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Co-stimulatory and epigenetic targets to

balance the T cell IFN- γ /

IL-4 ratio in atherosclerosis

vorgelegt von:

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Table of Contents

Affidavit3							
Со	nfirr	nation of congruency4					
Tal	ole c	of Contents5					
Lis	List of abbreviations						
Lis	List of publications9						
	1.	Publications included in this dissertation9					
	2.	Additional publications not included in this dissertation10					
1.	C	ontribution to Publications11					
	1.	Contribution to Paper I: Cell-specific and divergent roles of the CD40L-CD40 axis in atheroscle- rotic vascular disease					
	2.	Contribution to Paper II: Glucocorticoid-induced tumour necrosis factor receptor family-related protein (GITR) drives atherosclerosis in mice and is associated with an unstable plaque phenotype and cerebrovascular events in humans					
	3.	Contribution to paper III (Appendix A): Interactions between dyslipidemia and the immune system and their relevance as putative therapeutic targets in atherosclerosis					
	4.	Contribution to paper IV (Appendix B): T-cell EZH2 regulates type II cytokine production: a po- tential therapeutic target in atherosclerosis					
2.	In	troductory summary14					
	2.1	. Atherosclerosis					
2.2. The role of T cells in atherosclerosis2.3. T cell activation and differentiation							
				2.4	. Rationale23		
Re	fere	nces25					
3.	Pa	aper I: Cell-specific and divergent roles of the CD40L-CD40 axis in atherosclerotic vascular dis- ease					
4.	Pa	aper II: Glucocorticoid-induced tumour necrosis factor receptor family-related protein (GITR) drives atherosclerosis in mice and is associated with an unstable plaque phenotype and cerebrovascular events in humans					
Ар	pen	dix A: Paper III: Interactions between dyslipidemia and the immune system and their relevance as putative therapeutic targets in atherosclerosis31					

Appendix B: Paper IV: T-cell EZH2 regulates type II cytokine production: a potential t	therapeutic target
in atherosclerosis	32
Acknowledgements	88

List of abbreviations

αß T cell	Alpha beta (Conventional) T cell
alpha-GalCer	Alpha-galactosylceramide
AP-1	Activator protein 1
APC	Antigen presenting cell
АроЕ	Apolipoprotein E
CANTOS	Canakinumab Anti-Inflammatory Thrombosis Outcome Study
CCL2	C-C-Motif chemokine ligand 2
CCR5	C-C Motif chemokine receptor 5
CLTA4	Cytotoxic T-lymphocyte-associated protein 4
CD	Cluster of differentiation
CD40L	CD40 ligand
CIRT	Cardiovascular Inflammation Reduction Trial
COLCOT	Colchicine Cardiovascular Outcomes Trial
CXCR3	C-X-C motif chemokine receptor 3
СуТОҒ	Mass cytometry by time of flight
EZH2	Enhancer of zeste homolog 2
FACs	Fluorescence-activated cell sorting
FoxP3	Forkhead box P3
γδ T cell	Gamma delta T cell
GATA3	GATA binding protein 3
GITR	Glucocorticoid-induced tumor necrosis factor receptor
H3K4me3	Histone 3 lysine 4 trimethylation
H3K27me3	Histone 3 lysine 27 trimethylation
hsCRP	High sensitivity C reactive protein
lgSF	Immunoglobulin superfamily
IL	Interleukin
IL-4R	Interleukin-4 receptor
IFN-γ	Interferon-gamma

LDL	Low density lipoprotein
LDLr	Low density lipoprotein receptor
LoDoCo2	Low-Dose Colchicine Trial
МНС	Major histocompatibility complex
NFAT	Nuclear factor of activated T cells
NKT	Natural killer T cell
oxLDL	Oxidized low density lipoprotein
PLZF	Promyelocytic leukaemia zinc finger
RNA	Ribonucleic acid
RORyt	RAR-related orphan receptor gamma
scRNA-seq	Single cell RNA sequencing
T-bet	T-box transcription factor
TGF-ß	Transforming growth factor beta
Th	T helper cell
TNFRSF	Tumor necrosis factor receptor superfamily
Treg	T regulatory cell

The results of this work have been or will be published in:

• Paper I

Lacy, M.*, Bürger, C.*, Shami, A.*, Ahmadsei, M., Winkels, H., Nitz, K., van Tiel, C. M., Seijkens, T. T. P., Kusters, P. J. H., Karshovka, E., Prange, K. H. M., Wu, Y., Brouns, S. L. N., Unterlugauer, S., Kuijpers, M. J. E., Reiche, M. E., Steffens, S., Edsfeldt, A., Megens, R. T. A., Heemskerk, J.W.M., Gonclaves, I., Weber, C., Gerdes, N.*, Atzler, D.*, Lutgens, E.* (2021). Cell-specific and divergent roles of the CD40L-CD40 axis in atherosclerotic vascular disease. *Nature Communications*, *12*(1), 1–12. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-021-23909-z

• Paper II

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Paper III

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Paper IV

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- Nitz, K., Lacy, M., & Atzler, D. (2019). Amino acids and their metabolism in atherosclerosis. Arteriosclerosis, Thrombosis, and Vascular Biology, 39(3), 319–330. https://doi.org/10.1161/ATVBAHA.118.311572
- Lacy, M.*, Kontos, C.*, Brandhofer, M.*, Hille, K., Gröning, S., Sinitski, D., Bourilhon, P., Rosenberg, E., Krammer, C., Thavayogarajah, T., Pantouris, G., Bakou, M., Weber, C., Lolis, E., Bernhagen, J.#, Kapurniotu, A.# (2018). Identification of an Arg-Leu-Arg tripeptide that contributes to the binding interface between the cytokine MIF and the chemokine receptor CXCR4. *Scientific Reports, 8*(1), 1–17. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-018-23554-5
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 P.F., Shin, J.B. (2013). A Novel Role of Cytosolic Protein Synthesis Inhibition in Aminoglycoside Ototoxicity. Journal of Neuroscience, 33(7), 3079-3093.
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- * denotes shared first authorship
- [#] denotes shared last authorship

1. Contribution to Publications

Contribution to Paper I: Cell-specific and divergent roles of the CD40L-CD40 axis in atherosclerotic vascular disease

Lacy, Bürger, and Shami share co-first authorship of this publication. Lacy and Bürger both worked extensively on the three mouse models described within the paper while Shami worked solely on the human cohort (Paper section: sCD40L and sCD40 levels correlate with IFN-y in human plasma and atherosclerotic plaques). Within the murine studies, Lacy confirmed the cell-specific deletions (Supplemental Figures 1 and 2) while Bürger provided the preliminary studies assessing the atherosclerotic burden of the cell-specific CD40 and CD40L-deficient mice. Together with Ahmadsei, Heemskerk, and Gerdes, Bürger phenotyped the platelet CD40L knockout model as described in Figure 2. Lacy continued follow-up studies on the T-cell CD40L knockout model to help characterize the atherosclerotic lesions, and specifically worked to assess the stability of the plaques using a Virmani classification as well as the immunocytochemical and histological stainings as described in Figure 1. Furthermore, to uncover the underlying mechanism, Lacy observed the reduction IFN- γ mRNA transcripts within the aorta, which led to his follow-up studies characterizing T helper (Th) and T regulatory cell populations as described in Figure 3. After he observed the reduction in Th1 cells, Lacy performed the DC-T cell co-culture to confirm lower IFN- γ production in the absence of CD40-CD40L signaling as described in Figure 5. Together with Atzler and Lutgens, Lacy wrote the manuscript.

Contribution to Paper II: Glucocorticoid-induced tumour necrosis factor receptor family-related protein (GITR) drives atherosclerosis in mice and is associated with an unstable plaque phenotype and cerebrovascular events in humans

Lacy is a co-author of this publication. Lacy worked extensively on the murine GITR knockout mice while maintaining the mouse strain in Munich. To help establish the role of hematopoietic GITR in atherosclerosis, Lacy performed a bone marrow transplant together with Seijkens. As lesional macrophages were decreased in GITR-deficient mice, Lacy isolated classical and non-classical monocytes and subsequently created bulk RNA sequencing libraries together with Janjic. Considering pathway analysis revealed potential migratory effects, Lacy performed *ex vivo* leukocyte adhesion assays together with Atzler and Megens using bone marrow-derived leukocytes and carotid arteries of GITR wild type and deficient mice as described in Figure 5. Finally, Lacy characterized expression of adhesion molecules in classical and non-classical monocytes as well as granulocytes via flow cytometry. 3. Contribution to paper III (Appendix A): Interactions between dyslipidemia and the immune system and their relevance as putative therapeutic targets in atherosclerosis.

Lacy is the sole first author of this review. Lacy wrote the manuscript, which Atzler and Lutgens later edited. Together with Liu, Lacy created the figures. This additional contribution to the dissertation provides additional background for the rationale of the studies.

4. Contribution to paper IV (Appendix B): T-cell EZH2 regulates type II cytokine production: a potential therapeutic target in atherosclerosis

Lacy is the sole first author of this manuscript. Lacy worked extensively on the murine studies of the CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ EZH2 deficient mice. Lacy confirmed both knockout models, and Venkatasubramini completed the mass spectrometry of isolated histones. Lacy completed the atherosclerosis studies for both mouse strains as well as helped phenotype the lesions. Lacy isolated cells prior to library creation, Janjic and Wange helped create both bulk and single cell RNA sequencing libraries, and Lacy analyzed the data. Flow cytometric and qPCR analysis was performed by Lacy. Together with de Winther, Atzler, and Lutgens, Lacy designed the study. Atzler, Lutgens, and Lacy wrote the manuscript. This additional contribution to the dissertation is unpublished, but provides additional insight about Lacy's scientific work during his PhD studies.

2. Introductory summary

2.1. Atherosclerosis

Atherosclerosis, which is the major underlying pathology of cardiovascular disease (CVD), is a dyslipidemia-driven, chronic inflammatory disorder¹. The subsequent clinical manifestations of CVD, including myocardial infarction and stroke, remain a leading cause of death worldwide².

During the initiation of atherosclerotic plaque development and its ensuing progression, the interplay between lipids and immune cells help promote lesion growth and vascular dysfunction³. Within the vessel, lipids tend to accumulate in the intimal layer of vessels near areas of disturbed blood flow ultimately activating endothelial cells (ECs) that upregulate cell adhesion molecules⁴. Circulating leukocytes, in turn, are able to attach to the vessel wall and migrate towards the deposited lipids in the intima layer forming initial lesions. Early immune responders such as monocytes transmigrate in order to mediate lipoprotein uptake as lesional macrophages. The inflamed intima region results in a multitude of secreted chemokines, which attracts further immune cells including both innate and adaptive immune cell subsets such as neutrophils and T cells⁵. Therefore, in order to begin to treat atherosclerosis, we must first understand the diverse cellular makeup responsible for the inflammation and ultimately the disease.

In the past, histological and immunohistochemical (IHC) evidence was incorporated to classify plaque-resident leukocytes; however, recent studies have begun utilizing single cell RNA –sequencing (scRNA-seq) and mass cytometry by time of flight (CyTOF) technologies to unravel the exact cellular components of both mouse and human atherosclerotic plaques. Although these novel technologies are more sensitive and have greatly expanded our understanding of plaques, they have not completely resolved questions concerning cellular heterogeneity. This is especially evident as the two identification systems show noted discrepancies in the relative abundance of different cell types. For example, traditional imaging studies report lesional macrophage content to represent a majority of lesional cells^{6–8}. On the other hand, single cell methods have identified T cells rather than macrophages as the major component of human atherosclerotic plaques, specifically Fernandez et al used CyTOF to identify T cells as 65% of all immune cells while

scRNA-seq from Depuydt et al identified roughly 52% of all lesional immune cells as T cells^{9,10}. Tissue disruption methods used to prepare single cell suspensions, such as enzymatic digestion and fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACs), may account for discrepancies in relative cell numbers as more fragile cells, such as foamy, lipid-loaded macrophages, may be susceptible to mechanical stress induced death¹¹. Additionally, traditional methods lack the ability to differentiate between subtypes of lesional cells which require multi-marker analysis, and thus may result in the observed differences between methods¹².

While there are limitations to both single cell methods and imaging studies, single cell methods are quickly becoming a gold standard as transcriptomic data has allowed for deeper phenotyping of lesional immune cells. In particular, the cell heterogeneity of T cells has greatly expanded to include various differentiation states such as naïve, effector, and antigen-specific cells within the atherosclerotic mouse aortas¹³. In humans, distinct T cell activation and differentiation phenotypes were observed in carotid artery plaques from patients with recent ischemic attacks compared to asymptomatic patients⁹. Therefore, targeting T cell activation and differentiation pathways represents an attractive immunotherapy alternative to traditional lipid lowering therapies.

In the past, lipid lowering therapies such as statins were identified as the gold standard to treat atherosclerosis; however, recent evidence from several clinical trials has demonstrated that underlying inflammatory processes in atherosclerosis can be targeted in addition to further reduce risk. The first proof-of-concept cardiovascular immunotherapy in humans was described in the *Canakinumab Anti-Inflammatory Thrombosis Outcome Study* (CANTOS) trial¹⁴. Here, inhibition of the interleukin (IL)-1ß pathway, a well-established pro-inflammatory cytokine¹⁵, reduced the risk of cardiovascular events and cancer mortality in high risk patients who had previously suffered a myocardial infarction and continued to present residual inflammation, which was determined by a high sensitivity C reactive protein (hsCRP) measurement above 2 mg/L¹⁴. It is important to note, however, that while IL-1ß blockage using canakinumab reduced cardiovascular events, it had clear shortcomings in limiting mortality from cardiovascular events while increasing the risk of fatal infections. Shortly thereafter, however, the *Cardiovascular Inflammation Reduction Trial* (CIRT) failed to reduce cardiovascular risk in a similar patient setting. Within the CIRT trial, patients received a low dose of methotrexate, which is well-established as non-specific anti-inflammatory agent¹⁶. While the outcomes of these two trials appear to be opposite, together they indicated that anti-inflammatory treatments likely need to be targeted in order to affect cardiovascular outcomes.

To further understand the role of inflammation in the context of atherosclerosis and its subsequent clinical manifestations, two additional clinical trials, namely the *Colchicine Cardiovascular Outcomes Trial* (COLCOT)¹⁷ and *Low-Dose Colchicine Trial* (LoDoCo2)¹⁸, investigated the role of an additional anti-inflammatory agent called colchicine. Mechanistically, colchicine functions more broadly by affecting tubulin polymerization¹⁹ and cell chemotaxis²⁰, which makes it more similar to methotrexate rather than to the selective inhibition observed with canakinumab. However, unlike methotrexate, colchicine treatment was able to lower the risk of cardiovascular events in both trials^{17,18}. Understanding the differing outcomes observed in the CIRT trial compared to the COLCOT and LoDoCo2 trials mandates for further development of specific effective anti-inflammatory agents to treat atherosclerosis. Therefore, targeting the underlying inflammatory processes including T cell responses during plaque progression may open new therapeutic avenues.

2.2. The role of T cells in atherosclerosis

The primary T cell subsets studied during the progression of atherosclerosis include Cluster of differentiation 4 (CD4⁺), CD8⁺, natural killer (NKT), and gamma delta ($\gamma\delta$) T cells. To dissect the role of these different T cells in atherosclerosis, genetic knockout models have been generated using T cell-specific genes backcrossed to hyperlipidemic mice, such Apolipoprotein E-deficient (*ApoE^{-/-}*) or Low density lipoprotein receptor-deficient (*LDLr^{-/-}*) mice.

Within atherosclerotic lesions, CD4⁺ cells are the most well characterized T cell subset; however, CD4⁺T cells display a wide range of both pro-atherogenic and anti-atherogenic phenotypes as well as subsets which remain controversial (Figure 1A)²¹. Following antigen presentation, CD4⁺ T cells can differentiate into distinct helper cells, including T helper (Th) 1, 2, and 17, or regulatory T (Treg) cell subsets in addition to other less well characterized cell types. Each subset can be identified by lineage specific transcription factors as well as cytokine profiles. Th1 cells are associated with T-box transcription factor (T-bet) and interferon-gamma (IFN- γ) expression while Tregs are linked to forkhead box P3 (FoxP3) as well as transforming growth factor beta (TGF-ß) and IL-10 expression. On the other hand, Th2 cells are associated with GATA binding protein 3 (GATA3) and IL-4 while Th17 cells are associated with RAR-related orphan receptor-gamma (ROR γ t) and IL- 17^{22} .



Figure 1: T cell subsets in atherosclerosis. (**A**) Th1 and CD28^{null} CD4⁺ T cell play pro-atherogenic roles in atherosclerosis through secretion of cytokines like interferon-gamma (IFN-γ), which affects vascular smooth muscle cells (VSMCs). The role of CD4⁺ Th2 and Th17 cells remains unknown as their signature cytokines, interleukin(IL)-4 and IL-17 respectively, play differing roles in the context of atherosclerosis. T regulatory (Treg) cells are the clear atheroprotective CD4⁺ subset; however, they may convert to a pro-atherogenic Th1/Treg phenotype. (**B**) CD8⁺ T cells are thought of as pro-atherogenic cells as they can secrete molecules such as perforin and granzyme B that increase plaque instability through apoptosis of VSMCs and they also secrete pro-inflammatory cytokines like IFN- γ. These cells have also been linked to monocyte and macrophage maturation. (**C**) Natural killer T (NKT) cells are activated through an interaction between their T cell receptor (TCR) and the MHC-I-like molecule, CD1d. After activation, they secrete a variety of T helper (Th) cytokines as well as cytotoxic molecules, which may increase inflammation and apoptosis within plaques. (**D**) The role of gamma delta (γδ) T cells remains unclear; however, after activation they produce IL-17, which may affect atherosclerotic lesions in a manner similar to Th17 cells. Modified from Saigusa, Winkels, and Ley (2020)²¹. Reprinted with permission from Springer Nature (License #5140831217395).

Of those subsets, Th1 and Tregs appear to have opposing inflammatory and suppressive capacities in the context of atherosclerosis, respectively. Using a double $ApoE^{-/-}Tbet^{-/-}$ knockout model, Buono et al were able to show a reduced Th1 response was associated with reduced plaque burden²³. Genetic deficiency of *IFN-* γ also led to a reduction in atherosclerosis, but in a gender-specific manner that only applied to male mice²⁴. In a separate study, injection of exogenous IFN- γ resulted in a two-fold increase in lesion size further cementing the pro-atherogenic role of Th1 cells²⁵. In human plaques, symptomatic patients have an enriched Th1 phenotype which express C-C motif chemokine receptor 5 (CCR5) and C-X-C motif chemokine receptor 3 (CXCR3) compared to asymptomatic patients⁹. In principle, Th1 cells may migrate through CCR5 and CXCR3 towards the inflamed intima, and their IFN- γ expression can erode plaque stability by inhibiting smooth muscle cell infiltration and collagen synthesis²⁶.

On the other hand, Treg deficiency, generated through combined genetic deficiency of Cd80 and Cd86, led to a marked increase in atherosclerosis²⁷. Conversely, adoptive transfer of Tregs into ApoE^{-/-} mice reduced plaque burden further suggesting their atheroprotective nature²⁸. Although not always reproducible, some clinical studies have demonstrated low Treg numbers, as well as low IL-10 expression, predict cardiovascular events^{29–32}. Mechanistically, Tregs may exert their anti-atherogenic functions via interaction with antigen presenting cells (APCs), IL-2 sequestration, or expression of their own anti-inflammatory cytokines. APCs provide feedback to conventional CD4⁺T cells through co-stimulatory molecules such as CD80/86 expressed on the APC, which interacts with T cell CD28 to stimulate the cell. However, Tregs-associated co-inhibitory molecule cytotoxic T-lymphocyte-associated protein 4 (CTLA-4) can interact with CD80/86 as well ultimately blocking conventional T cell-APC interactions³³. Furthermore, conventional T cells can be activated through autocrine and paracrine IL-2 in the local environment. However, Tregs can sequester local IL-2 through their high expression of the IL-2 receptor (CD25) depriving conventional T cells of the growth factor³⁴. Finally, Tregs can suppress the activation through expression of IL-10 and TGF-ß to hamper pro-atherogenic T cell proliferation^{35,36}. However, it is important to note the anti-atherogenic effects of Tregs may diminish as the disease progresses. In late stage atherosclerosis, Tregs can present as a mixed Th1/Treg phenotype, which co-expresses FoxP3 and T-bet and loses their suppressive capacity^{37,38}.

Unlike Th1 and Tregs, the roles of Th2 and Th17 remain controversial in atherosclerosis. Th2 cells are involved in type II immune responses where they primarily express IL-4 as well as IL-13 and IL-5. After binding the IL-4 receptor (IL-4R), IL-4 activates the signaling pathway that leads to expression of signal transducer and activator of transcription 6 (STAT6)³⁹. STAT6 is a key regulator of Th2 differentiation as well as alternatively activated macrophage (M2) polarization, which is favorable for plaque regression under atherosclerotic conditions^{40,41}. Although IL-4 has been shown to oppose pro-atherogenic Th1 effects, in vivo studies using IL-4-deficient mice have shown an inconsistent role where it may have no effect on plaque burden^{42,43}. Importantly though, the ratio of IFN- γ to IL-4 has been shown to correlate with inflammation in other chronic inflammatory diseases such as rheumatoid arthritis, which suggests balancing traditional Th1 and Th2 responses may be of importance in atherosclerosis⁴⁴. Similar to Th2 cells, studies targeting Th17 cells have shown conflicting results. Using a double ApoE^{-/-}II17^{-/-} knockout model, researchers observed a reduction in plaque in both the aortic root and arch; however, exogenous IL-17A injections also resulted in a reduction of plaque burden^{45,46}. In terms of atheroprotection, however, both mouse and human studies have indicated IL-17 may help increase collagen content and promote plaque stability^{47,48}.

In a similar vein, our understanding of the function of CD8⁺ T cells in atherosclerosis remains incomplete (Figure 1B). Genetic deficiency using a *ApoE^{-/-}CD8^{-/-}* knockout model did not result in changes to plaque size⁴⁹. However, depletion of CD8⁺ T cells using a monoclonal antibody reduced atherosclerosis and necrotic core area suggesting a pro-atherogenic role^{50,51}. CD8⁺ T cells express cytotoxic molecules such as perforin and granzyme B, which may promote apoptosis of lesional cells and therefore necrotic core formation. In addition to the reduction in atherosclerosis, CD8⁺ depleted mice expressed lower CCmotif chemokine 2 (CCL2), a chemokine involved in mobilization of monocytes towards the inflamed intima. *In vitro* co-cultures of CD8⁺ T cells with macrophages confirmed the ability of these cells to trigger CCL2 expression⁵¹. Although depletion in early stage atherosclerosis results in lower plaque burden, a second study observed opposite effects in advanced atherosclerosis. Namely, depletion of CD8⁺ T cells led to less stable lesions with increased lesional Th1 content, macrophage content, and necrotic core area⁵². Complete depletion of the CD8 component may impair regulatory CD8⁺ T cells, which appear to control pro-atherogenic germinal center B cell responses⁵³. More studies are needed to assess the differing roles of CD8⁺ T cells considering scRNA-seq studies on human plaques report CD8⁺ cells outnumber CD4⁺ cells⁹.

Finally, little is known about NKT and $\gamma\delta$ -T cells in atherosclerosis (Figure 1C and 1D). Unlike conventional T cells with $\alpha\beta$ chains in their T cell receptors (TCRs), NKT cells have an invariant α chain while $\gamma\delta$ -T cells have a γ chain and δ chain. Both subsets act as bridges between the innate and adaptive immune system as NKT cells recognize antigen presentation through the major histocompatibility complex (MHC) class I-like protein, CD1d, while $\gamma\delta$ -T cells generally do not require antigen presentation^{54,55}. To study the effect of NKT cells in atherosclerosis, most studies use CD1d-deficient mice, which are lacking NKT cells, and have reported reductions in atherosclerosis^{56,57}. However, one study administered a prototypical CD1d ligand, alpha-Galactosylceramide (alpha-GalCer), to increase NKT activation and observed a reduction in atherosclerosis in LDLr^{-/-} mice⁵⁸. Following activation, NKT cells produce tremendous amounts of cytokines and can be classified in a similar manner to Th cells, namely NKT1, NKT2, NKT17 as well as others⁵⁹. Their classification corresponds to transcription factor and cytokine production as NKT1 produce Tbet and IFN-y, NKT2 produce promyelocytic leukemia zinc finger (PLZF) and IL-4, and NKT17 produce RORyt and IL-17A⁶⁰. To date, no study has distinguished the contribution of individual NKT subsets to atherosclerosis, which may produce more intricate differences in atherosclerosis outcomes similar to Th cells. On the other hand, utilizing an ApoE^{-/-} TCR $\delta^{-/-}$ model, which lacks $\gamma\delta$ -T cells, researchers observed no differences in plaque burden in early atherosclerosis⁶¹. However, $\gamma\delta$ -T cells are a known source of IL-17A, which may complicate the functions of Th17 cells⁶².

2.3. T cell activation and differentiation

Before T cells can apply their pro-atherogenic or anti-atherogenic roles, the cells need to be activated and differentiated into their unique subsets. As a general model, T cells remain in a naïve state before initial activation; however, following activation T cells expand and express lineage-specific transcription factors in order to produce cytokines that confer effector functions. After the appropriate response, effector T cell populations decline in numbers through apoptosis while the remaining effector cells convert to memory cells that are poised for rapid reactivation upon secondary stimulation⁶³.

To induce efficient initial activation, T cells initially require antigen stimulation through their TCR, which is followed by a secondary co-stimulatory signal (Figure 2)⁶⁴. A third signal, which may be in addition to the first two signals or act alone, from local pro- or antiinflammatory cytokines can further cement the polarization⁶⁵. Ultimately, all activation signals lead to tightly regulated processes allowing for specific transcription factor and subsequent cytokine expression. However, recent studies have also observed specific epigenetic signatures in T cell subsets that allow for distinctive expression patterns suggesting an additional control in terms of T cell activation and polarization.



Figure 2: Signals for T cell activation. T cells are activated using three signals. First, T cells can be activated by antigen presenting cells (APCs) that present cognate ligands to T cells using their T cell receptor (TCR). Secondly, T cells require a co-stimulatory or co-inhibitory signal from APCs. These signals fall into two groups: the immunoglobin superfamily (IgSF) and the tumor necrosis receptor superfamily (TNFRSF). The interaction between CD28 and CD80/CD86 falls under the IgSF group while the interaction between CD40L and CD40 falls under the TNFRSF group. Finally, local cytokines may also influence T cell activation. Modified from a Biorender.com template created by Anna Lazaratos.

To begin the process, antigens are first processed by APCs and later extracellular major histocompatibility complex (MHC) receptors will present smaller peptides, which will interact and form specific connections with TCRs. Subsets of T cells require different MHC classes such as CD4⁺ T cells using MHCII while CD8⁺ T cells using MHCI and, as mentioned above, NKT cells using the MHCI-like receptor CD1d⁵⁴. Although atherosclerosis-specific antigens are still under investigation, some studies have identified T cell clones which recognize epitopes from modified cholesterol molecules, like oxidized LDL (oxLDL), as well as heat shock proteins^{66,67}. More recently, autoreactive ApoB-specific T cells have been identified and phenotyped, which have been directly observed in the lymph nodes

of mice⁶⁸. Single cell analysis of ApoB-specific T cells revealed a mixed phenotype with gene expression profiles mirroring Th1, Th17, and Treg cells suggesting a potential gradient of functions^{13,68}.

Following cognate antigen recognition, co-stimulatory, as well as co-inhibitory, signaling help determine the fate of activated T cells. Although the organization of extracellular receptors is likely to be random, T cell surface markers reorganize to form an immunological synapse where co-stimulatory molecules are in close proximity to the TCR for efficient co-signaling⁶⁹. In general, co-stimulatory molecules are divided into two categories: the immunoglobin superfamily (IgSF) and the tumor necrosis receptor superfamily (TNFRSF). Within the IgSF group, CD28 is the prototypical receptor while the CD40-CD40L dyad represents the prototypical, and most well characterized, interaction of the TNFRSF group⁶⁹. In the context of atherosclerosis, both pathways have been implicated pointing to the importance of co-stimulation in plaque development. For example, elevated numbers of circulating CD4⁺CD28^{null} T cells, meaning they lack CD28, are known to secrete high levels of IFN- γ , and have been associated with acute coronary syndrome^{70,71}. Disruption of the CD40-CD40L dyad, on the other hand, was found to greatly diminish atherosclerosis progression, but the cellular source requirements remained unknown at the time^{72,73}. The immune regulatory effects from other co-stimulatory molecules have been or still are being investigated in atherosclerosis including CD27, programmed cell death protein 1 (PD-1), CD134 (OX40), and glucocorticoid-induced tumor necrosis factor receptor (GITR)⁷⁴.

Inflammatory stimuli, such as local secretion of cytokines, can also influence the differentiation of T cells. While some CD4⁺ subsets require external cytokine signaling for effective differentiation, such as the requirement of IL-4 for Th2 cells, signal 3 cytokines appear to promote bystander effects predominately in CD8⁺ T cells^{39,65}. In particular, IL-12 as well as type I IFNs appear to be involved in accumulating efficient numbers of CD8⁺ effector cells^{75,76}. However, type II cytokines like IL-4 have also been shown to promote bystander activation of CD8⁺ T cells as well⁷⁷. External cytokine signaling, as well as costimulated T cells, prime activated T cells into a differentiated memory state, which allows for 'memory recall' functions where subsets can re-express effector molecules rapidly if challenged. During this process, the transcriptional landscape of the T cells and availability of lineage-specific transcription factors is likely influenced by epigenetic factors.

As mentioned in the previous section, differentiation of T cells is highly dependent on transcription factors that allow for the expression of effector cytokines and molecules;

however, recent studies have demonstrated that chromatin accessibility plays an important role in T cell differentiation and lineage-defining gene expression. Following T cell activation, upregulation of the transcription factors nuclear factor of activated T cells (NFAT) and activator protein 1 (AP-1) induced new areas of open chromatin allowing for the transcription of effector molecules⁷⁸. Within CD4⁺ Th cells, signature cytokines have been shown to hold active transcription marks, such as histone 3 lysine 4 trimethylation (H3K4me3), within their native lineage while repressive histone marks, such as H3K27me3, in all other lineages⁷⁹. While several studies have investigated the role of epigenetic reprogramming on innate immune cells and their progenitors^{80–82}, studies are lacking on the effect of lipids in reprogramming T cells and their downstream effect on atherosclerosis.

2.4. Rationale

Atherosclerosis is a global health problem characterized by chronic inflammation carried out by a diverse set of immune cells. Of these cells, T cells represent an intriguing target for novel immunotherapies in atherosclerosis as they are clearly capable of both proatherogenic and anti-atherogenic contributions to plaque development. Considering the importance of T cell activation in determining their fate and subsequent effect on atherosclerosis, the present work used a multi-pronged approach to target different aspects of T cell activation. First, we aimed to dissect the contribution of two separate co-stimulatory molecules, CD40L and GITR, in the chronic inflammation observed in atherosclerotic conditions. In the first study, we investigated links between sCD40L and inflammation markers, specifically IFN-y, in human plaques. In order to find the cellular mechanism, we then employed conditional cell-specific knockout models in the two primary expressing cell types, T cells and platelets. In a second approach, we investigated a second co-stimulatory molecule, GITR, which is expressed on both Tregs and effector T cells as well as other immune cells. Previous reports on the effect of GITR have been inconclusive as both possible pro-atherogenic and anti-atherogenic have been described^{83,84}. Therefore, to extensively assess its contribution to atherogenesis, we first compared GITR expression in human symptomatic and asymptomatic carotid endarterectomies. To determine the global effect of GITR, we generated GITR-deficient mice and analyzed both immune compartments during atherogenesis as well as atherosclerotic plaque progression. Finally, we targeted the epigenetic control of T cell polarization through the H3K27me3-associated methyltransferase, Enchancer of zeste homolog 2 (EZH2). To pinpoint its contribution and cellular source, we analyzed EZH2 expression using bulk and scRNA-seq of stable and unstable human carotid endarterectomies. To dissect the effect of EZH2 on CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells, we incorporated a CD4cre as well as CD8cre model. Altogether, the three studies provide mechanistic insights into the roles of CD40L, GITR, and EZH2 in inflammation during atherosclerosis. In particular, deficiency of CD40L and EZH2 highlight the potent effects of balancing IFN- γ and IL-4 from activated T cells during plaque progression while GITR deficiency revealed that while T cells produce large quantities of the co-stimulatory molecule monocytic expression is key player in its role in atherosclerosis.

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3. Paper I: Cell-specific and divergent roles of the CD40L-CD40 axis in atherosclerotic vascular disease

Abstract

Atherosclerosis is a major underlying cause of cardiovascular disease. Previous studies showed that inhibition of the co-stimulatory CD40 ligand (CD40L)-CD40 signaling axis profoundly attenuates atherosclerosis. As CD40L exerts multiple functions depending on the cell-cell interactions involved, we sought to investigate the function of the most relevant CD40L-expressing cell types in atherosclerosis: T cells and platelets. Atherosclerosisprone mice with a CD40L-deficiency in CD4⁺ T cells display impaired Th1 polarization, as reflected by reduced interferon-y production, and smaller atherosclerotic plaques containing fewer T-cells, smaller necrotic cores, an increased number of smooth muscle cells and thicker fibrous caps. Mice with a corresponding CD40-deficiency in CD11c⁺ dendritic cells phenocopy these findings, suggesting that the T cell-dendritic cell CD40L-CD40 axis is crucial in atherogenesis. Accordingly, sCD40L/sCD40 and interferon- γ concentrations in carotid plaques and plasma are positively correlated in patients with cerebrovascular disease. Platelet-specific deficiency of CD40L does not affect atherogenesis but ameliorates atherothrombosis. Our results establish divergent and cell-specific roles of CD40L-CD40 in atherosclerosis, which has implications for therapeutic strategies targeting this pathway.

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4. Paper II: Glucocorticoid-induced tumour necrosis factor receptor family-related protein (GITR) drives atherosclerosis in mice and is associated with an unstable plaque phenotype and cerebrovascular events in humans

Abstract

GITR—a co-stimulatory immune checkpoint protein—is known for both its activating and regulating effects on T-cells. As atherosclerosis bears features of chronic inflammation and autoimmunity, we investigated the relevance of GITR in cardiovascular disease (CVD). GITR expression was elevated in carotid endarterectomy specimens obtained from patients with cerebrovascular events (n=100) compared to asymptomatic patients (n=93)and correlated with parameters of plaque vulnerability, including plaque macrophage, lipid and glycophorin A content, and levels of interleukin (IL)-6, IL-12, and C-C-chemokine ligand 2. Soluble GITR levels were elevated in plasma from subjects with CVD compared to healthy controls. Plaque area in 28-week-old Gitr^{-/-}Apoe^{-/-} mice was reduced, and plaques had a favourable phenotype with less macrophages, a smaller necrotic core and a thicker fibrous cap. GITR deficiency did not affect the lymphoid population. RNA sequencing of Gitr^{-/-}Apoe^{-/-} and Apoe^{-/-} monocytes and macrophages revealed altered pathways of cell migration, activation, and mitochondrial function. Indeed, Gitr^{-/-}Apoe^{-/-} monocytes displayed decreased integrin levels, reduced recruitment to endothelium, and produced less reactive oxygen species. Likewise, GITR-deficient macrophages produced less cytokines and had a reduced migratory capacity. Our data reveal a novel role for the immune checkpoint GITR in driving myeloid cell recruitment and activation in atherosclerosis, thereby inducing plaque growth and vulnerability. In humans, elevated GITR expression in carotid plaques is associated with a vulnerable plaque phenotype and adverse cerebrovascular events. GITR has the potential to become a novel therapeutic target in atherosclerosis as it reduces myeloid cell recruitment to the arterial wall and impedes atherosclerosis progression.

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Appendix A: Paper III: Interactions between dyslipidemia and the immune system and their relevance as putative therapeutic targets in atherosclerosis

Abstract

Cardiovascular disease (CVD) continues to be a leading cause of death worldwide with atherosclerosis being the major underlying pathology. The interplay between lipids and immune cells is believed to be a driving force in the chronic inflammation of the arterial wall during atherogenesis. Atherosclerosis is initiated as lipid particles accumulate and become trapped in vessel walls. The subsequent immune response, involving both adaptive and immune cells, progresses plaque development, which may be exacerbated under dyslipidemic conditions. Broad evidence, especially from animal models, clearly demonstrates the effect of lipids on immune cells from their development in the bone marrow to their phenotypic switching in circulation. Interestingly, recent research has also shown a long-lasting epigenetic signature from lipids on immune cells. Traditionally, cardiovascular therapies have approached atherosclerosis through lipid-lowering medications because, until recently, anti-inflammatory therapies have been largely unsuccessful in clinical trials. However, the recent Canakinumab Antiinflammatory Thrombosis Outcomes Study (CANTOS) provided pivotal support of the inflammatory hypothesis of atherosclerosis in man spurring on anti-inflammatory strategies to treat atherosclerosis. In this review, we describe the interactions between lipids and immune cells along with their specific outcomes as well as discuss their future perspective as potential cardiovascular targets.

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Appendix B: Paper IV: T-cell EZH2 regulates type II cytokine production: a potential therapeutic target in atherosclerosis

Abstract

Background: Immune cell infiltration by T cells, as well as other immune cells, and the associated inflammation is a well-established feature of atherosclerotic plaques. Activation and polarization are critical processes that regulate T cell function, which culminates in the production of both pro-atherogenic and anti-atherogenic populations. Therefore, targeting these pathways in T cells is an attractive way to balance the immune response. Epigenetic enzymes including the histone 3 lysine 27 methyltransferase *Enchancer of Zeste Homolog 2 (Ezh2)* have been implicated in controlling the response and polarization of T cell subsets including helper CD4⁺ T cells, T regulatory cells, and natural killer T (NKT) cells, which prompted us to investigate its T cell-specific role in atherosclerosis.

Methods: Human carotid endarterectomy specimens were collected and analyzed for plaque stability as well as EZH2 expression. Two atherosclerotic-prone, T cell-specific *Ezh2* deficient mouse strains (*Ezh2*^{fl/fl}/*Cd4Cre* and *Ezh2*^{fl/fl}/*Cd8Cre*) were generated and fed high fat diets for 6 or 8 weeks to study atherosclerosis, respectively. Following diet administration, the immune status and atherosclerotic progression of the mice were assessed by histology, flow cytometry, and bulk and single cell RNA-sequencing (scRNA-seq).

Results: In human plaques, *Ezh2* expression was elevated in symptomatic plaques prone to rupture, and scRNA-seq indicated T cells were the primary source of EZH2 expression. T cell-specific EZH2 deficiency in *Ezh2^{fl/f}/Cd4Cre^{tg}* mice led to a reduction in atherosclerosis with a less advanced plaque phenotype, but CD8-specific EZH2 deficiency did not affect atherogenesis. In *Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre^{tg}* mice, elevated expression of *Il-4* as well *Zbtb16* was identified in the descending aorta by qPCR and in CD4⁺ T cells by bulk RNA-sequencing indicating an expansion of NKT cells within the CD4⁺ compartment. Flow cytometry and scRNA-seq confirmed an increase in Plzf⁺ NKT2 cells in *Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre^{tg}* mice, which potentially alter disease progression. IL-4 producing CD4⁺ T cells from *Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre^{tg}* mice polarized macrophages *in vitro* towards *arginase1*-expressing M2 anti-inflammatory phenotype, which is likely involved in the observed reduction in atherosclerosis.

Conclusions: Our study demonstrates EZH2-deficiency expands NKT2 populations which secrete large amounts of II-4 and allows for downstream T helper 2 and M2 polarizations contributing to the reduction in atherosclerosis.

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T-cell EZH2 regulates type II cytokine production: a potential therapeutic target

in atherosclerosis

Running Title: Lacy et al.," EZH2 regulates atherosclerosis through type II cytokines"

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The full author list is available on page 19

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Abstract

Background: Immune cell infiltration by T cells, as well as other immune cells, and the associated inflammation is a well-established feature of atherosclerotic plaques. Activation and polarization are critical processes that regulate T cell function, which culminates in the production of both pro-atherogenic and anti-atherogenic popula-tions. Therefore, targeting these pathways in T cells is an attractive way to balance the immune response. Epigenetic enzymes including the histone 3 lysine 27 methyltransferase Enchancer of Zeste Homolog 2 (Ezh2) have been implicated in controlling the response and polarization of T cell subsets including helper CD4⁺ T cells, T regulatory cells, and natural killer T (NKT) cells, which prompted us to investigate its T cell-specific role in atherosclerosis.

Methods: Human carotid endarterectomy specimens were collected and analyzed for plaque stability as well as *Ezh2* expression. Two atherosclerotic-prone, T cell-specific Ezh2 deficient mouse strains (*Ezh2*^{*fl/fl}/<i>Cd4Cre* and *Ezh2*^{*fl/fl}/<i>Cd8Cre*) were generated and fed high fat diets for 6 or 8 weeks to study atherosclerosis, respectively. Following diet administration, the immune status and atherosclerotic progression of the mice were assessed by histology, flow cytometry, and bulk and single cell RNA-sequencing (scRNA-seq).</sup></sup>

Results: In human plaques, *Ezh2* expression was elevated in symptomatic plaques prone to rupture, and scRNA-seq indicated T cells were the primary source of EZH2 expression. T cell-specific EZH2 deficiency in *Ezh2*^{*n/fl}/<i>Cd4Cre^{ig}* mice led to a reduction in atherosclerosis with a less advanced plaque phenotype, but CD8-specific EZH2 deficiency did not affect atherogenesis. In *Ezh2*^{*fl/fl}/<i>Cd4Cre^{ig}* mice, elevated expression of *Il-4* as well *Zbtb16* was identified in the descending aorta by qPCR and in CD4⁺ T cells by bulk RNA-sequencing indicating an expansion of NKT cells within the CD4⁺ compartment. Flow cytometry and scRNA-seq confirmed an increase in Plzf⁺ NKT2 cells in</sup></sup> $Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre^{tg}$ mice, which potentially alter disease progression. IL-4 producing CD4⁺ T cells from $Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre^{tg}$ mice polarized macrophages in vitro towards arginase1-expressing M2 anti-inflammatory phenotype, which is likely involved in the observed reduction in atherosclerosis.

Conclusions: Our study demonstrates EZH2-deficiency expands NKT2 populations which secrete large amounts of II-4 and allows for downstream T helper 2 and M2 polarizations contributing to the reduction in atherosclerosis.

Word count: 349/350

Keywords:

Atherosclerosis, T cells, methylation, epigenetics

Non-standard Abbreviations and Acronyms

C-X-C motif cher	mokine receptor 3 CXCR3
C-C motif chemo	okine receptor 6 CCR6
EZH2	Enhancer of zeste homolog 2
Foxp3	Forkhead box protein P3
H3K27me3	Histone 3 Lysine 27 trimethylation
IFN-γ	Interferon-gamma
IL-13	Interleukin-13
IL-4	Interleukin-4
NKT	Natural killer T cell
PLZF	Promyelocytic leukemia zinc finger
sc-RNAseq	Single cell RNA sequencing
Zbtb16	Zinc Finger And BTB Domain Containing 16
Clinical Perspective

What is new?

- We demonstrate the first link between *Ezh2* expression and plaque stability in humans, and we present lesional T cells as the primary source of expression using single cell RNA-sequencing
- In atherosclerotic *Ezh2*^{*fl/fl}/<i>Cd4Cre^{tg}* mice, T cell-specific EZH2 deficiency protects from atherosclerosis by regulating natural killer T cell numbers and polarization</sup>
- EZH2 deficiency in T cells leads to increased type II cytokines including II-4 and II-13, which polarizes macrophages *in vitro* towards an alternatively activated phenotype

What are the clinical implications?

- Elevated *Ezh2* expression was associated with ruptured human plaques
- Introduction of therapies targeting T-cell EZH2 may reduce plaque inflammation and increase plaque stability

Introduction

Atherosclerosis is a chronic, lipid-driven inflammatory disorder of the vasculature, which drives a variety of the underlying pathologies of cardiovascular disease (CVD) including myocardial infarction and stroke^{1,2}. A myriad of experimental evidence, including

pioneering single cell RNA-sequencing (sc-RNAseq) and mass cytometry studies, have identified several immune cell subsets as key components in human and mouse atherosclerotic lesions with T cells representing an abundance of the lesional leukocytes^{3–5}. In particular, a human study suggests that CD4⁺ and double negative (CD4⁻CD8⁻) T cells are expanded in plaques from symptomatic patients. These T-cell subsets displayed distinct activation and differentiation patterns in symptomatic patients compared to asymptomatic patients⁶. Therefore, unraveling the specific pathways that regulate T-cell activation and differentiation in the context of atherosclerosis will detail our comprehension of atherogenesis and may have great potential to reveal novel immunotherapeutic targets.

T-cell differentiation, polarization, and activation is tightly controlled by epigenetic enzymes, which can restrict expression of lineage-specific transcription factors and cytokines in effector T cells and help maintain long-term immunological responses that may influence the outcome of chronic inflammatory diseases^{7,8}. During the course of atherosclerosis development, both CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells can respond to antigen presentation or cytokine stimulation leading to polarization. CD4⁺ effector T cells, in particular, differentiate into distinct subsets leading to either pro-atherogenic T helper (Th1) cells, anti-atherogenic T regulatory (Treg) cells, or the less well understood Th2 and Th17 cells, all of which express signature cytokines including interferon (IFN)- γ , interleukin (IL)-10, IL-4, or IL-17, respectively⁹. These defined cytokines are regulated by upstream transcription factors, but more importantly the expression of fate-determining transcription factors is dependent on epigenetic mechanisms controlling their histone methylation status¹⁰. Notably, repressive histone markers, such as trimethylation of histone 3 lysine 27 (H3K27), are pivotal in silencing ectopic Th-associated gene expression in opposing subsets¹¹.

Methylating and de-methylating enzymes carefully balance the methylation status of H3K27. The polycomb repressive complex 2 (PRC2), which relies on the SET domain of enhancer of homolog 2 (EZH2) for its methyltransferase activity, generates the diand tri-methylation of the histone residue^{12–14}. In addition to its canonical histone modifying role, EZH2 has also been shown to directly methylate nonhistone substrates including the transcription factor promyelocytic leukemia zinc finger (PLZF), leading to its degradation and polarization of natural killer T (NKT) cells¹⁵, as well as stabilizing the T regulatory (Treg) signature transcription factor, forkhead box protein P3 (Foxp3)¹⁶. Conversely, removal of di- and trimethylation H3K27 residues relies on several histone demethylases including Ubiquitously transcribed tetratricopeptide repeat, X chromosome (UTX) and Jumonji domain-containing protein D3 (JMJD3), or both are also known as Lysine-specific demethylase 6A and B, respectively¹⁷. In regards to Tcell differentiation, JMJD3 appears primarily to function in CD4⁺ Th17 differentiation and CD8⁺ memory formation^{18,19}; however, EZH2 has been shown to be involved in a wide variety of T-cell subsets including the CD4⁺ T helper, Treg, NKT, and T follicular cell differentiation²⁰⁻²². Therefore, we focused on the methyltransferase, EZH2, and hypothesized that inhibition may influence atherosclerotic plaque development. In the current study we found that EZH2 was highly expressed in human carotid endarterectomy specimens that exhibited features of plaque instability, and was particularly expressed by human plaque T cells. T cell-specific EZH2 deficiency in atherosclerotic $ApoE^{-/-}$ mice resulted in a significant decrease in atherosclerotic plaque burden. This was mediated via propagation of a type II immune response, in particular through

NKT cells. Combining histological, flow cytometric, transcriptomic, and *in vitro* assays, we show that EZH2 deficiency regulates NKT cell expression of *Plzf* and *Il4*, ultimately polarizing macrophages and T cells to an anti-atherogenic phenotype to slow atheroscle-rotic progression. Taken together, T cell EZH2 may be a promising therapeutic target to reduce atherosclerotic inflammation and plaque burden while increasing plaque stabil-ity.

Methods

An expanded method section can be found in the online supplement

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding authors upon request.

Human Samples

Human carotid plaques were collected from the patients who underwent carotid endarterectomy. Plaques were identified as either stable or ruptured before subsequent gene expression analysis. First, quantitative PCR (qPCR) was employed to detect *Ezh2* expression (n=15). Following qPCR, a second cohort of stable and ruptured plaques (n=4) were then dissociated with a commercial kit "Multi Tissue Dissociation Kit 2" (Miltenyi Biotech, 130-110-203). Single-cell suspension, library preparation, and cDNA synthesis were prepared according to the instructions of 10x Genomics Chromium Platform. scRNA-seq analysis was then performed in RStudio (Version 1.3.1093) using the Seurat package (Version 4.0.2)²³. Genes were excluded if expressed in fewer than 5 cells. Cells were filtered out if fewer than 100 genes or more than 3000 genes were expressed in each cell, or the mitochondrial genes proportion was larger than 20%. SCTransform normalization²⁴ was adopted to mitigate the possible sources of variations like cell cycle as well as technique-related influence. The Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP) was used to convert cells into a two dimensional map.

Animal Experiments

To study the effect of EZH2 on atherosclerosis, we first generated $Ezh2^{fl/l}$ mice through insertion of loxP sites flanking exons 14 and 15 (Figure S1A)²⁵. Both exons partially code for the SET domain of EZH2, which confers methyltransferase activity. Floxed exons could be subsequently removed through cre-mediated deletion. To generate CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ cell-specific knockout mice, $Ezh2^{fl/l}$ mice were backcrossed to either Cd4cre (stock No: 017336, Jackson Laboratory, Bar Harbor, Maine, USA)²⁶ or *Cd8cre* mice (stock No: 008766, Jackson Laboratory, Bar Harbor, Maine, USA)²⁷. Finally, both mice strains were backcrossed at least ten times to ApoE^{-/-} mice (stock No. 002052, Jackson Laboratory, Bar Harbor, ME, USA) to generate atherosclerosis-prone mice. Mice were bred and housed at the animal facility at Ludwig-Maximilians Universität München following institutional guidelines. All animal experiments were approved by the local ethical committee for animal experimentation (TVA #55.2Vet-2532.Vet 02-17-180). Early atherosclerosis was studied in $Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre$ using a 6 week high fat diet (0.2% cholesterol, Sniff) and $Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd8Cre$ using an 8 week high fat diet (0.2% cholesterol, Sniff). Following diet administration, mice were euthanized after intraperitoneal injection with Ketamine/Xylazine.

Results

EZH2 expression is elevated in unstable human plaques

Carotid endarterectomy was performed on human patients with carotid atherosclerosis as a stroke-preventive surgery and samples were collected as part of the Munich Vascular Biobank. Classification of plaque stability was determined through histology (Figure 1A). Quantitative PCR (qPCR) was performed on stable and unstable plaques (n=15), which revealed a 10-fold increase in EZH2 expression in unstable plaques (Figure 1B). To understand the cellular source of the elevated EZH2 expression, single cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) was performed on 4 carotid endarterectomy specimens. Transcriptomic analysis revealed endothelial cells, smooth muscle cells, myeloid cells, B cells, and T cells as the major plaque's cellular components (Figure 1C). Further characterization revealed EZH2 expression was predominantly associated with the T-cell cluster suggesting that T-cell EZH2 plays a role in the pathogenesis of atherosclerosis (Figure 1D).

Generation and baseline characteristics of T cell-specific (Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre) EZH2 deficient mice

To dissect the T cell-specific effects of EZH2 in atherosclerosis, we generated mice with a T-cell EZH2 deficiency following the double positive (CD4⁺CD8⁺) stage of thymocyte development (referred to as $Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre^{rg}$, Figure S1A). Mice were backcrossed to apolipoprotein E (*Apoe^{-/-}*) mice and fed a high fat diet for six weeks to induce atherosclerosis. qPCR confirmed the conditional deletion of EZH2 in CD4⁺ T cells, specifically reduced EZH2 expression while EZH1 remained unaffected (Figure S1B in the Data Supplement). Using mass spectrometry-based analysis of histones isolated from CD4⁺ T cells, we confirmed a decrease in H3K27 trimethylation in $Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre^{rg}$ mice compared to their wild type littermates. Basic hematological parameters as well as lipid levels were compared between atherosclerotic knockout and control animals; however, no major differences were observed (Table S1 in the Data Supplement).

T-cell EZH2 deficiency decreases atherosclerosis

In the absence of T-cell EZH2, atherosclerotic plaque area in the aortic roots and arches of both female and male $Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre$ mice was significantly decreased (Figure 2A and Figure S2A-B in the Data Supplement) compared to their wild type littermates, suggesting a non-sex and non-site specific effect on atherogenesis. In accordance with the reduction in atherosclerotic plaque burden, using a Virmani classification²⁸ we observed less fibrous cap atheromas (FCA) in $Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre^{tg}$ mice compared to their wild type littermates and a larger percentage of initial xanthomas (IX), suggesting T-cell EZH2 deficiency slowed plaque progression (Figure 2B). This finding was further supported by a reduction in collagen content in $Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre^{tg}$ mice (Figure 2C).

To first check for changes in immune cell populations, we analyzed lesional Mac3⁺ macrophage area, which remained unchanged between $Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre^{lg}$ mice and their wildtype littermates (Figure 2D). To characterize the potential T-cell phenotype, we analyzed gene expression patterns of T cell-associated markers and cytokines in the descending aorta (Figure 2E). While *CD4* and *CD8* expression was comparable between wild type and transgenic littermates, *CD3* expression was elevated in $Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre^{lg}$ mice. The T helper cytokines *interferon (IFN)-y* and *interleukin (IL)-13* remained unchanged, and *IL-17A* was undetectable. Remarkably, we observed a 17-fold increase of *IL-4* transcripts in $Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre^{lg}$ mice suggesting an underlying type II immune response.

T-cell EZH2 deficient mice have profound changes in T-cell populations

To further elucidate the underlying immune mechanisms responsible for the reduction in atherosclerotic plaque burden observed in $Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre^{lg}$ mice, we analyzed major immune cell populations in the blood and lymphoid organs using flow cytometry. Here, we discovered that EZH2 deficiency solely affected CD3⁺ T cells, with a reduced abundance in $Ezh2^{l/fl}/Cd4Cre^{lg}$ mice, while all other immune cell types remained unchanged (Figure 3A). In-depth analysis of the T-cell compartments in the blood, lymph nodes, and spleen demonstrated that CD4⁺ T cells were predominantly affected as $Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre^{lg}$ mice displayed decreased numbers of CD4⁺ T cells while CD8⁺ T cells were unaltered (Figure 3B). To further detail subpopulation differences in splenic CD3⁺ T cells, we used a sc-RNAseq approach, and were able to identify 9 clusters of T cells including several subpopulations of CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells (Figure 3C) using common expression markers (Figure 3-5 in the Data Supplement). Strikingly, naive CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cell percentages as well as Tregs were strongly reduced in $Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre^{lg}$ mice (Figure 3D). On the

other hand, memory CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells, CD8⁺ effector T cells, and natural killer T (NKT) cells percentages were all increased in $Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre^{lg}$ mice.

CD4⁺, but not CD8⁺, T cells contribute to the type II immune response in T-cell EZH2 deficient mice

To confirm our scRNA-seq findings, we analyzed CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T-cell subpopulations using flow cytometry. In splenic CD4⁺ T cells, we observed a similar phenomenon to the sc-RNAseq results with a shift from naive to effector memory T cells as well as a reduction in Tregs (Figure 4A). Likewise, splenic CD8⁺ T cells displayed a prominent central memory population and a reduced naive fraction (Figure 6A in the Data Supplement). In order to unravel the effects of EZH2 on CD4⁺ versus CD8⁺ cells in atherosclerosis, we employed a second animal model, which allowed us to specifically target *EZH2* expression in CD8⁺ T cells in *ApoE-/-* mice (referred to as *Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd8Cre^{tg}*).

qPCR verified that EZH2 expression was indeed significantly and selectively reduced in CD8⁺ T cells and not in CD4⁺ T cells in $Ezh2^{n/n}/Cd8Cre^{tg}$ mice (Figure 6B in the Data Supplement). No significant differences were observed in basic hematological parameters or cholesterol levels between $Ezh2^{n/n}/Cd8Cre^{tg}$ mice and their wild-type littermates (Table S2 in the Data Supplement). Following an 8 week high fat diet, no difference between plaque burden in $Ezh2^{n/n}/Cd8Cre^{tg}$ mice and their wild type littermates was observed (Figure 6C in the Data Supplement). We only identified slight differences in central and effector memory CD8⁺ T cells using flow cytometry (Figure 6D in the Data Supplement), but the shift was not as striking as the $Ezh2^{n/n}/Cd4Cre$ model. Furthermore, we investigated plasma levels of type II cytokines including IL-4 and IL-13 considering the increased transcriptional abundance in the aorta of $Ezh2^{n/n}/Cd4Cre^{tg}$ mice. However, no difference was detected between $Ezh2^{n/n}/Cd8Cre^{tg}$ mice and their wild type littermates (Figure 6E in the Data Supplement). Together, this data suggested the CD8⁺ phenotype observed in our $Ezh2^{n/n}/Cd4Cre$ model was not intrinsically due to EZH2 deficiency.

Likely, the activation of CD8⁺ T cells was due to a bystander effect from other IL-4 producing cells.

After excluding CD8⁺ T cells, our focus shifted to the contribution of CD4⁺ T cells to the anti-atherogenic phenotype. As mentioned previously, EZH2 deficiency led to a relative increase in CD4⁺ memory T cells, which subsequent flow cytometric data pointed to a specific increase in CD4⁺ effector memory T cells (Figure 4A). Considering the complete CD3⁺ T cell fraction was decreased in $Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre$ mice, we observed absolute decreases in several CD4⁺ T cell subpopulations except in the effector memory compartment (Figure 4B). When comparing naive and effector T cells, this difference appeared to be caused by differences in apoptosis, as revealed by activated caspase 3/7 levels in both cell types. While EZH2-deficient naive T cells displayed higher levels of apoptosis, apoptosis in CD4⁺ effector memory T cells was unaltered, accounting for the changes in cell abundance (Figure 4C).

The profound transcriptional increase of *Il-4* expression in the aorta of our $Ezh2^{0/l}/Cd4Cre$ mice prompted us to further investigate the origin of this apparent type II immune response in our animals. Therefore, we compared subpopulations of the effector memory cells using inflammatory chemokine markers, C-X-C motif chemokine receptor 3 (CXCR3) and C-C motif chemokine receptor 6 (CCR6), which are preferentially expressed on Th1 and Th17 cells, respectively^{29–31}. Accordingly, we observed a shift from Th1-like, CXCR3⁺CCR6⁻, cells towards Th2-like, CXCR3⁻CCR6⁻, in *Ezh2^{0/l}/Cd4Cre^{lg}* mice (Figure 4D). To understand if these Th2-like cells could affect vascular function systemically, we compared plasma concentrations of Th1 and Th2-associated cytokines. Here, we observed elevated concentrations of Th2-associated IL-4 and IL-13, which corroborated the increase in aortic *IL-4* transcripts of *Ezh2^{0/l/l}/Cd4Cre^{lg}* mice described above (Figure 4E). To confirm CD4⁺ T cells as cellular source of these cytokines, we stimulated CD4⁺ T cells *in vitro* for 72 hours with CD3/CD28 beads and subsequently measured

cytokine production. In the supernatant, we demonstrated $Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre^{ig}$ CD4⁺ T cells secreted 38x more IL-4 and 6x more IL-13 than their wild type counterparts, likely implicating them in the reduction of atherosclerosis (Figure 4F).

EZH2 deficient CD4⁺ T cells polarize macrophages to an anti-inflammatory phenotype

As T-cell cytokines can have a profound effect on neighboring cells, we investigated whether $Ezh2^{n/n}/Cd4Cre^{tg}$ T cells could polarize the other predominant lesional immune cell type, macrophages. Indeed, when bone marrow derived macrophages (BMDMs) were matured and stimulated with supernatant of stimulated T-cells from $Ezh2^{n/n}/Cd4Cre^{tg}$, macrophages were polarized towards an anti-inflammatory phenotype, as reflected by increased macrophage arginase 1 mRNA and protein expression (Figure 5B). Inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS), a key marker of inflammatory macrophages, in contrast, remained lowly expressed (Figure 5A). Although lesional macrophage percentage did not differ (Figure 2D), this data together with the increased aortic *II-4* cytokine level suggest EZH2-deficient CD4⁺ T cells may induce an advantageous, alternatively-activated plaque macrophage phenotype, which is likely involved in the observed reduction in atherosclerosis.

Bulk CD4⁺ RNA-seq reveals NKT marker expression in EZH2-deficient T cells

To dive deeper into mechanisms driving this T-cell phenotype, we performed bulk RNA sequencing on splenic CD4⁺ T cells from $Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre^{lg}$ mice and their wild type littermates. Using a $p_{adj.} < 0.1$, we discovered 582 differentially expressed genes. In line with the previous experiments mentioned above, we demonstrated $Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre^{lg}$ T cells upregulated *IL-4* transcripts while shifting the balance of T helper (Th)-1 and Tregassociated cytokines, *IFN-y* and *Foxp3*, suggesting a directed T-cell polarization (Figure 6A). Ingenuity pathway analysis reinforced these data as several IFN upstream regulators, including IFN- γ , were significantly inhibited in $Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre^{lg}$ T cells (Figure 6B).

Further analysis of differentially expressed genes revealed upregulation of transcripts including *zinc finger and BTB domain containing 16 (Zbtb16)*, the gene coding for Promyelocytic leukemia zinc finger (Plzf), as well as *killer cell lectin-like receptor subfamily A member 1 (Klra1)* in *Ezh2*^{fl/fl}/*Cd4Cre*^{tg} mice (Figure 6A), which are atypical markers for effector memory cells, but are characteristic for NKT cells.

T-cell EZH2 deficient mice have increased Plzf⁺NKT cells

To identify changes in NKT populations induced by EZH2 deficiency, we investigated NKT cell populations, which were positive for both CD3 as well as the specific NKT marker PBS-57-loaded Cd1d tetramer and can be positive for CD4. In Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre^{tg} mice, we observed a 2-fold increase of NKT cells in the spleen accompanied by an increase in PLZF protein expression (Figure 7A). Of note, NKT populations as well as PLZF expression were unchanged in the spleen of $Ezh2^{fl/l}/Cd8Cre^{lg}$ mice and their wild type littermates (Figure 7B), again ruling out CD8-specific EZH2 deficiency as the driving force in our mechanism. In-depth investigation of the *Ezh2*^{fl/fl}/*Cd4Cre* model showed that aortic Zbtb16 expression was significantly upregulated in Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre^{tg} mice, suggesting Plzf-expressing NKT cells were able to infiltrate the atherosclerotic plaque (Figure 7C). As the cell abundance of these NKT cells were quite low, especially in the wild type controls, we further characterized them using our previously mentioned sc-RNAseq data where we found a 4-fold increase of NKT cells in $Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre^{tg}$ mice. We compared gene expression between transgenic and wild type NKT cells, and we found 52 differentially expressed genes ($p_{adj} < 0.05$). Several mitochondrial genes such as *mt*-Co3 and *mt-Atp6* were differentially expressed suggesting EZH2 deficiency may affect metabolism and alter the cell's phenotype. Importantly though, Zbtb16 expression was significantly upregulated in *Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre^{lg}* NKT cells corroborating our flow cytometric data and previous CD4⁺ bulk sequencing experiments. Taken together, T-cell EZH2

deficiency resulted in an accumulation of Plzf⁺ NKT2 cells, which were able to infiltrate atherosclerotic plaques and alter disease progression.

Discussion

Our study demonstrates T-cell EZH2 plays a dynamic role in T-cell differentiation, ultimately shifting the balance of pro-atherogenic and anti-atherogenic immune populations under atherosclerotic conditions. Specifically, we identified EZH2 as a T cell-specific component of human plaques, which is upregulated in unstable lesions. Deficiency of T-cell EZH2 leads to a systemic increase of the type II cytokines, IL-4 and IL-13, driving macrophage polarization and the subsequent slowing of atherosclerotic progression. Within lesions, a large variety of T cells have been described; however, their function together with the cytokines they produce are not always clear cut in the literature. Unlike the unambiguous, pro-inflammatory IFN- γ -producing Th1 cells^{32–34}, T cells which produce type II cytokines remain controversial in the context of atherosclerosis. Early studies suggested contradictory evidence that IL-4 was either pro-atherogenic or not involved in the induction of atherosclerosis^{35,36}. IL-13, on the other hand, was reported to reduce atherosclerosis development and promote alternatively activated macrophage polarization³⁷. However, dissecting individual contributions of IL-4 and IL-13 is complicated by their shared receptor, IL-4 receptor (IL-4R), where signaling leads to tyrosine phosphorylation of signal transducer and activator of transcription 6 (STAT6), a transcriptional regulator of Th2 cells and macrophages that is crucial for atherosclerosis regression^{38,39}. More recently, Weinstock et al demonstrated mice deficient in both IL-4 and IL-13 were resistant to plaque regression following cholesterol reduction using ApoB-antisense oligonucleotides suggesting both cytokines are key players in macrophage-induced resolving inflammation⁴⁰.

Production of IL-4 and IL-13 is predominantly associated with Th2 cells, but innate and innate-like immune cells such as NKT, mast, and eosinophils have been implicated as

cellular sources as well. With this in mind, we initially believed the IL-4 and IL-13 was originally derived from Th2 cells in this study. However, besides a Th2 response, our data reveal a vast expansion of NKT cells in *Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre^{lg}* mice. NKT cells are "innate-like" CD4⁺ or double negative (CD4⁻CD8⁻) T cells, which respond quickly upon stimulation from glycolipids presented by the major histocompatibility class I (MHC-I) molecule, CD1d⁴¹. Their T cell receptor (TCR)-specificity made them attractive targets in lipid-driven diseases such as atherosclerosis; however, initial studies indicate mice deficient in NKT cells displayed lower atherosclerotic burden and inhibition of NKT activation using CD1d antagonists could attenuate established atherosclerosis^{42,43}. Upon activation, NKT cells can release T helper-associated cytokines including IFN- γ , IL-4, IL-13, and IL-17A leading to a similar classification of NKT1, NKT2, and NKT17 cells as well as others⁴⁴. To date, investigations into the individual contributions of NKT subpopulations to the development of atherosclerosis are lacking, which could differentiate pro-atherogenic and anti-atherogenic subsets in this disease.

In combination with cytokine-secretion, classification schemes of NKT development rely on three transcription factors: T-box 21 (T-bet), PLZF, and retinoic acid–related orphan receptor γt (ROR- γt)⁴⁵. In this study, we observed a high expression of PLZF in the expanded NKT population in *Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre^{tg}* mice, which is associated with NKT2 cells that predominantly secrete IL-4⁴⁵. Previously, studies have suggested two different mechanisms for EZH2-mediated PLZF regulation. In a more traditional role, EZH2 has been shown to bind multiple transcription factor genes in T helper cells including *Zbtb16*, the gene coding for PLZF protein, thereby repressing gene expression dependent on T-cell subset²⁰. In a non-canonical role, however, EZH2 has also been shown to directly methylate PLZF, which leads to its ubiquitination and degradation¹⁵. Therefore, altered gene expression or protein stability may account for differential expression in EZH2-deficient NKT cells. Although we found the expansion of NKT2 cells, we could not distinguish NKT and peripheral type II cytokine production in the current study. Likely, both subsets contribute to the cytokine production and reduction in atherosclerosis as T cells can be polarized due to cytokines in the local environment. In a similar study, using mice lacking both EZH2 and NKT cell populations, Tumes et al demonstrated IL-4 and IL-13 production originated from NKT and not peripheral T cells²⁰. In their study, their data suggested the origin of IL-4 and IL-13 were the expanded NKT2 population, which may ultimately polarize CD4⁺ T cells towards a Th2 phenotype and induce additional type II cytokine secretion. This would need to be investigated further under atherosclerotic conditions in order for us to come to the same conclusion.

In addition to NKT cells, EZH2 deficiency affected several other T-cell populations including Tregs and CD8⁺ cells. Foxp3 acts as a transcriptional repressive mark allowing a physical interaction between itself and EZH2 to target genes for H3K27me3 repression¹⁶. Furthermore, defective induction of Foxp3 expression can be a result of overstimulation from T helper cytokines including IFN- γ or IL-4 in our case⁴⁶. In the context of atherosclerosis, Tregs have been shown to be powerful anti-inflammatory mediators⁴⁷. However, in this study, we observed a type II immune response was sufficient to resolve inflammation without the aid of Tregs. Recently, Tregs and their prototypical cytokine, IL-10, were demonstrated to halt the progression of atherosclerosis through immune dampening and polarization towards Th2 cells and M2 macrophages perhaps suggesting the IL-4/IL-13/IL-10-Th2/M2/Treg is intertwined during atherosclerotic development⁴⁸.

Additionally, $CD8^+$ T cells were shifted from a naive phenotype towards a central memory phenotype in $Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre^{lg}$ mice; however, this phenotype could not be reproduced in a $CD8^+$ -specific knockout model. As increased IL-4 and IL-13 plasma concentrations were absent in the $CD8^+$ -specific knockout model, we believe this suggests a

bystander effect due to IL-4/IL-13 activation. In a parasitic helminth model, where high type II cytokine expression is expected, this bystander effect can be observed as well⁴⁹. Ultimately, these primed CD8⁺ T cells showed enhanced control of subsequent viral infections in the parasitic model⁴⁹. Under atherosclerotic conditions, the role CD8⁺ T cells remains controversial. Mice who are deficient in CD8⁺ T cells displayed no differences in atherosclerosis⁵⁰; however, it has been suggested that CD8⁺ T cells may promote monopoiesis under hyperlipidemic conditions which may affect plaque development⁵¹. Taken together, our data suggest EZH2 is a main player in T-cell activation and differentiation by suppressing anti-atherogenic type II cytokine production suggesting it can be an interesting immunotherapeutic target. Gain of function mutations in EZH2 activity have been implicated in several lymphoid and myeloid cancers such as diffuse large B cell lymphoma and follicular lymphoma, which has spurred research into inhibitory therapeutics^{52,53}. Recently, Tazemetostat, an EZH2 inhibitor which acts as a S-adenosylmethionine-competitive inhibitor to block methyltransferase activity, received accelerated FDA approval as treatment for epithelioid sarcoma^{54,55}. Recent clinical data from the Canakinumab Anti-Inflammatory Thrombosis Outcomes Study (CANTOS) trial demonstrated immunotherapy targeting cardiovascular risk also altered cancer incidence suggesting the two diseases may be linked⁵⁶. Therefore, it's plausible to suggest a cancer therapy like EZH2 inhibition may be a promising immunotherapeutic approach for patients at high risk for atherosclerotic disease as well. In ApoE^{-/-} mice, intraperitoneal injection of an EZH2 inhibitor, GSK126, reduced atherosclerotic lesion following high fat diet by reducing macrophage recruitment⁵⁷. However, this study did not report on the systemic effects of EZH2 inhibition, which need to be carefully reviewed as EZH2 is a crucial regulator in a variety of cell types. Further studies are needed to clarify the powerful immunomodulatory effects of EZH2 inhibition in slowing the progression of atherosclerosis.

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Disclosures

These authors declare no competing interests.

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Figures and Figure Legends



Figure 1 EZH2 expression is associated with T cells in unstable human plaques

A, Representative histological images of stable and ruptured human plaques with labelled plaque components from patients undergoing carotid endarterectomies. **B**, Gene expression analysis using qPCR to evaluate *Ezh2* expression in stable and ruptured carotid endarterectomy specimens (n=15). Data are represented as mean \pm s.e.m. and analyzed using a two-tailed Mann-Whitney test. **C**, Single cell transcriptomes of cells isolated from carotid endarterectomy specimens were analyzed using the Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP) to convert cells into a two dimensional map and identify individual cell clusters (n=4). **D**, Normalized *Ezh2* gene expression per cell is displayed for individual cell clusters.



Figure 2 T-cell specific EZH2 deficiency reduces plaque burden with elevated aortic *ll-4* expression

A, Atherosclerotic plaque area across the aortic root in female *Ezh2^{h/f}/Cd4Cre* mice (n=8-10) at the indicated positions (left) with representative Oil Red O-stained images (right, scale bar: 200 μm). **B**, Morphological plaque phenotype comparison (right) using a Virmani classification describing initial xanthoma (IX), pathological intima thickening (PIT), and fibrous cap atheroma phenotypes and analyzed using a Chi-square distribution analysis (n= 8 animals/24 lesions) together with representative hematoxylin and eosin stained images (right, scale bar: 100 μm). **C-D**, Histological and immunofluorscent quantification assessing measures of plaque stability including (**C**) collagen content through Sirius red analysis and (**D**) macrophage (Mac3⁺) content (n=8, scale bar: 100 μm). **E**, Gene expression of T-cell associated transcripts in the descending aorta using qPCR (n=4-7). Data are all represented as mean ± s.e.m. and analyzed using either a two-tailed Student's *t* test (**A**, **C**, **D**) or two-tailed Mann-Whitney test (**E**). CD cluster of differentiation. IFN-γ interferon-gamma. IL-4 interleukin-4. IL-13 interleukin-13.



Figure 3 T-cell specific EZH2 deficiency disrupts T cell populations with major shifts in naïve, effector, and NKT compartments

A, Flow cytometric analysis of major blood cell populations in female $Ezh2^{n/n}/Cd4Cre$ mice (n=9-10). **B**, Further flow cytometric analysis of the CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ compartments in the blood, lymph nodes (LN), and spleen (n=10). Data for (**A-B**) are represented as mean ± s.e.m. and analyzed using a two-tailed Student's *t* test. **C**, Single cell transcriptomes of splenic CD3⁺ cells isolated from female $Ezh2^{n/n}/Cd4Cre$ mice were analyzed using the Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP) to convert cells into a two dimensional map and identify individual cell clusters (n=4). **D**, Doughnut chart visualizing the proportion of each T cell cluster identified using their single cell transcriptome. CD cluster of differentiation, NKT natural killer T cell.



Figure 4 Flow cytometry confirms shift towards IL-4 producing, Th2-like effector $CD4^+$ T cells in $Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre^{tg}$ mice

A-B, Flow cytometric analysis of splenic CD4⁺ populations including central memory, naïve, effector memory, and Treg (T regulatory) cells relative to all (**A**) CD4⁺ cells or to all (**B**) CD45⁺ leukocytes (n=9-10). **C**, Normalized protein expression of the apoptosis marker, activated caspase 3/7, analyzed by flow cytometry in CD4⁺ naïve and effector memory cells (n=4). **D**, Further flow cytometric analysis of the effector memory (EM) compartment in the spleen comparing CXCR3⁺CCR6⁻ (Th1-like), CXCR3⁻CCR6⁻ (Th2like), and CXCR3⁻CCR6⁺ (Th17-like) cells (n=9-10). **E-F**, Multiplexed type I and type II cytokine measurements from the (**E**) plasma (n=5-8) or (**F**) *in vitro* cultured CD4⁺ supernatant (n=7-8) from *Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre* mice. Data are represented as mean ± s.e.m. and analyzed using either a two-tailed Student's *t* test (**A**, **B**: central memory, naïve, Treg, **C**, **D**: CXCR3⁺CCR6⁻, **F**). IFN-γ interferon-gamma. IL-4 interleukin-4. IL-13 interleukin-13.



Figure 5 IL-4 producing CD4⁺ T cells in $Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre^{tg}$ mice polarize macrophages to an alternatively activated phenotype

In vitro polarization of bone marrow derived macrophages using CD4⁺ supernatant from either from $Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre^{tg}$ mice or their wild-type littermates. **A**, Gene expression (left) analysis using qPCR and protein expression (right) using immunofluorescence to compare expression of inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS) as a marker for M1 polarization (n=3). **B**, Gene expression (left) analysis using qPCR and protein expression (right) using immunofluorescence to compare expression of Arginase1 (Arg1) as a marker for M2 polarization (n=3). Data are all represented as mean ± s.e.m. and analyzed using a two-tailed Student's *t* test



Figure 6 Bulk transcriptomic analysis confirms *II-4* expression and identifies the NKT2-associated gene, *Zbtb16*, in CD4⁺ T cells from $Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre^{tg}$ mice **A**, Volcano plot of differentially expressed genes between CD4⁺ T cells isolated from the spleens of $Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre^{tg}$ mice or their wild-type littermates (n=4-5). Data was analyzed using DeSEQ2 with significance noted as a p_{adj.} < 0.1 (corrected Benjamini-Hochberg). **B**, Ingenuity pathway analysis using the bulk transcriptomic data to identify inhibited (grey) and activated (blue) pathways in $Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre^{tg}$ CD4⁺ T cells.



Figure 7 T-cell specific EZH2 deficiency results in increased frequency of Plzf⁺ NKT2 cells

A-B, Flow cytometric analysis (left) of splenic natural killer T (NKT) cells from (**A**) $Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre^{lg}$ mice (n=3) and (**B**) $Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd8Cre^{lg}$ mice (n=9-10) and their respective wild type littermates. Histogram (right) displaying comparison of promyelocytic leukemia zinc finger (Plzf) protein expression in NKT cells from both mouse strains. **C**, Gene expression of *Zbtb16* in the descending aorta using qPCR in *Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre* mice (n=7). **D**, Bar plot of NKT percentages identified in scRNA-seq analysis using splenic CD3⁺ from *Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre* mice (n=4). **E**, Differential gene expression analysis of NKT cluster using normalized counts from scRNA-seq analysis. T-cell EZH2 regulates type II cytokine production: a potential therapeutic target in ath-

erosclerosis

Lacy: EZH2 regulates atherosclerosis through type II cytokines

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- SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIAL -

Expanded Materials and Methods

Mass spectrometry

T cells treated with C13-glucose (with or without ATPCL inihibitor) were washed once with PBS and snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen. For histone post-translational modification analysis, acid extraction with approximately 1 million cells was performed. Pelleted cells were resuspended in 100 uL of 0.2M H2SO4 and histones were extracted by rotating overnight at 4°C. Cell debris were removed by centrifugation at 20,817 g (max. Speed) for 10 min at 4°C. Histone were precipitated by adding trichloroacetic acid (ThermoScientific, Cat. No 85183) to reach 26% final concentration. Tubes were mixed and incubated at 4°C for 2 hr and spun at 20,817 g for 15 min. Pellets were washed thrice with ice-cold 100% acetone (VWR, Cat. No AA22928-K2) (5 min rotation at 4°C, 15 min of 20,817 g spin at 4°C between washes), dried for 15 min at room temperature and resuspended in 20 uL of 1x Laemmli sample buffer per million cells and boiled at 95°C for 5 min. Samples were stored at -20°C until further use. The histones corresponding to 0.5 million cells were separated using 4-20% pre-cast polyacrylamide gels (Serva, Cat. No 43277.01). Gels were briefly stained with InstantBlue Coomassie Protein Stain (abcam, Cat. No ab119211). For targeted mass-spectrometry analysis, histones bands were excised, washed once with MS-grade water (Sigma Aldrich, Cat. No 1153331000) and de-stained twice (or until transparent) by incubating 30 min at 37°C with 200 uL of 50% acetonitrile (ACN) (CARL ROTH, Cat. No 8825.2) in 50 mM NH4HCO3 (CARL ROTH, Cat. No T871.1). Gel pieces were then washed twice with 200 uL MS-grade and twice with 200 uL of 100% ACN to dehydrate them. Histones were in-gel acylated by adding 20 uL of propionic anhydride (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat. No 175641) and 40 uL of 100 mM NH4HCO3. After 5 min, 140 uL of 1 M NH4HCO3 was slowly added to the reaction. pH was checked for each sample to be around 7 (In cases

where pH was acidic, a few microlitres of 1M NH4HCO3 was added). Samples were incubated at 37°C for 45 min at 550 rpm. Following this, samples were washed 5 times with 200 uL of 100 mM NH4HCO3, 4 times with 200 uL of MS-grade water and 4 times with 200 uL of 100% ACN. They were spun down briefly and all remaining ACN was removed. Gel pieces were rehydrated in 50 uL of trypsin solution (25 ng/ mL trypsin in 100 mM NH4HCO3) (Promega, Cat. No V5111) with 1 uL spike tides and incubated at 4°C for 20 min. After the addition of 150uL of 50 mM NH4HCO3, histones were in-gel digested overnight at 37°C at 550 rpm. Peptides were sequentially extracted by incubating 10 min at room temperature with 150 uL of 50 mM NH4HCO3, twice with 150 uL of 50% ACN (in MS-grade water) 0.1% trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) and twice 100 uL of 100% ACN. During each of the washing steps, samples were sonicated for 3 min in a water bath followed by a brief spin down. Obtained peptides were dried using a centrifugal evaporator and stored at -20°C until resuspension in 30 uL of 0.1% TFA. For desalting, peptides were loaded in a C18 Stagetip (prewashed with 20 uL of methanol followed by 20 uL 80% ACN 0.1% TFA and equilibrated with 20 uL of 0.1% TFA), washed 2 times with 20 uL of 0.1% TFA and peptides were eluted 3 times with 10 uL of 80% ACN 0.25% TFA. Flow through obtained from loading of peptides in C18, were further desalted with TopTip Carbon (glygen, Cat, No TT1CAR.96) by loading the flow through thrice (prewashed thrice with 30 uL of 100% ACN followed by equilibration thrice with 30 uL of 0.1% TFA), washed 5 times with 30 ul of 0.1% TFA and eluted thrice with 15 ul of 70% ACN and 0.1% TFA. Eluted peptides from both desalting steps were combined and evaporated in a centrifugal evaporator, resuspended in 17 ul of 0.1% TFA and stored at -20°C. Resuspened samples were injected in an Ultimate 3000 RSLCnano system (Thermo) separated in a 25-cm Aurora column (Ionopticks) with a 50-min gradient from 6 to 43% of 80% acetonitrile in 0.1% formic acid with a 50-min gradient from 5 to 60% acetonitrile in 0.1% formic acid. The effluent
from the HPLC was directly electrosprayed into a Qexactive HF (Thermo) operated in data dependent mode to automatically switch between full scan MS and MS/MS acquisition. Survey full scan MS spectra (from m/z 250–1600) were acquired with resolution R=60,000 at m/z 400 (AGC target of 3x106). The 10 most intense peptide ions with charge states between 2 and 5 were sequentially isolated to a target value of 1x105, and fragmented at 27% normalized collision energy. Typical mass spectrometric conditions were: spray voltage, 1.5 kV; no sheath and auxiliary gas flow; heated capillary temperature, 250°C; ion selection threshold, 33.000 counts. Peak integration was performed using Skyline (https://skyline.ms/project/home/software/Skyline/begin.view) and was further analyzed by R (R Core Team (2017). R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. URL https://www.R-project.org/).

Hematology and organ isolation

To analyze hematological parameters, blood was acquired via cardiac puncture and collected into EDTA-containing tubes (Sarstedt, Nümbrecht, Germany) and investigated using a ScilVetabc plus (Scil Animal Care Company B.V., Viernheim, Germany). Desired organs, including abdominal aorta, aortic arch, liver, lymph nodes, and spleen, were harvested with perfusion of the arterial tree with phosphate-buffered saline (Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, USA). Organs harvested for gene expression analysis were stored in RNAlater (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, USA) for 24 hours at room temperature and afterwards frozen at -80 °C. Additionally, for flow cytometric analysis, organs were collected in phosphate-buffered saline on ice. For plaque development analysis, hearts, including the aortic root, were isolated and frozen in Tissue-Tek (Sakura, Finetek, Torrance, USA) for sectioning.

Histology and Immunohistochemistry

For plaque area quantification, 6 µm-thick serial heart sections were stained with Oilred O (Sigma Aldrich). The brightfield images were analyzed by using an automated morphometry system (LAS 4.6 analysis, Leica Microsystems) on a Leica DM6000 microscope (Leica Microsystems, Wetzlar, Germany).

The cryosectioned aortic root slides were fixed in 100% ice-cold acetone solution before incubation with primary antibodies. The secondary antibodies (Alexa Fluor 488, Alexa-594, Cy3, Life Technologies, and Jackson ImmunoResearch, West Grove, USA) were applied to detect primary antibodies bound to the tissue samples. The counterstaining was done with hematoxylin or 4', 6' Diamidino-2-phenylindol (DAPI, Life Technologies), and DAKO fluorescent mounting medium (Dako, Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, USA) was used. The images were taken by using a Leica DM6000 microscope. Mac3 and α -SMA positive areas were analyzed using color thresholds, whereas stained cells were counted (see Supplemental Table 3 for clones).

Gene expression

To quantify the gene expression, RNA was isolated from desired tissue samples by using the RNeasy Mini Kit II (Qiagen) and reverse transcribed with the SuperVilo cDNA synthesis kit (Life Technologies). Quantitative real-time PCR (qPCR) was performed using FAM-labelled TaqMan Assays (Applied Biosystems) and Gene Expression Master mix (Life Technologies) on a 7900HT real-time PCR system (Applied Biosystems) to analyze expression of genes (*EZH2, iNOS, Arg1, CD3, CD4, CD8, IFNg, IL4, IL13, PLZF, Rlp13a*).

Flow cytometry

After harvesting, the lymph nodes and spleen were mashed and strained by a cell strainer (70 μ m) to prepare single cell suspension. The erythrocytes present in whole blood and spleen samples were lysed with lysis buffer (150 mM ammonium chloride (Sigma Aldrich) and 10 mM sodium bicarbonate (Sigma Aldrich), pH 7.4) for 2 minutes on ice. Then, PBS washed cells were plated in microtiter plates (Costar 3799, Corning, USA) and stained with the required antibody cocktail. To avoid nonspecific binding, cells were first treated with Fc block (anti-CD16/32, eBiosciences, clone 93, 1:100) for 20 min on ice whenever necessary. The antibody cocktail was prepared depending on experiments (see Supplementary Table 4 for clones). Intracellular staining for the transcription factors Foxp3 (FoxP3-eFluor 450, ThermoFisherScientific, clone FJK-16s, 1:40) and PLZF (PLZF APC 1: 100) were done by following manufacturer's instructions for intracellular (nuclear) proteins staining. When necessary, viability dyes (Live/Dead fixable Aqua/Violet; Life Technologies) were included in antibody panels as well. Before attaining the FACS data, fluorochrome compensation was made with UltraComp Beads (eBioscience). Single cell suspensions were investigated by using BD FACS CantoTM II (BD Biosciences) and the acquired data was analyzed with Flowjo v.10 software (Flowjo, LLC, Ashland, USA).

Cytokine measurements

Plasma and T cell supernatant cytokine levels were determined by multiplexed bead immunoassay using the Magpix instrument (Luminex, Thermo Fisher). For both specimens, T cell cytokines were analyzed using the Th1/Th2/Th9/Th17/Th22/Treg Cytokine 17-plex Mouse ProcartaPlex Panel (Thermo Fisher) according to manufacturer's instructions.

Murine single cell RNA-sequencing

Following high fat diet administration, spleens were isolated from from $Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre$ mice after cervical dislocation. Living splenic CD45⁺CD3⁺ T cells (B220⁻Gr1⁻Ter119⁻) were sorted using a FACSAria III (BD Biosciences) and diluted to a concentration of 1000 cells/ul per 10X genomics protocol. Single cell libraries were generated using the Chromium Next GEM Single Cell 3' Reagent Kit v3.1 (10x Genomics, Pleasanton, CA). Sequencing of the 10x Chromium gene expression library was performed on an Illumina HiSeq 1500 instrument with 28 bases read 1 and 50 bases read 2 and an 8 bases index read. Raw data was demultiplexed based on the i7 index sequences using deML⁵⁸. Next the fastq files were quality filtered, mapped and converted into a count table using the zUMIs pipeline (version 2.9.4d)⁵⁹. Mapping to the GRCm38 genome was performed using STAR (version 2.6)⁶⁰ with Gencode vM25 gene annotation. To distinguish small cells from truly empty droplets, cellbender⁶¹ was used, and the final count matrix was subset for the identified barcodes. scRNA-seq analysis was then performed in RStudio (Version 1.3.1093) using the Seurat package (version 4.0.2)²³. Separate Seurat objects were created for wild-type and knockout reads, and genes were excluded if expressed in fewer than 30 cells. Merge() was used to combine the wild-type and knockout datasets. SCTransform normalization²⁴ was adopted to mitigate the possible sources of variations like cell cycle as well as technique-related influence. The Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP) was used to convert cells into a two dimensional map. Bulk RNA-sequencing

The harvested lymph nodes and spleen were processed with forceps and filtered through a 70 μ m strainer to prepare single-cell suspensions. Spleen Erythrocytes were lysed for 2 minutes on ice with an erylysis buffer consisting of 150 mM Ammonium chloride (Sigma Aldrich) and 10 mM Sodium bicarbonate (Sigma Aldrich) at pH= 7.4. CD4+ T cells were isolated from the prepared cell suspensions using antibody-conjugated magnetic beads according to the manufacturer's instructions (Dynabeads Untouched Mouse CD4, Life Technologies). For bulk RNA sequencing, RNA was isolated from approximately 1 million CD4⁺ T cells by following the manufacturer protocol of the RNeasy kit (Qiagen). Subsequently, the cDNAs, library preparation, and data analysis were done using an adapted version of prime-seq (step by step protocol: https://www.protocols.io/view/prime-seq-s9veh66) described previously.

Briefly, extracted RNA was DNAse I treated and then reverse transcribed into fulllength cDNA using barcoded oligodT primers and template switching oligos. Following first strand synthesis, the samples were pooled, cleaned with magnetic beads, and remaining primers were digested using Exonuclease I. Second strand synthesis and preamplification was performed, and the amplified cDNA was quantified using PicoGreen and qualified using a HS DNA chip on the Bioanalyzer (Agilent). High quality samples were used for library construction using the NEB Next Ultra II FS kit (NEB) according to prime-seq specifications. The libraries were quantified and qualified using the HS DNA chip on the Bioanalyzer (Agilent) and then sequenced using a Hiseq 1500 with the following parameters: R1: 28, i7: 8, R2: 50 cycles.

The raw data was pre-processed with zUMIs (version 2.5.5)⁵⁹, including filtering, mapping to the mouse genome (GRCm38.85), and counting. Differential gene expression analysis was performed using the DEseq2⁶² bioconductor package in an R environment (3.5.3) and functional annotation of differentially expressed genes was done with Qiagen Ingenuity Pathway Analysis (data content version 49932394)⁶³.





Supplemental Figure 1 Conditional EZH2 knockout model generation and confirmation for *Ezh2*^{fl/fl}/*Cd4Cre* mice

A, Model for insertion of loxP sites into the EZH2 gene flanking exon 14 and 15, which partially code for the methyltransferase activity-conferring SET domain. Floxed exons can be excised by cre-mediated recombinase. **B-C**, Confirmation of $Ezh2^{n/n}/Cd4Cre$ model using (**B**) qPCR to analyze gene expression of both EZH1 and EZH2 (n=5) from *in vitro* concanavalin A activated CD4⁺ T cells and (**C**) mass spectrometry of histone modifications including histone 3 lysine 27 monomethylation (H3K27me1), histone 3 lysine 27 dimethylation (H3K27me2), and histone 3 lysine 27 trimethylation (H3K27me3) isolated directly from splenic CD4⁺ T cells (n=4). Data are all represented as mean ± s.e.m. and analyzed using a two-tailed Student's *t* test.



Supplemental Figure 2 T-cell specific EZH2 deficiency reduces plaque burden in male mice in both the aortic root and aortic arch

A, Atherosclerotic plaque area (%) across the aortic root in male $Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre$ mice (n=10) at the indicated positions (left) with representative Oil Red O-stained images (right). **B**, Atherosclerotic plaque area from the aortic arch in male $Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre$ mice (n=10). Data are all represented as mean ± s.e.m. and analyzed using either a two-tailed Student's *t* test (**A**) or two-tailed Mann-Whitney test (**B**).



Supplemental Figure 3 Feature plots to identify naïve and effector T cell populations from single cell RNA-sequencing of splenic CD3⁺ from $Ezh2^{fl/l}/Cd4Cre$ mice

Feature plots displaying expression levels for *Sell*, *Ccr7*, *Lck*, and *Cd27* to help identify naïve, memory, and effector T cell populations. Feature plot displaying expression levels for *Ccl5* to help identify CD8 effector T cells. Feature plot displaying expression levels for *Arhgap45* to help distinguish memory and effector T cells. Expression profiles are split between $Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre^{lg}$ mice (blue) and their wild-type littermates (grey) per cluster.



Supplemental Figure 4 Feature plots to identify Treg and effector T cell populations from single cell RNA-sequencing of splenic CD3⁺ from $Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre$ mice Feature plots displaying expression levels for *Ikzf2* and *Nrp1* to help identify T regulatory (Treg) cells. Feature plot displaying expression levels for *S100a4* and *S100a6* to help distinguish effector T cells from Tregs. Expression profiles are split between $Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre^{lg}$ mice (blue) and their wild-type littermates (grey) per cluster.



Supplemental Figure 5 Feature plots to identify NKT and $\gamma\delta$ T cell populations from single cell RNA-sequencing of splenic CD3⁺ from *Ezh2*^{*fl/fl}/Cd4Cre* mice</sup>

Feature plots displaying expression levels for *Klrk1*, *Zbtb16*, *Id2* to help identify natural killer T (NKT) cells. Feature plot displaying expression levels for *Ccr6*, *Rorc*, and *Trdc* to help distinguish gamma-delta ($\gamma\delta$) T cell from NKT cells. Expression profiles are split between *Ezh2*^{*fl/fl}/<i>Cd4Cre*^{*tg*} mice (blue) and their wild-type littermates (grey) per cluster.</sup>



Supplemental Figure 6 CD8-specific EZH2 deficiency does not affect atherosclerosis or production of type II cytokines

A, Flow cytometric analysis of CD8⁺ populations in *Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd4Cre* mice (n=10). **B**, Gene expression analysis using qPCR to compare *Ezh2* in concanavalin A activated CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells from mice with a CD8-specific EZH2 deficiency (*Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd8Cre^{fg}*) and their wildtype littermates (n=4). **C**, Atherosclerotic plaque area (%) across the aortic root in male *Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd8Cre* mice (n=10-13) at the indicated positions (left) with representative Oil Red O-stained images (right). **D**, Flow cytometric analysis of CD8⁺ populations in *Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd8Cre* mice (n=8-12). **E**, Multiplexed cytokine measurements for IL-4 and IL-13 in the plasma of *Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd8Cre* mice (n=6-8). Data are all represented as mean ± s.e.m. and analyzed using either a two-tailed Student's *t* test (**A**, **B**, **C**, **D**: naïve, effector memory, **E**) or two-tailed Mann-Whitney test (**D**: central memory).

Supplemental Tables

Parameter	EZH2Cd4cre ^{wt}	EZH2Cd4cretg	p-value
Weight (g)	26.48 ± 1.41	25.10 ± 0.94	0.68
VLDL (mM)	3.14 ± 0.02	2.76 ± 0.13	0.19
LDL (mM)	4.56 ± 0.38	3.96 ± 0.18	0.18
HDL (mM)	0.47 ± 0.03	0.57 ± 0.05	0.14
White Blood Cells ($10^{3}/\mu L$)	2.57 ± 0.14	2.44 ± 0.24	0.64
Lymphocytes (10 ³ /µL)	1.73 ± 0.13	1.56 ± 0.14	0.42
Monocytes (10 ³ /µL)	0.10 ± 0.01	0.11 ± 0.02	0.59
Granulocytes (103/µL)	0.74 ± 0.06	0.75 ± 0.09	0.99
Red Blood Cells (106/µL)	9.02 ± 0.11	8.89 ± 0.13	0.46
Hemoglobin (mmol/L)	8.99 ± 0.08	8.70 ± 0.13	0.08
MCH (fmol)	0.99 ± 0.01	0.98 ± 0.01	0.17
MCHC (mmol/L)	19.06 ± 0.09	19.06 ± 0.10	0.98
MCV (fl)	52.00 ± 0.36	51.42 ± 0.48	0.21
Platelets (10 ³ /µL)	877.70 ± 21.95	972.60 ± 48.26	0.48

Supplemental Table 1 14 parameters were compared between $Ezh2^{n/n}/Cd4Cre^{tg}$ mice and their wild-type littermates as confirmation of minimal negative consequences from EZH2 knockout. Data are all represented as mean \pm s.d.

Parameter	EZH2Cd8cre ^{wt}	EZH2Cd8cretg	p-value
Weight (g)	25.39 ± 2.20	24.11 ± 1.14	0.11
VLDL (mM)	1.69 ± 0.19	1.45 ± 0.53	0.37
LDL (mM)	4.12 ± 0.89	3.19 ± 0.52	0.07
HDL (mM)	$0.55\pm\ 0.04$	$0.49\pm\ 0.13$	0.36
White Blood Cells (10 ³ /µL)	2.34 ± 0.45	2.57 ± 0.50	0.27
Lymphocytes (10 ³ /µL)	1.63 ± 0.38	1.81 ± 0.43	0.32
Monocytes (10 ³ /µL)	0.06 ± 0.05	0.07 ± 0.05	0.59
Granulocytes (103/µL)	0.65 ± 0.13	0.69 ± 0.12	0.47
Red Blood Cells (106/µL)	9.37 ± 0.37	9.24 ± 0.54	0.53
Hemoglobin (mmol/L)	9.08 ± 0.39	8.91 ± 0.46	0.44
MCH (fmol)	0.98 ± 0.04	0.97 ± 0.04	0.58
MCHC (mmol/L)	18.66 ± 0.50	18.77 ± 0.72	0.73
MCV (fl)	52.00 ± 1.21	51.70 ± 1.64	0.63
Platelets (10 ³ /µL)	937.1 ± 88.28	913.5 ± 97.03	0.56

Supplemental Table 2 14 parameters were compared between $Ezh2^{fl/fl}/Cd8Cre^{lg}$ mice and their wild-type littermates as confirmation of minimal negative consequences from EZH2 knockout. Data are all represented as mean \pm s.d.

Antibody	Company	Clone	Dilution
Mac3	BD Biosciences	M3/84	1:200
Alpha smooth muscle actin (a-SMA)	Sigma Aldrich	1A4	1:1000
CD3	BD Biosciences	145-2C11	1:100
CD4	BD Biosciences	RM4-5	1:100
iNOS	Cell Signaling	145-2C11	1:100
Arg1	Cell Signaling	D4E3M	1:50

Supplemental Table 3 Immunohistochemical antibodies used in the present study.

Antibody	Company	Clone	Dilution
CD45 PB/PerCP	Biolegend	30F11	1:1000
CD11b PerCP	eBioscience	M1/70	1:500
CD19 Pe-Cy7	eBioscience	eBio1D3	1:500
CD3 Fite	eBioscience	145-2C11	1:200
CD115 APC	Biolegend	AFS98	1:500
Ly6C BV510	Biolegend	HK1.4	1:500
Ly6G PE	BD Biosciences	1A8	1:2000
CD4 BV510	Biolegend	RM4-5	1:1000
CD44 APC	eBiosciences	IM7	1:500
CD62L APC-Cy7	Biolegend	MEL-14	1:1000
CD25 PE	eBiosciences	PC61.5	1:300
Foxp3 PB	eBiosciences	FJK-16s	1:40
CXCR3 PE-Cy7	Biolegend	CXCR3 PE-Cy7	1:100
CCR6 PE	Biolegend	29-2L17	1:100
CD1d PBS-57 PB	NIH Tetramer Core Facility	-	1:500
CD8 PE/PerCP	eBiosciences	53-6.7	1:200
TCRb APC-H7	Invitrogen	H57-597	1:100
PLZF APC	BD Bioscience	R17-809	1:100

Supplemental Table 4 Flow cytometry antibodies used in the present study.

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