1 **HIV-1 Vpr antagonizes cGAS sensing by targeting karyopherin-mediated NF-κB/IRF3**
2 **nuclear transport**
3

4 Hataf Khan[1,2,+], Rebecca P. Sumner[1,+], Jane Rasaiyaah[1,3], Choon Ping Tan[1,4], Maria Teresa
5 Rodriguez-Plata[1,5], Chris van Tulleken[1], Douglas Fink[1], Lorena Zuliani-Alvarez[1], Lucy Thorne[1],
6 David Stirling[1,6] & Greg J. Towers[1]
7
[1]Division of Infection and Immunity, University College London, 90 Gower Street, London, UK
[2]Current address: Department of Infectious Diseases, King's College London, London, UK
[3]Current address: Molecular and Cellular Immunology Unit, UCL Great Ormond Street Institute of
Child Health, London, UK.
[4]Current address: Translation & Innovation Hub, 80 Wood Lane, London, UK
[5]Current address: Black Belt TX Ltd, Stevenage Bioscience Catalyst, Gunnels Wood Rd,
Stevenage, UK
[6]Current address: Broad Institute of MIT and Harvard University, Cambridge, MA, USA.
[+]equal contribution
*Correspondence: g.towers@ucl.ac.uk

18
Summary (150 words)

HIV-1 must replicate in cells that are equipped to defend themselves from infection through the
intracellular innate immune system. Hence, HIV-1 evades innate immune sensing through
encapsidated DNA synthesis and encodes accessory genes that antagonize specific antiviral
effectors. Here we show that the HIV-1 Vpr protein antagonizes the stimulatory effect of a variety
of pathogen associated molecular patterns, including cytoplasmic DNA, by inhibiting IRF3 and
NF-κB nuclear transport. Both particle associated, and expressed Vpr, antagonized innate
immune signaling. Phosphorylation of IRF3 at S396, but not S386, was also inhibited by Vpr. We
provide evidence that Vpr interacts with karyopherins and disturbs their recruitment of IRF3 and
NF-κB to prevent nuclear transport. Our data demonstrate Vpr rescue of HIV-1 replication in
human macrophages from inhibition by cGAMP, the product of activated cGAS. We propose that
Vpr inhibition of innate immune activation serves a critical function in promoting HIV-1 replication
and transmission.

32
33 Key words: HIV-1, Vpr, DNA sensing, cGAS, Karyopherin, IRF3, NF- κB, nuclear transport

Introduction

Like all viruses, lentiviruses must navigate the hostile environment of the host cell in order to infect, produce new viral particles, and transmit to new cells. A principal feature of cellular defences is detection or sensing of incoming viruses and subsequent production of inflammatory cytokines, particularly type 1 interferons (IFNs). All viral infections likely trigger IFN *in vivo* and the degree to which they do this, and their capacity to antagonize IFN activity and its complex effects, are key in determining transmission mechanism, host range and disease pathogenesis. Like other viruses, lentiviruses antagonize specific host proteins or pathways that would otherwise suppress infection. For example, HIV-1 antagonizes IFN induced restriction factors through accessory genes encoding Vif (APOBEC3G/H), Vpu (tetherin) and Nef (tetherin/SERINC3/5) (Foster et al., 2017; Sumner et al., 2017) Although Vpr has been implicated in manipulating host defences to facilitate replication, its mechanisms and its innate immune relevant target proteins have been obscure (Trotard et al., 2016). This is partly because demonstration of Vpr-dependent HIV-1 replication has been elusive and results inconsistent between studies (Dedera et al., 1989; Fouchier et al., 1998; Hattori et al., 1990). Vpr clearly changes infected cell protein profiles changing the level of hundreds of proteins in proteomic studies, probably indirectly in most cases (Greenwood et al., 2019). There is also evidence for Vpr interacting directly with particular proteins such as its cofactor DCAF1 (Zhang et al., 2001), the host enzyme UNG2 (Wu et al., 2016) as well as HTLF (Lahouassa et al., 2016; Yan et al., 2019), SLX4 (Laguette et al., 2014) and CCDC137 (Zhang & Bieniasz, 2019). However, the mechanistic details of Vpr promotion of HIV replication are poorly understood.

Here we show that Vpr rescues HIV-1 replication in innate immune activated macrophages. We show that Vpr suppresses nuclear entry of the activated inflammatory transcription factors IRF3 and NF-κB. We identify Vpr mutants that fail to recruit to the nuclear envelope, and fail to antagonize innate sensing, but retain induction of cell cycle arrest, genetically separating key Vpr functions. We also provide evidence that wild type (WT) Vpr, but not functionally inactive Vpr mutants, prevent IRF3 and NF-κB nuclear transport by recruiting karyopherin alpha 1 (KPNA1) and competing with IRF3 and NF-κB p65, for KPNA1 mediated nuclear import.

Results

HIV-1 replication in cGAMP-stimulated MDMs requires Vpr

We prepared human monocyte-derived macrophages (MDM) by purifying monocytes from peripheral blood by adherence and treating with M-CSF (Rasaiyaah et al., 2013). Macrophages prepared in this way are particularly permissive to HIV-1 replication facilitating study of HIV-1 biology in a primary myeloid cell type. In MDM, wild type HIV-1 and HIV-1ΔVpr replicated equally well, measuring infection by staining infected cells with anti-Gag antibody (Figure 1A) (Rasaiyaah et al., 2013) as has been previously shown (Fouchier et al., 1998). Wild type and ΔVpr virus also

replicated equally well in activated CD4+ T cells purified from peripheral blood, consistent with
previous studies (Figure S1A) (Dedera et al., 1989; Fouchier et al., 1998). We hypothesized that,
given HIV synthesizes a DNA pathogen associated molecular pattern (PAMP) in the cytoplasm,
then Vpr might be particularly important when DNA sensing is activated. In fact, mimicking
activation of DNA sensor cGAS by treating cells with cGAMP, the product of activated cGAS,
induced Vpr-dependent HIV-1 replication in MDM. 1µg/ml cGAMP specifically suppressed HIV-
1ΔVpr more potently than wild type virus and 4µg/ml cGAMP overcame Vpr activity and
suppressed replication of both wild type and mutant viruses (Figure 1A). Intriguingly, Vpr did not
rescue HIV-1 replication from cGAMP-mediated inhibition in primary human CD4+ T cells, and
cGAMP treatment did not particularly inhibit replication in a Jurkat T cell line, suggesting that the
consequences of cGAMP treatment differ between macrophages and T cells (Figure S1A)
consistent with previous observations (Gulen et al., 2017; Xu et al., 2016).

HIV-1 particle delivered Vpr inhibits gene expression stimulated by DNA sensing
We next tested Vpr activity in THP-1 cells, a tractable cell line for studying myeloid cell biology.
THP-1 naturally express cGAS and STING and have a functional DNA sensing pathway
(Mankan et al., 2014). THP-1 cells expressing the Gaussia luciferase gene under the control of
the endogenous promoter for the *IFIT1* gene (herein referred to as THP-1 IFIT1-luc) have been
described (Mankan et al., 2014) and were used to study the effect of virion-associated Vpr on
cGAMP activation of IFIT1-luc expression. IFIT1, (ISG56), is a well-characterized ISG that is
highly sensitive to cGAMP and type 1 IFN.

Treatment of THP-1 IFIT-luc cells with cGAMP induced IFIT1-luc expression by two orders of
magnitude (Figure 1B). THP-1 were then infected with VSV-G pseudotyped HIV-1 GFP and
simultaneously stimulated with 5µg/ml cGAMP and luciferase was read at 6 hours, 8 hours and
24 hours post-infection (Figure 1B). Consistent with data in MDM, infection with VSV-G
pseudotyped HIV-1, genome-free, particles bearing Vpr, (referred to here as virus-like particles
or VLP), but not VLP lacking Vpr, suppressed IFIT1-luc induction by over an order of magnitude
(Figure 1B). Doses of VLP required to suppress IFIT1-luc expression were high, equivalent to a
multiplicity of infection of 20 as measured by correlating VLP reverse transcriptase levels (SG-
PERT) (Vermeire et al., 2012), with HIV-1 GFP titers. We assume that such a high dose is
required because cGAMP treatment activates numerous STING complexes in most of the
cGAMP-treated cells. Therefore, correspondingly large doses of Vpr-bearing VLP are required to
suppress activation. Conversely, if cGAS/STING is activated by a high dose of the HIV particles
themselves, which only contain a single DNA genome molecule, we expect that the amount of
Vpr contained in an individual particle should be sufficient to suppress activation. To test this, we
activated DNA sensing using high dose infection by VSV-G pseudotyped HIV-1 vectors bearing
GFP-encoding genome. We used an HIV-1 packaging plasmid, derived from HIV-1 clone R9,

encoding Gag-Pol, Tat and Rev (p8.91) or Gag-Pol, Tat and Rev and Vpr, Vpu, Vif and Nef (p8.2) (Zufferey et al., 1997). We infected THP-1 cells with similar doses of HIV-1 GFP, prepared using p8.2 and therefore bearing Vpr, or p8.91 with no Vpr. Strikingly, although Vpr positive and negative HIV-1 GFP stocks infected the THP-1 to similar levels (Figure 1D), induction of inflammatory cytokine and ISG CXCL10 was reduced if the HIV-1 GFP carried Vpr (p8.2) (Figure 1C). This indicates that although sensing is activated, this does not reduce the infectivity of single round HIV-1 GFP vector infectivity. A role for sensing of viral DNA was evidenced by our observation that HIV-1 particles made without genome did not induce CXCL10 expression (Fig 1E). In this experiment, p8.91 derived HIV-1 GFP, bearing genome, but not Vpr, acted as a positive control and activated CXCL10 expression as before. HIV-1 GFP bearing Vpr did not activate CXCL10 expression, as before (Figure 1C, E). Infection by HIV-1 particles without genome were uninfectious while Vpr+ and Vpr- HIV-1 GFP particles containing viral DNA were equally infectious (Figure 1F). Induction of CXCL10 expression induced by HIV-1 GFP was dependent on cGAS because THP-1 cGAS knock out cells did not induce CXCL10, whereas knock out of the RNA sensing adaptor protein MAVS had no effect (Figure 1G). Importantly, single round titer of HIV-1 GFP was not affected by cGAS or MAVS knock out, confirming that sensing activation does not impact single round infectivity of HIV-1 GFP VSV-G pseudotypes in this assay (Figure 1H, Figure S1B). cGAS and MAVS knockout were confirmed by immunoblot (Figure S1C).

HIV-1 Vpr expression inhibits interferon stimulated gene expression after DNA sensing
We next tested whether Vpr expression can suppress innate immune activation by cGAMP using THP-1 IFIT1-luc cells. Vpr from the primary founder HIV-1 clone SUMA (Fischer et al., 2010) was expressed using the HIV-1 vector pCSVIG (Figure S2A, S2B) titrating between an MOI of approximately 0.2-1. Cells were then treated with cGAMP (5µg/ml) 40 hours after infection with Vpr encoding vector, and IFIT1-luc was measured 8 hours after cGAMP treatment. Untransduced cells expressed IFIT1-luc readily on cGAMP stimulation, as did cells infected with empty vector (Figure 2A). However, prior expression of Vpr reduced IFIT1-luc responses in a dose-dependent manner. The highest doses of Vpr encoding vector, corresponding to an MOI of about 1, suppressed IFIT1-luc expression by an order of magnitude (Figure 2A). Importantly, expression of empty vector at the highest dose (MOI=1) did not reduce IFIT1-luc induction by cGAMP (Figure 2A). Vpr expression (MOI=1, Figure S2C) also suppressed cGAMP-mediated induction of endogenous ISG mRNA expression, measured by qRT-PCR for *MxA*, *CXCL10*, *IFIT2* and *viperin* (Figure 2B). In a separate experiment, secreted CXCL10, induced by cGAMP treatment of THP-1, was also inhibited by Vpr expression (Figure 2C), (infection data in Figure S2D). Consistent with the notion that Vpr antagonizes DNA sensing, IFIT1-luc expression stimulated by transfection of Herring Testis (HT) DNA was also inhibited by Vpr expression in THP-1 IFIT1-luc cells (Figure 2D, Figure S2E). Vpr expression appeared to mediate a

generalized suppression of innate immune activation because it also reduced the activation of IFIT1-luc by Sendai Virus infection, which is mediated by MDA5 and RIGI RNA sensing (Andrejeva et al., 2004; Rehwinkel et al., 2010) (Figure 2E, Figure S2G). Activation of IFIT1-luc by the TLR4 ligand LPS was also reduced by Vpr expression in a dose-dependent manner (Figure 2F, S2H).

Vpr inhibition of innate immune activation is dependent on DCAF1 but independent of cell cycle arrest

In order to separate innate immune antagonism by Vpr from other Vpr functions, we identified an inactive Vpr mutant. HIV-1 SUMA Vpr F34I/P35N was effectively incorporated into p8.91 derived HIV-1 particles when expressed *in trans* in transfected 293T cells (Figure 3A). HIV-1 GFP particles bearing wild type Vpr, but not Vpr F34I/P35N, effectively suppressed IFIT1-luc expression in THP-1 induced by 5µg/ml cGAMP, added at the time of infection, by an order of magnitude (Figure 3B). Vpr degrades specific target proteins, e.g. the cellular protein UNG2, by recruiting the Cul4 E3 Ubiquitin ligase complex via the substrate recognition component DCAF1 (Ahn et al., 2010). The Vpr mutant Q65R fails to recruit DCAF1, and therefore cannot degrade target proteins (Laguette et al., 2014). Vpr Q65R also efficiently incorporated into HIV-1 GFP particles (Figure 3A), but barely suppressed IFIT1-luc induction by cGAMP in THP-1 cells (Figure 3B), when delivered by viral particles. Concordantly, shRNA mediated depletion of DCAF1 in THP-1 also prevented Vpr from inhibiting cGAMP induction of IFIT1-luc (Figure 3C). Neither DCAF1 depletion, nor cGAMP treatment reduced infectivity of HIV-1 GFP vector (Figure S3A). Vpr was active in cells expressing a non-targeting shRNA (shControl) and suppressed IFIT1-luc induction. Expression of empty (no Vpr) vector had no effect on IFIT1-luc induction (Figure 3C). Effective depletion of DCAF1 was evidenced by immunoblot (Figure 3D).

Importantly, Vpr has been shown to arrest cell cycle via SLX4 complex modulation (Laguette et al., 2014; Zhang & Bieniasz, 2019) Indeed, Vpr expression in THP-1 cells induced a significant increase of cells in G2/M phase of cell cycle, measured by labeling DNA with propidium iodide, visualized by flow cytometry (Figure 3E). Expression of Vpr F34I/P35N, which cannot effectively suppress cGAMP mediated IFIT1-luc/ISG expression (Figure 3B, 3G), also induced G1/M cell cycle arrest, albeit slightly less efficiently than wild type Vpr protein (Figure 3E). Conversely, Vpr R80A, previously shown to be defective in inducing cell cycle arrest (Laguette et al., 2014), did not increase the number of cells in G2/M (Figure 3E). Data in Figure 3E are quantified in Figure S3G. Importantly, VprR80A was packaged into HIV-1 particles (Figure 3A), and suppressed IFIT1-luc activation by cGAMP in THP-1 (Figure 3B). These data genetically separate the effect of Vpr expression on cell cycle, and inhibition of innate immune activation, suggesting that these Vpr activities depend on manipulation of different target proteins. It is striking that amino acids at positions 34/35 and 80 are close in Vpr structures and distant from the UNG2 binding site,

suggesting an additional target binding interface, as seen in the highly related Vpx protein
(Figure S3B, C) (Morellet et al., 2003; Schwefel et al., 2014; Wu et al., 2016). The DCAF1 Vpr
binding mutant Q65R did not inhibit cell cycle, as reported (Figure 3E) (Laguette et al., 2014).
Expressed Vpr had similar mutation sensitivity as Vpr delivered by HIV-1 particles (compare
Figures 3F and 3B). Expression of wild type Vpr and Vpr R80A prevented cGAMP activation of
the IFIT1-luc reporter (Figure 3F) and of endogenous *MxA* in THP-1 cells (Figure 3G, S3D). HT
DNA transfection, but not lipofectamine alone, activated IFIT1-luc reporter expression, as
expected, and this was also sensitive to wild type and VprR80A expression but not expression of
Vpr F34I/P35N (Figure S3E, S3F). Vpr Q65R had only a small inhibitory effect in this assay.
200
Wild Type Vpr, but not sensing antagonism inactive Vpr mutants, colocalize with nuclear
pores
Having identified Vpr mutants defective for antagonism of innate immune sensing, we sought
further clues for Vpr mechanism by examining wild type and mutant Vpr location within cells. Vpr
expressed in isolation is found in the nucleus and associated with nuclear pores (Fouchier et al.,
1998; Le Rouzic et al., 2002). Concordantly, we found FLAG-Vpr (green) in the nucleus and
colocalized with antibody staining the nuclear pore complex when expressed by transient
transfection in HeLa cells (Figure 4A, B). Strikingly, the Vpr mutants F34I/P35N and Vpr Q65R,
which did not suppress PAMP activation of IFIT1-luc/ISG expression (Figure 3) were
mislocalized, as compared to wild type and R80A Vpr, which are both active against the
consequences of PAMP sensing (Figure 3). Vpr mutants F34I/P35N and Q65R appeared
qualitatively different inside the nucleus, and nuclear rim staining was less well defined,
suggesting that they have lost interactions with a protein(s) that normally influences their position
within the cell. Association between Vpr (green) and the nuclear rim, stained with anti-nuclear
pore complex antibody mAb414 (red), was assessed by comparing the fluorescence intensity of
the red (NPC) and green (Vpr) signal across the nucleus along the white line (Figure 4C). In
single confocal images, fluorescence intensity of the nuclear rim stain showed two distinct peaks
representing each edge of the nucleus, and these overlapped with WT and Vpr R80A
fluorescence but not with Vpr F34I/P35N or Vpr Q65R fluorescence, which was more diffuse and
less well defined at the nuclear rim. Cellular DNA was counter stained with DAPI (blue).
221
Vpr has been described to interact with cyclophilin A (CypA) and mutating Vpr residue P35 was
reported to prevent this interaction (Zander et al., 2003). The nuclear pore complex has
cyclophilin-like domains, which are structurally very similar to CypA, at the end of the Nup358
fibers that protrude into the cytoplasm (Schaller et al., 2011). To test whether Nup358 was
required for Vpr association with the nuclear rim, we expressed FLAG-Vpr in Nup358-depleted
HeLa cells (Schaller et al., 2011) and stained the Vpr FLAG tag (green) and NPC (red) (Figure
S4A, B). Despite effective Nup358 depletion (Figure S4C), Vpr remained associated with the

nuclear rim (Figure S4A, B, D). This suggested that Nup358 is not required for Vpr nuclear rim
association.
231
Vpr inhibits IRF3 nuclear translocation
Given that Vpr is associated with the nuclear rim, and Vpr mutants that break antagonism of
innate sensing are mislocalized, we hypothesized that Vpr may act at nuclear pores to influence
nuclear transport of inflammatory transcription factors. This would be consistent with previous
reports of Vpr influencing nuclear transport, for example, of viral nucleic acids (references PMID
27181198, 8041786, 9463369) and inhibiting sensing of HIV-1 26656698. cGAMP is produced
by activated cGAS and is recruited by STING, which then forms an active kinase complex in
which TBK1 phosphorylates STING, TBK1 itself and the transcription factor IRF3 (Liu et al.,
2015; Zhang et al., 2019). IRF3 phosphorylation promotes nuclear translocation and subsequent
activation of gene expression including type 1 IFNs (Chen et al., 2008). As expected, transfection
of THP-1 cells with HT DNA induced phosphorylation of STING, TBK1 and IRF3-S386,
measured by immunoblot, compare lanes 1-3 with lanes 4-6 (Figure 5A). Measurement of IFIT1-
luc expression in the same samples, which were split and extracted for immunoblot, indicated
effective induction of IFIT1-luc by HT DNA transfection and its inhibition by Vpr expression, but
not empty vector (Figure 5B). Strikingly, Vpr expression did not impact STING, TBK1 or IRF3
protein levels, or their phosphorylation status, measuring IRF3 phosphorylation at S386,
compare lanes 4 and 5 with lane 6 (Figure 5A). Infection levels of Vpr encoding, and empty
vector, were similar (Figure S5A). Empty vector expression also had no detectable effect on
protein levels or phosphorylation (Figure 5A). Actin was detected as a loading control and Vpr
was expressed at a vector MOI of about 1 (Figure S5A). A second example of this experiment is
presented in (Figure S5B-E). IRF3 is phosphorylated at multiple sites during activation including
at IRF3 S-396. We therefore examined IRF3 S-396 phosphorylation using a phospho-IRF3-S396
specific antibody and flow cytometry because this antibody didn't work well by immunoblot. We
found that in this case, Vpr delivery by VLP did reduce phosphorylation of IRF3-S-396 after
stimulation by either cGAMP or HT DNA in THP-1 cells (Figure 5C). In these experiments, Vpr
was delivered by genome free virus like particles made by transfection of 293T cells with p8.91,
VSV-G and pcDNA3.1 expressing Vpr *in trans*, as before (Figure 1).
259
Given that STING, TBK1 and activating IRF3-S386 phosphorylation status were not inhibited by
Vpr expression, we investigated the effect of Vpr on IRF3 nuclear translocation after cGAMP
treatment of THP-1. In these experiments, THP-1 were differentiated with 50ng/ml phorbol-12
myristate acetate (PMA) to attach them to glass for microscopy. Vpr expression, using titration of
Vpr encoding pCSVIG, reduced cGAMP-stimulated IRF3 nuclear translocation, illustrated by
immunofluorescent labeling of IRF3 (Figure 5D, E, S5F). Nuclear translocation was quantified by
dividing nuclear by cytoplasmic staining intensities for individual cells, measured on a Hermes

WISCAN microscope, and plotting translocation coefficients in dot plots (Rasaiyaah et al., 2013)
(Figure 5D, E). As a negative control, infection of THP-1 with empty vector had no effect on IRF3
translocation (Figure 5D, E). Data in Figure 5D are plotted as a bar chart counting IRF3 positive
nuclei, assessed by defining a threshold that clearly splits IRF3 positive and negative nuclei
populations in the dot plot (Figure 5D, E). Importantly, suppression of IRF3 nuclear translocation
by Vpr was sensitive to Vpr mutation, with the same specificity as before (Compare Figure 3, 4,
5F, S5G-J). Vpr F34I/P35N and Vpr Q65R failed to efficiently suppress IRF3 nuclear localization
after cGAMP stimulation (Figure 5F, S5G) or after transfection of differentiated THP-1 with HT
DNA (Figure 5G, S5H). Conversely, wild type Vpr and Vpr R80A effectively suppressed IRF3
nuclear localization after stimulation with cGAMP or HT DNA (Figure 5F, G S5G, H). Similar
inhibition specificity by Vpr was also seen after activation of IRF3 nuclear translocation by
transfection with the RNA mimic poly I:C (Figure S5I, J).
279
Vpr inhibits NF-κB p65 nuclear translocation and NF-κB sensitive plasmid expression
DNA sensing by cGAS is known to activate NF-κB as well as IRF3 (Fang et al., 2017). To test
whether Vpr influenced NF-κB activation we repeated the experiment in Figure 1C-F but using
THP-1 cells bearing an NF-κB -luciferase reporter (NF-κB-luc) (Figure 6A-C). VSV-G
pseudotyped HIV-1 GFP vector bearing Vpr (packaging construct p8.2) did not particularly
activate NF-κB-luc expression, whereas high dose HIV-1 GFP made without Vpr (packaging
construct p8.91), activated NF-κB-luc expression effectively (Figure 6A). Activation was
dependent on viral genome because similar doses of HIV-1 VLP, made without genome plasmid,
did not induce NF-κB-luc expression (Figure 6A). Viral doses were equalized by measurement of
RT activity (SGPERT) (Vermeire et al., 2012). Vpr positive, and Vpr negative, HIV-1 GFP were
equally infectious and genome-free VLP were not infectious, as expected (Figure 6B). Vpr
expression in THP-1 using pCSVIG vector, but not empty vector expression, suppressed
subsequent cGAMP-mediated activation of the NF-κB-sensitive gene *IL6* (Figure 6C). We could
not detect NF-κB nuclear localization in THP-1 after cGAMP treatment of THP-1, perhaps due to
timing, so we tested mutant Vpr specificity using poly I:C to stimulate NF-κB nuclear localization
in differentiated THP-1. We found that Vpr inhibited NF-κB nuclear localisation with similar
sensitivity to mutation as for IRF3. Activation of NF-κB nuclear translocation by poly I:C,
measured by immunofluorescence in the same way as IRF3 nuclear localization, was
suppressed by wild type Vpr and Vpr R80A but not by Vpr F34I/P35N or Vpr Q65R (Figure 6D,
S6B).
300
301 Previous work has shown that Vpr inhibits the activity of the human CMV immediate early
302 (CMVie) promoter (X. Liu et al., 2015). We hypothesized that this effect may be due to the
303 dependence of this promoter on NF-κB (DeMeritt et al., 2004). As expected Flag-Vpr expression
304 suppressed GFP expression from a co-transfected CMVie – GFP construct (Figure 6E) as well

as several other NF-κB sensitive constructs expressing luciferase (Figure S6A). Importantly, Vpr mutants F34I/P35N and Vpr Q65R suppressed GFP expression much less effectively that WT Vpr or Vpr R80A, concordant with this being due to inhibition of transcription factor nuclear entry (Figure 6E, S6D, E). To probe this further, we expressed GFP from two constructs not expected to be NF-κB sensitive because they do not bear any obvious NF-κB binding sites. We used a construct in which GFP is driven from the Ubiquitin C (Ub) promoter (Matsuda & Cepko, 2004) or from the elongation factor 1 alpha (EF1α) promoter (Matsuda & Cepko, 2004). Expression of GFP from the Ub and EF1α promoter were only very slightly reduced by Vpr co-expression but GFP expression from the CMVie promoter was reduced as before (Figure 6F). This correlated with promoter sensitivity to NF-κB because CMVie-GFP expression was induced by activation of NF-κB with exogenous tumour necrosis factor alpha (TNFα) whereas Ub-GFP and EF1α-GFP were not (Figure 6G, S6E-F). Thus, the suppression of activated NF-κB nuclear transport likely explains the observation that Vpr suppresses expression from a CMVie promoter but not promoters that are independent of NF-κB activity for expression.

HIV-1 Vpr interacts with karyopherins and inhibits NF-κB (p65) and IRF3 recruitment

WT Vpr suppresses nuclear entry of IRF3 and NF-κB, but Vpr DCAF1 binding mutant Q65R does not (Figure 5, 6). This suggested that Vpr might degrade particular nuclear transport proteins to exert its effect. We therefore tested whether Vpr expression caused degradation of karyopherins KPNA1, KPNA2, KPNA3, KPNA4, KPNA5, KPNA6 or KPNB1. We infected cells with Vpr bearing HIV-1, extracted total protein 48 hours after infection, and detected each protein using immunoblot and specific antibodies (Figure 7A). However, we did not detect reduced levels of any of these karyopherins. It is possible that Vpr recruits karyopherins but does not degrade them. To test this, we sought interaction between Vpr and karyopherins KPNA1, KPNA2 and KPNA3 by co-immunoprecipitation. We found that immunoprecipitation of wild type HA-Vpr co-precipitated Flag-KPNA1 and to a lesser degree Flag-KPNA2 and Flag-KPNA3, but not Flag-tagged GFP (Figure 7B). In a second experiment we tested whether KPNA1-3 interacted with the inactive Vpr mutant F34I/P35N. In this experiment WT Vpr interacted with KPNA1 as before, with less efficient interaction with KPNA2 and KPNA3 (Figure 7C). Importantly, in this experiment KPNA1 interacted with the Vpr F34I/P35N only very weakly, and much less than WT Vpr, consistent with the mutant's reduced activity in antagonizing innate immune sensing (Figure 7C). Given that Vpr expression did not cause KPNA1 degradation, we sought evidence for Vpr disturbing interactions between KPNA1 and IRF3 or NF-κB p65. HA-IRF3 immunoprecipitated with Flag-KPNA1 as expected and this interaction was reduced by expression of WT Vpr, but not inactive mutant Vpr F34I/P35N (Figure 7D). A similar competing immunoprecipitation experiment with KPNA1 and NF-κB p65 gave similar results. Immunoprecipitation of Flag-KPNA1 co-precipitated NF-κB p65 and this was reduced by co-expression of WT Vpr, but not Vpr F34I/P35N (Figure 7E). We conclude that Vpr interacts with KPNA1, and possibly other KPNA

proteins, and prevents them from efficiently recruiting and transporting transcription factors IRF3
and NF-κB into the nucleus after innate immune activation.

Discussion

Here we have provided evidence that Vpr interacts with karyopherin KPNA1 (Figure 7) to inhibit
nuclear transport of IRF3 and NF-κB (Figure 5, 6) and subsequent gene expression changes
downstream of innate immune sensing (Figures 1-3). Thus, Vpr antagonizes the consequences
of innate immune activation by DNA sensing, explaining its ability to rescue HIV-1 replication in
cGAMP-treated macrophages (Figure 1). We propose that Vpr provides an *in vivo* replication
advantage because activation of IRF3 and NF-κB induces expression of inflammatory cytokines,
including type 1 IFNs, and subsequently restriction factors for which HIV-1 does not encode
antagonists. For example, IFN induces MxB (Goujon et al., 2013; Kane et al., 2013), IFITM1-3 (T
L Foster et al., 2016) and TRIM5α (Jimenez-Guardeño et al., 2019) all of which inhibit HIV-1.
Concordantly, accidental infection of a lab worker with a Vpr-defective HIV-1 isolate resulted in
delayed seroconversion, suppressed viremia and normal T-cell counts without need for anti-viral
treatment (Ali et al., 2018).

Vpr inhibited induction of ISG mRNA and protein expression downstream of various innate
immune stimuli suggesting that Vpr is active against a variety of agonists (Figure 2). Broad Vpr
activity is explained by our observation that Vpr acts at the level of IRF3 and NF-κB nuclear
transport. Vpr localised to the nuclear rim of cells when expressed (Figure 4), also consistent
with activity at the level of nuclear transport. We were surprised that Vpr reduced IRF3
phosphorylation at S396 but not at S386 (Figure 5). Previous studies have suggested that
phosphorylation of IRF3 at S386 is necessary and sufficient for IRF3 activation (Lin et al., 1999;
Mori et al., 2004; Schirrmacher, 2015; Servant et al., 2003; Suhara et al., 2000; Yoneyama et al.,
1998). Thus our data are consistent with Vpr inhibiting transport of activated IRF3, and
phosphorylation at S396 being after phosphorylation at S386, and perhaps occurring in a
karyopherin or NPC interaction dependent way. Phosphorylation of IRF3 at S396 has been
associated with enhanced association and multimerization with transcriptional coactivator CREB
binding protein (CBP/p300) suggesting a later role than phosphorylation at S386 (Chen et al.,
2008). It is also possible that the lack of S396 IRF3 phosphorylation is a consequence of Vpr-
mediated suppression of IRF3 nuclear import i.e. dephosphorylation at S396 if nuclear entry is
prevented.

It is noteworthy that the Vpr DCAF1 binding mutant Vpr Q65R was somewhat mislocalised
suggesting a role for DCAF1 in defining Vpr location in addition to facilitating target protein
degradation (Figure 4). Previous work has also associated DCAF1 with Vpr localisation (Zhang
et al., 2001). Vpr F34I/P35N (Figure 4) was also mislocalised, consistent with its failure to

interact efficiently with KPNA1 (Figure 7). Importantly, both Vpr mutants Q65R and F34I/P35N, were non-functional in antagonism of innate stimuli measured by ISG expression (Figure 3), IRF3/NF-κB nuclear translocation (Figure 5, 6) and inhibition of plasmid expression (Figure 6). Thus Vpr location and activity are likely governed by interaction with both DCAF1 and KPNA proteins.

Classical nuclear import of proteins is carried out via karyopherins, or importins, recruitment of a canonical basic NLS in protein cargoes. The transporter complexes solubilise cargoes in the Phe-Gly (FG) matrix that fills the central nuclear pore complex channel formed by FG repeats contributed by NPC associated proteins. The regulation of the nuclear import of NF-κB and IRF3 by multiple karyopherins is expected to be complex (Fagerlund et al., 2005, 2008; Kumar et al., 2002; Liang et al., 2013). Targeting karyopherins is a typical viral strategy for manipulation of cellular responses and the different ways viruses perform this function hints at the complexity involved. For example, Japanese encephalitis virus NS5 targets KPNA2, 3 and 4 to prevent IRF3 and NF-κB nuclear translocation (Ye et al., 2017). Hantaan virus nucleocapsid protein inhibits NF-κB p65 translocation by targeting KPNA1, -2, and -4 (Taylor et al., 2009). Most recently, vaccinia virus protein A55 was shown to interact with KPNA2 to disturb its interaction with NF-κB (Pallett et al., 2019). Hepatitis C virus NS3/4A protein restricts IRF3 and NF-κB translocation by cleaving KPNB1 (importin-β) (Gagne et al., 2017). We propose that the different mechanisms of NF-κB/IRF3 manipulation by viruses reflect their reliance on transcriptional activation while simultaneously depending on inhibition of transcription factors taking part in defensive processes. We hypothesise that each virus has specifically adapted to manipulate nuclear transport of transcription factors to facilitate replication while dampening inflammatory responses downstream of pattern recognition receptors. This is consistent with Vpr inhibiting NF-κB p65 despite depending on NF-κB activity for enhancement of viral transcription (Griffin et al., 1989). One possibility is that once Gag is expressed, Gag recruits Vpr to viral particles to prevent further manipulation of nuclear transport (Belzile et al., 2010).

Vpr has previously been shown to interact with KPNA1, 2 and 4 (Nitahara-Kasahara et al., 2007; Takeda et al., 2011; Vodicka et al., 1998). Here we confirm an interaction with KPNA1 by co-immunoprecipitation that is reduced by Vpr mutation F34I/P35N, which does not impact cell cycle manipulation, but prevents antagonism of innate immune sensing. Importantly we did not observe degradation of any karyopherins tested in the presence of Vpr, rather Vpr prevented interaction of KPNA1 with IRF3 and NF-κB p65. This suggests that some KPNA1 nuclear import function may be left intact by the virus to facilitate a more subtle manipulation of host cell biology (Figure 7). A similar model of inhibition of KPNA target binding to manipulate nuclear import has been suggested by a crystal structure of Ebola Virus VP24 protein in complex with KPNA5. This

study proposed that VP24 targets a KPNA5 NLS binding site to specifically inhibit nuclear import
of phosphorylated STAT1 (W. Xu et al., 2014).

Our data also likely explain previous reports of the suppression of expression from co-
transfected CMV promoter-driven plasmids by Vpr (X. Liu et al., 2015). The fact that NF-κB-
independent and TNFα-insensitive ubiquitin and EF1α promoters were not sensitive to Vpr is
consistent with this model (Figure 6). It is likely that inhibition of NF-κB nuclear transport inhibits
expression from the NF-κB-dependent CMV promoter, but another possibility is that transcription
factor bound to cytoplasmic plasmid DNA has a role in importing DNA into the nucleus, and it is
plasmid transport that is inhibited (Mesika et al., 2001). Our model is summarized in Figure S7.

Importantly, our data suggest that manipulation of cell cycle by Vpr is independent of
manipulation of IRF3 and NF-κB nuclear transport. The Vpr R80A mutant, which does not arrest
cell cycle, or manipulate SLX4 complex (Gaynor & Chen, 2001; Laguette et al., 2014) was
functional in inhibition of innate sensing (Figures 3, 5, 6). Mapping the residues of Vpr that are
important for innate immune inhibition onto structures resolved by NMR and X-ray
crystallography reveals a potentially distinct interface from that targeting UNG2 (Figure S3).
Residues Vpr 34/35 are distant from the UNG2 binding site but R80 is close in the 3D structure.
Given that Vpr has been shown to bind FxFG motif in p6 of Gag during virion incorporation (Zhu
et al., 2004), and FG motifs at the NPC (Fouchier et al., 1998) it is possible that Vpr also
manipulates transport across the nuclear pore through FG motif recruitment at the NPC.

Virus transmission is essential for their survival and so selective pressures applied by defensive
host innate immunity at the time of transmission is expected to be important. We hypothesise a
critical role for Vpr in viral transmission. Association between activation of innate sensing and
transmission is suggested by evidence of low HIV transmission frequency (Shaw & Hunter,
2012), HIV founder clones being particularly resistant to IFN (Iyer et al., 2017) as well activation
of a dramatic cytokine cascade at the time of transmission (Stacey et al., 2009). Concordantly,
Vpu, Nef and Vif, and now Vpr, antagonize innate immunity to enhance viral replication, reviewed
in Sumner et al., 2019. Given that HIV-1 is very sensitive to type 1 IFN, we imagine that the IFN
recorded in peripheral blood at the time of transmission (Stacey et al., 2009), occurs either after
transmission is established, or occurs in compartments that are separated, or distant from, the
effectively transmitted virus.

We and others, have argued that the genome of wild type HIV-1 is not efficiently sensed by
nucleic acid sensors, or degraded by cellular nucleases, because the capsid protects HIV-1
genome, and regulates the process of reverse transcription, during transport across a hostile
cytoplasmic environment, prior to uncoating at the NPC, or in the nucleus of infected cells

(Bejarano et al., 2019; Burdick et al., 2017; Francis et al., 2016; Jacques et al., 2016; Rasaiyaah
et al., 2013; Schaller et al., 2011; Yan et al., 2010; Zila et al., 2019) (Rebecca P Sumner et al.,
2019). However, other studies have demonstrated sensing of wild type HIV-1 DNA by cGAS
(Gao et al., 2013; Lahaye et al., 2013; Yan et al., 2010), and here we observed cGAS-
dependent, Vpr-sensitive, induction of CXCL10 by high dose VSV-G pseudotyped single round
HIV-1 GFP vector in THP-1 cells. We propose that both capsid and Vpr have a role in preventing
HIV-1 stimulating innate immune sensing and that both are required for the lowest levels of
activation, particularly to promote replication *in vivo* (Ali et al., 2018). *In vitro*, primary myeloid
cells behave according to the stimuli they have received. Thus, inconsistent results between
studies could be explained by differences in myeloid cell stimulation due to differences in cell
purification and differentiation methods or reagents used. Methods of virus purification, here
performed by centrifugation through sucrose, may also be a source of target cell activation and
experimental variation. Here, we observed cGAMP induction of Vpr dependence in MDM (Figure
1). Replication in activated primary CD4+ T cells was, in our hands, independent of Vpr in the
presence and absence of cGAMP, which was inhibitory, suggesting that Vpr cannot overcome
signalling downstream of cGAMP in these cells. This implies that activated T-cells respond
differently to cGAMP than macrophages, consistent with a previous study suggesting that in
Tcell/macrophage mixed cultures, the negative effects of cGAMP on HIV-1 replication was
principally mediated via macrophages (Xu et al., 2016).
475
476 In summary these findings highlight the crucial role of particle associated Vpr in inhibiting innate
477 immune activation during the early stages of the viral life cycle. We propose that the further study
478 of viral inhibition of inflammatory signalling downstream of pathogen sensing may lead to a better
479 understanding of the complexity of PAMP-driven inflammatory responses and highlight tractable
480 novel targets for therapeutic anti-inflammatory development.
481

Acknowledgements
We thank Veit Hornung for providing THP-1-IFIT-1 cells wild type and knock outs, Geoffrey
Smith for providing constructs encoding KPNA1-3 and Clare Jolly and Richard Sloan for
providing NL4.3ΔVpr. This work was funded through an MRC PhD studentship (HK) an MRC
Clinical Training Fellowship (CVT), a Wellcome Trust clinical training fellowship (DF), a
Wellcome Trust Senior Biomedical Research Fellowship (GJT), the European Research Council
under the European Union's Seventh Framework Programme (FP7/2007-2013)/ERC (grant
HIVInnate 339223) (GJT), a Wellcome Trust Collaborative award (GJT) and was supported by
the National Institute for Health Research University College London Hospitals Biomedical
Research Centre.

492
Author contributions

HK, RPS, LZA, LT, DF and GJT conceived the study. HK, RPS, JR, CPT, MTRP, CVT and DS
performed experiments. HK, RPS and GJT analyzed the data. HK, RPS and GJT wrote the
manuscript.

Star Methods

Cells and reagents

HEK293T cells were maintained in DMEM (Gibco) supplemented with 10 % foetal calf serum
(FCS, Labtech) and 100 U/ml penicillin and 100 µg/ml streptomycin (Pen/Strep; Gibco). THP-1
cells were maintained in RPMI (Gibco) supplemented with 10% FCS and Pen/Strep. THP-1-IFIT-
1 luciferase reporter cells express Gaussia luciferase under the control of the endogenous IFIT1
promoter have been described (Mankan et al., 2014). THP-1 CRISPR control, *cGAS-/-* and
MAVS -/- knockout cells have been described (Mankan et al., 2014). Nup358 depleted HeLa
cells have been described (Schaller et al., 2011). Lipopolysaccharide, poly I:C and TNFα were
obtained from PeproTech. Sendai virus was obtained from Charles River Laboratories. Herring-
testis DNA was obtained from Sigma. cGAMP was obtained from Invivogen. NF-κB Lucia THP-1
reporter cells were obtained from Invivogen.

Cloning and plasmids

The Vpr gene from HIV-1 founder clone SUMA (Fischer et al., 2010) was codon optimised and
synthesised by GeneArt. To generate the HIV-1 vector encoding Vpr (pCSVIG), the codon
optimised SUMA Vpr gene was cloned into pSIN-BX-IRES-Em between BamHI and XhoI sites
under the control of the SFFV LTR promoter. pSIN-BX-IRES-Em was obtained from Dr Yasuhiro
Takeuchi. EF1α-GFP and UB-GFP were obtained from Addgene (Matsuda & Cepko, 2004). The
CMV-GFP construct was pEGFPC1 (Clontech). HIV-1 bearing a Ba-L envelope gene has been
described (Rasaiyaah et al., 2013). Flag- KPNA1-3 plasmids were obtained from Prof. Geoffrey
Smith. HIV-1ΔVpr was a gift from Richard Sloan and encoded an 17 nucleotide insertion (Vpr 64-
81) that destroys the Vpr coding sequence.

Production of virus in HEK293T cells

Replication competent HIV-1 and HIV-1 GFP vectors were produced by transfection of HEK293T
cells in T150 flasks using Fugene 6 transfection reagent (Promega) according to the
manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, just-subconfluent T150 flasks were transfected with 8.75 µg
of HIV-1 YU2 or HIV-1 YU2 lacking Vpr (HIV-1 YU2 ΔVpr) and 30 µl Fugene 6 in 500 µl Optimem
(Thermofisher Scientific). To make VSV-G pseudotyped HIV-1 GFP, each T150 flask was
transfected with 2.5 µg of vesicular stomatitis virus-G glycoprotein encoding plasmid (pMDG)
(Genscript), 2.5 µg of packaging plasmid, p8.91 (encoding Gag-Pol, Tat and Rev) or p8.2
(encoding Gag-Pol, Tat and Rev and Vif, Vpr, Vpu and Nef) (Zufferey et al., 1997), and 3.75 µg

of GFP encoding genome plasmid (pCSGW) using 30 µl Fugene 6 in 500µl optimum. To make

Vpr encoding HIV-1 GFP, 3.75 µg pCSVIG was transfected with 2.5 µg of pMDG and 2.5 µg of

p8.91. To make HIV-1 GFP particles bearing Vpr, 1 µg of Vpr expressing pcDNA3.1 (wild type

SUMA Vpr or Vpr mutants) was transfected with 2.5 µg of pMDG and 2.5 µg of p8.91 in 30ul

Fugene-6 and 500µl Optimem. All virus supernatants were harvested at 48 and 72 h post-

transfection, replicate flasks were pooled, and supernatants subjected to ultracentrifugation

through a 20% sucrose cushion at 23000 rpm for 2 hours in a 30 ml swingout rotor (Sorvall)

(72000G). Viral particles were resuspended in RPMI supplemented with 10% FCS. HIV-GFP

produced with p8.91 or p8.2 used in Figure 1 were DNase treated for 2 hours at 37°C (DNaseI,

Sigma) prior to ultracentrifugation. Viruses were titrated by infecting THP-1 cells (2×10^5 cells/ml)

with dilutions of sucrose purified virus in the presence of polybrene (8 µg/ml, Sigma) and

incubating for 48 h. GFP-positive, infected cells were counted by flow cytometry using a BD

Accuri C6 (BDBiosciences). HIV-1 vector encoding shRNA targeting DCAF1 has been described

and was prepared as above (Berger et al., 2015).

SG-PERT

Viral doses were determined by measuring reverse transcriptase activity of virus preparations by

qPCR using a SYBR Green-based product-enhanced PCR assay (SG-PERT) as described

(Vermeire et al., 2012).

Isolation of primary monocyte-derived macrophages and CD4+ T cells from peripheral

blood

Primary monocyte-derived macrophages (MDM) were prepared from fresh blood from healthy

volunteers. Primary CD4+ T cells were obtained from leukocyte cones from healthy donors. The

study was approved by the joint University College London/University College London Hospitals

NHS Trust Human Research Ethics Committee. Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs)

were isolated by density gradient centrifugation using Lymphoprep (Stemcell Technologies). For

MDM preparation, PBMCs were washed three times with PBS and plated to select for adherent

cells. Non-adherent cells were washed away after 1.5 h and the remaining cells incubated in

RPMI (Gibco) supplemented with 10 % heat-inactivated pooled human serum (Sigma) and

40 ng/ml macrophage colony stimulating factor (R&D systems). Cells were further washed after 3

days and the medium changed to RPMI supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated human serum

(Sigma). MDM were then infected 3-4 days later at low multiplicity of infection. Spreading

infection was detected by Gag staining and counting Gag positive cells as described (Rasaiyaah

et al., 2013). For CD4+ T cells, untouched CD4+ T cells were purified from PBMCs with an

indirect magnetic labeling system (MACS, Miltenyi Biotec), according to manufacturer's

instructions. Cells were then cultured with 2 µg/ml of plate-bound anti-CD3 and anti-CD28

monoclonal antibodies (αCD3αCD28 stimulation) (mAbs) (eBioscience) and 25 U/ml of

recombinant human interleukin-2 (IL-2; Roche Applied Science) at a concentration of 1.5-2 x 10^6

cells/ml in RPMI supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated Human Serum (HS) (SigmaAldrich).

Cells were maintained at 37°C in 5% CO_2 in a humidified incubator for 72 h. CD4+ T cells were

then assessed for spreading infection of CXCR4-tropic HIV-1 NL4.3 WT and ΔVPR at low

multiplicity of infection (300 mU of HIV-1 RT Activity per 1x10^6 cells). Percentage of HIV-1-

infected primary CD4+ T cells was determined by flow cytometry measuring p24Gag antigen

employing the monoclonal antibody p24Gag-FITC (HIV-1 p24 (24-4), Santa Cruz Biotechnology).

Innate immune sensing assays

THP-1 cells were seeded in 96 well plates (5x10^5 cells/ml). For Vpr expression, cells were

infected with an empty or Vpr expressing (pCSVIG) lentiviral vectors for 40 hours. For stimulation

of cells with HT-DNA or poly I:C, 0.2 µl of lipofectamine and 25 µl of Optimem were incubated

with HT-DNA or poly I:C (amounts stated in figure legends) for 20 minutes and added to cells.

Lipopolysaccharide (1 µg/ml), TNFα (200 ng/ml), Sendai virus (200 HA U/ml) or cGAMP (5

µg/ml) were added directly to the media. For experiments with virion delivered/associated Vpr,

cells were stimulated at the time of infection. Gaussia/Lucia luciferase activities were measured 8

hours post cell stimulation by transferring 10 µl supernatant to a white 96 well assay plate,

injecting 50 µl per well of coelenterazine substrate (Nanolight Technologies, 2 µg/ml) and

analysing luminescence on a FLUOstar OPTIMA luminometer (Promega). Data were normalized

to a mock-treated control to generate a fold induction.

ELISA

Cell supernatants were harvested for ELISA at 8 h post-stimulation and stored at -80 °C. CXCL-

10 protein was measured using Duoset ELISA reagents (R&D Biosystems) according to the

manufacturer's instructions.

ISG qPCR

RNA was extracted from THP-1 cells using a total RNA purification kit (Norgen) according to the

manufacturer's protocol. Five hundred ng RNA was used to synthesise cDNA using Superscript

III reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen), also according to the manufacturer's protocol. cDNA was

diluted 1:5 in water and 2 µl was used as a template for real-time PCR using SYBR® Green PCR

master mix (Applied Biosystems) and a 7900HT Real-Time PCR machine (Applied Biosystems).

Expression of each gene was normalised to an internal control (*GAPDH*) and these values were

then normalised to mock-treated control cells to yield a fold induction. The following primers were

used:

GAPDH: Fwd 5'-GGGAAACTGTGGCGTGAT-3', Rev 5'-GGAGGAGTGGGTGTCGCTGTT-3'

CXCL-10: Fwd 5'-TGGCATTCAAGGAGTACCTC-3', Rev 5'-TTGTAGCAATGATCTCAACACG-3'

IFIT-2: Fwd 5'-CAGCTGAGAATTGCACTGCAA-3', Rev 5'-CGTAGGCTGCTCTCCAAGGA-3'

MxA: Fwd 5'-ATCCTGGGATTTTGGGGCTT-3', Rev 5'-CCGCTTGTCGCTGGTGTCG-3'

Viperin: Fwd 5'-CTGTCCGCTGGAAAGTG-3', Rev 5'-GCTTCTTCTACACCAACATCC-3'

IL-6: Fwd 5'- AAATTCGGTACATCCTCGACG-3', Rev 5'- GGAAGGTTCAGGTTGTTTTCT-3'

Immunofluorescence

For confocal microscopy, HeLa cells (5×10^4 cells/ml) were seeded into 24-well plates containing

sterile glass coverslips. For nuclear translocation assays, THP-1 cells (4×10^5 cells/ml) were

adhered in an optical 96-well plate (PerkinElmer) with 50 ng/ml phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate

(PMA, Peprotech) for 48 hours. HeLa or adhered THP-1 cells were then washed twice with ice-

cold PBS and fixed in 4% (vol/vol) paraformaldehyde. Autofluorescence was then quenched in

150 mM ammonium chloride, the cells permeabilized in 0.1% (vol/vol) Triton X-100 in PBS and

blocked for 30 min in 5% (vol/vol) FCS in PBS. Cells were incubated with primary Ab for 1 hour

followed by incubation with secondary Ab for 1 hour. Cells were washed with PBS three times

between each step. The coverslips were placed on a slide prepared with a 30 μl drop of

mounting medium (Vectashield, containing 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI)) and allowed to

set before storing at 4° C. Images were taken on a Leica TCS SPE confocal microscope and

analyzed in ImageJ. For IRF3/NF-κB(p65) translocation, images were taken on Hermes WISCAN

(IDEA Bio-Medical) and analyzed with Metamorph software (Molecular Devices). Metamorph

calculated a translocation coefficient representing the proportion of staining in nuclear versus

cytoplasmic compartments. A value of 1 represents "all staining in the nucleus", -1 is "exclusively

in cytoplasm" and 0 is "equally distributed".

Primary antibodies were from the following sources: Mouse-anti-FXFG repeats containing

nucleoporins (Mab414) (Abcam), Rabbit-anti-flag (Sigma), Rabbit-anti-IRF3 (Santa Cruz

Biotechnology) and Mouse-anti-NF-kB p65 (Santa Cruz Biotechnology). Primary antibodies were

detected with Goat-anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 488 IgG (Invitrogen) or Goat-anti-mouse Alexa Fluor

546 IgG (Invitrogen).

Immunoblotting

For immunoblotting of viral particles, sucrose purified (as described above) virions (1×10^{11} RT

units) were boiled for 10 min in 6X Laemmli buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 6.8), 2 % (w/v) SDS,

10% (v/v) glycerol, 0.1% (w/v) bromophenol blue, 100 mM β-mercaptoethanol) before separating

on 12 % polyacrylamide gel. Cells were lysed in lysis buffer containing 50 mM Tris pH 8, 150 mM

NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 10% (v/v) glycerol, 1 % (v/v) Triton X100, 0.05 % (v/v) NP40 supplemented

with protease inhibitors (Roche), clarified by centrifugation at 14,000 x *g* for 10 min and boiled in

6X Laemmli buffer for 10 min. Proteins were separated by SDS-PAGE on 12% polyacrylamide

gels. Proteins were transferred to a Hybond ECL membrane (Amersham biosciences) using a

semi-dry transfer system (Biorad). Primary antibodies were from the following sources: Rabbit-

anti-VSV-G (Sigma), Rabbit-anti-HIV-1 p24 (NIH AIDS reagent program), Rabbit-anti-STING (Cell signaling), Rabbit-anti-pSTING (Cell signaling), Rabbit-anti-TBK1 (Cell signaling), Rabbit-anti-pTBK1 (Cell signaling), Rabbit-anti-IRF3 (Cell signaling), Rabbit-anti-pIRF3-386 (Sigma), Mouse-anti-actin (Abcam), Rabbit-anti-cGAS (Cell Signaling Technology), Mouse-anti-MAVS (Cell Signaling Technology), Rabbit-anti-DCAF1 (Bethyl), Rabbit-anti-Nup358 (Abcam), Mouse-anti-flag (Sigma), Rabbit-anti-GFP (Abcam), KPNA1-6 (ABclonal), KPNB1 (ABclonal), Rabbit-anti-cypB (Abcam), Mouse-anti-FLAG (Sigma), Rabbit-anti-HA (Sigma) and Rabbit-anti-Vpr (NIH). Primary antibodies were detected with goat-anti-mouse/rabbit IRdye 800CW infrared dye secondary antibodies and membranes imaged using an Odyssey Infrared Imager (LI-COR Biosciences).

Cell cycle analysis

WT Vpr or Vpr mutants were expressed in THP-1 cells using pCSVIG at an MOI of 1. Cells were incubated for 48 hours and then washed with PBS and fixed in 1 ml cold 70% ethanol on ice for 30 minutes. To ensure efficient fixing and minimise clumping, ethanol was added dropwise while vortexing. Cell were pelleted in a microfuge and ethanol was removed followed by two wash steps with PBS. To remove RNA from the samples, RNase A (100 μg/ml) was added and the cells were stained with propidium iodide (PI) (50 μg/ml) to stain cellular DNA. Cells were incubated for 10 minutes at room temperature and DNA content analysed by flow cytometry on a BD FACSCalibur (BD Biosciences). The data were analysed with FlowJo.

Generation of Vpr mutants

Site directed mutagenesis was performed using Pfu Turbo DNA Polymerase (Agilent) according to the manufacturer's instructions with the following primers using either pCDNA3.1 or pCSVIG encoding SUMA Vpr as template.

VprF34I+P35N: Fwd 5'-GCCGTGCGGCACATCAACAGACCTTGGCTGCATAGC-3',

Rev 5'GCTATGCAGCCAAGGTCTGTTGATGTGCCGCACGGC-3'

VprQ65R: Fwd 5'-GCCATCATCAGAATCCTGCGGCAGCTGCTGTTCATC-3',

Rev 5'-GATGAACAGCAGCTGCCGCAGGATTCTGATGATGGC-3'

VprR80A: Fwd 5'-GGCTGCCGGCACAGCGCCATCGGCATCACCCCT-3',

Rev 5'-AGGGGTGATGCCGATGGCGCTGTGCCGGCAGCC-3'

Co-immunoprecipitation assays

HEK293T cells were grown in 10 cm dishes and co-transfected with plasmids expressing a FLAG-tagged protein (1 µg KPNA1, KPNA2, KPNA3, GFP or empty vector (EV)) and 1 µg of a plasmid expressing HA-tagged SUMA Vpr wild-type, or Vpr F34I/P35N mutant using 6 µl Fugene-6 (Promega). For KPNA-cargo IPs HEK293T cells were grown in 10 cm dishes and co-transfected with 1 µg of a plasmid expressing FLAG-tagged KPNA1, 1 µg of a plasmid

expressing HA-tagged p65 or IRF3 and 1 μg of a plasmid expressing un-tagged Vpr,
VprF34I+P35N or empty vector control. After 24 h cells were lysed in lysis buffer (0.5 (v/v) % NP-
40 in PBS supplemented with protease inhibitors (Roche) and phosphatase inhibitors (Roche),
pre-cleared by centrifugation and incubated with 25 μl of mouse-anti-HA agarose beads
(Millipore) or mouse-anti-FLAG M2 agarose affinity gel (Sigma) for 2-4 h. Immunoprecipitates
were washed 3 times in 1 ml of lysis buffer and eluted from the beads by boiling in 20 μl of 2X
sample buffer containing SDS and β-mercaptoethanol. Proteins were resolved by SDS-
polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (NuPAGE 4-12 % Bis-Tris protein gels, Invitrogen) and
detected by immunoblotting.

Statistical analyses
Data were analysed by statistical tests as indicated in the figure legends. * represent statistical
significance: * ($p < 0.05$), ** ($p < 0.01$), *** ($p < 0.001$), **** ($p < 0.0001$).

Figures
699

Figure 1 HIV-1 replication in cGAMP stimulated MDMs requires Vpr

(A) Replication of WT Yu2 HIV-1 or Yu2 HIV-1ΔVpr in MDMs stimulated with 1 µg/ml, 2 µg/ml or 4 µg/ml cGAMP or left unstimulated, infection measured by counting Gag positive cells. Mean+/- SEM n=3 1 and 2 µg/ml cGAMP; n=2 4 µg/ml cGAMP. *** = 2 way ANOVA p value <0.001, * = p<0.05.

(B) Fold induction of IFIT1-Luc after activation of STING by cGAMP (5 µg/ml) and infection with WT Vpr-bearing virus like particles (VLP) or empty VLP (1 RT U/ml) in IFIT1-Luc reporter THP1 cells.

711
712 (C) Fold induction of *CXCL10* after infection of THP1 cells with HIV-GFP -Vpr or HIV-GFP +Vpr
713 at the indicated MOI.
714
715 (D) Percentage of THP1 cells infected by HIV-GFP -Vpr or HIV-GFP +Vpr in (C).
716
717 (E) Fold induction of *CXCL10* after infection of THP1 cells with HIV-GFP -Vpr, HIV-GFP +Vpr or
718 HIV-GFP -Vpr lacking genome at indicated doses measured by reverse transcriptase SG-PERT
719 assay.
720
721 (F) Percentage of THP1 cells infected by HIV-GFP -Vpr, HIV-GFP +Vpr or HIV-GFP -Vpr -
722 genome in (E).
723
724 (G) Fold induction of *CXCL10* after infection of control, cGAS-/- or MAVS-/- THP1 knock out cells
725 with HIV-GFP (0.3 RT U/ml).
726
727 (H) Percentage infection of control, cGAS-/- or MAVS-/- THP1 knockout cells infected with HIV-
728 GFP at indicated doses of RT measured by reverse transcriptase SG-PERT assay.
729
730 (B-H) Data are expressed as means ± SD (n = 3) with two-way ANOVA * ($p<0.05$), ** ($p<0.01$),
731 *** ($p<0.001$), **** ($p<0.0001$) compared to empty VLP (B), HIV GFP+Vpr (C, E) and control (G).
732

734
735 **Figure 2 HIV-1 Vpr expression inhibits interferon stimulated gene expression after**
736 **stimulation with various innate immune stimuli**
737
738 (A) Fold induction of IFIT1-Luc, after activation of STING by cGAMP (5 µg/ml), in IFIT1-Luc
739 reporter THP1 cells expressing Vpr from a lentiviral vector delivered at MOIs of 0.25, 0.5, 1, or
740 after empty vector transduction (MOI 1) or in untransduced cells.
741
742 (B) Fold induction of ISGs *MxA*, *CXCL10*, *IFIT2* and *Viperin* after activation of STING by cGAMP
743 (5 µg/ml) in cells expressing Vpr from a lentiviral vector (MOI 1), or after empty vector
744 transduction (MOI 1) or in untransduced THP1 cells.
745
746 (C) Secreted CXCL10 (ELISA) after activation of STING by cGAMP (5 µg/ml) in cells expressing
747 Vpr from a lentiviral vector (MOI 0.5, 1), or after transduction with empty vector (MOI 0.5, 1) or in
748 untransduced THP1 cells. Dotted line shows limit of detection.
749
750 (D) Fold induction of IFIT1-Luc after HT-DNA transfection (5 µg/ml) of cells expressing Vpr from
751 a lentiviral vector (MOI 0.5, 1), or empty vector (MOI 0.5, 1) or in untransduced IFIT1-Luc
752 reporter THP1 cells.
753

754 (E) Fold induction of IFIT1-Luc, after Sendai virus infection, of cells expressing Vpr from a
755 lentiviral vector (MOI 0.5, 1), or after transduction by empty vector (MOI 0.5, 1) or in
756 untransduced IFIT1-Luc reporter THP1 cells.
757
758 (F) Fold induction of IFIT1-Luc, after LPS treatment (1 µg/ml), of cells expressing Vpr from a
759 lentiviral vector (MOI 0.25, 0.5, 1), after transduction by empty vector (MOI 1) or in untransduced
760 IFIT1-Luc reporter THP1 cells.
761
762 Data are expressed as mean ± SD (n = 3) analysed using two-way ANOVA * ($p<0.05$), **
763 ($p<0.01$), *** ($p<0.001$), **** ($p<0.0001$) compared to empty vector. Data are representative of
764 three (A, D-F) or two (B-C) independent experiments.
765

766
767 **Figure 3 Vpr inhibition of innate immune activation is dependent on DCAF1 but**
768 **independent of cell cycle arrest**
769
770 (A) Immunoblot detecting p24 (capsid) and Vpr in pelleted VLPs. Size markers in kDa are
771 indicated on the right.
772

(B) Fold induction of IFIT1-Luc after activation of STING by cGAMP (5 μg/ml) and infection with
VLP bearing WT or mutant Vpr, or lacking Vpr (1 RT U/ml) in IFIT1-Luc reporter THP1 cells.

(C) Fold induction of IFIT1-Luc after activation of STING by cGAMP (5 μg/ml) in cells expressing
Vpr from a lentiviral vector, or empty vector, or in untransduced IFIT1-Luc reporter THP1 cells
expressing a control, or a DCAF1 targeting shRNA. Data combined from three independent
experiments are shown.

(D) Immunoblot detecting DCAF1, or actin as a loading control, from extracted THP1 cells
expressing a control, or DCAF1-targeting, shRNA. Size markers are shown in kDa on the right.

(E) Flow cytometry plots showing cell cycle phases of THP1 cells transduced with an empty
vector, WT Vpr, or mutant Vpr, encoding vector (MOI 1) or left untransduced as a control and
stained with propidium iodide to label DNA. Percentage cells in each cell cycle stage are shown.

(F) Fold induction of IFIT1-Luc after activation of STING by cGAMP (5 μg/ml) in cells expressing
WT, or mutant, Vpr from a lentiviral vector (MOI 1), or empty vector (MOI 1) or in untransduced
IFIT1-Luc reporter THP1 cells.

(G) Fold induction of *MxA* mRNA after activation of STING by cGAMP (5 μg/ml) in cells
expressing WT, or mutant, Vpr from a lentiviral vector (MOI 1), or after transduction by empty
vector (MOI 1) or in untransduced THP1 cells.

Data are expressed as means ± SD (n = 3). Two-way ANOVA test: * ($p<0.05$), ** ($p<0.01$), ***
($p<0.001$), **** ($p<0.0001$) compared to no Vpr or empty vector controls. Data are representative
of three (B-D, F) or two (A, E, G) independent experiments.

Figure 4 Wild Type Vpr, but not sensing antagonism inactive Vpr mutants, localise to nuclear pores

(A) Immunofluorescence confocal projections of HeLa cells transfected with Flag-tagged WT, or mutant, Vpr encoded by pcDNA3.1 plasmid (50 ng) and stained using antibodies detecting the Flag-tag (green) or nuclear pore complex (mab414) (red). 4′,6-Diamidine-2′-phenylindole dihydrochloride (DAPI) stains nuclear DNA (Blue).

(B) Selected confocal images (z-section) of cells in (A) showing effect of Vpr mutation on Vpr colocalization with mab414 nuclear pore staining.

(C) Assessment of colocalization of Vpr with mab414 nuclear pore staining.

816
817 **Figure 5 Vpr inhibits IRF3 nuclear translocation**
818
819 (A) Immunoblot detecting Phospho-STING (Ser366), total STING, phospho-TBK1 (Ser172), total
820 TBK1, phospho-IRF3 (Ser386), total IRF3, or actin as a loading control, from extracted THP1

821 cells expressing Vpr from a lentiviral vector (MOI 1), or after empty vector transduction, or left
822 untransduced as a control and transfected with HT-DNA (5 µg/ml) or left untransfected as a
823 control. Size markers are shown in kDa.
824
825 (B) Mean fold induction of IFIT1-Luc in cells from Figure 5A and Figure S5B transduced with
826 empty vector or Vpr vector and transfected with HT-DNA (5 µg/ml) or left untreated as a control.
827
828 (C) Flow cytometry plot (forward scatter vs pIRF3-S396 fluorescence) of THP1 cells infected with
829 Vpr bearing virus-like particles (1 RT U/ml), or Vpr free particles, and stimulated with cGAMP (5
830 µg/ml) or HT-DNA transfection (5 µg/ml). Bottom panel shows the flow cytometry plot data as a
831 bar graph, plotting pIRF3-S396 positive cells in each case.
832
833 (D) Single cell immunofluorescence measurement of IRF3 nuclear translocation in PMA
834 differentiated THP1 cells treated with cGAMP, or left untreated, and infected with empty vector,
835 Vpr encoding vector or left uninfected. Red line shows the translocation coefficient threshold.
836 Blue lines represent mean translocation coefficient.
837
838 (E) Percentage of cells in Figure 5D with IRF3 translocation coefficient greater than 0.5 (above
839 red line).
840
841 (F) Single cell immunofluorescence measurement of IRF3 nuclear translocation in PMA
842 differentiated THP1 cells stimulated with cGAMP (5 µg/ml), or left unstimulated, and infected with
843 empty vector, WT or mutant Vpr encoding vector (1 RT U/ml) or left uninfected.
844
845 (G) Single cell immunofluorescence measurement of IRF3 nuclear translocation in PMA
846 differentiated THP1 cells transfected with HT-DNA (5 µg/ml), or left untransfected, and infected
847 with empty vector, WT or mutant Vpr encoding vector (1 RT U/ml) or left uninfected.
848
849 Data in B is expressed as means ± SEM (n = 2). Data is analysed using two-way ANOVA: *
850 (p<0.05), ** (p<0.01), *** (p<0.001), **** (p<0.0001) compared to empty vector or empty VLP.
851 Data are representative of three (C–G) or two (A, B) independent experiments.
852

854
855 **Figure 6 Vpr inhibits NF-κB p65 nuclear translocation and NF-κB sensitive plasmid**
856 **expression**
857
858 (A) Fold induction of NF-κB-Luc after infection of THP1 cells with HIV-GFP -Vpr, HIV-GFP +Vpr,
859 or HIV-GFP -Vpr lacking genome, at the indicated doses.
860
861 (B) Percentage of THP1 cells in (A) infected by HIV-GFP -Vpr, HIV-GFP +Vpr, or HIV-GFP -Vpr
862 lacking genome at the indicated doses.
863

864   (C) Fold induction of *IL-6* after activation of STING by cGAMP (5 µg/ml) in cells expressing Vpr
865   from a lentiviral vector (MOI 1), or after empty vector transduction or in untransduced THP1 cells.
866
867   (D) Single cell immunofluorescence measurement of NF-kB (p65) nuclear translocation in PMA
868   differentiated THP1 cells transfected with Poly I:C (50 ng/ml), or left untreated, and infected with
869   empty vector (1 RT U/ml), Vpr vector (1 RT U/ml) or left uninfected.
870
871   (E) Immunoblot detecting Flag-Vpr, GFP, or actin as a loading control, from HEK293T cells
872   transfected with 50 ng of empty vector, Flag-tagged WT Vpr vector, or Flag-tagged mutant Vpr
873   vector, and CMV-GFP vector (50 ng). Size markers are shown in kDa. GFP expression from two
874   independent immunoblots quantified by densitometry is shown in the lower panel.
875
876   (F) Immunoblot detecting Flag-Vpr, GFP, or actin as a loading control, from HEK293T cells
877   transfected with empty vector (200 ng) or Vpr vector (50ng, 100ng, 200ng) and CMV-GFP,
878   EF1α-GFP or Ub-GFP plasmids (50 ng). Size markers are shown in kDa. GFP expression
879   quantified by densitometry is shown in the lower panel.
880
881   (G) Immunoblot detecting GFP, or actin as a loading control, from HEK293T cells transfected
882   with CMV-GFP, EF1α-GFP or Ub-GFP plasmids (10 ng, 2 ng, 0.4 ng) and stimulated with TNFα
883   (200 ng/ml) or left unstimulated. Size markers are shown in kDa. GFP expression, from two
884   independent immunoblots, quantified by densitometry, is shown in the lower panel.
885
886   Data in (A, B, C) is expressed as mean ± SD (n = 3). Data in (E, F, G) is expressed as mean ±
887   SD (n=2). Two-way ANOVA: * ($p<0.05$), ** ($p<0.01$), *** ($p<0.001$), **** ($p<0.0001$) compared to
888   empty vector or HIV GFP+Vpr.
889
890

Figure 7 HIV-1 Vpr interacts with karyopherins and inhibits IRF3/NF-κB(p65) recruitment to KPNA1

(A) Immunoblot detecting KPNA1-6 or KPNB1 from extracted HEK293T cells infected with empty vector, or Vpr encoding vector at a dose of 0.05 RT U/ml (MOI=2). Size markers are shown in kDa. Percentage infection by Vpr encoding or empty HIV-1 vector is shown on the right.

(B) Co-immunoprecipitation of Flag-KPNA1-3 and HA-Vpr. Input shows immunoblot detecting extracted HEK293T whole cell lysates expressing flag-KPNA1-3, flag-GFP and HA-Vpr before immunoprecipitation. Co-immunoprecipitation precipitates Vpr with HA-beads and detects Flag-KPNA1-3.

(C) Co-immunoprecipitation of Flag-KPNA1-3 and WT HA-Vpr or HA-Vpr F34I+P35N. Input shows immunoblots detecting HA-Vpr or Flag-KPNA1-3 in extracted HEK293T whole cell lysates (WCL) before immunoprecipitation. β-Actin is detected as a loading control. Co-immunoprecipitation precipitates Vpr with HA-beads and detects Flag-KPNA1-3.

908
(D) Co-immunoprecipitation of HA-IRF3 and Flag-KPNA1 in the presence and absence of WT
Vpr or Vpr F34I+P35N to detect competition between Vpr and IRF3 for KPNA1. Input shows
immunoblots detecting HA-IRF3 or Flag-KPNA1 or Vpr in extracted HEK293T whole cell lysates
(WCL) before immunoprecipitation. CypB is detected as a loading control. Co-
immunoprecipitation precipitates KPNA1 with Flag-beads and detects HA-IRF3 in the presence
and absence of WT Vpr or Vpr F34I+P35N.
915
(E) Co-immunoprecipitation of HA-p65 and Flag-KPNA1 in the presence and absence of WT Vpr
or Vpr F34I+P35N to detect competition between Vpr and p65 for KPNA1. Input shows
immunoblots detecting HA-p65 or Flag-KPNA1 or Vpr in extracted HEK293T whole cell lysates
(WCL) before immunoprecipitation. CypB is detected as a loading control. Co-
immunoprecipitation precipitates KPNA1 with Flag-beads and detects HA-p65 in the presence
and absence of WT Vpr or Vpr F34I+P35N.
922

References

References

Ahn, J., Vu, T., Novince, Z., Guerrero-Santoro, J., Rapic-Otrin, V., & Gronenborn, A. M. (2010). HIV-1

Vpr loads uracil DNA glycosylase-2 onto DCAF1, a substrate recognition subunit of a cullin 4A-

RING E3 ubiquitin ligase for proteasome-dependent degradation. *Journal of Biological*

Chemistry, *258*(48), 37333–37341. https://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.M110.133181

Ali, A., Ng, H. L., Blankson, J. N., Burton, D. R., Buckheit, R. W. 3rd, Moldt, B., Fulcher, J. A.,

Ibarrondo, F. J., Anton, P. A., & Yang, O. O. (2018). Highly Attenuated Infection With a Vpr-

Deleted Molecular Clone of Human Immunodeficiency Virus-1. *The Journal of Infectious*

Diseases, *218*(9), 1447–1452. https://doi.org/10.1093/infdis/jiy346

Andrejeva, J., Childs, K. S., Young, D. F., Carlos, T. S., Stock, N., Goodbourn, S., & Randall, R. E.

(2004). The V proteins of paramyxoviruses bind the IFN-inducible RNA helicase, mda-5, and

inhibit its activation of the IFN-β promoter. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of*

the United States of America, *101*(49), 17264–17269. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0407639101

Bachand, F., Yao, X.-J., Hrimech, M., Rougeau, N., & Cohen, É. A. (1999). Incorporation of Vpr into

human immunodeficiency virus type 1 requires a direct interaction with the p6 domain of the p55

Gag precursor. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, *274*(13), 9083–9091.

https://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.274.13.9083

Bejarano, D. A., Peng, K., Laketa, V., Börner, K., Jost, K. L., Lucic, B., Glass, B., Lusic, M., Müller, B.,

& Kräusslich, H.-G. (2019). HIV-1 nuclear import in macrophages is regulated by CPSF6-capsid

interactions at the nuclear pore complex. *ELife*, *8*, e41800. https://doi.org/10.7554/elife.41800

Belzile, J. P., Abrahamyan, L. G., Gérard, F. C. A., Rougeau, N., & Cohen, É. A. (2010). Formation of

mobile chromatin-associated nuclear foci containing HIV-1 Vpr and VPRBP is critical for the

induction of G2 cell cycle arrest. *PLoS Pathogens*, *6*(9), e1001080.

https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.ppat.1001080

Berger, G., Lawrence, M., Hué, S., & Neil, S. J. D. (2015). G2/M cell cycle arrest correlates with

primate lentiviral Vpr interaction with the SLX4 complex. *Journal of Virology*, *89*(1), 230–240.

https://doi.org/10.1128/JVI.02307-14

Burdick, R. C., Delviks-Frankenberry, K. A., Chen, J., Janaka, S. K., Sastri, J., Hu, W. S., & Pathak,

V. K. (2017). Dynamics and regulation of nuclear import and nuclear movements of HIV-1

complexes. *PLoS Pathogens*, *13*(8), e1006570. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.ppat.1006570

Chen, W., Srinath, H., Lam, S. S., Schiffer, C. A., Royer, W. E., & Lin, K. (2008). Contribution of

Ser386 and Ser396 to Activation of Interferon Regulatory Factor 3. *Journal of Molecular Biology*,

379(2), 251–260. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmb.2008.03.050

DeMeritt, I. B., Milford, L. E., & Yurochko, A. D. (2004). Activation of the NF-κB Pathway in Human

Cytomegalovirus-Infected Cells Is Necessary for Efficient Transactivation of the Major

Immediate-Early Promoter. *Journal of Virology*, *78*(9), 498–507.

https://doi.org/10.1128/jvi.78.9.4498-4507.2004

Douglas Dedera, Wen Hu, Nancy Vander, Heyden, L. R. (1989). Viral Protein R of Human

Immunodeficiency Virus Types 1 and 2 Is Despensable for Replication and Cytopathogenicity in

Lymphoid Cells. *Journal of Virology*, *63*(7), 3205–3208. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02297789

Fagerlund, R., Kinnunen, L., Kohler, M., Julkunen, I., & Melen, K. (2005). NF-{kappa}B is transported
into the nucleus by importin {alpha}3 and importin {alpha}4. *The Journal of Biological Chemistry*,
280(16), 15942–15951. https://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.M500814200
Fagerlund, R., Melén, K., Cao, X., & Julkunen, I. (2008). NF-κB p52, RelB and c-Rel are transported
into the nucleus via a subset of importin α molecules. *Cellular Signalling*, *20*(8), 1442–1451.
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cellsig.2008.03.012
Fang, R., Wang, C., Jiang, Q., Lv, M., Gao, P., Yu, X., Mu, P., Zhang, R., Bi, S., Feng, J.-M., & Jiang,
Z. (2017). NEMO–IKKβ Are Essential for IRF3 and NF-κB Activation in the cGAS–STING
Pathway. *The Journal of Immunology*, *199*(9), 3222–3233.
https://doi.org/10.4049/jimmunol.1700699
Fischer, W., Ganusov, V. V, Giorgi, E. E., Hraber, P. T., Keele, B. F., Leitner, T., Han, C. S.,
Gleasner, C. D., Green, L., Lo, C.-C., Nag, A., Wallstrom, T. C., Wang, S., McMichael, A. J.,
Haynes, B. F., Hahn, B. H., Perelson, A. S., Borrow, P., Shaw, G. M., … Korber, B. T. (2010).
Transmission of single HIV-1 genomes and dynamics of early immune escape revealed by ultra-
deep sequencing. *PloS One*, *5*(8), e12303–e12303.
https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0012303
Foster, T L, Wilson, H., Iyer, S. S., Coss, K., Doores, K., Smith, S., Kellam, P., Finzi, A., Borrow, P.,
Hahn, B. H., & Neil, S. J. D. (2016). Resistance of Transmitted Founder HIV-1 to IFITM-
Mediated Restriction. *Cell Host and Microbe*, *20*(4), 429–442.
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chom.2016.08.006
Foster, Toshana L, Pickering, S., & Neil, S. J. D. (2017). Inhibiting the Ins and Outs of HIV
Replication: Cell-Intrinsic Antiretroviral Restrictions at the Plasma Membrane. *Frontiers in
Immunology*, *8*, 1853. https://doi.org/10.3389/fimmu.2017.01853
Fouchier, R. A. M., Meyer, B. E., Simon, J. H. M., Fischer, U., Albright, A. V, González-Scarano, F., &
Malim, M. H. (1998). Interaction of the human immunodeficiency virus type 1 Vpr protein with the
nuclear pore complex. *Journal of Virology*, *72*(7), 6004–6013.
https://www.scopus.com/inward/record.uri?eid=2-s2.0-
0031799691&partnerID=40&md5=95c739e3621c2e60756318f4b498b0e9
Francis, A. C., Marin, M., Shi, J., Aiken, C., & Melikyan, G. B. (2016). Time-Resolved Imaging of
Single HIV-1 Uncoating In Vitro and in Living Cells. *PLoS Pathogens*, *12*(6), e1005709.
https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.ppat.1005709
Gagne, B., Tremblay, N., Park, A. Y., Baril, M., & Lamarre, D. (2017). Importin beta1 targeting by
hepatitis C virus NS3/4A protein restricts IRF3 and NF-kappaB signaling of IFNB1 antiviral
response. *Traffic (Copenhagen, Denmark)*, *18*(6), 362–377. https://doi.org/10.1111/tra.12480
Gao, D., Wu, J., Wu, Y.-T., Du, F., Aroh, C., Yan, N., Sun, L., & Chen, Z. J. (2013). Cyclic GMP-AMP
synthase is an innate immune sensor of HIV and other retroviruses. *Science*, *341*(6148), 903–
906. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1240933
Gaynor, E. M., & Chen, I. S. Y. (2001). Analysis of apoptosis induced by HIV-1 Vpr and examination
of the possible role of the hHR23A protein. *Experimental Cell Research*, *267*(2), 243–257.
https://doi.org/10.1006/excr.2001.5247

Goujon, C., Moncorgé, O., Bauby, H., Doyle, T., Ward, C. C., Schaller, T., Hué, S., Barclay, W. S.,

Schulz, R., & Malim, M. H. (2013). Human MX2 is an interferon-induced post-entry inhibitor of

HIV-1 infection. *Nature*, *502*(7472), 559–562. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature12542

Greenwood, E. J. D., Williamson, J. C., Sienkiewicz, A., Naamati, A., Matheson, N. J., & Lehner, P. J.

(2019). Promiscuous Targeting of Cellular Proteins by Vpr Drives Systems-Level Proteomic

Remodeling in HIV-1 Infection. *Cell Reports*, *27*(5), 1579-1596.e7.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.celrep.2019.04.025

Griffin, G. E., Leung, K., Folks, T. M., Kunkel, S., & Nabel, G. J. (1989). Activation of HIV gene

expression during monocyte differentiation by induction of NF-kB. *Nature*, *339*(6219), 70–73.

https://doi.org/10.1038/339070a0

Gulen, M. F., Koch, U., Haag, S. M., Schuler, F., Apetoh, L., Villunger, A., Radtke, F., & Ablasser, A.

(2017). Signalling strength determines proapoptotic functions of STING. *Nature*

Communications. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-017-00573-w

Hattori, N., Michaels, F., Fargnoli, K., Marcon, L., Gallo, R. C., & Franchini, G. (1990). The human

immunodeficiency virus type 2 vpr gene is essential for productive infection of human

macrophages. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, *87*(20), 8080–8084.

https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.87.20.8080

Iyer, S. S., Bibollet-Ruche, F., Sherrill-Mix, S., Learn, G. H., Plenderleith, L., Smith, A. G., Barbian, H.

J., Russell, R. M., Gondim, M. V. P., Bahari, C. Y., Shaw, C. M., Li, Y., Decker, T., Haynes, B.

F., Shaw, G. M., Sharp, P. M., Borrow, P., & Hahn, B. H. (2017). Resistance to type 1

interferons is a major determinant of HIV-1 transmission fitness. *Proceedings of the National*

Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, *114*(4), E590–E599.

https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1620144114

Jacques, D. A., McEwan, W. A., Hilditch, L., Price, A. J., Towers, G. J., & James, L. C. (2016). HIV-1

uses dynamic capsid pores to import nucleotides and fuel encapsidated DNA synthesis. *Nature*,

536(7616), 349–353. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature19098

Jimenez-Guardeño, J. M., Apolonia, L., Betancor, G., & Malim, M. H. (2019). Immunoproteasome

activation enables human TRIM5α restriction of HIV-1. *Nature Microbiology*, *4*(6), 933–940.

https://doi.org/10.1038/s41564-019-0402-0

Kane, M., Yadav, S. S., Bitzegeio, J., Kutluay, S. B., Zang, T., Wilson, S. J., Schoggins, J. W., Rice,

C. M., Yamashita, M., Hatziioannou, T., & Bieniasz, P. D. (2013). MX2 is an interferon-induced

inhibitor of HIV-1 infection. *Nature*, *502*(7472), 563–566. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature12653

Kumar, K. P., McBride, K. M., Weaver, B. K., Dingwall, C., & Reich, N. C. (2002). Regulated Nuclear-

Cytoplasmic Localization of Interferon Regulatory Factor 3, a Subunit of Double-Stranded RNA-

Activated Factor 1. *Molecular and Cellular Biology*, *20*(11), 4159–4168.

https://doi.org/10.1128/mcb.20.11.4159-4168.2000

Laguette, N., Brégnard, C., Hue, P., Basbous, J., Yatim, A., Larroque, M., Kirchhoff, F., Constantinou,

A., Sobhian, B., & Benkirane, M. (2014). Premature activation of the slx4 complex by vpr

promotes g2/m arrest and escape from innate immune sensing. *Cell*, *156*(1–2), 134–145.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2013.12.011

Lahaye, X., Satoh, T., Gentili, M., Cerboni, S., Conrad, C., Hurbain, I., ElMarjou, A., Lacabaratz, C.,
Lelièvre, J.-D., & Manel, N. (2013). The Capsids of HIV-1 and HIV-2 Determine Immune
Detection of the Viral cDNA by the Innate Sensor cGAS in Dendritic Cells. *Immunity*, *39*(6),
1132–1142. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.immuni.2013.11.002

Lahouassa, H., Blondot, M.-L., Chauveau, L., Chougui, G., Morel, M., Leduc, M., Guillonneau, F.,
Ramirez, B. C., Schwartz, O., & Margottin-Goguet, F. (2016). HIV-1 Vpr degrades the HLTF
DNA translocase in T cells and macrophages. *Proceedings of the National Academy of*
Sciences of the United States of America, *113*(19), 5311–5316.
https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1600485113

Le Rouzic, E., Mousnier, A., Rustum, C., Stutz, F., Hallberg, E., Dargemont, C., & Benichou, S.
(2002). Docking of HIV-1 vpr to the nuclear envelope is mediated by the interaction with the
nucleoporin hCG1. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, *277*(47), 45091–45098.
https://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.M207439200

Liang, P., Zhang, H., Wang, G., Li, S., Cong, S., Luo, Y., & Zhang, B. (2013). KPNB1, XPO7 and
IPO8 mediate the translocation ofNF-kappaB/p65 into the nucleus. *Traffic (Copenhagen,*
Denmark), *14*(11), 1132–1143. https://doi.org/10.1111/tra.12097

Lin, R., Mamane, Y., & Hiscott, J. (1999). Structural and functional analysis of interferon regulatory
factor 3: localization of the transactivation and autoinhibitory domains. *Molecular and Cellular*
Biology, *19*(4), 2465–2474.

Liu, S., Cai, X., Wu, J., Cong, Q., Chen, X., Li, T., Du, F., Ren, J., Wu, Y. T., Grishin, N. V., & Chen,
Z. J. (2015). Phosphorylation of innate immune adaptor proteins MAVS, STING, and TRIF
induces IRF3 activation. *Science*, *13*(347), 2630. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aaa2630

Liu, X., Guo, H., Wang, H., Markham, R., Wei, W., & Yu, X. F. (2015). HIV-1 Vpr suppresses the
cytomegalovirus promoter in a CRL4(DCAF1) E3 ligase independent manner. *Biochemical and*
Biophysical Research Communications, *459*(2), 214–219.
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbrc.2015.02.060

Mankan, A. K., Schmidt, T., Chauhan, D., Goldeck, M., Höning, K., Gaidt, M., Kubarenko, A. V,
Andreeva, L., Hopfner, K., & Hornung, V. (2014). Cytosolic RNA:DNA hybrids activate the cGAS
–STING axis. *The EMBO Journal*, *33*(24), 2937–2946. https://doi.org/10.15252/embj.201488726

Matsuda, T., & Cepko, C. L. (2004). Electroporation and RNA interference in the rodent retina in vivo
and in vitro. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*,
101(1), 16–22. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2235688100

Mesika, A., Grigoreva, I., Zohar, M., & Reich, Z. (2001). A regulated, NFκB-assisted import of plasmid
DNA into mammalian cell nuclei. *Molecular Therapy*, *3*(5Pt1), 653–657.
https://doi.org/10.1006/mthe.2001.0312

Morellet, N., Bouaziz, S., Petitjean, P., & Roques, B. P. (2003). NMR structure of the HIV-1 regulatory
protein VPR. *Journal of Molecular Biology*, *285*(5), 2105–2117. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-
2836(03)00060-3

Mori, M., Yoneyama, M., Ito, T., Takahashi, K., Inagaki, F., & Fujita, T. (2004). Identification of Ser-
386 of Interferon Regulatory Factor 3 as Critical Target for Inducible Phosphorylation That

Determines Activation. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, *279*(11), 9698–9702.

https://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.M310616200

Nitahara-Kasahara, Y., Kamata, M., Yamamoto, T., Zhang, X., Miyamoto, Y., Muneta, K., Iijima, S.,

Yoneda, Y., Tsunetsugu-Yokota, Y., & Aida, Y. (2007). Novel Nuclear Import of Vpr Promoted by

Importin Is Crucial for Human Immunodeficiency Virus Type 1 Replication in Macrophages.

Journal of Virology, *81*(10), 5284–5293. https://doi.org/10.1128/jvi.01928-06

Pallett, M. A., Ren, H., Zhang, R.-Y., Scutts, S. R., Gonzalez, L., Zhu, Z., Maluquer de Motes, C., &

Smith, G. L. (2019). Vaccinia Virus BBK E3 Ligase Adaptor A55 Targets Importin-Dependent

NF-κB Activation and Inhibits CD8 + T-Cell Memory. *Journal of Virology*, *93*(10), e00051-19.

https://doi.org/10.1128/jvi.00051-19

Rasaiyaah, J., Tan, C. P., Fletcher, A. J., Price, A. J., Blondeau, C., Hilditch, L., Jacques, D. A.,

Selwood, D. L., James, L. C., Noursadeghi, M., & Towers, G. J. (2013). HIV-1 evades innate

immune recognition through specific cofactor recruitment. *Nature*, *503*(7476), 402–405.

https://doi.org/10.1038/nature12769

Rehwinkel, J., Tan, C. P., Goubau, D., Schulz, O., Pichlmair, A., Bier, K., Robb, N., Vreede, F.,

Barclay, W., Fodor, E., & Reis e Sousa, C. (2010). RIG-I Detects Viral Genomic RNA during

Negative-Strand RNA Virus Infection. *Cell*, *140*(3), 397–408.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2010.01.020

Schaller, T., Ocwieja, K. E., Rasaiyaah, J., Price, A. J., Brady, T. L., Roth, S. L., Hué, S., Fletcher, A.

J., Lee, K., KewalRamani, V. N., Noursadeghi, M., Jenner, R. G., James, L. C., Bushman, F. D.,

& Towers, G. J. (2011). HIV-1 capsid-cyclophilin interactions determine nuclear import pathway,

integration targeting and replication efficiency. *PLoS Pathogens*, *7*(12).

https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.ppat.1002439

Schirrmacher, V. (2015). Signaling through RIG-I and type I interferon receptor: Immune activation by

Newcastle disease virus in man versus immune evasion by Ebola virus (Review). *International*

Journal of Molecular Medicine, *36*(1), 3–10. https://doi.org/10.3892/ijmm.2015.2213

Schwefel, D., Groom, H. C. T., Boucherit, V. C., Christodoulou, E., Walker, P. A., Stoye, J. P., Bishop,

K. N., & Taylor, I. A. (2014). Structural basis of lentiviral subversion of a cellular protein

degradation pathway. *Nature*. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature12815

Servant, M. J., Grandvaux, N., TenOever, B. R., Duguay, D., Lin, R., & Hiscott, J. (2003).

Identification of the minimal phosphoacceptor site required for in vivo activation of interferon

regulatory factor 3 in response to virus and double-stranded RNA. *Journal of Biological*

Chemistry, *278*(11), 9441–9447. https://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.M209851200

Shaw, G. M., & Hunter, E. (2012). HIV transmission. *Cold Spring Harbor Perspectives in Medicine*,

2(11), a006965. https://doi.org/10.1101/cshperspect.a006965

Stacey, A. R., Norris, P. J., Qin, L., Haygreen, E. A., Taylor, E., Heitman, J., Lebedeva, M., DeCamp,

A., Li, D., Grove, D., Self, S. G., & Borrow, P. (2009). Induction of a striking systemic cytokine

cascade prior to peak viremia in acute human immunodeficiency virus type 1 infection, in

contrast to more modest and delayed responses in acute hepatitis B and C virus infections.

Journal of Virology, *83*(8), 3719–3733. https://doi.org/10.1128/JVI.01844-08

Suhara, W., Yoneyama, M., Iwamura, T., Yoshimura, S., Tamura, K., Namiki, H., Aimoto, S., & Fujita,
T. (2000). Analyses of virus-induced homomeric and heteromeric protein associations between
IRF-3 and coactivator CBP/p300. *Journal of Biochemistry*, *128*(2), 301–307.
https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordjournals.jbchem.a022753

Sumner, R.P., Thorne, L. G., Fink, D. L., Khan, H., Milne, R. S., & Towers, G. J. (2017). Are evolution
and the intracellular innate immune system key determinants in HIV transmission? *Frontiers in
Immunology*, *8*(OCT). https://doi.org/10.3389/fimmu.2017.01246

Sumner, Rebecca P, Harrison, L., Touizer, E., Peacock, T. P., Spencer, M., Zuliani-Alvarez, L., &
Towers, G. J. (2019). Disrupting HIV-1 capsid formation causes cGAS sensing of viral DNA.
BioRxiv, 838011. https://doi.org/10.1101/838011

Takeda, E., Murakami, T., Matsuda, G., Murakami, H., Zako, T., Maeda, M., & Aida, Y. (2011).
Nuclear exportin receptor cas regulates the NPI-1-mediated nuclear import of HIV-1 vpr. *PLoS
ONE*. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0027815

Taylor, S. L., Frias-Staheli, N., Garcia-Sastre, A., & Schmaljohn, C. S. (2009). Hantaan Virus
Nucleocapsid Protein Binds to Importin Proteins and Inhibits Tumor Necrosis Factor Alpha-
Induced Activation of Nuclear Factor Kappa B. *Journal of Virology*, *83*(3), 1271–1279.
https://doi.org/10.1128/jvi.00986-08

Trotard, M., Tsopoulidis, N., Tibroni, N., Willemsen, J., Binder, M., Ruggieri, A., & Fackler, O. T.
(2016). Sensing of hiv-1 infection in tzm-bl cells with reconstituted expression of sting. *Journal of
Virology*, *90*(4), 2064–2076. https://doi.org/10.1128/JVI.02966-15

Vermeire, J., Naessens, E., Vanderstraeten, H., Landi, A., Iannucci, V., van Nuffel, A., Taghon, T.,
Pizzato, M., & Verhasselt, B. (2012). Quantification of Reverse Transcriptase Activity by Real-
Time PCR as a Fast and Accurate Method for Titration of HIV, Lenti- and Retroviral Vectors.
PLoS ONE, *7*(12), e50859. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0050859

Vodicka, M. A., Koepp, D. M., Silver, P. A., & Emerman, M. (1998). HIV-1 Vpr interacts with the
nuclear transport pathway to promote macrophage infection. *Genes and Development*, *12*(2),
175–185. https://doi.org/10.1101/gad.12.2.175

Wu, Y., Zhou, X., Barnes, C. O., DeLucia, M., Cohen, A. E., Gronenborn, A. M., Ahn, J., & Calero, G.
(2016). The DDB1-DCAF1-Vpr-UNG2 crystal structure reveals how HIV-1 Vpr steers human
UNG2 toward destruction. *Nature Structural and Molecular Biology*, *23*(10), 933–939.
https://doi.org/10.1038/nsmb.3284

Xu, S., Ducroux, A., Ponnurangam, A., Vieyres, G., Franz, S., Müsken, M., Zillinger, T., Malassa, A.,
Ewald, E., Hornung, V., Barchet, W., Häussler, S., Pietschmann, T., & Goffinet, C. (2016).
cGAS-Mediated Innate Immunity Spreads Intercellularly through HIV-1 Env-Induced Membrane
Fusion Sites. *Cell Host and Microbe*, *20*(4), 443–457.
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chom.2016.09.003

Xu, W., Edwards, M. R., Borek, D. M., Feagins, A. R., Mittal, A., Alinger, J. B., Berry, K. N., Yen, B.,
Hamilton, J., Brett, T. J., Pappu, R. V., Leung, D. W., Basler, C. F., & Amarasinghe, G. K.
(2014). Ebola virus VP24 targets a unique NLS binding site on karyopherin alpha 5 to selectively
compete with nuclear import of phosphorylated STAT1. *Cell Host and Microbe*, *16*(2), 187–200.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chom.2014.07.008

Yan, J., Shun, M. C., Zhang, Y., Hao, C., & Skowronski, J. (2019). HIV-1 Vpr counteracts HLTF-
mediated restriction of HIV-1 infection in T cells. *Proceedings of the National Academy of*
Sciences of the United States of America, *116*(7), 9568–9577.
https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1818401116

Yan, N., Regalado-Magdos, A. D., Stiggelbout, B., Lee-Kirsch, M. A., & Lieberman, J. (2010). The
cytosolic exonuclease TREX1 inhibits the innate immune response to human immunodeficiency
virus type 1. *Nature Immunology*, *11*(11), 1005–1013. https://doi.org/10.1038/ni.1941

Ye, J., Chen, Z., Li, Y., Zhao, Z., He, W., Zohaib, A., Song, Y., Deng, C., Zhang, B., Chen, H., & Cao,
S. (2017). Japanese Encephalitis Virus NS5 Inhibits Type I Interferon (IFN) Production by
Blocking the Nuclear Translocation of IFN Regulatory Factor 3 and NF-κB. *Journal of Virology*,
91(8), e00039-17. https://doi.org/10.1128/jvi.00039-17

Yoneyama, M., Suhara, W., Fukuhara, Y., Fukuda, M., Nishida, E., & Fujita, T. (1998). Direct
triggering of the type I interferon system by virus infection: Activation of a transcription factor
complex containing IRF-3 and CBP/p300. *EMBO Journal*, *17*(4), 1087–1095.
https://doi.org/10.1093/emboj/17.4.1087

Zander, K., Sherman, M. P., Tessmer, U., Bruns, K., Wray, V., Prechtel, A. T., Schubert, E., Henklein,
P., Luban, J., Neidleman, J., Greene, W. C., & Schubert, U. (2003). Cyclophilin A Interacts with
HIV-1 Vpr and Is Required for Its Functional Expression. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*,
278(44), 43202–43213. https://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.M305414200

Zhang, C., Shang, G., Gui, X., Zhang, X., Bai, X. chen, & Chen, Z. J. (2019). Structural basis of
STING binding with and phosphorylation by TBK1. In *Nature* (pp. 567(7748):394-398).
https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-019-1000-2

Zhang, F., & Bieniasz, P. D. (2019). HIV-1 Vpr induces cell cycle arrest and enhances viral gene
expression by depleting CCDC137. *BioRxiv*, 2019.12.24.888230.
https://doi.org/10.1101/2019.12.24.888230

Zhang, S., Feng, Y., Narayan, O., & Zhao, L. J. (2001). Cytoplasmic retention of HIV-1 regulatory
protein V pr by protein-protein interaction with a novel human cytoplasmic protein VprBP. *Gene*,
263(1–2), 131–140. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-1119(00)00583-7

Zhu, H., Jian, H., & Zhao, L. J. (2004). Identification of the 15FRFG domain in HIV-1 Gag p6 essential
for Vpr packaging into the virion. *Retrovirology*, *1*(26), 343–398. https://doi.org/10.1186/1742-
4690-1-26

Zila, V., Müller, T. G., Laketa, V., Müller, B., & Kräusslich, H. G. (2019). Analysis of CA content and
CPSF6 dependence of early HIV-1 replication complexes in SupT1-R5 cells. *MBio*, *10*(6),
e02501-19. https://doi.org/10.1128/mBio.02501-19

Zufferey, R., Nagy, D., Mandel, R. J., Naldini, L., & Trono, D. (1997). Multiply attenuated lentiviral
vector achieves efficient gene delivery in vivo. *Nature Biotechnology*, *15*(9), 871–875.
https://doi.org/10.1038/nbt0997-871

1201