1	Direct capsid labeling of infectious HIV-1 by genetic code expansion allows		
2	detection of largely complete nuclear capsids and suggests nuclear entry of		
3	HIV-1 complexes via common routes		
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19	expansion, primary CD4 ⁺ T cells, electron microscopy, correlative microscopy, STED,		
20	super-resolution microscopy		

2

21 Abstract

22 The cone-shaped mature HIV-1 capsid is the main orchestrator of early viral 23 replication. After cytosolic entry, it transports the viral replication complex along 24 microtubules towards the nucleus. Capsid uncoating from the viral genome apparently occurs beyond the nuclear pore. Observation of post-entry events via microscopic 25 26 detection of HIV-1 capsid protein (CA) is challenging, since epitope shielding limits immunodetection, and the genetic fragility of CA hampers other labeling 27 28 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-29 30 1 CA, while retaining virus morphology and infectivity. Thereby, we could directly visualize virions and subviral complexes using advanced microscopy, including 31 32 nanoscopy and correlative imaging. Quantification of signal intensities of subviral complexes showed that the amount of CA associated with nuclear complexes in HeLa-33 derived cells and primary T cells is consistent with a complete capsid and revealed that 34 treatment with the small molecule inhibitor PF74 did not result in capsid dissociation 35 from nuclear complexes. Cone-shaped objects detected in the nucleus by electron 36 37 tomography were clearly identified as capsid-derived structures by correlative 38 microscopy. High-resolution imaging revealed dose-dependent clustering of nuclear 39 capsids, suggesting that incoming particles may follow common entry routes.

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41 Introduction

42 The cone-shaped capsid that encases the viral RNA genome and replication proteins 43 is a characteristic feature of infectious human immunodeficiency virus type 1 (HIV-1) 44 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 45 46 structure at the center stage of post-entry replication steps (reviewed in e.g., (Aiken 47 and Rousso, 2021; Engelman, 2021; Guedan et al., 2021; James, 2019; Novikova et 48 al., 2019). Upon fusion of the virion envelope with the cell membrane, the capsid, which 49 consists of ~1,200-1,500 monomers of the capsid protein CA (Briggs et al., 2003), is 50 released into the cytosol. It then usurps host cell factors to traffic towards the nucleus. 51 Reverse transcription of the viral RNA into dsDNA is initiated during passage of the 52 subviral structure through the cytosol. Following import into the nucleus, the viral 53 dsDNA is covalently integrated into the host cell genome by the viral integrase. Prior to integration, the surrounding capsid shell needs to expose the dsDNA in a process 54 termed uncoating. However, the precise mechanisms, location, and timing of capsid 55 uncoating are still under investigation. 56

Initially, the HIV-1 capsid was presumed to rapidly dissociate upon cell entry, based 57 58 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 59 60 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., 61 62 2013). However, the finding that CA or the capsid lattice, directly interacts with various host factors involved in post-entry replication steps (cytosolic proteins, including 63 64 proteins involved in microtubular transport, but also nucleoporins and even the nuclear 65 protein CPSF6; reviewed in (Engelman, 2021; Naghavi, 2021; Saito and Yamashita, 66 2021)) implied involvement of at least a partial lattice structure in later stages of post-67 entry replication. Furthermore, increasing evidence from imaging-based analyses argued for capsid uncoating at the nuclear pore (Burdick et al., 2017; Francis et al., 68 2020a; Francis et al., 2016; Francis and Melikyan, 2018), or even indicated passage 69 70 of (nearly) intact capsids through nuclear pores (Burdick et al., 2020; Li et al., 2021; Muller et al., 2021; Zila et al., 2021). The recent detection of cone-shaped objects in 71 72 the nuclear pore channel and inside the nucleus by correlative light and electron 73 microscopy (CLEM) (Zila et al., 2021), and intranuclear separation of CA or IN from

reverse transcribed dsDNA (Muller et al., 2021) also support the model that the nucleus

is the site of HIV-1 uncoating.

One explanation for apparent discrepancies between different studies are the methods 76 that have been used for CA detection in fluorescence microscopy. Since the 77 modification of CA by genetic labeling strategies proved to be challenging, most studies 78 79 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 80 81 al., 2017; Peng et al., 2014; Zila et al., 2019). A limitation of IF is that staining efficiency 82 may vary substantially depending on the antibody and detection conditions used, as 83 well as on differential exposure or shielding of epitopes due to conformational changes 84 or different intracellular environments. We could indeed show previously that immunostaining efficiency of CA in the nucleus of host cells strongly depends on cell 85 86 type and experimental conditions (Muller et al., 2021). Furthermore, IF is incompatible 87 with live cell analyses. Infectious HIV-1 derivatives carrying fluorescent CA would 88 resolve these limitations and allow the direct observation of entering capsids with 89 quantitative analyses.

90 Direct genetic labeling of viral capsid proteins is challenging, however. Capsid proteins 91 are generally small proteins that need to assemble into ordered multimeric lattices. The 92 resulting assemblies must be stable during virus formation and transmission to a new 93 target cell, but also ready to disassemble in the newly infected cell, requiring structural 94 flexibility of the protomers. Beyond protein-protein interactions involved in capsid 95 assembly itself, capsid proteins generally undergo crucial interactions with other 96 components of the virion, e.g., the viral genome. Finally, the capsid surface represents 97 an essential contact interface between virus and host cell in the early phase of 98 infection, mediating cell entry in the case of non-enveloped viruses, or interacting with 99 critical host cell dependency or restriction factors in the case of enveloped viruses. 100 Consequently, a large proportion of the surface exposed amino acids of a viral capsid 101 protein is involved in intermolecular contacts that are crucial for virus replication, which 102 renders these proteins highly susceptible to genetic modification. Fusion of a capsid 103 protein to a relatively large genetic label, e.g., green fluorescent protein (GFP) or other 104 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

108 molecular mass of ~24 kDa, mature CA is of a similar size as GFP. Hexa- and 109 pentamers of CA are the core structural elements of the immature Gag polyprotein 110 shell forming the nascent virus bud in HIV-1 producing cells, as well as of the mature 111 capsid lattice. CA pentamers, immature and mature hexamers employ different 112 protein-protein interfaces; together, these interfaces involve most of the exposed 113 surface of the CA monomer (reviewed in (Mattei et al., 2016)). Accordingly, scanning 114 mutagenesis analyses found HIV-1 CA to be highly genetically fragile (Rihn et al., 115 2013; von Schwedler et al., 2003), with up to 89% of single amino acid exchanges 116 tested abolishing or severely affecting virus replication (Rihn et al., 2013). It is thus not 117 surprising that the introduction of genetically encoded labels - GFP or even a small 118 peptide tag - at various positions within HIV-1 CA have resulted in loss or severe 119 reduction of infectivity. Complementation with wild-type (wt) virus, from at least 120 equimolar amounts of wt CA to a substantial molar excess, was essential to restore 121 virus infectivity (Burdick et al., 2020; Campbell et al., 2008; Pereira et al., 2011; Zurnic 122 Bonisch et al., 2020). While the use of wt complemented particles can be sufficient for 123 fluorescent labeling, it is unclear whether the modified CA molecules are an integral 124 part of the mature CA lattice; only \sim 50% of CA molecules present inside the virion are 125 eventually used to form the mature capsid (Briggs et al., 2004; Lanman et al., 2004), 126 and incorporated fusion proteins may be preferentially excluded or less stably 127 integrated into the mature lattice.

We therefore established and applied a minimal invasive labeling strategy for HIV-1 128 129 CA based on genetic code expansion and click labeling. This method involves the 130 exchange of a selected amino acid residue in the protein of interest with a non-131 canonical amino acid (ncAA) carrying a highly reactive bio-orthogonal functional group 132 by a process termed amber suppression (Figure 1a); this residue is subsequently 133 covalently coupled to a fluorophore functionalized with a cognate reaction partner 134 (Figure 1a; reviewed in e.g. (Lang and Chin, 2014; Muller et al., 2019; Nikic and Lemke, 135 2015)). Using this approach, we generated a CA-labeled HIV-1 derivative that largely 136 retained infectivity; in contrast to previous approaches for direct CA labeling, our 137 minimally modified derivative did not require complementation with wt virus. Direct 138 labeling with a bright and photostable chemical dye allows the application of various 139 imaging methods, i.e., live-cell imaging, super-resolution nanoscopy, or CLEM. The 140 virus variant click labeled with a bright and photostable chemical dye thus enabled us 141 to directly assess the amount of CA associated with entering subviral complexes

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outside and within the nucleus of infected HeLa-derived cells and primary CD4⁺ Tcells, 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.

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147 **Results**

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

149 To allow for minimally invasive labeling of HIV-1 CA by genetic code expansion (GCE; 150 Figure 1a), we introduced an amber stop codon at a position of interest into the CA 151 coding sequence within the gag open reading frame of the proviral plasmid pNLC4-3 152 (Bohne and Krausslich, 2004). In order to avoid GCE modification of the viral protein 153 R (Vpr), which is incorporated into the virion in high amounts (Muller et al., 2000), we 154 first exchanged the amber stop codon of vpr to an opal codon (TGA), resulting in 155 plasmid pNLC4-3*. Albeit this mutation did not alter the coding sequence of viral 156 proteins or virion infectivity, the corresponding virus was termed HIV-1* to indicate this 157 modification. Since neither the efficiency of amber suppression in a given sequence 158 context in eukaryotic cells, nor the effect of ncAA incorporation on viral functionality 159 can be predicted with certainty, we tested a panel of 18 amber mutations at sites 160 located towards the outer surface of the capsid lattice for suppression efficiency and 161 virus infectivity (Schifferdecker, Sakin et al., in preparation). Based on a comparison of 162 Gag expression levels and viral infectivity upon ncAA incorporation, we selected a virus 163 variant in which residue alanine 14 in CA was replaced by a non-canonical amino acid (HIV-1*CA14^{ncAA}) for further analyses. 164

165 For virus preparation, HEK293T cells were co-transfected with the respective mutant 166 proviral plasmid and pNESPyIRS-eRF1dn-tRNA. The latter plasmid encodes for a 167 complete amber suppression system, consisting of modified tRNA, a cognate 168 genetically engineered pyrrolysine aminoacyl-tRNA synthetase (Nikic et al., 2016), and 169 a dominant-negative version of the eukaryotic release factor eRF1 that improves 170 amber suppression efficiency in eukaryotic cells (Schmied et al., 2014). To produce 171 functionalized virus particles, cells were grown in the presence of the small ncAA 172 cyclopropene lysine (CpK). While truncation of Gag at position 14 of CA would prevent 173 virus formation, incorporation of CpK by amber suppression should result in the expression of full-length Gag and thereby promote HIV-1 particle assembly. 174

175 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 176 177 presence of CpK, whereas full-length Gag was not detected when CpK was omitted from the growth medium (Figure S1). Thin-section electron microscopy (EM) revealed 178 179 late budding sites and immature- as well as mature-like virions at the plasma 180 membrane and in the vicinity of HIV-1*CA14^{ncAA} expressing cells, that were 181 morphologically indistinguishable from typical HIV-1 wild-type (wt) budding sites and virions (Figure 1b). We concluded that Gag expression of HIV-1*CA14^{TAG} is ncAA 182 183 dependent and the modified CA domain is competent for immature and mature lattice 184 assembly.

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186 Characterization of click labeled HIV-1 virions

We next prepared virus particles from the supernatant of HIV-1*CA14^{ncAA} producing 187 cells and subjected them to click labeling using the membrane-permeable dye silicon 188 rhodamine tetrazine (SiR-Tet; (Lukinavicius et al., 2013)), generating HIV-1*CA14^{SiR}. 189 190 As a control, HIV-1* wt particles were prepared under amber suppression conditions 191 and stained in parallel. Consistent with the detection of viral assembly sites and 192 particles in electron micrographs (Figure 1b), virus was recovered from the tissue culture supernatant of HIV-1*CA14^{ncAA} expressing cells. Particle yields were somewhat 193 194 reduced compared to the HIV-1* wt control, in line with the fact that amber suppression 195 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 196 obtained 5-10-fold lower yields for HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} compared to HIV-1* (Figure 1c, d). 197 Consistent with the observation of morphologically mature particles by EM, click 198 199 labeled particles displayed regular Gag and GagPol processing products (Figure 1e), 200 with clear bands for mature RT heterodimer (p51, p66) and mature CA (p24). In-gel 201 fluorescence revealed a distinct SiR labeled band corresponding to a mass of 202 approximately 24 kDa for HIV-1*CA14^{SiR}, but not for HIV-1* control particles (Figure 203 1f). Taken together, these findings indicate specific GCE-dependent labeling of CA via 204 amber suppression at position 14 of HIV-1 CA.

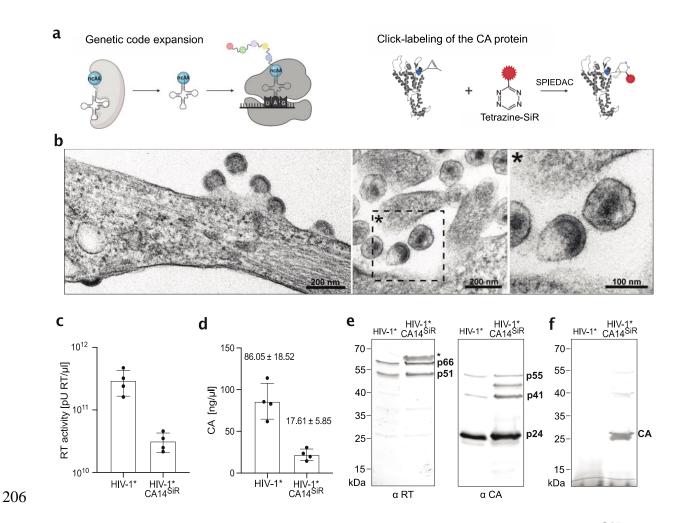


Figure 1. Production and characterization of click labeled HIV-1 (HIV-1*CA14^{SiR}). (a) 207 208 Experimental scheme for GCE and click-labeling. The system used here requires the 209 introduction of an amber stop codon (UAG) at a specific site into the coding sequence of the 210 protein of interest. A genetically engineered bio-orthogonal tRNA / aminoacyl-tRNA synthetase 211 pair mediates incorporation of a non-canonical amino acid (ncAA) at the chosen position. In a 212 second step, a highly reactive group of the ncAA is covalently linked to a fluorophore carrying 213 a cognate reactive group (e.g., a tetrazine group reacting with a cyclopropane group at the 214 ncAA via strain-promoted inverse electron-demand Diels-Alder cycloaddition (SPIEDAC)). 215 Image created with BioRender.com (b) Morphology of HIV-1*CA14^{ncAA} assembly sites and particles. HEK293T cells were co-transfected with pNLC4-3*CA14^{TAG} and pNESPyIRS-216 217 eRF1dn-tRNA and grown in the presence of 550 µM CpK. At 44 h p.t., cells were fixed, 218 embedded, and analyzed by thin-section EM as described in materials and methods. (c,d) 219 Virus production. Click labeled particles were prepared from the supernatant of HEK293T cells 220 co-transfected with either pNLC4-3* or pNLC4-3*CA14^{TAG} and pNESPyIRS-eRF1dn-tRNA. 221 Cells were grown in the presence of 500 µM CpK as described in materials and methods. 222 Particle yield in the final preparations was determined via quantitation of RT activity (SG-PERT 223 assay; (Pizzato et al., 2009)) (c) and by determination of CA amounts using quantitative 224 immunoblot as described in materials and methods (d). The graphs show mean values and

225 SD from four independent experiments. (e) Immunoblot analysis of virus preparations. Particle 226 lysates were separated by SDS-PAGE, and proteins were transferred to nitrocellulose 227 membranes by semi-dry blotting. Viral proteins were detected using polyclonal antisera raised 228 against recombinant HIV-1 RT or CA. Bound antibodies were detected by quantitative 229 immunofluorescence with a Li-COR CLx infrared scanner, using secondary antibodies and 230 protocols according to the manufacturer's instructions. An asterisk indicates non-specific 231 reactivity with bovine serum albumin carried over from the medium (f) In-gel fluorescence. 232 Particle lysates prepared as in (e) were separated by SDS-PAGE, and the acrylamide gel was 233 scanned using a Li-COR CLx infrared scanner set at an emission wavelength of 700 nm.

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235 Fluorescence labeling and infectivity of click labeled virions

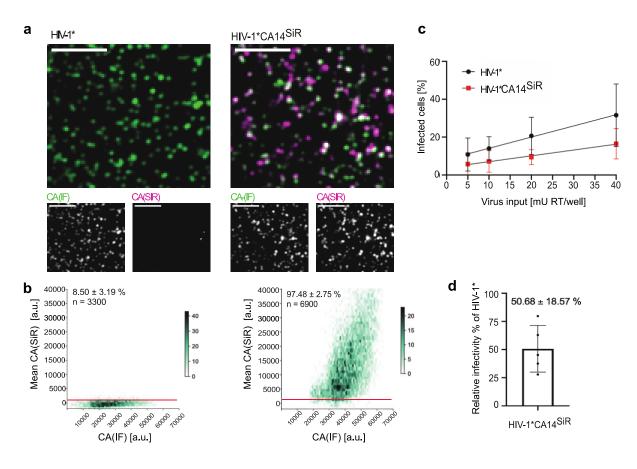
236 To test specificity and efficiency of SiR staining, labeled particles adhered to a glass 237 chamber slide were fixed, permeabilized, and immunostained with antiserum raised 238 against HIV-1 CA to validate that detected signals corresponded to virus particles. 239 Confocal micrographs were recorded in the channels corresponding to the CA 240 immunofluorescence (IF) stain (green) and direct CA labeling with SiR (magenta) 241 (Figure 2a). Regions of interest (ROIs) corresponding to the position of virus particles 242 were defined based on CA(IF) signals. Measurement of SiR fluorescence intensities in 243 these ROIs revealed weak background staining in the case of HIV-1* (Figure 2a, left 244 panel). In contrast, distinct SiR signals co-localizing with CA(IF) punctae were detected for HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} (Figure 2a, right panel). Quantitative analyses of images from 245 multiple independent experiments confirmed this visual impression (Figure 2b). Only 246 247 ~8.5% of HIV-1* particles were classified as SiR positive, with fluorescence intensities 248 only slightly above the background level (~1,000 a.u.). In contrast, >95% HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} particles displayed clear SiR staining, with a mean fluorescence intensity of 249 250 ~15,000 a.u. Variation in SiR fluorescence intensities between individual particles is 251 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 252 253 SiR signal intensities observed also indicates a range of click labeling efficiencies. Despite some variability in the preparation, the vast majority of HIV-1*CA14^{CpK} particles 254 255 could be efficiently click labeled with SiR, attaining fluorescence intensities suitable for fluorescence microscopy of infected cells. 256

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

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particles on TZM-bl cells, followed by immunostaining against the HIV-1 matrix protein
(MA) to identify infected cells. As shown in Figures 2c and d, relative infectivity of HIV1*CA14^{SiR} was only mildly reduced by an average of ~2-fold compared to HIV-1*, 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.

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268 Figure 2. Characterization of CA click labeled particles. (a) Analysis of labeling efficiency. 269 Particles harvested from the supernatant of virus producing HEK239T cells were subjected to 270 click labeling. Particles were then immobilized on PEI coated chamber slides, fixed, and 271 permeabilized. Particles were immunostained using antiserum raised against HIV-1 CA, and 272 specimens were imaged by spinning disk confocal microscopy (SDCM). Scale bars 5 µm. (b) 273 Hexabin plots of detected particles. Mean intensities of CA(SiR) are plotted against mean 274 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 275 276 represent pooled data from 12 fields of view from three independent virus preparations. The 277 red line indicates the threshold t=1,000. (c) Infectivity of click labeled particles. The indicated 278 virus particles were prepared as in (a) and subjected to click labeling. Particle yield was

279 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 6 280 281 h p.i. to prevent second-round infection in the case of wt. Cells were fixed, permeabilized, and 282 immunostained using a polyclonal rabbit antiserum raised against recombinant HIV-1 MA at 283 48 h p.i. Samples were imaged by SDCM. The percentage of infected cells was determined 284 using Fiji software. The graphs show mean values and SD from five independent infection 285 experiments using five independent particle preparations (n=5,700-7,700 cells were counted 286 per condition). Lines represent linear regression based on the mean values. (d) Relative 287 infectivity of a virus preparation (% infected cells/mU RT) was determined as in (c), and the 288 values obtained for HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} were normalized to the value obtained for HIV-1* virus in 289 the same experiment. All cells counted in (c) were used for quantification. The graph 290 represents the mean value and SD from five independent experiments.

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293 Detection of click labeled HIV-1 in infected cells

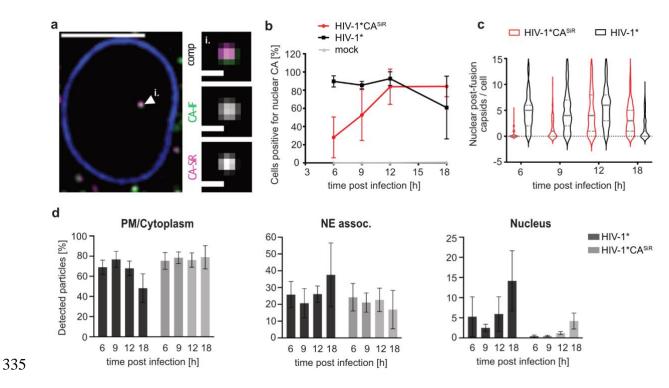
294 Having established a suitable labeling strategy, we used labeled particles to infect 295 target cells. Initial experiments were performed in the model cell line HeLa TZM-bl. Cells infected with HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} at an MOI~0.8 were fixed at 18 h post infection (h 296 p.i.). Immunostaining with antiserum against CA was performed under conditions that 297 298 allow for immunodetection of cytosolic and nuclear complexes (Muller et al., 2021) to 299 validate that detected SiR signals corresponded to HIV-1 particles. Labeled particles 300 could be visualized by spinning disc confocal microscopy (SDCM) in the cellular 301 environment (Figure S2). Confocal images revealed punctate SiR signals in the 302 cytosol, close to the nuclear envelope and within the nucleus of infected cells. Colocalization with CA(IF) staining confirmed that these signals represented entering viral 303 304 structures (Figure 3a and Figure S3).

Next, TZM-bl cells infected with HIV-1* or HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} were fixed and analyzed for 305 306 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 307 308 2021), we observed nuclear CA(IF) positive foci in HIV-1* infected cells as early as 6 h post infection (Figure 3b, black), while such signals were absent in noninfected cells 309 310 (Figure 3b, 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 3b, 311 magenta). Nuclear entry appeared to be delayed for HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} compared to HIV-312

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1* by approximately 12 h. Nevertheless, comparable numbers of cells with detectable capsid-like objects in the nucleus and the number of objects per cell were reached between 12 and 18 h p.i. (Figure 3b and c). At 12 h p.i., HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} reached the highest number of nuclear particles per cell, with an average of 4.58 \pm 4.12, similar to HIV-1* with 5.91 \pm 4.11.

318 Delayed detection of subviral complexes in the nucleus may be due to slower uptake, 319 slower trafficking towards the nuclear envelope, delayed passage through the NPC, or 320 a combination thereof. In order to distinguish between these possibilities, we extended 321 the time-resolved quantification to objects in close vicinity to the nuclear envelope 322 (Figure 3d). This analysis revealed that the HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} derived subviral structures 323 reached the nuclear envelope with similar kinetics to HIV-1* particles (Figure 3d, NE 324 assoc.). A comparable average proportion of CA containing objects was detected at 325 the nuclear envelope in both cases at 6 h, while the numbers of nuclear capsids were lower for HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} at that time (Figure 3d, Nucleus). In contrast, the highest 326 proportion of HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} nuclear objects with 4.20 ± 1.80% was detected at 18 h 327 328 p.i., while HIV-1* reached similar levels already at 6 h p.i. We conclude that uptake and intracellular trafficking of HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} complexes occurs with similar efficiency as for 329 the wt virus, but transport into the nucleus is slower, offering a possible explanation for 330 the slightly reduced infectivity of HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} virions. This implies that the 331 332 mechanistic action of the capsid in nuclear import underlies tight margins with respect 333 to its biophysical properties.



336 Figure 3. 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, 337 fixed at 6, 9, 12 and 18 h p.i. and imaged by SDCM. (a) Single z slice of a representative cell 338 infected with HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} at 18 h p.i. and one enlarged z slice are shown. Scale bars: 10 µm 339 340 (cell) and 1 µm (enlargement). Mean filter and background subtraction was applied for clarity. 341 The image shows a representative image from one of three independent experiments. See Figure S2 and S3 for additional data. (b-d) Infection time course of click labeled HIV-1*CA14^{SIR} 342 compared to HIV-1*. (b) Quantification of cells positive for nuclear CA positive objects over 343 time post infection for HIV-1* (black: CA(IF)), HIV-1* CA14^{SiR} (red: CA(IF)/CA(SiR)) and 344 345 noninfected control (grey; CA(IF)). Mean values and SD from three independent experiments 346 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 347 348 were analyzed per sample. The median and quartile lines are indicated in grey. (d) Localization of particles within a cell for HIV-1* (dark grey) and HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} (light grey). The proportion of 349 350 total particles per cell detected at the PM or in the cytoplasm (= PM/cytoplasm) at the nuclear 351 envelope (=NE associated) or inside the nucleus was determined at the indicated time points. 352 Data from two of three independent experiments are shown. n>20 cells were analyzed per 353 time point, and error bars represent the SD of the mean. 354

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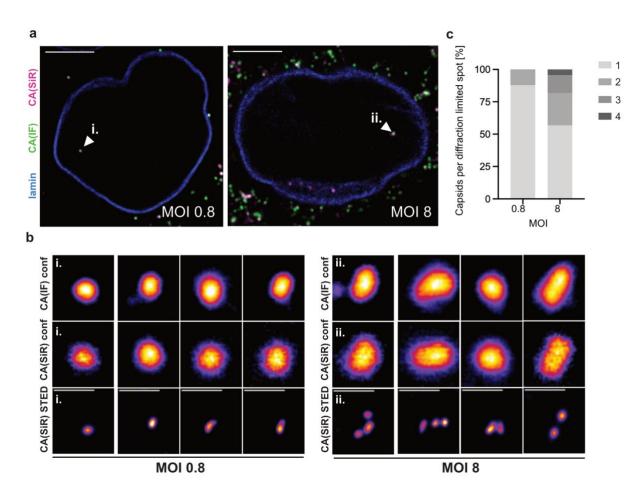
358 Characterization of nuclear CA^{SiR} containing complexes

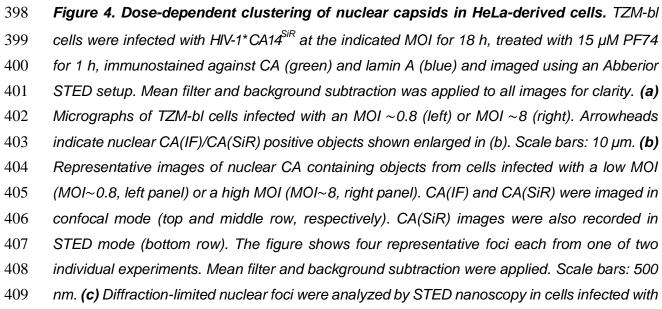
359 A long-standing question in the field of HIV-1 early replication is the question of when 360 and where capsid uncoating takes place. The possibility to directly detect CA 361 molecules clicked to a synthetic fluorophore enabled us to assess the amounts of CA 362 associated with subviral complexes at different intracellular sites, without the influence 363 of differential epitope accessibility or of a tag domain that potentially confers different 364 properties to a subpopulation of CA molecules. Nevertheless, comparing labeling 365 intensities for nuclear, cytoplasmic, and extracellular particle-associated structures 366 may be confounded in diffraction-limited microscopy by the failure to resolve closely 367 adjacent individual capsids. Clusters of nuclear capsids had indeed been observed by CLEM analyses in our previous study (Muller et al., 2021). 368

369 To determine whether nuclear cluster formation occurred under our conditions, we 370 exploited the fact that the chemical dye conjugated to the capsid surface renders the 371 modified virus suitable for super-resolution microscopy. With a lateral resolution of <50 372 nm, STED nanoscopy allows visual separation of closely adjacent CA objects. TZM-bl cells were infected with HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} at two different MOIs. An MOI of ~0.8 373 374 corresponded to the conditions generally used in our experiments; a 10-fold higher 375 virus dose (MOI ~8) was applied in a parallel experiment to potentially enhance capsid 376 clustering. At 18 h p.i., cells were fixed, immunostained against CA, and imaged using 377 a STED system in confocal and STED mode (Figure 4). Nuclear CA(IF)/(SiR) double-378 positive objects were detected under both conditions (Figure 4a, arrowheads). While 379 these objects appeared as individual punctae in diffraction-limited micrographs from 380 the IF and SiR channels at both MOIs (Figure 4b, top and middle row), imaging of the 381 SiR channel in STED mode revealed differences between individual punctae. Some 382 diffraction-limited punctae in the nucleus represented individual capsid-like objects 383 when imaged by STED (Figure 4b, left panel, bottom row). In contrast, other punctae 384 were resolved into small clusters of 2-4 closely apposed CA-containing objects by 385 super-resolution microscopy (Figure 4b, right, bottom panel), consistent with 386 observations made by electron tomography (Muller et al., 2021; Zila et al., 2021). A 387 quantitative analysis of cluster sizes (Figure 4c) revealed that the propensity for capsid 388 clustering in the nucleus correlated with the amount of virus used for infection: at an 389 MOI~0.8, the vast majority of punctae (~88%) corresponded to individual capsid-like 390 objects in the nucleus, and clusters of more than two objects were not observed. On 391 the other hand, almost half of the nuclear punctae (~43%) corresponded to clusters of

392 2-4 objects when cells were infected with the high MOI~8. We conclude that nuclear
393 capsid clustering is rarely observed at the MOI of 0.8 used throughout this study. The
394 previously observed capsid clustering in distinct nuclear positions appears to occur
395 preferentially at high MOI.

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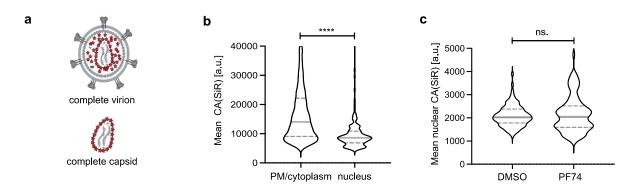


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410 an MOI~0.8 (n = 33) and an MOI~8 (n = 44) and classified by the number of individual capsids 411 per focus.

412 We next proceeded to SiR fluorescence intensity measurements, comparing the signal 413 intensity of extranuclear HIV-1 particles to that of subviral structures in the nucleus. 414 Staining of the plasma membrane with mCling before infection revealed that under our 415 conditions most cell-associated particles in the cytosolic region represented virions 416 present in endosomes, corresponding to a pre-fusion state of the virus (Figure S4). To 417 ensure that these extranuclear punctae represented single objects, cytoplasmic foci were analyzed in STED mode. We found that \sim 95% (n=79) of analyzed objects 418 419 corresponded to an individual object, while only \sim 5% (n=4) of these foci were resolved 420 into two objects by nanoscopy (Figure S5). As illustrated by the cartoon in Figure 5a, 421 complete virions comprise on average ~2,400 CA molecules, while only ~1,200-1,500 422 of these are part of the mature fullerene capsid (Briggs 2003, Carlson 2008, Lanman 423 2004) that represents a post-fusion state. Assuming equal click labeling efficiency of 424 CA14^{ncAA} for molecules that are part of the mature lattice and those that remain free in 425 the viral volume, the average SiR intensity of complete capsids would be expected to 426 correspond to ~60% of the average intensity of complete virions from the same 427 preparation. We infected TZM-bl cells at an MOI of 0.8 and quantified the SiR intensity 428 of >6,000 virions attached to the cell or in the cytosolic region and of >100 nuclear 429 punctae. The average SiR intensity of cell-attached and (mostly) endosomal particles 430 in the cytosolic region exhibited an average of 17,649 a.u.. In contrast, the SiR intensity of nuclear subviral structures averaged 9,835 a.u. (Figure 5b), i.e., ~56% of the 431 432 average intensity of complete virions, in line with the predicted relative CA content of 433 the mature capsid. Based on these findings, we conclude that the CA(SiR) containing 434 objects in the nuclei of these cells correspond approximately to a full complement of 435 the mature capsid.

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439 Figure 5. Largely intact capsids are detected in the nucleus of HeLa-derived cells. TZMbl cells were infected with HIV-1* or HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} (MOI~0.8), treated with 15 μM PF74 for 1 440 441 h before fixation at the indicated time points and imaged by SDCM. (a) Scheme of the relative 442 CA content in complete virions (~ 2,400 CA) on glass/plasma membrane or in endosomes in 443 the cytosol. Post-fusion capsids contain only the CA molecules incorporated into the mature 444 capsid lattice (~ 1,500 CA). Image created with BioRender (b) Quantification of CA(SiR) 445 intensities associated with CA(IF) positive objects at the indicated localizations. Data from 446 three independent experiments are shown. Cells from seven fields of view were analyzed 447 (n_{particles}= 6,441 PM/cytoplasm, 135 nucleus). Lines indicate median values (PM/cytoplasm: 448 17,649.22 ± 11,663.47; nucleus: 9,835.08 ± 5,708.14) and interguartile range. Significance 449 was determined by two-tailed Student's t-test (*** < 0.001). (c) Quantification of CA(SiR) 450 intensities of nuclear objects. TZM-bl cells were treated with DMSO or 15 µM PF74 for 1 h 451 prior fixation at 17 h p.i.. Lines indicate median values (DMSO: 2,086.83 ± 456.35, n=100; 452 PF74: 2,164.51 ± 783.45, n=100) and interguartile range. Significance was determined by two-453 tailed Student's t-test (n.s. >0.05).

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455 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 456 457 the nuclear host protein CPSF6; the compound inhibits HIV-1 replication by multiple 458 mechanisms (reviewed in (Thenin-Houssier and Valente, 2016)). Treatment with high 459 concentrations of PF74 has been reported to destabilize the capsid ((Blair et al., 2010; Price et al., 2014; Shi et al., 2011), but data obtained using CA(IF) detection argued 460 against a PF74 induced loss of CA from nuclear complexes (Müller 2021). Since we 461 462 cannot exclude that results obtained by immunodetection are influenced by differential CA epitope exposure, we re-addressed this issue employing direct CA labeling. TZM-463 bl cells were infected with HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} particles for 17 h and treated with 15 µM 464 PF74 or DMSO for 1 h, followed by fixation, permeabilization, methanol extraction, and 465 SDCM imaging. As shown in Figure 5c, CPSF6 was removed from the subviral 466

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467 complexes, in accordance with earlier results (Muller et al., 2021). In contrast, mean
 468 CA(SiR) intensity remained unaltered, indicating that the capsid remains largely stable
 469 under these conditions.

470

471 Detection of directly labeled HIV-1 capsids in primary cells

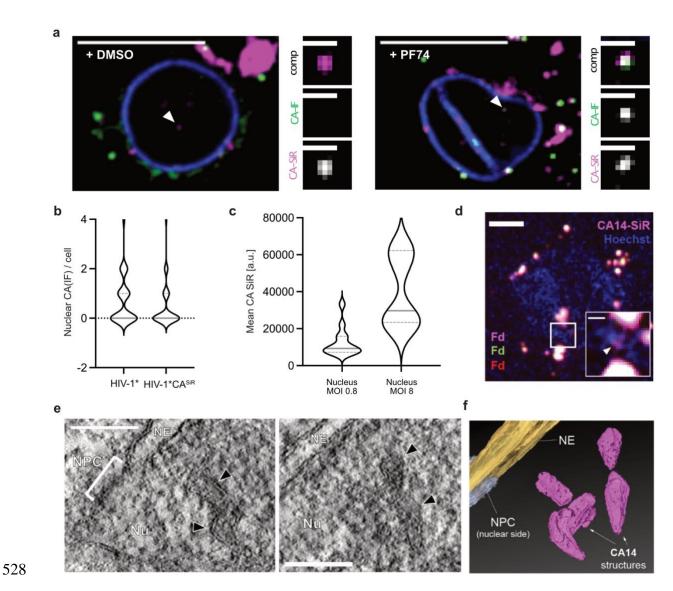
472 To validate our results in a physiologically relevant cell type, primary human CD4⁺ T 473 cells from healthy blood donors were infected, subjected to IF staining against CA, and 474 imaged by SDCM at 24 h p.i. (Figure 6a and Figure S6). We readily detected nuclear subviral SiR positive structures in HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} infected cells, indicating that nuclear 475 476 replication complexes retained CA also in these primary cells (Figure 6a). Consistent with prior observations made in T cells (Zila et al., 2019) the majority of SiR-positive 477 478 objects were not associated with CA(IF) signals (9/11 particles; Figure 6a, left) when 479 fixation and immunostaining were performed under standard conditions. As outlined 480 above, treatment with 15 µM PF74 for 1 h dissociates the large clusters of CPSF6 from 481 nuclear subviral complexes. We observed that this in turn renders nuclear CA 482 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 483 484 for detection of CA(IF) signals co-localizing with nuclear CA(SiR) punctae (13/16; 485 Figure 6a, right). We conclude that the direct CA labeling strategy presented here 486 overcomes technical artifacts that hamper IF analyses.

Further quantitative analyses using primary CD4⁺ T cells prepared from six blood 487 488 donors revealed similar numbers of nuclear capsid structures in cells infected with HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} than in cells infected with HIV-1* at 24 h p.i. (Figure 6b). SiR intensity 489 490 measurements were only performed for intranuclear objects in this case since high 491 background due to SiR accumulation in the narrow cytoplasm of T cells precluded 492 reliable analysis of individual particles in the extranuclear region (see Figure 6a and 493 Figure S6). Quantitation of SiR intensities of nuclear punctae in cells infected with an 494 MOI~0.8 yielded similar average intensities as measured in TZM-bl cells 495 (mean=12,485 a.u.), indicating the presence of a complete or nearly complete mature 496 capsid in the nuclear complexes in primary T cells (Figure 6c). Cells infected with an 497 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 498 499 TZM-bl cells (Figure 4).

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500 Our findings from CA(SiR) intensity measurements argue for the presence of a full 501 capsid complement at subviral structures in the nucleus. These data strengthen 502 conclusions from several recent studies suggesting that the mature capsid lattice may 503 be completely or largely intact on nuclear subviral objects (Burdick et al., 2020; Muller 504 et al., 2021; Zila et al., 2021). However, fluorescence signals do not yield information 505 on the architecture of nuclear CA14^{SiR} containing objects. Therefore, we 506 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 507 508 attachment of particles to the cells for 3 h at a low temperature (16°C) to prevent 509 particle uptake by membrane fusion or endocytosis ((Melikyan et al., 2000; Weigel and 510 Oka, 1981). Virus entry was initiated by temperature shift to 37°C. At 24 h post 511 temperature shift, specimens were prepared by high-pressure freezing (HPF) and 512 freeze substitution, and 250 nm thick resin sections were subjected to SDCM in order 513 to localize CA(SiR) containing structures, followed by correlative electron tomography 514 (CLEM-ET) analysis. CA(SiR) positive objects could be identified by SDCM in the 515 sections (Figure 6d), demonstrating that the brightness of signals derived from direct 516 CA(SiR) labeling is sufficient for CLEM detection of cytosolic and nuclear (sub)viral 517 structures. ROIs were defined based on the SiR signals and subjected to correlative 518 ET analysis. Figure 6e shows an exemplary tomogram obtained from a ROI located 519 within the nucleus. It reveals several closely attached electron-dense structures at the 520 position of the SiR label, whose shape and dimension match those of intact or largely intact mature HIV-1 capsids (Figure 6f and supplementary movie 1). Such structures 521 522 were recently identified in nuclei of infected cells by CLEM using fluorescently labeled 523 HIV-1 IN as an indirect marker for subviral structures (Muller et al., 2021; Zila et al., 524 2021) and were interpreted as capsid shells based on their morphology. Here we 525 demonstrate that such structures co-localize with nuclear foci comprising a high number of click labeled CA molecules, thereby providing direct evidence that the cone-526 527 shaped objects are HIV-1 capsids that have entered the nucleus of infected cells.

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529 Figure 6. Largely complete click labeled capsid structures detected in the nucleus of 530 primary CD4+ T cells and T cell line. (a) Activated CD4+ T cells were infected with HIV-531 1*CA14^{SiR} (MOI~0.8) for 24 h before DMSO/PF74 treatment for 1 h, fixation, and methanol 532 extraction. Samples were immunostained against CA (green) and laminA (blue). Images show 533 a single z slice through the cell. Enlargements show the particle marked by the arrowhead. 534 Scale bars: 10 µm (overview) and 1 µm (enlargement). (b) Data analyzed from the experiment 535 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*CA14^{SiR} (n= 73 cells, mean=0.51). Pooled data 536 537 from 6 different blood donors are shown. Grey lines show median and interguartile lines. (c) 538 CA(SiR) intensities of nuclear objects in infected and activated CD4⁺ T cells at an MOI~0.8 539 (n=13; mean=12,485 ± 7,445 a.u.) and an MOI ~8 (n=7; mean=39,502 ± 18,025 a.u.). MOI 540 was determined in TZM-bl cells. Grey lines show median and interguartile lines. (d-f) Nuclear 541 cone-shaped capsids detected by CLEM-ET. SupT1 cells were treated with 1 µM aphidicolin 542 (APC) for 16 h to prevent cell division, before infection with HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} virions (2.3 µU 543 RT/cell, corresponds to an MOI~0.4 determined in TZM-bl cells). At 24 h p.i., cells were cryo-

544 immobilized by high-pressure freezing, freeze substituted, and further processed for CLEM 545 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 546 547 (blue) and decorated with multi-fluorescent fiducials (Fd) for correlation. The arrowhead in the 548 enlargement of the boxed region indicates a CA(SiR) signal within the Hoechst-stained nuclear 549 region. Scale bars: 1 µm (overview) and 200 nm (enlargement). (e) Computational slices 550 through tomographic reconstructions at the correlated region boxed in (d) with views 551 highlighting the presence of clustered capsid-reminiscent structures (black arrowheads) in the 552 nuclear region. Nu, nucleus; NPC, nuclear pore complex; NE, nuclear envelope. Scale bar: 553 100 nm. (f) Segmented and isosurface rendered structure of the cones detected in (e). 554 Magenta: capsid, yellow: NE, cyan: NPC (cryo-EM map of NPC: EMD-11967 (Zila et al., 555 2021)). See also supplementary movie 1.

556

557 Discussion

Here we present a direct labeling approach for the HIV-1 CA protein that yields 558 559 infectious and morphologically mature viral particles. The minimally invasive GCE/click labeling approach used here represents an ideal strategy for the versatile labeling of 560 561 genetically fragile viral capsid proteins in principle, but its potential for virus imaging has not been fully exploited. GCE has previously been explored to generate 562 563 conditionally replication-competent live attenuated viruses as vaccine candidates (Si 564 et al., 2016; Yuan et al., 2017). The combination of GCE and subsequent 565 functionalization of a viral capsid protein by click chemistry has so far only been applied to the non-enveloped adeno-associated virus (AAV) (e.g., (Kelemen et al., 2018; 566 567 Zhang et al., 2018). However, the capsid of AAV, unlike HIV-1 CA, can tolerate peptide insertions and larger modifications (e.g., (Borner et al., 2020; Chandran et al., 2017; 568 569 Feiner et al., 2019; Varadi et al., 2012). Here, we demonstrate that GCE in conjunction 570 with click labeling can also be applied to an enveloped virus with a highly 571 multifunctional and extremely genetically fragile capsid protein. All previously 572 described genetic tagging strategies for HIV-1 CA (Burdick et al., 2020; Campbell et 573 al., 2008; Pereira et al., 2011; Zurnic Bonisch et al., 2020) require complementation 574 with a molar excess of wt protein or virus. Since the mature HIV-1 capsid is assembled 575 from less than 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 576 577 of genetically tagged CA molecules is an integral part of the mature capsid lattice. In

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578 contrast, we found that the strategy described here allowed genetic labeling of HIV-1579 CA in the proviral context while retaining infectivity in the absence of 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 containing objects and CA 587 588 amounts associated with viral complexes in microscopic images of infected cells. While 589 time-lapse experiments showed some delay in nuclear import kinetics for labeled 590 capsid-like objects, the infectivity of highly labeled preparations was reduced by only 591 twofold, and the number of nuclear objects reached was similar to that detected in cells 592 infected with wt virus. Thus, site-specific introduction of a synthetic fluorophore can be 593 compatible with capsid functionality in HIV-1 post-entry processes. CA amounts 594 approximately corresponding to a full complement of a mature capsid were found to 595 be associated with subviral complexes in nuclei of a HeLa-derived cell line and primary 596 human CD4⁺ T cells, also upon inhibition of cell division by aphidicolin treatment. By 597 applying correlative imaging, we provide direct evidence that nuclear capsid-shaped 598 objects, as recently detected by correlative ET before and after separation of the viral 599 genome from the bulk of viral proteins (Muller et al., 2021; Zila et al., 2021) indeed 600 represent HIV-1 capsids or capsid-like remnants. Taken together, these results argue 601 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 602 603 subviral complexes in certain cell types (e.g. (Burdick et al., 2017; Hulme et al., 2015; 604 Peng et al., 2014; Zila et al., 2019), or based on the loss of the fluorescently labeled 605 capsid binding protein CypA at the nuclear envelope ((Francis et al., 2016); Francis 606 2018; Francis and Melikyan 2020). The apparent discrepancy between these previous 607 IF results and data from direct CA quantification may be explained by differential accessibility of capsid epitopes under different IF conditions. The indirect label CypA, 608 609 on the other hand, might be displaced from capsids at the nuclear pore, possibly by 610 competition between fluorescent CypA and the outer NPC protein Nup358, which also 611 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 assumed earlier, allowing HIV-1 capsids to pass the intact NPC (Zila et al., 2021), and that HIV-1 uncoating occurs after nuclear import (Burdick et al., 2020; Dharan et al., 2020; Li et al., 2021; Selyutina et al., 2020), apparently by separation of the viral genome from a broken capsid remnant (Muller et al., 2021).

618 Small clusters of CA positive objects were detected by STED nanoscopy in nuclei of 619 TZM-bl cells, consistent with the reported detection of nuclear clusters containing 620 multiple HIV-1 replication complexes (Francis et al., 2020b), multiple viral genomes 621 (Rensen et al., 2021), or even several intact or partly intact capsid-like structures 622 (Muller et al., 2021) in various cell types. Our analyses revealed that the observed 623 clustering is dependent on the amount of virus used for infection. Most nuclear signals 624 represented single capsids at a lower MOI, whereas frequent clustering was observed 625 at high MOI. This observation suggests that capsids enter the nucleus individually, but 626 traffic via a limited number of routes and accumulate at defined sites of uncoating. This 627 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-1 628 629 replication, but also with respect to an understanding of the nuclear import process. 630 Intracellular Nup levels and presumably NPC composition have been reported to influence HIV-1 replication (Kane et al., 2018), but compositional and structural 631 632 variability of NPCs between different cell types, or within an individual cell, is 633 incompletely understood (reviewed in (Knockenhauer and Schwartz, 2016). The route, 634 mechanism and functional consequences of intranuclear trafficking of HIV-1 635 complexes also warrant further analysis. Growing evidence from recent studies 636 suggests that incoming viral replication complexes accumulate at nuclear speckles in a CA and CPSF6-dependent manner, and that reverse transcription may only be 637 638 completed near the site of integration (Burdick et al., 2020; Francis et al., 2020a; 639 Rensen et al., 2021; Selyutina et al., 2020). Combining the direct CA labeling described 640 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 641 642 possibility to study the uncoating process in more detail using a combination of 643 confocal imaging, nanoscopy, and correlative imaging.

644 The direct labeling approach also allowed us to investigate the effect of the capsid 645 inhibitor PF74 (Blair et al., 2010), whose detailed mode of action is still under

investigation, on nuclear capsids. We found that displacement of CPSF6 from nuclear 646 647 subviral structures was not accompanied by a loss of CA signal. This finding disagrees 648 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 649 650 complemented by a molar excess of wt CA (Burdick et al., 2020). The apparent 651 discrepancy may suggest that the subset of eGFP-tagged CA molecules is not an 652 integral part of the mature capsid lattice, resulting in premature loss of the labeled 653 molecules. Our findings are in line with the observation that PF74 treatment does not 654 lead to a loss of CA IF signal on nuclear complexes but rather enhances immunostaining efficiency ((Francis et al., 2020b; Muller et al., 2021)) and with in vitro 655 656 findings that indicate breakage of lattice integrity by PF74, but stabilization of the 657 remaining lattice (Marquez et al., 2019; Rankovic et al., 2018).

658 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 659 660 temporal and/or spatial resolution using advanced fluorescence microscopy methods. Application for the HIV-1 CA provided direct proof that the capsid stays largely intact 661 upon passage of the subviral complex into the nucleus and directly identified nuclear 662 capsid-like structures that morphologically resembled the virion capsid by CLEM-ET. 663 664 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 665 666 perspective that this strategy may also advance and expand fluorescence labeling of 667 a broad range of other viruses.

668

669 Acknowledgements

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680 Materials and Methods

681 Plasmids

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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, 688 689 2004) that expresses the authentic genomic RNA from HIV-1_{NL4-3} (Adachi et al., 1986) 690 under the control of the cytomegalovirus promoter. To avoid unwanted ncAA 691 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. 692 693 See primer list for sequences of primers used. PCR1 (primers VprtgA a and VprtgA b) 694 and PCR2 (primers Vpr_{TGA} c and Vpr_{TGA} d) were performed in parallel to generate two 695 overlapping single stranded PCR products. Using a combination of both products of 696 these reactions as new templates, PCR3 with primers Vpr_{TGA} a and Vpr_{TGA} d resulted 697 in PCR fragments comprising the respective mutation. These fragments were 698 subcloned into pNLC4-3 using unique PfIMI/NheI restriction sites, resulting in pNLC4-699 3* (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_{Apal} rev 2) were performed in parallel to generate two overlapping single-stranded PCR products. PCR3 with primers CA14_{BssHII} fwd 1 and CA14_{Apal} rev 2 result in the PCR fragment comprising the mutation, which was subcloned into pNLC4-3* using unique BssHII/Apal restriction sites, resulting in pNLC4-3*CA14^{TAG} (HIV-1*CA14^{TAG}).

Plasmid pNESPyIRS-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 PCR amplified from plasmid tRNA^{PyI}/NESPyIRS^{AF} (Nikic et al., 2016) and cloned into a CMV promoter driven

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cassette in pEA168 using HindIII/Xbal restriction sites, resulting in plasmid pEA168CMV-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/Mlul restriction
sites, yielding pNESPyIRS-eRF1dn-tRNA.

719

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	

720

721 Cell culture

722 HEK293T (Pear et al., 1993) and HeLa TZM-bl indicator cells (Wei et al., 2002) were 723 maintained in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's medium (Thermo Fisher Scientific) supplemented with 100 U/ml penicillin, 100 µg/ml streptomycin (PAN Biotech, GER) 724 and 10% fetal calf serum (FCS, Sigma Aldrich, USA). Both cell lines were regularly 725 726 monitored for mycoplasma contamination using the MycoAlert mycoplasma detection kit (Lonza Rockland, USA). Primary CD4+ T cells were cultured in RPMI 1640 727 728 containing L-glutamine supplemented with 100 U/ml penicillin, 100 µg/ml streptomycin 729 (PAN Biotech), 10% heat-inactivated FCS, and 5% human AB serum (Sigma Aldrich).

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731 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
EasySepTM Direct Human T Cell Isolation Kit (Stemcell technologies, GER) according
to the manufacturer's instructions and activated by incubation in the presence of 100
U/ml IL-2 (Sigma Aldrich) and T Cell TransActTM human (Miltenyi Biotec, GER) for 72
h.

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740 Virus particle production

741 HEK293T cells were seeded in T175 tissue culture flasks the day before (~15 Mio. 742 cells) and transfected using calcium phosphate precipitation according to standard 743 procedures (~80 % confluency). Cells were co-transfected with 50 µg / flask total DNA of pNLC4-3* (HIV-1*) or pNLC4-3*CA14^{TAG} (HIV-1*CA14^{TAG}) and plasmid 744 745 pNESPvIRS-eRF1dn-tRNA in a molar ratio of 2.22:1. At 6 h p.t., medium was removed. 746 and fresh complete DMEM containing a final concentration of 500 µM CpK (SiChem; 747 stock solution of 100 mM was pre-diluted 1:4 in 1M HEPES shortly before use), and 748 100 µM ascorbic acid (Sigma Aldrich; stock solution 10 mM) was added. At 48 h p.t. 749 the tissue culture supernatant was harvested and filtered through 0.45 µm 750 nitrocellulose filters. For labeling the CA protein, 250 nM Tetrazine-SiR (Spirochrome; 751 stock solution 1 mM) was added to the filtered supernatant, and samples were 752 incubated at 37°C for 30 min. Particles were then concentrated by ultracentrifugation 753 through a 20% (w/v) sucrose cushion at 28,000 rpm using a Beckman TLA-100 fixed angle-rotor (Beckman Coulter, GER) for 90 min at 4°C. Pellets were gently 754 755 resuspended in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) containing 10% FCS and 10 mM 756 HEPES (pH 7.5) and stored in 5 µl aliquots at -80°C.

757

758 Immunoblotting and In-gel fluorescence

759 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 760 761 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 762 763 from transfected HEK293T cells. At 40 h p.t. cells were washed with PBS, trypsinized 764 and resuspended in PBS. 1 ml of cell suspension was mixed with 300 µl SDS sample 765 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 766 for 1 h at 0.8 mA/cm². Viral antigens were stained with the indicated antisera in 767 768 PBS/0.5% bovine serum albumin (BSA) (sheep α CA, polyclonal 1:5 (in-house); rabbit 769 α MA, polyclonal 1:1,000 (in-house); rabbit α RT, polyclonal, 1:1,000 (in-house), mouse 770 αlaminA/C, monoclonal antibody 1:100 (Cat# sc-7292, Santa Cruz Biotechnology), 771 mouse αlaminB1, monoclonal 1:100 (Cat# sc-365962, Santa Cruz Biotechnology)) followed by staining with corresponding secondary antibodies IRDye[™] in PBS/0.5% 772 BSA (anti-sheep 680CW (1;10,000); Rockland, or anti-rabbit 800CW (1:10,000); Li-773

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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.

781

782 Infectivity assay

Virus amounts were quantified via SYBR Green based Product Enhanced Reverse 783 784 Transcription assay (SG-PERT; (Pizzato et al., 2009)). To determine the effect of incorporating CpK and Tet-SiR labeling on virus infectivity, HIV-1* and HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} 785 786 viral particles (normalized by RT activity) were titrated on TZM-bl cells seeded in 15-787 well ibidi u-Slide angiogenesis dishes. At 6 h p.i. 50 µM T-20 (Enfuvirtide: Roche, GER: 788 stock solution 20 mM) was added to prevent second-round infection. Infection rates 789 were scored at 48 h p.i.. For this, cells were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA; 790 Electron Microscopy Sciences, USA; stock solution 16%) for 15 min, followed by 20 791 min incubation in PBS/0.5% (v/v) Triton X-100 at room temperature. Immunostaining 792 was performed using an in-house polyclonal rabbit antiserum raised against 793 recombinant HIV-1 MA (1:1000) in PBS/0.5% BSA) 1 h at room temperature. 794 Secondary antibody Alexa Fluor 488 donkey anti-rabbit (1:1,000; Thermo Fisher 795 Scientific) in PBS/0.5% BSA was added for 45 min at room temperature. Samples were 796 imaged by SDCM. The mean intensity of the 488 channel (MA(IF)) was quantified in 797 from the non-infected samples imaged in parallel and subtracted as background in 798 each image. The proportion of IF-positive cells was counted in 12 randomly selected 799 fields of view using Fiji (Schindelin et al., 2012). To determine the infectivity of virus 800 particle preparations, the number of infected cells per well was calculated by 801 multiplying the percentage of infected cells detected with the number of cells per well 802 (double of seeded cell number the day before). Division by the volume of virus 803 suspension used for infection yielded the number of infectious units (IU) / ml.

804

805 **Fixation and immunofluorescence staining of infected cells**

 3.33×10^3 TZM-bl cells were seeded into 15-well µ-Slides angiogenesis dishes (ibidi, GER; 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 808 809 PF74 (Sigma Aldrich; stock solution 10 mM in DMSO) in DMEM to allow for efficient 810 detection of nuclear CA by IF (Muller et al., 2021). Samples were washed with PBS, 811 fixed in 4% PFA for 15 min and permeabilized with PBS/0.5% (v/v) Triton-X100 for 20 812 min, and washed again with PBS. Cells were extracted using ice-cold 100% methanol 813 for 10 min. Afterward, samples were blocked with PBS/2.5% BSA for 15 min, followed 814 by incubation with primary antibodies in PBS/0.5% BSA for 1 h at room temperature. 815 After washing three times with PBS, secondary antibodies diluted in PBS/0.5% BSA 816 were added for 45 min at room temperature. Samples were washed and stored in PBS 817 at 4°C. For infection of primary CD4⁺ T cells, 20,000 cells were infected with HIV-1^{*} or 818 HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} in a 96-well v-bottom microplate (Greiner Bio-one, cat. #650161) in a 819 volume of 40 µl RPMI and transferred at 22 h p.i. onto a PEI-coated 15-well µ-Slide 820 angiogenesis dishes (ibidi). Cells were allowed to adhere for 1 h at 37°C, and PF74 821 diluted in fresh growth medium was added to a final concentration of 15 µM. Extraction, 822 fixation, and immunostaining were performed after 1 h at 37°C as described above. 823 For the detection of endosome-associated particles, 2 µM mCLING ATTO488 824 (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 825 was removed, HIV-1*CA14^{SiR} particles were added in fresh growth medium, and cells 826 were incubated for an additional 3 h at 37°C (MOI~0.8). Cells were fixed for 90 min at 827 828 room temperature in 4% PFA and 0.2% glutaraldehyde to ensure retention of mCLING 829 at cellular membranes. Nuclei were stained with 5 µg/ml Hoechst (Merck) in PBS for 830 30 min.

831

832 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 (9x10³ cells/well; flat bottom Greiner Bioone) 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).

839

840 Labelling efficiency of immobilized particles

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841 µ-Slide (ibidi) 30µl/well 15-well angiogenesis dishes were coated with 842 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-843 coated microscopy slides for 1 h at 37°C. Subsequently, samples were washed with 844 845 PBS, fixed in 4% PFA for 15 min and permeabilized with PBS/0.05% (v/v) Triton X-100 846 for 20 min at room temperature. Immobilized particles were blocked with PBS/2.5% 847 BSA for 15 min and polyclonal rabbit antiserum raised against recombinant HIV-1 CA protein (in-house) was added (1:1000 in PBS/0.5% BSA for 1 h at room temperature). 848 849 After washing three times with PBS, secondary antibody Alexa Fluor 488 donkey anti-850 rabbit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) 1:1000 in PBS/0.5% BSA was added for 45 min at 851 room temperature. Samples were washed and stored in PBS at 4°C.

852

853 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.

860

861 STED microscopy

STED nanoscopy was performed using a λ = 775 nm STED system (Abberior 862 863 Instruments GmbH) equipped with a 100x oil immersion objective (NA 1.4; Olympus 864 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 865 866 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 867 868 (Abberior Instruments GmbH) and Huygens Professional Deconvolution (Scientific Volume Imaging). 869

870

871 Electron microscopy

HEK293T cells (4×10⁵) 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 pNESPyIRS-eRF1dn-tRNA by using calcium phosphate precipitation. At 6 h p.t.,

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875 medium was removed and fresh complete DMEM containing a final concentration of 876 500 µM CpK (SiChem; stock solution 100 mM was pre-diluted 1:4 in 1M HEPES shortly 877 before use), and 100 µM ascorbic acid (Sigma Aldrich; stock solution 10 mM) was 878 added. At 44 h p.t., cells were fixed with pre-warmed 2% formaldehyde + 2.5% 879 glutaraldehyde in 0.1 M cacodylate buffer (pH 7.4) for 1.5 h at room temperature, then 880 washed in 0.1 M cacodylate buffer and post-fixed with 2% osmium tetroxide (Electron 881 Microscopy Sciences) for a 1 h on ice. Cells were subsequently dehydrated through 882 an increasing cold ethanol series (30, 50, 70, 80, 90, and 100%; on ice) and two 883 anhydrous acetone series (at room temperature). The coverslip with cells was then 884 removed from the dish, and cells were flat embedded in Epon resin. 70-nm thin 885 sections were cut with an ultramicrotome (Leica EM UC6), collected on formvar-coated 886 100-mesh copper EM grids (Electron Microscopy Sciences) and stained with a 3% 887 uranyl acetate in 70% MetOH (10 min), and lead citrate (7 min). Cells sections were 888 observed with a JEOL JEM-1400 electron microscope operating at 80 kV (Jeol Ltd., 889 JPN), equipped with a bottom-mounted 4K by 4K pixel digital camera (TemCam F416: 890 TVIPS GmbH, GER).

891

892 **CLEM and electron tomography**

893 SupT1 cells were distributed in a 96-well plate (2x10⁵ cells/well; U-bottom; Greiner Bio-894 one, 650180) and pre-incubated for 16 h with 1 µm aphidicolin (APC; Merck). Cells 895 were pelleted (200 x g, 3 min) and resuspended in complete RPMI medium containing 896 HIV-1*CA14^{SIR} particles (MOI~0.4). Cells were incubated with viral particles for 120 897 min at 16°C to adsorb the virus and synchronize virus entry. Samples were then 898 processed for CLEM and ET as described previously (Zila et al., 2021). In brief, cells 899 were transferred to glass-bottomed 'microwell' of a MatTek dish (MatTek, USA) 900 containing carbon-coated and retronectin-coated sapphire discs (Engineering Office 901 M. Wohlwend, SUI). Samples were high pressure frozen, and sapphire discs were then 902 transferred from liquid nitrogen to the freeze-substitution (FS) medium (0.1% uranyl 903 acetate, 2.3% methanol and 2% H₂O in acetone) tempered at -90°C. Samples were 904 FS-processed and embedded in Lowicryl HM20 resin (Polysciences, USA) according 905 to a modified protocol of Kukulski et al. (Kukulski et al., 2011). For CLEM-ET, thick 906 resin sections (250 nm) were cut and placed on a slot (1 x 2 mm) EM copper grids 907 covered with a formvar film (Electron Microscopy Sciences, FF2010-Cu). Grids were 908 decorated with fiducial marker and stained with Hoechst to visualize nuclear regions.

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909 Light microscopy Z stacks of sections were acquired by PerkinElmer UltraVIEW VoX 910 3D Spinning-disc Confocal Microscope (Perkin Elmer) using a 100 x oil immersion 911 objective (NA 1.49; Nikon), with a z-spacing of 200 nm and excitation with the 405-, 912 488-, 561- and 633-nm laser line. Acquired z stacks were visually examined using Fiji 913 software (Schindelin et al., 2012) and intracellular CA(SiR) positive signals were 914 identified. EM grids were decorated with 15 nm protein-A gold particles for tomogram 915 alignment and stained with uranyl acetate and lead citrate. Grids were loaded to a 916 Tecnai TF20 (FEI) electron microscope (operated at 200 kV) equipped with a field 917 emission gun and a 4K by 4K pixel Eagle CCD camera (FEI). Positions of CA(SiR) 918 signals were pre-correlated with imported SDCM images in SerialEM as described 919 previously (Schorb et al., 2017). Single-axis electron tomograms were carried out. 920 Tomographic tilt ranges were typically from -60° to 60° with an angular increment of 921 1°. The pixel size was 1.13 nm. Alignments and 3D reconstructions of tomograms were 922 done with IMOD software (Kremer et al., 1996). Post-correlation was performed using 923 eC-CLEM plugin in Icy software (de Chaumont et al., 2012).

924

925 Image analysis

926 Microscopy images were screened and filtered in Fiji/ImageJ (Schindelin et al., 2012) 927 with a mean filter and background subtraction. Infected cells were quantified in Fiji via 928 segmentation and counting of nuclei and the cell counter to manually quantify the 929 number of positive cells. To determine labeling efficiency of click labeled particles, 930 CA(SiR) intensities of detected immobilized particles based on CA(IF) were quantified 931 using the spot detector of the software Icy (de Chaumont et al., 2012). Five ROIs 932 without particles were measured, and mean intensity in the SiR channel was 933 subtracted as background. The threshold was set to t = 1,000 a.u., CA(IF) detected 934 spots with intensities above the threshold were classified as CA(SiR) positive.

935 To analyze particle distribution and intensity measurements throughout the entire volume of cells, z-image series were reconstructed in 3D space using Imaris 9.2 936 937 software (Bitplane AG). Individual HIV-1 CA(IF) objects were automatically detected 938 using the spot detector Imaris module, which created for each fluorescent signal a 3D 939 ellipsoid object with 300 nm estimated diameter in x-y dimensions and 600 nm in z. 940 The local background of each individual spot was subtracted automatically. 941 Subsequently, the mean signal intensity in the CA(SiR) channel was guantitated within 942 all objects. The threshold for SiR intensity was set to t = 7,000 a.u. and adjusted

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943 manually for each image by visual inspection. Spots detected in SiR-clusters were 944 excluded. Nuclear objects were manually identified based on the laminA/C staining. 945 NE-associated objects were classified based on laminA/C intensities. Every image was 946 manually inspected and a threshold for NE-associated objects was set in the range of 947 6,300-9,100 a.u.. All other particles were classified as PM/cytoplasm (= in the 948 cytoplasm/at plasma membrane). 949 To identify post-fusion cores by mCLING ATTO488 staining, HIV-1 CA(SiR) positive objects were automatically detected and the mCLING ATTO488 mean signal intensity 950 951 co-localizing with each object was quantitated. The threshold was set to t = 5,900 a.u. 952 based on the lowest mCLING intensity detected in a T-20 control sample. Particles 953 associated with mCLING intensity above background were classified as endosome 954 associated. Fiji standard 'grevscale' lookup table (LUT) was used to visualize single 955 channel images and 'Fire' for single channel STED images. 956 957 Data visualization and statistical analysis 958 Statistical significance was assessed using Prism v9.1.0 (GraphPad Software Inc, 959 USA). A two-tailed non-paired Mann-Whitney test ($\alpha = 0.05$) was used to assess the 960 statistical significance of non-parametric data. Data were plotted using Prism v9.1.0 or 961 the Python statistical data visualization package seaborn v.0.10.0 (Waskom 2020) 962 Graphs show mean/median with error bars as defined in the figure legends. 963 964 **Competing financial interests:** The authors declare no competing financial interests. 965 966

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