Human TYK2 deficiency: Mycobacterial and viral infections without hyper-IgE syndrome

Alexandra Y. Kreins,1,2 Michael J. Ciancanelli,1 Satoshi Okada,1 Xiao-Fei Kong,1 Noé Ramírez-Alejo,1 Sara Sebenni Klik,1,3 Jamila El Baghdadi,1,3 Shigeaki Nonoyama,1,3 Seyed Alireza Mahdaviani,1,3 Fatima Allal,1,3 Aziz Bousfiha,1,3 Davood Mansouri,1,3 Elma Nievas,1,3 Cindy S. Ma,1,10 Geetha Rao,1,10 Andrea Bernasconi,1,12 Hye Sun Kuehn,13 Julie Niemela,13 Jennifer Stoddard,13 Paul Deveau,15,16 Aurelie Cobat,15,16 Safa El Azaoui,1,4,17 Ayoub Sabri,1,4,17 Che Kang Lim,1,18,19 Mikael Sundin,20 Danielle T. Avery,10 Rahib Halwani,21 Audrey V. Grant,1,16 Bertrand Boisson,1 Dusan Bogunovic,1 Yuval Itan,1 Marcela Moncada-Velez,1,22 Ruben Martinez-Barricarte,1 Melanie Migaud,15,16 Caroline Deswaret,15,16 Laa Alsaia,23,24,25 Daniel Kotlarz,26 Christoph Klein,26 Ingrid Muller-Fleckenstein,27 Bernhard Fleckenstein,27 Valerie Cournier-Daire,28 Stefan Rose-John,29 Capucine Picard,1,15,16,30 Lennart Hammarstrom,1,18 Anne Puel,15,16,31 Saleh Al-Muhisen,21,32 Laurent Abel,1,15,16,33 Damien Chauassel,31,34 Sergio D. Rosenzweig,14,15,16 Yoshiyuki Minegishi,13,14,15 Stuart G. Tangye,10,11,12 Jacinta Bastamante,13,16,30,31 Jean-Laurent Casanova,1,15,16,33,34,35 and Stéphanie Boisson-Dupuis1,15,16

1St. Giles Laboratory of Human Genetics of Infectious Diseases, Rockefeller Branch, The Rockefeller University, New York, NY 10065
2Weill Cornell Graduate School of Medical Sciences, New York, NY 10065
3Department of Pediatric Immunology, Uludag University Faculty of Medicine, 16059 Glörukle, Bursa, Turkey
4Genetics Unit, Military Hospital Mohamed V, Hay Riad, 10100 Rabat, Morocco
5Department of Pediatrics, National Defense Medical College, Tokorozawa, Saitama 359-0042, Japan
6Pediatric Respiratory Diseases Research Center; and 7Department of Clinical Immunology and Infectious Diseases, Mashhad University of Medicine and Health Sciences; National Institute of Tuberculosis and Lung Diseases, Shahid Beheshti University of Medical Sciences, 141556153 Tehran, Iran
8Clinical Immunology Unit, Department of Pediatrics, King Hassan II University, CHU Ibn Roch, 20000 Casablanca, Morocco
9Immunology Unit, Pediatric A. Fleming-OSEP, Mendoza 5500, Argentina
10Immunology Program, Garvan Institute of Medical Research, Darlinghurst, New South Wales 2010, Australia
11Immunology and Rheumatology Service, Barrahan Hospital, Buenos Aires 1408, Argentina
12Asthma Research Chair and Prince Naif Center for Immunology Research, Department of Pediatrics, College of Medicine, King Saud University, Riyadh 12372, Saudi Arabia
13Center for the Study of Primary Immunodeficiencies, Assistance Publique–Hôpitaux de Paris, Necker Enfants Malades Hospital, 75015 Paris, France
14152 Stockholm, Sweden
15Division of Immunology, Department of Laboratory Medicine, Clinical Center; and 14Primary Immunodeficiency Clinic, National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases; National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD 20892
16Laboratory of Human Genetics of Infectious Diseases, Necker Branch, INSERM U1163, Necker Enfants Malades Hospital, 75015 Paris, France
17Department of Laboratory Medicine, Clinical Center; and 18Primary Immunodeficiency Clinic, National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases; National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD 20892
18Division of Clinical Immunology, Department of Laboratory Medicine, Karolinska Institutet, Karolinska University Hospital Huddinge, 141 52 Stockholm, Sweden
19Department of Clinical Research, Singapore General Hospital, Singapore 169866
20Department of Hematology/Immunology, Astrid Lindgrens Children’s Hospital and Karolinska Institutet, 141 86 Stockholm, Sweden
21Department of Pediatrics, Dr. von Hauner Children’s Hospital, Ludwig Maximilians University, D-80337 Munich, Germany
22Institute of Clinical and Molecular Virology, University of Erlangen-Nuremberg, D-91054 Erlangen, Germany
23Department of Genetics, INSERM U1163, University Paris Descartes–Sorbonne Paris Cite, Imagine Institute, Necker Enfants Malades Hospital, 75015 Paris, France
24Pediatric Respiratory Diseases Research Center; and 25Department of Clinical Immunology and Infectious Diseases, Masih Daneshvari Hospital; and 26Medical and Dental University, Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo 113-8510, Japan
26Department of Pediatrics, The Rockefeller University, 1230 York Avenue, New York, NY 10065
27Institute of Biochemistry, University of Kiel, D-24098 Kiel, Germany
28Department of Genetics, INSERM U1163, University Paris Descartes–Sorbonne Paris Cite, Imagine Institute, Necker Enfants Malades Hospital, 75015 Paris, France
29Institute of Biochemistry, University of Kiel, D-24098 Kiel, Germany
30Department of Genetics, INSERM U1163, University Paris Descartes–Sorbonne Paris Cite, Imagine Institute, Necker Enfants Malades Hospital, 75015 Paris, France
31Institute of Clinical and Molecular Virology, University of Erlangen-Nuremberg, D-91054 Erlangen, Germany
32Department of Genetics, INSERM U1163, University Paris Descartes–Sorbonne Paris Cite, Imagine Institute, Necker Enfants Malades Hospital, 75015 Paris, France
33Department of Genetics, INSERM U1163, University Paris Descartes–Sorbonne Paris Cite, Imagine Institute, Necker Enfants Malades Hospital, 75015 Paris, France
34Division of Clinical Immunology, Department of Laboratory Medicine, Karolinska Institutet, Karolinska University Hospital Huddinge, 141 52 Stockholm, Sweden
35Department of Immunology, Department Hospital Saint Joan de Deu, Barcelona University, 08950 Barcelona, Spain
36Division of Immunology, Department of Laboratory Medicine, Karolinska Institutet, Karolinska University Hospital Huddinge, 141 52 Stockholm, Sweden
37Department of Pediatrics, Dr. von Hauner Children’s Hospital, Ludwig Maximilians University, D-80337 Munich, Germany
38Institute of Clinical and Molecular Virology, University of Erlangen-Nuremberg, D-91054 Erlangen, Germany
39Division of Genetics, INSERM U1163, University Paris Descartes–Sorbonne Paris Cite, Imagine Institute, Necker Enfants Malades Hospital, 75015 Paris, France
40Department of Biochemistry, University of Kiel, D-24098 Kiel, Germany
41Center for the Study of Primary Immunodeficiencies, Assistance Publique–Hôpitaux de Paris, Necker Enfants Malades Hospital, 75015 Paris, France
42Systems Biology Institute, Sidra Medical and Research Center, Doha, Qatar
43Department of Immunology Regulation, Graduate School, Tokyo Medical and Dental University, Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo 113-8510, Japan
44Pediatric Immunology and Hematology Unit, Necker Enfants Malades Hospital, 75015 Paris, France
45Howard Hughes Medical Institute, New York, NY 10065

Correspondence
Stéphanie Boisson-Dupuis: stbd603@rockefeller.edu

Abbreviations used: Ab, antibody; AD, autosomal dominant; AR, autosomal recessive; BCG, bacille Calmette–Guérin; CMC, chronic mucocutaneous candidiasis; EBV–B cell, EBV–transformed B cell; EMSA, electrophoretic mobility shift assay; GAF, gamma-activating factor; GAS, gamma-activated sequence; HIES, hyper-IgE syndrome; HVS–T cell, herpesvirus Saimiri–transformed T cell; ISRE, interferon-stimulated response element; LIF, leukemia inhibitory factor; MOI, multiplicity of infection; NGS, next-generation sequencing; R-T–qPCR, R–quantitative real-time PCR; SV40–fibroblast, simian virus 40–immortalized fibroblast; TAE, T cell activation and expansion; VSV, vesicular stomatitis virus; VZV, varicella zoster virus; WES, whole-exome sequencing.
Autosomal recessive, complete TYK2 deficiency was previously described in a patient (P1) with intracellular bacterial and viral infections and features of hyper-IgE syndrome (HIES), including atopic dermatitis, high serum IgE levels, and staphylococcal abscesses. We identified seven other TYK2-deficient patients from five families and four different ethnic groups. These patients were homozygous for one of five null mutations, different from that seen in P1. They displayed mycobacterial and/or viral infections, but no HIES. All eight TYK2-deficient patients displayed impaired but not abolished cellular responses to (a) IL-12 and IFN-α/β, accounting for mycobacterial and viral infections, respectively; (b) IL-23, with normal proportions of circulating IL-17+ T cells, accounting for their apparent lack of mucocutaneous candidiasis; and (c) IL-10, with no overt clinical consequences, including a lack of inflammatory bowel disease. Cellular responses to IL-21, IL-27, IFN-γ, IL-28/29 (IFN-λ), and leukemia inhibitory factor (LIF) were normal.

The first TYK2-deficient patient (P1) to be identified was reported in 2006 (Mingeishi et al., 2006; Casanova et al., 2012). This patient was Japanese and displayed the triad of signs characteristic of hyper-IgE syndrome (HIES): atopic dermatitis, high circulating IgE levels, and recurrent cutaneous staphylococcal infections (Mingeishi et al., 2009; Heimall et al., 2010; Chandesris et al., 2012; Sowerwine et al., 2012). He also suffered from intracellular bacterial infections, including lymphadenitis caused by live bacille Calmette–Guérin (BCG) vaccine, an attenuated strain of Mycobacterium bovis, and recurrent gastroenteritis caused by nontyphlic Salmonella. P1 also developed viral infections, including parainfluenza virus (PIV) pneumonia, chronic skin molluscum contagiosum infections, and recurrent oral HSV infections. The impaired IL-12 and IFN-α/β signaling in this patient accounted for intracellular bacterial and viral diseases. Impaired IL-6 and IL-10 responses were also documented, paving the way for the identification of autosomal dominant (AD) signal transducer and activator of transcription 3 (STAT3) deficiency in patients with full-blown HIES, including developmental features (Mingeishi et al., 2007). Intracellular bacterial and viral infections are not generally observed in patients with AD-HIES (Mingeishi, 2009; Chandesris et al., 2012; Sowerwine et al., 2012). The subsequent discovery of patients with IL-10, IL-10R1, or IL-10R2 deficiency and early-onset colitis but not HIES (Glocker et al., 2009, 2010) suggested that impaired responses to IL-6, but not IL-10, accounted for at least some features of the characteristic triad of signs seen in HIES patients with TYK2 or STAT3 mutations. The responses to other cytokines, including other members of the IL-6, IL-10, IL-12, and IFN-α/β cytokine families, had not previously been reported for this TYK2-deficient patient (Mingeishi et al., 2006).

We report here the identification and immunological investigation of seven other TYK2-deficient patients from five unrelated families originating from Turkey, Morocco, Iran, and Argentina, whose clinical features were (Casanova et al., 2012; Kilic et al., 2012) or will be (unpublished data) described in detail elsewhere (also see Case reports in Materials and methods), which we compare with the Japanese patient (Fig. 1). In brief, a 23-yr-old Turkish patient (P2) suffered from intracellular bacterial infections, including BCG disease and Brucella meningitis, and recurrent cutaneous infections caused by varicella zoster virus (VZV; Kilic et al., 2012). A genome-wide linkage study identified TYK2 deficiency (Grant et al., 2011; Kilic et al., 2012). A 15-yr-old girl from Morocco (P3) died from disseminated tuberculosis, and her younger brother (P4) suffered from meningitis of unknown origin. A 5-yr-old boy from Iran (P5) developed BCG disease, and his younger sister suffered from BCG disease and cutaneous viral infections (P6). A 9-yr-old girl from Iran suffered from miliary tuberculosis (P7). An 11-yr-old boy from Argentina suffered from disseminated HSV disease (P8). Whole-exome sequencing (WES) and targeted next-generation sequencing (NGS) led to the identification of inherited TYK2 deficiency in these patients. Surprisingly, unlike P1, none of these seven newly identified TYK2-deficient patients displayed any of the features of HIES. In particular, they did not display atopy, high serum IgE concentration, or staphylococcal disease. We thus compared the cellular responses to a broad range of cytokines from the IL-12, IFN-α/β, IL-10, and IL-6 families in these patients. By delineating the public and private immunological phenotypes of the eight TYK2-deficient patients, we aimed to decipher the molecular and cellular basis of their public and private clinical phenotypes.

**RESULTS**

**Identification of inherited TYK2 deficiency**

We investigated the previously reported Japanese TYK2-deficient patient (P1; Mingeishi et al., 2006). He carries a homozygous 4-bp deletion in exon 4 (Fig. 1, A–C). We also investigated seven patients (P2–P8) from five unrelated families from four different countries (Turkey, Morocco, Iran, and...
Figure 1. Familial segregation and expression of TYK2 in patients’ cells. (A) Pedigrees of the TYK2-deficient families. Each generation is designated by a Roman numeral (I–II) and each individual by an Arabic numeral. The double lines connecting the parents indicate consanguinity. The probands (P1, P2, P3, P5, P7, and P8) in the six families are indicated by an arrow. Solid shapes indicate disease status. Individuals whose genetic status could not be determined are indicated by “E?”, and “m” indicates a mutated allele. (B) Schematic representations of the TYK2 gene with its 23 coding exons and of the TYK2 protein with its various domains (FERM, SH2, pseudokinase, and kinase). The exons are numbered with Roman numerals (III–XXV). The positions of the TYK2 mutation previously reported for P1 and of the resulting premature STOP codon are indicated by black arrows. The positions of the mutations for P2–P8 and their premature STOP codons are indicated by red arrows. (C) The predicted proteins for P1, P2, P3, P4, P5, P6, P7, and P8 are represented.
Argentina) who suffered from mycobacterial and/or viral diseases (Table 1; Kilic et al., 2012; unpublished data). We identified homozygous mutations in TYK2 by linkage analysis and Sanger sequencing (P2), WES (P3 to P7), or targeted NGS (P8). There is a 9-bp deletion in exon 16, c.2303_2311del, in P2 from kindred B (Fig. 1, A–C; Grant et al., 2011). In P3 and P4, from kindred C, there is a frameshift insertion of 1 bp in exon 23, c.3318_3319insC (Fig. 1, A–C). A nucleotide substitution in exon 5 (c.462G>T) in P5 and P6, from kindred D, leads to the creation of a premature stop codon at amino acid position 154 (E154X). A frameshift deletion of 1 bp at position 149 in exon 3 in P7 (c.149delC), from kindred E, leads to the creation of a premature stop codon at position 50 in the protein (S50HfsX1). A nucleotide substitution (c.1912 C>T) at position 1912 in exon 13 in P8, from kindred F, creates a premature stop codon at position 638 (R638X; Fig. 1, A–C). In all kindreds, clinical disease was observed in all of the homozygotes, and only in homozygotes. These five novel TYK2 mutations, like that of P1, are predicted to result in a premature stop codon. They are also private, as they are absent from our in-house WES database and all public databases (including NCBI, Ensembl, 1,000 genomes, and ExAC). There are no homozygous individuals for stop mutations in any database and only 84 heterozygous individuals. Thus, the seven patients from five kindreds reported here probably had autosomal recessive (AR) TYK2 deficiency (Fig. 1, A–C).

**TYK2 is not expressed in the patients’ cells**

Unlike P1, these seven patients displayed only intracellular bacterial and/or viral infections, with no features of HIES (Table 1; Kilic et al., 2012; unpublished data). We therefore characterized and compared TYK2 expression and function in all patients. The 9-bp deletion of P2 results in a premature stop codon at position 767 of the 1,187-amino acid TYK2 protein (Fig. 1, B and C). In P3 and P4, the frameshift generates a premature stop codon at amino acid position 1110. The nonsense mutations in P1, P5 and P6, and P8 are located upstream from P2, at positions 90, 154, and 638, respectively. The frameshift in P7 leads to an even earlier stop codon, at position 50. We investigated TYK2 expression by examining the nature and amounts of mRNA in EBV-transformed B cell (EBV–B cell) lines from P1, P2, and P3. We used specific primers distinguishing between full-length and shorter transcripts to search for potential splice variants. No abnormal splicing was detected. We detected only normal-sized transcripts containing the deletion or the insertion for P2 and P3, respectively (not depicted), and smaller amounts of TYK2 mRNA by quantitative PCR in P2 (not depicted). We then performed Western blotting with EBV–B cells from P1, P2, P3, P5, P7, and P8 and herpesvirus Saimiri–transformed T cells (HVS–T cells) and simian virus 40–immortalized fibroblasts (SV40–fibroblasts) from P2. We used four antibodies (Abs) recognizing N- or C-terminal epitopes of TYK2. The 130-kD TYK2 protein, which was detectable in control cells, was undetectable in cells from all patients (Fig. 1, D and E; and see Fig. 4 A). These results suggest that the seven newly identified patients (P2–P8), like P1, display complete TYK2 deficiency, with no residual production of the WT protein.

**The scaffolding role of TYK2 is abolished in the patients’ cells**

We assessed the impact of TYK2 deficiency by evaluating the expression of receptors with expression at least partly dependent on the scaffolding role of TYK2 (Velazquez et al., 1995; Ragimbeau et al., 2003). For example, TYK2 contributes to the expression of IFN-αR1 in human fibrosarcoma cells (Ragimbeau et al., 2003). The absence of TYK2 leads to impaired IFN-αR1 expression on the surface of P1 T cells (Minegishi et al., 2006). We investigated the expression of this receptor in EBV–B cells from healthy controls and TYK2-deficient patients by flow cytometry. As shown in Fig. 2 A, TYK2-deficient cells displayed low levels of IFN-αR1 surface expression, whereas IFN-αR2, IFN-γR1, and IFN-γR2, which are not known to bind TYK2, were normally expressed (not depicted). We also assessed the expression of IL-10R2 and IL-12RB1, which are constitutively associated with TYK2 (Ghoreschi et al., 2009; Casanova et al., 2012; Stark and Darnell, 2012). As expected, IL-10R2– and IL-12RB1–deficient cells did not express the corresponding receptors. However, levels of IL-10R2 and IL-12RB1 were significantly lower in TYK2-deficient cells than in control cells. We also found that the ectopic expression of WT TYK2 in these cells rescued the surface expression of IFN-αR1, IL-10R2, and IL-12RB1 (Fig. 2 A). All the functional assays and the cells used are summarized in Table S1. These results highlight the essential role of TYK2 in the expression of receptors for various cytokines, including IFN-α/β, IL-12, IL-23, IL-10, and IFN-λ. In addition to its scaffolding role, TYK2 also has catalytic activity (Velazquez et al., 1992, 1995; Rani et al., 1999; Sohn et al., 2013). For example, human TYK2 catalytic activity is required for cellular responses to IL-12 and IL-23 but

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(D) Levels of TYK2 in the patients’ EBV–B cells. Western blotting was performed with two Abs recognizing the N-terminal epitopes from TYK2 (N-ter1 and N-ter2) and two Abs recognizing the C-terminal epitopes (C-ter1 and C-ter2). Proteins were extracted from EBV-B cells from two healthy controls (C1 and C2) and from the TYK2-mutated patients (P1, P2, P3, and P5). (E) TYK2 levels in the patients’ HVS–T cells and SV40–fibroblasts from a healthy control and P2. Western blotting was performed with two Abs recognizing two different N-terminal epitopes from TYK2 (N-ter1 and N-ter2) and another Ab recognizing C-terminal epitopes (C-ter1). (F) Western blot showing the detection of phospho-STAT4 (pSTAT4) and STAT4 in HVS–T cells from a healthy control (C), P2, and an IL-12RB1–deficient patient (IL-12RB1*), not stimulated (−) or stimulated for 30 min with 50 ng/ml IL-12 (+). The results in D–F are representative of at least two independent experiments. (G) Response to BCG alone (MOI = 20) and BCG and IFN-γ (5,000 IU/ml), in terms of IL-12p40 production, as assessed by ELISA on whole blood samples from healthy controls (local controls, LC; travel controls, TC), the TYK2-deficient patients (P2 twice, P3, P4, P5, P6, and P7, TYK2), and IL-12RB1–deficient patients (IL-12RB1*). Mean values for each set of conditions are indicated by solid lines.
production by both T cells and NK cells from P1, P2, and P4 was impaired but not abolished. As a positive control, the patients’ NK and T cells displayed normal IFN-γ induction in response to stimulation with PMA-ionomycin (Fig. S1 D and not depicted). Finally, T cells stimulated with IL-12 alone (Fig. S1 G) or IL-12 plus IL-18 (Fig. S1 F) or naive and memory CD4 T cells stimulated with beads conjugated to mAbs specific for CD2/CD3/CD28, with (Fig. S1 A) or without (Fig. S1 B and see Fig. 6 H) culture in Th1 conditions (including IL-12), displayed impaired but not abolished IFN-γ production. In addition, the induction of Tbet by IL-12 in naive CD4 T cells from TYK2-deficient patients was found to be impaired, with respect to that in healthy controls (Fig. S1 C). Thus, complete TYK2 deficiency resulted in impaired but not abolished responses to IL-12 in both T cells and NK cells in these patients. These data might explain both the occurrence of mycobacterial diseases in TYK2-deficient patients and the relatively favorable response of these diseases to antibiotic treatment.

Impaired response to IL-23 in TYK2-deficient leukocytes

Cellular responses to IL-27, another member of the IL-12 family, and to IFN-γ and IL-21 were normal (Figs. 1 G and 3, A, F, and G; Kotlarz et al., 2013, 2014; Tangye, 2015). IL-23 is a heterodimeric cytokine of this family that signals via IL-23R, IL-12Rβ1, JAK2, and TYK2 (Watford et al., 2004). We thus investigated the cellular responses to various cytokines, thereby determining the global impact of a lack of TYK2 scaffolding and catalytic activity in the patients’ cells.

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Table 1. Clinical and cellular phenotypes of TYK2-deficient patients

not IFN-α or IL-10 (Sohn et al., 2013). We assessed the cellular responses to cytokines of the IL-12 family. Microarray analysis after 12 h of stimulation demonstrated that the response to IL-12 was impaired but not abolished in TYK2-deficient HVS-T cells (Fig. 2 B) from P2, although other, less sensitive methods suggested that the defect was complete (Fig. 1 F and not depicted). Likewise, whole blood from P2, P3, P4, P5, P6, and P7 displayed impaired but not abolished IFN-γ induction after stimulation with BCG plus IL-12 for 48 h (Fig. 2 C). This contrasts with findings for IL-12Rβ1-deficient patients, whose cells do not respond at all to BCG plus IL-12 (Altare et al., 1998, 2001; Fieschi et al., 2003; de Beaucoudrey et al., 2010), and with previous studies showing no detectable IFN-γ production by T cells from P1 after stimulation with IL-12 plus IL-18 (Minegishi et al., 2006; Ma et al., 2012). We identified the TYK2-deficient PBMCs partially responsive to BCG plus IL-12 in P1, P2, and P4 by assessing the intracellular IFN-γ production of T and NK cells by flow cytometry (Fig. 2, D and E; and Fig. S1). IFN-γ production by both T cells and NK cells from P1, P2, and P4 was impaired but not abolished. As a positive control, the patients’ NK and T cells displayed normal IFN-γ induction in response to stimulation with PMA-ionomycin (Fig. S1 D and not depicted). Finally, T cells stimulated with IL-12 alone (Fig. S1 G) or IL-12 plus IL-18 (Fig. S1 F) or naive and memory CD4 T cells stimulated with beads conjugated to mAbs specific for CD2/CD3/CD28, with (Fig. S1 A) or without (Fig. S1 B and see Fig. 6 H) culture in Th1 conditions (including IL-12), displayed impaired but not abolished IFN-γ production. In addition, the induction of Tbet by IL-12 in naive CD4 T cells from TYK2-deficient patients was found to be impaired, with respect to that in healthy controls (Fig. S1 C). Thus, complete TYK2 deficiency resulted in impaired but not abolished responses to IL-12 in both T cells and NK cells in these patients. These data might explain both the occurrence of mycobacterial diseases in TYK2-deficient patients and the relatively favorable response of these diseases to antibiotic treatment.

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Cellular responses to IL-27, another member of the IL-12 family, and to IFN-γ and IL-21 were normal (Figs. 1 G and 3, A, F, and G; Kotlarz et al., 2013, 2014; Tangye, 2015). IL-23 is a heterodimeric cytokine of this family that signals via IL-23R, IL-12Rβ1, JAK2, and TYK2 (Watford et al., 2004).
Figure 2. The IL-12 signaling pathway is impaired in TYK2-deficient patients. (A) Cell surface expression of IFN-αR1, IL-10R2, and IL-12Rβ1 was assessed in EBV−B cells from healthy controls, TYK2-deficient (P1, P2, P3, P5, P6, and P8) mock-transduced cells, TYK2-deficient (P1, P2, P3, and P5) WT TYK2-transduced cells, an IL-12Rβ1−deficient (IL-12Rβ1*) patient, and an IL-10R2−deficient patient (IL-10R2*) by flow cytometry. The results are expressed as mean fluorescence intensity (MFI). A p-value <0.05, <0.01, or <0.001 in two-tailed Student’s t tests is indicated by *, **, or ***, respectively. ns, not significant. Mean values for each condition are indicated by solid lines. (B) Microarray analysis of HVS−T cell lines from three healthy controls, P2, and an IL-12Rβ1−deficient patient. Cells were stimulated for 12 h with 100 ng/ml IL-12. The difference between nonstimulated and stimulated cells is represented as fold change. (C) After 48 h, IFN-γ production was assessed by ELISA on supernatants from the whole blood of healthy donors (local controls, LC),
We investigated the response of HVS–T cells to IL-23 by microarray analyses, after stimulation for 12 h with IL-23, in three healthy controls, a TYK2-deficient patient (P2), and an IL-12Rβ1-deficient patient (Fig. 3 B). In contrast to the results obtained with less sensitive assays (not depicted), we detected impaired but not abolished responses in TYK2-deficient cells. In EBV–B cells (Fig. 3 C), the response was highly variable in healthy control cells, and a modest but reproducible phosphorylation of STAT3 was observed in response to IL-23 in some cells from P1, P2, P3, P5, P7, and P8 (Fig. 3 C). In the same assay, ectopic expression of WT TYK2 in cells from P1, P2, P3, and P5 restored their response to IL-23, in terms of STAT3 phosphorylation (Fig. 3 D). We also investigated the proportion of IL-17+ T cells, which is low in some patients with IL-12Rβ1 deficiency, a subset of whom develop chronic mucocutaneous candidiasis (CMC), presumably because of impaired responses to IL-23 (de Beaucoudrey et al., 2008, 2010; Ouederni et al., 2014). Impaired IL-17 immunity underlies CMC, as IL-17F and IL-17RA mutations cause inherited forms of isolated CMC (Liu et al., 2011; Puel et al., 2011; van de Veerdonk et al., 2011; Boisson et al., 2013; Ling et al., 2015). Candidiasis was very mild in P1 (limited to a few episodes of mild oral candidiasis) and not observed at all in P2, P3, P4, P5, P6, P7, and P8. We found that P2, P4, and P8 had normal proportions of IL-17+ T cells ex vivo (Fig. 3 E and not depicted). The percentage of IL-17A+ memory CD4 T cells stimulated with CD2/3/28 beads also appeared to be normal (Fig. 3 J). We assessed the production of Th17 cytokines by naive CD4 T cells under Th17 culture conditions, in the presence of IL-23, in vitro. All three patients tested (P1, P2, and P4) displayed a profound impairment of IL-17A and IL-17F production (Fig. 3, H and I). Thus, the response to IL-23 is impaired but not abolished in TYK2-deficient patients. This results in an impairment of the generation of IL-17+ T cells in vitro but not in vivo, probably accounting for the lack of overt CMC in the patients and implicating alternative pathways in the generation of human IL-17+ T cells in the absence of TYK2-dependent IL-23 responses.

**Impaired but not abolished early responses to IFN-α/β**

We then investigated the molecular basis of viral diseases and the impact of TYK2 deficiency on responses to antiviral IFN-α/β. TYK2 acts downstream from the human IFN-α/β receptor (Velazquez et al., 1992; Stark et al., 1998). We investigated the cellular responses to IFN-α and IFN-β in EBV–B cells from P1, P2, P3, P5, P7, and P8 by Western blotting. After stimulation with IFN-α and IFN-β, we observed STAT1 phosphorylation in the cells of all patients, albeit at much lower levels than in a healthy control (Fig. 4, A and B). No STAT3 phosphorylation was detected in the patients’ cells (Fig. 4, C and D). The phosphorylation of STAT3 but not STAT1 was detected in cells from a STAT1-deficient patient (Fig. 4, A and C; Dupuis et al., 2003). The phosphorylation of STAT1 and STAT3 was restored by the reexpression of WT TYK2 in EBV–B cells from P1, P2, P3, and P5 (Fig. 4 E). We then assessed the DNA-binding activity of IFN-α/β–induced gamma-activating factor (GAF) and interferon-stimulated gene factor 3 (ISGF3). P1, P2, and P3 showed impaired but not abolished responses to IFN-α/β in terms of GAF and ISGF3 DNA-binding activity (Fig. 4, F and G). The complexes formed consisted of STAT1/STAT1 dimers (GAF) and STAT1/STAT2/ p48 trimers (ISGF3), as determined by supershift experiments (not depicted). The GAF-binding complexes in STAT1-deficient cells consisted of STAT3/STAT3 homodimers (Dupuis et al., 2003). We also investigated the response to IFN-α/β in SV40-fibroblasts and HVS–T cells from P2 (Fig. 4 H). Impaired IFN-α/β–induced ISGF3 DNA binding was detected in the SV40-fibroblasts (Fig. 4 H), whereas no response was detected in HVS–T cells (not depicted). These results suggest that IFN-α/β signaling is TYK2 dependent and that this dependence is stronger in HVS–T cells than in SV40-fibroblasts and EBV–B cells.

**Impaired but not abolished late responses to IFN-α/β**

We assessed late responses to IFN-α/β, such as the induction of target gene transcription and IFN-α/β-mediated protection during viral infection. After IFN-α/β stimulation for 2 and 6 h in EBV–B cells and SV40-fibroblasts, we showed by RT–quantitative real-time PCR (RT-qPCR) that cells from P1 and P2 responded normally in terms of the induction of ISG15 and MX1 transcription (Fig. 4 I and not depicted). However, the basal level of expression of these target genes was much lower in the patients than in controls. Moreover, we observed no STAT1-independent, STAT3-dependent induction of SOCS3 transcription by IFN-α/β in EBV–B cells from P1 and P2 (not depicted; Dupuis et al., 2003). There was therefore a partially impaired response to IFN-α/β in TYK2-deficient EBV–B cells and SV40-fibroblasts. We then assessed vesicular stomatitis virus (VSV) replication in EBV–B cells from P1 and P2 and in HVS–T cells and SV40-fibroblasts from P2, with and without prior IFN-α treatment. In contrast to the results obtained for control cells, the prior treatment of EBV–B cells with patients’ healthy relatives (travel controls, TC), TYK2-deficient patients P2 (tested twice), P3, P4, P5, P6, and P7 (TYK2), and IL-12Rβ1-deficient patients (IL-12Rβ1∗), with and without stimulation with BCG alone (MOI = 20) or BCG and 20 ng/ml IL-12. As seen in the figure, transportation of the blood affects the response to BCG and BCG + IL-12. As the blood of all patients was transported before testing, the results are compared with those for travel controls. A p-value <0.01 for the two-tailed Student’s t test for the comparison of travel controls and TYK2-deficient patients is indicated by **. Mean values for each set of conditions are indicated by solid lines. (D and E) Flow cytometry analysis showing intracellular IFN-γ production in PBMCs after stimulation in the absence (−) or presence of BCG (MOI = 20) or BCG and 100 ng/ml IL-12 for 48 h. An anti-CD3 Ab was used to identify CD3+ T cells. (D) PBMCs from a healthy control (C), patient P2 (P2), his mother (P2’s mother), and an IL-12Rβ1-deficient patient (IL-12Rβ1∗). (E) PBMCs from a healthy control (C), patient P1 (P1), patient P4 (P4), and an IL-12Rβ1-deficient patient (IL-12Rβ1∗).
Figure 3. TYK2 deficiency impairs the response to IL-23 but not to IL-27 nor IFN-γ. (A) Western blot analysis of STAT1 (pSTAT1, top) and STAT3 (pSTAT3, bottom) phosphorylation in EBV–B cells from healthy controls (C1 and C2), TYK2-deficient patients (P1 and P2), a patient with complete STAT1 deficiency (STAT1*), and an AD-HIES patient with a heterozygous STAT3 mutation (WT/T708N; STAT3*), after stimulation with 100 ng/ml IL-27 for 20 min. STAT1, STAT3, and α-tubulin levels were also assessed. The results shown are representative of at least two independent experiments. (B) Microarray analysis of HVS–T cell lines from three healthy controls, P2, and an IL-12Rβ1-deficient patient. Cells were stimulated for 12 h with 100 ng/ml IL-23. The difference between nonstimulated and stimulated cultures is shown as a fold change. (C) Western blot depicting phospho-STAT3 (pSTAT3) in EBV–B cells from a healthy control (C, C1, and C2), TYK2-deficient patients (P1, P2, P3, P5, P7, and P8), an AD-HIES patient carrying a heterozygous STAT3 mutation (WT/T708N; STAT3*), an IL-12Rβ1-deficient patient (IL-12Rβ1*), and a STAT1-deficient patient (STAT1*), without (−) and with (+) stimulation for 30 min.
and HVS–T cells from the patients with IFN-α did not lead to control of viral replication after 48 h of infection (Fig. 4, J and L). This is consistent with the previously reported poor control of HSV replication in B cells from P1 in the presence of exogenous IFN-α (Minegishi et al., 2006). IFN-α–treated fibroblasts from P2 were able to control viral infection normally in the first 6 h after infection. However, these cells displayed uncontrolled viral replication after 8 h (Fig. 4 K). Thus, unlike STAT1-deficient cells, TYK2-deficient SV40+ fibroblasts can, at least partly, control viral infection upon treatment with IFN-α. These data are consistent with the viral phenotype of the TYK2-deficient patients, which is similar to that of patients with partial STAT1 deficiency (Chappier et al., 2009; Kong et al., 2010) but less severe than that of patients with complete STAT1 deficiency (Dupuis et al., 2003; Chappier et al., 2006; Vairo et al., 2011; Boisson-Dupuis et al., 2012).

Suboptimal response to IFN-λ

IFN-λs, including IFN-λ1 (IL-29), IFN-λ2 (IL-28A), and IFN-λ3 (IL-28B), belong to the IL-10 family and use a heterodimeric receptor composed of IFN-λR1 and IL-10R2 to signal via the JAK-STAT pathway and contribute to antiviral immunity (Kotenko et al., 2003). Upon IFN-λ receptor engagement, TYK2 is recruited to IL-10R2 (Kotenko and Langer, 2004), but the impact of TYK2 deficiency on this signaling pathway remains unclear. We investigated the cellular response to these cytokines by RT-qPCR, assessing the induction of transcription of a target gene (Ifit3) after 2 and 4 h of stimulation of EBV–B cells from healthy control, P1, P2, a STAT1-deficient patient, and an IL-10R2–deficient patient (Glocker et al., 2009). IL-10R2–deficient patients have no overt viral phenotype, perhaps reflecting their death or bone marrow transplantation early in life, the redundancy of IL-10R2 for IFN-λ responses in humans, or the redundancy of IFN-λ immunity itself (Zhang et al., 2008; Glocker et al., 2009). Cells from the IL-10R2– and STAT1-deficient patients did not respond to IFN-λ stimulation (Fig. 5 A). The TYK2-deficient patients’ cells responded normally to IFN-λ1 and IFN-λ3, although basal levels of Ifit3 mRNA were extremely low (as in STAT1-deficient cells). These results suggest that the response to IFN-λ in vitro is not strictly dependent on TYK2 but that TYK2 may control the basal expression of IFN-λ target genes. It is unclear whether this cellular phenotype contributes to the viral disease of TYK2-deficient patients, as no genetic defect selectively affecting IFN-α/β or IFN-λ immunity has yet been identified (Jouanguy et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2008).

Impaired but not abolished responses to IL-10

TYK2 is involved in cellular responses to IL-10 in human cells (Stahl et al., 1994; Ihle, 1995; Minegishi et al., 2006; Saito et al., 2011). The PBMCs of P1 displayed impaired induction of SOCS3 transcription after IL-10 treatment. The inhibition of LPS-induced TNF production by IL-10 was also impaired in the macrophages of P1 (Minegishi et al., 2006). We studied EBV–B cells from healthy controls, P1, P2, and an IL-10R2–deficient patient. We investigated their response to IL-10 by electrophoretic mobility shift assay (EMSA) using a gamma-activated sequence (GAS) probe. No induction of DNA-binding activity was detected in the IL-10R2–deficient cells (Fig. 5 B). The observed DNA-binding complexes were shown by EMSA to be STAT1 homodimers, STAT1/STAT3 heterodimers, and STAT3 homodimers (not depicted). The TYK2-deficient patients had an impaired but not abolished response to IL-10, in terms of STAT3/STAT3 homodimers. The EBV–B cells of all TYK2-deficient patients also had low levels of STAT3 phosphorylation after IL-10 stimulation (Fig. 5 C). This impairment of STAT3 phosphorylation was rescued by the reintroduction of WT TYK2 into EBV–B cells from P1, P2, P3, and P5 (Fig. 5 D). SV40-fibroblasts from P2 also displayed impaired STAT3 phosphorylation after IL-10 stimulation (not depicted). The response to IL-10 was then analyzed by RT-qPCR, and P1 and P2 EBV–B cells were found to display equally strong impairments of the induction...
Figure 4. The response to type I IFNs in TYK2-deficient cells is impaired but not abolished. (A–D) Western blot of proteins extracted from EBV-B cells from a healthy control (C), TYK2-deficient patients (P1, P2, P5, P7, and P8), and a STAT1-deficient patient (STAT1*), with and without IFN-α (10^5 IU/ml) or IFN-β (3.2 × 10^4 IU/ml) stimulation for 30 min. (A and B) Abs against phosphorylated STAT1 (pSTAT1), STAT1, and tubulin were used. After analysis by densitometry, a p-value <0.01 (0.0018) for the two-tailed Student’s t test for the comparison of IFN-α-pSTAT1 controls and TYK2-deficient patients (TYK2) was found. (C and D) Abs against phosphorylated STAT3 (pSTAT3), STAT3, and tubulin were used. After analysis by densitometry, a p-value <0.01 (0.0008) for the two-tailed Student’s t test for the comparison of IFN-α-pSTAT3 controls and TYK2-deficient patients (TYK2) was found. (E) Western blot detecting...
Divergent responses to IL-6 in cells from TYK2-deficient patients

Finally, we tested cellular responses to members of the IL-6 family. Responses to leukemia inhibitory factor (LIF) were normal in the only patient tested, P2 (Fig. 5, G and H). Impaired induction of SOCS3 transcription in response to the IL-6 treatment of bulk PBMCs was previously documented for P1, together with an impairment of the induction of IgM secretion by the patient's B cells after the addition of IL-6 during EBV infection (Minegishi et al., 2006). Transduction of the IL-6 signal requires the binding of this cytokine to its receptor, IL-6R, the resulting complex then binding to a gp130 homodimer (Taga et al., 1989). This activates JAK1, JAK2, and TYK2, leading to STAT3-mediated signaling (Ihle and Kerr, 1995; Leonard and O'Shea, 1998). We thus assessed STAT3 phosphorylation upon IL-6 stimulation in EBV–B cells from healthy controls and TYK2-deficient patients (P1, P2, P3, P5, P7, and P8). Surprisingly, the responses of cells from P2, P3, P5, P7, and P8 were normal, at odds with the results for P1 (Fig. 6, A and B). We confirmed the hyporesponsiveness of P1 to IL-6 in an independent EBV–B cell line (not depicted). This phenotype was also confirmed by EMSA with a GAS probe (Fig. 6 C). In P1, we detected only a very small number of DNA-binding complexes, consisting of STAT3 homodimers, STAT1 homodimers, and STAT1/STAT3 heterodimers (Fig. 6 C and not depicted). Moreover, no binding complexes could be detected by EMSA-ELISA in P1 (not depicted). Finally, there was no induction of SOCS3 transcription by hyper–IL-6 stimulation (a fusion of IL-6 and soluble IL-6R) in P1 cells, as assessed by quantitative PCR (not depicted; Fischer et al., 1997). These data confirmed the previously reported hyporesponsiveness to IL-6 of B cells from P1 (Minegishi et al., 2006) and also, surprisingly, showed that the EBV–B cells of all other TYK2-deficient patients tested responded normally to IL-6. Accordingly, primary fibroblasts from P2 phosphorylated STAT3 normally in response to IL-6, unlike P1 fibroblasts, which displayed an impaired response (Fig. 6 D). Fibroblasts from the other TYK2-deficient patients (P3–P8) were not available. Collectively, these results suggest that TYK2 was dispensable for adequate IL-6 signaling in all the TYK2-deficient patients tested other than P1.

Impaired responses to IL-6 in P1 cells are TYK2 independent

We investigated whether the homozygous TYK2 mutation of P1 could be responsible for IL-6 hyporesponsiveness in two ways. First, we investigated whether WT TYK2 was required for IL-6 responses in P1, bearing in mind that it was not required in the other patients. Second, we assessed the remote but finite possibility that an abnormal and undetected product from the TYK2 locus, other than the full-length TYK2, which is not expressed in P1, might interfere with IL-6 signaling in P1. We thus tested whether restoring WT TYK2 expression in EBV–B cells from P1 by retroviral transduction could restore the response to IL-6. We found no clear difference in the level of STAT3 phosphorylation after IL-6 treatment in cells from P1 transduced with empty vector or TYK2 (Fig. 6 E), whereas STAT3 phosphorylation levels after IFN-β treatment were greater in TYK2-transduced cells than in mock-transduced cells. These data indicate that the hyporesponsiveness to IL-6 of P1 did not result from a lack of TYK2. We then did the reverse experiment, silencing the TYK2 locus in EBV–B cells from a control and P1 using shRNAs (pools of three shRNA sequences targeting both the 5′ and 3′ of TYK2 mRNA). The resulting decrease in TYK2 mRNA and protein levels in control EBV–B cells had no effect on their response to IL-6, in terms of STAT3 phosphorylation (Fig. 6 F). Furthermore, decreasing the level of TYK2 mRNA in P1 did not rescue the cells' response to IL-6 (Fig. 6 F and not depicted). These findings suggest that no abnormal
Figure 5. TYK2-deficient cells display an impaired response to IL-10 family cytokines. (A) The induction of IFIT1 transcription was analyzed by RT-qPCR after the treatment for 2 h with 20 ng/ml IL-29 or IL-28B of EBV–B cells from two healthy controls (C1 and C2), two TYK2-deficient patients (P1 and P2), a patient with complete STAT1 deficiency (STAT1*), and an IL-10R2–deficient patient (IL-10R2*). Results are normalized with respect to GUS levels. Error bars indicate SEM. (B) EMSA was performed with a GAS probe and EBV–B cells from a healthy control (C), TYK2-deficient patients (P1 and P2), and an IL-10R2–deficient patient (IL-10R2*), with (+) and without (−) stimulation with 50 ng/ml IL-10 for 20 min. (C) Western blot of EBV–B cells from a healthy control (C), TYK2-deficient patients (P1, P2, P3, P5, P7, and P8), and an IL-10R2–deficient patient (IL-10R2*) after treatment with 50 ng/ml
product of the TYK2 locus, specific to P1, was blocking the IL-6 responsive pathway. Thus, IL-6 signaling can be considered TYK2 independent in humans, as already shown in mice (Karaghiossoff et al., 2000; Shimoda et al., 2000), and the impaired response to IL-6 in P1 may be considered independent of the TYK2 mutation in this patient. These findings also raise the intriguing question as to why the cells of P1 have an impaired response to IL-6. WES detected no mutation of any of the known components of the IL-6–responsive pathway (Itan et al., 2013, 2014), and protein levels for these components (JAK1, JAK2, gp130, and IL-6Ra) were identical to those in other TYK2-deficient patients (Fig. 6 G), suggesting that the patient may carry a variant of another, as yet unknown, component of this pathway.

DISCUSSION
We identified a Turkish patient (P2), whose clinical features have been reported elsewhere (Kilic et al., 2012), two Moroccan siblings (P3 and P4), three Iranian patients from two unrelated families (P5, P6, and P7), and an Argentinian patient (P8) with TYK2 deficiency and intracellular bacterial and viral infections but no HIES. The first TYK2–deficient patient to be described was Japanese and had HIES as the main clinical feature, associated with numerous intracellular infections (Minegishi et al., 2006). We characterized and compared the patients’ cellular responses to multiple cytokines (a) to define the contribution of human TYK2 to the corresponding signaling pathways and (b) to determine the molecular and cellular basis of the private (HIES in P1 only) and public (intracellular bacterial and viral infections in all eight patients) clinical phenotypes of the patients. In the conditions tested, TYK2 was found to play a nonredundant role in signal transduction by five cytokine receptors, stimulated by IL–12, IL–23, IFN–α/β, IL–10, and IFN–λ. However, the defects are not complete, as residual TYK2–independent responses were observed upon treatment with these cytokines, implying that other molecules, such as other JAK kinases, can partially compensate for TYK2 deficiency. In contrast, TYK2 is apparently redundant for signal transduction downstream from receptors stimulated by IFN–γ, IL–27, IL–21, and LIF. These ex vivo and in vitro data suggest that TYK2 is redundant for these pathways in vivo. However, the pathways found to be TYK2 dependent in vitro may be affected to a greater or lesser extent in vivo.

Impaired responses to some of these cytokines may account for most of the clinical phenotypes of TYK2–deficient patients. Their susceptibility to intracellular bacteria, including Mycobacterium, Salmonella, and Brucella, is probably accounted for by the documented defects in IL–12–dependent IFN–γ immunity (Casanova and Abel, 2002, 2013; Rosenzweig and Holland, 2011; Casanova et al., 2013, 2014; Bustamante et al., 2014; Boisson-Dupuis et al., 2015). Tyk2−/− mice also display impaired responses to IL–12, with low levels of IFN–γ production (Karaghiossoff et al., 2000; Shimoda et al., 2000, 2002; Shaw et al., 2003; Tokumasa et al., 2007; Ishizaki et al., 2011), and susceptibility to intracellular pathogens, such as Toxoplasma gondii (Oertmann et al., 2001; Yap et al., 2001; Shaw et al., 2003; Strobl et al., 2011). Previous studies have suggested that human TYK2 is absolutely required for IL–12 responses (Minegishi et al., 2006; Ma et al., 2012). However, we have shown that TYK2–deficient T and NK cells retain a residual responsiveness to IL–12. This is consistent with the observation that infections with weakly virulent intracellular bacteria affecting these patients were curable with antibiotics and did not recur. However, one patient infected with virulent Mycobacterium tuberculosis died (P3), probably because IFN–γ production was insufficient. Overall, impaired IFN–γ production by TYK2–deficient T and NK cells in response to IL–12 stimulation probably accounts for the patients’ susceptibility to intracellular bacteria. Four of the seven newly identified patients actually presented with a pure phenotype of MSMD (P4 and P5; Bustamante et al., 2014) or tuberculosis (P3 and P7; Casanova and Abel, 2002; Boisson-Dupuis et al., 2011), the other three resembling patients with partial forms of AR STAT1 deficiency (P2, P6, and P8; Chapgier et al., 2009; Kong et al., 2010). Interestingly, TYK2 deficiency is an additional cause of single-gene inborn errors of immunity that should be considered in cases of severe tuberculosis in children (Boisson-Dupuis et al., 2015).

The viral infections can probably be accounted for by defects of IFN–α/β and/or IFN–λ signaling (Kotenko et al., 2003; Pestka et al., 2004). TYK2 was identified as an essential
Figure 6. Divergent responses to IL-6 in the TYK2-deficient patients. (A and B) Western blot of EBV–B cells from a healthy control (C1 and C2), TYK2-deficient patients (P1, P3, P5, P7, and P8), and an AD-HIES patient heterozygous for a STAT3 mutation (WT/S614G; STAT3*) after treatment with 50 ng/ml IL-6 for 20 min, probed with an Ab specific for phosphorylated STAT3 (pSTAT3). After analysis by densitometry, a p-value <0.05 (0.0332) for the two-tailed Student’s t test for the comparison of IL-6–pSTAT3 controls and P1 was found. However, a nonsignificant result was obtained for the comparison of IL-6–pSTAT3 controls and other than P1 TYK2-deficient patients. (C) EMSA with a GAS probe on EBV–B cells from a healthy control (C), TYK2-deficient patients (P1 and P2), a STAT1-deficient patient (STAT1*), and a heterozygous AD-HIES patient (WT/S614G for STAT3; STAT3*), without [−] and with [+] stimulation with 50 ng/ml IL-6 for 20 min. (B and C) White lines indicate intervening lanes were spliced out. (D) Western blot of primary fibroblasts from two
component of the IFN-α/β-signaling pathway in a human fibro-
sarcoma cell line (Velazquez et al., 1992). However, Tyk2−/−
mice display only a partial impairment of the response to
IFN-α/β (Karaghiosoff et al., 2000; Shimoda et al., 2000;
Prchal-Murphy et al., 2012). Nevertheless, these mice are sus-
cceptible to several viruses (Karaghiosoff et al., 2000; Strobl et al.,
2011). The abolition of IFN-α/β signaling in P1 (Minegishi et al.,
2006) was surprising, as this patient displayed few and mild viral infections. This contrasts with the various life-
threatening viral infections of patients with complete STAT1
deficiency. Although impaired IFN-λ signaling in TYK2-deficient patients may contribute to their viral
phenotype, residual signaling may also explain the rarity and
favorable outcome of viral infections in these patients. Im-
paired T cell memory is less likely to be involved, as no such
defect was documented in TYK2-deficient patients, in con-
trast to STAT3-mutated HIES patients (Siegel et al., 2011; Ma
et al., 2012; Ives et al., 2013). Overall, the viral infections
seen in four of the eight TYK2-deficient patients can be ac-
counted for by impaired responses to IFN-α/β and, perhaps,
IFN-λ. Their mild features and the absence of viral illnesses
account for both the normal IL-17+ T cell counts and lack of
CMC. TYK2-deficient patients also have impaired IL-10 re-
sponses in vivo in TYK2-deficient patients probably underlie at least the staphylococcal
diseases, and perhaps other HIES phenotypes, of P1, although
a role for other pathways (not studied here) cannot be ruled
out. With hindsight, it is serendipitous that the discovery of
IL-6 hyporesponsiveness in TYK2-deficient P1 with HIES
led to the identification of STAT3 mutations in patients with
AD-HIES (Minegishi et al., 2007).
MATERIALS AND METHODS

Case reports. The first patient investigated was a Japanese man (P1) with consanguineous parents. As described elsewhere (Minegishi et al., 2006), P1 had displayed atopic dermatitis since the age of 1 mo and recurrent bacterial and viral infections since the age of 1 yr. In particular, he developed BCGitis at the age of 22 mo, 6 mo after vaccination, and he has repeatedly suffered from skin abscesses caused by S. aureus, pneumonia (but without pneumato- ccle formation), otitis, and sinusitis. At the age of 15 yr, he was admitted to hospital with sepsis after severe nontyphi Salmonella enterocolitica. He has had to be hospitalized on several occasions for severe viral infections, including pneumonia caused by PIV3 and recurrent oral HSV infections associated with tonsillitis. Other viral infections have included M. oryctophilus. P1 also suffered from fungal infections, such as mild oral candidiasis caused by Candida albicans. Immunological explorations have repeatedly revealed hypercerephosphilinaemia (701–800 µg) and high serum IgE concentrations (1,430–2,100 IU/ml). This patient was diagnosed with AR-HIES on the basis of his NIH score of 48 points (Grimbacher et al., 1999). P1 is now 30 yr old and is regularly followed clinically in Japan. He is currently suffering from ocular sarcoidosis.

The second patient is a Turkish man (P2) born to consanguineous parents (first-degree cousins). A detailed clinical study relating to this patient has recently been published elsewhere (Klicic et al., 2012). In brief, this patient displayed disseminated BCG lymphadenitis at 21 mo of age and severe bacterial meningitis (with CFS cultures positive for Brucella spp.) at 8 yr of age, and at the age of 11 yr, he was diagnosed with shingles affecting the right maxillary branch of the trigeminal nerve. P2 is now 23 yr old and is followed in Turkey.

Two other patients, Moroccan siblings, a girl (P3) and a boy (P4), also born to consanguineous parents (first-degree cousins), were also identified. A detailed clinical study relating to these patients will be published elsewhere. In brief, both P3 and P4 were vaccinated with BCG at birth, with no adverse effects. P3 was hospitalized at the age of 13 yr with suspected abdominal tuberculosis. Despite antimycobacterial treatment, the abdominal complaints persisted, and P3 also suffered from ascitis and a psoas abscess that developed after a few months. M. tuberculosis was isolated from the ascetic fluid culture, confirming the diagnosis of disseminated extrapulmonary tuberculosis. Treatment was restarted, but the patient was readmitted to hospital with bacterial meningitis and subsequently died, 15 mo after the initial onset of symptoms. P3’s younger brother (P4) was hospitalized at the age of 8 mo for meningitis of unknown etiology. He suffered from recurrent otitis and urinary tract infections and presented asthma and eczema of the ear canal. His eosinophil levels were found to be high. P4 is now 15 yr old, has no treatment, and is followed in Morocco.

The fifth patient, P5, is a 5-yr-old boy born to consanguineous Iranian parents. He was vaccinated at birth with live BCG. At 2 and 4 mo of age, he developed right axillary lymphadenitis and multiple cervical lymphadenitis, respectively. Acid-fast bacilli were observed during an episode of lymphadenitis at the age of 2 yr. P5 was treated for 5 mo with antibiotics (isoniazid, rifampin, ethambutol, and pyrazinamide). At the age of 4.5 yr, he developed paravertebral and psoas abscesses with fistulization and pulmonary involvement. He was treated with isoniazid, rifampin, ethambutol, and streptomycin. Surgery was performed and antibiotic treatment continued (isoniazid, rifampin, ethambutol, streptomycin, ceftriaxidine, and clarithromycin), together with IFN-γ. P5 is now 6 yr old and is followed in Iran. His younger sister (P6) is 2 yr old and was vaccinated with BCG at birth. She developed BCG lymphadenopathy, lasting for 1 mo, after vaccination. At the age of 1 yr, she was hospitalized for 1 wk for an unknown viral infection of the skin. She is now doing well without prophylaxis.

The seventh patient is a 9-yr-old girl from Iran born to consanguineous parents. She presented with a history of fever and productive cough that appeared 2 wk before she was referred to the hospital. She had also had close contact with a known case of tuberculosis (her grandfather). She had an uneventful history of vaccination (including BCG). She had an episode of pneumonia at 8 mo of age. At the age of 9 yr, spiral lung CT with contrast showed diffuse bilateral micronodular infiltrations associated with hilar and mediastinal adenopathies and cavitary consolidation in the right upper lobe. Abdominal CT showed left paraaortic adenopathies in the vicinity of the renal vein. No evidence of ascites was found. M. tuberculosis was identified on gastric washes by PCR and culture.

The eighth patient (P6) is an 11-yr-old boy from Argentina who was adopted at the age of 1 d. He was vaccinated with BCG, with no complications, at birth. At the age of 8 mo, he was clinically diagnosed with enan- thema subitum. He successively suffered from herpes ginvigostomatitis at 18 mo of age, aseptic meningitis (fever, vomiting, irritability, and altered mental state/reduced consciousness), and disseminated cutaneous herpetic lesions at 24 mo of age. He was treated with acyclovir for 10 d, with a good clinical response. At the age of almost 6 yr, he developed herpes ginvigostomatitis and facial skin lesions, and, at the age of 10 yr, he was admitted with aseptic herpes meningitis and disseminated cutaneous herpetic lesions (HSV PCR-positive). He also has mild mental disability, and it has not been clearly established whether this disability is congenital or occurred after meningitis. The patient is now on acyclovir prophylaxis, which has helped deal with recurrences of oral/cutaneous herpes.

None of these newly identified patients (P2, P3, P4, P5, P6, P7, and P8) suffered from documented pyogenic infections, including staphylococcal diseases in particular, or from fungal infections, including mucocutaneous candidiasis in particular. Serum IgE levels have been determined on multiple occasions and have never been found to be high. The clinical information for all the patients is summarized in Table 1. Informed consent for participation in this study was obtained in accordance with local regulations, with approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB). The experiments described here were performed in the United States of America, in accordance with local regulations and with the approval of the IRB of The Rockefeller University, New York.

Immunological studies: memory T cell compartment in the patients. In mice, several signaling pathways and cytokines, including IL-10 (Foulds et al., 2006), IL-21 (Elsaesser et al., 2009; Fröhlich et al., 2009; Yi et al., 2009), and IL-6 (Pellegrini et al., 2011), all of which signal principally via STAT3, contribute to the generation of CD8+ T cell memory. In humans, a predisposition to chronic viral infections, such as VZV reactivation and EBV viremia, is observed in AD-HIES patients with STAT3 mutations (Siegel et al., 2011). Recent studies have shown that these AD-HIES patients have fewer CD4+ and CD8+ central memory T cells than normal, potentially contributing to their inability to control these chronic viral infections (Siegel et al., 2011; Ives et al., 2013). The mucocutaneous viral infections observed in TYK2-deficient patients resemble the reactivation of chronic VZV and HSV infections. We therefore investigated whether TYK2-deficient patients also had abnormally small numbers of central memory T cells by assessing CCR7 and CD45RA expression in CD4+ and CD8+ T cells by flow cytometry. We observed that the TYK2-deficient patients P1, P2 (tested three times), P3, P4, and P5 had similar numbers of central memory (CD4+ CCR7+CD45RA− and CD8+CCR7+CD45RA−) T cells to healthy controls (Fig. 5, I and J), whereas AD-HIES patients generally have fewer such cells. Exifer memory (CD4+CCR7−CD45RA+CD8+CCR7−CD45RA+) T cell numbers were also similar in TYK2-deficient patients and healthy controls. Overall, our data suggest that the episodes of chronic viral infection reactivation observed in the TYK2-deficient patients cannot be accounted for by an impaired memory T cell compartment and that they instead probably result essentially from the impaired response to IFN-α/β.

Extraction of DNA and RNA, PCR, and sequencing. Human genomic DNA (gDNA) was isolated from blood, EBV-transformed lymphoblastoid cell lines (EBV-B cell lines), HVS-T cells, and SV40-transformed fibroblast cell lines (SV40-fibroblasts) by phenol/chloroform extraction, as previously described (Dupuis et al., 2003). Total RNA was extracted from the cells with TRIZol (Invitrogen), and RT was performed with Superscript II (Invitrogen), according to the kit manufacturer’s instructions. PCR amplification was then performed with 50 ng DNA as the template and Taq DNA polymerase from Applied Biosystems and Invitrogen. Specific primers for amplifying STAT1...
and TYK2 from gDNA or cDNA were used and are available upon request. Amplified gDNA and cDNA PCR products were analyzed by electrophoresis in a 1% agarose gel and purified on Sephadex G-50 Superfine resin on filter plates (EMD Millipore). PCR products were sequenced by dyeodeoxynucleotide terminaton, with the BigDye Terminator kit (Applied Biosystems). Purified PCR products were then sequenced on a 37000 apparatus (Applied Biosystems) and analyzed with GenalyWin 2.8 software.

**WES.** Massively parallel sequencing was performed on DNA extracted from EBV–B cells from P1, P2, and P3. In brief, the patients’ DNA was sheared with a Covaris S2 Ultrasonicator (Covaris). An adapter-ligated library was prepared with the Paired-End Sample Prep kit V1 (Illumina). Exome capture was performed with the SureSelect Human All Exon kit (Agilent Technologies). Single-end sequencing was performed on a Genome Analyzer IIx (Illumina), generating 72-base reads. As described elsewhere (Byun et al., 2010), these sequences were aligned with the human genome reference sequence (hg18 build) using BWA aligner. Three open-source packages were used for downstream processing and variant calling (GATK, SAMtools, and Picard Tools). Substitution calls were made with GATK UnifiedGenotyper, whereas indel calls were made with GATK IndelGenotyperV2. All calls with a read coverage ≤4× and a phred-scaled quality of ≤30 were filtered out. All the variants were annotated with the SeattleSeq SNP annotation. Targeted NGS was performed as described elsewhere (Stoddard et al., 2014).

**Cell culture and stimulations.** EBV–B cell lines were cultured in RPMI (Invitrogen), and SV40-fibroblasts and 293T HEK cells were cultured in DMEM (Invitrogen) supplemented with 10% FBS (Invitrogen). Saimiri T cells were cultured in a 1:1 mixture (by volume) of RPMI and Panserin 401 (PAN-Biotec GmbH), supplemented with 10% FBS, 350 µg/ml gentamicin, and 10 U/ml hIL-2 (Roche). PBMCs were isolated from blood by Ficoll-Hypaque density gradient centrifugation (GE Healthcare) and cultured at a density of 10⁶ cells/ml in RPMI supplemented with 10% FBS. Stimulations were performed, at the doses stated and for the indicated times, with IL-12 (R&D Systems), BCG (donated by C. Nathan, Weill Cornell Medical College, New York, NY), IL-18 (R&D Systems), PMA (Sigma-Aldrich), IL-2 (BD), IL-23 (R&D Systems), IFN-α (Imukin; Boehringer Ingelheim), IL-27 (R&D Systems), IFN-α (Intron A; Schering Plough), IFNβ-1b (PeproTech), LPS (Sigma-Aldrich), IL-21 (R&D Systems), IL-29 (R&D Systems), IL-32B (R&D Systems), IL-10 (R&D Systems), IL-6 (R&D Systems), hyper-IL-6 (hIL-6; donated by S. Rose-John, and LIF (EMD Millipore). hIL-6 was prepared as described elsewhere (Fischer et al., 1997).

**Plasmids and retroviral transduction of EBV–B cells and SV40-fibroblasts.** A retrovector expressing WT TYK2 was generated by inserting the TYK2 sequence from pCMV6-TYK2-GFP (OriGene) into the pMSCVpuro retrovirus (Takara Bio Inc.). Retroviral vectors were packaged with the Pantropic Expression System (BD). EBV–B cells were transduced by spinoculation. Stable cell lines were established by selection on 0.65 µg/ml puromycin, beginning 72 h after transduction. SV40-fibroblasts were transiently transfected with the pRcCMV-tyk2(Δ2b) retrovirus from pCMV6-TYK2-GFP (OriGene). The secretion of IFN-γ and IL-12 by Saimiri T cells was analyzed by ELISA (Sanquin) or the human Quantikine HS Kit for IL-12 (R&D Systems). The intracellular production of IFN-γ was investigated in PBMCs by flow cytometry. PBMCs (2 × 10⁶ cells/ml) were either left unstimulated or stimulated with BCG (multiplicity of infection [MOI] = 20) with or without 5,000 IU/ml IFN-γ or 20 ng/ml IL-12 for 48 h. ELISA was then performed on the collected supernatants, with Abs against IFN-γ or IL-12 (p40 and p70) and the human Pelpair IFN-γ kit (Sanquin) or the human Quantikine HS Kit for IL-12 (R&D Systems). The intracellular production of IFN-γ was investigated in PBMCs by flow cytometry. PBMCs (2 × 10⁶ cells/ml) were either left unstimulated or stimulated with BCG (MOI = 20), 100 ng/ml BCG + IL-12 or 25 ng/ml IL-12 + 50 ng/ml IL-18 for 48 h or with 40 ng/ml PMA (Sigma-Aldrich) + 10⁻³ M ionomycin (Sigma-Aldrich) for 24 h, in 12-well plates. All the samples were treated with 1 µg/ml Golgiplug (BD) for the last 12 h of culture. Supernatants containing suspended PBMCs were collected. After blocking with FcR (Miltenyi Biotech), we performed surface staining with the following Abs: V450 mouse anti-human CD3 (Horizon; BD), PerCP-Cy5.5 mouse anti-human CD19 (BD), and Alexa Fluor 488 mouse anti-human CD56 (BD). We used Aqua (Live/Dead Fixable Dead Cell Stain kit from Invitrogen) staining to exclude dead cells. Intracellular staining was performed with the Cytofix/Cytoperm Plus Fixation/Permeabilization kit (BD). We stained for intracellular IFN-γ with PE mouse anti-human IFN-γ Ab (BD) and for intracellular IL-2 with PE mouse anti-human IL-2 Ab (BD). Compensation was performed on single-stained nonstimulated samples or on single-color stained Compensation Beads (BD). Fluorescence Minus One controls were also included in the experimental design. Staining was assessed on an LSRII flow cytometer (BD), and the results were analyzed with FlowJo (Tree Star).

**Production of IFN-γ and IL-12 by Saimiri T cells, whole blood, and PBMCs.** Saimiri T cell lines from patients and controls were starved over-night by incubation in medium containing 1% FBS and then were left unstimulated or were stimulated with 50 ng/ml IL-12 for 48 h or 100 ng/ml IL-23 for 72 h. The secretion of IFN-γ into the culture supernatant was assessed by ELISA (Pep1jar) with a Vctor X Multilabel Plate Reader (Perkin-Elmer). Whole-blood assays were performed as previously described (Feinberg et al., 2004): heparin-treated blood samples were stimulated in vitro with BCG (multiplicity of infection [MOI] = 20) with or without 5,000 IU/ml IFN-γ or 20 ng/ml IL-12 for 48 h. ELISA was then performed on the collected supernatants, with Abs against IFN-γ or IL-12 (p40 and p70) and the human Pelpair IFN-γ kit (Sanquin) or the human Quantikine HS kit for IL-12 (R&D Systems). The intracellular production of IFN-γ was investigated in PBMCs by flow cytometry. PBMCs (2 × 10⁶ cells/ml) were either left unstimulated or stimulated with BCG (MOI = 20), 100 ng/ml BCG + IL-12 or 25 ng/ml IL-12 + 50 ng/ml IL-18 for 48 h or with 40 ng/ml PMA (Sigma-Aldrich) + 10⁻³ M ionomycin (Sigma-Aldrich) for 24 h, in 12-well plates. All the samples were treated with 1 µg/ml Golgiplug (BD) for the last 12 h of culture. Supernatants containing suspended PBMCs were collected. After blocking with FcR (Miltenyi Biotech), we performed surface staining with the following Abs: V450 mouse anti–human CD3 (Horizon; BD), PerCP-Cy5.5 mouse anti–human CD19 (BD), and Alexa Fluor 488 mouse anti–human CD56 (BD). We used Aqua (Live/Dead Fixable Dead Cell Stain kit from Invitrogen) staining to exclude dead cells. Intracellular staining was performed with the Cytofix/Cytoperm Plus Fixation/Permeabilization kit (BD). We stained for intracellular IFN-γ with PE mouse anti-human IFN-γ Ab (BD) and for intracellular IL-2 with PE mouse anti-human IL-2 Ab (BD). Compensation was performed on single-stained nonstimulated samples or on single-color stained Compensation Beads (BD). Fluorescence Minus One controls were also included in the experimental design. Staining was assessed on an LSRII flow cytometer (BD), and the results were analyzed with FlowJo (Tree Star).
with Alexa Fluor 488–conjugated anti–human IL-17 (eBioscience) and PE-conjugated anti–human IFN-γ (BD) or PE-conjugated anti–human IL-22 (R&D Systems) Abs. Cells were analyzed with a FACScan machine and CellQuest software (both from BD).

In vitro differentiation of IL-17+ cells from naive CD4 T cells. Naïve (CD45RA+CCR7+) CD4+ T cells were purified from the PBMCs of WT controls (n = 6) or TYK2-deficient patients (P1, P2, and P4) and cultured for 5 d. Cells were exposed to either T cell activation and expansion (TAE) beads (anti-CD2/CD3/CD28) alone or to these beads together with polarizing stimuli to induce the differentiation of Th17 (TGFB, IL-1β, IL-6, IL-21, IL-23, anti–IL-4, and anti–IFN-γ) type cells. After 5 d, we used cytometric bead assays to assess the secretion of the cytokine indicated in the culture supernatants.

RT-qPCR. Cells were left unstimulated or were stimulated with cytokines for 24 h. Total RNA was isolated and treated with DNAse-free DNase (Roche) and cleaned up on an RNeasy column (RNeasy MiniElute Cleanup kit; QIAGEN). Each RNA preparation (1 µg) was reverse transcribed with random hexamers (Applied Biosystems) and the TaqMan Reverse Transcription kit (Applied Biosystems). Transcript levels were determined for IRF1, SOCS3, and IFIT1 with TaqMan probes for these genes (Applied Biosystems). Real-time quantitative PCR was performed in an ABI Prism 7500 Sequence Detection System (Applied Biosystems). The results were normalized with respect to the housekeeping gene encoding β-glucuronidase (GUS).

Viral assays. Viral assays were performed as previously described (Dupuis et al., 2003). EBV–B cells, Saimiri T cells, and SV40-fibroblasts were either left uninfected or were treated with 10,000 IU/ml IFN-α for 18 h. We analyzed the growth kinetics of VSV in fibroblasts by incubating the cells with virus-containing medium (MOI = 10) for 30 min, washing twice with PBS, and then culturing the cells in fresh complete medium. Virus-containing supernatants were collected at the time points indicated. We determined the kinetics of VSV and HSV growth in EBV–B and Saimiri T cells by resuspending the cells in RPMI medium containing the virus inoculum and incubating for 1 h (VSV MOI = 1, HSV MOI = 0.001), washing with PBS and resuspending in fresh complete medium. Virus–containing supernatants were then collected at the indicated time points. VSV and HSV titers were determined by calculating the 50% end point (TCID50), as described by Reed and Muench (1938), after the inoculation of 96-well plates with Vero cell culture.

Phenotyping of CD4+ and CD8+ T cells. Total PBMCs were labeled with anti-CD4 PE, anti-CD8 PE-Cy7, anti-CD45RA PerCP-Cy5.5, and anti-CCR7 FITC Abs and used for flow cytometry. These Abs bind to cell surface markers, making it possible to identify naive (CCR7+CD45RA+), central memory (CCR7+CD45RA−), and effector memory (CCR7−CD45RA−) CD4+ T cells and naive (CCR7+CD45RA+), central memory (CCR7+CD45RA−), effector memory (CCR7−CD45RA−), and revertant effector memory (CCR7−CD45RA+−CD8+ T cells.

Assessment of STAT3 phosphorylation by flow cytometry. EBV–B cells from the patients and controls were left unstimulated or were stimulated with 100 ng/ml IL-21 for 20 min. The intracellular phosphorylation of STAT3 was assessed by flow cytometry, as described elsewhere (Schulz et al., 2012). We used the Aqua Live/Dead Fixable Dead Cell Stain kit (Invitrogen) to exclude dead cells. Cells were fixed with 1.5% PFA and permeabilized by adding 100% methanol. We then stained them for intracellular tyrosine-phosphorylated STAT3 (pSTAT3), with Alexa Fluor 647 mouse anti–human pSTAT3 (Phospho-Cy7; BD), and for the Alexa Fluor 647–coupled isotype.

Silencing in EBV–B cells. EBV–B cells were plated at a concentration of 10^5 cells/ml and infected with retroviral particles at an MOI of 1:1. These particles encoded shRNA1, corresponding to a pool of shRNAs from Sigma-Aldrich, and shRNA2 from Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Inc. Selection was performed with puromycin at a concentration of 0.65 µg/ml, beginning 48 h after transduction.

Expression of receptors at the cell surface. In brief, 0.5 million EBV–B cells were blocked by incubation with 1 µl of FcR blocking reagent in 1% SVF + 1% PBS for 10 min. The Abs were used at a concentration of 125 ng/ml: anti–IFN-γR2–APC (R&D Systems), anti–IFN-γR1–PE (BD), anti–IFN-αR2–PE (PBL), anti–IL-10Rβ–FITC (R&D Systems), anti–IFNAR1 (AA/03; a gift from S. Pellegrini), and anti–IL-12Rβ1 (BD). They were incubated with the cells for 1 h on ice. The corresponding fluorescence-conjugated IgG was used as an isotype control. Cells were acquired in LSRII and analyzed with FlowJo software.

ELISA for transcription factors. We assessed the nuclear translocation of STAT3 in response to IL-6 treatment, in a TransAM Transcription Factor ELISA. We used a TransAM STAT3 kit (Active Motif), in accordance with the manufacturer’s instructions.

Densitometric analysis and statistics on Western blotting experiments. Semiquantitative analysis of Western blotting experiments was performed with the software ImageJ (NIH). The value of the specific band was divided by the level of housekeeping protein used. The nonstimulated background was removed from the stimulated value. Values were then used to test significance by two-tailed Student’s t test.

Online supplemental material. Fig. S1 shows impaired IL-12 responses in TYK2-deficient patients. Table S1 summarizes the functional experiments performed in TYK2-deficient cells. Online supplemental material is available at http://www.jem.org/cgi/content/full/jem.20140280/DC1.

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Figure S1. Impaired IL-12 responses in TYK2-deficient patients. (A) Cytokine production by in vitro–differentiated CD4+ T cells from control donors and TYK2-deficient patients. Naive (CD45RA+CCR7+) CD4+ T cells from controls (n = 4) or TYK2-deficient patients P1 and P4 were cultured for 5 d with TAE beads (anti-CD2/CD3/CD28), either alone (Th0) or together with polarizing stimuli to induce the differentiation of Th1 (IL-12) type cells. Culture supernatants were then assessed for IFN-γ secretion in cytometric bead assays. (B) Naive and memory (defined as CD45RA-/CCR7+) CD4+ T cells from WT controls (n = 5) and TYK2-deficient patients (n = 3; P1, P2, and P4) were sorted and purified (>98% purity) and cultured with TAE beads for 5 d. Culture supernatants were then assessed for IFN-γ secretion in cytometric bead assays. All error bars indicate SEM. (C) Tbet mRNA induction by naive CD4 T cells from five controls, two TYK2-deficient patients, and three IL-12Rβ1−deficient patients stimulated with TAE beads (anti-CD2/CD3/CD28) and IL-12 (Th1) compared with cells stimulated with TAE beads only (Th0). Mean values for each set of conditions are indicated by solid lines. (D–F) Flow cytometry analysis showing intracellular IFN-γ production in PBMCs after stimulation with BCG (MOI = 20), BCG + 100 ng/ml IL-12, or 25 ng/ml IL-12 + 50 ng/ml IL-18 for 48 h or after stimulation with 40 ng/ml PMA + 10−5 M ionomycin for 24 h, in PBMCs from a healthy control (C), TYK2-deficient patients P1, P2, and P4, the mother of patient P2, and an IL-12Rβ1−deficient patient (IL-12Rβ1−). (D) An anti-CD3 Ab was used to identify CD3+ T cells. (E and F) An anti-CD56 Ab was used to identify CD3+CD56+ NK cells. (G) Flow cytometry assay assessing the proportion of IFN-γ+ T cells among CD8+ and CD8− T cells from a healthy control (C) and P8, with and without stimulation with IL-12.
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Table S1. Summary of the functional experiments performed in TYK2-deficient cells (Continued)

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Q-PCR, quantitative PCR; WB, Western blotting.