

Sex differences in the Toll-like receptor–mediated response of plasmacytoid dendritic cells to HIV-1

Angela Meier^{1,8}, J Judy Chang^{1,8}, Ellen S Chan², Richard B Pollard³, Harlyn K Sidhu¹, Smita Kulkarni⁴, Tom Fang Wen¹, Robert J Lindsay¹, Liliana Orellana², Donna Mildvan⁵, Suzane Bazner^{1,6}, Hendrik Streeck¹, Galit Alter¹, Jeffrey D Lifson⁷, Mary Carrington⁴, Ronald J Bosch², Gregory K Robbins⁶ & Marcus Altfeld^{1,6}

Manifestations of viral infections can differ between women and men¹, and marked sex differences have been described in the course of HIV-1 disease. HIV-1–infected women tend to have lower viral loads early in HIV-1 infection but progress faster to AIDS for a given viral load than men^{2–7}. Here we show substantial sex differences in the response of plasmacytoid dendritic cells (pDCs) to HIV-1. pDCs derived from women produce markedly more interferon- α (IFN- α) in response to HIV-1–encoded Toll-like receptor 7 (TLR7) ligands than pDCs derived from men, resulting in stronger secondary activation of CD8⁺ T cells. In line with these *in vitro* studies, treatment-naïve women chronically infected with HIV-1 had considerably higher levels of CD8⁺ T cell activation than men after adjusting for viral load. These data show that sex differences in TLR-mediated activation of pDCs may account for higher immune activation in women compared to men at a given HIV-1 viral load and provide a mechanism by which the same level of viral replication might result in faster HIV-1 disease progression in women compared to men. Modulation of the TLR7 pathway in pDCs may therefore represent a new approach to reduce HIV-1–associated pathology.

According to UNAIDS, almost half of all HIV-1–infected individuals worldwide are women. Studies comparing the course of HIV-1 infection between women and men have demonstrated considerable sex differences in the manifestations of HIV-1 disease. Whereas HIV-1–infected women present with lower viral load early in HIV-1 infection, women with the same HIV-1 viral load as men have a 1.6-fold higher risk of developing AIDS^{2–7}. The mechanisms underlying these major sex differences in the manifestation of HIV-1 disease are not understood.

There is increasing consensus that the degree of immune activation in HIV-1–infected subjects is a strong independent predictor for HIV-1 disease progression^{8–16}. pDCs have a central role in this HIV-1–induced activation of the immune system, as they can sense HIV-1

single-stranded RNA via TLR7 (refs. 17–20). Notably, peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) derived from women have been shown to produce markedly more IFN- α in response to the synthetic TLR7 ligand imiquimod than PBMCs derived from men²¹. We, therefore, reasoned that sex differences in HIV-1–induced immune activation might be responsible for the observed differences in HIV-1 disease and investigated differences in cytokine production by PBMCs in response to HIV-1 between men and women, as well as the consequences for T cell activation.

We used intracellular cytokine staining (ICS) by multiparameter flow cytometry to quantify the percentage of pDCs producing IFN- α or tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α) after stimulation with HIV-1–derived TLR7 and TLR8 (TLR7/8) ligands, TLR9 ligand ODN2216 (CpG-A) or aldrithiol-2–inactivated HIV-1 virus (AT-2 virus) (Fig. 1). A significantly higher percentage of pDCs derived from women produced IFN- α in response to HIV-1–derived TLR ligands or AT-2 virus as compared to pDCs derived from men (Fig. 1a–c). In line with previous reports²¹, we detected no significant sex difference in the percentage of IFN- α –producing pDCs in response to the TLR9 ligand (Fig. 1a,b). In contrast to the differences in IFN- α production by pDCs, the mean percentage of pDCs responding with TNF- α –production to stimulation with HIV-1–derived TLR7/8 ligands, although slightly higher, did not significantly differ between women and men (Fig. 1d,e), suggesting that the differences in cytokine production that we observed were mediated by a signaling event downstream of TLR7. The sex differences in IFN- α –producing pDCs were not due to differences between the studied men and women in race or ethnicity, the frequencies of described polymorphisms within the genes encoding TLR7, myeloid differentiation factor-88 (MyD88) and interferon regulatory factor-7 (IRF-7) or pDC numbers (data not shown). Furthermore, neither HIV-1–induced cytokine production by myeloid dendritic cells (mDCs) nor that by monocytes differed between women and men ($P > 0.4$ for all comparisons). In summary, these data demonstrate major sex differences in the IFN- α pDC response to HIV-1–encoded TLR7/8 ligands and inactivated HIV-1.

¹Ragon Institute of Massachusetts General Hospital, Massachusetts Institute of Technology and Harvard University, Boston, Massachusetts, USA. ²Harvard School of Public Health, Boston, Massachusetts, USA. ³University of California–Davis Medical Center, Sacramento, California, USA. ⁴Cancer and Inflammation Program, Laboratory of Experimental Immunology and Science Applications International Corporation–Frederick, National Cancer Institute, Frederick, Maryland, USA. ⁵Beth Israel Medical Center, New York, New York, USA. ⁶Division of Infectious Diseases, Massachusetts General Hospital, Harvard Medical School, Boston, Massachusetts, USA. ⁷AIDS and Cancer Virus Program, Science Applications International Corporation–Frederick, National Cancer Institute, Frederick, Maryland, USA. ⁸These authors contributed equally to this work. Correspondence should be addressed to M.A. (malfeld@partners.org).

Received 25 March; accepted 10 June; published online 13 July 2009; doi:10.1038/nm.2004

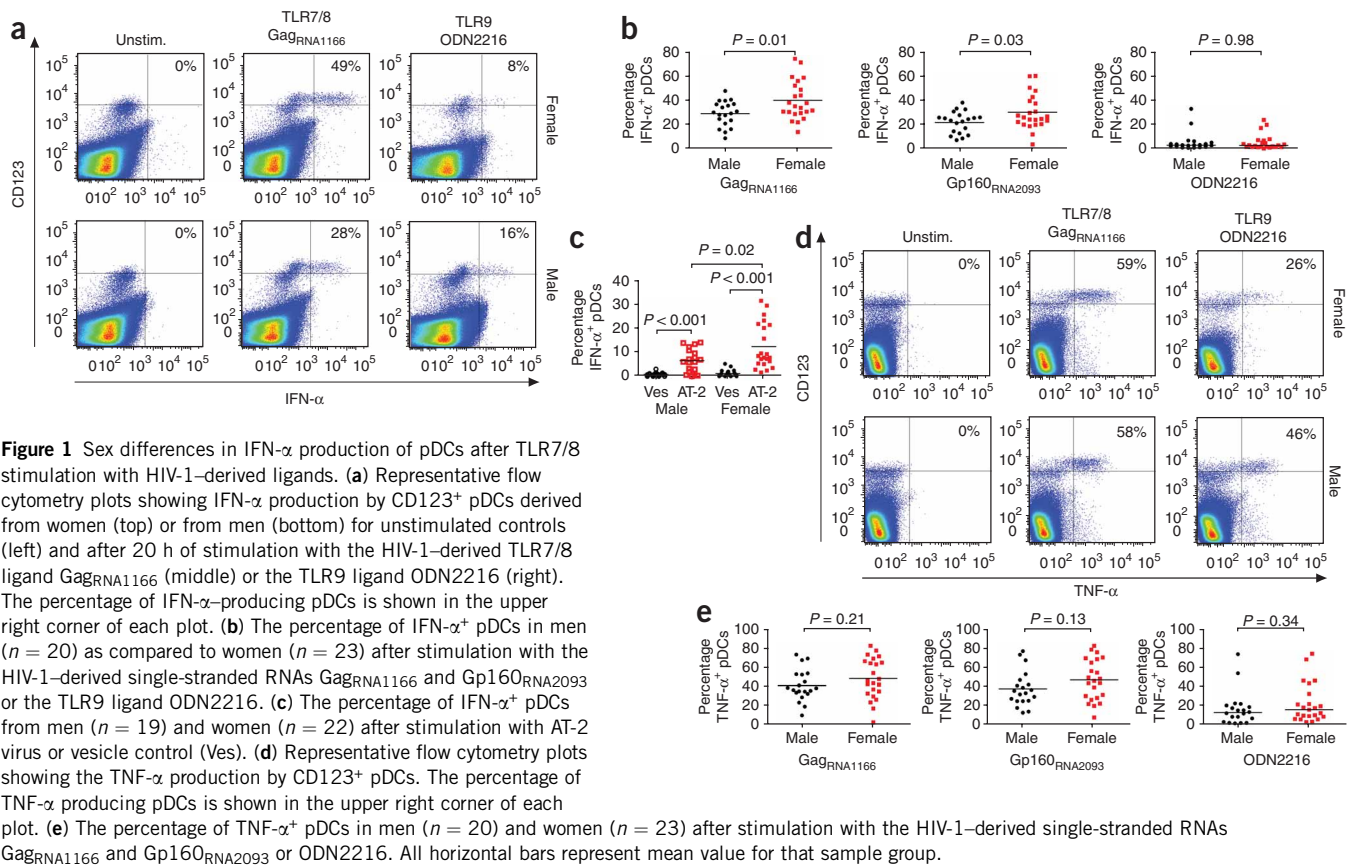


Figure 1 Sex differences in IFN- α production of pDCs after TLR7/8 stimulation with HIV-1-derived ligands. **(a)** Representative flow cytometry plots showing IFN- α production by CD123⁺ pDCs derived from women (top) or from men (bottom) for unstimulated controls (left) and after 20 h of stimulation with the HIV-1-derived TLR7/8 ligand Gag_{RNA1166} (middle) or the TLR9 ligand ODN2216 (right). The percentage of IFN- α -producing pDCs is shown in the upper right corner of each plot. **(b)** The percentage of IFN- α ⁺ pDCs in men ($n = 20$) as compared to women ($n = 23$) after stimulation with the HIV-1-derived single-stranded RNAs Gag_{RNA1166} and Gp160_{RNA2093} or the TLR9 ligand ODN2216. **(c)** The percentage of IFN- α ⁺ pDCs from men ($n = 19$) and women ($n = 22$) after stimulation with AT-2 virus or vesicle control (Ves). **(d)** Representative flow cytometry plots showing the TNF- α production by CD123⁺ pDCs. The percentage of TNF- α producing pDCs is shown in the upper right corner of each plot. **(e)** The percentage of TNF- α ⁺ pDCs in men ($n = 20$) and women ($n = 23$) after stimulation with the HIV-1-derived single-stranded RNAs Gag_{RNA1166} and Gp160_{RNA2093} or ODN2216. All horizontal bars represent mean value for that sample group.

Progesterin has recently been shown to modulate pDC function *in vitro*²², suggesting that pDC function may be modulated by sex hormones. In our study, IFN- α production by pDCs in response to HIV-1-encoded TLR7/8 ligands did not differ between women who reported the use of oral contraceptives and those who did not ($P = 0.79$, data not shown). However, plasma progesterone concentrations significantly correlated with the percentage of IFN- α ⁺ pDCs after stimulation with the HIV-1-derived TLR7/8 ligand Gag_{RNA1166} (Fig. 2, $R = 0.57$, $P = 0.02$). Furthermore, there was a trend toward lower percentages of IFN- α -producing pDCs in response to TLR7/8 ligands in postmenopausal women compared to premenopausal women (mean 16.9% versus 27.6%, $P = 0.08$, data not shown), overall suggesting that sex hormone abundance can modulate the ability of pDCs to produce IFN- α in response to TLR7 stimulation.

IFN- α is a central cytokine in activating an antiviral immune response, and high circulating amounts of IFN- α are a major prognostic indicator for HIV-1 clinical progression^{8,23–25}. Furthermore, IFN- α has been shown *in vitro* to induce upregulation of CD38 on CD8⁺ T cells²⁶, a strong independent predictor of HIV-1 disease progression^{8–10}. In line with these observations, CD8⁺ T cells significantly upregulated CD38 expression after stimulation of PBMCs with HIV-1-derived TLR7/8 ligands or AT-2 virus *in vitro* ($P < 0.001$, Fig. 3a). Furthermore, the expression of CD38 on CD8⁺ T cells after incubation with HIV-1-encoded TLR7/8 ligands and AT-2 virus was higher in women compared to men (Fig. 3b). This *in vitro* activation of CD8⁺ T cells was at least partially mediated by IFN- α (Fig. 3c,d). On the basis of these data demonstrating sex differences in HIV-1-induced immune activation *in vitro*, we hypothesized that

treatment-naive, chronically HIV-1-infected women will show higher levels of CD8⁺ T cell activation than men with comparable HIV-1 viral loads.

To test this hypothesis, we quantified *ex vivo* T cell activation on pretreatment samples from chronically HIV-1-infected subjects enrolled into the AIDS Clinical Trials Group (ACTG) 384 study, including 109 treatment-naive women and 514 treatment-naive men^{27,28}. In ACTG 384, women had higher CD4⁺ T cell counts (340 versus 273 cells per mm³, $P = 0.002$) and lower plasma HIV-1 RNA copy numbers (4.7 versus 5.0 log₁₀ copies per ml, $P < 0.001$) at enrollment, before initiation of antiretroviral therapy²⁷. In line with previous reports, the degree of immune activation, defined by the percentage of CD38⁺ human leukocyte antigen (HLA)-DR⁺CD8⁺

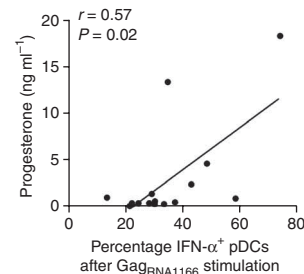


Figure 2 Impact of sex hormone abundance on the IFN- α production by pDCs in response to TLR7/8 agonists. Plasma progesterone concentration measured in 16 premenopausal women significantly correlated with the percentage of IFN- α ⁺ pDCs in response to stimulation with the HIV-1-derived TLR7/8 ligand Gag_{RNA1166}.

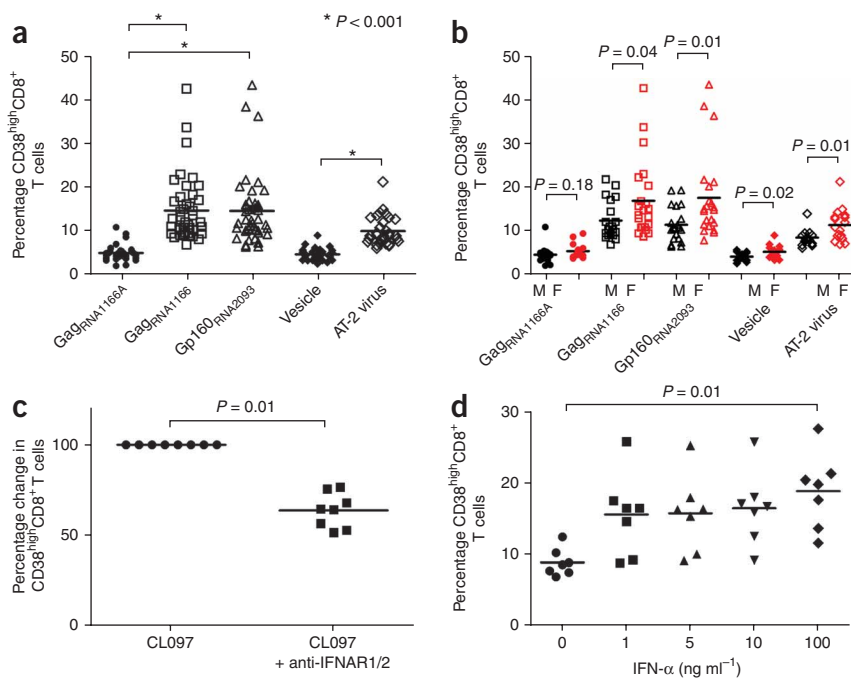


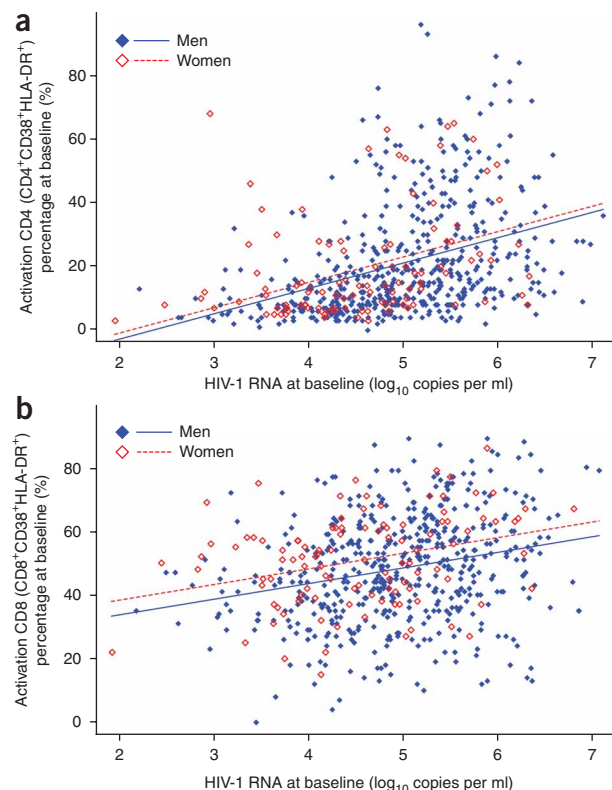
Figure 3 Sex differences in CD38 expression on CD8⁺ T cells after stimulation with HIV-1–derived TLR7/8 ligands is dependent on IFN- α . **(a)** The percentage of CD38^{high}CD8⁺ T cells after 20 h of stimulation with HIV-1–derived TLR7/8 ligands (Gp160_{RNA2093} and Gag_{RNA1166A}), inactive control single-stranded RNA (Gag_{RNA1166A}), AT-2 virus or vesicle control for all individuals. **(b)** Differences in the percentage of CD38^{high}CD8⁺ T cells from men and from women after 20 h of stimulation of PBMCs with the HIV-1–derived TLR7/8 ligands Gp160_{RNA2093} and Gag_{RNA1166A}, inactive control single-stranded RNA (Gag_{RNA1166A}), AT-2 virus or vesicle control. **(c)** The percentage of CD38^{high}CD8⁺ T cells above background in response to the TLR7 ligand CL097 was set to 100%, and the remaining activation in the presence of blocking antibodies against IFN- α receptors 1 and 2 is shown in the right column (CL097 + anti-IFNAR1/2). **(d)** Dose-dependent increase in T cell activation, as represented by the percentage of CD38^{high}CD8⁺ T cells after stimulation of PBMCs from healthy donors with increasing amounts of human IFN- α ranging from 0 to 100 ng ml⁻¹. All horizontal bars represent mean value for that sample group.

T cells, was significantly associated with HIV-1 viral load at baseline ($R = 0.24$, $P < 0.001$) but did not significantly differ between women and men at baseline (Fig. 4). However, after adjusting for baseline HIV-1 viral load, the percentage of CD38⁺HLA-DR⁺CD8⁺ T cells, but not CD38⁺HLA-DR⁺CD4⁺ T cells, was significantly higher in women compared to men ($P = 0.28$ for CD4⁺ T cells, Fig. 4a; and $P = 0.006$ for CD8⁺ T cells, Fig. 4b). When ethnicity or intravenous drug use were included into the model, CD8⁺ T cell activation remained significantly higher in women compared to men after adjusting for HIV-1 viral load ($P = 0.004$, data not shown). The higher CD8⁺ T cell activation in women compared to men (an average of 4.6% more CD38⁺HLA-DR⁺CD8⁺ T cells) corresponds to the effect of approximately one log₁₀ higher plasma HIV-1 RNA copy numbers (Fig. 4b). These *in vivo* data are consistent with the *in vitro* studies shown above (Fig. 1b) in which significant differences in immune activation mediated by sex differences in the pDC response to HIV-1 single-stranded RNA–encoded TLR7 ligands were observed and provide a mechanism by which the same HIV-1 viral load can result in higher immune activation and faster progression to AIDS^{3,29} in women compared to men.

The expression of immune activation markers such as HLA-DR or CD38 on CD8⁺ T cells has been shown to independently predict the rate of HIV-1 disease progression^{8–10,30,31}. The stimulation of the innate immune system, and, in particular, the chronic production of IFN- α , has been suggested to have a crucial role in driving this generalized immune activation and disease progression in HIV-1–infected individuals^{16,18,23,24,32–34}. Furthermore, IFN- α has been suggested to be a key mediator for SIV pathogenesis in rhesus macaques^{35,36}, where pDCs from rhesus macaques, similarly to pDCs in humans, produce large amounts of IFN- α when stimulated with

SIV or HIV-1. In contrast, sooty mangabeys, the natural hosts of SIV that do not progress to AIDS³⁷, have markedly lower levels of T cell activation in chronic SIV infection, and pDCs of sooty mangabeys have been reported to produce less IFN- α in response to SIV³⁵. These data suggest that persistent IFN- α production by pDCs in response to SIV or HIV-1 is a central factor in mediating virus-induced immune activation and the resulting pathogenesis in chronic infection.

Figure 4 Sex differences in the CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cell activation of HIV-1–infected, treatment-naïve individuals. The association between sex and the percentage of CD38⁺HLA-DR⁺CD4⁺ (a) or CD38⁺HLA-DR⁺CD8⁺ (b) T cells, adjusting for HIV-1 viral load. HIV-1 RNA load measured at baseline in women and men are correlated to CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cell activation (correlation are shown by lines).



Major differences in the manifestations of HIV-1 disease have been previously reported between females and males, with women experiencing a substantially increased risk of developing AIDS compared to men for the same level of HIV-1 replication²⁻⁷. Here we show that treatment-naïve women chronically infected with HIV-1 also have markedly higher levels of CD8⁺ T cell activation compared to men with the same HIV-1 viral load. In an attempt to elucidate a mechanism underlying this sex difference in the level of immune activation induced by similar amounts of HIV-1 RNA, we show that pDCs from women produce considerably higher amounts of pro-inflammatory IFN- α in response to HIV-1 than pDCs from men and that these higher levels of IFN- α secretion can lead to higher levels of CD8⁺ T cell activation. These data are consistent with a model in which higher TLR7-mediated responsiveness to HIV-1 RNA in women contributes to a more rapid HIV-1 disease progression in the presence of persistent chronic viral replication.

In conclusion, we demonstrate sex differences in the IFN- α production by pDCs after stimulation with HIV-1 single-stranded RNA that translate into enhanced CD8⁺ T cell activation *in vitro* and *in vivo* for the same amount of HIV-1 RNA in women compared to men. This enhanced immune activation in women can explain the previously reported clinical observation that women have a higher risk for HIV-1 disease progression than men during chronic infection at a given HIV-1 viral load. Modulation of the TLR7 pathways in pDCs could therefore represent a unique approach to reduce HIV-1-associated pathogenesis and might have implications that go beyond HIV-1 infection, as differential susceptibility to several RNA viruses have been described for men and women¹, and autoimmune diseases that show sex differences in their incidence, such as systemic lupus erythematosus, have also been shown to involve the TLR7 and TLR8 pathway^{38,39}.

METHODS

Methods and any associated references are available in the online version of the paper at <http://www.nature.com/naturemedicine/>.

Note: Supplementary information is available on the Nature Medicine website.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank S. Deeks, P. Hunt, B. Walker and J. Spritzler for valuable intellectual input and discussions and the ACTG 384 main study and immunology A5007 substudy teams. These studies were supported by US National Institutes of Health (NIH)–National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases grants to M.A. (R21 AI071806, PO1 AI074415) and G.K.R. (K01AI062435), the Harvard University Center for AIDS Research, the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation and the Doris Duke Charitable Foundation. A.M. was supported by a fellowship from the German Research Society (Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft), and J.J.C. was supported by a Fellowship awarded from the National Health and Medical Research Council of Australia (519578). ACTG 384 was supported in part by National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases grants AI38855, AI27659, AI38858, AI25879 and AI27666 and by Agouron/Pfizer, Bristol Myers Squibb and GlaxoSmithKline. This project has been funded in whole or in part with federal funds from the US National Cancer Institute (NCI), NIH, under Contract number HHSN261200800001E. The content of this publication does not necessarily reflect the views or policies of the Department of Health and Human Services, nor does the mention of trade names, commercial products or organizations imply endorsement by the US Government. This research was supported in part by the Intramural Research Support Program of the NIH, NCI, Center for Cancer Research. M.A. is a Distinguished Clinical Scientist of the Doris Duke Charitable Foundation. We thank the Mark and Lisa Schwartz Foundation and the Phillip T. and Susan M. Ragon Foundation for their support.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

A.M. and J.J.C. conducted the *in vitro* experiments, data analysis and contributed to manuscript preparation; H.K.S., T.F.W. and R.J.L. also conducted the *in vitro* experiments; E.S.C., R.J.B., L.O. and D.M. contributed to the statistical analysis and interpretation of the data; A.M., J.J.C., R.J.B., G.A., H.S. and M.A. participated in the planning of the experiments; S.K. and M.C. conducted the

genetic polymorphism experiments; S.B. helped with the enrollment of study subjects, R.B.P. and G.K.R. provided the data for ACTG 384; J.D.L. provided the AT-2 virus and vesicle controls used in the *in vitro* experiments; and M.A. planned the studies, prepared the manuscript and supervised the project.

Published online at <http://www.nature.com/naturemedicine/>.

Reprints and permissions information is available online at <http://npg.nature.com/reprintsandpermissions/>.

1. Fish, E.N. The X-files in immunity: sex-based differences predispose immune responses. *Nat. Rev. Immunol.* **8**, 737–744 (2008).
2. Katzenstein, D.A. *et al.* The relation of virologic and immunologic markers to clinical outcomes after nucleoside therapy in HIV-infected adults with 200 to 500 CD4 cells per cubic millimeter. AIDS Clinical Trials Group Study 175 Virology Study Team. *N. Engl. J. Med.* **335**, 1091–1098 (1996).
3. Farzadegan, H. *et al.* Sex differences in HIV-1 viral load and progression to AIDS. *Lancet.* **352**, 1510–1514 (1998).
4. Evans, J.S. *et al.* Serum levels of virus burden in early-stage human immunodeficiency virus type 1 disease in women. *J. Infect. Dis.* **175**, 795–800 (1997).
5. Sterling, T.R. *et al.* Sex differences in longitudinal human immunodeficiency virus type 1 RNA levels among seroconverters. *J. Infect. Dis.* **180**, 666–672 (1999).
6. Lyles, C.M. *et al.* Longitudinal human immunodeficiency virus type 1 load in the Italian seroconversion study: correlates and temporal trends of virus load. *J. Infect. Dis.* **180**, 1018–1024 (1999).
7. Gandhi, M. *et al.* Does patient sex affect human immunodeficiency virus levels? *Clin. Infect. Dis.* **35**, 313–322 (2002).
8. Fahey, J.L. *et al.* The prognostic value of cellular and serologic markers in infection with human immunodeficiency virus type 1. *N. Engl. J. Med.* **322**, 166–172 (1990).
9. Fahey, J.L. *et al.* Prognostic significance of plasma markers of immune activation, HIV viral load and CD4 T-cell measurements. *AIDS* **12**, 1581–1590 (1998).
10. Giorgi, J.V. *et al.* Shorter survival in advanced human immunodeficiency virus type 1 infection is more closely associated with T lymphocyte activation than with plasma virus burden or virus chemokine coreceptor usage. *J. Infect. Dis.* **179**, 859–870 (1999).
11. Deeks, S.G. & Walker, B.D. The immune response to AIDS virus infection: good, bad or both? *J. Clin. Invest.* **113**, 808–810 (2004).
12. Deeks, S.G. *et al.* Immune activation set point during early HIV infection predicts subsequent CD4⁺ T-cell changes independent of viral load. *Blood* **104**, 942–947 (2004).
13. Hunt, P.W. *et al.* Relationship between T cell activation and CD4⁺ T cell count in HIV-seropositive individuals with undetectable plasma HIV RNA levels in the absence of therapy. *J. Infect. Dis.* **197**, 126–133 (2008).
14. Sousa, A.E., Carneiro, J., Meier-Schellersheim, M., Grossman, Z. & Victorino, R.M. CD4 T cell depletion is linked directly to immune activation in the pathogenesis of HIV-1 and HIV-2 but only indirectly to the viral load. *J. Immunol.* **169**, 3400–3406 (2002).
15. Silvestri, G. *et al.* Nonpathogenic SIV infection of sooty mangabeys is characterized by limited bystander immunopathology despite chronic high-level viremia. *Immunity* **18**, 441–452 (2003).
16. Boasso, A. & Shearer, G.M. Chronic innate immune activation as a cause of HIV-1 immunopathogenesis. *Clin. Immunol.* **126**, 235–242 (2008).
17. Beignon, A.S. *et al.* Endocytosis of HIV-1 activates plasmacytoid dendritic cells via Toll-like receptor–viral RNA interactions. *J. Clin. Invest.* **115**, 3265–3275 (2005).
18. Chang, J.J. & Altfeld, M. TLR-mediated immune activation in HIV. *Blood* **113**, 269–270 (2009).
19. Heil, F. *et al.* Species-specific recognition of single-stranded RNA via Toll-like receptor 7 and 8. *Science* **303**, 1526–1529 (2004).
20. Meier, A. *et al.* MyD88-dependent immune activation mediated by HIV-1-encoded TLR ligands. *J. Virol.* **81**, 8180–8191 (2007).
21. Berghöfer, B. *et al.* TLR7 ligands induce higher IFN- α production in females. *J. Immunol.* **177**, 2088–2096 (2006).
22. Hughes, G.C., Thomas, S., Li, C., Kaja, M.K. & Clark, E.A. Cutting edge: progesterone regulates IFN- α production by plasmacytoid dendritic cells. *J. Immunol.* **180**, 2029–2033 (2008).
23. Eyster, M.E., Goedert, J.J., Poon, M.C. & Preble, O.T. Acid-labile α interferon. A possible preclinical marker for the acquired immunodeficiency syndrome in hemophilia. *N. Engl. J. Med.* **309**, 583–586 (1983).
24. Krown, S.E. *et al.* Relationship and prognostic value of endogenous interferon- α , β 2-microglobulin and neopterin serum levels in patients with Kaposi sarcoma and AIDS. *J. Acquir. Immune Defic. Syndr.* **4**, 871–880 (1991).
25. Mildvan, D., Machado, S.G., Wilets, I. & Grossberg, S.E. Endogenous interferon and triglyceride concentrations to assess response to zidovudine in AIDS and advanced AIDS-related complex. *Lancet* **339**, 453–456 (1992).
26. Rodriguez, B. *et al.* Interferon- α differentially rescues CD4 and CD8 T cells from apoptosis in HIV infection. *AIDS* **20**, 1379–1389 (2006).
27. Gandhi, R.T. *et al.* Effect of baseline- and treatment-related factors on immunologic recovery after initiation of antiretroviral therapy in HIV-1-positive subjects: results from ACTG 384. *J. Acquir. Immune Defic. Syndr.* **42**, 426–434 (2006).
28. Robbins, G.K. *et al.* Comparison of sequential three-drug regimens as initial therapy for HIV-1 infection. *N. Engl. J. Med.* **349**, 2293–2303 (2003).

29. Sterling, T.R. *et al.* Initial plasma HIV-1 RNA levels and progression to AIDS in women and men. *N. Engl. J. Med.* **344**, 720–725 (2001).
30. Giorgi, J.V. *et al.* Elevated levels of CD38+ CD8+ T cells in HIV infection add to the prognostic value of low CD4+ T cell levels: results of 6 years of follow-up. The Los Angeles Center, Multicenter AIDS Cohort Study. *J. Acquir. Immune Defic. Syndr.* **6**, 904–912 (1993).
31. Liu, Z. *et al.* Elevated CD38 antigen expression on CD8+ T cells is a stronger marker for the risk of chronic HIV disease progression to AIDS and death in the Multicenter AIDS Cohort Study than CD4+ cell count, soluble immune activation markers, or combinations of HLA-DR and CD38 expression. *J. Acquir. Immune Defic. Syndr. Hum. Retrovirol.* **16**, 83–92 (1997).
32. Boasso, A., Hardy, A.W., Anderson, S.A., Dolan, M.J. & Shearer, G.M. HIV-induced type I interferon and tryptophan catabolism drive T cell dysfunction despite phenotypic activation. *PLoS One* **3**, e2961 (2008).
33. Herbeuval, J.P. *et al.* Differential expression of IFN- α and TRAIL/DR5 in lymphoid tissue of progressor versus nonprogressor HIV-1-infected patients. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **103**, 7000–7005 (2006).
34. Herbeuval, J.P. & Shearer, G.M. HIV-1 immunopathogenesis: how good interferon turns bad. *Clin. Immunol.* **123**, 121–128 (2007).
35. Mandl, J.N. *et al.* Divergent TLR7 and TLR9 signaling and type I interferon production distinguish pathogenic and nonpathogenic AIDS virus infections. *Nat. Med.* **14**, 1077–1087 (2008).
36. Khatissian, E., Chakrabarti, L. & Hurtrel, B. Cytokine patterns and viral load in lymph nodes during the early stages of SIV infection. *Res. Virol.* **147**, 181–189 (1996).
37. Silvestri, G., Paiardini, M., Pandrea, I., Lederman, M.M. & Sodora, D.L. Understanding the benign nature of SIV infection in natural hosts. *J. Clin. Invest.* **117**, 3148–3154 (2007).
38. Barrat, F.J. *et al.* Nucleic acids of mammalian origin can act as endogenous ligands for Toll-like receptors and may promote systemic lupus erythematosus. *J. Exp. Med.* **202**, 1131–1139 (2005).
39. Guiducci, C., Coffman, R.L. & Barrat, F.J. Signalling pathways leading to IFN- α production in human plasmacytoid dendritic cell and the possible use of agonists or antagonists of TLR7 and TLR9 in clinical indications. *J. Intern. Med.* **265**, 43–57 (2009).



ONLINE METHODS

Study subjects. The ACTG 384 study recruited 980 antiretroviral-naive HIV-1-infected subjects²⁸. A subset of subjects (514 men and 109 women) followed at US sites underwent comprehensive immunologic assessments, which included the analysis of CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cell activation by flow cytometry. These included 287 white non-Hispanic individuals, 240 black non-Hispanic individuals, and 96 individuals with other backgrounds including Hispanics and those of Asian descent (all demographic information is as self-identified by the subjects). 578 of the 623 study subjects reported never using intravenous drugs, and 48 reported previous or current use of intravenous drugs. Furthermore, samples from 63 HIV-1-negative subjects enrolled at Massachusetts General Hospital were included in this study. Premenopausal women in the study were less than 40 years old, whereas the average age of postmenopausal women was 60 years. When available, we collected information on the use of oral contraceptives containing sex hormones, and 43% of premenopausal women reported the use of oral contraceptives. All subjects gave informed consent for participation in these studies. The study was approved by the Partners Institutional Review Board, and the ACTG 384 study was approved by local institutional review boards.

Analysis of polymorphisms within the genes encoding Toll-like receptor 7, myeloid differentiation factor-88 and interferon regulatory factor-7. We amplified the coding regions of the genes encoding MyD88 and IRF7 from genomic DNA with the primers listed in **Supplementary Table 1**. In addition, we also amplified the genomic sequences flanking the TLR7 single nucleotide polymorphisms rs179008 and rs2302267 that have been implicated in HIV-1 and hepatitis C virus disease progression (see **Supplementary Table 1** for primer sequences). Briefly, we amplified 10–20 ng of genomic DNA in 10- μ l reactions (200 nm dNTPs, 1.5 mM MgCl₂ and 0.2 μ M of each primer). We used a modified step-down program (annealing temperatures given in **Supplementary Table 1**) for amplification of the genes encoding IRF7 and MyD88 to ensure precise amplification. We amplified TLR7 single nucleotide polymorphisms at an annealing temperature of 55 °C. We subjected PCR products to direct bidirectional cycle sequencing using Bigdye terminator v. 1.1 run on an ABI3730 sequencer.

Measurement of single-cell cytokine production by flow cytometry. We stimulated 1.5×10^6 PBMCs per ml with 15 μ g ml⁻¹ single-stranded RNA (sequences of HIV-1 single-stranded RNA, Gag_{RNA1166} (5'-UUGUUAAGUGUUUCAAUUGU-3') and Gp160_{RNA2093} (5'-UUUUUGCUGUACUUCUAUA-3')) complexed with DOTAP transfection reagent (Roche), 1 μ g ml⁻¹ CL097 (Invivogen) or 5 μ M ODN2216 (Invivogen). We also stimulated cells with aldrithiol-2-inactivated HIV-1 virus (AT-2, MN strain, lot P4097) and microvesicle controls (lot P4079; AIDS and Cancer Virus Program, Science

Applications International Corporation Frederick, Inc., National Cancer Institute, Frederick). Unstimulated cells served as negative controls. We immediately added 5 μ g ml⁻¹ brefeldin A (Sigma) to each tube after adding TLR ligands to inhibit cellular cytokine release. We determined the intracellular cytokine content of monocytes, mDCs and pDCs after 20 h of incubation with the respective TLR ligands, as described previously²⁰. We acquired all samples on an LSR II flow cytometer (BD Biosciences). We determined the percentage of cytokine-producing pDCs, mDCs and monocytes by subsequent analysis with FlowJo software (TreeStar, Inc.). An average of 92% of lin^{neg}CD11c^{neg}CD123^{bright}IFN- α ⁺ pDCs also expressed CD303 (blood dendritic cell antigen-2) (data not shown).

Measurement of *in vitro* T cell activation in HIV-1-negative men and women. We performed flow cytometric quantification of CD38^{high}CD4⁺ and CD38^{high}CD8⁺ T cells on freshly isolated PBMCs from healthy HIV-1-negative control individuals after stimulation with HIV-1-derived single-stranded RNA ligands, vesicle control and AT-2 virus. For the *in vitro* IFN- α blocking assays, we pretreated PBMCs from HIV-1-negative individuals with antibodies directed against IFN- α receptor 1 and IFN- α receptor 2 (Abcam and PBL Interferonsource, respectively) for 1 h at 37 °C. We then stimulated PBMCs with a TLR7/8 ligand (CL097 at 1 μ g ml⁻¹) or with medium alone for 20 h. Furthermore, we stimulated PBMCs *in vitro* with increasing amounts of recombinant human IFN- α (1–100 ng ml⁻¹) for 20 h, and we measured T cell activation as described above.

Measurement of *ex vivo* T cell activation in HIV-1-infected men and women enrolled in ACTG 384. We quantified CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cell activation by flow cytometry of freshly isolated PBMCs from study participants at baseline, before the initiation of antiretroviral therapy, according to established ACTG protocols. We defined activated CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells by their expression of either CD4 or CD8 and their expression of CD38 and HLA-DR. Results are reported as the percentage of CD38⁺HLA-DR⁺CD4⁺ T cells or percentage of CD38⁺HLA-DR⁺CD8⁺ T cells.

Statistical analyses. For the immunologic assays on HIV-1-negative individuals, we used two-tailed Student's *t*-tests and Wilcoxon rank tests (Mann-Whitney or Wilcoxon signed-rank test for paired samples) to determine statistically significant differences. For the ACTG study, we compared continuous outcomes between men and women with Wilcoxon rank-sum tests. We used rank-based (Spearman) correlations to assess association between responses. We used multiple regression models to assess the association between activation percentage and sex, adjusting for HIV-1 viral load. All statistical tests were two-sided exploratory tests without adjustments for multiple testing at the 5% nominal level of significance.