Thresholds for post-rebound viral control after CCR5 gene-edited autologous

hematopoietic cell transplantation E. Fabian Cardozo¹, Elizabeth R. Duke^{1,3}, Christopher W. Peterson^{2,3}, Daniel B. Reeves¹, Bryan T Mayer¹, Hans-Peter Kiem^{2,3,4}, Joshua T. Schiffer^{1,2,3,*} ¹Vaccine and Infectious Disease Division, ²Clinical Research Division, Fred Hutchinson Cancer Research Center, Seattle, WA, USA; ³Department of Medicine and ⁴Department of Pathology, University of Washington, Seattle, WA, USA. *Corresponding Author Short title: Post-rebound SHIV control after ΔCCR5 HSPC transplantation

Abstract (248/250 words)

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Two recent cases of HIV cure/stable remission following allogeneic stem cell transplantation are difficult to reproduce because of inherent toxicities and the rarity of donors homozygous for the CCR $5\Delta32$ deletion. One approach to overcome these barriers and improve safety is the use of autologous, CCR5 gene-edited hematopoietic stem and progenitor cell (HSPC) products. Unlike allogeneic transplantation, in which the frequency of CCR5 Δ 32 donor cells approaches 100%, the CCR5 gene can currently only be edited in a fraction of autologous HSPCs. Therefore, we sought to determine the minimum fraction required for post-rebound viral control using mathematical modeling. We analyzed data from eight juvenile pigtail macaques infected intravenously with SHIV-1157ipd3N4, treated with combination antiretroviral therapy (cART), and infused with autologous HSPCs without CCR5 gene editing. We developed a mathematical model that simultaneously described reconstitution of CD4⁺ CCR5⁺, CD4⁺ CCR5⁻, and CD8⁺ T cell counts, as well as SHIV plasma viral loads in control and transplanted macaques. By modifying the model to hypothetically describe transplant with some fraction of protected CCR5-edited cells, we found that transplantation had differential effects on the macaques' immunologic control of SHIV: those with a loss of immunologic control had a more profound depletion of CCR5⁺CD4⁺ T cells and would require higher fractions of gene-edited cells (~97%) than those that maintained immunologic control (~60%). Our results provide a framework to predict the likelihood of post-rebound control in vivo, based on the percentage of CCR5-edited cells in peripheral blood and the loss of HIV-specific immunity following autologous HSPC.

(Main text: 3789/4000 words, including headings)

INTRODUCTION

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The major obstacle to HIV-1 eradication is the latent reservoir of long-lived infected cells¹⁻³. Cure strategies aim to eliminate all infected cells or prevent sustained viral reactivation from latency. The only known case of HIV cure^{4,5} and an additional, recently-reported case of prolonged remission⁶, resulted from allogeneic hematopoietic stem cell transplant with homozygous CCR 5Δ 32 donor cells⁴⁻⁶. The success of this procedure is likely multifactorial—in part attributable to HIV resistance of the transplant product, the conditioning regimen that facilitates engraftment, some graft-versus-host effect, and immunosuppressive therapies for graft-versus-host disease⁷⁻¹¹. A current research focus is to recapitulate this method of cure with minimal toxicity. One method is to perform autologous transplantation following ex vivo editing of the CCR5 gene with a zinc finger nuclease, eliminating the need for allogeneic CCR5-negative donors^{12,13}. While this procedure is safe and feasible in pigtail macaques infected with simian-human immunodeficiency virus (SHIV) $^{13-16}$, only a fraction of HSPCs can be genetically modified ex vivo to be HIV-resistant. Due to this challenge, we developed a mathematical model that can be used to predict the minimum threshold of persisting, gene-modified cells necessary for functional cure. First, we modeled the kinetics of CD4⁺CCR5⁺, CD4⁺ CCR5⁻, and CD8⁺ T cell reconstitution after autologous transplantation. We then modeled SHIV rebound kinetics following analytical treatment interruption (ATI) and identified the degree of loss of anti-HIV cytolytic immunity following transplantation. Finally, we projected the proportion of gene-modified cells and the levels of SHIV-specific immunity required to eliminate viral replication following ATI.

METHODS

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Experimental Data Eight juvenile pigtail macaques were intravenously challenged with 9500 TCID50 SHIV-1157ipd3N4 (SHIV-C)^{14,17}. After 6 months, the macagues received combination antiretroviral therapy (cART: tenofovir [PMPA], emtricitabine [FTC], and raltegravir [RAL]). After ~25 weeks on cART, four animals received total body irradiation (TBI) followed by transplantation of autologous HSPCs. After an additional 25 weeks following transplant, when viral load was fully suppressed, animals underwent analytical treatment interruption (ATI)¹⁴. A control group of four animals did not receive TBI or HSPCs transplantation and underwent ATI after ~50 weeks of treatment (Fig. 1A). Plasma viral loads and absolute quantified CD4⁺CCR5⁻, CD4⁺CCR5⁺ and $CD8^+$ total and subsets (naïve, central memory $[T_{CM}]$, and effector memory $[T_{EM}]$) T cell counts from peripheral blood were measured as described previously^{14,17}. We analyzed peripheral T cell counts and plasma viral load from transplant until 43 weeks (~25 weeks pre-ATI and ~18 weeks post-ATI). **Mathematical modeling** We employed several series of ordinary differential equation models of cellular and viral dynamics after transplantation. First, we modeled T cell dynamics and reconstitution following transplant and before ATI, assuming that low viral levels do not affect cell dynamics (Fig. 1B). After curation of that model, we introduced viral dynamics and fit those to the T cell and viral rebound dynamics from the animals (Fig. 1C). Lastly, we used our complete model in a transplant scenario with gene editing of CCR5 to predict the minimal threshold of editing for functional HIV cure.

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T cell reconstitution after transplantation: We modeled the kinetics of CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cell subsets in blood, transplanted cells that home to the BM, and progenitor cells in the BM/thymus as shown in Fig. 1B. We included CD8⁺ T cells in the model because CD8⁺ and CD4⁺ T cells may arise from new naïve cells from the thymus and compete for resources that impact clonal expansion and cell survival¹⁸⁻²⁰. At the moment of HSPC infusion, transplanted animals are lymphopenic due to TBI. The control group did not have a transplanted-cell compartment, and all other compartments remained in steady state. We assumed that CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cell expansion may have two possible drivers: (1) lymphopenia-induced proliferation of mature cells that persist through myeloablative TBI^{18,21-25}, and (2) differentiation from naïve cells from progenitors in the thymus (from transplanted CD34⁺ HSPCs^{26,27} or CD34⁺ HSPCs that survive TBI) and further differentiation to an activated effector state^{24,25,28-32}. We assumed that in a lymphopenic environment, factors that drive T cell proliferation are more accessible (i.e., self-MHC molecules on antigen-presenting cells^{28,29,33,34} and γ-chain cytokines such as IL-7 and IL-15^{21-23,35-37}). However, as they grow, cells compete for access to these resources, limiting clonal expansion¹⁸ such that logistic growth models are appropriate¹⁹. We assume that new peripheral CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T naïve cells come from a progenitor compartment in the BM/Thymus^{38,39}. For CD4⁺ T cells the models assume that naïve cells do not express CCR5⁴⁰⁻⁴², and subsequently upand/or down-regulate expression of the CCR5 receptor³⁰. For CD8⁺ T cells we included a single CD8⁺ memory precursor compartment of T_N and T_{CM} cells that differentiate linearly into T_{EM} during lymphopenia⁴³⁻⁴⁵. The details of the model are presented in the **Supp. Material** and in Fig. 1B, with the symbols described in Table 1. A parsimonious model based on the one

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described above was selected from a series of models with varying statistical complexity as presented in the Supp. Materials. T cell and viral dynamics: We adapted the previous model combining several adaptations of the canonical model of viral dynamics⁴³⁻⁵³ as shown in **Fig. 1C**. The model assumes that SHIV only infects CD4⁺CCR5⁺ T cells¹⁷, and that only a small fraction (~ 5%) of those infected cells are able to produce infectious virus^{51,54,55}. We modeled cART by reducing infection rate to zero, and modeled ATI by assuming infection is greater than zero after some time Δ_t after interruption. This model assumes also that productively infected cells arise also from activation of a steady set of latently infected cells. The presence of both unproductively and productively infected cells leads to the expansion of CD8⁺ T_{naïve} and T_{CM} cells, from which the majority of dividing cells differentiate into SHIV-specific effector cells^{30,46,47,52,53}. The details of the model are presented in the Supp. Material and in Fig. 1C, with the symbols described in Table 1. A parsimonious model based on the one described above was selected from a series of models with varying statistical complexity as presented in the Supp. Materials. Viral and T cell dynamics in the setting of $\triangle CCR5$ HSPC transplantation: We next adapted our model to simulate scenarios in which autologous transplantation includes cells that are CCR5edited. We added variables representing CCR5-edited HSPCs, T cell progenitors in BM/thymus, and CD4⁺CCR5⁻ T cells in blood. These compartments have the same structure as CCR5-nonedited cells but with two differences. First, the value of HSPCs at transplantation is a fraction f_p of the total number of infused cells, i.e. representing the proportion of infused HSPCs that were

CCR5-edited. Second, mature CD4⁺CCR5⁻ cells with CCR5 edition do not upregulate CCR5 (see full model in **Supp. Materials**).

Fitting procedure and model selection

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We used a nonlinear, mixed-effects modeling approach⁵⁶ described in detail in **Supp.** materials. Briefly, parameters for individual animals were sampled from a probabilistic model that describes the population with a fixed effect or population median, and a random effect with a standard deviation that describes the parameter variability in the population. We first fit instances of the model in Fig. 1B to blood T cell counts during transplant and before ATI (Table S1 includes all 19 competing models). Then, we fit several instances of the model Fig. 1C to blood T cell counts and plasma viral load during the period after transplant including ATI, using the best competing model for the model in Fig. 1B (Table S2 includes all 15 competing models). For each step we fit each competing model to all data points from all animals simultaneously using a maximum likelihood approach. We estimated the standard deviation of the measurement error for the observations, and each parameter fixed effects and standard deviation of the random effects using the Stochastic Approximation of the Expectation Maximization (SAEM) algorithm embedded in the Monolix software (www.lixoft.eu)⁵⁶. For best fit of the different possible versions of the models we computed the log-likelihood ($\log L$) and the Akaike Information Criteria (AIC= $-2\log L+2m$, where m is the number of parameters estimated)⁵⁷ to obtain the most parsimonious model. We assumed a model has similar support from the data if the difference between its AIC and the best model (lowest) AIC is less than two⁵⁷ (see **Supp. materials** for details).

RESULTS

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CD4⁺CCR5⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells recover more rapidly than CD4⁺CCR5⁻ T cells after HSPC transplantation. We analyzed the kinetics of peripheral blood CD4⁺CCR5⁺ and CD4⁺CCR5⁻ Tcells, and total, T_{naïve}, T_{CM}, and T_{EM} CD8⁺ T-cells in macaques after HSPC transplantation (**Fig.** 1A). In controls, levels of CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells oscillated around a persistent set point (blue lines in Fig. 2A-C and Fig. S1A-B). In the control group, CD4⁺ CCR5⁺ T cell levels were ~100 cells/µl and were uniformly lower than the CD4⁺CCR5⁻ T cell counts (~1200 cells/µl) (p=0.01, Paired t-test of the averaged measures post-transplant. See Fig. 2D). Total CD8⁺ T cell levels in the control group were ~ 1400 cells/µl with a greater contribution from T_{EM} (73%) than $T_N + T_{CM}$ (27%) (Based on median values. See **Fig. 2D**). In the transplant group immediately post-TBI, the levels of CD4⁺CCR5⁺ T cells started at 1-10 cells/µl and reconstituted to levels similar to the control group over 5-10 weeks (Fig. 2A). After TBI, CD4⁺CCR5⁻ T cells remained at higher levels (~100 cells/µl) than CD4+CCR5+ T cells but expanded more slowly and did not reach the values of the control group after 25 weeks (Fig. 2B). The CD4⁺CCR5⁺ T cell compartment expanded 8-fold more rapidly than the CD4⁺CCR5⁻ compartment (p=0.01, Paired t-test. See Fig. 2E). Following TBI in the transplanted group, CD8⁺ T cells decreased to levels between 10 and 100 cells/µl after TBI but recovered to levels below the control group in 5 weeks (Fig. 2C); these cells recovered as fast as the CD4⁺CCR5⁺ population (Fig. 2E). CD8⁺ T cell levels were highly correlated with the CD8⁺ T_{EM} subtype but not to the naïve or T_{CM} subtypes (**Fig. 2F** and **Figures S1C-D**). Overall, these results show that during post-transplantation there is a faster reconstitution of CD4⁺CCR5⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells compared to CD4⁺CCR5⁻ cells, and that CD8⁺ T cells are composed mostly of T_{EM}.

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Lymphopenia-induced proliferation favors CD4⁺CCR5⁺ and CD8⁺ T cell reconstitution after HPSC transplantation. To understand what are the main drivers of T cell reconstitution we developed a mathematical model that included the plausible mechanisms underlying differing T cell subsets reconstitution following autologous transplantation (Fig. 1B). We built 19 versions of that model by assuming that one or multiple mechanisms are absent, or by assuming certain mechanisms have equal kinetics (Table S1). Using model selection theory based on AIC, we identified the model in Fig. 3A which most parsimoniously reproduces the data (Table S1). The main features of this model are: (1) CD4⁺CCR5⁺ T cell reconstitution after transplant is driven by proliferation and upregulation of CCR5; (2) CD4⁺CCR5⁻ T cell expansion is driven only by new naïve cells from the thymus; and (3), thymic export rates are equal between CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ naïve T cells. The best fits of this model are presented in Figures S2-S3 and Fig. 3B-E with the respective parameter estimates in **Tables S3-S4**. The best fitted model predicts that CD4⁺CCR5⁻ T cells have a delayed reconstitution that occurs only when cells from the thymus (estimated with rate $\sim 0.01/day$) outnumber their loss during death, trafficking to tissues or upregulation of CCR5. Furthermore, the estimated CD4⁺CCR5⁺ T cell proliferation rate (~0.1/day) far exceed the estimated CCR5 upregulation ($\sim 0.004/\text{day}$) and thymic export rates. Therefore, total cell proliferation in this cell compartment is predicted by the model to be up to 40-fold higher than the concentration of cells that up-regulate CCR5 (Fig. 3F and Fig. S4). Our model also predicts that CD8⁺ T cells follow a similar pattern to CD4⁺CCR5⁺ T cells (Fig. 3D-E), with CD8⁺ T_{EM} proliferation rate up to 10-fold higher than the CD8⁺ T cell differentiation rate (Fig. S4). Overall, these results suggest that following autologous HSPC transplant: (1) slow thymic export is the main driver of CD4⁺CCR5⁻ T cell growth, and (2) rapid

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lymphopenia-induced proliferation of remaining cells (rather than transplanted cells) after TBI is the main driver for CD4⁺CCR5⁺ and CD8⁺ T cell expansion. Reduction of blood CD4⁺CCR5⁺ T cell counts correlates with plasma viral rebound after ATI in animals that underwent HSPC transplantation. We next aimed to compare plasma viral load rebound kinetics to CD4⁺CCR5⁺ and CCR5⁻ T cell subset dynamics after ATI, in the context of previous plasma viral load analyses that we have performed from these animals^{14,51}. Fig. 4A-C presents the plasma viral loads and the blood CD4⁺CCR5⁺ and CD4⁺CCR5⁻ T cell counts before and after ATI. The median peak viral load after treatment interruption was 10-fold higher for the transplant group (p=0.06, Mann-Whitney test. See Fig. 4D). Similarly, the median of the final viral load measurements at necropsy was 2-log₁₀ higher in the transplant group (p=0.06, Mann-Whitney test. See Fig.4E). CD4⁺CCR5⁺ T-cell counts decreased after ATI in the transplant group: nadir was significantly lower (~8-fold) than in the control animals (p=0.01, Mann-Whitney test. Fig. 4F). The maximum reduction of CD4⁺CCR5⁺ T cells occurred in the same two animals with the highest viral set points. There was no difference between control and transplant groups in the CD4⁺CCR5⁻ T cell compartment: both groups had an average of ~200 cells/µL (Fig.4G). None of the individual plasma viral load observations in the control group post-ATI did not correlate with the corresponding CD4⁺CCR5⁺ T-cell counts post-ATI. However, in three animals in the transplant group, viral load observations post-ATI correlated negatively with their corresponding CD4⁺CCR5⁺ T cell counts (Fig. 4H). On the other hand, plasma viral loads were negatively correlated with the CD4⁺CCR5⁻ T cell count in two animals in both the control and transplant groups (Fig. S5). These results suggest that autologous HSPC

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transplantation (without gene editing) affects SHIV-infected macaques so that the presence of the virus leads to more depletion of CD4⁺CCR5⁺ T cells. Higher viral set points and CD4⁺CCR5⁺ T-cell depletion following transplantation and ATI are due to a reduction in SHIV-specific immunity. To understand why transplantation may have an effect in virus and CD4⁺CCR5⁺ T cell kinetics during ATI, we modified our mathematical model to include SHIV infection as described in Fig. 1C (Methods). Using model selection theory based on AIC, we found that the most parsimonious model to explain the data was the one shown in Fig. 5A (Table S2). In the best fit model SHIV-specific CD8+ effector cells reduce virus production in a non-cytolytic manner⁵⁸⁻⁶⁰ (e.g. possibly by secretion of HIVantiviral factors⁶¹⁻⁶⁴—not included in the model). Finally, the model assumes that infection leads to enhanced activation of CD4⁺CCR5⁻ T cells leading to replenishment of CD4⁺CCR5⁺ T cells, explaining the concentration reduction of the CD4⁺CCR5⁻ compartment after ATI⁶⁵⁻⁶⁸. The model simultaneously recapitulates plasma viral rebound, and the kinetics of CD4⁺ CCR5⁺ and CCR5⁻ T cells in each animal as shown in Fig. 5B and Fig. S6-S7 with corresponding estimated parameters in Table 1 and Table S5-S6. From the estimated parameters, only SHIV-based CD8⁺ proliferation rate, ω_8 , correlated with post-ATI viral load set point and CD4⁺CCR5⁺ T-cell nadir (Fig. 5C-D). We also found that the estimated SHIV-based CD8⁺ proliferation rate (ω_8) was significantly lower in the transplant group, and the estimated time to viral rebound (Δ_t) was significantly higher in the transplant group (Fig. 5E-F). The projected fraction of SHIV-specific CD8⁺ T cells in the transplant group approached zero (Fig. **S8**). Overall, these results suggest that HSPC transplantation may lead to varying degrees of loss

of the immune response to SHIV infected cells, in turn leading to higher viral loads and loss of CD4⁺CCR5⁺ T cells.

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Greater loss of immunologic control during TBI/transplant requires higher numbers of CCR5-edited HSPCs to control viral rebound after ATI. To calculate the minimum threshold of CCR5-edited cells necessary to induce cART-independent virus suppression, we next added a population of transplanted, gene-edited CCR5 HSPCs to the model in equation 2. We assumed that in the infused product there is a fraction f_p of HSPCs that have a biallelically modified CCR5 gene. Hence, CD4⁺ T-cells derived from these HSPCs should not express CCR5. In the model we added state variables for protected progenitors and CD4⁺CCR5⁻ T cells that cannot become CD4⁺CCR5⁺ T cells (Fig. 6A, full model in Supp. Materials). Fig. 6B depicts projections of the model using the best estimates from the fits of the model to transplanted animal Z09144, using six values of f_p . For this animal, an initial fraction of protected cells smaller or equal than 40% will not lead to post-rebound viral control after ATI, even after a year. However, it is possible to have a spontaneous post-rebound viral control at \sim 40 weeks and 10 weeks after ATI when f_p is 60% or greater than 80%, We then simulated the model using parameter values obtained from the best fit in the previous section for each animal in the transplant group using 100 values of f_p from zero to one (0-100% CCR5-edited HSPCs). The heatmaps in Fig. 6C-F show plasma viral load projections after 2 years after the start of ATI for different values of f_p . The model predicts that the minimum f_p to maintain post-rebound control for 2 years after ATI is higher for animals with lower estimated SHIV-specific immune response rates. Using parameters estimates from the two animals in the transplant group with lower viral setpoints, the minimum f_p for viral control was 35% and 19% (Fig. 6E-F). In contrast, for the other two animals the minimum f_p for viral

control was 56% and 97% (**Fig. 6C-D**). These model projections suggest that a larger loss of immunologic control during TBI/HSPC transplant requires a higher fraction of CCR5 genedited cells to control viral rebound after ATI.

The model also predicts that for some values of f_p it is possible to have two viral set points: an initial high viral set point in the first weeks after ATI and then a delayed ART-free viral remission (e.g. when f_p =60% in **Fig. 6B** and between 60% and 70% in **Fig. 6C**). Therefore, in some cases the viral load set point during the initial weeks after ATI might not be a sufficient surrogate to predict viral control further in the future. However, we found that for the simulations predicting a delayed viral remission, the maximum decrease of CD4+CCR5+ T cells during the first 10 weeks after ATI has a linear relationship with the minimum initial fraction of protected cells required to obtain post-rebound control after 2 years (**Fig. 6G**). We repeated these projections by adding the estimated measurement error to the simulations and obtained similar results (**Fig. 6H**). Therefore, the maximum initial change in CD4+CCR5+ T cells 10 weeks after ATI might predict late viral control.

Discussion

Here we introduce a data-validated mathematical that to our knowledge is the first to simultaneously recapitulate SHIV viral loads, as well as CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cell count subsets. The model predicts that post-rebound viral control might be possible during autologous geneedited HSPC transplantation if therapy achieves (1) a sufficient fraction of gene-protected, autologous HSPCs, and (2) maintenance or enhancement of SHIV-specific immune responses following transplantation. Specifically, the model predicts that increasing amounts of conditioning regimen-dependent depletion of the SHIV-specific immune response leads to a higher threshold of CCR5-gene-edited cells in the transplanted HSPC product required to obtain

stable, ART-free viral control. These results are consistent with the cure achieved by the Berlin patient who received transplant with 100% HIV-resistant cells after intense conditioning^{4,5}. In the autologous setting where 100% CCR5 editing may not be feasible, adjunctive measures that augment virus-specific immunity, such as therapeutic vaccination, infusion of HIV-specific CAR T cells or use of neutralizing antibodies, may synergize with HSPC transplantation to achieve post-treatment control^{11,69}.

We systematically selected from a series of mathematical models to arrive at a set of equations that most parsimoniously explains the available data. We recapitulated (1) peripheral CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T-cell subset reconstitution dynamics following transplant, and (2) T-cell dynamics and SHIV viral rebound following ATI. Before ATI, all animals suppressed plasma viral load below the limit of detection, allowing analysis of T cell reconstitution dynamics independent of virus-mediated pressure. At each step, we applied model selection theory to select the simplest set of mechanisms capable of explaining the observed data⁵⁷.

The best model predicts that the lack of complete elimination of lymphocytes by TBI prevents CD4⁺CCR5⁻ cells from predominating post-transplant: the rapid expansion of CD4⁺CCR5⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells during the first few weeks after HSPC transplantation is most likely due to lymphopenia-induced proliferation of remaining cells after TBI via a thymus-independent pathway; the slower expansion of CD4⁺CCR5⁻ T cells is more likely due to thymic export of both transplanted and remaining cells. An important future research question will be to identify anatomic sites and mechanisms allowing activated CD4⁺CCR5⁺ to survive conditioning.

A challenge is that more intense conditioning may decrease remaining CD4⁺CCR5⁺ cells but will also lower SHIV specific immunity. We previously demonstrated the link between disruption of the immune response during transplant and increased magnitude of viral rebound

during treatment interruption^{14,51}. Here we predict that the magnitude of the SHIV-specific immune response is correlated not only with viral load set point, but also with the reduction of CD4⁺CCR5⁺ T cells after ATI. CD4⁺CCR5⁺ T cell depletion might be predictive of the loss of depletion of virus-specific immunity following conditioning.

A final important observation from the model is that viral control may be delayed beyond the first ten weeks after ATI, rather occurring after many months of treatment interruption. Thus, viral load levels during the initial weeks after ATI may not completely define success (stable ART-free remission), whereas CD4⁺CCR5⁺ T-cell nadir should more strongly correlate with the degree of depletion of virus-specific immunity. In this sense, minimal CD4⁺CCR5⁺ T-cell nadir may predict post-rebound viral control, if the starting fraction of protected cells is known.

Our results are limited by a small sample size of eight animals. For that reason, several model parameters were assumed to be the same among the population (i.e., without random effects). However, the number of observations for each animal was large enough to discriminate among different plausible model candidates. Therefore, we performed projections using only the individual estimated parameters. Reassuringly, our results align with prior mechanistic studies of cellular reconstitution after stem cell transplantation^{18,26,38,70,71}. Our analysis also suggests that the majority of reconstituting CD4⁺CCR5⁻ T cells do not proliferate and have a slow expansion that concurs with estimates of thymic export from previous studies^{26,70,71}.

While our work highlights the complexity of the interplay between reconstituting HIV susceptible CD4⁺ T cells, HIV-resistant CD4⁺ T cells, infected cells, virus-specific immune cells, and replicating virus following autologous, CCR5-edited HPSC transplantation, our results illustrate the capabilities of modeling to glean insight from such a complex system. A

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comprehensive understanding of these and similar systems will be required to optimize strategies for pre-clinical HIV cure studies, both in the macaque model, as well as in HIV⁺ individuals. Acknowledgements This study was supported by grants from the National Institutes of Health, National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases (UM1 AI126623). ERD is supported by the National Center for Advancing Translational Sciences of the National Institutes of Health under Award Number KL2 TR002317. DBR is supported by a Washington Research Foundation postdoctoral fellowship, and a CFAR NIA P30 AI027757. The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript. The content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent the official views of the National Institutes of Health or the Washington Research Foundation. **Disclosure of conflicts of interest** The authors declare no competing financial interests. Animal welfare. The data used in this work were collected in strict accordance with the recommendations in the Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals of the National Institutes of Health. The study protocol was approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committees (3235-03) of the Fred Hutchinson Cancer Research Center and the University of Washington.

Tables

Table 1. Parameters of the model. Values are from steady state equations, using population estimates from best model fits or assumed from the references as described. When assumed from steady state equations, population estimates were used. See **Supp. Materials** for more details.

Parameter	Units	Description	Value		Source
			Control	Transplant	Source
$T(t_0)$	cells	Number of cells in the transplant product.	0	4*10 ⁷	Fixed, assumed from reference ¹⁴ .
$P(t_0)$	cells	Number of cells in the BM/Thymus at the moment of transplant.	4*10 ⁸	0	Control: Computed from the median of steady state equations. Transplant: Fixed, assumed.
$N(t_0)$	cells/μL	Blood CD4 ⁺ CCR5 ⁻ T cell concentration at the moment of transplant.	1249	47	Control: Computed from the median of steady state equations. Transplant: Fitted.
$S(t_0)$	cells/μL	Blood CD4 ⁺ CCR5 ⁺ T cell	115	2	Control: Computed from

	concentration at the			the median of
	moment of			steady state
	transplant.			equations.
				Transplant: Fitted.
	Blood CD8 $^+$ T _N + T _{CM} cell			Control: Computed from the median of
cells/μL	concentration at the moment of transplant.	305	8	steady state equations.
	•			Transplant: Fitted.
cells/μL	Blood CD8 $^+$ T $_{\rm EM}$ cell concentration at the moment of transplant.	935	17	Control: Computed from the median of steady state equations. Transplant: Fitted.
cells/μL	Blood SHIV- specific CD8 ⁺ T effector cell concentration at the moment of transplant.	0	0	Control: Computed from steady state equations. Transplant: Assumed.
cells/μL	Productively infected blood CD4 ⁺ CCR5 ⁺ T cell concentration at the	2*10 ⁻⁶	2*10 ⁻⁶	Computed from steady state equations.
	cells/μL	$cells/\mu L \begin{tabular}{c}{cells/\mu L} & Blood CD8^+ T_N + \\ & T_{CM} cell \\ & concentration at the \\ & moment of \\ & transplant. \\ \end{tabular}$ $cells/\mu L \begin{tabular}{c}{cells/\mu L} & Blood CD8^+ T_{EM} \\ & cell concentration \\ & at the moment of \\ & transplant. \\ \end{tabular}$ $Blood SHIV- \\ & specific CD8^+ T \\ & effector cell \\ & concentration at the \\ & moment of \\ & transplant. \\ \end{tabular}$ $cells/\mu L \begin{tabular}{c}{cells/\mu L} & Productively \\ & infected blood \\ & CD4^+CCR5^+ T cell \\ \end{tabular}$	moment of transplant. Blood CD8 $^+$ T $_N$ + T _{CM} cell concentration at the moment of transplant. Blood CD8 $^+$ T _{EM} cell concentration at the moment of transplant. Blood CD8 $^+$ T _{EM} cell concentration at the moment of transplant. Blood SHIV-specific CD8 $^+$ T effector cell concentration at the moment of transplant. Productively infected blood CD4 $^+$ CCR5 $^+$ T cell $^+$ CD4 $^+$ CCR5 $^+$ T cell	moment of transplant. Blood CD8 $^+$ T _N + T _{CM} cell concentration at the moment of transplant. Blood CD8 $^+$ T _{EM} cell concentration at the moment of transplant. Blood CD8 $^+$ T _{EM} cell concentration at the moment of transplant. Blood SHIV-specific CD8 $^+$ T effector cell concentration at the moment of transplant. Productively infected blood CD4 $^+$ CCR5 $^+$ T cell $2*10^{-6}$ $2*10^{-6}$

		moment of			
		transplant.			
$I_u(t_0)$	cells/μL	Unproductively infected blood CD4 ⁺ CCR5 ⁺ T cell concentration at the moment of transplant.	0	0	Computed from steady state equations.
$V(t_0)$	RNA copies/mL	Plasma viral load at the moment of transplant.	0.5	0.5	Computed from steady state equations.
k _e	1/day	Homing rate of transplanted cells into the bone marrow.		1	Fixed, assumed from references
$\hat{r}_p = r_p - \lambda_p - d_p$	1/day	Renewal rate of stem and progenitor cells in the bone marrow/thymus.	().04	Fitted.
$\hat{r}_s = r_s - d_s$	1/day	Proliferation rate of blood CD4 ⁺ CCR5 ⁺ T cells.	().14	Fitted.
$\hat{r}_m = r_m - \lambda_m - d_m$	1/day	Proliferation rate of blood CD8 $^+$ T $_{\rm N}$ + T $_{\rm CM}$ cells.	0	.003	Fitted.

$\hat{r}_e = r_e - d_e$	1/day	Proliferation rate of	0.09	Fitted.
		CD8 ⁺ T _{EM} cells.	0.07	1 mou.
		Removal rate of		
$\widehat{d}_n = \lambda_n + d_n$	1/day	blood CD4 ⁺ CCR5 ⁻	0.01	Fitted.
		T cells.		
$\lambda_p = \lambda_e = \lambda_f$	1/day	Thymic output rate	0.01	Fitted.
70p 70e 70j		of T cells.		
		CCR5 upregulation		
λ_n	1/day	rate in CD4 ⁺ T	0.004	Fitted.
		cells.		
		Differentiation rate		
λ_m	1/day	of $CD8^+ T_N + T_{CM}$	0.09	Fitted.
25711		cells to CD8 ⁺ T _{EM}		
		cells.		
ŷ.		Effective carrying		
$K_p = K \frac{\hat{r}_p}{r_p}$	cells/μL	capacity of	1664	Fitted.
		progenitor cells.		
		Effective carrying		
$K_s = K \frac{\hat{r}_s}{r_s}$	cells/μL	capacity of	1328	Fitted.
		CD4 ⁺ CCR5 ⁺ T		
		cells.		
2		Effective carrying		
$K_m = K \frac{\hat{r}_m}{r_m}$	cells/μL	capacity of CD8 ⁺	49	Fitted.
		$T_{\rm N} + T_{\rm CM}$ cells.		

		Effective carrying		
$K_e = K \frac{\hat{r}_e}{r_e}$	cells/μL	capacity of CD8 ⁺	1257	Fitted.
· ·		T _{EM} cells.		
β	μL/	Infectivity rate.	0.0003	Fitted.
	copies/day			
Δ_t	days	Time to rebound	7.5	Fitted.
		after ATI.		
		Death rate of		Fixed, assumed
δ_I	1/day	infected	1	using estimates
	17day	CD4 ⁺ CCR5 ⁺ T	1	from references
		cells.		74,75
		Fraction of infected		Fixed, assumed
τ	-	cell that produce	0.05	from reference ⁵⁴ .
		infectious virus.		nom reference .
		Number of latent		Fixed, assumed to
$ar{\xi}ar{L}$	cells/μL/day	cells that activate	2*10 ⁻⁷	have a viral load
,		per day.		of ~0.5 copies/mL
		per aug.		during cART.
		Viral production		Fixed, assumed
π	1/day	rate.	5*10 ⁴	using estimates
				from reference ⁷⁶ .
		Virus clearance		Fixed, assumed
γ	1/day	rate.	23	using estimates
		Tuto.		from reference ⁷⁷ .
ω_4	μL/cells/day	SHIV-dependent	0.19	Fitted.
	με/cens/day	replenishment of	0.17	Tittou.
l	T.	I.		1

		CD4 ⁺ CCR5 ⁺ T		
		cells.		
		SHIV-dependent		
ω_8	μL/cells/day	proliferation rate of	0.002	Fitted.
		CD8 ⁺ T cells.		
		50% maximum		
		value of adaptive		
I ₅₀	cells/μL	infected cells,	0.20	Fitted.
		allows bounded		
		growth.		
		Fraction of SHIV-		
		CD8 ⁺ -responding		
f	-	cells that become	0.9	Fixed, assumed
		SHIV-specific		from reference ⁴⁶ .
		effectors.		
		Death rate of		
ı,	1/day	SHIV-specific	0.05	Fitted.
d_h		effector CD8 ⁺ T		
		cells.		
		50% maximum		
		value of SHIV-		
$\frac{1}{\theta}$	μL/cells	specific immune	1	Fixed.
		cells to block virus		
		production.		

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Figure Legends

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Figure 1. Study design and mathematical modeling. A. Four animals were infected with SHIV, suppressed with cART and underwent TBI/HSPC transplantation without editing of CCR5 (Transplant group). A control group of four animals did not receive TBI or HSPC transplantation. Both groups underwent ATI approximately one year after cART initiation. B. Mathematical model for T cell reconstitution. Each circle represents a cell compartment: T represents the HSPCs from the transplant; P, the progenitor cells in bone marrow (BM) and Thymus; S and N, CD4+CCR5+ and CD4+CCR5- T cells, respectively; M and E, the CD8+ T cells with naïve and central memory phenotypes, and effector memory phenotypes, respectively. N cells come from the thymus at a rate λ_f , grow with maximum rate r_n , upregulate CCR5 at rate λ_n , and are cleared at rate d_n . S cells grow with maximum division rate r_s , downregulate CCR5 at a rate λ_s , and are cleared at rate d_s . M cells have thymic input of λ_e , grow with maximum division rate r_m , differentiate to effector memory at rate λ_m , and are cleared at rate d_m . The E compartment grows with maximum division rate r_e and is cleared at rate d_e . All CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cell subsets compete to grow logistically with same carrying capacity K. C. Mathematical model for virus dynamics. We adapted the previous model by including the following assumptions. Susceptible cells, S, are infected by the virus, V, at rate β . A fraction τ of the infected cells produce virus, I_p , and the other fraction become unproductively infected, I_u . All infected cells die at rate δ_I . I_P cells arise from activation of latently infected cells at rate ξL , produce virus at a rate π , that is cleared at rate γ . CD8⁺ M cells proliferate in the presence of infection with rate ω_{δ} from which a fraction f become SHIV-specific CD8⁺ effector T cells, E_h , that are removed at a rate d_h . These effector cells reduce virus production or infectivity by $1/(1+\theta E_h)$, or $1/(1+\varphi E_h)$, respectively. Non-

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susceptible CD4⁺ T cells upregulate CCR5 in the presence of infection and replenish the susceptible pool with rate ω_4 . Figure 2. CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cell dynamics post-transplantation, pre-ATI. A. CD4⁺CCR5⁺, **B.** CD4⁺CCR5⁻, and **C.** total CD8⁺ T cells from animals in the control (blue) and transplant groups (red). **D.** Range of blood CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cell counts using all data points for the period before ATI in control animals (p-value calculated with a paired t-test for averaged measurements post-transplant). E. Distribution of the growth rate estimates of CD4⁺CCR5⁺, CD4⁺CCR5⁻, and CD8⁺ T cells using all data points from time of transplant until their levels reached set point in transplanted animals (p-value calculated using a paired t-test). We assumed set point as the data point after which the sum of consecutive changes from the moment of transplant in T cell counts was smaller or equal to zero. F. Correlation between total CD8⁺ T cell and CD8⁺ T_{EM} cell counts for all data points post-transplant in transplanted animals (p-value computed using repeated measures correlation test). Figure 3. Mathematical modeling of T cell reconstitution dynamics. A. Mathematical model that most parsimoniously explains the T cell reconstitution data. Each circle represents a cell compartment: T represents the HSPCs from the transplant; P, the progenitor cells in bone marrow (BM) and Thymus; S and N, CD4⁺CCR5⁺ and CD4⁺CCR5⁻ T cells, respectively; M and E, the CD8⁺ T cells with naïve and central memory phenotypes, and effector memory phenotypes, respectively. **B-E:** Model predictions (black solid lines) vs. empirical data (red diamonds) for peripheral subset counts from animal A11200 in the transplant group. B. CD4⁺CCR5⁺, C. CD4⁺CCR5⁻, **D.** CD8⁺ Total, **E.** CD8⁺ T_{EM} and T_{naive}+T_{CM}. F. Model prediction

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of the proliferation of CD4⁺CCR5⁺ T cells (solid line) and upregulation of CCR5 (dashed line) over time for animal A11200. Figure 4. Plasma viral load and CD4⁺ T cell kinetics after ATI. A. Plasma viral loads, B. peripheral blood CD4⁺CCR5⁺ T-cell counts, and C. CD4⁺CCR5⁻ T-cell counts from animals in the control (blue) and transplant (red) groups, respectively. **D-G**: Distributions of **D.** peak viral load post-ATI, E. viral load at endpoint necropsy, F. CD4⁺CCR5⁺ T-cell nadir post-ATI, G. CD4⁺CCR5⁻ T-cell nadir post-ATI. P-values were calculated using Mann-Whitney test. H. Correlations between plasma viral load and peripheral blood CD4⁺CCR5⁺ T-cells in each animal post-ATI. Each panel shows the timepoints post-ATI for each animal. P-values in each panel were calculated using Spearman's rank test for all time points post-ATI for the corresponding animal. Figure 5. Mathematical modeling of virus and T cell kinetics during HSPC transplantation. A. Mathematical model that most parsimoniously describes the relationship between plasma viral load and peripheral T-cell counts. CD4⁺CCR5⁺ T cells, S, are susceptible to the virus, V. Infected cells are divided into those that are able to produce virus, I_p , or not, I_u . Precursor CD8⁺ cells, M, divide and differentiate in the presence of infected cells becoming SHIV-specific effector cells, E_h . E_h cells reduce virus production by a factor of $1/(1+\theta E_h)$. The model assumes a constant activation of latent cells, \bar{L} . B. Best fits of the model (black lines) to SHIV RNA, and blood CD4⁺CCR5⁺ and CD4⁺CCR5⁻ T cell counts. Scatterplots of the SHIV-dependent CD8 proliferation rate (ω_8) vs. C. CD4+CCR5+ nadir, and D. final observed viral load from all animals; (p-values calculated using Spearman's rank test). E-F: Individual parameter estimates

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of E. the SHIV-dependent CD8 proliferation rate (ω_8) and F. the time of rebound after ATI (see text). Blue: control, and red: transplant groups (p-values calculated by Mann-Whitney test). Figure 6. Model predictions for post-rebound viral control after CCR5 gene-edited HSPC transplant. A. Schematic of the extended mathematical model that now includes CCR5-edited, protected cells. Now, protected cells from transplant: T_p , protected progenitor cells in bone marrow/thymus: P_p , and protected CD4⁺CCR5⁻ T cells: N_p are included. The initial fraction of protected cells is represented by the parameter f_p . **B.** Predictions for plasma viral load up to one year post-ATI using the adapted model for varying values of f_p (using parameter estimates from animal Z09144). C-F. Predictions for plasma viral load (heat-map color) for each animal at a given time post-ATI (x-axis) and a given f_p (y-axis). G-H. Predicted maximum decrease of CD4⁺CCR5⁺ T cells during the first 10 weeks after ATI for the minimum fraction of protected cells required to obtain post-rebound control after 2 years using parameter estimates for each animal with (G.) and without (H.) measurement error.

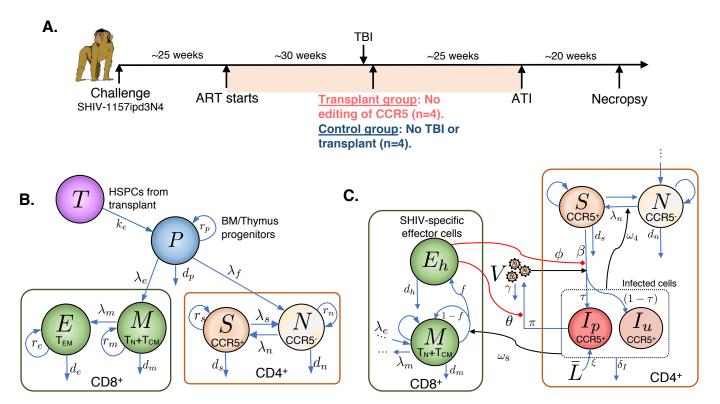


Figure 1. Study design and mathematical modeling. A. Four animals were infected with SHIV, suppressed with cART and underwent TBI/HSPC transplantation without editing of CCR5 (Transplant group). A control group of four animals did not receive TBI or HSPC transplantation. Both groups underwent ATI approximately one year after cART initiation. B. Mathematical model for T cell reconstitution. Each circle represents a cell compartment: T represents the HSPCs from the transplant; P, the progenitor cells in bone marrow (BM) and Thymus; S and N, CD4+CCR5+ and CD4+CCR5- T cells, respectively; M and E, the CD8+ T cells with naïve and central memory phenotypes, and effector memory phenotypes, respectively. N cells come from the thymus at a rate λ_{f} , grow with maximum rate r_{f} , upregulate CCR5 at rate λ_0 , and are cleared at rate d_0 . S cells grow with maximum division rate r_s , downregulate CCR5 at a rate λ_s , and are cleared at rate d_s . M cells have thymic input of λ_e , grow with maximum division rate r_m , differentiate to effector memory at rate λ_m , and are cleared at rate d_m . The E compartment grows with maximum division rate r_e and is cleared at rate d_e . All CD4+ and CD8+ T cell subsets compete to grow logistically with same carrying capacity K. C. Mathematical model for virus dynamics. We adapted the previous model by including the following assumptions. Susceptible cells, S, are infected by the virus, V, at rate β . A fraction τ of the infected cells produce virus, I_p , and the other fraction become unproductively infected, I_{IP} . All infected cells die at rate δ_{IP} cells arise from activation of latently infected cells at rate ξL , produce virus at a rate π , that is cleared at rate γ . CD8+ M cells proliferate in the presence of infection with rate ω_8 from which a fraction f become SHIV-specific CD8+ effector T cells, E_h , that are removed at a rate d_h . These effector cells reduce virus production or infectivity by $1/(1+\theta E_h)$, or $1/(1+\phi E_h)$, respectively. Nonsusceptible CD4+ T cells upregulate CCR5 in the presence of infection and replenish the susceptible pool with rate ω_{4} .

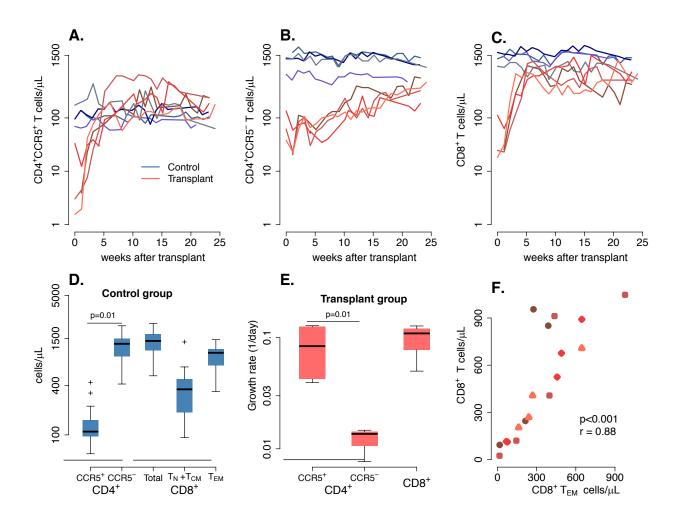


Figure 2. CD4+ and **CD8+ T cell dynamics post-transplantation, pre-ATI. A.** CD4+CCR5+, **B.** CD4+CCR5-, and **C.** total CD8+ T cells from animals in the control (blue) and transplant groups (red). **D.** Range of blood CD4+ and CD8+ T cell counts using all data points for the period before ATI in control animals (p-value calculated with a paired t-test for averaged measurements post-transplant). **E.** Distribution of the growth rate estimates of CD4+CCR5+, CD4+CCR5-, and CD8+ T cells using all data points from time of transplant until their levels reached set point in transplanted animals (p-value calculated using a paired t-test). We assumed set point as the data point after which the sum of consecutive changes from the moment of transplant in T cell counts was smaller or equal to zero. **F.** Correlation between total CD8+ T cell and CD8+ T_{EM} cell counts for all data points post-transplant in transplanted animals (p-value computed using repeated measures correlation test).

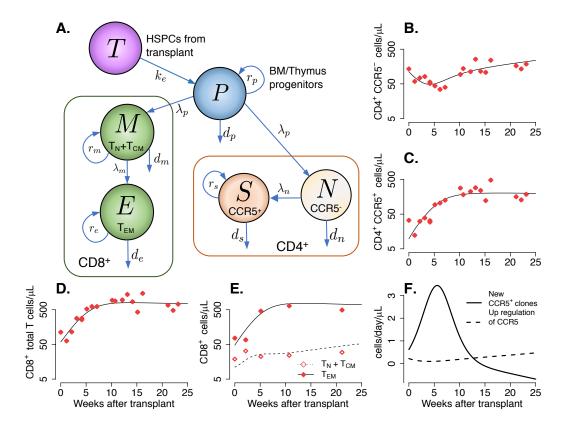


Figure 3. Mathematical modeling of T cell reconstitution dynamics. A. Mathematical model that most parsimoniously explains the T cell reconstitution data. Each circle represents a cell compartment: T represents the HSPCs from the transplant; P, the progenitor cells in bone marrow (BM) and Thymus; S and N, CD4+CCR5+ and CD4+CCR5- T cells, respectively; M and E, the CD8+ T cells with naïve and central memory phenotypes, and effector memory phenotypes, respectively. **B-E**: Model predictions (black solid lines) vs. empirical data (red diamonds) for peripheral subset counts from animal A11200 in the transplant group. **B.** CD4+CCR5+, **C.** CD4+CCR5-, **D.** CD8+ Total, **E.** CD8+ T_{EM} and $T_{naive}+T_{CM}$. **F.** Model prediction of the proliferation of CD4+CCR5+ T cells (solid line) and upregulation of CCR5 (dashed line) over time for animal A11200.

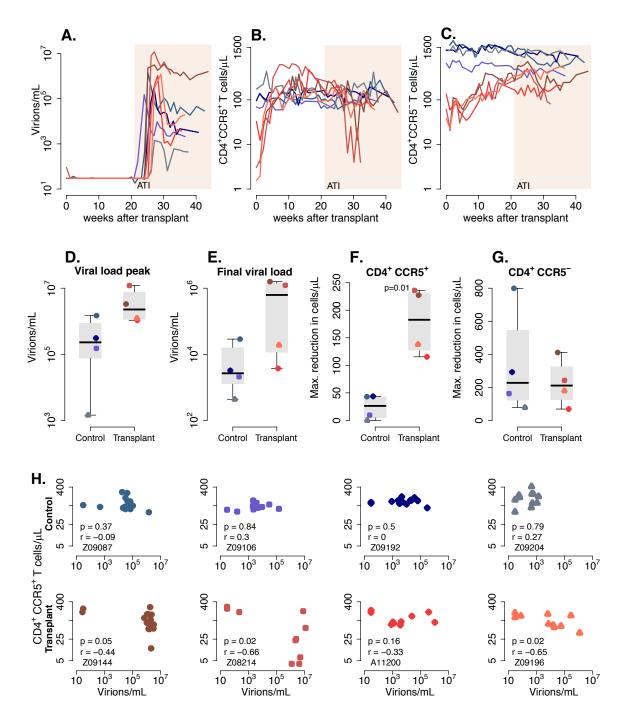


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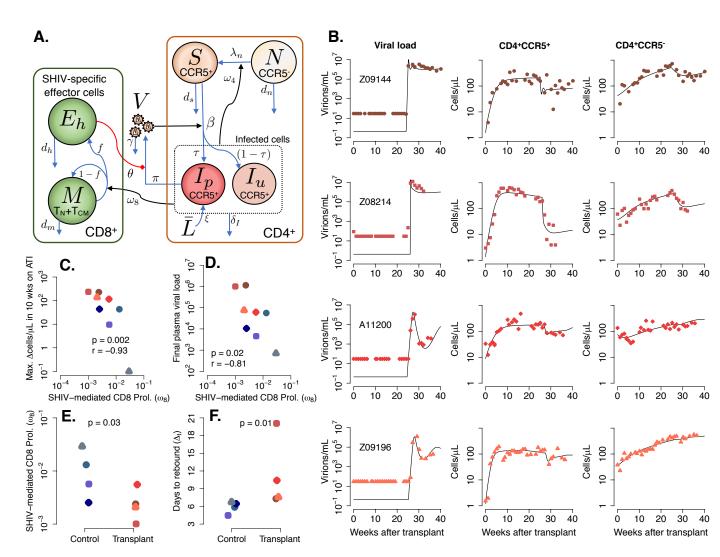


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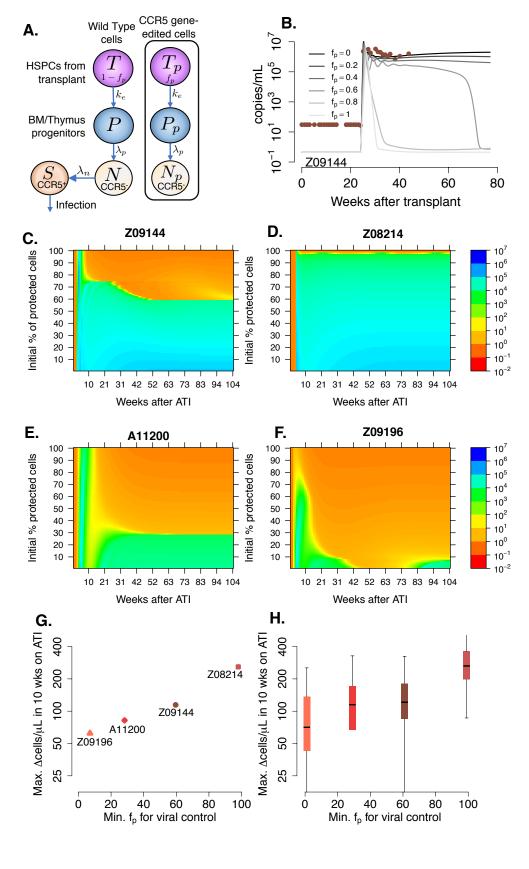


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