



Clinical phenotypes in α_1 -antitrypsin deficiency: a cluster analysis on EARCO data

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Six clusters of AATD clinical phenotypes – mainly differing in age at diagnosis, lung function and smoking, in addition to genotype – were identified using EARCO baseline data, and hold promise for therapeutic and prognostic value <https://bit.ly/4swWLkY>

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Abstract

Background α_1 antitrypsin deficiency (AATD) is a rare, monogenic disorder predisposing individuals to liver and lung diseases. Yet, even within the same genotype, AATD is very heterogeneous in clinical presentation. This heterogeneity suggests a complex interplay of environmental and (epi)genetic factors, highlighting the need for a detection and study of clinical phenotypes.

Methods Here, we performed a cluster analysis using baseline data from the European Alpha-1 Research Collaboration (EARCO) to identify distinct clinical phenotypes in AATD.

Results We identified six clusters of AATD clinical phenotypes using K-prototypes with a cross-validated weighted F1 score of 0.926. Moreover, using a trained random forest classifier, we identified age at

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diagnosis, lung function and tobacco consumption as the most important features in distinguishing these clusters, in addition to the AATD-associated genotype.

Conclusions Overall, these findings underscore the fact that, beyond genotype, a multitude of other factors significantly influence AATD clinical phenotypes. Accordingly, this emphasises the importance of integrating (epi)genetic, environmental and behavioural data in future fundamental and translational research to unravel the complex mechanisms underlying patient heterogeneity. Moreover, longitudinal follow-up of individuals allocated to these clusters will help to better understand disease progression and to assess the potential benefits of specific therapies in different phenotypes.

Introduction

α -1 antitrypsin (AAT) deficiency (AATD) is a rare, monogenic disorder caused by mutations in *SERPINA1*, the gene encoding AAT, predisposing individuals to the development of liver and lung diseases [1–3]. AAT is a key serum protease inhibitor with immunomodulatory functions and is produced primarily in the liver, though there is also extrahepatic expression, including in the lungs [4–11]. Deficient AAT levels allow lung parenchymal damage due to uncontrolled neutrophil elastase activity, instigating early-onset emphysema [10, 12–15]. Additionally, the most common mutations cause misfolded AAT to accumulate and polymerise, provoking liver damage and further immune activation in the lungs, thereby aggravating lung parenchymal damage [16–18]. Notably, smoking greatly accelerates the onset and severity of lung parenchymal damage [17, 19–21].

Although a monogenic disorder, over 100 AAT variants have been described, with the most prevalent being the normal or wild-type M variant, and the deficiency-associated S and Z variants [22–27]. Yet, even within the same genotype, AATD is a very heterogeneous condition regarding clinical presentation. This heterogeneity suggests a complex interplay of individual-specific environmental and (epi)genetic factors, highlighting the need for a detection and study of clinical phenotypes. Here, we performed a cluster analysis using baseline data from the European Alpha-1 Research Collaboration (EARCO) to identify distinct clinical phenotypes in AATD. Overall, we aimed to organise the heterogeneous group of individuals with AATD into subgroups based on their degree of similarity by employing a multivariate algorithm, considering that a better stratification of patients may hold promise for more personalised treatment and prognosis in the future [28, 29].

Material and methods

Study population

We used data from the EARCO registry, a multinational observational cohort study enrolling individuals diagnosed with AATD, as confirmed by AAT serum level and/or genotyping [30]. We included all registered individuals from the inception of the registry in February 2020 up to 13 February 2024. Only baseline data were used due to the paucity of longitudinal follow-up data at the time of analysis. A total of 2540 individuals with 1110 recorded parameters were eligible for analysis.

Missing data and pre-processing

A preliminary missing data analysis was conducted to assess data completeness and to identify the subset of patients suitable for clustering. The clustering was performed as a complete case analysis, hence only subjects with non-missing values for the selected features were included. Some pre-processing steps are mentioned in supplementary data S1. Parameters with zero variance or with >80% missing data were excluded. Final feature selection was based on expert clinical judgment (WJ and SE).

Selected features

The final analysis included both continuous and categorical variables:

- Continuous variables: AAT level at diagnosis, age at diagnosis, body mass index (BMI), pack-years, forced expiratory volume in 1 s (FEV_1) relative to predicted value, diffusion capacity of the lung for carbon monoxide (D_{LCO}) relative to predicted value, COPD assessment test (CAT) score, neutrophils and eosinophils.
- Categorical variables: sex, smoking history, index case, augmented therapy, COPD, emphysema, chronic bronchitis, bronchiectasis, asthma, lung cancer, other lung diseases, dyspnoea, cough, sputum, asymptomatic status, fatty liver, cirrhosis, liver fibrosis, deranged liver function tests, hepatocellular carcinoma, jaundice, neonatal jaundice, other liver disease and other AATD-related diseases.

Clustering methodology

To accommodate both continuous and categorical data types, we employed the K-prototypes algorithm, an extension of K-means that integrates elements of the K-modes algorithm to handle categorical variables [31].

The optimal number of clusters was determined using a supervised machine-learning model. Due to the tabular nature of the data, random forest was the model of choice [32].

Cluster number selection

We repeated the following procedure for $M=2-10$ clusters:

1. Apply K-prototypes on the baseline features to partition the dataset into M clusters.
The continuous and categorical features were used as input for the K-prototypes algorithm together with parameter M to find M clusters based on the provided features.
2. Use cluster assignments as classification labels. Each subject in the dataset was assigned to a cluster by the K-prototypes algorithm through cluster labels. The possible cluster labels ranged from 1 to M .
3. Train a random forest classifier using baseline features to predict these cluster labels.
The continuous and categorical features were used as input to train a random forest classification model that predicts the cluster labels of subjects based on their features.
4. Perform 10-fold cross-validation, repeated 100 times, stratified by cluster assignment.
To avoid evaluating the trained model on subjects on which it was trained, we used the cross-validation method. The 10-fold cross-validation method randomly splits the dataset into 10 subsets (folds). The model is then trained on nine of the 10 folds and evaluated on the remaining fold. This process is repeated such that each fold is used as an evaluation fold once. On each evaluation fold, the F1 score is calculated [33]. This score is an evaluation metric measuring a balance (harmonic mean) between positive predictive value and sensitivity and ranges between 0 (worst value) and 1 (best value). The 10-fold cross-validation process was repeated 100 times over different random splits.
5. Calculate the mean F1 score across all repetitions and folds. The mean F1 score is calculated over the 100 different random splits. As such, for each number of clusters, a mean F1 score is calculated [33]. The number of clusters yielding the highest mean F1 score was selected.

Feature importance and reduction

To estimate the contribution of each feature to cluster discrimination, we used the trained random forest models during each iteration at step four to compute feature importance scores. This approach quantified how informative each feature is in distinguishing between the clusters. After ranking the features according to their importance, the number of features was reduced based on the importance and ease of collection.

Statistical analysis

We performed descriptive statistics for each cluster across domains including demographics, lung function, blood biomarkers, medical history and status, and liver function tests. Continuous variables are presented as mean $\pm$ SD or median with interquartile range (Q1–Q3), as appropriate. Categorical variables are reported as n (%). To assess overall differences between clusters, a one-way ANOVA was used for continuous variables. When significant, pairwise comparisons were conducted using *post hoc* t-tests with Bonferroni–Holm correction to adjust for multiple testing. Python 3.8 (Python Software Foundation) and the SciPy (v.1.10.1), statsmodels (v.0.14.1) and kmodes (v.0.12.2) packages were used. The scikit-learn (v.1.3.2) package was used to perform supervised machine learning.

Results

Initially, 1196 individuals from the 2540 individuals in the EARCO registry (data extracted on 13 February 2024) were used with 34 baseline variables. After performing the supervised machine-learning method, the determined optimal number of clusters was six, and the number of baseline variables was reduced from 34 to 15. The number of subjects for the final analysis after re-adding the 42 individuals who had missing data for the omitted 19 baseline variables was therefore 1238. The full flowchart is visualised in figure 1. Based on the highest cross-validated-weighted F1 score (0.926), the optimal number of clusters was determined to be six (figure 2). Cluster characteristics are described in table 1, sorted by decreasing feature importance as determined by the trained random forest classifier (figure 3). The six most distinguishing continuous variables (age at AATD diagnosis, FEV_1 , D_{LCO} , pack-years, CAT score and AAT level) are also shown in the radar plot (figure 4). All statistically significant differences between clusters are illustrated in figure 5. Altogether, we identified six clusters, each representing a distinct AATD clinical phenotype.

Overall, individuals in cluster 2 were significantly younger at their AATD diagnosis, whereas individuals in cluster 4 were significantly older compared with all other clusters. Regarding lung function measurements (FEV_1 and D_{LCO}), clusters 1, 2 and 3 grouped individuals with normal lung function. In contrast, clusters 4, 5 and 6 grouped individuals with COPD diagnosis based on low lung function and high CAT scores, with most individuals suffering from lung emphysema and dyspnoea. The FEV_1 differed significantly between these three clusters, being the lowest in cluster 6. Similarly, the D_{LCO} was

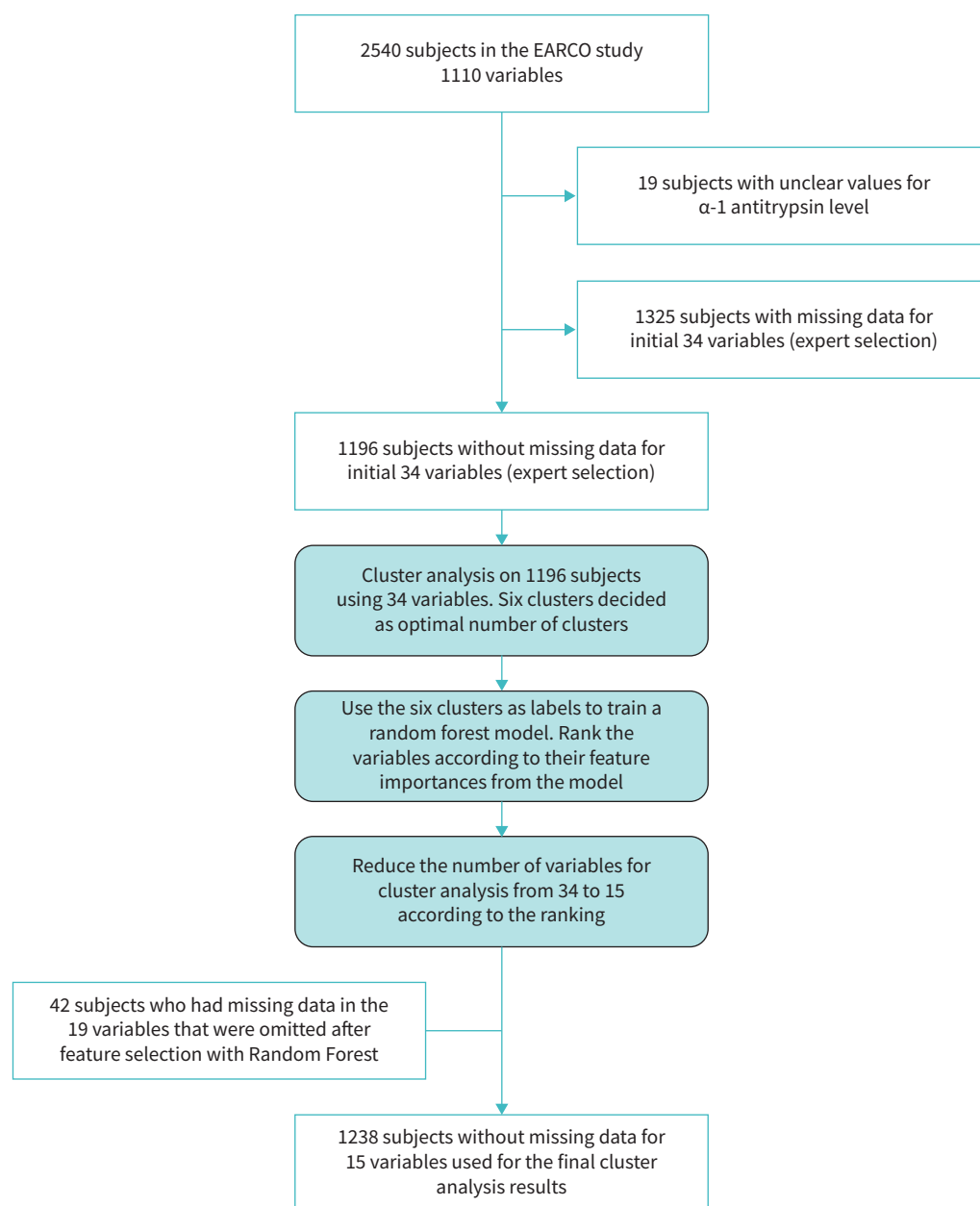


FIGURE 1 Flowchart regarding the selected study population of individuals with α -1 antitrypsin deficiency (AATD) in the European Alpha-1 Research Collaboration (EARCO) registry.

significantly lowest in cluster 6. Notably, the pack-years significantly differed between all clusters, except between clusters 1 and 2, and between clusters 3 and 5. All clusters grouped individuals of various AATD-associated genotypes, but shifted to a dominant ZZ genotype in clusters 5 and 6, coinciding with the lowest serum AAT levels of all clusters. Notably, in all clusters, most individuals were identified as index cases. The proportion of index cases was lowest in cluster 2 and highest in cluster 4, with significant differences in proportion between clusters 1, 2 and 3 *versus* clusters 4, 5 and 6, and between clusters 4 and 5. For the remaining variables with lower differentiating value, only serum neutrophil count did differ significantly between all clusters, except between clusters 1, 2 and 3.

Discussion

In this cluster analysis, we identified six AATD clinical phenotypes mainly differentiated by age at AATD diagnosis, lung function and tobacco consumption, in addition to the AATD-associated genotype.

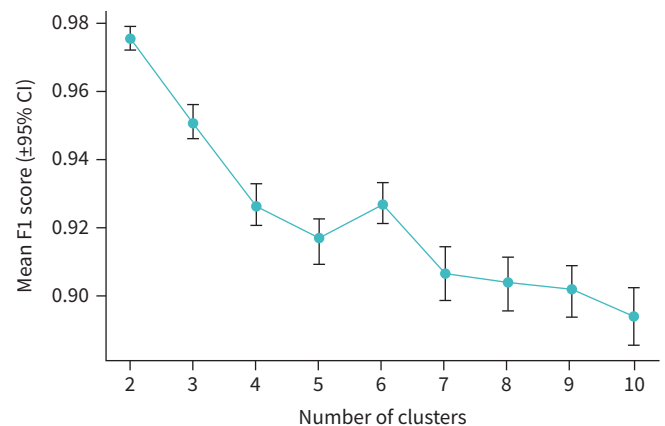


FIGURE 2 Random forest classification of cluster assignments. The weighted F1 score accounts for class imbalance and combines precision and recall into a single performance metric. The number of clusters yielding the highest mean weighted F1 score was selected.

Age at AATD diagnosis has the largest differentiating power and may be reflected by changes in lifestyle, specifically regarding smoking behaviour, after receiving this diagnosis. In particular, individuals from cluster 2 who received their AATD diagnosis at the youngest age, report a low tobacco consumption, have a normal lung function at inclusion in the registry and the majority do not suffer from emphysema nor COPD. Moreover, their clinical presentation resembled individuals in cluster 1, consisting of individuals who have never smoked. In contrast, individuals in cluster 4 who received their AATD diagnosis at the oldest age, report the highest tobacco consumption. Interestingly, clusters 2 and 4 also had the lowest and highest number of index cases respectively. Hence, this highlights the importance of early AATD diagnosis, including *via* genetic screening, and awareness regarding the impact of smoking, corroborating the findings of the longitudinal follow-up from individuals of the Swedish National AATD Registry [34–36].

While individuals in clusters 3 and 6 did not have a significant different age at diagnosis and only a limited difference in pack-years, individuals in cluster 6 presented with a severely reduced lung function whereas individuals in cluster 3 presented with a normal lung function. This discrepancy in lung function could be attributed to the AATD-associated genotype, being predominantly SZ in cluster 3 and ZZ in

TABLE 1 Six clusters of clinical phenotypes in α -1 antitrypsin deficiency

Variable	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3	Cluster 4	Cluster 5	Cluster 6
Count n	263	193	209	141	194	238
Age at diagnosis, years	52.1±11.4	17.5±11.8	48.6±12.5	62.4±11.0	50.0±11.8	47.2±13.4
FEV ₁ , % pred	104.0±18.1	100.2±14.8	101.5±17.8	58.8±24.3	66.4±20.5	38.4±15.1
Pack-years	0.0±0.0	0.4±1.7	17.2±14.5	46.0±29.3	13.7±13.3	19.1±15.5
Smoking history: yes/no, %	0/263 (0%)	21/172 (11%)	208/1 (100%)	138/3 (98%)	146/48 (75%)	199/39 (84%)
CAT score	5.5±6.2	3.1±4.8	4.4±5.3	11.8±8.2	7.8±5.3	19.6±6.9
AAT level, mg·dL ⁻¹	47.9±20.8	44.2±21.6	58.8±20.2	71.3±21.4	24.2±10.0	26.2±13.9
D _{LCO} , % pred	90.6±19.2	93.1±17.4	88.8±19.1	57.0±23.1	60.4±22.7	42.6±15.5
SS/SZ/ZZ/other genotype, %	8/52/29/12	6/44/41/9	18/61/9/12	26/62/3/10	0/2/86/12	0/3/86/11
COPD: yes/no, %	7/256 (3%)	4/189 (2%)	22/187 (11%)	128/13 (91%)	146/48 (75%)	217/21 (91%)
BMI, kg·m ⁻²	27.1±4.8	23.6±4.3	27.0±5.0	27.2±4.6	26.4±4.6	25.8±5.1
Augmentation therapy: yes/no, %	5/258 (2%)	9/184 (5%)	1/208 (0%)	20/121 (14%)	62/132 (32%)	186/52 (78%)
Lung emphysema: yes/no, %	18/245 (7%)	8/185 (4%)	23/186 (11%)	98/43 (70%)	150/44 (77%)	209/29 (88%)
Neutrophils, %	53.1±11.6	54.4±9.8	52.6±9.8	60.0±12.0	56.7±9.5	59.6±11.8
Eosinophils, %	3.2±2.4	3.0±2.2	3.0±1.8	2.7±1.8	3.0±2.1	2.8±2.2
Dyspnoea: yes/no, %	76/187 (29%)	33/160 (17%)	62/147 (30%)	125/16 (89%)	168/26 (87%)	229/9 (96%)
Index case: yes/no, %	171/91 (65%)	113/80 (59%)	127/82 (61%)	130/11 (92%)	151/42 (78%)	203/35 (85%)

Data are presented as n (%) or mean±SD, unless otherwise stated. AAT: α -1 antitrypsin; y: year; FEV₁: forced expiratory volume in 1 s; % pred: percentage relative to predicted value; D_{LCO}: diffusion capacity of the lung for carbon monoxide; CAT: COPD assessment test.

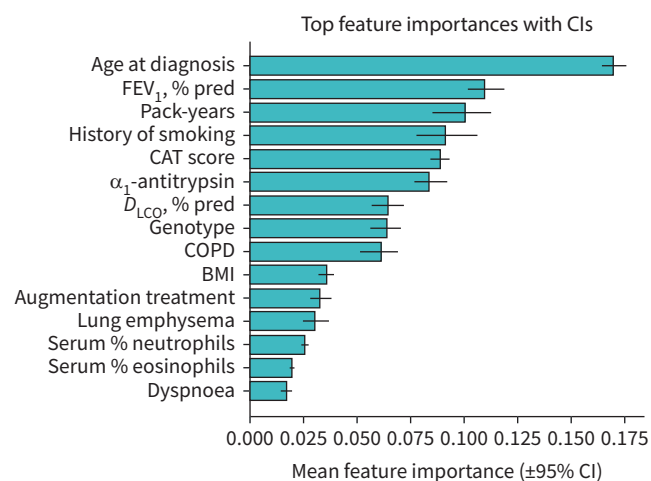


FIGURE 3 Top feature importances in differentiating the clusters. CI: confidence interval; FEV₁: forced expiratory volume in 1 s; % pred: percentage relative to predicted value; CAT: COPD assessment test; D_{LCO}: diffusion capacity of the lung for carbon monoxide; BMI: body mass index.

cluster 6, with corresponding AAT serum levels of $58.8 \pm 20.2 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{dL}^{-1}$ and $26.2 \pm 13.9 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{dL}^{-1}$, respectively. The severely reduced lung function in cluster 6 was in keeping with previous studies showing that particularly individuals with the ZZ genotype represent 95% of severe AATD with clinical manifestations due to the higher misfolding and polymerisation propensity of this AAT variant [37–40].

Moreover, smoking has already been shown to accelerate lung parenchymal damage, particularly for the ZZ genotype [17, 19–21]. This is apparent in clusters 5 and 6 that grouped individuals having

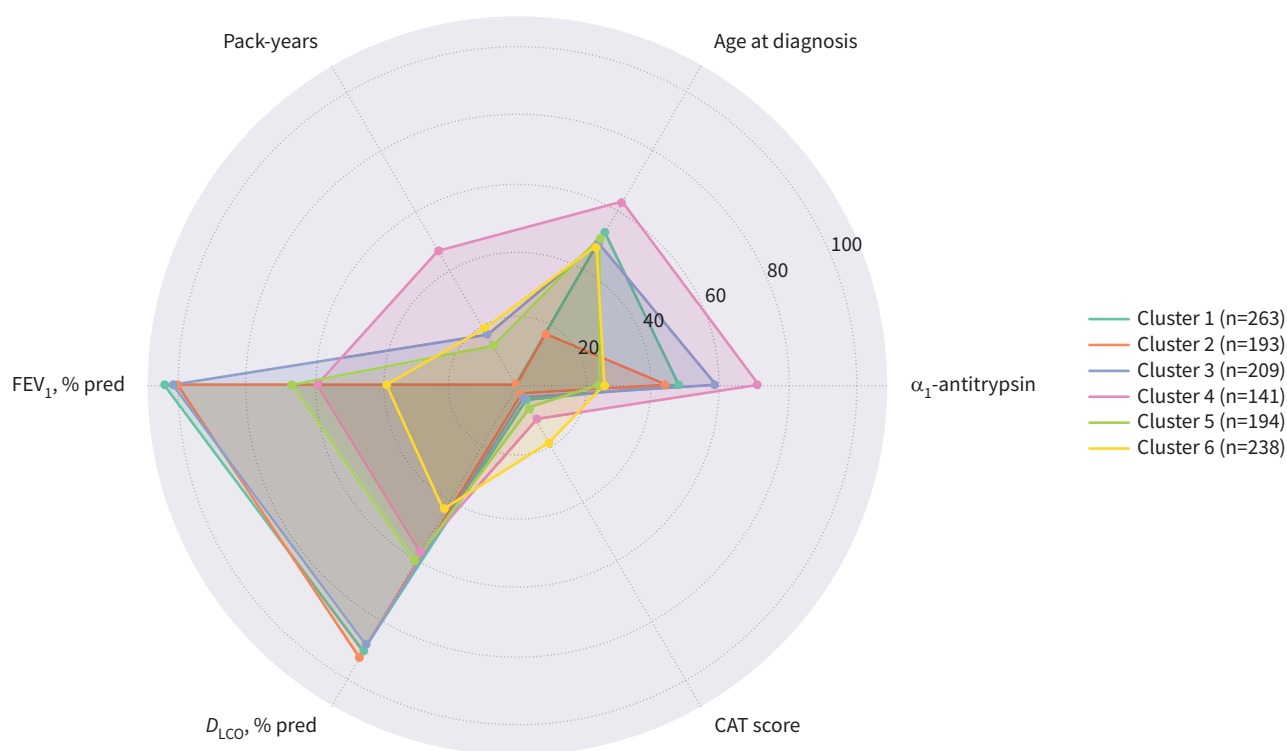


FIGURE 4 Radar plot with raw values of the six most distinguishing continuous variables for cluster differentiation. FEV₁: forced expiratory volume in 1 s; % pred: percentage relative to predicted value; D_{LCO}: diffusion capacity of the lung for carbon monoxide; CAT: COPD assessment test.

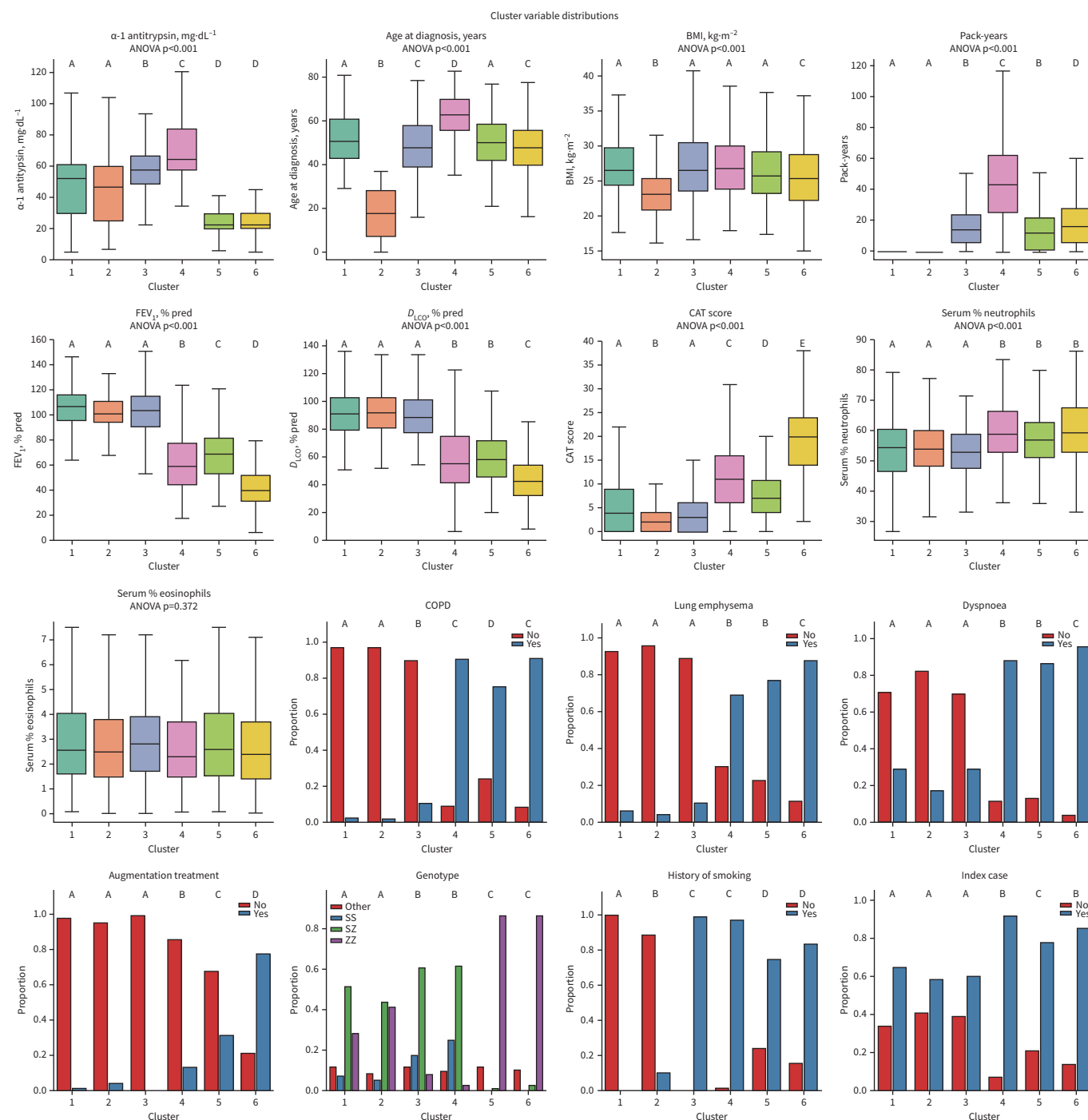


FIGURE 5 Six clusters of clinical phenotypes in α -1 antitrypsin deficiency (AATD). Statistically significant differences between clusters are indicated by a different letter (A–E). FEV₁: forced expiratory volume in 1 s; % pred: percentage relative to predicted value; D_{LCO} : diffusion capacity of the lung for carbon monoxide; CAT: COPD assessment test.

predominantly the ZZ genotype and had a more severely reduced lung function with regard to pack-years compared with clusters having predominantly the SZ genotype. Remarkably, although clusters 5 and 6 had the same prevailing proportion of individuals with the ZZ genotype, similar AAT serum levels and a similar age at AATD diagnosis, individuals in cluster 6 had a significantly lower lung function. While there are slightly more pack-years reported by individuals in cluster 6, the marked disparity in lung function appears to have a greater impact in differentiating the clusters and suggests the involvement of other unidentified contributing factors.

Altogether, we have identified six AATD clinical phenotypes using baseline data from the EARCO registry. Our findings demonstrate that besides the AATD-associated genotype and corresponding AAT serum levels, other features were even more prominent for defining clinical phenotypes, being primarily age at diagnosis, lung function and tobacco consumption. Strikingly, liver disease was not among the key distinguishing features, likely due to the low inclusion number of individuals with AATD having liver disease, as the EARCO registry is mainly respiratory-driven. Furthermore, the differences and similarities between clusters suggest the presence of other, still undiscovered factors that contribute to the different clinical presentations.

A major strength of this study is the large sample size, made possible through the use of the EARCO registry. However, it should be noted that there are inherent limitations associated with multinational clinical registries such as the EARCO registry, including missing data and retrospective design. Considering that the EARCO registry is continuously expanding, future analyses should be conducted as additional data, particularly longitudinal follow-up data, become available to validate the current clinical phenotypes and to provide potential prognostic value.

Moreover, by employing the K-prototypes algorithm, we were able to include both continuous and categorical data simultaneously, as well as ensure a robust and objective differentiation of clinical phenotypes. Besides, the random forest classifier allowed to determine dominant features in differentiating the clusters. However, the study was limited to the baseline data of the EARCO study and, therefore, longitudinal trajectories of the clusters could not be assessed, warranting careful consideration of the findings. After longitudinal analysis and prospective external validation, the prediction model may serve as a tool to allocate new individuals to these clusters based on their clinical presentation. This could become particularly valuable if these clusters prove to have prognostic relevance.

Conclusion

Altogether, we identified six clusters of AATD clinical phenotypes mainly differentiated by age at AATD diagnosis, lung function and tobacco consumption, in addition to the AATD-associated genotype. While the six AATD clinical phenotypes identified in this study are currently mainly descriptive, they hold promise for providing prognostic value, especially when integrated with longitudinal data such as lung function decline, by enhancing our understanding of disease progression and allowing to assess the effectiveness of targeted therapies in the distinct phenotypes. Overall, this study underscores that, beyond genotype, a multitude of other factors significantly influence AATD clinical phenotypes. Hence it highlights the necessity of integrating (epi)genetic factors with environmental and behavioural traits, in future fundamental and translational research to unravel the complex mechanisms underlying patient heterogeneity.

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Author contributions: A. Somers was responsible for critical interpretation of data and writing the original draft. K. Verstraete was responsible for formal data analysis and statistical analyses. W. Janssens and S. Everaerts were responsible for conception, design and supervision. E. Demesmaeker, M. Torres-Duran, A.M. Turner, H. Tanash, C. Rodríguez-García, J-U. Stæhr Jensen, A.G. Corsico, J.L. López-Campos, K.R. Chapman, C.F. Clarenbach, C. Guimarães, E. Bartošovská, J.M. Hernández-Pérez, J.L. Rodríguez-Hermosa, B. Lara, M. Miravittles, W. Janssens and S. Everaerts were responsible for data acquisition within the EARCO registry. K. Verstraete, E. Demesmaeker, M. Torres-Duran, A.M. Turner, H. Tanash, C. Rodríguez-García, J-U. Stæhr Jensen, A.G. Corsico, J.L. López-Campos, K.R. Chapman, C.F. Clarenbach, C. Guimarães, E. Bartošovská, J.M. Hernández-Pérez, J.L. Rodríguez-Hermosa, B. Lara, M. Miravittles, W. Janssens and S. Everaerts were responsible for critically reviewing and editing the manuscript. All authors have approved and contributed towards the final written manuscript.

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