Purging viral latency by a bifunctional HSV-vectored therapeutic vaccine in chronically SIV-infected macaques

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Abstract

The persistence of latent viral reservoirs remains the major obstacle to eradicating human immunodeficiency virus (HIV). We herein reported that recombinant herpes simplex virus type I (HSV-1) with ICP34.5 deletion could more effectively reactivate HIV latency than its wild-type counterpart. Mechanistically, HSV-ΔICP34.5 promoted the phosphorylation of HSF1 by decreasing the recruitment of protein phosphatase 1 (PP1α), thus effectively binding to the HIV LTR to reactivate the latent reservoirs. In addition, HSV-ΔICP34.5 enhanced the phosphorylation of IKKα/β through the degradation of IκBα, leading to p65 accumulation in the nucleus to elicit NF-κB pathway-dependent reactivation of HIV latency. Then, we constructed the recombinant HSV-ΔICP34.5 expressing simian immunodeficiency virus (SIV) env, gag, or the fusion antigen sPD1-SIVgag as a therapeutic vaccine, aiming to achieve a functional cure by simultaneously reactivating viral latency and eliciting antigen-specific immune responses. Results showed that these constructs effectively elicited SIV-specific immune responses, reactivated SIV latency, and delayed viral rebound after the interruption of antiretroviral therapy (ART) in chronically SIV-infected rhesus macaques. Collectively, these findings provide insights into the rational design of HSV-vectored therapeutic strategies for pursuing an HIV functional cure.

Keywords: HIV, SIV, HSV, therapeutic vaccine, functional cure

Introduction

The epidemic of acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS), caused by human immunodeficiency virus type I (HIV-1), is still a huge challenge for global public health, with approximately 39 million people living with HIV-1 as of 2022. To date, there is neither a curable drug nor a prophylactic vaccine for clinical use against HIV-1 infections (Sun et al., 2023b, Sun et al., 2023a). Antiretroviral therapy (ART) can effectively control HIV-1 replication to an undetectable level, but the termination of ART usually results in prompt viral rebound from latent viral reservoirs (Archin et al., 2014, Looker et al., 2017, Calistri et al., 2003, Heng et al., 1994). Thus, it is of great priority to explore novel strategies for curing HIV latency. The "Shock and Kill" strategy is considered a promising approach for purging HIV-1 reservoirs, involving the activation of latently infected cells to express viral products (Shock), followed by viral cytopathic effects or specific cytolytic T lymphocytes (CTLs) to eliminate the activated cells (Kill) (Wu et al., 2022, Yang et al., 2019, Kim et al., 2018). Numerous latency-reversing agents (LRAs) (Yang et al., 2019, Wu et al., 2022), including methylation inhibitors, histone deacetylase (HADC) inhibitors (Archin et al., 2017, Lehrman et al., 2005), and bromodomain and extra terminal domain (BET) protein inhibitors (Li et al., 2013, Bisgrove et al., 2007), have been identified to reactivate latent HIV-1 in preclinical studies, but there is no ideal LRA available for clinical patients yet.

Herpes simplex virus (HSV), a human herpesvirus, features a 152-kb double-stranded DNA genome encoding over 80 proteins (Poh, 2016). Owing to its distinctive genetic background, high capacity, broad tropism, thermostability, and

excellent safety profile, the modified HSV constructs have extensive applications in gene therapy and oncolytic virotherapy. For example, talimogene laherparepvec (T-VEC), an HSV-1 variant with ICP34.5 deletion and GM-CSF insertion, received FDA approval in 2015 for treating malignant melanoma, showcasing notable safety and efficacy in clinical practice. Recombinant HSV-based constructs have also emerged as efficacious gene delivery vectors against infectious diseases. Early studies indicated that prophylactic vaccines based on HSV, expressing simian immunodeficiency virus (SIV) antigens, could elicit robust antigen-specific CTL responses in mice and monkeys, providing enduring and partial protection against pathogenic SIVmac239 challenges (Kaur et al., 2007, Murphy et al., 2000). Moreover, increasing data suggest the crucial role of HIV-specific CTL in controlling viral replication and eliminating potential HIV reservoirs (Collins et al., 2020, Leitman et al., 2017). Significantly, epidemiological research suggests a synergistic effect between HSV and HIV infections, with HSV infection in HIV patients being associated with increased HIV-1 viral load and disease progression (Looker et al., 2017, Calistri et al., 2003, Heng et al., 1994). Some studies have further unveiled the ability of HSV to activate HIV latent reservoirs (Amici et al., 2004, Amici et al., 2001, Pierce et al., 2023). Given the potential of HSV to simultaneously induce antigen-specific immune responses and reactivate latent viral reservoirs, we propose a proof-of-concept strategy to achieve an HIV functional cure using a modified bifunctional HSV-vectored therapeutic vaccine.

Results

The modified HSV-ΔICP34.5-based constructs reactivated HIV latency more efficiently than wild-type HSV counterparts

The J-Lat 10.6 cell line, derived from Jurkat T cells containing latent HIV-1 provirus, was infected with wild-type HSV-1 Mckrae strain at different multiplicities of infection (MOI) to assess its capability to reactivate HIV latency. Flow cytometry analysis showed a dose-dependent increase in green fluorescent protein (GFP) expression (*Figure 1A*), indicating that HSV-1 can reactivate latent HIV. Subsequently, we infected J-Lat 10.6 cells with an HSV-1 17 strain containing GFP (HSV-GFP) and found significant upregulation of mRNA levels of HIV-1 LTR, Tat, Gag, Vif, and Vpr, demonstrating that the attenuated HSV-1 strain can reactivate latent HIV at different MOIs (*Figure 1B*).Using the bacterial artificial chromosome (BAC)/galactokinase (galK) system, we then constructed the recombinant HSV deleted with ICP34.5 (HSV-ΔICP34.5) based on HSV-GFP. Notably, we discovered for the first time that the HSV-ΔICP34.5 reactivated HIV latency more efficiently than its parental strain (HSV-GFP). Specifically, mRNA levels of HIV genes (LTR, Tat, Gag, Vpr, Vif) were significantly higher in J-Lat 10.6 cells infected with HSV-ΔICP34.5 compared to those treated with HSV-GFP (*Figure 1C*), despite the weaker replication ability of HSV-ΔICP34.5 in these cells,as indicated by the mRNA level of HSV UL27 (*Figure 1D, Figure S1*). Furthermore, this finding was validated in ACH-2 cells, which are derived from T cells latently infected with replication-competent HIV-1. A significantly higher level

of p24 protein, a key indicator of HIV replication, was found in the HSV-ΔICP34.5-infected ACH-2 cells compared to HSV-GFP-treated cells (*Figure 1E*), and the mRNA levels of HIV-related genes (LTR, Tat, Gag, Vpr, Vif) were also significantly increased (*Figure 1F*). Subsequently, we generated J-Lat 10.6 cells stably expressing ICP34.5-Flag-Tag (J-Lat 10.6-ICP34.5) using a recombinant lentivirus system and confirmed the expression of the ICP34.5 protein. Our research revealed that HSV-ΔICP34.5 displayed a reduced capacity to reverse HIV latency in J-Lat 10.6-ICP34.5 cells compared to J-Lat 10.6 cells (*Figure 1G*). Moreover, in J-Lat 10.6-ICP34.5 cells, the potency of latent reversal agents such as phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA) and TNF-α was notably reduced when contrasted with J-Lat 10.6 cells (*Figure 1H*). We also confirmed the enhanced reactivation of HIV latency by HSV-ΔICP34.5 in primary CD4$^+$ T cells from people living with HIV (PLWH) (*Figure S2*). In addition, HSV-ΔICP34.5 induced a lower level of inflammatory cytokines (including IL-6, IL-1β, and TNF-α) in primary CD4$^+$ T cells from PLWH compared to HSV-GFP stimulation, likely due to its lower virulence and replication ability (*Figure 1I-K*). Thus, these data suggested that the safety of HSV-ΔICP34.5 in PLWH might be tolerable. In addition, both adenovirus and vaccinia virus cannot reactivate HIV latency in this study (Figure S3), and the deletion of ICP0 gene from HSV-1 diminished the reactivation effect of HIV latency by HSV-1 (Figure S4), implying this reactivation might be virus-specific. Overall, these findings indicate that the recombinant HSV-ΔICP34.5 construct specifically reactivate HIV latency with high efficiency.

The modified HSV-based constructs effectively reactivated HIV latency by modulating the IKKα/β-NF-κB pathway and PP1-HSF1 pathway

Next, based on RNA-seq analysis for HSV-△ICP34.5-induced signaling pathways (Figure S5) and previous literature, we explored the mechanism of reactivating viral latency by HSV-ΔICP34.5-based constructs. J-Lat10.6 cells were infected with HSV-GFP or HSV-ΔICP34.5, and results showed that HSV-ΔICP34.5 significantly enhanced the phosphorylation of IKKα/β, promoted the degradation of IKBα, and thus led to the accumulation of p65 in the nucleus (*Figure 2A*). NF-κB is a well-known host transcription factor that exists in the form of the NF-κB-IκB complex in resting cells, but IκB can degrade and release the NF-κB dimer to enter the nucleus and promote gene transcription in response to external stimulation. Using the coimmunoprecipitation (Co-IP) assay, we verified that the ICP34.5 protein had a specific interaction with IKKα/β, and then ICP34.5 could dephosphorylate IKKα/β. Moreover, the overexpression of ICP34.5 effectively inhibited lipopolysaccharide (LPS) -induced NF-κB pathway activation by inhibiting p65 entry into the nucleus (*Figure 2B-C*).

To further clarify the underlying mechanism, we performed the immunoprecipitation-mass spectrometry (IP-MS) analysis in ICP34.5 overexpressing cells to identify other potential molecules contributing to this reactivation, and we found that ICP34.5 can also interact with heat shock 1 protein (HSF1) (*Table S1*). HSF1 has been reported as a transcription factor correlated

with the reactivation of HIV latency (Xu et al., 2022, Lin et al., 2018, Zeng et al.,

2017). To test whether HSF1 contributes to the reactivation of HIV latency by HSV-

ΔICP34.5-based constructs, KRIBB11, an inhibitor of HSF1, was administered to

HSV-ΔICP34.5-infected J-Lat 10.6 cells. The results indicated that the reactivation

ability of HSV-ΔICP34.5 was significantly inhibited by KRIBB11 treatment in a

dose-dependent manner (*Figure 2D-E*). Furthermore, a significant enhancement

of the binding of HSF1 to the HIV LTR was observed upon HSV-ΔICP34.5 infection,

leading to an increase in the reactivation of HIV latency (*Figure 2F*). The direct

interaction between ICP34.5 and HSF1 was also identified by Co-IP assay.

Importantly, HSF1 was effectively dephosphorylated at Ser320 as a result of the

overexpression of ICP34.5, while no influence on the level of HSF1 expression

was observed (*Figure 2G-H, Figure S6*). Considering that protein phosphatase 1

(PP1) can interact with ICP34.5 and dephosphorylate eIF2α (Li et al., 2011), we

then investigated the interaction between PP1α and ICP34.5 (*Figure 2I*).

Additionally, a direct interaction between PP1α and HSF1 was found, allowing for

the dephosphorylation of HSF1 and then affecting its ability to reactivate HIV

latency (*Figure 2J-L*). Collectively, these findings demonstrated that our modified

HSV-ΔICP34.5-based constructs effectively reactivated HIV latency by modulating

the IKKα/β-NF-κB pathway and PP1-HSF1 pathway.

Recombinant HSV-ΔICP34.5 constructs expressing SIV antigens

elicited robust immune responses in mice

Subsequently, we explored the potential of HSV-ΔICP34.5 as a bifunctional

therapeutic vector to not only reactivate latent viral reservoirs but also induce

antigen-specific immune responses against viral replication. To achieve this, SIV

antigen genes were introduced into HSV-ΔICP34.5 vector based onBAC/ galK

system. Additionally, the ICP47 gene was ablated to augment the immunogenicity

of the HSV vector (*Figure 3A, Figure S7*). A series of recombinant HSV-

ΔICP34.5ΔICP47-based vectors expressing SIV gag and env antigen were

constructed, and the antigen expression of these constructs was confirmed by

Western blotting assay (*Figure 3B and C*). Furthermore, to improve the

immunogenicity of the targeted antigen, we fused the SIV gag with soluble PD1

(sPD1), enabling it to competitively bind with PD-L1 and thereby block the PD1/PD-

L1 immune inhibitory pathway (*Figure 3D*). Consistent with the above findings,

these HSV-ΔICP34.5ΔICP47-based SIV vaccines also efficiently reactivated HIV

latency (*Figure S8*). Then, the immunogenicity of the above modified HSV-

ΔICP34.5ΔICP47-based SIV vaccine was assessed in mice (*Figure 3E*). Our

results showed that these constructs effectively elicited SIV antigen-specific T cell

immune responses using the interferon γ (IFN-γ) ELISpot assay and the

intracellular cytokine staining (ICS) assay. Of note, the frequency of SIV Gag-

specific IFN-γ -secreting spot-forming cells (SFCs) in the HSV-sPD1-SIVgag group

(1350 SFCs per 10^6 splenocytes) was significantly higher than that in the HSV-

SIVgag group (498 SFCs per 10^6 splenocytes) (*Figure 3F*). The frequency of SIV

Env2-specific IFN-γ -secreting SFCs in the HSV- SIVenv group was significantly

higher than the HSV-empty group (*Figure 3G*). Furthermore, the polyfunctionality

of antigen-specific T cell subsets in response to SIV antigen stimulation was

confirmed using the ICS assay (*Figure 3H-M*). Consistently, the HSV-sPD1-

SIVgag group showed a significantly higher frequency of SIV-specific CD3$^+$ T,

CD4$^+$ T, and CD8$^+$ T cell subsets secreting IFN-γ, IL-2, and TNF-α cytokines

compared to the HSV-SIVgag group (*Figure 3I-K*). Notably, a heightened

proportion of Gag-specific effector memory T cells (Tem) of CD8$^+$ T cell subset in

HSV-sPD1-SIVgag group was observed in comparison to the HSV-Gag group

(*Figure 3L*). In addition, a higher frequency of SIV- Env2-specific CD4$^+$ T cells

secreting IFN-γ was observed in the HSV-SIVenv group than in the HSV-empty

group (*Figure 3M*). These data indicated that the vaccines constructed in this study

elicited a robust T cell immune response in mice. Moreover, the blockade of

PD1/PDL1 signaling pathway effectively enhanced vaccine-induced T cell immune

responses, which was consistent with our and other previous studies (Zhou et al.,

2013, Wu et al., 2022, Pan et al., 2018, Xiao et al., 2014).

The modified HSV-based constructs efficiently elicited SIV-

specific immune responses in chronically SIV-infected macaques

Next, the immunogenicity of these HSV-vectored SIV vaccines was further

investigated in chronically SIV$_{mac239}$-infected rhesus macaques (RMs). To mimic

chronically infected HIV patients in clinic practice, all RMs used in this study were

chronically infected with SIV and received ART treatment for several years, as

reported in our previous studies (Pan et al., 2018, Yang et al., 2019, Wu et al.,

2021, Wu et al., 2022, He et al., 2023). Based on sex, age, viral load, and CD4

count, nine RMs were assigned into three groups: ART+saline group (n=3),

ART+HSV-empty group (n=3), and ART+HSV-sPD1-SIVgag/SIVenv group (n=3)

(*Table S2*). All RMs received ART (FTC/6.7 mg/kg/once daily, PMPA/10

mg/kg/once daily) treatment to avoid the interference of free SIV particles. On day

33 and day 52, these RMs were immunized with saline, HSV-empty, or HSV-sPD1-

SIVgag/SIVenv respectively. On day 70, ART treatment in all RMs was

discontinued to evaluate the time interval of viral rebound. Samples were collected

at different time points to monitor virological and immunological parameters (Figure

4A). To reduce the impact of individual RM variations, the difference in SIV-specific

IFN-γ-secreting SFCs between post-immunization and pre-immunization (∆SFCs)

was used to evaluate the immune response induced by HSV-vectored SIV

vaccines. The results showed that SIV Gag-specific ∆SFCs in the ART+HSV-

sPD1-SIVgag/SIVenv group were greatly increased when compared with those in

the ART+HSV-empty group and ART+saline group (*Figure 4B-D*). A similar

enhancement of SIV Gag-specific TNF-α -secreting CD4$^+$ T and CD8$^+$ T subsets

was also verified by ICS assay (*Figure 4E*). Collectively, these data demonstrated

that the HSV-sPD1-SIVgag/SIVenv construct elicited robust SIV-specific T cell

immune responses in ART-treated, SIV-infected RMs.

The modified HSV-based constructs effectively reactivated SIV

latency *in vivo* and delayed viral rebound in chronically SIV-

infected, ART-treated macaques

Finally, we investigated the therapeutic efficacy of HSV-sPD1-SIVgag/SIVenv in

chronically SIV-infected, ART-treated RMs. Consistent with our previous studies,

the plasma viral load (VL) in these RMs was effectively suppressed during ART

treatment, but rebounded after ART discontinuation. The VL in the ART+saline

group promptly rebounded after ART discontinuation, with an average 8.63-fold

increase in the rebounded peak VL compared with the pre-ART VL (*Figure 5A, D*

and E). However, plasma VL in the ART+HSV-empty group and the ART+HSV-

sPD1-SIVgag/SIVenv group exhibited a delayed rebound interval (*Figure 5B-D*).

Remarkably, there was a lower rebounded peak VL than pre-ART VL in the

ART+HSV-sPD1-SIVgag/SIVenv group (average 12.20-fold decrease), while a

higher rebounded peak VL than pre-ART VL in the ART+HSV-empty group

(average 2.74-fold increase) (*Figure 5E*). Then, we assessed the potential effect

on the latent SIV reservoirs *in vivo* by administering our modified HSV-based SIV

therapeutic constructs in these RMs. Although there were no obvious viral blips

observed in these RMs, we found significant suppression of total SIV DNA and

integrated SIV DNA provirus in the ART+HSV-sPD1-SIVgag/SIVenv group.

However, the copies of the SIV DNA provirus were significantly improved in the

ART+HSV-empty group and ART+saline group (*Figure 5F-G*). More interestingly,

we assessed the magnitude of SIV Pol antigen-specific immune responses, which

could represent to some extent the level of newly generated virions from the

reactivated SIV reservoirs, because SIV Pol antigen was not included in our

designed vaccine constructs. Specifically, the Pol-specific SFCs amount on Day

70 (511 SFCs/10^6 PBMCs, post-vaccination) was higher than that on Day 33 (315

SFCs/10^6 PBMCs, pre-vaccination) in the ART+HSV-sPD1-SIVgag/SIVenv group.

In addition, there was a similar observation in the ART+HSV-empty group. In

contrast, the Pol-specific SFCs gradually decreased with the duration of ART

treatment in the ART+saline group (*Figure 5H*). In addition, the CD4$^+$/CD8$^+$ T cell

ratio (*Figure 5I*) and body weight (*Figure S9*) after treatment were effectively

ameliorated in the RMs of the ART+HSV-sPD1-SIVgag/SIVenv group, but not in

the ART+HSV-empty group and ART+saline group. Our data also demonstrated

that there was no significant effect on the cell composition of peripheral blood in

the macaques of ART+HSV-sPD1-SIVgag/SIVenv group (Figure S10). Taken

together, these findings suggested that the latent SIV reservoirs might be

effectively purged because of the effect of simultaneously reactivating viral latency

and eliciting SIV-specific immune responses by our modified HSV-based SIV

therapeutic constructs, thus resulting in a delayed viral rebound in chronically SIV-

infected, ART-treated macaques.

Discussion

To conquer the continuous epidemic of AIDS, exploring novel strategies to render

and eliminate HIV latency should stand as a pivotal pursuit. Currently, numerous

strategies, including shock and kill, block and lock, chimeric antigen receptor T-

cell therapy, therapeutic vaccination, and gene editing, have been extensively

investigated to target the latent HIV reservoirs for an HIV functional cure (Deeks,

2012, Yeh and Ho, 2021, Maldini et al., 2020, Herzig et al., 2019, Dash et al., 2023,

Dashti et al., 2023, Walker-Sperling et al., 2022). However, there is no safe and

effective approach for clinical use in HIV patients yet. In the present study, we

occasionally found that the modified HSV-ΔICP34.5-based constructs could

reactivate HIV latency more efficiently than wild-type HSV counterpart, which

inspired us to develop a proof-of-concept strategy based on a bifunctional HSV-vectored therapeutic vaccine, aiming to simultaneously reactivate viral latency and elicit HIV/SIV-specific immune responses for HIV functional cure. Our results indicated that these modified HSV-based constructs efficiently elicited antigen-specific immune responses in mice and chronically SIV-infected macaques, and further therapeutic efficacy experiments showed that this strategy effectively reactivated SIV latency *in vivo* and delayed viral rebound in chronically SIV-infected, ART-treated macaques (*Figure 6*).

The latent HIV proviruses can harbor it into the host genome with a quiescent transcription state, and thus cannot be recognized by immune surveillance or drug killing (Churchill et al., 2016, Pierson et al., 2000). Therefore, it is critical to disrupt viral latency for developing an HIV cure strategy. Based on our experimental data, the mechanism for efficiently reactivating viral latency by the modified HSV-ΔICP34.5-based constructs may involve regulating the IKKα/β-NF-κB pathway and PP1-HSF1 pathway. Indeed, during its replication, HSV can activate the double-stranded RNA-dependent protein kinase (PKR) pathway, and thus phosphorylate the protein translation initiation regulator eIF2α, resulting in the initiation of protein translation (Farassati et al., 2001). Previous studies have shown that the reactivation potential of HSV might be intertwined with NF-κB, Sp1, and other unknown transcription factors by ICP0, ICP4, and ICP27 (Chapman et al., 1991, Amici et al., 2004, Vlach and Pitha, 1992, Mosca et al., 1987b, Golden et al., 1992, Vlach and Pitha, 1993, Mosca et al., 1987a). However, the underlying mechanism by which the ICP34.5-deleted HSV construct can greatly improve the reactivation

efficacy of HIV latency remains elusive. ICP34.5 is a neurotoxicity factor that can

antagonize innate immune responses, including PKR, TANK binding kinase (TBK1)

signaling, and Beclin1-mediated apoptosis (He et al., 1997, Manivanh et al., 2017,

Orvedahl et al., 2007). ICP34.5 binds to host PP1 and mediates the

dephosphorylation of eIF2α, thus allowing protein synthesis and reversing the

effects of PKR and host antiviral functions (He et al., 1997, He et al., 1998). In this

study, our findings further unveiled an interaction between ICP34.5 and HSF1,

resulting in reduced HSF1 phosphorylation via recruitment of PP1α. Interestingly,

previous reports indicated that HSF1 could positively regulate HIV gene

transcription (Rawat and Mitra, 2011), which is facilitated by its nuclear entry post-

phosphorylation and subsequent recruitment of p300 for self-acetylation, along

with binding to the HIV-1 LTR. Studies have also shown that HSF1 could further

orchestrate p-TEFb recruitment to promote HIV-1 transcriptional elongation (Peng

et al., 2020, Lin et al., 2018, Pan et al., 2016b, Pan et al., 2016a). Under stress-

induced conditions, phosphorylation triggers the formation of the HSF1 trimer, thus

facilitating its nuclear entry to bind to heat shock elements (HSEs) for gene

transcription regulation (Bonner et al., 2000, Timmons et al., 2020). Additionally,

we also demonstrated that ICP34.5 interacted with IKKα and IKKβ, thereby

impeding NF-κB nuclear entry and further curbing HIV latency. Consistently,

previous studies have also suggested that ICP34.5 could disrupt the NF-κB

pathway and possibly affect the maturation of dendritic cells (Jin et al., 2011).

Intriguingly, these findings collectively indicated that ICP34.5 might play an

antagonistic role in the reactivation of HIV by HSV-1, and thus our modified HSV-

ΔICP34.5 constructs can effectively reactivate HIV/SIV latency through the release

of imprisonment from ICP34.5. However, ICP34.5 overexpression had only a

partial effect on the reduction of the HIV latency reactivation, indicating that HSV-

ΔICP34.5-based constructs can also reactivate HIV latency through other yet-to-

be-determined mechanisms.

Another observation in this study is that the HSV-sPD1-SIVgag/SIVenv construct

elicited robust and persistent SIV-specific T cell immune responses in ART-treated,

chronically SIV-infected macaques. Increasing evidence has indicated that HIV-

specific cytolytic T lymphocytes (CTLs) can facilitate the suppression of latent viral

reservoirs, and thus, the induction of robust and persistent HIV-specific CTL

responses is essential for achieving long-term disease-free and transmission-free

HIV control (Collins et al., 2020). Featured polyfunctional CD8^{+} T cells may

contribute to HIV elite controllers or long-term non-progressors, a rare proportion

of HIV-infected individuals who can spontaneously control viral replication even

without ART treatment (Owen et al., 2010, Ferre et al., 2009, O'Connell et al.,

2009). In addition, both our previous study and others have demonstrated that

strong antigen-specific CD8^{+} T cell immune responses, especially effector memory

CD8^{+} T cells, were associated with a lower viral load, and *in vivo* CD8^{+} lymphocyte

depletion with intravenous infusion of anti-CD8 monoclonal antibody could lead to

dramatical viral rebound in these vaccinated elite macaques (Perdomo-Celis et al.,

2022, Pandrea et al., 2011, Sun et al., 2013, Sun et al., 2010, Pan et al., 2018,

Sun et al., 2012). Notably, previous studies have shown that HSV-based vaccines

expressing HIV/SIV antigen did elicit specific CD8^{+} T cell immune responses in

mice and macaques, but the magnitude was not as strong as other viral vectors

(Parker et al., 2007, Murphy et al., 2000, Kaur et al., 2007). Therefore, to further

improve its immunogenicity *in vivo*, some modifications were adopted to optimize

the HSV-vectored vaccine. 1) The ICP47 protein, encoded by the US12 gene, can

bind to the transporter associated with antigen presentation (TAP) 1/2, inhibiting

the transport of viral peptides into the endoplasmic reticulum and the loading of

peptides onto nascent major histocompatibility complex (MHC) class I molecules

to activate CD8$^+$ T cells (Orr et al., 2005). Therefore, the ICP47 gene was deleted

from our developed HSV vector. 2) Negatively immunoregulatory molecules,

including PD1, TIM-3, and LAG-3, are usually involved in the pathogenesis of HIV

infection, as well as in chronically SIV-infected macaques. Among them, PD1

upregulation can result in the exhaustion and dysfunction of CD8$^+$ T cells

(Trautmann et al., 2006). In addition, PD1 expression on memory CD4$^+$ T cells

might be linked with HIV latency. In this study, we modified the SIV antigen by

fusing to soluble PD1 (sPD1), which can block the PD1/PDL1 pathway by

competitively binding with PDL1 and thus improve HIV/SIV vaccine-induced CD8$^+$

T cell immune responses (Zhou et al., 2013, Wu et al., 2022, Pan et al., 2018, Xiao

et al., 2014).

Although promising, there are still some limitations to our study. Firstly, this is a

pilot study with a relatively small numbers of RMs, and future studies with a larger

number of animals can be conducted to better verify our strategy. Secondly, the

HSV-sPD1-SIVgag/SIVenv vaccine resulted in delayed viral rebound and a lower

peak viral load post-rebound than pre-ART treatment but did not completely

suppress SIV virus rebound in this study, which may be attributed to suboptimal

doses and treatment, implying that we should further optimize this regimen for

eventually achieving an HIV functional cure in future studies. The current

consensus on HIV/AIDS vaccines emphasizes the importance of simultaneously

inducing broadly neutralizing antibodies and cellular immune responses. Therefore,

we believe that incorporating the induction of broadly neutralizing antibodies into

our future optimizing approaches may lead to better therapeutic outcomes. Taken

together, these findings demonstrated that our modified HSV-ΔICP34.5-based

constructs potentially reactivated HIV/SIV latency by modulating the IKKα/β-NF-

κB pathway and PP1-HSF1 pathway, and thereby we developed a proof-of-

concept strategy based on a bifunctional HSV-vectored therapeutic vaccine, which

can provide insights into the rational design of novel strategies for pursuing an HIV

functional cure.

Methods

Mouse ethics statement and vaccination

Female BALB/c mice, aged six to eight weeks, were procured from the

Experimental Animal Center of Sun Yat-sen University. A total of twenty-five mice

were randomly divided into five groups to evaluate the immunogenicity of the

recombinant HSV-vector-based SIV vaccine. During the initial week, each mouse

was subcutaneously administered a vaccination of 1×10^6 PFU of the respective

recombinant HSV-vector vaccines (HSV-empty, HSV-sPD1, HSV-SIVgag, HSV-

sPD1-SIVgag, HSV-SIVenv). Following a two-week interval, a booster vaccination

was administered via the subcutaneous route using 2×10^6 PFU of recombinant

HSV-vector vaccines. The subsequent assessment of the immune response

involved ELISpot and intracellular cytokine staining (ICS) assays in accordance

with the vaccination schedule.

Ethics statement and vaccination of macaques

A total of 9 chronically SIV_{mac239}-infected rhesus macaques (RMs) were included

in this study. All RMs received ART treatment (FTC/6.7 mg/kg/once daily,

PMPA/10 mg/kg/once daily) for a duration of 33 days. The RMs were allocated into

three groups based on their baseline plasma SIV viral loads (VL): ART + saline

(n=3) as the control group, ART+ HSV-empty (n=3) as the sham group, and ART+

HSV-sPD1-SIVgag/SIVenv (n=3) as the vaccinated group. On day 0, all RMs

received ART treatment. Once the VL dropped below the limit of detection (1×10^2

copies/mL), the vaccinated group and sham group were primed with a

subcutaneous vaccination of 1×10^7 PFU HSV-sPD1-SIVgag/SIVenv or HSV-

empty, respectively, while the control group received an injection of 0.9% saline.

After three weeks of the prime vaccination, the vaccinated group and sham group

RMs received a subcutaneous booster vaccination of 5×10^7 PFU HSV-sPD1-

SIVgag/SIVenv or HSV-empty, respectively. After two weeks of booster

vaccination, the ART treatment for all RMs was interrupted. The immune response

was evaluated by IFN-γ ELISpot and ICS assays. Plasma viral load was regularly

monitored throughout the studied period.

Peptide pools

The peptide pools, encompassing the complete sequences of SIV Gag, Env, and Pol proteins, comprising 15 amino acids with 11 overlaps, were generously provided by the HIV Reagent Program, National Institutes of Health (NIH), USA. Gag pools comprise 125 peptides, while Env and Pol pools are subdivided into Env1 (109 peptides) and Env2 (109 peptides) pools, as well as Pol1 (131 peptides) and Pol2 (132 peptides) pools. These peptide pools were dissolved in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO, Sigma) at a concentration of 0.4 mg/ peptide/mL for subsequent immunological assays.

Construction of recombinant HSV

For the generation of recombinant HSV-vector-based vaccines, we implemented modifications at the ICP34.5 loci through homologous recombination within the BAC-HSV-1 system. Specifically, double copies of the ICP34.5 and ICP47 genes were either deleted or inserted into the respective counterparts: sPD1, SIVgag, sPD1-SIVgag, and SIVenv genes. The sPD1-SIVgag gene was created by fusing the N-terminal region of mouse soluble PD1 (sPD1) with the C-terminal segment of SIVgag, connected by a GGGSGGG linker, which was engineered through overlapping PCR.

Plaque Assay

Vero cells were seeded at a density of 2×10^5 cells per well in a 12-well plate and cultured for 24 h. Virus samples were serially diluted and then added to the wells. After 2 h of incubation at 37°C with 5% CO_2, the supernatant was aspirated, and the cells were washed with PBS. Then, a medium containing 1% FBS, 1% low-melting-point agarose, and 1% penicillin-streptomycin was added to each well.

449 After 3 days of incubation, cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde at room

450 temperature for 2 h and stained with 1% crystal violet for 10 min. Plaques were

451 visualized and counted, and virus titers were calculated as plaque-forming units

452 per milliliter (PFU/mL).

IFN-γ ELISpot assay

The IFN-γ- ELISpot assay was conducted in accordance with our previous study

(Sun et al., 2010). In the mouse experiment, 2.5×10^5 freshly isolated mouse spleen

lymphocytes were simulated with SIV Gag, Env1, and Env2 peptide pools. In the

monkey experiment, 2×10^5 peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) were

seeded and simulated with the SIV Gag, Env, and Pol peptide pools. Mock

stimulation utilized DMSO (Sigma), while concanavalin A (ConA, 10 μg/mL) was

employed as a positive control. Spot quantification was performed using an

ELISpot reader (Mabtech), and peptide-specific spot counts were determined by

subtracting the spots from mock stimulation.

Intracellular cytokine staining (ICS)

The ICS assay was performed as described previously (Wu et al., 2022). In the

mouse experiment, 2×10^6 freshly isolated mouse spleen lymphocytes were

stimulated with SIV Gag, Env1, and Env2 peptide pools. For the monkey

experiment, 2×10^6 PBMCs were seeded and simulated with the SIV Gag, Env, and

Pol peptide pools. DMSO and PMA (Thermo Scientific) plus ionomycin were used

as the mock and positive controls, respectively. Data analysis was performed using

FlowJo software (version 10.8.1), and the antibodies used are listed in *Table S3*.

The frequencies of cytokines produced from peptide-specific cells were analyzed

by subtracting mock stimulation.

SIV viral RNA and DNA copy assays and absolute T cell count

Absolute T cell count and the levels of plasma mRNA and SIV total DNA were

quantified as described previously (Wu et al., 2022). Plasma viral RNA copy

numbers were determined via SYBR green-based real-time quantitative PCR

(Takara), using SIV gag-specific primers (*Table S4*). Viral RNA copy numbers were

calculated based on the standard curve established using SIV_{mac239} gag standards.

The lower limit of detection for this assay was 100 copies/mL of plasma. Total

cellular DNA was extracted from approximately 0.5 to 5 million cells using a

QIAamp DNA Blood Minikit (Qiagen). PCR assays were performed with 200 ng

samples of DNA, and SIV viral DNA was quantified using a pair of primers targeting

a conserved region of the SIV gag gene, as previously described. Quantitation

was performed by comparing the results to the standard curve of SIV gag copies.

Integrated SIVmac239 DNA was measured using nested PCR with two sets of

primers. The first round used SIVgag-reverse and Alu-forward primers, while the

second round used primers specific to a conserved SIVgag region. Quantification

was compared to a standard of CEMss/pWPXLD-rc cell genome as our previously

described (Yang et al., 2019).

Plasmids, cells, and viruses

pVAX-Myc-PDL1, pVAX-Flag-ICP34.5, pVAX-Myc-HSF1, pVAX-HA-PP1α: full-

length mouse PDL1, full-length HSV-1 ICP34.5, and full-length human HSF1 and

human PP1α with N or C-terminal Tag were cloned into the pVAX vector. pVAX-

empty, pcDNA3.1-IKKα, and pcDNA3.1-IKKβ plasmids were stored in our

laboratory. pVAX-empty was used as a mock transfection in our study.

293T cells (from the embryonic kidney of a female human fetus), Vero cells (from

the kidney of a female normal adult African green monkey), and Hela cells (from

the cervical cancer cells of an African American woman) were cultured in complete

Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM, Gibco) containing 10% fetal bovine

serum (FBS, Gibco) and 1% penicillin/streptomycin (Gibco) at 37°C in an

atmosphere of 5% CO_2. The J-Lat 10.6 cells (Jurkat cells contain the HIV-1 full-

length genome whose Env was frameshifted and inserted with GFP in place of Nef)

and the HIV-1 latently infected $CD4^+$ CEM cells ACH-2 (A3.01 cell integrated HIV-

1 proviral DNA) were cultured in complete RPIM640 (Gibco) containing 10% FBS

and 1% penicillin/streptomycin at 37°C in an atmosphere of 5% CO_2. J-Lat 10.6-

ICP34.5 cells were constructed in our laboratory.

The HSV-1 (McKrae) strains were stored in our laboratory. HSV-GFP (17 strain)

was rescued from pBAC-GFP-HSV in Vero cells. HSV-ΔICP34.5 (17 strain) was

rescued from pBAC-GFP-HSV-ΔICP34.5 (with deletion of double copies of

ICP34.5 gene) in Vero cells.

RT-qPCR

RT-qPCR was performed as described in our previous study (Zhao et al., 2022).

Data were normalized to β-actin. The primer sequences are listed in Supplemental

Table 4. Fold changes in the threshold cycle (Ct) values were calculated using the

$2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method.

Chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) assay

ChIP analysis was conducted using the SimpleChIP Enzymatic Chromatin IP kit

(Agarose Beads) (CST), following the manufacturer's instructions. Quantitative

real-time PCR was employed for detecting the LTR sequence. The sequences of

primers used in the LTR ChIP are listed in Supplemental Table 4. % Input= 2% $\times$

$2^{[(ct)2\% \text{ input sample (ct) IP sample}]}$.

Co-immunoprecipitation (Co-IP)

523   Cells were harvested and subjected to Co-IP assay, following the protocol outlined

524   in our previous study (Zhao et al., 2022).

Protein extraction and western blot
Nuclear and cytoplasmic proteins

526   were extracted by kits following the manufacturer's instructions (Beyotime). The

527   Western blotting assay was performed as previously described (Zhao et al., 2022).

Statistical analysis

529   GraphPad Prism 8.0 (GraphPad Software, San Diego, California) was used for

530   statistical analysis. For intragroup direct comparisons, Student's unpaired two-

531   tailed t test was performed to analyze significant differences. For comparisons of

532   multiple groups, one-way ANOVAs were performed. Significance levels are

533   indicated as *P< 0.05, ** P< 0.01, *** P< 0.001, **** P< 0.0001.

Study approval

535   Mice experiment was approved by the Laboratory Animal Ethics Committee

536   guidelines at Sun Yat-sen University (approval number: SYSU-IACUC-2021-

537   000185). Chinese rhesus macaques (Macaca mulatta) were housed at the Landau

538   Animal Experimental Center, Guangdong Landau Biotechnology Co., Ltd.

(approval number: N2021101). The primary PBMC samples were isolated from the chronically HIV-1-infected participants who were recruited from Guangzhou Eighth People's Hospital (Guangzhou, Guangdong, China), which was approved by the Medical Ethics Review Board of the School of Public Health (Shenzhen), Sun Yat-sen University (2022-037). All participants provided written informed consent, agreeing to participate in this study. The enrollment criteria for HIV-1-infected individuals included substained suppression of plasma HIV-1 viremia under ART, with undetectable plasma HIV-1 RNA levels (less than 50 copies/mL) for at least 12 months and a CD4$^+$ T cell count more than 350 cells/μL).

Acknowledgements

We appreciate the staff at the Animal Center of GIBH for their excellent technical assistance. We thank all other members of our group for their helpful advice and discussion to improve this project. We also appreciate the NIH AIDS Research and Reference Reagent Program for providing SIV peptide pools.

Additional information

Competing interests

The authors have declared that no conflict of interest exists.

Funding

This project was supported by National Natural Science Foundation of China (82271786, 81971927, 32370171), Science and Technology Planning Project of Guangdong Province, China (2021B1212040017), Shenzhen Key Laboratory of Pathogenic Microbes and Biosafety (ZDSYS20230626091203007), the Sanming

Project of Medicine in Shenzhen Nanshan (SZSM202103008), and the Key

Subject of Nanshan district of Shenzhen for AIDS surveillance and prevention.

Author Contributions

All authors were involved in drafting or critically revising the manuscript for

important intellectual content, and all authors approved the final version for

publication. CS conceived the project and provided the main funding. CS and LC

designed the experiments and reviewed the manuscript. ZW, PL, YY, and CW

performed most of the experiments and analyzed the data. ZW, PL, YY, CW, ML,

HW, MS, YH, and MC established the animal models and performed animal

experiments. ZW and CS interpreted the data and wrote the manuscript.

572   Additional files

573   **Supplementary files**

574   Figure S1-S10. Table S1-S4.

575   **Data Availability Statement**

576   Source data contain the numerical data used to generate the figures.

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Figure 1. The modified HSV-ΔICP34.5-based constructs reactivated HIV
latency more efficiently than wild-type HSV counterparts. (**A**) J-Lat 10.6 cells
(1×10^6) were infected with varying MOIs of wild-type HSV-1 Mckrae strain for 30
h. The proportion of GFP+ cells, indicating activated latent cells, is shown in the
pseudocolor plot (left) and the corresponding bar chart (right). (**B**) J-Lat 10.6 cells
(1×10^6) were infected with varying MOIs of HSV-1 17 strain containing GFP (HSV-
GFP) for 30 h, and then the mRNA levels of HIV-1 LTR, Tat, Gag, Vpr, Vif are
shown with the histogram. (**C**)J-Lat 10.6 cells (1×10^6) were infected with HSV-GFP
or HSV-ΔICP34.5 at an MOI of 0.1 for 30 h. The mRNA levels of HIV-1 LTR, Tat,

Gag, Vpr, Vif, and (**D**) HSV-1 UL27 are shown with the histogram. (**E**) ACH-2 cells
(1×10^6) were infected with HSV-GFP or HSV-ΔICP34.5 at an MOI of 0.1 for 30 h.
The p24 protein level was detected using an HIV-1 p24 ELISA kit, and the mRNA
levels of HIV-1 LTR, Tat, Gag, Vpr, and Vif are shown in the histogram (**F**). (**G**) J-
Lat 10.6 and J-Lat 10.6-ICP34.5 cells were infected with HSV-GFP or HSV-
ΔICP34.5, and the mRNA levels of HIV-1 Tat were shown with the histogram (left).
Blotting showed that J-Lat 10.6 cells stably expressing HSV ICP34.5 (J-Lat 10.6-
ICP34.5) can appropriately express ICP34.5 protein using Flag-tag antibodies
(right). (**H**) J-Lat 10.6 and J-Lat 10.6-ICP34.5 cells were respectively stimulated
with PMA (10 ng/mL) and TNF-α (10 ng/mL), and the expression level of GFP$^+$
cells is displayed with the corresponding bar chart. (**I-K**) Primary CD4$^+$ T cells from
people living with HIV (PLWH) were infected with HSV-GFP or HSV-ΔICP34.5.
The inflammatory response was assessed by evaluating mRNA levels of IL-6, IL-
1β and TNF-α using qPCR. Data shown are mean ± SD. **P<0.01, ***P<0.001,
****P<0.0001. ns: no significance.
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Figure 2. The modified HSV-based constructs effectively reactivated HIV latency by modulating the NF-κB pathway and HSF1 pathway. (**A**) J-Lat 10.6 cells infected with HSV-GFP and HSV-ΔICP34.5 at MOI 0.1. Cytoplasmic and nuclear proteins were analyzed for p65, p-IKKα/β and IkBα levels. GAPDH and Lamin B1 served as loading controls for cytoplasmic and nuclear proteins, respectively. (**B**) 293T cells transfected with Flag-ICP34.5, IKKα (left), or IKKβ (right) analyzed through Co-IP assays. (**C**) 293T cells were transfected with Flag-ICP34.5 or empty vector (Vec) for 24h, treated with LPS (1μg/mL) for 8h. Cytoplasmic and nuclear proteins analyzed by Western blot (WB). (**D-E**) J-Lat 10.6 cells infected with HSV-ΔICP34.5 treated with various KRIBB11 concentrations. LTR and Tat mRNA levels analyzed by qPCR. (**F**) J-Lat 10.6 cells infected with HSV-wt or HSV-ΔICP34.5 at MOI 0.1 for 36h. ChIP-qPCR assessed HSF1 binding to LTR. IgG and Histone antibody (His) served as negative and positive controls. (**G**) 293T cellstransfected with Flag-ICP34.5 and Myc-HSF1, analyzed by Co-IP assays. (**H**) The immunoblot depicts the alterations in protein levels in 293T cells transfected with either empty vector or ICP34.5 for 6 h, followed by 24 h of treatment with 10 μM MG132. (**I**) 293T cells transfected with Flag-ICP34.5 and HA-PP1α, analyzed by Co-IP assays. (**J**) The immunoblot depicts the alterations in protein levels in 293T cells transfected with either empty vector or HA-PP1α for 6 h, followed by 24 h of treatment with 10 μM MG132. (**K**) 293T cells transfected with Myc-HSF1 with or without Flag-ICP34.5, analyzed by Co-IP assays. (**L**) 293T cells transfected with Myc-HSF1 and HA-PP1α, analyzed through Co-IP assays. Data shown are mean ± SD. **P<0.01, ****P<0.0001. ns: no significance.

Figure 3. Recombinant HSV-1 vector-based SIV vaccines induce specific T cell immune responses in mice. (**A**) Schematic diagram illustrating the construction of recombinant HSV through the BAC/galK selection system. The ICP34.5 gene was replaced with the galK gene via homologous recombination, followed by substituting galK with a target gene expression cassette containing the hCMV promoter and BGH terminator. Finally, the ICP47 gene was deleted. (**B**) Brightfield (top) and fluorescence (bottom) images of a clone of the rescued recombinant HSV. (**C**) Vero cells infected with recombinant HSV constructs, with protein expression of targeted genes detected using SIV-infected monkey serum. (**D**) HeLa cells transfected with Myc-PDL1 and then infected with HSV-empty, HSV-SIVgag, or HSV-sPD1-SIVgag at an MOI of 0.1 for 24 h. Cell lysates were subjected to Co-IP analysis. (**E**) Schematic schedule of mouse vaccination. Twenty-five mice were randomly allocated to five groups: HSV-empty, HSV-sPD1, HSV-SIVgag, HSV-sPD1-SIVgag, and HSV-SIVenv. Mice were injected with the corresponding vaccines at weeks 0 and 2. At week 4, mice were sacrificed, and spleen lymphocytes were collected to evaluate immune response.(**F-G**) Column graphs showing the number of Gag or Env1, Env2-specific spot-forming cells (SFCs) per 10^6 spleen lymphocytes, as measured by IFN-γ ELISpot assay. (**H**) Pseudocolor plot of flow cytometry illustrating the gating strategy. Column graphs showing the frequencies of IFN-γ, IL-2, and TNF-α production from gag-specific CD3$^+$ T (**I**), CD4$^+$ T (**J**), and CD8$^+$ T cells (**K**). (**L**) Bar chart showing the proportion of Tem (effector memory T cells) among CD4$^+$ T and CD8$^+$ T cells upon stimulation with the SIV Gag peptide pools.(**M**) Bar chart showing the frequencies of Env2-specific IFN-γ$^+$ CD4$^+$ T cells. Data were expressed as mean±SD from five mice samples. Three independent experiments for the animal immunization were repeated. *P<0.05, **P<0.01, ***P<0.001, ****P<0.0001. ns: no significance.

Figure 4. The modified HSV-based constructs efficiently elicited SIV-
specific immune responses in chronically SIV-infected macaques. (**A**)
Schematic schedule of the macaque experiment. Nine chronically SIV-infected
macaques were assigned into three groups: ART+saline group (n=3), ART+HSV-
empty group (n=3), and ART+HSV-sPD1-SIVgag/SIVenv group (n=3). All SIV-
infected macaques received ART treatment (FTC/6.7 mg/kg/once daily,
PMPA/10 mg/kg/once daily) for 33 days. On days 33 and 52, macaques were
immunized with saline, HSV-empty, and HSV-sPD1-SIVgag/SIVenv respectively.
ART treatment ,was interrupted in all macaques on day 70 after the second
vaccination. Samples were collected at various time points to monitor virological
and immunological parameters. (**B**) Representative images of Gag or Env-
specific spots (2.5×10^5 cells per well) from each macaque pre-vaccination
(before, day 33) and post-vaccination (after, day 70) by ELISpot assay. (**C-D**)
Difference in SIV-specific IFN-γ-secreting cells (ΔSFCs) between pre- and post-
immunization, assessing the immune response induced by HSV-vectored SIV
vaccines. (**E**) Difference in SIV-specific TNF-α/IFN-γ/IL-2-secreting CD4^{+} T and
CD8^{+} T subsets between pre- and post-immunization, detected by ICS assay.

Figure 5. The modified HSV-based constructs effectively reactivated SIV latency in vivo in chronically SIV-infected, ART-treated macaques. (**A-D**) Viral load (VL) changes in plasma for each animal were monitored throughout the experiment using real-time PCR. The detection limit is 100 copies per mL plasma. The shaded area represents the duration of ART administration. (**E**) The VL change in plasma between pre-ART and the peak value in the rebound stage after ART discontinuation. (**F**) Change in total SIV DNA copies between pre-ART and viral rebound after ART discontinuation. (**G**) SIV integrated DNA (iDNA) copy numbers detected by Alu-PCR at different time points. (**H**) Change in the number of SIV Pol-specific IFN-γ-secreting cells between pre-immunization (day 33) and post-immunization (day 70), as detected by ELISpot assay. (**I**) Change in the CD4+ T/ CD8+ T ratio.

Figure 6. Pattern to illustrate the proof-of-concept strategy based on a bifunctional HSV-vectored therapeutic vaccine for HIV functional cure. In the present study, the modified HSV-ΔICP34.5-based constructs effectively reactivated HIV/SIV latency by modulating the IKKα/β-NF-κB pathway and PP1-HSF1 pathway (Shock) and simultaneously elicited antigen-specific polyfunctional CD8⁺ T cells to eliminate cells infected with the reactivated virion (Kill). BAC: bacterial artificial chromosome; rHSV: recombinant HSV; TCR: T-cell receptor; PD1: Programmed Cell Death Protein 1; CD40L: CD40 Ligand.