Type I interferons sensitise HIV-1-reactivating T-cells for NK cell-mediated elimination
despite HDACi-imposed dysregulation of innate immunity

Julia Prigann[1,2,3], Dylan Postmus[1,2], Anna Julia Pietrobon[1,2], Emanuel Wyler[4], Jenny Jansen[1,2],

Lars Möller[5], Jelizaveta Fadejeva[1,2], Thijs H. Steijaert[1,2], Cornelius Fischer[6], Uwe Koppe[7],

Barbara Gunsenheimer-Bartmeyer[7], Karolin Meixenberger[8], Sarah N. Vitcetz[6], Madlen Sohn[6],

Lucie Loyal[9], Andreas Thiel[9], Sascha Sauer[6], Kathrin Sutter[10], Ulf Dittmer[10], Michael Laue[4],

Norbert Bannert[6], Markus Landthaler[3,11] and Christine Goffinet[1,2,12]

[1]Institute of Virology, Charité - Universitätsmedizin Berlin, Corporate Member of Freie

Universität Berlin and Humboldt-Universität zu Berlin, Berlin, Germany

[2]Berlin Institute of Health (BIH), Berlin, Germany

[3]Gladstone Institute of Virology, San Francisco, CA 94158, USA

[4]Berlin Institute for Medical Systems Biology, Max Delbrück Center for Molecular Medicine in

the Helmholtz Association, Berlin, Germany.

[5]Centre for Biological Threats and Special Pathogens, Robert Koch Institute, Berlin, Germany

[6]Scientific Genomics Platforms, Max Delbrück Center for Molecular Medicine in the Helmholtz

Association, Berlin, Germany.

[7]Department of Infectious Disease Epidemiology, Robert Koch Institute, Berlin, Germany

[8]Sexually transmitted bacterial pathogens and HIV, Robert Koch Institute, Berlin, Germany.

[9]Si-M/"Der Simulierte Mensch" a Science Framework of Technische Universität Berlin and

Charité – Universitätsmedizin Berlin, Berlin, Germany.

[10]Institute for Virology, University Hospital of Essen, Essen, Germany

[11]Institute for Biology, Humboldt-Universität zu Berlin, Berlin, Germany.

[12]Department of Tropical Disease Biology, Liverpool School of Tropical Medicine, Pembroke

Place, Liverpool L3 5QA, U.K.

Christine Goffinet, Liverpool School of Tropical Medicine, Pembroke Place Liverpool, L3 5QA

Liverpool, UK

Phone: +44(0)151 705 3100

e-mail: christine.goffinet@lstmed.ac.uk

Keywords: HIV-1 cure, shock-and-kill, single cell RNA-sequencing, HDACi, type I interferon

ABSTRACT

Shock-and-kill is one of the most advanced, yet unrealized, concepts towards establishment

of HIV-1 cure. Treatment with latency-reversing agents (LRAs), including histone deacetylase

inhibitors (HDACis) exerting chromatin remodelling and gene expression reprogramming,

combined with anti-retroviral therapy reactivates HIV-1 transcription *in vitro*, *ex vivo* and *in*

vivo. However, HDACi treatment fails to significantly reduce the size of the viral reservoir in

people living with HIV-1 (PLHIV). Here, by combining scRNA-seq and functional approaches,

we characterised the HDACi treatment-imposed remodulation of CD4+ T-cells' state and its

consequences for HIV-1 latency reversal and the apparent resistance of HIV-1-reactivating

cells to immune-mediated elimination. Exposure of CD4$^+$ T-cells from three aviremic PLHIV

with clinically applicable concentrations of Panobinostat markedly reduced the expression of

genes mediating T-cell activation and IFN-driven antiviral immunity in a largely CD4$^+$ T-cell

subset-nonspecific manner, with exception of an PLHIV-specific exhausted CD4$^+$ T-cell

subpopulation. Altered transcriptomic profiles were accompanied by large refractoriness to

peptide and IL-2/PHA stimulation, and to exogenous type I interferon, that would otherwise

induce T-cell activation and expression of a plethora of antiviral genes, respectively. Type I

interferon, when added to Panobinostat during HIV-1 reactivation, was unable to counteract

HDACi-mediated inhibition of IFN signalling and failed to interfere with HIV-1 reactivation *per*

se. However, it imposed a pre-budding block and boosted surface levels of HIV-1 Env on

reactivating cells. Co-treatment with type I IFNs, most prominently IFN-β and -α14, sensitised

HIV-1-reactivating cells for killing by NK cells through antibody-dependent cytotoxicity.

Together, our study provides proof-of-concept of the benefit of combining a potent LRA with

immunostimulatory molecules, such as type I IFNs, to reduce the resistance of HIV-1-

reactivating T-cells to immune-mediated elimination to improve current shock-and-kill

strategies.

INTRODUCTION

Antiretroviral therapy (ART) effectively suppresses viremia and has improved the quality and duration of life of people living with HIV/AIDS (PLHIV), but requires livelong adherence and is not curative (1–4). HIV-1 persists as a viral reservoir in latently infected, long-lived CD4+ T-cells with an estimated 73 years of optimal ART theoretically required for reservoir eradication (5,6).

To accomplish ART-free remission, studies have focused on the reduction of the size of the latent reservoir to achieve a functional HIV-1 cure (7). The shock-and-kill cure approach is based on the administration of latency-reversing agents (LRAs) combined with ART with the intention to reverse proviral quiescence in cellular reservoirs, an event that should be followed by specific elimination of HIV-1-reactivating cells using immunological or pharmacological mechanisms (8,9). Various classes of molecules, such as histone deacetylase inhibitors (HDACis) (10–12), protein kinase C (PKC) agonists (13–15), bromodomain and extraterminal domain (BET) protein inhibitors (16), second mitochondria-derived activator of caspases (SMAC) mimetics (17), and Toll-like receptor (TLR) agonists (18,19) have been explored for their ability to reverse HIV-1 latency *ex vivo* and *in vivo.* In clinical trials individual LRAs demonstrate clear ability to reactivate HIV-1 transcription, demonstrated by increased plasma viremia during continued ART. However, the size of the viral reservoir in most studies decreased only to a minor extent, if at all (8,20) for poorly understood reasons. One potential exception is the recent study in which treatment with Venetoclax, a pro-apoptotic inhibitor of BCL-2, delayed viral rebound in a humanised mouse model of HIV-1 infection, and depleted integrated HIV-1 DNA in CD4^{+} T-cells from PLHIV (21), suggesting that sensitising HIV-1-positive cells to apoptosis might enable reduction of the reservoir size. Overall, existing data demonstrate an urgent need for a conceptual improvement of the shock-and-kill approach.

Besides CD8^{+} T-cell mediated mechanisms (22), NK cell-mediated antibody-dependent cellular cytotoxicity (ADCC) has been proposed to contribute to natural, ART-free control of HIV infection *in vivo*. Specifically, potent NK cells' anti-HIV activity was identified as

a discriminatory parameter in HIV-1 elite controllers as opposed to viremic progressors (23,24)

and as a specific characteristic of the few participants in the RV144 HIV-1 vaccine trial who

were protected from infection after immunisation (25,26). Type I IFNs increase the potency of

NK cells to eliminate HIV-1-infected cells *ex vivo* (27,28). Administration of pegylated IFN-

α2a or -α2b in combination with ART has resulted in sustained viral control in PLHIV and

declined levels of integrated HIV-1 DNA in the context of structured ART interruptions,

observations that associated with enhanced cytotoxic NK cell activity (29–35). Overall, there

is a growing body of evidence pointing towards a potential benefit of incorporating type I IFNs

into LRA-involving HIV-1 cure strategies, although the individual combinations of specific

LRAs with type I IFN have not yet been functionally tested in regards to both HIV-1

transcriptional reactivation and cell elimination.

Here, we characterise the transcriptional and functional profiles of CD4^{+} T-cells from

PLHIV upon *ex vivo* exposure to two HDACis, Panobinostat and Vorinostat, to explore

potential cell-intrinsic properties contributing to the resistance of HIV-1-reactivating cells to

immune-mediated elimination *in vivo*. Using single-cell RNA sequencing we identified *ex vivo*

HDACi treatment to highly impact T-cell receptor and IFN-related innate immune signalling

pathways, resulting in a strong impairment of respective functions. Despite the extensive shut-

down of IFN signalling by Panobinostat treatment, type I IFN treatment, while not interfering

with HIV-1 reactivation *per se*, induced a block prior to viral budding. This phenotype was

accompanied by accumulation of viral Env on the surface of HIV-1-reactivating cells which

translated into a higher susceptibility to NK cell-mediated ADCC as compared to cells treated

with HDACi alone. In conclusion, this study provides proof-of-concept for combination of

potent LRAs with type I IFNs being a promising strategy to overcome the resistance of HIV-1-

reactivating T-cells to NK cell-mediated elimination. We propose that the results of our study

have important implications for improving current shock-and-kill strategies and will inform

future HIV-1 cure therapies.

RESULTS

Panobinostat treatment modulates expression of CD4$^+$ T-cell subset-specific markers

In order to understand LRA-induced cellular phenotypes and CD4$^+$ T-cell subpopulation-

specific susceptibilities to HDAC inhibition, we exposed purified CD4$^+$ T-cells isolated from

three aviremic PLHIV (**Supplementary Table 1**) to Vorinostat, Panobinostat, IL-2/PHA or left

them mock-treated for 48 hours, followed by single cell RNA-sequencing. We selected

Vorinostat and Panobinostat as prototypic HDACis due to their demonstrated ability to

reactivate HIV-1 RNA expression *in vivo* (36,37). The applied concentrations of Vorinostat

(500 nM) and Panobinostat (50 nM) approached those detected in patients´ plasma after

single oral administration (11,36–38). We included IL-2/PHA treatment as a reference that we

expected to result in maximal activation of T-cells.

We used previously defined marker genes to identify the following T-cell subsets (39–

41): Naïve (T_N), central memory (T_{CM}), transitory memory (T_{TM}), effector memory (T_{EM}), effector

memory re-expressing CD45RA (T_{EMRA}) and regulatory (T_{REG}) T-cells in the dataset of mock-,

HDACi- and IL-2/PHA-treated CD4$^+$ T-cells of PLHIV (**Fig. 1A**). In line with previous studies

(42), the T-cell subset distribution was not significantly altered in mock-treated samples from

aviremic PLHIV undergoing ART as compared to a culture from an HIV-1-negative donor (**Fig.**

1B). However, we confirmed the previously reported presence of a small subpopulation

specifically identified in cells from PLHIV (42,43), characterised by a combined and

significantly higher expression of the exhaustion markers *PDCD1*, *LAG3, HAVCR2, GZMB*

that was clearly separated from the otherwise similar T_{EMRA} cells (**Sup. Fig. 1**). Accordingly,

we referred to this subset as exhausted T-cells (T_{EX}).

Overall, Vorinostat-treated CD4$^+$ T-cell cultures displayed very mild changes in subset

distribution as opposed to Panobinostat-treated culture that experience a complete loss of

cells expressing markers of T_{TM} (9.34% to 0%, p = 0.0008), T_{EMRA} (5.03% to 0%, p = 0.0676)

and T_{REG} (4.98% to 0%, p = 0.0161) subsets and a parallel increase in the proportion of T_{CM}

(23.9% to 35.57%, p = 0.0155). Relative levels of T_N (50.25% to 54.34%, p = 0.0821), T_{EX}

(0.43% to 1.11%, p = 0.778) and T$_{EM}$ cells (6.06% to 5.18%, p = 0.2215) remained unchanged

under these experimental conditions (**Fig. 1B**). The observed changes in the T-cell subset

distribution induced by the individual treatments were detected in cell cultures from all three

donors to a similar extent (**Sup. Fig. 2**). Although we confirmed a low, but statistical significant

increase in both early and late apoptotic T-cells following Panobinostat treatment using a flow

cytometry-base viability assay, the complete loss of T$_{TM}$, T$_{EMRA}$ and T$_{REG}$ RNA marker-

expressing cells is unlikely to be explained by excessive, cell-type specific cell death (**Sup.**

Fig. 3A-B). Observed transcriptional changes correlated with reduced expression of multiple

T-cell marker on the cell surface following Panobinostat, but not Vorinostat, treatment,

including CD3, CD4, CD45RA (marker for naïve T-cells), CD62L (SELL), CD45RO (marker

for memory T-cells), HLA-DR (late marker for activated T-cells), CXCR4, and most

pronounced, the cytokine receptor IL7R/CD127 (**Sup. Fig. 3C**). CCR5 and CD69 cell surface

expression were mildly increased in the context of Panobinostat treatment, corroborating

previous reports of transient CD69 expression following Panobinostat treatment from *in vivo*

(44) and *ex vivo* (38) studies (**Sup. Fig. 3D**). Together, among the two HDACi treatments

conducted under indicated experimental conditions, Panobinostat induced a massive

rearrangement of CD4$^+$ T-cell subset marker expression, both on the transcriptional and

translational level.

Panobinostat treatment induces broad transcriptional down-modulation of genes

involved in T-cell signalling and a subset of genes implicated in innate immunity

Vorinostat treatment induced modest gene expression changes, with expression of 1.388

genes induced and 312 genes decreased (**Fig. 2A**). In contrast, Panobinostat treatment

altered the expression of a total of 10.119 genes. Comparing the two HDACi treatments, 4.078

genes were up-regulated and 5.124 were down-regulated in Panobinostat- compared to

Vorinostat-treated cells. Focussing on genes with >2-fold change in expression, cultures

treated with individual HDACis displayed a substantial overlap of DEGs, suggesting that

transcriptomic alterations were partially similar (**Fig. 2B**). Gene sets previously associated with

Notch signalling, synaptic vesicle trafficking and Alzheimer's disease-presenilin were enriched

in Panobinostat-treated cell cultures (**Fig. 2C**). Pathways that were downregulated in the

context of Panobinostat treatment were associated with T-cell activation, cytokine- and

chemokine-mediated inflammation and JAK/STAT signalling (**Fig. 2C**), in line with reduced

activity of multiple transcription factors in all T-cell subsets essential for mediating innate and

T-cell-specific immune responses, such as IRF9, STAT1, STAT2, NFKB1 and STAT5,

GATA3, RELA, respectively (**Fig. 2D**). Interestingly, activity scores of IRF3 and STAT6 were

increased in T_N- and T_{CM}-cell subsets (**Fig. 2D**), suggesting partial, subset-specific activation

of innate signalling cascades. Vorinostat failed to enrich or deplete specific gene sets,

corroborating the minor impact of Vorinostat at the applied concentration on the overall T-cell

transcriptomic profile.

Base-line expression of IFN-stimulated genes (ISGs) in untreated cells was to a certain

extent subset-specific (**Fig. 2E**). For example, *LGALS3BP* and *IFI44L* displayed the highest

expression in resting T_N- and T_{CM}-cell subsets, respectively, while *OASL* and *APOBEC3G*

expression was highest in T_{EM}- and T_{EMRA}-cells. The observations on the individual ISG

expression level were corroborated by the IFN Module Score that takes expression of multiple

genes associated with IFN signalling into account. T_N-, T_{CM}- and T_{TM}-cells displayed an overall

modest, T_{EM}-, T_{EMRA}- and T_{REG}-cells gradually increasing and T_{EX}-cells a relatively low IFN

Module Score in mock-treated $CD4^+$ T-cells (**Fig. 2F**). Overall, Vorinostat treatment only mildly

affected the ISG expression pattern and IFN Module Score (**Fig. 2E-F**). In contrast,

Panobinostat-exposed $CD4^+$ T-cells displayed drastically decreased levels of the majority of

ISGs, including *ISG20*, *MX1*, *IFI44L*, *IFITM1*, *XAF1*, *GBP2*, *IFI16* throughout all subsets and

reduced expression of *IFI27*, *IFITM3*, *IFIT3*, *IFIT2* and *BST2* in T_N-, T_{CM}- and T_{EM}-cells, with

an opposite trend in T_{EX}-cells (**Fig. 2E**). However, *IFIT1, STAT1, IFI30 and RASD2* expression

was increased after Panobinostat treatment in all subsets, with *IFIT1* and *STAT1* expression

found to be most pronounced in T_{EX}-cells, and *IFI30* and *RASD2* expression to be particularly

induced in T_{EM}-cells (**Fig. 2E**). Interestingly, we previously reported expression of these four

genes specifically to be upregulated in the context of base-line cGAS activity (45), which drives

IRF3-controlled gene expression, suggesting a partial and CD4$^+$ T-cell subset-specific

activation of IRF3 following Panobinostat treatment. Nevertheless, the overall IFN Module

Score taking the average expression of hundreds of ISGs into account was decreased in all

Panobinostat-treated T-cell subsets, while it was largely maintained upon Vorinostat treatment

(**Fig. 2F**).

We established a drastic down-regulation of genes involved in T-cell signalling and

activity following Panobinostat, but not Vorinostat treatment (**Fig. 2G-H**). As expected under

mock treatment conditions, expression of genes whose products regulate and mediate T-cell

signalling and activation was clearly T-cell subset-specific (**Fig. 2G-H**). Panobinostat

treatment induced downregulation of expression of multiple T-cell function-specific genes,

including *IL4R*, *LAT*, *IL6R*, *ZAP70*, and those for which we had detected reduced protein

expression on cell surface (CD62L (*SELL*), HLA-DRA, CD45RA/CD45RO (*PTPRC*), IL7R,

CCR5 and CD3 (*CD3G*)). Some T-cell-specific genes were specifically upregulated in T$_{EX}$-

cells, including *CD4*, *MAP3K1*, *CSK* and *AKT3*. In accordance with the transient nature of

CD69 expression upon Panobinostat treatment (**Sup. Fig. 3D**), *CD69* mRNA expression at 48

hours equaled those of mock-treated cells. The overall trend of reduced T-cell activation-

specific gene expression was reflected in a T-cell Activation Module Score of Panobinostat-

treated cells that was reduced to below the average of mock- and Vorinostat-treated cells (**Fig.**

2H).

In order to test to which extent HDACi-imposed gene expression changes can be

recapitulated in a more amenable HIV-1 latency cell system, we treated J1.1 T-cells, that

harbour at least two replication-competent HIV-1 proviruses per cell (46,47) with Vorinostat

and Panobinostat (**Sup. Fig. 4**). Here, we applied concentrations of HDACis (16 μM Vorinostat

and 200 nM Panobinostat) that induced a similar degree of HIV-1 reactivation as judged by

intracellular HIV-1 p24 expression (**Sup. Fig. 4A**). Both treatments resulted in a similar number

of down- and upregulated genes (**Sup. Fig. 4B**) with a substantial overlap of modulated genes

(**Sup. Fig. 4C**). The concentration of applied Panobinostat in J1.1 T-cells (200 nM)

approached the one used in primary CD4$^+$ T-cells (50 nM) and induced partially similar gene

expression changes. Specifically, downregulated activity scores of transcription factors

required for T-cell signalling (**Sup. Fig. 4D**), in line with reduced expression of genes related

to T-cell activity, such as *CD3G*, *SELL*, *LAT*, *STAT5A* or *ZAP70* and a significantly reduced

T-cell Activation Module Score (**Sup. Fig. 4E**). The ISG expression profile following

Panobinostat was less well conserved between J1.1 T-cells and CD4+ T-cells. While

Panobinostat-treated primary CD4$^+$ and J1.1 T-cells shared expression profiles of some ISGs

(downregulation of *MX1*, *MX*2, *OAS1*, *XAF1*, *BST2*; upregulation of *GBP5*, *STAT1*, *IFIT1*),

they differed regarding expression of *LGALS3BP*, *GBP2*, *IFI44L*, *OASL* (**Sup. Fig. 4F**),

resulting in an overall elevated IFN Module Score in J1.1 T-cells as opposed to primary CD4$^+$

T-cells.

Conclusively, under these experimental conditions, Panobinostat, and, if applied at

higher concentration, also Vorinostat, significantly reduced expression of several genes that

are essential for T-cell-specific immune responses and a part of IFN-modulated genes.

HDAC inhibition imposes a block to CD4$^+$ T-cell activation and type I IFN signalling

We hypothesised that HDACi-induced modulation of gene expression is of functional

relevance for HIV-1 reactivation and immune recognition of reactivating cells. To investigate

the result of HDACi treatment on T-cell activation, we pre-incubated CD4$^+$ T-cells from HIV-1-

negative donors with HDACis prior to inducing T-cell activation by IL-2/PHA (**Fig. 3A**). Pre-

incubation with DMSO or Vorinostat resulted in marked IL-2/PHA-triggered enhancement of

the percentage of cells expressing the activation markers CD69, CD25, HLA-DR and also the

exhaustion markers TIM-3 and PD-1, indicating successful T-cell activation. Conversely,

Panobinostat pretreatment resulted in impaired induction of CD69 expression (0.49-fold

changed), and in a complete lack of IL-2/PHA-mediated induction of expression of CD25, HLA-

DR, TIM-3 and PD-1 (**Fig. 3A**). To study TCR-induced T-cell activation, we preincubated CD4$^+$

T-cells with HDACi followed by treatment with a universal peptide pool in combination with an

anti-CD28 antibody. Expression of the early activation marker CD69 after TCR stimulation was

slightly, but statistically significantly induced in Vorinostat- (1.65-fold) and to a higher extent in

Panobinostat-pretreated samples (5.5-fold), suggesting efficient initiation of T-cell activation

in the presence of both HDACis (**Fig. 3B**). Expression of the middle activation marker CD25,

the exhaustion marker PD-1 and the late activation marker HLA-DRA increased upon TCR

stimulation in the context of Vorinostat pretreatment (2.07-, 2.07- and 1.39-fold change,

respectively), suggesting that weak HDAC inhibition does not prevent TCR-specific T-cell

activation. However, expression of CD25 and HLA-DRA was severely reduced in

Panobinostat-pretreated cultures (0.05- and 0.47-fold change, respectively), suggestive of

abortive peptide-induced T-cell activation.

We next examined the impact of HDAC inhibition on type I IFN signalling and ISG

expression. Specifically, we treated CD4$^+$ T-cells isolated from HIV-1-negative donors with

DMSO, Vorinostat or Panobinostat in combination with increasing concentrations of IFN-α2a

and assessed cell surface expression changes of BST-2 and changes of *IFIT1* and *MX2* gene

expression (**Fig. 3C-D**). We applied an increased concentration of Vorinostat in these

experiments to adjust for the inferior potency of Vorinostat compared to Panobinostat that has

been reported in previous studies (38,48). Both Vorinostat and Panobinostat significantly

dampened base-line BST-2 cell surface expression levels, and both tested concentrations

(100 and 1000 IU/ml) of IFN-α2a failed to rescue the HDACi-imposed block to BST2 surface

expression (**Fig. 3C**). Interestingly, mRNA expression levels of the two ISGs *IFIT1* and *MX2*

showed a divergent phenotype. Individual treatment with Vorinostat and Panobinostat, as well

as addition of IFN-α2a, induced and further amplified *IFIT1* mRNA expression, respectively

(**Fig. 3D**). In contrast, *MX2* mRNA expression decreased in the context of HDACi treatment,

both in the absence and presence of 1000 IU/ml IFN-α2a (**Fig. 3E**). These results were

paralleled in latently HIV-1-infected J1.1 T-cells in which HDAC inhibition, but not treatment

with the non-HDACi LRA Bryostatin, reverted prior IFN-α2a-induced expression of MX2 in a

dose-dependent manner and abolished the negative impact of IFN on early HIV-1 reactivation

as judged by intracellular p24 expression (**Sup. Fig. 5A**). Co-administration of increasing

doses of IFN-α2a up to 10,000 IU/ml was insufficient to counteract the HDACi-suppressed

MX2 expression and did not limit the efficiency of HIV-1 reactivation, in contrast in the context

of Bryostatin treatment, IFN treatment induced MX2 expression efficiently and inhibited HIV-1

reactivation in a dose-dependent fashion (**Sup. Fig. 5B**).

Together, HDAC inhibition renders CD4$^+$ T-cells largely refractory, and/or less

sensitive, to mitogen and TCR stimulation and dampens the base-line and IFN-induced

expression of multiple ISGs, including the two prototypic ISGs BST-2 and MX2, while IRF3-

driven expression of a small subset of ISGs remains intact and is even exacerbated. We

hypothesise that the HDACi-induced cellular phenotypes both at the level of CD4$^+$ T-cells as

HIV-1 reactivating target cells, and CD4$^+$ T-cell effector functions is likely to contribute to the

lack of HIV-1-positive T-cell elimination *in vivo* both at the level of CD4$^+$ T-cells as HIV-1

reactivating target cells, and CD4$^+$ T-cell effector functions.

Addition of IFN-α2a to Panobinostat results in a tetherin-independent pre-budding

defect

The previous data highlighted that HDAC inhibition significantly diminishes IFN-induced

signalling, potentially nullifying the negative effect of IFN on HIV-1 replication. To test in detail

the impact of IFN on HIV-1 reactivation and multi-round spread upon LRA treatment, J.1. T-

cells were primed with a single dose of 50 nM Panobinostat in the presence or absence of

IFN-α2a. The percentage of HIV-1 p24 capsid-expressing cells was initially similar, but differed

starting from day three on (**Fig. 4A**, **Sup. Fig. 6**). Addition of IFN to Panobinostat reduced the

abundance of p24 capsid (**Fig. 4B**) and infectivity (**Fig. 4C**) released into cell culture

supernatant, effects detectable from day two and one post-treatment start on, respectively.

Two days post HIV-1 reactivation, a time point at which cell-associated p24 capsid expression

is statistically indistinguishable (**Fig. 4A**), the morphology of budding sites was similar and

intact in both conditions (**Fig. 4D**), however, the incidence of detectable budding events per

cell was reduced 2.2-fold in the context of the co-treatment (**Fig. 4E**). Importantly, this

observation was obtained in the absence of tetherin-imposed attachment of virions to the cell

surface or to each other (**Fig. 4D**). This tetherin-atypical microscopic appearance, and the lack

of IFN-induced tetherin upregulation when Panobinostat is present (**Fig. 4F, G**) strongly

argues against tetherin driving this antiviral phenotype, and rather suggests a defect prior to

release or a tetherin-independent release defect.

IFN-induced virus pre-budding block is accompanied by accumulation of HIV-1 Env on

cellular and viral membranes

Next, we assessed the nature of the IFN-imposed block prior to HIV-1 budding. Despite

increasing concentrations of IFN-α2a, Panobinostat-induced cell-associated HIV-1 p24 capsid

expression remained intact (**Fig. 5A**). In contrast, the p24 capsid signal intensity in

corresponding supernatants (**Fig. 5B**) and normalised release (**Fig. 5C**) dose-dependently

decreased in cultures co-treated with IFN-α2a. Interestingly, combined Panobinostat/IFN-α2a

treatment resulted in a higher ratio of gp120 per p24 (**Fig. 5D**), suggesting a higher rate of

Env incorporation in released virions in the absence of evidence for an Env processing

alteration in corresponding cell lysates (**Sup. Fig. 7A**). Panobinostat, alone or in combination

with IFN-α2a, increased the percentage of cells expressing HIV-1 Env on their surface (**Fig.**

5E), in line with increase of cell-associated p24 expression by both conditions (**Fig. 5A**).

However, IFN-α2a addition to Panobinostat had a 1.32-fold, statistically significant increase of

the mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) of Env signal on Env-positive cells as a consequence,

indicating accumulation of HIV-1 Env molecules on the cell surface (**Fig. 2F**). Treatment with

the JAK/STAT inhibitor Ruxolitinib preserved the increase of percentage of Env-positive cells

(**Sup. Fig. 7B**), but nullified IFN-induced Env accumulation per cell (**Sup. Fig. 7C**), consistent

with upregulation of Env requiring functional IFN signalling. Conclusively, combined treatment

of Panobinostat and IFN-α2a results in increased quantities of HIV-1 Env on reactivating T-

cells´ surfaces and released virions.

Addition of IFN-α2a to Panobinostat enhances the susceptibility of reactivating T-cells

to NK-mediated antibody-dependent cellular cytotoxicity

Being the sole viral antigen presented on the virus-producing cell surface, HIV-1 Env protein

serves as the major target of antibody-mediated responses. We therefore examined whether

the increased surface expression of HIV-1 Env in the context of IFN-α2a treatment renders

cells more susceptible to ADCC. Specifically, we co-cultured HIV-1-reactivating, cell tracker™

Green-CMFDA-stained J1.1 T-cells and freshly isolated PBMCs in the presence of serum from

PLHIV, and loss of HIV-1 p24 capsid-positive cells was monitored (**Sup. Fig. 8A**). ADCC

decreased with increasing dilutions of the anti HIV-1-Env antibody-containing serum,

independent of the reactivation regimen applied (**Fig. 6A-C**). Interestingly, Panobinostat

treatment failed to significantly enhance ADCC as compared to DMSO treatment, suggesting

that it increases the quantities of HIV-1 p24- and Env-positive cells, but not their relative

susceptibility to antibody-mediated elimination. In contrast, J1.1 T-cells reactivated in the

presence of IFN-α2a scored overall higher ADCC values. T-cells co-cultured with isolated NK

cells, but not monocytes, displayed a statistically significant increase of ADCC in the context

of IFN-α2a co-treatment as compared to Panobinostat only-treatment (**Sup. Fig. 9A, B**),

arguing for a predominant role of NK cells rather than monocytes in mediating T-cell killing. In

line with this, CD107a surface exposure and CD16 downregulation, which strongly correlates

with NK cell activation, cytokine production and target cell lysis (47–49), were highly induced

in the NK cell population of PBMCs co-cultured with J1.1 T-cells (**Sup. Fig. 9C-E**). Co-

treatment of J1.1 T-cells with Panobinostat and IFN-α2a, however, did not result in notable

differences of the two Panobinostat-treated conditions in regards to NK cell effector activation

despite increased target cell killing in the co-culture (**Sup. Fig. 9D-E**), arguing for IFN-a2

increasing the sensitivity of target cells to killing rather than modulating effector cell activity.

We next investigated whether IFN-α2a addition modulates the kinetics of NK cell-

effected ADCC against Panobinostat-treated J1.1 T-cells using live-cell imaging. Specifically,

J1.1 T-cells were treated either with Panobinostat only or Panobinostat in combination with

IFN-α2a for 48 hours, followed by differential staining of these two J1.1 T-cell cultures using

Cell Tracker™ Green CMFDA and Cell Tracker™ Deep Red, respectively. Cells were then co-

cultured with freshly isolated, unstained NK cells at a 1:1:1 ratio in the presence of serum from

PLHIV and a cell death marker (blue) and imaged every three minutes for a total of four hours

(**Sup. Movie 1**). The starting frame contained similar numbers of both J1.1 T-cell cultures (47

green cells, 51 red cells). As expected, the overall number of cell death marker-positive J1.1

T-cells increased over time, indicating ADCC. We did not detect profound differences

regarding the duration of individual NK cell/J1.1 T-cell interactions depending on the T-cell line

pretreatment (**Sup. Movie 1**). However, the percentage of cells dying until the end of the

experiment, as judged by acquisition of the blue fluorescence and visual disappearance was

clearly increased for cells receiving Panobinostat/IFN-α2a co-treatment (31.4%) as compared

to cells pre-treated with Panobinostat alone (12.8%) (**Fig. 6E**). The number of

Panobinostat/IFN-α2a-treated J1.1 T-cells showing signs of cell death increased rapidly and

plateaued at 69 minutes after the start of the imaging (**Fig. 6F**). In contrast, the number of

Panobinostat-treated J1.1 T-cells with signs of cell death increased only moderately and

plateaued after 75 minutes (**Fig. 6F**). Despite the high mobility and intact shape of the NK

cells, no more J1.1 T-cells were eliminated 75 minutes after start of the co-culture, suggesting

that the remaining J1.1 T-cells either did not reactivate HIV-1 expression or were otherwise

resistant to killing. Of note, a substantial fraction of NK cells that otherwise presented an intact

cell shape and high mobility acquired the blue death marker over time (**Sup. Movie 1**). We

hypothesise that the processes of degranulation and re-internalization of granules in highly

active NK cells allow the uptake of the cell death dye from the medium, not necessarily

reflecting cell death. This is in line with the observation that specifically the highly mobile, J1.1

T-cell-interacting NK cells stained positive for the cell death marker, the same population of

cells that is thought to have a high cytotoxic potential.

Overall, our observations are in line with a scenario in which addition of IFN-α2a to a

Panobinostat-mediated HIV-1 reactivation regimen renders HIV-1-positive cells more prone to

NK cell-mediated ADCC, in line with higher levels of the major antibody target Env on the cells'

surface, despite similar levels of HIV-1 reactivation.

IFN-α2a-enhanced HIV-1 Env cell surface accumulation and ADCC sensitization occur

in the context of HDACi-, but not PKC agonist-mediated HIV-1 reactivation

We next tested whether IFN-α2a-mediated upregulation of HIV-1 Env and sensitivity of cells

to immunological elimination occurs in conjunction with a specific class of LRA or, on the

contrary, universally upon HIV-1 latency reversal. Like Panobinostat treatment, individual

treatment of cells with the HDACis Vorinostat and Romidepsin, and the PKC agonist Bryostatin

strongly increased the percentage of HIV-1 p24 capsid-positive cells, while the BET inhibitor

JQ1 was inferior in reversing proviral quiescence (**Sup. Fig. 10A**). Overall, the percentages of

HIV-1 Env-positive cells induced by Vorinostat, Romidepsin and JQ1 treatment followed the

percentages of p24-positive cells. Surprisingly Bryostatin treatment, both in the absence or

presence of IFN-α2a, failed to increase the percentage of Env-positive cells, despite clear HIV-

1 reactivation at the level of p24 capsid (**Sup Fig. 10B**), and accordingly, both treatments did

not alter susceptibility to ADCC which, surprisingly, was clearly detectable despite low surface

Env levels (**Sup. Fig. 10C**). In summary, our findings suggests that IFN-α2a co-treatment

enhances Env cell surface expression in the context of HDACi and the iBET JQ1, but not

Bryostatin, pointing towards LRA class-specific differences in HIV-1 Env cell surface targeting

and/or regulation.

The ability to restrict HIV-1 budding and facilitate elimination of HIV-1-positive T-cells

is type I IFN protein-specific

Although previous HIV-1 cure strategies focused on incorporation of IFN-α2a or -α2b in shock-

and-kill approaches, *in vitro* work clearly demonstrates that other members of the type I IFN

family, including IFN-α6, IFN-α14 and IFN-β, display superior anti-HIV-1 properties (49–52).

To investigate the breadth of type I IFN proteins to enhance susceptibility of HIV-1-reactivating

cells to elimination, we selected IFN-α6, IFN-α14 and IFN-β due to their previously reported

high anti-HIV-1 activity (49,50,52), IFN-α16 for its comparatively weaker activity (49,50,52)

and IFN-α2 as a reference. IFN-α14 and -β treatment resulted in strongest ISG induction, as

judged by quantification of *IFIT1* mRNA and BST-2 protein expression (**Sup. Fig. 11**). Upon

co-treatment with Panobinostat, all tested type I IFNs, particularly IFN-α14 and -β, significantly

decreased secreted infectivity (**Fig. 7A**). Surprisingly, all IFNs shared the ability to increase

the HIV-1 Env surface MFI (**Fig. 7B**), but differed in their ability to sensitise T-cells for

elimination, with IFN-α14 and -β treatment resulting in highest ADCC rates (**Fig. 7C**). It is

worth mentioning that the activity of the in-house generated IFN subtypes used in Fig. 7 was

determined using an ISRE-reporter cell line in contrast to commercial IFN-α2a (Roferon, used

in the rest of the study) whose activity is quantified in a cytopathic effect inhibition assay.

These differences hindered a direct comparison of the two IFN-α2 potencies and potentially

explain the relative lack of IFN-α2 in inducing ADCC under these experimental conditions (**Fig.**

7C). The antiviral activity of individual type I IFN proteins correlated with the induced

susceptibility to ADCC. The degree of upregulation of cell surface Env levels did not predict

ADCC susceptibility (**Fig. 7D**), suggesting that IFN-mediated enhancement of surface Env

levels is required, but not sufficient for sensitising cells to elimination.

In summary, we identified a superior ability of the clinically yet underexplored members

of the type I IFN family, IFN-α14 and -β, to enhance susceptibility to elimination of HIV-1-

reactivating T-cells which correlates with their ability to inhibit HIV-1 budding in the context of

Panobinostat reactivation and to accumulate viral Env on the HIV-1-reactivating cells' surface.

DISCUSSION

The overarching aim of LRA treatment in the context of HIV-1 cure is reinitiation of HIV-1

mRNA and protein expression to a degree that is sufficient to render a maximum of HIV-1-

reactivating cells immunologically visible, making them susceptible to elimination. The ability

of HDACis to reverse HIV-1 latency *in vitro* and *in vivo* (12,36–38,53) involves hyperacetylation

of histones, which leads to opening of cellular chromatin and subsequently modulation of

gene expression, including transcriptional reactivation from dormant HIV-1 genomes (54,55).

LRA treatment *per se* influences the expression profile of a plethora of cellular genes, with to

date poorly defined consequences on cellular processes affecting HIV-1 RNA stability, HIV-1

protein expression, trafficking and cell surface presentation, and finally susceptibility of HIV-

1-reactivating cells to cytotoxicity. An optimal shock-and-kill regimen should, on the one hand,

mount a proviral milieu that facilitates post-integration steps of the virus replication cycle. On

the other hand, in a second step, an ideal shock-and-kill regimen must render reactivating T-

cells susceptible to recognition and killing by CD8$^+$ T-cell and NK cell-mediated cytotoxicity,

processes that are orchestrated in the effector cell, among others, by functional type I IFN

signalling (27,56). Treatment of CD4$^+$ T-cells with Panobinostat resulted in a markedly

impaired ability to respond to activation stimuli, including TCR/CD28 and IL-2/PHA, in line with

reports of HDACi treatment-induced antigen-specific anergy of mouse lymphocytes (57).

Given that Panobinostat treatment compromises functionality of NK cells (58) and CD8$^+$ T-

cells (59,60), it is tempting to speculate that it also affects the efficiency of peptide processing

and presentation in HIV-1-reactivating CD4$^+$ T-cells by MHC-I molecules. Along this line,

HDACi treatment has been proposed to reduce cytosolic peptidase activities in *ex vivo*-HIV-

1-infected CD4$^+$ T-cells, resulting in modulated antigen presentation to CD8$^+$ T-cells (61).

Together, we suspect that these effects compromise the overall effector functions of several

immune cell types that would otherwise contribute to elimination of HIV-1-reactivating T-cells.

A second striking consequence of Panobinostat was a largely CD4$^+$ T-cell subset

unspecific, broad, though not entire shut-down of components of IFN-related signalling

pathways and functions, which is consistent with the known requirement of functional histone

deacetylation for IFN signalling, but not for IRF3-mediated gene expression programmes (62).

This leads us to propose to re-consider the contribution of several antiviral genes when

analysed in the context of HDACi-induced reactivation, since expression of several ISGs is

repressed by HDACi treatment even in the presence of high concentrations of type I IFN. A

striking example is our observation of an IFN-induced release defect. Iin the context of

Panobinostat treatment, tetherin expression is downregulated in most CD4$^+$ T-cell

subpopulations except the exhausted CD4+ T-cell subset, fully prevented even when type I

IFN is exogenously added, and the microscopic appearance of stalled budding events

resembles more those described in the context of ESCRT component defects (63). Together,

these data argue rather for a to date unknown ISG product whose IFN dependency is still

preserved despite HDAC inhibition.

Type I IFN treatment in conjunction with Panobinostat-mediated HIV-1 reactivation

was followed by increase of HIV-1 Env molecule density on viral and HIV-1-reactivating T-

cells' surfaces. HIV-1 tightly regulates the presentation of Env on the cell surface to minimise

the vulnerability against humoral responses while maintaining infectivity (64). The observed

Env cell surface accumulation may be an indirect consequence of the pre-budding defect,

where fewer virions are detached from the producer cell, resulting in excess HIV-1 Env at the

plasma membrane, and/or may be a direct consequence of the HDACi/IFN treatment

combination on HIV-1 Env trafficking and recycling. The rate of internalisation of Env

molecules and their conformation presented at the cell surface have been reported as

determinants of the HIV-1-infected cell's susceptibility to ADCC (65–67). Our data points

towards a scenario in which, in the context of Panobinostat treatment, increased Env

expression on reactivating T-cells, likely with contribution of a potential ISG product, sensitises

HIV-1-reactivating T-cells for NK cell-mediated elimination. This would represent a novel

mechanism by which type I IFN sensitises, rather than protects, target cells for elimination. On

the contrary, several studies reported type I IFNs to protect T-cells from NK cell-mediated

cytotoxicity by processes involving upregulation of expression of selected inhibitory NK-cell-

receptor ligands (68) and reduction of expression of natural cytotoxicity triggering receptor 1

(NCR1) ligands as evasion mechanism (69). However, these studies were not conducted in

the context of pharmacological reactivation of HIV-1. Specifically, a higher proportion of

Panobinostat-only treated cells remained viable at the end of the co-culture as compared to

IFN-co-treated cells, indicating an intrinsic resistance to ADCC-mediated killing that was

partially overcome by the addition of IFN. Importantly, we did not observe differences in the

degranulation activity or cellular activation of NK cells retrieved from co-cultures with either

Panobinostat- or Panobinostat/IFN-treated J1.1 cells, suggesting that the impact of IFN on NK

cell effector activity is neglectable under these experimental conditions. To date, only tetherin

has been identified as an IFN-stimulated factor that augments ADCC responses against HIV-

1-infected cells (67,70) however, it is an unlikely candidate in the context of Panobinostat

treatment due to its virtually absent expression in the context of HDAC inhibition. Adding

another layer of complexity, susceptibility to immune-mediated clearance is not determined be

mere quantities of surface-accessible Env, as evidenced by our data showing clear antibody-

dependent killing despite low cell surface levels of Env on target T-cells following Bryostatin-

mediated latency reversal, and IFN-protein-specific ADCC susceptibilities despite similar Env

cell surface levels following Panobinostat treatment. The characterisation of cellular and viral

factors that determine the susceptibility of HIV-1-reactivating cells to ADCC and how these

factors are manipulated by individual pharmacologic latency reversal strategies are key

questions to be addressed in future studies.

In the context of HIV-1 shock-and-kill cure approaches, HDACis belong to the most

thoroughly studied class of LRAs and are well tolerated *in vivo* (71,72), though administration

of HDACis appears to inhibit essential immune effector functions of CD8$^+$ T-cells (60), NK cells

(58,73) and reduce susceptibility of target T-cells to cytotoxic elimination as shown in our

study. However, the overall high potency of HDACis to reactivate HIV-1 and the lack of

alternative LRAs with better *in vivo* performance encourages the continued use of HDACis in

newly launched clinical trials, especially in combination with immunomodulatory drugs to

counterbalance the HDACi-mediated negative effects. Currently, HDACis are being tested in

combination with pegylated IFN-α2a (Clinical trial NCT02471430), broadly neutralising

antibodies (Clinical trial NCT02850016) (74,75) and therapeutic vaccine candidates (Clinical

trials NCT02092116 and NCT02616874) (76). Within this conceptually broad field, our study

is the first proof-of-concept that provides a mechanistic rationale that justifies incorporating

type I IFNs in shock-and-kill settings to enhance the susceptibility of HIV-1-reactivating T-cells

to immune-mediated elimination. Importantly, the superior ability of the clinically

underexplored IFN-α14 and IFN-β over IFN-α2a to sensitise T-cells for elimination justifies

their advancement for clinical trials.   In conclusion, combining potent LRAs with

immunomodulatory molecules, such as type I IFNs, presents a promising strategy to overcome

the intrinsic and/or virus-mediated resistance of HIV-1-reactivating T-cells to NK cell-mediated

killing which would be an instrumental step towards effective shock-and-kill cure strategies.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Cell lines and primary cells

HEK293T and Tzm-bl cells were obtained from ATCC and the NIH AIDS Reagents Program and maintained in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated fetal calf serum (FCS), 100 IU/ml Penicillin/Streptomycin and 2 mM L-Glutamine in a 5% CO_2 atmosphere at 37°C. Jurkat and J1.1 T-cells were obtained from the NIH AIDS Reagents Program and cultivated in RPMI 1640 supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated FCS, 100 IU/ml Penicillin/Streptomycin, 2 mM L-Glutamine, 1x MEM non-essential amino acids and 1 mM sodium pyruvate in a 5% CO_2 atmosphere at 37 °C.

Withdrawal of blood samples from healthy human donors and cell isolation were conducted with approval of the local ethics committee (Ethical review committee of Charité Berlin, vote EA4/167/19). Withdrawal of blood samples from aviremic PLHIV and cell isolation were conducted with approval of the local ethics committee (Ethical review committee of Charité Berlin, votes EA2/105/05 and EA2/024/21) in the context of the HIV-1 Seroconverter Study of the Robert-Koch-Institute (77). Available clinical information is indicated in Supplementary Table 1. Human PBMCs, CD4+ T-cells, NK cells and monocytes were isolated from EDTA-anticoagulated blood by Ficoll-Hypaque centrifugation or using the EasySep Direct Human CD4+ T-cell, Human NK cell or Human Monocyte CD14+ Isolation kits (STEMCELL Technologies), respectively. Primary cells were cultured at 10^6 cells/ml in RPMI 1640 containing 10% heat-inactivated FCS, 100 IU/ml penicillin/streptomycin, 2 mM L-Glutamine, 1% MEM non-essential amino acids and 1 mM sodium pyruvate.

Reagents and inhibitors

The following commercial reagents were used throughout this study: Bryostatin I (Sigma Aldrich), CEFX Ultra SuperStim Pool (#PM-CEFX-1, JPT), IFN-α2a (Roche), IFN-β (Roche),

IL-2 (Merck), JQ-1 (Sigma Aldrich), Panobinostat (Cayman Chemical), PHA (Thermo

Scientific), Romidepsin (Selleckchem), Ruxolitinib (STEMCELL Technologies)

Vorinostat/SAHA (Abcam). Efavirenz was obtained from the NIH AIDS Reagent Program.

Recombinant IFN-α subtypes 2, 6, 14 and 16 were expressed in *Escherichia coli*, purified by

anion-exchange and size exclusion chromatography and tested for absence of endotoxins

(50). IFN units were determined using a human retinal pigment epithelial reporter cell line

stably expressing a plasmid containing the IFN-stimulated response element driving a

luciferase reporter gene.

Treatment of CD4$^+$ T-cells for single cell RNA-sequencing

CD4$^+$ T-cells were mock-treated (0.05% DMSO) or treated with Vorinostat (500 nM),

Panobinostat (50 nM) or IL-2 (20 IU/ml) and PHA (1 μg/ml) for 48 hours before subjecting

them to the single cell RNA-sequencing pipeline. J1.1 T-cells were treated with 1.6% DMSO

(DMSO I), 16000 nM Vorinostat, 0.2% DMSO (DMSO II) or 200 nM Panobinostat for 40 hours

before subjecting them to single cell RNA-sequencing.

Single cell RNA-sequencing

Single cell RNA-Seq libraries were prepared with the 10x Genomics platform using the

Chromium Next GEM Single Cell 3' Reagent Kits v.3.1 following manufacturer's instructions.

Quality control of the libraries were performed with the KAPA Library Quantification Kit and

Agilent TapeStation. Libraries were sequenced on a HiSeq4000 using the following

sequencing mode: read 1: 28 bp, read 2: 91-100 bp, Index i7: 8 bp. The libraries were

sequenced to reach ~20 000 reads per cell.

Single cell RNA-sequencing data analysis

FASTQ files from the sequencing protocol were processed using the Cell Ranger pipeline v

3.1.0 (10X Genomics) and further analysed using the Seurat v3.1.4 package (78) in R v3.6 (R

Core Team, 2017). Reads from cells isolated from PLHIV were aligned to the human genome

(GRCh38), while reads from J1.1 T-cells were aligned to a custom reference consisting of the

genomic HIV-1 RNA (LAV-1, GenBank: K02013.1) appended to GRCh38 to allow for capture

of viral RNAs. The data was processed using the SCTransform workflow as outlined by the

Seurat developers. Cells were clustered using Louvain clustering in a UMAP projection. For

the CD4$^+$ T-cells from PLHIV, T-cell subsets were identified based on marker gene expression:

T_N cells (CD3D$^+$, CD8A$^-$, CCR7$^+$, S100A4^{low}) (39), T_{CM} cells (CD3D$^+$, CD8A$^-$, CCR7^{low},

S100A4^{int}, CD62L^{high}, GZMA$^-$) (79), T_{TM} cells (CD3D$^+$, CD8A$^-$, CCR7^{low}, S100A4^{high}, CD62L^{low},

GZMA$^+$, GZMB$^-$, GZMH$^-$, PRF1$^-$, GNLY$^+$) (80–82), T_{EM} cells (CD3D$^+$, CD8A$^-$, CCR7$^-$,

S100A4^{high}, GZMA$^+$, GZMB$^+$, GZMH$^+$, PRF1$^+$ GNLY$^+$) (83), T_{EMRA} cells (CD3D$^+$, CD8A$^-$, CCR7$^-$

, S100A4^{high}, GZMA$^+$, GZMB^{high}, GZMH$^+$, PRF1^{high}, GNLY^{high}, CCL4$^+$) (40,84), T_{REG} cells

(CD3D$^+$, CD8A$^-$, CCR7^{low}, S100A4^{high}, FOXP3$^+$, IL2RA$^+$, CTLA4$^+$) (40,84), T_{EX} cells (CD3D$^+$,

CD8A$^-$, CCR7$^-$, GZMB$^+$, PDCD1$^+$, LAG3$^+$) (85). All utilized code is deposited at

https://github.com/GoffinetLab/HIV_scRNAseq-CD4-LRA-study. To visualize sequencing

coverage of the viral genome in J1.1 T-cells, viral reads were extracted from the bam files of

the CellRanger output. These were converted to bigwig files and visualised on tracks using

bamCoverage (setting –normalizeUsing RPGC) and pyGenomeTracks from deeptools (86).

Principal component analysis (PCA)

PCA was performed with the average expression values of all genes with detectable

expression levels of mock-, Vorinostat- and Panobinostat-treated samples. Singular value

decomposition (SVD) with imputations was used for calculation of the principal components

using ClustVis (https://biit.cs.ut.ee/clustvis/) (87).

Differentially expressed genes and pathway analysis

DEGs between individual treatments were identified using the 10x Genomics Loupe Browser

(v. 5.0.1.); p-values were adjusted using the Benjamini-Hochberg correction for multiple

testing. Pathway analysis was performed with the list of DEGs harbouring p-values <0.05,

gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) was performed using the Pathway Panther database

(88–90). The results are described using the Normalised Enrichment Ratio (NER), the

enrichment ratio indicates the degree of overrepresentation of a given gene set in the list of

DEGs and is normalised to take different gene set sizes into account.

Transcription factor activity analysis

Transcription factor activity analysis was performed using the dorothea R package following

the guidelines for processing single cell RNA-seq data (91,92), with the following exception.

The run_viper function from dorothea was altered to use the top 40,000 most variable genes,

as determined by the FindVariableFeatures function from Seurat. Utilised code is available at

https://github.com/GoffinetLab/HIV_scRNAseq-CD4-LRA-study.

Module scores

The IFN signalling pathway (R-HSA-913531) and TCR signalling pathway (R-HSA-202403)

gene sets from the Reactome database (93) were retrieved from the Molecular Signatures

Database (MSigDB) (94). Cells were scored based on their expression of these genes using

the AddModuleScore function in Seurat. They are referred to as the IFN signalling module and

T-cell activation module scores as the pathways include genes canonically involved in

response to IFN signalling and TCR-mediated T-cell activation, respectively.

Flow cytometry

PBS-washed cells were immunostained for individual surface proteins using the following

antibodies: anti-BST2/Tetherin-BV421 (#566381; BD), anti-CCR5/CD195-FITC (#555992; BD

Biosciences), anti-CCR7/CD197-PE (#552176; BD Biosciences), anti-CD107a-BV421

(#562623; BD), anti-CD14-PE (#555398; BD), anti-CD16-FITC (#360716; Biolegend), anti-

CD3-FITC (#561807; BD Biosciences), anti-CD4-APC (#555349; BD Biosciences), anti-

CD25-APC (#340907; BD Biosciences), anti-CD45RA-FITC (#335039; BD Biosciences), anti-

CD45RO-APC (#340438; BD Biosciences), anti-CD56-APC (#318310; Biolegend), anti-

CD62L-FITC (#304804; Biolegend), anti-CD69-APC (#340560; BD Biosciences), anti-

CXCR4/CD184-APC (#555976; BD Biosciences), anti-HLA-DR-FITC (#556643, BD

Biosciences), anti-IL7R/CD127-PE (#557938; BD), anti-PD-1/CD279-PE (#21272794;

ImmunoTools) and anti-TIM-3/CD366-FITC (#345022; Biolegend). For intracellular

immunostaining, PBS-washed cells were PFA-fixed for 90 minutes and immunostained with

the following antibodies diluted in 0.1% Triton X-100 in PBS: anti-HIV-1-core-antigen-FITC or

-PE (#6604665 or #6604667; Beckman Coulter), rabbit-anti-human-MX1/2 (#sc-166412;

Santa Cruz Biotechnology). A goat-anti-rabbit IgG conjugated to Alexa Fluor 647 (#A27040;

Thermo Fisher) was used as a secondary antibody. Cell viability was analysed using the Dead

Cell Apoptosis Kit for Flow Cytometry from Invivogen (#V13242), with early apoptotic cells

scoring Annexin V-positive and late apoptotic cells scoring Annexin V- and propidium iodide

(PI)-positive. Data acquisition and analysis was conducted using a FACS Celesta device

(Becton Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, New Jersey, USA) with FlowJo (v.10.7.1).

T-cell activation assays

$CD4^+$ T-cells were isolated from healthy donors and pre-incubated with Vorinostat (500 nM),

Panobinostat (50 nM), or left mock-treated (0.05% DMSO) for 16 hours followed by stimulation

with a peptide pool of a broad range of HLA-subtypes and infectious agents (CEFX Ultra

SuperStim Pool; JPT) (1 µg/ml) and 1 µg/ml mouse-anti-human CD28 antibody (#556620; BD

Biosciences), or IL-2 (20 IU/ml) and PHA (1 µg/ml). T-cell activation and exhaustion was

quantified by flow cytometry 48 hours post-stimulation.

HIV-1 reactivation assays in J1.1 T-cells

J1.1 T-cells were PBS-washed, resuspended in supplemented RPMI and incubated with

Panobinostat (50 nM), Vorinostat, (5000 nM), Romidepsin (50 nM), Bryostatin (20 nM), JQ1

(5000 nM) or the corresponding volume of DMSO, if not otherwise stated for 48 hours. In some

assays, T-cells were co-treated or pre-treated for 24 hours with individual IFNs at indicated

concentrations.

Quantitative RT-Q-PCR

Total RNA extraction using the Direct-zol RNA extraction kit (Zymo) including DNase treatment

to remove residual DNA contaminations, was followed by cDNA synthesis (NEB, Invitrogen)

and quantification of relative mRNA levels using a LightCycler 480 Instrument II (Roche) and

Taq-Man PCR technology. For human *IFIT1* and *MX2*, a premade primer-probe kit was

purchased from Applied Biosystems (Assay ID: Hs01911452_s1; Hs01550813_m1;

respectively. Relative mRNA levels were determined in multiplex reactions using the ΔΔCt

method and human *RNASEP* (#4316844; Applied Biosystems) as internal reference. Data

analysis was performed using LightCycler Software 4.1 (Roche).

Immunoblotting

For immunoblotting, cells were lysed using the M-PER mammalian protein extraction reagent

(Thermo Fisher Scientific) following manufacturer's recommendations. Cell cultures

supernatants were centrifuged over a 20% sucrose cushion at 20,000 x g, for 60 mins at 4°C,

resuspended in 1x SDS buffer at heat-inactivated for 10 mins at 95°C. Samples were run on

a 10% SDS-PAGE, transferred onto nitrocellulose membranes using a semi-dry transfer

system (Bio-Rad Laboratories) and membranes were blocked with 5% milk in TBS for one

hour before incubation with the primary antibody at 4°C overnight. The following primary

antibodies were used: anti-90K/LGALS3BP (#AF2226: R&D Systems), anti-BST2/Tetherin

(#390719; Santa Cruz), anti-ERK2/MAPK (#sc-153; Santa Cruz) anti-GAPDH (#NB300-221,

Novus Biologicals), anti-HIV-1 p24 (#11-327; ExBio), anti-HIV-1 gp120 (provided by Valerie

Bosch), anti-IFIT1 (#TA500948; OriGene), anti-IFITM-3 (#AP1153a; Abgent), anti-ISG15

(#166755; Santa Cruz) and anti-MX2 (#sc166412; Santa Cruz). Secondary antibodies

conjugated to Alexa680 or Alexa800 fluorescent dyes were used for detection and

quantification by the Odyssey Infrared Imaging System (LI-COR Biosciences).

Release of HIV-1 p24 capsid was quantified by detecting p24 as described above in

supernatant and cell samples from corresponding cell cultures and dividing the p24 signal

intensity from supernatants by the sum of p24 intensities from both fractions.

Tzm-bl HIV-1 infectivity assay

To quantify infectivity released in supernatant, 30,000 Tzm-bl cells per 96-well were pre-

treated with 10 µM of the JAK/STAT inhibitor Ruxolitinib for 16 hours to minimise the influence

of potentially transferred IFNs from the tested supernatants. Then, cells were infected with

HIV-1 for 48 hours before luminometric quantification of luciferase activity using the Luciferase

Assay System (Promega).

HIV-1 Env cell surface staining

To quantify HIV-1 Env cell surface expression, broadly neutralising antibodies 3BNC117

(ARP-12474), 10-1074 (ARP-12477) and PG16 (ARP-12150) were obtained from the NIH HIV

Reagents Program. PBS-washed cells were immunostained with a cocktail of 5 µg/ml of each

antibody for 30 mins at 4°C, followed by PBS washing and immunostaining with secondary

AlexaFluor633 anti-human antibodies (Thermo Fisher Scientific, #A-21091) for 30 mins at 4°C

in the dark. Samples were PBS-washed and fixed with 4% PFA for 90 minutes. Samples were

acquired and analysed on a FACS Celesta machine (BD Biosciences) and FlowJo Software

(V.10.7.1), respectively.

Thin section electron microscopy

Infected T-cells were fixed with 2.5% glutaraldehyde in 0.05 M Hepes buffer (pH:7.2) and

incubated at room temperature for two hours. Afterwards, µ-Dishes were filled with the fixative

buffer and cells were embedded in the chambers by using Epon resin (protocol with tannic

acid and uranyl acetate block contrasting (95). Thin sections (60-70 nm thick) were produced

with an ultramicrotome, contrasted with uranyl acetate and lead citrate and investigated with

a transmission electron microscope (JEM-2100, Jeol) operated at 200 kV. Images were

recorded using a side-mounted CCD camera (Veleta, EMSIS) with 2048x2048 pixels.

Antibody-dependent cellular cytotoxicity (ADCC) assay

ADCC assays were adapted from previous reports (96). Briefly, J1.1 T-cells were treated as described above for 48 hours, before washing and staining with green CellTracker (#C2925, Thermo Fisher Scientific), following manufacturer's recommendations. Labelled J1.1 T-cells were then co-cultured with freshly isolated PBMCs (or NK cells or monocytes where indicated) at a 1:1 ratio in a 96-well U-bottom plate in the presence of indicated dilutions of serum from PLHIV (ARP-3957; obtained from the NIH HIV Reagents Program). A separate well without serum was set up for each co-culture condition in parallel. The plates were then centrifuged for one min, 300 x *g* and then incubated at 37°C, 5% CO_2. After four hours, co-cultures were PBS-washed, fixed with 4% PFA, immunostained for intracellular HIV-1 p24 expression and p24 CA-positive J1.1 T-cells were quantified by flow cytometry. Percent of ADCC was calculated using this formula (see also **Sup. Fig. 8**):

$$\% ADCC$$

$$= \frac{p24-positive\ J1.1\ cells\ (without\ sera)\ -\ p24-positive\ J1.1\ cells\ (with\ sera)}{p24-positive\ J1.1\ cells\ (without\ sera)}\ x\ 100$$

NK cell activation and CD107a degranulation assay

NK cell activation and degranulation activity in PBMCs co-cultured with reactivated J1.1 T-cells was analysed through CD16 and CD107a immunostaining of NK cells. ADCC assays were performed as described above with the following modifications (97): Co-cultures were supplemented with a 1:20 dilution of anti-CD107a-BV421 antibodies. After one hour of incubation, a final concentration of 10 µg/ml Brefeldin A and 6 µg/ml Golgi-Stop (BD Biosciences) were added, preventing the exocytosis of cytokine-containing vesicles, and the acidification of endocytic vesicles and CD107a protein degradation, respectively. Co-cultures were incubated for another three hours at 37°C, 5% CO_2, before immunostaining for CD16 and CD56 cell surface expression. CD16 and CD107a expression was assessed by flow cytometry specifically in CD56-positive NK cell populations (see also **Sup Fig. 9**).

762   **Live-cell imaging of J1.1 T-cell/NK cell co-cultures**

763   To analyse the dynamics of NK cell-mediated ADCC against reactivating J1.1 T-cells, live cell

764   imaging of indicated co-cultures was performed. J1.1 T-cell cultures treated with Panobinostat

765   or Panobinostat/IFN-α2a for 48 hours were individually labelled with CellTracker™ Green-

766   CFMDA or CellTracker™ Deep Red CellTracker (both Thermo Fisher Scientifics).

767   Panobinostat-treated, Panobinostat/IFN-α2a-treated J1.1 T-cells and NK cells were co-

768   cultured at a 1:1:1 ratio in the presence of 1:100 dilution of sera from PLHIV and the

769   LIVE/DEAD Aqua Dead Cell dye (Thermo Fisher Scientific, #L34965) to assess dying cells.

770   The dead cell dye reacts with free amids in the cellular cytosol, thus specifically staining cells

771   with porous membranes as an early surrogate of cell death. Co-cultures were monitored with

772   a Zeiss LSM800 Airyscan Confocal Microscope in a 37°C, 5% CO_2 atmosphere with images

773   being acquired every three minutes for a total of four hours. Images were analysed and

774   merged using Zeiss ZEN Blue (V3.3).

775

776   **Data presentation and statistical analysis**

777   Graphs and figures were generated using Graphpad Prism 9 (v.9.5.1) and Adobe Illustrator

778   2021. Heatmaps were generated using the ClustVis web tool (https://biit.cs.ut.ee/clustvis/)

779   with unit variance scaling for rows (87). If not otherwise stated, bars or circles represent the

780   mean of the indicated number of experiments and error bars indicate the S.E.M. Statistical

781   significance for paired data sets were tested using Graphpad Prism 9 and paired student's t-

782   testing, p-values ≤ 0.05 were considered significant and displayed in the figures as follows: p

783   < 0.05 *; p < 0.01 ** or p < 0.001 ***. p-values ≥ 0.05 were considered not significant (n.s.).

784   Pearson's correlation analyses were performed for the indicated datasets with pearson

785   correlation coefficients and two-tailed p-values being displayed.

786   **Data availability**

The single cell RNA-sequencing data will be deposited at the Gene Expression Omnibus

(GEO) database (accession number #).

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank the PLHIV who agreed to participate in the Seroconverter Study and the uninfected

donors to provide their blood for research. We thank Valerie Bosch and the NIH AIDS

Research & Reference Reagent Program for providing essential reagents. We thank the

Genomics Platform of the Berlin Institute of Health for next-generation sequencing. This work

was supported by funding to C.G. by Berlin Institute of Health (BIH); by Hector Foundation,

project M2101; by DFG priority program 1923 "Innate Sensing and Restriction of

Retroviruses," grant GO2153/4); by DZIF, TTU HIV, grant 04.820 to C.G. and by a

Professorship Award (APR9/1017) of the Academy of Medical Sciences awarded to C.G. We

thank Christian Drosten for constant support. A.P. is supported by the Brazilian Federal

Foundation for Support and Evaluation of Graduate Education, CAPES. J.K. is supported by

the Center of Infection Biology and Immunity (ZIBI) and Charité PhD Program.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

JP, AJP, JJ, LM, JF, TS, performed experiments.

JP, DP, AJP, EW, LM, JF, TS, CF, SV, MS analysed data.

UK, BGB, KM, NB, LL, AT, KS provided essential resources.

AT, SS, UD, MiL, NB, MaL, CG supervised.

CG acquired funding and managed the project.

JP, DP, CG wrote the manuscript.

Declaration of conflicts of interest

None.

FIGURES

Figure 1. Panobinostat treatment modulates expression of CD4+ T-cell subset-specific

markers

(**A**) Combined UMAP plot of CD4+ T-cell cultures from three PLHIV, separated by treatment

and coloured by T-cell subset.

(**B**) Percentages of indicated CD4+ T-cell subsets.

Figure 2. Panobinostat treatment induces broad transcriptional down-modulation of genes involved in T-cell signalling and a subset of genes implicated in innate immunity

(**A**) Volcano plots showing DEGs with a p-value < 0.05.

(**B**) Overlap of genes significantly up- or down-regulated (p-value < 0.05, fold change > 2) in

Vorinostat and Panobinostat-treated samples compared to mock treatment.

(**C**) Pathway analysis of DEGs (p-value < 0.05) after Panobinostat treatment. Shown is the

Normalised Enrichment Ration (NER), representing the degree of overrepresentation of a

given gene set in the DEG list. Colours indicate the -Log_{10}(FDR p-value).

(**D**) Transcription factor activity analysis of selected transcription factors in the indicated T-cell

subsets.

(**E**) Heatmap showing scaled average expression of selected ISGs in the indicated T-cell

subsets. Genes are ordered based on correlation, clustering is indicated with lines on the left.

(**F**) Average IFN signalling module score in the indicated T-cell subsets. Dashed line shows

the average module score of mock-treated T_N-cells. Numbers indicate the p-value calculated

using Wilcoxon signed-rank testing for each subset from the LRA-treated samples compared

to the same subset of the mock-treated samples.

(**G**) Heatmap showing scaled average expression of selected genes required for T-cell-

mediated immunity in the indicated T-cell subsets. Genes are ordered based on correlation,

clustering is indicated with lines on the left.

(**H**) Average T-cell activation module score in the indicated T-cell subsets. Dashed line shows

the average module score of mock-treated T_N-cells. Numbers indicate the p-value calculated

using Wilcoxon signed-rank testing for each subset from the LRA-treated samples compared

to the same subset of the mock-treated samples.

Figure 3. HDAC inhibition imposes a block to CD4⁺ T-cell activation and type I IFN signalling

CD4⁺ T-cells from uninfected donors were either pretreated with 0.5% DMSO, 500 nM Vorinostat or 50 nM Panobinostat for 16 hours, followed by:

(**A**) Stimulation with a peptide pool and anti-CD28 antibody for 48 hours

(**B**) Stimulation with IL-2/PHA for 48 hours

followed by analysis of CD69, CD25, HLA-DR, TIM-3 and PD-1 cell surface expression by flow

cytometry. Shown are data from cells from three donors.

CD4$^+$ T-cells from uninfected donors were treated with 0.5% DMSO, 8000 nM Vorinostat or

50 nM Panobinostat in combination with increasing concentrations of IFN-α2a for 48 hours

before analysing:

(**C**) BST2 cell surface levels by flow cytometry. Shown are representative histograms from one

experiment (left panel) and quantification from experiments with cells from three donors.

(**D**) *IFIT1* mRNA expression by RT-Q-PCR. Shown are data from cells from 3-6 donors.

(**E**) *MX2* mRNA expression by RT-Q-PCR. Shown are data from cells from 3-6 donors.

Figure 4. Addition of IFN-α2a to Panobinostat results in a tetherin-independent pre-budding defect

J1.1 T-cells received a single dose of 50 nM Panobinostat alone or in combination with 100 IU/ml IFN-α2a. At indicated time points, samples were analysed for:

(**A**) Cell-associated HIV-1 p24 capsid expression by flow cytometry

(**B**) HIV-1 p24 capsid abundance in cell culture supernatant by immunoblotting.

(**C**) Infectivity in cell culture supernatant using the Tzm-bl reporter cell assay.

(**D**) Representative electron micrographs of reactivated J1.1 T-cells 48 hours post reactivation. Scale bar indicates 100 nm.

873   (**E**) Electron microscopy-based quantification of budding events per 100 cells analysed.

874   (**F**) Immunoblot analysis of selected ISG expression in J1.1 T-cells following 48 hours of

875   indicated treatment.

876   (**G**) J1.1 T-cell surface BST-2/Tetherin expression 48 hours following treatment start.

Prigann et al., Figure 5

Figure 5. IFN-induced virus pre-budding block is accompanied by accumulation of HIV-

1 Env on cellular and viral membranes

J1.1 T-cells were treated with 50 nM Panobinostat in the presence or absence of indicated

concentrations of IFN-α2a for 48 hours. Cells and corresponding supernatants were analysed

for:

(**A**) Relative expression of cell-associated HIV-1 p24-CA by immunoblotting, normalised to

cellular GAPDH.

(**B**) Relative abundance of extracellular HIV-1 p24-CA by immunoblotting, normalised to

corresponding DMSO controls.

(**C**) Virus release was quantified by normalising extracellular HIV-1 p24-CA signal intensity to

the sum of cell-associated and secreted HIV-1 p24-CA.

(**D**) HIV-1 gp120 signal intensities from cell culture supernatants were quantified by

immunoblotting and normalised to corresponding HIV-1 p24-CA levels.

(**E**) Representative dot plots of intact J1.1 T-cells immunostained for surface HIV-1 Env with

indicated percentage of Env-positive cells and mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) of Env-

positive cells. Quantification of HIV-1 Env-positive cells (middle) and the fold change of Env

MFI in Env-positive cells over Panobinostat-treated cells (right) are shown for multiple

experimental replicates.

Experiments were conducted in 5-13 independent replicates.

Figure 6. Addition of IFN-α2a to Panobinostat enhances the susceptibility of HIV-1-reactivating cells to antibody-dependent cellular cytotoxicity via NK cells

(**A-C**) J1.1 T-cells were treated with DMSO, 50 nM Panobinostat alone or in combination with

100 IU/ml IFN-α2a for 48 hours before culturing them with PBMCs in the presence of indicated

dilutions of sera from PLHIV. Following four hours of co-culture, cells were immunostained for

cell-associated HIV-1 p24 CA expression and percentage of ADCC was calculated based on

the quantitative difference of HIV-1-p24-positive cells in the identical co-culture merely

differing in the presence or absence of serum. Boxes extend from the 25th to 75th percentiles

of 10-24 repetitions, the lines indicate the median, error bars represent the minimum and

maximum values obtained and symbols the individual experimental replicates.

(**D**) - (**F**) J1.1 T-cells were treated with 50 nM Panobinostat alone or in combination with 100

IU/ml IFN-α2a for 48 hours and individually stained with CellTracker™ Green-CFMDA and

Deep Red, respectively. Stained J1.1 T-cells were co-cultured with non-stained, freshly

isolated NK cells at a 1:1:1 ratio in the presence of a cell death marker (blue) and a 1:100

dilution of sera from PLHIV containing anti-HIV-1 Env antibodies. The co-culture was

monitored using live-cell imaging for four hours with images acquired every three minutes.

(**D**) Representative time series of NK cell/J1.1 T-cell interactions and subsequent killing of J1.1

T-cells.

(**E**) Percentage of dead J1.1 T-cells after four hours, normalised to the number of living J1.1

T-cells in the first frame.

(**F**) Cumulative number of death marker-positive cells in each J1.1 T-cell population over time.

Figure 7. The ability to restrict HIV-1 budding and facilitate elimination of HIV-1-positive T-cells is type I IFN protein-specific

J1.1 T-cells were treated with 50 nM Panobinostat in combination with 100 IU/ml of the indicated IFNs for 48 hours.

(**A**) Inhibition of supernatant infectivity was quantified using a Tzm-bl reporter assay, values were normalised to the corresponding Panobinostat-only conditions.

(**B**) Fold change of Env MFI in Env-positive cells over Panobinostat-treated cells.

970   (**C**) J1.1 T-cells were co-cultured with PBMCs in the presence of serum from PLHIV (dilution

971   1:1000) to monitor and quantify ADCC.

972   (**D**) - (**F**) Pearson's correlation analysis of ADCC % with BST2/Tetherin surface expression,

973   supernatant infectivity and HIV-1 Env surface expression levels.

REFERENCES

1. Chun TW, Carruth L, Finzi D, Shen X, DiGiuseppe JA, Taylor H, et al. Quantification of
latent tissue reservoirs and total body viral load in HIV-1 infection. Nature. 1997 May
8;387(6629):183–8.
2. Chun TW, Stuyver L, Mizell SB, Ehler LA, Mican JA, Baseler M, et al. Presence of an
inducible HIV-1 latent reservoir during highly active antiretroviral therapy. Proc Natl Acad
Sci U S A. 1997 Nov 25;94(24):13193–7.
3. Finzi D, Hermankova M, Pierson T, Carruth LM, Buck C, Chaisson RE, et al.
Identification of a reservoir for HIV-1 in patients on highly active antiretroviral therapy.
Science. 1997 Nov 14;278(5341):1295–300.
4. Wong JK, Hezareh M, Günthard HF, Havlir DV, Ignacio CC, Spina CA, et al. Recovery of
replication-competent HIV despite prolonged suppression of plasma viremia. Science.
1997 Nov 14;278(5341):1291–5.
5. Finzi D, Blankson J, Siliciano JD, Margolick JB, Chadwick K, Pierson T, et al. Latent
infection of CD4+ T cells provides a mechanism for lifelong persistence of HIV-1, even in
patients on effective combination therapy. Nat Med. 1999 May;5(5):512–7.
6. Siliciano JD, Kajdas J, Finzi D, Quinn TC, Chadwick K, Margolick JB, et al. Long-term
follow-up studies confirm the stability of the latent reservoir for HIV-1 in resting CD4+ T
cells. Nat Med. 2003 Jun;9(6):727–8.
7. Deeks SG, Archin N, Cannon P, Collins S, Jones RB, de Jong MAWP, et al. Research
priorities for an HIV cure: International AIDS Society Global Scientific Strategy 2021. Nat
Med. 2021 Dec;27(12):2085–98.
8. Kim Y, Anderson JL, Lewin SR. Getting the "kill" into "shock and kill": strategies to
eliminate latent HIV. Cell Host Microbe. 2018 Jan 10;23(1):14–26.
9. Margolis DM, Garcia JV, Hazuda DJ, Haynes BF. Latency reversal and viral clearance to
cure HIV-1. Science. 2016 Jul 22;353(6297):aaf6517.
10. Van Lint C, Emiliani S, Ott M, Verdin E. Transcriptional activation and chromatin
remodeling of the HIV-1 promoter in response to histone acetylation. EMBO J. 1996 Mar
1;15(5):1112–20.
11. Archin NM, Keedy KS, Espeseth A, Dang H, Hazuda DJ, Margolis DM. Expression of
latent human immunodeficiency type 1 is induced by novel and selective histone
deacetylase inhibitors. AIDS. 2009 Sep 10;23(14):1799–806.
12. Søgaard OS, Graversen ME, Leth S, Olesen R, Brinkmann CR, Nissen SK, et al. The
Depsipeptide Romidepsin Reverses HIV-1 Latency In Vivo. PLoS Pathog. 2015
Sep;11(9):e1005142.
13. Williams SA, Chen LF, Kwon H, Fenard D, Bisgrove D, Verdin E, et al. Prostratin
antagonizes HIV latency by activating NF-kappaB. J Biol Chem. 2004 Oct
1;279(40):42008–17.

14. Beans EJ, Fournogerakis D, Gauntlett C, Heumann LV, Kramer R, Marsden MD, et al. Highly potent, synthetically accessible prostratin analogs induce latent HIV expression in vitro and ex vivo. Proc Natl Acad Sci. 2013 Jul 16;110(29):11698–703.

15. Gutiérrez C, Serrano-Villar S, Madrid-Elena N, Pérez-Elías MJ, Martín ME, Barbas C, et al. Bryostatin-1 for latent virus reactivation in HIV-infected patients on antiretroviral therapy. AIDS Lond Engl. 2016 Jun 1;30(9):1385–92.

16. Zhu J, Gaiha GD, John SP, Pertel T, Chin CR, Gao G, et al. Reactivation of latent HIV-1 by inhibition of BRD4. Cell Rep. 2012 Oct 25;2(4):807–16.

17. Nixon CC, Mavigner M, Sampey GC, Brooks AD, Spagnuolo RA, Irlbeck DM, et al. Systemic HIV and SIV latency reversal via non-canonical NF-κB signalling in vivo. Nature. 2020 Feb;578(7793):160–5.

18. Thibault S, Imbeault M, Tardif MR, Tremblay MJ. TLR5 stimulation is sufficient to trigger reactivation of latent HIV-1 provirus in T lymphoid cells and activate virus gene expression in central memory CD4+ T cells. Virology. 2009 Jun 20;389(1–2):20–5.

19. Novis CL, Archin NM, Buzon MJ, Verdin E, Round JL, Lichterfeld M, et al. Reactivation of latent HIV-1 in central memory CD4+ T cells through TLR-1/2 stimulation. Retrovirology. 2013 Oct 24;10:119.

20. Abner E, Jordan A. HIV "shock and kill" therapy: In need of revision. Antiviral Res. 2019 Jun;166:19–34.

21. Arandjelovic P, Kim Y, Cooney JP, Preston SP, Doerflinger M, McMahon JH, et al. Venetoclax, alone and in combination with the BH3 mimetic S63845, depletes HIV-1 latently infected cells and delays rebound in humanized mice. Cell Rep Med. 2023 Sep 19;4(9):101178.

22. Collins DR, Gaiha GD, Walker BD. CD8+ T cells in HIV control, cure and prevention. Nat Rev Immunol. 2020 Aug;20(8):471–82.

23. Lambotte O, Pollara J, Boufassa F, Moog C, Venet A, Haynes BF, et al. High antibody-dependent cellular cytotoxicity responses are correlated with strong CD8 T cell viral suppressive activity but not with B57 status in HIV-1 elite controllers. PloS One. 2013;8(9):e74855.

24. Madhavi V, Wines BD, Amin J, Emery S, ENCORE1 Study Group, Lopez E, et al. HIV-1 Env- and Vpu-Specific Antibody-Dependent Cellular Cytotoxicity Responses Associated with Elite Control of HIV. J Virol. 2017 Sep 15;91(18):e00700-17.

25. Rerks-Ngarm S, Pitisuttithum P, Nitayaphan S, Kaewkungwal J, Chiu J, Paris R, et al. Vaccination with ALVAC and AIDSVAX to prevent HIV-1 infection in Thailand. N Engl J Med. 2009 Dec 3;361(23):2209–20.

26. Haynes BF, Gilbert PB, McElrath MJ, Zolla-Pazner S, Tomaras GD, Alam SM, et al. Immune-correlates analysis of an HIV-1 vaccine efficacy trial. N Engl J Med. 2012 Apr 5;366(14):1275–86.

27. Tomescu C, Tebas P, Montaner LJ. IFN-α augments natural killer-mediated antibody-dependent cellular cytotoxicity of HIV-1-infected autologous CD4+ T cells regardless of major histocompatibility complex class 1 downregulation. AIDS Lond Engl. 2017 Mar 13;31(5):613–22.

28. Tomescu C, Chehimi J, Maino VC, Montaner LJ. NK cell lysis of HIV-1-infected autologous CD4 primary T cells: requirement for IFN-mediated NK activation by plasmacytoid dendritic cells. J Immunol Baltim Md 1950. 2007 Aug 15;179(4):2097–104.

29. Azzoni L, Foulkes AS, Papasavvas E, Mexas AM, Lynn KM, Mounzer K, et al. Pegylated Interferon alfa-2a monotherapy results in suppression of HIV type 1 replication and decreased cell-associated HIV DNA integration. J Infect Dis. 2013 Jan 15;207(2):213–22.

30. Papasavvas E, Azzoni L, Pagliuzza A, Abdel-Mohsen M, Ross BN, Fair M, et al. Safety, Immune, and Antiviral Effects of Pegylated Interferon Alpha 2b Administration in Antiretroviral Therapy-Suppressed Individuals: Results of Pilot Clinical Trial. AIDS Res Hum Retroviruses. 2021 Jun;37(6):433–43.

31. Hua S, Vigano S, Tse S, Zhengyu O, Harrington S, Negron J, et al. Pegylated Interferon-α-Induced Natural Killer Cell Activation Is Associated With Human Immunodeficiency

Virus-1 DNA Decline in Antiretroviral Therapy-Treated HIV-1/Hepatitis C Virus-Coinfected Patients. Clin Infect Dis Off Publ Infect Dis Soc Am. 2018 Jun 1;66(12):1910–7.

32. Boué F, Reynes J, Rouzioux C, Emilie D, Souala F, Tubiana R, et al. Alpha interferon administration during structured interruptions of combination antiretroviral therapy in patients with chronic HIV-1 infection: INTERVAC ANRS 105 trial. AIDS Lond Engl. 2011 Jan 2;25(1):115–8.

33. Papasavvas E, Azzoni L, Kossenkov AV, Dawany N, Morales KH, Fair M, et al. NK Response Correlates with HIV Decrease in Pegylated IFN-α2a-Treated Antiretroviral Therapy-Suppressed Subjects. J Immunol Baltim Md 1950. 2019 Aug 1;203(3):705–17.

34. Jiao Y mei, Weng W jia, Gao Q sheng, Zhu W jun, Cai W ping, Li L hua, et al. Hepatitis C therapy with interferon-α and ribavirin reduces the CD4 cell count and the total, 2LTR circular and integrated HIV-1 DNA in HIV/HCV co-infected patients. Antiviral Res. 2015 Jun;118:118–22.

35. Hurst J, Hoffmann M, Pace M, Williams JP, Thornhill J, Hamlyn E, et al. Immunological biomarkers predict HIV-1 viral rebound after treatment interruption. Nat Commun. 2015 Dec;6(1):8495.

36. Archin NM, Liberty AL, Kashuba AD, Choudhary SK, Kuruc JD, Crooks AM, et al. Administration of vorinostat disrupts HIV-1 latency in patients on antiretroviral therapy. Nature. 2012 Jul 25;487(7408):482–5.

37. Rasmussen TA, Tolstrup M, Brinkmann CR, Olesen R, Erikstrup C, Solomon A, et al. Panobinostat, a histone deacetylase inhibitor, for latent-virus reactivation in HIV-infected patients on suppressive antiretroviral therapy: a phase 1/2, single group, clinical trial. Lancet HIV. 2014 Oct;1(1):e13-21.

38. Rasmussen TA, Søgaard OS, Brinkmann C, Wightman F, Lewin SR, Melchjorsen J, et al. Comparison of HDAC inhibitors in clinical development: Effect on HIV production in latently infected cells and T-cell activation. Hum Vaccines Immunother. 2013 May 14;9(5):993–1001.

39. Mahnke YD, Brodie TM, Sallusto F, Roederer M, Lugli E. The who's who of T-cell differentiation: Human memory T-cell subsets: HIGHLIGHTS. Eur J Immunol. 2013 Nov;43(11):2797–809.

40. Cano-Gamez E, Soskic B, Roumeliotis TI, So E, Smyth DJ, Baldrighi M, et al. Single-cell transcriptomics identifies an effectorness gradient shaping the response of CD4+ T cells to cytokines. Nat Commun. 2020 Dec;11(1):1801.

41. Szabo PA, Levitin HM, Miron M, Snyder ME, Senda T, Yuan J, et al. Single-cell transcriptomics of human T cells reveals tissue and activation signatures in health and disease. Nat Commun. 2019 Dec;10(1):4706.

42. Breton G, Chomont N, Takata H, Fromentin R, Ahlers J, Filali-Mouhim A, et al. Programmed Death-1 Is a Marker for Abnormal Distribution of Naive/Memory T Cell Subsets in HIV-1 Infection. J Immunol. 2013 Sep 1;191(5):2194–204.

43. Wang S, Zhang Q, Hui H, Agrawal K, Karris MAY, Rana TM. An atlas of immune cell exhaustion in HIV-infected individuals revealed by single-cell transcriptomics. Emerg Microbes Infect. 2020 Jan 1;9(1):2333–47.

44. Brinkmann CR, Højen JF, Rasmussen TA, Kjær AS, Olesen R, Denton PW, et al. Treatment of HIV-Infected Individuals with the Histone Deacetylase Inhibitor Panobinostat Results in Increased Numbers of Regulatory T Cells and Limits *Ex Vivo* Lipopolysaccharide-Induced Inflammatory Responses. Fernandez-Sesma A, editor. mSphere [Internet]. 2018 Feb 28 [cited 2021 Oct 20];3(1). Available from: https://journals.asm.org/doi/10.1128/mSphere.00616-17

45. Kazmierski J, Elsner C, Döhner K, Xu S, Ducroux A, Pott F, et al. A Baseline Cellular Antiviral State Is Maintained by cGAS and Its Most Frequent Naturally Occurring Variant rs610913. J Immunol Baltim Md 1950. 2022 Jul 18;ji2100685.

46. Perez VL, Rowe T, Justement JS, Butera ST, June CH, Folks TM. An HIV-1-infected T cell clone defective in IL-2 production and Ca2+ mobilization after CD3 stimulation. J Immunol Baltim Md 1950. 1991 Nov 1;147(9):3145–8.

47. Symons J, Chopra A, Malatinkova E, De Spiegelaere W, Leary S, Cooper D, et al. HIV integration sites in latently infected cell lines: evidence of ongoing replication. Retrovirology. 2017 Dec;14(1):2.

48. Jamaluddin MS, Hu PW, Jan Y, Siwak EB, Rice AP. Short Communication: The Broad-Spectrum Histone Deacetylase Inhibitors Vorinostat and Panobinostat Activate Latent HIV in CD4+ T Cells In Part Through Phosphorylation of the T-Loop of the CDK9 Subunit of P-TEFb. AIDS Res Hum Retroviruses. 2016 Feb 1;32(2):169–73.

49. Harper MS, Guo K, Gibbert K, Lee EJ, Dillon SM, Barrett BS, et al. Interferon-α Subtypes in an Ex Vivo Model of Acute HIV-1 Infection: Expression, Potency and Effector Mechanisms. PLoS Pathog. 2015;11(11):e1005254.

50. Lavender KJ, Gibbert K, Peterson KE, Van Dis E, Francois S, Woods T, et al. Interferon Alpha Subtype-Specific Suppression of HIV-1 Infection In Vivo. J Virol. 2016 Jul 1;90(13):6001–13.

51. Karakoese Z, Schwerdtfeger M, Karsten CB, Esser S, Dittmer U, Sutter K. Distinct Type I Interferon Subtypes Differentially Stimulate T Cell Responses in HIV-1-Infected Individuals. Front Immunol. 2022;13:936918.

52. Guo K, Shen G, Kibbie J, Gonzalez T, Dillon SM, Smith HA, et al. Qualitative Differences Between the IFNα subtypes and IFNβ Influence Chronic Mucosal HIV-1 Pathogenesis. PLoS Pathog. 2020 Oct;16(10):e1008986.

53. Tsai P, Wu G, Baker CE, Thayer WO, Spagnuolo RA, Sanchez R, et al. In vivo analysis of the effect of panobinostat on cell-associated HIV RNA and DNA levels and latent HIV infection. Retrovirology. 2016 Dec;13(1):36.

54. Bartholomeeusen K, Fujinaga K, Xiang Y, Peterlin BM. Histone Deacetylase Inhibitors (HDACis) That Release the Positive Transcription Elongation Factor b (P-TEFb) from Its Inhibitory Complex Also Activate HIV Transcription. J Biol Chem. 2013 May 17;288(20):14400–7.

55. Khoury G, Mota TM, Li S, Tumpach C, Lee MY, Jacobson J, et al. HIV latency reversing agents act through Tat post translational modifications. Retrovirology. 2018 May 11;15(1):36.

56. Kwaa AKR, Talana CAG, Blankson JN. Interferon Alpha Enhances NK Cell Function and the Suppressive Capacity of HIV-Specific CD8+ T Cells. J Virol. 2019 Jan 17;93(3):e01541-18.

57. Edens RE, Dagtas S, Gilbert KM. Histone deacetylase inhibitors induce antigen specific anergy in lymphocytes: a comparative study. Int Immunopharmacol. 2006 Nov;6(11):1673–81.

58. Pace M, Williams J, Kurioka A, Gerry AB, Jakobsen B, Klenerman P, et al. Histone Deacetylase Inhibitors Enhance CD4 T Cell Susceptibility to NK Cell Killing but Reduce NK Cell Function. Swanstrom R, editor. PLOS Pathog. 2016 Aug 16;12(8):e1005782.

59. Triplett TA, Holay N, Kottapalli S, VanDenBerg C, Capasso A. Elucidating the Role of HDACs in T Cell Biology and Comparing Distinct HDAC Inhibitors in Augmenting Responses to Cancer Immunotherapy. J Immunol. 2020 Mai;204(1 Supplement):165.23.

60. Jones RB, O'Connor R, Mueller S, Foley M, Szeto GL, Karel D, et al. Histone Deacetylase Inhibitors Impair the Elimination of HIV-Infected Cells by Cytotoxic T-Lymphocytes. Silvestri G, editor. PLoS Pathog. 2014 Aug 14;10(8):e1004287.

61. Boucau J, Das J, Joshi N, Le Gall S. Latency reversal agents modulate HIV antigen processing and presentation to CD8 T cells. PLoS Pathog. 2020 Mar;16(3):e1008442.

62. Nusinzon I, Horvath CM. Positive and negative regulation of the innate antiviral response and beta interferon gene expression by deacetylation. Mol Cell Biol. 2006 Apr;26(8):3106–13.

63. von Schwedler UK, Stray KM, Garrus JE, Sundquist WI. Functional Surfaces of the Human Immunodeficiency Virus Type 1 Capsid Protein. J Virol. 2003 May;77(9):5439–50.

64. Anokhin B, Spearman P. Viral and Host Factors Regulating HIV-1 Envelope Protein Trafficking and Particle Incorporation. Viruses. 2022 Aug;14(8):1729.

65. von Bredow B, Arias JF, Heyer LN, Gardner MR, Farzan M, Rakasz EG, et al. Envelope

Glycoprotein Internalization Protects Human and Simian Immunodeficiency Virus-Infected Cells from Antibody-Dependent Cell-Mediated Cytotoxicity. J Virol. 2015 Oct;89(20):10648–55.

66. Veillette M, Coutu M, Richard J, Batraville LA, Dagher O, Bernard N, et al. The HIV-1 gp120 CD4-bound conformation is preferentially targeted by antibody-dependent cellular cytotoxicity-mediating antibodies in sera from HIV-1-infected individuals. J Virol. 2015 Jan;89(1):545–51.

67. Veillette M, Désormeaux A, Medjahed H, Gharsallah NE, Coutu M, Baalwa J, et al. Interaction with cellular CD4 exposes HIV-1 envelope epitopes targeted by antibody-dependent cell-mediated cytotoxicity. J Virol. 2014 Mar;88(5):2633–44.

68. Xu HC, Grusdat M, Pandyra AA, Polz R, Huang J, Sharma P, et al. Type I interferon protects antiviral CD8+ T cells from NK cell cytotoxicity. Immunity. 2014 Jun 19;40(6):949–60.

69. Crouse J, Bedenikovic G, Wiesel M, Ibberson M, Xenarios I, Von Laer D, et al. Type I interferons protect T cells against NK cell attack mediated by the activating receptor NCR1. Immunity. 2014 Jun 19;40(6):961–73.

70. Pham TN, Lukhele S, Hajjar F, Routy JP, Cohen ÉA. HIV Nef and Vpu protect HIV-infected CD4+ T cells from antibody-mediated cell lysis through down-modulation of CD4 and BST2. Retrovirology. 2014 Feb 6;11(1):15.

71. Azzoni L, Foulkes AS, Papasavvas E, Mexas AM, Lynn KM, Mounzer K, et al. Pegylated Interferon Alfa-2a Monotherapy Results in Suppression of HIV Type 1 Replication and Decreased Cell-Associated HIV DNA Integration. J Infect Dis. 2013 Jan 15;207(2):213–22.

72. Asmuth DM, Murphy RL, Rosenkranz SL, Lertora JJL, Kottilil S, Cramer Y, et al. Safety, tolerability, and mechanisms of antiretroviral activity of pegylated interferon Alfa-2a in HIV-1-monoinfected participants: a phase II clinical trial. J Infect Dis. 2010 Jun 1;201(11):1686–96.

73. Ogbomo H, Michaelis M, Kreuter J, Doerr HW, Cinatl J. Histone deacetylase inhibitors suppress natural killer cell cytolytic activity. FEBS Lett. 2007 Apr 3;581(7):1317–22.

74. Gruell H, Gunst JD, Cohen YZ, Pahus MH, Malin JJ, Platten M, et al. Effect of 3BNC117 and romidepsin on the HIV-1 reservoir in people taking suppressive antiretroviral therapy (ROADMAP): a randomised, open-label, phase 2A trial. Lancet Microbe. 2022 Mar;3(3):e203–14.

75. Gay CL, James KS, Tuyishime M, Falcinelli SD, Joseph SB, Moeser MJ, et al. Stable Latent HIV Infection and Low-level Viremia Despite Treatment With the Broadly Neutralizing Antibody VRC07-523LS and the Latency Reversal Agent Vorinostat. J Infect Dis. 2022 Mar 2;225(5):856–61.

76. Leth S, Schleimann MH, Nissen SK, Højen JF, Olesen R, Graversen ME, et al. Combined effect of Vacc-4x, recombinant human granulocyte macrophage colony-stimulating factor vaccination, and romidepsin on the HIV-1 reservoir (REDUC): a single-arm, phase 1B/2A trial. Lancet HIV. 2016 Oct;3(10):e463-472.

77. Machnowska P, Meixenberger K, Schmidt D, Jessen H, Hillenbrand H, Gunsenheimer-Bartmeyer B, et al. Prevalence and persistence of transmitted drug resistance mutations in the German HIV-1 Seroconverter Study Cohort. PloS One. 2019;14(1):e0209605.

78. Butler A, Hoffman P, Smibert P, Papalexi E, Satija R. Integrating single-cell transcriptomic data across different conditions, technologies, and species. Nat Biotechnol. 2018 Jun;36(5):411–20.

79. MacLeod MKL, Clambey ET, Kappler JW, Marrack P. CD4 memory T cells: What are they and what can they do? Semin Immunol. 2009 Apr 1;21(2):53–61.

80. Chomont N, El-Far M, Ancuta P, Trautmann L, Procopio FA, Yassine-Diab B, et al. HIV reservoir size and persistence are driven by T cell survival and homeostatic proliferation. Nat Med. 2009 Aug;15(8):893–900.

81. Pušnik J, Eller MA, Tassaneetrithep B, Schultz BT, Eller LA, Nitayaphan S, et al. Expansion of Stem Cell-Like CD4+ Memory T Cells during Acute HIV-1 Infection Is Linked to Rapid Disease Progression. J Virol. 2019 Jun 28;93(14):e00377-19.

82. Kononchik J, Ireland J, Zou Z, Segura J, Holzapfel G, Chastain A, et al. HIV-1 targets L-
selectin for adhesion and induces its shedding for viral release. Nat Commun. 2018 Jul
19;9(1):2825.
83. Golubovskaya V, Wu L. Different Subsets of T Cells, Memory, Effector Functions, and
CAR-T Immunotherapy. Cancers. 2016 Mar 15;8(3):36.
84. Jain N, Nguyen H, Chambers C, Kang J. Dual function of CTLA-4 in regulatory T cells
and conventional T cells to prevent multiorgan autoimmunity. Proc Natl Acad Sci. 2010
Jan 26;107(4):1524–8.
85. Jiang Y, Li Y, Zhu B. T-cell exhaustion in the tumor microenvironment. Cell Death Dis.
2015 Jun;6(6):e1792–e1792.
86. Ramírez F, Ryan DP, Grüning B, Bhardwaj V, Kilpert F, Richter AS, et al. deepTools2: a
next generation web server for deep-sequencing data analysis. Nucleic Acids Res. 2016
Jul 8;44(W1):W160-165.
87. Metsalu T, Vilo J. ClustVis: a web tool for visualizing clustering of multivariate data using
Principal Component Analysis and heatmap. Nucleic Acids Res. 2015 Jul
1;43(W1):W566-570.
88. Wang J, Duncan D, Shi Z, Zhang B. WEB-based GEne SeT AnaLysis Toolkit
(WebGestalt): update 2013. Nucleic Acids Res. 2013 Jul;41(Web Server issue):W77-83.
89. Zhang B, Kirov S, Snoddy J. WebGestalt: an integrated system for exploring gene sets
in various biological contexts. Nucleic Acids Res. 2005 Jul 1;33(Web Server
issue):W741–8.
90. Mi H, Thomas P. PANTHER Pathway: an ontology-based pathway database coupled
with data analysis tools. Methods Mol Biol Clifton NJ. 2009;563:123–40.
91. Garcia-Alonso L, Holland CH, Ibrahim MM, Turei D, Saez-Rodriguez J. Benchmark and
integration of resources for the estimation of human transcription factor activities.
Genome Res. 2019 Aug;29(8):1363–75.
92. Holland CH, Tanevski J, Perales-Patón J, Gleixner J, Kumar MP, Mereu E, et al.
Robustness and applicability of transcription factor and pathway analysis tools on single-
cell RNA-seq data. Genome Biol. 2020 Feb 12;21(1):36.
93. Jassal B, Matthews L, Viteri G, Gong C, Lorente P, Fabregat A, et al. The reactome
pathway knowledgebase. Nucleic Acids Res. 2020 Jan 8;48(D1):D498–503.
94. Liberzon A, Subramanian A, Pinchback R, Thorvaldsdóttir H, Tamayo P, Mesirov JP.
Molecular signatures database (MSigDB) 3.0. Bioinforma Oxf Engl. 2011 Jun
15;27(12):1739–40.
95. Laue M. Electron microscopy of viruses. Methods Cell Biol. 2010;96:1–20.
96. Richard J, Veillette M, Batraville LA, Coutu M, Chapleau JP, Bonsignori M, et al. Flow
cytometry-based assay to study HIV-1 gp120 specific antibody-dependent cellular
cytotoxicity responses. J Virol Methods. 2014 Nov;208:107–14.
97. Alter G, Malenfant JM, Altfeld M. CD107a as a functional marker for the identification of
natural killer cell activity. J Immunol Methods. 2004 Nov;294(1–2):15–22.
1276