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Primary Immunodeficiency Information Knowledge Services

ACADEMIC DISSERTATION

To be presented, with the permission of the board of Institute of Biomedical Technology of the University of Tampere, for public discussion in the Jarmo Visakorpi Auditorium, of the Arvo Building, Lääkärinkatu 1, Tampere, on August 10th, 2012, at 12 o'clock.



ACADEMIC DISSERTATION

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Distribution Bookshop TAJU P.O. Box 617 33014 University of Tampere Finland Tel. +358 40 190 9800 Fax +358 3 3551 7685 taju@uta.fi www.uta.fi/taju http://granum.uta.fi

Cover design by Mikko Reinikka

Acta Universitatis Tamperensis 1738 ISBN 978-951-44-8824-5 (print) ISSN-L 1455-1616 ISSN 1455-1616 Acta Electronica Universitatis Tamperensis 1209 ISBN 978-951-44-8825-2 (pdf) ISSN 1456-954X http://acta.uta.fi

Tampereen Yliopistopaino Oy – Juvenes Print Tampere 2012 In memory of my father, Constantin Samarghitean (1945-1994) and for all PIDs patients and their caregivers.

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ABSTRACT

New technologies allow researchers to produce large amounts of data (e.g. from textual and multimedia sources), which represents a challenge for the scientific community. Bioinformatics fills the gaps by creating algorithms, tools and methods to process the increasing quantity of information.

The main contribution of this research project was to introduce new and improved biomedical informatics methods in the field of primary immunodeficiency diseases (PIDs). Patients with these diseases have an increased rate of infections but also autoimmune and malignant manifestations. Many of these diseases are very rare with a fatal end and often they are misdiagnosed or have a delayed diagnosis. Developing software systems within the domain of primary immunodeficiencies is a highly challenging task.

In this study two databases were created and a new classification for PIDs was developed. The studies described here use an interdisciplinary approach, based on database and data mining technologies, artificial intelligence, machine learning and combined data from different disciplines such as molecular biology, genetics, immunology, bioinformatics.

The wide ranging domain of PIDs was investigated at the protein, genetic, and clinical level and, based on the analyses of different PIDs. Two databases, ImmunoDeficiency Resources (IDR) and IDdiagnostics were developed. IDR is a comprehensive knowledge base for PIDs, which includes tools for clinical, biochemical, genetic, structural and computational analyses as well as links to related information maintained by others. IDdiagnostics is a directory of laboratories performing genetic and clinical tests for PIDs. A concept map for the bioinformatics study of PIDs was designed for different types of users. The model can be used for different types of hereditary diseases.

Several computational methods for the classification and clustering of PIDs have developed a novel classification of 11 groups, which revealed previously unknown features and relationships of PIDs. These methods aim at automating the classification of PIDs and therefore would be very useful for the PID research and clinical community. Comparison of the classification to independent features such as severity and therapy of the diseases, functional classification of proteins, and network vulnerability, indicated a strong statistical support. The method can be applied to any group of diseases.

Keywords: primary immunodeficiency, data mining, registries, databases, medical expert systems, classification, network analysis, systems biology

ABBREVIATIONS

AAAAI American Academy of Allergy, Asthma and Immunology

ACAAI The American College of Allergy, Asthma and Immunology

AI Artificial intelligence

AT Ataxia telangiectasia

ATM Ataxia telangiectasia mutated gene

CBR Case-based reasoning

CVID Common variable immunodeficiency

CGD Chronic granulomatous disease

DGS DiGeorge syndrome

DSS Decision support system

DT Decision tree

DTD Document Type Definition

EDDNAL European Directory of DNA Diagnostic Laboratories

EMBL Genetic sequence database by European Molecular Biology

Laboratory

GA Genetic algorithm
GDB Genome Database

GenBank Genetic sequence database by National Center for Biotechnology

Information

EPR Electronic patient record

ES Expert system

ESID European Society for Immunodeficiencies

HIES The hyper-IgE syndromes

HTML Hypertext Markup Language

IDML Inherited Disease Markup Language

IDR ImmunoDeficiency Resource

IGAD IgA deficiency

IE Information extraction

IFN γ Interferon γ

LAD Leukocyte adhesion defect

MAI Medical artificial intelligence

MDSS Medical decision support system

MES Medical expert system

MHCII Major histocompatibility class II

ML Machine learning

NLP Natural language processing

NN Neural network

OMIM Online Mendelian Inheritance in Man

PID Primary immunodeficiency

PIDexpert Primary immunodeficiency expert system

PDB Protein DataBank

ProDom Protein Domain Database

PROSITE Database of Protein Families and Domains

SCID Severe combined immunodeficiency

SGML Standard Generalized Markup Language

SMART Simple Modular Architecture Research Tool

SNP Single nucleotide polymorphism

SOAP Simple Object Access Protocol

Swiss-Prot Protein knowledgebase

URL Unified Resource Locator

W3C World Wide Web Consortium

WAP Wireless Application Protocol

WAS Wiskott Aldrich Syndrome

WHIM Warts-Hypogammaglobulinemia-Infections-Myelokathexis

WHO World Health Organization

XHIM X-linked hyper IgM

XLA X-linked agammaglobulinemia

XLP X-linked lymphoproliferative syndrome

XML Extensible Markup Language

XSL Extensible Style Language

XSLT XSL Transformations

LIST OF ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS

The thesis is based on the following original articles, which are referred to in the text by their Roman numerals:

- I. Crina Samarghitean, Jouni Väliaho, Mauno Vihinen: Online registry of genetic and clinical immunodeficiency diagnostic laboratories. IDdiagnostics. J Clin Immunol (2004) 24:53-61.
- II. Crina Samarghitean, Jouni Väliaho, Mauno Vihinen: ImmunoDeficiency Resource, knowledge base for primary immunodeficiencies. Imm Res (2007) 3(1):6.
- III. **Crina Samarghitean**, Csaba Ortutay, Mauno Vihinen: Systematic classification of primary immunodeficiencies based on clinical, pathological and laboratory parameters. J Immunol (2009) 183(11), 7569-7575.

1. INTRODUCTION

Primary immunodeficiencies (PIDs) are a large and heterogenous group of mainly rare hereditary disorders of the immune system that often have serious consequences. These diseases represent a challenge in their diagnosis and treatment due to overlapping symptoms and similarities between diseases. The main manifestations include infections but also autoimmune and cancer diseases, granulomatosis, hemophagocytic syndrome, angioedema, autoinflammation, thrombotic microangiopathy, or a predisposition to allergies.

Bioinformatics provides a vast amount of different tools that are designed to collect the data, analyze it and make predictions when for some reason there is a shortage of experimentally defined data or there is a lack of consensus in classification or diagnosis. Various databases for collecting information about PIDs exist on the Internet, starting from the proteomic, mutational level and ending with the national PID patient registry. The results from these databases were evaluated periodically to see whether there are differences among different populations and the epidemiological data collected, and how the different statistics differ from each other. Classification and network analysis methods have been used to characterize, e.g., the spread of epidemics, to determine ways to control them, and to identify novel target genes for prostate cancer.

The aim of this study was to develop new comprehensive knowledge bases for PIDs which could integrate all the available PIDs resources on the Internet tailored for different types of users. Using the knowledge accumulated in these databases and datamining techniques, a mathematical, systematic classification of PIDs was proposed which was useful in developing of a decision support system for PIDs. These approaches bridge the knowledge bases with diagnostic and therapeutic protocols to be applied directly in patient care. These specific applications have been helpful in gene discovery, development of other databases, diagnosis protocols and of ICD 11.

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Primary immunodeficiency diseases

2.1.1 Background on PIDs

Integrity of the immune system is essential for defence against infectious organisms and their toxic products and for the survival of all individuals. Defects in one or more components of the immune system can lead to serious and often fatal disorders, which are collectively called immunodeficiency diseases. These diseases have been classified since the beginning into two main groups. The congenital or primary immunodeficiencies are genetic defects transmitted hereditary that result in an increased susceptibility to infectious, autoimmune and cancer manifestations, frequently manifested early in infancy and childhood but sometimes clinically detected later in life. Acquired or secondary immunodeficiencies develop as a consequence of e.g. malnutrition, disseminated cancer, immunosuppressive drugs, infections, especially HIV (Abbas and Lichtman 2005).

Primary immunodeficiencies (PIDs) are challenging for both scientists and clinicians and may manifest with a wide range of clinical symptoms including susceptibility to infections, allergy, autoimmune and inflammatory diseases, lymphoproliferation and cancer (Marodi and Notarangelo 2007). Currently, more than 200 PIDs and some 170 PID-related genes are known, many of them reported during the last few years. Diagnosis of PIDs may be demanding due to symptoms and signs often being discreet, overlapping and variable in many PIDs. Also, the large number of PIDs makes the field difficult for non-experts. PIDs (Notarangelo et al. 2004; Stiehm et al. 2004) are relatively rare, with an incidence varying between 1:500-1:500000 and in some cases there are just a few patients globally. Most PIDs present in childhood, but also in

the second and third decades of life, for example common variable immunodeficiency (CVID).

The infections in immunodeficiency patients can be mainly categorized in two classes. Patients with defects in immunoglobulins, complement proteins or phagocytes are very susceptible to recurrent infections with encapsulated bacteria, such as *Haemophilus influenzae*, *Steptococcus pneumonia* and *Staphylococcus aureus*. Patients with defects in cell-mediated immunity are susceptible to infections with opportunistic microorganisms, such as yeast and chickenpox (Roitt et al. 2001). Early detection, before serious infections have compromised patient's general condition, is important for prognosis and genetic counseling of the family (Stiehm et al. 2004).

Primary immunodeficiency disorders were first identified after the introduction of antibiotics. Several syndromes of immunodeficiency with characteristic clinical features were described before 1940, including mucocutaneous candidiasis by Thorpe and Handley in 1929, ataxia-telangiectasia by Syllaba and Henner in 1926, and Wiskott-Aldrich syndrome (WAS) by Wiskott in 1937 (Stiehm, Ochs et al. 2004). The first patient with cellular deficiency was initially described by Glanzmann and Riniker in 1950. The seminal article by Bruton in 1952 reported the first patient with congenital agammaglobulinemia who had an excellent response to immunoglobulin replacement therapy (Bruton 1952). This discovery, considered to be the birth of the primary immunodeficiency field, opened the door to numerous other achievements. Several other immune defects were recognized on the basis of their consistent clinical findings or inheritance patterns (Buckley 2002). The first case of phagocytic defect was reported in 1956 (Kostmann 1956). The combination of antibody deficiency with defective cellular immunity was first identified in a Swiss infant, Swiss-type agammaglobulinemia (Hitzig et al. 1958). The first case of complement deficiency was reported in 1966 (Klemperer et al. 1966). One of the most puzzling conditions was described by Janeway and his colleagues in patients with pyogenic infections and enlarged lymph nodes, hepatosplenomegaly and hypergammaglobulinemia, which proved to be later X-linked chronic granulomatous disease (Buckley 2002).

From 1961 to 1972 the role of the thymus gland in immune system function began to be elucidated with animal models (Miller 1961; Good et al. 1962; Cooper et al. 1965).

Different studies *in vivo* showed cellular immunity to be impaired in patients who had congenital hypothyroidism and no thymic tissue at autopsy, pathologic presentation of thymic hypoplasia (DiGeorge syndrome) (Miller 1961, Cooper et al. 1967). The first insights into the defects of the oxidative metabolism of the phagocytic cells were another important discovery during this period (Holmes et al. 1966). A series of technological advances in the 1960's and 1970s helped the investigation of the immune system enormously. The 1980s led to the cloning of the genes responsible for many of the known primary immunodeficiencies (Kwan et al. 1986; Gatti et al. 1988; Kwan et al. 1988; Puck et al. 1989).

Treatment milestones include the first use of immunoglobulin for immune deficiency (Bruton 1952), the first successful hematopoietic cell transplants in humans in 1968, in three patients with primary immunodeficiencies who received grafts from HLA-matched siblings (two with SCID and one with Wiskott-Aldrich syndrome) (Gatti et al. 1968). The first use of a cytokine for the treatment for chronic granulomatous disease was reported in 1991 and the first success of gene therapy for X-linked severe combined immunodeficiency (Cavazzana-Calvo et al. 2000).

2.1.2 Genetics of PIDs

Within the past 20 years major advances in the understanding of the genetic basis and molecular mechanism of immunodeficiencies has been made. Increasing understanding of these molecular defects has influenced both basic and translational research. More than 170 distinct genes have been associated with PIDs. Different mechanisms may cause PID pathologies, including transcription factors, cytokines and their receptors, cell surface and cytoplasmic signaling mediators, cell cycle regulators, DNA modifying enzymes, intracellular chaperones and transport proteins. The genetic defects that cause PIDs can affect the expression and function of proteins involved in different biological processes, such as immune development, effector-cell functions, signaling cascades and maintenance of immune homeostasis (Marodi and Notarangelo 2007). In recent years, the genetic basis of more than 200 primary immunodeficiencies has been identified and their

mode of inheritance as X-linked, autosomal recessive, or autosomal dominant has been elucidated (Table 1).

The first diagnostic measure when considering any heritable disorder is to find out the full pedigree and family health history. Families can provide details about potentially affected members in past generations. Ethnic and geographical ancestry should be also recorded as part of every family history because they may suggest consanguinity or increased associated population risks (Ochs et al. 2006).

The X-linked (XL) immunodeficiency diseases occur in high frequency in males, because mutations in genes of the sole copy of chromosome X are uncompensated and a single mutation causes overt disease (Table 1). Recessive diseases require defects in both alleles of a gene in order for a disease phenotype to manifest. One way is through consanguineous marriages such as the interferon γ receptor mutations causing susceptibility to mycobacterial infections (Al-Muhsen and Casanova 2008). Another risk factor for homozygous recessive diseases is to belong to a genetically isolated population in which the same mutation may be transmitted through both maternal and paternal lines to the patient because of inbreeding (Table 1). There are few dominant immunodeficiency phenotypes. They are characterized by incomplete penetrance, skipping generations in family pedigree and/or variable expressivity, and a large spectrum of severity among relatives with the same genetic mutation (Table 1).

Table 1. Chromosome locations and inheritance of genes related to PIDs

Disorder	Gene symbol	Gene
		location
X linked Disorders		
XL chronic granulomatous disease	CYBB	Xp26
XL SCID	IL2RG	Xp13
XL lymphoproliferative syndrome	SH2D1A	Xq25
	BIRC4	
Wiskott-Aldrich syndrome	WASP	Xp11.22

Disorder	Gene symbol	Gene
		location
XL agammaglobulinemia	BTK	Xq21.3
XL hyper-IgM syndrome	CD40L	Xq27
Glucose 6-phosphate dehydrogenase deficiency	G6PD	Xq28
Ectodermal dysplasia with NEMO mutation	IKBKG	Xq28
Properdin deficiency	PFC	Xp11
Hoyeraal-Hreidarsson syndrome	DKC1	Xq28
Barth syndrome	TAZ	Xq28
IPEX syndrome	FOXP3	Xp11.23
AR Disorders		
AR chronic granulomatous disease	p22-phox	16q24
	p47-phox	7q11.23
	p67-phox	1q25
Janus kinase 3 deficiency	JAK3	19p13.1
CD40 deficiency	CD40	20q12-
		q13.2
RAG1 deficiency	RAG1	11p13
RAG2 deficiency	RAG2	11p13
Artemis deficiency	DCLRE1C/	10p
ZAP70 deficiency	ZAP70	8q12
Adenosine deaminase deficiency	ADA	20q13
Purine nucleoside phosphorylase deficiency	PNP	14q13
MHC class II deficiency	CIITA	16p13
	RFX-5	1q21
	RFXAP	13q
MHC class I deficiency	TAP1	6p21.3
	TAP2	6p21.3
	TAPBP	6p21.3
μ heavy-chain deficiency	IGHM	14q32.3

Disorder	Gene symbol	Gene
		location
λ5 surrogate light-chain deficiency	IGLL1	22q11.22
BLNK deficiency	BLNK	10q23.2
Ig α deficiency	CD79A	19q13.2
Ig β deficiency	CD79B	17q23
ICOS deficiency	ICOS	2q33
TNFRSF13B deficiency	TNFRSF13B	17p11.2
CD19 deficiency	CD19	16p11.2
AID deficiency	AICDA	12p13
UNG deficiency	UNG	17q11.2
DOCK8 deficiency	DOCK8	9p24.3
Leukocyte adhesion deficiency I	ITGB2	21q22.3
Leukocyte adhesion deficiency II	SLC35C1	11p11.2
Leukocyte adhesion deficiency III	RASGRP2	11q13
Griscelli syndrome, type 1	MYO5A	15q21
Griscelli syndrome, type 2	RAB27A	15q21
Griscelli syndrome, type 3	MLPH	2q37
Myeloperoxidase deficiency	MPO	17q23.1
Glycogen storage disease Ib	G6PC	11q21
Shwachman syndrome	SBDS	7q11
MAPBPIPdeficiency	<i>MAPBPIP</i>	1q22
Hermansky-Pudlak syndrome 2	AP3B1	Chr.5
Familial haemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis	PRF1	10q22
type 2		
Familial haemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis	UNC13D	17q25.3
type 3		
Familial haemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis	STX11	6q24
type 4		
Interleukin-12 receptor β1 deficiency	IL12RB1	19p13.1
Interleukin-12 (IL-12) p40 deficiency	IL12B	5q31.1

Disorder	Gene symbol	Gene
		location
STAT5b deficiency	STAT5B	17q11.2
IRAK4 deficiency	IRAK4	12q12
UNC93B deficiency	<i>UNC93B1</i>	11q13
Autoimmune polyendocrinopathy with	AIRE	21q22.3
candidiasis and ectodermal dystrophy		
Cartilage-hair hypoplasia	RMRP	9p21-p12
Epidermodysplasia verruciformis type 1	TMC6	17q25
Epidermodysplasia verruciformis type 2		
	TMC8	17q25
Natural killer deficiency	FCGR3A	1q23
Transcobalamin II deficiency	TCN2	22q11.2
Hepatic veno-oclussive disease with	SP110	2q37.1
immunodeficiency syndrome		
Ataxia-telengiectasia	ATM	11q22-q23
Nijmegen-breakage syndrome	NBS	8q21
Ataxia-telangiectasia-like disorder	MRE11A	11q21
DNA ligase I deficiency	LIG1	19q13.2-
DNA ligase deficiency IV	LIG4	13q22-q34
Bloom syndrome	BLM	15q26.1
Immunodeficiency, centromere instability and	DNMT3B	20q11.2
facial abnormalities syndrome (ICF)		
C1q α-polypeptide deficiency	C1QA	1p36.3-
C1q β-polypeptide deficiency	C1QB	1p36.3-
C1q γ-polypeptide deficiency	CIQC	1p36.3-
C1r deficiency	C1R	12p13
C1s deficiency	CIS	12p13
C2 deficiency	C2	6p21.3
C3 deficiency	C3	19p13.3-
C4A deficiency	C4A	p13.2

Disorder	Gene symbol	Gene
		location
C4B deficiency	C4B	6p21.3
C5 deficiency	C5	6p21.3
C6 deficiency	<i>C6</i>	9q32-q34
C7 deficiency	<i>C</i> 7	5p13
C8 α-polypeptide deficiency	C8A	5p13
C8 β-polypeptide deficiency	C8B	1p32
C8 γ-polypeptide deficiency	C8G	1p32
C9 deficiency	<i>C</i> 9	<i>9q34.3</i>
Factor B deficiency	BF	5p13
Factor D deficiency	CFD	6p21.3
Factor H1 deficiency	CFH	19p13.3
C4 binding protein α deficiency	C4BPA	1q32
C4 binding protein β deficiency	C4BPB	1q32
Decay-accelerating factor (CD55) deficiency	CD55	1q32
Factor I deficiency	CFI	1q32
MAC inhibitor (CD59) deficiency	CD59	4q25
Familial Mediterranean fever	MEFV	16p13
Hyperimmunoglobulinemia D with periodic fever	MVK	12q24
syndrome		
AD disorders		
WHIM syndrome	CXCR4	2q21
LRRC8 deficiency	LRRC8A	9q34.13
Severe congenital neutropenias, including	CSF3R	1p35-
Kostmann syndrome	ELA2	p34.3
Cyclic neutropenia		19p13.3
GFI1 deficiency	GFI1	1p22
LAD with RAC2 deficiency	RAC2	22q12.3-
		q13.2

Disorder	Gene symbol	Gene
		location
Autoimmune lymphoproliferative syndrome type	CASP10	2q33-q34
II		
Autoimmune lymphoproliferative syndrome type	CASP8	2q33-q34
IIB		
ALPS type III	NRAS	1p13.2
TLR3 deficiency	TLR3	4q35
Autosomal dominant anhidrotic ectodermal	NFKBIA/IKBA	14q13
dysplasia and T-cell immunodeficiency		
DiGeorge-anomaly	DGCR	22q11
Tumor necrosis factor receptor-associated	TNFRSF1A	12p13.2
periodic syndrome		
Familial cold urticaria and Muckle-Wells	CIASI	1q44
syndrome		
Chronic infantile neurological cutaneous and	CIASI	1q44
articular syndrome		
Granulomatous sinovitis with uveitis and cranial	CARD15	16q12
neuropathies		

A molecular genetic focus adds precision to the diagnosis and allows genotype and phenotype correlations. Genetic studies can confirm a suspected diagnosis of PIDs and pinpoint a specific genetic etiology in the absence of other data. They can help in genetic counseling.

Gene testing in PIDs in the past was limited to expert academic laboratories; nowadays it is easily available to physicians with a broad range of clinical expertise. Such testing can establish or confirm a suspected diagnosis and also may predict future disease risk in advance of clinical signs and symptoms, inform reproductive decision making, and guide clinicians in selecting the most appropriate therapeutic options (Morra et al. 2008).

Many PIDs are the result of a single gene mutation, making a molecular diagnosis for a patient straightforward. More difficult is to find information on the Internet related to a specific lab doing a genetic test for a primary immunodeficiency. Over 170 PID genes have been identified and the prevalence of most of the genetic defects is still low. Different genetic defects can have a similar clinical presentation, and patients with different defects in the same gene can have diverse clinical pictures (Burg et al. 2009). For example, Omenn syndrome can result from defects in *RAG1*, *RAG2*, *DCLERC1* (Artemis), *RMRP*, *IL/R*, *IL2RG*, or *ADA* (Villa et al. 2008) (Table 2).

Table 2. Genetic heterogeneity of PIDs (modified with permission from Notarangelo and Sorensen 2008)

and Sofensen 2000)			
PID phenotype		Associated gene defects	
T-B+NK-SCID		ILDRG, JAK3	
T-B+NK+SCID		RAG1, RAG2, DCLERC1	
Omenn syndrome		RAG1, RAG2, DCLERC1, RMRP,	
		IL7R, IL2RG, ADA	
Agammaglobulinemia		BTK, IGHM, IGLL1; CD79A,	
		CD79B, BLNK	
CVID		TNFRSF13B (TACI), ICOS,	
		TNFRSF13C (BAFF-R), CD40L,	
		CD19, SH2D1A	
Hyper-IgM syndrome		CD40L, CD40, AICDA, UNG	
XL lymphoproliferative	syndrome	SH2D1A, XIAP	
Familial	haemophagocytic	PRF1, MUNC13B, STX11	
lymphohistiocytosis			
Chronic granulomatous	disease	CYBB, CYBA, NCF1, NCF2	
Severe congenital neutropenias		ELA2, HAX1, GFI1, MAPBP, WASP	
Mendelian susceptibility to mycobacterial		IL12B, IL12RB1, IFNGR1, IFNGR2,	
disease		STAT1	
Herpes simplex encephalitis		UNC93B1, TLR3	
The hyper-IgE syndromes (HIES)		TYK2, DOCK8, STAT3	

Certain mutations in PID genes can lead to atypical clinical and immunologic presentations. For example, null mutations in *RAG1* or *RAG2* genes cause T-B-NK+SCID, hypomorphic mutations in the same gene can associate with Omenn syndrome, leaky SCID, or combined immunodeficiency with granulomas (Schuetz et al. 2008). There is a certain level of phenotypic and genotypic heterogeneity in PIDs (Table 3), making mutation analysis a useful tool to solve differential diagnosis of complex presentations (Notarangelo and Sorensen 2008).

Table 3. Phenotypic heterogeneity of PIDs (modified with permission from Notarangelo and Sorensen 2008)

Mutated genes	Associated phenotypes
RAG1, RAG2, DCLERC1	SCID, OS, leaky SCID
LIG4	SCID, LIG4 syndrome
WASP	WAS, XLT, XLN
SH2D1A	XLP, CVID
RMRP	CHH, SCID, OS
ELA2	SCN, cyclic neutropenia

Molecular diagnostics is important for patients and families and to better understand the pathophysiology of the disease. Mutation analysis can provide a definitive and precise diagnosis, may help in genetic counseling and treatment compliance, and also help to establish a diagnosis in an atypical presentation. Molecular diagnostics enable the development of long-term preventive strategies to limit complications and irreversible organ damage and permit presymptomatic identification of individuals affected with potentially lethal forms of PIDs and prompt timely life-saving interventions, such as hematopoietic cell transplantation (HCT).

2.1.3 Classes of PIDs

Originally, PIDs were referred to as rare Mendelian traits associated with multiple, recurrent, opportunistic infections in early childhood with fatal course. There are still numerous controversies and discussions regarding an accepted definition of PIDs. There is no single system of classification for PIDs useful for both educational and clinical purposes. Most texts use a functional classification based on the immunological mechanism disrupted. These types of descriptive functional categories may overlap to varying degrees.

In 1973, a committee of the World Health Organization (WHO) published the first in a series of classifications for PIDs (Cooper et al. 1973) followed by revisions (WHO 1983; WHO 1986; WHO 1992; WHO 1995; WHO 1997; WHO 1999). The definition and classification of PIDs, based on immunological phenotypes, is now reviewed every 2 years by WHO in conjunction with the International Union of Immunological Societies (IUIS) Expert Committee (Notarangelo, Casanova et al. 2004; Notarangelo et al. 2006; Geha et al. 2007; Notarangelo et al. 2009). Others have used and proposed different classification systems (Bonilla et al. 2005; Bonilla and Geha 2005; Casanova et al. 2005).

2.1.4 Decision making in diagnosis of PIDs

Identification of PIDs is difficult. General practitioners and pediatricians need to consider PIDs as a potential diagnosis in any child or adult with repeated infections resistant to treatments. Recently, different protocols have been published for the diagnosing of PIDs (Folds and JL. 2003; Bonilla, Bernstein et al. 2005; de Vries et al 2006). The 10 warning signs of primary immunodeficiency and the 4 stages of testing for PIDs have been developed by the Jeffrev Modell Foundation Medical Advisory Board (http://info4pi.org). Recently, 12 warning signs for infants were proposed (Carneiro-Sampaio et al. 2010).

All these guidelines and protocols are based on the traditional classification of antibody, T lymphocytes, phagocyte and complement deficiencies and require some knowledge of the immune system and its defects (Folds and JL. 2003; Bonilla et al. 2005). These guidelines are aimed at both pediatricians and adult physicians (de Vries et al 2006). It is important to take a stepwise approach for the diagnosis of PIDs. First, the patient need to be evaluated clinically and immunologically using different diagnostic protocols (Conley et al. 1999; Bonilla et al. 2005; de Vries et al 2006) and checked for all the warning signs for PIDs (step 1). To define the immunological defects further flow cytometric immunophenotyping and functional studies (when applicable) of blood, bone marrow, or other specimens are done (step 2). These steps are of great value for guiding the selection of candidate genes for molecular diagnostics (step 3). Finally, genetic counseling and prenatal diagnostics are facilitated with the identification of a genetic defect (step 4).

Guidelines for the diagnosis of PIDs have been developed jointly by the European Society for Immune Deficiencies and the Pan-American Group for Immune Deficiencies (Conley et al. 1999). Mutation analysis performed through DNA sequencing is supported by analysis of mRNA/cDNA and protein expression and by functional assays to prove the disease-causing role of mutations. If these are not available or inconclusive, there are bioinformatics tools available that might help estimate the significance of the observed DNA changes (Fleisher and Notarangelo 2008).

2.2 Bioinformatics tools for PIDs

Bioinformatics tools helpful in PID diagnosis can be divided into several categories (Figure 1) (Samarghitean and Vihinen 2009):

- 1. General PID resources
- 2. Classifications of PIDs helpful for diagnosis
- 3. Laboratories for genetic and clinical tests for PIDs
- 4. National and international PID patient registries
- 5. Mutation databases

- 6. Tools for prediction or prioritization of novel PID candidate genes, and
- 7. Decision support systems in PID diagnosis (Table 4).

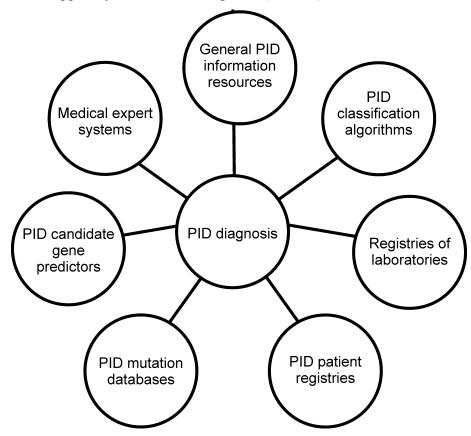


Figure 1. Categories of bioinformatics tools for PIDs

2.2.1 General PID resources

Dedicated PID information resources on the web include INFO4PI, RAPID (Keerthikumar et al. 2009) and general resources on rare diseases such as ORPHANET. INFO4PI is a web service that includes information for over 50 diagnostic and research centers worldwide and a registry of experts worldwide. It is the official webpage of the Jeffrey Modell Foundation (JMF) and designed for diverse user groups. The medical advisory group of the foundation has developed '10 warning signs of PIDs', recently updated, and '4 stages for immunologic testing', which have been adopted in many countries. Another new development launched by the foundation is the software for

primary immunodeficiency recognition, intervention and tracking (SPIRIT) which matches patient ICD-9 codes with the 10 warning signs of PIDs.

Resource of Asian PIDs (RAPID) is a newly developed database which contains information about PID genes, protein-protein interactions, mouse knockout studies and microarray gene expression profiles in various cells and organs of the immune system (Keerthikumar et al. 2009). The website also hosts information on sequence variations and expression at the mRNA and protein levels of all genes reported to be involved in PID patients.

ORPHANET provides information on rare diseases for healthcare professionals, patients, and their relatives. ORPHANET includes expert-authored and peer-reviewed information for rare, mostly genetic, diseases. There is a directory of clinics, clinical laboratories, research activities and patient organizations. ORPHANET provides up-to-date information about rare diseases in many languages.

Table 4. Resources on the web for PIDs-related information

Bioinformatics tools	URL
General PID resources	
INFO4PI	http://www.info4pi.org
JMF	http://www.jmfworld.com
ORPHANET	http://www.orpha.net
PID classifications	
AAAAI	http://www.aaaai.org/professionals/reso
	urces/pdf/immunodeficiency2005.pdf
ESID/IUIS	http://www.esid.org/downloads/ESID_D
	iseases_2009_0.pdf
WHO (ICD10)	http://apps.who.int/classifications/apps/i
	cd/icd10online/
Registries of diagnostic laboratories	
EDDNAL	http://www.eddnal.com
GeneTests	http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sites/Gene
	Tests

Patient registries

ASCIA http://www.immunodeficiency.org.au

CEREDIH http://www.ceredih.fr/
ESID http://www.esid.org/
IPINET http://www.aieop.org
USIDnet http://www.usidnet.org

Variation databases

IDbases http://bioinf.uta.fi/IDbases

Other PID mutation databases http://bioinf.uta.fi/base_root/mutation_d

atabases list2.php

RAPID http://rapid.rcai.riken.jp/RAPID

Novel PIDs candidate genes

PID candidates (Ortutay and Vihinen 2009)

RAPID http://rapid.rcai.riken.jp/RAPID/SVM

PID diagnosis tools

UKPIN http://www.ukpin.org.uk/ESID/index.ht

m

2.2.2 Classifications of PIDs

Traditionally, PIDs have been classified into wide categories. The PIDs Classification Committee of the International Union of Immunological Societies (IUIS) has provided classifications for many years. The essential textbook in the field, Primary Immunodeficiency Diseases (Ochs et al. 2006), contains another grouping of PIDs as well as the International Classification of Diseases (ICD10). The classification in the European Immunodeficiency Society (ESID) online patient database further expands the IUIS classification. All these classifications have been developed by experts in the field and updated regularly. The methodology used for the classification has not been described and many newly discovered PIDs do not fit well within these classifications.

Different classification schemes have been developed to discriminate patients with common variable immunodeficiency disease, a heterogeneous group of immunological disorders characterised by low serum immunoglobulin IgG, IgA and/or IgM, defective specific antibody production and an increased susceptibility to bacterial infections. The Freiburg classification discriminates patients with a disturbed germinal centre of memory B cells and patients with defects of early peripheral B cell differentiation by analysing CD21 expression (Warnatz and Schlesier 2008). Another CVID classification differentiates patients based on the assessment of class-switched memory B cells and total CD27+ B cells including the marginal zone like B cells (Piqueras et al. 2003). The EUROClass classification (Wehr et al. 2008) distinguishes patients with less than 1% of B cells of lymphocytes (B-) from patients with a higher percentage (B+). A new analytical computational approach for phenotype analysis of CVID patients was recently described (Kalina et al. 2009). This unsupervised hierarchical clustering analysis enabled the definition of clusters of individuals with similar B-cell profiles.

2.2.3 Registries of diagnostic laboratories

The diagnosis of immunodeficiencies can be difficult because several disorders may have similar symptoms. In some cases early and reliable diagnosis is crucial for efficient treatment since delayed diagnosis and management can lead to severe and irreversible complications. For many PIDs the definitive diagnosis can be obtained only based on both genetic and clinical tests. The physical signs may be non-specific, very discreet, or absent. Due to the rareness of PIDs there may not be many laboratories analyzing a particular disease.

Some PIDs laboratory information can be found from general services for diagnostic laboratories. The GeneTests service provides an international directory of genetic testing laboratories and genetic and prenatal diagnosis clinics. There are also expert-authored, peer-reviewed disease descriptions called GeneReviews. The European Directory of DNA Diagnostic Laboratories (EDDNAL) has information about DNA-based diagnostic services.

2.2.4 Databases and patient registries

A database is a collection of related data with some inherent meaning. A database is designed, built, and populated with data from different sources for a specific purpose. In medicine databases have been established for some diseases (Cotton et al. 1996). Because biological and medical data have many special characteristics, the management of this kind of information is a highly challenging problem (Elmasri and Navathe 2004). A specific design tailored for these types of data is necessary for the management of database systems.

In the case of primary immunodeficiencies, existing population-based databases are limited. Available data are derived from case-based disease registries that collect patient-specific information from multiple sources.

Case-based registries usually are designed to improve patient care but can be helpful for studying rare diseases. In 1992, the Immune Deficiency Foundation (IDF) initiated a registry of U.S. patients with CGD and 5 years later expanded the project to include seven other disorders: HIGM, XLA, CVID, WAS, SCID, LAD, and DGS (Winkelstein et al. 2000). The registry is also used to collect data related to natural history and clinical course, including the response to treatment. IDF assembled a group of investigators under the name The United States Immunodeficiency Network (USIDNET) to implement an on-line system of the IDF registry.

Several PID patient registries have been released in different countries during the last two decades (Rezaei et al. 2008). The information in them can help in making a diagnosis for a patient and provide valuable epidemiological information. For example, countries, such as Australia (Baumgart et al. 1997), Spain (Matamoros Flori et al. 1997), Switzerland (Ryser et al. 1988), Italy (Luzi et al. 1983), Sweden (Fasth 1982), and Norway (Stray-Pedersen et al. 2000) have developed their own registry-based estimates of the frequency of PIDs. The ASCIA PID Register of Australia and New Zealand has already described the prevalence of PIDs in Australia for 1209 patients in 88 centers (Kirkpatrick and Riminton 2007). The Italian Primary Immunodeficiency Network (IPINET) collects patient information, including the pedigree, date of diagnosis, immunological data and clinical manifestations, laboratory data and information about

replacement therapy (Plebani et al. 2004). The Spanish Registry for Primary Immunodeficiencies (REDIP) has quite similar contents (Matamoros Flori et al. 1997). In 2004, the Spanish registry counted 2607 cases from 82 centers. The Iranian PID Registry has followed 930 patients over a period of 30 years (Rezaei et al. 2006).

The ESID patient registry is the largest patient registry (Eades-Perner et al. 2007). In December 2011, it contained 15052 patient entries from 89 centers for 142 PIDs. For each PID there is an individual database; they all share a common core dataset with information about diagnosis, therapy, quality of life and some laboratory data. There are also disease-specific data models for some of the most prevalent PIDs. Submission of mutation data to the patient registry is combined with IDbases (Piirilä et al. 2006). Access to the data is allowed only to the registered users who have obtained permission.

The same software is used by the United States Immunodeficiency Network (USIDnet) for registry of US patients. Currently, the USIDnet data is collected for eight PIDs, but soon there will be information for over 30 disorders. Another regional registry using the ESID online database system is the Latin American Group for Primary Immunodeficiency Diseases (LAGID), which so far includes information for 3321 patients in 14 countries (Leiva et al. 2007).

Considering the recent reports from four major registries, antibody deficiencies are the most common PID comprising more than half of all patients. Other well-defined immunodeficiencies, phagocytes defects, and combined T and B cell immunodeficiencies are also relatively common. CVID is the most common PID followed by selective IgA and/or IgG subclass deficiency, agammaglobulinemia with absent B cells, ataxia telangiectasia (AT), chronic granulomatous disease (CGD), and SCID (Rezaei et al. 2008).

Other important PID patient- and treatment-related databases include those by the Center for International Blood and Marrow Transplant Research (CIBMTR), a combined research program of the National Marrow Donor Program, the Medical College of Wisconsin, and the European Blood and Marrow Transplant Group (EBMT). These facilitate research into allogeneic hematopoietic stem cell transplantation outcomes (Horowitz 2008). SCETIDE is a specific stem cell transplantation database for PIDs, which has data going back to 1985. These databases allow addressing questions difficult

to answer through clinical trials and may also aid the development of optimal designs for prospective clinical trials (Griffith et al. 2008; Gennery et al. 2010).

2.2.5 Variation databases

Other sources of case-based information are the Internet-based, locus-specific immunodeficiency mutation databases established by ESID and expanded by other investigators (Smith and Vihinen 1996; Vihinen et al. 1999; Väliaho et al. 2000; Piirilä et al. 2006). These databases contain information regarding specific mutations and certain clinical features of affected persons. The first Internet-based immunodeficiency mutation database, BTKbase, was initiated in 1994 to collect information related to mutations in the *BTK* gene (Bruton tyrosine kinase), which causes XLA. Some 130 similar locus-specific mutation databases have been developed since then (Piirilä et al. 2006). Mutation databases can be used to analyze the types of mutations and their distribution in exons and introns, including their location in protein domains. Mutation databases that contain clinical information can be helpful in assessing genotype-phenotype relations and determining the presence of gene variants in asymptomatic family members (Porter et al. 2000).

Data from disease and mutation registries can be used to estimate the minimal incidence of a disorder, characterize epidemiologic features, and define a range of clinical characteristics in a cohort of patients. Current registries provide incomplete population-based data regarding the burden of PIDs diseases.

Although many identified genetic variations in PIDs are novel it is important to analyze whether the variation in a patient has been previously described. Information about PID-related genetic variations is available from different mutation databases. The majority of these registries are in the ImmunoDeficiency mutation databases (IDbases) maintained at the IBT Bioinformatics group. Currently, there are 122 freely available IDbases, which contain mutation information for 5388 patients from 4513 families having altogether 2327 different mutational events. In many IDbases there is plenty of information in addition to the description of the actual mutation. The mutation entries are

linked to sequence databanks, literature and OMIM (Amberger et al. 2009). The format of IDbases is standardized and uniform throughout. Currently, some important changes are being made to IDbases. Reference sequences at three levels (DNA, RNA, protein) have been developed collaboration with RefSeqGene in (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/refseq/rsg/ **LRG** projects (http://www.lrgand sequence.org). IDbases will have a stable genomic framework for reporting mutations that allows easy integration with other services. The IDbases can provide new insights into both genotype-phenotype correlations in patients as well as protein structure-function relationships for the encoded proteins. The IDbases are linked to the University of California Santa Cruz (UCSC) genome browser (Karolchik et al. 2008) from where the mutation data can be easily viewed with PhenCode (Giardine et al. 2007), along with other genetic and variation information.

PID mutation information can be found also in Asian Primary Immunodeficiency Diseases. For PID genes and proteins there is information about mRNA and protein expression as well as on protein-protein interactions and mouse studies. A tool can visualize mutations on protein three dimensional structures (Keerthikumar, Raju et al. 2009).

While identification of gene defects and variations has become easy and fast to perform, the interpretation of the effects and elucidation of the detailed molecular mechanisms of genetic diseases is much more difficult. Disease-related alterations may have diverse effects on the structure and function at DNA, RNA and protein levels (Thusberg and Vihinen 2009). Numerous methods can be used for predicting the effects of amino acid substitutions and are collected in the recently developed Pathogenic-Or-Not pipeline (PON-P), which is freely available at http://bioinf.uta.fi/PON-P.

2.2.6 Prediction of PID candidate genes

Some bioinformatics approaches have been applied to predict novel PID candidate genes, putative novel PID genes were prioritized (Ortutay and Vihinen 2009). The method combines information about protein interaction network properties and Gene Ontology terms. The analysis was based on a dataset for the immunome, the entirety of genes and

proteins essential for mounting immune responses (Ortutay et al. 2007). The approach utilizes the protein interaction network information available in the Immunome Knowledge Base (IKB) (Ortutay and Vihinen 2009). The identified disease candidate genes are mainly involved in cellular signaling including receptors, protein kinases and adaptors and binding proteins, as well as enzymes (Ortutay and Vihinen 2009).

Another PID candidate list of altogether 1442 genes (Keerthikumar et al. 2009) is available from RAPID (Keerthikumar et al. 2009). Using a support vector machine learning approach the authors used 69 binary features of 148 known PID genes and 3162 non-PID genes as a training set. Six of the predicted genes have been experimentally confirmed to be PIDs genes.

2.2.7 PID diagnosis tools

Some services for PIDs diagnosis have been implemented on the web. The multi-stage diagnostic protocol designed for non-immunologists (de Vries et al 2006) has been converted to linked web pages on the United Kingdom Primary Immunodeficiency Network (UKPIN) site. Recommendations for diagnosis and treatment for some PIDs, both in English and in Italian, are provided by IPINET. In the CEREDIH, the French National Immunodeficiency Centre service, there is information about French PID diagnosis centers and laboratories. They also have a decision tree-like schema for diagnostic protocol. All the information in this service is written in French.

More advanced tools for diagnosis are called Medical Expert Systems (MESs). These are computer software systems that are based on a set of rules applied to knowledge originally extracted from human experts or generated by computational analyses. In addition to helping in diagnosis and report generation, MESs can improve consistency in decisions, as well as timeliness in decision-making and productivity (Samarghitean and Vihinen 2008). MESs can be integrated with other health care applications, such as electronic patient records, and systems for prescribing and dispensing medicines.

2.3 Medical expert systems (MES)

2.3.1 Definitions and short history of MES

There are various definitions for electronic decision support systems depending on the primary use and on the functions the systems have to perform. Expert Systems (ESs) (Gonzalez and Dankel 1993; Nikolopoulos 1997) are computer programs developed to contain and use knowledge from human experts. They represent and structure medical knowledge, and can supplement or replace man in decision-making. ESs uses a set of rules to solve problems that need human expertise and can simulate a dialogue with experts. They improve the abilities of experts and increase the consistency and quality of problem-solving activities. ESs use techniques from artificial intelligence, machine learning, and data mining (Samarghitean and Vihinen 2008).

Two approaches can be used to define an expert system. The first one is the human/artificial intelligence (AI) approach and the second one is the technology–oriented approach (Godall 1985; Patel et al. 2009). From the human/AI approach, an expert system is a computer system that performs functions similar to those normally performed by a human expert (Shortliffe 1993). From the technological approach, an ES is a computer system that operates by applying an inference mechanism to a body of specialist expertise represented in the form of 'knowledge' (Samarghitean and Vihinen 2008).

The first computerized decision support system in health care in 1959 was based on Bayesian statistics and decision theory. Both logic and probabilistic reasoning were shown to be essential components of medical reasoning (Ledley and Lusted 1959). During the 1960's and 1970's many data driven programs, which used pattern recognition techniques, were developed for diagnostic problems. Since the 1970's, expert systems have mainly utilized artificial intelligence approaches (Blum 1986; Shortliffe 1993). For the first generation medical expert systems, such as CASNET

(Weiss et al. 1978), INTERNIST-I (Miller et al. 1982) and MYCIN (Buchanan and Shortliffe 1984), the ability to reason about the diagnostic process was most important.

In recent years, artificial intelligence approaches have been integrated with multimedia and Internet technologies. Connectionist data-mining approaches (Hripcsak et al. 2003) including machine learning (Takeuchi and Collier 2005), artificial neural networks (Reategui et al. 1997), and genetic algorithms (Gaal et al. 2005), have been applied in health care and medicine for decision support.

Developed in recent years, Health-e-Child project, produced an integrated healthcare platform for European pediatrics (Freund et al. 2006; Branson et al. 2008; Jimeno-Yepes et al. 2009). Another goal of the project was to provide uninhibited access to universal biomedical knowledge repositories for personalized and preventive healthcare, large-scale information-based biomedical research and training, and informed policymaking. CaseReasoner, a Health-e-Child product tool, helps clinicians to search thousands of disease diagnoses, treatments and outcomes to find a child similar to their own patients (Freund et al. 2006). Another tool of the project is AITION, which uses semantic tools to search medical literature and interviews with clinicians as well as patient data (Freund et al. 2006).

2.3.2 Architecture of medical expert systems

The structure of expert systems can be described and understood in terms of the components of the system and in terms of the interchange of the information between the components. In the early years, expert systems were written in high-level programming languages, usually in LISP and PROLOG. The expert knowledge of the domain and the algorithms for applying the knowledge were interwoven and the systems could not be easily modified for other applications. From stand-alone consultation systems in 1980s, we assist to integration with other healthcare systems such as electronic medical records, provider order-entry systems, results reporting systems, e-prescribing systems, or tools for genomic/proteomic data management and analysis.

Current expert systems have three main components: a knowledge base, an inference engine, and a user interface (UI) (Figure 3) (Samarghitean and Vihinen 2008).

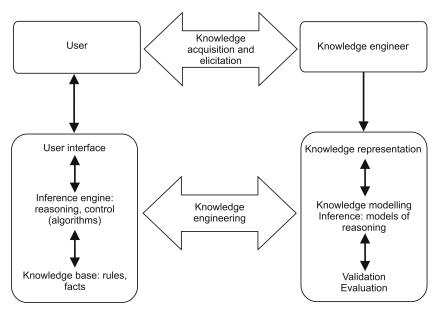


Figure 2. Structure of an expert system

The knowledge base contains the domain-specific knowledge acquired from experts, including object descriptions, problem-solving behaviors, constraints, heuristics and uncertainties. The knowledge base is the heart of an expert system and usually is in the form of if-then rules. The inference engine finds a sequence in which inferences are made. The inference engine is used to reason with the knowledge base. Knowledge stored, based on published guidelines, databases, and custom knowledge bases, it is translated into active rules. These rules or facts are used for deduction and are part of the inference engine capable of fuzzy reasoning. Expert systems also facilitate the users by providing an explanation subsystem which explains its reasoning to the users. In some systems there is a knowledge base editor for writing and updating the knowledge base. Expert systems have the ability to separate problem specific knowledge from general-purpose reasoning. The user interface applies the knowledge, rules, and local patient and clinical data and acts as the front-end of the system for the user.

Modern expert systems are built in a special software environment, known as, expert system shells. These provide more general facilities and an easy way to enter

necessary knowledge about the problem domain. Some of the popular software packages used include ESTA, EXSYS, XpertRule, ACQUIRE, and FLEX. They produce patient-specific and situation specific recommendations. Medical expert systems can be integrated with other applications, such as electronic patient records, systems for prescribing and dispensing medicines, and other information systems used in health settings (Figure 3) (Samarghitean and Vihinen 2008).

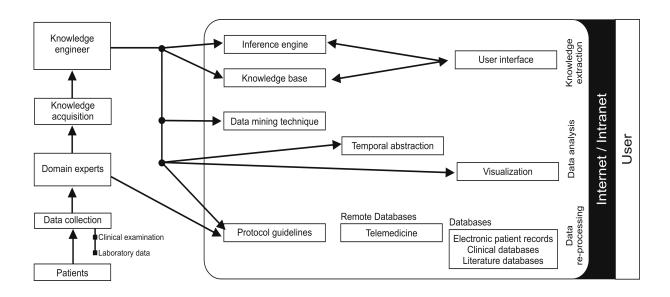


Figure 3. A modern architecture of a medical expert system

2.4 Data mining

2.4.1 Definitions

Data mining is the process of discovering hidden patterns and trends (information) in data (Westphal and Blaxton 1998; Han and Kamber 2000; Soukup and Davidson 2002). Data mining is seen as the extraction of implicit, previously unknown, and potentially useful information from large data sets or databases. Data mining is an umbrella term and is used with varied meaning in a wide range of contexts. Most data mining efforts are

focused on developing a finely grained, highly detailed model of some large data set. Data mining gives information that wouldn't be available otherwise. When the data collected involves individual people, there are many questions concerning privacy, legality, and ethics.

Data mining is at the intersection of machine learning, statistics, visualization and databases. Statistics is more theory based and focuses on testing hypotheses, while machine learning is more heuristic and focuses on improving the performance of a learning agent. Data mining and knowledge discovery integrate theory and heuristics.

2.4.2 Steps involved in data mining

Data mining is used to extract valid, novel and potentially useful and understandable patterns from data. Preliminary steps include data collection, selection, preprocessing, and transformation. Appropriate data is first retrieved from the database, and then possibly cleaned and reduced before knowledge discovery. After the discovery step, the knowledge will be evaluated manually or on the basis of objective quality criteria. The overall flow of the data mining process from data sources to different visualizations and data mining tools (Soukup and Davidson 2002) is shown in Figure 4 (Samarghitean and Vihinen 2008). Data mining is frequently used for prediction and description.

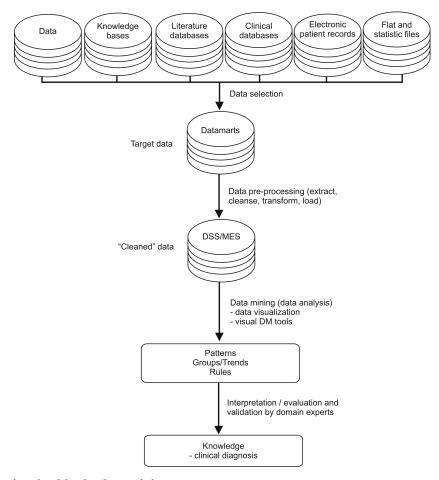


Figure 4. Steps involved in the data mining process

2.4.3 Applications of data mining

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Knowledge acquisition and data mining are important application areas of ML. Knowledge acquisition, extracting the knowledge from experts, is the major bottleneck in the development of expert systems. Semi-automatic methods can support either the experts or knowledge engineers in knowledge acquisition. Data mining, by applying different machine learning techniques, allows nearly automatic knowledge acquisition. Decision trees (Quinlan 1993), neural networks (Swingler 1996), genetic algorithms (Pena-Reyes and Sipper 2000) and nearest neighbor classification are some examples of such ML methods.

Data mining has been extensively used in industry, banking, government, and health care delivery. In medicine it has been used for integrated sources of clinical data, inferential probabilistic prediction of risk of ventilator-associated pneumonia (Chapman et al. 2001), discrimination between ageing-related and non-ageing-related DNA repair genes (Freitas et al. 2011), and between cancerous and non-cancerous cells (Dexter et al. 2010), population surveillance for signs of bioterrorism, pharmacovigilance (Lindquist et al. 2000; Hauben et al. 2005) and predictive data mining (Bellazzi and Zupan 2008).

In medical data mining applications one of the most important features is a safety critical context in which decision making activities should always be supported by explanations. The value of each datum may be higher than in other contexts, the data sets can be small and report nonreproducible situations and may be further affected by several sources of uncertainty. Physicians and researchers deal with such difficulties by exploiting their knowledge of the domain. Data mining involves applying variable and model selection, evaluating the resulting models and encoding this knowledge and using it in data analysis. Data mining problems are often solved by using a mosaic of different approaches from computer science, such as multi-dimensional databases, machine learning, soft computing and data visualization, and from statistics, such as hypothesis testing, clustering, classification and regression techniques.

Data mining algorithms are developed, tested and/or used by health authorities, pharmaceutical companies and academic researchers also in the pharmacovigilance domain. A principle concern of pharmacovigilance is detection of adverse drug reactions that are novel by virtue of their clinical nature, severity and/or frequency. There is an increased interest in developing database screening tools to assist human reviewers in identifying associations worthy of further investigation (Hauben, Madigan et al. 2005).

Predictive data mining is becoming an essential instrument for researchers and clinical practitioners in medicine. Thanks to the integration of molecular and clinical data within data warehouses, epidemiological studies and emerging studies in genomics and proteomics, the area has gained a fresh impulse. Crucial to such data are those data mining approaches which allow the use of the background knowledge, discover interesting interpretable and non-trivial relationships, and construct rule-based and other symbolic-type models (Bellazzi and Zupan 2008).

3. AIMS OF THE STUDY

The aims of the study were to develop knowledge bases for PIDs which may include genetic, proteomic, molecular, epidemiological, clinical information about PIDs and could be easily updated and integrated with other knowledge services for PIDs. The specific aims were:

- 1. Build, maintain and update the information in a newly developed genetic and clinical test database for PIDs, IDdiagnostics (I).
- 2. Refine, maintain and update the information in the ImmunoDeficiency Resource (IDR), a knowledge base for PIDs (II).
- 3. Develop a new classification for PIDs based on clinical, pathological and laboratory parameters (III).

4. MATERIALS AND METHODS

4.1 Data sources

Different data sources were used to collect and update the information in IDR (II) and IDdiagnostics (I). These include:

- 1. For clinical data the best evidence on primary immunodeficiency were used: online scientific literature (PubMed, immunology journals), immunology books (Stiehm et al. 2004; Ochs et al. 2006; Rezaei et al. 2008).
- 2. For genetic information electronic databases were used: OMIM (Amberger, Bocchini et al. 2009), ORPHANET (Ayme and Schmidtke 2007), GeneTests (Pagon 2006), GeneCards (Safran et al. 2002), SOURCE (Diehn et al. 2003), PROSITE (Sigrist et al. 2002), Swiss-Prot (Boeckmann et al. 2003), Ensemble (Birney et al. 2004), eMedicine (2002; Lundberg 2006).
- 3. Direct submissions from clinicians were used for the genetic test and clinical test database for IDdiagnostics (I).
- 4. Direct communications with clinicians and PID scientists in conferences (ESID 2002-2010, IUIS 2009), meetings (ESID Prague meeting 2007, 2009, 2010; ESID Summer School Bled, Slovenia 2009; ESID Juniors workshop Florence, Italy 2010; PID Advanced School Sao Paolo, Brazil 2010; ESID Junior Symposium Tampere, Finland 2011; ESID Registry Workshop, Freiburg, Germany 2011).

4.2 Tools used for developing IDR and IDdiagnostics

For building, maintaining and updating the information in the IDR (II) and IDdiagnostics (I) different tools were used.

Web development tools:

- 1. eXtensible Markup Language (XML)
- 2. Inherited Disease Markup Language(IDML)

4.2.1 eXtensible Markup Language

The Extensible Markup Language (XML) is a standard created by the World Wide Web Consortium (W3C) for characterizing the content and structure of documents, designed to improve the functionality of the Web by enabling more flexible and adaptable information identification and presentation (Väliaho et al. 2005). Information encoded in XML is easy to read and understand, and easy to process by computers. In XML files, structured data is bounded by tags and attributes. XML tags, attributes and element structure provide context information that facilitates the interpretation of the meaning of content, thereby making it feasible to develop efficient search engines and agents and perform intelligent data mining, etc. The XML allows the separation of content, logic and presentation. There are many advantages for XML language (time saving, meta-data gives extra meaning to information, useful for indexing, future uses, documents exchange etc.). XML is increasingly becoming the preferred method of encoding structured data for exchange over the Internet.

4.2.2 Inherited Disease Markup Language (IDML)

The Inherited Disease Markup Language (IDML) provides a standard method for exchanging genetic and clinical data along with general disease descriptions, diagnostic information and links to other related resources (Väliaho et al. 2005). Separation of data from the presentation enables the seamless integration of data from diverse sources. The IDML format is a published, documented open format, offered especially for the purpose of data interchange between platforms and databases in the Internet. The data from the IDML format for different systems, e.g. to hypertext markup language (HTML), is transformed by using extensible stylesheet language transformations (XSLT) stylesheets. The IDML specification and document type definition (DTD) follow the XML standards of the World Wide Web Consortium (W3C).

The fact file data model and the Inherited Disease Markup Language (IDML) were developed to facilitate disease information integration, storage and exchange in the first place for immunodeficiencies, but in principle for any hereditary disease. The IDML is an XML specification and container for bioinformatics data on hereditary diseases. The fact file data model schema was defined according to W3C XML specification. The fact file data model can be depicted as a tree structure graph where a *FactFile* element is a root. Fact files make use of the following specifications, standards and databases: HUGO gene nomenclature (Wain et al. 2004), RefSeq (Pruitt and Maglott 2001), Swiss-Prot (Boeckmann et al. 2003) and SOURCE (Diehn et al. 2003).

4.3 Clustering and network analysis methods

In paper (III) we used a systems biological approach to develop a new classification for PIDs. Different clustering and network analysis methods were used.

Clustering is a process that groups a set of objects into clusters so that the similarity among the objects in a cluster is high. There are different types of data clustering algorithms: hierarchical and partitional. In hierarchical algorithms, successive clusters are found using previously established clusters, while partitioning algorithms determine all clusters at once. Hierarchical clusters are either agglomerative (bottom up) or divisive (top-down) methods. Agglomerative algorithms begin with each element as a separate cluster and merge them in successively larger clusters. The divisive algorithms begin with the whole set and divide it into successively smaller clusters (Wang et al. 2005). A K-means algorithm assigns each point to the clusters whose centroid is closest. The centroids are the points that have the coordinates on a central tendency. The main advantage of this algorithm is its simple implementation and computational speed. K-means maximizes inter-cluster variance and ensures a local-optimal solution on a local minimum of variance.

Network analysis is a methodological tool and a theoretical paradigm to describe, explore and understand structural and relational aspects. A network consists of entities (nodes) that may represent individuals, organizations, or programs connected by lines or arrows, which show some relationship between them. A network can be used for four different purposes: as a conceptual model, a description of an existing real-word structure or system, a mathematical model, or a simulation (Luke and Harris 2007). The network paradigm has four important features:

- 1. It is a structural approach focusing partly on patterns of linkages between nodes
- 2. It is grounded in empirical data
- 3. It makes frequent use of mathematical and computational models and
- 4 It is highly graphical.

Network approaches focus on relationships between subjects rather than relationships between subject attributes (i.e. variables). In network analyses, data is typically organized in an N-by N square matrix. The data entries represent a relationship between a pair of nodes. In many cases, network identification is straightforward, especially when boundaries are clear (Salganik and Heckathorn 2004).

5. RESULTS

We developed a procedure for the bioinformatics analysis of PIDs based on the experience in our group and previous studies on the development of different knowledge bases and systematic classifications for PIDs. The procedure was implemented and refined in the studies (I, II, III).

5.1 ImmunoDeficiency Resource IDR (II)

The ImmunoDeficiency Resource (IDR) is a knowledge base that integrates a wide spectrum of information including clinical, biochemical, genetic, genomic, proteomic, structural, and computational data. Over time, IDR has proved to be a valuable resource for the community, with an increased numbers of users every year, being integrated with other new resources such as RAPID and ORPHANET and cited in prestigious journals and books. At the core of the system are *Fact files* in which are stored in a structured form information regarding PIDs: genes, heredity, nosology, taxonomy, mutations, protein sequences, online resources, organizations and associations. The fact files are XML-based, validated data sources on PID-related information. Each fact file provides basic information on diseases and affected genes. The fact files also contain HTML hyperlinks to other Internet resources that are accepted to be reliable by the experts and are integrated within IDdiagnostics, IDbases and IDR. The fact files act as a quick portal to further information on diseases. At present there are 178 factfiles. Stand-alone IDML fact files have been generated for each PID (Figure 5) (Väliaho et al. 2005).

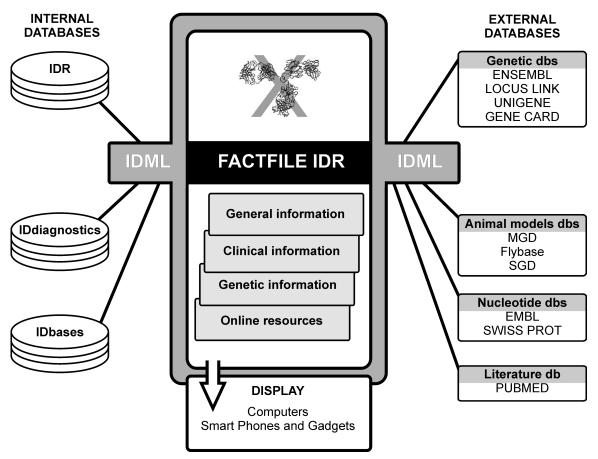


Figure 5. Factfiles at the core of IDR

The IDR includes in an organized manner also electronic articles, links to electronic journals, e-books, digital atlases, other online health services, instructional resources, analyses and visualization tools as well as advanced search routines.

The IDR contains extensive cross-referencing and links to other services. The IDR integrates numerous web-based services e.g. sequence databases (EMBL, GenBank, SWISS-PROT), genome information (Ensembl, GDB, UniGene, GeneCard, GenAtlas, euGene), protein structural database (PDB), diseases (OMIM), references (PubMed), clinical guidelines (ESID/PAGID recommendations), mutation data (IDbases), animal models (MGD, FlyBase, SacchDB) and information produced by the IDR team (Väliaho et al. 2002). The immunodeficiencies category includes, for example, an *Introduction to'*, and 'Classification of', immunodeficiencies web pages. Information about the affected genes and loci are linked to corresponding servers. ESID and PAGID recommendations for diagnostics criteria for immunodeficiences and other guidelines developed by different parties are also distributed. The immunology section includes immunology

related data sources such as lectures on immunology and immunodeficiencies. The IDbases section contains links to some 122 mutation registries (Piirilä et al. 2006). Most of them are maintained by IBT Bioinformatics. The pages for animal models list links to knock-outs of immunodeficiency related genes in mice (MGD), *Drosophila melanogaster* (FlyBase) and *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (SacchDB). Interest groups for immunologists, nurses and patients are listed. There are several societies related to immunodeficiency research, care and patients. The immunology laboratories section contains a list of home pages of laboratories which are active in the many fields of immunodeficiency research including diagnosis, treatment and basic research in such areas as genetic analyses, protein structure determination and signal transduction. It is also possible to read about immunodeficiency related research programs. Links to immunodeficiency related DNA and amino acid sequences are available as well as to three-dimensional structures of proteins. Furthermore, a picture gallery and a list of meetings and workshops are available.

IDR has an increasing number of users that demonstrate that the web is an effective way to deliver complex and updated information to the medical community. As it is shown in the figure below in the IDR there are more than 10000 hits each month (Figure 6).

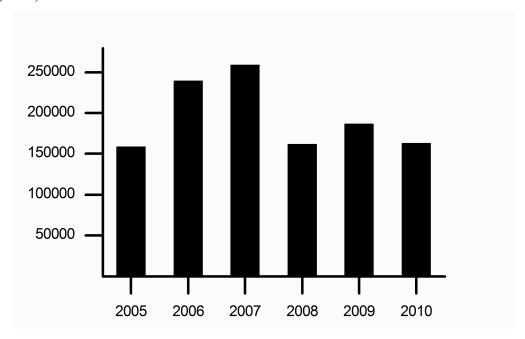


Figure 6. Number of pages requests per month/year in IDR over the time

The Internet contains a large amount of pages, but only a few contain information about data validation. Many times search engines give thousands of links making it almost impossible to trawl through all this information. The most difficult task is usually not to find data but to differentiate useful and reliable data from other less important search results. In the IDR, the experts check all the data; especially links to external information sources, and approve only those sites with solid scientific and medical information.

The IDR is easy to navigate. The IDR pages are color coded for different interest groups: researchers, physicians, nurses, patients and families. By selecting the group of interest, the user can get specific pages, such as an introduction written for this particular group. This makes it easier for the user to find interesting and useful information for their own area. The IDR also provides an advanced text search facility, that can utilize boolean logic searches with multiple keywords. IDR is integrated with internal and external databases, which makes this site a valuable resource for PIDs and a quick tool to be used. The structured data from the IDR facfiles has been integrated as weblinks in ORPHANET and in the Asian database for immunodeficiencies (Keerthikumar et al. 2009).

5.2 IDdiagnostics (I)

IDdiagnostics is an online registry that includes worldwide data for genetic and clinical tests for PIDs. IDdiagnostics is available online at http://bioinf.uta.fi/IDdiagnostics (Figures 7, 8). The service is based on extensible Markup XML and is interlinked with internal databases: IDR (II) and IDbases (Piirilä et al. 2006) and with external databases OMIM (Amberger et al. 2009), GeneCards (Safran et al. 2002).

The submission forms for clinical and genetic tests are available online and also in paper format (Figure 7, 8). The genetic test questionnaire includes contact information, diseases investigated and details about the test. The clinical test questionnaire contains contact information about doctors and laboratories that perform analyses, and details about immunological tests. The submission is sent by email to the curators.

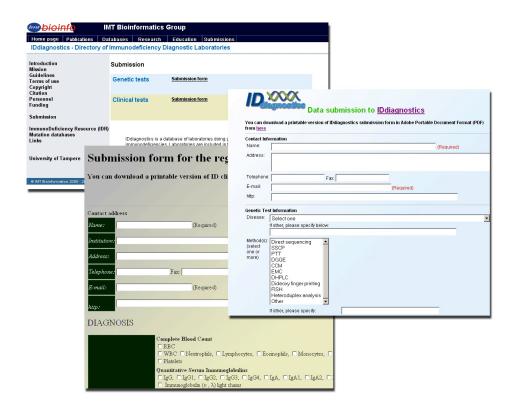


Figure 7. IDdiagnostics submission form for gene/clinical test information

After the curation process the data appears online in the Internet database. Searching facilities allow users to run text-based search queries. The search engine makes it easy to find laboratories for certain diseases, methods, and geographical location.

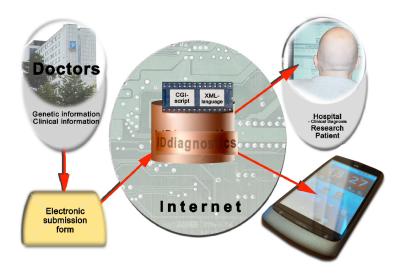


Figure 8. IDdiagnostics and different ways to use it

IDdiagnostics increases the availability of genetic and clinical methods for PIDs and provides possibilities for accurate diagnosis and fast communication between laboratories. Until now, within the genetic tests there are 222 entries for 43 diseases from 52 centers in 10 countries. In the clinical test database there are 30 entries from 29 centers in 12 countries.

Searches from IDdiagnostics are easy by using free text or by limiting the search to certain data fields. Gene test laboratories can be searched by disease name (also alternative names), gene symbol, OMIM code, laboratory, laboratory location, and free text. Similar searches are available for clinical laboratories. The search engine makes it easy to find laboratories for certain diseases, methods, and geographical locations.

5.3 Systematic classification of PIDs (III)

We developed a method and produced a novel systematic classification of PIDs based on clinical signs and features as well as laboratory parameters. Network and clustering methods were used to obtain a consensus that was shown to be valid according to a number of independent features.

PIDs related information was collected from several sources (Figure 9). Characteristic clinical, pathological and laboratory parameters were identified, combined and optimized to 87 informative parameters, which were used with an equal weight in analysis. A consensus of at least five independent methods (3 clustering and 3 network community methods) yielded a novel classification of 11 groups, which revealed previously unknown features and relationships of PIDs.

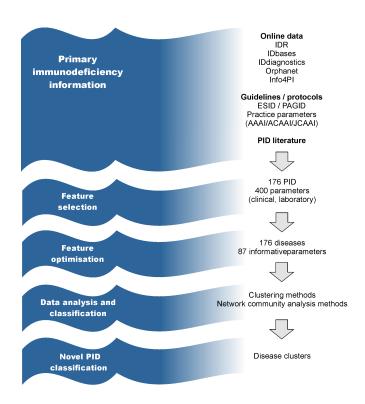


Figure 9. Approach for obtaining novel PID classification

11 well-defined disease clusters (DCs) of at least 4 diseases were identified. There is one giant cluster, which contains the majority of the PIDs and some separate clusters and singleton PIDs. 1285 pairs of diseases are grouped together by at least five methods out of a possible 18721, and out of the 12721 that are grouped by at least one method. The results are available in an interactive web page at http://bioinf.uta.fi/PID classification.

Most of the clusters are very homogeneous and contain related diseases. These groups, which have been exclusively generated based on disease characteristics, indicate the power of the method. Other information for the PID genes, proteins and their functions further support the classification. In addition, these results are statistically significant.

Clusters III and VII contain (almost) exclusively SCIDs, whereas in cluster IX the diseases are related to the complement system and clusters I and XI to phagocyte functions; in cluster VIII are fever syndromes, and in cluster X Fanconi anemias. All of the known MHC I diseases are in cluster V and all of the MHC II genes are in cluster III. The classical complement pathway diseases are in clusters V and IX. In cluster III are

diseases related to DNA instability and DNA damage repair, except for G6PC3. Clusters IV, V, and VI are the most heterogeneous. Cluster IV contains numerous receptor and signaling molecule-related diseases. Some of the proteins behind these disorders form transmembrane channels. Cluster V contains mainly antibody and complement deficiencies together with some SCIDs. The majority of the cluster VI diseases are related to phagocytosis and apoptosis.

The distribution of characteristics describing independent clinical, functional, genetic, and network properties of the diseases and the corresponding genes and proteins were investigated in order to test whether the etiologically rather homogeneous DCs shared any similarities These features were not used for the original clustering of the PIDs.

The PIDs were divided into four groups according to their severity. Severity was not among the symptoms used in our classification because it is not routinely used in the clinical description of the diseases. The severity shows a very homogeneous pattern in some of the clusters. Diseases in DCs II, VII, and IX belong to two categories, whereas in almost all of the remaining clusters there are almost exclusively moderate and severe or severe and life-threatening diseases.

PIDs are treated in a number of ways that can be grouped as: Ig treatment, the use of antibiotics, antifungals or antivirals, immunomodulators and hematopoietic stem cell transplantation. The data for the treatment of the diseases indicates that the majority of the clusters are very homogeneous in regard to treatments and there are clear differences between DCs. There are DCs in which all of the diseases are treated with the same battery of therapeutic modalities. DCs reliably reflect the properties of diseases, and the therapy applied to diseases within DCs is usually similar.

The distribution of the functional properties in the PID classification shown that the majority of the group I proteins are involved in inflammation and cellular immunity. Group II and VII proteins have functions as transcription factors involved in humoral and cellular immunity. Humoral immunity is most prevalent in DC IV, complement proteins in DC IX, and both humoral and complement functions in DC V. Inflammation is the function involved in DC VIII.

6. DISCUSSION

Health professionals such as primary immunodeficiency specialists are often forced to make decisions about diagnosis and treatment in imperfect conditions, under stressful circumstances with incomplete information, in the face of unclear pathology. Because new advances are made in the field, clinicians might accommodate new information and implement new practices. The diagnosis of PIDs is difficult due to overlapping symptoms, which often leads to misdiagnosis and delays in treatment or inappropriate treatments. Health professionals and researchers should embrace new technologies, such as databases, registries, biobanks and expert systems, in their daily practices as well as specific studies, and not be afraid of having their decisions being helped by technologies. Available data suggest that these technologies are merely tools that aid our memory limitations and facilitate more accurate decisions.

6.1.1 Databases, biobanks and registries

The IDR fact file is a user interface, which serves as a good starting point to explore information on PIDs. For some time now, there have been many advanced search facilities in the Internet such as Google, which are able to find very fast web pages that contain given keywords. However, the web searches typically turn up innumerable completely irrelevant findings, requiring much manual filtering by the user. Database searching and accessibility have some difficulties including inaccurate and redundant search results, nomenclature issues, lack of internal access, lack of customization and differing data formats. New methods are needed for improving search results.

Almost all the pages on the Internet have been written in HyperText Markup Language (HTML), which it is used for style description. It provides some possibilities for simple description about a document. It is able to use special metatags that contain simple keywords or more advanced descriptions, but they are very little utilized and only the most sophisticated search engines can exploit them.

There are some efforts to integrate heterogeneous biomedical databases. Some level of standardization is required for more automatic integration. In the future, Web services will use standard Internet protocols including SOAP, WSDL, and UDDI for interoperability with other resources. We developed IDR and IDdiagnostics using XML in accordance with the specific types of data. The PID dataset from IDR have been used to develop tools for finding new PID candidate genes (Ortutay and Vihinen 2009). IDR factfiles were helpful also in developing the PIDs network in paper (III) and RAPID (Keerthikumar et al. 2009).

Developments of intelligent databases (IDSs) and high-performance storage systems (HPSS) over the WWW have many advantages. Information sharing, collaboration between medical practitioners, on-line discussion, on-line treatment and diagnosis are among the features which enable doctors to share their knowledge and expertise. Standardized communication protocols facilitate the use of increasing datasets. Laboratory techniques, for example genome sequencing, and gene and protein expression analysis, will improve the accuracy of diagnoses and help in the discovery of novel molecular targets. New machine learning techniques will be developed in the future to automate knowledge acquisition and knowledge extraction. Future technological evolution may lead to powerful diagnostic tools based on classification algorithms developed today as stand-alone systems. They will be integrated into existing devices and hospital information systems, which will be part of large national/international databases. The current trend in disease diagnosis is to merge efforts towards a complete decision support system that also integrates modern tools from gene expression, protein expression, analysis of protein interactions, loss of function phenotyping, using RNAi, animal models, tissue microarrays, metabolomics, cellomics.

In Finland, over several decades large population survey approaches have produced datasets on especially non-communicable diseases and their risk factors. In these surveys, also biological material, mainly serum samples, have been collected. In addition to immediate laboratory analyses, samples have also been stored for future purposes. Reliable and comprehensive national administrative registers in Finland provide unique possibility for definition of disease endpoints for these cohorts.

Even though these data sources have been widely utilized and internationally recognized in epidemiological research, there are also several challenges in effective utilization of data. Instead of utilizing existing data sets, current funding opportunities easily drive researchers to new data collection. Resources available at the time of data collection restrict the focus of surveys and also sample sizes easily remain too small to examine complex associations and rare diseases and disorders. Especially, most of these data sets alone are too small to assess genetics of diseases and risk factors. Creation of larger, comprehensive datasets is complicated and resource consuming.

Well-developed epidemiological biobanks could markedly improve the quantity, quality and utilization of data and thus increase effectiveness and reduce costs of research on the etiology of complex diseases. They could also enlarge the scope and perspectives in research and increase national and international collaboration. In this development all different stakeholders such as policy makers, researchers, funders and the general public would need to have a common understanding of the principles of biobanking and legal systems and ethical review mechanisms applied to biobanks should be enabling and fit-for-purpose. Many practical challenges would need to be solved. On the other hand, lots of experience and skills already exist to enhance the development.

Data on PID patients in epidemiological biobanks in Finland are spread in different biobanks for other diseases such as the hematological registry and cancer registry. It would be beneficial to merge the data already collected in IDR, IDbases or IDdiagnostics with data from biobanks and a national registry specifically targeted at PIDs. At the moment there is no national PID registry and the development of such a registry would constitute a public health priority for Finland or other countries, such as Romania which don't have these kinds of healthcare systems yet for PIDs.

Data from IDR, IDdiagnostics and IDbases have been already integrated into the ESID registry, a registry which collects PID information from all over the Europe (Eades-Perner et al. 2006; Gathmann et al. 2009). Current efforts are under way to standardize the information from different national PID registries and centralize at the European level in the ESID registry.

Finland will benefit also by merging the bioinformatics tools developed locally already for PIDs with a national registry and a biobank specifically tailored for PIDs and also by connecting the data with the ESID registry (Gathmann, Grimbacher et al. 2009), other Scandinavian PID registries, the SCETIDE registry and the EBMT registry.

6.1.2 Systematic classification of PIDs

The knowledge accumulated in the IDR factfiles, IDbases and IDdiagnostics was also used beside most recent discoveries to develop a systematic classification for PIDs. This novel method is based on several clinical, pathological and physiological parameters. The new classification shares certain features with previous groupings. For example, the new classification indicates that cell type expression cannot be very reliably used for classification of PIDs. The obtained 11 disease clusters are very robust due to the consensus of at least five methods. The p values show the significance of the observations. More detailed subgrouping is available by using the consensus of all the six methods. The PID parameters could offer guidelines for medical descriptions of PIDs. The classification allows a novel and fresh look at the relationships of PIDs, the genes behind them and the encoded proteins. Based on the classification and the parameters it might be possible to develop novel diagnostic schemes for PIDs. The correlation with other independent information implies that the classification reflects numerous properties of the diseases and the genes and proteins mutated in them.

The previous PID classifications have been based on the cell types in which the disease-related genes are normally expressed. Antibody deficiencies, combined PIDs and diseases related to phagocytosis are widely scattered in the graph. These heterogenous

diseases affect numerous parts of the immune system. The highest concentration of SCIDs is in DCs II, IV and VII, whereas antibody deficiencies mainly appear in clusters IV and V. Phagocyte diseases are exclusive to DCs I and XI but also appear in DCs IV, V and VI.

Clustering methods are widely used in many fields, such as in microarray data analysis. In medicine, cluster analysis has been used in the nosological splitting of different phenotypes, to classify patients with chronic pain and to develop a new taxonomy for airway diseases. We combined both network and clustering methods and used their consensus to obtain a robust grouping for PIDs. Considering the consensus of four, five, or six independent methods makes the results robust and independent from the individual methods.

The new PID classification can have several applications. Because it was generated independently from the existing classifications using solely mathematical analysis of clinical and laboratory parameters, it can be used in evaluation and development of other classifications. Disease groups defined by experts and found also by our independent approach have a strong indication of their existence. Some other possible applications of the new classification are:

- 1. Organizing PID and information about them in the IDR
- 2. Detailed demographics
- 3. Mortality records and
- 4. Development of a decision support for PID.

7. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In this study we have developed two databases and a procedure for in depth analysis of PIDs. The analysis has provided interesting insights into different PIDs relationships at clinical and molecular level.

Online knowledge bases, such as IDR collect and distribute many kinds of information, and keep users up-to-date with the deluge of data. Resources for diagnosis laboratories, such as IDdiagnostics are frequently used by those wanting to verify a suspected PID case. Classification of PIDs and knowledge of candidate genes have many applications. New methods, algorithms and ontologies are needed to fully exploit all the available data for primary immunodeficiencies.

IDR, IDdiagnostics and PIDs systematic classification provide a comprehensive navigation point for anyone interested in these disorders, whether a physician, a nurse, a research scientist, a patient, a parent of a patient or general public. These bioinformatics tools contain in a systemized manner, continuously renewed information, which can be fast approach and updated. They have proved to be a real help for clinicians, medical students and researchers and may help in improving medical care. Newly discovered relationships found in biomedical databases like these will potentially lead to better understanding between observations and outcomes in PIDs and other fields of medicine. The method used for PID classification has built-in statistical output and iterative analysis using different inputs leads to alternative classifications useful in gene discovery, therapeutic trials, and the development of screening or diagnosis protocols. The flexibility and statistical power of these methods make them very suitable for the development of evidence-based protocols for diagnosis and therapy, not just of PID, but of any other group(s) of diseases. This classification approach bridges the existing knowledge bases with diagnostic and therapeutic protocols, which may be applied directly in patient care. The new approach proposed (using data warehousing and mining technology in the health care) can influence medical outcomes and merit further studies and funding.

With the rapidly changing landscape of healthcare, these kind of bioinformatics tools need to evolve quickly. They should be allowed to choose the functionalities that represent the best available ideas in healthcare and should be made compatible and interoperable with other IT healthcare systems.

8. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The work described in this research project has been mainly carried out in the Bioinformatics group at the Institute of Biomedical Technology, University of Tampere. Finland. The sincerest appreciation and gratitude goes to Prof. Mauno Vihinen, Head of the Bioinformatics group for the opportunity to work in his group and for excellent teaching and guidance during all these years.

The Bioinformatics group at the Institute of Biomedical Technology has been a pleasant environment. All my gratitude goes to the entire personnel of the group. Special thanks are reserved for Jouni Väliaho, with whom I worked in many projects and have been co-author in some of my articles (I, II), as well as Csaba Ortutay, co-author in paper (III). Martti Tolvanen, Markku Siermala, Sofia Khan, Johanna Salonen, Heidi Ali, Janita Thursberg and Kathryn Rannikko have been wonderful colleagues with whom I spent many hours debating about life and science. Hannu Korhonen and Jukka Lehtiniemi provided valuable technical and creative support in many aspects of my research. I am deeply grateful for their help and positive, creative attitude.

Special thanks go to Kati Iltanen and Kirsi Varpa from Department of Computer Science, and the late Ayodeji Olatubosun from the Bioinformatics group, Institute of Biomedical Technology, University of Tampere that has been involved in the development of PIDexpert.

I would like to acknowledge the former director of the Institute of Medical Technology, Professor Olli Silvennoinen, M.D., Ph.D., and the Director of BioMediTech, Dr. Hannu Hanhijärvi, Ph.D., for providing the research facility for this study. Special thanks go to Prof. Howard Jacobs, Head of the Postgraduate Program, not only for his inspiring lectures about mitochondria and immunology but also for his precious support in the administrative matters of the doctoral thesis, as well as to

Henna Matilla Ph.D., the coordinator of the program, Prof. Jorma Isola, the Chair of the Doctoral studies committee and all the wonderful secretaries in IBT/UTA.

Minna Laine and Kaj Stenberg, members of the thesis committee provided valuable feedback all these years. I am deeply grateful to them.

Professors Olli Lassila and Lennart Hammarström are also acknowledged for engaging in the revision of this thesis and for their valuable comments and criticism. I am especially indebted to Professor Ole Lund who agreed to act as my opponent in the public examination of this thesis.

My clinical expertise in primary immunodeficiencies has been improved in the Children's Infectious Disease department, Tampere University Hospital, Finland; Children's Immunology Department at Newcastle General Hospital in the United Kingdom and in the Children's Hospital, University of Brescia, Italy. I am very grateful to all the wonderful clinicians I met there, especially Prof. Andrew Cant, Prof. Gavin Spickett, Dr. Andrew Genery, Doc. Merja Helminen, Dr. Silvia Gigliani, Prof. Alessandro Plebani and Dr. Annarosa Soresina. They have been such inspiring hosts for me.

My deepest gratitude goes to the European Society of Immunodeficiency (ESID) and the entire PID community, for continuous and useful interaction all these years. Special thanks for my 'golden mentors': Prof. Luigi Notarangelo, Prof. Anders Fasth, Prof. Hans Ochs, Prof. Alain Fisher, Prof. Steve Holland, Prof. Hellen Chapel and Dr. Esther de Vries for useful scientific/clinical discussion and for mentorship. ESID Juniors have a special place in my heart. The Advanced School in PIDs, Sao Paolo, Brazil 2010, excellently organized by Prof. Magda Carneiro enriched tremendously my knowledge in PIDs as well as ESID Registry workshops and ESID Juniors symposium/workshops. I am very grateful to all of them.

Special thanks go to Dr. Kaarina Järvenpää and her wonderful team from Helsinki who enriches tremendously my experience in pediatrics and provide a pleasant environment to grow, as well as to Dr. Tuomo Lunnikivi from Hämeenlinna who improved immensely my clinical skills in geriatrics.

I would like to thank also to Countess Bettina Bernadotte and the Lindau Nobel Laureates Meeting committee who allowed me in 2011 to have the unique chance to meet 20 Nobel laureates and the best 500 young researchers in the world. This meeting gave us not only inspiring lectures but also good models every young researcher should aspire to. I am very happy that I could represent successfully both Finland and Romania in this prestigious meeting, which contributed immensely to my knowledge and my future research.

The Academy of Finland, Sigrid Juselius Foundation, Tampere University Hospital Medical Research Fund, Tampere City Hall and the European Union supported the research, and are gratefully acknowledged. Different professional associations (CIS, ESID, EFIS, SSI), different pharmaceutical companies: Talecris, CSL Behring (Italian and Finnish branch), Sanquin (Finnish branch), Baxter, Octapharma, Kedrion, Grifols and the Tampere Graduate Program in Biomedicine and Biotechnology (TGPBB) helped the research through different travel awards and sponsorships and made possible the dissemination of the results. I am very grateful to all of them.

I am thankful to all these wonderful people (doctors, researchers, nurses, patients) for useful discussions, commitment to our services and their valuable articles, without them none of these would be possible.

In the end, life is not only work, medicine and science. Sometimes, it can be music, sometimes it can be dance and sometimes it can be just simply an empty canvas ready to paint on it. I am deeply grateful to all of my friends from Tampere and all over the world that make my life so colorful and enjoyable. You are all in my heart no matter where you are situated.

Finally, my whole love goes to my family, Nicoleta, Costantino and Luca who send me systematically infusions of sun and love. My mother, Ioana gave me strength, patience and a positive attitude that can overcome all the hardships of life. Without her unconditional love none of these would be possible.

Tampere, 11 May 2012

Crina Samarghitean

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10. ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS

Online Registry of Genetic and Clinical Immunodeficiency Diagnostic Laboratories, IDdiagnostics

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Accepted: July 24, 2003

Primary immunodeficiencies (IDs) are caused by inherited genetic defects leading to intrinsic defects in cells of the immune systems. Most IDs are rare diseases and can be difficult to diagnose because similar symptoms characterize several disorders. Mutation detection is the most reliable method in such cases. These tests are not available at most centers and physicians can have difficulties in finding laboratories that could analyze the genetic defects because certain genes are possibly analyzed by just one laboratory. The IDdiagnostics registry has been established to provide information for physicians and other health care professionals. The database at http://bioinf.uta.fi/IDdiagnostics contains currently information for the analysis of defects in 30 ID-related genes. Another part of IDdiagnostics is a database of clinical tests. Laboratories performing these analyses, either gene or clinical tests, are asked to submit their information to the database by using a printed form or electronic submission at http://bioinf.uta.fi/cgi-bin/submit/IDClini.cgi. The clinical test database contains information about tests for clinical data, immune status, and studies of function, antibody response, cell function, enzyme assays, clinical function, and apoptosis assays. Both the services are freely available and regularly updated. The services aim at increasing the awareness of IDs and helping to obtain exact and early diagnosis.

KEY WORDS: Immunodeficiency; diagnostics; IDdiagnostics; diagnostic laboratories; genetic tests; clinical tests; DNA laboratories.

INTRODUCTION

Primary immunodeficiency disorders (IDs) impair the function of the immune system. Patients suffering these intrinsic defects have increased susceptibility to recur-

rent and persistent infections, but other symptoms are also common. More than 100 IDs affecting the immune system are known and several genes have been identified (1, 2). The immune system consists of a very large number of molecules and processes, and IDs can therefore be caused by genetic alterations at many loci (2, 3). A particular ID can be caused by defects in any one of several molecules that are required for certain responses, because a defect in any of the sequential steps may impair the whole system.

Early and exact diagnosis is essential for proper treatment of patients to improve the prognosis in the syndrome evolution, to minimize the expenses related to the treatment, to optimize health care efforts, and for genetic counseling. There is often also a need for prenatal diagnosis. In the case of certain IDs early diagnosis is crucial for lifesaving treatment.

IDs can be difficult to diagnose because similar symptoms can be caused by several disorders. A further complication is that many IDs are very rare. The incidences for IDs vary from 1 in 100 to less than 1 in 2,000,000, and for many of them the prevalence is below 1 in 100,000. Recently, diagnostic guidelines for some common IDs have been published (4). In many cases the definitive diagnosis is based on the analysis of a genetic a defect(s), because mutation detection is the most reliable method of making a diagnosis. Due to the rareness of several IDs there are generally not many centers analyzing a certain disease, and therefore physicians may have difficulties in finding laboratories that could analyze the genetic defects. New genes related to IDs are described frequently. It is difficult even for researchers within the field to keep track of all new inventions.

The internet contains plenty of medical information about IDs. We provide a validated knowledge base of practically all aspects of IDs in ImmunoDeficiency Resource (IDR) at http://bioinf.uta.fi/idr/. IDR aims at providing comprehensive integrated knowledge on ID in an easily accessible format offering data for clinical, biochemical,

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genetic, structural, and computational analysis (5,6). In addition, we maintain some 50 ID mutation databases available on the Internet (3,5,7-9).

Here we describe IDdiagnostics, a new Internet-based service of registries for laboratories performing clinical and genetic tests for patients with heritable IDs. The database is designed for physicians, researchers, and other health care professionals. In addition to providing contact information, the registry also aims at promoting the appropriate use of genetic services inpatient care as well as increasing the general awareness of IDs.

IDdiagnostics

The aim of the IDdiagnostics registry (http://bioinf. uta.fi/IDdiagnostics/) is to collect, identify, describe, and disseminate information on diagnostic services for IDs. IDdiagnostics is formed of two independent registries for laboratories performing genetic and clinical tests, respectively, for IDs. The service is intended for physicians, researchers, and other medical genetics health professionals. Laboratories are included in IDdiagnostics on a voluntary basis. We have contacted numerous persons from laboratories performing these tests worldwide. There are in many countries contact persons who are in touch with local centers. The registry is not complete, which means that it does not include all possible laboratories or services. Only those willing to have their information posted on the Internet are included. Inclusion is at no charge. To be included, a completed registration form available in both electronic and paper form should be submitted.

According to the guidelines of the services, laboratories are regularly contacted to verify the accuracy of their information. The curators keep the right to remove information for a laboratory if there are problems, e.g., with time schedule or quality of information.

Submission

Data can be submitted to the registry in different ways. The preferred method is Web submission at http://bioinf.uta.fi/cgi-bin/submit/IDClini.cgi. The forms are easy to use and usually require just clicking the correct options from forms. Printable forms are also available (Figs. 1 and 2), which after completion can be mailed or faxed to the database curators. The paper and electronic forms are identical. If the electronic form is used, submission script formats the information from the filled form such that it can be added to a database in a similar fashion as in the MUTbase system for immunodeficiency mutation databases (10). New entries are added to

databases only after curatorial review. The program allows the user to check the information in the database format before final submission by pressing the test button. The submissions are sent by email to the curators. An example of an entry in the genetic test database is shown in Fig. 3.

The submission questionnaires were constructed after consulting with prominent clinicians in the field. The genetic test form includes contact information, details about the disease investigated and applied methods, and also information about the frequency of the analysis and price details. The clinical test questionnaire contains contact information and tests performed for immune status, divided into complete blood count, quantitative serum immunoglobulins, enumeration of blood cell populations, and evaluation of functional molecules, and tests performed for studies of function: antibody response, cell function, enzyme assays, complement function, apoptosis assays, and others.

Database Management

The IDdiagnostics registry is used and maintained on the Internet to provide up-to-date information at all times. Submission forms are programmed using CGI (common gateway interface) scripts. One of the key features of the Internet is that it allows different Internet-accessible databases to be connected to one another through hypertext links (11). These hyperlinks allow users to interactively retrieve related information from different Internet databases. However, there are some problems associated with hyperlinks (12). A large-scale integrative analysis needs more powerful tools for database integration and interoperation (13).

To address these problems, IDdiagnostics is based on eXtensible Markup Language (XML). Because of its simplicity and self-describing nature, XML has been proposed as a standard for exchanging data over the Internet. We created a data model, which follows W3C DOM (The World Wide Web Consortium Document Object Model, http://www.w3.org/DOM/) specification.

In addition to the Internet, IDdiagnostics can also be utilized with WAP (Wireless Application Protocol)-compliant devices such as mobile phones by using the BioWAP Service (14, 15). The IDdiagnostics system consists of electronic submission forms, Web-based maintenance routines, automated generation of the distribution version, a versatile search engine, and updated links to related services.

Contents of IDdiagnostics

IDdiagnostics is a resource that includes data for genetic and clinical tests on IDs worldwide. Currently in

Data submission to IDdiagnostics registry

Please fill in one form per disease or use the electronic submission available at http://bioinf.uta.fi/IDdiagnostics/ and send to Prof. Mauno Vihinen, Institute of Medical Technology, FIN-33014 University of Tampere, Finland or fax to +358-3-215 7710

Co	ntact address:			
Na	me:			
	dress:			
Te	lephone:	Fax:		
	nail:	I MA.		
	TTP:			
	111.			
	,			
	sease/gene:			
	Adenosine deaminase deficiency/ADA			IFN-γ R alpha chain deficiency
3	Artemis deficiency/DLCRE1C			IL-2 receptor α-chain deficiency/ <i>IL2RA</i>
	APO-1 ligand/Fas ligand defects/TNFSF6			Immunodeficiency, polyendocrinopathy,
	Apoptosis mediator APO-1/Fas			enetropathy, enteropathy, X-linked /IPEX
	defects/TNFRSF6			Interleukin-12 (IL-12) p40
	Ataxia-telangiectasia/ATM			deficiency/IL12B
_	Autoimmune polyendocrinopathy with			Interleukin-12 receptor β1
	candidiasis and ectodermal dystrophy			deficiency/IL12RB1
	(APECED)/AIRE			Leukocyte adhesion deficiency 1/ITGB2
_	Autosomal recessive CGD p22 ^{phox} /CYBA			Manose-binding lectin deficiency/MBL
_	Autosomal recessive CGD p47 ^{phox} /NCF1		_	MHC class II transactivator deficiency
_	Autosomal recessive CGD p67 ^{phox/} NCF2		_	Myeloperoxidase deficiency/MPO
_	Bloom syndrome/BLM		_	Nijmegen-breakage syndrome/NBS1
_	Cartilage-hair hypoplasia/RMRP		_	Partial γ3 isotype deficiency/ <i>IGHG3</i>
_	Chediak-Higashi syndrome /CHS1			Properdin factor deficiency/PFC
_	Chronic granulomatous disease/CYBB			•
_	CIITA, MHCII transactivating protein		_	Purine nucleoside phosphorylase
_	deficiency/MHC2TA		_	deficiency/NP
_	CD40 deficiency/TNFRSF5			RAG1 deficiency/RAG1
_	CD45 deficiency/PTPRC			RAG2 deficiency/RAG2
_	CD59 or protectin deficiency/CD59			Regulatory factor X 5 deficiency/ RFX5
				RFXAP, Regulatory factor X-associated
_	CD3 e deficiency/CD3E			protein deficiency/RFXAP
_	CD3γ deficiency/CD3G			RFXANK, Ankyrin repeat containing
_	CD8α deficiency/CD8A			regulatory factor X-associated protein
_	C9 deficiency/C9			deficiency/RFXANK
_	C4 binding protein adeficiency/C4BPA			Severe congenital neutropenias, including
_	C4 binding protein βdeficiency/C4BPB			Kostmann syndrome/CSF3R
	Cyclic neutropenia/ELA2			TAP 2 peptide transporter
	Decay-accelerating factor			deficiency/TAP2
	(CD55)deficiency/DAF			ZAP70 deficiency/ZAP70
	DiGeorge-anomaly/DGCR			Wiskott-Aldrich syndrome/WAS
	Factor B deficiency/BF			X-linked agammaglobulinemia/BTK
	Factor I deficiency/IF			X-linked hyper-IgM syndrome /TNFSF5
	Factor H1 deficiency/HF1			X-linked chronic granulomatous
_	Glucose 6-phosphate dehydrogenase			disease/CYBB
_	Glycogen storage disease 1b/G6PT			X-linked lymphoproliferative
	deficiency/G6PD			syndrome(Duncan disease)/SH2D1A
_	Griscelli syndrome/MYO5A			X-linked severe combined
_	Hereditary angioedema/C1NH			immunodeficiency/IL2RG
_	JAK3 deficiency/JAK3			X-linked hyper-IgM syndrome and
_ _	ICOS deficiency/ICOS			hypohydrotic ectodermal
_ _	IFN γ1-receptor deficiency/ <i>IFNGR1</i>			dysplasia/IKBKG
_				μ heavy-chain deficiency/ <i>IGHM</i>
_	IFN γ2-receptor deficiency/ <i>IFNGR2</i>		_	m j ciidiii dellelelle j/1011111

Fig. 1. Submission page for IDdiagnostics. Laboratories performing genetic tests are requested to fill out one form per disease and submit it to the registry.

κ light-chain deficiency/*IGKC* α2 isotype deficiency/*IGHA2* □ λ5 surrogate light-chain deficiency/IGLL1 ε isotype deficiency/*IGHE* □ γ1 isotype deficiency/*IGHG1* γ2 isotype deficiency/IGHG2 γ4 isotype deficiency/IGHG4 α1 isotype deficiency/IGHA1 Other, specify: Method: Direct sequencing SSCP PTT DGGE CCM **EMC** DHPLC Dideoxy finger printing FISH Heteroduplex analysis Other, specify: How often analysis is performed? Turnaround time? How many samples of this disease

Fig. 1. (Continued.)

gene tests there are 79 entries for 30 diseases from 22 centers in nine countries. In the clinical test database there are 21 entries from 20 centers in 10 countries (Tables I and II). Because many of the IDs are so rare it is wise to perform analyses for certain diseases in only a few laboratories due to, e.g., laboratory and reagent costs. IDdiagnostics also provides details related to the analyses. The number of laboratories analyzing each defect varies from one to eight. The highest number of centers is available for the diagnosis of X-linked agammaglobulinemia (8), Wiskott–Aldrich syndrome (5), RAG1 (6), and RAG2 (6) deficiencies.

analysed/year

Mutation detection can be done by several methods (16). Many laboratories use direct sequencing, whereas others rely on fast screening methods followed by sequencing. Only with sequencing is it possible to analyze all the mutations, however, the majority of the ID-related genes are so large that primary scanning for the gene defect within an exon or intron can be more cost- and time-effective.

Since IDs are rare disorders, only big centers may have enough samples to run certain analyses on a constant basis. To get an idea about the time required for diagnosis, data are provided for details on the turnaround time, how often the samples are run, and how many samples are studied annually. The cost of the analyses varies depending, e.g., on the method used, the type of laboratory, and research interest in a particular disease. More common diseases are analyzed routinely and their diagnosis may bear substantial cost. Laboratories can have special requirements for samples and for their handling. Also, these data are available in the IDdiagnostics service. Physicians ought to consult the gene test laboratories before sending any samples to learn about conditions, shipment details, and, e.g., expected time for the test.

IDdiagnostics databases provide search facilities which allow users to run text-based search queries. IDdiagnostics searching is easy by using free text search or by limiting the search to certain data fields. Gene test laboratories can be searched by disease name (also alternative names), gene symbol (17), OMIM (On-Line Mendelian Inheritance in Man) (18) code, laboratory, laboratory location, and free text. Similar searches are available for clinical laboratories. The search engine makes it easy to find laboratories for certain diseases, methods, and geographical locations.

The definitive diagnostics of IDs depends on genetic and laboratory tests since the physical signs may be nonspecific, very discreet, or absent. As a first step in diagnosis,

CLINICAL TESTS FOR	1.3.2 B cells
IMMUNODEFICIENCIES	□ CD19 □ CD20 □ CD19/κ
Contact Address: Name: Institution: Address: Telephone: Fax: Email:	□ CD19/λ 1.3.3 NK cells □ CD16/CD56 (CD3 negative) □ CD8CD56 □ CD3CD16 □ CD3*CD16 ⁺ CD56 ⁺
http: Please fill the form and send to: Prof. Mauno Vihinen, Institute of Medical Technology, FIN-33014 University of Tampere, Finland Fax: +358-3-2157710 e-mail: mauno.vihinen@uta.fi or use electronic form at: http://bioinf.uta.fi/cgi-bin/submit/IDClini.cg	1.3.4 HLA-DR on monocytes HLA-DR/CD14 1.3.5 ex vivo Activation markers CD69 CD3/HLA-DR (activated T cells) CD3/CD25 (activated T cells) CD3/CD69 CD19/CD23 (activated B cells)
 1 IMMUNE STATUS 1.1 Complete Blood Count Red Blood Cells (RBC) White Blood Cells (WBC) Neutrophils 	1.3.6 Adhesion molecules □ CD18 on leukocytes □ Sialyl Lewis X (on phagocytes) □ CD11a (LFA1c) □ CD11b (MO1, CR3) □ CD11c
Lymphocytes Eosinophils Monocytes Basophils Platelets 1.2 Quantitative Serum Immunoglobulins IgG IgG1	1.3.7 Functional molecules CD132 (common γ chain of IL's receptors) IFNγ receptor 1 (CD 119) Btk IL-4 IL-5 IL-12R IL-12R WASP
□ IgG2 □ IgG3 □ IgG4 □ IgA □ IgA1 □ IgA2 □ IgM □ IgE □ IgD □ Immunoglobulin (κ, λ) light chains □ Detection of monoclonal / oligoclonal components of immunoglobulins	1.3.8 MHC class I and MHC class II on leukocytes □ by flow cytometry (using common MAbs) □ HLA class I (monomorphic epitopes of loci A, B, C) □ HLA class II (DR or DP+DQ+DR antigens) 1.3.9 Identification of TCR clonality □ by flow cytometry □ by PCR
1.3 Enumeration of Blood Cell Populations and	2 STUDIES OF FUNCTION 2.1 Antibody Response
Evaluation of Functional Molecules - Flow Cytometry (absolute counts are requested) 1.3.1 T cell subsets □ Total T cells □ CD3/CD4+ □ CD3/CD8+ □ CD4 □ CD8 □ CD4/CD45RA+ in CD4 □ CD4/CD45RO+ in CD4 □ CD3/TCR α/β □ CD3/TCR α/β □ CD3/TCR γ/δ □ CD3/*CD4*CD8* □ CD3*CD4*CD8+	2.1.1 Natural antibodies (titer) anti-A isohemagglutinin (IgM) anti-B isohemagglutinin (IgM) 2.1.2 Antibodies to vaccination or exposure antigens (total IgG and IgG subclass specific) Diphteria Tetanus Hepatitis B Rubella Haemophilus influenzae b (Hib) Pneumococcal polysaccharide Measles Mumps

Fig. 2. Submission page for IDdiagnostics.

	Rubella Poliomyelitis Varicella-zoster Other antiviral antibodies, please specify	2.3	Enz	zyme assays Adenosine deaminase (ADA) Purine nucleoside phosphorylase (PNP) Glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase
2.1.3 An	tibodies to neoantigens Keyhole limpet hemocyanin (KLH) Bacteriophage Φ X174			(G6PD) Glutathione peroxidase (GSH-Px) Myeloperoxidase (MPO)
2.2 Cel	l Function	2.4	Cor	mplement function CH50 (Hemolytic activity, classical
prolifera	ady of in vitro lymphocyte activation and ation by flow cytometry upon stimulation togens or antigens Surface activation markers/molecules on T cells CD69 CD25 CD71 HLA-DR CD45RO CD45RA CD154 (CD40 ligand) IL-12 receptor Cell (intra-cellular detection) cytokine production Blastogenesis (forward light scatter FS/side light scatter SS) Cell proliferation (DNA content, BrDU			pathway) AH50 (Hemolytic activity, alternate pathway) Function of C1 esterase inhibitor Assay of components C1 C1 C1 esterase inhibitor C2 C3 C3 C4 C5 C6 C7 C6 C7 C8 C9 D
_	incorporation) Cell proliferation (tritiated thymidine incorporation)	2.5	An	 Properdin Other, please specify optosis assays
2 2 2 In	vitro studies of phagocytic cell metabolism	2.5		Fas/Fas-ligand (flow cytometry, other)
0 0000	Oxidative burst (oxidation of dihydrorodamina-123 DHR stimulation with PMA or with <i>E.coli</i>) by flow cytometry Phagocytosis of (fluoresceinated) <i>E. coli</i> by flow cytometry Nitroblue tetrazolium (NBT) test Glucose metabolism Oxygen consumption Glucose monophosphate shunt activity Chemiluminescence			BCL-1 Caspase expression Cells with reduced DNA content (fluorescent DNA stain with cell permeabilization, flow cytometry) Strand breaks in cell DNA (TdT incorporation of fluorescence labelled nucleotides, e.g., TUNEL, flow cytometry) Translocated phosphatidylserine on cell membrane (adsorption of Annexin V, flow cytometry) functional assays of apoptosis
	vitro studies of phagocytic cell chemotaxis Chemotaxis under agarose	2.6	Oth	ner diagnostic tests
	Chemotaxis across a membrane filter (e.g., Boyden chamber)			Sweat Cl' α l-antitrypsin Uric acid (serum) α -fetoprotein
		3	co	MMENTS AND ADDITIONAL TESTS

Fig. 2. (Continued.)

secondary ID and other rare nonimmunological disorders have to be excluded (2).

The laboratory tests included in IDdiagnostics are listed in Fig. 2. These tests are used to identify different abnormalities within the T and B cell systems, NK cells, phagocytes, and components of the complement systems.

When immunodeficiency is suspected the first tests are for complete blood count (RBC, WBC) with differential and platelet counts. The CBC will establish the presence of anemia, thrombocytopenia, neutropenia, or lymphopenia. Significant and persistent lymphopenia is one of the most relevant signs for primary ID.

The initial screening for B lymphocyte function is the measurement of immunoglobulins. Ig levels have to be interpreted with care because of marked alterations with age. However, concentrations of immunoglobulins cannot be used as the sole criterion for the diagnosis of primary ID, because reduced immunoglobulin levels may be due to the loss of Ig when antibody production is normal. Serum immunoglobulins (IgG, IgA, IgM, and IgE) measured by different methods including radial immunodiffusion, radioimmunoassay, and ELISA should be a part of the initial screening. Limited heterogeneity of immunoglobulins and abnormal κ/λ light-chain ratios have been observed

Cytidine Deaminase (AID) deficiency• Disease Accession 27-Feb-2003 (Rel. 1, Created) Date 15-Apr-2003 (Rel. 1, Last updated, Version 1) Date IDR factfile FF17.xml 605257 OMIM Gene **AICDA** Ma. Cruz Garcia Rodriguez Contact Address Unidad de Inmunología, Hospital Universitario la Address Paz, Paseo de la Castellana 261, Madrid 28046, Spain +34 91 7277238 Telephone +34 91 7277095 Fax mcruzgarcia.hulp@salud.madrid.org Email Method Direct sequencing Frequency 3 times / year Turnaround 5-6 weeks Samples 6 samples / year Price 300 EUR

Fig. 3. Example of an entry for the genetic test database.

Table I. Primary Immunodeficiencies in the IDdiagnostics Genetic Test Database

Disease	OMIM No.	Gene symbol	Number of entries
Deficiencies predominantly affecting a	antibody produc	tion	
X-linked agammaglobulinemia (XLA)	300300	BTK	8
μ -Heavy-chain gene deletions	147020	IGLL1	2
κ-Light-chain deficiency	147200	IGKC	1
Combined B and T cell immun	odeficiencies		
X-linked lymphoproliferative syndrome (XLP)	308240	SH2D1A	6
Purine nucleoside phosphorylase deficiency	164050	NP	2
ZAP-70 deficiency	176947	ZAP70	2
$CD3\gamma$ deficiency	186740	CD3G	1
RAG1 deficiency	179615	RAG1	6
RAG2 deficiency	179616	RAG2	6
Artemis deficiency	605988	DCLRE1C	1
X-linked hyper IgM syndrome (XHIM)	308230	TNFSF5	4
Cytidine deaminase (AID) deficiency	605257	<i>AICDA</i>	1
X-linked severe combined immunodeficiency (XSCID)	300400	IL2RG	6
Jak3 deficiency	600173	JAK3	2
MHCII deficiency (defect in CIITA)	60005	MHC2TA	1
MHCII deficiency (defect in RFX5)	601863	RFX5	1
CD4 deficiency	153390	LCK	1
CVID-ICOS deficiency	240500	ICOS	1
IL7R deficiency	146661	IL7R	1
Familial hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis	603552	PRF1	2
Other well-defined immunodeficie	ency syndromes		
Wiskott–Aldrich syndrome (WAS)	300392	WASP	7
Autoimmune lymphoproliferative syndrome (ALPS), defect in TNFRSF6	601859	TNFRSF6	2
Defects of phagocyte fur	nction		
Autosomal recessive CGD p22 ^{phox} deficiency	233690	CYBA	2
Autosomal recessive CGD p47 ^{phox} deficiency	233700	NCF1	2
Autosomal recessive CGD p67 ^{phox} deficiency	233710	NCF2	2
X-linked chronic granulomatous disease (XCGD)	306400	CYBB	3
Leukocyte adhesion deficiency 1 (LAD1)	600065	ITGB2	3
Chediak–Higashi syndrome	214500	CHS1	1
Griscelli syndrome	214450	MYO5A	1
Interferon γ-associated immur	nodeficiency		
IFN-γ receptor deficiency	107470	IFNGR1	1
Total			79
10th			17

Table II.	Numbers of Clinical and Genetic Tests and Laboratories, by
	Country in IDdiagnostics

Country	Clinical tests	Genetic tests	Number of centers
Australia	1		1
Finland	1		1
France	1	7	3
Germany		10	3
Greece	2		2
Hong Kong		5	2
Italy	3	14	5
Japan		3	2
The Netherlands		19	4
Portugal	1		
Spain	1	8	3
Sweden	2	2	4
United Kingdom	8		8
USA	1	11	4
Total	21	79	42

in ID syndromes (2). In addition to the measurement of serum immunoglobulin concentrations, the assessment of antibody function is a necessary part of humoral immunity testing. Titers of natural antibodies (anti-A isohemagglutinin and anti-B isohemagglutinin) and titers of antibodies after immunization with protein antigens (tetanus or diphtheria toxoids) and polysaccharide (e.g., pneumococcal capsular polysaccharides) are most convenient. Immunizations with live viral vaccines should be avoided whenever an ID is suspected. If immunoglobulin levels and/or antibody titers are decreased, the evaluation should proceed with more advanced tests of B lymphocyte numbers and functions. B cell enumeration is performed by assessing the percentage of lymphocytes (e.g., CD19, CD20) reacting with fluoresceinated antibodies to B cell-specific antigens as assessed by flow cytometry.

The most valuable tests in cellular ID are T cell, T subset enumeration, and NK cell enumeration (CD3, CD4, CD8, CD16, CD56) performed by flow cytometry. More specialized tests of T cell function include the assessment of lymphocyte activation and proliferation in response to stimulation with mitogens or antigens (CD69, CD25, CD71, CD45RO, CD45RA, CD40 ligand). In specialized laboratories, it is possible to measure the production of several cytokines and do other in vitro functional tests such as proliferation and cellular cytotoxicity assays. Cytotoxic defects are variably present in cellular ID. In some forms of severe combined ID, enzymes of the purine nucleotide synthesis pathway (adenosine deaminase, nucleoside phosphorylase) are deficient. The evaluation of phagocyte cells imposes the assessment of their number and function. The number of phagocytic cells can be detected by using a white blood cell count and differential. The assessment of phagocytic cell function requires a number of different assays. In vitro studies of phagocytic cell metabolism (oxidative burst, phagocytosis, glucose metabolism, oxygen consumption), directed cell movement (chemotaxis), and bactericidal activity test are usually available only in specialized laboratories. The NBT test measures the ability of phagocytic cells to respond with an oxidative burst by measuring the reduction of nitroblue tetrazolium (NBT). More recently, a method to measure the metabolic burst of activated neutrophils by flow cytometry with dihydrorhodamine-123 DHR has been determined.

The complement system can be evaluated by measuring the rate of hemolysis of sheep red cells (CH50) for the classical pathway and the rate of hemolysis of either rabbit or guinea pig cells (AH50) for the alternative pathway. If defects are seen in CH50 or AH50, individual complement components have to be analyzed.

DISCUSSION

IDdiagnostics was developed to provide health care professionals information about ID diagnostic laboratories, to increase the availability of genetic and clinical methods, and to provide accurate diagnosis for patients. IDdiagnostics is, to our knowledge, the first service for the diagnosis of IDs. There are two related services, EDDNAL (European Directory of DNA Laboratories; http://www.eddnal.com/) and GeneTests (http://www.genetests.org/), which provide related information about European and respective American genetic test centers in general. IDdiagnostics differs from these two by being focused on IDs instead of containing all diseases. The IDdiagnostics content and resultant entries were intended to systematically address the need, not met by the EDDNAL or GeneTests database, for directly applicable clinical information about genetic and clinical testing on IDs.

The number of entries in the genetic and clinical test databases is increasing constantly. The gene test database currently contains 79 entries, with the most records from The Netherlands, Italy, Spain, and Germany (see Table II). The highest numbers of tests are available for XLA, RAG2 deficiency, and Wiskott–Aldrich syndrome (see Table I).

We plan to improve the registries in the future by adding information about laboratory accreditation and participation in quality control schemes. The systems vary widely between countries. In some European countries, a laboratory can be certified by a governmental body to perform mutation analyses. In the United States laboratory testing is regulated through the Clinical Laboratory Improvements Amendments (CLIA), administrated by the Health Care Financing Administration (HCFA), the Centers for

Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), and the Food and Drug Administration (FDA).

The clinical information in IDdiagnostics is interfaced with other databases (OMIM, GeneCards, and IDR). The IDdiagnostics registry provides data that can help to find centers doing genetic and clinical tests on IDs and form the basis for future epidemiological and clinical studies related to the IDs.

The IDdiagnostics registry is also a useful tool for ID patients and their families, who can find the most recent genetic test for a specific disease. ID gene tests offer great opportunities for biomedical research and health care. They play an important role in the understanding of disease mechanisms. Studies of relationships between gene sequence variations and protein structure as well as protein expression and function are currently major aspects of biomedical research.

In health care genetic tests are performed for a number of purposes including prenatal diagnosis, newborn screening, carrier testing, diagnostic and prognostic testing, presymptomatic testing, predictive testing, and genetic counseling. Genetic screening has also become a promising tool for early detection of IDs. Once the defective genes are identified, methods can be devised to tailor treatment to the specific variation of the individual patient (pharmacogenomics) or even to attempt to repair or replace the affected gene (gene therapy) (19). In all cases of primary ID, there is a need for selected clinical tests to confirm or establish the diagnosis. Thus a database which contains information on clinical tests performed by different laboratories is a real help for clinicians and can improve medical care.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We are very thankful to Drs. Gavin Spickett, Luigi D. Notarangelo, J. Castro e Melo, Teresa Español, C. I. Edvard Smith, and Alain Fischer for their help in refining the questionnaire for clinical tests. Financial support from the Finnish Academy, Medical Research Fund of the University Hospital Tampere, and European Union (QLRT-2000-01395) is gratefully acknowledged.

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Immunome Research



Database

Open Access

IDR knowledge base for primary immunodeficiencies

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Published: 29 March 2007

Received: 9 February 2007 Accepted: 29 March 2007

Immunome Research 2007, 3:6 doi:10.1186/1745-7580-3-6

This article is available from: http://www.immunome-research.com/content/3/1/6

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Abstract

Background: The ImmunoDeficiency Resource (IDR) is a knowledge base for the integration of the clinical, biochemical, genetic, genomic, proteomic, structural, and computational data of primary immunodeficiencies. The need for the IDR arises from the lack of structured and systematic information about primary immunodeficiencies on the Internet, and from the lack of a common platform which enables doctors, researchers, students, nurses and patients to find out validated information about these diseases.

Description: The IDR knowledge base, first released in 1999, has grown substantially. It contains information for 158 diseases, both from a clinical as well as molecular point of view. The database and the user interface have been reformatted. This new IDR release has a richer and more complete breadth, depth and scope. The service provides the most complete and up-to-date dataset. The IDR has been integrated with several internal and external databases and services. The contents of the IDR are validated and selected for different types of users (doctors, nurses, researchers and students, as well as patients and their families). The search engine has been improved and allows either a detailed or a broad search from a simple user interface.

Conclusion: The IDR is the first knowledge base specifically designed to capture in a systematic and validated way both clinical and molecular information for primary immunodeficiencies. The service is freely available at http://bioinf.uta.fi/idr and is regularly updated. The IDR facilitates primary immunodeficiencies informatics and helps to parameterise *in silico* modelling of these diseases. The IDR is useful also as an advanced education tool for medical students, and physicians.

Background

Primary immunodeficiency disorders (PIDs) impair the function of the immune system. Patients with these intrinsic defects have increased susceptibility to recurrent and persistent infections, and they may also have autoimmune and cancer related symptoms. Most PIDs are rare and the diagnosed patients for a condition are often randomly spread out around the world. More than 150 PIDs affecting the immune system have been described and

more than 100 genes involved in PIDs have been identified [1]. The number of mutations, identified in unrelated families with different PIDs, totals over 4,500 [2].

There is plenty of information related to immunology and immunodeficiencies on the Internet. General immunome information can be found e.g. from IMGT [3], AntiJen [4] and Immunome [5] databases and more specific data e.g. in ImmTree [6], IDbases [2], SYFPEITHI [7], and Immune

Epitope Databases and Analyse Resources (IEDB) [8]. The scattering of the disease-related information in the literature and the Internet is a big obstacle for those interested in rare diseases. Users often have problems in finding relevant information and assessing the quality of information from the Internet. Biomedical information holds promises for developing informatics methods for postgenomic and personalised medicine. The new knowledge can be applied in the prevention, diagnosis and treatment of diseases. Computerised information sources have many challenges related, for example, to terminology and ontology building, information extraction from texts, knowledge discovery from collections of documents, sharing and integrating knowledge from factual and textual databases, and semantic annotation. There is a need for a standardised nomenclature and data form that can be easily handled by computers and presented on any platform.

The ImmunoDeficiency Resource (IDR) integrates biomedical information related to PIDs into a web accessible knowledge base. The fact files, which form the core of the system, integrate biomedical knowledge from several heterogeneous and autonomous sources.

This paper illustrates numerous new features and improvements, which have been implemented since previous IDR releases [9,10], and details about data collection and automated database integration. The IDR is developed to serve anybody interested in PIDs and to provide relevant, up-to-date and validated information in an easily understandable and usable format.

Construction and Content

The IDR has been designed and implemented using eXtensible Markup Language XML [11], a system comprising a native XML database and an XML server. Data within the IDR is structured into document-centred XML and SHTML files. The interface to the IDR has been completely redesigned. It consists of a dynamic layout that can adapt to different screen sizes, from wide desktop screens to small mobile devices.

Numerous new features, such as the classification of PIDs, genes related to immunodeficiency, reference sequences, protein structures and animal model pages, have been added. Links are also provided to other IDR-fact file databases [12], IDbases for PID-causing mutations [2], and IDdiagnostics for PID diagnostic laboratories [13].

The IDR aims to provide comprehensive integrated knowledge about immunodeficiencies in an easily accessible form, targeting different types of users (doctors, scientists, nurses and patients and their families). The resource includes clinical, biochemical, genetic, structural

and computational data and analyses. The main headings of the IDR are General Information, Bioinformatics, Immunology, and Interest Groups (Fig. 1).

The General Information class

Immunodeficiencies in the IDR are classified according to the molecular defects criteria [1] with links to the Online Mendelian Inheritance in Man (OMIM) database [14]. Information about the affected genes and loci are provided and linked with corresponding services. The ESID and PAGID recommendations for diagnostic criteria [15], the American Academy of Allergy, Asthma and Immunology (AAAAI) parameters [16], and different diagnostic guidelines [17] are also included. There is also a list for PID abbreviations.

At the core of the system are fact files (Fig. 2), which store information regarding disorders, genes, mutations, protein sequences, online resources, organisations and associations [12]. At present there are fact files for 158 diseases. The user interface allows fast access to the information. International Classification of Diseases (ICD) codes [18] are provided for those diseases where the codes are available. Each fact file provides basic information about the disease and the affected gene. The fact files have hyperlinks to other reliable Internet resources. The fact file data model and the Inherited Disease Markup Language (IDML) [12] were developed to facilitate disease information integration, storage and exchange. The fact files make use of the following specifications, standards and databases: HUGO nomenclature [19], Swiss-Prot [20], Gene-Card [21], and SOURCE [22].

The IDML fact files have been generated for each PID. The major concepts in the fact files are general information, clinical information, molecular biology and other resources – all of which are linked to related information services (Fig. 1). Each of these elements comprises one or more additional levels. Table 1 summarised the major concepts and descriptions of the elements in the IDR-fact files

The IDML schema [23], IDML document type definition file [24], examples of an IDML-document, and documentation on the syntax can be read from [25]. The validation in IDML fact files is done with the IDML validator program, available online at [26].

The Bioinformatics class

The bioinformatics section integrates numerous Web based services (Ensemble [27], Source [22], EntrezGene [28], euGenes [29], GeneLynx [30], UniGene [31], GeneCard [21], GenAtlas [32]). Reference sequences for PID genes are available for DNA and RNA from the EMBL database, and for protein data from SwissProt [20]. When

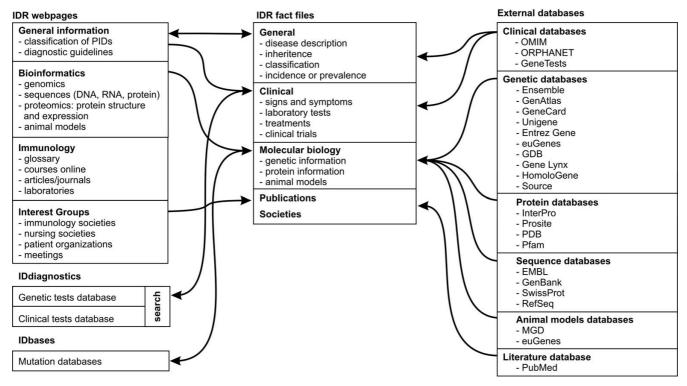


Figure I

Concept map for the IDR knowledge service. IDR is composed of web pages grouped in to different class categories and a fact file database. The system is integrated with different internal and external databases to serve a wide category of users.

available, there are links to the protein structures and visualisation tools in the PDB [33]. The animal models page has been updated.

The IDbases [2] section provides, in addition to our own mutation registries, links to other IDbases. At the moment we have 115 databases with over 4,500 patient entries.

The Immunology and Interest Group classes

The immunology section lists collections of immunology related data sources including lectures on immunology and immunodeficiencies, and links to over 40 online immunology journals. A new feature is the glossary, which provides explanations for more than 800 immunology terms. Glossary terms are cross linked by each other, so by clicking one of these terms, such as 'antigen', not only is the explanation for the term provided, but also for a group of terms related to 'antigen'. This gives a broad overview of immunology terminology, which also makes it a useful tool for education.

The interest group section contains links to immunology, immunodeficiency, and nursing and patient organisations. Several societies are related to immunodeficiency

research, care and patients. The list of meetings and workshops is continuously updated.

Utility and Discussion Accuracy and validation of data

The Internet contains a large number of pages. Search engines often give thousands of links but usually the most difficult task is to differentiate the useful and reliable data from other search results. In the IDR, the experts check all the data and approve only those sites with solid scientific and medical information. There will be at least one external expert for each immunodeficiency. Nursing and patient societies are also involved in the data validation process for their own interest groups.

The IDR is easy to navigate. The pages are colour coded for different interest groups: researchers, physicians, nurses, patients and families. By selecting the group of interest, the user can get specific pages produced and tailored for the particular group. This makes it easier for the user to find the most relevant and useful information. The IDR also provides an advanced text search facility, which can utilise Boolean logic searches with multiple keywords. Within a typical search, the user-entered search criteria are



Figure 2

IDR user interface. Screenshots of the main IDR pages. The new user interface provides faster access to the information and different new features, such as classification of diseases (top left), the gene related with the PIDs and their reference sequences (top right), glossary terms for immunology (bottom right), and diagnostic tools (bottom left). At the core of the system are fact files that provide clinical and molecular information for 158 primary immunodeficiency diseases (centre).

carried from an SHTML or XML form to a category specific PERL script, which performs the database queries.

The IDR can be used to discover many kinds of information as it is integrated with internal (IDbases and IDdiagnostics) and external databases (Fig. 1).

The IDbases have recently been integrated with the ESID patient registry [34], which collects clinical data for patients. This collaboration facilitates direct submission both to the ESID registry and IDbases. A similar arrange-

ment will be made with the US Immunodeficiency Network (USIDNET).

A fact file is a user oriented user interface, which serves as a good starting point to explore information on hereditary diseases. The user can find not only information about the disease nomenclature and classification (OMIM, ICD10), but also a clinical description of the disease, inheritance and prevalence. The IDR-fact file facilitates finding information about laboratories which perform genetic tests for PIDs, using direct links to IDdiagnostics [13], GeneTest

Table I: Major concepts and elements in IDR-fact files

Major concepts	Elements	Description
General Information	DiseaseName	Disease name
	Abbreviation	Abbreviation for disease name
	AlternativeNames	Alternatively used disease names
	Description	General description of disease
	Classification	Classifies disease in the fact files' hierarchy
	Omim	Link to the OMIM knowledge base
	ICD-10	WHO classification of diseases
	CrossReferences	References to the related fact files
	Incidence	Number of cases in population
Clinical Information	Clinical Description	Characteristic clinical features
	Diagnosis	Diagnostic guidelines, protocols and laboratories
	TherapeuticOptions	Treatment of disease
	ResearchPrograms	Clinical trials or research projects on-going
Molecular Biology	GeneInformation	Gene name, aliases, reference sequences, chromosomal location, maps, markers, variations and other gene related resources
	AnimalModels	Related transgenic animal data
	ProteinInformation	Protein features, structures, domains, motifs and other protein resources
	ExpressionPattern	Gene expression levels in a variety of cells and tissues
Other Resources	Publications	Related publications in PubMed
	Societies	General and disease specific societies
	OtherSites	Other related websites

[35] or ORPHANET [36]. Information for PID related genes contains the nomenclature, including aliases, sequences, chromosomal location and maps, variations, and mutations. The IDR-fact files also contain information about protein functions, structure, domains, motifs, subcellular location and post-translational modifications.

PID researchers will also find in the IDR-fact files lots of information for each disease to keep up-to-date with the literature, meetings and different associations in the field.

Future work

In the near future a new tool for faster and more accurate diagnosis, PIDexpert, will be added. PIDexpert is a medical expert system, designed to give the diagnostic picture of PIDs based on symptoms, signs, medical history, physical findings, and laboratory tests. Future tasks in the development of the IDR will focus on expanding its depth, breadth, and scope. The external database updates will be monitored so that any alterations are mirrored within the archive. We plan to further develop the IDR based on user feedback and our interactions with the PID community.

Conclusion

The IDR contains systematically organised, continuously updated and validated information that is valuable for clinicians and researchers and can improve the medical care

of PIDs. IDR is the first knowledge service designed to capture both clinical and molecular information about primary immunodeficiencies and to address different types of users. It is validated and will be updated frequently. The IDR facilitates PID informatics and helps to parameterise *in silico* modelling of these diseases. The IDR has many potential users throughout the PID community, from doctors to patients and from immunoinformaticians to experimental immunologists and structural biologists.

Availability and requirements

The IDR database is freely available for academic use from the URL: http://bioinf.uta.fi/idr.

Competing interests

The author(s) declare that they have no competing interests.

Authors' contributions

CS carried out the data mining analysis, database development and drafted the manuscript. JV participated in database development and drafted the manuscript. MV conceived the study, participated in IDR design and coordination, and drafted the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Acknowledgements

The Academy of Finland, the Medical Research Fund of Tampere University Hospital, and the European Union, all supported the research and are grate-

fully acknowledged. We thank Jukka Lehtiniemi for help in the implementation of the IDR and Kathryn Rannikko for language correction.

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Systematic Classification of Primary Immunodeficiencies Based on Clinical, Pathological, and Laboratory Parameters¹

Crina Samarghitean,*† Csaba Ortutay,* and Mauno Vihinen²*†

The classification of diseases has several important applications ranging from diagnosis and choice of treatment to demographics. To date, classifications have been successfully created manually, often within international consortia. Some groups of diseases, such as primary immunodeficiencies (PIDs), are especially hard to nosologically cluster due, on one hand, to the presence of a wide variety of disorders and, in contrast, because of overlapping characteristics. More than 200 PIDs affecting components of the innate and adaptive immune systems have been described. Clinical, pathological, and laboratory characteristics were collected and used to group PIDs. A consensus of at least five independent methods provided a novel classification of 11 groups, which revealed previously unknown features and relationships of PIDs. Comparison of the classification to independent features, including the severity and therapy of the diseases, functional classification of proteins, and network vulnerability, indicated a strong statistical support. The method can be applied to any group of diseases. *The Journal of Immunology*, 2009, 183: 7569–7575.

rimary immunodeficiencies (PIDs)³ are a large and heterogenous group of disorders that have been organized manually into different categories (1–8) sometimes without a consensus. PIDs are mainly rare hereditary disorders of the immune system that often have serious consequences (1, 2). These diseases represent a challenge in their diagnosis and treatment due to overlapping symptoms and similarities between diseases. Infections are the hallmarks of PIDs (1, 9–11). A diagnosis will often be considered when infections are frequent or severe, resistant to standard therapies, or caused by unusual (opportunistic) organisms. Other manifestations include autoimmune (12, 13) and cancer diseases (14), granulomatosis (15), hemophagocytic syndrome (16, 17), angioedema (18), autoinflammation (19–21), thrombotic microangiopathy, or predisposition to allergy.

Clinical descriptions have already been made for more than 200 PIDs (4, 7, 22), for which 167 genetic etiologies have been described. PIDs have historically been defined and classified according to immunological phenotypes (3). Before molecular analyses were widely available, PIDs were classified according to the affected immune function, as follows: Ab production (B cells), cellular immunity (T cells) or both (combined immunodeficiencies), phagocyte function (neutrophils, monocytes), and complement activation, etc. This classification has been useful for certain practical purposes, but not from the mechanistic point of view, because many PIDs do not easily fit into the scheme. On clinical grounds, immunodeficiencies can be classified into two broad groups ac-

cording to whether all features are the result of the immune defect (immunodeficiency syndromes) or whether many, even prominent ones, cannot be explained by the immune defect (syndromes with immunodeficiency).

The behavior of even the most complex of systems is based on the interaction of their components. These components can be reduced to a series of nodes that are connected to each other by links, which together form a network (23). Most real networks in technological, social, and biological systems share common designs that are simple and quantifiable. In medicine, network analysis has been used to characterize, e.g., the spread of epidemics (24), to determine ways to control them (25), and to identify novel target genes for prostate cancer (26).

When networks formed from diseases, the involved genes, and their phenotypes have been investigated (27–29), only a few PIDs have been included. Information about a protein interaction network for the immunome (30) has been used together with gene ontology terms (31) to predict novel PID candidate genes (32).

In this study, our goal was to develop a systematic, mathematical classification of PIDs. Previous PID classifications have been derived from observational correlations between pathological and clinical features. The foundation of the method is the description of the diseases based on 87 clinical and laboratory parameters.

Altogether, six methods belonging to two categories were used to organize the diseases based on the characteristics. Three clustering methods were applied to the multivariate problem to form disease groups in which members are most similar to each other (33).

The other three methods are from the emerging field of community analysis of networks. A community is a set of nodes with many edges (connections) inside the community and few edges outside it. Community analysis is a powerful tool for finding groups in interconnected entities (34–36); therefore, PIDs interpreted as a network can be analyzed this way, and diseases strongly associated with each other can be identified. Our systematic approach can be applied for classifying any other disease group.

Materials and Methods

To obtain a systematic classification for PIDs, a novel approach was developed. The method applies advanced computational tools for clustering and network analysis. We used altogether six methods to group PIDs based on characteristics that they share. Three of the methods were for clustering, and three for network community analysis.

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Received for publication June 9, 2009. Accepted for publication September 23, 2009.

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¹ This work was supported by the Finnish Academy, the Sigrid Juselius Foundation, the Medical Research Fund of Tampere University Hospital, and Tampere City Hall.

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³ Abbreviations used in this paper: PID, primary immunodeficiency; DC, dendritic cell; ICD, International Classification of Diseases; IDR, ImmunoDeficiency Resource.

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Immunodeficiencies and selection of the parameters

Data for PIDs were collected from the ImmunoDeficiency Resource (IDR) (4), IDdiagnostics (37), IDbases (38), and literature (1, 2, 5–7, 39–43). Only detailed reports with statistical information including clinical symptoms and measured laboratory values characterizing PIDs were included. When diseases without specific symptoms were excluded, there were altogether 194 PIDs left.

For each disease, all signs, symptoms, and laboratory values mentioned in the literature were collected. The initial list contained 420 parameters. Parameters characterizing only one to four diseases were omitted or merged to others.

For example, IgM lymphoma, which is according to the literature associated only with hyper-IgM syndrome type 2, was merged to the more general term of other malignancies. Similarly, encephalitis, meningoencephalitis, meningitis, conjunctivitis, iritis, episcleritis, and brain abcess were grouped to a more general term of CNS infections. Cerebellar ataxia, pathognomonic for ataxia-telangieactasia, and ataxia-telangieactasia-like disease were merged to neurological or CNS abnormalities together with other signs, such as peripheral neuropathy, speech delay, and convulsions. Finally, after iterative process, we had 87 informative parameters (supplemental Table S1).⁴ All of the parameters had an equal weight in the analysis.

Cluster and network community analysis

Cluster and network analyses were performed in the R statistical environment (44) using the igraph (45) and cluster program libraries. Three different variations of K-means clustering were used to analyze the dataset. The Clustering Large Applications (clara) method computes a list representing the clustering of the data into k clusters. Partitioning Around Medoids (pam) partitions (clusters) the data into k clusters around medoids, which are representative objects of a dataset from which the distances to the other points in the cluster are computed. The Fuzzy Analysis Clustering (fanny) method computes a partition grouping of the data into k clusters. The number of clusters was chosen by maximizing the average width of the clusters. In fuzzy clustering, data elements can belong to more than one cluster, and thus, each disease has a set of membership levels, which indicate the strength of association to each cluster.

Three methods were applied to find highly interconnected parts of the network. Community structure via short random walks is a walktrap community analysis, which searches for densely connected subgraphs, i.e., communities (34). When moving from one node to a connected one, short random walks tend to stay in the same community. The second method uses community structure detection based on the leading eigenvector of the community matrix (35). The method looks for densely connected subgraphs by calculating the leading nonnegative eigenvector of the modularity matrix of the graph. The third method tries to find communities in graphs via a spin-glass model and simulated annealing (36).

Combination of clustering and network results

The data for PIDs are incomplete because in many diseases just a few, even a single, patient was known, and therefore, the most prominent signs were difficult to define. In rare diseases, some symptoms may occur frequently just by chance. Therefore, to obtain the most reliable and robust grouping and a consistent and robust view of the disease grouping patterns, a consensus classification based on the co-occurrence of the diseases in four, five, or six methods was generated. Using this approach, the results are expected to be independent from the biases of the individual methods.

Statistics

To evaluate which of the binary parameters significantly supported the identified disease clusters, we tested whether a parameter had significantly different distribution in the individual clusters compared with the entire dataset by calculating p values using the hypergeometric distribution. The threshold for significance used was a p value 0.05. A similar evaluation was performed for the binary clinical and functional properties of the diseases and respective proteins.

Correlation of disease clusters to clinical, genetic, functional, and network properties

The consensus network graph was used to visualize a number of properties for the diseases, and involved genes and proteins. Information about the prevalence of the PIDs was obtained from the IDR (4) and other sources (1, 2, 40, 46). When the prevalence was not known and only a few cases were

⁴ The online version of this article contains supplemental material.

reported in literature, it was assumed to be $<1/10^7$. Data on inheritance were retrieved from the IDR and literature (1, 2, 6, 40). For treatment modalities, the most common treatments were listed for each disease (1, 2, 39). Functional classifications of the proteins in the immunome (47) were obtained from the Immunome Knowledge Base (48).

Results

PID network

Novel PID grouping was obtained by applying altogether six methods for clustering and network analysis. Our approach revealed associations that were not previously obvious and led to the identification of distinct novel groups. Fig. 1A shows the results when at least five methods agreed on the clustering. The diseases are indicated by the affected genes, when known. If all six methods are required to agree, the only difference is that the 11 major groups are divided further to smaller subgroups. There is one giant cluster that contains the majority of the PIDs and some separate clusters and singleton PIDs. Some details of the classification may change in the future when more information becomes available, yet still the major features will remain. In the consensus graph for the PIDs (Fig. 1A), 1,285 pairs of diseases are grouped together by at least five methods of a possible 18,721, and of the 12,721 that are grouped by at least one method. The results are also available in an interactive web page at http://bioinf.uta.fi/PID_classification.

Disease clusters

The analytical approach combining six different and independent methods provides a highly robust classification when at least five of the methods were required to agree on the grouping details. The dendogram reveals 11 well-defined disease clusters (DCs) of at least 4 diseases (Fig. 1A). First, we analyzed the nature of the PIDs in the clusters and then investigated the properties of the diseases and the corresponding genes and proteins in the clusters.

Most of the clusters are very homogeneous and contain related diseases. An overall view of the DCs shows that clusters III and VII contain (almost) exclusively SCIDs, whereas in group IX the diseases are related to the complement system and in DCs I and XI to phagocyte functions; in DC VIII are fever syndromes, and in DC X Fanconi anemias. All of the MHC II genes are in cluster III, and all of the known MHC I diseases are in cluster V. The classical complement pathway diseases are in clusters V and IX. Diseases in cluster II are related to DNA instability and DNA damage repair, except for G6PC3. DCs IV, V, and VI are the most heterogenous. Cluster IV contains numerous receptor and signaling moleculerelated diseases. Some of the proteins behind these disorders form transmembrane channels, DC V contains mainly Ab and complement deficiencies together with some SCIDs. The majority of the group VI diseases are related to phagocytosis and apoptosis. All of the groups have strong statistical support (supplemental Table S2).

These groups, which have been exclusively generated based on disease characteristics, indicate the power of the method. Other information for the PID genes, proteins, and their functions further support the classification (Fig. 1, *B–E*). Also, these results are statistically significant (supplemental Table S2).

The previous PID classifications have relied heavily on the cell types in which the disease-related genes are normally expressed. Thus, one of the major differences to these is that Ab deficiencies, combined PIDs, and diseases related to phagocytosis are widely scattered in our graph (Fig. 1). These diseases are very heterogenous in their symptoms and signs, and affect numerous parts of the immune system. The highest concentration of SCIDs is in DCs II, IV, and VII, whereas Ab deficiencies mainly appear in clusters IV and V. Phagocyte diseases are exclusive to DCs I and XI, but also appear in DCs IV, V, and VI.

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To test whether the etiologically rather homogeneous DCs shared any similarities, the distribution of characteristics describing independent clinical, functional, genetic, and network properties of the diseases and the corresponding genes and proteins were investigated. These features were not used for the original clustering of the PIDs.

The PIDs were divided into four groups according to their severity. Severity was not among the symptoms used in our classification because it is not routinely used in the clinical description of the diseases. SCID is a pediatric emergency situation because the condition is life threatening, whereas some of the other PIDs are just mild. In fact, the vast majority of PID cases have been thought to remain undiagnosed due to mild symptoms. The severity shows a very homogeneous pattern in some of the clusters (Fig. 1B). Diseases in DCs II, VII, and IX belong to two categories, whereas in almost all of the remaining clusters there are almost exclusively moderate and severe or severe and life-threatening diseases.

PIDs are treated in a number of ways that can be grouped to a small number of categories, including Ig treatment, the use of antibiotics, antifungals or antivirals, immunomodulators, and the reconstitution of the immune system by (haploidentical) bone marrow transplantation or hematopoietic stem cell transplantation. The data for the treatment of the diseases in Fig. 1C indicate that the majority of the clusters are very homogeneous in regard to treatments and there are clear differences between DCs. There are DCs in which all of the diseases are treated with the same battery of therapeutic modalities, and in almost all the clusters some of the therapeutic options can be used for all of the coclustered PIDs. Also, based on these results, the DCs reliably reflect the properties of diseases, and the therapy applied to diseases within DCs is usually similar.

The cellular functions have been determined for all the genes and proteins required in the immunome (entirety of immune system) (49). There are functional groups for, e.g., the surface receptors in clusters of differentiation classification, chemokines, and their receptors, humoral immunity proteins, and those involved in cellular immunity, Ag processing, and transcription factors. The distribution of the functional properties in the PID classification is shown in Fig. 1D.

The majority of the group I proteins are involved in inflammation and cellular immunity. Group II and VII proteins have functions as transcription factors involved in humoral and cellular immunity. Humoral immunity is most prevalent in DC IV, complement proteins in DC IX, and both humoral and complement functions in DC V. Inflammation is the function involved in DC VIII. Many of the proteins have several classifications because they are typically overlapping. Also, at this level, the grouped proteins and diseases share many common properties because the functions are very homogeneous within DCs and differ between them.

Vulnerability is a systems biology measure that indicates how crucial a certain node is for the network (30). Vulnerabilities of proteins in the immunome protein interaction network were color coded compared with the average vulnerability in the entire network (Fig. 1E). There are some clusters in which the vulnerabilities are related, especially those in DCs III, VI, and VII. The most vulnerable diseases are widely scattered throughout the network. Only some of the SCID proteins that are related with the most severe PIDs are highly vulnerable. Also, previously, the vast majority of disease genes were shown to be peripheral in the network (27).

Inheritance pattern (supplemental Fig. S1) and prevalence (supplemental Fig. S2) did not show any correlation within DCs at all.

This was expected because these characteristics are not likely to affect the etiology of diseases.

Discussion

We developed a novel approach for nosology and produced a systematic classification of PIDs based on parameters across several clinical, pathological, and physiological dimensions. Our approach combines existing clustering and network partition methods to classify these diseases. The new classification shares certain features with previous groupings, yet is different in a number of details. For example, the new classification indicates that cell-type expression, which has previously been one of the major classification criteria, cannot be very reliably used for classification of PIDs.

Clustering methods are widely used in many fields, such as in microarray data analysis. In medicine, cluster analysis has been used in the nosological splitting of different phenotypes, for example in Marshall and Stickler syndromes (50, 51), and more recently to classify patients with chronic pain (52) and to develop a new taxonomy for airway diseases (53, 54). Because the disease data were not complete due to many of the PIDs being extremely rare, we combined both network and clustering methods and used their consensus to obtain a robust grouping for PIDs. Considering the consensus of four, five, or six independent methods makes the results robust and independent from the individual methods.

Comparison with previous classifications

Previous in silico disease classification methods have been based on shared genes in disorders (27), protein interactions (55), protein complexes (28), or tissue-specific gene expression (29). For example, Human Phenotype Ontology terms describe clinical features and can be used for disease grouping (56). However, because only a few PIDs were included in these classification studies, we unfortunately cannot compare our results with them.

The new PID classification differs in details from those published earlier. The most comprehensive classification with the largest number of PIDs is from the European Society for Immunodeficiencies (ESID) registry (7) based on the International Union of Immunological Societies classification of 150 diseases (6). This scheme contains seven defined disease groups. The IDR uses and expands the classification (from Ref. 2) in 11 classes. The American Academy of Allergy, Asthma, and Immunology, the American College of Allergy, Asthma, and Immunology, and the Joint Council of Allergy, Asthma, and Immunology have classified 97 PIDs in 5 groups (39). The International Classification of Diseases (ICD10) contains 100 PIDs in 10 categories (8). These classifications have been useful, although they have disagreed on a number of disorders. The task of classifying the widely variable PIDs is hardly any more possible to do manually due to the very high dimensionality of the data. A systematic, mathematical classification can be used as an alternative or complement approach to the existing methods.

The earlier classifications were color coded and visualized in supplemental Fig. 3. The previous studies contained only subsections of the PIDs. The color codes were also chosen so that interclassification comparisons are possible because related diseases in the different groupings have the same colors. The more homogeneous the color is within a cluster, the more similar the classifications are. The IDR and ESID classifications agree very well in DCs I, II, IV, V, VII, VIII, IX, X, and XI. ICD10 agrees well in DCs III, V, VII, IX, X, and XI. There are, however, only 100 PIDs in the ICD system. The American Academy of Allergy, Asthma, and Immunology grouping behaves similarly to ICD, except for DC X, diseases that are not included at all. In conclusion, the novel

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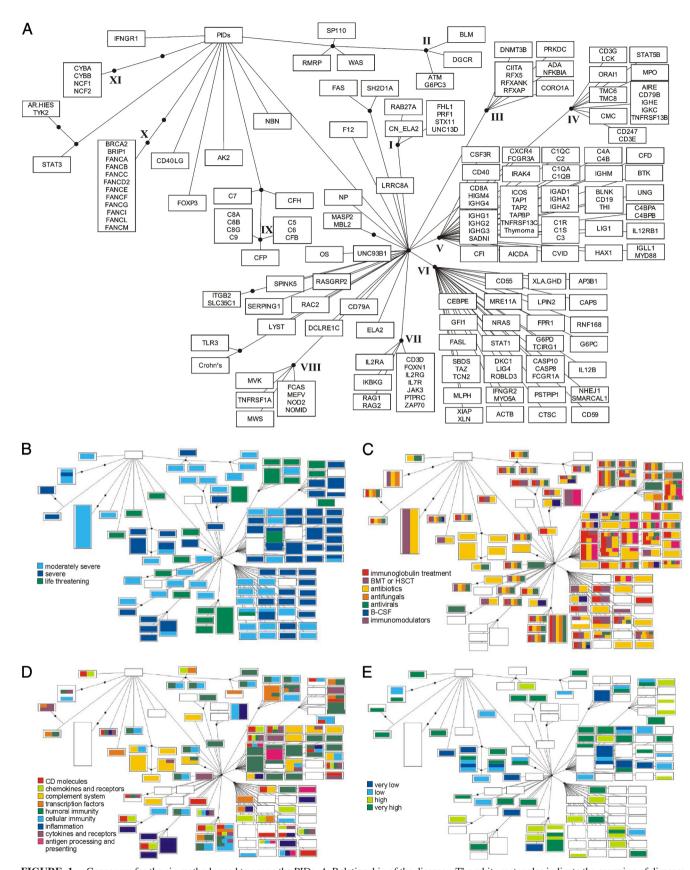


FIGURE 1. Consensus for the six methods used to group the PIDs. A, Relationship of the diseases. The white rectangles indicate the grouping of diseases by five (those attached to the first black bullet from the PIDs root) and six (the second bullet) methods. Diseases are indicated by the systematic names of affected genes, when known. Otherwise, the following names were used when no genes are identified in relation to the disease: AR-HIES, autosomal recessive hyperimmunoglobulin E recurrent infection syndrome; CMC, chronic mucocutaneous candidiasis; CVID, common variable immunodeficiency; FHL1, familial hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis type 1; HIGM4, hyper-IgM syndrome type 4; SADNI, specific Ab deficiency with normal Ig concentrations; THI, transient hypogammaglobulinemia of infancy; thymoma, thymoma with immunodeficiency (Good's syndrome); and XLA/GHD, X-linked hypogammaglobulinemia with growth hormone deficiency. When one gene is involved in more than one disease, the following abbreviations were used:

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classification agrees with numerous features in the earlier groupings. All of the previous classifications have a smaller number of groups, which are typically divided in the new nosology. There are also a number of diseases that are not consistent with the novel classification, or with the other previous groupings. The systematic mathematical approach is capable of solving these cases and places the diseases in groups using solely the given parameters.

Parameters characterizing primary immunodeficiencies

In PIDs, the signs and symptoms of infections may be repetitive, severe, or refractory to therapy and caused by organisms with low virulence (39). We grouped the parameters for infections according to microbial taxonomy and site of infection.

Autoimmune diseases and malignancies are complications of many immunodeficiencies. Based on the frequency of associations with autoimmune diseases, PIDs can be grouped in three groups, as follows: systematic (>80% of the patients with the disorder have autoimmune disease symptoms), strong (20-80%), and mild (<20% of the patients) and absent (12, 57). Some PID patients appear susceptible also to atopy and lupus-like syndromes (58).

Malignancies occur with great frequency in certain immunodeficiencies. The types of malignancies depend on the PID, the age of the patient, and any possible viral infection(s). B cell malignancies, especially non-Hodgkin's lymphomas, are predominant. Other types of malignancies encountered in PIDs are T cell malignancies and leukemia (14).

Problems in lymphoproliferation (hepatomegaly, splenomegaly, lymphadenopathy) are typical for some PIDs. EBV infection is associated with many lymphoproliferation-linked immunodeficiencies (59–61).

Some PID patients have chronic respiratory problems, such as asthma, chronic obstructive disease, chronic inflammatory lung disease, emphysema/lung cysts, or interstitial pneumonia (62–65). Cardiovascular diseases such as congenital cardiac anomalies, cardiomyopathy, and hematologic abnormalities are found in certain PIDs (66, 67).

Some of the gastrointestinal diseases are associated with PIDs, including esophageal atresia, Crohn's disease, chronic inflammatory bowel disease, ulcerative colitis, granulomatous colitis, celiac disease, malabsorption, Hirschprung disease, and anal stenosis (15, 68–70). Hepatobiliary tract diseases in PID patients include storage liver disease, hepatic vascular occlusion disease, and sclerosing cholangitis (71, 72). Kidney diseases associated with PIDs include renal anomalies, renal dysfunction, amyloidosis, renal failure, IgA nephropathy, and glomerulonephritis (73).

Although physical findings are often absent, may be nonspecific, or very discreet, many PIDs have characteristic features. A common feature in PID patients is failure to thrive (child) or wasting (adult). Facial abnormalities, such as microcephaly or dysmorphism, are characteristic in some PIDs. Neurological abnormalities can include ataxia, peripheral neuropathy, speech delay, mental retardation, retinal lesions, photophobia, convulsions, or psychomotor retardation, whereas gastrointestinal abnormalities appear as severe gingivostomatitis, recurrent aphthae, periodontitis, delayed shedding of primary teeth, palatal weakness/cleft, gastric outlet obstruction, or diarrhea (1, 2, 39–41).

Ligamentous laxity/hyperextensive joints, limited extension of elbows, costocondral junction abnormality, rib abnormalities, metaphyseal chondrodysplasia/dysostosis, pectus carinatum, spondyloepiphyseal dysplasia, hip degeneration, or short limb dwarfism are among the skeletal abnormalities found in PIDs (74). The skin is frequently affected in immunodeficiencies. Erythroderma, eczema/atopic dermatitis, pyoderma, or granuloma is common. The presence of petechiae or bruises suggests a bleeding problem, as in phagocyte disorders (75–79).

The definitive diagnosis of PIDs depends on laboratory evidence, including assessments of humoral and cellular immunity and molecular analysis. The immunologic phenotype is based on laboratory tests of immune function, such as serum Ig levels, specific Ab titers, peripheral blood lymphocyte subpopulations, measures of T cell function, assays of phagocytes, and complement function or serum component level (1, 2, 37, 39–41).

Most of the parameters have binary values (yes, no), whereas, for example, the laboratory parameters are quantitative. The parameters were chosen so that they represent different important features of PIDs.

The new PID classification

The obtained 11 disease clusters are very robust due to them being the consensus of at least five methods. The p values show the significance of the observations. More detailed subgrouping is available by using the consensus of all the six methods. In Fig. 1A, diseases coclustered by all the six methods are within the boxes, whereas in the DCs at least five methods agree on the placement of PIDs within the graph. In addition to the actual classification, the PID parameters could offer guidelines for medical descriptions of PIDs. The classification allows a novel and fresh look at the relationships of PIDs, the genes behind them, and the encoded proteins. The network is far more complex than the previous mainly cell-type-based groupings might have led to imagine. Based on the classification and the parameters, it might be possible to develop novel diagnostic schemes for PIDs.

The correlation with other independent information not used for the original classification implies that the classification reliably reflects numerous properties of the diseases and the genes and proteins mutated in them. Data for the disease parameters were not complete, especially for the ultra-rare PIDs, and thus the homogeneity of the groups could even increase in the future when more reliable statistical information for the symptoms and laboratory characteristics will be available.

Diseases affecting genes involved in the same pathway do often cocluster, and they share a similar etiology, for example, JAK3 and IL2RG, and proteins in IFN-mediated immunity, including STAT1 and IFNGR2; MHC II diseases in DC III are all parts of the same protein complex as well as the MHC I components in DC V; complement components are in DC V and IX, and components of membrane bound oxidase in DC XI; BLNK, BTK, and MyD88, which have been suggested to be downstream of CD19 signaling, are all in DC V.

The new PID classification resulting from our approach can have several applications. Because it was generated independently from the existing classifications using solely mathematical analysis of clinical

CAPS, cryopyrin-associated periodic syndromes; Crohn's, Crohn's disease; CN_ELA2, cyclic neutropenia; ELA2, severe congenital neutropenia; FCAS, familial cold autoinflammatory syndrome; MWS, Muckle-Wells syndrome; NOMID, neonatal-onset multisystem inflammatory disease; WAS, Wiskott-Aldrich syndrome; and XLN, X-linked neutropenia. OS denotes Omenn syndrome, in which multiple disease genes were identified. Independent properties of the diseases and their respective proteins have a rather homogeneous distribution with the disease clusters for *B*, disease severity; *C*, therapeutic options; *D*, functional properties of proteins; and *E*, vulnerability of the nodes in the PID protein interaction network. For supporting statistical parameters, see supplemental Table S2. The color-coded properties are shown in each subgraph.

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and laboratory parameters, it can be used in evaluation and development of other classifications. Disease groups defined by experts and found also by our independent approach have a strong indication of their existence. The new classification will be used in IDR (4) for organizing diseases and information about them. Another possible application is detailed demographics and mortality records.

The classification and the dataset also serve the development of diagnostic expert systems, which requires objective criteria for diagnosis. Expert systems are useful, especially in case of rare diseases like PIDs. The computer-based disease classification applied in this study can also identify the key symptoms and laboratory parameters that can help the experts to diagnose correctly these diseases.

The approach can be applied also to other groups of diseases.

Acknowledgments

We thank Jukka Lehtiniemi for help with the figures.

Disclosures

The authors have no financial conflict of interest.

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Systematic classification of primary immunodeficiencies based on clinical, pathological and laboratory parameters

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Supplemental legends:

Fig. S1. Inheritance of PIDs.

Fig. S2. Prevalence of PIDs.

Fig. S3. Comparison of PID classification schemes.

Table S1. Parameters used to characterize signs, symptoms and laboratory values in PIDs.

Table S2. Parameters statistically enriched in Disease Clusters.

Fig. S1. Inheritance of PIDs. The layout of the graph is the same as in Fig. 1A.

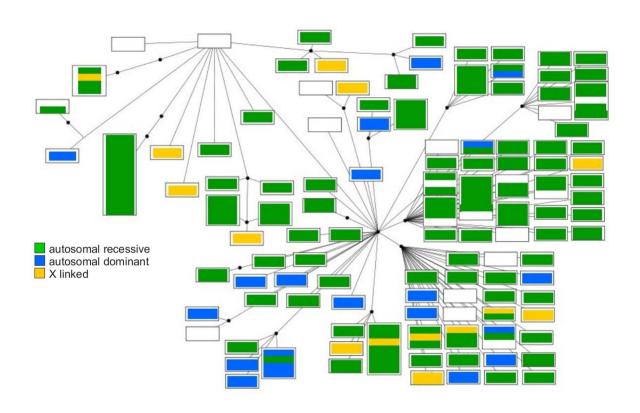


Fig. S2. Prevalence of PIDs. The layout of the graph is the same as in Fig. 1A.

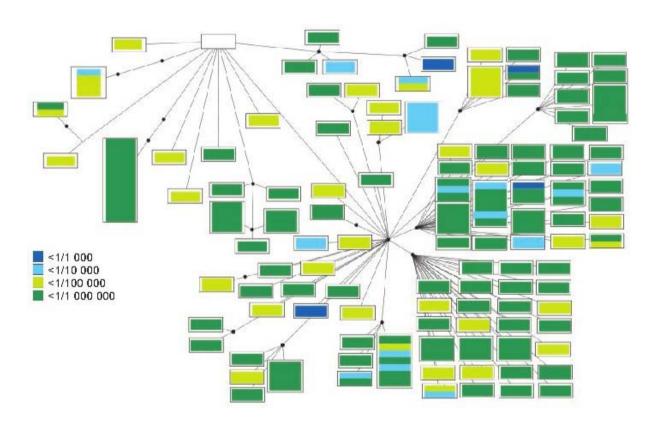


Fig. S3. Comparison of PID classification schemes. The layout of the graph is the same as in Fig. 1A.

The novel PID classification was compared with four previous systems In each cells the four coloured columns represents the following disease classification systems: IDR, ESID, AAAAI, ICD-10 from left to right, respectively. The colour coding for the individual systems is as follows:

ImmunoDeficiency Resource (IDR) classification

- 0 Not available
- 1 Combined B and T cell immunodeficiencies
- 2 Deficiencies predominantly affecting antibody production
- 3 Defects in lymphocyte apoptosis
- 4 Other well-defined immunodeficiency syndromes
- 5 Defects of phagocyte function
- 6 Defects of innate immune system, receptors and signaling components
- 7 Periodic fever syndromes
- 8 Defects of the classical complement cascade proteins
- 9 Defects of the alternative complement pathway
- 10 Defects of complement regulatory proteins
- 11 DNA breakage associated syndromes and DNA epigenetic modification syndromes

The European Society for Immunodeficiencies (ESID) classification

- 0 Not available
- 1 Predominantly T cell deficiencies, T-B- Severe combined immunodeficiency (SCID)
- 2 Predominantly antibody disorder
- 3 Other well definied PIDs
- 4 Complement deficiencies
- 5 Phagocytic disorders
- 6 Autoimmune and immunedysregulation syndromes
- 7 Autoinflammatory syndromes

American Academy of Allergy Asthma and Immunology (AAAAI) classification

- 0 Not available
- 1 Combined immunodeficiency
- 2 Humoral immunodeficiency
- 3 Cellular immunodeficiency
- 4 Phagocytic cell disorders
- 5 Complement deficiencies

International Classification of Diseases 10 (ICD-10)

- 0 Not available
- 1 Combined immunodeficiencies (D81)
- 2 Immunodeficiency with predominantly antibody defects (D80) 3 Immunodeficiency associated with other major defects (D82)
- 4 Other immunodeficiencies (D84)
- 5 Functional disorders of polymorphonuclear neutrophils (D71)
- 6 Agranulocytosis (D70)
- 7 Albinism (E70.3)
- 8 Cerebellar ataxia with defective DNA repair (G11.3)
- 9 Constitutional aplastic anaemia (D61)
- 10 Crohn's disease [regional enteritis] (K50)

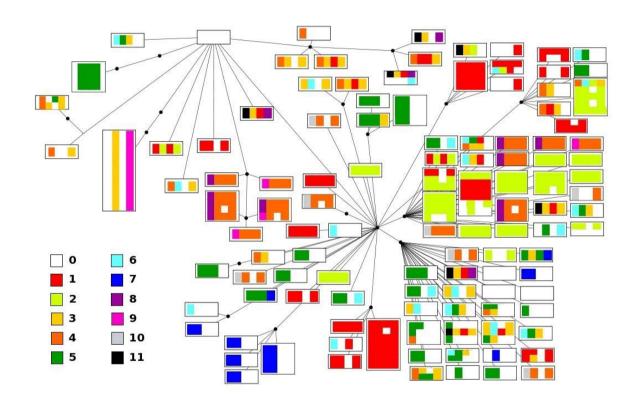


Table S1. Parameters used to characterize signs, symptoms and laboratory values in PIDs.

Parameter	Values ^a	Number of diseases
Infections		
locations		
central nervous system	yes/no	44
upper respiratory tract	yes/no	91
lower respiratory tract	yes/no	92
skin	yes/no	52
gastro-intestinal	yes/no	33
musculo-skeletal	yes/no	31
other	yes/no	55
taxonomy		
Susceptibility to		
- bacteria, Gram (+) (Streptococcus	0: no	134
pneumonie, Haemophilus influenzae)	1: intermediate	24
	2: high	30
- bacteria, Gram (+) (Staphylococcus	0: low/no	132
aureus)	1: intermediate	17
	2: high	29
- bacteria, Gram (-) (Neisseria)	yes/no	13
- mycobacteria	0: low/no	150
	1: intermediate	2
	2: high	27
- viruses	0: no	133
	1: intermediate	11
	2: high	34
Susceptibility to fungi (especially <i>P. carinii</i>)	0: no	188
	1: intermediate	12
	2: high	33
- Candida	yes/no	43

Parameter	Values ^a	Number of diseases
- Aspergillus	yes/no	11
- Cryptococcus	yes/no	5
- Histoplasma	yes/no	5
Susceptibility to Protozoa	1: Giardia	9
	2: Giardia+Cryptosporidium	5
	3: Cryptosporidium	1
Immune system dysregulation		
autoimmunity		
frequency	0: AID<20%	153
	1: 20 <aid<80< td=""><td>14</td></aid<80<>	14
	2: AID>80%	11
systemic lupus erythematosus (and SLE-like syndrome)	yes/no	26
vasculitis	yes/no	13
rheumatoid arthritis/juvenile rheumatoid arthritis /arthritis	yes/no	21
autoimmune haemolytic anaemia (AIHA)	yes/no	23
idiopathic thrombocytopenia (ITP)	yes/no	17
endocrine AID	yes/no	6
malignancies		
B cell malignancies	yes/no	24
T cell malignancies	yes/no	12
leukemia	yes/no	19
other	yes/no	17
allergy/atopy	yes/no	15
Associated diseases		
chronic respiratory problems	yes/no	25
cardio-vascular diseases	yes/no	11
gastro-intestinal diseases	yes/no	25
biliary tract and liver diseases	yes/no	10

Parameter	Values ^a	Number of diseases
kidney and urogenital diseases	yes/no	36
infertility	yes/no	17
Signs and symptoms		
failure to thrive (child) or wasting (adult)	yes/no	36
chronic diarrhea	yes/no	38
delayed cord separation < 2 weeks	yes/no	5
fever	yes/no	25
growth retardation	yes/no	45
pleural abnormalities	yes/no	5
gastrointestinal abnormalities	yes/no	29
hepatomegaly	yes/no	25
splenomegaly	yes/no	31
lymphadenopathy	yes/no	25
bleeding tendency	yes/no	35
skeletal or connective tissue abnormalities	yes/no	31
facial abnormalities		
- microcephaly	yes/no	21
- dental abnormalities/periodontitis	yes/no	10
- other facial anomalies/dysmorphism	yes/no	16
skin defects		
- photosensitivity	yes/no	5
- cutaneous telangiectasia	yes/no	5
- pigmentation defects	yes/no	14
- rash	yes/no	10
- eczema/atopic dermatitis	yes/no	17
- erythroderma	yes/no	7
- granuloma	yes/no	7
- other skin defects	yes/no	40
neurological or CNS abnormalities	yes/no	44
-mental retardation	yes/no	5

Parameter	Values ^a	Number of diseases
-ocular abnormalities	yes/no	7
Laboratory features		
low red blood cell count (anemia)	yes/no	55
white blood cell (leukocytes) count	-1: decreased	67
	0: normal/no	96
	1: increased	21
low neutrophil count (<500/ml)	yes/no	56
lymphocyte cell count affected	yes/no	82
thrombocytopenia	yes/no	28
polymorphonuclear cells affected	yes/no	32
monocytes/macrophages affected	yes/no	29
circulating T cells affected	-1: decreased	51
	0: normal/no	136
	1: increased	7
circulating B cells affected	-1: decreased:	32
	0: normal/no	155
	1: increased	7
NK cells affected	-1: decreased	25
	0: normal/no	168
	1: increased	1
IgG	-1: decreased	63
	0: normal/no	139
	1: increased	2
IgA	-1: decreased	65
	0: normal/no	124
	1: increased	5
IgM	-1: decreased	43
	0: normal/no	141
	1: increased	10

Parameter	Values ^a	Number of diseases
IgE	-1: decreased	38
	0: normal/no	144
	1: increased	12
antibody response to booster immunization impaired	yes/no	19
low lymphocyte proliferation to mitogens	yes/no	20
CH50 abnormal (low or absent)	yes/no	21
AH50 abnormal (low or absent)	yes/no	12
low C4 or C3 concentrations	yes/no	7
spontaneous activation of the complement pathway	yes/no	19
radiation sensitivity/ chromosomal instability	yes/no	22
missing lymph nodes	yes/no	9
absence of thymus	yes/no	11
apoptosis	-1: decreased	4
	0: normal/no	177
	1: increased	13
chemotaxis	yes/no	8
killing (faulty O2 production)	yes/no	7

^a no – either the parameter is not related or data is missing

 Table S2. Parameters statistically enriched in Disease Clusters. p-values are shown in brackets.

Cluster	Diseases and affected genes	Parameters significantly overrepresented in the disease clusters	Treatments and functional categories significant in the clusters
I	UNC13D STX11 RAB27A PRF1 FHL1 CN_ELA2	other sites of infections (2.17e-03) fever (1.24e-06) neurological or CNS abnormalities (9.75e-04) gastrointestinal abnormalities (2.79e-03) hepatomegaly (7.21e-05) splenomegaly(1.96e-04) lymphadenopathy (7.21e-05) bleeding tendency (3.36e-04) low neutrophil count (<500/ml) (1.11e-04) thrombocytopenia (1.23e-04) lymphocyte cell count affected (6.02e-04)	BMT or HSCT (1.01e-02) immunomodulators (2.93e-02) cellular immunity (4.4e-02) inflammation (9.49e-03)
П	G6PC3 DGCR ATM BLM	other sites of infection (3.26e-02) infections in upper respiratory tract (9.93e-03) infections in lower respiratory tract (1.02e-02) endocrine-AID (4.34e-03) B cell malignancies(4.54e-02) leukemia (3.84e-02) cardio-vascular diseases(1.44e-02) infertility (3.17e-02) growth retardation (2.18e-02) other facial anomalies/dysmorphism (2.85e-02) microcephaly (2.98e-03) photosensitivity(2.95e-03) cutaneous telangiectasia(2.95e-03) neurological or CNS abnormalities (2.08e-02) low lymphocyte proliferation to mitogens (4.19e-02) radiation sensitivity/chromosomal instability (4.9e-02) absence of thymus (1.44e-02)	-

Cluster	Diseases and affected genes	Parameters significantly overrepresented in the disease clusters	Treatments and functional categories significant in the clusters
III	PRKDC NFKBIA ADA COROIA RFXAP RFXANK RFX5 DNMT3B CIITA	infections in upper respiratory tract (2.60e-05) infections in lower respiratory tract (2.80e-05) skin infections (3.19e-04) susceptibility to bacteria, Gram (+) (Staphylococcus aureus) (3.03e-05) susceptibility to Candida (5.05e-06) failure to thrive or wasting (2.22e-08) chronic diarrhea (5.15e-05) gastro-intestinal diseases (1.12e-03) growth retardation (1.60e-04) neurological or CNS abnormalities (1.41e-04) lymphocyte cell count affected (1.31e-05) low lymphocyte proliferation to mitogens (3.57e-02)	immunoglobulin treatment (2.02e-05) BMT or HSCT (1.61e-05) antibiotics (5.36e-04) antifungals (2.32e-05) antivirals(8.31e-05) transcription factors (1.8e-04) humoral immunity (2.11e-02)
IV	STAT5B TNFRSF13B TMC8 TMC6 ORAI1 MPO LCK IGKC IGHE CMC CD79B CD3G AIRE CD3E CD247	infections in central nervous system(4.2e-02) infections in upper respiratory tract (2.61e-03) infections in lower respiratory tract (1.89e-02) susceptibility to <i>Candida</i> (1.9e-04) other malignancies (1.95e-02) low neutrophil count (<500/ml) (1.85e-02)	immunoglobulin treatment (1.29e-02) antibiotics (1.45e-02) antifungals (8.61e-04) antivirals(6.96e-05)

Cluster	Diseases and affected genes	Parameters significantly overrepresented in the disease clusters	Treatments and functional categories significant in the clusters
V	IRAK4 UNG TNFRSF13C Thymoma THI TAPBP TAP2 TAP1 ICOS HAX1 FCGR3A CXCR4 CD40 AICDA CSF3R CD19 BLNK IL12RB1 MYD88 IGLL1 IGHA2 IGHA1 IGAD1 CVID BTK SADNI IGHG3 IGHG2 IGHG1 LIG1 IGHG4 HIGM4 CFI C4B C4A C3 C2 C1S C1R C1QC C1QB C1QA CFD CD8A C4BPB C4BPA IGHM	infections in central nervous system(6.37e-03) infections in upper respiratory tract (2.4e-26) infections in lower respiratory tract (4.01e-26) gastro-intestinal infections (3e-02) susceptibility to mycobacteria (4.59e-03) susceptibility to mycobacteria (4.59e-03) susceptibility to Candida (9.07e-03) failure to thrive or wasting (1.20e-04) chronic diarrhea (5.26e-03) systemic lupus erythematosus (1.76e-03) rheumatoid arthritis (3.3e-06) idiopathic thrombocytopenia (3.90e-02) leukemia (6.87e-03) chronic respiratory problems (3.70e-02) cardio-vascular diseases (1.61e-02) infertility (1.13e-02) fever (1.26e-02) growth retardation (1.89e-04) other facial anomalies/dysmorphism (1.46e-02) microcephaly (4.19e-03) skin pigmentation defects (2.42e-02) neurological or CNS abnormalities (1.56e-03) gastrointestinal abnormalities (2.43e-02) hepatomegaly (1.58e-03) splenomegaly(3.75e-03) bleeding tendency (2.91e-02) skeletal or connective tissue abnormalities (3.81e-04) thrombocytopenia (7.72e-04) polymorphonuclear cells affected (3.02e-04) monocytes/macrophages affected (4.59e-03) CH50 abnormal (low or absent) (9.58e-04) low C4 or C3 concentrations (4.5e-02) spontaneous activation of the complement pathway (1.76e-03) radiation sensitivity/chromosomal instability (2.29e-02)	immunoglobulin treatment (2.75e-05) BMT or HSCT (1.64e-03) antibiotics (5.64e-16) antifungals (4.15e-02) immunomodulators (1.73e-11) complement system (8.87e-04) transcription factors (1.16e-02) humoral immunity (5.02e-05) cytokines (not chemokins) and receptors (4.69e-02) antigen processing and presenting (4.43e-02)

Cluster	Diseases and affected genes	Parameters significantly overrepresented in the disease clusters	Treatments and functional categories significant in the clusters
VI	NRAS FPR1 CD59 XLA.GHD G6PC FCGR1A CTSC SMARCAL1 ROBLD3 RNF168 NHEJ1 LIG4 TCN2 TCIRG1 TAZ STAT1 SBDS PSTPIP1 MYO5A MRE11A MLPH IL12B IFNGR2 G6PD ACTB DKC1 CEBPE AP3B1 CASP8 CASP10 CAPS XLN XIAP GF11 FASL CD55 LPIN2	infections in central nervous system(2.53e-04) infections in upper respiratory tract (4.12e-06) infections in lower respiratory tract (1.68e-07) skin infections (4.47e-02) gastro-intestinal infections (4.75e-02) susceptibility to bacteria, Gram (+) (Staphylococcus aureus) (1.14e-02) susceptibility to Candida (3.02e-03) chronic diarrhea (2.63e-02) systemic lupus erythematosus (3.66e-02) other malignancies (3.95e-02) growth retardation (3.83e-02) other facial anomalies/dysmorphism (3.1e-02) other skin defects (4.18e-02) eczema/atopic dermatitis (3.26e-02) splenomegaly(2.88e-02) low neutrophil count (<500/ml) (1.17e-02) thrombocytopenia (2.73e-02) lymphocyte cell count affected (2.46e-02) monocytes/macrophages affected (2.44e-02) chemotaxis (3.29e-02) low lymphocyte proliferation to mitogens (1.84e-02) spontaneous activation of the complement pathway (2.22e-02)	BMT or HSCT (2.94e-02) antibiotics (3.57e-02) antifungals (3.84e-03) antivirals (1.35e-02) immunomodulators (2.09e-02) chemokins and receptors (3.88e-02) complement system (2.80e-02) humoral immunity (3.84e-03)

Cluster	Diseases and affected genes	Parameters significantly overrepresented in the disease clusters	Treatments and functional categories significant in the clusters
VII	ZAP70 RAG2 RAG1 PTPRC JAK3 IL7R IL2RG IL2RA IKBKG FOXN1 CD3D	infections in upper respiratory tract (6e-05) infections in lower respiratory tract (6.48e-05) susceptibility to bacteria, Gram (+) (<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>) (2.97e-05) susceptibility to mycobacteria (3.93e-11) susceptibility to <i>Candida</i> (4.03e-06) failure to thrive or wasting (3.21e-10) chronic diarrhea (4.44e-08) eczema/atopic dermatitis (6.17e-03) lymphocyte cell count affected (9.66e-07) low lymphocyte proliferation to mitogens (1.07e-02) absence of thymus (1.18e-03)	immunoglobulin treatment (1.67e-06) BMT or HSCT (3.58e-05) antibiotics (9.63e-05) antifungals (2.10e-08) antivirals (1.39e-07) humoral immunity (1.26e-02) cellular immunity (2.48e-04)
VIII	TNFRSF1A NOMID NOD2 MWS MVK MEFV FCAS	infections in central nervous system(2.07e-02) musculo-skeletal infections (4.99e-07) vasculitis (2.94e-04) kidney and urogenital diseases (1.15e-02) fever (1.10e-07) rash (4.56e-11) neurological or CNS abnormalities (1.95e-04) ocular abnormalities (5.74e-10) pleural abnormalities (8.5e-09) gastrointestinal abnormalities (1.86e-05) splenomegaly (7.15e-03) skeletal or connective tissue abnormalities (4.99e-07) polymorphonuclear cells affected (6.19e-07) monocytes/macrophages affected (2.26e-05)	antibiotics (1.65e-02) inflammation (1.43e-06)

Cluster	Diseases and affected genes	Parameters significantly overrepresented in the disease clusters	Treatments and functional categories significant in the clusters
IX	CFP CFB C9 C8G C8B C8A C6 C5	infections in central nervous system(7.82e-07) infections in upper respiratory tract (4.4e-02) infections in lower respiratory tract (4.27e-02) susceptibility to bacteria, Gram (-) (<i>Neisseria</i>) (1.77e-11) systemic lupus erythematosus (4.72e-02) CH50 abnormal (low or absent) (1.02e-05) AH50 abnormal (low or absent) (7.06e-12) spontaneous activation of the complement pathway (5.52e-06)	immunoglobulin treatment (4.85e-02) antibiotics (1.34e-02) complement system (2.33e-08)
X	FANCM FANCL FANCI FANCG FANCF FANCE FANCD2 FANCC FANCB FANCA BRIP1 BRCA2	other sites of infections (4.63e-02) infections in upper respiratory tract (8.84e-03) infections in lower respiratory tract (8.47e-03) susceptibility to bacteria, Gram (+) (<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>) (4.41e-02) leukemia (3.79e-15) kidney and urogenital diseases (3.66e-11) infertility (5.23e-16) growth retardation (6.75e-10) microcephaly (1.97e-14) skin pigmentation defects (9.18e-18) bleeding tendency (2.58e-11) skeletal or connective tissue abnormalities (5.41e-12) low neutrophil count (<500/ml) (7.08e-09) thrombocytopenia (1.38e-12) lymphocyte cell count affected (1.31e-02) polymorfonuclear cells affected (8.2e-12) radiation sensitivity/chromosomal instability(4.1e-14)	immunoglobulin treatment (1.03e-02) BMT or HSCT (3.45e-07) antibiotics (4.06e-05) antifungals (4.93e-02) antivirals (2.77e-02) humoral immunity (4.93e-02)

Cluster	Diseases and affected genes	Parameters significantly overrepresented in the disease clusters	Treatments and functional categories significant in the clusters
XI	NCF2 NCF1 CYBB CYBA	other sites of infections (2.18e-03) infections in central nervous system(1.04e-03) infections in upper respiratory tract (9.93e-03) infections in lower respiratory tract (1.02e-02) skin infections (1.82e-03) gastro-intestinal infections (3.8e-04) musculo-skeletal infections (3.03e-04) susceptibility to bacteria, Gram (+) (Staphylococcus aureus) (2.31e-03) susceptibility to mycobacteria (2.68e-04) susceptibility to Aspergillus (4.62e-06) failure to thrive or wasting (5.19e-04) chronic diarrhea (6.28e-04) systemic lupus erythematosus (1.57e-04) chronic respiratory problems (1.36e-04) gastro-intestinal diseases (1.36e-04) kidney and urogenital diseases (5.19e-04) growth retardation (1.21e-03) eczema/atopic dermatitis (2.97e-05) granuloma (5.3e-07) gastrointestinal abnormalities (2.37e-04) hepatomegaly (1.36e-04) lymphadenopathy (1.36e-04) low neutrophil count (<500/ml) (2.45e-03) polymorfonuclear cells affected (3.4e-04) monocytes/macrophages affected (2.68e-04) killing (faulty O2 production) (5.3e-07)	BMT or HSCT (8.08e-03) antibiotics (3.65e-02) antifungals (2.02e-03)