



Epigenetic regulation of T helper cells and intestinal pathogenicity

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Abstract

Inflammatory bowel diseases (IBDs) are characterized by relapsing and remitting chronic intestinal inflammation. Previous studies have demonstrated the contributions of genetic background, environmental factors (food, microbiota, use of antibiotics), and host immunity in the development of IBDs. More than 200 genes have been shown to influence IBD susceptibility, most of which are involved in immunity. The vertebrate immune system comprises a complex network of innate and adaptive immune cells that protect the host from infection and cancer. Dysregulation of the mutualistic relationship between the immune system and the gut environment results in IBD. Considering the fundamental role of epigenetic regulation in immune cells, epigenetic mechanisms, particularly in T helper (Th) cells, may play a major role in the complex regulation of mucosal immunity. Epigenetic regulation and dysregulation of Th cells are involved in the maintenance of intestinal homeostasis and its breakdown in IBD.

Keywords CD4 T cell · Colitis · Mucosal immunology · Inflammatory bowel disease · Epigenetic regulation

Abbreviations

AhR	Aryl hydrocarbon receptor
Areg	Amphiregulin
AP-1	Activator protein 1
Ar5	Accessible region 5
CD	Crohn's disease
CBF β	Core-binding factor, beta subunit
CNS	Conserved non-coding sequence
CREB	Cyclic adenosine monophosphate response element-binding protein
DC	Dendritic cell
DNMT	DNA-methyltransferase
DR3	Death receptor 3
DSS	Dextran sodium sulfate

EAE	Experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis
FOXO	Forkhead box 0
GVHD	Graft-versus-host disease
H3K4me3	Histone 3 lysine 4 tri-methylation
H3K27Ac	H3 lysine 27 acetylation
HAT	Histone acetyltransferase
HDAC	Histone deacetylase
HS	Hypersensitive site
IBD	Inflammatory bowel disease
IFN	Interferon
IL	Interleukin
IPEX	Immune dysregulation, polyendocrinopathy, enteropathy, X-linked syndrome
IRF4	Interferon regulatory factor 4
LDTF	Lineage-defining transcription factor
lncRNA	Long non-coding RNA
LT β R	Lymphotoxin β receptor
miRNA	Micro RNA
miR-183C	miR-183-96-182 cluster
mLN	Mesenteric lymph node
MS	Multiple sclerosis
NFAT	Nuclear factor of activated T cells
NK	Natural killer
OVA	Ovalbumin
PCAF	p300/CREB-binding protein-associated factor
PcGs	Polycomb-group proteins
PRC	Polycomb repressive complex
RA	Retinoic acid

Yuya Hagihara, Yusuke Yoshimatsu and Yohei Mikami contributed equally to this work.

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ROR	Retinoic acid-related orphan receptor
SOCS	Suppressor of cytokine signaling
T-bet	T-box expressed in T
TCR	T cell receptor
TET	Ten-eleven translocation
TGF	Transforming growth factor
Th	Helper T
TNBS	Trinitrobenzene sulfonic acid
TNF	Tumor necrosis factor
Treg	Regulatory T
TRUC	T-bet ^{-/-} × RAG2 ^{-/-}
UC	Ulcerative colitis
TSDR	Treg cell-specific demethylated region;

Introduction

Inflammatory bowel diseases (IBDs) are relapsing and remitting conditions characterized by chronic intestinal inflammation. Several factors, including genetic background, environmental factors, and microbiome composition, have been shown to induce aberrant autoimmune responses in patients with IBD. These excessive inflammatory responses are mediated by multiple immune cell types, including CD4⁺ T cells, which play a major role in the pathogenesis of IBD. In particular, effector T cell subsets (T helper type 1 (Th1), Th2, and Th17 cells) and an immunoregulatory subset (regulatory T (Treg) cells) are finely balanced to maintain immune homeostasis in the gut (Fig. 1). Th1 cells express T-box expressed in T cells (T-bet) transcription factor and produce interleukin (IL)-2 and interferon (IFN)- γ . Th2 cells express GATA3 and produce IL-4, IL-5, and IL-13. Th1 cells are involved in immune responses against intracellular microbes and Th2 cells play a major role in defense against parasitic infection. Th17 cells produce a unique set of cytokines including IL-17, IL-21, and IL-22, and thus represent a distinct subset from Th1 and Th2 cells. The development and differentiation of Th17 cells require two key transcriptional factors: retinoic acid-related orphan receptor (ROR) γ T and ROR α [1, 2]. Th17 cells are important contributors to adaptive immune responses against certain microbes, including extracellular bacteria and fungi. By contrast, Treg cells express the master transcriptional regulator Foxp3 and suppress host immune responses to induce self-tolerance [3, 4]. Multiple lines of evidence support the idea that all of these T helper (Th) cell subsets are important for the ability of the host to combat infectious diseases. Moreover, the balance between effector and regulatory Th cell subsets is essential to support immune homeostasis and prevent autoimmunity [5, 6].

Th cell subset differentiation and proliferation are tightly regulated by the T cell receptor (TCR), co-stimulatory molecules, and cytokines. These stimuli are transmitted through a series of signaling molecules to transcription factors that binds

to specific DNA sequences [7, 8]. In addition to transcription factors, recent advances using next-generation sequencing technologies have increased our understanding of the epigenetic factors that are important in controlling the specificity and plasticity of T cell subsets [9–11]. Epigenetic regulation occurs through DNA methylation and covalent chromatin modifications, such as acetylation, methylation, phosphorylation, ubiquitination, and sumoylation. In addition, non-coding RNAs, including miRNAs, play important roles in T cell development, maturation, activation, differentiation, and senescence [12]. Here, we review the impact of epigenetic regulation on each Th cell lineage and discuss the phenotypes of colitis that result from dysregulated epigenetic control and subsequent imbalance of regulatory and effector Th cells.

Treg cells

Foxp3⁺ Treg cells are critical for maintaining intestinal homeostasis by preventing T cell proliferation and excessive inflammatory cytokine responses [13–15]. The frequency of CD4⁺CD25⁺FOXP3⁺ Treg cells is increased in the intestinal mucosa of the patients with IBD [16–18]. Mutation of human FOXP3 results in spontaneous multiorgan inflammation, including at intestinal sites; this condition is called IPEX (immune dysregulation, polyendocrinopathy, enteropathy, X-linked syndrome) [19]. Among Th cell subsets, the epigenetic regulation of gene expression and lineage stability of Treg cells have been most extensively studied. Foxp3 expression in Treg cells has been shown to be under epigenetic control [20, 21]. A distinct DNA methylation pattern combined with characteristic histone modifications establishes an open chromatin structure, thereby imprinting Foxp3 expression in Treg cells [22].

The *Foxp3* locus contains several conserved non-coding sequences (CNSs) that are critical for the initiation and maintenance of *Foxp3* transcription [23]. CNSs exist nearby the promoter; they are the primary targets of epigenetic regulation and are necessary to modulate Foxp3 expression depending on the environmental signals received by T cells [24]. Among three *Foxp3* CNSs, CNS2 has been demonstrated to prevent autoimmunity, emphasizing the importance of CNS2 in the stability and function of Treg cells [25, 26]. CNS2 lies within the first intron, approximately 4 kb downstream of the promoter. Selective demethylation of CNS2 CpG motifs is critical for stabilization of Foxp3 expression in Treg cells. CNS2 deletion in mice consistently leads to spontaneous systemic inflammatory disease involving liver, lung, and small intestine starting from 6 months of age, and apparently fosters a relatively lymphoproliferative environment [25, 26]. Three main histone modifications of the Foxp3 protein have been described: acetylation, phosphorylation, and ubiquitination [27]. These modifications affect the stability and DNA-

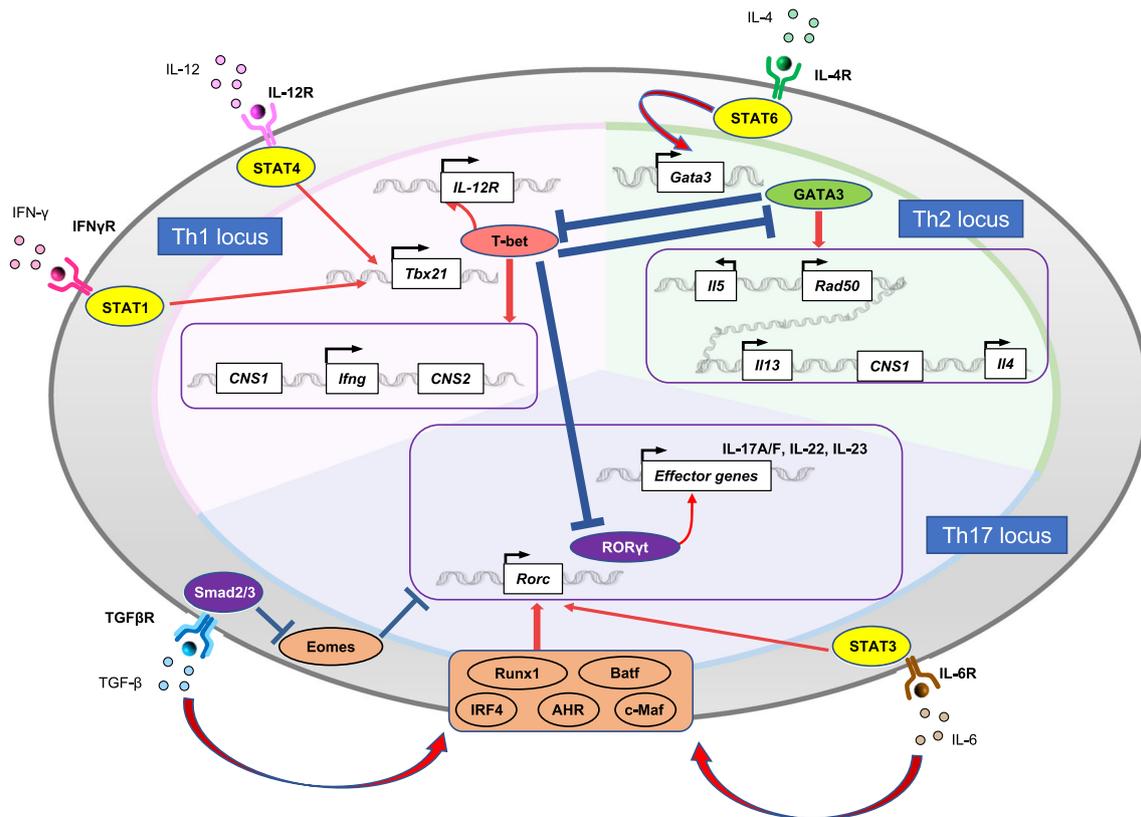


Fig. 1 Differentiation of effector Th subsets. 1. Loci closely associated with Th1 cells are shown in the upper left region (red background). First, expression of *Ifng* and *Tbx21* are induced by TCR signaling. Signaling from IL-12R further enhances *Ifng* expression via the STAT4 pathway. Subsequently, IFN- γ promotes expression of *Tbx21* which lead to Th1 differentiation. Production of IFN- γ is promoted by T-bet. 2. The upper right area (green background) represents the Th2 locus. Stimulation by IL-4R induces expression of *GATA3* via the STAT6 pathway. Subsequently, *GATA3* recognizes and binds Th2 cytokine loci and

promotes the production of IL-4, IL-5, and IL-13. *GATA3* and T-bet interact with each other and suppress differentiation into other subsets. 3. The lower region (blue background) contains Th17 cell-related genes. IL-6R signals via the STAT3 pathway and TGF- β signals via the SMAD2/3 pathway to induce expression of *Rorc*. Transcription factors such as Runx1, Batf, IRF4, AhR, and c-Maf cooperate and enhance the production of Th17 cytokines. Eomes inhibits the *Rorc* and Th17 cytokine loci by directly binding their promoters, while TGF- β induces Th17 differentiation by blocking its action

binding capacity of Foxp3 and thus modulate Treg cell function and the development of autoimmunity. Acetylation of specific lysine residues by lysine acetyltransferases globally stabilizes Foxp3 expression and promotes T cell function by favoring the binding of Foxp3 to its transcriptional targets and allowing it to avoid proteasomal degradation. To achieve stable expression of Foxp3, the CNS2 region is hypomethylated and bound by key transcription factors [22, 28].

Previous studies showed that demethylation of a CpG-rich element in CNS2 known as Treg cell-specific demethylated region (TSDR) occurs during thymic Treg cell development [22]. The demethylated state of CNS2 accounts for the stability of *Foxp3* expression in thymic Treg cells. By contrast with thymic Tregs, Treg cells induced in the periphery or in vitro do not show hypomethylation of CNS2 [29, 30] and can lose *Foxp3* expression under certain circumstances. The methylation state of CNS2 is highly influenced by demethylating enzymes, such as the ten-eleven translocation (TET) demethylases, and methylating enzymes, such as the DNA methyltransferases (DNMTs). Treg cells lacking TET2 and TET3 show loss of Foxp3 expression

and compromised Treg suppressive function in vitro and in vivo [31]. Conversely, retroviral induction of the TET catalytic domain (TET-CD) in iTreg cells leads to demethylation of CNS2. In the context of colitis, iTreg cells expressing TET-CD show enhanced suppressive capacity compared with control iTregs when co-transferred alongside naïve T cells into lymphopenic mice [32]. Similarly, TET activators such as vitamin C demethylate the CNS2 locus and reinforce the stability of Foxp3 expression in human and mouse iTreg cells [31]. Although an important role of vitamin C in colitis has been suggested in several studies [33], few clinical trials have been conducted and the efficacy of vitamin C for treating IBD patients remains unknown. By contrast with thymic Treg cells, the CNS2 region of conventional T cells is highly bound by DNMTs. Genetic deletion of DNMTs and inhibition of DNA methylation with azacytidine demethylates the CNS2 region and induces Foxp3 expression [29, 34]. Conversely, TET family inhibition by metabolites or dysregulated mitochondrial electron transport chain in Treg cells increases DNA methylation. Treg cells lacking an essential subunit of mitochondrial complex III exhibits reduced

suppressive function, resulting in failure to suppress colitis in adoptive transfer colitis model [35]. Additionally, it has been shown that Foxp3 expression is induced by TGF- β in combination with multiple other factors such as retinoic acid (RA) and rapamycin [36–39]. However, the CNS2 region is less methylated in thymic Treg cells compared with Foxp3⁺ cells induced from naïve T cells or differentiated Th1 cells in vitro [22, 39, 40]. It still remains unclear which factors are critical to achieve full and stable demethylation of the CNS2 region during induction of FoxP3 expression.

The methylation status of the CNS2 region is also directly affected or otherwise influenced by a wide range of transcription factors. Suppressor of cytokine signaling 1 (SOCS1), a negative regulator of the JAK-STAT pathways, plays a critical role in cytokine signal transduction and differentiation of T cell subsets, including Treg cells [41, 42]. In mice whose T cells are deficient in SOCS1, Treg cells show rapid methylation of the CNS2 region, lose Foxp3 expression, and fail to suppress colitis after co-transfer with naïve T cells into lymphopenic mice [43]. Rapid downregulation of Foxp3 in two different genotypes of SOCS1-deficient Treg cells (*Foxp3^{cre}SOCS1^{fl/fl}* and *Lck^{cre}SOCS1^{fl/fl}* mice) was attributed to unrestrained activation of the IFN- γ -STAT1 [44] and IL-12-STAT4 pathways [45]. In inflamed tissue, IFN- γ also induces expression of T-bet, a lineage-defining transcription factor for Th1 cells, in Treg cells, and T-bet⁺ Treg cells were preferentially recruited to suppress Th1 responses via CXCR3 [46–48]. In addition to T-bet, lineage-determining transcription factors (LDTFs) for other T cell lineages are co-expressed in Treg cells. GATA3, a LDTF for Th2 cells, binds to the demethylated CNS2 region and stabilizes the expression of Foxp3 in Treg cells. Moreover, GATA3-deficient (*Tnfrsf4* (OX40)^{cre}*Gata3^{fl/fl}*) Treg cells failed to suppress colitis in the T cell transfer colitis model [49]. This is consistent with recent attempts at global mapping of DNA methylation, which showed that tissue-resident Treg cells achieve a Th2 cell-like methylation pattern and express Th2 cell-associated signature genes such as *Il1rl1* (ST2), *Klrg1* (KLRG1), *Tigit* (TIGIT), and *Gata3* (GATA3) [50]. ST2 is preferentially expressed on colonic Treg cells in comparison with mesenteric lymph node (mLN) Treg cells, where its ligand IL-33 stimulates Treg cells to stabilize Foxp3 expression and ensure full Treg function in the colon [51]. In ST2⁺ Treg cells, the alarmin IL-33 phosphorylates GATA3 and leads to the expression of a set of genes co-regulated by Foxp3 and GATA3 [51]. ST2⁺ Treg cells, which are found in adipose tissue, muscle, brain, and intestine during inflammation, proliferate, and repair tissue damage by producing amphiregulin (Areg) in response to IL-33 and IL-2 [52–56]. In addition, IL-33/ST2 signaling promoted proliferation of intestinal Treg cells in a p38/MAPK-dependent manner in a mouse model of acute graft-versus-host disease (GVHD) [57]. Since IL-33 and ST2 are upregulated in the epithelium and CD4⁺ T cells of patients with active ulcerative colitis and are normalized after anti-TNF treatment [58], the IL-33/ST2 system may represent an

important negative feedback loop for intestinal inflammation. Although the protective role of IL-33 during intestinal inflammation remains less clear than in lung and adipose tissues [49, 51, 59], it is highly suggestive that a positive feedback loop involving IL-33, ST2, and GATA3 promotes Foxp3 expression and boosts Treg signatures [60]. In addition, both inflammatory and regulatory roles of IL-33 have been shown in colitis models [61], and the immunoregulatory or wound repair function of IL-33 during colitis appears to be phase-dependent. IL-33 is a member of the IL-1-family cytokines, inducing Areg production by Treg cells and fueling the tissue-repair program in lung and adipose tissues. Among the IL-1 family and related cytokines, IL-18, but not IL-1 α , IL-1 β , or IL-36, increased Areg production by in vitro-cultured Treg cells [54] (Fig. 2). IL-18 is produced by intestinal epithelial cells like IL-33 and is upregulated in patients with Crohn's disease (CD) [62, 63]. In experimental colitis models, conflicting roles of IL-18 have been described [64–68]. The discordant data were presumably influenced by different genetic models and related confounding environmental factors, including the gut microbiome. In the context of Treg cells, IL-18/IL-18R signaling is critical for preventing colitis following T cell transfer in animal models [69]. Similarly, IL-18 contributes to Areg production by Treg cells and causes lung damage [54]. However, unlike IL-33, the role of IL-18 in formation of Treg cell-specific methylome patterns remains largely unclear. Moreover, it is highly likely that multiple subpopulations of Treg cells differentiate in the presence of IL-18, IL-33, and other cytokines. Describing the heterogeneity of Treg cells would be an interesting goal for future studies.

Beyond methylation states, CNS2 serves as an enhancer of Foxp3 expression and contains increased levels of H3K4 methylation as well as H3/H4 acetylation in Treg cells [28]. The polycomb repressor complex is replaced by p300/CREB-binding protein-associated factor (PCAF), a histone acetyltransferase recruited via KLF10 to the *Foxp3* promoter, which then results in opening of the *Foxp3* promoter by permissive histone modifications. The acetyltransferase TIP60 promotes acetylation-dependent dimerization of Foxp3; in the absence of TIP60, lethal autoimmunity develops [70]. Other post-translational Foxp3 regulatory processes include phosphorylation at serine and threonine residues by several kinases, including PIM-1, PIM-2 and CDK2, and ubiquitination at lysine residues, which targets Foxp3 for proteasomal degradation [27]. Under inflammatory conditions, proteasome-dependent degradation of Foxp3 is mediated by the ubiquitinase STIP1 homology and U box-containing protein 1 (Stub1) [71]. By contrast, the deubiquitinating enzyme ubiquitin-specific protease 7 (USP7) regulates the turnover of Foxp3 is highly expressed in Treg cells and is associated with Foxp3 in the nucleus [72]. Conditional deletion of USP7 in Treg cells leads to lethal autoimmunity, decreased numbers of Treg cells in the periphery, and development of autoantibodies against gastric parietal cells, pancreatic islet cells, endomysium, and smooth muscle.

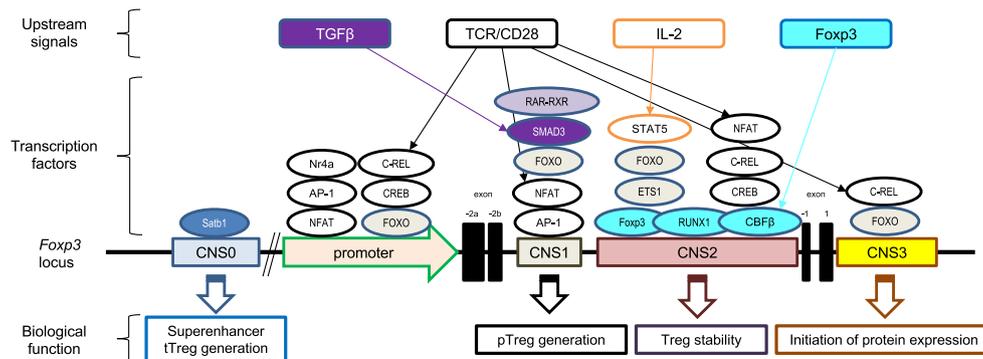


Fig. 3 Transcriptional regulation of the *Foxp3* locus. TCR and CD28 co-stimulatory signals, TGF- β , paracrine IL-2, and an autocrine Foxp3-dependent feedback loop are important in transcription of Foxp3. Foxp3 expression is regulated by binding of several transcription factors to the promoter region and CNSs of the Foxp3 locus. Transcription factors and corresponding pairs of upstream signals are shown using the same color scheme. TGF- β signaling (purple): SMAD3. TCR/CD28 signaling (white with purple frame): AP-1(activator protein 1), c-Rel

(member of NF- κ B transcription factor family), CREB (cyclic AMP-responsive element-binding protein), and NFAT (nuclear factor of activated T cells). IL-2 signaling (white with orange frame): STAT5 (signal transducer and activator of transcription 5). Foxp3 signaling (light blue): CBF β (core-binding factor, beta subunit), Foxp3, and RUNX1 (runt-related transcription factor 1). The other molecules, FOXO (forkhead box 0) (inhibitory factors) and Ets-1 (E26 avian leukemia oncogene 1), are constitutive and inhibitory factors, respectively

Since TGF- β , IL-2, and RA are abundant, Nrp1(-) peripherally induced Treg cells are differentiated in the gut [15]. Among IL-2 receptors, IL-2R α is essential for high-affinity binding of IL-2, Treg cell survival, and T cell differentiation and function. Neutralization of IL-2R α significantly reduces the number of Treg cells in patients treated with basiliximab and daclizumab though lower affinity signaling, despite IL-2R β and γ c remaining unperturbed [82]. Consistently, the strength of downstream signaling from IL-2R influences the induction of Treg cells and the expression of the STAT5 paralogs, STAT5A and 5B, which critically drive Foxp3 expression in a dose-dependent manner. The binding sites of STAT5A and 5B largely overlap, while the absence of a single copy of STAT5A or STAT5B reduced binding of STAT5 to genes involved in Treg differentiation and maintenance such as *Ii2ra* [83–85]. In addition to STAT5, Bach2 is a critical transcription factor required for inducing peripheral Treg cells and repressing effector programs of non-Treg cells [86]. In the absence of Bach2, mice spontaneously develop lethal lymphoproliferative disease with gut manifestations. Patients with heterozygous mutations in the *BACH2* gene locus consistently exhibit IBD-like intestinal inflammation [87]. Therefore, the paradoxical efficacies of anti-IL-2R α interventions in UC, MS, and GVHD patients highlight the importance of gut Treg cells in patients with IBD and the high dependency of these cells on IL-2 for differentiation and survival [16–18, 88].

RA is another important factor regulating intestinal Treg cells. RA has a pervasive effect on Th cell subsets, but the impact of RA is greater in TGF- β -dependent cells such as iTreg, Th17, and Th9 cells compared with Th0, Th1, and Th2 cells [89]. Among TGF- β -dependent cells, RA has been shown to suppress trans-differentiation to other Th cell lineages by inhibiting expression of key transcription factors or

cytokine receptors of these lineages. RA downregulates IL-6R, IL-23R, and Interferon regulatory factor 4 (IRF4) expression and induces Foxp3 expression in Th cells stimulated under conditions favorable for Th17 cell differentiation in the presence of TGF- β and IL-6 or IL-21 [37]. In addition, RA represses IL-9 expression but increases Foxp3 expression in a dose-dependent manner. RAR α , the receptor for RA, directly binds to the *Ii9* promoter region and directly represses IL-9 expression, while RAR α antagonists significantly increase IL-9 production [89]. Consistent with its role in enforcing Foxp3 expression and inhibiting differentiation of other Th cell lineages, beneficial effects of RA have been reported in multiple IBD models, such as trinitrobenzene sulfonic acid (TNBS)-induced colitis and dextran sodium sulfate (DSS)-induced colitis [90, 91]. Moreover, RA has been shown to induce differentiation of a specific subset of intestinal CD161⁺ Treg cells that control the wound healing program in patients with Crohn's disease [92]. Although clinical applications exploiting the beneficial effects of RA and/or TGF- β are currently limited due to potentially increased risks of colitis or other adverse events [93, 94], adjusting the dose or innovative drug delivery systems might enable future exploitation of the immune regulatory function of RA for treating IBD patients.

miRNAs/long non-coding RNAs in Treg cells

Treg cells exhibit a distinct miRNA profile compared with conventional T cells, and individual miRNA or miRNA clusters contribute to Treg cell biology through targeting a distinct set of genes. Treg cells have a degree of plasticity, and miRNAs integrate the external signals that drive this phenomenon [95].

The miRNA, miR-10a, is induced by TGF- β and RA and contributes to Treg stability by targeting the transcriptional repressor Bcl-6, resulting in high and sustained Foxp3 expression [96]. In addition, miR-95 is also highly expressed in human Treg cells (CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127^{low} cells) purified from peripheral blood and enhances FOXP3 mRNA and protein expression [97]. By contrast, miRNAs can also function as negative regulators of Foxp3 expression. Overexpression of miR-15a-16 [98] in Treg cells resulted in decreased Foxp3 expression. Additionally, miR-24, miR-145, and miR-210 are markedly under-expressed in human Treg cells, and function to downregulate Foxp3 mRNA and protein expression.

With regard to Treg cell stability, miR-21 regulates Foxp3 expression and correlates with imbalances of Th17 and Treg cells by modulating STAT3 and STAT5 expression, respectively, in patients with rheumatoid arthritis [99]. Another miRNA, miR-146a, targets STAT1 expression and minimizes Th1 cell-mediated pathology including conjunctivitis, blepharitis, and dermatitis, by blocking the IFN- γ /SOCS1/STAT1 axis [44].

In addition, miR-7, miR-18a, miR-34a, and miR-155 have been shown to contribute to stabilization of Treg suppressor function [97, 100, 101]. The activities of these miRNAs are mediated by Treg expression of SATB1, a genome organizer that regulates chromatin structure and gene expression [102]. Treg cell-specific super-enhancers, which are defined as genomic regions with dense clustering of highly active enhancers, begin to be established prior to expression of Foxp3 during thymic Treg cell development in a SATB-1 dependent manner. SATB1 deficiency impairs Treg super-enhancer activation, expression of Treg cell signature genes, and causes severe autoimmunity [103]. These miRNAs bind to the *Satb1* 3' untranslated region and indirectly suppress SATB1. Thus, increased expression of these miRNAs may be particularly helpful in inflammatory diseases since they promote Foxp3 expression and function. In terms of gut phenotypes, excessive expression of miR-17 [104] and miR-27 [105] exacerbates colitis induced by effector T cell transfer and results in lower Treg cell accumulation in the colonic lamina propria.

In terms of long non-coding RNAs (lncRNAs), *Flicr* is a negative regulator that tunes Foxp3 expression, resulting in a subset of Tregs expressing lower levels of Foxp3. *Flicr* does not affect DNA methylation, but modifies chromatin accessibility in the CNS3/Accessible region 5 (AR5) region of *Foxp3*. *Flicr* markedly promotes autoimmune diabetes and restrains antiviral responses [106]. Another lncRNA called *Flatr* is produced prior to Foxp3 expression and is highly conserved and enriched in activated Tregs. *Flatr*-deficient naïve T cells in spleen and lymph nodes showed lower Treg induction in a T cell transfer model, although *Flatr*-deficient Tregs maintained their suppressive function [107].

Th1 cells

Th1 cells, defined by the expression of signature Th1 genes including the cytokine *Ifng* and the cell-surface receptor *Cxcr3*, require T-bet for differentiation [108–110]. Th1 cells and the cytokines they produce are crucial for driving IBD, and their potential to induce potent inflammation has been demonstrated by adoptive transfer in murine models [111]. One of the major cytokines produced by Th1 cells is IFN- γ . When wild-type mice are treated with DSS, IFN- γ is abundantly produced, coincident with prominent weight loss and high mortality; these responses are suppressed in *Ifng*^{-/-} mice [112]. CD, a prototypical IBD, was originally thought to be primarily associated with Th1 immune responses [113], while UC, another IBD, was thought to represent a Th2-driven disease. However, later studies revealed considerably greater complexity. The findings that T-bet^{-/-} mice developed severe DSS-induced colitis and that T-bet^{-/-} \times RAG2^{-/-} (TRUC) mice developed a highly penetrant and severe colitis [114, 115] both contradicted the original hypothesis. These findings were explained through the bilateral nature of T-bet: that is, T-bet regulates both the mucosal immune system and barrier functions [115]. Another contradictory finding was that both IL-13 and IFN- γ , but not IL-4, were detected at elevated levels in the mucosa of patients with UC [116]. Based on the potential association of Th1 cells and/or their signature cytokine, IFN- γ , with the pathogenesis of IBD, several clinical trials targeting IFN- γ have been performed. For instance, fontolizumab, an antibody blocking the Th1 signature cytokine IFN- γ , was administered to CD patients, but further research was abandoned due to the lack of a clear dose-dependent clinical benefit [117, 118]. However, IFN- γ blockade with fontolizumab significantly decreased C-reactive protein levels, suggesting that functional blockade of IFN- γ might be biologically beneficial in IBD, especially for patients with CD. This might explain the positive results of clinical trials of ustekinumab, one of whose targets is IL-12, a critical cytokine for Th1 differentiation [119].

T-bet, encoded by *Tbx21* [120], is defined by a central 180-residue DNA-binding domain called the T-box [121]. T-bet functions with Runx3 and Ets family members to promote IFN- γ production. Therefore, the role of T-bet as an activator has long focused on Th1 cells. However, similar numbers of genes are activated and repressed by T-bet in Th cells upon TCR stimulation [122]. Indeed, T-bet inhibits the functions of GATA3 and ROR γ t and antagonizes Th2 and Th17 cell differentiation [123]. Beyond its inhibitory roles in restricting differentiation toward other Th cell lineages, T-bet also represses aberrant type I IFN circuitry in IFN- γ -rich environments. In the absence of T-bet, Th cells sense IFN- γ as type I IFN and express IFN-inducible genes [122]. It remains to be elucidated how the dual roles of T-bet as an activator or a repressor are governed. Presumably, this occurs via

collaborative transcriptional partners, chromatin and histone modifications, and 3D-chromatin conformational changes.

The classical epigenetic modification associated with gene expression is DNA methylation. The mammalian DNA methylation process is comprised of two components. The first components are the DNMTs, which are concerned with DNA methylation patterns, and the second are the methyl-CpG binding proteins, which are involved in reading methylation signatures. DNA methylation of CpG dinucleotides is a major epigenetic mechanism to achieve transcriptional silencing of specific genes during developmental processes. Usually, DNA methylation leads chromatin to become condensed and inaccessible. By contrast, demethylation of CpG motifs leads to a relaxation of chromatin and increased accessibility of target sequences for binding by specific transcription factors.

DNMTs are composed of several subsets. DNMT1 is thought to be required to maintain DNA methylation at the *IFNG* locus in undifferentiated CD4⁺ T cells [124]. By contrast, DNMT3a catalyzes DNA methylation of the *IFNG* promoter in response to Th2 and Th17 differentiation signals to sustain *IFNG* silencing. This silencing effect continues during subsequent Th1 differentiation signals and might control the balance among lineages [125]. Gonsky et al. reported that IBD patients requiring surgery had reduced *IFNG* methylation compared with non-surgical patients, and that decreased *IFNG* methylation correlated with enhanced IFN- γ secretion in UC [126].

Histone modification also regulates gene expression. Both active euchromatin and silenced heterochromatin are modulated by specific histone modifications. For example, histone 3 lysine 4 tri-methylation (H3K4me3) is associated with accessible promoters whereas H3K36me3 is associated with actively transcribed coding regions. Enhancers are marked by H3K4me1 and H3K4me2. Among these enhancer markers, H3 lysine 27 acetylation (H3K27Ac) indicates the existence of active enhancers. By contrast, inactive genes are characterized by the presence of H3K27me3 or H3K9me3. These enhancer marks in Th cells are formed in a lineage-specific manner, and lineage-specific global enhancer structure contributes to unique patterns of gene expression [127]. Like Th cells, each subpopulation of innate lymphoid cells, classified into subpopulations similarly to Th cell subsets, has unique enhancer patterns [127–129]. The uniqueness of enhancer signatures provides important information for better understanding of the underlying mechanisms contributing to each Th cell lineage.

H3K27 trimethylation is mainly mediated by Polycomb-group proteins (PcGs), which consist of two major repressive complexes: Polycomb repressive complex 1 (PRC1) and PRC2 [130, 131]. There are two types of PRC2 complexes. Both contain an invariant core of five proteins (E(z), Esc, Su(z)12, Caf1 and Jing) but differ in the presence of

alternative subunits (Jarid2 or Pcl) [132]. Ezh2, a component of the PRC2, is responsible for the methylation activity of PRC2. In Th1 cells, Ezh2 works in this manner by directly binding to *Tbx21* and is an essential suppressor of Th1 responses through roles in differentiation and stabilization of phenotype. EZH2 deletion was associated with upregulation of IFN- γ and IL-10 under Th0 conditions, and with enhanced induction of IFN- γ under Th1 conditions [133]. Another study showed that EZH2-deficient Th0 cells produced more IFN- γ during stimulation in the presence of IL-12, inducing Th1 polarization [134]. Moreover, EZH2 depletion caused a substantial reduction in H3K27me3 levels in a murine model of DSS-induced colitis [134, 135]. Apart from IBD, it was reported that GSK126, a highly selective inhibitor of EZH2 methyltransferase activity, effectively inhibited the proliferation of EZH2-mutant DLBCL cell lines [136]. In primary colon cancer cells, GSK126 led to higher levels of IFN- γ -induced *CXCL10* expression [137], which was consistent with the results of mouse experiments. Currently, treatment with an Ezh2 inhibitor is being attempted in CD patients, though these results are not yet published.

Recently, the H3K27 demethylase Jmjd3 (also known as KDM6B) was found to catalyze demethylation of H3K27me2/3 in vitro [138, 139]. Jmjd3 is induced by vitamin D and pro-inflammatory stimuli in macrophages. Although Jmjd3 has been shown to interact with the Th1 master regulator, T-bet [140, 141], its in vivo function in T cell differentiation remains unknown. Recently, a study of T cell-specific Jmjd3-deficient mice suggested that Jmjd3 deletion inhibited Th1 and Treg differentiation and promoted Th2 and Th17 differentiation [142, 143]. It has been suggested that Jmjd3 deficiency suppresses the plastic conversion of Th2, Th17, or Treg cells into Th1 cells and that adoptive transfer of *Jmjd3*-deficient T cells limits colitis in a mouse model of disease [142]. In another study, however, Jmjd3 deletion did not alter the ability of Th0 cells to differentiate into Th1 cells. [143]

miRNAs/long non-coding RNAs in Th1 cells

Only 1–2% of the genome has protein-coding potential, whereas 85% of the genome is transcribed [144]. Transcribed RNAs are divided into two groups: lncRNAs and small RNAs. lncRNAs, which are mainly expressed from CNSs, are major regulators of chromatin remodeling, transcription, and posttranscriptional regulation of gene expression in diverse biological contexts [145], including the immune system [146]. Of small RNAs, miRNAs are implicated in the differentiation and functions of many cell types. The first discovery of miRNAs was in 1993 [147, 148]. In 2008, changes in miRNAs associated with human IBD were described [149] and their function in IBD through regulation of the immune system was examined.

Nest, also known as *Tmypeg1* or *IFNG-As1*, is a lncRNA gene located nearby both *Ifng* and *IFNG* that seems to be involved in inflammation. *Nest* is expressed in immune cells such as CD8 and CD4 T cells [150, 151]. *Nest* RNA was found to bind WDR5, a component of the histone H3 lysine 4 methyltransferase complex, and to regulate H3 methylation at the *Ifng* locus. In this manner, *Nest* alters expression of IFN- γ [152]. Moreover, expression of *Nest* was suggested to be associated with severity of UC [153]. Since treatments targeting lncRNAs are already under investigation in other fields, including cancer [154], it is also expected that lncRNAs could be new targets for treating IBD.

Many miRNAs also have additional effects on gene expression. MiR-155 promotes Th1 differentiation by targeting IFN- γ receptor α chain [155]. Expression of miR-155 is induced by inflammatory cytokines and Toll-like receptor ligands, and recent studies have demonstrated that miR-155 is upregulated in both UC and CD patients [156, 157]. The miR-17-92 cluster promotes Th1 differentiation. The function of miR-19b is mediated through phosphatase and tensin homolog, while miR-17 targets transforming growth factor (TGF)- β receptor II and cAMP-responsive element-binding protein 1 [158]. Through direct targeting of T-box transcription factor, miR-29 regulates Th cell differentiation by T-bet and eomesodermin to suppress IFN- γ production [159]. Finally, miR-146a may inhibit Th1 differentiation by targeting protein kinase C ϵ [160].

Th2 cells

Th2 cells can produce various cytokines such as IL-4, IL-5, IL-6, IL-9, IL-10, and IL-13. GATA3, a LDTF of Th2 cells, is stimulated by IL-4. Stimulated GATA3 promotes differentiation of Th2 cells in two ways: by suppressing expression of the IL-12R β 2 chain, which is necessary for differentiation of Th1 cells, and by applying positive feedback to its own expression [161, 162]. Cytokines secreted by Th2 are thought to be closely involved in allergic reactions including inflammatory reactions.

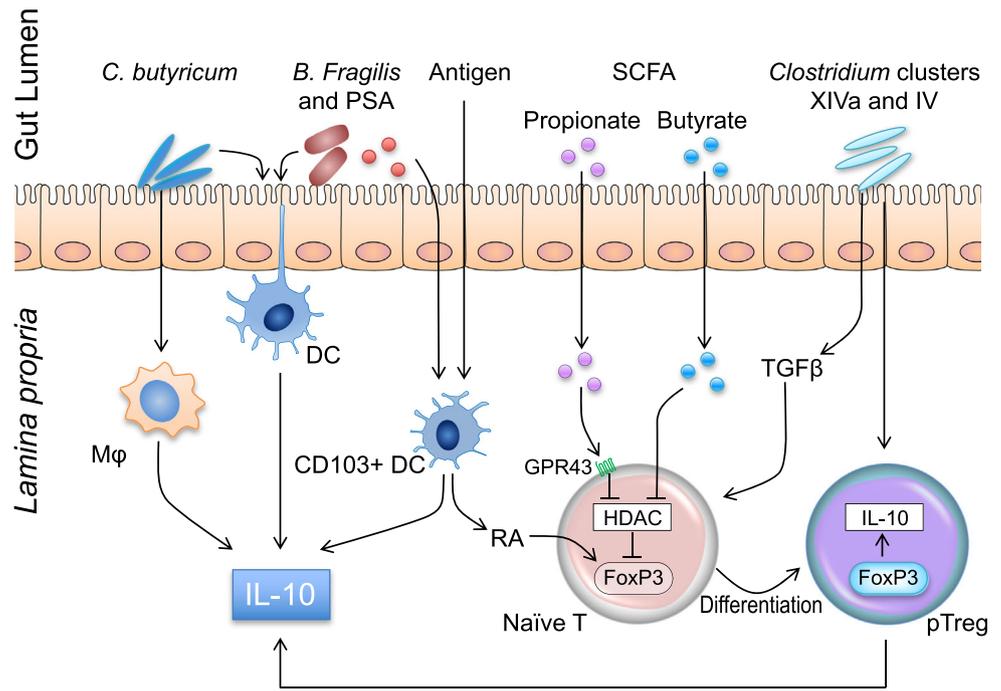
IL-13, one of the main Th2 cytokines, is produced by various cells including basophils, eosinophils, mast cells, NKT cells, and Th2 cells [163]. NKT cells induce Th2 cells, and these cells are thought to be coordinated to produce pathogenicity against epithelial barriers which may relate to the development of UC [164]. A study of IL-13 deficient mice showed impaired Th2 differentiation and a protective effect against oxazolone-induced colitis [165]. In addition, expression of *IL-13* was elevated in biopsy specimens from patients with UC compared with healthy subjects [166]. Thus, IL-13 is thought to play a key role as an effector cytokine in UC. The efficacy of the humanized anti-IL-13 monoclonal antibodies, talokinumab, and anrukizumab, was assessed against UC;

both failed to demonstrate significant therapeutic effects [167, 168]. Therefore, a direct relation between IBD and Th2 cells or their signature cytokines is still controversial, and their role as therapeutic targets is especially uncertain.

IL-10 is another Th2 cytokine that is considered to maintain gut homeostasis through its anti-inflammatory properties [169]. IL-10 knockout mice develop spontaneous colitis, and the characteristics of this model resemble those of IBD patients in terms of histology and pathophysiology [170]. In the DSS-induced colitis model, IL-10 suppresses secretion of the inflammatory cytokines, IL-1 β and TNF α [171]. Administration of IL-10 significantly and consistently improves DSS- [171] and TNBS-induced colitis [172]. Most importantly, IL-10 signaling is associated with the development of early onset IBD [173]. These studies strongly suggest that supplementation with IL-10 may represent a reasonable therapeutic strategy to treat IBD. After the safety and tolerability of IL-10 therapy was confirmed [174], some studies have reported improvements in clinical disease activity index and endoscopic findings following IL-10 therapy [175], while other reports showed no significant improvement [176]. Despite the negative results of clinical trials, enforcement of IL-10 expression is still a promising strategy to treat IBD. Recent advances in microbiology revealed that certain *Bacteroides*, *Clostridium*, *Lactobacillus*, and *Faecalibacterium* species induced production IL-10 from intestinal immune cells [177–181] [182, 183] (Fig. 4). Since an early clinical trial showed the safety of genetically engineered bacteria encoding mature human IL-10 [184], this is a promising therapeutic approach to alter the microbiome and deliver IL-10 to the mucosal immune system through the intestinal lumen.

Genes encoding the Th2 cytokine IL-4, IL-5, and IL-13 are closely interspersed in a Th2 cytokine locus, a 125-kb region on human chromosome 5 and mouse chromosome 11 [185] (Fig. 5). Th2 cytokine genes are regulated by a locus control region (LCR) termed the RAD50 gene. The *RAD50* locus is present between IL-5 and IL-13 and consists of four hypersensitive sites (HSS): RHS 4, RHS 5, RHS 6, and RHS 7 [186]. Between the IL-4 and IL-13 genes lies CNS1 containing HSS1 and HSS2, both of which are unique to Th2 cells. CATA-1 is induced by GATA3, resulting in chromatin remodeling and increased activity as an enhancer [187]. CNS-1 is thought to be a regulator of Th2 cytokine genes, since deletion of CNS1 led to reduction of IL-4, IL-5, and IL-13 [188]. By contrast, deletion of CNS2 leads to reduction of IL-4 expression in T follicular helper cells but not in Th2 cells, suggesting the specificity of enhancer usage in each Th cell subset [184, 189]. Like other T cell subsets, histone modification supports the control of Th2 cytokine activation. GATA3, the LDTF of Th2 cells, binds directly to HS II/IE and HSVa in the IL-4 gene locus, inducing acetylation of H3K4 and methylation of H3K27 and promoting the translation of IL-4 [190].

Fig. 4 Impact of the gut microbiota on Treg cells and IL-10 regulation. Luminal *Bacteroides fragilis* or *Clostridium* spp. in mice have been shown to induce intestinal Foxp3+ Treg cells and to enhance the expression of IL-10 in Treg cells, dendritic cells (DCs) and macrophages (Mφs)



Similarly, GATA3 and STAT6 cooperate to methylate and acetylate the conserved GATA3 response element in the IL-13 gene locus and induce IL-13 production [191]. In a mouse model of asthma involving histone deacetylase (HDAC) -1 deficient T cells, exacerbated disease activity was confirmed along with increased levels of IL-4 [192]. Chromatin remodeling and histone modification are clearly involved with Th2 culture and augmentation, but little is known about their association with IBD.

Th17 cells

Th17 cells have recently been classified as a new Th cell subset [1, 193] and are critically involved in host defense, inflammation, and autoimmunity [194]. Since the identification of Th17 cells, a growing number of studies have reported the importance of Th17 cells in experimental models of colitis [195]. Moreover, the inflamed gastrointestinal mucosa of patients with IBD shows massive infiltration of Th17 cells, and

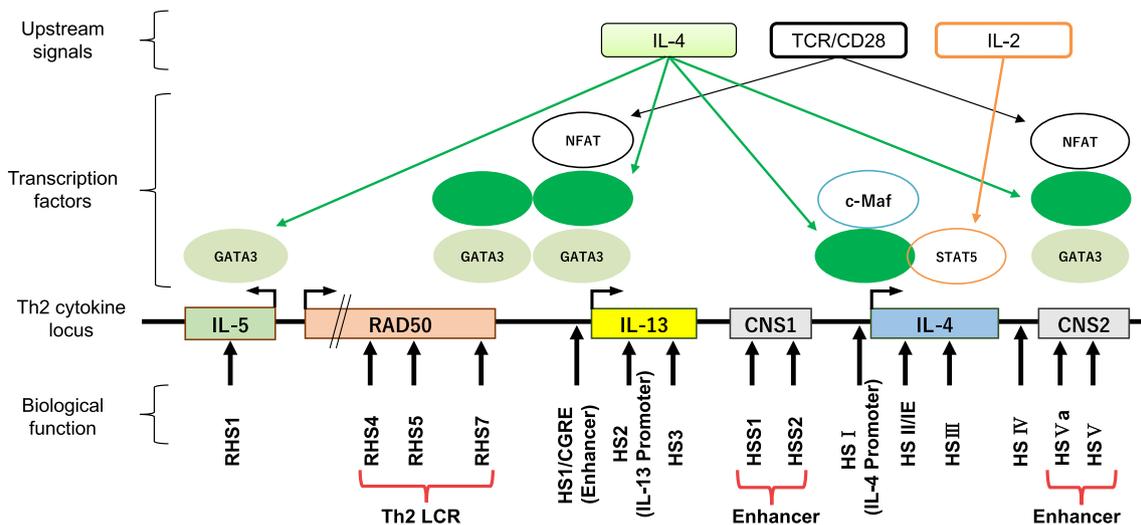


Fig. 5 Transcriptional regulation of the Th2 cytokine locus. The Th2 locus mainly consists of genes encoding IL-5, RAD50, IL-13, and IL-4. GATA3 binds to the promoter and/or enhancer regions of this locus, increasing the accessibility of each locus and inducing H3K4 trimethylation and H3K9 acetylation. GATA3 works in cooperation with

various transcription factors. Corresponding pairs of upstream signals and transcription factors are shown in the same color. IL-4 signaling (green): GATA3 and STAT6; TCR/CD28 signaling (white with black frame): NFAT (nuclear factor of activated T cells); c-Maf (white with blue frame); IL-2 signaling (white with orange frame): STAT5

Th17-related cytokines are produced in excess in both CD and UC tissues [196–198]. However, it has been suggested that blocking IL-17, a major Th17 cytokine, in CD patients does more harm than good. Treatment with secukinumab, a human anti-IL17A monoclonal antibody, is ineffective and confers higher rates of adverse effects compared with placebo [199]. Thus, it is necessary to explore the relation between Th17 cells and IBD more deeply.

Th17 cells produce the effector cytokines IL-17 and IL-22. Th17 cells are generated from naïve T cells by the combined action of IL-6 and TGF- β , with or without IL-1 β [200], and differentiated Th17 cells are maintained by IL-23 [201]. Cytokines like IL-6 and IL-23 induce *Rorc*/ROR γ t, the master regulators of Th17 cells, via the STAT3 pathway. c-Maf has been recently reported as a key regulator of ROR γ t [202–205] and the action of c-Maf that induces ROR γ t is independent of STAT3 [206]. Other factors such as aryl hydrocarbon receptor (Ahr), Batf, I κ B ζ , IRF-4, and Runx1 are reported to be involved in Th17 cell differentiation. Foxp3, Gfi-1, and Ets-1 are reported to inhibit Th17 cell differentiation. Tcf-1, another repressor of Th17 cells, directly binds and represses the *Il17* gene and negatively regulates IL-7R on Th17 cells [123].

Th17 cells have been considered pathogenic in autoimmune diseases [207]. However, the pathogenic or protective roles of Th17 cells or their signature cytokines, IL-17A and IL-17F, appear to be complex and context-dependent in intestinal immunity. When *Rag1*^{-/-} mice were reconstituted with T cells lacking IL-17A, IL-17F, or IL-23, they developed colitis. However, colitis was not induced when ROR γ t^{-/-} T cells were transferred to *RAG1*^{-/-} mice, supporting the pathogenic role of Th17 cells in colitis [208]. Transferring CD45RB^{hi} CD25⁻CD4⁺ T cells is known to induce colitis, and when purified CD45RB^{hi} CD25⁻CD4⁺ T cells from *Il17a*^{-/-} mice were transferred into *Rag1*^{-/-} recipients, more severe colitis was observed compared with adoptive transfer of cells from wild-type mice [209]. This finding might be attributed to the fact that IL-17A regulates gut integrity [210] or competes with IFN- γ -producing Th1 cells [211, 212]. Inflammation is induced in the small intestine by administering an antibody specific for CD3, which is a T cell-specific surface marker. In this model, the concentrations of TGF- β and IL-6 increased in the small intestine, and massive infiltration of Th17 cells was observed. Importantly, these Th17 cells possessed more immunoregulatory features than Th17 cells observed during the development of experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis (EAE) [213]. Intestinal Th17 cells and Treg cells both express CCR6, and since Th17 cells produce CCL20 (a ligand of CCR6), Th17 cells can promote their own migration [214]. CD4⁺Foxp3⁻ IL-10 producing (Tr1) cells and Treg cells, which function to suppress enteritis, control Th17 cells in an IL-10 dependent manner [215]. IL-17A induces CCL20 production from Th17 cells in the small intestine [213, 216]. Following treatment with anti-CD3 antibody, CCL20 was

increased in the small intestine, while no increase in Th17 cells was observed in *Ccr6*^{-/-} or *Il6*^{-/-} mice [213]. This indicates that the CCR6/CCL20 axis is important for migration of Th17 cells [213]. It has become clear that Th17 cells are a heterogeneous population that includes pathogenic and non-pathogenic signatures [217–219]. One of the key cytokines used to decipher pathogenic and non-pathogenic Th17 cells is IL-23. Exposure to IL-23 decreased the production of IL-10, an anti-inflammatory cytokine, and led to development of pathogenic Th17 cells [217, 218, 220]. Th17 cells are controlled by various cytokines, chemokines, and surrounding cells, and can have both pathogenic and protective effects against enteritis. Therefore, further studies are required to identify the colitogenic Th17 cell population that must be targeted in IBD as well as to understand such additional factors as dissecting Th17 cells into pathogenic and non-pathogenic populations, upstream stimulations, signal transduction mechanisms, and epigenetic modifications.

Histone modification impacts the expression of LDTF and effector cytokines in Th17 cells. TGF- β inhibited H3K9 trimethylation of the Runx1- and ROR γ t-binding sites on *Il17* as well as *Rorc* in Th1 cells, and induced conversion of Th1 cells into Th17 cells [221]. The mechanisms through which the H3K27 demethylase *Jmjd3* affects differentiation are controversial. Deletion of *Jmjd3* promotes differentiation into Th17 cells [142]. Conversely, another study showed that deletion of *Jmjd3* in Th0 cells impaired Th17 cell differentiation [143].

Since HDAC inhibitors repress polarization of Th17 cells, histone acetylation is required for the differentiation or maintenance of Th17 cells [222]. MOF is one of the histone acetyltransferases (HATs) that specifically acetylates H4K16, and leads to active target gene transcription [223]. H4ac has already been reported to be responsible for driving inflammation in experimental colitis [224]. Yang et al. found that deficiency of MOF causes downregulation of Th17-associated genes, including *Il17a*, *Il22*, *ROR γ t*, *ROR α* , *Stat3*, *TGF- β 1*, and *Il6*, in colon tissues in a DSS-induced colitis model [225].

By contrast, HDAC inhibits IL-6 production and thus suppress Th17 cell differentiation. It has been recently revealed that SKI interacts with HDAC and SMAD4 and induces deacetylation of the *Rorc* locus. In the presence of SKI, HDAC inhibits H3K9 acetylation of the *Rorc* locus, resulting in impaired *Rorc* expression and Th17 cell differentiation [226]. HDACs have been categorized into several subsets based on structure. Inhibitors targeting HDACs have already been produced: pan-HDAC inhibitors as the first-generation drugs and selective HDAC inhibitors as the second generation [227]. Salkowska et al. showed that ROR γ t expression was downregulated in naïve Th cells cultured with two HDAC inhibitors, butyrate and apicidin [228]. Another study showed that treatment with an HDAC inhibitor resulted in a 90% decrease in IL-6 in lamina propria mononuclear cells stimulated with concanavalin A, and profoundly suppressed Th17

cell differentiation from naïve CD4⁺ T cells [229]. Additionally, HDAC inhibitors have protective effect in both murine models of DSS- and TNBS-induced colitis [230]. HDAC inhibitors are expected to be effective, especially in the field of cancer, and many studies have been conducted using HDAC inhibitors alone or in combination with other drugs [231]. However, few clinical studies are currently ongoing in the IBD field and there is much still to be learned regarding the clinical effects and safety of HDAC inhibitors.

miRNAs/long non-coding RNAs in Th17 cells

As in other CD4⁺ T cell lineages, non-coding RNA also serve as important factors in regulation of Th17 cells. Although little is known regarding the role of lncRNAs in Th17 cell development, many miRNAs have been studied. MiR-22 promotes Th17 cell differentiation via HDAC4, and its levels were increased in the peripheral blood and intestinal mucosa of IBD patients [232]. The miR-17-92 cluster (miR-17, miR-18a, miR-19a, miR-20a, miR-19b, and miR-92a) also coordinate to drive Th17 cell differentiation [98, 233]. Increased expression of miR-155 in IBD patients has been reported previously [234, 235]. MiR-155 induces inflammation by inhibiting Ets-1, a negative regulator of Th17 cells [236]. DSS-induced-colitis in miR-155-deficient mice showed decreased numbers of Th1 cells, Th17 cells, and dendritic cells compared with WT mice; these frequencies correlated with clinical scores and severity of colitis [237]. Therefore, miR-155 might have a pathogenic role in UC patients. The miR-183-96-182 cluster (miR-183C) was highly expressed in Th17 cells. MiR326 also inhibited Ets-1 and promoted Th17 cell differentiation [238]. MiR-183C directly repressed expression of the transcription factor Forkhead box 0 (Foxo) 1, negatively regulating the pathogenicity of Th17 cells by inhibiting expression of the cytokine receptor, IL-1R1 [239].

In contrast with the above, miR29 induced by NOD2 downregulated secretion of IL-23, and thus DSS-induced colitis was worse in miR29-deficient mice [240]. MiR-124 is thought to regulate expression of STAT3 and to have protective functions against inflammation and UC pathogenesis. MiR-210 also appears to be protective because it is induced by HIF-1 α , and negatively regulates *HIF-1 α* expression [241]. As noted above, miRNAs have both protective and pathogenic roles. Although their role is not fully understood, they represent novel therapeutic targets.

Conclusion

The intestine is continuously exposed to food and the microbiome. These external stimulations shape proper development and maintenance of the mucosal immune system to

maintain gut homeostasis. Recent advances in next-generation sequencing techniques have significantly increased our understanding of regulation of intestinal immunity, as well as the relative frequencies of immune cells in the gut compared with other organs. Indeed, global chromatin accessibility represents cellular lineages or states more stably than mRNA expression profiles [242]. It is necessary to probe how chromatin accessibility and transcription factor-binding impact cellular lineages and their gene transcription during steady state and during inflammatory conditions in the gut. Th cells are critical contributors to the development of IBD and have been well-studied in terms of epigenetic regulation, especially for Treg cells. Although considerable progress has been made to elucidate the epigenetic mechanisms that regulate proliferation, differentiation, and maintenance of Treg cells and other effector T cells, it still remains unclear how the tissue-specific properties of Th cell lineages are formed through stimulation in the intestinal microenvironment. Which bacteria or metabolites epigenetically specify gut uniqueness in Th cells? How do these signals alter epigenetic modifications of Th cells? Do these signals target Th cells directly or indirectly? What factors determine the global or site-specific alteration of epigenetic marks? What is the degree of heterogeneity of tissue-specific Th cells? A key to tackling these challenging questions is multidisciplinary analyses comprising studies of computational strategies, chromatin accessibility, transcription factor-binding sites, DNA methylation, metabolome, microbiome, and single cell omics. It will also likely be necessary to consider upstream signal transduction pathways and downstream gene expression. The combination of these techniques will allow clarification of the critical pathways that should be targeted to treat chronic intestinal inflammation.

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Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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