

HHS Public Access

Author manuscript Cell Rep. Author manuscript; available in PMC 2021 June 14.

Published in final edited form as:

Cell Rep. 2021 April 27; 35(4): 109038. doi:10.1016/j.celrep.2021.109038.

Characterization of HIV-induced remodeling reveals differences in infection susceptibility of memory CD4+ T cell subsets in vivo

Guorui Xie1,2, **Xiaoyu Luo**1, **Tongcui Ma**1,2, **Julie Frouard**1,2, **Jason Neidleman**1,2, **Rebecca Hoh**4, **Steven G. Deeks**3, **Warner C. Greene**1,4, **Nadia R. Roan**1,2,5,*

¹Gladstone Institute of Virology, San Francisco, CA 94158, USA

²Department of Urology, University of California, San Francisco, San Francisco, CA 94158, USA

³Division of HIV, Infectious Diseases and Global Medicine, University of California San Francisco, San Francisco, CA 94110, USA

⁴Departments of Medicine and Microbiology and Immunology, University of California, San Francisco, San Francisco, CA 94158, USA

⁵Lead contact

SUMMARY

Relatively little is known about features of T cells targeted by HIV *in vivo*. By applying bioinformatics analysis to mass cytometry (CyTOF)-phenotyped specimens from individuals with viremia and in-vitro-infected cells from uninfected donors, we provide an atlas of the phenotypes of in vivo and in vitro HIV-susceptible cells. T helper 17 (Th17) and α 4 β 1⁺ cells are preferentially targeted in vivo, whereas T effector memory (Tem), T transitional memory (Ttm), Th1, and Th1/ Th17 subsets are targeted in vitro. Multiple proteins—including chemokine and cytokine receptors —are remodeled by HIV *in vivo*, and these changes are mostly recapitulated *in vitro*. HIV remodels cells to a T follicular helper (Tfh) phenotype. Using clustering, we uncover a subset of CD29-expressing, Tem-like cells that are highly susceptible to infection in vivo and in vitro and experimentally confirm that susceptibility. These studies provide an in-depth look at features of HIV-susceptible cells in individuals with viremia and demonstrate that some—but not all—HIVsusceptible cells identified in vitro effectively model in vivo susceptibility.

Graphical abstract

This is an open access article under the CC BY license ([http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/\)](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/).

^{*}Correspondence: nadia.roan@gladstone.ucsf.edu.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

G.X. designed and conducted experiments, performed data analysis, and edited the manuscript; J.F. and J.N. helped with experimental design; X.L. and T.M. performed data analysis; R.H. and S.G.D. identified and provided clinical specimens; W.C.G. supervised data analysis and edited the manuscript; and N.R.R. conceived ideas for the study, supervised the study, helped design experiments, and wrote the manuscript. All authors read and approved the manuscript.

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Supplemental information can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.celrep.2021.109038.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

In brief

Xie et al. provide an in-depth view of the features of uninfected, HIV-infected, and bystander cells from individuals with viremia as compared with in vitro HIV infection. By applying bioinformatics approaches on CyTOF datasets, they describe the features of HIV-susceptible cells and identify surface receptors remodeled during in vivo infection.

INTRODUCTION

Multiparameter analysis of single cells using a growing array of "-omics" technological and analytical approaches has over the past 10 years revolutionized immunology research by providing an unprecedented high definition of individual cells. One such technology has been mass cytometry (CyTOF), which uses metal-labeled antibodies to simultaneously quantitate the levels of ~40 different surface and intracellular proteins on individual cells. Although not as unbiased or high-parametric as single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq), CyTOF allows for characterization of cells at the protein level, which better reflects cellular function. Furthermore, its relatively high-throughput capability enables characterization of rare populations of cells without the need for extensive pre-purification. In addition to providing a high-resolution "picture" of immune cells, the high-dimensional nature of CyTOF datasets has enabled implementation of various pseudotime analytical approaches that place individual cells along developmental trajectories (Bendall et al., 2014).

The ability of pseudotime approaches to trace cells in a perturbed system back to cells in a pre-perturbation state is particularly advantageous for the study of infection by HIV and other viruses that extensively remodel the host cells they infect (Cavrois et al., 2017; Ma et al., 2020; Sen et al., 2014). Remodeling of CD4+ T cells by HIV includes downregulation of cell-surface CD4 and CD28 and upregulation of select homing receptors upon infection (Garcia and Miller, 1991; Ma et al., 2020; Swigut et al., 2001). HIV-induced remodeling makes it challenging to determine whether differential features of infected cells result from preferential infection of cells harboring those features, HIV-induced changes via remodeling, or a combination of both processes. To address that issue, we previously developed a method, called predicted precursor, as determined by single-cell linkage for distance estimation (PP-SLIDE), which adapted a prior method quantitating viral-induced remodeling (Sen et al., 2014) to predict the original features of HIV-susceptible cells before HIV-induced remodeling (Cavrois et al., 2017). PP-SLIDE takes advantage of the fact that, despite HIV-induced remodeling, enough of the original (pre-infection) phenotypic features of the infected cell are retained in a manner that can be captured by high-dimensional analyses of CyTOF datasets. In vitro infection experiments implementing PP-SLIDE entailed mock treating or infecting a diverse population of primary cells with HIV and then phenotyping the cells by CyTOF. By matching every HIV-infected remodeled cell to the corresponding "atlas" of uninfected (UI) cells from the mock-treated sample, the likely original phenotypes of cells targeted for HIV infection were identified. This approach was previously implemented on tonsillar and endometrial CD4+ T cells infected in vitro with a CCR5-tropic reporter HIV and was validated through a variety of sorting experiments and functional assays (Cavrois et al., 2017; Hsiao et al., 2020; Ma et al., 2020; Neidleman et al., 2020).

However, few studies have analyzed the phenotypes of cells infected by HIV in vivo. One reason is the technical challenge of unambiguously identifying those cells in specimens from individuals with viremia. Because these cells tend to be rare, relative to the infected cells resulting from *in vitro* infection, their identification using the common fluorescenceactivated cell sorting (FACS) approach of staining for intracellular Gag is ineffective because of a low signal-to-noise ratio. This problem was overcome recently by staining invivo-infected cells simultaneously for HIV RNA and Gag expression (Baxter et al., 2016) or using two different anti-Gag antibodies (Pardons et al., 2019) during FACS analysis. Such dual-staining approaches overcame the signal-to-noise issue and were used to characterize, by FACS, the phenotypes of infected cells from patients with viremia, as well the phenotypes of reactivated cells after ex vivo stimulation of cells from virally suppressed patients (Baxter et al., 2016; Pardons et al., 2019). However, these studies did not address the problem of post-infection cell remodeling.

Here, we characterize, by CyTOF, the phenotypes of in vivo HIV-infected cells by dually labeling peripheral blood mononu-clear cells (PBMCs) from viremic HIV-infected individuals with two metal-conjugated anti-Gag antibodies and implementing PP-SLIDE on the CyTOF datasets to trace the remodeled, HIV-infected cells to their predicted preinfection phenotypes. This was accomplished by analyzing paired longitudinal specimens of infected individuals when they were viremic, versus when they were virally suppressed on antiretroviral therapy (ART). PP-SLIDE enabled us to assess not only what cells were

preferentially targeted for HIV infection in vivo but also to what extent various proteins were remodeled during *in vivo* infection. Finally, by conducting a parallel set of studies, in which PP-SLIDE analysis was implemented on *in-vitro*-infected PBMCs, we were able to compare and contrast the features of HIV-susceptible cells in vitro versus in vivo and to dissect which remodeling features that occur *in vitro* also manifest *in vivo*.

RESULTS

Comparison of in vitro and in vivo UI, HIV-infected, and bystander T cells

A CyTOF panel was designed to phenotype HIV-infected CD4+ T cells (STAR Methods). This panel included two different sets of anti-Gag antibodies labeled with different metal isotopes to enable detection of the rare in-vivo-infected cells. PBMCs from 11 HIV-infected participants were used in this study. For each participant, we obtained two specimens: one from a time point during which the participant was viremic and off ART, and the other, when the participant was virally suppressed on ART (STAR Methods). Cells from the virally suppressed time point were used as a source of patient-matched cells lacking productively infected cells because pre-infection specimens from the patients were not available and are, in general, difficult to procure. Cryopreserved cells from these specimens were revived, labeled with the CyTOF phenotyping panel, run on a mass cytometer, and analyzed for the presence of infected cells. Although the frequencies of infected $(Gag⁺)$ cells were negligible in the suppressed time points, they were readily apparent in the viremic samples (Figures 1A and S1). The infected cells expressed high levels of CD3, but low levels of CD4, consistent with downregulation of cell-surface CD4 by HIV in the infected cells.

For comparison, we also infected PBMCs from seven HIV-seronegative donors with a CCR5-tropic HIV expressing the transmitted/founder (T/F) Env109FPB4 (Cavrois et al., 2017; Ma et al., 2020). To better match the in vivo specimens, the PBMCs were not stimulated with a mitogen before infection because stimulation markedly alters the phenotypes of the cells, making direct comparison to the in vivo samples challenging. Instead, cells were exposed to concentrated viral stocks to achieve infection rates that were sufficient for deep phenotypic analysis. Analysis of the *in vitro* specimens revealed a clear population of infected cells that were absent in the UI control (Figures 1A and S1). Only a subset of those cells had downregulated CD4. Interestingly, relative to their CD4high counterparts, the in vitro HIV-infected cells that had downregulated CD4 were enriched among T effector memory (Tem) cells and under-represented among T central memory (Tcm) cells, and differentially expressed multiple markers within our CyTOF panel (Figure S2). To match as closely as possible the *in-vitro*- and *in-vivo*-infected cells, for all subsequent analyses, we restricted our analyses of infected cells to those with low levels of CD4, which are, likely, cells at a later stage in the HIV infection cycle.

We first conducted a systematic comparison of UI, infected, and bystander cells. All populations were pre-gated on CD3+CD8− cells to include infected cells that had downregulated cell-surface CD4. In-vitro-UI cells were defined as cells in the UI culture, whereas *in-vivo*-UI cells were defined as cells in the specimen from the suppressed time point. In vitro bystander cells were cells in the infected culture that were not Gag^+ , whereas in vivo bystander cells were cells in the viremic specimen that were not Gag^{+} . In vitro, mean

expression levels of the main HIV co-receptor CCR5 were higher in infected, than UI, cells, consistent with selection of high-CCR5-expressing cells by the T/F virus. Interestingly, however, CCR5 levels were equivalent between the UI and infected cells in the *in vivo* specimens (Figure 1B). In vivo bystander cells, interestingly, expressed the highest levels of CCR5, whereas in vitro bystander cells expressed low levels of the co-receptor.

Expression levels of activation markers, checkpoint molecules, and homing receptors were also compared within the in vivo and in vitro cell populations (Figures 1C and 1D). In both sets of specimens, the activation markers human leukocyte antigen-DR iso-type (HLA-DR), CD38, and O×40 and the checkpoint/activation antigens PD1 and CTLA4 were all higher on infected cells than they were on bystander or UI cells, consistent with infected cells being in an activated state. The homing receptors CD49d, CD29, and CCR6 were more highly expressed on infected than UI or bystander cells both in vitro and in vivo. However, the homing receptor CXCR5 was not and even showed reduced expression on infected cells *in* vitro. Conversely, the interleukin-7 (IL-7) receptor CD127 was expressed at low levels on infected cells *in vivo* but not *in vitro*. The full set of antigens quantitated on UI, bystander, and infected cells are presented in Figures 1 and S3. Collectively, these results suggest that the phenotypic features of infected and bystander cells are largely shared between in vivo and in vitro infection conditions, but exceptions exist.

HIV preferentially targets different subsets of memory CD4+ T cells during in vivo versus in vitro infection

Differentially expressed antigens on HIV-infected cells, relative to UI cells, could reflect preferential infection of cells expressing those markers or result from the up- or downregulation of those markers after HIV infection. For instance, both in vivo and in vitro, the memory T cell marker CD45RO was expressed at higher levels on infected cells (Figure S3). Although this likely results from HIV preferentially targeting memory CD4⁺ T cells over naive ones, theoretically, it could also result from upregulation of CD45RO on naive cells after infection. Supporting the possibility of HIV-induced remodeling was our finding of significant viral-induced remodeling in infected cells, as determined by SLIDE (Sen et al., 2014), with no difference in the extent of remodeling between the in vivo and in vitro specimens (Figure 2A). To assess which subsets are preferentially targeted by HIV for infection, we implemented PP-SLIDE (Cavrois et al., 2017; Ma et al., 2020), which takes advantage of the fact that, although HIV infection will change the phenotypes of the cells, some "identity" of the original cell is still retained in a way that can be re-captured by bioinformatics analysis of the high-dimensional datasets. To conduct PP-SLIDE on the in vivo specimens, we identified, for every HIV-infected remodeled cell (elliptical-shaped cells in Figure 2B), the phenotypically most similar cell among UI $CD4^+$ T cells in the paired, virally suppressed sample. These identified predicted precursor cells, or PRE cells, harbor the predicted phenotypes of the original cells targeted for infection. For the in vitro specimens, individual HIV-infected cells from the HIV-exposed culture were mapped to their most-similar cell in the mock-treated culture (Figure 2B). Comparing the PRE cells to the total UI population enabled us to assess which subsets were preferentially targeted for infection, without the confounder of HIV-induced remodeling.

We first determined the frequencies of naive and memory cells among the UI and PRE cells. Although both memory (CD45RO+CD45RA−) and naive (CD45RO−CD45RA+) cells were well-represented among total CD4⁺ T cells, PRE cells were almost exclusively of the memory phenotype (Figures 2C and S4). These results suggest that, both *in vivo* and *in vitro*, HIV preferentially targets memory $CD4^+$ T cells over naive ones, as opposed to HIV upregulating CD45RO after infection of naive cells. We then assessed other major subsets of T cells among the UI, PRE, and infected CD4⁺ T cells (Figure 2D, 2E, and S5). In vivo, Tcm, T transitional memory (Ttm), T follicular helper (Tfh), T helper 1 (Th1), Th17, and cell subsets expressing high levels of the homing receptors α 4β7 or α 4β1 were preferentially targeted for infection, as defined by significantly higher frequencies among the PRE relative, to the UI, cells. *In vitro*, Tem, Ttm, Th1, Th1/Th17, and cell subsets expressing high levels of α4β7 were preferentially targeted. As all these subsets belong in the memory compartment, we considered the possibility that their observed preferential infection may in large part be due to preferential infection of memory over naive cells (Figure 2C). To test that possibility, we re-analyzed the data using memory CD4+ T cells, instead of total CD4+ T cells, as the UI control population. Under these conditions, the preferentially targeted subsets for in vivo infection were now limited to only Th17 cells and those expressing high levels of α4β1 (Figure S6). This suggests that, with the exception of those two subsets, most subsets observed to be preferentially infected by HIV in vivo could be explained by preferential infection of memory over naive cells. We did not observe phenotypic differences in UI CD4⁺ T cells, UI memory CD4⁺ T cells, PRE cells, or HIVinfected cells dependent on whether the ART-suppressed time point was obtained before, versus after, the viremic time point (Figure S7). For the in vitro specimens, Tem, Ttm, Th1, and Th1/Th17 cells were found to be at higher levels in PRE cells, relative to memory CD4⁺ T cells, suggesting their preferential susceptibility to HIV infection (Figure S6). Interestingly, although Tem and Ttm were preferentially targeted, Tcm was preferentially spared. These findings are consistent with prior reports of blood-derived Tem being more susceptible than their Tcm counterparts to in vitro infection with HIV (Groot et al., 2006; Ma et al., 2020).

Together, these data suggest that, in vivo, memory CD4+ T cells, particularly Th17 cells and those expressing high levels of α4β1, are preferentially targeted for productive HIV infection. In vitro, memory $CD4^+$ T cells are also preferentially targeted, but these targeted cells are of the Tem, Ttm, Th1, and Th1/Th17 subsets. A summary of subset features preferentially targeted for infection, or spared from it, are presented in Table S1.

Identification of antigens remodeled during HIV infection

We next determined which proteins were remodeled by HIV by identifying proteins differentially expressed on HIV-infected cells, relative to the PRE cells. We first confirmed that the memory markers CD45RO and CD45RA were not among those remodeled by HIV, by demonstrating that the mean signal intensity (MSI) of CD45RA and CD45RO were not significantly different between infected and PRE cells (Figure 3A).

We then conducted similar analyses for all the other antigens in our phenotyping panel. We also included UI memory CD4+ T cells (taken from the virally suppressed time point for the

in vivo specimens and the mock-treated sample from the *in vitro* specimens) in our analysis. This enabled the simultaneous identification of antigens marking preferentially infected cells (by comparing PRE and UI memory CD4+ T cells) and of antigens remodeled by infection (by comparing the PRE and infected cells). The reason for comparing PRE cells to UI memory $CD4^+$ T cells, as opposed to total $CD4^+$ T cells, was to avoid the confounding effect of naive cells, which are present in total CD4+ T cells but not in PRE cells.

Assessment of the six chemokine receptors in our panel revealed only CCR5 to be consistently upregulated by HIV during infection (Figure 3B). It was only in vitro, however, that there was also a trend for pre-selection by HIV for cells expressing high levels of CCR5. Because CCR5 is not only the main HIV co-receptor during transmission but also an activation marker, it is possible that entry of HIV into CCR5-expressing cells activates the cell so as to upregulate CCR5 expression further. Interestingly, the other major HIV-coreceptor, CXCR4, was expressed at lower levels on infected cells relative to their UI counterparts (Figure 3B). In vivo, this was due to preferential selection of $CXCR4^{\text{low}}$ cells for infection, followed by further downregulation of CXCR4, whereas, in vitro, we only observed a selection for CXCR4low cells without a further downregulation of CXCR4. In contrast, CCR6, a marker of Th17 cells, was downregulated by HIV during in vitro but not in vivo infection (Figure 3B).

We then assessed the remodeling of T cell activation markers. Of the activation markers CD69, CD38, HLA-DR, CD25, Ox40, and inducible T cell co-stimulator (ICOS), only CD38 was upregulated by HIV infection, and this occurred both *in vivo* and *in vitro* (Figure 3C). The high levels of CD38 on HIV-infected cells were due to a combination of both selecting CD38high cells for infection and further CD38 upregulation. The checkpoint molecules PD1, T cell immunoglobulin and ITIM domain (TIGIT), and CTLA4 are preferentially expressed on exhausted T cells but also serve as activation markers. Of these checkpoint molecules, only CTLA4 was upregulated by HIV, and this only occurred in vivo (Figure 3D).

Lastly, we assessed whether any proteins were downregulated by HIV both *in vivo* and *in* vitro. CD127, the α-chain of the IL-7 receptor, and CD28, a co-stimulatory receptor targeted for degradation by HIV-1 Nef (Cavrois et al., 2017; Swigut et al., 2001), were downregulated by HIV both in vivo and in vitro. Additional markers downregulated by HIV included the Tcm markers CD62L and CCR7, although that downregulation only occurred for the *in vivo* specimens (Figures 3E and S8). The remodeling profile of all the antigens not shown in Figure 3 is presented in Figure S8.

In sum, the remodeling analyses revealed a variety of protein antigens that were up- or downregulated by HIV during in vivo infection, including receptors for chemokines and cytokines and markers of T cell activation, some of whom could be recapitulated in vitro. A summary of protein antigens similarly remodeled in the *in vivo* and *in vitro* specimens are presented in Table S2.

Markers identified by unbiased clustering enrich for preferential HIV targets among CD4+ T cells

Having used manual gating and PP-SLIDE to identify subsets of cells that were preferentially targeted for infection and to characterize their remodeling, we then implemented a more unbiased method, FlowSOM, to try to identify novel features of cells preferentially targeted for infection by HIV. FlowSOM divided CD4+ T cells from all specimens into 20 clusters (Van Gassen et al., 2015) based on expression levels of CyTOF phenotyping parameters. Some clusters preferentially harbored memory cells, whereas others preferentially harbored naive cells (Figure S9). Consistent with the unequal susceptibility of different cell subsets to HIV infection, PRE cells and the total UI CD4+ T cells distributed to different clusters (Figures 4A and S10).

We then looked for clusters that were preferentially enriched in the PRE cells, relative to the total UI $CD4^+$ T cells. These clusters correspond to cellular subsets that are preferentially targeted for HIV infection. Both in vivo and in vitro, clusters 12 and 13 were significantly enriched among the PRE cells (Figure 4B). Relative to the total UI CD4⁺ T cells, both of these clusters expressed high levels of CD45RO and low levels of CCR7 and CD62L, consistent with their harboring a more Tem-like phenotype than a Tcm-like one. They also expressed more CD69, PD1, and the β1 integrin (CD29), consistent with a more-activated phenotype, and expressed less CD57, consistent with a less terminally differentiated state (Figures 5A and 5B). Although CD27 was expressed at high levels in cluster 12, it was expressed at low levels in cluster 13. Interestingly, we also identified some clusters that were preferentially targeted for infection only in vivo or in vitro. Clusters 1 and 8 were significantly over-represented in PRE cells *in vivo*, but not *in vitro*, whereas cluster 15 was over-represented in PRE cells *in vitro* but not *in vivo* (Figure 4B). All three of these clusters were memory (CD45ROhigh) and Tem-like (CCR7^{low}) but varied in their expression of other antigens (Figures 5C–5E). Importantly, although all the HIV-susceptible clusters that were identified were memory cells, not all clusters of memory cells were preferentially susceptible. For example, clusters 2, 4, and 9 were predominantly of the memory phenotype but were not preferentially targeted by HIV for infection (Figure S9). These preferentially spared clusters differentially expressed some markers, including elevated levels of Tcm markers (CCR7, CD62L, and CD27), relative to the preferentially targeted clusters 12 and 13 (Figure S11).

To validate these findings, we manually searched for a limited set of antigens that were differentially expressed on preferentially infected cells both in vivo and in vitro (antigen patterns shared by clusters 12 and 13), only in vivo (antigen patterns shared by clusters 1 and 8), or only in vitro (antigen patterns in cluster 15). Manual gating of the datasets based on the six markers that together define clusters 12 and 13

(CD45ROhighCCR7low/medCD62LlowCD69med/highCD29med/high CD57low/med) was sufficient to significantly enrich for PRE cells both *in vivo* and *in vitro* (Figure 6A). Similar analyses using markers shared between clusters 1 and 8 enabled significant enrichment of HIV-susceptible cells in vivo (28-fold), but not in vitro (Figure 6B). Cluster 15 features were similarly validated by confirming their ability to significantly enrich for *in-vitro-* but not *in*vivo-susceptible cells (Figure 6C).

Finally, we set out to experimentally validate the clustering data. Markers of HIV-susceptible cells that are shared between in vivo and in vitro specimens would serve as useful tools for establishing in vitro models of infection that better mimic HIV-infected cells in vivo. Therefore, we set out to confirm that surface antigens identified from clusters 12 and 13 enrich for HIV-susceptible cells. Of the six differentially expressed antigens collectively defining clusters 12 and 13, CD45RO and CCR7 are commonly used to define Tem cells, which are commonly defined as CD45ROhigh T cells expressing low levels of CCR7. We therefore asked whether Tem cells included cells with differential susceptibilities to in vitro infection by HIV. We first gated on CD45ROhigh CCR7low/med cells and, within that population, determined a gating strategy leading to cells characteristic of clusters 12 and 13 and to cells outside these clusters. The former population we called "population-1" (CD3+CD4+CD45RO+CD45RA

[−]CCR7low/medCD29med/highCD69med/highCD62LlowCD57low/med), and the latter "population-2" (CD3+CD4+CD45RO+CD45RA-CCR7low/medCD29lowCD69low and not CD62L^{low}CD57^{low/med}). Although population-1 was predicted to be preferentially susceptible to infection because of their over-representation in PRE relative to UI cells, population-2 was predicted to be relatively resistant because of their under-representation in PRE relative to UI cells (Figure 7A). Population-1 and population-2 cells were sorted from four UI donors (Figure S12) and then exposed to the HIV-1 CCR5-tropic reporter virus F4.HSA. Four days later, infection rates were determined by flow cytometry. In all four donors, population-1 cells were infected at higher rates than the population-2 cells were (Figure 7B), demonstrating that a handful of surface markers defining clusters 12 and 13 could enrich for HIV-susceptible cells. Because clusters 12 and 13 were also preferentially targeted for HIV infection in vivo, future studies characterizing in vitro HIV infection of these cells may serve as a viable model to better understand active HIV replication in the blood of people living with HIV.

DISCUSSION

In this study, we take advantage of high-parameter single-cell phenotyping to establish an indepth view of the features of HIV-infected cells in the blood of individuals with viremia and directly compare them to PBMCs infected in vitro with HIV. Using bioinformatics approaches, we assess which cellular subsets are preferentially targeted for infection and which antigens are remodeled by HIV. As resources for the research community, we provide (1) expression levels of each CyTOF phenotyping parameter on UI, infected, and bystander cells; (2) expression levels of each CyTOF phenotyping parameter on PRE cells compared with infected and UI cells, enabling assessment of which antigens are likely to be up- or downregulated by HIV during infection; (3) the proportion of common cellular subsets among UI, PRE, and infected cells, enabling assessment of which subsets are preferentially targeted for productive infection by HIV; and (4) the raw, high-dimensional datasets.

Most prior studies examining the susceptibility of cellular subsets to HIV infection have used *in vitro* systems because direct phenotyping of infected cells from individuals with viremia is more challenging. HIV-infected cells in the blood of individuals are rare relative to frequencies that can be achieved *in vitro*, thereby necessitating approaches that help distinguish true infected cells from background. Similar to a previous study (Pardons et al.,

2019), we used two sets of anti-Gag antibodies to increase the signal-to-noise ratio from invivo-infected cells; however, we used CyTOF, instead of flow cytometry, for our readout. Almost all infected cells from individuals with viremia had downregulated cell-surface CD4, in contrast to in-vitro-infected cells, in which only a fraction of the cells had done so. The downregulation of cell-surface CD4 can be mediated by Nef, Vpu, and Env (Doms and Trono, 2000; Lama, 2003; Piguet et al., 1999). Why CD4 downregulation is more potent in vivo than in vitro is unclear, but could potentially be driven by faster viral replication kinetics in vivo, because Vpu and Env are produced relatively late in the HIV replication cycle. Interestingly, the expression pattern of the CCR5 co-receptor was also different, depending on whether the cells were from the *in vivo* or *in vitro* specimens. Although *in* vivo CCR5 levels were equivalent between UI and infected cells, they were higher on invitro-infected cells. Because CCR5 is a gut-homing chemokine receptor, it is possible that infected cells expressing high levels of CCR5 are rapidly recruited to the gastrointestinal tract, rendering them no longer detectable in the blood.

One main advantage of high-dimensional phenotyping by CyTOF is that it enabled assessment of whether antigens differentially expressed on infected cells likely resulted from preferential infection of cellular subsets differentially expressing those antigens, or HIVinduced changes in antigen expression, or a combination of the two. This distinction was accomplished by PP-SLIDE, a bioinformatics approach, whereby HIV-remodeled cells are traced to their likely original state by matching them to their "nearest-neighbor" cell in an atlas of UI CD4+ T cells from the same donor. The approach assumes that, despite HIVinduced remodeling, some of the original "identity" of the infected cell is retained in a manner that can be captured by single-cell, high-dimensional phenotyping, such as that offered by CyTOF. We have previously implemented PP-SLIDE on tonsillar and genital T cells infected in vitro with HIV and to trace ex-vivo-reactivated reservoir cells to their original, latent state (Cavrois et al., 2017; Ma et al., 2020; Neidleman et al., 2020). We validated the predictions made by PP-SLIDE in various ways. For example, PP-SLIDE predictions that CD127-expressing memory CD4+ T cells from tonsils were preferentially spared from productive infection was validated by infecting pre-purified CD127− versus $CD127⁺$ memory $CD4⁺$ T cells from the tonsils and demonstrating that $CD127⁺$ cells preferentially underwent latent infection by HIV (Cavrois et al., 2017; Hsiao et al., 2020). We also demonstrated that surface markers identified by PP-SLIDE on unstimulated reservoir cells enrich for genome-intact and replication-competent latent cells from virally suppressed individuals living with HIV (Neidleman et al., 2020).

In this study, by identifying a set of PRE cells harboring the predicted phenotypes of the cells most susceptible to infection before HIV-induced remodeling, we assessed which antigens were likely up- or downregulated during in vivo or in vitro infection. Of six canonical activation markers (CD69, CD38, HLA-DR, CD25, Ox40, and ICOS), only CD38 was significantly upregulated on infected cells relative to UI memory CD4⁺ T cells both *in* vivo and in vitro. Interestingly, PP-SLIDE suggested that both in vivo and in vitro, this was due to a combination of HIV preferentially infecting CD38high cells, followed by further upregulation of this activation marker. These results suggest that the well-accepted notion that HIV-infected cells are activated is context specific and depends on the activation

markers used to define these cells. In this context, CD38 may be a good universal marker for defining the activated state of HIV-infected cells.

We also identified some surface antigens that, based on PP-SLIDE, were predicted to be downregulated by HIV infection. CD28, a co-receptor that mediates "signal 2" of T cell receptor (TCR) signaling, and CD127, a receptor important in IL-7 signaling, were both expressed at significantly lower levels on infected cells than they were on PRE cells. CD28 downregulation by HIV has been well characterized in vitro and demonstrated to be mediated by the Nef protein (Cavrois et al., 2017; Swigut et al., 2001). Our data from the individuals with viremia suggest that Nef-mediated CD28 downregulation also occurs in vivo. In contrast, CD127 downregulation by HIV has not previously been reported. In fact, the paucity of CD127-expressing HIV-infected tonsillar T cells was not ascribed to CD127 downregulation but to the inability of CD127-expressing cells to sustain a productive HIV infection (Cavrois et al., 2017; Hsiao et al., 2020). The reason for the discrepancy between blood and tonsil T cells is unclear but may be due to different signaling pathways involving CD127 in these two compartments. Supporting this notion is the observation that CD57, a marker of permissive tonsillar $CD4^+$ T cells, is co-expressed with CD127 on $CD4^+$ T cells from blood but not from tonsils (Cavrois et al., 2017).

We also used PP-SLIDE to assess which cellular subsets were preferentially targeted for HIV infection *in vivo* and *in vitro*. Because we had access to paired viremic and virally suppressed specimens from the same donors, we compared HIV-infected cells to UI cells from the suppressed time point and not UI cells from the viremic time point because these cells would exhibit bystander effects from the inflammatory environment of active HIV replication.

Numerous subsets were over-represented among PRE cells, relative to UI CD4+ T cells (Tcm, Ttm, Tfh, Th1, Th17, and CD4⁺ T cells that were α 4 β ⁺ or α 4 β 1⁺ for *in vivo* specimens; and Tem, Ttm, Th1, Th1/Th17, and CD4⁺ T cells that were α 4 β 7⁺ for *in vitro* specimens), suggesting preferential infection of these subsets. Because PRE cells consisted almost exclusively of memory T cells, the most useful comparison was between PRE cells and the memory T cells of UI specimens. This comparison revealed that only Th17 cells and memory α4β1⁺ CD4⁺ T cells were preferentially infected in vivo and, in vitro, Tem, Ttm, Th1, and Th1/Th17 cells. The preferential infection of Th17 cells in vivo is consistent with cells expressing the Th17 marker CCR6 harboring more HIV DNA than those lacking expression of this marker in individuals with viremia (Gosselin et al., 2010). The analysis comparing PRE to memory $CD4+T$ cells also revealed memory subsets that were preferentially spared from infection, including CXCR3−CCR4−cells in vivo and Tcm, Tfh, Th17, Th2, and CXCR3[−]CCR4[−]cells *in vitro*. The molecular mechanisms underlying the discrepancies observed between the *in vivo* and *in vitro* data remain to be worked out but may be due to differences between primary isolates and reporter viruses, different kinetics of infection, migration of cell populations into and out of blood during untreated in vivo infection, and/or the differences in cell death of cellular subsets in the two systems.

Interestingly, both in vivo and in vitro, the frequencies of Tfh were significantly higher among the infected cells than they were in PRE cells. Of all the subsets we examined, Tfh

were the only ones that exhibited that feature. The higher frequencies of Tfh in infected relative to PRE cells suggest that after infection, HIV may increase co-expression of PD1 and CXCR5, the markers we had used to define Tfh. Therefore, our observed higher frequencies of Tfh in infected cells, relative to UI ones, also reported by others (Baxter et al., 2016; Pardons et al., 2019), may be due not to a preferential infection of Tfh, but rather, the ability of HIV to remodel cells to resemble Tfh. Our *in vitro* data, in fact, suggest that, relative to other memory T cell subsets, Tfh were disfavored for infection, but remodeling of the infected cells made them take on features of Tfh. This observation cautions against making assumptions of cellular susceptibilities based solely on the phenotypes of HIVinfected cells and highlights the complexities associated with characterizing virally remodeled cells.

Because our manual gating approach did not identify memory T cell subsets that were preferentially targeted both in vivo and in vitro, we turned to unbiased computational clustering approaches to try to identify such subsets. Clustering algorithms identify subsets in a more unbiased and comprehensive manner than manual gating based on a small, select number of subset-defining markers. Of the 20 clusters of CD4⁺ T cells that were defined, 17 consisted predominantly of memory cells, two primarily of naive cells, and one a mix of both. As expected, the clusters containing naive cells were not among those preferentially susceptible to infection. Interestingly, many clusters of memory cells were also not preferentially targeted, consistent with the notion that not all memory $CD4^+$ T cells are equally susceptible to infection. Although we identified memory T cell clusters that were preferentially targeted for infection only in vivo (clusters 1 and 8) or in vitro (cluster 15), we focused on the two (clusters 12 and 13) that were preferentially infected both in vivo and in vitro. To find a limited number of markers that could identify highly susceptible cells both in vivo and in vitro, we searched for shared markers between clusters 12 and 13 that were differentially expressed relative to total memory CD4+ T cells and identified as highly susceptible cells those that were

CD45ROhighCCR7lowCD69highCD29highCD62LlowCD57low. Cells that are

CD45ROhighCCR7low are characteristic of Tem cells, and our identification of these features from our clustering analyses is consistent with Tem cells being preferentially susceptible to infection by HIV (Groot et al., 2006; Ma et al., 2020). We postulated, however, that heterogeneity exists among them and that not all Tem cells are highly permissive and, therefore, designed a sorting experiment to purify Tem-like cells (defined as CD45ROhigh CCR7low/med) expressing the additional features of clusters 12 and 13

(CD69med/highCD29med/highCD62LlowCD57low/med). In vitro infection of these sorted cells confirmed our ability to identify HIV-susceptible versus less-susceptible Tem-like cells. Because the markers of clusters 12 and 13 are characteristic of HIV-susceptible cells both in vivo and in vitro, PBMCs sorted based on those markers could serve as a model for understanding HIV susceptibility in a system that more closely reflects HIV permissiveness in vivo.

In summary, we provide as a resource, datasets of surface antigens that are characteristic of UI, infected, bystander, and computationally predicted HIV-susceptible cells *in vivo* and *in* vitro and describe antigens predicted to be remodeled by HIV. We further provide a sort strategy to isolate, from PBMCs, a population of highly permissive $CD4+T$ cells, which can

serve as a model for understanding HIV susceptibility in vivo because the same subset was preferentially targeted for infection in individuals with viremia. Future studies to better understand cellular susceptibility to HIV infection in the context of *in vivo* HIV transmission should focus on characterizing HIV-infected cells from mucosal tissues. Such studies will likely require the use of animal model systems, such as non-human primates, because mucosal biopsies from untreated, acutely infected individuals are, for the most, part not feasible.

STAR★**METHODS**

RESOURCE AVAILABILITY

Lead contact—Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the lead contact, Nadia Roan (nadia.roan@gladstone.ucsf.edu).

Materials availability—This study did not generate new unique reagents.

Data and code availability—The raw CyTOF datasets generated from this study are available for download through the public repository Dryad via the following link: https:// doi.org/10.7272/Q6SF2TF6.

EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS

Human subjects—Cryopreserved PBMCs from 11 participants in the UCSF SCOPE cohort were analyzed. The SCOPE study is approved by the University of California, San Francisco (IRB # 10-01330), and all participants provided informed consent before participation. The clinical parameters of the participants are listed below. For each participant, two samples were used: one from when the participant was off therapy and viremic, and second from when the participant was ART-suppressed.

Abbreviations: M: Male; F: Female; ABC: Abacavir; CBV: Combovir; DDI: didanosine; EPZ: Epizicom; TDF: Tenofovir disoproxil fumarate; TRU: Truvada; EFV: Efavirenz; NVP: Nevirapine; ATV: Atazanavir; DRV: Darunavir; IDV: Indinavir; LPV: Lopinavir; NFV: Nelfinavir; RTVB: Ritonavir; ATL: Atripla; QUAD: Elvitegravir/Tenofovir/Emtricitabine/ Cobicistat; ENF: Enfuvirtide; RGV: Raltgravir; VL: Viral Load

METHOD DETAILS

Virus production—The CCR5-tropic HIV reporter virus F4.HSA (Cavrois et al., 2017) expresses heat stable antigen (HSA) under the HIV-1 LTR promoter, so cell-surface HSA can be used to identify productively infected cells. F4.HSA virions were generated by transfection of 293T cells. A total of 30 μg F4.HSA plasmid was diluted in 2 mL Optimem (GIBCO) and then mixed with 90 μg polyethylenimine HCL (PEI) (Poly-sciences). This mixture was incubated for 15 min at room temperature, and then added into 293T cells in 30 mL DMEM (Corning) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS, from VWR). Transfection was carried out in a T175 flask (Corning), at a time when 293T cells were at ~50% confluency. After 24 hours, media was changed to D10 media, consisting of DMEM supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and 1% Penicillin-Streptomycin-Glutamine (Thermofisher Scientific). After another 48 hours, supernatant from the 293T cells was collected and filtered through a 0.22 μm filter (Millipore), and then ultracentrifuged at 4°C for 2 hours at a speed of 20,000 rpm on a Beckman Coulter Optima XE-90. The virus pellet was then resuspended in RPMI (Corning), and viral titer was quantitated using the Lenti-X $P24^{Gag}$ Rapid Titer Kit (Takara).

Preparation of blood specimens—Cells from the SCOPE participants were thawed and cultured overnight to allow for antigen expression recovery. To prevent de novo infection and cell death during the overnight culture, cells were cultured in the presence of an ART cocktail (50 nM Raltegravir and 0.5 μg/ml T-20, both from NIH AIDS reagent program) and 10 μm of the pan-caspase inhibitor Z-VAD-FMK (R&D Systems Inc). Cells were then prepared for CyTOF analysis as described further below. To generate *in vitro-*

infected PBMCs, fresh blood was obtained from reduction chambers (Vitalant Research Institute). For every 10 mL blood, 20 mL FACs buffer (PBS with 2% FBS and 2 mM EDTA) was added. To each 30 blood/FACS buffer mixture, a total of 12.5 mL Ficoll (StemCell Technologies, Inc.) was added by slowly dispensing the Ficoll to the bottom of the tube. The Ficoll-treated cells were then centrifuged at 2,000 rpm at room temperature using an Allegra X-12R (Beckman Coulter) without engaging breaks at the end of the centrifugation. The layer of PBMCs was collected, transferred to a new tube, and washed 3X with FACS buffer. Cell pellets were then resuspended in RP10 media (RPMI supplemented with 10% FBS and 1% Penicillin-Streptomycin-Glutamine). Cells were added to a 96-well U-bottom plate (Falcon) at a concentration of 10^6 cells/well, with each well containing 200 μ L media. Cells were then either left in media alone, or exposed to 200–400 ng $p24^{Gag}$ / well for 4 days. Cells were then collected and cryopreserved to match the in vivo specimens which had gone through cryopreservation prior to CyTOF analyses. Similar to the in vivo specimens, cells were thawed and cultured overnight in the presence of the ART cocktail and Z-VAD-FMK. Cells were then prepared for CyTOF analysis as described below.

Mass cytometry (CyTOF)—Staining was conducted similar to previously described methods (Cavrois et al., 2017). A total of 6×10^6 cells / sample of the cells described above were loaded into each well of a 96-well deep well plate (ThermoFisher Scientific). In addition, as a quality control to validate antibody staining and to confirm lack of variability between sample runs, a batch of uninfected and HIV-infected tonsils generated as described (Cavrois et al., 2017; Ma et al., 2020) was processed through the same protocol in parallel. Of note, paired specimens (from the same HIV+ participant, or in vitro uninfected and HIVinfected cultures from the same PBMC donors) were always run within the same batch. Cells were washed twice at 4° C with CyFACs, consisting of 0.1% bovine serum albumin (BSA, Sigma), 0.1% NaAz (Sigma-Aldrich) and PBS (Rockland). Cells were then blocked at 4°C with 1.5% mouse sera (Thermo Fisher), 1.5% rat sera (Thermo Fisher), and 0.3% human AB sera (Sigma-Aldrich) sera. Cells were then washed twice with CyFACs, and then incubated for 45 min at 4°C with the cocktail of surface antibodies listed below in a volume of 100 μl/well. The cells were then washed 3X with CyFACS, and incubated for 30 min at 4°C with the live/dead discriminator 115In-DOTA maleimide diluted 1:1,000 in PBS. Cells were then washed 2X with CyFACS, and incubated at 4°C overnight with 2% paraformaldehyde (PFA, Electron Microscopy Sciences). Cells from each well were then incubated for 30 min at 4°C with 500 μL of Foxp3 Fix/Permeabilization Buffer (Fisher Scientific). Cells from each well were then washed 2X with Permeabilization Buffer (Fisher Scientific), and blocked for 15 min at 4°C with 15 μL mouse serum (Thermo Fisher) and 15 μL rat serum (Thermo Fisher) diluted with 80 μL Permeabilization Buffer. Cells from each well were then washed with Permeabilization Buffer, and incubated for 45 min at 4°C with a cocktail of intracellular antibodies listed below, diluted in 100 μL Permeabilization Buffer. Cells were then washed with CyFACS, and stained for 20 min at room temperature with 250 nM Cell-ID[™] Intercalator-IR (Fluidigm) diluted in 2% PFA in PBS. Cells were then washed twice with CyFACS and incubated overnight at 4°C. Prior to sample acquisition, cells were washed once with MaxPar® cell staining buffer (Fluidigm), once with Cell Acquisition Solution (CAS, Fluidigm), and then resuspended in 1X EQ Four Element Calibration Beads (Fluidigm) diluted with CAS. The concentration of cells was adjusted to achieve an

acquisition speed of ~300 events / second. Samples were injected using a wide-bore (WB) injector, and data acquired on a Helios-upgraded CyTOF2 instrument (Fluidigm) at the UCSF Parnassus Flow Core Facility.

*: Intracellular antibodies

Sorting—The sorting strategy to isolate Population-1 and Population-2 was designed based on a combination of assessing expression levels of each antigen on PRE versus total memory CD4+ T cells, determining how large were the populations expressing a particular pattern of antigens, and the availability of robust antibodies in an appropriate channel for sorting. This resulted in the design of the panel shown below. Fresh blood was obtained from reduction chambers (Vitalant Research Institute) of uninfected donors. PBMCs were purified by Ficoll as described above. CD4+ T cells were then purified by negative selection (Stem Cell Technologies), and then depleted of naive cells using CD45RA beads (Miltenyi Biotec). The resulting memory CD4+ T cells were stained for 10 min at room temperature with Zombie Aqua (Biolegend), washed once with FACS buffer, and then stained for 30 min at room temperature with the sorting antibodies (see table below), diluted in Brilliant Stain Buffer (BD Biosciences). The cells were then washed twice with FACS buffer, and sorted using an FACSAria™ II instrument (BD Biosciences). Of note, the anti-CD3 antibody used for sorting (clone SK7) does not activate T cells during the sorting process (Hsiao et al., 2020; Ma et al., 2020; Neidleman et al., 2020). Sorted cells were cultured in 96 well U bottom plates (Falcon) at a concentration of 0.5×10^6 cells/well, and mock-treated or infected with 60 ng/well of F4.HSA HIV-1 for 4 days. To assess infection levels, cells were collected, stained with Zombie Aqua (biolegend) and the FACS antibodies listed below, and fixed for 30 min at room temperature with 1% PFA. Intracellular staining for p24Gag was then performed by staining at 4°C for 30 min with FITC-labeled KC57 diluted in Permeabilization Buffer (Fisher Scientific). Cells were then washed twice with FACS buffer, and analyzed on an LSRFortessa™ flow cytometer (BD Biosciences).

Antibodies used for sorting

*

Antibodies were used for analytical flow cytometry

CyTOF data analysis—CyTOF datasets were normalized to EQ calibration beads to minimize variability in intra-machine performance (including between different runs) and gated within FlowJO software (BD Biosciences) for CD4+ T cells (defined as live, singlet

CD3+CD19−CD8−CD4+ cells from the suppressed/uninfected specimens), memory CD4+ T cells (defined as live, singlet CD3+CD19−CD8−CD4+CD45RO+CD45RA−cells from the suppressed/uninfected specimens), bystander cells (defined as

CD3+CD19−CD8−KC57−Gag− from the viremic/infected specimens), and productively infected cells (defined as CD3+CD19−CD8−KC57+Gag+CD4− from the viremic/infected specimens). Of note, our method of identifying productively infected cells would not detect infected cells harboring defective provirus incapable of producing Gag protein, nor would they detect latently infected cells not producing Gag protein.

Predicted Precursor (PRE) cells were derived from the productively infected cells similar to recently described methods (Ma et al., 2020; Neidleman et al., 2020). Of note, PP-SLIDE has proven effective as a predictive algorithm even when low numbers of query events (< 100 cells) are used to identification of PRE cells (Neidleman et al., 2020). In this study, the following steps were implemented to identify PRE cells:

1. Data cleanup and standardization:

CD3+CD19−CD8−CD4+ T cells from the suppressed/uninfected specimens and HIV-infected cells from the viremic/infected specimens were gated out and exported using Flowjo10. The following parameters, which do not contain useful information for identifying the original cell type, were removed from the analysis:

Raw expression values (signal intensity) of selected markers from each cell in the exported files were transformed by the inverse hyperbolic function (arcsinh) transformation as follows, in order to standardize the range of raw expression level scales:

$$
arsinh(x) = \ln\left(x + \sqrt{x^2 + 1}\right)
$$

2. Identification of PRE cell for each HIV-infected cell:

The Euclidean distance $(d_{F\ U})$ between each productively-infected cell F and each uninfected cell U (from the virally-suppressed sample, or the uninfected in vitro specimen) was calculated as follows:

$$
d_{F_U} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (F_i - U_i)^2}
$$

where n is the number of parameters analyzed and *i* refers to the parameter being analyzed. For example, for parameter 1, $F_i - U_i$ would correspond to the value of parameter 1 on the infected cell minus the value of parameter 1 on the uninfected cell. For each infected cell F, the d_F U of all the suppressed/uninfected cells U were sorted from lowest to highest to identify the shortest d_F U value. This corresponds to the $k = 1$ nearest neighbor uninfected cell for that infected cell F, or the PRE cell. After identifying the PRE cells corresponding to each infected cell, the expression values corresponding to the original data matrix were exported as a new FCS file for downstream analysis. These PRE cells correspond to a subset of the original data matrix corresponding to total uninfected cells. The FCS files of the PRE cells were further analyzed in FlowJO.

Cell populations (uninfected, infected, bystander, and PRE cells) were analyzed by manual gating in FlowJO. tSNE was used for data visualization, and was performed in Cytobank, with the following settings: Iteration = 16000; Perplexity = 45 ; Theta = 0.5. Markers used in the gating strategy (CD19, CD8, KC57, Gag) were excluded as tSNE parameters. FlowSOM (Van Gassen et al., 2015) was used to identify clusters from the high-dimensional CyTOF datasets. FlowSOM was performed in Cytobank, using the following settings: hierarchical consensus; metaclusters $= 20$; clusters $= 225$, iterations $= 10$, using the same parameters as those used for tSNE. The contribution of clusters with the uninfected and PRE cell populations were calculated by determining, for each specimen, the percentages of these clusters in these cell populations.

Raw Datasets—Raw datasets of CD4+ T cells, memory CD4+ T cells, infected cells, bystander cells, and PRE cells are available in the public repository Dryad, and accessible via the following link: https://doi.org/10.7272/Q6SF2TF6.

QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

SLIDE calculations to quantitate viral-induced remodeling were conducted using methods recently described (Ma et al., 2020; Sen et al., 2014) using the R package SLIDE (Mukherjee et al., 2018). Statistical details of experiments are displayed in the figures and figure legends. Unless otherwise indicated, all statistical analysis in the figures were conducted on all in vivo (n = 11 donors) and in vitro (n = 7 donors) specimens analyzed in this study. Mean signal intensity (MSI) levels were calculated from the CyTOF datasets in FlowJO and R, and compared between populations using the Student's two-sided paired t tests. P values were adjusted for multiple testing using False Discovery Rate (FDR) via the Benjamini-Hochberg method. FDR adjusted P values that were less than 0.05 were considered as significant. Error bars correspond to standard deviation (SD).

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported by the National Institutes of Health (R01AI127219 and R01AI147777 to N.R.R. and P01AI131374 to N.R.R. and W.C.G.) and the amfAR Institute for HIV Cure Research (109301). We also

acknowledge NIH for the sorter (S10-RR028962), support from CFAR (P30AI027763), and the James B. Pendleton Charitable Trust. We acknowledge the PFCC (RRID: SCR_018206) for assistance in CyTOF data acquisition, enabled by an instrument that was supported in part by the DRC Center grants NIH P30 DK063720 and NIH S10 1S10OD018040. The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript. We thank N. Lazarus and E. Butcher for the Act1 antibody; S. Tamaki, T.K. Peech, and C. Bispo for CyTOF assistance at the Parnassus Flow Core; J. Srivastava and N. Raman for assistance in flow cytometry at the Gladstone Flow Core; R. Thomas for assistance in statistical analysis; Viva Tai and Marian Kerbleski for assistance with the SCOPE specimens; F. Chanut for editorial assistance; and R. Givens for administrative assistance.

REFERENCES

- Baxter AE, Niessl J, Fromentin R, Richard J, Porichis F, Charlebois R, Massanella M, Brassard N, Alsahafi N, Delgado GG, et al. (2016). Single-cell characterization of viral translation-competent reservoirs in HIV-infected individuals. Cell Host Microbe 20, 368–380. [PubMed: 27545045]
- Bendall SC, Davis KL, Amir AD, Tadmor MD, Simonds EF, Chen TJ, Shenfeld DK, Nolan GP, and Pe'er D (2014). Single-cell trajectory detection uncovers progression and regulatory coordination in human B cell development. Cell 157, 714–725. [PubMed: 24766814]
- Cavrois M, Banerjee T, Mukherjee G, Raman N, Hussien R, Rodriguez BA, Vasquez J, Spitzer MH, Lazarus NH, Jones JJ, et al. (2017). Mass cytometric analysis of HIV entry, replication, and remodeling in tissue CD4⁺ T cells. Cell Rep. 20, 984-998. [PubMed: 28746881]
- Doms RW, and Trono D (2000). The plasma membrane as a combat zone in the HIV battlefield. Genes Dev. 14, 2677–2688. [PubMed: 11069884]
- Garcia JV, and Miller AD (1991). Serine phosphorylation-independent downregulation of cell-surface CD4 by nef. Nature 350, 508–511. [PubMed: 2014052]
- Gosselin A, Monteiro P, Chomont N, Diaz-Griffero F, Said EA, Fonseca S, Wacleche V, El-Far M, Boulassel MR, Routy JP, et al. (2010). Peripheral blood CCR4⁺CCR6⁺ and CXCR3⁺CCR6⁺CD4⁺ T cells are highly permissive to HIV-1 infection. J. Immunol 184, 1604–1616. [PubMed: 20042588]
- Groot F, van Capel TM, Schuitemaker J, Berkhout B, and de Jong EC (2006). Differential susceptibility of naïve, central memory and effector memory T cells to dendritic cell-mediated HIV-1 transmission. Retrovirology 3, 52. [PubMed: 16916447]
- Hsiao F, Frouard J, Gramatica A, Xie G, Telwatte S, Lee GQ, Roychoudhury P, Schwarzer R, Luo X, Yukl SA, et al. (2020). Tissue memory CD4⁺ T cells expressing IL-7 receptor-alpha (CD127) preferentially support latent HIV-1 infection. PLoS Pathog. 16, e1008450. [PubMed: 32353080]
- Lama J (2003). The physiological relevance of CD4 receptor down-modulation during HIV infection. Curr. HIV Res 1, 167–184. [PubMed: 15043201]
- Ma T, Luo X, George AF, Mukherjee G, Sen N, Spitzer TL, Giudice LC, Greene WC, and Roan NR (2020). HIV efficiently infects T cells from the endometrium and remodels them to promote systemic viral spread. eLife 9, e55487. [PubMed: 32452381]
- Mukherjee G, Panda A, Arvin AM, Sen A, and Sen N (2018). SLIDE: single cell linkage by distance estimation, R package version 1.0.0. [https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/SLIDE/index.html.](https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/SLIDE/index.html)
- Neidleman J, Luo X, Frouard J, Xie G, Hsiao F, Ma T, Morcilla V, Lee A, Telwatte S, Thomas R, et al. (2020). Phenotypic analysis of the unstimulated in vivo HIV CD4 T cell reservoir. eLife 9, e55487. [PubMed: 32452381]
- Pardons M, Baxter AE, Massanella M, Pagliuzza A, Fromentin R, Dufour C, Leyre L, Routy JP, Kaufmann DE, and Chomont N (2019). Single-cell characterization and quantification of translation-competent viral reservoirs in treated and untreated HIV infection. PLoS Pathog. 15, e1007619. [PubMed: 30811499]
- Piguet V, Schwartz O, Le Gall S, and Trono D (1999). The downregulation of CD4 and MHC-I by primate lentiviruses: a paradigm for the modulation of cell surface receptors. Immunol. Rev 168, 51–63. [PubMed: 10399064]
- Sen N, Mukherjee G, Sen A, Bendall SC, Sung P, Nolan GP, and Arvin AM (2014). Single-cell mass cytometry analysis of human tonsil T cell remodeling by varicella zoster virus. Cell Rep. 8, 633– 645. [PubMed: 25043183]
- Swigut T, Shohdy N, and Skowronski J (2001). Mechanism for down-regulation of CD28 by Nef. EMBO J. 20, 1593–1604. [PubMed: 11285224]

Van Gassen S, Callebaut B, Van Helden MJ, Lambrecht BN, Demeester P, Dhaene T, and Saeys Y (2015). FlowSOM: Using self-organizing maps for visualization and interpretation of cytometry data. Cytometry A 87, 636–645. [PubMed: 25573116]

Highlights

- The CD4 T cell subsets most susceptible to HIV infection differ in vivo versus in vitro
- **•** Multiple chemokine and cytokine receptors are remodeled by HIV in vivo
- **•** HIV remodels infected cells in vivo to resemble Tfh
- Identification of subset of highly permissive T cells shared in vivo and in vitro

Figure 1. Characterization of *in vivo* **and** *in vitro* **uninfected, bystander, and HIV-infected cells** (A) HIV-infected T cells were defined as CD3+CD8− cells that bound both sets of anti-Gag antibodies (KC57 and Gag-Ab2, a mix of the Gag antibody clones indicated in the STAR Methods) and that had downregulated cell-surface CD4. (Left) CD3⁺CD8[−] cells from the same individual (donor 2043) at a virally suppressed time point versus a viremic time point, showing CD4 downregulation on infected cells from the viremic time point. (Right) CD3+CD8− cells from mock-treated ("Uninfected" [UI]) versus HIV-exposed ("Infected") PBMC cultures, showing gating on CD4-downregulated cells among the Gag-expressing cells. The remaining in vivo and in vitro specimens are presented in Figure S1. (B) CCR5 is highly expressed on in vitro, but not in vivo, HIV-infected cells. Shown are the mean signal intensity (MSI) levels of CCR5 among UI, bystander (Gag− cells from viremic

specimens or *in-vitro*-infected cultures), and infected (INF) CD3⁺CD8[−] cells, displayed as bar graphs showing the individual specimens or as a histogram showing cells combined from all the specimens.

(C and D) Levels of activation markers (HLADR, CD38, and OX40), checkpoint molecules (PD-1, CTLA-4), homing receptors (CD49d, CD29, CCR6, and CXCR5) and the alpha chain of the IL-7 receptor (CD127) were compared among UI, bystander, and INF cells from the *in vivo* (C) or *in vitro* (D) specimens. The remaining antigens not shown here are presented in Figure S3. *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001 as determined by a Student's paired t test and adjusted for multiple testing using the Benjamini-Hochberg for falsediscovery rate (FDR); ns, not significant.

See also Figures S1–S3.

Figure 2. Characterization of *in vivo* **and** *in vitro* **HIV-susceptible cells by PP-SLIDE**

(A) HIV-infected cells from in vitro and in vivo specimens are similarly remodeled. Viralinduced remodeling was quantitated by SLIDE, a method that uses k-nearest-neighbor approaches to quantify remodeling based on global changes in expression levels of phenotyping parameters (Sen et al., 2014). A SLIDE score >1.0 indicates remodeling. (B) Schematic of the use of PP-SLIDE to characterize the features of HIV-susceptible cells. For the in vivo specimens, we identified, for every HIV-infected cell (represented by the elliptical shapes to signify remodeling) in the viremic specimen, the phenotypically most similar cell in the sample from the same patient at the virally suppressed time point. For the in vitro specimens, we identified, for every HIV-infected cell in the HIV-exposed culture, the phenotypically most similar cell in the UI culture. The cells identified by PP-SLIDE are

referred to as the predicted precursor cells (PRE cells) and harbor the predicted phenotypes of HIV-susceptible cells before HIV-induced remodeling. In this schematic, the aqua and purple cells are susceptible to HIV infection, whereas the green, pink, and brown ones are not. Comparison of PRE cells to total UI T cells enables assessment of which cellular subsets are preferentially infected by HIV.

(C) Memory $CD4^+$ T cells are preferential targets of HIV both *in vivo* and *in vitro*. Within each type of specimen, t-distributed stochastic neighbor embedding (tSNE) plots are shown for total CD4⁺ T cells and for the PRE cells of infected cells. Most PRE cells were memory (purple) and not naive (green) cells. Shown are results concatenated from all donors. The same data separated by donor are presented in Figure S4. The bar graphs show the proportions of naive and memory CD4+ T cells for all specimens analyzed in this study. ***p < 0.001, ****p < 0.0001 as determined by a Student's paired t test. (D and E) Frequencies of cellular subsets in UI, PRE, and INF specimens among total CD4⁺ T cells. Subsets were defined as follows: T central memory (Tcm): CD45RO+CD45RA [−]CCR7+CD27+; T effector memory (Tem): CD45RO+CD45RA−CCR7−CD27−; T transitional memory (Ttm): CD45RO+CD45RA−CCR7−CD27+; T follicular helper (Tfh): CD45RO+CD45RA−CXCR5+PD1+; regulatory T cells (Treg): CD45RO+CD45RA [−]CD25+CD127−; the α4β7 ⁺ subset: CD45RO+CD45RA−Act1+; the α4β1 ⁺ subset: CD45RO ⁺CD45RA−CD29+CD49d+; Th1: CD45RO+CD45RA−CCR4−CXCR3+CCR6−; Th2: CD45RO+CD45RA−CCR4+CXCR3−CCR6−; Th17: CD45RO+CD45RA [−]CCR4+CXCR3−CCR6+; and Th1/Th17: CD45RO+CD45RA−CCR4−CXCR3+CCR6+. The CXCR3−CCR4− and CXCR3+CCR4+ populations were pre-gated on CD45RO+CD45RA[−] cells. Gating strategies are shown in Figure S5. Datasets were from the in vivo (D) or in *vitro* (E) specimens. *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, ***p < 0.001 as determined by a Student's paired t test. ns, not significant. The same datasets comparing PRE and INF cells to UI memory CD4+ T cells are presented in Figure S6. Subsets whose frequencies are significantly higher in PRE as compared with UI cells (i.e., those preferentially targeted for infection) are highlighted in blue, whereas those whose frequencies are significantly lower in PRE as compared with UI cells (i.e., those relatively resistant to infection) are highlighted in red.

See also Figures S4–S7.

Figure 3. HIV remodels chemokine and cytokine receptors, activation markers, and other surface antigens *in vivo* **and** *in vitro*

(A) The MSIs of the CD45RA and CD45RO were assessed on UI CD4+ T cells (UI), PRE cells, and INF cells from the in vivo and in vitro specimens. The lack of significant differences in CD45RA and CD45RO expression levels in PRE and INF samples indicates HIV does not alter expression levels of these two receptors. (B–E) The MSIs of the indicated chemokine receptors (B), activation markers (C), activation/exhaustion markers (D), and other receptors (E) were assessed on UI memory CD4+ T cells (UI memory), PRE cells, and INF cells from the *in vivo* and *in vitro* specimens. *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001 as determined by a Student's paired t test and adjusted for multiple testing using the Benjamini-Hochberg for FDR. ns, not significant. Remodeled receptors whose MSIs were significantly higher in INF versus PRE cells are highlighted in blue, whereas those whose

MSIs were significantly lower in INF as compared with PRE cells are highlighted in red. See also Figure S8.

Figure 4. Unbiased clustering identifies clusters of memory CD4+ T cells preferentially targeted for HIV infection *in vivo* **and** *in vitro*

(A) tSNE depiction of concatenated data from all the UI CD4+ T cells and PRE cells from the *in vivo* ($n = 11$) and *in vitro* ($n = 7$) specimens. All *in vivo* and *in vitro* cells were clustered within the same FlowSOM run and colored according to the cluster to which they belonged. The difference in cluster distribution between PRE cells and UI cells suggests a non-random selection of CD4+ T cells for infection by HIV. tSNE plots of the same dataset separated by donor specimen are shown in Figure S10.

(B) Clusters preferentially targeted for HIV infection both in vivo and in vitro (clusters 12 and 13), only in vivo (clusters 1 and 8), or only in vitro (cluster 15) are shown. The proportions of cells that belonged in the indicated cluster, within the UI or PRE populations, are depicted as bar graphs and pie graphs. Clusters that comprise a larger proportion of PRE

cells than UI cells are those that are preferentially targeted for infection by HIV. *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001 as determined by a Student's paired t test. ns, not significant. See also Figures S9–S11.

(A–E) Cell-surface antigens that were most differentially expressed on cells from the preferentially infected clusters identified in Figure 4 are shown. These antigens correspond to those differentially expressed in the two clusters of HIV-susceptible cells both in vivo and in vitro (A and B), the two clusters of HIV-susceptible cells only in vivo (C and D), or the one cluster of HIV-susceptible cells only in vitro (E). Select antigens differentially expressed within each cluster, as compared with total UI CD4+ T cells, are depicted as histogram plots of concatenated data from all in vivo or in vitro donors. Clusters 12 and 13 depict both in vivo and in vitro specimens, clusters 1 and 8 depict the in vivo specimens only, and cluster 15 depicts the in vitro specimens only.

Figure 6. Surface markers differentially expressed on highly susceptible CD4+ T cells

(A–C) Cell-surface antigens differentially expressed on the indicated cluster(s), relative to total CD4+ T cells, were selected for manual gating analyses. These clusters were preferentially targeted in both in vivo and in vitro HIV infection (A), in in vivo infections only (B) , or in *in vitro* infections only (C) . Phenotypic profiles compiled from these antigens were used to gate the CD4+ T cells manually. The bar graphs show the proportion of UI and PRE cells expressing the antigen profiles shown on the right. The fold-differences between the proportions of each subset in PRE versus UI cells are also depicted as numbers on top of each graph. **p < 0.01, ****p < 0.0001 as determined by a Student's paired t test. ns, not significant.

Figure 7. A subset of Tem-like cells sorted based on surface markers defining clusters 12 and 13 are highly susceptible to HIV infection

(A) Shown are the CyTOF datasets, with UI CD4⁺ T cells shown in gray and the HIVsusceptible PRE cells shown in red. Cells were pre-gated on live, singlet CD3+CD19−CD8−CD4+ T cells. A sequential gating strategy was then implemented using surface markers characteristic of HIV-susceptible cells as defined by clusters 12 and 13. This strategy was used to characterize a final population of "population-1" cells (CD3+CD4+CD45RO+CD45RA−CCR7low/medCD29med/highCD69med/high CD62LlowCD57low/med), which were more abundant among PRE cells than among UI cells. For comparison, we characterized a "population-2" (CD3+CD4+CD45RO+CD45RA

[−]CCR7low/medCD29lowCD69low and not CD62LlowCD57low/med) predicted to be much less susceptible to infection because it comprised a significantly lower proportion of PRE cells.

The gating strategies are shown on the left, whereas the graphs on the right depict the frequencies of the population-1 and population-2 subsets within the UI and PRE cell populations. Note that the over-representation of population-1 cells among PRE cells suggest their preferential susceptibility to infection, whereas the under-representation of population-2 cells among PRE cells suggest their relative resistance to infection. $p < 0.05$, ****p < 0.0001 as determined by a Student's paired t test. Error bars correspond to the standard deviation.

(B) The prediction by PP-SLIDE that the enriched population is more susceptible to HIV infection than is population-2 was validated *in vitro* by sorting those two populations (Figure S12) from PBMCs of four UI donors and then exposing the cells for 4 days to media alone or to the HIV reporter F4.HSA. In all four donors, infection rates were higher in population-1 than they were in population-2. The infection data from all four donors are compiled on the graph on the right. **p < 0.01 as determined by a Student's paired t test. See also Figure S12.

KEY RESOURCES TABLE

