IFITM proteins inhibit HIV-1 protein synthesis

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Abstract

Interferon induced transmembrane proteins (IFITMs) inhibit the cellular entry of a broad range of viruses, but it has been suspected that for HIV-1 IFITMs may also inhibit a post-integration replicative step. We show that IFITM expression reduces HIV-1 viral protein synthesis by preferentially excluding viral mRNA transcripts from translation and thereby restricts viral production. Codon-optimization of proviral DNA rescues viral translation, implying that IFITM-mediated restriction requires recognition of viral RNA elements. In addition, we find that expression of the viral accessory protein Nef can help overcome the IFITM-mediated inhibition of protein synthesis. Our studies identify a novel role for IFITMs in inhibiting HIV replication at the level of translation, but show that the effects can be overcome by the lentiviral protein Nef.

Importance

Cells can protect themselves from infection by producing antiviral proteins that directly disrupt viral replication processes. The IFITM protein family has been identified to inhibit a wide range of viruses in this way, including HIV. Inhibition of HIV infection in cells by IFITM proteins is understood to occur due to a block in entry of viruses into cells, but also due to a reduction in the infectivity of virus particles produced in cells that express IFITMs. However, a third and additional block to HIV infection by IFITMs has been suspected. We show here that IFITM proteins specifically block viral protein production even after HIV enters target cells. Yet we also show that the virus can partially overcome this block by producing a countermeasure protein Nef. Therefore our data show that IFITM proteins are multifunctional antiviral proteins that can inhibit HIV through three distinct mechanisms – blocking viral entry, reducing virus infectivity, and inhibiting virus protein production.

Introduction

Viruses must replicate in cells; the consequence of such dependence is susceptibility. Cells have thus evolved a series of antiviral factors that directly subvert viral replication. Recent work has revealed the striking scale of antiviral mechanisms employed by cells - almost every step of viral replication is apparently targeted by host encoded antiviral factors. For HIV the best defined examples are APOBEC3G/3F and SamHD1 that inhibit viral reverse transcription, TRIM5α that targets viral capsid uncoating, and tetherin that prevents viral egress (reviewed in (1, 2)). However, genomic and proteomic

screens can aid identification of further antiviral factors, and so there is an expanding

list being described [3,4]. Such studies identified the MxB/Mx2 protein that targets HIV-1

replication around nuclear entry (3, 4), and the SERINC3 and SERINC5 proteins that

target HIV-1 entry (5, 6).

The interferon induced transmembrane proteins (IFITMs) have been similarly identified

in multiple independent screens as antiviral factors (7-10). Humans have three antiviral

IFITMs - IFITM1, IFITM2 and IFITM3 (reviewed in (11)). IFITM expression inhibits viral

entry into cells (7, 8), a phenotype that is enhanced by incorporation of IFITM proteins

into viral particles (12-14). Inhibition of viral entry is thought to occur via IFITM-mediated

changes in the physical characteristics of the host cell membrane thereby inhibiting

virus-cell membrane fusion (15), though other inhibitory mechanisms affecting entry

have been proposed (16). By employing this generic inhibitory mechanism, IFITMs can

then inhibit the entry of a broad range of viruses including influenza A virus, hepatitis C

virus, Ebola virus, SARs coronavirus, Dengue virus, Zika virus, and HIV-1 (7, 8, 17-19).

Yet since the discovery of their antiviral effect upon HIV-1, it was immediately apparent

that a viral replication step downstream of host genome integration might also be

inhibited by IFITM proteins, as IFITM1 knockdown increased HIV-1 titres from infected

CD4$^+$ T-cells (8). In the same study, IFITM1 inhibited the replication of HIV-1 in T-cell

culture despite the evidence that IFITM1 had no effect on viral replication steps from cell

entry to host genome integration for the viral strain used. Other studies have also noted

IFITM1-3 expression reduces viral particle production from cells (10, 12-14, 20-24).

When this occurs, IFITM expression is typically associated with reductions in HIV-1 Gag

levels, implying a block in viral protein synthesis.

Despite the frequency of these observations, there has been little to no attempt to

explain them. Why viral production should be affected by IFITM expression is unclear.

We therefore sought to investigate the potential block in protein synthesis induced by

IFITMs and now show that IFITM expression leads to an inhibition of lentiviral

production, which for HIV-1 occurs due to specific exclusion of viral mRNA from

polysomes. Yet we also find that expression of the lentiviral accessory protein Nef can

help relieve the inhibition in protein synthesis, allowing HIV-1 to better replicate in the

presence of IFITM proteins. Thus IFITM proteins are able to inhibit HIV-1 replication

through three distinct processes - inhibition of viral entry, reduction of viral particle

infectivity, and inhibition of viral protein synthesis.

Results

IFITMs inhibit HIV-1 production

We first wanted to confirm if IFITMs affect the production of HIV from virus producing

cells as noted in previous reports (8, 10, 12-14, 20-24). We used a co-transfection

scheme in which we co-transfected HEK293T cells with plasmids containing HIV-1

proviral DNAs together with expression vectors encoding human IFITM1-3, allowing the

effects on virus production to be studied independently of effects of IFITM proteins on

viral entry. The quantity of virus produced was then analyzed by supernatant p24 ELISA

and reverse transcriptase activity assays. Increasing levels of IFITM expression

decreased HIV-1 NL4-3 output by in a concentration-dependent manner consistent with

loss of intracellular p24 levels (Figure 1A, 1B), with a similar decrease seen in

supernatant when both p24 concentration (Figure 1C) and reverse transcriptase activity

(Figure 1D) were measured. Notably, the expression of IFITM1 and IFITM2 reduced the

HIV-1 output while the effect was weaker for IFITM3. We then studied the effect of

IFITMs on other viral proteins, and found IFITM1 and IFITM2 expression led to a

reduction in the levels of all HIV-1 NL4-3 proteins assayed in transfected cells (Figure

1E). Similar to HIV-1 NL4-3, viral production from the HIV-1 plasmid proviral DNAs 89.6

and Indie-C1 was also reduced by IFITM expression (Figure 1C-D).

In addition to HIV-1, the expression of IFITMs also reduced the quantity of virus

produced from cells transfected with plasmid proviral DNAs for HIV-2 and SIVs (Figure

1F-G). Of note, HIV-2$_{ROD}$ and SIV$_{AGM}$ appeared to be less susceptible to this IFITM-

mediated effect compared to the HIV-1 viruses studied. We also found similar inhibitory

effects upon HIV-1 with transfected African Green Monkey IFITM1 (Figure 1H).

We were concerned however that the loss of viral production we saw might be due to

generic inhibition of protein production during IFITM expression, but detection of GFP

from a transfected reporter plasmid was minimally, or totally unaffected by IFITM

expression (Figure 1I). We also measured the infectivity of the virus produced from

IFITM-expressing cells, in TZM-bl cells and showed that virus produced have lower

infectivity (Figure 1J), in agreement with previous results (12-14).

We next wanted to test if IFITMs inhibit viral production in infected cells rather than

transfected cells. We infected SupT1 cells expressing doxycycline inducible IFITM1-3

with wild type NL4-3 virus (8). To avoid inhibition of virus entry playing a role in our

experiments, after spinoculation, unbound virus was washed off and cells were

resuspended in new medium containing doxycycline and the CXCR4 antagonist

AMD3100 to induce IFITM expression only after virus entry and to limit viral replication

to a single round respectively. The quantity of wild type HIV-1 produced by IFITM-

expressing T-cells was inhibited across a range of viral inputs and was paired with

losses in viral protein levels (Figure 2), indicating that IFITMs inhibit viral production

independent of their effects on viral entry.

We next wished to investigate this effect using knockdown of endogenous IFITM levels,

and to assess the relative contribution of IFITMs towards inhibition of viral production

that is observed with type I interferon (IFN) treatment. We therefore analyzed viral

output from HIV-1 NL4-3 plasmid proviral DNA transfected and IFN-β treated TZM-bl

cells that had been transduced with shRNAs targeting different IFITMs (25). Entry of

virus produced was inhibited through the use of the CXCR4 antagonist AMD3100, such

that the level of viral output in our analysis is not confounded with entry inhibition of

IFITM expression. The efficiency of knockdown in IFITM expression was confirmed by

immunoblotting using monoclonal antibodies specific for individual IFITMs (Figure 3A).

As anticipated, IFN-β treatment reduced viral production in HIV-1 transfected TZM-bl

cells (Figure 3B). Despite some weak knockdown cross-reactivity, such that shRNA

targeting IFITM1 caused weak knockdown of IFITM2 (Figure 3A), and that it was not

possible to knockdown IFITM3 in isolation, knockdown of both IFITM1 and IFITM2

clearly rescued the level of virus produced in IFN-β treated cells (Figure 3C). Further,

knockdown of all three IFITMs gave a higher rescue, indicating that the inhibitory effects

of IFITM1 and IFITM2 on viral production are perhaps non-redundant in the context of

HIV-1 replication. These effects were paired with rescue of viral proteins levels during

IFITM knockdown (Figure 3D and 3E). These data then show that endogenous levels of

IFITMs can inhibit viral particle output and suggest that IFITMs are a significant

component of the antiviral response induced by type I interferon.

We next sought to confirm if the knockdown of physiologically relevant levels of IFITMs

in HIV-1 infected primary cells could rescue viral protein production. Primary human

$CD4^+$ T cells were infected with HIV-1 following transduction with lentiviral particles for

the expression of shRNAs targeting different IFITMs. Since IFN exposure upregulates

other antiviral factors from interferon-stimulated genes (ISGs), which would mask the

antiviral phenotype of IFITMs in our analysis, $CD4^+$ T cells were stimulated via the T cell

receptor (TCR) instead, to upregulate IFITMs (12) thereby mitigating effect of other

ISGs. The efficiency of knockdown in IFITM expression following TCR activation was

confirmed by immunoblotting using monoclonal antibodies specific for individual IFITMs

(Figure 4D and J). Transduction with shRNAs gave a specific ~30% downregulation of

IFITM1, and a specific ~90% downregulation of IFITM2, while one shRNA led to a ~50%

downregulation of all three IFITMs (Figure 4D, 4E, 4J and 4L). To mitigate the effects of

IFITMs affecting viral entry on our studies of viral production, we took advantage of

recent observations that different IFITM proteins vary in their inhibition of viral entry

depending on co-receptor usage (14, 20, 26). IFITM1 inhibits entry of CCR5-tropic

viruses and IFITM2/3 predominantly inhibits CXCR4-tropic viruses. We therefore

studied viral production effects driven by IFITM1 with HIV-1 NL4-3 (a CXCR4-tropic

virus that would be less inhibited by IFITM1 upon entry) or with dual-tropic HIV-1 89.6 in

cells pre-treated with the CCR5 antagonist Maraviroc that would direct viral entry via

CXCR4. Viral production effects driven by IFITM2 and IFITM3 were similarly studied

with HIV-1 89.6, but cells pre-treated with the CXCR4 antagonist AMD3100 which would

direct viral entry via CCR5 and thus mitigate entry inhibition by IFITM2 and IFITM3. We

used intracellular p24 staining of infected cells in single cycle infections to measure

uptake of virus after infection with trypsin treatment to remove cell surface bound virus

(27-29). Although cellular uptake of viral p24 is not an exact measure of virus entry due

to the uptake of virus into potentially non-productive endocytic pathways, p24 uptake is

still found to be inhibited by IFITM expression (12, 13, 22, 23), while endocytic uptake of

virus occurs at a lower rate in primary $CD4^+$ T-cells (30). We confirmed that viral uptake

was minimally impeded with these viruses during IFITM knockdown (Figure 4A, B, G,

H), consistent with prior observations (26). Therefore reductions in virus production

were considered to arise predominantly from effects other than inhibition of viral entry.

We were thus able to determine that weak knockdown of IFITM1 yielded only a very

weak recovery of NL4-3 viral production (25%) and protein expression (Figure 4C, D,

F). An effect was more readily detectable during knockdown of IFITM2, or IFITM1-

IFITM3, as this led to a clear rescue of viral particle output (7-fold and >10-fold

respectively) that was coupled with rescue in viral protein expression (Figure 4I, J, M).

This then confirms that physiologically relevant levels of IFITM proteins can clearly

inhibit HIV-1 production in primary cells independent of their effects upon entry and

infectivity, consistent with our observations in cell lines.

IFITMs restrict HIV-1 protein synthesis.

As we found that IFITM expression was associated with losses in viral protein

production and viral output, we next asked if IFITMs play a role in inhibiting the

transcription or stability of viral mRNA by analyzing the level of unspliced, singly-spliced,

and multiply-spliced transcripts detected by RT-qPCR from total RNA of whole cell

lysates. IFITM1 and IFITM2 weakly reduced the levels of singly-spliced and multiply-

spliced transcripts, while IFITM3 had no measureable effect (Figure 5A). The total level

of unspliced transcripts remained unaffected in the presence of IFITM proteins (Figure

5A) but nonetheless there were reductions of intracellular level of Gag (a product of

unspliced transcripts) in our prior analyses (Figures 1-4). This prompted us to

investigate if IFITM proteins affect translation of viral transcripts.

To achieve this we performed a polysome analysis for HIV-1 transcripts during IFITM

expression. We first analyzed the RNA content in cell lysates fractionated on a sucrose

gradient by ultracentrifugation. The total RNA profiles (Figure 5B) and the levels of

GAPDH RNA recovered from selected fractions (Figure 5C) of virus producing cells

expressing IFITMs are comparable to vector-transfected control, suggesting that IFITM

expression did not alter global translation in the cell.

Next we asked if the expression of IFITMs specifically affects translation of viral

transcripts. Reductions in the levels of viral transcript polysome fractions (in contrast to

whole cell lysates) would indicate translational inhibition. As such, we analyzed the level

of viral transcripts in selected fractions covering the whole RNA profile with RT-qPCR.

We used the level of ribosomal protein L7 as a guide for selection of fractions in our

analysis (Figure 5D) as it is a component of 60S ribosomes, which are enriched in 80S

monosomes (such as fraction 10 Figure 5D) as well as polysomes (such as fractions

14-18, Figure 5D). IFITM1 and IFITM2 significantly reduced the level of unspliced and

singly-spliced viral transcripts in polysomes (Figure 5E-G) and increased the level of

these transcripts in the ribosome-free fraction (fraction 6), suggesting that expression of

IFITM1 and IFITM2 inhibited translation of these viral transcripts. IFITM1 and IFITM2

also appeared to somewhat reduce the level of multiply-spliced transcripts (Figure 5G),

though the effect did not reach statistical significance, but was nonetheless coupled with

a clear accumulation of ribosome-free multiply-spliced transcripts in low concentration

sucrose fraction (fraction 6) relative to vector control, similar to other viral transcript

classes. These data were consistent with our analysis of viral production (Figure 1)

wherein IFITM1 and IFITM2 expression lead to a more potent block in viral production

than for IFITM3.

A recent study linked the production of abortive HIV-1 late mRNA transcripts to the

induction of type I interferon in dendritic cells (31), raising the possibility that a similar

induction of other antiviral responses could underpin our results rather than specific

IFITM-mediated effects. Notably we did not find strong induction of luciferase activity

driven by interferon-stimulated response element (ISRE) due to IFITM expression in

transfected HEK293T cells (Figure 5H). Thus IFITM proteins inhibit translation of HIV-1

transcripts by leading to their specific exclusion from polysomes, resulting in reduced

levels viral proteins and reduced viral output.

HIV-1 RNA is a determinant of IFITM-mediated restriction of protein synthesis

To better understand how IFITM proteins help suppressing viral translation, we explored

the possibility that they may be involved in a process that is able to distinguish viral

RNA from cellular RNA by recognizing viral RNA features. To address this, we

measured the level of unspliced viral RNA transcripts in the polysome fraction of

HEK293T cells transfected with a codon-optimized vector for HIV-1 NL4-3 Gag only (32)

with IFITM-expression vectors. Codon-optimization changes the codon bias of the

construct towards humans and therefore also alters the secondary structures of viral

RNA. Changing codon bias thus renders HIV-1 unspliced and singly-spliced transcript

expression independent of the HIV Rev responsive element (RRE), a *cis* acting RNA

structure necessary for transcript nuclear export (33). Codon optimization of *gag*

rescued the level of unspliced HIV-1 transcripts in polysomes during IFITM expression,

nor was there an accumulation of transcripts in low sucrose fractions as was seen with

wild type NL4-3 (fraction 7 in Figure 6A compared to fractions 6 in Figure 5E, F & G). As

a result, the level of extracellular p24 production from cells expressing IFITM1 and

IFITM2 was not only rescued but enhanced, and the production of the *gag* products p55

and p24 was also restored (Figure 6B, C and F), whereas contrasting data for full length

pNL4-3 DNA show clear losses of viral production and protein expression in similar

experiments (Figure 6D, E and F). These data suggest that IFITMs may recognize viral

RNA to suppress viral translation.

We then sought to identify the specific RNA features that render HIV-1 susceptible to an

IFITM-driven translational block. As our findings of transfected HEK293T cells showed

that unspliced and singly-spliced viral transcripts are seemingly more readily excluded

from polysomes by IFITM proteins than multiply-spliced transcripts in those cells (Figure

5), we reasoned that RRE, which is present in only unspliced and singly-spliced

transcripts may be somehow recognized due to IFITM protein expression leading to

translational inhibition. To address this, we exploited constructs in which singly-spliced

and unspliced transcripts had been rendered RRE and Rev independent via the

introduction of the Mason Pfizer Monkey Virus (MPMV) constitutive transport element

(CTE) (34). A modification which allows all transcripts to be exported from the nucleus

by the cellular TAP/NXT1 pathway, rather than RRE bearing Rev-dependent transcripts

exporting via the CRM1 pathway (35). We found that CTE dependent Rev independent

virus was still inhibited by IFITM proteins (Figure 6G), demonstrating at least that

nuclear export pathway does not affect the virus production inhibition seen with IFITM

proteins. Further introduction of the RRE into CTE bearing constructs did also not

augment the restriction.

Overall, these data suggests that the restriction of translation by IFITMs occurs at the

RNA level, though it is not clear that the RRE plays a significant role in susceptibility,

despite that RRE bearing transcripts are more affected in translation. Therefore some

other distinguishing feature of viral transcripts or translation determines their

susceptibility to IFITM proteins.

HIV Nef can help overcome IFITM-mediated restriction of protein synthesis

Under the selective pressure of cellular restriction factors, retroviruses have evolved to

counteract surveillance and restriction by host antiviral factors (reviewed in (1)). We

therefore sought to investigate if HIV is able to counteract the restriction of viral

production by IFITM proteins. We reasoned that HIV-1 Nef may influence this process.

IFITMs are membrane proteins and lentiviral Nef regulates the trafficking of many

membrane proteins such as CD4, MHC-I and tetherin to aid immune evasion and viral

replication (36-38). Further, the expression of a dominant negative form of HIV-1 Nef

(39), or *nef* deletion has previously been linked to deficits in viral production (40).

We therefore measured the level of virus production in HEK293T cells transfected with

expression vectors of IFITMs with wild type or *nef*-deleted HIV-1 NL4-3 proviral DNA.

The level of *nef*-deleted virus produced was inhibited 18-fold by IFITM1, 21-fold by

IFITM2 and 5-fold for IFITM3, suggesting a 4-fold enhancement of virus production due

to HIV-1 Nef during IFITM1 and IFITM2 expression (Figure 7A). We confirmed a

reduction in HIV-1 Gag levels in cells producing *nef*-deleted virus while IFITMs are

expressed (Figure 7B), indicating that Nef may rescue the translational suppression

driven by IFITMs. As these data were generated through transfection, they were

independent of any influence of Nef upon viral entry (5, 6). It is also of note that

exogenous IFITM levels were not reduced by HIV-1 Nef, perhaps indicating that

antagonism of IFITM proteins may not occur via degradation (Figure 7B).

We next investigated if Nef presented an advantage to viral growth in infected T-cells.

We infected SupT1 cells with either wild type or *nef*-deleted NL4-3 virus by post-entry

induction of IFITM expression via doxycycline (Figure 7C). As *nef*-deleted virus has an

inherent growth defect, we normalized the quantity of wild type and *nef*-deleted virus

produced from IFITM-induced cells to vector control cells. We chose to induce IFITMs

after viral entry and limit infections to a single round through the use of the (CXCR4

antagonist AMD3100) to mitigate the influence of IFITMs upon entry. In this regard, we

found that *nef*-deleted virus was no more susceptible to IFITM-mediated restriction of

entry than wild type virus (Figure 7D). Compared to wild type virus, production of *nef*-

deleted virus in infected SupT1 cells was reduced significantly when IFITM1 expression

was induced (~2-fold), while a trend of similar magnitude was noted for IFITM2.

However there was no rescue of virus infection by Nef in IFITM3 expressing cells

(Figure 7C).

To further confirm the role of IFITM1 in suppressing virus production in T cells, we

monitored the production of either wild type or *nef*-deleted HIV-1 NL4-3 virus in multiple

cycle infections in a C8166 T-cell line transduced to constitutively over-express IFITM1.

As IFITM1 does not typically affect the entry of CXCR4-tropic virus (Figure 4A, B and (8,

26)), any difference in replication measured between wild type and *nef*-deleted virus

could only arise from IFITM1-mediated effects on viral production, not cell entry.

Therefore this experiment was not pursued for IFITM2 and IFITM3, as their constitutive

expression would inhibit virus entry and complicate interpretation. We found that in the

presence of IFITM1, the growth of *nef*-deleted virus was significantly reduced relative to

wild type virus, with wild type virus showing 2-fold inhibition at 5 days post-infection,

while *nef*-deleted virus was inhibited 5-fold by IFITM1 (Figure 7E). Interestingly, the

benefit of Nef expression in the context of IFITM1 was lost in the later stages of viral

culture, when cell-to-cell infection typically predominates (41). As *nef*-deleted virus was

no more susceptible to IFITM-mediated restriction of entry than wild type virus (Figure

7D), these findings are likely due to the influence of Nef to partially rescue virus

production as seen in 293T cell transfections and SupT1 infections.

We then investigated if Nef from other lentiviruses was able to overcome IFITM-

mediated inhibition of protein synthesis using an HIV-1 NL4-3 plasmid proviral DNA into

which lentiviral *nef* alleles had been substituted (42). The level of virus production for

HIV-1 NL4-3 bearing other *nef* alleles during IFITM expression was generally

comparable to levels for wild type NL4-3 *nef* (Figure 7F), indicating that ability of

lentiviral Nef proteins to overcome IFITM mediated restriction of virus production is

common.

To further confirm the role of Nef in antagonizing IFITMs, we titrated a plasmid bearing

NA7 *nef* into cells transfected with IFITM expression plasmids and *nef*-deleted NL4-3

proviral HIV-1 DNA. Overexpression of Nef in cells transfected with 0.5µg Nef-encoding

plasmid resulted in a general lower level of viral proteins compared with cells

expressing lower levels of Nef. Despite this caveat, the level of viral production was

restored as the amount of Nef-encoding plasmid increased (0.005µg and 0.05µg in

Figure 7G). This was coupled with a dose dependent increase in viral protein production

(Figure 7G, H and I). These data show that Nef can help overcome IFITM-mediated

inhibition of HIV-1 production in a concentration-dependent manner. Taken together,

our data demonstrate that HIV-1 Nef is able to help overcome the inhibition of viral

protein production exerted by IFITM proteins and therefore enhance infection.

Discussion

We report here that IFITM proteins restrict HIV-1 by excluding viral mRNA from

polysomes thereby specifically inhibiting protein synthesis. Since the discovery of the

antiviral effect of IFITM proteins upon HIV-1 entry and infectivity, there have been data

suggesting that there may be a distinct IFITM function directed towards HIV-1

production (8, 10, 12, 13, 20-24). Despite the relative frequency of these passing

observations on viral production, the underlying processes leading to loss of viral

production during IFITM expression have not been explored. Nor was it known if HIV-1

can antagonize to this process as is seen for some antiviral restriction factors (reviewed

in (1)).

We have now advanced the understanding of this phenomenon by demonstrating the

breadth of the IFITM-mediated restriction of virus production, identifying the viral

replication process that is subverted, and determining a means by which HIV-1 may

partially overcome this effect. In addition, we find that restriction of viral production by

IFITM proteins is clear contributor towards the inhibition of HIV-1 production seen in

cells exposed to type I interferon, and have also shown that inhibition occurs in primary

CD4$^+$ T-cells at physiologically relevant levels of IFITM expression. From a mechanistic

perspective we have shown that HIV-1 RNA is the target of this inhibition, though the

viral determinant remains elusive. We therefore propose that inhibition of viral protein

synthesis is a genuine antiviral function exerted by IFITM proteins that is distinct from

previously described effects upon entry and infectivity.

Initial suggestions of a late-stage IFITM-mediated restriction have typically surrounded

two common laboratory HIV-1 strains, NL4-3 and BH10 (8, 10, 12, 23, 24). However, for

the putative anti-HIV restriction factor viperin/RSAD2, analysis demonstrated that the

phenotype could not be replicated beyond the laboratory strain NL4-3 (43). Therefore

our demonstration that IFITM proteins restrict production of multiple HIV-1, HIV-2 and

SIVs implies the phenotype we observe is likely not an artefact. This is supported by our

finding that African Green Monkey IFITM1 can exert a similar antiviral effect upon HIV-1

production as occurs with human IFITM1. Further work to fully define losses in viral

protein production for HIV-2 and SIVs will be of interest, particularly for HIV-2$_{ROD}$ and

SIV$_{AGM}$ that showed some resistance in restriction relative to other viruses tested. In

contrast, HIV-1 89.6 showed remarkable sensitivity to the restriction, and the molecular

basis of this is not yet known. It will also be of interest to explore if the restriction to virus

production is exerted by additional non-human IFITM alleles.

The general mechanism of restriction we outline is specific exclusion of HIV-1 mRNA

from polysomes during IFITM expression. In HEK293T cells the effect principally occurs

with IFITM1 and IFITM2, but less so for IFITM3 was generally consistent throughout our

analysis. Yet inducible expression of IFITM3 in SupT1 cells showed an equivalent

antiviral effect to IFITM1 and IFITM2, though as this was also linked to viral protein loss

and independent of IFITM-driven effects of viral entry, we consider that the same

translational blocks measured in polysome analysis of 293T cells drive the result in

SupT1 cells. Indeed, we considered it very likely cell type specific differences would

occur, as IFITM localization and thus antiviral activity are governed by both

ubiquitination and palmitoylation (22, 44). Reasonably the degree to which IFITM-driven

viral entry inhibition or viral translation inhibition occurs in particular cells is then

influenced by the activity of these pathways, which are known to commonly vary,

especially in cancer cells. Equally, other cell specific factors influencing viral

transcription (such as NFkB translocation) might also account for variation in antiviral

activity between cell lines, as higher virus transcriptional activity may overcome

inhibition. Thus future work to determine the parameters regulating the activity of the

antiviral process we describe will be of value. However, it is important to note that we

were able to clearly confirm the inhibition of viral production in primary human CD4^{+} T-

cells, demonstrating that inhibition of viral production by IFITMs occurs in HIV-1 target

cells at physiologically relevant levels of IFITM proteins.

Why IFITM1 and IFITM2 should act similarly in many instances, when IFITM2 and

IFITM3 have closer amino acid sequence identity and display greater overlap in cellular

localization is not yet clear (8, 17, 45, 46). IFITM-mediated antiviral effects upon viral

entry are principally determined by cellular localization, and we anticipate the inhibition

of protein synthesis to be similar (44, 45, 47). This is pertinent for differences we find

between IFITM2 and IFITM3. Despite their high sequence similarity, they typically show

distinct cellular localization.

The exclusion of viral transcripts from polysomes mainly seemed to affect unspliced and

singly-spliced transcripts. Yet despite a lack of significance, there was consistent but

weaker loss of multiply spliced transcripts from polysome fractions, coupled with

multiply-spliced transcript enrichment in low sucrose fractions. This is perhaps indicative

of some degree of multiply-spliced transcript translational blockage that explains the

loss of Nef protein seen throughout our experiments.

We saw no change in total unspliced mRNA levels in IFITM expressing cells yet there

was modest depletion of singly-spliced and multiply-spliced mRNA during IFITM1 and

IFITM2 expression. Though this overall depletion of total viral mRNA levels may partially

account for some loss of Vpu and Nef production, polysome analysis additionally

demonstrated clear exclusion of these transcript classes from translation. Why these

overall mRNA levels should be reduced is of interest. One possibility is a transcriptional

inhibition or pre-translational degradation, but degradation of mRNAs that have been

inhibited in translation is thought to be common (48). For example, the antiviral protein

ZAP, which degrades retroviral mRNA has also been shown to stall translation prior to

mRNA degradation, illustrating the fluid link between translational stalling and mRNA

stability (49, 50).

Susceptibility to inhibition occurred at the level of viral mRNA and so we sought to

identify the viral RNA susceptibility determinant. Our data showing *gag* codon

optimization relieves the late-stage IFITM inhibition of HIV-1 supports similar findings

(24). Singly-spliced and unspliced transcripts that bear the RRE were typically most

affected by IFITMs proteins in our analyses. Yet investigation of proviral constructs in

which the RRE was substituted for the CTE element were inconclusive, making it

difficult to reconcile a role for the RRE in determining inhibition, despite the appealing

observation that RRE bearing transcripts are typically most affected. Notably, RRE

bearing transcripts also have a non-human codon bias and surrounding splice sites that

may prove to influence restriction (51-54). As such further analysis to identify the HIV-1

RNA determinant of inhibition will then be of much value, though currently our further

attempts to identify the viral RNA determinant have been unsuccessful. Notably, a

recent study demonstrated that viral RNA CG dinucleotide frequency drives ZAP

mediated restriction, rather than a specific RNA structural determinant, thus the

determinant for IFITM-mediated restriction of protein synthesis may be similarly obscure

(55). Therefore further analysis of the differences between codon optimized vectors and

wild type vectors will then be revealing, as these were respectively enhanced and

inhibited during IFITM expression, and differ in a number of ways including codon bias,

splice sites, secondary structure and promoter. However, we were able to exclude the

broader possibilities of general translational arrest or further ISG induction due to IFITM

expression. Other aspects of the mechanism remain elusive also. IFITMs have no RNA

binding domain and so would require either an RNA-binding partner to directly achieve

inhibition, or would need to be involved in a pathway that could influence translation in

this manner.

If IFITMs are cofactors in direct inhibition of viral RNA translation, it is not yet clear how

a membrane protein can affect both soluble protein translation and membrane protein

translation, this may ultimately depend on the absolute strictness of translational site

partitioning, a concept which is under renewed debate (56). One unexplored possibility

is that the capacity of IFITM proteins to disrupt membrane fluidity or other membrane

physical characteristics to inhibition viral-cell membrane fusion (15, 57) on the cell

surface and in endosomal compartments similarly affects rough endoplasmic reticulum

membranes, leading to a disruption of membrane bound translational complexes.

Though how such a process could be specific to virus translation is unclear.

We demonstrated that the lentiviral protein Nef can help overcome the late-stage

inhibition of viral production exerted by IFITM proteins. Though notably this rescue is

not complete. Our data may help explain accounts of a Nef driven enhancement of HIV-

1 production (39, 40). The ability to overcome IFITM-mediated inhibition of virus

production was apparent with all HIV-1, HIV-2 and SIV *nef* alleles tested and it remains

to be seen if examples of enhanced or diminished Nef activity against IFITM will be

found (36).

Though the underlying mechanism of ability of Nef to counter IFITMs is unclear, we saw

no degradation of IFITMs in the context of viral protein expression. One possible

explanation may be re-trafficking, wherein Nef acts as an adaptor protein to direct

IFITMs away from their site of action on translation. This fits well with the sensitivity of

IFITM-mediated antiviral function to changes in IFITM localization (44, 45, 47), but also

fits with the ability of Nef to redirect a multitude of membrane proteins from their site of

action (37, 38, 58, 59). However, a second possibility is that due to the influence of Nef

on NFkB activity, viral transcription may be stimulated to a level that can saturate the

late-stage viral inhibition exerted by IFITM proteins (60).

We also found that, in multiple cycle infections, the benefit of Nef expression was only

seen early in culture but was latterly lost. Cell-free infection is prevalent in the early

stages of culture, but infection shifts towards a cell-to-cell mode in later stages (41). It

has been proposed that this represents a means of escape from immune factors in HIV-

1; as the high efficiency, high multiplicity of infection associated with cell-to-cell

transmission can overcome restriction (61, 62). For example, with the antiviral restriction

factor tetherin, antiviral effect is either severely weakened or absent during cell-to-cell

transmission of HIV-1 (29, 63, 64). The same effect may occur for IFITMs, especially as

we saw weaker inhibition at higher viral input in single cycle infections.

Thus we conclude that IFITMs are antiviral factors that can target HIV-1 translation. For

retroviruses this seems to be a recurring weak point in replication strategy that the

innate immune system has frequently evolved to target. For example, PKR senses viral

double stranded RNA and halts translation (65), while Schlaffen 11 inhibits viral protein

production by disrupting tRNA synthesis (66), and finally the protein ZAP which induces

viral mRNA degradation also stalls viral translation (50).

The model we put forward wherein IFITM expression specifically disrupts viral mRNA

translation may be applicable to other targets. Conceptually, other self and non-self

RNAs may be affected also. It is then of interest that a recent report found that LINE-1

transposon mobility could be inhibited by IFITM1 expression (67), which for a

retrotransposon cannot of course arise from viral entry effects. Future characterization

will therefore identify the viral RNA determinant of susceptibility, and the breadth of

antiviral and RNA regulatory response driven by IFITM proteins.

Materials and Methods

Plasmids

Human pQCXIP IFITM1-3 plasmids bearing an N-terminal FLAG were previously

described (57). The viral construct pBR4-3-eGFP-Nef, encoding for wild type HIV-1

NL4-3, pBR4-3-IeGFPΔNef, HIV-1 NA7, HIV-1 NL4-3 plasmids carrying *nef* alleles of

HIV-2 Ren or CBL and SIV AGM or MAC strains - all described in (42) - are kind gifts of

Professor Frank Kirchhoff (University of Ulm). HIV-2 MCR and MCN plasmids (68) are

kind gifts of Professor Áine McKnight (Queen Mary University of London). pSIV$_{agm}$Tan-

1, pSIV$_{cpz}$Tan1.910 and pSIV$_{mac}$1A11 are from NIH AIDS Reagent Program. Codon-

optimized HIV-1 NL4-3 is encoded by pCNC-SYNGP (32) (Oxford BioMedica). Plasmids

pCTEΔEnvΔRevΔRRE and pCTEΔEnvΔRev (34) are kind gifts of Professor Paul

Bieniasz (Rockefeller University).

Antibodies, cells and antiviral compounds

The following antibodies were used to detect IFITMs: human IFITM1 (clone 5B5E2,

Proteintech), IFITM2 (clone 3D5F7, Proteintech) and human IFITM3 (clone EPR5242,

Novus Biologicals). Anti-Flag (clone M2, Sigma) was used to detect FLAG-tagged

IFITMs. Anti-HIV1 Nef (clone 3F2, ThermoFisher), rabbit polyclonal anti-Vpu (Abcam)

and rabbit polyclonal anti-HIV1 Gag (Abcam) were used to detect viral proteins. As

loading control, β-actin (clone AC74, Sigma) and GAPDH (Abcam) antibodies were

used. Secondary antibodies were horseradish peroxidase conjugated goat anti-

rabbit/mouse IgG (Santa Cruz Biotech.). TZM-bl cells expressing shRNAs targeting

IFITMs were previously described (25), as were SupT1 cells inducible for IFITM

expression (8). Human Embryonic Kidney (HEK) epithelial 293T cells (HEK293T),

C8166 cells, TZM-bl cells, and SupT1 cells were maintained in standard conditions, and

were all originally procured from the NIH AIDS Reagents Program. Primary CD4$^+$ T cells

were isolated from leukocyte cones (NHS Blood Transfusion service, St. George's

Hospital, London) using the human CD4$^+$ T cell isolation kit according to manufacturer

instruction (Miltenyi Biotec). CD4$^+$ T cells were activated at 1×10^6/ml with T cell activator

CD3/CD28 Dynabeads (ThermoFisher), at a bead-to-cell-ratio of 1:1, in complete

medium (RPMI 1640 medium supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated fetal bovine

serum, 2mM L-glutamine, 100U/ml streptomycin, 100U/ml penicillin, all from

ThermoFisher) and 30U/ml IL-2 (Peprotech) for 48 hours. AMD3100 and Maraviroc

were obtained via the NIBSC AIDS Reagent Program.

Transfections

HEK293T cells were plated at 2×10^4/cm^2 in 48-well plates (for measurements of virus

production), 6-well plates (for measurements of whole cell viral transcripts by qPCR),

10cm dishes (for virus production, polysome analysis and immunoprecipitation, all from

Nunc), 48 hours before transfection. Plasmid DNA (total quantity of 1µg/well in 48-well

plates, 3µg/well in 6-well plates and 5µg/well in 10cm dishes) was diluted in OptiMEM

(ThermoFisher) at 10% volume of total cell culture medium. Equal quantity of different

plasmid DNA was added in co-transfection. Linear polyethylenimine (L-PEI) was added

at a w/w ratio of 5:1 into the diluted DNA. The transfection mixture was incubated at

room temperature for 10 minutes before added to cells.

TZM-bl cells were plated at $6\times10^4/cm^2$ in 48-well plates 24 hours before transfection. In

a 48-well format, 1µg/well plasmid DNA and 6µl Lipofectamine 2000 (ThermoFisher)

were diluted in OptiMEM, incubated for 10 minutes at room temperature and then added

to cells. Medium was replaced with medium containing 5µM AMD3100 and 100IU/ml

IFN-β (Peprotech) 4 hours post-transfection.

Infection

HIV-1 virus was produced from transfected HEK293T cells. SupT1 cells were

spinoculated with the indicated concentrations of inoculum for 2 hours at 37 C at 1000x

g in 96-well U-bottom plates (Nunc) followed by incubation at 37 C for 1 hour. Infected

cells were then washed 3 times with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS, Sigma) and re-

suspended in medium with 1µg/ml doxycycline (Sigma) and 5µM AMD3100. C8166

cells were infected with the same protocol without AMD3100. Supernatant was

harvested at the indicated time-points after centrifugation at 500x *g* for 5 minutes at

room temperature.

Transduction and infection of primary human CD4$^+$ T cells

In the presence of CD3/CD28 T-cell activator beads, 5×10^5/ml activated CD4$^+$ T cells

were transduced with IFITM-targeting or scrambled shRNA lentivirus with p24 at

100ng/ml for 2 hours at 1000 x*g*, 37°C and then for 1 hour incubation. Infected cells

were washed three times with PBS, re-suspended in complete medium with 30U/ml IL-2

and then incubated at 37°C for 48 hours. Prior to HIV infection, T cell activator beads

were removed from transduced CD4$^+$ T cells. Transduced CD4$^+$T cells were then

incubated with medium alone, 5μM Maraviroc or 5μM AMD3100 for 2 hours at 37°C.

Untreated cells and drug-treated cells were then infected with 100ng/ml p24 of NL4-3 or

89.6 virus, respectively, at 37°C, 1000 x*g* for 2 hours and then incubated for 1 hour.

Infected cells were then washed three times with PBS and re-suspended in complete

medium containing 30U/ml IL-2, 5μM Maraviroc and 5μM AMD3100. Aliquots of infected

cells were treated with 0.25% Trypsin/EDTA (ThermoFisher) for 15 minutes at 37°C,

washed three times with PBS, fixed in 2% paraformaldehyde, permeabilized in 0.2%

Triton X-100/PBS and stained with RD-1 conjugated monoclonal mouse anti-HIV-1-p24

(clone KC57, Beckman Coulter) for flow cytometry analysis of internalized virus. Level

of viral output in supernatant was measured by p24 ELISA 72 hours post-infection.

p24 ELISA

ELISA plates (Nunc) were pre-coated with 5μg/ml sheep anti-HIV-1 p24 antibody (Aalto

Bio Reagents) at 4 C overnight. Supernatant of transfected HEK293T, TZM-bl cells or

infected cells was treated with 1% Empigen BB (Sigma) for 30 minutes at 56°C, then

plated at 1:10 dilution in Tris-buffered saline (TBS) on anti-p24-coated plates and

incubated for 3 hours at room temperature. Alkaline phosphatase-conjugated mouse

anti-HIV-1 p24 monoclonal antibody (Aalto Bio Reagents) diluted in 20% sheep serum,

0.05% v/v Tween-20, TBS (all from Sigma) was then added and incubated for 1 hour at

room temperature. Plates were washed 4 times with 0.01% v/v Tween-20 in PBS and

twice with ELISA Light washing buffer (ThermoFisher). CSPD substrate with Sapphire II

enhancer (ThermoFisher) was added and incubated for 30 minutes at room temperature

before chemiluminiscence was read by a plate reader.

Reverse transcriptase (RT) activity and luciferase activity assays

Colorimetric reverse transcriptase activity assay kit (Roche) was used to determine

reverse transcriptase activity of HIV-1, HIV-2 and SIV in supernatants of transfected

HEK293T cells. Manufacturer instructions was followed except that supernatant was

first treated directly with lysis buffer (50mM Tris pH7.8, 80mM potassium chloride,

2.5mM DTT, 750µM EDTA and 0.5% Triton X-100, all from Sigma) for 30 minutes at

room temperature and then incubated in streptavidin-coated microplates for 15 hours at

37 C.

Luciferase activity of transfected HEK293T cells was analyzed with Bright-Glo luciferase

activity kit following manufacturer instructions (Promega).

Polysome profiling

Polysome analysis was performed with both manual fractionation and RNA analysis

(69). Transfected HEK293T cells were incubated with 100µg/ml cycloheximide (Sigma)

for 15 minutes for 37°C and then washed with ice-cold PBS with 100µg/ml

cycloheximide. Cells were then lysed in polysome buffer, 10mM Tris pH8, 140mM NaCl,

1.5mM $MgCl_2$, 0.5% v/v NP40, 100µg/ml cycloheximide, protease inhibitor cocktail (all

from Sigma) and 800U/ml RNase OUT (ThermoFisher), for 10 minutes on ice. Cell

lysate was centrifuged at 10, 000x *g* for 1 minute at 4°C and supernatant was then

adjusted to 200μg/ml cycloheximide and 700μg/ml heparin (Sigma). Following

centrifugation at 12, 000x *g* for 10 minutes at 4°C, an aliquot of supernatant was taken

as input and the rest was layered onto a 10% to 50% sucrose gradient prepared using

polysomal buffer. Gradients were then ultracentrifuged at 300,000x *g* for 16 hours at

4°C (Sorvall). After centrifugation, 20 550μl fractions were collected from the top of the

gradients for immunoblotting and quantitative PCR analyses. Level of RNA in fractions

was measured by absorbance at 254 nm (Nanodrop) and RNA was precipitated with 5x

volume of absolute ethanol (Sigma) overnight at −20°C.

Quantitative PCR

Total RNA of transfected HEK293T cells and precipitated RNA from polysome profiling

fractions were purified with RNeasy mini kit and on-column DNA digestion with RNase-

free DNase kit (both from Qiagen) following manufacturer instructions. 3ng of total RNA

per sample was analysed with Superscript III Platinum One-Step qRT-PCR kit with ROX

(for unspliced and multiply spliced viral transcripts, ThermoFisher) or QuantiTect SYBR

Green PCR kit (for singly-spliced viral transcript, Qiagen) and ABI 7500 Real Time PCR

system (Applied Biosystems). Cycling conditions were 50°C for 15 minutes, 95°C for 8

minutes, then cycling of 95°C for 15 s and 60°C for 30 s. Reactions carried out in the

absence of reverse transcriptase (Platinum *Taq* only) confirmed the absence of DNA

contamination. The samples were quantified against cloned standards.

Primers used to amplify unspliced (Forward, 5'-CCGTCTGTTGTGTGACTCTGG-3',

reverse, 5'-GAGTCCTGCGTCGAGAGATCT-3'), multiply-spliced (Forward, 5'-

CAGACTCATCAAGCTTCTCTATCAA-3', reverse, 5'-CTATTCCTTCGGGCCTGTC-3')

and singly-spliced (Forward, 5'-TAATCGGCCGAACAGGGACTTGAAAGCGAAAG-3',

reverse, 5'-CCCATCTCCACAAGTGCTGATACTTC-3') viral transcripts are described in

(70), (71), and (72), respectively. Oligonucleotide probes are labelled with 5'-FAM and

3'-TAMRA, (unspliced, 5'-TCTAGCAGTGGCGCCCGAACAGG-3' and multiply-spliced,

5'-AACCCACCTCCCAATCCCGAGG-3', all from ThermoFisher). Cellular GAPDH

(glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase) mRNA was additionally amplified as a

loading control with primers (Forward, 5'-AGGTCGGAGTCAACGG ATTTGG-3',

reverse, 5'-GATGGCAACAATATCCACTTTACCA-3') and probe (5'-

TCTTATTGGGCGCCTGGTCAC-3', as described in (71).

Immunoblotting

Cells were washed once with PBS and then lyzed in radioimmunoprecipitation buffer

(RIPA, containing 20mM Tris pH7.5, 150mM NaCl, 1mM EDTA, 1mM EGTA, 1% NP40,

1% sodium deoxycholate, 250µM sodium pyrophosphate, 1mM β-glycerophosphate,

1mM sodium vanadate and protease inhibitor cocktail, all from Sigma) for 30 minutes at

4°C. Lysate was then centrifuged for 10, 000x *g* for 10 minutes at 4°C. Protein

concentration of supernatant was determined by bicinchoninic acid (BCA) assay

(ThermoFisher). 10µg of protein per sample was analyzed by immunoblotting,

developed with ECL Prime reagents (GE Healthcare Life Sciences) and captured on

CL-XPosure films (ThermoFisher) or ChemiDoc MP system (Bio-Rad). Intensity of

immunobands was analysed by ImageJ (on X-ray films) or ImageLab (Bio-Rad).

Statistical analysis

Levels of viral output in p24 ELISA and RT assay were normalized to vector-transfected or scrambled shRNA-transduced control and expressed as the level of virus production unless otherwise indicated. Statistical analysis was performed with Graphpad Prism 5. Data shows mean + standard error of mean from a minimum of 3 independent experiments.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1. IFITMs inhibit HIV viral output and viral protein production in transfected 293T cells.

HEK293T cells were transfected with a titration of expression vectors for FLAG tagged

IFITMs. **(A)** Levels of virus production were measured by p24 ELISA 48h post-
transfection, and **(B)** cellular viral proteins and IFITMs were analyzed by
immunoblotting.

HEK293T cells were transfected with a fixed amount of FLAG-tagged IFITM expression
vectors and HIV-1 NL4-3 plasmid proviral DNA. Levels of virus production from
indicated HIV-1 plasmid proviral DNAs were measured by **(C)** p24 ELISA or **(D)** reverse
transcriptase activity (RT) 48h post-transfection. **(E)** Levels of cellular viral proteins and
IFITMs were analyzed by immunoblotting 48h post-transfection. Levels of virus
production from HEK293T cells transfected with expression vectors of IFITMs and
plasmid proviral DNA for **(F)** HIV-2 strains or **(G)** SIVs (AGM –African Green Monkey,
CPZ – Chimpanzee, MAC – Macaque). Viral production was measured by RT activity
assay and normalized. **(H)** Levels of virus production of HEK293T cells transfected with
expression vectors of African Green Monkey (AGM) IFITM1 and plasmid proviral DNA
of HIV-1 were measured by p24 ELISA and normalized. **(I)** Level of GFP expression in
HEK293T cells co-transfected with a CMV-driven GFP vector and IFITM-expression
vectors or empty vectors measured by flow cytometry 48 hours post-transfection. **(J)**
Infectivity of viral supernatants from HEK29T cells transfected with human IFITM1-3
expression plasmids with equal concentrations of p24 was measured in TZM-bl cells 48
hours post-infection and normalized to vector control. . Data show mean + S.E.M. from
3 independent experiments. All differences were assessed with Student's t-test and *
denotes p<0.05.

Figure 2. Inducible expression of IFITMs after viral entry inhibits HIV viral output
and viral protein production in infected SupT1 cells. (A) SupT1 cells were infected
with the indicated dilutions of wild type HIV-1 NL4-3 inoculum and then treated with
doxycycline to induce IFITMs post-entry, and AMD3100 to limit infection to a single
cycle. At 72h post-infection levels of virus production were measured by p24 ELISA and
differences assessed by Two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's multiple comparison test.
(B) Cellular viral proteins and IFITMs (from cells infected with 100ng/ml virus) were
analyzed by immunoblotting and **(C)** densitometry. Data show mean + S.E.M from 3
independent experiments. Differences were assessed with Student's t-test. * indicates

p<0.05.

Figure 3. Knockdown of IFITMs rescues HIV-1 output and viral protein production

in TZM-bl cells. TZM-bl cells transduced with shRNAs against the indicated IFITMs or

scrambled control (sc) were treated with 100IU/ml IFNβ for 72 hours. **(A)** Levels of

IFITM expression were analyzed by immunoblotting. **(B)** Scrambled control TZM-bl cells

were transfected with HIV-1 NL4-3 proviral DNA and treated with 100IU/ml IFNβ. Level

of virus production was measured by p24 ELISA 72h post-transfection. TZM-bl cells

transduced with shRNAs against the indicated IFITMs or scrambled control were

transfected with HIV-1 NL4-3 proviral DNA and then treated with AMD3100 and IFNβ 4h

post-transfection. Level of virus output and viral proteins was measured by **(C)** p24

ELISA and **(D)** immunoblotting, respectively, at 72 hours post-transfection. **(E)**

Immunoblotting was further analyzed by densitometry.

Figure 4. Knockdown of IFITMs rescues HIV-1 output and viral protein production

in primary CD4$^+$ T-cells. Activated human CD4+ T cells were transduced with lentivirus

expressing indicated shRNAs against IFITMs or scrambled sequence (sc) for 48 hours.

Cells were then infected with **(panels A to F)** HIV-1 NL4-3 or **(panels G to M)** 89.6. For

experiments with 89.6 infection, cells were pre-treated with AMD3100 for 2 hours prior

to infection and throughout. Immediately after infection, cells were treated with trypsin

and washed before intracellular staining of p24 and flow cytometry to measure virus

uptake. Intracellular levels of p24 and median fluorescence intensity are shown in **(A**

and G) representative histograms and **(B and H)** summary bar charts, respectively. **(C**

and I) Level of virus production was measured by p24 ELISA 72 hours post-infection

and normalized. **(D and J)** Level of IFITM expression and viral proteins was analyzed

by immunoblotting and then **(E, F, K, L and M)** densitometry from one representative

experiment of two independent experiments with two different blood donors. All data

show mean + SEM. Differences were assessed by Student's t-test, and * denotes

p<0.05.

Figure 5. IFITM proteins inhibit HIV-1 protein synthesis. (A) Level of viral transcripts

in HEK293T cells transfected with HIV-1 NL4-3 and IFITM DNA was measured by qPCR 48 hours post-transfection and the data normalized. **(B)** Level of RNA in polysome analyses of HEK293T cells transfected with plasmid proviral HIV-1 NL4-3 DNA and expression vectors for IFITMs (or vector alone) was measured by absorbance at 254nm. **(C)** Levels of GAPDH RNA was analyzed by qPCR and normalized to vector control in the indicated fractions. **(D)** Level of RPL7 in the indicated fractions was analyzed by immunoblotting. Levels of **(E)** unspliced, **(F)** singly-spliced and **(G)** multiply-spliced viral transcripts in the indicated sucrose gradient fractions in **(B)** was analyzed by qPCR then normalized with the levels of GAPDH RNA and input RNA. **(H)** Level of luciferase activity driven by ISRE in HEK293T cells transfected with proviral DNA of HIV-1 NL4-3 and plasmids for IFITMs or mitochondrial antiviral signalling protein (MAVS) was measured 48 hours post-transfection and normalized with vector control. Data shows mean + SEM from 3 independent experiments and differences were assessed by Student's t-test, * denotes p<0.05 compared to vector control.

Figure 6. HIV-1 RNA is a determinant of IFITM-mediated inhibition of protein synthesis. (A) Normalized levels of unspliced viral transcripts (measured by qPCR) in the polysome fractions of HEK293T cells transfected with codon-optimized HIV-1 NL4-3 Gag DNA and IFITM expression vectors at 48h post-transfection. **(B)** Levels of extracellular p24 in HEK293T cells transfected with codon-optimized HIV-1 Gag DNA measured by p24 ELISA 48h post-transfection and normalized. **(C)** Cellular levels of HIV-1 Gag (p55 and p24) were analyzed by immunoblotting.**(D)** Levels of virus production in HEK293T cells transfected with wild-type HIV-1 NL4-3 proviral DNA and IFITM-expression plasmids or empty vector was measured by p24 ELISA 48 hours post-transfection and normalized. Cellular levels of HIV-1 Gag (p55 and p24) in cells transfected were analyzed by **(E)** immunoblotting. **(F)** Normalized levels of p55 and p24 in (C) and (E) were further analyzed by desitometry. Data show mean + SEM from 3 independent experiments, differences were assessed by Student's t-test, * denotes p<0.05 compared to vector control.

Figure 7. HIV Nef can help overcome IFITM-mediated inhibition of protein

synthesis. (A) Level of virus production in HEK293T cells transfected with expression vectors for IFITMs and HIV-1 NL4-3 proviral DNA with a deletion (ΔNef) was measured by p24 ELISA 48 hours post-transfection and the data normalized, fold change of virus production compared to vector control is indicated. Differences were assessed with Student's t-test. **(B)** Intracellular level of p55/p24 and IFITMs was measured by immunoblotting.

(C) SupT1 cells inducible for IFITM expression were infected with the indicated dilutions of wild type or Nef-deleted (ΔNef) HIV-1 NL4-3 inoculum and then treated with doxycycline to induce IFITMs post-entry and AMD3100 to limit infections to a single round. Differences were assessed with Two-way ANOVA. Level of virus production was measured by p24 ELISA 72 hours post-infection and the data normalized.

(D) HIV-1 Nef does not overcome IFITM-mediated inhibition of early viral replication steps. C8166 CD4+ T-cells were transduced to constitutively overexpress IFITM1-3. Cells were then infected with the wild type pBR4-3-eGFP-Nef virus or pBR4-3-eGFP-ΔNef virus. Cells were measured for GFP expression 48h post-infection by FACS to determine infection rate. Data show fold-change in restriction of GFP infection rates during IFITM expression relative to empty vector control cells.

(E) C8166 cells constitutively expressing either vector control or IFITM1 were infected with either wild type or Nef-deleted (ΔNef) HIV-1 NL4-3. Levels of virus production were measured by p24 ELISA at the indicated time-points post-infection and were normalized to the levels of virus produced from vector controls. Differences were assessed with Two-way ANOVA.

(F) HEK293T cells were transfected with expression vectors for IFITMs and HIV-1 NL4-3 proviral DNA with either wildtype NL4-3 *nef* or the indicated lentiviral *nef* alleles. Virus production was measured by p24 ELISA 48 hours post-transfection and the data normalized.

(G) HEK293T cells were transfected with ΔNef HIV-1 NL4-3 proviral DNA, expression vectors for IFITMs and an increasing proportion of HIV-1 Nef-encoding vector versus empty vector in a fixed total quantity. Level of virus production was measured by p24 ELISA 48 hours post-transfection, while levels of viral proteins and IFITM-FLAG expression was analyzed by **(H)** immunoblotting and **(I)** densitometry. Data show mean

1005   + SEM of 3 independent experiments and differences were assessed by Student's t-

1006   test, * denotes p<0.05.

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Figure 1

A

% virus production (p24) cf. vector control

- hIFITM1 (solid)
- hIFITM2 (diagonal)
- hIFITM3 (dotted)

Percentage of IFITM plasmid

(x-axis: 0.0, 12.5, 25.0, 37.5, 50.0, 100.0)

B

% of hIFITM Plasmid transfected

0 12.5 37.5 25 50 100

p55 ◀

p24 ◀

p24 (long exp.)

hIFITM1 | hIFITM2 | hIFITM3

β-actin

C

% virus production (p24)

- Vector
- hIFITM1
- hIFITM2
- hIFITM3

NL4-3   89.6   Indie C

ns   *   ns

HIV-1

D

% virus production (RT)

- Vector
- hIFITM1
- hIFITM2
- hIFITM3

NL4.3   89.6   IndieC

HIV-1

E

Vector/ hIFITM   V 1 2 3

gp120
p55
p24
Nef
Vpu
FLAG
GAPDH

F

% virus production (RT)

- Vector
- hIFITM1
- hIFITM2
- hIFITM3

ROD   MCR   MCN

HIV-2

G

% virus production (RT)

- Vector
- hIFITM1
- hIFITM2
- hIFITM3

AGM   CPZ   MAC

SIVs

H

% virus production (RT)

- Vector
- AGM-IFITM1

NL4.3   89.6   IndieC

HIV-1

I

C3-GFP: 5'— [CMV ie | *gfp*]—3'

% MFI of GFP

ns

Vector   hIFITM1   hIFITM2   hIFITM3

J

Fold change in infectivity

Vector   hIFITM1   hIFITM2   hIFITM3

IFITMs

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7