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Immunity to EBV as revealed by immunodeficiencies

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Highlights

•Co-stimulatory TNF receptor pathways CD137-CD137L and CD27-CD70 are key for the expansion EBV-specific T cells that control EBV-infected cells.

•Immunity to EBV-infected T/NK and smooth muscle cells involves common but also distinct components to those required for immunity to EBV-infected B cells.

•Pathophysiology of EBV+ T/NK lymphoproliferative disorders depends of complex interplays between germinal and somatic mutations and variations in the EBV genome resulting in immunodeficiency and T/NK cell lymphomagenesis.

Abstract

Epstein-Barr virus infection is the most common viral latent infection in humans and represents one prototypical model to study immunity to viral infections. In that respect, inborn errors of immunity (IEIs) or primary immunodeficiencies (PIDs) predisposing to severe and chronic EBV infections provide peculiar examples to decipher specific molecular and cellular components involved in the immune control of EBV-infected cells. Herein, we discuss the recent knowledge and concepts arising from these studies, with a particular focus on "atypical" EBV infections when EBV enters T, NK and smooth muscle cells, instead of the common "typical" infection of B cells.

Introduction

The Epstein-Barr virus (EBV) or HHV-4 is a double-stranded DNA virus with oncogenic potential belonging to the gamma-1 herpes family [1]. EBV exhibits a unique tropism to humans, in which it establishes for life a latent infection in B lymphocytes, remaining silent in the majority of individuals. Infection by EBV represents one of the most common viral infections in humans since more than 90% of adults are carriers of EBV. During the primary infection, epithelial cells and B lymphocytes in the oropharynx are infected by EBV virions transmitted through saliva [2]. Entry of EBV in B lymphocytes are the first and main target of EBV in the initial and persistent stages of the infection [4]. EBV may occasionally enter other cell types including T and NK lymphocytes and smooth muscle cells.

EBV persists as episomes during latency programs and replicates during a lytic program that can both drive non-malignant diseases and malignant tumors (**Table 1**). Those include non-malignant lymphoproliferative disorders, lymphomas of B, T and NK cell origin, gastric and nasopharyngeal carcinomas, smooth muscle tumors (also known as leiomyoma) and virus-induced haemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis (HLH), an inflammatory disorder arising from dysregulated CD8+T-cell and macrophage expansion and activation. The most frequent subsets remain those of B-cell origin [4].

During the primary infection, EBV replicates in both naive B cells and epithelial cells, the latter amplifying the infection, and induces a strong proliferation of infected B cells. EBV-infected cells that escape from immune response shut down viral gene expression and differentiate into memory B cells becoming invisible to the immune system [5]. Upon re-exposure to their cognate antigen, infected memory B cells could undergo plasma cell differentiation that reactivates viral lytic production, thereby initiating new infections of neighboring epithelial and B cells [5]. Reactivations of EBV are thought to occur repeatedly during the lifetime [2].

Primary and long-life immune responses to EBV in immunocompetent humans have been largely characterized and mostly involve CD8+ T cells, and to a lesser extent CD4+ T cells, NK and $\gamma\delta$ -T cells [6–8]. The primary infection is mostly asymptomatic in infants, but when occurred in young adults it can result in infectious mononucleosis (IM), a self-limiting condition usually harmless (but not always). IM is caused by polyclonal expansions of EBV-infected B cells and EBV-specific activated T cells reflecting a particularly robust immune response. Strong expansions of EBV-specific T cells, up to 40% of total blood T cells, are observed in the course of primary infection.

Although EBV infection is benign and asymptomatic in most of the cases, it is considered to be responsible of 1% of cancers worldwide[9]. Furthermore, immunocompromised individuals like patients with AIDS or receiving immunosuppressive treatments are particularly prone to develop EBV-driven Bcell lymphoproliferations/lymphomas and smooth-muscle tumors. Beside acquired immunodeficiencies, there is a group of inborn errors of immunity (IEIs) conferring to carriers a high susceptibility EBV-associated pathologies. These "in natura" models represent unique models to decipher the specific pathways and requirements of immunity to EBV. In the present review we will discuss the recent knowledge and concepts arising from these studies with a particular focus on EBV-driven T, NK and smooth muscle proliferations, for which recent advances have been made in the understanding of their physiopathological mechanisms.

The central role of CD8+ T cells in the control of EBV-infected B cells

Up to 400 gene defects causing immunodeficiencies have been reported by now[10]. They can be classified according to the level of predisposition and selectivity to severe and chronic EBV infections they confer, most of them being B-cell lymphoproliferative diseases and HLH. Such an analysis reveals redundant and non-redundant components of immunity toward EBV [11]. Briefly, components of innate immunity including NK cells appear to be dispensable to EBV immunity. Notably, most of SCID patients having received hematopoietic stem cell transplantation or gene therapy did not reconstitute their NK cell compartment and are not prone to chronic EBV infection[12]. The humoral adaptive immunity seems also not be sufficient nor essential to protect against chronic EBV infection. The humoral response to EBV is preserved in most of IEIs associated with a high susceptibility to EBV (see below). IEIs with selective absence of B cells are not informative as affected individuals received Ig replacement treatment and/or are supposed to be resistant to EBV infection (as they have no B cells). However, B-cell deficiencies (e.g. CD40, CD19, CD81) in which B cells are present and still prone to transformation by EBV, are not reportedly associated with severe EBV infections. In contrast, there is much firm evidence that CD8+ T-cell responses are key in immunity to EBV. Nonetheless, other T-cell subsets seem not to play a major role. Indeed, defects of CD4+ T cells (in HLA-Class II deficiencies), T helper 1 (TH1) (in deficiencies of the IL-12/IFN- γ axis including the recent identified T-bet/TBX21 deficiency [13]), TH17 (in STAT3 deficiency), T follicular helper (in ICOS deficiency), MAIT and NKT cells (in RORC deficiency) are not associated with a susceptibility to develop severe EBV infections [11]. However, CD4+ T cells, NK and NKT cells are found to be reduced in several IEIs associated with a high predisposition to EBV infection, suggesting that these defects could participate to the immunodeficiency, although these cell-subsets appear not to be essential [14].

Specific components of the CD8+ T response required for efficient EBV immunity have been further delineated by identification and studies of IEIs associated with a strong penetrance of severe EBV infections [15], for which >50% patients experienced at least one episode of EBV B-LPD, although they may develop other infections. Those IEIs can be divided in two groups relying on the type of lymphoproliferative disorder and the nature of the mutated gene (Figure 1). The first group covers gene defects causing EBV-induced hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis (HLH) that impede the granule-dependent cytotoxicity function of NK and CD8+ T cells. Those include mutations in PRF1, RAB27A, UNC13D, SYT11, LYST and SH2D1A [11,16]. The second group is made of IEIs in which EBV infection predominantly drives B-cell lymphoproliferative disorders including B-cell lymphomas. These latter are characterized by impaired activation and expansion of anti-EBV specific T cells resulting from mutations in genes involved in TCR signaling/activation (such as RASGRP1, ITK, MAGT1 and DEF6), DNA metabolism/synthesis (CTPS1) or the co-stimulatory receptors of the TNF-receptor superfamily such as TNFRSF9 (also known as CD137/4-1BB), CD27 and its ligand CD70 [17–21]. Within these two groups, mutations in SH2D1A, CD27, CD70 and TNFRSF9 cause a more selective or sometimes exclusive predisposition to EBV-induced immunopathology. This is explained by the specific involvement of these molecules/pathways in direct interactions with EBV-infected B cells. SH2D1A (also known as SAP) is an intracellular signaling molecule required for the function of the SLAM family receptors (SLAM-R), the most important SLAM-R involved in the control of EBV infection being 2B4 that triggers NK and T cell-cytotoxicity towards EBVinfected B cells. Upon EBV infection, B cells express high levels of CD48, the ligand of 2B4 [11,22]. Similarly, CD27 and CD137 sustain T-cell expansion and terminal differentiation of EBV-reactive T-cells through interactions with their ligands (CD70 and CD137L) that accumulate on B cell surface when infected by EBV. In MAGT1 deficiency, interestingly, the susceptibility to EBV infection is associated with a defect in the expression of NKG2D, a receptor involved in cytotoxic responses of NK and CD8+ T cells [19]. Recent observations suggest that MAGT1 deficiency also causes impaired expression of CD70 and CD28 [23]. These studies highlighted that the T-cell response to EBV-infected B cells comprises two critical steps, the expansion and the effector phases, which when impeded result in two distinct lymphoproliferative disorders, HLH and B-LPDs respectively (**Figure 2**).

Physiopathology and immune control of EBV+ T/NK LPD

EBV+ T/NK LPD are very rare and aggressive diseases compared to their B cell counterparts, in which EBV infects CD8+, CD4+, γ δ-T and/or NK cells. EBV+ T/NK LPD have been restricted to Asian and Central/South American populations[24,25]. However, we recently showed that T/NK LPD can also occur in Caucasian and African individuals indicating they are likely underdiagnosed in Western countries[26]. EBV+ T/NK LPDs encompass overtly malignant diseases that include extra-nodal NK/T cell lymphoma (ENKTL), aggressive NK cell leukemia (ANKL, mostly found in adults), systemic EBV+ T cell lymphoma of childhood (STCL mostly found in childhood) and a non-malignant lymphoproliferative disorder, the T/NK-cell chronic active EBV (also termed as "CAEBV") divided into a systemic and two cutaneous forms (hydroa vacciniforme-like lymphoproliferation (HVL) and severe mosquito bite allergy(SMBA)) (**Table 1**) [27]. Boundaries between these entities are permeable and they can represent sometimes different states of a same

disease. In that respect, CAEBV may evolve suddenly and rapidly towards malignant lesions or HLH. They are characterized by high and/or persistent (over years for CAEBV) blood EBV loads, not or poorly relieved by B-cell depletion. Until recently, definitive diagnosis was established by histologically evidence of EBV+ T- and/or NK cells in tissue biopsies. The recent development of easy and reliable flow-fish assays for Epstein–Barr virus-encoded small RNAs (EBERs) from blood samples, allowing identification of EBV-infected cell subsets, should now increase the diagnosis of NK/T LPDs and facilitate their studies[26,28].

The etiology of EBV-driven T/NK LPDs is not well understood and their occurrence likely depends of the convergence of multiple factors and complex mechanisms explaining their rarity. Specific strains of EBV, heterogeneous germline genetic factors (including IEI), somatic mutations and immune defects are suspected to be causal determinants. Persistence for years of EBV+ T/NK cells in many cases suggests that T/NK cells represent an alternative and additional reservoir for EBV and indicates that the immune system is at fault. Along these lines, anti-EBV CD8+ T cells have been found to be significantly lower in some patients with CAEBV [29], and myeloid-derived suppressor cells (MDSC) were recently found to accumulate in some CAEBV patients [29]. However, EBV+ T/NK cells are rarely found in the context primary and secondary immune deficiencies [30], albeit one study repeatedly identified EBV+ T cells from HIV+ children[31]. Only rare cases of EBV+ T/NK LPD have been reported in IEIs, including concomitant EBV infection of B, T and smooth muscle cells in a patient carrying of a hypomorphic *IL2RG* hemizygous mutation [32], HV-like LPD in a patient with plausible GATA2 haploinsufficiency [33], NKcell CAEBV in a FANCA deficient patient[34], T-cell CAEBV in a patient with ICF2 [35] and systemic EBV+ T cell lymphoma of childhood associated with a 22q11.2del syndrome [36].

Recently several studies shed new light on pathological and immune mechanisms involved in T/NK LPD (Figure 3). Okuno et al. analyzed 77 Japanese patients with systemic CAEBV and found that a substantial part of patients carried in their infected T or NK cells potential driver somatic mutations in pathways (JAK-STAT, ERK-MAPK and the RNA helicase DDX3X) similar to those detected in malignant T/NK LPD, the most common mutated gene being DDX3X [37]. These mutations accumulate in clones of infected cells over time and may lead to overt T/NK lymphoma or HLH, thus supporting that CAEBV is a premalignant condition. The large majority of patients were carriers of the EBV type 1 strain as shown previously [38–40], thus indicating that the EBV type 2 strain cannot selectively account for NK/T LPDs as it was proposed[41]. Interestingly, thirty-five percent of EBV genomes displayed intragenic deletions in a single lymphoid clone and were concomitantly associated with potential driver somatic mutations. These deletions predominantly include BART microRNA clusters and/or genes involved in viral particle production, which both are involved in the expression of lytic transcripts. These lesions may result in a "lytic abortive infection" associated with increased expression of lytic transcripts without virion production and have been proposed to bear potential oncogenic properties[42]. Finally, a last important contribution of Okuno et al. is the observation that in the rare patients exhibiting both infected T and NK subsets, both shared same somatic mutations and EBV genome variations, thus strongly favoring the hypothesis of the infection of a common T/NK lymphoid precursor rather than infection of differentiated cells. As no EBV+ CD34+ cell was detected in patients [43], early thymic precursors that are known to express CD21 represent good candidates [44,45] and may represent one way for EBV entry in T/NK cells, whose infectious mechanism(s) remains debated (as differentiated T and NK cells are not expressing CD21).

Rodriguez et al., reported the identification of familial form of systemic CAEBV in two siblings caused by a homozygous loss-of-function (LOF) mutation in TNFRSF9 [46]. One sibling was symptomatic and died of CD8+ T lymphoma, while the other was asymptomatic but presented high EBV loads and circulating EBV-infected T cells that persisted for years. Interestingly, the symptomatic sibling was also carrier of a second genetic event, a homozygous LOF mutation in *PIK3CD* that was found to increase T-cell proliferation. Thus, *PIK3CD* deficiency may provide a cellular and genetic context supporting the persistence of EBV-infected T/NK and thus fostering accumulation of somatic mutations. These observations strengthen the hypothesis that T/NK LPDs have an oligogenic or polygenic inheritance. Furthermore, they also indicate that pathways controlling EBV-infected B cells may, to a certain extent, be also involved in the surveillance of EBV-infected T/NK cells, as TNFRSF9 (CD137/4-1BB) deficiency also predisposes to EBV-driven B-LPDs (see below). Confirming the key role of the CD137-CD137L pathway in immune control of EBV-infected T cells, we recently identified a patient with a CD137L deficiency caused by a homozygous mutation who developed a broad susceptibility to EBV with the presence of EBV-infected T, B and smooth muscle cells (B. Fournier and S. Latour al., unpublished data). So far, no CD137L expression was detected on EBV-infected T- or NK-cells, which may be expressed early in the infection and down-regulated thereafter. However, some hematological malignancies including T-cell lymphomas expressed high levels of CD137L [47,48]. Other cell types may express CD137L and indirectly enhance immunity against infected cells, such as antigen-presenting cells and endothelial cells in the tumor microenvironment [49,50].

More recently, confirmation of familial forms of T/NK LPD was provided by the identification of three siblings with CD16A deficiency caused by a biallelic deletion/recombination in *FCGR3A* coding CD16A [51], a low affinity receptor for the Fc portion of IgG expressed on NK cells, monocytes and granulocytes. CD16A mediates antibody-dependent cellular responses including NK-cell cytotoxicity. One sibling developed a symptomatic systemic CAEBV, while the two other siblings had only elevated EBV without any clinical manifestations. This could indicate the implication of additional genetic factors (not present in the two asymptomatic siblings) that triggered the disease in the symptomatic sibling, as found in the symptomatic patient with TNFRSF9 deficiency who had also a PIK3CD deficiency. Interestingly, this study suggests that components of innate immunity, considered to be dispensable in the immune control to EBV-infected B cells, are required for the immunity to EBVinfected NK/T-cells.

Immunity to EBV+ smooth muscle cells

EBV+ smooth muscle tumors (EBV+SMT) are very rare tumors that were first identified in immunosuppressed patients after organ transplantation [52] and in AIDS patients [53], however, EBV+ SMT remain very rare even in this context. Analysis of EBV genomes revealed that multi-centric EBV+SMT (with multiple organ locations) arise from multiple clonal infections rather than metastasis [53]. As for T and NK cells, mechanisms leading to EBV entry in smooth muscle cells that do not express CD21, are unknown. EBV+SMT are also very rare in the setting of IEIs. Single cases of have been reported in SCIDs caused by mutations in *ZAP70* or *IL2RG*, GATA2-deficiency and Ataxiatelangiectasia [54]. In RASGRP1 deficiency and ITK deficiency that predispose to EBV, two cases and one case have been documented, respectively [17,55,56]. Finally, the patient with CD137L deficiency we recently identified presented with multiple EBV+ smooth tumors in different organs (B. Fournier and S. Latour al., unpublished data). More interesting is the CARMIL2 deficiency; most of the patients had a mild positive blood EBV PCR [57] and several developed EBV+ SMT [58,59], which makes RLTPR/CARMIL2-deficiency, the disease with the highest incidence of EBV+ SMT. Notably, none of RLTPR-deficient patients developed symptomatic EBV+ B-LPD or EBV+ T/NK LPD. RLTPR is a large cytosolic adaptor/scaffolding protein that bridges the CD28 T-cell costimulatory molecule to the NF-KB pathway [60], however, it is very likely that RLTPR is also involved in other pathways [57,58]. When RLTPR is defective, T-cell responses to CD28 stimulation are impeded [57,58]. Importantly, RLTPR-deficient T cells failed to control autologous EBV-transformed cell lines in vitro which is indicative of an abnormal immune response to EBV. Thus, CD137 and CD28 Tcell co-stimulation pathways may be particularly important in the immune response to EBV-infected smooth muscle cells, but likely indirectly through other cell types as smooth muscle cells do not express CD137L and CD80/CD86 (the ligands of CD28). Other RLTPR-dependent pathways than CD28 might also be involved. Given the rarity of EBV+SMT, it is difficult to draw any solid conclusion, but the four cases in IEIs predisposing to EBV+ B-cell LPD (RASGRP1, ITK, CD137L) may suggest that the same pathways are at work to control EBVinfected smooth cells and/or that defective immune control of EBV-infected B cells could facilitate the spread of EBV infection to other cell types. However, RLTPR appears to be a critical and selective molecule for the immune control of EBV+SMT (since RLTPR-deficient patients did not present symptomatic EBV+ B/T/NK-LPD).

Conclusion

The recent progress in the characterization of IEIs predisposing to EBV infection has highlighted the importance of both expansion and effector steps of the CD8+ T-cell responses during EBV infection, in particular the critical role of co-stimulatory pathways dependent of the TNF receptors CD27 and CD137. Studies of "atypical" EBV infections causing NK/T and SMT-associated-cell proliferative pathologies suggest common, but also distinct immune components at play, as well as divergent pathological mechanisms than those involved in "typical" EBV-driven B-cell pathologies. Defects in adaptive immunity in addition to cancer driver somatic or germinal mutations may be important requirements for the establishment of EBV+ T/NK LPD (in contrast cancer driver mutations may be less necessary for EBV+ B-LPD). RLTPRdependent pathways appear to be critical for the immune control of EBV+ SMT. Identifications of additional inherited genetic susceptibilities to EBV in the next future, in particular those associated with EBV+ NK/T LPD and EBV+ SMT will increase our knowledge and understanding of these very rare diseases often neglected.

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This study reported a reliable and easy flow-FISH cytometry assay that detects cells expressing EBV-encoded small RNAs (EBERs), allowing rapid identification of-infected T, NK and B cells from blood. A cohort including patients of caucasian and african origins with EBV+T/NK LPD was characterized by this mean. The authors also showed that this method represents a powerful tool to study the pathophysiological mechanisms of EBV+T/NK LPD.

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This paper uses a flow-FISH cytometry assay (similar as in ref 16) to detect EBER+/EBV+ cells to analyze patients with EBV+ NK/T LPD. They observed in almost every CAEBV patients tested large numbers of myeloid derived suppressor cells that may participate to the host's failure to control the growth of EBV+ T/NK cells.

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Figures

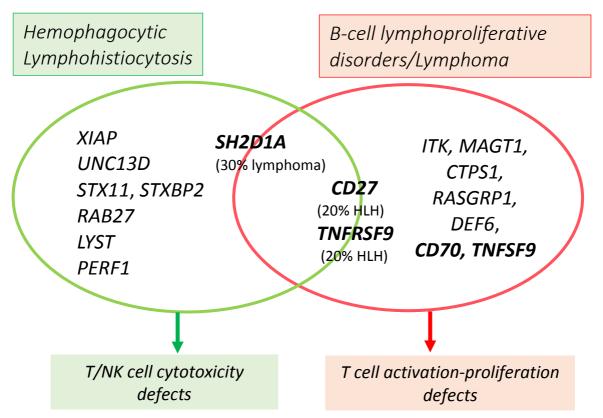


Figure 1. Classification of gene defects predisposing to EBV driven HLH or B-cell lymphoproliferative disorders. In the red circle are shown gene defects associated with impaired cell-cytotoxicity causing HLH, while in the green circle here are the gene defects associated with impaired T-cell activation/expansion causing B-LPD/lymphoma. In bold, gene defects with a highly selective predisposition to EBV. In brackets, % of patients having developed HLH or B lymphoma for defects associated with both HLH and B-LPD/lymphoma.

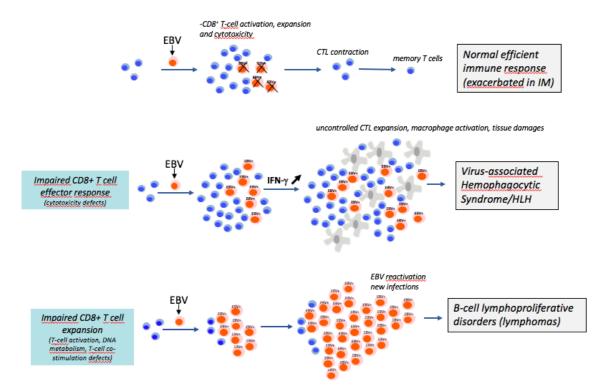


Figure 2. Defects in T-cell expansion and effector phases in the pathophysiology of EBV-driven diseases. Normal immune response to EBV requires a robust expansion of EBV-specific T cells (expansion phase) to counteract and efficiently eliminate EBV-infected proliferating B cells through the effector cytotoxic response of CD8+ T cells (effector phase). The activated T-cell pool then contracts and specific memory T cells come up. Gene defects causing impaired T-cell cytotoxicity activity/killing result in the persistence of EBV-infected cells that are not eliminated. Persistence of infected cells sustains uncontrolled activation and expansion of T cells that cannot kill infected cells, but can still proliferate and produce large amounts of pro-inflammatory cytokines including IFN- γ . In that setting, macrophages are activated (by cytokines released by activated T cells) causing a cytokine storm and hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis (HLH). In gene defects causing impaired Tcell activation/expansion, EBV-infected B cells persist and accumulate, leading to B-cell lymphoproliferative disorders (B-LPD/lymphoma). Furthermore, EBV can be reactivated increasing the risk of B-LPD.

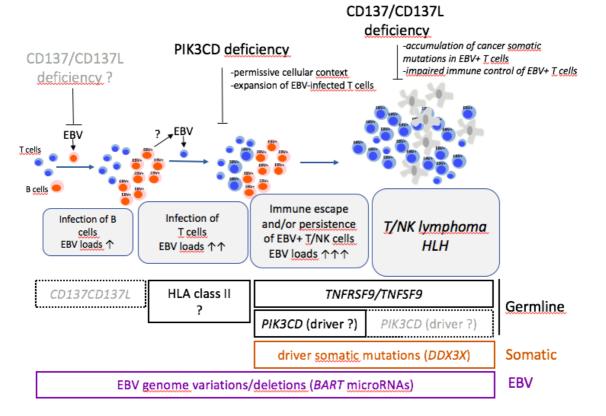


Figure 3. **Hypothetical** modelling of **EBV-driven-cell** multi-step lymphoproliferative T/NK CAEBV disorders based on Rodriguez et al. and **Okuno et al.** Sequential steps involved in the progressive development of T/NK LPDs from primary EBV infection of B cells to infection of T/NK cells, then evolving towards symptomatic CAEBV and further overt malignant T/NK lymphoma or HLH. Mature T/NK cells or NK/T lymphoid common progenitor are first infected and persist by acquiring driver somatic (DDX3X) and/or through germinal (PIK3CD) mutations that progressively may favor their expansion and increase their transformation. Specific genetic lesions of EBV genome (BART micro RNAs deletions) may also play an important role at this stage. EBV-infected T/NK cells escape at some point from the immune system due germinal mutations in components of immunity to EBV (TNFRSF9/TNFSF9 coding CD137/CD137L also known as 4-1BB/4-1BBL) and may undergo to HLH or/and overt malignant transformation leading to lymphoma. Primary immunodeficiency could be also involved at the first step of the infection of B cells. In that setting, impaired immune control of infected B cells could increase EBV loads that may favor infection of T/NK cells. Selective infection of NK/T cells by EBV may also depend of germinal genetic factors including genes coding HLA-Class II.