Mycobacterium tuberculosis infection associated immune perturbations correlate with antiretroviral immunity

Burcu Tepekule[*,1,2,3], Lisa Jörimann[*,1,2], Corinne D. Schenkel[1,2], Lennart Opitz[4], Jasmin Tschumi[1,2], Rebekka Wolfensberger[1], Kathrin Neumann[1,2], Katharina Kusejko[1], Marius Zeeb[1,2], Lucas Boeck[5], Marisa Kälin[1], Julia Notter[6], Hansjakob Furrer[7], Matthias Hoffmann[8], Hans H. Hirsch[9,10,11], Alexandra Calmy[12], Matthias Cavassini[13], Niklaus D. Labhardt[14,15], Enos Bernasconi[12,16,17], Karin J Metzner[1,2], Dominique L. Braun[1,2], Huldrych F. Günthard[1,2], Roger D. Kouyos[1,2], Fergal Duffy[18], Johannes Nemeth[1] and the Swiss HIV Cohort Study

* These authors contributed equally

[1] Department of Infectious Diseases and Hospital Epidemiology, University Hospital Zurich, Zurich, Switzerland.

[2] Institute of Medical Virology, University of Zurich, Zurich, Switzerland.

[3] Department of Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, Princeton University, Princeton, USA.

[4] Functional Genomics Center Zurich, Swiss Federal Institute of Technology and University of Zurich, Zurich, Switzerland.

[5] Department of Biomedicine, University of Basel, Switzerland

[6] Division of Infectious Diseases and Hospital Epidemiology, Cantonal Hospital St Gallen, St. Gallen, Switzerland.

[7] Department of Infectious Diseases, Inselspital, Bern University Hospital, University of Bern, Bern, Switzerland.

[8] Division of Infectious Diseases and Hospital Epidemiology, Cantonal Hospital Olten, Olten, Switzerland

[9] Division of Infectious Diseases and Hospital Epidemiology, University Hospital Basel, Basel, Switzerland.

[10] Clinical Virology, Laboratory Medicine, University Hospital Basel, Basel, Switzerland.

[11] Department Biomedicine, Transplantation and Clinical Virology, University of Basel, Basel, Switzerland.

[12] Division of Infectious Diseases, University Hospital Geneva, University of Geneva, Geneva, Switzerland.

[13] Division of Infectious Diseases, University Hospital Lausanne, University of Lausanne, Lausanne, Switzerland.

[14] Division Clinical Epidemiology, Department of Clinical Research, University Hospital Basel, Basel, Switzerland.

[15] University of Basel, Basel, Switzerland.

29   [16] Division of Infectious Diseases, Ente Ospedaliero Cantonale, Lugano, Switzerland.

30   [17] University of Geneva and University of Southern Switzerland, Lugano, Switzerland.

31   [18] Seattle Children's Research Institute, Seattle, Washington, USA

Corresponding author

Dr. med. Johannes Nemeth

Senior physician

Department of Infectious Diseases and Hospital Epidemiology

University Hospital Zurich

Rämistrasse 100

8091 Zürich

Switzerland

+41 44 255 33 22

johannes.nemeth@usz.ch

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Highlights

57   - In people with HIV-1 (PWH), MTB infection is associated with a perturbation of the
58   PBMC transcriptome independently of re-exposure to MTB specific antigen.

59   -   MTB infection is associated with a shift away from Type 1 Interferon towards a trained
60   immunity type phenotype.
61   -   The perturbations associated with MTB infection correlate with improved retroviral
62   control and are lost during progression to active tuberculosis.
63

Abstract

Infection with *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (MTB) remains one of the most important
opportunistic infections in people with HIV-1 (PWH). While it is well accepted that active
Tuberculosis (TB) leads to rapid progression of immunodeficiency in PWH, the interaction
between MTB and HIV-1 during the asymptomatic phase of both infections remains poorly
understood.
Here, we show in a well-matched cohort of PWH with suppressed HIV-1 viral load that MTB
infection is associated with a baseline transcriptional profile away from a Type 1 Interferon
towards a proinflammatory cytokine response. The transcriptional changes are conserved
during HIV-1 viremia and are inversely correlated with HIV-1 viral load, suggesting that MTB
infection-associated perturbations of the innate immune system improve HIV-1 control. In line
with these findings, the transcriptional profile of individuals with MTB infection overlaps with
that of HIV-1 long term non-progressors. Conversely, during active TB, the transcriptional
pattern is reversed, indicating loss of immune control and suggesting a shared immunological
mechanism of control and progression for both HIV-1 and MTB infection.
In conclusion, our data show that MTB infection is associated with a shift in the activation state
of the immune system. This shift contributes to lower HIV-1 viral load in MTB/HIV-1 co-
infection and is lost during disease progression.

Significance statement

Mycobacterium tuberculosis (MTB) affects 23% of the human population, but little is known
about its impact on human biology. MTB infection is associated with better HIV-1 control and
fewer opportunistic infections, but with an increased risk of non-communicable diseases such
as diabetes. To understand why this is the case, we studied individuals co-infected with HIV-1
and MTB infection and found that MTB infection affects the innate immune system, improving

the control of HIV-1 replication. Animal and BCG vaccination studies also support the idea that MTB affects the innate immune system and provides immunity against other diseases. Overall, this study advances our understanding of how MTB infection can have unexpected effects on host responses and sheds light on its complex nature.

Introduction

Globally, HIV-1 remains one of the most important risk factors for the development of active Tuberculosis (TB)(1, 2). Individuals with HIV-1 and active TB suffer from earlier TB dissemination, faster progression and increased risk for TB drug resistance(2).

However, active TB is only an extreme of the spectrum of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (MTB) infection. While the exact numbers remain uncertain, it is well accepted that less than 10% of MTB-infected HIV-uninfected individuals ever develop active disease(1). Similarly, only the minority of people with HIV-1 (PWH) exposed to MTB will develop active disease(2, 3).

Until now, the sole method of verifying exposure to MTB in the absence of symptomatic TB has been through the identification of MTB specific T cells in the bloodstream. However, this approach has a significant limitation. The presence of MTB specific T cells could indicate one of three possibilities. Firstly, it could suggest the presence of bacteria that are in a state of reversible latency and have the potential to cause disease. Secondly, it could indicate bacteria that are in a state of practically "irreversible" latency, requiring an excessive and unsustainable amount of immune suppression to become active again (which is incompatible with the host's survival). Lastly, it could signify a memory T cell response following the eradication of the infection(4). Additionally, these tests rely on functional T cells, which can be compromised in their function due to the replication of HIV-1.

Priming of an MTB specific T cell response requires substantial exposure to the pathogen, irrespective of whether these bacteria are re-activated sometimes in the future or not. For example, a positive TB spot is defined as 5 or more spots out of 250,000 cells producing IFN-γ when exposed to ESAT-6/CFP-10, antigens encoded in the MTB region of difference 1 locus. The human body is estimated to harbor 2×10^{12} lymphocytes. The detection of 5 MTB specific spots suggests that approximately 40 million lymphocytes (ranging from 1.5×10^7 to 9.9×10^7) are committed to two MTB specific antigens (ESAT-6 and CFP-10) (Figure 1A). This estimate is conservative since it has been observed that during active TB, MTB specific T cells are recruited to the infection site and disappear from peripheral circulation(5). Although the extent

of recruitment during asymptomatic infection is still uncertain, it is reasonable to assume that

maintaining an MTB specific T cell response in peripheral blood involves a commitment of 10

to 100 million lymphocytes to MTB antigens.

In this work, we hypothesized that exposure to MTB does not only induce an antigen specific

T cell immune response but also changes the activation state of the innate immune system. This

hypothesis originated from data we generated in an *in vivo* model of asymptomatic MTB

infection and from observations we made from a large clinical cohort(6, 7). The small animal

model of asymptomatic MTB infection ("contained MTB infection" (CMTB) model) shows

profound changes in the innate immune system: low-grade cytokinemia results in the activation

of myeloid cells, which in turn leads to profound heterologous effects against unrelated

challenges, such as infection with *Listeria monocytogenes*(6). In people with HIV-1, MTB

infection but not active TB was associated significantly reduced HIV-1 viral set point and with

a lower frequency of the most common opportunistic infections(7). In sum, these observations

support the idea of an asymptomatic MTB infection acting as "universal adjuvant" altering

systemic immunity both in a small animal model and in humans. In line, BCG, the 100 year old

MTB vaccine, does profoundly alter the immune response and induces heterologous immunity

via the induction of "trained immunity"(8).

In analogy, we hypothesized that asymptomatic mycobacterial infection induces systemic

immune activation, including changes in the transcriptional programs of circulating innate cells.

Hence, we should be able to observe these changes in the peripheral blood transcriptome by

comparing PWH with and without MTB infection. Also, if these changes are causally linked to

the observed heterogeneous effects(7) we should be able to detect correlations between genes

associated with MTB infection and the heterologous effects. Specifically, in the current work,

we investigated the potential interaction between MTB infection associated changes in the

immune system and HIV-1 viral set point, given the striking and highly consistent effects on a

population level(7).

Material and Methods

Selection and matching of study population

155 We obtained peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC) from 36 PWH enrolled in the Swiss

156 HIV Cohort Study (SHCS)(9). The SHCS is a prospective, longitudinal, multicentre,

representative cohort study that collects demographic and clinical data from people with HIV-1 twice a year and stores plasma and PBMC samples in a biobank(9). MTB positive is defined as at least one of the tuberculosis (TB) test results (IGRA or TST or both) being positive while not being diagnosed with either pulmonary or extrapulmonary tuberculosis. We included only samples from patients with an unambiguous TB test result. These samples were categorized into four different groups based on the combination of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* infection (MTB) and HIV infection status, which are: *i)* MTB positive and viremic (MTB+ HIV$^{\text{vir}}$; n=7), *ii)* MTB positive and suppressed (MTB+ HIV$^{\text{supp}}$; n=11), *iii)* MTB uninfected and viremic (MTB- HIV$^{\text{vir}}$; n=7), and *iv)* MTB uninfected and suppressed (MTB- HIV$^{\text{supp}}$; n=11). For each blood sample taken for each individual, the closest TB test to the sampling time is used, leading to 78% of the samples being taken at the exact time of the TB test. Regarding HIV status, suppressed PWH were defined as having an HIV viral load below 500 copies/ml for the respective blood test, whereas viremic PWH had a viral load above/equal this threshold. Only blood samples taken after the year 2000 were included to minimize degradation of live cells over time. Individuals with opportunistic infections were excluded (full list in Supplementary Table 1). Practical constraints also limited the number of PWH selected for our analysis, such as the number of aliquots per sample and whether the sample contained viable PBMCs.

MTB- and MTB+ PWH were matched within each group of HIV-suppressed and viremic PWH, given their sex, ethnicity, and CD4 cell counts. For each individual, we first identified all the other candidates with the same sex and same ethnicity who could be a potential match and then chose the individuals with the closest CD4 cell count. After the pair was determined, they were removed from the pool of potential candidates to avoid any duplication in matching (Supplementary Figure 1).

Cell stimulation

0.5×10^6 or 0.2×10^6 PBMCs for FACS and transcriptome analysis respectively were plated out and stimulated with 150 ng/ml phorbol myristate acetate (PMA)/Ionomycin (ThermoFischer, 00-4975-93) or not stimulated and cultured in RPMI-1640 medium with 1-glutamine, 10% heat-inactivated FBS and 1% P/S at 37°C, 5% CO_2. For flow cytometric analysis, protein transport inhibitor (ThermoFischer, 00-4980-03) was added according to manufacturer's instructions. Cells were stimulated for 6 hours and subsequently analysed with flow cytometry or prepared for RNA sequencing.

 Flow cytometric analysis

Cells were washed twice with PBS to remove stimulation compounds and subsequently surface

proteins were stained for 30 min at 4°C with NIR Zombie dye APC-Cy7 (Biolegend, Cat No.

423105), CD20 PE (Biolegend, Cat No. 302306), CD3 AF700 (Biolegend, Cat No. 300324),

CD69 FITC (Biolegend, Cat No. 310904), CD56 BV510 (Biolegend, Cat No. 304608) CD16

PE-Dazzle (Biolegend, Cat No. 302054), HLA-DR BV605 (Biolegend, Cat No. 307640),

CD11b PE-Cy7 (Biolegend, Cat No. 301322), CD14 BV421 (Biolegend, Cat No. 301829).

Afterwards, cells were washed with PBS and fixed with Cytofix/Cytoperm buffer (BD

Biosciences, Cat No. 554722) for 20 min at 4°C. Cells were washed and resuspended in PBS.

Flow cytometry analysis was performed with the High throughput sampler (HTS) LSR II

Fortessa 4L (Supplementary Figure 2) and data was analysed with FlowJo version 10.0.8r1 and

R.

RNA isolation and sequencing

After stimulation, cells were centrifuged for 5 min, at 600 g and RNA was isolated with the

RNeasy Micro Kit (Qiagen) according to manufacturer's instructions either manually or with

the QIAcube (Qiagen). RNA was quantified on a TapeStation (Agilent) using a high sensitivity

RNA ScreenTape and RNA sequencing (RNAseq) was performed using 20 ng total RNA as

input using the SmartSeq2 library preparation with 1x100 bp single-end read (Illumina) with a

minimum read depth of 30 million reads per sample on the NovaSeq6000 (Illumina) according

to manufacturer's instructions at the Functional Genomics Centre Zurich (FGCZ).

RNAseq analysis

The RNA sequencing raw reads were first cleaned by removing adapter sequences, trimming

low quality ends, and filtering reads with low quality (phred quality <20) using Fastp (Version

0.20)(10). Sequence pseudo alignment of the resulting high-quality reads to the human

reference genome (build GRCh38.p13) and quantification of gene level expression (gene

models based on GENCODE release 37) was carried out using Kallisto (Version 0.46.1)(11).

Differential expression was computed using the generalized linear model as implemented in the

Bioconductor package DESeq2 (R version: 4.2.0, DESeq2 version: 1.36.0)(12). Genes showing

altered expression with adjusted (Benjamini and Hochberg method) p-value <0.05 were

considered differentially expressed. Using the k-means function in the R stats package, we

performed k-means clustering on the normalized gene counts belonging to the HIV suppressed

(HIV^{supp}) PWH. Genes with a differential gene expression (DEG) p-value below 0.01 are used

for the analysis. Number of clusters are set to 4, since data used for this analysis belongs to 4

different groups (cells from MTB+ patients unstimulated, cells from MTB- patients stimulated,

cells from MTB+ patients stimulated with PMA/Ionomycin, cells from MTB- patients

stimulated with PMA/Ionomycin). For data visualisation using heatmaps we applied an

additional batch correction step by using the removeBatchEffect() function implemented in the

limma package (v3.54.1)(13). Leading genes from the GSEA analysis with a p-value below

0.05 are selected for visualization. A Z-score normalization is performed on the log2 of the

normalized read counts across samples for each gene. For comparison, the same genes in the

dataset from Xu et al., 2014[14] are filtered for the respective DEG heatmap, where a Z-score

normalization is performed on the microarray samples for each gene, but without a logarithmic

transformation.

We compared the distributions of correlation coefficients between log10 transformed viral

RNA and log10 transformed normalized gene expression values for conserved and not

conserved transcripts for $(abs(LogFC)>1$ and p-value<0.01 and visualized the distributions in

the form of boxplots, and performed a t-test to quantify the significance of the difference

between the mean values. Furthermore, we visualized the correlations and calculated the

correlation coefficients between the log10 transformed viral RNA and log10 transformed

normalized gene expression values for each of the previously detected genes mentioned above.

Functional annotation was performed by mapping the transcripts to the human protein atlas(15-

17).

<u>Integration and comparison to other datasets</u>

For validation of our results two independent datasets were used: first a cohort of HIV-1

progressors and long term non-progressors(14) and second a cohort of PWH with MTB

infection or active TB (PWH MTB+, PWH developing active TB)(18).

Genome-wide analysis of gene expression in whole blood from HIV-1 progressors and long

term non-progressors data from Xu et al., 2014[14] was downloaded from NCBI GEO

(GSE56837), and the DEG values were calculated using the data of the long term non-

progressors over the progressors for the genes with an expression level above the median

expression for each sample. These DEG values are used to identify the genes that are present

in both studies with similar transcriptional profiles, and by using random sampling, to test

whether the observed number of genes are significant enough to support our hypothesis on the similarity of the MTB infection and HIV control status.

Background-subtracted quantile-normalized whole blood microarray expression data from Kaforou et al.(18) was downloaded from NCBI GEO (GSE37250) and log2 transformed. Two-tailed t-tests were used to test whether genes of interest were significantly changed between PWH with MTB infection (PWH MTB+) and active TB (PWH developing active TB). A signature score was computed by summing the transformed expression values of the genes and t-tests used to check for changes in signature scores separately in Malawi and South African PWH MTB+ and PWH developing active TB samples.

Results

MTB infection perturbs the transcriptome of PWH with suppressed viral load

To assess potential differences in the peripheral transcriptome in HIV-1 suppressed PWH with and without MTB infection (MTB+ HIV^{supp} and MTB- HIV^{supp}), we used peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC). To exclude potential confounding factors, 22 PWH were matched 1:1 according to CD4 cell count, ethnicity and sex (Table 1). PBMC of matched PWH were either activated with PMA and Ionomycin or not activated. After 6 hours detection of cell surface markers via flow cytometry and RNA isolation and sequencing was performed (Figure 1B). We then aimed to validate our findings using independent cohorts (Figure 1C).

Transcriptome clustering after dimensionality reduction separated the different groups, including MTB+ HIV^{supp} and MTB- HIV^{supp} samples in not activated PBMCs (Figure 2A). We then applied gene-set enrichment analysis (GSEA) to identify biological processes and gene sets specifically associated with MTB infection. GSEA identified 663 leading edge genes, i.e. genes that largely contribute to the enrichment of the functional pathways. Out of these 663 genes, 203 genes were differentially expressed when comparing MTB+ HIV^{supp} to MTB-HIV^{supp} (p <0.05), of which 177 were downregulated and 26 were upregulated (Figure 2B, Supplementary Table 2). Enriched functional pathways all play a role in immune response (Figure 2C). Interestingly, cytokine activity is upregulated in MTB+ HIV^{supp}, while all other pathways are downregulated in MTB+ HIV^{supp}, namely regulation of immune response, innate immune response, type 1 interferon signaling, immune response and defense response to virus. To determine whether a specific PBMC subpopulation was responsible for the changes in the transcriptome, the frequency of major cell populations was measured by flow cytometry. We

did not detect significant differences in CD16+ NK cell (MTB+ HIV[supp]: 1.62 (1.14, 1.97),

MTB- HIV[supp]: 2.13 (1.05, 4.16), median (IQR), p=0.3), B cell (MTB+ HIV[supp]: 4.55 (3.32,

5.46), MTB- HIV[supp]: 4.42 (3.22, 6.97), median (IQR), p=1) or T cell (MTB+ HIV[supp]: 50.5

(36.6, 59.8), MTB- HIV[supp]: 55.7 (48.4, 58.4), median (IQR), p=1) abundance (Supplementary

Figure 3). Hence, changes observed in transcriptome cannot be explained by shifts in major cell

populations.

Figure 1: Study design. A) Approximately 2×10^{12} lymphocytes are present in the human body. For a well in the T-spot TB test, 250'000 lymphocytes are used. The detection of 5 spots is indicative of approximately 4×10^7 (1.5×10^7– 9.9×10^7) MTB specific lymphocytes in the entire body under the assumption that the cells are equally distributed. **B)** Workflow depicting RNA sequencing and flow cytometry analysis of PBMCs. PBMCs from suppressed PWH with either MTB infection (MTB+ HIV[supp]) or no MTB infection (MTB- HIV[supp]) are plated out and activated with PMA and Ionomycin (PMA/Iono) or not activated (NC) for 6 hours. RNA isolation and subsequent RNA sequencing or cell surface staining and flow cytometry analysis are performed. **C)** Summary figure showing how we used different cohorts for discovery and confirmation steps.

Table 1: Characteristics of HIV-1 suppressed PWH.

		MTB+ HIV[supp]	MTB- HIV[supp]	all HIV[supp]	p-value
		11	11	22	
CD4 (median [IQR])		480 [458, 742]	482 [404, 749]	481 [425, 839]	0.948
Viral load (median [IQR])		0 [0, 0]	0 [0, 0]	0 [0, 0]	
TB test type (%)	TST	2 (18.2)	3 (27.3)	5 (22.7)	0.631
	IGRA	9 (81.8)	8 (72.7)	17 (77.3)	
Sex (%)	male	9 (81.8)	9 (81.8)	18 (81.8)	1
	female	2 (18.2)	2 (18.2)	4 (18.2)	
Ethnicity (%)	white	9 (81.8)	9 (81.8)	18 (81.8)	1
	black	1 (9.1)	1 (9.1)	2 (9.1)	
	hispano-american	1 (9.1)	1 (9.1)	2 (9.1)	

Shown are median and interquartile range or % for MTB+ HIV[supp] (n=11), MTB- HIV[supp] (n=11) and all HIV[supp] (n=22) with corresponding p-values from two sample t-test. TST= Tuberculin skin test, IGRA= Interferon gamma release assay.

Figure 2: Differences in MTB+ versus MTB- in HIV suppressed PWH. A) Principal component

analysis of transcription profile of activated (PMA/Ionomycin) and not activated (Negative control)

PBMCs from MTB+ HIV^{supp} (dark/light blue) and MTB- HIV^{supp} (brown/yellow) PWH with a cut-off p-

value<0.01. **B)** Heatmap showing leading edge genes for not activated samples with a cut-off p-

value<0.05 for HIV suppressed PWH (grey). Heatmaps are Z-score adjusted. MTB- in orange, MTB+ in

blue. Red color shows upregulated genes, while blue color shows downregulated genes. List of genes

are given in Supplementary Table 2. **C)** Gene set enrichment analysis for genes with a cut-off of

abs(logFC)>1 for HIV suppressed PWH. Red color shows upregulated genes, while blue color shows

downregulated genes. Detected six sets of gene are shown in different colors.

<u>"Conserved transcripts" correlate with increased viral control</u>

Since we hypothesized that MTB infection associated immune perturbations provide

heterologous immunity against HIV-1, we investigated the impact of MTB infection on HIV

viral load in HIV viremic PWH. A total of 14 viremic PWH with and without MTB infection

(MTB+ HIV^{vir}, MTB- HIV^{vir}) were randomly selected and matched according to CD4 cell

count, ethnicity and sex (Supplementary Figure 1). Strikingly, HIV-1 viral load was almost one

log lower in MTB+ HIV^{vir}, recapitulating our previous finding that MTB infection is associated

with lower HIV-1 viral load(7) (Table 2).

This spread of HIV-1 viral load also facilitated identifying genes that correlate with HIV viral

load across MTB+ and MTB- PWH. We defined "conserved transcripts" as genes detected to

be different in MTB+ HIV^{supp} versus MTB- HIV^{supp} and that were found to differ similarly in

MTB+ HIV^{vir} versus MTB- HIV^{vir} (Figure 3A). Thus, according to our hypothesis, the

conserved transcripts would reflect an improved antiretroviral immune state. Therefore, we

tested the correlations between HIV-1 viral loads with differentially expressed gene abundance

(p<0.01, with three different abs(logFC) values: (abs(LogFC)>1 n=97, abs(LogFC)>1.5 n=53,

abs(LogFC)>2 n=30) as identified in HIV-1 suppressed PWH across both MTB infected and

uninfected individuals (Figure 3B). As we increased the abs(logFC) cut-off, i.e., choosing genes

with a higher differential expression, we observed a higher and more significant negative

correlation with the viral load, underscoring the robustness of our finding.

Out of the 97 genes with abs(LogFC)>1 and p-values<0.01, 32 showed conserved

transcriptional profile and from those, we detected 20 conserved transcripts negatively

correlated to viral load. Transcriptional profile between HIV^{supp} and HIV^{vir} PWH was highly

correlated for these conserved transcripts (grey areas), while for not conserved transcripts this

was not the case (Figure 3C, Supplementary Table 3).

Mapping of the 20 conserved transcripts to The Human Protein Atlas(15-17) showed that

expression of these genes is associated with immune cells; specifically, 50% are expressed in

innate immune cells (Figure 3D). Again, we were not able to detect significant differences on a cell population level by flow cytometry analysis (Supplementary Figure 4).

Table 2: Characteristics of HIV-1 viremic PWH.

		MTB+ HIV^{vir}	MTB- HIV^{vir}	All HIV^{vir}	p-value
		7	7	14	
CD4 (median [IQR])		453 [373, 656]	453 [373, 653]	453 [355, 677]	0.93
Viral load (median [IQR])		33'643 [18'461, 93'725]	120'000 [21'782, 700'000]	33'872 [18'343, 472'678]	0.258
TB test type (%)	IGRA	7 (100.0)	7 (100.0)	14 (100.0)	
Sex (%)	male	6 (85.7)	6 (85.7)	12 (85.7)	1
	female	1 (14.3)	1 (14.3)	2 (14.3)	
Ethnicity (%)	white	7 (100.0)	7 (100.0)	14 (100.0)	

Shown are median and interquartile range or % for MTB+ HIV^{vir} (n=7), MTB- HIV^{vir} (n=7) and all HIV^{vir} (n=14) with corresponding p-values from two sample t-test. IGRA= Interferon gamma release assay.

Figure 3: Conserved transcripts are associated with increased viral control. A) Concept of conserved transcripts: differentially expressed transcripts

between MTB+ HIV^{supp} compared to MTB- HIV^{supp} are detected also as differentially expressed transcripts between MTB+ HIV^{vir} compared to MTB- HIV^{vir} with the

same directionality (up-regulated in HIV suppressed and up-regulated in HIV viremic (red) or down regulated in HIV suppressed and down regulated in HIV viremic

(blue)). **B)** Correlation of gene expression and viral load for conserved transcripts (purple) and not conserved transcripts (cyan) with a p-value<0.01 and

abs(logFC)>1 (n=97, p=0.0571), abs(logFC)>1.5 (n=53, p=0.00665) and abs(logFC)>2 (n=30, p=0.00273). **C)** Correlation of log2 fold change of differentially

expressed transcripts from HIV suppressed and HIV viremic PWH, with an abs(logFC)>1 and a p-value<0.01. Transcripts in grey areas show same transcriptional

direction in HIV suppressed as well as HIV viremic PWH. Conserved transcripts (purple) and not conserved transcripts (cyan). **D)** Percentages of different immune

cells expressing the conserved transcripts with a negative correlation to viral load (n=20), according to the human protein atlas(15-17).

 Transcriptional profiles of MTB infected PWH and HIV-1 long term non progressors share

 basic properties

Next, we tested whether we could validate these MTB-induced HIV-protective gene expression

patterns in other clinically relevant phenotypes of increased HIV-1 immunity. Therefore, we

chose a cohort of ART-naive PWH comprising both disease progressors [n=15] (decline in

CD4+ T cells of >50 cells/mm3/year) and long term non-progressors (non-progressors) [n=11]

(no decline in CD4+ T cells, viral load <5,000 copies/ml)(14) (Figure 1C). If the MTB-induced

immune state we identified in PWH is generalizable and contributes to antiretroviral immunity

in a broader sense, we hypothesized that our MTB induced gene expression profiles associated

with reduced HIV viral load may be reproducible in HIV long term non-progressors. To test

this hypothesis, we first identified the differentially expressed genes that are present in both

datasets [abs(logFC)>1, p-value<0.01] which correlate negatively with the HIV viral load in

our study. Based on those criteria there are 40 genes, 15 of which belong to the 20 conserved

transcripts identified in our study. 7 of these 15 conserved transcripts show the same

transcriptional profile in our study as well as in the external cohort, which is significantly more

than what would be expected if 15 genes from the intersecting pool of 40 genes of two cohorts

were to be randomly sampled (p<2.2x10^{-16}) (Figure 4A). Furthermore, conserved transcripts in

long term non-progressors showed the same transcriptional profile as MTB+ PWH (Figure 2B,

4B). In total, 74.8% of the genes show the same transcriptional profile between the two datasets.

The specific transcriptional patterns are lost during active tuberculosis

We and others have shown that active TB is associated with increased HIV-1 viral load(2, 7,

19). We therefore hypothesized that the improved antiretroviral state is lost during active TB.

We tested this hypothesis by defining the following conditions: genes that (1) are upregulated

in asymptomatically MTB infected and (2) negatively correlated with HIV-1 viral set point

should be down regulated in active TB. We selected the 8 genes from our 20 conserved

transcripts showing the strongest negative correlation with HIV-1 viral load (Supplementary

Table 3) and assessed their changes in an independent cohort of PWH with MTB infection

(PWH MTB+) or active TB (PWH developing active TB) from Malawi and South Africa(18).

Six out of the eight genes (AMY2B, CEACAM21, GNLY, NEO1, TUBB2A, TUBB2B) were

detected in the database and showed increased expression in PWH MTB+ compared to PWH

developing active TB (Figure 4C, Supplementary Table 4, Supplementary Figure 5). We

calculated a gene score averaging expression across all six genes for samples from Malawi and

South Africa separately, showing higher expression of genes in PWH MTB+ compared to PWH developing active TB (Figure 4D). In addition, PWH developing active TB show an opposing gene expression pattern with Type 1 Interferon genes being upregulated (Figure 4E). In sum, these data support our hypothesis that losing control over HIV-1 and MTB infection is a parallel process pointing to shared immunological mechanisms.

Figure 4: External cohorts show same transcriptional profile and high expression of conserved transcripts in long term non-progressors versus progressors and in PWH with MTB infection versus PWH developing active TB. A) Random sampling analysis showing number of genes with the same transcriptional profile in our study and in Xu et al., 2014(14) . The blue line represents the mean value of the number of genes with the same transcriptional profile in both studies when genes are picked at random for 1000 iterations, and the purple line represents the observed number of genes with the same transcriptional profile in both studies, which are significantly different (p<2.2x10^{-16}) **B)** Heatmap showing leading edge genes with a cut-off p-value<0.05 for HIV-1 long term non-progressors (non-progressors) (grey) and progressors (black) from Xu et al., 2014(14). Heatmaps are Z-score adjusted. Red color shows upregulated genes, while blue color shows

downregulated genes. **C)** Normalized gene expression of 6 genes (AMY2B, CEACAM21, GNLY, NEO1,
TUBB2A, TUBB2B) in PWH MTB+ (red) and PWH developing active TB (blue) from the Kaforou et al.,
2013(18) dataset. **D)** Gene score over all 6 genes (AMY2B, CEACAM21, GNLY, NEO1, TUBB2A, TUBB2B)
for Malawi and South Africa samples separately for PWH MTB+ (red) and PWH developing active TB
(blue) from the Kaforou et al., 2013(18) dataset. **E)** Heatmap showing leading edge genes with a cut-
off p-value<0.05 for PWH MTB+ (MTB+ Active TB-) (blue) and PWH developing active TB (MTB+ Active
TB+) (purple) from Kaforou et al., 2013(18). Heatmaps are Z-score adjusted. Red color shows
upregulated genes, while blue color shows downregulated genes.

Discussion

In this study, we demonstrated that a detectable MTB specific T cell response in peripheral
blood is correlated with systemic transcriptional changes that are also evident in PWH with a
suppressed viral load on ART. MTB infection associated transcriptional changes observed in
virologically suppressed PWH on ART were also found in HIV-1 viremic PWH on ART and
correlated inversely with HIV-1 viremia, pointing towards a potential causal effect between
MTB infection and increased control of HIV-1 replication.

To investigate natural immunity against HIV-1, most studies in humans compared, for example,
elite controllers and long term non-progressors and found significantly different immune
responses(20). However, conclusions regarding cause and effect have been very limited. Our
study setting is a significant advance over these previous approaches since we defined our genes
of interest by identifying a candidate protective phenotype in the absence of replicating HIV-1:
asymptomatic MTB infection, known to offer broad heterologous protection, and using it to
generate testable predictions which we then validated in three different clinical phenotypes in
PWH. Despite these efforts, our signal remains an association without proving direct causality.
As with every human cohort study, our set up remains susceptible to selection bias: for example,
it remains possible that a genetic predisposition for maintenance of an MTB specific T cell
response in peripheral blood is present. In humans, the only conceivable way to overcome this
bias is to perform a randomized controlled trial. Since human challenge studies with HIV-1 and
MTB are not possible, we believe that our careful approach of defining genes of interest in the
absence of both active TB and HIV-1 viremia followed by testing in different, independent
cohorts comes as close as it can get to a mechanistic study investigating interactions of co-
infections with two of the deadliest human pathogens.

Our analysis reveals a shift in MTB infected PWH to a pro-inflammatory (IL-6, IL-1)
transcriptional baseline with a relatively blunted Type 1 Interferon antiviral response. The
relative decrease of Type 1 Interferons together with the generic GSEA "anti-viral responses"
cluster seems counterintuitive at the first sight given that these individuals are able to control
HIV-1 better, and not worse. However, the double-edged role of Type 1 Interferons in chronic
infections and, specifically HIV-1 and MTB infection, has been the subject of intense
investigation. The duality of Type 1 Interferons in HIV-1 has been summarized in various
reviews: they appear to contribute to viral control during acute infection but are detrimental
during the chronic stage(21, 22). Likewise, the progression to active TB is associated with an
increased Type 1 Interferon response(23, 24), while impaired Type 1 Interferon signaling
increased resistance(25).

We add a novel aspect by demonstrating that successful containment of MTB infection in
humans induces an inflammatory state of the innate immune system that resembles clinical
phenotypes associated with control of HIV-1 replication. The proposition that MTB infection
is not merely an adaptive phenotype but also impacts the innate part of the immune system is
biologically plausible considering the substantial numbers of MTB specific T cells that are
required to detect an MTB specific response in peripheral blood. This observation raises
intriguing questions about the potential benefits of mycobacterial infection and for the control
of retroviral infections. Also, MTB infection is an "acquired" phenotype of HIV-1 resistance
resembling the phenotype of "inherited" resistance in long term non-progressors, which is
partly explained by variations in HLA(26). Therefore, the potential "acquired" mechanism
mediated by mycobacterial infection could lead to therapeutic interventions to improve anti-
retrovirus immunity.

The shift of the base line transcriptional profile poised towards IL-1 and IL-6 is reminiscent of
a "trained immunity" phenotype described after Bacillus Calmette-Guérin (BCG) vaccination
which was associated with increased control of yellow fever vaccine virus(27). While a shift of
the immune system towards a "trained immunity" phenotype might be beneficial for the control
of systemic viral infections, it carries the drawback of increased risk of non-communicable and
autoimmune diseases driven by increased inflammation. The prototypical disease, Type 2
Diabetes mellitus (DM), is an inflammasome driven disease mediated through dysregulated IL-
1 signaling(28). Consistent with this, we have previously shown that mycobacterial infection
substantially increases the risk for DM in PWH(29).

A large study on MTB has recently described an increase in NK cell frequency associated with
MTB infection(30) which we were unable to detect. These differences might be due to technical

differences between flow cytometry and mass spectrometry based approaches or biological differences of HIV-1 uninfected and HIV-1 infected but suppressed individuals. Also, we matched our individuals according to CD4 cell count, which is usually not done in clinical cohorts.

Our study has limitations: we included only highly selected PWH recruited from a longitudinal cohort study in Switzerland. While we tested our predictions and hypotheses in independent test cohorts, we cannot exclude selection biases. Also, our bulk RNAseq approach might miss differences detectable in single cell methods. However, the clinical samples are limited in cell numbers and preclude long protocols with significant cell loss, which is why we opted for a bulk RNA sequencing experimental design.

The strengths of our study are our ability to very carefully select and match PWH with an extra-ordinarily well characterized clinical phenotype and our study design that allows us to test predictions across independent cohorts.

In sum, our study reveals novel aspects of the interaction between two of the world`s deadliest pathogens, HIV-1 and MTB, which might lay the foundations for novel diagnostic and therapeutic approaches.

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Conflict of interest statements.

HFG has received honoraria for DSMB or advisory board membership from Merck, Gilead Sciences, ViiV healthcare, GSK, Janssen, Johnson and Johnson and Novartis and a travel grant from Gilead Sciences. JN received honoraria for DSMB or advisory board membership from Gilead, ViiV healthcare and a travel grant from Menarini. The institution of HF received educational grants from Merck, Gilead Sciences, ViiV healthcare, GSK, Janssen, and Abbvie. KJM has received travel grants and advisory board honoraria from Gilead Sciences and ViiV; and the University of Zurich received research grants from Gilead Science and Novartis for studies that KJM serves as principal investigator. DLB reports honoraria payed to himself for advisory boards from the companies Abbvie, MSD, Gilead & ViiV outside of the submitted work.

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