

Rapid, efficient functional characterization and recovery of HIV-specific human CD8⁺ T cells using microengraving

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The nature of certain clinical samples (tissue biopsies, fluids) or the subjects themselves (pediatric subjects, neonates) often constrain the number of cells available to evaluate the breadth of functional T-cell responses to infections or therapeutic interventions. The methods most commonly used to assess this functional diversity *ex vivo* and to recover specific cells to expand *in vitro* usually require more than 10⁶ cells. Here we present a process to identify antigen-specific responses efficiently *ex vivo* from 10⁴–10⁵ single cells from blood or mucosal tissues using dense arrays of subnanoliter wells. The approach combines on-chip imaging cytometry with a technique for capturing secreted proteins—called “microengraving”—to enumerate antigen-specific responses by single T cells in a manner comparable to conventional assays such as ELISpot and intracellular cytokine staining. Unlike those assays, however, the individual cells identified can be recovered readily by micromanipulation for further characterization *in vitro*. Applying this method to assess HIV-specific T-cell responses demonstrates that it is possible to establish clonal CD8⁺ T-cell lines that represent the most abundant specificities present in circulation using 100- to 1,000-fold fewer cells than traditional approaches require and without extensive genotypic analysis *a priori*. This rapid (<24 h), efficient, and inexpensive process should improve the comparative study of human T-cell immunology across ages and anatomic compartments.

T-cell cloning | single-cell analysis | nanowells | microarrays | soft lithography

CD8⁺ T cells are a critical component of the adaptive immune system and provide immunological surveillance in peripheral tissues. Clonal variants use unique T-cell receptors (TCRs) to recognize intracellular pathogens or malignantly transformed cells through cognate interactions with disease-specific peptides presented in class I major histocompatibility complexes (pMHC) on the surface of potential targets. The repertoire of human CD8⁺ T cells within an individual is estimated to consist of ~10⁶–10⁸ different specificities (1). However, only a fraction of these clonal variants recognize and respond to any particular antigen. For example, in chronic HIV infection, HIV Gag-specific CD8⁺ T cells comprise 0.2–9% of all circulating CD8⁺ T cells, but in most instances their abundance is less than 2% (2). Characterizing the breadth of epitopes recognized by antigen-specific CD8⁺ T cells, even ones that represent subdominant populations, is important for understanding immune-mediated control of intracellular infections and for designing and evaluating clinical interventions such as vaccines.

Determining both the breadth of the antigen-specific T-cell response (the range of unique epitopes targeted) and the nature of their functional responses (cytokine secretion, ability to inhibit viral replication, and other functions) is a challenging task. In some cases, the diversity of T-cell epitopes is small: For example, T-cell responses to melanoma usually are well defined (e.g., HLA*A02-restricted MART-1) (3). However, variations in genotypes among the population broaden the immunodominant epitopes induced by most natural infections or by vaccines. The breadth of the CD8⁺ T-

cell response routinely is determined by ELISpot, using first pools of peptides and then individual peptides to confirm specificities (4). Such analysis requires substantial numbers of cells (~10⁶–10⁷) and typically measures only a single functional response (secretion of IFN- γ). Significantly, cells identified in these assays cannot be retrieved, and secondary procedures are needed to establish clonal lines with which other biologically relevant functions, such as the ability to inhibit viral replication, can be determined.

The isolation of antigen-specific CD8⁺ T cells now is commonly performed *ex vivo* by flow-cytometric sorting using fluorescently labeled recombinant multimers of HLA–peptide complexes to label cells of interest (5). This process minimally requires determining the haplotype of HLAs for a subject. Additionally, the dominant epitopes usually are verified by ELISpot to focus the subsequent analysis with multimeric reagents, which are expensive to produce recombinantly (~\$1,000 or more for each one) and have limited varieties of HLA types/epitopes available. Exchanging peptides in the pMHC complexes and using combinatorial sets of labels have improved the scalability and sensitivity of this approach to characterize defined subsets of rare antigen-specific T cells (6, 7), although serial screens for each epitope of interest often are necessary and therefore increase the number of cells required. In aggregate, the total process has a remarkably poor yield (~10–100 unique clones from 10⁶–10⁷ cells per patient), is labor intensive, and is expensive.

Many clinical studies would benefit from alternative strategies for T-cell cloning that are sample efficient. Quantities of blood from infant and pediatric subjects often are limited, restricting detailed analyses of repertoires. Tissue biopsies also typically yield less than 10⁶ cells, with certain samples, such as cytobrushes or cerebrospinal fluids, containing only ~10⁴–10⁵ cells (8, 9). Microscale assays that use microtiter plates or spotted arrays of proteins/peptides have provided alternative means to enumerate antigen-specific T cells from limited numbers of cells but have not enabled routine cloning of identified cells (10–12). More efficient processes for recovering T cells for additional characterization would improve knowledge about the phenotypic and functional diversity of T-cell responses across anatomical sites and patient populations.

We previously demonstrated that dense, elastomeric arrays of “nanowells,” microfabricated wells (~10⁵ per array) with subnanoliter volumes (125 pL), are useful for generating printed microarrays of cytokines released by polyclonally activated human

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T cells (13). This method—called “microengraving”—is based on intaglio printing: A glass slide is temporarily sealed to the array of nanowells to capture analytes secreted by confined cells in both a multiplexed and quantitative manner. This information can guide the recovery of T cells for clonal expansion (14). We also have shown that these arrays of nanowells can enable the concurrent measurement of both cytokine secretion and cytolytic activity to monitor ex vivo cytotoxic T lymphocytes (CTLs) (15).

Here we describe and validate a bioanalytical process that integrates data from both microengraving and on-chip cytometry to identify and recover antigen-specific CD8⁺ T cells ex vivo from human subjects on the basis of the cytokines secreted following antigen-dependent activation. We demonstrate that the process enumerates cells activated by antigen akin to conventional methods such as ELISpot and intracellular staining (ICS) and allows the detection of HIV-specific CD8⁺ T cells across a wide range of epitope specificities using samples of limited size (~10⁴–10⁵ cells) from blood or tissue. The identified T cells can be retrieved and expanded in vitro for subsequent mapping of fine specificities and detailed functional characterization. The results indicate that this process is highly efficient, with a 100- to 1,000-fold reduction in cells required ex vivo, and should facilitate detailed clonotypic analyses of CD8⁺ T cells in many areas of human immunology where the numbers of cells are intrinsically small, including tissue biopsies and pediatric samples.

Results

Design of Integrated Single-Cell Analysis to Detect Antigen-Specific CD8⁺ T-Cells ex Vivo. To establish an efficient method for combined functional characterization ex vivo (cytokine secretion) and in vitro (epitope mapping and inhibition of viral replication), we designed a bioanalytical process to characterize and retrieve antigen-specific CD8⁺ T cells that also minimizes the total number of cells interrogated. The approach uses an array of nanowells to isolate mononuclear cells after incubation with overlapping pools of peptides (OLPs) or whole antigen (Fig. 1A). The array containing cells then is used for multiplexed microengraving to identify antigen-dependent activation of CD8⁺ T cells. Because analysis by microengraving maintains cell viability, the array of cells can be imaged to enumerate viable CD8⁺ T cells, and antigen-specific CD8⁺ T cells can be retrieved by micromanipulation.

Validation of Process for Enumerating T Cells Activated ex Vivo. We first tested the ability of our integrated process to determine multifunctional profiles for CD8⁺ T cells activated ex vivo in a polyclonal manner. Previously frozen peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) were thawed and then stimulated for 5 h with *Staphylococcal* enterotoxin B (SEB), a superantigen that stimulates T cells in a Vβ-specific manner. Using unsorted PBMCs minimizes manipulations and allows T cells to average over heterogeneities among antigen-presenting cells (APCs). It also obviates the need for haplotyping a priori to determine suitable HLA-matched APCs. An aliquot of ~200,000 cells in 300 μL then was transferred to the array of nanowells and allowed to settle via gravity for 10 min. The array of cells was rinsed with serum-free medium, placed in contact with a glass slide coated with capture antibodies specific for cytokines commonly associated with CD8⁺ cytotoxic T-cell responses (TNF, IFN-γ and IL-2), and incubated for 2 h at 37 °C. After incubation, the glass slide was separated from the array of nanowells, washed, and stained with fluorescent antibodies to detect captured cytokines. The cells then were labeled in situ with a viability dye (Calcein AM) and with a fluorescently labeled antibody against CD8. Wells containing single live CD8⁺ cells were identified by imaging cytometry (Fig. S1) and were matched to the data from those wells corresponding to the cytokines captured by microengraving (Fig. 1B). Each experiment/array therefore generated a composite dataset that typically comprised phenotypic profiles for 10,000–30,000 individual live CD8⁺ cells within a mixed population of mononuclear cells.

We next evaluated our process with clinical samples from subjects chronically infected with HIV-1. There is substantial

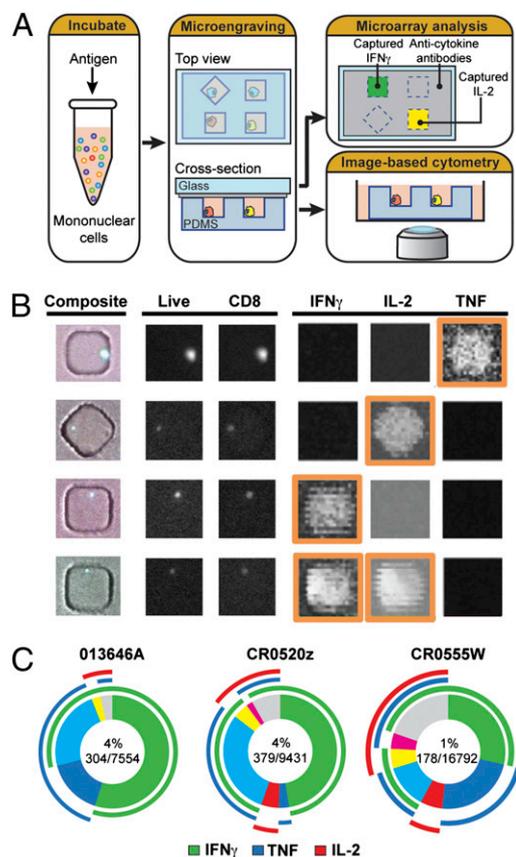


Fig. 1. Characterization of multifunctional analysis of CD8⁺ T cells by microengraving. (A) Schematic illustration of approach to measure antigen-specific responses by T cells using a combination of microengraving and imaging cytometry to capture secreted cytokines and enumerate CD8⁺ T cells. (B) Representative composite profiles of individual activated CD8⁺ T cells. (C) Pie charts indicating the relative percentages of T cells secreting one or more cytokines (IFN-γ, green; TNF, blue; IL-2, red) following stimulation with SEB. Cells are from three different HIV⁺ subjects. Percentages represent the fraction of cells secreting cytokine within the population of single T cells examined.

evidence that HIV-specific CD8⁺ T-cell responses are essential to the containment of infection in vivo (16). The induction of HIV-specific CTLs is temporally associated with a decline in plasma viremia following acute infection (17, 18), and there are strong correlations between protection from progressive HIV infection and certain HLA class I alleles such as HLA B57, B51, and B27 (19, 20). ELISpot, ICS, and bulk cytolytic assays have shown that HIV-specific CD8⁺ T cells can produce Tc1-associated cytokines such as IFN-γ, TNF, and IL-2 and eliminate target cells by direct cytotoxicity upon TCR-mediated recognition of their cognate antigen (21, 22).

We selected a group of HIV⁺ subjects with varying viral loads (<50–106,000 RNA copies/mL) (Table S1). These subjects included individuals with spontaneously controlled HIV infection in the absence of antiretroviral therapy (“HIV controllers”), those with progressive infection who were not receiving antiretroviral therapy (“chronic progressors”), and individuals receiving anti-HIV drug therapy (“chronic treated”). We first confirmed that these individuals exhibited a range of frequencies of IFN-γ-producing CD8⁺ T cells specific for the viral protein Gag by ELISpot assays performed against HLA-matched optimal epitopes. The protein Gag was chosen specifically because the breadth, magnitude, and functional capacity of CD8⁺ T-cell responses toward Gag have been demonstrated to be a reasonable predictor of effective anti-HIV immunity (23, 24).

For three of these subjects, we stimulated PBMCs with SEB for 5 h and profiled the breadth of cytokines secreted by microengraving. A subset of individual CD8⁺ T cells from all three subjects (1–4%) showed a range of responses, including CD8⁺ T cells secreting multiple cytokines simultaneously (Fig. 1C). The relative distribution of functional responses measured was similar to those determined by ICS, with the most dominant populations producing IFN- γ alone, in combination with either TNF or IL-2 or in combination with IL-2 and TNF together (Fig. S2). Unlike IFN- γ or IL-2, TNF is synthesized initially as a membrane-bound protein that subsequently is cleaved into a soluble form (25). Therefore the higher frequency of cells producing TNF identified by ICS relative to microengraving [regardless of other cytokines those cells may express concurrently, (e.g., more IFN- γ +TNF⁺ production by ICS vs. microengraving)], likely results from the simultaneous detection of both membrane-bound and secreted forms (26). Overall, these results indicate that our process using microengraving to evaluate multifunctional cytokine responses by activated CD8⁺ T cells is similar to ICS.

Comparison of Methods for Enumerating Antigen-Dependent CD8⁺ T Cells ex Vivo. We next confirmed that our method could detect the activation of CD8⁺ T cells in an antigen-dependent manner. PBMCs from three HIV-positive individuals were thawed and rested overnight, and their responses were tested against a pool of 66 OLPs (8–10 amino acids each) encompassing the entire Gag protein, an irrelevant melanoma-derived peptide (ELAGIGILTV, EV9) as a negative control, or SEB as a positive control. After incubation with either peptide or SEB for 5 h, the cells were distributed onto an array of nanowells that then was used for microengraving to detect secreted IFN- γ from single, viable CD8⁺ cells. The data confirmed the ability of our approach to detect antigen-dependent responses consistently for both technical and biological replicates (Fig. 2A and B); the frequency of antigen-specific responses ranged from 0.06–0.3%. Using the frequencies of IFN- γ responses measured with the irrelevant peptide, we estimate that the lowest limit of detection possible for the assay is 0.004%, or 1 in 25,000 wells, roughly the same order of magnitude as the number of wells scored. This projected theoretical limit is consistent with a previous estimate we determined for single peptides and antigen-specific activation of CD4 T-cell clones (27) and with that reported for another cell-based microarray for enumerating T cells (12).

We next quantitatively determined the relationships between our microengraving-based process and the two most common techniques used to assess the magnitude of HIV-specific CD8⁺ T-cell responses—ELISpot and ICS/flow cytometry. Because cells producing IFN- γ were the most abundant population in our polyclonal comparison with ICS, and ELISpot has been well qualified for IFN- γ , we measured the antigen-induced production of IFN- γ from PBMCs isolated from 14 HIV⁺ individuals. We initially characterized the frequencies of CD4 vs. CD8 T cells in the PBMCs of these patients using flow cytometry (Fig. S3 and Table S1). The frequency of IFN- γ -secreting cells identified by microengraving ranged from 0.04–0.26% when scoring single CD8⁺ T cells stimulated with a pool of Gag OLPs for 5 h. These results showed a significant correlation with comparable measures obtained by ICS ($P \leq 0.0001$, $r = 0.87$) (Fig. 2C) and ELISpot ($P = 0.01$, $r = 0.69$) (Fig. S4). Results obtained by ICS and ELISpot also correlated with each other ($P = 0.01$, $r = 0.90$).

Because the microengraving process can accommodate 10⁵ or fewer cells, we then verified that our method could quantify the frequency of HIV Gag-specific CD8⁺ T-cell responses from both the peripheral blood and intestinal mucosal compartments of two chronically infected subjects (Fig. 2D). These data showed distinct frequencies of HIV-specific responses in each region. Together, these data demonstrate that our microengraving-based process allows the direct ex vivo enumeration of antigen-specific CD8⁺ T cells from both peripheral and mucosal compartments.

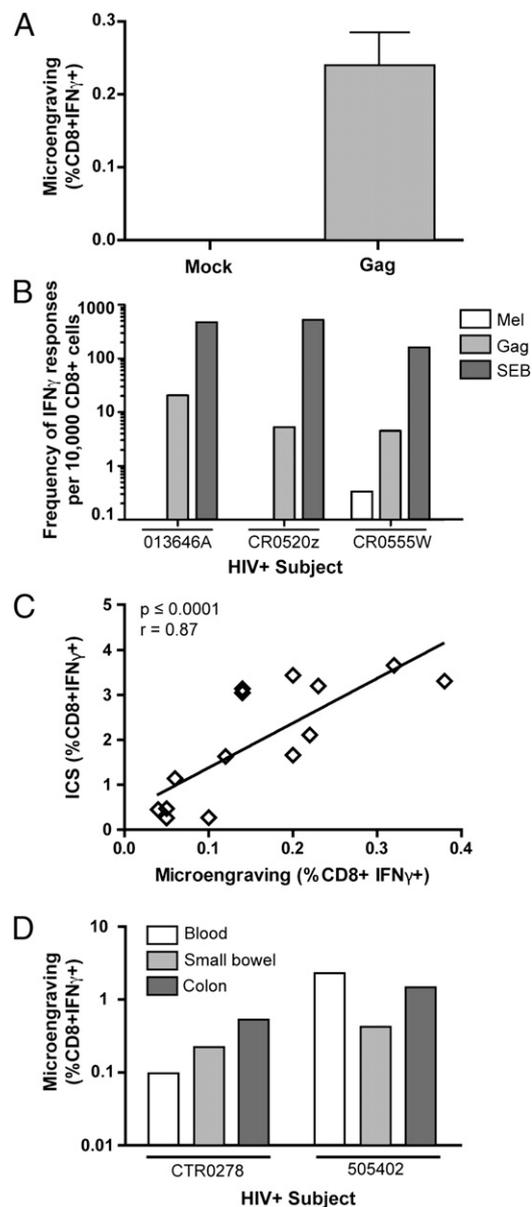


Fig. 2. Validation of microengraving for identifying HIV-specific responses. (A) Bar graph of the frequencies of IFN- γ responses scored for CD8⁺ cells isolated from three different aliquots of PBMCs from the same HIV⁺ patient stimulated with either a pool of peptides (Gag) or with control medium (Mock). An average of ~6,000 live CD8⁺ cells were profiled in replicates of each assay. (B) Bar graph of the frequencies of IFN- γ responses scored for CD8⁺ cells isolated from three different HIV⁺ subjects. The measurements included stimulation with an irrelevant peptide (melanoma ELAGIGILTV, Mel), a pool of 66 OLPs from Gag, and SEB. An average of ~16,000 live CD8⁺ cells were profiled in each assay. (C) Scatterplots of responses measured from HIV⁺ subjects by ICS and microengraving. Each diamond indicates one subject. The correlations were assessed by Spearman's rank correlation. (D) Assessment of frequencies of HIV Gag-specific CD8⁺ T-cell responses in blood and mucosal compartments from two chronically infected subjects (CTR0278 and 505402) as assessed by microengraving.

Rapid and Efficient Cloning of HIV-Specific CD8⁺ T Cells. Labeling antigen-specific T cells with recombinant peptide–MHC complexes is useful for recovering T cells with known specificities and relatively high avidities, but it requires a priori knowledge about the haplotype and frequencies of responses of the individual. Antigenic stimulation of cells and analysis by ICS allows the identification of antigen-specific CD8⁺ T cells ex vivo, but the method renders the cells nonviable. This outcome precludes

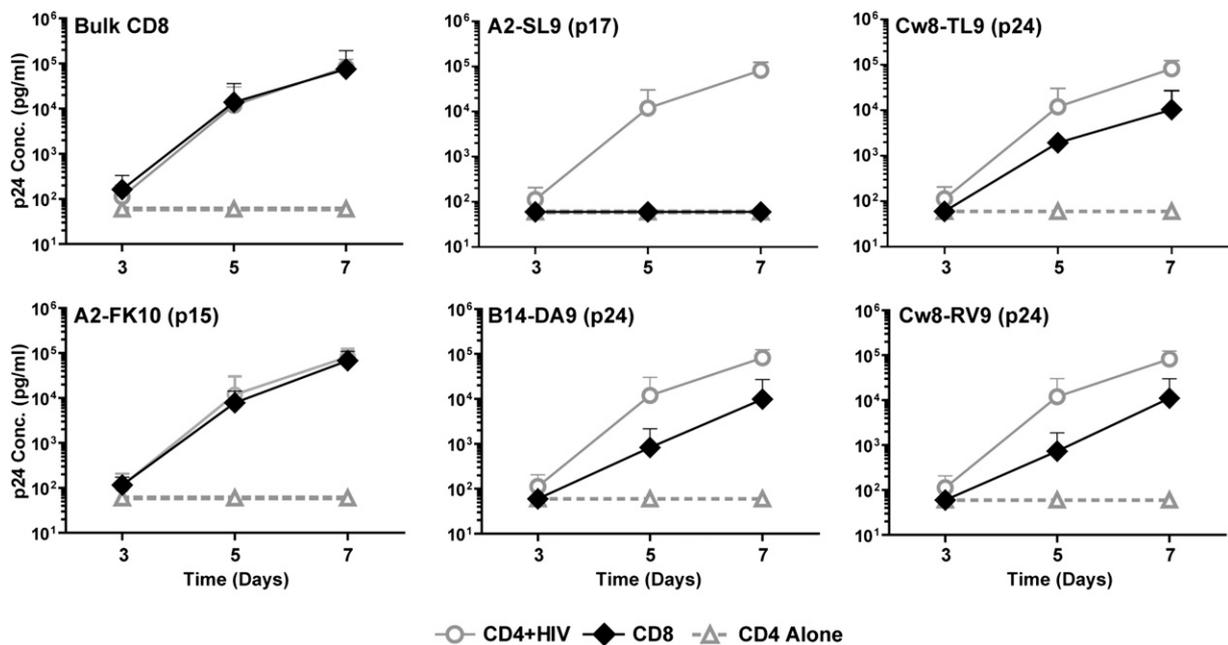


Fig. 4. In vitro viral-inhibition assays. Representative results from each of the five different epitopes identified via microengraving and the bulk CD8⁺ T cells from sample CTR0278, showing inhibition of viral replication over 7 d of culture. Open circles represent autologous activated CD4⁺ T cells infected with HIV-1 strain JRCSF; closed diamonds represent CD4/CD8 cocultures; open triangles represent CD4⁺ T cells without superinfection with HIV-1 strain JRCSF. Each experiment was run in triplicate. Error bars represent SD.

by ELISpot and ICS in both humans and macaques have demonstrated that the magnitude of responses determined via ELISpot is consistently lower than that of responses determined via ICS—findings that agree with those observed here for both ELISpot and microengraving (29–31). The limited window of measurement afforded in microengraving relative to integrated ICS also may affect the lower number of events enumerated (32).

The ability to recover and expand by microengraving individual identified HIV-specific cells that may have functional significance in vivo despite poor detection in bulk assays should help refine our understanding of effective T-cell-mediated immune responses in one or more anatomical compartments (33). HIV-specific CD8⁺ T cells are important for the control of viremia, but the critical functions performed by these cells that contribute to control remain unknown (34, 35). More complex functions, such as proliferation or simultaneous expression of multiple cytokines, may better identify effective CD8⁺ cytotoxic T lymphocytes (36, 37). The ability of CTLs to recognize and kill virus-infected cells may be critical for mediating control in vivo, and it may be crucial to evaluate these functions comprehensively in vitro (38). We show that functional characterization of individual clones by in vitro viral-inhibition assays can identify functionality linked to single epitopes not detected by similar bulk assays. It also should allow a straightforward approach to investigate the role of TCR use in functional CTL activity based on the TCR sequences of identified clones.

One significant advantage afforded by the enhanced efficiency of the microengraving-based approach for recovering antigen-specific T cells should be its application in monitoring responses when clinical samples simply have sparse numbers of cells, such as mucosal tissues, pediatric blood samples, or genital secretions. The microengraving-based approach also allows a less biased assessment of immune targeting than other currently available approaches. It does not require a priori knowledge of haplotypes and accommodates diverse sources of antigen, including whole proteins or even pathogens. In this way, broad coverage of the T-cell response can be assessed in an initial screen. The method shifts the burden of establishing epitope specificity to the expanded clones, but for small samples, detailed analysis to determine specificity may be determined more effectively when more cells are

available after expansion. In our screen of the T-cell response from an HIV controller, we recovered representative clones for each of the most abundant specificities determined by ELISpot from only a small pool of those generated. Increasing the number of clones sampled and subsequent analyses of those clones should enable broad coverage of the T-cell response. The ability to establish clonal lines also should allow additional characterization, such as the determination of clonotypes and proliferative capacity (39).

In conclusion, this bioanalytical process establishes a rapid and efficient approach for cloning primary antigen-specific T cells and will provide opportunities to characterize HIV-specific responses, among others. In particular, we expect that it will be useful when the number of cells available is insufficient for extensive analysis by standard techniques or when it is critical to assess antigenic coverage broadly with minimal bias. The application of this technique should inform studies of HIV pathogenesis as well as aid the assessment of potential HIV vaccine candidates and has broad relevance to other areas of immunology.

Materials and Methods

Patient Samples. HIV-infected individuals were enrolled at Massachusetts General Hospital in accordance with institutional review board-approved protocols. PBMCs were isolated from blood by Ficoll (Sigma) density purification in accordance with the manufacturer's instructions. Fresh or frozen PBMCs were used subsequently for the described experiments. Mucosal biopsies from the small bowel and colon were obtained by endoscopy, and a matching blood sample was obtained the same day. Biopsy samples were disaggregated with collagenase, as described previously (40).

Fabrication of Nanowell Arrays. Arrays of 1-mm-thick polydimethylsiloxane nanowells (50 μ m) were manufactured by replica molding using a custom-built mold, adhered directly to a 3 in \times 1 in glass slide, and sterilized in an oxygen plasma before use (41).

Activation and Deposition of Cells. Experiments were performed with frozen PBMCs that were thawed and rested overnight (12–16 h) or with fresh mononuclear cells from blood and intestinal biopsies. An aliquot of 1×10^6 cells in 500 μ L of R10 (RPMI + 10% FBS) was stimulated with SEB or with a pool of 66 OLPs (8–10 amino acids each; 2 μ g/mL) encompassing the entire Gag protein (or ELAGIGILTIV as a control) along with the costimulatory antibodies

anti-CD28 and anti-CD49d for 5 h. Stimulated cells were counted and adjusted to a density of 1×10^6 cells/mL. A 300- μ L aliquot of the cells was deposited onto a sterilized array of nanowells. The cells settled via sedimentation for 10 min and were then examined by microscopy to estimate the frequency of loading (approximately one cell per well). Excess cells were removed by rinsing the array gently with medium and subsequent aspiration.

Microengraving and On-Chip Cytometry. The cell-loaded array was washed with serum-free medium containing 5 ng/mL of IgG (to facilitate registration of the nanowell array to the printed microarray). A polylysine-functionalized glass was preincubated for 1 h with capture antibodies against IFN- γ , TNF- α , IL-2, and Ig (25 μ g/mL each). The slide was blocked with 3% milk/PBS-Tween (0.05%, PBST), washed twice with PBST, and dried. The nanowell array was held in contact with the glass slide under compression in a hybridization chamber (Agilent) and incubated (37 °C, 5% CO₂) for 2 h. After incubation, the glass slide was separated from the nanowell array, washed, and labeled with the appropriate fluorescent antibodies, as described previously (41). The printed microarrays were imaged using a Genepix 4200AL (MDS Corp.). The array of cells subsequently was labeled *in situ* with Calcein violet live cell marker (1 μ M; Invitrogen) and a fluorescent antibody against CD8 (5 μ g/mL each) and then was incubated in the dark for 30 min. The array was imaged by epifluorescence on an automated microscope (Zeiss). The data from microengraving and the on-chip cytometry were matched on a per-well basis for individual viable CD8 cells.

Retrieval and Expansion of T Cells. CD8⁺IFN- γ ⁺ T cells were retrieved using an automated micromanipulator (CellCelector; AVISO GmbH) (28). Retrieved cells were incubated in a well of a 96-well plate with 200 μ L of R10 supplemented with 100 U/mL of IL-2 (R10/100) containing irradiated (2,500 cGy) HLA-mismatched PBMCs (10⁶/mL) from an HIV⁻ donor (42). Cells were stimulated with anti-CD3 antibody (clone 12F6), and irradiated feeder cells were added every 2 wk over the course of approximately 2 mo. During this time, cells were expanded to larger volumes until there were sufficient cells available for functional assays (at least 10⁶ cells).

Additional Methods. Additional descriptions of methods, including fabrication of nanowells, functionalization of glass, intracellular staining, ELISpot, and viral-inhibition assays, are available in *SI Materials and Methods*.

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