Supplementary Data

“Transmission of Single HIV-1 Genomes and Dynamics of Early Immune Escape Revealed by Ultra-deep Sequencing”

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Section I  Basic supporting figures and tables

These tables (discussed in the main text) provide a comprehensive summary of immunological data on these patients. New data generated in the course of this study were compiled and integrated with data from previous publications [1–5].

Section II  Immune Escape Dynamics

We applied previously developed methods to quantify rates of viral escape from the CTL response [6–8] to the 454 data. The patterns and rates of viral escape vary between different epitope regions and different patients (see main text and Fig. S4). In particular, in two patients, escape variants that were at high frequency at the intermediate time point became substituted later by other variants (Fig. 5, main text).

For all viral variants, we estimated the rate of accumulation in the viral population during the early and late time points (Fig. S4). (The rate of accumulation, \( \varepsilon \), is the coefficient of time in the exponential growth equation \( N = N_0 \times e^{\varepsilon t} \). The doubling time of a variant is \( T_2 = \ln(2)/\varepsilon \).) The estimated rates are highly variable. In general, most mutations either accumulate slowly or disappear in the population (negative accumulation rates), while a few mutations accumulate rather quickly, and the distribution of accumulation rates changes over the time period studied for different epitopes.

Given our estimates on the rate of accumulation of the dominant viral escapes, we also estimated the time when the selection to avoid the CTL response started (see below for details and the assumptions). The day when the initial frequency of the selected variant was predicted to be \( 5 \times 10^{-5} \) (i.e., between \( 10^{-5} \) and \( 10^{-4} \)) was used as the estimate of the day (range of days) on which selection was initiated. By this measure, we obtained the following estimates for the start of selection (in days relative to day 0 in our data): WEAU Env AY9, 4.9 (1.3 to 6.5; estimated escape rate \( \varepsilon = 0.44 \) day\(^{-1} \); doubling time \( T_2 = 1.58 \) days); CH40 Nef SR9, -2.9 (-7.8 to -0.8; \( \varepsilon = 0.32 \) day\(^{-1} \); doubling time \( T_2 = 2.17 \) days); SUMA Tat FY16, 10.2 (2.8 to 13.3; \( \varepsilon = 0.22 \) day\(^{-1} \); doubling time \( T_2 = 3.15 \) days); SUMA Rev QR9, 17.9 (14 to 19.5; \( \varepsilon = 0.42 \) day\(^{-1} \); doubling time \( T_2 = 1.65 \) days). Table S6 shows the accumulation or loss rates of various escape forms. To calculate the 95% confidence intervals (CIs) for the estimated rate of accumulation of different escape variants we used a bootstrap approach to regenerate escape data [9]. For a given time point, where there are total \( N \) sequences and \( m \) of these are of a particular mutant (i.e., \( m < N \) and the frequency of the mutant in the population is \( p = m/N \)), we generated a sample frequency
of the mutant as $B_N(m/N)/N$ where $B_N(p)$ is a binomial distribution for $N$ trials with the success rate per trial $p = m/N$. Resampling was repeated independently 1000 times for each escape variant.

The model for the dynamics of escape of a virus from a single CTL response has been described in detail previously [6–8]. Under several assumptions, change in the frequency of the escape variant $f(t)$ is given by the formula

$$f(t) = \frac{f_0}{f_0 + (1 - f_0)e^{-\varepsilon t}},$$

(1)

where $f_0$ is the frequency of the escape mutant in the population at some time which we arbitrarily call $t = 0$ and $\varepsilon$ is the rate of accumulation of the escape variant in the population. From Equation 1 it follows that the ratio of a given escape variant to all other variants in the population:

$$z(t) = f(t)/(1 - f(t)), \quad (2)$$

changes exponentially over time:

$$z(t) = z_0e^{\varepsilon t}, \quad (3)$$

where $z(t)$ and $z_0$ are the ratio of the frequency of the escape mutant to the frequency of the wild type virus in the population at some time $t$ and at time $t = 0$, respectively.

Since for many viral variants we have precise estimates of the rate of escape from the CTL response, we can calculate the approximate time when the selection started (i.e. when the CTL response began killing cells infected with the transmitted/founder virus). For that we rewrite Equation 1 by letting $T$ be the time when the selection started with $f_T$ being the frequency of the viral variant at this time point:

$$f(t) = \frac{f_T}{f_T + (1 - f_T)e^{-\varepsilon(t-T)}}, \quad (4)$$

Note that this model assumes that selection is constant during the whole period of selection. Equation 4 can be then fit to the data on the dynamics of a given escape variant (the dominant variant by the third time point in our analysis) to estimate $\varepsilon$ and $T$ given that $f_T$ is fixed (in our estimates we let $f_T = 10^{-5}, 5 \times 10^{-5}, 10^{-4}$). In those cases when there is evidence of change of the escape rate over time (i.e., ratio $z$ changes bi-exponentially; e.g., CH40 and WEAU), we fix the rate of escape to its maximal
value ε and estimate only T. The estimated rates of escape are reported together with the range of times at which the selection pressure is estimated to have started. Because we generally obtain the upper bound average estimate on the escape rate (except for SUMA Tat where the upper bound estimate is infinity, results not shown), our estimated time of the start of the selective pressure is an upper bound. Assuming an increase in the selective pressure over time would reduce the estimated time of the start of the selective pressure.

Section III  Subtype B consensus: reversion and escape

As discussed in the main text, there were a number of positions where the transmitted virus did not match the B subtype consensus in these three subjects. These are indicated in the alignment in Table S3. Fig. 8 summarizes the B consensus amino acid frequencies in each patient at each time point in the epitope regions, and Table S7 provides a more explicit breakdown of the data in the epitopes and V3 regions. Within epitopes (shown in red) there was selection for the B consensus in 6/8 positions. 4/6 of these B consensus substitutions diminished in frequency over time. There was no selection for B consensus amino acids outside of the epitopes (blue), hence no evidence for rapid reversion on this time scale. In contrast, RIER, with a chronic infection, often carried common B consensus variants (Fig. 8 in green, and Table S7 A and B): in 3 positions, over 30% of the sequences matched the consensus, at 3, the consensus was found at low but clearly replicating circulating levels (1-15%). This left only one position with undetectable levels of B consensus amino acids (green). In 4 chronic-infection patients in our earlier 454 study [10], consensus amino acid frequencies similar to those in RIER were present (See Table S8). Thus during chronic HIV-1 infection, the B consensus amino acids are generally present and replicating even when they are not the most common form in an individual.

Section IV  Figures and Tables related to experimental methods

Table S9 presents the inner PCR primers used for specific fragment amplification following half-genome RT-PCR, with multiplex sequence tags.

Figure S5 summarizes the amplification protocol, which was designed to maintain diversity in the amplified DNA pools used as sequencing template.
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Supplementary Figure Legends

Figure S1. Annotated example of format for Table S3, which includes aligned amino-acid sequences of the epitope regions with variant frequencies, organized by subtype, escape form, and time point. The subject ID, and count of the number of variants with a given protein sequence are shown. The epitope is in bold, and the array of secondary mutations that are found in conjunction with the N to K substitution are shown; the dominant escape forms have secondary mutations that are consistent with a Poisson distribution, with the exception of the overlapping epitope region in SUMa Tat (Table S5). Table S3 includes complete data for all 4 epitope regions.

Figure S2. Phylogenetic trees for ENV V3 DNA sequences, by time point. (A) WEAU, (B) CH40, and (C) SUMa. Branch widths are proportional to the log-ratio of abundance in the sample; trees are rooted by the most common sequence (the transmitted/founder virus); times are in days from symptoms (WEAU, SUMa) or from screening (CH40).

Figure S3. Phylogenetic trees of ENV V3 DNA sequences (all timepoint samples combined for each subject). (A) WEAU, (B) CH40, and (C) SUMa, pooled from all samples, with branch color indicating sample timepoint (blue, 1st timepoint; green, 2nd; red, 3rd). Branch widths are proportional to the log-ratio of abundance in the sample; trees are rooted by the most common sequence (the transmitted/founder virus); times are in days from symptoms (WEAU, SUMa) or from screening (CH40).

Figure S4. Distributions of accumulation rates of viral variants generated during acute infection. In the cases when the frequency of a variant was below the level of detection (i.e., less than 1 sequence per sample), we added the value of 1/N to the variant frequency at that time point. Equation 3 was used to estimate the rate of escape \( \varepsilon \) for every viral variant. The distribution of escape rates is very wide, with some variants escaping at negative rates (i.e., declining in frequency), and a very few having extremely rapid escape rates. A) WEAU Env AY9 epitope; B) CH40 Nef SR9 epitope; C) SUMa Rev QL9 epitope; D) SUMa Tat FY16 multi-epitope region.

Figure S5. Amplification protocol. The protocol was designed with the intent of reducing loss of diversity during PCR amplification by (1) limiting the number of cycles (2) using large amounts of template, and (3) using multiple small amplification reactions which were pooled for sequencing.