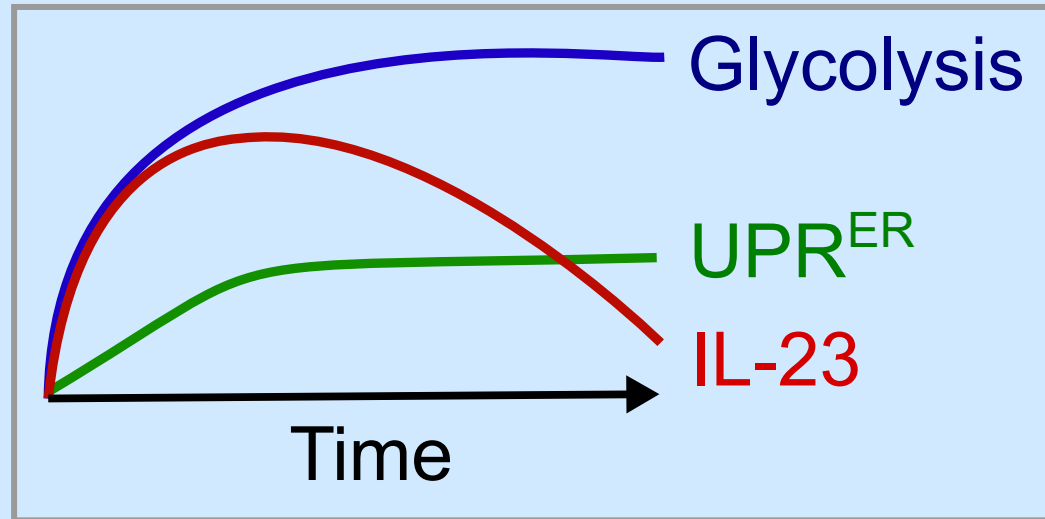
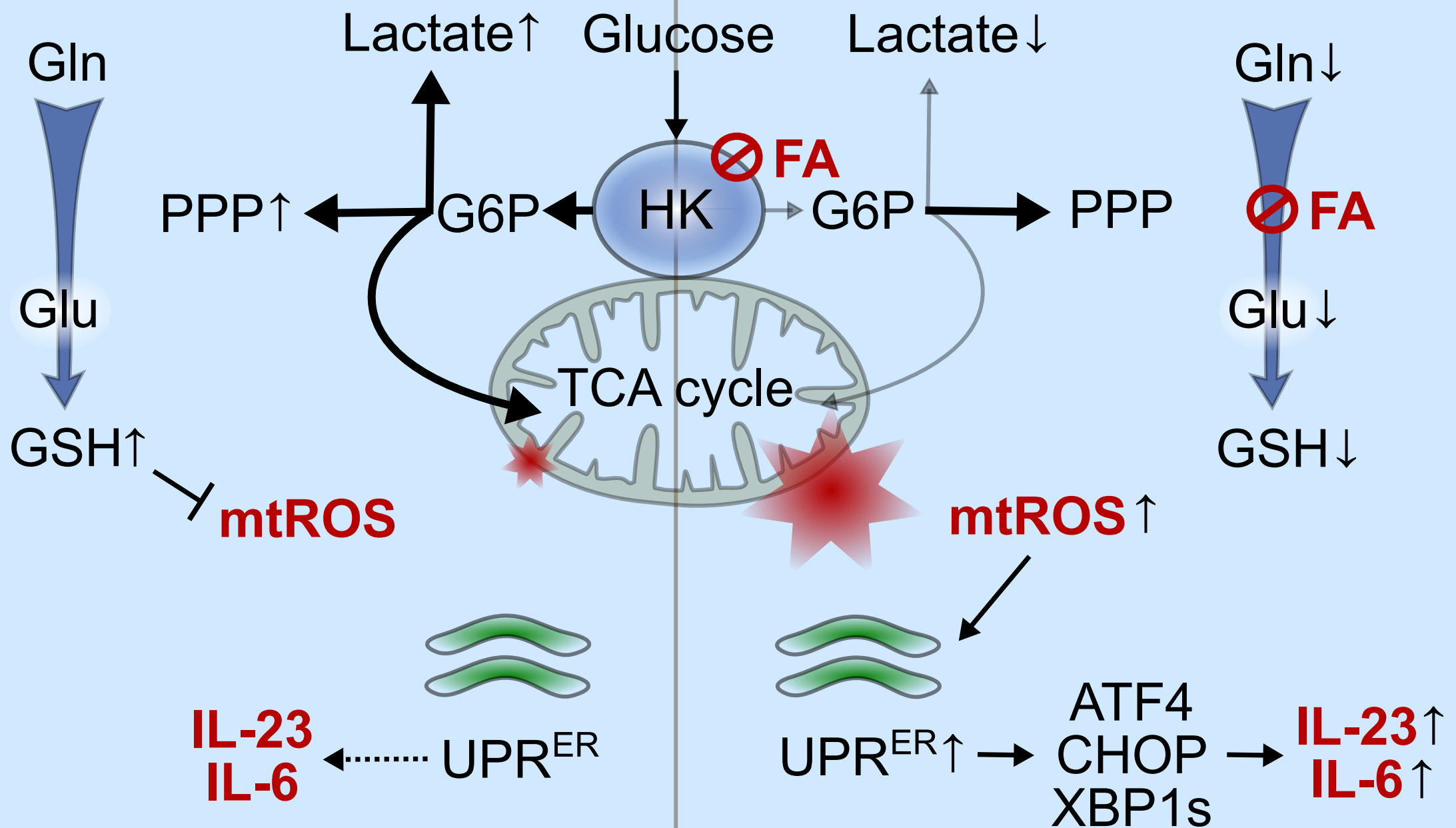
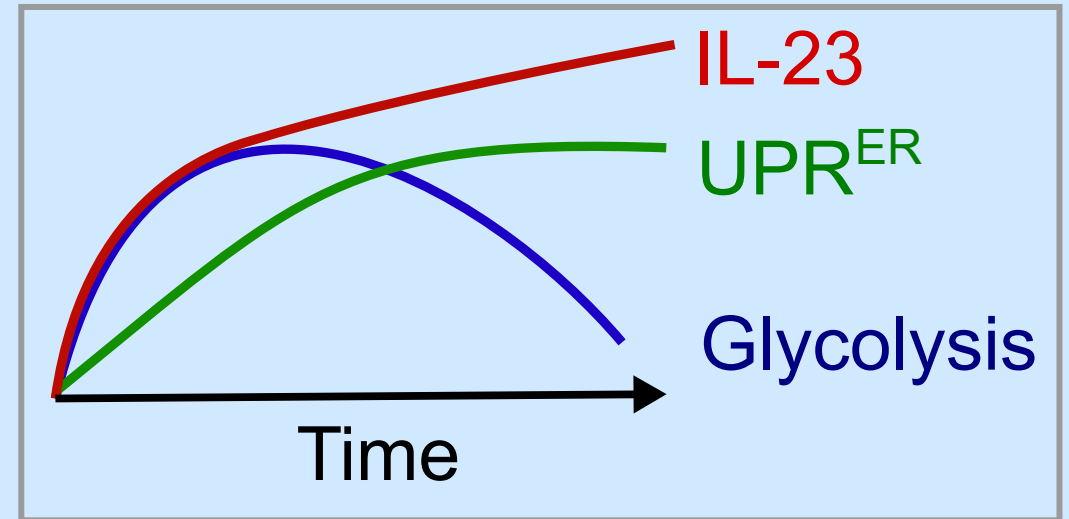


TLR activation Low Fatty Acid



TLR activation High Fatty Acid



Resolution of inflammation

Unresolved inflammation

Metabolic and innate immune cues merge into a specific inflammatory response via UPR

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Summary

Innate immune responses are intricately linked with intracellular metabolism of myeloid cells. Toll-like receptor (TLR) stimulation shifts intracellular metabolism toward glycolysis, while anti-inflammatory signals depend on enhanced mitochondrial respiration. How exogenous metabolic signals affect the immune response is unknown. We demonstrate that TLR-dependent responses of dendritic cells (DC) are exacerbated by a high fatty acid (FA) metabolic environment. FA suppress the TLR-induced hexokinase activity and perturb tricarboxylic acid cycle metabolism. These metabolic changes enhance mitochondrial reactive oxygen species (mtROS) production and, in turn, the unfolded protein response (UPR) leading to a distinct transcriptomic signature, with IL-23 as hallmark. Interestingly, chemical or genetic suppression of glycolysis was sufficient to induce this specific immune response. Conversely, reducing mtROS production or DC-specific deficiency in XBP1 attenuated IL-23 expression and skin inflammation in an IL-23-dependent model of psoriasis. Thus, fine-tuning of innate immunity depends on optimization of metabolic demands and minimization of mtROS-induced UPR.

Introduction

Metabolic adaptations play an important role in host response to pathogens (Wang et al., 2016; Weis et al., 2017). Inflammatory responses are triggered by pattern-recognition receptors (PRRs), such as Toll-like receptors (TLRs), which recognize pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) (Medzhitov, 2001). Inflammation is a tightly controlled process sensitive to dynamic changes in tissue environment and to the intrinsic state of immune cells, both contributing to initiation and resolution of inflammation (Netea et al., 2017). However, dysregulation of the transient inflammatory response can result in chronic inflammatory diseases (Fullerton and Gilroy, 2016).

Recent evidence shows that metabolism of macrophages and DC plays a crucial role in inflammation (O'Neill and Pearce, 2016). Both DC and macrophages undergo a robust increase of glycolysis after acute activation by TLR agonists, whereas mitochondrial activity is suppressed in such conditions (Krawczyk et al., 2010; Tannahill et al., 2013). This shift of metabolic activity, known as glycolytic reprogramming, results in altered mitochondrial function, increased reactive oxygen species (ROS) production, and elevated secretion of pro-inflammatory cytokines (Tannahill et al., 2013; Lampropoulou et al., 2016; Mills et al., 2016). Importantly, processes that drive glycolytic reprogramming in M1 macrophages, activated by the TLR4 agonist LPS, are down-regulated in IL-4-polarized M2 macrophages (Jha et al., 2015) or in response to IL-10 (Ip et al., 2017). In addition, a recent study demonstrated that the key hallmarks of M2 macrophages are fatty acid oxidation (FAO)-independent and are not regulated by mitochondrial respiration (Divakaruni et al., 2018). Alterations of immune

signaling have a profound impact on whole body metabolism in metabolic diseases such as obesity and type 2 diabetes (Hotamisligil, 2017). Conversely, altered metabolic environment, for instance, due to obesity, affects myeloid cells during the innate inflammatory response (Duan et al., 2018). Immune cells sense environmental and metabolic cues that induce specialized stress responses in these cells (Chovatiya and Medzhitov, 2014). Flexibility of immune cells to adapt to different metabolic demands and diverse metabolic milieu via dynamic regulation of intracellular metabolism is an important component of inflammation and tissue homeostasis (Gaber et al., 2017). However, the underlying molecular mechanisms remain poorly understood. We hypothesized that metabolic adaptations during DC innate immune activation might be sensitive to extracellular metabolites such as FA, whose concentrations are altered by nutritional status and in several metabolic diseases (Karpe et al., 2011). Our results show that FA enhance TLR-mediated innate activation by inhibiting hexokinase (HK) thereby impairing the glycolytic reprogramming, leading to disturbed mitochondrial fitness and increased mtROS generation. This results in an exacerbated unfolded protein response (UPR) and, in turn, induces a distinct molecular signature and inflammatory response characterized by increased IL-23 production. Thus, adaptation of glycolysis to the metabolic environment links mtROS production to UPR activation and represents a specific mechanism regulating innate immunity.

Results

FA alter TLR-induced innate immune response

To study whether the metabolic environment modulates the innate immune response, we analyzed the impact of FA on TLR-mediated activation of mouse GM-CSF bone marrow-derived DC (GM-DC). In GM-DC, PA, a common saturated FA in processed food diets, alone did not induce a significant expression of pro-inflammatory cytokines, but it greatly modified *Il23a*, *Il6*, and *Il12a* expression in response to TLR activation (Figure 1A-B and S1A-C). Moreover, PA potentiated IL-23 expression induced by activation of another PRR Dectin-2 (by furfuran), but not by Dectin-1 (by curdlan), as well as by TNF, but not by IL-1 β (Figure S1D). Likewise, PA robustly increased IL-23 expression upon TLR4 and TLR7/8 activation in bone marrow derived macrophages (BMDM) (Figure S1E). These data indicate that IL-23 expression is sensitive to the presence of a high FA metabolic environment.

Next, we focused on activation of DC with TLR7/8 ligand imiquimod (IMQ) which induced the strongest synergistic effects with PA. Interestingly, PA only modified expression of a subset of cytokines and chemokines among all induced by IMQ (Figure S1C), suggesting that FA promote a distinct innate immune signature in TLR-activated DC.

PA modulates glycolysis in TLR-activated DC

TLR activation rapidly increases glycolysis in DC (Everts et al., 2014; Krawczyk et al., 2010). Furthermore, PA affects early TLR4 signaling in macrophages (Lancaster et al., 2018). Consequently, we hypothesized that PA might modulate the DC inflammatory response either by acting as a signaling molecule or by altering intracellular metabolism. Stimulation of GM-DC from wildtype and TLR4-deficient mice with IMQ and PA resulted in similar IL-23 induction (Figure S2A). Moreover, the up-regulation of IL-23 by PA was not due to NF- κ B signaling (Figure S2B) or JNK signaling (Figure S2C-D). Furthermore, the monounsaturated oleic acid (OA) also increased IL-23 secretion upon IMQ activation, independently of TLR4 (Figure S2E). Taken together, these results show that FA increase IMQ-mediated IL-23 expression through a yet unknown mechanism. We thus investigated the impact of PA on intracellular metabolism in IMQ-stimulated DC. The dose-dependent increase of IL-23 expression and secretion upon IMQ and PA late co-stimulation was associated with a decrease of lactate secretion (Figure S2F), indicating reduced glycolytic activity. Moreover, PA suppressed lactate production during the late PRR activation (Figure 1C and S2G). Notably, PA presence did not affect extracellular acidification rate (ECAR), a surrogate measurement of glycolytic activity, and oxygen consumption rate (OCR), a measurement of oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS), during the immediate response to IMQ activation (Figure S2H-I). These results indicate that PA suppresses late, but does not interfere with early steps of glycolytic reprogramming.

Next, we speculated that GM-DC become sensitive to metabolic effects of PA once the cells acquire “Warburg-like” metabolism (O’Neill and Pearce, 2016). Indeed, GM-DC demonstrated a highly glycolytic phenotype with inhibited mitochondrial respiration after IMQ activation (Figure 1F-I). Interestingly, while PA rapidly increased mitochondrial respiration in resting and IMQ-activated GM-DC (Figure 1F-G), only IMQ-activated “Warburg-like” cells displayed decreased glycolytic activity in response to PA (Figure 1H-I). Similarly, PA inhibited lactate secretion from TLR-activated “Warburg-like” BMDM (Figure S2J). Together, these data show that PA alters late stages of glycolytic reprogramming, resulting in a shift from aerobic glycolysis towards OXPHOS. This metabolic effect of PA was not due to alterations in glucose uptake (Figure S2K) or mitochondrial content (Figure S2L), nor was it explained by changes in activity of electron transport chain (ETC) complexes (Figure S2M). Although IMQ activation in GM-DC increased ATP levels and decreased ATP/ADP ratio (indicating elevated energy utilization), PA presence did not alter these parameters in IMQ-stimulated cells (Figure S2N).

PA inhibits hexokinase activity and increases IL-23 expression independently of FAO

Octanoic acid, a medium chain saturated FA, has been shown to inhibit key glycolytic enzymes in the liver (Weber et al., 1966). We hypothesized that PA might also inhibit glycolytic enzymes during the

late-stage TLR activation in GM-DC. Indeed, PA reversed the IMQ-induced increase of hexokinase (HK) activity at 24 hr (Figure 1J). Furthermore, various FA were capable to inhibit lactate secretion when added for 2 hr to GM-DC primed with IMQ for 24 hr (Figure S2O). Interestingly, 2-methyl-PA failed to inhibit lactate secretion in this setting, suggesting that an intact carboxylic acid moiety is required for the PA-dependent regulation of HK activity. Finally, the PA-mediated inhibition of HK was not due to its dissociation from mitochondrial outer membrane into the cytosol (Figure S2P).

We next assessed whether PA activation to PA-CoA was required for the inhibition of glycolytic activity. As the effect of PA on glycolysis was not modulated by triacsin C, an inhibitor of long-chain-FA-CoA ligases (Figure S2O and Q), its conversion to PA-CoA by these enzymes appears dispensable. Mitochondrial FAO depends on the activity of FA importers CPT1A and CPT2 (Mehta et al., 2017). *Cpt1a*-deficiency or silencing both *Cpt1a* and *Cpt2* did not alter the PA-mediated increase in IL-23 expression (Figure S3A-B and D-F). Moreover, *Cpt1a* deficiency did not affect the PA-mediated inhibition of HK activity in IMQ-activated GM-DC (Figure S3C). In addition, using a FAO-specific concentration of CPT1 inhibitor etomoxir (Divakaruni et al., 2018) did not alter IL-23 expression (Figure S3F). Furthermore, activation with IMQ decreased *Cpt1a* expression and reduced complete PA oxidation to CO₂ in GM-DC, despite a modest increase of acid-soluble metabolite (ASM) production, which was not rescued by pre-incubation with PA (Figure S3G-H), indicating greatly reduced PA catabolism. In line, IMQ activation led to elevated accumulation of free non-metabolized PA in GM-DC (Figure S3I). These results indicate that elevated intracellular FA concentrations, rather than their metabolization via FAO, are critical for the inhibition of HK activity and ensuing increase in IL-23 production at the late stage of TLR activation.

PA inhibits glycolytic fluxes and disturbs mitochondrial fitness

We next investigated whether the FAO-independent inhibition of glycolysis by PA was associated with alterations in the glycolytic pathway. IMQ-mediated DC activation induced the expression of genes encoding glycolytic enzymes and lactate transporters (Figure S4A and P left). Interestingly, PA addition to IMQ repressed *Ldha*, *Pfkf1*, and *Pfkfb3* expression compared to IMQ alone (Figure S4A and P right). In line with gene expression data, [1,2-¹³C]glucose flux via glycolysis into lactate (M+2) was significantly reduced upon PA treatment in IMQ activated GM-DC, whereas the (M+1) flux via the oxidative pentose phosphate pathway (PPP) was not altered (Figure 1K). Analysis of glycolysis intermediates showed non-significant increases of total fructose-1,6-biphosphate, 3-phosphoglycerate and pyruvate upon IMQ stimulation (Figure S4C-F). However, GM-DC co-stimulated with IMQ and PA displayed significantly decreased 3-phosphoglycerate compared to IMQ alone, in line with reduced glycolytic activity (Figure S4E and P).

IMQ activation generally down-regulated genes in the TCA cycle compared to resting cells (Figure S4G and P). These transcriptional changes led to accumulation of itaconate, and to elevated fumarate and malate levels, but no changes in citrate, isocitrate, and succinate were found in IMQ-activated GM-DC (Figure S4G-M and P). By contrast, IMQ and PA stimulation increased expression of pyruvate dehydrogenase (*Pdhb*), malate dehydrogenase (*Mdh1/2*) and mitochondrial isocitrate dehydrogenase 2 (*Ish2*) but decreased lactate dehydrogenase (*Ldha*) expression compared to IMQ-activation (Figure S4A, G & P). Surprisingly, in this setting, [1,2-¹³C]glucose fluxes into TCA metabolites, such as isocitrate, itaconate, and malate, were significantly inhibited by PA (Figure 1L), and intracellular citrate and itaconate levels were reduced (Figure S4H and J). Itaconate regulates the late inflammatory response in macrophages (Bambouskova et al., 2018). Because PA decreased itaconate levels, we treated *Acod1*^{-/-} (also known as *Irg1*^{-/-}) GM-DC, deficient in itaconate synthase, with IMQ and PA. While *Irg1*-deficiency affected IMQ+PA-induced IL-23 expression, the effect was relatively small (Figure S4Q). Thus, the up-regulation of IL-23 by PA is unlikely due to the modulation of intracellular itaconate.

Inhibited HK activity can lead to uncoupling of intra- from extramitochondrial metabolism (Robey and Hay, 2006), which might result in mitochondrial stress. Indicative of mitochondrial stress, mtROS generation was significantly increased by PA in IMQ-activated GM-DC (Figure 1M). Moreover, inhibition of HK activity by 2DG phenocopied the PA-induced increase of mtROS generation (Figure 1N). Taken together, these results indicate that the metabolic adaptation of glycolysis/ to a high FA environment is associated with inhibition of glycolysis, reduced glycolytic flux into the TCA cycle, and elevated mitochondrial stress.

PA increases IL-23 expression through elevated generation of mtROS by complex I

As PA elevated mitochondrial stress and increased IL-23 expression, we investigated whether these events are functionally associated by inhibiting of mtROS generation. Both mitoTEMPO, an mtROS scavenger, and rotenone, an inhibitor of ETC complex I, diminished mtROS generation and blunted the PA-dependent increase in IL-23 expression (Figure 2A-C). These results suggest that mtROS generation by complex I or III activity links FA to IL-23 expression. Notably, although it generally diminished mitochondrial respiration, mitoTEMPO neither prevented the PA-mediated inhibition of glycolytic and HK activities in IMQ-activated GM-DC nor altered GAPDH activity (Figure S5A-E). Thus, the increased mtROS generation is rather the result of inhibited glycolytic activity, not the cause.

ROS generation has been shown to rapidly up-regulate oxidative PPP activity in keratinocytes leading to increasing NADPH production to insure stabilization of redox balance and ROS clearance (Kuehne et al., 2015). We investigated whether alterations in PPP might functionally link the PA-mediated

glycolysis inhibition with increased mtROS production. PA inhibited activity of G6PDH, a rate limiting enzyme of the oxidative PPP, and treatment with mitoTEMPO diminished this effect (Figure S5F). In addition, the product of the oxidative PPP, ribose-5-phosphate (R5P), was decreased (Figure S5G), and [1,2-¹³C]glucose fluxes into R5P via non-oxidative PPP (M+2), but not oxidative PPP (M+1), were decreased by PA in IMQ-activated GM-DC (Figure S5H). Interestingly, PA treatment also affected the PPP metabolite sedoheptulose-7-phosphate (S7P) (Figure S5I-J). Altogether, these data show that extracellular FA establishes a new metabolic equilibrium involving a modulation of the PPP activity, redox balance and mtROS generation in TLR-activated DC.

Increased mitochondrial activity potentiates IL-23 expression

To demonstrate the relevance of these results *in vivo*, we used a mouse model of IMQ-induced skin inflammation (Fits et al., 2009), which shares some features with human psoriasis, an IL-23-dependent disease (Teng et al., 2015). IMQ treatment and high-fat diet (HFD) feeding increased concentrations of non-esterified FA (NEFA) in plasma (Figure S6A-B) in agreement with published results (Stelzner et al., 2016). As reported (Kanemaru et al., 2015), HFD feeding increased epidermal thickening (Figure S6C-D). Moreover, in IMQ-treated mice, HFD feeding increased the population of IL-23⁺ conventional DC (cDC) in skin draining inguinal lymph nodes (iLN) (Figure 2D). Upon HFD feeding, IMQ-activated cDC exhibited increased expression of genes involved in OXPHOS (Figure S6E) and generated more mtROS (Figure S6F), similar to the *in vitro* findings (Figure 1M). Notably, HFD feeding enhanced the IL-23-induced expression of a subset of IMQ-responsive genes in skin (Suárez-Fariñas et al., 2013), while it did not exert such an effect in the absence of IMQ (Figure S6G), suggesting that increased IL-23 production links HFD feeding with exacerbated skin pathology. Indeed, IMQ-induced skin inflammation was abrogated upon treatment with an IL-23-blocking antibody (Figure S6H). Moreover, in HFD fed mice treated with IMQ, Cpt1a-deficiency in cDC did not alter IL-23 expression and skin pathology (Figure S6I-K), in agreement with *in vitro* data (Figure S3B). Taken together, these results indicate that IMQ-activated cDC respond to a high FA environment *in vivo* via a FAO-independent mechanism by increasing mtROS generation and IL-23 expression. Next, we tested whether inhibition of ETC complex I activity could mitigate the effects of HFD feeding on increased IL-23 production *in vivo*. Metformin, a complex I inhibitor active in macrophages (Kelly et al., 2015), significantly reduced mitochondrial respiration in IMQ-activated GM-DC in the presence of PA (Figure S6L) and decreased IL-23 expression induced by IMQ and PA (Figure 2E) through an AMPK-independent mechanism (Figure S6M). In HFD-fed mice, metformin significantly reduced IL-23⁺ cDC numbers in iLN and epidermal thickness induced by epicutaneous application of IMQ (Figure 2F) and mitigated psoriasis-associated gene expression in the skin (Figure S6N). Thus, *in vivo* IL-23

production by cDC is enhanced by HFD-derived NEFA through a mechanism dependent on complex I activity.

PA-mediated increase of IL-23 expression is associated with a decrease in the glutamate/glutathione axis

We noticed, that the level of NADPH, a product of oxidative PPP, was decreased (Figure 2G) and NADP⁺/NADPH ratio was increased by PA in IMQ-activated cells (Figure S5L). Decreased NADPH might thus explain the elevated mtROS generation in response to PA. Interestingly, mitoparaquat (mitoPQ), which increase mtROS generation, up-regulated IL-23 expression in non-activated GM-DC but failed to potentiate IL-23 expression in IMQ-activated cells (Figure 2H). Glutathione (GSH) is an important component of the cellular anti-oxidant system (Mailloux et al., 2013). IMQ treatment resulted in a robust increase of GSH levels during the late TLR7/8 response, but this effect was reversed in the presence of PA (Figure 2I). Metabolomic data analysis revealed a decrease of intracellular glutamine and glutamate levels in IMQ-activated GM-DC treated with PA (Figure 2J), which was associated with inhibited flux into glutamate from glycolysis but not from glutaminolysis (Figure 2K). As glutamate is a key component for GSH synthesis, reduced glutamate may also account for the decreased levels of GSH, and thereby elevated mtROS generation, in GM-DC treated with IMQ and PA.

To test whether glutamine plays a role in the regulation of IL-23, we deprived GM-DC from glutamine before activation with IMQ and found significantly increased IL-23 expression (Figure 2L). Similarly, silencing of *Gls* and *Gls2* (Figure 2M), genes encoding enzymes mediating glutaminolysis, decreased glutamate and GSH levels (Figure 2N-O) and also increased mtROS generation and IL-23 expression in IMQ-activated GM-DC (Figure 2P-R). These results show that the pro-inflammatory effect of PA depends, at least in part, upon the reprogramming of the glutamine/glutamate/GSH axis.

Upper glycolysis inhibition promotes IL-23 expression

Because PA inhibited HK activity, we determined whether glycolytic inhibition was sufficient *per se* to enhance IL-23 expression. Treatment with 2DG led to elevated IL-23 expression in GM-DC in synergy with IMQ activation (Figure 3A). In line, intraperitoneal injection of 2DG significantly increased the accumulation of IL-23⁺ cDC in IMQ-treated mice (Figure 3B). Taken together, these results show that inhibition of HK activity promotes IL-23 expression in TLR7/8-activated DC *in vitro* and *in vivo*. PA inhibited aerobic glycolysis in part through transcriptional regulation with a pronounced effect on *Pfkfb3* gene (Figure S4A). PFKFB3 increases glycolysis in macrophages (Jiang et al., 2016). Upon activation by IMQ and PA IL-23 expression was significantly increased in *Pfkfb3*-knocked-down GM-DC (Figure 3C). We next evaluated whether lower glycolysis was critical for IL-23 expression.

Combined inactivation of *Pfkl* (liver-type phosphofructokinase 1) and *Pfkp* (6-phosphofructo-1-kinase) decreased lactate secretion in IMQ-activated DC (Figure S7). However, this inactivation failed to up-regulate IL-23 expression (Figure S6O), indicating that the activity of upper, but not lower, glycolysis is essential for the regulation of IL-23 expression.

We further confirmed the role of upper glycolysis on IL-23 regulation using a model of genetic inactivation of HIF1 α , which controls glycolytic activity in myeloid cells (Corcoran and O'Neill, 2016). Accordingly, lactate secretion and HK activity were significantly decreased in IMQ-activated HIF1 α -deficient GM-DC (Figure 3D-F), while mtROS generation was significantly elevated (Figure 3G). In line, IMQ-activated, but not resting, HIF1 α -deficient GM-DC displayed increased IL-23 expression and secretion (Figure 3H). Similar results were observed in HIF1 α -deficient GM-DC from *Hif1a*^{Vav/Vav} mice and tamoxifen-treated *Hif1a*^{fl/fl}*Rosa26CreER* mice (data not shown). Finally, the increase of IL-23 expression in IMQ-activated HIF1 α -deficient GM-DC was abrogated by inhibiting mtROS generation, but not pyruvate dehydrogenase kinase (PDK) activity (Figure 3I). Taken together, these results show that chemical or genetic inhibitions of upper glycolysis lead to increased mtROS generation and IL-23 expression.

Metabolic adaptation to a high FA environment is associated with a distinct transcriptional program

To get further insight into the mechanisms of metabolic adaptation of DC to a high FA environment, we performed microarray analysis of GM-DC activated by IMQ and PA. IMQ alone induced pronounced changes in the DC transcriptional program, whereas PA alone only modestly affected gene expression (Figure 4A). By contrast, combined PA and IMQ treatment resulted in robust alteration of the DC transcriptional program, significantly modulating the expression of 874 genes (594 up-regulated and 280 down-regulated) compared to GM-DC treated with IMQ alone (Figure 4A-B). Analysis of the 594 up-regulated genes revealed an enrichment in the UPR, IRE1 α /XBP1 pathway, and N-linked glycosylation (Figure 4C), including up-regulated expression of multiple genes from the UPR and the integrated stress response pathways (Figure 4D). Similarly, transcriptomic analysis of cDC isolated from IMQ-treated mice showed that, compared to CD, HFD feeding led to an increase in the UPR gene signature (Figure 4E). Taken together, these results suggest that metabolic adaptation of IMQ-activated DC to a high FA environment induces a distinct transcriptional program associated with exacerbated UPR.

PA potentiates the UPR in TLR-activated DC

The UPR regulates immune homeostasis and responses in DC (Martinon et al., 2010; Osorio et al.,

2014; Tavernier et al., 2017). Thus, we further analyzed the impact of UPR alterations on IL-23 expression. While PA alone acted on a very restricted gene subset, compared to IMQ alone, PA and IMQ differentially altered the expression of genes involved in the UPR (Figure S7A). In particular, combined action of IMQ and PA resulted in an additional increase of protein and/or gene expression of *Hspa5* (encoding BIP), *Ddit3* (encoding CHOP), and the spliced form of Xbp1 (XBP1s), but not the cleaved form of ATF6 p50 (Figure 5A-B and S7B). Likewise, in sorted cDC, key UPR genes were differentially expressed in response to HFD feeding (Figure S7C). Notably, this was not associated with elevated expression of the UPR receptors PERK or IRE1 α (Figure 5A and S7B). In line with these data, the accumulation of XBP1s protein was maximal after 24 hr of combined treatment with IMQ and PA (Figure S7D-E). Furthermore, PA potentiated UPR activation by TLR2, 3, and 4 in GM-DC (Figure 5B), indicating that this effect is not limited to TLR7/8 pathway. These results thus show that the late metabolic adaptation of TLR-activated DC to a high FA environment results in a synergistic induction of the UPR.

PA-induced metabolic adaptations hyperactivate the UPR

Next, we determined whether metabolic adaptations to PA directly potentiate TLR-mediated UPR activation. In GM-DC treated with IMQ and PA, complex I and mtROS inhibition decreased CHOP and XBP1s expression (Figure 5C-H). Furthermore, inhibition of glycolysis in IMQ-activated GM-DC resulted in an increase of *Ddit3* and *Xbp1s* expression (Figure 5I-J). Accordingly, *Ddit3* and *Xbp1s* expression were significantly increased in HIF1 α -deficient GM-DC that failed to increase glycolytic activity upon TLR-activation (Figure 5K-L). Importantly, Xbp1-deficiency neither affected glycolytic activity, nor altered mitochondrial respiration in IMQ-activated GM-DC (Figure S7F), indicating that the increased UPR is a consequence rather than a cause of the inhibited glycolytic activity driven by PA. Taken together, these results indicate that metabolic adaptations to PA control the UPR in TLR-activated DC.

UPR increases IL-23 expression through the PERK/CHOP and IRE1 α /XBP1 pathways

Tunicamycin, a direct activator of the UPR, significantly increased IL-23 expression in resting GM-DC (Figure 6A). Interestingly, it synergistically enhanced IL-23 expression in IMQ-activated GM-DC (Figure 6A-B). Specific inhibitors of IRE1 α -dependent splicing activity and PERK signaling resulted in a significant and additive decrease of IL-23 expression in GM-DC treated with IMQ and PA (Figure 6C-D). Because these inhibitors also significantly decreased *Xbp1s*, *Atf4*, and *Ddit3* expression (data not shown), downstream IRE1 α and PERK targets, we evaluated the impact of these transcription factors on IL-23 expression. *Atf4* silencing decreased IL-23 expression in GM-DC activated with IMQ and PA,

but not IMQ alone (Figure S7G). Likewise, CHOP-deficient *Ddit3*^{-/-} GM-DC (Oyadomari et al., 2001) displayed a lower IL-23 expression compared to *Ddit3*^{+/+} cells (Figure 6E-F). IL-23 expression was also decreased in XBP1-deficient *Xbp1*^{CD11c/CD11c} GM-DC (Osorio et al., 2014; Cubillos-Ruiz et al., 2015; Tavernier et al., 2017) upon IMQ and PA activation (Figure 6G-H). Moreover, *Ddit3*^{-/-}*Xbp1*^{CD11c/CD11c} GM-DC (Tavernier et al., 2017), deficient for both XBP1 and CHOP (Figure S7H), showed a further decrease in IL-23 expression (Figure 6G-H). Of note, in IMQ-activated GM-DC, *Ii6* induction by PA was dependent on mtROS generation, and XBP1- and CHOP-deficiency significantly attenuated *Ii6* expression (Figure S7I-J). Furthermore, in IMQ-activated GM-DC, single or combined XBP1- and CHOP-deficiency diminished IL-23 expression potentiated upon glycolysis inhibition by 2DG (Figure 6I-J). GM-DC activation by IMQ and PA lead to increased mitochondrial UPR (UPR^{mt}) (Wu et al., 2014), and diminished mitochondrial localization of ATF5, a master regulator of the UPR^{mt} in mammals (Shpilka and Haynes, 2018) (Figure S7K-L). However, *Atf5* knock-down did not alter IL-23 expression in GM-DC (Figure S7M). Moreover, silencing *Atf3*, a transcription factor that controls the integrated stress response (Jiang et al., 2004), increased IL-23 expression in GM-DC activated with IMQ and PA (Figure S7N).

Finally, ChIP-qPCR analysis revealed that CHOP and XBP1 interact with the mouse *Ii23a* gene promoter in GM-DC and their binding increased by treatment with IMQ and/or PA (Figure 6K). Together, these results indicate that the endoplasmic reticulum UPR (UPR^{ER}), rather than UPR^{mt} or the ATF3-dependent pathway, links metabolic adaptation to elevated extracellular FA concentrations to IL-23 expression in DC.

HFD-feeding exacerbates IMQ-mediated inflammation through DC-specific XBP1-dependent regulation of IL-23

To assess the contribution of the UPR to exacerbation of inflammatory response by HFD feeding, we evaluated IMQ-induced skin inflammation in mice harboring DC-specific XBP1-deficiency (Osorio et al., 2014). Whereas the number and proportion of IL-23⁺ and IL-6⁺ cDC were not significantly lower in CD-fed *Xbp1*^{CD11c/CD11c} mice compared to their *Xbp1*^{fl/fl} littermates, XBP1-deficiency in cDC strongly prevented the increase in IL-23⁺ and IL-6⁺ cDC in response to HFD feeding in IMQ-treated mice (Figure 7A-D). Importantly, *Xbp1*^{CD11c/CD11c} mice displayed ameliorated IMQ-induced psoriasis-like skin inflammation but showed no obvious difference in skin morphology without IMQ treatment (Figure 7E-F). These results show that UPR activation in DC contributes to TLR-mediated IL-23-driven inflammation enhanced by a high FA environment.

Discussion

Here, we demonstrate that the UPR integrates the signal driven by metabolic adaptation of activated DC to a high FA environment into a specific inflammatory program, characterized by elevated expression of IL-23. Upon pathogen-mediated activation via PRRs, innate immune cells must meet the high energetic demand required for anti-infectious defenses while ensuring moderate ROS levels to preserve the host from cell damage. Hence, a trade-off exists between highly effective ATP synthesis by OXPHOS and excessive mtROS production. Here, we demonstrate that, in DC, glycolysis is sensitive to a high FA environment at the late stage of PRR activation. Mechanistically, this metabolic adaptation to excessive FA exposure is due to the inhibition of HK activity, resulting in metabolic stress, in a decrease of carbon fluxes from glycolysis into the TCA cycle and, ultimately, in decreased mitochondrial fitness. In turn, it increases mtROS generation and drives a distinct immune response associated with hyperactivation of the UPR. Increased IL-23 and IL-6 are hallmarks of this metabolically-driven inflammatory response, and their expression is controlled by XBP1 and CHOP. IL-23 and IL-6 are known targets of NF- κ B signaling upon TLR activation (Matsusaka et al., 1993; Sheikh et al., 2010). However, in our model, regulation of IL-23 by PA was not due to elevated NF- κ B signaling. We also excluded the involvement of the UPR^{mt} and ATF3-dependent pathway in regulation of IL-23 by PA. Similarly, a recently described JNK-dependent modulation of the early TLR response by PA (Lancaster et al., 2018) did not explain the PA-dependent up-regulation of IL-23 expression. On the other hand, we found that the glutamine/glutamate/glutathione axis contributes, in addition to decreased NADPH levels, to elevated mtROS levels upon PA treatment and in turn to increased IL-23 expression. By contrast, our data show that itaconate is unlikely to be involved in the PA-mediated up-regulation of IL-23 expression. Further studies are however needed to better understand such integrated reprogramming mechanisms.

Different types of TLR ligands, myeloid cell origins and the microenvironment, as well as duration of activation, can lead to differential metabolic responses (Stienstra et al., 2017). LPS treatment rewires glycolysis and TCA cycle metabolism in macrophages (Jha et al., 2015). We found similar transcriptional and metabolic alterations in DC activated by IMQ alone, where accumulation of non-metabolized PA and inhibited FAO suggest that FA are likely diverted from OXPHOS to avoid activation of the ETC and generation of mtROS. It is also possible that triglyceride synthesis acts as a transient buffer for extracellular FA. However, excessive extracellular FA likely overwhelm this protective mechanism (Chitraju et al., 2017), inhibiting HK activity and resulting in a metabolic disequilibrium and up-regulation of IL-23 and IL-6.

FAO contributes to polarization of M2 macrophages (Huang et al., 2014) or tolerogenic DC (Malinarich et al., 2015; Zhao et al., 2018), at least in the absence of an acute inflammatory stimulus. Importantly, a recent study challenged the role of FAO in M2 macrophage polarization as widely used etomoxir

concentrations show multiple FAO-independent metabolic effects that are absent in genetic models of FAO deficiency (Divakaruni et al., 2018). In line, we found that the PA-mediated increase of IL-23 expression is FAO independent and rather due to direct FA-mediated inhibition of the upper glycolysis in DC. HK has been shown to be an innate immune receptor for bacterial peptidoglycan detection and its activity controls a dialog between mitochondria and inflammasome (Wolf et al., 2016). PFKFB3 has been recently described as an important glycolytic activator controlling antiviral immune responses in macrophages (Jiang et al., 2016). Our results suggest that HK and PFKFB3 link the metabolic adaptation of glycolysis to high extracellular PA with inflammatory responses, including increased IL-23 expression. Given that glycolysis controls a specific inflammatory signature, manipulating its activity is a potential therapeutic approach to control innate inflammation.

Various TLR ligands and ROS are known UPR inducers (Grootjans et al., 2016; Martinon et al., 2010) and our data confirm these findings. Importantly, our results demonstrate a finely regulated cross-talk between the adaptation of glycolytic activity to the metabolic environment and the UPR in TLR-activated DC. Elevated glycolytic activity and reduced mtROS generation in TLR-activated DC are protective mechanisms that cells use to prevent excessive UPR activation upon inflammation. This hypothesis is in line with the observation that glucose utilization prevents UPR-induced neuronal damage during TLR3-induced and viral inflammation (Wang et al., 2016). The UPR has been shown to induce certain pro-inflammatory cytokines, such as IL-6, via NOD1/2 – another class of PRRs (Keestra-Gounder et al., 2016). Whether a similar cross-talk also plays a role in the integration of environmental metabolic signals with PRRs, other than TLRs and Dectin-2, remains to be investigated.

Different branches of the UPR are involved in the homeostasis and the control of immune responses in DC (Janssens et al., 2014; Osorio et al., 2014; Tavernier et al., 2017). XBP1 regulates transcription of IL-6 and TNF in mouse macrophages (Martinon et al., 2010) and IL-23 production in human DC in response to zymosan (Márquez et al., 2017), while CHOP increases IL-23 expression in human DC in response to LPS and tunicamycin (Goodall et al., 2010). However, whether these effects require metabolic adaptations has not been investigated.

Our results show that XBP1 and the UPR are potential therapeutic targets for IL-23-dependent inflammatory diseases. Interestingly, a recent study identified that activation of XBP1s by lipid peroxidation results in abnormal lipid accumulation in tumor-associated DC and inhibits their capacity to support anti-tumor T lymphocytes (Cubillos-Ruiz et al., 2015), suggesting that XBP1 provides a strong link between metabolic and immune functions in DC.

IL-23 is a cytokine associated to protective immunity against some pathogens (Aychek et al., 2015). Moreover, IL-23 plays a role in autoimmune diseases including psoriasis, psoriatic arthritis, and

ankylosing spondylitis (Pfeifle et al., 2017; Teng et al., 2015). It is likely that the mechanism of metabolic adaptation reported here is relevant to psoriasis and other IL-23-dependent pathologies. During acute inflammation, elevated FA produced by lipolysis in adipose tissue (Rittig et al., 2016) may potentiate IL-23 and IL-6 production by DC, thereby promoting inflammatory effects against pathogens. The innate immune system may have evolved to utilize the UPR as a sensor of elevated FA that tunes acute inflammatory responses of DC to the metabolic milieu. However, excessive FA in obesity and upon feeding with a HFD may result in hyperactivation of the UPR in DC and chronically increased production of IL-23 and IL-6.

In conclusion, our results demonstrate that adaptation of the glycolysis/mtROS axis to a metabolic environment rich in FA and ensuing hyperactivation of the UPR represents a new regulatory mechanism of the innate immune response.

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Author contributions: D.A.M., J.T.H., D.S.S, E.A and D.D. designed the study, analyzed the data, and wrote the manuscript with input from the other authors. B.S. discussed the data and edited the manuscript. D.A.M., J.T.H., L.L., S.F., S.Q., M.L., C.B., S.L., A.B., D.S.S, E.A. and D.D. performed the experiments with assistance from J.W., L.P., O.M.C., H.D., C.G., A.M., C.D., A.N., A.B., S.P. and N.R. Important mice, reagents, experimental and data analysis techniques were provided by J.S.A., S.O., T.V.H., J.C., M.F., B.V., M.V., A.V., K.K., G.M., S.T., C.P., P.C., L.B. M.P.L. and S.J. ²¹ D.S.S., E.A. and B.S contributed equally to this work.

Declaration of interests

The authors declare no competing interests

Figure Legends

Figure 1. PA rewires inflammatory response and metabolism in TLR-activated DC.

GM-DC were activated by TLR ligands during indicated time without (control) or with PA.

(A-C) *I/23a* expression (A), IL-23p19 secretion (B) and lactate secretion (C) at 24 hr.

(D-E) Lactate secretion and *I/23a* expression at indicated time after activation.

(F-I) GM-DC activated during 24 hr, followed by extracellular flux analysis. Mitochondrial respiration calculated as OCR (F-G), glycolysis activity calculated as ECAR (H-I), before and after PA administration. Oligo, oligomycin; FCCP, carbonyl cyanide-4-(trifluoromethoxy)phenylhydrazone; AA, antimycin A; Rot, rotenone; 2DG, 2-deoxyglucose.

(J) HK activity in GM-DC treated as in D-E.

(K-L) Fluxes from 1,2-¹³C-glucose into intracellular lactate (K), isocitric, itaconic, and malic acids (L).

(M-N) MitoSOX staining in GM-DC activated by IMQ with/without PA (M) or with/without 2DG (N).

n = 3-5 per group. Data are shown as mean ± SEM. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001 (unpaired Student's t test or one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni test). #P < 0.05 as compared to mock/control treated cells (one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni test). See also Figure S1-5.

Figure 2. PA increases IL-23 through mitochondrial respiration and mtROS generation.

GM-DC were activated by IMQ without (Control) or with PA in the presence of indicated inhibitors for 24 hr.

(A-C) MitoSOX staining (A), *I/23a* expression and IL-23p19 secretion (B-C) in the presence of mitoTEMPO or rotenone.

(D) Male mice were fed CD or HFD, abdominal skin was treated with IMQ or vehicle during 6 days. Proportion of IL-23⁺ cDC in iLN. n = 4-6 mice per group.

(E) *I/23a* expression in GM-DC in response to metformin.

(F) Male mice were fed HFD with or without metformin supplementation of drinking water during 3 days followed by IMQ application to belly skin. Number of IL-23⁺ cDC in iLN 18 hr after IMQ treatment and average epidermal thickness after 5 days of IMQ treatment. n = 6-8 mice per group.

(G) NADP⁺ and NADPH levels in GM-DC activated by IMQ with/without PA for 2-24 hr.

(H) MitoSOX staining in GM-DC activated by IMQ with/without mitoParaquat (mitoPQ).

(I) Intracellular GSH in GM-DC treated as in Figure 1D.

(J) Intracellular glutamine and glutamate.

(K) Carbon fluxes from 1,2-¹³C-glucose and U-¹³C-glutamine into intracellular glutamate.

(L) *I/23a* expression in GM-DC pre-incubated with or without 2 mM glutamine for 4 hr and treated with

IMQ for 24 hr.

(M-R) *Gls* and *Gls2* expression (M), intracellular glutamate (N) and GSH (O), mtROS levels (P) and *Ii23a* expression (R) in GM-DC transfected with siRNA against *Gls* and *Gls2* or control siRNA and 48 hr later treated with IMQ in media containing glutamine for 24 hr.

n = 3-6 per group. Data are shown as mean ± SEM. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001 by unpaired Student's t test. See also Figure S4 and S6.

Figure 3. Upper glycolysis decreases IL-23 expression.

(A) *Ii23a* expression and IL-23 protein secretion in GM-DC activated by IMQ and treated with 2DG.

(B) Number and proportion of IL-23⁺ cDC in iLN in mice 18 hr after IMQ application to abdominal skin and intraperitoneal injection with PBS or 2DG. n = 4-8 mice per group.

(C) *Pfkfb3* and *Ii23a* expression in GM-DC transfected with siRNA against *Pfkfb3* or control siRNA and 48 hr later treated with IMQ.

(D-J) *Hif1a*^{fl/fl} and *Hif1a*^{Tie2/Tie2} GM-DC treated with IMQ. Lactate secretion (D), ECAR (E), hexokinase activity (F), MitoSOX⁺ staining (G).

(H-I) *Ii23a* expression and IL-23 secretion in *Hif1a*^{fl/fl}, *Hif1a*^{Vav/Vav}, and *Hif1a*^{Tie2/Tie2} GM-DC treated with IMQ in the presence of mitoTEMPO and DCA.

n = 3-5 per group. Data are shown as mean ± SEM. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001 (unpaired Student's t test or two-way ANOVA with Sidak *post-hoc* test). See also Figure S3-4.

Figure 4. PA and HFD feeding alter transcription program and induce the UPR in IMQ-activated DC.

(A) Principal component (PC) analysis of 15000 genes with maximal average expression in GM-DC.

(B) Volcano plot of differential gene expression in GM-DC treated with IMQ versus treated with IMQ plus PA; number of genes with fold-change > 1.5 and < 0.67 and adjusted P < 0.05 are shown.

(C) Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) of the 594 genes from B using the Reactome database.

(D) K-mean clustering of the 15000 genes.

(E) GSEA using the "Unfolded Protein Response (UPR)" pathway in cDC sorted from iLN from IMQ-treated mice fed CD or HFD (15000 genes with maximal average expression).

n = 4 in each group. See also Figure S6.

Figure 5. PA enhances the UPR through mtROS generation and inhibition of glycolysis.

(A) Representative Western blot analysis of the UPR proteins in GM-DC treated with IMQ and PA. TBP (TATA-binding protein) and β-tubulin were used as loading controls.

(B) *Hspa5*, *Ddit3*, and *Xbp1s* expression in GM-DC treated with various TLR ligands without PA (Control) or with PA.

(C-D) *Ddit3* expression (C) and CHOP analysis by Western blot (D) in GM-DC treated as in A in the presence of rotenone.

(E) *Xbp1s* expression in GM-DC treated as in C.

(F) Representative flow cytometric analysis of XBP1s-venus⁺ GM-DC from ERAI mice treated as in C.

(G-J) *Ddit3* and *Xbp1s* expression in GM-DC treated as in A in the presence of mitoTEMPO or 2DG.

(K-L) *Ddit3* and *Xbp1s* expression in *Hif1a^{fl/fl}* and *Hif1a^{Vav/Vav}* GM-DC treated with IMQ.

n = 2-5 per group. Data are shown as mean ± SEM. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001 (unpaired Student's t test or one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni test). #P < 0.05 as compared to mock/control treated cells (one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni test). See also Figure S7.

Figure 6. PA and 2DG increase IL-23 expression through CHOP and XBP1s

(A-B) *Il23a* expression (A) and IL-23p19 secretion (B) by GM-DC activated by IMQ and treated with tunicamycin (TN).

(C-D) *Il23a* expression (C) and IL-23p19 secretion (D) by GM-DC activated by IMQ and PA and treated with 4μ8C (IRE1α inhibitor) and/or GSK2606414 (PERK inhibitor).

(E-F) *Il23a* expression (E) and IL-23p19 secretion (F) by *Ddit3^{+/+}* and *Ddit3^{-/-}* GM-DC activated by IMQ and PA.

(G-J) *Il23a* expression (G and I) and IL-23p19 secretion (H and J) by *Xbp1^{fl/fl}*, *Xbp1^{CD11c/CD11c}*, and *Ddit3^{-/-}Xbp1^{CD11c/CD11c}* GM-DC activated by IMQ and PA or 2DG.

(K) Schematic map of potential CHOP and XBP1 binding sites within the 5'-region of *Il23a* mouse gene and ChIP-qPCR analysis of XBP1 and CHOP binding to these sites in GM-DC treated as in (C-D). Data are shown as % DNA input enrichment for each site. TSS – transcription start site.

n = 3-5 per group. Data are shown as mean ± SEM. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001 (unpaired Student's t test or one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni test). See also Figure S7.

Figure 7. HFD feeding exacerbates psoriasis-like inflammation through the Xbp1-dependent increase of IL-23 expression in cDC

Xbp1^{fl/fl} and *Xbp1^{CD11c/CD11c}* littermate male mice were untreated or daily treated by application of IMQ to shaved abdominal skin during 5 days and fed CD or HFD.

(A-D) Number and proportion of IL-23⁺ (A-B) and IL-6⁺ (C-D) cDC in iLN.

(E) Representative MGG staining of sections from abdominal skin. Scale bar 50 μm.

(F) Average epidermal thickness of abdominal skin.

n = 6-8 mice per group (IMQ treated) and n = 2 mice per group (untreated). Data are shown as mean \pm SEM. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001 (two-way ANOVA with Tukey's *post-hoc* test; significance of genotype and diet effects or their interaction is shown). See also Figure S7.

Supplementary Figures Legends

Figure S1. PA alters expression of cytokines and chemokines in PRR-activated DC and macrophages. Related to Figure 1.

(A-B) Expression of *Il6* and *Il12a* mRNAs in GM-DC activated by indicated TLR ligands during 24 hr in fatty acid-free medium (Control) or in the presence of PA. n = 3 per group. (C) Expression of cytokine and chemokine genes in GM-DC treated as in (A-B), analyzed by microarray. Data are shown as heat map with relative expression values (z-score). (D) Expression of *Il23a* mRNA in GM-DC treated with curdlan, furfuran, TNF or IL-1 β in fatty acid-free medium (Control) or in the presence of PA for 24 hr. n = 4 per group. (E) Expression of *Il23a* mRNA in BMDC treated with IMQ or LPS in fatty acid-free medium (Control) or in the presence of PA for 24 hr. n = 4 per group. Data are shown as mean \pm SEM. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001 (unpaired Student's t test).

Figure S2. PA-mediated regulation of IL-23 expression in DC and macrophages. Related to Figure 1.

(A) IL-23p19 secretion by Tlr4^{+/+} and Tlr4^{-/-} GM-DC activated by IMQ or LPS during 24 hr in the presence of 0.5 mM PA. n = 3-4 per group. (B) *Il23a* mRNA expression in GM-DC activated with IMQ and PA for 2 or 24 hr with/without NF- κ B inhibitory peptide SN50. n = 3 per group. (C) WB analysis of JNK and p-JNK in GM-DC treated with IMQ and PA for 24 hr. n = 3 per group. (D) *Mapk8*, *Mapk9*, and *Il23a* mRNA expression in GM-DC transfected with siRNA against *Mapk8* and *Mapk9* and 48 hr later activated with IMQ and PA for 24 hr. n = 4 per group. (E) IL-23p19 secretion by GM-DC activated with IMQ in the presence of PA or OA for 24 hr. n = 4 per group. (F) *Il23a* mRNA expression, IL-23p19 secretion, (D) and lactate secretion by GM-DC activated by IMQ during 24 hr in fatty acid-free medium (Control) or in the presence of indicated concentrations of PA. n = 3 per group. (G) Lactate secretion from GM-DC treated as in Figure S1D. (H-I) Real time changes of ECAR (H) and OCR (I) measured by the extracellular flux analyzer in GM-DC incubated in fatty acid-free medium in the presence on glucose after administration of IMQ alone or IMQ plus PA. Time of injection of compounds during the test is indicated by arrow. n = 4 per group. (J) Lactate secretion from BMDM treated as in Figure S1E. (K-L) GM-DC activated by IMQ in fatty acid-free medium or in the presence of PA during 24 hr. Representative flow cytometric analysis of 2-NBDG uptake (K), mitochondrial content measured by staining with Mitotracker Green (L). Data from one of three reproducible independent experiments are shown. (M) Activity of electron transport chain complexes in permeabilized cells after addition of indicated substrates and inhibitors measured as oxygen consumptions by Oxygraph-2k high-resolution respirometry in GM-DC activated by IMQ in fatty acid-free medium or in the presence of PA and/or etomoxir during 24 hr. n = 4 per group. (N) Relative ATP production and ATP/ADP ratio in GM-

DC activated by IMQ in fatty acid-free medium or in the presence of PA during 24 hr. n = 4 per group. (O) Hexokinase activity in GM-DC treated with IMQ for 24 hr and after that incubated with 0.5 mM of indicated FA for 2 hr. PA, palmitic acid (C16:0); 2Me-PA, 2-methylpalmitic acid (2Me-C16:0); OA, oleic acid (C18:1); LA, linoleic acid (C18:2); OCTA, octanoic acid (C8:0). n = 4 per group. (P) WB analysis of hexokinase 1 (HK1) protein in total cell lysates and isolated mitochondria and the cytosol from GM-DC activated with IMQ and PA for 24 hr. n = 3 per group. (Q) ECAR in GM-DC activated with IMQ with/without triacsin C for 24 hr and injected with BSA or PA during the “Seahorse” assay. n = 4 per group. Data are shown as mean \pm SEM. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001 (unpaired Student’s t test or one-way ANOVA). NS – not significant.

Figure S3. FAO-independent IL-23 expression in DC. Related to Figure 1.

(A-C) Cpt1a (A), Il-23a (B) mRNAs expression, and HK activity (C) in Cpt1a^{fl/fl} and Cpt1a^{Itgax/Itgax} GM-DC activated with IMQ and PA for 24 hr. (D-F) Cpt1a (D), Cpt2 (E), and Il23a (F) mRNA expression GM-DC transfected with control siRNA or siRNAs against Cpt1a and Cpt2, treated with or without 3 μ M etomoxir (Eto) and activated with IMQ and PA for 24 hr. (G) Cpt1a mRNA expression in BMDC activated with IMQ and PA for indicated time. (H) ¹⁴CO₂ production and accumulation of ¹⁴C in the acid-soluble metabolite fraction from GM-DC treated with IMQ and PA for 20 hr and incubated with ¹⁴C-PA for consecutive 4 hr. (I) Relative abundance of intracellular PA measured by GC-MS in GM-DC treated with or without IMQ for 20 hr and incubated with PA for consecutive 4 hr. n = 3-6 per group. Data are shown as mean \pm SEM. *P<0.05, **P<0.01, ***P<0.001 by t-test.

Figure S4. Interaction between IMQ and PA results in rewiring of glycolysis and TCA cycle metabolism in DC. Related to Figures 1-3.

(A-O) GM-DC activated by IMQ in fatty acid-free medium or in the presence of PA during 24 hr. Relative expression of genes controlling glycolysis (A) and TCA cycle metabolism (G) analyzed by microarray. Relative abundance of metabolites implicated in glycolysis (B-F) and TCA cycle (H-O) measured by LC-MS and GC-MS. (P) Schematic diagrams of gene and metabolite alterations in GM-DC activated by IMQ with/without PA. Up-regulated genes/metabolites are shown as red, down-regulated – blue. G6P, glucose 6-phosphate; F6P, fructose 6-phosphate; R5P, ribose 5-phosphate; S7P, sedoheptulose 7-phosphate; F1,6BP, fructose 1,6-bisphosphate; G3P, glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate; 1,3BPG, 1,3-bisphosphoglyceric acid; 3PG, 3-phosphoglyceric acid; 2PG, 2-phosphoglyceric acid; PEP, phosphoenolpyruvic acid. Results from n = 4-6 per group. (Q) Il23a mRNA expression in Acod1^{+/+} and Acod1^{-/-} GM-DC treated with IMQ and PA for 24 hr. n = 4 per group. Data are shown as mean \pm SEM. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001 (unpaired Student’s t test).

Figure S5. Effects of PA to glycolysis and the PPP in DC. Related to Figure 3.

(A-B) ECAR (A) and OCR (B) in GM-DC activated by IMQ with/without mitoTEMPO for 24 hr and injected with PA during the “Seahorse” assay. n = 4 per group. (C-F) Lactate secretion (C), HK activity (D), GAPDH activity (E), G6PDH activity (F) in GM-DC activate by IMQ and PA with/without mitoTEMPO for 24 hr. n = 3-4 per group. (G-K) Relative level of ribose-5-phosphate (G), carbon flux from 1,2-¹³C-glucose into ribose-5-phosphate (H), relative level of sedoheptulose-7-phosphate (I), carbon flux from 1,2-¹³C-glucose into sedoheptulose-7-phosphate (J) and schematic representation of the flux (I) in GM-DC treated with IMQ and PA for 24 hr. n = 3-6 per group. (L) NADP⁺/NADPH ratios in GM-DC treated with IMQ and PA for indicated time. n = 4 per group. Data are shown as mean ± SEM. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001 (unpaired Student’s t test or one-way ANOVA).

Figure S6. HFD feeding exacerbates psoriasis-like inflammation through accumulation of IL-23⁺ cDC in iLN and increased IL-23 signaling in the skin. Related to Figures 2 & 4.

(A-G) Male mice were treated daily by application of vehicle or IMQ to shaved abdominal skin during 5 days and fed CD or HFD. Schematic design of this experiment (A). Concentration of non-esterified fatty acids (NEFAs) in plasma after day 5 of treatment (B). Representative MGG staining of abdominal skin sections (scale bar 50 μm) (C). Average epidermal thickness of abdominal skin (D). GSEA of genes from KEGG OXPHOS pathway in cDC sorted from iLN and analyzed by microarray (E). Proportion of mitoSOX⁺ cDC in iLN (F). Volcano plots with log₂ fold change versus log₁₀ P-value of all transcripts (GSE69750, gray dots), including 1288 significantly up-regulated transcripts after intradermal injection of IL-23 (GSE50400, fold change (FC) > 2, q-value < 0.05) (red dots). Numbers of up- and down-regulated among the 1288 transcripts, and statistical significance levels of up-regulation of this entire IL-23-dependent set of transcripts are shown (G). (H) Mice were treated daily by application of IMQ to shaved abdominal skin during 5 days, injected IP with 3 mg anti-IL-23p19 neutralizing antibody or control IgG at 1st and 4th days, and fed CD or HFD. Average epidermal thickness in abdominal skin. Data are pooled from two independent experiments and shown as mean ± SEM. n = 4-12 mice per group. (I-K) Irradiated C57BL/6 mice reconstituted with bone marrow from Cpt1a^{+/+} or Cpt1a^{Zbtb46/Zbtb46} mice and fed 6 weeks post-irradiation with CD or HFD and epicutaneously treated with vehicle- or IMQ-containing cream for 5 days. Macroscopic aspect of lesions and disease activity score (I). MGG staining of lesions (J). Numbers and per cent IL-23⁺ cDC (K) in iLN. n = 2-8 mice per group. Data are shown as mean ± SEM or box plots with median ± first-third quartiles. (L-M) GM-DC treated with IMQ and PA in the presence or absence of metformin during 24 hr. Oxygen consumption rate (OCR) and mitochondrial respiration (L), *Prkaa1*, *Prkaa2*, and *Ii23a* mRNA

expression and IL-23p19 protein secretion (M). (N) mRNA expression of indicated genes in the skin from mice treated as in Figure 2D. n = 2-4 mice per group. (O) Pfkf, Pfkp, Il23a mRNA expression and lactate secretion in GM-DC transfected with siRNA against Pfkf and Pfkp or control siRNA and 48 hr later treated with IMQ and PA for 24 hr. n = 4 per group. Data are shown as mean \pm SEM. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001 (unpaired Student's t test or two-way ANOVA with Tukey's *post-hoc* test). NS – not significant.

Figure S7. PA increases the UPR in IMQ-activated DC. Related to Figures 5-7.

(A) Heat-map with relative expression of genes from GO:0030968 “Endoplasmic reticulum unfolded protein response” analyzed by microarray analysis in GM-DC activated by IMQ in fatty acid-free medium or in the presence of PA during 24 hr. n = 4 per group. (B) Quantification of WB from Figure 5A. n = 5 per group. (C) Heat-map with relative expression of genes implicated in the UPR analyzed by microarray analysis in cDC isolated from iLN from mice treated with IMQ and fed CD or HFD. n = 4 mice per group. (D-E) GM-DC differentiated from the ER stress activated indicator (ERAI) mice. Representative flow cytometric analysis (D) and proportion (E) of Xbp1s-venus⁺ GM-DC treated with IMQ and PA during 24 hr. n = 2 per group. #P < 0.05 vs. control groups and *P < 0.05 vs. IMQ groups. (F) Glycolytic and mitochondrial activities in Xbp1^{fl/fl} and Xbp1^{CD11c/CD11c} GM-DC activated with IMQ for 24 hr. n = 5 per group. (G) Atf4 and Il23a mRNA expression in GM-DC transfected with siRNA against Atf4 or control siRNA and 48 hr later activated by IMQ and PA for 24 hr. n = 4 per group. (H) Xbp1^{fl/fl}, Xbp1^{CD11c/CD11c}, and Ddit3^{-/-}Xbp1^{CD11c/CD11c} GM-DC activated by IMQ in fatty acid-free medium or in the presence of PA during 24 hr. Deletion-specific qPCR for *Xbp1* and *Ddit3* mRNA expression. n = 4 per group. (I) *Il6* mRNA expression in GM-DC activated by IMQ with or without PA during 24 hr in the presence of rotenone or mitoTEMPO. n = 5 per group. (J) *Il6* mRNA expression in Xbp1^{fl/fl}, Xbp1^{CD11c/CD11c} and Ddit3^{-/-}Xbp1^{CD11c/CD11c} GM-DC activated by IMQ with or without PA during 24 hr. n = 4 per group. (K) Expression of genes from the mitochondrial UPR transcriptional signature in GM-DC. (L) WB analysis and quantification of ATF5 in isolated mitochondria from GM-DC. n = 2 per group. (M-N) Il23a, Atf5, and Atf3 mRNA expression in GM-DC transfected with control siRNA or siRNAs against Atf5 or Atf3 and 48 hr later activated by IMQ and PA for 24 hr. n = 4 per group. Data are shown as mean \pm SEM. ND – not detected. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001 (unpaired Student's t test), #P < 0.05 vs. PA groups (unpaired Student's t test).

Supplemental Table Legends

Supplemental Table S1. Sequences for primers used in RT-qPCR experiments. Related to Figures 1-3 & 5-6 and STAR Methods.

Supplemental Table S2. Sequences for primers used in ChIP–qPCR experiments. Related to Figure 6 and STAR Methods.

STAR METHODS

CONTACT FOR REAGENT AND RESOURCE SHARING

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the Lead Contact, David Dombrowicz (david.dombrowicz@pasteur-lille.fr).

EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS

Mice

Wild-type male C57BL/6 mice (8 weeks of age) were purchased from Charles River Laboratories (France). $Tlr4^{-/-}$ mice were a gift from Jean-Claude Sirard (Inserm U1019, Institut Pasteur de Lille, France). $Acod1^{-/-}$ mice were a gift from Eik Hoffmann (CIIL, Institut Pasteur de Lille, France). $Prkaa1^{+/-}$ and $Prkaa1^{-/-}$ mice (Jørgensen et al., 2004) were from Institut Cochin, Université Paris Descartes, Paris, France. $Hif1a^{Vav/Vav}$ mice (Vukovic et al., 2016) and $Hif1a^{Tie2/Tie2}$ mice were from MRC Centre for Regenerative Medicine, University of Edinburgh, UK. $Hif1a^{fl/fl}Rosa26CreER$ mice were from Department of Molecular Medicine and Gene Therapy, Lund Stem Cell Center, Sweden. $Ddit3^{-/-}$ mice (Oyadomari et al., 2001) were from Division of Molecular Biology, Institute for Genome Research, Tokushima University, Japan. $Xbp1^{CD11c/CD11c}$ mice (Cubillos-Ruiz et al., 2015; Osorio et al., 2014) were from VIB Center for Inflammation, Gent University, Belgium or Department of Medicine, and Weill Cornell Medical College, New York, USA. $Ddit3^{-/-}Xbp1^{CD11c/CD11c}$ mice (Tavernier et al., 2017) and ERAI $Xbp1$ -venus reporter mice (Iwawaki et al., 2004) were from VIB Center for Inflammation, Gent University, Belgium. $Cpt1a^{CD11c/CD11c}$ mice (Divakaruni et al., 2018) were from Institute of Infection Immunology, Hannover, Germany. $Cpt1a^{Zbtb46/Zbtb46}$ mice were from William Harvey Research Institute, London, UK. Mice were maintained in pathogen-free environment (12:12 hr light/dark cycle, 21°C-24°C) at the Institut Pasteur de Lille. 8-12-week-old male mice were used for all experiments with *ad libitum* access to water and food. During the experiments, food and bedding was changed daily to prevent any accumulation of food in the cages. Mice were randomized into the different treatment and diet groups equilibrated for body weight and age. Mice were fed a control diet (CD, standard rodent chow, 5% kcal fat) or high fat diet (HFD, 60% kcal fat) for the indicated period of time. Mice with fight wounds at the skin were excluded from analyses. All experiments were performed following approval by the Ethics Committee for Animal Experimentation from Nord-Pas de Calais Region (CEEA75-n°01-2002R and APAFIS#7160-2017040313471173).

Cell culture

Bone marrow-derived dendritic cells differentiated in the presence of GM-CSF (GM-DC) were obtained

from femurs of WT, Tlr4^{-/-}, Prkaa1^{+/-}, Prkaa1^{-/-}, Hif1a^{Tie2/Tie2}, Hif1a^{Vav/Vav}, Ddit3^{-/-}, Xbp1^{CD11c/CD11c}, Ddit3^{-/-}Xbp1^{CD11c/CD11c}, Cpt1a^{CD11c/CD11c}, and ERAI Xbp1-venus reporter mice (C57BL/6 background, 8-12 weeks of age), cultured in DMEM media containing 10% fetal calf serum (FCS), 10 μM 2-mercaptoethanol, 25 mM HEPES, 10 μg/ml gentamycin and 20 ng/ml GM-CSF. Medium was refreshed every 3 days. GM-DC were used for experiments on day 14th of culture (mature GM-DC expressed CD11c⁺MHCII⁺ in > 80-90% cells). Bone marrow-derived macrophages differentiated in the presence of M-CSF (BMDM) were obtained from femurs of WT mice (C57BL/6 background, 8 weeks of age), cultured in RPMI media containing 10% FCS, 10 μM 2-mercaptoethanol, 10 μg/ml gentamycin and 20 ng/ml M-CSF and used at day 6. Cell viability was tested by 7AAD or trypan blue assays and was between 70-90% of live cells depending on type of treatment.

METHOD DETAILS

IMQ-induced psoriasis-like skin inflammation

IMQ-induced psoriasis-like inflammation was induced as previously described (Fits et al., 2009). Mice were treated with a daily topical dose (62.5mg) of IMQ cream (Aldara 5%) or control “Lanette” cream, unless stated otherwise, on the shaved abdominal skin for 5 days and sacrificed 24 hr later. Mice were fed HFD or control chow diet for the treatment duration. In some experiments, mice were treated by metformin in drinking water (0.5g/l) (Lien et al., 2014), starting at 3 days before and during treatment with IMQ. At the time of sacrifice, skin samples were directly frozen in liquid N₂ for RNA isolation or fixed in Immunohistofix for histological analysis.

For bone marrow chimeras, 8 – 10 week old C57BL/6 male mice were gamma-irradiated twice with 5 Gy 3 hr apart. Mice were reconstituted 3 hr later by intravenous (i.v.) injection with marrow cells (3 × 10⁶ cells) harvested from the femurs and tibias of Cpt1^{aZbtb46/Zbtb46} mice and control Cpt1^{+/+} WT littermates. Mice were maintained on acidified water containing Baytril (Enrofloxacin) during the critical 3-week reconstitution period. Six weeks after reconstitution, animals were fed a HFD or CD and psoriasis-like inflammation was induced by IMQ application as described.

Isolation of cells from iLN

Mouse iLN were mechanically homogenized, passed through 70 μm filter and centrifugated at 400 g for 10 min. Cell pellets were washed two times with cold PBS and used for cell sorting or flow cytometry. For IL-23p19 staining, cells were incubated in DMEM containing brefeldin A (1μg/ml) at +37°C, 5% CO₂ for 4 hr.

Flow cytometry

Cells were stained with Zombie UV viability reagent during 15 min at +20°C, washed two times with cold PBS + 0.5% BSA, incubated with Fc block and antibodies mentioned in the figure legends and the Key Resources Table in PBS + 0.5% BSA during 30 min at +4°C, washed two times with cold PBS + 0.5% BSA, fixed with 1% PFA and used for flow cytometry. Flow cytometry analyses were performed on BD LSRFortessa X-20 flow cytometer. Results were acquired with the Diva software and analyzed using FlowJo software. cDC were defined as CD3⁻CD19⁻CD64⁻Ly6G⁻CD11c⁺MHCII⁺ cells.

Sorting of cDCs from iLN

CD3⁻CD19⁻CD64⁻Ly6G⁻CD11c⁺MHCII⁺ DCs were sorted from mouse iLN using BD Influx Cell Sorter (BD Biosciences). $5-8 \times 10^5$ sorted cDC were used for RNA isolation with Arcturus Picopure RNA isolation Kit.

Activation of GM-DC

GM-DC (5×10^5 per ml) were incubated in DMEM containing 10% FCS, 2 mM L-glutamine, 4.5 g/L glucose, and 10 µg/ml gentamycin and treated with 100 ng/ml Pam3CSK4, 10 µg/ml Poly(I:C), 100 ng/ml LPS, and 3µg/ml Imiquimod, 100 µg/ml curdlan, 1 µg/ml furfuran, 50 ng/ml TNF, 50 ng/ml IL-1β with or without PA or other FA conjugated with BSA (0.065-0.5mM, molar ratio PA:BSA 6:1, OA:BSA 6:1) in the presence of 3 µM etomoxir, 5 mM 2-deoxyglucose, 1 µM rotenone, 5 mM metformin, 0.5 mM MitoTEMPO, 10 µM 4µ8C, 2 µM GSK2606414, 1 µM tunicamycin, 100 µg/ml SN50, 5 mM dichloroacetate (DCA), 10 µM triacsin C, 10 µM or 20 µM MitoPQ as indicated in figure legends. Reagents were added to cells simultaneously with IMQ or LPS, unless stated otherwise. SN50, MitoTEMPO, GSK2606414, 4µ8C, etomoxir, triacsin C and DCA were added 1 hr before other reagents. GM-DC were activated during 24 hr unless otherwise indicated.

siRNA transfection

5×10^5 GM-DC per biological replicate were transfected with siRNA using Mouse Dendritic Cell Nucleofector Kit and Nucleofector II/2b device according to manufacturer's instructions. Cells were incubated during 48 hr in DMEM + 10% FCS and treated with IMQ and PA as described in TLR activation of GM-DC. Used siRNAs are mentioned in the figure legends and the Key Resources Table.

2-NBDG uptake

5×10^5 GM-DC per biological replicate were incubated in DMEM without glucose during 1 hr following by incubation in the presence of 0.1 mM 2-NBDG during 10 min, washed two times with PBS and analyzed by flow cytometry.

Analysis of mitochondrial content

5×10^5 GM-DC per biological replicate were incubated in DMEM in the presence of $1 \mu\text{M}$ MitoTracker Green FM during 15 min, washed two times with PBS and analyzed by flow cytometry.

Mitochondrial ROS production

To detect mitochondrial ROS, 5×10^5 GM-DC or cells isolated from iLN per biological replicate were incubated with $5 \mu\text{M}$ MitoSOX Red mitochondrial superoxide indicator at 37°C for 20 min in DMEM, washed two times with PBS, stained with surface antibody if indicated, and then analyzed with flow cytometry.

Mitochondrial respiration assay

4×10^6 GM-DC per biological replicate were placed into the O2K chambers (Oroboros Instruments) and filled with MiRO5 as described on the Oroboros website (<http://www.bioblast.at/index.php/MiRO5>). After digitonin permeabilization for 10 min, mitochondrial respiration was studied at 25°C by adding sequentially the following compounds: glutamate (10 mM) and malate (2 mM), ADP (2.5 mM), succinate (10 mM), rotenone ($0.5 \mu\text{M}$), antimycin A ($2.5 \mu\text{M}$), TMPD / Ascorbate ($0.5 \text{ mM} / 2 \text{ mM}$), cytochrome c ($10 \mu\text{M}$) and sodium azide (100 mM).

Chromatin Immunoprecipitation (ChIP)

5×10^6 GM-DC per biological replicate were cross-linked with 1% PFA at room temperature for 10 min, lysed, nuclei were isolated and resuspended in 0.4 ml nuclear lysis buffer containing 0.5% SDS. Nuclei were sonicated using a Bioruptor (Diagenode) according to the manufacturer's protocol, and chromatin was immunoprecipitated with antibodies against CHOP, XBP-1, and control IgG overnight at 4°C , followed by 4 hr incubation in the presence of Protein A/G beads. After washing, bead-bound chromatin was subject to decrosslinking for 4 hr at 65°C . DNA was purified using Agencourt AMPure beads. Relative DNA enrichment was quantified and normalized to input DNA by qPCR using SYBR Green Master Mix. Primers used for ChIP are listed in Table S2.

RNA isolation

Total RNA was isolated from GM-DC using Trizol reagent. Total RNA from sorted cDC was isolated using RNeasy Micro Kit.

Reverse transcription and real-time PCR

500 ng of total RNA isolated from GM-DC was treated with DNase I and used to generate cDNA with High-capacity cDNA reverse transcription kit. Gene expression was measured by SybrGreen based qPCR. Results were normalized to the housekeeping genes *Hprt1* and *Rpl4*, and the $\Delta\Delta C_t$ method was employed for all real-time PCR analyses. Primers used for real-time PCR are listed in Table S1.

Microarray analysis

200 ng RNA from GM-DC was amplified with GeneChip WT PLUS Reagent Kit, labeled with GeneChip WT Terminal Labeling Kit. 5 ng RNA from sorted cDC was amplified with Ovation Pico WTA Systems V2, labeled with GeneChip WT Terminal Labeling Kit. The resulting complementary RNAs were hybridized on the GeneChip Mouse Gene 2.0 ST Array (Affymetrix) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Microarray data were normalized by the Robust Multi-Average method (Irizarry et al., 2003) by using affy R package (Gautier et al., 2004). Transcripts associated with annotated genes were selected for analysis. The expression dataset was collapsed to gene levels using a max-median approach following selection of top 15000 genes with maximal average expression levels among all experimental groups using Phantasus. Differentially expressed genes were identified by using limma R package (Smyth, 2005), which uses an empirical Bayesian approach to estimate variances in moderated t tests. Raw P values were adjusted for multiple testing using the Benjamini–Hochberg procedure.

Protein Analysis

Whole cell lysate from 1×10^6 GM-DC was extracted using RIPA lysis buffer supplemented with complete protease inhibitor cocktail and PhosSTOP phosphatase inhibitors. Proteins were diluted in Nupage LDS sample buffer, heated at 65°C for 5 min, and loaded on 4–12% NuPAGE Bis-Tris Gel. Proteins were transferred to nitrocellulose membrane using iBlot 2 Transfer stacks and blotted with commercial antibodies mentioned in the figure legends and the Key Resources Table.

Seahorse assays

2.5×10^5 GM-DC per well were seeded in a XF24 plate and analyzed in a Seahorse XFe24 Analyzer. Oxygen consumption rate (OCR) and extracellular acidification rate (ECAR) were measured in DMEM with 25 mM glucose and 2 mM glutamine with or without of 0.5 mM PA, before and after the sequential injection of 0.75 μ M oligomycin, 1.5 μ M FCCP, 1 μ M of rotenone/antimycin A, and 50 mM 2-deoxyglucose. Mixing, waiting, and measurement times were 4, 2, and 2 min (3, 1, and 1 min in some experiments), respectively. Measures were normalized by total protein. Basal and maximal respiration

values were calculated by subtraction of OCR value after treatment of cells with rotenone and antimycin A (which corresponds to non-mitochondrial respiration) from OCR values in cells treated with glucose or with oligomycin and FCCP, respectively. Glycolysis and glycolytic capacity values were calculated by subtraction of ECAR value after treatment of cells with 2-deoxyglucose (which corresponds to non-glycolytic acidification) from ECAR values in cells treated with glucose or with oligomycin, respectively.

Measurement of fatty acid oxidation

Fatty acid oxidation was measured as described previously (Haas et al., 2012). Briefly, 5×10^5 GM-DC per biological replicate were pre-treated for 21 hr with IMQ or IMQ + 500 μ M PA. Cells were then switched to oxidation media containing 1mM carnitine, 500 μ M PA, and 1 μ Ci/mL 14 C-PA for 3 hr. Media was acidified with 70% perchloric acid and CO₂ was captured with 1N NaOH. Complete oxidation (captured CO₂) and incomplete oxidation (acid soluble metabolites, ASMs) were calculated by counting the NaOH and cleared, acidified media.

Metabolomics

Metabolite extraction of GM-DC was performed on 2.5 million per well using 70°C aqueous 70% ethanol as described previously (Jha et al., 2015). Prior to collection, cells were treated with BSA (control), 500 μ M PA, IMQ or IMQ + 500 μ M PA for 24 hours. At collection, cells were placed immediately on ice, the media was removed and cells were washed three times with ice-cold PBS to remove residual media. Intracellular metabolites were extracted twice with hot ethanol using 10 μ M norvaline as an internal control. For LCMS, samples were dried under nitrogen flow and reconstituted in a milliQ water/acetonitrile (1:1) mixture for injection using a UPLC Acquity (Waters) separation system coupled with a Xevo G2 ToF (Waters) as described (Paglia et al., 2012) with slight modification. Compounds were ionized using an electrospray ionization source in negative mode. Data processing was performed in MATLAB (Mathworks, Inc.) using a custom made in-house protocol. Compound identification was performed using both retention time of authentic standards and accurate mass with an accepted deviation of 0.005 Da. For GCMS, samples were derivatized with methyl chloroformate as described (Smart et al., 2010) with slight modifications. Analysis was performed using GC (7890B, Agilent) coupled to a quadrupole detector (59977B, Agilent) and controlled by ChemStation software (Agilent). Raw data was converted to netCDF format using Chemstation (Agilent), before processing in Matlab R2014b (Mathworks, Inc.) using PARADISE software as described (Johnsen et al., 2017). In both cases, samples were randomized prior to injection. All MS sample processing and analysis were performed by MS-Omics, Inc. (Copenhagen, Denmark).

Histology

Mouse skin samples were fixed in ImmunoHistoFix and embedded in ImmunoHistoWax at 37°C. 5µm sections were stained with May-Grünwald Giemsa for measurement of epidermal thickness by using a Nikon Eclipse Ti-E microscope with NIS-Elements imaging software. Average epidermal thickness was determined as a mean of 10 measures calculated for each skin sample. We did blind investigators during epidermal thickness measurement.

QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSES

Statistical analyses of biological data

Data are presented as mean ± SEM. We tested whether data were normally distributed by Shapiro-Wilk test and examined quantile-quantile plots. Levene's test was used to analyze homogeneity of variances. For a two-group comparison two-sided Student's *t*-test was used. For more than two groups data were analyzed by ANOVA, or two-way ANOVA, followed by Tukey's (when we compared each group with every other group) or Sidak (when we compared groups within separate time points in repeated measures ANOVA) *post-hoc* tests for multiple comparisons. In case of data showing differences compared to normal distribution we applied two-sided Mann-Whitney U-test. Statistical analyses were performed with Prism 6 or R software. $p < 0.05$ was considered to be statistically significant and is presented as * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$, or **** $p < 0.0001$.

DATA AND SOFTWARE AVAILABILITY

The accession numbers for microarray datasets reported in this paper are publicly available at the NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus: GSE68750, GSE110962, and GSE110963.

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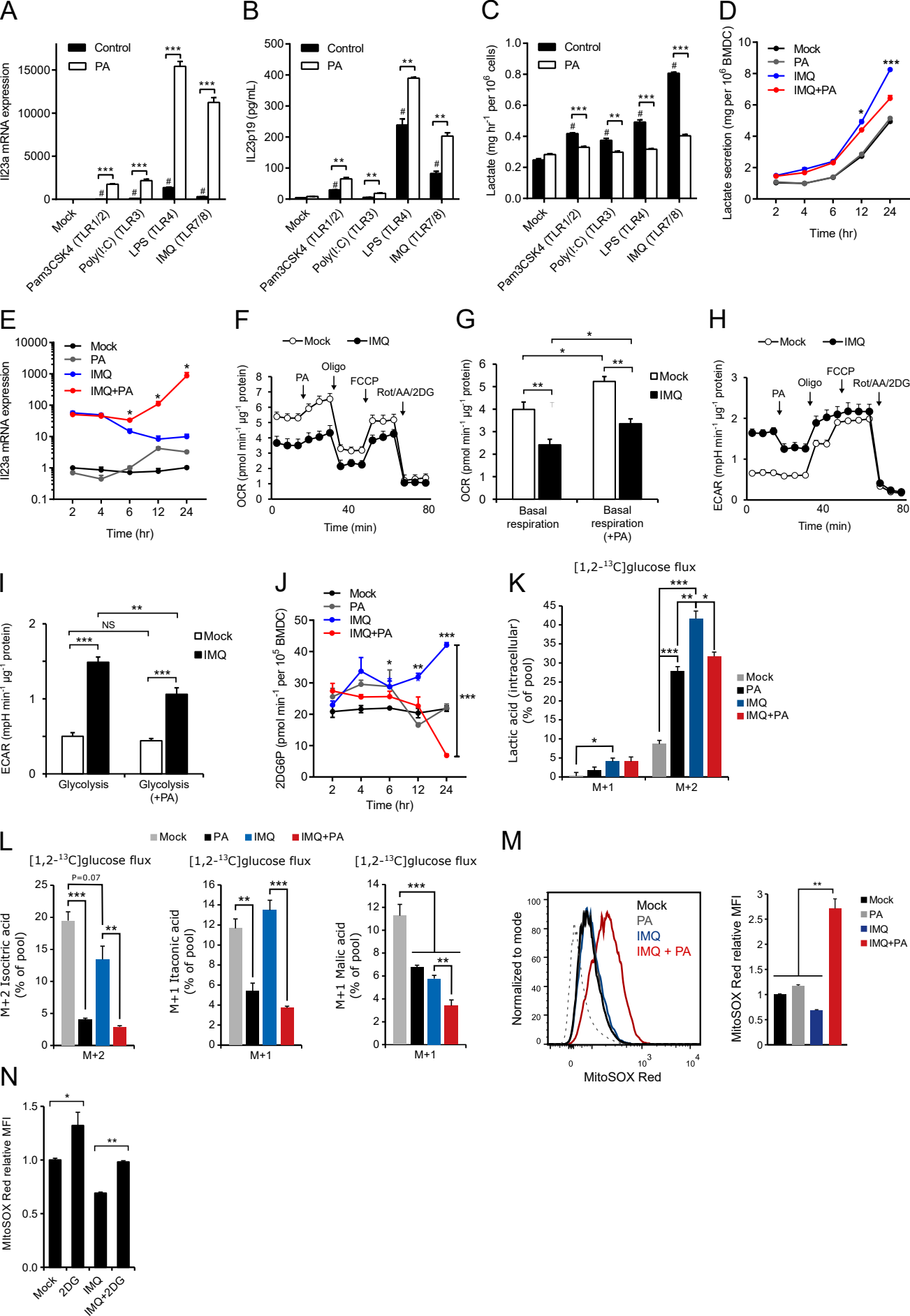
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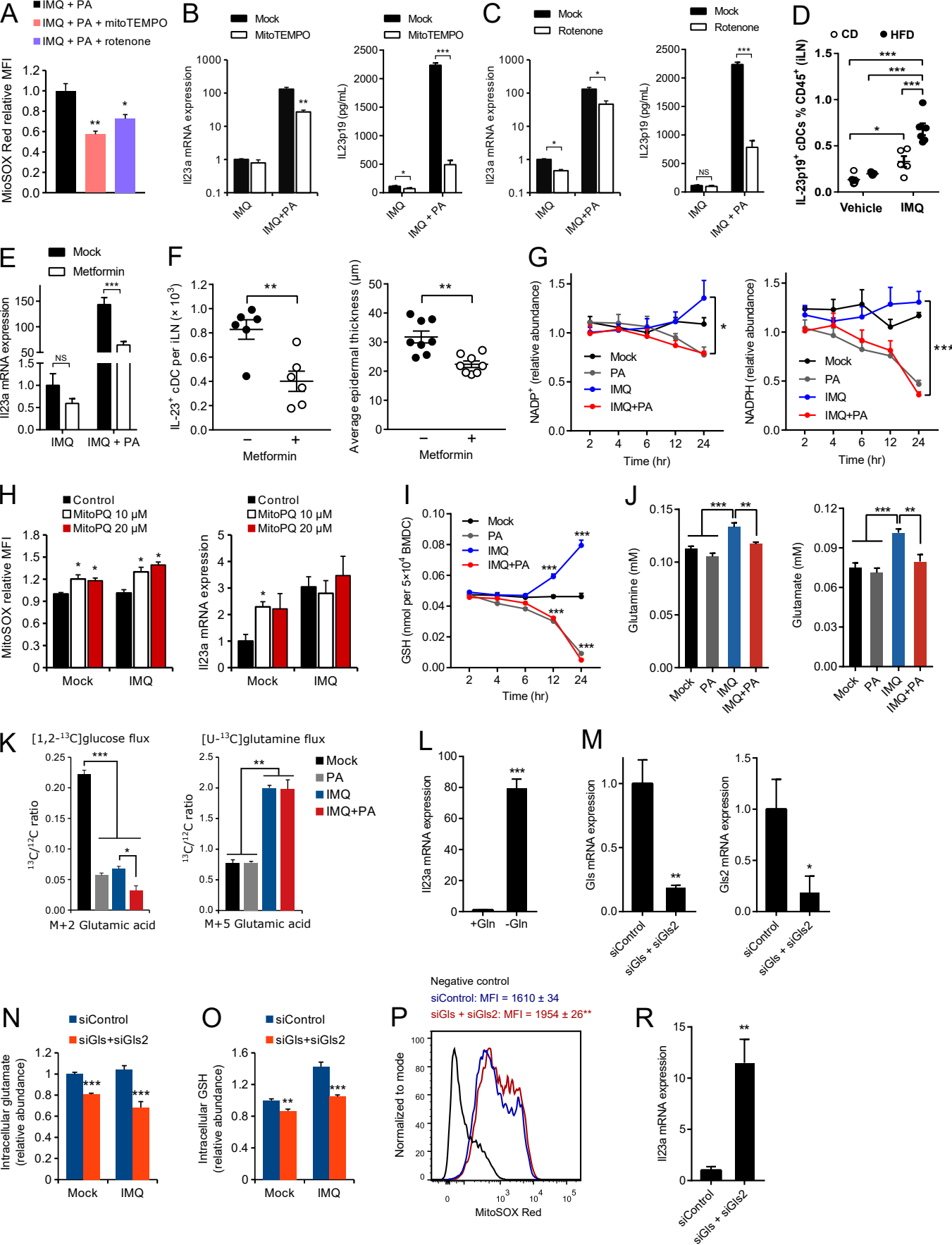
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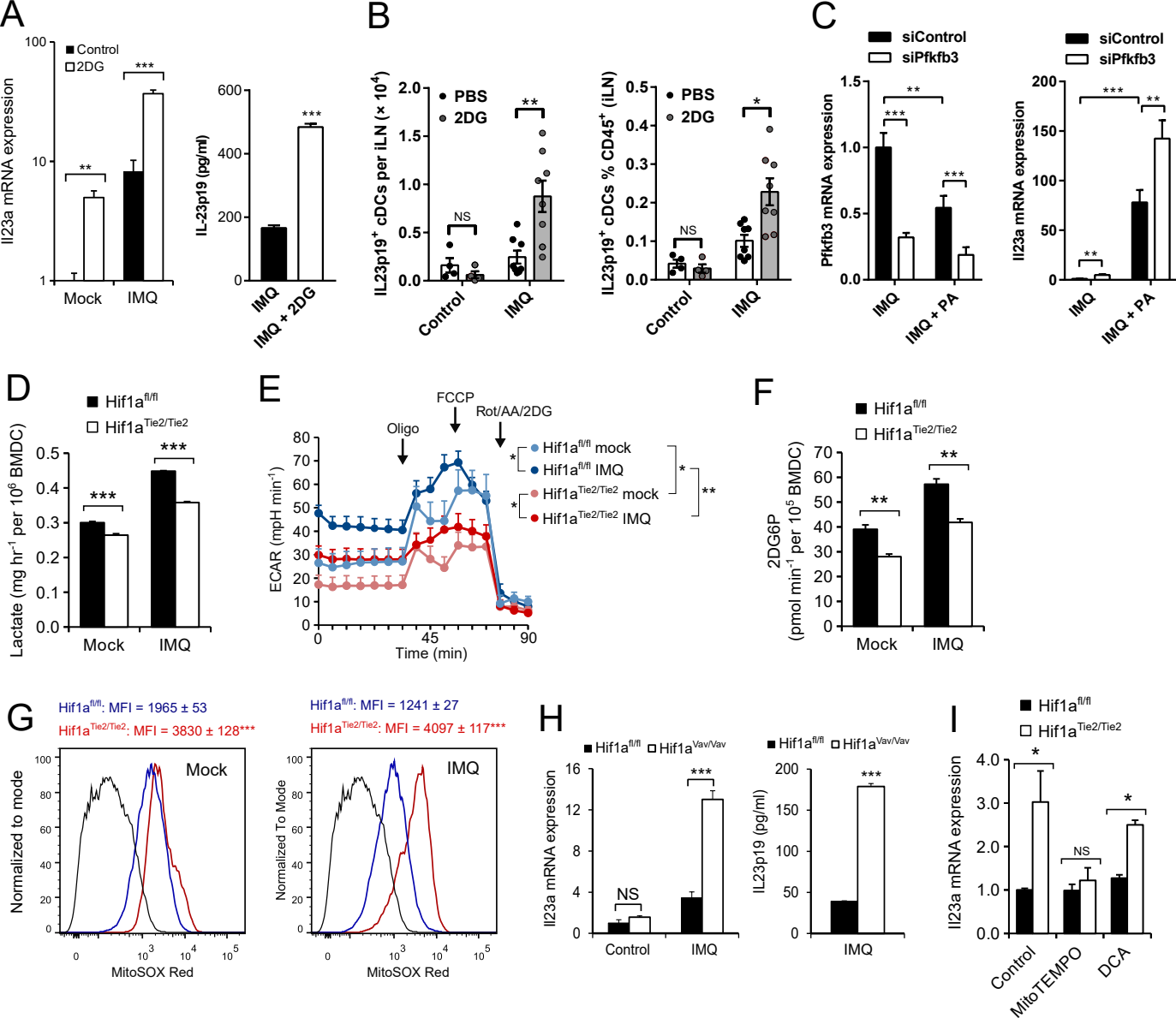
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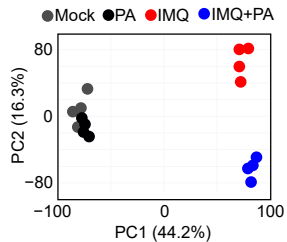
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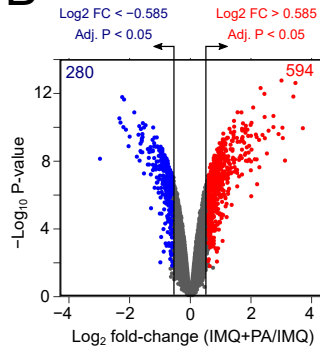




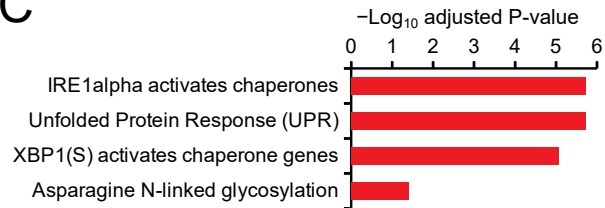
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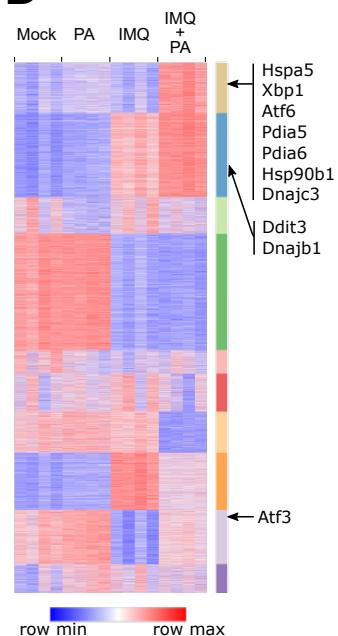
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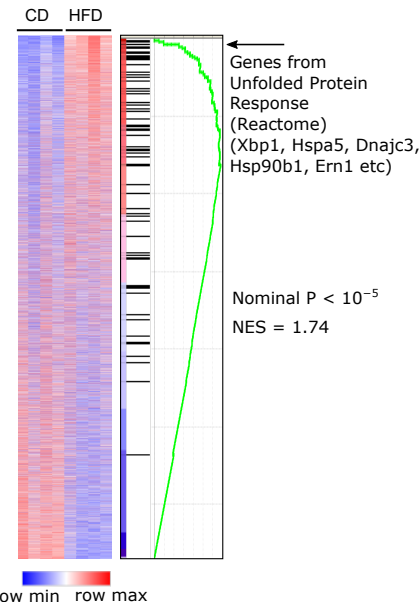
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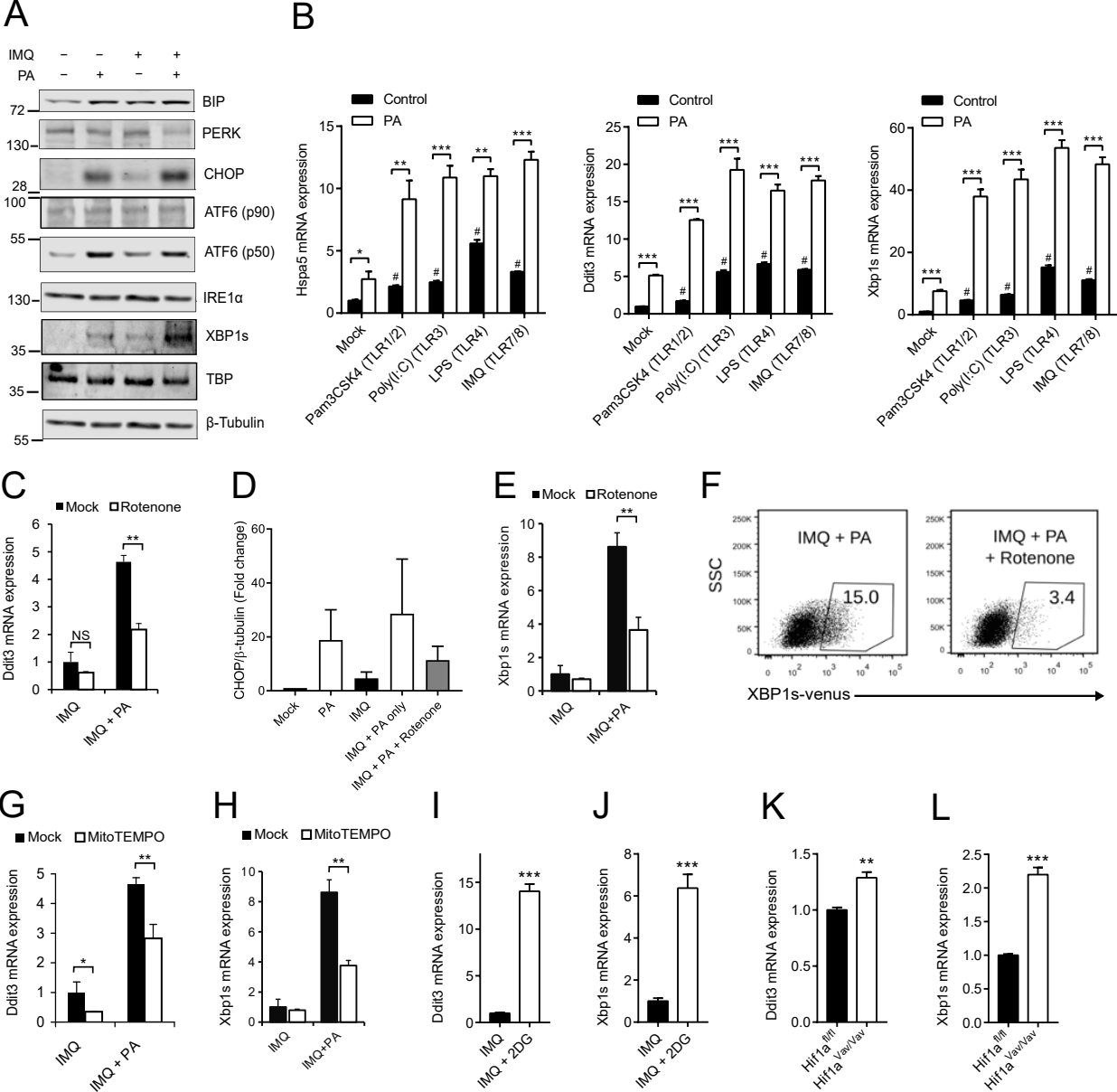


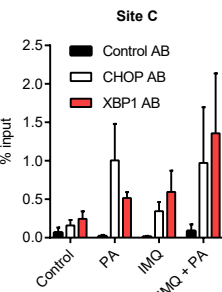
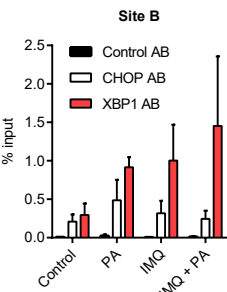
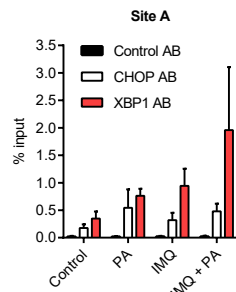
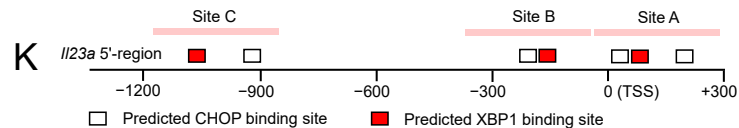
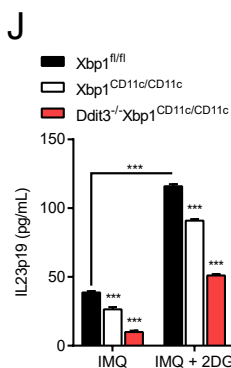
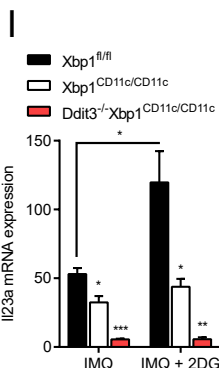
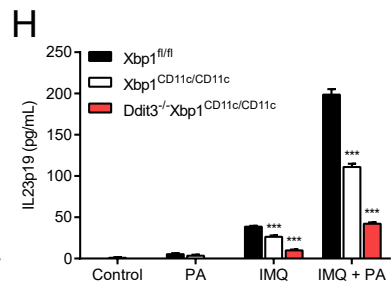
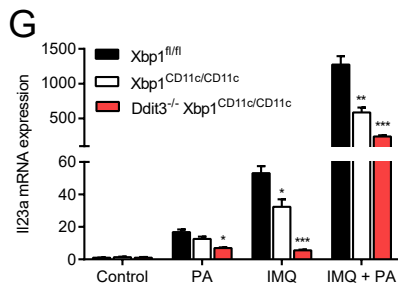
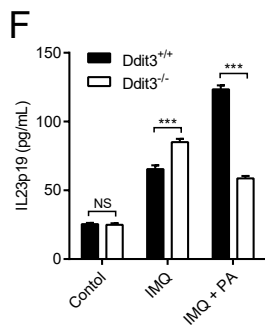
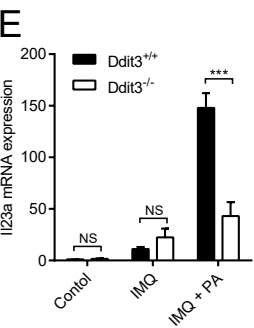
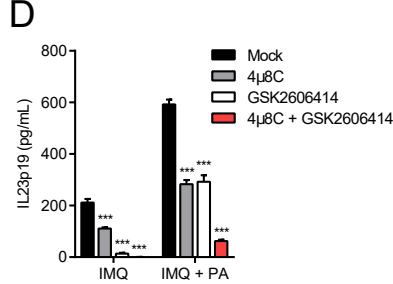
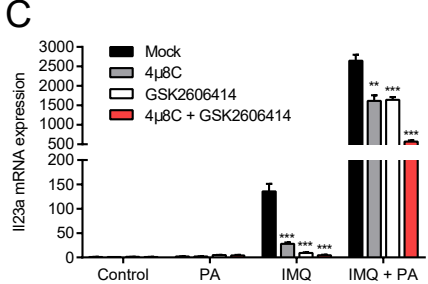
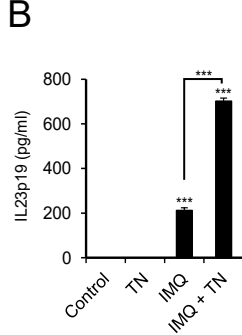
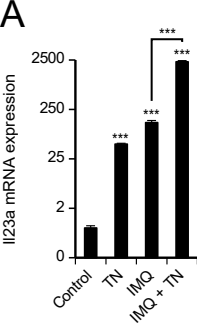
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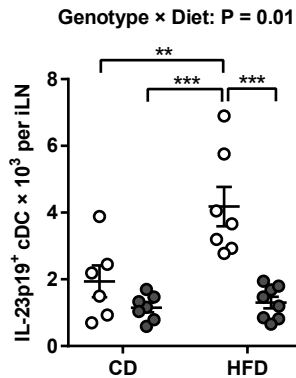
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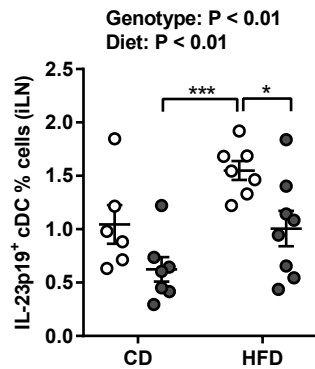




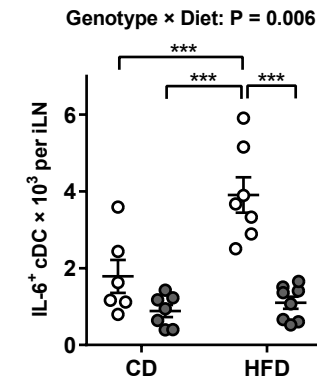
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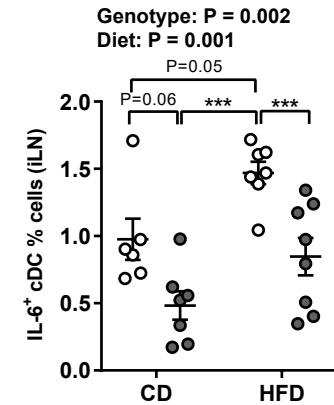
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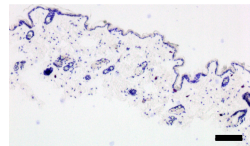
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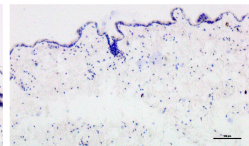
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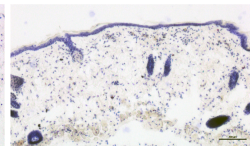
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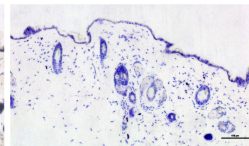
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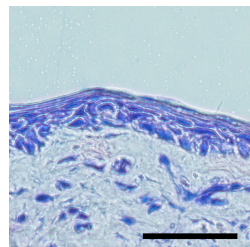
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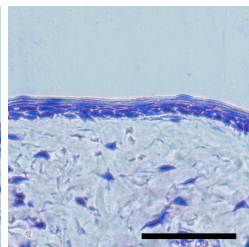
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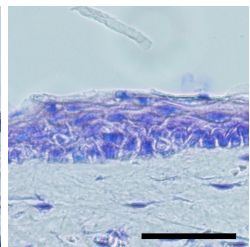
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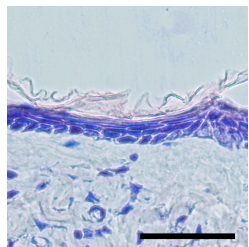
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CD + IMQ



Xbp1^{fl/fl}
HFD + IMQ

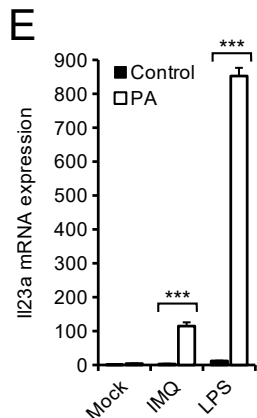
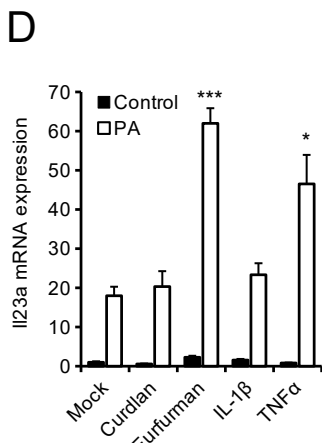
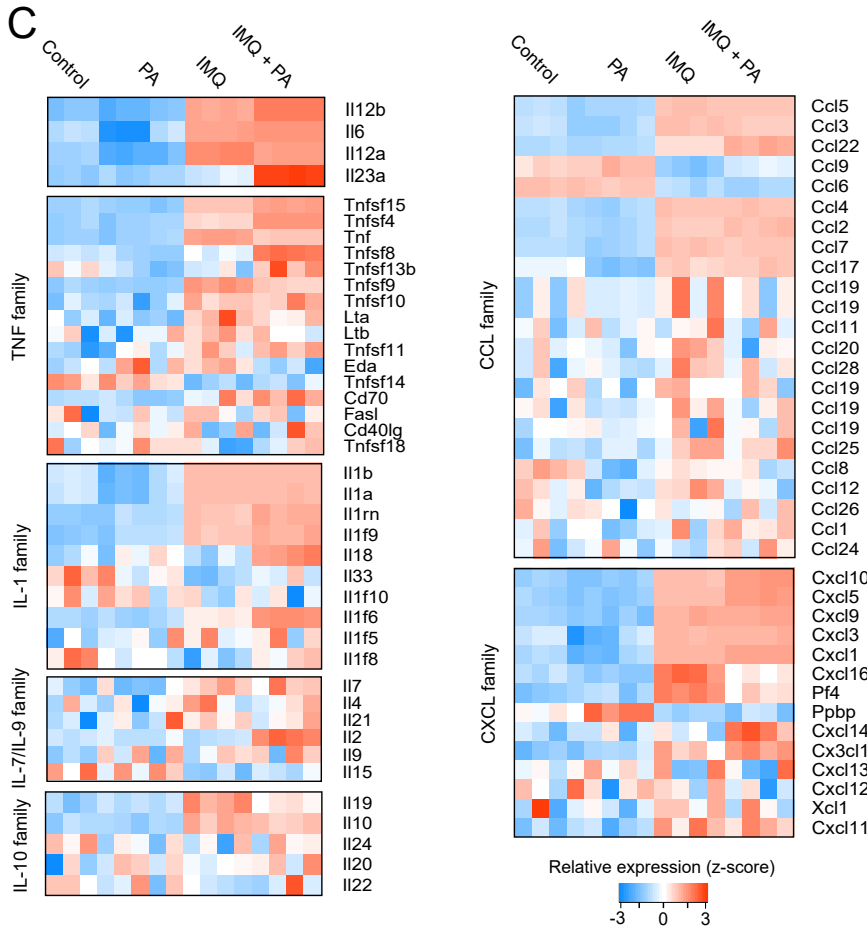
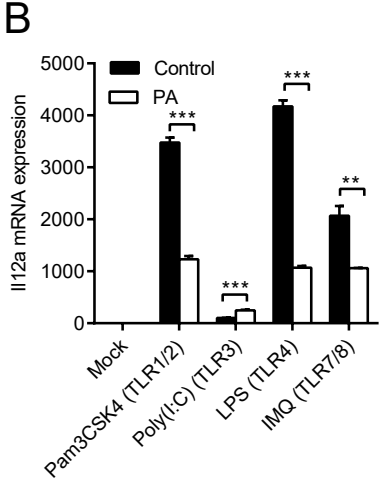
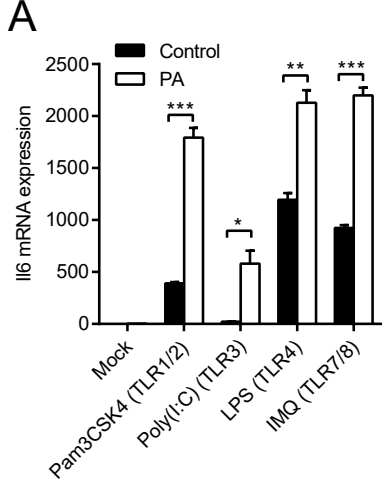


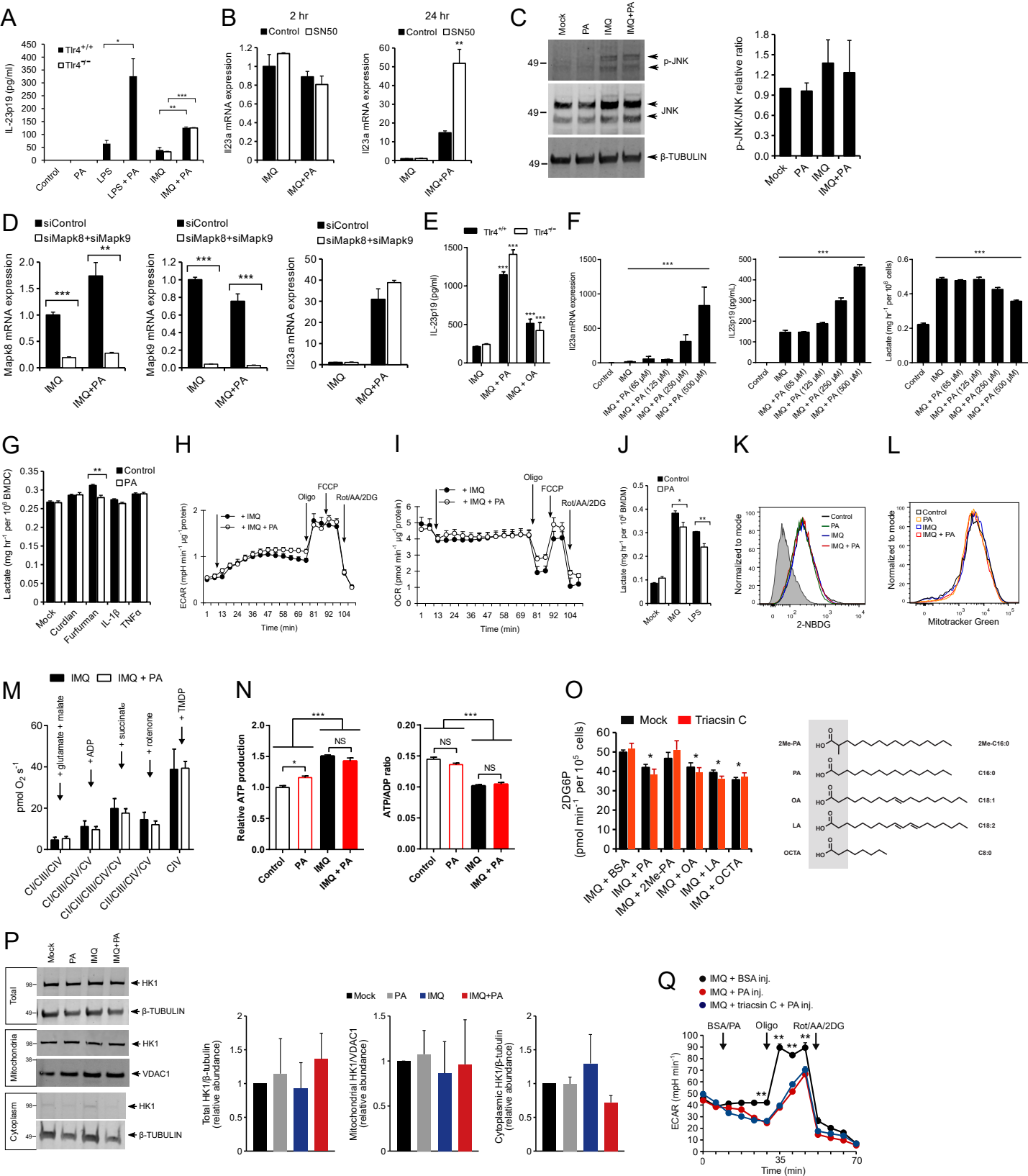
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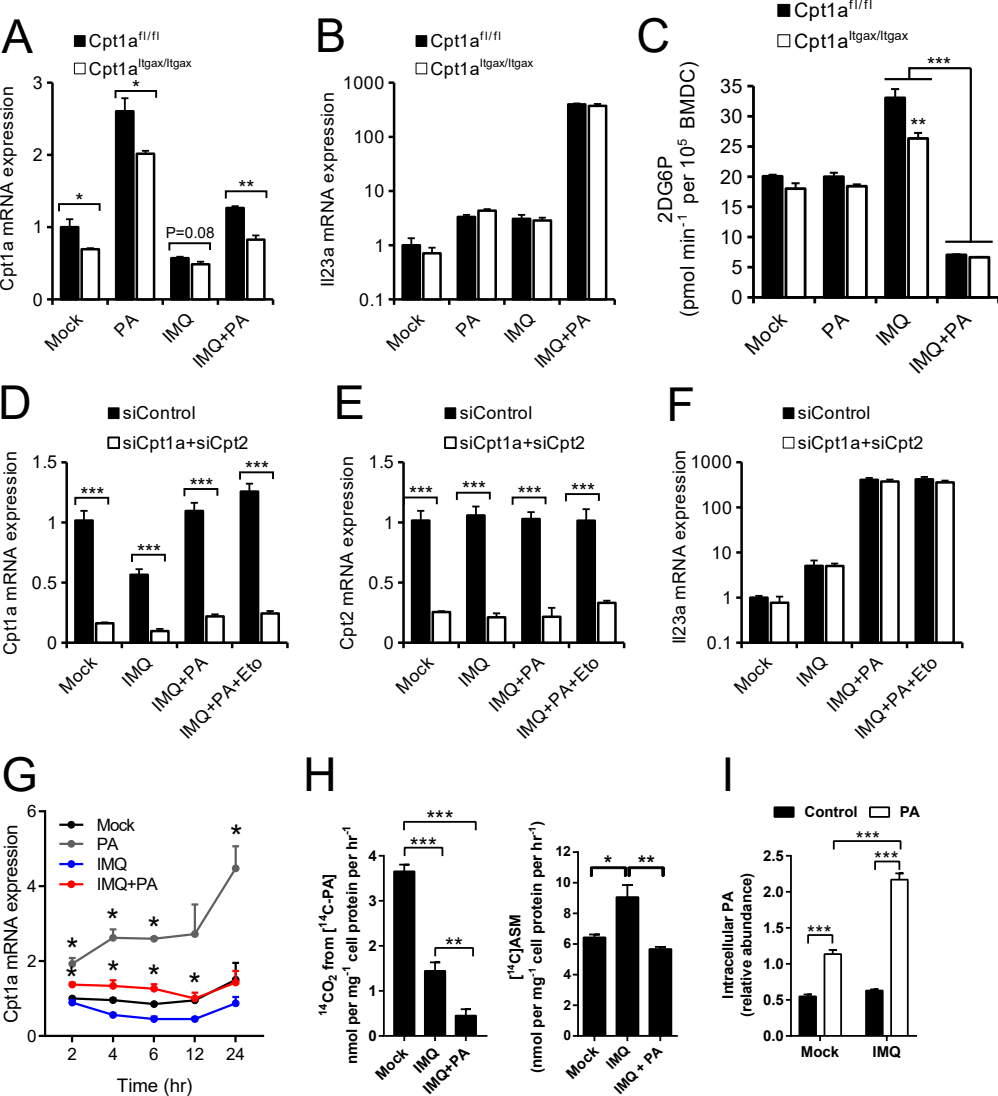


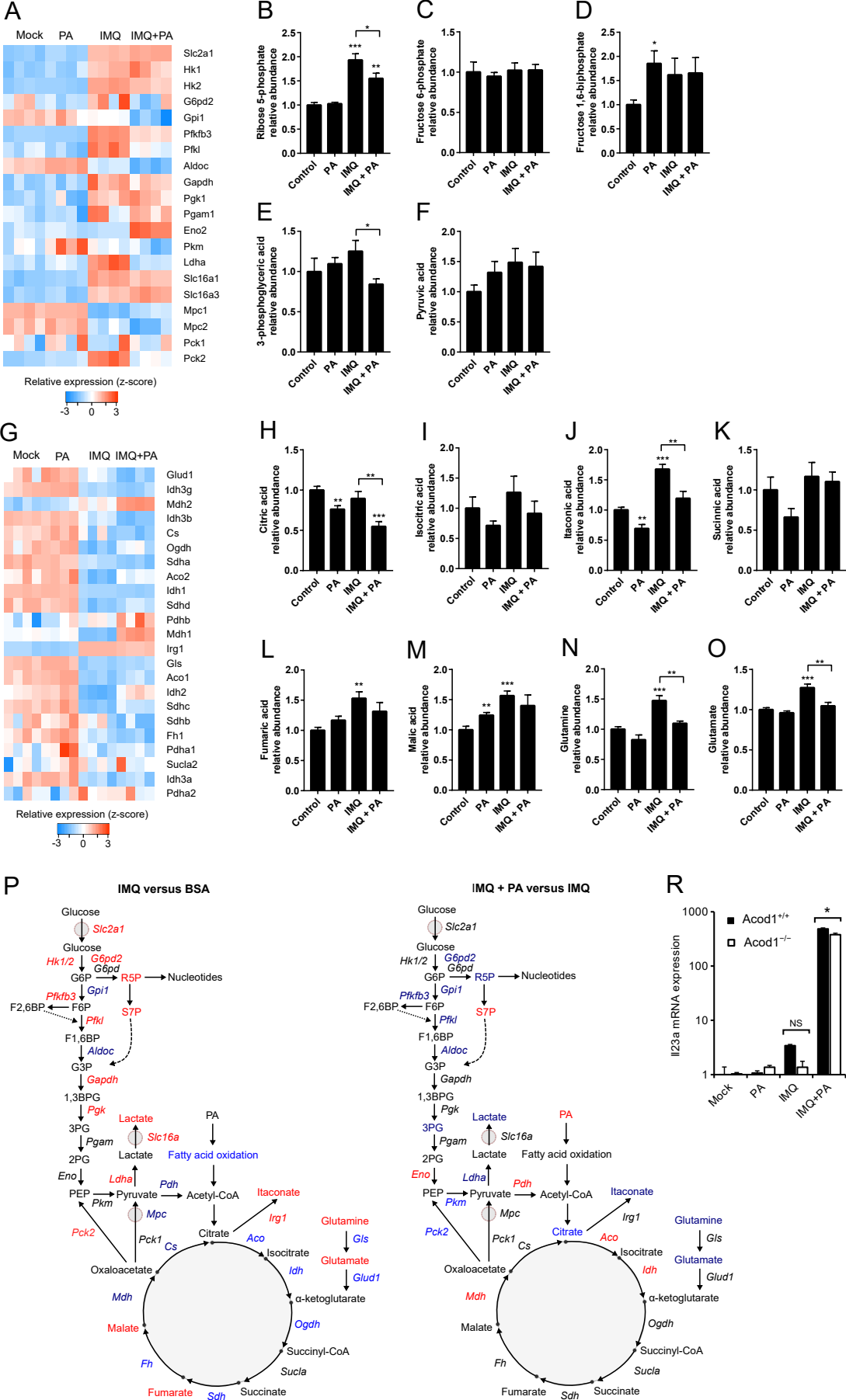
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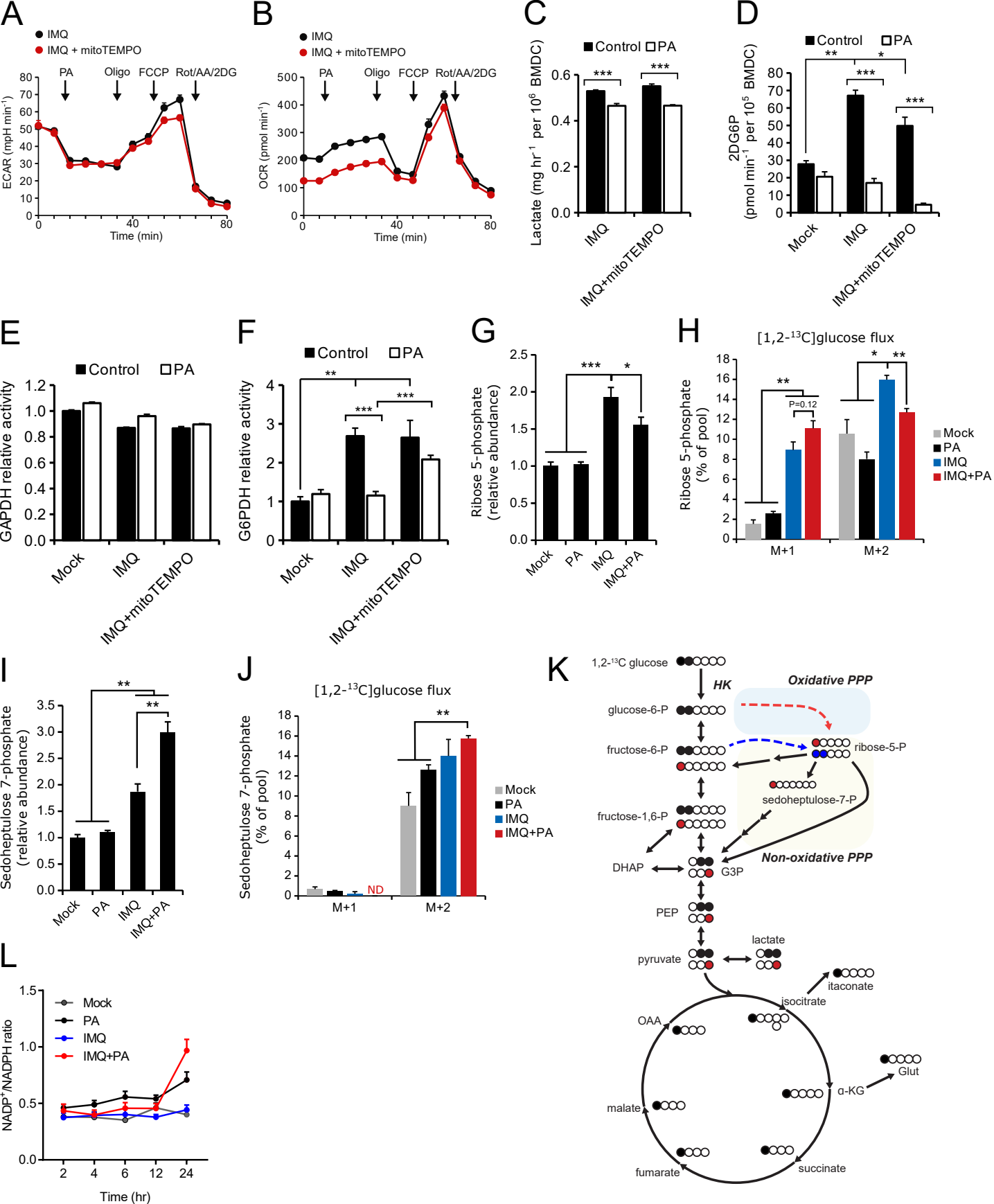


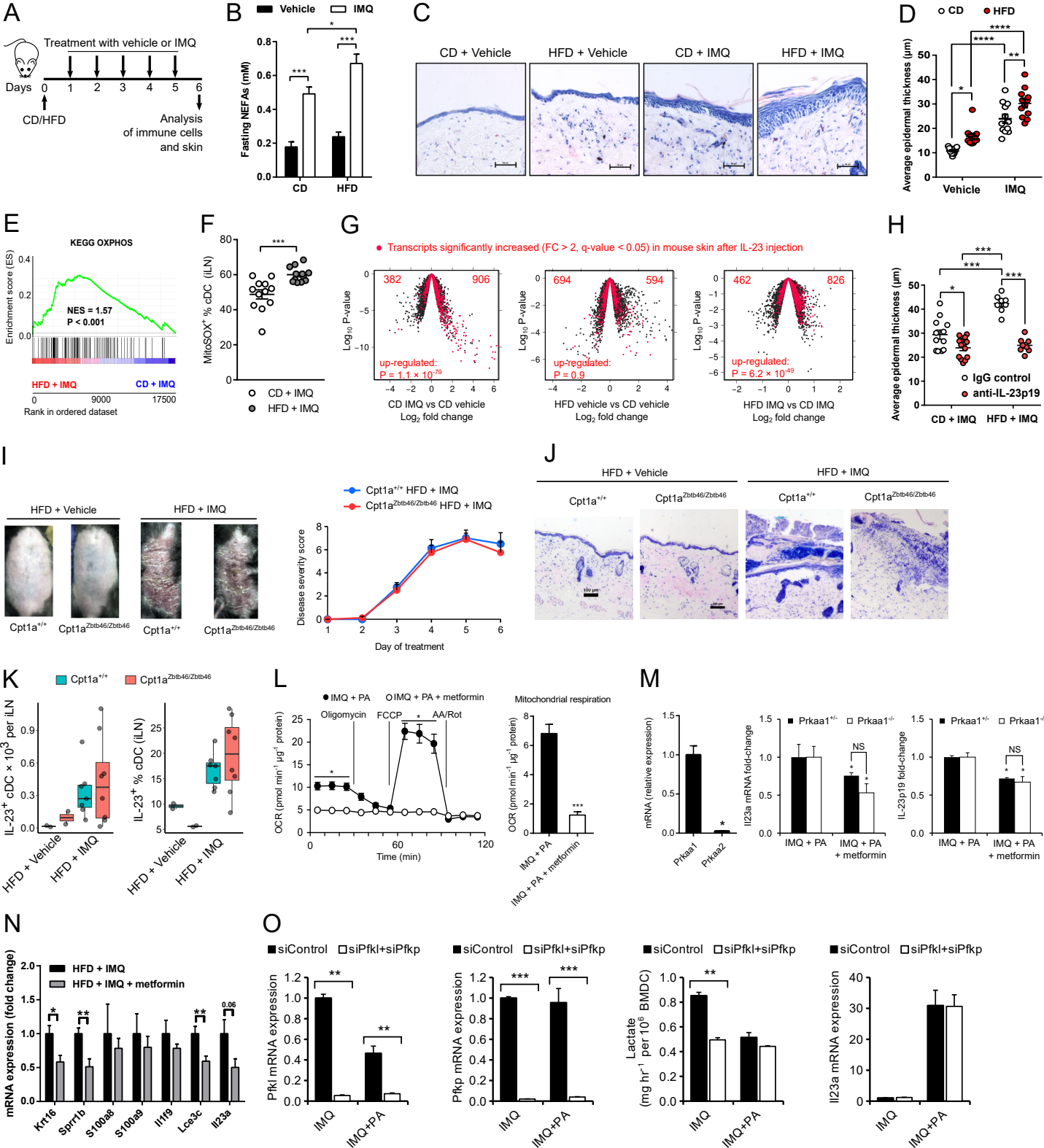


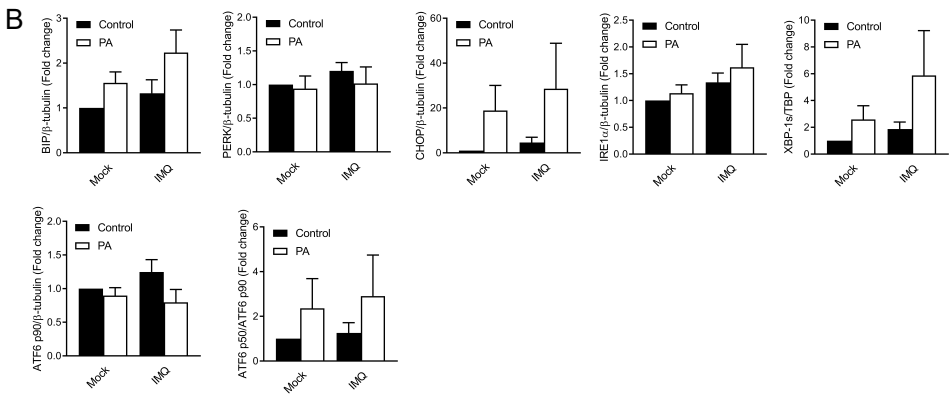
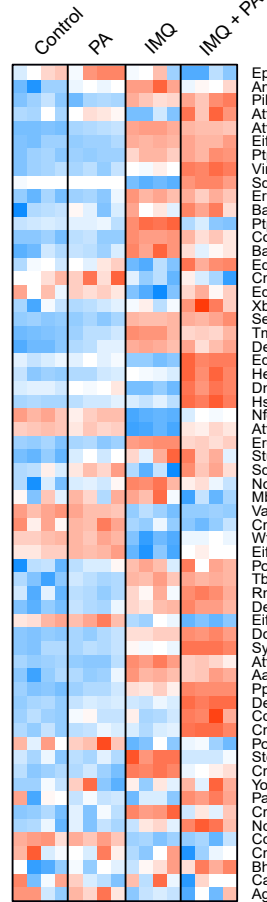




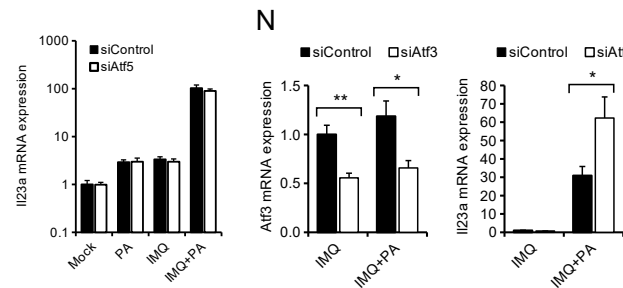
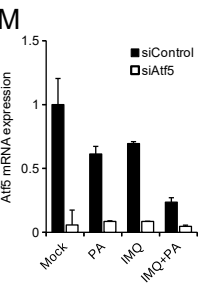
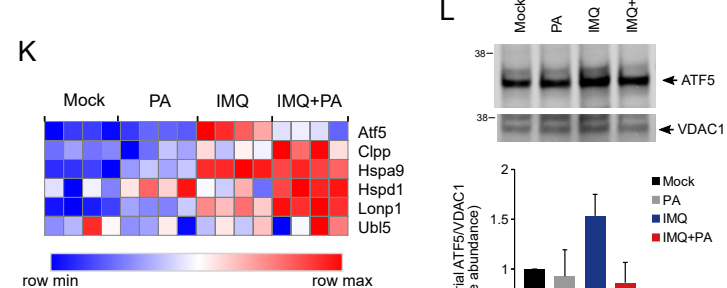
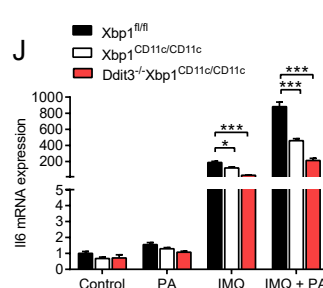
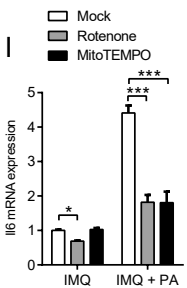
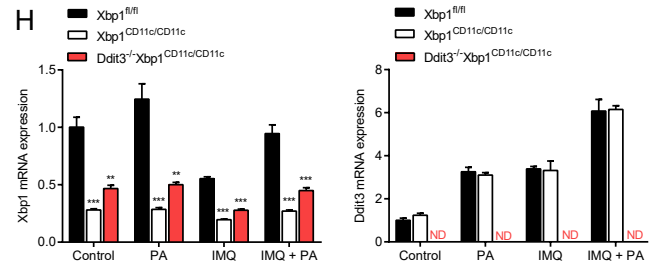
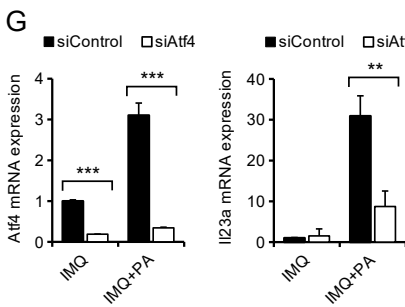
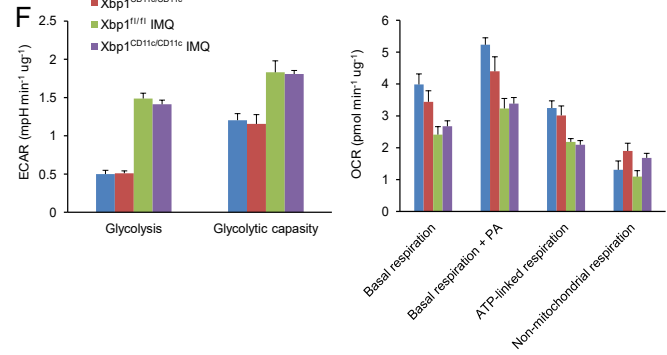
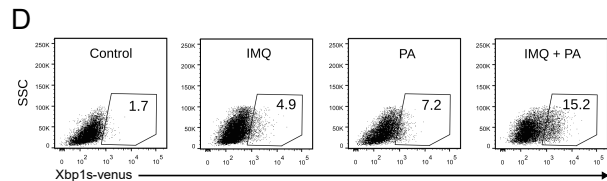
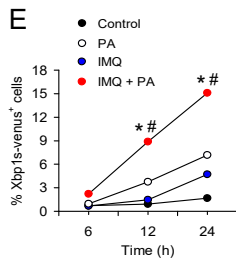
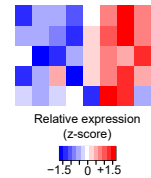








C IMQ + CD IMQ + HFD



Supplemental Table S1

Gene	Forward	Reverse
Hprt1	GTGATTAGCGATGATGAACC	GCAAGTCTTTCAGTCCTGTC
Il23a	CCAGCAGCTCTCTCGGAATC	AAGCAGAACTGGCTGTTGTC
Rpl4	CTGAACCCTTACGCCAAGAC	CCTTCTCGGATTTGGTTGCC
Pfkfb3	CCGCTCTCATCTGTCTCGTG	CCCACAGGATCTGGGCAAC
Hspa5	TGCAGCAGGACATCAAGTTC	TACGCCTCAGCAGTCTCCTT
Ddit3	CCTAGCTTGGCTGACAGAGG	CTGCTCCTTCTCCTTCATGC
Xbp1	CCTGAGCCCGGAGGAGAA	CTCGAGCAGTCTGCGCTG
Xbp1s	GAGTCCGCAGCAGGTG	GTGTCAGAGTCCATGGGA
Il6	CCACGGCCTTCCCTACTTCA	CCACGATTTCCAGAGAACATG
Il12a	CAAACCAGCACATTGAAGA	AGCTCCCTCTTGTTGTGGAA
Hif1a	CGCCTCTGGACTTGTCTCTT	TCGACGTTCAGAACTCATCCT
Prkaa1	ACCTGAGAACGTCCTGCTTGATGC	CACCTCGGGCCTGCGTACA
Prkaa2	TGCTGGATGCCAGATGAACGC	CCTCAGGTGCTGCATAATTTGGCG
Gls	TGCGAACATCTGATCCCAGG	TGAATTTGGCCAGCTGAGGA
Gls2	CTCGACTTGGTGACCTGCTT	GCACAATGTTGCTGCTCACA
Mapk8	GTCATTCTCGGCATGGGCTA	CTGGGAACAAAACACCACCTT
Mapk9	CTGGGCATGGGCTACAAAGA	TGAACTCTGCGGATGGTGTT
Cpt1a	ACGTTGGACGAATCGGAACA	CCATGCAGCAGAGATTTGGC
Cpt2	CAACTCGTATACCCAAACCCAGTC	GTTCCCATCTTGATCGAGGACATC
Pfkl	CCGCTGTAAGGCCTTCACTACGAG	TTATCGATGGAGCCCACCAGACC
Pfklp	CCCATGGTTATGGTTCCTGCT	GTCCCACTGGCTGACTGTTT
Atf4	GTGGCCAAGCACTTGAAACC	GGAAAAGGCATCCTCCTTGC
Atf5	GGGCACGGCTAGAAGGAAAT	AGGCAGCGTGGAAAGATTGTT
Atf3	CTTCCCCAGTGGAGCCAATC	TCATTTTGCTCCAGTCTTCGC
Krt16	CGGCCCACTGAGATCAAAGA	AGCTCATTCTCGTACTTGGTCC
Sprr1b	CCAGCGACCACACTACCTGT	TTGTTGCTCATGCAACTGTGG
S100a8	CCGTCTTCAAGACATCGTTTGA	GTAGAGGGCATGGTGATTTCCCT
S100a9	AATGGTGAAGCACAGTTGG	CTGGTTTGTGTCCAGGTCCTC
Il1f9	TACAGCTTGGGGAAGGGAACA	TAGAGCAGACAGCGATGAACC
Lce3c	TCAGCACAGCCTTCTTCTCC	GCACTTTGGGGAGCACTTTG

Supplemental Table S2

Region	Forward	Reverse
Il23a-ChIP-SiteA	GCTTCCAACCCTCCAGATCC	ACCTTCCCAGTCCTCCAAGT
Il23a-ChIP-SiteB	CCTCTAGCCACAACAACCTC	CCTTCACACTAGCAGGTGACT
Il23a-ChIP-SiteC	TTGCATCCACGGGTAAAACC	GCTTCCCTGGGTGTTACATCA

KEY RESOURCES TABLE

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
Antibodies		
GRP78 (BiP), rabbit polyclonal Ab	Abcam	Cat# ab21685
PERK, clone C33E10, rabbit monoclonal Ab	Cell Signaling	Cat# 3192
IRE1 α , clone 14C10, rabbit monoclonal Ab	Cell Signaling	Cat# 3294
GADD 153 (CHOP), rabbit polyclonal Ab	Santa Cruz	Cat# sc-575
GADD 153 (CHOP), clone B-3, mouse monoclonal Ab	Santa Cruz	Cat# sc-7351
TBP, clone mAbcam 51841, mouse monoclonal Ab	Abcam	Cat# ab51841
β -Tubulin, clone TUB 2.1, mouse monoclonal Ab	Sigma	Cat# T5201
XBP-1, rabbit polyclonal Ab	Santa Cruz	Cat# sc-7160
ATF6, clone 70B1413, mouse monoclonal Ab	Abcam	Cat# ab11909
Hexokinase I, clone C35C4, mouse monoclonal Ab	Cell Signaling	Cat# 2024
ATF5, clone EPR18286, rabbit monoclonal Ab	Abcam	Cat# ab184923
VDAC1, clone B-6, mouse monoclonal Ab	Santa Cruz	Cat# sc-390996
JNK, rabbit polyclonal Ab	Cell Signaling	Cat# 9252
Phospho-JNK, clone G9, mouse monoclonal Ab	Cell Signaling	Cat# 9255
Normal rabbit IgG	Cell Signaling	Cat# 2729
CD19 PE-CF594, clone 1D3, mouse monoclonal Ab	BD Biosciences	Cat# 562291
CD3 FITC, clone 145-2C11, hamster monoclonal Ab	BD Biosciences	Cat# 562286
CD64 BV711, clone X54-5/7.1, mouse monoclonal Ab	Biolegend	Cat# 139311
Ly6G PE-Cy7, clone 1A8, rat monoclonal Ab	Biolegend	Cat# 127618
MHCII IA/IE Alexa Fluor 700	Biolegend	Cat# 107622
CD11c APC-Cy7, clone M5/114.15.2, rat monoclonal Ab	Biolegend	Cat# 117324
IL-6 PE, clone MP5-20F3, rat monoclonal Ab	Biolegend	Cat# 504504
IL23p19 eFlour660, clone fc23cpg, rat monoclonal Ab	eBioscience	Cat# 50-7023-80
Chemicals, Peptides, and Recombinant Proteins		
Recombinant mouse GM-CSF	PeptoTech	Cat# 315-03
2-NBDG	Thermo Fisher	Cat# N13195
MitoTracker Green FM	Thermo Fisher	Cat# M7514
MitoSOX Red	Thermo Fisher	Cat# M36008
LPS from E. coli	Sigma	Cat# L3024
Pam3CSK4	InvivoGen	Cat# tlrl-pms
Poly(I:C)	InvivoGen	Cat# tlrl-pic
Imiquimod	Calbiochem	Cat CAS 99001-02-6
Curdlan	InvivoGen	Cat# tlrl-curd
Furfurman	InvivoGen	Cat# tlrl-ffm
SN50	Enzo	Cat# BML-P600-0005
Sodium dichloroacetate (DCA)	Tocris	Cat# 2755
Triacsin C	Cayman chemical	Cat# 76896-80-5
Recombinant murine TNF- α	PeptoTech	Cat# 315-01A

Recombinant murine IL-1 β	PeproTech	Cat# 211-11B
MitoPQ	Abcam	Cat# ab146819
Palmitic acid	Sigma	Cat# P0500
Oleic acid	Sigma	Cat# O1008
2-methylhexadecanoic acid	Sigma	Cat# PH010298
Linoleic acid	Sigma	Cat# L1376
Octanoic acid	Sigma	O3907
Bovine serum Albumin, essentially fatty acid free	Sigma	Cat# A6003
Etomoxir	Sigma	Cat# E1905
2-deoxy-D-glucose	Sigma	Cat# D6134
Rotenone	Sigma	Cat# R8875
Metformin	Sigma	Cat# D150959
MitoTEMPO	Sigma	Cat# SML0737
4 μ 8C	Tocris	Cat# 4479
GSK2606414	Calbiochem	Cat# CAS 1337531-89-1
Tunicamycin	Sigma	Cat# SMB00071
Glucose	Sigma	Cat# G8769
RIPA buffer	Cell Signaling	Cat# 9806
Complete Protease inhibitor cocktail	Sigma	Cat# 000000011697498001
PhosSTOP	Sigma	Cat# 00000004906845001
Control "Lanette" cream	Fagron	Cat# 1289-511
HyClone Fetal calf serum (FCS)	GE Healthcare	Cat# SH30071
Critical Commercial Assays		
Zombie UV Fixable Viability Kit	Biologend	Cat# 423107
Ovation Pico WTA System V2	NuGen	Cat# 3302
GeneChip WT PLUS Reagent Kit	Affymetrix	Cat# 902118
GeneChip WT Terminal Labeling Kit	Affymetrix	Cat# 900720
GeneChip Mouse Gene 2.0 ST Array	Affymetrix	Cat# 902500
Pierce Protein A/G magnetic beads	Thermo Fisher	Cat# 88802
Agencourt AMPure	Beckman Coulter	Cat# A63880
Mouse IL-23 DuoSet ELISA	R&D Systems	Cat# DY1887
RNAeasy Micro Kit	Qiagen	Cat# 74004
Dnase I, Rnase-free	Thermo Fisher	Cat# EN0521
High-capacity cDNA reverse transcription kit	Thermo Fisher	Cat# 4319983
NuPAGE LDS Sample buffer	Thermo Fisher	Cat# NP0007
NuPAGE 4-12% Bis-Tris Protein Gel	Thermo Fisher	Cat# NP0321BOX
iBlot 2 nitrocellulose Transfer stacks	Thermo Fisher	Cat# IB23001
Lactate Assay Kit	Trinity Biotech	Cat# 735-10
GSH-Glo™ Glutathione Assay	Promega	Cat# V6911
Glucose Uptake-Glo™ Assay	Promega	Cat# J1341
Glucose-6-Phosphate Dehydrogenase Activity Assay	Cayman	Cat# 700300
KDAlert™ GAPDH Assay	Thermo Fischer	Cat# AM1639
ADP/ATP Ratio Assay Kit	Abcam	Cat# ab65313
Trizol reagent	Thermo Fisher	Cat# A33251

Mouse Dendritic Cell Nucleofector Kit / Nucleofector II/2b	Lonza	Cat# VPA-1011
Seahorse XF Cell Mito Stress Test Kit	Agilent Technologies	Cat# 103015-100
SYBR Green Master Mix	Diagenode	Cat# DMMLD2D600
Deposited Data		
Mouse skin microarray data	This paper	GSE68750
GM-DC microarray data	This paper	GSE110962
cDC microarray data	This paper	GSE110963
Experimental Models: Cell Lines		
Bone marrow-derived dendritic cells differentiated in the presence of GM-CSF (GM-DC)	This paper	N/A
Experimental Models: Organisms/Strains		
Mouse: Tlr4 ^{-/-} : B6.B10ScN-Tlr4lps-del/JthJ	Institut Pasteur de Lille, France	007227
Mouse: Acod1 ^{-/-} : C57BL/6NJ-Acod1em1(IMPC)J/J	Institut Pasteur de Lille, France	MGI:5749792
Mouse: Prkaa1 ^{+/-} : 129S2/SvPas-Prkaa1 ^{tm1Sbj}	Institut Cochin, Rene Descartes University, Paris, France	MGI:3029359
Mouse: Prkaa1 ^{-/-} : 129S2/SvPas-Prkaa1 ^{tm1Sbj}	Institut Cochin, Rene Descartes University, Paris, France	MGI:3029359
Mouse: Hif1a ^{Vav/Vav} : B6.129-Hif1atm3Rsjo/J; (CBA/Ca x C57BL/10)F2-Tg(Vav1-icre)A2Kio	MRC Centre for Regenerative Medicine, University of Edinburgh, UK	N/A
Mouse: Hif1a ^{fl/fl} Rosa26CreE: B6.129-Hif1atm3Rsjo/J; B6-129-Gt(ROSA)26Sortm1(cre/ERT)Nat/J;	Department of Molecular Medicine and Gene Therapy, Lund Stem Cell Center, Sweden	N/A
Mouse: Ddit3 ^{-/-} : B6.129S(Cg)-Ddit3tm2.1Dron/J	Division of Molecular Biology, Institute for Genome Research, Tokushima University, Japan	005530
Mouse: Xbp1 ^{CD11c/CD11c} : 129S6/SvEvTac-Xbp1tm2Glm; B6.Cg-Tg(Itgax-cre)1-1Reiz/J	VIB Center for Inflammation, Gent University, Belgium; or Department of Medicine, Weill Cornell Medical College, New York, USA	N/A
Mouse: Ddit3 ^{-/-} Xbp1 ^{CD11c/CD11c} : B6.129S(Cg)-Ddit3tm2.1Dron/J; 129S6/SvEvTac-Xbp1tm2Glm; B6.Cg-Tg(Itgax-cre)1-1Reiz/J	VIB Center for Inflammation, Gent University, Belgium	N/A
Mouse: ERAi: Tg(CAG-XBP1*/Venus)#Miur	VIB Center for Inflammation, Gent University, Belgium	MGI:4939273

Mouse: Hif1a ^{Tie2/Tie2} : B6.129-Hif1atm3Rsjo/J; (B6.Cg-Tg(Tek-cre)1Ywa/J	William Harvery Research Institutes, Queen Mary University London, UK	N/A
Mouse: Cpt1a ^{Ilgax/Ilgax} : Cpt1atm1.1Pec; B6.Cg-Tg(Ilgax-cre)1-1Reiz/J	Institute of Infection Immunology, Hannover, Germany	N/A
Mouse: Cpt1a ^{Zbtb46/Zbtb46} : Cpt1atm1.1Pec; Zbtb46tm1Kmm/J	William Harvery Research Institutes, Queen Mary University London, UK	N/A
Mouse: WT: C57BL/6J	Charles River	027
Oligonucleotides		
Mouse Cpt1a siRNA	Dharmacon	Cat# M-042456
Mouse Cpt2 siRNA	Dharmacon	Cat# M-043177
Mouse Pfk1 siRNA	Dharmacon	Cat# M-060388
Mouse Pfkp siRNA	Dharmacon	Cat# M-059341
Mouse Atf3 siRNA	Dharmacon	Cat# M-058604
Mouse Atf4 siRNA	Dharmacon	Cat# M-042737
Mouse Atf5 siRNA	Dharmacon	Cat# M-045123
Mouse Mapk8 siRNA	Dharmacon	Cat# M-040128
Mouse Mapk9 siRNA	Dharmacon	Cat# M-040134
Mouse Gls siRNA	Dharmacon	Cat# M-043336
Mouse Gls2 siRNA	Dharmacon	Cat# M-063540
SiGENOME non-targeting siRNA pool #1	Dharmacon	Cat# D-001206
Mouse Pfkfb3 siRNA	OriGene	Cat# SR416726
Universal scrambled negative control siRNA	OriGene	Cat# SR30004
Mouse qPCR Primers, see Table S1	N/A	N/A
ChIP-qPCR Primers, see Table S2	N/A	N/A
Recombinant DNA		
Software and Algorithms		
Prism version 6	GraphPad	N/A
GSEA Desktop v3.0	Broad Institute	http://software.broadinstitute.org/gsea/index.jsp
Affy version 1.60.0	Bioconductor	http://bioconductor.org/packages/release/bioc/html/affy.html
Limma version 3.38.3	Bioconductor	http://bioconductor.org/packages/release/bioc/html/limma.html
FlowJo version 8	Tree Star	https://www.flowjo.com/

Phantastus	Artyomov Lab, Washington University in St. Louis	https:// artyomovlab.wustl.ed u/phantastus/
Diva version 7.0	Becton Dickinson	http:// www.bdbiosciences.c om/us/instruments/ research/software/ flow-cytometry- acquisition/bd- facsdiva-software/m/ 111112/overview
Other		
High Fat Diet (HFD; 60% kcal fat)	Research diets	Cat# D12492
Aldara 5% IMQ cream	Meda AB	N/A
DMEM media	Thermo Fisher	Cat# 11960044
Mitochondrial Respirometry Solution (<i>MiR05</i>)	Oroboros Instruments	# 60101-01 http://www.bioblast.a t/index.php/MiR05- Kit
ImmunoHistoFix	Gentaur	# amp-202
ImmunoHistoWax	Gentaur	# amp-201