Protection of rhesus macaques against vaginal SHIV challenges by VRC01 and an anti-α₄β₇ antibody

Giulia Calenda[^,1], Ines Frank[^,1], Géraldine Arrode-Brusés[1#], Amarendra Pegu[2], Keyun Wang[2], James Arthos[3], Claudia Cicala[3], Brooke Grasperge[4], James L. Blanchard[4], Stephanie Maldonado[1], Kevin Roberts[1], Agegnehu Gettie[5], Anthony S. Fauci[3], John R. Mascola[2], and Elena Martinelli[1∞].

[1]Center for Biomedical Research, Population Council, New York, NY, USA; [2]Vaccine Research Center, National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases, Bethesda, MD 20892, USA; [3]Laboratory of Immunoregulation, National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD, USA; [4]Tulane National Primate Research Center, Tulane University, Covington, LA, USA; [5]Aaron Diamond AIDS Research Center, Rockefeller University, New York, NY, USA

^Equal contributors

[#] Current address: Siemens Healthineers, 511 Benedict Ave
Tarrytown, New York 10591

∞Corresponding author: Elena Martinelli, Center for Biomedical Research, HIV/AIDS, Population Council, 1230 York Ave, 10065, NY
Tel: 212-327-7329 email: emartinelli@popcouncil.org

Running title: VRC01 and α₄β₇ blockade against SHIV-AD8 infection

Short summary: A combination of VRC01 and Rh-α₄β₇ significantly delayed SHIV acquisition, protected CD4 counts, decreased gut viral load and modified the immune response to the virus.

ABSTRACT

VRC01 protects macaques from vaginal SHIV infection after a single high-dose challenge. Infusion of a simianized anti-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ mAb (Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$) just prior to, and during repeated vaginal exposures to SIVmac251 partially protected macaques from vaginal SIV infection and rescued CD4$^+$ T cells. To investigate the impact of combining VRC01 and Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ on SHIV infection, 3 groups of macaques were treated with a suboptimal dosing of VRC01 alone or in combination with Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ or with control antibodies prior to the initiation of weekly vaginal exposures to a high dose ($1000TCID_{50}$) of $SHIV_{AD8-EO}$. The combination Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$-VRC01 significantly delayed $SHIV_{AD8-EO}$ vaginal infection. Following infection, VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$-treated macaques maintained higher CD4$^+$ T cell counts and exhibited lower rectal SIV-DNA loads compared to the controls. Interestingly, VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$-treated macaques had less IL-17 producing cells in the blood and the gut during the acute phase of infection. Moreover, higher T cell responses to the V2-loop of the $SHIV_{AD8-EO}$ envelope in the VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ group inversely correlated with set point viremia. The combination of suboptimal amounts of VRC01 and Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ delayed infection, altered anti-viral immune responses and minimized CD4$^+$ T cell loss. Further exploration of the effect of combining bNAbs with Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ on SIV/HIV infection and anti-viral immune responses is warranted and may lead to novel preventive and therapeutic strategies.

INTRODUCTION

Integrin $\alpha_4\beta_7$ ($\alpha_4\beta_7$) is expressed at high levels by CD4^{+} T cells trafficking to the gut associated lymphoid tissues (GALT) [1-3], a critical site for HIV replication and dissemination after transmission [4-7]. $\alpha_4\beta_7$[high] CD4^{+} T cells are highly susceptible to HIV infection and are preferentially depleted during acute HIV-1 and SIV infection [8-10]. Higher frequencies of $\alpha_4\beta_7$[high] CD4^{+} T cells have been correlated with increased susceptibility to HIV-1 infection in humans and SIV infection in macaques and with disease progression in both humans and macaques [11,12]. The higher risk of HIV-1 acquisition due to prevalent HSV-2 infection has also been associated with increased levels of $\alpha_4\beta_7$ expression [13-15]. Targeting $\alpha_4\beta_7$ with a simianized anti-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ monoclonal antibody (Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$; mAb) prior to and during a repeated low-dose vaginal challenge (RLDC) study in rhesus macaques prevented SIV acquisition in half of the animals and delayed disease progression in those animals that did become infected [16]. Reportedly, simultaneous treatment with Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ and cART led to sustained viral control after cessation of all forms of therapy in at least one model of SIV infection [17]. The mechanism(s) underlying the anti-HIV-1 activity of the Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ mAb are poorly understood. Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ does not block viral entry into CD4^{+} T cells and has weak anti-HIV-1 activity *in vitro* [8,18,19]. We have recently shown that signaling through $\alpha_4\beta_7$ can promote HIV replication[20] and, in this regard, we previously demonstrated that Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ blocks $\alpha_4\beta_7$ from adopting an active conformation that is critical for this signaling [21].

In addition, we determined that Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ selectively alters trafficking of CCR6^{+} CD4^{+} T cells to mucosal tissues [22] and impacts the antibody response to SIV infection when given in combination with cART [17]. Thus, interference with both immune cell trafficking and

$\alpha_4\beta_7$-driven viral amplification may, at least in part, explain the decrease in gut tissue SIV

loads when Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ is administered prior to, and throughout the acute phase of infection

[23].

Passive transfer of a number of broadly neutralizing antibodies (bNAbs) targeting HIV-1

envelope (Env) has been shown to protect rhesus macaques against a single high-dose

inoculation with simian-human immunodeficiency virus (SHIV) [24-27] and this strategy is

currently being evaluated to prevent HIV-1 acquisition in humans [28]. In particular, VRC01,

a bNAb against the CD4 binding site (CD4bs) on the HIV envelope [29,30], is the first bNAb

to be investigated clinically for the prevention of HIV infection in adult men and women

(AMP trial; NCT02716675 and NCT02568215). Moreover, VRC01 is being tested for

safety in HIV-exposed infants (NCT02256631) as a potential agent to prevent mother-to-

child transmission (MTCT) of HIV-1. In preclinical studies, VRC01 protected monkeys

against single high-dose vaginal and rectal SHIV challenge [27] and its protective activity

against repeated low-dose rectal challenges decreases after several weekly challenges

[31]. In this regard, bNAb protection against repeated rectal challenges was shown to be

dependent on the potency and half-life of bNAbs [31]. A mutation in the Fc domain of the

antibody, which was shown to increase VRC01 half-life in both plasma and tissues,

increased [32] and prolonged [31] its protective activity. Several other strategies to improve

the pharmacokinetics and function of bNAbs [28] as well as the use of combinations of

bNAbs or bi- and trispecific antibody-based molecules [33-35] are being tested with the

ultimate goal of generating new prevention and therapeutic options against HIV-1

infection.

In the present study, we investigated the combination of VRC01 and Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ in a

repeated vaginal challenges model using the tier 2 SHIV$_{AD8-EO}$ [36]. This challenge virus

was chosen for its multiple properties typical of pathogenic HIV-1 isolates [37], allowing to

explore the impact of the VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ combination on SHIV$_{AD8-EO}$ infection and anti-

viral immune responses during the acute and early chronic phase of infection. In order to

detect an effect of this combination over the sterilizing protective effect of VRC01, we

chose a repeated high-dose model of infection and treatment with suboptimal amounts of

both antibodies. The VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ combination significantly delayed SHIV$_{AD8-EO}$

acquisition, protected blood CD4$^+$ T cells and altered anti-viral immune responses.

RESULTS

The VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ combination significantly delays SHIV$_{AD8-EO}$ vaginal infection

VRC01 has been shown to provide sterilizing protection against high-dose vaginal

challenge with SHIV$_{SF162P3}$ [27,38]. In order to study the VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ combination in a

setting of suboptimal VRC01 protection we employed an inoculum 100 fold higher and

half the dose of VRC01 (10mg/kg) that resulted in delayed SHIV$_{AD8-EO}$ acquisition for a

median of 8 weeks in a repeated rectal low-dose challenge model [31]. A VRC01-alone

group was used to monitor baseline VRC01 protection.

A total of 27 animals were infused with VRC01 (10mg/kg) and Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ (25mg/kg; n=9) or

with 10mg/kg of VRC01-alone (n=9) or with control human and rhesus IgGs (n=9), 3 days

before weekly vaginal challenges with a high-dose inoculum of SHIV$_{AD8-EO}$ (1000TCID$_{50}$)

until all animals became infected (Fig 1A). Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ infusions were repeated every 3 weeks

for a total of 6 infusions. A Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$-alone group was not included because Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ does

not protect from high-dose challenge[39] and the levels of VRC01 rapidly decrease[27]. Thus,

the impact of Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ on SHIV-AD8 infection can be inferred from comparison with the

VRC01-only and control groups.

The peak concentrations of VRC01 on the day of the first challenge in the VRC01-only

group and in the VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ group were $98.31 \pm 25.83 \mu g/ml$ and $97.66 \pm 55.29 \ \mu g/ml$

(mean$\pm$SD), respectively (Fig 1B). Of note, for reasons that may be attributed to problems

during the infusion, 2 macaques in the VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ group had peak concentrations of

VRC01 at the time of the first challenge about 10 fold lower than the mean and below the

protective   concentration   against   SHIV$_{SF162P3}$ high-dose   challenge [27,38].   (KT57:

$19.145 \ \mu g/ml$ and GH63: $3.350 \ \mu g/ml$; respectively green and orange in Fig 1B). Thus,

these 2 animals were excluded from the SHIV acquisition analysis, but not from other

post-infection analysis since VRC01 levels were undetectable in all animals by week 6

post-infection (Fig 1B). Consistent with previous studies, antibodies against VRC01

(ADA) developed around week 3 after infusion in all VRC01-treated animals and levels

were similar in both treatment groups (Fig S1). The peak concentration of Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ in the

VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ group at the time of the first challenge was $112\pm37 \ \mu g/ml$ (mean$\pm$SD; Fig

1C). One animal with peak concentrations 10 times higher than the average of the other

animals was excluded from the calculation of the average. None of the animals had

plasma Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ concentrations below the expected range and all 9 animals were included

in the analysis of the impact of Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ on acute and early infection parameters. As shown

in Fig 1D, all 9 animals in the control group became viremic after 1 to 5 challenges

(median of 2 weekly exposures required for infection).

Suboptimal dosing of VRC01 resulted, as expected, in a non-significant delay in SHIV

acquisition (Log-rank p=0.074). Nonetheless, the cumulative number of challenges to

infect in the VRC01 group was significantly higher than in the control group (Fisher exact

test: p=0.02). In the VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ combination treatment, it was possible to detect a

significant delay in SHIV acquisition (Log-rank p=0.016; Fig 1E) and the difference with

the control group in cumulative number of challenges to infect was highly significant

(Fisher exact-test: p<0.001). The median number of challenges needed to infect the two

treatment groups was similar (n=4) and the VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ combination did not

significantly delay acquisition compared to VRC01 alone (Log-rank p=0.6). Peak plasma

viral load (VL) did not significantly differ between the treatment groups and when

comparing the treatment groups with the control group (Fig 1F and Fig S2). Set-point VL

was ~1 Log_{10} lower in the VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ group compared with the other 2 groups (Fig

1F). However, the difference did not reach statistical significance (p=0.072 at week 18

p.i.). Confirming previous reports on the effects of Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ [23,40], peripheral CD4$^+$ T cells

were protected and CD4 counts were significantly higher in the VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ when

compared with the other 2 groups (treatment adjusted for time; 2-way Anova p=0.005;

Fig 1G). This is at least partially due to Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$-driven lymphocytosis, as we

demonstrated in naïve macaques [22], and explains the higher baseline CD4 count of the

VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ group.

Although gut SIV DNA loads were slightly higher in both treatment groups compared with

controls at week 3-4 p.i. (2-3 weeks after 1st virus detection in plasma), by week 20 p.i.,

VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ treated animals had more than 10-fold lower amounts of cell-associated

SIV DNA in the gastrointestinal (GI) tract compared to the controls (Fig 2A). SIV RNA

loads in the GI tract of the VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ treated animals were also 100 times lower, on

average, than in the control group during the post-acute phase (week 7-8 p.i.; Fig 2B).

However, by week 20 p.i. several animals in the control group had undetectable SIV-RNA

levels in the GI tract and the difference with the VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ lost its significance.

Interestingly, no significant differences in SIV loads were found by directly comparing the

VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ combination group and the VRC01-alone group and the SIV loads in the

VRC01-only group often averaged between the other 2 groups. Vaginal SIV DNA and

RNA loads did not differ in the acute nor in the early chronic phase of the infection among

the treatment groups (Fig S3). Finally, although the SIV-DNA loads at necropsy (around

20 weeks p.i.) were on average slightly lower in the jejunum and iliac lymph nodes of the

VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ group compared with the other 2 groups, the differences were not

significant (Fig S4). No differences were detected in other tissues and lymph nodes at

necropsy (Fig S4).

VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ decreases IL-17-producing cells in acute infection and increases

IFNγ-producing cells in the chronic phase.

Mononuclear cells isolated from blood and colorectal biopsies in the acute phase of

infection (week 3-4 p.i.) and from ileum, jejunum and colorectal tissue at necropsy

(chronic phase) were stimulated with PMA/ionomycin to determine the frequency of IL-17

(acute and chronic phase samples) and IFNγ, IL-2, TNFα and IL21-producing cell subsets

(chronic phase samples). VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ treated animals had significantly lower

frequencies of IL-17 producing CD8$^+$ T cells in blood and of IL-17 producing CD4$^+$ T cells

and CD3$^-$ NKp44$^+$ NK cells in the colorectal tissue compared to the control group (Fig 3A-

B). For these subsets, the difference did not reach significance when compared with the

VRC01-only group. However, the frequency of IL-17-producing $NKG2A^+$ NK cells in blood

was significantly lower in the VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ group compared with the VRC01-only group

(Fig 3A). In contrast, in the chronic phase, the frequency of IFNγ-producing $CD4^-$ T cells

was higher in the VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ group compared with the control group in the small

intestine (Fig 3C). No significant differences in IFNγ-producing cells were noted in blood

or upon direct comparison of the VRC01-only group with the VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ group nor

between the VRC01-only group and the control. No significant differences in IL-17, IL-2,

TNFα and IL21-producing cells were noted in these tissues in the chronic phase of

infection.

Interestingly, when we investigated how the treatments had impacted immune cells in the

lymph nodes at necropsy, we found that in the VRC01-only group had a lower frequency

of $CD25^+$ T cells (both $CD4^+$ and $CD4^-$, Fig 4) compared with the control group. Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$

in the VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ may have interfered with this decrease since the difference was

not significant between the VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ group and the controls. Moreover, we found

that the VRC01-treated animals had lower frequencies of CXCR3 CCR6 double positive

$CD4^-$ and $CD4^+$ T cells compared with both the VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ and the control groups

(Fig 4A and B). Finally, the VRC01-only treated animals had lower $CXCR5^+$ $CD4^+$

follicular T cells in the lymph nodes compared with the controls (Fig 4A). No other

differences were noted among $CD103^+$, $CD69^+$, and Treg-like $CD127^-CD25^+$ cells within

the $CD4^+$ or $CD4^-$ cell subsets in the lymph nodes between the groups (not shown).

Phenotyping of mononuclear cells isolated from blood during the chronic phase of

infection showed that Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ treatment was associated with an increase of CCR6$^+$CD95$^-$

CD4$^-$ cells compared to both control groups (Fig S5).

T cell responses in the VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ are primarily directed against the V2-loop of

the SHIV$_{AD8-EO}$ envelope protein.

Blood T cell responses were analyzed against pooled 15-mer overlapping peptides from

the consensus B envelop and gag proteins around week 18 post-infection. Interestingly,

T cell responses against the envelope peptides in the VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ group were virtually

undetectable and significantly lower than the T cell responses in the control group (Fig

S6). T cell responses in the VRC01 group were more similar to the control group, but the

difference between the VRC01-only and VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ groups reached statistical

significance only for TNFα and IL22-secreating CD4$^+$ T cells (Fig S6A). The responses to

gag peptides were generally lower than those to the envelope peptides at this stage of

infection in all groups and differences between groups could not be determined.

Since the sequence of the consensus B envelope differs substantially from the sequence

of the SHIV$_{AD8-EO}$ envelope in the V1V2 region (Fig S7) and a specific response against

the V2-loop was found in the Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$-treated animals of the cART-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ study [17], we

synthetized seven 20-mer, 14aa overlapping peptides spanning the V1V2 region that

differs between the SHIV$_{AD8-EO}$ and the consensus B envelope and used them to probe T

cells and antibody responses. Interestingly, the VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ macaques had higher

frequencies of IFNγ-producing CD4$^+$ T cells in response to the V1V2 peptide pool than

both the VRC01 and control groups (Fig 5A). In contrast, TNFα-producing CD4$^+$ T cells

and IFN-γ-producing CD8$^+$ T cells were higher in both treatment groups compared with

the control group (Fig 5A-B). A higher IL-17 response in the CD8$^+$ T cell subset was also

noted in the VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ group compared to the controls (Fig 5B). Finally, a higher

frequency of TNF-α-CD8$^+$ T cells was present in the VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ group compared

with the VRC01-only group. In summary, higher T cell responses were detected against

the V1V2 loop in the VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ group particularly compared to control animals.

Interestingly, the frequency of CD8$^+$ T cells secreting TNF-α in response to the V1V2

peptides inversely correlated with viral load (Fig S8), suggesting that a significant role is

played by V1V2 responses in controlling viral replication.

Total anti-HIV envelope antibodies were tested against the HIV-Bal envelope protein and

no differences were noted between the groups. Moreover, a peptide scan against

consensus B envelope peptides (with the 8 peptides corresponding to the V1V2 loop

replaced by the 7 SHIV-AD8-specific peptides that we had synthetized) was carried out

on sera from 4 animals in each group with the highest antibody responses. No clear

differences in the response to specific regions of the envelope were noted between the

groups (Fig S8).

DISCUSSION

bNAbs are being tested in the clinic for the prevention and therapy of HIV infection.

VRC01 is the first to reach efficacy testing and other bNAbs will soon follow [41,42]. However,

it is clear that individual bNAbs cannot be used alone as a single intervention.

Combinations of more bNAbs or bi- or tri-specific molecules need to be employed to

achieve better and more durable protection from HIV acquisition [33,43-45]. Moreover, recent

data suggest that bNAbs treatment may impact immune responses to infection [46-48]. This

feature represents a potential new therapeutic approach toward an HIV-1 cure. Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$

has also demonstrated the ability to partially prevent SIV infection in macaques [16] and

treatment of SIV infected macaques with Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ in combination with cART has shown

its potential utility in inducing long-term control of SIV replication without eradicating the

virus [17]. Nonetheless, much more needs to be understood about the ability of bNAbs and

$\alpha_4\beta_7$-blockage to impact immune responses against SIV/HIV.

The present study represents the first investigation of the combination of a bNAb and Rh-

$\alpha_4\beta_7$. We aimed to determine how this dual-treatment might alter key features of acute

and early-chronic infection, including anti-viral immune responses. In order to observe

such effects beyond the powerful protective activity of VRC01, we performed the study in

a setting of suboptimal amounts of VRC01 against repeated challenges with a very high

viral inoculum of a pathogenic SHIV.

Overall, we determined that Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ has the potential to increase the protective activity

of suboptimal dosing of VRC01. However, larger studies with a more physiologically

relevant, low-dose viral challenge will be needed to precisely quantify the incremental

effect of combining Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ and VRC01 over VRC01 on SHIV acquisition. Interestingly,

we were able to determine that some of the key effects of the Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ that were previously

described [16,23,40] are retained in the SHIV model. They include the ability of the Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$

to protect circulating CD4$^+$ T cells, a modest effect on the viral set-point and a profound

effect on the gut viral load. However, we did not find a decrease viral load in any other

tissue or lymph nodes as it was described in the SIV model [23].

Interestingly, most of the differences that we noted are significant only when the VRC01-

Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ is compared with the control group and the data from the VRC01-only group fell

in between the other 2 groups. This suggests that the presence of minimal quantities of

VRC01 at the time of infection may have facilitated the impact of Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ on virologic and

immune parameters, hinting at the possibility of a synergistic effect of the two antibodies.

This, also, will need further investigation.

Notably, we found that during the acute phase of infection (which coincided with the Rh-

$\alpha_4\beta_7$-treatment) the VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ group had a lower frequency of IL-17 producing T

cells in the gut. This may be due to the profound impact of Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ on CCR6$^+$ T cells that

we noted in absence of infection [22] and may help explain the overall decrease in T cell

responses that was observed in the VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ group when pools for the entire

envelope and gag proteins were used. Perhaps because the Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ was administered

during the earliest stages of the infection, we did not see an impact on the antibody

responses as was described in the ART-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ combination study [17]. However,

treatment with Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ increased the T cell responses against the V2 region of the

envelope and our data suggest a role for these responses in maintaining virologic control.

How and why this happens requires further investigation. It is possible to speculate that

in the presence of Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ immune cell priming occurs more efficiently outside the

mucosal tissues and/or that the Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ changes the antigenicity of the envelope or

antigen processing.

Interestingly, the only VRC01-specific effect we observed appeared in the lymph nodes,

where in the VRC01-only treated animals we detected significantly lower frequencies of

$CD25^+$ and $CXCR5^+$ $CD4^+$ T cells. In the VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ group this effect was still

present, but less pronounced. This further supports the published observations that

suggest a direct impact of bNAbs on the antiviral immune response [47,49]. Nonetheless,

the amount of time the animals were exposed to meaningful concentrations of VRC01

during infection was very short and the data should be interpreted with caution.

Importantly, the VRC01-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ group had higher frequencies of IFNγ producing T cells

in both the large and small intestine. This increase suggests a protective activity of the

Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ on the gut immune system and helps explain the long-term survival of SIV

infected animals treated with Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ during acute infection (Aftab Ansari, unpublished

and reported at CROI 2018 by J. Arthos). Boosting effective mucosal immune responses

may also contribute to explain the virologic control seen when the Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ was used in

combination with cART as therapeutic approach in Byrareddy et. al, Science 2016 [17]. This

control was not replicated in other similar studies (as reported by Di Mascio and Fauci at

AIDS2018). Nonetheless, our study adds to the considerable amount of work that

supports a profound effect of the Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ on immune cells and the immune responses.

In conclusion, a suboptimal dose of VRC01 in combination with the Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ significantly

delayed infection and impacted the availability and distribution of immune cell subsets as

well as the T cell responses to the virus. VRC01 and Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ impact HIV infection by

distinct mechanisms, neither of which is fully understood. This study gives the first insight

into the combination of these antibodies and contributes to our understanding their effect

on HIV infection. Future studies should address how other bNAbs combinations with Rh-

$\alpha_4\beta_7$ could be harnessed in different therapeutic and preventive settings to fight HIV

infection.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Macaques and treatments

A total of 27 adult female Indian rhesus macaques (average weight 8.1Kg, range: 4.5,

13.05 and age 9.5 years, range: 3.9, 18) were socially housed, indoors, in climate

controlled conditions at the Tulane National Primate Research Center (TNPRC) in

compliance with the regulations under the Animal Welfare Act, the Guide for the Care and

Use of Laboratory Animals [50]. All procedures were approved by the Animal Care and Use

Committee of the TNPRC and in compliance with animal care procedures. The animals

were euthanized at the end of the study using methods consistent with recommendations

of the American Veterinary Medical Association (AVMA) Panel on euthanasia and per the

recommendations of the IACUC.

Macaques were divided in three groups of 9 animals each. Animals were administered

intravenously 1) 1 injection of 10mg/Kg of VRC01 + 1 injection of 25mg/Kg of Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$

mAb; followed by 5 additional injections of 25mg/Kg of Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ mAb every 3 weeks 2) 1

injection of 10mg/Kg of VRC01; 3) 1 injection of 10mg/Kg of control Human IgG and

25mg/Kg of control Rhesus IgG. Starting 3 days after treatment, macaques were

challenged weekly with intravaginal administration of $SHIV_{AD8-OE}$ (1000 $TCID_{50}$/challenge)

for 8 weeks. Blood was collected weekly to monitor infection as described below. After

two consecutive positive SIV PCRs (3-4 weeks post infection; acute phase) fresh rectal

biopsies and blood were used for cell isolation as described below. Subsequently, blood

was collected every two weeks throughout the study. Rectal and vaginal samples were

also collected at 7-8 weeks post infection (post-acute phase). At necropsy, blood, lymph

nodes, gut, brain, vaginal and cervical tissues were harvested and used for cell isolation.

Measurement of plasma levels of VRC01 and Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$

Levels of VRC01 were measured as described in [27]. Levels of rhesus Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ antibody

in macaque plasma were measured using the $\alpha_4\beta_7$-expressing human T cell line HuT-78

(NIH AIDS Reagent Program, Division of AIDS, NIAID, NIH: HUT 78 from Dr. Robert

Gallo) in a flow cytometry-based assay as described in (Calenda 2018, Byrareddy 2014)

using the standard curve method. Briefly, HuT78 cells were first incubated for 2-3 days in

complete RPMI 1640 media containing 100nM retinoic acid to increase the surface

expression of $\alpha_4\beta_7$. Cells (150,000/condition) were stained with LIVE/DEAD Aqua dye

(Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA) for live/dead discrimination, incubated for 30min

at 4°C with the plasma to be tested (1:10 diluted in PBS) obtained from macaques from

the VRC01-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ treatment group before (baseline, BL) and up to 6 weeks after treatment.

Cells were then washed and incubated for 30 min at 4°C with anti-rhesus IgG1 (NHP

resource center, antibody 7H11, in house biotinylated with EZ-link NHS-biotin (Thermo

Fisher Scientific) following the manufacturer's instructions), washed again and

resuspended in neutravidin-PE (Thermo Fisher Scientific) for 20 min at 4°C. PE

fluorescence was analyzed on a flow cytometer. For the standard curve, baseline plasma

was pooled and spiked with serial dilutions of Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ (2500 μg/ml – 0 μg/ml).

Anti-VRC01 and anti-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ antibodies

Levels of anti-VRC01 antibodies were measured as described in [32]. Levels of anti-Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ antibodies were measured via lamda light chain detection assay. ELISA plates were coated with Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ (10μg/ml) overnight at 4°C, washed and blocked with TBS 2% BSA 0.1% Tween20 for 2 hours at room temperature (RT). Test plasma was serially diluted in dilution buffer (starting at 1:10 then serial 1:4 dilutions), 100 μl applied to the plates and incubated 1 hour at RT. Plates were washed and incubated with anti-Ig human lambda light chain-biotin (Miltenyi), which does not recognize the kappa chain of the Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ 1 hour at RT. Plates were washed and incubated with diluted streptavidin-HRP (Invitrogen) 1 hour at RT. Plates were washed and enzymatic activity detected by adding TMB substrate and read on a luminometer at 450nm. Endpoint was the highest dilution with OD 2-fold higher the pre-treatment sample.

SHIV$_{AD8-EO}$ stock generation and titration

The full-length proviral plasmid pSHIVAD8-EO was a gift from Dr. Malcom Martin. Virus stocks were prepared by transfecting 293T cells with 5μg of the pSHIV$_{AD8-EO}$ molecular clone using Lipofectamine 2000 (Invitrogen). Culture supernatant was collected 60 hours later, clarified by centrifugation (300g 10 minutes, 4°C) and used to infect CD8-depleted, PHA-activated rhesus macaque PBMC. Cells were incubated overnight in 293T supernatants, washed and resuspended in RPMI 10% FBS medium for 10 days. Supernatants from parallel cultures were pooled on day 7, clarified by centrifugation (10,000g, 15minutes, 4°C), aliquoted, and stored at -80°C. The resulting stock was titrated in PHA-activated rhesus macaque PBMC.

SIV viral loads

Macaque infection was confirmed by SIVgag nested PCR on PBMC as described [49]. Plasma samples were obtained from EDTA-treated whole blood and used for the determination of plasma VL by SIVgag qRT-PCR [50] (quantitative Molecular Diagnostics Core, AIDS and Cancer Virus Program Frederick National Laboratory). DNA and RNA were extracted from snap frozen tissues using DNeasy/RNeasy blood and tissue kits (Qiagen) following the manufacturer's instructions. Tissue viral DNA loads were quantified using the standard curve method and normalized by albumin copy numbers by gag-qPCR as described in [51]. For tissue RNA loads, 1μg of total RNA was retrotranscribed to DNA using the VILO Kit (Thermo Fisher) quantified by gag-qPCR [51].

Cell isolation and flow cytometry

3-4 weeks post infection, PBMCs were isolated using Ficoll-Hypaque density gradient centrifugation and cells from rectal biopsies were isolated by enzymatic digestion in HBSS containing 2mg/mL Collagenase IV (Worthington Biochemical) and 1mg/ml of Human Serum Albumin (Sigma-Aldrich), shaking at 37°C for 50 minutes. The resulting cell suspension was passed through a 40µm cell strainer and washed with PBS. PBMCs and rectal cells were then stimulated with 60ng/ml PMA, 0.5µg/ml Ionomycin and 5µg/ml Brefeldin A (BFA) for 4 hours at 37°C, stained with LIVE/DEAD Aqua viability dye (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and incubated with a cocktail of different panels of monoclonal antibodies as listed in the tables in Fig S9.

At the time of necropsy, PBMCs were isolated by Ficoll-Hypaque density gradient

centrifugation. Enzymatic digestion was used to isolate cells from jejunum, ileum,

colorectal, vaginal and cervical tissues as described above. Spleen and LNs (axillary,

mesenteric, inguinal, iliac) were cut in small pieces and passed directly through a 40µm

cell strainer. Isolated cells were washed, frozen for phenotyping and stimulation

experiments at a later time. For PBMC stimulation experiments, up to $3x10^6$ cells/sample

were thawed, plated on a plate pre-coated with 2.5µg/ml goat anti mouse (GAM) IgGs

and cross linked with 10µg/ml anti-CD28 and anti-CD49d antibodies (Sigma Aldrich).

Cells were stimulated either with SIVMAC239 GAG peptide pool (1µg/ml; 125 15mers

with 11 aa overlap, AIDS reagents program, Division of AIDS, NIAID, NIH), HIV-1

Consensus B Env Peptide Set (2µg/ml; 211 15mers with 11 aa overlap, AIDS reagents

program, Division of AIDS, NIAID, NIH) or a SHIV$_{AD8OE}$ specific Env V1-V2 peptide pool

(2µg/condition; 7 20mers with 14 aa overlap, Peptide 2.0, Chantilly, VA). Pooled cells

stimulated with 1µg/ml PMA/Ionomycin were used a positive activation control. One hour

later 10µg/ml BFA and monensin (GolgiStop, BD Biosciences) were added to each well.

After 5 hours, cells were transferred to a FACS plate and stained with the panels listed in

table 1. To maximize CD107a detection, antibody staining was performed during

stimulation. For gut tissue stimulation experiments, cells isolated from colorectum,

jejenum and ileum where thawed and stimulated with 60ng/ml PMA, 0.5µg/ml Ionomycin

and 5µg/ml Brefeldin A (BFA) for 4 hours at 37°C, stained with LIVE/DEAD Aqua viability

dye (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and incubated with a cocktail of different panels of

monoclonal antibodies as listed in the tables in Fig S9. For phenotyping experiments,

cells were thawed and stained with the panels listed in tables in Fig S9.

Pepscan

Peptide scan was performed against consensus B envelope peptides with the 8 peptides corresponding to the V1-V2 loop replaced by the 7 SHIV$_{AD8OE}$-specific peptides that we had synthetized was performed on serum samples from the 4 animals from each group showing the highest antibody response by ABL Inc.

Statistics

To analyze the differences in SHIV acquisition, the survival curves generated with time to first viral detection in plasma from each treatment group were compared to each other directly and each with the curve from the control group using the Log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test. The cumulative number of challenges needed to infect in each group was also compared to the cumulative number in each other group by Fisher exact test. Viral loads and CD4 counts were compared by two-way ANOVA for repeated measures. To address whether either treatment had a significantly different effect on infection and immunological parameters than the control group, data was analyzed using Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric test adjusted for multiple comparisons followed by the Dunn's multiple comparisons post-hoc test. To address whether treatment groups differed from each other a Mann-Whitney unpaired t-test was performed. All analyses were performed using the GraphPad Prism software V7. Significant *p*-values of α<0.05 (*), α<0.01 (**) and α <0.001 (***) are indicated.

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by NIAID grant R01AI098546-05. We kindly thank Dr. Aftab A. Ansari for the many scientific discussions on the effect of the Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ and steadfast support for our work. We thank Dr. Keith Reimann and Mr. Adam Busby (Mass Biologics; supported by grants AI126683 and OD010976) for the preparation of the Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ and the Rh-IgG and for the assistance during the studies. We thank Dr. Malcom Martin and his team (Laboratory of Molecular Microbiology at NIAID, NIH) for providing the SHIV$_{AD8-EO}$ plasmid and related protocols. We are very grateful to Jeffrey Lifson, Rebecca Shoemaker and the rest of the team from the AIDS and Cancer Virus Program (Leidos Biomedical Research, Inc.) for supporting this work and being always timely in measuring the plasma viral load. Finally, we acknowledge the outstanding help and assistance of the professional staff, animal technicians and caretakers of the Tulane National Primate Research Center and the staff of the Population Council and Rockefeller University resource centers for their assistance and help in the conduction of the studies presented in this report.

Author contributions

EM, JA, conceived and designed the study; GC, IF, GAB coordinated the receipt and

processing of macaque samples, run the assays and analyzed the data; AP and KW

measured VRC01 concentrations and anti-VRC01 antibodies; SM processed samples

and run virologic assays; BJ, JLB and AG coordinated the macaque studies, sample

collection and animal welfare; EM and KR performed statistical analysis; EM, JA, CC,

ASF, JRM interpreted the data and wrote the manuscript.

456
457

458 **Disclosure**

459 The authors declare no competing interests.

References

References
1.   Schweighoffer T, Tanaka Y, Tidswell M, et al. Selective expression of integrin alpha 4
beta 7 on a subset of human CD4+ memory T cells with Hallmarks of gut-trophism. *J Immunol*.
1993;151(2):717-729.
2.   Reese SR, Kudsk KA, Genton L, Ikeda S. l-selectin and alpha4beta7 integrin, but not
ICAM-1, regulate lymphocyte distribution in gut-associated lymphoid tissue of mice. *Surgery*.
2005;137(2):209-215.
3.   Meenan J, Spaans J, Grool TA, Pals ST, Tytgat GN, van Deventer SJ. Altered expression
of alpha 4 beta 7, a gut homing integrin, by circulating and mucosal T cells in colonic mucosal
inflammation. *Gut*. 1997;40(2):241-246.
4.   Brenchley JM, Schacker TW, Ruff LE, et al. CD4+ T cell depletion during all stages of
HIV disease occurs predominantly in the gastrointestinal tract. *J Exp Med*. 2004;200(6):749-
759.
5.   Guadalupe M, Reay E, Sankaran S, et al. Severe CD4+ T-cell depletion in gut lymphoid
tissue during primary human immunodeficiency virus type 1 infection and substantial delay
in restoration following highly active antiretroviral therapy. *J Virol*. 2003;77(21):11708-
11717.
6.   Mehandru S, Poles MA, Tenner-Racz K, et al. Primary HIV-1 infection is associated
with preferential depletion of CD4+ T lymphocytes from effector sites in the gastrointestinal
tract. *J Exp Med*. 2004;200(6):761-770.
7.   Li Q, Duan L, Estes JD, et al. Peak SIV replication in resting memory CD4+ T cells
depletes gut lamina propria CD4+ T cells. *Nature*. 2005;434(7037):1148-1152.
8.   Cicala C, Martinelli E, McNally JP, et al. The integrin alpha4beta7 forms a complex with
cell-surface CD4 and defines a T-cell subset that is highly susceptible to infection by HIV-1.
Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2009;106(49):20877-20882.
9.   Kader M, Wang X, Piatak M, et al. Alpha4(+)beta7(hi)CD4(+) memory T cells harbor
most Th-17 cells and are preferentially infected during acute SIV infection. *Mucosal Immunol*.
2009;2(5):439-449.
10.   Wang X, Xu H, Gill AF, et al. Monitoring alpha4beta7 integrin expression on circulating
CD4+ T cells as a surrogate marker for tracking intestinal CD4+ T-cell loss in SIV infection.
Mucosal Immunol. 2009;2(6):518-526.
11.   Sivro A, Schuetz A, Sheward D, et al. Integrin alpha4beta7 expression on peripheral
blood CD4(+) T cells predicts HIV acquisition and disease progression outcomes. *Sci Transl*
Med. 2018;10(425).
12.   Martinelli E, Veglia F, Goode D, et al. The frequency of alpha4beta7high memory CD4+
T cells correlates with susceptibility to rectal SIV infection. *J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr*.
2013.
13.   Martinelli E, Tharinger H, Frank I, et al. HSV-2 infection of dendritic cells amplifies a
highly susceptible HIV-1 cell target. *PLoS Pathog*. 2011;7(6):e1002109.
14.   Goode D, Truong R, Villegas G, et al. HSV-2-driven increase in the expression of
alpha4beta7 correlates with increased susceptibility to vaginal SHIV(SF162P3) infection.
PLoS Pathog. 2014;10(12):e1004567.
15.   Shannon B, Yi TJ, Thomas-Pavanel J, et al. Impact of Asymptomatic Herpes Simplex
Virus Type 2 Infection on Mucosal Homing and Immune Cell Subsets in the Blood and Female
Genital Tract. *The Journal of Immunology*. 2014;192(11):5074-5082.

16. Byrareddy SN, Kallam B, Arthos J, et al. Targeting alpha4beta7 integrin reduces
mucosal transmission of simian immunodeficiency virus and protects gut-associated
lymphoid tissue from infection. *Nat Med*. 2014;20(12):1397-1400.
17. Byrareddy SN, Arthos J, Cicala C, et al. Sustained virologic control in SIV+ macaques
after antiretroviral and alpha4beta7 antibody therapy. *Science*. 2016;354(6309):197-202.
18. Joag VR, McKinnon LR, Liu J, et al. Identification of preferential CD4+ T-cell targets for
HIV infection in the cervix. *Mucosal Immunol*. 2016;9(1):1-12.
19. Parrish NF, Wilen CB, Banks LB, et al. Transmitted/founder and chronic subtype C
HIV-1 use CD4 and CCR5 receptors with equal efficiency and are not inhibited by blocking
the integrin alpha4beta7. *PLoS Pathog*. 2012;8(5):e1002686.
20. Nawaz F, Goes LR, Ray JC, et al. MAdCAM costimulation through Integrin-alpha4beta7
promotes HIV replication. *Mucosal Immunol*. 2018.
21. Arrode-Bruses G, Goode D, Kleinbeck K, et al. A Small Molecule, Which Competes with
MAdCAM-1, Activates Integrin alpha4beta7 and Fails to Prevent Mucosal Transmission of
SHIV-SF162P3. *PLoS Pathog*. 2016;12(6):e1005720.
22. Calenda G, Keawvichit R, Arrode-Bruses G, et al. Integrin alpha4beta7 Blockade
Preferentially Impacts CCR6(+) Lymphocyte Subsets in Blood and Mucosal Tissues of Naive
Rhesus Macaques. *J Immunol*. 2018;200(2):810-820.
23. Santangelo PJ, Cicala C, Byrareddy SN, et al. Early treatment of SIV+ macaques with
an alpha4beta7 mAb alters virus distribution and preserves CD4(+) T cells in later stages of
infection. *Mucosal Immunol*. 2017.
24. Baba TW, Liska V, Hofmann-Lehmann R, et al. Human neutralizing monoclonal
antibodies of the IgG1 subtype protect against mucosal simian-human immunodeficiency
virus infection. *Nat Med*. 2000;6(2):200-206.
25. Mascola JR, Stiegler G, VanCott TC, et al. Protection of macaques against vaginal
transmission of a pathogenic HIV- 1/SIV chimeric virus by passive infusion of neutralizing
antibodies. *Nat Med*. 2000;6(2):207-210.
26. Parren PW, Marx PA, Hessell AJ, et al. Antibody Protects Macaques against Vaginal
Challenge with a Pathogenic R5 Simian/Human Immunodeficiency Virus at Serum Levels
Giving Complete Neutralization In Vitro. *J Virol*. 2001;75(17):8340-8347.
27. Pegu A, Yang ZY, Boyington JC, et al. Neutralizing antibodies to HIV-1 envelope protect
more effectively in vivo than those to the CD4 receptor. *Sci Transl Med*.
2014;6(243):243ra288.
28. Anderson DJ, Politch JA, Zeitlin L, et al. Systemic and topical use of monoclonal
antibodies to prevent the sexual transmission of HIV. *AIDS*. 2017;31(11):1505-1517.
29. Zhou T, Georgiev I, Wu X, et al. Structural basis for broad and potent neutralization of
HIV-1 by antibody VRC01. *Science*. 2010;329(5993):811-817.
30. Wu X, Yang ZY, Li Y, et al. Rational design of envelope identifies broadly neutralizing
human monoclonal antibodies to HIV-1. *Science*. 2010;329(5993):856-861.
31. Gautam R, Nishimura Y, Pegu A, et al. A single injection of anti-HIV-1 antibodies
protects against repeated SHIV challenges. *Nature*. 2016;533(7601):105-109.
32. Ko SY, Pegu A, Rudicell RS, et al. Enhanced neonatal Fc receptor function improves
protection against primate SHIV infection. *Nature*. 2014;514(7524):642-645.
33. Xu L, Pegu A, Rao E, et al. Trispecific broadly neutralizing HIV antibodies mediate
potent SHIV protection in macaques. *Science*. 2017;358(6359):85-90.

34. Steinhardt JJ, Guenaga J, Turner HL, et al. Rational design of a trispecific antibody
targeting the HIV-1 Env with elevated anti-viral activity. *Nat Commun*. 2018;9(1):877.
35. Bournazos S, Gazumyan A, Seaman MS, Nussenzweig MC, Ravetch JV. Bispecific Anti-
HIV-1 Antibodies with Enhanced Breadth and Potency. *Cell*. 2016;165(7):1609-1620.
36. Nishimura Y, Shingai M, Willey R, et al. Generation of the pathogenic R5-tropic
simian/human immunodeficiency virus SHIVAD8 by serial passaging in rhesus macaques. *J
Virol*. 2010;84(9):4769-4781.
37. Gautam R, Nishimura Y, Lee WR, et al. Pathogenicity and mucosal transmissibility of
the R5-tropic simian/human immunodeficiency virus SHIV(AD8) in rhesus macaques:
implications for use in vaccine studies. *J Virol*. 2012;86(16):8516-8526.
38. Rudicell RS, Kwon YD, Ko SY, et al. Enhanced potency of a broadly neutralizing HIV-1
antibody in vitro improves protection against lentiviral infection in vivo. *J Virol*.
2014;88(21):12669-12682.
39. Kwa S, Kannanganat S, Nigam P, et al. Plasmacytoid dendritic cells are recruited to the
colorectum and contribute to immune activation during pathogenic SIV infection in rhesus
macaques. *Blood*. 2011;118(10):2763-2773.
40. Ansari AA, Reimann KA, Mayne AE, et al. Blocking of alpha4beta7 gut-homing integrin
during acute infection leads to decreased plasma and gastrointestinal tissue viral loads in
simian immunodeficiency virus-infected rhesus macaques. *J Immunol*. 2011;186(2):1044-
1059.
41. Hua CK, Ackerman ME. Increasing the Clinical Potential and Applications of Anti-HIV
Antibodies. *Front Immunol*. 2017;8:1655.
42. Morris L, Mkhize NN. Prospects for passive immunity to prevent HIV infection. *PLoS
Med*. 2017;14(11):e1002436.
43. Nishimura Y, Martin MA. Of Mice, Macaques, and Men: Broadly Neutralizing Antibody
Immunotherapy for HIV-1. *Cell Host Microbe*. 2017;22(2):207-216.
44. Pegu A, Hessell AJ, Mascola JR, Haigwood NL. Use of broadly neutralizing antibodies
for HIV-1 prevention. *Immunol Rev*. 2017;275(1):296-312.
45. Wagh K, Seaman MS, Zingg M, et al. Potential of conventional & bispecific broadly
neutralizing antibodies for prevention of HIV-1 subtype A, C & D infections. *PLoS Pathog*.
2018;14(3):e1006860.
46. Barouch DH, Whitney JB, Moldt B, et al. Therapeutic efficacy of potent neutralizing
HIV-1-specific monoclonal antibodies in SHIV-infected rhesus monkeys. *Nature*.
2013;503(7475):224-228.
47. Nishimura Y, Gautam R, Chun TW, et al. Early antibody therapy can induce long-
lasting immunity to SHIV. *Nature*. 2017;543(7646):559-563.
48. Schoofs T, Klein F, Braunschweig M, et al. HIV-1 therapy with monoclonal antibody
3BNC117 elicits host immune responses against HIV-1. *Science*. 2016;352(6288):997-1001.
49. Lu CL, Murakowski DK, Bournazos S, et al. Enhanced clearance of HIV-1-infected cells
by broadly neutralizing antibodies against HIV-1 in vivo. *Science*. 2016;352(6288):1001-
1004.
50. Animal Welfare Act and Regulation of 2001. In: Code of Federal Regulations t, chapter
1, subchapter A: animals and animal products ed. Beltsville, MD: U.S. Department of
Agriculture.

51.   Guerra-Perez N, Aravantinou M, Veglia F, et al. Rectal HSV-2 Infection May Increase
Rectal SIV Acquisition Even in the Context of SIVDeltanef Vaccination. *PLoS One*.
2016;11(2):e0149491.

Figure Legends

Figure 1. The Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$-VRC01 combination significantly delays SHIV$_{AD8-EO}$ acquisition.

(A) Schematic of the study procedures (B-C) The concentrations of VRC01 (B) and Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$ (C) were measured in plasma for the first 8 weeks after initiation of treatment. VRC01 levels were below the protective concentration in GH63 and KT57 (orange and green in B, respectively). (D) Copies of viral RNA copies in plasma are shown from the time of the first challenge (week 0). (E) Kaplan-Meier curves generated with time to first viral detection in plasma are shown. Curves were compared with the Log-rank test (* *p*-value of α<0.05 was considered significant). (F-G) Mean ± SEM of the plasma viral loads (F) and CD4$^+$ T cell counts (G) are shown.

Fig 2. The Rh-$\alpha_4\beta_7$-VRC01 combination reduces viral DNA and RNA in the gut.

Copies of SIV DNA (A) and RNA (B) from colorectal biopsies at the indicated times after infection were quantified by gag-qPCR (normalized on albumin content) and by RT-qPCR (normalized on RNA content) respectively. The dotted line indicates the lower limit of detection (LLOD) of the assay. Data from the treatment groups were compared with the control by Kruskal-Wallis test and the results of the Dunn's multiple comparisons post-hoc test are shown (*p*-value of * α<0.05 and ** α <0.01 were considered significant).

Fig 3. Decreased IL-17 and increased IFN producing cells in the gut of Rh-α₄β₇-VRC01-treated macaques. (A-B) The frequency of IL-17-secreting cells within the indicated subsets in blood (A) and colorectal biopsies (B) collected 2 weeks after the first detection of virus in plasma (3-4 weeks post-infection) are shown. (C) The frequency of IFN- -secreting cells within CD8$^+$ T cells in the indicated tissues are shown. (A-C) NK-like cells were defined as CD3$^-$NKG2A$^+$ in the blood and CD3$^-$NKp44$^+$ in the colorectal tissue. Data from the treatment groups were compared with the control by Kruskal-Wallis test and the results of the Dunn's multiple comparisons post-hoc test and the Mann-Whitney test to compare the treatment groups between each other are shown (p-value of * α<0.05 and ** α<0.01 were considered significant).

Fig 4. Decreased frequencies of CD25$^+$, CCR6$^+$ CXCR3$^+$ and CXCR5$^+$ T cells in the lymph nodes of VRC01 pretreated, SHIV-infected macaques. (A-B) At necropsy, cells were isolated from inguinal lymph nodes and analyzed by flow cytometry. The frequencies of subsets within the CD4$^+$ (A) and CD8$^+$ (B) T cells that were significantly different in any of the treatment groups compared to the controls by Kruskal-Wallis test are shown. The results of the Dunn's multiple comparisons post-hoc test and the Mann-Whitney test to compare the treatment groups between each other are shown (p-value of * α<0.05, ** α<0.01 and *** α<0.001 were considered significant).

Fig 5. T cell responses to the SHIV$_{AD8-EO}$ V2-loop peptides are higher in Rh-α₄β₇-VRC01 treated macaques. PBMCs isolated around 18 weeks post infection were

stimulated with a pool of 7 20mers with 14aa overlap peptides spanning the V2 loop of

the SHIV$_{AD8-EO}$ envelope for 5hrs. The frequency of cells secreting the indicated cytokines

are shown for the CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ T cell subsets after subtraction of the baseline values

(in absence of peptides). The results of the Dunn's multiple comparisons post-hoc test

(after the Kruskal-Wallis test controlled for multiple comparisons) and the Mann-Whitney

test to compare the treatment groups between each other are shown (*p*-value of * $\alpha<0.05$,

** $\alpha<0.01$ and *** $\alpha<0.001$ were considered significant).