

HHS Public Access

J Allergy Clin Immunol. Author manuscript; available in PMC 2023 January 01.

Published in final edited form as:

Author manuscript

J Allergy Clin Immunol. 2022 January ; 149(1): 327–339. doi:10.1016/j.jaci.2021.04.005.

Molecular diagnosis of childhood immune dysregulation, polyendocrinopathy and enteropathy, and implications for clinical management

Sarah K Baxter, MD PhD1,2,3, **Tom Walsh, PhD**3, **Silvia Casadei, PhD**3, **Mary M Eckert, BS**2, **Eric J Allenspach, MD PhD**1,2, **David Hagin, MD PhD**2,4, **Gesmar Segundo, MD PhD**5, **Ming K Lee, PhD**3, **Suleyman Gulsuner, MD PhD**3, **Brian H Shirts, MD PhD**6, **Kathleen E Sullivan, MD PhD**7, **Michael D Keller, MD**8, **Troy R. Torgerson, MD PhD**1,2,* , **Mary-Claire King, PhD**3,^ ¹Department of Pediatrics (Pediatric Rheumatology), University of Washington, Seattle WA

²Seattle Children's Hospital and Research Institute, Seattle WA

³Department of Medicine (Medical Genetics) and Department of Genome Sciences, University of Washington, Seattle WA

⁴Allergy and Clinical Immunology Unit, Department of Medicine, Tel Aviv Sourasky Medical Center and Sackler Faculty of Medicine, University of Tel Aviv, ISRAEL

⁵Department of Pediatrics (Allergy and Immunology), Universidade Federal de Uberlandia, Minas Gerais, BRAZIL

⁶Department of Laboratory Medicine and Pathology, University of Washington, Seattle WA

⁷Division of Allergy and Immunology, Children's Hospital of Philadelphia, Philadelphia, PA

⁸Division of Allergy and Immunology, Children's National Hospital, Washington, DC

* Current address: Allen Institute for Immunology, Seattle WA

Abstract

Background.—Most patients with childhood-onset immune dysregulation, polyendocrinopathy and enteropathy have no genetic diagnosis for their illness. These patients may undergo empirical immunosuppressive treatment with highly variable outcomes.

Objective.—To determine the genetic basis of disease in patients referred with "IPEX-like" disease, but with no mutation in FOXP3; then to assess consequences of genetic diagnoses for clinical management.

[^]Corresponding author: Mary-Claire King, University of Washington, Health Sciences K-160, 1959 NE Pacific Street, Seattle WA 98195-7720; phone 206.616.4294, fax 206.616.4295; mcking@uw.edu.

Disclosures: Tom Walsh PhD is a consultant for Color Genomics. Troy Torgerson MD PhD is currently employed by the Allen Institute for Immunology, Seattle. The rest of the authors declare that they have no relevant conflicts of interest.

Publisher's Disclaimer: This is a PDF file of an unedited manuscript that has been accepted for publication. As a service to our customers we are providing this early version of the manuscript. The manuscript will undergo copyediting, typesetting, and review of the resulting proof before it is published in its final form. Please note that during the production process errors may be discovered which could affect the content, and all legal disclaimers that apply to the journal pertain.

Methods.—Genomic DNA was sequenced using a panel of 462 genes implicated in inborn errors of immunity. Candidate mutations were characterized by genomic, transcriptional, and (for some) protein analysis.

Results: Of 123 patients with *FOXP3*-negative IPEX-like disease, 48 (39%) carried damaging germline mutations in one of 27 genes including AIRE, BACH2, BCL11B, CARD11, CARD14, CTLA4, IRF2BP2, ITCH, JAK1, KMT2D, LRBA, MYO5B, NFKB1, NLRC4, POLA1, POMP, RAG1, SH2D1A, SKIV2L, STAT1, STAT3, TNFAIP3, TNFRSF6/FAS, TNRSF13B/TACI, TOM1, TTC37, and XIAP. Many of these had not been previously associated with an IPEX-like diagnosis. For 42 of the 48 patients with genetic diagnoses, knowing the critical gene may have altered therapeutic management, including recommendations for targeted treatments and for or against hematopoietic cell transplantation.

Conclusion: Many childhood disorders now bundled as "IPEX-like" disease are caused by individually rare, severe mutations in immune regulation genes. Most genetic diagnoses of these conditions yield clinically actionable findings. Barriers are lack of testing or lack of repeat testing if older technologies failed to provide a diagnosis.

Clinical Implication: Pediatric immune dysregulation would benefit from a genetics-first approach to diagnosis: for >80% of these patients with genetic diagnoses, the genetic information offers critical guidance to clinical management.

CAPSULE SUMMARY

Immune dysregulation, polyendocrinopathy or enteropathy in many pediatric patients results from a mutation with severe clinical effect. Identification of these causal mutations enables treatment based on genotype, supporting a genetics-first approach to diagnosis.

Keywords

Immune dysregulation; molecular diagnosis; genetics; sequencing; pediatric; precision medicine; autoimmunity; inborn errors of immunity; primary immunodeficiency disorders

INTRODUCTION

Clinical presentations of immune dysregulation in children are notoriously complex^{1,2,3}. Genetic diagnoses can help disentangle this complexity and can also guide clinical management of these patients, suggesting targeted therapies or prompting hematopoietic cell transplantation $(HCT)^4$. Despite excellent studies revealing genetic causes of primary immunodeficiency diseases⁵, there are as yet no widely accepted recommendations for genetic testing of pediatric patients with immune dysregulation. Even now, a decade after next-generation sequencing became widespread, genetic testing for inborn errors of immunity often proceeds only following functional testing and in targeted panels, with the choice of gene frequently based on phenotype and serology. This approach misses genetic diagnoses of a large proportion of patients.

Among inborn errors of immunity, IPEX (Immune dysregulation, Polyendocrinopathy, Enteropathy, X-linked) syndrome, caused by mutations in FOXP3, a lineage-defining gene in regulatory T cells, is a prototype of disorders affecting regulation of immune

responses^{6,7}. IPEX manifests most commonly with severe diarrhea, dermatitis, and autoimmune endocrinopathies such as type 1 diabetes or thyroid disease 8 . However, these clinical features are widespread in pediatric diseases of immune dysregulation, and many patients with these symptoms have no mutation in FOXP3. These patients have been termed "IPEX-like," a distinction that is clinically significant, because patients with FOXP3 mutations usually undergo HCT⁹, whereas patients with IPEX-like syndrome are generally monitored and treated with immunomodulatory treatments aimed at the affected organ system. Patients with IPEX-like syndrome receive transplantation only if their disease progresses and becomes life-threatening. If HCT is ultimately undertaken, the delay in treatment can result in higher morbidity and mortality.

The scope, prevalence, and distribution of genes and mutations responsible for FOXP3 negative pediatric immune dysregulation, polyendocrinopathy or enteropathy (IPE) are not known. The goal of this project was to determine the underlying genetic causes of these conditions in pediatric patients with no mutation in FOXP3, to assess the diagnostic yield of genetic testing in these patients, and to evaluate the implications of genetic diagnosis for treatment.

METHODS

Study subjects

The study was approved by the institutional review boards of Seattle Children's Hospital (SCH) and the University of Washington (UW). Patients were eligible for the study if referred to SCH with clinical signs suggestive of IPEX, and hence for genetic analysis of FOXP3, but with no FOXP3 mutation identified. DNA was available for 123 such patients.

Gene panel development

We designed an oligonucleotide-based sequencing panel encompassing the coding exons, 5' and 3' untranslated regions, and flanking intronic regions of 462 known and candidate genes for immune-mediated disease (Table EI). Genes were chosen from the classification of immune genes by the International Union of Immunological Societies $(IUIS)^{10}$, and by review of the literature and consensus expert opinion of colleagues from immunology, rheumatology, and genetics. Of the 462 genes, 337 genes harbor mutations leading to inborn errors of immunity in humans; the other 125 genes are involved in immune tolerance, many with compelling murine models. Total length of the targeted genomic region was 1.5 MB. The panel enables simultaneous identification of single base pair mutations, small insertions and deletions, and exon-impacting copy number variants (CNVs) for all targeted genes. The panel was validated by blinded analysis of 33 patients with independently identified mutations. All genotypes were concordant with previous results. In addition to its research use, the panel is now in clinical use by the UW Department of Laboratory Medicine¹¹.

Genomics

Genomic DNA was isolated from whole blood, from peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs), or from expanded PBMCs. For each sample, 500–750ng DNA was captured using the oligonucleotide panel. Molecular barcodes were added after hybridization, and 32–48

samples were multiplexed and sequenced in a single flow-cell on an Illumina HiSeq2500 instrument to obtain 100bp paired-end reads at >400x median coverage. Identification of variants was carried out as previously described¹². Copy number variants (CNVs) were confirmed by TaqMan analysis and breakpoints identified by whole genome sequencing, also as described 12 .

Interpretation of genetic variants

Variant interpretation was based on the guidelines of the American College of Medical Genetics $(ACMG)^{13}$, as applied to conditions of pediatric immune dysregulation. As described above, the challenges of these conditions are, on the one hand, phenotypes defined by an exceptionally wide range of clinical presentations and, on the other hand, candidate genes with an exceptionally wide range of biological functions, with no straightforward alignment of phenotypes and genes. For each patient, candidate variants were evaluated by several criteria and experiments: by *in silico* predictive tools; by published functional studies; by similarities of clinical presentations of our patient with any patients previously reported with mutations in the same gene; by transcriptional analysis in our lab when appropriate and feasible¹⁴; and by testing for *de novo* inheritance, if DNA from parents could be obtained. For each variant that we reported as pathogenic, likely pathogenic, or of unknown significance (VUS), we provided a narrative explanation of published evidence and of experiments carried out in our lab, as well as reporting in silico predictions and prior classification by ClinVar15. The VUS classification was used sparingly, only for mutations with plausible but uncertain links to the patient's phenotype, for which further functional or genetic studies could add to evidence for or against causality.

RESULTS

Genetic diagnoses

Demographic and clinical features of the cohort.—Demographic and clinical characteristics of the 123 patients are shown in Table I. Most patients were male, consistent with original referral for X-linked IPEX syndrome. Patients were referred by physicians from six continents and represented a wide variety of ancestral populations, identified by self-report and by ancestral $SNPs^{16}$. Clinical diagnoses were heterogeneous, including enteropathy, dermatitis, autoimmune hemolytic anemia, type I diabetes, and other autoimmune conditions.

Genomic sequencing.—Genomic analysis of DNA samples from the 123 patients yielded median coverage across the targeted region of 406X, with 95.9% of targeted bases having >40X coverage and 99.1% of targeted bases having >8X coverage. This depth of coverage enabled identification of point mutations and small insertions and deletions in coding or regulatory regions and exon-impacting CNVs.

Frequencies and features of genetic diagnoses.—Genomic analysis yielded genetic diagnoses for 39% of patients (48 of 123), involving 27 different genes (Table II). All variants considered pathogenic, likely pathogenic, or of unknown significance but warranting further study, are indicated in Table III, with evidence bearing on causality

for the child's phenotype. Of the 28 different conditions in the 48 patients with genetic diagnoses, 19 conditions were inherited as autosomal dominant, 7 as autosomal recessive, and 2 as X-linked recessive. Damaging mutations included truncating, splice altering, and missense mutations, each private or extremely rare (Table III). Five patients carried multi-kilobase genomic deletions or amplifications in single genes (Figs E1, E2). Of the 56 different variants contributing to these 48 genetic diagnoses, 36 appeared for the first time in a patient in this series and 20 had been previously reported¹⁵ (Table III). Of the 58 reported variants, 52 were classified as pathogenic or likely pathogenic and 4 as VUS with recommendation for further functional analysis (Table III). Proportions of patients with genetic diagnoses were similar for males (37/94, or 39%) and for females (11/29, or 38%). Average age at referral for patients with a genetic diagnosis was 6.2y and for patients with no genetic diagnosis was 6.6y.

Biological functions of genes mutant in patients

Mutant genes in the IUIS classification system.—Genes responsible for patients' diagnoses are involved in both adaptive and immune response (Table II), and in biological functions including signaling, cell differentiation, apoptosis, debris handling, and epithelial integrity (Figure 1). The 27 genes appeared in multiple categories of the phenotypic classification system for inborn errors of immunity of the International Union of Immunological Societies' (IUIS) (Table II)¹⁰. Causal genes in the IUIS Immune Dysregulation category would be expected, given original clinical suspicion for IPEX. However, an equal number of genetic diagnoses were due to genes in other IUIS phenotypic categories, including Autoinflammatory Disorders, Antibody Deficiencies, Combined Immunodeficiencies, and Defects in Intrinsic and Innate Immunity. Most of the 27 genes were not previously reported in the context of "IPEX-like" disease.

For some genes, the mutations of these patients provide additional support for the role of the genes in IPE (Tables II, III). For example, somatic mutations in the $JAK1$ kinase are common in tumors, but a germline mutation in $JAKI$ has previously been documented in only one family¹⁷. Patients S66, S67, and S170, with severe IPE phenotypes, carry three different damaging mutations in JAK1, strongly supporting a role for JAK1 germline mutations in IPE (Figure S2). Similarly, IRF2BP2 encodes a transcriptional regulator of type I interferon and has a well-documented role in immune regulation, angiogenesis, and apoptosis^{18,19}, but a germline mutation in *IRF2BP2* has been previously documented in only one family20. Patient S125, with a similar phenotype to the previously reported patient, carries a *de novo* damaging mutation in *IRF2BP2*, supporting a role for this gene in IPE.

Two genes responsible for diagnoses of our patients were not previously included in the IUIS classification. TOM1 encodes a protein of endocytosis, with a missense mutation previously reported in a family with autosomal dominant immune dysregulation and impaired autophagy²¹. Patient S15, with a severe IPE phenotype, is heterozygous for a TOM1 splice mutation that produces a stable product lacking the vesicular trafficking domain, so likely yielding a dominant negative effect (Figure E3). Mutations in *MYO5B* are well documented in patients with microvillus inclusion disease²². Like patient SDH, patients

with $MYO5B$ deficiency can have extraintestinal manifestations, including hematuria, lung disease, and increased susceptibility to infection²³.

Immune regulation and dysmorphology.—For four patients, immune dysregulation appeared in combination with dysmorphology. Three patients with mildly dysmorphic features harbored mutations in TTC37 or SKIV2L, both of which are responsible for tricho-hepato-enteric (THE) syndrome^{24,25}. One patient, with a splice mutation in *KMT2D*, presented with features of Kabuki syndrome in addition to autoimmune dysregulation and severe enteropathy, both of which are rare but reported features of Kabuki syndrome^{26,27}. Genetic analysis is quite frequently undertaken for patients with dysmorphic features. However, for several patients with mutations in dysmorphism genes, these features were subtle and not recognized until after the genetic diagnosis.

Genetic diagnoses and treatment

For 42 of the 48 patients with genetic diagnoses, knowing the critical gene could have guided treatment (Figure 2). Specific management implications for each patient with a genetic diagnosis are indicated in Table EII. Some patients for whom the causal gene was identified could have been treated with appropriately targeted immune modulatory drugs. Patients whose genetic diagnoses suggested life-limiting disease may have been considered for HCT early in their disease course. Conversely, patients with genetic diseases having less severe outcomes or no effective therapies may have avoided high-risk treatments.

Targeted therapeutics.—For 25 patients, genetic diagnoses suggested specific targeted therapies. For example, abatacept, a CTLA-Ig fusion protein, has been reported to be an effective targeted therapy for patients with CTLA4 haploinsufficiency or LRBA deficiency²⁸. JAK inhibitors have been shown to be effective in patients with *JAK1*, *STAT1*, or $STAT3$ gain-of-function mutations²⁹. Patients with *NLRC4* gain-of-function mutations have been treated successfully in preliminary studies with recombinant IL-18-binding protein³⁰, and a clinical trial is underway evaluating this treatment in patients with $XIAP$ mutations³¹. Patients with *CARD14* and *TNFAIP3* mutations often respond to TNF-alpha inhibitors and to IL12/IL23 inhibitors $32,33$.

Screening.—For 29 patients, genetic diagnoses would have altered recommendations for screening. Loss of function mutations in *STAT3*, FAS, and *SH2D1A* predispose to lymphoma, and gain of function mutations in STAT3 predispose to leukemia34. Patients with *CLTA4* haploinsufficiency and *LRBA* deficiency also appear to be at a higher risk for cancer^{35,36}. In our series, two of four patients with *LRBA* deficiency developed malignancies: patient S45 died at age 16 from gastric adenocarcinoma, and patient S14 developed lymphoma at age 3. Patients with mutations in *AIRE, RAG1* and *NFKB1* can develop a broad range of autoimmune phenomena that call for regular thyroid, blood, liver, renal, and pulmonary screening^{2,37,38} Patients with $STAT3$ mutations should undergo pulmonary screening³⁹, and although there are limited cases reported, current evidence also supports pulmonary screening for patients with mutations in *BACH2*, *ITCH* and $TOMI^{21,40,41}$. Patients with $POLA1$ deficiency (figure E4) should undergo regular

ophthalmologic exams, given the risk of sterile inflammation leading to cataracts, scarring and blindness 42 .

Hematopoietic cell transplantation (HCT).—For 18 patients, genetic diagnoses represent potential indications for HCT. The 8 patients with CTLA4 haploinsufficiency and LRBA deficiency would be strongly considered for HCT given the increasing evidence of high morbidity and mortality in these diseases. For example, patient S88 developed inflammatory brain lesions while on abatacept; because he had failed appropriate targeted therapy and had a genetic diagnosis, he underwent HCT. Patients with mutations in XIAP, RAG1, and SH2D1A are also frequently considered for early $HCT^{43,44,45}$. Patient S21, who had hypogammaglobulinemia and autoimmune enteropathy beginning in early childhood, was referred for genetic testing at age 16y. She was found to have compound heterozygous RAG1 mutations, often considered an indication for HCT. She died at age 16 from a fungal infection prior to genetic diagnosis.

Genetic diagnosis can benefit patients even if gene-specific therapeutic guidelines are not yet available. For instance, severe childhood illness may lead physicians to attempt HCT in the absence of a genetic diagnosis. If genetic diagnosis reveals the cause of disease to be a gene of the hematopoietic system, bone marrow transplantation is more likely to be effective. Conversely, for the 6 patients with mutations in MYO5B, TTC37, SKIV2L, and CARD14, HCT would be unlikely to ameliorate disease, since these include epithelial defects that do not respond to HCT^{46} . Moreover, a genetic diagnosis can be crucial to guide diagnosis in patients' relatives. For instance, patient S92, with CTLA4 haploinsufficiency, underwent HCT due to the severity of his disease despite lacking a genetic diagnosis. He now has an infant son who can be screened for the same mutation.

DISCUSSION

Enabling precision medicine for children with immune dysregulation, polyendocrinopathy or enteropathy requires embracing genetic heterogeneity. That is, despite all patients in this project being referred for the same clinical concern (IPEX), many different genes were responsible for their illnesses, including some genes known to cause IPEX-like disease and others not previously associated with this syndrome. The diversity of IUIS phenotypes among these patients highlights the difficulty of inferring genotype from phenotype and the value of comprehensive genomic analysis early in the course of disease.

This genetic heterogeneity reflects the clinical reality that the features of childhood immune disorders are widely encountered and overlapping. The search for a genetic cause cannot realistically be based only on clinical phenotype, because immune dysregulation conditions have ill-defined phenotypic boundaries and can be due to any of multiple different genes. A genetics-first paradigm avoids unhelpful classifications that may lead to errors in diagnosis or therapy. To assist this practice, we suggest that when a causal link between gene and phenotype is established, the gene responsible for an immune disorder be included in its name (e.g. LRBA immunodeficiency). Diagnoses impact treatment options and define cohorts for scientific studies. By including the responsible gene in the name of each disease,

clinicians can avoid ambiguity and immediately access treatments most promising for the patient.

Genetic testing platforms vary widely in capacity and limitations⁴⁷. Given rapidly improving technology, it is important both to seek early genetic diagnosis and to re-evaluate if original results are negative. Sequencing to high coverage and including critical intronic and regulatory regions among the targets greatly increases detection sensitivity for copy number variants (CNVs), which for our patients represented 10% of all mutations. CNVs were particularly frequent in LRBA and represent a growing class of defects for which genetic diagnosis dictates targeted therapy. Custom-designed gene panels detect this class of mutations, but most exome sequencing does not. In practice, most commercial clinical sequencing is now exome sequencing, with "gene panels" in fact simply exome sequence data with only a subset of genes reported to the physician. Approximately 10% of the mutations of our patients would have been missed by exome sequencing.

If genetic disease remains a consideration despite a negative genetic test, it is worth considering more complete and current genomic analysis. False negatives on genetic tests can result from coverage that is inadequate to detect structural variants, from incorrect variant interpretation, from limitations in knowledge of gene function and hence of pathogenic variants, or from lab error. Errors of variant interpretation can be subtle and include failure to detect effects on transcription caused by mutations that do not alter amino acid sequence, failure to detect mutations at sites other than exon-intron boundaries that alter splicing, failure to distinguish variation in true genes from variation in pseudogenes, and so on. The pace of gene discovery, knowledge about individual genes, knowledge of classes of cryptic mutations, and technological advance all support additional genetic testing as platforms improve. Immunologists will likely find it useful to consult with academic centers to interpret increasingly complex genetic information. Conversely, clinically wellcharacterized patients will very greatly contribute to functional analysis of new mutations.

In our experience, negative results from tests of single genes or narrow panels have almost no value, and furthermore may impair the ability of clinicians to do follow-up testing due to insurance limitations. The solution is for the first genetic test to include as many genes and as many classes of mutations as possible, either from a large gene panel or from whole exome sequencing.

This project had several limitations, largely as the result of some patients being originally referred several years ago. First, for some patients, clinical information was limited and referring physicians were no longer available. Second, only probands were available for initial analysis, although a few families were re-contacted through the referring providers. Analysis of a child and both parents is critical to identifying *de novo* mutations, an important part of genetic diagnosis⁴⁸. Analysis of the complete patient-parent-parent trio is particularly important in the evaluation of mutations in genes such as CTLA4. Severe mutations in CTLA4 can lead to severe phenotypes, as in our patients (Tables II and III), but in some families, mutations in CTLA4 have been identified in relatives with no, or late-onset, clinical signs^{49,50}. It is possible that *CTLA4* mutations with severe, early onset phenotypes are *de*

novo in affected children, but this speculation can only be tested with DNA from parents. Both these limitations reduced the number of genetic diagnoses in which we had confidence.

A third limitation was that our gene-panel sequencing strategy detected all mutations in coding sequence and all gene-impacting copy number variants but did not detect mutations in distant non-coding genomic regions. Such distant non-coding mutations would be revealed by whole genome sequencing. The cost of whole genome sequencing is rapidly decreasing, but the cost of interpreting non-coding variants in whole genome sequence is very high. Insurance reimbursement is the practical limitation to applying whole genome sequencing to genetic diagnosis to these or other complex conditions.

Despite these limitations, the yield of reportable mutations among the children in this series was quite high (39%). Analysis of an active clinical population, with patient-parent-parent trios available for testing, would yield more solved cases with correspondingly greater benefit for management.

In conclusion, genetic diagnoses of children with immune dysregulation, polyendocrinopathy and enteropathy, but no mutation in FOXP3, revealed a wide array of clinical immune diseases and disruption of a wide array of biological pathways. More than 80% of genetic diagnoses were clinically actionable. We suggest that these results support a "genetics first" approach for patients with severe, early-onset immune dysregulation. We propose that all patients with childhood-onset immune dysregulation undergo comprehensive genomic analysis, rather than single-gene testing or no genetic testing at all. Treatments targeting immune pathways are rapidly advancing. To harness the promise of these treatments, it is critical to fully exploit genetic testing.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

Acknowledgments

Funding: NIH R35CA197458 (M.C.K) and King Lab Gift Fund

ABBREVIATIONS

REFERENCES

- 1. Leiding JW, Forbes LR. Mechanism-based precision therapy for the treatment of primary immunodeficiency and primary immunodysregulatory diseases. J Allergy Clin Immunol Pract. 2019;7(3):761–773. DOI: 10.1016/j.jaip.2018.12.017 [PubMed: 30832891]
- 2. Farmer JR, Foldvari Z, Ujhazi B, De Ravin SS, Chen K, Bleesing JJH, et al. Outcomes and treatment strategies for autoimmunity and hyperinflammation in patients with RAG deficiency. J Allergy Clin Immunol Pract. 2019;7(6):1970–1985. DOI: 10.1016/j.jaip.2019.02.038. [PubMed: 30877075]
- 3. Gámez-Díaz L, August D, Stepensky P, Revel-Vilk S, Seidel MG, Noriko M, et al. The extended phenotype of LPS-responsive beige-like anchor protein (LRBA) deficiency. J Allergy Clin Immunol. 2016;137(1):223–230. doi: 10.1016/j.jaci.2015.09.025. [PubMed: 26768763]
- 4. Delmonte OM, Notarangelo LD. Targeted therapy with biologicals and small molecules in primary immunodeficiencies. Med Princ Pract. 2020;29(2):101–112. doi: 10.1159/000503997.
- 5. Stray-Pedersen A, Sorte HS, Samarakoon P, Gambin T, Chinn IK, Coban Akdemir ZH, et al. Primary immunodeficiency diseases: Genomic approaches delineate heterogeneous Mendelian disorders. J Allergy Clin Immunol. 2017;139:232–245. doi: 10.1016/j.jaci.2016.05.042 [PubMed: 27577878]
- 6. Wildin RS, Ramsdell F, Peake J, Faravelli F, Casanova JL, Buist N, et al. X-linked neonatal diabetes mellitus, enteropathy and endocrinopathy syndrome is the human equivalent of mouse scurfy. Nat Genet. 2001;27(1):18–20. doi: 10.1038/83707. [PubMed: 11137992]
- 7. Bennett CL, Christie J, Ramsdell F, Brunkow ME, Ferguson PJ, Whitesell L, et al. The immune dysregulation, polyendocrinopathy, enteropathy, X-linked syndrome (IPEX) is caused by mutations of FOXP3. Nat Genet. 2001;27(1):20–21. doi: 10.1038/83713. [PubMed: 11137993]
- 8. Barzaghi F, Amaya Hernandez LC, Neven B, Ricci S, Kucuk ZY, Bleesing JJ, et al. Primary Immune Deficiency Treatment Consortium (PIDTC) and the Inborn Errors Working Party (IEWP) of the European Society for Blood and Marrow Transplantation (EBMT). Long-term follow-up of IPEX syndrome patients after different therapeutic strategies: An international multicenter retrospective study. J Allergy Clin Immunol 2018;141:1036–1049. doi: 10.1016/j.jaci.2017.10.041. [PubMed: 29241729]
- 9. Burroughs LM, Torgerson TR, Storb R, Carpenter PA, Rawlings DJ, Sanders J, et al. Stable hematopoietic cell engraftment after low-intensity nonmyeloablative conditioning in patients with immune dysregulation, polyendocrinopathy, enteropathy, X-linked syndrome. J Allergy Clin Immunol 2010;126:1000–5. doi: 10.1016/j.jaci.2010.05.021. [PubMed: 20643476]
- 10. Tangye SG, Al-Herz W, Bousfiha A, Chatila T, Cunningham-Rundles C, Etzioni A, et al. Human inborn errors of immunity: 2019 Update on the Classification from the International Union of Immunological Societies Expert Committee. J Clin Immunol. 2020;40(1):24–64. doi: 10.1007/ s10875-019-00737-x.
- 11. University of Washington Department of Laboratory Medicine and Pathology: [https://](https://testguide.labmed.uw.edu/public/view/IMD) testguide.labmed.uw.edu/public/view/IMD
- 12. Abu Rayyan A, Kamal L, Casadei S, Brownstein Z, Zahdeh F, Shahin H, et al. Genomic analysis of inherited hearing loss in the Palestinian population. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 2020;117(33):20070–6. doi: 10.1073/pnas.2009628117. [PubMed: 32747562]
- 13. Richards S, Aziz N, Bale S, Bick D, Das S, Gastier-Foster J, et al. ACMG Laboratory Quality Assurance Committee. Standards and guidelines for the interpretation of sequence variants. Genet Med. 2015;17(5):405–24. doi: 10.1038/gim.2015.30. [PubMed: 25741868]

- 14. Casadei S, Gulsuner S, Shirts BH, Mandell JB, Kortbawi HM, Norquist BS, et al. Characterization of splice-altering mutations in inherited predisposition to cancer. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA. 2019;116(52):26798–807. doi: 10.1073/pnas.1915608116.
- 15. ClinVar:<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/clinvar/>
- 16. Gulsuner S, Stein DJ, Susser ES, Sibeko G, Pretorius A, Walsh T, et al. Genetics of schizophrenia in the South African Xhosa. Science. 2020;367(6477):569–73. doi: 10.1126/science.aay8833. [PubMed: 32001654]
- 17. Del Bel KL, Ragotte RJ, Saferali A, Lee S, Vercauteren SM, Mostafavi SA, et al. JAK1 gain-offunction causes an autosomal dominant immune dysregulatory and hypereosinophilic syndrome. J Allergy Clin Immunol. 2017;139(6):2016–2020. doi: 10.1016/j.jaci.2016.12.957. [PubMed: 28111307]
- 18. Chen HH, Keyhanian K, Zhou X, Vilmundarson RO, Almontashiri NA, Cruz SA, et al. IRF2BP2 reduces macrophage inflammation and susceptibility to atherosclerosis. Circ Res 2015;117:671– 683. doi: 10.1161/CIRCRESAHA.114.305777. [PubMed: 26195219]
- 19. Ramalho-Oliveira R, Oliveira-Vieira B, Viola JPB. IRF2BP2: A new player in the regulation of cell homeostasis. J Leukoc Biol 106:717–723. doi: 10.1002/JLB.MR1218-507R.
- 20. Keller MD, Pandey R, Li D, Glessner J, Tian L, Henrickson SE, et al. Mutation in IRF2BP2 is responsible for a familial form of common variable immunodeficiency disorder. J Allergy Clin Immunol. 2016;138(2):544–550. doi: 10.1016/j.jaci.2016.01.018. [PubMed: 27016798]
- 21. Keskitalo S, Haapaniemi EM, Glumoff V, Liu X, Lehtinen V, Fogarty C, et al. Dominant TOM1 mutation associated with combined immunodeficiency and autoimmune disease. NPJ Genom Med. 2019;4:14. doi: 10.1038/s41525-019-0088-5. [PubMed: 31263572]
- 22. Müller T, Hess MW, Schiefermeier N, Pfaller K, Ebner HL, Heinz-Erian P, et al. MYO5B mutations cause microvillus inclusion disease and disrupt epithelial cell polarity. Nat Genet. 2008;40(10):1163–1165. doi: 10.1038/ng.225. [PubMed: 18724368]
- 23. Siahanidou T, Koutsounaki E, Skiathitou AV, Stefanaki K, Marinos E, Panajiotou I, et al. Extraintestinal manifestations in an infant with microvillus inclusion disease: complications or features of the disease?. Eur J Pediatr. 2013;172(9):1271–1275. doi: 10.1007/s00431-013-1948-0. [PubMed: 23354788]
- 24. Fabre A, Martinez-Vinson C, Roquelaure B, Missirian C, André N, Breton A, et al. Novel mutations in TTC37 associated with tricho-hepato-enteric syndrome. Hum Mutat. 2011;32(3):277–281. doi: 10.1002/humu.21420. [PubMed: 21120949]
- 25. Fabre A, Charroux B, Martinez-Vinson C, Roquelaure B, Odul E, Sayar E, et al. SKIV2L mutations cause syndromic diarrhea, or trichohepatoenteric syndrome. Am J Hum Genet. 2012;90(4):689–692. doi: 10.1016/j.ajhg.2012.02.009. [PubMed: 22444670]
- 26. Lindsley AW, Saal HM, Burrow TA, Hopkin RJ, Shchelochkov O, Khandelwal P, et al. Defects of B-cell terminal differentiation in patients with type-1 Kabuki syndrome. J Allergy Clin Immunol. 2016;137(1):179–187. doi: 10.1016/j.jaci.2015.06.002. [PubMed: 26194542]
- 27. Wang YR, Xu NX, Wang J, Wang XM. Kabuki syndrome: review of the clinical features, diagnosis and epigenetic mechanisms. World J Pediatr. 2019;15(6):528–535. doi: 10.1007/ s12519-019-00309-4. [PubMed: 31587141]
- 28. Schwab C, Gabrysch A, Olbrich P, Patiño V, Warnatz K, Wolff D, et al. Phenotype, penetrance, and treatment of 133 cytotoxic T-lymphocyte antigen 4-insufficient subjects. J Allergy Clin Immunol. 2018;142(6):1932–1946. doi: 10.1016/j.jaci.2018.02.055. [PubMed: 29729943]
- 29. Delmonte OM, Notarangelo LD. Targeted therapy with biologicals and small molecules in primary immunodeficiencies. Med Princ Pract. 2020;29(2):101–112. doi: 10.1159/000503997.
- 30. Canna SW, Girard C, Malle L, de Jesus A, Romberg N, Kelsen J, et al. Life-threatening NLRC4 associated hyperinflammation successfully treated with IL-18 inhibition. J Allergy Clin Immunol. 2017;139(5):1698–1701. doi: 10.1016/j.jaci.2016.10.022. [PubMed: 27876626]
- 31. ClinicalTrials.gov:<https://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT03113760>
- 32. Craiglow BG, Boyden LM, Hu R, Virtanen M, Su J, Rodriguez G, et al. CARD14-associated papulosquamous eruption: A spectrum including features of psoriasis and pityriasis rubra pilaris. J Am Acad Dermatol. 2018;79(3):487–494. doi: 10.1016/j.jaad.2018.02.034. [PubMed: 29477734]

- 33. Kadowaki T, Ohnishi H, Kawamoto N, Hori T, Nishimura K, Kobayashi C, et al. Haploinsufficiency of A20 causes autoinflammatory and autoimmune disorders. J Allergy Clin Immunol. 2018;141(4):1485–1488. doi: 10.1016/j.jaci.2017.10.039. [PubMed: 29241730]
- 34. Chandrasekaran P, Zimmerman O, Paulson M, Sampaio EP, Freeman AF, Sowerwine KJ, et al. Distinct mutations at the same positions of STAT3 cause either loss or gain of function. J Allergy Clin Immunol. 2016;138(4):1222–1224.e2. doi: 10.1016/j.jaci.2016.05.007. [PubMed: 27345172]
- 35. Habibi S, Zaki-Dizaji M, Rafiemanesh H, Lo B, Jamee M, Gámez-Díaz L, et al. Clinical, immunologic, and molecular spectrum of patients with lps-responsive beige-like anchor protein deficiency: a systematic review. J Allergy Clin Immunol Pract. 2019;7(7):2379–2386. doi: 10.1016/j.jaip.2019.04.011. [PubMed: 30995531]
- 36. Schwab C, Gabrysch A, Olbrich P, Patiño V, Warnatz K, Wolff D, et al. Phenotype, penetrance, and treatment of 133 cytotoxic T-lymphocyte antigen 4-insufficient subjects. J Allergy Clin Immunol. 2018;142(6):1932–1946. doi: 10.1016/j.jaci.2018.02.055. [PubMed: 29729943]
- 37. Constantine GM, Lionakis MS. Lessons from primary immunodeficiencies: Autoimmune regulator and autoimmune polyendocrinopathy-candidiasis-ectodermal dystrophy. Immunol Rev. 2019;287(1):103–120. doi: 10.1111/imr.12714. [PubMed: 30565240]
- 38. Tuijnenburg P, Lango Allen H, Burns SO, Greene D, Jansen MH, Staples E, et al. Loss-of-function nuclear factor κB subunit 1 (NFKB1) variants are the most common monogenic cause of common variable immunodeficiency in Europeans. J Allergy Clin Immunol. 2018;142(4):1285–1296. doi: 10.1016/j.jaci.2018.01.039. [PubMed: 29477724]
- 39. Fabre A, Marchal S, Barlogis V, Mari B, Barbry P, Rohrlich PS, et al. Clinical Aspects of STAT3 Gain-of-Function Germline Mutations: A Systematic Review. J Allergy Clin Immunol Pract. 2019;7(6):1958–1969.e9. Fabre A, Marchal S, Barlogis V, Mari B, Barbry P, Rohrlich PS, [PubMed: 30825606]
- 40. Afzali B, Grönholm J, Vandrovcova J, O'Brien C, Sun HW, Vanderleyden I, et al. BACH2 immunodeficiency illustrates an association between super-enhancers and haploinsufficiency. Nat Immunol. 2017;18(7):813–823. doi: 10.1038/ni.3753. [PubMed: 28530713]
- 41. Lohr NJ, Molleston JP, Strauss KA, Torres-Martinez W, Sherman EA, Squires RH, et al. Human ITCH E3 ubiquitin ligase deficiency causes syndromic multisystem autoimmune disease. Am J Hum Genet 2010;86:447–453. doi: 10.1016/j.ajhg.2010.01.028. [PubMed: 20170897]
- 42. Starokadomskyy P, Wilton KM, Krzewski K, Lopez A, Sifuentes-Dominguez L, Overlee B, et al. NK cell defects in X-linked pigmentary reticulate disorder. JCI Insight. 2019;4(21):e125688. doi: 10.1172/jci.insight.125688.
- 43. Ono S, Okano T, Hoshino A, Yanagimachi M, Hamamoto K, Nakazawa Y, et al. Hematopoietic stem cell transplantation for XIAP deficiency in Japan. J Clin Immunol. 2017;37(1):85–91. doi: 10.1007/s10875-016-0348-4. [PubMed: 27815752]
- 44. Canna SW, Marsh RA. Pediatric hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis. Blood. 2020;135(16):1332– 1343. doi: 10.1182/blood.2019000936. [PubMed: 32107531]
- 45. Farmer JR, Foldvari Z, Ujhazi B, De Ravin SS, Chen K, Bleesing JJH, et al. Outcomes and treatment strategies for autoimmunity and hyperinflammation in patients with RAG deficiency. J Allergy Clin Immunol Pract. 2019;7(6):1970–1985.e4. doi: 10.1016/j.jaip.2019.02.038. [PubMed: 30877075]
- 46. Fabre A, Bourgeois P, Coste ME, Roman C, Barlogis V, Badens C. Management of syndromic diarrhea/tricho-hepato-enteric syndrome: A review of the literature. Intractable Rare Dis Res. 2017;6(3):152–157. doi: 10.5582/irdr.2017.01040. [PubMed: 28944135]
- 47. Heimall JR, Hagin D, Hajjar J, Henrickson SE, Hernandez-Trujillo HS, Tan Y, et al. Use of genetic testing for primary immunodeficiency patients. J Clin Immunol. 2018;38(3):320–329. doi: 10.1007/s10875-018-0489-8. [PubMed: 29675737]
- 48. Baxter SK, King M-C. A time to sequence. JAMA Pediatr 2017;171(12):e173435. doi: 10.1001/ jamapediatrics.2017.3435. [PubMed: 28973099]
- 49. Schubert D, Bode C, Kenefeck R, Hou TZ, Wing JB, Kennedy A, et al. Autosomal dominant immune dysregulation syndrome in humans with CTLA4 mutations. Nat Med. 2014;20(12):1410– 1416. doi: 10.1038/nm.3746. [PubMed: 25329329]

50. Schwab C, Gabrysch A, Olbrich P, Patiño V, Warnatz K, Wolff D, et al. Phenotype, penetrance, and treatment of 133 cytotoxic T-lymphocyte antigen 4-insufficient subjects. J Allergy Clin Immunol. 2018;142(6):1932–1946. doi: 10.1016/j.jaci.2018.02.055. [PubMed: 29729943]

Figure 1:

Genes responsible for childhood immune dysregulation, polyendocrinopathy, and enteropathy. Genes responsible for childhood IPE in 48 patients by principal biological function, based on literature review and Gene Ontogeny annotation. Genes may act primarily within the adaptive arm of the immune system (blue arc), the innate arm (maroon arc), or both.

Figure 2:

IPE disease management recommendations based on genetic diagnoses. Recommendations for therapy for each gene are presented in supplementary Table EII. Percentages add to more than 100%, because for some patients, more than one recommendation was available. HCT is hematopoietic cell transplant.

Table I.

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Patient characteristics

Patient characteristics

Г

Table II.

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Genetic diagnoses with phenotypic classifications of the International Union of Immunological Societies (IUIS) Genetic diagnoses with phenotypic classifications of the International Union of Immunological Societies (IUIS)

I

Author Manuscript

Г

 $\overline{1}$

Author Manuscript

Baxter et al. Page 19

 \overline{a}

 $\overline{}$

 \overline{a}

 $\overline{}$

Inheritance of the phenotype: autosomal dominant (AD), autosomal recessive (AR), or X-linked recessive (XR). Complete genotypes are indicated in Table S2.

 Author ManuscriptAuthor Manuscript Author ManuscriptAuthor Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Variant alleles and interpretations

Variant alleles and interpretations

J Allergy Clin Immunol. Author manuscript; available in PMC 2023 January 01.

H

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

J Allergy Clin Immunol. Author manuscript; available in PMC 2023 January 01.

 \mathbf{r}

 Author Manuscript Author Manuscript

 Author Manuscript**Author Manuscript** Author ManuscriptAuthor Manuscript

All gnomAD entries are heterozygotes unless otherwise indicated All gnomAD entries are heterozygotes unless otherwise indicated \sim Completely conserved as proline through mammals; no species has serine as reference sequence

ni: no information on ClinVar; PP2: polyphen-2 score; gerp: gerp score; LoF: loss of function ni: no information on ClinVar; PP2: polyphen-2 score; gerp: gerp score; LoF: loss of function P: pathogenic; LP: likely pathogenic; VUS: unknown significance, warranting further evaluation P: pathogenic; LP: likely pathogenic; VUS: unknown significance, warranting further evaluation