

Schlafen12, a novel HIV restriction factor involved in latency

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SUMMARY

The process of HIV latency establishment and maintenance is not clearly understood. Homeostatic proliferation (HSP) is a major mechanism by which long-lived naive and memory CD4 T cells are maintained *in vivo*. HSP also contributes to the persistence of HIV latent reservoir. Furthermore, HIV-infected naive CD4 T cells cultured under HSP condition are refractory to reactivation, in contrast to TCR-activated memory CD4 T cells. This might be due to the suggested post-transcriptional block in naive HSP-cultured cells. Here we compared a transcriptomic signature of naive and memory CD4 T cells. Among differentially expressed genes that may influence HIV latency, we identified Schlafen 12 (SLFN12) as an interesting candidate for a potential HIV restriction factor. Our results showed that SLFN12 establishes post-transcriptional block in HIV infected cells and thus inhibits both, HIV production as well as its reactivation from latently infected cells. These findings may help to better understand the mechanisms underlying HIV latency and its reversal in HSP-maintained naive CD4 T cells. All together it might contribute to the design of novel HIV eradication strategies.

RESUMEN

El proceso por el cual el virus de la Inmunodeficiencia Humana (VIH) establece y mantiene un estado de latencia no se conoce en su totalidad. La proliferación homeostática (HSP, de sus siglas en inglés “Homeostatic proliferation”) es uno de los mecanismos por el cual las células T CD4 “naive” y de memoria se mantienen in vivo. Además, HSP también contribuye al mantenimiento del reservorio de virus en forma latente. Además, las células T CD4 “naive” infectadas y cultivadas en condiciones de HSP no son capaces de reactivarse a diferencia de las células T CD4 de memoria activadas vía TCR. Estudios previos sugieren que esta observación se debe a un bloqueo post-transcripcional en células T “naive” cultivadas en condiciones de HSP. En esta tesis comparamos el perfil del transcriptoma de células T CD4 “naive” y de memoria. Entre los genes diferencialmente expresados que podrían participar en el proceso de latencia del VIH, identificamos Schlafen 12 (SLFN12) como un candidato interesante que podría ser un factor de restricción del virus. Los resultados de este trabajo muestran que SLFN12 establece un bloqueo post-transcripcional en células infectadas por VIH, y de esta forma inhibe tanto la producción del virus como su reactivación en células infectadas de forma latente. Estas observaciones pueden ser de gran ayuda para entender mejor los mecanismos subyacentes a la latencia del VIH así como su reactivación en células CD4 T “naive” mantenidas bajo condiciones de HSP. En su conjunto, estos resultados podrían contribuir al diseño de nuevas estrategias para erradicar el VIH.

PROLOGUE

The Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) is the causative agent of acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS). Although current antiretroviral therapy effectively suppresses HIV replication, rapid viral rebound is observed in patients after treatment interruption. This is due to the existence of a reservoir of treatment-resistant virus-infected cells, most importantly latently-infected T cell subsets such as resting naive and memory CD4 T cells. This reservoir is the main obstacle for curing an HIV infection.

The so-called “kick and kill” strategy involves the use of latency reversal agents (LRAs) to switch dormant-infected cells to virus-producing cells that can be targeted by antivirals and depleted by cytotoxic T lymphocytes (CTLs). While this strategy seems to work using *in vitro* models, the efficiency of “kick and kill” *in vivo* is far less efficient. This highlights the need for a deeper understanding of the mechanism driving HIV latency.

Naive and memory CD4 T cells are *in vivo* maintained mainly by homeostatic proliferation (HSP). HSP was also suggested to contribute to the persistence of latent HIV-1 reservoir. However, studies of the dormant switch in naive CD4 T cells are lacking as many *in vitro* latency models rely on CD4 T cells that were first differentiated via T-cell receptor (TCR) into memory/effector cells. To fill this gap we have previously, in collaboration with Professor Yasuko Tsunetsugu-Yokota, developed an *in vitro* system to study HIV infection in HSP-maintained primary cells. Using this approach, we showed that HIV-infected naive T cells are refractory to reactivation upon TCR or LRA stimuli.

In this thesis, we have performed a transcriptomic analysis of HSP-cultured naive CD4 T cells in order to identify cellular factors that might contribute to HIV provirus persistence in these physiological relevant conditions. The presented results contribute to better understand mechanisms governing HIV latency and its reversal in naive CD4 T cells, moreover, they might also contribute to therapeutic intervention.

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INTRODUCTION

1 Human Immunodeficiency Viruses

1.1 General facts about HIV

The Human Immunodeficiency Viruses HIV-1 and HIV-2 are the causative agents of the Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS). They were discovered at the Pasteur Institute in Paris in 1983 and 1986, respectively (Barré-Sinoussi et al. 1983; Clavel et al. 1986). Initial discrepancies in the naming of the AIDS-causing viruses as Lymphadenopathy-Associated Virus (LAV) or HTVL III were settled in 1986 and HIV became the official name (Case 1986).

HIV belongs to the family of *Retroviridae*, genus *Lentivirus*. In Latin, “lentus” means slow. Lentiviruses got this name because of their long incubation period. Based on genetic characteristics, HIV is classified into two types (HIV-1, HIV-2). Both types have been evolved from simian immunodeficiency viruses (SIV). HIV-1, from Central African chimpanzees (SIVcpz) and gorillas (SIVgor), and HIV-2, from West African sooty mangabeys (SIVsm) (Gao et al. 1999; Paul M. Sharp and Hahn 2011; Huet et al. 1990; Van Heuverswyn et al. 2006). HIV is a very variable pathogen. HIV-1 is divided into four groups: group M (main), group O (outlier), group N (new) and group P (closely related to gorilla SIV). Group M has been subdivided into several genetically associated clades (A1, A2, B, C, D, F1, F2, G, H, J, and K). For HIV-2 different subtypes also exist (A, B, C, F, and G). Furthermore, HIV can be also classified as macrophage tropic (M-tropic), T-cell tropic (T-tropic) or dual tropic based on its ability to infect macrophages, T cells or both (Al-Jabri 2003; Korber et al. 2000).

HIV-1 and HIV-2 share the same mechanism of replication. Both can be transmitted by sexual contact, by blood products or by vertical transmission (mother-to-child). Infection by both viruses eventually leads to AIDS in nearly all cases. However, HIV-2 infection progresses more slowly compared to HIV-1. Viral load is lower during HIV-2 infection than in HIV-1, which explains the lower transmission rate of HIV-2. Based on geography, HIV-1 spreads worldwide while HIV-2 infection is mostly limited to West Africa and countries linked to it socioeconomically, for example,

Portugal (Nyamweya et al. 2013). Today, HIV is present on each continent, however, the majority of HIV-infected people is living in low- or middle- income countries of sub-Saharan Africa (**Figure I1**). The latest data from 2017 report 36,9 million HIV-infected people worldwide. From these, 35,1 million are adults, the rest are children under the age of 15. Deaths of AIDS-related illnesses reached 940 000/year and 1,8 million individuals were newly infected. The most affected groups within the population are men who have sex with men (MSM), clients of sex workers and intravenous drugs users (IVDU) (**Figure I2**). Although the number of new infections per year dropped by 47% compared to the peak of infections in 1996, the annual number does not vary so much in the last years. Nevertheless, the current decline in newly infected individuals does not meet the global targets of HIV infection elimination (www.unaids.org).

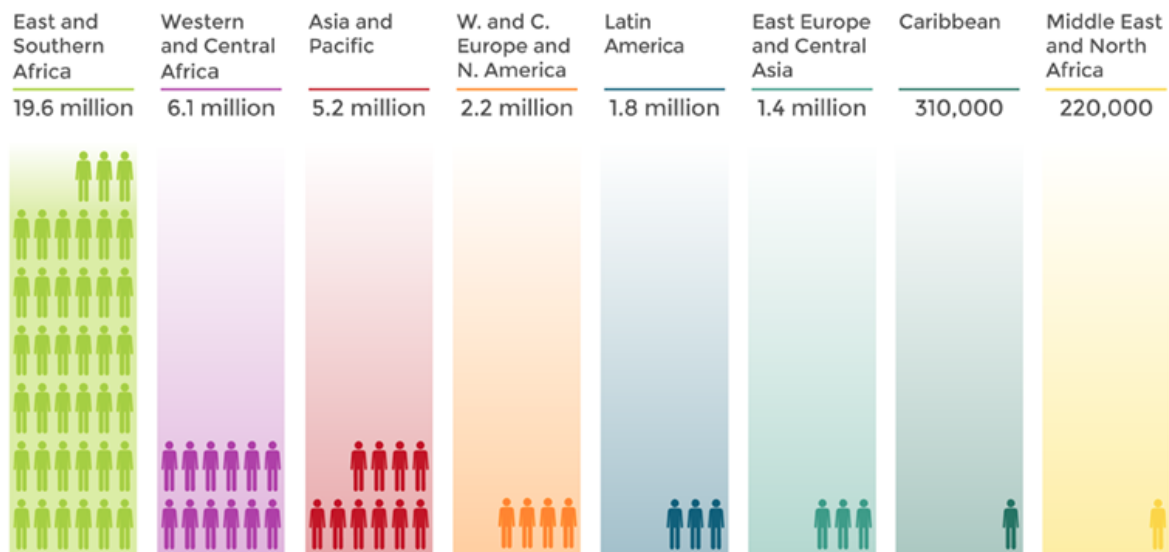


Figure I1. Distribution of people living with HIV in 2017. The global statistic shows that the least people infected with HIV are living in the Middle East, North Africa and the Caribbean. Europe and America contribute with higher numbers, but the vast majority of HIV-infected people lives in the rest of Africa and in Asia. Figure is taken from (www.avert.org).

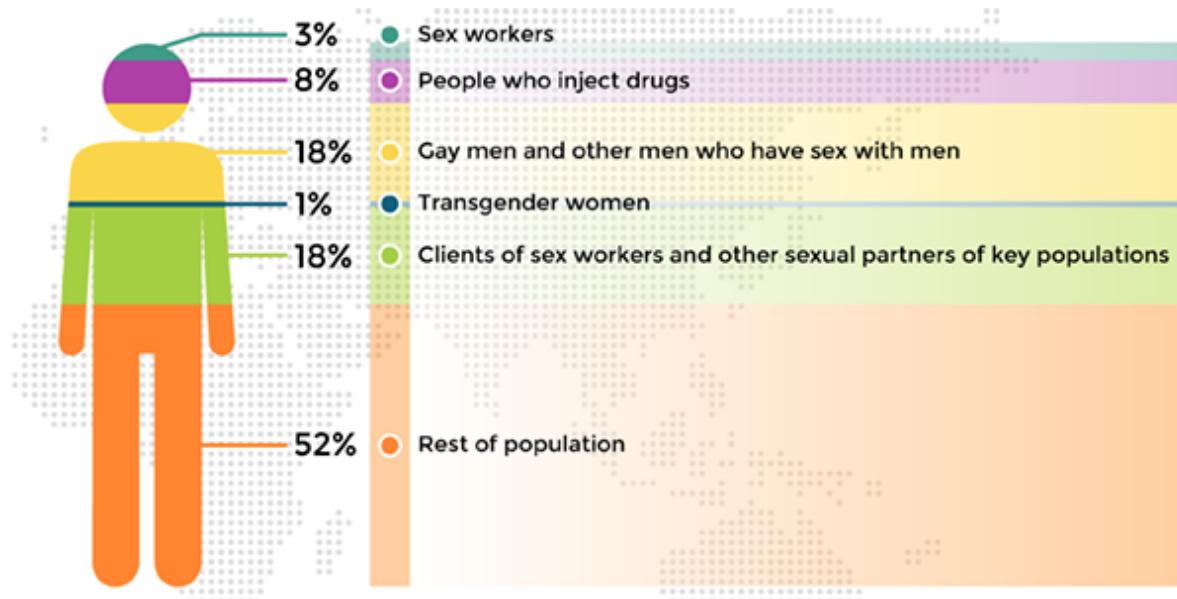


Figure 12. Distribution of new HIV infections among different groups of the population in 2017. 1,8 million people were newly infected with HIV in 2017. Transgender women (1%) and sex workers (3%) represent the least affected groups. Drug-addicted people who share needles to inject the drugs participate in these infections by 8%. Unprotected sexual contact is the most common way of HIV transmission. 18% of new HIV infections occurred in the homosexual community as well as within the clients of sex workers. The remaining 52% were people infected by unprotected sexual intercourse, contaminated blood or mother-to-child transmission. Figure is taken from (www.avert.org).

1.2 HIV genome and virion structure

The viral particle of HIV is around 100 nm in diameter. It contains two copies of single-stranded RNA (ssRNA) protected by a conical capsid which is coated by a lipidic membrane derived from the cell surface. The 5' end of the HIV genomic RNA contains a cap sequence and the 3' end is polyadenylated. Upon entering a cell, the genomic viral RNA is reverse transcribed into DNA (Montagnier 1999; Castelli and Levy 2002). Viral DNA has long terminal repetitions (LTR) flanking both sides (**Figure 13 A**). The 5'-LTR region encodes the HIV promoter. The first open reading frame (ORF) is *gag* (group-specific antigen) which encodes structural proteins that build the core of the HIV virion. These are matrix protein (MA, p17), capsid protein (CA, p24), and nucleocapsid protein (NC, p7). The *Gag* gene is followed by the *pol* (polymerase) ORF encoding viral integrase (IN, p32), reverse transcriptase (RT, p51) together with RNase H (p15) and protease (PR, p12). These enzymes are located within the capsid, close to the viral RNA. Next to *pol* is the last typical retroviral ORF *env* (envelope) from which the surface glycoprotein (SU, gp120) and the transmembrane glycoprotein (TM, gp41) are transcribed (**Figure 13 B**). Apart

from structural proteins, HIV-1 encodes proteins that have regulatory functions: Rev (RNA splicing regulator) and Tat (transactivator protein). And also small accessory proteins: Vif (viral infectivity factor) is necessary for infectious viral production, Nef (negative regulating factor) affecting HIV replication, Vpu (virus protein unique) required for release of new viral particles and Vpr (virus protein r) which also has an impact on virus infectivity. HIV-2 encodes Vpx (virus protein x) instead of Vpu (Frankel and Young 1998; Levy 1989). Like all viruses, HIV requires the cell machinery to replicate and produce progeny.

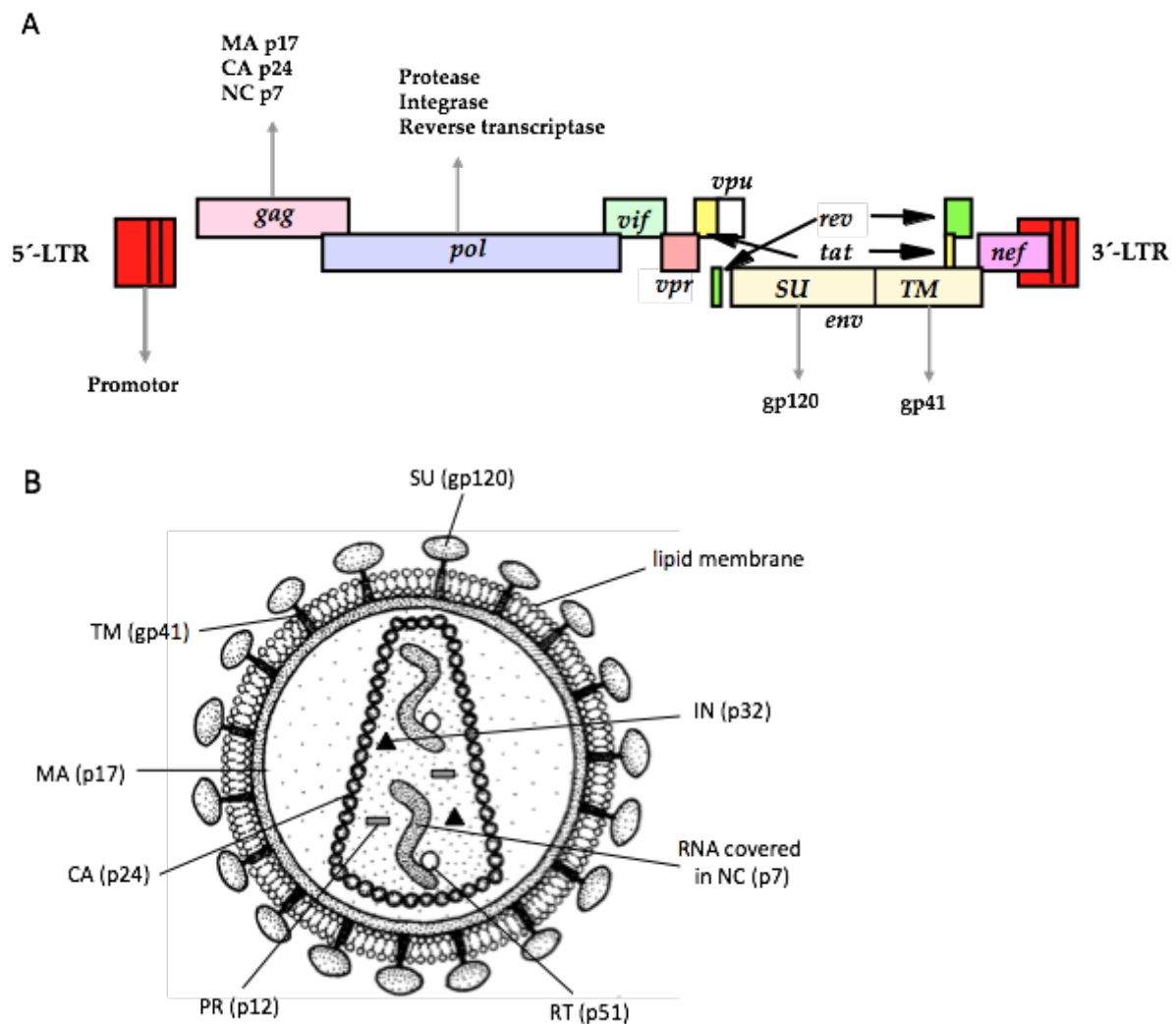


Figure 13. HIV-1 genome organization and virion structure. **A** - The HIV genome is around 10kb long. Long terminal repetitions (LTRs) are flanking both sides of the genome. The HIV promoter is encoded in the 5'-LTR region. Open reading frame (ORF) *gag* encodes structural proteins (matrix protein p17, capsid protein p24, nucleocapsid protein p7). All viral enzymatic activities are transcribed from segment *pol*. Gene *env* is coding surface and transmembrane glycoproteins (gp120, gp41). Proteins of *tat* and *rev* are composed of two different regions. The figure was provided by Andreas Meyerhans. **B** - Schematic view of an HIV viral particle. The surface of HIV is composed by the surface glycoprotein 120 (SU, gp120) and the transmembrane glycoprotein 41 (TM, gp41). The lipid

bilayer together with the matrix protein (MA, p17) forms a border between inner and outer side of the virion. The conical capsid (CA, p24) contains two identical copies of HIV-RNA which are covered by the nucleocapsid protein (NC, p7). Viral integrase (IN, p32), reverse transcriptase (RT, p66) and protease (PR, p12) are located together with the HIV-RNA as the process of reverse transcription is happening in the capsid. Modified from (<http://biodidac.bio.uottawa.ca>).

1.3 HIV life cycle and cellular restriction factors

During HIV infection at the level of a cell, host defense mechanisms compete with viral counterparts, and dampen down virus expansion. The HIV life cycle is divided into several stages (**Figure 14**). The first step is an interaction between the host cell and the virus followed by virus entry into the cell. HIV glycoprotein gp120 interacts with a CD4 receptor expressed on the surface of the host cell (Dalglish et al. 1984). CD4 T lymphocytes and macrophages have been identified as major targets for HIV (Gendelman et al. 1990; Shioda, Levy, and Cheng-Mayer 1991). Although the CD4 receptor is an essential factor in the interaction between a host cell and HIV, additional cellular co-receptors are also required. Small proteins, CCR5 and CXCR4, have been identified to interact with gp120 and thus permit HIV to finally enter a target cell (Moore, Trkola, and Dragic 1997). CCR5 is mainly expressed on memory CD4 T cells and macrophages while naive CD4 T cells express CXCR4 (Kitchen and Zack 1999; Zhang et al. 1998). Once HIV is attached to the target cell, gp120 changes its conformation and enables the fusion of the viral and cell membranes via gp41 (Weissenhorn et al. 1997; Sherer, Jin, and Mothes 2010; Wilen, Tilton, and Doms 2012). The virion content is then delivered into the cell. At this step, the cellular restriction factor TRIM5 α (tripartite motif 5 alpha protein) detects viral capsid structures and triggers immune defense mechanisms to destroy it (Stremlau et al. 2006).

In the cytoplasm, the viral capsid is uncoated and the viral reverse transcriptase (RT) converts two copies of HIV single-stranded (ss)RNA to one linear double-stranded (ds) DNA. The reverse transcription depends on the presence of deoxynucleotide triphosphates (dNTPs) (Meyerhans et al. 1994). The cellular factor SAMHD1 (sterile alpha motif and histidine/aspartic domain-containing protein) can repress this step by downregulation of dNTPs (Schaller, Goujon, and Malim 2012; Goldstone et al. 2011). RT uses a cellular Lys3 tRNA as a primer to start the process of reverse

transcription. The tRNA is complementary to a sequence called primer binding site (PBS) within the 5'- region of the HIV genome. DNA synthesis begins and first generates an RNA-DNA duplex from which the viral RNase H removes the RNA part of the duplex. The viral (-) cDNA strand is then completed after strand transfer to the complementary R region at the 3' end of the viral RNA genome and further polymerisation. The (+) DNA synthesis is initiated from the RNA polypurine tract that is more stable against RNase H breakdown (Hu and Hughes 2012a). Once ds HIV DNA synthesis is completed, it is translocated to the nucleus and used as a substrate for chromosomal integration. Import of ds HIV DNA to the nucleus can be suppressed by cellular myxovirus resistance protein B (MxB) (Goujon et al. 2013; Z. Liu et al. 2013). Without this restriction, viral integrase incorporates the viral dsDNA into the host chromosome. This so-called HIV provirus can then be activated and transcribed that finally will lead to new viral particles, or can remain silent in a latent form (Hu and Hughes 2012b; Bocharov et al. 2012). In case of productive infection, the HIV provirus is transcribed into mRNAs, and all viral proteins are translated in the cytoplasm. The cell tries to restrict this step by expression of Schlafen11 (SLFN11) which selectively inhibits translation of HIV proteins (M. Li et al. 2012). Once all viral components are produced, the assembly step starts. During this step, new virions are built. Assembling virions package two copies of viral RNA, structural proteins, viral enzymes and cellular tRNA (as a primer for DNA synthesis). As a cellular defense mechanism, apolipoprotein B mRNA-editing enzyme catalytic polypeptide-like 3G (APOBEC3G or A3G) can be also packed into the new virions. When a new target cell is infected with virions containing A3G, single-stranded DNA is deaminated at cytidine residues leading to hypermutated genes (Bishop et al. 2008; Harris and Liddament 2004; J. P. Vartanian et al. 1991).

New HIV virions bud from the cell through the cytoplasmic membrane as immature, non-infectious particles. Release of new viral particles can be restricted by bone marrow stromal antigen 2 (BST2/tetherin). The last step of the HIV life cycle is maturation of the immature particles. The viral protease cleaves Gag proteins which evokes the rearrangement of viral structural proteins. This changes the particle morphology and generates the typical conical capsid structure of lentiviruses, and leads to a clustering of the Env proteins on the virion surface (Mattei, Schur, and

Briggs 2016; Chojnacki et al. 2012). The mature HIV particles are infectious and can now start a new round of infection.

To counteract virus restriction by cellular factors, HIV uses its own proteins Vif and Vpu. They can target host restriction factors for degradation (Van Damme et al. 2008; Sheehy, Gaddis, and Malim 2003; Neil, Zang, and Bieniasz 2008; Neil et al. 2007).

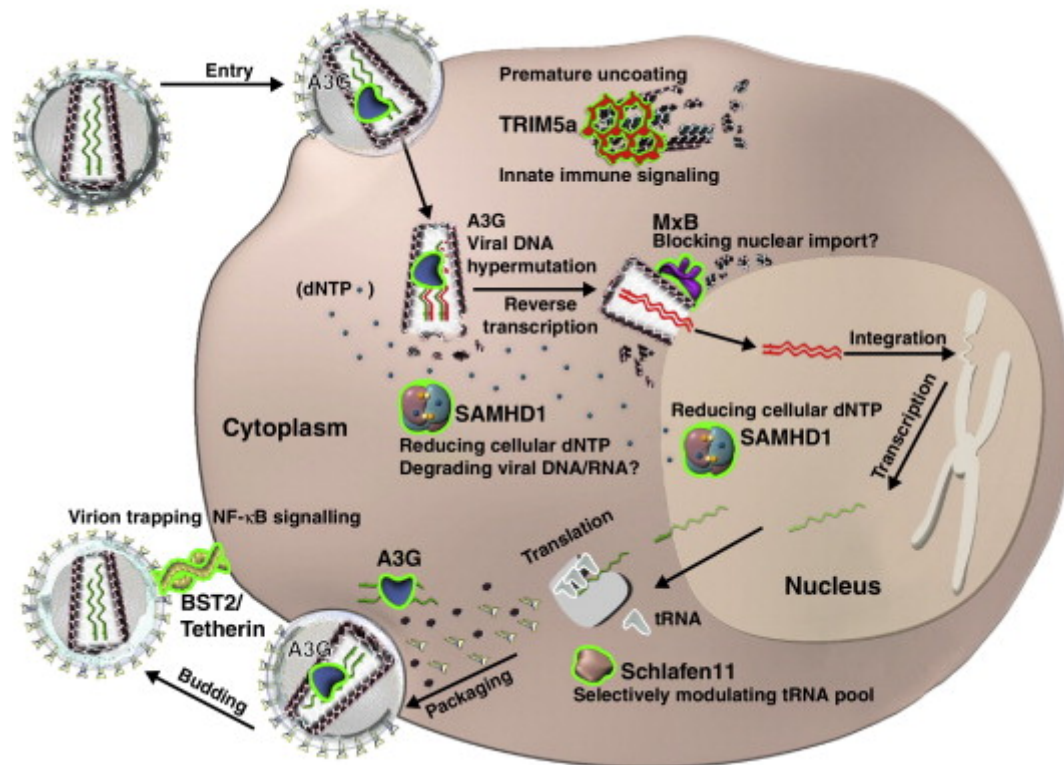


Figure 14. The restriction of the HIV life cycle by cellular restriction factors. Once HIV is attached to the CD4 receptor of a target cell, viral and cell membranes fuse and HIV enters the cytoplasm. At this step, TRIM5a recognizes viral capsid and evokes cell immune mechanisms. The HIV genome is transcribed by RT. The cell tries to suppress this process by A3G hypermutation on newly transcribed viral DNA or by a decrease of dNTP caused by expression of SAMHD1. Nuclear import and integration of HIV into the cell chromosome is inhibited by MxB protein. Schlafen11 affects the translation of HIV proteins. The late stages are repressed by A3G which is inserted into the new virions and BST2/Tetherin blocks the budding of the new virions. The figure is taken from (Jia, Zhao, and Xiong 2015).

1.4 HIV infection at the level of a host organism

During an HIV infection *in vivo*, the virus expands rapidly. Viral growth then activates host immune mechanisms including innate and adaptive responses (Katsikis, Mueller, and Villinger 2011; Stacey et al. 2009; Goonetilleke et al. 2009; Levesque et al. 2009; Kramer et al. 2010). Based on the CD4 T cell count and viral loads, different stages of an infection have been identified (**Figure 15**). During the first couple of weeks of an HIV infection, viral load in the blood (viremia) reaches its peak which is associated with a decrease in CD4 T cells. These events characterize a primary HIV infection. Then, CD4 T cells slightly recover and viremia levels drop. A dynamic quasi-equilibrium between CD4 T cell counts and viral load is established which results in a long, asymptomatic infection phase that usually lasts for years. However, during this time, the CD4 cell counts in blood continue to decline. When CD4 T cells drop below 200 cells per microliter blood, a state defined as AIDS (Lloyd 1996), opportunistic infections become apparent and the health of the infected individual deteriorates due to opportunistic infections like those caused by *Pneumocystis jiroveci* (former *P. carinii*), *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, *Candida albicans*, *Toxoplasma gondii*, diverse Herpesviruses or malignant diseases such as Kaposi's sarcoma and non-Hodgkin's lymphoma and others (Chereshnev et al. 2013).

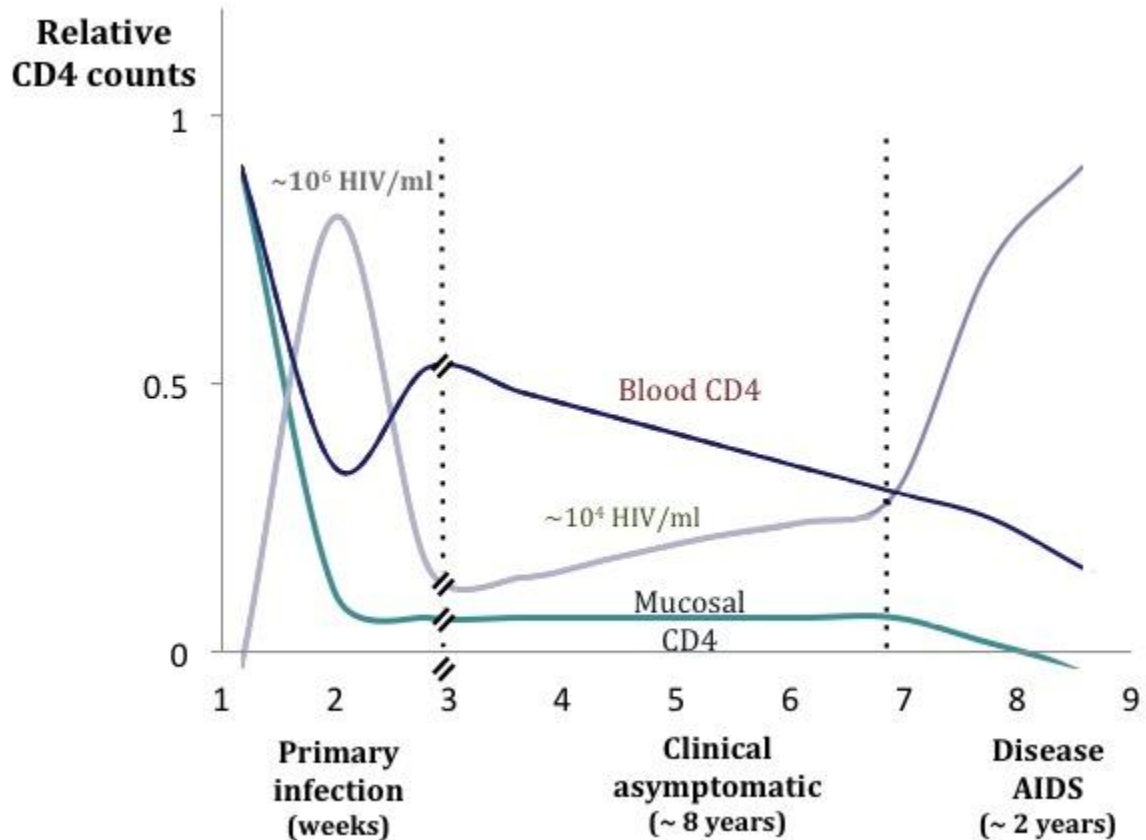


Figure 15. Characteristics of an HIV infection *in vivo*. HIV infection is divided into three clinical stages based on virus load (grey curve) in the blood and CD4 T cell counts (blue curve for blood CD4 T cells and green line for mucosal CD4 T cell). The typical features of a **primary infection** is a peak in viremia and rapid decrease in CD4 T cells. This stage lasts for a couple of weeks until CD4 T cells in blood slightly recover and viremia dropped down. Mucosal CD4 T cells remain at a low level. This is the **asymptomatic phase**. The last stage is the **AIDS disease phase**, which is defined as CD4 T cell counts below $200/\text{mm}^3$ of blood. This phase is associated with opportunistic infections and various malignancies, and finally leads to the death of the infected individual. Figure is modified from (Bocharov et al. 2012).

2 HIV latency

The main obstacle in curing an established HIV infection is the reservoir of treatment-resistant, latently infected cells. HIV productive infection can be nowadays controlled by combination antiretroviral therapy (cART). cART is used as a combination of three or more drugs that suppress virus loads to below levels of detection (below 50 copies of HIV RNA/ ml of plasma). Under these conditions, HIV replication is well controlled and disease progression is inhibited (Hirsch et al. 1999; Perelson et al. 1997; Gulick et al. 1997). However, some of the infected cells are not

affected by cART. HIV persists in these cells in a latent form which is characterized by very low or no viral gene expression (Whitney et al. 2014; Davey et al. 1999). Upon cART interruption, HIV rapidly rebounds from this treatment-resistant latent reservoir and HIV disease progresses (Tae-Wook Chun et al. 1999).

2.1 HIV latency, forms and establishment

HIV latency development bears on the physiology of CD4 T cells (Bleul et al. 1997; Sengupta and Siliciano 2018). Following maturation in the thymus, naive CD4 T cells remain in a quiescent state until they encounter an antigen (Ag) and get activated through their T cell receptor (TCR) (Jenkins et al. 2001). After the drop of Ag i.e. when an infectious agent is controlled, most of the CD4 T cells undergo programmed cell death. However, a small fraction survives as memory cells and revert into a resting state. Modified gene expression patterns of these cells allow their long-term survival and their ability to be susceptible to Ag re-encounter (R. F. Siliciano and Greene 2011).

Two types of HIV latency has been defined, pre-integration and post-integration latency (**Figure I6**). HIV infection of activated CD4 T cells results in integration of the viral genome into the host chromosome which is followed by replication and successful production of new viral particles. However, productive infection fails in resting CD4 T cells. Viral DNA may fail to integrate into the cell genome as a result of insufficient levels of deoxynucleotide triphosphates, essential for the import of the viral genome into the nucleus (Bukrinsky et al. 1991; Korin and Zack 1999; T. C. Pierson et al. 2002). Another study suggested that restriction of integration is due to incomplete reverse transcription (Zack et al. 1990, 1992). The non-integrated HIV genome is unstable with a fast decay (Y. Zhou et al. 2005). However, if infected resting CD4 T cells become activated, HIV pre-integration complex-containing cells can complete the HIV life cycle and subsequently produce virus progeny. Thus, HIV may establish a state of pre-integration latency in resting CD4 T cells that can convert into a productive infection upon T cell stimulation (T. C. Pierson et al. 2002). Due to the short half-life of the non-integrated viral genome, pre-integration latency is not considered as the main barrier for HIV eradication (Marsden and Zack 2010).

The second form of latency is established when HIV infects activated CD4 T cells and integrates into the host chromosome. Part of these infected cells may then revert into a resting state as part of their natural behavior during memory cell formation. This so-called post-integration latency may also occur when HIV infects resting CD4 T cells (Shan and Siliciano 2013; Marsden and Zack 2010). However, due to the low expression of the CCR5 coreceptor, the infection of these cells is usually less effective (Bleul et al. 1997; Maier et al. 2000). Another hypothesis suggests that if HIV infects CD4 T cells during their reversion into resting cells, the virus will be able to complete chromosome integration, but proviral gene expression may be restricted (Marsden and Zack 2010; Sengupta and Siliciano 2018; Murray et al. 2016).

Post-integration latency, and thus a stable virus reservoir, is established at an early stage of an HIV infection (Chomont et al. 2009; T. Pierson et al. 2000; T. W. Chun et al. 1998). As resting CD4 T cells naturally survive for long time periods, the major impediment to eradicate HIV is the stability of the HIV reservoir with a half-life ranging from 6 to 44 months. Based on this half-life, complete elimination of the HIV reservoir by decay under efficient cART would require more than 70 years (J. D. Siliciano et al. 2003; Finzi et al. 1997; Zhang et al. 1999; Ramratnam et al. 2000).

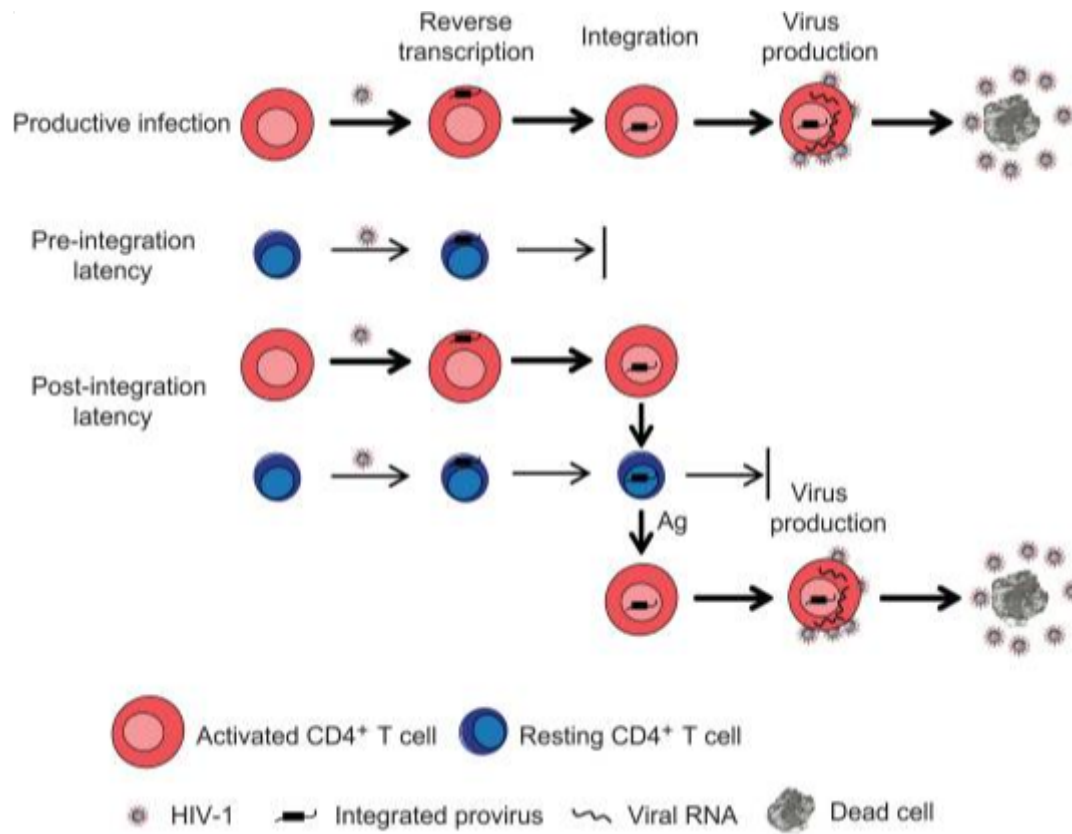


Figure 16. Scheme of HIV productive and latent infection. During HIV infection of activated CD4 T cells, HIV achieves all necessary steps which lead to virus production and possibly death of infected cells (productive infection). Apart from productive infection, two forms of latency exist: Pre-integration latency is established when HIV infects resting CD4 T cells, but HIV fails to integrate into the host genome. It is labile form of latency and eases with time. Post-integration latency is caused when HIV infects activated CD4 T cells, and completes provirus formation while these cells revert to a resting state in which gene transcription is shut down. HIV can also infect resting CD4 T cells and complete provirus integration albeit at low efficiency. Once latently infected resting CD4 T cells encounter an antigen (Ag), they may get activated and produce HIV progeny. Figure is taken from (Shan and Siliciano 2013).

2.2 Strategies to eradicate HIV reservoirs

As current cART alone cannot cure an HIV infection, additional approaches to fight the HIV/AIDS pandemic have been designed. One of the proposed strategies is called “Kick and kill”. Latent HIV provirus is reactivated or “kicked” by latency-reversing agents (LRAs) which induce viral transcription and protein production. The host immune system will then be able to recognize viral antigens and eliminate, “kill”, reactivated cells via CTLs (Spivak and Planelles 2018; Shan et al. 2012; Castro-Gonzalez, Colomer-Lluch, and Serra-Moreno 2018). Different groups of LRAs have been classified according to their mechanism of action. (i) Protein kinase C (PKC)

agonists like bryostatin, prostatin or phorbol myristate acetate (PMA). They initiate NF- κ B signaling by PKC pathway activation that enhances viral transcription (Rullas et al. 2004; Bullen et al. 2014). (ii) Histone deacetylase inhibitors (HDACi) like SAHA/vorinostat, romidepsin or panobinostat. Histone deacetylation of provirus-containing chromatin regions usually lead to inhibition of HIV transcription (Van Lint et al. 1996). Inhibition of histone deacetylation then reactivates HIV RNA synthesis as shown *in vitro* as well as *in vivo* (N. M. Archin et al. 2012; Nancie M. Archin et al. 2009; Ke et al. 2015). (iii) Disulfiram. This drug is usually used for alcoholic addiction therapy. In addition, it has been proven to reactivate latently infected primary cells through protein kinase B (Akt) pathway activation (Doyon et al. 2013). (iv) Bromo and Extra-terminal domain inhibitors (BETi) has been also classified as LRAs, but their mechanisms of action remain unclear (Castro-Gonzalez, Colomer-Lluch, and Serra-Moreno 2018). (v) In 2018, a new compound with latency reversal activity has been identified. Maraviroc, a novel LRA which binds to the CCR5 coreceptor and induces HIV transcription through NF- κ B activation (Madrid-Elena et al. 2018). Even though this strategy seems to be working *in vitro*, there have been some difficulties in clinical trials. Different scientific groups are still trying to design the right combination of LRAs to achieve HIV reservoir reductions (Ho et al. 2013; Dolgin 2013; Laird et al. 2015).

An alternative approach, called “Block and lock”, has been described recently. The aim of this strategy is to “block” the HIV promoter by using latency-promoting agents (LPAs) and then secure the shut-off or “lock” of HIV transcription. Various compounds are being tested for use in this procedure - Levosimendan (Hayashi et al. 2017), telomerase-derived peptide G1V001 (Kim et al. 2016), or Curaxin 100 and Didehydro-Cortisatin repressing the step of transcriptional elongation (Jean et al. 2017; Mousseau et al. 2015). It is still unclear how LPAs can effectively target the latently infected cells, hence more detailed studies are required in this area (Castro-Gonzalez, Colomer-Lluch, and Serra-Moreno 2018).

2.3 HIV latency maintenance and regulation

Within an adult organism, the T cell pool is maintained by antigen-driven proliferation or homeostatic proliferation (HSP) mediated by cytokines (Boyman et al. 2007). Interleukin 7 (IL-7) and interleukin 15 (IL-15) are mediating memory CD4 T cell homeostasis (Surh and Sprent 2008; Seddon, Tomlinson, and Zamoyska 2003). As memory CD4 T cells form the biggest part of the HIV reservoir, HSP has been suggested to be a major component of its maintenance (J. D. Siliciano et al. 2003; Chomont et al. 2009). Indeed, our own work and that of others suggest that HSP does not per se lead to re-activation of latent HIV or SIV (Tsunetsugu-Yokota et al. 2016a; Kumar et al. 2018). Thus, T cell homeostasis by HSP seems compatible with maintenance of the latent HIV reservoir (Surh and Sprent 2008; Seddon, Tomlinson, and Zamoyska 2003).

On the mechanistic level of a single HIV-infected cell, latency means lack of viral protein production. This may be due to inhibition of transcription or post-transcriptional blocks. The process of transcription can be silenced by (i) lack of transcription factors NF- κ B or NFAT (nuclear factor of activated T cells) (Kinoshita et al. 1997; Nabel and Baltimore 1987), (ii) DNA methylation (Harbers et al. 1981; Lavie et al. 2005; Marsden and Zack 2010) or (iii) histone modification (Marsden and Zack 2010; Verdin, Paras, and Van Lint 1993). Other studies hint to post-transcriptional blocks in HIV latency. HIV cannot be efficiently reactivated from latently infected memory CD4 T cells (Mohammadi et al. 2014). Upon the treatment with SAHA and disulfiram, only the viral RNA level has been enhanced but protein expression remained low. A post-transcriptional block has also been described in naive latently infected CD4 T cells (Tsunetsugu-Yokota et al. 2016b). While viral protein expression remains low, HIV provirus transcripts have been found. Another study identified RNA surveillance protein UPF1 which stabilizes HIV RNA at post-transcriptional level (Ajamian et al. 2008). Depletion of UPF1 protein in latently infected J-lat cell line resulted in reduced viral RNA levels and thus attenuated HIV reactivation (Rao et al. 2018). According to all these facts, HIV latency is a process that might be controlled and regulated by various mechanisms (Marsden and Zack 2010; Kobayashi-Ishihara et al. 2018).

3 The Schlafen family

3.1 Characteristic of Schlafen genes (*Slfns*)

The Schlafen gene family has been discovered in 1998 as regulators of T cell maturation in mice. The name Schlafen, which in German means “to sleep”, was based on the observation that enhanced expression of *Schlafen1* (prototype in mice) resulted in G₀/G₁ cell cycle arrest (Schwarz, Katayama, and Hedrick 1998).

Slfns are broadly expressed genes, mostly conserved in human and mice. Ten mouse *Slfns* have been described (*m-Slfn1*, *m-Slfn1L*, *m-Slfn2*, *m-Slfn3*, *m-Slfn4*, *m-Slfn5*, *m-Slfn8*, *m-Slfn9*, *m-Slfn10* and *m-Slfn14*) clustered on chromosome 11 (Mavrommatis, Fish, and Plataniias 2013a; Geserick et al. 2004a). There are six human *Slfns* (*h-Slfn5*, *h-Slfn-11*, *h-Slfn12*, *h-Slfn12L*, *h-Slfn13* and *h-Slfn14*) clustered on chromosome 17 (van Zuylen et al. 2011; Recher et al. 2014). Both, human and mouse *Slfns*, are divided into three groups according to the structure and size of the proteins they encode (**Figure 17**). The shortest Schlafen proteins (SLFNs) with a molecular weight from 37 to 42 kDa belong to Group I (Bustos et al. 2009; Neumann et al. 2008). All SLFNs harbour an AAA domain that plays a role in ATP/GTP binding and a unique motif called “Schlafen box” whose function is not yet clearly understood. SLFNs with 58 to 68 kDa are in Group II while the longest SLFNs (~100 kDa) are part of Group III (Mavrommatis, Fish, and Plataniias 2013b; Geserick et al. 2004b). Group II and Group III share the common SWADL domain. The function of this specific amino-acid motif (Ser-Trp-Ala-Asp-Leu) is unknown. Only the SLFNs from Group III contain a C' terminal extension with a helicase domain corresponding to RNA/DNA helicases of superfamily I which are known to be involved in DNA and RNA metabolism (Mavrommatis, Fish, and Plataniias 2013b; Geserick et al. 2004b; Patel et al. 2009). Mouse SLFNs are differentially localized in the cell. Group I and II SLFNs are cytoplasmic proteins while long SLFNs were found in the nucleus. This finding is also supported by the appearance of a nuclear localization sequence (NLS) in the C' terminal extension of SLFNs from Group III. Similar studies about human SLFNs have not been reported yet (Neumann et al.

2008). Although the Schlafen protein family has been now studied for 20 years, information about this family is still incomplete.

3.2 Functions of Schlafen proteins

SLFNs are involved in multiple mechanisms in several cell types. **(i)** They play a role in cell proliferation and T cell differentiation. SLFN1 indirectly regulates the fate of NIH 3T3 cells by blocking the induction of cyclin D1 which is an essential factor for cell proliferation (Brady et al. 2005). SLFN2, 5, 8, 9 and 10 affect the cellular pathways that control T cell development and activation (Mavrommatis, Fish, and Plataniias 2013c; Geserick et al. 2004a; Berger et al. 2010). **(ii)** SLFNs are associated with cancer. SLFN5 regulates the expression of matrix metalloproteinase genes and thus inhibits the aggressive growth and invasiveness of renal carcinoma cells (Sassano et al. 2015). SLFN11 was suggested as a novel biomarker for colorectal carcinoma treatment (Tian et al. 2014). It was also found to increase resistance to platinum-based chemotherapy in patients with lung cancer (Nogales et al. 2016). SLFN12 is affecting differentiation of prostate cancer cells (Kovalenko and Basson 2014) and its interaction with the phosphodiesterase 3A increases sensitivity to the DNMDP treatment in cancer cell lines (de Waal et al. 2016). **(iii)** SLFNs possess RNA cleavage activity. SLFN13 was termed RNase S13 because of its ability to cleave transfer (t)RNA and ribosomal (r)RNA. A structural study revealed that the N-terminus of SLFN13 cuts RNA at a specific cleavage site (Yang et al. 2018). Endoribonuclease SLFN14 was described as one of the main ribosome-associated proteins in rabbit reticulocytes. It preferentially cleaves rRNA over different kinds of RNA (Pisareva et al. 2015).

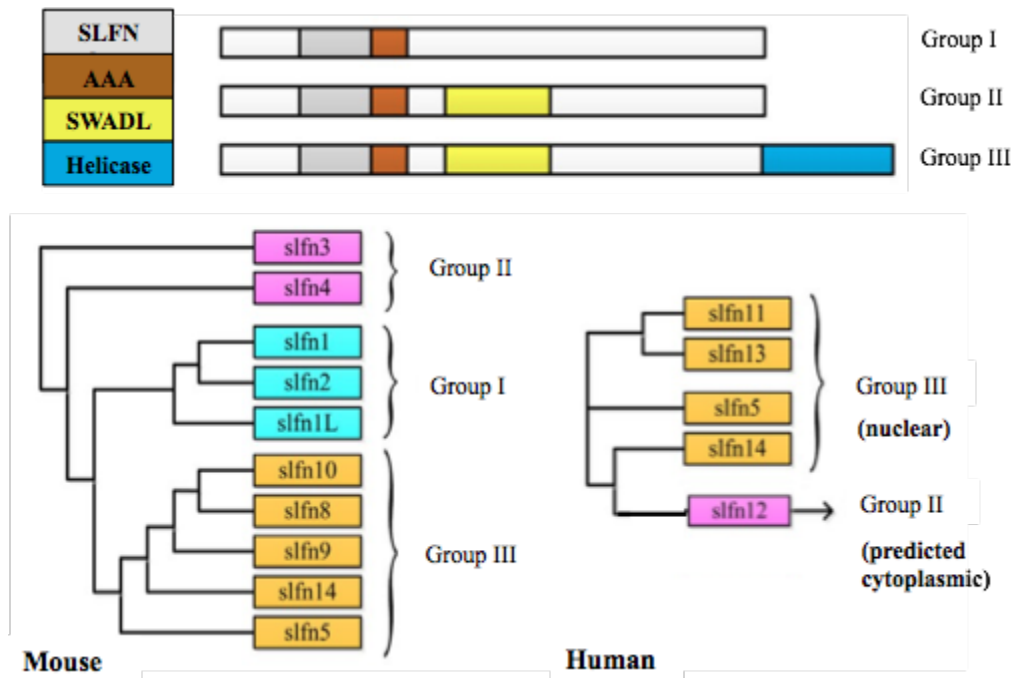


Figure 17. The Schlafen protein family of human and mouse: Schlafen genes are divided into three groups. Group I (in light blue colour) contain only mouse members (*Sfn1*, *Sfn2* and *Sfn1L*). In Group II (purple) are two mouse members (*Sfn3* and *Sfn4*) and human *Sfn12*. Group III (orange) has 4 mouse (*Sfn10*, *Sfn8*, *Sfn9*, *Sfn14* and *Sfn5*) and 4 human Schlafen genes (*Sfn11*, *Sfn13*, *Sfn5* and *Sfn14*). Human *Sfn12L* (green) does not belong to any group. All SLFNs contain an AAA domain (brown) and a SLFN box (grey) attached to it. The SWADL sequence (yellow) is shared between the members of Group II and III. Group III has an additional C-terminal extension with a helicase domain (dark blue). The figure is modified from (F. Liu et al. 2018).

3.3 Schlafen proteins suppress production of different viruses

Viral infection triggers type I interferon (IFN-I) production and signaling. Infected cells produce IFN-I when viral components are recognized. IFN-I then stimulates expression of many interferon-stimulated genes (ISGs). Products of these genes show antiviral activity (Schoggins and Rice 2011; Schoggins 2014; Calonge et al. 2017; Kane et al. 2016; Short 2009). As SLFN gene expression is also induced by IFN-I, SLFNs are categorized as ISGs (Mavrommatis, Fish, and Plataniias 2013c; F. Liu et al. 2018). An antiviral activity of some of the SLFN proteins against RNA and DNA viruses has been demonstrated during the last years.

In 2012, human SLFN11 has been described as a novel host restriction factor which suppresses HIV-1 protein synthesis in a codon-usage-dependent manner (M. Li et

al. 2012). Later, it was found that human SLFN11 is also able to inhibit other retroviruses such as murine leukemia virus (MLV) and feline immunodeficiency virus (FIV) (Stabell et al. 2016). Therefore the antiretroviral effect of SLFN11 was classified as host-specific but virus-independent. This conclusion was supported by another study where broad screening of ISGs revealed macaque and human SLFN12 antiretroviral activity (Kane et al. 2016). Equine SLFN11 restricts late but not early proteins of equine infectious anemia virus (EIAV). This selective inhibition is based on codon optimality which confirmed the same mechanism as in the case of human SLFN11 (Lin et al. 2016). In 2017, inhibition of influenza wild-type PR8 virus (wtPR8) and varicella-zoster virus (VZV) by SLFN14 has been reported (Seong et al. 2017). The authors suggested a mechanism involving the enhancement of RIG-I-mediated IFN-beta signaling. Furthermore, in the same work, SLFN13 was also proven to suppress wtPR8. Most recently, the inhibitory effect of SLFN13 on HIV-1 and ZIKA virus production was shown (Yang et al. 2018). The authors proposed that SLFN13 might use nucleolytic activity to suppress HIV-1 replication. Together these data suggest that the SLFN protein family participates in the defence against a variety of viruses with diverse mechanisms.

OBJECTIVES

The process of homeostatic proliferation (HSP) contributes to the persistence of the HIV reservoir. While a dormant state of HIV provirus can be switched to productive infection in T-cell receptor (TCR)-activated memory CD4 T cells, HSP-cultured naive CD4 T cells are not susceptible to HIV reactivation. This might be due to distinct mechanism of HIV reversal in HSP-cultured cells. This thesis has 3 objectives:

1. To identify differentially expressed genes in HSP-cultured naive CD4 T compared to TCR-activated memory CD4 T cells that may restrict HIV protein production.
2. To characterize the mechanism of action of potentially novel HIV restriction factors.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

1. Cell culture

ACH2 cells (NIH AIDS Reagent Program) were cultured in RPMI medium (Gibco) supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS, Sigma Aldrich) and 1% of penicillin/streptomycin mix (P/S, Gibco). HEK293T cells (ATCC) and TZM-bl cells (NIH AIDS Reagent Program) were maintained in DMEM medium (Gibco) supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated FBS and 1% P/S. All cell types were incubated at 37°C in presence of 5% CO₂.

2. Naive CD4 T cells isolation and cultivation

Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC) from three healthy donors (two males and one female) were isolated from blood samples of healthy donors by Histopaque-1077 density centrifugation. Briefly, the blood was diluted 1:1 in PBS (Lonza) and layered over Histopaque solution (Sigma-Aldrich) in a ratio 1:3. Then the 20 minutes centrifugation was performed at 600g and room temperature without break. After centrifugation, PBMCs were washed in PBS twice. From enriched PBMCs, CD4 T naïve cells were isolated using the Naïve CD4 T cell Isolation Kit II (Miltenyi Biotec) following the manufacturer's instruction. Purified naive CD4 T cells were cultured under 4 different conditions for 13 days: HSP condition – cell cultured with IL-15 and 7 (10 µg/ml, PeproTech), HSP+TCR condition – cells cultured with IL-15 and 7 and activated by anti-CD3 (5 µg/ml, BD Biosciences) and CD28 (1 µg/ml, BD Biosciences) on day 12, TCR condition – cells activated with anti-CD3/CD28 on day 0 and cultured with IL-2 (2 ng/ml, PeproTech), TCR+TCR condition – cells activated with anti-CD3/CD28 on day 0, cultured with IL-2 and second time activated with anti-CD3/CD28 at day 12.

3. RNA-sequencing and bioinformatic analysis

Total RNA from cultured cells was isolated according to the manufacturer's instructions using Qiagen RNeasy Micro kit (Qiagen). RNA was submitted for sequencing to Genomics Unit of Centre for Genomic Regulation (CRG, PRBB). The

quality and concentration of RNA were determined by an Agilent Bioanalyzer. Sequencing libraries were obtained after removing ribosomal RNA by a Ribo-Zero kit (Illumina). cDNA was synthesized and tagged by addition of barcoded Truseq adapters. Libraries were quantified using the KAPA Library Quantification Kit (KapaBiosystems) prior to amplification with Illumina's cBot. Four libraries were pooled and sequenced (single strand, 50nts) on an Illumina HiSeq2000 sequencer to obtain 50-60 million reads per sample. RNA-seq reads were mapped against the *Homo sapiens* reference genome (GRCh37.p13) with the GEMtools RNA-seq pipeline (http://gemtools.github.io/docs/rna_pipeline.html). Genes were quantified with the same pipeline with using the Gencode version 19 as an annotation. Normalization was performed with the edgeR TMM method (Robinson and Oshlack 2010). Differential expression analysis was performed with the 'robust' version of the edgeR R package (X. Zhou, Lindsay, and Robinson 2014). Genes with a false discovery rate (FDR)<5% were considered significant. Gene ontology (GO) enrichment analysis was performed with DAVID (<http://david.ncifcrf.gov/>) (Huang, Sherman, and Lempicki 2009).

4. RNA extraction and quantitative PCR

Total RNA was extracted from cells and treated with DNase I according to the manufacturer's instructions using Qiagen RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen). 100 to 1000 ng RNA was reverse-transcribed into cDNA in total volume of 20 μ l using SuperScript IV Reverse Transcriptase (ThermoFisher). 2 μ l of cDNA was used for quantitative PCR (qPCR) in 10 μ l reaction mix with 2 μ l of 2 μ M forward and reverse primers and 5 μ l of 2x SYBR master mix (ThermoFisher). Each reaction was performed in triplicates in 384-well plate (Life Biotechnologies) in a QuantStudio 12K flex (ThermoFisher) using the following parameters: 2 min 50°C, 95°C 10 min, 40 cycles of 15 sec at 95°C and 60 sec at 60°C. Primers were designed using the program Primer Express 3.0 (Applied Biosystems) and obtained from Biomers. Sequences of the primers used in qPCR reactions can be found in **Table M1**.

Table M1. A list of primers used in qPCR reactions.

Gene	Strand	Sequence
<i>Slfn5</i>	Forward	5'-caa gcc tgt gtg cat tca taa-3'
	Reverse	5'- tct gga gta tat acc act ctg tct gaa-3'
<i>Slfn11</i>	Forward	5'-tgc agt ccc tcg tga ttg tc-3'
	Reverse	5'-atc tca tac tgc tgg gct gtg a-3'
<i>Slfn12</i>	Forward	5'-tgt ttg cta aag agc ctg att cc-3'
	Reverse	5'-ttt ggt tca gcc tcc acc at-3'
<i>Slfn13</i>	Forward	5'-gag aaa atg atg gac gca gat-3'
	Reverse	5'-aga ctc aaa ggc ctc agc aa-3'
<i>Slfn14</i>	Forward	5'-ggg ggt cat gat gct gga ta-3'
	Reverse	5'-tga tga aat cag gca aga gtt g-3'
<i>eGFP</i>	Forward	5'-cag cag aac acc ccc atc-3'
	Reverse	5'-tgg gtg ctc agg tag tgg tt-3'
<i>HIV-gag</i>	Forward	5'-tgc atg ggt aaa agt agt aga aga ga-3'
	Reverse	5'-tga taa tgc tga aaa cat ggg ta-3'
<i>HIV-gag</i> (optimized)	Forward	5'-cat cta caa gcg ctg gat ca-3'
	Reverse	5'-gtc ttg aag aag cgg tcc ac-3'
<i>HIV-RNA</i> (total)	Forward	5'-gcc gcc tag cat ttc atc ac-3'
	Reverse	5'-aaa gct cga tgt cag cag tct t-3'

<i>snoRNA</i>	Forward	5'-cca cga gga aga gag gta gc-3'
	Reverse	5'-cac tca gac cgc gtt ctc tc-3'
<i>18S RNA</i>	Forward	5'-caa gac gga cca gag cga aa-3'
	Reverse	5'-ggc ggg tca tgg gaa taa c-3'

5. Cloning and plasmids

5.1 Construction of pmCherry vector expressing SLFN11/SLFN12

The original vectors encoding SLFN11/12 sequences were acquired from Dharmacon as glycerol stocks, clone MGS: 59997 (SLFN11) and clone MGS: 45076 (SLFN12). They were streaked on the agar plate and left overnight at 37°C. Single colonies were taken and placed into 5 ml of LB media containing Ampicillin or Chloramphenicol, respectively (50 µg/mL) and cultures were left to grow overnight. Using the Plasmid Miniprep Kit (Qiagen) the plasmid DNA was isolated and used as a template to amplify the coding sequences of SLFN11/12. PCR reaction was performed in a total volume of 50 µl that includes 0.3 µg plasmid DNA, 1 µl of dNTP mix, 5 µl of 10x Pfu Buffer, forward and reverse primers at the concentration of 10 µM, and 0.5 µl of Pfu polymerase. Each reaction was performed in Peltier Thermal Cycler - 100 (BioRad) using the following parameters: Initial denaturation for 1 min at 95°C, 35 cycles of 30 sec at 95°C, 30 sec at 65°C, 5 min at 74°C, and final extension for 5 min at 74°C. Sequences of the primers used in PCR reactions can be found in **Table M2**. PCR product was isolated from agarose gel by PureLink, Quick Gel Extraction Kit (Invitrogen) and cloned into pmCherry expression vector (ClonTech) in between NheI and HindIII restriction sites by overnight ligation of insert and vector in ratio 3:1, using T4 DNA Ligase (Promega). 2 µl of ligates was transformed into the 50 µl of DH5α competent E.coli cells (NEB) by heat-shock transformation strategy. Transformants were streaked on Kanamycin agar plates (50 µg/mL) and left overnight at 37°C. Single colonies were taken and placed into 5 ml of LB media and cultures were left to grow overnight in the presence of Kanamycin (50 µg/mL).

pmCherry vectors encoding SLFN11 or SLFN12 (pmCherry-SLFN11/pmCherry-SLFN12) were prepared according to manufacturer's instructions using the Plasmid Miniprep Kit (Qiagen).

5.2 HIV-gag wild-type and HIV-gag optimized expressing vectors

The vector expressing HIV-1 wild-type gag sequence (pGag-wt) was a kind gift from Yasuko Tsunetsugu-Yokota (Yoshizawa et al. 2001). To generate HIV-1 codon-optimized gag expressing vector (pGag-opt), the plasmid p96ZM651gag-opt was obtained from NIH AIDS Reagent Program. We cut HIV-gag optimized sequence by BamHI and NotI restriction enzymes (NEB) and ligated into pEF-BOS_bsr (a kind gift from Yasuko Tsunetsugu-Yokota), keeping the ratio 3:1 (insert:vector).

5.3 Retrovirus vector expressing shRNA against SLFN11 or SLFN12

The short-hairpin RNA (shRNA) sequence against SLFN12 was designed by using BLOCK-iT™ RNAi Designer online tool (<http://rnaidesigner.thermofisher.com/rnaiexpress>). The shRNA sequence against SLFN11 was obtained from The RNAi Consortium (shRNA sequence #TRCN0000148990). Retrovirus vectors carrying the shRNA sequences were constructed by inserting annealed oligonucleotides into a pSIN-siU6 vector (Takara) between BamHI and ClaI restriction sites. As a negative control pSIN-siU6 vector expressing shRNA scramble sequences was used (a kind gift from Dr. Yamagishi). Specific shRNA sequences against SLFN11 and SLFN12 can be found in **Table M3**.

6. Transfection of HEK293T cells

In order to overexpress specific genes, HEK293T cells were seeded in 24-well plate (Greiner Bio-One) with density 2.5×10^5 , and after 24h co-transfected with construct pmCherry-SLFN11/ pmCherry-SLFN12 (500 ng/well) along with vector HIV-pNLE (500 ng/well, a kind gift from Yasuko Tsunetsugu-Yokota), or with pGag-wt/ pGag-opt (250 ng/well) together with construct pmCherry-SLFN11/ pmCherry-SLFN12 (250 ng/well) using Lipofectamine 2000 (2.5 μ l/well, Invitrogen). A 6h post

transfection fresh medium was replaced and the cells were kept at 37°C with 5% CO₂ for 24 or 48 hours.

Table M2: A list of primers used in PCR reactions.

Gene	Strand	Sequence
<i>Slfn11</i>	Forward	5'-gat ccg cta gca tgg agg caa atc agt gcc ccc tgg ttg-3'
	Reverse	5'-att cga agc tta tgg cca ccc cac gga aaa ata tac ag-3'
<i>Slfn12</i>	Forward	5'-atc cgc tag cat gaa cat cag tgt tga ttt gga aac gaa tta tg-3'
	Reverse	5'-ttc gaa gct tgg tga gcc ttc gac aag att taa aca tc-3'

Table M3. A list of shRNA sequences cloned to prepare retrovirus encoding shRNA against SLFN11 and SLFN12.

shRNA	Strand	Sequence
<i>Slfn11</i>	Top	5'-gat ccg ctc aga att tcc gta ctg aac tcg agt tca gta cgg aaa ttc tga gct ttt tta t-3'
	Bottom	5'-cga taa aaa agc tca gaa ttt ccg tac tga act cga gtt cag tac gga aat tct gag cg-3'
<i>Slfn12</i>	Top	5'-gat ccg cag aat ggt aac tac ttt ctc gaa aga aag tag tta cca ttc tgc ttt ttt at-3'
	Bottom	5'-cga taa aaa agc aga atg gta act act ttc ttt cga gaa agt agt tac cat tct gcg-3'

7. DNA Sequencing

Sequences of constructs pmCherry-SLFN11 and pmCherry-SLFN12 were checked by Sanger sequencing in 96-capillary 3730xl DNA Analyzer (Applied Bioscience). The primers were designed using the program Primer Express 3.0 (Applied Biosystems), sequences can be found in **Table M4**. Six primers for pmCherry-SLFN11 and four primers to sequence pmCherry-SLFN12 have been used. The method was performed by Genomics Core Facility, UPF.

Table M4. A list of primers used in DNA sequencing reactions.

Gene	Primer number	Sequence
<i>Slfn11</i>	1	5'-cgc aaa tgg gcg gta ggc gtg-3'
	2	5'-ggg gta tac caa gag ctc cct aac tc-3'
	3	5'-aaa ggc ctg gaa cat aaa aag ga-3'
	4	5'-ctt act cgg ctt cag gtc tct ctt-3'
	5	5'-agg tat ttc ctg aag ccg aat g-3'
	6	6'-aca tgg cca tca tca agg agt t-3'
<i>Slfn12</i>	1	5'-cgc aaa tgg gcg gta ggc gtg-3'
	2	5'-ttg acc ttt act gaa tcc aca cat g-3'
	3	5'-agg gct cac tga tct tct cta gga-3'
	4	5'-atc ttg tcg aag gct cac caa-3'

8. Establishment of SLFN11 and SLFN12 knock-down ACH2 cells

To prepare recombinant retroviruses carrying the shRNAs, HEK293T cells were seeded in 6-well plate (Greiner Bio-One) with density 6×10^5 cells/well and co-

transfected with pSIN-siU6 - shSLFN11/ shSLFN12/ shSc (2 µg) along with plasmids pGP(1 µg, Takara) and pPE amphi (1 µg, Takara) using 12 µl of Lipofectamine 2000 per well. At 48h after transfection, the supernatant was harvested and added into ACH2 cells (1 ml of supernatant/10⁵ cells). Transduction was done by spinoculation (1200 xg, 25°C, 2h). Pelleted cells were resuspended in 500µl of RPMI with 10% FBS and placed into 24-well plate. Selection of the transduced cells was done by adding G418 (1 mg/ml, InvivoGen) into the cell at 48h after transduction. Cells were kept in culture for at least two weeks. SLFN11 and SLFN12 knockdown expression was validated by qPCR (as described above).

9. HIV reactivation in SLFN11 or SLFN12 knock-down ACH2 cells

ACH2 cells with blocked expression of SLFN11 and SLFN12 (as described above) were seeded in 24-well plate and treated with DMSO (0.01%, Sigma-Aldrich) or SAHA-Vorinostat (0.5 µM, Sigma-Aldrich). At 48h after treatment, some of the cells were lysed for RNA or protein isolation. At 72h after treatment, supernatants were harvested to test for virus titer by TZM-bl luciferase assay (as described below).

10. TZM-bl luciferase assay

Virus titers in supernatants from transfected HEK293T cells and HIV-reactivated ACH2 cells (as described above) were determined by the TZM-bl assay. The culture supernatants were filtered and pelleted by 4h centrifugation at 4°C in pellet sucrose buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl (pH=7.4), 100 mM NaCl, 0.5 mM EDTA, 20% sucrose). Pellets were resuspended in 40 µl PBS. In total 11 serial dilutions of supernatants were prepared and added into fresh TZM-bl cells (10⁴ cells/well) in 96-well flat-bottom culture plate (Greiner Bio-One). After 72h incubation at 37°C, 5% CO₂ the luciferase activity was measured on Centro LB 960 Microplate Luminometer (Berthold Technologies) using Britelite Plus™ (PerkinElmer) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Based on the luciferase level TCID₅₀ was calculated.

11. Western Blot

The cells were lysed with 1x passive lysis buffer (Promega), fast-frozen in liquid nitrogen and kept at -80°C overnight. Next day a cell debris was removed by centrifugation at full speed for 5 min and supernatants were mixed with 2x Leamml buffer, heated at 97°C for 5 min, transferred to the nitrocellulose membrane and proceed to immunoblot using specific antibodies. Detection was done by using secondary antibodies conjugated with horseradish peroxidase (HRP). Protein bands were developed on Medical X-Ray Blue Films (AGFA) using PierceTM ECL Plus Western Blotting Substrate or SuperSignal WestFemto Maximum Sensitivity Substrate (Thermo Scientific) and quantified in Image-J software. List of the antibodies used in the immunoblotting assay can be found in **Table M5**. HIV protein gp160 was detected and developed by using New LAV Blot I HIV diagnosis kit (BioRad), following manufacturer's instructions.

12. Polysome profiling

HEK293T were co-transfected with pmCherry/ pmCherry-SLFN11/ pmCherry-SLFN12 (12 µg) and HIV-pNLE (12 µg) using Lipofectamine 2000 (48 µl) in a T-150 culture dish (Thermo Fisher Scientific). In order to freeze elongation ribosomes, 48h after transfection cells were treated with 10 ml of DMEM containing cycloheximide (CHX, 100 µg/ml) during 2 min at 37°C and washed with 10 ml of PBS containing CHX (100 µg/ml) using the vacuum system. Cells were lysed with 700µl of lysis buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl (pH=7.4), 10 mM MgCl₂, 100 mM NaCl, 1% Triton X100, 2 mM DTT, 100 ug/ml CHX), scraped and immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C. Cell lysates were thawed at 25°C and centrifuged at 12 000 xg, 5min, 4°C and the supernatants were transferred to new tubes. After quantification, aliquots of 8 UA₂₆₀ were made and stored at -80°C. Linear gradients of 10%-50% sucrose were prepared in polysome buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl (pH=7.4), 10 mM MgCl₂, 100 mM NH₄Cl). The Gradient Master (Biocomp) was used for making the gradients in polyallomer tubes (Beckman Coulter). One aliquot of 8 UA₂₆₀ was loaded on each gradient and centrifuged in Beckman SW41 rotor at 35 000 RPM, 3h, 4°C. Gradients were fractionated with fraction collector Model 2128 (BioRad). These fractions were

used for phenol: chloroform RNA extraction or TCA-acetone protein precipitation and analyzed by qPCR or Western Blot, respectively.

Table M5. A list of antibodies used for immunoblotting method.

Product Name	Company	Cat. Number
mCherry Polyclonal Antibody	ThermoFisher Scientific	PA5-34974
Anti-Glyceraldehyde-3-Phosphate Dehydrogenase, clone 6C5	Merck	MAB374
anti-HIV-1 p24 Monoclonal (91-5)	NIH	1238
anti-HIV-1 Nef Monoclonal (AG11)	NIH	1124
GFP Antibody (B-2)	Santa Cruz	sc9996
Amersham ECL Anti-Mouse IgG	GE Healthcare	NA931
Amersham ECL Anti-Rabbit IgG	GE Healthcare	NA934
Peroxidase-conjugated AffiniPure Goat Anti-Human IgG	Jackson ImmunoResearch	109-035-003

13. Separation of cytoplasmic and nuclear RNA

HEK293T cells were transfected with pmCherry/ pmCherry-SLFN11/ pmCherry-SLFN12 along with HIV-pNLE (as described above). At 24h after transfection the cells were lysed with lysis buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl (pH=7.5), 10 mM NaCl, 1.5 mM MgCl₂, 10 mM Vanadyl complex (NEB), 1% NP-40 (Sigma-Aldrich) and kept on ice

for 5 min. After centrifugation at 3000 RPM for 5 min at 4°C, supernatant (cytoplasmic fraction) was transferred to a new tube and nuclear pellet was resuspended in the lysis buffer without Vanadyl complex and MgCl₂. To extract RNA from each fraction, an equal volume of Roti-Aqua-PCL (Carl Roth) was added and centrifuged at 16000 xg for 5 min at room temperature. The aqueous phase was transferred into a new tube and subjected to a chloroform extraction and ethanol precipitation. The ethanol precipitation was done by adding 0.3 volumes of 3 M Sodium Acetate, 3 volumes of 100% EtOH (Merck) and 1 µl of glycogen (Roche). After 15 min incubation at -80°C, samples were centrifuged for 15 min at maximum speed at 4°C. The supernatant was discarded and the pellet was resuspended in 1 ml of 70% EtOH, and proceed to a centrifugation for 5 min at maximum speed at 4°C. The RNA pellet was dissolved in Diethyl Pyrocarbonate (DEPC)-treated water, and followed by TURBO DNA-free kit (Ambion) for DNA removal. Expression levels of HIV-gag RNA and total HIV RNA were analyzed by qPCR.

14. Calculating and visualizing a gene-wise codon adaptation index (CAI)

For all hg38 RefSeq genes, we used the seqinr (v.3.3-6) and ggplot2 (3.1.0) R-packages and codon weights obtained from CAIcal (http://genomes.urv.es/CAIcal/CU_human_nature).

RESULTS

1. SLFN12 is differentially expressed in naive CD4 T cells under HSP and TCR conditions

HIV latently infected naive and memory CD4 T cells behave differently towards latency reversal (Tsunetsugu-Yokota et al. 2016b). The dormant state of HIV proviruses cannot be switched to productive infection in HSP-cultured naive CD4 T cells, while TCR-stimulated memory CD4 T cells are susceptible to HIV reactivation. One way to decipher the mechanisms that contribute to the HIV refractory state of naive CD4 T cells cultured under homeostatic proliferation (HSP) conditions, is an analysis of their transcriptomic profile. Therefore we aimed to analyze genes that are differentially expressed (DE) in naive (HSP) compared to memory (TCR) CD4 T cells.

Naive CD4 T cells were purified from peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC) of three healthy donors (Purity > 90%), and cultured under four different conditions: cells cultured with IL-7 and IL-15 (HSP-cultured naive CD4 T cells) before and after T-cell receptor (TCR) activation at day 12 (HSP and HSP+TCR cultures), and cells cultured with IL-2 after anti-CD3/CD28 activation (TCR-cultured memory CD4 T cells) before and after second TCR activation at day 12 (TCR and TCR+TCR cultures; **Figure R1 A**). At day 13, RNA was isolated and processed for transcriptome analysis by RNA-seq. From 16,380 genes mapped to the human reference genome database, we were looking for those that are differentially expressed in naive CD4 T cells under HSP condition compared to memory CD4 T cells with or without TCR stimulation. Based on fold change (FC) of these genes in both comparisons we classified them into two main groups (**Figure R1 B**): genes significantly upregulated in TCR-cultured memory CD4 T cells compared to HSP-cultured naive CD4 T cells before and after TCR activation (Group I, 167 DE genes; **Table S1**), and genes upregulated in HSP-cultured naive CD4 T cells compared to TCR-cultured memory CD4 T cells before and after TCR activation (Group II, 648 DE genes) (**Table S2**).

Analysis of genes from Group I that were highly upregulated in TCR-cultured memory CD4 T cells compared to HSP-cultured naive CD4 T cells before and after

TCR activation (FC>2; **Table S3**), showed a significant enrichment on the terms like cell-cell signaling, immune response and regulation of T cell activation (**Table S4**). They contain genes such as *IL12a*, *Ccl17*, *Cxcl10* or *Hla-dqa1* that play roles in T cell regulation and T cell responses (Gately et al. 1991; Henry et al. 2008; Norose et al. 2011; Tree et al. 2004). From 648 DE genes in Group II, 304 were highly upregulated in HSP-cultured naive CD4 T cells compared to TCR-cultured memory CD4 T cells before and after TCR stimulation (FC<-2) (**Table S5**). Most of them are involved in defense and immune responses (**Table S6**). Interestingly, GO enrichment analysis showed an upregulation of 4 genes involved in TLR-signaling (*Tlr4*, *Tlr2*, *Irak2*, *Irak3*; **Figure R1 C**). These results are of particular interest since they indicate that HSP-cultured naive CD4 T cells might quickly induce an innate immune response upon TLR-mediated signaling that might contribute to the suppression of HIV-reactivation on these cells upon TCR stimulation. Further analysis of genes with FC<-2 from group II allowed the identification of 20 genes involved in transcription regulation. Some of them have been previously described to inhibit HIV infection or reactivation such as *RNase2* acting against viral single-stranded RNA (Rugeles et al. 2003; Bedoya et al. 2006), *Irf8* maintaining HIV latency by repressing IRF-1 mediated activation through the HIV-1 promoter (Munier et al. 2005), or *Tle1* and *Uaca* as repressors of NF- κ B transcription (L. Liu et al. 2009; Ghosh et al. 2007); **Figure R1 C**). All together, these results show that HSP-cultured naive CD4 T cells have a transcriptional signature refractory to HIV infection and reactivation, even before TCR stimulation.

Restriction factors (RFs) affect different steps of the HIV life cycle (Jia, Zhao, and Xiong 2015), and therefore we focused on the analysis of RFs in our dataset. To note, *Apobec3g*, an HIV RF that induces mutation of viral single strand DNA during the process of reverse transcription (Bishop et al. 2008; Harris and Liddament 2004), was the only known RF significantly upregulated in HSP-cultured naive cells compared to memory CD4 T cells before and also after TCR stimulation. This is in concordance with previous results showing that *Apobec3g* expression is enhanced in presence of IL-7 and IL-15 (Stopak et al. 2007). Since previous results of ours strongly suggested a post-transcriptional block of HIV in HSP-cultured naive CD4 T cells (Tsunetsugu-Yokota et al. 2016b), we aimed to find potentially novel RFs repressing late stages of the HIV life cycle. Therefore we compare genes from Group

II to members of 16 gene families (**Table S7**) which contain HIV restriction factors. From 82 matching genes, only 28 were from the same families as RFs affecting HIV life cycle stages following transcription. Products of 22 of these genes have been previously described to interact with HIV proteins or indirectly influence HIV infection. To identify novel potential RFs suppressing HIV reversal from latency in HSP-cultured naive CD4 T cells, we focused on six genes which have not been previously reported to affect HIV (**Table S8**). *Bcl2l2* and *Spred1* are both from gene family of protein phosphatase 1 regulatory subunits. *Bcl2l2* encodes a protein that belongs to Bcl-2 proteins which are usually involved in apoptosis and cell survival regulation (Tsujiimoto 1998). *Spred1* is a member of the family of Sprouty proteins and regulates activation of MAP-kinase signaling (Guy et al. 2009). *Ppp1r26* and *Ppp1r9A* are both regulatory subunits of protein phosphatase 1. *Plxnc1* is from the family of clusters of differentiation (CD) molecules. The protein belongs to plexins, transmembrane receptors that mainly influence cell motility (Roney, Holl, and Ting 2013). The last gene, *Slfn12* (**Figure R1 D**) is a member of a small family containing five genes that express Schlafen proteins (SLFNs). SLFN11 has been classified as RF repressing HIV protein translation (not found in our group II; (M. Li et al. 2012). Moreover, SLFN13 and SLFN14 attenuate production of different viruses (Yang et al. 2018; Seong et al. 2017). Based on this, we hypothesized that SLFN12 might be another member of the Schlafen family with antiviral activity. To verify differential expression of SLFN12 in HSP and TCR cultured CD4 T cells, we isolated naive CD4 T cells from PBMCs of 5 additional healthy donors and cultured them under the four different conditions (described in Figure R1 A). RNA was then extracted and SLFN12 mRNA quantified by qPCR (**Figure R1 E**). Our results were consistent with RNAseq data, therefore we moved to further experiments with a focus on the influence of SLFN12 on HIV production and latency reversal.

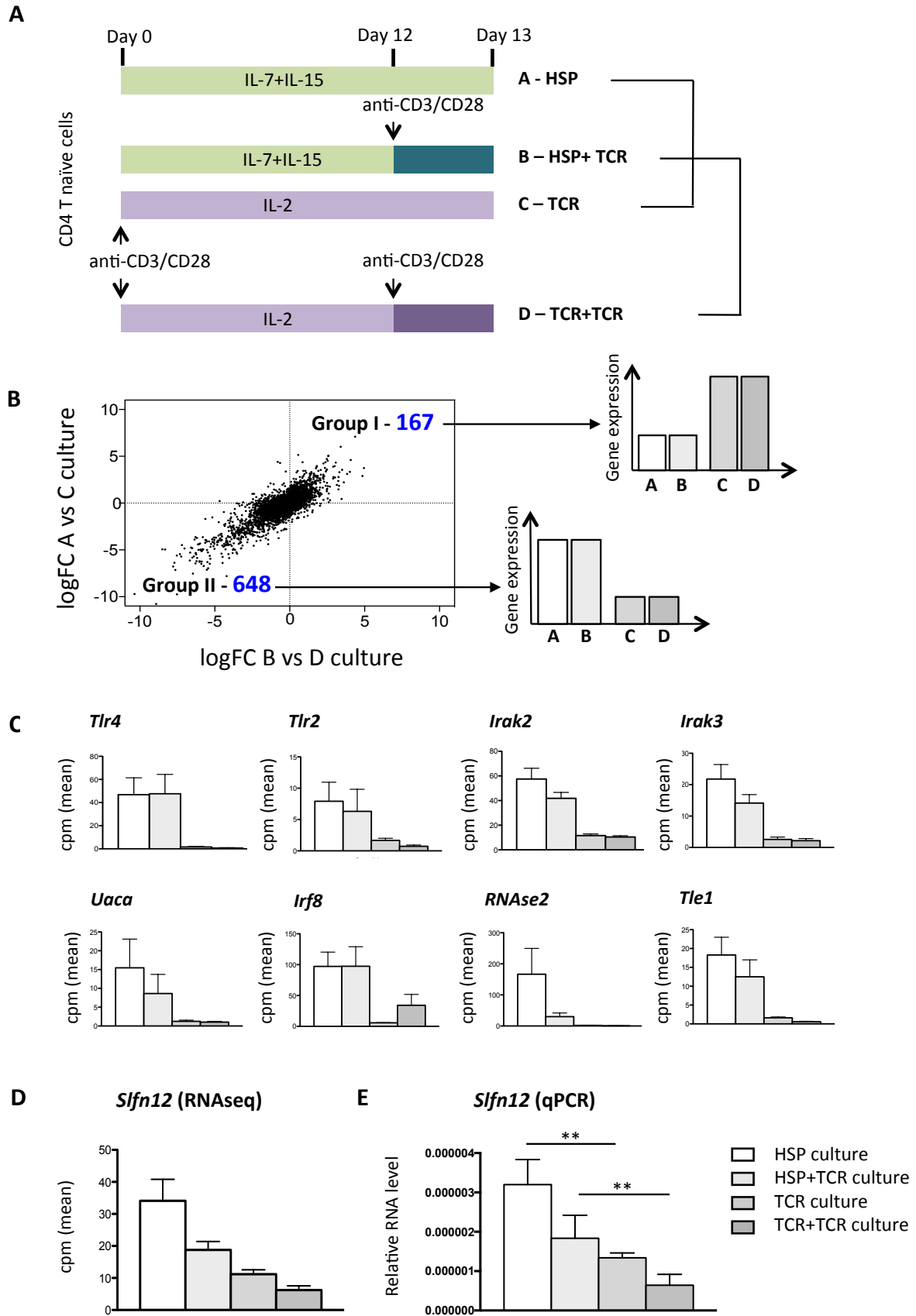


Figure R1. Differentially expressed genes in naive CD4 T cells cultured under HSP and TCR conditions. A - Naive CD4 T cells were cultured under four different conditions for 13 days: In

presence of IL-7 and IL-15 with or without activation by anti-CD3/CD28 at day 12 (A-HSP and B-HSP+TCR cultures). In presence of IL-2 after activation with anti-CD3/CD28 with or without second activation by anti-CD3/CD28 at day 12 (C-TCR and D-TCR+TCR cultures). At day 13 RNA was isolated and processed to transcriptomic analysis to analyze differentially expressed (DE) genes between cultures HSP and TCR and cultures HSP+TCR and TCR+TCR. B - Identification of different gene groups according to fold-change (FC) of DE genes. Group I - 167 DE genes with $FC > 0$ in HSP compared to TCR culture before and after activation by anti-CD3/CD28. Group II - 648 DE genes with $FC < 0$ in HSP compared to TCR culture before and activation by anti-CD3/CD28. The left part of the figure represents theoretical examples of gene expression pattern in each group. C - Genes highly upregulated ($FC < -2$) in HSP compared to TCR culture before and after activation by anti-CD3/CD28. D - Expression pattern of *Sfn12*. Error bars in figures C and D represent standard error of the mean (SEM; $n=3$; see Material and Methods section for details in bioinformatics analysis). E - mRNA levels of SLFN12 in naive CD4 T cells under four different conditions validated by qPCR. RNA levels were normalized to 18S rRNA levels. Error bars represent standard deviations (SD) in 5 additional healthy donors. ** $p \leq 0.01$; *** $p \leq 0.001$ (unpaired two-tailed t-test).

2. SLFN12 and SLFN11 inhibit HIV reactivation from latently infected ACH2 cells

The biggest impediment in HIV cure is the HIV reservoir formed by latently infected cells. These cells are resistant to antiretroviral therapy and they have a long half-life *in vivo*. One way to eradicate the latent reservoir is to reactivate the virus from the dormant state to produce viral progeny. Viral antigens will then be recognized by the immune system and CTLs will eliminate infected cells (Shan and Siliciano 2013). However, the efficiency of HIV reactivation *in vivo* is very low. This might be due to so far unknown regulators of HIV latency that have to be targeted in order to make latently infected cells more susceptible to HIV reversal. As the process of HIV latency is controlled by many factors and new ones are still to be discovered, we tested whether SLFN11 and 12 contribute to the maintenance of HIV provirus latent state.

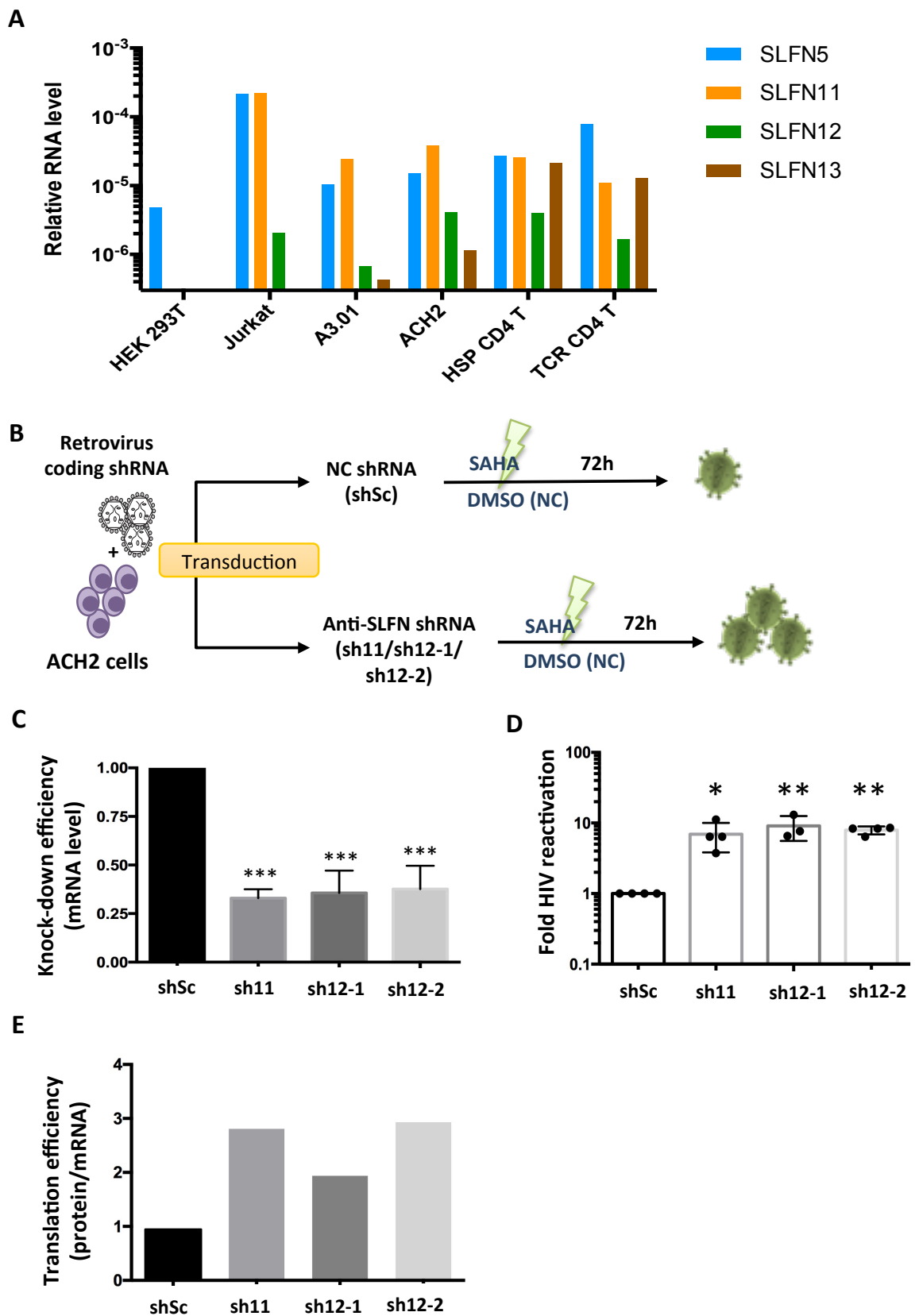
First, we examined SLFN gene expression profiles in different cell lines (**Figure R2 A**). Comparing mRNA levels of different SLFNs in T cells (Jurkat, A3.01 and ACH2 cells) and embryonic kidney HEK 293T cells, we found that HEK 293T cells express only SLFN5 while SLFN13 was found in all tested cells. SLFN11 and 12 were expressed in Jurkat, A3.01 cells and in latent HIV provirus containing ACH2 cells. ACH2 cells have a similar expression pattern of SLFN11 and SLFN12 like naive CD4 T cells under HSP condition. Given that HSP has been suggested to maintain HIV

latent reservoir and that ACH2 cell line is a well-established model for HIV latency, we used these cells to study the effect of SLFN11 and SLFN12 on HIV reactivation from latently infected cells. Expression of SLFN14 was not found in any of the tested cell lines.

In order to establish ACH2 cells with knockdown expression of SLFN11 or SLFN12, we first produced recombinant retroviruses expressing shRNA against SLFN11 (shSLFN11), SLFN12 (shSLFN12-1/ shSLFN12-2) or scramble shRNA (shSc - mock). HEK293T cells were co-transfected with pSIN-siU6 vectors encoding specific shRNA sequences together with a plasmid expressing Gag-Pol and an amphotropic *env* expression vector. Supernatants were harvested and added in ACH2 cells for spinoculation. Transduced ACH2 cells, selected by G418 were then treated with an HDAC inhibitor, SAHA (also known as Vorinostat) to reactivate latent HIV provirus. DMSO treatment was used as a negative control (**Figure R2 B**). Expression of SLFN11 or SLFN12 was sufficiently suppressed by specific shRNA on mRNA level (**Figure R2 C**). After treatment with SAHA or DMSO, we took supernatants from ACH2 cells and titrated them in TZM-bl cells. We observed an enhanced HIV production in reactivated ACH2 cells with knock-down expression of SLFN11 or SLFN12 (**Figure R2 D**). Moreover, the translation efficiency of the HIV-p24 protein increased in ACH2 cells when SLFN11 and SLFN12 expression was diminished by shRNA knock-down (**Figure R2 E**). All together, these results show that SLFN11 and SLFN12 control HIV reversal from latently infected T cells by repressing the translation efficiency of the HIV-p24 protein.

Figure R2. SLFN11 or SLFN12 are involved in HIV latency maintenance. A - mRNA expression of SLFN family members in different cell lines and CD4 T cells under HSP and TCR condition normalized by 18S rRNA levels. B - Latently infected ACH2 cells were transduced with retrovirus expressing specific shRNA against SLFN11 (shSLFN11), SLFN12 (shSLFN12-1/ shSLFN12-2) or scramble shRNA (shSc). HIV was then reactivated with SAHA or DMSO (negative control) treatment in ACH2 cells with knockdown expression of SLFN11 or SLFN12. 72 hours post-reactivation, supernatants were harvested to measure HIV production. C - Knockdown efficiency of SLFN11 or 12 mRNA expression by specific shRNA. D - HIV reactivation from latently infected ACH2 cells with blocked SLFN11 or SLFN12 expression was significantly enhanced. Fold HIV reactivation has been determined by titration of supernatants in TZM-bl cells and normalized to the basal level (DMSO treated samples). Error bars in Figures C and D represent standard deviations (SD, n=3 or 4). Statistical analyses were done by one-way Anova test (*p ≤ 0.1; ** p ≤ 0.01; *** p ≤ 0.001). E - Increased translation efficiency after HIV reactivation with SAHA in ACH2 cells with blocked SLFN11 or SLFN12 expression (representative example). HIV-p24 protein expression after SAHA treatment

was normalized to the basal level (HIV-p24 protein expression after DMSO treatment). Relative HIV-gag mRNA levels from SAHA treated cells were normalized to the basal level (relative HIV-gag mRNA from DMSO treated cells). Translation efficiency was calculated as a ratio of normalized HIV-p24 protein levels to HIV-gag mRNA normalized levels.



3. SLFN12 inhibits HIV production at the post-transcriptional level

Given that SLFN11 is an HIV restriction factor attenuating viral protein synthesis (M. Li et al. 2012), we aimed to test whether SLFN12 also influences HIV production. First, we constructed pmCherry expressing vectors encoding SLFN11 or SLFN12 (pmCherry-SLFN11/ pmCherry-SLFN12; **Figure R3 A**). E-coli was transformed with original plasmids encoding SLFN11 or SLFN12. DNA was isolated from single colonies and used as a template to amplify SLFN11 or SLFN12 sequence by PCR reaction. The PCR products were purified and cloned between the NheI and HindIII restriction sites of the pmCherry expression vector. SLFN11 and SLFN12 were separately fused into the mCherry protein using a natural linker (the detailed cloning strategy is described under Material and Methods).

In contrast to the knock-down experiment which we used to test the effect of SLFN11 and 12 on HIV latency, we here used an overexpression system. HEK 293T cell line does not express SLFN11 or SLFN12 (**Figure R2 A**). Therefore we co-transfected HEK 293T cells with pmCherry-SLFN11 (positive control), pmCherry-SLFN12 or empty pmCherry vector (mock) together with the HIV-NLE plasmid. 48 hours post-transfection, supernatants and cell lysates were collected and used for further analysis (**Figure R3 B**). Transfection efficiency was determined by mCherry protein levels from cell lysates (**Figure R3 C**). Like SLFN11, SLFN12 also affected HIV production. The HIV titer, as well as the HIV-p24 protein level in the supernatant, were strongly diminished by SLFN12 expression (**Figure R3 D**). Western blot analysis with specific antibodies also revealed that SLFN12, as SLFN11, inhibited expression of the gp160 envelope protein, the p24 Gag protein and the Nef accessory protein (**Figure R3 E**). We did not observe any changes in enhanced green fluorescent protein (eGFP) derived from pHIV-NLE or GAPDH which suggested that SLFN12 does not cause a global protein synthesis shutdown. No significant effect on spliced or unspliced HIV RNA was observed, demonstrating that SLFN12 does not influence HIV RNA processing (**Figure R3 F**). All together these results showed that SLFN12, like SLFN11, selectively inhibits HIV protein synthesis. Moreover, as HIV mRNA levels were not affected by SLFN11 or SLFN12, we suggest that both contribute to an HIV post-transcriptional block.

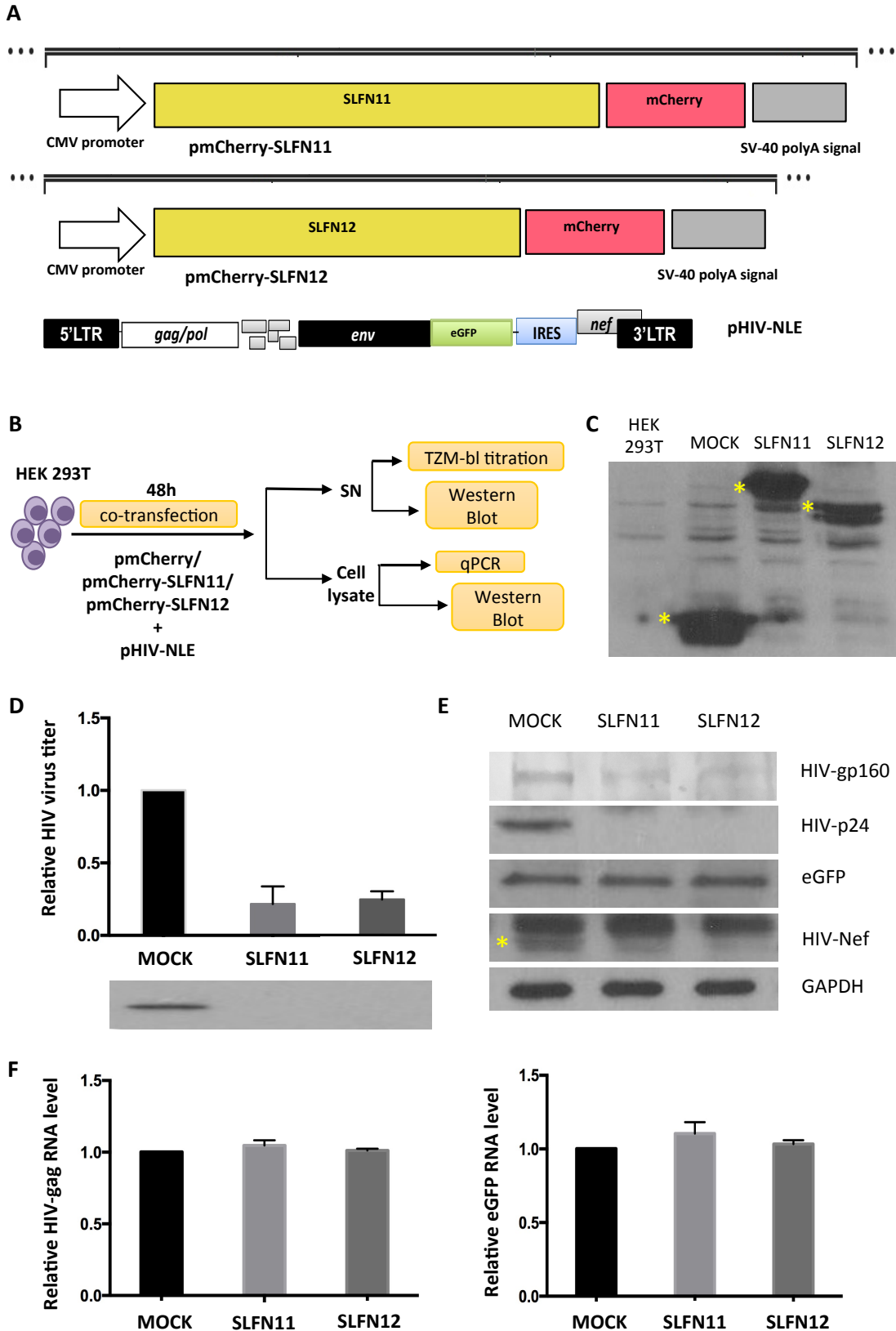


Figure R3. SLFN12 inhibits HIV protein synthesis without affecting HIV mRNA. A - Schematic maps of molecular plasmids used in following experiments. pmCherry vector encoding SLFN11 (pmCherry-SLFN11) or SLFN12 (pmCherry-SLFN12) with specific features (from left): CMV promoter in white, SLFN11/SLFN12 sequence in yellow, mCherry protein sequence in pink and SV-40 polyA

termination signal in grey. pHIV-NLE molecular strain from 5'end: long terminal repetition (LTR), gag/pol open reading frame (ORF), env ORF, eGFP sequence, internal ribosome entry site (IRES), gene nef and 3'LTR. B - HEK 293T cells were co-transfected with pmCherry-SLFN11/ pmCherry-SLFN12 or pmCherry empty vector (mock) along with pHIV-NLE. 48 hours after transfection, supernatants (SN) and cell lysates were collected and processed for further analysis. C - Transfection efficiency in HEK 293T cells. Western blot from co-transfected HEK 293T cells was performed with a specific antibody against the mCherry protein. mCherry bands are highlighted with the yellow star. D - HIV virus production is attenuated by SLFN12 expression. Supernatants from HEK 293T co-transfected cells were titrated in TZM-bl cells and also analyzed by western blot for HIV-p24 protein levels. HIV titer obtained from mock-transfected HEK 293T cells was assigned to 1. E - Western blot from cell lysates of HEK 293T co-transfected cells. Specific antibodies against HIV-gp160, HIV-p24, eGFP, HIV-Nef (the band of Nef is highlighted with the yellow star, abundant band above is non-specific) and GAPDH were used. F - HIV mRNA levels are not affected by SLFN12 expression. RNA isolated from co-transfected HEK 293T cells was analyzed by qPCR for HIV-gag and eGFP mRNA expression. mRNA levels were normalized to 18S RNA expression in each condition. mRNA levels from mock-transfected HEK 293T cells were assigned to 1. Error bars in Figures E and F represent standard deviations (SD; n=3).

4. SLFN12 and SLFN11 do not affect export of HIV mRNA

HIV generates three different species of mRNA - unspliced, single spliced and double spliced. All of them encode HIV proteins. The unspliced mRNA is also used as genomic RNA. In order to produce viral progeny, all HIV transcripts have to be efficiently exported to the cytoplasm. Normally, the cell does not allow a release of unspliced and incompletely spliced mRNAs from the nucleus. However, to omit nuclear checkpoints of the cell, HIV encodes the regulatory protein Rev that binds nascent viral pre-mRNAs and thus ensures their sufficient export to the cytoplasm (Hope 1997).

To test whether SLFN11 or SLFN12 affect HIV RNA distribution within the cell, we co-transfected HEK 293T cells with SLFN11, SLFN12 or empty pmCherry expressing vector together with pHIV-NLE. 24 hours post-transfection, cells were lysed using NP-40 lysis buffer to separate cytoplasmic (supernatant) and nuclear (cell pellet) fractions. Next, we isolated RNA from both fractions and measured mRNA levels of specific genes by qPCR (**Figure R4 A**). The efficiency of RNA separation was verified by the levels of cytoplasmic 18S rRNA and nuclear U3 snoRNA (**Figure R4 B**). 18S rRNA was enriched in the cytoplasm by 79% and U3 snoRNA by 75% in the nucleus. We didn't observe significant differences of HIV-gag

or total HIV RNAs in the presence of SLFN12 or SLFN11 (**Figure R4 C**). Thus, the inhibitory effect of SLFN12 on HIV production is not a consequence of altered HIV RNA export within the cell.

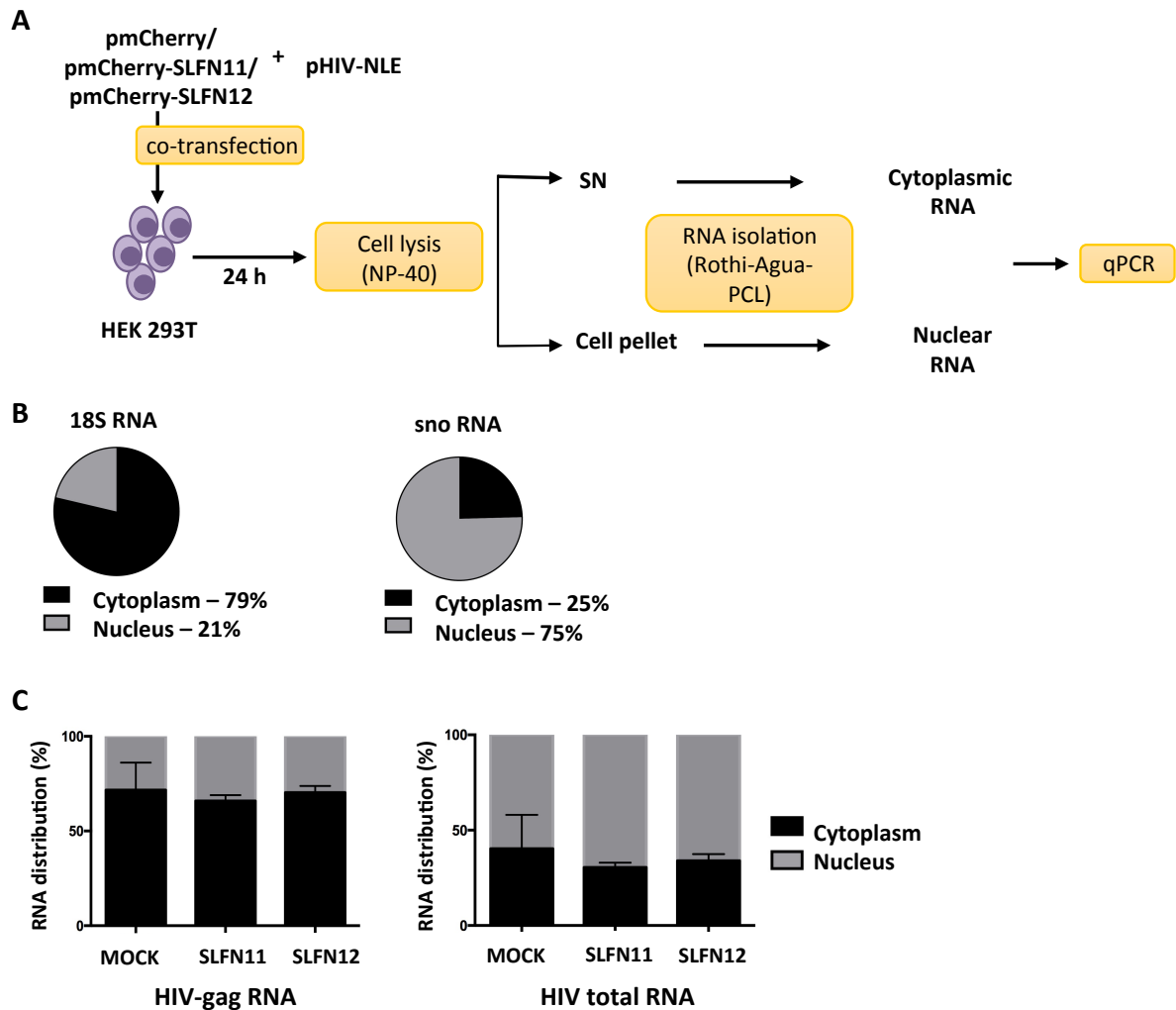


Figure R4. SLFN12 does not affect HIV RNA export from the nucleus. A - HEK 293T cells were co-transfected with pmCherry-SLFN11/ pmCherry-SLFN12 or pmCherry empty vector (mock) along with pHIV-NLE and lysed at 24 hours post-transfection. RNA was isolated from both, supernatant (cytoplasmic RNA) and cell pellet fraction (nuclear RNA) and analyzed by qPCR. B - Efficiency of separation of cytoplasmic and nuclear RNA. 18S RNA was used as a control for cytoplasmic RNA. U3 sno RNA was used as a control for nuclear RNA. Cytoplasmic and nuclear RNA distribution shown in percentage is calculated as an average of independent triplicates from mock-transfected HEK 293T cells. C - Distribution of HIV-gag RNA and HIV total RNA in transfected HEK 293T cells. The total amount of HIV-gag or HIV total RNA in both fractions (cytoplasmic and nuclear) was set to 100%. Error bars represent standard deviations of three independent samples. Statistical analyses were done by unpaired two-tailed t-test (not significant - ns).

5. SLFN12 selectively inhibits HIV-p24 expression in a codon-usage-dependent manner

The degeneracy of the genetic code allows that several synonymous codons can code for the same amino acid. However, some of these codons are more abundant than the others. The Codon Adaptation Index (CAI) is a general metric to analyze codon usage bias, based on codon frequency within the genome (P. M. Sharp and Li 1987). Genes enriched in highly frequent codons have generally higher CAI values (codon optimized genes) than genes with rare codons (non-optimized genes). When comparing the codon usage of wild-type HIV-1 proteins to RefSeq-based human coding sequences, it is apparent that all viral sequences harbour less optimal codons compared to most human transcripts as indicated by a lower CAI value (**Figure R5 A**). This is in concordance with the differences found in nucleotide sequences of human and HIV transcripts. While human genes are GC-rich, the HIV-1 genome has an unusual frequent use of adenosine in the third position of a codon (Keating et al. 2009; J.-P. Vartanian, Henry, and Wain-Hobson 2002). The A-rich codon-usage bias is mediated by G-to-A hypermutation which most probably occurs during the process of reverse transcription (Martinez, Vartanian, and Wain-Hobson 1994; J. P. Vartanian et al. 1997).

SLFN11 has been previously described to inhibit HIV translation in a codon-usage-dependent manner (M. Li et al. 2012). Therefore we compared the effect of SLFN12 on HIV-p24 protein production from wild-type (wt) and codon-optimized HIV-*gag* transcripts. HEK 293T cells were co-transfected with SLFN11 (positive control), SLFN12 or empty pmCherry vector along with a vector expressing HIV-*gag* wild-type sequence (pGag-wt) or HIV-*gag* sequence optimized to human codon usage (pGag-opt). Vector pGag-wt was a gift from Yasuko Tsunetsugu-Yokota, and pGag-opt was prepared by cloning the codon-optimized HIV-*gag* into the pEF-BOS_bsr vector. At 48 hours post-transfection, we analyzed protein and mRNA levels (**Figure R5 B**). Comparing to mock, SLFN12 strongly diminished translation of HIV-p24 protein transcribed from HIV-*gag* wt, however, protein expression in cells transfected with pGag-opt remained the same. We did not observe significant changes in HIV-*gag* wt or HIV-*gag* optimized mRNA transcripts caused by SLFN12 (**Figure R5 C and D**),

which confirms our earlier observation suggesting that SLFN12 inhibits HIV at the post-transcriptional level (Figure R3 E and F). Altogether these results demonstrated that attenuation of HIV protein production by SLFN12 is codon-usage dependent. The translation of mRNA transcripts with low CAI values is inhibited.

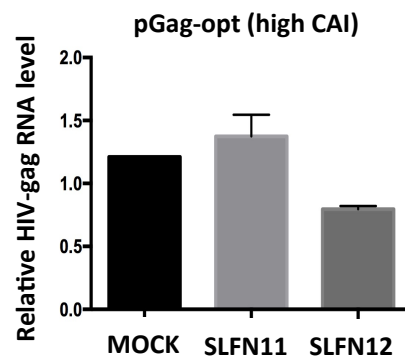
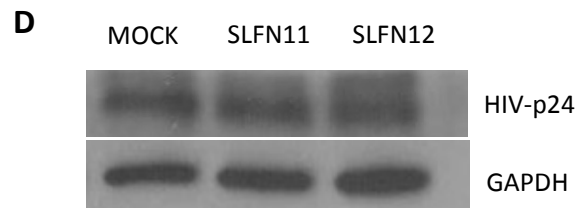
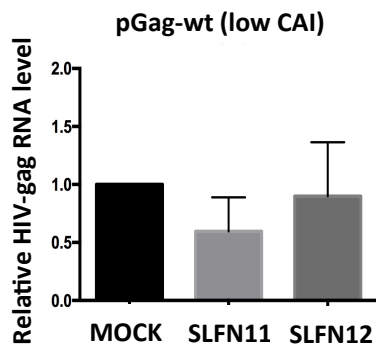
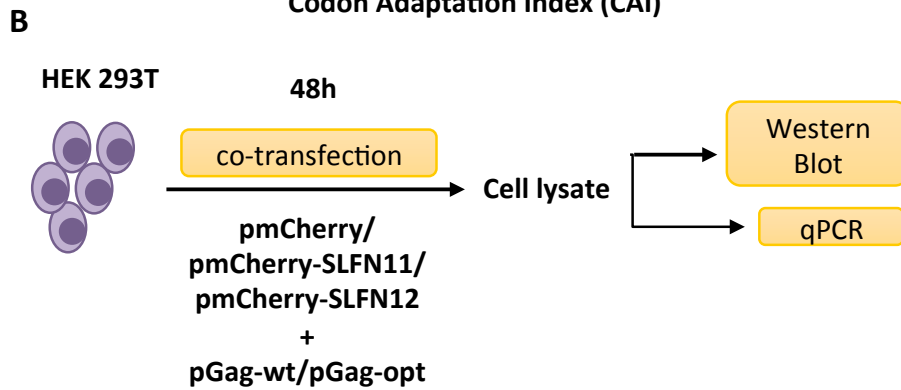
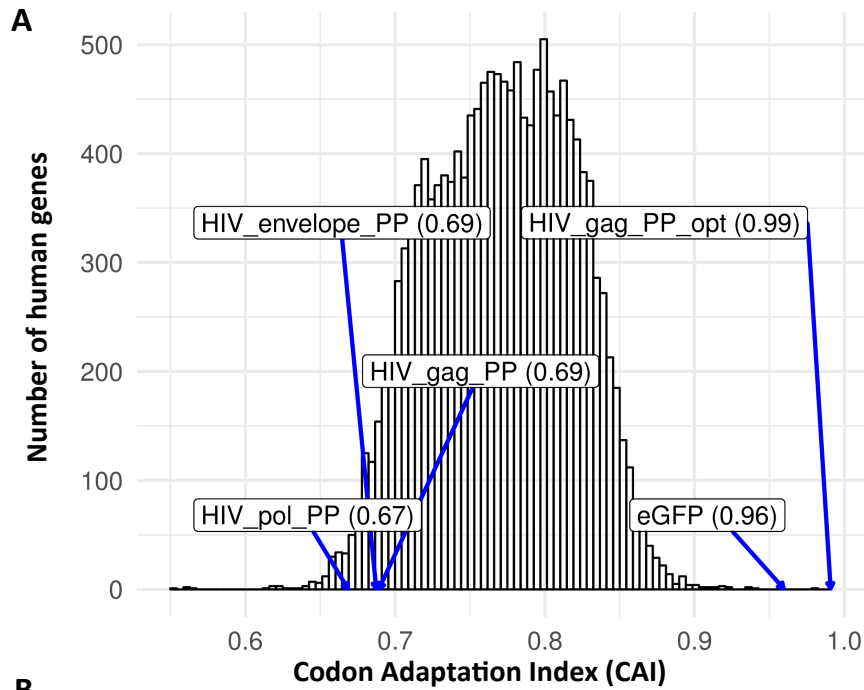


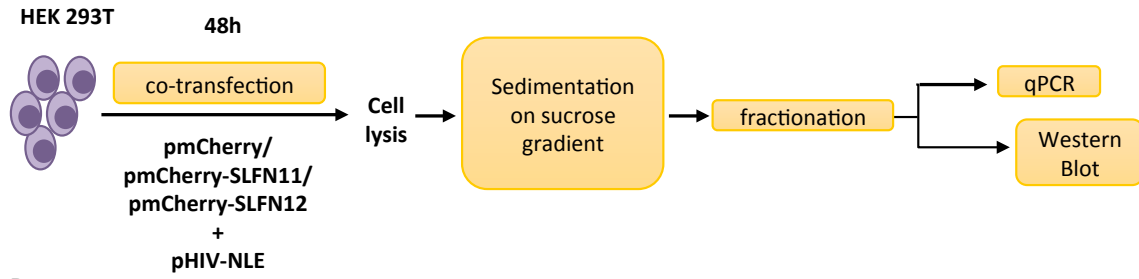
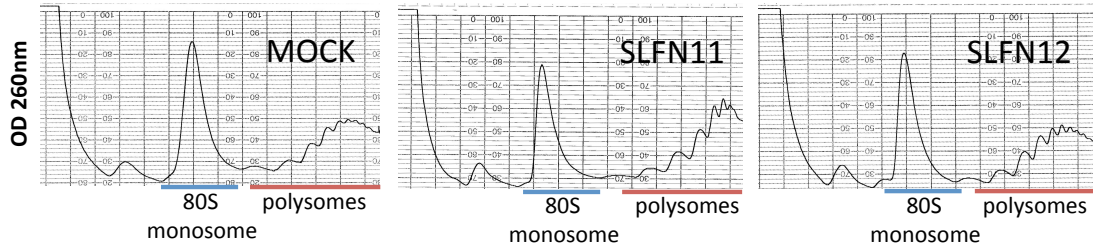
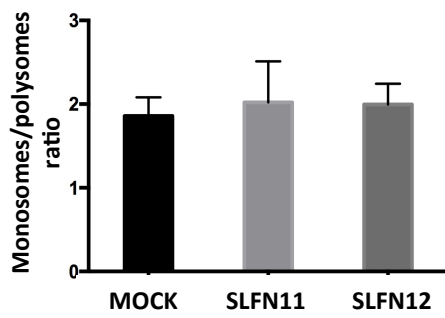
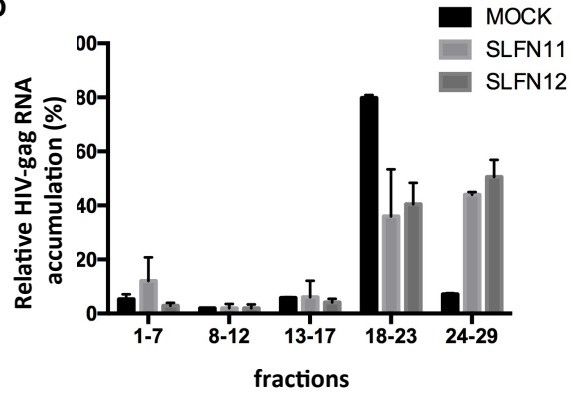
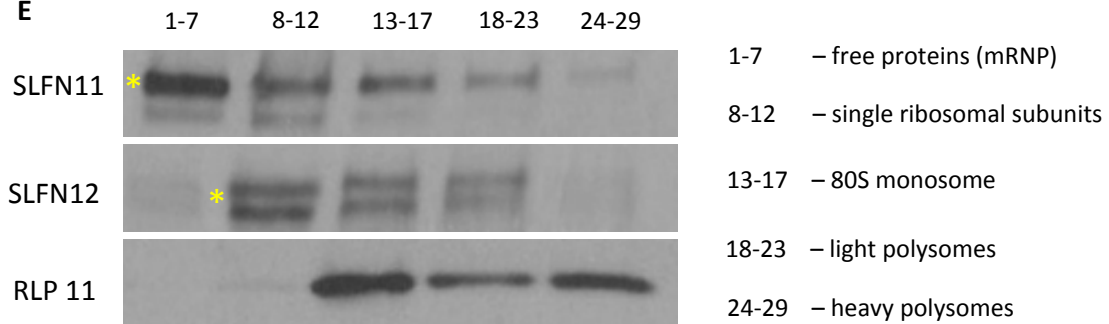
Figure R5. SLFN12 preferentially inhibits translation of HIV-p24 from transcripts with low CAI value. A - Histogram of codon adaptation indices (CAIs) of hg38 RefSeq transcripts. CAIs of HIV sequences and eGFP are highlighted for comparison. PP - polyprotein; opt – codon optimized sequence. Mean CAI for RefSeq transcripts: 0.77. B - SLFN11, SLFN12 or empty vector pmCherry (mock) were expressed in HEK293T cells together with HIV vector expressing HIV-gag wild-type sequence (pGag-wt) or HIV vector expressing HIV-gag optimized sequence (pGag-opt). 48 hours post-transfection cells were lysed and analyzed by western blot and qPCR. C - SLFN12 inhibits HIV-p24 wt protein expression. Upper panel - Western blot detection of HIV-p24 protein from HEK 293T cells expressing HIV-gag wt sequence. Down panel - Relative HIV-gag wt mRNA levels. D - SLFN12 does not affect HIV-p24 opt protein expression. Upper panel - Western blot detection of HIV-p24 protein from HEK 293T cells expressing HIV-gag optimized sequence. Down panel - Relative HIV-gag optimized mRNA levels. In Figures B and C: GAPDH was used as endogenous control in the immunoblotting analysis. mRNA levels of HIV-gag wt/optimized were normalized to 18S RNA. Error bars represent standard deviations of three independent samples. Statistical analysis was done by one-way Anova test (not significant - ns).

6. SLFN12 and SLFN11 do not affect initiation of HIV translation

Our previous results showed that both, SLFN11 and SLFN12 preferentially inhibited HIV translation whose RNAs are enriched in non-optimal codons. Codon usage bias has been described to regulate protein translation and protein folding efficiency (M. Li et al. 2012; Akashi 1994; Gingold and Pilpel 2011; Spencer et al. 2012). Recent studies suggest that the elongation rate is increased by using optimal codons and decreased by rare non-optimal codons (Qian et al. 2012; G.-W. Li, Oh, and Weissman 2012; Yu et al. 2015). To determine which step of HIV translation is affected by SLFN11 or SLFN12, we performed polysome profiling analysis in HEK 293T cells overexpressing SLFN11 or SLFN12 together with the pHIV-NLE vector. Cells were then lysed, centrifuged on a sucrose gradient, fractionated and analyzed by qPCR and western blot (**Figure R6 A**). UV absorbance profiles showed no significant differences comparing mock- to SLFN11/SLFN12-transfected cells. Moreover, the monosomes to polysomes ratio (M/P) was also similar (**Figure R6 B and C**). These results indicated that SLFN11 and SLFN12 do not affect global translation. Analysis of HIV-gag RNA distribution in the different fractions showed a shift of HIV-gag RNA from light polysomes towards heavy polysomes upon SLFN11 or SLFN12 expression (**Figure R6 D**). These results suggested that SLFN11 and

SLFN12 do not affect HIV translation initiation but function in translation elongation. The increase of ribosomes per HIV RNA upon SLFN11 and SLFN12 expression could be explained with slow or stuck ribosomes which is in agreement with the enrichment of rare codons inside the HIV RNA. Western blot analysis revealed a different distribution of SLFN11 and SLFN12 proteins within the fractions (**Figure R6 E**). With this result, we concluded that both SLFNs bind to ribosomal subunits and complete ribosomes.

Figure R6. SLFN11 and SLFN12 do not affect initiation of HIV translation. A - SLFN11, SLFN12 or empty vector pmCherry (mock) were expressed in HEK 293T cells together with pHIV-NLE. 48 hours post-transfection cells were lysed and centrifuged on a sucrose gradient. Gradients were then fractionated and processed by qPCR and western blot, respectively. B - UV absorbance profiles at 260 nm of lysed HEK 293T transfected cells after centrifugation on a 10-50% sucrose gradient. C - Ratio between monosomes and polysomes calculated for each sample shows no effect of SLFN11 or SLFN12 on global translation. D - Sucrose gradient analysis of HIV-gag RNA in HEK 293T cells expressing SLFN11 or SLFN12. Distribution of normalized HIV-gag RNA levels in different fractions. Fractions were pooled in free proteins (mRNP) (1-7), single ribosomal subunits (40S+60S) (8-12), 80S monosome (13-17), light (18-23) and heavy polysomes (24-29). The total amount of HIV-gag RNA in all fractions was set to 100%. Error bars in Figures C and D represent standard deviations (SD; n=3). E - Western blot of SLFN11 and SLFN12 protein distribution among different fractions. Specific bands of SLFN11 and SLFN12 are highlighted with the yellow star. RLP 11 ribosomal protein has been used as a control in the immunoblotting analysis.

A**B****C****D****E**

SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES

Supplementary Table S3. List of differentially expressed genes highly upregulated (fold-change FC>2) in TCR-cultured memory CD4 T cells compared to HSP-cultured naïve CD4 T cells before (A versus C) and after (B versus D) TCR activation.

Gene ID	Gene symbol	logFC A vs C	logFC B vs D
ENSG00000244734	HBB	3,734210042	4,951349244
ENSG00000189221	MAOA	7,09436472	4,374067053
ENSG00000215246	RP11-43F13.3	4,609328562	4,072311622
ENSG00000128683	GAD1	3,345804765	4,013649214
ENSG00000071909	MYO3B	3,127552477	3,834383649
ENSG00000205002	AARD	3,562364617	3,501544652
ENSG00000154096	THY1	6,010397244	3,409913431
ENSG00000227028	SLC8A1-AS1	3,310459782	3,31919302
ENSG00000151948	GLT1D1	2,795934707	3,25257683
ENSG00000039068	CDH1	2,374770256	3,240438183
ENSG00000113739	STC2	2,739220761	3,026480139
ENSG00000204252	HLA-DOA	3,939524632	3,005956468
ENSG00000168811	IL12A	2,786929245	2,932772775
ENSG00000099250	NRP1	2,63000307	2,907231213
ENSG00000145506	NKD2	3,895824291	2,906351563
ENSG00000102970	CCL17	5,020880473	2,568487407
ENSG00000196735	HLA-DQA1	4,540858546	2,541517235
ENSG00000122786	CALD1	2,167280725	2,489589715
ENSG00000213694	S1PR3	4,716192546	2,476463604
ENSG00000211897	IGHG3	3,518193354	2,452326883
ENSG00000165474	GJB2	4,364398617	2,39065388
ENSG00000147434	CHRNA6	3,769076214	2,351248971
ENSG00000159164	SV2A	2,297384656	2,285964008
ENSG00000237541	HLA-DQA2	4,236652144	2,259355335
ENSG00000100167	37865	2,592308292	2,259230376
ENSG00000146216	TTBK1	2,716044599	2,213968416
ENSG00000118402	ELOVL4	3,040990756	2,0881996
ENSG00000254126	CD8BP	3,54375816	2,077039492
ENSG00000002587	HS3ST1	2,633431026	2,029115955
ENSG00000169245	CXCL10	2,448361228	2,018675595

Supplementary Table S4. List of geneontology (GO) enriched terms from genes in Group I with fold change (FC)>2. Enrichment analysis was performed using DAVID (<http://david.ncicrf.gov/>).

GO Term	PValue	Gene ID
GO:0007267~cell-cell signaling	3,10E-05	ENSG00000128683, ENSG00000099250, ENSG00000102970, ENSG00000165474, ENSG00000189221, ENSG00000147434, ENSG00000169245, ENSG00000113739
GO:0006955~immune response	4,34E-03	ENSG00000168811, ENSG00000102970, ENSG00000204252, ENSG00000196735, ENSG00000211897, ENSG00000169245
GO:0050863~regulation of T cell activation	1,53E-02	ENSG00000168811, ENSG00000204252, ENSG00000154096
GO:0051249~regulation of lymphocyte activation	2,38E-02	ENSG00000168811, ENSG00000204252, ENSG00000154096
GO:0008284~positive regulation of cell proliferation	2,85E-02	ENSG00000168811, ENSG00000099250, ENSG00000213694, ENSG00000169245
GO:0002694~regulation of leukocyte activation	2,94E-02	ENSG00000168811, ENSG00000204252, ENSG00000154096
GO:0050865~regulation of cell activation	3,24E-02	ENSG00000168811, ENSG00000204252, ENSG00000154096
GO:0042133~neurotransmitter metabolic process	3,52E-02	ENSG00000128683, ENSG00000189221
GO:0051270~regulation of cell motion	3,88E-02	ENSG00000099250, ENSG00000169245, ENSG00000154096
GO:0050771~negative regulation of axonogenesis	3,99E-02	ENSG00000099250, ENSG00000154096
GO:0050877~neurological system process	4,14E-02	ENSG00000118402, ENSG00000128683, ENSG00000165474, ENSG00000189221, ENSG00000147434, ENSG00000071909
GO:0031345~negative regulation of cell projection organization	4,46E-02	ENSG00000099250, ENSG00000154096
GO:0009611~response to wounding	5,30E-02	ENSG00000099250, ENSG00000102970, ENSG00000213694, ENSG00000169245
GO:0007166~cell surface receptor linked signal transduction	7,05E-02	ENSG00000099250, ENSG00000102970, ENSG00000213694, ENSG00000145506, ENSG00000169245, ENSG00000113739, ENSG00000154096
GO:0050768~negative regulation of neurogenesis	7,07E-02	ENSG00000099250, ENSG00000154096
GO:0010721~negative regulation of cell development	7,53E-02	ENSG00000099250, ENSG00000154096
GO:0006952~defense response	0,07581433	ENSG00000168811, ENSG00000102970, ENSG00000213694, ENSG00000169245
GO:0007268~synaptic transmission	0,08370113	ENSG00000128683, ENSG00000189221, ENSG00000147434
GO:0050770~regulation of axonogenesis	0,08877442	ENSG00000099250, ENSG00000154096
GO:0006954~inflammatory response	0,09702717	ENSG00000102970, ENSG00000213694, ENSG00000169245

Supplementary Table S6. List of geneontology (GO) enriched terms from genes in Group II with fold change (FC)<-2. Enrichment analysis was performed using DAVID (<http://david.ncicfcr.gov/>).

GO Term	PValue	Gene ID	GO Term	PValue	Gene ID
GO:0006955~ immune response	6,66E-09	ENSG00000178789, ENSG00000221957, ENSG00000109684, ENSG00000140968, ENSG000000086730, ENSG00000164949, ENSG00000137462, ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000115594, ENSG00000170858, ENSG00000167633, ENSG00000172543, ENSG00000158869, ENSG00000203747, ENSG00000000971, ENSG00000156575, ENSG00000188822, ENSG00000150782, ENSG00000158517, ENSG00000197943, ENSG00000125498, ENSG00000103855, ENSG00000167236, ENSG00000167851, ENSG00000167850, ENSG00000125730, ENSG00000162711, ENSG00000137834, ENSG00000165178, ENSG00000136869, ENSG00000162747, ENSG00000186652, ENSG00000144648, ENSG00000169403	GO:002684 ~positive regulation of immune system process	5,10E-05	ENSG00000150782, ENSG00000090376, ENSG00000197943, ENSG00000130202, ENSG000000086730, ENSG00000103855, ENSG00000125730, ENSG00000137462, ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000134070, ENSG00000136869, ENSG00000158869, ENSG00000000971, ENSG00000165025
GO:0006952~ defense response	9,67E-08	ENSG00000189430, ENSG00000075651, ENSG00000205810, ENSG00000011600, ENSG00000211829, ENSG00000137462, ENSG00000092067, ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000115594, ENSG00000134070, ENSG00000050628, ENSG00000101439, ENSG00000000971, ENSG00000188822, ENSG00000205809, ENSG00000158517, ENSG00000000938, ENSG00000167236, ENSG00000167850, ENSG00000048052, ENSG00000125730, ENSG00000162711, ENSG00000180644, ENSG00000165178, ENSG00000169397, ENSG00000136869, ENSG00000096264, ENSG00000186652, ENSG00000189013, ENSG00000169403	GO:0050778 ~positive regulation of immune response	5,58E-05	ENSG00000137462, ENSG00000134070, ENSG00000197943, ENSG000000090376, ENSG00000158869, ENSG00000136869, ENSG00000000971, ENSG000000086730, ENSG00000130202, ENSG00000125730, ENSG00000165025
GO:0006968~ cellular defense response	2,41E-07	ENSG00000180644, ENSG00000189430, ENSG00000165178, ENSG00000205809, ENSG00000205810, ENSG00000158517, ENSG00000011600, ENSG00000096264, ENSG00000189013, ENSG00000211829, ENSG00000167850	GO:0002253 ~activation of immune response	7,19E-05	ENSG00000137462, ENSG00000134070, ENSG00000197943, ENSG000000090376, ENSG00000136869, ENSG00000000971, ENSG000000086730, ENSG00000165025
GO:0007166~ cell surface receptor linked signal transduction	9,23E-07	ENSG00000109684, ENSG00000085741, ENSG00000066056, ENSG00000134215, ENSG00000152804, ENSG00000126262, ENSG00000137462, ENSG00000115594, ENSG00000134070, ENSG00000139572, ENSG00000182732, ENSG00000158869, ENSG00000187037, ENSG00000150681, ENSG00000188822, ENSG00000111796, ENSG00000117114, ENSG00000197943, ENSG00000167236, ENSG00000198959, ENSG00000182885, ENSG00000137834, ENSG00000172380, ENSG00000108018, ENSG00000171659, ENSG00000144648, ENSG00000198719, ENSG00000171657, ENSG00000153707, ENSG00000198829, ENSG00000149403, ENSG00000134545, ENSG00000196781, ENSG00000086730, ENSG00000164949, ENSG00000154734, ENSG00000168229, ENSG00000184916, ENSG00000050628, ENSG00000127533, ENSG00000165025, ENSG00000135925, ENSG00000134243, ENSG00000133246, ENSG00000198121, ENSG00000140678, ENSG00000125730, ENSG00000154188, ENSG00000149294, ENSG00000150045, ENSG00000174233, ENSG00000123384, ENSG00000157404, ENSG00000169403	GO:0007242 ~intracellular signaling cascade	7,21E-05	ENSG00000109684, ENSG00000075651, ENSG00000011600, ENSG00000114805, ENSG00000134215, ENSG000000086730, ENSG00000164949, ENSG00000188906, ENSG00000163235, ENSG00000158186, ENSG00000135605, ENSG00000165068, ENSG00000137462, ENSG00000118508, ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000134070, ENSG00000182732, ENSG00000127533, ENSG00000050628, ENSG00000165025, ENSG00000188822, ENSG00000074966, ENSG00000197943, ENSG00000047648, ENSG00000198121, ENSG00000198959, ENSG00000178538, ENSG00000139132, ENSG00000182621, ENSG00000172380, ENSG00000148180, ENSG00000137831, ENSG00000100302, ENSG00000174233, ENSG00000136869, ENSG00000157404, ENSG00000169403
GO:0031349~ positive regulation of defense response	9,62E-05	ENSG00000137462, ENSG00000134070, ENSG00000090376, ENSG00000158869, ENSG00000136869, ENSG00000130202, ENSG00000198959, ENSG00000125730	GO:0048584 ~positive regulation of response to stimulus	1,96E-04	ENSG00000090376, ENSG00000197943, ENSG00000130202, ENSG000000086730, ENSG00000198959, ENSG00000125730, ENSG00000137462, ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000134070, ENSG00000158869, ENSG00000136869, ENSG00000000971, ENSG00000165025
GO:0002757~ immune response-activating signal transduction	1,09E-04	ENSG00000137462, ENSG00000134070, ENSG00000197943, ENSG00000090376, ENSG00000136869, ENSG000000086730, ENSG00000165025	GO:0045321 ~leukocyte activation	2,46E-04	ENSG00000156575, ENSG00000221957, ENSG00000189430, ENSG00000197943, ENSG000000086730, ENSG00000103855, ENSG00000000938, ENSG00000184916, ENSG00000167633, ENSG00000136869, ENSG00000153064, ENSG00000165025
GO:0009617~ response to bacterium	1,34E-04	ENSG00000137462, ENSG00000075651, ENSG00000092067, ENSG00000140465, ENSG00000197943, ENSG00000090376, ENSG00000169397, ENSG00000136869, ENSG00000008394, ENSG00000186652, ENSG00000000938, ENSG00000169403	GO:0001817 ~regulation of cytokine production	3,46E-04	ENSG00000156575, ENSG00000073792, ENSG00000150782, ENSG00000137462, ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000090376, ENSG00000158869, ENSG00000136869, ENSG00000103855, ENSG00000165025, ENSG00000162711
GO:0002764~ immune response-regulating signal transduction	1,65E-04	ENSG00000137462, ENSG00000134070, ENSG00000197943, ENSG00000090376, ENSG00000136869, ENSG000000086730, ENSG00000165025	GO:0002886 ~regulation of myeloid leukocyte mediated immunity	3,49E-04	ENSG00000158869, ENSG00000133246, ENSG00000125730, ENSG00000165025
GO:0001775~ cell activation	0,00112095	ENSG00000156575, ENSG00000221957, ENSG00000189430, ENSG00000197943, ENSG000000086730, ENSG00000103855, ENSG00000048052, ENSG00000137462, ENSG00000184916, ENSG00000167633, ENSG00000136869, ENSG00000153064, ENSG00000165025	GO:0030155 ~regulation of cell adhesion	9,44E-04	ENSG00000150782, ENSG00000148180, ENSG00000184916, ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000047648, ENSG00000134215, ENSG00000157227, ENSG00000198959, ENSG00000198719
GO:0043405~ regulation of MAP kinase activity	0,00113708	ENSG00000163235, ENSG00000139132, ENSG00000166068, ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000136158, ENSG00000090376, ENSG00000157404, ENSG00000198121, ENSG00000165025	GO:0002224 ~toll-like receptor signaling pathway	0,00101263	ENSG00000137462, ENSG00000134070, ENSG00000090376, ENSG00000136869
GO:0045088~ regulation of innate immune response	0,00115441	ENSG00000189430, ENSG00000137462, ENSG00000134070, ENSG00000090376, ENSG00000136869, ENSG00000130202	GO:0044093 ~positive regulation of molecular function	0,00104644	ENSG00000090376, ENSG00000197943, ENSG00000047648, ENSG00000198121, ENSG00000134215, ENSG00000198959, ENSG00000162711, ENSG00000163235, ENSG00000139132, ENSG00000137831, ENSG00000137462, ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000174233, ENSG00000134070, ENSG00000123384, ENSG00000157404, ENSG00000136869, ENSG00000050628, ENSG00000127533, ENSG00000165025
GO:0070498~ interleukin-1-mediated signaling pathway	0,00126696	ENSG00000115594, ENSG00000134070, ENSG00000090376	GO:0002703 ~regulation of leukocyte mediated immunity	0,00199898	ENSG00000189430, ENSG00000158869, ENSG00000133246, ENSG00000130202, ENSG00000125730, ENSG00000165025
GO:0002237~ response to molecule of bacterial origin	0,00166465	ENSG00000137462, ENSG00000140465, ENSG00000197943, ENSG00000090376, ENSG00000136869, ENSG00000008394, ENSG00000169403	GO:0051895 ~negative regulation of focal adhesion formation	0,00209115	ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000047648, ENSG00000157227
GO:0002221~ pattern recognition receptor signaling pathway	0,00183122	ENSG00000137462, ENSG00000134070, ENSG00000090376, ENSG00000136869	GO:0009611 ~response to wounding	0,00214799	ENSG00000188822, ENSG00000167236, ENSG00000048052, ENSG00000079215, ENSG00000125730, ENSG00000162711, ENSG00000124491, ENSG00000148180, ENSG00000137462, ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000140465, ENSG00000134070, ENSG00000038427, ENSG00000136869, ENSG00000050628, ENSG00000127533, ENSG00000000971, ENSG00000169403
GO:0002218~ activation of innate immune response	0,00255363	ENSG00000137462, ENSG00000134070, ENSG00000090376, ENSG00000136869	GO:0002366 ~leukocyte activation during immune response	0,01567497	ENSG00000137462, ENSG00000197943, ENSG00000136869, ENSG000000086730
GO:0002758~ innate immune response-activating signal transduction	0,00255363	ENSG00000137462, ENSG00000134070, ENSG00000090376, ENSG00000136869	GO:0002263 ~cell activation during immune response	0,01567497	ENSG00000137462, ENSG00000197943, ENSG00000136869, ENSG000000086730

GO:004649~ lymphocyte activation	0,00275661	ENSG00000189430, ENSG00000221957, ENSG00000184916, ENSG00000197943, ENSG00000167633, ENSG00000103855, ENSG00000086730, ENSG00000048052, ENSG00000153064, ENSG00000165025	GO:0043549 ~regulation of kinase activity	0,01664594	ENSG00000163235, ENSG00000139132, ENSG00000166068, ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000174233, ENSG00000136158, ENSG00000123384, ENSG00000090376, ENSG00000157404, ENSG00000198121, ENSG00000134215, ENSG00000165025
GO:002755~ MyD88~ dependent toll-like receptor signaling pathway	0,00310638	ENSG00000137462, ENSG00000134070, ENSG00000090376	GO:0006800 ~oxygen and reactive oxygen species metabolic process	0,01694512	ENSG00000156575, ENSG00000182621, ENSG00000165178, ENSG00000140465, ENSG00000158517, ENSG00000121053
GO:0019221~ cytokine- mediated signaling pathway	0,00365697	ENSG00000115594, ENSG00000134070, ENSG00000090376, ENSG00000157404, ENSG00000100368, ENSG00000198959	GO:0043406 ~positive regulation of MAP kinase activity	0,01730031	ENSG00000163235, ENSG00000139132, ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000157404, ENSG00000198121, ENSG00000165025
GO:002697~ regulation of immune effector process	0,00374422	ENSG00000189430, ENSG00000090376, ENSG00000158869, ENSG00000133246, ENSG00000130202, ENSG00000125730, ENSG00000165025	GO:0070482 ~response to oxygen levels	0,01793107	ENSG00000150782, ENSG00000184916, ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000140465, ENSG00000157227, ENSG00000109107, ENSG00000154188
GO:0051336~ regulation of hydrolase activity	0,00421744	ENSG00000047648, ENSG00000134243, ENSG00000198121, ENSG00000134215, ENSG00000198959, ENSG00000162711, ENSG00000140398, ENSG00000137834, ENSG00000139132, ENSG00000137831, ENSG00000101439, ENSG00000127533, ENSG00000050628	GO:0051129 ~negative regulation of cellular component organization	0,01850063	ENSG00000137834, ENSG00000148180, ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000090376, ENSG00000047648, ENSG00000101439, ENSG00000157227
GO:0001816~ cytokine production	0,004576	ENSG00000150782, ENSG00000092067, ENSG00000136869, ENSG00000169403, ENSG00000162711	GO:0044087 ~regulation of cellular component biogenesis	0,01850063	ENSG00000137834, ENSG00000148180, ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000157404, ENSG00000047648, ENSG00000081052, ENSG00000157227
GO:0045089~ positive regulation of innate immune response	0,004576	ENSG00000137462, ENSG00000134070, ENSG00000090376, ENSG00000136869, ENSG00000130202	GO:0010518 ~positive regulation of phospholipase activity	0,01868673	ENSG00000047648, ENSG00000127533, ENSG00000198121, ENSG00000050628, ENSG00000198959
GO:0010033~ response to organic substance	0,00477707	ENSG00000075651, ENSG00000090376, ENSG00000197943, ENSG00000134243, ENSG00000157227, ENSG00000048052, ENSG00000109107, ENSG00000154188, ENSG00000180644, ENSG00000172380, ENSG00000148180, ENSG00000173110, ENSG00000137462, ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000115594, ENSG00000140465, ENSG00000174233, ENSG00000134070, ENSG00000136869, ENSG0000008394, ENSG00000169403	GO:0002429 ~immune response- activating cell surface receptor signaling pathway	0,01943179	ENSG00000137462, ENSG00000197943, ENSG00000086730, ENSG00000165025
GO:0050727~ regulation of inflammatory response	0,00520164	ENSG00000137831, ENSG00000158869, ENSG00000136869, ENSG00000103855, ENSG00000198959, ENSG00000125730	GO:0005468 ~protein amino acid phosphorylat ion	0,01945152	ENSG00000182511, ENSG00000181409, ENSG00000163491, ENSG00000066056, ENSG00000074966, ENSG00000090376, ENSG00000198121, ENSG00000000938, ENSG00000004799, ENSG00000188906, ENSG00000139132, ENSG00000163235, ENSG00000135605, ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000134070, ENSG00000157404, ENSG00000007264, ENSG00000165025
GO:002496~ response to lipopolysacch aride	0,00549786	ENSG00000140465, ENSG00000197943, ENSG00000090376, ENSG00000136869, ENSG00000080394, ENSG00000169403	GO:0007229 ~integrin- mediated signaling pathway	0,01959763	ENSG00000133246, ENSG00000134215, ENSG00000140678, ENSG00000154734, ENSG00000165025
GO:0051893~ regulation of focal adhesion formation	0,00568711	ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000047648, ENSG00000157227	GO:0032760 ~positive regulation of tumor necrosis factor production	0,01993321	ENSG00000137462, ENSG00000158869, ENSG00000136869
GO:0042742~ defense response to bacterium	0,00619236	ENSG00000137462, ENSG00000075651, ENSG00000092067, ENSG00000169397, ENSG00000136869, ENSG00000186652, ENSG00000000938	GO:0010517 ~regulation of phospholipase activity	0,02053552	ENSG00000047648, ENSG00000127533, ENSG00000198121, ENSG00000050628, ENSG00000198959
GO:0022610~ biological adhesion	0,00751472	ENSG00000101955, ENSG00000074660, ENSG00000149557, ENSG00000139410, ENSG00000047648, ENSG00000133401, ENSG00000130202, ENSG00000140678, ENSG00000079112, ENSG00000173801, ENSG00000167851, ENSG00000105501, ENSG00000149294, ENSG00000184226, ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000168995, ENSG00000038427, ENSG00000148848, ENSG00000170558, ENSG00000165025	GO:0033674 ~positive regulation of kinase activity	0,02112284	ENSG00000163235, ENSG00000139132, ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000174233, ENSG00000123384, ENSG00000157404, ENSG00000198121, ENSG00000134215, ENSG00000165025
GO:0006954~ inflammatory response	0,00867435	ENSG00000188822, ENSG00000137462, ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000134070, ENSG00000136869, ENSG00000050628, ENSG00000000971, ENSG00000167236, ENSG00000048052, ENSG00000125730, ENSG00000169403, ENSG00000162711	GO:0043085 ~positive regulation of catalytic activity	0,02161926	ENSG00000047648, ENSG00000198121, ENSG00000134215, ENSG00000198959, ENSG00000162711, ENSG00000139132, ENSG00000163235, ENSG00000137831, ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000174233, ENSG00000123384, ENSG00000157404, ENSG00000127533, ENSG00000050628, ENSG00000165025
GO:0007243~ protein kinase cascade	0,00868097	ENSG00000163235, ENSG00000139132, ENSG00000135605, ENSG00000166068, ENSG00000137462, ENSG00000074966, ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000134070, ENSG00000157404, ENSG00000136869, ENSG00000198121, ENSG00000188906, ENSG00000165025	GO:0051338 ~regulation of transferase activity	0,02197573	ENSG00000163235, ENSG00000139132, ENSG00000166068, ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000174233, ENSG00000136158, ENSG00000123384, ENSG00000090376, ENSG00000157404, ENSG00000198121, ENSG00000134215, ENSG00000165025
GO:0001953~ negative regulation of cell-matrix adhesion	0,00896471	ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000047648, ENSG00000157227	GO:0051092 ~positive regulation of NF-kappaB transcription factor activity	0,0221884	ENSG00000137462, ENSG00000134070, ENSG00000090376, ENSG00000136869
GO:0042325~ regulation of phosphorylati on	0,00906929	ENSG00000090376, ENSG00000136158, ENSG00000198121, ENSG00000134215, ENSG00000137834, ENSG00000139132, ENSG00000163235, ENSG00000166068, ENSG00000170962, ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000174233, ENSG00000123384, ENSG00000157404, ENSG00000136869, ENSG00000165025	GO:0032088 ~negative regulation of NF-kappaB transcription factor activity	0,02256303	ENSG00000134070, ENSG00000090376, ENSG00000162711

GO:0060191~ regulation of lipase activity	0,00914369	ENSG00000134243, ENSG00000047648, ENSG00000127533, ENSG00000198121, ENSG00000050628, ENSG00000198959	GO:0019932 ~second-messenger-mediated signaling	0,02283101	ENSG00000188822, ENSG00000178538, ENSG00000148180, ENSG00000174233, ENSG00000127533, ENSG00000050628, ENSG00000086730, ENSG00000198959, ENSG00000169403
GO:0050729~ positive regulation of inflammatory response	0,00950425	ENSG00000158869, ENSG00000136869, ENSG00000198959, ENSG00000125730	GO:0042035 ~regulation of cytokine biosynthetic process	0,02351302	ENSG00000156575, ENSG00000073792, ENSG00000136869, ENSG00000103855, ENSG00000165025
GO:0048015~ phosphoinositide-mediated signaling	0,00958169	ENSG00000178538, ENSG00000148180, ENSG00000127533, ENSG00000050628, ENSG00000198959, ENSG00000169403	GO:0002768 ~immune response-regulating cell surface receptor signaling pathway	0,02364251	ENSG00000137462, ENSG00000197943, ENSG00000086730, ENSG00000165025
GO:0032680~ regulation of tumor necrosis factor production	0,01041036	ENSG00000137462, ENSG00000090376, ENSG00000158869, ENSG00000136869	GO:0030097 ~hemopoiesis	0,02364327	ENSG00000092067, ENSG00000184916, ENSG00000078399, ENSG00000140968, ENSG00000197943, ENSG00000157404, ENSG00000048052, ENSG00000198719, ENSG00000165025
GO:0001819~ positive regulation of cytokine production	0,0105006	ENSG00000150782, ENSG00000137462, ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000158869, ENSG00000136869, ENSG00000162711	GO:0010647 ~positive regulation of cell communication	0,0238142	ENSG00000163235, ENSG00000149294, ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000157404, ENSG00000136869, ENSG00000081052, ENSG00000198121, ENSG00000198959, ENSG00000079215, ENSG00000152804, ENSG00000165025
GO:0030041~ actin filament polymerization	0,01085148	ENSG00000007237, ENSG00000148180, ENSG00000047648	GO:0050867 ~positive regulation of cell activation	0,02397742	ENSG00000150782, ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000136869, ENSG00000103855, ENSG00000130202, ENSG00000165025
GO:0002714~ positive regulation of B cell mediated immunity	0,01085148	ENSG00000158869, ENSG00000130202, ENSG00000125730	GO:0060193 ~positive regulation of lipase activity	0,02456069	ENSG00000047648, ENSG00000127533, ENSG00000198121, ENSG00000050628, ENSG00000198959
GO:0010812~ negative regulation of cell-substrate adhesion	0,01085148	ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000047648, ENSG00000157227	GO:0032655 ~regulation of interleukin-12 production	0,02532727	ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000090376, ENSG00000136869
GO:0002891~ positive regulation of immunoglobulin mediated immune response	0,01085148	ENSG00000158869, ENSG00000130202, ENSG00000125730	GO:0070555 ~response to interleukin-1	0,02532727	ENSG00000115594, ENSG00000134070, ENSG00000090376
GO:0019220~ regulation of phosphate metabolic process	0,01255559	ENSG00000090376, ENSG00000136158, ENSG00000198121, ENSG00000134215, ENSG00000137834, ENSG00000139132, ENSG00000163235, ENSG00000166068, ENSG00000170962, ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000174233, ENSG00000123384, ENSG00000157404, ENSG00000136869, ENSG00000165025	GO:0051347 ~positive regulation of transferase activity	0,02566403	ENSG00000163235, ENSG00000139132, ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000174233, ENSG00000123384, ENSG00000157404, ENSG00000198121, ENSG00000134215, ENSG00000165025
GO:0051174~ regulation of phosphorus metabolic process	0,01255559	ENSG00000090376, ENSG00000136158, ENSG00000198121, ENSG00000134215, ENSG00000137834, ENSG00000139132, ENSG00000163235, ENSG00000166068, ENSG00000170962, ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000174233, ENSG00000123384, ENSG00000157404, ENSG00000136869, ENSG00000165025	GO:0002699 ~positive regulation of immune effector process	0,0267022	ENSG00000158869, ENSG00000130202, ENSG00000125730, ENSG00000165025
GO:0001666~ response to hypoxia	0,01427804	ENSG00000150782, ENSG00000184916, ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000140465, ENSG00000157227, ENSG00000109107, ENSG00000154188	GO:0051240 ~positive regulation of multicellular organismal process	0,02762689	ENSG00000150782, ENSG00000137462, ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000158869, ENSG00000136869, ENSG00000081052, ENSG00000103855, ENSG00000079215, ENSG00000162711
GO:0032103~ positive regulation of response to external stimulus	0,01452974	ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000158869, ENSG00000136869, ENSG00000198959, ENSG00000125730	GO:0002275 ~myeloid cell activation during immune response	0,02822146	ENSG00000137462, ENSG00000136869, ENSG00000086730
GO:0007155~ cell adhesion	0,01512673	ENSG00000101955, ENSG00000074660, ENSG00000149557, ENSG00000047648, ENSG00000133401, ENSG00000130202, ENSG00000140678, ENSG00000079112, ENSG00000173801, ENSG00000167851, ENSG00000105501, ENSG00000149294, ENSG00000184226, ENSG00000137801, ENSG00000168995, ENSG00000038427, ENSG00000148848, ENSG00000170558, ENSG00000165025	GO:0032958 ~inositol phosphate biosynthetic process	0,02920514	ENSG00000197943, ENSG00000169403
GO:0010863~ positive regulation of phospholipase C activity	0,01530891	ENSG00000047648, ENSG00000127533, ENSG00000198121, ENSG00000050628, ENSG00000198959	GO:0002888 ~positive regulation of myeloid leukocyte mediated immunity	0,02920514	ENSG00000158869, ENSG00000125730
GO:0007202~ activation of phospholipase C activity	0,01530891	ENSG00000047648, ENSG00000127533, ENSG00000198121, ENSG00000050628, ENSG00000198959	GO:0032959 ~inositol trisphosphate biosynthetic process	0,02920514	ENSG00000197943, ENSG00000169403

Supplementary Table S7. List of 16 gene families and their members, including HIV restriction factors (RFs; in bold letters). The list of RFs was obtained from (Abdel-Mohsen et al 2013). RFs that do not belong to any gene family: CDKN1A, HERC5, ISG15, RSAD2. RFs that restricts late stages of HIV life cycle: BST2, EIF2AK2, MOV10, ISG15, RSAD2 and SLFN11.

Gene family	Gene symbol											
Ankyrin repeat domain containing	ABTB1	ANKFY1	ANKRD13D	SLF1	ANKRD53	ARAP2	ASB16	DGKI	IBTK	NFKB2	POTEJ	SOWAHD
	ABTB2	ANKHD1	ANKRD16	ANKRD33	ANKRD54	ARAP3	ASB17	DZANK1	ILK	NOTCH1	POTEM	SOWAHC
	ACAP1	ANKI81	ANKRD17	ANKRD33B	ANKRD55	ASAP1	ASB18	EHMT1	INVS	NOTCH2	PPP1R12A	SOWAHD
	ACAP2	ANKK1	ANKRD18A	ANKRD34A	ANKRD60	ASAP2	ASPG	EHMT2	KANK1	NOTCH3	PPP1R12B	TANC1
	ACAP3	ANKLE1	ANKRD18B	ANKRD34B	ANKRD61	ASAP3	ASZ1	ESPN	KANK2	NOTCH4	PPP1R12C	TANC2
	ACBD6	ANKLE2	ANKRD20A1	ANKRD34C	ANKRD62	ASB1	BANK1	ESPNL	KANK3	NRARP	PPP1R13B	TNKS
	AGAP1	ANKMY1	ANKRD20A2	ANKRD35	ANKRD63	ASB2	BARD1	FANK1	KANK4	NUD12	PPP1R13L	TNKS2
	AGAP2	ANKMY2	ANKRD20A3	ANKRD36	ANKRD65	ASB3	BCL3	FEM1A	KIDINS220	OSBPL1A	PPP1R16A	TONSL
	AGAP3	ANKRA2	ANKRD20A4	ANKRD36B	ANKRD66	ASB4	BCOR	FEM1B	KRIT1	OSTF1	PPP1R16B	TP53BP2
	AGAP4	ANKRD1	ANKRD22	ANKRD36C	ANKS1A	ASB5	BCORL1	FEM1C	MIB1	PLA2G6	PPP1R27	TRANK1
	AGAP5	ANKRD2	ANKRD23	ANKRD37	ANKS1B	ASB6	BTBD11	FPGT-TNNI3K	MIB2	POTEA	PSMD10	TRPA1
	AGAP6	ANKRD6	ANKRD24	ANKRD39	ANKS3	ASB7	CASKIN1	GABPB1	MPHOSPH8	POTEB	RAI14	
	AGAP7P	ANKRD7	ANKRD26	ANKRD40	ANKS4B	ASB8	CASKIN2	GABPB2	MTPN	POTEB2	RFXANK	
	AGAP9	ANKRD9	ANKRD27	ANKRD42	ANKS6	ASB9	CDKN2C	GIT1	MYO16	POTEC	RIPK4	
	AGAP11	ANKRD10	ANKRD28	ANKRD44	ANKUB1	ASB10	CDKN2D	GIT2	NFKBIA	POTED	RNASEL	
	ANKAR	ANKRD11	ANKRD29	ANKRD45	ANKZF1	ASB11	CLIP3	GLS	NFKBIB	POTEE	SHANK1	
	ANKDD1A	ANKRD12	ANKRD30A	ANKRD46	ANK1	ASB12	CLIP4	GLS2	NFKBID	POTEF	SHANK2	
	ANKDD1B	ANKRD13A	ANKRD30B	ANKRD49	ANK2	ASB13	CLPB	GPANK1	NFKBIE	POTEG	SHANK3	
	ANKEF1	ANKRD13B	ANKRD30BL	ANKRD50	ANK3	ASB14	CTTNBP2	HACE1	NFKBIZ	POTEH	SNCAIP	
	ANKFN1	ANKRD13C	ANKRD31	ANKRD52	ARAP1	ASB15	DAPK1	HECTD1	NFKB1	POTEI	SOWAHA	
	ZDHHC13	ZDHHC17	USH1G	UACA	TRPV6	TRPV5	TRPV4	TRPV3	TRPV2	TRPV1	TRPC4	
Gene family	Gene symbol											
CD molecules	CD1A	CD24	ITGA2	NT5E	CD96	IL5RA	KIR2DL2	IGLL1	IL15RA	CD248	TLR6	CDCP1
	CD1B	IL2RA	ITGA3	CD74	ADGRE5	IL6R	KIR2DL3	CD180	IL17RA	ENPEP	TLR8	SLAMF7
	CD1C	DPP4	ITGA4	CD79A	SLC7A5	IL7R	KIR3DP1	CXCR1	IL18R1	TNFSF4	TLR9	CD320
	CD1D	CD27	ITGA5	CD79B	CD99	IL9R	KIR2DL4	CXCR2	IL18RAP	TNFSF10	TLR10	F11R
	CD1E	CD28	ITGA6	CD80	SEMA4D	IL6ST	KIR3DL1	CXCR3	INSR	TNFSF11	BMPR1A	JAM2
	CD2	CTLA4	ICAM3	CD81	CD101	CSF2RB	KIR2DLSA	CXCR4	IGF1R	TNFSF13	BMPR1B	CDH1
	CD3D	ITGB1	ITGAV	CD82	ICAM2	IL2RG	KIR2DS5	CXCR5	IGF2R	TNFSF13B	PTGDR2	CDH2
	CD3E	TNFRSF8	CD52	CD83	ITGAE	PROM1	KIR2DS1	CXCR6	LAG3	TNFSF14	LEPR	EPCAM
	CD3G	PECAM1	CD53	CD84	ITGB4	TNFRSF4	KIR2DS4	CCR1	GGT1	TNFRSF10A	ART1	SIGLEC6
	CD4	FCGR2A	ICAM1	LILRB3	ENG	FLT3	KIR2DS2	CCR2	JFITM1	TNFRSF10B	ART4	SIGLEC7
	CD5	FCGR2B	CD55	LILRA6	VCAM1	MST1R	KIR3DL2	CCR3	CD226	TNFRSF10C	ATP1B3	SIGLEC9
	CD6	FCGR2C	NCAM1	LILRB5	LAMP1	TNFRSF9	KIR3DL3	CCR4	MUC1	TNFRSF10D	CLEC4M	FGFR1
	CD7	CD33	B3GAT1	LILRB2	LAMP2	SDC1	KLRC1	CCR5	MELTF	TNFRSF11A	CD300A	FGFR2
	CD8A	CD34	CD58	LILRA3	SEMA7A	PDGFRA	KLRC2	CCR6	LY9	TNFRSF12A	CD300C	FGFR3
	CD8B	CR1	CD59	LILRA5	CD109	PDGFRB	CD160	CCR7	PRNP	TNFRSF13B	CD300E	FGFR4
	CD9	CD36	ITGB3	LILRA4	MPL	THBD	KLRC1	CCR8	TSPAN7	TNFRSF13C	CLEC10A	NCR1
	MME	CD37	SELE	LILRA2	NECTIN1	F3	SEPLG	CCR9	PLXNC1	TNFRSF17	CD302	NCR2
	ITGAL	CD38	SELL	LILRA1	NECTIN2	ACE	CD163	CD200	SLC4A1	TNFRSF14	CLEC4C	NCR3
	ITGAM	ENTPD1	SELP	LILRB1	NECTIN3	CDH5	CD164	PROCR	ACKR1	NGFR	NRP1	ABCG2
	ITGAX	CD40	CD63	LILRB4	CSF3R	MCAM	ALCAM	TEK	GYPB	BTLA	LAIR1	JAG1
	ITGAD	ITGA2B	FCGR1A	LILRP1	CSF1R	BSG	DDR1	ENPP3	GYPB	PCCD1LG2	LAIR2	ERBB2
	ANPEP	GP9	CEACAM1	LILRP2	CSF2RA	PTPRJ	HMMR	MSR1	GYPB	CD274	FCRL1	FZD4
	CD14	GP1BA	CEACAM8	CD86	KIT	SLAMF1	SIGLEC1	LY75	KEL	ICOSLG	FCRL2	FZD9
	FUT4	GP1BB	CEACAM6	PLAUR	LIFR	CD151	SIGLECS	MRC1	BCAM	CD276	FCRL3	FZD10
	FCGR3A	GP5	CEACAM3	CSAR1	IFNGR1	TNFSF8	L1CAM	CD207	RHCE	BTNSA1	FCRL4	FCAMR
	FCGR3B	SPN	CEACAM5	FCAR	TNFRSF1A	CD40LG	SIRPA	LAMP3	RHD	ICOS	FCRL5	SLAMF6
	ITGB2	CD44	PSG1	THY1	TNFRSF1B	PVR	SIRPB1	CD209	RHAG	PDCD1	KDR	SLAMF8
	CD19	PTPRC	CD68	LRP1	IL1R1	ADAM10	SIRPG	IL10RA	ICAM4	MRC2	ADGRE2	TREM1
	MS4A1	CD46	CD69	SLC44A1	IL1R2	ADAM8	FUT3	IL10RB	ABCB1	TLR1	KLK1	CRTAM
	CR2	CD47	CD70	CD93	IL2RB	ADAM17	CD177	IL12RB1	CD244	TLR2	PTGFRN	TNFRSF18
	CD22	CD48	TFRC	KLRD1	IL3RA	BST1	FASLG	IL13RA1	ALK	TLR3	IGSF8	TNFRSF21
	FCER2	ITGA1	CD72	FAS	IL4R	KIR2DL1	VPREB1	IL13RA2	CD247	TLR4	BST2	IL21R
	EV12B	SDC2	P116	S1PR1	HAVCR1	CLEC4A	CLEC4D	CLEC7A	CLEC9A	CLEC12A		
Gene family	Gene symbol											
Ring finger proteins	ANAPC11	NSMCE1	RNF19A	ZNRF1	CBL	TRIM9	TRAF2	RNF133	LTN1	TRIM43	RFWD3	RNF224
	BARD1	PCGF7P	RNF19B	RNF43	CBLB	TRIM11	TRAF3	PCGF6	MEX3A	TRIM43B	ZNRF2	RNF225
	CCNB1IP1	PDZRN3	RNF20	RNF44	CBLC	TRIM15	TRAF7	RNF135	CNBP	TRIM44	ZNRF3	RNF227
	CNOT4	PDZRN4	TRIM34	AMFR	DTX2	TRIM22	RFPL3	BIRC8	RC3H2	TRIM46	ZNRF4	RSPRY1
	CYHR1	RBBP6	TRIM3	TRIM23	MID1	TRIM26	RNF121	TRIM68	RNF165	TRIM49B	RAPSN	SCAF11
	DCS1T	RNF1T	TRIM39	BFAR	MID2	TRIM28	RNF122	RNF138	RNF166	TRIM49C	TRAIIP	SHPRH
	DZIP3	RNF2T	RNF24	BIRC2	MKRN1	TRIM36	RNF123	RNF139	RNF167	TRIM49D1	RNF207	SH3RF3
	LNK1	RING1	RNF25	BIRC3	MKRN2	TRIM45	RNF125	DTX1	RNF168	TRIM49D2	RNF208	SLAH1
	LNK2	RNF2	RNF26	BIRC7	MKRN3	TRIM47	RNF126	RNF141	RNF169	TRIM50	TRIML1	SLAH2
	LRSAM1	PCGF3	TRIM8	BMI1	MKRN4P	TRIM48	LONRF3	SH3RF1	RNF170	TRIM51	RFPL4A	SVYV1
	MAP3K1	RNF4	TRIM63	BRAP	MKRN9P	TRIM52	RNF128	DTX3L	RNF185	TRIM58	RFPL4A1	TOPORS
	MDM2	RNF5	TRIM55	BRCA1	MNAT1	RNF103	RNF130	RNF144A	RNF186	TRIM62	RFPL4B	TRIM31
	MDM4	RNF6	TRIM54	RFPL2	NEURL1	TRIM59	PJA2	RNF144B	RNF187	TRIM64	RNF212	TRIM32
	MIB1	RNF7	RNF31	HLTF	NEURL1B	TTC3	SH3RF2	RNF145	CBLL1	TRIM64B	RNF212B	TRIM33
	MIB2	RNF8	RNF32	TRIM21	PCGF1	UHRF1	PCGF5	RNF146	RFFL	TRIM64C	RNF213	TRIM35
	MKRN5P	TRIM10	TRIM60	TRIM24	PEX10	UHRF2	VPS41	TRIM25	LONRF1	TRIM65	RNF214	TRIM37
	MKRN6P	RNF10	RNF34	TRAF4	PJA1	VPS11	XIAP	RNF148	LONRF2	TRIM67	RNF215	TRIM41
	MKRN7P	RNF11	TRIM40	TRAF5	TRIM19	TRIM56	CBLL2	RNF149	MEX3D	TRIM71	RNF216	TRIM42
	MKRN8P	RLIM	TRIM61	TRAF6	PEX2	PCGF2	ZSWIM2	RNF150	MEX3C	TRIM72	RNF217	
	MYCBP2	RNF13	TRIM69	TRIM2	RAD18	RNF111	RNF180	RNF151	MEX3B	TRIM73	MUL1	
	MYLIP	RNF14	UBOX5	TRIM4	RAG1	RNF112	RNF181	RNF152	CHFR	TRIM74	RNF219	
	NFXL1	TRIM38	RNF38	TRIM5	RBX1	RNF113A	RNF182	DTX3	CGRFF1	TRIM75P	RNF220	
	NFX1	TRIM17	RNF39	TRIM6	TRIM27	RNF113B	RNF183	DTX4	RC3H1	TRIM77	PHRF1	
	NHLRC1	RNF17	RNF40	TRIM7	TRIM13	RNF114	RNF175	MGRN1	UNKL	TRIM78	RNF222	
	RBCK1	TRIM49	RNF41	NEURL3	RFPL1	RNF115	MSL2	RNF157	COP1	VPS8	RNF223	

Gene family	Gene symbol											
Tripartite motif containing	MID2	TRIM26BP	TRIM49B	TRIM62	TRIM10	TRIM36	TRIM51EP	TRIM66	MEFV	TRIM43CP	TRIM54	TRIM77
	TRIM2	TRIM27	TRIM49C	TRIM63	TRIM11	TRIM37	TRIM51FP	TRIM67	TRIM21	TRIM44	TRIM55	TRIM58
	TRIM3	TRIM28	TRIM49D1	TRIM64	TRIM13	TRIM38	TRIM51GP	TRIM68	TRIM22	TRIM45	TRIM56	TRIM59
	TRIM4	TRIM29	TRIM49D2	TRIM64B	TRIM14	TRIM39	TRIM51HP	TRIM69	TRIM23	TRIM46	CMYA5	TRIM74
	TRIM5	TRIM31	TRIM50	TRIM64C	TRIM15	TRIM40	TRIM51JP	TRIM71	TRIM24	TRIM47	TRIM26	TRIM75P
	TRIM6	TRIM32	TRIM51	TRIM64DP	TRIM16	TRIM41	TRIM52	TRIM72	TRIM25	TRIM48	TRIM60	TRIM53BP
	TRIM7	TRIM33	TRIM51BP	TRIM64EP	TRIM17	TRIM42	TRIM53AP	TRIM73	TRIM43B	TRIM49	TRIM61	TRIM53CP
	TRIM8	TRIM34	TRIM51CP	TRIM64FP	MID1	TRIM43	TRIM9	TRIM35	TRIM51DP	TRIM65	PML	
Gene family	Gene symbol											
PHD finger proteins	AIRE	BAZ2B	CHD4	DPF3	ING5	KDM5B	KMT2C	NFX1	PHF6	PHF11	JADE1	INTS12
	ASH1L	BPTF	CHD5	FBXL19	KAT6A	KDM5C	KMT2D	NSD1	PHF7	PHF12	PHF19	PHF23
	ASH2L	BRD1	CXC1	ING1	KAT6B	KDM5D	KMT2E	PHF1	G2E3	PHF13	PHF20	
	BAZ1A	BRPF1	DID01	ING2	KDM2A	KDM7A	MLLT6	PHF2	PHF8	PHF14	PHF20L1	
	BAZ1B	BRPF3	DPF1	ING3	KDM2B	KMT2A	MLLT10	PHF3	FANCL	JADE2	PHF21A	
	BAZ2A	CHD3	DPF2	ING4	KDM5A	KMT2B	MTF2	PHF5A	PHF10	JADE3	PHF21B	
	RSF1	SP100	SP140	TAF3	TRIM24	TRIM33	UHRF1	NSD2	ZMYND8	NSD3	ZMYND11	
	SHPRH	SP110	SP140L	TCF19	TRIM28	TRIM66	UHRF2	PYGO2	PYGO1	PHRF1	PHF24	
Gene family	Gene symbol											
Tetratricopeptide repeat domain containing	ANAPC7	FKBP1	IFIT2	NASP	RANBP2	SGTA	ST13	TRANK1	TTC8	TRAPP12	TTC23	TTC31
	BBS4	FKBP4	IFIT3	NCF2	RGPD1	SGTB	TANC1	TTC1	TTC9	TTC16	TTC24	TTC32
	CDC16	FKBP5	IFIT5	NPHP3	RGPD2	SH3TC1	TANC2	DNAJC7	TTC9B	TTC17	TTC25	TTC33
	CDC23	FKBP8	KDM6A	OGT	RGPD3	SH3TC2	TMTC1	TTC3	TTC9C	CFAP70	TTC26	TTC34
	CDC27	GPSM1	KLC1	PEX5	RGPD4	SNX21	TMTC2	TTC4	IFT88	TTC19	TTC27	EMC2
	CNTO10	GPSM2	KLC2	PEX5L	RGPD5	SPAG1	TMTC3	TTC5	FIS1	KIF18A	TTC28	
	CTR9	GTF3C3	KLC3	PPID	RGPD6	SRP72	TMTC4	TTC6	TTC12	TTC21B	TTC29	
	DNAJC3	IFIT1	KLC4	PPPS5	RGPD8	STIP1	TOMM34	TTC7A	TTC13	TTC21B	TTC30A	
	DNAAF4	IFIT1B	NAA16	PPPSD1	RPAP3	STUB1	TOMM70	TTC7B	TTC14	TTC22	TTC30B	
	TTC39B	TTC39C	CFAP46	UTY	WDT1	ZC3H7A	ZC3H7B	TTC39A	TTC38	TTC37	TTC36	
Gene family	Gene symbol											
Protein phosphatase 1 regulatory subunits	PPP1R1A	PPP1R10	PPP1R17	PPP1R32	AURKA	CEP192	AATK	IKZF1	MYO1D	PHACTR3	SFI1	TMEM225
	PPP1R1B	PPP1R11	PPP1R18	ARFGEF3	AURKB	CLCN7	AHCYL1	ITGA2B	NCOR1	PHACTR4	SFPQ	TNS1
	PPP1R1C	PPP1R12A	URI1	MARF1	AXIN1	CNST	ANKRD42	ITPR1	NEFL	PHRF1	SLC12A2	TRA2B
	PPP1R2	PPP1R12B	CCDC8	PPP1R35	BCL2	ANKRD28	CAMSAP3	ITPR3	NEK2	PKMYT1	SLC7A14	TRIM28
	PPP1R3A	PPP1R12C	PPP1R21	PPP1R36	BCL2L1	DZIP3	CDC42	KCNA6	NOC2L	PLCL1	SLC9A1	TRPC4AP
	PPP1R3B	TP53BP2	CHCHD3	PPP1R37	BCL2L2	EIF252	DLG3	KCNK10	NOM1	POLD3	SMARCB1	
	PPP1R3C	PPP1R13B	CHCHD6	SH2D4A	BRCA1	ELL	EIF2AK2	KIF18A	NONO	PREX2	SPATA2	
	PPP1R3D	PPP1R14A	CSMD1	SH3RF2	CASC1	ZFYVE16	GPR12	LMTK2	OCLN	RB1CC1	SPOCD1	
	PPP1R3E	PPP1R14B	DDX31	TRIM42	KNL1	SH3GLB1	GRM1	LMTK3	OPN3	RBM26	SPRED1	
	PPP1R3F	PPP1R14C	PPP1R26	ZCCHC9	CASP9	PTK2	GRM5	MAP1B	ORCS	RIMBP2	SPZ1	
	PPP1R3G	PPP1R14D	PPP1R27	PPP1R42	CASP2	CSRNP2	GRM7	MAPT	PARD3	RPGRIP1L	SRSF10	
	PPP1R7	PPP1R15A	ELFN1	AKAP1	DLG2	CSRNP3	GRXCR1	MCM7	PCDH11X	RPL5	STAU1	
	PPP1R8	PPP1R15B	ELFN2	AKAP11	CD2BP2	FER	HCFC1	MKI67	PCDH7	RRP1B	SYTL2	
	PPP1R9A	PPP1R16A	GPATCH2	AKAP9	CDC25C	FARP1	HDAC6	MPHOSPH10	PCIF1	RYR1	TMEM132C	
	PPP1R9B	PPP1R16B	HYDIN	APC	CENPE	FKBP15	HSPB6	MYO16	PFKM	SACS	TMEM132D	
	YLPM1	WWC1	WNK1	WDR81	WBP11	VP54	VDR	UBN1	TSKS	TSC2	TRPC5	
Gene family	Gene symbol											
Sterile alpha motif domain containing	ANKS1A	ARAP3	CNKS2R	EPHA3	EPHB1	KIF24	PHC3	PPP1R9A	SAMD8	SAMD14	SCMH1	
	ANKS1B	ASZ1	CNKS3R	EPHA4	EPHB2	LRSAM1	PPF1A1	SAMD1	SAMD9	SAMD15	SCML1	
	ANKS3	BFAR	DDHD2	EPHA5	EPHB3	L3MBTL1	PPF1A2	SAMD3	SAMD9L	SAMHD1	SCML2	
	ANKS4B	BICC1	DGKD	EPHA6	EPHB4	L3MBTL3	PPF1A3	SAMD4A	SAMD10	SAMS1	SCML4	
	ANKS6	CASKIN1	DGKH	EPHA7	EPHB6	L3MBTL4	PPF1A4	SAMD4B	SAMD11	SARM1	SEC23IP	
	ARAP1	CASKIN2	EPHA1	EPHA8	INPPL1	PHC1	PPF1BP1	SAMD5	SAMD12	SASH1	SFMBT1	
	ARAP2	CNKS1R	EPHA2	EPHA10	KAZN	PHC2	PPF1BP2	SAMD7	SAMD13	SASH3	SFMBT2	
	TNKS2	USH1G	WDSUB1	ZCCHC14	TNKS	STIM2	STIM1	SHANK3	SHANK2	SHANK1	SGM51	
Gene family	Gene symbol											
Apolipoprotein B mRNA editing enzyme catalytic subunits	AICDA	APOBEC1	APOBEC2	APOBEC3A	APOBEC3A_B	APOBEC3B	APOBEC3C	APOBEC3D	APOBEC3F	APOBEC3G	APOBEC3H	APOBEC4
Gene family	Gene symbol											
Minor histocompatibility antigens	AKAP13	BCL2A1	C19orf48	ERAP1	ARHGAP45	PUM3	MTHFD1	PI4K2B	P2RX5	SON	TMSB4Y	
	APOBEC3B	CD19	DDX3Y	ERBB2	HMMB1	RESF1	MYO1G	PKN3	RPS4Y1	SP110		
	ARHGDI8	CENPM	DPH1	GEMIN4	HMSD	LY75	NUP133	PRCP	SLC1A5	SSR1		
	BCAT2	CTSH	EBI3	HEATR1	KDM5D	MR1	PDCD11	PTK2B	SLC19A1	SWAP70		
	ZNF419	WNK1	UTY	USP9Y	UGT2B17	TRIP10	TYMP	TRIM42	TRIM22	TOR3A		
Gene family	Gene symbol											
Bardet-Biedl syndrome associated	BBS1	BBS2	ARL6	BBS4	MKS1	SDCCAG8	IFT27					
	BBS5	BBS7	BBS9	TRIM32	CEP290	LZTFL1	IFT172					
	MKKS	TTC8	BBS10	BBS12	WDRCP	BBIP1	C8orf37					
Gene family	Gene symbol											
Pafl/RNA polymerase II complex	CDC73	CTR9	LEO1	PAF1	RTF1	WDR61						
Gene family	Gene symbol											
Schlafen family	SLFN5	SLFN11	SLFN12	SLFN12L	SLFN13	SLFN14	SLFN1					
Gene family	Gene symbol											
UPF1 like RNA helicases	AQR	DNA2	HELZ	HELZ2	IGHMBP2	MOV10	MOV10L1	SETX	UPF1	ZGRF1	ZNFX1	
Gene family	Gene symbol											
Bromodomain containing	ATAD2	BAZ1B	BPTF	BRD8	BRPF3	CECR2	KAT2A	ASH1L	SMARCA2	SP110		
	ATAD2B	BAZ2A	BRD1	BRD9	BRWD1	CREBBP	KAT2B	PBRM1	SMARCA4	SP140		
	BAZ1A	BAZ2B	BRD7	BRPF1	BRWD3	EP300	KMT2A	PHIP	SP100	SP140L		
	TRIM28	TRIM33	TRIM66	ZMYND8	ZMYND8	ZMYND11	TRIM24	TAF1L	TAF1			
Gene family	Gene symbol											
Interferon induced transmembrane proteins	IFITM1	IFITM3	IFITM8P	IFITM5								
	IFITM2	IFITM4P	IFITM9P	IFITM10								

Supplementary Table S8. List of genes from Group II that belong to the families of cellular restriction factors (RFs) restricting late stages of HIV life cycle. Connection between each genes and HIV infection was checked in HIV interaction database (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genome/viruses/retroviruses/hiv-1/interactions/>) or in literature.

Gene symbol	Connection with HIV	Source of information
<i>Aatk</i>	Yes	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genome/viruses/retroviruses/hiv-1/interactions/browse/
<i>Camsap3</i>	Yes	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genome/viruses/retroviruses/hiv-1/interactions/browse/
<i>Klrc2</i>	Yes	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genome/viruses/retroviruses/hiv-1/interactions/browse/
<i>Klrd1</i>	Yes	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genome/viruses/retroviruses/hiv-1/interactions/browse/
<i>Lrp1</i>	Yes	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genome/viruses/retroviruses/hiv-1/interactions/browse/
<i>Ncr1</i>	Yes	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genome/viruses/retroviruses/hiv-1/interactions/browse/
<i>Ncr3</i>	Yes	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genome/viruses/retroviruses/hiv-1/interactions/browse/
<i>Siglec7</i>	Yes	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genome/viruses/retroviruses/hiv-1/interactions/browse/
<i>Tlr2</i>	Yes	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genome/viruses/retroviruses/hiv-1/interactions/browse/
<i>Tlr4</i>	Yes	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genome/viruses/retroviruses/hiv-1/interactions/browse/
<i>Tnfrsf10d</i>	Yes	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genome/viruses/retroviruses/hiv-1/interactions/browse/
<i>Tnfsf11</i>	Yes	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genome/viruses/retroviruses/hiv-1/interactions/browse/
<i>Klrb1</i>	Yes	https://academic.oup.com/intimm/article/19/8/943/707672
<i>Klrc1</i>	Yes	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18976975
<i>Lilra2</i>	Yes	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3250304/
<i>Lilrp2</i>	Yes	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3250304/
<i>Ncam1</i>	Yes	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC5892189/
<i>Ncr2</i>	Yes	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19424050
<i>Siglec5</i>	Yes	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22945238
<i>Slfn13</i>	Yes	https://www.nature.com/articles/s41467-018-03544-x
<i>Tnfrsf18</i>	Yes	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC2872147/
<i>Tnfsf4</i>	Yes	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24238037
<i>Bcl2L2</i>	No	
<i>Plxnc1</i>	No	
<i>Slfn12</i>	No	
<i>Spred1</i>	No	
<i>Ppp1r26</i>	No	
<i>Ppp1r9A</i>	No	

The results of this thesis will be soon submitted as a journal article; manuscript in preparation:

Schlafen12, a novel HIV restriction factor involved in latency

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DISCUSSION

In this thesis, we aimed to identify cellular factors that may contribute to HIV latency via interference with post-transcriptional events of the HIV life cycle. Based on own observations of a differential behavior of latently infected naive and memory CD4 T cells towards HIV latency reversal (Tsunetsugu-Yokota et al. 2016b), the transcriptomes of primary CD4 T cells maintained under different culture conditions were determined and inspected for possible HIV regulators. Naive T cells that were maintained under HSP conditions show an upregulation of TLR and TLR-signalling genes, suggesting their readiness to receive danger signals from incoming pathogens. Furthermore, the TFs *Uaca* and *Tle1* that suppress NF- κ B factor transcription were upregulated, as were the single-strand specific *RNase2* with an antiviral activity and *Irf8*, a TF that can maintain HIV proviruses in a latent state by repressing the HIV promoter. Interestingly, amongst the upregulated genes was also *Slfn12*, a member of a conserved family of proteins with antiviral activities. It includes SLFN11 that could inhibit HIV translation based on its non-optimal codon usage (M. Li et al. 2012). Since relatively little was known on the mechanism of their antiviral activity and their potential role in latency, SLFN11 and 12 were cloned and analyzed further. We could show that they both participate in the maintenance of HIV latency and inhibit HIV translation in a codon-usage dependent manner at the level of translation elongation. Together this increases our basic knowledge on virus latency and suggests target proteins for novel HIV cure strategies.

1. HIV latency and cure

The capacity of HIV to remain in a latent state that is non-visible for the immune system and antiretroviral drugs is a main obstacle for an HIV cure. Productive HIV infection proceeds most efficiently in activated CD4 T cells that (i) express high levels of CD4 and the co-receptors CCR5 or CXCR4 (Maier et al. 2000), (ii) have a high level of dNTPs necessary for efficient reverse transcription of the viral RNA genome (Meyerhans et al. 1994) and (iii) express the transcription factors NFAT and NF κ B that activate the HIV promoter of the 5'LTR region (Kinoshita et al. 1997; Nabel and Baltimore 1987). However, such cells *in vivo* rapidly die due to virus-mediated apoptosis or cytotoxic T cell-mediated killing and have a half-life of less than 1 day. As a consequence, these cells are rapidly lost once the HIV cycle is

interrupted by efficient cART (Bailey et al. 2006; Tobin et al. 2005). In contrast, latently infected CD4 T cells have an estimated half-life of about 44 months (J. D. Siliciano et al. 2003) and thus cART alone is not able to eliminate this so-called virus reservoir within the life-time of an infected patient. Once treatment is stopped, HIV usually rebounds rapidly within 2 weeks (Tae-Wook Chun et al. 1999; Davey et al. 1999) demonstrating that cure strategies against HIV require additional interventions.

The HIV reservoir is believed to consist mainly of latently infected memory CD4 T cells (Chomont et al. 2009; Guinevere Q. Lee 2016) . Latency can be established early in an HIV infection during the physiological transit from an effector to a memory T cell as this change in differentiation is associated with a number of events that favor latency including i.e. the downregulation of transcription factors necessary for HIV activation (Shan et al. 2017). The reservoir size consists of about 10^5 to 10^7 HIV-infected cells per infected individual (T-W Chun et al. 1998) or 0.03 to 3 infectious units per million resting CD4 T cells (J. D. Siliciano et al. 2003). Due to the dominance of defective proviruses in the latently infected cell population of over 90%, reservoir size determinations may vary significantly depending on the technique chosen. Interestingly, there is evidence that latently infected CD4 T cells can expand by both, homeostatic and antigen-specific proliferation, and still maintain HIV proviruses in a latent form (Chomont et al. 2009; Farber, Yudanin, and Restifo 2013; Simonetti et al. 2016). The mechanisms underlying this expansion are currently unknown. Our own work suggests at least 2 possibilities. First, antisense transcripts may exhibit a dominant suppressor activity and can lock an integrated HIV provirus into a non-reactivable state thus allowing infected cell expansion without HIV reactivation (Kobayashi-Ishihara et al. 2018). While this work using latently infected T cell clones identified a novel mechanism of latency maintenance, frequency estimates would suggest that it is rather rare and does not apply to the majority of the latently infected cells in HIV patients. Furthermore, it is still unclear whether the antisense transcription-mediated lock of HIV proviruses is permanent *in vivo* or could be unlocked under specific T cell stimulatory conditions. Second, under HSP culture conditions, primary latently infected naive CD4 T cells can suppress HIV provirus expression by both, transcriptional and posttranscriptional mechanisms. RNAseq analyses suggested at least 3 transcription factors (*Uaca*, *Tle1*, and *Irf8*) that potentially could maintain latency by suppressing NF- κ B (L. Liu et al. 2009;

Ghosh et al. 2007) and repressing the HIV promoter (Munier et al. 2005). Furthermore, latently infected resting naive CD4 T cells can suppress HIV provirus expression by a posttranscriptional block. Candidate cellular factors mediating this effect are SLFN11 and 12 that were further investigated here. Both genes contribute to dampen HIV protein expression in a codon usage-dependent manner acting at the level of translation elongation. Knock down of both genes in latently infected ACH2 cells lead to a 10 fold increase of HIV production after cell activation. This together with the expression of SLFN12 under HSP conditions suggests that the Schlafen proteins may contribute to keep HIV protein production well controlled even during cell proliferation. While their contribution *in vivo* has yet to be verified, it would not exclude other post-transcriptional contributors to latency such as lack of UPF1 (Rao et al. 2018) and MATR3 (Sarracino et al. 2018) that act at the levels of mRNA stability and nuclear export, respectively.

2. SLFNs against HIV and other viruses

SLFN11 and 12 are members of a conserved, IFN-inducible protein family that inhibit a broad spectrum of viruses. For example, SLFN11 was shown to inhibit HIV (M. Li et al. 2012), murine leukemia virus (MLV) and feline immunodeficiency virus (FIV) (Stabell et al. 2016), while SLFN13 and 14 inhibit influenza (Seong et al. 2017), Zika virus and HIV (Yang et al. 2018; Pisareva et al. 2015), and influenza and varicella-zoster virus (Seong et al. 2017), respectively. Mechanistic antiviral studies were only performed with SLFN11 demonstrating a codon usage-dependent translation inhibition of HIV-1, possibly mediated via limited tRNA availability through specific tRNA binding (M. Li et al. 2012). Subsequent structural and molecular biology studies of SLFN13 and 14 have shown that these proteins have RNase activity and can cleave tRNAs (Yang et al. 2018; Pisareva et al. 2015), as well as rRNAs (Yang et al. 2018) and mRNAs (Pisareva et al. 2015), thus participating in the control of mRNA translation. Here we verify the codon-usage dependent inhibition of HIV-1 protein production by SLFN11 and demonstrate a similar activity for SLFN12. Both proteins do not affect HIV translation initiation but translation elongation (**Figure R6 D**). Preliminary data also suggest a binding of SLFN11 and 12 to HIV RNA, however,

it is yet unknown whether this interaction is direct or indirect, and whether it is codon-usage-specific or not. Respective experiments are underway.

Irrespective of the detailed mechanisms of how SLFN proteins inhibit HIV reactivation, why were SLFN11 and 12 not identified in a previous global screen for latency maintaining factors? Besnard and colleagues have used latently infected J-Lat T cells that contain a single copy of an integrated HIV construct with an eGFP marker gene (Jordan, Bisgrove, and Verdin 2003). These cells were then transfected with a library of shRNAs linked to mCherry covering the complete genome and the cells were partly stimulated with antibodies to the T cell receptor. Evidence for latency controlling elements then showed up in eGFP and mCherry double positive cells (Besnard et al. 2016). That the SLFN protein family members were not amongst the 335 latency-controlling factors identified by this experimental set-up is not surprising because the eGFP marker gene has an optimized codon usage. As such it is not under SLFN translational control as shown in our experiments with pHIV-NLE that carries an eGFP gene (**Figure R3 E**) and lack of control of codon-optimized HIV-1 Gag p24 (**Figure R5 D**).

Besides HIV, many other viruses including DENV, HCV, WNV, CHKV and ZKV have a non-optimal codon usage and thus a low CAI score (**Figure D1**). Thus, it seems feasible that organisms use “non-optimal codon usage sensing” as a mean of detecting pathogen invasion. Indeed the broad spectrum antiviral activity of the SLFN genes would argue in favor of such a possibility. However, since many cellular genes are also not optimized in their codon usage and have similar CAI score as viral genomes, how could the SLFNs distinguish between friend and foe? While this is not yet understood, this distinction may be controlled at the level of pathogenic RNA detection and IFN induction (Katsoulidis et al. 2009, 2010; Puck et al. 2015). Like the HIV restriction factors TRIM5 alpha, APOBEC3G, SAMHD1, MX2, Tetherin and IFITMs, the SLFN proteins are also IFN inducible and their antiviral effect may be potentiated after pathogen detection. By this way, SLFN proteins may have a physiological role beyond pathogen defence but may become restriction factors when needed. Along these lines, the cellular genes with low CAI scores may help in defining such functions. Respective genes are enriched in the GO terms cell cycle

control and mitosis suggesting that these processes are also under translation control. Future work in this direction clearly deserves attention.

3. Conclusions and Perspectives

In summary, homeostatically proliferating T cells express a multitude of factors that may control HIV latency at a transcriptional and post-transcriptional level. Among these are the SLFN family members 11 and 12 that restrict HIV translation at the level of elongation in a codon usage-dependent manner. This may help to explain latent HIV provirus expansion via cell division and restricted virus production after T cell reactivation. Given their possible role in cell cycle control under non-infectious conditions, their utility as targets in HIV cure strategies has yet to be determined.

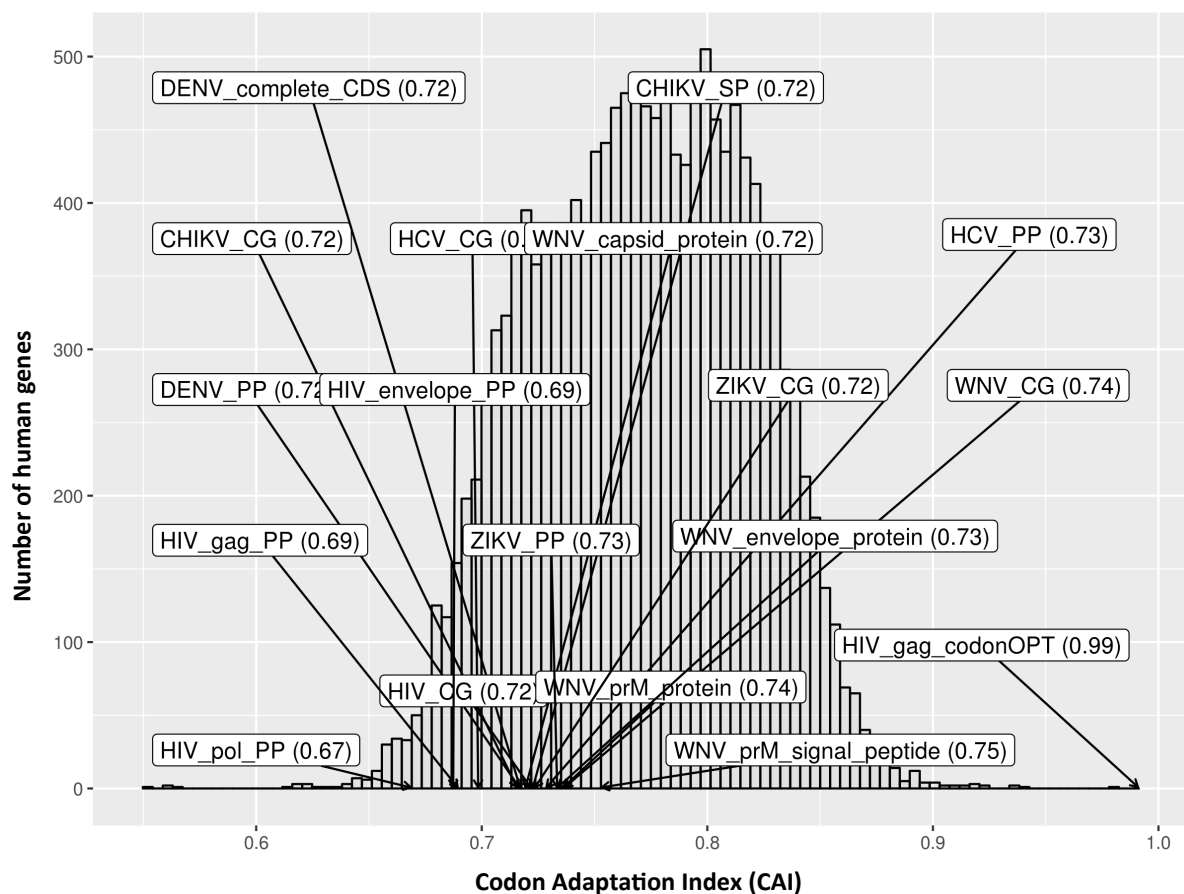


Figure D1. Histogram of codon adaptation indices (CAIs) of hg38 RefSeq transcripts. CAIs of several viral genomes and sequences are highlighted for comparison. DENV - Dengue virus; CHIKV - Chikungunya virus; HCV - Hepatitis C virus; HIV - Human immunodeficiency virus; WNV - West Nile virus; ZIKV - Zika virus. (PP - polyprotein; OPT – codon optimized sequence; CG - complete genome) Mean CAI for RefSeq transcripts: 0.77.

CONCLUSIONS

The main conclusions from the results presented in this thesis are as follows:

RNAseq analyses revealed different transcriptomic signatures of HSP-cultured naive and TCR-activated memory CD4 T cells

- Most of the genes upregulated in HSP-cultured CD4 T cells compared to TCR-activated CD4 T cells are enriched in GO terms such as immune defence and immune responses
- Several identified transcription factors from HSP-cultured CD4 T cells are known to play a role in control of HIV latency
- SLFN12 in HSP-cultured CD4 T cells was identified as a candidate HIV restriction factor involved in latency

SLFN11 and SLFN12 play a role in HIV latency maintenance

- HIV reactivation from latently infected ACH2 cells is enhanced by knock-down of SLFN11 and SLFN12
- HIV expression enhancement is due to an increase of the translation efficiency

SLFN12 inhibits HIV protein production in a codon-usage dependent manner at the level of translation elongation

- SLFN12 attenuates HIV protein synthesis from non-codon-optimized viral transcripts
- SLFN11 and SLFN12 bind to ribosomal subunits and ribosomes during HIV translation

ANNEXES

ANNEX 1

List of abbreviations

A	adenosine
Ag	antigen
AIDS	acquired immunodeficiency syndrome
Asp	asparagine
C	cytosine
CA	capsid
CAI	codon adaptation index
cART	combination antiretroviral therapy
CTLs	cytotoxic T lymphocytes
DE	differentially expressed genes
DNA	deoxyribonucleic acid
DNMDP	6-(4-(diethylamino)-3-nitrophenyl)-5-methyl-4,5-dihydropyridazin-3(2H)-one
dNTP	deoxynucleoside triphosphate
eGFP	enhanced green fluorescent protein
EIAV	equine infectious anemia virus
FIV	feline immunodeficiency virus
G	guanine
GAPDH	Glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase
GFP	green fluorescent protein
HIV	human immunodeficiency virus
HSP	homeostatic proliferation
IFN	interferon
IL-15	interleukin 15
IL-2	interleukin 2
IL-7	interleukin 7
IN	integrase
IVDU	intravenous drug users
LAV	lymphadenopathy associated virus
Leu	leucine
LPA	latency promoting agent
LRA	latency reversal agent
LTR	long terminal repetition
MA	matrix
MLV	murine leukemia virus
mRNA	messenger RNA
MSM	men who have sex with men
NC	nucleocapsid

NF- κ B	nuclear factor kappa-light-chain-enhancer of activated B cells
NFAT	nuclear factor of activated T cells
NLS	nuclear localization signal
opt	optimized
ORF	open reading frame
PBMC	peripheral blood mononuclear cell
PCR	polymerase chain reaction
PR	protease
RF	restriction factor
RNA	ribonucleic acid
RT	reverse transcriptase
SAHA	Suberoylanilide Hydroxamic Acid
Ser	serine
shRNA	short hairpin RNA
SIV	simian immunodeficiency virus
SLFN	Schlafen
ssRNA	single-stranded RNA
SU	surface
TCR	T-cell receptor
TF	transcription factor
TLR	Toll-like receptor
TM	transmembrane
tRNA	transfer RNA
Trp	tryptophan
VZV	varicella-zoster virus
wt	wild-type

ANNEX 2

Other contributions during PhD study

Fleta-Soriano E, Smutná K, Martínez JP, Lorca Oró C, Sadiq SK, Mirambeau G, et al. [The Myxobacterial Metabolite Soraphen A Inhibits HIV-1 by Reducing Virus Production and Altering Virion Composition.](#) *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2017 Aug;61(8). DOI: 10.1128/AAC.00739-17

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