-B). DCA treatment also drove concordant regulation of other FOXP3-

regulated genes at day 2, including upregulation of *Eos, Helios* and *Cd25* as well as

downregulation of *Il2* expression (Fig. 5B) (*46-49*). These data suggest that DCA promotes

murine T_{reg} differentiation at least in part by enhancing early expression of FOXP3. This

induction of key T_{reg} transcription factors did not involve canonical T_{reg} pathways; specifically,

DCA neither enhanced SMAD2/SMAD3 nor inhibited (mTOR pathway members) S6/S6K

phosphorylation, pointing to the involvement of novel pathway(s) (Fig. S3A-B).

DCA's unusual chemical immunophenotype led us to consider a mechanistic link between

DCA-mediated enhancement of both T_{reg} and Th2 differentiation. GATA3, the hallmark Th2

transcription factor, is highly expressed beginning at the earliest timepoints of Th2 differentiation

(*50*). Although not well studied in the context of T_{reg} differentiation, previous findings that

GATA3 binds the CNS2 enhancer element of the *FOXP3* locus and regulates mature T_{reg}

physiology support the possibility that GATA3 could regulate FOXP3 expression and thus T_{reg}

differentiation (*51-53*). Consistent with this notion, DCA treatment of both murine and human

CD4$^+$ T cells cultured in $T_{reg}{}^{low}$ conditions also enhanced early *GATA3* expression at day 2 (Fig.

5C). To validate the role of DCA-mediated upregulation of GATA3 in T_{reg} differentiation, we

generated lentiviral vectors to overexpress *GATA3*, including a truncated NGFR marker separated

by a self-splicing T2A peptide to allow specific comparison of transduced cells. We performed

these experiments using human T cells because these were more amenable to viral transduction.

Overexpression of *GATA3* consistently enhanced T_{reg} differentiation in human naïve CD4$^+$ T cells

cultured in $T_{reg}{}^{low}$ conditions, compared to cells transduced with control (NGFR only) virus (Fig.

5D). To further support the functional significance of DCA-enhanced GATA3, we performed

chromatin immunoprecipitation experiments and found that DCA treatment of human CD4$^+$ T

cells cultured in $T_{reg}{}^{low}$ conditions resulted in significantly increased binding of GATA3

specifically to *FOXP3* CNS2 early in T_{reg} differentiation (Fig. 5E). These results argue that

GATA3 is an early regulator of *FOXP3* expression and T_{reg} differentiation that can be regulated

by DCA.

We sought to better understand how DCA might regulate *GATA3* expression. Previous

studies showed that Notch can directly drive *Gata3* expression and that enhanced Notch signaling

promotes T_{reg} differentiation (*54, 55*). Furthermore, CDK8 inhibits Notch signaling by

phosphorylating the Notch signaling domain ICD1, leading to its degradation, leading us to

hypothesize that DCA may drive *Gata3* expression by enhancing Notch signaling in T cells (*19*).

Consistent with this notion, we found that treatment with DCA led to increased intranuclear levels

of ICD1 in both murine and human $CD4^+$ T cells (Fig. 5F). Supporting functional relevance of

DCA-driven increased intracellular ICD1, we performed RNAseq analyses comparing $FOXP3^+$

cells cultured for 2 days in T_{reg}^{low} versus $T_{reg}^{low+DCA}$ conditions to define a 577-gene signature

associated with DCA treatment. Using a previously described method, we showed that this

signature is maintained in sorted mature $FOXP3^+$ iT_{reg}s generated after 4 days of culture in

$T_{reg}^{low+DCA}$ versus T_{reg}^{hi} conditions and partially maintained in $FOXP3^+$ versus $FOXP3^-$ cells

cultured for 2 days in T_{reg}^{low} conditions, supporting FOXP3- and T_{reg}-relevance of this signature

(Fig S4) (*7*, *56*). Transcription factor target analysis of this DCA signature using the ChIP-seq

result-based Gene Transcription Regulation Database (GTRD) in GSEA revealed MAML as the

most enriched transcription factor (Table S1) (*57-59*). MAML is recruited by DNA-bound ICD1,

in complex with RBP-J, whereupon it recruits transcriptional co-activators (*60*). Therefore,

enrichment of MAML binding sites is consistent with enrichment of ICD1 binding to DCA-

regulated genes. Together, these results demonstrate for the first time that inhibition of CDK8 by

DCA drives *FOXP3* expression and T_{reg} differentiation at least in part by driving increased Notch

and GATA3 signaling.

Discussion

Here we have demonstrated that DCA promotes T_{reg} differentiation at least in part by engaging a previously unappreciated CDK8-GATA3-FOXP3 pathway. Our use of both novel small molecules (DCA and BRD-6989) and CRISPR/Cas9-mediated deletion point to CDK8 inhibition as the mechanism by which DCA exerts these effects. While previous studies have shown that GATA3 impacts mature T_{reg} physiology, this is the first report to our knowledge that GATA3 can drive T_{reg} differentiation (*51*, *61*). Our findings extend prior studies showing that GATA3 protein levels are upregulated during T_{reg} differentiation (*62*). Whether GATA3 initiates, stabilizes or amplifies *FOXP3* expression remains to be dissected in future studies. Previous reports suggesting that GATA3 inhibits FOXP3 expression used significantly different experimental approaches, including secondary CD3 stimulation or removal of primary TCR stimulation, and did not exclude contribution of IL-4 (*63*, *64*). Given that GATA3 is a hallmark Th2 transcription factor that inhibits Th1 and likely Th17 differentiation, this CDK8-GATA3-FOXP3 pathway provides a parsimonious unifying mechanism to explain, at least in part, how DCA broadly regulates T_{reg}, Th2, Th1 and Th17 differentiation (*65-67*). Given that Th2 cells can produce IL-10, this previously unappreciated link between T_{reg} and Th2 differentiation may point to conserved (e.g. CDK8-related) anti-inflammatory signaling pathways that can engage distinct downstream effector pathways (*68*). We hypothesize that differences in the local cytokine milieu impact whether DCA enhances T_{reg} or Th2 differentiation, for example by modulating epigenetic accessibility of *FOXP3* and *IL4* loci. Additionally, where CDK8 effector pathways regulating tolerogenicity in innate (via phospho-c-Jun[Ser243]) vs adaptive immune cells diverge remains to be clearly defined (*22*).

Our discovery of DCA's unusual temporal profile of enhancing early expression FOXP3 and many FOXP3-regulated genes contrasts with the temporal profile of T_{reg}^{hi} conditions and

other T_{reg}-enhancing compounds like harmine and reinforces a model of T_{reg} differentiation that

involves independently regulated early and late pathways (7). Whereas early pathways might

involve TGFβ licensing cells to adopt T_{reg} fate and express FOXP3, late pathways might maintain

and promote T_{reg} lineage commitment. Our data support a model where DCA largely enhances

early pathways, including Notch-GATA3, to regulate FOXP3 expression. This suggests DCA

may have particular therapeutic relevance to patients who have defects in early pathways of T_{reg}

differentiation and also raises the possibility of synergy with therapies that enhance late pathways

of T_{reg} differentiation.

Our findings exemplify how chemical immunotypes point to an important classification

scheme that can inform both mechanistic and therapeutic hypotheses. DCA's unique chemical

immunophenotype (pro-T_{reg}, pro-Th2 and pro-myeloid-IL-10) is distinct from that of many other

tolerogenic compounds, including SIK- and DYRK1A-inhibitors, which exert tolerogenic effects

specifically in either innate or adaptive immune cells, but not both (*7, 22*). Our novel finding that

CDK8 inhibition promotes both T_{reg} and Th2 differentiation directly informed our interrogation of

GATA3 as a putative regulator of T_{reg} differentiation. Additionally, our studies suggest value in

monitoring tolerogenic effects, including impaired host-versus-tumor effects, in anticipated

clinical use of CDK8 inhibitors as cancer therapeutics (*69, 70*).

The translational relevance of these data is reinforced by our finding that DCA promotes

T_{reg} differentiation in primary human $CD4^+$ T cells. We note that T_{reg}s generated using DCA are

fully functional in vitro and in vivo. Importantly, our use of T_{reg}-transfer models specifically

interrogates the functionality of DCA-driven T_{reg}s without confounding anti-inflammatory effects

on innate immune cells, that could confound the interpretation of models using systemic drug

administration (*18, 25*). DCA and other CDK8 inhibitors may find utility as tolerogenic

immunomodulators. Studies suggesting poor long-term tolerability of CDK8 inhibitors, together

with our data showing DCA impacts early pathways in T_{reg} differentiation, support this

consideration (*71*). We recognize the utility of DCA in generating T_{reg}s ex vivo, which would

circumvent concerns regarding toxicity in vivo (*71*).

Our findings highlight the value of definitive interrogation of regulatory pathways. Prior

knowledge drove the notion of CDK8-STAT interactions as key candidates to explain how CDK8

inhibition regulates T cell differentiation (*14*). Our experiments using *Stat1^{Ser727Ala}* and

Stat3^{Ser727Ala} mice clearly demonstrate that DCA regulates Th1, Th17 and T_{reg} differentiation

independent of its effects on STAT1^{Ser727}/STAT3^{Ser727} phosphorylation. Prior studies suggest that

STAT1^{Ser727}/STAT3^{Ser727} phosphorylation is required for full transcriptional activity (*39-42*).

Consistent with this, we demonstrate a previously unappreciated role of STAT1^{Ser727} and

STAT3^{Ser727} phosphorylation in positively regulating Th1 and Th17 differentiation respectively.

These findings differ from recent studies suggesting that CDK8 inhibition promotes human Th17

differentiation; possible explanations include differences in species, CDK8 inhibitor and

experimental approach (knockin versus transduced allele) (*26*). This emphasizes the value of Ser-

Ala STAT mutant mice in dissecting (CDK8-related) mechanistic hypotheses, including

developing *Stat5b^{Ser730Ala}* mice to definitively define the role of CDK8-regulated STAT5b^{Ser730}

phosphorylation in T_{reg} differentiation (*18*). These findings have important implications for

disease pathobiology and precision therapy, for example suggesting synergy of therapeutically

targeting STAT1^{Tyr701}/STAT3^{Tyr705}, STAT1^{Ser727}/STAT3^{Ser727} and CDK8.

In summary, our studies highlight CDK8 as a regulator of innate and adaptive immune

tolerogenicity that is therapeutically targeted by the high-specificity low-toxicity inhibitor DCA

(*9*). We show for the first time that CDK8 regulates Th2 differentiation, and human T_{reg}

differentiation. The unique chemical immunophenotype of DCA (pro-T_{reg}/Th2) directly informs

the discovery of a novel CDK8-Notch-GATA3-FOXP3 axis that regulates early pathways of T_{reg}

differentiation and has further mechanistic and therapeutic implications. Our demonstration that

DCA effectively enhances T_{reg} differentiation compared to canonical T_{reg} enhancers suggests

utility in approaches to generate T_{reg}s ex vivo for adoptive cellular therapy. In addition, the

70   broadly tolerogenic effects of DCA suggest that it may broadly be useful in the setting of

71   pathologic inflammation or autoimmunity.

Materials and Methods

Mice

Balb/c RRID:IMSR_JAX:000651, C57Bl/6 000664RRID:IMSR_JAX:000664, *Foxp3$^{IRES-GFP}$*

RRID:IMSR_JAX:006772*, CD45.1$^{+/+}$*002014RRID:IMSR_JAX:002014*,* NOD-*scid* and NOD-

BDC2.5 mice were purchased from Jackson Labs. NOD-*BDC2.5.Foxp3$^{IRES-GFP}$* mice were from

the JDRF Transgenic Core (Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA). C57Bl/10-*Rag2$^{-/-}$* mice were

a kind gift from Brian Kelsall (*37*). *Stat1^{Ser727Ala}* and *Stat3^{Ser727Ala}* mice were previously described

(*40*, *41*). Mice were housed in the Benaroya Research Institute Vivarium in a SPF animal room

with unfettered access to food and water. All murine experiments were performed on male and

female mice between 7-12 weeks of age, with the approval of the IACUC of Benaroya Research

Institute (Seattle, WA).

Human samples

Frozen PBMCs and fresh peripheral blood samples were obtained from the Benaroya Research

Institute Immune Mediated Disease Registry and Repository. Human studies were approved by

the Benaroya Research Institute's Institutional Review Board and all subjects signed written

informed consent prior to inclusion in the study.

Cell lines

293T cells used in lentiviral production were a generous gift from David Rawlings. 293T cells are

female. They were cultured DMEM medium (Hyclone) supplemented with fetal bovine serum

and glutamax (Thermo fisher) at 37°C and 5% CO2. Cells were split every 3 days at a density of

7.5×10^4 cells per ml.

Small Molecules and Reagents

97   Δ16-cortistatin A (DCA) was a generous gift from P. Baran (The Scripps Research Institute) and

98   synthesized as previously reported (*20, 72*). Small-molecule reagents were confirmed to have

99   ≥95% purity by HPLC–MS. Antibodies, chemical reagents and cytokines were sourced as listed

00   in Table S2. Primers are listed in Table S3

Cloning and Plasmid Preparation

Coding sequences of GATA3, JUND, c-JUN and JUNB were PCR amplified from pHAGE-

GATA3, JunD-HA neo, pMIEG3-c-Jun and pMIEG3-JunB (Addgene #116747, 58515, 40348

and 40349, gifts from Gordon Mills & Kenneth Scott, Kevin Janes, and Alexander Dent

respectively). PCR overhang extension was used to add (i) self-splicing T2A sequence and (ii) 40

base pair homology arms (HA) to permit cloning into into EcoRV-digested pLKO.NGFR using

Gibson assembly ultra-kit (Codex DNA, San Diego, CA). Primers used are listed in Table S2.

Murine T cell isolation and culture

Unless otherwise noted, CD4$^+$ CD62L$^+$ naïve T cells were isolated from 8-12 week-old mice

using CD4 negative enrichment kits (Stemcell Technologies, Vancouver, Canada) and CD62L

microbeads (Miltenyi Biotec, San Diego, CA) according to the manufacturer's instructions and

confirmed >90% pure by flow cytometry. Cells were cultured on 96 well plates pre-coated with

anti-CD3 and anti-CD28 using conditions outlined in Table S4. The addition of DCA to T_{reg}^{low}

conditions is abbreviated as $T_{reg}^{low+DCA}$. T_{reg} and Th1 cultures were fed with equal volume of IL-2

supplemented media (20ng/ml) and retreated with compound at day 2, split 1:2 into IL-2-

supplemented media (10 ng/ml) at day 3 and analyzed at day 4. Th17 cultures were treated

similarly except no IL-2 was supplemented. Th2 cultures were treated similarly as T_{reg} cultures

except they were additionally split 1:2 into IL-2 supplemented media (10 ng/ml) at day 4 and day

5 and analyzed on day 6. To assess STAT1/STAT3/STAT5b Ser phosphorylation, cells were

stimulated with 10 ng/ml IFNγ + 2μg/ml anti-IL-4, 10 ng/ml IL-6 + 2 μg/ml each anti-IL4/-12/-

IFNγ and anti-CD3/CD28 + 100 ng/ml IL-2 respectively.

Human T cell isolation and culture

Frozen PBMCs and fresh peripheral blood samples were obtained from the Benaroya Research

Institute Immune Mediated Disease Registry and Repository. Human peripheral blood

mononuclear cells were isolated from fresh whole blood by Ficoll-Paque (GE Healthcare, Little

Chalfont, United Kingdom). $CD4^+CD45RA^+$ naïve T cells were isolated using negative

enrichment kits (Stemcell Technologies, Vancouver, Canada) per manufacturer's instructions and

confirmed >90% pure by flow cytometry. Cells were cultured on 96 well plates pre-coated with

anti-CD3 and anti-CD28 using conditions outlined in Table S4. T_{reg} cultures were fed with equal

volume of IL-2 supplemented media (20ng/ml) and retreated with compound at day 2, split 1:2

into IL-2-supplemented media (10 ng/ml) at day 4 and analyzed at day 5. Th2 cultures were fed

and split into media supplemented with IL-2+IL-4 (20 ng/ml each at day 2, 10 ng/ml each

thereafter) and compound as indicated to maintain ~10^6 cells/ml, restimulated on days 7 and 14

on plates pre-coated with anti-CD3 and anti-CD28 and analyzed at day 21 as previously described

(*73*).

Lentiviral Production

On day 0, 3.8 x 10^6 293T cells were plated in 10 ml DMEM + 5% Glutamax (Thermofisher) on a

10 cm plate. On day 1, cells were transfected with 1.5 μg pMD2G, 3 μg psPAX2 (kind gifts from

David Rawlings) and 6 μg of pLKO vector, mixed with 42 μg PEI transfection reagent

(Polysciences, Inc.) and suspended in 0.5 ml diluent (10 mM HEPES, 150mM NaCl, pH 7.05).

Cells were PBS-washed and fed with fresh DMEM + Glutamax on day 2. Viral supernatant was

harvested on day 4, centrifuged (2000 rpm x 5 mins) to remove cellular debris, overlaid onto 5 ml

of 10% sucrose in NTE (135 mM NaCl, 10mM TrisCl, ph 7.50, 1mM EDTA) in ultra-centrifuge

tubes (Beckman) and centrifuged at 25,000 rpm for 90 minutes at 4°C. Supernatant was removed

and viral pellet resuspended in ice cold NTE by shaking for 2 hours at 4°C.

RNP complexing

RNPs were generated by mixing 1.25 ug Cas9 protein (Aldevron, Fargo, ND) and 2.5 pmol each

of 3 sgRNAs (Synthego, Menlo Park, CA) with gentle swirling, and incubating at 37°C for 15

minutes. Guides used were CDK8: CUCAUGCUGAUAGGAAG,

UGUUUCUGUCUCAUGCUGAU, and UCUGUCUCAUGCUGAUAGGA.

CRISPR-Cas9 gene editing

CRISPR-Cas9 gene editing was performed as previously described with modifications (Aksoy et

al., 2020; Roth et al., 2018). Briefly, human $CD4^+CD45RA^+$ naïve T cells were cultured on 96

well plates pre-coated with anti-CD3 and anti-CD28 in TCM supplemented with 5% Fetal Bovine

Serum, 20 ng/ml IL-2 and 2 µg/ml each of anti-IL-12, anti-IFNγ and anti-Il-4. Cells were

harvested 2 days later, centrifuged (90 g for 8 minutes), resuspended in buffer T, mixed with

20µM of each RNP complex and electroporated (1600 volts, 10 ms, 3 pulses) using a Neon

transfection system (Thermo Fisher, Waltham, MA). Cells were transferred into 90 µl TCM pre-

warmed to 37°C. After 24 hours, cells were fed with media supplemented with 100 ng/ml IL-2

and 1 ng/ml TGFβ. Cells were maintained for 5 additional days at a density of $1x10^6$/ml and then

analyzed by flow cytometry.

Flow Cytometry

Cells were stimulated with PMA and ionomycin (50 and 500ng/ml respectively) (Sigma Aldrich,

St. Louis, MO) in the presence of Golgistop (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA) 5 hours prior to

analysis as necessary. Cells were typically stained with LIVE/DEAD (Thermo Fisher, Waltham,

MA) and anti-CD4 prior to fixation and permeabilization, which was generally performed with

either Foxp3 fixation/permeabilization buffers (eBioscience, San Diego, CA). Phosflow cell

lyse/fix and PermIII buffers (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA) were used for phospho-protein

assessment. Intracellular staining was performed per manufacturer's instructions. Counting beads

(10 μm, Spherotech, Lake Forest, IL) were added at 5000 per sample. Acquisition was performed

on either a FACScalibur or a FACScanto (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA). Cell sorting was

performed using a FACs Aria II (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA). Data was analyzed using

FlowJo software (Treestar, Ashland, OR). Fractional maximal enhancement was determined by

increase in percentage lineage-committed cells, relative to maximal cytokine-driven enhancement

as previously reported (7). Fractional inhibition was calculated relative to DMSO treated cells (7).

STAT1/STAT3 phosphorylation was quantified as previously described (*74*).

In vitro proliferation and T$_{reg}$ suppression assay

These were performed as previously described (*75*). Briefly, sorted CD45.1$^+$CD4$^+$CD62L$^+$

T$_{responders}$ were labeled with CellTrace Far Red (Thermo Fisher, Waltham, MA) per manufacturer's

protocol and plated at 5x10^4 cells per well in 96-well U-bottom plates in the presence of anti-CD3

anti-CD28 beads (Dynabead, Grand Island, NY). For T$_{reg}$ suppression assays, T$_{responders}$ were co-

cultured with sorted CD45.2$^+$Foxp3$^{IRES-GFP+}$ T$_{reg}$ cells generated as indicated. Cells were analyzed

by flow cytometry 3 days later.

T$_{reg}$ suppression – Type 1 diabetes model

These were performed as previously described (7). Briefly, 5x10^4 sorted CD4$^+$CD62L$^+$ naïve T

cells isolated from NOD-*BDC2.5$^+$* mice were injected intravenously into NOD-*scid* mice with or

without 1x10^5 T$_{reg}$ cells generated from NOD-*BDC2.5$^+$FOXP3$^{IRES-GFP}$* mice as indicated (*34*, *35*).

Blood glucose levels were monitored with a handheld Contour glucometer (Bayer, Leverkusen,

Germany) at days 3, 6, 8 and every day following. Diabetes was diagnosed when blood sugar

exceeded 250 mg/dl for 2 consecutive days.

T_{reg} suppression – CD45RB^{hi} colitis model

As previously described 5x10^5 sorted CD4$^+$CD62L$^+$ naïve T cells isolated from CD45.1$^+$ mice

were injected intravenously into B10-$Rag2^{-/-}$ mice (*37, 38*). 5 days later, mice were injected with

either PBS or 1.5x10^5 T_{reg} cells generated from Foxp3$^{IRES-GFP}$ mice as indicated (*38*). Mice were

monitored at least weekly for weight loss and morbidity per protocol. Mice were euthanized after

4 weeks and proximal, medial, and distal colon analyzed histologically by blinded observers as

previously described (*76*).

Histology

Tissues were preserved in 10% formalin. Paraffin embedding, sectioning and staining with

hematoxylin and eosin was performed by the Histology Core (Benaroya Research Institute,

Seattle, WA).

Western Blotting

Cells were washed in PBS and lysed in either TNN lysis buffer, pH 8 (100 mM TRIS-HCl, 100

mM NaCl, 1% NP-40, 1 mM DTT, 10 mM NaF) or RIPA lysis buffer (150 mM NaCl, 1% Triton

X-100, 0.5% sodium deoxycholate, 0.1% SDS, 50 mM TRIS-HCl at pH7.8) supplemented with

DTT, protease inhibitors (Roche, Indianapolis, IN) and phosphatase inhibitors (Cell Signaling

Technologies, Danvers, MA). Lysates were separated by SDS-PAGE using Tris-Glycine gels

loaded with about 1x10^6 cell equivalents per well and transferred onto PDVF membrane

(Millipore, Burlington, MA). Blots were blocked in either 5% Milk (Nestle, Vervey, Switzerland)

or bovine serum albumin (Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) and visualized with Western Lightning

Plus-ECL (Perkin Elmer, Waltham, MA) and/or SuperSignal West Femto substrate (Thermo

Scientific, Waltham, MA) per manufacturer's instructions. Nuclear isolation was performed using

Nuclei EZ Prep kit per manufacturer's instructions (Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO). Fractions

were subsequently lysed with Triton X-100 lysis buffer (1% Triton X-100, 150 mM NaCl, 50 mM

Tris-HCl pH7.8). Band intensity was quantified by ImageJ (*77*).

RNA Isolation and qRT-PCR

RNA was isolated using RNeasy kits (Qiagen, Valencia, CA) and cDNA generated using iScript

cDNA synthesis kits (BioRad, Hercules, CA) per manufacturer's directions. Real-time PCR was

performed using an ABI 7500 FAST REAL-TIME PCR (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA)

system. Cycling conditions were as follows; 1 cycle of 50°C for 2 minutes, 95°C for 10 minutes,

followed by 40 cycles of 95°C for 15 seconds, and 60°C for 1 minute. Primers used are listed in

Table S3.

RNA-seq library preparation and sequencing

RNA-seq libraries were generated from four *Foxp3^{GFP}* littermate mice. On day 0, 1000 naïve

CD4$^+$CD62L$^+$ cells were sorted for RNA-seq. The remaining cells were cultured on plates pre-

coated with anti-CD3 and anti-CD28 in T_{reg}^{low}, T_{reg}^{hi} and $T_{reg}^{low+DCA}$ conditions. On day 2, 250

FOXP3$^+$ cells and 500 FOXP3$^-$ cells were sorted from cells cultured in T_{reg}^{low}, T_{reg}^{hi} and

$T_{reg}^{low+DCA}$ conditions. On day 4, 1000 FOXP3$^+$ cells were sorted from T_{reg}^{hi} and $T_{reg}^{low+DCA}$

cultures. Cells were sorted directly into lysis buffer from the SMART-Seq v4 Ultra Low Input

RNA Kit for Sequencing (Takara) and frozen until all samples were ready for simultaneous

processing. Reverse transcription was performed followed by PCR amplification to generate full

length amplified cDNA. Sequencing libraries were constructed using the NexteraXT DNA sample

preparation kit (Illumina) to generate Illumina-compatible barcoded libraries. Libraries were

pooled and quantified using a Qubit® Fluorometer (Life Technologies). Dual-index, single-read

sequencing of pooled libraries was carried out on a HiSeq2500 sequencer (Illumina) with 58-base

reads, using HiSeq v4 Cluster and SBS kits (Illumina) with a target depth of 5 million reads per

sample.

Base-calling was performed automatically by Illumina real time analysis software.

Demultiplexing to generate FASTQ files was performed by bcl2fastq running on the Illumina

BaseSpace platform. Subsequent processing was performed using the Galaxy platform. FASTQ

reads were trimmed in two steps: 1) hard-trimming to remove 1 3'-end base (FASTQ Trimmer

tool, v.1.0.0); 2) quality trimming from both ends until minimum base quality for each read ≥ 30

(FastqMcf, v.1.1.2). Reads were aligned to the GRCm38 mouse reference genome using STAR

v.2.4.2a, with gene annotations from GRCm38 Ensembl release number 91 (*78*). Read counts per

Ensembl gene ID were quantified using htseq-count v.0.4.1 (*79*). Sequencing, alignment, and

quantitation metrics were obtained for FASTQ, BAM/SAM, and count files in Galaxy using

FastQC v0.11.3, Picard v1.128, Samtools v1.2, and htseq-count v.0.4.1 (*80*). RNAseq data were

then processed using Tidyverse, Biomart, EdgeR and limma to generate relative expression values

(*81-84*). The raw RNA-seq data has been deposited to the Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) with

accession number GSE141933.

Pathway Analysis

Pathway analysis was performed using the Gene Set Enrichment Analysis Molecular Signature

Database or MSigDB v7.0 which uses the hypergeometric distribution on a background of all

genes to calculate a p-value (*58, 85, 86*).

Microscale Chromatin Immunoprecipitation Assay

 Assay was performed as described previously with few modifications ([87]). 100,000 naïve CD4$^+$

T-cells were cultured in T_{reg}^{low} and $T_{reg}^{low+DCA}$ conditions for 2 days and then harvested, washed

with ice cold PBS, fixed using 10% v/v of 11% formaldehyde (diluted from 36% stock in 50mM

HEPES pH 7.5, 100 mm NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 0.5 mM EGTA) for 10 minutes, quenched using 5%

v/v 2.5 M glycine for 5 minutes, washed twice with 1ml ice-cold PBS and lysed in 50 μl lysis

buffer (50mM Tris-HCL pH 8.0, 10 mM EDTA, 1%SDS, 20mg/ml sodium butyrate)

supplemented with phenyl methane sulfonyl fluoride and protease inhibitor cocktail (Active

Motif, Carlsbad, CA). DNA was sheared by sonication (Biorupter, Diagenode, Denville, NJ) into

200-500 bp fragments. Chromatin was pre-cleared using 30 μl protein G agarose beads (Active

Motif) pre-blocked with BSA per manufacturer's instructions; beads were then removed by

centrifugation. Chromatin was diluted with equal volume PBS, 4 μl of anti-GATA3 or isotype

control (Cell Signaling Technologies, Danvers, MA) added and sample incubated at 4°C with end

over end rotation. Next, 30 μl of pre-blocked Protein G Agarose beads was added and sample

incubated for 4 hours at 4°C. Beads were then sequentially washed with 1 ml each low SDS lysis

buffer (50mM Tris-HCL pH 8.0, 10 mM EDTA, 0.1%SDS, 20mg/ml sodium butyrate), low salt

buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8, 1 mM EDTA, 50 mM NaCl), high salt buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl,

pH 8, 500 mM NaCl, 0.1% SDS, 0.5% Na-deoxycholate, 1% Nonidet-P40 and 1 mM EDTA) and

LiCl Buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8, 250 mM LiCl, 1 mM EDTA, 1% Nonidet-P40 and 0.5% Na-

deoxycholate) and 1 ml TE (10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8, 1 mM EDTA). Beads were transferred to

fresh tubes, centrifuged and chromatin was eluted by incubating in 100 μl elution buffer (50 mM

Tris-HCl, pH 8, 10 mM EDTA and 1% SDS) at 65°C with agitation. Chromatin was transferred

to fresh tubes and incubated with 2 μl RNase A (Qiagen, 20 mg/ml) and 6 μl 5M NaCL (Active

Motif) for 30 minutes at 37°C followed by 2 μl proteinase K (Active Motif, 0.2 mg/ml) at 65°C

for 2 hours. DNA was then purified by phenol/chloroform extraction and resuspended in nuclease

free water. Quantitative PCR was performed as described above. Primer sequences used were;

FOXP3 CNS2, Forward: 5'-GGACATCACCTACCACATCC-3' Reverse: 5'-

ACCACGGAGGAAGAGAAGAG-3'; β-Actin, Forward: 5'-TCCCCTCCTTTTGCGAAAA-3'

Reverse: 5'- CTCCCTCCTCCTCTTCCTCAA -3'

Statistical analyses

Statistical measures, including mean values, standard deviations, Student's t-tests, Mantel–Cox

tests, Mann–Whitney tests and one-way ANOVA tests, were performed using Graphpad Prism

software and R. Definitions of n = values are stated in each figure legend. Where appropriate,

unless otherwise stated, graphs display mean ± standard deviation.

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Figure legends

Fig. 1. DCA broadly regulates differentiation of murine and human T cells. (A-C) Effect of

DCA on murine naïve CD4$^+$ T cells cultured in (A) suboptimal pro-T$_{reg}$ or -Th2 conditions (T$_{reg}$^{low}

and Th2^{low} respectively), (B) near-optimal pro-Th1 or -Th17 conditions (Th1^{hi} and Th17^{hi}

respectively) or (C) neutral Th0 conditions (n = 4-12, x4 experiments). (D-E) Effect of DCA, all-

trans retinoic acid (ATRA) and rapamycin (RAPA) on number (D) and percent (E) of T$_{reg}$s

generated from murine (n = 9, x4 experiments) and human (n = 7-8, x3 experiments) naïve CD4$^+$

T cells cultured in T$_{reg}$^{low} conditions. (F) Effect of DCA on human naïve CD4$^+$ T cells cultured in

Th2^{low} conditions (n = 5, x2 experiments). Mann-Whitney (A-B), Kruskal-Wallis (C-E) and

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Fig. 2. DCA describes a unique chemical immunophenotype. (A) Dose-response curves

showing effect of DCA, harmine and HG-9-91-01 on murine CD4$^+$ T cells cultured in suboptimal

T$_{reg}$^{low}, Th2^{low}, Th1^{low} and Th17^{low} conditions (n = 3-5, x3-5 experiments). Fractional maximal

enhancement was determined by increase in percentage lineage-committed cells, relative to

maximal cytokine-driven enhancement as previously reported (7). (B) Naive murine CD4$^+$ T cell

cultures showing dose-response of the CDK8 inhibitors DCA and BRD-6989 on T$_{reg}$

differentiation (left) and culture cellularity (right) (n = 2, x2 experiments). Harmine (HAR) is

included for comparison. (C) Effect of CRISPR/Cas9-mediated deletion of CDK8, compared to

mock (no guide) control, on propensity of human CD4$^+$ T cells to differentiate into T$_{reg}$s (left) and

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FOXP3-regulated genes in murine CD4$^+$ T cells cultured for 2 days in T$_{reg}$^{low} conditions (n = 9, x3

experiments). (C) Effect of DCA on *Gata3* expression in murine (n = 3, x3 experiments) and

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lentivirus, on T$_{reg}$ differentiation in human CD4$^+$ T cells cultured in T$_{reg}$^{low} conditions (n = 12, x3

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FOXP3 CNS2 in human CD4$^+$ T cells, cultured for 2 days in T_{reg}^{low} conditions (n = 3, x3

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Notch intracellular domain (ICD), normalized to nuclear Lamin B1 levels, in murine and human

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YZ, DEL, IJM and ZSR provided reagents. AA and BK wrote the manuscript.

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available at the Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) accession number: GSE141933

Figures and Tables

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DCA   Harmine   HG 9-91-01

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