The histone demethylase UTX regulates the lineage-specific epigenetic program of invariant natural killer T cells

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Invariant natural killer T cells (iNKT cells) are innate-like lymphocytes that protect against infection, autoimmune disease and cancer. However, little is known about the epigenetic regulation of iNKT cell development. Here we found that the H3K27me3 histone demethylase UTX was an essential cell-intrinsic factor that controlled an iNKT-cell lineage-specific gene-expression program and epigenetic landscape in a demethylase-activity-dependent manner. UTX-deficient iNKT cells exhibited impaired expression of iNKT cell signature genes due to a decrease in activation-associated H3K4me3 marks and an increase in repressive H3K27me3 marks within the promoters occupied by UTX. We found that JunB regulated iNKT cell development and that the expression of genes that were targets of both JunB and the iNKT cell master transcription factor PLZF was UTX dependent. We identified iNKT cell super-enhancers and demonstrated that UTX-mediated regulation of super-enhancer accessibility was a key mechanism for commitment to the iNKT cell lineage. Our findings reveal how UTX regulates the development of iNKT cells through multiple epigenetic mechanisms.

Invariant natural killer T cells (iNKT cells) are a subset of T lymphocytes with a limited T cell antigen receptor (TCR) repertoire that recognizes lipid antigens presented by CD1d molecules on the surface of antigen-presenting cells1,2. The prototypical lipid antigen is the glycosphingolipid α-galactosylceramide derived from a marine sponge3, which can be loaded onto CD1d tetramers for the detection of iNKT cells through their invariant TCR. Following antigen recognition, iNKT cells respond rapidly in an innate-like fashion and secrete inflammatory cytokines, including interferon-γ (IFN-γ) and interleukin 4 (IL-4), in copious amounts1,4. This early response influences the outcome of downstream immunological reactions and endows iNKT cells with regulatory properties. Due to the diversity of their effector functions, iNKT cells are involved in many pathological processes. Accordingly, they are important in host defense against infections, prevent autoimmune disorders and protect against cancer1,4.

Delineating the molecular mechanisms that control specification to the iNKT cell lineage is essential for the development of potential therapeutic applications that target iNKT cells. Commitment to the iNKT cell lineage involves positive selection of precursors of iNKT cells by CD4+CD8− double-positive (DP) thymocytes that express CD1d-glycolipid complexes5. After positive selection, TCR signaling activates a pathway of calcineurin and the transcription factor NFAT that induces expression of the transcription factor Egr2 (ref. 6). Following that induction, Egr2 activates the iNKT cell master regulator PLZF (encoded by Zbtb16) and the common β-subunit of the IL-2–IL-15 receptor (CD122; encoded by Il2rb), which leads to the subsequent steps of iNKT cell development, composed of cytokine expression and proliferation in response to the IL-15–CD122 axis7,8. T-bet (encoded by Tbx21) is a key transcription factor that regulates the differentiation of iNKT cells and their acquisition of NK cell traits during terminal maturation. After egressing from the thymus, iNKT cells reside mainly in the liver and spleen to perform their effector functions9. Although published reports have contributed to an understanding of how key transcription factors establish iNKT cell identity, little is known about the epigenetic roles of these factors in iNKT cell development. Here we sought to establish the epigenetic basis for lineage commitment to iNKT cells and better understand the role of the histone demethylase UTX in these processes.

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cell identity in a stepwise process\textsuperscript{12,13}, it is unclear how a multitude of transcription factors are orchestrated within an epigenetic framework that controls lineage-specific gene expression in \( \text{iNKT} \) cells.

During development, cell-fate determination relies on the activation of cell-type-restricted transcription factors that act at promoters and enhancers of genes. This requires epigenetic programming to ensure the establishment of proper chromatin organization. Stretch-enhancer elements (‘super-enhancers’) have a critical role in the control of cell identity\textsuperscript{14,15}. Dynamic regulation of the histone-methylation state at promoters or enhancers by histone-modifying enzymes is a key epigenetic mechanism that affects lineage-specific gene expression\textsuperscript{16–18}. The polycomb repressive complex PRC2 catalyzes the trimethylation of histone H3 on lysine 27 (to produce H3K27me3) that is associated with poised or repressed states of promoters and enhancers\textsuperscript{17,19,20}. In contrast, demethylation of H3K27me3 by the histone demethylases UTX and JMJD3 correlates with active chromatin states that facilitate gene expression\textsuperscript{21–25}. UTx and JMJD3 serve important roles in early development\textsuperscript{21–23,26}, epigenetic reprogramming\textsuperscript{27}, cellular differentiation\textsuperscript{24,28–30} and cancer\textsuperscript{21,32}. The role of UTx in various T lymphocyte subsets has been addressed\textsuperscript{33–35}; however, the underlying mechanisms of its effects remain to be elucidated.

In this study, we assessed the epigenetic mechanisms by which UTx controls the development of \( \text{iNKT} \) cells. Deficiency in UTx resulted in the downregulation of \( \text{iNKT} \) cell signature genes, including \( \text{Tbx21}, \text{Il2rb} \) and \( \text{Klrk1} \), and blocked \( \text{iNKT} \) cell development. We demonstrated that the abundance of H3K27me3 was greater and that of H3K4me3 was lower around the promoters of downregulated signature genes in UTx-deficient \( \text{iNKT} \) cells than in UTx-sufficient \( \text{iNKT} \) cells. We found that UTx partnered with PLZF, and that UTx-deficient \( \text{iNKT} \) cells failed to activate PLZF target genes and harbored more H3K27me3 around their gene promoters than did UTx-sufficient \( \text{iNKT} \) cells. Moreover, we discovered a role for the AP-1 transcription factor JunB in the generation of \( \text{iNKT} \) cells. By delineating the super-enhancer landscape of \( \text{iNKT} \) cells, we demonstrated that UTx was required for the accessibility of the super-enhancers of genes encoding products that mediate specification to the \( \text{iNKT} \) cell lineage. Thus, we found that UTx engaged multiple gene-regulatory mechanisms to facilitate the lineage-specific gene expression and development of \( \text{iNKT} \) cells.

RESULTS

Requirement for UTx in \( \text{iNKT} \) cell development

Initially, we assessed the requirements for UTx and JMJD3 broadly in the hematopoietic system. For this purpose, we generated mice with loxP-flanked alleles encoding UTx or JMJD3, then interbred those with mice expressing Cre recombinase from the \( \text{Vav} \) allele for conditional gene inactivation in the adult hematopoietic system, to generate mice with such conditional deficiency in UTx (UTx-KO) or JMJD3 (JMJD3-KO) (Supplementary Fig. 1a–e). We observed that the number of \( \text{iNKT} \) cells was much lower in the thymus, spleen and liver of UTx-KO or JMJD3-KO mice than in that of UTx- and JMJD3-sufficient mice (which served as controls throughout), with a more pronounced effect for mice with UTx deficiency (Fig. 1a). Mice with deficiency of both UTx and JMJD3 in the adult hematopoietic system (DKO mice) had a phenotype similar to that of UTx-KO mice (Fig. 1a), which suggested that ablation of JMJD3 had no additive effects. We confirmed the deletion of transcripts encoding UTx or JMJD3 in the blood, DP thymocytes and \( \text{iNKT} \) cells of UTx-KO or JMJD3-KO mice, respectively, by quantitative PCR (Supplementary Fig. 1f). Through the use of molecular markers to distinguish the stages of \( \text{iNKT} \) cell development\textsuperscript{36}, analysis of the remaining thymic \( \text{iNKT} \) cells in UTx-KO or JMJD3-KO mice revealed a maturation block that prevented \( \text{iNKT} \) cells from fully entering into stage 3, with relative accumulation in stages 1 and 2 (Fig. 1b–d). These results indicated a selective role for UTx and JMJD3 in \( \text{iNKT} \) cells during blood-cell differentiation. Since the altered \( \text{iNKT} \) cell phenotype proved to be predominant in UTx deficiency, we focused our subsequent analyses on UTx.

Next we assessed the influence of loss of UTx on the functional properties of \( \text{iNKT} \) cells. After stimulation with \( \alpha \)-galactosylceramide, IFN-\( \gamma \) production was lower in thymic \( \text{iNKT} \) cells of UTx-KO mice than in those of control mice (Supplementary Fig. 2a), reflective of a lack of fully mature cells. However, the synthesis of IL-4 in the thymus and production of IFN-\( \gamma \) by the few remaining liver \( \text{iNKT} \) cells in UTx-KO mice was unaltered relative to that in control mice (Supplementary Fig. 2a). A published classification, although not mutually exclusive with the maturation model, has categorized \( \text{iNKT} \) cell development into the subtypes ‘\( \text{NKTL1} \)’, ‘\( \text{NKTL2} \)’ and ‘\( \text{NKTL17} \)’ on the basis of cytokine profile and specific transcription factors\textsuperscript{37}. We observed considerably fewer T-bet-dependent \( \text{NKTL1} \) cells in UTx-deficient mice than in control mice (Supplementary Fig. 2b).

To exclude the possibility that the impaired development of \( \text{iNKT} \) cells was a consequence of failure of antigen presentation or rearrangement of the \( \text{V}_{\alpha}2\text{J}_{\alpha}18 \) TCR, we demonstrated equivalent expression of CD1d and abundance of transcripts encoding \( \text{V}_{\alpha}2\text{J}_{\alpha}18 \) in UTx-deficient DP thymocytes and control DP thymocytes (Supplementary Fig. 2c,d). Thus, UTx did not affect mainly the function of \( \text{iNKT} \) cells but instead affected mainly their development.

Control of \( \text{iNKT} \)-cell-lineage-specific gene expression by UTx

To elucidate the molecular mechanism by which UTx contributed to the development of \( \text{iNKT} \) cells, we sorted thymic \( \text{iNKT} \) cells from UTx-KO or control mice and performed gene-expression analysis (Supplementary Fig. 3a). Genes downregulated in UTx-KO \( \text{iNKT} \) cells relative to their expression in control \( \text{iNKT} \) cells comprised those induced during \( \text{iNKT} \) cell maturation and included those encoding the critical transcription factor T-bet (\( \text{Tbx21} \))\textsuperscript{11}, the NK cell receptor NK2GD (\( \text{Klrk1} \)), the chemokine and cytokine receptors CXCR3 (\( \text{Cxcr3} \)) and CD122 (\( \text{Il2rb} \))\textsuperscript{9}, as well as the cytokine IFN-\( \gamma \) (\( \text{Ifng} \)) and the calcium regulator calcyclin (\( \text{S100a6} \))\textsuperscript{12} (Fig. 2a). Gene-set–enrichment analysis (GSEA) of the genes downregulated in UTx-deficient \( \text{iNKT} \) cells revealed enrichment, among the downregulated genes, for genes encoding products involved in \( \text{iNKT} \) cell differentiation as well as in signaling pathways, including IL-12 and NFAT, which have been reported to have important roles in \( \text{iNKT} \) cells\textsuperscript{6,13} (Fig. 2b and Supplementary Fig. 3b). Using quantitative PCR, we confirmed the expression of a subset of signature genes whose downregulation depended on UTx and observed substantial downregulation of \( \text{Tbx21}, \text{S100a6}, \text{Klrk1} \) and \( \text{Klrk1} \) (which encode NK cell receptors), \( \text{Cxcr3} \) and \( \text{Il2rb} \) in UTx-deficient thymic \( \text{iNKT} \) cells relative to their expression in control thymic \( \text{iNKT} \) cells (Fig. 2c). Correspondingly, \( \text{iNKT} \) cells from UTx-KO mice had lower protein expression of the products of those genes than that of \( \text{iNKT} \) cells from control mice (Fig. 2d). In contrast, UTx deficiency resulted in the upregulation of genes encoding products involved in the cell-cycle, DNA-replication and DNA-repair pathways (Supplementary Fig. 3c). We confirmed loss of transcripts encoding UTx and UTx-dependent downregulation of signature genes in UTx-KO \( \text{iNKT} \) cells at various stages of development (Supplementary Fig. 3d,e). These findings indicated that \( \text{iNKT} \) cell development required a UTx-mediated lineage-specific gene-expression program.

Regulation of the epigenetic landscape of \( \text{iNKT} \) cells by UTx

UTx-mediated demethylation of H3K27me3 and concomitant catalysis of the trimethylation of H3K4 by the methyltransferase
MLL2 around gene promoters correlates with active gene expression. Therefore, we hypothesized that during iNKT cell development, transcriptional activation of genes specific to the iNKT cell lineage involves UTX-dependent chromatin regulation. To address this hypothesis, we examined the epigenetic landscape of iNKT cells from UTX-KO or control thymi by genome-wide chromatin immunoprecipitation followed by deep sequencing (ChIP-Seq) for H3K4me3 marks and H3K27me3 marks, which correlate with activation or repression, respectively. We applied a model-based analysis of ChIP-Seq (MACS2) to identify distinct peaks in each condition. Although genome-wide H3K4me3 peaks were largely shared by control iNKT cells and UTX-KO iNKT cells (Fig. 3a), genome-wide H3K27me3 peaks were much more abundant in the absence of UTX (Fig. 3b), consistent with the role of UTX in the demethylation of H3K27me3. In addition to that accumulation of global H3K27me3 content in UTX-KO iNKT cells (9,645), we observed that some regions exhibited control-cell-specific H3K27me3 peaks (4,250) (Fig. 3b). While the chromosomal distribution of control-cell-specific H3K27me3 peaks was similar to that of UTX-KO-cell-specific H3K27me3 peaks (Supplementary Fig. 4a,b), control-cell-specific H3K27me3 peaks were more abundant in distal intergenic regions than were UTX-KO-cell-specific peaks (33.5% (control) versus 24.7% (UTX-KO); Supplementary Fig. 4c,d). Notably, we detected a greater abundance of UTX-KO-cell-specific H3K27me3 peaks (13.4%) than
control-cell-specific H3K27me3 peaks (10.4%) in proximal promoters (Supplementary Fig. 4c,d). Analysis with the Genomic Regions Enrichment of Annotations Tool (GREAT) demonstrated that regions with loss of H3K27me3 peaks in UTX-KO iNKT cells showed enrichment for bivalent genes with both H3K27me3 and H3K4me3 in their promoters, as well as genes encoding products involved in erythrocyte development (Supplementary Fig. 5a). Notably, regions that gained H3K27me3 peaks in UTX deficiency showed enrichment for genes that require MLL for their transcription, as well as genes induced in memory T cells (Supplementary Fig. 5b).

Since UTX-mediated alterations to histone marks around promoters affect gene expression, we investigated the average abundance of histone marks at gene promoters in iNKT cells (Fig. 3c–e). In UTX-KO iNKT cells, we observed significant accumulation of H3K27me3 around the transcription start sites (TSSs) and promoters of downregulated genes (Fig. 3d and Supplementary Fig. 5c). Moreover, we observed a much lower abundance of H3K4me3 in the downregulated genes in UTX-KO iNKT cells than in control cells (Fig. 3d). While there was less significant accumulation of H3K27me3 around the promoters of upregulated genes than around those of downregulated genes in UTX-KO iNKT cells (P = 9 × 10^{-4} (permutation test); Supplementary Fig. 5d), there was no notable difference in the abundance of H3K4me3 in this comparison (Fig. 3e). GREAT analysis of the promoter regions of downregulated genes revealed enrichment for genes encoding products involved in iNKT cell development (Supplementary Fig. 5e), while similar analysis of upregulated genes demonstrated an association with the cell-cycle and DNA-repair pathways (Supplementary Fig. 5f). These results suggested that UTX controlled iNKT cell development by regulating the chromatin landscape around the promoters of downregulated genes encoding products involved in iNKT cell differentiation.

Regulation of iNKT-cell-signature-gene promoters by UTX

To identify the various patterns of chromatin state and to explore promoters with substantial UTX-dependent chromatin regulation, we identified clusters on the basis of the distribution of H3K4me3 and H3K27me3 around the promoters of the downregulated (Fig. 3f-1 and Supplementary Fig. 6a) and upregulated genes (Supplementary Fig. 6b,c) identified above. For the downregulated genes, cluster 1 included promoters with a similar abundance of H3K4me3 in control iNKT cells and UTX-KO iNKT cells and a slightly greater abundance of H3K27me3 in the absence of UTX (Fig. 3f). Cluster 2 included promoters with a very low abundance of H3K4me3 and similar abundance of H3K27me3 in control iNKT cells and UTX-KO iNKT cells (Fig. 3g). Notably, promoters in cluster 3 (Fig. 3h) and cluster 4 (Fig. 3i) had a much lower abundance of H3K4me3 and accumulation of H3K27me3, especially around the TSS, which suggested that these promoters were affected by UTX-dependent chromatin regulation. Integration of gene-expression data with chromatin state revealed that the genes most downregulated were in cluster 3 (Fig. 3h), which
These results suggested that UTX directly controlled the epigenetic gene encoding and analyzed UTX in sorted control whether UTX was physically recruited to those promoters, we analyzed abundance at those genes in control cells (around the promoters of the signature genes lower abundance of H3K4me3 and an accumulation of H3K27me3 around the promoters of genes with UTX-dependent H3K27me3 was largely similar in UTX-KO iNKT cells and control iNKT cells (Supplementary Fig. 6b,c). These results emphasize that deficiency in UTX affected the chromatin state specifically around the promoters of a subset of downregulated genes, which constituted the iNKT cell signature in cluster 3 and cluster 4, without a robust effect on the chromatin state of other genes.

**Binding of UTX to iNKT-cell-signature-gene promoters**

To assess specific alterations in the abundance of H3K4me3 and H3K27me3 around the promoters of genes with UTX-dependent transcriptional and chromatin regulation, we generated overlay tracks of ChIP-Seq data from control and UTX-KO iNKT cells using the Integrative Genomics Viewer tool. We visualized the lower abundance of H3K4me3 and an accumulation of H3K27me3 around the promoters of the signature genes -actin (Actb), which was not regulated by UTX, on the basis of gene expression and ChIP-Seq data (Supplementary Fig. 6f). These results suggested that UTX directly controlled the epigenetic landscape around the promoters of iNKT cell lineage-specific genes to facilitate their transcription.

**Requirement for UTX enzyme activity in iNKT cell development**

Although the data above indicated a critical role for UTX in regulating iNKT-cell-lineage-specific gene expression and development, it was important to assess whether UTX acted directly in iNKT cells. A ‘peculiarity’ of iNKT cells is that they originate from and concomitantly are selected by DP thymocytes.38 This feature allows the use of mixed-bone-marrow chimeras to distinguish whether a gene defect is intrinsic to iNKT cells or if extrinsic antigen presentation and selection by CD1d-expressing DP thymocytes is responsible for an observed phenotype. We transferred bone marrow cells from control and UTX-deficient mice (at a 1:1 ratio) into immunodeficient Rag2-−/− host mice and subsequently determined the contribution of each genotype of donor bone marrow to the overall iNKT cell pool in the recipients. In the thymus, the population of stage 0–1 iNKT cells of UTX-deficient origin predominated over that of control cells (Supplementary Fig. 7a,b), due to the relative accumulation of immature iNKT cells in UTX deficiency. Accordingly, the majority of iNKT cells at stage 3 were of control origin (Supplementary Fig. 7a,b), again indicative of a block of maturation in the absence of UTX. In the liver, most iNKT cells were control cells, and few UTX-deficient cells contributed to the peripheral iNKT cell pool (Supplementary Fig. 7c). Conventional T cells displayed a balanced mixed chimerism (Supplementary Fig. 7c), which highlighted a specific effect of UTX on iNKT cells. Thus, the block in maturation reflected an intrinsic defect in iNKT cells imposed by loss of UTX that was not ‘rescued’ by the presence of control DP thymocytes.

Next we sought to determine whether the downregulated gene-expression program and developmental block of iNKT cells could be ‘rescued’ by in vivo reconstitution with UTX and whether its demethylation activity was required for this. To investigate this, we used lentiviral transduction of bone marrow cells, followed by transplantation of the cells into Rag2−−/− host mice. UTX-deficient bone marrow
transduced with empty virus failed to produce a substantial population of iNKT cells in the thymus (Fig. 5a). Notably, UTX-KO bone marrow reconstituted with full-length UTX exhibited substantial iNKT cell development, whereas reconstitution with mutant UTX lacking enzymatic activity failed to generate a sizeable iNKT cell population (Fig. 5a). Upon analysis of the various maturation stages of iNKT cells, we observed that the few UTX-KO iNKT cells that developed from bone marrow transduced with empty virus or virus encoding mutant UTX lacking enzymatic activity were unable to fully mature to stage 3 (Fig. 5b). In contrast, reconstitution with full-length UTX facilitated the complete development of iNKT cells in the thymus (Fig. 5b). We found that liver iNKT cells were almost completely absent from the UTX-KO mice transduced with empty virus (Fig. 5c,d). Reconstitution with full-length UTX ‘rescued’ this phenotype via the generation of a sizable liver iNKT cell population, whereas only a very minor iNKT cell fraction developed in the presence of mutant UTX lacking enzymatic activity (Fig. 5c,d). We demonstrated that expression of the gene encoding UTX was similar in mice reconstituted

Figure 4  UTX occupies the promoters of iNKT cell signature genes that exhibit UTX-dependent chromatin regulation. (a–e) ChIP-Seq overlay tracks of H3K27me3 and H3K4me3 marks for the iNKT cell signature genes S100a5 and S100a6 (a), Il2rb (b), Klrd1 and Klrk1 (c), Cxcr3 (d) and Tbx21 (e) in UTX-sufficient (control) and UTX-KO iNKT cells (key) (data from Fig. 3); below plots, gene structure and direction of transcription (*, promoter). (f) ChIP-PCR analysis of UTX occupancy around the promoters of signature genes as in a–e and Actb (negative control), presented as enrichment for promoter sequences relative to that obtained by ChIP with isotype-matched control antibody (IgG). * P < 0.05 (unpaired t-test). Data are from three independent experiments (mean ± s.d. in f).
with full-length UTX and those reconstituted with mutant UTX lacking enzymatic activity (Fig. 5e), which indicated no difference in reconstitution efficiency. In parallel, we analyzed the expression of signature genes in NKT cells from the thymus of reconstituted mice. Notably, reconstitution with full-length UTX restored expression of the iNKT cell gene signature, including Tbx21, Ikrd1 and Cxcr3 (Fig. 5e). In contrast, mutant UTX lacking enzymatic activity failed to restore signature-gene expression, although an enzyme-independent contribution was observed for Tbx21 (Fig. 5e). Together these data demonstrated that the enzymatic demethylase function of UTX was essential for the proper generation of NKT cells by establishing the iNKT cell gene-expression program.

Regulation of iNKT cell development by JunB
To gain further mechanistic insights how UTX regulates gene expression in iNKT cells, we performed motif-enrichment analysis (using the analysis tool Haystack) and identified potential transcription factors that might work together with UTX on the promoters of iNKT cell signature genes. We found significant enrichment for target motifs for the AP-1 transcription factors JunB and JunD in cluster 3, as well as for the transcription factor RAR-RXR in cluster 4, around the promoters of genes that showed UTX-dependent chromatin and transcriptional regulation (Fig. 6a). To determine whether JunB directly regulates UTX-dependent iNKT cell genes, we performed ChIP-PCR analysis of JunB. JunB bound to the promoters of signature genes from cluster 3 that showed enrichment for JunB motifs (Il2rb and Klrk1) (Fig. 6b and Supplementary Table 2). To determine whether UTX acted together with this putative iNKT cell transcription factor, we immunoprecipitated proteins from lysates of iNKT cells and demonstrated that UTX interacted with JunB (Fig. 6c). Notably, UTX was also able to specifically bind to the iNKT cell transcription factor PLZF (Fig. 6c). Furthermore, JunB expression was induced ‘preferentially’ in iNKT cells relative to its expression in other thymocyte subsets (Fig. 6d), indicative of a potential role for JunB in the generation of iNKT cells. To test that hypothesis, we analyzed JunB-deficient (JunB-KO) mice and found that the frequency of conventional CD4+ T cells and CD8+ T cells, as well as that of CD4+CD8− (double-negative) and DP thymocytes, was similar in JunB-KO mice and JunB-sufficient (control) mice (Fig. 6e). However, the frequency of thymic and peripheral iNKT cells was significantly lower in JunB-KO mice than in control mice (Fig. 6f). To investigate whether JunB regulated the transcription of iNKT cell signature genes with UTX-dependent transcriptional and chromatin regulation in cluster 3, we performed quantitative PCR analysis of sorted thymic iNKT cells from control and JunB-KO mice. We found that the signature genes Il2rb and Klrk1 (whose promoters were both bound by JunB; Fig. 6b) were significantly downregulated in JunB-KO iNKT cells relative to their expression in control iNKT cells (Fig. 6h). Together these results showed that UTX interacted with transcription factors such as JunB to establish lineage-specific gene expression in iNKT cells.

UTX-deficient iNKT cells fail to activate PLZF target genes
Given the finding of a physical association of UTX with PLZF, we sought to determine whether UTX regulated the PLZF-mediated activation of gene expression in iNKT cells. Through the use of a PLZF ChIP-Seq data set that defined PLZF-activated genes in iNKT cells39, we determined that loss of UTX in iNKT cells led to impaired activation of the expression of PLZF target genes (Fig. 7a). PLZF-activated target genes were significantly downregulated in UTX-KO iNKT cells relative to the expression of randomly selected (control) genes (Fig. 7b). To assess whether that downregulation was accompanied by accumulation of H3K27me3 at the promoter of those genes in UTX-KO iNKT cells, we compared the average abundance of H3K27me3 around the promoters of PLZF-activated target genes and those of randomly selected (control) genes. We found that the abundance of H3K27me3 around the promoters of PLZF-activated target genes was significantly greater in UTX-KO iNKT cells than in control cells, but its abundance around the ‘random’ (control) genes was not (Fig. 7c). Overlay tracks for PLZF target genes, including Il18r1, Il12rb1 and Eya2, demonstrated distinct UTX-dependent accumulation of H3K27me3 and a concomitant decrease in H3K4me3 around the promoter regions that PLZF occupied (Fig. 7d–f). Accordingly, we confirmed that the expression of Il18r1, Il12rb1 and Eya2 was significantly lower in UTX-KO iNKT cells than in control cells (Fig. 7g). These data indicated that UTX controlled the epigenetic landscape and transcription of PLZF-activated genes.

UTX facilitates accessibility of iNKT cell super-enhancers
Because super-enhancers bestow lineage specificity14,15 and iNKT cells are vulnerable to the effects of the loss of UTX, we hypothesized
that another mechanism by which UTX controls commitment to the iNKT cell lineage might be through regulation of super-enhancer accessibility. First, we delineated the super-enhancer landscape of iNKT cells by genome-wide ChIP-Seq analysis of histone H3 acetylated at Lys27 (H3K27ac) and defined super-enhancers as large enhancer elements with a substantial abundance of H3K27ac. We identified 396 super-enhancers that included elements proximal to genes encoding known regulators of the iNKT cell lineage, such as Tbx21, Zbtb16 and Il2rb, as well as those encoding regulators not previously characterized in iNKT cells, including the transcription factor JunB (Fig. 8a,b, Supplementary Fig. 8a,b and Supplementary Table 3). To reveal potential pathways associated with genes proximal to the super-enhancers identified in iNKT cells, we performed GREAT analysis of the super-enhancer elements. We found significant enrichment for the AP-1 pathway in our analysis (Fig. 8c). Among the 396 super-enhancers we identified, 109 super-enhancers had control-cell-specific ATAC-Seq peaks and therefore lost accessibility in UTX-KO iNKT cells (Fig. 8c and Supplementary Table 4).

By comparing the ratio of gene expression (log2 values) in control cells to those in UTX-KO cells for these genes to that ratio for all genes, we found that genes near super-enhancers that showed UTX-dependent accessibility were downregulated in UTX-KO iNKT cells (Fig. 8d).

To determine whether that loss of accessibility of super-enhancers and diminished transcription of nearby genes was accompanied by accumulation of H3K27me3 in UTX deficiency, we compared average abundance of H3K27me3 around the defined iNKT cell super-enhancer regions with that of randomly selected control regions in UTX-KO iNKT cells. We detected significant accumulation of H3K27me3 around super-enhancer regions in UTX-KO iNKT cells (Fig. 8e). In control iNKT cells, super-enhancer regions exhibited a lower abundance of H3K27me3 than that of randomly selected (control) regions (Fig. 8e), consistent with the conclusion that active enhancers are for transposable-accessible chromatin using sequencing) that captured accessible chromatin regions in sorted control and UTX-KO iNKT cells. Among the 396 super-enhancers we identified, 109 super-enhancers had control-cell-specific ATAC-Seq peaks and therefore lost accessibility in UTX-KO iNKT cells (Fig. 8c and Supplementary Table 4).

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devoid of H3K27me3 (refs. 17,41). The randomly selected (control) regions in control iNKT cells and those in UTX-KO iNKT cells had a similar abundance of H3K27me3 (Fig. 8e). Notably, super-enhancers that showed UTX-dependent accessibility were near genes encoding important regulators of iNKT cells, such as Tbx21 (Fig. 8f and Supplementary Fig. 8a) and Il2rb (Fig. 8g and Supplementary Fig. 8b). Furthermore, GREAT analysis demonstrated enrichment, around these regions, for genes encoding products involved in lymphocyte differentiation and IL-2 signaling (Supplementary Fig. 8d). To determine the transcription factors that bind these super-enhancers, we performed motif analysis and found enrichment for the transcription factors RelA and Bhlhe40 (Supplementary Fig. 8e). Bhlhe40 has been shown to act together with T-bet to control iNKT cell function42. Although a small fraction of super-enhancers (13) gained accessibility in UTX-KO iNKT cells (Fig. 8c and Supplementary Table 4), we did not detect any gene-set enrichment for these regions (Supplementary Fig. 8d). Overall, these results suggested that UTX regulated the accessibility of super-enhancers that establish iNKT cell identity.

Figure 7 UTX deficiency impairs the activation of PLZF target genes in iNKT cells. (a) Expression of PLZF-activated genes (right margin) in UTX-sufficient (control (Ctrl)) and UTX-KO iNKT cells, presented as z-scores (key); numbers above the columns indicate biological replicates. (b) Expression of PLZF-activated genes and ‘random’ (control) genes (horizontal axis), presented as the log2 ratio of expression in control cells to that in UTX-KO cells (Ctrl/UTX-KO) (boxes extend from the lower to upper quartile values; small horizontal line indicates the median (whiskers, 1.5 inter-quartile range)). (c) Abundance of H3K27me3 marks (average values) around the promoters (within 1 kb (upstream or downstream) of the TSS) of PLZF-activated genes and ‘random’ (control) genes (n = 17 regions per group) in control and UTX-KO iNKT cells (boxes extend from the lower to upper quartile values; small horizontal line indicates the median (whiskers, 1.5 inter-quartile range)). (d–f) Abundance of H3K4me3 and H3K27me3 around the PLZF-activated genes Il18r1 (d), Il12rb1 (e) and Eya2 (f); below, gene structure (as in Fig. 4a–e). (g) Quantitative RT-PCR analysis of the PLZF-activated genes Il18r1, Il12rb1 and Eya2 in control and UTX-KO thymic iNKT cells; results were normalized to those of Actb. Each symbol represents an individual mouse; small horizontal lines indicate the mean (± s.e.m.). *P < 0.05 (Mann-Whitney U test (b,c) or unpaired t-test (g)). Data are from two independent experiments (a–f) or three independent experiments (g).
Figure 8  UTX facilitates the accessibility of super-enhancers in iNKT cells. (a) Ranking of super-enhancers in iNKT cells on the basis of the signal intensity of H3K27ac (ROSE algorithm). (b) ChIP-Seq analysis of H3K27ac in the super-enhancers of various genes in iNKT cell; above plots, gene bodies (black bars, super-enhancers; *, promoter). (c) ATAC-Seq of chromatin accessibility of the super-enhancers in a, showing all super-enhancers (full circle) and those with specific peaks in control iNKT cells (bottom left) or UTX-KO iNKT cells (bottom right). (d) Expression of all genes (top; n = 20,628), genes near all defined iNKT cell super-enhancers (All SEs; n = 396) or iNKT cell super-enhancers with accessibility specific to control cells (Ctrl specific; n = 109) or UTX-KO cells (KO specific; n = 13), presented as the ratio of expression (log2 values) in control cells to that in UTX-KO iNKT cells (Ctrl/KO) (boxes extend from the lower to upper quartile values; small horizontal line indicates the median (whiskers, 1.5 inter-quartile range)). (e) Abundance of H3K27me3 marks (average values) around the super-enhancer regions in a and randomly selected control regions (Random) in control and UTX-KO iNKT cells (n = 396 regions per group) (boxes extend from the lower to upper quartile values; small horizontal line indicates the median (whiskers, 1.5 inter-quartile range)). (f, g) ChIP-Seq analysis of H3K27ac (top), super-enhancers defined (by the ROSE algorithm) in control cells (Ctrl SE), ATAC-Seq analysis of control and UTX-KO iNKT cells (third and fourth rows), and analysis of the distribution of H3K27me3 and H3K4me3 (below) in control and UTX-KO iNKT cells, around the defined super-enhancer regions for Tbx21 (which encodes T-bet) (f) and Il2rb (g). P = 0.14 (control regions, e); *P = 0.002, **P = 5.9 × 10−10 and ***P = 1.9 × 10−14 (Mann-Whitney U-test). Data are from two independent experiments.
DISCUSSION

Discoveries of key transcription factors and gene-expression programs have contributed to the understanding of the NKT cell lineage. In this context, a published study has demonstrated the diversity of gene programs in different NKT cell subsets on the basis of RNA-sequencing transcriptomics and the description of enhancer elements. However, the epigenetic mechanisms that govern NKT cell identity have remained undefined. Here we demonstrated a selective, cell-intrinsic and catalytic role for the H3K27me3 demethylase UTX in regulating the epigenetic landscape and lineage-specific gene expression of NKT cells. Our data and a published study have revealed a requirement for the H3K27me3 demethylases UTX and JMJD3 in the development of NKT cells. We found that this requirement was due to UTX-dependent regulation of the expression of NKT cell signature genes. UTX-deficient NKT cells exhibited a developmental block and failed to induce the expression of genes encoding transcription factors and signaling molecules involved in the terminal maturation of NKT cells, such as T-bet (Tbx21) and CD122 (Il2rb).

Epigenetic regulation of gene expression by UTX has been studied mainly in the context of the demethylation of repressive H3K27me3 marks. Moreover, UTX associates with ML2, which catalyzes trimethylation of H3K4 at promoters to facilitate the transcription of genes encoding lineage-specifying factors. Accordingly, in NKT cells, the promoters of UTX-dependent signature genes, such as those in Tbx21 and Il2rb, accumulated H3K27me3 and harbored a lower abundance of H3K4me3 in the absence of UTX.

We found that gene promoters that exhibited UTX-dependent chromatin and transcriptional regulation were bound by the AP-1 transcription factor JunB. A published report showing that JunB is part of a gene network that preferentially upregulated in NKT cells relative to their expression in NK cells and conventional T cells is consistent with our findings. While indirect evidence, through overexpression or deficiency of the negative regulator BATF, has shown that AP-1 activity promotes generation of NKT cells, lack of the AP-1 family member Fra2 leads to an increased number of NKT cells. Interestingly, JunB–AP-1 directly controls expression of the gene encoding IFN-γ, a hallmark cytokine released by mature NKT cells. Our studies revealed significantly fewer thymic as well as peripheral NKT cells in JunB-deficient mice than in JunB-sufficient mice. Together our data have identified JunB as a previously unknown regulator that influences NKT cell development.

UTX can function in a way that is both dependent on and independent of its demethylase enzyme activity. We found that the development of NKT cells required the demethylase activity of UTX, indicative of a critical role for the removal of H3K27me3 marks from the promoters of NKT cell signature genes. Interestingly, NKT cells lacking components of PRC2, which is responsible for the deposition of H3K27me3, exhibit impaired maturation and increased accumulation in the thymus and spleen. It has been proposed that the development of NKT cells involves a transition in the promoter of Zbtb16 (which encodes PLZF) from a poised state in DP thymocytes, harboring both H3K27me3 marks and H3K4me3 marks, to an active state in NKT cells, characterized by H3K4me3 and a lack of H3K27me3 (ref. 35). Although we did not observe substantial accumulation of H3K27me3 around the promoter of Zbtb16 or a robust decrease in PLZF expression in UTX-deficient NKT cells, we demonstrated that UTX regulated the expression and epigenetic landscape of PLZF-activated genes in NKT cells.

Published studies have identified super-enhancers on the basis of elevated abundance of H3K27ac as a hallmark of key genes associated with cell identity and genetic risk of disease. Our study has defined the NKT cell super-enhancer landscape and has demonstrated that signature genes, including Zbtb16, Tbx21 and Il2rb, exhibited super-enhancer elements. In addition, we identified numerous previously unknown regulators of NKT cell identity, which should provide an invaluable resource for understanding the epigenetic control of specification to the NKT cell lineage and disease-associated genes in NKT cells.

UTX interacts with chromatin regulators such as SWI/SNF and the MLL complex that can affect enhancer activation. Since dynamic regulation of the abundance of H3K27me3 and H3K27ac determines enhancer activity, another mechanism for UTX-mediated gene regulation raised by our study involved the control of the accessibility of lineage-specific super-enhancers by UTX in NKT cells. The accessibility of super-enhancers near downregulated signature genes, such as Tbx21 and Il2rb, was lost in UTX-deficient NKT cells. That finding suggested that the proper maturation of NKT cells requires a dual mechanism that involves UTX-mediated regulation of the epigenetic landscape around both the promoters of signature genes and their enhancers. Collectively, our data offer a new perspective on the transcriptional control of NKT cell development and delineate multiple mechanisms that UTX engages to regulate the lineage-specific gene-expression program of NKT cells.

METHODS

Methods, including statements of data availability and any associated accession codes and references, are available in the online version of the paper.

Note: Any Supplementary Information and Source Data files are available in the online version of the paper.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

S.B. designed, performed and interpreted experiments involving gene expression analysis, ChIP-Seq, ATAC-Seq, lentiviral transduction, qRT-PCR, ChIP-PCR and immunoprecipitation, with help from M.E.X., and generated UTX-KO and JMJD3-KO mice, with help from M.A.K.; J.H.K. designed, performed and interpreted experiments involving NKT cell analysis by flow cytometry with help from Y.H.C.; L.P. designed, performed and interpreted bioinformatics analysis with help from J.H.; P.D.D., R.A.B. and R.D. assisted with ChIP-Seq analysis; A.H. and E.P. provided JunB-KO mice; W.N.H. and Ö.H.Y. participated in the design and interpretation of experiments; G.-C.Y. supervised bioinformatics analysis; S.H.O. and F.W. designed and supervised experiments; and S.B., J.H.K., S.H.O. and F.W. wrote the manuscript with support from L.P.

COMPETING FINANCIAL INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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ONLINE METHODS

Experimental mice. The targeting strategy for generating mice with loxP-flanked alleles encoding UTX (Kdm6a\(^{fl/fl}\)) or JMJD3 (Kdm6b\(^{fl/fl}\)) is shown in Supplementary Figure 1. \(\text{Jmjd}^{3}\text{Cre}\) embryonic stem cells (ESCs) were generated by flanking exons 17 and 19 of the \text{Jmjd}3 locus with loxP sites. These exons encode the catalytic \text{JmJ}C domain. The sequence-verified targeting vector was linearized and electroporated into C57 ES cells (129pv background). Homologous recombination was assessed by Southern blot analysis by digesting genomic DNA with \text{NheI} (5′ probe) or \text{KpnI} (3′ probe), using specific external probes. \text{Kmtd}6\text{a} ESCs were obtained from EUCOMM. After sequence and genotype verification, karyotypically normal ESC clones were injected into blastocysts to generate chimera. Mice were backcrossed for at least ten generations to the C57BL/6 background. Additionally, UTX- and JMJD3-deficient animals were crossed to generate doubly deficient mice. UTX-sufficient (control) mice were derived from littermates. Vav-Cre mice (expressing Cre recombinase from the Vav allele), CD45.1-congenic mice and Rag2\(^{−/−}\) mice were purchased from The Jackson Laboratory. JunB-KO (Junb\(^{−/−}\)MORE-Cre) mice were generated as previously described\(^{35}\). Sex- and age-matched animals between 8 and 12 weeks of age were used for experiments. To estimate proper number of animals, preliminary experiments were performed. Mice were allocated at random to experimental groups. Mouse studies were performed in a non-blinded fashion. The Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) of Boston Children's Hospital approved all animal experiments.

Reagents. Phorbol myristate acetate, ionomycin, FBS, and phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) were purchased from Sigma. Percoll was obtained from GE Healthcare Life Sciences. Viability Dyes (eFluor-780 and eFluor-450) were purchased from eBioscience. RPMI media 1640 and propidium iodide (PI) was acquired from Bio-Xcell (Malaysia). Reagents for all animal experiments. Studies were performed in a non-blinded fashion. The Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) of Boston Children's Hospital approved all animal experiments.

Antibodies. For flow cytometry, cells were stained with following antibodies: anti-CD3 (145-2C11, 1:100), anti-CD8 (53-6.7, 1:100), anti-CD4 (GK1.5, 1:100), anti-CD24 (M1/69, 1:100), anti-CD45.1 (A20, 1:100), anti-CD45.2 (104, 1:100), anti-B220 (RA3-6B2, 1:100), anti-NKG2D (CX5, 1:100), anti-IL-2R \(\beta\) (TM-B1, 1:100), anti-CD94 (18d3, 1:100), anti-IFN-\(\gamma\) (XMG1.2, 1:100), anti-IL-4 (11B11, 1:100), and anti-T-bet (4B10, 1:100) were purchased from BioLegend. Anti-\(\alpha\) IL-4 or IL-17 (identified above) in Perm wash buffer (BD Biosciences). To measure the function of thymic NKT cells in vitro, CD8\(^{−}\) thymocytes were selected using anti-CD8 conjugated to magnetic beads and MACS columns (Miltenyi Biotech), according to manufacturer's protocol. Subsequently, cells were stimulated with 50 ng/ml of phorbol myristate acetate and 5 \(\mu\)g/ml of ionomycin in culture medium (RPMI supplemented with 10% FBS) for 4 h. Brefeldin A was added for the final 2 h. To measure the in vivo responses to \(\alpha\)-GalCer, mice were given injection of 250 \(\mu\)g of brefeldin A in 200 \(\mu\)l of PBS, followed 30 min later by intraperitoneal injection of 2 \(\mu\)g of \(\alpha\)-GalCer in 200 \(\mu\)l of PBS. Mice were sacrificed 2 h after injection of \(\alpha\)-GalCer, and livers were excised for the isolation of liver mononuclear cells and intracellular cytokine staining as described above.

Mixed-bone-marrow-chimeric mice. Bone marrow cells were isolated from the femurs and tibias of UTX-sufficient (control) B6.SJL (CD45.1\(^{+}\)) mice or UTX-KO (CD45.2\(^{+}\)) mice. T cells were depleted using biotinylated anti-CD90 (identified above), anti-biotin conjugated to magnetic beads, and MACS columns. Rag2\(^{−/−}\) mice were irradiated with a cesium source (600 rads). Then, irradiated mice were given intravenous injection of a 1:1 mixture of bone marrow cells (2 \(\times\)10\(^{6}\) per mouse) from UTX-KO mice and B6.SJL mice. Chimeras were analyzed 10–12 weeks after bone-marrow-cell injection.

Flow cytometry. Cells were stained with antibodies to surface makers (identified above) in flow cytometry buffer (PBS supplemented with 0.5% bovine serum albumin) on ice for 30 min. Subsequently, cells were washed and analyzed using a FACSCount II flow cytometer (BD Biosciences). Propidium iodide was added just before flow cytometry analysis to exclude dead cells.

Tetramer analysis. For staining of \(\alpha\)-GalCer-loaded CD1d tetratomers (called simply ‘CD1d tetramer’ here) were obtained from the Tetramer Core Facility of the NIH. For blocking non-specific binding of immunoglobulin to Fc receptors, cells were incubated with anti-CD16/CD32 (identified above) in flow cytometry buffer for 10 min on ice. After incubation, cells were stained with fluorescence-conjugated CD1d tetramer and viability dye for 40 min on ice. To perform molecular studies, CD1d tetramer-positive cells were sorted using a FACSAria III (BD Biosciences).

Intracellular staining for cytokines and transcription factors. To stain cytokines intracellularly, cells were fixed and permeabilized with BD Cytofix/ Cytoperm followed by staining with fluorescence-labeled antibodies to IFN-\(\gamma\), IL-4 or IL-17 (identified above) in Perm wash buffer (BD Biosciences). To analyze expression of transcription factors in in\(\text{K}\text{N}\text{T}\) cells, thymocytes were stained with fluorescence-conjugated CD1d tetramer, followed by fixation and permeabilization using the Foxp3/transcription factor staining buffer set (eBioscience). Subsequently, cells were incubated with purified anti-PLZF (identified above), followed by staining with fluorescence-labeled anti-mouse IgG1 (identified above). Thereafter, cells were stained with antibodies to T-bet and Ror\(\gamma\)t (identified above).

Isolation of liver lymphocytes. To isolate liver mononuclear cells, livers were perfused with PBS through the portal vein, excised, and minced through a mesh mesh. Tissue homogenates were collected in 50 ml of medium (RPMI supplemented with 2.5% FBS) and incubated for 15 min, before the supernatant was obtained. Cells were washed twice, suspended in medium containing 33% Percoll, and centrifuged at 500g at 20 °C without break. Thereafter, cell pellets were collected to perform further experiments.

Measurement of immune responses to \(\alpha\)-GalCer. To test the function of thymic NKT cells in vitro, CD8\(^{−}\) thymocytes were selected using anti-CD8 conjugated to magnetic beads and MACS columns (Miltenyi Biotech), according to manufacturer's protocol. Subsequently, cells were stimulated with 50 ng/ml of phorbol myristate acetate and 5 \(\mu\)g/ml of ionomycin in culture medium (RPMI supplemented with 10% FBS) for 4 h. Brefeldin A was added for the final 2 h. To measure the in vivo responses to \(\alpha\)-GalCer, mice were given injection of 250 \(\mu\)g of brefeldin A in 200 \(\mu\)l of PBS, followed 30 min later by intraperitoneal injection of 2 \(\mu\)g of \(\alpha\)-GalCer in 200 \(\mu\)l of PBS. Mice were sacrificed 2 h after injection of \(\alpha\)-GalCer, and livers were excised for the isolation of liver mononuclear cells and intracellular cytokine staining as described above.

qRT-PCR. Cells were sorted into TRI Reagent (Life Technologies), and total RNA was isolated according to the manufacturer's instructions with following modification: the aqueous phase containing total RNA was purified using the RNeasy plus kit (Qiagen). RNA was converted to cDNA with cDNA synthesis kit (Bio-Rad). qRT-PCR was performed with SYBR green master mix (Bio-Rad) on the Bio-Rad iCycler RT-PCR detection system. Actb was used as a housekeeping control. To calculate the relative change in expression, the 2^-ΔΔCT method was used. The following primer sequences were used: Actb, forward, 5′-TCCAGGCTTTCCTTTGGTGATA CG-3′; Actb, reverse, 5′-GGCACTGACTGACTGCGCCG-3′; Tca1, forward, 5′-GTCCCTAGTCCGTGTTGTC-3′; Tca1, reverse, 5′-CAAATAGTCG ACTCGCTCCCTAAG-3′; Tca1, forward, 5′-AGCCAAGCGGCGAAGTGTTC-3′; Tca1, reverse, 5′-GGGTGGCATATAGGCGCTT-3′; S100a6, forward, 5′-GCTCACATTGGGCTTCCAGCG-3′; S100a6, reverse, 5′-GGGAGGCCG CATACTCCCTGG-3′; Klrk1, forward, 5′-TCTAGGTTCACTCCTGTTGGGAG-3′; Klrk1, reverse, 5′-CAGTGTCAGGGGAAAGCAG-3′; Actk1, forward, 5′-ATTCTTAGATGAAACTGTGAGG-3′; Actk1, reverse, 5′-GAGTTTGACT GGATTTGATGTC-3′; Cxcr3, forward, 5′-TACTTGGATGGTGTAGAAGC-3′; Cxcr3, reverse, 5′-GGCTCCTGGTTTCTCCATACTC-3′; Il2rb, reverse, 5′-GCTAACCTGAGAATGCTGGG-3′; Il2rb, forward, 5′-CAGACAGATTACTGCGAGG-3′.
Cluster analysis was performed on the promoter regions of various sets of genes. The promoter region was defined as transcription start site (TSS) −2 kb and TSS +2 kb. The number of clusters was determined using a Silhouette metric and K-means was performed thereafter using the Euclidean distance.

UTX and JunB ChIP-PCR. ChIP was performed as described with modifications. 2 × 10⁶ flow-cytometry-sorted iNKT cells were fixed with 1% formaldehyde (EMS) for 5 min at 25 °C. Anti-UTX (Bethyl, A302-374, 5 μg per ChIP) and anti-JunB (CST, C37F9, 5 μg per ChIP) were incubated with beads for 3–5 h before incubation with sonicated chromatin overnight. ChIP DNA was purified and quantified by real-time PCR using the iQ SYBR Green Supermix (Bio-Rad). The following primer sequences were used: S100a6 promoter, forward, 5′-GAAGGTTGCAGCAGAAGGCAAGGG-3′; S100a6 promoter, reverse, 5′-CCCCCGAGGCCGTCGCAAA-3′; Il2rb promoter, forward, 5′-TAAGATCTCTCTAGCTGGGCAAC-3′; Il2rb promoter, reverse, 5′-ATGGTGATAGATGGAGCGGGG-3′; Tbx21 promoter, forward, 5′-TGAGATCGACCTGGCACGG-3′; Tbx21 promoter, reverse, 5′-GGCCGCTCTCAGGGCC-3′; UTX promoter, forward, 5′-CGACCTAGTCTGTTGGAAGG-3′; Eya2 promoter, 5′-ACCGTGGGCTCTCAACG-3′; and Eya2 promoter, reverse, 5′-GGTAGGACGGATAATCCTGGT-3′.

Immunoprecipitation and immunoblot analysis. Cell lysates were incubated with 5 μg anti-UTX (Bethyl, A302-374) or the control antibody anti-rabbit IgG (Santa Cruz, sc-2027) overnight at 4 °C followed by 2 h of incubation with Dynabeads Protein G for immunoprecipitation. Protein complexes bound to antibody and beads were washed five times and eluted with Laemmli sample buffer. Samples were resolved by SDS-PAGE. Protein interactions were analyzed by immunoblot with the primary antibodies anti-PLZF (R&D, AF2944, 1:500) or anti-JunB (CST, C37F9, 1:500), and the secondary antibody goat anti-rabbit IgG-HRP (Santa Cruz, sc-2030, 1:5,000), followed by visualization using the Western Lightning Plus ECL detection kit (PerkinElmer).

Transcription factor (TF) target motif enrichment using Haystack. To identify potential TFs that mediate the observed gene expression changes, we scanned gene promoters for enriched TF motifs using the haystack_motifs utility from the Haystack Pipeline (https://github.com/lucafibonacci/Haystack). For analysis, we used the default parameters for the mouse genome: the motif database haystack_motifs, the genome assembly and the JASPAR motif database. Subsequently, to remove potential false positives, we further integrated gene-expression data to assess their specificity and concordance with gene-expression changes. In particular, we filtered TF motifs on the basis of visual exploration of the ratio of the expression of TFs and their targets in control cells to that in UTX-KO, using the haystack_tf_activity plane utility.

Super-enhancer analysis. To call super-enhancers, we used the ROSE algorithm, version 0.1 (https://bitbucket.org/young_computational/rose). In particular, we first considered as enhancers peaks of H3K27ac obtained by the software MACS2, and then called ROSE with default parameters to define the super-enhancers. Using these settings, peaks closer than 12.5 kb were stitched together and then ranked based of the H3K27 ac intensity. To assign super-enhancers to genes, we used again ROSE with default settings.

Genome-wide ATAC-Seq. ATAC-Seq was performed as previously described. Control and UTX-KO thymic iNKT cells were sorted by flow cytometry and were lysed in lysis buffer containing 10 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.4, 10 mM NaCl, 3 mM MgCl₂, 0.1% IGEPAL CA-360. The transposition reaction was carried out for 45 min using the Illumina Nextera DNA preparation kit (FC-121-1030). DNA was purified using the Qiagen MiniElute PCR purification kit. Subsequently, library amplification was performed using Nextera primers and NEBNext high-fidelity PCR master mix. Quantitative PCR side reaction was done to determine optimum library amplification to diminish GC and
size bias in the library. The amplified library was purified using the Qiagen PCR purification kit and sequenced on the Illumina Hi-Seq 2500. Paired reads were aligned to the reference genome using Bowtie2 in paired end mode and with the parameter -X2000 (fragments up to 2kb). ATAC-Seq peaks were called using MACS2 with the following parameters: macs2 callpeak –nomodel –shift -100 –extsize 200. Super-enhancers more accessible in control cells were defined as control super-enhancer regions containing unique control ATAC-Seq peaks, while super-enhancers less accessible in control cells were defined as control super-enhancer regions containing unique KO ATAC-Seq peaks.

**Integrative analysis of SE regions, ATAC-Seq, H3K27me3 and gene expression.** To study the potential connection between the level of H3K27me3 and chromatin accessibility profiled by ATAC-Seq, we used the defined super-enhancers based on the unique ATAC-Seq peaks in control or UTX-KO and profiled the average abundance of H3K27me3 reads per million (RPM) in those regions. As a control set, we used random regions in the genome. To correlate chromatin accessibility in super-enhancers with gene expression, we used the average gene expression of the genes mapped with the ROSE pipeline in each group (closest genes and overlapping genes). As control sets, we used all the genes and the genes mapped to all the UTX-sufficient super-enhancers in iNKT cells.

**Statistical analysis.** Data are presented as mean ± standard error or standard deviation. All samples represent independent experiments with biological replicates. Sample size was determined based on the results of preliminary experiments. No blinding was applied in this study. The two-tailed unpaired t-test, Mann-Whitney U-test and one-way ANOVA with post multiple-comparisons were applied as indicated, and the P values are shown for each figure. If not otherwise indicated, the P value was not statistically significant (P > 0.05). All statistical analyses for animal studies were calculated using Prism software (GraphPad).

**Data availability.** Data that support the findings of this study have been deposited in the Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) database under accession numbers GSE84238 and GSE84015.

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