De novo PADI4-mediated citrullination of histone H3 stimulates HIV-1

transcription

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Highlights:

• The PADI4 enzyme stimulates HIV-1 transcription during T cell activation.

• PADI4 citrullinates histone H3 at the HIV-1 promoter upon T cell activation and inhibiting
PADI4 reduces HIV-1 reactivation in *ex vivo* CD4 T cells from people living with HIV-1.

• H3cit is mostly found at gene promoters, and productive HIV-1 proviruses are more likely than
latent or reactivatable proviruses, to integrate in chromatin susceptible for citrullination.

• H3cit prevents latency establishment by interfering with the binding of HP1α to H3K9me3.

Abstract

HIV-1 infection establishes a reservoir of long-lived cells with integrated proviral DNA that can persist despite antiretroviral therapy (ART). The mechanisms governing the transcriptional regulation of the provirus are complex and incompletely understood. Here, we investigated the role of histone H3 citrullination, a post-translational modification catalyzed by protein-arginine deiminase type-4 (PADI4), in HIV-1 transcription and latency. We found that PADI4 inhibition by GSK484 reduced HIV-1 transcription after T cell activation in *ex vivo* cultures of CD4 T cells from viremic and ART treated people living with HIV-1 (PLWH). The effect was more pronounced in the viremic group. Using cell models of HIV-1 latency, we showed that PADI4-mediated citrullination of histone H3 occurred at the HIV-1 promoter upon T cell stimulation which facilitated proviral transcription. Citrullination of the H3R8 residue prevented heterochromatin formation. We also demonstrated that HIV-1 preferentially integrated into genomic regions marked by H3 citrullination and that proviruses in H3 citrullinated chromatin were more transcriptionally active and less prone to latency than those in non-citrullinated chromatin. Our data reveal a novel mechanism of HIV-1 transcriptional regulation by PADI4 and H3 citrullination and suggest a potential therapeutic target for reducing the size of the latent reservoir, as an approach to cure.

Introduction

HIV-1 establishes a latent viral reservoir that persist despite active antiretroviral therapy (ART). The cells in the latent reservoir represent a heterogeneous population. Even though the cells in the latent reservoir do not produce viral particles, in many cells the HIV-1 provirus is still transcriptionally active (Yukl *et al.*, 2018; Moron-Lopez *et al.*, 2019; Dubé *et al.*, 2023). In other cells, the provirus is likely to be permanently silent, such as those integrated in epigenetically silent regions (Einkauf *et al.*, 2019; Jiang *et al.*, 2020; Lian *et al.*, 2023). Before the start of ART, HIV-1 gradually depletes the CD4 T cell population, as infected cells produce viruses before they are targeted by the immune system. However, after ART initiation, latently infected cells are selected for, since the host immune system eliminates cells expressing viral epitopes (Simonetti *et al.*, 2020). Some of these latent cells can switch between silent and active states of the provirus to avoid detection by the immune system, while maintaining the ability to spread if ART is interrupted. Latency can be induced by many factors (reviewed in Jütte, Love and Svensson, 2023), but a key determinant in long term latency is the chromatin constitution of the provirus (Jiang *et al.*, 2020; Lian *et al.*, 2023). As HIV-1 enters the genome, it is assumed to take the epigenetic profile of the chromatin where it integrates. However, the host can stably silence a locus through different mechanisms including KRAB-ZFP (KAP1) and HUSH (Tchasovnikarova *et al.*, 2015) leading to heterochromatin protein 1 (HP1) over the provirus (du Chéné

et al., 2007). A more transient proviral inactivation is provided by lysine deacetylations (Marban *et al.*,

2007).

The proviral sequence resembles a host gene in several aspects, and the resulting transcripts are

initially processed similarly to human mRNAs. However, at the stage of viral particles forming, the

spliceosome is turned off and the unspliced viral RNA genome is transcribed to be packaged into virions

(Purcell and Martin, 1993). It is unclear what promotes this switch, but acetylation of viral

transactivator protein Tat has been proposed as one mechanism leading to loss of splicing (Berro *et*

al., 2006). Unspliced transcripts are recognized as foreign by the HUSH complex, and specifically the

TASOR subunit. This recognition initiates a process of silencing the chromatin whereby the histone H3

lys9 is methylated (H3K9me3) to enable heterochromatin (Seczynska *et al.*, 2022).

Histone modifications serve as a platform for the binding of other proteins. H3K9me3 is recognized

and bound by the chromodomain of the α variant of HP1 (HP1α) (Bannister *et al.*, 2001). Modification

of arginine adjacent to lysine residues can affect the binding of chromodomain proteins that recognize

methylated lysines (Sharma *et al.*, 2012). Arginines can be modified by methylation or citrullination

(Cuthbert *et al.*, 2004). Citrullination is mediated by members of the protein-arginine deiminase (PADI)

family, of which PADI2 and PADI4 are found in the nucleus. PADI4 is an enzyme primarily expressed in

less differentiated cells and various cancer cells (Nakashima, Hagiwara and Yamada, 2002; Vossenaar,

2004; Chang *et al.*, 2009; Christophorou *et al.*, 2014). It citrullinates targets in the cell nucleus, including

several residues of histone H1, histone H3 and HP1γ (Christophorou *et al.*, 2014; Xiao *et al.*, 2017;

Wiese *et al.*, 2019). In endogenous retroviruses, it has been shown that H3cit8 interferes with HP1α-

binding to H3K9me3 (Sharma *et al.*, 2012). Changes in nuclear citrullination affect chromatin

accessibility of promoters (Moshkovich *et al.*, 2020). These changes in chromatin accessibility have

been attributed to the reduced electrostatic attraction between histones and DNA when changing

from positively charged arginine to neutral citrulline (Jentink *et al.*, 2023).

Here we describe the PADI4-mediated citrullination effect on HIV-1 transcription from the latent

reservoir. We show that, especially before ART is initiated, *de novo* histone H3 citrullination

accompanies HIV-1 transcription during cell activation and prevents proviral latency establishment.

Results

PADI4 stimulates HIV-1 transcription after cell stimulation in cells from viremic ART naïve people
with HIV-1

To test the hypothesis that citrullination affects the latent HIV-1 provirus in reservoir cells from PLWH,

we recruited 30 study participants to a clinical study. Given the known effect of PADI4-mediated

histone citrullination on heterochromatin (Sharma *et al.*, 2012; Christophorou *et al.*, 2014) together

with the observation that the reservoir with intact provirus becomes heterochromatic with time

(Lindqvist *et al.*, 2020; Lian *et al.*, 2023), we included two groups in our cohort. Firstly, viremic study

participants (n=14) and secondly, participants with long-term (>6 years) ART suppressed viremia

(<50c/ml)) (n=17). The study participants were matched across various characteristics, with the

exceptions being their plasma viremia levels and ART status (Table S1). CD4 T cells were isolated from

peripheral blood. The cells were activated by phorbol-12-myristate-13-acetate and ionomycin (PMAi)

after treatment with PADI4 inhibitor GSK484 or mock treatment. The intact HIV-1 reservoir was

measured using Intact proviral DNA assay (IPDA) (Bruner *et al.*, 2019). Cell-free RNA was measured by

the amount of intact virus RNA in the supernatant (Martin *et al.*, 2022). For cell-associated RNA, the

LTR region and the multiply spliced RNA was investigated.

In the entire cohort, GSK484 reduced the *ex vivo* HIV-1 activation based on cell-free RNA (Fig 1A). Upon

stratification between viremic and ART suppressed study participants, it was clear that cell activation

induced a release of intact viral particles only in cells from viremic study participants. This release was

dependant on H3cit as it was abolished in cells treated with GSK484. Activation of cells from the ART

treated study participants did not result in release of intact viruses (Fig 1B). This difference was not a

consequence of differences in numbers of infected cell as the intact HIV-1 reservoir was similar

between the two groups (Fig 1C). The cell-associated RNA from the LTR transcripts showed that both

groups had a clear proviral activation after PMAi-stimulation, significantly reduced in viremic samples

pre-exposed to GSK484 (Fig 1D). Multiply spliced processed RNA (Tat-Rev) was induced by PMAi

activation in cells from ART suppressed study participants only (Fig 1E), implying involvement of Tat in

the latency reversal process. A lack of mRNAs encoding Tat in activated cells from viremic study

participants suggests that latency reversal in these cells was Tat-independent. As the effect of GSK484

was most strongly associated with viremic study participants, we quantitated the levels of *PADI4*. We

observed that the expression of *PADI4* varied considerably in the cohort, but there was no difference

between *PADI4* expression in resting CD4 T cells from viremic or ART suppressed study participants

(Fig 1F).

This data show that PADI4 influences HIV-1 latency reversal in cells from people living with HIV-1,

particularly before the initiation of ART.

PADI4 facilitates HIV-1 transcription after cell stimulation in cell models

To investigate mechanisms underlying the effects of PADI4 inhibition on HIV-1 proviral activation, we

used established cell models of HIV-1 latency. The J-lat clone 5A8 is a Jurkat-derived cell line with a

single copy of a reporter HIV-1 integrated in an intron of the *MAT2A* locus. Proviral expression can be

tracked by flow cytometry or microscopy as the sequence for *nef* is replaced by *gfp* (Jordan, Bisgrove

and Verdin, 2003; Sakane *et al.*, 2011). To test the selectivity of PADI enzymes for the effect on HIV-1

transcription, cells were exposed to three different PADI inhibitors: pan-PADI inhibitor Cl-amidine,

PADI2-specific CAY10723, and PADI4-specific GSK484. The effect was measured by flow cytometry

after 24 h exposure. The PADI inhibitors alone had no effect on HIV-1 latency reversal (Fig 2A). When

cells were exposed to PADI inhibitors in combination with PMAi to stimulate the cells, Cl-amidine and

especially GSK484 resulted fewer GFP-positive cells (Fig 2A). We also compared the effect of GSK484

with GSK106, an inactive control of GSK484 control, showing that GSK484 reducing the level of HIV-1

reactivation compared to GSK106 (Fig S1A). This suggests that citrullination by PADI4 is part of the HIV-

1 latency reversal mechanism. CAY10723 resulted in no significant decrease in HIV reactivation when

the cells were activated with PMAi. PADI4 is known to be expressed in neutrophils (Asaga *et al.*, 2001),

but the gene is weakly expressed in most differentiated cell types. In our cells, we verified that PADI4

was expressed, although at low basal level (Fig 2B) (1,700 copies/10 ng RNA). Upon cell stimulation,

PADI4 expression was increased (Fig 2B). To understand the kinetics of the GSK484 effect, we set up a

time course experiment and observed that the PADI4 inhibition led to a lower plateau of proviral

activation although the kinetics were similar (Fig 2C). This is consistent with a subpopulation of cells

being affected by PADI4 inhibition. To eliminate the possibility that the drugs are differently

inactivated, we also performed a pulse experiment with PMAi and GSK484 present for one hour and

then washed out. The results were similar between a pulse or continuous exposure (Fig 2C).

In the nucleus, PADI4 citrullinates many targets, including histone H3. As observed previously (Sharma

et al., 2012), H3cit was induced within an hour after cell activation. This induction is not observed after

PADI4 inhibition (Fig 2D). As expected from the stable nature of the H3cit modification, GSK484

prevents *de novo* citrullination but it does not reduce H3cit in a short time period (Fig 2D).

Stimulating T cells effectively reverses HIV-1 latency. To test if the decreased proviral activation could

be explained by GSK484 affecting T cell activation, we determined the abundance of the surface

markers CD69 (early activation) and CD25 (late activation). CD25 was not affected by PADI4 inhibition,

but for CD69, we observed a slight increase after GSK484 exposure (Fig 2E,F). This is unlikely to explain

the effect of reducing HIV-1 transcription though, as T cell activation stimulates latency reversal. The

GSK484 effect on cell proliferation was measured by Ki-67 expression, which remained unaffected by

PADI4 inhibition (Fig 2G).

To confirm a more general role of PADI4 in HIV-1 latency reversal, we inhibited PADI4 by GSK484 in a

K562-derived HIV-1 latency model (Besnard *et al.*, 2016). In K562-lat cells, the PADI4 gene was

expressed (48 copies/10 ng RNA), although at a lower level than in 5A8. This K562-lat cell line is

polyclonal with respect to HIV-1 integration sites. As observed for the 5A8 cell line, PADI4 inhibition

resulted in reduced PMAi-induced HIV-1 activation (Fig 2H).

Citrullinated histone H3 at the HIV-1 provirus stimulated latency reversal

We next sought to determine if histone H3 on the HIV-1 provirus is citrullinated during latency reversal.

To simultaneously detect H3cit and the effect on HIV-1 activation in single cells, we performed the

PLA-ZFP assay where the proviral promoter is marked with an engineered zinc-finger protein (ZFP)

(Wang *et al.*, 2014; Lindqvist *et al.*, 2022). This ZFP was introduced into 5A8 cells, to generate the 1C10

cells, with the proviral promoter marked by the protein. The basal level of H3cit at the HIV-1 promoter

was elevated after cell stimulation (Fig 3A). This effect did not occur in the presence of GSK484,

confirming a base level of H3cit that is augmented by *de novo* PADI4-mediated citrullination at the HIV-

1 locus. As expected from previous flow cytometry measurement, GSK484 reduced the GFP signal in

this fluorescent microscopy readout (Fig 3B).

We measured the influence of citrullination at different H3 residues. Three different arginines–H3R2,

H3R8 and H3R17–were tested for citrullination (Fig 3C). Although all residues were higher after cell

stimulation, H3cit8 and H3cit17 were particularly affected.

To map the distribution of H3cit at the provirus in 5A8 cells, we applied CUT&TAG (Kaya-Okur *et al.*,

2019). Mapping was done using four different conditions, unstimulated or PMAi stimulated cells with

or without GSK484 for 24 h. In unstimulated cells, two peaks of H3cit were found at the HIV-1 LTR

promoter, coinciding with two nucleosomes (nuc-0 and nuc-1) surrounding the transcription start site

(Fig 3D). Upon stimulation, the nuc-0 peak shifted upstream, to the NF-κB binding site and the nuc-1

peak disappeared. GSK484 weakened this effect. PMAi induced activation is known to shift or evict

nuc-1 of the HIV-1 promoter (Van Lint *et al.*, 1996). Inhibition of PADI4-mediated citrullination has

previously been associated with nucleosome repositioning (Moshkovich *et al.*, 2020). To confirm the

repositioning by GSK484, we performed a DNA protection assay (Conrad *et al.*, 2017). As expected

from a redistribution of nucleosomes after GSK484 exposure, the AflII site is unprotected, even without

cell stimulation (Fig 3E).

Genome-wide H3cit is stably found at most promoters

As a genome-wide distribution of H3cit was not available, we performed Cut&Tag to determine the

extent of H3cit in 5A8 cells. Peak calling using MACS2 identified mostly narrow H3cit peaks with a

median of 749±20 bp (Fig 4A). Mapping revealed that most (55.4%) H3cit was found at or close to

genes (Fig 4B). Aligning the peaks to the transcription start sites of all genes showed that H3cit was

predominantly found at promoters, and some in the early coding region (Fig 4C). This global H3cit

pattern appears to be stable, as this pattern was not affected by cell stimulation by PMAi or PADI4

inhibition by GSK484 (Fig S1B).

To relate the H3cit pattern to the distribution of other chromatin marks, we performed a ChromHMM

analysis (Ernst and Kellis, 2017). As expected, the genome-wide H3cit distribution clustered together

with histone marks found at open regions of the genome, such as H3K4me3, H3K27ac and H3K4me1

that are found either at promoters of enhancers. The H3cit pattern matched most closely with that of

H3K4me3 (Fig 4D). Both H3cit and H3K4me3 are stable marks, associated with open regions, but not

necessarily active gene expression (Santos-Rosa *et al.*, 2002; Howe *et al.*, 2017). On the other hand,

marks of heterochromatin such as H3K9me3 and H3K27me3 were clustered away from H3cit, as well

as H3K36me3, a mark internal to genes where transcription initiation is blocked (Bannister *et al.*, 2005).

Productive HIV-1 integrates in H3cit chromatin

Next, we sought to determine the role of H3cit in initial integration of the HIV-1 sequence. We

compared the genome-wide map of H3cit to previous integration site data, stratified on the fate of the

provirus (Battivelli *et al.*, 2018). As expected from H3cit being found in permissive regions of

decondensed chromatin, HIV-1 was found in regions with H3cit (Fig 4E). Interestingly, H3cit is most

often found at integration sites of productive proviruses. Less H3cit is found at latent or latent

reactivatable proviruses, implying that the H3cit structure is resistant to silencing, as previously

suggested for HERVs (Sharma *et al.*, 2012).

H3cit takes part in activity of T cell receptors genes

No gene set terms were significantly enriched in within the genes associated with H3cit. However, we

found 80 genes where new H3cit is formed after PMAi, and 145 genes where the activation-induced

citrullination is blocked by GSK484. The overlap is significant as 61 genes are found in both lists (Fisher's

exact test, $p<10^{-15}$). Two clusters of gene sets are significantly enriched: 1) "T-cell receptor", "adaptive

immunity", and 2) "citrullination" and "nucleosomes". Upon closer inspection of these, we do however

note that the gene set "Genes regulated by T cell activation" gains H3cit just upstream of the TSS after

T cell activation. This effect is abolished by GSK484 (Fig 4F).

It has previously been reported that the TNFα promoter is citrullinated after cell stimulation (Sharma

et al., 2012). In agreement, we also observed *de novo* H3cit at the TNFα TSS after cell stimulation. This

effect was completely abolished in the presence of GSK484 (Fig 4G). This demonstrates the possibility

of several roles of H3cit in the cell during T cell activation.

***de novo* H3cit has a general effect on HIV-1 transcription, but not through Tat or acetylation**

To test if the effect on the observed loss of GFP in GSK484 treated cells was a result of reduced

transcription or a subsequent process, we extracted RNA from the PMAi induced 5A8 cells. HIV-1

produces both spliced and unspliced transcripts as to create infectious viruses (Purcell and Martin,

1993). We tested the effect of GSK484 on short initiated (5´-LTR), early elongated unspliced (Gag),

multiply spliced (Tat-Rev), and late elongated (GFP) transcripts. These transcript types were equally reduced by 30% after GSK484 treatment, although significance was only reached at GFP and Tat-Rev (Fig 5A).

We next tested if H3cit impaired Tat function. We used PLA-ZFP to detect recruitment of Tat to the LTR in 1C10 cells. Tat was still recruited to the LTR after GSK484 exposure (Fig 5B)., Normally Tat is responsible for augmenting the transcription. However, in single cells, the amplitude of GFP expression was not affected by GSK484, but the amount of GFP+ cells, further suggesting a limited role of Tat in this context. To confirm the independence of Tat, we compared J-lat cells with partial HIV-1 genomes, either LTR-GFP (A72), or LTR-Tat-GFP (A2) (Jordan, Defechereux and Verdin, 2001; Jordan, Bisgrove and Verdin, 2003). Both cell lines were exposed to PADI-inhibitors during PMAi stimulation and showed similar levels of GFP reduction after both Cl-amidine and GSK484 (Fig 5C). This is consistent with a Tat-independent mechanism.

To further explore which host mechanisms are involved in PADI4-mediated HIV-1 transcription, we tested the effect of GSK484 with different latency reversal agents. In addition to PMAi, latency reversal by the protein kinase C agonist Prostratin was affected by GSK484. However, latency reversal by HDAC inhibitors Romidepsin and Panabinostat was not affected by GSK484 (Fig 5D). This suggests that the observed effect of PADI4 is either independent from histone acetylation, or that the subset of cells in which PADI4 plays a role for HIV-1 transcription does not overlap with the one activated by HDACi.

Heterochromatin forms over the HIV-1 provirus in the absence of H3cit

Given our finding that *de novo* citrullination of H3 and possibly other targets appears to prevent HIV-1 transcription in primary cells from PLWH as well as in several model systems, together with the previous finding of H3cit preventing heterochromatin over HERVs (Sharma *et al.*, 2012), we set out to study the impact of H3cit on heterochromatin formation over the HIV-1 provirus. The 5A8 cells have the provirus integrated in a permissive region, and the proviral chromatin is predominantly associated with active histone marks (Lindqvist *et al.*, 2022). This chromatin structure mirrors the majority of proviral integration events, as HIV-1 tends to target open chromatin (Schröder *et al.*, 2002). However, once ART is initiated, new infections are prevented. The immune system targets cells producing viral proteins, resulting in an advantage of latently infected cells. Long-term ART results in the provirus being found in epigenetically silent regions (Lian *et al.*, 2023). To replicate this epigenetic state, we modified the 5A8 cells to silence the provirus. We tethered a KRAB (Krüppel Associated Box) domain to the engineered ZFP that specifically recognizes the HIV-1 provirus used for the PLA experiments (Lindqvist *et al.*, 2022). We introduced this KRAB-ZFP protein into the cells and selected for monoclonal cell lines. We characterized two clones in particular, 2C10 with the ZFP-KRAB, and 1C10–a control cell line with only the ZFP construct. In the 2C10 cells, H3K9me3 at the promoter was confirmed by ChIP

(Fig 6A). The HIV-1 inducibility after 24 h PMAi stimulation was lower in 2C10 compared to the control 5A8 clone 1C10 (Fig 6B). As expected from less HIV-1 reactivation, the recruitment of Tat was less significant in the 2C10 cells (Fig 6C). Among the cells that still had inducible HIV-1, GSK484 further reduced the reactivation.

We hypothesized that *de novo* citrullination of the HIV-1 promoter prevents HP1α binding and functional heterochromatin formation, despite occurrence of H3K9me3. From a previous study (Lindqvist et al 2022), we know that following activation H3K9me3 levels increase at the HIV-1 provirus. However, H3K9me3 is not sufficient to establish heterochromatin. To form functional heterochromatin, the H3K9me3 should be enclosed in HP1α. In HERVs, H3cit8 hinders HP1α binding to H3K9me3 (Sharma *et al.*, 2012). Consequently, by activating the cells and preventing citrullination by GSK484, HP1α would be given a platform to bind. We tested the recruitment of HP1α to the HIV-1 promoter using PLA. We found that HP1α binds specifically to HIV-1 after cell stimulation when PADI4 is inhibited (Fig 6D). In the 2C10 cells, where the provirus was not activated by PMAi, HP1α was not found above background levels.

Discussion

In this study, we demonstrated that the *de novo* PADI4-mediated citrullination of histone H3 at the HIV-1 promoter inhibits the formation of heterochromatin and promotes HIV-1 transcription following cell activation. When PADI4 activity is blocked during cell activation, new citrullination of proviral nucleosomes does not occur, allowing stable heterochromatin to form. Proviruses within citrullinated chromatin are not epigenetically silenced. This mechanism is particularly relevant for HIV-1 proviruses integrated in permissive chromatin regions, which are less prone to latency and more responsive to latency reversal agents. We also provide the first genome-wide map of H3 citrullination in T cells, showing that this mark is enriched at promoters and associated with permissive chromatin.

Implications for the reservoir in people living with HIV-1

We have uncovered a mechanism that begins to explain how the HIV-1 reservoir is different in chronic viremia and during long term ART in PLWH. Cells continuously producing viruses undergo cytopathic effects and are targeted by the immune system (Pollack *et al.*, 2017; Simonetti *et al.*, 2020). We observe a mechanism that is active in viremic individuals but is not present after long term ART. The latent reservoir is, at least in part, transcriptionally active (Yukl *et al.*, 2018; Lindqvist *et al.*, 2020; Collora *et al.*, 2022; Dubé *et al.*, 2023). Our study highlights the heterogeneity of the reservoir, particularly during chronic infection before ART. When ART is initiated, pressure to induce reactivatable latent proviruses increases. The intact viruses date to the time of ART initiation (Kinloch

et al., 2023). The state of the reservoir when ART is initiated is key for post-treatment control and a

potential HIV-1 cure (Gunst *et al.*, 2022). Over time an increasing fraction of the intact provirus is

found in heterochromatin (Lian *et al.*, 2023). Part of the reservoir is susceptible to histone acetylation

and can be cleared even under ART (Armani-Tourret *et al.*, 2024). Future studies are required to reveal

the fate of the cells with citrullination at the promoter, that cannot be epigenetically silenced after

ART initiation. Many of these cells are likely eliminated through cytopathic effects or immune

detection, unless they are cytotoxic CD4 T cells (Collora *et al.*, 2022). A subset of proviruses might

become latent solely as a consequence of the cell entering a resting state (Shan *et al.*, 2017), and then

stochastic events cause the reactivation (Hataye *et al.*, 2019). This points to the possibility of reducing

the fraction of the reservoir that is subject to stochastic reactivation by manipulating PADI4 during

initiation of ART.

Epigenetic interplay of H3cit and other PADI4 targets

H3cit is linked to active transcription and open chromatin across various cellular contexts (Sharma *et*

al., 2012; Christophorou *et al.*, 2014; Xiao *et al.*, 2017; Wiese *et al.*, 2019). In addition to H3, PADI4

targets numerous proteins in the nucleus, including histone H1 and HP1γ (Christophorou *et al.*, 2014;

Wiese *et al.*, 2019). We cannot exclude that modifications of these proteins also play a role in the

phenotype we observe.

Here we detailed the role of H3cit8. Notably, other H3 residues can also be citrullinated, potentially

influencing the cell differently. The H3cit26 mark is recognized by SMARCD1, that has been suggested

as a link between H3cit and heterochromatin (Xiao *et al.*, 2017). In mice ES cells, H3cit26 and H3K9me3

do not colocalize at basal levels. However, after PADI inhibition, H3K9me3 levels appear at the sites of

H3cit26 (Xiao *et al.*, 2017). Arginines, which can be citrullinated, are often found adjacent to lysines,

key residues for epigenetic modifications. Moreover, arginine methylation and citrullination are

mutually exclusive (Cuthbert *et al.*, 2004). Both arginine methylation and citrullination are stable

histone modifications and whereas a short pulse of PADI4 inhibition is unlikely to shift the balance

between methylated and citrullinated arginine residues, prolonged reduced levels of PADI4 could have

this effect (Moshkovich *et al.*, 2020). Arginine methylation of H3 through CARM1 has a known effect

on HIV-1 latency (Zhang *et al.*, 2017). We conclude that PADI4 plays a balancing role in HIV-1

transcription, depending on both the cell type and the site of proviral integration.

Limitations of the study

Our study is confined to CD4 T cells from peripheral blood, despite the presence of the HIV-1 reservoir

at several other anatomical sites in the body. While our findings are grounded in clinical samples, the

mechanistic insights primarily derive from cell models. We were unable to track PADI4-depleted cells

as they reverted to latency to determine if they were prevented from subsequent reactivation. To enhance the generalizability and applicability of the findings, we employed several different cell models and complementary techniques. However, we were unable to test our hypothesis *in vivo* or in animal models. The small sample size in parts of the test is a limitation for the generalizability.

Conclusions

Our findings reveal a novel epigenetic mechanism that regulates HIV-1 transcription and latency, suggesting that PADI4 could serve as a potential therapeutic target for interventions aimed at reducing the size of the latent reservoir as an approach for cure.

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Acknowledgements

We are most grateful to the study participants without whom this study would not have been possible. We would also like to thank BEA, MedH flow facility, as well as Mukesh Varshney and Zhichang Huang for technical assistance. Funding: This study was supported by grants from CIMED FoUI-973749, VR 2019–00991, KI 2019-00846, Cancerfonden 190412Pj (to J.P.S.), Swedish Physicians Against AIDS Research Foundation FOb2020-0004 (to J.P.S), FOa2022-0001, FOa2023-0003 (to B.B.J.),

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Conceptualization, L.L., J.P.S. ; investigation and validation, L.L, B.B.J., B.L., H.R., N.A.T., J.P.S.; clinical recruitment, P.N., O.K.; supervision, J.P.S.; funding acquisition, J.P.S. and B.B.J. Writing – original draft, L.L., B.B.J., and J.P.S.; review & editing, all co-authors.

Declaration of interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Supplementary material

Table S1: Study participant characteristics

Table S2: Genes with log2 ratio>0.5 difference between DMSO and PMAi, or PMAi and PMAi, GSK484

Table S3: Primer sequences for ddPCR and ChIP.

Fig S1:

(A) 5A8 treated with PADI4 inhibitors for 24 h with GSK484, GSK199 and inactive control GSK106, GFP measured by flow cytometry (n=4-5).

(B) Metagene plot for H3cit peaks in DMSO, GSK484, and PMAi treated conditions in 5A8.

509 Figures

Fig 1: PADI4 stimulates HIV-1 transcription after cell stimulation in cells from viremic people with HIV-1.

(A) Supernatant HIV-1 RNA with PMAi and GSK484 treatments from entire cohort (n=30, study participant characteristics in Table S1).

(B) Cell associated HIV-1 RNA in cohort stratified into in viremic and long-term ART suppressed groups.

(C) Intact HIV-1 proviral reservoir from the two groups measured by IPDA.

(D-E) HIV-1 5´LTR RNA (D) and Tat-Rev (E) quantified in viremic (n=14) and long-term ART suppressed groups (n=17).

(F) PADI4 expression in the two groups normalised to RPP30.

All statistical tests shown are Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test * p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001.

Fig 2 PADI4 facilitates HIV-1 transcription after cell stimulation in cell models.

(A) J-Lat 5A8 treated with PADI inhibitors and PMAi activation. GFP is measured by flow cytometry
(n=8-11).

(B) PADI4 expression in 5A8 measured by ddPCR under PMAi and GSK484 treatment (n=4).

(C) Timecourse of 5A8 under PMAi and GSK484 treatment and flow cytometry quantification of GFP.
Cells were washed and resuspended in new media without drugs after 1hr (n=3).

(D) H3cit (R2, R8,R17 residues) quantification by immunoblot in 5A8 with PMAi and GSK484 treatment
at two early timepoints (n=3).

(E) T cell activation phenotype for 5A8. Cells gain CD69 during early T cell activation then CD25 during
late T cell activation as shown by flow cytometry.

(F) T cell activation status of 5A8 after 24 h with different PADI4 inhibitors and PMAi activated cells
(n=3).

(G) proliferation marker KI-67 staining of 5A8 treated for 24 h with PMAi and GSK484

(H) Polyclonal K562-Lat treated with PMAi and GSK484 for 24 h and quantified with flow cytometry
(n=4).

Data is shown as mean ± SEM. Statistical tests shown are unpaired T tests * $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$, ***
$p<0.001$.

Fig 3: Citrullinated histone H3 at the HIV-1 provirus stimulated latency reversal.

(A) Quantification of H3cit at the HIV-1 promoter in 5A8 cells under PMAi and GSK484 treatment

using PLA-ZFP assay (n=6).

(B) GFP levels using fluorescent microscopy from A (n=11)

(C) Quantification of different H3cit residues with PLA-ZFP in 5A8 (n=3-6)

(D) CUT&Tag seq view of total H3cit after 24 h treatment as specified.

(E) Nuc-1 accessibility assay of 5A8 (n=4-5).

Data is shown as mean ± SEM. Statistical tests shown are unpaired T tests *= <0.05 *= <0.01 *=

<0.001

Fig 4: Genome-wide H3cit levels are stable at promoters in 5A8 with HIV-1 preferentially integrating

into H3cit chromatin.

(A) CUT&Tag peak width profile.

(B) Relative enrichment of peaks in genic and non-genic regions.

(C) Metagene plot for DMSO and PMAi treated 5A8 samples

(D) ChromHMM analysis showing similarity between chromatin marks.

(E) Quantification of H3cit mapped onto known proviral integration sites with corresponding proviral

activation.

(F) Metagene plot with genes regulated by T cell activation.

(G) Genome browser view of the TNFα promoter region.

Fig 5: *de novo* H3cit has a general effect on HIV-1 transcription, but not through Tat or acetylation.

(A) RT-qPCR quantification of short initiated (5′-LTR), early elongated unspliced (Gag), multiply spliced

(Tat-Rev), and late elongated (GFP) transcripts in 5A8 treated with PMAi and GSK484. Statistical tests

shown are paired T tests $*p<0.05$ (n=5).

(B) Levels of Tat at the HIV-1 promoter in 1C10 cells with PMAi and GSK484 using PLA-ZFP assay.

Statistical tests shown are unpaired T tests $* \, p<0.05$, $** \, p<0.01$, $*** \, p<0.001$ (n=6).

(C) HIV-1 transcription of in Tat negative J-Lat A2 and Tat positive A72 cells treated with PMAi and PADI

inhibitors, measured by flow cytometry. Statistical tests shown are paired T tests $* \, p<0.05$, $** \, p<0.01$,

$*** \, p<0.001$ (n=3).

(D) 5A8 cells treated with PMAi and other latency reversal agents and GSK484 (n=4).

Data is shown as mean ± SEM.

Fig 6: Heterochromatin forms over the HIV-1 provirus in the absence of H3cit.

(A) H3K9me3 at the HIV-1 locus in 1C10 and 2C10 cells measured by ChIP-qPCR. Statistical tests shown are unpaired T tests * p<0.05 (n=3).

(B) 1C10 and 2C10 cell HIV-1 transcription with PMAi and GSK484 treatment. Statistical tests shown are unpaired T tests * p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001 (n=3).

(C) Tat proximity to HIV-1 promoter in 1C10 and 2C10 cells with PMAi treatment. Statistical tests shown are paired T tests * p<0.05, ** p<0.01 (n=6-12).

(D) HP1α proximity to the HIV-1 promoter in 1C10 and 2C10 cells with PMAI and PMAi and GSK484 treatment (n=5-6). Statistical tests shown are paired T tests * p<0.05.

Data is shown as mean ± SEM.

Methods
Cell Culture and isolation

J-lat 5A8, 1C10, K562 and all primary cells were cultured in cytokine-free media (RPMI 1640 medium (Hyclone, Cat# SH30096_01), 10% FBS (Life Technologies, Cat# 10270–106), 1% Glutamax (Life Technologies, Cat# 35050), 1% Penicillin-streptomycin (Life Technologies, Cat# 15140–122)).

Primary cells were obtained from 50 ml of fresh blood from study participants (Ethical permits 2017/1138-31/4 and 2018/102-31/1). Blood samples were diluted with an equal amount of PBS and carefully overlayed on Ficoll-Paque Plus solution (Cytiva, Cat# 17144003). Centrifugation was

conducted at RT and 400 g for 30 minutes without brake. Resting CD4 T cells were isolated from the

obtained PBMCs by a two-step magnetic isolation using the Miltenyi Biotec magnetic associated cell

sorting (MACS) platform. For the first step, the CD4 negative cell isolation kit (Cat# 130-096-533) was

used according to the manufacturer's protocol. Secondly, resting CD4 T cells were negatively selected

with magnetic beads against the activation markers CD25, CD69 and HLA-DR.

Cell activation

CD4 T cells isolated from peripheral blood and immediately put in *ex vivo* culture. After 16 h resting,

cells were exposed to PADI4 inhibitor GSK484 for 3 h followed by T cell activation by phorbol-12-

myristate-13-acetate and ionomycin (PMAi) for 21 h. Both DNA and RNA were extracted from the cells,

and culture supernatant RNA was extracted to quantitate release of viral particles. DNA was extracted

either by Allprep (Qiagen, Cat#80204) or QIAamp DNA Mini Kit (Qiagen, Cat#51304). Viral RNA was

isolated by QIAamp Viral RNA Mini Kit (Qiagen, Cat#52904). The DNA was used to measure the HIV-1

reservoir using IPDA (Bruner *et al.*, 2019). For cell associated RNA, the LTR region and the multiply

spliced RNA was investigated separately. Cell-free RNA was measured by the amount of intact virus

RNA in the supernatant (Martin *et al.*, 2022).

Chemicals to induce proviral activation

Cells were exposed to latency reversal agents as indicated with the following concentrations used:

Phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA, Sigma-Aldrich Cat# 79346) final concentration 50 ng/ml,

ionomycin (Sigma-Aldrich Cat# I0634) final concentration 1 µM. Ingenol-3-angelate PEP005 (Sigma-

Aldrich, Cat# SML1318) final concentration 12 nM, panobinostat (Cayman Chemicals, Cat#

CAYM13280) final concentration or 150 nM, JQ1 (Cayman Chemicals, Cat#CAYM11187) final

concentration 100 nM, prostratin (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat#P0077) final concentration 6 µM.

PADI4 inhibitor GSK484 (MCE HY-100514) was added, if applicable, at a final concentration of 10 µM.

Pan PADI inhibitor Cl-Amidine (Cayman Chemicals. Cat#CAYM10599) was added at a final

concentration of 200 µM. Inactive GSK484 and GSK199 control GSK106 (MCE HY-120343) was added

at a final concentration of 10 µM. Padi4 Inhibitor GSK199 (MCE HY-103058) was added at a final

concentration of 10 µM

Flow cytometry

Cells were stained with LIVE/DEAD Fixable Violet Dead Cell Stain (Thermo Scientific, Cat# L34955) and

fixed in 2% formaldehyde for 15 min. if required Flow analysis was performed on a CytoFLEX S

(Beckman Coulter). Individual flow droplets were gated for lymphocytes, viability, and singlets. Data

were analyzed by Flowjo 10.1 (Tree Star).

When staining for CD25 and CD69. Cells were washed with PBS (Gibco #18912014) + 0.5% BSA (FACS

buffer) then incubated with 1/100 CD25 (BD, Cat#555434) and CD69 1/20 (BD, Cat# 560711) antibody

diluted in FACS Buffer for 30 min at 4°C. Cells were then washed with 100ul of FACS buffer then

resuspended in 100ul FACS buffer and 1/1000 dilution of Live/dead stain (Thermo Scientific, Cat#

L34964) and incubated for 15 min at 4°C. Cells were washed in 100 µl FACS buffer then resuspended

in 2% formaldehyde PBS for 15 min in the dark at room temperature. Finally, cells were resuspended

in 100 µl of ice-cold PBS prior to flow cytometry.

When staining for KI-67 cells were washed twice with PBS and resuspended by vortexing while adding

ice cold 70% Ethanol. This was followed by a 1 h incubation at -20°C, three washed with FACS buffer

then resuspension in FACS buffer at 1×10^6 cells/ml. 5 µl of APC anti-human Ki-67 Antibody (BioLegend,

CAT# 350513) in 100 µL of cell solution. This was incubated for 30 min in the dark at room temperature,

washed with FACS buffer then resuspended in 100 µl of ice-cold PBS prior to flow cytometry.

KRAB domain expression in 5A8 cells

The KRAB domain from pHR-SFFV-dCas9-BFP-KRAB (Addgene plasmid #46911) was cloned into plasmid

pHR-SFFV-ZF3-P2A-BFP using Gibson assembly (New England Biolabs Cat#E2611S) by substituting the

KRAB region in between the ZFP3 and P2A region.

The contruct was co-transfected with psPAX and pMD2.G into HEK293T cells using lipofectamine LTX

(Invitrogen Cat# 15338030) according to the manufacturer's instructions. 20 µL of the viral supernatant

was added to 180 µL of K562-Lat cell culture in a round bottom 96 well plate and spinoculated for 300g

for 1hr at room temperature. These were puromycin selected with 1.5 µg/ml puromycin RPMI media

for 5 days.

Immunoblotting

Cell pellets were lysed in lysis buffer (150 mM NaCl, 50 mM Tris, 1% Triton-X100, 1 mM orthovanadate).

Protein concentrations were calculated using Bradford assay (Bio-Rad Cat#5000006). Human Histone

H3 (citrulline R2 + R8 + R17) peptide (Abcam, Cat# ab32876) was used in a competition assay. Samples

were diluted to 1× Laemmli buffer (Bio-Rad, Cat# 1610747) with 10 mM DTT. Samples were heated for

10 min at 70°C and then loaded on a 12% Mini-protean TGX gel (Bio-Rad Cat# 4561044). The gels were

run for approximately 1 h at 100 V. Proteins were transferred onto a PVDF membrane (Bio-Rad, Cat#

1704156) and blocked in 5% skimmed milk in PBS-T for 1 h at room temperature. Afterwards, the

membrane was incubated at 4°C overnight with primary antibodies (1:1000) in 1% milk in PBS-T. We

used primary antibodies as above. After washing and addition of secondary HRP-conjugated

antibodies, membranes were developed using Pierce ECL Plus Western Blotting Substrate (Thermo

Scientific Cat# 32132). Membranes were stripped (Restore plus Western blot stripping buffer Thermo

Scientific Cat# 46430) and re-probed using a second set of control primary antibodies. Blots were run
and visualized using iBright FL1500 Imaging System (ThermoFisher).
666

Chromatin immunoprecipitation

ChIP-qPCR was performed using the iDeal ChIP-qPCR protocol (Diagenode, Cat# C01010180). Each ChIP
reaction was performed on 2×10^6 cells. Cells were fixed with 11% formaldehyde for 10 min in room
temperature. Sonication was performed at 30 s in eight cycles (Bioruptor Pico, Diagenode, Cat#
B01060010). ChIP was performed using antibody. ChIP eluates were purified with Wizard SV Gel and
PCR clean-up system (Promega, Cat# A9282). Primer sequences are shown in Table S2. PCR reactions
were performed with Powerup SYBR green master mix (2×) (ThermoFisher, Cat#A25742) using 40
cycles on an Applied Biosystems 7500 Fast Real-Time PCR System (ThermoFisher).
675

CUT&Tag seq

677 Version 3 CUT&Tag protocol (Kaya-Okur and Henikoff, 2020) was used as described. A 1/400 dilution
678 of Anti-Histone H3 (citrulline R2 + R8 + R17) antibody (Abcam, Cat# ab5103) was used per sample.
679 Thirteen cycles of PCR were used for amplifying the libraries. Reads were trimmed, then, mapped onto
680 the GB38 human reference genome with Bowtie2.
681

Gene set enrichment

683 Genes with log2 ratio>0.5 difference between DMSO and PMAi, or PMAi and PMAi, GSK484 were
684 selected (Table S3). The lists were analyzed using the DAVID tool (Huang, Sherman and Lempicki, 2009).
685

Proximity ligation assay (PLA)

Cells were adhered to coated polylysine coated microscope slides (VWR, Cat#6310107) marked with a
hydrophobic barrier using A-PAP pen (Histolab, Cat# 08046N) and a modified PLA protocol was
followed. In short, cells were washed with PBS and allowed to settle onto the polylysine slides). PLA
was performed according to the manufacturer's protocol (Sigma-Aldrich, cat#Duo92007) with a few
modifications: PLA plus and minus probes were diluted 1:20, amplification buffer (5×) was used at 10×.
All washes were performed in PBS. Antibodies (1:1,000) were used against Tat (Abcam Cat#43014),
FLAG M2 (Sigma-Aldrich Cat# F1804 lot SLCF4933), H3 (Abcam, Cat# ab1791), H3R2cit (Abcam, Cat#
ab176843), H3R8cit (Abcam, Cat# ab219406), H3R17cit (Abcam, Cat# ab219407),
H3R2cit+R8cit+R17cit (Abcam Cat# ab5103). Before DAPI staining (Life technologies, Cat# 62248) and
mounted with mounting medium with DAPI (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat# DUO82040), FITC-conjugated anti-
GFP (Abcam, Cat#ab6662) was applied (1:1000) for 1 hour at ambient temperature protected from
light. Coverslips (VWR, Cat# MARI0117530) were sealed onto slide with nail polish and stored at $4°$C

overnight before imaging. Slides were imaged using a Panoramic Midi II slide scanner (3DHistech) and

images were exported using the CaseViewer application. Images were analyzed with ImageJ (version

2.0.0-rc-69/1.52) and macros developed in house. Each RGB image was separated into separate

channels. Based on the blue (DAPI) channel, nuclei were identified. In the red channel, spots

("maxima") were detected with thresholds 6–48.

Quantitative PCR (qPCR)

RNA was extracted from cells using RNeasy plus kit (Qiagen Cat#74134) according to the manufacturers

instructions. Then cDNA was made using Revertaid as described (Thermo Scientific Cat#K1621). The

cDNA was diluted 1/10 in distilled water and used with 400 nM of each primer (final concentration)

and SYBR Green Master Mix for qPCR (Fisher Scientific Cat# A25742) in a Microamp Fast Optical 96

Well Reaction Plate (Fisher Scientific Cat#4346906). The PCRs were run using Applied Biosystems 7500

Fast Real-Time PCR System with 40 cycles.

Digital droplet PCR (ddPCR)

ddPCR was performed with the QX200 Droplet Digital qPCR System (Bio-Rad). Each reaction consisted

of 20 µL, containing 10 µL Supermix for Probes without dUTP (Bio-Rad, Cat# 1863024), 900 nM primers,

250 nM probe (labelled with HEX or FAM), and 8 µL undiluted cellular DNA. RT-ddPCR was used

according to (Martin *et al.*, 2022), using 11 µL undiluted RNA and the One-Step RT-ddPCR Advanced

Kit for Probes (Bio-Rad, Cat# 1864021). Droplets were generated. Emulsified PCR reactions were

performed with a C1000 Touch thermal cycler (Bio-Rad), with the following protocol: 95°C for 10 min,

followed by 40 cycles of 94°C for 30 s and 57°C for 60 s, and a final droplet cure step of 10 min at 98°C.

Each well was then read with a QX200 Droplet Reader (Bio-Rad). Droplets were analysed with

QuantaSoft version 1.5 (Bio-Rad) software in the absolute quantification mode.