1	Title: Number of HIV-1 founder variants is determined by the recency of the source partner
2	infection
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18	One sentence summary: Multiple founder variant transmission of HIV-1 increased during early
19	infection.

21 Abstract

22 During sexual transmission, the large genetic diversity of HIV-1 within an individual is 23 frequently reduced to one founder variant that initiates infection. Understanding the drivers of 24 this bottleneck is crucial to develop effective infection control strategies. Little is known about 25 the importance of the source partner during this bottleneck. To test the hypothesis that the source partner affects the number of HIV founder variants, we developed a phylodynamic model 26 27 calibrated using genetic and epidemiological data on all existing transmission pairs for whom the 28 direction of transmission and the infection stage of the source partner are known. Our results 29 suggest that acquiring infection from someone in the acute (early) stage of infection increases the 30 risk of multiple founder variant transmission when compared with someone in the chronic (later) 31 stage of infection. This study provides the first direct test of source partner characteristics to 32 explain the low frequency of multiple founder strain infections.

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35 Main Text

Sexual transmission of HIV-1 results in a viral diversity bottleneck due to physiological barriers as well as viral or cellular constraints that prevent most genetic variants within the source partner from establishing onward infection (1-3). Indeed, this diversity bottleneck results in around three quarters of new infections being founded by a single genetic variant (4-9). The extent of genetic diversity transmitted to a new partner is a crucial determinant in understanding the efficacy of putative vaccines and may shed light on the transmission of drug resistance to treatment naive individuals.

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44 The factors leading to the diversity bottleneck during sexual transmission can be broadly 45 categorized as those determined by the source partner—such as viral load and viral diversity available for transmission (10), those determined by the recipient partner—such as target cell type 46 and availability in the genital or rectal mucosa (e.g. (3, 11, 12)), and those connected with viral 47 48 characteristics—such as glycosylation profiles and cell tropism (reviewed in (13)). While the 49 impact of the recipient partner and the characteristics of transmitted founder variants have been 50 widely discussed, little is known about how the source partner affects the viral diversity bottleneck. 51 Modelling work suggests that infection stage of the source partner at the point of onward transmission may be a key driver in determining the number of transmitted variants (14). However, 52 53 there is currently no empirical evidence to suggest how the infection stage of the source partner 54 influences the viral diversity bottleneck. This gap has arisen because analyses are routinely 55 conducted on individuals without information on the partner from whom they acquired infection. 56 Phylogenetic analyses now offer a possible solution to this impasse.

Phylogenetic trees are representations of the ancestral relationships of organisms with the tips of 58 59 the tree representing those that are sampled, the internal nodes representing their inferred 60 common ancestors, and the branches as the evolutionary pathways between these actual and 61 inferred individuals. When phylogenetic trees are constructed using sequence data from both 62 partners in an HIV transmission pair, the relationship between the evolutionary histories of both 63 sets of viral samples may reflect epidemiological relationships between the two individuals (15-64 17). Previous modelling studies suggest that the evolutionary histories of the viral populations in 65 both partners can provide important information, such as the direction of transmission (15) and 66 the number of transmitted founder variants (18). For this, each putative transmission pair can be 67 classified into one of three 'topologies' that defines the evolutionary relationship between the 68 viral populations of the two partners: monophyletic-monophyletic (MM, where the sequences 69 from each partner form separate groups), paraphyletic-monophyletic (*PM*, where the sequences 70 from one partner are embedded in the sequences from the second partner), or a combination of 71 paraphyletic and polyphyletic (PP, where sequences from both partners are interspersed) (Fig. 72 1A). The number of monophyletic clusters in a PM (one) or PP (more than one) tree can be interpreted as the minimum number of transmitted founder variants. In practice, however, many 73 74 factors may influence epidemiological interpretations from phylogenetic trees such as sampling times, sampling density of the viral populations and phylogenetic signal (19, 20). 75

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Here we present a data-driven phylodynamic approach to overcome these empirical and
methodological issues to evaluate the impact of the source partner's infection stage and route of
exposure on the HIV diversity bottleneck (Fig. 1B, C). We first retrieved all available genetic
and epidemiological information from published HIV sexual transmission pairs where the

direction of transmission is known, and kept for further analysis those pairs for whom
transmission could be classified as having occurred in the source partner's acute stage (≤90 days
after his/her infection) or chronic stage (later than 90 days after his/her infection). After further
stratifying pairs into heterosexual (HET) and men-who-have-sex-with-men (MSM) risk groups,
we found a significant difference in the timing of transmission between the two risk groups.
Specifically, 10 of 36 MSM pairs were the result of acute stage transmission compared with 1 of
76 of HET pairs (Fig. 2).



Fig. 1: Methods schematics. A) Phylogenetic tree topology class of known transmission pairs that have
previously been used as a proxy for calculating the minimum number of founder variants transmitted to

91 the recipient: trees of class MM and PM both suggest a minimum of one founder variant while trees of 92 class PP suggest a multiple founder variants, with the minimum number of founder variants being the 93 number of recipient clades embedded in PP trees (here shown as two). B) Pipeline of phylodynamic 94 analysis (LANLdb, Los Alamos National Laboratory HIV sequence database) where teal represents data 95 or analysis output and white represents methods and analysis. An example of a standardised transmission 96 timeline for a known source-recipient pair is provided in panel C. C) Schematic of the transmission pair 97 model simulation that shows the transmission and sampling timelines. The simulated number of virus 98 particles transmitted to the index case, and the source and recipient partners $(n_1, n_5, n_R$ respectively) are 99 shown on the transmission events timeline.

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101 We then performed Bayesian phylogenetic tree reconstruction on the genetic sequences of the 102 transmission pairs and classified the topology class of each tree in the posterior distribution as 103 monophyletic-monophyletic (MM), paraphyletic-monophyletic (PM) or paraphyletic-104 polyphyletic (PP). The most likely topology class was PM (65% and 61% for HET and MSM, 105 respectively), but with a higher number of PP trees in the MSM group (P=0.056, Fig. 2). This 106 result has previously been reported as indicative of a higher number of founder variants for 107 MSM (18). However, when we stratify the topology class by whether the source partner was in 108 acute or chronic infection at the time of transmission, our results indicate that the infection stage 109 of the source is the primary driver for any observed differences in topology class. Specifically, 110 there is no difference between the HET and MSM groups in the PM/PP topology class ratio 111 when transmission occurs in the chronic stage of infection (P=0.570). Note that only one HET 112 transmission occurs during the acute stage, and the topology class for this pair is PP. These 113 results remain qualitatively consistent when only data were analysed from the 66% of

transmission pairs for whom the posterior trees gave a certainty of over 95% for the most

115 frequent topology class (Fig. S3). These results indicate that infection stage of the source partner,

and not risk group *per se*, influences the diversity bottleneck at transmission.

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Fig. 2: Phylogenetic findings from the empirical transmission pairs. Fraction of phylogenetic tree
topology class (MM: Monophyletic-Monophyletic, PM: Paraphyletic-Monophyletic and PP: ParaphyleticPolyphyletic) where each tree topology class is classified as the most frequent topology class of each
posterior distribution per transmission pair. Results are stratified by risk group: 76 heterosexual (HET)
pairs and 36 men-who-have-sex-with-men (MSM) pairs) and infection stage of the source partner at
transmission (11 acute pairs defined as <90d post infection and 101 chronic pairs defined as ≥90d post
infection).

To test whether these empirical findings are indicative of a smaller diversity bottleneck in the chronic stage of HIV infection, we developed a phylodynamic framework in which we simulated the epidemiologic characteristics of each HET and MSM transmission pair, the timing of their sequence sampling, the transmission of virus particles, and the within-host genetic evolution in

130 both the source and recipient (Fig. 1B). Specifically, using the epidemiological information from 131 the transmission pairs, we simulated phylogenies under a coalescent model before generating 132 genetic sequences from these simulations and performing Maximum Likelihood (ML) 133 phylogenetic reconstruction on these simulated sequences. We classified each of these simulated 134 trees as MM, PM or PP and determined the frequency of each topology class (*i.e.* the fraction of 135 simulated trees that are classified as MM, PM and PP) for each simulated transmission pair 136 across all the simulated sequences. However, as we could not directly observe the number of 137 virus particles that are transmitted between source and recipient, we repeated the simulation of 138 phylogenetic trees for each transmission pair under a range of plausible values of virus particles 139 transmitted. By fitting the simulation output topology class distribution to the topology class 140 distribution from the empirical phylogenetic trees using maximum likelihood inference, we then 141 determined the most likely number of transmitted virus particles for each transmission pair and 142 used this best fit model for further analysis. Note that two or more virus particles may have the 143 same genetic sequence and would constitute a single founder variant (or haplotype), discussed 144 later. Further, due to the analysis conditioning on extant lineages, we use the term 'founder 145 variants' to describe those transmitted variants that found detectable viral lineages, thereby 146 ignoring variants that are transmitted but the lineages of which become extinct.

Our fitting procedure selects a best fit model that clearly delineates between transmission pairs between whom one virus particle is transmitted (75% of pairs) and those between whom more than one virus particle is transmitted (25% of pairs, **Fig. 3A**). While there is a high degree of confidence in the result when one particle is transmitted, there is often uncertainty around the exact number when multiple particles are transmitted (**Fig. 3A**). Importantly, we found acute stage transmissions are more likely to lead to multiple particle infections compared with chronic

stage transmissions (73% vs. 20%, P = 0.0005). The topology class of the simulated
phylogenetic trees is strongly influenced by the number of virus particles being transmitted (Fig.
3B). PM trees are more commonly found in the pairs that are better described by a model with a
single transmitted virus particle (81%) whereas PP trees appeared more often when multiple
particles are likely to have been transmitted (86%).





160 Fig. 3: The estimated number of transmitted virus particles for the 112 transmission pairs. The 161 estimates of transmitted virus particles for each transmission pair were calculated by choosing the model 162 simulation that generated a phylogenetic tree topology class distribution (that is, the number of MM, PM 163 and PP trees constructed from the simulated genetic sequences) that best matched the topology class 164 distribution from the phylogenetic trees constructed from the empirical genetic sequences. A) Maximum likelihood number of virus particles founding recipient infections, n_R^* , for each pair (stacked points) with 165 166 95% confidence intervals (lines) grouped by stage of infection (acute, 11 pairs or chronic, 101 pairs) and 167 risk group (76 heterosexual pairs, HET and 36 men-who-have-sex-with-men pairs, MSM). B) Maximum

168 likelihood number of virus particles founding recipient infections coloured by topology class of the169 phylogenetic tree constructed from the simulated genetic sequences.

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171 For each transmission pair, we then simulated the genetic sequences of the transmitted viral 172 population under the best fit virus particle model and calculated the most likely number of 173 founder variants for each transmission pair (*i.e.* the number of distinct haplotypes). The median 174 number of founder variants transmitted across all pairs is 1 (range: 1-11, Fig. 4A). Using the full 175 distribution of the number of transmitted founder variants for each pair, we also calculated the 176 probability that a single founder variant was transmitted to the respective recipient. Our results 177 suggest that across all pairs in both risk groups, the mean probability of observing one founder 178 variant is 0.73. Stratifying by risk group, we find there is a higher probability that one founder 179 variant founds HET infections than MSM infections (a geometric mean of 0.80 vs. 0.63, Fig. 180 **4B**). However, these risk group differences mostly disappear when we stratify the results by the 181 infection stage of the source. Here, for example, when only chronic stage transmissions are 182 considered, there is no difference in the probability of one founder variant between MSM 183 transmissions and HET transmissions (means of 0.80 vs 0.71, P=0.398), and the pairwise diversity at transmission is similar between both groups (Fig. 4C). In contrast, when stratifying 184 185 solely by infection stage of the source partner, we find that transmission during the acute stage 186 has a much lower probability of one founder variant than during the chronic stage (means of 0.40 187 vs. 0.77) with a higher median number of founder variants transmitted, when only the most likely 188 number of founder variants for each pair is considered (2 vs. 1, Fig. 4A). Nonetheless, if multiple 189 founder variant transmission does occur, our results suggest that the number of founder variants

is higher during chronic stage transmission, consistent with a higher diversity measure duringthis later stage of infection (Fig. 4C).

From these results, therefore, there is approximately double the chance of multiple founder variant transmission during acute stage infection across both risk groups (relative risk = 0.52). Assuming that transmission risk is weighted towards early transmission such that half of all index case to source partner transmissions occur after 90 days of index case infection leads to qualitatively similar results (Supplementary Materials). Similarly, calibrating the simulation model to bootstrapped samples rather than Bayesian posterior distributions leads to similar results (Supplementary Materials).

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200 Our results suggest that there is an association between tree topology class and multiple founder 201 variant transmission, with 95% of MM and PM trees being due to one founder variant (Fig. 4D). 202 However, the number of embedded recipient clades is not always a proxy for the minimum 203 number of founder variants transmitted. For example, in chronic stage transmission, 11% of PP 204 topology class trees were due to single founder variant transmission (Fig. 4D). It is important to 205 stress that a PP topology class outcome may occur not only due to multiple genetically distinct 206 virus populations founding recipient infections but may also reflect a lack of phylogenetic signal 207 in the data; for instance, the sampled sequence lengths that gave rise to PP trees was on average 208 shorter than those for MM (P=0.096) and PM (P=0.004). Across both infection stages, we find 209 that if MM, PM or PP is assigned as the most likely tree topology class, then 92%, 96% and 15% 210 of transmissions are due to a single founder variant, respectively.

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212 We have used a combination of empirical data and phylodynamic model simulation to evaluate 213 the role of infection stage at transmission and route of transmission on the number of virus 214 particles transmitted during sexual HIV exposure. This makes three important advances on 215 previous work. First, it is the first empirically-based study that fits a model to data to understand 216 the role of the source partner in multiple founder variant transmission. Second, while we use 217 previously developed topology classification of phylogenetic trees to understand HIV 218 transmission pairs, we extend this methodology by calibrating a phylodynamic model to 219 empirical data. This new approach provides a means to validate the untested assumption that the 220 number of embedded recipient partner lineages in a phylogenetic tree directly corresponds to the 221 minimum number of founder variants transmitted. Third, our phylodynamic model explicitly 222 incorporates virus particle number and the identity of genetic sequences. This advance produces 223 results that contrast with previous work that has shown the number of founder variants has little 224 impact on the topology class of the phylogenetic tree when only overall genetic diversity, rather 225 than sequence identity, is tracked (15).

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227 The relative importance of acute and chronic stages of HIV in determining both the number of 228 virus particles and the number of founder variants transmitted is consistent with a recent 229 modelling study (14). However, our study finds higher proportions of infections initiated by 230 multiple founder variants overall during these two stages. This difference is likely due to the 231 assumptions related to how the stages of infection are defined as well as the relative importance 232 of transmission during late infection. Specifically, the previous modelling study finds that two 233 thirds of multiple founder variant transmission occurs during the pre-AIDS stage of infection 234 which is assumed to have both a high viral load and large haplotype diversity. If later stages of



236 Fig. 4: Phylogenetic findings from the calibrated simulations. A) Frequency of number of transmitted 237 founder variants for transmission pairs by either infection stage of source partner at transmission (left) or 238 risk group (right). The number of multiple founder variants is calculated as the modal simulated value. B) 239 Probability of one founder variant in the recipient for each pair stratified by infection stage of the source 240 partner at transmission. C) Probability density distribution of maximum diversity (proportion of sites that 241 differ) in the recipient partner across all simulations with more than one haplotype stratified by infection 242 stage of the source at transmission. D) Number of founder variants coloured by topology class of the 243 phylogenetic tree constructed from the best fit model of the simulated genetic sequences.

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infection account for disproportionately less transmission then the previous model would predict
higher proportions of multiple founder variant transmission in both the acute and chronic stages
of infection, becoming more consistent with empirical estimates from our analysis. By contrast,
our study is agnostic about the relative importance of early and late transmission and does not
differentiate between chronic and a pre-AIDS stage of infection, which cannot easily be
identified through analysis of empirical data.

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Data from four of the MSM transmission pairs in this study have previously been used to
estimate the number of variants founding infection using a combination approach of single
genome amplification (SGA), direct amplicon sequencing and mathematical modelling (7). Our
results broadly agree with this previous analysis, with both analyses suggesting two recipients
were infected with one founder variant and one recipient was infected with multiple founder
variants (our analysis suggests a mean of 2-3 founder variants and the previous analysis suggests
3 founder variants); there was disagreement with results from a fourth recipient, for whom a

259 single founder variant was 13% probable in this study (with a mode of 2 founder variants) but 260 the most likely outcome in the previous analysis. Small differences likely arise because this 261 study uses sequence data from both partners to evaluate the transmission of multiple founder 262 variants to the recipient partner. These extra data can be used to parameterize a mathematical 263 model that accounts for the evolutionary relationship between the virus samples from both 264 partners, rather than relying solely on accumulating diversity. Specifically, neglecting the extent 265 of genetic similarity between the source and recipient virus samples might misattribute 266 borderline cases of diversity accumulation.

Our study finds a median of one founder variant and a maximum of 11, with little difference between HET and MSM risk groups. When only multiple founder variant transmissions are considered, our study finds a median of 2-3 founder variants. These values are consistent with a previous pooled analysis using results from four analyses that used the current gold-standard SGA combination approach as above (9).

At present, the genetic determinants of HIV-1 disease progression are not clear. However, it is important to note that even small differences between genotypes can have important clinical outcomes. For instance, single polymorphisms can affect replication capacity (*21*), or can lead to primary non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitor resistance with different amino acids changes at the same position conferring equivalent levels of resistance (*22*).

Previous studies have disagreed over the extent to which the elevated risk of transmission during
the acute stage of infection (reviewed in (23)) is driven by increased viral load, elevated per
particle transmission probability or other behavioural factors such as high rates of sex partner
change or concurrent partnerships (24-29). Here, while we find strong evidence to support the

281 fact that acute stage transmissions are characterised by more virus particles and variants 282 founding infection, this result alone cannot disentangle virus- and host-related drivers of elevated 283 transmission. For example, the higher number of variants being transmitted during acute 284 infection could arise if the number of transmissible variants declines as infection progresses or, 285 because with more particles being transmitted, there are more opportunities for multiple variants 286 to found infection (14,30) However, our study can shed light on the eight times elevated per-287 exposure risk of infection that has been found for MSM relative to HET transmission (31-32). In 288 particular, the lack of difference in both the number of virus particles and the number of founder 289 variants that establish infection after transmission from a chronically infected source in HET and 290 MSM suggests that the observed heightened acquisition risk for MSM could in part be due to 291 sampled MSM individuals being more likely to be in the acute stage at the time of transmission 292 (14, 27). Whether MSM partners are more likely to be sampled earlier in infection because of 293 sampling procedures or because MSM are indeed more likely to transmit during early infection is 294 unclear. While this observation raises the possibility that the role of sexual risk group in itself 295 may have less of an impact on the transmission of multiple founder variant probability, from a pragmatic perspective, if more MSM infections are indeed caused by acute stage transmissions, 296 297 the evolutionary and epidemiologic impact on public health will be the same irrespective of the 298 mechanism.

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300 There are two primary limitations to acknowledge. First, our model assumes a single 301 transmission event between each source and recipient partner. Without detailed knowledge of the 302 transmission pairs, we cannot distinguish between multiple infections each with a single founder 303 variant and a single infection with multiple founder variants; if for some pairs, the former were

true then this might suggest an elevated transmission rate during the acute stage, as has been
observed previously (28, 29). Second, our phylodynamic framework does not account for the
effect of selection and recombination. Specifically, selection, such as that for viruses which use
the CCR5 co-receptor (33), is thought to occur at the point of transmission , although the strength
may be dependent on the route of transmission (34).

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Our study finds that the transmission of multiple HIV-1 founder variants is determined by infection stage of the source partner, with transmission of more founder variants of HIV-1 in acute compared with chronic infections. These findings stress that epidemiological or clinical analysis of known transmission pairs should account for potential mediation by stage of transmission when evaluating the effect of sexual risk group.

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323	interpreted the data. SGG created new software used in the study. KEA and CJVA drafted the
324	manuscript, with critical revisions from MH, RRR, KL, SH. All authors approved the final
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326	Data and materials availability: All code and data are available at github.com/AtkinsGroup in

- 327 their respective repositories: data on the transmission pairs and sequence alignments
- 328 (TransmissionPairs_Data), code for retrieval of transmission pair epidemiological data and
- 329 metadata from Los Alamos National Laboratory HIV sequence database
- 330 (TransmissionPairs_LANLRetrieval), code for sequence retrieval from GenBank
- 331 (TransmissionPairs_GenBankRetrieval), code for phylodynamic analysis
- 332 (TransmissionPairs_PhylodynamicAnalysis), and code for topological classification
- 333 (TransmissionPairs_TreeTopologyAnalysis).

334 List of Supplementary Materials

- 335 Materials and Methods
- 336 Supplementary Text
- **337** Figs. S1 to S5
- 338 Data S1 to S4
- 339 References (*35-46*)
- 340 Reproducibility Checklist
- 341

342 References and Notes

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1	Supplementary Materials for:
2	Number of HIV-1 founder variants is determined by the recency of the source partner infection
3	
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7	This PDF file includes:
8	
9	Materials and Methods
10	Supplementary Text
11	Figs. S1 to S5
12	Additional references
13	
14	Other Supplementary Materials for this manuscript include the following:
15 10	
10	Data SI to S4: SI lable_EpiGeneticData.csv, SI lable_AnalysisData.csv,
17 18	Strable_Columnianeskey.csv, Anglinents.zip, Reproducionity checklist
10	
19	
20	Materials and Methods
21	
22	Data collation on linked transmission pairs
23	We automatically retrieved all HIV sequence data for men-who-have-sex-with-men (MSM) and
~ 4	
24	heterosexual (HET) HIV transmission pairs for whom the direction of transmission is reported

25 from The Los Alamos National Laboratory (LANL) HIV sequence database up to February

2019, such that each transmission pair comprise a 'source' and a 'recipient' partner. For each 26 27 partner in the transmission pair we collected the following clinical and epidemiological data: (i) 28 date of infection or time of infection prior to sampling, (ii) date of seroconversion or date of 29 seroconversion prior to sampling, (iii) Fiebig stage at the time of sampling, (iv) date of sampling 30 or time of sampling prior to infection, (v) number of sequences, (vi) genomic region, (vii) HIV 31 subtype, and (viii) reported risk group. For each set of these transmission pair data we estimated, 32 relative to the transmission time to the recipient partner (time = 0): (i) the time of transmission to 33 the source partner, (*ii*) the time of the sampling of the source partner, and (*iii*) the time of 34 sampling for the recipient partner (Fig. 1, Supplementary Text). We excluded all transmission pairs from further analysis for whom these three times could not be determined or for whom 35 either partner has fewer than five sequences for all sampling times. For our base case analysis, 36 37 we used the longest available genomic region with five or more sequences per partner. If more 38 than one sampling time is available for any of the individuals, we selected the sample closest in 39 time to the recipient infection.

40 Epidemiological data and sequence retrieval

For the ease of replicating our results and using existing transmission pair data for other
purposes, we developed a Python script to automatically retrieve epidemiological and metadata
for each transmission pair from the Los Alamos National Laboratory HIV sequence database
(LANLdb). This script downloads the following data from both the source and recipient partners
to a .csv file using as input the cluster and patients ids from LANLdb: (i) time of infection, (ii)
time of seroconversion, (iii) Fiebig stage at the time of sampling, (iv) number of sequences, (v)
genomic region, (vi) HIV subtype, (vii) reported risk group and (viii) GenBank accession IDs.

49	Next we used the downloaded GenBank accession IDs to automatically retrieve (ix) viral genetic
50	sequences and (x) sampling dates (calendar dates) from GenBank using an R script. If
51	information from (i) to (x) were missing for any individual, we manually retrieved these values
52	from the original manuscripts where possible.
53	
54	Completed datatables from these automatic and manual processes are provided at
55	github.com/AtkinsGroup.
56	
57	Transmission timelines
58	For each transmission pair, we define time $= 0$ as the time of recipient infection. We then
59	calculated, using the data table retrieved, i) the time of infection of the source, ii) the time of
60	sampling of the source, iii) the time of sampling of the recipient.
61	
62	To estimate these times, we first calculated days from infection for both the source and the
63	recipient partners. When these values are not given explicitly, we calculated them from time
64	since seroconversion estimates or from Fiebig staging results. Specifically, we interpret
65	seroconversion as the individual reaching Fiebig stage III (ELISA positive) that occurs between
66	22-37 days after infection and Fiebig stages I (viral RNA positive) and II (18-34) occurring 13
67	days and 28 days after infection, respectively (35). For all the pairs where a range of possible
68	values is calculated, and for when a calendar month is provided, we incorporated the uncertainty
69	around the infection and sampling times by assuming all values in these ranges are equally
70	plausible and uniformly sampled within these range to account for the uncertainty.

For some pairs, the source was classified as 'recent' or 'late' at the time of transmission to the recipient partner. In these cases, we do not have an exact point to call time = 0. Therefore, for these pairs, for each simulation, we sample with replacement the time between source and recipient infections from the other pairs for whom we have previously classified as acute (<90 days delay), and chronic (90 days or more delay), sampling from the same risk group (MSM or HET) in each case.

- 78 All calculations, corresponding notes and final transmission times for each pair are provided at
- 79 github.com/AtkinsGroup and visualised in Fig. S1.





Fig. S1: Infection and sampling times of the source and recipient for all the 112 transmission pairs

82 analysed. Individual points denote exact times and lines denote uniform uncertainty in times. Source

partners points/lines overlapping the green shaded area correspond to transmission pairs for whomtransmission occurs during the acute stage.

85

86 Empirical transmission pair analysis

87 Tree reconstruction: For each of the included transmission pairs, we generated posterior sets of 88 phylogenetic trees. For this, we first constructed alignments using Muscle v3.8.31 (36, 37) with 89 subtype specific reference sequences retrieved from the LANL HIV sequence database. Using 90 these alignments, we built phylogenetic trees with MrBayes 3.2.7 (38, 39) under the assumption 91 of a general time-reversible (GTR) nucleotide substitution model with the addition of invariant 92 sites (I) and a gamma distribution of site rates. We constrained sequence data to be monophyletic 93 with respect to the reference sequences to root the tree but ingroup relationships were 94 unconstrained to avoid any topology class bias. We ran two Markov chains each with 30 million iterations, from which we sampled every 3,000th after discarding the first 50% as burn-in which 95 96 provided an average standard deviation of split tree frequencies of below 0.01 or an effective 97 sample size of greater than 300. This gave an empirical posterior distribution of N = 5,00098 sample trees. In a sensitivity analysis, we tested the alternative method of using maximum 99 likelihood phylogenetic tree reconstruction with bootstrapping.

100

101 *Empirical topology class:* We classified each of the resulting phylogenetic trees in the posterior 102 distribution as either monophyletic-monophyletic (MM), or paraphyletic-monophyletic (PM), or 103 paraphyletic-polyphyletic (PP), to reflect the cladistic relationship between the lineages from 104 both individuals (Supplementary Text). Each transmission pair,k, is then described as a triplet of 105 probabilities, D_k , denoting the frequency of each topology class within the kth pair's posterior

106 distribution $D_k = \{d_k(t)\}_{t \in T} = \{\Pr(t \mid k)\}_{t \in T}$ where $\sum_{t \in T} \Pr(t \mid k) = 1$ and $T \in \{MM, PM, PP\}$.

108

109 Simulated transmission pair analysis

110 We simulated the transmission of virus particles and within-host evolution, accounting for the 111 epidemiological characteristics for each transmission pair. For each transmission pair, we 112 simulated a chain of three HIV infections: (i) an unsampled index case who infected the source 113 after three years of their own infection during their chronic stage to reflect that the majority of 114 both HET and MSM transmission pairs transmitted during the chronic stage (101/112 pairs). In a 115 sensitivity analysis we accounted for the assumption that transmission rate may be higher during 116 the acute stage, with half of the index to source transmissions occurring after 90 days and the 117 remaining half after three years, (*ii*) the source individual of the transmission pair, and (*iii*) 118 finally the recipient individual of the transmission pair. For each individual within each trio, we 119 simulated viral phylogenies that reflect between- and within-host viral evolution using 120 VirusTreeSimulator (40), using as input the respective epidemiological and clinical information 121 (Supplementary Text). We used a within-host effective population size consistent with that 122 parameterized by the PANGEA-HIV study with the following logistic model parameters: initial 123 effective population size (N_0) is 1, viral generation time (τ) is 1.8 days, effective population per 124 year growth rate (r) is 2.85022, and time to half the carrying capacity of the viral population 125 (t_{50}) is 2 years (40). For each transmission pair, we simulated a dated viral phylogeny that has 126 the same number of tips as the number of retrieved sequences per partner and that is sampled at 127 the respective sampling times for the source and recipient partner (Supplementary Text). For 128 each recipient partner infection, we assume that a total of n_R virus particles founded the

129	infection. For each simulation, we further assume a total of n_s virus particles founding infection
130	of the source. We assume n_R takes values between one and a maximum of 12 and varied n_S
131	between one and two (Supplementary Text). We assume that the virus samples from each
132	recipient is representative of the within-host diversity, and that each founding virus particle has
133	an extant lineage. Therefore, we first assigned each sample (tip) of a phylogeny as a descendant
134	of one of the n_R virus particles. If there were more than 12 samples then the remaining tips were
135	assigned randomly to the $n_R = 12$ virus particles. If there were fewer than 12 samples, then we
136	constrained the number of founding virus particles, n_R , to equal the number of samples. For
137	every transmission pair, and for each value of n_R and n_S , we simulated 100 viral phylogenies.
138	
139	For every simulated viral phylogeny, we simulated transmitted sequences by adding dummy
140	nodes with a negligibly short branch length after the transmission time. We then simulated the
141	evolution of nucleotide sequences along the tree using Seq-Gen (41) and a $GTR + I + gamma$
142	substitution model. The length of the simulated sequences and the evolutionary tree scaling rate
143	match each transmission pair's empirical sequence data. For this, we used previously estimated
144	empirically-derived within-host evolutionary rates (42) and the HXB2 sequence homologous to
145	the pair's sequence fragment as the ancestral sequence at the root. Every transmission pair
146	simulation produces a tip sequence alignment and a number of founder sequences equal to the
147	number of transmitted particles.
148	
149	Simulated topology class: We reconstructed a phylogeny using maximum likelihood inference in
150	IQ-TREE 1.6.11 (43) and selected the best-fit nucleotide substitution model with ModelFinder

151 (44). Each phylogeny was classified as either MM, PM or PP (Supplementary Text).

152 Consequently, for each transmission pair k and each transmissibility model (i.e. number of viral 153 particles founding infection of the recipient n_R), we generated a triplet of probabilities $M_{k,n_R} =$ 154 $\{m_{k,n_R}\}_{t\in T} = \Pr(t|k,n_R)\}_{t\in T}$ where $\sum_{t\in T} \Pr(t|k,n_R) = 1$ and $T \in \{MM, PM, PP\}$.

155

156 Transmissibility model calibration

157 For each transmission pair, we chose the most likely value of n_R (the number of virus particles 158 founding each recipient infection) by matching the posterior topology class from the empirical 159 phylogenetic transmission trees with the simulated distribution of topology class. Specifically, 160 for each transmission pair, k, we estimated the most likely number of viral particles founding each recipient infection n_R^* as the n_R that maximises the multinomial likelihood function L_{k,n_R} = 161 $\Pr(D_k \mid M_{k,n_{\rm R}}) = \frac{N!}{\prod_{t \in T} (Nd_k(t))!} \prod_{t \in T} m_{k,n_{\rm R}}(t)^{Nd_k(t)}.$ For each transmission pair k, we calculated 162 lower and upper confidence limits for n_R^* as the minimum and maximum values of n_R that satisfy 163 $L_{k,n_{\rm R}} > L_{k,n_{\rm R}^*} - 1.92$ and $L_{k,n_{\rm R}} < L_{k,n_{\rm R}^*} + 1.92$, respectively (44, 45). For each transmission 164 pair k, we retain the best fit model for further analysis such that there are n_R^* viral particles 165 166 founding infection of the recipient.

167 Haplotype analysis

168 *Probability of a single founder haplotype*: For each transmission pair, k, from the best fit 169 transmissibility model, we defined the random variables F_S^k and F_R^k as the number of haplotypes 170 that found infection of the source and the recipient partners, respectively. We then calculated the 171 probability of there being a single founder haplotype in the recipient, stratified by topology class 172 of the simulated phylogenetic tree (MM, PM, PP) and the number of founder haplotypes, *i*, in the

source partner, $p_i^k(t)$, that is, $p_i^k(t) = \Pr(F_R^k = 1|F_S^k = i, t)$. Next, we defined the probability 173 of a single founder haplotype in the recipient as a function of a tree topology, $t, p^k(t) =$ 174 $\Pr(F_{R}^{k} = 1|t) = p_{1}^{k} \Pr(F_{S} = 1) + p_{2}^{k} \Pr(F_{S} > 1)$. By assuming that the source partners are 175 176 randomly selected from the general MSM or HET population in which the probability of a single founder variant has been calculated to be approximately 0.7 (14), we set, $Pr(F_S = 1) =$ 177 0.7 and $Pr(F_s > 1) = 0.3$. Finally, for each transmission pair, we calculated the probability of 178 one founder haplotype given the observed triplet of empirical posterior topology classes D_k , as 179 $q^k = \sum_{t \in T} p^k(t) d_k(t) / N.$ 180 181

Number of founder haplotypes by source partner infection stage: We stratified all the transmission pairs into two sets by the infection stage of the source partner. We classified the acute transmission set as those pairs for whom recipient infection is within 90 days of source infection (a set of n_{acute} pairs), and the chronic transmission set as those pairs for whom recipient infection is 90 days or later after source infection (a set of $n_{chronic}$ pairs). For each group, we calculated the mean probability of one founder haplotype being transmitted to the recipient in each set set as:

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$$q_{\text{acute}}^{k} = \sqrt[n_{\text{acute}}]{\prod_{k \in \text{acute}}} q^{k}$$

190
$$q_{\rm chronic}^k = \sqrt[n_{\rm chronic}]{\prod_{k \in {\rm chronic}}} q^k$$

Finally, we calculated the relative risk of one founder haplotype transmitted during the acute stage versus the chronic stage by $q_{acute}^{k}/q_{chronic}^{k}$.

193	Statistical analysis
194	We compare our results by using statistical tests and report the respective <i>P</i> -values. To compare
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199	Supplementary Text
200	
201	Transmission pairs sequence data
202	Our alignments are provided at github.com/AtkinsGroup.
203	On average, 22 (IQR 13-33) HIV sequences are obtained from the source and 21 (IQR 10-20)
204	sequences from the recipient for the MSM pairs, and 21 (IQR 12-25) and 18 (IQR 9-22) for the
205	HET source and recipient, respectively. All MSM sequence data belong to subtype B, while most
206	heterosexual sequence data belong to subtype C (49%), followed by subtype B (22%), subtype D
207	(21%), subtype A/A-like (7%) and unclassified subtype (1%). A total of 7 (19%) of the MSM
208	pairs have near full genomes sequenced and the remaining pairs had env available (mean 1653
209	nt, range 182-3827 nt). Ten (13%) of the HET pairs had near full genomes available, while 56
210	(75%) pairs had env (mean 1321 nt, range 323-2582 nt), nine (12%) pairs had either pol or gag
211	(mean 1484 nt, range 1375-1499 nt) and one pair had vif-LTR3 (4666 nt) sequenced.

213 Effect of number of founding virus particles in the source

To assess whether the number of founding virus particles in the source partner affects the diversity of sequences founding infection in the recipient, we model a scenario where the index case transmitted one, two or six virus particles to the source partner at either one or three year(s) after infection. The source in turn transmits 1 to 6 virus particles to the recipient at 30 days (acute) or 1095 days (chronic) later. The simulation produces a dated viral phylogeny with tips sampled at either 30 (early) or 1065 days (late). We model 1kb nucleotide sequences along the simulated viral phylogenies using the same method as in the main text.

221

222 The genetic variation rapidly and steadily increases over time – the maximum diversity among 223 transmitted haplotypes to the recipient was higher when the index case was infected for longer 224 and the transmission to the recipient occurs during the chronic stage of the source (Fig. S2). 225 When the source has more than one founding particle, this leads to a bimodal distribution of 226 maximum diversity among transmitted founder variants within the recipient. The first and second 227 mode represent maximum diversity when drawing the recipient founder haplotypes from either 228 one or more than one viral population within the source, respectively. However, increasing the 229 number of founding virus particles to more than two within the source only increases the density 230 around the second mode without affecting the range of the maximum diversity distribution. This 231 consistency occurs because increasing the number of founding virus particles in both 232 transmission partners, increased the probability of drawing founding variants from different 233 genetic pools in the source. However, the average maximum diversity of the founder variants

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234 does not change because the source genetic pools evolved at the same rate and under the same 235 evolutionary constraints with no selective advantage. This leads to genetic pools with equivalent 236 cumulative genetic change but distinct identity. Taking this into account, we chose to model one 237 or two founding virus particles within the source partner as we were interested in capturing some degree of variation in the transmitted haplotypes rather than multiple genetic identities per se. 238



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Maximum Nucleotide Diversity

240 Fig. S2: Effect of number of founding virus particles in the source.

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246 Effect of using a confidence threshold for assigning the topology class



248 Fig. S3: Phylogenetic findings of the empirical transmission pairs for whom the posterior trees 249 gave a certainty of over 95% for the most frequent topology. Fraction of phylogenetic tree topology 250 class (MM - Monophyletic-Monophyletic, PM - Paraphyletic-Monophyletic and PP - Paraphyletic-251 Polyphyletic) where each tree topology class is classified as the most frequent topology class of each 252 posterior distribution per transmission pair. Results are stratified by risk group: 76 heterosexual (HET) 253 pairs and 36 men-who-have-sex-with-men (MSM) pairs) and infection stage of the source partner at 254 transmission (11 acute pairs defined as <90d post infection and 101 chronic pairs defined as ≥90d post 255 infection).

257 Effect of index partner stage of infection at transmission

258 In the main analysis we assumed that all index cases transmit to the source partner after three 259 years of infection. Here we also evaluated the results assuming the transmission risk was skewed 260 towards early infection, with half of all simulations across all transmission pairs assuming index 261 case transmission occurs during the acute stage (\leq 90d) and half occurs during the chronic stage 262 (91d-3y). We find qualitatively similar results as our main analysis. The median number of 263 founder variants transmitted across all pairs is 1 (range: 1-5, Fig. S4A). Across all pairs in both 264 risk groups, the mean probability of observing one founder variant is 0.73. Stratifying by risk 265 group, we find there is a higher probability that one variant founds HET infections than MSM 266 infections (a geometric mean of 0.79 vs. 0.61, Fig. S4B). In contrast, when stratifying solely by 267 infection stage of the source partner, we find that transmission during the acute stage has a much 268 lower probability of one founder variant than during the chronic stage (means of 0.38 vs. 0.78) 269 with a higher median number of founder variants transmitted, when only the most likely number 270 of transmitted founder variants for each pair is considered (2 vs. 1, Fig. S4A). From these results, 271 therefore, there is still approximately twice the chance of multiple founder variant transmission 272 during acute stage infection across both risk groups (relative risk is 0.48).



Fig. S4: Phylogenetic findings from the calibrated simulations with skewed transmission rate
towards acute stage for the index case. A) Frequency of the number of founder variants for
transmission pairs by infection stage of source partner at transmission and risk group. The number of
transmitted founding variants is calculated as the modal simulated value. B) Probability of one founder
variant in the recipient for each pair stratified by infection stage of the source partner at transmission.

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281 Effect of constructing empirical data phylogenetic trees using maximum likelihood

282 inference with bootstrapping

283 In the main analysis we used Bayesian phylogenetic reconstruction to analyse the empirical

- sampled genetic data of each empirical transmission pair, using the respective posterior
- distribution to calculate the frequency of each topology class (MM, PM and PP). Here we

286 provide a sensitivity analysis to calculate the tree topology class distribution of the empirical 287 sampled genetic data by maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree construction and bootstrapping. 288 After bootstrapping the empirical data 100 times to calculate the frequency of MM, PM and PP 289 topology classes for each transmission pair, we then proceeded using the same methodology as 290 in the main text. That is, we fit the simulation model (parameterised with the pair-specific data) 291 to the bootstrapped data individually for each transmission pair by comparing the frequencies of 292 tree topology classes. Overall our results remained consistent with our main results, albeit with 293 slightly lower probabilities of observing one founder variant. The median number of founder 294 variants transmitted across all pairs is 1 (range: 1-11, Fig. S5A). Across all pairs in both risk 295 groups, the mean probability of observing one founder variant is 0.62. Stratifying by risk group, 296 we find there is a higher probability that one variant founds HET infections than MSM infections 297 (a geometric mean of 0.67 vs. 0.53, Fig. S5B). Stratifying by infection stage of the source 298 partner, we find there is a much lower probability of one founder variant during the acute stage 299 than during the chronic stage (means of 0.31 vs. 0.66) with approximately twice the chance of 300 multiple founder variant transmission during acute stage infection across both risk groups 301 (relative risk is 0.47).



Fig. S5: Phylogenetic findings from the calibrated simulations with bootstrapped empirical data. A)
Frequency of the number of founding variants for transmission pairs by infection stage of source partner at
transmission and risk group. The number of transmitted founding variants is calculated as the modal
simulated value. B) Probability of one founder variant in the recipient for each pair stratified by infection
stage of the source partner at transmission.

308 Effect of the number of sequences for each transmission pair

309 Here we provide sensitivity analysis to the estimation of the probability that a single founder 310 variant was transmitted to the respective recipient by the number of sequences available from the 311 source and recipient, which ranges from 5 to 149 across all partners. First, the number of 312 sequences available from the transmitter and the recipient is correlated (Pearson's product-313 moment correlation=0.53, P<0.01). However, we do not find any evidence of correlation 314 between the total number of sequences for a pair and the estimated number of founder variants in 315 the recipient (P>0.2). While an MM topology is more frequently observed when the total number 316 of sequences was small ($P \le 0.01$), removing the pairs with a likely MM topology do not change 317 our main result: the probability that a single founder variant was transmitted to the respective 318 recipient is lower for the acute pairs (0.402) than for the chronic ones (0.749).

319 Effect of the sequencing method

We evaluated if our results were affected by the type of sequence data used in the analysis. All of the transmission pair data were generated using Sanger capillary sequencing except for those in one study ((46) in **Data S1**) which used Illumina sequencing on end-point diluted primary

323 isolates. Our results are robust to the exclusion of the eight transmission pairs extracted from this

324 study: that is, the probability that a single founder variant is transmitted to the respective

325 recipient is lower for the acute stage (0.402) than for the chronic stage (0.756).

326 Effect of the gene region and length

327 Looking at chronic stage transmissions only, if we compare the number of founder variants 328 inferred from envelope gene sequences to those inferred from non-envelope sequences, we don't 329 find significant differences (P>0.4) in the probability that a single founder variant is transmitted 330 to the respective recipient: 0.739 for envelope sequences and 0.856 for non-envelope ones. 331 Conversely, if we include data from both chronic and acute transmissions, and restrict our 332 analysis to those pairs with sequences from the envelope region, our results remain unchanged. 333 That is, the probability that a single founder variant is transmitted to the respective recipient is 334 lower during the acute stage (0.432) than during the chronic stage (0.739). Finally, if we 335 condition our analysis on those pairs for whom full or near full genomes are available (17 pairs), 336 our results remain consistent with the main analysis: the probability that a single founder variant 337 was transmitted is lower for acute stage transmissions (0.138, n=1) than for chronic stage 338 transmissions (0.903, n=16). We found that length of the sequenced region is not correlated with 339 the probability that a single founder variant is transmitted to the recipient (Pearson's product-340 moment correlation=0.14, P>0.14). Moreover, there are no significant differences (P>0.81) in 341 the length of the sequenced region when stratifying our data by infection stage of the source 342 partner at transmission. Together these observations indicate that our results are not influenced 343 by the length of sequenced regions.

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- 346 **Data S1 (Separate file):** SITable_EpiGeneticData.csv. Collated epidemiological and clinical
- 347 data and genetic metadata for the 112 transmission pairs used in the analysis.
- 348 Data S2 (Separate file): SITable AnalysisData.csv. Analysis information for the 112
- transmission pairs used in the analysis.
- 350 Data S3 (Separate file): SITable_ColumnNamesKey.csv. Additional information on column
- 351 headers in Data S1,S2 tables
- 352 Data S4 (Separate file): Alignments.zip. Individual files of sequence alignments used in the
- analysis for the 112 transmission pairs.
- 354