



HIV Infection of Monocytes-Derived Dendritic Cells Inhibits V γ 9V δ 2 T Cells Functions

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Abstract

DCs act as sentinel cells against incoming pathogens and represent the most potent antigen presenting cells, having the unique capability to prime naïve T cells. In addition to their role in induction of adaptive immune responses, DC are also able to activate innate cells as $\gamma\delta$ T cells; in particular, a reciprocal crosstalk between DC and $\gamma\delta$ T cells was demonstrated. However, whether HIV infection may alter DC-V γ 9V δ 2 T cells cross-talk was not yet described. To clarify this issue, we cultured activated V γ 9V δ 2 T cells with HIV infected monocyte derived DC (MoDC). After 5 days we evaluated MoDC phenotype, and V γ 9V δ 2 T cells activation and proliferation. In our model, V γ 9V δ 2 T cells were not able to proliferate in response to HIV-infected MoDC, although an up-regulation of CD69 was observed. Upon phosphoantigens stimulation, V γ 9V δ 2 T cells proliferation and cytokine production were inhibited when cultured with HIV-infected MoDC in a cell-contact dependent way. Moreover, HIV-infected MoDC are not able to up-regulate CD86 molecules when cultured with activated V γ 9V δ 2 T cells, compared with uninfected MoDC. Further, activated V γ 9V δ 2 T cells are not able to induce HLA DR up-regulation and CCR5 down-regulation on HIV-infected MoDC. These data indicate that HIV-infected DC alter the capacity of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells to respond to their antigens, pointing out a new mechanisms of induction of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells anergy carried out by HIV, that could contribute to immune evasion.

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Introduction

Dendritic cells (DC), characterized as the most potent antigen-presenting cells (APC), represent a multi-functional population of cells. In steady-state conditions, DC are in an immature stage and induce tolerogenic T cell responses [1,2]. In an inflammatory microenvironment, upon ligand recognition by Toll Like Receptors (TLR), maturation process occurs and DC migrate to the lymph nodes where productive adaptive immune responses are induced [3,4]. In addition to their role in induction of adaptive immune responses, DC are also able to activate innate cells as natural killer (NK) cells [5] and $\gamma\delta$ T cells; in particular, a reciprocal crosstalk between DC and $\gamma\delta$ T cells was demonstrated [6,7]. In human peripheral blood, the predominant subset expresses the V δ chain associated with V γ 9 (V γ 9V δ 2 T cells) and represents 70% of circulating $\gamma\delta$ T cells in adults. V γ 9V δ 2 T cells respond to non-processed and non-peptidic phosphoantigens in an HLA-unrestricted manner [8], in particular, it has been recently demonstrated that V γ 9V δ 2 T cells are activated by phosphoantigen presented by butyrophilin 3A [9]. Circulating V γ 9V δ 2 T cells represent a large and broadly reactive population that rapidly responds to the presence of microbial invaders [10]. Invading pathogens have the specific ability to directly elicit a strong V γ 9V δ 2 T cell response in the early phases of infection, leading to the synthesis of soluble factors (cytokines and

chemokines), that orchestrate the specific adaptive immune response, and directly interfering with the infection spread by exerting a potent cytotoxic activity. It has been shown a bidirectional activating interaction between DCs and activated V γ 9V δ 2 T cells [7]. However, some pathogen, as Mycobacterium tuberculosis, may alter the activation of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells [11], contributing to bacterial immune escape.

HIV infection deeply affects several issues of immune response including DCs [12] and V γ 9V δ 2 T cells [13], contributing to the loss of immune competence.

Studies of HIV-1 infected humans suggest that HIV infection can impact on repertoire and effector function of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells. The frequency of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells is markedly reduced in the blood of HIV-1-infected humans [4–16]. Moreover, the remaining V γ 9V δ 2 T cells are unable to perform their effector function, with a reduced production of IFN- γ and TNF- α , and unable to expand after TCR stimulation [16]. The cytolytic function of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells is also impaired during HIV-1 infection [17]. The molecular mechanisms causing anergy to TCR triggering are still under scrutiny; we previously reported a decreased expression of CD3 ζ TCR-associated molecule on V γ 9V δ 2 T cells from HIV infected patients, that correlates with their reduced functionality [18]. It has been also showed a specific depletion of V γ 2-J γ 1.2 T cells, that could contribute to the loss of phosphoantigen response capability [19]. The ability of DC to potentiate V γ 9V δ 2 T cells production

of inflammatory cytokines required for their own maturation was clearly demonstrated, but whether HIV infection may impair DC-V γ 9V δ 2 T cells cross-talk was not yet described. Understanding this issue could be useful for the comprehension of the strategies used by HIV to evade immune system, and in designing therapeutic approaches targeting both populations. Aim of the present work was to evaluate whether HIV infection may alter the cross-talk between DC and V γ 9V δ 2 T cells. We show that HIV infection of monocytes-derived DC (MoDC) drastically affects the capacity of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells to respond to Isopentenyl pyrophosphate (IPP), and to induce MoDC maturation, thus revealing a new mechanism that could contribute to V γ 9V δ 2 T cells anergy observed in HIV+ patients.

Materials and Methods

DC preparation and infection

Anonymous buffy coats of healthy donors were obtained from the Transfusion Center of San Camillo hospital (Dipartimento Interaziendale Territoriale di Medicina Trasfusionale LAZIO OVEST, www.sancamilloforlanini.rm.it). Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) were isolated by density gradient centrifugation using Lympholyte-H (CEDERLANE, Canada). Monocytes were positively separated by anti-CD14 magnetic beads (MACS, Milteny Biotec, Germany), according to manufacturer's instructions. CD14+ cells (mean purity 95%) were then resuspended in RPMI 1640 (EuroClone, UK) supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated defined fetal bovine serum (FBS) (HyClone), 2 mM L-Glutamin, 10 mM HEPES buffer (N-2-hydroxyethylpiperazine-N-2-ethanesulfonic acid), 2 mM penicillin, and 50 μ g/mL streptomycin (EuroClone, UK). MoDCs were differentiated from monocytes as previously described [20]; briefly, monocytes (1×10^6 /ml) were cultured for 5 days in the above described medium in the presence of 50 ng/mL granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor (GM-CSF) and 10 ng/mL interleukin-4 (IL-4) (Prospec, Israel). After 5 days MoDC were infected with HIV_{BAL} (200 ng of p24/ 3×10^6 cells) for 3 hours, then extensively washed and cultured in the above described medium (1×10^6 /ml) (without cytokines) for 18 hours.

$\gamma\delta$ T cells purification and MoDC co-culture

$\gamma\delta$ T cells were positively separated from PBMC by anti-TCR $\gamma\delta$ microbead kit (MACS, Milteny Biotec, Germany), according to manufacturer's instructions. Purified $\gamma\delta$ T cells (mean purity 90%) were frozen until DC differentiation. Purified $\gamma\delta$ T cells were thawed 18 hours before activation and cultured in the above described medium (2×10^6 /ml). After recovering, $\gamma\delta$ T cell viability was determined by trypan blue exclusion ($\geq 80\%$) and then they were co-cultured with HIV-infected MoDC (0.5×10^6 MoDC/ 0.5×10^6 $\gamma\delta$ T cells in 1 ml of above described medium, without cytokines) and activated with isopentenylpyrophosphate (IPP) for 5 days. In selected experiments, $\gamma\delta$ T lymphocytes were physically separated from DC by a semi-permeable membrane (transwell, 6.5-mm of diameter, 0.4- μ m pore size in 24-well plates; Costar). The lower compartment of the wells contained.

MoDC (0.5×10^6 cells); the upper compartments (transwell insert) contained $\gamma\delta$ T lymphocytes (0.5×10^6 cells). After 5 days, culture supernatants were collected and stored at -80°C , and cell phenotype were evaluated by flow cytometry. Where indicated $\gamma\delta$ T cells were CFDA-SE labeled (10 μ M, Invitrogen) according to manufacturer's instructions. After 5 days, the proliferation rate was evaluated by flow cytometry.

Flow cytometry

The following monoclonal antibodies were used to characterize MoDC: anti-CD86 FITC, anti-CD1a PE, anti-HLA-DR PERCP, anti-CD83 APC, anti-CD14 APC-H7, anti-CD80 FITC, anti-CD40 PE, anti-HLA-I APC, anti-CCR7 PE-Cy7, anti-CCR5 APC-H7 from BD Biosciences, and anti-BT3A.1 PE from BioLegend. To evaluate $\gamma\delta$ T lymphocytes phenotype we used anti-V δ 2 FITC, anti-CD3 PE, anti-CD69 PERCP, anti-CD45RA PE-Cy7, anti-CD27 APC, anti-CD16 PACIFIC BLU, anti-CD25 APC-H7 (BD Biosciences). In brief, the cells were washed twice in PBS, 1% BSA, and 0.1% sodium azide, and were stained with the mAbs for 15 min at 4°C . The cells were then washed and fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde, and analyzed using a FACS Canto II (Becton Dickinson). Since the presence of 2 purified populations, the gating strategy was performed as follow: dead cells were excluded by scatter characteristics; MoDC were identified by morphological parameters (FSC vs SSC); gated cells were then analyzed for the expression of the molecules described above. T lymphocytes were first gated by using morphological parameters; in this gate V γ 9V δ 2 T cells were identified as V δ 2+CD3+. Analysis was carried out by using FACS Diva software (Becton Dickinson). The histogram overlays were performed by FlowJo software (TreStar, Olten, Switzerland).

Analysis of cytokines production and HIV replication

Cytokines released in the supernatants were analyzed by using a customized Bio-Plex Pro Assay (BIO RAD) according to manufacturer's instructions. The assay was able to evaluate the following cytokines and chemokines: IL-1 β , IL-2, IL-4, IL-5, IL-6, IL-7, IL-8, IL-10, IL-12(p70), IL-13, G-CSF, IFN- γ , MCP-1, MIP-1b, RANTES, TNF- α , GM-CSF, IL-17.

HIV replication was evaluated by measuring p24 released in supernatants by a microelisa system (Vironostika HIV-1 antigen, Biomarieux) according to manufacturer's instructions.

Statistical analysis

Results were evaluated using Mann-Whitney test. A p value < 0.05 was considered statistically significant. GraphPad Prism software (version 4.00 for Windows; GraphPad) was used to perform the analysis.

Results

HIV-infected MoDC inhibit V γ 9V δ 2 T cell proliferation

V γ 9V δ 2 T cells are able to recognize small non peptidic, phosphorylated antigens derived from some bacteria or altered metabolic cell cycles [8]. We asked whether HIV-infected MoDC are capable to activate V γ 9V δ 2 T cells, in terms of CD69 expression and proliferation. To answer this issue, MoDC were infected with HIV (200 ng p24/ 3×10^6 MoDC), and cultured with purified $\gamma\delta$ T cells, stained with CFDA-SE, for 5 days, and V γ 9V δ 2 proliferation was assessed by flow cytometry. Figure 1A shows that HIV-infected MoDC did not induce V γ 9V δ 2 T cell proliferation. However, we found an up-regulation of CD69 on the membrane of V γ 9V δ 2 T cultured with HIV-infected MoDC compared to uninfected cells (fig. 1B), indicating that some activation occurred. On the other hand, we evaluated the effect of HIV-infected MoDC on the V γ 9V δ 2 T cell proliferation rate induced by IPP. To this aim, MoDC were infected with HIV (200 ng p24/ 3×10^6 MoDC), and cultured with purified $\gamma\delta$ T cells, stained with CFDA-SE, and activated with IPP at the time of co-culture. After 5 days, V γ 9V δ 2 proliferation was assessed by flow cytometry. HIV-infected MoDC strongly inhibit IPP-induced V γ 9V δ 2 T cells proliferation (fig. 1C and D). No differences in

CD69 expression was pointed out (fig. 1E). Then, we evaluated whether the inhibition of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells proliferation by HIV-infected MoDC is cell contact dependent. To this aim we cultured HIV-infected MoDC and V γ 9V δ 2 T cells physically separated by a semi-permeable membrane, and after 5 days V γ 9V δ 2 T proliferation was tested by flow cytometry. As previously demonstrated [21,22], we confirmed that V γ 9V δ 2 T cell proliferation is significantly decreased when cell contact with MoDC was prevented; however, when MoDC and V γ 9V δ 2 T cells were physically separated by transwell, HIV infection did not inhibit V γ 9V δ 2 T cell proliferation (fig. 2B), suggesting that MoDC- V γ 9V δ 2 T cell contact is central to induce HIV-related V γ 9V δ 2 T cells impairment.

We also analyzed the differentiation profile of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells by the expression of CD45RA and CD27 (Naive: CD45RA+ CD27+, Central Memory (CM): CD45RA-CD27+, Effector Memory (EM): CD45RA-CD27-, Effector (EFF): CD45RA+ CD27-) after culture with HIV-infected MoDC. We found that, as expected, in all conditions 60–80% of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells were CM, 10–40% EM, and the remaining fraction were naïve and EFF. Moreover, HIV-infected MoDC did not induce any alteration of the V γ 9V δ 2 T cells differentiation phenotype, in both IPP stimulated and not stimulated conditions (data not shown).

HIV-infected MoDC inhibit cytokine production by activated V γ 9V δ 2 T cells

Since we observed an inhibition of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells proliferation after antigen stimulation when cells are cultured with HIV-infected DC, we wondered if cytokines production was also impaired. To this end, HIV-infected MoDC were cultured with V γ 9V δ 2 T cells activated with IPP at the beginning of the co-culture, and after 5 days of culture supernatants were collected and tested for 18 cytokines. When V γ 9V δ 2 T cells were cultured with HIV-infected DC, an inhibition of IFN- γ , TNF- α and MIP1- β production was observed compared to the culture with uninfected DC (Fig. 2), while other cytokines were not detected (IL-1 β , IL-2, IL-4, IL-5, IL-7, IL-10, IL-12(p70), IL-13, G-CSF, MCP-1, GM-CSF, IL-17) or no differences were observed (IL-6, IL-8, RANTES) (data not shown). These data indicate that HIV-infected MoDC impaired the capacity of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells to produce pivotal cytokines upon antigen stimulation.

Human V γ 9V δ 2 T cells fails to inhibit HIV replication in MoDC

It was previously shown that activated V γ 9V δ 2 T cells inhibit HIV replication in target cells, mostly by producing chemokines such as RANTES and MIP1- β [23] and by lysing infected cells. However, there are no data on their effects on HIV replication in MoDC. Since we observed that HIV infected MoDC inhibit V γ 9V δ 2 T cells proliferation and cytokines production induced by IPP, we asked whether V γ 9V δ 2 T cells maintain their capability to inhibit HIV replication in MoDC. To answer this issue, we tested the amount of p24 in the supernatants of HIV infected MoDC cultured for five days with V γ 9V δ 2 T cells activated or not with IPP. Figure 3 shows that the level of p24 released by HIV-infected MoDC increased after 5 days of culture compared to p24 amount detected soon after infection (T0). Moreover, p24 released by HIV-infected MoDC cultured with activated or not activated V γ 9V δ 2 T cells is comparable to those produced by HIV-infected MoDC alone ($p=0.141$, $p=1.000$ respectively), suggesting a complete ineffectiveness of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells towards HIV infected MoDC.

Butyrophilin 3A1 is not involved in V γ 9V δ 2 T cells inhibition

Our results indicate that HIV-infected MoDC inhibit the capacity of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells to respond to IPP. Recently, it has been clearly demonstrated that butyrophilin 3A1 (BT3A1) binds phosphorylated antigens and activates V γ 9V δ 2 T cells [9]. Thus, we wondered whether the observed V γ 9V δ 2 T cells functional impairment induced by HIV-infected MoDC was caused by a diminution of BT3A1 expression. To this aim, we analyzed the expression of BT3A1 on HIV-infected MoDC after 5 day of culture with or without V γ 9V δ 2 T cells by flow cytometry. We found that after 5 days of infection BT3A1 expression on MoDC was comparable to uninfected cells. When cultured with V γ 9V δ 2 T cells, neither V γ 9V δ 2 T cells activation with IPP nor HIV infection induced a modulation of BT3A.1 (fig. 4). This data suggest that the inability of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells to be activated by IPP when co-cultured with HIV-infected MoDC seems not due to a loss of BT3A.1 expression.

V γ 9V δ 2 T cells failed to induce the maturation of HIV-infected MoDC

Previous studies demonstrated that activated V γ 9V δ 2 T cells are able to mature DC [7,21]; in particular, they induce the expression of the co-stimulatory molecule CD86 (B7.1) that plays a central role in V γ 9V δ 2 T cells proliferation. We asked whether the inhibition of V γ 9V δ 2 T cell proliferation was due to CD86 impairment on HIV-infected DC. To this aim MoDC were infected with HIV_{BAL}, as described above, and cultured with purified, IPP activated $\gamma\delta$ T cells (ratio 1:1). Five days after, we evaluated MoDC phenotype by flow cytometry. In line with the V γ 9V δ 2 T cell cytokines production involved in the DC maturation, we found that, as previously described, activated V γ 9V δ 2 T cells were able to up-regulate of CD86 on MoDC; on the contrary, when cells were HIV-infected V γ 9V δ 2 T cells failed to induce the up-regulation of CD86 (fig. 5A and B).

We also found that activated V γ 9V δ 2 T were not able to induce HLA-DR up-regulation on HIV-infected MoDC compared to uninfected cells (fig. 5C, D), albeit the difference is not statistically significant ($p=0.057$). These data suggest that the inhibition of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells functions may alter the antigen presentation capacity of DC to CD4+ T cells. Finally, activated V γ 9V δ 2 T cells fail to down-modulate CCR5 expression on HIV-infected MoDC compared to uninfected cells (fig. 6), thus maintaining DC highly susceptible to HIV infection. We did not find any alterations for the other tested markers.

Discussion

The concept of a strict dependent relationship between cells from innate and adaptive immunity changed the point of view about the regulation of immune system. During the most part of host reactions, both adaptive and innate sections cooperate in the host's protection and tissue damage.

The innate cells recruited or resident in the tissues, and their interactions, play a crucial role in the containment of infection and the deployment of adaptive immune response [5]. In particular, DC, in addition to their role in induction of adaptive immune responses, are able to activate other innate immune cells [5]. The influence exerted by $\gamma\delta$ T cells on DCs system was also demonstrated, showing that human V γ 9V δ 2 T cells activated in vitro by phosphoantigens are capable of inducing maturation of MoDCs, thus potentially enhancing their antigen presentation capability [24,25]. In this paper we found that HIV infection alter DC- V γ 9V δ 2 T cell interactions by strongly inhibiting V γ 9V δ 2 T

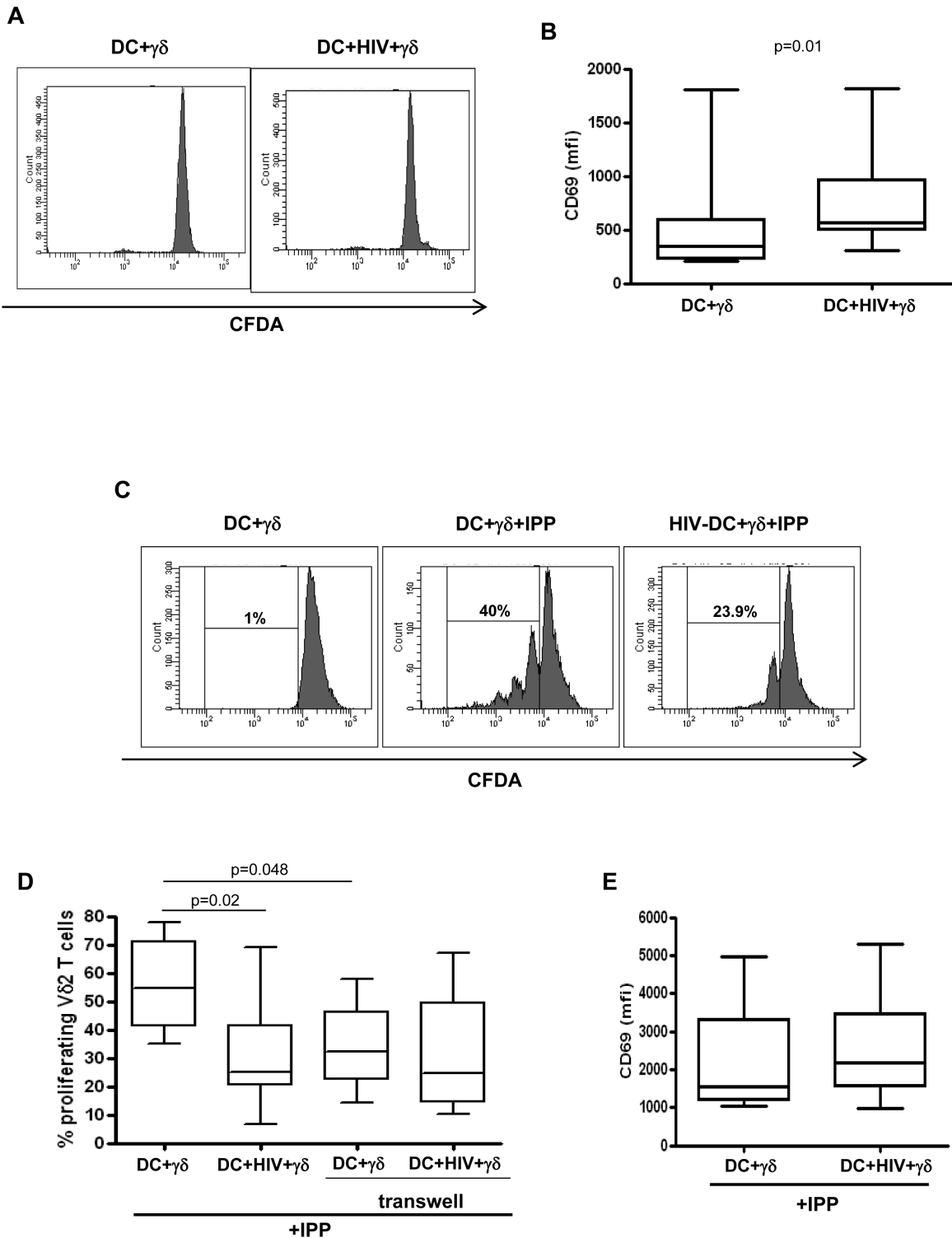


Figure 1. Effects of HIV-infected MoDC on V γ 9V δ 2 T cells proliferation. MoDC were infected with HIV_{BAL} and cultured with CFDA-SE labeled V γ 9V δ 2 T cells. After 5 days, V γ 9V δ 2 T cells proliferation and activation was evaluated by flow cytometry. (A) Representative histogram plots of one out of seven independent experiments showing V γ 9V δ 2 T cells proliferation. (B) CD69 expression on V γ 9V δ 2 T cells in the indicated conditions. V γ 9V δ 2 T cells labeled with CFDA-SE were stimulated with IPP in the presence of MoDC infected or not with HIV_{BAL}. After 5 days, V γ 9V δ 2 T cells proliferation was evaluated by flow cytometry. (C) Representative histogram plots of one out of seven independent experiments showing V γ 9V δ 2 T cells proliferation. (D) Percentage of proliferating V γ 9V δ 2 T cells upon IPP stimulation in the indicated conditions. (E) CD69 expression (mean fluorescence intensity, mfi) on IPP stimulated V γ 9V δ 2 T cells cultured with HIV infected or uninfected MoDC. Results are shown as Box and Whiskers: the box encompasses the interquartile range of individual measurements, the horizontal bar-dividing line indicates the median value, and the whiskers represents maximum and minimum values. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0111095.g001

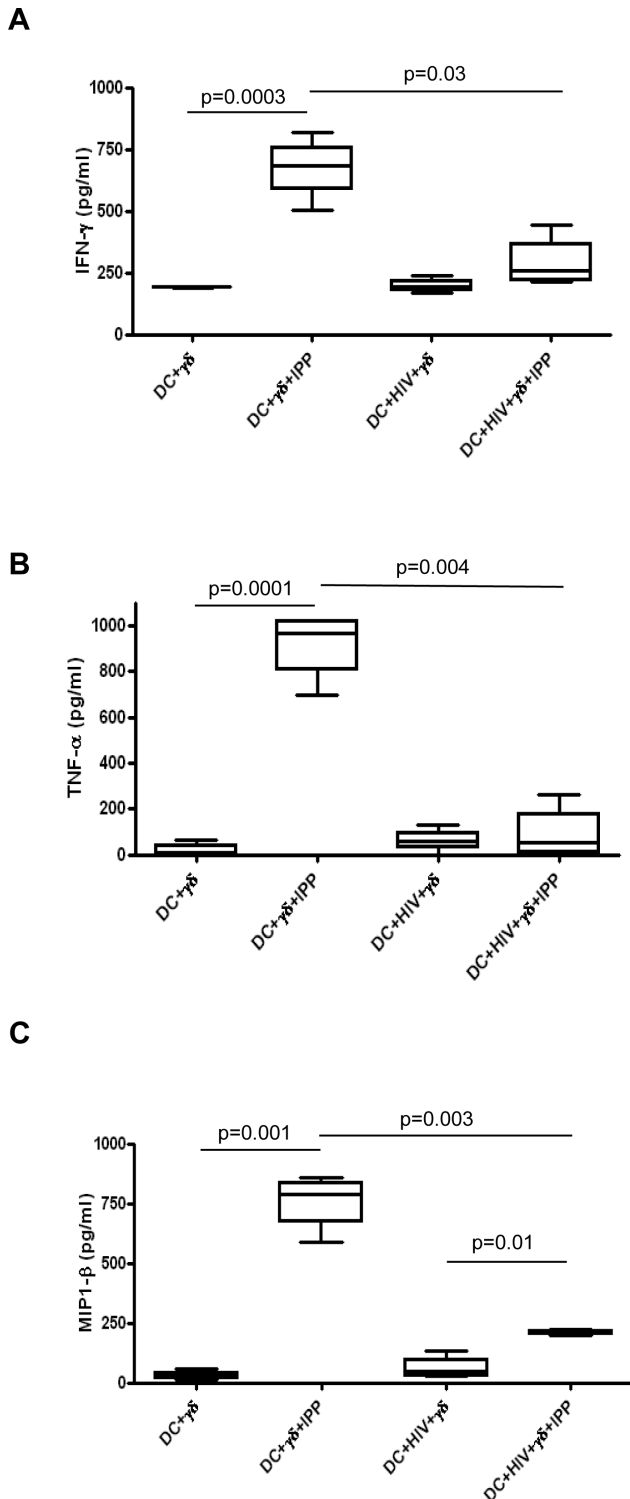


Figure 2. HIV-infected MoDC inhibit V γ 9V δ 2 T cells cytokines production. V γ 9V δ 2 T cells were stimulated with IPP in the presence of MoDC infected with HIV_{BAL}. After 5 days, cytokines released in the supernatants were evaluated by a multiplex immunoassay. (A) IFN- γ , (B) TNF- α , and (C) MIP1- β production, in seven independent experiments, are shown as Box and Whiskers: the box encompasses the interquartile range of individual measurements, the horizontal bar-dividing line indicates the median value, and the whiskers represents maximum and minimum values.
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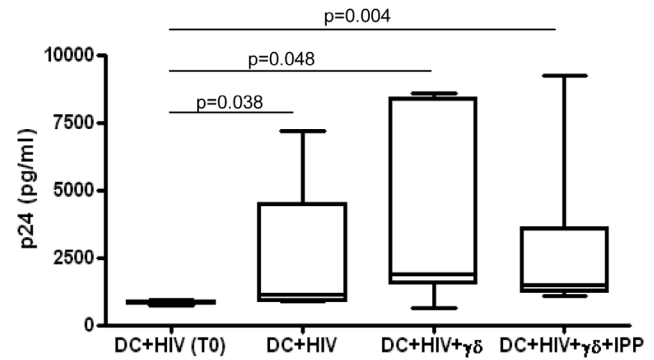


Figure 3. V γ 9V δ 2 T cells do not inhibit HIV replication in MoDC. MoDC were infected with HIV_{BAL} and cultured with purified $\gamma\delta$ T cells stimulated or not stimulated with IPP. Before culture with $\gamma\delta$ T cells (DC+HIV T0), and after 5 days HIV p24 protein was tested in the supernatants by ELISA. Results from seven independent experiments are shown as Box and Whiskers: the box encompasses the interquartile range of individual measurements, the horizontal bar-dividing line indicates the median value, and the whiskers represents maximum and minimum values.
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cell functions. As previously demonstrated [26], HIV infection of DC does not lead to MoDC maturation; we show that when they are infected with HIV, they cannot up-regulate CD86 upon stimulation with activated V γ 9V δ 2 T cells compared with uninfected MoDC. Moreover, HIV infection inhibits the V γ 9V δ 2 T cells mediated down-modulation of CCR5 and up-regulation of HLA-DR on MoDC. Altogether these data suggest that HIV infection could increase the DC susceptibility to HIV infection, and interfere with DC antigen presentation to CD4 T cells, thus contributing to the impaired HIV-specific adaptive immune response. However, these issue needs further investigations. We also found that the incapacity of MoDC to be matured by V γ 9V δ 2 T cells was not due to a paralysis of the maturation machinery of MoDC, but rather to an altered capability of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells to respond to TCR triggering. In fact, V γ 9V δ 2 T cells proliferation upon IPP stimulation was inhibited when cultured with HIV infected MoDC by a mechanism that needs cell contact, suggesting that after HIV infection something occurs in DC that induced V γ 9V δ 2 T cells inability to respond to phosphoantigens. IFN- γ and TNF- α production was inhibited as well, thus decreasing potent signals by which V γ 9V δ 2 T cells ensure that DC maturation is skewed towards a Th1 response.

It was clearly demonstrated that DC- V γ 9V δ 2 T cells interaction needs cellular contact. In fact, the proliferation of $\gamma\delta$ T cells induced by IPP, in the absence of IL-2, required the presence of a second signal mediated by DC through CD86. Further, DC potentiate V γ 9V δ 2 T cells activation and cytokines production [7,21,22]. Altogether these findings indicate that HIV-infected MoDC, inhibiting the production of IFN- γ and TNF- α by IPP stimulated V γ 9V δ 2 T cells, do not up regulate CD86, thus limiting V γ 9V δ 2 T cells proliferation. Moreover, we observed that activated V γ 9V δ 2 T cells were not able to inhibit HIV replication in MoDC, as demonstrated by the level of p24 released in the supernatants. Our data suggest that the incapacity of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells to mature DC could render them more permissive to HIV replication [27]; moreover, the inhibition of MIP1- β production could contribute to augment HIV infection [28]. An efficient capacity of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells to inhibit HIV replication in PBMC from healthy donors was previously shown [23]; however, dendritic cells represent the 0.5–1% of PBMC, thus indicating

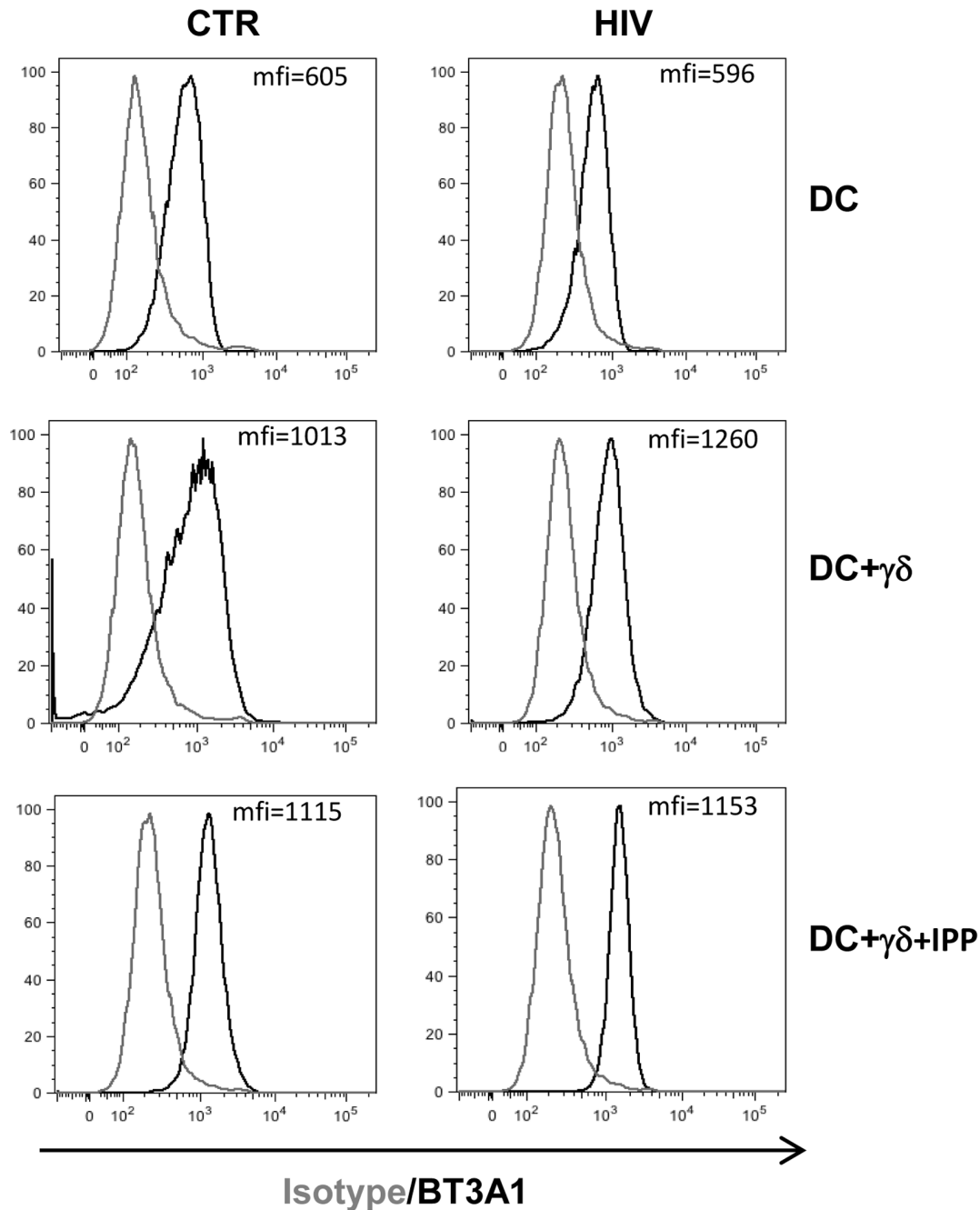


Figure 4. Butyrophilin 3A1 is not involved in V γ 9V δ 2 T cells inhibition. MoDC were infected with HIV_{BAL} and cultured with purified $\gamma\delta$ T cells stimulated with IPP. After 5 days the expression of BT3A1 was analyzed by flow cytometry. One representative of 3 independent experiments is shown.

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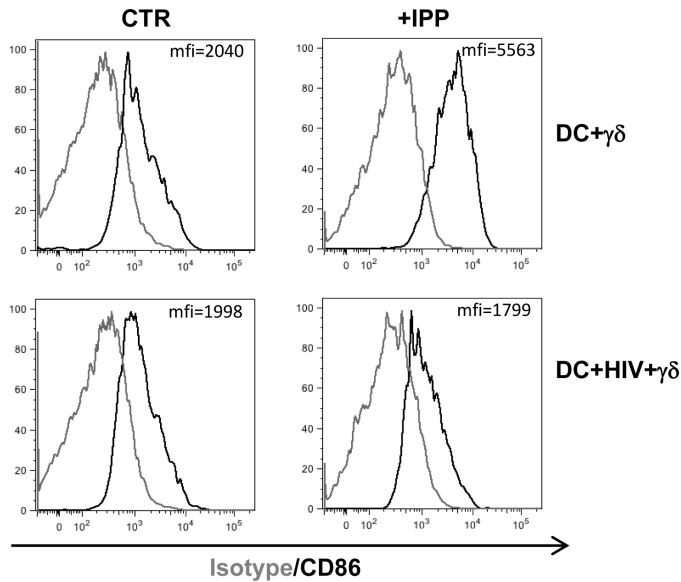
that the type of infected cells interacting with V γ 9V δ 2 T cells could be important in determining the effects on this cell subset.

It was reported that during HIV infection the effector memory V γ 9V δ 2 T cells decreased [29,30]; however, we did not find any alteration of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells differentiation phenotype, suggesting that more complex phenomena occurred *in vivo*, probably due to the general immune activation observed in HIV+ patients [31].

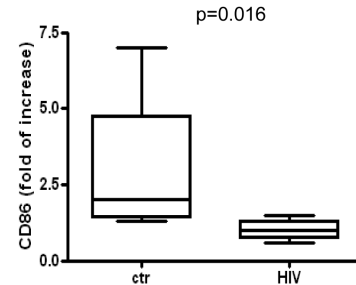
Data presented in this paper show that V γ 9V δ 2 T cells functions were severely inhibited by HIV-infected MoDC, however, the mechanism remains elusive. In fact, we did not

observed a CD3 ζ down-modulation in V γ 9V δ 2 T cells after culture with HIV infected MoDC (data not shown), as previously shown on V γ 9V δ 2 T cells from HIV infected patients [18]. Moreover, we found that HIV infection did not alter the expression of BTN3A on MoDC membrane, suggesting that the inhibition of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells response to IPP is not caused by a modulation of this molecule. Published reports suggested that phosphorylated antigens modify BTN3A molecules via interactions with the cytoplasmic regions, which would potentially involve dimerization and clustering [32,33]. Thus, we cannot exclude that

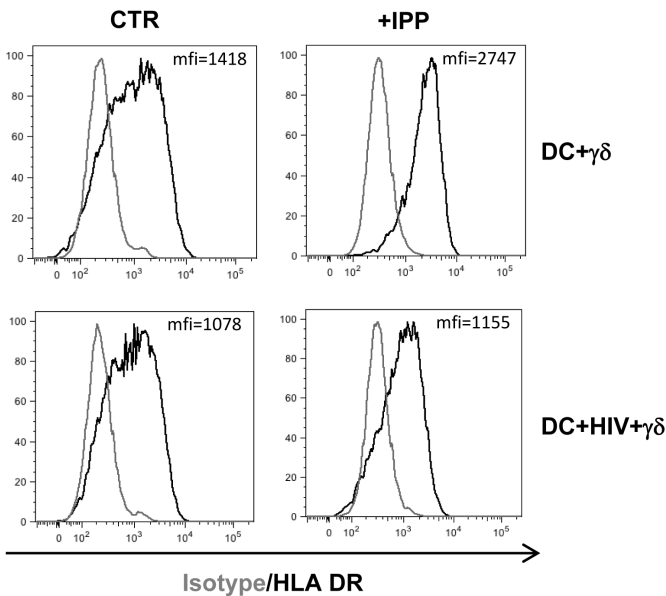
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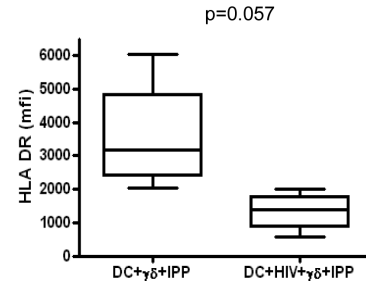


Figure 5. V γ 9V δ 2 T cells fail to induce CD86 and HLA-DR up-regulation on HIV-infected MoDC. MoDC were infected with HIV_{BAL} and cultured with purified $\gamma\delta$ T cells for 5 days. Then, MoDC phenotype were evaluated by flow cytometry. (A) Representative histogram plots of one out of seven independent experiments showing CD86 expression on MoDC in the indicated conditions. (B) Induction of CD86 expression on MoDC by activated V γ 9V δ 2 T cells (fold of increase: IPP stimulated/not stimulated). (C) Representative histogram plots of one out of four independent experiments showing HLA-DR expression on MoDC in the indicated conditions. (D) HLA-DR expression on MoDC (mfi) in the indicated conditions. Results are shown as Box and Whiskers: the box encompasses the interquartile range of individual measurements, the horizontal bar-dividing line indicates the median value, and the whiskers represents maximum and minimum values.
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HIV infection may impair molecular modifications of BTNA3-IPP complexes that are not recognized by V γ 9V δ 2 T cells. More studies are needed to clarify the fine molecular events leading to

V γ 9V δ 2 T cells activation and the possible role of HIV infection in the inhibition of such events.

To date, it is not clear whether there exist some HIV antigens or HIV-infected cells derived antigens able to activate V γ 9V δ 2 TCR.

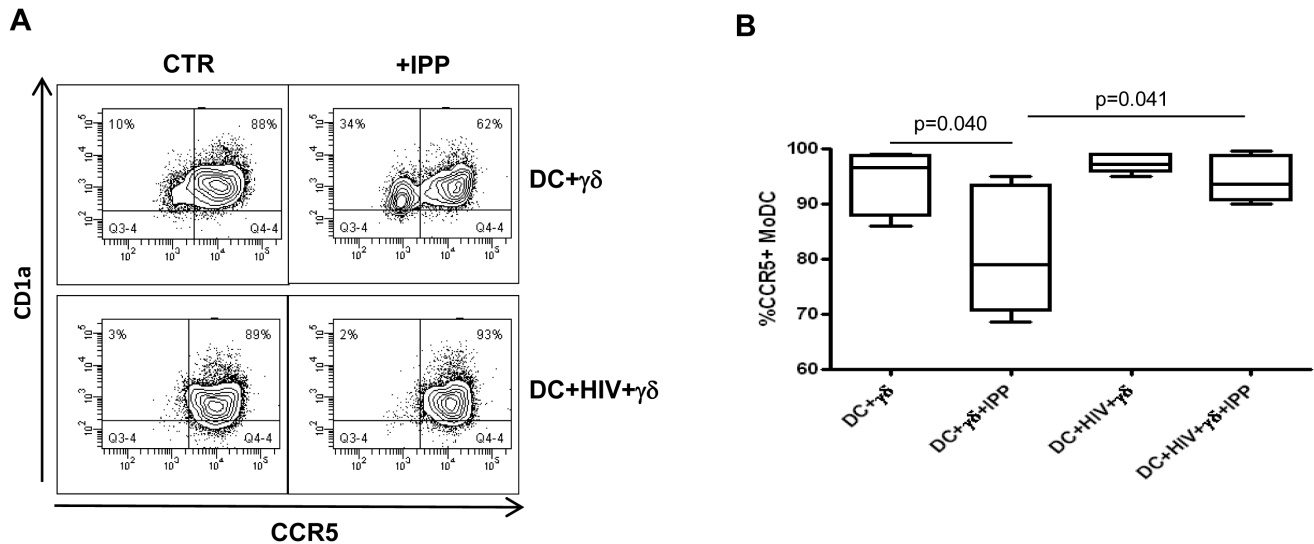


Figure 6. HIV-infected MoDC fail to down-regulate CCR5. MoDC were infected with HIV_{BAL} and cultured with purified $\gamma\delta$ T cells for 5 days. MoDC phenotype were evaluated by flow cytometry. (A) Representative histogram plots of one out of seven independent experiments showing CCR5 expression on MoDC in the indicated conditions. (B) Percentage of CCR5+ MoDC cultured with V γ 9V δ 2 T cells in the indicated conditions. Results are shown as Box and Whiskers: the box encompasses the interquartile range of individual measurements, the horizontal bar-dividing line indicates the median value, and the whiskers represents maximum and minimum values. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0111095.g006

In our model, we could not see any proliferation of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells after culture with HIV infected MoDC, nor cytokines production; however, an augmented expression of CD69 was observed. CD69 is a type II transmembrane protein and a member of the C-type lectin-like receptor family that is expressed in leukocytes upon stimulation [34]. CD69 acts as a signal transducer in inflammatory processes. Several studies using models of inflammatory diseases point to an immunoregulatory role for CD69 during the immune response, suggesting that, probably depending on micro-environmental conditions, CD69 could exert different functions [35,36,37,38]. Since our results indicate that HIV infection of MoDC impair V γ 9V δ 2 T cells activation, the observed CD69 up-regulation could suggest suppression rather than activation; however, this issue needs further investigations.

The inhibition of T cell functions by HIV-infected DC is not limited to $\gamma\delta$ T cells. In fact, it has been shown that HIV infection of DC alter their capacity to stimulate $\alpha\beta$ T cells [39], even if, this issue remains debated (reviewed in [40]). The infection of DC

impair also the interplay with innate immune populations as NK cells [41,42], indicating that among the strategies exploited by HIV to evade the immune response, the infection of DC deeply affects the functionality of different arms of immune system, thus contributing to HIV persistence.

In conclusion, we show herein for the first time that MoDC infected by HIV can alter the functional capabilities of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells through a cell contact dependent mechanism. These findings provide further evidences of the complex relationship between important players of innate immunity and its modulation by HIV, that has to be taken into account in evaluating new therapeutic or vaccine strategies.

Author Contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: AS RC FM. Performed the experiments: AS AR NT FT. Analyzed the data: AS RC CA VB EC. Contributed to the writing of the manuscript: AS RC CA VB EC FM.

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