Selective metabolic redundancy of Gpi1 allows for specific inhibition of inflammatory Th17

cells

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Abstract

Targeting glycolysis has been considered therapeutically intractable owing to its essential

housekeeping role. However, the context-dependent requirement for individual glycolytic steps

has not been fully explored. We show that CRISPR-mediated targeting of glycolysis in T cells in

mice results in global loss of Th17 cells, whereas deficiency of the glycolytic enzyme glucose

phosphate isomerase (Gpi1) selectively eliminates inflammatory encephalitogenic and

colitogenic Th17 cells, without substantially affecting homeostatic microbiota-specific Th17

cells. In homeostatic Th17 cells, partial blockade of glycolysis upon *Gpi1* inactivation was

compensated by pentose phosphate pathway flux and increased mitochondrial respiration. In

contrast, inflammatory Th17 cells experience a hypoxic microenvironment known to limit

mitochondrial respiration, which is incompatible with loss of *Gpi1*. Our study suggests that

inhibiting glycolysis by targeting Gpi1 could be an effective therapeutic strategy with minimum

toxicity for Th17-mediated autoimmune diseases, and, more generally, that metabolic

redundancies can be exploited for selective targeting of disease processes.

Introduction

Cellular metabolism is a dynamic process that supports all aspects of the cell's activities. It is orchestrated by more than 2000 metabolic enzymes organized into pathways that are specialized for processing and producing distinct metabolites. Multiple metabolites are shared by different pathways, serving as nodes in a complex network with many redundant elements. A well-appreciated example of metabolic plasticity is the generation of ATP by either glycolysis or by mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS), making the two processes partially redundant despite having many other non-redundant functions. Here, we explore metabolic plasticity in the context of T cell function and microenvironment, and the consequence of limiting that plasticity by inhibiting specific metabolic enzymes.

Th17 cells are a subset of CD4$^+$ T cells whose differentiation is governed by the transcription factor RORγt, which regulates the expression of the signature cytokines IL-17A and IL-17F (Ivanov et al., 2006). Under homeostatic conditions, Th17 cells typically reside at mucosal surfaces where they provide protection from pathogenic bacteria and fungi and also regulate the composition of the microbiota (Kumar et al., 2016; Mao et al., 2018; Milner and Holland, 2013; O'Quinn et al., 2008; Okada et al., 2015; Puel et al., 2011). However, under conditions that favor inflammatory processes, due to environmental and/or genetic factors, Th17 cells can adopt a pro-inflammatory program that promotes autoimmune diseases, including inflammatory bowel disease (Hue et al., 2006; Kullberg et al., 2006), psoriasis (Piskin et al., 2006; Zheng et al., 2007), and diverse forms of arthritis (Hirota et al., 2007; Murphy et al., 2003; Nakae et al., 2003a; Nakae et al., 2003b). This program is dependent on IL-23 and is typically marked by the additional expression in T cells of T-bet and IFN-γ, with or without expression of IL-17A or IL-17F (Ahern et al., 2010; Cua et al., 2003; Hirota et al., 2011; Morrison et al., 2013). The Th17

pathway has been targeted with neutralizing antibodies specific for IL-17A and IL-23 to

effectively treat psoriasis and some forms of arthritis, but these therapies inevitably expose

patients to potential fungal and bacterial infections, as they also inhibit homeostatic Th17 cell

functions. In this study, we aimed to identify genes and pathways that are required for the

function of inflammatory pathogenic Th17 cells, but are dispensable for homeostatic Th17 cells,

which may enable the selective therapeutic targeting of pathogenic Th17 cells.

T cell activation leads to extensive clonal expansion, demanding a large amount of energy

and biomass production. Such demand is fulfilled by enhanced metabolic activities, including

activation of pro-growth signals, particularly Mammalian Target Of Rapamycin (mTOR)

(Delgoffe et al., 2009; Powell et al., 2012), and activation of glycolysis, the pentose phosphate

pathway (PPP), glutaminolysis, and lipid synthesis for anabolic reactions (Berod et al., 2014;

Fox et al., 2005; Gerriets and Rathmell, 2012; Johnson et al., 2018; Palmer et al., 2015; Patel and

Powell, 2017; Shi et al., 2011). Glycolysis is central both in generating ATP and providing

building blocks for macromolecular biosynthesis. Glycolysis catabolizes glucose into pyruvate

through ten enzymatic reactions. In normoxic environments, pyruvate is typically transported

into the mitochondria to be processed by OXPHOS for ATP production. In hypoxic

environments, OXPHOS is suppressed and glycolysis is enhanced, generating lactate from

pyruvate in order to regenerate nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD^+) needed to support

ongoing glycolytic flux (Birsoy et al., 2015; Semenza, 2014; Sullivan et al., 2015). In highly

proliferating cells, such as cancer cells and activated T cells, pyruvate can be converted into

lactate in the presence of oxygen, a phenomenon termed aerobic glycolysis, or the "Warburg

effect" (MacIver et al., 2013; Vander Heiden et al., 2009; Warburg et al., 1958). Although

inhibiting glycolysis is an effective method of blocking T cell activation *in vitro* (Shi et al.,

2011), inhibition *in vivo*, for example with 2-Deoxy-D-glucose (2DG), has limited application in

patients, due to toxic side effects as a result of the housekeeping function of glycolysis in

multiple cell types (Raez et al., 2013).

Here, we systematically interrogate the requirement for individual glycolytic reactions in

Th17 cell models of inflammation and homeostatic function. We found that the glycolysis gene

Gpi1 is unique in that it is selectively required by inflammatory pathogenic Th17 but not

homeostatic Th17 cells. All other tested glycolysis genes were essential for functions of both

Th17 cell types. Our mechanistic study revealed that upon Gpi1 loss during homeostasis, Pentose

Phosphate Pathway (PPP) activity was sufficient to maintain basal glycolytic flux for biomass

generation, while increased mitochondrial respiration compensated for reduced glycolytic flux.

In contrast, Th17 cells in the inflammation models are confined to hypoxic environments and

hence were unable to increase respiration to compensate for reduced glycolytic flux. This

metabolic stress led to the selective elimination of Gpi1-deficient Th17 cells in inflammatory

settings but not in healthy intestinal lamina propria. Overall, our study reveals a context-

dependent metabolic requirement that can be targeted to eliminate pathogenic Th17 cells. As

Gpi1 blockade can be better tolerated than inhibition of other glycolysis components, it is a

potentially attractive target for clinical use.

Results

Inflammatory Th17 cells have higher expression of glycolysis pathway genes than

commensal bacteria-induced homeostatic Th17 cells

Commensal SFB induce the generation of homeostatic Th17 cells in the small intestine lamina

propria (SILP) (Ivanov et al., 2009), whereas immunization with myelin oligodendrocyte

glycoprotein peptide (MOG) in complete Freund's adjuvant (CFA) induces pathogenic Th17

cells in the spinal cord (SC), resulting in experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis (EAE)

(Cua et al., 2003). Th17 cell pathogenicity requires expression of IL-23R (Ahern et al., 2010;

McGeachy et al., 2009). To identify genes involved in the pathogenic but not the homeostatic

Th17 cell program, we reconstituted Rag1$^{-/-}$ mice with isotype-marked $Il23r$-sufficient

($Il23r^{GFP/+}$) and $Il23r$ knockout ($Il23r^{GFP/GFP}$) bone marrow cells, and sorted CD4$^+$ T cells of both

genetic backgrounds from the SILP of SFB-colonized mice and the SC of EAE mice for single

cell RNA sequencing (scRNAseq) analysis (Figure S1A, described in detail in Methods). We

identified 4 clusters of CD4$^+$ T cells in the SC of EAE mice and 5 clusters of CD4$^+$ T cells in

ileum lamina propria of SFB-colonized mice (Figure S1B,C)). Clusters were annotated based on

their signature genes, i.e. Th17 cells ($Il17a$), Th1 cells ($Ifng$), Treg cells ($Foxp3$), and Tcf7$^+$ cells

($Tcf7$) (Figure S1D,E). Importantly, two of the EAE clusters consist mostly of Il-23R-sufficient

T cells (Figure S1G,H), indicating that these populations are likely pathogenic. One of them was

annotated as Th17 and the other as Th1* according to earlier publications describing such cells

as $Il23r$-dependent IFN-γ producers (Okada et al., 2015), and they were validated using flow

cytometry (Figure S1I). Importantly, pathway enrichment analysis revealed glycolysis as the top

pathway upregulated in both EAE Th17 and Th1* compared to the SFB-induced Th17 cells

(Figures S1J,K).

We selected a subset of genes that were differentially expressed in the pathogenic Th17/Th1*

cells (EAE model) versus the homeostatic Th17 cells (SFB model) for pilot functional studies

(Figures S1L,M). We developed a CRISPR- based T cell transfer EAE system to evaluate the

roles of the selected genes in pathogenicity (Figures S2A-C; see Methods). Among 12 genes

tested, only triosephosphate isomerase 1 (*Tpi1*), encoding an enzyme in the glycolysis pathway,

was required for disease onset following transfer of in vitro differentiated MOG-specific 2D2

TCR transgenic T cells (Figure S2D). This result was confirmed by analyzing *Tpi1$^{f/f}$Cd4^{cre}* mice,

which, unlike Tpi1$^{+/+}$ CD4^{cre} littermates, were completely resistant to EAE induction (Figure

1A). This finding prompted us to direct our focus on the glycolysis pathway. The relatively

sparse scRNAseq data detected the transcripts of only a few glycolysis pathway genes. We

therefore compared bulk RNAseq data of the two major pathogenic populations (Th1*: Klrc1$^+$

Foxp3^{RFP-}, Th17: IL17a^{GFP+} Klrc1$^-$ Foxp3^{RFP-}) and the Treg cells (Foxp3^{RFP+} IL17a^{GFP-}) from the

spinal cord of EAE model mice to data from the Th17 (IL17a^{GFP+} Foxp3^{RFP-}) and Treg (IL17a^{GFP-}

Foxp3^{RFP+}) cells from the SILP of the SFB model (Figures S2E, F). We found that almost every

glycolysis pathway gene was expressed at a higher level in the EAE model than in the SILP

CD4$^+$ T cells, irrespective of whether cells were pathogenic or Treg (Figure 1B), suggesting that

most CD4$^+$ T cells have more active glycoysis in the inflamed spinal cord microenvironment

than in the SILP at homeostasis.

Despite these differences in gene expression, Tpi1 was also indispensable for the SFB-

dependent induction of homeostatic Th17 cells. We analyzed CD4$^+$ T cell profiles in chimeric

Rag1 KO mice reconstituted with a 1:1 mix of bone marrow cells from *Tpi1$^{+/+}$CD4^{cre}* CD45.1/2

and *Tpi1$^{f/f}$CD4^{cre}* CD45.2/2 donors (Figure S3A). Tpi1 deficiency led to 33-fold reduction of

total CD4$^+$ T cells in the SILP and to 1.4-fold and 1.7-fold reduction in the mLN and the

peripheral blood, respectively (Figure 1D). Moreover, RORγt, Foxp3, IL-17a, and IFN-γ were all

severely reduced in mutant T cells relative to the WT cells in the SILP and mLN (Figures

S3A,B). The same pattern was observed in the EAE model, using mixed bone marrow chimeric

mice (Figures 1E, and S3C), indicating that Tpi1 is required for the differentiation of all CD4$^+$ T

cell subsets.

Gpi1 is selectively required by inflammatory but not homeostatic Th17 cells

The higher glycolytic activity of the inflammatory Th17 cells suggested that they may be more

sensitive than the homeostatic Th17 cells to inhibition of glycolysis. However, neither cell type

is likely to survive a complete block in glycolysis (as achieved by Gapdh knockout). Inhibition

of several glycolysis genes (Tpi1, Gpi1, Ldha, explained in figure S4A) may result in

attenuation rather than complete blockade of the pathway. We therefore tested whether

deficiency of additional glycolysis pathway genes would selectively impair Th17 cells in

inflammatory conditions. To do so, we assessed the ability of co-tranferred control and targeted

TCR transgenic T cells to differentiate into Th17 cells in models of homeostasis (7B8 T cells in

SFB-colonized mice (Yang et al., 2014)) and inflammatory disease (2D2 T cells for EAE

(Bettelli et al., 2003) and HH7.2 T cells for *Helicobacter*-dependent transfer colitis (Xu et al.,

2018)) (Figure 2A). The genes of interest (indicated in Figure S4A) or the control gene *Olfr2*

were inactivated by guide RNA electroporation of naïve isotype-marked CD4$^+$ TCR and Cas9

transgenic T cells (Platt et al., 2014), which were then transferred in equal numbers into recipient

mice (Figures 2A, S4B). Targeting was performed with sgRNAs that achieved the highest in

vitro knockout efficiency (~80-90%) (Figures S4C-E), which corresponded to the frequency of

targeted cells at 4 days after electroporation and transfer into mice, as assessed by targeting of

GFP (Figure S4B). This strategy also allowed for efficient double gene KO (Figure S4F).

We first evaluated this T cell transfer system with Tpi1 guide RNA electroporation, and

compared to the results with mixed bone marrow chimeras generated with control and *Tpi1*-

deficient progenitors. In both SFB and EAE T cell transfer experiments, there were roughly 9-

fold fewer *Tpi1*-targeted than co-transferred control Th17 cells in the SILP or the SC,

respectively (Figures 2B-D). The reduction in cell number was consistent with the *in vitro* KO

efficiency as shown by the immunoblot data (Figure S4C), suggesting that the majority of the

Tpi1 KO cells were eliminated in the total T cell pool, and that the remaining cells were likely

not targeted. This is supported by the finding of similar proportions of cells expressing RORγt

and IL-17a in control and Tpi1-targeted populations (Figures S5A-D), which was not observed in

the bone marrow-reconstituted mice (Figures S3B). Collectively, these results indicated that the

electroporation transfer system could be successfully used to evaluate T cell gene functions *in*

vivo.

Similar to the *Tpi1* KO, cells deficient for *Gapdh* were eliminated in all three models tested

(Figures 2B-E). Inactivation of *Ldha* resulted in loss of the cells in the EAE model, and a less

striking, but still substantial, cell number reduction in the homeostatic SFB model (Figures 2B-

E). In contrast, although *Gpi1* ablation reduced cell number by 75% in the inflammatory EAE

and colitis models, it had no significant effect on cell number in the homeostatic Th17 cell model

(Figures 2B-E). Consistent with the reduction in cell number, *Gpi1*-mutant 2D2 cells were

unable to induce EAE (Figure 2F), suggesting that Gpi1 is essential for pathogenicity. We also

investigated Th17 cell differentiation and cytokine production by *Gpi1*-deficient cells in the SFB

model, and found no difference from co-transferred control cells in terms of RORγt/Foxp3

expression (Figures 2G) or IL-17a production, as demonstrated using 7B8 cells from mice bred

to the *Il17a*$^{GFP/+}$ reporter strain (Fig. 2H). This suggests that SFB-specific T cell differentiation

and cytokine production are not affected by Gpi1 deficiency.

Because of the very small number of 7B8 cells that could be isolated from the SILP in the

mixed chimera experiments, we were unable to confirm loss of Gpi1 by immunoblotting, but

there was consistent reduction of IL-17a in *Gpi1*-targeted 7B8 cells isolated from the SILP and

re-stimulated in vitro. A similar phenotype was observed for *Ldha* KO 7B8 cells (Figures

S5C,D), but not in *Olfr2* targeted cells. While the reduced cytokine production observed in the *in*

vitro restimulation assay supports the maintainence of Gpi1-deficient cells in the SILP, it is not

necessarily contradictory to our previous claim that Gpi1-deficient 7B8 cells produce normal

amounts of IL-17a, as *in vitro* restimulation was conducted in an artificial microenvironment

with strong stimuli, wheareas *Il17a*$^{GFP/+}$ reporter cells report the true cytokine production in real

physiological conditions. Collectively, these data suggest that Gpi1 is selectively required by the

inflammatory encephalitogenic and colitogenic Th17 cells, but not by homeostatic SFB-induced

Th17 cells, which differentiated in normal numbers and expressed similar amounts of cytokine as

control cells. In contrast, Gapdh, Tpi1 and Ldha are required for the accumulation of both types

of Th17 cells.

PPP compensates for Gpi1 deficiency in the homeostatic SFB model

To explain why Gpi1 is unique in selectively impacting the homeostatic SFB model, we

hypothesized that the PPP shunt might maintain some glycolytic activity in the *Gpi1* KO cells

and thus compensate for Gpi1 deficiency. To determine if metabolites are shunted through the

PPP and subsequently re-enter glycolysis upon loss of Gpi1, we performed an *in vitro* isotope

tracing experiment. *In vitro* differentiation of Th17 cells can be achieved with combinations of

IL-6 and TGF-β, which gives rise to cells lacking EAE pathogenic potential (non-pathogenic

Th17, npTh17) (Veldhoen et al., 2006), or IL-6, IL-1β, and IL-23, which mimics the cytokine

requirement for *in vivo* Th17 cell pathogenicity and programs cells with inflammatory activity

(pathogenic Th17, pTh17) (Ghoreschi et al., 2010). Irrespective of the conditions used, *in vitro*

differentiated Th17 cells displayed less of a growth defect (25% reduction compared to control

Olfr2 sgRNA) following targeting of *Gpi1* than upon inactivation of *Gapdh* (70% reduction)

(Figure 3A). This result resembles the different sensitivities observed in the homeostatic SFB

model, suggesting that the cytokine milieu of the pathogenic and homeostatic Th17 cells does

not account for the phenotypes of the *Gpi1* mutant mice. We incubated np/p Th17 cells with

$^{13}C_{1,2}$-glucose and analyzed downstream ^{13}C label incorporation. The $^{13}C_{1,2}$-glucose tracer is

catabolized through glycolysis via Gpi1, producing pyruvate or lactate containing two heavy

carbons (M2), while Gpi1-independent shunting through the PPP produces pyruvate and lactate

containing one heavy carbon (M1) (Figure 3B) (Lee et al., 1998). Consistent with our hypothesis,

we observed ~ 3-fold increase in relative PPP activity in the *Gpi1* KO Th17 cells compared to

that in the *Olfr2* KO control, irrespective of npTh17 or pTh17 condition (Figure 3C), indicating

that *Gpi1* deficiency maintains active glycolytic flux through PPP shunting.

To test whether PPP activity compensates for Gpi1 deficiency *in vivo* in the homeostatic SFB

model, we knocked out both *Gpi1* and *G6pdx*, which catalyzes the initial oxidative step in the

PPP, with the CRISPR-electroporation transfer system. Combined deletion of these two genes

would be expected to block both glycolysis and the PPP, similar to *Gapdh* KO. Consistent with

this hypothesis, the *Gpi1/G6pdx* double KO reduced cell number by about 75%, as compared to

the co-transferred *Olfr2* KO control cells. This result is in line with our finding that more than

60% of cells targeted at two loci have loss of both gene products (Figure S4F). Reduction in the

SFB-specific T cells was also significantly different from that observed with inactivation of

either *Gpi1* or *G6pdx* alone, but was similar to that with the *Gapdh* single KO (Figure 3D).

These results suggest that *in vivo* PPP activity maintains viability of the homeostatic SFB-

induced Th17 cells lacking Gpi1.

Increased mitochondrial respiration additionally compensates for Gpi1 deficiency in the

homeostatic SFB model

To determine the impact of Gpi1 deficiency on aerobic glycolysis activity, we quantified lactate

production by GC-MS and found it to be markedly reduced in *Gpi1* KO cells (Figure 4A). A

significant reduction in lactate production may suggest compromised ATP production in *Gpi1*

KO cells. As *in vitro* cultured *Gpi1* KO Th17 cells and homeostatic SFB-specific *Gpi1* KO Th17

cells were largely unaffected in terms of cell number and cytokine production, we speculate that

there could be an alternative pathway enabling Gpi1-deficient cells to compensate for loss of

glycolytic ATP production. We therefore hypothesized that mitochondrial respiration may

provide an alternative source of ATP, and measured the oxygen consumption rate (OCR) of *in*

vitro cultured *Olfr2* KO control and *Gpi1* KO Th17 cells. Irrespective of npTh17 or pTh17 cell

culture condition, there was a significant increase in the ATP-linked respiration rate in *Gpi1* KO

compared to *Olfr2* KO control cells (Figures 4B,C)). This suggests that the mitochondria of *Gpi1*

KO cells increase their respiration to compensate for the reduction in glycolysis. To evaluate the

function of increased respiration with Gpi1 deficiency, we suppressed mitochondrial respiration

by treating *in vitro*-cultured Th17 cells with the complex III inhibitor antimycin A. Upon

antimycin A treatment, *Gpi1* KO cells were decreased in cell number, similar to *Gapdh*-deficient

cells (Figure 4D), consistent with increased mitochondrial respiration compensating for Gpi1

deficiency in the *in vitro* cell culture system.

To determine whether increased respiration rescues Gpi1 deficiency *in vivo* in the

homeostatic SFB model, we targeted *Gpi1* in 7B8 T cells along with genes responsible for the

oxidation of three major substrates feeding the TCA cycle: *Pdha1* (pyruvate), *Gls1* (glutamine),

and *Hadhb* (fatty acids). Following co-transfer of control cells and cells lacking either Gpi1 or

the mitochondrial enzymes, there was no defect in Th17 cell number, RORγt expression, or

cytokine production (data not shown). However, inactivation of both *Gpi1* and *PdhA1* led to a

significant reduction in cell number, similar to that with the *Gapdh* KO cells (Figure 4E),

suggesting that TCA cycle oxidation of pyruvate compensates for Gpi1 deficiency in

homeostatic Th17 cell differentiation induced by SFB colonization.

PPP utilization favors biosynthetic metabolite synthesis in Gpi1-deficient cells

Compensation for *Gpi1* deletion by the PPP and mitochondrial respiration suggests the existence

of a partial metabolic redundancy for Gpi1. To understand the compensatory mechanism, we

performed kinetic flux profiling, employing GC-MS to measure the passage of isotope label from

$^{13}C_6$-glucose into downstream metabolites (Yuan et al., 2008). The resulting kinetic data, along

with metabolite abundance, was used to quantify metabolic flux in npTh17 cells prepared from

Gpi1 KO, *Olfr2* KO and cells treated with koningic acid (KA), to inhibit Gapdh (Liberti et al.,

2017), since more than 50% of cells in the Gapdh KO culture were WT escapees (Figure S4C)).

Loss of Gpi1 resulted in reduction of glucose uptake (Figure 5A) and in substantially

decreased transmission of isotopic label to intracellular pyruvate and lactate, whose abundance

was reduced (Figures 5C,D,I). Interestingly, a lower lactate production/glucose consumption

ratio was observed in *Gpi1* KO than control cells (Figure 5B), suggesting that Gpi1-deficient

cells may be more inclined to use glucose carbons for the synthesis of biosynthetic metabolites,

rather than lactate production. Indeed, the labeling rate and total abundance of the biosynthetic

metabolites alanine, serine, glycine, and citrate either did not change or were slightly increased

in the *Gpi1* KO cells (Figures 5E-I). The flux of pyruvate, lactate, alanine, serine, and glycine in

the Gpi1-deficient cells, as compared to *Olfr2* KO control (Figure 5J), was consistent with the

PPP supporting the branching pathways of glycolysis important for biosynthetic metabolite

production, despite a reduced glycolysis rate.

In contrast, Gapdh inhibition by KA treatment almost completely prevented the synthesis of

downstream metabolites (Figures 5C-H). As expected, lactate production was substantially

reduced, as shown by an extremely low extracellular acidification rate (ECAR) (Figure 5K).

However, unlike the increased mitochondrial activity observed in *Gpi1* KO cells, OCR was not

increased upon KA treatment (Figures 5K,L). This effect may be due to the fact that pyruvate

oxidation is important for the increased respiration observed in Gpi1-deficient cells and pyruvate

production is severely limited in *Gapdh*-deficient cells. Therefore, only basal mitochondrial

respiration can be maintained when Gapdh is inhibited.

Taken together, we conclude that the reduced amount of glucose metabolized via the PPP by

Gpi1-deficient cells was sufficient to support the production of glycolytic intermediates and

maintain pyruvate oxidation. *Gpi1*-deficient cells increased their mitochondrial respiration to

compensate for the loss of glycolytic flux. In contrast, glycolytic blockade by Gapdh inhibition

completely prevented carbon flux needed for key biosynthetic metabolites, which is incompatible

with cell viability.

Gpi1 is essential in the hypoxic setting of Th17-mediated inflammation

To understand why inflammatory Th17 cells are particularly sensitive to Gpi1 deficiency, we

reasoned that metabolic compensation (either through PPP or mitochondrial respiration) upon

Gpi1 loss in the homeostatic model is restricted in inflammatory Th17 cells. To address this, we

knocked out *G6pdx* in the EAE model, and observed a 70% reduction in 2D2 cell number in the

spinal cord (Figures S6A,B), suggesting that PPP flux is required in the setting of inflammation.

We therefore sought to understand whether mitochondrial activity is restrained in the

inflammatory Th17 cells. Notably, there are a number of reports showing that inflamed tissues,

including the spinal cord in EAE and the LILP in colitis, are associated with low oxygenation

(hypoxia) (Davies et al., 2013; Johnson et al., 2016; Karhausen et al., 2004; Naughton et al.,

1993; Ng et al., 2010; Peters et al., 2004; Van Welden et al., 2017; Yang and Dunn, 2015). As

ATP production by respiration requires oxygen as the terminal electron acceptor, we

hypothesized that the inflamed spinal cord and LILP are hypoxic to an extent that limits oxygen

for mitochondrial respiration. This hypoxia would result in an inability to provide sufficient ATP

to compensate for energy loss due to Gpi1 deficiency. To test this hypothesis, we cultured Th17

cells in normoxic (20% O_2) and mild hypoxic (3% O_2) conditions, and found that *Gpi1* KO Th17

cells in the hypoxic state, irrespective of npTh17 or pTh17 differentiation protocols, displayed a

growth defect similar to that occurring with Gapdh deficiency (Figure 6A). This result suggests

that hypoxia abrogates the compensation from mitochondrial respiration in Gpi1 deficiency.

We next investigated whether the inflamed tissue in the EAE model differs from the

homeostatic tissue in the SFB model with regard to oxygen availability. To address this, we

performed I.V. injection of pimonidazole, an indicator of O_2 levels, into mice with EAE or with

SFB colonization, and found that Th17 cells in the EAE model spinal cord had two-fold higher

pimonidazole staining than in the dLN and ~2.7-fold compared to SFB-induced Th17 cells in

SILP and mLN (Figure 6B). This result suggests that Th17 cells in the spinal cord of the EAE

model experience greater oxygen deprivation than in other tissues examined, including the dLN

in the same mice. The increased labeling in the spinal cord was observed in all subsets of $CD4^+$

T cells (Figures S6C,D), indicating that decreased oxygen availability is likely a tissue feature.

Hif1α is an oxygen sensor that is stabilized and activated when cells have limited oxygen

availability. Stabilization of Hif1α initiates transcription of its target genes, including glycolysis

genes, to allow cells to adapt in poorly oxygenated tissue (Semenza, 2003). To further examine

sensitivity to hypoxia in the setting of inflammation, we investigated the effect of *Hif1a*

deficiency in the different models of $CD4^+$ T cell differentiation. Using chimeric *Rag1* KO mice

reconstituted with equal numbers of *Hif1a$^{+/+}$CD4^{cre}* and *Hif1a$^{f/f}$CD4^{cre}* bone marrow cells, there

was ~ 40% reduction of Hif1α-deficient $CD4^+$ T cells in the spinal cord of mice with EAE, but

little difference in the SILP (Figures 6C-E), based on the basal WT/KO total $CD4^+$ T cell number

ratio in the peripheral blood before SFB colonization or EAE induction. Furthermore, in the

SILP of SFB-colonized mice, there was no significant difference in RORγt and Foxp3 expression

or IL-17a and IFN-γ production between WT and KO $CD4^+$ T cells (Figures S6E,F). In contrast,

in the spinal cord of the EAE mice, there was a slight decrease in the Th17 cell fractions and

increase in the Foxp3$^+$ fraction in the *Hif1a* KO compared to WT $CD4^+$ T cells (Figures S6E, F).

Overall, these data suggest that Hif1α is functionally important for the pathogenic Th17 cells (as

well as Treg cells) in the EAE model, but not for homeostatic SILP Th17 cells.

To address when and how Gpi1 deficiency impairs inflammatory Th17 cell differentiation

and/or function, we performed a time course experiment to assess the kinetics of the co-

transferred *Olfr2* KO control and *Gpi1* KO 2D2 cells in the EAE model. *Gpi1* KO T cells, like

Olfr2 KO control cells, were maintained in the dLN until day 13, the last time point when

transferred 2D2 cells were still detectable in the dLN (Figure 6E). However, at 13 days post

immunization, *Gpi1* mutant cell number was reduced by 50% compared to control T cells in the

spinal cord (Figure 6E). This finding is consistent with the previous observation that the spinal

cord, but not the dLN, is hypoxic. Accordingly, we observed reduced proliferation of *Gpi1* KO

2D2 cells in the spinal cord but not in the dLN (Figures 6F and S6G). Importantly, 2D2 cells in

the dLN of EAE proliferated at a markedly faster rate than 7B8 cells in the mLN of the SFB

model (Figures S6H,I). This demonstrates that Gpi1-deficient 2D2 cells can maintain the higher

demand for energy and biomass associated with rapid proliferation and emphasizes the role of

the SC hypoxic environment in the T cell's dependence on Gpi1. We also examined apoptotis,

by staining for the active form of caspase 3, and potential for migration, by staining for Ccr6, and

observed no differences between *Gpi1*-deficient and co-transferred *Olfr2* KO control 2D2 T cells

(Figures S6J-L). We conclude that the hypoxic environment in the EAE spinal cord impairs

mitochondrial respiration, an essential feature for the proliferation and differentiation of Gpi1-

deficient T cells. In addition, the results further suggest that T cells overcome the hypoxic

environment in the inflamed spinal cord by up-regulating glycolysis, whereas in the homeostatic

setting in the SILP they can tolerate reduced glycolytic flux due to higher oxygen levels

supporting OXPHOS.

375
376

Discussion

Our results demonstrate that *Gpi1*, a glycolysis gene, is selectively required by pathogenic

inflammatory Th17 cells but not by homeostatic Th17 cells. We found in both EAE and colitis

models that Gpi1 deficiency resulted in the elimination of pathogenic T cells, as observed upon

inactivation of other glycolysis genes (*Gapdh, Tpi1, Ldha*). However, for homeostatic SFB-

specific T cells, *Gpi1* deficiency neither significantly reduced 7B8 cell number, nor impaired

their differentiation and IL-17a production, whereas *Gapdh*, *Tpi1*, and *Ldha* mutations resulted

in loss of the T cells. Mechanistically, we found that in the homeostatic condition, while *Gapdh*

mutation completely blocked flux to distal steps of glycolysis, shunting of carbon through the

PPP enabled Gpi-deficient cells to maintain levels of glycolytic intermediates needed for

pyruvate oxidation in the TCA cycle and branching pathways that support biomass production.

Thus, inactivation of *Gpi1* in the context of the homeostatic model does not impact cell number

and cytokine production. In the inflammatory environment, we found that cells are exposed to

hypoxia, and as a result cannot increase mitochondrial respiration to compensate for Gpi1

deficiency, leading to reduced proliferation and cellularity in the inflammatory tissues. We

therefore conclude that *Gpi1* is redundant for the function of homeostatic Th17 cells, but

essential in inflammatory Th17 cells. Such selective redundancy suggests not only that Gpi1 can

be used as a drug target for hypoxia-related autoimmune diseases, but also that suppressing

glycolysis by Gpi1 inhibition could be well tolerated.

Glycolysis in CD4$^+$ T cell activation and differentiation

We found that CD4$^+$ T cells (pathogenic or Treg) in the EAE model had greater expression of

glycolytic genes than homeostatic CD4$^+$ T cells, which is consistent with the recent

demonstration that *Citrobacter*-induced inflammatory Th17 cells were more glycolytic than

SFB-induced homeostatic Th17 cells (Omenetti et al., 2019). Our data suggest that T cells adapt

to the hypoxic environment in the inflamed spinal cord by up-regulating glycolysis, most likely

by hypoxia-stabilized Hif1α.

In spite of the difference in glycolytic activity, our *in vivo* genetic data show that blockade of

glycolysis is incompatible with Th17 cell activation in either homeostatic or inflammatory

models, as *Gapdh* deficiency completely eliminated cells in both models. However, the finding

that Gpi1-deficient 2D2 cells proliferated normally in the dLN of the EAE model suggests that T

cell activation and differentiation *in vivo* do not necessarily need a fully functional glycolytic

pathway. With PPP providing sufficient metabolites for biomass production and mitochondria

generating greater amounts of ATP, T cell proliferation and execution of the non-pathogenic

Th17 program *in vivo* can be largely maintained in the *Gpi1* KO cells. Our data highlight the

complexity of the glycolysis pathway and suggest that not every gene is equally important to

glycolytic activity and cell function.

Treg cell differentiation has been proposed to depend on OXPHOS (Kullberg et al., 2006;

MacIver et al., 2013; Michalek et al., 2011), and was promoted by glycolysis inhibition *in vitro*

with 2DG (Shi et al., 2011). Our *in vivo* genetic data however support an indispensable role of

glycolysis in Treg cell differentiation, as demonstrated by complete loss of the intestinal and SC

Foxp3^{+} T cells in mice deficient for *Tpi1* in T cells. In addition, *in vitro* T cell differentiation

experiments showed no difference between Treg cells and other effector CD4^{+} T cells in

response to loss of *Gapdh, Gpi1, Ldha*, or *Tpi1*, in terms of cell number and transcription factor

expression (data not shown). These data thus suggest that, at the very least, the glycolysis gene

Tpi1 is also essential for iTreg cell differentiation and proliferation.

Gpi1 as a drug target for hypoxia-related diseases

Our study reveals that Gpi1 may be a good drug target for Th17-mediated autoimmune diseases.

The sensitivity to Gpi1 deficiency is dependent on whether cells are competent to increase

mitochondrial respiration. Therefore, other disease processes involving hypoxia-related

pathologies may also be susceptible to Gpi1 inhibition. A recent report showed that 1% O_2

almost completely inhibited *in vitro* growth of *Gpi1*-mutant tumor cell lines, but the proliferation

defect was much milder when cells were cultured in normoxic condition (de Padua et al.,

2017).This suggests that hypoxia-mediated sensitivity to Gpi1 deficiency can be a general

phenomenon, from Th17 cells to tumor cells, which may extend the deployment of Gpi1

inhibition to a broader range of diseases.

Hif1α has been extensively investigated as a drug target in many hypoxia-related pathologies

(Bhattarai et al., 2018). As sensitivity to inhibition of both Hif1α and Gpi1 is dependent on

oxygen availability, it is of great interest to compare phenotypes of *Hif1a* and *Gpi1* deficiencies

in inflammatory conditions. In the mixed bone marrow chimera experiments with the EAE

model, there was less than a 2-fold reduction in *Hif1a* mutant compared to wild-type spinal cord

CD4^{+} T cells, whereas *Gpi1*-targeted T cells were reduced 5-fold compared to wild-type cells in

the transfer model of EAE. *Hif1a* inactivation efficiency was almost complete (data not shown),

while *Gpi1* KO efficiency was roughly 80%, which suggests that Gpi1 deficiency resulted in a

more severe defect than *Hif1a* deficiency when the T cells were in a hypoxic environment. This

is not unexpected, as Gpi1 itself participates in the glycolysis pathway while Hif1α regulates the

transcription of genes in the pathway. Although EAE was attenuated following *Hif1a*

inactivation in CD4^{+} T cells (Dang et al., 2011; Shi et al., 2011), our results suggest that Gpi1

inhibition may be at least as effective a means of blocking cell function in hypoxic

microenvironments.

Gpi1 is a targetable glycolysis gene

Glycolysis is a universal metabolic pathway whose blockade by inhibitors such as 2DG can yield

adverse side effects even at dosages too low to control tumor growth (Raez et al., 2013). 2DG

inhibits the first three steps of glycolysis, an effect on glycolysis that is recapitulated by Gapdh

inhibition, given that no alternative pathway exists for glucose to enter glycolysis. Although

glycolysis is essential for T cell activation, treating diseases caused by autoimmune T cells with

drugs that fully inhibit the pathway, e.g. 2DG or KA, would also likely be too toxic at potentially

efficacious dosages. In light of the results presented here, Gpi1 may represent a better drug target

than other glycolysis gene products for treating Th17 cell-mediated autoimmune diseases.

Targeting Gpi1 is conceptually different from general inhibition of glycolysis. Gapdh inhibition

and treatment with 2DG are based on the theory that tumor cells or Th17 cells are more

glycolytic and hence more sensitive to glycolysis inhibition than healthy or non-inflammatory

cells. There is no consideration of compensation in such approach. However, there are multiple

cell types heavily reliant on glycolysis, including erythrocytes, neurons and muscle cells that

would be also affected by KA or 2DG, resulting in severe side effects. Gpi1 inhibition, by

contrast, allows for compensation in the biosynthesis of metabolites and ATP through both PPP

and mitochondrial respiration, thus allowing for reduced glycolytic flux in normoxic

environments inhabited by homeostatic SFB-induced Th17 cells. This fundamental difference

between Gpi1 inhibition and overall glycolysis pathway inhibition raises the possibility that Gpi1

inhibitor concentrations that are sufficiently high to effectively inhibit inflammatory Th17 cells

can be tolerated with minimal side effects.

This hypothesis is supported by genetic data obtained from patients with glycolysis gene

deficiencies. With few exceptions, patients deficient for *Tpi1* or *Pgk1* have combined symptoms

of anemia, mental retardation and muscle weakness [Online Mendelian Inheritance in Man

(OMIM) entry 190450, 311800] (Schneider, 2000). Mutations in glycolysis gene products that

have redundant isozymes can result in dysfunction of cell types in which only the mutated

isozyme gets expressed, such that *Pgam2* deficiency results in muscle breakdown and *Pklr*

deficiency causes anemia (Zanella et al., 2005).There have been no *Gapdh* deficiencies reported

thus far, suggesting that this enzyme may not even tolerate hypomorphic mutations. The human

genetic data are thus consistent with the prediction that inhibition of glycolysis enzymes would

result in serious side effects. However, the vast majority of patients with *Gpi1* mutations, which

can result in preservation of less than 20% enzymatic activity, have neglectable to severe anemia

that is treatable, with no neurological or muscle developmental defects (Baronciani et al., 1996;

Kanno et al., 1996; Kugler et al., 1998; McMullin, 1999; Zaidi et al., 2017) [Online Mendelian

Inheritance in Man (OMIM) entry 172400]. These clinical data indicate that neurons and muscle

cells can afford losing most of their Gpi1 activity even though they require glycolysis, and hence

they behave similarly to homeostatic Th17 cells. Collectively, these patient data strongly support

our proposal that Gpi1 can be a therapeutic target.

Selective metabolic redundancies permit selective cell inhibition

Metabolic redundancy has been demonstrated in many biological systems, from bacteria to

cancer cell lines (Bulcha et al., 2019; Deutscher et al., 2006; Horlbeck et al., 2018; Segre et al.,

2005; Thiele et al., 2005; Zhao et al., 2018). Our study demonstrates compensatory metabolic

pathways in CD4$^+$ T cells *in vivo*, and highlights that such redundancy can be selective,

depending on the cellular microenvironment. Indeed, specific inhibition of pathogenic cells can

be achieved by metabolic targeting of selective redundant components. Therefore,

characterization of the metabolic redundancy of cells in microenvironments with varying oxygen

level, pH, abundance of extracellular metabolites, redox status, cytokine milieu, or temperature,

may provide opportunities for metabolic targeting of cells in selected tissue microenvironments

for therapeutic purposes.

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designed, performed experiments, and analyzed the data. K.E.R.H. designed, performed the GC-

MS flux, tracing, and seahorse experiments, analyzed the data. Y.H. and R.S. analyzed the

scRNAseq data. L.K. analyzed the bulk RNAseq data. C.A., W.L., D.L., and H.M.S. helped with

mouse experiments. C.N. and W.L. helped with the development of the CRISPR/Cas9

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M.E.P., T.Y.P., and A.C.K. assisted with the analysis and interpretation of the metabolic data.

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D.R.L. supervised the work.

Declaration of Interests: D.R.L. consults and has equity interest in Chemocentryx, Vedanta,

and Pfizer Pharmaceuticals.

Figure legends

Figure 1. Encephalitogenic Th17 cells have higher glycolysis pathway gene expression than

homeostatic SFB-induced Th17 cells.

(A) Clinical disease course of MOG-CFA-induced EAE in $Tpi1^{f/f}Cd4^{cre}$ (n=7) and $Tpi1^{+/+}Cd4^{cre}$

littermate control mice (n=8). The experiment was repeated twice with the same

conclusion. P values were determined using two-way ANOVA, * (P<0.05), ****

(P<0.0001).

(B) Heatmap of glycolysis pathway genes expressed in spinal cord Th1*, Th17, and Treg cells in

mice with EAE (day 15, score 5) compared to Th17 and Treg cells in the SILP of SFB-

colonized mice. Genes are arranged according to the fold change between EAE Th17 and

SFB Th17.

(C) Experimental design of the Tpi1 bone marrow reconstitution experiment. Bone marrow cells

from $Tpi1^{+/+} Cd4^{cre}$ CD45.1/2 and $Tpi1^{f/f} Cd4^{cre}$ CD45.2/2 donor mice were transferred into

lethally irradiated CD45.1/1 recipients. Peripheral blood was collected two months later for

reconstitution analysis. dLN and SC of the EAE model, and mLN and SILP of the SFB

model were dissected at day 15 post EAE induction or SFB colonization.

(D,E) Cell number analysis of *Tpi1* WT and KO CD4$^+$ T cells in the SFB model (D) and the

EAE model (E). Left panels, representative FACS plots showing the frequencies of the

CD45.1/2 and the CD45.2/2 B cells among all B cells in peripheral blood and of the

CD45.1/2 and the CD45.2/2 CD4$^+$ T cells among all CD4$^+$ T cells in peripheral blood, mLN

or dLN, and SILP of SFB colonized mice or SC of EAE mice. Middle panels, compilation of

the cell number ratio of CD45.2/2 to CD45.1/2. Right, normalized KO/WT total CD4$^+$ T cell

number ratio in each tissue. The cell number ratio of peripheral B cells was set as 1. P values

were determined using paired t tests.

See also Figures S1,2,3.

Figure 2. Gpi1 is selectively required by inflammatory encephalitogenic or colitogenic Th17

cells, but not by homeostatic SFB-induced Th17 cells.

(A) Experimental setup. TCR transgenic Cas9-expressing naïve CD4$^+$ T cells were electroporated

with guide amplicons, and co-transferred with *Olfr2* amplicon-electroporated control cells

into recipient mice that were immunized for EAE induction (EAE model), or had been

colonized with SFB (SFB model) or *Helicobacter hepaticus* (Colitis model).

(B) Representative FACS plots showing the frequencies of *Olfr2* KO cells and the co-transferred

glycolytic gene KO cells among total CD4$^+$ T cells in each model.

(C-E) Compilation of cell number ratio of gene KO group to the co-transferred *Olfr2* control for

each model, as shown in panel B. The ratio was normalized to *Olfr2*/*Olfr2* co-transfer

(*Olfr2*/*Olfr2* cell number ratio was set to 1). Three independent experiments were performed

with the same conclusion.

(F) Clinical disease course of EAE in *Rag1* KO mice receiving *Olfr2* KO 2D2 cells or *Gpi1* KO

2D2 cells. Experiment was conducted as illustrated in Figure S2C. n=5 mice/group. The

experiment was repeated twice with the same conclusion.

(G) Left, representative FACS plot showing RORγt and Foxp3 expression of co-transferred

targeted 7B8 cells isolated from the SILP of recipient SFB-colonized mice at day15. Right,

ratio of the percentage of RORγt$^+$ Foxp3$^-$ in *Gpi1*- or *Olfr2*-targeted versus co-transferred

Olfr2 control cells in each recipient.

(H) Left, representative FACS histogram showing the overlay of IL17a-GFP expression of co-

transferred *Olfr2* KO and *Gpi1* KO 7B8 cells isolated from the SILP of SFB-colonized mice

at day15. Right, ratio of the percentage of IL-17a$^+$ cells in *Gpi1*- or *Olfr2*-targeted versus co-

transferred *Olfr2* control cells in each recipient.

P values were determined using t tests.

See also Figures S4,5.

Figure 3. PPP activity rescues *Gpi1* deficiency in the homeostatic SFB-induced Th17 cells

(A) Relative number of Th17 cells cultured for 120 h *in vitro*. Naïve Cas9-expressing CD4$^+$ T

cells were electroporated with corresponding guide-amplicons and cultured in both npTh17

condition and pTh17 condition. Cell number was normalized to *Olfr2* KO group (*Olfr2* cell

number was set as 100). N=3, data are representative of three independent experiments.

(B) Schematic of $^{13}C_{1,2}$-glucose labeling into downstream metabolites. ^{13}C is labeled as filled

circle. Catalytic reactions of PPP are labeled as red arrows, while those of glycolysis are in

black.

(C) Relative PPP activity of *in vitro* cultured Th17 cells. Relative PPP activity from $^{13}C_{1,2}$-

glucose was determined using the following equation: PPP= M1/ (M1+M2), where M1 is the

fraction of $^{13}C_{1,2}$-glucose derived from the PPP and M2 is the fraction of $^{13}C_{1,2}$-glucose

derived from glycolysis. Cells were cultured as in Panel A for 96 h, and medium was

changed to isotope-labelled RPMI for 24 h before cell pellets were collected for metabolite

extraction.

(D) 7B8 Cas9 transgenic naïve CD4^{+} T cells were electroporated with a mixture of two guide

amplicons (for double KO) before being transferred into recipient mice. Left, representative

FACS plots showing the frequencies of co-transferred *Olfr2/Olfr2* control CD4^{+} T cells and

the indicated gene KO CD4^{+} T cells in the SILP of the SFB model. Right, compilation of cell

number ratios of the indicated gene KO combinations to the co-transferred *Olfr2/Olfr2*

control. Two independent experiments were performed with same conclusion.

P values were determined using t tests.

Figure 4. Mitochondrial respiration compensates for Gpi1 deficiency in the homeostatic

SFB Th17 cells

(A) Lactate secretion of *in vitro* cultured *Olfr2* and *Gpi1* KO np/p Th17 cells. Cells were cultured

as in Figure 3A. At 96 h cells were re-plated in new wells with fresh RPMI medium with

10% dialyzed FCS, and supernatants were collected 12 h later for lactate quantification by

GC-MS.

(B) Seahorse experiment showing the oxygen consumption rate (OCR) of *in vitro* cultured Th17

cells at baseline and in response to oligomycin (Oligo), carbonyl cyanide 4-

(trifluoromethoxy) phenylhydrazone (FCCP), and rotenone plus antimycin (R + A). 10

replicates were used for the npTh17 *Olfr2* and *Gpi1* targeted cells, 7 replicates for the pTh17

Olfr2, and 6 replicates for the pTh17 *Gpi1* sets of targeted cells.

(C) ATP linked respiration rate quantified based on experiments in panel (B). Representative

data from three independent experiments.

(D) Relative number of Th17 cells cultured for 120 h *in vitro* (as in Figure 3A), in the presence or

absence of 10 nM antimycin A. Cell number was normalized to control (*Olfr2*-targeted cell

number was set as 100). n=3, data are representative of two independent experiments.

(E) 7B8 Cas9 naïve CD4$^+$ T cells were electroporated with a mixture of two guide amplicons (for

double KO) before transfer into recipient mice. Left, representative FACS plots showing the

frequencies of co-transferred *Olfr2/Olfr2* control and indicated gene KO CD4$^+$ T cells in the

SILP of the SFB model at day 15. Right, compilation of cell number ratios of glycolysis gene

KO group to the co-transferred *Olfr2/Olfr2* control. Three independent experiments were

performed with same conclusion.

P values were determined using t tests.

Figure 5. PPP supports normal biomass synthesis in the *Gpi1*-deficient npTh17 cells

Olfr2- or *Gpi1*-targeted npTh17 cells (cultured for 96 h as in Figure 3A) were collected for

further metabolic analysis.

(A, B) Cells were re-plated in U-^{13}C$_6$-glucose tracing medium to measure (A) glucose

consumption rate, and (B) ratio of released lactate to consumed glucose by LC-MS.

(C-H) Cells were re-plated in U-^{13}C$_6$-glucose tracing medium, and cell pellets were collected at

different time points to measure ^{13}C incorporation kinetics of pyruvate (C), lactate (D), serine

(E), glycine (F), alanine (G) and citrate (H) in *Olfr2* KO, *Gpi1* KO, or koningic acid (KA)-

treated npTh17 cells by GC-MS.

(I) Intracellular abundance of pyruvate, lactate, alanine, serine, glycine and citrate in targeted

npTh17 cells, as determined by GC-MS. Raw ion counts were normalized to extraction

efficiency and cell number. The abundance is shown relative to the *Olfr2* sample set as 100.

(J) Quantification of the production flux of serine, glycine, alanine, pyruvate and lactate based on

the ^{13}C incorporation kinetics and intracellular abundance of each metabolite. Three

replicates for each sample.

(K) OCR (top) and ECAR (bottom) of targeted or KA-treated npTh17 cells at baseline and in

response to oligomycin (Oligo), carbonyl cyanide 4-(trifluoromethoxy) phenylhydrazone

(FCCP), and rotenone plus antimycin (R + A). 10 replicates for each condition.

(L) ATP-linked respiration rate, quantified based on panel K. Data are representative of two

independent experiments.

P values were determined using t tests.

Figure 6. Hypoxia in the inflamed spinal cord of the EAE model restrains mitochondrial

respiration, leading to the elimination of Gpi1-deficient Th17 cells

(A) Relative number of gRNA-targeted Th17 cells cultured for 120 h *in vitro* in either normoxic

(20% O_2) or hypoxic (3% O_2) conditions. Cell number was normalized to *Olfr2* KO (*Olfr2*

cell number was set as 100).

(B) Representative FACS histogram showing pimonidazole labeling of total $CD4^+$ T cells

isolated from the SC and the dLN at day 15 after induction of EAE and from the SILP and

the mLN of SFB-colonized mice.

(C) Experimental design of the Hif1a bone marrow reconstitution experiment. *Rag1* KO mice

were lethally irradiated and reconstituted with equal numbers of bone marrow cells from

Hif1a^{+/+} Cd4^cre CD45.1/2 and *Hif1a*^{f/f} *Cd4*^cre CD45.1/1 donors. CD4$^+$ T cells were examined

2-months later in peripheral blood (PB), after which mice were either gavaged with SFB or

immunized for EAE induction, and CD4$^+$ T cells from SC or SILP from each model were

isolated at day15 for examination.

(D) Top, representative FACS plots showing the frequencies of *Hif1a^{+/+} Cd4*^cre and *Hif1a*^{f/f}*Cd4*^cre

CD4$^+$ T cells in the peripheral blood and the SILP or the SC of the SFB and the EAE models,

respectively. Bottom, compilation of the KO/WT total CD4$^+$ cell number ratio obtained in

the PB and the SILP or the SC of the SFB and EAE models. Two experiments were

performed with the same conclusion.

(E) Time-course of 2D2 cas9 co-transfer experiment. Left, representative FACS plot showing the

frequencies of the *Olfr2* control and the co-transferred *Olfr2* or *Gpi1* KO 2D2 cells in total

CD4$^+$ T cells isolated from the dLN or the SC at different time points of EAE. Right,

compilation of the KO/Olfr2 control cell number ratio in the dLN or the SC. Data are

representative of two independent experiments.

(F) EDU in vivo labeling of co-transferred 2D2 cells in the EAE model. Left, representative

FACS plots showing the frequencies of EDU$^+$ among co-transferred *Olfr2* control and *Gpi1*

KO 2D2 cells in the SC at the onset of EAE (day10). Middle, compilation of the percentage

EDU$^+$ cells in the *Olfr2* control and the *Gpi1* KO cells. Right, the *Gpi1* KO/*Olfr2* control

ratios of percentage EDU$^+$ cells. Two experiments were performed with the same conclusion.

P values were determined using t tests. Panel D, F, and Day13 dLN and SC comparison in panel

E were analyzed with paired t tests.

See also Figure S6.

STAR Methods

LEAD CONTACT AND MATERIALS AVAILABILITY

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be

fulfilled by the Lead Contact, Dan R. Littman (Dan.Littman@med.nyu.edu).

This study did not generate new unique reagents.

EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS

Mouse Strains

C57BL/6 mice were obtained from Taconic Farms or the Jackson Laboratory. All transgenic

animals were bred and maintained in the animal facility of the Skirball Institute (NYU School of

Medicine) in specific-pathogen-free (SPF) conditions. *Il-23r^{GFP}* mice (Awasthi et al., 2009) were

provided by M. Oukka. *S100a4* knockout mice (Li et al., 2010) were provided by Dr. Anne R.

Bresnick. *Cas9^{Tg}* mice (Platt et al., 2014) were obtained from Jackson Laboratory (JAX;

B6J.129(Cg)-Gt(ROSA)26Sortm1.1(CAG-cas9*,-EGFP)Fezh/J), and maintained on the Cd45.1

background (JAX; B6. SJL-Ptprca Pepcb/BoyJ). SFB-specific TCRTg (7B8) mice (Yang et al.,

2014), MOG-specific TCRTg (2D2) mice (Bettelli et al., 2003), and *Helicobacter hepaticus*-

specific TCRTg (HH7-2) mice (Xu et al., 2018) were previously described. They were crossed to

the Cas9^{Tg} Cd45.1/1 mice to generate 7B8 *Cas9^{Tg}*, 2D2 *Cas9^{Tg}*, and HH7-2 *Cas9^{Tg}* mice with

either Cd45.1/1 or Cd45.1/2 congenic markers. 7B8 Cas9 CD45.1/2 mice were further crossed

with *IL17a$^{GFP/GFP}$* reporter mice (JAX; C57BL/6-Il17atm1Bcgen/J) to generate 7B8 *Cas9*

IL17a$^{GFP/+}$ Cd45.1/2 or Cd45.2/2 mice. Female *Foxp3$^{RFP/RFP}$* reporter mice (Jax; C57BL/6-

Foxp3^{tm1Flv}/J) were crossed with male *IL17a$^{GFP/GFP}$* reporter mice to generate *IL17a$^{GFP/+}$*

Foxp3^{RFP} male mice for bulk RNAseq. *Hif1a$^{f/f}$* mice (Jax; B6.129-Hif1a^{tm3Rsjo}/J) were crossed

with *CD4^{cre}* mice (Jax; B6.Cg-Tg(Cd4-cre)1Cwi/BfluJ) and CD45.1/1 mice to generate *Hif1a$^{+/+}$*

CD4^{cre} CD45.1/1 and *Hif1a$^{f/f}$ CD4^{cre}* CD45.2/2 littermates. *Tpi1$^{f/+}$* mice generated by crossing

Tpi1$^{tm1a(EUCOMM)Wtsi}$ mice (Wellcome Trust Sanger Institute; B6Brd;B6N-Tyr^{c-Brd}

Tpi1$^{tm1a(EUCOMM)Wtsi}$/WtsiCnbc) with a FLP deleter strain (Jax; B6.129S4-

Gt(ROSA)26Sor$^{tm1(FLP1)Dym}$/RainJ) were further crossed with CD4^{cre} and CD45.1/1 strains to

generate *Tpi1$^{+/+}$Cd4^{cre}* and *Tpi1$^{f/f}$CD4^{cre}* mice with different congenic markers.

METHOD DETAILS

Flow cytometry

For transcription factor and cytokine staining of *ex vivo* cells, single cell suspensions were

incubated for 3h in RPMI with 10% FBS, phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA) (50 ng/ml;

Sigma), ionomycin (500 ng/ml;Sigma) and GolgiStop (BD). Cells were then resuspended with

surface-staining antibodies in HEPES-buffered HBSS. Staining was performed for 20-30 min on

ice. Surface-stained cells were washed and resuspended in live/dead fixable blue (ThermoFisher)

for 5 min prior to fixation. Cells were treated using the FoxP3 staining buffer set from

eBioscience according to the manufacturer's protocol. Intracellular stains were prepared in 1X

eBioscience permwash buffer containing anti-CD16/anti-CD32, normal mouse IgG, and normal

rat IgG Staining was performed for 30-60 min on ice.

For cytokine analysis of *in vitro* cultured Th17 cells, cells were incubated in the restimulation

buffer for 3 h. After surface and live/dead staining, cells were treated using the

Cytofix/Cytoperm buffer set from BD Biosciences according to the manufacturer's protocol.

Intracellular stains were prepared in BD permwash in the same manner used for transcription

factor staining. Flow cytometric analysis was performed on an LSR II (BD Biosciences) or an

Aria II (BD Biosciences) and analyzed using FlowJo software (Tree Star).

Retroviral transduction and 2D2 TCRtg Cas9^{Tg} T cell-mediated EAE

sgRNAs were designed using the Crispr guide design software (http://crispr.mit.edu/). sgRNA

encoding sequences were cloned into the retroviral sgRNA expression vector pSIN-U6-

sgRNAEF1as-Thy1.1-P2A-Neo that has been reported before (Ng et al., 2019). To make the

double sgRNA vector for experiments shown in Figures S2A-D, the sgRNA transcription

cassette, ranging from the U6 promoter to the U6 terminator, was amplified and cloned into the

pSIN vector after the first sgRNA encoding cassette. Retroviruses were packaged in PlatE cells

by transient transfection using TransIT 293 (Mirus Bio).

Tissue culture plates were coated with polyclonal goat anti-hamster IgG (MP Biomedicals) at

37 °C for at least 3 h and washed 3× with PBS before cell plating. FACS-sorted

CD4$^+$CD8$^-$CD25$^-$CD62L$^+$CD44^{low} naïve 2D2 TCRtg *Cas9^{Tg}* T cells were seeded for 24 h in T

cell medium (RPMI supplemented with 10% FCS, 2mM   -mercaptoethanol, 2mM

glutamine), along with anti-CD3 (BioXcell, clone 145-2C11, 0.25μg/ml) and anti-CD28

(BioXcell, clone 37.5.1, 1μg/ml) antibodies. Cells were then transduced with the pSIN virus

by spin infection at 1200 × g at 30 °C for 90 min in the presence of 10μg/ml polybrene

(Sigma). Viral supernatants were removed 12 h later and replaced with fresh medium

containing anti-CD3/anti-CD28, 20ng/ml IL-6 and 0.3ng/ml TGF-. Cells were lifted off 48 h

later and supplemented with IL-2 for another 48hours. Thy1.1^{high} cells were then sorted with

the ARIA and i.v. injected into *Rag1$^{-/-}$* mice (50k cells/mouse). Mice were then immunized

subcutaneously on day 0 with 100µg of MOG$_{35-55}$ peptide, emulsified in CFA (Complete

Freund's Adjuvant supplemented with 2mg/mL *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* H37Ra), and

injected i.p. with 200 ng pertussis toxin (Calbiochem). The EAE scoring system was as follows:

0-no disease, 1-Partially limp tail; 2-Paralyzed tail; 3-Hind limb paresis, uncoordinated

movement; 4-One hind limb paralyzed; 5-Both hind limbs paralyzed; 6-Hind limbs paralyzed,

weakness in forelimbs; 7-Hind limbs paralyzed, one forelimb paralyzed; 8-Hind limbs paralyzed,

both forelimbs paralyzed; 9-Moribund; 10-Death.

sgRNA guide amplicon electroporation of naïve CD4$^+$ T cells

sgRNA-encoding sequences were cloned into the pSIN vector (single sgRNA in one vector).

The sgRNA encoding cassette, ranging from the U6 promoter to the U6 terminator, was

amplified with 34 cycles of PCR with Phusion (NEB), and purified with Wizard SV Gel and

PCR Clean-up System (Promega), and concentrated with a standard ethanol DNA

precipitation protocol. Amplicons were resuspended in a small volume of H$_2$O and kept at -

80 °C until use. Amplicon concentration was measured with Qubit dsDNA HS assay kit

(Thermofisher)

The Amaxa P3 Primary Cell 4D-Nucleofector X kit was used for T cell electroporation. 2

million FACS-sorted naïve CD4$^+$ *Cas9^{Tg}* cells were pelleted and resuspended in 100ul P3

primary cell solution supplemented with 0.56ug sgRNA amplicon (for single gene knockout),

or equal amounts of sgRNA amplicons (0.56ug each for targeting two genes simultaneously in

Figures 3D, and 4E). Cell suspensions were transferred into a Nucleocuvette Vessel for

electroporation in the Nucleofector X unit, using program "T cell. Mouse. Unstim.". Cells

were then rested in 500 l mouse T cell nucleofector medium (Lonza) for 30 min before in

vitro culture or transfer into mice.

In vitro cell culture – 96 well flat-bottom tissue culture plates (Corning) were coated with

polyclonal goat anti-hamster IgG (MP Biomedicals) at 37 °C for at least 3 h and washed 3×

with PBS before cell plating. Electroporated cells were plated into each well containing 200ul

T cell culture medium (glucose-free RPMI (ThermoFisher) supplemented with 10% FCS

(Atlanta Biologicals), 4g/L glucose, 4mM glutamine, 50uM -mercaptoethanol, 0.25µg/ml

anti-CD3 (BioXcell, clone 145-2C11) and 1µg/ml anti-CD28 (BioXcell, clone 37.5.1)

antibodies). For npTh17 culture, 20ng/ml IL-6 and 0.3ng/ml TGF- were further added into

the T cell medium. For pTh17 cell culture, 20ng/ml IL-6, 20ng/ml IL-23, and 20ng/ml IL-1

were further added into the T cell medium. Cells were then cultured for 96 h or 120 h before

metabolic experiments or cell number counting/western/FACS profiling, respectively.

T cell transfer into mice – TCR transgenic $Cas9^{Tg}$ naïve CD4$^+$ T cells (7B8 TCRtg for SFB

model, 2D2 TCRtg for EAE model, and HH7-2 TCRtg for colitis model) with different

isotype markers were electroporated at the same time. Equal numbers of isotype-distinct

electroporated resting cells were mixed, pelleted and resuspended in dPBS supplemented with

1% filtered FBS before retro-orbital injection into recipient mice (100,000 cells in total for

each mouse). The transferred cells were isolated from SILP of the SFB model, SC of the EAE

model, and the LILP of the colitis model at day 15 post transfer, unless otherwise indicated.

SFB model

C57BL/6 mice were purchased from Jackson Laboratory and maintained in SFB-free SPF cages.

Fresh feces of SFB mono-colonized mice maintained in our gnotobiotic animal facility were

collected and frozen at -80 °C until use. Fecal pellets were meshed through a 100uM strainer

(Corning) in cold sterile dPBS (Hyclone). 300 l feces suspension, equal to the amount of 1/3

pellet, was administered to each mouse by oral gavage. Mice were inoculated one more time at 24

h. For the transfer experiment, electroporated cells were injected 96 h after the initial gavage.

Colitis model

H. hepaticus was provided by J. Fox (MIT) and grown on blood agar plates (TSA with 5% sheep

blood, Thermo Fisher) as previously described (Xu et al., 2018). Briefly, $Rag1^{-/-}$ mice were

colonized with *H. hepaticus* by oral gavage on days 0 and 4 of the experiment. At day 7,

electroporated naïve HH7-2 TCRtg $Cas9^{Tg}$ CD4$^+$ T cells were adoptively transferred into the *H.*

hepaticus-colonized recipients. In order to confirm *H. hepaticus* colonization, *H. hepaticus*-

specific 16S primers were used on DNA extracted from fecal pellets. Universal 16S were

quantified simultaneously to normalize *H. hepaticus* colonization of each sample.

EAE model

Right after the transfer of electroporated 2D2 $Cas9^{Tg}$ cells, mice were immunized subcutaneously

on day 0 with 100μg of MOG_{35-55} peptide, emulsified in CFA (Complete Freund's Adjuvant

supplemented with 2mg/mL Mycobacterium tuberculosis H37Ra), and injected i.p. on days 0

and 2 with 200 ng pertussis toxin (Calbiochem).

Isolation of lymphocytes from lamina propria, spinal cord, and lymph nodes

For isolating mononuclear cells from the lamina propria, the intestine (small and/or large) was

removed immediately after euthanasia, carefully stripped of mesenteric fat and Peyer's

patches/cecal patch, sliced longitudinally and vigorously washed in cold HEPES buffered

(25mM), divalent cation-free HBSS to remove all fecal traces. The tissue was cut into 1-inch

fragments and placed in a 50ml conical containing 10ml of HEPES buffered (25mM), divalent

cation-free HBSS and 1 mM of fresh DTT. The conical was placed in a bacterial shaker set to

37 °C and 200rpm for 10 minutes. After 45 seconds of vigorously shaking the conical by hand,

the tissue was moved to a fresh conical containing 10ml of HEPES buffered (25mM), divalent

cation-free HBSS and 5 mM of EDTA. The conical was placed in a bacterial shaker set to 37 °C

and 200rpm for 10 minutes. After 45 seconds of vigorously shaking the conical by hand, the

EDTA wash was repeated once more in order to completely remove epithelial cells. The tissue

was minced and digested in 5-7ml of 10% FBS-supplemented RPMI containing collagenase (1

mg/ml collagenaseD; Roche), DNase I (100 µg/ml; Sigma), dispase (0.05 U/ml; Worthington)

and subjected to constant shaking at 155rpm, 37 °C for 35 min (small intestine) or 55 min (large

intestine). Digested tissue was vigorously shaken by hand for 2 min before adding 2 volumes of

media and subsequently passed through a 70 µm cell strainer. The tissue was spun down and

resuspended in 40% buffered percoll solution, which was then aliquoted into a 15ml conical. An

equal volume of 80% buffered percoll solution was underlaid to create a sharp interface. The

tube was spun at 2200rpm for 22 min at 22 °C to enrich for live mononuclear cells. Lamina

propria (LP) lymphocytes were collected from the interface and washed once prior to staining.

For isolating mononuclear cells from spinal cords during EAE, spinal cords were mechanically

disrupted and dissociated in RPMI containing collagenase (1 mg/ml collagenaseD; Roche),

DNase I (100 µg/ml; Sigma) and 10% FBS at 37 °C for 30 min. Leukocytes were collected at the

interface of a 40%/80% Percoll gradient (GE Healthcare).

For isolating mononuclear cells from lymph nodes, mesenteric lymph nodes (for the SFB

model), and draining lymph nodes (Inguinal, axillary, and brachial lymph nodes for the EAE

model) were mechanically dissected and minced in RPMI containing 10% FBS and 25mM

HEPES through 40uM strainer. Cells were collected for further analysis.

Generation of bone marrow chimeric reconstituted mice

Bone marrow mononuclear cells were isolated from donor mice by flushing the long bones. To

generate $Tpi1^{WT}/Tpi1^{KO}$ chimeric reconstituted mice, $Tpi1^{+/+} Cd4^{Cre}$ CD45.1/2 and $Tpi1^{f/f} Cd4^{Cre}$

CD45.2/2 mice were used as donors. To generate $Hif1a^{WT}/Hif1a^{KO}$ chimeric reconstituted mice,

$Hif1a^{+/+} Cd4^{Cre}$ CD45.1/2 and $Hif1a^{f/f} Cd4^{Cre}$ CD45.1/1 mice were used as donors. To generate

$Il23r^{het}/Il23r^{KO}$ chimeric reconstituted mice, $Il23r^{Gfp/+}$ CD45.1/2 and $Il23r^{Gfp/Gfp}$ CD45.1/1 mice

were used as donors. Red blood cells were lysed with ACK Lysing Buffer, and CD4/CD8 T

cells were labeled with CD4/CD8 magnetic microbeads and depleted with a Miltenyi LD

column. The remaining cells were resuspended in PBS for injection in at a 1:1 ratio (WT: KO).

4×10^6 cells were injected intravenously into 6 week old mice (CD45.1/1 in Tpi1 experiment;

$Rag1^{-/-}$ in Hif1a experiment) that were irradiated 4h before reconstitution using 1000 rads/mouse

(2x500rads, at an interval of 3h, at X-RAD 320 X-Ray Irradiator). Peripheral blood samples

were collected and analyzed by FACS 8 weeks later to check for reconstitution, after which SFB

colonization or EAE induction were performed.

Pimonidazole HCl labeling

Pimonidazole HCl (hypoxyprobe) was retro orbitally injected into mice at the dose of 100mg/kg

under general anesthesia (Ketamine 100mg/Kg, Xylazine 15mg/Kg). 3 h later, tissues were

dissected and processed to get the mononuclear cell fraction. After surface/live/dead staining,

cells were treated using the FoxP3 staining buffer set from eBioscience according to the

manufacturer's protocol. Intracellular staining with anti-RORγt, Foxp3, Tbet, and biotin-

pimonidazole adduct antibodies were performed for 60min on ice in 1X eBioscience permwash

buffer containing normal mouse IgG (50μg/ml), and normal rat IgG (50μg/ml). The

pimonidazole labeling was visualized with streptavidin APC staining in the same buffer.

EdU incorporation

Two doses of EdU (50mg/kg for each) were i.p. injected into MOG/CFA-immunized mice in 12

h intervals at days 4, 6, 8, 9, and 12 post immunization. Draining lymph nodes and/or spinal

cords were dissected 12 h post the second injection. Detection of EdU incorporation into the

DNA was performed with EdU-click 647 Kit (Baseclick) according to the manufacturer's

instructions. In brief, surface-stained cells were fixed in 100μl fixative solution, and

permeabilized in 100μl permeabilization buffer. Cells were pelleted and incubated for 30min in

220μl EdU reaction mixture containing 20μl permeabilization buffer, 20μl buffer additive, 1μl

dye azide, 4μl catalyst solution, and 175μl dPBS, before 3x wash and FACS analysis.

CFSE labeling

Sorted naïve 7B8 or 2D2 CD45.1/1 CD4 T cells were stained with CFSE cell proliferation kit

(Life Technology). Labeled cells were administered into each congenic CD45.2/2 recipient

mouse by retro-orbital injection. Mice receiving 7B8 cells were gavaged with SFB mono-feces

twice on days -4 and -3. Mice receiving 2D2 cells were immunized for EAE induction

immediately after cell transfer. mLNs of the SFB-colonized mice were collected at 72h and

120h, and dLN of 2D2-injected mice were collected at 72h, 96h and 120h post transfer for cell

division analysis.

Bulk RNA sequencing

Total RNA from sorted target cell populations was isolated using TRIzol LS (Invitrogen)

followed by DNase I (Qiagen) treatment and cleanup with RNeasy Plus Micro kit (Qiagen;

74034). RNA quality was assessed using Pico Bioanalyser chips (Agilent). RNASeq libraries

were prepared using the Clontech Smart-Seq Ultra low RNA kit (Takara Bio) for cDNA

preparation, starting with 550 pg of total RNA, and 13 cycles of PCR for cDNA amplification.

The SMARTer Thruplex DNA-Seq kit (Takara Bio) was used for library prep, with 7 cycles of

PCR amplification, following the manufacturer's protocol. The amplified library was purified

using AMPure beads (Beckman Coulter), quantified by Qubit and QPCR, and visualized in an

Agilent Bioanalyzer. The libraries were pooled equimolarly, and run on a HiSeq 4000, as paired

end reads, 50 nucleotides in length.

Single cell RNAseq

Libraries from isolated single cells were generated based on the Smart-seq2 protocol (Picelli et

al., 2014) with the following modifications. In brief, RNA from sorted single cells was used as

template for oligo-dT primed reverse transcription with Superscript II Reverse Transcriptase

(Thermo Fisher), and the cDNA library was generated by 20 cycle PCR amplification with IS

PCR primer using KAPA HiFi HotStart ReadyMix (KAPA Biosystems) followed by Agencourt

AMPure XP bead purification (Beckman Coulter) as described. Libraries were tagmented using

the Nextera XT Library Prep kit (Illumina) with custom barcode adapters (sequences available

upon request). Libraries with unique barcodes were combined and sequenced on a HiSeq2500 in

RapidRun mode, with either 2x50 or 1x50 nt reads.

Stable-isotope tracing, metabolite secretion and kinetic flux profiling by GC-MS

In vitro cultured np/pTh17 cells were collected at 96h, washed twice in glucose-free RPMI

(ThermoFisher, 11879020) containing 10% dialyzed FBS (ThermoFisher), and re-plated in anti-

hamster IgG-coated 96-well plates at 60,000/well in np/pTh17 medium (glucose-free RPMI

containing 10% dialyzed FBS, 2mM   -mercaptoethanol, 4mM glutamine, anti-CD3, anti-

CD28, and 4g/L isotype labeled glucose). For KA-treated samples, *Olfr2* KO cells were

previously treated with 30 µM KA before collection and re-plating. The re-plated cells were

cultured in Th17 medium supplemented with 30 µM KA.

To measure relative PPP activity, $^{13}C_{1,2}$-glucose (Cambridge Isotope Laboratories) was added

into the Th17 medium. Re-plated cells were further cultured 12 h before metabolite extraction

and GC-MS analysis. After a brief wash with 0.9% ice-cold saline solution to remove media

contamination, cellular metabolites were extracted using a pre-chilled

methanol/water/chloroform extraction method, as previously described (Metallo et al., 2011).

Aqueous and inorganic layers were separated by cold centrifugation for 15 min. The aqueous

layer was transferred to sample vials (Agilent 5190-2243) and evaporated to dryness using a

SpeedVac (Savant Thermo SPD111V).

For lactate secretion analysis, media was collected at 12 h and centrifuged at 1,000 x g to pellet

cellular debris. 5 µL of supernatant was extracted in 80% ice-cold methanol mixture containing

isotope-labeled internal standards and evaporated to dryness.

Metabolite abundance [X_m] was determined using the following equation:

939
$$[X_m] = \frac{X_{std} - \%M0_x}{100 - \%M0_x}$$

941   where X_{std} is the molar amount of isotope-labeled standard (e.g. 5 nmol lactate) and $\%M0_x$ is the

942   relative abundance of unlabeled metabolite X corrected for natural isotope abundance.

944   To quantify the metabolite secretion flux ($Flux_m$), the molar change in extracellular metabolites

945   was determined by calculating the difference between conditioned and fresh media and

946   normalizing to changes in cell density:

948
$$Flux_m = \frac{X_f - X_i}{\int_0^f X_0 \, e^{kt}}$$

where X_f and X_i are the final and initial molar amounts of metabolite, respectively, X_0 is the

initial cell density, k is the exponential growth rate (hr^{-1}), and t is the media conditioning time.

For kinetic flux profiling, npTh17 medium was supplemented with 4g/L $^{13}C_6$-glucose

(Cambridge Isotope Laboratories). Cells were collected at various time points. Unlabeled

metabolite (M0) versus time (t) were plotted and the data were fitted to an equation as previously

described (Yuan et al., 2008) to quantify the metabolite turnover rate (t^{-1}):

$$Y = (1 - \alpha)^* \exp(-k^* t) + \alpha$$

where   is the percentage of unlabeled (M0) metabolite at steady-state, k is the metabolite

turnover rate and t is time.

Metabolite flux was quantified by multiplying the decay rate by the intracellular metabolite

abundance.

Metabolite derivatization using MOX-tBDMS was conducted as previously described (Lewis et

al., 2014). Derivatized samples were analyzed by GC-MS using a DB-35MS column (30m x

0.25mm i.d. x 0.25 μm) installed in an Agilent 7890B gas chromatograph (GC) interfaced with

an Agilent 5977B mass spectrometer as previously described (Grassian et al., 2014) and

corrected for natural abundance using in-house algorithms adapted from (Fernandez et al., 1996).

LC-MS analysis

For glucose consumption analysis, supernatants of npTh17 cells, or cell free control, were

collected at 24h post cell re-plating. Metabolites were extracted for LC-MS analysis to measure

glucose and lactate quantities. Glucose consumption rate and lactate production rate was

quantified on a relative basis by calculating the ion count difference between conditioned and

fresh media and normalizing to changes in cell density.

Samples were subjected to an LC-MS analysis to detect and quantify known peaks. A metabolite

extraction was carried out on each sample with a previously described method (Pacold et al.,

2016). In brief, samples were extracted by mixing 10 µL of sample with 490 µL of extraction

buffer (81.63% methanol (Fisher Scientific) and 500 nM metabolomics amino acid mix standard

(Cambridge Isotope Laboratories, Inc.)) in 2.0mL screw cap vials containing ~100 µL of

disruption beads (Research Products International, Mount Prospect, IL). Each was homogenized

for 10 cycles on a bead blaster homogenizer (Benchmark Scientific, Edison, NJ). Cycling

consisted of a 30 sec homogenization time at 6 m/s followed by a 30 sec pause. Samples were

subsequently spun at 21,000 g for 3 min at 4 °C. A set volume of each (360 µL) was transferred

to a 1.5 mL tube and dried down by speedvac (Thermo Fisher, Waltham, MA). Samples were

reconstituted in 40 µL of Optima LC/MS grade water (Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA).

Samples were sonicated for 2 mins, then spun at 21,000g for 3min at 4°C. Twenty microliters

were transferred to LC vials containing glass inserts for analysis.

The LC column was a MilliporeTM ZIC-pHILIC (2.1 x150 mm, 5 μm) coupled to a Dionex

Ultimate 3000TM system and the column oven temperature was set to 25 °C for the gradient

elution. A flow rate of 100 µL/min was used with the following buffers; A) 10 mM ammonium

carbonate in water, pH 9.0, and B) neat acetonitrile. The gradient profile was as follows; 80-

20%B (0-30 min), 20-80%B (30-31 min), 80-80%B (31-42 min). Injection volume was set to 1

μL for all analyses (42 min total run time per injection).

MS analyses were carried out by coupling the LC system to a Thermo Q Exactive HFTM mass

spectrometer operating in heated electrospray ionization mode (HESI). Method duration was 30

min with a polarity switching data-dependent Top 5 method for both positive and negative

modes. Spray voltage for both positive and negative modes was 3.5kV and capillary temperature

was set to 320ºC with a sheath gas rate of 35, aux gas of 10, and max spray current of 100 μA.

The full MS scan for both polarities utilized 120,000 resolution with an AGC target of 3e6 and a

maximum IT of 100 ms, and the scan range was from 67-1000 m/z. Tandem MS spectra for both

positive and negative mode used a resolution of 15,000, AGC target of 1e5, maximum IT of 50

ms, isolation window of 0.4 m/z, isolation offset of 0.1 m/z, fixed first mass of 50 m/z, and 3-

way multiplexed normalized collision energies (nCE) of 10, 35, 80. The minimum AGC target

was 1e4 with an intensity threshold of 2e5. All data were acquired in profile mode.

1011

Seahorse Analysis

OCR and ECAR measurements were performed using a Seahorse XFe96 analyzer (Seahorse

Biosciences). Seahorse XFe96 plates were coated with 0.56ug Cell-Tak (Corning) in 24 l

coating buffer (8 l H_2O + 16 l 0.1M $NaHCO_3$ (PH 8.0)) overnight at 4 °C, and washed 3x with

H_2O before use. *In vitro* cultured Th17 cells were collected at 96 h, washed twice in Seahorse

RPMI media PH7.4 (Agilent, 103576-100) and seeded onto the coated plates at 100,000 per well.

To measure the OCR and ECAR of KA-treated cells, 30 M KA (Santa Cruz) was added into

Olfr2 control Th17 cell samples at the beginning of the Seahorse measurement. Respiratory rates

were measured in RPMI Seahorse media, pH7.4 (Agilent) supplemented with 10 mM glucose

(Agilent) and 2 mM glutamine (Agilent) in response to sequential injections of oligomycin (1

µM) , FCCP (0.5 µM) and antimycin/rotenone (1 µM) (all Cayman Chemicals, Ann Arbor, MI,

USA).

1024

Western blotting

Whole cell extracts were fractionated by SDS-PAGE and transferred to nitrocellulose membrane

by wet transfer for 4 h on ice at 60 V. Blots were blocked in TBS blocking buffer (Licor) and

then stained overnight with primary antibody at 4°C. The next day, membranes were washed

three times in TBST (TBS and 0.1% Tween-20), stained with fluorescently conjugated secondary

antibodies (Licor) at 1:10,000 dilution in TBS blocking buffer for 1 h at room temperature, and

then imaged in the 680- and 800-nm channels. Antibodies used: Gapdh (CST), Gpi1 (Thermo

Fisher), Ldha (CST), Pdha1 (Abcam), Tpi1 (Abcam), G6pdx (Abcam), -tubulin (Santa Cruz).

1033

1034   **QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS**

1035   **Bulk RNAseq analysis**

1036   Raw reads from bulk RNA-seq were aligned to the mm10 genome using STAR v 2.6.1d with

1037   the quantmode parameter to get read counts. DESeq2 v 1.22.2 was used for differential

1038   expression analysis. Heatmaps were produced using gplots v 3.0.1.1.

1039

Pre-processing of scRNA-seq data

The single cell RNA raw sequence reads were aligned to the UCSC Mus musculus genome,

mm10, using Kallisto (Bray et al., 2016). The mean number of reads per cell was 241,500. Gene

expression values were quantified into Transcripts Per Kilobase Million (TPM). We removed

cells which had fewer than 800 detected genes or more than 3,000 genes. After filtering, the

mean number of detected genes per cell were 1,765. Then, for the SFB and EAE dataset, we

normalized the gene matrix by SCTransform (Hafemeister and Satija, 2019) regression with

percent of mitochondria reads separately.

1048

Visualization and clustering

To visualize the EAE and SFB data, we performed principal component analysis (PCA) for

dimensionality reduction, and further reduced PCA dimensions into two dimensional space using

UMAP (Becht et al., 2018; McInnes and Healy, 2018). UMAP matrix was also used to build the

weighted shared nearest neighbor graph and clustering of single cells was performed by the

original Louvain algorithm. All the above analysis was performed using Seurat v3 R package

(Butler et al., 2018; Stuart et al., 2019). However, we noticed there was one cluster of cells with

a much lower number of features in which over 60% of cells had fewer features than the average.

Thus, it was removed from the analysis.

A table of average gene expression for each cluster, and a table of log2 Fold Change values with

p-values between each sample were calculated with Seurat. Seurat calculates differential

expression based on the non-parameteric Wilcoxon rank sum test. Log fold change is calculated

using the average expression between two groups. These values were used in Figure S1 J. and K.

with IPA for a pathway analysis, and in Figure S1 L. to make volcano plots.

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Statistical analysis

Differences between groups were calculated using the unpaired two-sided Welch's t-test.

Difference between two groups of co-transferred cells, or in bone marrow chimera experiments,

were calculated using the paired two-tailed t-test. Differences between EAE clinical score was

calculated using two-way ANOVA for repeated measures with Bonferroni correction. For RNA-

seq analysis, differential expression was tested by DESeq2 by use of a negative binomial

generalized linear model. We treated less than 0.05 of p value as significant differences. $*p <$

0.05, $**p < 0.01$, $***p < 0.001$, and $****p < 0.0001$. Details regarding number of replicates and

the definition of center/error bars can be found in figure legends.

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1074 **DATA AND CODE AVAILABILITY**

1075 The bulk RNAseq data and the scRNA seq data supporting the current study have been

1076 submitted to GEO, waiting for approval. Once it's approved, we will update the accession

1077 number.

1078

Supplemental Information

Supplemental figure legends

Figure S1. Single cell RNAseq analysis of ex vivo CD4$^+$ T cells from spinal cord in the EAE

model and the SILP of SFB-colonized mice, related to Figure 1

(A) Experimental design of the scRNAseq analysis. Lethally irradiated *Rag1* KO mice were

reconstituted with equal numbers of bone marrow cells from isotype-marked *Il23r*$^{\text{Gfp/+}}$ and

Il23r$^{\text{Gfp/Gfp}}$ donors. The CD4$^+$ T cells of both *Il23r* het and KO background in the SC and

SILP of each model were sorted for scRNAseq analysis.

(B, C) UMAP projections of the scRNAseq data showing the five CD4$^+$ T cell sub-populations in

the SILP of SFB colonized mice and the four sub-populations in the SC of EAE mice.

(D, E) Violin plots showing the expression level of selected marker genes for each cluster in the

SFB model (D) and the EAE model (E).

(F, G) Distribution of $Il23r^{Gfp/+}$ and $Il23r^{Gfp/Gfp}$ cells in the UMAP projection of SILP CD4$^+$ T

cells (F) and EAE SC CD4$^+$ T cells (G).

(H) Pie chart showing the percentage of $Il23r^{het}$ and $Il23r^{KO}$ cells in each cluster as in panels D-

G. The total number of $Il23r^{Gfp/+}$ cells is scaled according to that of $Il23r^{Gfp/Gfp}$ cells for the

analysis (assuming same number of heterozygous and homozygous cells were analyzed).

The actual cell number of each cluster is indicated beneath the corresponding chart.

(I)Validation of marker gene expression in EAE clusters shown in panel E. Top, Klrc1 and

Klrd1 are co-expressed on cells that mainly produce IFN-γ (left), but are not expressed on

Treg cells (right), and are thus considered as Th1* (IFN-γ producing pathogenic Th17)

markers. Bottom left, Treg cells express less Rankl (encoded by $Tnfsf11$). Bottom right,

majority of the IFN-γ- and IL-17a-producing cells are Rankl$^+$.

(J, K) Pathway enrichment analysis showing the top 2 pathways activated in EAE-associated

Th17 (J) or Th1* (K) cells compared to SFB-induced Th17 cells.

(L, M) Volcano plots based on the scRNAseq analysis showing the differentially expressed

genes in EAE-associated Th17 (L) or Th1* cells (M) compared to SFB-induced Th17 cells.

Genes selected for functional screening are highlighted.

1107

Figure S2. Tpi1 is essential for EAE-associated Th17 cell pathogenicity, related to Figure 1

(A) Schematic of the PSIN retroviral vector encoding the Thy1.1 reporter and two gRNAs.

(B) Knockout efficiency with single compared to double gRNA vectors. In vitro cultured CD4$^+$ T

cells were infected with the retrovirus containing a single or two gRNAs targeting *Cd4,* and

Cd4 expression was evaluated 72 h later.

(C) Experimental design for functional screening of pathogenic genes in the transfer EAE model.

Naïve 2D2 Cas9 CD4$^+$ T cells were activated in vitro, infected with the double gRNA

retrovirus, and differentiated into Th17 cells. Thy1.1 high cells were purified and transferred

into *Rag1* KO mice, which were immunized with MOG/CFA at the same time. EAE

progression was monitored to evaluate the requirement for each gene in pathogenesis.

(D) Clinical disease course of EAE in *Rag1* KO mice receiving control *(Olfr2* KO) 2D2 cells or

candidate gene KO 2D2 cells, and in MOG-CFA-immunized *S100a4* KO and WT littermate

control mice (6 pairs). The 2D2 transfer system was validated by failure of 2D2 cells

deficient in *Bhlhe40*, a gene known to be essential for T cell pathogenicity, to induce EAE.

At least 5 mice were used for each group, and each experiment was repeated at least twice.

(E, F) Sorting strategy for bulk RNAseq analysis of EAE-associated Th17, Th1*, Treg (E)

and SFB-induced Th17 and Treg cells (F).

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Figure S3. *Tpi1* is essential for the differentiation of all CD4$^+$ T cells, related to Figure 1

(A, B) Impaired RORγt, Foxp3, IL-17a and IFN-γ expression by *Tpi1* mutant compared to WT

CD4$^+$ T cells in the mLN (A) and the SILP (B) of reconstituted mixed bone marrow chimeric

mice colonized with SFB. Left panels, representative FACS plots showing RORγt/Foxp3 and

IL-17a/IFN-γ expression in paired *Tpi1* WT (red) and KO (blue) CD4$^+$ T cells in each mouse.

Middle panels, frequencies of each CD4$^+$ T cell subtype among the *Tpi1* WT and *Tpi1* KO

cells. Right panels, *Tpi1* KO/*Tpi1* WT ratios for each CD4$^+$ T cell subtype in mLN and SILP.

(C) Impaired RORγt, Foxp3, IL-17a and IFN-γ expression in *Tpi1* mutant compared to WT CD4$^+$

T cells in the dLN of mixed bone marrow reconstituted mice, at day 15 of MOG-induced

EAE. The number of *Tpi1* KO CD4$^+$ T cells obtained from SC was too low for a meaningful

subtype analysis, and hence is not shown. Panels are organized as in (B).

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Figure S4. Electroporation-based CRISPR-mediated targeting of metabolic genes in naïve

CD4$^+$ T cells, related to Figure 2

(A) Map of metabolic pathways, showing relevant genes and metabolites in glycolysis, PPP and

the TCA cycle. The biosynthetic processes from glycolysis metabolites are labeled in green.

Genes that were targeted using CRISPR in this study are labeled in blue. Gpi1, Tpi1 and

Ldha are the three enzymes that are expected to not be essential for glycolysis: (1) The

reaction catalyzed by Gpi1 (glucose-6-phosphate to fructose-1,6-bisphosphate) can also be

achieved by the PPP, making Gpi1 possibly redundant for this reaction; (2) Tpi1 controls the

inter conversion of glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate and dihydroxyacetone phosphate, the two 3-

carbon molecules generated by degrading fructose-1,6-phosphate. Loss of Tpi1 should lead

to the loss of 50%, but not all of the glycolytic activity, and thus may be not lethal; (3) Ldha

controls the conversion of pyruvate to lactic acid, and the regeneration of NAD$^+$. However,

pyruvate could still enter the TCA cycle in Ldha-deficient cells, for energy production and

biomass synthesis.

(B) Schematic of gene targeting in naïve T cells. Left, PCR amplicons encoding gRNAs were

electroporated into Cas9-expressing naïve CD4$^+$ T cells, which were subsequently cultured in

vitro or transferred into recipient mice. Right, *in vivo* KO efficiency can be assessed by

measuring the KO efficiency of the in vitro cultured Th17 cells. Cas9-expressing 7B8 naïve

CD4$^+$ T cells were electroporated with *Gfp* guide amplicons to target the Gfp that is co-

expressed with Cas9 at the Rosa26 locus, and then cultured *in vitro* in Th17 conditions

(IL6+TGF-β), or transferred into SFB-colonized mice. Gfp expression was examined 4 days

later in the in vitro cultured Th17 cells (top) and the ex vivo cells isolated from the mLN

(bottom).

(C-E) Evaluation of the knockout efficiency of guides used in this study with in vitro Th17 cell

culture. 8000 electroporated naïve CD4$^+$ T cells were seeded in each well at the beginning of

Th17 cell culture. Because gene function is related to cell growth and differentiation, we

estimated the KO efficiency based on three variable factors at 120 h post electroporation:

protein expression level (C), live cell number (D), and IL-17a production (E). Taking *Gapdh*

targeting as an example, western blot data shows Gapdh protein expression decreased only

~40%. However, the cell number was reduced ~70%, and IL-17a production by live cells was

further reduced more than 50% compared to the *Olfr2* control. Taken together, we estimate

that the Gapdh guide achieved more than 80% knockout *in vitro*. Data are representative of

three independent experiments.

(F) Efficiency of gene inactivation following electroporation of naïve Cas9 CD4$^+$ T cells with a

mixture of two guide amplicons targeting *Cd4* and *Cd45* in cultured Th17 cells at 96 h.

P values were determined using t tests.

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Figure S5. Differentiation of glycolysis gene-targeted 7B8 T cells in the SILP of SFB-

colonized mice, related to Figure 2

(A) Representative FACS plots showing the expression of RORγt and Foxp3 in the *Olfr2* KO

control cells and the co-transferred *Olfr2* control or glycolysis gene KO cells in the SILP at

day 15 post transfer.

(B) Left, summary of the Th17 frequencies (RORγt$^+$ Foxp3$^-$) in the *Olfr2* KO control cells

(green) and the co-transferred *Olfr2* control or glycolysis gene KO cells (red), as in panel

(A). Right, the KO/Olfr2 ratios of Th17 frequencies.

(C) Representative FACS plots showing IL-17a expression in *Olfr2* control and co-transferred

Olfr2 control or glycolysis gene KO Th17 cells (RORγt$^+$ Foxp3$^-$ cells) isolated from the SILP

at day 15 post transfer and following *in vitro* PMA/Ionomycin re-stimulation.

(D) Left, summary of IL-17a expression based on results in panel (C). Right, KO/*Olfr2* ratios of

IL-17a expression.

P values were determined using t tests.

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Figure S6. Hypoxic microenvironment in the EAE spinal cord impairs proliferation of

***Gpi1*-deficient Th17 cells, related to Figure 6**

(A, B) The PPP contributes to Th17 cell accumulation in the SC in EAE. (A) Representative

FACS plots showing the frequencies of co-transferred *Olfr2* KO and *Olfr2* control or *G6pdx*

KO 2D2 T cells in the EAE SC at day 15. (B) Compilation of KO/*Olfr2* cell number ratios as

shown in panel A.

(C, D) Pimonidazole staining of different CD4$^+$ T cell subsets in the SFB and EAE models. (C)

Representative FACS plots showing pimonidazole staining of each subtype of CD4$^+$ T cell in

the mLN and the SILP of SFB-colonized healthy mice and in the dLN and the SC of EAE

mice. Treg (Foxp3$^+$ RORγt$^-$ Tbet$^-$), Th17 (RORγt$^+$ Foxp3$^-$Tbet$^-$), Th1 (Tbet$^+$ RORγt$^-$ Foxp3$^-$),

Triple$^-$ (RORγt$^-$ Tbet$^-$ Foxp3$^-$). (D) Summarized pimonidazole staining based on panel C.

(E) Transcription factor staining in CD4$^+$ T cells from *Hif1a* WT and KO mice colonized with

SFB (top, cells from SILP)) or subjected to EAE (bottom, from SC at day15). Left,

representative FACS plots showing the frequencies of Th17 cells (RORγt$^+$ Foxp3$^-$) and Treg

cells (Foxp3$^+$ RORγt$^-$) among total *Hif1a* WT and KO CD4$^+$ T cells; Right, summary of

transcription factor staining from two independent experiments.

(F) Cytokine production in CD4$^+$ T cells from *Hif1a* WT and KO CD4 T cells in the SFB (top)

and EAE (bottom) models after in vitro PMA/ionomycin restimulation. Left, representative

plots showing the frequencies of IL-17a producing cells among RORγt$^+$ Foxp3$^-$ *Hif1a* WT or

KO cells in the SILP of SFB-colonized mice (top) and frequencies of IL-17a, IL-17a/IFN-γ,

and IFN-γ producing cells among Foxp3$^-$ *Hif1a* WT or KO cells in the SC at day 15 after

EAE induction (bottom); Right, summary of cytokine production from two independent

experiments. .

(G) Left, representative plots showing EDU incorporation in co-transferred *Olfr2* and *Olfr2*

control or *Gpi1* KO 2D2 cells at different days post transfer in the dLNs. Right, compiled

data of one representative experiment. Two independent experiments were performed with

the same conclusion.

(H, I) Proliferation of dLN 2D2 cells in the EAE model and mLN 7B8 cells in SFB-colonized

mice. Naïve 7B8 or 2D2 CD4$^+$ T cells were labeled with CFSE and 100K cells were

transferred into recipient mice that had been previously colonized with SFB or were

immunized with MOG/CFA immediately after cell transfer. The mLN of the 7B8 model and

dLN of the EAE model were collected at different time points for cell division analysis. (H)

Left, representative FACS plot showing CFSE labeling of the 7B8 and 2D2 cells at different

time points. Right, pie charts showing the frequencies of cells with different numbers of

divisions. Division number was labeled in different colors. (I) Total cell number count of

mLN 7B8 cells and dLN 2D2 cells at different time points. For each time point, 4-10 mice

were used for each group. Two independent experiments were performed with the same

conclusion.

(J, K) Left, compiled data showing the frequencies of Ccr6$^+$ cells among co-transferred *Olfr2* and

Olfr2 control or *Gpi1* KO 2D2 cells in the dLN at day 9 (J) or in the SC at day 13 (K) post

transfer and EAE induction. Right, the KO/WT ratios of the Ccr6$^+$ frequencies. Two

independent experiments were performed with same conclusion.

(L) Compiled data showing the frequencies of active Caspase3$^+$ cells among co-transferred *Olfr2*

and *Olfr2* control or *Gpi1* KO 2D2 cells in the SC at day 10 post transfer and EAE induction.

n=10.

P values of panel B, I, J and K were determined using t tests. P values of panel E, F, and L were

determined using

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1244 **References**

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Figure 2