

**Figure 2.** **A**, RNaseP levels in peripheral blood from patients with SCID ( $2.1 \pm 0.2 \times 10^6$  copies/ $\mu$ g DNA,  $n = 14$ ) were comparable with those from control infants ( $2.2 \pm 0.2 \times 10^6$  copies/ $\mu$ g DNA,  $n = 12$ ) ( $P = .725$ ). Peripheral blood TRECs from all typical patients with SCID were undetectable ( $<10$  copies/ $\mu$ g DNA) as compared with the high copy number of peripheral blood TRECs from control neonates ( $5.8 \pm 0.7 \times 10^3$  copies/ $\mu$ g DNA,  $n = 12$ ) ( $P < .0001$ ). Patient 18, with hypomorphic RAG1 mutations, had detectable but extremely low TRECs in peripheral blood ( $8.0 \times 10^1$  copies/ $\mu$ g DNA). **B**, RNaseP levels in neonatal Guthrie cards from patients with SCID ( $1.8 \pm 0.3 \times 10^6$  copies/ $\mu$ g DNA,  $n = 15$ ) were comparable with those from control neonates ( $2.3 \pm 0.1 \times 10^6$  copies/ $\mu$ g DNA,  $n = 26$ ) ( $P = .184$ ). TRECs of Guthrie cards from 14 of 15 patients with SCID during the early neonatal period were undetectable ( $<10$  copies/ $\mu$ g DNA). An ADA-deficient patient (ADA<sup>-/-</sup>, patient 11) had detectable but significantly low TRECs levels ( $6.2 \times 10^2$  copies/ $\mu$ g DNA) compared with control neonates ( $2.3 \pm 0.2 \times 10^4$  copies/ $\mu$ g DNA,  $n = 26$ ).

levels despite the presence of peripheral T cells. FISH analysis revealed that all circulating CD3<sup>+</sup> cells (1326/ $\mu$ L) were derived from his mother. Similarly, TRECs of other patients (patients 13 through 15) were also undetectable despite the maternal T cells (Table).

These results confirm the findings of Patel et al<sup>9</sup> indicating that TRECs quantification is both effective and reliable for the screening of SCID even in the presence of maternal T cells.

Patient 18 with hypomorphic RAG1 mutations was lymphopenic (550/ $\mu$ L) at 21 months of age, but T (53.1%), B (12.0%), and NK cells (31.2%) were present in peripheral blood. Both T cells with TCR $\alpha\beta$  chain and TCR $\gamma\delta$  chain were derived from the patient, as determined by FISH analysis of the sex chromosome.

The peripheral blood TRECs from this patient ( $8.0 \times 10^1$  copies/ $\mu$ g DNA) (Figure 2, A) was significantly lower than age-matched control patients ( $5.2 \pm 3.2 \times 10^3$  copies/ $\mu$ g DNA,  $n = 5$ ). We purified T cells with TCR $\alpha\beta$  chain by FACS sorting. T cells with TCR $\alpha\beta$  from patient 18 had very low TRECs/cells ( $4.0 \times 10^1$  copies/ $10^5$  cells) than those of age-matched control patients ( $5.1 \times 10^3$  copies/ $10^5$  cells).

We also analyzed TRECs in 2 LIG4-deficient patients (patients 16 and 17) who had leaky T cells (Table). Peripheral blood TRECs were undetectable in both patients (Figure 2, A), and TRECs in the neonatal Guthrie card were also undetectable in patient 17 (Figure 2, B).

These results indicate that TRECs are extremely low in patients with SCID, even if leaky T cells are present.

## Discussion

We demonstrated that TRECs were undetectable, or were significantly lower ( $10^1$  to  $10^2$  copies/ $\mu$ g DNA) than healthy neonates and infants ( $10^4$  to  $10^5$  copies/ $\mu$ g DNA), in both neonatal Guthrie cards and peripheral blood samples obtained from SCID. All types of SCID tested, including IL2RG, JAK3, ADA, RAG1, LIG4 deficiencies, were identified by measuring TRECs. This finding was consistent with the previous reports that showed the usefulness of TRECs for the identification of SCID<sup>6,7,9</sup> and further indicates that TRECs can identify SCID with maternal T cells and SCID with leaky T cells. In 2 LIG4-deficient patients with leaky T cells (CD3<sup>+</sup> 38.7% and 44.3%) and in 1 patient with hypomorphic mutations in RAG1 gene, who had immunodeficiency and autoimmunity with residual memory T cells,<sup>15,16</sup> TRECs were undetectable. These results indicate that TRECs is a good marker to identify the defect of V(D)J recombination, in which LIG4 and RAG1 play essential roles. We observed progressive loss of TRECs in a patient with SCID and ADA deficiency (patient 11). This observation is compatible with the report that the loss of naive T lymphocytes occurs after birth in patients with ADA deficiency.<sup>17,18</sup>

No false-negative was observed in this study (TRECs were below normal range in all cases of SCID), although sample size was too small to determine the exact false-negative rate.

Consistently, there were no false-positive (TRECs were all positive) in the control samples in this study. The previous studies showed 2.9% and 7.7% of false-positive rates.<sup>6,7</sup> The primers and probe used in this study<sup>14</sup> were different from previously studies.<sup>6,7</sup> However, both probes were found to result in equivalent quantities (data not shown). Thus, the reason of the different false-positive rate between this and the previous studies is currently undetermined. Mass screening using larger population will disclose the exact false-positive and false-negative rate.

The cost to test 1 sample in our study is \$5 per sample, which was reported to be cost-effective.<sup>19</sup> We are now trying to further reduce the cost.

Early diagnosis of SCID can prevent severe and recurrent infection, which is often fatal and makes stem cell transplantation difficult. Identification of SCID by newborn screening by TRECs will improve the prognosis and quality of life of patients with SCID. ■

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# Impaired CD4 and CD8 Effector Function and Decreased Memory T Cell Populations in ICOS-Deficient Patients

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Interaction of ICOS with its ligand is essential for germinal center formation, T cell immune responses, and development of autoimmune diseases. Human ICOS deficiency has been identified worldwide in nine patients with identical ICOS mutations. In vitro studies of the patients to date have shown only mild T cell defect. In this study, we report an in-depth analysis of T cell function in two siblings with novel ICOS deficiency. The brother displayed mild skin infections and impaired Ig class switching, whereas the sister had more severe symptoms, including immunodeficiency, rheumatoid arthritis, inflammatory bowel disease, interstitial pneumonitis, and psoriasis. Despite normal CD3/CD28-induced proliferation and IL-2 production in vitro, peripheral blood T cells in both patients showed a decreased percentage of CD4 central and effector memory T cells and impaired production of Th1, Th2, and Th17 cytokines upon CD3/CD28 costimulation or PMA/ionophore stimulation. The defective polarization into effector cells was associated with impaired induction of T-bet, GATA3, MAF, and retinoic acid-related orphan nuclear hormone receptor (RORC). Reduced CTLA-4<sup>+</sup>CD45RO<sup>+</sup>FoxP3<sup>+</sup> regulatory T cells and diminished induction of inhibitory cell surface molecules, including CTLA-4, were also observed in the patients. T cell defect was not restricted to CD4 T cells because reduced memory T cells and impaired IFN- $\gamma$  production were also noted in CD8 T cells. Further analysis of the patients demonstrated increased induction of receptor activator of NF- $\kappa$ B ligand (RANKL), lack of IFN- $\gamma$  response, and loss of Itch expression upon activation in the female patient, who had autoimmunity. Our study suggests that extensive T cell dysfunction, decreased memory T cell compartment, and imbalance between effector and regulatory cells in ICOS-deficient patients may underlie their immunodeficiency and/or autoimmunity. *The Journal of Immunology*, 2009, 182: 5515–5527.

Members of the CD28 family play an important role in the regulation of T cell immune responses (1, 2). Expression of these molecules and their ligands is tightly regulated to deliver either costimulatory or inhibitory signals (2–5), and their uncoordinated regulation leads to the development of immunological disorders (6–8).

ICOS (CD278) is a costimulatory member of the CD28 family, and its expression is induced in CD4 T cells upon activation (9–11). The ICOS signal is induced by interaction with its partner, the ICOS ligand (ICOS-L<sup>2</sup>; CD275), a molecule highly expressed on B cells and dendritic cells and weakly on T cells and nonlymphoid cells (1, 12).

Signaling through ICOS enhances T cell proliferation, secretion of cytokines, and up-regulation of cell surface molecules (11, 13, 14).

Previous research has showed that the ICOS-ICOS-L interaction is important for productive T-B cell coactivation, CD40-mediated Ig class switch recombination, and development of Th2 immune responses (1, 15–17). Induction of the Th1 cytokine IFN- $\gamma$  is relatively unaffected and in some studies augmented; other studies have documented the importance of ICOS in Th1 responses (15, 16, 18–21). Accumulating evidence indicates that ICOS also regulates the generation of Th17 cells, differentiation of FoxP3<sup>+</sup> regulatory T cells (Tregs), and homeostatic survival of invariant NKT (iNKT) cells (22–24).

Although earlier investigations of ICOS-null mice revealed normal numbers of naive/memory T cells and normal primary clonal expansion and survival of memory T cells, more recent investigation has demonstrated lower numbers of effector memory T cells (TEMs) in ICOS<sup>-/-</sup> mice in the steady state (23). Seemingly contradictory results have been reported on the requirement of ICOS for T cell differentiation and function.

Most studies have depicted ICOS as a costimulator. Indeed, the blockade of the ICOS-ICOS-L interaction abrogates the development of murine models of autoimmune diseases, as follows: rheumatoid arthritis (RA), inflammatory bowel disease (IBD), myasthenia gravis, type I diabetes mellitus, experimental myositis, autoimmune carditis, and graft-vs-host disease (25–30).

Previously, human ICOS deficiency has been reported in nine patients from four families (31–33). Importantly, the same homologous genetic deletion of exons 2 and 3 was identified in all patients, indicating a founder effect in all four families. Analysis of these patients revealed reduced numbers of memory B cells and pan-hypogammaglobulinemia, but no impairment in the secretion of TNF- $\alpha$ , IFN- $\gamma$ , IL-2, IL-4, IL-10, or IL-13. Normal surface

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<sup>2</sup> Abbreviations used in this paper: ICOS-L, ICOS ligand; IBD, inflammatory bowel disease; IP, interstitial pneumonitis; RA, rheumatoid arthritis; RE, relative expression; TCM, central memory T cell; TEM, effector memory T cell; Treg, regulatory T cell; BTLA, B and T lymphocyte attenuator; EOMES, eomesodermin; PD-1, programmed death-1; RANKL, receptor activator of NF- $\kappa$ B ligand; RORC, retinoic acid-related orphan nuclear hormone receptor.

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expression of CD69, CD40L (CD154), CD25, and OX40 (CD134) was observed on their T cells following stimulation (31). A later study provided evidence of defects in IL-10 and IL-17 production (33); however, no major impairment of T cell function was demonstrated. Autoimmunity, manifested as autoantibody-mediated neutropenia, was observed in only one patient (33). Although there have been reports on the effects of ICOS on CD8 responses in mice (34, 35), impact of ICOS on CD8 T cells is not yet completely understood.

In this study, we describe the case of two siblings having ICOS deficiency with a novel mutation in the ICOS gene. Although both patients displayed varying degrees of immunodeficiency, only the sister showed a wide range of autoimmune diseases, including RA, IBD, interstitial pneumonitis (IP), and psoriasis.

In this study, we focused on the T cell immune function of these ICOS-deficient patients. Detailed analysis demonstrated a reduction in memory T cells and a major subtype of Tregs; impaired polarization into Th1, Th2, and Th17; and defective induction of CTLA-4 molecules and other surface inhibitory receptors.

We further assessed activation-induced T cell proliferation and apoptosis, induction of costimulatory receptor molecules, and expression of master regulators for effector T cell subsets, and explored the mechanisms of T cell defect and autoimmunity in these patients using quantitative mRNA analysis.

## Materials and Methods

### Patients and controls

Patients were diagnosed with common variable immunodeficiency, according to the European Society for Immunodeficiencies criteria ([www.esid.org](http://www.esid.org)). Twelve healthy volunteers (6 male, 6 female) aged between 26 and 48 years were recruited. The study was approved by the institutional ethical committee of Tokyo Medical and Dental University, and written informed consent was obtained from the patients, the elder sister and mother of the patients, and healthy controls.

### Sequencing and RT-PCR of ICOS

Genomic DNA was extracted from peripheral blood using a DNA blood mini kit (Qiagen), according to the manufacturer's instructions. The coding sequences of the five exons and the adjacent intron-exon boundaries of the ICOS gene were amplified with specific primers (sequences are available upon request) from genomic DNA on the basis of ICOS sequences obtained from GenBank database (accession numbers AC103880, AC009965, and AB023135). All PCR products were sequenced using BigDye terminator v3.1 and an ABI Prism 3130 Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems); the sequence data were then analyzed using DNASIS software (Hitachi Software). Total RNA was isolated from stimulated PBMCs using an RNeasy mini kit (Qiagen) and reverse transcribed into cDNA using a Superscript III first-strand synthesis system for RT-PCR (Invitrogen). PCR products were separated by agarose gel electrophoresis.

### Monoclonal Abs

We used the following FITC-, PE-, PE Texas Red (ECD)-, or PE cyanin 5.1 (PC5)-conjugated Abs: FoxP3 (236A/E7) from Abcam; IgG1 isotype controls, CD3 FITC, CD3 PE (SK7), CD4 PE (SK3), CD8 FITC, CD8 PE (SK1), CD25 FITC (M-A251), IL-4 PE (3010.211), IFN- $\gamma$  PE (25723.11), 4-1BB PE (4B4-1), OX40 PE (ACT35), and IL-10 PE (JES3-10F1) from BD Pharmingen; CD3 FITC (UCHT1), CD4 PC5 (13B8.2), CD8 ECD (SF121Thy2D3), CD8 FITC (B9.11), CD19 ECD, CD19 PE (J4.119), CD20 FITC (B9E9), CD25 PC5 (B1.49.1), CD28 FITC, CD28 purified (CD28.2), CD45RA FITC (ALB11 and 2H4), CD45RO PE, ECD (UCHL1), CD62L ECD (DREG56), CD69 PE (TP1.55.3), CTLA4 PE (BNI3), streptavidin FITC, streptavidin PC5, and TCR V $\beta$  Repertoire kit from Beckman Coulter (CA); CD27 PE (M-T271) and IgD from Dako-Cytomation; CD45RO PE (UCHL1), IL-17 FITC (eBio64DEC17), B and T lymphocyte attenuator (BTLA) PE (MIH26), programmed death-1 (PD-1) FITC (MIH4), ICOS-L, ICOSL biotin (MIH12), and ICOS FITC (ISA-3) from eBioscience; receptor activator of NF- $\kappa$ B (RANK) PE (9A725) from Imgenex; CD25 PE (4E3) from Miltenyi Biotec; Alexa Fluor 488 goat anti-mouse IgG Ab from Molecular Probes; CCR7 FITC (150503) from eBioscience; and CD3 purified (OKT3) from Janssen Pharmaceutical.

### Cell separation and stimulation

PBMCs were isolated from heparinized blood using Lymphoprep (Axis-Shield), as described previously (36). CD4 T cells were negatively selected from the PBMCs using a StemSep device (StemCell Technologies). Thus, the purity of the collected CD4 T cell population was generally >95%. CD8 T cells were prepared with the same technique yielding >90% pure CD8 T cell population. Separated cells were resuspended in RPMI 1640 (WAKO) supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated FBS (Gemini Biological Products), and incubated at  $10^6$  cells/ml in 24-well plates (Greiner Bioscience) with or without stimulants. For stimulation, we used anti-CD28 mAb (at 1  $\mu$ g/ml) with plate-bound anti-CD3 mAb or 50 ng/ml PMA (Sigma-Aldrich) plus 1  $\mu$ g/ml ionomycin (Sigma-Aldrich). The cells were incubated in the medium at 37°C in 5% CO<sub>2</sub> for the indicated time periods. IL-2 (Lymphotec) was used at 700 IU/ml with plate-bound anti-CD3 when assessing ICOS expression.

### Flow cytometric analysis

PBMCs, CD4 T cells, or CD8 T cells were stained with the indicated Abs and were analyzed using a FACSCalibur flow cytometer and CellQuest software (BD Biosciences) or an EPICS XL flow cytometer and EXPO32 software (Beckman Coulter), as described previously (37). For intracellular cytokine detection, PBMCs were stimulated with PMA and ionomycin in the presence of GolgiPlug (BD Pharmingen) or brefeldin A (eBioscience) for 5–8 h at 37°C in 5% CO<sub>2</sub>. After stimulation, the cells were fixed and permeabilized using a Cytotfix/Cytoperm Plus fixation/permeabilization kit (BD Pharmingen). The same permeabilization technique was used to detect CTLA-4 expression. A CellTrace CFSE cell proliferation kit (Molecular Probes) was used for the CFSE assay, and an annexin V FITC/7-AAD kit (Beckman Coulter) for the apoptosis assay.

### Cytokine production assay

Negatively selected CD4 T cells or CD8 T cells were incubated with or without stimulants (plate-bound anti-CD3 mAb and anti-CD28 mAb or 50 ng/ml PMA, and 200 nM ionomycin). The supernatants were collected after 24 h and analyzed using ELISA for IL-17, IL-12p40, IL-22, and TGF- $\beta$ 1 (R&D Systems); IL-21 (eBioscience); and human Th1/Th2 cytokines (IFN- $\gamma$ , IL-2, IL-4, IL-5, IL-6, IL-10, TNF- $\alpha$ , and TNF- $\beta$ ) using a FlowCytomix kit (Bender MedSystems), according to the manufacturer's instructions. All assays were performed in duplicate.

### Real-time quantitative PCR

Total RNA was extracted using an RNeasy mini kit with DNase (Qiagen) and reverse transcribed using random hexamer primers and Superscript III reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen). Real-time quantitative PCR was performed using a 7300 Real-Time PCR system (Applied Biosystems) using an assay-on-demand Taqman probe and primers (Hs00174383 for *IL17A*, Hs00243522 for *RANKL*, Hs00203958 for *FOXP3*, Hs00226053 for *RNF128*, Hs00909784 for *CBLB*, Hs00395208 for *ITCH*, Hs00172872 for *EOMES*, Hs00193519 for *MAF*, Hs00231122 for *GATA3*, Hs00894392 for *TBX21*, Hs01076112 for *RORC*, Hs99999901 for *I85*, and Hs99999905 for *GAPDH*), according to the manufacturer's instructions. Relative expression levels of these genes were normalized according to *GAPDH* or *I85* rRNA expression, using a standard curve method as described by the manufacturer. All samples and standards were tested in duplicate.

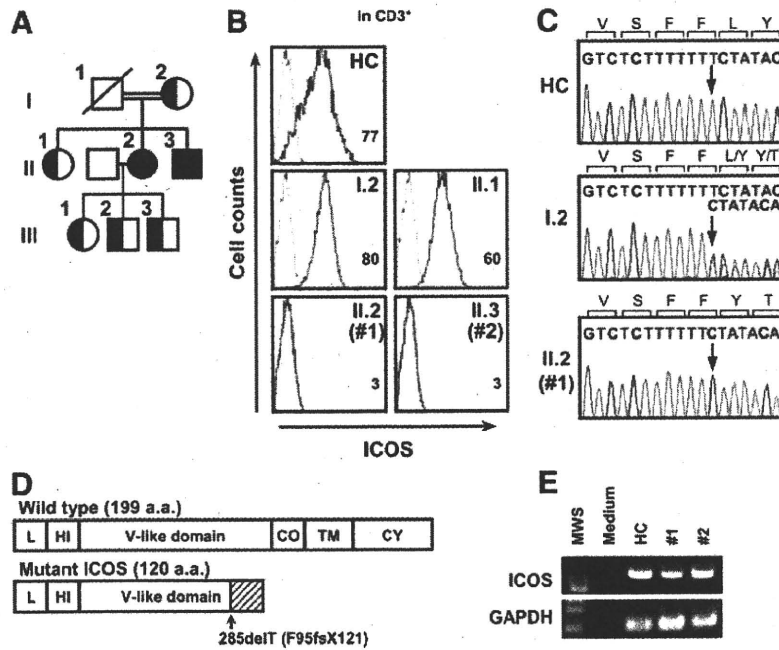
### Oligonucleotide microarray assay

Oligonucleotide microarray assay was conducted with total RNA extracted from a total of  $1-3 \times 10^6$  CD4 T cells stimulated in anti-CD3-coated plates in the presence of anti-CD28 mAb or from unstimulated CD4 T cells, as described previously (38). Data analysis, selection of significant signals, and comparison of the data from multiple samples were conducted, as previously described (38). The results have been deposited in the Gene Expression Omnibus at <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/> (accession number GSE12875).

## Results

### Clinical course of patients and diagnosis of ICOS deficiency

The sister, hereafter designated patient 1, was born in 1967. In her infancy, she had episodes of prolonged viral infection. In 2001, when she developed a pulmonary abscess following appendectomy, she was diagnosed with common variable immunodeficiency according to the European Society for Immunodeficiencies criteria (at the age of 34), and i.v. Ig treatment was started to



**FIGURE 1.** Diagnosis of ICOS deficiency. *A*, Pedigree of the ICOS deficiency patients. Filled symbols represent affected family members (II.2, patient 1; II.3, patient 2). The patients were products of a consanguineous marriage. *B*, Expression of ICOS. PBMCs from patients 1 and 2, their mother (I.2), elder sister (II.1), and a healthy control (HC) were cultured on an anti-CD3 mAb-coated plate in the presence of IL-2 and stained with anti-ICOS mAb (solid line) or control mAb (dotted line). The graphs are gated on CD3 T cells. Mean fluorescence intensity of ICOS is shown in each graph. *C*, Partial sequences of exon 2 of *ICOS* from HC, the mother of the patients, and patient 1. The elder sister of the patients had a heterozygous mutation that was detected in the mother, and the brother (patient 2) had a homozygous mutation at codon 285. *D*, Schematic figure showing the wild-type 199-aa ICOS protein and putative 120-aa mutant ICOS protein obtained from the patients. The shaded area represents the mutant proteins generated by induction of a frameshift at codon 285. L, L region; HI, hydrophilic region; CO, connecting region; TM, transmembrane region; CY, cytoplasmic region. *E*, RT-PCR analysis for *ICOS* mRNA. *ICOS* mRNA (1–597) from anti-CD3/IL-2-stimulated PBMCs from patient 1 (#1) and patient 2 (#2), and HC was amplified by RT-PCR with specific primers. The PCR product was analyzed by agarose gel electrophoresis. MWS, m.w. standard.

maintain the trough IgG level of >4 g/L. In the following years, she developed psoriasis-like cutaneous lesions and arthritis in multiple joints, including bilateral shoulder, wrist, knee, metacarpophalangeal, proximal interphalangeal, and metatarsophalangeal joints. RA was diagnosed on the basis of the findings of proliferative synovitis of multiple finger and toe joints with erosive changes on x-ray examination. Psoriatic arthritis was ruled out based on the joints affected and the x-ray findings. In 2003, she developed abdominal colic, diarrhea, and IP, and had a constantly elevated serum CRP level. Diagnosis of IBD was made upon biopsy of the colon, and both IBD and IP were controlled by prednisolone. She was referred to our hospital in 2006. Methotrexate at 8 mg/week significantly improved not only the articular signs and symptoms of RA, but also the psoriatic skin changes and IBD. The dose of prednisolone was successfully tapered from 15 to 8 mg/day. Since then, she has been on regular Ig supplementation every 2 wk.

The pedigree of the patient is shown in Fig. 1A. The patient had two siblings: her sister was healthy with no immunological abnormalities, whereas her younger brother (hereafter designated patient 2) developed occasional skin abscesses and mild psoriasis-like cutaneous lesions, and had slightly low levels of IgG (611 mg/dL) when examined at the age of 35. The serum IgG level stays at the same level to date; and he is not yet on Ig supplementation.

A summary of the immunological data of patients 1 and 2, the elder sister, and ICOS deficiency patients reported to date (33) is given in Table I. Patient 1 had a slightly reduced B cell count, whereas patient 2 had a normal B cell count. In both siblings, however, CD27<sup>+</sup>IgD<sup>-</sup>-switched memory B cells were virtually

absent in the peripheral blood samples (Table I). The serum samples contained no detectable specific IgG Abs against measles, mumps, or rubella viruses despite a previous record of vaccine inoculation (data not shown). The immunological parameters of patient 2 are unique in that he showed elevated serum IgM (456 mg/dL). The T cells of the patients displayed abundant expression of CD69 and HLA-DR when stimulated via TCRs in the presence of exogenous IL-2 (data not shown), but lacked surface ICOS expression (Fig. 1B). Activated T cells from the mother (I.2) and elder sister (II.1) displayed normal ICOS induction.

Sequencing of the *ICOS* gene revealed the homozygous deletion of T at codon 285, which caused a frameshift in the coding region of *ICOS* and introduced a premature stop codon at aa 121 (F95fsX121) in the patients (Fig. 1, C and D).

Sequencing analysis of the *ICOS* gene in the elder sister and mother demonstrated a heterozygous mutation (Fig. 1C). RT-PCR of *ICOS* mRNA with specific primers amplifying the entire coding region of the *ICOS* gene (1–597) demonstrated the presence of an *ICOS* transcript, suggesting the absence of nonsense-mediated RNA decay (Fig. 1E).

*Decreased memory T cells in ICOS-deficient patients*

A previous report on human ICOS-deficient patients showed a normal distribution of naive, memory, and effector T cells (31, 33, 39). However, as seen in the representative FACS plots in Fig. 2A, we observed a substantial reduction in CD4<sup>+</sup>CD45RO<sup>+</sup> memory cells in the patients compared with age- and gender-matched controls (12.1 and 6.6% for patients 1 and 2, respectively, and 24.5

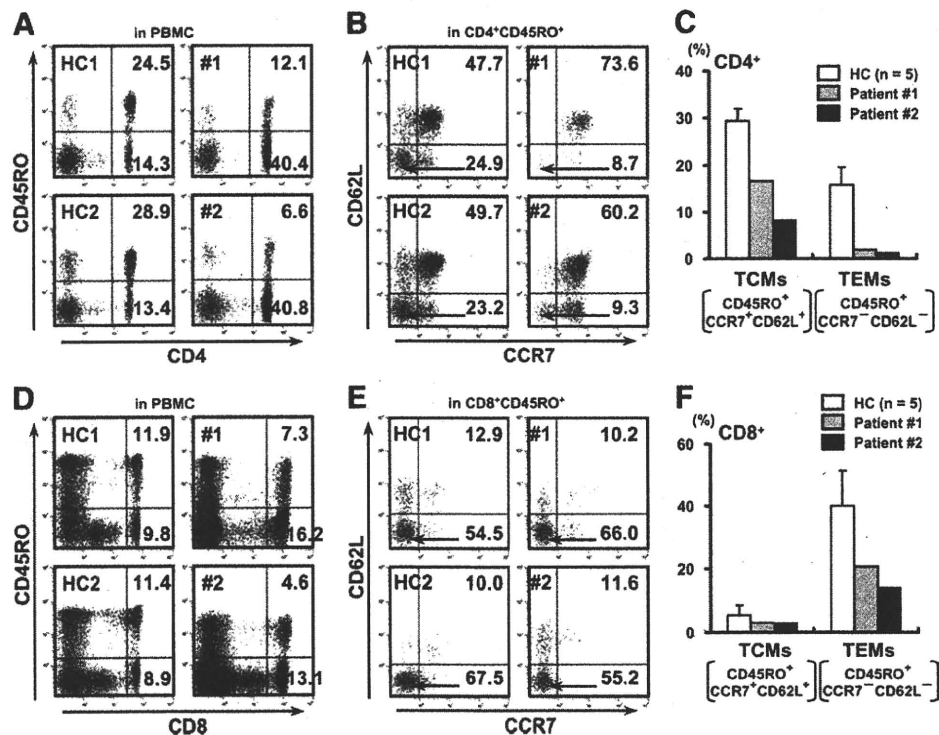
Table I. Summary of immunological data<sup>a</sup>

	Patient 1	Patient 2	Previously Reported ICOS-Deficient Patients (range)	II.1 (hetero)	Normal Range
Lymphocytes (/mm <sup>3</sup> )	1,400 ± 200	1,900 ± 200	353–4,153	1,400	1,200–2,800
Immunophenotype of PBMCs (%)					
CD3	80.5 ± 5.0	72.4 ± 2.0	70.4–95.6	71.7	58–84
CD4	59.5 ± 5.0	55.6 ± 3.0	23.1–59.2	50.5	25–58
CD8	24.1 ± 4.0	19.1 ± 3.0	16.6–64.0	22.5	18–46
CD16	7.8 ± 0.2	11.2 ± 2.0	–	14.5	6–25
CD19	2.1 ± 0.6	4.8 ± 0.5	0.6–21.2	9.7	3–20
CD19 <sup>+</sup> CD27 <sup>+</sup> (%Bc)	0.2	0.8	2.0–12.6	11.4	8–35
CD19 <sup>+</sup> CD27 <sup>+</sup> IgD <sup>-</sup> (%Bc)	0	0.4	0.0–1.3	8.6	7–32
Blastogenesis (cpm)					
PHA	56,100	45,600	78,900–95,700	–	20,500–56,800
Con A	45,300	32,500	–	–	20,300–65,700
Ig					
IgG (mg/dL)	315	611		1,025	900–1,600
IgG1	–	322	2.8–181	–	–
IgG2	–	365	10–71.7	–	–
IgG3	–	19.5	4–44.9	–	–
IgG4	–	< 3.0	0–7	–	–
IgM (mg/dL)	56	456	20–180	143	40–250
IgA (mg/dL)	46	103	6–58	137	100–250
IgE (IU/L)	<5	<5	17.5–38	ND	<173

<sup>a</sup> Immunological data of patients 1 and 2 are summarized. Lymphocyte counts and immunophenotyping of PBMCs were performed on more than three separate occasions; these are expressed as mean ± SD. Ig levels shown are those obtained at diagnosis (before Ig supplementation). Data from previously reported ICOS deficiency (33) and data from the elder sister of the patients are also shown. %Bc: % in B cells.

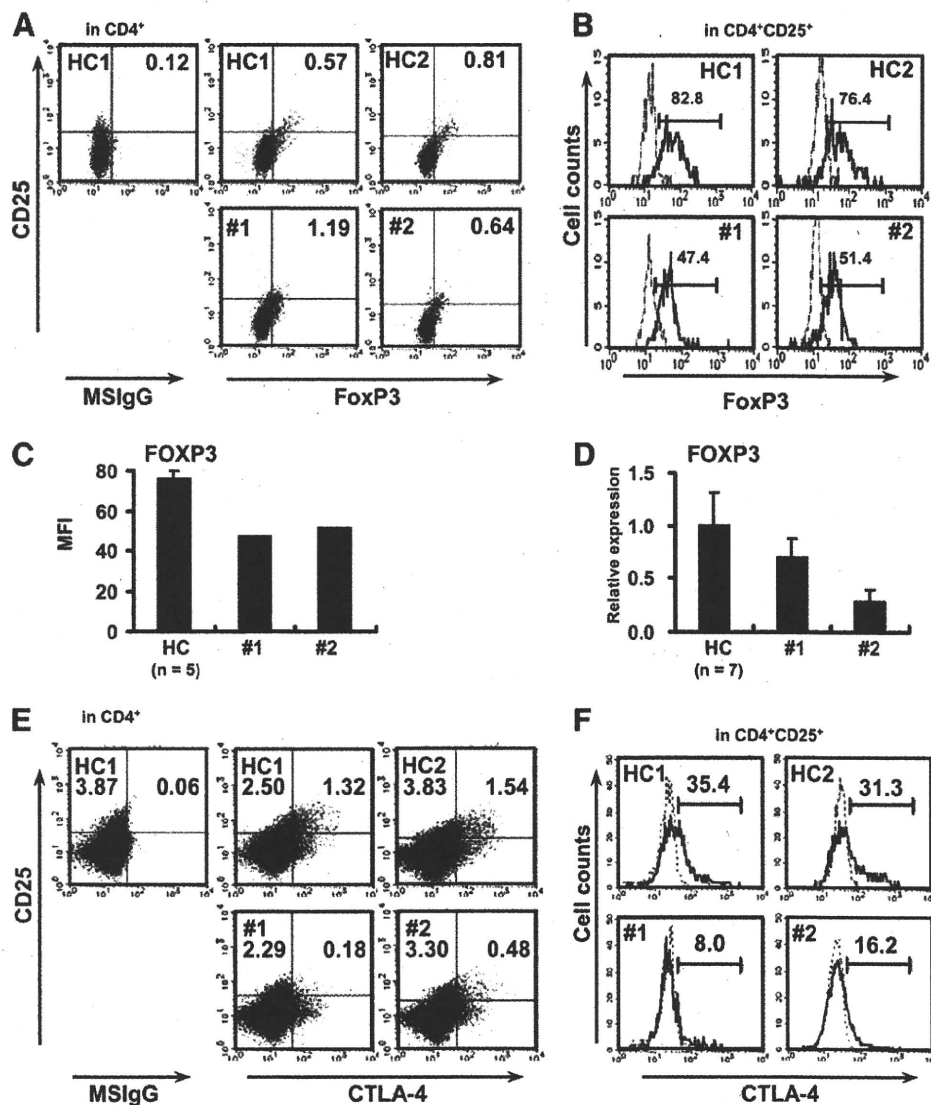
and 28.9% for controls 1 and 2, respectively). This reduction was seemingly counterbalanced by an increased frequency of naive T cells.

Gated CD4 memory T cells from PBMCs were further analyzed for CCR7 and CD62L expression to define CCR7<sup>+</sup>CD62L<sup>+</sup>CD45RO<sup>+</sup> central memory T cells (TCMs) and



**FIGURE 2.** Decrease in memory T cells in ICOS-deficient patients. PBMCs from healthy controls (HC) and ICOS-deficient patients (1 and 2) were analyzed for the frequency of memory T cells. PBMCs were stained with Abs to CD4 or CD8, CD45RO, CCR7, and CD62L to assess memory T cell subsets (A–F). A and D, Representative CD4/CD45RO (A) and CD8/CD45RO (D) dot plots. Values shown in upper and lower right quadrants indicate percentages of the cells among total PBMCs. B and E, TCMs (CCR7<sup>+</sup>CD62L<sup>+</sup>) and TEMs (CCR7<sup>-</sup>CD62L<sup>-</sup>) in the memory CD4 T cell fraction (B) and in the memory CD8 T cell fraction (E). Values indicate frequencies of TCMs and TEMs in the CD4<sup>+</sup>CD45RO<sup>+</sup> population or in the CD8<sup>+</sup>CD45RO<sup>+</sup> population. Representative FACS analyses for healthy controls (HC) and patients are shown. C and F, Summary of percentages of TCMs and TEMs among CD4 T cells (C) and CD8 T cells (F). A □ with error bar represents the mean ± SD values of the indicated subsets from five healthy controls. Mean percentage for the respective subsets from two independent experiments is shown for the patients.

**FIGURE 3.** Decrease in CTLA-4<sup>+</sup> Treg subset in ICOS-deficient patients. **A**, Flow cytometric analysis of intracellular Foxp3 expression in CD4<sup>+</sup>CD25<sup>+</sup> T cells. Numbers in dot plots are percentages of CD25<sup>+</sup>Foxp3<sup>+</sup> cells among CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells. **B**, Mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) of FoxP3 in CD4<sup>+</sup>CD25<sup>+</sup> cells. FoxP3 expression in CD4<sup>+</sup>CD25<sup>+</sup> cells is shown as a contour plot. MFI of FoxP3 is shown in the upper right quadrant. **C**, Summary of MFI of FoxP3 in CD4<sup>+</sup>CD25<sup>+</sup> cells. **D**, Quantitative real-time PCR analysis for FoxP3 gene expression. mRNA expression levels in purified CD4 T cells were calculated with 18S rRNA as a reference, and the relative expression in healthy controls (HC) was adjusted to 1.0. Error bar indicates SD for HC and SEM for patients 1 and 2. **E** and **F**, Expression of CTLA-4 Ag in CD4<sup>+</sup>CD25<sup>+</sup> T cells. Numbers indicate frequencies of CTLA-4<sup>+</sup> and CTLA-4<sup>-</sup> Treg subsets among CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells. PBMCs from five HC were analyzed by FACS. FACS analysis was performed three times for the patients. Representative dot plots (**E**) and contour plots (**F**) are shown. MFI of CTLA-4 in CD4<sup>+</sup>CD25<sup>+</sup> Treg cells is indicated in the plots (**F**).



CCR7<sup>-</sup>CD62L<sup>-</sup>CD45RO<sup>+</sup> TEMs (40). The analysis showed that compared with controls, the patients had 2- to 5-fold fewer TCMs. The reduction in TEMs was more pronounced, with more than 6-fold fewer TEMs in the patients (Fig. 2, *B* and *C*).

A decrease in memory T cells was also observed in CD8 T cells. We observed a reduction in both TCMs and TEMs in patients compared with control subjects ( $n = 5$ ) (Fig. 2, *D-F*).

#### Decreased Tregs in ICOS-deficient patients

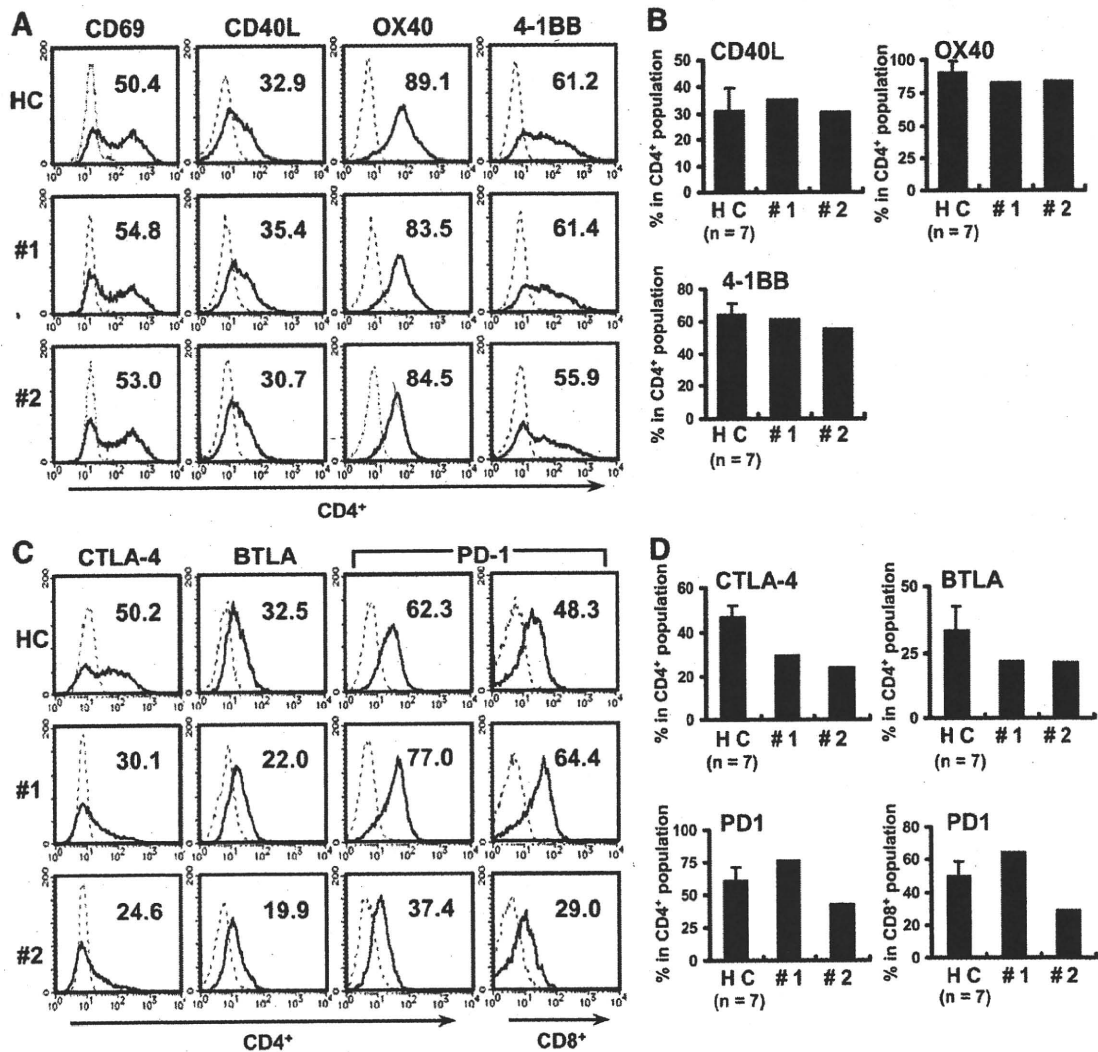
Most Tregs express ICOS, and ICOS<sup>high+</sup> Tregs preferentially produce IL-10 (41). In addition, recent studies have demonstrated the importance of ICOS in proliferation and maintenance of the pool size of FoxP3<sup>+</sup> Tregs (41). We therefore investigated the frequency of Treg cells in the two patients by staining their PBMCs for CD4, CD25, and intracellular FoxP3. Contrary to our predictions, the patients had a normal proportion of CD4<sup>+</sup>CD25<sup>+</sup>FoxP3<sup>+</sup> Tregs (Fig. 3*A*). However, we noted that the expression level of FoxP3, as reflected by the mean fluorescence intensity, was diminished in both patients (Fig. 3, *B* and *C*). To ascertain the low FoxP3 expression obtained in the FACS analysis, we evaluated the level of FoxP3 mRNA in a real-time PCR assay. This showed a marked reduction in FoxP3 expression in patient 2 and a slight decrease in patient 1 compared with the normal subjects ( $n = 7$ ) (Fig. 3*D*).

Recent studies have shown that human CD4<sup>+</sup>CD25<sup>+</sup>FoxP3<sup>+</sup> Tregs comprise two subsets, as follows: IL-10-producing ICOS<sup>-</sup>CD45RO<sup>+</sup>CTLA-4<sup>+</sup> Tregs and TGF- $\beta$ -producing ICOS<sup>-</sup>CD45RA<sup>+</sup>CTLA-4<sup>dim+</sup> Tregs (42). This prompted us to examine CTLA-4 and CD45RO expression in the Tregs of ICOS-deficient patients. Fig. 3, *E* and *F*, demonstrates that most CD4<sup>+</sup>CD25<sup>+</sup> Tregs in these patients were of the CTLA-4<sup>dim+</sup> or CTLA-4<sup>-</sup> subpopulation and expressed CD45RA (data not shown), indicating that the CTLA-4<sup>+</sup> subset of Tregs that potentially produces IL-10 was severely decreased.

#### Defective induction of inhibitory molecules in ICOS-deficient patients

ICOS-null mice showed defective CD40-mediated Ig class switching because of lack of effective CD40L (CD154) up-regulation (15, 16). In contrast, induction of CD40L was normal in the previously reported cases of human ICOS deficiency (33). Up-regulation of 4-1BB (CD137), BTLA (CD272), and CTLA-4 (CD152) was normal in ICOS knockout mice (23), as was that of OX40 (CD134) and CTLA-4 in patients with ICOS deficiency in a previous study (31).

We estimated the expression of these costimulatory and inhibitory receptors on ICOS<sup>-/-</sup> T cells. PBMCs from controls and patients were stimulated with PMA/ionophore (data not shown) or anti-CD3/



**FIGURE 4.** Induction of costimulatory and inhibitory molecules in ICOS-deficient patients. **A**, Induced expression of CD40L, OX40, and 4-1BB. PBMCs from healthy controls (HC) and ICOS-deficient patients (#1 and #2) were stimulated with plate-bound anti-CD3 mAb and anti-CD28 mAb for 48 h and analyzed for CD40L, OX40, and 4-1BB expression by FACS. CD69 expression was monitored as an indicator of cell activation. Numbers indicate percentages of the cell population positive for the indicated Ags among CD4 T cells. A contour plot from one representative control of seven HC is shown for each subset. A dotted line indicates a control staining with isotype-matched Ab. **B**, Summary of frequencies of CD40L, OX40, and 4-1BB in CD4 T cells stimulated as in **A** from HC ( $n = 7$ ) and patients 1 and 2. FACS analysis was performed twice for the patients, and average percentages were plotted. Error bar indicates SD. **C**, Induction of CTLA-4, BTLA, and PD-1. PBMCs were stimulated with plate-bound anti-CD3 mAb and anti-CD28 mAb for 48 h. Cells were stained with Abs to CTLA-4, BTLA, and PD-1 together with anti-CD4 mAb or anti-CD8 mAb. Numbers indicate percentages of cell population positive for indicated Ags among CD4 or CD8 T cells. FACS analysis from one representative control of seven HC is shown for each subset. A dotted line indicates a control staining with isotype-matched Ab. **D**, Pooled data from HC ( $n = 7$ ) and patients (1 and 2). Percentages of CTLA-4<sup>+</sup>, BTLA<sup>+</sup>, and PD-1<sup>+</sup> CD4 T cells among CD4 T cells and that of PD-1<sup>+</sup> CD8 T cells among CD8 T cells from HC and ICOS-deficient patients (1 and 2) after CD3/CD28 stimulation are shown. The FACS analysis was conducted three times for the patients, and average percentages were plotted. Error bar indicates SD.

anti-CD28, and the cells were examined at the end of incubation for the expression of TNF/TNFR family proteins (TNFRI (CD120a), TNFRII (CD120b), CD40L, OX40, and 4-1BB) and of CD28 family proteins (CTLA-4, BTLA, and PD1 (CD279)).

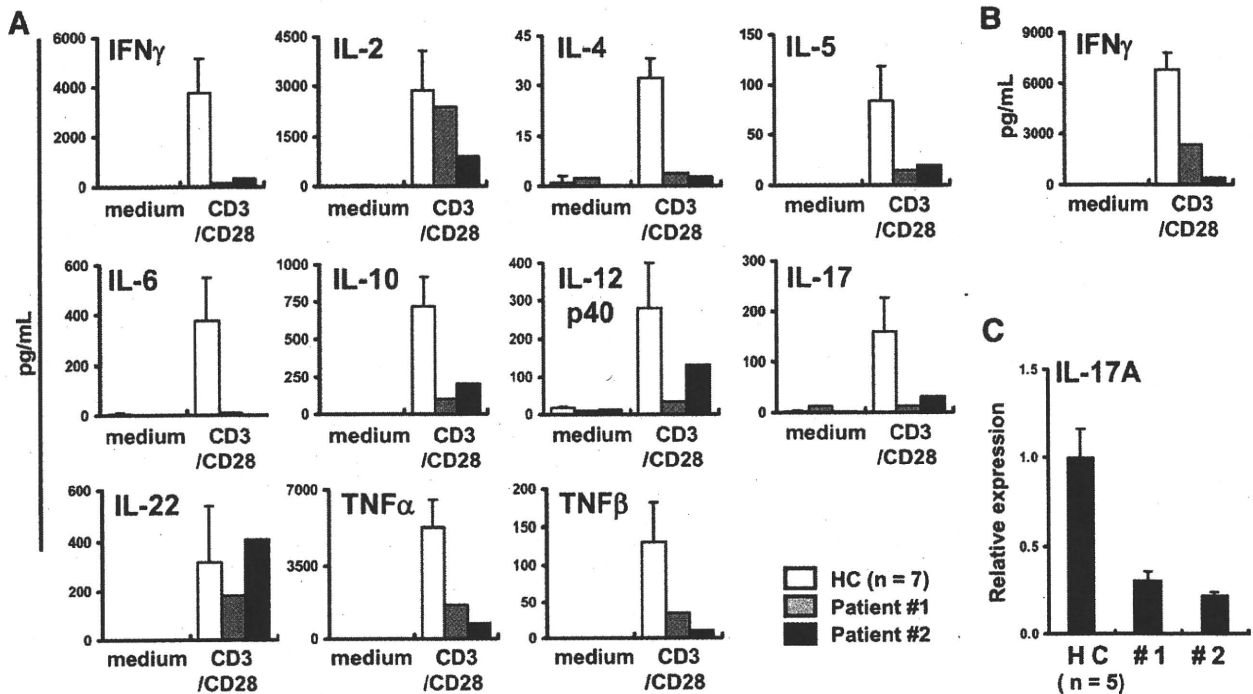
The analysis revealed that CD40L expression was induced normally in the patients' CD4 T cells, indicating that the hyper-IgM phenotype observed in patient 2 was not due to defective induction of CD40L.

T cells were fully activated in the patients at the end of CD3/CD28 stimulation, as evidenced by CD69 Ag expression. The levels of OX40, 4-1BB, TNFRI, and TNFRII were normal on the surface of the T cells in the ICOS-deficient patients (Fig. 4, A and B, and data not shown).

Baseline CD28 expression in CD4 T cells was similar to that of healthy subjects (data not shown). In contrast, the frequency of CTLA-4<sup>+</sup> CD4 T cells after CD3/CD28 costimulation was markedly reduced in the patients (Fig. 4C). Combined data from seven age-matched controls showed that CTLA-4 was induced in  $47.4 \pm 4.9\%$  of CD4 T cells. In contrast, induction was observed in 30.1 and 24.6% of CD4 T cells in patients 1 and 2, respectively (Fig. 4, C and D). Moreover, as seen in the representative plot in Fig. 4C, the expression level of CTLA-4 in the CTLA-4<sup>+</sup> population was also diminished in the patients.

Induction of BTLA, another inhibitory receptor with similarities to CTLA-4 (5), was then estimated. The average percentage of BTLA<sup>+</sup> CD4 T cells was slightly lower in the patients (22.0% for





**FIGURE 5.** Impaired cytokine production in ICOS-deficient patients. *A*, Purified CD4 T cells were stimulated with plate-bound anti-CD3 mAb and anti-CD28 mAb for 24 h or in a medium, and the levels of cytokines in the supernatants were measured by ELISA, FlowCytomix, or both. Error bars for healthy controls (HC,  $n = 7$ ) indicate SD. Experiments were repeated at least twice for the patients, and mean concentrations were plotted. *B*, Purified CD8 T cells were stimulated as in *A*, and the levels of IFN- $\gamma$  in the supernatants were measured by FlowCytomix.  $\square$ , HC;  $\blacksquare$ , patient 1;  $\blacksquare$ , patient 2. Error bars for HC ( $n = 5$ ) indicate SD. Experiments were repeated twice for the patients, and mean concentrations were plotted. *C*, IL-17A mRNA expression. The level of IL-17A mRNA was measured in anti-CD3/anti-CD28-stimulated CD4 $^+$  T cells by real-time PCR. Relative mRNA level of IL-17A was calculated using GAPDH expression as a reference, and the mean expression level for HC ( $n = 5$ ) was adjusted to 1.0. Error bar indicates SD. IL-17A mRNA expression for the patients was measured three times, and is expressed as mean  $\pm$  SEM.

patient 1; 21.4% for patient 2) compared with controls (34.0  $\pm$  8.7%,  $n = 7$ ) (Fig. 4, *C* and *D*).

In the patients, the frequency of CD4 T cells bearing PD1, a molecule that plays a critical role in the induction and/or maintenance of T cell tolerance (1), was similar to that in controls (Fig. 4, *C* and *D*). The percentages of PD1 $^+$  CD8 T cells, which function as inhibitory T cells (43), were slightly reduced only in patient 2 (29.0%) compared with controls (49.8  $\pm$  9.0%,  $n = 7$ ).

#### Impaired production of cytokines in ICOS-deficient patients

We next assessed the production of a panel of cytokines by a FlowCytomix bead-based multiplex assay, ELISA, or both, after incubation of CD4 T cells purified to >95% with costimulation of the TCR-CD3 complex via CD28.

In contrast to previous data obtained in other cases of human ICOS deficiency, the production of IFN- $\gamma$  (Th1 cytokine) and IL-4 and IL-5 (Th2 cytokines) was significantly reduced (Fig. 5*A*) in the patients than in controls (31, 33). Secretion of IL-10 and IL-17 was impaired in the ICOS-deficient patients, in agreement with the previous report (33). To confirm the Th17 defect in the patients, a real-time PCR analysis was used to quantify IL-17A mRNA induction. The results, shown in Fig. 5*C*, demonstrate a significant decrease in relative IL-17A mRNA expression in ICOS-deficient T cells. Furthermore, induction of other cytokines, such as IL-6, IL-12 p40, TNF- $\alpha$ , and TNF- $\beta$ , in CD4 T cells was impaired to various degrees in the patients (Fig. 5*A*).

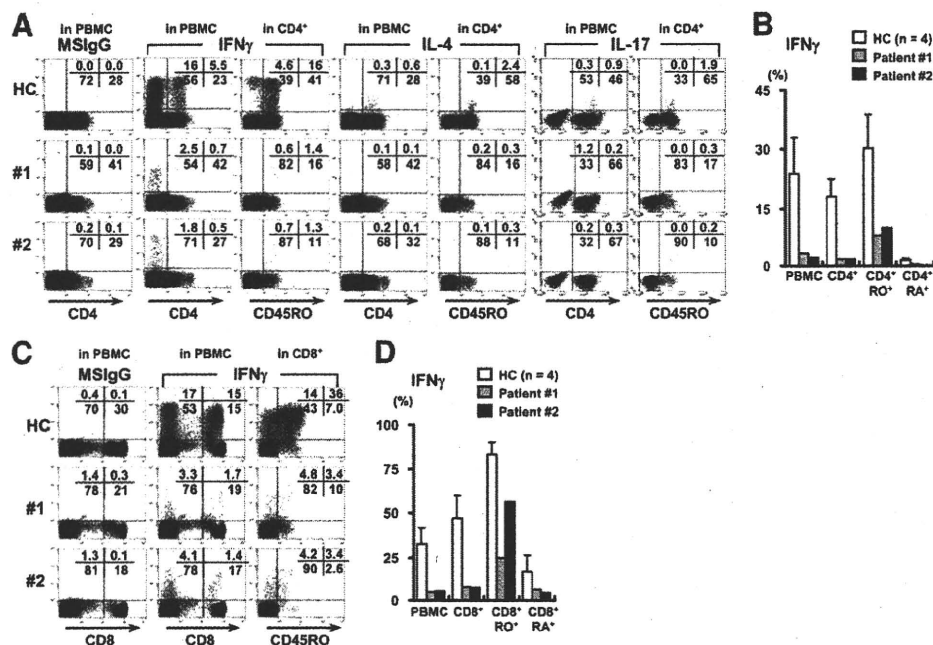
Interestingly, the synthesis of the different cytokines was not equally affected in the absence of ICOS: the production of IL-2 was within  $\pm 1$  SD of normal values, and the IL-22 response was similar to that in controls.

To determine whether the observed defects in effector T cell function can be reproduced by direct activation of intracellular signaling, we examined the capacity of lymphocytes to produce cytokines after PMA/ionomycin stimulation. To that end, intracellular IFN- $\gamma$ , IL-4, and IL-17 were monitored in PBMCs stimulated with PMA/Ca ionophore by flow cytometry. Fig. 6*A* shows that the CD4 T cells of the patients elicited markedly reduced Th1, Th2, and Th17 cytokine responses.

To corroborate these results, we measured the level of cytokines using a FlowCytomix kit in purified CD4 T cells incubated with PMA and ionomycin for 24 h. A similar trend was noted, as follows: the production of IFN- $\gamma$ , IL-5, IL-10, TNF- $\alpha$ , and TNF- $\beta$  was found to be diminished. The capacity of ICOS $^{-/-}$  CD4 T cells to produce IL-2 and IL-6, however, was not markedly impaired (supplemental Fig. 1).<sup>3</sup>

Because CD45RO $^+$  T cells are the major producers of IFN- $\gamma$ , IL-4, and IL-17 (44) (Fig. 6*A*), we considered the possibility that the impaired cytokine responses were due to the decrease in memory CD4 T cells in the patients. To test this, we stimulated PBMCs with PMA/ionomycin and tested for intracellular IFN- $\gamma$ , IL-4, or IL-17 in the CD4 $^+$ CD45RO $^+$  population. Fig. 6, *A* and *B*, shows that memory T cells of the patients produced less IFN- $\gamma$  than the controls. In the controls, 30% of CD45RO $^+$  memory T cells produced IFN- $\gamma$ , whereas in the patients, only  $\sim$ 10% of CD45RO $^+$  memory T cells did so. The synthesis of IL-4 and IL-17 in the memory T cell fraction was marginally decreased in the patients,

<sup>3</sup> The online version of this article contains supplemental material.



**FIGURE 6.** Defective cytokine production in T cells stimulated with PMA/ionomycin in ICOS-deficient patients. *A* and *C*, PBMCs were stimulated with PMA and ionomycin for 5 (IL-17) or 8 h (IFN- $\gamma$  and IL-4). Cells were stained for intracellular IFN- $\gamma$ , IL-4, and IL-17 together with Abs to CD4 and CD45RO or CD45RA. The same experiment was conducted in CD8 T cells for intracellular detection of IFN- $\gamma$ . Intracellular staining of each cytokine in CD4 and CD4<sup>+</sup>CD45RO<sup>+</sup> T cells (*A*) and in CD8 and CD8<sup>+</sup>CD45RO<sup>+</sup> T cells (*C*) is shown. A representative FACS analysis is illustrated for one of four healthy controls (HC) (for CD4), one of five HC (for CD8), and the patients. *B* and *D*, Pooled data on IFN- $\gamma$ -producing cells among PBMCs, CD4 T cells, CD4<sup>+</sup>CD45RO<sup>+</sup> cells, CD4<sup>+</sup>CD45RA<sup>+</sup> cells, CD8 T cells, and CD8<sup>+</sup>CD45RO<sup>+</sup> cells, in HC ( $n = 4$ ) and patients 1 and 2. □, HC; ▒, patient 1; ■, patient 2. Error bar for HC indicates SD. The mean percentage obtained from two separate analyses is shown for the patients.

and the decline was not as clear as that observed in IFN- $\gamma$  production (Fig. 6A).

Importantly, the inability to produce IFN- $\gamma$  does not seem to be restricted to CD4 T cells, because a marked reduction in the IFN- $\gamma$  response was also evident in the CD4-negative population. To assess effector function of CD8 T cells, we directly measured intracellular IFN- $\gamma$  in CD8 T cells and a CD8<sup>+</sup>CD45RO<sup>+</sup> population upon stimulation with PMA/ionomycin. The results displayed in Fig. 6, *C* and *D*, revealed impaired IFN- $\gamma$  production from CD8 T cells and memory CD8 T cells from the patients. The production of IFN- $\gamma$  was also significantly reduced in CD8 T cells stimulated through CD3 and CD28 in the patients (Fig. 5B).

#### Mechanism of defective cytokine production in patients: reduced induction of master regulators of Th1, Th2, and Th17 lineage commitment

We next investigated the mechanisms underlying the T cell unresponsiveness in the patients. One potential explanation is that their T cells did not proliferate well or were prone to apoptosis, or both, in the absence of ICOS expression. To examine this possibility, the proportion of cells that underwent PMA/ionophore-induced cell death was assessed by annexin V/7-AAD staining. The results showed that in the patients, this proportion was similar to or rather lower than that in controls. The proliferative capacity of ICOS<sup>-/-</sup> T cells, as assessed by CFSE staining, showed that their T cells proliferated normally or even more vigorously in response to CD3/CD28 cosignal, with significantly more cells with multiple divisions, relative to controls (supplemental Fig. 2).<sup>3</sup>

Although less likely, the absence of the ICOS-ICOS-L interaction during CD3/CD28 costimulation of CD4 T cells may have contributed to impaired cytokine production in the patients. To test the possible contribution of the ICOS signal in cytokine production, we stimulated purified CD4 T cells from healthy controls

( $n = 5$ ) through CD3/CD28 with or without anti-ICOS-L blocking Ab (45), and measured the level of cytokines in the supernatants. Supplemental Fig. 3, A–C,<sup>3</sup> shows that the effect of ICOS blocking is negligible in this cytokine production assay.

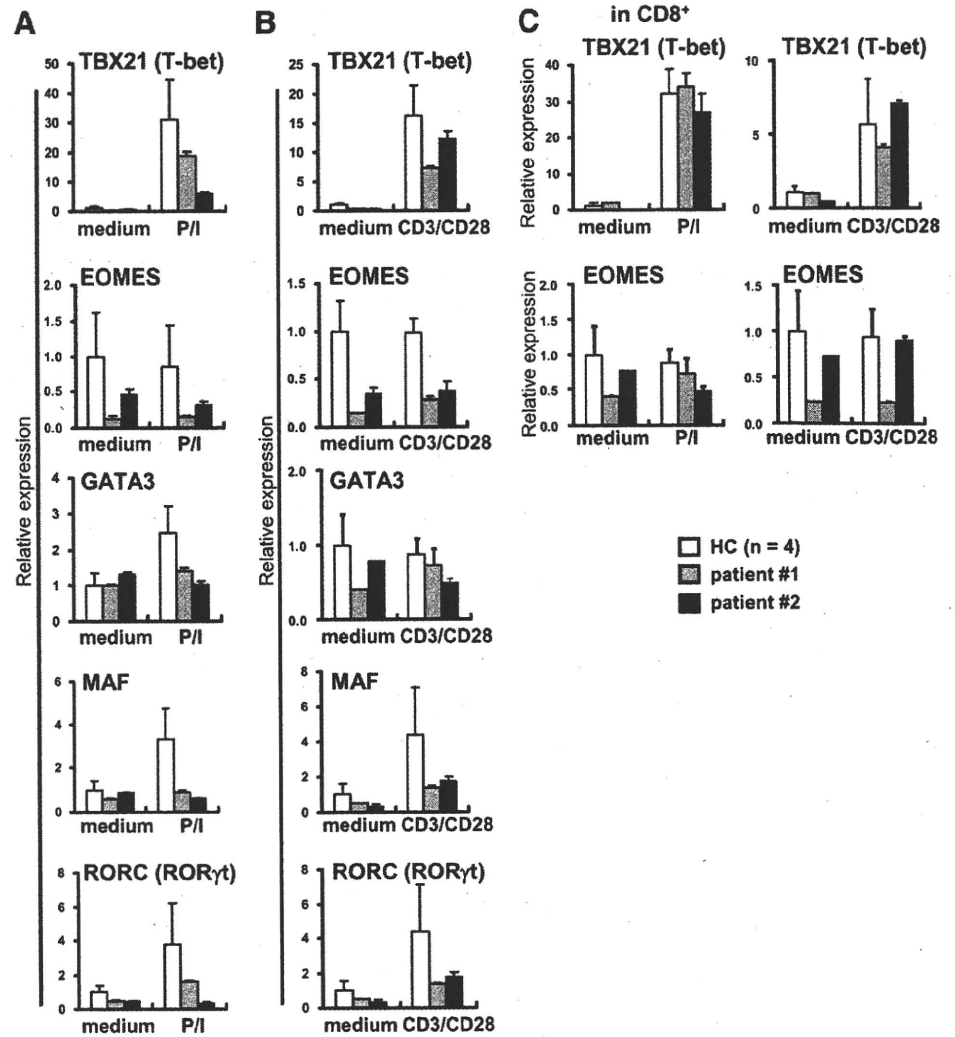
Another explanation for the defective production of effector cytokines is that there were fundamental flaws in their development into effector T cell subsets. We therefore investigated the expression of master transcription regulators of Th1, Th2, and Th17 lineage commitments by quantitative real-time PCR.

Purified CD4 T cells were stimulated with PMA/ionomycin for 4 h or anti-CD3/CD28 for 24 h, and the mRNA expression level of T-bet (for the Th1 lineage) (46), GATA3 and MAF (for the Th2 lineage) (47, 48), and RORC/ROR- $\gamma$  (for the Th17 lineage) (49) was quantified using GAPDH expression as a control, and expressed as relative expression (RE) adjusted for the baseline expression level of healthy controls ( $n = 4$ ), taken as 1.0. We observed reduced PMA/ionophore-driven T-bet induction in ICOS<sup>-/-</sup> CD4 T cells in the patients, and defective induction was more pronounced in patient 2 (Fig. 7A). Compared with controls (RE,  $16.2 \pm 5.3$ ), CD3/CD28-induced T-bet expression was decreased in patient 1 (RE, 7.2), whereas the reduction was less marked in patient 2 (RE, 12.4) (Fig. 7B).

GATA-3 induction was detectable after PMA/ionophore stimulation. In the patients, induction of GATA-3 above the baseline level was virtually absent in CD4 T cells (RE, 1.3 for patient 1, and 1.0 for patient 2) (Fig. 7A). The RE values of MAF in CD4 T cells in response to PMA/ionomycin and TCR/CD28 in controls were  $3.3 \pm 1.4$  and  $4.4 \pm 1.0$ , respectively. In contrast, stimulation-induced MAF expression was virtually absent in both patients (Fig. 7, A and B).

We also observed that the expression levels of RORC in ICOS-deficient CD4 T cells stimulated with CD3/CD28 or PMA/ionomycin were diminished more than 2-fold (Fig. 7, A and B).

**FIGURE 7.** Impaired expression of effector-specific transcription factors for T cell differentiation. Purified CD4 T cells were activated by PMA/ionomycin or incubated in the medium for 4 h (A), or were incubated in the presence or absence of anti-CD3/anti-CD28 costimulation for 24 h (B). Expression levels of TBX21 (T-bet), GATA-3, MAF, RORC (ROR- $\gamma$ t), and EOMES mRNAs were determined in duplicate by real-time quantitative PCR. Similarly, purified CD8 T cells were activated by PMA/ionomycin or by anti-CD3/anti-CD28; and the expression levels of TBX21 and EOMES were assessed in healthy controls (HC). Patients 1 and 2 (C). Levels of each mRNA were expressed as relative expression compared with expression of 18S rRNA, and the mean mRNA expression level in cells from HC cultured in the medium was adjusted to 1.0.  $\square$ , HC;  $\blacksquare$ , patient 1;  $\blacksquare$ , patient 2. Error bars indicate the SD for HC ( $n = 5$ ). The assay was performed three times for the patients; average and SEM are shown. P/I: PMA/ionomycin.



Despite poor IFN- $\gamma$  production by CD8 T cells, we did not observe low T-bet induction in purified CD8 T cells when stimulated by PMA/ionomycin or by anti-CD3/anti-CD28 mAb (Fig. 7C). We then tested the expression of EOMES, a paralog of T-bet and a transcription factor required for CD8 effector function (50, 51). Although induction was negligible, there was a trend toward lower baseline expression of EOMES (0.23 and 0.69 for patients 1 and 2, respectively).

*Expression of the E3 ubiquitin ligases that contribute to T cell anergy*

Several lines of evidence indicate that E3 ubiquitin ligases (Grail, Cbl-b, and Itch) play important roles in the induction and maintenance of T cell tolerance (52–55). T cell stimulation without costimulation leads to up-regulation of these ligases (56). High expression of these E3 ubiquitin ligases is related to the absence of the expression of the effector-specific transcription factors (56, 57). There has been little research on the ligases in human systems. Because anti-CD3 stimulation did not induce appreciable up-regulation of the ligases, we examined the mRNA level of these molecules at baseline and after PMA/ionophore stimulation using a sensitive real-time PCR assay.

As shown in Fig. 8, baseline expression of the E3 ubiquitin ligases, with the exception of Grail, was detected in the controls and patients. The mRNA levels of Cbl-b and AIP4/Itch in the steady state were significantly elevated in patient 2 (2.5 and 4.3)

compared with controls ( $1.0 \pm 0.4$  and  $1.0 \pm 0.6$ ,  $n = 4$ ) and patient 1 (1.0 and 1.3).

PMA/ionophore induced up-regulation of Cbl-b and Itch, but not Grail, in normal subjects, whereas the induction of Cbl-b and Itch mRNA above the baseline level was negligible in patient 2 (Fig. 8).

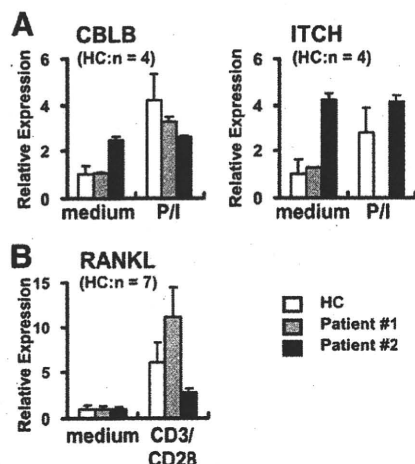
Of particular note was a paradoxical down-regulation of Itch, a regulator of NF- $\kappa$ B activation, upon PMA/ionophore stimulation, which was reproducibly observed only in patient 1.

*RANKL induction was augmented in patient 2 with autoimmunity*

Patient 1 had an autoimmune manifestation and immunodeficiency, whereas patient 2 had mild psoriasis-like cutaneous lesions and mild skin infections. We therefore attempted to uncover differences in T cell functions between two patients.

To explore the dissimilarities in their immune functions, we assessed mRNA expression levels in negatively selected, >97% pure CD4 T cells by comprehensive mRNA expression analysis using a GeneChip before and after stimulation through CD3/CD28.

The expression of most mRNAs from CD4 T cells poststimulation showed a remarkably high correlation between patients 1 and 2. However, we identified >100 genes that were differently expressed between the patients, and sought to identify the gene(s) that may explain the phenotypic difference from these genes.



**FIGURE 8.** A, Expression levels of E3 ubiquitin ligases. Cbl-b and Itch mRNA levels were measured by real-time RT-PCR, as indicated in Fig. 5. Purified CD4 T cells from healthy controls (HC;  $n = 4$ ) and patients (1 and 2) were activated with PMA/ionomycin or incubated in the medium only for 4 h. mRNA levels for Cbl-b and Itch were quantified in duplicate with 18S rRNA as a reference, and baseline expression in HC was adjusted to 1.0. Error bars indicate SD for HC and SEM for patients. Expression of Grail (RNF128) was not detectable before or after stimulation in this assay (data not shown). B, Level of RANKL mRNA expression. CD4 T cells from HC ( $n = 7$ ) and patients (1 and 2) were stimulated with anti-CD3/anti-CD28 mAb, and RANKL mRNA expression was measured. Expression was quantified with 18S rRNA as a reference, and the mean expression level of HC was adjusted to 1.0. □, HC; ▨, patient 1; ■, patient 2. Error bars indicate SD for controls and SEM for patients. P/I: PMA/ionomycin.

Among them, TNFSF11 (RANKL) showed >2-fold higher expression in patient 1 after stimulation. In addition, RANKL expression was >50% higher in patient 1 than in the controls.

Because RANKL was identified as a candidate key molecule involved in the pathogenesis of RA (58, 59), we quantified RANKL mRNA in CD3/CD28-stimulated CD4 T cells by real-time PCR. The result shown in Fig. 8B demonstrates that compared with healthy controls, RANKL induction was higher in patient 1, but lower in patient 2.

## Discussion

In this study, we describe broad defects in T cell function in two siblings with a novel deficiency of human ICOS. Most of the abnormalities presented in this study have not been reported in humans, and some have not been reported in the murine model of ICOS deficiency.

The marked decline in two T cell subpopulations, memory CD4 T cells and CTLA-4<sup>+</sup>CD45RO<sup>+</sup> Tregs, can be explained, at least in part, by a recent observation that the ICOS-ICOS-L interaction plays an important role in the expansion and survival of these effector T cells (23, 60).

With regard to CD4 memory T cells, we observed significant reductions in the numbers of both TCMs and TEMs in the steady state, which were not observed in the previously reported cases of human ICOS deficiency (31–33). A reduction in the number of TEMs, but not of TCMs, was demonstrated in ICOS knockout mice by Burmeister et al. (23). TEMs were decreased up to 4-fold in the steady state; the decrease was more pronounced in older mice. TEMs and TCMs display significant and intermediate ICOS expression, respectively (23). Through detailed research on expansion, differentiation, and survival of effector T cells in the absence of ICOS, they suggested that ICOS controls the pool size of effector T cells. These data suggest that both memory subsets may

require ICOS for proliferation and survival in humans. Therefore, a decline in total memory cells may be observed in ICOS-deficient mice over a longer observation period and/or after recurrent infections. Alternatively, it is equally plausible that the ICOS-ICOS-L interaction plays a pivotal role in commitment to memory T cells.

CTLA-4<sup>+</sup>CD45RO<sup>+</sup>ICOS<sup>+</sup>CD4<sup>+</sup>CD25<sup>+</sup> Tregs, commonly observed in adults, were virtually absent in our ICOS-deficient patients. The reduction was seemingly counterbalanced by an increased number of CTLA-4<sup>+</sup>CD45RO<sup>+</sup> Tregs. Although the contribution of ICOS to the expansion and maintenance of Tregs as a whole has been previously reported (23, 41), our observation addresses the role of ICOS in the maintenance of an IL-10-producing memory subset of Tregs, but not TGF- $\beta$ -producing CTLA-4<sup>+</sup>CD45RO<sup>+</sup>ICOS<sup>+</sup> naive Tregs. Supporting this is the observation that in mice, ICOS<sup>+</sup> Tregs display a strict propensity to undergo rapid apoptosis in culture unless signaled by ICOS-L (23).

The decrease in the number of CTLA-4<sup>+</sup> Tregs may be alternatively explained by defective induction of a gene that regulates Treg development. A recent study in mice has demonstrated that ROR- $\gamma$ t controls the development of IL-10-producing Tregs that coexpress ICOS in addition to CCL20 (61). This finding may suggest that the decrease in CTLA-4<sup>+</sup>CD45RO<sup>+</sup>FoxP3<sup>+</sup> Tregs is a consequence of reduced induction of ROR- $\gamma$ /RORC, as observed in the present study.

Another notable T cell defect in our patients was the impaired capacity of their T cells to mount Th1, Th2, and Th17 responses. Reduced cytokine production was observed not only when the patients' CD4 T cells were activated by costimulatory signals, but also when they were stimulated by PMA/ionomycin.

Although the ICOS-ICOS-L interaction was important *in vivo* in the generation and/or maintenance of effector memory and central memory cells, the absence of an ICOS signal through ICOS-L did not seem to contribute to the T cell effector defects observed in our *ex vivo* experiments. First, ICOS-L expression was not induced in purified T cells upon CD3/CD28 costimulation (supplemental Fig. 3A).<sup>3</sup> In addition, blocking potential ICOS-ICOS-L interaction in the controls did not result in decreased cytokine production or in decreased up-regulation of MAF and RORC (supplemental Fig. 3, B and C).<sup>3</sup>

Additional experiments indicated that there was an abnormality at the level of transcriptional regulation of Th1, Th2, and Th17 polarization, and decreased induction of the master regulators T-bet, GATA-3, MAF, and RORC in the patients. Previous research on mice has shown that ICOS regulates MAF expression and GATA-3 induction (62), and our present study points to an additional role of ICOS in the complete induction of T-bet and RORC.

One major factor contributing to the poor effector T cell responses in the patients could be the decrease in total memory CD4 T cells. This is particularly likely in the case of IL-4 and IL-17 production, because the memory T cells had only mild defect in producing IL-4 and IL-17. Although the CD4<sup>+</sup>CD45RO<sup>+</sup> T cells in the patients displayed a significantly reduced ability to produce IFN- $\gamma$ , the decreased response may be explained by pronounced reduction in TEMs in the patients. To determine whether the memory T cell compartment in our patients is functionally defective or intact on a per cell basis, we would need further analysis of various parameters of the T cell effector functions in naive T cells, TCMs, and TEMs.

Nurieva et al. (56) demonstrated that murine ICOS<sup>-/-</sup> CD4 T cells showed defective induction of T-bet, GATA-3, and EOMES in the absence of CD28 costimulation because of up-regulation of E3 ubiquitin ligases: Grail, Cbl-b, and Itch. It is uncertain whether the augmented baseline expression of E3 ubiquitin ligases is relevant to the observed effector T cell dysfunction, because this was

confirmed only in patient 2. It is rather unlikely that the different expression of the E3 ubiquitin ligases contributed to the T cell defects in the patients because augmented induction of these ligases was not detected in the patients.

In contrast to the global impairment in cytokine synthesis, IL-2 production was only marginally affected. Supporting this observation, induction of transcription factors for IL-2 (c-Jun/c-Fos) was normal in the patients (data not shown). Similarly, induction of IL-21 and TGF- $\beta$  was also unaffected in the CD4 T cells of the patients, although their induction was modest under costimulatory conditions (data not shown). It should be noted that production of IL-22, a Th17 cytokine fundamental for the development of psoriasis, showed normal induction, and that both the patients had psoriatic cutaneous lesions (63). Although whether IL-17A and IL-22 are produced by the same Th17 subset is still unclear (64, 65), our data suggest an IL-22-producing CD4 T cell subset is not functionally impaired in the patients.

Previous studies in mice have shown that ICOS is necessary for optimal CD8 T cell responses (34). ICOS can directly stimulate CD8 T cells (35); and ICOS-Ig-treated mice displayed diminished IFN- $\gamma$  production by CD8 T cells. Our study has demonstrated that CD8 memory cells are reduced in ICOS deficiency, and that CD8 T cells in the absence of ICOS can mount a very low IFN- $\gamma$  response, for the first time in humans. ICOS is induced on terminally differentiated CD28<sup>-</sup>CD8 effector T cells (11), and thus, may play a role in maintaining the CD8 subset. Therefore, a decrease in the number of IFN- $\gamma$ -producing CD8 T cells could be ascribed to the reduction in CD45RO<sup>+</sup> memory CD8 T cells or in CD28<sup>-</sup>CD8 T cells (data not shown) in our ICOS-deficient patients. IFN- $\gamma$  production is regulated by T-bet and EOMES cooperatively or redundantly in CD8 T cells (50, 51). T-bet induction was normal when stimulated with PMA/ionomycin or anti-CD3/anti-CD28, whereas a baseline expression of EOMES was decreased in CD8 T cells in the patients. Although this may explain the impaired production in part, further research on the CD8 T cells stimulated with various common  $\gamma$ -chain cytokines would be necessary to assess whether the transcriptional regulation of CD8 effector functions is impaired in the absence of ICOS.

In addition to the reduced numbers of effector T cells, which either potentiate or inhibit T cell responses, the present study demonstrates for the first time an aberrant induction of negative costimulatory molecules on activated T cells in ICOS-deficient patients. CTLA-4 and BTLA are induced upon activation and transmit an inhibitory signal to T cells to regulate the balance between T cell activation, tolerance, and immunopathology (3–5). Costimulatory and coinhibitory molecules are normally induced in the absence of ICOS in mice and humans (23, 31). In our patients, however, induction of CTLA-4 and BTLA following CD3/CD28 signaling was impaired. Although the molecular basis of the defective expression is still not known, this may be ascribed to the decreased memory T cell subset in the patients. At all events, our findings imply that an inhibitory signal to suppress activated T cells could not be appropriately induced in the patients.

Collectively, these data highlight the positive contribution of ICOS to the maintenance of, or commitment to, effector T cells and a subset of Tregs, and the induction of negative costimulatory receptors on activated T cells. The immunodeficiency in our ICOS-deficient patients, although mild, can be understood by the defects in their effector T cell functions as well as in T cell-dependent B cell help, but a reasonable explanation is still required for the development of autoimmunity, RA, IBD, IP, and psoriasis in ICOS-deficient patients.

Most studies have depicted ICOS as a positive costimulator in the immune reaction. For example, research in ICOS-deficient

mice suggests that ICOS is critically involved in autoimmune development and allogeneic reactions (21, 25–29). There are, however, some results indicating that abrogation of the ICOS-ICOS-L interaction aggravates the disease process. For example, in some initial studies on ICOS-null mice, experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis was unexpectedly exacerbated and allergen-dependent airway sensitivity was augmented (14, 66, 67). What is the role of ICOS in autoimmune development?

Burmeister et al. (23) reported that ICOS supports the expansion and survival of Th1 or Th2 responder cells, Th17 cells, and FoxP3<sup>+</sup> regulatory effector cells. They hypothesized that the absence of ICOS function in a particular mouse model would result in a phenotype reflecting a deficiency of the dominant effector T cell type. Thus, blockade of the ICOS-ICOS-L interaction could mainly affect Treg subsets and lead to the development of autoimmune disorders.

Our observations in human ICOS deficiency may fit the concept of ICOS as an agonist molecule. In our ICOS-deficient patients, defects in T cell function leading to termination of the activated T cell response may have been dominant.

Another question remains, as we observed a wide range of autoimmune diseases in patient 1, but not in patient 2. Although phenotypic variation in siblings with the same mutation is not uncommon in human genetic disorders, there might have been some contributing factor(s).

First, our analysis showed paradoxical down-regulation of Itch expression after PMA/ionophore stimulation in patient 1. Because Itch induction is important in the control of NF- $\kappa$ B activation (55), an activation signal in the absence of CD28 costimulation may have led to continuous inflammation in patient 1.

Second, although the T cell immune functions and stimulation-induced mRNA expression pattern of CD4 T cells were strikingly similar between the siblings, we found that the T cells of patient 1 showed exaggerated induction of RANKL expression and poorer production of IFN- $\gamma$ . Previous studies demonstrated that T cells, which contribute to the development of RA and IBD, were characterized by poor IFN- $\gamma$  production, production of inflammatory cytokines including IL-17A and TNF, and RANKL expression (59). Although IL-17A induction was not increased, the augmented RANKL expression and poor IFN- $\gamma$  production in T cells may have contributed to the autoimmune disease progression. Characterization of RANKL-expressing IL-17A-negative T cells requires further investigation.

Third, we surmised that a major infectious episode may have upset the subtle balance between effector T cells and Tregs in our patients. In fact, patient 1 developed a series of autoimmune disorders after a severe bacterial infection.

Finally, the reason for the apparent discrepancy in T cell functions between the ICOS-deficient patients presented in this study and the ICOS deficiency described in previous reports (31–33) is elusive. One possibility that explains the difference in cytokine production in our patients and ICOS deficiency in previous reports could be different stimulation condition (dose of mAb and incubation period). However, it is unlikely because effective cytokine synthesis from the T cells was not observed in our patients even with an increased dose of anti-CD28 mAb and with longer time periods (supplemental Fig. 4).<sup>3</sup> This indicates the presence of other intrinsic factor(s).

Another possibility is the difference in the mutation site of the ICOS gene. Our patients harbored a homozygous single-base deletion at codon 285 located in the extracellular domain, whereas other ICOS deficiencies have homozygous deletion in exons 2 and 3 of the ICOS gene (33). In addition to defective ICOS expression,

this mutation may result in the expression of a 120-aa ICOS protein that affects immune function, for example, by binding to ICOS-L on B cells, monocytes, or a subset of T cells. Despite extensive investigation, however, we have been unable to demonstrate the expression of a truncated ICOS protein in our patients' lymphocytes.

In summary, the present study on T cell functions in two novel ICOS-deficient patients has shown that the interaction between ICOS and ICOS-L is critical for the development and maintenance of multiple types of effector cells and Tregs, and that the defects are at least in part due to diminished memory T cells and/or impaired induction of master regulators. Collectively, the results of our study highlight a major role of ICOS as a coordinator of T cell immune responses and T cell maintenance.

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## Disclosures

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# Clinical and Genetic Features of Familial Mediterranean Fever in Japan

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**ABSTRACT.** *Objective.* Familial Mediterranean fever (FMF) is thought to be a rare disorder in Japan, and the clinical features of Japanese patients with FMF remain unclear. Our aim was to elucidate the clinical characteristics of FMF in Japanese patients.

*Methods.* We analyzed clinical and genetic data of 80 patients based on the results of a nationwide questionnaire survey and review of the literature.

*Results.* From clinical findings of 80 Japanese patients, high-grade fever was observed in 98.8%, chest attacks (pleuritis symptoms) in 61.2%, abdominal attacks (peritonitis symptoms) in 55.0%, and arthritis in 27.5%. Twenty-four percent of patients experienced their first attacks before 10 years of age, 40% in their teens, and 36% after age 20 years. Colchicine was effective in many patients at a relatively low dose (< 1.0 mg/day). AA amyloidosis was seen in only 1 patient. Common *MEFV* mutation patterns were E148Q/M694I (25.0%), M694I alone (17.5%), and L110P/E148Q/M694I (17.5%), and no patient carried the M694V mutation, the most common mutation in Mediterranean patients with FMF.

*Conclusion.* A larger than expected number of patients with FMF exist in Japan, and the clinical presentation of Japanese FMF patients seems to be relatively milder than those of Mediterranean FMF patients. AA amyloidosis rarely occurs in Japanese patients, probably due to difference in patterns of the *MEFV* genotype between Japanese and Mediterranean patients. (First Release June 15 2009; J Rheumatol 2009;36:1671-6; doi:10.3899/jrheum.081278)

*Key Indexing Terms:*

FAMILIAL MEDITERRANEAN FEVER  
NATIONWIDE QUESTIONNAIRE

*MEFV* GENE

JAPANESE PATIENTS  
AA AMYLOIDOSIS

Familial Mediterranean fever (FMF) is an autosomal recessive disorder characterized by recurrence of fever, polyserositis, and erysipelas-like skin lesions<sup>1</sup>. This disorder is the most common form of hereditary periodic fevers and there are over 100,000 patients around the world<sup>2</sup>, but it predominately affects populations from the Mediterranean basin including non-Ashkenazi Jews, Arabs, Armenians, and Turks<sup>1,3</sup>. FMF is caused by mutations in the Medi-

terranean fever gene (*MEFV*) on chromosome 16p13.3, encoding a 781-amino acid protein denoted pyrin/marennos-trin<sup>4,5</sup>. Over 170 sequence variants have been recorded in the dedicated database of the Registry of Familial Mediterranean Fever and Hereditary Auto-inflammatory Disorders Mutations, infevers (<http://fmf.igh.cnrs.fr/ISSAID/infervers/>). The variants V726A, M694V, M694I, M680I, and E148Q are the most frequent, accounting for 74% of all sequence variants<sup>6</sup>. Development of reactive AA amyloidosis is the most devastating complication of the disease<sup>1,7</sup>. The mainstay of therapy is daily colchicine, which prevents the attacks and the development of reactive AA amyloidosis<sup>7</sup>.

In Japan, several patients with recurrent fever were clinically diagnosed as having FMF after 1976<sup>8</sup>. In 2002, the *MEFV* gene mutation was confirmed in a few Japanese patients with periodic fever<sup>9,10</sup>, and since then a number of FMF patients diagnosed by DNA analysis have also been described. However, FMF is still recognized as quite rare in Japan, and it remains unclear whether the clinical features of Japanese patients are the same as those of Mediterranean patients or not. To elucidate the clinical features of Japanese patients with FMF, we studied clinical findings from 80 patients.

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## MATERIALS AND METHODS

**Patients.** Clinical records of 80 Japanese FMF patients with *MEFV* gene mutations were studied. Clinical diagnosis of FMF was performed according to the Tel-Hashomer criteria<sup>11</sup>. Thirty-nine patients were diagnosed at Shinshu University Hospital between 2002 and 2007, including some previously reported<sup>9,12-15</sup>. Clinical data of the remaining 41 patients were obtained from a nationwide questionnaire survey (described below) and/or by review of the literature.

**Nationwide questionnaire.** To determine clinical features of patients, we carried out a nationwide questionnaire survey on FMF in 2006. The questionnaire was mailed to 1850 departments of internal medicine and pediatrics in Japan, asking about the number of FMF patients clinically diagnosed on the basis of the Tel-Hashomer criteria and/or the number of patients confirmed genetically, and the number of FMF patients with reactive systemic AA amyloidosis, between 1996 and 2006. Departments that answered that they had patients with FMF were sent another questionnaire asking for more detailed clinical information including the type of *MEFV* gene mutations. The protocol of these surveys was approved by the ethical committee of Shinshu University.

**DNA testing of *MEFV* gene.** DNA analysis of the *MEFV* gene was performed in patients with suspected FMF. Exon 2 and exon 10 with their flanking intronic sequences of the *MEFV* gene were amplified by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) using primers shown in Table 1. Exon 2 was amplified in 2 overlapping PCR fragments, exon 2a and exon 2b. Amplified PCR products were analyzed by direct sequencing (DNA Analyzer 3730xl; Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA). In patients without mutations in either exon 2 or 10 of the *MEFV* gene, other exons were also analyzed by direct sequencing after amplification of each exon<sup>16</sup>. An L110P mutation in exon 2 was analyzed by restriction fragment-length polymorphism (RFLP) analysis with *Sma* I restriction enzyme in addition to the DNA sequence analysis. An E148Q in exon 2 was also detected by RFLP with *Bst*NI restriction enzyme after amplification using Exon2E148QF and Exon2E148QR as primers (Table 1).

**Allele frequency analysis.** Allele frequencies of L110P, E148Q, and M694I were analyzed in 51 healthy individuals and were compared to those in 39 patients with genetically diagnosed FMF at our institution. L110P and E148Q were analyzed by RFLP and M694I by the amplification refractory mutation system<sup>17</sup>. Differences in allele frequencies between the 51 healthy controls and the 39 FMF patients were compared statistically by the chi-square test.

Prior to the study, detailed informed consent was obtained from all patients following a clear explanation of the purpose of the study. Our genetic study protocol was approved by the local ethics committee.

## RESULTS

The results of the questionnaire survey are shown in Table 2. Total response rate was 37.9%. The total number of patients who met the diagnostic criteria<sup>11</sup> was 131. Of the

131, 86 patients carried *MEFV* gene mutations (Table 2). Among these, detailed clinical data including the type of *MEFV* mutation were obtained from 58 patients (Figure 1); 39 of these patients were diagnosed at Shinshu University. The clinical data of the remaining 19 patients were obtained by the second survey; 13 of these patients had also been reported previously<sup>10,18-22</sup>. Unfortunately, further information such as the genotype in the other 28 of the 86 patients could not be obtained in the second survey.

In the nationwide survey, reactive AA amyloidosis associated with FMF was noted in 5 patients (3.8%; Table 2). One of them had already been described<sup>10</sup>, but detailed clinical information on the other 4 patients could not be obtained from the second survey.

**Clinical data.** The results for the 58 patients whose clinical data were obtained by the nationwide survey (Table 2) and also those of 22 patients who had been described elsewhere<sup>12,22-27</sup> were studied (total 80 patients; Figure 1), as summarized in Table 3. Forty-nine patients (61.3%) did not have a family history suggestive of FMF (data not shown in the table). The male to female ratio was 33:47. The mean age at onset was  $17.3 \pm 10.7$  years (data not shown); 19 patients (23.8%) experienced their first attacks before 10 years of age, 32 patients (40.0%) in their teens, 20 patients (25.0%) in their twenties, and 9 patients (11.3%) after age 30 years. Surprisingly, the age of onset was 53 years in one patient<sup>26</sup>. The mean age at diagnosis was  $29.5 \pm 13.7$  years and the mean period from disease onset to diagnosis was  $13.2 \pm 11$  years (data not shown).

High-grade fever (febrile attack) was the symptom seen most frequently (98.8%). Chest attack (pleuritis symptoms) was observed in 61.2% of patients and abdominal attack (peritonitis symptoms) in 55.0%. The frequency of arthritis was 27.5% and erysipelas-like erythema was seen in 10% of patients.

Colchicine was orally administered to 47 patients, and a favorable therapeutic effect was seen in at least 40 (85.1%). Information on efficacy was not obtained in the questionnaire survey in 5 patients. The daily dose of colchicine in 28 patients is shown Table 4, and 26 of these were treated with a relatively low dose (< 1.0 mg/day), among whom were 3 patients under 15 years of age. No patient required over 2.0

Table 1. Primers and polymerase chain reaction conditions.

	Primer	Annealing Temperature, °C
Exon2aF	5'-GCA TCT GGT TGT CCT TCC AGA ATA TTC C-3'	62
Exon2aR	5'-CTT TCC CGA GGG CAG GTA CA-3'	
Exon2bF	5'-CAG GCC GAG GTC CGG CTG CG-3'	62
Exon2bR	5'-CTT TCT CTG CAG CCG ATA TAA AGT AGG-3'	
Exon10F	5'-CCG CAA AGA TTT GAC AGC TG-3'	60
Exon10R	5'-TGT TGG GCA TTC AGT CAG GC-3'	
Exon2E148QF	5'-GCC TGA AGA CTC CAG ACC ACC CCG-3'	55
Exon2E148QR	5'-AGG CCC TCC GAG GCC TTC TCT CTG-3'	

Table 2. Results of the nationwide questionnaire survey.

Feature	Internal Medicine	Pediatrics	Total
Departments surveyed	1338	512	1850
Response rate (%)	437 (32.7)	264 (51.6)	701 (37.9)
Total no. of FMF patients	86	45	131
No. of FMF patients determined by gene analysis	49	37	86*
FMF patients with AA amyloidosis	4	1	5

\* Clinical data of 58 out of 86 patients were available in this study.

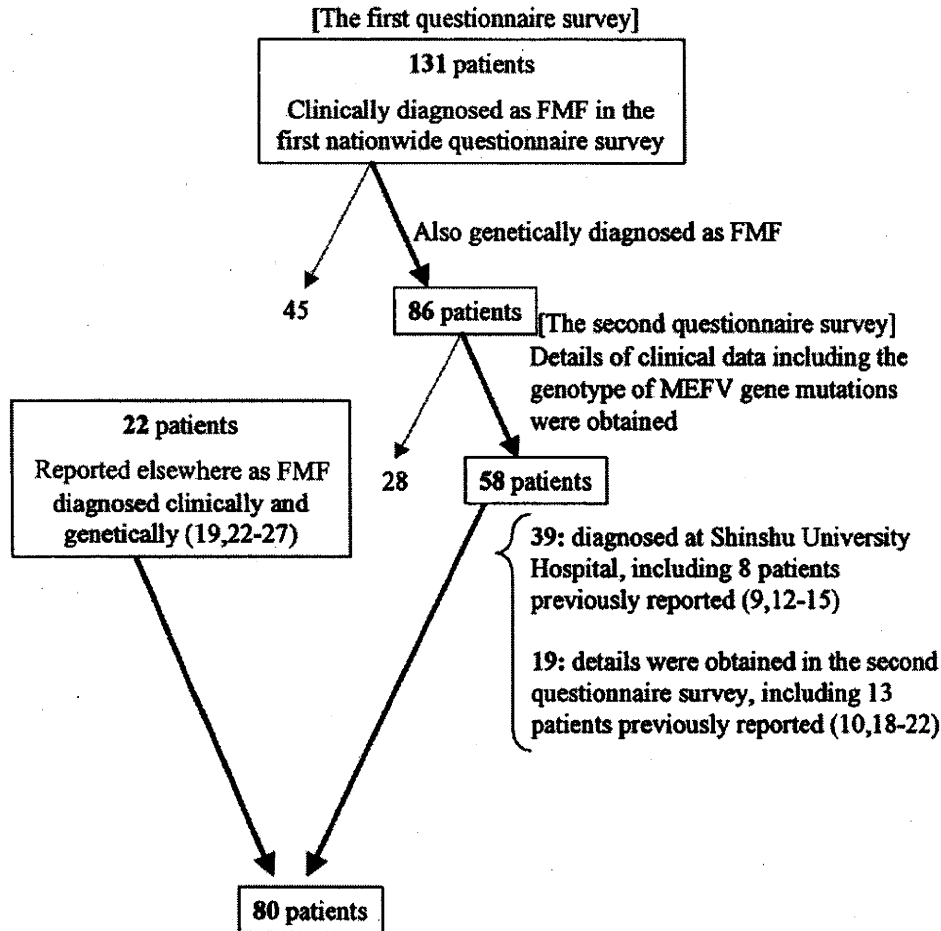


Figure 1. The process of patient selection in this study.

mg/day colchicine to prevent attacks. No effect was observed in 2 patients receiving 1.0 mg/day colchicine (Table 4), but the daily dose could not be increased due to severe diarrhea and bone marrow suppression<sup>10,12,13</sup>. At least 21 patients had not been treated with colchicine. As alternative treatments to colchicine, azelastine was used in one patient, with mild effectiveness, and a combined therapy with infliximab and low-dose methotrexate was effective in one patient<sup>12,13</sup>. In one patient interferon- $\alpha$  was also effective<sup>25</sup>, and the herbal medicine "Sho-Saiko-To (TJ-9)"

(Tsumura, Tokyo, Japan) was reported to be effective in another patient<sup>20</sup>.

Five patients (6.3%) had also been diagnosed as having Behçet's disease (data not shown) before the *MEFV* mutation was identified. Of the 80 patients, only one (1.3%), who was homozygous for the M694I mutation, had reactive systemic AA amyloidosis<sup>10</sup>.

*MEFV gene mutations.* The genotypes of the *MEFV* gene in the 80 patients are shown in Table 5. Common *MEFV* mutation patterns were E148Q/M694I (20 patients, 25.0%),

Table 3. Clinical presentations of 80 patients with FMF.

< 10	Age at Onset, yrs, n (%)					Sex, Male, n (%)	Clinical Manifestations, n (%)					
	10-19	20-29	30-39	40-49	> 50		Fever	Pleuritis	Peritonitis	Arthritis	Erysipelas-like Erythema	Amyloidosis
19 (23.8)	32 (40.0)	20 (25.0)	6 (7.5)	2 (2.5)	1 (1.3)	33 (41.3)	79 (98.8)	49 (61.2)	44 (55.0)	22 (27.5)	8 (10.0)	1 (1.3)

Table 4. Dose of colchicine in 28 patients. Number of patients in whom colchicine was effective is given in parentheses.

Dose mg/day	No. Patients
≤ 0.5	13 (11)*
1	13 (10)**†
1.5	1 (1)
2	1 (1)
> 2.0	0

\* The efficacy was unclear in 2 patients. \*\* Efficacy was unclear in one patient in our survey. † No efficacy was observed in 2 patients.

Table 5. Genotypes of *MEFV* gene of the 80 cases.

<i>MEFV</i> mutation	No. Patients (%)
E148Q/M694I	20 (25.0)
M694I/normal	14 (17.5)
L110P/E148Q/M694I	14 (17.5)
L110P/E148Q	9 (11.3)
M694I/M694I	5 (6.3)
L110P-E148Q/E148Q	4 (5.0)
L110P/M694I	2 (2.5)
E148Q/P369S/R408Q/S503C	2 (2.5)
L110P-E148Q/L110P-E148Q	2 (2.5)
R202Q/M694I	1 (1.3)
E148Q/E148Q-R761H	1 (1.3)
L110P/E148Q/P369S/R408Q	1 (1.3)
E148Q/P369S/R408Q	1 (1.3)
P369S/R408Q	1 (1.3)
E148Q/R202Q	1 (1.3)
E148Q/E148Q	1 (1.3)
E84K/normal	1 (1.3)

M694I alone (14 patients, 17.5%), and L110P/E148Q/M694I (14 patients, 17.5%). Nine patients (11.3%) had L110P/E148Q and 5 (6.3%) were homozygous for the M694I mutation. The majority of patients carried E148Q (56 patients) or M694I (56 patients) at least on an allele, but L110P was also identified in 32 patients. As minor mutations, E84K<sup>19</sup>, R202Q, P369S, R408Q, S503C<sup>18</sup>, and R761H were found in some patients (Table 5), but most of those mutations were detected with L110P, E148Q, or M694I. Only 2 patients, who had P369S/R408Q or E84K alone<sup>19</sup>, did not carry L110P, E148Q, or M694I. The other mutations, including M694V, M680I, and V726A in exon 10, which were common in Mediterranean patients with FMF<sup>28</sup>, were not found in these 80 patients.

Allele frequencies of L110P, E148Q, and M694I in 51

healthy individuals (102 alleles) were 0.039, 0.26, and 0, respectively. On the other hand, allele frequencies of these 3 mutations were examined in 39 FMF patients and the results were 0.31 (L110P), 0.44 (E148Q), and 0.35 (M694I). The differences in allele frequencies between healthy populations and those with FMF were statistically significant ( $p < 0.001$  for L110P and M694I;  $p < 0.02$  for E148Q).

## DISCUSSION

*Clinical features of Japanese patients with FMF.* Our study shows that the clinical pictures of Japanese patients with FMF seem to be different from those of Mediterranean patients. The frequencies of cardinal clinical symptoms during attacks in Japanese and Mediterranean FMF patients<sup>2</sup> are shown in Table 6. Mediterranean patients almost always have abdominal symptoms due to peritonitis<sup>2</sup>. However, the frequency of abdominal symptoms in Japanese patients was relatively low (55.0%). Because the frequencies of chest symptoms due to pleuritis, arthropathy, and erysipelas-like erythema are quite variable even among Mediterranean FMF patients, no clear differences were seen in such symptoms between Mediterranean and Japanese patients. In the literature, the relation between severity of the disease and the diet low in animal fat is discussed, and in particular, it was reported that butter ingestion appeared to provoke peritonitis attacks<sup>29</sup>. Although the mechanism of the low frequency of abdominal symptoms in Japanese patients remains unclear, the difference in diet between Japanese and Mediterranean FMF patients may have effects on the difference of phenotype.

Because of atypical symptoms like high fever or abdominal pain, 5 patients with Behçet's disease underwent the *MEFV* gene analysis. All of them clinically met the Tel-Hashomer criteria and were therefore diagnosed as having both FMF and Behçet's disease. However, there was no significant difference between the patients with con-

Table 6. Frequency of symptoms during attack (%) in different races.

	Japanese (80 cases)	Mediterranean populations <sup>2</sup>			
		Turks	Jews	Arabs	Armenians
Fever	98.8	93	100	100	100
Peritonitis	55.0	94	95	82	96
Pleuritis	61.3	31	40	43	87
Arthritis	27.5	47	77	37	37
Erysipelas-like erythema	10.0	21 <sup>†</sup>	46	3	8

comitant Behçet's disease and the patients with FMF alone in terms of the clinical severity of FMF symptoms.

With regard to age at disease onset, 90% of FMF patients experience their first attacks before the age of 20 years and the percentage of patients with onset at age over 30 is less than 5% in the Mediterranean area<sup>2,3</sup>. In Japanese patients, 63.8% of patients experienced their first attack before age 20 and 11.3% of patients after age 30, indicating that FMF onset in Japanese patients was much later than in Mediterranean patients. The Turkish FMF Study Group reported that the mean period from disease onset to diagnosis of FMF in Turkey was  $6.9 \pm 7.65$  years<sup>28</sup>, and there may also be a delay in the diagnosis of FMF in Japanese patients, probably due to the low recognition of this disorder in Japan.

Administration of colchicine is known to be the most effective therapy for FMF to reduce the frequency, duration, and severity of attacks in most patients, and it has commonly been used in doses of 1.0–2.0 mg/day<sup>2</sup>. Moreover, Pras, *et al* noted that 30% of North African Jewish patients needed 2 mg or more of colchicine to control their symptoms<sup>30</sup>. In our study a small dose of colchicine, not over 1.0 mg/day, showed a favorable therapeutic effect in the majority of Japanese patients, so a relatively lower dose of colchicine may control the attacks of FMF symptoms in Japanese as described<sup>21</sup>.

*Prevalence of reactive systemic AA amyloidosis in Japanese patients with FMF.* Although the incidence of reactive systemic AA amyloidosis in Mediterranean FMF patients varies in different ethnic groups, AA amyloidosis occurs very frequently in North African Jews (12.4%–26%), Iraqi Jews (9.5%–15%), Ashkenazi Jews (11%), Arabs (12%), Armenians (24%), and Turks (12.9%)<sup>28,30–32</sup>. On the other hand, the prevalence of AA amyloidosis in our study was quite low. Of 80 patients, only one male patient<sup>10</sup> had AA amyloidosis, which had been detected 3 years before the *MEFV* gene mutation (M694I) was identified. At the time he was diagnosed as having amyloidosis, he did not receive treatment with colchicine. However, in 21 out of 80 FMF patients who had not been treated with colchicine, to date no patient has had AA amyloidosis. Thus, the prevalence of AA amyloidosis associated with FMF in Japanese would appear to be lower than in Mediterranean patients, regardless of treatment with colchicine.

*Genotype of MEFV gene in Japanese patients with FMF.* The characteristics of the genotype of the *MEFV* mutations in Japanese patients were that almost all patients were homozygous, heterozygous, compound heterozygous, and/or complex allele for L110P, E148Q, and/or M694I. The correlation between the *MEFV* genotype and phenotype (severity of the disease) in FMF has been well discussed. The C-terminal B30.2 domain of pyrin encoded by exon 10 is known to play an important role in its function, interacting directly with caspase-1 to modulate interleukin 1 $\beta$  pro-

duction<sup>33</sup>. In addition, the methionine residue in codon 694 makes a crucial contribution to the function of pyrin<sup>34</sup>. Thus, the mutations in codon 694 are considered to produce severe symptoms with early onset and high frequency of attacks and the necessity of a high dose of colchicine to prevent attacks<sup>2</sup>. In particular, the M694V mutation is regarded as a significant risk factor for secondarily developing amyloidosis<sup>3,7,35</sup>. However, in our study none of the 80 patients carried this mutation. While the M694I mutation was the one most frequently found in Japanese patients, the majority of the patients were compound heterozygous or complex allele for M694I and other mutations producing a relatively milder phenotype such as E148Q and/or L110P, or heterozygous for M694I alone. In addition, numbers of Japanese patients were compound heterozygous or complex allele for E148Q and L110P, so the characteristics of Japanese patients such as late onset and low prevalence of AA amyloidosis would be associated with differences of *MEFV* genotype compared with Mediterranean patients.

It remains controversial whether the E148Q mutation is a disease-causing mutation or a simple polymorphism because of high allele frequency in healthy controls<sup>36–39</sup>. However, it has been reported that most homozygote or compound heterozygote patients associated with other *MEFV* mutations are symptomatic<sup>40,41</sup>, and it has also been noted that the allele frequency of E148Q is significantly higher among patients with AA amyloidosis and chronic fever of unknown origin<sup>41</sup>. Moreover, the E148Q mutation was described as producing a milder FMF phenotype with low penetrance<sup>2,6</sup>. While in our study 5 healthy controls were proved to be homozygous for E148Q, the allele frequency of E148Q in patients with FMF was significantly higher than in healthy individuals. Hence we also consider that this mutation can cause FMF, especially when patients are compound heterozygous for E148Q and other *MEFV* mutations or homozygous for E148Q<sup>14</sup>.

The L110P mutation was first reported in 2000<sup>42</sup>, and to date, several patients have been reported to be compound heterozygote with other mutations even in Japan<sup>19,21</sup>. In our study, 30 out of the 80 patients carried L110P as heterozygote with other mutations, and among these, 28 were compound heterozygous or complex allele for L110P and E148Q. Moreover, there was a significant difference in the frequency between FMF and healthy populations. Therefore, it is considered that L110P can also be associated with the onset of FMF.

Although it is true that *MEFV* gene analysis is needed to establish a definite diagnosis in suspected cases of FMF, *MEFV* mutations are not always found on both alleles even in typical FMF patients<sup>7</sup>. Therefore, diagnosis based on the clinical diagnostic criteria, family history, and the patient's response to colchicine treatment is of great importance in this disorder.

Our study indicates that the clinical presentations and the