Direct capsid labeling of infectious HIV-1 by genetic code expansion allows detection of largely complete nuclear capsids and suggests nuclear entry of HIV-1 complexes via common routes

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Abstract

The cone-shaped mature HIV-1 capsid is the main orchestrator of early viral
replication. After cytosolic entry, it transports the viral replication complex along
microtubules towards the nucleus. While it was initially believed that the reverse
transcribed genome is released from the capsid in the cytosol, recent observations
indicate that a high amount of capsid protein (CA) remains associated with subviral
complexes during import through the nuclear pore complex (NPC). Observation of
post-entry events *via* microscopic detection of HIV-1 CA is challenging, since epitope
shielding limits immunodetection and the genetic fragility of CA hampers direct labeling
approaches. Here, we present a minimally invasive strategy based on genetic code
expansion and click chemistry that allows for site-directed fluorescent labeling of HIV-
1 CA, while retaining virus morphology and infectivity. Thereby, we could directly
visualize virions and subviral complexes using advanced microscopy, including
nanoscopy and correlative imaging. Quantification of signal intensities of subviral
complexes revealed an amount of CA associated with nuclear complexes in HeLa-
derived cells and primary T cells consistent with a complete capsid and showed that
treatment with the small molecule inhibitor PF74 did not result in capsid dissociation
from nuclear complexes. Cone-shaped objects detected in the nucleus by electron
tomography were clearly identified as capsid-derived structures by correlative
microscopy. High-resolution imaging revealed dose-dependent clustering of nuclear
capsids, suggesting that incoming particles may follow common entry routes.

Introduction

The cone-shaped capsid that encases the viral RNA genome and replication proteins

is a characteristic feature of infectious human immunodeficiency virus type 1 (HIV-1)

particles. Data obtained by many research groups over the past decade have revised

our understanding of the role of the mature capsid in HIV-1 replication, placing this

structure at the center stage of post-entry replication steps (reviewed in (Aiken and

Rousso, 2021; Engelman, 2021; James, 2019; Zila et al., 2021b). Upon fusion of the

virion envelope with the cell membrane, the capsid, which consists of ~1,200-1,500

monomers of the capsid protein CA (Briggs et al., 2003), is released into the cytosol.

It then usurps host cell factors to traffic towards the nucleus. Reverse transcription of

the viral RNA into dsDNA is initiated during passage of the subviral structure through

the cytosol. Following import into the nucleus, the viral dsDNA is covalently integrated

into the host cell genome by the viral integrase (IN). Prior to integration, the

surrounding capsid shell needs to release the dsDNA in a process termed uncoating.

The precise mechanisms, location, and timing of HIV-1 capsid uncoating are still under

investigation.

Initially, the HIV-1 capsid was presumed to rapidly dissociate upon cell entry, based

on little or no CA detected associated with isolated post-entry complexes (reviewed in

(Campbell and Hope, 2015)). Rapid or gradual disassembly in the cytosol was also

supported by several studies that applied fluorescence imaging to analyze subviral

complexes in infected cells (e.g., (Hulme et al., 2011; Mamede et al., 2017; Xu et al.,

2013). However, HIV-1 CA or the capsid lattice was found to directly engage in

interactions with various host factors involved in post-entry replication steps. Among

these capsid-interacting host factors are not only cytosolic proteins, including proteins

involved in microtubular transport, but also nucleoporins and even the nuclear protein

cleavage and polyadenylation specific factor 6 (CPSF6) (reviewed in (Engelman, 2021;

Naghavi, 2021; Saito and Yamashita, 2021)). These findings implied involvement of at

least a partial lattice structure in later stages of post-entry replication. Furthermore,

increasing evidence from imaging-based analyses argued for capsid uncoating at or

close to the nuclear pore (Burdick et al., 2017; Francis et al., 2020a; Francis et al.,

2016; Francis and Melikyan, 2018), or even indicated passage of (nearly) intact

capsids through nuclear pores (Burdick et al., 2020; Li et al., 2021; Muller et al., 2021;

Zila et al., 2021a). The recent detection of cone-shaped objects in the nuclear pore

channel and inside the nucleus by correlative light and electron microscopy (CLEM)

(Zila et al., 2021a), and intranuclear separation of CA or IN from reverse transcribed
dsDNA (Muller et al., 2021) also supported the model that the nucleus is the site of
HIV-1 uncoating (Muller et al., 2022).

One explanation for apparent discrepancies between different studies are the methods
that have been used for CA detection in fluorescence microscopy. Since the
modification of CA by genetic labeling strategies proved to be challenging, most studies
applied immunofluorescence (IF) staining or indirect labeling through a capsid binding
protein (e.g., (Burdick et al., 2017; Francis et al., 2016; Hulme et al., 2015; Mamede et
al., 2017; Peng et al., 2014; Zila et al., 2019)). A limitation of IF is that staining efficiency
may vary substantially depending on the antibody and detection conditions used, as
well as on differential exposure or shielding of epitopes due to conformational changes
or different intracellular environments. We could indeed show previously that
immunostaining efficiency of CA in the nucleus of host cells strongly depends on cell
type and experimental conditions (Muller et al., 2021). Furthermore, IF is incompatible
with live cell analyses. Infectious HIV-1 derivatives carrying fluorescent CA would
resolve these limitations and allow the direct observation of entering capsids with
quantitative analyses.

Direct genetic labeling of viral capsid proteins is challenging, however. Capsid proteins
are generally small proteins that need to assemble into ordered multimeric lattices. The
resulting assemblies must be stable during virus formation and transmission to a new
target cell, but also ready to disassemble in the newly infected cell, requiring structural
flexibility of the protomers. Beyond protein-protein interactions involved in capsid
assembly itself, capsid proteins generally undergo crucial interactions with other
components of the virion, e.g., the viral genome. Finally, the capsid surface represents
an essential contact interface between virus and host cell in the early phase of
infection, mediating cell entry in the case of non-enveloped viruses or interacting with
critical host cell dependency or restriction factors in the case of enveloped viruses.
Consequently, a large proportion of the surface exposed amino acids of a viral capsid
protein is involved in intermolecular contacts that are crucial for virus replication, which
renders these proteins highly susceptible to genetic modification. Fusion of a capsid
protein to a relatively large genetic label, e.g., green fluorescent protein (GFP) or other
fluorescent proteins, is thus generally prone to severely affect virus infectivity.

These considerations also apply to HIV-1 CA. The protein is encoded as a subdomain
of the structural polyprotein Gag, from which it is released by the viral protease (PR)
concomitant with virus budding to allow for formation of the mature capsid. With a
molecular mass of ~24 kDa, mature CA is of a similar size as GFP. CA hexamers are
the core structural elements of the immature Gag shell forming the nascent virus bud
in HIV-1 producing cells. Hexamers with a different conformation, together with 12 CA
pentamers that allow for bending and curvature, are the building blocks of the mature
capsid. CA pentamers, immature and mature hexamers employ different protein-
protein interfaces; together, these interfaces involve most of the exposed surface of
the CA monomer (reviewed in (Mattei et al., 2016)). Accordingly, scanning
mutagenesis analyses found HIV-1 CA to be highly genetically fragile (Rihn et al.,
2013; von Schwedler et al., 2003), with up to 89% of single amino acid exchanges
tested abolishing or severely affecting virus replication (Rihn et al., 2013). It is thus not
surprising that the introduction of genetically encoded labels - GFP or even a small
peptide tag - at various positions within HIV-1 CA have resulted in loss or severe
reduction of infectivity. Complementation with wild-type (wt) virus, from at least
equimolar amounts of wt CA to a substantial molar excess, was essential to restore
virus infectivity (Burdick et al., 2020; Campbell et al., 2008; Pereira et al., 2011; Zurnic
Bonisch et al., 2020). While the use of wt complemented particles can be sufficient for
fluorescent labeling, it is unclear whether the modified CA molecules are an integral
part of the mature CA lattice. Only approximately half of the CA molecules present
inside the virion are eventually used to form the mature capsid (Briggs et al., 2004;
Lanman et al., 2004), and CA fusion proteins may be preferentially excluded or less
stably integrated into the mature lattice.

We therefore established and applied a minimal invasive labeling strategy for HIV-1
CA based on genetic code expansion (GCE) and click labeling. This method involves
the exchange of a selected amino acid residue in the protein of interest with a non-
canonical amino acid (ncAA) carrying a highly reactive bio-orthogonal functional group
by a process termed amber suppression (Figure 1a). This residue is subsequently
covalently coupled to a fluorophore functionalized with a cognate reaction partner
(Figure 1a, b; reviewed in e.g. (Lang and Chin, 2014; Muller et al., 2019; Nikic and
Lemke, 2015)). Using this approach, we generated a CA-labeled HIV-1 derivative that
largely retained infectivity. In contrast to previous approaches for direct CA labeling,
our minimally modified derivative did not require complementation with wt virus. Direct

labeling with a bright and photostable chemical dye allows the application of various

imaging methods, i.e., live-cell imaging, super-resolution nanoscopy, or CLEM. The

click labeled virus variant thus enabled us to directly assess the amount of CA

associated with entering subviral complexes outside and within the nucleus of infected

HeLa-derived cells and primary CD4^{+} T-cells, to visualize CA containing structures in

the nucleus by nanoscopy and correlative microscopy and to study the effect of the

CA-binding drug PF74 on the nuclear complexes.

Results

Generation of an HIV-1 variant carrying a bio-orthogonal amino acid within CA

To allow for minimally invasive labeling of HIV-1 CA by GCE (Figure 1), we introduced

an amber stop codon at a position of interest into the CA coding sequence within the

gag open reading frame of the proviral plasmid pNLC4-3 (Bohne and Krausslich,

2004). In order to avoid GCE modification of the accessory viral protein R (Vpr), which

is incorporated into the virion in high amounts (Muller et al., 2000), we first exchanged

the amber stop codon of *vpr* to an opal codon (TGA), resulting in plasmid pNLC4-3*.

Although this mutation did not alter the coding sequence of viral proteins or virion

infectivity (Figure S1), the corresponding virus was termed HIV-1* to indicate the

modification. Since neither the efficiency of amber suppression in a given sequence

context in eukaryotic cells, nor the effect of ncAA incorporation on viral functionality

can be predicted with certainty, we tested a panel of 18 amber mutations at sites

located towards the outer surface of the capsid lattice for suppression efficiency and

virus infectivity (Schifferdecker, Sakin et al., in preparation). Based on a comparison of

Gag expression levels and viral infectivity upon ncAA incorporation, we selected a virus

variant in which residue alanine 14 in CA was replaced by a non-canonical amino acid

(HIV-1*CA14^{ncAA}) for further analyses.

For virus preparation, HEK293T cells were co-transfected with the respective mutant

proviral plasmid and pNESPyIRS-eRF1dn-tRNA. The latter plasmid encodes for a

complete amber suppression system, consisting of modified tRNA, a cognate

genetically engineered pyrrolysine aminoacyl-tRNA synthetase (Nikic et al., 2016), and

a dominant-negative version of the eukaryotic release factor eRF1 that improves

amber suppression efficiency in eukaryotic cells (Schmied et al., 2014). To produce

functionalized virus particles, cells were grown in the presence of the small ncAA

cyclopropene lysine (CpK). While truncation of Gag at position 14 of CA would prevent

virus formation, incorporation of CpK by amber suppression should result in the

expression of full-length Gag and thereby promote HIV-1 particle assembly.

Immunoblot analysis of cell lysates indeed demonstrated the presence of full-length

Gag polyprotein precursor when HIV-1*CA14^{TAG} expressing cells were grown in the

presence of CpK, whereas full-length Gag was not detected when CpK was omitted

from the growth medium (Figure S2a). Thin-section electron microscopy (EM) revealed

late budding sites and immature- as well as mature-like virions at the plasma

membrane and in the vicinity of HIV-1*CA14^{TAG} expressing cells, that were

morphologically indistinguishable from typical HIV-1 wild-type (wt) budding sites and

virions (Figure 2a). Virus release efficiency from transfected cells, as estimated by

immunoblot analysis of cell and particle lysates, was comparable for wt and HIV-

1*CA14^{CpK} (Figure S2b). We concluded that Gag expression of HIV-1*CA14^{TAG} is

ncAA dependent and the modified CA domain is competent for immature and mature

lattice assembly.

Characterization of click labeled HIV-1 virions

We next prepared virus particles from the supernatant of HIV-1*CA14^{ncAA} producing

cells and subjected them to click labeling using the membrane-permeable dye silicon

rhodamine tetrazine (SiR-Tet; (Lukinavicius et al., 2013); Figure 1b), generating HIV-

1*CA14^{SiR}. As a control, HIV-1* wt particles were prepared under amber suppression

conditions and stained in parallel. Consistent with the detection of viral assembly sites

and particles in electron micrographs of transfected cells (Figure 2a), virus was

recovered from the tissue culture supernatant of HIV-1*CA14^{ncAA} expressing cells.

Particle yields were moderately reduced compared to the HIV-1* wt control, in line with

the fact that amber suppression is usually incomplete in eukaryotic cells (optimal ncAA

incorporation efficiencies in the range of ~25-50 %; e.g., (Sakin et al., 2017; Schmied

et al., 2014). On average, we obtained 5-10-fold lower yields for HIV-1*CA14^{SiR}

compared to HIV-1* as determined by RT activity (Figure 2b) and CA content (Figure

2c) of particle preparations. Comparison of stained and unstained preparations

demonstrated that particle yield, assessed by RT activity of virus preparations, was not

affected by the click-labeling procedure (Figure S3). Consistent with the observation of

morphologically mature particles by EM, click labeled particles displayed regular Gag

and GagPol processing products (Figure 2d), with clear bands for mature CA (p24)

and mature RT heterodimer (p51, p66).

Fluorescence labeling and infectivity of click labeled virions

In order to determine fluorescence staining specificity, particle lysates of HIV-1* and

HIV-1*CA14^{CpK} stained with Tet-SiR were analyzed by SDS-PAGE followed by in-gel

fluorescence measurement (Figure 3a). The resulting image revealed a distinct SiR

labeled band corresponding to a mass of approximately 24 kDa and weak bands

corresponding in size to CA containing precursors in the case of HIV-1*CA14^{SiR},

whereas fluorescent protein bands were undetectable for the HIV-1* control (Figure

3a, bottom panel). Subsequent immunoblotting of the scanned gel using antiserum

raised against CA ensured that similar amounts of virus particles had been loaded for

wt and the CA14 variant (Figure 3a, top panel). These results indicated specific GCE-

dependent labeling of CA *via* amber suppression at position 14 of HIV-1 CA.

To test efficiency of SiR staining, labeled particles adhered to a glass chamber slide

were fixed, permeabilized, immunostained with antiserum raised against HIV-1 CA to

validate that detected signals corresponded to virus particles and imaged by confocal

microscopy (Figure 3b, c). Confocal micrographs were recorded in the channels

corresponding to the CA (IF) stain (green) and direct CA labeling with SiR (magenta).

Regions of interest (ROIs) corresponding to the position of virus particles were defined

based on CA(IF) signals. Measurement of SiR fluorescence intensities in these ROIs

revealed only weak background staining in the case of HIV-1* (Figure 3b). In contrast,

distinct SiR signals co-localizing with CA(IF) punctae were detected for HIV-1*CA14^{SiR}

(Figure 3c). Quantitative analyses of images from multiple independent experiments

confirmed this visual impression (Figure 3d, e). Only ~8.5% of HIV-1* particles were

classified as SiR positive, with fluorescence intensities only slightly above the

background level (~1,000 a.u.; Figure 3d). In contrast, >95% HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} particles

displayed clear SiR staining, with a mean fluorescence intensity of ~15,000 a.u. (Figure

3e). Variation in SiR fluorescence intensities between individual particles is expected,

since particle size and CA content of HIV-1 virions varies, with ~1,700-3,100 CA

monomers estimated per particle (Carlson et al., 2008). Beyond that, the range of SiR

signal intensities observed also indicated a range of click labeling efficiencies. Despite

variable staining intensities within the preparation, the vast majority of HIV-1*CA14^{CpK}

particles could be efficiently click labeled with SiR, attaining fluorescence intensities
suitable for fluorescence microscopy of infected cells.

To test the effect of introducing a synthetic fluorophore at position 14 on CA
functionality, the infectivity of click labeled particles was assessed by titration of labeled
particles on TZM-bl cells, followed by immunostaining against the HIV-1 matrix protein
(MA) to identify infected cells. As shown in Figures 3f and g, relative infectivity of HIV-
1*CA14^{SiR} was only mildly reduced by an average of ~2-fold compared to HIV-1*. This
moderate reduction in infectivity represented a substantial improvement compared to
previous genetically labeled derivatives in the absence of complementation (Burdick et
al., 2020; Campbell et al., 2008; Pereira et al., 2011; Zurnic Bonisch et al., 2020). Thus,
minimal invasive labeling by GCE allows direct labeling of HIV-1 CA without requiring
complementation with wt virus.

Detection of click labeled HIV-1 in infected cells

Having established a suitable labeling strategy, we used labeled particles to infect and
image target cells. Initial experiments were performed in the model cell line HeLa TZM-
bl. Cells infected with HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of ~0.8 were
fixed at 18 h post infection (p.i.). Immunostaining with antiserum against CA was
performed under conditions that allow for immunodetection of cytosolic and nuclear
complexes (Muller et al., 2021) to test whether detected SiR signals corresponded to
HIV-1 particles. Labeled particles could be visualized by spinning disc confocal
microscopy (SDCM) in the cellular environment (Figure 4a, Figure S4 and S5).
Confocal images revealed punctate SiR signals in the cytosol, close to the nuclear
envelope and within the nucleus of infected cells. Co-localization with CA(IF) staining
confirmed that these signals represented entering viral structures (Figure 4a, Figure
S4 and S5).

Next, TZM-bl cells infected with HIV-1* or HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} were fixed and analyzed for
the presence of click labeled subviral particles inside the nucleus at different time
points after infection. Consistent with earlier results (Zurnic 2020, Burdick 2020, Müller
2021), we observed nuclear CA(IF) positive foci in HIV-1* infected cells as early as 6
h p.i. (Figure 4b, black), while such signals were absent in noninfected cells (Figure
4b, grey). Importantly, we detected SiR positive complexes in the nucleus of HIV-
1*CA14^{SiR} infected cells, with the vast majority also positive for CA(IF) (Figure 4b, red).

Nuclear entry appeared to be delayed for HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} compared to HIV-1* by 6-12

h. Nevertheless, samples infected with HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} displayed a comparable

proportion of cells with detectable capsid-like objects in the nucleus as the HIV-1*

infected control at 12 h p.i. (Figure 4b). The same was true for the number of nuclear

objects detected per cell (Figure 4c); at 12 h p.i., HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} reached an average

of 4.58 $\pm$ 4.12 nuclear particles per cell, similar to HIV-1* with 5.91 $\pm$ 4.11.

Delayed detection of subviral complexes in the nucleus may be due to slower uptake,

slower trafficking towards the nuclear envelope, delayed passage through the NPC, or

a combination thereof. In order to distinguish between these possibilities, we extended

the time-resolved quantification to objects in close vicinity to the nuclear envelope

(Figure 4d). This analysis revealed that the HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} derived subviral structures

reached the nuclear envelope with similar kinetics as HIV-1* particles (Figure 4d, NE

assoc.). A comparable average proportion of CA containing objects was detected at

the nuclear envelope in both cases at 6 h p.i., while the numbers of nuclear capsids

were lower for HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} at that time (Figure 4d, Nucleus). In contrast, the highest

proportion of HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} nuclear objects with 4.20 $\pm$ 1.80% was detected at 18 h

p.i., while HIV-1* reached similar levels at 6 h p.i. This implies that the mechanistic

action of the capsid in nuclear import underlies tight margins with respect to its

biophysical properties.

Characterization of nuclear CA^{SiR} containing complexes

A long-standing question in the field of HIV-1 early replication is when and where

genome uncoating takes place. The possibility to directly detect CA molecules clicked

to a synthetic fluorophore enabled us to assess the amounts of CA associated with

subviral complexes at different intracellular sites, without the influence of differential

epitope accessibility or of a tag domain that potentially confers different properties to a

subpopulation of CA molecules. However, comparing labeling intensities for nuclear,

cytoplasmic, and extracellular particle-associated structures may be additionally

confounded in diffraction-limited microscopy by the failure to resolve closely adjacent

individual capsids. Clusters of nuclear capsids had indeed been observed by CLEM

analyses in our previous study (Muller et al., 2021).

To determine whether nuclear cluster formation occurred under our conditions, we

exploited the fact that the chemical dye conjugated to the capsid surface renders the

308 modified virus suitable for super-resolution microscopy. With a lateral resolution of <50

309 nm, STED nanoscopy allows visual separation of closely adjacent CA objects. TZM-bl

310 cells were infected with HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} at two different MOIs. MOI~0.8 corresponded

311 to the conditions generally used in our experiments; a 10-fold higher virus dose (MOI

312 ~8) was applied in a parallel experiment to test for enhancement of capsid clustering.

313 At 18 h p.i., cells were fixed, immunostained against CA, and imaged using a STED

314 system in confocal and STED mode (Figure 5). Nuclear CA(IF)/(SiR) double-positive

315 objects were detected under both conditions (Figure 5a, arrowheads). While these

316 objects appeared as individual punctae in diffraction-limited micrographs from the IF

317 and SiR channels at both MOIs (Figure 5b, top and middle row), imaging of the SiR

318 channel in STED mode revealed differences between individual punctae. Some

319 diffraction-limited punctae in the nucleus represented individual capsid-like objects

320 when imaged by STED (Figure 5b, left panel, bottom row). In contrast, other punctae

321 were resolved into small clusters of 2-4 closely apposed CA-containing objects by

322 super-resolution microscopy (Figure 5b, right panel, bottom row), consistent with

323 observations made by electron tomography (Muller et al., 2021; Zila et al., 2021a). A

324 quantitative analysis of cluster sizes (Figure 5c) revealed that the propensity for capsid

325 clustering in the nucleus correlated with the amount of virus used for infection.

326 Consistent with a normal distribution of infection events per cell at a given MOI, ~50%

327 of those cells positive for nuclear punctae displayed only a single STED resolved object

328 at MOI 0.8, whereas all cells analyzed at MOI 8 comprised more than one STED

329 resolved nuclear object, with up to 15 objects identified in one nucleus (Figure S6).

330 Accordingly, at MOI~0.8, the vast majority of punctae (~88%) corresponded to

331 individual capsid-like objects in the nucleus, and clusters of more than two objects were

332 not observed. In contrast, the majority of cells analyzed comprising more than one

333 nuclear object displayed clustered particles, and almost half of the nuclear punctae

334 (~43%) corresponded to clusters of 2-4 objects when cells were infected with MOI~8.

335 We conclude that nuclear capsid clustering is rarely observed at the MOI of 0.8 used

336 throughout this study, and that nuclear clustering appears not to be a random event.

337 The previously observed capsid clustering in distinct nuclear positions as well as larger

338 clusters occurred preferentially at high MOI, where a higher proportion of cells

339 contained multiple nuclear particles.

340 We next proceeded to SiR fluorescence intensity measurements, comparing the signal

341 intensity of extranuclear HIV-1 particles to that of subviral structures in the nucleus.

Staining of the plasma membrane with mCLING ATTO488 before infection revealed
that under our conditions most cell-associated particles in the cytosolic region
represented virions present in endosomes, corresponding to a pre-fusion state of the
virus (Figure S7a-c). To ensure that these extranuclear punctae represented single
objects, cytoplasmic foci were analyzed in STED mode. We found that ~95% (n=79)
of analyzed punctae corresponded to an individual object, while only ~5% (n=4) of
these foci were resolved into two adjacent objects by nanoscopy (Figure S8).

As illustrated by the cartoon in Figure 6a, complete virions comprise on average ~2,400
CA molecules, while only ~1,200-1,500 of these are part of the mature fullerene capsid
(Briggs 2003, Carlson 2008, Lanman 2004) that represents a post-fusion state.
Assuming equal click labeling efficiency of CA14^{CpK} for molecules that are part of the
mature lattice and those that remain free in the virion volume, the average SiR intensity
of complete capsids is expected to correspond to ~50-60% of the average intensity of
complete virions from the same preparation. We infected TZM-bl cells at an MOI of 0.8
and quantified the SiR intensity of virions attached to the cell or in the cytosolic region
(and thus mostly in endosomes) as well as nuclear punctae (Figure 6b). As a control,
we compared SiR intensities of the small proportion of mCLING-negative (post-fusion)
structures in the cytoplasmic region with that of mCLING positive (endosomal) objects.
This analysis revealed an average SiR intensity of ~ 66% for mCLING negative
compared to mCLING positive objects (Figure S7d), indicating that we can reliably
differentiate between complete virions and post-fusion complexes based on intensity
of CA staining. The average SiR intensity of >6,000 cell-attached and (mostly)
endosomal particles in the cytosolic region exhibited an average of 17,649 a.u.. In
contrast, the SiR intensity of >100 nuclear subviral structures averaged 9,835 a.u.
(Figure 6b), i.e., ~ 56% of the average intensity of complete virions, similar to the
predicted relative CA content of the mature capsid and similar to the intensity of
mCLING-negative cytoplasmic objects. Based on these findings, we conclude that the
CA(SiR) containing objects in the nuclei of these cells correspond approximately to the
full CA complement of the mature capsid.

The small molecule inhibitor PF74 (Blair et al. 2010) binds to the HIV-1 capsid in a
pocket overlapping the binding sites for the FG motifs of various nucleoporins and for
the nuclear host protein CPSF6 (Bhattacharya et al., 2014; Matreyek et al., 2013; Price
et al., 2012). This compound inhibits HIV-1 replication by multiple mechanisms, with
effects on different replications steps reported based on PF74 concentration and time

of addition (reviewed in (Thenin-Houssier and Valente, 2016)). Treatment with high

concentrations of PF74 has been reported to destabilize the capsid (Burdick et al.,

2020; Shi et al., 2011), but data obtained in recent studies argued against a PF74

induced loss of CA from nuclear complexes (Muller et al., 2021) and even showed an

increased CA(IF) signal (Francis et al., 2020b). These findings are consistent with a

stabilizing effect of the compound on the capsid lattice observed for isolated capsids

after initial opening (Marquez et al., 2018; Rankovic et al., 2018), and for *in vitro*

assembled CA-NC particles (Dostalkova et al., 2020). Since results obtained by

immunodetection may be influenced by differential CA epitope exposure, we revisited

this issue employing direct CA labeling. TZM-bl cells were infected with HIV-1*CA14[SiR]

particles for 17 h and then treated with 2-15 µM PF74 or DMSO for 1 h, followed by

fixation, permeabilization, methanol extraction, and SDCM imaging. CA(SiR) punctae

detected in the nucleus of DMSO control cells were positive for CPSF6 (Figure 6c ii).

Intensity profile measurement revealed clear colocalization of both signals indicating

that direct capsid labeling did not affect association with CPSF6 (Figure 6d). In

accordance with earlier results (Francis et al., 2020b; Muller et al., 2021), CA(SiR)

positive subviral complexes in nuclei of cells subjected to PF74 treatment lacked

CPSF6 association (Figure 6e, and 6f). Their mean CA(SiR) intensity remained

unaltered, however, indicating that the capsid remains largely stable in the presence

of PF74 concentrations ranging from 2-15 µM (Figure 6g).

Detection of directly labeled HIV-1 capsids in primary cells

To validate our results in a physiologically relevant cell type, primary human CD4^{+} T

cells from healthy blood donors were infected, subjected to IF staining against CA, and

imaged by SDCM at 24 h p.i. (Figure 7a and Figure S9). We readily detected nuclear

subviral SiR positive structures in HIV-1*CA14[SiR] infected cells, indicating that nuclear

replication complexes retained CA also in these primary cells (Figure 7a). Consistent

with prior observations made in T cell lines (Zila et al., 2019) the majority of SiR-positive

objects were not associated with CA(IF) signals (9/11 particles; Figure 7a, left and

Figure S9a) when fixation and immunostaining were performed under standard

conditions. As outlined above, treatment with 15 µM PF74 for 1 h dissociates the large

clusters of CPSF6 from nuclear subviral complexes. We observed that this in turn

renders nuclear CA accessible for IF detection in T cells, presumably by exposure of

CA epitopes upon CPSF6 displacement (Muller et al., 2021). Accordingly, brief PF74

treatment allowed for detection of CA(IF) signals co-localizing with nuclear CA(SiR)

punctae (13/16; Figure 7a, right and Figure S9b). We conclude that the direct CA

labeling strategy presented here overcomes technical artifacts that hamper IF

analyses.

Further quantitative analyses using primary CD4$^+$ T cells prepared from six blood

donors revealed similar numbers of nuclear capsid structures in cells infected with HIV-

1*CA14^{SiR} compared to cells infected with HIV-1* at 24 h p.i. (Figure 7b). SiR intensity

measurements were only performed for intranuclear objects in this case, since high

background due to SiR accumulation in the narrow cytoplasm of T cells precluded

reliable analysis of individual particles in the extranuclear region. Quantitation of SiR

intensities of nuclear punctae in cells infected with a MOI~0.8 yielded similar average

intensities as measured in TZM-bl cells (mean=12,485 a.u.), indicating the presence

of a complete or nearly complete mature capsid in the nuclear complexes in primary T

cells as well (Figure 7c). Cells infected with a MOI of ~8 displayed higher CA(SiR)

intensities of diffraction-limited nuclear objects (mean=39,502 a.u.), suggesting

intranuclear clustering of capsids, as observed in TZM-bl cells (Figure 5).

Our findings from CA(SiR) intensity measurements argued for the presence of a full

capsid complement at subviral structures in the nucleus. These data strengthen

conclusions from several recent studies suggesting that the mature capsid lattice may

be completely or largely intact on nuclear subviral objects (Burdick et al., 2020; Muller

et al., 2021; Zila et al., 2021a). However, fluorescence signals do not yield information

on the architecture of nuclear CA14^{SiR} containing objects. Therefore, we

complemented our analyses by performing CLEM of infected SupT1 T cells. In order

to maximize the number of nuclear objects, infection was synchronized by the

attachment of particles to the cells for 3 h at a low temperature (16°C) to prevent

particle uptake by membrane fusion or endocytosis (Melikyan et al., 2000; Weigel and

Oka, 1981). Virus entry was initiated by temperature shift to 37°C. At 24 h post

temperature shift, specimens were prepared by high-pressure freezing and freeze

substitution. 250 nm thick resin sections were subjected to SDCM in order to localize

CA(SiR) containing structures, followed by correlative electron tomography (CLEM-

ET) analysis. CA(SiR) positive objects could be identified by SDCM in the sections

(Figure 7d), demonstrating that the brightness of signals derived from direct CA(SiR)

labeling is sufficient for CLEM detection of cytosolic and nuclear (sub)viral structures.

ROIs were defined based on the SiR signals and subjected to correlative ET analysis.

Figure 7e shows an exemplary tomogram obtained from a ROI located within the

nucleus. It reveals several closely apposed electron-dense structures at the position of

the SiR label, whose shape and dimension match those of intact or largely intact

mature HIV-1 capsids (Figure 7f and supplementary movie 1). Such structures were

recently identified in nuclei of infected cells by CLEM using fluorescently labeled HIV-

1 IN as an indirect marker for subviral structures (Muller et al., 2021; Zila et al., 2021a)

and were interpreted as capsid shells solely based on their morphology. Here, we

demonstrated that these capsid-resembling structures co-localize with nuclear foci

comprising a high number of click labeled CA molecules. We thereby provide direct

evidence that the cone-shaped objects are complete or largely complete HIV-1 capsids

that have entered the nucleus presumably through the NPC of infected and cell cycle

arrested cells.

Discussion

Here, we present a direct labeling approach for HIV-1 CA that yields infectious and

morphologically mature viral particles. The minimally invasive GCE/click labeling

approach used here represents an ideal strategy for the versatile labeling of genetically

fragile viral capsid proteins in principle, but its potential for virus imaging has not been

exploited so far. The combination of GCE and subsequent functionalization of a viral

capsid protein by click chemistry has previously only been applied to the non-

enveloped adeno-associated virus (AAV) (e.g., (Kelemen et al., 2018; Zhang et al.,

2018). However, the capsid of AAV, unlike HIV-1 CA, can also tolerate peptide

insertions and larger modifications (Borner et al., 2020; Chandran et al., 2017; Feiner

et al., 2019; Varadi et al., 2012). Here, we demonstrate that GCE in conjunction with

click labeling can also be applied to an enveloped virus with a highly multifunctional

and genetically fragile capsid protein that needs to form a closed fullerene lattice to be

infectious. We found that HIV-1 CA tolerates chemical modification of the exposed

amino acid residue A14. This position is located close to the central, dynamic pore in

the CA hexamer lined by positively charged R18 and K25 rings (Jacques et al., 2016).

Replacement of A14 and E45 by cysteine residues for disulfide cross-linking CA

subunits was previously shown to allow CA hexamer assembly and was used to study

the capsid hexamer structure (Pornillos et al., 2009). This mutant retained binding to

host cell proteins Nup153 and CPSF6, as well as to dNTPs and PF74 (Jacques et al.,

2016; Price et al., 2014), consistent with functional replacement of A14 by a non-
natural CpK residue in the current study.

All previously described genetic tagging strategies for HIV-1 CA (Burdick et al., 2020;
Campbell et al., 2008; Pereira et al., 2011; Zurnic Bonisch et al., 2020) required
complementation with a molar excess of wt protein or virus. Since the mature HIV-1
capsid is assembled from approximately half of the ~2,500 CA molecules packaged in
the virion (Briggs et al., 2004; Lanman et al., 2004), it cannot be ascertained in this
case whether the subset of genetically tagged CA molecules is an integral part of the
mature capsid lattice. Conceivably, tagged or modified CA molecules may be excluded
from the mature capsid shell or may be irregularly inserted. Signal intensity changes
of CA fusion proteins in early HIV-1 replication may thus also depend on the relative
incorporation of these proteins into the mature capsid lattice. In contrast, we found that
the strategy described here allowed genetic labeling of HIV-1 CA in the proviral context
and retaining almost full infectivity in the absence of wild-type complementation.

The detection of a label covalently attached to CA is independent of cellular context,
sample treatment, or exposure of CA epitopes. Thereby, the method overcomes
limitations of IF detection that had previously resulted in different conclusions regarding
the presence of CA on subviral complexes. The use of synthetic dye molecules also
renders the labeling strategy compatible with a wide range of fluorescence imaging
approaches, including live-cell microscopy, correlative imaging and super-resolution
fluorescence microscopy techniques (Wang et al., 2019).

Our approach allowed for direct, quantitative analysis of CA-containing objects and CA
amounts associated with viral complexes in microscopic images of infected cells. While
time-lapse experiments showed some delay in nuclear import kinetics for labeled
capsid-like objects, the infectivity of highly labeled preparations was reduced by only
twofold, and the number of nuclear objects reached was similar to that detected in cells
infected with wt virus. Thus, site-specific introduction of a synthetic fluorophore can be
compatible with capsid functionality in HIV-1 post-entry processes. The delay in
nuclear accumulation appears to be mainly caused by slower trafficking through the
NPC, possibly due to the additional mass of the ncAA and label, given that the
unmodified HIV-1 capsid already approaches the size limit even of dilated NPCs (Zila
et al., 2021a). Another, not mutually exclusive, possibility is that ncAA incorporation

and/or the attached SiR dye affects pliability of the capsid structure that might be
required for efficient and fast passage through the NPC.

CA amounts approximately corresponding to the full complement of a mature capsid
were found to be associated with cytoplasmic post-fusion objects and with subviral
complexes in nuclei of a HeLa-derived cell line and primary human CD4$^+$ T cells, also
upon inhibition of cell division by aphidicolin treatment. By applying correlative imaging,
we provide direct evidence that nuclear complexes positive for directly labeled CA
indeed represent HIV-1 capsids or capsid-like remnants. Taken together, these results
argue against (partial) capsid uncoating prior to entering the nucleoplasm, as had been
concluded earlier based on low or lacking CA IF signals associated with nuclear
subviral complexes in certain cell types (e.g. (Burdick et al., 2017; Hulme et al., 2015;
Peng et al., 2014; Zila et al., 2019), or based on the loss of the fluorescently labeled
capsid binding protein CypA at the nuclear envelope (Francis et al., 2020a; Francis et
al., 2016; Francis and Melikyan, 2018). The apparent discrepancy between these
previous IF results and data from direct CA quantification may be explained by
differential accessibility of CA epitopes under different IF conditions. The indirect label
CypA, on the other hand, might be displaced from capsids at the nuclear pore, possibly
by competition between fluorescent CypA and the outer NPC protein Nup358, which
also carries a binding site for the CypA binding loop of CA (Schaller et al., 2011). Our
data suggest nuclear capsid uncoating in a model cell line, as well as in primary T cells,
in agreement with recent findings from us and others, which indicated that the nuclear
pore channel is wider than previously assumed, allowing HIV-1 capsids to pass the
intact NPC (Zila et al., 2021a), and that HIV-1 uncoating occurs after nuclear import
(Burdick et al., 2020; Dharan et al., 2020; Li et al., 2021; Muller et al., 2022; Selyutina
et al., 2020) , apparently by separation of the viral genome from a broken capsid
remnant (Muller et al., 2021).

Small clusters of CA positive objects were detected by STED nanoscopy in nuclei of
TZM-bl cells and T cells, consistent with the reported detection of nuclear clusters
containing multiple HIV-1 replication complexes (Francis et al., 2020b), multiple viral
genomes (Rensen et al., 2021), or even several intact or partly intact capsid-like
structures (Muller et al., 2021) in various cell types. Our analyses revealed that the
observed clustering is dependent on the amount of virus used for infection. Most
nuclear signals represented single capsids at a lower MOI, whereas frequent clustering
was observed at high MOI. This observation suggests that capsids enter the nucleus

individually, but traffic via a limited number of routes and accumulate at defined sites

of uncoating. This raises the question whether HIV-1 capsids use a 'specialized' subset

of nuclear pores for nuclear entry; the answer would not only be relevant in the context

of HIV-1 replication, but also with respect to an understanding of the nuclear import

process. Intracellular Nup levels and presumably NPC composition have been

reported to influence HIV-1 replication (Kane et al., 2018), but compositional and

structural variability of NPCs between different cell types, or within an individual cell, is

incompletely understood (reviewed in (Knockenhauer and Schwartz, 2016). The route,

mechanism and functional consequences of intranuclear trafficking of HIV-1

complexes also warrant further analysis. Growing evidence from recent studies

suggests that incoming viral replication complexes accumulate at nuclear speckles in

a CA and CPSF6-dependent manner, and that reverse transcription may only be

completed near the site of integration (Burdick et al., 2020; Francis et al., 2020a;

Rensen et al., 2021; Selyutina et al., 2020). Combining the direct CA labeling described

here with the recently developed fluorescence detection of the reverse transcribed

genome (Blanco-Rodriguez et al., 2020; Muller et al., 2021) will provide us with the

possibility to study the uncoating process in more detail using a combination of

confocal imaging, nanoscopy and correlative imaging.

The direct labeling approach also allowed us to investigate the effect of the capsid

inhibitor PF74 (Blair et al., 2010), whose detailed mode of action is still under

investigation. We found that displacement of CPSF6 from nuclear subviral structures

was not accompanied by a loss of CA signal. This finding disagrees with the recently

reported rapid CA dissociation from nuclear complexes upon PF74 addition, that was

based on imaging of HIV-1 particles containing eGFP-CA complemented by a molar

excess of wt CA (Burdick et al., 2020). The apparent discrepancy may suggest that the

subset of eGFP-tagged CA molecules is not an integral part of the mature capsid

lattice, resulting in premature loss of the labeled molecules. Our findings are in line

with the observation of other recent studies where PF74 treatment did not lead to a

loss of the CA IF signal on nuclear complexes but rather enhanced immunostaining

efficiency (Francis et al., 2020b; Muller et al., 2021) and with *in vitro* findings that

indicated breach of lattice integrity by PF74, but stabilization of the remaining lattice

(Marquez et al., 2019; Rankovic et al., 2018).

In conclusion, direct click labeling of HIV-1 CA is a versatile approach that substantially

expands the possibilities to study the early events in HIV-1 replication with high

temporal and/or spatial resolution using advanced fluorescence microscopy methods.
Application for HIV-1 CA demonstrated its usefulness for genetically fragile structural
proteins and provided direct proof that the capsid stays largely intact upon passage of
the subviral complex into the nucleus. Furthermore, it directly identified nuclear capsid-
like structures that morphologically resembled the virion capsid by CLEM-ET. The
variety of synthetic fluorophores which can be combined with GCE and click labeling
enables rapid adaptation of the approach to microscopic single-molecule techniques
such as STORM (Rust et al., 2006) and MINFLUX (Balzarotti et al., 2017). It can also
be combined with labeling of proteins of the viral replication complex and of the viral
genome, which is a subject of ongoing studies. Beyond fluorescence imaging, CA
modification by GCE offers possibilities for site-specific incorporation of other
functionalized ncAAs, e.g., benzoyl-phenylalanine (Coin, 2018) for photo-crosslinking,
together with pulldown experiments for the detection of capsid-host protein
interactions. The fact that the combination of GCE and click chemistry could
successfully be applied to a notoriously genetically fragile capsid protein of an
enveloped virus opens the perspective that this strategy may also advance and expand
fluorescence labeling of a broad range of other viruses.

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Materials and Methods

Plasmids

Plasmids were cloned using standard molecular biology techniques and verified by
commercial Sanger sequencing (Eurofins Genomics). PCR was performed using Q5

High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase (New England Biolabs) or Phusion DNA Polymerase

(New England Biolabs) according to the manufacturer's instructions using primers

purchased from Eurofins Genomics. Plasmid amplification was carried out in *E. coli*

Stbl2 (Thermo Fisher Scientific) cells.

HIV-1 plasmids were based on the proviral plasmid pNLC4-3 (Bohne and Krausslich,

2004) that expresses the authentic genomic RNA from HIV-1$_{NL4-3}$ (Adachi et al., 1986)

under the control of the cytomegalovirus promoter. To avoid unwanted ncAA

incorporation into the virion component Vpr, the amber stop codon of the *vpr* ORF of

pNLC4-3 was mutated into an opal stop codon (TGA) via site-directed mutagenesis.

See primer list for sequences of primers used. PCR1 (primers Vpr$_{TGA}$ a and Vpr$_{TGA}$ b)

and PCR2 (primers Vpr$_{TGA}$ c and Vpr$_{TGA}$ d) were performed in parallel to generate two

overlapping single stranded PCR products. Using a combination of both products of

these reactions as new templates, PCR3 with primers Vpr$_{TGA}$ a and Vpr$_{TGA}$ d resulted

in PCR fragments comprising the respective mutation. These fragments were cloned

into pNLC4-3 using unique PflMI/NheI restriction sites, resulting in pNLC4-3*. Virus

produced from this plasmid was termed HIV-1*.

To allow for site-specific GCE, the codon for amino acid A14 of CA was mutated into

TAG via overlap PCR. PCR1 (primers CA14$_{BssHII}$ fwd 1, CA14$_{TAG}$ rev 1) and PCR2

(primers CA14$_{TAG}$ fwd 2, CA14$_{ApaI}$ rev 2) were performed in parallel to generate two

overlapping single-stranded PCR products. PCR3 with primers CA14$_{BssHII}$ fwd 1 and

CA14$_{ApaI}$ rev 2 result in the PCR fragment comprising the mutation, which was

subcloned into pNLC4-3* using unique BssHII/ApaI restriction sites, resulting in

pNLC4-3*CA14^{TAG} (HIV-1*CA14^{TAG}).

Plasmid pNESPylRS-eRF1dn-tRNA (Schifferdecker, Sakin et al., in preparation) is

based on pEA168 (Cohen and Arbely, 2016), kindly provided by Eyal Arbely, Ben-

Gurion University of the Negev, Israel), a eukaryotic vector that comprises expression

cassettes for two proteins and four tRNA molecules. The coding sequence for a

modified pyrrolysine tRNA synthetase was cloned from plasmid tRNA^{Pyl}/NESPylRS^{AF}

(Nikic et al., 2016) into the CMV promoter driven expression cassette of pEA168 using

HindIII/XbaI restriction sites, resulting in plasmid pEA168-CMV-aaRS-4xU6tRNA. A

PCR fragment encoding a dominant version of the eukaryotic release factor 1

(eRF1(E55D)) amplified from plasmid peRF1-E55D (Schmied et al., 2014) was

subsequently inserted into an expression cassette driven by the EF1 promotor into

pEA168-CMV-aaRS-4xU6tRNA using KpnI/MluI restriction sites, yielding pNESPylRS-eRF1dn-tRNA.

Table 1 Primers

primer	sequence
Vpr$_{TGA}$ a	ctggcatttgggtcagggagtc
Vpr$_{TGA}$ b	cagggctctagttcaggatctactggctc
Vpr$_{TGA}$ c	gagccagtagatcctgaactagagccctg
Vpr$_{TGA}$ d	gttctcttaatttgctagc
CA A14$_{BssHII}$ fwd 1	cttgctgaagcgcgca
CA A14$_{TAG}$ rev 1	agttctaggtgatatctactgatgtaccatttg
CA A14$_{TAG}$ fwd 2	caaatggtacatcagtagatatcacctagaact
CA A14$_{ApaI}$ rev 2	gccctgcaatttttggctatgtg

Cell culture

HEK293T (Pear et al., 1993) and HeLa TZM-bl indicator cells (Wei et al., 2002) were maintained in Dulbecco´s Modified Eagle´s medium (Thermo Fisher Scientific) supplemented with 100 U/ml penicillin, 100 µg/ml streptomycin (PAN Biotech) and 10% fetal calf serum (FCS; Sigma Aldrich). Both cell lines were regularly monitored for mycoplasma contamination using the MycoAlert mycoplasma detection kit (Lonza Rockland). Primary CD4+ T cells were cultured in RPMI 1640 containing L-glutamine supplemented with 100 U/ml penicillin, 100 µg/ml streptomycin (PAN Biotech), 10% heat-inactivated FCS, and 5% human AB serum (Sigma Aldrich).

Isolation of primary cells

Primary human CD4+ T cells were isolated from buffy coats obtained from healthy and anonymous blood donors at the Heidelberg University Hospital Blood Bank following the regulations of the local ethics committee. CD4+ T cells were isolated using EasySep™ Direct Human T Cell Isolation Kit (Stemcell technologies) according to the manufacturer's instructions and activated by incubation in the presence of 100 U/ml IL-2 (Sigma Aldrich) and T Cell TransAct™ human (Miltenyi Biotec) for 72 h.

Virus particle production

HEK293T cells were seeded in T175 tissue culture flasks the day before (~15 Mio.
cells) or a 6-well plate ($4x10^5$ cells/well) and transfected using calcium phosphate
precipitation according to standard procedures (~80% confluency). Cells were co-
transfected with 50 μg/flask or 3 μg/well total DNA of pNLC4-3* (HIV-1*) or pNLC4-
3*CA14^{TAG} (HIV-1*CA14^{TAG}) and plasmid pNESPylRS-eRF1dn-tRNA in a molar ratio
of 2.22:1. At 6 h p.t., medium was removed, and fresh complete DMEM containing a
final concentration of 500 μM CpK (SiChem; stock solution of 100 mM was pre-diluted
1:4 in 1M HEPES shortly before use), and 100 μM ascorbic acid (Sigma Aldrich; stock
solution 10 mM) was added. At 48 h p.t., the tissue culture supernatant was harvested
and filtered through 0.45 μm nitrocellulose filters. For labeling the CA protein, 250 nM
Tetrazine-SiR (Spirochrome; stock solution 1 mM) was added to the filtered
supernatant, and samples were incubated at 37°C for 30 min. Particles were then
concentrated by ultracentrifugation through a 20% (w/v) sucrose cushion at 28,000
rpm using a Beckman TLA-100 fixed angle-rotor (Beckman Coulter) for 90 min or for
the 6-well format at 44,000 rpm using a Beckman TLA-55 fixed angle-rotor (Beckman
Coulter) for 45 min at 4°C. Pellets were gently resuspended in phosphate-buffered
saline (PBS) containing 10% FCS and 10 mM HEPES (pH 7.5) and stored in 5 μl
aliquots at -80°C.

Immunoblotting and In-gel fluorescence

Virus samples were mixed 1:10 with SDS sample buffer (150 mM Tris HCl, pH 6.8, 6%
(w/v) SDS, 30% Glycerin, 0.06% bromophenol blue, 20% β -Mercaptoethanol) and
boiled at 95°C for 15 min. 10 μl HIV-1* and 40 μl HIV-1*CA^{SiR} lysates were subjected
to SDS-PAGE (15 %; acrylamide:bisacrylamide 200:1). Cell lysates were generated
from transfected HEK293T cells. At 40 h p.t., cells were washed with PBS, trypsinized
and resuspended in PBS. 1 ml of cell suspension was mixed with 300 μl SDS sample
buffer and boiled at 95°C for 15 min. 10 μl cell lysate was subjected to SDS-PAGE.
Proteins were transferred to a nitrocellulose membrane (Millipore) by semi-dry blotting
for 1 h at 0.8 mA/cm^2. Antigens were stained with the indicated antisera in PBS/0.5%
bovine serum albumin (BSA) (sheep αCA, polyclonal 1:5,000 (in-house); rabbit αMA,
polyclonal 1:1,000 (in-house); rabbit αRT, polyclonal, 1:1,000 (in-house), followed by

staining with corresponding secondary antibodies IRDye[TM] in PBS / 0.5% BSA (anti-

sheep 680CW (1:10,000); Rockland, or anti-rabbit 800CW (1:10,000); Li-COR

Biosciences). Detection was performed using a Li-COR Odyssey CLx infrared scanner

(Li-COR Biosciences) according to manufacturer's instructions. CA quantification was

performed with ImageStudio LITE software (Li-COR Biosciences) via intensity

measurements of CA bands and a serial dilution of recombinant purified CA standard

(2.5 ng/µl; in-house) on the same membrane. For in-gel fluorescence, the acrylamide

gels were directly scanned using a Li-COR Odyssey CLx infrared scanner (Li-COR

Biosciences) set at an emission wavelength of 700 nm.

Infectivity assays

Virus amounts were quantified via SYBR Green based Product Enhanced Reverse

Transcription assay (SG-PERT; (Pizzato et al., 2009)). To determine relative infectivity

of HIV-1* particles in a luciferase assay, 5,000 TZM-bl cells were seeded in 90 µl

DMEM in a 96-well plate. On the following day, infection was performed 10 µl of serial

9-fold dilution of supernatant from virus producing HEK293T cells transfected with

pNLC4-3 or pNLC4-3*. At 48 h p.i., cells were lysed by adding 100 µl Steady-Glo

luciferase reagent (Promega). After 10 min, 80 µl of the lysed cell solution was

transferred into a white 96-well plate and an Infinite 200 PRO plate reader (TECAN)

was used to measure luminescence. Uninfected cells were used as a negative control.

To determine the effect of incorporating CpK and Tet-SiR labeling on virus infectivity,

HIV-1* and HIV-1*CA14[SiR] viral particles (normalized by RT activity) were titrated on

TZM-bl cells seeded in 15-well ibidi µ-Slide angiogenesis dishes. At 6 h p.i. 50 µM T-

20 (Enfuvirtide; Roche; stock solution 20 mM) was added to prevent second-round

infection. Infection rates were scored at 48 h p.i.. For this, cells were fixed in 4%

paraformaldehyde (PFA; Electron Microscopy Sciences; stock solution 16%) for 15

min, followed by 20 min incubation in PBS/0.5% (v/v) Triton X-100 at room

temperature. Immunostaining was performed using an in-house polyclonal rabbit

antiserum raised against recombinant HIV-1 MA (1:1,000; in-house) in PBS/0.5% BSA)

1 h at room temperature. Secondary antibody Alexa Fluor 488 donkey anti-rabbit

(1:1,000; Thermo Fisher Scientific) in PBS/0.5% BSA was added for 45 min at room

temperature. Samples were imaged by SDCM. The mean intensity of the 488 channel

(MA IF) was quantified in the non-infected samples imaged in parallel and subtracted

as background in each image. The proportion of IF-positive cells was counted in 12

randomly selected fields of view using Fiji (Schindelin et al., 2012). To determine the

infectivity of virus particle preparations, the number of infected cells per well was

calculated by multiplying the percentage of infected cells detected with the number of

cells per well (double of seeded cell number the day before). Division by the volume of

virus suspension used for infection yielded the number of infectious units (IU) / ml.

Fixation and immunofluorescence staining of infected cells

3.33×10^3 TZM-bl cells were seeded into 15-well µ-Slides angiogenesis dishes (ibidi;

cat. 81507) the day before infection. Infection at 37°C was performed with an MOI ~0.8

for 6,9,12 or 18 h. Subsequently, cells were incubated for 1 h with 15 µM PF74 (Sigma

Aldrich; stock solution 10 mM in DMSO) in DMEM to allow for efficient detection of

nuclear CA by IF (Muller et al., 2021). Samples were washed with PBS, fixed in 4%

PFA for 15 min and permeabilized with PBS/0.5% (v/v) Triton-X100 for 20 min, and

washed again with PBS. Cells were extracted using ice-cold 100% methanol for 10

min. Afterward, samples were blocked with PBS/2.5% BSA for 15 min, followed by

incubation with primary antibodies (rabbit αCA, polyclonal 1:1000 (in-house); rabbit

αCPSF6, polyclonal 1: (Atlas Antibodies, cat. #HPA039973); mouse αhLamin A/C,

monoclonal 1:100 (Santa Cruz Biotech., cat. #sc-7292); mouse αhLaminB1,

monoclonal 1:100 (Santa Cruz Biotech., cat. #sc-365962)) in PBS/0.5% BSA for 1 h at

room temperature. After washing three times with PBS, secondary antibodies (Alexa

Fluor 405, 488, 568, goat/donkey, polyclonal 1:1,000 (Thermo Fisher Scientific))

diluted in PBS/0.5% BSA were added for 45 min at room temperature. Samples were

washed and stored in PBS at 4°C. For infection of primary CD4^{+} T cells, 20,000 cells

were infected with HIV-1* or HIV-1*CA14[SiR] in a 96-well v-bottom microplate (Greiner

Bio-one, cat. #650161) in a volume of 40 µl RPMI and transferred at 22 h p.i. onto a

PEI-coated 15-well µ-Slide angiogenesis dishes (ibidi). Cells were allowed to adhere

for 1 h at 37°C, and PF74 diluted in fresh growth medium was added to a final

concentration of 15 µM. Extraction, fixation, and immunostaining were performed after

1 h at 37°C as described above. For the detection of endosome-associated particles,

2 µM mCLING ATTO488 (Synaptic Systems; stock 50 µM) was added to TZM-bl cells

seeded in 15-well µ-Slides Angiogenesis and incubated at 16°C for 30 min.

Subsequently, the fluorescent probe was removed, HIV-1*CA14[SiR] particles were

added in fresh growth medium, and cells were incubated for an additional 3 h at 37°C

(MOI~0.8). Cells were fixed for 90 min at room temperature in 4% PFA and 0.2%

glutaraldehyde to ensure retention of mCLING at cellular membranes. Nuclei were

stained with 5 µg/ml Hoechst (Merck) in PBS for 30 min.

Cell viability assay

To test the effect of mCLING ATTO488 (Synaptic Systems) staining on cell viability,

TZM-bl cells were seeded into a 96-well plate (5×10^3 cells/well; flat bottom Greiner Bio-

one) the day before and incubated in medium supplemented with the indicated

concentration of mCLING ATTO488 for 30 min at 16°C. After staining, cells were

trypsinized, stained with Trypan blue using standard procedures and analyzed with a

TC20™ Automated Cell Counter (BioRad).

Labeling efficiency of immobilized particles

15-well µ-Slide angiogenesis dishes (ibidi) were coated with 30µl/well

polyethyleneimine (PEI; 1mg/ml) for 30 min at room temperature and washed with

PBS. Pre-labeled HIV-1* and HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} particles were incubated in PBS on PEI-

coated microscopy slides for 1 h at 37°C. Subsequently, samples were washed with

PBS, fixed in 4% PFA for 15 min and permeabilized with PBS/0.05% (v/v) Triton X-100

for 20 min at room temperature. Immobilized particles were blocked with PBS/2.5%

BSA for 15 min and polyclonal rabbit antiserum raised against recombinant HIV-1 CA

protein (in-house) was added (1:1,000 in PBS/0.5% BSA for 1 h at room temperature).

After washing three times with PBS, secondary antibody Alexa Fluor 488 donkey anti-

rabbit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) 1:1,000 in PBS/0.5% BSA was added for 45 min at

room temperature. Samples were washed and stored in PBS at 4°C.

Confocal microscopy (SDCM)

Multichannel z-series with a z-spacing of 200 nm, spanning the whole cell volume (3D),

were acquired using a PerkinElmer Ultra VIEW VoX 3D spinning disk confocal

microscope (SDCM; Perkin Elmer). A 60x oil immersion objective (numeric aperture

[NA] 1.49; Perkin Elmer) was used for imaging of TZM-bl cells or 100x oil immersion

objective ([NA] 1.49; Perkin Elmer) for primary CD4+ T cells and immobilized particles.

Images were recorded in the 405-, 488-, 561-, and 640 nm channels.

STED microscopy

STED nanoscopy was performed using a λ = 775 nm STED system (Abberior

Instruments GmbH) equipped with a 100x oil immersion objective (NA 1.4; Olympus

UPlanSApo). STED images were acquired using the 640 nm excitation laser lines while

the 488 and 590 laser line was acquired in confocal mode only. Nominal STED laser

power was set to 20% of the maximal power (1250 mW) with pixel dwell time of 10 µs

and 15 nm pixel size. STED images were deconvolved using the software Imspector

(Abberior Instruments GmbH) and Huygens Professional Deconvolution (Scientific

Volume Imaging).

Electron microscopy

HEK293T cells (4×10^5) were seeded in a glass coverslip-bottom petri dish (MatTek,

MA, USA), cultured for 16 h at 37°C and then co-transfected with pNLC4-3*CA14^{TAG}

and pNESPylRS-eRF1dn-tRNA by using calcium phosphate precipitation. At 6 h p.t.,

medium was removed and fresh complete DMEM containing a final concentration of

500 µM CpK (SiChem; stock solution 100 mM was pre-diluted 1:4 in 1M HEPES shortly

before use), and 100 µM ascorbic acid (Sigma Aldrich; stock solution 10 mM) was

added. At 44 h p.t., cells were fixed with pre-warmed 2% formaldehyde + 2.5%

glutaraldehyde in 0.1 M cacodylate buffer (pH 7.4) for 1.5 h at room temperature, then

washed in 0.1 M cacodylate buffer and post-fixed with 2% osmium tetroxide (Electron

Microscopy Sciences) for a 1 h on ice. Cells were subsequently dehydrated through

an increasing cold ethanol series (30, 50, 70, 80, 90, and 100%; on ice) and two

anhydrous acetone series (at room temperature). The coverslip with cells was then

removed from the dish, and cells were flat embedded in Epon resin. 70-nm thin

sections were cut with an ultramicrotome (Leica EM UC6), collected on formvar-coated

100-mesh copper EM grids (Electron Microscopy Sciences) and stained with a 3%

uranyl acetate in 70% MetOH (10 min), and lead citrate (7 min). Cells sections were

observed with a JEOL JEM-1400 electron microscope operating at 80 kV (Jeol Ltd.),

equipped with a bottom-mounted 4K by 4K pixel digital camera (TemCam F416; TVIPS

GmbH).

CLEM and electron tomography

SupT1 cells were distributed in a 96-well plate ($2x10^5$ cells/well; U-bottom; Greiner Bio-one, 650180) and pre-incubated for 16 h with 1 μm aphidicolin (APC; Merck). Cells were pelleted (200 x g, 3 min) and resuspended in complete RPMI medium containing HIV-1*CA14[SIR] particles (MOI~0.4). Cells were incubated with viral particles for 120 min at 16°C to adsorb the virus and synchronize virus entry. Samples were then processed for CLEM and ET as described previously (Zila et al., 2021a). In brief, cells were transferred to glass-bottomed microwell of a MatTek dish (MatTek) containing carbon-coated and retronectin-coated sapphire discs (Engineering Office M. Wohlwend). Samples were high pressure frozen, and sapphire discs were then transferred from liquid nitrogen to the freeze-substitution (FS) medium (0.1% uranyl acetate, 2.3% methanol and 2% H_2O in acetone) tempered at -90°C. Samples were FS-processed and embedded in Lowicryl HM20 resin (Polysciences) according to a modified protocol of Kukulski et al. (Kukulski et al., 2011). For CLEM-ET, thick resin sections (250 nm) were cut and placed on a slot (1 × 2 mm) EM copper grids covered with a formvar film (Electron Microscopy Sciences, FF2010-Cu). Grids were decorated with fiducial marker and stained with Hoechst to visualize nuclear regions. Light microscopy Z stacks of sections were acquired by PerkinElmer UltraVIEW VoX 3D Spinning-disc Confocal Microscope (Perkin Elmer) using a 100 × oil immersion objective (NA 1.49; Nikon), with a z-spacing of 200 nm and excitation with the 405-, 488-, 561- and 633-nm laser line. Acquired z stacks were visually examined using Fiji software (Schindelin et al., 2012) and intracellular CA(SiR) positive signals were identified. EM grids were decorated with 15 nm protein-A gold particles for tomogram alignment and stained with uranyl acetate and lead citrate. Grids were loaded to a Tecnai TF20 (FEI) electron microscope (operated at 200 kV) equipped with a field emission gun and a 4K by 4K pixel Eagle CCD camera (FEI). Positions of CA(SiR) signals were pre-correlated with imported SDCM images in SerialEM as described previously (Schorb et al., 2017). Single-axis electron tomograms were carried out. Tomographic tilt ranges were typically from –60° to 60° with an angular increment of 1°. The pixel size was 1.13 nm. Alignments and 3D reconstructions of tomograms were done with IMOD software (Kremer et al., 1996). Post-correlation was performed using eC-CLEM plugin in Icy software (de Chaumont et al., 2012).

Image analysis

Microscopy images were screened and filtered in Fiji/ImageJ (Schindelin et al., 2012) with a mean filter and background subtraction. Infected cells were quantified in Fiji via segmentation and counting of nuclei and the cell counter to manually quantify the number of positive cells. To determine labeling efficiency of click labeled particles, CA(SiR) intensities of detected immobilized particles based on CA(IF) were quantified using the spot detector of the software Icy (de Chaumont et al., 2012). Five ROIs without particles were measured, and mean intensity in the SiR channel was subtracted as background. The threshold was set to t = 1,000 a.u.. CA(IF) detected spots with intensities above the threshold were classified as CA(SiR) positive.

To analyze particle distribution and intensity measurements throughout the entire volume of cells, z-image series were reconstructed in 3D space using Imaris 9.2 software (Bitplane AG). Individual HIV-1 CA(IF) objects were automatically detected using the spot detector Imaris module, which created for each fluorescent signal a 3D ellipsoid object with 300 nm estimated diameter in *x-y* dimensions and 600 nm in *z*. The local background of each individual spot was subtracted automatically. Subsequently, the mean signal intensity in the CA(SiR) channel was quantitated within all objects. The threshold for SiR intensity was set to t = 7,000 a.u. and adjusted manually for each image by visual inspection. Spots detected in SiR-clusters were excluded. Nuclear objects were manually identified based on the lamin A/C staining. NE-associated objects were classified based on lamin A/C intensities. Every image was manually inspected and a threshold for NE-associated objects was set in the range of 6,300-9,100 a.u.. All other particles were classified as PM/cytoplasm (= in the cytoplasm/at plasma membrane).

To identify post-fusion cores by mCLING ATTO488 staining, CA SiR positive objects were automatically detected using the spot detector Imaris module and the mCLING ATTO488 mean signal intensity co-localizing with each object was quantitated. Particles located outside of the cell, attached to the plasma membrane, or within clusters of foci were excluded from the analysis. Detected objects with the lowest mCLING ATTO488 intensities were individually inspected. Only particles showing a distinct CA SiR focus lacking the mCLING ATTO488 signal were classified as mCLING negative.

Fiji standard 'greyscale' lookup table (LUT) was used to visualize single channel

images and 'Fire' for single channel STED images.

Data visualization and statistical analysis

Statistical significance was assessed using Prism v9.1.0 (GraphPad Software Inc). A

two-tailed non-paired Mann-Whitney test (α = 0.05) was used to assess the statistical

significance of non-parametric data. Data were plotted using Prism v9.1.0 or the

Python statistical data visualization package seaborn v.0.10.0 (Waskom 2020) Graphs

show mean/median with error bars as defined in the figure legends.

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1158 **Figures**

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Figure 1. GCE and click labeling of HIV-1 CA. (a) Experimental scheme for GCE
and click-labeling. The system used here requires the introduction of an amber stop
codon (UAG) at a specific site into the CA coding sequence. A genetically engineered
bio-orthogonal tRNA / aminoacyl-tRNA synthetase pair mediates incorporation of a
non-canonical amino acid (ncAA) at the chosen position. In a second step, a highly
reactive group of the ncAA is covalently linked to a fluorophore carrying a cognate
reactive group (e.g., a tetrazine group reacting with a cyclopropene group at the ncAA
via strain-promoted inverse electron-demand Diels-Alder cycloaddition (SPIEDAC)).
Image created with BioRender.com. **(b)** The tetrazine-derivative of silicon rhodamine
(Tet-SiR) reacts with the strained alkene of the ncAA cyclopropene-L-lysine (CpK) via
SPIEDAC. The open SiR conformation results in fluorescence (highlighted in red).

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Figure 2. Production and characterization of click labeled HIV-1 (HIV-1*CA14^{SiR}).
(a) Morphology of HIV-1*CA14^{ncAA} assembly sites and particles. HEK293T cells were co-transfected with pNLC4-3*CA14^{TAG} and pNESPyIRS-eRF1dn-tRNA and grown in the presence of 500 µM CpK. At 44 h p.t., cells were fixed, embedded, and analyzed by thin-section EM as described in materials and methods. **(b,c)** Virus production. Click labeled particles were prepared from the supernatant of HEK293T cells co-transfected with either pNLC4-3* or pNLC4-3*CA14^{TAG} and pNESPyIRS-eRF1dn-tRNA and grown in the presence of 500 µM CpK as described in materials and methods. Particle yield in the final preparations was determined via quantitation of RT activity (SG-PERT assay; (Pizzato et al., 2009)) (b) and by determination of CA amounts using quantitative immunoblot as described in materials and methods (c). The graphs show mean values and SD from four independent experiments. **(d)** Immunoblot analysis of virus preparations. 5 µl HIV-1* and HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} particle lysates were separated by SDS-PAGE, and proteins were transferred to nitrocellulose membranes by semi-dry blotting. Viral proteins were detected using the indicated polyclonal antisera. Bound antibodies were detected by quantitative immunofluorescence with a Li-COR CLx infrared scanner, using secondary antibodies and protocols according to the manufacturer's instructions. Positions corresponding to Gag/Gag-Pol and processing products are indicated to the right.

Figure 3. Characterization of CA click labeled particles. (a) Specific fluorescent labeling of CA14[CpK]. Immunoblot analysis of virus preparations. 20 µl HIV-1* and HIV-1*CA14[SiR] particle lysates were separated by SDS-PAGE. In-gel fluorescence (bottom panel) was detected by scanning the gel on a Li-COR Clx infrared scanner set at an emission wavelength of 700 nm. Subsequently immunoblot analysis (top panel) was performed using the previously scanned gel. Proteins were transferred from the gel to a nitrocellulose membrane by semi-dry blotting. Viral proteins were detected using polyclonal antiserum raised against recombinant CA. Bound antibodies were detected by quantitative immunofluorescence with a Li-COR CLx infrared scanner, using secondary antibody and protocol according to the manufacturer's instructions. Please note that at the high amounts of particles loaded for efficient in-gel fluorescence detection the immunoblot detection is not within the linear range of the method, so that contaminating precursor bands appear overrepresented. **(b-e)** Analysis of labeling efficiency. Particles harvested from the supernatant of virus producing HEK239T cells

were subjected to click labeling. Particles were then immobilized on PEI coated

chamber slides, fixed, and permeabilized. Particles were immunostained using

antiserum raised against HIV-1 CA, and specimens were imaged by SDCM (b,c). Scale

bars 5 µm. **(d,e)** Hexabin plots of particles detected in (b,c). Mean intensities of

CA(SiR) are plotted against mean intensity CA(IF) for HIV-1* and HIV-1*CA14[SiR]. The

color intensity of the hexagons corresponds to the number of particles displaying the

indicated intensity values. The graphs represent pooled data from 12 fields of view

from three independent virus preparations. The red line indicates the threshold

t=1,000. **(f)** Infectivity of click labeled particles. The indicated virus particles were

prepared as in (b-e) and subjected to click labeling. Particle yield was assessed by RT

activity assay (Pizzato et al., 2009), and samples were titrated on TZM-bl indicator cells

seeded in 15-well ibidi µ-slide angiogenesis dishes. 50 µM T-20 was added at 6 h p.i.

to prevent second-round infection in the case of HIV-1*. Cells were fixed,

permeabilized, and immunostained using a polyclonal rabbit antiserum raised against

recombinant HIV-1 MA at 48 h p.i. Samples were imaged by SDCM. The percentage

of infected cells was determined using Fiji software. The graphs show mean values

and SD from six independent infection experiments using five independent particle

preparations (n=5,700-7,700 cells were counted per condition). Lines represent linear

regression based on the mean values. **(g)** Relative infectivity of a virus preparation (%

infected cells/mU RT) was determined as in (f), and the values obtained for HIV-

1*CA14[SiR] were normalized to the value obtained for HIV-1* virus in the same

experiment. All cells counted in (f) were used for quantification. The graph represents

the mean value and SD from six independent experiments.

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Figure 4. Detection of CA in the nucleus of infected HeLa-derived cells. TZM-bl cells were infected with HIV-1* or HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} particles (~MOI 0.8), treated with 15 µM PF74 for 1 h before fixation, fixed at 6, 9, 12 and 18 h p.i. and imaged by SDCM. **(a)** Single z slice of a representative cell infected with HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} at 18 h p.i. and one enlarged z slice are shown. Scale bars: 10 µm (cell) and 1 µm (enlargement). Mean filter and background subtraction was applied for clarity. The image shows a representative image from one of three independent experiments. See Figure S5 for additional data. **(b-d)** Infection time course of click labeled HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} compared to HIV-1*. Quantification of cells containing nuclear CA positive objects at the indicated times post infection for HIV-1* (black; CA(IF)), HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} (red; CA(IF)/CA(SiR)) and noninfected control (grey; CA(IF)). Mean values and SD from three independent experiments are shown (n>115 cells per timepoint). **(c)** Number of nuclear CA foci per cell determined for cells infected with HIV-1* (black) or HIV-1* CA14^{SiR} (red) at the indicated timepoints. n>120 cells were analyzed per sample. The median and interquartile lines are indicated in grey. **(d)** Localization of particles within the cell for HIV-1* (black) and HIV-1* CA14^{SiR} (red). The proportion of total particles per cell detected at the PM or in the cytoplasm (= PM/cytoplasm) at the nuclear envelope (=NE assoc.) or inside the nucleus was determined at the indicated time points. Data from two of three independent experiments are shown. Graphs show median of analyzed field of views in red (n>20 cells per condition) and interquartile lines.

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Figure 5. Dose dependent clustering of nuclear capsids in HeLa-derived cells.
TZM-bl cells were infected with HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} at the indicated MOI, treated with 15 µM
PF74 for 1 h before fixation at 18 h p.i., immunostained against CA (green) and lamin
A/C (blue) and imaged using an Abberior STED microscope setup. Mean filter and
background subtraction was applied to all images for clarity. **(a)** Micrographs of TZM-
bl cells infected with MOI ~0.8 (left) or MOI ~8 (right). Arrowheads indicate nuclear
CA(IF)/CA(SiR) positive objects shown enlarged in (b). Scale bars: 10 µm. **(b)**
Representative images of nuclear CA containing objects from cells infected with a low
MOI (MOI~0.8, left panel) or a high MOI (MOI~8, right panel). CA(IF) and CA(SiR)
were imaged in confocal mode (top and middle row, respectively). CA(SiR) images
were also recorded in STED mode (bottom row). The figure shows four representative
foci each from one of two individual experiments. Mean filter and background
subtraction were applied. Scale bars: 500 nm. **(c)** Diffraction-limited nuclear foci were
analyzed by STED nanoscopy in cells infected with MOI~0.8 (n = 32 foci) or MOI~8 (n
=47 foci) and classified by the number of individual capsids per focus.

Figure 6. Largely intact capsids are detected in the nucleus of HeLa-derived cells. TZM-bl cells were infected with HIV-1* or HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} (MOI~0.8), treated with 15 μM PF74 for 1 h before fixation at 18 h p.i. and imaged by SDCM. **(a)** Scheme of the relative CA content in complete virions (~2,400 CA) on glass/plasma membrane or in endosomes in the cytosol. Post-fusion capsids contain only the CA molecules incorporated into the mature capsid lattice (~1,500 CA). Image created with BioRender. **(b)** Quantification of CA(SiR) intensities associated with CA(IF) positive objects at the indicated localizations. Data from three independent experiments are shown. Cells from 7 fields of view were analyzed ($n_{particles}$= 6,441 PM/cytoplasm, 135 nucleus). Lines indicate median values (PM/cytoplasm: 17,649.22 ± 11,663.47; nucleus: 9,835.08 ± 5,708.14) and interquartile range. Significance was determined by two-tailed Student`s t-test (*** < 0.001). **(c-g)** TZM-bl cells were infected with HIV-1*CA14^{SiR}, treated with DMSO **(c,d)** or 15 μM PF74 **(e,f)** for 1h before fixation at 18 h p.i.. Cells were immunostained against lamin A/C and HIV-1 CA or CPSF6 and subsequently imaged by SDCM. Scale bars: 10 μm (cells) and 1 μm (enlargements). **(d)** Quantification of intensity profile measured across the dashed line in **(c,ii.)** for CA(SiR) and CPSF6. **(f)** Quantification of intensity profile measured across the dashed line in **(e,iv.)** for CA (SiR) and CPSF6. **(g)** Quantification of CA(SiR) intensities of nuclear objects. TZM-bl cells

1290   were treated with DMSO (n=115) or 2 µM (n=58), 7.5 µM (n=110), 15 µM (n=69) PF74

1291   for 1 h prior fixation at 17 h p.i.. Graphs show median values (DMSO: 2,7255; 2 µM:

1292   2,8334.51; 7.5 µM: 3,0749.45; 15 µM: 3,0957) and interquartile range.

Figure 7. Largely complete click labeled capsid structures detected in the nucleus of primary CD4+ T cells and T cell line. (a) Activated CD4+ T cells were infected with HIV-1*CA14SiR (MOI~0.8), treated with DMSO/PF74 treatment for 1 h before fixation at 24 h p.i., and extracted with methanol. Samples were immunostained against CA (green) and lamin A/C (blue). Images show a single z slice through the cell. Enlargements show the particle marked by the arrowhead. Scale bars: 10 μm (overview) and 1 μm (enlargement). **(b)** Data analyzed from the experiment outlined in (a). The graph shows the number of CA positive foci per nucleus in cells infected with HIV-1* (n=35 cells, mean=0.85) or HIV-1*CA14SiR (n= 73 cells, mean=0.51). Pooled data from 6 different blood donors are shown. Grey lines show median and interquartile lines. **(c)** CA(SiR) intensities of nuclear objects in infected and activated CD4+ T cells at an MOI~0.8 (n=13; mean=12,485 ± 7,445 a.u.) and an MOI ~8 (n=7; mean=39,502 ± 18,025 a.u.). MOI was determined in TZM-bl cells. Grey lines show median and interquartile lines. **(d-f)** Nuclear cone-shaped capsids detected by CLEM-ET. SupT1

cells were treated with 1 μM aphidicolin (APC) for 16 h to prevent cell division, before

infection with HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} virions (2.3 μU RT/cell, corresponds to an MOI~0.4

determined in TZM-bl cells). At 24 h p.i., cells were cryo-immobilized by high-pressure

freezing, freeze substituted, and further processed for CLEM and ET as described in

materials and methods. **(d)** SDCM image of a 250-nm thick resin section of the cell

infected with HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} virions (magenta), post-stained with Hoechst (blue) and

decorated with multi-fluorescent fiducials (Fd) for correlation. The arrowhead in the

enlargement of the boxed region indicates a CA(SiR) signal within the Hoechst-stained

nuclear region. Scale bars: 1 μm (overview) and 200 nm (enlargement). **(e)**

Computational slices through tomographic reconstructions at the correlated region

boxed in (d) with views highlighting the presence of clustered capsid-reminiscent

structures (black arrowheads) in the nuclear region. Nu, nucleus; NPC, nuclear pore

complex; NE, nuclear envelope. Scale bar: 100 nm. **(f)** Segmented and isosurface

rendered structure of the cones detected in (e). Magenta: capsid, yellow: NE, cyan:

NPC (cryo-EM map of NPC: EMD-11967 (Zila et al., 2021a)). See also supplementary

movie 1.