Flow Cytometry Evaluation of the T-Cell Receptor $V\beta$ Repertoire Among HIV-1 Infected Individuals Before and After Antiretroviral Therapy

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HIV-1 infection leads to serious impairment of the immune system and perturbations in the T cell receptor V β repertoire are also described. Immune reconstitution can be potentially achieved in response to HAART. In the present study 10 patients were investigated for the V β pattern expression before and after six months of HAART. TCR were analyzed for T CD4+ and CD8+ subsets, separately, by flow cytometry, using a monoclonal antibody set of 24 different V β chains. Compared to eight Brazilian healthy controls, no differences in V β pattern of expression was observed for patients before or on antiretroviral therapy. Some chains such as V β 3, 14, 16, 20 and 21.3 were over utilized by both T subsets, independently of HIV infection and/or antiretroviral treatment, differing from the ones described for individuals of other nationalities. However, when each patient was taken individually, particular alterations were detected for the $V\beta$ gene usage, compared to controls, for all individuals. After treatment, significant V β usage changes were observed for seven patients. One or more chains on both T subsets were engaged in this process, defining a preferential oligoclonal profile for TCR repertoire distribution, after HAART. Although no pattern of specific V β changes was detected in the circulating T cells, we cannot exclude that differential immune responses to HIV or other important antigens are being focused by these cells.

KEY WORDS: HIV-1; TCR V β repertoire; HAART; clonality.

INTRODUCTION

More than two decades after the onset of the acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS), major progress has been made in the understanding of the pathogenesis of human immunodeficiency virus infection (1). It is now widely accepted that a delicate balance among multiple virologic and host factors are responsible for the possibility of preventing HIV infection, initial control of virus spreading and/or the establishment of chronic infection, and the severity of the clinical course of HIV disease (2).

Both cellular and humoral immune response have an important participation on this scenario, since the temporal relationship between the appearance of a vigorous HIV-specific immune response, with consequent down regulation of viremia and resolution of the acute viral syndrome, has been clearly established (3, 4). Preservation of immune function and low levels of virologic parameters are common findings in HIVinfected subjects with nonprogressive disease, whereas loss of immune response and high levels of virus are associated with rapid progression (5–7).

Nevertheless, which immunologic factors are really determinant for the extensive control of HIV infection is not clear, since patients may experience different rates of disease progression, despite the presence of vigorous HIV-specific immune response (8). Analysis of HIV-specific cellular responses in long-term non-progressors (LTNP) individuals demonstrated a relatively stable HIV-specific effective repertoire, which was correlated with maintenance of the non-progressor status (9). Indeed, alterations in certain T cell receptor (TCR) V β members are detected in long-term non-progressors (10). Moreover, prospective studies demonstrated that HIV infected subjects with mobilization of a restricted

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mono-oligoclonal TCR repertoire during acute infection generally experience a rapid progression to AIDS, while a slower disease progression was associated with a broader TCR repertoire (11, 12). This association has also been suggested in simian immunodeficiency virus model (13). Thus, qualitative differences in the primary T cell immune response may be related with different clinical outcomes.

The introduction of highly active antiretroviral therapy (HAART) for HIV infection in the mid 1990s has resulted in dramatic declines in HIV-1 associated morbidity and mortality (14, 15). Improvement of the immune system is observed, as depicted by the increase in total CD4+ cell count, involving both memory and naive fractions (16-19). Reconstitution of pathogen-specific immunity with marked reduction of major opportunistic infections (17, 20-22), and reversion on chronic levels of immune activation and T-cell maturation abnormalities are also observed (17, 23–26), in parallel with a decline in HIV viral load (18). Indeed, a previous study demonstrated that perturbations in the T cell receptor $V\beta$ during primary HIV infection are stabilized with HAART introduction (27), suggesting a positive influence of the therapy on the dynamics of T-cell mediated immune responses. However, this reconstitution is not complete, since studies of chronically infected individuals under HAART have shown that HIVspecific CD4+ lymphocyte proliferative responses are rarely recovered (17, 26, 28, 29). Reconstitution of these responses has been reported in some individuals in early stages of disease (30) and also in individuals with transient interruptions of HAART (31, 32). These results suggest that re-exposure to HIV-1 antigens may reconstitute these responses and that this could be dependent on the preexisting repertoire. So, this environment of restoration and virus control are giving us important insights for better understanding the natural immune response against the virus.

In the present work, we evaluated HIV infected patients on chronic clinical phase of disease, for the TCR $V\beta$ repertoire by flow cytometry. Since this analysis is an appropriate approach for determining the diversity and dynamics of the cell mediated immune response among different individuals, healthy control individuals and HIVinfected adults ongoing disease progression, previous and posterior to submission to HAART, were evaluated in order to identify differences and/or changes in TCR profiles among them and thus evaluate the T repertoire reconstitution on late stages of disease.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study Population

Ten patients naive of treatment and with indication to HAART were recruited by the Evandro Chagas Clinical Research Institute, FIOCRUZ, Rio de Janeiro-RJ, Brazil. Therapy submission criteria were in accordance with recommendations from the Brazilian Ministry of Health. All patients presented absolute CD4 T cells counts below 500 cells/mm³ (range 15–379), viral load above 10,000 copies/ml (range 10^4 to 1.8×10^6) and clinical manifestations at entry (Table I). According to the CDC illness definition, all patients, except VB019, were reported aids cases. Patients of both sexes were enrolled, with age ranging from 26 to 49 years old. Triple antiretroviral regimen was adopted and combined two nucleoside analogues with one non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors. Analyses were performed on two time points, at baseline and after 24 weeks of therapy. Eight non-HIV infected healthy individuals, with age ranging from 20 to 50 years old, were randomly selected for the control group and evaluated at one moment only. Protocols were approved by the institutional ethic committee and informed consent was signed by each patient before sample collection.

Viral Load Evaluation

Quantification of plasma viral load was determined for all patients before and after 24 weeks of HAART by nucleic acid sequence-based amplification, NASBA (Organon Teknika, Boxtel, The Netherland), with a detection limit of 80 copies/ml.

Analysis of the VB Repertoire

Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC) were collected from patients and control individuals and criopreserved until use. PBMC were thawed and directly stained with different anti-TCRBV antibodies from a V β monoclonal antibodies kit (IOTest Beta Mark, Beckman Coulter-Immunotech, Marseille, France), which labels 24 members from different V β families, covering approximately 70% of the normal human TCR V β repertoire. Using a two colors staining method, which combines TCR antibodies labeled with fluorescein, phycoerytrin and fluorescein/phycoerytrin, this kit allowed us to determine the $V\beta$ chain expression on each T cell subset, employing anti CD4 phycoerythrin-cyanine 5 (PC5) and anti CD8 phycoerythrin - Texas red (ECD) antibodies. Samples were prepared according to manufacturers instructions and 2×10^5 PBMC were analyzed for each antibody combination using a Coulter XL-MCL flow cytometer. Previous to $V\beta$ analysis, all samples were evaluated with isotype control antibodies with PC5 and ECD labels. The V β repertoire analysis protocol was developed as previously described (33). Briefly, an initial gate was set around the lymphocytes based on forward and side light scatter properties. At least 2×10^4 events were counted in this lymphogate,

Patient identification number	Age (years)	Sex	Disease stage	CD4 cell count/mm ³		CD8 cell count/mm ³		Plasma viral load (RNA copies/ml)		
				Baseline	HAART (24 weeks)	Baseline	HAART (24 weeks)	Baseline	HAART (24 weeks)	HAART drugs
VB010	26	М	C2	379	397	1094	934	52,000	<ldl< td=""><td>AZT, 3TC, EFZ</td></ldl<>	AZT, 3TC, EFZ
VB012	44	F	C3	42	89	251	542	10,000	820	AZT, 3TC, EFZ
VB013	42	F	C2	360	356	872	677	42,000	<ldl< td=""><td>AZT, 3TC, EFZ</td></ldl<>	AZT, 3TC, EFZ
VB014	28	Μ	B3	77	97	730	942	290,000	<ldl< td=""><td>AZT, 3TC, EFZ</td></ldl<>	AZT, 3TC, EFZ
VB015	42	Μ	C3	15	182	700	698	1,800,000	<ldl< td=""><td>AZT, 3TC, EFZ</td></ldl<>	AZT, 3TC, EFZ
VB017	38	Μ	B3	43	226	622	568	1,800,000	<ldl< td=""><td>AZT, 3TC, EFZ</td></ldl<>	AZT, 3TC, EFZ
VB018	33	F	B3	40	85	525	591	150,000	<ldl< td=""><td>AZT, 3TC, EFZ</td></ldl<>	AZT, 3TC, EFZ
VB019	49	F	B2	209	230	695	674	12,000	110	AZT, 3TC, EFZ
VB020	40	Μ	C2	292	425	355	638	190,000	<ldl< td=""><td>AZT, 3TC, EFZ</td></ldl<>	AZT, 3TC, EFZ
VB021	45	Μ	C3	20	534	976	1153	560,000	<ldl< td=""><td>d4T, 3TC, EFZ</td></ldl<>	d4T, 3TC, EFZ

Table I. Epidemiological, Clinical and Laboratory Status of 10 Studied Patients at Baseline and 24 Weeks After HAART

Note. AZT, zidovudine; 3TC, lamivudine; d4T, stavudine; EFV, efavirenz; LDL, lower detection limit.

in order to guarantee an accurate determination of minor V β populations. Additional gates defined both CD4 and CD8 T subsets, and consisted of a small lymphocyte light scatter gate as well as a gate on T bright lymphocytes. Percentages of each V β member were then determined. Parallel samples were labeled with three colors stain anti-CD3, anti-CD4 and anti-CD8 monoclonal antibodies to confirm the percentage of such T cell populations (CD3/CD4 and CD3/CD8) in order to guarantee that all CD4+ and CD8+ bright gated cells were indeed T lymphocytes.

In order to determine the repertoire perturbations, normal ranges were established for each V β member based on confidence intervals of 95% (CI 95%) obtained from eight healthy control individuals. Perturbations (increments/declines) of V β members were considered to be significant in patients when they were beyond these normal intervals. However, for V β families expressed at very low levels (i.e., <2%), only four-fold changes in relation to median of controls were considered significant, in order to avoid false positive alterations. When post-therapy changes were analyzed a similar criteria was used, but V β frequencies from each patient before treatment were used as references and alterations of at least two-fold were considered significant.

RESULTS

TCR V & Expression on T-Cell Subsets of Control Individuals

For a better analysis of alterations in T-cell repertoires in CD4+ and CD8+ T cells, an understanding of the normal peripheral repertoire must be obtained. So, the Tcell V β chain profiles presented by eight normal subjects were evaluated first. In human peripheral blood there is a marked usage of individual V β families with several members making up the majority of the repertoire. In our control group, these were V β 3, 14, 16, 20 and 21.3 for both T cell CD4+ and CD8+ subpopulations, as shown in Fig. 1. Moreover, $V\beta 12$ was preferentially utilized by the T CD4+ subset, while $V\beta 8$ was detected on more than 5% of the T CD8+ circulating cells. In addition, other $V\beta$ members were particularly utilized by above 5% of T cells in some individuals, but these were isolated mobilization cases, since no significant differences were detected among healthy individuals.

On the other hand, the frequencies of other TCR V β members such as V β 4, 11, 18 and 22 were below than 1%. Particularly low expressions were also detected for V β 23 on T CD4+ lymphocytes and for V β 2, 5.1 and 13.6 on the T CD8+ subpopulation. The median levels of other V β segments varied from 1 to 5%, in both T subsets. Similar patterns were observed for T repertoire distributions on both CD4 and CD8 cells, but three V β chains frequencies were significantly different between the two subsets. Both V β 5.1 and 12 were more mobilized by CD4+ rather than CD8+ cells, while CD8+ cells utilized V β 23 more frequently than did CD4 lymphocytes (p > 0.05).

All 24 TCR V β chains were represented in the T repertoires of the control group and very few were expressed in more than 15% of T cells. Only two cases of very high expression were observed among them, the V β 16 chain in control 01, expressed on 25.9% of T CD8+ subset and the V β 1, observed on 27% of CD4+ lymphocytes in control subject 07. In reviewing the clinical report of these subjects, they had no known concurrent illnesses at the time of sample collection. So, it becomes evident that T lymphocytes of healthy donors use TCR V β genes nonrandomly, and that particular mobilizations may occur.

Comparison of $V\beta$ Repertoires from Controls and HIV-Infected Patients

All 10 patients recruited for this study were immunocompromised at the moment of HAART submission, presenting depressed T CD4+ cell counts ($<500 \text{ /mm}^3$) and

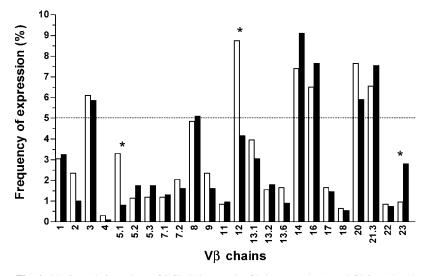


Fig. 1. Median relative values of TCR V β usage by CD4+ (open bars) and CD8+ (closed bars) peripheral T-cell subsets from eight healthy control subjects. *p < 0.05.

enhanced T CD8+ circulating cells, as shown in Table I. The RNA viral load levels were also elevated (>10⁴ copies/ml) and all patients presented clinical symptoms, being reported as aids cases, with only one exception. Under this scenario, it was expected that biased T cell repertoires would occur. However, when whole median values of V β gene usage from patients before HAART submission and normal controls were compared, no differences were obtained. Figures 2 and 3 show TCR V β repertoire distribution of 10 patients evaluated in relation to the confidence intervals of 95% (CI 95%) obtained from control individuals (boxes), for T CD4+ and CD8+ subpopulations, respectively. Similar patterns of TCR V β mobilization were detected in the patients. As observed for healthy individuals, V β 3, 14, 20 and 21.3 were also the most used chains for both T cell CD4+ and CD8+ cells among the patients. V β 12 was frequently more mobilized for CD4+ circulating cells while V β 8

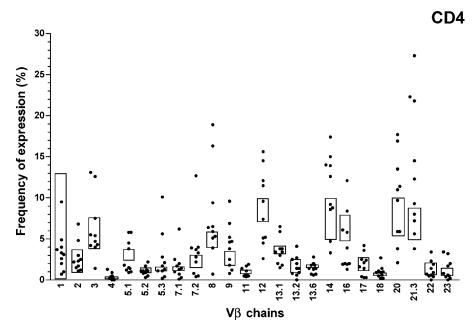


Fig. 2. TCR V β expression frequency distribution on T CD4+ cells from 10 HIV-infected patients, before starting antiretroviral therapy. Boxes represent normal confidence intervals (95%).

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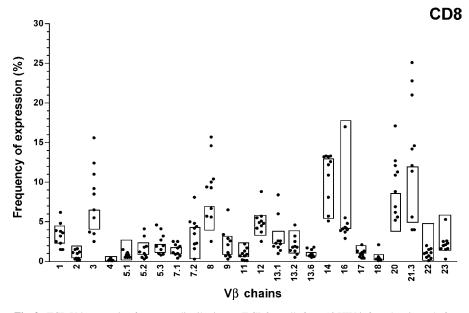


Fig. 3. TCR V β expression frequency distribution on T CD8+ cells from 10 HIV-infected patients, before starting antiretroviral therapy. Boxes represent normal confidence intervals (95%).

was utilized by both T subsets. Interestingly, $V\beta 16$ expression was decreased in the CD8+ subset from 9 out of 10 patients, with expression values ranging from 2.9 to 5.5% in these individuals, while the V β 16 median observed for controls was 7.6 (CI 95%, 4.2-17.8%). This reduction was considered significant for five patients, since the frequencies of expression were beyond defined ranges. Meanwhile, this chain remained frequently utilized by CD4+ cells. Less than 1% of circulating peripheral blood cells of HIV-1 patients expressed $V\beta$ 4, 11, 18 and 22. Similar mobilization patterns were observed between CD4 and CD8 cells for the TCR V β repertoire in patients, but significant differences on frequency of utilization (p < 0.05) remained for V β 5.1 and 12, which were much more expressed by the T CD4+ subpopulation, while V β 23 was more frequently mobilized on T 8+ cells.

On the other hand, skewed repertoires were identified when each patient was particularly evaluated separately. Significant expansions or reductions were observed for all 10 patients, when their repertoire profiles were compared to control medians, for both T subsets, and these were represented by the points outside normal CI 95% intervals in Figs. 2 and 3. Nevertheless, some of these points, corresponding to perturbations of V β segments expressed at low frequency (i.e. <2%), were not considered important, since these were not four-fold changes. On T CD4+ cells, for example, the median value observed for V β 5.3 expression in control group was 1.2% (CI 95%, 0.6–2.4%), but only expansions above 4.8% were considered significant changes. The majority of abnormalities in the HIV population represented proportional expansions on gene expression levels and were more frequently observed on T CD4+ cells.

Figure 4 exemplifies the frequencies of V β mobilization observed for both T CD4+ and CD8+ cells of four HIV-infected individuals. Analysis of T CD4+ cells of patient VB013 detected the expansion (E) of V β 2, 5.1, 9 and 22 and the reduction (R) of V β 12, 14, 16 and 21.3 in relation to normal range values (CI 95%). Because all patients were analyzed only at the ultimate time point before starting antiretroviral therapy and not at any other earlier moment, we decided to employ the "mono," "oligo" or "polyclonal-like" terminology, in order to describe the repertoire profile pre-HAART submission, since the dynamic analysis of the V β expressions throughout the chronic phase of HIV-infection was not carried out.

As shown in Fig. 4, although some V β perturbations were detected for T CD4+ cells from the patient VB013, no apparent dominant V β expression was detected over the repertoire and therefore the V β expression was characterized as "polyclonal-like." The same was observed for the T CD8+ cells from another patient (not shown). On the other hand, the VB013 patient T CD8+ subset presented almost all V β frequencies within the normal range values, but a clonal dominance of V β 14-bearing cells was observed. Although moderate (13.2%), this expression was responsible for shaping a "monoclonal-like" status for the T CD8+ repertoire, since

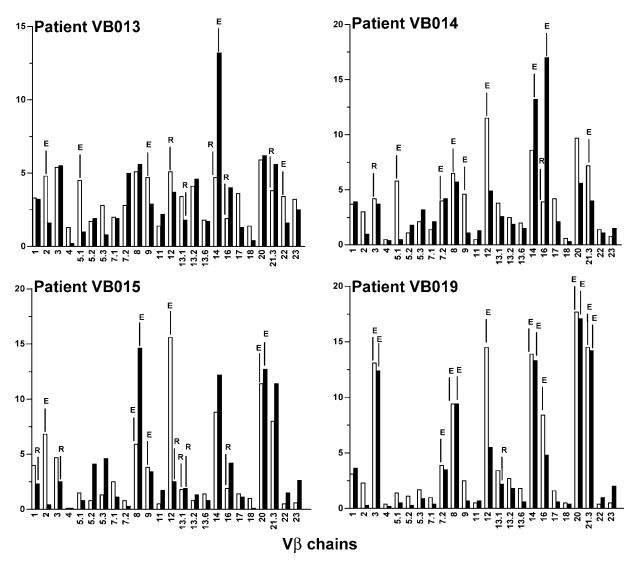


Fig. 4. TCR V β frequency distribution on T CD4+ cells (opened bars) and T CD8+ cells (closed bars) from four HIV-infected patients, before starting antiretroviral therapy. E, expansions and R, reductions of TCR V β chain usage in relation to median normal ranges.

only frequencies around 5% were detected for all the other V β members.

When the T cell repertoire was shaped by two or more V β chains expressed on approximately 10% or more than the circulating cells, an "oligoclonal-like" profile was identified. For patient VB014, eight significant alterations were observed among V β members of the T CD4+ subset, with both expansions (V β 5.1, 7.2, 8, 9, 12 and 21.3) and reductions (V β 3 and 16), and an "oligoclonal-like" distribution of TCR V β expression was identified on these cells. This profile was more clearly identified when the T CD8+ subset from this patient was evaluated. The "oligoclonal-like" T cell distributions shaped by expansions and reductions of V β chains were also observed for

patients VB015 and VB019, in both T cell subpopulations. Thus, this skewed profile was the most frequent pattern of V β mobilization observed among the studied patients, being detected for at least one T cell subset, from nine chronically HIV-1 infected individuals.

Comparison of $V\beta$ Repertoires from HIV-Infected Patients, Previous to and After HAART

The antiretroviral scheme used for the patients included in the present study was able to control the viral replicative process, since the viral load fell to undetectable levels 24 weeks after treatment for 80% of patients, while clinical manifestations disappeared and

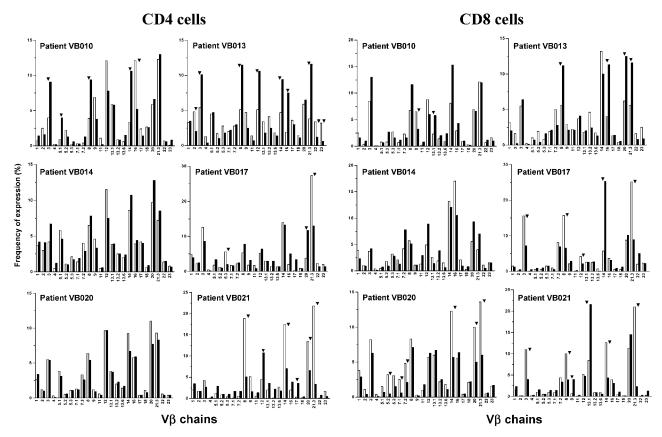


Fig. 5. Distribution of the TCR V β repertoire of six HIV-infected individuals at the HAART submission time point (open bars) and after 24 weeks of treatment (closed bars), observed on both T CD4+ (right panel) and T CD8+ (left panel) cells. Arrows indicate significant changes of V β utilizations after therapy.

T CD4+ counts were enhanced by up to 340%, from a median of 60 to 204 cells/mm³, although only one patient presented values above 500 cells/mm³ (Table I). In order to investigate the effect of the response to antiretroviral therapy on the TCR V β peripherally circulating repertoire, the patients were also evaluated after 24 weeks of treatment submission. Seven out of 10 patients presented some alterations on $V\beta$ frequencies, when they were compared to their own initial values observed before HAART. Expression of some chains declined while others expanded, affecting previously observed repertoire distribution in most of the patients. Figure 5 shows the changes in TCR mobilization observed for six patients, in T CD4+ (left panel) and CD8+ (right panel) subpopulations. Here, we were able to identify the dynamic patterns of repertoire mobilization profiles presented for each patient, since two time points were investigated.

The patient VB010 had the V β 3, 5.1, 8 and 14 expanded and the V β 16 reduced on T CD4+ cells. However, the initial "oligoclonal-like" distribution profile was preserved, defining an oligoclonal pattern of TCR mo-

bilization in this patient post-HAART, although shaped by other V β chains. The same was observed for the T CD8+ subset from patient VB021. For T CD8+ cells from VB010, the same V β chains shaped the repertoire and the oligoclonal distribution was preserved after 24 weeks of treatment. When the patient VB013 was analyzed, the previous "polyclonal-like" distribution profile gave rise to an oligoclonal mobilization in the T CD4+ subset, since significant expansions and reduction were detected. This also happened in T CD8+ cells from patient VB012. The T CD8+ cells repertoire from VB013 also experienced $V\beta$ changes and the former of oligoclonality set up. On the other hand, the previous "oligoclonal-like" profile gave rise to a polyclonal distribution for patient VB020 (T CD8+ subset) and patient VB021 (T CD4+ subset), and to a monoclonal distribution for the T CD8+ cells from patient VB017. For three patients, no expansions or reductions were observed after 24 weeks of HAART, neither on T CD4+ nor on CD8+ cells, although some chains were slightly mobilized, indicating the dynamics of the T cell repertoire. Therefore, HAART submission induced an oligoclonal distribution profile in 9 out of 10 patients, on at least one T subset, inducing other V β genes of the TCR V β repertoire.

DISCUSSION

In this study we evaluated the T cell V β repertoire status of HIV-infected individuals, naive of anti-retroviral treatment, previous to and after HAART. All patients were immunodepressed at study enrollment, presenting low T CD4+ counts, high virus levels and clinical symptoms. After 24 weeks of antiretroviral therapy, a reduction of virus replication was observed, since the plasmatic viral load dropped, an elevation on T CD4+ numbers on peripheral blood occurred and the clinical manifestations disappeared. This reversion of viral and immunological parameters was in accordance with that observed in several studies (16–19, 26) for HIV-1 patients under HAART.

The T cell repertoire analysis was conducted by flow cytometry using a kit, which allows analysis of 24 TCR V β chains on previously fractionated T CD4+ and CD8+ subpopulations, in a very simple way, using a four-colour stain system. Primarily, we investigated eight control cell preparations, in order to define the normal frequency and distribution of TCR V β chains in the peripheral blood of adult humans in the studied population. It has became evident from many studies that T lymphocytes of healthy blood donors use TCR V β genes randomly. Although all known TCR V β gene members are expressed in peripheral blood T cells, some chains tend to be much more expressed at the cell population level, as $V\beta 2$, $V\beta 6$, $V\beta 8$ and V β 17, while some others such as V β 12 and V β 24 tend to be under-represented (34, 35). In addition to nonrandom expressions, some TCR V β chains are preferentially used in T CD4+ cells (i.e. V β 5.1, 6.7, 8, 9 and 12), others in CD8+ cells, such as V β 1, V β 5.2, V β 9, V β 14 and V β 23 (36–41). In our control group, V β 3, 14, 16, 20 and 21.3 dominated the repertoire for both T subsets and together, as these chains answered for about 43 and 40% of the circulating T CD4+ and CD8+ cells, respectively. Meanwhile, the V β 4, 11, 18 and 22 were under-utilized among T repertoires from our healthy individuals. Indeed, different frequencies of expression were also observed for V β 5.1 and V β 12, with higher usage on T CD4+ cells and V β 23, with higher usage on T CD8+ subpopulation.

Our results differed from those described in the literature and did not correlate with data supplied by Beckman-Coulter in the kit, which related V β 2, 5.1 and 17 as the more expressed chains and V β 16 and 23, as those less used. Of note, V β 16 was frequently observed in our control group, but it was under-represented in the reference data. Moreover, the frequency of T cell expansion in healthy individuals appears to be similar in genetically distinct populations such as Scandinavian and Japanese (42). In concordance with this observation is the TCR $V\beta$ gene usage in peripheral blood T cells from healthy Turkish blood donors (43). These studies concluded that the TCR V β repertoires are shaped without genetic influence. However, our data are not in accordance with such observation as we identified differences in TCR V β distribution in our Brazilian study group. Akolkar et al. (44) documented the influence of HLA genes on TCR V segment frequencies and expression levels in peripheral blood T lymphocytes, but this same group also proposed non-HLA genes and environmental effects in determining the TCR repertoire in healthy individuals (45, 46). Our results suggest that genetic factors, maybe different from HLA genes or non-polymorphic HLA determinants and environment elements, like peripheral antigendriven selection are responsible for TCR V β repertoire distribution.

When the whole $V\beta$ repertoire distribution was compared between HIV-infected patients and control group individuals, no differences in the pattern of V β utilization was observe for any of the T lymphocyte subsets, as also reported by Mion et al. (47). This data confirmed the non-random pattern of TCR mobilization observed in our studied population. However, an exception was detected for V β 16 on T CD8+ cells, for which an apparent reduction of expression were detected among the patients and may be the result of an in progress clonal exhaustion process in these immunodepressed individuals with ongoing aids disease. This phenomenon was already described as occurring during the acute phase of HIV-infection (48). Individual analysis reported skewed TCR V β utilizations, with a more frequent "oligoclonallike" profile distribution. The "polyclonal-like" distribution was observed for two patients, on T CD4+ or CD8+ cells, while a "monoclonal-like" was detected on T CD8+ subset form only one patient. Skewed V β repertoires are well documented among HIV-infected individuals (47, 49) and the mono-oligoclonal mobilization during the acute phase of HIV infection has been associated with a bad prognosis to aids progression (11, 12). Therefore, the TCR V β repertoire aspects observed here are in accordance with the immunodeficiency status of the patients.

As already discussed, antiretroviral therapy is able to restore the number of peripheral blood T CD4+ and T CD8+ cells to at least near-normal levels, but it remains uncertain whether these therapies will result in restoration of the immune system once severely damaged. Our results demonstrate that significant changes on TCR V β mobilization has occurred in 7 out of 10 studied patients after 24 weeks on HAART. Although no specific pattern of V β mobilization could be detected in the circulating CD4+ or CD8+ T cells, the oligoclonal TCR V β repertoire distribution was commonly identified. Soudeyns et al. (27) showed that HAART leads to a progressive stabilization of the V β profile during primary HIV-infection, reflecting the reduction of TCR V β repertoire oligoclonality. However, the analysis of TCR V β perturbations in chronically HIV-1-infected patients with moderate immunodeficiency along 36 months on HAART showed the maintenance of the oligoclonal profile (50). In fact, Cossarizza et al. (51) observed an improvement of the CD4+ and CD8+ T lymphocytes repertoire after antiretroviral therapy among individuals with acute HIV infection. Conversely, changes on the repertoire were only detected for T CD8+ cells in chronically severe immunosuppressed individuals, suggesting that HAART could restore the T cell repertoire in HIV positive individuals whose immune system were not severely compromised. Although oligoclonal profiles were also observed on our studied group, $V\beta$ chains other than those initially mobilized were evolved, suggesting that other important antigens are being focused by these cells, after control of viral replication and immune activation has been achieved upon antiretroviral therapy. This could reflect the proliferation of preexisting cells in the T cell reconstitution processes of these individuals, depending on their immune status during chronic infection, previous to HAART. However, the clonal nature of T cell expansions or reductions was not investigated and no data about the CDR3 region was obtained, thus not permitting us to deduce the T cell source. Furthermore, Pantaleo et al. (12) analyzed the $V\beta$ repertoire longitudinally, during primary HIV infection and during and after transition to the chronic phase, describing three major patterns of V β perturbations: alteration of a single V β member (type 1), alteration of two chains (type 2) or no detectable alterations (type 3). This study observed that type 1 individuals progressed to aids one year after seroconversion, while type 2 presented significantly higher T CD4+ counts than type 1, and type 3 individuals presented T CD4+ counts above 500 cells/mm³, at the same time period. So, a close relationship was established between rates of disease progression and patters of V β perturbations. After HAART, almost all of our patients presented alterations involving multiple V β chains or no detectable alterations, for T CD4+ and CD8+ cells, what may also suggest better prognosis for T cell immune response reconstitution, although oligoclonal TCR V β repertoire distributions were dominant.

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