

Review

Primary minor immunodeficiencies as a cause of immunodependent pathology in humans: Etiology, epidemiology, classification, diagnosis, and treatment (Systematic review)

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CITATION

Maltsev D. Primary minor immunodeficiencies as a cause of immunodependent pathology in humans: Etiology, epidemiology, classification, diagnosis, and treatment (Systematic review). *Journal of Biological Regulators and Homeostatic Agents*. 2026; 40(1): 3683. <https://doi.org/10.54517/jbrha3683>

ARTICLE INFO

Received: 5 May 2025
Revised: 11 July 2025
Accepted: 29 August 2025
Available online: 14 January 2026

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Abstract: Deficiencies in immune protection (both congenital and acquired through life) significantly influence a human's life quality. Primary minor immunodeficiencies (PMDs) are more common in the population than classical immunodeficiencies and place a high burden on society. However, the evidence on PMDs is not systematized. The aim of the current research became the analysis and synthesis of the evidence on etiology, epidemiology, diversity, clinical manifestations, diagnosis, and treatment of PMD in humans to synthesize a scientific concept. In this way, the systematic review of publications from PubMed and SCOPUS databases has been conducted by the keywords. The time of analysis was the period from 1960 to 2025. Out of 2937 primary publications, 424 that met the selection criteria were included in the final list. As a result, terminology, genetic heterogeneity, epidemiology, spectrum of manifestation, structuring of clinical syndromes, and classification of PMD were clarified due to the current research. A distinction is made between PMD and classical immunodeficiencies. The algorithms of diagnostics and immunotherapeutic interventions were considered. The scientific concept of PMD diagnosis and treatment was proposed, which presents PMDs as a universal natural model of the development of different human immune-dependent pathologies on a population scale. PMDs, by their prevalence in the population, diversity, and degree of clinical manifestation, can explain the development of the entire described spectrum of immunodependent diseases in humans. The proposed PMD concept can allow optimizing the clinical management of patients with associated immunodependent pathology using an integrative personalized multidisciplinary approach with the availability of etiology estimation and etiotropic treatment providing.

Keywords: eosinophilic peroxidase; immunodiagnostics; immunomodulation; immunotherapy; mannose binding lectin; myeloperoxidase; natural killer cells; natural killer T-lymphocytes; phagocytosis

1. Introduction

Over 450 human primary immunodeficiencies are described [1]. They differ in inheritance, population prevalence, immune system's affected branches, flowing severity, prognosis, and available treatment approaches [2]. Primary immunodeficiencies are rather heterogeneous diseases that can differ significantly in laboratory and clinical phenotypes [3,4]. We can distinguish between classical (major) immunodeficiencies, which, traditionally, are associated with the phenomenon of primary immunodeficiency in humans, and minor immunodeficiencies [5]. Primary minor (mild) immunodeficiency (PMD) was described a little later and does not correspond

to or, sometimes, even contradict, classical immunodeficiencies in terms of the main associated clinical and laboratory phenomena [6]. PMDs destroy the established stereotype of primary immunodeficiencies as rare diseases with early mortality and dramatically severe morbidity. They are quite common in the population, become a part of routine practice, can clinically debut at any age, and are accompanied by moderate or even mild clinical symptoms [7]. At the same time, the terms minor and mild are used by various research groups as synonyms, denoting the same immunological phenomenon.

Thus, PMDs are common diseases of the immune system in the population with a variable course and heterogeneous clinical picture that do not correspond to the established ideas about primary immunodeficiencies as a phenomenon.

Authors who have published reports on PMD sometimes used such epithets as forgotten [8], ignored [9], or underestimated [10] immune system disease. However, research results show that PMDs contribute significantly to the morbidity of modern humans and form a great burden on the state and society, causing numerous immunodependent clinical manifestations and associated financial costs.

The first PMDs were described much later than a number of classical genetically determined immune diseases. In 1969, Cain et al. described selective IgE deficiency in patients with chronic sinopulmonary infections [7]. While selective natural killer (NK) deficiency was reported by Portaro et al. [11]. Litzman et al. in 1995 first used the term “minor immunodeficiency” to refer to deficiencies of certain subpopulations of T-lymphocytes, IgA, IgM, and components of the complement system (C3 and C4) in patients who often suffered from infectious episodes [6]. However, the term “minor anomaly of the immune system” was used by Vel’tishchev [12]. Instead, the term “mild immunodeficiency” was initially used by Van Kessel et al. in 1999 to refer to cases of selective IgG1 subclass deficiency [13]. Today, these terms are still occasionally relevant: in 2018, Janssen et al. used “mild hypogammaglobulinemia” to describe that even a small decrease in serum immunoglobulin concentrations can have severe consequences to a patient’s health [14]. In 2023, Catli et al. used “mild immunodeficiency” to describe clinical consequences of a new homozygous STAT5B mutation [15].

Currently, diagnostic and therapeutic approaches must be developed to improve the detection and clinical consequences of PMD, which would affect the frequency and severity of associated immunodependent human diseases. Therefore, there is a need to systematize data on human PMD by forming a generalized scientific concept that would regulate the classification of these diseases, describe the range of associated manifestations, and provide algorithms for their diagnostics and treatment.

The aim of the current study was to collect, analyze, and summarize the accumulated evidence on the etiology, epidemiology, diversity, clinical manifestations, diagnosis, and treatment of PMD in humans to synthesize a scientific concept for theoretical and practical medicine on the diagnosis and treatment of associated immunodependent syndromes.

2. Materials and methods

Selection process. A systematic review of scientific publications from peer-reviewed medical journals indexed in the electronic scientometric bibliographic refer-

ence databases such as PubMed (MEDLINE) and SCOPUS for the period from 1960 to 2025 was conducted as a two-stage process. At the first stage of systematic search, the keywords “minor” or “mild immunodeficiency” were used, which were combined in any order with additional keywords such as “etiology”, “pathogenesis”, “epidemiology”, “clinical picture”, “diagnosis”, and “treatment.”

Firstly, 2937 research papers that met the above selection criteria were selected. Then, constructing the final reference list for this systematic review, most of the initially selected publications were removed in the course of further research.

Based on the data from the first stage of the search, it was possible to formulate a working definition of PMD, criteria for separating PMD from classical immunodeficiencies used by research groups, and to define a list of nosological forms that can be defined as PMD.

Thus, the following criteria for identifying primary immunodeficiency as a minor disease of the immune system were applied (based on results of scientific publications from the last 65 years—inclusion criteria):

- 1) High frequency in the population, which contradicts the established notion of primary immunodeficiencies as rare diseases;
- 2) Damage to only one immune factor;
- 3) The possibility of debuting at any age, not only in childhood;
- 4) The possibility of an asymptomatic course throughout ontogenesis in at least 20% of patients;
- 5) Variable clinical course with periods of asymptotic nature of varying duration with sudden clinical manifestation, heterogeneous in nature, severity, and duration;
- 6) Heterogeneous clinical picture, which differs in both the closest relatives from the same family with the same immunodeficiency, and in the patient himself at different periods of his ontogenesis;
- 7) Mild clinical manifestation, indistinguishable from clinical immune-dependent lesions in immunocompetent individuals in routine clinical practice;
- 8) Presence of reports of spontaneous resolution of clinical symptoms;
- 9) Presence of reports of unpredictable prognosis or favorable prognosis;
- 10) Presence of reports of unexpected complications;
- 11) Presence of reports of sudden unexpected death;
- 12) Presence of some signs of selective advantage in individuals with immunodeficiency;
- 13) Presence of a historical period of ignoring the immunodeficiency as an “insignificant” disease.

Immunodeficiency was considered minor in published papers if at least 9 of the 13 proposed criteria were met (all nosological units from panel 1 correspond to at least 9 of 13 criteria).

At the second stage of systemic scientific search such obtained at the first stage key words as “transient hypogammaglobulinemia of infancy”, “unclassified hypogammaglobulinemia”, “selective immunoglobulin’s (Ig) deficiencies (IgM, IgA, IgG, IgE, IgD)”, “myeloperoxidase deficiency (MPOD)”, “eosinophilic peroxidase deficiency (EPOD)”, “mannose binding lectin deficiency”, “deficiency of serine proteases associated with mannose binding lectin”, “NK-cell deficiency”, “NKT-

cell deficiency”, “CD16 molecule deficiency”, “CD8 molecule deficiency (CD8D)”, “CD64 molecule deficiency (CD64D)”, “idiopathic CD4+ T-cell lymphopenia”, “chronic idiopathic neutropenia”, “familial benign neutropenia (FBN)”, and “cyclic neutropenia (CyN)” were used. These words were combined in any order with key words such as “etiology”, “pathogenesis”, “epidemiology”, “clinical picture”, “diagnosis”, and “treatment.”

The second stage of the search allowed us to study the main clinical attributes of various nosological forms of PMD, previously identified at the first stage of the search, such as etiology, epidemiology, clinical picture, diagnosis, and treatment, which became separate chapters of this systematic review, demonstrating the diversity of the phenomenon of PMD in humans.

Exclusion criteria were: less than 9 of the 13 proposed criteria were met, no asymptomatic course of disease, high rate of death in the childhood period without substitutional treatment or bone marrow transplantation, and no publication about immunodeficiency in the past 2000 years.

Risk of bias assessment was associated with the absence of placebo-controlled randomized trials, meta-analysis, and systematic reviews dedicated to some PMDs, a low number of publications about some form of PMDs, no consensus diagnostic criteria for some PMDs, and controversial data about some PMDs.

Data extraction. Descriptions of single clinical cases, if they were not of historical or situational value, were removed from the final reference list due to the low level of evidence presented. Letters to the editor, articles commenting on other publications and responses to these comments, publications not in English, papers without access to the full text, studies with duplicate results, and papers which used outdated diagnostic methods (such as the rosette method for the diagnosis of cellular immune deficiencies) that cast doubt on the accuracy of immune diagnosis and the authors’ conclusions were removed. Preference was given to articles published within the last decade, which reflect the latest and most relevant data in the field of immunodiagnosics. However, given the absence of previous systematic analyses on the problem of primary minor immunodeficiencies in humans, we still tried to reflect a holistic picture of the accumulated evidence and experience in diagnosis and treatment over the entire available search period. Since publications on some diseases of the immune system are extremely unevenly represented in different decades. So artificially limiting the search to a relatively short period of time would inevitably lead to a distortion of information, representing a reductionist approach. The quality of the publication was of fundamental importance in selecting the article for the final list of references, in particular, the research design, methods of statistical analysis, informative and relevant laboratory diagnostic methods, and the availability of adequate illustrative material to demonstrate the primary material. All the figures in this review are not borrowed, but obtained from the author’s own archives, reflecting his personal clinical experience in the diagnosis of primary minor immunodeficiencies in humans.

Only 424 references (meta-analyses and systematic reviews, population-based studies, controlled clinical trials, retrospective case series, and in-depth literature reviews based on relevant clinical trials and reports) became the base of the current research.

3. Results

3.1. Differences between major and minor immunodeficiencies

There are more similarities than differences between major and minor immunodeficiencies. The similarity of PMD and classical immunodeficiency is the affection of the immune system, genetic origin, pentad of main immunodeficient syndromes (infectious, allergic, autoimmune, immunoinflammatory, oncological) as clinical manifestation, approaches to laboratory evaluation, the immunological phenotype, and susceptibility to immunotherapy and bone marrow transplantation as treatment strategies in general.

So, knowledge of fundamental differences between them is essential in correctly interpreting clinical and laboratory data in patients with immunodeficient pathology (Table 1), which became a way to determine a patient's management strategy.

3.2. PMD etiology

PMDs are genetically caused and are quite heterogeneous. They can be caused by chromosomal aberrations [9], mendelian mutations in structural genes [25], regulatory gene mutations [26], and pathogenic polymorphic single-nucleotide substitutions [27]. Some immunodeficiencies (like EPOD) are caused by a single mutation in the EPO gene [25]. Others are a collective group of genetically different immune system

Table 1. Comparative characteristics of major and minor immunodeficiencies.

Feature	Major immunodeficiency	Minor immunodeficiency
Known pathologies	Over 400	About 30
Affected immune factors	Involved a lot of factors such as all classes of Ig in X-linked agammaglobulinemia [16].	Usually, a single factor is affected. For example, there is deficiency of only IgA or IgM molecules. It is selective [17] or isolated [18] immunodeficiency.
Symptoms severity	A severe, life-threatening clinical phenotype, usually, signs' complex consists of heterogeneous overlapping immunodeficient syndromes with a predominance of invasive infections.	Variable phenotype with a wide range of manifestations: from asymptomatic and mild (such as EPOD) [19] to severe (such as idiopathic CD4 ⁺ T-cell lymphocytopenia) [20]. However, mostly single syndromes of immunodeficient manifestations (autoimmunity, allergy, etc.) prevail over the infectious syndrome.
Clinical course	Continuous, progressive with frequent relapses, tendency to form severe chronic inflammatory and oncological lesions, and early mortality.	Variable, with alternating periods of exacerbations and remissions, varying in nature, severity and duration, often with the usual endurance of patients
Frequency in population	Less than a 1 percent	About 20% (see Table 3)
Asymptomatic course possibility	Rare. Atypical mild forms of X-linked agammaglobulinemia [16]; atypical Chédiak–Higashi syndrome (10% of all cases in childhood but lead to delayed neurodegeneration) [21].	At least 20% cases according to results of clinical trial dedicated to the structure of clinical manifestation—for selective IgA deficiency [22], selective IgM deficiency [17], and idiopathic CD4 ⁺ T-cell lymphocytopenia [20].
Debut of symptoms	In early childhood. For example, combined and cellular immune deficiencies debut immediately after birth; X-linked agammaglobulinemia—in 6 months after birth after maternal trans-placental antibodies catabolism [4].	From early childhood to old age. For example, Endoh et al. reported that selective IgM deficiency (17 mg/dl) signs debut at the age of 85 years [23] – so called the “late onset mild immunodeficiency in the elderly” [24].
Typical clinical symptoms	Basically, a typical phenotype is observed. But not always. For example, the triad of ataxia, telangiectasia, and immunodeficiency in Louis–Barr syndrome [5].	Heterogeneous and variable nonspecific clinical courses differ even in close relatives. Common immunodeficient syndromes from routine practice which have no specific signs for a particular immunodeficiency.
Outcome	Unfavorable without specific treatment.	Often favorable but can be unpredictable—“unpredictable outcome” [17].

diseases with a common laboratory phenotype. For example, selective IgA deficiency can be caused by multiple mutations in different genes [28], while CyN can be caused by multiple mutations in a single gene—ELANE [29–31]—“*multigenerational patterns of inheritance consistent with single gene*” [32]. The same immunodeficiencies can be caused by different mutations, while the same mutation can cause different immunophenotypes in different patients. So, mutations in the TACI gene can manifest as selective IgA deficiency and combine IgA and IgG deficiency, common variable immunodeficiency, and a syndrome resembling common variable immunodeficiency (so-called unclassified hypogammaglobulinemia) [33]. The phenotype of primary immunodeficiency can change even in the same individual at different periods of ontogenesis: the progression of selective IgA deficiency to common variable immune deficiency is well known [34]. So, Sgrulletti et al. talked about different evolutionary scenarios of immunodeficiency development throughout human ontogenesis [35].

Among PMD, autosomal dominant (AD) [36] and autosomal recessive (AR) inheritance [25] as well as X-linked transmission to offspring [16], and even cases of codominant inheritance [37] were described. A part of PMD patients are compound heterozygotes [38,39]. It has been described in functional hemizygoty [40] and haploinsufficiency [41] cases. Certain PMDs have a non-Mendelian type of inheritance: primary mannose-binding lectin deficiency (MBLD) requires a combination of a single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) in the promoter region with several pathogenic polymorphic single nucleotide substitutions in MBL2 structural genes [42]. Epigenetic regulation processes, including the methylation mechanisms disorders, can affect the penetrance of a pathological gene in some PMDs like selective IgA deficiency [43], NK deficiency [44], or primary neutropenias [45] (Table 2).

Table 2. Genetic nature of some primary minor immunodeficiencies.

Immunodeficiency	Type of immunity	Branch of immune system	Characterized genetic nature	Inheritance type
Neutrophil MPOD	Innate	Phagocytosis	Significant heterogeneity. Classical missense mutation R569W [36], mutations Y173C, M251T, and 14-base deletion in exon 9 [39]; SNP (single nucleotide polymorphism) –453G/A in the MPO gene [27] in Europe; nonsynonymous mutation R499C of the MPO gene in Japan [46]; bigenic model of inheritance [37].	AD; AR; codominant
EPOD	Innate	Phagocytosis	Transition 2060G > A in the EPO gene [25].	AR
FBN (constitutional [FCN] and ethnic [FEN])	Innate	Phagocytosis	SNP –67T > C in the DARC gene (duffy antigen receptor for chemokines) [47,48].	AD
CyN	Innate	Phagocytosis	Multigenerational patterns of inheritance are consistent with a single ELANE (elastase neutrophil expressed) or ELA2 (elastase 2) gene. However, ELANE deletion (c.224 + (4_19)del16) is characterized better [49].	AD, AR, X-linked
CD64D	Innate	Phagocytosis	C > T substitution in exon 1, codon 92 of the hFc gamma R1A (human Fcγ receptor I) gene [50].	Not specified
NK cell deficiency (NKD)	Innate	Cellular	Significant heterogeneity. Mutations in receptors—FCG3RA3 (Fcγ receptor type III), in transcription proteins—GATA2 (GATA binding protein 2), IRF8 (interferon regulatory factor 8), in the cell cycle—RTEL1 (regulator of telomere elongation helicase 1), GINS1 (GINS Complex Subunit 1), MCM4 (mini-chromosome maintenance complex component 4) [51], in signal protein PLCG2 (phospholipase C gamma 2) [41], NK cells' actin cytoskeleton [52], and epigenetic regulation disorders [53].	AD (GATA2); AR (FCG3RA3, IRF8, RTEL1, GINS1, MCM4) with variable penetrance due to epigenetic factors influence

Table 2. (Continued).

Immunodeficiency	Type of immunity	Branch of immune system	Characterized genetic nature	Inheritance type
NKT cell deficiency (NKTD)	Innate	Cellular	Mutations in the Nkt1 locus on chromosome 1 are associated with partial deficiency of NKT cells in SLE, Nkt2 on chromosome 2—in type 1 diabetes mellitus (T1DM), and on chromosome 18—with total deficiency of NKT cells [54] and with epigenetic regulation disorders [53].	AD, AR with variable penetrance due to epigenetic factors
Deficiency of the CD16 molecule (CD16D)	Innate	Cellular	T to A substitution at position 230 in fcγ receptor of the IIIa gene (Fcγ RIIIA-48H/H) [55], L66H substitution in the FcγRIIIA gene [56], c.526G>T (p.V176F) polymorphisms in exon 4 and c.197T>A (p.L66H) polymorphisms in exon 3 [57].	AR
THI	Acquired	Humoral	Significant heterogeneity. From SIgAD to common variable immunodeficiency. In many cases, the genetic basis is not characterized (UH).	Not specified
UH	Acquired	Humoral	Genetic basis not characterized	Not installed
Selective IgM deficiency (SIgMD)	Acquired	Humoral	Chromosomal deletion 2q11.2 [9].	Congenital disease
Selective IgA deficiency (SIgAD)	Acquired	Humoral	Significant heterogeneity. Trisomy X chromosome [58], deletions and SNPs of the constant region of IgA heavy chain (immunoglobulin heavy chain constant region alpha, IGαHC) [59]; some chromosomal abnormalities (abnormalities of the 18th chromosome, trisomy of the 10th chromosome, translocation of 10q to 4p, etc.) [60]; mutations/polymorphisms of TNFRSF13B (tumor necrosis factor receptor superfamily, member 13B) or TACI gene (transmembrane activator and calcium-modulating cyclophilin ligand interaction), gene regulation disorders in C4A-21-OHA deletion [61], methylation effect on expression [43].	Mostly AD with variable penetrance due to the influence of epigenetic factors
Selective IgA1 subclass deficiency (SIgA1D)	Acquired	Humoral	Heavy-chain deletions of α-1 gene (delIGα ₁ HC) [62].	Mostly AD with variable penetration
Selective IgA2 subclass deficiency (SIgA2D)	Acquired	Humoral	Heavy-chain deletions of α-2 gene (delIGα ₂ HC) [62].	Mostly AD with variable penetration
Selective secretory IgA deficiency (SsIgAD)	Acquired	Humoral	Mutations of the polymorphic epithelial cell immunoglobulin receptor (pIgR), including the A580V missense mutation [63].	Mostly AD with variable penetration
Selective IgG subclass deficiency (SIgGSD: SIgG1D, SIgG2D, SIgG3D, SIgG4D)	Acquired	Humoral	Deletions of the constant region of the IgG1-4 heavy chain genes (delIGγHC) [59] and SNPs in IGγHC in combination with HLA-D in IgG4 deficiency [64].	Mostly AD with variable penetration
Selective IgE deficiency (SIgED)	Acquired	Humoral	SNPs of the regulatory gene AICDA (activation-induced cytidine deaminase) 5923A/G and 7888C/T [26].	AD
Deficiency of specific (antipolysaccharide) antibodies (SAD, SPAD)	Acquired	Humoral	Mainly, it was not identified. Hypomorphic mutations c.125 A > G in RAG1 gene (recombination activating gene 1) and c1342-3delCT, pSer381Terfs*1; c683G > A, pGly95Arg in the RAG2 gene [65].	Not specified
Combined deficiencies of immunoglobulin classes/subclasses	Acquired	Humoral	A combination of deletions IGγ ₂ HC, IGγ ₄ HC, IGα ₁ HC, IGεHC [66], IGγ ₁ HC, IGγ ₃ HC, IGεHC [67], and others.	Not specified
Idiopathic CD4+ T-cell lymphocytopenia (ICD4+TL)	Acquired	Cellular	Nonsense mutation c.C49T:p.Q17X in the ITK gene (IL2 inducible T Cell kinase) [68]; dominant-negative missense mutation V22G in Unc119 gene (lipid binding chaperone) [69].	AR; AD
CD8D	Acquired	Cellular	Misense gly90>ser mutation in the CD8α gene [70] and p.Gly111Ser mutation in CD8α gene [71].	AR
MBLD	Innate	Complement system	Combination of promoter SNPs –550 (H/L) or –221 (XY) and SNPs in structural genes R52C, G54D and G57E of the MBL2 gene [42].	AD

Table 2. (Continued).

Immunodeficiency	Type of immunity	Branch of immune system	Characterized genetic nature	Inheritance type
MBL-associated serine protease 2 deficiency (MASP2D)	Innate	Complement system	SNP D120G of the MASP2 gene [72].	AR
C6 deficiency (C6D)	Innate	Complement system	Deletions 1195delC, 1936delG of the C6 gene (in African Americans) and deletion 878delA of the C6 gene (in African Americans and Europeans) [73].	AR
C7 deficiency (C7D)	Innate	Complement system	Premature codon termination mutations K416 X 419 and S620 X 630 of C7, missense mutation G357R [74], missense mutation G379R and deletion of 3'UTR (c.*99_*101delTCT) of C7 gene [40].	AR
C8 deficiency (C8D)	Innate	Complement system	C8A-type I (3' Splice Site C8A) [74] and C8B-type II (p.Arg428* C8B) [75].	AR
C9 deficiency (C9D)	Innate	Complement system	Arg95Stop mutation of the C9 gene [76].	AR

3.3. PMDs epidemiology

PMDs collectively affect at least 20% of the modern world's human population (**Table 3**). Its high prevalence is facilitated by the predominant AD mode of transmission to offspring and the possibility of an asymptomatic or mildly symptomatic course for long periods. Paradoxically, advances in drug therapy are also likely to have an impact on the increasing prevalence of PMD, for example, by ensuring patient survival in severe cases of infectious lesions, as demonstrated by the case of recovery from acute *Candida meningitis* in MPOD [77].

PMDs frequency varies widely from one case per a million inhabitants in CyN (low) [78], through one case per 14 thousand people in EPOD (medium) [19], to one case per every third person in central Africa in MBLD (high frequency) [79,80] (**Table 3**).

Table 3. Prevalence and typical manifestations of PMD among modern people.

PMD	Frequency	Specific gravity	Prevalence estimate	Manifestations
THI	1:164 confirmed THI + 1:103 possible THI [93].	0.6% confirmed THI +0.9% possible THI [93].	Frequent	Broad clinical phenotype
UH	4/5 patients with a primary diagnosis of THI [94].	80% of patients with a primary diagnosis of THI [94].	Frequent	Broad clinical phenotype
SIgMD	1:265 for Iran [95], 1:385 for Europe [96], 1:2216 for China [97].	0.37% for Iran [95], 0.26% for Europe [96], 0.045% for China [97].	Frequent	Broad clinical phenotype
SIgG1D	1:26 in Europe [98].	3.8% in Europe [98].	Frequent	Pyogenic respiratory infections
SIgG2D	1:28 cases among children with recurrent respiratory infections [99].	3.5% of cases among children with recurrent respiratory infections [99].	Frequent	Pyogenic respiratory infections
SIgG3D	1:25 cases among children with recurrent respiratory infections [99].	4% of cases among children with recurrent respiratory infections [99].	Frequent	Viral respiratory infections
SIgG4D	1:400 in Europe [64].	0.25% in Europe [64].	Frequent	Pyogenic respiratory infections or asymptomatic
SIgAD	1:160–1:500 in Europe and the USA [100], 1:2000–1:4000 in China [88].	0.06–0.2% in Europe and the USA [100], 0.05–0.025% in China [88].	Frequent	Broad clinical phenotype
SIgED	1:30 in Europe and the USA [101,102,103].	3% in Europe and the USA [101,102,103].	Extremely frequent	Broad clinical phenotype

Table 3. (Continued).

PMD	Frequency	Specific gravity	Prevalence estimate	Manifestations
SIgDD	1:12–1:14 in Europe [104].	8–9% in Europe [104].	Extremely frequent	Mainly, asymptomatic
MBLD	1:10–1:20 in Europe [86], 1:3 in central Africa [79,80].	5–10% in Europe [86], 35% in central Africa [79,80].	Extremely frequent	Broad clinical phenotype
SPAD	1:9–1:1.6 in groups of patients with recurrent pneumococcal infections [65].	11–60% in groups of patients with recurrent pneumococcal infections [65].	Frequent	Recurrent pneumococcal infections
MASP2D	1:25 among the population of Europe, up to 1:6 in some regions of Africa [105].	4% among the population of Europe, up to 18% in some regions of Africa [105].	Extremely frequent	Bacterial infections (pneumococcal pneumonia, pulmonary tuberculosis, skin abscesses, sepsis), systemic lupus erythematosus, interstitial lung disease
FBN	1:2–1:4 in Africans, 1:22 in African Americans, 1:9 in Arabs, 1:8 in Yemeni Jews, 1:6 in black Ethiopian Jews, less than 1:100 in general US population [89].	25–50% in Africans, 4.5% in African Americans, 10.7% in Arabs, 11.8% in Yemeni Jews, 15.4% in black Ethiopian Jews, <1% in the general US population [89].	Frequent	Persistent periodontitis, recurrent oral candidiasis, recurrent neutropenic ulceration of the oral mucosa, agranulocytosis to certain medications
CIN	1–2:1 000000 [106]	0.0001–0.0002% [106]	Rare	Recurrent bacterial respiratory, urinary, and gastrointestinal infections; agranulocytosis to certain medicines
CyN	1:1 000000 [78]	0.0001% [78]	Rare	Periodical hyperthermia with bacterial urinary, gastrointestinal, and respiratory infections with 21-day cycle
EPOD	1:14,000 in Europe [19]	0.007% in Europe [19].	Medium	Mostly asymptomatic
C6D	C6Q0 is 1:1600 among African Americans and 1:40,000 among Europeans [73].	C6Q0—0.06% among African Americans and 0.0025% among Europeans [73].	Medium	Invasive Neisseria infections
C7D	1:24273 in Japan [40,107]	0.0041% in Japan [40, 107]	Medium	Invasive Neisseria infections
C8D	For C8A 1:36410 in Japan [75].	For C8A 0.0027% in Japan [75].	Medium	Invasive Neisseria infections
C9D	1:1000 (homozygous) [21] and 1:15 (heterozygous mutation) [76] in Japan.	0.1% (homozygous) [21] and 6.7% (heterozygous mutation) [76] in Japan.	Frequent	Invasive Neisseria infections
MPOD	1:2000–1:4000 in Europe and the USA [36], 1:10,000 in Japan [83].	0.05–0.025% in Europe and the USA [36] and 0.01% in Japan [83].	Medium	Invasive Candidiasis
ICD4+TL	1:400 in Europe [108].	0.25% in Europe [108].	Frequent	Herpesvirus infections, toxoplasmosis, atypical mycobacteriosis, JCV, histoplasmosis, and pneumocystis
CD8D	1:250 among Gypsies [71]	0.4% among Gypsies [71]	Frequent	Recurrent respiratory infections with the formation of pneumosclerosis

The heterogeneity in the PMD spread in different world regions is due to the founder and selective advantage effects [81]. The founder effect indicates an increased incidence of immunodeficiencies in the region of mutation origin, especially in the practice of consanguineous marriages, and an abnormally low incidence in other populations, especially if they are close to interbreeding with representatives of other regions. The founder effect is well observed in MPOD, which occurs with an abnormally high frequency in the Brescia [82] and Friuli–Venezia Giulia [82] Italy regions (one case per 500 inhabitants), and is rare in Japan (1:10,000) [83]. The effect of selective advantage indicates that the abnormal accumulation of a particular PMD in a region may contribute to some minority positive health effects that can paradoxically be provided by immunodeficiencies. This effect is clear in MBLD. It is actual for 30% central Africans [79,80] and reduces the severity of pulmonary tuberculosis [84], meningitis [79], and schistosomiasis [85]. For the world population, it is in the range of 5–10% [86].

PMD prevalence is dependent on geographical, ethnic, racial, age, and gender factors. Japan, as a geographically isolated area, has a significantly different prevalence of immunodeficiencies [83,87]. Chinese people have a lower frequency of SIgAD compared to Europeans [88]. It was found that the differences in FBN frequency for different ethnic groups [89]. C6D frequency is 1:1600 among African Americans and 1:40,000 for Europeans [73]. SIgG2D is more common among children, and SIgG3D in adults [90]. NKD can be more severe in women due to estrogen influence [91]. The women demonstrate an increasing serum IgD level compared to men [92].

3.4. PMD classification

PMDs can be independent and isolated genetic diseases [109,110]. They can also be a component of other genetic diseases with a broader phenotype. PMD, as an isolated disease, is the recent report by Hua et al. of a case of SIgAD in a 48-year-old patient with multiple autoimmune disorders—hemolytic anemia, systemic lupus erythematosus, and Hashimoto’s thyroiditis [111]. PMD, as a component of a broader genetic disease, was reported by Chaushu et al.: SIgAD in patients with Down syndrome, which results in recurrent upper respiratory and gastrointestinal infections [112]. Abnormally reduced IgA levels in parotid gland secretions were observed in at least 83% of patients with Down syndrome ($p < 0.001$) [112]. Jeraiby et al. showed that in Down syndrome, 69.57% IgG4 deficiency exists [113]. An additional deletion of IGHG4 is noted, which causes this immunodeficiency [113]. PMDs can affect systemic (most diseases) or local (SsIgAD) immunities [113]. There are quantitative (FBN) [114] and qualitative, or functional immunodeficiencies (MPOD) [115]. The same cellular immunodeficiency can be quantitative and qualitative depending on the causative mutation: “classical” NKD (cNKD) (GATA2 mutation) and “functional” NKD (fNKD) (FCG3RA3 mutation) [51]. PMD can be divided according to the affected immune system branch: phagocytosis [83], natural killer cells (cellular component of innate immunity) [51], T-lymphocytes (cellular component of adaptive immunity) [20], complement system [116], and immunoglobulins [117] (Panel 1). PMDs can be compensated (asymptomatic) [12], subcompensated (low-symptomatic “mild symptoms”[20]), and decompensated (clinically manifest; most described

cases). Partial and total PMDs can be distinguished by the depth of the decrease in the number of immune factors affected. Jamee et al. substantiated the distinction between total (serum IgA <7 mg/dL—“*selective IgA deficiency*” [SIgAD]) and partial IgA deficiency (PIgAD—serum IgA concentration is less than the lower limit but above 7 mg/dL) show that both forms of immunodeficiency are due to an abnormally increased number of autoimmune polyendocrinopathies [118]. Sometimes, complete immunodeficiency forms were distinguished if the amount of the investigated immune factor was non [119]. Among partial immunodeficiencies, some authors distinguished subtotal (“*subtotal C6 and C7 deficiencies*” by Orren—C6SD and C7SD) as opposed to total C6 and C7 deficiencies (C6Q0, C7Q0) [120] and subnormal (“*subnormal IgG2 deficiency*”) [121,122] forms (**Figure 1**). It is also advisable to distinguish between temporary, or transient [123] (such as transient hypogammaglobulinemia of infancy) [117] and permanent, or persistent [123] PMDs (most diseases). It can be fixed by a combination of several PMDs in one person (*combined immunodeficiencies* [66] such as “*combined C6D/C7D*” [120]). There are combinations of primary classical immunodeficiency and PMD (for example, DiGeorge syndrome and MPOD [124], Leukocyte adhesion molecules deficiency type III and NKD [125], or C2 deficiency and C8BD [126]), but no specific term for these cases has been proposed yet, except the term “complex immunodeficiency” by Wawrzycka-Adamczyk K. et al. [127]. Sometimes PMD mimics secondary immunodeficiencies [128]. According to symptom dynamics, it is possible to distinguish between cyclic immune deficiencies (CyN with 21-day cycles of manifestation) [49] and immune deficiencies with irregular manifestations (most diseases). No term has been proposed for PMDs that a patient has acquired after allogeneic bone marrow transplantation, as these are both genetic diseases that meet the criteria for primary immunodeficiency and acquired diseases that meet the criteria for secondary immunodeficiency [129] (**Table 4**).

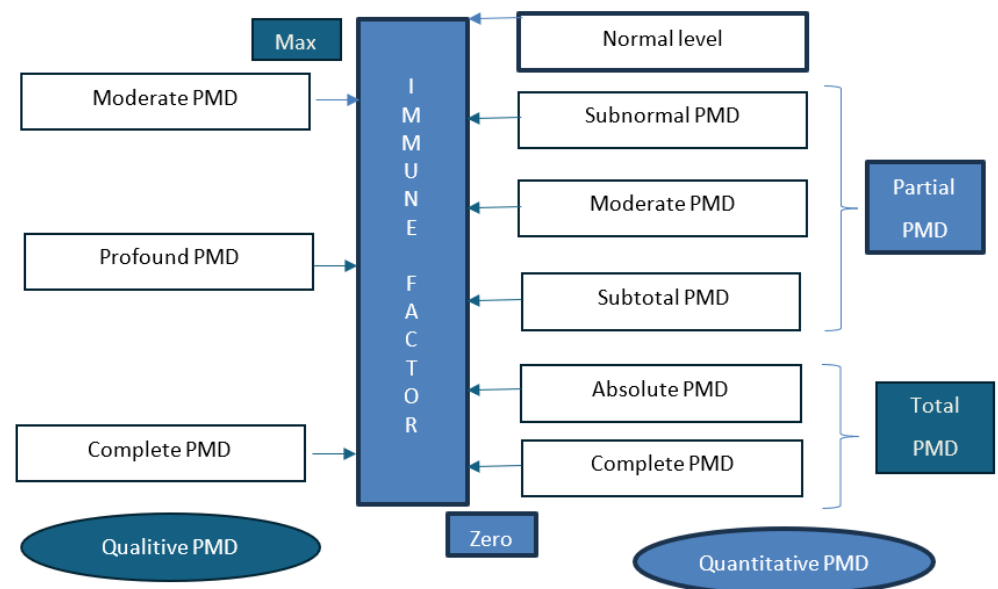


Figure 1. Correlation of different forms of quantitative and qualitative PMD by the depth of deficiency of the affected immune factor.

Table 4. Synopsys of proposed PMD classifications rubrics demonstrating diseases—clinical and laboratory variety.

№	Classification rubric	Variety
1	By origin of the disease	– Hereditary, inborn (congenital), acquired
2	By the affected form of immunity	– Diseases of inborn and adaptive (acquired) immunity
3	By affected branch of immunity	– Cellular, humoral
4	By affected immune factor/factors	More than 30 immunodeficiencies with titles according to name of affected immune factor (see panel 1)
5	By family history	familial, sporadic
6	By time of debut	Intrauterine, at the day of birth, early onset (pediatric-onset), late onset (adult-onset), elderly onset
7	By frequency in population	Rare, medium, frequent
8	By genetic nature	According to mendelian laws of inheritance:
		– Mendelian and non-mendelian
		– According to type of inheritance:
		– AD, AR, X-linked, codominant
		– According to number of affected genes:
		– Monogenic, bigenic, polygenic
		– According to type of genetic anomaly:
		– Chromosome aberrations, structure genes mutations, SNPs, mutations in immunoregulatory genes, epigenetic disorders
		– According to pattern of genotype-phenotype relationships:
		– Monogenerational patterns of inheritance consistent with single gene, multigenerational patterns of inheritance consistent with single gene, multigenerational patterns of inheritance consistent with different genes
		According to character of clinical manifestation:
		– Asymptomatic and symptomatic (minor infections, allergic, autoimmune, oncological and severe phenotypes)
		– According to number of clinical syndromes:
		– Clinically isolated (monosyndromic) or combined (olygo-, polysyndromic; mono-, polymodal)
		– According to predominant affected compartment:
		– Cutaneous, oral, gastroenterological, respiratory etc.
		– According to predominant of associated nosological unit:
		– PMDs in systemic lupus erythematosus, bronchial asthma, leukemias, sarcoidosis, COVID-19 etc.
		– Quantitative (numerical) and qualitative (functional)
		– Total and partial (for quantitative), total: complete and absolute; partial: subtotal, moderate and subnormal
		– complete, profound, moderate (for qualitative)
10	By depth of the immune factor damage	
11	By severity of the patient's condition	– Mild, moderate and severe (don't correspond to depth of the immune factor damage)
12	By duration of immunological phenotype existence	– Persistent and transitory
13	By evolutionary scenario of development	– Newly diagnosed, progressive, chronic, oscillating, normalizing, reversible (reversal)
14	By regularity of the disease manifestation	Irregular, regular (cyclic)
15	By spread of immune system damage	– Systemic and local (skin and mucosal)
16	By combination with other diseases	– Isolated (selective), combined (complex)
17	By curability	Treatable, non-treatable
18	By specific rubrics	Different in each disease

Panel 1: Classification of PMD in humans, taking into account both the affected branch of the immune system and affected immune factor

I. Disorders of the cellular branch of innate immunity

A) Quantitative:

(a) Neutrophil disorders:

- Familial benign [47,89,114,130,131] (constitutional, ethnic) [132–134] neutropenia (FBN, FCN, FEN), or “*Duffy null neutrophil count*” [78,135–137] or “*Duffy null phenotype*” [138];
- Chronic idiopathic neutropenia (CIN) [139–141], or chronic primary neutropenia [142–144];
- CyN [49,145–147], or ELANE-related neutropenia [148,149].

(b) Disorders of monocytes:

- Primary monocytopenia (PM) [150].

(c) Disorders of eosinophils:

- Chronic idiopathic eosinopenia (CIE) [151–153].

(d) Disorders of lymphocytes:

- Natural killer cell deficiency (NKD) [51,154–156];
- Natural killer T-cell deficiency (NKTD) [157–159];
- CD16 molecule deficiency (CD16D) [55,119].

B) Qualitative:

- Neutrophil MPOD [115];
- EPOD [19];
- CD64D [50];
- Primary perforin deficiency (PPD) [160].

II. Disorders of the humoral branch of innate immunity

- Deficiency of proteins of the complement system [161,162], primarily the terminal components of the cascade that form the membrane-attacking complex [163]—C6D [116], C7D [40,164], C8D [165], C9D [87];
- Mannose binding protein (lectin) deficiency (MBLD) [86,166,167,168];
- Mannose binding lectin associated serine protease 2 deficiency (MASP2D) [169];

III. Disorders of the cellular branch of adaptive immunity

- Idiopathic CD4⁺ T-cell lymphocytopenia (ICD4+TL) [15,108, 170,–172], or so-called “AIDS without HIV” [173,174,175];
- CD8D [70].

IV. Disorders of the humoral branch of adaptive immunity

A) Hypogammaglobulinemias:

- Transient hypogammaglobulinemia of infancy (THI) [117,176–179];
- Unclassified hypogammaglobulinemia (UH) [14,176,180];

B) Dysimmunoglobulinemias:

(a) Selective isotype deficiencies [181]:

- Selective (isolated) IgM deficiency (SIgMD) [182–184];
- Selective (isolated) IgG deficiency (SIgGD) [185];
- Selective (isolated) IgA deficiency (SIgAD) [186–188];
- Selective (isolated) secretory IgA deficiency (SsIgAD) [189];

- Selective (isolated) IgE deficiency (SIgED) [190–193], or “very low IgE producer” [194], or “undetectable serum IgE” [195], “ultra-low IgE” [196], “very low IgE” [197], or “low IgE” [198].
- Selective (isolated) IgD deficiency (SIgDD) [104];
- (b) Selective subclass deficiencies [181]:
 - Selective (isolated) IgG subclass deficiencies (SIgGSD) [99,199–201]: SIgG1D [13], SIgG2D [121,202], SIgG3D [203], SIgG4D [64,204];
 - Selective (isolated) IgA subclasses deficiencies (SIgASD) [205]: SIgA1D [206], SIgA2D [207];
- (c) Qualitative immunoglobulin deficiency [208]:
 - Selective specific antibodies deficiency (SSAD) [209,210], including anti-polysaccharide antibodies (selective anti-polysaccharide antibodies deficiency, SPAD) [211,212];
 - Impaired glycosylation of IgA1 [147], or galactosa-deficient IgA1 [213].
- (d) Other dysimmunoglobulinemias:
 - Combined deficiencies of immunoglobulins of different classes and/or subclasses, such as combined IgA1, IgG2, IgG4, and IgE deficiencies in two siblings caused by deletions of the constant regions of heavy chains [66].

3.5. PMD clinical manifestations

PMDs are characterized by heterogeneous clinical pictures (so-called “different faces” [214]) and variable clinical course [115,215]. Asymptomatic PMD periods are associated with compensation mechanisms inside the immune system. In SIgAD, sometimes natural IgM molecules can be compensatory increased [216]. IgG and IgM cooperate in coating of intestinal bacteria in SIgAD [217]. NKT can compensate ICD4+TL in some cases [218]. The thesis of lifelong asymptomatic clinical course as a representative sign of PMD was refuted by Koskinen et al., who found that severe immune-dependent lesions develop during long-term follow-up in at least of 80% cases in initially asymptomatic blood donors with SIgAD [22].

Six key principles are applied to PMD: universality, heterogeneity, variability, non-linearity, non-specificity, and ambivalence (**Figure 2**).

The clinical picture of PMD is compound and includes at least four different levels, which are integrated as a whole clinical presentation in each case.

Level I (pentad of five main immunodependent syndromes)

PMDs are characterized by five main and five immunodependent syndromes: infectious [219–221], autoimmune [222–224], allergic [225,226], immunoinflammatory (for example, persistent immunoinflammatory enteropathy) [193], and oncological [227,228].

PMD clinical spectrum is well demonstrated by Picado et al. [193] on SIgED example: recurrent respiratory infections occurred in 34.6%, pneumonia in 30.7%, bronchiectasis in 30.7%, bronchial asthma in 19.2%, autoimmune syndromes in 34.6% (autoimmune Hashimoto’s thyroiditis of 19%, rheumatoid arthritis of 10%, and autoimmune thrombocytopenia and/or neutropenia of 5.7%), eczematous derma-

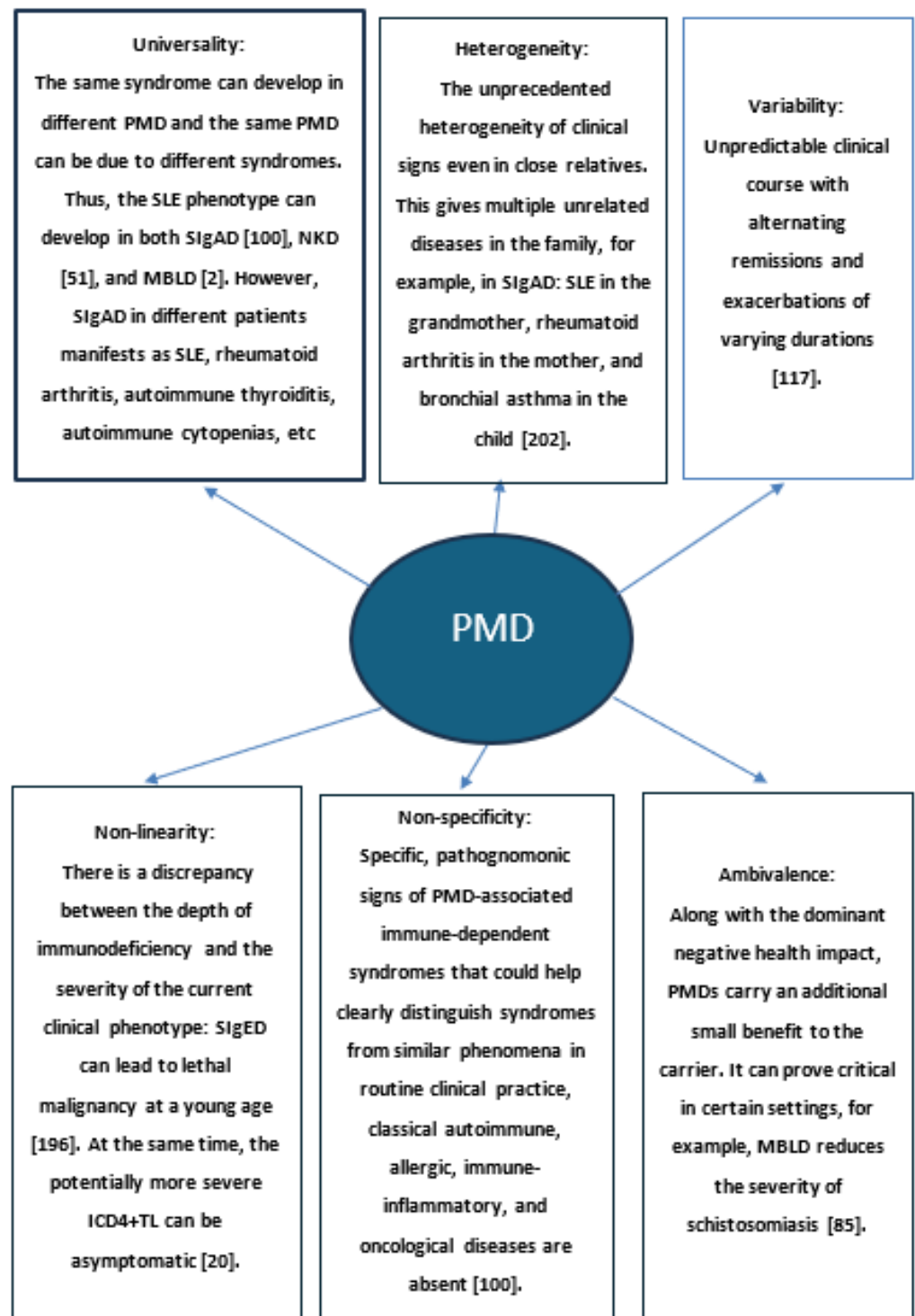


Figure 2. The main principles of PMD that will determine their peculiarity.

titis of 15.3%, chronic spontaneous urticaria of 17.3%, persistent immunoinflammatory enteropathy of 21%, and malignant neoplasms with predominance of non-Hodgkin's lymphoma of 13.4% of cases [193].

The results of a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled clinical trials prepared by Vosughimotlagh A. et al. show that in SIgAD, infectious manifestations occur in 64.8%, allergic lesions in 26.16%, and autoimmune syndromes in 22.0% of cases [188].

According to Caka et al., 24% SIgMD cases were asymptomatic, 45% had respiratory and skin infectious manifestations; in 18% autoimmune and immunoinflammatory syndromes (Behcet's syndrome, immune cytopenias, Crohn's disease, Guillain-Barré syndrome, and type 1 diabetes mellitus) were noted, allergies fixed in 15% patients, and in 9% malignant tumors diagnosed [17].

Régent et al. indicated that in patients with ICD4 + TL, opportunistic infections occur in 65% (in 50% of cases—invasive papillomavirus episodes), in 35%—autoimmune syndromes, in 12.5%—malignant tumors, and mild symptoms or asymptomatic status noted in 20% cases [20].

In the epidemiological study of 18,487 people, a close association of SIgED was fixed with bronchial tree hyper-reactivity, otitis media, and bronchial asthma in children and chronic sinusitis, autoimmune syndromes, and neoplasia in both children and adults [191].

Epidemiological study of 34,809 patients (21,875 children and 12,934 adults) demonstrated the association of SIgED and malignancies (26%) and autoimmune diseases (15.4% of cases) [197].

The development mechanisms of immunopathology in PMD are diverse. One reason for the development of allergic, autoimmune, and immunoinflammatory pathologies is the suppression of γ -IFN-mediated Th1 activity [229]. Secondary dysfunction of regulatory T-cells is also possible [229].

In PMDs, the infectious syndrome is an important, but often not such dramatic clinical phenomenon as in classical immune system diseases [230,231]. Infectious episodes may be atypical [232–236]. Some PMDs have a rather narrow spectrum of infectious manifestations, such as deficiencies of complement terminal proteins, which selectively increased the risk of meningococcal meningitis by 1000–10000 times [165], or SPAD, which developed almost exclusively pneumococcal lesions of the respiratory system [76].

Most known PMDs have a wide range of infectious manifestations. For example, MBLD develops bacterial [237], viral [238], fungal [239], and protozoal [240] lesions. Different PMDs are characterized by certain close associations with certain infectious agents such as MPOD selectively promotes the development of severe *Candida* lesions [36], NKD promotes predominantly herpes and papillomavirus infections [51], and ICD4+TL to intracellular opportunistic agents [107,108,241], such as cytomegaly, toxoplasmosis, aspergillosis, histoplasmosis, atypical mycobacteriosis, JCV and pneumocystis lesions [242–246] (**Table 5**).

Figure 3 shows the most indicative results of paraclinical studies of various organs and systems in patients with PMD from the author's own clinical practice to demonstrate the diversity, multitropy, and severity of organ and system lesions in these diseases of the immune system, as well as the absence of paraclinical pathognomonic signs.

In a population-based cohort study involving 2100 patients with SIgAD and 18,653 control persons, a significantly higher incidence of type 1 diabetes mellitus (5.9% vs. 0.57%), Crohn's disease (2.4% vs. 0.42%), ulcerative colitis (1.7% vs. 0.46%), rheumatoid arthritis (2.2% vs. 0.5%), juvenile idiopathic arthritis (0.76% vs. 0.09%), systemic lupus erythematosus (0.57% vs. 0.06%), and autoimmune thyroid

Table 5. Differences in the main microbial factors depending on the affected immune factor in PMD.

PMD	Affected immune factor	Type of immunity	Branch of immune system	Microbes
FBN, CIN, CyN	Neutrophils	Innate	Phagocytosis	<i>Staphylococcus</i> , <i>Streptococcus</i> , <i>Candida</i> spp.
MPOD	Neutrophils, monocytes	Innate	Phagocytosis	<i>Candida</i> spp.
EPOD	Eosinophils	Innate	Phagocytosis	No
NKD, NKTD, CD16D	NK, NKT-cells	Innate	Cellular	Herpesviruses, papillomaviruses
THI, UH, class and subclass deficiencies	Immunoglobulins	Acquired	Humoral	Pyogenic Gram-positive cocci
SPAD	Immunoglobulins	Acquired	Humoral	Pneumococcal infections
ICD4 + TL	T-helpers	Acquired	Cellular	Herpesviruses, <i>toxoplasmosis</i> , atypical mycobacteriosis, JCV, <i>histoplasmosis</i> , <i>pneumocystis</i>
CD8D	Cytotoxic T-cell	Acquired	Cellular	Herpesviruses, respiratory viruses, <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>
MBLD	Mannose binding lectin	Innate	Complement	<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> , <i>Streptococcus pyogenes</i> , <i>Haemophilus influenzae</i> , <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> , <i>Escherichia coli</i>
MASPD	Serin protease type 2 associated with mannose binding lectin	Innate	Complement	<i>Staphylococcus</i> spp., <i>Streptococcus</i> spp., <i>Mycobacterium tuberculosis</i>
C6D, C7D, C8D, C9D	Proteins 6, 7, 8, 9 of complement system	Innate	Complement	<i>Neisseria</i> spp.

disease (2.46% vs. 0.59%) [100]. The results of meta-analyses of randomized controlled clinical trials indicate an association of MBLD with rheumatoid arthritis [247] and systemic lupus erythematosus [2].

The results of a meta-analysis of randomized controlled clinical trials by Gao et al. indicated that MBLD doubled the risk of sepsis in children (SMD = 1.00, 95%CI = 0.35 ~ 1.65, $P = 0.003$) as an example of immunoinflammatory syndrome [248].

Speaking about the allergic syndrome in PMD, the systematic review of randomized controlled clinical trials by Borta et al. indicated the development of atopic bronchial asthma in patients with MBLD [249].

Controlled studies indicated an association of SIgED with malignancy [190,196]. Therefore, the European Academy of Allergy and Clinical Immunology recommended that ultra-low serum IgE concentration had to be considered as a predictor of tumor growth syndrome [196]. The large population-based cohort study (2,320 patients with SIgAD and 23130 controls) demonstrated the association of SIgAD and cancer (especially gastrointestinal) HR = 1.64; CI = 1.07–2.50 [250] (Figure 4).

Level II (compound secondary syndromes)

PMDs lead to the development of a number of additional integral syndromes with complex pathogenesis, which are the result of the combined effect of the pentad immunodependen syndromes in ontogenesis such as sudden unexpected death [251], inborn anatomy anomalies [180], poor nutrition status [252], decrease of life quality

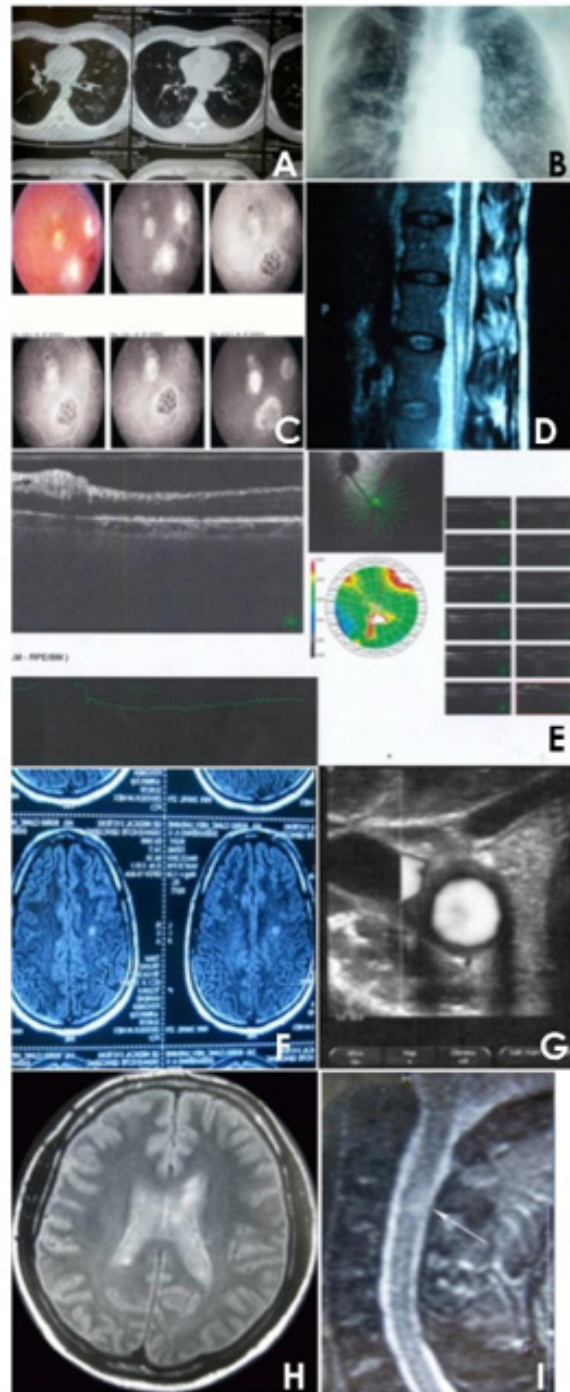


Figure 3. Semiotics of primary minor immunodeficiency manifestations according to paraclinical examinations (own observations):

Horizontal chest CT scan: bilateral interstitial pneumonitis in a patient with SIgMD; B. Anterior chest X-ray: pulmonary sarcoidosis in NKTD; C. Ophthalmoscopic picture of toxoplasma chorioretinitis in MPOD; D. MRI of the lumbosacral spine in sagittal projection in T2-weighted mode: lumbar myelitis of HSV-2 etiology in NKD; E. Optical coherence tomography data: local disorganization of neuroretinal layers in HHV-7-induced ANA-positive uveitis in MBLD; F. MRI of the brain in horizontal projection in FLAIR mode showing diffuse VZV-induced vasculopathy of small cerebral arteries in NKD; G. MRI of the brain in horizontal projection in T2-weighted mode, demonstrating the pattern of HHV-8-induced ventriculitis in ICD4+TL; H. Ultrasonographic data visualizing the phenomenon of pathological thickening of the carotid artery intima-media complex as a manifestation of VZV-induced vasculopathy in NKD; I. MRI of the cervical spine in sagittal projection in T2-weighted mode with a pattern of HHV-8-induced myelitis in ICD4+TL (own observations).

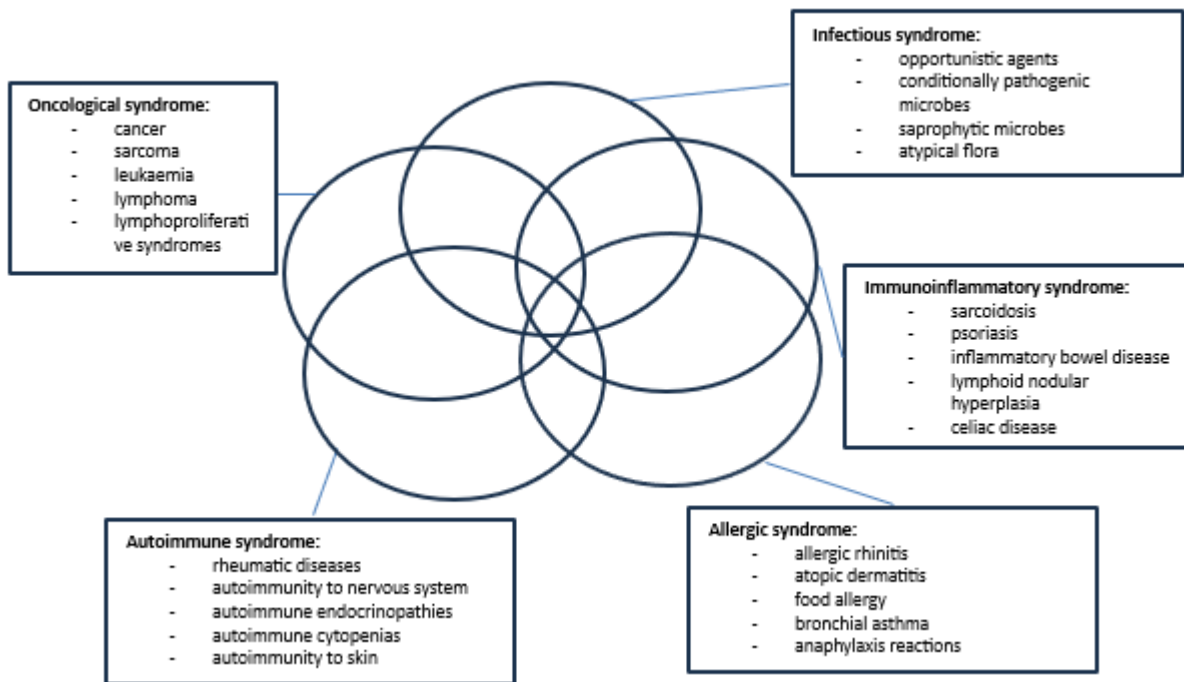


Figure 4. Principal scheme of core PMDs clinical picture—so-called main pentad of immunodependent syndromes.

[253], accumulation of pathological structural changes in organs [189], fertility disorders [254], hemocoagulatory disturbances [255], endocrine disorders [118], intestinal dysfunction [256], premature aging [257], increased mortality [258], the nervous [42] and psychical [259,260] disorders.

A large, controlled study showed a decrease in health-related quality of life in patients with SIgAD. The most significant risk factors for poor quality of life were the number of antibiotic courses per year ($p < 0.001$), the number of medications taken daily ($p < 0.01$), allergic rhinoconjunctivitis ($p < 0.05$), chronic musculoskeletal symptoms ($p < 0.05$), and anxiety and/or insomnia ($p < 0.005$) [253].

Patients with PMD can accumulate pathological structural changes in organs at a young age, such as bronchiectasis in SIgGSD [189] or bronchial tree remodeling due to bronchiolar damage in SsIgAD [189].

A population-based cohort study (613 women with SIgAD and 5,758 pregnant women without immunodeficiency) showed a high rate of low birthweight, prematurity, and caesarean section in women with SIgAD [254].

A population-based study of 57,133 people showed that MBLD doubled the risk of myocardial infarction in persons aged 29–62 (OR = 2.04, 95%CI = 1.29 – 3.24) as an example of premature aging [255].

The development of autoimmune polyendocrinopathies in SIgAD (9.4% of all cases of multiple endocrine gland involvement) leads to secondary disruption of endocrine homeostasis regulations [118]. The cross-sectional clinical study showed that anterior pituitary insufficiency and executive endocrine disorders were typical for humoral immunodeficiencies, including SIgGSD and SPAD [261].

PMDs can induce persistent intestinal dysbiosis [256] and bacterial overgrowth syndrome [262], chronic inflammatory enterocolitis with atypical histological changes [67], and intestinal lymphoid nodular hyperplasia [263], persistent malabsorption syndrome [264] and pathological permeability of the intestinal wall

(leaky gut syndrome) [262] as well as celiac [265] and Moyamoya [266] diseases, which can exist outside of a direct relationship with existing infectious, allergic, and autoimmune syndromes.

Patients with SIgED more often affected by hypertension [34 (37.7%) vs. 187 (18.2%), $p < 0.001$], carotid stenosis [5 (4.9%) vs. 7 (0.7%), $p = 0.003$], coronary heart disease [26 (25.2%) vs. 87 (8.4%), $p < 0.001$], cerebrovascular [3 (2.9%) vs. 5 (0.5%), $p = 0.029$], and peripheral vascular disease [4 (3.9%) vs. 9 (0.9%), $p = 0.024$] [257].

According to the results of a population study, death risk in the first years after SIgAD diagnosis increased by 10 to 15 times [258].

PMD can affect both the central and peripheral nervous systems. Rudolph et al. showed that MPOD leads to autonomic dysfunction with impaired regulation of vascular tone, as the affected enzyme is involved in the regulation of the nitric oxide system [267]. Gibson et al. demonstrated that MBLD was an independent predictor for cerebral palsy development [42].

There is an association of SIgAD with obsessive-compulsive syndrome [260] and autism spectrum disorders [268]. MBLD can be associated with panic attacks and bipolar disorders [269]. A population-based study of 14 million respondents showed that primary humoral immunodeficiencies (including SIgGSD and SPAD) are associated with various physical disorders and suicidal behavior in adulthood development [270]. Data from a cohort study (1973–2013) of 4,294,169 participants indicated primary humoral immunodeficiency in mothers, including selective SIgGSD and SPAD, led to an increased incidence of physical illness and suicidal behavior in children [271].

Level III (modification of another disease)

PMD, manifested by a pentad of major syndromes and secondary to inducing a number of additional phenomena with complex pathogenesis, can affect other genetic [165] and nongenetic [166] human diseases with modifying diseases' manifestations and course, and causing the nosological interaction phenomenon.

PMD can modify [263] and critically complicate, including: by infectious syndrome [272], another genetic disease as Down syndrome and cystic fibrosis. PMDs can facilitate the transmission of highly virulent infectious pathogens (such as HIV) [273], modulate negative classical infections clinical course with complications: viral (including COVID-19 [274] and RSV [275]), bacterial (including brucellosis) [276], or protozoan (including leishmaniasis) [277], and even due to death [278,279]. PMD can aggravate somatic diseases (liver cirrhosis [280], gastritis or peptic ulcer [43], or pneumonia [281,282]). Garcia-Laorden et al. in a clinical trial (of 848 persons with community-acquired pneumonia and 1,447 controls) showed that people with primary MBLD had more severe sepsis ($P = .007$), more frequent acute respiratory failure ($P = .009$), multiorgan dysfunction ($P = .036$), intensive care unit admissions ($P = .020$), and higher mortality ($P = .003$) [283]. However, the severity of some diseases can be paradoxically reduced, for example, mild schistosomiasis in patients with MBLD [85] or protection from COVID-19 complications in SIgAD [284].

Level IV (modification of paraclinical data and interventions)

PMDs can affect the information content of diagnostic tests [285] and instrumental examinations [286], the efficiencies of therapeutic [287,288] and preventive actions [289], surgical interventions [290], and contraception [91]. MPOD can cause pseudo-neutropenia in automated blood formula calculation [285], EPOD prevents the formation of eosinophilia in rheumatoid arthritis exacerbations [291], SIgED complicates the serological diagnosis of atopic allergy [292], SIgAD—celiac disease [293], and SIgMD leads to errors in blood group determination by the ABO system [294]. MPOD causes pseudo-genitive dihydrorhodamine test results in diagnostics of the chronic granulomatous disease [77]. ICD4 + TL due to a false positive diagnosis of AIDS [295].

NKD makes an impact on CT findings in pulmonary alveolar proteinosis [296] and MBLD on radiocontrast-induced renal damage [286].

Patients with PMD have a higher need for drugs [253], impaired drug biotransformation [106], reduced effectiveness of therapy [288] because of lower intestinal drug absorption [264], impaired tolerance to drugs [297, 298] with induction of side effects [299,300–302].

PMDs can reduce the immunization effect of vaccines [289,303,304]. PMDs increase the need for vaccination [212] and frequency of vaccine-associated side effects [305,306].

Koturoglu et al. [287] noted, MBLD is a significant reason for adenoidectomies and tonsillectomies in children due to recurrent bacterial infections of the upper respiratory tract lymphatic organs. SIgMD [307] due to early postoperative infections and CyN [308] changes the perioperative curative strategy in surgery. FBN and CyN can complicate dental interventions [309]. PMDs influence on the choice of anesthesia [310].

NKD is a contraindication to oral contraceptives [91].

PMDs can induce complications in medical procedures such as allogeneic hematopoietic stem cell transplantation [311], bone marrow transplantation [129], and solid organ transplantation [312] (**Figure 5**).

3.6. PMD diagnosis

There are several fundamental stages in PMD diagnosis:

- 1) Physical examination for assessing the current state of the patient's health.
- 2) Anamnesis examination considering the frequency and severity of infectious, allergic, immunoinflammatory, autoimmune, and neoplastic episodes that may be associated with immunodeficiencies, as well as the atypical course of other diseases that may have been affected by immunodeficiency [115,313–315].
- 3) Performing general clinical laboratory tests, including searching for screening signs of PMD (decreased serum gamma-fraction of proteins in hypogammaglobulinemia [316], decreased number of large granular lymphocytes in NKD, NKTD [51], etc.).
- 4) Study of the laboratory phenotype of immunodeficiency underlying immunodeficiency diseases and related manifestations, considering the peculiarities of laboratory diagnostics in such patients [317–320].

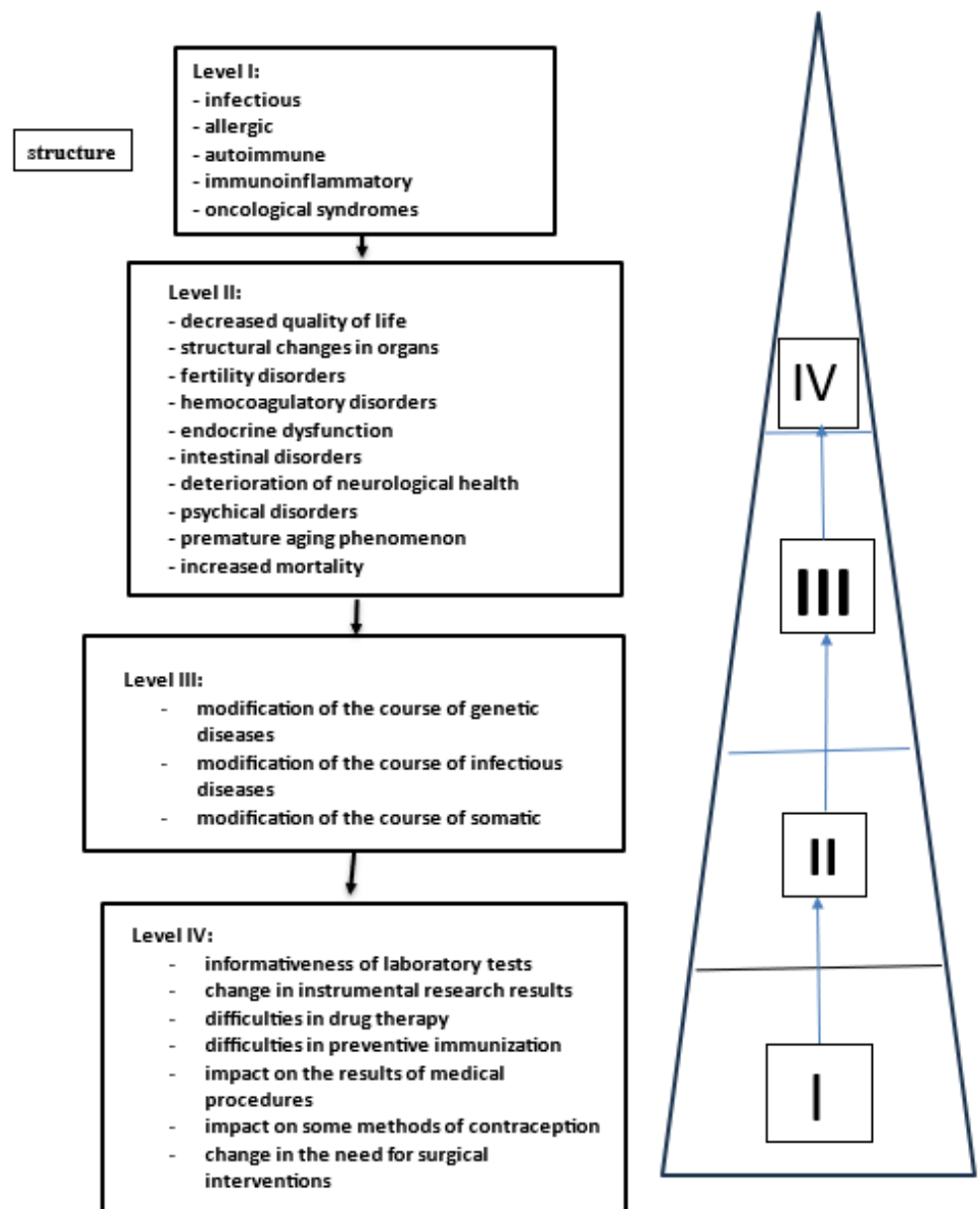


Figure 5. Compound clinical picture of PMD with multilevel structure.

- 5) Integral health assessment to determine the presence and severity of additional phenomena associated with immunodeficiencies, such as fertility disorders, manifestations of premature aging, etc. [321,322].
- 6) Conducting differential diagnosis and formulating a primary clinical diagnosis.
- 7) Performing karyotyping, chromosomal microarray, and/or molecular genetic testing to identify chromosomal aberrations, mutations, or SNPs of genes associated with immunodeficiency [323,324].

It is important to have a proper immunological observation with including the determination of all laboratory parameters related to the identification of common immune system diseases. Currently, there are a few laboratory centers where immunological tests meet the current requirements for PMD diagnosis. Below is a list of tests that should be included in the so-called “*ideal*” immunological observation for the diagnosis of PMD:

- A common analysis of blood with a leukocyte formula.
- Serum immunoglobulin class concentrations (IgM, IgG, IgA, IgE, IgD).
- Serum IgG subclasses concentrations (IgG1, IgG2, IgG3, IgG4).
- Serum IgA subclasses concentrations (IgA1, IgA2).
- Concentration of secretory IgA in saliva, urine, and/or feces.
- Serum titer/concentration measurement for specific antibodies to infectious agents, e.g., anti-pneumococcal antibodies, including before and after anti-pneumococcal vaccine introduction.
- The number of CD3 + CD4 + T-lymphocytes in the blood.
- The number of CD3 + CD8 + T-lymphocytes in the blood.
- The number of CD3 + CD16 +CD56+ lymphocytes in the blood.
- The number of CD3–CD16 +CD56+ lymphocytes in the blood.
- The number of CD3–CD19 + B lymphocytes in the blood.
- The number of CD64+ cells in the blood.
- The concentration of complement system proteins in blood serum (C6–C9).
- The concentration of mannose-binding lectin in the blood serum.
- Serum concentration of serine proteases 1 and 2 associated with mannose-binding lectin.
- Neutrophil MPO activity in the blood.
- Eosinophilic peroxidase activity in the blood (**Table 6**).

3.7. PMD treatment

Lifestyle modifications and symptomatic treatment of comorbidities (anxiety, depression, or insomnia) can significantly improve the life quality of PMD patients [253]. Prophylactic or occasional antibiotic therapy can be used to prevent or treat bacterial infections in immunocompromised patients. In case of viral and fungal diseases, antiviral and antimycotic drugs can be prescribed. It seems obvious that the strategy of antimicrobial chemotherapy does not adequately affect the risk of allergic, autoimmune, and neoplastic PMD complications. Repeated vaccination with a 23-valent conjugate antipneumococcal vaccine and a nonconjugate *Hemophilus influenzae* vaccine can be used in SPAD [212]. The drug OM-85 BV (broncho-vaxom) has undergone several controlled trials to reduce the frequency of infections in patients with SIgAD and SIgGSD [338].

For patients with severe PMD who fail to reduce the frequency of infectious episodes with an antimicrobial treatment strategy, basic immunotherapy is recommended according to the results of controlled trials and clinical reports (level of evidence C, except for intravenous immunoglobulin for humoral immunodeficiencies—B) (panel 2). The advantage of basic immunotherapy is not only the systemic effect on the infectious process but can help with allergic, autoimmune, and neoplastic complications of PMD.

In humoral PMD, 5–10% normal human IgG-containing intravenous immunoglobulin is used as a basic substitutional (replacement or reconstitution [339]) immunotherapy [340,341] with low incidence of side effects [342,343]. During the saturation phase, immunoglobulin is introduced dosage of 600–800 mg/kg/month, and during the maintenance phase, 200–400 mg/kg/month under the control of the results of immuno-

Table 6. Methods of measurement, reference values of laboratory parameters, and criteria for immunodeficiency in the diagnosis of PMD.

Indicator	Method	Reference values	Immunodeficiency criteria	Units	Availability
FBN, CIN, CyN	CBA	2.0–4.5 [47]	<2.0 [47]	$\times 10^9/L$	Available
THI, UH		Total serum concentration of all Ig classes from 7.0 to 18.0	<7.0 [14] or less than 2 SD from the lower limit of normal range for each class of immunoglobulin [94]	g/L	Available
SIgMD	ELISA, nephelometry, Mancini immune-diffusion, radioimmunoassay	0.8–1.6	0.8–0.4—“ <i>unclassified primary antibody deficiency</i> ” (unPAD) [325], “ <i>possible sIgMdef</i> ” (PIgMD) [18]—below 2 SD from the lower limit of normal range [10]; <0.4—total immunodeficiency, SIgMD [95], or “ <i>truly sIgMdef</i> ” [184]	g/L	Available
SIgGD		6–15	<6 [185]	g/L	Available
SIgAD		0.6–2.5	0.6–0.07—partial, <0.07—total immunodeficiency [118]	g/L	Available
SIgED	ELISA	30–100	10–5—partial, 5–0—total immunodeficiency (classic ELISA) [326]; lower 2.0 (modern high-sensitive ELISA) [195, 193]	IU/mL, or kU/L	Available
SIgDD	ELISA	14–85 [92]	<14 [92]	mg/L	Rare
SIgG1D	ELISA, IBA	60–70	<60, <3.6 g/L [90], or less than 2SD of the age median [122]; or IgG1:IgG2:IgG3:IgG4 is equivalent 22:8:2:1 (better demonstrates subclass deficiency than absolute and relative values) [327]	%	Rare
SIgG2D	ELISA, IBA	20–30	<20 or <1.2 g/L [90]; or less than 2SD of the age median [122]; or <IgG1:IgG2:IgG3:IgG4 is equivalent 22:8:2:1 [327]	%	Rare
SIgG3D	ELISA, IBA	5–8	<5 or <0.3 g/L [90] or less than 2SD of the age median [122] or <IgG1:IgG2:IgG3:IgG4 is equivalent 22:8:2:1 [327]	%	Rare
SIgG4D	ELISA, IBA	1–3%	<1 or <0.06 g/L [90] or IgG1:IgG2:IgG3:IgG4 = 22:8:2:1 [327]	%	Rare
SIgA1D	ELISA	IgA1: IgA2 is equivalent 9:1 [328]	<9:1 [328]	—	Rare
SIgA2D	ELISA	IgA2:IgA1=1:9 [328]	<1:9 [328]	—	Rare
SsIgAD	Micro-ELISA, immune-turbidometry	4–30 [329]	<4 [329]	mg/dL	Available
SPAD	ELISA	IgM = 37–75; IgG = 26–79; IgA = 13–44 [330]	Absent or reduced serum concentration of specific antibodies to the causative agent of recurrent infections, especially antipolysaccharide antibodies in pneumococcal lesions, absence or reduced response to the multivalent antipneumococcal vaccine [331] (<0.035 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) [90]	U/mL	Rare
CD4 + TL	FC	500–1,500 [108]	<500 [108]	Cells/ μL	Available
NKD	FC	5–15 [51]	<5 ($75 \times 10^9/L$) [51]	%	Available
NKTD	FC	3–8 [53]	<3 ($45 \times 10^9/L$) [53]	%	Available
CD8D	FC	21–35	<21 ($315 \times 10^9/L$) [70]	%	Available

Table 6. (*Continued*).

Indicator	Method	Reference values	Immunodeficiency criteria	Units	Availability
C6D		45 (\pm 16) or 20–80 [120]	<0.03 for the total form and range from 0 to 37 and even from 0 to 79 for the subtotal form [120]	mcg/mL	Rare
C7D	Hemolytic assay (CHA50, AHA50, LHA50), SDS-PAGE, IBA, ELISA	90 (\pm 36) or 30–180 [332]	<0.03 for the total form [332], 0–27 and even 0–69 for the subtotal form [120]	μ g/mL	Rare
C8D		72.5 (\pm 3.54) [75]	<0.03 for the total form, 13.0 (\pm 0.64), 12.0 (\pm 0.86) and 15.0 (\pm 1.17) as examples of subtotal deficit [75]	μ g/mL	Rare
C9D		28.5–99 [76]	<0.03 for the total form [76]	μ g/mL	Rare
MBLD	ELISA	1000–4500 [333]	1,000–500—partial, <500—total, <50—complete immunodeficiency [335]; or very low (<100), low (200–999) [334]	ng/mL	Rare
MASP2D	ELISA	100–1200 [335]	<100 [105]	ng/mL	Rare
MPOD	ELISA, FC, western blot, guaiacol peroxidation, alanine decarboxylation test	18–23 [336]	<18 [336]	conventional units	Rare
EPOD	Immunohistochemistry	1.25–80 [25,337]	<1.25 [25,337]	ng/mL	Rare

CBA—Common blood analysis

ELISA—Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay

IBA—Immunoblotting analysis

FC—Fluid cytometry

SDS-PAGE—Sodium dodecyl sulphate poly acrylamide gel electrophoresis

globulin concentration measuring [344,345]. In intravenous immunoglobulin intolerance, 10% normal human IgG-containing immunoglobulin for the intramuscular route at a dosage of 25–50 mg/kg/week can be used as an exception to the rule [346]. Normal human IgG-containing immunoglobulin enriched with IgA and IgM can be used for the treatment of isolated deficiencies in these immunoglobulin classes, but the evidence base for the effectiveness of this drug is limited to case reports and the results of small, controlled trials [347]. Immunoglobulin therapy is more than just a replacement treatment. The immunoglobulin drugs can modulate antibody production by affecting B-lymphocytes' Fc-receptors, suppress allergic [348–351], autoimmune, and some neoplastic [352] complications associated with PMD.

Figure 6 shows data from the author's clinical practice, which demonstrates a dramatic positive dynamic of paraclinical signs of severe lesions of organs and systems after the addition of targeted immunotherapy, taking into account not the form of associated immune-dependent lesions, but the form of causal immunodeficiency. The data in this figure clearly demonstrate the enormous potential of stratifying immune-dependent diseases by causal PMDs to ensure targeted immunotherapy of PMDs as an etiological factor of immune-dependent syndromes.

In MBLD, as well as in deficiencies of complement proteins C6–C9, fresh frozen or cryopreserved human blood plasma from a compatible donor is used in an intravenous drip (dosage of 10–15 mL/kg once every 2 weeks) due to enough content of necessary immune factors in healthy human blood serum [353]. Natural [354] and recombinant [355] human mannose-binding protein successfully passed several controlled trials in MBLD. It has advantages over plasma due to greater selectivity and better tolerability [355].

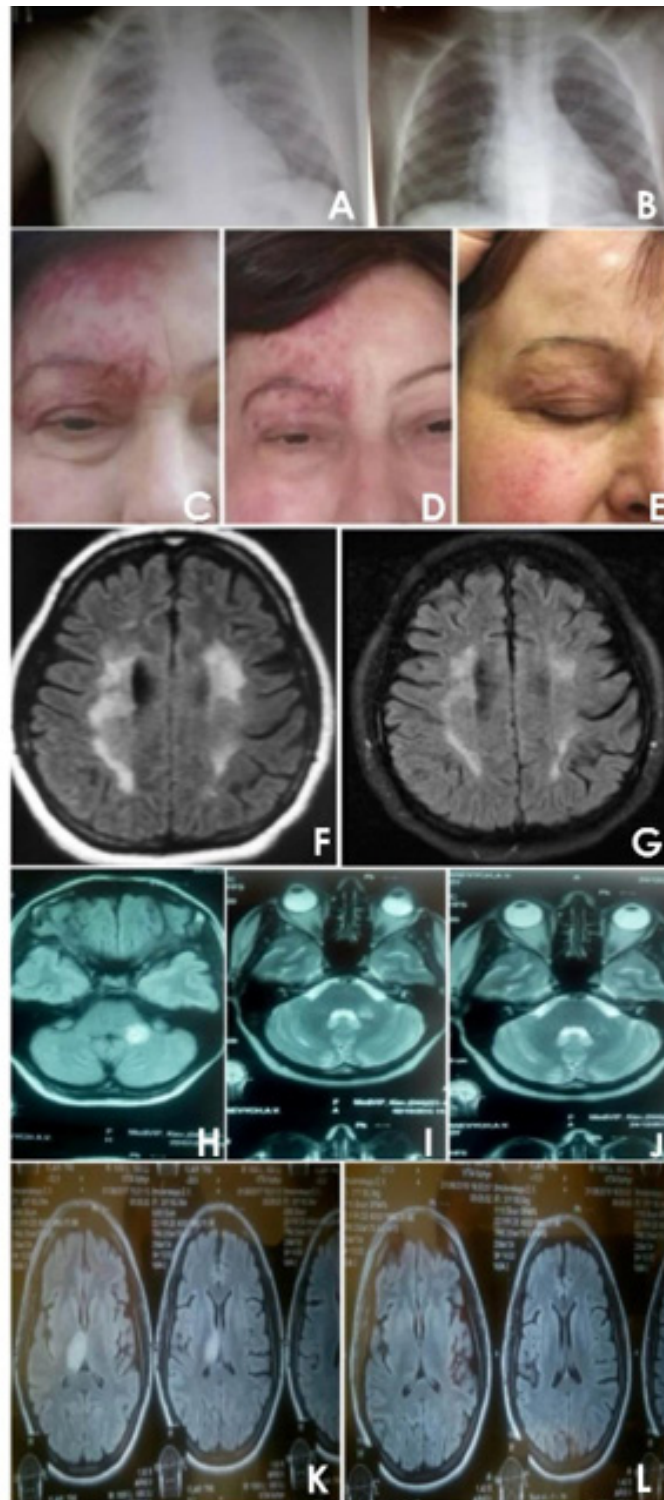


Figure 6. Results of immunotherapy of immunodependent manifestations in primary minor immunodeficiencies (own observations):

Elimination of EBV-induced bilateral interstitial pneumonitis in a child with SIgED with intravenous immunoglobulin therapy (A—before treatment, B—after treatment). Achievement of remission of refractory recurrent herpes zoster in a patient with MBLD on the background of cryopreserved blood plasma (C, D—before treatment, E—after immunotherapy). Positive dynamics of HHV-6-associated multifocal leukoencephalitis during the use of rhIFN γ in MPOD (F, G). Regression of EBV-induced cerebellitis on the background of rhIFN- α 2b immunotherapy for NKD (H—before treatment, I—1 month, J—2 months after the immunotherapy started). Elimination of CMV-induced thalamic encephalitis on the background of rhIFN- α 2b immunotherapy for NKD (K—before immunotherapy, L—after immunotherapy).

In case of cellular immunodeficiencies, cytokine therapy—natural, lymphoblastoid, recombinant α -, β - and γ -interferons (rhIFN- α , - β , - γ), recombinant human interleukin-2 and -7 (rhIL2, rhIL-7)—is used as basic immunotherapy [306,356–358]. The peptide-based immunotherapeutic agent thymosin- α 1 (Th α 1) was successfully tested in clinical trials for ICD4 + TL [359] and NKTD [360] in humans. The controlled trial demonstrated a clear benefit of the long-term continuous immunomodulatory effect of rhIFN- γ in MPOD [336].

In case of primary neutropenia, natural and recombinant human granulocyte and granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factors (rhG-CSF, rhGM-CSF) are prescribed as basic immunotherapeutic agents (dosage of 5–10 μ g/kg by subcutaneous, intramuscular injections, or intravenous infusions) from 3 times a week to twice a month depending of the neutropenia severity, under the blood neutrophil granulocytes count control [361,362]. In contrast to Costman's disease, such therapy does not increase the risk of myelocytic leukaemia development in PMD [78].

Several successful attempts have been made to transplant allogeneic bone marrow into patients with severe ICD4+TL, NKD, SIGAD, and SIGSD, which ensured complete restoration of the immunological phenotype. Suga et al. reported a successful bone marrow transplantation in an 8-year-old boy with severe SIG1D from an HLA-identical MLC-negative sister, as neither prophylactic antibiotic therapy nor intravenous immunoglobulin reduced the frequency of infectious episodes. After transplantation, there was a recovery of serum IgG1 concentration and full compensation of the clinical status [363]. However, there were cases of PMDs' unexpected transmission from the donor to the recipient, such as SIG2D, which indicates the need for a thorough immunological examination of the donors before transplantations [129]. Rarely, allogeneic hematopoietic stem cells have also been successfully transplanted in the case of NKD caused by a GATA2 mutation [364]. However, in PMDs, in case mutant genes were expressed outside the immune system (for example, in hepatocytes in MBLD), bone marrow transplantation can be ineffective.

Panel 2: Immunotherapeutic agents as basic therapy for PMD in humans

Cellular immunodeficiencies:

- Preparations of natural (leukocyte), lymphoblastoid, and recombinant (α 2a-, α 2b-) human IFN-alpha (nhIFN- α , lhIFN- α , rhIFN- α 2a, rhIFN- α 2b) in a dose of 1–3 million IU, intramuscular or subcutaneous once every 48 h [358,365–368];
- Recombinant human IFN-beta1a (rhIFN β 1a), dosage 22–44 μ g (6–12 million IU), three times a week by intramuscular or subcutaneous injections [369];
- Recombinant human IFN- γ (rhIFN γ), dosage of 500,000–2 million IU, intramuscular or subcutaneous use, once every 48 h [306,370,371];
- Recombinant human IL-2 (rhIL-2), dosage of 1.5 million MO per day; four subcutaneous injections with an interval of 3 weeks for a course [357,372,373];
- Recombinant human IL-7 (rhIL-7), dosage of 10 μ g/kg [61,356,374];
- Thymosin-alpha1 (Th α 1), dosage of 1.6 μ g twice a week by intramuscular or subcutaneous [359,360,375];

- Preparations of natural α/β -defensins combined by alarmines/adrenomedullin [53,376] or isolated [377–380], dosage of 2 mL of standardized solution by intramuscular route, once every 24 or 48 h;
- Human dialyzable leukocyte extract (hDLE) for intramuscular administration of 4 mL once a week [3381] and oral of 1 fl of standardized solution once a week [382,383];
- polyinosinic-polycytidylic acid (poly I:C, Poly(I)-Poly(C)), dosage of 10 mg/mL, intranasal [384];
- Reduced L-glutathione (rL-GTH), dosage of 1,000–2,000 mg per day per os [364,385–387];
- Glycyrrhizic acid (GA) at a dose of 400–1600 mg per day per os [24];
- Adoptive T-cell transfer [389];
- Transplantation of allogeneic human hematopoietic cells [364, 390, 391];
- Cord blood transplantation [392];
- Allogenic bone-marrow transplantation [363].

Humoral immunodeficiencies (antibody deficiencies):

- Immunoglobulin replacement therapy (5–10% IgG-containing normal human immunoglobulin for intravenous infusions at a dose of 200–800 mg/kg per month [344,349,393,394] and for intramuscular use at a dose of 25–50 mg/kg per week [346], (or even subcutaneously [395,396]));
- Normal IgG-containing human immunoglobulin enriched with IgA and IgM molecules, dosage of 100–400 mg/kg per month by intravenous infusions [347,397–399];
- Fresh frozen and cryopreserved human blood plasma, dosage of 10–15 mL/kg by intravenous infusions once every two weeks, considering the blood group type [400];
- Transfer factor based on bovine colostrum standardized immune extract, dosage from 1 to 60 g per day per os [401–403];
- Microbial lysate medicines, including OM-85 BV at a dose of 3.5–7 μ g per day per os, a course of 10 days with 20-day intervals [338] and natural beta-glucan at a dose of 900–1800 mg per day per os [404–406];
- Vaccination with 23-valent conjugate antipneumococcal vaccine [212].

Phagocytic immunodeficiencies:

- Recombinant human IFN-gamma (rhIFN γ), dosage of 500,000 IU by intramuscular or subcutaneous injections once every 48 h [336,407];
- Muramyl di(tri)peptide (MDP, MTP) at a dose of 2 mg by intramuscular injections once every 5 days [408,409].

Deficiencies of complement proteins:

- Fresh frozen and cryopreserved human blood plasma, dosage of 10–15 mL/kg by intravenous infusions once every 2 weeks, considering the blood group type [353,354,410];
- natural and recombinant human mannose-binding protein (nhMBL, rhMBL) (in progress) [354,355];
- vaccination with MenB-4C antimeningococcal vaccine [165].

Neutropenia

- Natural and recombinant human granulocyte colony-stimulating factor (rhG-CSF, or filgrastim, lenograstim) by intramuscular or subcutaneous injections in a dose of 10-15 µg/kg 2-3 times a week [313,362,411–413];
- Recombinant human granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor (rhGM-CSF or sargramostim), dosage of 2-3 µg/kg by intramuscular or subcutaneous injections [361];
- Human leukocyte mass [414].

4. Discussion

4.1. Conception of PMDs in humans

This systematic review summarizes the deep and diverse scientific knowledge on PMD in humans, having analyzed all the main clinical attributes of this pathology, from etiology to treatment. The accumulated data allow us to form a theory about PMD. The basis of this theory may be the idea of the heterogeneity and complexity of the phenomenon of immunocompromise in humans. Along with the classic primary immunodeficiencies, rare extreme experiments of nature, there are a large number of minor diseases of the immune system, which are widely represented in the population and form a different pattern of immunocompromise among carriers. These PMDs, by their combined frequency among people and diversity, can explain the origin and heterogeneity of immune-dependent pathology in humans, the association of this pathology with microbial triggers, as well as the tendency to increase its frequency in the population. It can be said that PMD is a universal model of the etiological factor of immune-dependent pathology on a population scale. Recognizing the concept of PMD, we transfer immune-dependent syndromes from the category of idiopathic to the category of symptomatic. This fundamentally changes both theoretical ideas about immune-dependent syndromes and has important practical consequences.

The essence of the concept lies in the fact that PMD, due to the loss of one or more immune factors, forms a state of immune imbalance, which in the long term can lead to the formation of two interrelated phenomena. The first of them is a decrease in immune resistance due to the loss of the function of the affected immune factor. This reduced immune resistance in the clinic is realized in the form of infectious and oncological syndromes. The second phenomenon is called immune dysregulation. This condition is formed due to the loss of reciprocal relationships between immune factors that balance the system, with the loss of one of them. Immune dysregulation, in turn, manifests itself clinically in the form of immunoinflammatory, allergic, and autoimmune syndromes. This is how the main immune-dependent syndromes in PMD are formed.

The relationship between the phenomena of reduced immune resistance and immune dysregulation is obvious. For example, infectious agents that can accumulate in the body of people with PMD as a result of decreased immune resistance can act as triggers of autoimmunity in conditions of immune dysregulation, and the autoimmune reaction itself, mediated by immune dysregulation, can exacerbate the phenomenon of reduced immune resistance due to additional consumption of the affected immune factor when it is involved in the implementation of immune reactions of autoaggression

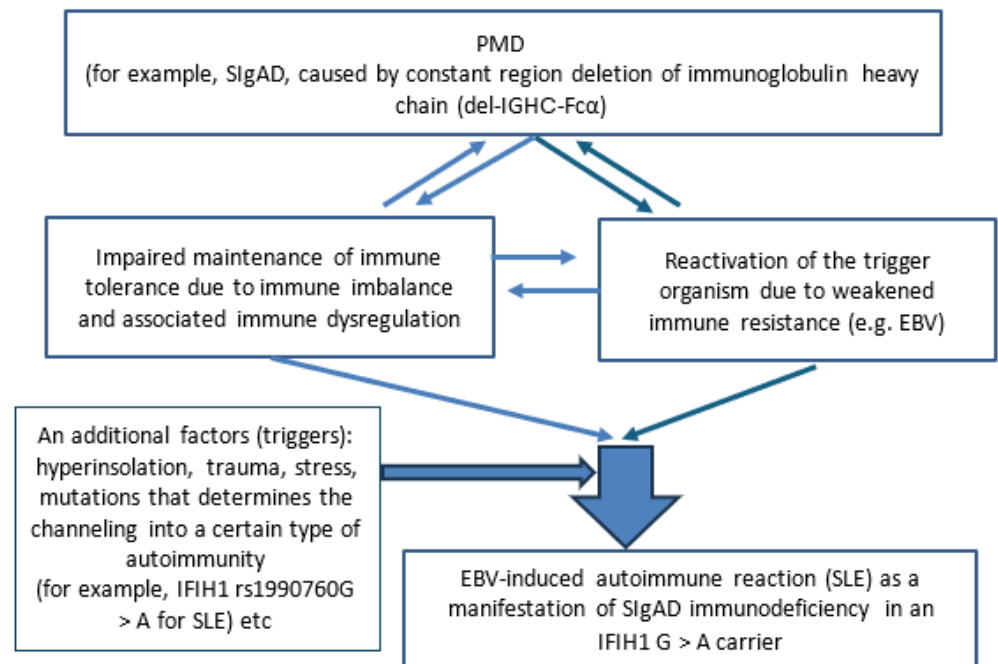


Figure 7. Elementary schematic diagram of the mechanism of induction of autoimmunity in immunocompromised individuals with PMD (for example, system SIgAD-EBV-SLE in IFH1 carrier).

(synergistic effect). However, antagonistic forms of interaction are also possible, when the loss of an immune factor that causes reduced immune resistance can weaken the effector mechanisms of immune-dependent syndromes, if the key component of these mechanisms is the lost immune factor. It can be said that the complex interaction between the phenomena of reduced immunoresistance and immune dysregulation as a manifestation of the dialectical law of struggle and unity of opposites is a kind of internal engine that determines the dynamics of the development of the clinical phenotype of PMD during the interaction of a person with environmental factors during ontogenesis (Figure 7).

4.2. Scientific advancement

No systematic review has been published on the problem of PMD to date. Therefore, this is the first generalization of scientific data in more than 60 years of scientific research. The need for such a generalization has long been overdue. The data obtained allows us to create a foundation for the study of PMD in humans by summarizing and systematizing the scientific data accumulated to date, showing where we are currently on the path of continuous scientific discoveries, to understand the accumulated evidence, identify its advantages, disadvantages, and gaps, and choose the optimal paths for further clinical research. The presented systematic review allows us to take a deeper look at the causes of the development of immune-dependent pathology in humans, the trend of increasing the frequency of such lesions in modern humans, and to improve our knowledge of the mechanisms of development of associated with PMDs infectious pathology, malignant neoplasms, ways of disruption of immune tolerance with the development of autoimmune and allergic pathology, as well as to find ways and means of better management of the pathological pro-

cess. Therefore, these data enrich the arsenal of knowledge of many disciplines—clinical immunology, infectious diseases, oncology, rheumatology, allergology, and many others. At the same time, this will allow us to revise the existing concepts of infectious, oncological, allergic, and autoimmune pathology in humans, making significant adjustments to the ideas about the origin of this pathology, factors of predisposition and prevention, identification of individual risk of formation, diversity of pathogenesis pathways, as well as diagnostic and treatment algorithms. The data presented in this systematic review allows us to initiate additional clinical studies not only in clinical immunology regarding the diagnosis of PMD, the study of their heterogeneity, improvement of approaches to diagnosis and treatment, but also in related disciplines—oncology, infectious diseases, allergology, rheumatology to assess the heterogeneity and multivariate nature of these phenomena, differences in pathogenesis, clinical picture, informativeness of diagnostic tests and effectiveness of therapeutic interventions. It is possible to study the heterogeneity of immune-dependent syndromes depending on different causal PMDs, which affects both the mechanism of development of immune-dependent pathology, prevalence in the population, gender- and age-dependent differences, possibility of approbation of new diagnostic, treatment and prophylactic approaches, and other important clinical attributes.

4.3. Clinical implications

It should be recognized that at present, most PMDs are ignored in clinical practice. There are no requirements for identifying the causes of immune-dependent diseases, which are still considered idiopathic phenomena. This narrows the possibilities of using a multidisciplinary approach and the possibilities of personalized medicine, and deprives access to etiologically treatment. The introduction of the concept and classification of PMD into clinical practice can revolutionize the clinical management of patients with immune-dependent pathology. First, the conceptual approach changes. It is currently postulated that primary immunodeficiencies are rare phenomena. The concept of PMD indicates the opposite, that primary immunodeficiency is a component of the routine practice of a doctor. This increases the requirements for the level of knowledge of general practitioners, as well as specialists in immune-dependent pathology, in clinical immunology. This requires improving access to immunological services, increasing the number of laboratories, expanding the range of available immunological tests, and wider coverage of patients with immunodependent pathologies under the supervision of general practitioners with immunological examinations. This also necessitates significant changes in the interpretation of immunological examination results—it is necessary not to ignore the detected PMDs, but to recognize their clinical significance in accordance with the evidence accumulated so far, to carry out genetic verification of the diagnosis, to include the detected PMDs in the structure of clinical diagnoses as an ethological factor of associated immunodependent pathology, to stratify immune-mediated syndromes by forms of causal PMDs and, conversely, different forms of PMD by types of associated immunodependent pathology, to more widely involve multidisciplinary groups including clinical immunologists, to add etiotropic immunotherapy to the conventional pathogenetic and symptomatic therapy of immunodependent syndromes, which is the basic therapy of causal immunodeficiency, opening the way to

complex personalized treatment. Corresponding changes should be made to statistical documentation and electronic databases of medical histories, as well as to clinical guidelines and recommendations.

4.4. Limitations

It is necessary to admit that PMDs are studied heterogeneously, along with deeply studied immunodeficiencies, such as SIgAD, MBLD. There are nosologies that have been reported quite a bit, for example, EPOD, SIgDD. For some forms of PMD, there are still no thorough reviews, systematic reviews, and meta-analyses. During the long period covered by this systematic review, different laboratory measurement methods, units, and different diagnostic criteria for some PMDs were used, which makes it difficult to compare and generalize the results. Some immunotherapy methods that have been tested for certain PMDs have not yet undergone randomized controlled clinical trials. All these features create certain limitations in the systematization of knowledge about PMDs, and the correction of these shortcomings should be the subject of further clinical research.

4.5. Directions for further research

Analysis of the accumulated scientific data in the field of PMD studies allows us to identify gaps and contradictions that should be the subject of further scientific research. Efforts should be directed to identify new forms of PMD in order to form a holistic picture of the spectrum of these diseases, expand the list of genetic abnormalities underlying these or other PMDs, conduct an in-depth study of the pathogenetic mechanisms of the development of immune-dependent pathology in PMD, clarify data on the correlation between laboratory and clinical phenotype, validate clinical and laboratory criteria for the diagnosis of PMD, improve laboratory tests for the identification of certain forms of PMD, and also develop additional methods of immunotherapy. The goal of such research should be the development of means of primary and secondary prevention of PMD on a population scale to achieve control over the associated immune-dependent pathology.

5. Conclusion

The presented systematic review summarizes the accumulated data on PMD in humans over the past 65 years. This is the first attempt to systematize knowledge on this problem throughout the entire period of its study. Due to the work carried out, it was possible to propose a definition of the term PMD, outline the main differences from classical immunodeficiencies, propose diagnostic criteria for PMD, outline their genetic heterogeneity, differences in prevalence in the population, present the classification of these diseases, demonstrate the structure of the clinical picture, and approaches to diagnosis and treatment. Thus, all clinical attributes of PMD as human diseases were worked out. This allowed us to form a scientific concept of PMD, which can form the basis of both the modern doctrine of PMD in humans and ideas about the state of immunocompromise and immunodependent pathology. The obtained data have significant scientific and practical significance and determine the optimal directions of further scientific research in this area.

Al et al. [197] in their population-based study ask an important question: “*Is There a Clinical Significance of Very Low Serum Immunoglobulin E Level?*” ultimately demonstrating a sharp increase in the frequency of allergic, autoimmune, and oncological syndromes in individuals with this PMD. Thus, physicians should be well informed about the problem of PMD, and this pathology should be widely diagnosed in clinical practice in diverse immune-dependent pathologies. Currently, it is believed that PMDs are common genetic immune diseases that lead to form infectious, allergic, autoimmune, immunoinflammatory, and oncological syndromes, some integral phenomena with a complex pathogenesis (premature aging, fertility disorders, endocrine dysregulation, etc.), modify the course of genetic, infectious and somatic diseases, and create difficulties in diagnostic, therapeutic, and preventive interventions. Due to their high frequency in the population (and for some nosological forms, extremely high) and a sufficient degree of manifestation, PMDs form a great burden on the medical care system, society, and the state, including financial costs, being mostly a hidden phenomenon that is often ignored in clinical practice. The concept of PMD provides information on the etiology of various immunodependent syndromes in humans, which are currently considered mostly idiopathic, and, at the same time, allows for not only pathogenetic and symptomatic but also etiotropic treatment in such cases. Such an approach’s introduction into clinical practice could revolutionize the diagnosis and treatment of PMD-associated immunodependent diseases. This will allow uniting seemingly heterogeneous immunodependent syndromes by a single etiological factor, implementing an integrative approach to patients’ health assessment and clinical management. Therefore, the expected benefit from the proper implementation of PMD diagnostics among patients with immune-dependent diseases and, accordingly, the coverage of these individuals with targeted immunotherapy may be an important step towards improving the health of modern humans. Scientific efforts in this direction are difficult to overestimate.

However, the doctrine of PMD was formed spontaneously, so there are certain difficulties in systematizing knowledge on this problem. Taietti et al., on the example of SIgMD, demonstrate the achievements, controversies, and gaps in the modern scientific view on PMD [399]. Therefore, scientific research into PMDi in humans should be intensified.

Despite certain difficulties, the existing evidence base allows for an appropriate diagnostic and treatment process for PMDs. Vo Ngoc et al. referred to the “*long and winding road*” of scientific research and clinical understanding of PMDs on the SIgAD example [415], emphasizing the unprecedented philosophical and organizational challenges faced by scientists and clinicians in dealing with these diseases [416,417]. We have effective and safe immunotherapeutic approaches to PMDs now [418,419]. “*Forgotten*”, “*ignored*”, and “*underestimated*” PMD should become a more frequent object of clinical research and an important component of the routine clinical practice of medical specialists of various profiles, which can bring medical care for immuno-compromised patients to a qualitatively new level [420–424]. It is necessary to intensify further research into the key clinical attributes of PMD, which will allow the application of etiotropic personalized strategies for the management of patients with immune-dependent pathology, achieving eradication or, at least, deeper

control over the pathological process, and allowing for more effective primary and secondary prevention of immune-mediated pathology at the population scale through the integration of related medical disciplines.

Funding: None.

Ethical approval: Not applicable.

Informed consent statement: Not applicable.

Conflict of interest: The author declares no conflict of interest.

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