

A leaky mutation in CD3D differentially affects $\alpha\beta$ and $\gamma\delta$ T cells and leads to a $T\alpha\beta^-T\gamma\delta^+B^+NK^+$ human SCID

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T cells recognize antigens via their cell surface TCR and are classified as either $\alpha\beta$ or $\gamma\delta$ depending on the variable chains in their TCR, α and β or γ and δ , respectively. Both $\alpha\beta$ and $\gamma\delta$ TCRs also contain several invariant chains, including CD3 δ , which support surface TCR expression and transduce the TCR signal. Mutations in variable chains would be expected to affect a single T cell lineage, while mutations in the invariant chains would affect all T cells. Consistent with this, all CD3 δ -deficient patients described to date showed a complete block in T cell development. However, CD3 δ -KO mice have an $\alpha\beta$ T cell–specific defect. Here, we report 2 unrelated cases of SCID with a selective block in $\alpha\beta$ but not in $\gamma\delta$ T cell development, associated with a new splicing mutation in the CD3D gene. The patients' T cells showed reduced CD3D transcripts, CD3 δ proteins, surface TCR, and early TCR signaling. Their lymph nodes showed severe T cell depletion, recent thymus emigrants in peripheral blood were strongly decreased, and the scant $\alpha\beta$ T cells were oligoclonal. T cell–dependent B cell functions were also impaired, despite the presence of normal B cell numbers. Strikingly, despite the specific loss of $\alpha\beta$ T cells, surface TCR expression was more reduced in $\gamma\delta$ than in $\alpha\beta$ T cells. Analysis of individuals with this CD3D mutation thus demonstrates the contrasting CD3 δ requirements for $\alpha\beta$ versus $\gamma\delta$ T cell development and TCR expression in humans and highlights the diagnostic and clinical relevance of studying both TCR isotypes when a T cell defect is suspected.

Introduction

T lymphocytes recognize antigens by means of a cell surface complex termed the TCR. The TCR contains 2 variable chains to bind antigens and several invariant chains to support variable chains and to transduce the signals required for T cell differentiation and antigen recognition (1). The invariant chains present in the human TCR are CD3 γ , CD3 δ , CD3 ϵ , and TCR ζ (CD247) (Figure 1A). T lymphocytes belong to either the $\alpha\beta$ or the $\gamma\delta$ lineage according to the types of variable chains incorporated into their TCR, α and β or γ and δ , respectively.

Mutations in *TCR* or *CD3* genes selectively impair T cell development (2). Unless hematopoietic stem cells are replaced, the mutations frequently cause early-onset SCID and death. When a variable chain such as $TCR\alpha$ is affected, only $\alpha\beta$ T cells are impaired, as shown recently (3). When an invariant chain is affected, both $\alpha\beta$ and $\gamma\delta$ T cells are either absent, as observed in CD3 δ or CD3 ϵ deficiency (4, 5), or reduced, as reported for CD3 γ or $TCR\zeta$ deficiency (6, 7). These immunophenotypes are described as $T^-B^+NK^+$ or $T^\pm B^+NK^+$, respectively. However, no selective $\alpha\beta$ or $\gamma\delta$ T cell-deficient patients have been reported

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for invariant TCR chain deficiencies. We describe 2 SCID cases with severe selective $\alpha\beta$ T lymphopenia ($T\alpha\beta^-T\gamma\delta^+B^+NK^+$) caused by a leaky mutation in *CD3D* that titrated the differential CD3 δ requirements for human $\alpha\beta$ and $\gamma\delta$ T lymphocyte development and TCR expression in vivo.

Results and Discussion

Case reports. Two unrelated children from nonconsanguineous Ecuadorian parents showed common clinical and immunophenotypic features. They presented at 13 (AIII.1) and 5 (BII.2) months of age with SCID features, T*B*NK* phenotype, low CD3 expression, strongly impaired proliferative responses to T cell mitogens (Table 1), severe lymph node T cell depletion, and lack of activated germinal centers. Both received conditioning and haploidentical CD34* peripheral blood hematopoietic stem cell transplantation at 23 and 8 months, respectively.

Patient AIII.1 was admitted with failure to thrive, bronchopneumonia, severe diarrhea caused by strains of *Salmonella*, *Campylobacter*, and *Cryptosporidium*, oral candidiasis, and atopic dermatitis. CMV and EBV were negative by PCR. Neutrophil, lymphocyte, and platelet numbers and serum and urine biochemistry were normal, including Ig levels except IgE, which was strongly increased (Table 1). NK cell function was normal, whereas T cell-dependent B cell function was impaired. Specific Abs against protein antigens were not induced upon vaccination



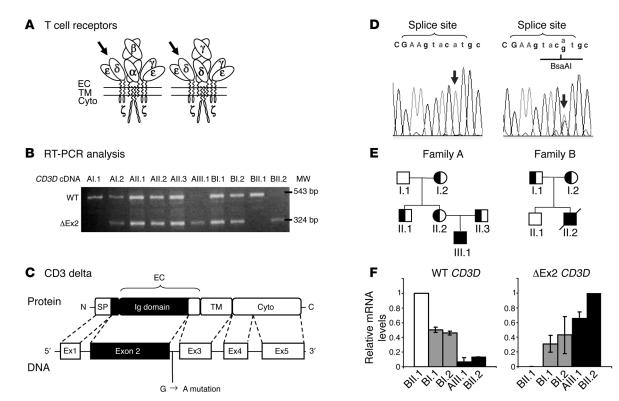


Figure 1

CD3D mutation analysis. (A) Structure of the 2 TCR that incorporate the CD3δ chain (arrows). EC, extracellular region; TM, transmembrane region; Cyto, cytoplasmic region. (B) CD3D RNA RT-PCR amplification products. ΔEx2 bands lack exon 2 (C) CD3δ protein and gene structure with localization of the G→A mutation. SP, signal peptide. (D) CD3D electropherograms showing the IVS2+5G→A mutation (arrow) in patient AIII.1 (left) and his father (right), and the BsaAl restriction site. Exon/intron sequences are in upper/lower case, respectively. (E) Genetic pedigrees. Circles indicate females; squares indicate males (slashes indicate deceased). Solid symbols denote homozygosity; half-solid symbols denote heterozygosity. (F) WT and ΔEx2 CD3D transcript levels relative to CD3E by quantitative RT-PCR in PBMCs using exon-specific primers and isoform-specific probes. Data represent mean ± SD of at least 2 experiments, relative to the highest value in each data set, which is shown as 1.

and were not detected against common pathogens or autoantigens, whereas natural (IgM) Abs against polysaccharides such as isoagglutinins and heterophile Abs were normal. The patient required total parenteral nutrition, specific antimicrobials, and i.v. Ig therapy. Absence epilepsy developed at 16 months. Sclerosing cholangitis was observed before receiving a maternal transplant. At 4 years of age, he is doing well, with mixed chimerism.

Patient BII.2 was admitted with fever, prostrating diarrhea, and respiratory distress. Urine CMV and nasal adenovirus, discrete lymphopenia, and severe hypogammaglobulinemia were observed. A protein-losing enteropathy was diagnosed, and he started on i.v. Ig and prophylactic Septrin, but developed several lymphadenopathies. After an initial improvement, respiratory function deteriorated and bronchoalveolar CMV was identified, which required antivirals. He underwent paternal transplantation with full chimerism in 3 weeks, but returned to the intensive care unit with respiratory distress, hemodynamic instability, encephalopathy, and liver failure with secondary coagulopathy, and died following multiorganic failure. Necropsy evidenced a rudimentary thymus with conserved reticular structure but complete depletion of lymphocytes and Hassall corpuscles. CMV identified in the liver, brain, heart, and lung was the likely cause of decease.

A novel mutation in CD3D. The decreased CD3 expression observed in both patients suggested a potential TCR defect. We thus analyzed CD3 and CD247 RNA by RT-PCR and found short CD3D

PCR products in several family members (Figure 1B). Sequencing revealed a complete in-frame deletion of exon 2, which encodes the extracellular Ig-like domain of CD3 δ (Figure 1C).

Exon skipping suggested a potential splicing defect. Genomic DNA sequencing detected a homozygous G-to-A mutation at position +5 in the 5' splice donor site of intron 2 (IVS2+5G→A; Figure 1D). The mutation abrogated a restriction site for the enzyme BsaAI, which was used to follow its segregation (Figure 1E). The mutation was causing the immunodeficiency, as it was not found in 140 Spanish or Ecuadorian healthy donors, and its location is strictly conserved in mammals (Supplemental Figure 1; supplemental material available online with this article; doi:10.1172/JCI44254DS1).

The patients' parents were carriers of the same *CD3D* mutation and had a similar geographic origin, indicating that they likely shared a founder mutant allele. The analysis of polymorphic microsatellite markers spanning the *CD3* region (which contains *CD3G*, *CD3D*, and *CD3E*) confirmed the presence of a shared core haplotype associated with the mutation (Supplemental Figure 2).

From the data in Figure 1B, it seemed that some normal PCR products might be present in the patients, indicating that the mutation did not abrogate normal splicing at the *CD3D* locus, as shown in similar intronic mutations (8). To analyze *CD3D* splicing, quantitative RT-PCR relative to *CD3E* was performed. The results confirmed the presence of small amounts of WT *CD3D* transcripts in the patients (Figure 1F).



Table 1Lymphocyte studies in 2 affected children with the SCID disorder

| Variables Lymphocyte number/µl at | Patient AllI.1 13 months | Patient BII.2 6 months | Normal range 9–15 months |
|---|-----------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------|
| T (CD3+) | 400 | 787 | 1600–6700 |
| B (CD19+) | 1987 | 2183 | 600–2700 |
| NK (CD3-CD16+/CD56+) | 636 | 537 | 180–1200 |
| T cell proliferation (cpm) ^A | | | |
| Medium | 201 | 851 | <1000 |
| Phytohemagglutinin | 2242 | 2562 | >80,000 |
| Anti-CD3 | 8020 | 1327 | >50,000 |
| Serum Ig (mg/dl) | | | |
| IgG | 1170 | 40 ^B | 310-1380 |
| IgA | 156 | 38 | 30-120 |
| IgM | 121 | 44 | 50-120 |
| IgE (IU/ml) | 4019 | 3 | 0–120 |
| IgG1 | 957 | $ND^{B,C}$ | 430-900 |
| IgG2 | 458 | $ND^{B,C}$ | 30–390 |
| IgG3 | <6.4 | $ND^{B,C}$ | 10–80 |
| IgG4 | 50 | ND^B,C | 10–65 |
| Functional Abs | | $ND^{B,C}$ | |
| Natural Abs (titer) | | | |
| Heterophile Abs | 1/256 | | ≥1/64 |
| Isohemagglutinins (anti-B) | 1/16 | | ≥1/8 |
| Infectious specificities ^D | Neg | | - |
| Vaccination responses | Before/After | | After |
| Hepatitis B (IU/ml) | NAv ^c / 0 | | >10 |
| Tetanus toxoid (IU/ml) | 0.01 / 0.03 | | 0.04-3.92 |
| Influenza (HI) ^E | 8/16 | | >32 |
| NK cell cytotoxicity (% lysis) ^F | | NDc | |
| 100:1 | 34 | | 30-86 |
| 50:1 | 21 | | 20-84 |
| 12:1 | 8 | | 1–57 |

^AH³-thymidine uptake in response to mitogens. ^BProtein-losing enteropathy. ^CNot done or not available (neonatal vaccination). ^DIgG anti-CMV, EBV, HSV, VZV, HIV, HAV, rubella, measles, toxoplasma, and IgE anti-aspergillus. ^EHemagglutination inhibition. ^FAt the indicated effector/target ratios.

From these results, we concluded that a homozygous IVS2+5G→A mutation strongly impaired (around 10-fold), but did not abrogate, normal *CD3D* splicing in both patients.

Reduced CD3 δ protein. The small levels of WT CD3D transcripts were found to be sufficient to encode for half-normal levels of WT CD3 δ proteins in the patients' T cells as shown in family B by Western blotting (Figure 2) or intracellular flow cytometry (Supplemental Figure 3A). In contrast, the dominant Δ Ex2 CD3D transcripts did not give rise to detectable levels of the predicted headless CD3 δ chain, despite being readily detected after transfection in non-T cells (Figure 2B).

We cannot exclude that small amounts of Δ Ex2 CD3 δ might be expressed below the detection limit of Western blotting. However, when overexpressed in *Drosophila* cells, Δ Ex2 did not compete with WT CD3 δ in the formation of a TCR complex (Supplemental Methods and Supplemental Figure 4).

From these studies, we concluded that the immunodeficiency was associated with reduced levels of normal CD3 δ .

Immunological characteristics. The human CD3 δ chain is incorporated into both TCR $\alpha\beta$ and TCR $\gamma\delta$ (Figure 1A). To establish how the *CD3D* mutation affected lymphocyte differentiation, the

numbers of $\alpha\beta$ T cells and $\gamma\delta$ T cells were determined in both patients (Figure 3A). The results showed a severe selective reduction in peripheral blood $\alpha\beta$ T lymphocyte numbers (both CD4+ and CD8+; Supplemental Figure 5), close to 10-fold compared with the median value of healthy agematched controls. In contrast, $\gamma\delta$ T cells as well as B and NK lymphocytes were detected in normal numbers (T $\alpha\beta$ -T $\gamma\delta$ +B+NK+ phenotype; Figure 3A and Table 1). A possible role for CMV in $\gamma\delta$ T cell predominance was proposed in some SCID reports (9) but not in others (10). However, CMV-induced $\gamma\delta$ T expansion was excluded in patient AIII.1.

The reduction caused by the CD3D mutation in $\alpha\beta$, but not $\gamma\delta$, T lymphocyte numbers suggested a differential CD38 requirement for TCR expression or function in $\alpha\beta$ versus $\gamma\delta$ T cells. Counterintuitively, TCR expression was around 2-fold lower in $\gamma\delta$ than in $\alpha\beta$ T cells from the patients using different TCR- or CD3-specific mAbs, both in primary (Figure 3B) and in cultured T cells (Supplemental Figure 3B). TCR downregulation after engagement by anti-CD3, however, was similar in both T cell lineages (Supplemental Figure 6A). In contrast, early activation events such as CD69 or CD25 induction were strongly reduced (Figure 3C and Supplemental Figure 6, B and C). $\alpha\beta$ and $\gamma\delta$ T cells were nevertheless capable of normal anti-CD3- or phytohemagglutinin-induced short-term proliferation on a per-cell basis (5 days; Supplemental Figure 6D). This was confirmed in culture using allogeneic feeder cells (Figure 3D). However, after day 25 in the same cultures, $\alpha\beta$, but not $\gamma\delta$, T cells showed impaired growth relative to a control. Therefore, the CD3D mutation impaired TCR expression and several functions in $\gamma\delta$ and $\alpha\beta$ T cells, albeit with some contrasting effects: lower TCR expression by γδ T cells but lower in vitro long-term survival of $\alpha\beta$ T cells. CD3 δ has been reported to bind less

strongly to the TCR $\gamma\delta$ than to the TCR $\alpha\beta$ heterodimer (11), offering a potential mechanism for the observed differential surface levels of TCR in $\gamma\delta$ versus $\alpha\beta$ T cells when CD3 δ is reduced.

The thymus was normal in size at diagnosis (Supplemental Figure 7). To study its function, several studies were performed, including analyses of recent thymic emigrants defined as CD4*CD45RA*CD31* cells, CD45RA* (naive) and CD45R0* (memory) T cells, CD25 expression; TCRB clonality, and TCRV β usage (Supplemental Figures 8 and 9). The results indicated that the patients' thymuses produced very few $\alpha\beta$ T lymphocytes, and most of these had differentiated into effector memory T cells with an activated phenotype and an oligoclonal TCRV β repertoire. They may have contributed to the observed in vivo Th2 features in patient AIII.1 (hyper-IgE, eosinophilia, and atopic dermatitis). Similar Th2 immunopathology has been observed in lymphopenic patients with Omenn-like syndrome associated with several primary immunodeficiencies (12) and in mice with partial T cell immunodeficiency (13).

These results indicated that the *CD3D* splicing mutation strongly impaired $\alpha\beta$, but not $\gamma\delta$, T lymphocyte selection in the thymus, resembling the phenotype of CD3 δ -KO mice (14). In contrast,



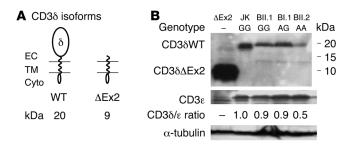


Figure 2
CD3δ protein analysis. (A) WT CD3δ and the predicted truncated isoform (ΔEx2). (B) Western blotting analysis of CD3δ isoforms in lysates from ΔEx2-transfected 293T cells, Jurkat cells (JK), or T cell lines with the indicated CD3D IVS2±5 genetypes using APA1/2 (anti-human

the indicated *CD3D* IVS2+5 genotypes using APA1/2 (anti-human CD3δ cytoplasmic tail), anti-CD3ε, or anti-tubulin. The numbers under each lane indicate CD3δWT band intensity relative to CD3ε.

human complete CD3 δ immunodeficiencies uniformly lack all T cells (4, 5). Therefore, the leaky mutation, which we believe to be novel, reveals that human $\alpha\beta$ and $\gamma\delta$ T lymphocytes have differential CD3 δ requirements for selection that have not been described for other invariant chains (CD3 γ , CD3 ϵ , or TCR ζ ; Supplemental Table 1). The T $\alpha\beta$ -T $\gamma\delta$ +B+NK+ phenotype has been reported recently in 2 children with TCR α deficiency (3). However, those patients remained relatively healthy for 6–7 years on antibiotic prophylaxis before transplantation; they had activated germinal centers and specific Ab responses against vaccines and autoantigens, likely due to $\gamma\delta$ T cell help by homology with the mouse model. The leaky CD3 δ

SCID patients reported here required very early transplantation (before 1–2 years), lacked germinal centers, and showed very poor T cell–dependent B cell function, perhaps due to the signaling impairment observed also in their $\gamma\delta$ T cells (Figure 3C). Thus, CD3 δ levels are sufficient for selection, but not for normal function of $\gamma\delta$ T cells, as described for CD4+T cells in Zap70 SCID patients (2).

Two mechanisms may be proposed to explain the selective effect of low CD3 δ levels in $\alpha\beta$ T lymphocyte development. One is impaired assembly or signaling of the immature precursor of the TCR $\alpha\beta$ termed the pre-TCR (15). The second one is impaired signaling through the mature TCR $\alpha\beta$ due to reduced interactions of CD3 δ with an evolutionarily conserved motif in the TCR α chain membrane-proximal constant region termed the α -chain connecting peptide (16).

Together, the results showed that the leaky CD3D mutation reduced CD3 δ chains, which in turn blocked $\alpha\beta$ rather than $\gamma\delta$ T cell selection. In mature T cells, TCR $\gamma\delta$ expression was more impaired than TCR $\alpha\beta$ expression, but early signaling through both was similarly impaired.

Methods

Further information can be found in Supplemental Methods.

Mutation detection. CD3 amplimers were generated by RT-PCR of PBMC RNA with specific primers (Supplemental Tables 2 and 3). CD3D exons and flanking intronic sequences were amplified from leukocyte DNA by PCR using specific primers and sequenced following standard techniques. Screening for the IVS2+5G→A mutation was performed by RFLP using BsaAI (New England Biolabs). Ecuadorian DNA samples were provided by Antonio Arnaiz-Villena (Complutense University).

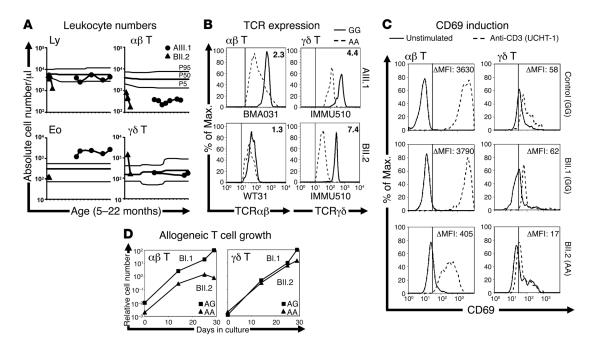


Figure 3

T lymphocyte analysis. (**A**) Absolute cell numbers in patients plotted as a function of age in comparison with the normal age-matched distribution (P5, P50, and P95). The leukocyte subsets are lymphocytes (Ly), eosinophils (Eo), $\alpha\beta$ T (CD4++CD8^{bright}), and $\gamma\delta$ T (11F2+) cells. (**B**) TCRαβ and TCRγδ cell surface expression in primary lymphocytes from the patients (dashed lines, AA genotype) in comparison with controls (solid lines, GG genotype), measured using the indicated TCRαβ- and TCRγδ-specific mAb. The numbers in each histogram indicate MFI ratios between control and patient. (**C**) CD69 induction (geometric MFI increments) after 24 hours in anti-CD3–stimulated (dashed lines) versus unstimulated (solid lines) primary $\alpha\beta$ T (CD4+) or $\gamma\delta$ T (IMMU510+) lymphocytes with the indicated genotypes. (**D**) Patient T cell growth in feeder cell cultures expressed as a percentage of carrier BI.1 T cell numbers.

brief report



Quantitative PCR. TaqMan PCR of PBMC cDNA was done using CD3D WT– or ΔEx2-specific primers and probes (Supplemental Table 4). Samples were normalized to the Ct of CD3E-specific primers and probe 49 from the Universal ProbeLibrary Human (Roche) and to the highest value in each data set, which is shown as 1.

Transfections and Western blotting. 293T cells were transiently transfected using lipofectamine (Invitrogen) with 2 μ g of plasmid pIRES-GFP1a (Invitrogen) containing Δ Ex2 CD3D cDNA, lysed and analyzed by Western blotting, together with cultured T cells, using APA1/2 (mouse anti-CD3 δ cytoplasmic tail IgG mAb; provided by Balbino Alarcón, Centro de Biología Molecular, Madrid, Spain) or M20epsilon (goat anti-CD3 ϵ IgG; Santa Cruz Biotechnology Inc.).

Immunological investigations. Lymphocyte phenotype was determined by flow cytometry using anti-CD3 (Leu4/SK7), anti-CD69 (L78), anti-CD19 (SJ25C1), anti-CD16 (73.1), anti-CD56 (NCAM16.2), and anti-TCRy δ (11F2) from BD Biosciences; and anti-TCRa β (BMA031 or WT31), anti-TCRy δ (IMMU510), anti-CD4 (13B8.4), and anti-CD8 (B9.11) from Beckman Coulter Immunotech. T cell function was tested by standard overnight H³-thymidine uptake assays (1 μ Ci/well) by culturing 10^5 PBMCs with phytohemagglutinin (1 μ g/ml; Sigma-Aldrich) or plastic-bound anti-CD3 (10 μ g/ml UCHT-1 from BD) for 72 hours. NK cell function was tested by standard 51 Cr release assays using PBMCs as effectors and K562 cells as targets. Specific lysis was calculated from cpm as $100 \times (\text{sample})/(\text{maximum})$, after correcting for blank measurements.

T cell lines were generated from PBMCs and expanded weekly with irradiated allogeneic feeder cells (PBMCs and EBV-transformed B cells) at 1:5:5 ratios and final 10^6 cells/ml in IMDM medium (PAA) with $0.1\,\mu$ g/ml phytohemagglutinin (only at day 0; Sigma-Aldrich), $40\,$ IU/ml rIL-2 (provided by Craig W. Reynolds, Frederick Cancer Research and Development

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Center, NCI, NIH, Frederick, Maryland, USA), 10% AB⁺ human serum, and 1% glutamine (Gibco; Invitrogen).

Study approval. The study was conducted according to the principles expressed in the Declaration of Helsinki and approved by the Hospital Clínico Research Ethics Committee, Madrid, Spain. All participants or their guardians provided informed consent for the collection of samples and subsequent analyses.

Statistics. Bar graph data represent mean ± SD. For proliferation and cytotoxicity, median values of triplicates were used.

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