

Altered gut microbiota correlate with different immune response to HAART in HIV-infected individual

Jia Sun

Zhejiang University School of Medicine First Affiliated Hospital

Li Wei

Zhejiang University School of Medicine First Affiliated Hospital

Haiyin Jiang

Zhejiang University School of Medicine First Affiliated Hospital

Caiqin Hu

Zhejiang University School of Medicine First Affiliated Hospital

Jiezuan Yang

Zhejiang University School of Medicine First Affiliated Hospital

Ying Huang

Zhejiang University School of Medicine First Affiliated Hospital

Bing Ruan

Zhejiang University School of Medicine First Affiliated Hospital

Biao Zhu

Zhejiang University School of Medicine First Affiliated Hospital

Yirui Xie (✉ 1312019@zju.edu.cn)

Zhejiang University School of Medicine First Affiliated Hospital <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0591-4122>

Research article

Keywords: HIV-1, Gut microbiota, immune activation, immunological responders, immunological nonresponders, HAART

Posted Date: July 22nd, 2020

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-44062/v1>

License:   This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License.

[Read Full License](#)

Version of Record: A version of this preprint was published on January 6th, 2021. See the published version at <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12866-020-02074-1>.

Abstract

Background: Although gut microbiota dysbiosis has recently been reported in HIV infected individuals, the relationship between the gut microbiota and immune activation in patients with different immune response to highly active antiretroviral therapy (HAART) is still not well understood. Gut microbiota and immune activation were studied in 36 non-HIV-infected subjects (Health Control) and 58 HIV-infected individuals which included 28 immunological responders (IR) and 30 immunological non-responders (INR) (≥ 500 and < 200 CD4+ T-cell counts/ μl after 2 years of HIV-1 viral suppression respectively) without comorbidities.

Results: Metagenome sequencing revealed that the diversity and composition of gut microbiota could not be recovered completely as normal gut environment in HIV-infected individuals although with immunological response after long-term effective ART. At the genus level, predominant genera *Fusobacterium*, *Ruminococcus_gnavus* and *Megamonas* were more abundant, whereas *Faecalibacterium*, *Alistipes*, *Bifidobacterium*, *Eubacteriumrectale*, and *Roseburia* were depleted in IR and INR group than health control. *Ruminococcaceae* and *Alistipes* were positively correlated to nadir and current CD4+ T-cell, but negatively correlated to CD8+CD57+ T-cell. Inflammation markers and translocation biomarkers (LPS) levels were positively correlated to the abundance of genus *Ruminococcus* and *Fusobacterium*, but were negatively correlated to genus *Faecalibacterium*. *Escherichia-Shigella* and *Blautia* were enriched significantly in IR than INR group. *Escherichia-Shigella* were negatively correlated to CD4/CD8 ratio, but positively correlated to CD8+CD57+ T-cell.

Conclusions: Altogether, the gut microbiota is one of the factors contributing to different immune response to HAART. *Fusobacterium*, *Alistipes*, *Ruminococcaceae*, *Faecalibacterium* and *Escherichia-Shigella* maybe the major genus contributed to different immune response in immunodiscordant and immunoconcordant patients on long-term suppressive ART.

Background

Life expectancy of individuals infected with human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) has increased enormously and HIV infection becomes a chronic manageable disease in combination antiretroviral therapy (ART) era. Most patients with ART can achieve distinct reduction of HIV viral load and improvement of CD4 + T-cell. However, the extent of immunologic recovery varied greatly between individuals. The subjects who maintain low increases of CD4 + T cells despite with complete viral suppression are considered as immunological nonresponders (INR) or immunodiscordant patients [1], which contrast with immunological responders (IR) or immunoconcordant patients [2]. As there is no unified definition of INR, the prevalence of INR ranges from 15–30% in the cohorts [3–5]. The INR were considered when absolute CD4 + T cells fail to reach 200cells/ μl after years of ART, although 350cells/ μl are also used as cutoff values in the literature [6]. In contrast, IR were defined as CD4 + T-cell counts > 500 cells/ μl .

Emerging evidence suggest that the gut microbiome of HIV-infected patients were different from those of HIV-uninfected individuals [7]. However, these studies did not consider the immune response to ART and pay little attention to China [7]. Recently, there are two studies reported that gut microbiota were associated with CD4 recovery in HIV-infected patients [8, 9]. The microbiome of chronic HIV infected individuals were studied in China, however, these patients had heterogeneous HIV progression and immune response to ART [10, 11]. Studies showed that HIV-mediated destruction of gut mucosa lead to local and systemic inflammation [12]. Moreover, chronic inflammation is reported to be associated with gut microbiome in non-AIDS populations [13]. These suggested the gut microbiome may take part in immune activation in HIV-infected individuals with ART [12, 14–16]. Despite the many studies related to microbiome in HIV-infected patients, there have been relatively few reports detailing the gut microbiome that occur in patients with different immune response to ART [17, 18]. Therefore, in this study a comparative study of the gut microbiome and immune activation was conducted in HIV patients with different immune response to ART. 16S ribosomal RNA (rRNA) targeted sequencing and flow cytometry were used to character the gut microbiome and their relationship with immune activation in immunodiscordant and immunoconcordant patients on long-term suppressive ART.

Results

Clinical characteristics and pyrosequencing data summary

Characteristics of the 28 IR patients, 30 INR patients and 36 health controls, including demographics, clinical characteristics, and pyrosequencing results were summarized in Table 1. The rate of MSM transmission route was 57.1% vs 51.7%, while the rate of the heterosexual (HTS) transmission route was 20.7 vs 21.4%, and others were missing from their records. There was no significant difference between the rate of the transmission route in IR and INR group ($p = 0.779$). The viral load of all HIV-infected individuals on ART was not detected. Nadir and current CD4 + T cell count were significantly higher in IR group than INR group (Table 2). No differences in duration of ART and ongoing ART regimen were observed between IR and INR group. Other characteristics such as gender, age and body mass index (BMI) were generally matched between the IR group, INR group and control group.

Table 1
Clinical characteristics data summary

	HIV ART(+)			P-value
	Health Control	Immune Responders(IR)	Immune Nonresponders(INR)	
Number of subjects	36	28	30	
Gender male/female	33/3	25/3	29/1	
Age (mean ± SD)	33.11 ± 3.95	36.64 ± 10.2	36.6 ± 7.19	NS
BMI(mean ± SD)	21.42 ± 3.27	21.06 ± 2.37	20.67 ± 2.74	NS
Smoking	1	0	1	NS
Transmission, no.				
Heterosexual	NA	6	6	NS
Homosexual transmission	NA	16	15	NS
Data Missing	NA	6	8	NS
HAART months (mean ± SD)	NA	37.25 ± 13.61	34.00 ± 10.24	NS
Ongoing cART regimen, no. patients (%)				
NNRTI based	NA	25	27	NS
PI based	NA	3	3	NS
NA (not available), NS (no significant) indicates p-value > 0.05, *compared between IR and INR group. NNRTI: Non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors; PI: Protease inhibitor.				

Table 2
Cellular immune activation markers sequencing data summary

T cell markers	HIV ART(+)			P-value
	Health Control	Immune Responders(IR)	Immune Nonresponders(INR)	
Nadir CD4 ⁺ T cells (mean ± SD)	NA	309.89 ± 128.81	95.23 ± 108.92	< 0.0001
Current CD4 ⁺ T cells (mean ± SD)	NA	608.30 ± 158.25	230.5 ± 87.50	< 0.0001
Current CD4 ⁺ /CD8 ⁺ T-cell ratio	NA	0.8 ± 0.36	0.35 ± 0.20	< 0.0001
HIV RNA	NA	ND	ND	
%CD4 + HLADR + CD38+	NA	7.72 ± 4.30	10.30 ± 10.45	NS
%CD4 + CD25+	NA	1.26 ± 0.99	1.09 ± 1.04	NS
%CD4 + CD57+	NA	2.57 ± 1.92	2.43 ± 3.30	NS
%CD8 + HLADR + CD38+	NA	20.68 ± 11.35	23 ± 12.39	NS
%CD8 + CD57+	NA	14.36 ± 7.11	23.98 ± 12.30	0.001
Cytokines				
IL-2(pg/mL, mean ± SD)	9.47 ± 6.79	120.96 ± 113.96	153.81 ± 118.79	< 0.0001
IL-4(pg/mL, mean ± SD)	13.49 ± 31.01	34.52 ± 43.30	32.51 ± 31.17	0.009
IL-6(pg/mL, mean ± SD)	8.39 ± 12.57	126.90 ± 95.33	130.82 ± 60.62	< 0.0001
IL-9(pg/mL, mean ± SD)	3.68 ± 6.20	94.00 ± 78.07	96.57 ± 48.71	< 0.0001
IL10(pg/mL, mean ± SD)	2.48 ± 2.35	44.69 ± 37.66	51.32 ± 31.65	< 0.0001
IL-13(pg/mL, mean ± SD)	85.45 ± 65.02	96.76 ± 71.54	82.94 ± 62.96	NS
IL-17A(pg/mL, mean ± SD)	26.22 ± 52.89	133.41 ± 161.61	94.80 ± 83.84	< 0.0001

#Indicate the alpha diversity was calculated after the reads number of each sample were equalized. NA (not available), ND (not detected), NS (no significant) indicates p-value > 0.05, *compared between IR and INR group.

	HIV ART(+)			P-value
IL-17F(pg/mL, mean ± SD)	5.45 ± 5.68	19.15 ± 19.48	20.59 ± 20.34	< 0.0001
IL-21(pg/mL, mean ± SD)	41.33 ± 48.87	104.43 ± 88.11	93.84 ± 56.89	0.002
IL-22(pg/mL, mean ± SD)	153.98 ± 97.15	291.60 ± 176.36	293.10 ± 125.37	0.001
IFN-γ(pg/mL, mean ± SD)	12.55 ± 29.52	81.57 ± 84.50	69.36 ± 83.42	< 0.0001
TNF-α(pg/mL, mean ± SD)	8.39 ± 15.57	38.86 ± 44.19	32.22 ± 26.47	< 0.0001
LPS(pg/mL, mean ± SD)	24.22 ± 18.88	104.98 ± 56.15	76.55 ± 40.05	< 0.0001*
sCD14(pg/mL, mean ± SD)	1583.60 ± 292.80	2480.42 ± 999.88	2142.65 ± 496.53	< 0.0001
Pyrosequencing data				
Sobs index [#]	194.11 ± 47.45	116.89 ± 39.71	118.11 ± 46.96	< 0.0001
Shannon index [#]	3.14 ± 0.53	2.47 ± 0.54	2.44 ± 0.56	< 0.0001
Simpson index [#]	0.12 ± 0.09	0.19 ± 0.11	0.19 ± 0.13	< 0.0001
ACE [#]	223.97 ± 53.59	147.26 ± 39.98	148.41 ± 49.99	< 0.0001
Chao 1 index [#]	224.29 ± 54.76	144.52 ± 45.25	145.37 ± 51.01	< 0.0001
Good's coverage (%) [#]	99.82 ± 0.04	99.87 ± 0.04	99.87 ± 0.04	< 0.0001
#Indicate the alpha diversity was calculated after the reads number of each sample were equalized. NA (not available), ND (not detected), NS (no significant) indicates p-value > 0.05, *compared between IR and INR group.				

Total 3,549,077 high-quality sequences were obtained (average sequence length 440 bp) from 94 participants. Average of 38,849 sequences per sample was obtained from control subjects, while 35,947 and 38,134 sequences per sample from IR and INR patients. Rarefaction was conducted on the OTU table to 30,174 reads per sample to avoid methodological artefacts. Specifically, 609 OTUs in the control group, while 486 OTUs and 567 OTUs in IR and INR group respectively were defined at a 97% similarity level. Significant difference of bacterial diversity (Shannon, Simpson, and Sobs), richness (ACE, Chao1) and

Good's coverage were observed among the three groups, while there was no significant difference was found between IR group and INR group. The summary information was shown in Table 2.

Compositional analysis of fecal microbiota

Principal coordinate (PCoA) analysis by weighted UniFrac matrices showed obvious differentiation of bacterial communities between IR and controls (PERMANOVA, pseudo-F: 8.99, $R^2 = 0.13$, $P = 0.001$, Fig. 1a), INR and controls (PERMANOVA, pseudo-F: 8.77, $R^2 = 0.12$, $P = 0.001$, Fig. 1b); while no significant difference were observed between IR and INR group (PERMANOVA, pseudo-F: 0.80, $R^2 = 0.01$, $P = 0.71$, Fig. 1c). The average abundance of each bacterial phylum and genus level in patients and controls were showed respectively (S1 and S2 Figs).

The Wilcoxon rank sum test was used to detect taxa that showed significant differences in abundance among groups (confidence interval method). At the phylum level, Bacteroidetes, Actinobacteria, Tenericutes and Lentisphaerae were more abundant in health control than IR group. Proteobacteria, Fusobacteria and Saccharibacteria were significantly enriched in IR group (Fig. 2a). The relative abundance of 11 families was significantly different between IR and control groups. The relative abundance of 93 genera, including 15 predominant ($> 1\%$ of the total sequences in either group) and 78 less-predominant genera, were significantly different between the control and IR groups. Among the different predominant genera, *Lachnoclostridium*, *Megasphaera*, *Escherichia-Shigella*, *Veillonella*, *Streptococcus*, *Fusobacterium*, and *Ruminococcus_gnavus* were found overrepresented in IR patients. *Faecalibacterium*, *Eubacterium_rectale_group*, *Alistipes*, *Subdoligranulum*, *Bifidobacterium*, *Roseburia*, *Ruminococcaceae* and *Parasutterella* were enriched in controls (Fig. 2b). A taxonomy-based bacterial comparison was conducted to define the differences between the control and INR groups. At the phylum level, Bacteroidetes, Actinobacteria, Lentisphaerae were more abundant in control group than INR group, while Proteobacteria, Fusobacteria, Tenericutes, Saccharibacteria and unclassified k norank were more abundant in INR group (Fig. 2c). At the genus level, the relative abundance of 83 genera (including 11 predominant genera) was different between the control and INR group. The relative proportions of *Faecalibacterium*, *Eubacterium_rectale_group*, *Alistipes*, *Bifidobacterium*, *Blautia*, *Roseburia* and *Ruminococcaceae* were more abundant in health control than INR group. *Parasutterella*, *Megasphaera*, *Fusobacterium*, and *Ruminococcus_gnavus* were found overrepresented in INR patients (Fig. 2d). Although there were no significant difference between IR and INR group at the phylum level (Fig. 2e), the abundances of 12 genera (including 2 predominant genera) differed between the IR and INR groups. The two predominant genera *Escherichia-Shigella* and *Blautia* enriched significantly in IR than INR group (Fig. 2f).

In order to identify the key phylotypes responsible for the difference in distinguishing fecal microbiota of different groups, linear discriminant analysis (LDA) effect size (LEfSe) was performed and an effect-size threshold of 3 was used. Taxonomic cladograms that represent the microbiota structure and predominant bacteria in the three groups were displayed; and the largest differences between the two communities were shown in S3 Fig.

Compare of T-cell activation in IR and INR group

As expected, nadir CD4 + T-cell, current CD4 + T-cell counts and CD4/CD8 ratio were lower in INR than IR group ($p < 0.0001$). Proportions of CD8 + CD57 + T-cell in INR group was significantly lower than IR group ($p < 0.001$). The proportion level of CD4 + and CD8 + T-cells immune activation (CD4/8 + T-cell by expression of CD25+, HLA-DR+, and HLA-DR+/CD38+) was similar in INR and IR group (Table 1).

Bacterial translocation markers and inflammation profiles comparison

Lipopolysaccharide (LPS) which translocate from the gut to blood stream was commonly used as the major antigens driving chronic immune activation. Levels of LPS were significantly increased in INR group when compared with others ($p < 0.0001$). However the soluble immune activation marker sCD14 was not different between groups. Of the 13 markers studied, the level of IL-13 was not different among groups and twelve markers (IL-2, IL-4, IL-5, IL-6, IL-9, IL10, IL-17A, IL-17F, IL-21, IL-22, IFN- γ and TNF- α) were shown to be significantly higher in INR and IR groups when compared with the control, but there was no significant difference between INR and IR groups (Table 1).

Association between fecal microbiota and immune activation

Spearman correlations among the relative abundance of bacteria genera and levels of T-cell activation, inflammation or translocation biomarkers were evaluated (Fig. 3). Interestingly, nadir CD4 + T-cell counts levels were positively correlated to the abundance of *Ruminococcaceae* and *Alistipes*, while current CD4 + T-cell counts were strongly positively to the abundance of *Ruminococcaceae* and *Subdoligranulum*. *Fusobacterium* were negatively correlated to nadir and current CD4 + T-cell. CD4/CD8 ratio were positively correlated to genus *Faecalibacterium* and *Ruminococcaceae*, but negatively correlated to *Escherichia-Shigella*. Moreover, CD8 + CD57 + T-cell was positively correlated to *Escherichia-Shigella*, but was negatively correlated to genus *Ruminococcaceae* and *Alistipes*. Inflammation markers and LPS were positively correlated to the abundance of genus *Ruminococcus* and *Fusobacterium*, but were negatively correlated to genus *Faecalibacterium* (Fig. 3).

Discussion

The goal of highly active antiretroviral therapy (HAART) is immune reconstitution following successful viral suppression in HIV-infected patients [2]. Despite with complete viral suppression, the CD4 + T cell is not reversed completely and microbial translocation continues after peripheral CD4 + T cell restoration [19–22]. The gut microbiota has been reported had critical impact on human biology and pathophysiology. The gut microbiota as a key factor for immune homeostasis is accepted widely now [22]. Compositional and functional changes of the gut microbiota have pointed a novel link between the gut bacterial community and immunity in treated HIV-infected individuals [7, 23]. However, the way the microbiome contributes to immune activation in HIV positive individuals is poorly understood. We

supposed that gut microbiome may play an important role in different immune response to long-term ART in HIV + individuals. So in this study, we investigated the fecal microbiome and immune activation in HIV + individuals with different immune response to long-term ART in China.

The microbiome dysbiosis in HIV-infected individuals has been described in several studies [7], however, there is only few study included a handful of IR and INR patients and without considering the immune response to HAART [24]. The current study, which included the so far higher number of IR and INR patients, expand the previous observations and investigate the relationship between gut microbiota and immune activation. It found that ecological indices of microbiota (including community diversity, richness and observed species numbers) were significantly lower in IR and INR group when compared to health control. Additionally, PCoA analysis showed remarkable differentiation of bacterial communities between IR, INR and health control. These suggested that the diversity and composition of gut microbiota could not be recovered completely as normal gut environment in HIV-infected individuals although with immunological response after long-term effective ART.

Furthermore, we found that IR and INR group had a unique bacterial signature at phylum level. Proteobacteria, Fusobacteria, and Saccharibacteria were more abundant, whereas Bacteroidetes, Actinobacteria and Lentisphaerae were depleted in IR and INR group. At the genus level, the predominant genera *Fusobacterium*, *Ruminococcus_gnavus* and *Megamonas* were more abundant, whereas *Faecalibacterium*, *Alistipes*, *Bifidobacterium*, *Eubacterium_rectale*, and *Roseburia* were depleted in IR and INR group than health control. Taxa from bacterial phyla Proteobacteria, Fusobacteria and Bacteroidetes have been reported different between HIV positive and negative individuals in studies. Our result is consistent with most of published studies which reported Proteobacteria were more abundant in HIV-infected individuals although others reported no change [10, 11, 25–30]. The phylum Fusobacteria (most driven by its constituent genus *Fusobacterium*) which was reported associated with intestinal inflammation [31, 32] and enriched in HIV-infected individuals in some studies [26, 30, 33, 34]. Here, we found *Fusobacterium* enriched in IR and INR group. Furthermore, inflammation markers and translocation biomarkers (LPS) were positively correlated with *Fusobacterium*, while nadir and current CD4 + T-cell counts were negatively correlated to *Fusobacterium* in this study.

The phylum Bacteroidetes which include the families Bacteroidaceae, Prevotellaceae, Porphyromonadaceae, and Rikenellaceae, exhibited a more heterogeneous pattern of changes in HIV-infected individuals [10, 11, 22, 25–30, 33–37]. The family Bacteroidaceae (mostly driven by the abundance of the genus *Bacteroides*) is generally considered to play an anti-inflammatory role [38–41], were depleted in IR and INR group. The bile-tolerant family Rikenellaceae (mostly driven by the abundance of the genus *Alistipes*) which is protective properties against *C. difficile* infection [41, 42], were overall depleted in IR and INR group. Actinobacteria which was reported similar in the proximal gut of HIV-infected patients and negative controls [29], were depleted in IR and INR group in this study. The *Alistipes* was negatively correlated to CD8 + CD57 + T-cell and positively correlated to nadir CD4 + T-cell counts. Notably, the commonly used probiotics *Bifidobacterium* which belong to the phylum of Actinobacteria were depleted in IR and INR group than health control [43].

Although the abundance of phylum Firmicutes is similar in the three groups, the genus such as *Faecalibacterium* and *Ruminococcaceae* were depleted in IR and INR group than health control. *Ruminococcaceae* have been associated with both protective and disruptive roles within the gut microbial community, such as the production of anti-inflammatory SCFA[44] or the degradation of host mucus and potential proinflammatory role in IBD[45]. In this study, the *Faecalibacterium* and *Ruminococcaceae* UCG-002, which belong to the family of *Ruminococcaceae* were depleted in IR and INR group than health control, Interestingly, *Ruminococcaceae* were positively correlated to the current and nadir CD4 + T-cell counts while negatively correlated to CD8 + CD57 + T-cell. In additionally, inflammation markers and LPS were positively correlated to the abundance of genus *Ruminococcus*. The *Faecalibacterium* has been reported as anti-inflammatory commensal genus [26, 46]. In this study, the genus *Faecalibacterium* was positively correlated to CD4/CD8 ratio, while negatively correlated with inflammation markers and LPS. The family Enterobacteriaceae is associated with inflammation[47], *Escherichia-Shigella* which belonged to Enterobacteriaceae were negatively correlated to CD4/CD8 ratio, but positively correlated to CD8 + CD57 + T-cell which is hallmark of immunosenescence in HIV infection[48, 49]. Furthermore, *Escherichia-Shigella* was more abundant in IR group than INR group in this study. These suggested that *Fusobacterium*, *Alistipes*, *Ruminococcaceae*, *Faecalibacterium* and *Escherichia-Shigella* maybe the major genus contributed to different immune response in immunodiscordant and immunoconcordant patients on long-term suppressive ART.

Altogether, these results highlight that immune activation in HIV-infected patients is associated with the observed gut microbiota dysbiosis. Based upon these findings, we speculate that the gut microbiota may be one of the factors contributing to different immune response to HAART. We acknowledge that the extensive dietary data and living conditions of these subjects which are not controlled may lead to biases in our analysis. On the other hand, while correlation analysis is useful to have clues of biological links to the impact of dysbiosis in immune response in these patients, a direct manipulation of microbiome is needed to validate their cellular and biochemical action in vitro or in vivo. And the exact mechanisms how HIV infection induced dysbiosis in the gut need to be studied in future study.

Conclusions

In summary, we report the gut microbiota dysbiosis in HIV-infected immunological nonresponders and immunological responders. The differences are robust in number of observed species, richness and community composition. This report also provides the gut microbiota difference between immunological nonresponders and immunological responders. Furthermore, these compositional dysbiosis correlated with different immune response in HIV-infected patients.

Methods

Recruitment of subjects

The process of participants' recruitment and sample collection are depicted in Suppl. FigS4. A total of 58 HIV-infected individuals were recruited, including 28 immunological responders (IR), 30 immunological non-responders (INR), and 36 healthy subjects (control). IR and INR were defined as CD4 + T-cell counts/ $\mu\text{l} \geq 500$ or < 200 after 2 years of virus controlled, respectively. Subjects were recruited from the HIV clinic of the first affiliated hospital of Zhejiang University from November 2015 to October 2017. All HIV-positive participants were diagnosed by the Disease Control and Prevention Center of Zhejiang Province. In the HIV + cohort, all subjects were on two nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors (NRTIs) + nonnucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors (NNRTIs) or protease inhibitor based therapy: Zidovudine/Tenofovir Disoproxil Fumarate(AZT/TDF) + Lamivudine(3TC) + Efavirenz (EFV) or Lopinavir/ritonavir (LPV/r). Controls were healthy HIV negative volunteers and most of them were staff of the institution. Age, gender, and body mass index (BMI) of the controls matched those of HIV individuals (Table 1). The exclude criteria were following: age > 60 y; opportunistic infection; hepatitis B or C infection; antibiotics, immunosuppressive regimen, probiotics, prebiotics, or synbiotics usage in previous 6 months; use of rectally administered medications within 48 h; BMI > 30 ; inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) history; active inflammation affecting the gastro intestines.

Ethics Statement

All participants provided written informed consent before entering the study. This study conformed to the ethical norms of the 1975 Helsinki Declaration. The research protocol was approved by the Institutional Review Committee of the First Affiliated Hospital of Zhejiang University on October 7, 2015. All data analyzed were anonymized.

Fecal samples collection and DNA extraction

Fecal samples of participants were collected in sterile container before their clinic visit and stored at -80 °C until DNA extraction. DNA was extracted by QIAamp DNA stool mini kit (QIAGEN, Hilden, Germany) and glass-bead beating on Mini-bead beater (FastPrep; Thermo Electron Corporation, Boston, MA, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. DNA quantification and purity were assessed by NanoDrop ND-1000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Electron Corporation). The integrity and size of DNA were checked by 1.0% agarose gel electrophoresis. DNA was stored at -20 °C for further analysis.

Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) and 16S rRNA gene sequencing

PCR amplification of the bacterial 16S rRNA gene V3–V4 region was performed using universal primers (338F 5'- ACTCCTACGGGAGGCAGCAG-3', 806R<5'-GGACTACHVGGGTWTCTAAT-3'). The PCR reactions were conducted using the following program: 3 min of denaturation at 95 °C, 27 cycles of 30 s at 95 °C, 30 s for annealing at 55 °C, and 45 s for elongation at 72 °C, and a final extension at 72 °C for 10 min. PCR reactions were performed in triplicate 20 μl mixture containing 4 μl of 5 × FastPfu Buffer, 2 μl of 2.5 mM dNTPs, 0.8 μl of each primer (5 μM), 0.4 μl of FastPfu Polymerase and 10 ng of template DNA. The resulted PCR products were extracted from a 2% agarose gel and further purified using the AxyPrep DNA Gel Extraction Kit (Axygen Biosciences, Union City, CA, USA) and quantified using QuantiFluor™-ST

(Promega, USA) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Purified amplicons were pooled in equimolar and paired-end sequenced (2 × 300) on an Illumina MiSeq platform (Illumina, San Diego, USA) according to the standard protocols by Majorbio Bio-Pharm Technology Co. Ltd. (Shanghai, China). The raw reads were deposited into the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRA) database and was accessible with the following link: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sra/PRJNA533202>.

Bioinformatics and statistics

The raw fastq files were demultiplexed and quality-filtered using Trimmomatic, and then merged by FLASH. The original reads were trimmed with a minimum length of 50 bp and an average quality score of 20. Two mismatches were allowed in primer sequences and reads containing ambiguous bases were removed. Ten homopolymers authorized in sequences was limited. Operational taxonomic units (OTUs) were picked with 97% similarity threshold by UPARSE(<http://drive5.com/uparse/>) and chimera identification sequence was performed using UCHIME. Taxonomy-based analyses were performed by RDP Classifier algorithm (<http://rdp.cme.msu.edu/>) in combination with 16 s rRNA Silva128 database with 70% cut-off confidence.

Viral Load, Flow Cytometry and Immunophenotype

Quantifications of CD4 + and CD8 + T-cells and HIV-1 RNA were carried out in HIV- infected individuals by flow cytometry and Cobas Amplicor (Roche Molecular Systems Inc., Branchburg, New Jersey, USA) as clinical routine. The percentage of CD4 + and CD8 + T cells expressing markers of activation (CD25+, CD38+, HLADR+, or CD38+/HLA-DR+) and senescence(CD57+) were quantified by BD FACS Canto II flow cytometer (BD Biosciences, California, USA) using fresh anticoagulated whole blood. Antibody such as CD3-FITC, CD4- PerCP/Cy5.5, CD8-Brilliant Violet 510™, CD38-Brilliant Violet 421, CD25-PE, HLA-DR-APC/Fire™ 750, and CD57-allophycocyanin (APC) were purchased from Biolegend (San Diego, CA).

Bacterial translocation and immune activation markers

Sera samples from 27 IR, 30 INR, and seventeen healthy participants were collected to measure immune activation markers. These markers were quantified using LEGENDplex™ Human Th Cytokine Panel (Biolegend, San Diego, CA): IL-2, IL-4, IL-6, IL-9, IL10, IL-13, IL-17A, IL-17F, IL-21, IL-22, TNF-α and interferon (IFN)-γ in line with the manufacturer's instructions. Human Lipopolysaccharides (LPS) ELISA Kit (CUSABIO; Wuhan, China) and Human and soluble CD14 (sCD14) ELISA Kit (MultiSciences, Hangzhou, China) were used to test plasma LPS and sCD14 according to the standard protocols. Two replicate was performed for each assay.

Statistics analysis

OTUs that reached a 97% level of nucleotide similarity level were used for alpha diversity (Shannon, Simpson, and Sobs), richness (ACE and Chao1), Good's coverage, rarefaction curve and phylogenetic beta diversity measures analyses by mothur. PERMANOVA (permutational multivariate analysis of variance) was used to assess beta diversity based on UniFrac distances. The number of permutations was 999 for PERMANOVA. The results were imported into Phyloseq for subsampling normalization,

manipulation, and graph visualization by R (V.3.1.3, The R Project for Statistical Computing)[50]. Linear discriminant analysis (LDA) effect size (LEfSe) uses the Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test to detect features with significant different abundances between assigned taxa. LEfSe are available online in the Galaxy workflow framework[51]. Principal Coordinates analysis (PCoA) was generated for weighted Unifrac data to visualize the microbial communities. The one-way ANOVA, non-parametric test, Wilcoxon rank sum test and Mann-Whitney U test which used for comparisons between groups were conducted in R package and SPSS software (version 21, SPSS, Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). The average abundance values for each bacterium are depicted as mean \pm SD. A significant alpha of 0.05 and LDA effect size threshold of 3 were used for all biomarkers. Correlations between variables were calculated using Spearman's rank-correlation analysis by R package; and associations with a Benjamini – Hochberg adjusted p-value lower than 0.01 were considered relevant.

Declarations

Acknowledgments

We gratefully acknowledge the patients who participated in this study.

Funding

This work was funded by the Natural Science Foundation of China (Young Scientist Fund, 81500491) and National Science Foundation of China (Major Research Plan, 2018ZX10715-014).

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Informed consent:

Written consent was obtained from the patient.

Author Contributions

Yirui Xie and Jia Sun participated in the design of the study and performed the statistical analysis and wrote the paper. Li Wei, Haiyin Jiang, Caiqin Hu and Jiezuan Yang carried out the experiment. Caiqin Hu and Ying Huang collected biopsy samples. Bing Ruan helped to review the manuscript. Biao Zhu participated in the design and review the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Availability of data and materials

The raw reads were deposited into the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRA) database and was accessible with the following link: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sra/PRJNA533202>.

Ethics approval and consent to participate

This study conformed to the ethical norms of the 1975 Helsinki Declaration. The research protocol was approved by the Institutional Review Committee of the First Affiliated Hospital of Zhejiang University on October 7, 2015. All data analyzed were anonymized. All participants provided written informed consent before entering the study.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

References

1. Kelley CF, Kitchen CM, Hunt PW, Rodriguez B, Hecht FM, Kitahata M, Crane HM, Willig J, Mugavero M, Saag M, et al. Incomplete peripheral CD4 + cell count restoration in HIV-infected patients receiving long-term antiretroviral treatment. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2009;48(6):787–94.
2. Cenderello G, De Maria A. Discordant responses to cART in HIV-1 patients in the era of high potency antiretroviral drugs: clinical evaluation, classification, management prospects. *Expert Rev Anti Infect Ther*. 2016;14(1):29–40.
3. Tsukamoto H, Clise-Dwyer K, Huston GE, Duso DK, Buck AL, Johnson LL, Haynes L, Swain SL. Age-associated increase in lifespan of naive CD4 T cells contributes to T-cell homeostasis but facilitates development of functional defects. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2009;106(43):18333–8.
4. Florence E, Lundgren J, Dreezen C, Fisher M, Kirk O, Blaxhult A, Panos G, Katlama C, Vella S, Phillips A, et al. Factors associated with a reduced CD4 lymphocyte count response to HAART despite full viral suppression in the EuroSIDA study. *HIV Med*. 2003;4(3):255–62.
5. Kaufmann GR, Perrin L, Pantaleo G, Opravil M, Furrer H, Telenti A, Hirschel B, Ledergerber B, Vernazza P, Bernasconi E, et al. CD4 T-lymphocyte recovery in individuals with advanced HIV-1 infection receiving potent antiretroviral therapy for 4 years: the Swiss HIV Cohort Study. *Arch Intern Med*. 2003;163(18):2187–95.
6. Gazzola L, Tincati C, Bellistri GM, Monforte A, Marchetti G. The absence of CD4 + T cell count recovery despite receipt of virologically suppressive highly active antiretroviral therapy: clinical risk, immunological gaps, and therapeutic options. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2009;48(3):328–37.
7. Gootenberg DB, Paer JM, Luevano JM, Kwon DS. HIV-associated changes in the enteric microbial community: potential role in loss of homeostasis and development of systemic inflammation. *Curr*

- Opin Infect Dis. 2017;30(1):31–43.
8. Lu W, Feng Y, Jing F, Han Y, Lyu N, Liu F, Li J, Song X, Xie J, Qiu Z, et al. Association Between Gut Microbiota and CD4 Recovery in HIV-1 Infected Patients. *Front Microbiol.* 2018;9:1451.
 9. Ji Y, Zhang F, Zhang R, Shen Y, Liu L, Wang J, Yang J, Tang Q, Xun J, Qi T, et al. Changes in intestinal microbiota in HIV-1-infected subjects following cART initiation: influence of CD4 + T cell count. *Emerg Microbes Infect.* 2018;7(1):113.
 10. Sun Y, Ma Y, Lin P, Tang YW, Yang L, Shen Y, Zhang R, Liu L, Cheng J, Shao J, et al. Fecal bacterial microbiome diversity in chronic HIV-infected patients in China. *Emerg Microbes Infect.* 2016;5:e31.
 11. Ling Z, Jin C, Xie T, Cheng Y, Li L, Wu N. Alterations in the Fecal Microbiota of Patients with HIV-1 Infection: An Observational Study in A Chinese Population. *Sci Rep.* 2016;6:30673.
 12. Deeks SG, Tracy R, Douek DC. Systemic effects of inflammation on health during chronic HIV infection. *Immunity.* 2013;39(4):633–45.
 13. West CE, Renz H, Jenmalm MC, Kozyrskyj AL, Allen KJ, Vuillermin P, Prescott SL. in FMIG: The gut microbiota and inflammatory noncommunicable diseases: associations and potentials for gut microbiota therapies. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2015;135(1):3–13. quiz 14.
 14. Klatt NR, Chomont N, Douek DC, Deeks SG. Immune activation and HIV persistence: implications for curative approaches to HIV infection. *Immunol Rev.* 2013;254(1):326–42.
 15. Klatt NR, Funderburg NT, Brenchley JM. Microbial translocation, immune activation, and HIV disease. *Trends Microbiol.* 2013;21(1):6–13.
 16. Lederman MM, Funderburg NT, Sekaly RP, Klatt NR, Hunt PW. Residual immune dysregulation syndrome in treated HIV infection. *Adv Immunol.* 2013;119:51–83.
 17. Siedner MJ. START or SMART? Timing of Antiretroviral Therapy Initiation and Cardiovascular Risk for People With Human Immunodeficiency Virus Infection. *Open Forum Infect Dis.* 2016;3(1):ofw032.
 18. Havlir DV, Currier JS. CROI 2015: Complications of HIV Infection and Antiretroviral Therapy. *Top Antivir Med.* 2015;23(1):56–65.
 19. Jiang W, Lederman MM, Hunt P, Sieg SF, Haley K, Rodriguez B, Landay A, Martin J, Sinclair E, Asher AI, et al. Plasma levels of bacterial DNA correlate with immune activation and the magnitude of immune restoration in persons with antiretroviral-treated HIV infection. *J Infect Dis.* 2009;199(8):1177–85.
 20. Mavigner M, Cazabat M, Dubois M, L'Faqihi FE, Requena M, Pasquier C, Klopp P, Amar J, Alric L, Barange K, et al. Altered CD4 + T cell homing to the gut impairs mucosal immune reconstitution in treated HIV-infected individuals. *J Clin Invest.* 2012;122(1):62–9.
 21. Neuhaus J, Jacobs DR Jr, Baker JV, Calmy A, Duprez D, La Rosa A, Kuller LH, Pett SL, Ristola M, Ross MJ, et al. Markers of inflammation, coagulation, and renal function are elevated in adults with HIV infection. *J Infect Dis.* 2010;201(12):1788–95.
 22. Vazquez-Castellanos JF, Serrano-Villar S, Latorre A, Artacho A, Ferrus ML, Madrid N, Vallejo A, Sainz T, Martinez-Botas J, Ferrando-Martinez S, et al. Altered metabolism of gut microbiota contributes to

- chronic immune activation in HIV-infected individuals. *Mucosal Immunol.* 2015;8(4):760–72.
23. Cho I, Blaser MJ. The human microbiome: at the interface of health and disease. *Nat Rev Genet.* 2012;13(4):260–70.
 24. Tincati C, Merlini E, Braidotti P, Ancona G, Savi F, Tosi D, Borghi E, Callegari ML, Mangiavillano B, Barassi A, et al. Impaired gut junctional complexes feature late-treated individuals with suboptimal CD4 + T-cell recovery upon virologically suppressive combination antiretroviral therapy. *AIDS.* 2016;30(7):991–1003.
 25. Lozupone CA, Rhodes ME, Neff CP, Fontenot AP, Campbell TB, Palmer BE. HIV-induced alteration in gut microbiota: driving factors, consequences, and effects of antiretroviral therapy. *Gut Microbes.* 2014;5(4):562–70.
 26. Mutlu EA, Keshavarzian A, Losurdo J, Swanson G, Siewe B, Forsyth C, French A, Demarais P, Sun Y, Koenig L, et al. A compositional look at the human gastrointestinal microbiome and immune activation parameters in HIV infected subjects. *PLoS Pathog.* 2014;10(2):e1003829.
 27. Vujkovic-Cvijin I, Dunham RM, Iwai S, Maher MC, Albright RG, Broadhurst MJ, Hernandez RD, Lederman MM, Huang Y, Somsouk M, et al. Dysbiosis of the gut microbiota is associated with HIV disease progression and tryptophan catabolism. *Sci Transl Med.* 2013;5(193):193ra191.
 28. Dillon SM, Lee EJ, Kotter CV, Austin GL, Dong Z, Hecht DK, Gianella S, Siewe B, Smith DM, Landay AL, et al. An altered intestinal mucosal microbiome in HIV-1 infection is associated with mucosal and systemic immune activation and endotoxemia. *Mucosal Immunol.* 2014;7(4):983–94.
 29. Yang L, Poles MA, Fisch GS, Ma Y, Nossa C, Phelan JA, Pei Z. HIV-induced immunosuppression is associated with colonization of the proximal gut by environmental bacteria. *AIDS.* 2016;30(1):19–29.
 30. Dubourg G, Lagier JC, Hue S, Surenaud M, Bachar D, Robert C, Michelle C, Ravaux I, Mokhtari S, Million M, et al. Gut microbiota associated with HIV infection is significantly enriched in bacteria tolerant to oxygen. *BMJ Open Gastroenterol.* 2016;3(1):e000080.
 31. Nicholson JK, Holmes E, Kinross J, Burcelin R, Gibson G, Jia W, Pettersson S. Host-gut microbiota metabolic interactions. *Science.* 2012;336(6086):1262–7.
 32. Kostic AD, Chun E, Robertson L, Glickman JN, Gallini CA, Michaud M, Clancy TE, Chung DC, Lochhead P, Hold GL, et al. *Fusobacterium nucleatum* potentiates intestinal tumorigenesis and modulates the tumor-immune microenvironment. *Cell Host Microbe.* 2013;14(2):207–15.
 33. McHardy IH, Li X, Tong M, Ruegger P, Jacobs J, Borneman J, Anton P, Braun J. HIV Infection is associated with compositional and functional shifts in the rectal mucosal microbiota. *Microbiome.* 2013;1(1):26.
 34. Yu G, Fadrosh D, Ma B, Ravel J, Goedert JJ. Anal microbiota profiles in HIV-positive and HIV-negative MSM. *AIDS.* 2014;28(5):753–60.
 35. Dinh DM, Volpe GE, Duffalo C, Bhalchandra S, Tai AK, Kane AV, Wanke CA, Ward HD. Intestinal microbiota, microbial translocation, and systemic inflammation in chronic HIV infection. *J Infect Dis.* 2015;211(1):19–27.

36. Nowak P, Troseid M, Avershina E, Barqasho B, Neogi U, Holm K, Hov JR, Noyan K, Vesterbacka J, Svard J, et al. Gut microbiota diversity predicts immune status in HIV-1 infection. *AIDS*. 2015;29(18):2409–18.
37. Monaco CL, Gootenberg DB, Zhao G, Handley SA, Ghebremichael MS, Lim ES, Lankowski A, Baldrige MT, Wilen CB, Flagg M, et al. Altered Virome and Bacterial Microbiome in Human Immunodeficiency Virus-Associated Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome. *Cell Host Microbe*. 2016;19(3):311–22.
38. Troy EB, Kasper DL. Beneficial effects of *Bacteroides fragilis* polysaccharides on the immune system. *Front Biosci (Landmark Ed)*. 2010;15:25–34.
39. Round JL, Mazmanian SK. Inducible Foxp3 + regulatory T-cell development by a commensal bacterium of the intestinal microbiota. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2010;107(27):12204–9.
40. Vatanen T, Kostic AD, d'Hennezel E, Siljander H, Franzosa EA, Yassour M, Kolde R, Vlamakis H, Arthur TD, Hamalainen AM, et al. Variation in Microbiome LPS Immunogenicity Contributes to Autoimmunity in Humans. *Cell*. 2016;165(6):1551.
41. David LA, Maurice CF, Carmody RN, Gootenberg DB, Button JE, Wolfe BE, Ling AV, Devlin AS, Varma Y, Fischbach MA, et al. Diet rapidly and reproducibly alters the human gut microbiome. *Nature*. 2014;505(7484):559–63.
42. Khanna S, Montassier E, Schmidt B, Patel R, Knights D, Pardi DS, Kashyap P. Gut microbiome predictors of treatment response and recurrence in primary *Clostridium difficile* infection. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther*. 2016;44(7):715–27.
43. Veiga P, Gallini CA, Beal C, Michaud M, Delaney ML, DuBois A, Khlebnikov A, van Hylckama Vlieg JE, Punit S, Glickman JN, et al. *Bifidobacterium animalis* subsp. *lactis* fermented milk product reduces inflammation by altering a niche for colitogenic microbes. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2010;107(42):18132–7.
44. Flint HJ, Bayer EA, Rincon MT, Lamed R, White BA. Polysaccharide utilization by gut bacteria: potential for new insights from genomic analysis. *Nat Rev Microbiol*. 2008;6(2):121–31.
45. Png CW, Linden SK, Gilshenan KS, Zoetendal EG, McSweeney CS, Sly LI, McGuckin MA, Florin TH. Mucolytic bacteria with increased prevalence in IBD mucosa augment in vitro utilization of mucin by other bacteria. *Am J Gastroenterol*. 2010;105(11):2420–8.
46. Shaw KA, Bertha M, Hofmekler T, Chopra P, Vatanen T, Srivatsa A, Prince J, Kumar A, Sauer C, Zwick ME, et al. Dysbiosis, inflammation, and response to treatment: a longitudinal study of pediatric subjects with newly diagnosed inflammatory bowel disease. *Genome Med*. 2016;8(1):75.
47. Lupp C, Robertson ML, Wickham ME, Sekirov I, Champion OL, Gaynor EC, Finlay BB. Host-mediated inflammation disrupts the intestinal microbiota and promotes the overgrowth of Enterobacteriaceae. *Cell Host Microbe*. 2007;2(2):119–29.
48. Appay V, Sauce D. Immune activation and inflammation in HIV-1 infection: causes and consequences. *J Pathol*. 2008;214(2):231–41.

49. Ivanov II, Frutos Rde L, Manel N, Yoshinaga K, Rifkin DB, Sartor RB, Finlay BB, Littman DR. Specific microbiota direct the differentiation of IL-17-producing T-helper cells in the mucosa of the small intestine. *Cell Host Microbe*. 2008;4(4):337–49.
50. McMurdie PJ, Holmes S. phyloseq: an R package for reproducible interactive analysis and graphics of microbiome census data. *PLoS One*. 2013;8(4):e61217.
51. Goecks J, Nekrutenko A, Taylor J, Galaxy T. Galaxy: a comprehensive approach for supporting accessible, reproducible, and transparent computational research in the life sciences. *Genome Biol*. 2010;11(8):R86.

Figures

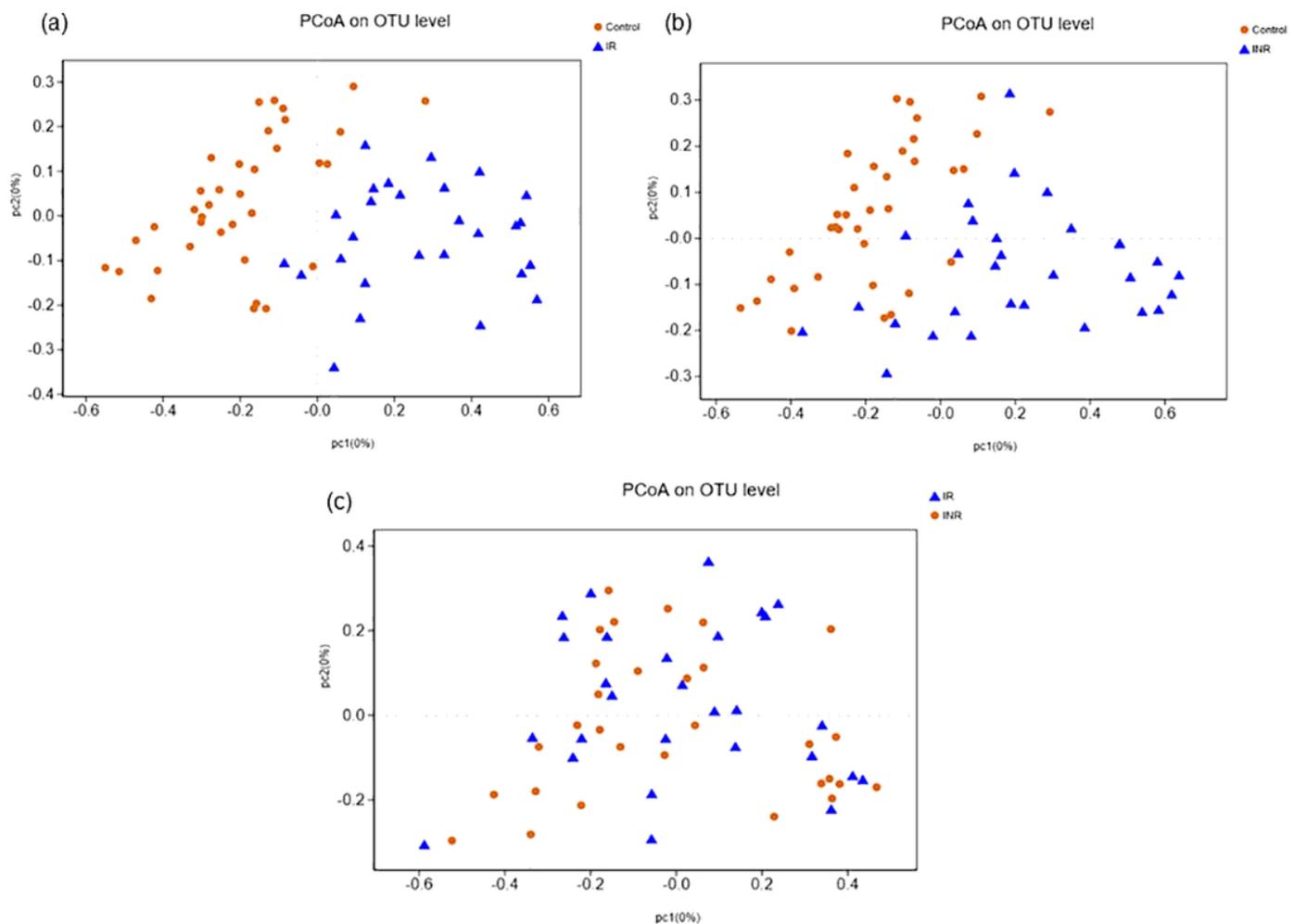


Figure 1

Principal coordinates analysis (PCoA) for microbiomes of the patients and health control groups. Remarkable bacterial communities difference between immunological responders (IR), immunological

non-responders (INR) and health control (Control) group (Fig 1a; Fig 1b); no significant difference between IR and INR group (Fig 1c).

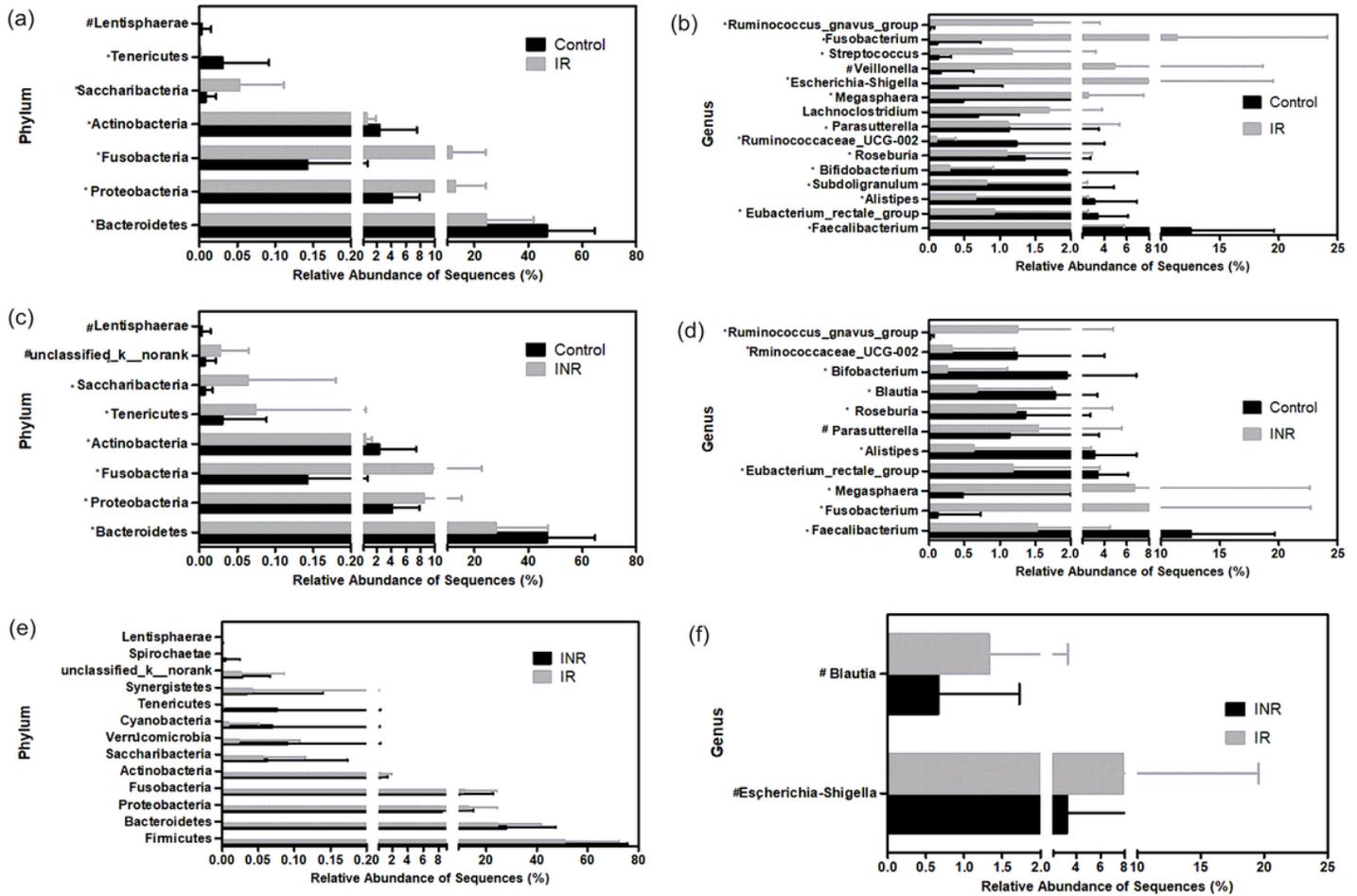


Figure 2

Taxonomic differences of fecal microbiota between the patients and health control groups. Comparison of relative abundance at the bacterial phylum (a,c,e), and genus (b,d,f) levels between immunological responders (IR), immunological non-responders (INR) and health control (Control) group. # indicates P < 0.05. * indicates P < 0.01. The average abundance values for each bacterium are depicted as mean \pm SD.

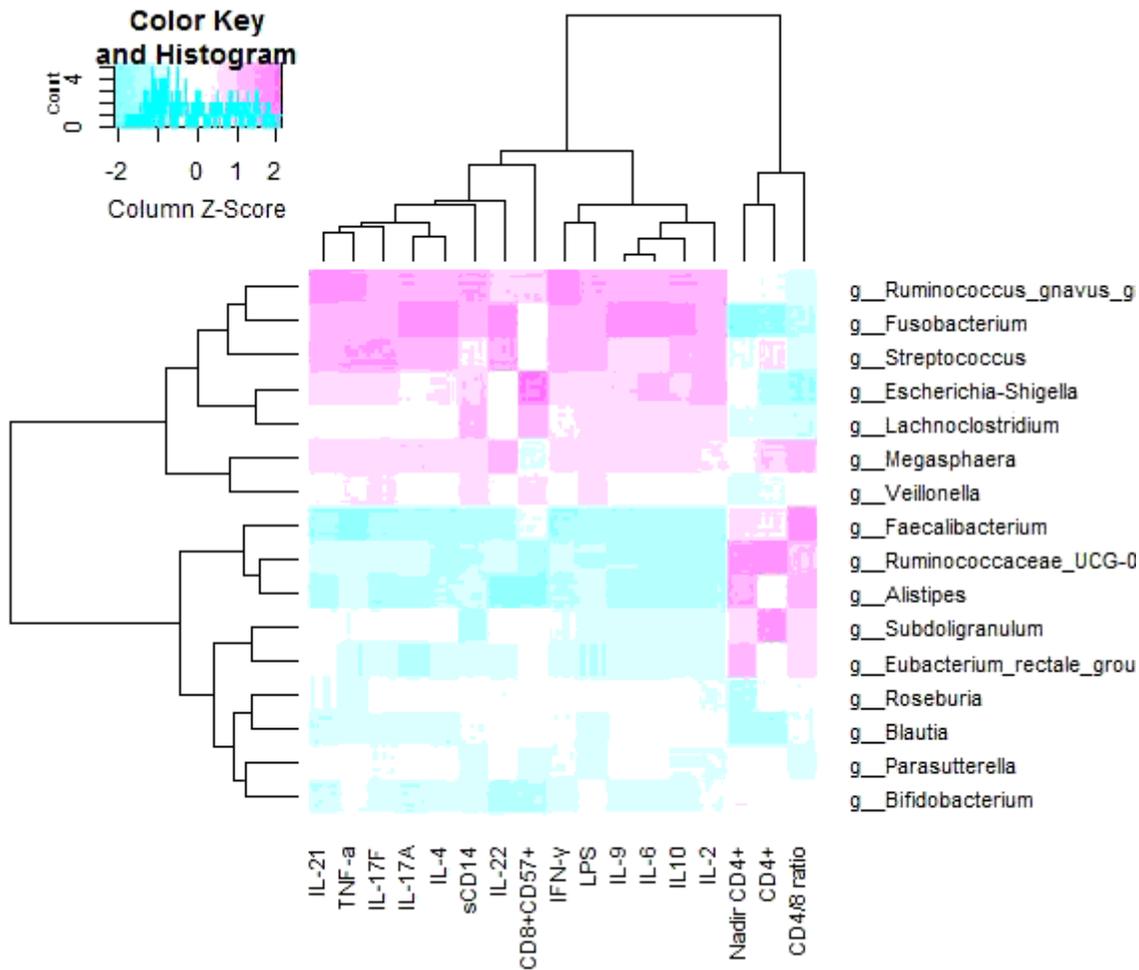


Figure 3

The composition of fecal microbiota correlates with markers of immune activation. Some cellular and soluble markers of immune activation correlated to specific genera of gut microbiota. Spearman's correlation was used. Associations with a Benjamini – Hochberg adjusted p-value lower than 0.01 were considered relevant.

Supplementary Files

This is a list of supplementary files associated with this preprint. Click to download.

- [20200709BMCMicrobiologySuppl.Fig.pdf](#)