

Human V γ 9V δ 2 T cells: promising new leads for immunotherapy of infections and tumors

Marc Bonneville and Emmanuel Scotet

V γ 9V δ 2 T cells, a major human peripheral $\gamma\delta$ T-cell subset, react *in vitro* against a wide array of microbial agents and tumor cells. This broad reactivity pattern is conferred by non-peptidic phosphorylated isoprenoid pathway metabolites, referred to as phosphoantigens, which are able to specifically activate this $\gamma\delta$ T-cell subset in a T-cell receptor dependent fashion. Recent studies provide new insights into the mode of action of phosphoantigens on V γ 9V δ 2 T cells and might explain how their recognition can allow detection of infected or altered self by the immune system. The broad antimicrobial and antitumoral reactivity of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells, their ability to produce inflammatory cytokines involved in protective immunity against intracellular pathogens and tumors, and their strong cytolytic and bactericidal activities suggest a direct involvement in immune control of cancers and infections. These observations have recently aided development of novel immunotherapeutic approaches aimed at V γ 9V δ 2 T-cell activation, which have already yielded encouraging results.

Addresses

Institut National de la Sante et de la Recherche Medicale, Unite 601,
Institut de Biologie, 9 quai Moncousu, 44093 Nantes cedex 01, France

Corresponding author: Bonneville, Marc (bonnevil@nantes.inserm.fr)

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Introduction

Since the fortuitous discovery of $\gamma\delta$ T cells about two decades ago, more than 5000 articles have been written that address the biology of these lymphocytes in animal and human models. These studies have highlighted the marked molecular, phenotypic and functional heterogeneity of $\gamma\delta$ T cells [1]. In particular, they have revealed the striking tissue-dependent restriction of the $\gamma\delta$ T-cell receptor (TCR) repertoire in rodents, which results, in some cases, in the expression of the same ‘invariant’ TCRs by $\gamma\delta$ T cells that reside in particular tissues, such as epidermis or reproductive organ mucosa [2]. These observations suggest that murine $\gamma\delta$ T cells in different body locations have distinct functions, which is in accordance with reports that implicate these lymphocytes in

protective immunity against pathogens and tumors, immunoregulation or epithelial homeostasis. However, the structural basis for such a functional specialization is still ill-defined because we know little about the fine antigen (Ag) specificity of $\gamma\delta$ T cells. Besides a few examples of recognition of native MHC or MHC-like molecules or of native viral components by a tiny fraction of $\gamma\delta$ T cells derived from peripheral lymphoid organs [3], the Ag specificity of most of them, including rodent intraepithelial subsets that express invariant $\gamma\delta$ TCRs, remains undefined.

In humans, most of our knowledge about the specificity and biological role of $\gamma\delta$ T cells is derived from analysis of a major peripheral subset referred to as V γ 9V δ 2 T cells, the features of which will be reviewed here. A particular emphasis will be given to recent results that have provided new hints about the mode of activation of these lymphocytes, their implication in immune responses against infectious agents and tumors, and their manipulation for immunotherapeutic purposes.

Early maturation of V γ 9V δ 2 lymphocytes

Like their murine counterparts, human $\gamma\delta$ T cells show biased usage of particular TCR V regions that differs between tissue locations [4,5]. Whereas most thymic or splenic $\gamma\delta$ T cells express V δ 1 or V δ 3 TCRs, the majority of $\gamma\delta$ peripheral blood lymphocytes (PBLs) in human adults express TCRs comprising V δ 2 and V γ 9 regions (also referred to as V δ 2 and V γ 2 in some reports). The high frequency of peripheral V γ 9V δ 2 T cells, which make up to several percent of CD3⁺ PBLs in adults, is probably the consequence of their postnatal peripheral expansion [4]. This process is paralleled by early acquisition of memory markers, because, unlike other $\gamma\delta$ or $\alpha\beta$ subsets, almost all V γ 9V δ 2 PBLs already display memory features in two-year old infants [6]. Although repeated stimulation by environmental Ags could explain the rapid immunological maturation of postnatal V γ 9V δ 2 PBLs, the common occurrence of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells that carry memory markers in cord blood (on average 40%) suggests their recurrent stimulation by endogenous ligands upregulated during early developmental stages.

Despite significant sequence diversity at their V(D)J joints, most V γ 9V δ 2 PBLs display recurrent TCR junctional features that are not found on most V γ 9V δ 2 thymocytes [7]. This suggests their peripheral selection by structurally related Ag. Accordingly, PBL-derived V γ 9V δ 2 T-cell clones show similar reactivity patterns against infected and tumor cells, and are activated in a

TCR-dependent fashion by the same restricted set of non-peptidic compounds (see below). Therefore, V γ 9V δ 2 T cells can be considered as a monospecific lymphoid subset.

V γ 9V δ 2 recognition of microbial and tumor-derived isoprenoid metabolites

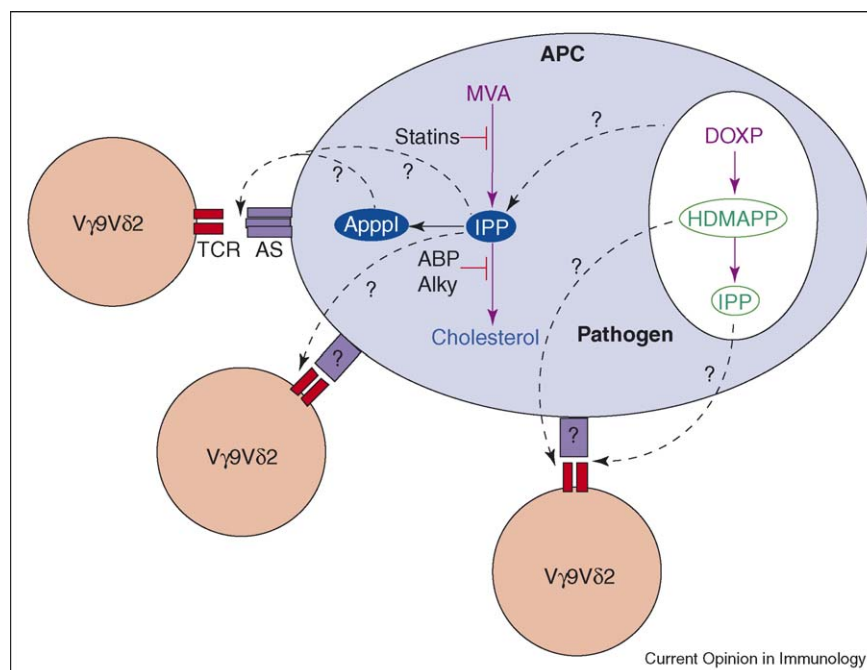
V γ 9V δ 2 T cells are specifically activated by small non-peptidic phosphorylated compounds — also referred to as phosphoantigens (phosphoAgs) [4]. In all instances, these molecules are metabolites of isoprenoid biosynthetic pathways (Figure 1).

The most potent V γ 9V δ 2 agonists are produced through the 1-deoxy-D-xylulose-5-phosphate (DOXP) pathway, which is found in several microorganisms [8,9]. One such metabolite, called hydroxy-dimethyl-allyl-pyrophosphate or hydroxy-methyl-butyl-pyrophosphate, activates V γ 9V δ 2 T cells at 0.1 nM concentrations [8]. By contrast, the V γ 9V δ 2 bioactivity of metabolites produced through the mevalonate pathway used by mammalian cells, such as isopentenyl pyrophosphate (IPP), is about 10 000-fold lower [10]. The high specific bioactivity of microbial phosphoAgs might allow V γ 9V δ 2 T cells to efficiently and sensitively detect target cells infected by even a

single mycobacteria [11[•]] (Figure 2). Moreover, efficient discrimination of normal versus tumor cells by this $\gamma\delta$ subset is ensured through activation by IPP, the production of which is increased upon cell transformation [12]. Upregulation of stress ligands (such as NKG2D ligands) on infected and transformed cells might further enhance specific recognition of altered-self by V γ 9V δ 2 T cells, in line with recent studies that reported the important role played by NKG2D receptors during target cell killing by V γ 9V δ 2 T cells [13–16].

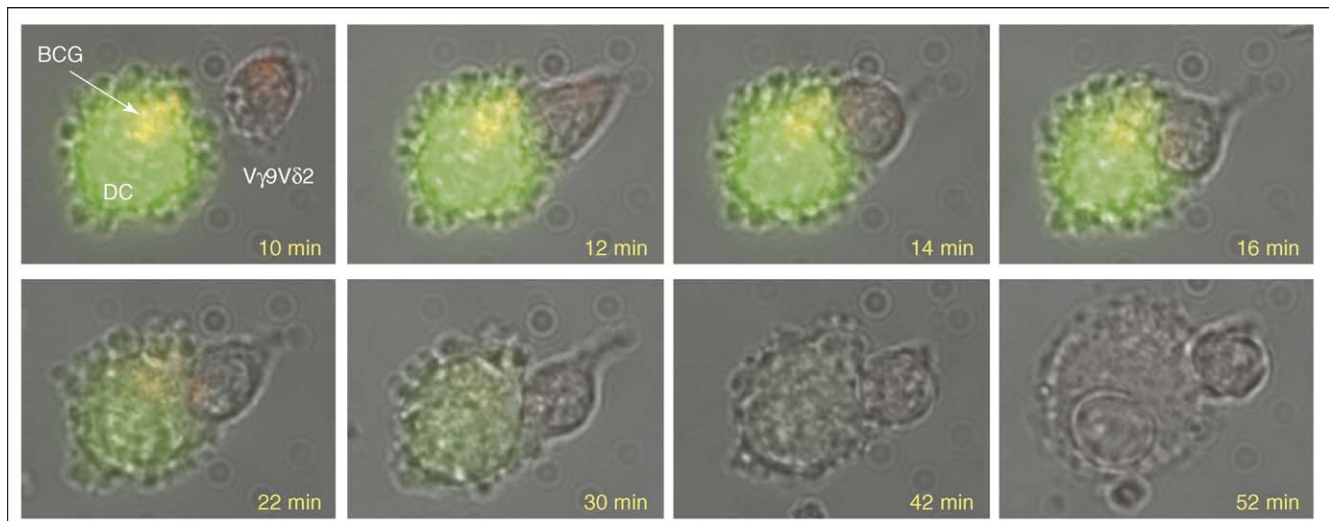
In addition to phosphoAg, pharmacological compounds that inhibit the mevalonate pathway such as statins and aminobisphosphonates (ABPs) can modulate target cell recognition by V γ 9V δ 2 cells by down- and up-regulating intracellular IPP levels, respectively [4]. The ability of some nonphosphorylated compounds, such as alkylamines [17], to stimulate V γ 9V δ 2 lymphocytes has been difficult to reconcile with the above findings. Recent observations indicate that, like ABPs, alkylamines are not recognized *per se* but instead inhibit the mevalonate pathway downstream of IPP biosynthesis, thus leading to intracellular accumulation of this phosphoAg [18[•]]. Therefore, it appears that, in all instances, V γ 9V δ 2 T cells are activated by pyrophosphomonoesters.

Figure 1



Contribution of DOXP versus mevalonate (MVA) metabolites to V γ 9V δ 2 T-cell activation. In mammalian cells, IPP is a metabolite produced through the isoprenoid MVA pathway that leads to cholesterol production. Pharmacological agents can block either upstream (statins) or downstream (ABP, alkylamines) MVA pathways leading, respectively, to decreased or increased intracellular IPP levels. Endogenous IPP accumulation is also observed in diverse tumor cells. This metabolite could then be directly presented at the cell surface either by peroxysomal or mitochondrial enzymes translocated at the cell surface, such as AS, or by a presentation molecule that has not yet been defined. IPP metabolites can be converted into Apppl — a recently described ATP analog — which could then be processed and presented at the cell surface. In pathogen-infected APCs (e.g. mycobacterial infection), bacterial 4-hydroxy-3-dimethylallyl pyrophosphate (HDMAPP) or IPP metabolites produced through the DOXP pathway could be directly presented and/or contribute to upregulate the cellular MVA pathway.

Figure 2



V γ 9V δ 2 T lymphocytes can kill *in vitro* cells infected by mycobacteria. These fluorescence images show an interaction between a single cytotoxic V γ 9V δ 2 T cell (clone G115) and a *M. bovis* BCG-infected immature dendritic cell (DC). DCs were first infected for two hours with enhanced green fluorescent protein (EGFP)-BCG, and were then washed and loaded with calcein (green), which was used as a viability marker in this experiment. T lymphocytes were loaded with LysoTracker Red (red), which labels lytic granules. Time after addition of T cells to infected DCs is indicated in each box. V γ 9V δ 2 cytotoxic lymphocyte rapidly forms a conjugate with a BCG-infected DC (10–12 min). Lytic granules (red) are reoriented towards infected DC and are relocalized close to the immune synapse (12–16 min). BCG-infected DC is killed by V γ 9V δ 2 lymphocyte, as visualized by calcein leakage and morphological changes (22–52 min).

Several issues regarding the respective contribution of DOXP versus mevalonate metabolites to V γ 9V δ 2 activation and their mode of action remain open. Statins, which block the mevalonate but not the DOXP pathway, significantly inhibit *in vitro* recognition of infected cells by V γ 9V δ 2 T cells (MB and ES, unpublished). Although preliminary, these data indicate that, despite its low bioactivity, IPP might contribute to V γ 9V δ 2 activation in an infectious context, possibly as a consequence of an upregulation of the mevalonate pathway upon infection and/or phagocytosis. According to this hypothesis, the broad antiviral reactivity of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells [19[•]] could be accounted for by upregulation of cellular IPP. Together, these results indicate that IPP is a sensor of cell stress, not only in a tumor but also in an infectious context.

Mode of V γ 9V δ 2 activation by phosphoantigens

Although phosphoAg-mediated activation of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells clearly involves TCRs, all attempts to demonstrate cognate interactions between V γ 9V δ 2 TCRs and phosphoAg in acellular systems have failed to date [4]. Because activation of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells requires cell-to-cell contact [20], these results suggest either that phosphoAg induce structural modification of surface receptors recognized in turn by the V γ 9V δ 2 TCRs or that phosphoAg are presented by surface molecules that are undefined to date. Although mevalonate pathway enzymes that interact with IPP are normally located in

peroxisomes, some of these enzymes might interact with chaperones involved in surface translocation of intracellular proteins [21]. Therefore, they might directly present phosphoAg to the TCR. Alternatively, IPP could be presented by surface receptors unrelated to the mevalonate pathway. In this regard, V γ 9V δ 2 T cells were shown recently to recognize a complex formed between apolipoprotein A1 and ATP synthase (AS) — a mitochondrial enzyme that is translocated to the surface of normal hepatocytes and some tumor cell lines — in a TCR-dependent fashion [22^{••}]. Direct activation of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells by AS-coated beads suggests that apolipoprotein A1 plays a dispensable role in this process, although the latter might enhance the interaction between V γ 9V δ 2 TCR and AS.

The biological relevance of AS recognition by V γ 9V δ 2 lymphocytes and the possible implication of this enzyme in phosphoAg presentation are still unclear. The mechanisms that underlie translocation of AS to the plasma membrane are unknown but could be linked to accidental fusion events between the mitochondrial and plasma membranes, which might occur in actively proliferating and/or transformed cells. Accordingly, surface AS is detected on proliferating but not on resting keratinocytes [23]. Owing to its extensive conservation from bacteria to mammals, AS could also represent a cue for activation of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells that is upregulated in diverse infectious contexts. In this regard, the AS β subunit is among the few microbial proteins that can be detected in

mycobacteria-infected macrophages early after infection [24]. Surface AS is also expressed on endothelial cells, in which it inhibits cell proliferation after engagement by angiostatin [25]. Therefore, AS recognition might allow not only direct activation of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells by infected and/or transformed cells but also immune regulation of neo-angiogenesis. Although direct interactions between AS and phosphoAg have not been reported to date, a recent study suggests a link between AS and phosphoAg recognition by V γ 9V δ 2 T cells. IPP accumulation in ABP-treated cells is associated with appearance of ApppI — a novel ATP analog that results from covalent bonding between AMP and IPP [26]. Such a compound, which is reminiscent of several V γ 9V δ 2-stimulating nucleotidic mycobacterial phosphoAgs and was previously referred to as TubAg3 and TubAg4 [27], is able to induce cell apoptosis through blockade of mitochondrial ATP/ADP translocase. Similarly, ApppI might interact with ATP synthase, thus raising the possibility that V γ 9V δ 2 T cells actually recognize such a complex. Although highly speculative, such a hypothesis could be tested by analysis of ApppI binding to purified AS and its effect on V γ 9V δ 2 T-cell activation.

***In vitro* V γ 9V δ 2 T cell responses against infections and tumors**

Implication of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells in anti-infectious immunity and tumor immunosurveillance is supported by both *in vivo* and *in vitro* observations. *In vivo*, peripheral blood and/or intralesional V γ 9V δ 2 T cells are expanded in patients infected by a wide array of microbial agents and in those that carry hemopoietic and solid tumors [4]. Moreover, V γ 9V δ 2 T cells kill *in vitro* cells infected by bacteria, protozoa and viruses, as well as by a variety of tumor cell lines [4] (Figure 2). Because most peripheral V γ 9V δ 2 T cells show a memory and pre-activated status [6] and express receptors for inflammatory chemokines such as CCR5 [28,29] they can be rapidly recruited to and locally activated in inflamed tissues in the course of infection or oncogenesis. In these, V γ 9V δ 2 T cells might contribute to the early stage of immune protection through at least three possible mechanisms (Figure 3).

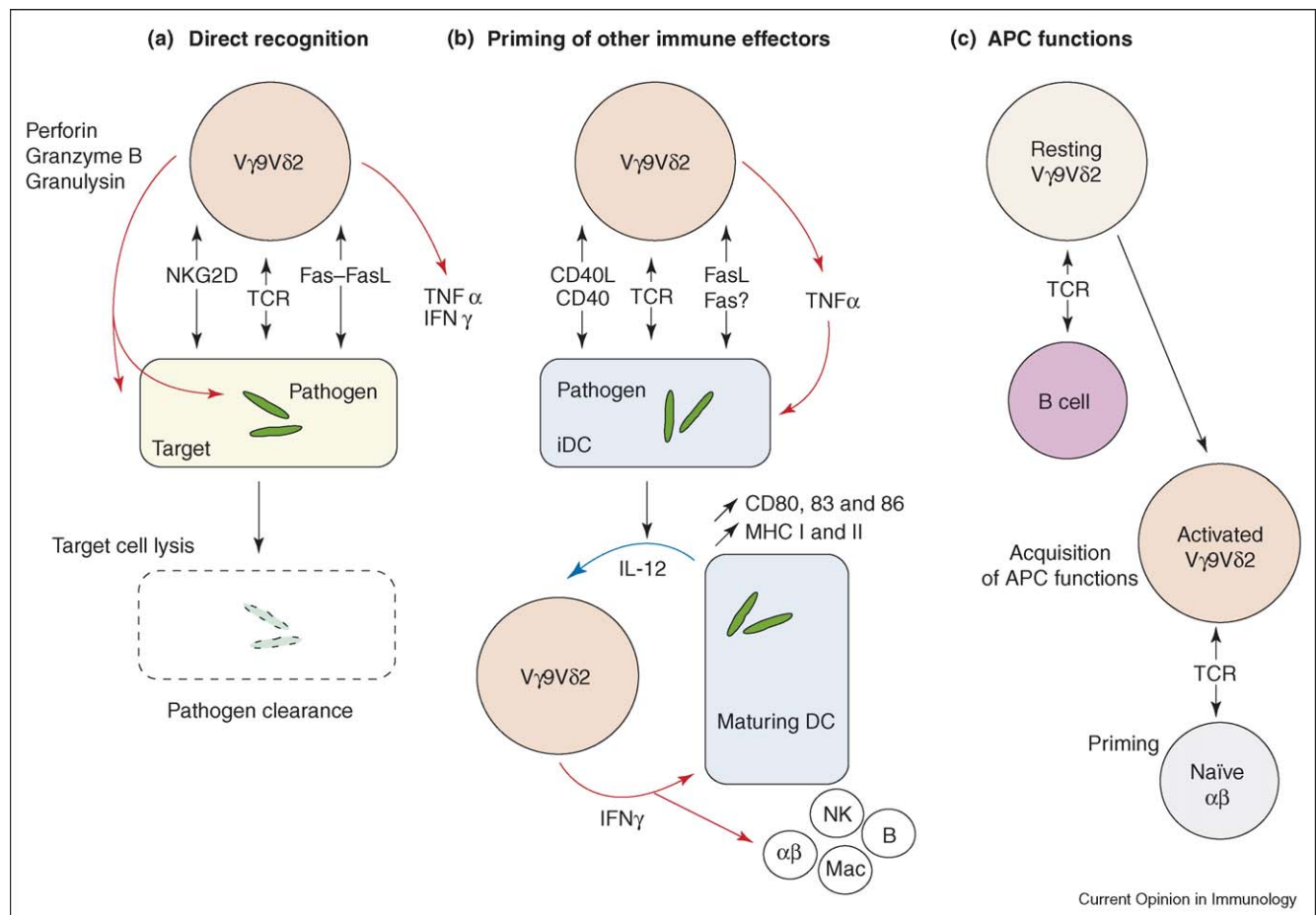
Owing to their strong lytic activity and their ability to release pro-inflammatory cytokines and antibacterial compounds [30], V γ 9V δ 2 T cells can directly mediate elimination of infected and tumor cells and pathogen clearance (Figures 2 and 3a). V γ 9V δ 2 T cells might also contribute to immature dendritic cell (iDC) activation and subsequent priming of conventional Th1 responses (Figure 3b). Like invariant natural killer T cells (iNKT cells), V γ 9V δ 2 lymphocytes can induce full activation of iDCs infected by pathogens unable to promote efficient iDC maturation, such as mycobacteria or α -proteobacteria. In particular, iDCs infected with *Mycobacterium bovis* bacillus Calmette-Guérin (BCG) show accelerated and full maturation into IL-12-producing cells when

incubated with V γ 9V δ 2 lymphocytes [11[•]]. However, V γ 9V δ 2 T cells are unable to produce proinflammatory cytokines when incubated with iDCs alone, even in the presence of IL-12 (MB and ES, unpublished). This indicates that, unlike iNKT or NK cells [31,32], this $\gamma\delta$ subset shows no basal autoreactivity against DCs and, therefore, might not contribute to priming of immune responses directed against pathogens that lack V γ 9V δ 2 agonists. As for other 'innate-like' lymphocytes, V γ 9V δ 2 T cell mediated iDC activation presumably occurs in two steps: an initial upregulation of costimulatory and MHC I and II receptors is induced upon CD40L engagement and exposure to TNF α produced by activated V γ 9V δ 2 T cells, then IL-12 production is boosted through a positive feedback loop that involves T cell derived IFN γ [33]. In light of a recent study describing Fas-mediated iDC activation by V δ 1 T cells [34[•]], V γ 9V δ 2 T cells might also activate iDC through Fas engagement, because they show strong upregulation of both FasL and CD40L mRNA upon phosphoAg stimulation [35].

Finally, a recent report from B Moser and co-workers [36[•]] suggests a new and unexpected implication of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells in naïve T-cell priming, through their ability to behave like professional antigen-presenting cells (APCs; Figure 3c). Unlike $\alpha\beta$ T cells, V γ 9V δ 2 PBLs acquire several attributes of APCs, such as the expression of CD40 and costimulatory molecules, upon short-term *in vitro* antigenic stimulation. Accordingly, activated V γ 9V δ 2 T cells can promote *in vitro* proliferation of superantigen-stimulated naïve $\alpha\beta$ T cells. Because V γ 9V δ 2 lymphocytes transiently upregulate CCR7 upon Ag activation [29], this would endow them with the capacity to migrate to lymph nodes where they could fulfill these APC functions. However, the above features might not be restricted to V γ 9V δ 2 T cells, but instead reflect a peculiar functional and/or memory status (with respect to CCR7 upregulation) or result from unusual *in vitro* T-cell stimulation conditions. Feeder B cells were required to get optimal acquisition of professional APC characteristics by V γ 9V δ 2 T cells (B Moser, personal communication). Therefore, the possibility that B cell derived costimulatory factors are primarily responsible for this phenomenon has not been formally ruled out. Moreover, the limited pinocytic and phagocytic activity of V γ 9V δ 2 lymphocytes and their inability to produce IL-12 might not allow them to efficiently prime conventional Th1 cells directed against processed peptidic Ag. These various issues will certainly be addressed in future.

Whereas V γ 9V δ 2 T cells are classically considered as proinflammatory lymphocytes that are able to produce large amounts of TNF α and IFN γ [4], some V γ 9V δ 2 subsets show different functional profiles, possibly reflecting their involvement in the regulation of a broader array of immune and non-immune processes. Tonsillar

Figure 3



Multiple contributions of V γ 9V δ 2 T lymphocytes to protective immunity against infections and tumors. **(a)** Direct recognition of tumor or infected target cell. Following TCR engagement, V γ 9V δ 2 T cells release rapidly large amounts of inflammatory cytokines (TNF α and IFN γ) and lytic mediators (perforin, granzyme B and granulysin), leading to the destruction of target cells and internalized pathogens such as mycobacteria. **(b)** Priming of other immune effectors. V γ 9V δ 2 T cells are activated by pathogen-infected DCs and promote accelerated and complete DC maturation through strong release of TNF α and CD40 engagement. Maturing DCs release significant levels of IL-12, which amplifies IFN γ secretion by activated T lymphocytes. Released cytokines, as well as fully matured DCs, can then contribute to the priming of innate and adaptive immune effectors subsequently involved in the clearance of pathogens. **(c)** APC functions. Upon short-term antigenic stimulation, V γ 9V δ 2 T cells acquire several attributes of APCs (CD40, MHC I and II, and costimulatory molecules) and can promote the priming of naïve conventional $\alpha\beta$ T cells. B cells might be required to get optimal induction of those APC features.

V γ 9V δ 2 T cells display cytokine and chemokine-chemokine receptor profiles similar to those of the so-called T follicular helper subsets, which have been implicated in the formation of germinal centers ([29] and F Dieli, personal communication). Recent observations suggest that such T follicular helper-like V γ 9V δ 2 T cells are induced *in vitro* upon Ag stimulation in the presence of IL-21 (Vermijlen D *et al.*: Gene expression profiling of unconventional T cells provides novel insights into a human $\gamma\delta$ T cell clinical trial [Abstract 36]. 2^d $\gamma\delta$ T cell conference, San Diego CA, March 2006). It is also possible to polarize *in vitro* V γ 9V δ 2 T cells towards IL-4-producing 'Th0' cells [37]. *In vivo* Th0 polarization of V γ 9V δ 2 PBLs seems to correlate with development of active tuberculosis in exposed healthcare

workers, suggesting its relevance as a prognostic marker of immune protection against mycobacterial infections [38]. Finally, recent studies have described production of several factors involved in epithelial regeneration, such as keratinocyte growth factor, fibroblast growth factor 9 and matrix metalloproteinase 7, by Ag-stimulated V γ 9V δ 2 T cells [39,40]. Hence, V γ 9V δ 2 T cells, which are also found within the intestinal epithelium, might contribute to epithelial homeostasis, like murine intraepithelial $\gamma\delta$ subsets [41]. Additional *in vivo* studies will be required to validate the biological relevance of these observations. In any case, they illustrate the diversity of V γ 9V δ 2 effector functions, the induction of which might tightly depend on the modalities of Ag stimulation and the tissue microenvironment.

***In vivo* V γ 9V δ 2 T cell responses in SCID/Hu models**

The lack of murine counterparts of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells has dramatically hampered assessment of their *in vivo* role. Nevertheless, the involvement of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells in the immune control of some bacterial infections and solid tumors is suggested by analysis of severe combined immunodeficiency (SCID) mice reconstituted with human PBLs or with purified V γ 9V δ 2 T cells. It has been reported recently that adoptively transferred V γ 9V δ 2 T cells in SCID mice have anti-melanoma activity [42,43]. However, V γ 9V δ 2 cells might not be as efficient as V δ 1 T cells or NK cells in clearing tumors upon systemic injection, possibly owing to expression of inappropriate homing receptors [43]. By contrast, direct *in vivo* activation of V γ 9V δ 2 PBLs by synthetic V γ 9V δ 2 agonists and IL-2 in a SCID/HuPBL model leads to massive infiltration of transplanted renal tumors by *in vivo* expanded V γ 9V δ 2 T cells, followed by efficient tumor clearance (J Chargui *et al.*: Phosphostim-activated V γ 9V δ 2 T cells induce anti-tumoral immunity *in vivo* against renal cell carcinoma [abstract 69]. 2^d $\gamma\delta$ conference, San Diego CA, March 2006). This indicates that *ad hoc* tumor homing receptors can be induced on this $\gamma\delta$ subset upon *in vivo* Ag stimulation.

V γ 9V δ 2 T cell-based cancer immunotherapy

The high frequency of V γ 9V δ 2 lymphocytes in most individuals, their reactivity towards small conserved non-peptidic compounds amenable to *in vitro* synthesis, the diversity of their effector functions, and their broad reactivity against infected and tumor cells make them promising targets for immunotherapy. Several GMP-grade compounds able to stimulate V γ 9V δ 2 T cells are readily available for such purposes.

ABPs have already been used for several years to treat bone resorption associated with various pathologies (e.g. osteoporosis, multiple myeloma, etc.). Moreover, large-scale synthesis of clinical-grade V γ 9V δ 2 agonists identical or related to natural phosphoAgs has been achieved recently by some private companies [44^{••}]. Such compounds are now used for clinical and pre-clinical studies in patients and in non-human primates, which all possess close homologues of human V γ 9V δ 2 lymphocytes. To date, adoptive transfer of several billions of *in vitro* expanded autologous V γ 9V δ 2 T cells in renal carcinoma patients has shown no or limited toxicity in phase I trials (J Bennouna, personal communication).

The next goals will be to design clinical-grade T-cell labelling protocols to monitor tumor homing of injected V γ 9V δ 2 T cells, and to demonstrate their therapeutic efficacy in phase II trials. Several clinical trials aiming at direct *in vivo* activation of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells in cancer patients were recently completed or are ongoing. Transient systemic increase of TNF α and IFN γ serum

levels — two cytokines that have known antitumor and/or antimicrobial activity — was observed within a few hours after intravenous injection of ABP or phosphoAg in primates [44^{••},45] and patients (J Bennouna *et al.*: Phase I clinical trial of Bromohydrin Pyrophosphate, BrHPP [Phosphostim], a V γ 9V δ 2 T lymphocytes agonist in combination with low dose Interleukin 2 in patients with solid tumors [Abstract 72]. 2^d $\gamma\delta$ conference, San Diego CA, March 2006). However, such treatments failed to induce *in vivo* expansion of V γ 9V δ 2 PBLs in most individuals. In stark contrast, co-administration of both V γ 9V δ 2 agonists and recombinant IL-2 led to a significant expansion of V γ 9V δ 2 PBLs in several cancer patients [46], in line with pre-clinical primate studies [44^{••},45] and *in vitro* evidence for T helper dependent V γ 9V δ 2 cell proliferation [47]. Interestingly, tumor stabilization or even partial regression was seen in several multiple myeloma patients responding to the V γ 9V δ 2 stimulation protocol [46]. However, unlike healthy non-human primates, about half of treated patients failed to expand their peripheral V γ 9V δ 2 PBLs after treatment with V γ 9V δ 2 agonists and IL-2. Furthermore, repeated treatments led to rapid exhaustion of peripheral proliferative responses of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells in both healthy primates and diseased patients, although the ability of these lymphocytes to respond to Ag *in vitro* seemed to be maintained ([44^{••}] and H Sicard *et al.*, personal communication). Although promising, these observations indicate that immunotherapeutic protocols that target V γ 9V δ 2 lymphocytes need to be optimized before one can conclude about their anti-tumor efficacy. *In vitro* studies suggest that, like IL-2, IL-15 is an important growth and homeostatic factor for V γ 9V δ 2 T cells [48]. Therefore, this cytokine, which can also enhance NKG2D-mediated killing of target cells by both $\alpha\beta$ and $\gamma\delta$ T cells [49], could be logically tested in combination with V γ 9V δ 2 agonists for immunotherapeutic purposes.

Conclusions

Like other 'non-conventional' T-cell subsets bearing invariant $\alpha\beta$ or $\gamma\delta$ TCRs, such as CD1d-restricted iNKT cells or murine intraepithelial $\gamma\delta$ T-cell subsets, V γ 9V δ 2 T cells exhibit several characteristics that place them at the border between innate and adaptive immunity [50]. Like innate effectors, these lymphocytes recognize conserved Ag upregulated in stressed, infected or transformed cells, acquire early in life a pre-activated status that allows their rapid activation upon Ag encounter, and are found at high frequencies in particular tissue locations in 'pre-immune' individuals. Their implications in diverse physiopathological processes make them particularly interesting targets for immunotherapeutic protocols that aim to either boost or dampen immune responses. Future challenges will be to identify the factors that contribute to the *in vivo* functional polarization and homeostasis of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells in order to set up optimized stimulation protocols allowing long-term induction

of V γ 9V δ 2 T-cell responses with *ad hoc* effector properties. The peculiar reactivity of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells towards antigens upregulated in a wide array of immune and non-immune processes also raises questions about their primary *raison d'être* and their functional complementarity with conventional $\alpha\beta$ T cells — issues which should be addressed in future studies.

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