HIV-1 Envelope Overcomes NLRP3-Mediated Inhibition of F-Actin Polymerization for Viral Entry

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Highlights
- NLRP3 and P2Y2 interact and regulate susceptibility to HIV-1 infection
- NLRP3 is an intrinsic inhibitory factor for HIV-1 that represses F-actin remodeling
- HIV-1 Env binding to host receptors overcomes NLRP3 restriction by activating P2Y2
- P2Y2 activation leads to CBL-mediated NLRP3 degradation and favors viral entry

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In Brief
Paoletti et al. identified a constitutive interaction between NLRP3 and P2Y2 that regulates HIV-1 entry into target cells. They revealed that NLRP3 represses viral entry by impairing F-actin reorganization. HIV-1 overcomes this host cellular resistance by inducing NLRP3 degradation through the activation of P2Y2-dependent signaling pathway.
HIV-1 Envelope Overcomes NLRP3-Mediated Inhibition of F-Actin Polymerization for Viral Entry

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SUMMARY

Purinergic receptors and nucleotide-binding domain leucine-rich repeat containing (NLR) proteins have been shown to control viral infection. Here, we show that the NLR family member NLRP3 and the purinergic receptor P2Y2 constitutively interact and regulate susceptibility to HIV-1 infection. We found that NLRP3 acts as an inhibitory factor of viral entry that represses F-actin remodeling. The binding of the HIV-1 envelope to its host cell receptors (CD4, CXCR4, and/or CCR5) overcomes this restriction by stimulating P2Y2. Once activated, P2Y2 enhances its interaction with NLRP3 and stimulates the recruitment of the E3 ubiquitin ligase CBL to NLRP3, ultimately leading to NLRP3 degradation. NLRP3 degradation is permissive for PYK2 phosphorylation (PYK2Y402*) and subsequent F-actin polymerization, which is required for the entry of HIV-1 into host cells. Taken together, our results uncover a mechanism by which HIV-1 overcomes NLRP3 restriction that appears essential for the accomplishment of the early steps of HIV-1 entry.

INTRODUCTION

Although the stimulation of innate immunity with vaccine adjuvants has been extensively and efficiently harnessed for the control of major infectious diseases (such as diphtheria, tetanus, and poliomyelitis), the cellular and molecular mechanisms that orchestrate immune responses against pathogens remain largely elusive, especially with respect to the early steps of infection. Immune sensing of HIV-1 by pathogen recognition receptors (PRRs) and cytoplasmic DNA sensors may partially hinder the early steps of HIV-1 entry.
Figure 1. NLRP3 and P2Y2 Interaction Is Enhanced during HIV-1 and SIV Infections

(A) Immunoprecipitations were performed in THP1 cells after 3 h of X4-tropic HIV-1 NL4-3 infection and analyzed by western blot. The asterisk indicates an unspecific band. Representative western blots of three independent experiments are shown. See also Figure S1 A.

(B–D) Confocal microscopy images of NLRP3 (B and C), gp120 (B), and P2Y2 (C) polarizations during HIV-1-infected and uninfected lymphocyte interactions. Images are representative of three different donors. The frequency of NLRP3 polarization (D) is shown. Data are presented as means ± SEM, and significance is ****p < 0.0001 (n = 366 virological synapses from 3 independent experiments), unpaired Mann-Whitney test.

(legend continued on next page)
HIV-1 replication through the production of type-1 interferon (IFN) and the expression of restriction factors such as APOBEC3 cytidine deaminases, tetherin, and SAM domain and HD domain-containing protein 1 (SAMHD1) (Towers and Noursadeghi, 2014). Despite the beneficial impact of the cell-autonomous innate immune system on HIV-1 replication, innate signals, converging on the DNA sensing interferon gamma inducible 16 protein (IFI16) inflammasome, can contribute to chronic immune activation and eventually to pyroptosis of uninfected CD4+ T cells, thereby enhancing disease progression (Doitsh et al., 2010, 2014; Monroe et al., 2014). Given the ambiguous effects of innate immune signals on HIV-1 replication and disease progression, further exploration of the innate signaling molecular pathways that govern HIV-1 infection is needed.

Most studies on HIV-1 infection have explored innate mechanisms acting before or after viral entry. Little is known about innate signaling pathways elicited during viral entry. We previously reported that purinergic receptors, which are membrane-anchored PPRs, promote the entry of HIV-1 into immune cells (Séror et al., 2011). The binding of HIV-1 envelope (Env) to its cellular receptors (CD4, CXCR4, and/or CCR5) causes the release of adenosine triphosphate (ATP) from host cells through the opening of pannexin-1 hemichannels (PNX1). Once released, extracellular ATP stimulates purinergic receptors (including the purinergic receptor P2Y2) and facilitates the membrane fusion process through the activation of the proline-rich tyrosine kinase 2 (PYK2) that is required for viral entry (Séror et al., 2011). The activation of the purinergic signaling pathway is indispensable for cell-free HIV-1 infection (Hazleton et al., 2012; Séror et al., 2011; Séror et al., 2011; Swartz et al., 2014), as well as for cell-to-cell transmission of the virus between infected lymphocytes and target cells, which is the most efficient route of HIV-1 spreading (Séror et al., 2011; Swartz et al., 2014). In this context, antagonists of purinergic receptors or pannexin-1 have emerged as a new class of HIV-1 microbicides (Séror et al., 2011).

Other PPRs, the NOD-like receptors (NLRs), have also been involved in the establishment of viral infection. Initially described as crucial for sensing and initiating host defense in viral infection through the formation of inflammasome (Chen and Ichinohe, 2015), NLRs (such as NLRX1) have recently been shown to be involved in the early innate response to simian immunodeficiency virus (SIV) infection and to contribute to viral replication by repressing the transcription of restriction factors (such as the interferon stimulated gene [ISG] 5, the myxovirus resistance 2 protein [MX2], and the tripartite motif-containing protein [TRIM] 5; Barouch et al., 2016). These results highlight the counterintuitive role of the inflammasome signaling, which indeed may facilitate (rather than repress) the early steps of HIV and SIV infections.

In this context and to further characterize cellular factors that may modulate P2Y2-dependent signaling during the early steps of HIV-1 infection, we studied the role of NLRs during viral infection. We identified the NACHT, LRR and PYD domains-containing protein 3 (NLRP3) as a P2Y2-interacting protein. Considering that NLRP3 and P2Y2 are endogenously expressed in CD4+ T cells and cells from mononuclear phagocyte lineage (including monocytes and macrophages), we first studied the interaction between NLRP3 and P2Y2 during the cellular infection by HIV-1 and SIV. Then we characterized the biological consequences of the modulation of this interaction during the early steps of infection of macrophages, which are, together with T lymphocytes, the major target cells of HIV-1.

**RESULTS**

**Enhancement of the Interaction between NLRP3 and P2Y2 during SIV and HIV Infection**

Based on our previous work showing that the purinergic receptor P2Y2 contributes to the early steps of HIV-1 infection (Séror et al., 2011), we searched for potential P2Y2-interacting NLR proteins, identifying NLRP3 as an interactor of P2Y2 (Figure 1A). The endogenous NLRP3 and P2Y2 proteins co-immunoprecipitated in human THP1 monocytes (Figure 1A), indicating that both proteins constitutively interact. Of note, this interaction increased after 3 h of infection of human THP1 monocytes with CXCR4-tropic (X4-tropic) HIV-1NL4-3 (Figures 1A and 1A). We then studied the subcellular localization of NLRP3 during the early steps of HIV-1 infection obtained by coculturing of uninfected peripheral blood lymphocytes (PBLs) with X4-tropic HIV-1NDK-infected PBLs. NLRP3 polarized toward the contact sites formed between HIV-1NDK-infected and uninfected host cells (Figures 1B and 1C). At these contact sites, NLRP3 colocalized with the glycophorin gp120 (Figure 1B) and the purinergic receptor P2Y2 (Figure 1C). Thus, NLRP3 accumulated at the virological synapse that is formed between HIV-1NDK-infected and uninfected PBLs (Figure 1D).

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(E and F) PLA between P2Y2 and NLRP3 (E) and frequencies of positive signals (F) detected on interacting HIV-1-infected and uninfected lymphocytes are shown. The image is representative of three different donors. Data are presented as means ± SEM, and significance is *p ≤ 0.05 (n = 29 virological synapses from three independent experiments), unpaired Mann-Whitney test.

(G) Fluorescence intensities of NLRP3 in HIV-1-infected and uninfected lymphocytes obtained from confocal microscopy are shown a three-dimensional (3D) Z-projection. Representative experiment of three different donors is shown. (H and I) PLA between P2Y2 and NLRP3 (H) and frequencies of positive signals detected on brain autopsies (K) from HIV-1-infected and uninfected individuals are shown. Images are representative of nine HIV-1-infected and two uninfected donors. Data are presented as means ± SEM, and significance is ***p ≤ 0.0001 (n = 3 uninfected, n = 4 uninfected), unpaired Mann-Whitney test.

(J and K) PLA between P2Y2 and NLRP3 (J) and frequencies of positive signals detected on ileum sections (K) obtained from SIV mac251-infected and uninfected Macaca fascicularis are shown. Images are representative of four SIVmac251-infected and three uninfected Macaca fascicularis. Data are presented as means ± SEM, and significance is ***p ≤ 0.0001 (n = 3 uninfected, n = 4 uninfected), unpaired Mann-Whitney test.

(L and M) PLA between P2Y2 and NLRP3 (L) and frequencies of positive signals (M) detected during MDMs infection are shown. The image is representative of three different donors. Data are presented as means ± SEM, and significance is ***p ≤ 0.0001 (n = 1,075 and 1,133 for uninfected and HIV-1Bal infected MDMs, respectively), unpaired Mann-Whitney test.

See also Figure S1.
We determined the ability of NLRP3 to directly interact with P2Y2 by means of a proximity ligation assay (PLA). During the early steps of HIV-1 infection, the interaction between NLRP3 and P2Y2 mostly occurred at the contact sites between HIV-1NDK-infected and uninfected T lymphocytes (Figures 1E and 1F). These results suggest that the interaction between NLRP3 and P2Y2 may regulate the viral entry into target cells.

We also studied the subcellular localization of NLRP3 after chronic infection of PBLs with X4-tropic HIV-1NDK for 72 h (Figures 1G and S1B–S1D) or that of monocyte-derived macrophages (MDMs) with R5-tropic HIV-1AD8 for 6 days (Figures S1E and S1F). While NLRP3 presented a diffuse cytosolic expression pattern in uninfected target cells, it aggregated in the cytoplasm and at the membrane of infected PBLs (Figures 1G and S1B–S1D) or MDMs (Figures S1E and S1F). Using PLA, we also evaluated the ability of NLRP3 to interact with P2Y2 during chronic infection and revealed that the interaction between NLRP3 and P2Y2 increased in chronically infected tissues (e.g., ileum [Figures 1H and 1I] and colon [Figures S1G and S1H] from SIV-1 mac251-infected non-human primate Macaca fascicularis, the frontal cortex from untreated HIV-1 carriers [as compared with uninfected controls; Figures 1J and 1K]), as well as in chronically infected PBLs (Figures S1I and S1J) or MDMs (Figures 1L and 1M). Altogether, these findings indicate that the interaction between NLRP3 and P2Y2 increased during acute and chronic steps of viral infection.

NLRP3 Inflammasome Activation Impairs HIV-1 Entry into Host Cells

To characterize the role of NLRP3-P2Y2 interaction and related signaling pathways during the early steps of HIV-1 infection, we first evaluated the possibility that the NLRP3 might affect viral replication through the formation of the inflammasome. Considering that sterile particulates such as monosodium urate (MSU) crystals are capable of activating the NLRP3 inflammasome (Shi et al., 2010), we incubated MDMs with 100 μM MSU before infection with R5-tropic HIV-1BaL and then analyzed their viral permissiveness. The activation of the NLRP3 inflammasome by MSU reduced the release of CAp24 capsid from human MDMs (Figure 2A) and its intracellular detection (Figure 2B) after 3 days (Figure 2A) and 6 days (Figures 2A and 2B) of infection with R5-tropic HIV-1BaL. This inhibited viral replication.
MSU-mediated inhibition of HIV-1 was more efficient than the one detected with lipopolysaccharide (LPS) (Figures 2A and 2B). To further characterize the impact of NLRP3 inflammasome activation on the early steps of HIV-1 infection, we monitored the effects of MSU treatment on intracellular HIV-1 CAp24 capsid levels (after removal of membrane bound non-internalized virus with trypsin treatment) and on the early reverse transcripts that are detected after 6 and 24 h, respectively, of infection of human MDMs with R5-tropic HIV-1 AD8. These data revealed that NLRP3 inflammasome activation impaired the accumulation of intracellular HIV-1 CAp24 capsid (Figure 2C) and subsequently reduced the early reverse transcripts (Figure 2E) without affecting cell viability (Figure S2A) nor the membrane expression of the viral receptors CD4 (Figure S2B) and CXCR5 (Figure S2C). Accordingly, MSU did not impair the accumulation of intracellular HIV-1 CAp24 capsid in human MDMs that were infected by the HIV-1NL4-3ΔENV variant (defective in viral envelope) pseudo-typed with the vesicular stomatitis virus G protein (VSV-G) envelope. HIV-1ΔVSV-G (Figure 2D). Altogether, these results demonstrate that NLRP3 inflammasome activation inhibits HIV-1 entry into host cells.

NLRP3 Protein Inhibits HIV-1 Infection by Repressing the Cytoskeletal Remodeling Required for HIV-1 Entry

We determined the role of NLRP3 inflammasome protein during the early steps of HIV-1 infection through the knockdown of NLRP3 using specific short hairpin RNA (shRNA). We observed that the depletion of NLRP3 increased the release of CAp24 capsid from human MDMs (Figure 3A and S3A), THP1 monocytes (Figures 3B, 3C, and S3B), and CEM-SS T cells (Figures 3D, 3E, and S3C) after 6, 11, or 12 days of infection with R5-tropic HIV-1 AD8 (Figures 3A, 3C, and 3E) or X4-tropic HIV-1NL4-3 (Figures 3B and 3D). After removing membrane-bound non-internalized HIV-1 particles by trypsinizing the cells, western blot detection of intracellular CAp24 capsid corroborated that the depletion of NLRP3 in MDMs increased cellular susceptibility to HIV-1 infection after 6 h of infection (Figure 3F). These data were confirmed by the depletion of NLRP3 in THP1 monocytes that were then infected with X4-tropic HIV-1NL4-3 for 6 h (Figures 3G and S3D). To rule out the possibility that NLRP3 protein may also act at post-entry levels, we evaluated the effects of NLRP3 overexpression on viral yields after transfection of X4-tropic HIV-1NL4-3 (Figure S3E) or R5-tropic HIV-1AD8 (Figure S3F) DNA constructs that subsequently produce infectious virions. NLRP3 overexpression (Figures S3E and S3F) did not impact the amount and infectivity of X4-tropic HIV-1NL4-3 (Figures S3G and S3I) and R5-tropic HIV-1AD8 (Figures S3H and S3J) produced 48 h post transfection. Consistently, the depletion of NLRP3 failed to increase infection of target cells by HIV-1ΔΔVSV-G (Figures S3H and S3K). These results imply that NLRP3 protein selectively inhibits receptor-mediated entry of HIV-1.

Emerging evidence has revealed important inflammasome-independent roles for ASC and CASP1 in controlling immune responses through the modulation of F-actin polymerization (Caution et al., 2015; Ippagunta et al., 2011). In our previous report (Séror et al., 2011), we demonstrated that following HIV-1 infection, P2Y2 enhances plasma membrane depolarization through the activating autophosphorylation of the proline-tyrosine kinase 2 (PYK2) on tyrosine residue 402 (PYK2Y402) to favor the early fusion of the HIV-1 membrane and the target cell. Importantly, activated PYK2 is known to broadly modulate the F-actin rearrangement and polymerization to regulate immune cells migration, morphology or growth (Collins et al., 2010; Du et al., 2001; Okigaki et al., 2003; Ren et al., 2001; Wang et al., 2003). F-actin remodeling is also required for HIV-1 membrane fusion with target cells and entry (Jiménez-Barranda et al., 2007; Stoil and Fackler, 2011). Considering that F-actin cytoskeletal remodeling and the associated PYK2 activation both contribute to HIV-1 early viral entry (Jiménez-Barranda et al., 2007; Séror et al., 2011; Stoil and Fackler, 2011),
we hypothesized that NLRP3 may antagonize the effects of activated P2Y2 and PYK2 on F-actin remodeling upon HIV-1 infection, thereby inhibiting HIV-1 entry. Confocal microscopy analysis revealed that NLRP3 depletion increased the entry of GFP-fused viral protein (Vpr) containing viral particles (HIV-1AD8-Vpr-GFP) (McDonald et al., 2002) into PMA-THP1 macrophages, as revealed by the intracellular detection of HIV-1 AD8-Vpr-GFP and CAp24 (Figures 3I and 3J). The enhanced viral entry into NLRP3-depleted cells was associated with an increase of F-actin cytoskeletal polymerization (Figures 3J and S3L). Moreover, inhibition of F-actin polymerization by latrunculin B abrogated the stimulation of HIV-1 infection by NLRP3 depletion (Figures 3I, 3J, and S3L). Consistently, the selective P2Y2 antagonist AR-C118925XX abrogated the NLRP3 depletion-driven signaling pathway (as revealed by the decreased of PYK2402* and intracellular CAp24 level [Figure 3K]) in NLRP3-depleted THP1 macrophages that were infected with X4-tropic HIV-1 AD8 for 6 h. Altogether, these results demonstrate that, independently from its contribution to the inflammasome, NLRP3 protein acts as an endogenous repressor of F-actin cytoskeletal polymerization that facilitates the P2Y2-dependent entry of HIV-1 into target cells.

**NLRP3 Is Degraded during the Early Steps of HIV-1 Infection**

To determine how HIV-1 may overcome the NLRP3-mediated inhibition of its entry into host cells, we simultaneously measured NLRP3 and P2Y2 expressions during infection.

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**Figure 4. NLRP3 Expression Is Decreased during the Early Steps of HIV-1 Infection**

(A–C) NLRP3 and P2Y2 expressions in MDMs (A), THP1 cells (B), and PHA/IL-2-stimulated human lymphocytes (C) that were infected, respectively, during indicated times (A), 6 h (B), or 3 h (C) with indicated viruses. Intracellular CAp24 level is also shown in (A). Representative western blots of three independent experiments are shown. The relative NLRP3 expression data from n = 3 independent experiments are presented as means ± SEM. Significance levels are **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, and ****p < 0.0001, unpaired t test. 

(D) THP1 cells were infected for 6 h with X4-tropic HIV-1ΔNL4-3 in the presence of 1 μM G5 and analyzed by western blot for NLRP3, ubiquitylation (UB), P2Y2, intracellular CAp24, and GAPDH expressions. Data obtained from n = 3 independent experiments are presented as means ± SEM. Significance level is **p < 0.01, unpaired t test.

(E–G) Tat-inducible β-Galactosidase reporter gene expressing HeLa CD4+CXCR4+ cells were depleted (E and F) or transfected (G) for NLRP3 for, respectively, 48 h (E and F) or 24 h (G), co-cultured with fusogenic HIV-1 envelope (Env) expressing HeLa cells (E–G), or infected with X4-tropic HIV-1ΔNL4-3 (E–G) and evaluated for HIV-1 Env-mediated fusion and for infection (E–G). Data obtained from n = 3 independent experiments are presented as means ± SEM. Significance levels are ***p < 0.001 and ****p < 0.0001, unpaired t test. See also Figures S5A, S5B, and S5C.

(H) Immunoprecipitations were performed in THP1 monocytes that were stimulated for 2 h with UTP and then infected with X4-tropic HIV-1ΔNL4-3 for 6 h in the presence of UTP. Representative western blots of two independent experiments are shown. See also Figures S5L and S5M.
Figure 5. HIV-1 Viral Entry Is Controlled by E3 Ubiquitin Ligase CBL-Dependent Modulation of NLRP3 Expression

(A) NLRP3 and/or GFP-P2Y2 expressing cells were treated with 1 μM G5 or 10 μM MG132 and analyzed for NLRP3 and P2Y2 expressions.

(B) HEK293T cells expressing NLRP3 and GFP-P2Y2 were immunoprecipitated for NLRP3 and analyzed for ubiquitylation (UB), SRC, NLRP3, and P2Y2 expressions.

(C) HEK293T cells expressing NLRP3, GFP-P2Y2, and/or SRC were analyzed for NLRP3, P2Y2, SRC, CBLY731*, and CBL expressions.

(D) NLRP3 and/or GFP-P2Y2 expressing cells were silenced for CBL and analyzed for NLRP3, P2Y2, and CBL expression. All protein expressions are performed using western blot. Representative western blots of three independent experiments are shown in (A)–(D). Relative expression of NLRP3 data from n = 3 independent experiments are presented as means ± SEM. Significance levels are *p ≤ 0.05, **p ≤ 0.01, ***p ≤ 0.001, and ****p ≤ 0.0001, unpaired t test.

(legend continued on next page)
Despite the fact that P2Y2 protein levels increased, NLRP3 protein levels rapidly decreased after cell-free infection of MDMs with R5-tropic HIV-1_{BaL} (Figure 4A), THP1 monocytes (Figures 4B, S4A, S4B, and S4E–S4H) and CEM-SS T cells (Figures S4C, S4D, and S4I–S4L) with X4-tropic HIV-1_{NL4-3} (Figures 4B, S4A, S4C, S4E, S4F, S4I, and S4J) or R5-tropic HIV-1_{AD8} (Figures S4B, S4D, S4G, S4H, S4K, and S4L), and PBLs with X4-tropic HIV-1_{AD8} (Figure 4C). However, NLRP3 mRNA expressions were not altered after infection of THP1 monocytes (Figures S4M and S4N) and CEM-SS T cells (Figures S4O and S4P) with X4-tropic HIV-1_{NL4-3} (Figures S4M and S4O) and R5-tropic HIV-1_{AD8} (Figures S4N and S4P). The ubiquitin isopeptidase inhibitor G5 that was previously described as an inducer of NLRP3 degradation (Py et al., 2013) decreased the protein levels of NLRP3 (Figure 4D), thus suggesting that the reduction of NLRP3 protein expression induced by HIV-1 infection must occur through post-transcriptional mechanisms. This process is associated with the enhancement of P2Y2 expression and HIV-1 permissiveness of THP1 monocytes (as indicated by the increased intracellular accumulation of HIV-1 capsid Cap24) (Figure 4D), in line with the hypothesis that NLRP3 and P2Y2 control HIV-1 entry into target cells. Consistently, we observed that the depletion or the overexpression of NLRP3 (Figures S5A–S5C) enhanced or reduced, respectively, HIV-1 Env-elicted fusion (Figures 4E–4G), the intracellular accumulation of HIV-1 Cap24 capsid (Figures S5D–SSF), and the susceptibility to HIV-1 infection (Figure 4E–4G), without affecting the expression of the HIV-1 receptor CD4 and that of its co-receptor CXCR4 (Figures S5G–S5I). Consistent with our previous report (Séror et al., 2011), we confirmed that the P2Y2 inhibitor AR-C118925X (Figure S5J) and shRNA-mediated P2Y2 depletion (Figure S5K) impaired the entry of R5-tropic HIV-1_{AD8} into MDMs (Figure S5J) or of X4-tropic HIV-1_{NL4-3} into THP1 monocytes (Figure S5K). This effect is associated with the increased expression of NLRP3 in target cells (Figure S5K). We also evaluated the impact of the selective activation of P2Y2 by uridine triphosphate (UTP) in THP1 cells infected with X4-tropic HIV-1_{NL4-3} for 6 h on the NLRP3 and P2Y2 interaction and on the levels of NLRP3. P2Y2 activation led to a significant enhancement of the NLRP3-P2Y2 interaction associated with the degradation of NLRP3 and an increase of HIV-1 entry into cells (Figures 4H, 5L, and 5M). Altogether, these data indicate that the activation of P2Y2 occurring shortly after HIV-1 infection increases the susceptibility of cells to viral entry by inducing NLRP3 protein degradation.

**HIV-1 Envelope Overcomes NLRP3 Inhibition through the Activation of the E3 Ubiquitin Ligase CBL**

To define the molecular mechanisms accounting for the degradation of NLRP3 during the early steps of infection, HEK293T cells were transfected with full-length NLRP3, with GFP-tagged full-length P2Y2, or with both constructs. Co-expression of GFP-P2Y2 with NLRP3 reduced the expression of NLRP3 protein, while co-expression of NLRP3 failed to reduce the expression of GFP-P2Y2 (Figure 5A). The downregulation of NLRP3 by P2Y2 was increased by the ubiquitin isopeptidase inhibitor G5 and fully blocked by the proteasome inhibitor MG132 (Figures 5A and S6A), thus demonstrating that upon P2Y2 activation, NLRP3 is ubiquitinylated and degraded by the proteasome. Considering that the ubiquitinylation and subsequent degradation of NLRP3 can be initiated by ubiquitin ligases such as E3 ubiquitin ligase CBL through its SRC kinase-dependent phosphorylation (on tyrosine 731, CBLY731*) (Kankkunen et al., 2014; Py et al., 2013), we checked whether the kinase SRC that was previously described as a downstream target of P2Y2-dependent signaling pathway (Liu et al., 2004) may interact with NLRP3 and control its degradation through the activation of CBL. Indeed, the kinase SRC co-immunoprecipitated with NLRP3 when NLRP3 was ubiquitinylated and degraded (Figure 5B). Moreover, pharmacological inhibition of SRC with PP1 or PP2 impaired the interaction between NLRP3 and P2Y2 (Figure S6B) and favored NLRP3 accumulation in THP1 cells (Figure S6B). Moreover, in HEK293T cells, transfection of full-length SRC together with full-length NLRP3 and GFP-tagged full-length P2Y2 led to an increased expression and phosphorylation of CBL on tyrosine 731 (CBLY731*) as well as to NLRP3 degradation (Figure 5C). Since the SRC kinase is a candidate for proteasomal degradation through a CBL-dependent process (Sandilands et al., 2012), we next investigated the role of CBL in P2Y2-induced degradation of NLRP3. Indeed, CBL depletion abolished the negative effect of GFP-P2Y2 on the overall abundance of the NLRP3 protein (Figure 5D). Altogether, these results suggest that P2Y2 controls NLRP3 degradation.
degradation through a pathway involving the CBL ubiquitin ligase.

Next, we studied the role of the E3 ubiquitin ligase CBL during the early steps of HIV-1 infection. We detected increased CBL expression during cell-free infection of PBLs (Figure 5E), MDMs (Figure 5F), and THP1 monocytes (Figure 5G). This process was associated with the activating phosphorylation of CBL on tyrosine 731 (CBLY731*) 3 h post-infection of macrophages with R5-tropic HIV-1Bal (Figure 5F). We also studied the subcellular localization of CBL after co-culture of X4-tropic HIV-1NDK-infected and uninfected PBLs. CBL polarized toward the contact sites formed between HIV-1-infected and uninfected cells (Figures 5H and 5I), where it colocalized with the HIV-1 glycoprotein gp120 (Figure 5H). Immunofluorescence microscopy confirmed that the NLRP3/P2Y2 interaction occurs at sites of viral entry during virological synapse formation between HIV-1NDK-infected and uninfected lymphoblasts (Figures 1C–1E), as well as upon cell-free infection of PBLs (Figures S1I and S1J) or MDMs (Figures 1L and 1M). We finally determined whether the E3 ubiquitin ligase CBL that is involved in the regulation of NLRP3 expression (Figure 5D) and relocates to the HIV-1-induced virological synapse (Figures 5H and 5I) might control viral entry. MDMs (Figure 5J) or CD4+CXCR4+ HeLa cells (Figure 5K) were depleted of CBL and infected for 6 h with R5-HIV-1A2D or X4-tropic HIV-1NL4-3, respectively. The depletion of CBL inhibited HIV-1 entry into target cells (as indicated by reduced intracellular HIV-1 Cap24 capsid; Figures 5J and 5K). Moreover, CBL depletion failed to reduce cell permissiveness to HIV-1NL4-3 (Figure 5L), again suggesting that the E3 ubiquitin ligase CBL controls P2Y2-dependent viral entry mediated by the viral envelope. To demonstrate the functional link between CBL function and P2Y2 activation during HIV-1 infection, P2Y2-depleted THP1 macrophages and control cells were infected with R5-tropic HIV-1A2D for 6 h. P2Y2 depletion impaired the activating phosphorylation of CBL on tyrosine 731 (CBLY731*) (Figure 5M). This effect was associated with increased expression of NLRP3 and reduced entry of HIV-1 into target cells (Figure 5M). Altogether these results suggest that the binding between HIV-1 Env and its host cell receptors (CD4 and chemokine co-receptors) induces the recruitment of the E3 ubiquitin ligase CBL to viral entry sites for modulating the functional interaction between NLRP3 and P2Y2 interaction, thus facilitating viral entry.

**DISCUSSION**

Deciphering the complex network of innate signaling pathways is crucial for understanding the function of immune cells (such as monocytes, macrophages, and dendritic cells) that might constitute prime targets for prophylactic or therapeutic intervention in various human pathologies (such as autoinflammatory, autoimmune, infectious, and neoplastic diseases). Innate immune signals reportedly play contrasting roles during the acute and chronic phases of HIV-1 infection (Doitsh et al., 2014). Recently, rapid inflammasome activation was reported following SIV infection of Rhesus monkeys (Barouch et al., 2016). During early SIV pathogenesis, NLRX1-mediated inhibition of inflammasome activation represses the transcription of antiviral restriction factors (such as ISG5, MX2, APOBEC3, and TRIM5) and facilitates early viral replication (Barouch et al., 2016). Here, we report that the expression of NLRP3 proteins is modulated through post-translational modifications during the early steps of HIV-1 infection and controls target cell susceptibility. We observed that following the binding of HIV-1 envelope to its host receptors (CD4, CXCR4, and/or CCR5), the interaction between NLRP3 and P2Y2 rapidly increased after HIV-1 infection, leading to the degradation of NLRP3 by...
the E3 ubiquitin ligase CBL, thus favoring P2Y2-dependent viral entry into target cells through PYK2-dependent F-actin polymerization. Indeed, the interaction between HIV-1 Env and its co-receptors enhances the interaction between NLRP3 and P2Y2 and subsequently induces the degradation of NLRP3 by CBL, favoring the activation (phosphorylation) of PYK2 (PYK2\textsuperscript{Y402*}) and subsequent cytoskeletal rearrangement (through F-actin polymerization) that facilitates HIV-1 early membrane fusion with target cells (Jiménez-Baranda et al., 2007; Stolp and Fackler, 2011; Vorster et al., 2011) and hence viral entry (Figure 6).

Our results are in agreement with published works supporting the notion that polymorphisms affecting the NLRP3 gene could influence the susceptibility to HIV-1 infection (Pontillo et al., 2010, 2012) and coinfection with Mycobacterium tuberculosis (Pontillo et al., 2013). Altogether, our results suggest that HIV-1 (through its envelope protein) hijacks the functional crosstalk between NLRP3 and P2Y2 to optimize its viral life cycle.

The observation that the depletion of NLRP3 enhanced the infectivity of host cells by HIV-1 suggests that NLRP3 proteins function as intrinsic inhibitory factors for HIV-1 infection. In sharp contrast to the vast majority of identified inhibitory factors that impair viral infection at post-entry steps (Harris et al., 2012), NLRP3 proteins limit HIV-1 infection by interfering with viral entry, suggesting that the NLRP3-P2Y2 interaction could be targeted for the prevention and treatment of HIV-1 infection. NLRP3 inflammasome activators (such as LPS or MSU crystals) reduce the susceptibility of HIV-1 target cells through the modulation of P2Y2-dependent F-actin remodeling. Thus, strategies designed to alter the functional interaction between NLRP3 and P2Y2 could effectively block HIV-1 infection. Nevertheless, the identification of the inflammasome inhibitor NLRX1 as transcriptional repressor of restriction factors that impair viral replication (Barouch et al., 2016) underlines the complexity of signaling pathways elicited by NLRP3 family members during the early steps of HIV-1 infection. Further molecular investigations are required to fully understand the role of NLRP3 family members during these viral steps. Future investigations must address the impact of the functional NLRP3-P2Y2 interaction on cellular regulators that are known to affect cortical F-actin rearrangement and to HIV-1 infection such as LIM domain kinase 1 (Vorster et al., 2011), moesin (Barrera-Villar et al., 2009), filamin-A (Jiménez-Baranda et al., 2007), and cofilin (Yoder et al., 2008).

There may be differences between the acute and the prolonged effects of HIV-1 on the aforementioned regulatory system. Indeed, immunoreactive NLRP3 was detected at higher levels in lymph nodes (Figures 7A and 7B) and in the frontal cortex (Figures 7C and 7D) from untreated HIV-1 carriers, as compared with uninfected specimens. Similar results were obtained when comparing control tissues from the non-human primate Macaca fascicularis with lymph nodes (Figures 7E and 7F) or intestinal tissues (colon in Figures 7G and 7H; ileum in Figures 7I and 7J) from macaques infected with SIVmac251.
NLRP3 expression was preferentially observed in CD163+ macrophages (Figures 7G, 7I, and 7J) that are known to express P2Y2 (Elliott et al., 2009). After 21 days of infection of THP1 monocytes and CEM-SS T cells with X4- and R5-tropic viruses, respectively, NLRP3 protein expression was increased (Figures S7A–S7F, S7I, and S7J), although no modification of NLRP3 mRNA levels was detectable (Figures S7M–S7P). P2Y2 protein expression did not change in CEM-SS T cells but increased after 21 days of infection of THP1 monocytes (Figures S7G, S7H, S7K, and S7L). Altogether, these results suggest that the molecular mechanisms involved in the enhanced interaction between NLRP3 and P2Y2 that is detected during chronic infection with HIV-1 may be distinct from those detected in the early steps of HIV-1 infection. The increased NLRP3 expression during chronic HIV-1 infection is consistent with recent findings showing that HIV-1 activates NLRP3 inflammasome through Tat and Vpr proteins in lymphocytes, microglial cells, and macrophages (Bandera et al., 2018; Chivero et al., 2017; Haque et al., 2016; Mamik et al., 2017). Thus, NLRP3 may play a dual opposite role during early steps of infection by inhibiting viral entry and at the later post-entry steps by contributing to neuro-inflammation and immune activation associated with HIV-1 infection.

The blockade of immune checkpoints in lymphocytes has recently emerged as a new and promising approach for treating both chronic viral infection and cancer. Here, we identified a functional interaction that acts on myeloid cells and that could be exploited for the development of HIV vaccines or therapeutic combinations to cure HIV infection (Barouch et al., 2016) and potentially other viral infections (such as hepatitis B and C). In addition, it appears likely that the NLRP3-P2Y2 interaction could be manipulated for the treatment of HIV-1-associated brain disease, which is also associated with strong activation of the NLRP3 inflammasome (Walsh et al., 2014). Future studies should explore the possibility of modulating the NLRP3-P2Y2 functional interaction with the aim of treating human diseases that are triggered by excessive activation of the NLRP3 inflammasome, such as cryopyrin-associated periodic syndromes (Agostini et al., 2004), rheumatoid arthritis (Vande Walle et al., 2014), obesity (Vandanmagsar et al., 2011), or Alzheimer’s disease (Halle et al., 2008).

Thus, our data demonstrate a constitutive interaction between NLRP3 and P2Y2 that could be targeted to reduce viral propagation and improve the immune response against HIV infection.

**STAR+METHODS**

Detailed methods are provided in the online version of this paper and include the following:

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  - Western blots and immunoprecipitations
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- **DATA AND CODE AVAILABILITY**

**SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION**

Supplemental information can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.celrep.2019.02.055.

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**AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**


**DECLARATION OF INTERESTS**

The authors declare no competing interests.

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**REFERENCES**


### STAR METHODS

#### KEY RESOURCES TABLE

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### Deposited data

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### Experimental Models: Cell Lines

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Source</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HeLa CD4- CXCR4+</td>
<td>J.-L. Perfettini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HeLa Env+</td>
<td>J.-L. Perfettini</td>
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<tr>
<td>TZM-bl</td>
<td>NIH AIDS Reagent Program</td>
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<tr>
<td>HEK293T M. Calliet</td>
<td>(Calliet et al., 2011)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEM-SS</td>
<td>A. Allouch</td>
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<tr>
<td>THP1</td>
<td>ATCC</td>
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<tr>
<td>THP1 PKO empty control This paper</td>
<td>N/A</td>
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<tr>
<td>THP1 PKO shNLRP3.1 This paper</td>
<td>N/A</td>
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<tr>
<td>THP1 PKO shNLRP3.2 This paper</td>
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<tr>
<td>THP1 PKO shP2Y2 This paper</td>
<td>N/A</td>
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<tr>
<td>Human Blood Buffy coats French blood bank (Etablissement Français du sang (EFS))</td>
<td>B31111</td>
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### Experimental Models: Organisms/Strains

<table>
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<td>Macaca fascicularis</td>
<td>CEA, DSV/IMETI, Division of Immunology-Virology, IDMIT, France <a href="http://jacob.cea.fr/drfran%C3%A7oisjacobs/Pages/Departements/IDMIT/laboratoires.aspx">http://jacob.cea.fr/drfrançoisjacobs/Pages/Departements/IDMIT/laboratoires.aspx</a></td>
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LEAD CONTACT AND MATERIALS AVAILABILITY

Further information for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be provided by the Lead Contact, Jean-Luc Perfettini (perfettini@orange.fr).

EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS

Cell lines
The monocyte THP1 cells and CEM-SS T cells were maintained in RMPI-1640-Glutamax medium supplemented with 10% heat inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS) and 100 UI/mL penicillin-streptomycin (Life technology). THP1 cells were obtained from ATCC. THP1 macrophages were obtained by treatment for 3 hours with 100 nM phorbol-12-myristate-13-acetate (PMA, Invivogen) of THP1 monocytes and after extensive washings were let to differentiate for 72 hours before experimentation. HeLa cells stably transfected with the Env gene of HIV-1LAI/IIIB (HeLa Env +), HeLa cells transfected with CD4 (HeLa CD4 + CXCR4 +), HeLa TZM-bl and HEK293T cells were cultured in Dulbecco’s modified Eagle’s medium (DMEM)-Glutamax supplemented with 10% FBS and 100 UI/ml penicillin-streptomycin, in the absence or presence of the indicated concentrations of inhibitors. All cell lines used were mycoplasma-free.

Primary Cells
To generate Monocytes Derived Macrophages (MDMs) for HIV-1 infections with HIV-1 BaL, CD14+ monocytes were isolated from peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) by positive selection using anti-CD14 beads (Miltenyi Biotec). Buffy coats from healthy
Donors were obtained from the French blood bank (Etablissement Français du Sang (EFS)). In accordance with French law, written informed consent to use the cells for clinical research was obtained from each donor. Purified monocytes were incubated in RPMI-1640-Glutamax medium supplemented with 100 Units/ml penicillin-streptomycin and with 10% FBS in the presence of 10 ng/ml recombinant human (rh) M-CSF (PeproTech). After 6 days of culture, adherent cells corresponding to the macrophages enriched fraction were harvested, washed and used for HIV-1 infection experiments. For macrophage silencing and infections with HIV-1AD8, monocytes were separated from PBMCs by adherence to the plastic, detached and cultured for 6 days in hydrophobic Teflon dishes (Lumox Duthsher) in macrophage medium (RPMI 1640 supplemented with 200 mM L-glutamine, 100 units U of penicillin, 100 μg streptomycin, 10 mM HEPES, 10 mM sodium pyruvate, 50 μg/mL β-mercaptoethanol, 1% minimum essential medium vitamins, 1% non-essential amino acids (Life technology)) supplemented with 15% of heat inactivated human serum AB (Life technology or Biowest). For experiments, MDMs were harvested and resuspended in macrophage medium containing 10% of FBS. MDMs obtained with this method are 91 to 96% CD14*, they express: the differentiation markers (CD11b and CD71) and the M2 macrophage polarization markers (CD163 and CD206) (Allouch et al., 2013).

T cells were prepared from the monocyte depleted cell fraction of PBMCs. Peripheral blood lymphocytes (PBLs) were activated for 48 hours in fresh medium supplemented with 2.5 μg/ml PHA (Sigma-Aldrich) and 1 μg/ml rhIL-2 (PeproTech). PBLs were then washed and cultured in growth medium containing 1 μg/ml rhIL-2 for 24 hours before HIV-1 infections.

**Non-Human primates**

Adult cynomolgus macaques (Macaca fascicularis) (four males and three females) were imported from Mauritius and housed in the facilities of the “Commissariat à l’Energie Atomique et aux Energies Alternatives” (CEA, Fontenay-aux-Roses, France). The protocols employed were approved by the ethical committee of the CEA “Comité d’Éthique en Experimenter Animale” registered in the French Ministry of Research and Innovation. The protocols of the use of NHP at CEA are also in accordance with the European Directive (2010/63) (CEA Permit Number A 92-032-02). The CEA is in compliance with Standards for Human Care and Use of Laboratory of the Office for Laboratory Animal Welfare (OLAW, USA) under OLAW Assurance number #A5826-01. The use of NHP at CEA is also in accordance with recommendation of the European Directive (2010/63, recommendation N°9). Animals were housed in adjoining individual cages allowing social interactions, under controlled conditions of humidity, temperature and light (12-hour light/12-hour dark cycles). Water was available ad libitum. Animals were monitored and fed 1-2 times daily with commercial monkey chow and fruits by trained personnel. Macaques were provided with environmental enrichment including toys, novel foodstuffs and music under the supervision of the CEA Animal Welfare Body. The animals were used under the supervision of the veterinarians in charge of the animal facility. Experimental procedures were conducted after animal sedation with ketamine chlorydrate (Rhone-Merieux, Lyon, France, 10 mg/kg) as previously described (Dioszeghy et al., 2006).

**Human autopsies**

Human autopsies from axillary lymph nodes and frontal cortex were obtained in accordance with the Italian and EU legislations, after approval by the Institutional Review Board of the Lazzaro Spallanzani National Institute for Infectious Disease (Ethics Committee approval number 40/2006). Axillary lymph nodes and post-mortem frontal cortex sections were obtained from healthy (6 and 5, respectively) and HIV-1-infected individuals (6 and 11, respectively) (all men, mean age 36 years, the median values of HIV-1 viral load was 4.5 ± 0.6 log10 cp/ml and < 500 CD4 T cells/μl). Frontal cortex sections were obtained from patients with HIV-1-associated dementia.

**METHODS DETAILS**

**Plasmids and transfections**

NLRP3 coding sequence in the pUNO vector was purchased from Invivogen. The Flag-tagged NLRP3 full-length coding sequence was inserted in the 3xFlag-pcDNA3 and are a kind of gift from Gabriel Nunez (He et al., 2014). The sequence coding for P2Y2 (in the pEFGP-N1 vector) is gift from Laura Erb (Seye et al., 2004). Transient transfections of HeLa CD4+CXCR4+ cells (2.4x10⁵) or HEK293T were performed 48 hours after transfection with mammalian expression vectors (1-5 μg) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. Western blot, immunoprecipitation analyses and experiences of HIV-1 infection or cell fusion were performed 24 hours after transfection of pFlag-Luciferase or p3xFlag-NLNR3.

**siRNA- and shRNA-mediated knockdowns**

For HeLa CD4+CXCR4+ knockdown the small interfering RNAs (siRNAs) used against NLRP3 were purchased from Sigma and had the following sequences: NLRP3, siRNA-1, 5’-GGAUCAACACUCUCUGUA-3’; siRNA-2, 5’-UGCAAGAUCUCAGCACA-3’ and the corresponding control siRNA, 5’-UUCUAAUAAUUCUCUGGU-3’. The siRNAs against CBL used for primary MDMs and...
HEK293T cells are siGenome (Dharmacon) smart pool selected composed of a pool of four siRNAs having the following sequences for CBL (siRNA1, 5'-GGAGACACAUUUCGGAUUA-3'; siRNA2, 5'-GAUCUGACCUCGAALGAU-3'; siRNA3, 5'-GACAAUCCUCAAUUAA-3'; siRNA4, 5'-CCGAAGACUUUGGGCAAU-3'). The siRNAs used as control with siGenome smart pool are a pool of four on target plus non-targeting siRNAs (Dharmacon). siRNAs transfection of HeLa CD4+ CXCR4+ or HEK293T cells were performed with 20 nM siRNA using Oligofectamine (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Western blot analyses and experiences of HIV-1 infections or cell fusions were performed 48 hours after siRNA transfection. For siRNA transfection of MDMs, the protocol was previously described (Allouch et al., 2013): MDMs were seeded (0.5x10⁶ MDMs/0.5 mL of well of 12-well plate in macrophages medium + 10% FBS) and let to be attached at 37°C for 2 hours prior siRNAs transfection. The siRNAs transfections were performed with INTERFERin (Polyplus Transfection). Different amounts of siRNAs were pre-diluted in 1 mL of Opti-MEM in which 20 μL of INTERFERin were added and the transfection mix was let to incubate at room temperature for 10 minutes. The transfection mix (250 μL) was added to 0.5x10⁶ MDMs at the final concentrations of 50 nM of siRNAs against CBL. Equal amounts of the on target plus non-targeting siRNAs were added to the control MDMs. The MDMs were then incubated at 37°C for overnight. The medium was replaced with fresh macrophage medium supplemented with 10% FBS prior to the infections. At 72 hours post-CBL siRNA transfection MDMs were infected with HIV-1₁₆D₆ (MOI of 1) for 6 hours, cell lysates were assayed for protein expression by western blot.

For short hairpin RNA (shRNA) lentiviral particles transduction, the plKO.1 shRNA expression lentivector coding for each targeted gene was purchased from Thermo Scientific. The shRNAs used in knockdown experiments had the following sequences for P2Y2 (shRNA1, 5'-AGTGGCCACCTGGCTGTGTCTGATGCACT-3', for NLRP3 (shRNA1, 5'-TTCTTGAAGGTGTTTCAACGC-3', shRNA2, 5'-AAACAGTAGAACATATTCAACC-3') and plKO.1 empty vector control. Lentiviral vector particles were generated by cotransfection of three plasmids coding for the gag-pol HIV-1 genes (pCMV-HIV-1-GAG-POL), for the vector genome carrying shRNA of interest (pLKO.1 shRNA) and for the plasmid codon for an envelope of VSVG (pMDG-VSVG). Co-transfection was performed in HEK293T cells using Fugene transfection reagent (Promega) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Two days after transfection, supernatants were filtered using 0.45-μm cellulose acetate filters (Sartorius stedim), aliquoted and frozen at −80°C. For transduction, lentivirus productions were added to the monocytic THP1 cell line (4x10⁶) or into CD4+CXCR4+ HeLa cells (10⁶/g of VSV-G expression vector (pVSV-G) and 16 μg of HIV-1 proviral DNA (pHIV-1NL₄-₃Env) by the calcium phosphate method. After 12 hours, the transfection mixture was replaced with 8 mL of fresh growth medium. Then, 24 hours later, the media containing the first batch of virus was harvested and 8 mL of fresh growth medium was added to the cells for additional 24 hours. HIV-1₁₆D₆ and HIV-1₁₆B₆ were obtained after infection of activated PBLS and MDM with HIV-1₁₆D₆ and HIV-1₁₆B₆ viral stocks, respectively and harvesting the corresponding supernatants at three and six days after infections (Saidi et al., 2008). HIV-1₁₆NB-D₆GFP was obtained through the transfection of 3x10⁶ HEK293T cells with 10 μg pHIV-1₁₆D₆ (NIH AIDS research reagents), 2.5 μg pGFP-Vpr expression vectors using Fugene (Promega) following manufacturer's instructions.

Upon collection, all virus-containing media was low-speed centrifuged, filtered through a 0.45-μm pore size filter (Sartorius stedim), to remove cell debris, treated with Benzonase (Novagen®) and stored in 1 mL aliquots at −80°C (Delelis et al., 2009; Perfettini et al., 2004, 2005). Viral stocks were standardized by quantification of CAp24 antigen in cell culture supernatants with an enzyme-linked immunoabsorbent assay (Perkin Elmer) and infection of TZM-bl cells (bearing the β-galactosidase gene under the control of HIV-1 LTR) with serial dilutions of the viral stocks followed by cell fixation and X-Gal staining. The multiplicity of infection (MOI) was determined at 48 hours of infection of TZM-bl based on the number of the positive X-Gal cells.

Viral productions
To produce stocks of wild-type HIV-1NL₄-₃ or HIV-1₁₆D₆, HEK293T cells (2x10⁶) were transfected with 20 μg of the corresponding proviral DNA (pHIV-1NL₄-₃ or pHIV-1₁₆D₆) and for Env-deleted VSV-G pseudotyped NL4-3 viruses (pHIV-1NL₄-₃ΔEnv), HEK293T cells (2x10⁶) were transfected with 4 μg of VSV-G expression vector (pVSV-G) and 16 μg of HIV-1 proviral DNA (pHIV-1NL₄-₃ΔEnv) by the calcium phosphate method. After 12 hours, the transfection mixture was replaced with 8 mL of fresh growth medium. Then, 24 hours later, the media containing the first batch of virus was harvested and 8 mL of fresh growth medium was added to the cells for additional 24 hours. HIV-1₁₆D₆ and HIV-1₁₆B₆ were obtained after infection of activated PBLS and MDM with HIV-1₁₆D₆ and HIV-1₁₆B₆ viral stocks, respectively and harvesting the corresponding supernatants at three and six days after infections (Saidi et al., 2008). HIV-1₁₆NB-VPR-GFP was obtained through the transfection of 3x10⁶ HEK293T cells with 10 μg pHIV-1₁₆D₆ (NIH AIDS research reagents), 2.5 μg pGFP-Vpr expression vectors using Fugene (Promega) following manufacturer's instructions.

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Viral infections
After 3 days of infection with HIV-1₁₆D₆ (MOI of 1), PHA/IL-2–stimulated peripheral blood lymphocytes were cocultured with uninfected lymphoblasts or alone for 48 hours and analyzed by immunofluorescence for synapse formation. MDMs were infected with HIV-1₁₆B₆ (with a MOI of 2) during 3 days for the analysis by Proximity Ligation Assay (PLA) (following manufacturer's instructions) and the intracellular CAp24 by FACS, as previously described (Séror et al., 2011), for MSU (100 μM) and LPS (10 ng/ml) treated cells. MDMs or PMA-THP1 macrophages infected with HIV-1₁₆D₆ were pre-treated 18 hours with MSU (100 μM) and AR-C118925XX (100 μM) and infected during six hours with HIV-1₁₆D₆ (MOI of 1) in the presence of the indicated drugs. The quantification of the LDH release in the cell supernatants of MSU-treated MDM was performed using the commercially available ELISA kits for LDH (Roche) according to the manufacturers' instructions at 24 hours after infection.

THP1 cells were also infected with HIV-1NL₄-₃ (MOI of 1) or HIV-1NL₄-₃ΔEnv (MOI of 1) during 6 hours and analyzed for related signaling pathways by western blot. THP1 monocytes or CEM-SS T cells were infected or not for 3 hours with X₄-tropic HIV-1NL₄-₃ or R₅-tropic HIV-1₁₆D₆ (MOI of 1) and then were either harvest for western blot and mRNA analysis or kept for 21 days by passing cells every 3 days for the same analysis.
For THP1 monocytes or CEM-SS T cells silenced for NLRP3, through the transduction of lentiviral vectors expressing shRNA1 and shRNA2 against NLRP3 gene, and control cells were infected with HIV-1_{NL4-3} or HIV-1_{AD8} (MOI of 1) at 48 hours after shRNA transduction for 6 hours and after washings were suspended in equal medium volumes. Cell supernatants were then harvested at 6 and 12 days after infection for quantification of HIV-1 CAP24 contents. For immunoprecipitation assays, THP1 cells were treated 8 hours with PP1 (20 μM), PP2 (20 μM) or 2 hours of pretreatment with UTP (100 μM) before infection. Then, THP1 cells were infected during 6 hours with HIV-1_{NL4-3} (MOI of 1) in the presence of the indicated drugs. To remove the membrane bound non-internalized HIV-1 particles before analysis of intracellular CAP24 by western blot, cells were treated with trypsin at 37°C for 20 minutes followed by two extensive washings. Target cell infectivity was evaluated using the enhanced β-galactosidase assay kit (Roche). PMA-THP1 macrophages were infected with HIV-1_{AD8}-Vpr-GFP (MOI of 1) in the presence of latrunculin B (10 μM) during 6 hours and the control cells were treated with ethanol and then were fixed with 2% PFA for immunofluorescence analysis.

Immunofluorescence
Cells were fixed in 2% paraformaldehyde-PBS for 5 minutes, permeabilized in 0.3% Triton (Sigma) in PBS or 0.1% Triton for MDMs and PBLs, and incubated with PBS-FBS 20% for 1 hour. Tissue 4-μm sections (lymph nodes, ileum and colon tissues) were cut from the paraffin blocks of the paraformaldehyde fixed tissues from Macaca fascicularis or humans. After paraffin removal, slides were subjected to antigen retrieval by microwave boiling in 1 mmol/l EDTA pH 9.0. Cell slides were then incubated during overnight for immunofluorescence with anti-P2Y2 (Alomone), anti-NLRP3 (Adipogen), anti-CD163 (BD laboratories) or anti-gp120 (2G12) (AIDS Research and Reference Reagent Program, Division of AIDS, NIAID) or for immunochemistry with anti-NLRP3 (Sigma) after permeabilization in 0.3% Triton for 5 minutes and saturation in PBS-FBS 20% for 1 hour. Then, cells were incubated with appropriate secondary antibodies conjugated to Alexa Fluor 488, 546 and 647 fluorochromes (Life technologies) and then cells were mounted with Fluoromount G medium (Southern biotech). Proximity Ligation Assay (DUOLINK®, Sigma) was performed according to the manufacturer’s instructions using anti-NLRP3 (Adipogen) and anti P2Y2 (Alomone) as primary antibodies. Images of cells were acquired by laser-scanning fluorescent confocal microscopy Leica SPE with LAS-X software (Leica) with 8 bits configuration and using a 63X oil objective (1.4 numerical aperture). Leica Microsystem immersion oil (11513859) was used and imaging was performed at room temperature. Confocal images were analyzed with ImageJ and exported as TIFs for figures illustration. For 3D immunofluorescence intensity image construction, images were analyzed by Icy software (in Figure 1G).

Western blots and immunoprecipitations
Cells were washed twice with PBS and lysed in appropriated buffer (250 mM NaCl, 0.1% NP-40, 5 mM EDTA, 10 mM Na3VO4, 10 mM NaF, 5 mM DTT, 3 mM Na4P2O7, 1 mM EGTA, 10 mM Glycerol phosphate, 10 mM Tris-Hcl (pH = 7.5) and the protease and phosphatase inhibitors (Roche)). 10-40 μg of protein extracts were run on 4%-12% or 10% SDS-PAGE and transferred at 4°C onto a nitrocellulose membrane (0.2 Micron). After incubation for 2 hours at room temperature with 5% nonfat milk or BSA (Bovine Serum Albumin) in Tris-buffered saline and 0.1% Tween 20 (TBS-Tween), membranes were incubated with primary antibody at 4°C overnight. Horseradish peroxidase-conjugated goat anti-mouse or anti-rabbit (SouthernBiotech) antibodies were then incubated for 1 hour 30 minutes and revealed with the enhanced ECL detection system (GE Healthcare) in the linear range. The primary antibodies for western blot against CBL (D4E10), GFP (D5.1), PYK2 (SE2), PYK2Y402*, SRC (36D10) and SRCY416* were obtained from Cell Signaling. Primary antibodies against ACTIN and GAPDH were purchased from Abcam and Millipore, respectively. The primary antibodies anti-CAP24 (42-50) and anti-gp120 (2G12) were from NIH (AIDS Research and Reference Reagent Program, Division of AIDS, NIAID). Antibody anti-NLRP3 was from Adipogen (Cryo-2), anti-P2Y2 was from Alomone, anti-ubiquitin (UB) (P4D1) was from Santa-Cruz, and anti-Flag was from Sigma. For immunoprecipitations, cell pellets were lysed at indicated times after infection or 24 hours after transfection in CHAPS buffer (50 mM Tris- HCl (pH = 7.5), 0.50 M NaCl and 0.1% CHAPS) containing protease and phosphatase inhibitors. Anti-P2Y2 (Alomone) antibodies were incubated overnight at 4°C with 500 μg cell lysates. The complexes were precipitated by incubation with Protein G Sepharose 4 Fast Flow (GE Healthcare) for 4 hours. For relative expression quantification analyzed protein bands were quantified by ImageJ software and normalized on the corresponding endogenous expression of GAPDH or ACTIN proteins. To determine the relative NLRP3 interacting with P2Y2, NLRP3 protein bands were normalized on the corresponding immunoprecipitated P2Y2.

Flow cytometry
For flow cytometry, THP1 cells and MDMs (10^6 cells/ml) were harvested in RPMI complete medium, washed twice with PBS, saturated at 4°C for 20 min with PBS-FBS 10% and incubated with anti-CD4 (FITC) and anti-CD184 (CXCR4) (PE-Cy5) antibodies. The indicated antibodies and isotype-matched antibodies used were obtained from BD PharMingen. Phenotypic analyses on primary human MDMs infected by HIV-1_{Bal}, were realized by flow cytometry using mAb anti-CD163 (FITC) (BioLegend), anti-CD206 (Alexa Fluor®647 (AbD Serotec) and anti-p24 (PE) (Beckman Coulter).
Quantitative PCR (qPCR)
The quantification of the HIV-1 early reverse transcripts (ERT) was based on the quantification of HIV-1 R-U5 DNA and performed as previously described (David et al., 2006). DNA was extracted with the DNeasy Tissue Kit (QIAGEN) at 24 h.p.i for ERT detection in MDMs. The quantitative PCR analysis was carried on an ABI prism 7000 Sequence Detection System. The amounts of HIV-1 cDNA copies were normalized to the endogenous reference gene albumin. Standard curve were generated by serial dilutions of a commercial human genomic DNA (Roche).

For the detection of NLRP3 mRNA, total RNA from 0.25x10^6 THP1 monocytes or CEM-SS T cells were extracted using RNeasy kit (QIAGEN). RNA was transcribed using SuperScript II RT (Invitrogen). The predesigned Applied Biosystems probes for NLRP3 gene (Hs00918082 m1) and GAPDH (Hs02758991 g1) (for normalization) were used. These probes were included in the premade TaqMan Gene expression mixes obtained from thermofisher scientific. The results were analyzed with the cycle threshold method (CT) and each sample was normalized to the quantity of endogenous GAPDH mRNA.

QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS
Statistical parameters including exact values of n, precisions measures (mean ± SEM), statistical significances and the tests used for each analysis are reported in the Figures and Figures legends. All values were expressed as the mean ± SEM of cell individual samples. Samples values were analyzed using two-tailed unpaired Student’s t test for two groups, ANOVA for multiple comparisons groups, Mann-Whitney test for human MDMs and PBLs donors not normalized data and Wilcoxon signed rank test for MDMs donors analyzed for early reverse transcripts. Significance levels are * p ≤ 0.05, ** p ≤ 0.01, *** p ≤ 0.001 and **** p ≤ 0.0001. Statistical analysis was performed in GraphPad Prism version 6.0b (GraphPad Software). No statistical test was used to determine sample size. No samples were excluded for analysis. The experiments were not randomized. Investigators were not blinded to allocation during experiments and outcome assessments.

DATA AND CODE AVAILABILITY
The western blot data reported in this paper have been deposited on Mendeley Data (Mendeley data https://doi.org/10.17632/6bxgc4h4m2.1) and are accessible to readers upon request.