STK4 deficiency underlies impaired interferon signaling and T cell immunity

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Abstract

**Purpose.** Human serine/threonine kinase 4 (STK4) deficiency is a rare, autosomal recessive genetic disorder leading to combined immunodeficiency. The extent to which STK4 deficiency impairs immune signaling and host defenses is unclear. We assessed the functional consequences of a novel, homozygous nonsense STK4 mutation (NM_006282.2:c.871C>T, p.Arg291*) found in a pediatric patient by comparing the patient’s innate and adaptive cell-mediated and humoral immune responses with those of three heterozygous relatives and unrelated controls.

**Methods.** The genetic etiology was identified by whole genome sequencing and confirmed by Sanger sequencing. STK4 gene and protein expression was measured by quantitative RT-PCR and immunoblotting, respectively. Cellular abnormalities were assessed by high-throughput RT-RCR, RNA-Seq, ELISA and polychromatic flow cytometry. Finally, antibody responses were delineated by ELISA and phage immunoprecipitation-sequencing.

**Results.** The affected patient exhibited partial loss of STK4 expression and complete loss of STK4 function. The patient suffered from recurrent viral and bacterial infections, most notably persistent Epstein-Barr virus viremia and pulmonary tuberculosis. Cellular and molecular analyses revealed abnormalities to the fractions of T-cell subsets, plasmacytoid dendritic cells, and NK cells. The transcriptional responses of the patient’s whole blood and PBMC samples were reminiscent of dysregulated interferon signaling, impaired T immunity and increased T-cell apoptosis. Nonetheless, the patient had detectable vaccine-specific antibodies and IgG responses to various pathogens, consistent with a normal CD19+ B-cell fraction, albeit with a distinctive antibody repertoire, largely driven by herpesvirus antigens.

**Conclusion.** Patients with STK4 deficiency can exhibit broad impairment of immune function extending beyond lymphoid cells.
Keywords

Human serine/threonine kinase 4 (STK4) deficiency; combined immunodeficiency; T cell lymphopenia; interferon; antibody repertoire; transcriptomics
Introduction

Human serine/threonine kinase 4 (STK4) deficiency is a rare autosomal recessive (AR) genetic disorder leading to a combined immunodeficiency with severe T cell lymphopenia. This condition is characterized by a predisposition to a wide range of bacterial and viral infectious diseases, mucocutaneous candidiasis, lymphomas and congenital heart disease (1). To date, STK4 deficiency has been reported in relatively few patients. Therefore, the extent to which immune signaling and host defense mechanisms are impaired or dysregulated in affected individuals remains incompletely understood. However, the spectrum of clinical manifestations associated with STK4 deficiency has been steadily increasing with each new case report.

STK4 deficiency was first reported by Nehme et al. in two patients from unrelated Turkish families harboring a homozygous nonsense mutation in the STK4 gene (2). The patients experienced complications due to recurrent bacterial and viral infections, most notably persistent Epstein–Barr virus (EBV) viremia, which ultimately resulted in Hodgkin B cell lymphoma. Due to weak expression of the homing receptors CCR7 and CD62L, the authors attributed the underlying mechanism of STK4 deficiency to increased death of naïve and proliferating T cells, and impaired homing of CD8+ T cells to secondary lymphoid organs (2).

Abdollahpour et al. reported the cases of three siblings of Iranian descent with a homozygous premature stop codon in the STK4 gene (3). These patients suffered from T and B cell lymphopenia, intermittent neutropenia, and atrial septal defects, as well as recurrent bacterial and viral infections, mucocutaneous candidiasis, cutaneous warts, and skin abscesses. Interestingly, Schipp et al. reported a Turkish patient with STK4 deficiency who developed a highly malignant B cell lymphoma at the age of 10 years and a second, independent Hodgkin lymphoma 5 years later. However, no detectable EBV or other common virus infection was detected in this patient. The authors speculated that the lymphoma may have developed due to the lack of the tumor suppressive function of STK4, or perturbed immune surveillance due to the diminished CD4+ T cell compartment (4). In contrast, most malignancies reported in
patients with STK4 deficiency are associated with prolonged EBV viremia, ultimately leading to the development of B cell lymphomas (2, 5-7). More specifically, patients present with Hodgkin B cell lymphoma (2), extranodal marginal zone lymphoma of mucosa-associated lymphoid tissue (8), Burkitt’s lymphoma (7), or maxillary sinus diffuse large B-cell lymphoma (9). Additional clinical features in patients with STK4 deficiency include salt-losing tubulopathy, suggestive of an acquired Gitelman syndrome, immune complex glomerulonephritis, and Castleman-like disease (10), juvenile idiopathic arthritis (11), human betapapillomavirus-associated epidermodysplasia verruciformis (11, 12) and primary cardiac T cell lymphoma (6).

Studies in mice and humans have shown that STK4 plays a pivotal role in lymphocyte function by regulating integrin-dependent T lymphocyte trafficking, proliferation and differentiation (13, 14). Of note, the STK4 protein is broadly expressed in various human haemopoietic cells, most notably monocytes, and is not restricted to lymphocytes (https://www.proteinatlas.org/ENSG00000101109-STK4). However, its role in T cell-independent functions is less well understood. Recently, Jørgensen et al. studied innate immune signaling in the context of STK4 deficiency by in vitro stimulation or infection of PBMCs obtained from an 11-year-old female STK4−/− patient of a consanguineous Syrian family. These studies revealed defective type I/II and III interferon (IFN) responses to a variety of purified Toll-like receptor (TLR) agonists, live viruses or bacterial lysates due to impaired phosphorylation of the kinase TBK1 and the transcription factor IRF3 (15). The results also revealed increased apoptosis in STK4-deficient T cells and neutrophil granulocytes, as well as a decreased FoxO3a expression in STK4-deficient T cells, further supporting the important role of STK4 in T cell survival.

In this study, we identified an AR STK4 deficiency in a child from consanguineous parents, which was due to a novel homozygous stop-gain mutation in a region encoding a coiled-coil domain located downstream of the kinase domain. We investigated the functional consequences of the new variant on innate and adaptive cell-mediated, as well as humoral
immune responses.
Methods

Whole-genome sequencing

Genomic DNA (gDNA) was isolated from the peripheral blood of the subjects using DNeasy® Blood & Tissue Kits (Qiagen LLC, Germantown, MD, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Whole genome sequences were obtained using a standard library preparation protocol and an Illumina HiSeq-X platform to generate 150-bp paired-end sequences. The raw sequencing reads were mapped to the reference genome (GRCh37, hg19) using BWA (version 0.7.15) (16), and genetic variants were called with the HaplotypeCaller in the GATK suite (v.4.0) (17). The Variant Call Format (VCF) file, containing variants, was annotated using SnpEff v.4.3 (18) and filtered for the candidate fitting the following criteria: (1) Being in the coding region including the exonic, splice-site region, (2) being rare (<1%) in all mutation databases (i.e., 1,000 genomes, gnomAD, ExAC, and ESP6500), and (3) co-segregates with the phenotype in the family and follows a specific mode of inheritance (for example, AR). The final list of variants was prioritized based on the literature search and whether any of the associated genes had been linked to the patient’s symptoms, such as known Mendelian genes (https://omim.org).

Sanger sequencing. Primers seq_STK4_Ex8F (5’-GTCCGAAGCACAAAGAGAAAGA-3’) and seq_STK4_Ex8R (5’-CCAGCTCCAAGTTGATCCAATA-3’) were designed to flank exon 8 of the STK4 gene (NM_006282.5; LRG_535t1), checked for underlying single nucleotide polymorphisms, and synthesized as described previously (19). The forward and reverse primers were tailed with M13 sequences: CACGACGTTGTAAAACGAC (added to the 5’ end of the forward primer), and CAGGAAACAGCTATGACC (added to the 5’ end of the reverse primer). DNA was extracted from peripheral blood using a QIAsymphony® SP and QIAsymphony DSP DNA Midi Kit (Qiagen Pty Ltd). DNA quantity and quality were assessed using a NanoDrop® ND-1000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, Wilmington, DE, USA). Genomic DNA (50ng) was subjected to conventional PCR using the following conditions: 95°C
for 10 minutes, then 34 cycles of 95°C for 30 seconds, 60°C for 30 seconds and 72°C for 45
seconds, with a final incubation at 72°C for 5 minutes. Amplicons were checked for correct
size and non-specific amplification prior to ExoSAP-IT cleanup, cycle sequencing using
primers comprising the M13 tails, and BigDyeX Terminator cleanup followed by loading onto
an Applied Biosystems model 3500XL Genetic Analyzer. Sequence data were analyzed using
Applied Biosystems Sequence Analysis software, and Mutation Surveyor software.

RT-qPCR analysis of STK4 gene expression levels. For STK4 gene expression analysis,
PBMCs were isolated from the patient, parents and healthy donors by Ficoll-gradient
centrifugation. Cells were then incubated with T cell activation and expansion beads (anti-
CD2/CD3/CD28; Miltenyi Biotec, Gaithersburg, MD, USA) for 10 days in 5% CO₂ at 37°C. On
day 3, the medium was supplemented with IL-2 (100 U/ml) to promote cell proliferation. RNA
was extracted from 1 million cells using TRIzol lysis reagent (Thermo Fisher Scientific,
Carlsbad, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. Briefly, 1 million cells were
lysed in 1 ml of TRIzol for 3 minutes, then 140 µl of chloroform were added, and the phases
were separated by centrifugation at 4°C and 16000 x g. RNA-containing liquid phase was
mixed to an equal volume of isopropanol and the mixture was incubated for 10 minutes at
room temperature for RNA precipitation. After centrifugation, precipitated RNAs were de-
salted by incubation with 1/10 volume of 5 M NH₄OAc and 2.5 volumes of 100% cold ethanol,
followed by washing with 75% ethanol and final elution in nuclease free water. The STK4
transcript was quantified using Fast SYBR Green Master Mix (Applied Biosciences) with the
following primers: forward 5'-TGGAGACGGTACAGCTGAGG-3'; reverse 5'-
ATAGCAACAATCTGCGCCGT-3'. All reactions were performed in triplicate using a
QuantStudio 6K Flex real-time PCR System (Applied Biosciences). Data were normalized to
the expression of the housekeeping gene RPLP0 (Ribosomal protein, large, P0) and mean
ΔCt⁻¹ values were plotted.
Western blot analysis. T cells were derived from PBMCs as described above and T cell lysates (containing 20 μg total protein) were separated using 4%–15% tris-glycine Bis-Tris Gels (BioRad). Following electrophoresis, proteins were transferred to a polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) membrane. After blocking with 5% non-fat milk in tris-buffered saline (TBS) for 1 h, the membrane was incubated overnight at 4°C in TBS in the presence of anti-recombinant STK4 antibody (diluted 1:5,000) (Abcam, clone EP1465Y, catalog no. ab51134), α-tubulin monoclonal antibody (diluted 1:10,000) (Cell Signaling Technology, Denver, MA, USA, catalog no. 3873), or anti-β-actin antibody (diluted 1:5,000) (Santa-Cruz Biotechnology, Dallas, TX, USA, catalog no. sc-47778). Membranes were then washed (3 x 5 min) with TBS with 0.1% Tween-20 (TBS-T) and then incubated in TBS with a 1:5,000 dilution of either horse-radish peroxidase (HRP)-conjugated goat anti-rabbit (Invitrogen, Frederick, MD, USA, catalog no. 65-6120), or goat anti-mouse (Invitrogen, Frederick, MD, USA, catalog no. 31430) secondary antibody, for 1 h at room temperature. Membranes were washed again (3 x 5 min) in TBS-T. Immunoreactive proteins were visualized using enhanced chemiluminescence (ECL™) (Amersham) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. Images were acquired on ChemiDoc MP imaging system (BioRad).

In vitro stimulation of whole blood and high-throughput gene expression analysis. Peripheral blood was collected into sodium heparin vacutainer tubes. After incubation for 2 h at room temperature, 2 ml WB was diluted with an equal amount of RPMI 1640 media containing GlutaMax™ (Gibco). The samples were then stimulated for 2 h at 37°C with the following agonists (final concentrations are shown): ultrapure LPS of E. coli K12 (InvivoGen) at 10 ng/ml; R848 (InvivoGen) at 3 μg/ml; Poly(I:C) (high molecular weight) (InvivoGen) at 25 μg/ml; recombinant human IL-1β (R&D Systems) at 20 ng/ml; a 1:1 mix of recombinant human IFN-α2 and IFN-β (R&D Systems) at 1,000 IU/ml each; recombinant human IFN-γ (R&D Systems) at 1,000 IU/ml; recombinant human TNF-α (R&D Systems) at 20 ng/ml; 5’ppp-dsRNA/LyoVec™ (InvivoGen) at 1 μg/ml; Poly(dA:dT)/LyoVec™ (InvivoGen) at 10 ng/ml; 3’3’-
cGAMP/LyoVec™ (InvivoGen) at 10 μg/ml; MDP (InvivoGen) at 10 ng/ml; Dynabeads™

Human T-Activator CD3/CD28 (Invitrogen) at 400,000 beads/ml; AffiniPure F(ab')₂ fragment
goat anti-human IgG + IgM (H+L) (Jackson ImmunoResearch) at 10 μg/ml; or PMA/ionomycin
calcium salt (Sigma) at 40 ng/ml and 1μg/ml. Similarly, cells were incubated for 2 h at 37°C
with LyoVec™ alone or RPMI media as unstimulated control samples. Subsequently, three
volumes of Tempus™ solution (Applied Biosystems) were added for cell lysis and RNA
stabilization before total RNA was isolated using the Tempus™ Spin RNA isolation kit (Applied
Biosystems). RNA quality and quantity were assessed using an Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer
(Agilent Technologies) and NanoDrop 1000 (Thermo Fisher Scientific). The cDNA of all 180
target genes and six housekeeping genes was generated from 40 ng total RNA using a reverse
transcription master mix (Fluidigm) and quantified using custom Delta Gene™ assays in
combination with 96.96 Dynamic Array™ IFCs and the BioMark™ HD microfluidic system
(Fluidigm) in accordance with the manufacturer's instructions. All 180 target genes and six
housekeeping genes (Supplemental Table S3) were selected a priori from a larger set of
1,088 transcripts, represented by 66 sets of co-expressed genes (transcriptional modules),
which had previously been found to be responsive in WB stimulation with purified PRR
agonists, recombinant cytokines and pyogenic bacteria (20). We selected three representative
genes per transcriptional module for a total of 60 modules based on their closeness to the
median absolute expression of all transcripts assigned to a given module. Six modules were
excluded from the analysis due to limited functional annotation. Housekeeping genes were
selected from the same dataset (GSE25742) as previously described (21). Expression levels
of the 180 target genes were quantified relative to the six housekeeping genes using the 2⁻
ΔΔCt method (22). We evaluated fold changes in expression as log₂-transformed expression
level (log2FC) for each target gene under each stimulation condition and filtered for genes with
a |log2FC| ≥1 in at least two samples. Next, we computed z-score values of the log2FC for
each gene and condition in the patient using two unrelated control subjects and the three
heterozygous family members as controls. Finally, we used principal component analysis to
estimate the variance in z-scores across samples. The first two principal components
described approximately 75% of the variance in the z-score profile of samples and a distinct segregation of patient and control subjects was observed (Supplemental Figure S3). We extracted the contribution factor for each gene from the PCA and filtered for pairs of target gene and stimulation condition that showed a variance of $|\log2FC| > 1$ between the patient and control subjects, resulting in the identification of 28 target genes that were differentially expressed under one or more (i.e. up to eight) in vitro stimulation conditions (Figure 4 and Supplemental Table S3).

**PBMC stimulation and RNA-Seq analysis.** Peripheral blood was collected into sodium heparin vacutainer tubes, PBMCs were isolated by Ficoll-Paque (GE Healthcare) density gradient centrifugation according to the manufacturer’s instructions and frozen in fetal bovine serum containing 20% dimethyl sulfoxide. For in vitro stimulation, PBMCs where thawed, rested for 24 h and then stimulated with a 1:1 mix of recombinant human IFN-α2 and IFN-β (R&D Systems), PMA/ionomycin, or left unstimulated as described for the stimulation of whole blood samples. Total RNA was isolated using the RNeasy Mini Kit (QIAGEN) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. RNA integrity and purity were evaluated using a Bioanalyzer 2100 (Agilent Technologies Genomics). cDNA was generated using the SMARTer v4 Ultra® Low Input RNA for Sequencing Kit (Takara Bio). Resulting cDNA was quantified and size-controlled using a Bioanalyzer 2100 (Agilent Technologies Genomics). cDNA was normalized to 1 ng/µl and libraries were prepared using the Nextera XT DNA Library Preparation Kit (Illumina) and the Nextera XT Index Kit v2 set A (Illumina), respectively, in accordance with the manufacturer’s instructions. 150 bp paired-end sequencing to approximately 20 million reads per sample was performed using a HiSeq4000 system (Illumina). Raw reads were aligned to the UCSC human genome assembly version hg38 using STAR aligner (23). The HTSeq-count (24) tool was used to count the number of reads that mapped to each gene feature. Read counts were adjusted to mitigate batch effects by negative binomial regression models using comBat-Seq (25). After read counts were normalized, we removed genes expressed at low
levels using the HTSFilter and the default protocol. We finally calculated log2FC values for
each subject and stimulation condition relative to the unstimulated condition of the same
subject using edgeR (26). Genes with a $|\text{log2FC}| \geq 1$ were considered differentially expressed.
Residual responses were calculated as described previously (27). Gene enrichment analysis
was performed using the QIAGEN IPA software application.

**Phage immunoprecipitation-sequencing (PhIP-Seq).** The VirScan phage library used for
PhIP-Seq in the present study was obtained from S. Elledge (Brigham and Women’s Hospital
and Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA, USA). PhIP-Seq was performed as described
previously (28-30) using an expanded version of the original VirScan phage library (31). We
computed species-specific adjusted score values as described earlier (30, 32). Pooled human
plasma used for IVlg (Privigen® CSL Behring AG) and human IgG-depleted serum (Molecular
Innovations, Inc.) served as additional controls.

**Flow cytometry.** Lymphocyte subsets were assessed using Duraclone assays (Beckman
Coulter) to delineate major lymphocyte subsets (IM Phenotyping Basic) and more specifically,
T cell and dendritic cell subsets (IM T cell and IM DCs) according to the manufacturer’s
protocol. Samples were analyzed with a FACSymphony A5 Flow Cytometer (BD Biosciences)
and FlowJo 10.5.2 software.

**Absolute blood cell counts, total immunoglobulin levels, vaccine-specific antibody
measurements and QuantiFERON-TB Gold ELISA**
Complete blood cell and lymphocyte counts, total immunoglobulin measurements (i.e., IgG,
IgA, IgM), vaccine-specific antibody measurements (i.e., anti-diphtheria toxoid IgG, anti-
_Haemophilus influenzae_ Type B, anti-pneumococcus capsular poly Ab, anti-tetanus toxoid
antibody) and whole blood IFN-γ measurements in response to Mtb peptide antigens
(QuantiFERON-TB Gold ELISA, QIAGEN, Germantown, MD, USA) were carried out and
interpreted by laboratories accredited by the College of American Pathologists (CAP) following
the manufacturer’s instructions and clinical guidelines. Normal ranges were provided in tables and figures as appropriate. An “indeterminate” test result of the QuantiFERON-TB Gold ELISA indicated the patient’s lymphocytes also did not respond to mitogen stimulation (can be seen in immunodeficiency, lymphopenia, overwhelming infection, malnutrition, and with immunosuppressive medications).

**Statistical analysis.** For PhIP-Seq experiments, we imputed $-\log_{10}(P$-values) by fitting a zero-inflated generalized Poisson model to the distribution of output counts followed by regression of the parameters for each peptide sequence based on the input read count. Peptides that passed a reproducibility threshold of $-\log_{10}(P$-value) $\geq 2.3$ in two technical sample replicates were considered significantly enriched.
Results

*Clinical description of the case and family members.* The patient was the third child of consanguineous parents (first-degree cousins). The patient had a younger sibling who was healthy, as were both parents. Of note, the parents reported the death of the two elder siblings of the patient. One died with a history of chronic headache, coughing and lymphoma, while the other died with a history of chronic coughing (*Figure 1A*). However, no detailed medical records or genetic data were available for the two deceased siblings.

The patient suffered from recurrent skin rashes starting from infancy, recurrent chest infections since early childhood, and an overall failure to thrive with low weight gain and short stature (data not shown). The patient’s early medical history included a productive cough of yellow/white mucoid sputum associated with on/off fever, which was more common at bedtime; however, early medical records were very limited and likely to be incomplete. The patient was more closely followed clinically starting at elementary school age. He was diagnosed with bronchiectasis and asthma, and started on asthma control medication, including Ventolin. He also experienced complications due to recurrent viral and bacterial infections, chronic suppurative otitis media and recurrent pneumonia. The patient was also diagnosed with tuberculosis (TB), which was confirmed by *Mycobacteria tuberculosis* complex positive culture, while a QuantiFERON assay, performed in parallel, had an “indeterminate” test result (see methods for details). The patient was subsequently treated for pulmonary TB for approximately one year. After being off treatment for another year, the patient suffered from TB reactivation, and was again put on anti-TB medication (cycloserine, linezolid, moxifloxacin and pyrazinamide) for two years. He also presented with a lower chest infection as a teenager and a chest X-ray confirmed lower left consolidation. A sputum culture revealed heavy growth of *Haemophilus influenzae* and *Streptococcus pneumoniae*, as well as light growth of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. About a year later, the patient was hospitalized again with a second episode of lower chest infection by *H. influenzae* and multiple-drug resistant *Klebsiella*
pneumoniae. EBV viremia was detected during early teenage years, and repeated testing confirmed persistent EBV viremia up to the most recent follow-up. During the teenage years, he also suffered from intermittent neutropenia and severe lymphopenia (Supplemental Figures S1A, S1B and S1C) with markedly decreased naïve CD45RA+ cells (11.1%; normal range: 46%–77%); the onset may have been earlier but was not detected due to the late diagnosis. Antibody responses to childhood vaccination were within the normal range (Supplemental Table S1).

Homozygosity for a stop-gain mutation in the STK4 gene. We performed whole genome sequencing on the patient and all of his immediate family members, except the deceased sisters. The analysis revealed a rare, homozygous nonsense mutation in the STK4 gene (NM_006282.2:c.871C>T, p.Arg291*) in the patient, whereas both parents and the younger sibling were identified as heterozygous carriers, suggesting an AR inheritance pattern (Figure 1A). The STK4 genotypes of the patient and his family members were confirmed by clinical Sanger sequencing (Figure 1B). The combined annotation-dependent depletion (CADD) score of the variant was 42, providing further evidence of its deleteriousness (Figure 1C and D).

The mutant STK4 allele is a loss-of-function (LOF) variant. The mutant STK4 protein was not detected in PBMC-derived T cells from the patient by Western blot analysis using a monoclonal antibody directed against the N-terminus of the protein, whereas intermediary levels of the STK4 protein were found in the parents compared to two unrelated healthy controls (Figure 1E). We also assessed the impact of the STK4 variant at the transcript level. A STK4 transcript was detectable in PBMC-derived T cells of the patient, albeit at reduced levels compared to controls with a wild-type genotype and the heterozygous parents (Supplemental Figure S2A and B).
Reduced fractions of naïve T helper, and dendritic cell subsets, as well as increased effector memory and apoptotic T helper and precursor NK cells in the PBMCs of the patient. We performed polychromatic flow cytometric analyses of PBMCs obtained from the patient at middle-school-age in order to compare the lymphocyte subset distribution with that of his parents, his younger sibling and one unrelated control (Figure 2). As expected, we found a lower fraction of T cells in the patient compared to the controls (Figure 2A, B and C), which was mainly attributed to selective CD4+ T cell lymphopenia (Figure 2C). The CD19+ B cell population was not affected in the patient (11.7%) when compared to the controls (range 10.9%–20.8 %) (Figure 2A). Similarly, CD56+CD3- NK cells of the patient (4.59%) were within the normal range compared to the control subjects (range 1.87%–6.82%) (Figure 2B). However, we noticed a significant increase of the CD56+ NK cell subset in the patient (1.78%) compared to all controls (range 0.058%–0.42%) (Figure 2B). We then assessed CD4+ T cell subsets and found an increase in programmed death-1 (PD-1)-expressing T helper cells in the patient (Figure 2D). Next, we analyzed PBMCs expression of CD45RA and CCR7 and detected low frequencies of CD45RA+CCR7+ double-positive naïve T cells in the patient, while his CD45RA+CCR7- effector memory population was increased (Figure 2E). Similarly, the CD27+CD28+ T cell subset, which consists mainly of naïve T cells, was also slightly decreased in the patient (Figure 2F). Finally, assessment of the dendritic cell (DC) subsets showed a decrease of CD11c+CD123+ plasmacytoid DCs (pDCs) in the patient, while his CD11c+CD123+ myeloid DCs (mDCs) population remained normal (Figure 2E).

The patient has a distinct antiviral antibody repertoire. To further assess the humoral immunity status of the patient, we performed large-scale antibody profiling by phage immunoprecipitation-sequencing (PhIP-Seq) using serum samples obtained from the patient. We found the patient to be seropositive for antibodies specific to a variety of common viruses and bacteria, including human herpesviruses (HHV)-4 (EBV), -5 (CMV) and -8, enterovirus (EV)-B, and human respiratory syncytial virus (HRSV), human rhinoviruses (HRV) A and B, S. pneumoniae and S. aureus (Figure 3A). The antibody repertoire breadth in the patient was
similar to that of the controls (Figure 3B). Nevertheless, principal component analysis of the enriched antibody-antigen interactions showed an overall distinct antibody repertoire in the patient compared to those of his family members and unrelated controls (Figure 3C), which was largely driven by antibodies targeting HHV-4 and -5 antigens (Figure 3D).

**Gene expression signatures suggest dysregulated interferon signaling and impaired T cell activation, inhibition of T cell proliferation and increased T cell apoptosis.** To further elucidate the functional consequences of STK4 deficiency at the molecular level, we performed gene expression analyses using either whole blood (WB) samples or PBMCs isolated from the patient and control subjects following *in vitro* stimulation with a variety of immune activators. First, we stimulated WB of the patient, his family members and an unrelated control subject with purified pattern recognition receptor (PRR) agonists [lipopolysaccharides of *E. coli* K12 (LPS<sub>K12</sub>) (a TLR4 agonist), muramyl dipeptide (MDP) (a NOD2 agonist), Poly(I:C) (a TLR3 agonist), Poly(dA:dT) (a multiple-PRR agonist), resiquimod (R848) (a TLR7/8 agonist), cyclic guanosine monophosphate-adenosine monophosphate (cGAMP) (a STING agonist), and 5' triphosphate double-stranded RNA (5'ppp-dsRNA) (a RIG-I agonist)], cytokines [IFN-α/IFN-β (an interferon-α/β receptor IFNAR agonist), IFN-γ, IL-1β and TNF-α], a potent mitogen [phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA)/ionomycin] and BCR or TCR activators. We measured the expression of 180 functionally well-annotated target genes, which we had selected *a priori* from a larger set of genes responsive to WB stimulation with purified PRR agonists, recombinant cytokines and pyogenic bacteria (20) (see methods and Supplemental Table S3 for further details); mock stimulations served as controls. We then filtered for differentially expressed genes (DEGs) among the 180 target genes for which the transcriptional responses in the patient’s WB samples to any of the *in vitro* stimulation conditions showed high variance in comparison to those of the other family members and the unrelated control (Supplemental Figure S3). The identified DEGs were associated with caspases and apoptosis, type I and II interferon signaling, inflammation, cell signaling, and
ubiquitination, as well as cell movement and phagocytosis (Figure 4 and Supplemental Table S4).

Finally, we performed mRNA-Seq of PBMCs isolated from the patient and following stimulation with PMA/ionomycin, IFN-α/IFN-β, or unstimulated. Both parents and three unrelated, healthy controls were assessed for comparison. We filtered for DEGs in response to each stimulation condition and found a profound dysregulation of IFN-regulated gene expression, although IFN-induced gene expression was not completely abrogated (Figure 5A). We then performed a gene enrichment analysis on the identified DEGs using the QIAGEN Ingenuity Pathway Analysis (IPA) software application. We focused our downstream analysis on canonical pathways that were differentially activated or inhibited in the patient’s cells, compared to those of the controls. In response to IFNAR activation, nine pathways were differentially regulated in the patient compared to the controls, most of which are linked to T cell signaling and apoptosis, cell proliferation, oxidative stress and interestingly, IL-23 signaling (Figure 5B). Similarly, we observed several pathways that are normally repressed following mitogen activation, but instead were highly activated or dysregulated in the patient’s cells. These included pathways primarily involved in T cell effector functions, T and B cell activation, cell cycle arrest and apoptosis (Figure 5B). Given the apparent dysregulation of IL-23 signaling in the patient’s cells, we also examined absolute IL-23 and IFNG gene expression, either at baseline, or following stimulation with PMA/ionomycin. We found that in comparison to the control subjects, IL-23 gene expression in the patient was highly impaired at baseline and largely unresponsive to PMA/ionomycin stimulation, whereas IFNG gene expression appeared normal (Supplemental Figure S3C and D).
Discussion

Due to the relatively small number of patients reported to date, the extent to which immune signaling and host defense mechanisms are impaired or dysregulated in patients with STK4 deficiency remains incompletely understood. Here, we describe a male pediatric patient with AR complete STK4 deficiency and a clinical history of recurrent viral and bacterial infections, persistent EBV viremia and pulmonary TB. The underlying stop-gain mutation was found to be located in a genomic region that encodes the coiled-coil domain of STK4, downstream of its protein kinase domain. We were unable to detect even a truncated STK4 protein in the patient using a monoclonal antibody to the N-terminal region of STK4, suggesting that protein expression of the mutated allele is completely abrogated due to nonsense-mediated decay.

In accordance with earlier case reports (5, 8, 33), we found that the PBMCs isolated from the patient in this study had reduced fractions of CD4+ naïve but increased effector memory T helper cell subsets compared with those in the STK4<sup>wt/mut</sup> family members and an unrelated STK4<sup>wt/wt</sup> control. Furthermore, flow cytometric analysis showed a considerable proportion of the remaining T helper cell subset in the patient expressed higher levels of PD-1, and our RNA-Seq analyses revealed dysregulation of several pathways in the patient, suggesting elevated T cell exhaustion and impaired effector functions of the residual T cells. Whether this is a consequence of persistent EBV viremia (34-36) or an intrinsic feature of STK4 deficiency, or perhaps both, remains to be established. Previous studies have shown that EBV reactivation correlates with the expression of PD-1/PD-L1 antigens in patients with proliferative glomerulonephritis (37). On the other hand, CD4<sup>+</sup> T cell lymphopenia has also been reported in STK4-deficient patients in the absence of detectable EBV infection (4). In addition, the patient presented with episodes of intermittent neutropenia, which is consistent with previous observations (2, 3, 6, 9).
Our results also highlight that STK4 deficiency can lead to the impairment of a variety of T cell-independent and innate immune responses. Indeed, we detected a considerable proportion of CD56\textsuperscript{bright} NK cells in the PBMCs isolated from the patient. While these cells constitute only a small fraction of NK cells in the peripheral blood in healthy individuals, they represent the majority of NK cells in secondary lymphoid tissues. CD56\textsuperscript{bright} NK cells are thought to be the precursors of NK cells (38) and may have immunoregulatory properties (39). We also observed a decreased fraction of pDCs in the patient’s peripheral blood. Whether this is an indirect consequence of active EBV infection, as shown in mouse studies (40), or whether low levels of pDCs contribute directly to a lack of EBV control, remains unclear. In accordance with the recent findings reported by Jørgensen et al. (15), we observed dysregulated type I and II IFN signaling in the patient’s cells. Interestingly, transcriptomic analysis of the patient’s PBMCs in response to IFNAR activation \textit{in vitro} revealed a profound dysregulation of IFN-regulated gene expression, affecting interferon-stimulated genes (ISGs) that are primarily associated with T cell activation and proliferation, although IFN-induced gene expression was not completely abrogated. This suggests that suboptimal IFN signaling may contribute to the T cell immunodeficiency and the vulnerability of STK4-deficient patients to viral infection and cancer development. However, overall fractions of CD19\textsuperscript{+} B cells (Figure 2A) and IgG antibody responses to childhood vaccination (Supplemental Table S1) or common microbial infection (Figure 3) did not appear to be diminished in our patient, apart from our observation that antibody specificities were largely targeting HHV-4 and -5 antigens. Of note, a recent study in STK4\textsuperscript{-/-} mice and nine patients from five unrelated families with STK4 deficiency has suggested that STK4 is required for normal humoral immunity, since KO mice and patients had reduced marginal zone B (MZB) cells, as well as reduced numbers of innate-like B-1b cell subsets, while the overall fractions of circulating CD19\textsuperscript{+} B cells were normal as in our patient (41). This raises the question whether patients with STK4 deficiency may also be selectively impaired to mount robust T cell-independent, polysaccharide-specific antibody responses to control natural infection with encapsulated bacteria, such as \textit{H. influenzae}, \textit{K. pneumoniae} and \textit{S. pneumoniae}, which would be consistent with the clinical history of our patient.
Polysaccharide-specific antibody responses (or the lack thereof) would have been undetectable by the PhIP-Seq assay performed in this study, as it exclusively detects antibodies that target protein antigens and has limitations for the detection of conformational as well as post-translationally modified epitopes (28). High efficacy of plain polysaccharide-based vaccines also depends on the maturation of MZB cells, which usually does not occur until the second year of life (42). In our patient, the specific antibody responses were at the lower end of our laboratory reference range (Supplemental Table S1). However, anti-pneumococcal polysaccharide antibodies cannot necessarily be utilized as markers of MZB cell-mediated immunity, due to the introduction of the conjugate pneumococcal vaccine into the local routine immunization schedule. The literature shows variability for specific antibody responses in STK4-deficient patients, ranging from normal to absent (41). The infection history of our patient with *H. influenzae*, *K. pneumoniae* and *S. pneumoniae* could have also interfered with the utility and interpretation of vaccine response tests using plain polysaccharide vaccines. Therefore, humoral immunity of patients with STK4 deficiency towards encapsulated bacteria requires further investigation.

We also demonstrated a profound impairment of *IL-23* gene expression in the patient’s PBMCs, both at baseline and following *in vitro* stimulation. IL-23 is produced by innate lymphoid cells, gamma-delta T cells, DCs and macrophages, and it has been shown that *IL-23*-dependent IFN-γ immunity plays a pivotal role in controlling *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (Mtb) infection (43). It is therefore tempting to speculate that impaired *IL-23* gene expression may have contributed to the susceptibility of the patient to pulmonary TB, confirmed on sputum culture. Despite the clinical evidence of pulmonary TB, the patient’s QuantiFERON test result was indeterminate, i.e., the patient’s lymphocytes did not respond to mitogen stimulation. This is likely to reflect a combination of the cellular dysfunction and profound lymphopenia. Of note, Radwan *et al.* (7) also speculated that complications in a 9-year-old Egyptian boy with STK4 deficiency were associated with mycobacterial infection, albeit tuberculin skin-test results were
negative and the results from QuantiFERON tests were also inconclusive in this Egyptian patient.

It remains unclear whether malignancies in STK4-deficient patients are a secondary consequence of persistent EBV viremia, or whether patients with STK4 deficiency are inherently prone to malignancies due to dysregulation of oncogenes even in the absence of EBV infection (4). Interestingly, our RNA-Seq experiments revealed upregulation of mitogen-induced B cell-activating factor (BAFF) receptor gene (TNFRSF13C) expression in the patient, suggesting activation of BAFF signaling, in contrast to the controls where this pathway was inhibited following PMA/ionomycin stimulation (Figure 5 and Supplemental Table S2).

Studies in vitro and in mice have shown that EBV drives autonomous B cell proliferation (44), which also depends on T cell-independent survival signals provided by the BAFF receptor. Excessive BAFF levels have been implicated in several B-lineage malignancies (45-48), which have also been reported in the context of STK4 deficiency with or without EBV viremia (2, 5-8, 10). Our observations provide further mechanistic insights into the susceptibility of STK4-deficient patients to malignancies, although they do not allow firm conclusions about the role of EBV in this process. Nonetheless, it is tempting to speculate that STK4-deficient patients, particularly those with persistent EBV viremia, may benefit from treatment with immune checkpoint inhibitors. Using a humanized mouse model, Ma et al. (49) demonstrated a direct beneficial effect of PD-1/CTLA-4 blockade mediated by monoclonal antibodies against PD-1 or CTLA-4 alone, or in combination, on EBV-associated B cell lymphomas, thereby providing further evidence in support of this hypothesis. On the other hand, several research groups have reported TB reactivation or primary Mtb infections in cancer patients who received checkpoint inhibitors (50-52). Therefore, the potential benefit of the use of checkpoint inhibitors in patients with STK4 deficiency requires further investigation.
Declarations

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**Conflicts of interest/Competing interests:** The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare that are relevant to the content of this article.

**Availability of data and material:** All processed data are available in the manuscript or the supplementary materials. Raw and processed sequence read data from the PhIP-Seq experiments are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request. Raw and processed RNA-Seq data are available at the Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO), series accession number GSE166761.

**Code availability:** Python in-house scripts used in this study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

**Authors' contributions:** NM conceived the study and supervised the project. AG, SB, RM, BL, MR, MA, FA, DP and KD designed and performed experiments. TK, AG, SB, WA, TH and NM analyzed and interpreted the flow cytometry, PhIP-Seq and high-throughput gene expression data as well as the RNA-Seq data. RM and BL analyzed STK4 gene and protein expression. KF and RC provided and analyzed the WGS data. MJ, DL, MK, AH and MA contributed the clinical data. AS, QZ, ECS, FA, MR and AR helped with the subject recruitment. AG, NM and SB wrote the paper.

**Ethics approval:** The study protocol was approved by the institutional review board (IRB) of Sidra Medicine (protocol no. 1601002512) and Weill Cornell Medicine, Qatar (protocol no. 13-00065).
Consent to participate: Written informed consent was obtained from each participant in accordance with local regulations governing human subject research.

Consent for publication: All authors have seen and approved the manuscript, which has not been accepted or published elsewhere.

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References


Figure 1  Identification of a homozygous STK4 gene mutation in a patient from consanguineous parents. (A) Pedigree and segregation of the STK4 gene mutation. The patient (P) is homozygous for the mutation. Question marks (?) indicate individuals whose genetic status could not be evaluated. (B) Electropherograms of partial sequences of STK4 corresponding to the mutation in a healthy control (bottom), patient (up) and one of the patient’s STK4*wt/mut relatives (middle), representative for any of the three healthy family members. The reference vs. altered nucleotide position is indicated by a black arrow. (C) Schematic illustration of the protein encoded by the STK4 gene, with domain boundaries and other features retrieved from the UniProtKB (www.uniprot.org) (entry Q13043). Blue arrows indicate previously reported variants (2-5, 9-12, 15, 33). The variant of the patient in the present study is indicated in red text. CC, coiled coil domain; SARAH, Sav/Rassf/Hpo domain (IPR024205). (D) Combined annotation-dependent depletion score (CADD) serves as a measure to predict the functional impact of the variant. Data from the gnomAD database were used to plot minor allele frequency (MAF) against the CADD score values of all known variants in STK4 and the patient's variant. (E) Western blot analysis of STK4 protein expression in PBMC-derived T lymphocytes from the patient (P), two STK4*wt/mut heterozygous relatives (R1 and R2) and two unrelated STK4*wt/wt, healthy controls (C1 and C2); α-tubulin and β-actin antibodies were used as controls.
Figure 2  Leukocyte subsets in the STK4-deficient patient, his parents and sibling, and one unrelated healthy control. For all experiments, subjects are presented in the following order from left to right: Unrelated control, the patient’s three relatives, and the patient. (A) Frequency of B (CD3CD19+) and T lymphocytes (CD3CD19+) among CD45+ lymphocytes. (B) Frequency of T lymphocytes (CD3+) and NK cell immunophenotyping, showing the frequency of CD56 (CD3CD56+) and CD56 (CD3CD56+) NK cells among CD45+ lymphocytes. (C) Frequency of cytotoxic (CD3CD8+) and helper (CD3CD4+) T lymphocytes among the CD3+ lymphocyte subset. (D) Frequency of PD-1+ T lymphocytes (CD4+PD-1+) among the CD4+ T cell subset. (E) Frequency of naive (CD45RACCR7+), central memory (CD45RACCR7+), effector memory (CD45RACCR7+) and effector memory cells re-expressing CD45RA (T EMRA) (CD45RACCR7+) cells among the CD4+ T cell compartment. (F) Frequency of CD27+ and CD28+ T helper subsets within the CD4+ compartment. (G) Frequency of myeloid dendritic cells (mDCs) (CD123CD11c+) and plasmacytoid dendritic cells (pDCs) (CD123CD11c+) among the CD45+HLA-DR+CD3+CD14+CD19+, CD20+CD56+ dendritic cell population.
Figure 3  Microbial exposure profile and antiviral antibody repertoire in the STK4-deficient patient. (A) Antibody profile in the STK4$^{WT}$ patient (P), his STK4$^{WT}$ family members (R1, R2 and R3) as well as two unrelated STK4$^{WT/WT}$ controls (C1 and C2). Pooled human plasma used for intravenous immunoglobulin therapy (IVIg), human IgG-depleted serum (IgG-depl.) and mock-IP samples served as additional controls. The heatmap plot shows species-specific adjusted score values, which served as a quantitative measure of the number of antibody specificities targeting a given microbial species. (B) Bar plot depicting, for each sample shown in (A), the number of species for which peptides were significantly enriched by PhIP-Seq (i.e., at least one antibody specificity was detected) (light blue) and number of species for which the adjusted virus score values passed the significance cut-off (i.e., the sample was considered seropositive for that given species) (dark blue). (C) Principal component analysis (PCA) of the -log$_{10}$(P-values) of significantly enriched peptides for each sample as shown in (A). The scatter plot shows the contribution of the significantly enriched peptides to principal component (PC)1 and PC2. (D) Scatter plot showing the contribution of enriched peptides in the patient’s sample to PC1 and PC2. Peptides are color-coded by species. Peptides shown in grey correspond to species for which less than two peptides had a delta (PC1-PC2) of more than the 70th percentile (top).
Figure 4  Unique gene expression signature in whole blood samples from the STK4-deficient patient following in vitro stimulation. The heatmap shows the log$_2$-transformed fold change values (log2FC) of the differentially expressed genes (DEGs) among the 180 target genes for which transcriptional responses in the patient’s (P) whole blood samples to in vitro stimulation showed a variance of |log2FC| >1 compared to those of the other family members (R1, R2 and R3) and an unrelated control (C1). Gene-stimuli pairs are grouped according to the functional annotation of the gene cluster as described previously (20).
Figure 5  RNA-Seq and gene enrichment analysis of stimulated PBMCs. (A) The heatmaps show log$_2$-transformed fold change values (log2FC) of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) following in vitro stimulation of PBMCs obtained from the STK4-deficient patient (P), two of his family members (R1 and R2) and three unrelated controls (C1, C2 and C3) with either recombinant human IFN-α and IFN-β (left), or PMA and ionomycin (right). Pink indicates activated genes and green indicates repressed genes. (B) Heatmaps show the activation z-score values of a canonical pathway comparison analysis using the QIAGEN Ingenuity Pathway Analysis software for stimulation with recombinant human IFN-α and IFN-β (top), or PMA and ionomycin (bottom). Red indicates activated pathways and blue indicates repressed pathways.