Kinetics of HTLV-1 reactivation from latency quantified by single-molecule RNA FISH and stochastic modelling

Short title: Single-cell quantification of HTLV-1 reactivation kinetics

Michi Miura[1#], Supravat Dey[2], Saumya Ramanayake[1], Abhyudai Singh[2], David Rueda[3,4] and Charles R. M. Bangham[1]*

[1] Department of Infectious Diseases, Faculty of Medicine, Imperial College London, Norfolk Place, London W2 1PG, UK

[2] Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering, University of Delaware, Newark DE 19716, USA

[3] Section of Virology, Division of Infectious Diseases, Department of Medicine, Imperial College London

[4] Single Molecule Imaging Group, MRC London Institute of Medical Sciences, Hammersmith Hospital, Du Cane Road, London W12 0NN, UK

[#] Current Address: Department of Microbiology, The University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong

*Corresponding author

c.bangham@imperial.ac.uk (CRMB)

Abstract

The human T cell leukemia virus HTLV-1 establishes a persistent infection *in vivo* in which the viral sense-strand transcription is usually silent at a given time in each cell. However, cellular stress responses trigger the reactivation of HTLV-1, enabling the virus to transmit to a new host cell. Using single-molecule RNA FISH, we measured the kinetics of the HTLV-1 transcriptional reactivation in peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) isolated from HTLV-1$^+$ individuals. The abundance of the HTLV-1 sense and antisense transcripts was quantified hourly during incubation of the HTLV-1-infected PBMCs *ex vivo*. We found that, in each cell, the sense-strand transcription occurs in two distinct phases: the initial low-rate transcription is followed by a phase of rapid transcription. The onset of transcription peaked between 1 and 3 hours after the start of *in vitro* incubation. The variance in the transcription intensity was similar in polyclonal HTLV-1$^+$ PBMCs (with tens of thousands of distinct provirus insertion sites), and in samples with a single dominant HTLV-1$^+$ clone. A stochastic simulation model was developed to estimate the parameters of HTLV-1 proviral transcription kinetics. In PBMCs from a leukemic subject with one dominant T-cell clone, the model indicated that the average duration of HTLV-1 sense-strand activation by Tax (i.e. the rapid transcription) was less than one hour. HTLV-1 antisense transcription was stable during reactivation of the sense-strand. The antisense transcript *HBZ* was produced at an average rate of ~0.1 molecules per hour per HTLV-1$^+$ cell; however, between 20% and 70% of HTLV-1-infected cells were *HBZ*-negative at a given time, the percentage depending on the individual subject. HTLV-1-infected cells are exposed to a range of stresses when they are drawn from the host, which initiate the viral reactivation. We conclude that whereas antisense-strand transcription is stable throughout the stress response, the HTLV-1 sense-strand reactivation is highly heterogeneous and occurs in short, self-terminating bursts.

Author summary

Human retroviruses such as HIV-1 and HTLV-1 (human T cell leukemia virus) can establish a latent infection in the host cell. However, these viruses need to be able to produce viral genome to propagate in a new host. HTLV-1-infected cells are transmitted through breastfeeding, blood transfusion and sexual contact, and HTLV-1 restores transcription once the infected cells are drawn from infected individuals. We measured the kinetics of the HTLV-1 transcriptional reactivation in blood cells isolated from HTLV-1^{+} individuals by single-molecule RNA FISH. Viral transcripts were visualised as diffraction-limited spots and their abundance was quantified at one-hour intervals. The onset of the virus transcription peaked after one to three hours of incubation. In each cell, a short period of slow HTLV-1 transcription was followed by a phase of rapid transcription. Computer simulation, based on experimental data on PBMCs from a leukemic patient with a single dominant HTLV-1-infected T cell clone, indicated that this rapid transcription from the HTLV-1 sense-strand promoter activated by Tax was terminated in less than an hour. The HTLV-1 antisense transcript *HBZ* was constantly produced at a low level, and 50% ± 20% of HTLV-1^{+} cells were negative for *HBZ* at a given time. These results demonstrate how rapidly HTLV-1 is reactivated and potentially becomes infectious, once HTLV-1^{+} cells are transmitted into a new host.

Introduction

Retroviral latency constitutes the main barrier to eradicating the infection from the host. The provirus is not completely silent, but is intermittently transcribed to produce viral particles that infect new clones of cells [1]. This intermittent transcription is partly due to the apparently stochastic nature of gene regulation [2]. However, it is poorly understood what regulates the balance between retroviral latency and transcription. Attempts to reactivate HIV-1 to expose it to drug therapy and the immune response - the shock-and-kill strategy [3] - have not been successful so far because it has not been possible to reactivate all the HIV-1 provirus in the reservoir [4]. Therefore, it is essential to understand the mechanisms and the extent of heterogeneity in the viral reactivation. Human T cell leukemia virus type 1 (HTLV-1) is a pathogenic retrovirus, which causes fatal and disabling diseases [1]. HTLV-1 remains largely latent *in vivo*, but undergoes transcriptional reactivation once the HTLV-1-infected lymphocytes are drawn from the circulation [5]. Here, we exploit this pattern of predominant HTLV-1 latency *in vivo* and spontaneous transcriptional reactivation *ex vivo* to study the kinetics of retroviral reactivation.

It is estimated that 10 million people across the globe are living with HTLV-1 [6]. HTLV-1 resides mainly in CD4$^+$ T lymphocytes, and causes adult T cell leukemia/lymphoma (ATL), a CD4$^+$ T cell malignancy, in some 5% of HTLV-1-infected individuals. HTLV-1 also causes, in up to another 5%, HTLV-1-associated myelopathy/tropical spastic paraparesis (HAM/TSP; hereafter abbreviated to HAM) and other inflammatory disorders [1]. ATL typically presents as a monoclonal expansion of HTLV-1-infected T lymphocytes that is characterized by a unique integration site of the HTLV-1 provirus in the host genome [7], with an underlying polyclonal population of lower abundance. By contrast, patients with HAM and asymptomatic HTLV-1 carriers have a highly polyclonal population of ~10^4 HTLV-1$^+$ T cell clones [7, 8].

HTLV-1 transcribes both the sense and antisense strand of its 9 kb provirus. The long terminal repeats

(LTRs) located at the ends of the provirus serve as the promoters for sense and antisense transcription

respectively. HTLV-1 Tax, produced from the sense strand, is a transcriptional transactivator protein that

triggers NF-κB activation and other transcriptional cascades as well as its own promoter at the LTR

(reviewed in ref [9]), exerting a strong positive feedback on the sense-strand transcription of the

provirus. The HTLV-1 transcript *tax* is undetectable *in vitro* in freshly isolated cells from most HTLV-1-

infected individuals [10]. However, the presence of chronically activated cytotoxic T lymphocytes (CTLs)

that recognize sense-strand-encoded products, particularly the highly immunodominant Tax protein

[11], indicates that the sense strand is intermittently expressed *in vivo*. By contrast, transcripts of the

HTLV-1 bZIP factor (*HBZ*) from the antisense strand are usually detectable *in vitro* at the cell population

level in peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) obtained from HTLV-1-infected individuals [10].

In a previous study, we applied single-molecule RNA FISH (smFISH) [12, 13] to quantify HTLV-1 sense and

antisense transcription in HTLV-1+ T cell clones isolated from HTLV-1-infected individuals by limiting

dilution and maintained *in vitro* [14]. We observed that the HTLV-1 sense strand is transcribed in an

occasional yet intense transcriptional burst. The antisense transcript *HBZ*, however, was much more

constantly expressed, albeit at a low level.

To propagate between cells and between individuals, HTLV-1 must restore the sense-strand

transcription from latency and produce viral components to form a virological synapse at the site of cell-

to-cell contact [15]. The infection spreads to a new host when HTLV-1-infected T lymphocytes are

transmitted by breastfeeding, sexual contact and blood transfusion. HTLV-1 sense transcripts rapidly

become detectable when the HTLV-1-infected T lymphocytes are drawn from the circulation: the

transcriptional reactivation is mediated by p38 MAP kinase activation [5] in response to diverse forms of

cell stress. In the present study, we quantified this transient HTLV-1 transcriptional reactivation using

smFISH [14] and used stochastic simulation to derive numerical estimates of the parameters of HTLV-1

reactivation from latency.

Results

HTLV-1 sense-strand shows two distinct phases of transcription in *ex vivo* culture

HTLV-1-infected PBMCs carry a single copy of the provirus in the genome. HTLV-1 rapidly initiates

transcriptional reactivation of the sense strand once the PBMCs are introduced into culture. We used

smFISH to quantify the frequency and intensity of HTLV-1 reactivation at the single-cell level (Fig 1A).

We removed CD8^{+} cells to avoid CTL-mediated killing of HTLV-1-infected PBMCs that express sense-

strand antigens (particularly Tax) during culture [16]. The PBMCs were sampled every hour and

subjected to smFISH.

The sequence of representative images of cells (from a patient with HAM, coded TDZ) in Fig 1B shows

the increase in the abundance of HTLV-1 sense transcripts over time. Sense-strand transcripts were

virtually absent at 0 h (i.e. without incubation), and became detectable in a fraction of cells after 2 h of

incubation. Subsequently, a bright spot appeared in the nucleus in those cells in which the sense-strand

transcripts were present. The bright spot is an indication of rapid transcription [17], where the

transcripts are produced faster than they diffuse away from the site of transcription, resulting in the

accumulation of mRNAs at the position of the HTLV-1 provirus in the nucleus. This site contains nascent,

unspliced transcripts, as revealed by an additional set of probes that targets *gag* (Fig 1C) which is

otherwise spliced out of the sense transcripts (Fig 1A), indicating that the rate of transcription is even

faster than that of the splicing reaction [12]. In this paper, we define a transcriptional burst in a single

cell as the presence of viral transcripts in the nucleus [18, 19], as opposed to the rapid increase in the

abundance of HTLV-1 transcripts over time at the population level. The occurrence of the intense spot in

the nucleus was typically associated with the presence of ~10 to 20 sense transcripts in the nucleus. This

observation is consistent with the idea that the positive feedback exerted by Tax protein on the sense-

strand promoter occurs after a short interval following the first appearance of sense-strand transcripts,

during which *tax* mRNA enters the cytoplasm, is translated, and Tax protein re-enters the nucleus.

Thereafter, we observed cells carrying a large number of sense-strand transcripts - up to 300 molecules

(Fig 1B).

Cell-to-cell variation in the intensity of HTLV-1 sense-strand reactivation in HTLV-1^{+} PBMCs

The population of PBMCs imaged by smFISH contained both HTLV-1-infected and uninfected cells. We

wished to analyse the distribution of the HTLV-1 mRNA count within the HTLV-1-infected population.

We used the proviral load to calculate the number of HTLV-1-infected cells in the total population (Fig

2A).

The distribution of the number of sense-strand transcripts per HTLV-1^{+} cell over time is shown in Fig 2B.

In each HTLV-1^{+} subject examined (TBC, TDZ, LGZ and LGB), the total number of transcripts increased

continuously during the 8 hours of incubation. The distribution in the sample from one patient with

HAM (TBC) presented a long tail of cells that carried a larger number of sense transcripts (up to 250

molecules), with a continuous distribution of cells that carried fewer than 50 transcripts. By contrast, a

single mode was identified at around 100 molecules in an ATL patient (LGZ) carrying a single dominant

clone.

The average count of the HTLV-1 sense-strand transcripts in the top 25% of all the infected cells was 100

to 300 molecules (S1 Fig). A steeper increase in the count was observed between 1 and 2 hours than in

the first hour, which accords with the notion that the HTLV-1 sense-strand expression is biphasic.

We postulated that the polyclonal structure of HTLV-1-infected T cell clones in subjects with non-

malignant HTLV-1 infection [7] explains the observed diversity in the distribution of the number of

sense-strand transcripts per cell, whereas ATL patients with a monoclonal expansion of an HTLV-1$^+$ T cell

clone would show more uniform distribution of the number of sense transcripts. We plotted the

variance vs. the mean of the observed transcript count in the four HTLV-1$^+$ subjects with observations at

nine time points (Fig 2C). The mean and variance from all the four samples showed a uniform power-law

relationship with the exponent 1.7, suggesting that there is no fundamental qualitative difference in the

kinetics of transcription between the samples examined.

HTLV-1 reactivation peaks after a few hours of *ex vivo* culture

To further characterize the transcriptional reactivation of the HTLV-1 sense strand, we quantified the

fraction of cells that had become positive for sense transcripts at a given time during short-term culture

of PBMCs (Fig 3A). Cells were defined as positive for sense transcripts when they carried 3 or more

spots, to discount spurious spots due to noise (S2 Fig; see Materials and Methods). At 0 h, none of the

HTLV-1$^+$ cells from each of the four HTLV-1$^+$ subjects examined (TBC, TDZ, LGZ and LGB) were positive for

sense-strand transcripts. After 8 h of incubation, the fraction of positive cells rose to between 0.2 and

0.8, depending on the HTLV-1$^+$ subject examined. We assumed that the waiting time until we observed 3

or more molecules in a cell is an accumulation of single stochastic processes, and therefore fitted the

plots presented in Fig 3A with a cumulative gamma distribution [20]. The probability distribution

function derived from the fitted curve (Fig 3B) shows that the onset of sense-strand transcriptional

reactivation peaked within 1 to 3 hours after the start of *ex vivo* culture. The timing of onset was more

broadly distributed in samples from patients with HAM (TBC and TDZ) than from those with ATL (LGZ

and LGB): the 75% quantiles of the probability distribution were 3.9 h and 4.9 h for TBC and TDZ

respectively, whereas those for LGZ and LGB were less than 3 h. However, in each case the onset of the

transcriptional reactivation was completed by 8 h *ex vivo* incubation in those cells that expressed

detectable HTLV-1 mRNAs (20% to 80% of the total population, again depending on the HTLV-1^{+} subject

examined); the remaining cells showed no sign of proviral transcription during the period of

observation.

Stochastic simulation predicts a burst termination following the promoter activation

From the results presented above, we established the following characteristics of the transient and

heterogeneous HTLV-1 transcription in *ex vivo* PBMCs during the short-term culture. (1) The timing of

the onset of transcriptional reactivation peaks in the first few hours of *ex vivo* incubation. (2) The sense-

strand transcription is restored with an initially low transcription rate. (3) Subsequently the rate of

transcription of the sense strand increases rapidly: we postulate that this rapid sense-strand

transcription is triggered by the strong positive feedback loop exerted by Tax protein. (4) Only a subset

of HTLV-1^{+} PBMCs (20% to 80%, depending on the subject) restore the sense transcription.

We wished to identify the smallest number of parameters needed to explain the observed kinetics of

proviral transcription. We applied a three-state promoter model [21] with some modifications (Fig 4A):

the model allows the HTLV-1 sense promoter to transit from the "Off" to "On" state, and further

progress to the "On-Tax" state by binding Tax protein; transcription occurs at the On state and the On-

Tax state, with distinct transcription rates k_5 and k_6, respectively ($k_5 < k_6$). We used the smFISH data from

the ATL patient LGZ for the parameter optimisation, because the single dominant clone of HTLV-1^{+}

PBMCs in this leukemic subject requires only a single kinetic parameter for each reaction rate in the

model, as opposed to a polyclonal population in which each clone would require a unique reaction rate

to be assigned. The simulations of this three-state model are shown in Fig 4B. The three-state model

failed to capture the observed distribution of the transcript count in LGZ (Fig 4B, upper panel): it led to

an overestimation of the number of sense-strand transcripts at the later time points. Therefore we

assumed an additional reaction path in the three-state model (Fig 4B, lower panel), which allows the

promoter to transit directly from the On-Tax state to the Off state with the parameter k_{10}. This model

fitted the smFISH data well (Fig 4B, lower panel; see also S1 Text) and accurately interpolated missing

data (S3 Fig); the resulting parameter estimates (posterior distributions) are presented in Fig 4C. The

parameter k_{10}, which is a strong determinant of the duration of the sense-strand transcription,

converged within the range of 1 to 3 (h^{-1}) (Fig 4C and S4 Fig), indicating that the HTLV-1 sense-strand

promoter terminates the Tax-activated rapid transcription in less than an hour (mean duration ~ $1/k_{10}$)

in this putatively malignant clone. The duration of the rapid transcription phase was measured in each

cell in the simulation by recording the interval between the initiation of the On-Tax promoter state and

the direct transition from the On-Tax to the Off state (Fig 4D). These results indicate that the HTLV-1

sense-strand transcription is rapidly terminated.

Between 20% and 70% of HTLV-1-infected PBMCs are *HBZ*-negative at a given time

Lastly, we investigated the expression of the HTLV-1 antisense transcript *HBZ*. PBMCs isolated from one

asymptomatic HTLV-1^{+} carrier (HBL), three patients with HAM (TBC, TDK and TDZ) and four with ATL

(LGZ, LFV, LFK and LGB) were examined by smFISH (Fig 5A). The distribution of the *HBZ* mRNA count per

HTLV-1[+] PBMCs (without incubation) is shown in Fig 5B; the mean (<m>) is indicated in the inset. These

results lead to two conclusions. First, the number of *HBZ* mRNA transcripts carried per cell was very low:

frequently only one or two molecules of *HBZ* mRNA were present per cell; and unexpectedly 20% to 70%

of HTLV-1^{+} PBMCs in the subjects (except LFK) were negative for *HBZ* at a given time. In the subject LFK,

almost all the HTLV-1^{+} PBMCs were negative for *HBZ* (also see S2 Fig). Second, the distribution of the

number of *HBZ* molecules conformed to the Poisson distribution of the parameter <m>, the observed

mean mRNA count (Fig 5B, black lines; the p-value of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test is indicated in the

inset). This observation indicates that the *HBZ* transcripts are produced and degraded at a constant

average rate (Fig 5C). Our previous study showed that the half-life of *HBZ* mRNA is 4.4 h [14], from which

we estimate the degradation rate δ to be ln2 / 4.4 = 0.1575 h^{-1}. Since the mean number of *HBZ* mRNA

molecules carried per cell <m> ranged from 0.380 to 1.31 (Fig 5B, except LFK), we estimate that the

mean production rate of *HBZ* mRNA (k = <m>·δ) falls within the range 0.0599 to 0.206 h^{-1} (Fig 5C).

Discussion

It is assumed that the HTLV-1 sense strand is expressed *in vivo* [1], because a strong, chronically

activated CTL response against Tax and other sense-strand-encoded proteins is readily detectable in

PBMCs from HTLV-1^{+} subjects *ex vivo* [11]. However, in the present study HTLV-1 sense-strand

transcripts were rarely detected in fresh PBMCs without incubation, using the sensitive and specific

method of smFISH, in any of the HTLV-1^{+} subjects examined (Figs 1B and 2B). The results show that

HTLV-1 sense-strand transcription is rare in the circulation. We postulate that HTLV-1 expresses the

sense strand in different anatomical compartments of the body other than the blood, such as bone

marrow and lymphatic organs. This notion is supported by the observation that *tax* is highly expressed in

bone marrow in Japanese macaques infected with simian leukemia virus STLV-1, the simian counterpart

of HTLV-1 [22]. The smFISH technique could be applied to analyse specimens from those organs, to

identify and localize the subset of cells that express *tax*, and to reveal the structural and spatial

distribution of HTLV-1 expression *in situ*.

Whereas the sense-strand transcript *tax* is usually undetectable by reverse-transcription-PCR in PBMCs

isolated from HTLV-1^{+} subjects, the HTLV-1 antisense transcript *HBZ* is invariably detected in the same

subjects [10] at the cell population level. This observation raised the hypothesis that HBZ protein and

HBZ mRNA play an essential part in HTLV-1 persistence (reviewed in ref [23]).

In our previous study, we examined *HBZ* expression by smFISH in five HTLV-1-infected T cell clones

isolated by limiting dilution from HTLV-1^{+} patients and maintained *in vitro* [14]. While the distribution of

the *HBZ* mRNA count in three of the clones showed a small but significant departure from the

expectation derived from the Poisson distribution, the other two clones conformed to the Poisson

distribution (S5 Fig). The slight deviation from the Poisson distribution observed in certain clones may

result from a small burst of *HBZ* transcription [14] (S2 Text). The average *HBZ* mRNA count per cell in

those five clones was in a small range (1.67 to 2.92), suggesting that the *HBZ* production rate varies little

with the genomic insertion site of the HTLV-1 provirus.

In PBMCs circulating in HTLV-1-infected individuals, we assume that the great majority of HTLV-1^{+} clones

are capable of expressing *HBZ*, because its sequence is highly conserved and because *HBZ* appears to be

necessary for the persistence of HTLV-1^{+} T lymphocytes *in vivo* [23]. In the *ex vivo* PBMCs, we did not

observe strong transcriptional bursts of the antisense strand. The distribution of the *HBZ* count in the

patients with ATL conformed well with the Poisson expectation (Fig 5B), except in the sample from the

patient coded LGB. This leukemic patient was anomalous in that only 20% of the total population

expressed the proviral sense strand, even though a single dominant clone was present in the peripheral

blood. The malignant clone present in another ATL patient (LFK), which essentially expressed no *HBZ*,

had presumably acquired mutations that allowed the cells to proliferate independently of the HTLV-1

provirus. The *HBZ* count in the patients with HAM, with a polyclonal HTLV-1^{+} T cell population, also

conformed to the Poisson distribution. We conclude that *HBZ* is produced constantly in each infected

cell, at ~0.1 molecules per hour on average; due to the low average rate of transcription, around half of

all HTLV-1-infected cells are *HBZ*-negative at any one time.

It has been reported that *HBZ* mRNA promotes cell proliferation *in vitro* [10, 24]. If this observation

holds true in naturally-infected cells, with the low abundance of *HBZ* mRNA molecules observed in this

study, it becomes increasingly important to understand how *HBZ* mRNA exerts such functions.

The HBZ protein level is also of great interest because the CD8^{+} T cell response against HBZ is a

significant determinant of the HTLV-1 proviral load [25], the main correlate of the risk of HAM and ATL

[1]. A previous study from others estimated, by western blotting, that the abundance of endogenous

HBZ protein is 17 molecules per cell in an ATL case [26]. In addition to the abundance of *HBZ* mRNA

quantified in the present study, measuring the half-life of HBZ protein will permit the estimation of the

variance in HBZ protein expression as well as the rate of HBZ translation.

During the *ex vivo* incubation, the distribution of *HBZ* mRNA molecules per cell was stable compared to

the changes in the sense-strand expression (S6 Fig) in three of the four subjects examined (TBC, TDZ and

LGB). This observation indicates that the antisense strand is not reactivated in concert with the sense

strand. In the fourth subject examined (LGZ), the abundance of *HBZ* mRNA in the population decayed

over time (S6 Fig, LGZ). Since the majority of HTLV-1^{+} cells in LGZ (80%) restored the sense-strand

transcription, it is possible that transcriptional interference - by the collision of two converging

polymerase complexes - diminished the antisense transcription in this subject. However, in each of the

remaining three subjects studied, there was no correlation between the sense-strand transcription and

HBZ transcription. These results suggest that transcriptional interference between the sense- and

antisense-strands does not play an important part in regulating HTLV-1 proviral transcription in most

infected T cell clones.

By applying smFISH to the transient HTLV-1 transcriptional reactivation of the sense strand, we found

that reactivation was highly heterogeneous in *ex vivo* PBMCs, as shown by three observations. First, only

a subset of the HTLV-1^{+} PBMCs reactivated proviral transcription; second, the time of onset of

transcription varied between cells; and third, the intensity of reactivation (i.e. the number of transcripts

produced in a given period of time) varied widely in the population. Our results indicate two distinct

phases of sense-strand transcription: the initial low-rate transcription produces ~10 to 20 mRNA

molecules; thereafter a phase of rapid transcription occurs, probably attributable to the positive

feedback exerted by the viral transactivator protein Tax. Transcriptional heterogeneity is likely to arise

from the difference between clones in the HTLV-1 proviral integration site in the host genome.

However, even in the ATL subjects examined in this study (LGZ and LGB), who carried one dominant

clone in which (by definition) each cell shares the same integration site, a significant variance between

cells in reactivation intensity was observed, which was equivalent to that of HTLV-1^{+} patients with

polyclonal insertions (Fig 2C). Such heterogeneity in transcription is often ascribed to the stochasticity

that inevitably arises in biological processes.

In this study, we demonstrated that HTLV-1 sense-strand reactivation in PBMCs occurs in a burst of rapid

transcription. But how long does such a burst last in the nucleus? The precise duration of a burst in

individual cells cannot be determined by smFISH, which captures only a single timepoint. By contrast,

the stochastic simulation of the three-state promoter model (Fig 4B and S1 Text) estimated that the

average duration of the intense transcription in PBMCs from a leukemic patient (LGZ) was less than an

hour: the model required the HTLV-1 sense-strand promoter to revert from the On-Tax state to the Off.

Without invoking this extra parameter, cells did not terminate the transcription during the 8 h of the

simulation, so the number of transcripts overshot the observed smFISH data (Fig 4B and S1 Text). These

parameters were estimated from a population of PBMCs containing a single dominant clone: other

HTLV-1-infected clones may differ in the magnitude of the kinetic parameters, although the

fundamental molecular mechanisms are unlikely to vary. Indeed, the putative malignant clone in the

patient LGZ might have been selected *in vivo* by the host immune response for rapid termination of

sense-strand transcription: *tax* expression is lost in ~50% of cases of ATL, and it is believed that the

strong cytotoxic T lymphocyte response to Tax is responsible for this silencing.

Mahgoub et al. reported that the average duration of Tax expression was ~19 hours [27] in an HTLV-1-

infected cell line (MT-1) that was established from a patient with ATL, using a GFP reporter system to

indicate the production of Tax protein. By contrast, we used uncultured *ex vivo* PBMCs, which carry a

single copy of the HTLV-1 provirus in each cell [28], and quantified the HTLV-1 transcripts by smFISH,

which allows direct estimation of the gene transcription kinetics. Based on our model, we postulate that

the HTLV-1 sense strand, which encodes *tax* and is activated by the strong positive feedback of Tax

protein, terminates the transcription after a short period, even if Tax protein is still present in the cell.

However, it is possible that repeated sense-strand bursts occur in rapid succession, due to repeated

reattachment of transcription complexes to the HTLV-1 promoter, resulting in the longer duration of Tax

presence in the cell observed by Mahgoub et al.

Our data, together with inferences from the mathematical model, suggest that active termination of a

transcriptional burst is critical in shaping the dynamics of HTLV-1 sense-strand transcription. We

examined the transient (non-equilibrium) dynamics of HTLV-1 transcriptional bursting in primary,

naturally-infected lymphocytes, whereas others studied Tat transcription from synthetic Tat circuits to

analyse the mechanisms that produce bimodality in Tat expression over an extended parameter regime

in a steady-state system [29-31].

The mechanism of this rapid termination of the sense-strand burst remains unknown, as in mammalian

gene expression in general. The HTLV-1 accessory protein p30 retains *tax* mRNA in the nucleus, which

results in a reduction of Tax protein production, leading in turn to reduced viral transcription [32].

However, p30 is unlikely to account for the rapid termination of the HTLV-1 transcriptional burst in

PBMCs observed in the present study, because the abundance of Tax protein continues to rise in PBMCs

during 8 h *ex vivo* culture [33]. At least three factors can be identified that may contribute to

transcriptional silencing. First, epigenetic modifications at the 5 promoter including re-ubiquitination of

histone 2A lysine 119 by polycomb repressive complex 1 (PRC1) [5] and methylation (or

hydroxymethylation) of cytosine [34]. Second, sequestration of the transcription co-factors CBP/p300 by

HBZ protein [35]. Third, a progressive reduction in Tax translation caused by the accumulation of Rex

protein [36]. Recent evidence suggests that transcription factors form phase-separated droplets where

transcriptional bursts occur, and intrinsically disordered domains of transcription factors are particularly

responsible for forming droplets [37, 38]. HTLV-1 Tax protein has a number of binding partners in the

cell [39] and forms speckles in the nucleus that colocalize with active transcription spots [40]. These

observations raise the possibility that Tax contributes to the formation of phase-separated droplets in

the nucleus that serve as the locus for HTLV-1 transcription. External perturbation can disperse phase-

separated droplets [38] and might therefore terminate the burst, leading to a refractory period of

complete transcriptional silence.

In HIV-1 infection, the potential use of shock-and-kill treatment is still under debate because all

approaches used to date have activated only a small fraction of the proviruses in a host. The results

presented here demonstrate that the extent of heterogeneity in retrovirus reactivation is diverse in a

population of naturally-infected cells, and suggest a quantitative approach for examining the efficacy of

the treatment.

Materials and Methods

Ethics statement

EDTA-anticoagulated blood from HTLV-1-infected patients was collected at St Mary's Hospital (Imperial

College London, UK). All donors gave written informed consent in accordance with the Declaration of

Helsinki to donate blood samples to the Communicable Diseases Research Tissue Bank, approved by the

UK National Research Ethics Service (15/SC/0089).

Patient-derived PBMCs

Information on the HTLV-1$^+$ subjects examined in this study (four ATL patients, three HAM patients and

one asymptomatic carrier) is available in Table 1. PBMCs were isolated using Histopaque (Sigma, H8889)

and washed with PBS. Unless mentioned otherwise, they were stored in liquid nitrogen with FBS/10%

DMSO until use.

Table 1. HTLV-1^{+} subjects and PBMCs examined in this study.

Assay #	Patient code	Disease Status	Blood collected	Storage condition	Sampling time (h)	CD8 removal	Proviral load
1	TDZ	HAM	06 Jan 2015	Frozen	0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8	CD8-depleted	16.4%[a]
2	TBC	HAM	18 Sep 2017	Frozen	0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8	CD8-depleted	81.1%
3	LGZ	ATL	08 Jul 2014	Frozen	0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8	CD8-depleted	89.7%
4	HBL	Asymptomatic	01 Oct 2018	Fresh[b]	0	Total PBMCs	1.95%
5	LFK	ATL	01 Oct 2018	Fresh[b]	0	Total PBMCs	46.2%
6	LFV	ATL	01 Oct 2018	Fresh[b]	0	Total PBMCs	94.6%
7	TDK	HAM	02 Oct 2018	Fresh[b]	0	Total PBMCs	11.2%
8	LGB	ATL	10 Jun 2014	Frozen	0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8	CD8-depleted	88.8%

[a]measured in the sample collected on 04 Jul 2016
[b]Samples were used immediately after PBMC isolation, without freeze-thawing.

Short-term culture of patient PBMCs

Patient-derived PBMCs were thawed and washed with PBS (Gibco, 14190) containing 2 mM EDTA and 0.1% FBS. CD8^{+} cells were removed with Dynabeads (Invitrogen, 11147D) to avoid CTL killing against HTLV-1 Tax^{+} cells. Cells were suspended (1×10^6 cells/mL) in RPMI1640 (Sigma, R0883) supplemented with 2 mM L-glutamine (Gibco, 25030-81), penicillin/streptomycin (Gibco, 15070-063) and 10% fetal bovine serum (Gibco, 10500-064). One mL of cell suspension (1×10^6 cells) was aliquoted and dispensed into 5 mL polystyrene round-bottom tubes (Falcon, 352054) to keep the cell density consistent between assays. Cells were incubated in 5% CO_2 at 37°C until sampled. One aliquot was sampled at each time point (every hour) and subjected to single-molecule RNA FISH.

Single-molecule RNA FISH

Cells were washed and suspended in PBS at a density of 5-10 × 10^6 cells/mL. An aliquot (20 µL) of the suspension was spread on to a coverslip that had been coated with poly-L-lysine (Sigma, P8920). Cells were fixed with 2% formaldehyde (Thermo Scientific, 28908) on the coverslip for 15 min. Coverslips were immersed in 70% ethanol and stored at -20°C until hybridization.

Hybridization was performed as previously described [14]. Namely, permeabilized cells were hybridized overnight at 37°C with probes that target either *gag* (HTLV-1 sense strand; labeled with FAM), *tax* (HTLV-1 sense strand; labeled with Quasar 670) or *HBZ* (HTLV-1 antisense strand; labeled with Quasar 570) in hybridization buffer (Stellaris, SMF-HB1-10). Cells were washed on the coverslip twice with wash buffer A (Stellaris, SMF-WA1-60), and then wash buffer B (Stellaris, SMF-WB1-20). DAPI staining was included during the second wash with the buffer A. The cells were embedded in VECTASHIELD mounting medium (Vector Laboratories, H-1000) for imaging.

The coverslips were imaged with an Olympus IX70 inverted widefield microscope with a 100× 1.35NA UPlanApo oil objective lens (Olympus), a Spectra Light Engine illumination source (Lumencor) and an ORCA-Flash 4.0 V2 digital CMOS camera (Hamamatsu).

Image analysis

Stacked TIFF images containing 54 z-slices with a 300 nm interval were obtained using Micro Manager [41]. Each slice is composed of four channels (DAPI, FAM, Quasar 570 and Quasar 670). The stacked TIFF images were split into the four channels. Cells were segmented using the DAPI channel with an in-house algorithm which identifies the edge of the nucleus by signal intensity (the algorithm is available at DOI 10.17605/OSF.IO/R6Q8T). Dead cells were identified by the abnormal morphology of nucleus and

omitted from the analysis. Spots in each of the three channels (FAM, Quasar 570 and Quasar 670) were

detected with FISH-QUANT [42]. A threshold for the signal intensity was set to distinguish the mRNA

spots from spurious signals: an example is shown in S2 Fig containing the samples that were hybridized

and imaged in the same batch - LGZ fixed at 7 h; LFK and LFV fixed without incubation.   The image data

are available at DOI 10.17605/OSF.IO/R6Q8T (open under CC0 1.0 Universal Licence).

Proviral load measurement

DNA was extracted from unfixed cells using DNeasy Blood & Tissue Kit (Qiagen, 69504). The reaction of

20 μL volume was set up using ddPCR Supermix (Bio-Rad, 186-3023) containing 900 nM each of forward

and reverse primers and 250 nM FAM-labeled probe to detect the HTLV-1 *pX* locus (forward primer, 5'-

CTC CTT CCG TTC CAC TCA AC-3'; reverse primer, 5'-GTG GTA GGC CTT GGT TTG AA-3'; probe, 5'-CGC

CTA TGA TTT CCG GGC CCT G-3'). The copy number of a host gene *RPP30* was determined using 1 μL of

HEX-labeled PrimePCR RPP30 (Bio-Rad, 10031243) in the reaction to calibrate the amount of DNA input.

Droplets were generated with QX200 Droplet Generator (Bio-Rad). PCR was performed (95°C for 10 min;

40 cycles of 94°C for 30 sec and 60°C for 1 min; 98°C for 10 min) with C1000 Touch thermal cycler (Bio-

Rad). Fluorescent signal was detected using QX200 Droplet Reader (Bio-Rad).

Half-life estimation of the HTLV-1 sense transcripts

Two HTLV-1 infected T-cell clones [14] were treated with 10 μg/ml Actinomycin D (Sigma, SBR00013).

Total RNA was extracted at 0, 3, 6 and 9 hours of treatment using RNeasy Plus Mini Kit (Qiagen, 74134),

and was reverse-transcribed to cDNA using Transcriptor First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit with random

primers (Roche, 04897030001). The relative abundance of HTLV-1 sense-strand transcripts at each time

point was measured by qPCR with Fast SYBR Green Master Mix (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 4385612)

(forward primer, 5'-CCG GCG CTG CTC TCA TCC CGG T-3'; reverse primer, 5'-GGC CGA ACA TAG TCC CCC

AGA G-3' [5]). The half-life of the HTLV-1 sense transcripts was estimated by non-linear regression curve

fitting (one phase decay) using GraphPad Prism version 8.2.1 for Windows (GraphPad Software).

Stochastic simulation of the transient HTLV-1 sense-strand transcription

A Gillespie stochastic simulation algorithm was employed [43]. The molecular species and the schematic

diagram of reactions are shown in Fig 4A. We assumed three possible states for the HTLV-1 sense-strand

promoter: the "Off" state where essentially no transcription takes place; the "On" state from which

sense transcripts are produced at a low transcription rate; and the "On-Tax" state where the rapid

transcription takes place due to the strong positive feedback in the presence of Tax protein. The HTLV-1

sense promoter was set at the Off state in each cell with no sense transcripts and Tax protein in the

initial condition. In modelling the HTLV-1 transient transcription in the patient LGZ, 20 % of the total

cells in the simulation were confined to the Off promoter state (Fig 3A, LGZ). A random parameter

search was performed to identify the sets of parameters that fit to the smFISH data (S1 Text). The

parameter search space is shown in Table 2. The limits of the parameter search space were set using the

data from smFISH experiments on the timing of the onset of transcription (for k_1) and the number of

sense transcripts observed prior to the rapid transcription (for k_5 and k_3). The sense-strand mRNA

degradation rate (k_7, ln2 / 4.5 = 0.154 h^{-1}) was determined experimentally in the present study (S7 Fig).

The degradation rate of Tax protein (k_9) was obtained from Rende et al. [44]. One million parameter sets

were tested for each respective model. The goodness of fit for each parameter set was assessed by

squared deviation summed across the bins in every time point. See also the supporting information (S1

Text); the code for model iii is available at DOI 10.17605/OSF.IO/R6Q8T.

Table 2. Parameters used in the stochastic simulation.

Reaction	Parameter	Description	Range for parameter search (h^{-1})
Transition	k_1	Off to On	0.25 to 2.5
	k_2	On to Off	0.01 to 10
	k_3	On to On-Tax	0.1 to 10
	k_4	On-Tax to On	0.01 to 10
	k_{10}	On-Tax to Off	0.01 to 10
Transcription	k_5	From On state	10 to 50
	k_6	From On-Tax state	k_5 to 100
Translation	k_8	Tax translation	0.01 to 10
Degradation	k_7	Sense mRNA	0.154 (fixed)
	k_9	Tax protein	0.105 (fixed)

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Supporting information

S1 Fig. Average HTLV-1 sense-strand transcripts in PBMCs in *ex vivo* culture over time.

S2 Fig. Determination of the threshold for mRNA spot detection.

S3 Fig. Accuracy of data prediction by dynamical models.

S4 Fig Parameter estimation.

S5 Fig. Antisense *HBZ* expression in *in vitro* maintained HTLV-1^{+} T cell clones.

S6 Fig. HTLV-1 antisense expression in PBMCs *ex vivo* culture over time.

S7 Fig. Decay-rate of the HTLV-1 sense-strand transcripts.

S1 Text. Model Comparison.

S2 Text. An alternative model accounting for the departure from the Poisson distribution.

 Figure legends

Fig 1   Intense transcription of the HTLV-1 sense strand in PBMCs identified by smFISH.

(A) HTLV-1 transcripts, smFISH probes and sample preparation for smFISH. Three sets of probes for

smFISH are indicated that hybridize to HTLV-1 transcripts: sense-strand in the *pX* region (Q670, red

stars), *HBZ* (Q570, yellow stars), and unspliced sense transcripts containing *gag* region (FAM, green

stars). (B) Representative images of HTLV-1^{+} PBMCs with the sense-strand transcripts at the indicated

time points. Blue area indicates the nucleus stained with DAPI, and red spots indicate the HTLV-1 sense

transcripts. Scale bar (white) = 5 µm. (C) A site of intense transcription identified by the probes for *gag*.

The image on the left shows the *gag* staining (green). The image overlaid with sense transcript spots

(red, shown in the middle) is presented on the right. The cell presented is from a HAM patient coded

TDZ sampled at 4 hours of incubation.

Fig 2   Sense transcript count per HTLV-1^{+} cell: progression over time.

(A) Schematic diagram of the identification of the HTLV-1^{+} population for analysis. The entire population

(in the black and grey rectangles) are the cells identified and analysed by microscopy. The size of the

HTLV-1-infected population (black rectangle) was estimated by multiplying the total cell count by the

proviral load as measured by ddPCR. Also see Materials and Methods. (B) Sense-transcript count per

HTLV-1[+] cell (bin size = 20, note the units) at each time point for the two patients with HAM (TBC and

TDZ) and two with ATL (LGZ and LGB). Note that the first few bins in each case are out of scale on the y-

axis. In the inset for each histogram is indicated the number of cells analysed. (C) The mean and variance

of the sense transcript count per HTLV-1^{+} cell obtained from four patients, each containing nine time

points.

Fig 3   Rate of onset of HTLV-1 reactivation.

(A) Increase in the fraction of cells that carry ≥3 sense transcripts over time (red dots). The black line for

each HTLV-1^{+} subject indicates a fitted curve with a cumulative gamma distribution. (B) Probability

density of the gamma distribution obtained from panel A for each HTLV-1^{+} subject. The inset numbers

indicate the mean time of the onset of reactivation after the start of *ex vivo* culture.

Fig 4   Stochastic simulation of the transient HTLV-1 expression in PBMCs *ex vivo*.

(A) Kinetic model of HTLV-1 proviral transcription, with three promoter states: Off, On, and On-Tax. (B)

Stochastic simulation of the model presented in panel A. The best 50 fits (mean and standard deviation

shown in black) are superimposed on the smFISH data from the ATL patient LGZ (red bars, reproduced

from Fig 2B). (C) The marginal distributions of the best 50 parameters (posterior; green bars); the

respective prior distributions are shown in blue. The mean and standard deviation are indicated in the

inset. (D) The interval between the initiation of the On-Tax promoter state and the direct transition from

the On-Tax to the Off state in the simulation. The frequency of the interval was fitted with an

exponential decay, and its probability density function is presented. The mean intervals (τ) ± standard

deviation for the prior set I (Table 2) and the prior set II (S4 Fig) are indicated in the inset.

Fig 5   Identification of HTLV-1 antisense transcripts by smFISH.

(A) Typical image captured by smFISH of *HBZ* mRNA (yellow spot) in a cell (from a patient with HAM,

coded TDZ) without *ex vivo* incubation. Blue indicates the nucleus stained with DAPI. Scale bar (white) =

5 µm. (B) Frequency distribution of the number of *HBZ* mRNA molecules carried per HTLV-1^{+} PBMC.

Yellow bars show the frequencies observed by smFISH; the number of HTLV-1^{+} cells analysed (N) and the

average number of *HBZ* molecules per HTLV-1^{+} cell (<m>) are indicated in the inset. Black lines indicate

689 the expected frequencies from a Poisson distribution with the parameter <m>. (C) The kinetic model for

690 the antisense transcription. *HBZ* mRNA is transcribed at the rate *k*, and degraded at the rate δ.